CSE 3318

Week of 06/17/2024

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Using Recursion

Any problem that can be solved recursively can also be solved iteratively.

A recursive approach is normally chosen in preference to an iterative approach when the recursive approach more naturally mirrors the problem and results in a program that's easier to understand and debug.

Another reason to choose a recursive solution is that an iterative solution may not be apparent.

Designing Algorithms

Insertion sort uses an incremental approach

having sorted the subarray A[1..j-1], we inserted the single element A[j] into its proper place, yielding the sorted subarray A[1..j]

We are going to examine an alternative design approach called

divide and conquer

Designing Algorithms

Many useful algorithms are recursive in structure

To solve a given problem, an algorithm calls itself recursively one or more times to deal with closely related subproblems.

These types of algorithms follow a divide and conquer approach

They break the problem into several subproblems that are similar to the original problem but smaller in size, solve the subproblems recursively and the combine these solutions to create a solution to the original problem.

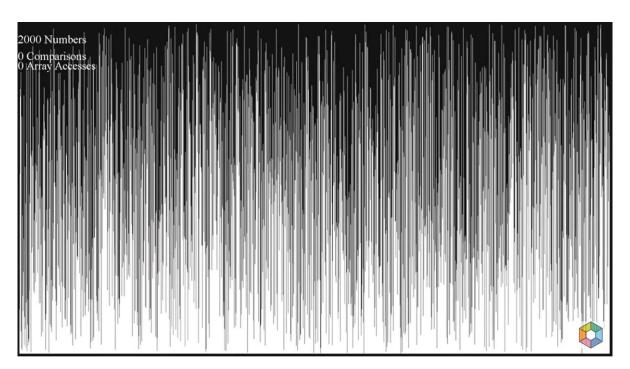
The Divide and Conquer Approach

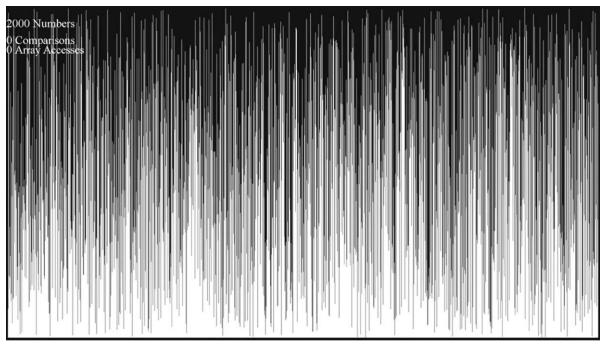
Divide the problem into a number of subproblems that are smaller instances of the same problem.

Conquer the subproblems by solving them recursively. If the subproblems are small enough, just solve them by brute force.

Combine the subproblem solutions to give a solution to the original problem

The Divide and Conquer Approach





Insertion Sort n^2

Merge Sort $n \log_2 n$

Merge Sort

Merge Sort is a sorting algorithm based on divide and conquer.

Its worst-case running time has a lower order of growth than insertion sort.

Because we are dealing with subproblems, we state each subproblem as sorting a subarray $A[p \ . . \ r]$

Initially, p = 1 and r = n, but these values change as we recurse through subproblems

Merge Sort

To sort A[p ... r]

Divide by splitting into two subarrays A[p .. q] and A[q+1 .. r] where q is the halfway point of A[p .. r]

Conquer by recursively sorting the two subarrays A[p .. q] and A[q+1 .. r]

Combine by merging the two sorted subarrays A[p ... q] and A[q+1 ... r] to produce a single sorted subarray A[p ... r]. To accomplish this step, we'll define a procedure Merge (A, p, q, r)

The recursion bottoms out when the subarray has just 1 element, so that it's trivially sorted – can't divide 1 value.

Merge Sort

```
MergeSort(A, p, r)
```

```
if p < r
                                           // check for base case
   q = (p + r)/2
                                           // divide
                                           // conquer left
   MergeSort (A, p, q)
   MergeSort(A, q+1, r)
                                           // conquer right
   Merge (A, p, q, r)
                                           // combine
```

```
int main()
     int arr[] = \{12, 11, 5, 13, 7, 6\};
     int arr size = sizeof(arr)/sizeof(arr[0]);
     printf("Given array is \n");
     printArray(arr, arr size);
     mergeSort(arr, 0, arr size - 1);
     printf("\nSorted array is \n");
    printArray(arr, arr size);
     return 0;
```

```
{12, 11, 5, 13, 7, 6}
```

```
void mergeSort(int arr[], int L, int R)
    if (L < R)
        int M = (L+R)/2;
        mergeSort(arr, L, M);
        mergeSort(arr, M+1, R);
        merge(arr, L, M, R);
```



$$p = 1$$
, $q = 7$, $r = 13$
 $n_1 = q - p + 1 = 7 - 1 + 1 = 7$
 $n_2 = r - q = 13 - 7 = 6$
 $L[1...n_1 + 1] = L[1...8]$
 $R[1...n_2 + 1] = R[1...7]$

```
MERGE(A, p, q, r)
 n_1 = q - p + 1
 n_2 = r - q
 let L[1...n_1 + 1] and R[1...n_2 + 1] be new arrays
 for i = 1 to n_1
     L[i] = A[p+i-1]
 for j = 1 to n_2
   R[j] = A[q+j]
 L[n_1+1]=\infty
 R[n_2+1]=\infty
 i = 1
 i = 1
 for k = p to r
     if L[i] \leq R[j]
         A[k] = L[i]
         i = i + 1
     else A[k] = R[j]
         j = j + 1
```

```
void merge(int arr[], int left, int middle, int right)
                                     Merge – Part 2
  int i, j, k;
  int n1 = middle - left + 1; i = 0;
  int n2 = right - middle;
                                      \dot{\tau} = 0;
                                      k = left;
  int L[n1], R[n2];
                                      while (i < n1 \&\& j < n2)
  for (i = 0; i < n1; i++)
     L[i] = arr[left + i];
                                         if (L[i] \leq R[j])
  for (j = 0; j < n2; j++)
     R[j] = arr[middle + 1 + j];
                                           arr[k] = L[i];
                                            i++;
                                         else
                                           arr[k] = R[j];
                                            j++;
                                         k++;
```

```
while (i < n1)
  arr[k] = L[i];
  i++;
  k++;
while (j < n2)
  arr[k] = R[j];
  j++;
  k++;
```

M = (L + R)/2{12, 11, 5, 13, 7, 6} MS R = if L < R, then M = MS -> M+1, R MS -> L, M merge MS MS R = R = if L < R, then M = if L < R, then M = MS -> L, M MS -> M+1, R MS -> M+1, R MS -> L, M merge merge MS MS MS MS R = R = R = R = L = L = if L < R, then M = MS -> M+1, R MS -> L, M MS -> M+1, R MS -> L, M MS -> L, M MS -> M+1, R MS -> L, M MS -> M+1, R merge merge merge merge MS

