

Analysis of Algorithms

Divide and Conquer

Andres Mendez-Vazquez

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Outline

1 Divide and Conquer: The Holy Grail!!

- Introduction
- Split problems into smaller ones

2 Divide and Conquer

- The Recursion
- Not only that, we can define functions recursively
- Classic Application: Divide and Conquer
- Using Recursion to Calculate Complexities

3 Using Induction to prove Algorithm Correctness

- Relation Between Recursion and Induction
- Now, Structural Induction!!!
- Example of the Use of Structural Induction for Proving Loop Correctness
 - The Structure of the Inductive Proof for a Loop
 - Insertion Sort Proof

4 Asymptotic Notation

- Big Notation
- Relation with step count
- The Terrible Reality
- The Little Bounds
- Interpreting the Notation
- Properties
- Examples using little notation

5 Method to Solve Recursions

- The Classics
 - Substitution Method
 - The Recursion-Tree Method
 - The Master Method



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A classic technique based on the multi-based recursion.



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That Divide and Conquer works by recursively breaking down the problem into subproblems and solving those subproblems recursively.

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Given the fact of the following equivalence:

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Gauss and the Beginning

Carl Friedrich Gauss (1777–1855)

He devised a way to multiply two imaginary numbers as

$$(a + bi)(c + di) = ac + (ad + bc)i - bd \quad (2)$$

By realizing that

$$bc + ad = (a + b)(c + d) - ac - bd \quad (3)$$

Thus minimizing the number of multiplications from four to three.

Eventually

We can represent binary numbers like 1001 as $1000 + 01 = 2^3 \times 10 + 01$



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Actually

We can represent binary numbers like 1001 as $1000 + 01 = 2^2 \times 10 + 01$



Thus

We can represent numbers x, y as

- $x = x_L \circ x_R = 2^{n/2}x_L + x_R$

- $y = y_L \circ y_R = 2^{n/2}y_L + y_R$

Thus

We can represent numbers x, y as

- $x = x_L \circ x_R = 2^{n/2}x_L + x_R$
- $y = y_L \circ y_R = 2^{n/2}y_L + y_R$

Thus, the multiplication can be found by using

$$xy = (2^{n/2}x_L + x_R)(2^{n/2}y_L + y_R) = 2^n x_L y_L + 2^{n/2}(x_L y_R + x_R y_L) + x_R y_R \quad (4)$$

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However,

if we use the Gauss's trick, we only need $x_L y_L, x_R y_R, (x_L + x_R)(y_L + y_R)$ to calculate the multiplication:

- $x_L y_R + x_R y_L = (x_L + x_R)(y_L + y_R) - x_L y_L - x_R y_R$

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Now, You have this...

We have that

xy can be calculated by using the two parts, Left and Right.

Then

Thus, each x_{LL} , x_{LR} , x_{RL} and x_{RR} can be calculated in a similar way

Recursion

This is know as a Recursive Procedure!!!



Now, You have this...

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Conclusion

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$$T(n) = 4T\left(\frac{n}{2}\right) + \text{Some Work} \quad (5)$$

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We will prove that

- For old style multiplications $O(n^2)$.

• For new style multiplications $O(n^{\log_2 3})$

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Epitaph

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In a really unclever way!!!



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Or we can go and design something better

Thus, improving speedup!!!



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The difference between

- A great design...
- Or a crappy job...



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Recursion is the base of Divide and Conquer

This is the natural way we do many things

We always attack smaller versions first of the large one!!!

Stephen Cole Kleene

- He defined the basics about the use of recursion.



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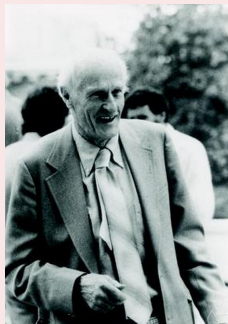
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Kleene and Company

Some facts about him

- Stephen Cole Kleene (January 5, 1909 – January 25, 1994) was an American mathematician.
- One of the students of Alonzo Church!!!
 - ▶ Church is best known for the lambda calculus, Church–Turing thesis and proving the undecidability of the use of an algorithm to say Yes(Valid) or No(No Valid) to a first order logic statement on a FOL System (Proposed by David Hilbert).

