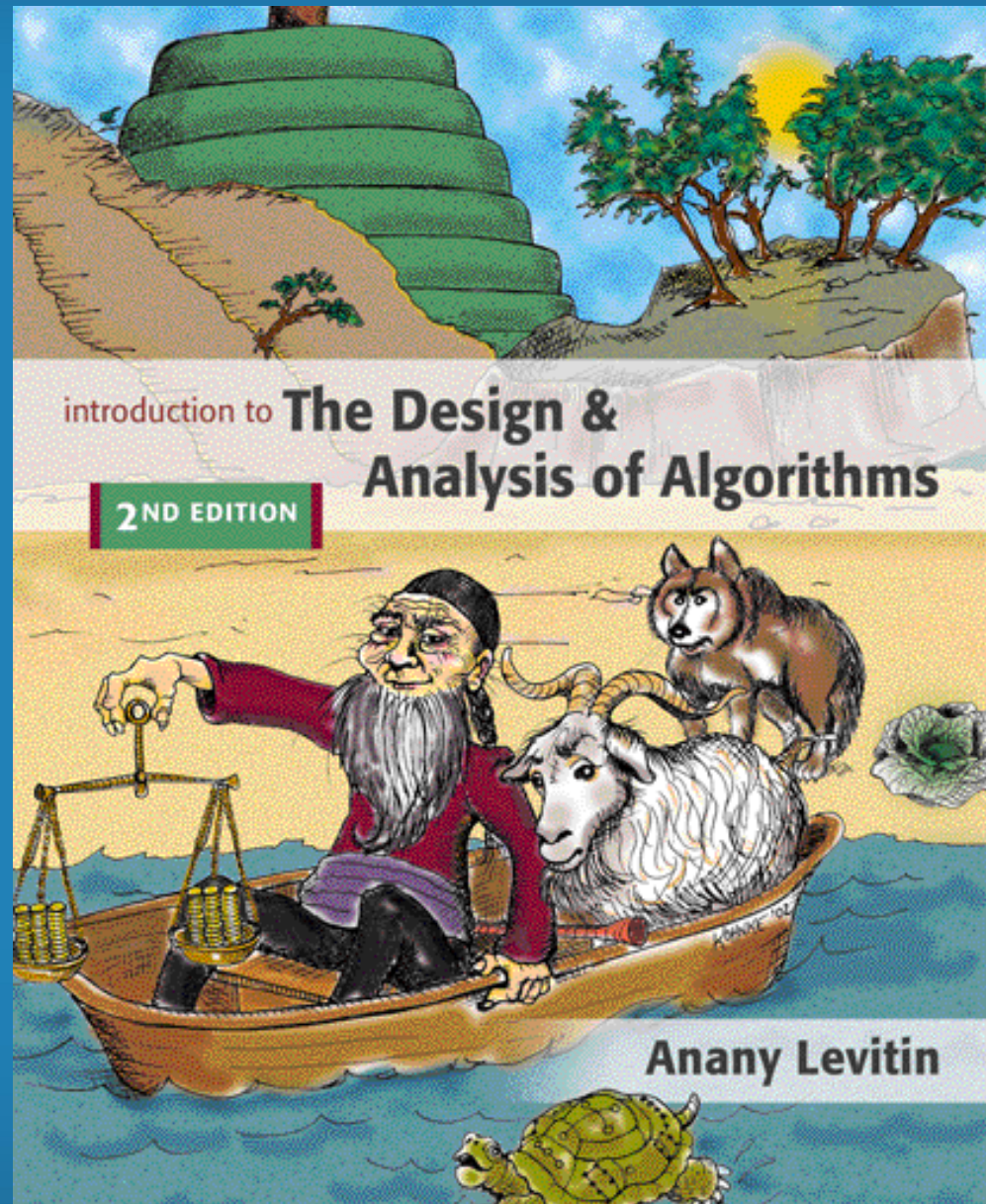
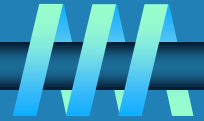


Chapter 6

Transform-and-Conquer



Transform and Conquer

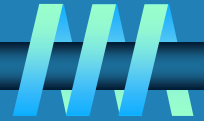


This group of techniques solves a problem by a *transformation*

- ❑ to a simpler/more convenient instance of the same problem (*instance simplification*)
- ❑ to a different representation of the same instance (*representation change*)
- ❑ to a different problem for which an algorithm is already available (*problem reduction*)



Instance simplification - Presorting



Solve a problem's instance by transforming it into another simpler/easier instance of the same problem

Presorting

Many problems involving lists are easier when list is sorted.

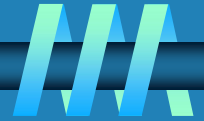
- ❑ **searching**
- ❑ **computing the median (selection problem)**
- ❑ **checking if all elements are distinct (element uniqueness)**

Also:

- ❑ **Topological sorting helps solving some problems for dags.**
- ❑ **Presorting is used in many geometric algorithms.**
- ❑ **Presorting is a special case of **preprocessing**.**



How fast can we sort ?



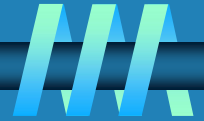
Efficiency of algorithms involving sorting depends on efficiency of sorting.

Theorem (see Sec. 11.2): $\lceil \log_2 n! \rceil \approx n \log_2 n$ comparisons are necessary in the worst case to sort a list of size n by any comparison-based algorithm.

Note: About $n \log_2 n$ comparisons are also sufficient to sort array of size n (by mergesort).



Searching with presorting



Problem: Search for a given K in $A[0..n-1]$

Presorting-based algorithm:

Stage 1 Sort the array by an efficient sorting algorithm

Stage 2 Apply binary search

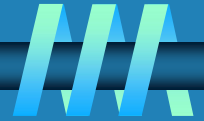
Efficiency: $\Theta(n \log n) + O(\log n) = \Theta(n \log n)$

Good or bad?

Why do we have our dictionaries, telephone directories, etc. sorted?



Element Uniqueness with presorting



□ Presorting-based algorithm

Stage 1: sort by efficient sorting algorithm (e.g. mergesort)

Stage 2: scan array to check pairs of adjacent elements

Efficiency: $\Theta(n \log n) + O(n) = \Theta(n \log n)$

□ Brute force algorithm

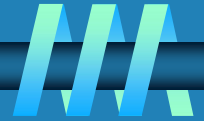
Compare all pairs of elements

Efficiency: $O(n^2)$

□ Another algorithm? Hashing, which works well on avg.



Instance simplification – Gaussian Elimination



Given: A system of n linear equations in n unknowns with an arbitrary coefficient matrix.

Transform to: An equivalent system of n linear equations in n unknowns with an upper triangular coefficient matrix.

Solve the latter by substitutions starting with the last equation and moving up to the first one.

$$\begin{aligned}a_{11}x_1 + a_{12}x_2 + \dots + a_{1n}x_n &= b_1 \\a_{21}x_1 + a_{22}x_2 + \dots + a_{2n}x_n &= b_2\end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}a_{1,1}x_1 + a_{12}x_2 + \dots + a_{1n}x_n &= b_1 \\a_{22}x_2 + \dots + a_{2n}x_n &= b_2\end{aligned}$$

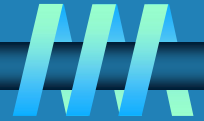


$$a_{n1}x_1 + a_{n2}x_2 + \dots + a_{nn}x_n = b_n$$

$$a_{nn}x_n = b_n$$



Gaussian Elimination (cont.)



