COMP 251

Algorithms & Data Structures (Winter 2022)

Algorithm Paradigms – Divide and Conquer

School of Computer Science McGill University

Slides of (Comp321,2021), Langer (2014), slides by K. Wayne & Snoeyink and (Kleinberg & Tardos, 2005)

Announcements

Outline

- Complete Search
- Divide and Conquer.
 - Introduction.
 - Examples.
- Dynamic Programming.
- Greedy.

Algorithmic Paradigms – Divide and Conquer

- It is a problem solving paradigm where we try to make a problem simpler by 'dividing' it into smaller parts and 'conquering' them.
- Recursive in structure
- **Divide** the problem into sub-problems that are similar to the original but smaller in size
 - · Usually by half or nearly half.
- Conquer the sub-problems by solving them recursively. If they are small enough, just solve them in a straightforward manner.
- 3 · Combine the solutions to create a solution to the original problem

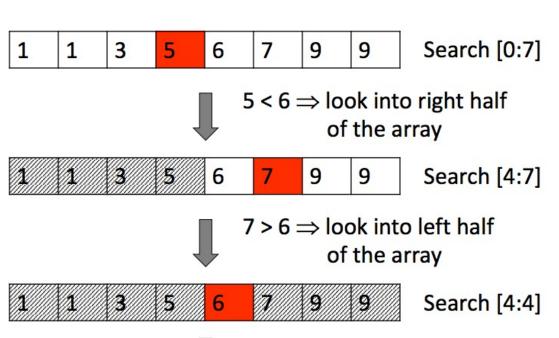
Decrease and Conquer

- Sometimes we're not actually dividing the problem into many subproblems, but only into one smaller subproblem
- Usually called decrease and conquer
- The most common example of this is binary search O(log n).
 - Given a sorted array of elements.
 - 1. Base case: the array is empty, return false
 - 2. Compare x to the element in the middle of the array
 - 3. If it's equal, then we found x and we return true
 - 4. If it's less, then x must be in the left half of the array
 - 4.1 Binary search the element (recursively) in the left half
 - 5. If it's greater, then x must be in the right half of the array
 - 5.1 Binary search the element (recursively) in the right half

Decrease and Conquer

Example: Does the following **sorted** array A contains the number 6?

Call: binarySearch(A, 0, 7, 6)





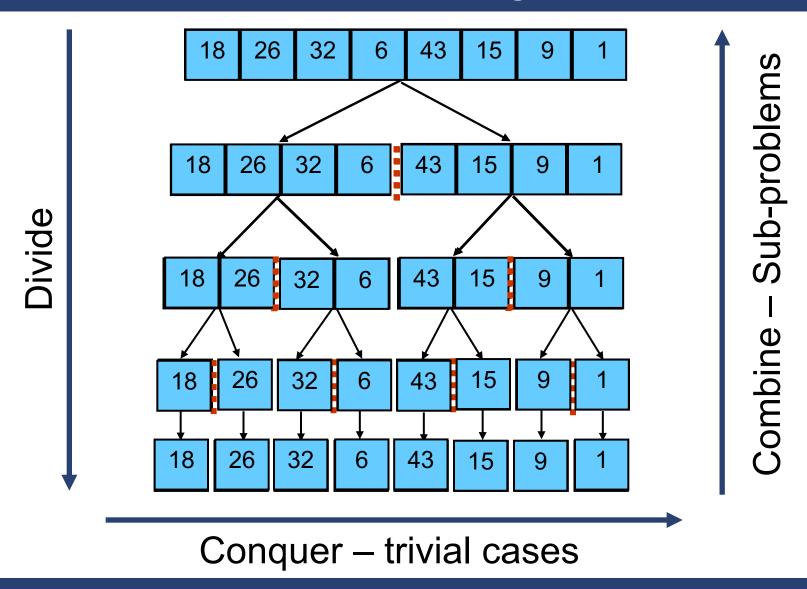
6 is found. Return 4 (index)

