

2. Divide-and-Conquer Approach

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Recursion

- A programming technique in which a function calls itself.
- One of the most effective techniques in programming that makes problem solving conceptually simple.

Recursive Algorithms

Algorithm 1 : factorial

fact(n)

{

if(n == 0)

return 1;

else

```
return n*fact(n-1);
```

}

Recursive Algorithms

```
Algorithm 2 : fibonacci term
fibo(n)
{
if (n == 1 || n==2)
   return 1;
else
   return fibo(n-1) + fibo(n-2);
}
```

Recursive Algorithms

Algorithm 3: GCD

GCD(a,b)

{

if (b==0)

return a;

else

```
return GCD(b,a%b);
```

}

Consider the recursive algorithm for computing factorial of a number.
 fact(n)

{

```
if (n == 0) then
```

```
return 1; // base case
```

else

```
return n*fact(n-1); // recursive call
}
T(0) = 1
T(n) = T(n - 1) + O(1) for n > 0
```

Consider the recursive algorithm for computing fibonacci term fibo(n)

```
{
                                         1 1 2 3 5 8....
if (n == 1 || n == 2) then
  return 1; // base case
else
  return fibo(n-1)+fibo(n-2); // recursive call
}
T(1) = 1
T(2) = 1
T(n) = T(n - 1) + T(n-2) + O(1) for n > 2
```

T(0) = 1

T(n) = T(n - 1) + O(1) for n > 0

 A recurrence is an equation or inequality that describes a function in terms of it's values on smaller inputs.

T(0) = 1

T(n) = T(n - 1) + 2 for n > 0

Let us expand the above equation

T(0) = 1

✓ T(n) = T(n - 1) + 2 for n > 0

✓ T(n) = T((n - 1) - 1) + 2 + 2 = T(n - 2) + 2.2

✓ T(n) = T((n-2) - 1) + 2 + 4 = T(n - 3) + 2.3

.

T(n) = T(n - k) + 2k

We want it to express it in terms of T(0) so, n - k = 0 i.e. n = k.

✓ T(n) = T(0) + 2n
 ✓ T(n) = 1 + 2n = c*g(n) where c = 3 and g(n) = n.
 ✓ Therefor, T(n) = O(n)

- Solving a recurrence means that we have to obtain a function defined on the natural numbers that satisfy the recurrence.
- To analyze the complexity of recursive algorithms, we represent them in terms of recurrence relation and use any of the recurrence relation solving method.

Solving Recurrences

We will study the following methods to solve recurrences in this course.

- 1. Iteration method.
- 2. Recursion Tree method.
- 3. Substitution method.
- 4. Master method.

- In this method, we expand the given recurrence relation until the boundary condition is met.
- Look at the following example.

Example 1

Solve the following recurrence relation by using iterative method.

- T(n) = 2T(n/2) + 1 when n > 1
- T(n) = 1 when n = 1
- ✓ T(n) = 2T(n/2) + 1
- ✓ $T(n) = 2{2T(n/4) + 1} + 1 = 2^2T(n/2^2) + 2 + 1$
- ✓ T(n) = $2^{2}{2T(n/2^{3}) + 1} + 2 + 1 = 2^{3}T(n/2^{3}) + 2^{2} + 2 + 1$

.....

✓ $T(n) = 2^{k}T(n/2^{k}) + 2^{k-1} + \dots + 4 + 2 + 1$

- ✓ $T(n) = 2^{k}T(n/2^{k}) + 2^{k-1} + ... + 4 + 2 + 1$ ------ Eqn i)
- ✓ Assume, $n/2^{k} = 1$ or, $n = 2^{k}$
- ✓ Taking \log_2 on both sides, $\log_2 n = \log_2 2^k$
- ✓ Or, $\log_2 n = k \log_2 2$
- ✓ k = log₂ n

- ✓ Putting the value of n/2^k in in Eqn i)
- ✓ $T(n) = 2^{k}T(1) + 2^{k-1} + \dots + 4 + 2 + 1$
- ✓ $T(n) = 2^{k} + 2^{k-1} + \dots + 4 + 2 + 2^{0}$
- ✓ T(n) = $1(2^{k+1} 1)/(2-1)$ {use S_n = a(rⁿ 1)/(r 1)}
- ✓ T(n) = 2.2^k 1
- ✓ T(n) = 2.n 1

✓ T(n) = O(n)

Example 2

Solve the following recurrence relation by using iterative method.

- T(n) = T(n/3) + O(n) when n > 1
- T(n) = 1 when n = 1
- ✓ T(n) = T(n/3) + O(n)
- ✓ T(n) = T(n/3) + cn
- ✓ $T(n) = T(n/3^2) + cn/3 + cn$
- ✓ $T(n) = T(n/3^3) + cn/3^2 + cn/3 + cn$

.....

✓ $T(n) = T(n/3^k) + cn/3^{k-1} + + cn/3^2 + cn/3 + cn$

- ✓ $T(n) = T(n/3^k) + cn/3^{k-1} + + cn/3^2 + cn/3 + cn ---- Eqn i$
- ✓ Assume $n/3^k = 1$ or, $n = 3^k$
- ✓ Taking \log_3 on both sides, $\log_3 n = \log_3 3^k$
- ✓ Or, $\log_3 n = k \log_3 3$
- ✓ k = log₃ n

- ✓ Putting the value of n/3^k in in Eqn I)
- ✓ $T(n) = T(n/3^k) + cn/3^{k-1} + + cn/3^2 + cn/3 + cn$
- ✓ $T(n) = T(1) + cn/3^{k-1} + + cn/3^2 + cn/3 + cn$
- ✓ $T(n) = 1 + \{ cn/3^{k-1} + + cn/3^2 + cn/3 + cn \}$
- ✓ T(n) = 1 + cn(1/3^{k-1} + + 1/3² + 1/3 + 1)
- ✓ $T(n) = 1 + cn\{1.(1 1/3^k)/(1 1/3)\}$
- ✓ $T(n) = 1 + cn\{(1 1/n)/(2/3)\}$
- ✓ T(n) = 1 + 3c(n-1)/2

✓ T(n) = O(n)

Example 3

Solve the following recurrence relation by using iterative method.

- T(n) = T(n-1) + O(1) when n > 1
- T(n) = 1 when n = 1
- ✓ T(n) = T(n-1) + O(1)
- ✓ T(n) = T(n-1) + 1
- ✓ T(n) = T(n-2) + 1 + 1
- ✓ T(n) = T(n-3) + 1 + 1 + 1

....

✓ T(n) = T(n-k) + 1 + + 1 + 1(k times)

- ✓ T(n) = T(n-k) + k ---- Eqn i)
- ✓ Assume n-k = 1 or, n = 1 + k

✓ k = n - 1

- ✓ Putting the value of n-k in in Eqn I)
- \checkmark T(n) = T(n-k) + k
- ✓ T(n) = T(1) + k
- ✓ T(n) = 1 + n 1
- ✓ T(n) = n
- ✓ T(n) = O(n)

Example 4

Solve the following recurrence relation by using iterative method.

- T(n) = 2T(n/2) + n when n > 1
- **T(n) = 1** when n = 1
- ✓ T(n) = 2T(n/2) + n
- ✓ $T(n) = 2{2T(n/4) + n/2} + n = 2^2T(n/2^2) + n + n$
- ✓ $T(n) = 2^{3}T(n/2^{3})$ + n+ n + n

....

