Chapter 5

Reductions, Recursion and Divide and Conquer

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5.1 Reductions and Recursion

5.1.0.1 Reduction

Reducing problem $A$ to problem $B$:

(A) Algorithm for $A$ uses algorithm for $B$ as a black box

5.1.0.2 Distinct Elements Problem

Problem Given an array $A$ of $n$ integers, are there any duplicates in $A$?

Naive algorithm:

```plaintext
for i = 1 to n - 1 do
    for j = i + 1 to n do
        if (A[i] = A[j])
            return YES
    return NO
```

Running time: $O(n^2)$

5.1.0.3 Reduction to Sorting

```plaintext
Sort A
for i = 1 to n - 1 do
    if (A[i] = A[i + 1]) then
        return YES
return NO
```

Running time: $O(n)$ plus time to sort an array of $n$ numbers

Important point: algorithm uses sorting as a black box
5.1.0.4 Two sides of Reductions

Suppose problem $A$ reduces to problem $B$

(A) **Positive direction:** Algorithm for $B$ implies an algorithm for $A$

(B) **Negative direction:** Suppose there is no “efficient” algorithm for $A$ then it implies no efficient algorithm for $B$ (technical condition for reduction time necessary for this)

Example: Distinct Elements reduces to Sorting in $O(n)$ time

(A) An $O(n \log n)$ time algorithm for Sorting implies an $O(n \log n)$ time algorithm for Distinct Elements problem.

(B) If there is no $o(n \log n)$ time algorithm for Distinct Elements problem then there is no $o(n \log n)$ time algorithm for Sorting.

5.2 Recursion

5.2.0.5 Recursion

Reduction: reduce one problem to another

Recursion: a special case of reduction

(A) reduce problem to a **smaller** instance of itself

(B) self-reduction

(A) Problem instance of size $n$ is reduced to one or more instances of size $n - 1$ or less.

(B) For termination, problem instances of small size are solved by some other method as **base cases**

5.2.0.6 Recursion

(A) Recursion is a very powerful and fundamental technique

(B) Basis for several other methods

(A) Divide and conquer

(B) Dynamic programming

(C) Enumeration and branch and bound etc

(D) Some classes of greedy algorithms

(C) Makes proof of correctness easy (via induction)

(D) Recurrences arise in analysis

5.2.0.7 Selection Sort

Sort a given array $A[1..n]$ of integers.

Recursive version of Selection sort.
The Tower of Hanoi puzzle

The Tower of Hanoi algorithm; ignore everything but the bottom disk

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SelectSort(A[1..n])</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>if n = 1 return</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Find smallest number in A. Let A[i] be smallest number</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Swap A[1] and A[i]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SelectSort(A[2..n])</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

$T(n)$: time for **SelectSort** on an $n$ element array.

$T(n) = T(n - 1) + n$ for $n > 1$ and $T(1) = 1$ for $n = 1$

$T(n) = \Theta(n^2)$.

### 5.2.0.8 Tower of Hanoi

Move stack of $n$ disks from peg 0 to peg 2, one disk at a time.

*Rule:* cannot put a larger disk on a smaller disk.

*Question:* what is a strategy and how many moves does it take?
5.2.0.9 Tower of Hanoi via Recursion

5.2.0.10 Recursive Algorithm

\[
\text{Hanoi}(n, \text{src}, \text{dest}, \text{tmp}):
\]
\[
\text{if } (n > 0) \text{ then}
\]
\[
\begin{align*}
\text{Hanoi}(n-1, \text{src}, \text{tmp}, \text{dest}) \\
\text{Move disk } n \text{ from } \text{src} \text{ to } \text{dest} \\
\text{Hanoi}(n-1, \text{tmp}, \text{dest}, \text{src})
\end{align*}
\]

\(T(n)\): time to move \(n\) disks via recursive strategy

\[
T(n) = 2T(n-1) + 1 \quad n > 1 \quad \text{and } T(1) = 1
\]