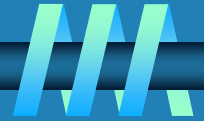
The transformation is accomplished by a sequence of elementary operations on the system's coefficient matrix (which don't change the system's solution):

for $i \leftarrow 1$ to $n-1$ do

 replace each of the subsequent rows (i.e., rows $i+1, \dots, n$) by the difference between that row and an appropriate multiple of the i -th row to make the new coefficient in the i -th column of that row 0



Example of Gaussian Elimination



Solve

$$\begin{aligned} 2x_1 - 4x_2 + x_3 &= 6 \\ 3x_1 - x_2 + x_3 &= 11 \\ x_1 + x_2 - x_3 &= -3 \end{aligned}$$

Gaussian elimination

$$\begin{array}{cccc} 2 & -4 & 1 & 6 \\ 3 & -1 & 1 & 11 & \text{row2} - (3/2)*\text{row1} \\ 1 & 1 & -1 & -3 & \text{row3} - (1/2)*\text{row1} \end{array} \quad \begin{array}{cccc} 2 & -4 & 1 & 6 \\ 0 & 5 & -1/2 & 2 \\ 0 & 3 & -3/2 & -6 & \text{row3} - (3/5)*\text{row2} \end{array}$$

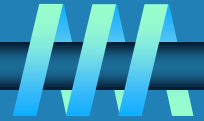
$$\begin{array}{cccc} 2 & -4 & 1 & 6 \\ 0 & 5 & -1/2 & 2 \\ 0 & 0 & -6/5 & -36/5 \end{array}$$

Backward substitution

$$\begin{aligned} x_3 &= (-36/5) / (-6/5) = 6 \\ x_2 &= (2 + (1/2)*6) / 5 = 1 \\ x_1 &= (6 - 6 + 4*1) / 2 = 2 \end{aligned}$$



Pseudocode and Efficiency of Gaussian Elimination



Stage 1: Reduction to the upper-triangular matrix

for $i \leftarrow 1$ to $n-1$ do

 for $j \leftarrow i+1$ to n do

 for $k \leftarrow i$ to $n+1$ do

$A[j, k] \leftarrow A[j, k] - A[i, k] * A[j, i] / A[i, i]$ //improve!

Stage 2: Backward substitution

for $j \leftarrow n$ downto 1 do

$t \leftarrow 0$

 for $k \leftarrow j+1$ to n do

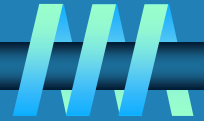
$t \leftarrow t + A[j, k] * x[k]$

$x[j] \leftarrow (A[j, n+1] - t) / A[j, j]$

Efficiency: $\Theta(n^3) + \Theta(n^2) = \Theta(n^3)$



Searching Problem



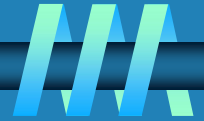
Problem: Given a (multi)set S of keys and a search key K , find an occurrence of K in S , if any

- **Searching must be considered in the context of:**
 - **file size (internal vs. external)**
 - **dynamics of data (static vs. dynamic)**

- **Dictionary operations (dynamic data):**
 - **find (search)**
 - **insert**
 - **delete**



Taxonomy of Searching Algorithms



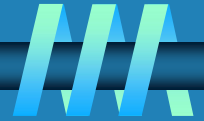
- **List searching (good for static data)**
 - sequential search
 - binary search
 - interpolation search

- **Tree searching (good for dynamic data)**
 - binary search tree
 - binary balanced trees: AVL trees, red-black trees
 - multiway balanced trees: 2-3 trees, 2-3-4 trees, B trees

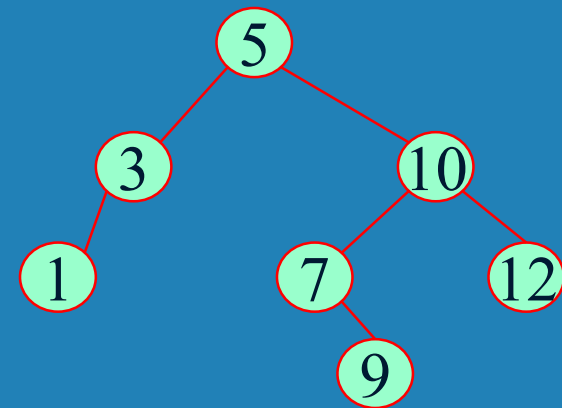
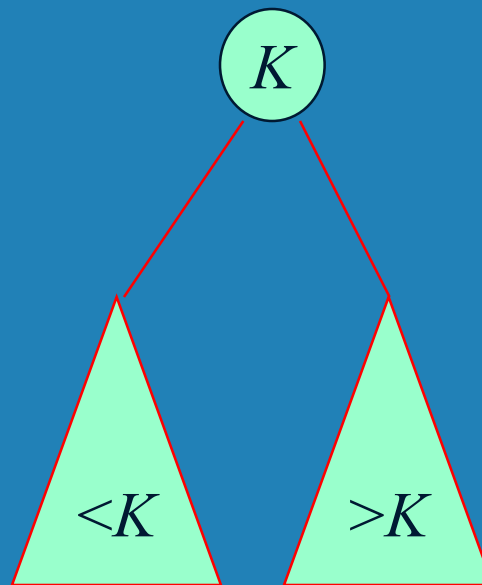
- **Hashing (good on average case)**
 - open hashing (separate chaining)
 - closed hashing (open addressing)



Binary Search Tree



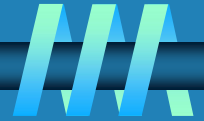
Arrange keys in a binary tree with the *binary search tree property*:



Example: 5, 3, 1, 10, 12, 7, 9



Dictionary Operations on Binary Search Trees



Searching – straightforward

Insertion – search for key, insert at leaf where search terminated

Deletion – 3 cases:

deleting key at a leaf

deleting key at node with single child

deleting key at node with two children

**Efficiency depends of the tree's height: $\lfloor \log_2 n \rfloor \leq h \leq n-1$,
with height average (random files) be about $3\log_2 n$**

Thus all three operations have

- **worst case efficiency: $\Theta(n)$**
- **average case efficiency: $\Theta(\log n)$ (CLRS, Ch. 12)**

Bonus: inorder traversal produces sorted list



Balanced Search Trees



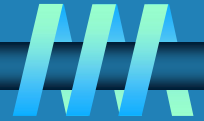
Attractiveness of *binary search tree* is marred by the bad (linear) worst-case efficiency. Two ideas to overcome it are:

- to rebalance binary search tree when a new insertion makes the tree “too unbalanced”
 - *AVL trees*
 - *red-black trees*

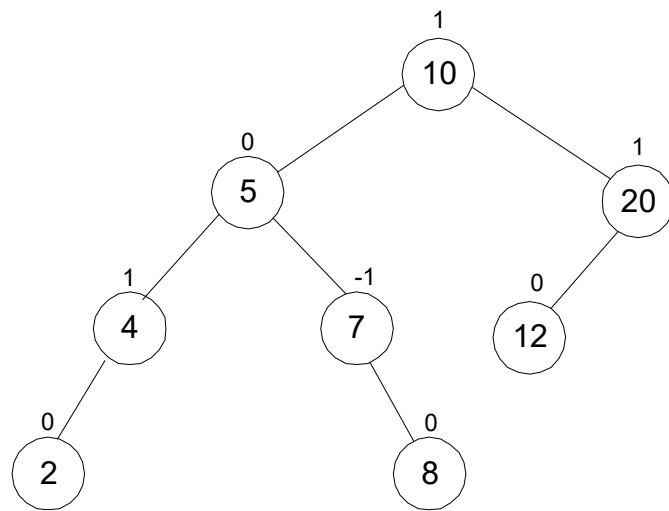
- to allow more than one key and two children
 - *2-3 trees*
 - *2-3-4 trees*
 - *B-trees*



