# Divide and conquer algorithms

## General template

There are many ways to design algorithms.

For example, insertion sort is *incremental*: having sorted A[1..j-1], place A[j] correctly, so that A[1..j] is sorted.

#### Divide and conquer

Another common approach.

**Divide** the problem into a number of subproblems.

**Conquer** the subproblems by solving them recursively.

Base case: If the subproblems are small enough, just solve them by brute force.

Combine the subproblem solutions to give a solution to the original problem.

To sort A[p ...r]:

Divide by splitting into two subarrays A[p ...q] and A[q+1...r], where q is the halfway point of A[p...r].

Conquer by recursively sorting the two subarrays A[p..q] and A[q+1..r].

Combine by merging the two sorted subarrays A[p ...q] and A[q+1...r] to produce a single sorted subarray A[p ...r]. To accomplish this step, we'll define a procedure MERGE(A, p, q, r).

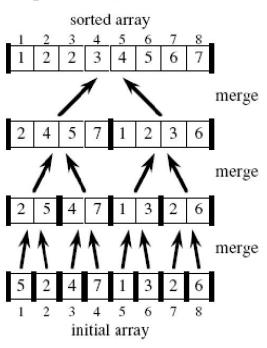
The recursion bottoms out when the subarray has just 1 element, so that it's trivially sorted.

### Merge sort

**Initial call:** MERGE-SORT(A, 1, n)

```
MERGE(A, p, q, r)
n_1 \leftarrow q - p + 1
n_2 \leftarrow r - q
create arrays L[1..n_1+1] and R[1..n_2+1]
for i \leftarrow 1 to n_1
     do L[i] \leftarrow A[p+i-1]
for j \leftarrow 1 to n_2
     do R[j] \leftarrow A[q+j]
L[n_1+1] \leftarrow \infty
R[n_2+1] \leftarrow \infty
i \leftarrow 1
j \leftarrow 1
for k \leftarrow p to r
     do if L[i] \leq R[j]
             then A[k] \leftarrow L[i]
                   i \leftarrow i + 1
            else A[k] \leftarrow R[j]
                   j \leftarrow j + 1
```

**Example:** Bottom-up view for n = 8: [Heavy lines demarcate subarrays used in subproblems.]



#### Analyzing divide-and-conquer algorithms

Use a **recurrence equation** (more commonly, a **recurrence**) to describe the running time of a divide-and-conquer algorithm.

Let T(n) = running time on a problem of size n.

- If the problem size is small enough (say, n ≤ c for some constant c), we have a
  base case. The brute-force solution takes constant time: Θ(1).
- Otherwise, suppose that we divide into a subproblems, each 1/b the size of the original. (In merge sort, a = b = 2.)
- Let the time to divide a size-n problem be D(n).
- There are a subproblems to solve, each of size  $n/b \Rightarrow$  each subproblem takes T(n/b) time to solve  $\Rightarrow$  we spend aT(n/b) time solving subproblems.
- Let the time to combine solutions be C(n).
- · We get the recurrence

$$T(n) = \begin{cases} \Theta(1) & \text{if } n \le c, \\ aT(n/b) + D(n) + C(n) & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

#### Analyzing merge sort

For simplicity, assume that n is a power of  $2 \Rightarrow$  each divide step yields two subproblems, both of size exactly n/2.

The base case occurs when n = 1.

When  $n \ge 2$ , time for merge sort steps:

**Divide:** Just compute q as the average of p and  $r \Rightarrow D(n) = \Theta(1)$ .

**Conquer:** Recursively solve 2 subproblems, each of size  $n/2 \Rightarrow 2T(n/2)$ .

Combine: MERGE on an *n*-element subarray takes  $\Theta(n)$  time  $\Rightarrow C(n) = \Theta(n)$ .

Since  $D(n) = \Theta(1)$  and  $C(n) = \Theta(n)$ , summed together they give a function that is linear in  $n: \Theta(n) \Rightarrow$  recurrence for merge sort running time is

$$T(n) = \begin{cases} \Theta(1) & \text{if } n = 1, \\ 2T(n/2) + \Theta(n) & \text{if } n > 1. \end{cases}$$

Solving the merge-sort recurrence: By the master theorem we can show that this recurrence has the solution  $T(n) = \Theta(n \lg n)$ . [Reminder:  $\lg n$  stands for  $\log_2 n$ .]

```
BinarySearch(A[0..n-1], value, low, high)
while (low <= high)
 mid = (low + high) / 2
 if (A[mid] > value)
  return BinarySearch(A, value, low, mid-1)
 else if (A[mid] < value)
  return BinarySearch(A, value, mid+1, high)
 else
  return mid
                     // found
return -1 // not found
```

## **Greedy Algorithms**

### Introduction

Similar to dynamic programming.