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- Kleene, along with Alan Turing, Emil Post, and others, is best known as a founder of the branch of mathematical logic known as recursion theory.
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Why?

We can use recursion to define sequences, functions, and sets.

Example

- $a_n = 2^n$ for $n = 0, 1, 2, \dots \implies 1, 2, 4, 8, 16, 32, \dots$
- Thus, the sequence can be defined in a recursive way:

$$a_{n+1} = 2 \times a_n$$

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Assume T is a function with the set of nonnegative integers as its domain.



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We use two steps to define T :

Basis step:

Specify the value of $T(0)$.

Recursive step:

Give a rule for $T(x)$ using $T(y)$ where $0 \leq y < x$.



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Example

Can you give me the following?

Give an inductive definition of the factorial function $T(n) = n!$.

Base case

Which is the base case?

Recursive case

What is the recursive case?



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Recursively Defined Sets and Structures

- Assume S is a set.
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Example

Consider

Consider $S \subseteq \mathbb{Z}$ defined by...

Base Step

$3 \in S$

Recursive Step

If $x \in S$ and $y \in S$, then $x + y \in S$.



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Example

Elements

- $3 \in S$
- $3 + 3 = 6 \in S$
- $6 + 3 = 9 \in S$
- $6 + 6 = 12 \in S$
- ...



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Divide and Conquer

Divide

Split problem into a number of subproblems.

Conquer

Solve each subproblem recursively.

Combine

The solution of the problems into the solution of the original problem.



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Time Complexities

Definition

- Given an input as a string where the problem is being encoded using an alphabet Σ ,
 - ▶ The **time complexity** quantifies the amount of time taken by an algorithm to run as a function on the length of such string.



The Divide and Conquer of Merge Sort

Merge-Sort(A, p, r)

- 1 if $p < r$ then
- 2 $q \leftarrow \lfloor \frac{p+r}{2} \rfloor$
- 3 Merge-Sort(A, p, q)
- 4 Merge-Sort($A, q + 1, r$)
- 5 MERGE(A, p, q, r)

Explanation

Divide part into the conquer!!!



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- 4 Merge-Sort($A, q + 1, r$)
- 5 **MERGE(A, p, q, r)**

Explanation

The combine part!!!



Merge Sort

- Merge(A , p , q , r)
 - 1 $n_1 \leftarrow q - p + 1$, $n_2 \leftarrow r - p$
 - 2 let $L[1, 2, \dots, n_1 + 1]$ and $R[1, 2, \dots, n_2 + 1]$ be new arrays.
 - 3 for $i \leftarrow 1$ to n_1
 - 4 $L[i] \leftarrow A[p + i - 1]$
 - 5 for $j \leftarrow 1$ to n_2
 - 6 $R[j] \leftarrow A[q + j]$
 - 7 $L[n_1 + 1] \leftarrow \infty$
 - 8 $R[n_2 + 1] \leftarrow \infty$
 - 9 $i \leftarrow 1$, $j \leftarrow 1$
 - 10 for $k \leftarrow p$ to r
 - 11 if $L[i] \leq R[j]$ then
 - 12 $A[k] \leftarrow L[i]$
 - 13 $i \leftarrow i + 1$
 - 14 else
 - 15 $A[k] \leftarrow R[j]$
 - 16 $j \leftarrow j + 1$

Explanation

- Copy all to be merged lists into two containers.