✓ $T(n) = 2^{k}T(n/2^{k}) + n + + n + n$ (k times)

- ✓ $T(n) = 2^{k}T(n/2^{k}) + n + + n + n (k times) ---- Eqn i)$
- ✓ Assume $n/2^{k} = 1$ or, $n = 2^{k}$
- ✓ Taking \log_2 on both sides, $\log_2 n = \log_2 2^k$
- ✓ Or, log₂ n = k log₂ 2
- ✓ k = log₂ n

- ✓ Putting the value of $n/2^k$ in in Eqn I)
- ✓ $T(n) = 2^{k}T(n/2^{k}) + n + + n + n$ (k times)
- ✓ T(n) = n.T(1) + n.k
- ✓ T(n) = n.1 + n.k
- ✓ T(n) = k.n + n
- ✓ T(n) = log₂ n*n + n
- \checkmark T(n) = n * \log_2 n + n
- ✓ $T(n) = O(n \log_2 n)$

- This method is a pictorial representation of the iteration method.
- It takes the form of the tree where at each level nodes are expanded.
- It diagrams the tree of recursive calls and the amount of work done at each call.

Example 1

Solve the following recurrence relation by using recursion tree method.

T(n) = 2T(n/2) + 1 when n > 1

```
T(n) = 1 when n = 1
```







- r T(n) = 2⁰ + 2¹ + + 2^k
- ~ $T(n) = 1 + 2(2^{k} 1)/(2 1)$ [Use $S_n = a(r^n 1)/(r 1)$]
- ∽ $T(n) = 1 + 2(2^k 1)$
- ✓ T(n) = 2.2^k − 1 ----- Eqn i)

- ✓ Assume, $n/2^{k} = 1$ or $n = 2^{k}$
- Taking \log_2 on both sides, $\log_2 n = \log_2 2^k$
- \sim Or, $\log_2 n = k \log_2 2$
- k = log₂ n
- Putting the value of 2^k in in Eqn i)
- ✓ $T(n) = 2.2^k 1 = 2.n 1$
- r T(n) = O(n)

Example 2

Solve the following recurrence relation by using recursion tree method.

```
T(n) = T(n/2) + T(n/3) + O(1) when n > 1
```

```
T(n) = 1 when n = 1
```







- $\textbf{`} T(n) \leq 2^0 + 2^1 + \dots + 2^k$
- r T(n) = 1 + 2(2^k 1)/(2 1)
- ✓ $T(n) = 1 + 2(2^k 1)$
- ✓ T(n) = 2.2^k − 1 ----- Eqn i)

- Assume, $n/2^k = 1$ or $n = 2^k$
- Taking \log_2 on both sides, $\log_2 n = \log_2 2^k$
- \sim Or, $\log_2 n = k \log_2 2$
- k = log₂ n
- Putting the value of 2^k in in Eqn i)
- T(n) $\leq 2.2^k 1$
- ∽ T(n) $\leq 2.n 1$
- r T(n) = O(n)

Example 3

Solve the following recurrence relation by using recursion tree method. T(n) = 2T(n/2) + n when n > 1T(n) = 1 when n = 1




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- T(n) = n + n + ... + n (k times)
- ~ T(n) = n.k ----- Eqn i)

- Assume, $n/2^k = 1$ or $n = 2^k$
- Taking \log_2 on both sides, $\log_2 n = \log_2 2^k$
- Or, log₂ n = k log₂ 2
- k = log₂ n
- Putting the value of k in in Eqn i)
- ∽ T(n) = n.k
- r T(n) = n $\log_2 n$
- \sim T(n) = O(n log₂ n)

Example 4

Solve the following recurrence relation by using recursion tree method.

- T(n) = T(n/2) + 1 when n > 1
- T(n) = 1 when n = 1





- $T(n) = 1 + 1 + 1 + ... + T(n/2^k) ----- Eqn I)$
- Assume, $n/2^k = 1$ or $n = 2^k$
- Taking \log_2 on both sides, $\log_2 n = \log_2 2^k$
- Or, log₂ n = k log₂ 2
- k = log₂ n
- Putting the value of $n/2^k$ in in **Eqn i**)
- r T(n) = 1 + 1 + 1 + ... + T(n/2^k)
- $T(n) = 1 + 1 + 1 + \dots + 1(k \text{ times}) + T(1)$
- ∽ T(n) = k*1 + 1
- r T(n) = log₂ n + 1 = O(log₂ n)

Homework

Solve the following recurrence relation by using recursion tree method.

```
T(n) = T(n-1) + 1 when n > 1
```

```
T(n) = 1 when n = 1
```

Homework

Solve the following recurrence relation by using recursion tree method. $T(n) = T(n/4) + T(n/2) + n^{2} \text{ when } n > 1$ T(n) = 1 when n = 1

- At first, we guess the form of solution.
- Then, we use induction to show that the guess is valid.

Example 1

Show that the complexity if the following RR is O(n³) using substitution method.

T(n) = 4T(n/2) + n for n > 1

- T(n) = 1 for n = 1
- Our guess is $T(n) = O(n^3)$
- ✓ From the definition of Big O, $T(n) \le c^*n^3$ where c>0 and for all n>n₀ Eqn i)
- ✓ Now we show that Eqn i) is true using mathematical induction.

Basic Step:

- For n = 1
- ✓ T(1) ≤ c. 1³
- ✓ $1 \le c$ which is true for all positive values of c.

Inductive Step:

- ✓ Let us assume that it is true for all k < n.
- ✓ Then, $T(k) \le c. k^3$ Eqn ii)
- ✓ Since it is true for all k < n, it will be true for k = n/2
- ✓ Hence, Eqn ii) becomes.
- ✓ $T(n/2) \le c. (n/2)^3$
- ✓ Or, $T(n/2) \le c. n^{3}/8$

Now,

- ✓ T(n) = 4T(n/2) + n
- ✓ T(n) ≤ $4 * c * n^{3}/8 + n$
- ✓ T(n) ≤ $c * n^{3}/2 + n$
- ✓ T(n) ≤ $c * n^3 c * n^3/2 + n$
- ✓ T(n) ≤ $c * n^3 n(c * n^2/2 1)$
- ✓ Thus, $T(n) \le cn^3$ for all n > 0
- ✓ Hence, T(n) = O(n³)

Example 2

Show that the complexity if the following RR is O(n²) using substitution method.

- T(n) = 4T(n/2) + n for n > 1
- T(n) = 1 for n = 1
- ✓ Our guess is $T(n) = O(n^2)$
- ✓ From the definition of Big O, $T(n) \le c^*n^2$ for all $n > n_0$ Eqn i)
- ✓ Now we show that Eqn i) is true using mathematical induction.

Basic Step:

For n = 1

- ✓ T(1) ≤ c. 1²
- ✓ $1 \le c$ which is true for all positive values of c.

Inductive Step:

- ✓ Let us assume that it is true for all k < n.
- ✓ Then, $T(k) \le c. k^2$ Eqn ii)
- ✓ Since it is true for all k < n, it will be true for k = n/2
- ✓ Hence, Eqn ii) becomes.
- ✓ $T(n/2) \le c. (n/2)^2$
- ✓ Or, $T(n/2) \le c. n^2/4$

Now,

- ✓ T(n) = 4T(n/2) + n
- ✓ T(n) ≤ $4 * c * n^2/4 + n$
- ✓ T(n) ≤ $c * n^2 + n$
- ✓ It is not possible to show $c * n^2 + n \le cn^2$ for all n > 0
- ✓ Now, we try to subtract lower order terms

- Since, $T(n) = O(n^2)$ we can write
- ✓ $T(n) \le cn^2$ dn for all n>n₀[Because $cn^2 dn \le cn^2$] Eqn iii)
- ✓ Now we show that Eqn iii) is true using mathematical induction.

Basic Step:

For n = 1

- ✓ T(1) ≤ c. 1^2 d.1
- ✓ $1 \le c d$ which is true for all positive values of c and d<c.

