

Recurrences and Divide & Conquer

Carola Wenk

Slides courtesy of Charles Leiserson with small changes by Carola Wenk



Merge sort

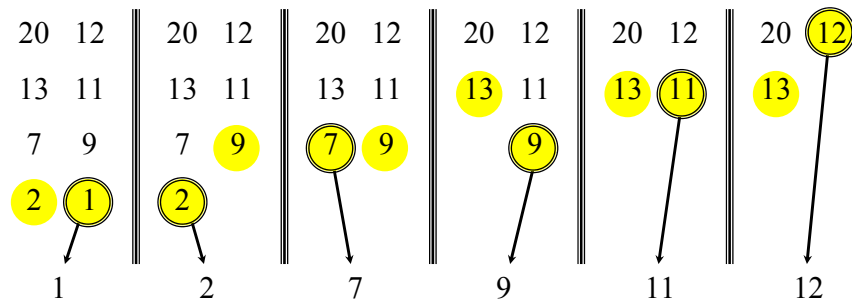
MERGE-SORT $A[1 \dots n]$

1. If $n = 1$, done.
2. Recursively sort $A[1 \dots \lceil n/2 \rceil]$ and $A[\lceil n/2 \rceil + 1 \dots n]$.
3. “Merge” the 2 sorted lists.

Key subroutine: MERGE



Merging two sorted arrays



Time $dn = \Theta(n)$ to merge a total of n elements (linear time).



Analyzing merge sort

$T(n)$

d_0

$2T(n/2)$

dn

MERGE-SORT $A[1 \dots n]$

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3. “Merge” the 2 sorted lists

Sloppiness: Should be $T(\lceil n/2 \rceil) + T(\lfloor n/2 \rfloor)$, but it turns out not to matter asymptotically.



Recurrence for merge sort

$$T(n) = \begin{cases} d_0 & \text{if } n = 1; \\ 2T(n/2) + dn & \text{if } n > 1. \end{cases}$$

- We shall often omit stating the base case when $T(n) = \Theta(1)$ for sufficiently small n , but only when it has no effect on the asymptotic solution to the recurrence.

• But what does $T(n)$ solve to? I.e., is it $O(n)$ or $O(n^2)$ or $O(n^3)$ or ...?



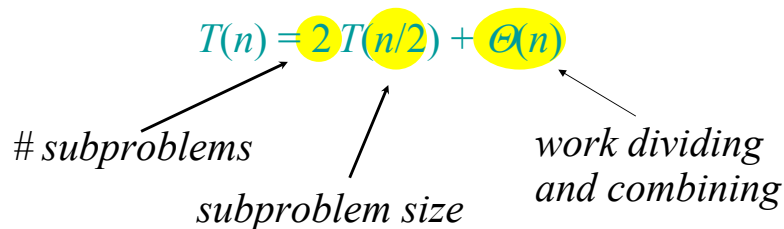
The divide-and-conquer design paradigm

1. **Divide** the problem (instance) into subproblems.
2. **Conquer** the subproblems by solving them recursively.
3. **Combine** subproblem solutions.



Example: merge sort

1. **Divide:** Trivial.
2. **Conquer:** Recursively sort 2 subarrays.
3. **Combine:** Linear-time merge.



Binary search

Find an element in a sorted array:

1. **Divide:** Check middle element.
2. **Conquer:** Recursively search 1 subarray.
3. **Combine:** Trivial.

Example: Find 9





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- 1. Divide:** Check middle element.
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Example: Find 9

3 5 7 8 9 12 15



Binary search

Find an element in a sorted array:

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- 3. Combine:** Trivial.

Example: Find 9

3 5 7 8 9 12 15



Recurrence for binary search

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

subproblems

subproblem size

work dividing and combining



Recurrence for merge sort

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

- How do we solve $T(n)$? I.e., how do we find out if it is $O(n)$ or $O(n^2)$ or ...?



Recursion tree

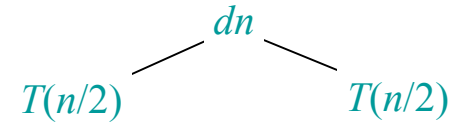
Solve $T(n) = 2T(n/2) + dn$, where $d > 0$ is constant.

$$T(n)$$



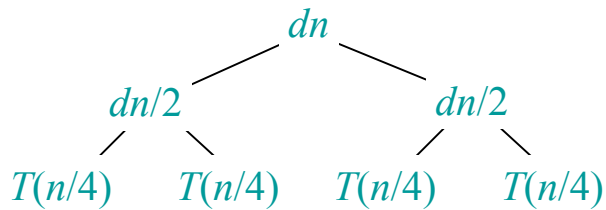
Recursion tree

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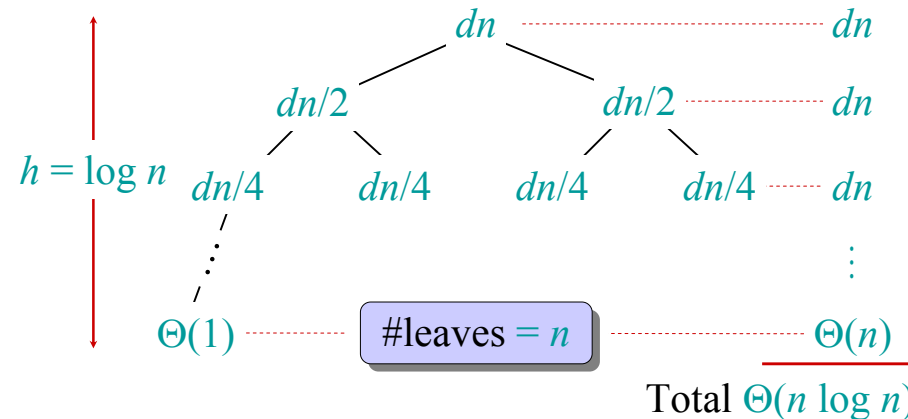
Recursion tree

Solve $T(n) = 2T(n/2) + dn$, where $d > 0$ is constant.