Divide and Conquer – Merge Sort

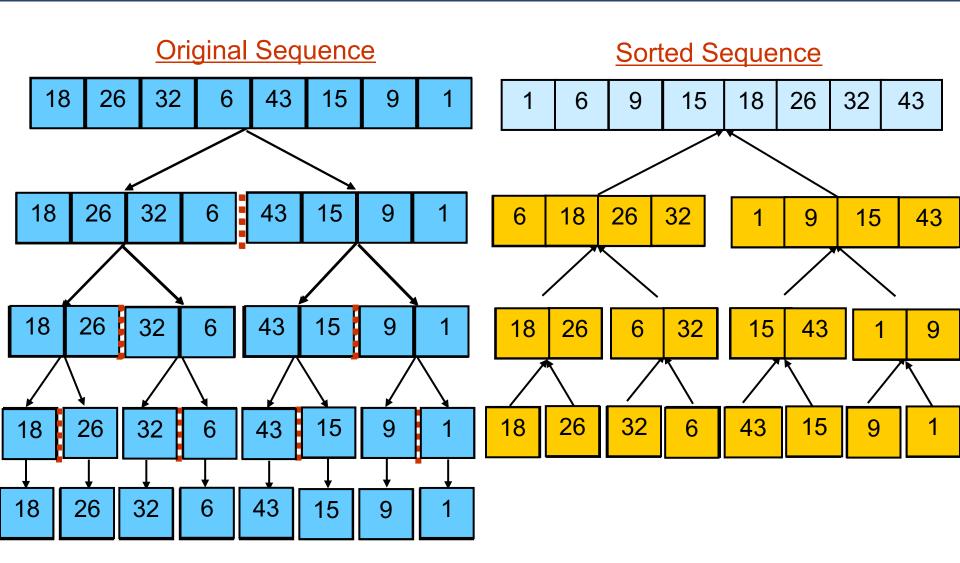
Sorting Problem: Sort a sequence of *n* elements into non-decreasing order.

- Divide: Divide the n-element sequence to be sorted into two subsequences of n/2 elements each
- Conquer: Sort the two subsequences recursively using merge sort.
- Combine: Merge the two sorted subsequences to produce the sorted answer.

Divide and Conquer – Merge Sort



Divide and Conquer – Merge Sort



MergeSort(A, p, r)

INPUT: a sequence of *n* numbers stored in array A OUTPUT: an ordered sequence of *n* numbers

```
MergeSort (A, p, r) // sort A[p..r] by divide & conquer1 if p < r2 then q \leftarrow \lfloor (p+r)/2 \rfloor3 MergeSort (A, p, q)4 MergeSort (A, q+1, r)5 Merge (A, p, q, r) // merges A[p..q] with A[q+1..r]
```

Initial Call: MergeSort(A, 1, n)

Merge(A, p, q, r)

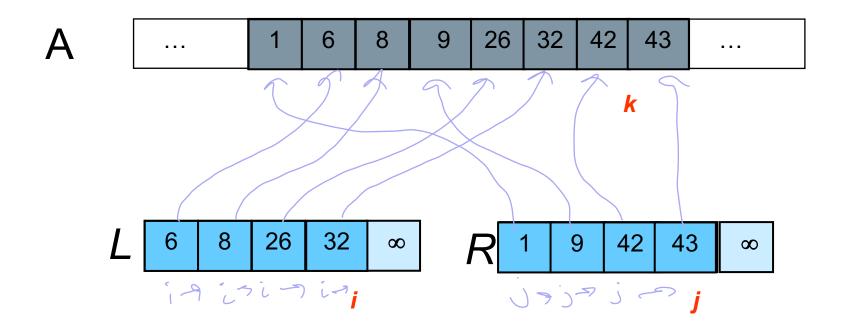
```
Merge(A, p, q, r)
1. n_1 \leftarrow q - p + 1
2. n_2 \leftarrow r - q
3. for i \leftarrow 1 to n_1
           do L[i] \leftarrow A[p+i-1]
   for j \leftarrow 1 to n_2
    do R[j] \leftarrow A[q + j]
   L[n_1+1] \leftarrow \infty \leftarrow
   R[n_2+1] \leftarrow \infty
9. i \leftarrow 1
10. j \leftarrow 1
11. for k \leftarrow p to r
12. do if L[i] \leq R[j]
13.
              then A[k] \leftarrow L[i]
                     i \leftarrow i + 1
14.
15. else A[k] \leftarrow R[j]
                     i \leftarrow i + 1
16.
```

Input: Array containing sorted subarrays A[p..q] and A[q+1..r].

Output: Merged sorted subarray in A[p..r].

