We talked a lot about <u>languages</u> representing <u>problems</u>. Consider the problem of adding two numbers. <u>What language class does</u> it <u>belong to?</u>

ECE-374-B: Lecture 9 - Recursion, Sorting and Recurrences

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University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign

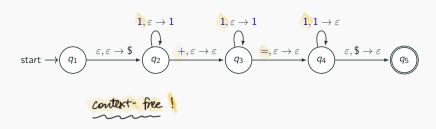
We talked a lot about languages representing problems. Consider the problem of adding two numbers. What language class does it belong to?

— tick marks

Let's say we are adding two unary numbers.

$$3 + 4 = 7 \rightarrow \underbrace{111 + 1111}_{} = 11111111$$
 (1)

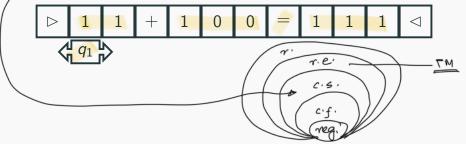
Seems like we can make a PDA that considers



What if we wanted add two binary numbers?

$$3 + 4 = 7 \rightarrow 11 + 100 = 111$$
 (2)

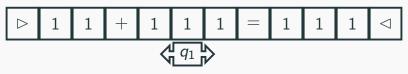
At least context-sensitive b/c we can build a finite Turing machine which takes in the encoding



What if we wanted add two binary numbers?

$$3+4=7 \rightarrow 11+100=111$$
 (3)

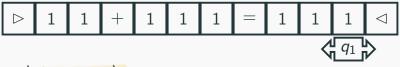
Computes value on left hand side



What if we wanted add two binary numbers?

$$3+4=7 \rightarrow 11+100=111$$
 (4)

And compares it to the value on the right..



turing machine. 10

New Course Section: Introductory algorithms

Learning Objectives

At the end of the lecture, you should be able to understand

- the idea of an algorithm and algorithmic problems,
- how to reduce a problem into another,
- the design and analysis of recursive algorithms, and
- some example recursive algorithms for sorting and searching.

Brief intro to the Random Access Machine (RAM) model

Algorithms and Computing

- Algorithm solves a specific problem.
- Steps/instructions of an algorithm are simple/primitive and can be executed mechanically.
- Algorithm has a <u>finite description</u>; <u>same description</u> for all instances of the problem
- Algorithm implicitly may have state/memory

A computer is a device that

- implements the primitive instructions
- allows for an <u>automated</u> implementation of the entire algorithm by keeping track of state

Models of Computation vs Computers

- E.g. Turing Machine
- Model of Computation: an idealized mathematical construct that describes the primitive instructions and other details
- Computer: an actual <u>physical device</u> that implements a very specific model of computation

In this course: design algorithms in a high-level model of computation.

Question: What model of computation will we use to design algorithms?

Models of Computation vs Computers

- Model of Computation: an <u>idealized mathematical construct</u> that describes the primitive instructions and other details
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In this course: design algorithms in a high-level model of computation.

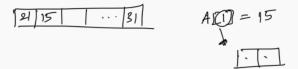
Question: What model of computation will we use to design algorithms?

The <u>standard programming model</u> that you are used to in programming languages such as $\underline{Java}/\underline{C++}$. We have already seen the <u>Turing Machine model</u>.

Unit-Cost RAM Model

Informal description:

- 51 → bivay string.
- Basic data type is an integer number
- Numbers in input fit in a word
- Arithmetic/comparison operations on words take constant time
- Arrays allow random access (constant time to access A[i])
- Pointer based data structures via storing addresses in a word



Example

Sorting: input is an array of n numbers

- input size is n (ignore the bits in each number),
- comparing two numbers takes O(1) time,
- random access to array elements,
- addition of indices takes constant time,
- basic arithmetic operations take constant time,
- reading/writing one word from/to memory takes constant time.

We will usually do not allow (or be careful about allowing):

- bitwise operations (and, or, xor, shift, etc).
- floor function.
- limit word size (usually assume unbounded word size).

What is an algorithmic problem?

What is an algorithmic problem?

An algorithmic problem is simply to compute a function $f: \Sigma^* \to \Sigma^*$ over strings of a finite alphabet.

Algorithm A solves f if for all input strings w, A outputs f(w).

E.g. Adding two numbers.

Thum 1 + num 2 = num 3. f(num 1, num 2) = num 3

Types of Problems

We will broadly see three types of problems.

