

# Analysis of Algorithms

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Chapter 5.1, 5.2, 5.4



# ROAD MAP



- **Divide And Conquer**
  - Mergesort
  - Quicksort
  - Multiplication of large integers
  - Strassen's Matrix multiplication



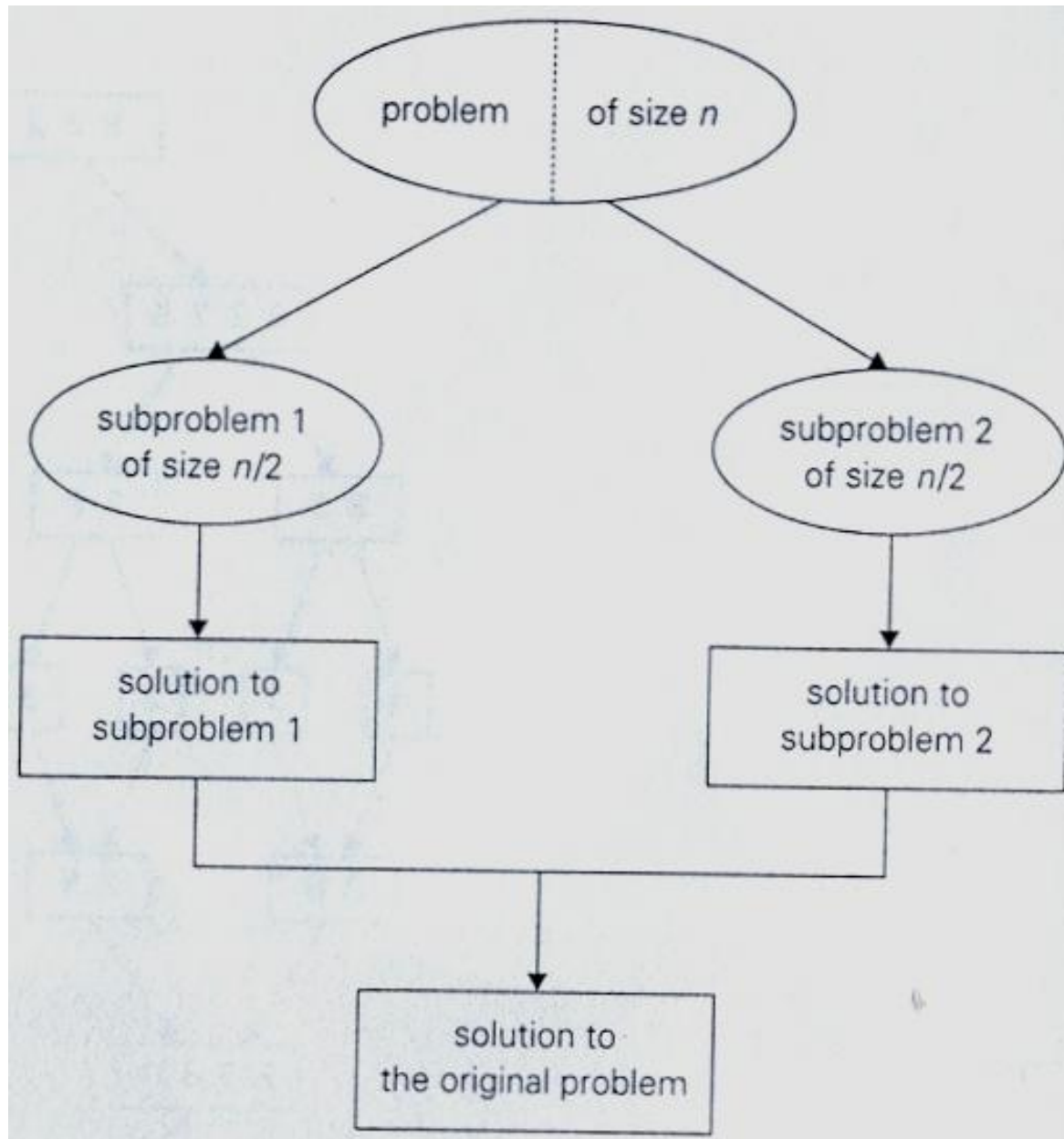
# Divide And Conquer

*A well known general algorithm design technique*

## **Approach:**

- A problem's instance is divided into several smaller instances of the same problem
  - ideally of about the same size
- The smaller instances are solved
  - typically recursively
- The solutions obtained for the smaller instances are combined to get a solution to the original problem

# Divide And Conquer





# Divide And Conquer

- Algorithm :

D&C (P)

if small (P) then return S(P)

else

{

    divide P into  $P_1, P_2, \dots, P_k$       $k \geq 1$

    apply D&C to  $P_i$

    return combine ( D&C ( $P_1$ ) , ... , D&C ( $P_k$ ) )

}



# Divide And Conquer

- Analysis :

$$T(P) = T(P_1) + T(P_2) + \dots + T(P_a) + \underbrace{f(n)}_{\text{to divide \& combine}}$$

$$T(n) = T(n_1) + T(n_2) + \dots + T(n_a) + f(n)$$

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

# General Divide-and-Conquer Recurrence



$$T(n) = aT(n/b) + f(n) \quad \text{where } f(n) \in \Theta(n^d), \quad d \geq 0$$

Master Theorem:    If  $a < b^d$ ,     $T(n) \in \Theta(n^d)$   
                              If  $a = b^d$ ,     $T(n) \in \Theta(n^d \log n)$   
                              If  $a > b^d$ ,     $T(n) \in \Theta(n^{\log_b a})$

Note: The same results hold with  $O$  instead of  $\Theta$ .

