Divide and Conquer*

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Algorithm Course @ Shanghai Jiao Tong University

Outline

- Divide-and-Conquer
 - Basic Technique
 - An Introductory Example: Multiplication
 - Recurrence Relations
- 2 Applications
 - Binary Search
 - Merge Sort
 - Matrix Multiplication

Basic Technique
An Introductory Example: Multiplication

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Basic Technique
An Introductory Example: Multiplication
Recurrence Relations

Divide-and-Conquer Strategy

The divide-and-conquer strategy solves a problem *P* by:

- (1) Breaking *P* into smaller subproblems of the same type.
- (2) Recursively solving these subproblems.
- (3) Appropriately combining their answers.

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The key works lay in three different places:

- (1) How to partition problem into subproblems.
- (2) At the very tail end of the recursion, how to solve the smallest subproblems outright.
- (3) How to glue together the partial answers.



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Johann C.F. Gauss



Johann Carl Friedrich Gauss 1777 - 1855

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1777 - 1855

$$1 + 2 + \dots + 100 = \frac{100 \cdot (1 + 100)}{2} = 5050.$$

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Multiplication for Complex Numbers

Gauss once noticed that although the product of two complex numbers

$$(a+bi)(c+di) = ac - bd + (bc + ad)i$$

seems to involve four real-number multiplications, it can in fact be done with just three: ac, bd, and (a + b)(c + d), since

$$bc + ad = (a+b)(c+d) - ac - bd.$$

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$$bc + ad = (a+b)(c+d) - ac - bd.$$

In our big-O way of thinking, reducing the number of multiplications from four to three seems wasted ingenuity. However, this modest improvement becomes *very significant when applied recursively*.

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Lemma: $\forall n \in \mathbb{N}, \exists n' \text{ with } n \leq n' \leq 2n \text{ such that } n' \text{ is a power of 2}.$

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As a first step toward multiplying x and y, we split each of them into their **left and right halves**, which are n/2 bits long:

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As a first step toward multiplying x and y, we split each of them into their **left and right halves**, which are n/2 bits long:

$$x = \begin{bmatrix} x_L \\ y \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} x_R \\ y_R \end{bmatrix} = 2^{n/2}x_L + x_R$$

$$y = \begin{bmatrix} y_L \\ y_R \end{bmatrix} = 2^{n/2}y_L + y_R.$$

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The additions take linear time, as do the multiplications by powers of 2 (merely left-shifts). The significant operations are the four n/2-bit multiplications; these we can handle by *four recursive calls*.

Our method for multiplying n-bit numbers starts by making recursive calls to multiply these four pairs of n/2-bit numbers, and then evaluates the preceding expression in O(n) time.

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Optimization: By **Gauss**'s trick, three multiplications, $x_L y_L$, $x_R y_R$, and $(x_L + x_R)(y_L + y_R)$, suffice, as

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$$x_L y_R + x_R y_L = (x_L + x_R)(y_L + y_R) - x_L y_L - x_R y_R.$$

Divide and Conquer

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A Divide-and-Conquer Algorithm for Integer Multiplication

Algorithm 1: MULTIPLY(x,y)

Input: Positive integers *x* and *y*, in binary.

Output: Their product *xy*.

- 1 $n = \max(\text{size of } x, \text{ size of } y)$ rounded as a power of 2;
- 2 if n = 1 then
- 3 return xy;
- 4 $x_L, x_R = \text{leftmost } n/2, \text{ rightmost } n/2 \text{ bits of } x;$
- 5 $y_L, y_R = \text{leftmost } n/2, \text{ rightmost } n/2 \text{ bits of } y;$
- 6 $P_1 = \text{MULTIPLY}(x_L, y_L);$
- 7 $P_2 = \text{MULTIPLY}(x_R, y_R);$
- **8** $P_3 = \text{MULTIPLY}(x_L + x_R, y_L + y_R);$
- 9 **return** $P_1 \times 2^n + (P_3 P_1 P_2) \times 2^{n/2} + P_2$