- Decision Problem: Is the input a YES or NO input?
 Example: Given graph G, nodes s, t, is there a path from s to t in G?
 Example: Given a CFG grammar G and string w, is w ∈ L(G)?
- Search Problem: Find a solution if input is a YES input. Example: Given graph G, nodes s, t, find an s-t path.
- Optimization Problem: Find a <u>best</u> solution among all solutions for the input.
 - Example: Given graph G, nodes s, t, find a shortest s-t path.

Analysis of Algorithms

Given a problem P and an algorithm A for P we want to know:

- Does A correctly solve problem P?
- What is the asymptotic worst-case running time of A?
- What is the **asymptotic worst-case space** used by \mathcal{A} .

Asymptotic running-time analysis: \mathcal{A} runs in O(f(n)) time if:

"for all n and for all inputs n on input n terminates after O(f(n)) primitive steps."

$$O(f(n))$$
 primitive steps.

 $O(f(n))$ is said to be $O(f(n))$ if

 $T(n) \leq c f(n)$ for some $c > 0$

"constant"

Eig.
$$T(n) = n^2$$

Check if $T(n) = O(n^2)!$
 $T(n) \leq c \cdot n^2$
Take $c = 1 \Rightarrow T(n) \leq n$

Check of
$$T(n) = O(n)$$
.

$$T(n) \leq c \cdot n^{2}$$

Take $c = 1 \Rightarrow T(n) \leq n^{2}$; $T(n) = n^{2}$ (Given)

Check if $T(n) = O(n^{5})$!

$$T(n) \leq c n^{5}$$

$$n^{2} \leq c n^{5} (?) c = 1$$

$$\pi^{2} \leq cm^{3} \left(\frac{3}{2} \right)$$

$$\Rightarrow \quad \tau(m) = O(m^{5})$$

Algorithmic Techniques

- Reduction to known problem/algorithm
- Recursion, divide-and-conquer, dynamic programming
- Graph algorithms to use as basic reductions
- Greedy

Some advanced techniques not covered in this class:

- Combinatorial optimization
- Linear and Convex Programming, more generally continuous optimization method
- Advanced data structure
- Randomization
- Many specialized areas

Reducing problem (A) to problem (B)

• Algorithm for A uses algorithm for B as a black box.

Reducing problem A to problem B:

Algorithm for A uses algorithm for B as a black box.

Q: How do you hunt a blue elephant?

A: With a blue elephant gun.

Reducing problem *A* to problem *B*:

Algorithm for A uses algorithm for B as a <u>black box</u>.

Q: How do you hunt a blue elephant?

A: With a blue elephant gun.

Q: How do you hunt a red elephant?

A: Hold its trunk shut until it turns blue, and then shoot it with the blue elephant gun.

Reducing problem *A* to problem *B*:

Algorithm for A uses algorithm for B as a <u>black box</u>.

Q: How do you hunt a blue elephant?

A: With a blue elephant gun. (\$ 100)

Q: How do you hunt a red elephant?

A: Hold its trunk shut until it turns blue, and then shoot it with the blue elephant gun. (\$200)

Q: How do you shoot a white elephant?

A: Embarrass it till it becomes red. Now use your algorithm for hunting red elephants.

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

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

Naive algorithm:

```
DistinctElements (A[1..n])

for i = 1 to n - 1 do

for j = i + 1 to n do

if (A[i] = A[j])

return YES

return NO
```

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

Naive algorithm:

DistinctElements (A[1..n])

for
$$i = 1$$
 to $n - 1$ do

for $j = i + 1$ to n do

if $(A[i] = A[j])$

return YES

return NO

Running time: (m²)

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

Naive algorithm:

```
\begin{aligned} \textbf{DistinctElements}(\texttt{A[1..n]}) \\ \textbf{for} \ i &= 1 \ \texttt{to} \ n-1 \ \textbf{do} \\ \textbf{for} \ j &= i+1 \ \texttt{to} \ n \ \textbf{do} \\ \textbf{if} \ (A[i] &= A[j]) \\ \textbf{return} \ \texttt{YES} \\ \textbf{return} \ \texttt{NO} \end{aligned}
```

Running time: $O(n^2)$

Reduction to Sorting

Distinct Elements (A[1..n])