5.2.0.11 Analysis

\[
T(n) = 2T(n-1) + 1 \\
= 2^2T(n-2) + 2 + 1 \\
= \ldots \\
= 2^iT(n-i) + 2^{i-1} + 2^{i-2} + \ldots + 1 \\
= \ldots \\
= 2^{n-i}T(1) + 2^{n-2} + \ldots + 1 \\
= 2^{n-1} + 2^{n-2} + \ldots + 1 \\
= (2^n - 1)/(2 - 1) = 2^n - 1
\]

5.2.0.12 Non-Recursive Algorithms for Tower of Hanoi

Pegs numbered 0, 1, 2

Non-recursive Algorithm 1:
(A) Always move smallest disk forward if \(n\) is even, backward if \(n\) is odd.
(B) Never move the same disk twice in a row.
(C) Done when no legal move.

Non-recursive Algorithm 2:
(A) Let \(\rho(n)\) be the smallest integer \(k\) such that \(n/2^k\) is not an integer. Example: \(\rho(40) = 4, \rho(18) = 2\).
(B) In step \(i\) move disk \(\rho(i)\) forward if \(n - i\) is even and backward if \(n - i\) is odd.

Moves are exactly same as those of recursive algorithm. Prove by induction.
5.3 Divide and Conquer

5.3.0.13 Divide and Conquer Paradigm

Divide and Conquer is a common and useful type of recursion

Approach
(A) Break problem instance into smaller instances - divide step
(B) Recursively solve problem on smaller instances
(C) Combine solutions to smaller instances to obtain a solution to the original instance - conquer step

Question: Why is this not plain recursion?
(A) In divide and conquer, each smaller instance is typically at least a constant factor smaller than the original instance which leads to efficient running times.
(B) There are many examples of this particular type of recursion that it deserves its own treatment.

5.4 Merge Sort

5.4.1 Merge Sort
5.4.1.1 Sorting

Input Given an array of \( n \) elements

Goal Rearrange them in ascending order

5.4.2 Merge Sort [von Neumann]
5.4.2.1 MergeSort

1. \textit{Input}: Array \( A[1\ldots n] \)

\begin{align*}
A & \quad L \quad G \quad O \quad R \quad I \quad T \quad H \quad M \quad S \\
\end{align*}

2. Divide into subarrays \( A[1\ldots m] \) and \( A[m+1\ldots n] \), where \( m = \lfloor n/2 \rfloor \)

\begin{align*}
A & \quad L \quad G \quad O \quad R \\
\quad I \quad T \quad H \quad M \quad S \\
\end{align*}

3. Recursively \textbf{MergeSort} \( A[1\ldots m] \) and \( A[m+1\ldots n] \)

\begin{align*}
A & \quad G \quad L \quad O \quad R \\
\quad H \quad I \quad M \quad S \quad T \\
\end{align*}

4. \textit{Merge the sorted arrays}

\begin{align*}
A & \quad G \quad H \quad I \quad L \quad M \quad O \quad R \quad S \quad T \\
\end{align*}
5.4.2.2 Merging Sorted Arrays

(A) Use a new array $C$ to store the merged array
(B) Scan $A$ and $B$ from left-to-right, storing elements in $C$ in order

\[
\begin{align*}
AGLOR & \quad HIMST \\
AGHILMORS &
\end{align*}
\]

(C) Merge two arrays using only constantly more extra space (in-place merge sort): doable but complicated and typically impractical

5.4.3 Analysis

5.4.3.1 Running Time

$T(n)$: time for merge sort to sort an $n$ element array

\[
T(n) = T(\lfloor n/2 \rfloor) + T(\lceil n/2 \rceil) + cn
\]

What do we want as a solution to the recurrence?

Almost always only an asymptotically tight bound. That is we want to know $f(n)$ such that $T(n) = \Theta(f(n))$.

