Outline	Divide-and-conquer	Math induction	Telescoping	Examples	Pros and cons

Recurrent Algorithms: Divide-and-Conquer Principle

Lecturer: Georgy Gimel'farb

COMPSCI 220 Algorithms and Data Structures

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- 1 Divide-and-Conquer principle in analysing algorithms
- 2 Finding the close-form expression by math induction
- **③** Finding a close-form recurrence with a telescoping series
- 4 Examples
- **5** Algorithm analysis: Capabilities and limitations

Examples

Pros and cons

Divide-and-Conquer Principle

- Divide a large problem into smaller subproblems;
- Recursively solve each subproblem, then
- Combine solutions of them to solve the original problem.

Running time: by a recurrence relation accounting for:

- 1 The size and the number of the subproblems and
- 2 The cost of splitting the problem into these subproblems.

The recursive relation $F(n) = \psi (F(n'_1), \ldots, F(n'_k))$; $k \ge 1$, defines a function, F(n), "in terms of itself", i.e., by involving the same function.

- The non-circular definition: $n > n'_1 > n'_2 > \ldots > n'_k$.
- The recursion terminates at some base case $F(n_0)$, below which the function is undefined.

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- The recursion terminates at some base case $F(n_0)$, below which the function is undefined.

Recurrence Relation: A Simple Example $F(n) = 2^n$

The implicit formula:
$$F(n) = \underbrace{F(n-1)}_{2^{n-1}} + \underbrace{F(n-1)}_{2^{n-1}}$$
; $F(0) = 1$, or

$$F(n) = 2F(n-1);$$
 $F(0) = 1;$ $n = 1, 2, ...$

n	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
F(n)	1	2	4	8	16	32	64	128	256	512	
	2^{0}	2^1	2^2	2^3	2^4	2^5	2^{6}	2^{7}	2^{8}	2^{9}	

The explicit, or closed-form formula with F(0) = 1: $F(n) = 2^n$

Guess and Prove an Explicit, or Closed-Form F(n)

Look at a sequence of results for the implicit recurrent formula:

n	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
F(n)	1	2	4	8	16	32	64	128	256	512	

Guess the closed-form formula ${\cal F}(n)=2^n$ and prove it with

Mathematical Induction

- **Basis**: $F(0) = 2^0 = 1$
- Induction hypothesis: $F(n) = 2^n$ holds some $n \ge 1$.
- Inductive step from n to n + 1: $F(n+1) = F(n) + F(n) = 2F(n) = 2 \cdot 2^n = 2^{n+1}.$

This proves the close-form formula having been guessed.

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Mathematical Induction (recall Lecture 1)

The induction examines conditions for a closed-form expression, ${\cal T}(n),$ guessed, rather than derives it and proves directly.

1. Basis: $T(n_{\text{base}})$, e.g. T(0) or T(1), holds.

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    Induction hypothesis:
Let T(n) hold for some n ≥ n<sub>base</sub>
or
    Strong induction hypothesis:
Let T(k) hold for every k = n<sub>base</sub>, n<sub>base</sub> + 1,...,n;
n ≥ n<sub>base</sub>.
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3 Induction step: Then T(n+1) holds for n+1.

Both the simple and strong induction are actively used to solve recurrences, which are often met in the algorithm analysis.

Examples

Pros and cons

Example 1.25: Fibonacci Numbers



https://timwolversonphotos.wordpress.com/category/composition/

Italian mathematician, **Leonardo** Fibonacci [1170–1250]: *"Liber Abaci" –* a problem of breeding rabbits:

- A pair of rabbits takes a month to become mature and start to have pairs of baby rabbits, which also take a month to reach maturity.
- How many rabbits, F(n) would there be after n months?
- The Fibonacci Sequence: F(n) = F(n-1) + F(n-2); $n \ge 3; F(1) = F(2) = 1.$