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New recurrence relation: $T(n)=3T(n/2)+O(n) \rightarrow \text{How well?}$

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Recurrence Relations

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Basic Technique
An Introductory Example: Multiplication
Recurrence Relations

Master Theorem



Master Theorem

If

$$T(n) = aT(\lceil n/b \rceil) + O(n^d)$$

for some constants a > 0, b > 1, and $d \ge 0$,

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Master Theorem

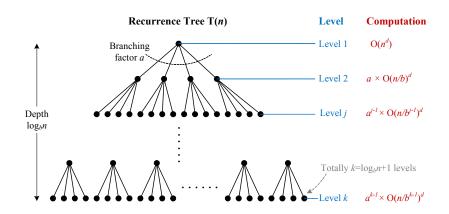
If

$$T(n) = aT(\lceil n/b \rceil) + O(n^d)$$

for some constants a > 0, b > 1, and $d \ge 0$, then

$$T(n) = \left\{ \begin{array}{ll} O(n^d) & \text{if } d > \log_b a \\ O(n^d \log n) & \text{if } d = \log_b a \\ O(n^{\log_b a}) & \text{if } d < \log_b a. \end{array} \right.$$

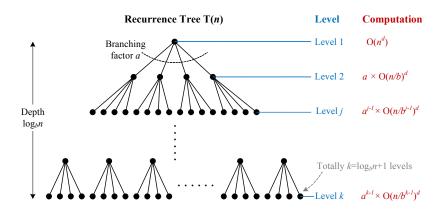
Proof of Master Theorem: $T(n) = aT(\lceil n/b \rceil) + O(n^d)$





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Proof of Master Theorem: $T(n) = aT(\lceil n/b \rceil) + O(n^d)$



Complexity of T(n) = Sum up all computations at each level.

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Proof of Master Theorem



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Proof of Master Theorem

Assume that n is a power of b. This will not influence the final bound in any important way: n is at most a multiplicative factor of b away from some power of b.

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The size of the subproblems decreases by a factor of *b* with each level of recursion, and reaches the base case when

$$\frac{n}{b^{k-1}} = 1 \Rightarrow k = \log_b n + 1$$

(k is the level of the recursion tree, which equals to tree height + 1.)



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The branching factor of the recursion tree is a, so the j-th level of the tree is made up of a^{j-1} subproblems, each of size n/b^{j-1} .

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The total work done at the j-th level is

$$a^{j-1} \times O\left(\frac{n}{b^{j-1}}\right)^d = O(n^d) \times \left(\frac{a}{b^d}\right)^{j-1}.$$

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Proof of Master Theorem



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Proof of Master Theorem

The total work done is

$$\sum_{j=1}^{\log_b n+1} \left(a^{j-1} \times O\left(\frac{n}{b^{j-1}}\right)^d \right) = \sum_{j=0}^{\log_b n} \left(O(n^d) \times \left(\frac{a}{b^d}\right)^j \right) = O(n^d) \sum_{j=0}^{\log_b n} \left(\frac{a}{b^d}\right)^j.$$

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It's the sum of a geometric series (GS) with ratio a/b^d .

Proof of Master Theorem

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It's the sum of a geometric series (GS) with ratio a/b^d .

$$(1) \frac{a}{b^d} < 1 \Rightarrow d > \log_b a:$$

$$O(n^d) \sum_{i=0}^{\log_b n} \left(\frac{a}{b^d}\right)^j \le O(n^d) \frac{1}{1 - \frac{a}{b^d}} = O(n^d).$$

(Sum of GS:
$$S_n = \sum_{j=1}^n a_1 q^{j-1} = a_1 \frac{1-q^n}{1-q} \le a_1 \frac{1}{1-q}$$
 if $q < 1$)