L =	R =	
if L < R, then M =		
MS -> L, M	MS -> M+1, R	
merge		

MS		
L =	R =	
if L < R, then M =		
MS -> L, M	MS -> M+1, R	
merge		

MS		
L =	R =	
if L < R, then M =		
MS -> L, M	MS -> M+1, R	
merge		

MS		
_ =	R =	
f L < R, then M =		
MS -> L, M	MS -> M+1, R	
merge 14		

```
int main(void)
  int arr[] = \{12, 11, 5, 13, 7, 6\};
  int arr size = sizeof(arr)/sizeof(arr[0]);
  printf("Given array is \n");
                                         void mergeSort(int arr[], int L, int R)
  printArray(arr, arr size);
                                            if (L < R)
  mergeSort(arr, 0, arr size - 1);
                                              int M = (L+R)/2;
  printf("\nSorted array is \n");
  printArray(arr, arr size);
                                              mergeSort(arr, L, M);
  return 0;
                                              mergeSort(arr, M+1, R);
                                              merge(arr, L, M, R);
A-merge with L=0 M=0 R=1
B-merge with L=0 M=1 R=2
                      D-merge with L=3 M=4 R=5
C-merge with L=3 M=3 R=4
                     E-merge with L=0 M=2 R=5
```

```
void merge(int arr[], int left, int middle, int right)
                                        A-merge with
  int i, j, k;
  int n1 = middle - left + 1;
                                        left=0 middle=0 right=1
  int n2 = right - middle;
  int L[n1], R[n2];
                                        {12, 11, 5, 13, 7, 6}
  for (i = 0; i < n1; i++)
    L[i] = arr[left + i];
                                        L = \{12\} R = \{11\}
  for (j = 0; j < n2; j++)
    R[j] = arr[middle + 1 + j];
                                        n1 = 1 n2 = 1
```

```
i = 0;
            Merge – Part 2
\dot{7} = 0;
k = left;
while (i < n1 \&\& j < n2)
      if (L[i] \ll R[j])
            arr[k] = L[i];
            <u>i</u>++;
      else
            arr[k] = R[j];
            j++;
      k++;
```

```
A-merge with left=0 middle=0 right=1 L = {12} R = {11} n1=1 n2=1 {12, 11, 5, 13, 7,
```

```
\{12, 11, 5, 13, 7, 6\}
\{11, 12, 5, 13, 7, 6\}
while (i < n1)
      arr[k] = L[i];
      <u>i++;</u>
      k++;
                     Merge – Part 3
while (j < n2)
      arr[k] = R[j];
      j++;
      k++;
                               19
```

```
void merge(int arr[], int left, int middle, int right)
                                        B merge with
     int i, j, k;
     int n1 = middle - left + 1;
                                        left=0 middle=1 right=2
     int n2 = right - middle;
                                         {11, 12, 5, 13, 7, 6}
     int L[n1], R[n2];
                                        L = \{11,12\} R = \{5\}
     for (i = 0; i < n1; i++)
          L[i] = arr[left + i];
     for (j = 0; j < n2; j++)
                                        n1 = 2 n2 = 1
          R[j] = arr[middle + 1 + j];
```

```
i = 0;
            Merge – Part 2
\dot{7} = 0;
k = left;
while (i < n1 \&\& j < n2)
      if (L[i] \ll R[j])
            arr[k] = L[i];
            <u>i++;</u>
      else
            arr[k] = R[j];
            j++;
      k++;
```

```
B-merge with
left=0 middle=1 right=2
L = \{11,12\} R = \{5\} n1=2 n2=1
\{11, 12, 5, 13, 7, 6\}
{5, 11, 12, 13, 7, 6}
while (i < n1)
      arr[k] = L[i];
      <u>i++;</u>
      k++;
                     Merge – Part 3
while (j < n2)
      arr[k] = R[j];
      j++;
      k++;
                               21
```

```
void merge(int arr[], int left, int middle, int right)
                                        C-merge with
     int i, j, k;
     int n1 = middle - left + 1;
                                        left=3 middle=3 right=4
     int n2 = right - middle;
                                        {5, 11, 12, 13, 7, 6}
     int L[n1], R[n2];
     for (i = 0; i < n1; i++)
                                        L = \{13\} R = \{7\}
          L[i] = arr[left + i];
     for (j = 0; j < n2; j++)
          R[j] = arr[middle + 1 + j];
                                        n1 = 1 n2 = 1
```

```
i = 0;
            Merge – Part 2
\dot{7} = 0;
k = left;
while (i < n1 \&\& j < n2)
      if (L[i] \ll R[j])
            arr[k] = L[i];
            <u>i++;</u>
      else
            arr[k] = R[j];
            j++;
      k++;
```

```
C-merge with
left=3 middle=3 right=4
L = {13} R = {7} n1=1 n2=1
```

```
{5, 11, 12, 13, 7, 6}
{5, 11, 12, 7, 13, 6}
while (i < n1)
      arr[k] = L[i];
      <u>i++;</u>
      k++;
                     Merge – Part 3
while (j < n2)
      arr[k] = R[j];
      j++;
      k++;
                              23
```

```
void merge(int arr[], int left, int middle, int right)
                                        D-merge with
     int i, j, k;
     int n1 = middle - left + 1;
                                        left=3 middle=4 right=5
     int n2 = right - middle;
                                        {5, 11, 12, 7, 13, 6}
     int L[n1], R[n2];
     for (i = 0; i < n1; i++)
                                        L = \{7,13\} R = \{6\}
          L[i] = arr[left + i];
     for (j = 0; j < n2; j++)
          R[j] = arr[middle + 1 + j];
                                        n1 = 2 n2 = 1
```

```
i = 0;
            Merge – Part 2
\dot{7} = 0;
k = left;
while (i < n1 \&\& j < n2)
      if (L[i] \ll R[j])
            arr[k] = L[i];
            <u>i++;</u>
      else
            arr[k] = R[j];
            j++;
      k++;
```

```
D-merge with left=3 middle=4 right=5
L = {7,13} R = {6} n1=2 n2=1
```

```
{5, 11, 12, 7, 13, 6}
{5, 11, 12, 6, 7, 13}
while (i < n1)
      arr[k] = L[i];
      <u>i++;</u>
      k++;
                     Merge – Part 3
while (j < n2)
      arr[k] = R[j];
      j++;
      k++;
                              25
```

```
void merge(int arr[], int left, int middle, int right)
                                        E-merge with
     int i, j, k;
     int n1 = middle - left + 1;
                                        left=0 middle=2 right=5
     int n2 = right - middle;
                                        {5, 11, 12, 6, 7, 13}
     int L[n1], R[n2];
     for (i = 0; i < n1; i++)
                                        L = \{5,11,12\} R = \{6,7,13\}
          L[i] = arr[left + i];
     for (j = 0; j < n2; j++)
          R[j] = arr[middle + 1 + j];
                                        n1 = 3 n2 = 3
```

```
i = 0;
            Merge – Part 2
\dot{j} = 0;
k = left;
while (i < n1 \&\& j < n2)
      if (L[i] \ll R[j])
            arr[k] = L[i];
            <u>i++;</u>
      else
            arr[k] = R[j];
            j++;
      k++;
```

```
E-merge with
left=0 middle=2 right=5
L = \{5,11,12\} R = \{6,7,13\} n1=3 n2=3
{5, 11, 12, 6, 7, 13}
{5, 6, 7, 11, 12, 13}
  while (i < n1)
       arr[k] = L[i];
        <u>i++;</u>
       k++;
                       Merge – Part 3
  while (j < n2)
       arr[k] = R[j];
        j++;
        k++;
                                27
```

```
{ 12, 11, 5, 13, 7, 6}
A merge {12} with {11}
                               {11, 12, 5, 13, 7, 6}
                               { <mark>11, 12, 5</mark>, 13, 7,
B merge {11,12} with {5}
                               {5, 11, 12, 13, 7, 6}
                               {5, 11, 12, <mark>13</mark>, <mark>7</mark>,
C merge {13} with {7}
                               {5, 11, 12, 7, 13,
                               {5, 11, 12, <mark>7, 13</mark>,
D merge {7,13} with {6}
                               {5, 11, 12, 6, 7, 13}
                               {5, 11, 12, 6, 7, 13}
E merge {5,11,12} with {6,7,13}
                               {5, 6, 7, 11, 12, 13}
```

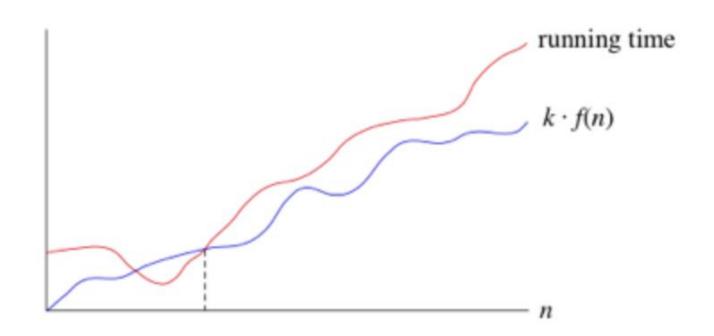
Sometimes, we want to say that an algorithm takes at least a certain amount of time, without providing an upper bound.