Sort
$$A$$

for $i = 1$ to $n - 1$ do

if $(A[i] = A[i + 1])$ then

return YES

return NO

$$= O(n) + \text{ Time taken in sorting}$$

$$\Rightarrow O(n \log n)$$

$$= O(n) + O(n \log n)$$

$$= O(n \log n) + O(n \log n)$$

$$= O(n \log n) + O(n \log n)$$

$$= O(n^2) \ge O(n \log n) \text{ becase } \log n \le n$$

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Reduction to Sorting

```
\begin{aligned} \textbf{DistinctElements}(\texttt{A[1..n]}) \\ & \texttt{Sort } A \\ & \textbf{for } i = 1 \texttt{ to } n-1 \texttt{ do} \\ & \texttt{if } (A[i] = A[i+1]) \texttt{ then} \\ & \texttt{return YES} \\ & \textbf{return NO} \end{aligned}
```

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

Important point: algorithm uses sorting as a black box

Reduction to Sorting

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

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

Important point: algorithm uses sorting as a <u>black box</u>

Advantage of naive algorithm: works for objects that cannot be "sorted". Can also consider hashing but outside scope of current course.

Two sides of Reductions

Suppose problem A reduces to problem B

- \nearrow Positive direction: Algorithm for \nearrow implies an algorithm for \nearrow
- Negative direction: Suppose there is no "efficient" algorithm for A then it implies no efficient algorithm for B (technical condition for reduction time necessary for this)

Two sides of Reductions

Suppose problem A reduces to problem B

- Positive direction: Algorithm for B implies an algorithm for A
- Negative direction: Suppose there is no "efficient" algorithm for A then it implies no efficient algorithm for B (technical condition for reduction time necessary for this)

$$O(n^2)$$
 $O(n \log n)$

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

- An $O(n \log n)$ time algorithm for Sorting implies an $O(n \log n)$ time algorithm for Distinct Elements problem.
- If there is $\underline{no}\ o(n \log n)$ time algorithm for Distinct Elements problem then there is $\underline{no}\ o(n \log n)$ time algorithm for Sorting.

Recursion as self reductions

Recursion

Reduction: reduce one problem to another

Recursion: a special case of reduction

- reduce problem to a smaller instance of itself
- self-reduction

Recursion

Reduction: reduce one problem to another

(RIY)

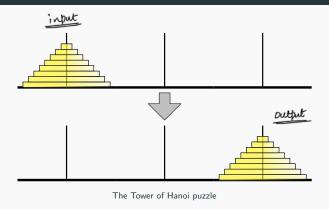
Recursion: a special case of reduction

- reduce problem to a smaller instance of itself
- self-reduction
- Problem instance of size n is reduced to <u>one or more</u> instances of size n − 1 or less.
- For termination, problem instances of small size are solved by some other method as <u>base cases</u>

Recursion

- Recursion is a very powerful and fundamental technique
- Basis for several other methods
 - Divide and conquer
 - Dynamic programming
 - Enumeration and branch and bound etc
 - Some classes of greedy algorithms
- Makes proof of correctness easy (via induction)
- Recurrences arise in analysis

Tower of Hanoi

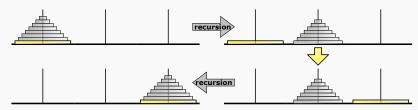


Move stack of *n* disks from peg 1 to peg 2, one disk at a time.

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

Question: what is a strategy and how many moves does it take?

Tower of Hanoi via Recursion



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



Recursive Algorithm

```
Hanoi(n, src, dest, tmp):
    if (n > 0) then
        Hanoi(n-1, src, tmp, dest)
        Move disk n from src to dest
        Hanoi(n-1, tmp, dest, src)
```

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

Recursive Algorithm

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

Recursive Algorithm

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Hanoi(n, src, dest, tmp):

if (n > 0) then

Hanoi(n - 1, src, tmp, dest)