Inductive Step:

- ✓ Let us assume that it is true for all k < n.
- ✓ Then, $T(k) \le c. k^{2-} d.k... Eqn iv$)
- ✓ Since it is true for all k < n, it will be true for k = n/2
- ✓ Hence, Eqn iv) becomes.
- ✓ $T(n/2) \le c. (n/2)^2 d.n/2$
- ✓ Or, $T(n/2) \le c. n^2/4 d.n/2$

Now,

- ✓ T(n) = 4T(n/2) + n
- ✓ T(n) ≤ 4 [c * $n^2/4 d^*n/2$] + n
- ✓ T(n) ≤ $c * n^2 2*d*n + n$
- ✓ T(n) ≤ $c * n^2 d*n d*n + n$
- ✓ T(n) ≤ (c * n² d*n) n(d 1)
- ✓ Thus, $T(n) \le c.n^2 d.n$ for all n > 0
- ✓ Hence, T(n) = O(n²)

Example 3

Show that the complexity if the following RR is O(n³) using substitution method.

- $T(n) = 8T(n/2) + n^2$ for n > 1
- T(n) = 1 for n = 1
- ✓ Our guess is $T(n) = O(n^3)$
- ✓ From the definition of Big O, $T(n) \le cn^3$ for all $n > n_0$ Eqn i)
- ✓ Now we show that Eqn i) is true using mathematical induction.

Basic Step:

For n = 1

- ✓ T(1) ≤ c. 1³
- ✓ $1 \le c$ which is true for all positive values of c.

Inductive Step:

- ✓ Let us assume that it is true for all k < n.
- ✓ Then, $T(k) \le c. k^3$ Eqn ii)
- ✓ Since it is true for all k < n, it will be true for k = n/2
- ✓ Hence, Eqn ii) becomes.
- ✓ $T(n/2) \le c. (n/2)^3$
- ✓ Or, $T(n/2) \le c. n^{3}/8$

Now,

- ✓ T(n) = 8T(n/2) + n²
- ✓ T(n) ≤ 8 * c * $n^{3}/8$ + n^{2}
- ✓ T(n) ≤ $c * n^3 + n^2$
- ✓ It is not possible to show $c * n^2 + n^2 \le cn^3$ for all n > 0
- ✓ Now, we try to subtract lower order terms

- Since, $T(n) = O(n^3)$ we can write
- ✓ $T(n) \le cn^3 dn^2$ for all $n > n_0$ [Because $cn^{3-} dn^2 \le cn^3$] Eqn iii)
- ✓ Now we show that Eqn iii) is true using mathematical induction.

Basic Step:

For n = 1

- ✓ T(1) ≤ c. 1^3 d. 1^2
- ✓ $1 \le c d$ which is true for all positive values of c and d<c.

Inductive Step:

- ✓ Let us assume that it is true for all k < n.
- ✓ Then, $T(k) \le c. k^{3-} d.k^{2}$ Eqn iv)
- ✓ Since it is true for all k < n, it will be true for k = n/2
- ✓ Hence, Eqn iv) becomes.
- ✓ $T(n/2) \le c. (n/2)^3 d.(n/2)^2$
- ✓ Or, T(n/2) ≤ c. $n^{3}/8$ $d.n^{2}/4$

Now,

- ✓ T(n) = 8T(n/2) + n²
- ✓ T(n) ≤ 8 [c * $n^3/8 d^*n^2/4$] + n^2
- ✓ T(n) ≤ c * n^3 2*d* n^2 + n^2
- ✓ T(n) ≤ c * n^3 d* n^2 d* n^2 + n
- ✓ T(n) ≤ (c * n^3 d* n^2) n(d*n- 1)
- ✓ Thus, $T(n) \le c.n^3 d.n^2 \le cn^3$ for all n > 0
- ✓ Hence, T(n) = O(n³)

 The master method is a formula for solving recurrence relations of the form

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

where,

- -n = size of input
- -a = number of sub-problems in the recursion

- n/b = size of each sub-problem All sub-problems are assumed to have the same size.

- f(n) = cost of the work done outside the recursive call, which includes the cost of dividing the problem and cost of merging the solutions

✓ Here, $a \ge 1$ and b > 1 are constants, and f(n) is an asymptotically positive function.

- An asymptotically positive function means that for a sufficiently large value of n, we have f(n) > 0.
- The master theorem is used in calculating the time complexity of recurrence relations (divide and conquer algorithms) in a simple and quick way.

✓ If a ≥ 1 and b > 1 are constants and f(n) is an asymptotically positive function, then the time complexity of a recursive relation is given by T(n) = aT(n/b) + f(n) where, T(n) has the following asymptotic bounds

1. If
$$f(n) = O(n \log_{b} a \cdot \epsilon)$$
, then $T(n) = \Theta(n \log_{b} a)$.

2. If $f(n) = \Theta(n \log_{b} a)$, then $T(n) = \Theta(f(n) * \log n)$

3. If
$$f(n) = \Omega(n \log_{b} \alpha + \epsilon)$$
, then $T(n) = \Theta(f(n))$.

 $\epsilon > 0$ is a constant.

Example 1

Solve the following RR using Master's method

T(n) = 3 T(n/2) + n

- Comparing with T(n) = aT(n/b) + f(n), a = 3, b = 2 and f(n) = n
- $\sim \text{Now } n_{b}^{\log_{a}} = n_{2}^{\log_{3}} = n_{10}^{\log_{3}/\log_{2}^{2}} = n_{10}^{1.584}$
- ✓ Since, $f(n) = O(n_{b}^{\log a-\epsilon})$, then $T(n) = \Theta(n_{b}^{\log a})$.[Choose $\epsilon = 0.1$]

$$\Gamma(n) = \Theta(n_{b}^{\log a}) = \Theta(n_{2}^{\log 3}) = \Theta(n_{1.584})$$

Example 2

Solve the following RR using Master's method

 $T(n) = 4 T(n/2) + n^2$

- Comparing with T(n) = aT(n/b) + f(n), a = 4, b = 2 and f(n) = n^2
- $\sim \text{Now } n_{b}^{\log_{a}} = n_{2}^{\log_{4}} = n^{2}$
- ✓ Since, $f(n) = \Theta(n_{b}^{\log} a)$, then $T(n) = \Theta(n^{2} * \log n)$.[Choose $\epsilon = 0.1$]
- $T(n) = \Theta(n^2 * \log n)$

Example 3

Solve the following RR using Master's method

T(n) =9 T(n/3) + n

- Comparing with T(n) = aT(n/b) + f(n), a = 9, b = 3 and $f(n) = n^2$
- $\sim \text{Now } \Pi_{b}^{\log_{a}} = \Pi_{3}^{\log_{9}} = \mathbf{n}^{2}$
- ✓ Since, $f(n) = O(n_{b}^{\log a-\epsilon})$, then $T(n) = \Theta(n_{b}^{\log a})$.[Choose $\epsilon = 0.1$]
- $r T(n) = \Theta(n^{\log_a}) = \Theta(n^2)$

Example 4

Solve the following RR using Master's method $T(n) = 3 T(n/4) + n \log n$

- Comparing with T(n) = aT(n/b) + f(n), a = 3, b = 4 and $f(n) = n \log n$
- $\sim \text{Now } n_{b}^{\log a} = n_{4}^{\log 3} = n^{0.658}$
- ✓ Since, $f(n) = \Omega(n_{b}^{\log_{a+\epsilon}})$, then $T(n) = \Theta(f(n))$.[Choose $\epsilon = 0.1$]
- $r T(n) = \Theta(f(n)) = \Theta(n \log n)$

