Chapter 5: Divide-and-Conquer

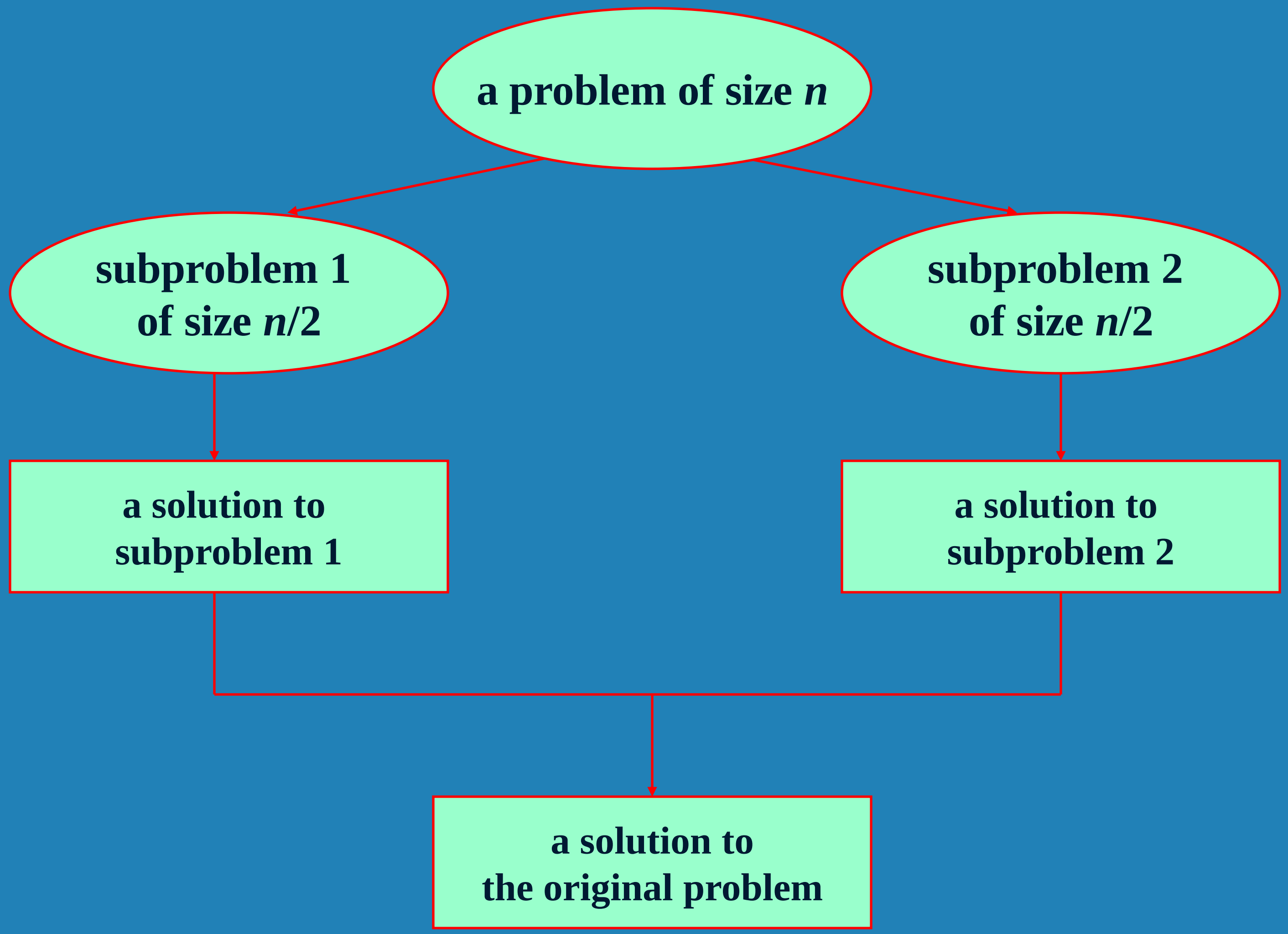
The most-well known algorithm design strategy:

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 $f(n) \in \Theta(n^d)$, $d \geq 0$

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 $a > b^d$, $T(n) \in \Theta(n^{\log_b a})$

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

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

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
- 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