Sentinels, to avoid having to check if either subarray is fully copied at each step.

Merge - Example



Merge - Correctness

```
Merge(A, p, q, r)
   n_1 \leftarrow q - p + 1
2. n_2 \leftarrow r - q
3. for i \leftarrow 1 to n_1
           do L[i] \leftarrow A[p+i-1]
5. 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
9. i \leftarrow 1
10. j \leftarrow 1
11. for k \leftarrow p to r
12.
    do if L[i] \leq R[j]
              then A[k] \leftarrow L[i]
13.
                      i \leftarrow i + 1
14.
              else A[k] \leftarrow R[i]
15.
                      i \leftarrow i + 1
16.
```

Loop Invariant property (main for loop)

- At the start of each iteration of the for loop, subarray A[p..k 1] contains the k p smallest elements of L and R in sorted order.
- L[i] and R[j] are the smallest elements of L and R that have not been copied back into A.

<u>Initialization:</u>

Before the first iteration:

- •A[p..k 1] is empty, k = p => k p = 0.
- j = j = 1.
- •L[1] and R[1] are the smallest elements of L and R not copied to A.

Merge - Correctness

```
Merge(A, p, q, r)
1. n_1 \leftarrow q - p + 1
    n_2 \leftarrow r - q
3. for i \leftarrow 1 to n_1
            do L[i] \leftarrow A[p+i-1]
5. for j \leftarrow 1 to n_2
6.
           do R[j] \leftarrow A[q+j]
7. L[n_1+1] \leftarrow \infty
8. R[n_2+1] \leftarrow \infty
9. i \leftarrow 1
10. i \leftarrow 1
11. for k \leftarrow p to r
12. \downarrow do if L[i] \leq R[j]
13. ^{\lozenge} then A[k] \leftarrow L[i]
                       i \leftarrow i + 1
14.
15. 
ightharpoonup else A[k] \leftarrow R[j]
16.
                       j \leftarrow j + 1
```

Maintenance:

Case 1: $L[i] \leq R[j]$

- •By LI, A contains k p smallest elements of L and R in sorted order.
- •By LI, *L[i]* and *R[j]* are the smallest elements of *L* and *R* not yet copied into *A*.
- •Line 13 results in A containing k p + 1 smallest elements (again in sorted order). Incrementing i and k reestablishes the LI for the next iteration.

Case 2: Similar arguments with L[i] > R[j]

Termination:

- •On termination, k = r + 1. By LI, A[p..k-1], which is A[p..r], contains k-p=r-p+1 smallest elements of L and R in sorted order.
- •L and R together contain $n_1 + n_2 + 2 = r p + 3$ elements including the two sentinels. All but the two largest (i.e., sentinels) have been copied in A.

MergeSort - Analysis

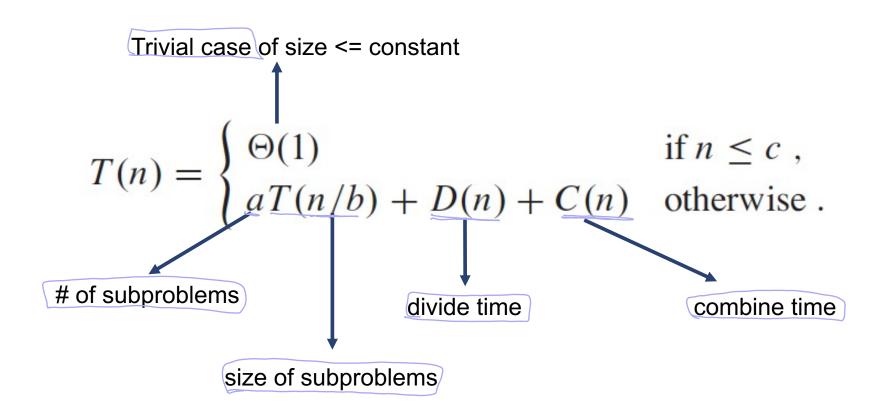
- Running time *T(n)* of Merge Sort:
 - falls out from the three steps of the basic paradigm
- Divide: computing the middle takes O(1)
- Conquer: solving 2 subproblems takes <u>2T(n/2)</u>
- Combine: merging n elements takes O(n)
- Total:

$$T(n) = O(1)$$
 if $n = 1$

$$T(n) = 2T(n/2) + O(n) + O(1)$$
 if $n > 1$

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

In general – Analysis - Recurrence



Solving recurrences

- **Substitution method**: we guess a bound and then use mathematical induction to prove that our guess is correct.
- Recursion-tree method: converts the recurrence into a tree whose nodes represent the costs incurred at various levels of the recursion. We use techniques for bounding summations to solve the recurrence.
- Master method: provides bounds for recurrences of the form.