Examples:  $T(n) = 4T(n/2) + n \Rightarrow T(n) \in ?$   
               $T(n) = 4T(n/2) + n^2 \Rightarrow T(n) \in ?$   
               $T(n) = 4T(n/2) + n^3 \Rightarrow T(n) \in ?$



# A simple Example

## Problem:

- Compute the sum of  $n$  numbers

## Approach:

- Divide the problem into two subproblems
- What about the analysis?
  - Is it more efficient than brute force approach?



# ROAD MAP



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# Mergesort

- Mergesort is a perfect example of a successful application of divide & conquer technique
- Solves the sorting problem
- Given array  $A[0 \dots n-1]$

## Approach :

1. divide array into two halves  
 $A[0 \dots n/2-1]$  and  $A[n/2 \dots n-1]$
2. sort each half recursively
3. merge two smaller sorted arrays into a single sorted one



# Mergesort

- **ALGORITHM** Mergesort ( $A[0..n-1]$ )

```
// sorts array  $A[0..n-1]$  by recursive mergesort  
// input   : An array  $A[0..n-1]$  of orderable elements  
// output  : Array  $A[0..n-1]$  sorted in nondecreasing  
order
```

If  $n > 1$

copy  $A[0..(n/2)-1]$  to  $B[0..(n/2)-1]$

copy  $A[n/2..n-1]$  to  $C[0..(n/2)-1]$

Mergesort ( $B[0..(n/2)-1]$ )

Mergesort ( $C[0..(n/2)-1]$ )

Merge ( $B, C, A$ )

# Mergesort

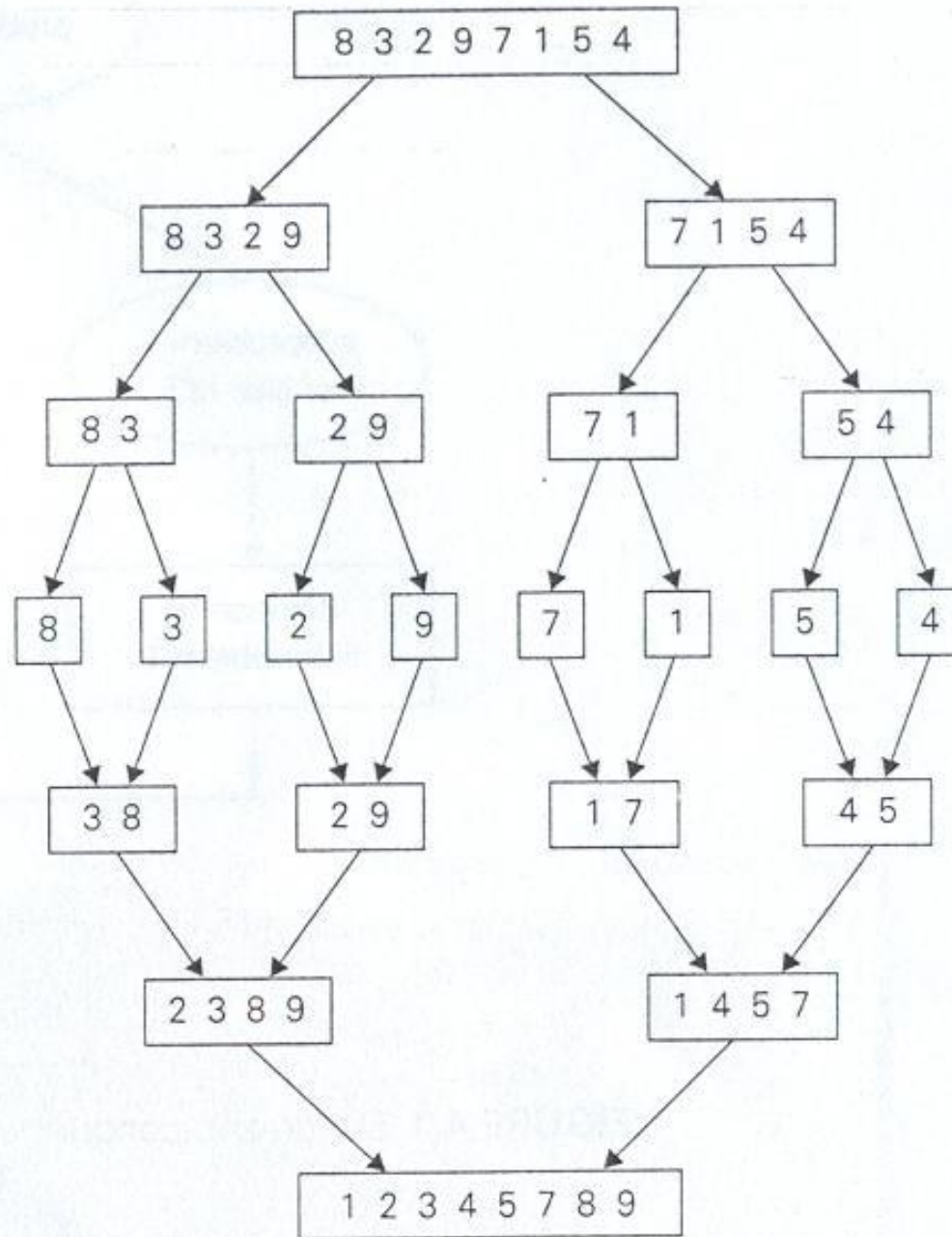
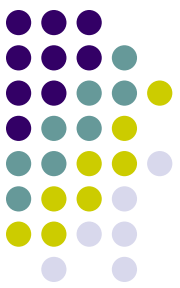


