### CMP418: Algorithm and Complexity Analysis (3 units)

Lecture 5: Divide and Conquer

MR. M. YUSUF

#### Outline

- Mergesort
- ► Master Theorem
- Quicksort
- ► Hoare Partition
- ► Binary Tree Traversals Related Properties
  - ► Binary Tree Traversal

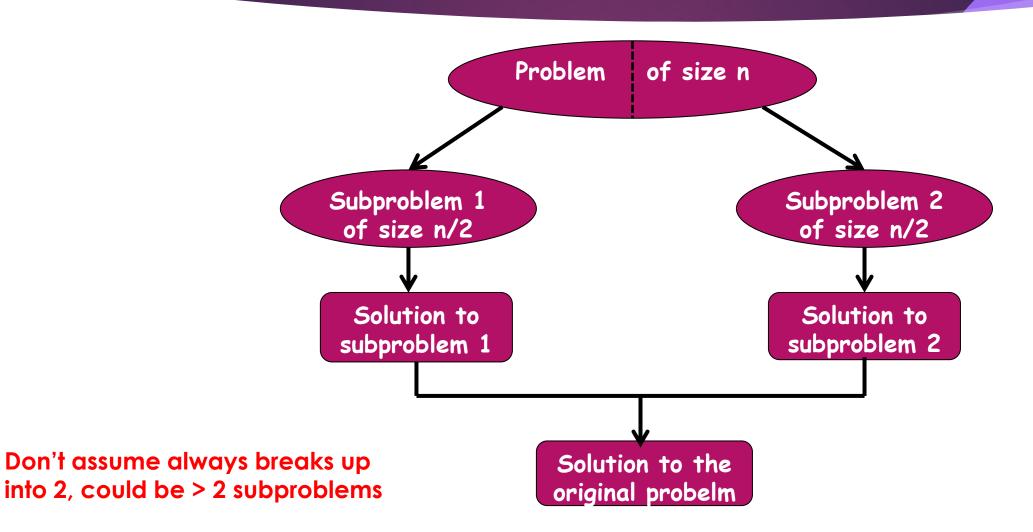
#### What is Divide and Conquer (DnC)?

- ▶ DnC is probably the best-known general algorithm design technique.
- Thus, not every DnC algorithm is necessarily more efficient than even a brute-force solution.
- ► The time spent on executing the DnC plan turns out to be significantly smaller than solving a problem by a different method.
- DnC yields some of the most important and efficient algorithms in computer science.
- ▶ DnC ideally suited for parallel computations, in which each subproblem can be solved simultaneously by its own processor.

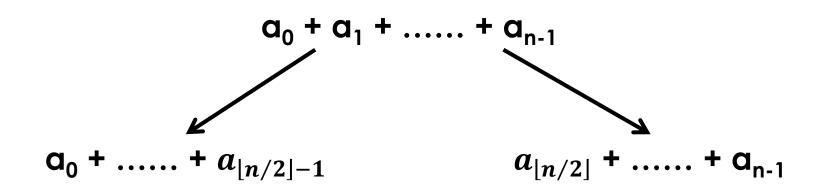
#### How Divide and Conquer Techniques Works

- A problem is divided into several subproblems of the same type, ideally of about equal size.
- The subproblems are solved (typically recursively, though sometimes a different algorithm is employed, especially when subproblems become small enough).
- 3. If necessary, the solutions to the subproblems are combined to get a solution to the original problem.