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

where $a \ge 1$, $b > 1$, and $f(n)$ is a given function

MergeSort – Substitution method

Proposition. If T(n) satisfies the following recurrence, then $T(n) = n \log_2 n$.

$$T(n) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } n = 1\\ 2T(n/2) + n & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Pf 2. [by induction on n]

- Base case: when n = 1, T(1) = 0.
- Inductive hypothesis: assume $T(n) = n \log_2 n$.
- Goal: show that $T(2n) = 2n \log_2 (2n)$.

$$T(2n) = 2T(n) + 2n$$

$$= 2n \log_2 n + 2n$$

$$= 2n (\log_2(2n) - 1) + 2n$$

$$= 2n \log_2(2n). \quad \blacksquare$$

 $\log_2 2n = \log_2 2 + \log_2 n$ $\log_2 2n - 1 = \log_2 n$

assuming n

is a power of 2

an of

MergeSort – Recursion Tree

$$T(n) = \begin{cases} c & \text{if } n = 1 \\ 2T(n/2) + cn & \text{if } n > 1 \end{cases}, \qquad \text{assuming n is a power of 2}$$

$$cn/2 & cn/2 & cn/2$$

Recursion Tree

Recursion Tree

height of call tree
$$= \begin{cases} \log_b n & \text{of } n \\ \log_b n & \text{of } n \end{cases}$$
number of leaves.
$$= \begin{cases} \log_b n & \text{of } n \\ \log_b n & \text{of } n \end{cases}$$

Recursion stops at the base case, typically when problem size is a small number

Recursion Tree – Good VS Evil

Let's the battle begin



Taken from pinterest

- But first lets define (recall) the allowed 'super powers'.
- Geometric series power (convergence power).
 - Sum of a number of terms that have a constant ratio between successive terms.

$$\frac{1}{1} + \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{4} + \frac{1}{8} + \frac{1}{16} + \dots$$

In general:

$$S_n = \sum_{k=0}^n r^k = 1 + r + r^2 + \dots + r^n$$

Multiplying both sides by r gives.

$$rS_n = r + r^2 + r^3 + \dots + r^{n+1}$$

- Geometric series (convergence power).
 - Substracting the two previous equations.

$$(1-r)S_n = (1+r+r^2+\cdots+r^n) - (r+r^2+r^3+\cdots+r^{n+1})$$

$$(1-r)S_n = 1 - r^{n+1}$$

$$S_n = \sum_{k=0}^n r^k = \frac{1-r^{n+1}}{1-r}$$

• For -1 < r < 1, the sum converges as $n \to \infty$, in which case

$$S_{\infty} = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} r^k = \frac{1}{1 - r}$$

Exponents and logs (manipulation power).

$$\chi^{(yz)} = (\chi^{5})^{2} \neq \chi^{(yz)}$$

$$e.g. \chi^{2.3} = (\chi^{2})^{3} \qquad \neq \chi^{(2^{3})}$$

$$= (\chi^{2})(\chi^{2})(\chi^{2})$$

$$= \chi^{5} \qquad = \chi^{5}$$

$$= \chi^{5} \qquad = \chi^{5} \qquad = \chi^{5} \qquad = \chi^{5}$$

$$= \chi^{5} \qquad = \chi^{5} \qquad$$

Exponents and logs (manipulation power).

for any
$$a,b, x > 0$$

$$\log_b x = \log_b a \cdot \log_a x$$

$$\text{Why?}$$

$$\chi \equiv a \log_a x$$

$$\log_b f \left(a \log_a x \right)$$

$$\log_b x = \log_b \left(a \log_a x \right)$$

$$\log_b x = \log_b \left(a \log_a x \right)$$

$$\log_b x = \log_b \left(a \log_a x \right)$$

Exponents and logs (manipulation power).