Merge Sort

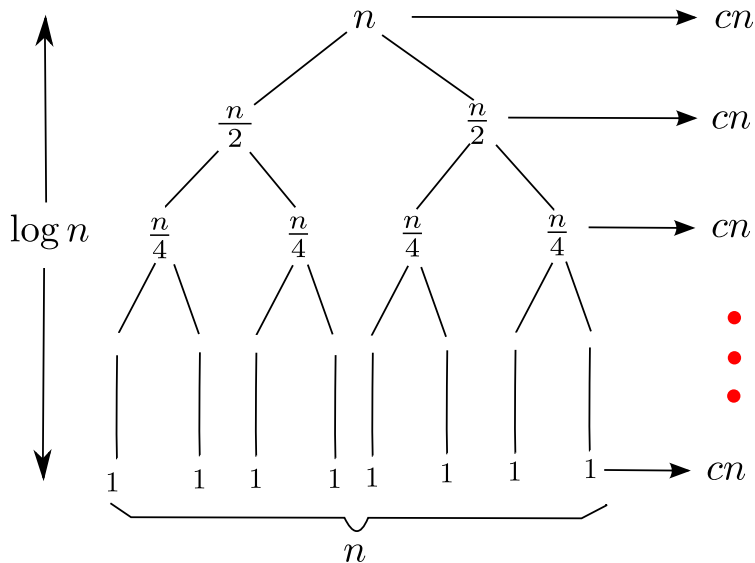
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 - 6 $R[j] \leftarrow A[q + j]$
 - 7 $L[n_1 + 1] \leftarrow \infty$
 - 8 $R[n_2 + 1] \leftarrow \infty$
 - 9 $i \leftarrow 1$, $j \leftarrow 1$
 - 10 for $k \leftarrow p$ to r
 - 11 if $L[i] \leq R[j]$ then
 - 12 $A[k] \leftarrow L[i]$
 - 13 $i \leftarrow i + 1$
 - 14 else
 - 15 $A[k] \leftarrow R[j]$
 - 16 $j \leftarrow j + 1$

Explanation

- Merging part.



The Merge Sort Recursion Cost Function



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Recursive Functions

Using Church-Turing Thesis

Every computable function from natural numbers to natural numbers is recursive and computable.

YES!!

We can use recursive functions to represent the TOTAL number of steps carried when computing an ALGORITHM



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Thus, we have

Each Step for ONE Merging takes...

A certain constant time c !!!

Thus, if we merge n elements

Total time at level 1 of recursion:

$$cn \tag{8}$$

In addition,

We have that the recursion split each work by

$$\frac{1}{2^i}, \text{ for } i = 1, \dots, \log n \tag{9}$$



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Thus, we have the following Recursion

Base Case $n = 1$

$$T(n) = c \quad (10)$$

Where c stands for a constant in the number of time units or assembly instructions per line!!!

Recursive Step $n > 1$

$$2T\left(\frac{n}{2}\right) + cn \quad (11)$$

Finally

$$T(n) = \begin{cases} c & \text{if } n = 1 \\ 2T\left(\frac{n}{2}\right) + cn & \text{if } n > 1 \end{cases} \quad (12)$$

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Recursion and Induction

Something Notable

When a sequence is defined recursively, mathematical induction can be used to prove results about the sequence.



For Example

We want

To show that the set S is the set A of all positive integers that are multiples of 3.

First step

Show that if $\forall k \geq 1$ $P(k)$ is true, then $P(k+1)$ is true

We define first the inductive hypothesis

$P(k) : 3k \in S$ is true



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Definition of Structural induction

Basis Step

- Assume j is an element specified in the base step of the definition.
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Cinvestav

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Again Insertion Sort - Proving the Sorting Property

Data: Unsorted Sequence A

Result: Sort Sequence A

Insertion Sort(A)

for $j \leftarrow 2$ **to** $\text{lenght}(A)$ **do**

$key \leftarrow A[j]$;

 // Insert $A[j]$ into the sorted sequence
 $A[1, \dots, j - 1]$

$i \leftarrow j - 1$;

while $i > 0$ **and** $A[i] > key$ **do**

$A[i + 1] \leftarrow A[i]$;

$i \leftarrow i - 1$;

end

$A[i + 1] \leftarrow key$

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You have an initial input n

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Then, we have the following steps:

- Initialization - Before the loop.
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We have the following before the loop

- That the condition is true for one element!!!

► For example, in insertion sort $A[1]$ is an already sorted array.



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First, we must be able to prove that

- The property holds before entering into the loop.

▶ That the array $A[1..j-1]$ is sorted!!!