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Proof of Master Theorem

(2)
$$\frac{a}{b^d} = 1 \Rightarrow d = \log_b a$$
:

$$O(n^d) \sum_{j=0}^{\log_b n} \left(\frac{a}{b^d}\right)^j = O(n^d) (\log_b n + 1) = O(n^d \log_b n) = O(n^d \log_b n).$$

$$(\log_b n = \frac{\log n}{\log b} = \frac{1}{\log b} \log n = O(\log n)$$
 by changing the base)

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Proof of Master Theorem

(3) $\frac{a}{b^d} > 1 \Rightarrow d < \log_b a$: (reverse the GS in decreasing order)

$$O(n^d) \sum_{j=0}^{\log_b n} \left(\frac{a}{b^d}\right)^j = O(n^d) \sum_{j=0}^{\log_b n} \left(\frac{a}{b^d}\right)^{\log_b n} \cdot \left(\frac{b^d}{a}\right)^j$$

$$= O(n^d) \sum_{j=0}^{\log_b n} \frac{a^{\log_b n}}{(b^{\log_b n})^d} \cdot \left(\frac{b^d}{a}\right)^j$$

$$\leq O(n^d) \frac{n^{\log_b a}}{n^d} \cdot \frac{1}{1 - \frac{b^d}{a}}$$

$$= O(n^{\log_b a})$$

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

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Time Complexity of Multiplication

Original recurrence relation: T(n) = 4T(n/2) + O(n)

$$a = 4, b = 2, d = 1, d < \log_b a.$$

 \Rightarrow Time complexity: $O(n^{\log_b a}) = O(n^2)$.



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$$a = 4, b = 2, d = 1, d < \log_b a.$$

 \Rightarrow Time complexity: $O(n^{\log_b a}) = O(n^2)$.

Optimized recurrence relation: T(n) = 3T(n/2) + O(n)

$$a = 3, b = 2, d = 1, d < \log_b a.$$

 \Rightarrow Time complexity: $O(n^{\log_2 3}) \approx O(n^{1.59})$.



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Binary Search

Algorithm 2: BinarySearch

Input: An array A[1..n] of n elements sorted in nondecreasing order and an element x.

```
Output: j if x = A[j], 1 \le j \le n, and 0 otherwise.
```

```
\begin{array}{lll} \mathbf{1} & low \leftarrow 1; high \leftarrow n; j \leftarrow 0; \\ \mathbf{2} & \mathbf{while} & low \leq high \ \mathbf{and} \ j = 0 \ \mathbf{do} \\ \mathbf{3} & & mid \leftarrow \lfloor (low + high)/2 \rfloor; \\ \mathbf{4} & & \mathbf{if} \ x = A[mid] \ \mathbf{then} \\ \mathbf{5} & & | \ j \leftarrow mid \ \mathbf{break}; \\ \mathbf{6} & & \mathbf{else} \ \mathbf{if} \ x < A[mid] \ \mathbf{then} \\ \mathbf{7} & & | \ high \leftarrow mid - 1; \\ \mathbf{8} & & \mathbf{else} \\ \mathbf{9} & & | \ low \leftarrow mid + 1; \\ \end{array}
```

10 **return** *j*;

Time Complexity

To find a key x in $A[1, \dots, n]$ in sorted order, we first compare x with A[n/2], and depending on the result we recurse either on the first half $A[1, \dots, n/2 - 1]$, or on the second half $A[n/2 + 1, \dots, n]$.

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$$T(n) = T\left(\left\lfloor \frac{n}{2} \right\rfloor\right) + O(1),$$

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The recurrence function is

$$T(n) = T\left(\left\lfloor \frac{n}{2} \right\rfloor\right) + O(1),$$

By Master Theorem, a = 1, b = 2, d = 0, and thus the running time should be $O(\log n)$.