Claim:
$$a \log_b n = n \log_b a$$

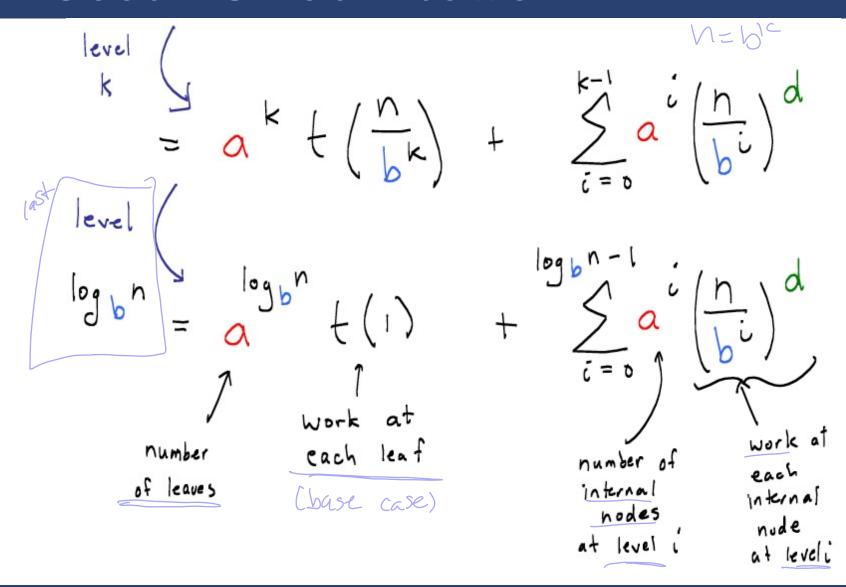
Proof:
$$a \log_b n = a \log_b a \log_a n$$

$$= (a \log_a n) \log_b a$$

$$= (n \log_b a) \log_b a$$

Good VS Bad – battle

Good VS Bad – battle



Good VS Bad – battle

$$t(n) = a \qquad t(1) \qquad + \qquad \sum_{i=0}^{\log b} a \qquad \left(\frac{h}{b^{i}}\right)^{d}$$

$$= n \qquad \sum_{i=0}^{\log b} \left(\frac{a}{b^{d}}\right)^{d}$$
Note that the battle is this ratio.

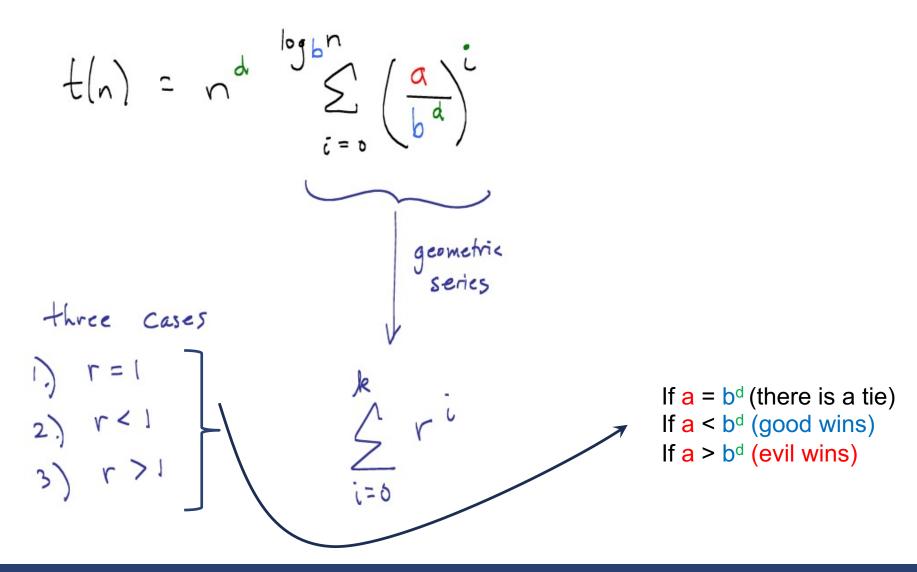
Assume $t(1) = 1$, and note $\frac{h}{b^{\log b}} = 1$.