Example 5

Solve the following RR using Master's method

 $T(n) = 2 T(n/4) + n^{0.5}$

- Comparing with T(n) = aT(n/b) + f(n), a = 2, b = 4 and f(n) = $n^{0.5}$
- $\sim \text{Now } n_{b}^{\log_{a}} = n_{4}^{\log_{2}} = n^{0.5}$
- Since, $f(n) = \Theta(n \log_{b}^{\log_{a+\epsilon}})$, then $T(n) = \Theta(f(n)*\log n)$.[Choose $\epsilon = 0.1$]
- $r T(n) = \Theta(f(n)*\log n) = \Theta(n^{0.5} \log n)$

Example 6

Solve the following RR using Master's method

T(n) =2 T(2n/3) + 1

- Comparing with T(n) = aT(n/b) + f(n), a = 2, b = 1.5 and f(n) = 1
- ~ Now $n_{b}^{\log a} = n_{1.5}^{\log 2} = n^{1.709}$
- ✓ Since, $f(n) = O(n_{b}^{\log_{a+\epsilon}})$, then $T(n) = \Theta(n_{b}^{\log_{a}a})$.[Choose $\epsilon = 0.1$]
- $\mathsf{T}(n) = \Theta(n^{\log_{a} a}) = \Theta(n^{1.709})$

Example 7

Solve the following RR using Master's method

 $T(n) = 8T(n/2) + n^2$ for n > 1

- Comparing with T(n) = aT(n/b) + f(n), a = 8, b = 2 and $f(n) = n^2$
- $\sim \text{Now } n_{b}^{\log a} = n_{2}^{\log 8} = n^{3}$
- Since $f(n) = O(n \log_{b} a \epsilon)$, then $T(n) = \Theta(n^{\log_{b} a})$.
- ~ $T(n) = \Theta(n^3)$

Inadmissible Equations

 $\bullet \; T(n) = 2^n T\left(\frac{n}{2}\right) + n^n$

a is not a constant; the number of subproblems should be fixed

•
$$T(n) = 2T\left(rac{n}{2}
ight) + rac{n}{\log n}$$

non-polynomial difference between f(n) and $n^{\log_b a}$ (see below; extended version applies)

• $T(n) = 0.5T\left(rac{n}{2}
ight) + n$

a < 1 cannot have less than one sub problem

•
$$T(n) = 64T\left(rac{n}{8}
ight) - n^2\log n$$

f(n), which is the combination time, is not positive

•
$$T(n) = T\left(rac{n}{2}
ight) + n(2-\cos n)$$

case 3 but regularity violation.
- A divide-and-conquer algorithm recursively breaks down a problem into two or more sub-problems of the same or related type, until these become simple enough to be solved directly.
- The solutions to the sub-problems are then combined to give a solution to the original problem.

Example

```
fibo(n)
```

```
{
if (n == 1 || n==2)
return 1;
```

else

}

```
return fibo(n-1) + fibo(n-2);
```

- Designing efficient divide-and-conquer algorithms can be difficult.
- The correctness of a divide-and-conquer algorithm is usually proved by mathematical induction, and its computational cost is often determined by solving recurrence relations.

Advantages

Solving difficult problem

– Divide and conquer is a powerful tool for solving conceptually difficult problems: all it requires is a way of breaking the problem into sub-problems, of solving the trivial cases and of combining sub-problems to the original problem.

Algorithm efficiency

– The divide-and-conquer paradigm often helps in the discovery of efficient algorithms. It was the key, for example, to the quick-sort and merge-sort algorithms.

Parallelism

– Divide-and-conquer algorithms are naturally adapted for execution in multi-processor machines, especially shared-memory systems where the communication of data between processors does not need to be planned in advance, because distinct sub-problems can be executed on different processors.

Memory access

- Divide-and-conquer algorithms naturally tend to make efficient use of memory caches. The reason is that once a sub-problem is small enough, it and all its sub-problems can, in principle, be solved within the cache, without accessing the slower main memory.

This technique can be divided into the following three parts:

- **1. Divide:** This involves dividing the problem into smaller sub-problems.
- **2. Conquer:** Solve sub-problems by calling recursively until solved.
- **3. Combine:** Combine the sub-problems to get the final solution of the whole problem.



Sorting Algorithms

- Arrangement of data in some systematic order is called sorting
- We will discuss some recursive sorting algorithms.
 - Merge Sort
 - Quick Sort
 - Heap Sort

- It is a divide and conquer algorithm.
- At first we divide the given list of item.
 - List is divided into two parts from middle.
 - The process is repeated until each sub-list contain exactly 1 item.
- Now is the turn for sort and combine (conquer)
 - A list with a single element is considered sorted automatically.
 - Pair of list is sorted and merged into one (i.e. approx. n/2 sublists of size 2).
 - The sort and merge is keep on repeated until a single list of size n is found.
- The overall dividing and conquering is done recursively.



Divide

Conquer

To sort A[I.. r]

1. Divide Step

- If a given array A has zero or one element, simply return; it is already sorted.
- Otherwise, split A[I..r] into two sub-arrays A[I..m] and A[m+1..r], each containing about half of the elements of A[I .. r]. That is, m is the halfway point of A[I..r]

2. Conquer Step

Conquer by recursively sorting the two sub-arrays A[I..m] and A[m+1..r]

3. Combine Step

- Combine the elements back in A[I..m] by merging the two sorted subarrays A[I..m] and A[m+1..r] into a sorted sequence.
- ✓ To accomplish this step, we will define a procedure MERGE (*A*, *I*, *m*, *r*).

Declare and initialize necessary variables n-total number of elements in an array a[n]-array containing data p=0, r=n-1; first and last index of the array MERGE-SORT (A, I, r)

- 1. IF / < *r*
- 2. THEN m = (p + r)/2
- 3. MERGE-SORT (A, *I*, *m*)
- 4. MERGE-SORT (A, m+ 1, *r*)
- 5. MERGE (A, *I*, *m*,*r*)

- // Check for base case
 - // Divide step
 - // Conquer step.
 - // Conquer step.
 - // Conquer step.

```
Pseudocode
```

```
merge_sort(A, I, r)
{
    if(l<r)
    {
        m=(l+r)/2;
        merge_sort(a,l,m);
        merge_sort(a,m+1,r);
        merge(a,l,m+1,r);
    }
}</pre>
```

}

}

```
merge(A, I, m, r)
{
  x=l;
  k=l;
  y=m;
  while(x<m && y<=r)
  {
     if (a[x]<a[y])
        b[k++]=a[x++];
     else
        b[k++]=a[y++];
  }
  for(;x<m;x++,k++)
     b[k]=a[x];
  for(;y<=r;y++,k++)
     b[k]=a[y];
  for(i=l;i<=r;i++)
     a[i]=b[i];
```

Analysis

- Since, there are two recursive sub-problems of size n/2, the problem is divided into two equal halves and there is also a need to merge the solutions.
- Size of sub-problems = n/2
- Dividing and merging takes O(n)
- The recurrence relation can be written as

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

T(n) = 1, if n = 2

Solving the recurrence relation, we can get $T(n) = O(n \log_2 n)$

- Also called partition-exchange sort.
- Uses divide and conquer concept.
- One pivot element is chosen from within the list.
- The list is divided into two partition.
 - All values less than the pivot are placed on left side of pivot.
 - All greater values are placed on right side of the pivot.
- \checkmark After a single pass, the pivot is in its proper position.
- The left and right partitions are sorted recursively using the same method.
- Joining the left sorted, pivot and right sorted results with the list in sorted order.