We use $big-\Omega$ notation

Greek letter "omega."

If a running time is $\Omega(f(n))$, then for large enough n, the running time is at least $k \cdot f(n)$ for some constant k.

Here's how to think of a running time that $\Omega(f(n))$



The running time is "big- Ω of f(n)"

Big- Ω notation is used for **asymptotic lower bounds**, since it bounds the growth of the running time from below for large enough input sizes.

Just as $\Theta(f(n))$ automatically implies O(f(n)), it also automatically implies $\Omega(f(n))$.

So we can say that the worst-case running time of binary search has $\Omega(\log_2 n)$.

We can also make correct, but imprecise, statements using big- Ω notation.

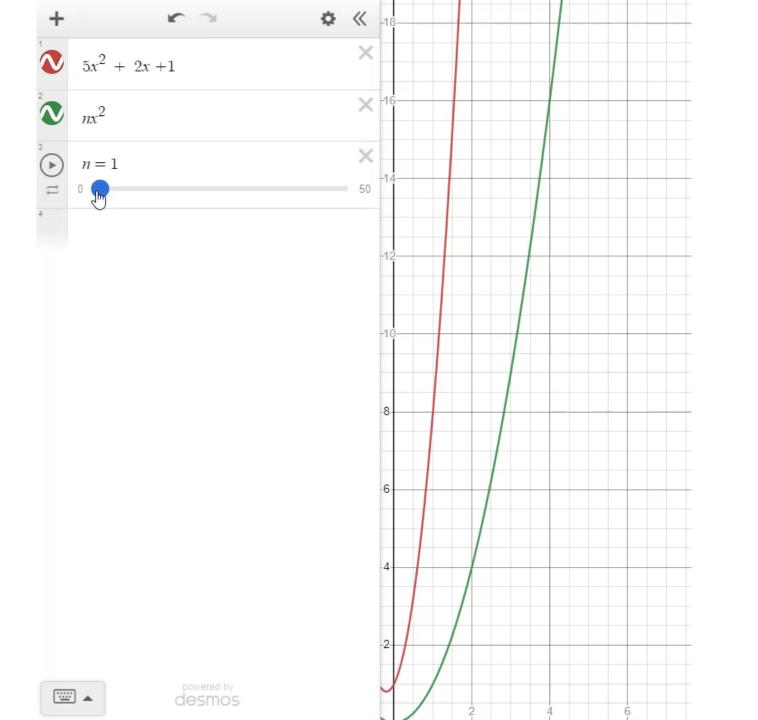
For example, if you really do have a million dollars in your pocket, you can truthfully say

"I have an amount of money in my pocket, and it's at least 10 dollars."

That is correct, but certainly not very precise.

Similarly, we can correctly but imprecisely say that the best-case running time of binary search $\Omega(1)$ because we know that it takes **at least** constant time.

```
f(n) = 5n^2 + 2n + 1
if f(n) is O(g(n))
                                                             then
      f(n) grows asymptotically no faster than g(n)
                                                             g(n) = n^2
if f(n) is \Omega(g(n))
      f(n) grows asymptotically no slower than g(n)
if f(n) is \Theta(g(n))
      f(n) grows asymptotically at the same rate as g(n)
```



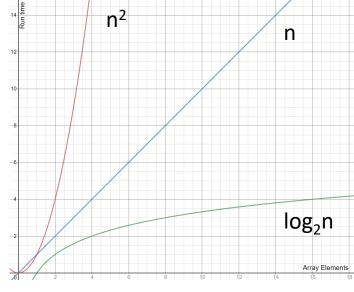
Think of O as an upper bound and Ω as a lower bound.

These bounds can be tight or loose, but we prefer to make them tight as possible.

If we have tight bounds where O and Ω have the same growth rate, then we precisely know the growth rate.

If we can precisely give the growth rate, then we know Θ .

For log₂n...

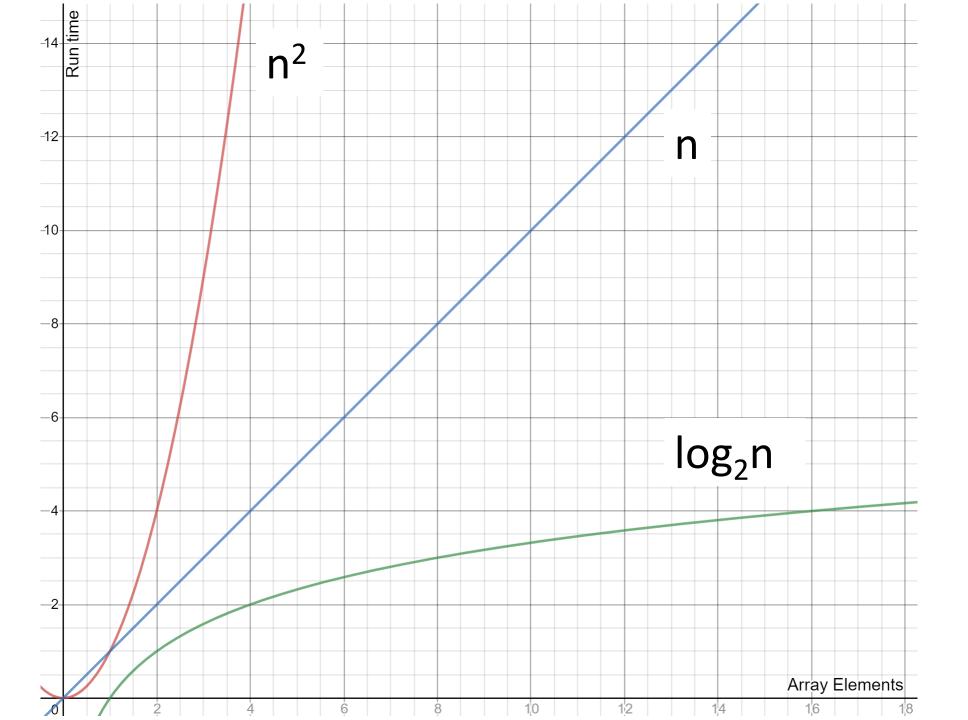


 $\log_2 n$ has $O(n^2)$ since $\log_2 n$ grows asymptotically no faster than n^2

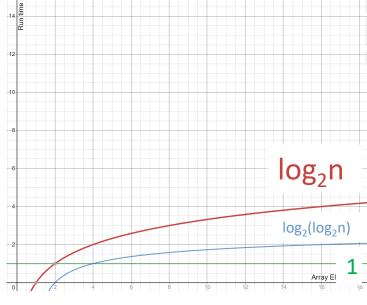
 $\log_2 n$ also has O(n) since $\log_2 n$ grows asymptotically no faster than n

 $\log_2 n$ also has $O(\log_2 n)$ since $\log_2 n$ grows asymptotically no faster than $\log_2 n$

We went from loose upper bounds to a tight upper bound



For $\log_2 n$...