#### A Typical Case of Divide-and-conquer technique



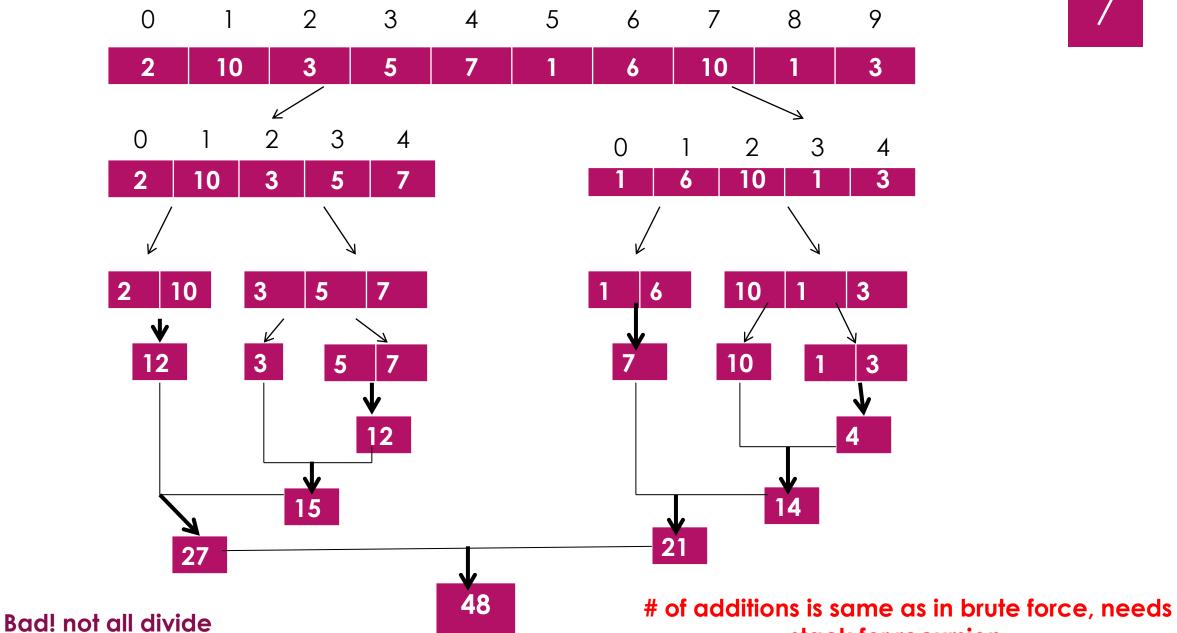
#### Case Study to Add n Numbers



Is it more efficient than brute force?

Let's see with an example

and conquer works!!



stack for recursion...

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#### Using Divide-and-Conquer Recurrence Relation

- ▶ Usually in DnC a problem instance of size n is divided into two instances of size n/2
- More generally, an instance of size n can be divided into b instances of size  $\frac{n}{b}$ , with a of them needing to be solved
- ▶ Assuming that n is a power of b (n = b<sup>m</sup>), we get

 $T(n) = aT(\frac{n}{b}) + f(n)$ 

This the general DnC recurrence Relation

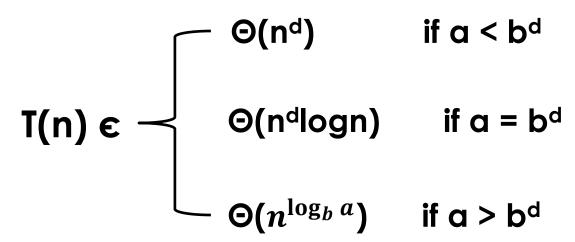
- ► Here, f(n) accounts for the time spent in dividing an instance of size n into subproblems of size  $\frac{n}{b}$  and combining their solution
- For adding n numbers, a = b = 2 and f(n) = 1

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#### Master Theorem

T(n) = 
$$aT(\frac{n}{b})+f(n)$$
,  $a \ge 1$ ,  $b > 1$   
If  $f(n) \in \Theta(n^d)$  where  $d \ge 0$  then



For adding n numbers with divide and conquer technique, the number of additions A(n) is:

$$A(n) = 2A(n/2)+1$$

Here, 
$$a = ?$$
,  $b = ?$ ,  $d = ?$   $a = 2$ ,  $b = 2$ ,  $d = 0$ 

Which of the 3 cases holds? 
$$a = 2 > b^d = 2^0$$
, case 3

So, A(n) 
$$\in \Theta(n^{\log_2 2})$$
  
Or, A(n)  $\in \Theta(n)$ 

#### Master Theorem: Example

```
T(n) = aT(n/b)+f(n), a \ge 1, b > 1
If f(n) \in \Theta(n^d) where d \ge 0, then
T(n) = 2T(n/2) + 6n - 1?
                                                  a = 3, b = 2, f(n) ∈ Θ(n^1), so d = 1
           T(n) = 3 T(n/2) + n
                                                  Case 3: I(n) \in \Theta(n^{\log_2 3}) = \Theta(n^{1.5850})
                a=3 > b^d=2^1
            T(n) = 3 T(n/2) + n^2
                                                 a = 3, b = 2, f(n) \in \Theta(n^2), so d = 2
                a=3 < b^d=2^2
                                                  Case 1: T(n) \in \Theta(n^2)
           T(n) = 4 T(n/2) + n^2
                                                 a = 4, b = 2, f(n) \in \Theta(n^2), so d = 2
                a=4 = b^d=2^2
                                                  Case 2: T(n) \in \Theta(n^2 \lg n)
```

