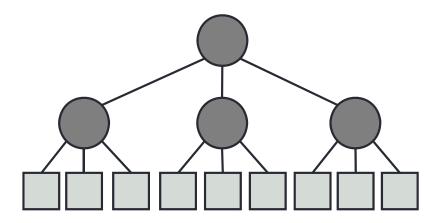


# Lecture 3. Analysis of Recursive Algorithms. Binary Search. Recursive approach

SIT221 Data Structures and Algorithms

# Divide and Conquer Paradigm

- Divide-and conquer is a general algorithm design paradigm:
  - Divide: divide the input data S in two or more disjoint subsets  $S_1, S_2, ...$
  - Recur: solve the sub-problems recursively
  - Conquer: combine the solutions for  $S_1, S_2, ...$  into a solution for S
- The base case for the recursion are sub-problems of constant size
- Analysis can be done using recurrence equation



## Merge Sort: Review

```
Input: sequence S with n elements, comparator C

Output: sequence S sorted according to C

void MergeSort(S, C)

if (Size(S) > 1) {

(S_1, S_2) \leftarrow \text{Partition}(S, n/2)

MergeSort(S_1, C)

MergeSort(S_2, C)

S \leftarrow \text{Merge}(S_1, S_2)
```

Merge Sort on an input sequence S with n elements consists of three steps:

- Divide: partition S into two sequences  $S_1$  and  $S_2$  of about  $\frac{n}{2}$  elements each
- Recur: recursively sort  $S_1$  and  $S_2$
- Conquer: merge  $S_1$  and  $S_2$  into a unique sorted sequence

# **Recurrence Equation Analysis**

- The conquer step of merge-sort consists of merging two sorted sequences, each with n/2 elements, and takes at most  $b \cdot n$  steps for some constant b.
- Likewise, the basis case (n<2) will take at b most steps.
- Let T(n) denote the running time of Merge Sort:

$$T(n) = \begin{cases} b & \text{if } n < 2\\ 2T(n/2) + bn & \text{if } n \ge 2 \end{cases}$$

- We can therefore analyze the running time of Merge Sort by finding a closed form solution to the above equation.
- That is, a solution that has T(n) only on the left-hand side.

#### **Iterative Substitution**

• In the iterative substitution technique, we iteratively apply the recurrence equation to itself and see if we can find a pattern:

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

$$= 2(2T(n/2^{2})) + b(n/2)) + bn$$

$$= 2^{2}T(n/2^{2}) + 2bn$$

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

$$= 2^{4}T(n/2^{4}) + 4bn$$

$$= ...$$

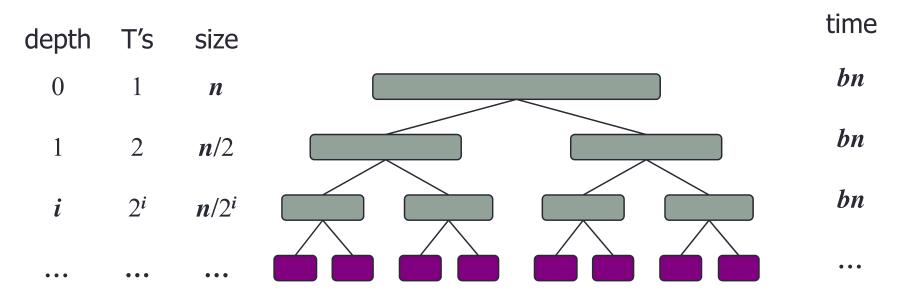
$$= 2^{i}T(n/2^{i}) + ibn$$

- Note that base, T(n) = b, case occurs when  $2^i = n$ . That is,  $i = \log n$ .
- So,  $T(n) = bn + bn \log n$ . Thus, T(n) is  $O(n \log n)$

#### The Recursion Tree

Draw the recursion tree for the recurrence relation and look for a pattern:

$$T(n) = \begin{cases} b & \text{if } n < 2\\ 2T(n/2) + bn & \text{if } n \ge 2 \end{cases}$$



Total time  $T(n) = bn + bn \log n$ 

(last level plus all previous levels)

#### **Guess-and-Test Method**

• Recall the recurrence equation:

$$T(n) = \begin{cases} b & \text{if } n < 2\\ 2T(n/2) + bn \log n & \text{if } n \ge 2 \end{cases}$$

• Guess:  $T(n) < cn \log n$ .

$$T(n) = 2T(n/2) + bn \log n$$

$$= 2(c(n/2)\log(n/2)) + bn \log n$$

$$= cn(\log n - \log 2) + bn \log n$$

$$= cn \log n - cn + bn \log n$$

- Wrong: we cannot make this last line be less than  $cn \log n$ .
- In general, to use this method, you need to have a good guess and you need to be good at induction proofs.