Used for optimization problems.

*Idea:* When we have a choice to make, make the one that looks best *right now*. Make a *locally optimal choice* in hope of getting a *globally optimal solution*.

Greedy algorithms don't always yield an optimal solution. But sometimes they do. We'll see a problem for which they do. Then we'll look at some general characteristics of when greedy algorithms give optimal solutions.

### Problem

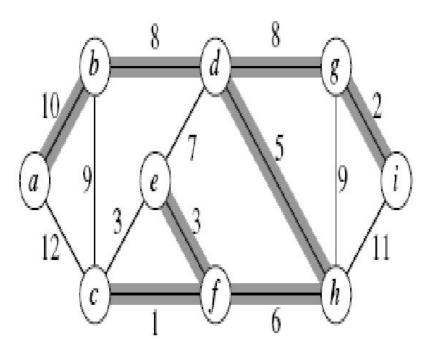
- A town has a set of houses and a set of roads.
- A road connects 2 and only 2 houses.
- A road connecting houses u and v has a repair cost w(u, v).
- Goal: Repair enough (and no more) roads such that
  - 1. everyone stays connected: can reach every house from all other houses, and
  - 2. total repair cost is minimum.

### Model as a graph:

- Undirected graph G = (V, E).
- Weight w(u, v) on each edge  $(u, v) \in E$ .
- Find  $T \subseteq E$  such that
  - 1. T connects all vertices (T is a **spanning tree**), and
  - 2.  $w(T) = \sum_{(u,v) \in T} w(u,v)$  is minimized.

A spanning tree whose weight is minimum over all spanning trees is called a *min-imum spanning tree*, or *MST*.

Example of such a graph [edges in MST are shaded]:



In this example, there is more than one MST. Replace edge (e, f) by (c, e). Get a different spanning tree with the same weight.

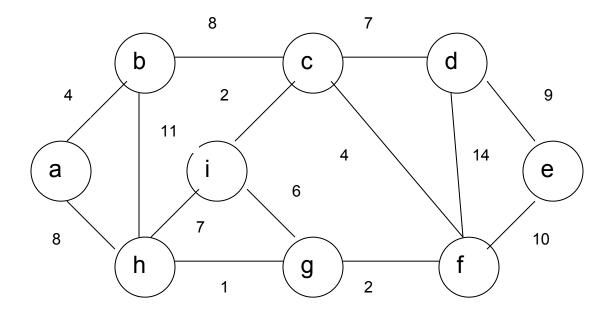
### Kruskal's algorithm

```
KRUSKAL(V, E, w)
A \leftarrow \emptyset
for each vertex v \in V
do MAKE-SET(v)
sort E into nondecreasing order by weight w
for each (u, v) taken from the sorted list
do if FIND-SET(u) \neq FIND-SET(v)
then A \leftarrow A \cup \{(u, v)\}
UNION(u, v)
```

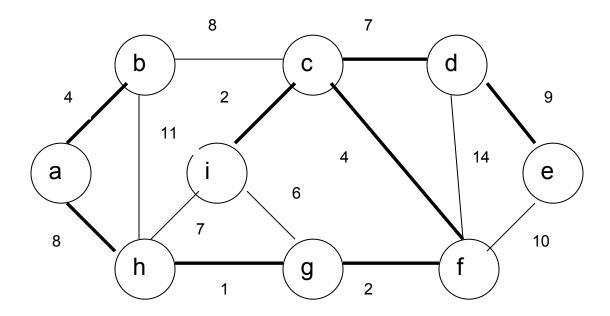
Run through the above example to see how Kruskal's algorithm works on it:

(c, f) : safe (g, i) : safe (e, f) : safe (c, e) : reject (d, h) : safe (f, h) : safe (e, d) : reject (b, d) : safe (d, g) : safe (b, c) : reject (g, h) : reject (a, b) : safe

At this point, we have only one component, so all other edges will be rejected. [We could add a test to the main loop of KRUSKAL to stop once |V| - 1 edges have been added to A.]



### Solution:



#### Analysis

Initialize A: O(1)

First for loop: |V| MAKE-SETs

Sort E:  $O(E \lg E)$ 

Second for loop: O(E) FIND-SETs and UNIONS

· Assuming the implementation of disjoint-set data structure,

$$O((V+E)\alpha(V)) + O(E \lg E)$$
.