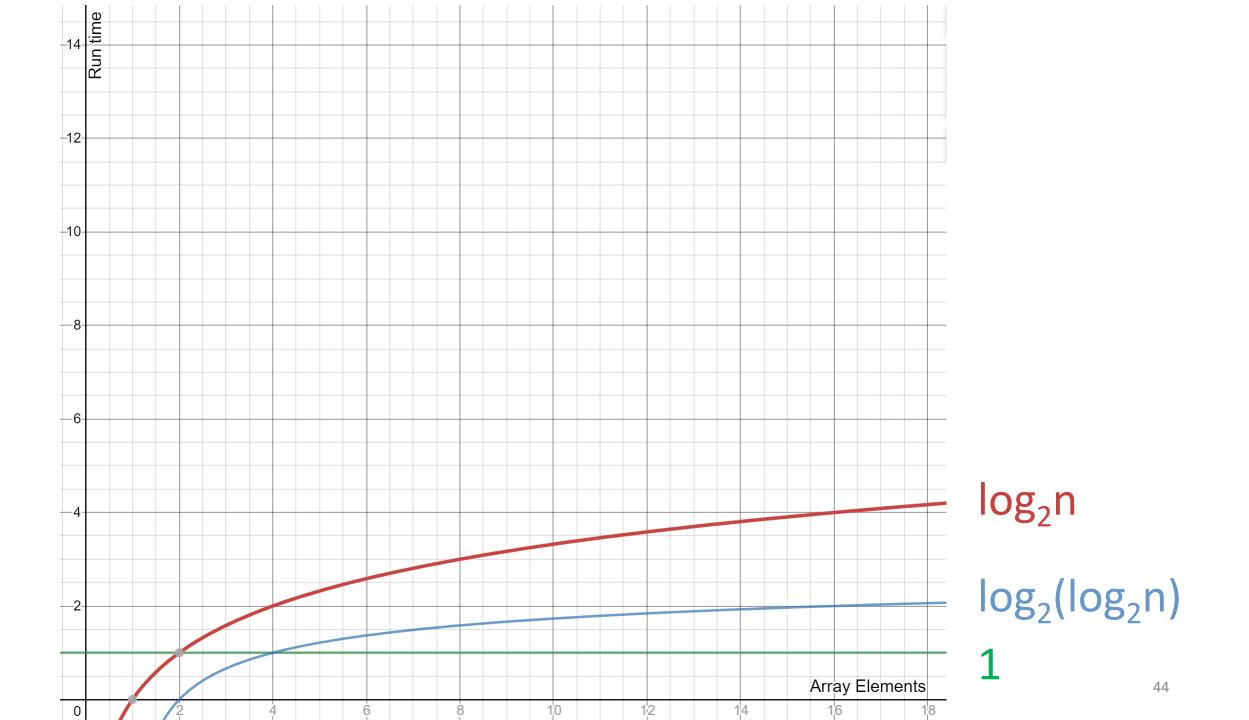


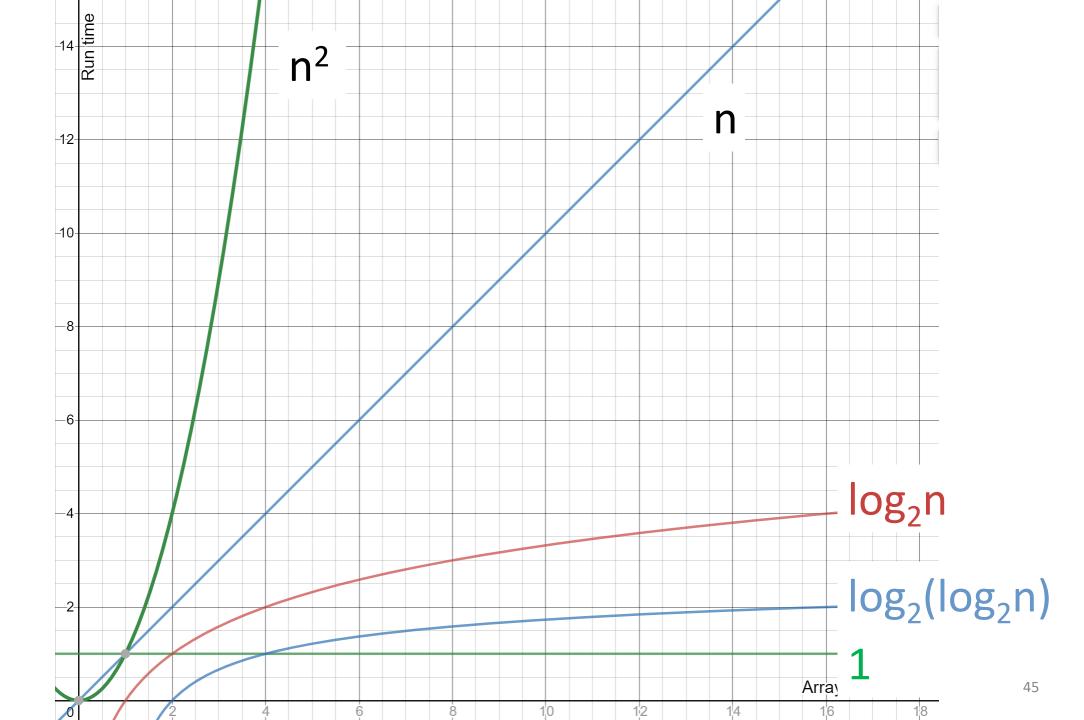
 $\log_2 n$ has $\Omega(1)$ since $\log_2 n$ grows asymptotically no slower than 1

 $\log_2 n$ has $\Omega(\log_2(\log_2 n))$ since $\log_2 n$ grows asymptotically no slower than $\log_2(\log_2(n))$

 $\log_2 n$ has $\Omega(\log_2 n)$ since $\log_2 n$ grows asymptotically no slower than $\log_2 n$

We went from loose lower bounds to a tight lower bound





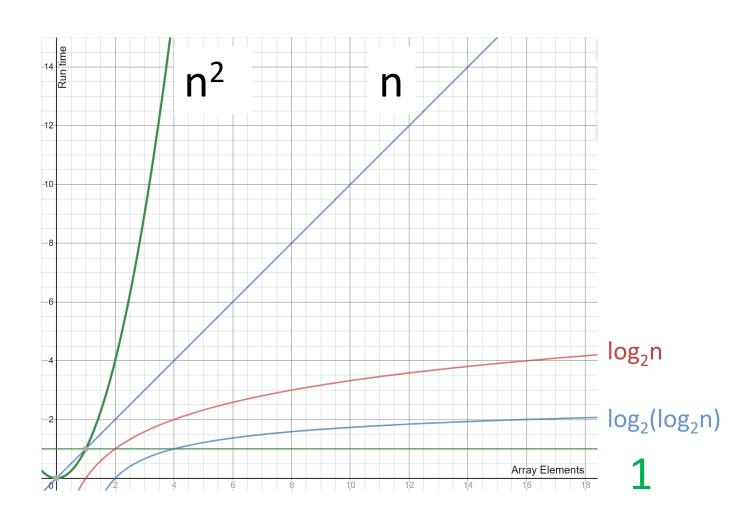
Since we have $\log_2 n$ has

 $O(\log_2 n)$

and

 $\Omega(\log_2 n)$

we can say that $\log_2 n$ is $\Theta(\log_2 n)$



How would you describe your height using asymptotic notation?

Do you have an upper bound of 1 million feet tall?

Do you have a lower bound of 1 inch tall?

