We talked a lot about languages representing problems. Consider the problem of adding two numbers. What language class does it belong to?

ECE-374-B: Lecture 9 - Recursion, Sorting and Recurrences

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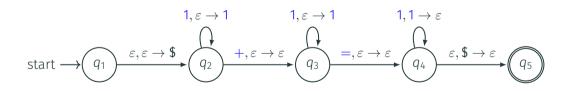
University of Illinois Urbana-Champaign

We talked a lot about languages representing problems. Consider the problem of adding two numbers. What language class does it belong to?

Let's say we are adding two unary numbers.

$$3 + 4 = 7 \rightarrow 111 + 1111 = 1111111$$
 (1)

Seems like we can make a PDA that considers



What if we wanted add two binary numbers?

$$3 + 4 = 7 \rightarrow 11 + 100 = 111$$
 (2)

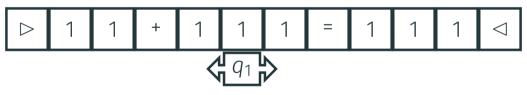
At least context-sensitive b/c we can build a finite Turing machine which takes in the encoding



What if we wanted add two binary numbers?

$$3 + 4 = 7 \rightarrow 11 + 100 = 111$$
 (3)

Computes value on left hand side



What if we wanted add two binary numbers?

$$3 + 4 = 7 \to 11 + 100 = 111 \tag{4}$$

And compares it to the value on the right..

\triangleright	1	1	+	1	1	1	=	1	1	1	\triangleleft
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New Course Section: Introductory

algorithms

Brief intro to the RAM model

Algorithms and Computing

- · Algorithm solves a specific <u>problem</u>.
- Steps/instructions of an algorithm are <u>simple/primitive</u> and can be executed mechanically.
- Algorithm has a <u>finite description</u>; same description for all instances of the problem
- Algorithm implicitly may have <u>state/memory</u>

A computer is a device that

- <u>implements</u> the primitive instructions
- allows for an <u>automated</u> implementation of the entire algorithm by keeping track of state

Models of Computation vs Computers

- Model of Computation: an <u>idealized mathematical construct</u> that describes the primitive instructions and other details
- Computer: an actual <u>physical device</u> that implements a very specific model of computation

In this course: design algorithms in a high-level model of computation.

Question: What model of computation will we use to design algorithms?

Models of Computation vs Computers

- Model of Computation: an <u>idealized mathematical construct</u> that describes the primitive instructions and other details
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In this course: design algorithms in a high-level model of computation.

Question: What model of computation will we use to design algorithms?

The standard programming model that you are used to in programming languages such as Java/C++. We have already seen the Turing Machine model.

Unit-Cost RAM Model

Informal description:

- Basic data type is an integer number
- Numbers in input fit in a word
- · Arithmetic/comparison operations on words take constant time
- Arrays allow random access (constant time to access A[i])
- · Pointer based data structures via storing addresses in a word

Example

Sorting: input is an array of *n* numbers

- input size is *n* (ignore the bits in each number),
- · comparing two numbers takes O(1) time,
- random access to array elements,
- · addition of indices takes constant time,
- basic arithmetic operations take constant time,
- reading/writing one word from/to memory takes constant time.

We will usually do not allow (or be careful about allowing):

- bitwise operations (and, or, xor, shift, etc).
- · floor function.
- · limit word size (usually assume unbounded word size).

What is an algorithmic problem?

What is an algorithmic problem?

An algorithmic problem is simply to compute a function $f: \Sigma^* \to \Sigma^*$ over strings of a finite alphabet.

Algorithm A solves f if for all **input strings** w, A outputs f(w).

Types of Problems

We will broadly see three types of problems.

- Decision Problem: Is the input a YES or NO input?
 Example: Given graph G, nodes s, t, is there a path from s to t in G?
 Example: Given a CFG grammar G and string w, is w ∈ L(G)?
- Search Problem: Find a <u>solution</u> if input is a YES input. Example: Given graph *G*, nodes *s*, *t*, find an *s-t* path.
- Optimization Problem: Find a <u>best</u> solution among all solutions for the input. Example: Given graph *G*, nodes *s*, *t*, find a shortest *s-t* path.

Analysis of Algorithms

Given a problem P and an algorithm \mathcal{A} for P we want to know:

- Does A correctly solve problem P?
- What is the asymptotic worst-case running time of A?
- What is the **asymptotic worst-case space** used by \mathcal{A} .