# General Tool for Solving Recursion: Master Theorem

- Solving recursive formulas can be complicated.
- Often requires induction proofs and a good guess about what to prove.
- Would be great to have a general tool for solving standard recursive formulas.
- The master Theorem provides a general way of solving recursion.

#### Master Method

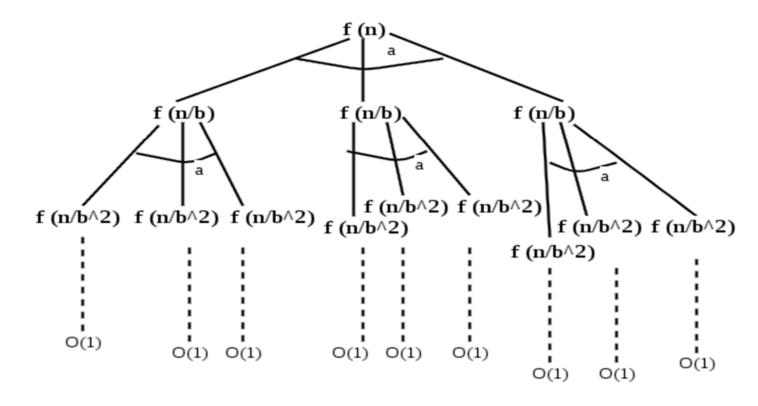
Many divide-and-conquer recurrence equations have the form:

$$T(n) = \begin{cases} c & \text{if } n < d \\ aT(n/b) + f(n) & \text{if } n \ge d \end{cases}$$

#### The Master Theorem:

- 1. If  $f(n) = O(n^k)$ , where  $k < \log_b a$ , then  $T(n) = \Theta(n^{\log_b a})$
- 2. If  $f(n) = \Theta(n^k \log^j n)$ , where  $k = \log_b a$ , then  $T(n) = \Theta(n^k \log^{j+1} n)$
- 3. If  $f(n) = \Omega(n^k)$ , where  $k > \log_b a$ , then  $T(n) = \Theta(f(n))$  provided  $af(n/b) \le \delta f(n)$  for some  $\delta < 1$ .
- -a is the number of sub-problems we have each time
- b defines the size of each sub-problem

#### Master Method: How it works?

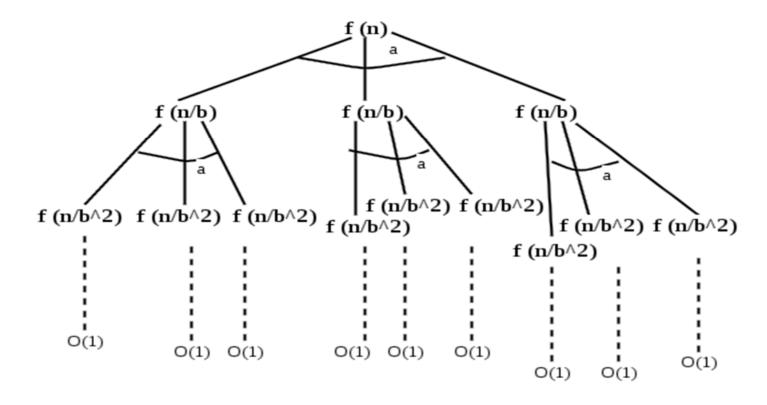


Master method is mainly derived from recurrence tree method.

If we draw recurrence tree of  $T(n) = aT\left(\frac{n}{b}\right) + f(n)$ , we can see that

- the work done at root is f(n)
- work done at all leaves is  $\Theta(n^k)$  where  $k = \log_b a$
- the height of recurrence tree is  $\log_b n$

## Master Method: How it works?



**Case1:** If the work done at leaves is polynomially more, then leaves are the dominant part, and our result becomes the work done at leaves

**Case2:** If work done at leaves and root is asymptotically same, then our result becomes height multiplied by work done at any level.