Maintenance

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Termination

We need

- To prove that the property is TRUE for n elements.
 - ▶ At the end of the algorithm $A[1, \dots, n]$ is a sorted



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For example, Insertion Sort (Thanks to Luis Rodriguez Oracle Master 2012)

First, we define the following sets with sorted elements

- $Less = \langle x_1, \dots, x_k | x_i < key, i = 1, \dots, k \rangle$
- $Greater = \langle x_1, \dots, x_m | x_j > key, j = 1, \dots, m \rangle$
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You never enter in the inner loop, thus $A[j - 1] < key \Rightarrow$
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Case II

① You entered the inner while loop.

② Thus at each iteration we have the following structure

$$A[1..j] = [I \mid A[i] \mid Greater]$$

▶ where $Greater = (A[i], A[i + 1], \dots, A[j - 1])$.

Note: I and $Greater$ are sorted such that $A[1..j]$ is sorted by itself at this moment in the inner loop



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- 2 Thus at each iteration we have the following structure

$$A[1..j] = \boxed{I \mid A[i] \mid Greater}$$

where $Greater = (A[i], A[i + 1], \dots, A[j - 1])$.

Note: I and $Greater$ are sorted such that $A[1..j]$ is sorted by itself at this moment in the inner loop



Then

Case I

You never enter in the inner loop, thus $A[j - 1] < key \Rightarrow$
 $Less = A[1..j - 1]$, thus $A[1..j]$ is a sorted array.

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Thus, we get out of the inner loop once $I = \emptyset$.

① We have that $A[1..j] = \boxed{\text{Less} \mid A[i + 1] \mid \text{Greater}}$, where $A[i + 2] == A[i + 1]$.

- ② Thus, $A[1..j]$ is sorted before inserting the key into the position $A[i + 1]$.
- ③ Then, because elements of $A[1..j]$ are sorted,
 - ④ We have that after inserting the key at position $i + 1$ in $A[1..j]$ the array is still sorted after iteration j .



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Finally, Termination

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- Once $j > \text{length}(A)$, we get out of the outer loop and $j = n + 1$.
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A Turing-complete system is called Turing equivalent if every function it can compute is also Turing Computable.

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Proof From Lambda Calculus

- Assume languages IT (with Iterative constructs only) and REC (with Recursive constructs only).
- Simulate a universal Turing machine using IT, then simulate a universal Turing machine using REC.
- The existence of the simulator programs guarantees that both IT and REC can calculate all the computable functions.



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Important

- We use **RECURSIVE** procedures, when we begin to solve new problems so we can understand them.

• Then, we move everything to **ITERATIVE** procedures for speed!!!



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Introduction

Let's go back to first principles

- We can look at our problem of complexities as bounding functions for approximation.

Can we do better?

Asymptotic Approximation... We will see a little bit more as the course goes...



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Big O

Definition (Big O - Upper Bound)

For a given function $g(n)$:

$$O(g(n)) = \{f(n) \mid \text{There exists } c > 0 \text{ and } n_0 > 0 \\ \text{s.t. } 0 \leq f(n) \leq cg(n) \forall n \geq n_0\}$$

Example



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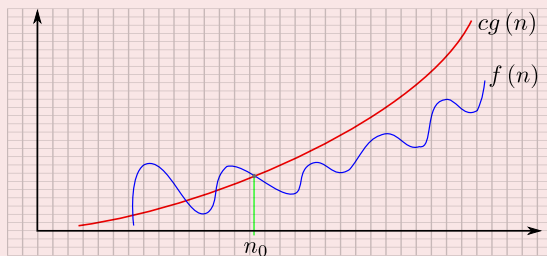
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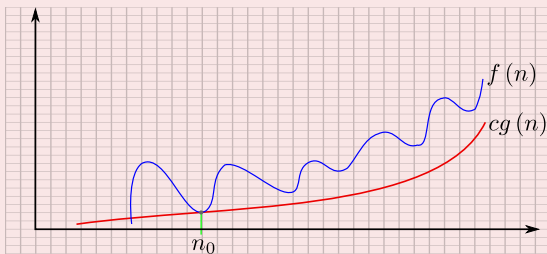
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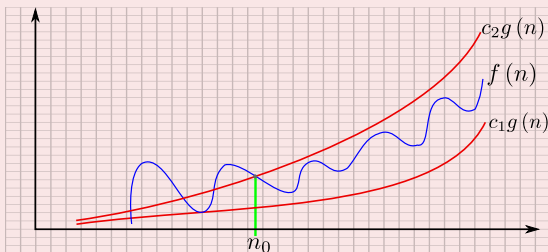
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Can we relate this with practical examples?