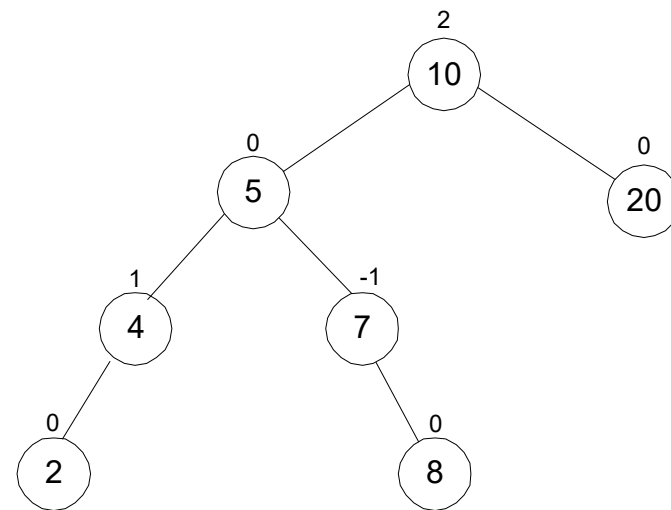
Balanced trees: AVL trees



Definition An *AVL tree* is a binary search tree in which, for every node, the difference between the heights of its left and right subtrees, called the *balance factor*, is at most 1 (with the height of an empty tree defined as -1)

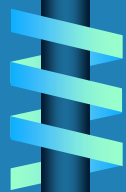


(a)

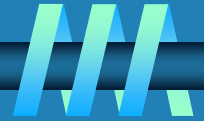


(b)

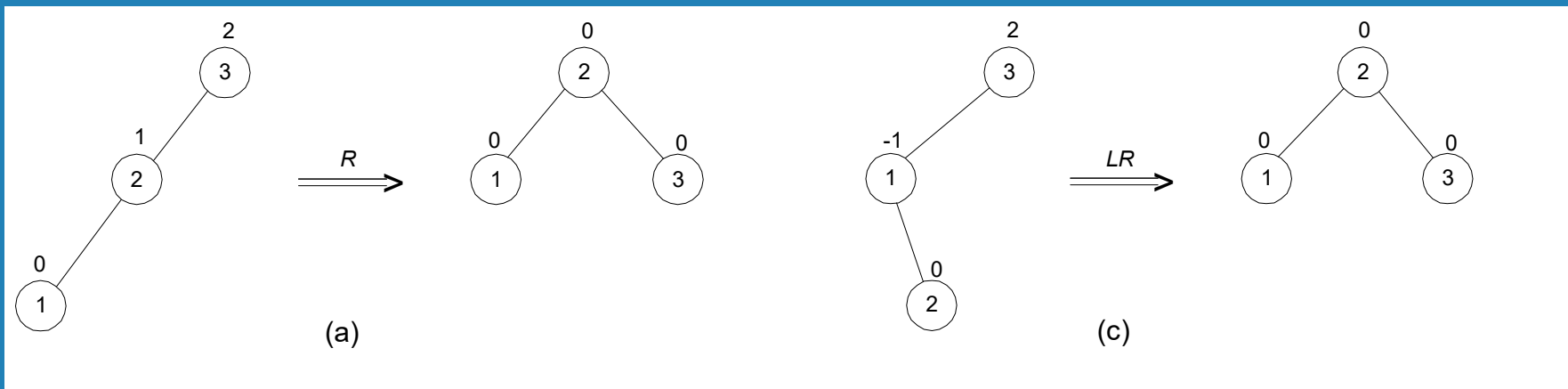
Tree (a) is an AVL tree; tree (b) is not an AVL tree



Rotations

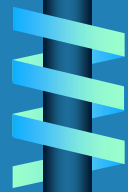


If a key insertion violates the balance requirement at some node, the subtree rooted at that node is transformed via one of the four *rotations*. (The rotation is always performed for a subtree rooted at an “unbalanced” node closest to the new leaf.)

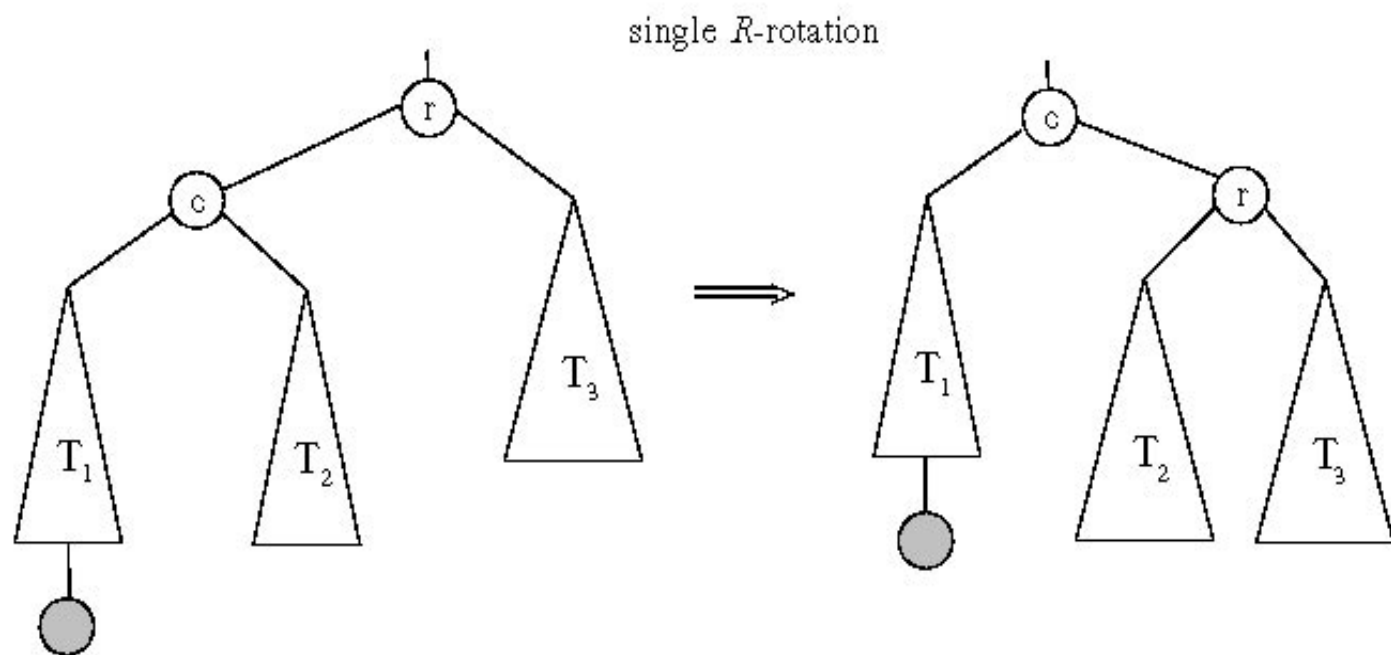
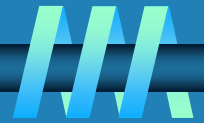


