Divide and Conquer

Suppose f(n) is the count of operations required, using a certain algorithm, to perform a task of size n (n is a measure on the input to the algorithm). If f satisfies a recurrence relation of the form

$$f(n) = af(n/b) + g(n), \tag{1}$$

with a, b > 0, called a **divide-and-conquer** recurrence relation, then the algorithm is said to be a **divide-and-conquer** algorithm.

Example 1:

- 1. **Binary search**. Take f(n) to be the number of comparisons required to find a search key in an ordered list of length n using the binary search algorithm. (See Section 2.1). Then f(n) = f(n/2) + 2.
- 2. **Fast integer multiplication**. Let f(n) be the count of bit operations required to multiply two (2n)-bit integers. Let a, b be two such integers with binary representations

$$a = (a_{2n-1} \dots a_2 a_1 a_0)_2$$
 and $b = (b_{2n-1} \dots b_2 b_1 b_0)_2$,

and write $a = A_0 + 2^n A_1$, $a = B_0 + 2^n B_1$, so that each of A_0 , A_1 , B_0 , B_1 are n-bit numbers; note that

$$A_0 = (a_{n-1} \dots a_2 a_1 a_0)_2$$
 and $A_1 = (a_{2n-1} \dots a_{n+2} a_{n+1} a_n)_2$,

with similar relationships between the binary representions for B_0 , B_1 and b. By writing

$$ab = (A_0 + 2^n A_1)(B_0 + 2^n B_1) = 2^{2n} A_1 B_1 + 2^n (A_0 B_1 + A_1 B_0) + A_0 B_0$$

$$= (2^{2n} + 2^n) A_1 B_1 - 2^n A_1 B_1 + 2^n (A_0 B_1 + A_1 B_0) - 2^n A_0 B_0 + (2^n + 1) A_0 B_0$$

$$= (2^{2n} + 2^n) A_1 B_1 + 2^n (A_1 - A_0)(B_0 - B_1) + (2^n + 1) A_0 B_0$$

and interpreting multiplications like 2^kC as a *sliding* of bits k places to the left (rather than actual multiplication), we see that the problem of multiplying two (2n)-bit integers a and b has been replaced with three multiplications involving n-bit integers, along with several slidings, subtractions and additions, the count of which is proportional to n. Thus,

$$f(2n) = 3f(n) + Cn.$$

3. Consider the number of comparisons required to sort a list of n items via the *merge sort* algorithm described in Section 3.5 (Rosen, 7^{th} ed.). This algorithm, for even n, divides the list into two lists of size n/2 and, once the two sub-lists are sorted, requires fewer than n comparisons to merge the two sorted sub-lists into one complete (and sorted) list. Thus, the number of comparisons used by the algorithm on a list of size n is less than M(n), a function which satisfies the divide-and-conquer relation

$$M(n) = 2M(n/2) + n.$$

Some relevant details

Logarithms. Write $r = log_b x$ when $b^r = x$. Said another way, $log_b x$ returns the number r for which $b^r = x$. Some properties that arise from this idea:

- 1. $b^{\log_b x} = x$, akin to saying the number of ounces in a 32-ounce jar is 32.
- 2. $\log_h(xy) = \log_h x + \log_h y$, since

$$b^{\log_b x + \log_b y} = b^{\log_b x} \cdot b^{\log_b y} = xy.$$

- 3. $\log_h(x/y) = \log_h x \log_h y$, demonstrated similarly.
- 4. $\log_h(x^r) = r \log_h x$, since

$$b^{r \log_b x} = (b^{\log_b x})^r = x^r.$$

5. $\log_a x = \log_h x / \log_h a$, since

$$b^{(\log_a x)(\log_b a)} = (b^{\log_b a})^{\log_a x} = a^{\log_a x} = x.$$

Thus, $(\log_a x)(\log_b a)$ is the exponent to which, when b is raised, yields x—i.e., it equals $\log_b x$.

