CSE408
Divide and Conquer

Lecture #9&10

Divide-and-Conquer

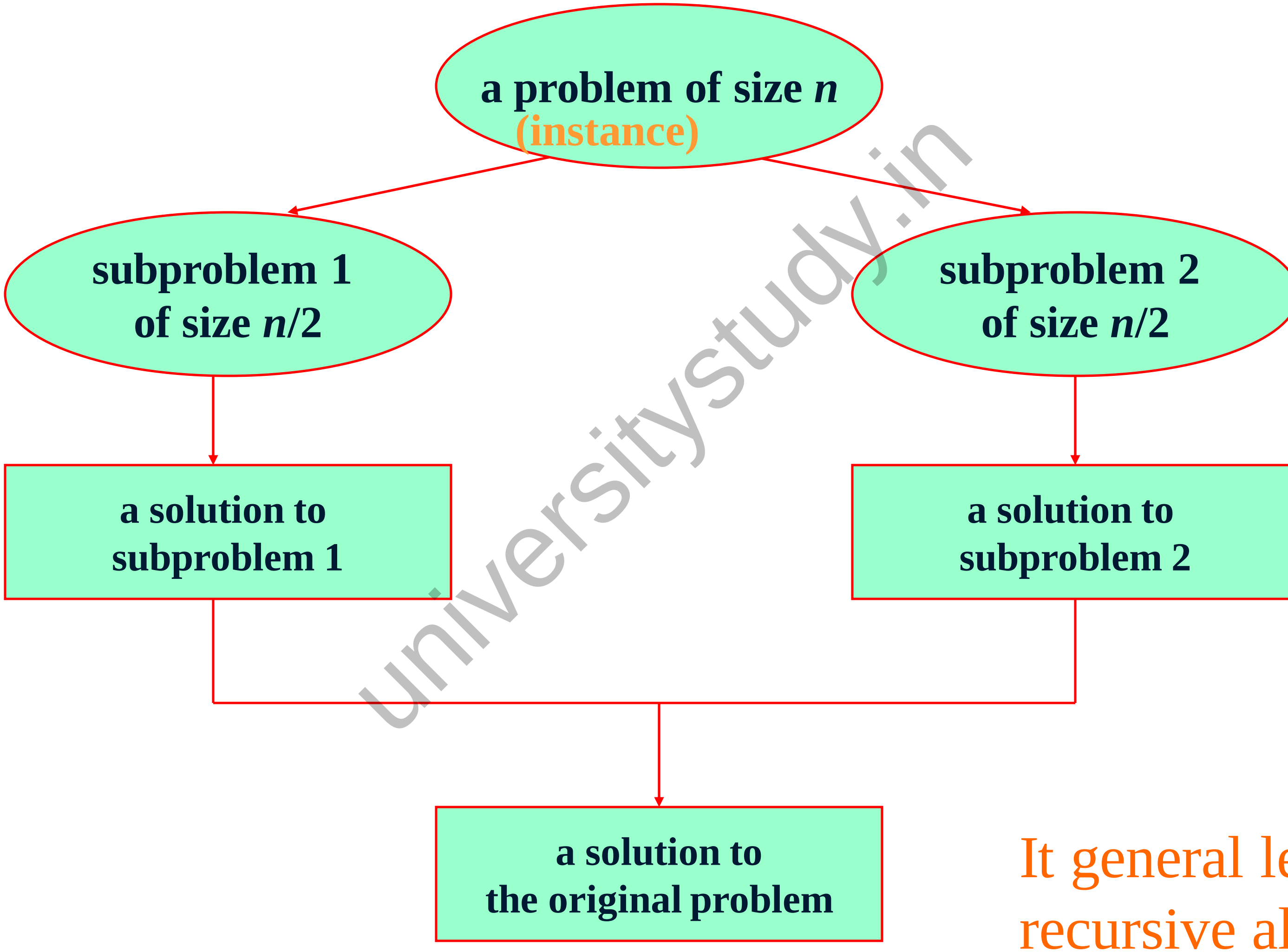
The most-well known algorithm design strategy:

1. Divide instance of problem into two or more smaller instances

2. Solve smaller instances recursively

3. Obtain solution to original (larger) instance by combining these solutions

Divide-and-Conquer Technique (cont.)



It general leads to a recursive algorithm!