Single R -rotation

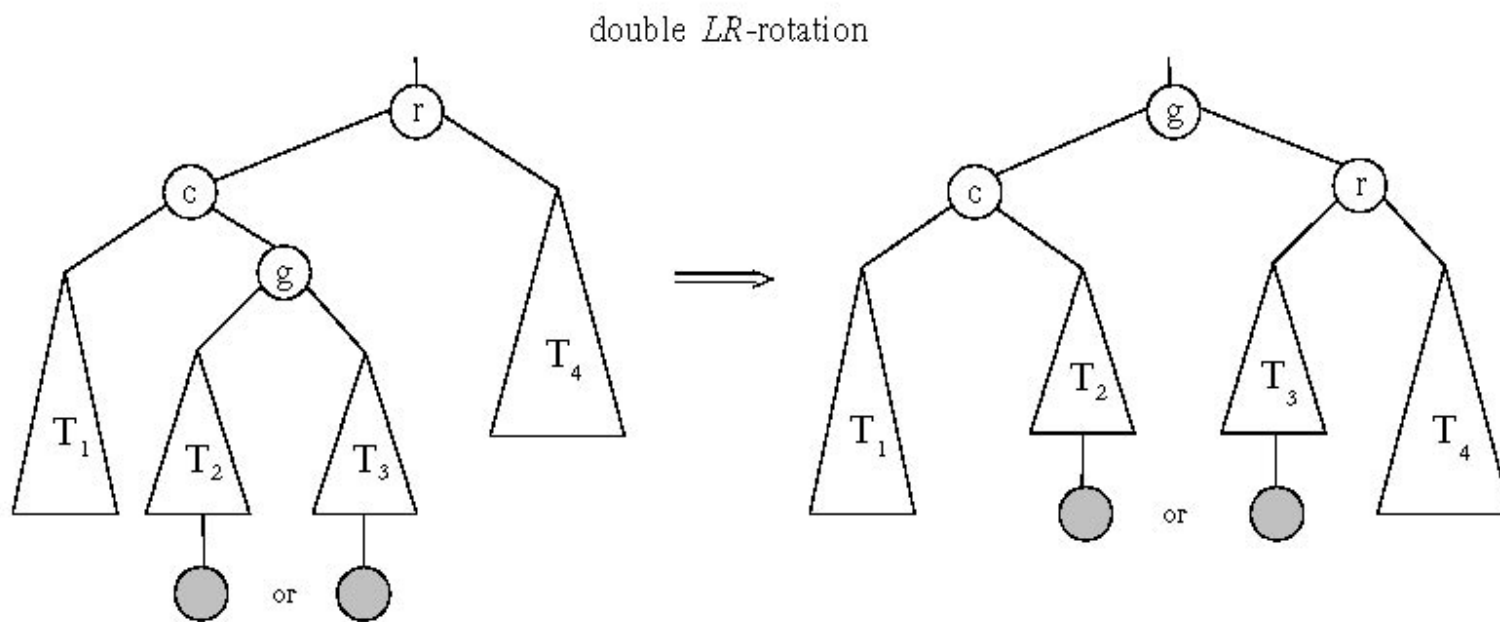
Double LR -rotation



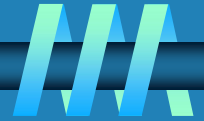
General case: Single R-rotation



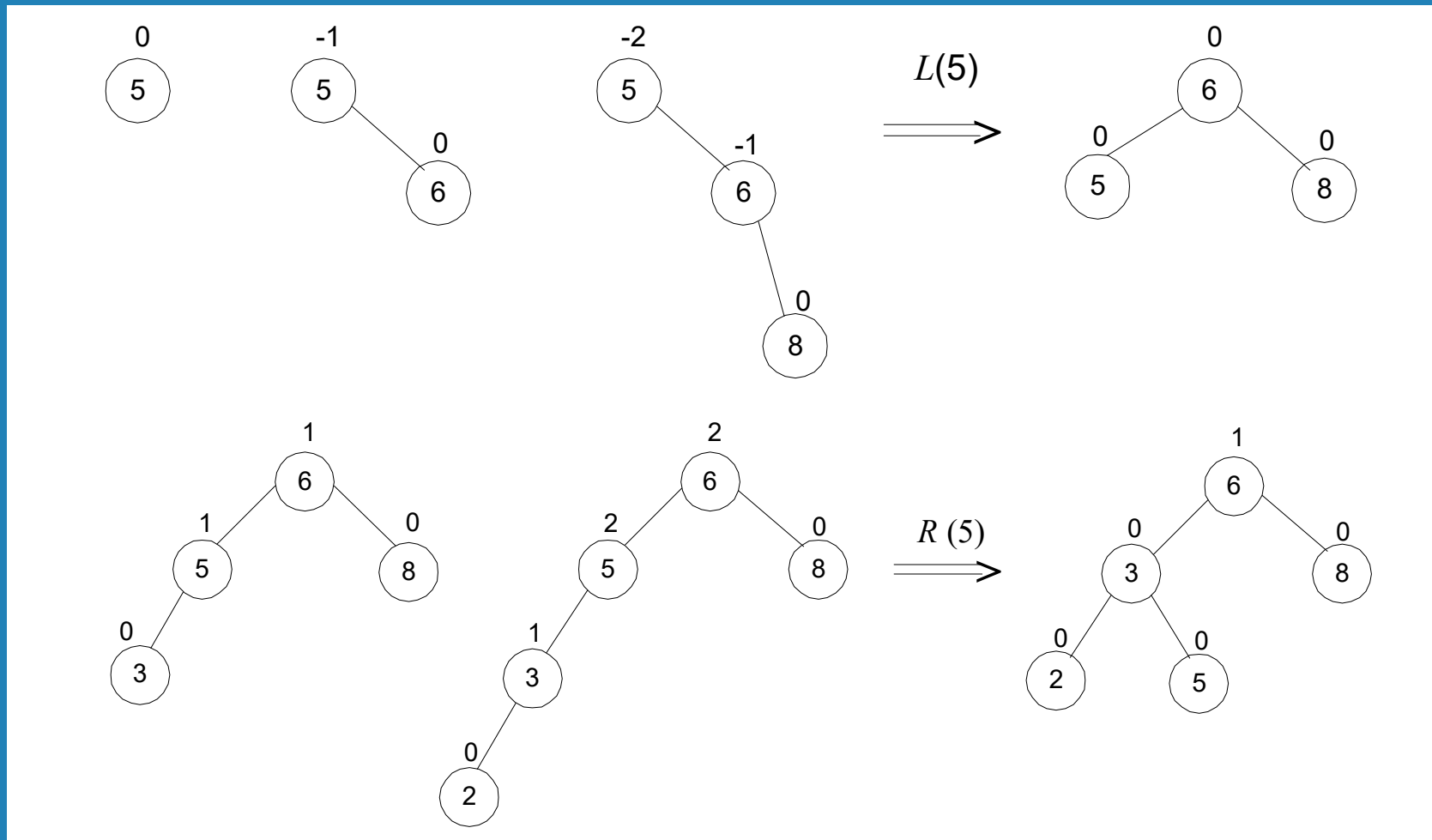
General case: Double LR-rotation



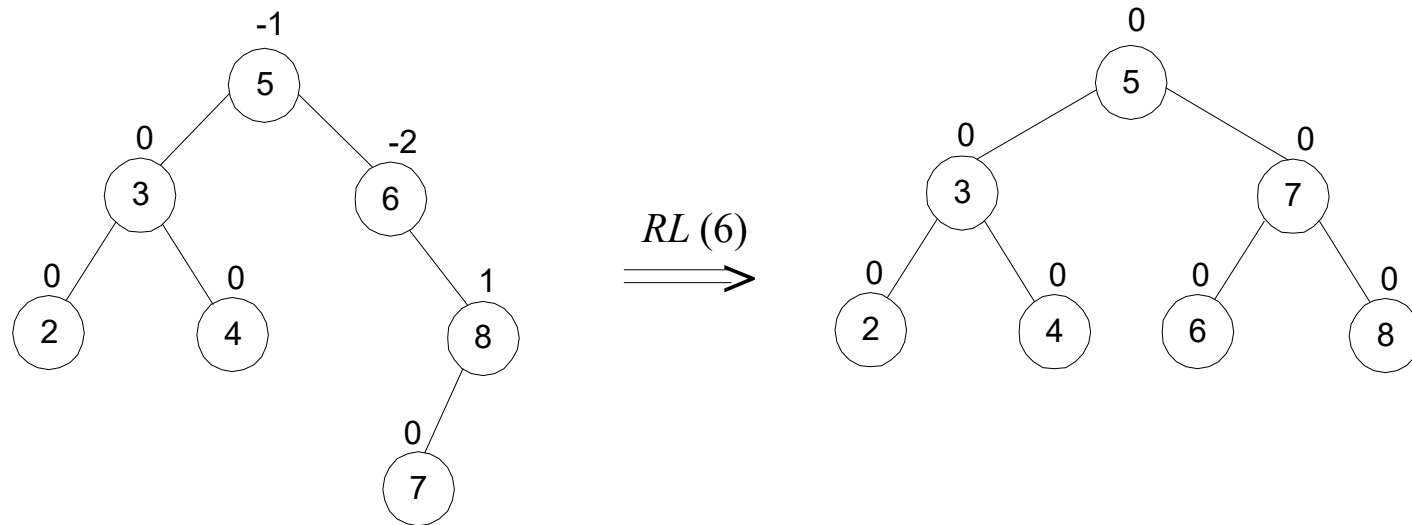
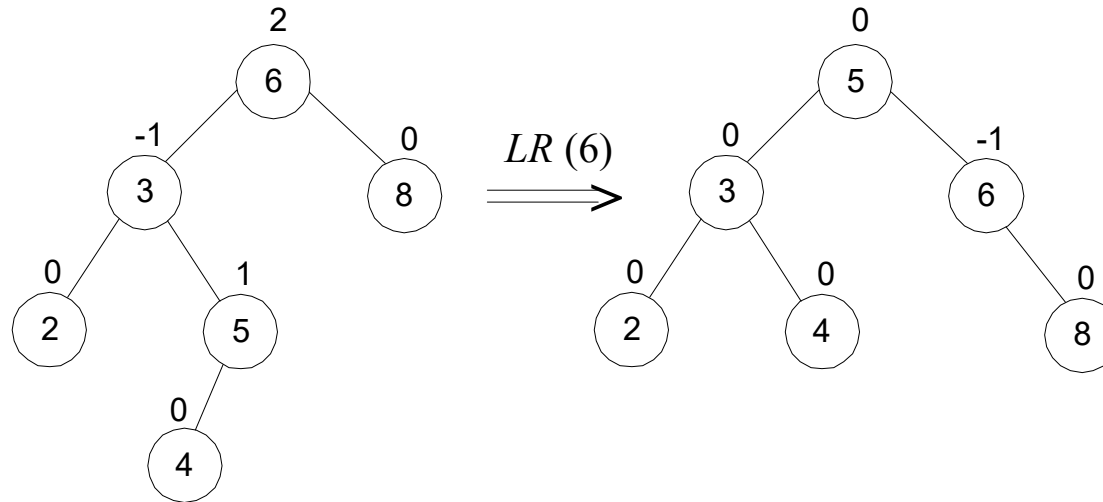
AVL tree construction - an example



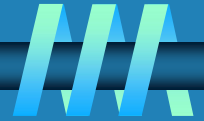
Construct an AVL tree for the list 5, 6, 8, 3, 2, 4, 7



AVL tree construction - an example (cont.)



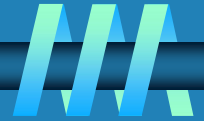
Analysis of AVL trees



- $h \leq 1.4404 \log_2 (n + 2) - 1.3277$ $N(h-1) + N(h-2) \leq N(h)$
average height: $1.01 \log_2 n + 0.1$ for large n (found empirically)
- Search and insertion are $O(\log n)$
- Deletion is more complicated but is also $O(\log n)$
- Disadvantages:
 - frequent rotations