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Merging Two Sorted Lists

Algorithm 3: Merge

```
Input: A[1..m], p, q and r with 1 \le p \le q < r \le m.
    Output: A[p..r] (merging two sorted subarrays A[p..q], A[q + 1..r]).
 1 s \leftarrow p; t \leftarrow q + 1; k \leftarrow p;
 2 while s < q and t < r do
       if A[s] \leq A[t] then
4 | B[k] \leftarrow A[s]; s \leftarrow s + 1; (B[p..r] is an auxiliary array)

5 | else B[k] \leftarrow A[t]; t \leftarrow t + 1;

6 | k \leftarrow k + 1;
 7 if s = q + 1 then
8 B[k..r] \leftarrow A[t..r];
9 else B[k..r] \leftarrow A[s..q];
10 return A[p..r] \leftarrow B[p..r];
```

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Suppose A[p..q] has m elements and A[q+1..r] has n elements. The number of comparisons done by Algorithm Merge is



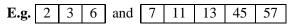
Suppose A[p..q] has m elements and A[q+1..r] has n elements. The number of comparisons done by Algorithm Merge is

o at least min $\{m, n\}$;

E.g. 2 3 6 and 7 11 13 45 57

Suppose A[p..q] has m elements and A[q+1..r] has n elements. The number of comparisons done by Algorithm Merge is

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 \circ at most m + n - 1.

Suppose A[p..q] has m elements and A[q+1..r] has n elements. The number of comparisons done by Algorithm Merge is

o at least $\min\{m, n\}$;

o at most m + n - 1.

If the two array sizes are $\lfloor n/2 \rfloor$ and $\lceil n/2 \rceil$, the number of comparisons is between $\lfloor n/2 \rfloor$ and n-1.



Bottom-Up MergeSort Algorithm

Algorithm 4: MergeSort

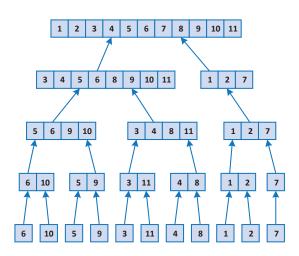
Input: An array A[1..n] of n elements.

Output: A[1..n] sorted in nondecreasing order.

```
\begin{array}{lll} & t \leftarrow 1; \\ & \textbf{2 while } t < n \ \textbf{do} \\ & \\ & s \leftarrow t; t \leftarrow 2s; i \leftarrow 0; \\ & \textbf{4 while } i + t \leq n \ \textbf{do} \\ & \\ & Merge(A, i+1, i+s, i+t); \\ & i \leftarrow i + t; \\ & \\ & \textbf{if } i + s < n \ \textbf{then} \\ & \\ & Merge(A, i+1, i+s, n); \end{array}
```

9 return A[1..n];

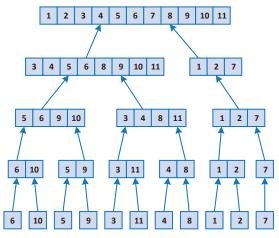
An Example





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An Example



Time Complexity:

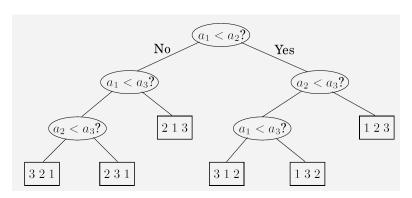
Recurrence:

$$T(n) = 2T(n/2) + O(n);$$

By Master Theorem

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

An example sorting permutation tree for $\{a_1, a_2, a_3\}$:



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Binary Search
Merge Sort
Matrix Multiplication

An $n \log n$ Lower Bound for Sorting



Sorting algorithms can be depicted as **trees**.



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The **depth** of the tree – the number of comparisons on the longest path from root to leaf, is exactly the worst-case time complexity of the algorithm.



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Sorting algorithms can be depicted as **trees**.

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Consider any such tree that sorts an array of n elements. Each of its leaves is labeled by a *permutation* of $\{1, 2, ..., n\}$.