Divide-and-Conquer Examples

- Sorting: mergesort and quicksort
- Binary tree traversals
- Binary search (?)
- Multiplication of large integers
- Matrix multiplication: Strassen’s algorithm
- Closest-pair and convex-hull algorithms

General Divide-and-Conquer Recurrence

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

<u>Master Theorem</u>: 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 Θ.

Examples: $T(n) = 4T(n/2) + n \Rightarrow T(n) \in ?$ $\Theta(n\text{^}2)$

$T(n) = 4T(n/2) + n^2 \Rightarrow T(n) \in ?$ $\Theta(n\text{^}2 log\ n)$

$T(n) = 4T(n/2) + n^3 \Rightarrow T(n) \in ?$ $\Theta(n\text{^}3)$

Mergesort

- Split array A[0..*n*-1] into about equal halves and make copies of each half in arrays B and C
- Sort arrays B and C recursively
- Merge sorted arrays B and C into array A as follows:
  - Repeat the following until no elements remain in one of the arrays:
    - compare the first elements in the remaining unprocessed portions of the arrays
    - copy the smaller of the two into A, while incrementing the index indicating the unprocessed portion of that array
  - Once all elements in one of the arrays are processed, copy the remaining unprocessed elements from the other array into A.

Pseudocode of 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 $A[0..\lfloor n/2 \rfloor - 1]$ to $B[0..\lfloor n/2 \rfloor - 1]$

copy $A[\lfloor n/2 \rfloor..n-1]$ to $C[0..\lceil n/2 \rceil - 1]$

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

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

Merge(B, C, A)

Pseudocode of Merge

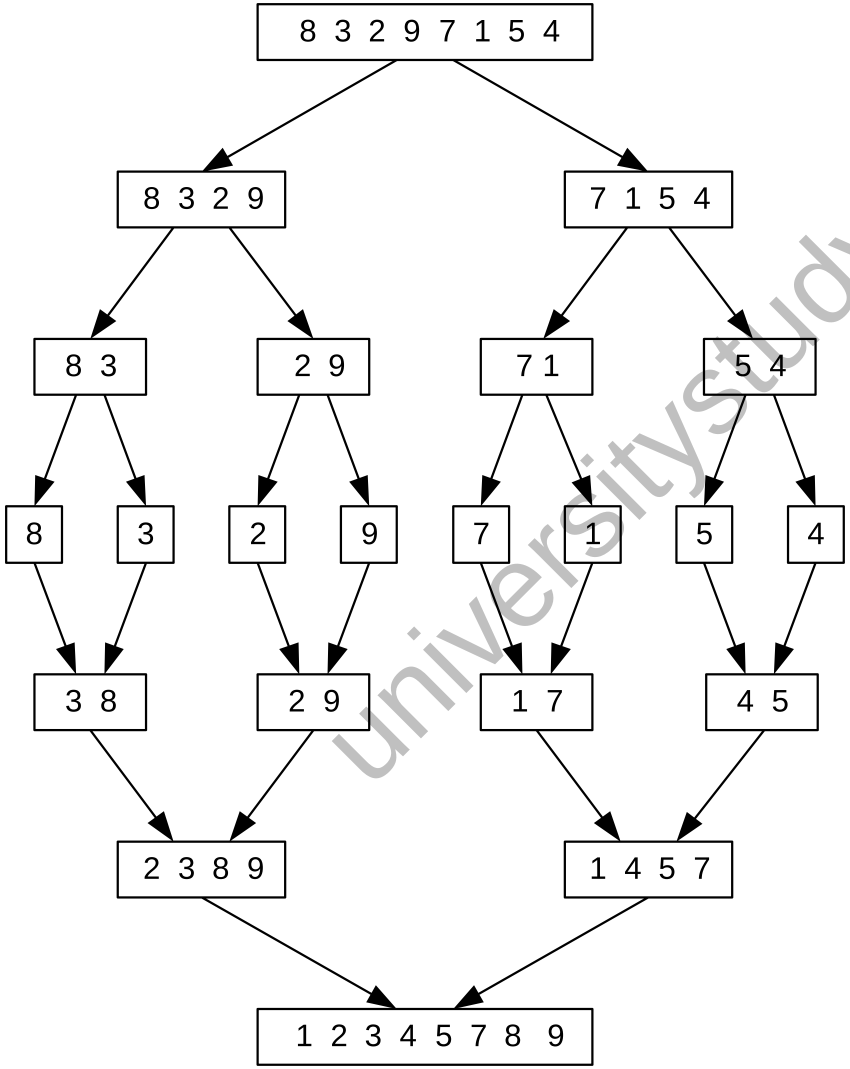
ALGORITHM $Merge(B[0..p-1], C[0..q-1], A[0..p+q-1])$

//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 $B[i] \le C[j]$
    $A[k] \leftarrow B[i]$; $i \leftarrow i + 1$
  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 $A[k..p+q-1]$

Time complexity: $\boldsymbol{\Theta(p+q) = \Theta(n)}$ comparisons

Mergesort Example



The non-recursive version of Mergesort starts from merging single elements into sorted pairs.