You could say

This is too theoretical!

However, this is not the case!!

Look at this java code...



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Example: Step count of Insertion Sort in Java

Counting when $A.length = n$

```
// Sort A assume is full
public int [] InsertionSort(int [] A){           Step
// Initial Variables                             0
int B[] = new int[A.length];                   1
int size = 1;                                   1
int i, j, t;                                    1
// Initialize the Array B                       0
B[0]=A[0];                                      1
for(i = 1; i < A.length; i++){                 n
    t = A[i];                                   n-1
    for(j=size-1;                               i+1
        j>=0&& t<B[j];j--){
        {                                       0
            //shift to the right                i
            B[j+1]=B[j];}
        B[j+1]=t;                               n-1
        size++;                                n-1
    }
return B;                                       1
}
```

The Result

Step count for body of for loop is

$$6 + 3(n - 1) + n + \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} (i + 1) + \sum_{j=1}^{n-1} (i) \quad (13)$$

The summation

They have the quadratic terms n^2 .

Complexity

Insertion sort complexity is $O(n^2)$



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What does this means for insertion sort?

We have

$$6 + 3(n - 1) + n + \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} (i + 1) + \sum_{j=1}^{n-1} (i) = \dots$$

$$3 + 4n + \frac{n(n-1)}{2} + n - 1 + \frac{n(n-1)}{2} = \dots$$

$$2 + 5n + n(n-1) = \dots$$

$$n^2 + 4n + 2 \leq n^2 + 4n^2 + 2n^2$$

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With $T_{\text{insertion}}(n) = n^2 + 4n + 2$ describing the number of steps for insertion when we have n numbers.

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For $n_0 = 2$

$$2^2 + 4 \times 2 + 2 = 14 < 7 \times 2^2 = 28 \quad (15)$$

Graphically



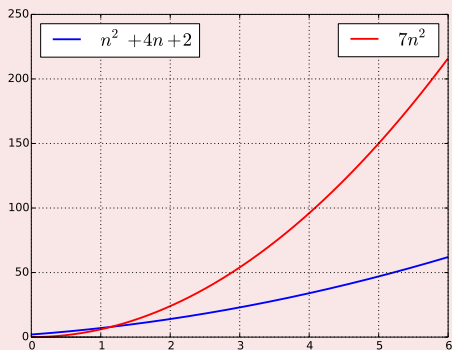
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Time or number of operations does not exceed cn^2 for a constant c on any input of size n (n suitably large).

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n	n^{10}	2^n
1000	3.2×10^{13} years	3.2×10^{283} years
10,000	???	???
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The Reign of the Non Polynomial Algorithms

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It is not tight.

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Properties

Equivalence

For any two functions $f(n)$ and $g(n)$, we have that $f(n) = \Theta(g(n))$ if and only if $f(n) = O(g(n))$ and $f(n) = \Omega(g(n))$.

Transitivity

$f(n) = \Theta(g(n))$ and $g(n) = \Theta(h(n))$ then $f(n) = \Theta(h(n))$

Reflexivity

$f(n) = \Theta(f(n))$

Symmetry

$f(n) = \Theta(g(n)) \iff g(n) = \Theta(f(n))$

Transpose Symmetry

$f(n) = O(g(n)) \iff g(n) = \Omega(f(n))$

Properties

Equivalence

For any two functions $f(n)$ and $g(n)$, we have that $f(n) = \Theta(g(n))$ if and only if $f(n) = O(g(n))$ and $f(n) = \Omega(g(n))$.