(A) $T(n) = O(f(n))$ - upper bound
(B) $T(n) = \Omega(f(n))$ - lower bound

5.4.4 Solving Recurrences

5.4.4.1 Solving Recurrences: Some Techniques

(A) Know some basic math: geometric series, logarithms, exponentials, elementary calculus
(B) Expand the recurrence and spot a pattern and use simple math
(C) Recursion tree method — imagine the computation as a tree
(D) Guess and verify — useful for proving upper and lower bounds even if not tight bounds

Albert Einstein: “Everything should be made as simple as possible, but not simpler.”

Know where to be loose in analysis and where to be tight. Comes with practice, practice, practice!

5.4.5 Recursion Trees

5.4.5.1 MergeSort: $n$ is a power of 2

(A) Unroll the recurrence. $T(n) = 2T(n/2) + cn$
(B) Identify a pattern. At the $i$th level total work is $cn$
(C) Sum over all levels. The number of levels is $\log n$. So total is $cn \log n = O(n \log n)$
5.4.6 Recursion Trees

5.4.6.1 An illustrated example...

5.4.7 MergeSort Analysis

5.4.7.1 When \( n \) is not a power of 2

(A) When \( n \) is not a power of 2, the running time of \texttt{MergeSort} is expressed as

\[
T(n) = T([n/2]) + T([n/2]) + cn
\]

(B) \( n_1 = 2^{k-1} < n \leq 2^k = n_2 \) (\( n_1, n_2 \) powers of 2)

(C) \( T(n_1) < T(n) \leq T(n_2) \) (Why?)

(D) \( T(n) = \Theta(n \log n) \) since \( n/2 \leq n_1 < n \leq n_2 \leq 2n \).

5.4.7.2 Recursion Trees

\texttt{MergeSort}: \( n \) is not a power of 2

\[
T(n) = T([n/2]) + T([n/2]) + cn
\]

Observation: For any number \( x \), \( \lfloor x/2 \rfloor + \lceil x/2 \rceil = x \).
5.4.8 MergeSort Analysis

5.4.8.1 When $n$ is not a power of 2: Guess and Verify

If $n$ is power of 2 we saw that $T(n) = \Theta(n \log n)$.
Can guess that $T(n) = \Theta(n \log n)$ for all $n$.
Verify? proof by induction!

**Induction Hypothesis**: $T(n) \leq 2cn \log n$ for all $n \geq 1$

**Base Case**: $n = 1$. $T(1) = 0$ since no need to do any work and $2cn \log n = 0$ for $n = 1$.

**Induction Step** Assume $T(k) \leq 2ck \log k$ for all $k < n$ and prove it for $k = n$.

5.4.8.2 Induction Step

We have

$$
T(n) = T([n/2]) + T([n/2]) + cn \\
\leq 2c[n/2] \log n/2 + 2c[n/2] \log [n/2] + cn \quad \text{(by induction)} \\
\leq 2c[n/2] \log n/2 + 2c[n/2] \log [n/2] + cn \\
\leq 2c([n/2] + [n/2]) \log n/2 + cn \\
\leq 2cn \log n/2 + cn \\
\leq 2cn \log (2n/3) + cn \quad \text{(since $[n/2] \leq 2n/3$ for all $n \geq 2$)} \\
\leq 2cn \log n + cn(1 - 2 \log 3/2) \\
\leq 2cn \log n + cn(\log 2 - \log 9/4) \\
\leq 2cn \log n
$$

5.4.8.3 Guess and Verify

The math worked out like magic!

Why was $2cn \log n$ chosen instead of say $4cn \log n$?

(A) Do not know upfront what constant to choose.

(B) Instead assume that $T(n) \leq \alpha cn \log n$ for some constant $\alpha$.

$\alpha$ will be fixed later.

(C) Need to prove that for $\alpha$ large enough the algebra go through.

(D) In our case... need $\alpha$ such that $\alpha \log 3/2 > 1$.

(E) Typically, do the algebra with $\alpha$ and then show that it works...

... if $\alpha$ is chosen to be sufficiently large constant.