Asymptotic running-time analysis: A runs in O(f(n)) time if:

"for all n and for all inputs l of size n, \mathcal{A} on input l terminates after O(f(n)) primitive steps."

Algorithmic Techniques

- · Reduction to known problem/algorithm
- · Recursion, divide-and-conquer, dynamic programming
- · Graph algorithms to use as basic reductions
- Greedy

Some advanced techniques not covered in this class:

- Combinatorial optimization
- Linear and Convex Programming, more generally continuous optimization method
- · Advanced data structure
- Randomization
- Many specialized areas

Reductions: Reducing problem A to

problem B:

Problem Given an array A of n integers, are there any <u>duplicates</u> in A?

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Naive algorithm:

```
DistinctElements(A[1..n]) for i = 1 to n - 1 do for j = i + 1 to n do if (A[i] = A[j]) return YES return NO
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Running time:

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```

Running time: $O(n^2)$

Reduction to Sorting

```
DistinctElements(A[1..n])

Sort A

for i = 1 to n - 1 do

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Important point: algorithm uses sorting as a <u>black box</u>

Advantage of naive algorithm: works for objects that cannot be "sorted". Can also consider hashing but outside scope of current course.

Two sides of Reductions

Suppose problem A reduces to problem B

- · Positive direction: Algorithm for B implies an algorithm for A
- Negative direction: Suppose there is no "efficient" algorithm for A then it implies no efficient algorithm for B (technical condition for reduction time necessary for this)

Two sides of Reductions

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Example: Distinct Elements reduces to Sorting in O(n) time

- An $O(n \log n)$ time algorithm for Sorting implies an $O(n \log n)$ time algorithm for Distinct Elements problem.
- If there is $\underline{no}\ o(n\log n)$ time algorithm for Distinct Elements problem then there is $\underline{no}\ o(n\log n)$ time algorithm for Sorting.

Recursion as self reductions

Recursion

Reduction: reduce one problem to another

Recursion: a special case of reduction

- · reduce problem to a <u>smaller</u> instance of <u>itself</u>
- self-reduction

Recursion

Reduction: reduce one problem to another

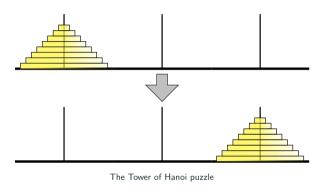
Recursion: a special case of reduction

- reduce problem to a <u>smaller</u> instance of <u>itself</u>
- self-reduction
- Problem instance of size n is reduced to <u>one or more</u> instances of size n-1 or less.
- For termination, problem instances of small size are solved by some other method as <u>base cases</u>

Recursion

- · Recursion is a very powerful and fundamental technique
- Basis for several other methods
 - Divide and conquer
 - Dynamic programming
 - · Enumeration and branch and bound etc
 - Some classes of greedy algorithms
- Makes proof of correctness easy (via induction)
- Recurrences arise in analysis

Tower of Hanoi

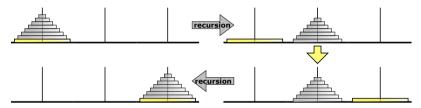


Move stack of n disks from peg 0 to peg 2, one disk at a time.

Rule: cannot put a larger disk on a smaller disk.

Question: what is a strategy and how many moves does it take?

Tower of Hanoi via Recursion



The Tower of Hanoi algorithm; ignore everything but the bottom disk $% \left\{ 1\right\} =\left\{ 1\right\}$

Recursive Algorithm

```
Hanoi(n, src, dest, tmp):

if (n > 0) then

Hanoi(n - 1, src, tmp, dest)

Move disk n from src to dest

Hanoi(n - 1, tmp, dest, src)
```

Recursive Algorithm

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T(n): time to move n disks via recursive strategy

$$T(n) = 2T(n-1) + 1$$
 $n > 1$ and $T(1) = 1$

Analysis

$$T(n) = 2T(n-1) + 1$$

$$= 2^{2}T(n-2) + 2 + 1$$

$$= ...$$

$$= 2^{i}T(n-i) + 2^{i-1} + 2^{i-2} + ... + 1$$

$$= ...$$

$$= 2^{n-1}T(1) + 2^{n-2} + ... + 1$$

$$= 2^{n-1} + 2^{n-2} + ... + 1$$

$$= (2^{n} - 1)/(2 - 1) = 2^{n} - 1$$

Sorting

Input Given an array of n elementsGoal Rearrange them in ascending order

1. **Input**: Array A[1...n]

ALGORITHMS

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4. Merge the sorted arrays

AGHILMORST

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- Use a new array C to store the merged array
- · Scan A and B from left-to-right, storing elements in C in order

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AGLOR HIMST AGHILMORST

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• Merge two arrays using only constantly more extra space (in-place merge sort): doable but complicated and typically impractical.