Analysis of Mergesort

- All cases have same efficiency: $\Theta(n \log n)$

$$T(n) = 2T(n/2) + \Theta(n),\ T(1) = 0$$

- Number of comparisons in the worst case is close to theoretical minimum for comparison-based sorting:

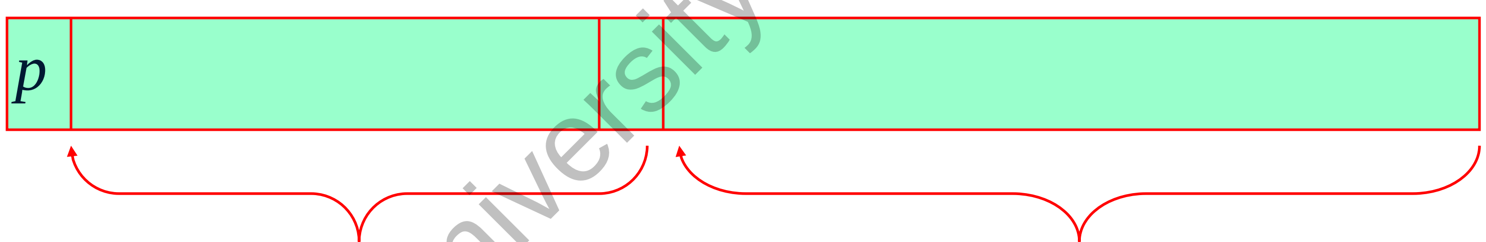
$$\lceil \log_2 n! \rceil \approx n \log_2 n - 1.44n$$

- Space requirement: $\Theta(n)$ (<u>not</u> in-place)

- Can be implemented without recursion (bottom-up)

Quicksort

- 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 (see next slide for an algorithm)



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

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** $A[i] \geq p$ or $i > r$
    repeat $j \leftarrow j - 1$ **until** $A[j] < p$ or $j = l$
    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

Time complexity: **$\Theta(r-l)$** comparisons

Quicksort Example

5 3 1 9 8 2 4 7

5

2 5 8

1 2 3 5 7 8 9

1 2 3 4 5 7 8 9

1 2 3 4 5 7 8 9

Analysis of Quicksort

- Best case: split in the middle — $\Theta(n \log n)$
- Worst case: sorted array! — $\Theta(n^2)$ $T(n) = T(n-1) + \Theta(n)$
- Average case: random arrays — $\Theta(n \log n)$

- Improvements:
  - better pivot selection: median of three partitioning
  - switch to insertion sort on small subfiles
  - elimination of recursion

  These combine to 20-25% improvement

- Considered the method of choice for internal sorting of large files ($n \geq 10000$)

Divide: Partition (rearrange) the array $A[p \,..\, r]$ into two (possibly empty) subarrays $A[p \,..\, q-1]$ and $A[q+1 \,..\, r]$ such that each element of $A[p \,..\, q-1]$ is less than or equal to $A[q]$, which is, in turn, less than or equal to each element of $A[q+1 \,..\, r]$. Compute the index q as part of this partitioning procedure.

Conquer: Sort the two subarrays $A[p \,..\, q-1]$ and $A[q+1 \,..\, r]$ by recursive calls to quicksort.