- **ALGORITHM Merge** ( $B[0..p-1], C[0..q-1], A[0..p+q-1]$ )

```
// Merges two sorted arrays into one sorted array
// Input   : Arrays  $B[0..p-1]$  and  $C[0..q-1]$  both sorted
// Output  : Sorted array  $A[0..p+q-1]$  of the elements of
B and C
```

```
 $i \leftarrow 0$  ;  $j \leftarrow 0$ ,  $k \leftarrow 0$ 
while  $i < p$  and  $j < q$  do
    if  $B[i] \leq C[j]$ 
         $A[k] \leftarrow B[i]$ ;  $i \leftarrow i+1$ 
    else
         $A[k] \leftarrow C[j]$ ;  $j \leftarrow j+1$ 
     $k \leftarrow k+1$ 
if  $i = p$     copy  $C[j..q-1]$  to  $A[k .. p+q-1]$ 
else        copy  $B[i..p-1]$  to  $A[k .. p+q-1]$ 
```

# Mergesort Example





# Mergesort

## Analysis :

Count the number of comparisons

$$C(n) = 2C(n/2) + C_{merge}(n) \quad \text{for } n > 1,$$

$$C(1) = 0$$

What about the merge operation?

- Worst case: when the smaller comes from alternating array

$$C_{merge}(n) = n - 1$$



# Mergesort

## Analysis :

$$C_w(n) = 2C_w(n/2) + n - 1 \quad \text{for } n > 1,$$

$$C_w(1) = 0$$

By backward substitution

$$C_w(n) = n \log_2 n - n + 1 = O(n \log n)$$

Or we can use Master Theorem if asymptotic solution is sufficient



# Mergesort

- **Discussion :**

- Perfect example of a successful application of divide & conquer technique
- Optimal with respect to number of comparisons
- Disadvantages
  - Extra space used in Merge
    - How big it is?
    - How to reduce?
  - Recursive calls – stack space
    - use insertion sort for small # of elements
    - iterative



# ROAD MAP



- **Divide And Conquer**
  - Mergesort
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# Quicksort

- Quicksort is an important sorting algorithm based on D & C strategy
- It sorts a given array  $\mathbf{A}[0 \dots n-1]$

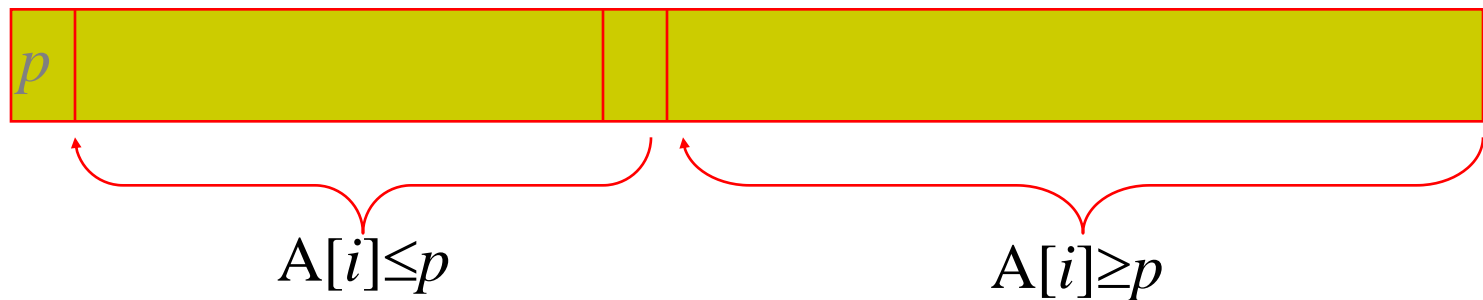


# Quicksort

Given an array  $A[0 \dots n-1]$

## Approach :

- Select a *pivot* (partitioning element) – here, the first element
- Rearrange the list so that all the elements in the first  $s$  positions are smaller than or equal to the pivot and all the elements in the remaining  $n-s$  positions are larger than or equal to the pivot



- Exchange the pivot with the last element in the first (i.e.,  $\leq$ ) subarray — the pivot is now in its final position
- Sort the two subarrays recursively