**Case3:** If work done at root is asymptotically more, then our result becomes work done at root.

### **Master Method**

$$T(n) = \begin{cases} c & \text{if } n < d \\ aT(n/b) + f(n) & \text{if } n \ge d \end{cases}$$

#### The Master Theorem:

- 1. If  $f(n) = O(n^k)$ , where  $k < \log_b a$ , then  $T(n) = \Theta(n^{\log_b a})$
- 2. If  $f(n) = \Theta(n^k \log^j n)$ , where  $k = \log_b a$ , then  $T(n) = \Theta(n^k \log^{j+1} n)$
- 3. If  $f(n) = \Omega(n^k)$ , where  $k > \log_b a$ , then  $T(n) = \Theta(f(n))$
- **Case1:** If the work done at leaves is more, then leaves are the dominant part, and our result becomes the work done at leaves.
- **Case2:** If work done at leaves and root is asymptotically same, then result becomes height multiplied by work done at any level.
- **Case3:** If work done at root is asymptotically more, then our result becomes work done at root.

$$T(n) = \begin{cases} c & \text{if } n < d \\ aT(n/b) + f(n) & \text{if } n \ge d \end{cases}$$

#### The Master Theorem:

1. If 
$$f(n) = O(n^k)$$
, where  $k < \log_b a$ , then  $T(n) = \Theta(n^{\log_b a})$ 

2. If 
$$f(n) = \Theta(n^k \log^j n)$$
, where  $k = \log_b a$ , then  $T(n) = \Theta(n^k \log^{j+1} n)$ 

3. If 
$$f(n) = \Omega(n^k)$$
, where  $k > \log_b a$ , then  $T(n) = \Theta(f(n))$ 

$$T(n) = 4T(n/2) + n$$

Solution:  $\log_b a = \log_2 4 = 2$ , so case 1 says  $T(n) = O(n^2)$ .

$$T(n) = \begin{cases} c & \text{if } n < d \\ aT(n/b) + f(n) & \text{if } n \ge d \end{cases}$$

#### The Master Theorem:

1. If 
$$f(n) = O(n^k)$$
, where  $k < \log_b a$ , then  $T(n) = \Theta(n^{\log_b a})$ 

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, where  $k = \log_b a$ , then  $T(n) = \Theta(n^k \log^{j+1} n)$ 

3. If 
$$f(n) = \Omega(n^k)$$
, where  $k > \log_b a$ , then  $T(n) = \Theta(f(n))$ 

$$T(n) = 2T(n/2) + n\log n$$

Solution:  $\log_b a = \log_2 2 = 1$ , so case 2 says  $T(n) = O(n\log^2 n)$ .

$$T(n) = \begin{cases} c & \text{if } n < d \\ aT(n/b) + f(n) & \text{if } n \ge d \end{cases}$$

#### The Master Theorem:

1. If 
$$f(n) = O(n^k)$$
, where  $k < \log_b a$ , then  $T(n) = \Theta(n^{\log_b a})$ 

2. If 
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3. If 
$$f(n) = \Omega(n^k)$$
, where  $k > \log_b a$ , then  $T(n) = \Theta(f(n))$ 

$$T(n) = T(n/3) + n \log n$$

Solution:  $\log_b a = \log_3 1 = 0$ , so case 3 says  $T(n) = O(n \log n)$ .

$$T(n) = \begin{cases} c & \text{if } n < d \\ aT(n/b) + f(n) & \text{if } n \ge d \end{cases}$$

#### The Master Theorem:

1. If 
$$f(n) = O(n^k)$$
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3. If 
$$f(n) = \Omega(n^k)$$
, where  $k > \log_b a$ , then  $T(n) = \Theta(f(n))$ 

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

Solution:  $\log_b a = \log_2 8 = 3$ , so case 1 says  $T(n) = O(n^3)$ .

$$T(n) = \begin{cases} c & \text{if } n < d \\ aT(n/b) + f(n) & \text{if } n \ge d \end{cases}$$

#### The Master Theorem:

1. If 
$$f(n) = O(n^k)$$
, where  $k < \log_b a$ , then  $T(n) = \Theta(n^{\log_b a})$ 

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$$f(n) = \Theta(n^k \log^j n)$$
, where  $k = \log_b a$ , then  $T(n) = \Theta(n^k \log^{j+1} n)$ 