Transitivity

$f(n) = \Theta(g(n))$ and $g(n) = \Theta(h(n))$ then $f(n) = \Theta(h(n))$

Reflexivity

$$f(n) = \Theta(f(n))$$

Symmetry

$$f(n) = \Theta(g(n)) \iff g(n) = \Theta(f(n))$$

Transpose Symmetry

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- **Examples using little notation**

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Examples

For the little o, we have that $2n = o(n^2)$, but $2n^2 \neq o(n^2)$

- In the case of the first part, it is easy to see that for any given c exist a n_0 such that $\frac{1}{\frac{n_0}{2}} < c$.

• In addition, $n > n_0$ implies that $\frac{1}{n_0} > \frac{1}{n}$.

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A similar situation can be seen in little ω

For example $\frac{n^2}{2} = \omega(n)$, but $\frac{n^2}{2} \neq \omega(n^2)$

In the first case, a similar argument can be done such that

$$cn < \frac{n^2}{2}$$

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Ok, we have the basics...

Now...

What do we do?



Cinvestav

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The Substitution Method

The Steps in the Method

- Guess the form of the solution.
- Use mathematical induction to find the constants and show that the solution works.



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Example

Solve the following recurrence

$$T(n) = 2T\left(\left\lfloor \frac{n}{2} \right\rfloor\right) + n \quad (16)$$

I decide to do the following GUESS

Guess that $T(n) = O(n \log n)$!!!

For this

We assume that the bound holds for $\lfloor \frac{n}{2} \rfloor < n$ (Remember Inductive Hypothesis!!!).



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$$\begin{aligned}\log_2 \left(\frac{n}{2} \right) &= \log_2 n - \log_2 2 \\&= \log_2 n - 1\end{aligned}$$

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$$\begin{aligned} T(n) &\leq cn \log_2 n - cn + n \\ &\leq cn \log_2 n \end{aligned}$$

What about ?

$$T(n) = T\left(\left\lfloor \frac{n}{2} \right\rfloor\right) + T\left(\left\lceil \frac{n}{2} \right\rceil\right) + 1$$



Here

We can guess that $T(n) = O(n)$

$$\begin{aligned}T(n) &\leq c \left\lfloor \frac{n}{2} \right\rfloor + c \left\lceil \frac{n}{2} \right\rceil + 1 \\&= cn + 1 \\&= O(n)\end{aligned}$$

Incorrect!

- After all $cn + 1$ is not cn .

We can overcome this problem by assuming a $d > 0$ and then guessing $T(n) \leq cn - d$.

$$\begin{aligned}T(n) &\leq \left(c \left\lfloor \frac{n}{2} \right\rfloor - d \right) + \left(c \left\lceil \frac{n}{2} \right\rceil - d \right) + 1 \\&= cn - 2d + 1\end{aligned}$$

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We can overcome this problem by assuming a $d \geq 0$ and then “guessing” $T(n) \leq cn - d$

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Therefore

Then

- if we select $d \geq 1 \Rightarrow 0 \geq 1 - d$.

This means that $T(n) = cn - d = O(n)$.

- Therefore, $T(n) \leq cn - d = O(n)$.



Therefore

Then

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The Recursion-Tree Method

Surprise

- Sometimes is hard to do a good guess.

• For example $T(n) = 3T\left(\frac{n}{4}\right) + cn^2$



The Recursion-Tree Method

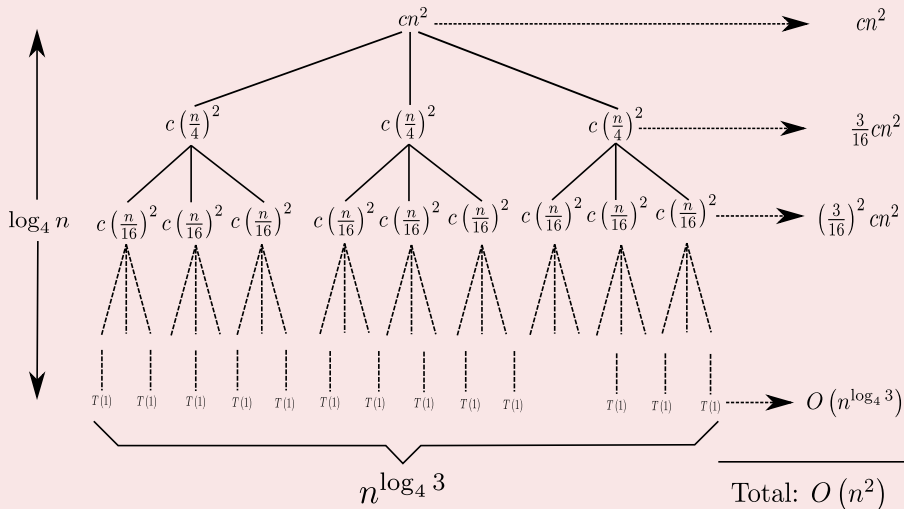
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The Recursion-Tree Method