Good VS Bad – battle possible results

$$t(n) = n^{d} \sum_{i=0}^{\log bn} \left(\frac{a}{b^{d}}\right)^{i}$$

- If a < b^d (good wins)
 - The amount of work is decreasing with the recursion level i.
 - Worst case is in the root (i.e., i = 0)
 - Might expect O(n^d) => The work n^d of the root dominates
- If a = b^d (there is a tie)
 - The amount of work is the same at every recursion level i.
 - All levels have the same 'worst' case.
 - Might expect O(n^d log n) => n^d for all the log levels
- If a > b^d (evil wins)
 - The amount of work is increasing with the recursion level i.
 - Worst case is in the leaves (i.e., $i = log_b n$)
 - Might expect => O(nlog(a)) => O(#leaves) because leaves dominates

Good VS Bad – battle possible results



Case 1 $(r = 1) : a = b^d$

Here we have the same amount of work at each level.

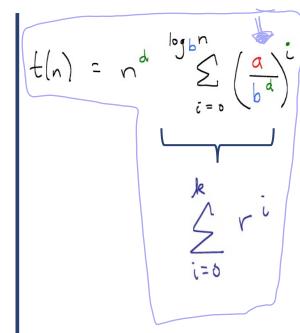
$$|+r+r^2+r^3+...r^4|$$

$$=|+|+|+|+...|$$

$$=k+|$$

$$=|og_b n+|$$

$$=(n)=o(n^d log_b n)$$



Case 1 $(r = 1) : a = b^d$

eg. mergesort

$$t(n) = a t(\frac{n}{b}) + c n$$

$$a = 2, b = 2, d = 1$$

$$t(n) = O(n \log_2 n)$$

$$Total: cn \lg n + cn$$

The same amount of total work done
at each level i, namely $O(n)$.

Case 2 (r < 1) : a < bd



Here we have a decreasing amount of work at each level.

$$1 + r + r^{2} + r^{3} + \dots r^{k}$$

$$= \frac{1 - r^{k+1}}{1 - r}$$

$$= \frac{1}{1 - r}, \quad \text{if } r < 1$$

$$= \text{constant (independent of n)}$$

$$\Rightarrow t(n) = O(n^{d})$$

$$t(n) = n^{d} \sum_{i=0}^{\log bn} \left(\frac{a}{b^{d}}\right)^{i}$$

Case 3 (r > 1): **a** > **b**d

Here we have an increasing amount $t(n) = n^{d} \sum_{i=0}^{\log b^n} \left(\frac{a}{b^d}\right)^i$ of work to do at each level. The leaves dominate.

$$t(n) = n^{d} \sum_{i=0}^{\log b} \left(\frac{a}{b}\right)^{i}$$

$$k \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} x^{i}$$

Case 3 (r > 1): a > books

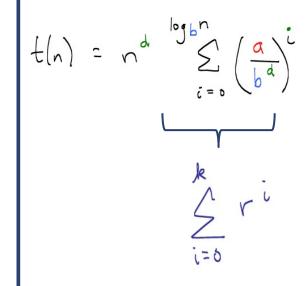
$$rk = \frac{a}{b^{d}}k$$

$$= \frac{a}{b^{d}}\log b^{n}$$

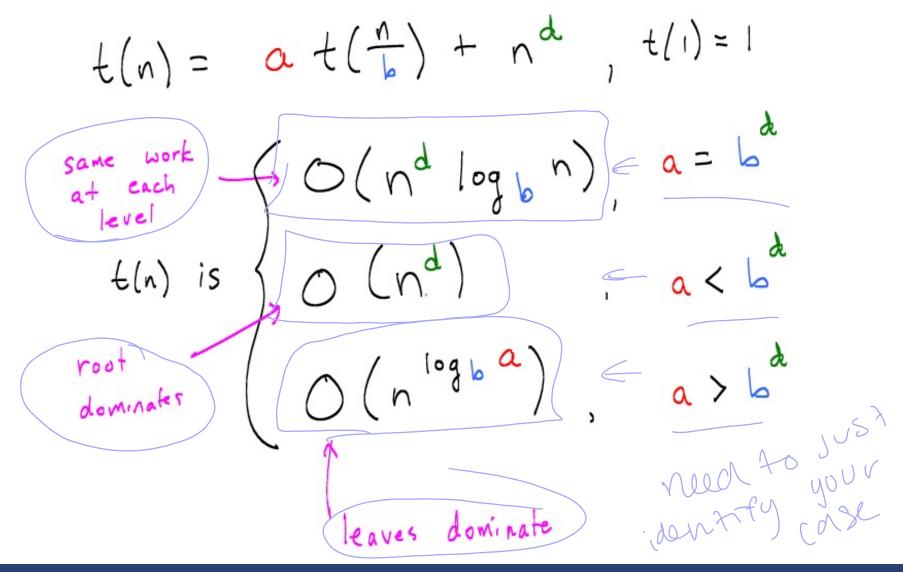
$$t(n) = n^{d} \sum_{i=0}^{\log h} \left(\frac{a}{b^{d}}\right)$$