The following procedure implements quicksort:

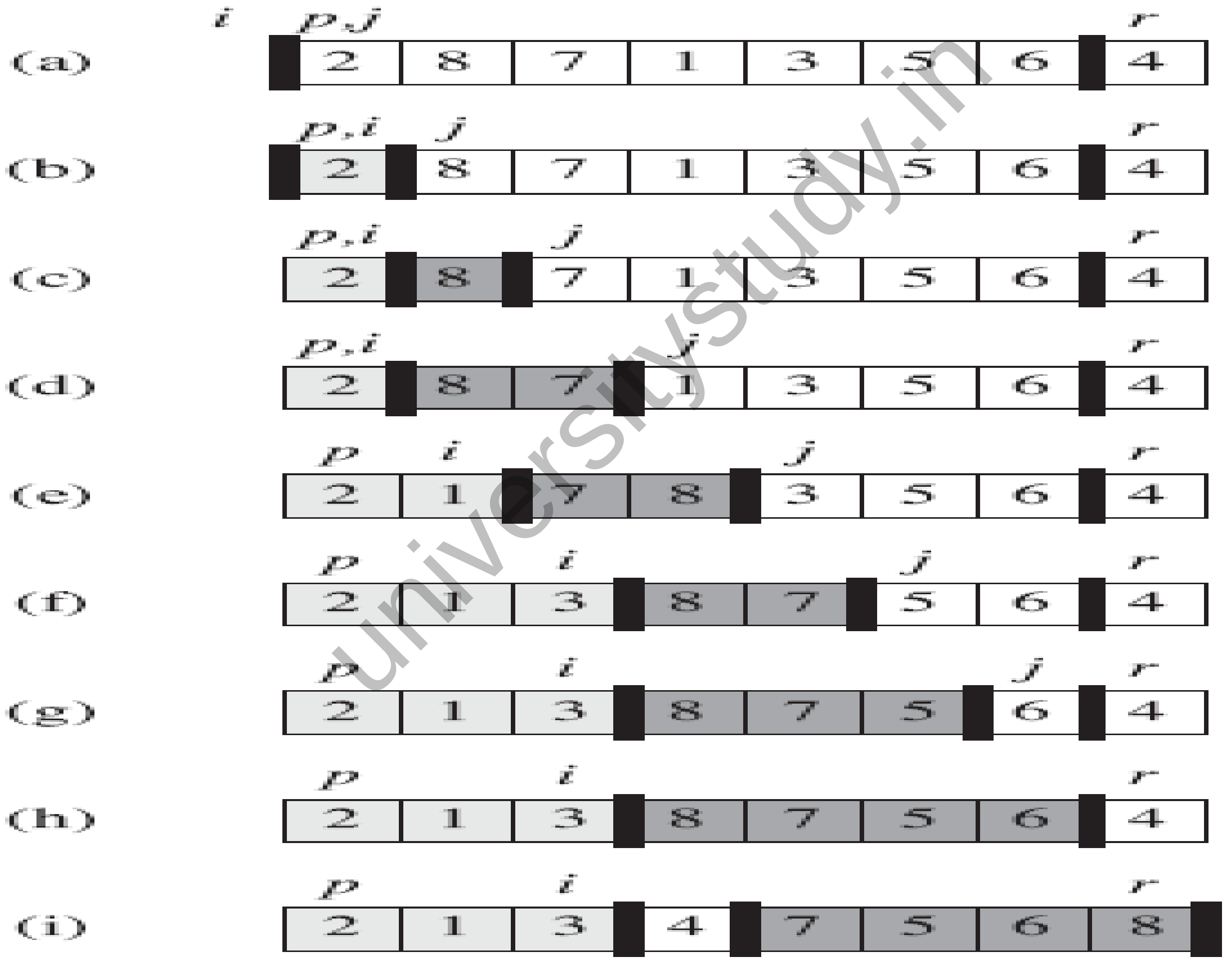
```
QUICKSORT(A, p, r)
if p < r
    q = PARTITION(A, p, r)
    QUICKSORT(A, p, q - 1)
    QUICKSORT(A, q + 1, r)
```

To sort an entire array A, the initial call is QUICKSORT(A, 1, $A.length$).

Partitioning the array

The key to the algorithm is the PARTITION procedure, which rearranges the subarray $A[p \,..\, r]$ in place.

```
PARTITION(A, p, r)
x = A[r]
i = p - 1
for j = p to r - 1
    if A[j] ≤ x
        i = i + 1
        exchange A[i] with A[j]
exchange A[i + 1] with A[r]
return i + 1
```



(a) 2 8 7 1 3 5 6 4
(b) 2 8 7 1 3 5 6 4
(c) 2 8 7 1 3 5 6 4
(d) 2 8 7 1 3 5 6 4
(e) 2 1 7 8 3 5 6 4
(f) 2 1 3 8 7 5 6 4
(g) 2 1 3 8 7 5 6 4
(h) 2 1 3 8 7 5 6 4
(i) 2 1 3 4 7 5 6 8