Therefore, we draw the recursion tree



Using the previous expansion, we count!!!

Counting Again!!!

- A subproblem for a node at depth i is $n/4^i$, then once

$$n/4^i = 1 \Rightarrow i = \log_4 n \quad (18)$$

- At each level $i = 0, 1, 2, \dots, \log_4 n - 1$ the cost of each node is

$$c \left(\frac{n}{4^i} \right)^2 \quad (19)$$

- At each level $i = 0, 1, 2, \dots, \log_4 n - 1$ the total cost of the work is

$$3^i c \left(\frac{n}{4^i} \right)^2 = \left(\frac{3}{16} \right)^i cn^2 \quad (20)$$

- At depth $\log_4 n$, we have this many nodes

$$3^{\log_4 n} = n^{\log_4 3} \quad (21)$$

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Now, we add all this counts!!!

Then, we have that

$$T(n) = \sum_{i=0}^{\log_4 n - 1} \left(\frac{3}{16}\right)^i cn^2 + n^{\log_4 3}$$

$$< \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} \left(\frac{3}{16}\right)^i cn^2 + n^{\log_4 3}$$

$$= \frac{1}{1 - (3/16)} cn^2 + n^{\log_4 3}$$

$$= O(n^2)$$



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The Master Theorem

Theorem - Cookbook for solving $T(n) = aT\left(\frac{n}{b}\right) + f(n)$

Let $a \geq 1$ and $b > 1$ be constants, let $f(n)$ be a function, and let $T(n)$ be defined on the non-negative integers by the recurrence

$$T(n) = aT\left(\frac{n}{b}\right) + f(n) \quad (22)$$

where we interpret $\frac{n}{b}$ as $\lfloor \frac{n}{b} \rfloor$ or $\lceil \frac{n}{b} \rceil$. Then $T(n)$ can be bounded asymptotically as follows:

- 1. If $f(n) = O(n^{\log_b a - \epsilon})$ for some constant $\epsilon > 0$. Then $T(n) = \Theta(n^{\log_b a})$.
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- 3. If $f(n) = \Omega(n^{\log_b a + \epsilon})$ for some constant $\epsilon > 0$ and if $af\left(\frac{n}{b}\right) \leq cf(n)$ for some $c < 1$ and all sufficiently large n , then $T(n) = \Theta(f(n))$.



The Master Theorem

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We will prove a simplified version

Simplified Master Method

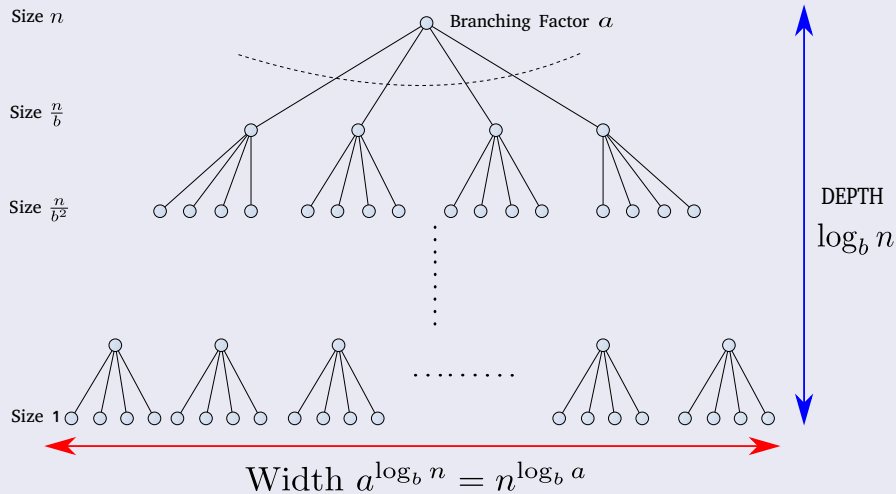
If $T(n) = aT(\lceil \frac{n}{b} \rceil) + O(n^d)$ for some constants $a > 0$, $b > 1$, and $d \geq 0$ then