Case 3 (r > 1): a > bd

$$\begin{array}{rcl}
\pm(n) &=& n^{d} \sum_{i=0}^{|g|_{i}} r^{i} \\
&<& n^{d} C r^{|g|_{i}} \\
&=& n^{d} C \left(\frac{a}{b^{d}}\right)^{|g|_{i}} \\
&=& n^{d}$$



Master Method (summary)



Master Method (summary)

$$t(n) = a + (\frac{n}{b}) + nd, t(1) = 1$$

same work at each (nd log b n), a = b

level
$$t(n) \text{ is } 0 \text{ (nd)}, a < b$$

root dominates

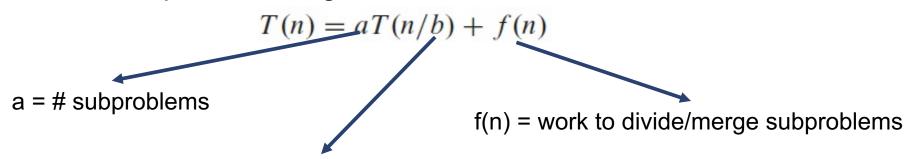
$$0 \text{ (nd)}, a > b$$

leaves dominate

- Limitations:
 - Defined for worst case.
 - Sub-problems need to have the same size.
 - Applicable to recursions of divide-and-conquer solutions
 - Etc
 - Etc

Master theorem

Goal: Recipe for solving common recurrences.



b = factor by which the subproblem size decreases

- 1. If $f(n) = O(n^{\log_b a \epsilon})$ for some constant $\epsilon > 0$, then $T(n) = \Theta(n^{\log_b a})$. bad wins
- 2. If $f(n) = \Theta(n^{\log_b a})$, then $T(n) = \Theta(n^{\log_b a} \lg n)$. tie
- 3. If $f(n) = \Omega(n^{\log_b a + \epsilon})$ for some constant $\epsilon > 0$, and if $af(n/b) \le cf(n)$ for some constant c < 1 and all sufficiently large n, then $T(n) = \Theta(f(n))$.

Note that the three cases do not cover all the possibilities for f(n).

Master theorem – Case 1

Master theorem. Suppose that T(n) is a function on the nonnegative integers that satisfies the recurrence

$$T(n) = a T\left(\frac{n}{b}\right) + f(n)$$

where n/b means either $\lfloor n/b \rfloor$ or $\lceil n/b \rceil$. Let $k = \log_b a$. Then,

Case 1. If $f(n) = O(n^{k-\epsilon})$ for some constant $\epsilon > 0$, then $T(n) = \Theta(n^k)$.

Ex.
$$T(n) = 3T(n/2) + n$$
.

- a = 3, b = 2, f(n) = n, $k = \log_2 3$.
- $T(n) = \Theta(n^{\lg 3})$.

Case 1

The formula works with
$$\varepsilon = \log_2 3 - 1 > 0$$

$$f(n) = n = O(n^{\log_2 3 - (\log_2 3 - 1)})$$

Master theorem - Case 2

Master theorem. Suppose that T(n) is a function on the nonnegative integers that satisfies the recurrence

$$T(n) = a T\left(\frac{n}{b}\right) + f(n)$$

where n/b means either $\lfloor n/b \rfloor$ or $\lceil n/b \rceil$. Let $k = \log_b a$. Then,

Case 2. If $f(n) = \Theta(n^k \log^p n)$, then $T(n) = \Theta(n^k \log^{p+1} n)$.

Ex.
$$T(n) = 2T(n/2) + \Theta(n \log n)$$
.