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every permutation must appear as the label of a leaf.

Sorting algorithms can be depicted as **trees**.

The **depth** of the tree – the number of comparisons on the longest path from root to leaf, is exactly the worst-case time complexity of the algorithm.

Consider any such tree that sorts an array of n elements. Each of its leaves is labeled by a *permutation* of $\{1, 2, ..., n\}$.

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every permutation must appear as the label of a leaf.

This is a binary tree with n! leaves. Thus, the depth of our tree – and the complexity of our algorithm – must be at least

$$\log(n!) \approx \log\left(\sqrt{\pi (2n+1/3)} \cdot n^n \cdot e^{-n}\right) = \Omega(n \log n),$$

where we use Stirling's formula.

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Outline

- Divide-and-Conquer
 - Basic Technique
 - An Introductory Example: Multiplication
 - Recurrence Relations
- 2 Applications
 - Binary Search
 - Merge Sort
 - Matrix Multiplication

Binary Search Merge Sort Matrix Multiplication

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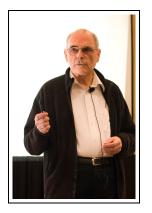
The preceding formula implies an $O(n^3)$ algorithm for matrix multiplication.

Volker Strassen



Volker Strassen (1936 –)

Volker Strassen



Volker Strassen (1936 –)

In 1969, the German mathematician **Volker Strassen** announced a surprising $O(n^{2.81})$ algorithm.

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Binary Search Merge Sort Matrix Multiplication

Divide and conquer



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$$X = \begin{bmatrix} A & B \\ C & D \end{bmatrix}, \qquad Y = \begin{bmatrix} E & F \\ G & H \end{bmatrix}$$



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$$X = \begin{bmatrix} A & B \\ C & D \end{bmatrix}, \qquad Y = \begin{bmatrix} E & F \\ G & H \end{bmatrix}$$

Then

$$XY = \begin{bmatrix} A & B \\ C & D \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} E & F \\ G & H \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} AE + BG & AF + BH \\ CE + DG & CF + DH \end{bmatrix}$$

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To compute the size-n product XY, recursively compute eight size-n/2 products AE, BG, AF, BH, CE, DG, CF, DH and then do some $O(n^2)$ -time addition.

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To compute the size-n product XY, recursively compute eight size-n/2 products AE, BG, AF, BH, CE, DG, CF, DH and then do some $O(n^2)$ -time addition.

The recurrence is

$$T(n) = 8T(n/2) + O(n^2)$$

with solution $O(n^3)$.

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Binary Search Merge Sort Matrix Multiplication

Strassen's trick



Strassen's trick

$$XY = \begin{bmatrix} P_5 + P_4 - P_2 + P_6 & P_1 + P_2 \\ P_3 + P_4 & P_1 + P_5 - P_3 - P_7 \end{bmatrix}$$

where

$$P_1 = A(F-H)$$
 $P_5 = (A+D)(E+H)$
 $P_2 = (A+B)H$ $P_6 = (B-D)(G+H)$
 $P_3 = (C+D)E$ $P_7 = (A-C)(E+F)$
 $P_4 = D(G-E)$

Strassen's trick

$$XY = \begin{bmatrix} P_5 + P_4 - P_2 + P_6 & P_1 + P_2 \\ P_3 + P_4 & P_1 + P_5 - P_3 - P_7 \end{bmatrix}$$

where

$$P_1 = A(F - H)$$
 $P_5 = (A + D)(E + H)$
 $P_2 = (A + B)H$ $P_6 = (B - D)(G + H)$
 $P_3 = (C + D)E$ $P_7 = (A - C)(E + F)$
 $P_4 = D(G - E)$

The recurrence is

$$T(n) = 7T(n/2) + O(n^2)$$

with solution $O(n^{\log_2 7}) \approx O(n^{2.81})$.



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