$$T(n) = \begin{cases} O(n^d) & \text{if } d > \log_b a \\ O(n^d \log n) & \text{if } d = \log_b a \\ O(n^{\log_b a}) & \text{if } d < \log_b a \end{cases}$$



The Branching

Recursive Expansion



Proof

First, for convenience assume $n = b^p$

- Now we can notice that the size of the subproblems are decreasing by a factor of b at each recursive step.

Something like this:

- This means that the size of each subproblems is $\frac{n}{b^i}$ at level i .

This, in order to reach the bottom you need to have subproblems of size 1.

$$\frac{n}{b^i} = 1 \Rightarrow i = \log_b n$$

- where i = height of the recursion tree.

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Therefore

Now, given that the branching factor is a

- We have at the k^{th} level a^k subproblems, each of size $\frac{n}{b^k}$.

Then, the work at level k is

$$T(n) = O(n^d) \times \left(\frac{a}{b^d}\right)^0 + O(n^d) \times \left(\frac{a}{b^d}\right)^1 + \dots + O(n^d) \times \left(\frac{a}{b^d}\right)^{\log_b n}$$



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Then, we have that

For a $g(m) = 1 + c + c^2 + \dots + c^m$

- 1 if $c < 1$ then $g(m) = \Theta(1)$
- 2 if $c = 1$ then $g(m) = \Theta(m)$
- 3 if $c > 1$ then $g(m) = \Theta(c^m)$



If $c < 1$ then $g(m) = \Theta(1)$

If $\frac{a}{b^d} < 1$,

- Then, we have that $a < b^d$ or $\log_b a < d$ (Case one of the theorem).

Thus, we have

The following sequence

$$T(n) = O(n^d) \times \sum_{k=0}^{\log_b n} \left(\frac{a}{b^d}\right)^k \leq \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \left(\frac{a}{b^d}\right)^k O(n^d) = \frac{1}{1 - \frac{a}{b^d}} \times O(n^d) \leq O(n^d)$$

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If $c = 1$ then $g(m) = \Theta(m)$

If $\frac{a}{b^d} = 1$

- Then we have that $a = b^d$ or $\log_b a = d$ (Case two of the theorem).

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- We have that $g(n) = \left(\frac{a}{b^d}\right)^0 + \left(\frac{a}{b^d}\right)^1 + \dots + \left(\frac{a}{b^d}\right)^{\log_b n}$ is $\Theta(\log_b n)$.



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Now

- $T(n) = O(n^{\log_b a} \log_b n) = O(n^{\log_n a} \log_2 n)$ because b can only be greater or equal to two.



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If $c > 1$ then $g(m) = \Theta(c^m)$

If $\frac{a}{b^d} > 1$

- Then we have that $a > b^d$ or $\log_b a > d$ (Case three of the theorem).

Then

- We have

$$n^d \times \left(\frac{a}{b^d}\right)^{\log_b n} = n^d \times \left(\frac{a^{\log_b n}}{(b^{\log_b n})^d}\right) = a^{\log_b n} = a^{(\log_a n)(\log_b a)} = n^{\log_b a}$$



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Using the Master Theorem

Consider the following recursion

$$T(n) = 9T\left(\frac{n}{3}\right) + n$$

We have that

$$a = 9, b = 3 \text{ and } f(n) = n$$

Thus

$$n^{\log_3 9} = \Theta(n^2) \text{ and } f(n) = O(n^{\log_3 9 - \epsilon}) \text{ with } \epsilon = 1$$

Then, we use then the case 1 of the Master Theorem

$$T(n) = O(n^2) \tag{23}$$

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