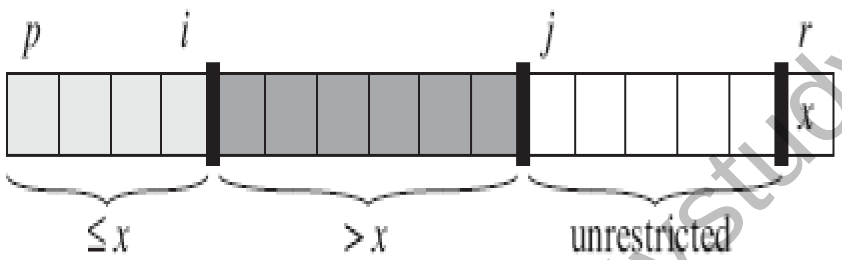
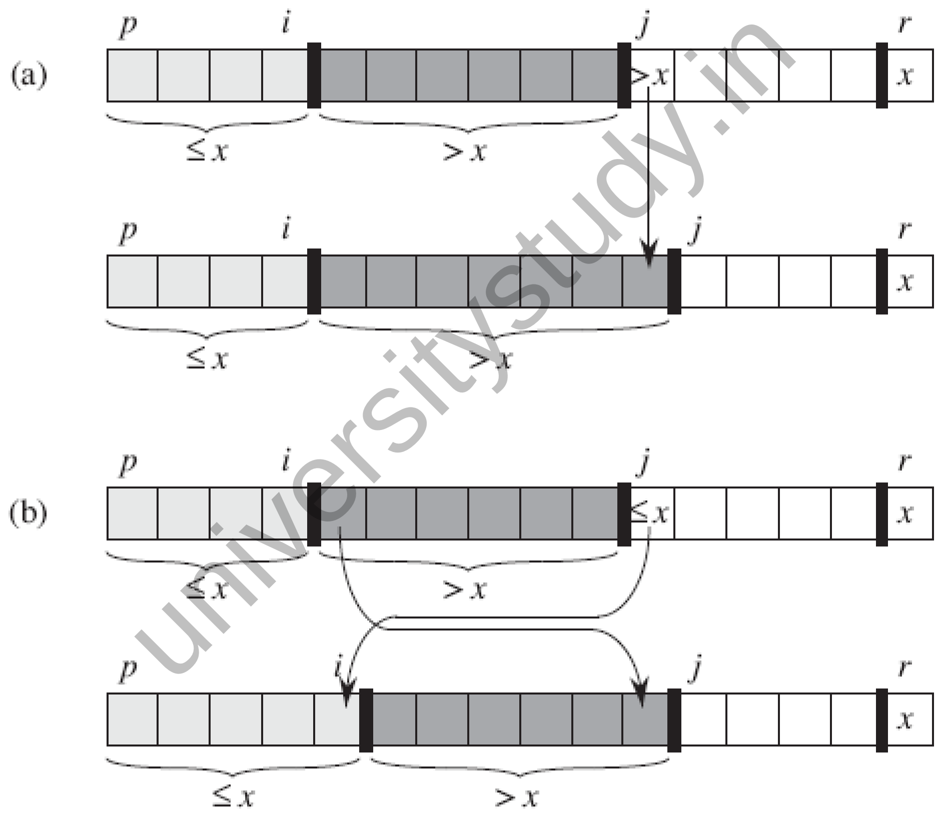


Figure 7.2 The four regions maintained by the procedure PARTITION on a subarray $A[p\,..\,r]$. The values in $A[p\,..\,i]$ are all less than or equal to x, the values in $A[i+1\,..\,j-1]$ are all greater than x, and $A[r] = x$. The subarray $A[j\,..\,r-1]$ can take on any values.


(a)
p
i
j
r
> x
x
≤ x
> x
(b)
≤ x

WORST CASE

$$
\begin{aligned}
T(n) &= T(n-1) + T(0) + \Theta(n) \\
&= T(n-1) + \Theta(n) .
\end{aligned}
$$

Best Case

$$T(n) = 2T(n/2) + \Theta(n),$$

$$\underbrace{A[0]\dots A[m-1]}_{\substack{\text{search here if}\\ K<A[m]}} \quad \overset{\substack{K\\ \updownarrow}}{A[m]} \quad \underbrace{A[m+1]\dots A[n-1]}_{\substack{\text{search here if}\\ K>A[m]}}.$$