 $T(n) = 64 T(n/8) - n^2 Ign$  f(n) is not positive, doesn't apply

a is not constant, doesn't apply

 $T(n) = 2^n T(n/8) + n$ 

# First Snippet of Mergesort Algorithm

```
ALGORITHM Mergesort(A[0..n-1])

//sorts array A[0..n-1] by recursive mergesort

//Input: A[0..n-1] to be sorted

//Output: Sorted A[0..n-1]

if n > 1

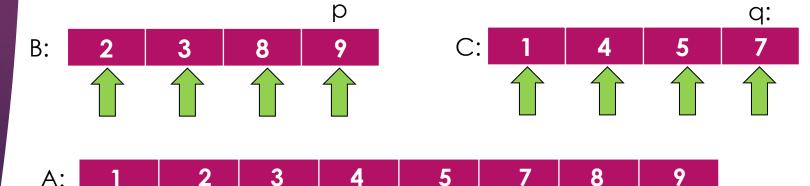
copy A[0..[n/2]-1] to B[0.. [n/2]-1]

copy A[[n/2]..n-1] to C[0..[n/2]-1]

Mergesort(B[0..[n/2]-1])

Mergesort(C[0..[n/2]-1])

Merge(B, C, A)
```



#### Second Snippet of Mergesort Algorithm

```
ALGORITHM Merge(B[0..p-1], C[0..q-1], A[0..p+q-1])
//Merges two sorted arrays into one sorted array
//Input: Arrays B[0..p-1] and C[0..q-1] both sorted
//Output: Sorted array A[0..p+q-1] of elements of B and C
i <- 0; j <- 0; k <- 0;
while i < p and j < q do
    if B[i] ≤ C[j]
         A[k] \leftarrow B[i];
         i < -i+1
     else
         A[k] \leftarrow C[j];
         i < -j+1
     k < -k+1
if i = p
     copy C[i..q-1] to A[k..p+q-1]
else
```

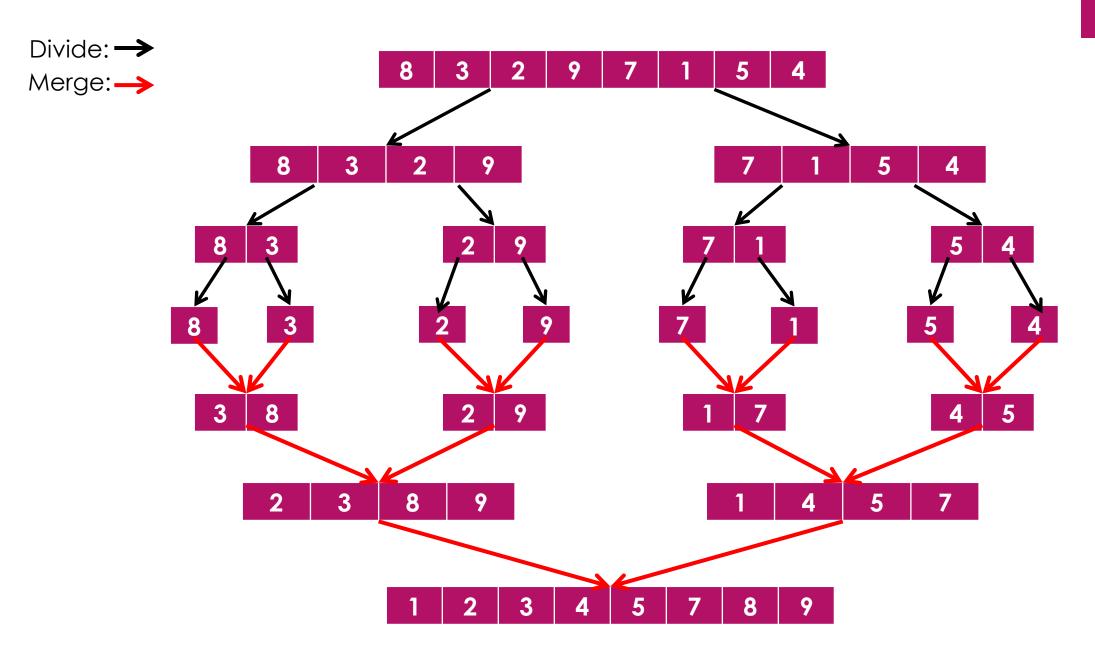
copy B[i..p-1] to A[k..p+q-1]