6. For positive real numbers a, b, and c,

$$a^{\log_b c} = c^{\log_b a}$$

This is true because

$$\log_a \left(c^{\log_b a} \right) = \left(\log_b a \right) \left(\log_a c \right) = \log_b c,$$

by Property 5 above. This means that $\log_b c$ is the power to which you must raise a in order to produce $c^{\log_b a}$.

7. $O(\log_b n)$ is independent of base b. That is, if a is any other base, and if $|f(n)| \le C|\log_b n|$ (the meaning of $O(\log_b n)$), then by Property 5 above,

$$|f(n)| \leq C|\log_b n| = \frac{C}{|\log_a b|}|\log_a n| = \tilde{C}|\log_a n|,$$

which shows f is $O(\log_a n)$ as well. Convention, then, is to write $O(\log n)$ without reference to a particular base b.

Question: For an integer n, how many stages of dividing into b parts, then subdividing those parts into b parts, and so on, may be carried out before all constituent parts are of size 1?

Answer: We can develop some intuition by investigating the number of ways to divide an integer by 2. The numbers 5, 6, 7, and 8 each require 3 stages. The numbers 9, 10, 11, 12, 13, 14, 15, and 16 require 4 stages. In general the integers $2^{k-1} < n \le 2^k$ all require $k = \log_2 2^k = \lceil \log_2 \rceil n$ stages.

Speaking generally, if an integer n satisfies $b^{k-1} < n \le b^k$ and, at each stage, is to be divided into b parts, then it requires $k = \log_b b^k = \lceil \log_b \rceil n$ stages.

Important theorems

When f satisfies the divide-and-conquer relation (1) and $n = b^k$, we have

$$f(n) = af(n/b) + g(n) = a (af(n/b^2) + g(n/b)) + g(n)$$

$$= a^2 f(n/b^2) + ag(n/b) + g(n)$$

$$= a^3 f(n/b^3) + a^2 g(n/b^2) + ag(n/b) + g(n) = \cdots$$

$$= a^k f(n/b^k) + \sum_{j=0}^{k-1} a^j g(n/b^j).$$

In the special case where g(n) = c (a constant), this becomes

$$f(n) = a^k f(n/b^k) + c \sum_{j=0}^{k-1} a^j = a^k f(n/b^k) + \frac{c(a^k - 1)}{a - 1}.$$
 (2)

This gives rise to the following theorem.

Theorem 1: Suppose f is an increasing function which satisfies the recurrence relation

$$f(n) = af(n/b) + c,$$

whenever *n* is an integer divisible by (integer) b > 1. Suppose $a \ge 1$ and c > 0. Then

$$f(n)$$
 is
$$\begin{cases} O(n^{\log_b a}), & \text{if } a > 1, \\ O(\log n), & \text{if } a = 1. \end{cases}$$

In addition, when $n = b^k$ for integer k > 0, we have

$$f(n) = \left(f(1) + \frac{c}{a-1}\right) n^{\log_b a} - \frac{c}{a-1}.$$

Proof: Case: $n = b^k$ (so $k = \log_b n$).

If a = 1, then Equation (2) says

$$f(n) = f(1) + ck = f(1) + c \log_h n$$
,

showing f is $O(\log n)$.

Now suppose a > 1. Equation (2) says

$$f(n) = a^k f(1) + \frac{c(a^k - 1)}{a - 1} = a^{\log_b n} \left(f(1) + \frac{c}{a - 1} \right) - \frac{c}{a - 1} = n^{\log_b a} \left(f(1) + \frac{c}{a - 1} \right) - \frac{c}{a - 1}.$$

General Case. When n is not a power of b, there is an integer $k \ge 0$ such that $b^k < n < b^{k+1}$. We treat the case with a > 1 only. Because f is an increasing function,

$$f(n) \leq f(b^{k+1}) = C_1 a^{k+1} + C_2 = (C_1 a) a^k + C_2 = (C_1 a) a^{\log_b n} + C_2,$$

where $C_1 = f(1) + c/(a-1)$ and $C_2 = -c/(a-1)$. Hence, the result holds.