As an example, let us apply binary search to searching for $K = 70$ in the array

3	14	27	31	39	42	55	70	74	81	85	93	98

The iterations of the algorithm are given in the following table:

index	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
value	3	14	27	31	39	42	55	70	74	81	85	93	98
iteration 1	*l*						*m*						*r*
iteration 2								*l*		*m*			*r*
iteration 3								*l,m*	*r*				

Binary Search

Very efficient algorithm for searching in sorted array:

K

vs

A[0] . . . A[m] . . . A[n-1]

If K = A[m], stop (successful search); otherwise, continue searching by the same method in A[0..m-1] if K < A[m] and in A[m+1..n-1] if K > A[m]

$l \leftarrow 0$; $r \leftarrow n-1$
while $l \le r$ do
    $m \leftarrow \lfloor (l+r)/2 \rfloor$
    if K = A[m] return m
    else if K < A[m] $r \leftarrow m-1$
    else $l \leftarrow m+1$
return -1

Analysis of Binary Search

- Time efficiency
  - worst-case recurrence: $C_w(n) = 1 + C_w(\lfloor n/2 \rfloor)$, $C_w(1) = 1$
    solution: $C_w(n) = \lceil \log_2(n+1) \rceil$

    This is VERY fast: e.g., $C_w(10^6) = 20$

- Optimal for searching a sorted array

- Limitations: must be a sorted array (not linked list)

- Bad (degenerate) example of divide-and-conquer
  because only one of the sub-instances is solved

- Has a continuous counterpart called *bisection method* for solving equations in one unknown $f(x) = 0$ (see Sec. 12.4)

Binary Tree Algorithms

Binary tree is a divide-and-conquer ready structure!

Ex. 1: Classic traversals (preorder, inorder, postorder)

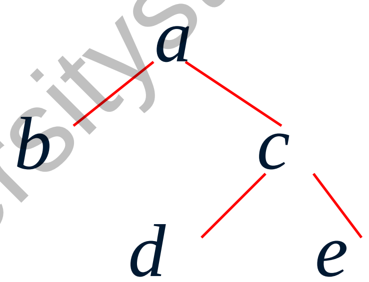
Algorithm *Inorder*(T)

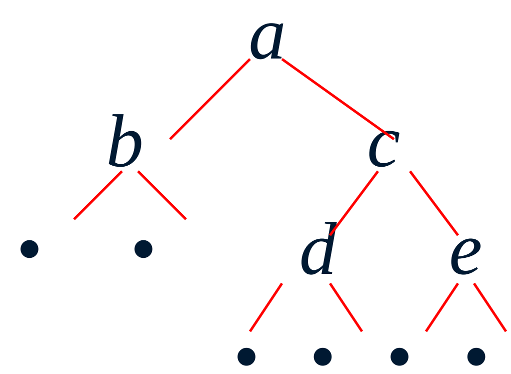
if $T \neq \varnothing$

  Inorder(T_{left})

  print(root of T)

  Inorder(T_{right})

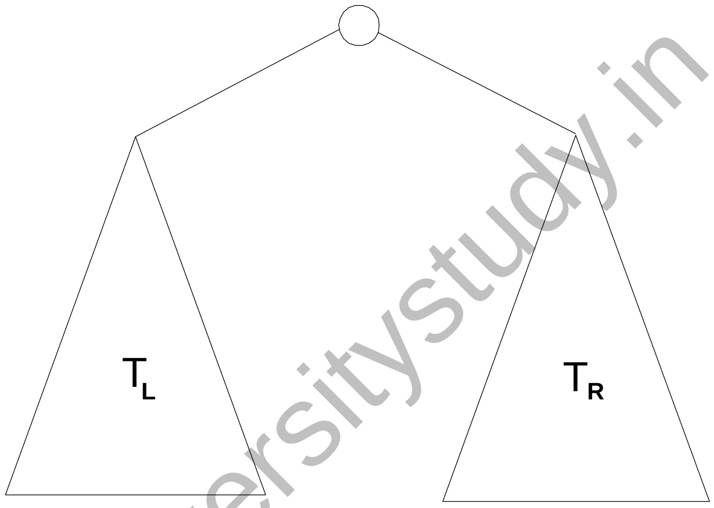




Efficiency: $\Theta(n)$. Why?

Binary Tree Algorithms (cont.)