Would it be more informative to have an upper bound of 6 feet and a lower bound of 5 feet?

What if your upper bound is 5 feet 4 inches and your lower bound is 5 feet 4 inches?

If we know the big Θ of a function, is there a reason that we would want to know a different big Θ or big Ω for the function?

It seems that if you have the big Θ , you already know the best big-O and big Ω .

Why would we want to know these other values? Are they significantly easier to find than the big Θ ?

Does big Θ give the best big O and big Ω possible?

Typically, if we design an algorithm and perform some quick analysis on it, we will find a reasonable O value – meaning it doesn't have to be tight, but it shouldn't be too loose.

Often, that's all we care about.

Sometimes, we then can find a reasonable Ω value (again it doesn't have to be tight, but it shouldn't be too loose).

If it is critical to have tight bounds, or if the algorithm is easy to analyze, we can tighten up the bounds on O and Ω until they are the same and then we have Θ .

Let's say we have some task that our program needs to perform.

Often, we don't care about which algorithm we use as long as the asymptotic complexity of the algorithm is under some limit

the algorithm is fast enough for our needs.

If we write an algorithm that gets the job done, but it is hard to analyze, we can often make simplifying assumptions that make the analysis easier but the bounds looser.

```
for (i = 1; i \le n; i++)
   number = result of a very hard to analyze calculation();
   if number < 1
      number = 1;
   if number > 1
      number = n;
   for (k = 1; k \le number; k++)
      some simple stuff
```

```
for (i = 1; i <= n; i++) Asymptotic Notation
```

```
number = result_of_a_very hard to analyze calculation();
if number < 1
   number = 1;
if number > 1
   number = n;
for (k = 1; k \le number; k++)
   some simple stuff
```

outer for loop will loop n times

inner for loop will loop worst case = n times best case = 1 time

Since the calculation is hard to analyze, we might not be able to tighten up Ω or O.

Running time is $O(n^2)$ and $\Omega(n)$

If we can't tighten up the bounds on Ω or O, then we can't figure out Θ.

Suppose you are on a game show and are given the following challenge with the prize being a million dollars.

You are shown 2 identical boxes and are told

Box A contains between 10 and 20 bugs

Box B contains between 30 and 40 bugs

To win, you must pick a box and eat all of the bugs inside and we are going to assume that eating less bugs is better than eating more bugs.

Let's examine what we know about Box A

Box A contains between 10 and 20 bugs

We can say that Box A cannot have less than 5 bugs.

That would make 5 a lower bound on the number of bugs in Box A.

This lower bound does not really help us make a decision.

We would rather take 10 as the lower bound.

While 5 and 10 are both valid lower bounds, we would rather use 10 since it is closer than 5 to the actual number of bugs in the box.

Let's examine what we know about Box A

Box A contains between 10 and 20 bugs

We can say that Box A cannot have more than 50 bugs.

That would make 50 an upper bound on the number of bugs in Box A.

This upper bound does not really help us make a decision.

We would rather take 20 as the upper bound.

While 50 and 20 are both valid upper bounds, we would rather use 20 since it is closer than 50 to the actual number of bugs in the box.

The actual number of bugs in Box A must be between our lower bound of 10 and our upper bound of 20.

But...

we also have Box B to analyze.

Remember that Box B contains between 30 and 40 bugs.

Using the same technique we used to analyze Box B, we can determine that Box B has an upper bound of 40 and a lower bound of 30.

Now we need to analyze the upper and lower bounds of the number of bugs you will need to eat in the best and worst case scenarios.

Best case scenario is you pick Box A - the actual number of bugs in Box A must be between our lower bound of 10 and our upper bound of 20.

Worst case scenario is you pick Box B – the actual number of bugs in Box B must be between our lower bound of 30 and our upper bound of 40.

The best case scenario has both lower and upper bounds.

The worst case scenario has both lower and upper bounds.

Since we cannot distinguish Box A from Box B, then we are faced with

overall worst case scenario is the upper bound of all cases

40 bugs

overall best case scenario is the lower bound of all cases

10 bugs

Can we get any closer to the actual number of bugs you have to eat to get that million dollars?

Best case binary search

Finds search item on the first guess

$$f(n) = c_1$$

Lower bound on f(n) is $\Omega(1)$

Upper bound on f(n) is O(1)



Worst case binary search

Search item not found

$$f(n) = c_1 * log_2 n + c_2$$

Lower bound on f(n) is $\Omega(\log_2 n)$

Upper bound on f(n) is O(log₂n)

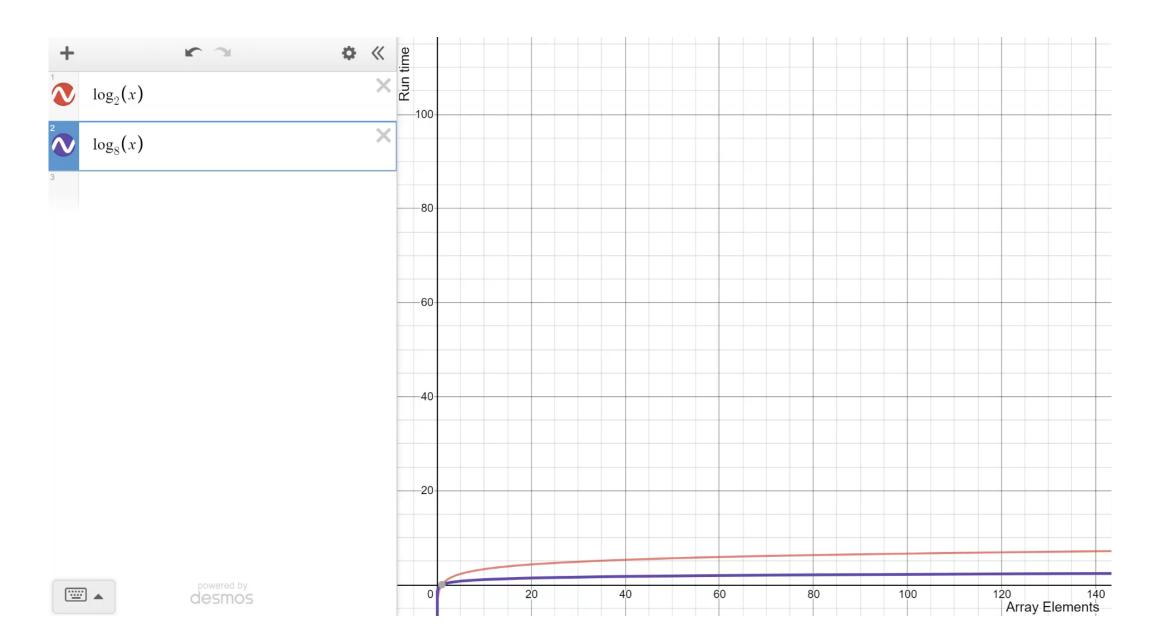
Prove this is true

 $\log_2 n$ is $O(\log_8 n)$

This is saying that $\log_2 n$ has an asymptotic upper bound of $O(\log_8 n)$

This means that for large enough value of n, the running time is at most $k \cdot \log_8 n$ for some constant k. $\log_8 n$ is an upper bound.

Can we come up with a k to multiply $\log_8 n$ by so that it always bounds $\log_2 n$?





Prove this is true

So log₈n can be written as

 $\log_2 n$ is $O(\log_8 n)$

$$\log_8 n = \frac{\log_2 n}{\log_2 8}$$
 which is

Let's remember that

$$\log_8 n = \frac{1}{\log_2 8} \log_2 n$$

$$\log_a n = \frac{\log_b n}{\log_b a}$$

So $\log_8 n$ is just $\log_2 n$ times a constant

Prove this is true

 $\log_2 n$ is $O(\log_8 n)$

$$\log_8 n = \frac{1}{\log_2 8} \log_2 n$$

So $\log_8 n$ is just $\log_2 n$ times a constant

When we find two functions that differ by a constant multiplier, we know that we can always find a k to serve as the upper bound.