The previous result is applicable to the binary search algorithm which, as we found, gives rise to the recurrence relation f(n) = f(n/2) + 2. To draw conclusions about the divide-and-conquer recurrence relations of fast integer multiplication and the merge sort, we need a more general theorem.

Theorem 2 (Master Theorem): Let *f* be an increasing function that satisfies the recurrence relation

$$f(n) = af(n/b) + cn^d,$$

whenever $n = b^k$, where k is a positive integer, $a \ge 1$, b is an integer greater than 1, and c > 0, $d \ge 0$ are real numbers. Then

$$f(n)$$
 is
$$\begin{cases} O(n^d), & \text{if } a < b^d, \\ O(n^d \log n), & \text{if } a = b^d, \\ O(n^{\log_b a}), & \text{if } a > b^d. \end{cases}$$

Proof: If $a = b^d$ and $n = b^k$, then

$$f(n) = af(n/b) + cn^{d} = a\left[af(n/b^{2}) + c\left(\frac{n}{b}\right)^{d}\right] + cn^{d}$$

$$= a^{2}f(n/b^{2}) + ac\left(\frac{n}{b}\right)^{d} + cn^{d}$$

$$= a^{3}f(n/b^{3}) + a^{2}c\left(\frac{n}{b^{2}}\right)^{d} + ac\left(\frac{n}{b}\right)^{d} + cn^{d} = \cdots$$

$$= a^{k}f(1) + cn^{d}\sum_{j=0}^{k-1} \left(\frac{a}{b^{d}}\right)^{j} = (b^{d})^{k}f(1) + cn^{d}\sum_{j=0}^{k-1} 1$$

$$= f(1)n^{d} + ckn^{d} = f(1)n^{d} + cn^{d}\log_{h} n.$$

Now, assume $k \ge 0$ is such that $b^k < n \le b^{k+1}$. Because f is an increasing function, we

have

$$\begin{array}{lcl} f(n) & \leq & f(b^{k+1}) & = & f(1)b^{(k+1)d} + c(k+1)b^{(k+1)d} \\ & = & f(1)b^d \cdot (b^k)^d + cb^d \cdot (b^k)^d + cb^d \cdot (b^k)^d k \\ & \leq & [f(1) + c]an^d + can^d \log_b n. \end{array}$$

Thus, in the case $a = b^d$, we have the desired result, as the $n^d \log n$ term above dominates the n^d term.

Theorems from Rosen, 5th Ed., Section 8.3

Theorem 3: Suppose *f* is an increasing function which satisfies the recurrence relation

$$f(n) = af(n/b) + c,$$

whenever *n* is an integer divisible by (integer) b > 1. Suppose $a \ge 1$ and c > 0. Then

$$f(n)$$
 is
$$\begin{cases} O(n^{\log_b a}), & \text{if } a > 1, \\ O(\log n), & \text{if } a = 1. \end{cases}$$

In addition, when $n = b^k$ for integer k > 0, we have

$$f(n) = \left(f(1) + \frac{c}{a-1}\right) n^{\log_b a} - \frac{c}{a-1}.$$

Theorem 4 (Master Theorem): Let f be an increasing function that satisfies the recurrence relation

$$f(n) = af(n/b) + cn^d,$$

whenever $n = b^k$, where k is a positive integer, $a \ge 1$, b is an integer greater than 1, and c > 0, $d \ge 0$ are real numbers. Then

$$f(n)$$
 is $\left\{egin{array}{ll} O(n^d), & ext{if } a < b^d, \ O(n^d \log n), & ext{if } a = b^d, \ O(n^{\log_b a}), & ext{if } a > b^d. \end{array}
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