Move disk n from src to dest

Hanoi(n - 1, tmp, dest, src)
```

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

Recurrence relation
$$T(n) = 2T(n-1) + 1 \qquad n > 1 \qquad \text{and} \ T(1) = 1$$

$$T(n) = 2\left[T(n-1) + 1\right] \qquad n > 1 \qquad m > 1$$

$$T(n) = 2\left[T(n-1) + 1\right] + 1$$

$$T(n) = 2\left[T(n-2) + 1\right] + 1$$

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

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

$$= 2^{2}\left[T(n-3) + 1\right] + 2 + 1 = 2^{3}T(n-3) + 2^{2} + 2 + 1 = 2^{4}$$

Analysis

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

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

$$= ...$$

$$= 2^{i}T(n-i)+2^{i-1}+2^{i-2}+...+1$$

$$= ...$$

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

$$= 2^{n-1}+2^{n-2}+...+1$$

$$= (2^{n}-1)/(2-1)=2^{n}-1$$
Geometric series
$$= (2^{n}-1)/(2-1)=2^{n}-1$$

Sorting

Input Given an array of *n* elementsGoal Rearrange them in ascending order

1. Input: Array $A[1 \dots n]$

ALGORITHMS

1. Input: Array $A[1 \dots n]$

2. Divide into subarrays $A[1 \dots m]$ and $A[m+1 \dots n]$, where $m = \lfloor n/2 \rfloor$ $A \ L \ G \ O \ R \qquad I \ T \ H \ M \ S$

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1. Input: Array $A[1 \dots n]$

AIGORITHMS

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

3. Recursively **MergeSort** $A[1 \dots m]$ and $A[m+1 \dots n]$

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4. Merge the sorted arrays

1. Input: Array $A[1 \dots n]$

ALGORITHMS

2. Divide into subarrays $A[1 \dots m]$ and $A[m+1 \dots n]$, where m = |n/2|

ALGOR ITHMS

3. Recursively **MergeSort** $A[1 \dots m]$ and $A[m+1 \dots n]$

⇒AGLOR HIMST

4. Merge the sorted arrays



AGHILMORST

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



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$$\begin{array}{ccc}
A G L O R \\
\hline
A G H I
\end{array}$$



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AGLOR HIMST AGHILMORST

- Use a new array C to store the merged array
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 Merge two arrays using only constantly more extra space (in-place merge sort): doable but complicated and typically impractical.

Formal Code

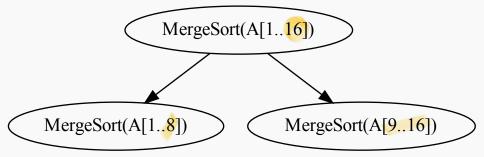
```
\frac{\text{MERGESORT}(A[1..n]):}{\text{if } n > 1}
m \leftarrow \lfloor n/2 \rfloor
\text{MERGESORT}(A[1..m])
\text{MERGESORT}(A[m+1..n])
\text{MERGE}(A[1..n], m)
```

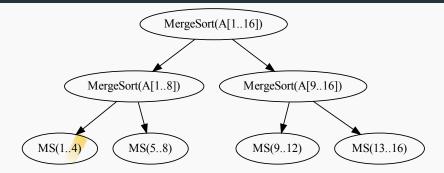
```
Merge(A[1..n], m):
   i \leftarrow 1; j \leftarrow m+1
   for k \leftarrow 1 to n
         if j > n
                B[k] \leftarrow A[i]; i \leftarrow i+1
          else if i > m
                B[k] \leftarrow A[j]; j \leftarrow j+1
          else if A[i] < A[j]
                B[k] \leftarrow A[i]; i \leftarrow i+1
          else
                B[k] \leftarrow A[j]; j \leftarrow j+1
   for k \leftarrow 1 to n
         A[k] \leftarrow B[k]
```

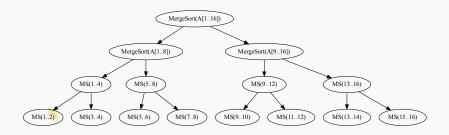
Running time analysis of merge-sort:

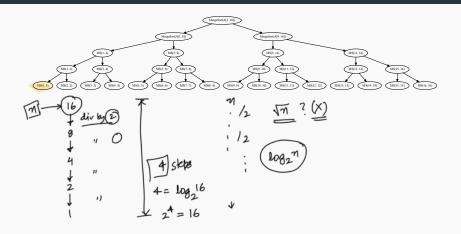
Recursion tree method

MergeSort(A[1..16])



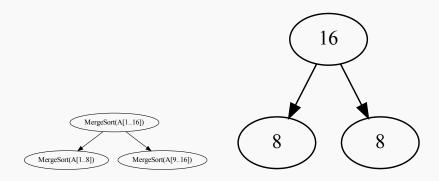


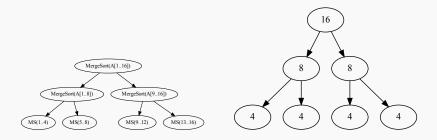


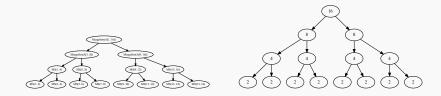


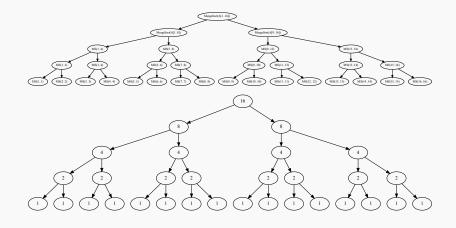
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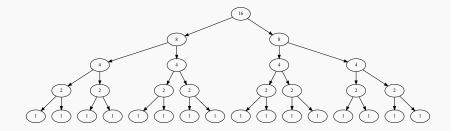








Recursion tree: Total work?

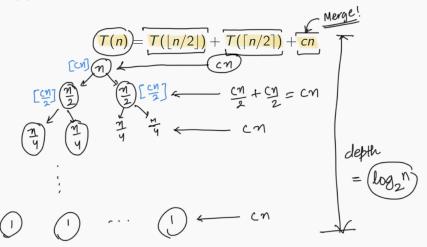


Running Time

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