Examples

Pros and cons

Example 1.25: Fibonacci Numbers

$$1, \quad 1, \quad 2, \quad 3, \quad 5, \quad 8, \quad 13, \quad 21, \quad 34, \quad 55, \quad 89, \quad 144, \quad \dots$$

55 + 89 = 144

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The implicit formula: F(n) = F(n-1) + F(n-2)

The recurrence analysis: Derive a closed-form formula for F(n)

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Characteristic Equation for F(n) = F(n - 1) + F(n - 2)

Because F(n) > F(n-1) > F(n-2) for all $n \ge 2$, it holds that:

$$2F(n-1) > F(n) > 2F(n-2)$$
, that is, $2^n > F(n) > 2^{n-1}$

- One may suggest that $F(n) = c\varphi^n$; $1 < \varphi < 2$.
- The implicit equation cφⁿ = cφⁿ⁻¹ + cφⁿ⁻² leads to the quadratic characteristic equation for φ: φ² = φ + 1 with two solutions: φ_{1,2} = ¹/₂ (1 ± √5).

General solution: the linear combination $F(n) = c_1 \varphi_1^n + c_2 \varphi_2^n$

• The coefficients c_1 and c_2 follow from the conditions F(1) = F(2) = 1, so that finally:

$$F(n) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{5}} \left(\frac{1+\sqrt{5}}{2}\right)^n - \frac{1}{\sqrt{5}} \left(\frac{1-\sqrt{5}}{2}\right)^n$$

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Given: An **implicit recurrence relation** and its **base condition** (i.e., the difference equation and its initial condition), for example:

$$T(n) = 2T(n-1) + 1; \quad T(0) = 0$$

Find: The closed-form (explicit) formula for T(n) by recursive substitution of the same implicit formula:

$$T(n) = 2T(n-1) + 1$$

$$T(n-1) = 2T(n-2) + 1$$
...
$$T(2) = 2T(1) + 1$$

$$T(1) = 2T(0) + 1 = 1$$

Outline	Divide-and-conquer	Math induction	Telescoping	Examples	Pros and
"Teles	scoping" \equiv Si	ubstitution			
	T(n) = 2	2T(n-1) +	1 St	tep 0: Initial recurre	ence

- $2T(n-1) = 2^2T(n-2) + 2$ Step 1: Substitute T(n-1)
- $2^2 T(n-2) = 2^3 T(n-3) + 2^2$ Step 2: Substitute T(n-2)

 $2^{n-1}T(1) = 2^nT(0) + 2^{n-1}$ Step n-1: Substitute T(1)

$$T(n) = \underbrace{2^n T(0)}_{2^n \cdot 0 = 0} + 1 + 2 + 2^2 + \dots + 2^{n-1}$$
$$1 + 2 + 2^2 + \dots + 2^{n-1} = 2^n - 1$$

"Telescoping" \equiv Substitution

$$T(n) = 2T(n-1) + 1$$
 Step 0: Initial recurrence

$$2T(n-1) = 2^2T(n-2) + 2$$
 Step 1: Substitute $T(n-1)$

$$2^2 T(n-2) = 2^3 T(n-3) + 2^2$$
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Examples

Pros and cons

"Telescoping" \equiv Substitution

$$T(n) = 2T(n-1) + 1$$

$$2T(n-1) = 2^2 T(n-2) + 2$$

$$2^{2}T(n-2) = 2^{3}T(n-3) + 2^{2}$$

Step 0: Initial recurrence

Step 1: Substitute T(n-1)

Step 2: Substitute T(n-2)

 $2^{n-1}T(1) = 2^n T(0) + 2^{n-1}$ Step n-1: Substitute T(1)

$$T(n) = \underbrace{2^n T(0)}_{2^n \cdot 0 = 0} + 1 + 2 + 2^2 + \dots + 2^{n-1}$$
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Examples

Pros and cons

"Telescoping" \equiv Substitution

$$T(n) = 2T(n-1) + 1$$
 Step 0: Initial recurrence

$$2T(n-1) = 2^2T(n-2) + 2$$
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 $2^2 \overline{T(n-2)} = 2^3 \overline{T(n-3)} + 2^2$ Step 2: Substitute T(n-2)