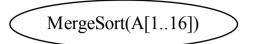
Formal Code

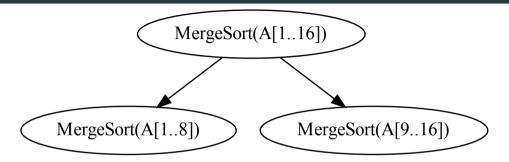
```
\begin{split} & \underline{\text{MERGESORT}(A[1 .. n]):} \\ & \text{if } n > 1 \\ & m \leftarrow \lfloor n/2 \rfloor \\ & \text{MERGESORT}(A[1 .. m]) \\ & \text{MERGESORT}(A[m+1 .. n]) \\ & \text{MERGE}(A[1 .. n], m) \end{split}
```

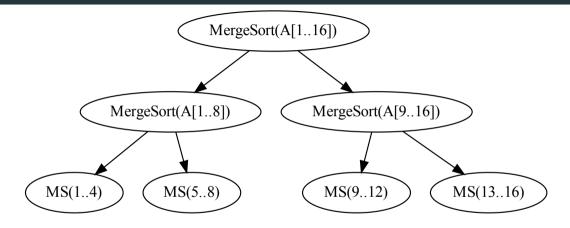
```
Merge(A[1..n], m):
  i \leftarrow 1; j \leftarrow m + 1
  for k \leftarrow 1 to n
         if j > n
               B[k] \leftarrow A[i]; i \leftarrow i+1
         else if i > m
                B[k] \leftarrow A[j]; j \leftarrow j+1
         else if A[i] < A[i]
               B[k] \leftarrow A[i]; i \leftarrow i + 1
         else
               B[k] \leftarrow A[j]; j \leftarrow j+1
  for k \leftarrow 1 to n
         A[k] \leftarrow B[k]
```

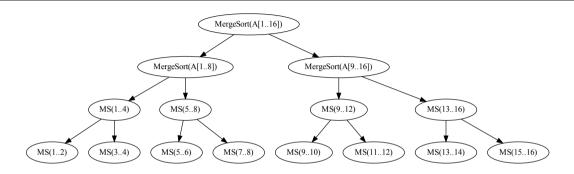
Running time analysis of merge-sort:

Recursion tree method



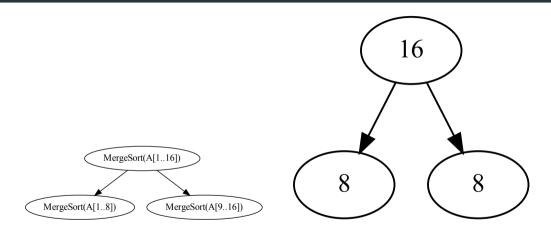


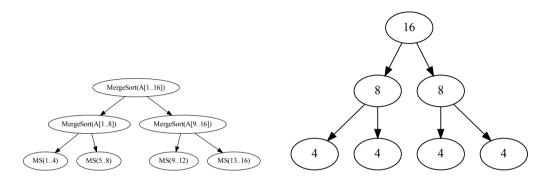


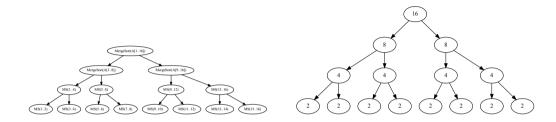


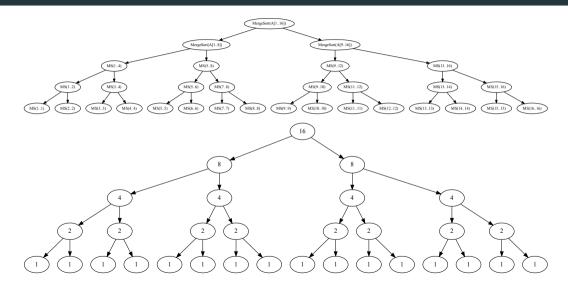


MergeSort(A[1..16]) 16

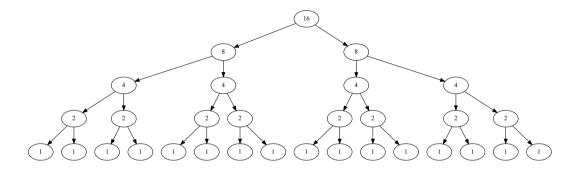








Recursion tree: Total work?