3. If 
$$f(n) = \Omega(n^k)$$
, where  $k > \log_b a$ , then  $T(n) = \Theta(f(n))$ 

$$T(n) = 9T(n/3) + n^3$$

Solution:  $\log_b a = \log_3 9 = 2$ , so case 3 says  $T(n) = O(n^3)$ .

$$T(n) = \begin{cases} c & \text{if } n < d \\ aT(n/b) + f(n) & \text{if } n \ge d \end{cases}$$

#### The Master Theorem:

1. If 
$$f(n) = O(n^k)$$
, where  $k < \log_b a$ , then  $T(n) = \Theta(n^{\log_b a})$ 

2. If 
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, where  $k = \log_b a$ , then  $T(n) = \Theta(n^k \log^{j+1} n)$ 

3. If 
$$f(n) = \Omega(n^k)$$
, where  $k > \log_b a$ , then  $T(n) = \Theta(f(n))$ 

$$T(n) = 2T(n/2) + \log n$$
 (heap construction)

Solution:  $\log_b a = \log_2 2 = 1$ , so case 1 says T(n) = O(n).

# **Correctness of Algorithms**

# We want to have algorithms that are correct and efficient

Correctness has highest priority.

You want to be sure that your program does what you want.

#### **Invariants**

- Invariants are a powerful tool to show correctness of an algorithm/program.
- An invariant is a property of an algorithm that holds during the execution of the program.

Define: Preconditions, Invariants, and Postconditions

- It is often used to show correctness of loops.
- Often it is non-trivial to find an invariant.

# Invariants: Example

Consider the following while loop

```
int x = 10;
while ( x < 20 ) {
     x = x + 1;
}</pre>
```

Precondition: Before entering the while-loop x < 20 holds.

Invariant: During the execution of the while-loop  $x \le 20$  holds.

Postcondition: After execution of the while-loop  $x \leq 20$ ,

but not x < 20 holds.

This implies that x = 20 holds.

# **Binary Search**

- There is a strategy you can use to limit the number of guesses that you have to make.
- It only works if the array of elements where you are searching for an item is sorted.
- It is an example of Divide and Conquer.

## Binary Search: Let's play a game

 $a = \{1, ..., 15\}$  consists of all integers from 1, ..., 15.

Player 1 picks a secret number x of a.

Player 2 has to guess x querying in each step a number y.

## Answer of Player 1 is either

- found if x = y
- x is greater than y
- x is smaller than y

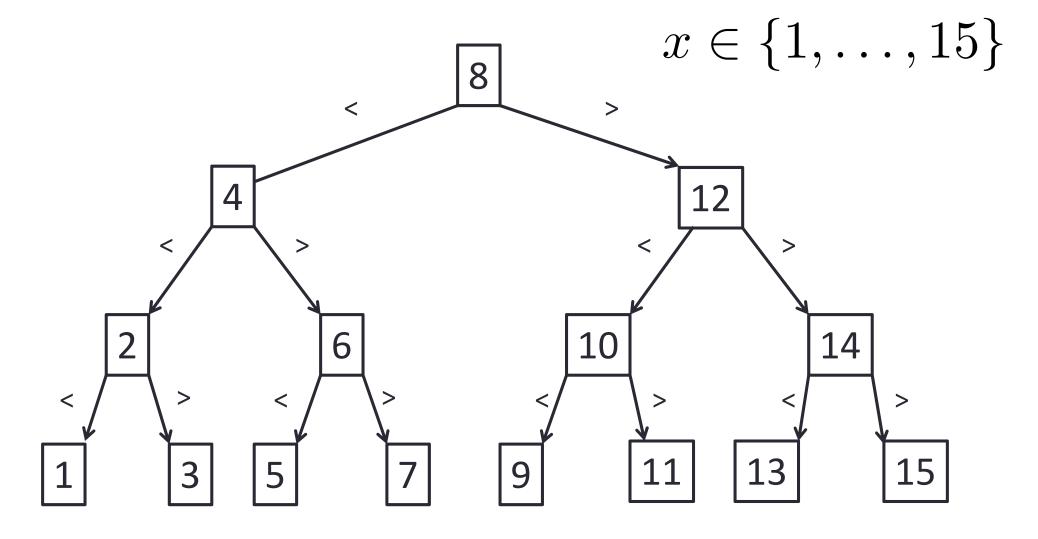
## If you are Player 2:

What is your strategy to use the smallest number of queries to reveal x?