Generally, we can effectively ignore constants in asymptotic notation and treat the functions as equivalent.

Prove this is true

 $\log_2 n$ is $\Omega(\log_8 n)$

This is saying that $\log_2 n$ has an asymptotic lower bound of $\Omega(\log_8 n)$

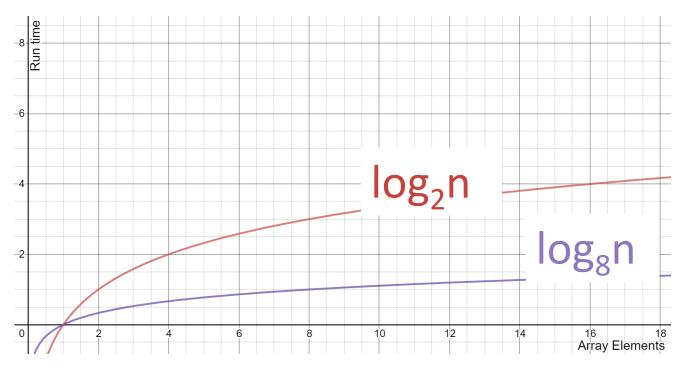
This means that for large enough value of n, the running time is at least $k \cdot \log_8 n$ for some constant k. $\log_8 n$ is an lower bound.

Can we come up with a k to multiply $\log_8 n$ by so that it always lower bounds $\log_2 n$?

Prove this is true: $\log_2 n$ is $\Omega(\log_8 n)$

We have already rewritten $\log_8 n$ as

$$\log_8 n = \frac{1}{\log_2 8} \log_2 n$$



That constant, $\frac{1}{\log_2 8}$, is already a value for k that shows $\log_8 n$ to be a lower bound.

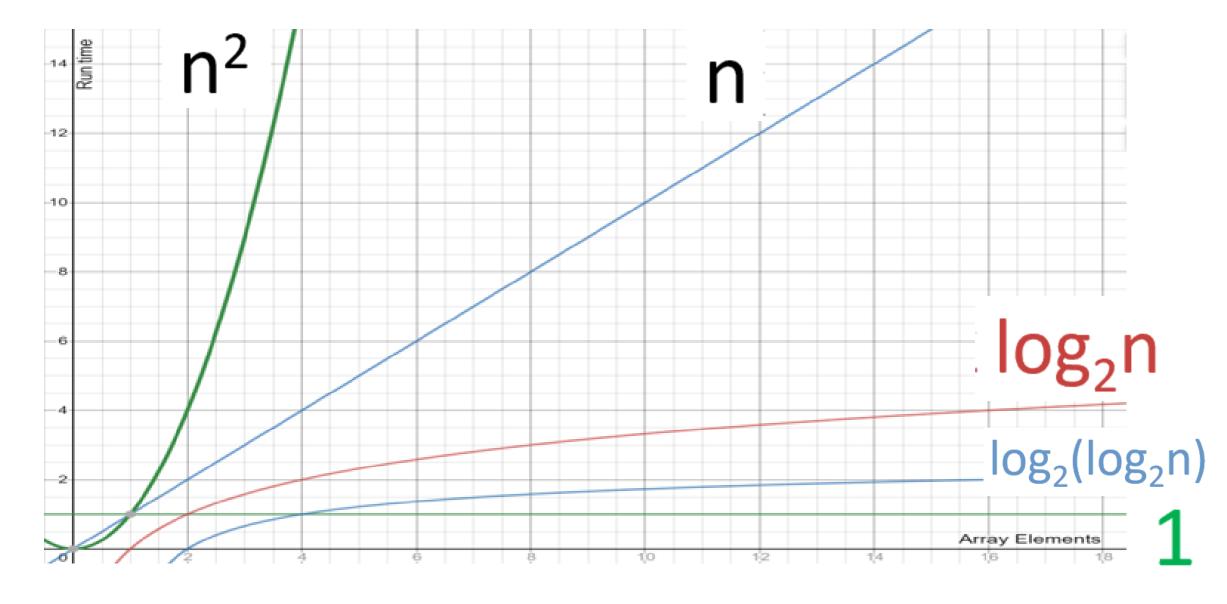
Prove this is true: $\log_2 n$ is $\Theta(\log_8 n)$

If $\log_2 n$ is $\Theta(\log_8 n)$, then $\log_2 n$ is "tightly bound" by $\Theta(\log_8 n)$

for a large enough value of n, the running time is at least $k_1 \cdot \log_8 n$ and at most $k_2 \cdot \log_8 n$ for some constants k_1 and k_2

We have already found k_1 and k_2 that satisfies those constraints when we proved O and Ω notation.

Since we established $\log_2 n$ is $O(\log_8 n)$ and $\Omega(\log_8 n)$, we can conclude that it is also $\Theta(\log_8 n)$.



Label each line using the following choices:

 log_2n

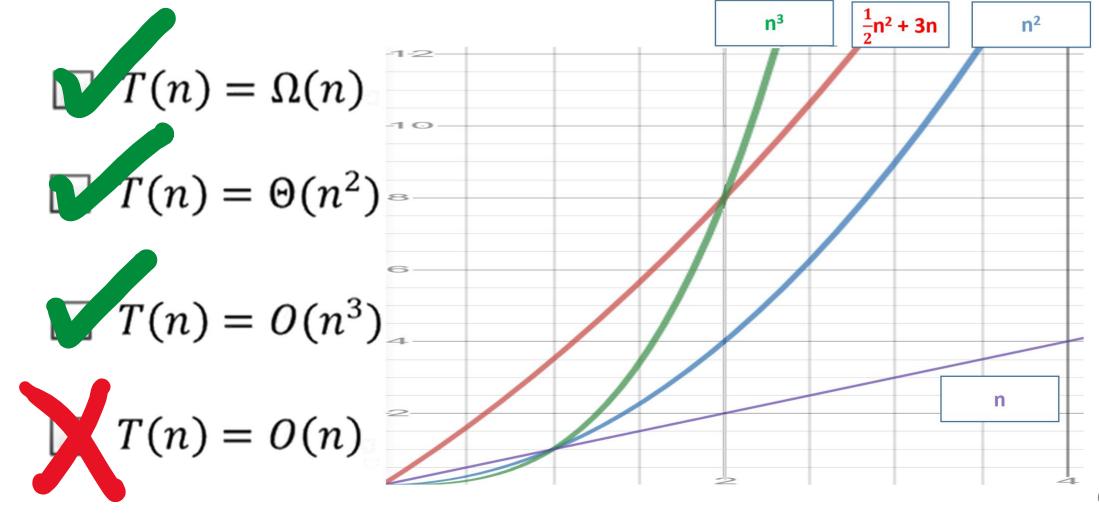
n

1

 $log_2(log_2n)$

 n^2

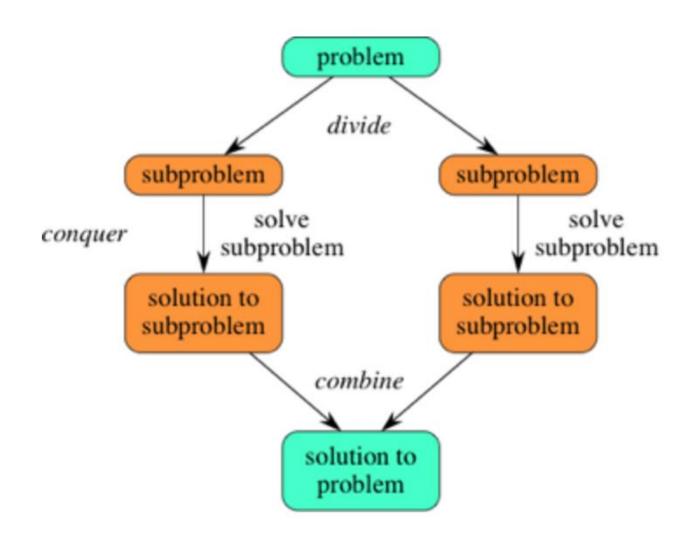
Let $T(n) = \frac{1}{2}n^2 + 3n$. Which of the following statements are true? (Check all that apply.)