Ex. 2: Computing the height of a binary tree



$h(T) = \max\{h(T_L), h(T_R)\} + 1$ if $T \neq \varnothing$ and $h(\varnothing) = -1$

Efficiency: $\Theta(n)$. Why?

Multiplication of Large Integers

Consider the problem of multiplying two (large) *n*-digit integers represented by arrays of their digits such as:

A = 12345678901357986429   B = 87654321284820912836

The grade-school algorithm:

$$
\begin{array}{rl}
 & a_1 \; a_2 \ldots \; a_n \\
 & \underline{b_1 \; b_2 \ldots \; b_n} \\
(d_{10})\, d_{11} d_{12} \ldots d_{1n} & \\
(d_{20})\, d_{21} d_{22} \ldots d_{2n} & \\
\ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots & \\
\underline{(d_{n0})\, d_{n1} d_{n2} \ldots d_{nn}} &
\end{array}
$$

Efficiency: $\Theta(n^2)$ single-digit multiplications

First Divide-and-Conquer Algorithm

A small example: $A * B$ where $A = 2135$ and $B = 4014$

$A = (21 \cdot 10^2 + 35)$, $B = (40 \cdot 10^2 + 14)$

So, $A * B = (21 \cdot 10^2 + 35) * (40 \cdot 10^2 + 14)$

$= 21 * 40 \cdot 10^4 + (21 * 14 + 35 * 40) \cdot 10^2 + 35 * 14$

In general, if $A = A_1A_2$ and $B = B_1B_2$ (where A and B are *n*-digit, A_1, A_2, B_1, B_2 are $n/2$-digit numbers),

$A * B = A_1 * B_1 \cdot 10^n + (A_1 * B_2 + A_2 * B_1) \cdot 10^{n/2} + A_2 * B_2$

Recurrence for the number of one-digit multiplications $M(n)$:

$$M(n) = 4M(n/2), \quad M(1) = 1$$

Solution: $M(n) = n^2$

23*14

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

where

$c_2 = a_1 * b_1$ is the product of their first digits,

$c_0 = a_0 * b_0$ is the product of their second digits,

$c_1 = (a_1 + a_0) * (b_1 + b_0) - (c_2 + c_0)$ is the product of the sum of the a's digits and the sum of the b's digits minus the sum of c_2 and c_0.

Now we apply this trick to multiplying two n-digit integers a and b where n is a positive even number. Let us divide both numbers in the middle—after all, we promised to take advantage of the divide-and-conquer technique. We denote the first half of the a's digits by a_1 and the second half by a_0; for b, the notations are b_1 and b_0, respectively. In these notations, $a = a_1a_0$ implies that $a = a_1 10^{n/2} + a_0$ and $b = b_1b_0$ implies that $b = b_1 10^{n/2} + b_0$. Therefore, taking advantage of the same trick we used for two-digit numbers, we get

$$c = a * b = (a_1 10^{n/2} + a_0) * (b_1 10^{n/2} + b_0)$$
$$= (a_1 * b_1)10^n + (a_1 * b_0 + a_0 * b_1)10^{n/2} + (a_0 * b_0)$$
$$= c_2 10^n + c_1 10^{n/2} + c_0,$$

where

$c_2 = a_1 * b_1$ is the product of their first halves,

$c_0 = a_0 * b_0$ is the product of their second halves,

$c_1 = (a_1 + a_0) * (b_1 + b_0) - (c_2 + c_0)$ is the product of the sum of the a's halves and the sum of the b's halves minus the sum of c_2 and c_0.

Second Divide-and-Conquer Algorithm

$$A * B = A_1 * B_1 \cdot 10^n + (A_1 * B_2 + A_2 * B_1) \cdot 10^{n/2} + A_2 * B_2$$

The idea is to decrease the number of multiplications from 4 to 3:

$$(A_1 + A_2) * (B_1 + B_2) = A_1 * B_1 + (A_1 * B_2 + A_2 * B_1) + A_2 * B_2,$$

I.e., $(A_1 * B_2 + A_2 * B_1) = (A_1 + A_2) * (B_1 + B_2) - A_1 * B_1 - A_2 * B_2,$ which requires only 3 multiplications at the expense of (4-1) extra add/sub.

Recurrence for the number of multiplications M(n):

$$M(n) = 3M(n/2), \quad M(1) = 1$$

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

What if we count both multiplications and additions?