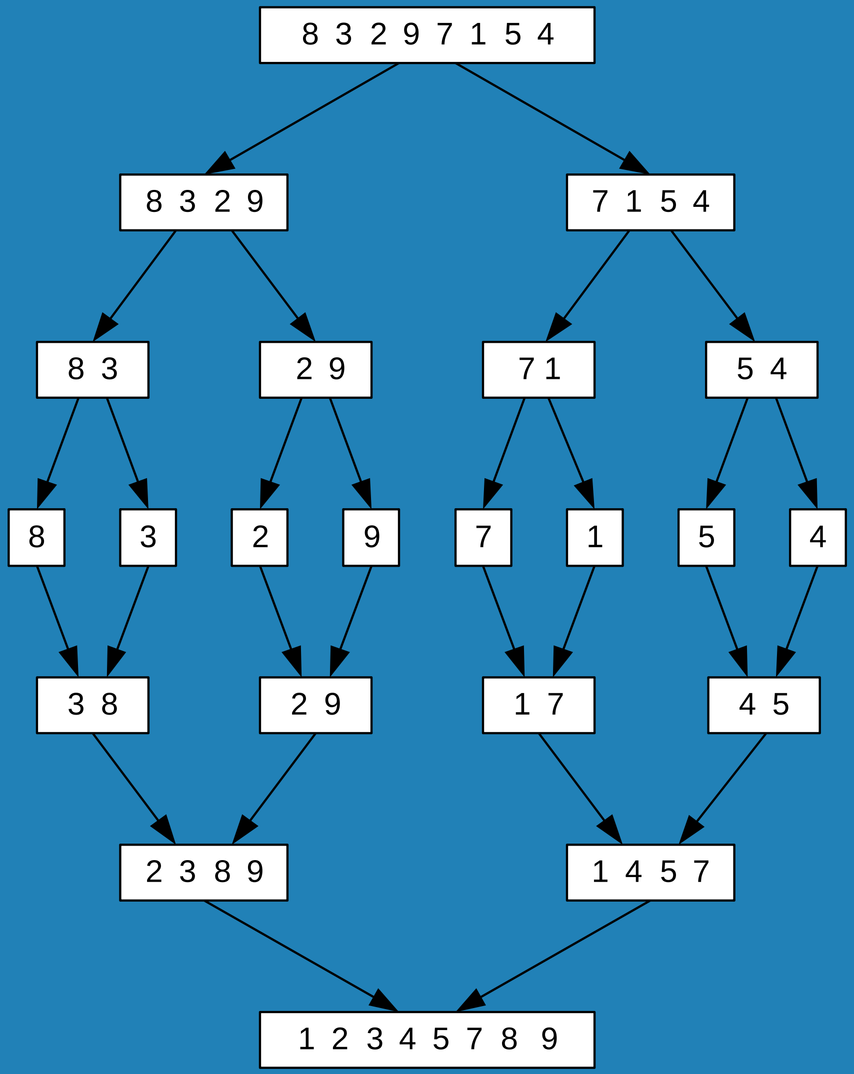
ALGORITHM *Mergesort*$(A[0..n-1])$
    //Sorts array $A[0..n-1]$ by recursive mergesort
    //Input: An array $A[0..n-1]$ of orderable elements
    //Output: Array $A[0..n-1]$ sorted in nondecreasing order
    if $n > 1$
        copy $A[0..\lfloor n/2 \rfloor - 1]$ to $B[0..\lfloor n/2 \rfloor - 1]$
        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 $B[i] \leq C[j]$
        $A[k] \leftarrow B[i]$; $i \leftarrow i + 1$
    else $A[k] \leftarrow C[j]$; $j \leftarrow j + 1$
    $k \leftarrow k + 1$
if $i = p$
    copy $C[j..q-1]$ 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:

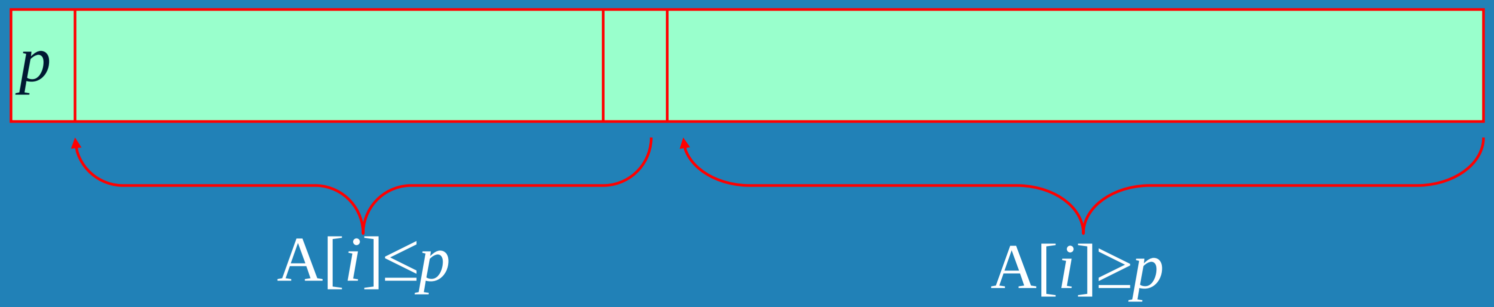
$$\lceil \log_2 n! \rceil \approx n \log_2 n - 1.44n$$