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Running Time

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

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

What do we want as a solution to the recurrence?

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

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

Solving Recurrences: Some Techniques

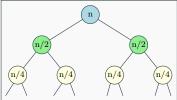
- Know some basic math: geometric series, logarithms, exponentials, elementary calculus
- Expand the recurrence and spot a pattern and use simple math
- Recursion tree method imagine the computation as a tree
- Guess and verify useful for proving upper and lower bounds even if not tight bounds

Solving Recurrences: Some Techniques

- Know some basic math: geometric series, logarithms, exponentials, elementary calculus
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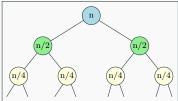
Albert Einstein: "Everything should be made as simple as possible, but not simpler."

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



Unroll the recurrence.

$$T(n) = 2T(n/2) + cn$$

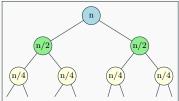


• Unroll the recurrence.

$$T(n) = 2T(n/2) + cn$$

• Identify a pattern.

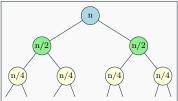
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Unroll the recurrence.

$$T(n) = 2T(n/2) + cn$$

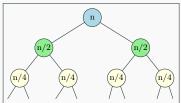
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Unroll the recurrence.

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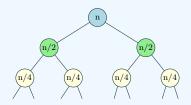
- Identify a pattern. At the *i*th level total work is *cn*.
- Sum over all levels.

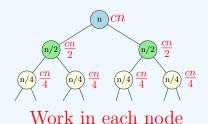


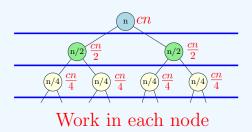
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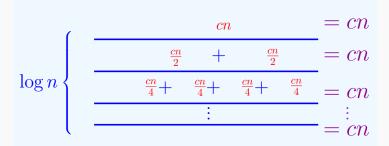
$$T(n) = 2T(n/2) + cn$$

- Identify a pattern. At the *i*th level total work is *cn*.
- Sum over all levels. The number of levels is log n. So total is cn log n = O(n log n).









Recursion Tree:
$$cn = cn$$

$$\frac{\frac{cn}{2} + \frac{cn}{2}}{= cn}$$

$$\frac{\frac{cn}{4} + \frac{cn}{4} + \frac{cn}{4} + \frac{cn}{4}}{= cn}$$

$$= cn \log n = O(n \log_2 n)$$

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

$$T(n) = 2 T(\frac{n}{2}) + cn$$

Merge Sort Variant

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

Binary Search

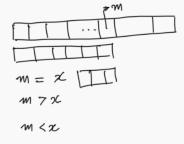
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(RIY)

Binary Search in Sorted Arrays

Input Sorted array A of n numbers and number \times

Goal Is \otimes in A?





Binary Search in Sorted Arrays

Input Sorted array A of n numbers and number x

Goal Is x in A?

```
BinarySearch (A[a..b], x):

if (b-a<0) return NO

mid = A[\lfloor (a+b)/2 \rfloor]

if (x=mid) return YES

if (x < mid)

return BinarySearch (A[a..\lfloor (a+b)/2 \rfloor -1], x)

else

return BinarySearch (A[\lfloor (a+b)/2 \rfloor +1..b], x)
```

Binary Search in Sorted Arrays

Input Sorted array A of n numbers and number x

Goal Is x in A?

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BinarySearch (A[a..b], x):

if (b-a<0) return NO

mid = A[\lfloor (a+b)/2 \rfloor]

if (x=mid) return YES

if (x < mid)

return BinarySearch (A[a..\lfloor (a+b)/2 \rfloor -1], x)

else

return BinarySearch (A[\lfloor (a+b)/2 \rfloor +1..b], x)
```

Analysis: $T(n) = T(\lfloor n/2 \rfloor) + O(1)$. $T(n) = O(\log n)$.

Observation: After k steps, size of array left is $n/2^k$