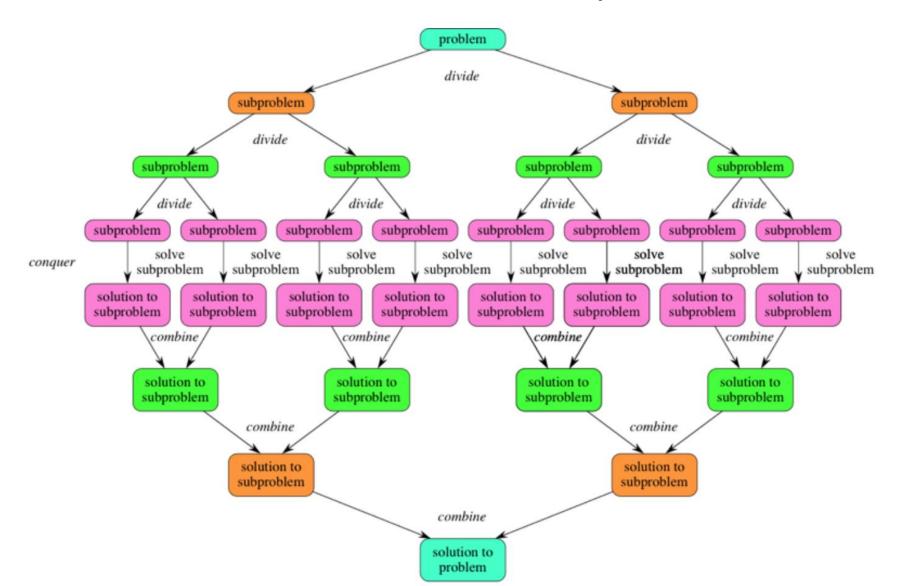
Fill in the values for log₂n for each value of n

n	$\log_2 n$
1	
2	
4	
8	
16	
32	
64	

Divide and Conquer



Divide and Conquer



Divide and Conquer Merge Sort

When using divide-and-conquer to sort, we need to decide what our subproblems are going to look like.

The full problem is to sort an entire array.

The subproblem is to sort a subarray.

Divide and Conquer Merge Sort

To sort A[p ... r]

Divide by splitting into two subarrays A[p .. q] and A[q+1 .. r] where q is the halfway point of A[p .. r]

Conquer by recursively sorting the two subarrays A[p .. q] and A[q+1 .. r]

Combine by merging the two sorted subarrays A[p .. q] and A[q+1 .. r] to produce a single sorted subarray A[p .. r].

The recursion bottoms out when the subarray has just 1 element, so that it's trivially sorted – can't divide 1 value.

{14, 7, 3, 12, 9, 11, 6, 2} {<mark>7, 14</mark>, 3, 12, 9, 11, 6, 2} {7, 14, <mark>3, 12</mark>, 9, 11, 6, 2} {<mark>3, 7, 12, 14</mark>, 9, 11, 6, 2} {3, 7, 12, 14, <mark>9, 11</mark>, 6, 2} {3, 7, 12, 14, 9, 11, <mark>2, 6</mark>} {3, 7, 12, 14, <mark>2, 6, 9, 11</mark>} {2, 3, 6, 7, 9, 11, 12, 14}

Let's examine the merge function from Merge Sort.

The merge function merges two sorted arrays into a single sorted array.

If the two subarrays have a total of *n* elements, then how many times did we examine each element in order to accomplish the merge?

We have to examine each of the elements in order to merge them together which gives us a merging time of $\Theta(n)$.

Given that the merge function runs in $\Theta(n)$ time when merging n elements, how to demonstrate that Merge Sort runs in $\Theta(n\log_2 n)$ time?

We start by thinking about the three parts of divide-and-conquer and how to account for their running times.

We assume that we are sorting a total of *n* elements in the entire array.

The divide step takes constant time, regardless of the subarray size.

The divide step just computes the midpoint q of the indices p and r.

(middle = (left+right)/2)

In big- Θ notation, we indicate constant time by $\Theta(1)$.

Using 1 with Θ indicates no growth

The conquer step, where we recursively sort two subarrays of approximately $\frac{n}{2}$ elements each, takes some amount of time, but we'll account for that time when we consider the subproblems.

The combine step merges a total of n elements, taking $\Theta(n)$ time.

Let's put the divide and combine steps together.

The $\Theta(1)$ running time for the divide step is a low-order term when compared with the $\Theta(n)$ running time of the combine step. As n increases, the amount of constant time needed for the divide step will be trivial.

So let's eliminate the divide time as a separate consideration and just take the divide and combine steps together as $\Theta(n)$ time.

To make things more concrete, let's say that the divide and combine steps together take *cn* time for some constant *c*.

To keep things reasonably simple, let's assume that if n > 1, then n is always even.

Why?

So that when we need to think about $\frac{n}{2}$, it's an integer – integer division does not lose anything.

Accounting for the case in which n is odd doesn't change the result in terms of big- Θ notation.

So now we can think of the running time of Merge Sort on an *n*-element subarray as being

the sum of

twice the running time of Merge Sort on an $\frac{n}{2}$ -element subarray (for the conquer step)

plus

cn

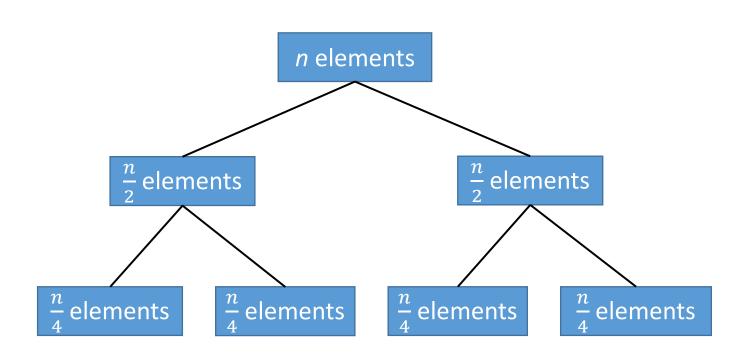
(for the divide and combine steps—really for just the merging).

Now we have to figure out the running time of two recursive calls on $\frac{n}{2}$

Each of these two recursive calls takes twice of the running time of Merge Sort on an $\frac{n}{4}$ -element subarray (because we have to halve $\frac{n}{2}$) plus $\frac{cn}{2}$ to merge.

We have two subproblems of size $\frac{n}{2}$ and each takes $\frac{cn}{2}$ time to merge.