 - complexity
- A similar idea: *red-black trees* (height of subtrees is allowed to differ by up to a factor of 2)

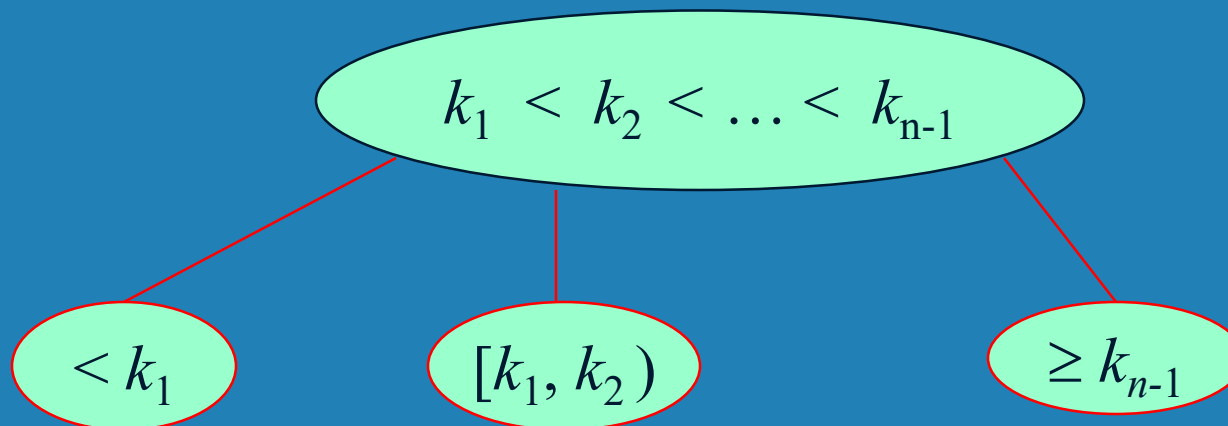


Multiway Search Trees



Definition A *multiway search tree* is a search tree that allows more than one key in the same node of the tree.

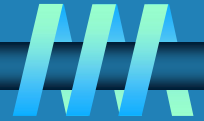
Definition A node of a search tree is called an *n-node* if it contains $n-1$ ordered keys (which divide the entire key range into n intervals pointed to by the node's n links to its children):



Note: Every node in a classical binary search tree is a 2-node

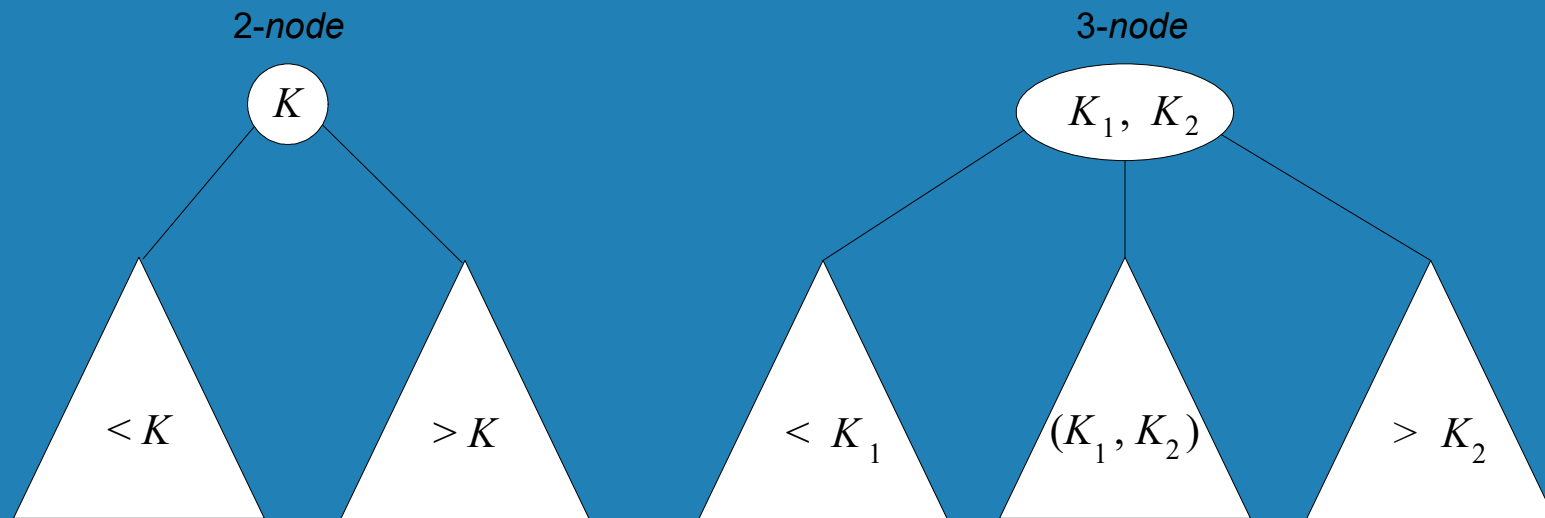


2-3 Tree



Definition A *2-3 tree* is a search tree that

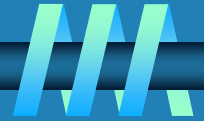
- may have 2-nodes and 3-nodes
- height-balanced (all leaves are on the same level)



