



Algorithms and Data Structures

Lecture 7 Divide and Conquer

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故用兵之法，十則圍之，五則攻之，
倍則分之，敵則能戰之，少則能守
之，不若則能避之。

*"It is the rule in war, if ten times
the enemy's strength, surround
them; if five times, attack them; if
double, be able to divide them; if
equal, engage them; if fewer, be
able to evade them; if weaker, be
able to avoid them."*

---"Chapter III Strategic Attack" 500BC



Algorithm Design Strategy: Divide-and-Conquer

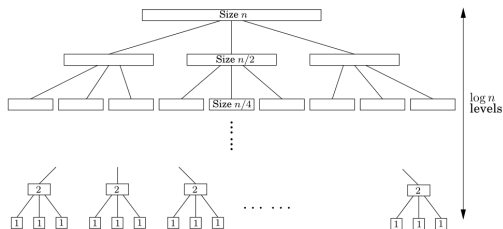
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- The technique used is called **divide-and-conquer**

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Divide-and-Conquer as an algorithm design technique

The **divide-and-conquer** technique solves a computational problem by dividing it into one or more subprograms of smaller size, conquering each of them by solving them recursively, and then combining their solutions into a solution for the original problem.



Divide-and-Conquer

General Divide-and-Conquer Strategy

if $n \leq n_0$ then

 directly solve problem without dividing

else

divide problem into a subproblems of size n/b each

 for $i \leftarrow 0$ to $a - 1$ do

recursively solve the i th subproblem

combine the a solutions into a solution of the original problem

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Running Time Analysis

Come up with a recurrence: $T(n) = aT(n/b) + f(n)$

Example 1: Karatsuba's Algorithm

Karatsuba's algorithm

Given two input numbers x, y : if x, y both have length 1 then
 directly multiply x, y
else
 divide each x and y into two numbers and
 obtain 3 subproblems of size $n/2$ each
 for each subprogram do
 recursively solve the i th subproblem
 add the 3 solutions

Time complexity: $T(n) = 3T(n/2) + cn$.

Example 2: Binary Search

Problem

Search for a number from a **sorted** sequence of numbers.

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Search from a number from a **sorted** sequence of numbers.

e.g. Search for the number 64.

0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15
0	29	43	45	56	58	71	78	83	91	95	99	156	171	222	291
0	29	43	45	56	58	71	78	83	91	95	99	156	171	222	291
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0	29	43	45	56	58	71									
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						71									
						71									

The number 64 does not belong to the sequence.

Example 2: Binary Search

```
function BinarySearch(arr, target, start, end)  
  INPUT: Integer array arr, indices start, end, integer target  
  OUTPUT: Yes if target is in arr; No otherwise  
  if start > end then  
    return "the element doesn't belong to the sequence"  
  middle  $\leftarrow \lceil (\textit{start} + \textit{end}) / 2 \rceil$   
  if arr[middle] = target then  
    return "the element is found"  
  else if target < arr[middle] then  
    return BinarySearch(arr, target, start, middle - 1)  
  else  
    return BinarySearch(arr, target, middle + 1, end)
```

Example 2: Binary Search

function BinarySearch(*arr, target, start, end*)

INPUT: Integer array *arr*, indices *start, end*, integer *target*

OUTPUT: Yes if *target* is in *arr*; No otherwise

if *start* > *end* **then**

return “the element doesn’t belong to the sequence”

middle $\leftarrow \lceil (start + end) / 2 \rceil$

if *arr*[*middle*] = *target* **then**

return “the element is found”

else if *target* < *arr*[*middle*] **then**

return BinarySearch(*arr, target, start, middle - 1*)

else

return BinarySearch(*arr, target, middle + 1, end*)

Time complexity: $T(n) = T(n/2) + c$

Runtime Analysis

Question. Is there a general scheme to evaluate the time complexity of divide-and-conquer algorithms?

Divide and Conquer

The *running time* $T(n)$ of a Divide-and-Conquer algorithm can normally be specified by

$$T(n) = aT(n/b) + f(n).$$

The problem is entirely mathematical: [Solve the above recursion.](#)

Master Theorem

What is the master theorem?

The **master theorem** provides a direct way to solve recurrence of the form

$$T(n) = aT(n/b) + f(n)$$

where $a \geq 1$, $b > 1$ are constants and $f(n)$ is a **positive function**.

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Examples

- $T(n) = 3T(n/2) + n^2$
- $T(n) = 16T(n/2) + 3n \log n$
- $T(n) = T(n/2) + 3$
- $T(n) = \sqrt{2}T(n/4) + n^{0.51}$

Intuitive Version

The master theorem allows us to solve the recurrence

$$T(n) = aT(n/b) + f(n)$$

by comparing the function $f(n)$ with $n^{\log_b a}$.

