Chapter 5: 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.)



Divide-and-Conquer Examples

- Sorting: mergesort and quicksort
- Binary tree traversals
- Multiplication of large integers
- Matrix multiplication: Strassen's algorithm
- Closest-pair and convex-hull algorithms

Binary search: decrease-by-half (or degenerate divide&conq.)

General Divide-and-Conquer Recurrence

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

Master Theorem:If $a < b^d$, $T(n) \in \Theta(n^d)$ If $a = b^d$, $T(n) \in \Theta(n^d \log n)$ If $a > b^d$, $T(n) \in \Theta(n^{\log b^d})$

Note: The same results hold with O instead of Θ .

Examples: $T(n) = 4T(n/2) + n \implies T(n) \in ?$ $T(n) = 4T(n/2) + n^2 \implies T(n) \in ?$ $T(n) = 4T(n/2) + n^3 \implies T(n) \in ?$

5.1 Mergesort

- Split array A[0..n-1] in two about equal halves and make copies of each half in arrays B and C
- **o** 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.

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..[n/2] - 1] to B[0..[n/2] - 1]copy A[[n/2]..n - 1] to C[0..[n/2] - 1]Mergesort(B[0..[n/2] - 1])Mergesort(C[0..[n/2] - 1])Merge(B, C, A)

Pseudocode of Merge

Merge(B[0...p-1], C[0..q-1], A[0...p+q-1])ALGORITHM //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 $i \leftarrow 0; \ i \leftarrow 0; \ k \leftarrow 0$ while i < p and j < q do if $B[i] \leq C[j]$ $A[k] \leftarrow B[i]; i \leftarrow i+1$ else $A[k] \leftarrow C[j]; j \leftarrow j+1$ $k \leftarrow k+1$ if i = pcopy C[j..q-1] to A[k..p+q-1]else copy B[i...p-1] to A[k...p+q-1]

Mergesort Example



Analysis of Mergesort

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

■ Number of comparisons in the worst case is close to theoretical minimum for comparison-based sorting: $\lceil \log_2 n! \rceil \approx n \log_2 n - 1.44n$

D Space requirement: $\Theta(n)$ (not in-place)

Can be implemented without recursion (bottom-up)

5.2 Quicksort

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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

Quicksort: Seudocode

ALGORITHM Quicksort(A[l..r])

//Sorts a subarray by quicksort //Input: Subarray of array A[0..n - 1], defined by its left and right // indices l and r //Output: Subarray A[l..r] sorted in nondecreasing order if l < r

 $s \leftarrow Partition(A[l..r]) //s$ is a split position Quicksort(A[l..s - 1])Quicksort(A[s + 1..r])

Hoare's Partitioning Algorithm

ALGORITHM *HoarePartition*(*A*[*l*..*r*])

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//Partitions a subarray by Hoare's algorithm, using the first element
         as a pivot
\Pi
//Input: Subarray of array A[0..n - 1], defined by its left and right
         indices l and r (l < r)
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//Output: Partition of A[l..r], with the split position returned as
         this function's value
\Pi
p \leftarrow A[l]
i \leftarrow l; j \leftarrow r+1
repeat
    repeat i \leftarrow i + 1 until A[i] \ge p
    repeat j \leftarrow j - 1 until A[j] \le p
    swap(A[i], A[j])
until i \geq j
swap(A[i], A[j]) //undo last swap when i \ge j
swap(A[l], A[j])
return j
```

Quicksort Example

5 3 1 9 8 2 4 7

Analysis of Quicksort

- **D** Best case: split in the middle $\Theta(n \log n)$
- **u** Worst case: sorted array! $\Theta(n^2)$
- **D** Average case: random arrays $\Theta(n \log n)$

Improvements:

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

These combine to 20-25% improvement

■ Considered the method of choice for internal sorting of large arrays ($n \ge 10000$)

5.3 Binary Tree Algorithms

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

Ex. 1: Classic traversals (preorder, inorder, postorder) Algorithm *Inorder*(*T*) if $T \neq \emptyset$ *Inorder*(T_{left}) print(root of *T*) *Inorder*(T_{right})

Efficiency: $\Theta(n)$

Binary Tree Algorithms (cont.)

Ex. 2: Computing the height of a binary tree



$h(T) = \max\{h(T_{\rm L}), h(T_{\rm R})\} + 1$ if $T \neq \emptyset$ and $h(\emptyset) = -1$

Efficiency: $\Theta(n)$

5.4 Multiplication of Large Integers

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

 $A = 12345678901357986429 \quad B = 87654321284820912836$

The grade-school algorithm:

 $\begin{array}{r} a_{1} a_{2} \dots a_{n} \\ b_{1} b_{2} \dots b_{n} \\ \hline (d_{10}) d_{11} d_{12} \dots d_{1n} \\ \hline (d_{20}) d_{21} d_{22} \dots d_{2n} \end{array}$

...

 $(d_{n0}) d_{n1} d_{n2} \dots d_{nn}$

Efficiency: n^2 one-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), M(1) = 1

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

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), M(1) = 1Solution: $M(n) = 3^{\log 2^n} = n^{\log 2^3} \approx n^{1.585}$

Example of Large-Integer Multiplication

2135 * 4014

Strassen's Matrix Multiplication

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

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

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

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.

Number of multiplications: M(n) = 7M(n/2), 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.

5.5 Closest-Pair Problem by Divide-and-Conquer

Step 1 Divide the points given into two subsets P_l and P_r by a vertical line x = m so that half the points lie to the left or on the line and half the points lie to the right or on the line.



Closest Pair by Divide-and-Conquer (cont.)

Step 2 Find recursively the closest pairs for the left and right subsets.

Step 3 Set $d = \min\{d_l, d_r\}$

We can limit our attention to the points in the symmetric vertical strip *S* of width 2*d* as possible closest pair. (The points are stored and processed in increasing order of their *y* coordinates.)

Step 4 Scan the points in the vertical strip *S* from the lowest up. For every point p(x,y) in the strip, inspect points in in the strip that may be closer to *p* than *d*. There can be no more than 5 such points following *p* on the strip list!

Running time of the algorithm is described by

T(n) = 2T(n/2) + M(n), where $M(n) \in O(n)$

By the Master Theorem (with a = 2, b = 2, d = 1) $T(n) \in O(n \log n)$

Quickhull Algorithm

Convex hull: smallest convex set that includes given points

- Assume points are sorted by *x*-coordinate values
- **Identify** *extreme points* P_1 and P_2 (leftmost and rightmost)
- **Compute** *upper hull* recursively:
 - find point P_{max} that is farthest away from line P_1P_2
 - compute the upper hull of the points to the left of line $P_1 P_{\text{max}}$
 - compute the upper hull of the points to the left of line $P_{\text{max}}P_2$

Compute *lower hull* in a similar manner



Efficiency of Quickhull Algorithm

- Finding point farthest away from line P₁P₂ can be done in linear time
- **Time efficiency:**
 - worst case: $\Theta(n^2)$ (as quicksort)
 - average case: Θ(n) (under reasonable assumptions about distribution of points given)

If points are not initially sorted by x-coordinate value, this can be accomplished in O(n log n) time

Several O(n log n) algorithms for convex hull are known