# Quicksort

**ALGORITHM**    Quicksort ( $A[l..r]$ )

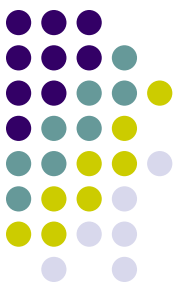
```
// Sorts a subarray by quicksort
// Input   : A subarray  $A[l..r]$  of  $A[0..n-1]$ ,
             defined by its left and right indices  $l$  and  $r$ 
// Output  : The subarray  $A[l..r]$  sorted in
             nondecreasing order
```

```
If  $l < r$ 
     $s \leftarrow \text{Partition}(A[l..r])$ 
    //  $s$  is a split position
    Quicksort( $A[l..s-1]$ )
    Quicksort( $A[s+1..r]$ )
```



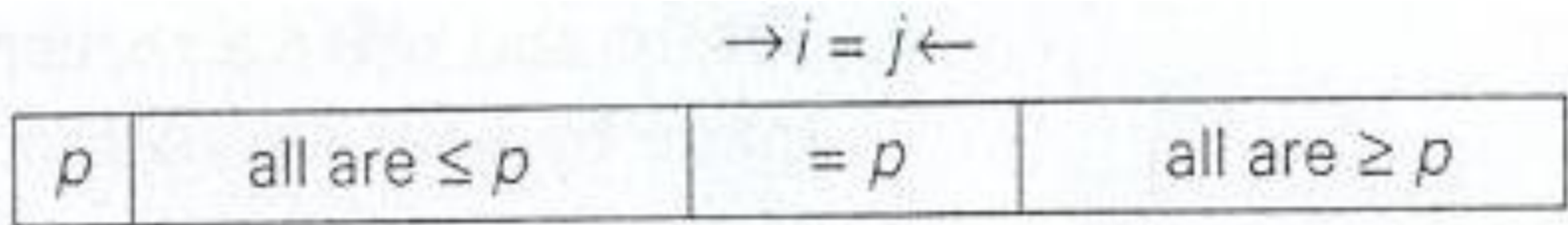
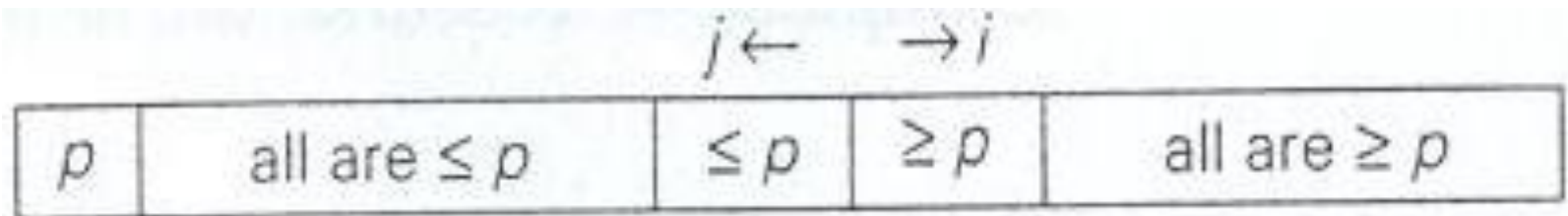
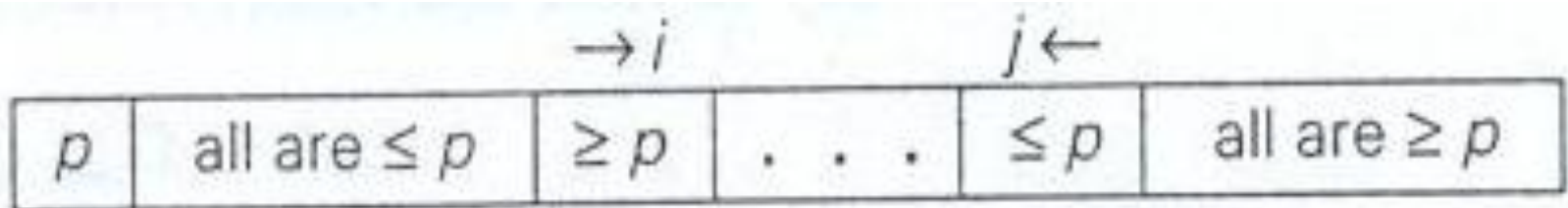
# Quicksort

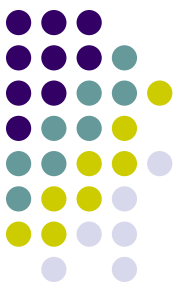
- How to achieve a partition of  $A[0..n-1]$  ?
  - Select an element with respect to whose value we are going to divide subarray
    - this element is called ***pivot***
- There are several strategies to select a pivot.
- For now we use the simplest strategy
  - Pivot is subarray's first element;  $p=A[0]$



# Quicksort

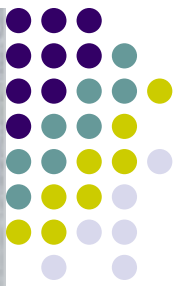
- Partitioning :