There are three cases:

- Case 1: $f(n)$ is **much smaller** than $n^{\log_b a}$.
Then $T(n)$ has complexity $n^{\log_b a}$.
- Case 2: $f(n)$ is **the same** with $n^{\log_b a}$.
Then $T(n)$ has complexity $n^{\log_b a} \log n$.
- Case 3: $f(n)$ is **much bigger** than $n^{\log_b a}$.
Then $T(n)$ has complexity $f(n)$.

Master theorem

Let $\alpha \geq 1$ and $b > 1$, let $f(n)$ be a **positive function**, and let $T(n)$ be defined as:

$$T(n) = aT(n/b) + f(n),$$

where we interpret n/b to mean either $\lfloor n/b \rfloor$ or $\lceil n/b \rceil$. Then there are three cases:

- ① If $f(n)$ is $O(n^{\log_b a - e})$ for some constant $e > 0$, then

$$T(n) = \Theta(n^{\log_b a}).$$

- ② If $f(n)$ is $\Theta(n^{\log_b a})$, then

$$T(n) = \Theta(n^{\log_b a} \log n).$$

- ③ If $f(n)$ is $\Omega(n^{\log_b a + e})$ for some constant $e > 0$, and the **regularity condition** $af(n/b) \leq rf(n)$ for some $r < 1$ holds, then

$$T(n) = \Theta(f(n)).$$

Note: Most of the functions we see satisfy the regularity condition.

Examples

- $T(n) = 9T(n/3) + n.$

- $T(n) = 4T(n/2) + n^2.$

- $T(n) = 3T(n/3) + n^2.$

Examples

- $T(n) = 9T(n/3) + n$.
 $a = 9, b = 3, f(n) = n, n^{\log_b a} = n^2$.
 $f(n)$ is $O(n^{2-e})$ for some e (say $e = 0.5$).
Hence we apply case 1.
 $T(n)$ is $\Theta(n^2)$.
- $T(n) = 4T(n/2) + n^2$.
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- $T(n) = 4T(n/2) + n^2$.
 $a = 4, b = 2, f(n) = n^2, n^{\log_b a} = n^2$.
 $f(n)$ is $\Theta(n^2)$. Hence we apply case 2.
 $T(n)$ is $\Theta(n^2 \log n)$.
- $T(n) = 3T(n/3) + n^2$.

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 $f(n)$ is $\Theta(n^2)$. Hence we apply case 2.
 $T(n)$ is $\Theta(n^2 \log n)$.
- $T(n) = 3T(n/3) + n^2$.
 $a = 3, b = 3, f(n) = n^2, n^{\log_b a} = n^{\log_3 3} = n$.
 $f(n)$ is $\Omega(n^e)$ for some e (say $e = 0.5$).
Hence we apply case 3.
 $T(n)$ is $\Theta(n^2)$.

Note: Master theorem holds without assuming n is a power of b .

Cases where master theorem doesn't work

- When $a < 1$.
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- When $f(n)$ is **smaller** than $n^{\log_b a}$ but is **not small enough**:
($f(n)$ is $O(n^{\log_b a})$ but $f(n)$ is not $O(n^{\log_b a - e})$ for any $e > 0$)
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- When $f(n)$ is **bigger** than $n^{\log_b a}$ but is **not big enough**:
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- $f(n) = cn$
- cn is $O(n^{1.59-0.1})$

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Running time: $T(n) = 3T(n/2) + cn$

- $n^{\log_b a} = n^{\log_2 3} \approx n^{1.59}$
- $f(n) = cn$
- cn is $O(n^{1.59-0.1})$

Case 1: cn is **much smaller** than $n^{\log_2 3}$.

$\Rightarrow T(n)$ is $\Theta(n^{\log_2 3})$

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- $f(n) = c$
- c is $\Theta(1)$

Example 2: Binary Search

Running time: $T(n) = T(n/2) + c$

- $n^{\log_2 1} = n^0 = 1$
- $f(n) = c$
- c is $\Theta(1)$

Case 2: c has the same asymptotic growth as n^0 .
 $\Rightarrow T(n)$ is $\Theta(\log n)$

In this lecture, we introduce the algorithm design strategy: **divide and conquer**.

- Divide the problem of size n into one or more subproblems of smaller size
- Conquer each sub-problem by solving them recursively
- Combine their solutions into a solution for the original problem

Examples:

- Karatsuba's algorithm
- Binary search

Analysis of the time complexity of divide and conquer algorithms:
 $T(n) = aT(n/b) + f(n)$: **Master theorem**: Three cases.