- Here is the three-step divide-and-conquer process for sorting a typical array A[I..r]
- 1) Divide:
 - Partition (rearrange) the array **A**[**I**..**r**] into two (possibly empty) sub-arrays **A**[**I**..**pivot-1**] and **A**[**pivot+1**..**r**] such that each element of **A**[**I**..**pivot-1**] is less than or equal to **A**[**pivot**], which is, in turn, less than or equal to each element of **A**[**pivot+1**..**r**].
 - Compute the index pivot as part of this partitioning procedure.
- 2) Conquer: Sort the two sub-arrays A[I..pivot-1] and A[pivot+1..r] by recursive calls to Quick sort.
- **3)** Combine: Because the sub-arrays are already sorted, no work is needed to combine them: the entire array A[l..r] is now sorted.

```
The following procedure implements quick sort:
QUICKSORT(A, I, r)
if (I < r)
{
    pivot = PARTITION(A, I, r)
    QUICKSORT(A, I, pivot-1)
    QUICKSORT(A, pivot+1, r)
}
```

To sort an entire array A, the initial call is QUICKSORT(A, 0, r).

```
Partitioning the array
partition(A,I,r)
ł
  x=l;
  y=r;
  p=A[l];
while(x<y)
  {
    while(A[x]<=p)
      x++;
    while(A[y]>p)
      y--;
    if(x<y)
    {
       swap(A[x],A[y]);
    }
    A[I]=A[y];
    A[y]=p;
    return y;
  }
}
```

Best Case Analysis

- This algorithms works the best when the elements are divided into two equal partitions.
- Thus the recurrence relation is

T(n) = 2T(n/2) + O(n)

On solving it, we get

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



Created by Pukar Karki, IOE

Worst Case Analysis

- This algorithms works in the worst way when the elements are already sorted.
- The worst-case behavior for Quick Sort occurs when the partitioning routine produces one sub-problem with n-1 elements and one with 0 elements.
- We assume that this unbalanced partitioning arises in each recursive call. The partitioning costs O(n) time.
- Since the recursive call on an array of size 0 just returns, T (0) = 1 and the recurrence for the running time is
- Thus the recurrence relation is

T(n) = T(n-1) + T(0) + O(n)T(n) = T(n-1) + O(n)

On solving it, we get

 $T(n) = O(n^2)$



Average Case Analysis

Self Study

 It is an almost complete binary tree whose elements have keys that satisfy the following heap property:

 the value of each node is less than or equal to the value in the parent node.(MAX Heaps)

- the value of each node is greater than or equal to the value in the parent node.(**MIN Heaps**)

Heaps can be used to implement priority queue and heap sort algorithm.

Example : Construct a MAX heap from a set of 6 elements {15, 19, 10, 7, 17, 16} Look at node number 1 to floor(6/2)

15 1 19 10 10 3 7 17 16 6

Example : Construct a MAX heap from a set of 6 elements {15, 19, 10, 7, 17, 16}



Example : Construct a MAX heap from a set of 6 elements {15, 19, 10, 7, 17, 16}



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Example : Construct a MAX heap from a set of 6 elements {15, 19, 10, 7, 17, 16}



Example : Construct a MAX heap from a set of 6 elements {15, 19, 10, 7, 17, 16}



Heaps - Representation

Array Representation of Heaps

- \checkmark A heap can be stored as an array.
- Root of tree is at A[1].
- Left child of A[i] will be at A[2i]
- Right child of A[i] will be at A[2i+1]
- Parent of A[i] = A[floor(i/2)]
- The elements in the sub-array A[floor(n/2)+1.....n] are leaves.



- Elements are always inserted next to right-most leaf at the bottom level.
- Then, we restore the heap property.
- Suppose we are inserting 25 to the following heap



- Elements are always inserted next to right-most leaf at the bottom level.
- Then, we restore the heap property.
- Suppose we are inserting 25 to the following heap



- Suppose we are inserting 25 to the following heap.
- \checkmark Now 25 > 16 so we swap.



- Suppose we are inserting 25 to the following heap.
- \checkmark Now 25 > 19 so we swap.



- Suppose we are inserting 25 to the following heap.
- \checkmark We finally have a heap.



Heaps – Deleting an Element

- We always remove the root element from the heap.
- We move the last element in place of the root element and restore the heap property.
- Suppose we perform a deletion.


Heaps – Deleting an Element

- We can see that the last element 16 is moved to root and heap size decreases by 1.
- Now we restore heap property.



Heaps – Deleting an Element

✓ 16 < 19 so we swap.



Heaps – Deleting an Element

- Now all nodes are following the heap property.
- So, we successfully deleted an element.



Operations on Heap

- 1. Maintain/Restore the MAX-HEAP property.
 - MAX-HEAPIFY
- 2. Create a MAX-HEAP from an array.
 - BUILD-MAX-HEAP
- 3. Sort an array in place.
 - HEAPSORT

Algorithm

- 1. Find location of largest value among A[i], A[Left(i)] and A[Right(i)]
- 2. If the largest value is not A[i], MAX-HEAP property doesn't holds so exchange A[i] with the larger of two children to preserve MAX-HEAP property.
- 3. Continue this process of compare/exchange down the heap until subtree rooted at i is MAX-HEAP.
- 4. A sub-tree rooted at a leaf node is automatically MAX-HEAP

Construct a binary tree of the following data and then perform MAX-HEAPIFY operations on all the node that violets the heap property.

A[] = **{15, 19, 10, 7, 17, 16}**



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Pseudocode

```
MAX-HEAPIFY(A, i, n)
{
  l = left(i)
  r = right(i)
  largest = I
  If I \le n and A[I] > A[largest]
     largest = I
  If r \le n and A[r] > A[largest]
     largest = r
  If largest ≠ i
     swap(A[i], A[largest]
MAX-HEAPIFY(A, largest, n)
}
```

Analysis

```
MAX-HEAPIFY(A, i, n)
```

{

```
l = left(i)
```

r = right(i)

```
largest = I
```

```
If I \le n and A[I] > A[largest]
```

largest = I

```
If r \le n and A[r] > A[largest]
```

```
largest = r
```

If largest ≠ i

swap(A[i], A[largest]

```
MAX-HEAPIFY(A, largest, n)
```

}

- In the worst case, the MAX-HEAPIFY will be called recursively h times where h is the height of heap(binary tree).
- Since, each call to MAX-HEAPIFY takes constant time, T(n) = O(h) = O(log, n)

- To build a MAX-HEAP from any tree, we can start heapifying each sub-tree from the bottom up and end up with a MAX-HEAP after the entire tree satisfies MAX-HEAP property.
- \sim We perform the heapify operation on all non-leaf nodes from floor(n/2) to 1.

Example : Construct a MAX heap from a set of following elements



Example : Construct a MAX heap from a set of following elements

 $\mathsf{A[]} = \{4, 1, 3, 2, 16, 9, 10, 14, 8\}$



Example : Construct a MAX heap from a set of following elements



Example : Construct a MAX heap from a set of following elements

 $\mathsf{A[]} = \{4, 1, 3, 2, 16, 9, 10, 14, 8\}$



Example : Construct a MAX heap from a set of following elements



Example : Construct a MAX heap from a set of following elements



Example : Construct a MAX heap from a set of following elements



Example : Construct a MAX heap from a set of following elements



Algorithm

{

```
BUILD-MAX-HEAP(A)
```

```
n = length[A]
for(i = floor(n/2); i>=1; i--)
{
    MAX-HEAPIFY(A, i, n);
}
```

Analysis

```
BUILD-MAX-HEAP(A)
```

```
n = length[A]
for(i = floor(n/2); i>=1; i--)
{
    MAX-HEAPIFY(A, i, n);
}
```

- In the worst case, the for loop runs for O(n) times.
- Inside the for loop, the MAX-HEAPIFY runs for $O(\log_2 n)$ times.
- $T(n) = O(n) * O*(log_2 n)$
- $T(n) = O(n \log_2 n)$

- We can use the concept of heaps to sort numbers efficiently.
- The procedure is quite similar to selection sort, where we first find the maximum element and place the maximum element at the end.
- We repeat the same process for other elements.