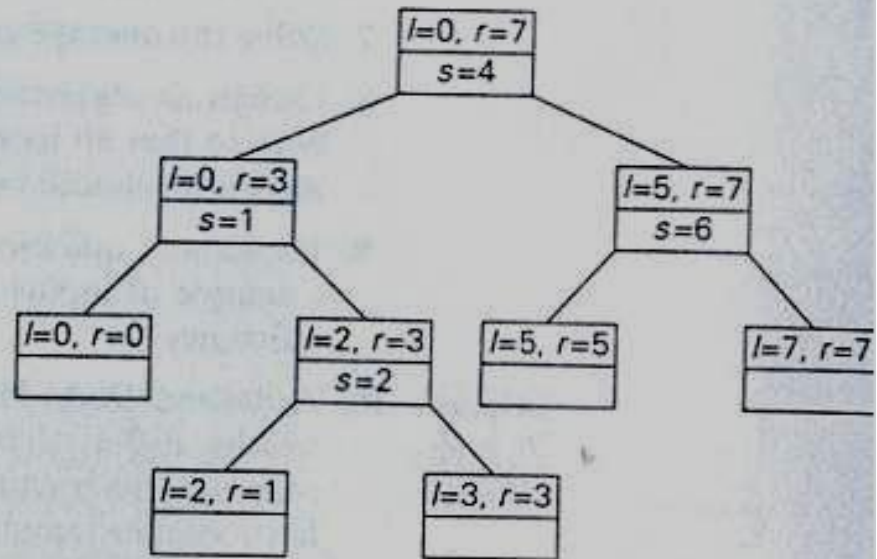


# Partitioning Algorithm

```
Algorithm Partition( $A[l..r]$ )
//Partitions a subarray by using its first element as a pivot
//Input: A subarray  $A[l..r]$  of  $A[0..n - 1]$ , defined by its left and right
//       indices  $l$  and  $r$  ( $l < r$ )
//Output: A partition of  $A[l..r]$ , with the split position returned as
//       this function's value
 $p \leftarrow A[l]$ 
 $i \leftarrow l; \quad j \leftarrow r + 1$ 
repeat
    repeat  $i \leftarrow i + 1$  until  $A[i] \geq p$ 
    repeat  $j \leftarrow j - 1$  until  $A[j] \leq p$ 
    swap( $A[i], A[j]$ )
until  $i \geq j$ 
swap( $A[i], A[j]$ ) //undo last swap when  $i \geq j$ 
swap( $A[l], A[j]$ )
return  $j$ 
```



0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5	<i>j</i> 3	1	9	8	2	4	<i>j</i> 7
5	3	1	<i>j</i> 9	8	2	<i>j</i> 4	7
5	3	1	<i>j</i> 4	8	2	<i>j</i> 9	7
5	3	1	4	<i>j</i> 8	<i>j</i> 2	9	7
5	3	1	4	<i>j</i> 2	<i>j</i> 8	9	7
5	3	1	4	<i>j</i> 2	<i>j</i> 8	9	7
2	3	1	4	5	8	9	7



8	<i>j</i> 9	<i>j</i> 7
8	<i>j</i> 7	<i>j</i> 9
8	<i>j</i> 7	<i>j</i> 9
7	8	9
7		
		9





# Quick Sort

- **Analysis :**

$n$ : # of elements

$$T(\text{partition}) = O(n) \rightarrow n+1$$

- **Best case**

If all the splits happen in the middle of the corresponding subarrays, it is the best case

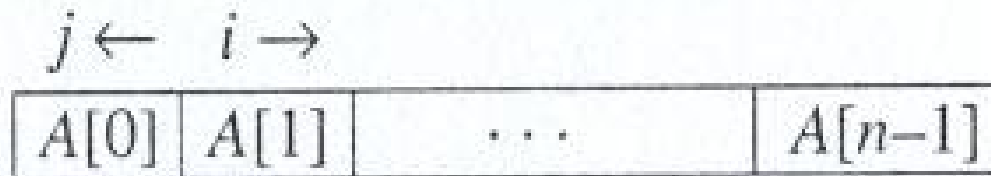
$$T(n) = 2T(n/2) + n \quad \text{for} \quad n > 1$$

$$T(n) = O(n \log n)$$



# Quick Sort

- Analysis :
  - Worst-case
    - All splits will be skewed to the extreme
      - One of the two subarrays will be empty while the size of the other will be just one less than the size of a subarray being partitioned
      - If  $A[0 \dots n-1]$  is a strictly increasing array and we use  $A[0]$  as the pivot
        - Left to right scan will stop on  $A[1]$
        - Right to left scan will go all the way to reach  $A[0]$





# Quick Sort

- **Analysis :**
  - Worst-case
    - After comparisons and exchanging the elements the array must be sorted
    - So

$$T(n) = (n+1) + n + \dots + 3 = \frac{(n+1)(n+2)}{2} - 3 \in \theta(n^2)$$



# Quick Sort

## Analysis :

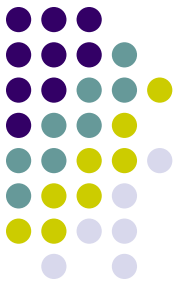
- Average Case

each element has an equal probability of being the pivot

$$P = 1/n$$

$$T(n) = \frac{1}{n} \left( \sum_{k=1}^n (T(k-1) + T(n-k)) + n + 1 \right)$$

# Quick Sort



$$T(n) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{k=1}^n [T(k-1) + T(n-k) + (n+1)]$$

$$nT(n) = \sum_{k=1}^n [T(k-1) + T(n-k) + (n+1)]$$

$$nT(n) = 2(T(0) + T(1) + \dots + T(n-1)) + n(n+1)$$

$$- (n-1)T(n-1) = 2(T(0) + \dots + T(n-2)) + n(n-1)$$

---

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

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

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

$$\frac{T(n)}{n+1} = \frac{T(n-3)}{n-2} + \frac{2}{n+1} + \frac{2}{n} + \frac{2}{n-1}$$