Running Time

T(n): time for merge sort to sort an n element array

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$$T(n) = T(\lfloor n/2 \rfloor) + T(\lceil n/2 \rceil) + cn$$

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What do we want as a solution to the recurrence?

Almost always only an <u>asymptotically</u> tight bound. That is we want to know f(n) such that $T(n) = \Theta(f(n))$.

- T(n) = O(f(n)) upper bound
- $T(n) = \Omega(f(n))$ lower bound

Solving Recurrences: Some Techniques

- Know some basic math: geometric series, logarithms, exponentials, elementary calculus
- Expand the recurrence and spot a pattern and use simple math
- Recursion tree method imagine the computation as a tree
- Guess and verify useful for proving upper and lower bounds even if not tight bounds

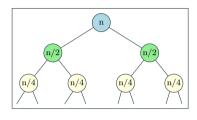
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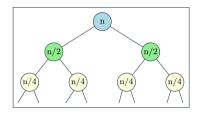
Albert Einstein: "Everything should be made as simple as possible, but not simpler."

Know where to be loose in analysis and where to be tight. Comes with practice, practice, practice!

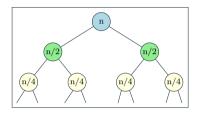
Recursion Trees : MergeSort: n is a power of 2



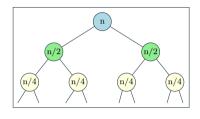
• Unroll the recurrence. T(n) = 2T(n/2) + cn



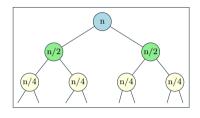
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- · Identify a pattern.



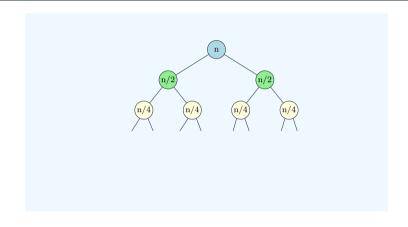
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- · Identify a pattern. At the *i*plevel total work is *cn*.

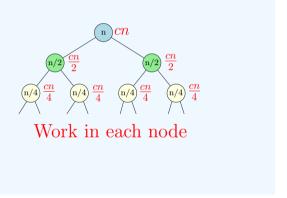


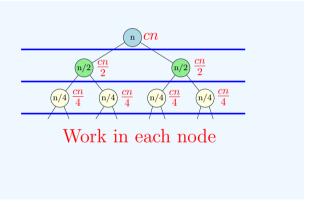
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- · Sum over all levels.

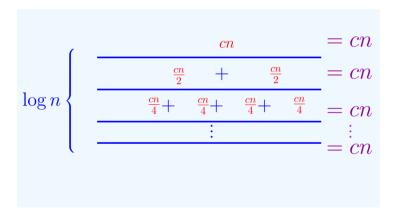


- Unroll the recurrence. T(n) = 2T(n/2) + cn
- Identify a pattern. At the *i*plevel total work is *cn*.
- Sum over all levels. The number of levels is $\log n$. So total is $cn \log n = O(n \log n)$.









$$\log n \left\{ \begin{array}{c|c} \frac{cn}{\frac{cn}{2} + \frac{cn}{2}} = \frac{cn}{2} \\ \frac{\frac{cn}{4} + \frac{cn}{4} + \frac{cn}{4} + \frac{cn}{4}}{= \frac{cn}{2}} = \frac{+}{cn} \\ \vdots = \frac{+}{cn} \\ = cn \\ = cn \\ \end{array} \right.$$

Merge Sort Variant

Question: Merge Sort splits into 2 (roughly) equal sized arrays. Can we do better by splitting into more than 2 arrays? Say k arrays of size n/k each?

Binary Search

Binary Search in Sorted Arrays

Input Sorted array A of n numbers and number x
Goal Is x in A?

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```
BinarySearch (A[a..b], x):

if (b-a<0) return NO

mid = A[\lfloor (a+b)/2 \rfloor]

if (x=mid) return YES

if (x < mid)

return BinarySearch (A[a..\lfloor (a+b)/2 \rfloor -1], x)

else

return BinarySearch (A[\lfloor (a+b)/2 \rfloor +1..b], x)
```

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```

Analysis: $T(n) = T(\lfloor n/2 \rfloor) + O(1)$. $T(n) = O(\log n)$. **Observation:** After k steps, size of array left is $n/2^k$