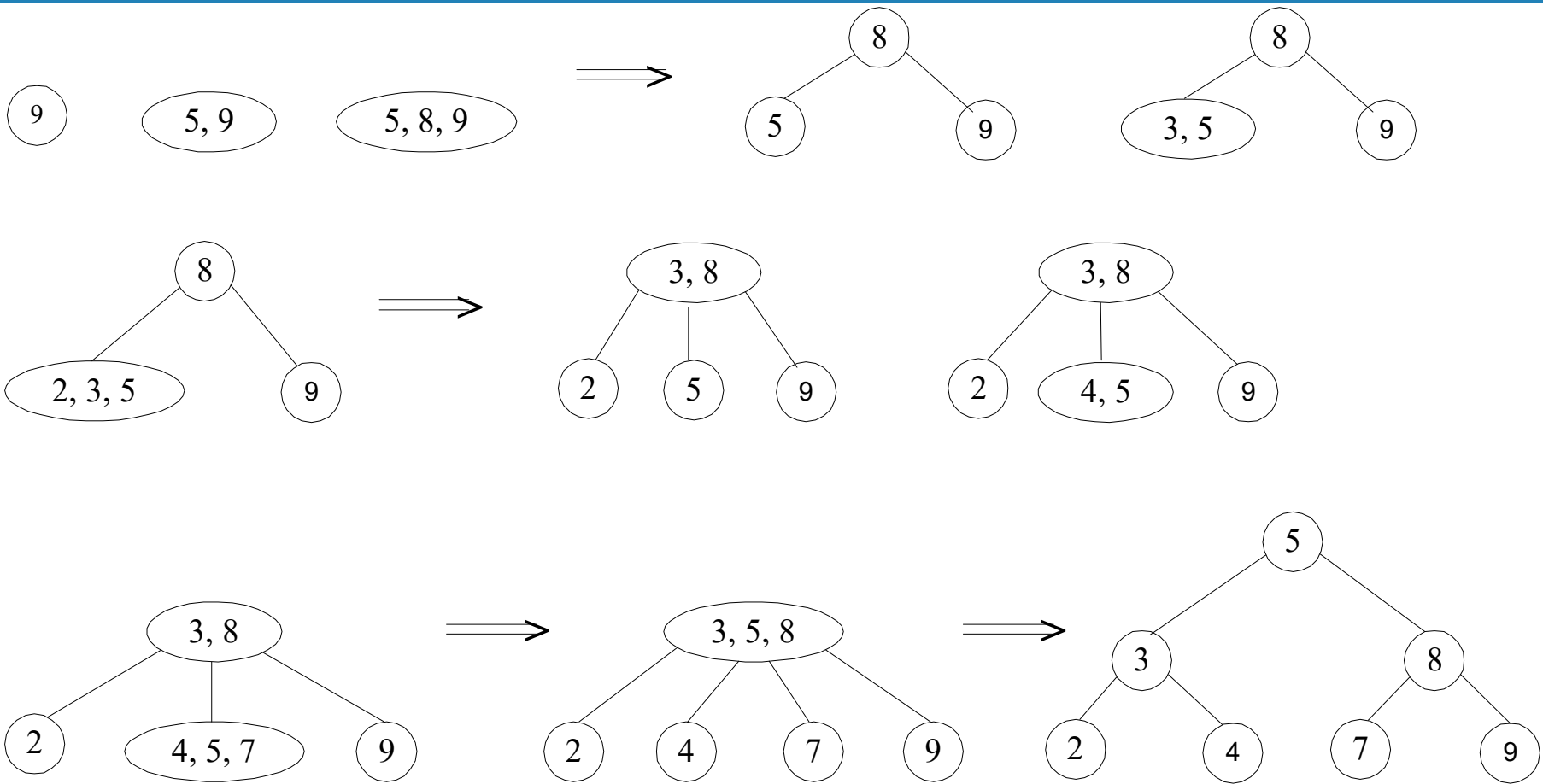
A 2-3 tree is constructed by successive insertions of keys given, with a new key always inserted into a leaf of the tree. If the leaf is a 3-node, it's split into two with the middle key promoted to the parent.



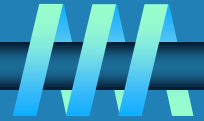
2-3 tree construction – an example



Construct a 2-3 tree the list 9, 5, 8, 3, 2, 4, 7



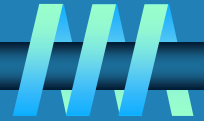
Analysis of 2-3 trees



- $\log_3(n + 1) - 1 \leq h \leq \log_2(n + 1) - 1$
- Search, insertion, and deletion are in $\Theta(\log n)$
- The idea of 2-3 tree can be generalized by allowing more keys per node
 - 2-3-4 trees
 - B-trees

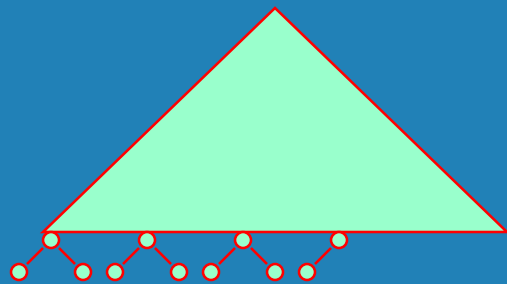


Heaps and Heapsort



Definition A *heap* is a binary tree with keys at its nodes (one key per node) such that:

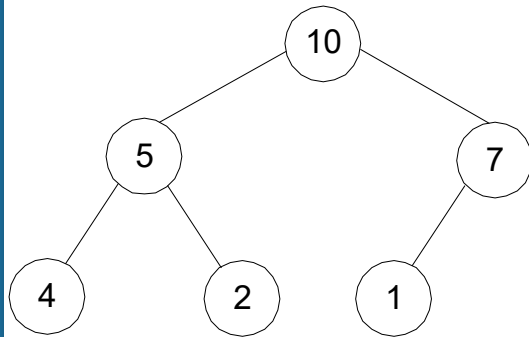
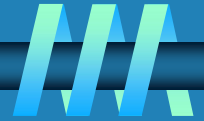
- It is essentially complete, i.e., all its levels are full except possibly the last level, where only some rightmost keys may be missing



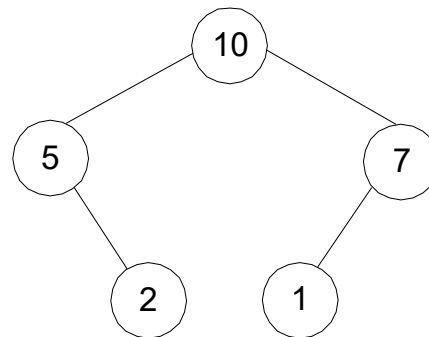
- The key at each node is \geq keys at its children (this is called a *max-heap*)



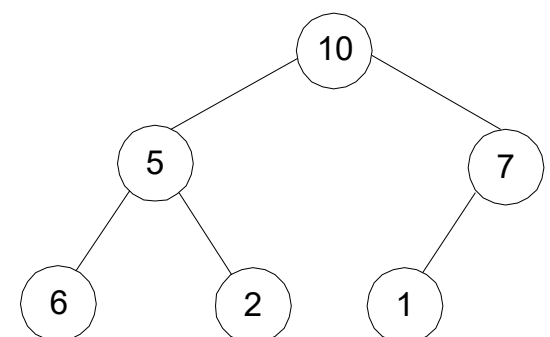
Illustration of the heap's definition



a heap



not a heap

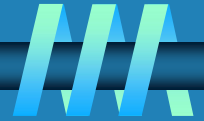


not a heap

Note: Heap's elements are ordered top down (along any path down from its root), but they are not ordered left to right