⋮

$$\frac{T(n)}{n+1} = \frac{T(1)}{2} + 2 \sum_{k=3}^{n+1} \frac{1}{k}$$

$$\frac{T(n)}{n+1} = 2 \sum_{k=3}^{n+1} \frac{1}{k}$$

$$\frac{T(n)}{n+1} \leq 2 \log(n+1)$$

$$T(n) = O(n \log n)$$





# Quick Sort

## Discussion :

- Quicksort is a very efficient algorithm
- However, its performance depends on the *pivot* point
- The farther we get from the median for the pivot value the more lopsided the partitions become and the greater the depth of the recursion needs to be



# ROAD MAP

- **Divide And Conquer**
  - Mergesort
  - Quicksort
  - **Multiplication of large integers**
  - Strassen's Matrix multiplication





# Multiplication of Large Integers

- Some applications require manipulation of large integers (over 100 decimal digits long)
  - Such as cryptology
- Such integers are too long to fit in a special word of a modern computer
  - They require special treatment
  - Does not take unit time



# Multiplication of Large Integers

- Classical pen-pencil algorithm for multiplying two *n-digit* integer
  - Each of  $n$  digits of the first number is multiplied by each of  $n$  digits of second number
- The total is  $n^2$  digit multiplications
- Is it possible to design an algorithm with fewer than  $n^2$  digit multiplication?



# Multiplication of Large Integers

Example: multiply 23 and 14

$$23 = 2 \cdot 10^1 + 3 \cdot 10^0 \text{ and } 14 = 1 \cdot 10^1 + 4 \cdot 10^0$$

$$\begin{aligned} 23 &= (2 \cdot 10^1 + 3 \cdot 10^0) * (1 \cdot 10^1 + 4 \cdot 10^0) \\ &= (2 * 1)10^2 + (3 * 1 + 2 * 4)10^1 + (3 * 4)10^0 \end{aligned}$$

- There are 4 multiplications in total
- The middle term can also be calculated as

$$3 * 1 + 2 * 4 = (2 + 3) * (1 + 4) - (2 * 1) - (3 * 4)$$

- So the result can be obtained by three multiplications only



# Multiplication of Large Integers

In general:

For any pair of two-digit integers  $a = a_1a_0$  and  $b = b_1b_0$ , their product  $c$  can be computed by the formula

$$c = a * b = c_2 10^2 + c_1 10^1 + c_0$$

where

$$c_2 = a_1 * b_1 \rightarrow \text{product of their first digits}$$

$$c_0 = a_0 * b_0 \rightarrow \text{product of their second digits}$$

$$c_1 = (a_1 + a_0) * (b_1 + b_0) - (c_2 + c_0) \rightarrow \text{product of the sum of the } a\text{'s digits and the sum of the } b\text{'s digits minus the sum of } c_2 \text{ and } c_0$$



# Multiplication of Large Integers

- Approach :

If we want to multiply two *n-digit* integers  $a$  and  $b$  where  $a$  is positive even number

- Divide both numbers in the middle
- Denote first half of the  $a$ 's digits by  $a_1$  and second half by  $a_0$ 
  - Same notations for  $b$
- $a = a_1a_0$  implies that  $a = a_1 10^{n/2} + a_0$  and  $b = b_1b_0$  implies that  $b = b_1 10^{n/2} + b_0$



# Multiplication of Large Integers

- We get

$$c = a * b = (a_1 10^{n/2} + a_0) * (b_1 10^{n/2} + b_0)$$

$$c = (a_1 * b_1) 10^n + (a_1 * b_0 + a_0 * b_1) 10^{n/2} + (a_0 * b_0)$$

$$c = c_2 10^n + c_1 10^{n/2} + c_0$$

where

$$c_2 = a_1 * b_1 \rightarrow \text{product of their first halves}$$

$$c_0 = a_0 * b_0 \rightarrow \text{product of their second halves}$$

$$c_1 = (a_1 + a_0) * (b_1 + b_0) - (c_2 + c_0) \rightarrow \text{product of the sum of the } a\text{'s halves and the sum of the } b\text{'s halves minus the sum of } c_2 \text{ and } c_0$$



# Multiplication of Large Integers

- If  $n/2$  is even, we can apply same method for computing products of  $c_2$ ,  $c_1$  and  $c_0$ .
- Thus we have a recursive algorithm to compute product of two *n-digit* integers
- Recursion is stopped
  - when  $n$  becomes 1
  - when we deem  $n$  small enough to multiply the numbers of that size directly



# Multiplication of Large Integers

- **Analysis :**

How many digit multiplications does this algorithm make?