 $2^{n-1}T(1) = 2^nT(0) + 2^{n-1}$ Step n-1: Substitute T(1)

$$T(n) = \underbrace{2^n T(0)}_{2^n \cdot 0 = 0} + 1 + 2 + 2^2 + \dots + 2^{n-1}$$
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 Step 0: Initial recurrence

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 Step 2: Substitute $T(n-2)$
....

$$2^{n-1}T(1) = 2^{n}T(0) + 2^{n-1}$$
 Step $n-1$: Substitute $T(1)$

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Examples

Pros and cons

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....

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Example 1.29: Textbook, p.23

Show that the recurrence
$$T(n) = T(n-1) + n$$
; $T(0) = 0$,

results in the closed-form (explicit) formula $T(n) = \frac{n(n+1)}{2}$.

"Telescoping" the recurrence:

T(n) = T(n-1) + n T(n-1) = T(n-2) + n-1... T(2) = T(1) + 2T(1) = T(0) + 1 = 1

Example 1.29: Textbook, p.23

Show that the recurrence
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"Telescoping" the recurrence:

$$T(n) = T(n-1) + n$$

$$T(n-1) = T(n-2) + n-1$$

...

$$T(2) = T(1) + 2$$

$$T(1) = T(0) + 1 = 1$$

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1.29: T(n) by Telescoping in More Detail

Successive substitution:

$$T(n) = T(n-1) + n$$

= $\overline{T(n-2) + (n-1)} + n$
= $\overline{T(n-3) + (n-2)} + (n-1) + n$

$$= \overline{T(2)+3} + \ldots + (n-2) + (n-1) + n$$

= $\overline{T(1)+2} + 3 + \ldots + (n-2) + (n-1) + n$
= $\overline{1} + 2 + 3 + \ldots + (n-2) + (n-1) + n = \frac{n(n+1)}{2}$

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1.29: T(n) by Guessing and Proving by Math Induction

Numerical sequence: T(1) = 0 + 1 = 1; T(2) = 1 + 2 = 3; T(3) = 3 + 3 = 6; T(4) = 6 + 4 = 10; T(5) = 10 + 5 = 15; ...

Guessing: $T(n) = \frac{n(n+1)}{2}$?

Base condition holds:
$$T(1) = \frac{1 \cdot 2}{2} = 1$$
.

Induction hypothesis: If the guessed formula T(n) holds for n-1, then it holds also for n.

The proof:
$$T(n) = T(n-1) + n = \frac{(n-1)n}{2} + n$$
, i.e.

$$T(n) = \frac{1}{2} \left(n^2 - n + 2n \right) = \frac{1}{2} \left(n^2 + n \right) = \frac{n(n+1)}{2}$$

Thus, the guessed formula for T(n) holds for all $n \ge 1$.

Repeated halving principle: halve the input in one step

- Recurrence (implicit formula): $T(n) = T\left(\frac{n}{2}\right) + 1$; T(1) = 0.
- Closed-form (explicit) formula: $T(n) \approx \log_2 n$

"Telescoping" (for $n = 2^m$):

 $T(2^{m}) = T(2^{m-1}) + 1$ $T(2^{m-1}) = T(2^{m-2}) + 1$ \dots $T(2^{2}) = T(2^{1}) + 1$ $T(2^{1}) = T(2^{0}) + 1 = 1$

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$$\dots$$

$$T(2^{2}) = T(2^{1}) + 1$$

$$T(2^{1}) = T(2^{0}) + 1 = 1$$

1.30: T(n) by Telescoping in More Detail

$$\begin{array}{lll} T(2^m) &=& T(2^{m-1})+1 \\ &=& \overline{T(2^{m-2})+1}+1 \\ &=& \overline{T(2^{m-3})+1}+1+1 \\ && & \cdots \\ &=& \overline{T(2^1)+1}+\dots+1+1+1 \\ &=& \overline{T(2^0)+1}+1+\dots+1+1+1 \\ &=& \overline{1}+1+\dots+1+1+1=m, \text{ or } T(2^m)=m \end{array}$$

• For $n = 2^m$, $T(n) = \lg n$, which is $\Theta(\log n)$.