5.4.9 Guess and Verify

5.4.9.1 What happens if the guess is wrong?

(A) Guessed that the solution to the **MergeSort** recurrence is $T(n) = O(n)$.
(B) Try to prove by induction that $T(n) \leq \alpha cn$ for some const’ $\alpha$.

**Induction Step:** attempt

$$T(n) = T(\lfloor n/2 \rfloor) + T(\lceil n/2 \rceil) + cn$$

$$\leq \alpha c \lfloor n/2 \rfloor + \alpha c \lceil n/2 \rceil + cn$$

$$\leq \alpha cn + cn$$

$$\leq (\alpha + 1)cn$$

But need to show that $T(n) \leq \alpha cn$!

(C) So guess does not work for any constant $\alpha$. Suggest that our guess is incorrect.

### 5.4.9.2 Selection Sort vs Merge Sort

(A) Selection Sort spends $O(n)$ work to reduce problem from $n$ to $n - 1$ leading to $O(n^2)$ running time.

(B) Merge Sort spends $O(n)$ time after reducing problem to two instances of size $n/2$ each. Running time is $O(n \log n)$

**Question:** Merge Sort splits into 2 (roughly) equal sized arrays. Can we do better by splitting into more than 2 arrays? Say $k$ arrays of size $n/k$ each?

### 5.5 Quick Sort

#### 5.5.0.3 Quick Sort

**Quick Sort** [Hoare]

1. **Pick a pivot element from array**

2. **Split array into 3 subarrays:** those smaller than pivot, those larger than pivot, and the pivot itself. Linear scan of array does it. Time is $O(n)$

3. Recursively sort the subarrays, and concatenate them.

Example:

(A) array: 16, 12, 14, 20, 5, 3, 18, 19, 1

(B) pivot: 16

(C) split into 12, 14, 5, 3, 1 and 20, 19, 18 and recursively sort

(D) put them together with pivot in middle

#### 5.5.0.4 Time Analysis

(A) Let $k$ be the rank of the chosen pivot. Then, $T(n) = T(k - 1) + T(n - k) + O(n)$

(B) If $k = \lfloor n/2 \rfloor$ then $T(n) = T(\lfloor n/2 \rfloor - 1) + T(\lceil n/2 \rceil) + O(n) \leq 2T(n/2) + O(n)$. Then, $T(n) = O(n \log n)$.

(A) Theoretically, median can be found in linear time.
Typically, pivot is the first or last element of array. Then,

\[ T(n) = \max_{1 \leq k \leq n} (T(k - 1) + T(n - k) + O(n)) \]

In the worst case \( T(n) = T(n - 1) + O(n) \), which means \( T(n) = O(n^2) \). Happens if array is already sorted and pivot is always first element.

### 5.6 Fast Multiplication

### 5.7 The Problem

#### 5.7.0.5 Multiplying Numbers

**Problem** Given two \( n \)-digit numbers \( x \) and \( y \), compute their product.

**Grade School Multiplication**

Compute “partial product” by multiplying each digit of \( y \) with \( x \) and adding the partial products.

\[
\begin{array}{c}
3141 \\
\times 2718 \\
\hline \\
25128 \\
3141 \\
\hline \\
21987 \\
6282 \\
8537238
\end{array}
\]

### 5.8 Algorithmic Solution

#### 5.8.1 Grade School Multiplication

**5.8.1.1 Time Analysis of Grade School Multiplication**

(A) Each partial product: \( \Theta(n) \)
(B) Number of partial products: \( \Theta(n) \)
(C) Addition of partial products: \( \Theta(n^2) \)
(D) Total time: \( \Theta(n^2) \)

**5.8.1.2 A Trick of Gauss**

Carl Fridrich Gauss: 1777–1855 “Prince of Mathematicians”

Observation: Multiply two complex numbers: \((a + bi)\) and \((c + di)\)

\[(a + bi)(c + di) = ac - bd + (ad + bc)i\]

How many multiplications do we need?