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

- Can be implemented without recursion (bottom-up)

5.2 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

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


Quicksort Example

5 3 1 9 8 2 4 7

Analysis of Quicksort

- Best case: split in the middle — $\Theta(n \log n)$
- Worst case: sorted array! — $\Theta(n^2)$
- 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 ($n \geq 10000$)

5.3 Binary Tree Algorithms

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

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

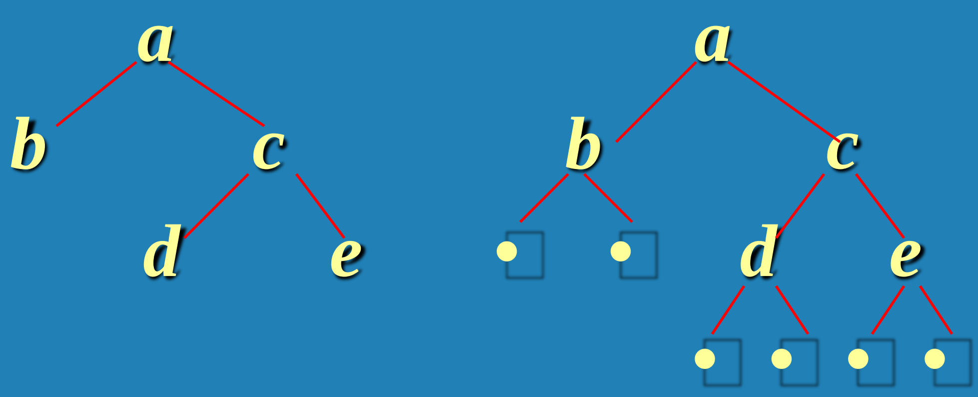
Algorithm *Inorder*(T)

if $T \neq \varnothing$

  Inorder(T_{left})

  print(root of T**)**

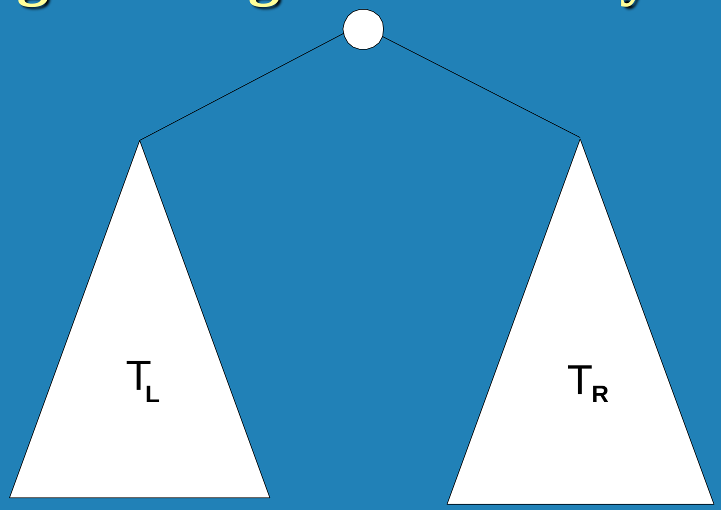
  Inorder(T_{right})



Efficiency: $\Theta(n)$

Binary Tree Algorithms (cont.)

Ex. 2: Computing the height of a binary tree



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

$h(\varnothing) = -1$

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   B = 87654321284820912836

The grade-school algorithm:

$$
\begin{array}{r}
a_1\ a_2 \ldots\ a_n \\
b_1\ b_2 \ldots\ b_n \\
\hline
(d_{10})\ d_{11}d_{12} \ldots\ d_{1n} \\
(d_{20})\ d_{21}d_{22} \ldots\ d_{2n} \quad\quad \\
\ldots\ \ldots\ \ldots\ \ldots\ \ldots\ \ldots\ \ldots \quad\quad\quad \\
(d_{n0})\ d_{n1}d_{n2} \ldots\ d_{nn} \quad\quad\quad\quad \\
\hline
\end{array}
$$

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 $M(n)$:

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

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*):

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

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

Example of Large-Integer Multiplication

$A = A_1A_2$ and $B = B_1B_2$

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

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

Example: A*B = 2135 ∗ 4014 and n = 4

$A_1 = 21 \quad A_2 = 35 \quad B_1 = 40 \quad B_2 = 14$

$A_1 \times B_1 = 21 \times 40 = 840$

$A_2 \times B_2 = 35 \times 14 = 490$

$(A_1+A_2) \times (B_1+B_2) = (21 + 35) \times (40 + 14) = 3{,}024$

$(A_1 \times B_2) + (A_2 \times B_1) = 3{,}024 - 840 - 490 = 1{,}694$

$A\times B = 840 \times 10000 + 1694 \times 100 + 490 = 8{,}569{,}890$

Example of Large-Integer Multiplication

Example: 2135 $*$ 4014

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

$c_2 = a_1 * b_1$ 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.