#### Mergesort Algorithm Comparison.

```
ALGORITHM Mergesort(A[0..n-1])
//sorts array A[0..n-1] by recursive
mergesort
//Input: A[0..n-1] to be sorted
//Output: Sorted A[0..n-1]
if n > a
    copy A[0..\lfloor n/2 \rfloor-1] to B[0..\lfloor n/2 \rfloor-1]
    copy A[\lfloor n/2 \rfloor..n-1] to C[0..[n/2 \rfloor-1]
    Mergesort(B[0..\lfloor n/2 \rfloor-1])
    Mergesort(C[0..[n/2]-1])
    Merge(B, C, A)
```

```
ALGORITHM Merge(B[0..p-1], C[0..q-1], A[0..p+q-1])
//Merges two sorted arrays into one sorted array
//Input: Arrays B[0..p-1] and C[0..q-1] both sorted //Output: Sorted array A[0..p+q-1] of elements of B
//and C
i <- 0; i <- 0; k <- 0;
while i < p and j < q do
     if B[i] \leq C[j]
           A[k] <- B[i]; i <- i+1
     else
          A[k] <- C[i]; i <- i+1
     k < -k+1
if i = p
     copy C[j..q-1] to A[k..p+q-1]
else
     copy B[i..p-1] to A[k..p+q-1]
```

#### Merge Sort Algorithm: Example



#### Summary of Mergesort Algorithm

- ► Worst-case of Mergesort is Θ(nlogn)
- ► Average-case is also ⊕(nlogn)
- It is stable but quicksort and heapsort are not
- Possible improvements
  - ▶ Implement bottom-up. Merge pairs of elements, merge the sorted pairs, so on... (does not require recursion-stack anymore)
  - Could divide into more than two parts, particularly useful for sorting large files that cannot be loaded into main memory at once: this version is called "multiway mergesort"
- ▶ Not in-place, needs linear amount of extra memory
  - ▶ Though we could make it in-place, adds a bit more "complexity" to the algorithm 1/18/2024

#### Exercise

## Attempt question 1, 2 and 6 of exercise 5.1 on page 174

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#### Outline

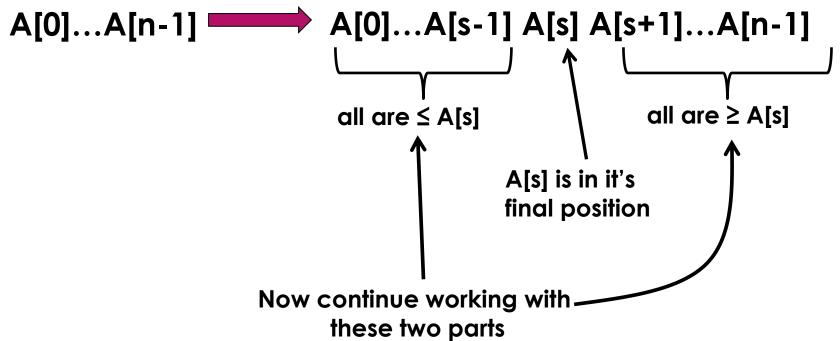
- Mergesort
- Master Theorem
- **▶** Quicksort
- ► Hoare Partition
- ► Binary Tree Traversals Related Properties
  - ► Binary Tree Traversal

#### Quicksort Algorithm

- ▶ A divide and conquer based sorting algorithm, discovered by C. A. R. Hoare (British) in 1960 while trying to sort words for a machine translation project from Russian to English
- ▶ Instead of "Merge" in Mergesort, Quicksort uses the idea of partitioning which we already have seen with "Lomuto Partition"
- ▶ In Mergesort all work is in combining the partial solutions.
- In Quicksort all work is in dividing the problem, Combining does not require much work!



#### How to Quicksort



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#### Quicksort Algorithm...