# Multiplication of Large Integers

- Analysis :

Multiplication of  $n$ -digit numbers requires three multiplications of  $n/2$  digit number

So

$$M(n) = 3M(n/2) \text{ for } n > 1, M(1) = 1$$

solving it by backward substitution for  $n = 2^k$  yields

$$\begin{aligned} M(2^k) &= 3M(2^{k-1}) = 3[3M(2^{k-2})] = 3^2 M(2^{k-2}) \\ &= \dots = 3^i M(2^{k-i}) = \dots = 3^k M(2^{k-k}) = 3^k \end{aligned}$$

since  $k = \log_2 n$

$$M(n) = 3^{\log_2 n} = n^{\log_2 3} \approx n^{1.585}$$



# Multiplication of Large Integers

## Discussion :

- Used in many problems today
  - Cryptography
  - Security units of mobile devices
- Divide and conquer algorithm outperform the pen-and-pencil method on integers over 600 digits long



# ROAD MAP

- **Divide And Conquer**
  - Mergesort
  - Quicksort
  - Multiplication of large integers
  - **Strassen's Matrix multiplication**



# Matrix Multiplication

- **Problem Definition :**

Find product  $C$  of two  $n$ -by- $n$  matrices  $A$  and  $B$

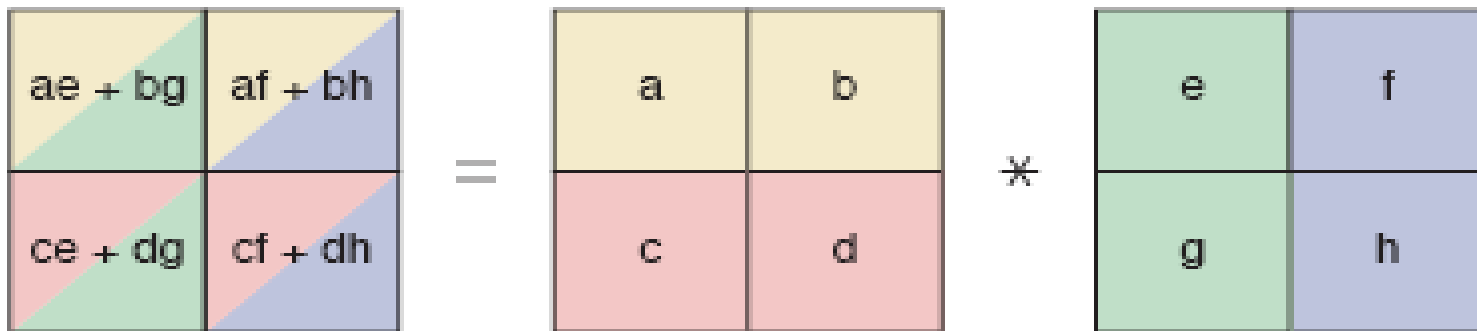
- We will see that matrix multiplication can be done using less than  $n^3$  scalar multiplications



# Matrix Multiplication

A simple divide and conquer strategy:

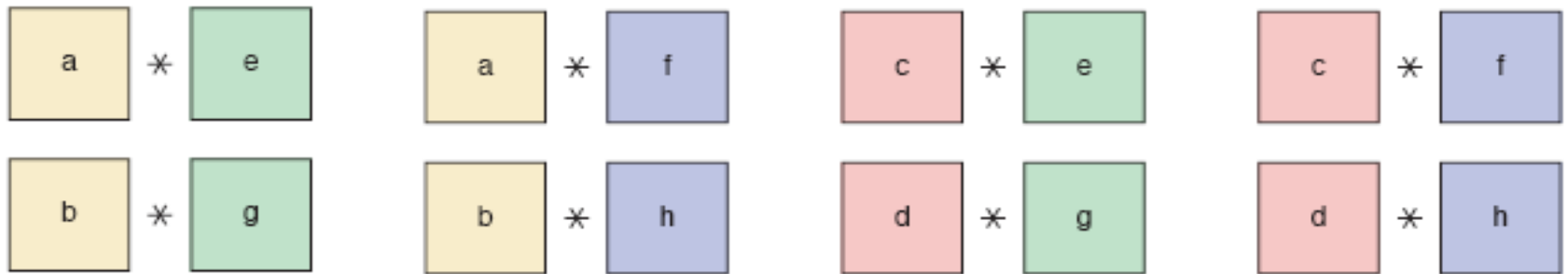
- Let  $A$  and  $B$  be two  $n$ -by- $n$  matrices where  $n$  is a power of 2
- We can divide  $A$ ,  $B$  and their product  $C$  into four  $n/2$ -by- $n/2$  submatrices each as follows





# Matrix Multiplication

## 8 Sub-Problems:



## Analysis:

- 8 multiplication operation  $\rightarrow$   $(n/2)$ -by- $(n/2)$  matrix
- 4 addition operation  $\rightarrow$   $(n/2)$ -by- $(n/2)$  matrix

$$\bullet T(n) = 8 * T(n/2) + \Theta(n^2) = \Theta(n^3)$$

# Strassen's Matrix Multiplication



- To perform matrix multiplication using less than  $n^3$  scalar multiplications
- First let's consider the case of *2-by-2* matrix multiplication
  - We will show that this can be done using 7 multiplications instead of 8 multiplications required by brute-force algorithm.