Only 3! If we do extra additions and subtractions.

Compute \( ac, bd, (a + b)(c + d) \). Then \( (ad + bc) = (a + b)(c + d) - ac - bd \)
5.8.2 Divide and Conquer Solution

5.8.2.1 Divide and Conquer

Assume \( n \) is a power of 2 for simplicity and numbers are in decimal.

(A) \( x = x_{n-1}x_{n-2} \ldots x_0 \) and \( y = y_{n-1}y_{n-2} \ldots y_0 \)

(B) \( x = 10^{n/2}x_L + x_R \) where \( x_L = x_{n-1} \ldots x_{n/2} \) and \( x_R = x_{n/2-1} \ldots x_0 \)

(C) \( y = 10^{n/2}y_L + y_R \) where \( y_L = y_{n-1} \ldots y_{n/2} \) and \( y_R = y_{n/2-1} \ldots y_0 \)

Therefore

\[
xy = (10^{n/2}x_L + x_R)(10^{n/2}y_L + y_R)
= 10^n x_L y_L + 10^{n/2}(x_L y_R + x_R y_L) + x_R y_R
\]

5.8.2.2 Example

\[
1234 \times 5678 = (100 \times 12 + 34) \times (100 \times 56 + 78)
= 10000 \times 12 \times 56
\]
\[
+100 \times (12 \times 78 + 34 \times 56)
+34 \times 78
\]

5.8.2.3 Time Analysis

\[
xy = (10^{n/2}x_L + x_R)(10^{n/2}y_L + y_R)
= 10^n x_L y_L + 10^{n/2}(x_L y_R + x_R y_L) + x_R y_R
\]

4 recursive multiplications of number of size \( n/2 \) each plus 4 additions and left shifts (adding enough 0’s to the right)

\[
T(n) = 4T(n/2) + O(n) \quad T(1) = O(1)
\]

\( T(n) = \Theta(n^2) \). No better than grade school multiplication!

Can we invoke Gauss’s trick here?

5.8.3 Karatsuba’s Algorithm

5.8.3.1 Improving the Running Time

\[
xy = (10^{n/2}x_L + x_R)(10^{n/2}y_L + y_R)
= 10^n x_L y_L + 10^{n/2}(x_L y_R + x_R y_L) + x_R y_R
\]

Gauss trick: \( x_L y_R + x_R y_L = (x_L + x_R)(y_L + y_R) - x_L y_L - x_R y_R \)

11
Recursively compute only $x_Ly_L, x_Ry_R, (x_L + x_R)(y_L + y_R)$.

**Time Analysis**

Running time is given by

$$T(n) = 3T(n/2) + O(n) \quad T(1) = O(1)$$

which means $T(n) = O(n^{\log_2 3}) = O(n^{1.585})$

**5.8.3.2 State of the Art**

Schönhage-Strassen 1971: $O(n \log n \log \log n)$ time using Fast-Fourier-Transform (FFT)

Martin Fúrer 2007: $O(n \log n 2^{O(\log^* n)})$ time

**Conjecture** There is an $O(n \log n)$ time algorithm.

**5.8.3.3 Analyzing the Recurrences**

(A) Basic divide and conquer: $T(n) = 4T(n/2) + O(n)$, $T(1) = 1$. **Claim:** $T(n) = \Theta(n^2)$.

(B) Saving a multiplication: $T(n) = 3T(n/2) + O(n)$, $T(1) = 1$. **Claim:** $T(n) = \Theta(n^{1+\log 1.5})$

Use recursion tree method:

(A) In both cases, depth of recursion $L = \log n$.

(B) Work at depth $i$ is $4^n/2^i$ and $3^n/2^i$ respectively: number of children at depth $i$ times the work at each child

(C) Total work is therefore $n \sum_{i=0}^{L} 2^i$ and $n \sum_{i=0}^{L} (3/2)^i$ respectively.

**5.8.3.4 Recursion tree analysis**