Example of Large-Integer Multiplication

2135 ∗ 4014

= (21*10^2 + 35) * (40*10^2 + 14)

= (21*40)*10^4 + c1*10^2 + 35*14

where c1 = (21+35)*(40+14) - 21*40 - 35*14, and

21*40 = (2*10 + 1) * (4*10 + 0)

= (2*4)*10^2 + c2*10 + 1*0

where c2 = (2+1)*(4+0) - 2*4 - 1*0, etc.

This process requires 9 digit multiplications as opposed to 16.

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

Solving it by backward substitutions for $n = 2^k$ yields

$$M(2^k) = 3M(2^{k-1}) = 3[3M(2^{k-2})] = 3^2 M(2^{k-2})$$
$$= \cdots = 3^i M(2^{k-i}) = \cdots = 3^k M(2^{k-k}) = 3^k.$$

Since $k = \log_2 n$,

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

(On the last step, we took advantage of the following property of logarithms: $a^{\log_b c} = c^{\log_b a}$.)

Conventional Matrix Multiplication

- Brute-force algorithm

$$\begin{pmatrix} c_{00} & c_{01} \\ c_{10} & c_{11} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} a_{00} & a_{01} \\ a_{10} & a_{11} \end{pmatrix} * \begin{pmatrix} b_{00} & b_{01} \\ b_{10} & b_{11} \end{pmatrix}$$

$$= \begin{pmatrix} a_{00} * b_{00} + a_{01} * b_{10} & a_{00} * b_{01} + a_{01} * b_{11} \\ a_{10} * b_{00} + a_{11} * b_{10} & a_{10} * b_{01} + a_{11} * b_{11} \end{pmatrix}$$

8 multiplications

4 additions

Strassen's Matrix Multiplication

- Strassen's algorithm for two 2x2 matrices (1969):

$$\begin{pmatrix} c_{00} & c_{01} \\ c_{10} & c_{11} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} a_{00} & a_{01} \\ a_{10} & a_{11} \end{pmatrix} * \begin{pmatrix} b_{00} & b_{01} \\ b_{10} & b_{11} \end{pmatrix}$$

$$= \begin{pmatrix} m_1 + m_4 - m_5 + m_7 & m_3 + m_5 \\ m_2 + m_4 & m_1 + m_3 - m_2 + m_6 \end{pmatrix}$$

- $m_1 = (a_{00} + a_{11}) * (b_{00} + b_{11})$
- $m_2 = (a_{10} + a_{11}) * b_{00}$
- $m_3 = a_{00} * (b_{01} - b_{11})$
- $m_4 = a_{11} * (b_{10} - b_{00})$
- $m_5 = (a_{00} + a_{01}) * b_{11}$
- $m_6 = (a_{10} - a_{00}) * (b_{00} + b_{01})$
- $m_7 = (a_{01} - a_{11}) * (b_{10} + b_{11})$

7 multiplications

18 additions

Strassen's Matrix Multiplication

Strassen observed [1969] that the product of two matrices can be computed in general as follows:

$$\begin{pmatrix} C_{00} & C_{01} \\ C_{10} & C_{11} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} A_{00} & A_{01} \\ A_{10} & A_{11} \end{pmatrix} * \begin{pmatrix} B_{00} & B_{01} \\ B_{10} & B_{11} \end{pmatrix}$$

$$= \begin{pmatrix} M_1 + M_4 - M_5 + M_7 & M_3 + M_5 \\ M_2 + M_4 & M_1 + M_3 - M_2 + M_6 \end{pmatrix}$$

Formulas for Strassen's Algorithm

$M_1 = (A_{00} + A_{11}) * (B_{00} + B_{11})$

$M_2 = (A_{10} + A_{11}) * B_{00}$

$M_3 = A_{00} * (B_{01} - B_{11})$

$M_4 = A_{11} * (B_{10} - B_{00})$

$M_5 = (A_{00} + A_{01}) * B_{11}$

$M_6 = (A_{10} - A_{00}) * (B_{00} + B_{01})$

$M_7 = (A_{01} - A_{11}) * (B_{10} + B_{11})$

Analysis of Strassen's Algorithm

If n is not a power of 2, matrices can be padded with zeros.

What if we count both multiplications and additions?

Number of multiplications:

$$M(n) = 7M(n/2), \quad M(1) = 1$$

Solution: $M(n) = 7^{\log_2 n} = n^{\log_2 7} \approx n^{2.807}$ vs. n^3 of brute-force alg.

Algorithms with better asymptotic efficiency are known but they are even more complex and not used in practice.