Strassen's Matrix Multiplication

Strassen observed [1969] that the product of two matrices can be computed 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.

Number of multiplications:

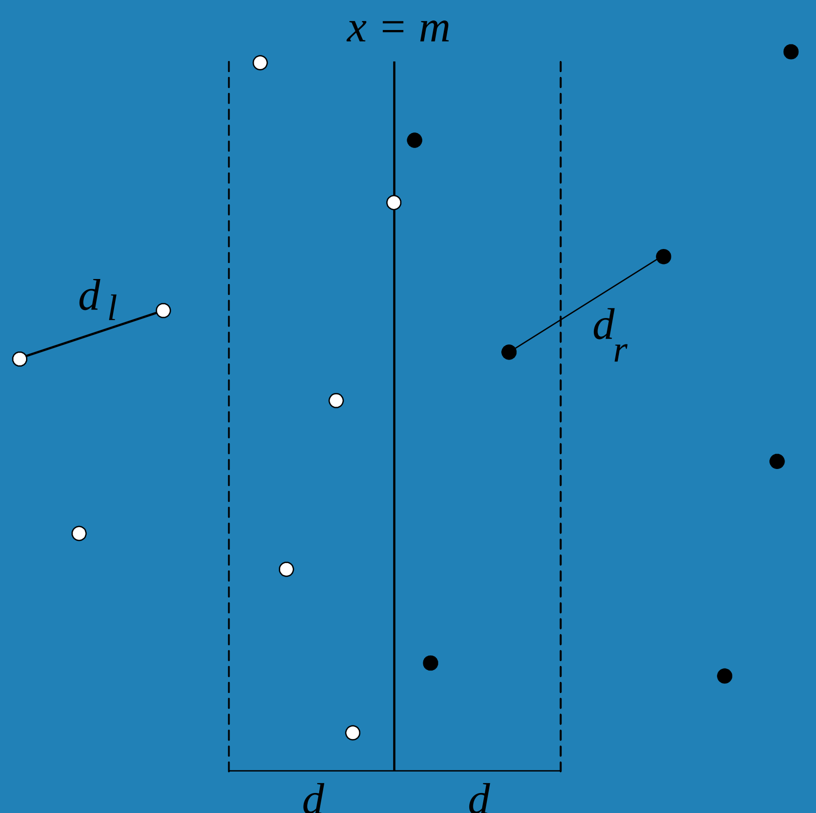
$$M(n) = 7M(n/2), \quad M(1) = 1$$

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.

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!

Efficiency of the Closest-Pair Algorithm

Running time of the algorithm is described by

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

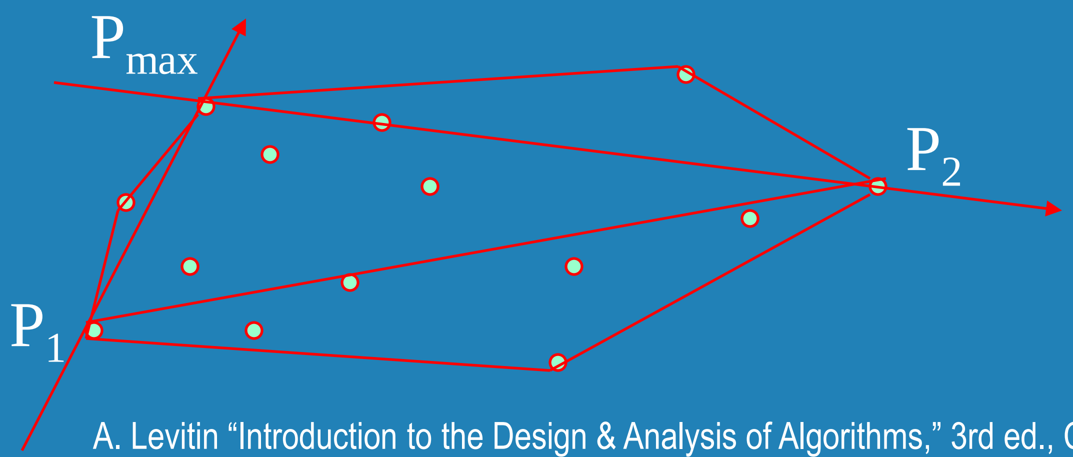
By the Master Theorem (with $a = 2$, $b = 2$, $d = 1$)

$$T(n) \in O(n \log n)$$

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_1P_{max}
  - compute the upper hull of the points to the left of line $P_{max}P_2$
- Compute *lower hull* in a similar manner



Efficiency of Quickhull Algorithm

- Finding point farthest away from line P_1P_2 can be done in linear time
- Time efficiency:
  - worst case: $\Theta(n^2)$ (as quicksort)
  - average case: $\Theta(n)$ (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