- As a partition algorithm we could use "Lomuto Partition"
- But we shall use the more sophisticated "Hoare Partition" instead

```
ALGORITHM Quicksort(A[I..r])
//Sorts a subarray by quicksort
//Input: Subarray of A[0..n-1] defined by its
//left and right indices I and r
//Output: Subarray A[I..r] sorted in
nondecreasing
//order
if | < r
   s <- Partition(A[l..r]) // s is a split position
   Quicksort(A[l..s-1])
   Quicksort(A[s+1]..r)
```

We can replace the partition part with any partitioning algorithm like Lomuto Partition or Hoare Partition

#### Outline

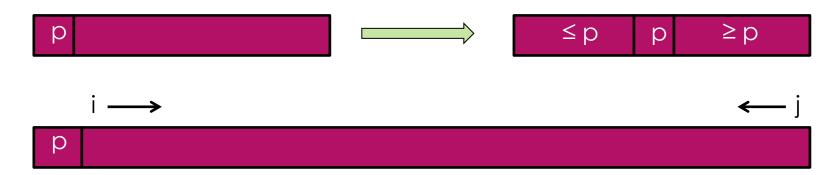
- ➤ Mergesort
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# Quicksort Algorithm: Hoare Partitioning

- When using "Hoare Partition"
- We start by selecting a "pivot"
- There are various strategies to select the pivot,
- we shall use the simplest:
- we shall select pivot, p =A[I], the first element of A[I..r]

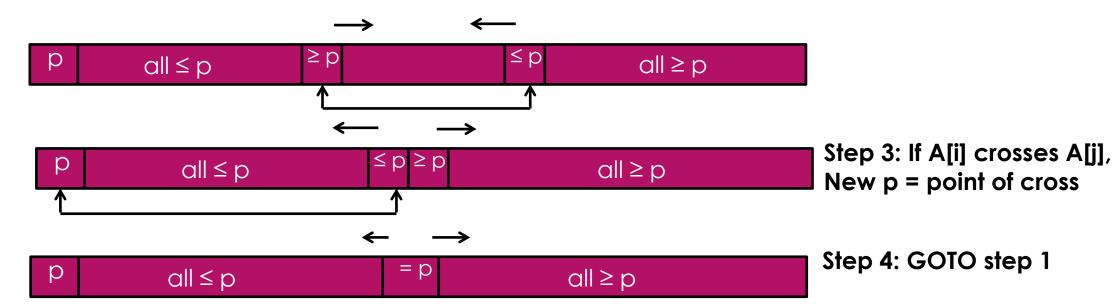
```
ALGORITHM HoarePartition(A[I..r])
//Output: the split position
p <- A[I]
i <- |; | <- r+1
repeat
    repeat i < -i+1 until A[i] \ge p
    repeat | < - | - | until A[j] \le p
    swap( A[i], A[j] )
until i ≥ j
swap(A[i], A[j]) // undo last swap when i≥j
swap( A[I], A[i] )
return i
```

#### How to Sort with Quicksort Algorithm



Step 1: If A[i] < p, we continue incrementing I and move towards RHS, stop when A[i] ≥ p

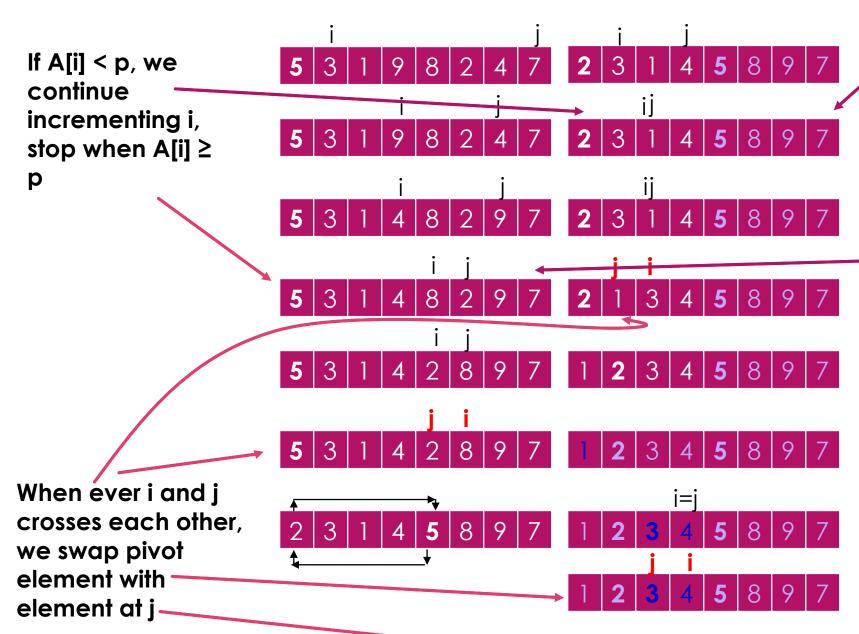
Step 2: If A[j] > p, we continue decrementing j and move towards the LHS, stop when A[j]  $\leq$  p