Recursion tree

Solve $T(n) = 2T(n/2) + dn$, where $d > 0$ is constant.





Conclusions

- Merge sort runs in $\Theta(n \lg n)$ time.
- $\Theta(n \lg n)$ grows more slowly than $\Theta(n^2)$.
- Therefore, merge sort asymptotically beats insertion sort in the worst case.
- In practice, merge sort beats insertion sort for $n > 30$ or so. (Why not earlier?)



Recursion-tree method

- A recursion tree models the costs (time) of a recursive execution of an algorithm.
- The recursion-tree method can be unreliable, just like any method that uses ellipses (...).
- It is good for generating **guesses** of what the runtime could be.

But: Need to **verify** that the guess is right.
 → Induction (substitution method)



Substitution method

The most general method to solve a recurrence (prove O and Ω separately):

1. **Guess** the form of the solution: (e.g. using recursion trees, or expansion)
2. **Verify** by induction (inductive step).
3. **Solve** for O -constants n_0 and c (base case of induction)



The divide-and-conquer design paradigm

1. **Divide** the problem (instance) into subproblems.
 a subproblems, **each** of size n/b
2. **Conquer** the subproblems by solving them recursively.
3. **Combine** subproblem solutions.
 Runtime is $f(n)$



The master method

The master method applies to recurrences of the form

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

where $a \geq 1$, $b > 1$, and f is asymptotically positive.



Three common cases

Compare $f(n)$ with $n^{\log_b a}$:

1. $f(n) = O(n^{\log_b a - \epsilon})$ for some constant $\epsilon > 0$.
 - $f(n)$ grows polynomially slower than $n^{\log_b a}$ (by an n^ϵ factor).

Solution: $T(n) = \Theta(n^{\log_b a})$.

2. $f(n) = \Theta(n^{\log_b a} \lg^k n)$ for some constant $k \geq 0$.
 - $f(n)$ and $n^{\log_b a}$ grow at similar rates.

Solution: $T(n) = \Theta(n^{\log_b a} \lg^{k+1} n)$.



Three common cases (cont.)

Compare $f(n)$ with $n^{\log_b a}$:

3. $f(n) = \Omega(n^{\log_b a + \epsilon})$ for some constant $\epsilon > 0$.
 - $f(n)$ grows polynomially faster than $n^{\log_b a}$ (by an n^ϵ factor),

and $f(n)$ satisfies the **regularity condition** that $af(n/b) \leq cf(n)$ for some constant $c < 1$.

Solution: $T(n) = \Theta(f(n))$.



Examples

Ex. $T(n) = 4T(n/2) + n$
 $a = 4, b = 2 \Rightarrow n^{\log_b a} = n^2; f(n) = n.$
CASE 1: $f(n) = O(n^{2-\epsilon})$ for $\epsilon = 1.$
 $\therefore T(n) = \Theta(n^2).$

Ex. $T(n) = 4T(n/2) + n^2$
 $a = 4, b = 2 \Rightarrow n^{\log_b a} = n^2; f(n) = n^2.$
CASE 2: $f(n) = \Theta(n^2 \lg^0 n)$, that is, $k = 0.$
 $\therefore T(n) = \Theta(n^2 \lg n).$



Examples

Ex. $T(n) = 4T(n/2) + n^3$

$a = 4, b = 2 \Rightarrow n^{\log_b a} = n^2; f(n) = n^3.$

CASE 3: $f(n) = \Omega(n^{2+\epsilon})$ for $\epsilon = 1$

and $4(cn/2)^3 \leq cn^3$ (reg. cond.) for $c = 1/2.$

$\therefore T(n) = \Theta(n^3).$

Ex. $T(n) = 4T(n/2) + n^2/\lg n$

$a = 4, b = 2 \Rightarrow n^{\log_b a} = n^2; f(n) = n^2/\lg n.$

Master method does not apply. In particular, for every constant $\epsilon > 0$, we have $n^\epsilon = \omega(\lg n).$



Master theorem (summary)

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

CASE 1: $f(n) = O(n^{\log_b a - \epsilon})$

$\Rightarrow T(n) = \Theta(n^{\log_b a}).$

CASE 2: $f(n) = \Theta(n^{\log_b a} \lg^k n)$

$\Rightarrow T(n) = \Theta(n^{\log_b a} \lg^{k+1} n).$

CASE 3: $f(n) = \Omega(n^{\log_b a + \epsilon})$ and $a f(n/b) \leq c f(n)$

$\Rightarrow T(n) = \Theta(f(n)).$

Merge sort: $a = 2, b = 2 \Rightarrow n^{\log_b a} = n$

\Rightarrow **CASE 2** ($k = 0$) $\Rightarrow T(n) = \Theta(n \lg n).$