# Strassen's Matrix Multiplication

We can use the following formulas

$$\begin{bmatrix} c_{00} & c_{01} \\ c_{10} & c_{11} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} a_{00} & a_{01} \\ b_{10} & b_{11} \end{bmatrix} * \begin{bmatrix} b_{00} & b_{01} \\ b_{10} & b_{11} \end{bmatrix}$$
$$= \begin{bmatrix} m_1 + m_4 - m_5 + m_7 & m_3 + m_5 \\ m_2 + m_4 & m_1 + m_3 - m_2 + m_6 \end{bmatrix}$$

where

$$\begin{aligned} m_1 &= (a_{00} + a_{11}) * (b_{00} + b_{11}) \\ m_2 &= (a_{10} + a_{11}) * b_{00} \\ m_3 &= a_{00} * (b_{01} - b_{11}) \\ m_4 &= a_{11} * (b_{10} - b_{00}) \\ m_5 &= (a_{00} + a_{01}) * b_{11} \\ m_6 &= (a_{10} - a_{00}) * (b_{00} + b_{01}) \\ m_7 &= (a_{01} - a_{11}) * (b_{10} + b_{11}). \end{aligned}$$



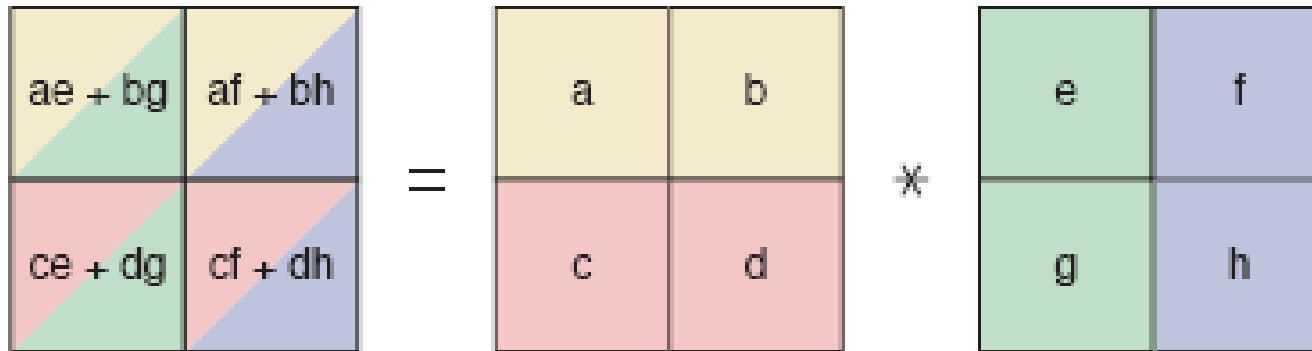


# Strassen's Matrix Multiplication

- There are 7 multiplications.
- But how many additions are there?
- Is it good idea to use this method for *2-by-2* matrices?



# Strassen's Matrix Multiplication



7 multiplication operation

$$P1 = a * (f - h)$$

$$P2 = (a + b) * h$$

$$P3 = (c + d) * e$$

$$P4 = d * (g - e)$$

$$P5 = (a + d) * (e + h)$$

$$P6 = (b - d) * (g + h)$$

$$P7 = (a - c) * (e + f)$$

Solution:

$$a * e + b * g = P5 + P4 - P2 + P6$$

$$a * f + b * h = P1 + P2$$

$$c * e + d * g = P3 + P4$$

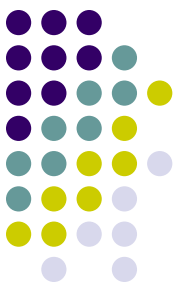
$$c * f + d * h = P5 + P1 - P3 - P7$$



# Strassen's Matrix Multiplication

## Approach:

- Let  $A$  and  $B$  be two  $n$ -by- $n$  matrices
  - where  $n$  is a power of 2
- Divide  $A$  and  $B$  into four  $n/2$ -by- $n/2$  submatrices
- Calculate 7 submatrix multiplications recursively
- Perform required additions to obtain the matrix  $C$



# Strassen's Matrix Multiplication

- Analysis :

$$M(n) = 7M(n/2) \text{ for } n > 1, M(1) = 1.$$

$$\text{Since } n = 2^k,$$

$$\begin{aligned} M(2^k) &= 7M(2^{k-1}) = 7[7M(2^{k-2})] = 7^2 M(2^{k-2}) = \dots \\ &= 7^i M(2^{k-i}) \dots = 7^k M(2^{k-k}) = 7^k. \end{aligned}$$

$$\text{Since } k = \log_2 n,$$

$$M(n) = 7^{\log_2 n} = n^{\log_2 7} \approx n^{2.807},$$



# Strassen's Matrix Multiplication

## Discussion :

- Saving in # of multiplications was achieved at the expense of making extra additions
  - We must check # of additions  $A(n)$
  - $A(n) \in \Theta(n^{\log_2 7})$
  - Same order of growth as # of multiplication
- Efficiency is better than brute force
  - Brute force algorithm is  $n^3$
- Is it good for memory efficiency?
- It is not the best algorithm for matrix multiplication
  - Coopersmith and Winograd algorithm's efficiency is  $O(n^{2.376})$



# Divide & Conquer

- **Discussion :**

There are 3 criterias for efficiency of D&C algorithms

- # of subproblems
- Proportion of the main problem and subproblem
- Time to divide the problem and combine the sub-solutions