- Since G is connected,  $|E| \ge |V| 1 \Rightarrow O(E \alpha(V)) + O(E \lg E)$ .
- $\alpha(|V|) = O(\lg V) = O(\lg E)$ .
- Therefore, total time is O(E lg E).
- $|E| \le |V|^2 \Rightarrow \lg |E| = O(2 \lg V) = O(\lg V)$ .
- Therefore,  $O(E \lg V)$  time. (If edges are already sorted,  $O(E \alpha(V))$ , which is almost linear.)

## Dijkstra's algorithm

No negative-weight *edges*.

Essentially a weighted version of breadth-first search.

- Instead of a FIFO queue, uses a priority queue.
- Keys are shortest-path weights (d[v]).

Have two sets of vertices:

- S = vertices whose final shortest-path weights are determined,
- Q = priority queue = V S.

```
DIJKSTRA(V, E, w, s)
INIT-SINGLE-SOURCE (V, s)
S \leftarrow \emptyset
Q \leftarrow V \triangleright i.e., insert all vertices into Q
while Q \neq \emptyset
     do u \leftarrow \text{EXTRACT-MIN}(Q)
         S \leftarrow S \cup \{u\}
         for each vertex v \in Adj[u]
              do RELAX(u, v, w)
```

•  $\pi[v]$  = predecessor of v on a shortest path from s.

All the shortest-paths algorithms start with INIT-SINGLE-SOURCE.

INIT-SINGLE-SOURCE 
$$(V, s)$$
  
for each  $v \in V$   
do  $d[v] \leftarrow \infty$   
 $\pi[v] \leftarrow \text{NIL}$   
 $d[s] \leftarrow 0$ 

#### Relaxing an edge (u, v)

Can we improve the shortest-path estimate for v by going through u and taking (u, v)?

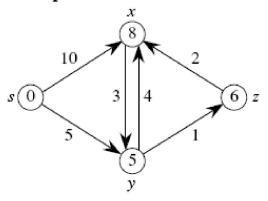
```
RELAX(u, v, w)

if d[v] > d[u] + w(u, v)

then d[v] \leftarrow d[u] + w(u, v)

\pi[v] \leftarrow u
```

### Example:



Order of adding to S: s, y, z, x.

Analysis: If priority queue is implemented as binary heap: -

- Each Extract-Min operations then takes time O(lg V)
- There are |V| such operations
- •The time to build the binary min-heap is O(V)
- •Each Decrease-Key operation (implicit in Relax) takes time O(lg V), and there are at most |E| such operations
- •Total running time: O((V+E) lg V) => O(E lg V)

Because each vertex v is added to set S exactly once, each edge in the adjacency list Adj[v] is examined in the for loop exactly once during the course of the algorithm. Since the total number of edges in all the adjacency lists is |E|, there are a total of |E| iterations of this for loop. { Note: We are using aggregate analysis }

# Scheduling

 Theorem: The greedy method always obtains an optimal solution to the job sequencing problem.

#### Algorithm for job scheduling using greedy strategy

```
{ Note: We want to find a feasible solution S whose profit P(S) is as large as possible.
Sort the jobs in decreasing order of profits: g_1 > = ... > = g_n
d \square max d_i // d_i stands for deadline for job i
for t: 1..d // t stands for time slot
 S(t) \square 0 // S stands for schedule
end for
for i: 1..n
Find the largest t such that (S(t)=0 \text{ and } t \leq d_i), and let S(t) \square i
[Find the latest possible free slot meeting the deadline]
end for
{ Note: If S(t) = 0, then no job is scheduled at time t, g_i is a non-negative real no.
representing the profit obtainable from job i. If S(t)=i, then job i is scheduled at time t,
1 <= t <= d.
```

Ex. Let n=4, (P1,P2,P3,P4)=(100,10,15,27) and (d1,d2,d3,d4)=(2,1,2,1) Solution:

Decreasing order of profits: 100 27 15 10

d=2

0	0
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27	100
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Ex.: Let n=5, (P1,...,P5)=(20,15,10,5,1) and (d1,...,d5)=(2,2,1,3,3). Find

the optimal solution.

Solution: The optimal solution is:

15	20	5

Ex. Given below is a problem of scheduling unit-time tasks with deadlines and penalties for a single processor.

**Tasks** 

i	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
d <sub>i</sub>	4	2	4	3	1	4	6
W <sub>i</sub>	70	60	50	40	30	20	10

Solution:

40	60	50	70	10

Total penalty incurred is  $w_5 + w_6 = 50$