Algorithm

- 1. Build a MAX-HEAP from the array
- 2. Swap the root with the last element in the array.
- 3. Discard this last node by decreasing the heap size.
- 4. Perform MAX-HEAPIFY operation on the new root node.
- 5. Repeat until only one node remains.

Example : Sort the set of following elements using Heap Sort



Example : Sort the set of following elements using Heap Sort



Example : Sort the set of following elements using Heap Sort



Example : Sort the set of following elements using Heap Sort



Example : Sort the set of following elements using Heap Sort



Example : Sort the set of following elements using Heap Sort



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Example : Sort the set of following elements using Heap Sort

A[] = {4, 1, 3, 2, 16, 9, 10, 14, 8}



Example : Sort the set of following elements using Heap Sort



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A[] = {4, 1, 3, 2, 16, 9, 10, 14, 8}



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A[] = {4, 1, 3, 2, 16, 9, 10, 14, 8}



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A[] = {4, 1, 3, 2, 16, 9, 10, 14, 8}



Example : Sort the set of following elements using Heap Sort



Example : Sort the set of following elements using Heap Sort

A[] = {4, 1, 3, 2, 16, 9, 10, 14, 8}



Pseudocode

```
HeapSort(A)
{
BuildHeap(A);
```

}

```
n = length[A];
for(i = n; i>=2; i--)
{
    swap(A[1], A[n]);
    n = n - 1;
    MAX-HEAPIFY(A,1);
}
```

Analysis

```
HeapSort(A)
```

```
{
```

```
BUILD-MAX-HEAP(A);
n = length[A];
```

```
for(i = n; i>=2; i--)
```

```
{
```

}

}

```
swap(A[1], A[n]);
n = n – 1;
```

```
MAX-HEAPIFY(A,1);
```

- In the worst case, BUILD-MAX-HEAP takes O(n log₂n) time.
- For loop runs for O(n) time.
- Inside for loop MAX-HEAPIFY runs for O(log₂ n) time.
- Thus, T(n) = O(n log₂ n) + O(n)*O(log₂ n)
- r T(n) = O(n log₂ n)

- The aim is to find the nonempty, contiguous subarray of A whose values have the largest sum.
- We call this contiguous subarray the maximum subarray.



- Suppose we want to find a maximum subarray of the subarray A[low...high].
- Divide-and-conquer suggests that we divide the subarray into two subarrays of as equal size as possible.
- That is, we find the midpoint, say mid, of the subarray, and consider the subarrays A[low...mid] and A[mid+1... high].

- Any contiguous subarray A[i...j] of A[low...high] must lie in exactly one of the following places:
- entirely in the subarray A[low...mid], so that low $\leq i \leq j \leq mid$,
- entirely in the subarray A[mid+1...high], so that mid < i \leq j \leq high, or
- crossing the midpoint, so that low $\leq i \leq mid < j \leq high$.



- Therefore, a maximum subarray of A[low...high] must lie in exactly one of these places.
- In fact, a maximum subarray of A[low...high] must have the greatest sum over all subarrays entirely in A[low...mid], entirely in A[mid+1...high] or crossing the midpoint.



- We can find maximum subarrays of A[low...mid] and A[mid+1...high] recursively, because these two subproblems are smaller instances of the problem of finding a maximum subarray.
- Thus, all that is left to do is find a maximum subarray that crosses the midpoint, and take a subarray with the largest sum of the three.



- We can easily find a maximum subarray crossing the midpoint in time linear in the size of the subarray A[low...high].
- As we can see on the figure below any subarray crossing the midpoint is itself made of two subarrays A[i...mid] and A[mid+1...j], where low $\leq i \leq mid$ and mid $< j \leq high$.
- Therefore, we just need to find maximum subarrays of the form A[i... mid] and A[mid+1...j] and then combine them.



FIND-MAX-CROSSING-SUBARRAY (A, low, mid, high)

left-sum = $-\infty$ 1 2 sum = 03 for i = mid downto low 4 sum = sum + A[i]5 **if** sum > left-sum left-sum = sum6 7 max-left = i8 right-sum $= -\infty$ 9 sum = 010 for j = mid + 1 to high sum = sum + A[j]11 if sum > right-sum 12 right-sum = sum 13 max-right = j14 15 **return** (*max-left*, *max-right*, *left-sum* + *right-sum*)

 With a linear-time FIND-MAX-CROSSING-SUBARRAY procedure in hand, we can write pseudocode for a divide-and-conquer algorithm to solve the maximum-subarray problem:

FIND-MAXIMUM-SUBARRAY (A, low, high)

if high == low1 2 **return** (*low*, *high*, *A*[*low*]) // base case: only one element 3 else $mid = \lfloor (low + high)/2 \rfloor$ 4 (left-low, left-high, left-sum) =FIND-MAXIMUM-SUBARRAY (A, low, mid) 5 (right-low, right-high, right-sum) =FIND-MAXIMUM-SUBARRAY (A, mid + 1, high)6 (cross-low, cross-high, cross-sum) =FIND-MAX-CROSSING-SUBARRAY (A, low, mid, high) 7 **if** *left-sum* \geq *right-sum* and *left-sum* \geq *cross-sum* **return** (*left-low*, *left-high*, *left-sum*) 8 9 elseif right-sum \geq left-sum and right-sum \geq cross-sum 10 **return** (*right-low*, *right-high*, *right-sum*) 11 else return (cross-low, cross-high, cross-sum)

 $T(1) = \Theta(1)$. Equation 1

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

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

On combining 1 and 2, we get

$$T(n) = \begin{cases} \Theta(1) & \text{if } n = 1, \\ 2T(n/2) + \Theta(n) & \text{if } n > 1. \end{cases}$$

This recurrence is the same as recurrence for merge sort. As we can see from the master method in , this recurrence has the solution $T(n) = O(n \log_2 n)$

Matrix Multiplication

✓ If A = (a_{ij}) and B = (b_{ij}) are square n x n matrices, then in the product C = A x B, we define the entry c_{ij} , for I,j = 1, 2,..., n, by

$$c_{ij} = \sum_{k=1}^n a_{ik} \cdot b_{kj} \; .$$

Matrix Multiplication

The following procedure takes n x n matrices A and B and multiplies them, returning their n x n product C. We assume that each matrix has an attribute rows, giving the number of rows in the matrix.

SQUARE-MATRIX-MULTIPLY (A, B)

```
1 n = A.rows

2 let C be a new n \times n matrix

3 for i = 1 to n

4 for j = 1 to n

5 c_{ij} = 0

6 for k = 1 to n

7 c_{ij} = c_{ij} + a_{ik} \cdot b_{kj}

8 return C
```

 Because each of the triply-nested for loops run exactly n iterations, and each execution of line takes constant time, the SQUARE-MATRIX MULTIPLY procedure takes Θ(n³) time.

- Strassen's remarkable recursive algorithm for multiplying n x n matrices runs in $\Theta(n^{\log_2 7})$ time.
- Since log₂7 lies between 2.80 and 2.81, Strassen's algorithm runs in O(n^{2.81}) time, which is asymptotically better than the simple SQUARE-MATRIX-MULTIPLY procedure.

- To keep things simple, when we use a divide-and-conquer algorithm to compute the matrix product $C = A \times B$, we assume that n is an exact power of 2 in each of the n x n matrices.
- ✓ We make this assumption because in each divide step, we will divide n x n matrices into four n/2 x n/2 matrices, and by assuming that n is an exact power of 2, we are guaranteed that as long as $n \ge 2$, the dimension n/2 is an integer.