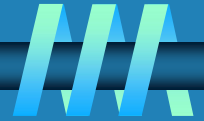
Some Important Properties of a Heap



- Given n , there exists a unique binary tree with n nodes that is essentially complete, with $h = \lfloor \log_2 n \rfloor$
- The root contains the largest key
- The subtree rooted at any node of a heap is also a heap
- A heap can be represented as an array

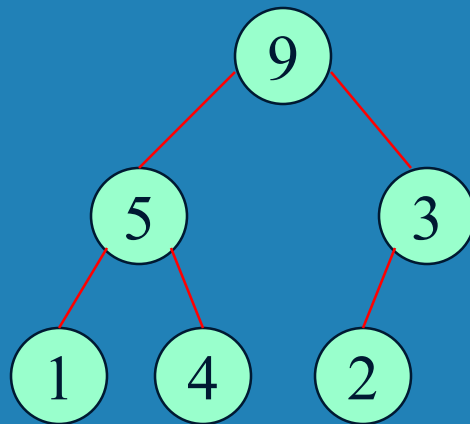


Heap's Array Representation



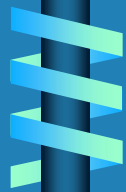
Store heap's elements in an array (whose elements indexed, for convenience, 1 to n) in top-down left-to-right order

Example:

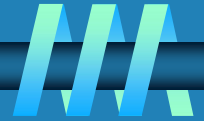


1	2	3	4	5	6
9	5	3	1	4	2

- Left child of node j is at $2j$
- Right child of node j is at $2j+1$
- Parent of node j is at $\lfloor j/2 \rfloor$
- Parental nodes are represented in the first $\lfloor n/2 \rfloor$ locations



Heap Construction (bottom-up)



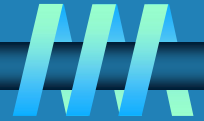
Step 0: Initialize the structure with keys in the order given

Step 1: Starting with the last (rightmost) parental node, fix the heap rooted at it, if it doesn't satisfy the heap condition: keep exchanging it with its larger child until the heap condition holds

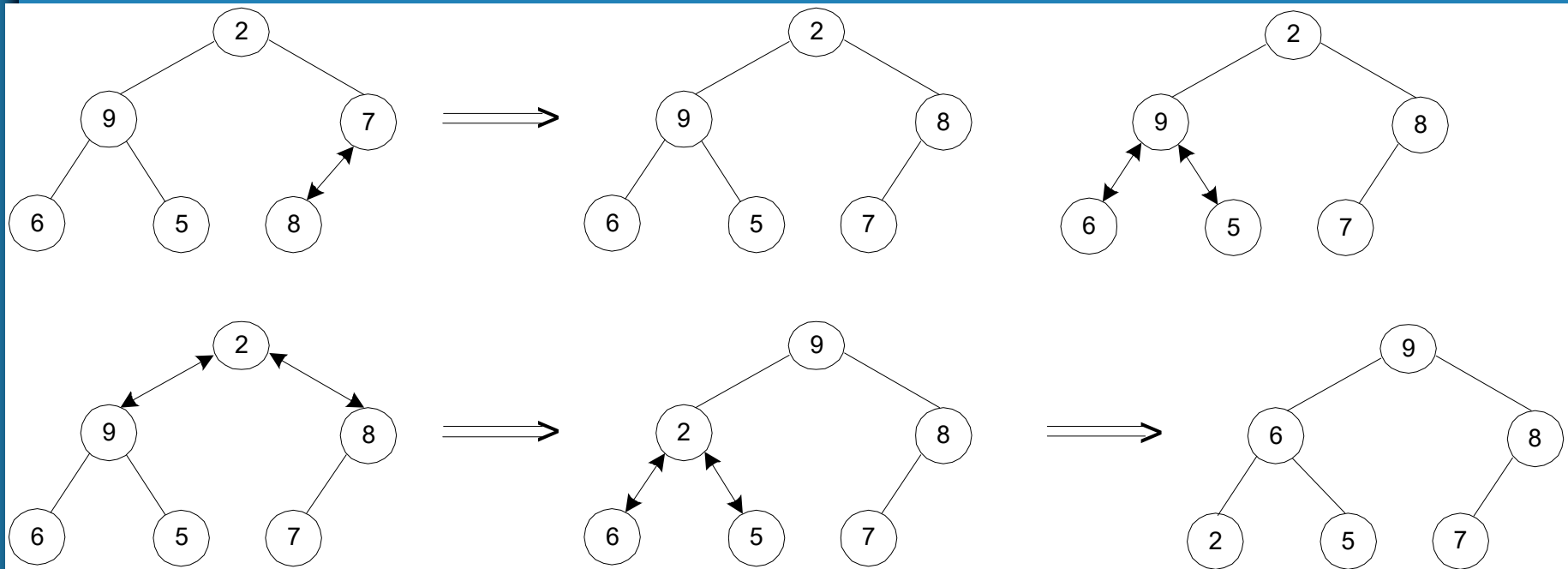
Step 2: Repeat Step 1 for the preceding parental node



Example of Heap Construction



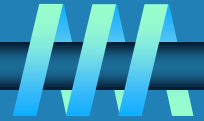
Construct a heap for the list 2, 9, 7, 6, 5, 8



Pseudopodia of bottom-up heap construction

```
Algorithm HeapBottomUp( $H[1..n]$ )  
//Constructs a heap from the elements of a given array  
// by the bottom-up algorithm  
//Input: An array  $H[1..n]$  of orderable items  
//Output: A heap  $H[1..n]$   
for  $i \leftarrow \lfloor n/2 \rfloor$  downto 1 do  
     $k \leftarrow i$ ;  $v \leftarrow H[k]$   
    heap  $\leftarrow$  false  
    while not heap and  $2 * k \leq n$  do  
         $j \leftarrow 2 * k$   
        if  $j < n$  //there are two children  
            if  $H[j] < H[j + 1]$   $j \leftarrow j + 1$   
        if  $v \geq H[j]$   
            heap  $\leftarrow$  true  
        else  $H[k] \leftarrow H[j]$ ;  $k \leftarrow j$   
     $H[k] \leftarrow v$ 
```

Heapsort



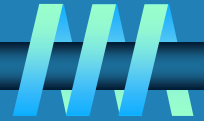
Stage 1: Construct a heap for a given list of n keys

Stage 2: Repeat operation of root removal $n-1$ times:

- Exchange keys in the root and in the last (rightmost) leaf
- Decrease heap size by 1
- If necessary, swap new root with larger child until the heap condition holds



Example of Sorting by Heapsort



Sort the list 2, 9, 7, 6, 5, 8 by heapsort

Stage 1 (heap construction)

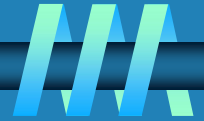
1 9 7 6 5 8
2 9 8 6 5 7
2 9 8 6 5 7
9 2 8 6 5 7
9 6 8 2 5 7

Stage 2 (root/max removal)

9 6 8 2 5 7
7 6 8 2 5 | 9
8 6 7 2 5 | 9
5 6 7 2 | 8 9
7 6 5 2 | 8 9
2 6 5 | 7 8 9
6 2 5 | 7 8 9
5 2 | 6 7 8 9
5 2 | 6 7 8 9
2 | 5 6 7 8 9



Analysis of Heapsort



Stage 1: Build heap for a given list of n keys

worst-case

$$C(n) = \sum_{i=0}^{h-1} \underbrace{2^{h-i}}_{\substack{\# \text{ nodes at} \\ \text{level } i}} 2^i = 2(n - \log_2(n+1)) \in \Theta(n)$$

Stage 2: Repeat operation of root removal $n-1$ times (fix heap)

worst-case

$$C(n) = \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} 2 \log_2 i \in \Theta(n \log n)$$

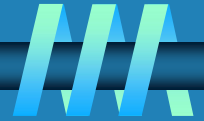
Both worst-case and average-case efficiency: $\Theta(n \log n)$