# Binary Search: Strategy

- 1. Start with a sorted list
- 2. Find the midpoint of the part your are searching
- 3. Compare our search value to the midpoint
  - if the midpoint is our search value we stop!
  - if our number is smaller we now only look between the start of the list and this point
  - if our number is bigger we now only look between this point and the end of the list.
- 4. If the part we are searching is not empty, go back to step 2
- 5. If the part we are searching is empty, the value is not in the list

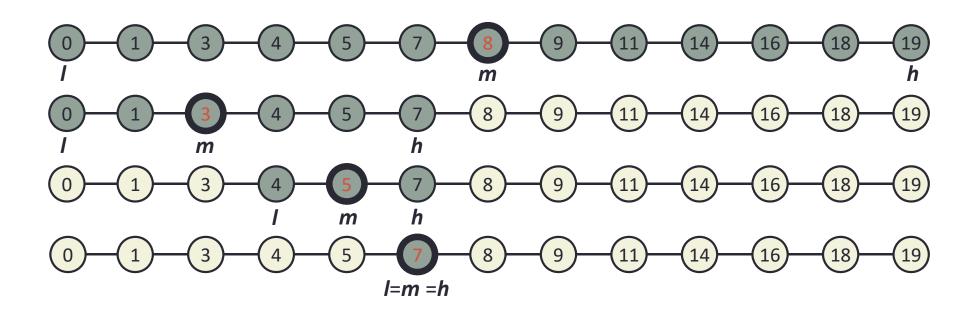
## Binary Search: Example



At most 3 comparisons to determine x

# Binary Search: Example

Binary search can perform operation find(k) on an array-based sequence, sorted by key, in O(log n) steps



Example: find(7)

# Binary Search: Problem Statement

• Given: A sorted array a[1 ... n] of pairwise distinct elements, i.e.

$$a[1] < a[2] < \cdots < a[n]$$
, and an element  $x$ 

$$a[0] = -\infty$$
 and  $a[n+1] = \infty$ 

• Find: Index i such that  $a[i-1] < x \le a[i]$ 

# Binary Search: Procedure

- Choose index  $m \in [1 ... n]$
- Compare x with a[m]
- If x = a[m] we are done
- If x < a[m], search in the part of the array before a[m].
- If x > a[m], search in the part of the array after a[m].

# Binary Search: Implementation

- Use two indices l and r.
- Maintain the invariant

(I) 
$$0 \le l < r \le n + 1$$
 and  $a[l] < x < a[r]$ 

- Start with l=0 and r=n+1.
- Choose m in the middle of the interval defined by l and r.
- If  $x \neq a[m]$ , change l or r accordingly.
- If l and r are consecutive indices then x is not contained in the array.

# Binary Search: Pseudocode

Choose the middle of the current interval

# Binary Search: Invariant Part 1

$$0 \le l < r \le n+1$$

- Loop is entered with  $0 \le l < r \le n+1$
- If l+1=r, we stop. Otherwise,  $l+2 \le r$  and hence l < m < r. Implies that m is a legal array index
- If x = a[m], we stop. Otherwise we set either r = m or l = m and hence  $0 \le l < r \le n+1$  at the end of the loop.

## Binary Search: Invariant Part 2

- Loop is entered with a[l] < x < a[r]
- If l+1=r, we stop. Otherwise,  $l+2 \le r$  and hence l < m < r.
- If x = a[m], we stop.
- If x < a[m], we set r = m which implies a[l] < x < a[r] at the end of the loop.
- If x > a[m], we set l = m which implies a[l] < x < a[r] at the end of the loop.

## **Binary Search: Termination**

- If an iteration is not the last one, we either increase l or decrease r.
- Hence r l decreases.
- Implies that the search terminates.

## Binary Search: Runtime Complexity

$$T(n) = \begin{cases} c & \text{if } n < d \\ aT(n/b) + f(n) & \text{if } n \ge d \end{cases}$$

#### The Master Theorem:

1. If 
$$f(n) = O(n^k)$$
, where  $k < \log_b a$ , then  $T(n) = \Theta(n^{\log_b a})$ 

2. If 
$$f(n) = \Theta(n^k \log^j n)$$
, where  $k = \log_b a$ , then  $T(n) = \Theta(n^k \log^{j+1} n)$ 

3. If 
$$f(n) = \Omega(n^k)$$
, where  $k > \log_b a$ , then  $T(n) = \Theta(f(n))$ 

Recurrence formula for binary search:

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

Solution:  $\log_b a = \log_2 1 = 0$ , so case 2 says  $T(n) = O(\log n)$ .