 Suppose that we partition each of A, B, and C into four n/2 x n/2 matrices

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} A_{11} & A_{12} \\ A_{21} & A_{22} \end{pmatrix}, \quad B = \begin{pmatrix} B_{11} & B_{12} \\ B_{21} & B_{22} \end{pmatrix}, \quad C = \begin{pmatrix} C_{11} & C_{12} \\ C_{21} & C_{22} \end{pmatrix},$$
 Equation 1

so that we rewrite the equation $C = A \times B$ as

$$\begin{pmatrix} C_{11} & C_{12} \\ C_{21} & C_{22} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} A_{11} & A_{12} \\ A_{21} & A_{22} \end{pmatrix} \cdot \begin{pmatrix} B_{11} & B_{12} \\ B_{21} & B_{22} \end{pmatrix}.$$
 Equation 2

Equation 2 can be expanded as

$$\begin{array}{rcl} C_{11} &=& A_{11} \cdot B_{11} + A_{12} \cdot B_{21} \ , \ \, \mbox{Equation 3} \\ C_{12} &=& A_{11} \cdot B_{12} + A_{12} \cdot B_{22} \ , \ \, \mbox{Equation 4} \\ C_{21} &=& A_{21} \cdot B_{11} + A_{22} \cdot B_{21} \ , \ \, \mbox{Equation 5} \\ C_{22} &=& A_{21} \cdot B_{12} + A_{22} \cdot B_{22} \ . \ \, \mbox{Equation 6} \end{array}$$

- $C_{11} = A_{11} \cdot B_{11} + A_{12} \cdot B_{21}$, Equation 3
- $C_{12} = A_{11} \cdot B_{12} + A_{12} \cdot B_{22}$, Equation 4
- $C_{21} = A_{21} \cdot B_{11} + A_{22} \cdot B_{21}$, Equation 5
- $C_{22} = A_{21} \cdot B_{12} + A_{22} \cdot B_{22}$. Equation 6

- Each of these four equations specifies two multiplications of $n/2 \times n/2$ matrices and the addition of their $n/2 \times n/2$ products.
- We can use these equations to create a straightforward, recursive, divide-and-conquer algorithm
SQUARE-MATRIX-MULTIPLY-RECURSIVE (A, B)

1
$$n = A.rows$$

- 2 let *C* be a new $n \times n$ matrix
- 3 **if** *n* == 1

$$4 c_{11} = a_{11} \cdot b_{11}$$

- 5 else partition A, B, and C as in equations 2
- 6 $C_{11} =$ SQUARE-MATRIX-MULTIPLY-RECURSIVE (A_{11}, B_{11}) + SQUARE-MATRIX-MULTIPLY-RECURSIVE (A_{12}, B_{21})
- 7 $C_{12} =$ SQUARE-MATRIX-MULTIPLY-RECURSIVE (A_{11}, B_{12}) + SOUARE-MATRIX-MULTIPLY-RECURSIVE (A_{12}, B_{22})

8
$$C_{21} =$$
SQUARE-MATRIX-MULTIPLY-RECURSIVE (A_{21}, B_{11})
+ SQUARE-MATRIX-MULTIPLY-RECURSIVE (A_{22}, B_{21})

9
$$C_{22} = \text{SQUARE-MATRIX-MULTIPLY-RECURSIVE}(A_{21}, B_{12})$$

+ SQUARE-MATRIX-MULTIPLY-RECURSIVE (A_{22}, B_{22})

10 return C

Let T(n) be the time to multiply two n x n matrices using this procedure. In the base case, when n = 1, we perform just the one scalar multiplication in line 4, and so

 $T(1) = \Theta(1)$

- The recursive case occurs when n > 1.
- Partitioning the matrices in line 5 takes $\Theta(1)$ time, using index calculations.
- In lines 6–9, we recursively call SQUARE-MATRIX-MULTIPLY-RECURSIVE a total of eight times.
- Because each recursive call multiplies two $n/2 \times n/2$ matrices, thereby contributing T(n/2) to the overall running time, the time taken by all eight recursive calls is 8T(n/2).

- \sim We also must account for the four matrix additions in lines 6–9.
- Each of these matrices contains $n^2/4$ entries, and so each of the four matrix additions takes $\Theta(n^2)$ time.
- Since the number of matrix additions is a constant, the total time spent adding matrices in lines 6–9 is $\Theta(n^2)$.

 The total time for the recursive case, therefore, is the sum of the partitioning time, the time for all the recursive calls, and the time to add the matrices resulting from the recursive calls:

$$T(n) = \Theta(1) + 8T(n/2) + \Theta(n^2)$$

= $8T(n/2) + \Theta(n^2)$.

Combining equations for base case and recursive cases

$$T(n) = \begin{cases} \Theta(1) & \text{if } n = 1, \\ 8T(n/2) + \Theta(n^2) & \text{if } n > 1. \end{cases}$$

Using the master method, we obtain $T(n) = \Theta(n^3)$.

- The key to Strassen's method is to make the recursion tree slightly less bushy.
- That is, instead of performing eight recursive multiplications of n/2 x n/2 matrices, it performs only seven.
- The cost of eliminating one matrix multiplication will be several new additions of n/2 x n/2 matrices, but still only a constant number of additions.
- Strassen's method has four steps:

- 1. Divide the input matrices A and B and output matrix C into $n/2 \times n/2$ submatrices. This step takes $\Theta(1)$ time by index calculation, just as in SQUARE-MATRIX-MULTIPLY-RECURSIVE.
- 2. Create 10 matrices S_1 , S_2 ,, S_{10} , each of which is n/2 x n/2 and is the sum or difference of two matrices created in step 1. We can create all 10 matrices in $\Theta(n^2)$ time.
- 3. Using the submatrices created in step 1 and the 10 matrices created in step 2, recursively compute seven matrix products P_1, P_2, \dots, P_7 . Each matrix P_i is n/2 x n/2.
- 4. Compute the desired submatrices C_{11} , C_{12} , C_{21} , C_{22} of the result matrix C by adding and subtracting various combinations of the P_i matrices. We can compute all four submatrices in $\Theta(n^2)$ time.

In step 2, we create the following 10 matrices

$$S_{1} = B_{12} - B_{22} ,$$

$$S_{2} = A_{11} + A_{12} ,$$

$$S_{3} = A_{21} + A_{22} ,$$

$$S_{4} = B_{21} - B_{11} ,$$

$$S_{5} = A_{11} + A_{22} ,$$

$$S_{6} = B_{11} + B_{22} ,$$

$$S_{7} = A_{12} - A_{22} ,$$

$$S_{8} = B_{21} + B_{22} ,$$

$$S_{9} = A_{11} - A_{21} ,$$

$$S_{10} = B_{11} + B_{12} .$$

 In step 3, we recursively multiply n/2 x n/2 matrices seven times to compute the following n/2 x n/2 matrices, each of which is the sum or difference of products of A and B submatrices:

$$\begin{array}{rclrcl} P_1 &=& A_{11} \cdot S_1 &=& A_{11} \cdot B_{12} - A_{11} \cdot B_{22} \;, \\ P_2 &=& S_2 \cdot B_{22} \;=& A_{11} \cdot B_{22} + A_{12} \cdot B_{22} \;, \\ P_3 &=& S_3 \cdot B_{11} \;=& A_{21} \cdot B_{11} + A_{22} \cdot B_{11} \;, \\ P_4 &=& A_{22} \cdot S_4 \;=& A_{22} \cdot B_{21} - A_{22} \cdot B_{11} \;, \\ P_5 &=& S_5 \cdot S_6 \;=& A_{11} \cdot B_{11} + A_{11} \cdot B_{22} + A_{22} \cdot B_{11} + A_{22} \cdot B_{22} \;, \\ P_6 &=& S_7 \cdot S_8 \;=& A_{12} \cdot B_{21} + A_{12} \cdot B_{22} - A_{22} \cdot B_{21} - A_{22} \cdot B_{22} \;, \\ P_7 &=& S_9 \cdot S_{10} \;=& A_{11} \cdot B_{11} + A_{11} \cdot B_{12} - A_{21} \cdot B_{11} - A_{21} \cdot B_{12} \;. \end{array}$$