• For general n, the total number of halving steps cannot be greater than $m = \lceil \lg n \rceil$, so $T(n) \leq \lceil \lg n \rceil$ for all n.

Scan_and halve the input:

- Recurrence (implicit formula): $T(n) = T\left(\frac{n}{2}\right) + n$; T(1) = 1.
- Closed-form (explicit) formula: $T(n) \approx 2n$

"Telescoping" (for
$$n = 2^m$$
):

$$T(2^m) = T(2^{m-1}) + 2^m$$

$$T(2^{m-1}) = T(2^{m-2}) + 2^{m-1}$$

$$\dots$$

$$T(2^2) = T(2^1) + 2^2$$

$$T(2^1) = T(2^0) + 2^1$$

$$T(2^0) = 2^0 = 1$$

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Scan and halve the input:

- Recurrence (implicit formula): $T(n) = T\left(\frac{n}{2}\right) + n$; T(1) = 1.
- Closed-form (explicit) formula: $T(n) \approx 2n$

"Telescoping" (for
$$n = 2^m$$
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$$\dots$$

$$T(2^2) = T(2^1) + 2^2$$

$$T(2^1) = T(2^0) + 2^1$$

$$T(2^0) = 2^0 = 1$$

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Pros and cons

1.31: T(n) by Telescoping in More Detail

Therefore, $T(2^m) \approx 2 \cdot 2^m$, or $T(n) \approx 2n$.

"Divide-and-conquer" prototype; $n \ge 2$:

- Recurrence (implicit formula): $T(n) = 2T\left(\frac{n}{2}\right) + n$; T(1) = 0.
- Closed-form (explicit) formula: $T(n) \approx n \log_2 n$

Equivalent representation for "telescoping":

$$T(n) = 2T\left(\frac{n}{2}\right) + n \quad \Rightarrow \quad \frac{1}{n}T(n) = \frac{2}{n}T\left(\frac{n}{2}\right) + 1$$
$$\Rightarrow \quad \boxed{\frac{T(n)}{n} = \frac{T\left(\frac{n}{2}\right)}{\frac{n}{2}} + 1}$$

For
$$n=2^m$$
, $\frac{T(2^m)}{2^m}=\frac{T(2^{m-1})}{2^{m-1}}+1$

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Examples

Pros and cons

1.32: T(n) by Telescoping in More Detail

$$\frac{\overline{T(2^m)}}{2^m} = \frac{\overline{T(2^{m-1})}}{2^{m-1}} + 1$$

$$= \frac{\overline{T(2^{m-2})}}{2^{m-2}} + 1 + 1$$

$$= \frac{\overline{T(2^{m-3})}}{2^{m-3}} + 1 + 1 + 1$$

$$= \frac{\overline{T(2^1)}}{2^1} + 1 + \dots + 1 + 1 + 1$$

$$= \frac{\overline{T(2^0)}}{2^0} + 1 + 1 + \dots + 1 + 1 + 1 + 1$$

$$= \overline{0} + 1 + \dots + 1 + 1 + 1 = m$$

Therefore, $T(2^m) = m \cdot 2^m$, or $T(n) \approx n \lg n$.

Rough time complexity analysis cannot result immediately in an efficient program.

But it helps to predict empirical running time of the program.

Limitations of the "Big-Oh / Theta / Omega" analysis:

- It hides the constants (e.g. c and n_0) crucial for a practical task.
- It is unsuitable for small input.
- It is unsuitable if costs of access to input data items vary.
- It is unsuitable if there is lack of sufficient memory.

However, time complexity analysis provides ideas how to develop new and efficient algorithms.