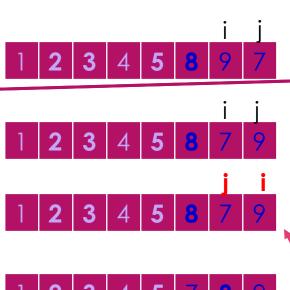


#### Quicksort Example

If A[j] > p, we continue decrementing j, stop when A[j] ≤ p

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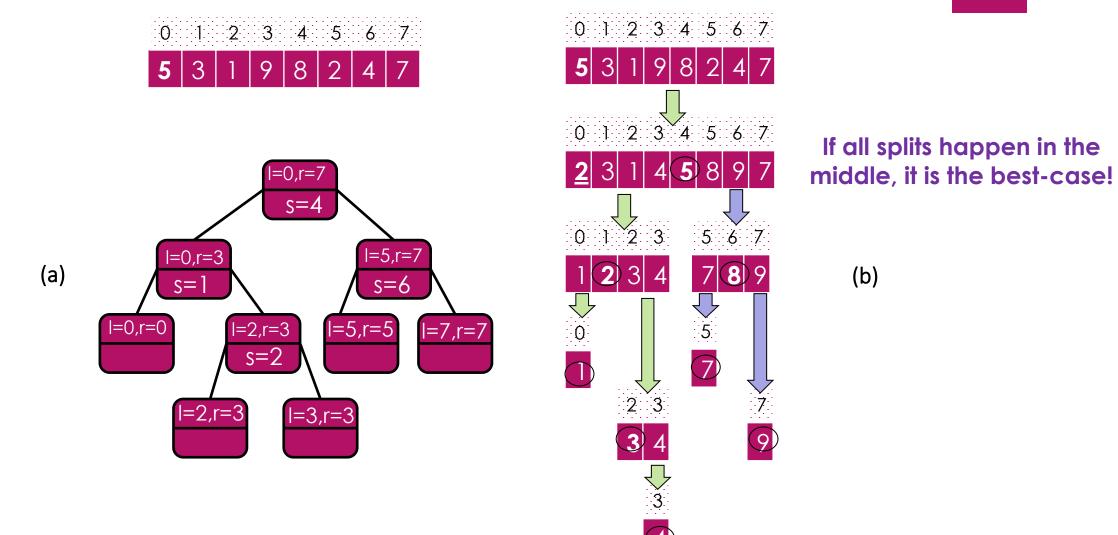
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#### Quicksort Algorithm...

```
ALGORITHM Quicksort(A[l..r])
if I < r
    s <- HoarePartition ( A[l..r] )
    Quicksort( A[l..s-1] )
    Quicksort( A[s+1]..r )</pre>
```

```
ALGORITHM HoarePartition(A[l..r])
//Output: the split position
p <- A[I]
i <- |; i <- r+1
repeat
    repeat i < -i+1 until A[i] \ge p
    repeat j <- j-1 until A[j] \le p
    swap( A[i], A[j] )
until i ≥ j
swap(A[i], A[j]) // undo last swap when i≥j
swap( A[I], A[j] )
return j
```

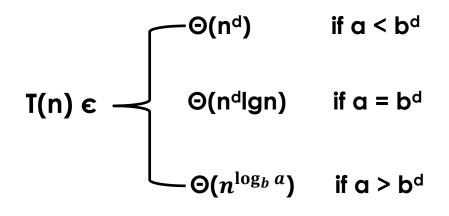
#### Quicksort Operation



- (a) Array's transformations with pivots shown in bold.
- (b) Tree of recursive calls to Quicksort with input values I and r of subarray bounds and split position s of a partition obtained.

#### Solving Quicksort with Master Theorem

$$T(n) = \alpha T(n/b) + f(n), \alpha \ge 1, b > 1$$
  
If  $f(n) \in n^d$  with  $d \ge 0$ , then



```
ALGORITHM Quicksort(A[l..r])

if I < r

s <- Partition(A[l..r])

Quicksort(A[l..s-1])

Quicksort(A[s+1]..r)
```

$$C_{worst}(n) = (n+1) + (n-1+1) + ... + (2+1) = (n+1) + ... + 3$$
  
=  $(n+1) + ... + 3 + 2 + 1 - (2+1) = \sum_{1}^{n+1} i - 3$   
=  $\frac{(n+1)(n+2)}{2} - 3 \in \Theta(n^2)$ !