Note that the only multiplications we need to perform are those in the middle column of the above equations. The right-hand column just shows what these products equal in terms of the original submatrices created in step 1

 Step 4 adds and subtracts the P_i matrices created in step 3 to construct the four n/2 x n/2 submatrices of the product C. We start with

$$C_{11} = P_5 + P_4 - P_2 + P_6$$

- Expanding out the right-hand side, with the expansion of each P_i on its own line and vertically aligning terms that cancel out, we see that C_{11} equals

$$\begin{array}{cccc} A_{11} \cdot B_{11} + A_{11} \cdot B_{22} + A_{22} \cdot B_{11} + A_{22} \cdot B_{22} \\ & & -A_{22} \cdot B_{11} & +A_{22} \cdot B_{21} \\ & & -A_{11} \cdot B_{22} & & -A_{12} \cdot B_{22} \\ & & & -A_{22} \cdot B_{22} - A_{22} \cdot B_{21} + A_{12} \cdot B_{22} + A_{12} \cdot B_{21} \\ \hline A_{11} \cdot B_{11} & & +A_{12} \cdot B_{21} \end{array}$$

Similarly, we set

$$C_{12} = P_1 + P_2 \,,$$

 \checkmark and so C_{12} equals

$$\begin{array}{l} A_{11} \cdot B_{12} - A_{11} \cdot B_{22} \\ + A_{11} \cdot B_{22} + A_{12} \cdot B_{22} \end{array}$$
$$A_{11} \cdot B_{12} + A_{12} \cdot B_{22}$$

Setting

$$C_{21} = P_3 + P_4$$

makes C21 equal

$$\begin{array}{l} A_{21} \cdot B_{11} + A_{22} \cdot B_{11} \\ & -A_{22} \cdot B_{11} + A_{22} \cdot B_{21} \\ \hline A_{21} \cdot B_{11} + A_{22} \cdot B_{21} \end{array}$$

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Finally, we set

$$C_{22} = P_5 + P_1 - P_3 - P_7 ,$$

so that C_{22} equals

$$\begin{array}{cccc} A_{11} \cdot B_{11} + A_{11} \cdot B_{22} + A_{22} \cdot B_{11} + A_{22} \cdot B_{22} \\ & & -A_{11} \cdot B_{22} \\ & & -A_{22} \cdot B_{11} \\ -A_{11} \cdot B_{11} \end{array} + A_{11} \cdot B_{12} \\ & & -A_{21} \cdot B_{11} \\ & & -A_{11} \cdot B_{12} + A_{21} \cdot B_{11} + A_{21} \cdot B_{12} \end{array}$$

 $A_{22} \cdot B_{22} + A_{21} \cdot B_{12} ,$

Use Strassen's algorithm to compute the matrix product

 $\left(\begin{array}{rrr}1 & 3\\7 & 5\end{array}\right)\left(\begin{array}{rrr}6 & 8\\4 & 2\end{array}\right).$

Use Strassen's algorithm to compute the matrix product

 $\left(\begin{array}{rr}1 & 3\\7 & 5\end{array}\right)$ Let A be So, A₁₁ = 1 $A_{12} = 3$ $A_{21} = 7$ $A_{22} = 5$ Let B be $\begin{pmatrix} 6 & 8 \\ 4 & 2 \end{pmatrix}$ So, B₁₁ = 6 $B_{12} = 8$ $B_{21} = 4$ $B_{22} = 2$

 $\left(\begin{array}{rrr}1 & 3\\7 & 5\end{array}\right)\left(\begin{array}{rrr}6 & 8\\4 & 2\end{array}\right).$

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$ \left(\begin{array}{rrr} 1 & 3\\ 7 & 5 \end{array}\right) \left(\begin{array}{rrr} 6 & 8\\ 4 & 2 \end{array}\right) $
$A_{11} = 1$ $A_{12} = 3$
$A_{21} = 7$
A ₂₂ = 5
B ₁₁ = 6
$B_{12} = 8$
B ₂₁ = 4 B ₂₂ = 2

 $S_{10} = B_{11} + B_{12} = 14$

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Use Strassen's algorithm to	o compute the matrix product	$(1 \ 3)(6 \ 8)$
		$\left(7 5\right)\left(4 2\right)$
$P_1 = A_{11}.S_1 = 1*6 = 6$		$A_{11} = 1$ $A_{12} = 3$
$P_2 = S_2 \cdot B_{22} = 4*2 = 8$		$A_{21} = 7$
$P_3 = S_3 B_{11} = 12*6 = 72$		$A_{22} - 3$
$P_4 = A_{22}.S_4 = 5*-2 = -10$		$B_{11} = 6$ $B_{12} = 8$
$P_5 = S_5 \cdot S_6 = 6 \cdot 8 = 48$		$B_{21}^{-} = 4$
$P_6 = S_7 \cdot S_8 = -2*6 = -12$		$D_{22} - Z$
$P_7 = S_9.S_{10} = -6*14 = -84$		$S_1 = 0$ $S_2 = 4$
		$S_3 = 12$
		S₄ = -2 S₅ = 6
		$S_6 = 8$
		S ₇ = -2
		$S_8 = 6$
	Created by Pukar Karki JOE	$S_9 = -6$
	CIERIEU DY PUKAI NAIKI, IOE	$5_{10} - 14$



 $C_{11} = P_5 + P_4 - P_2 + P_6 = 48 - 10 - 8 - 12 = 18$ $P_1 = 6$ $P_2 = 8$ $P_3 = 72$ $P_3 + P_4 = 72 - 10 = 62$ $P_4 = -10$ $P_5 = 48$ $P_6 = -12$ $P_7 = -84$

 Let us assume that once the matrix size n gets down to 1, we perform a simple scalar multiplication. So,

 $T(n) = \Theta(1)$, if n = 1

- ✓ When n > 1, steps 1, 2, and 4 take a total of $\Theta(n^2)$ time, and step 3 requires us to perform seven multiplications of n/2 x n/2 matrices.
- Hence, we obtain the following recurrence for the running time T(n) of Strassen's algorithm:

$$T(n) = \begin{cases} \Theta(1) & \text{if } n = 1 ,\\ 7T(n/2) + \Theta(n^2) & \text{if } n > 1 . \end{cases}$$

Using master's method T (n) = $\Theta(n^{\log_2 7})$

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Review Questions

- 1. Why is solving recurrence relation essential while analyzing algorithms?
- 2. Write the algorithm for quick sort and compute it's worst case time complexity.
- 3. Explain and analyze the algorithm for merge sort.
- 4. What do you mean by a heap? Explain the algorithm for heap sort with an example. Also discuss about it's time and space complexity.
- 5. Is the array with values {23, 17, 14, 6, 13, 10, 1, 5, 7, 12} a max-heap?
- 6. Where in a max-heap might the smallest element reside, assuming that all elements are distinct?
- 7. Illustrate the operation of PARTITION on the array A = {13, 19, 9, 5, 12, 8, 7, 4, 21, 2, 6, 11}.
- 8. Use Strassen's algorithm to compute the matrix product $\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 3 \\ 7 & 5 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 6 & 8 \\ 4 & 2 \end{pmatrix}$.