The total time we spend merging for subproblems of size $\frac{n}{2}$ is 2 * $\frac{cn}{2}$ = cn



Total merge time for array of this size

cn

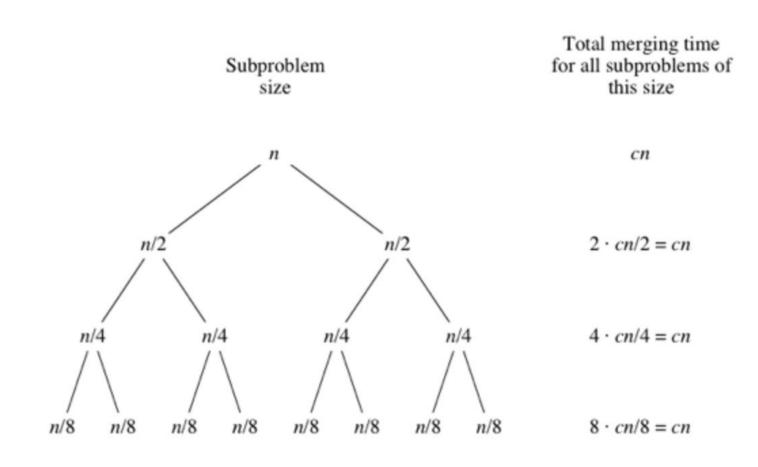
$$2 * \frac{cn}{2} = cn$$

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

What would be the merge time for the next level of $\frac{n}{8}$? $8 * \frac{cn}{8} = cn$

As the subproblems/arrays get smaller, the number of subproblems doubles at each "level" of the recursion, but the merging time halves.

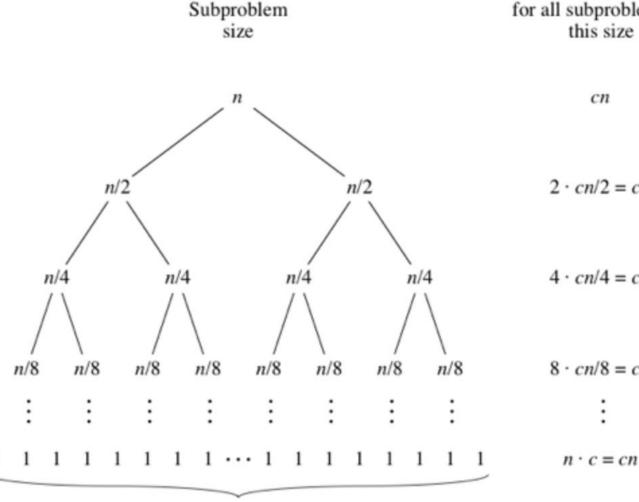
The doubling and halving cancel each other out so the total merging time is *cn* at each level of recursion.



Eventually, we get down to subproblems of size 1 (the base case)

We have to spend $\Theta(1)$ time to sort subarrays of size 1 we have to test whether p < r (left < right) this test takes time but that time is constant/the same every time

How many subarrays of size 1 are there? Since we started with n elements, there must be n base cases. Since each base case takes $\Theta(1)$ time, the base cases take cn time



Total merging time for all subproblems of this size

 $2 \cdot cn/2 = cn$

 $4 \cdot cn/4 = cn$

 $8 \cdot cn/8 = cn$

The total time merging in Merge Sort is the sum of the merging times for all the levels.

If there are Z levels in the tree, then the total merging time is

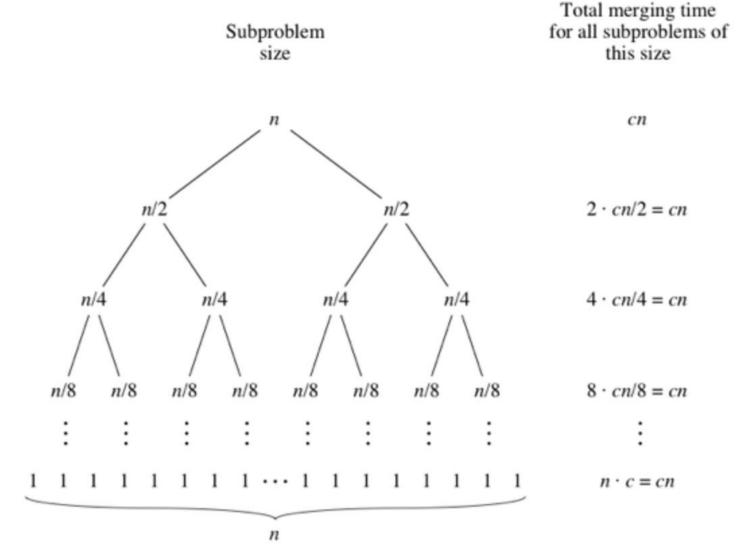
Z * cn

So what is Z?

Does this pattern look familiar?

*cn*log₂n

Analysis of Merge Sort



n	$\log_2 n$
1	0
2	1
4	2
8	3
16	4
32	5
64	6

You could argue that this runtime should be

$$cn\log_2 n + 1$$

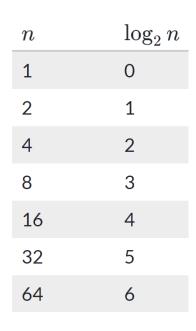
Why + 1?

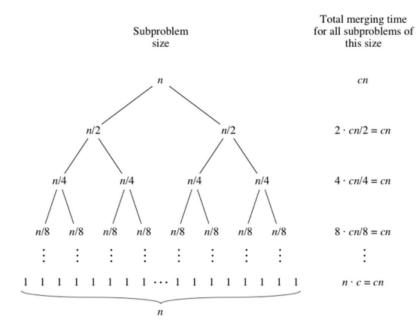
What happens when we have an array of 1 element?

 $cn\log_2 n$ when n = 1 is 0

Does it take 0 time to sort an array of 1 element?

You could argue that it takes some time to check for that 1 element.





So we have calculated that the runtime of Merge Sort to be

 $cn\log_2 n$ or $cn\log_2 n + 1$

Using Θ notation allows us to discard the constant coefficient c and the lower order term (+ 1) if we included it . This gives us a runtime of

 $\Theta(n\log_2 n)$

```
void FunctionR(int Z[], int a, int b)
    if(a > b)
                                         void PrintArray(int A[])
                                            int i = 0;
        PrintArray(Z);
                                            for (i = 0; i < 5; i++)
        Z[a] -= 10;
                                              printf("%d ", A[i]);
                                           printf("\n");
        a--;
        b++;
        FunctionR(Z, a, b);
                                         int main(void)
        PrintArray(Z);
                                            int A[] = \{1032, 687, 648, 765, 981\};
                                            int x = 4, y = 0;
                                           FunctionR(A, x, y);
                                           return 0;
```

```
void FunctionR(int Z[], int a, int b)
{
    if(a > b)
    {
        PrintArray(Z);
        Z[a] -= 10;
        a--;
        b++;
        FunctionR(Z, a, b);
        PrintArray(Z);
    }
}
```

1032 687 648 765 981 1032 687 648 765 971 1032 687 648 755 971 1032 687 648 755 971

0	1	2	3	4
1032	687	648	755	971

main calls Pass 1 with 4 and 0

Pass 1 a = 4 b = 0 Z[a]=Z[4] Pass 2 a = 3 b = 1 Z[a]=Z[3]

Pass 3 a = 2 b = 2

```
void InsertionSort(int A[], int n)
                                         {13,5,6,11,12,0}
    int i, key, j;
                                    j = 1 i = 0
                                                             key = 5
   for (j = 1; j < n; j++)
       key = A[j];
                                     i = 2 i = 1
                                                             key = 6
       i = j - 1;
       while (i \ge 0 \&\& A[i] > key) j = 3
                                             i = 2
                                                             key = 11
           A[i + 1] = A[i];
                                     i = 4
                                           i = 3
                                                             key = 12
           i = i - 1;
       A[i + 1] = key;
                                     i = 5 i = 4
                                                             key = 0
```