In-place: yes

Stability: no (e.g., 1 1)



Priority Queue

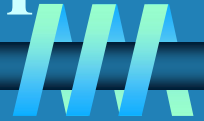


A *priority queue* is the ADT of a set of elements with numerical priorities with the following operations:

- **find element with highest priority**
 - **delete element with highest priority**
 - **insert (new) element with assigned priority (see below)**
-
- **Heap is a very efficient way for implementing priority queues**
 - **A *min-heap* can also be used to handle priority queue in which highest priority = smallest number**

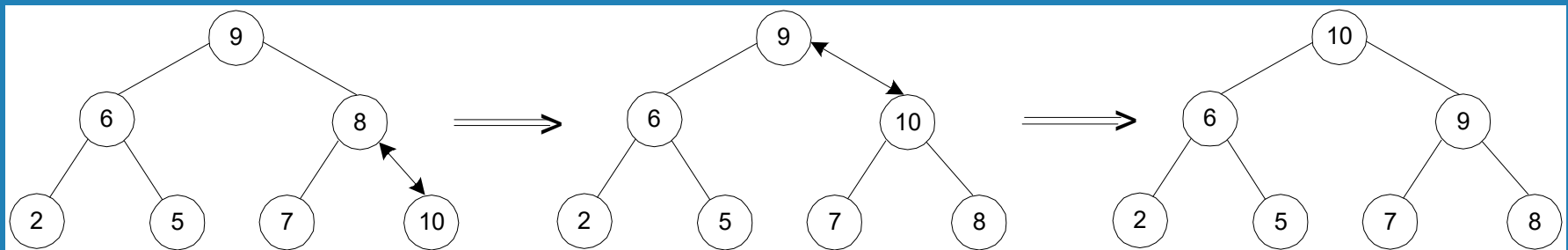


Insertion of a New Element into a Heap



- ❑ Insert the new element at last position in heap.
- ❑ Compare it with its parent and, if it violates heap condition, exchange them
- ❑ Continue comparing the new element with nodes up the tree until the heap condition is satisfied

Example: Insert key 10

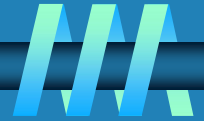


Efficiency: $O(\log n)$

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A. Levitin "Introduction to the Design & Analysis of Algorithms," 2nd ed., Ch. 6

Horner's Rule For Polynomial Evaluation



Given a polynomial of degree n

$$p(x) = a_n x^n + a_{n-1} x^{n-1} + \dots + a_1 x + a_0$$

and a specific value of x , find the value of p at that point.

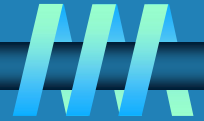
Two brute-force algorithms:

```
p ← 0
for i ← n downto 0 do
    power ← 1
    for j ← 1 to i do
        power ← power * x
    p ← p + ai * power
return p
```

```
p ← a0; power ← 1
for i ← 1 to n do
    power ← power * x
    p ← p + ai * power
return p
```



Horner's Rule



$$\begin{aligned}\text{Example: } p(x) &= 2x^4 - x^3 + 3x^2 + x - 5 \\ &= x(2x^3 - x^2 + 3x + 1) - 5 \\ &= x(x(2x^2 - x + 3) + 1) - 5 \\ &= x(x(x(2x - 1) + 3) + 1) - 5\end{aligned}$$

Substitution into the last formula leads to a faster algorithm

Same sequence of computations are obtained by simply arranging the coefficient in a table and proceeding as follows:

coefficients	2	-1	3	1	-5
$x=3$	2	$3*2+(-1)=5$	$3*5+3=18$	$3*18+1=55$	$3*55+(-5)=160$



Horner's Rule pseudocode

ALGORITHM *Horner*($P[0..n]$, x)

//Evaluates a polynomial at a given point by Horner's rule

//Input: An array $P[0..n]$ of coefficients of a polynomial of degree n

// (stored from the lowest to the highest) and a number x

//Output: The value of the polynomial at x

$p \leftarrow P[n]$

for $i \leftarrow n - 1$ **downto** 0 **do**

$p \leftarrow x * p + P[i]$

return p

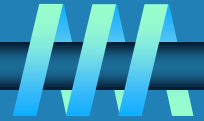
Efficiency of Horner's Rule: # multiplications = # additions = n

Synthetic division of $p(x)$ by $(x-x_0)$

Example: Let $p(x) = 2x^4 - x^3 + 3x^2 + x - 5$. Find $p(x):(x-3)$

$$2x^3 + 5x^2 + 18x + 55$$

Computing a^n (revisited)



Left-to-right binary exponentiation

Initialize product accumulator by 1.

Scan n 's binary expansion from left to right and do the following:

If the current binary digit is 0, square the accumulator (S); if the binary digit is 1, square the accumulator and multiply it by a (SM).

Example: Compute a^{13} . Here, $n = 13 = 1101_2$.

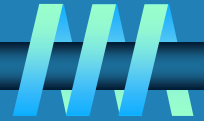
binary rep. of 13:	1	1	0	1	
	SM	SM	S	SM	
accumulator:	1	$1^2 * a = a$	$a^2 * a = a^3$	$(a^3)^2 = a^6$	$(a^6)^2 * a = a^{13}$

(computed left-to-right)

Efficiency: $(b-1) \leq M(n) \leq 2(b-1)$ where $b = \lfloor \log_2 n \rfloor + 1$



Computing a^n (cont.)



Right-to-left binary exponentiation

Scan n 's binary expansion from right to left and compute a^n as the product of terms a^{2^i} corresponding to 1's in this expansion.

Example Compute a^{13} by the right-to-left binary exponentiation. Here, $n = 13 = 1101_2$.

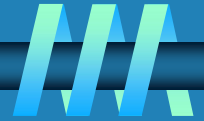
$$\begin{array}{ccccccc} 1 & & 1 & & 0 & & 1 \\ a^8 & & a^4 & & a^2 & & a \\ a^8 & * & a^4 & * & & & a & : & a^{2^i} \text{ terms} \\ & & & & & & a & : & \text{product} \end{array}$$

(computed right-to-left)

Efficiency: same as that of left-to-right binary exponentiation



Problem Reduction

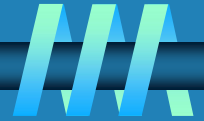


This variation of transform-and-conquer solves a problem by transforming it into a different problem for which an algorithm is already available.

To be of practical value, the combined time of the transformation and solving the other problem should be smaller than solving the problem as given by another method.



Examples of Solving Problems by Reduction



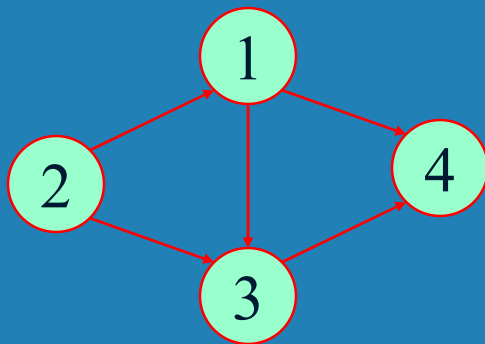
- ❑ **computing $\text{lcm}(m, n)$ via computing $\text{gcd}(m, n)$**
$$\text{lcm}(m, n) * \text{gcd}(m, n) = m * n$$
- ❑ **counting number of paths of length n in a graph by raising the graph's adjacency matrix to the n -th power**
- ❑ **transforming a maximization problem to a minimization problem and vice versa (also, min-heap construction)**
- ❑ **linear programming**
- ❑ **reduction to graph problems (e.g., solving puzzles via state-space graphs)**



Examples of Solving Problems by Reduction

- Counting number of paths of length n in a graph by raising the graph's adjacency matrix to the n -th power

If (directed) graph G has adjacency matrix A , then for any k , the (i,j) entry in A^k gives the number of paths from vertex i and j of length k . (Levitin, Ch. 6.6)



$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$A^2 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 2 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$