- a = 2, b = 2, $f(n) = n \log n$, $k = \log_2 2 = 1$, p = 1.
- $T(n) = \Theta(n \log^2 n)$.

$$f(n) = \Theta(n \log n) = \Theta(n^{\log_2 2} \log n)$$

Master theorem – Case 3

Master theorem. Suppose that T(n) is a function on the nonnegative integers that satisfies the recurrence

$$T(n) = a T\left(\frac{n}{b}\right) + f(n)$$

where n/b means either $\lfloor n/b \rfloor$ or $\lceil n/b \rceil$. Let $k = \log_b a$. Then,

regularity condition holds if $f(n) = \Theta(n^{k+\epsilon})$



Case 3. If $f(n) = \Omega(n^{k+\epsilon})$ for some constant $\epsilon > 0$ and if $a f(n/b) \le c f(n)$ for some constant c < 1 and all sufficiently large n, then $T(n) = \Theta(f(n))$.

Ex.
$$T(n) = 3 T(n/4) + n^5$$
.

- a = 3, b = 4, $f(n) = n^5$, $k = \log_4 3$.
- $T(n) = \Theta(n^5)$.

1st property satisfied with $\varepsilon = 4 - \log_4 3$ $f(n) = n^5 = \Omega(n^{\log_4 3 + (4 - \log_4 3)})$ 2nd property satisfied with $c = \frac{3}{4}$ $3 \cdot \left(\frac{n}{4}\right)^5 \le c \cdot n^5$

Master theorem – Applications

$$k = \log_2 1 = 0; f(n) = 2^n$$
$$2^n = \Omega(n^{0 + \log 2})$$
$$1 \cdot 2^{\frac{n}{2}} \le \frac{1}{2} \cdot 2^n$$

$$T(n) = 3 * T(n/2) + n^2$$

 $\Rightarrow T(n) = \Theta(n^2) \text{ (case 3)}$

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

 $\Rightarrow T(n) = \Theta(2^n)$ (case 3)

$$T(n) = 16 * T(n/4) + n$$

 $\Rightarrow T(n) = Θ(n^2)$ (case 1)

$$T(n) = 2 * T(n/2) + n log n$$

 $\Rightarrow T(n) = n log^2 n (case 2)$

$$T(n) = 2^n * T(n/2) + n^n$$

 \Rightarrow Does not apply!!

$$k = \log_4 16 = 2$$
; $f(n) = n$
 $n = O(n^{2-1})$

$$k = \log_2 3; f(n) = n^2$$

$$n^2 = \Omega(n^{\log_2 3 + (2 - \log_2 3)})$$

$$3 \cdot \left(\frac{n}{2}\right)^2 \le \frac{3}{4} \cdot n^2$$

$$k = \log_2 2 = 1; f(n) = n \log n$$

$$n \log n = \Theta(n^1 \log^1 n)$$

Master theorem – Other variants – Akra-Bazzi

Desiderata. Generalizes master theorem to divide-and-conquer algorithms where subproblems have substantially different sizes.

Theorem. [Akra-Bazzi] Given constants $a_i > 0$ and $0 < b_i \le 1$, functions $h_i(n) = O(n / \log^2 n)$ and $g(n) = O(n^c)$, if the function T(n) satisfies the recurrence:

$$T(n) = \sum_{i=1}^k a_i T(b_i n + h_i(n)) + g(n)$$

$$\begin{array}{c} \text{a}_i \text{ subproblems} \\ \text{of size b}_i \text{ n} \end{array} \quad \text{small perturbation to handle} \\ \text{floors and ceilings} \end{array}$$

Then
$$T(n) = \Theta\left(n^p\left(1 + \int_1^n \frac{g(u)}{u^{p+1}}du\right)\right)$$
 where p satisfies $\sum_{i=1}^k a_i\,b_i^p = 1$.

Ex.
$$T(n) = 7/4 T(\lfloor n/2 \rfloor) + T(\lceil 3/4 n \rceil) + n^2$$
.

- $a_1 = 7/4$, $b_1 = 1/2$, $a_2 = 1$, $b_2 = 3/4 \implies p = 2$.
- $h_1(n) = \lfloor 1/2 \ n \rfloor 1/2 \ n$, $h_2(n) = \lceil 3/4 \ n \rceil 3/4 \ n$.
- $g(n) = n^2 \implies T(n) = \Theta(n^2 \log n)$.

Outline

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 - Examples.
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- Greedy.