So, Quicksort's fate depends on its average-case!

### How can we Improve the Performance of Quicksort Algorithm

- ► Recall that for Quicksort, C<sub>best</sub>(n) ≈ nlgn
- Quicksort is usually faster than Mergesort or Heapsort on randomly ordered arrays of nontrivial sizes
- Some possible improvements
  - ▶ Randomized quicksort: selects a random element as pivot
  - ▶ Median-of-three: selects median of left-most, middle, and right-most elements as pivot
  - ▶ Switching to insertion sort on very small subarrays, or not sorting small subarrays at all and finish the algorithm with insertion sort applied to the entire nearly sorted array
  - ▶ Modify partitioning: three-way partition
  - ▶ These improvements can speed up by 20% to 30%
- Weaknesses Not Stable

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Exercise

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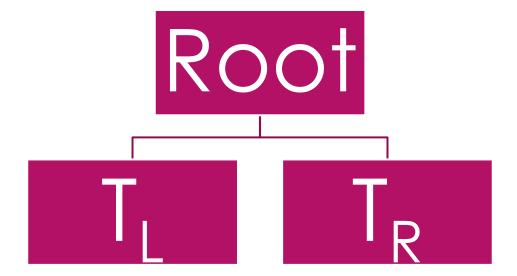
- 1. Attempt question 1, of exercise 5.2 on page 181
- 2. Given that  $T(n) = 2T(\frac{n}{2}) + 1$ , T(1) = 1, Derive the complexity class of the algorithm
- 3. Use master theorem to compute the following
  - a)  $T(n) = 9T(\frac{n}{2}) + 1$ ,
  - b)  $T(n) = 3T(\frac{n}{9}) + n^3$ ,
  - c)  $T(n) = 4T(\frac{n}{2}) + n^2$ ,

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- ▶ Binary Tree Traversals Related Properties
  - ► Binary Tree Traversal

#### Binary Tree Traversals and Related Properties

- ▶ We discuss how the divide-and-conquer technique can be applied to binary trees.
- ▶ A **binary tree T** is defined as a finite set of nodes that is either empty or consists of a **root** and **two disjoint** binary trees  $T_L$  and  $T_R$  called, respectively, the left and right subtree of the root.



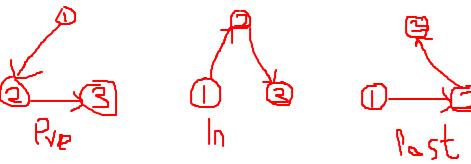
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#### Binary Search Tree

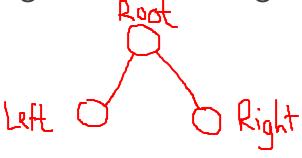
```
ALGORITHM Height(T)
//Compute recursively the height of a binary tree
//Input: A binary tree T
//Output: The height of tree T

If T = 0
    return -1
else
    return max{height(T<sub>left</sub>), Height(T<sub>right</sub>)} + 1
```

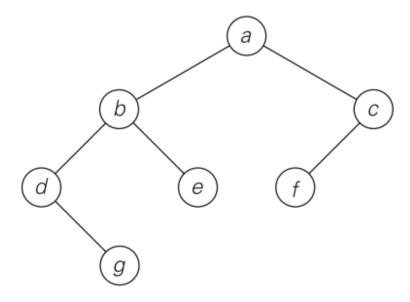
## Divide and Conquer: Binary Search Tree



- ► The most important divide-and-conquer algorithms for binary trees are the three classic traversals namely;
- the preorder traversal, the root is visited before the left and right subtrees are visited
- the inorder traversal, the root is visited after visiting its left subtree but before visiting the right subtree.
- 3. the **postorder** traversal, the root is visited after visiting the left and right subtrees.



## Binary Tree Traversal: Example



preorder: a, b, d, g, e, c, f inorder: d, g, b, e, a, f, c postorder: g, d, e, b, f, c, a

- 1. Attempt question 1, of exercise 5.2 on page 181
- 2. Given that  $T(n) = T(\frac{n}{2}) + 1$ , T(1) = 0, Derive the complexity class of the algorithm

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#### Thank You

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