# Binary Search: Program

```
1. // return the position of value in the array A or -1 if it is not present
2. int binary search(int A[], int length, int value)
3. {
      // work out the first and last array indexes to search
4.
      int imin = 0 ; int imax = length - 1;
      // search while [imin,imax] is not empty
                                                   // Why isn't this a for loop?
      while (imax >= imin)
8 .
          // calculate the midpoint using integer division
9.
           int midpt = (imin + imax) / 2;
10.
           if(A[midpt] == value)
11.
12.
               return midpt; // We found it!
13.
14.
           // Now have to deal with subarrays.
15.
           if (A[midpt] < value)</pre>
16.
17.
               imin = midpt + 1; // change min index to search upper subarray
18.
            else
19.
20.
               imax = midpt - 1; // change max index to search lower subarray
21.
22.
23.
      // value was not found - why does this work?
24.
      return -1;
25.
26.}
```

# Thinking recursively

Finding the recursive structure of the problem is the hard part.

#### Common patterns:

- divide in half, solve one half
- divide in sub-problems, solve each sub-problem recursively, "merge"
- solve one or several problems of size n-1
- process first element, recurse on the remaining problem

#### Recursion

- functional: function computes and returns result
- procedural: no return result (function returns void)
   The task is accomplished during the recursive calls.

#### Recursion

- exhaustive
- non-exhaustive: stops early

# Recursive algorithm: Template

#### To solve a problem recursively

- break into smaller problems;
- solve sub-problems recursively;
- assemble sub-solutions.

```
recursive-algorithm(input) {
// base case
if (isSmallEnough(input))
   compute the solution and return it
else
// recursive case
   break input into simpler instances input1, input 2,...
   solution1 = recursive-algorithm(input1)
   solution2 = recursive-algorithm(input2)
   . . .
   figure out solution to this problem from solution1, solution2,...
   return solution
```

**Problem:** you have a 2-dimensional grid of cells, each of which may be filled or empty. Filled cells that are connected

form a "blob" (for lack of a better word).

**Objective:** Write a recursive method that returns the size of the blob containing a specified cell (i,j).

	0	1	2	3	4
0				x	x
1				x	
2	x	X			
3	x	X	x		x
4	х	Х	M.		х

BlobCount(0,3) = 3

BlobCount(0,4) = 3

BlobCount(3,4) = 2

BlobCount(4,0) = 7

**Solution:** essentially you need to check the current cell, its neighbours, the neighbours of its neighbours, and so on.

#### When calling BlobCheck(i,j)

- (i,j) may be outside of grid
- (i,j) may be EMPTY
- (i,j) may be FILLED

When you write a recursive method, always start from the base case Given a call to BlobCkeck(i,j): when is there no need for recursion, and the function can return the answer immediately?

```
blobCheck(i, j):
   if (i,j) is FILLED
                             -> add 1 (for the current cell)
                             -> count its 8 neighbours
// first check base cases
if (outsideGrid(i,j)) return 0;
if (grid[i][j] != FILLED) return 0;
blob counter = 1;
for (1 = -1; 1 \le 1; 1++)
   for (k = -1; k \le 1; k++)
       // skip of middle cell
       if (l==0 \&\& k==0) continue;
       // count neighbours that are FILLED
       if (grid[i+1][j+k] == FILLED) blob counter ++;
```

#### Does this work?

```
blobCheck(i, j):
   if (i,j) is FILLED
                             -> add 1 (for the current cell)
                             -> count its 8 neighbours
// first check base cases
if (outsideGrid(i,j)) return 0;
if (grid[i][j] != FILLED) return 0;
blob counter = 1;
for (1 = -1; 1 \le 1; 1++)
   for (k = -1; k \le 1; k++)
       // skip of middle cell
       if (1==0 \&\& k==0) continue;
       // count neighbors that are FILLED
       if (grid[i+1][j+k] == FILLED) blob counter ++;
```

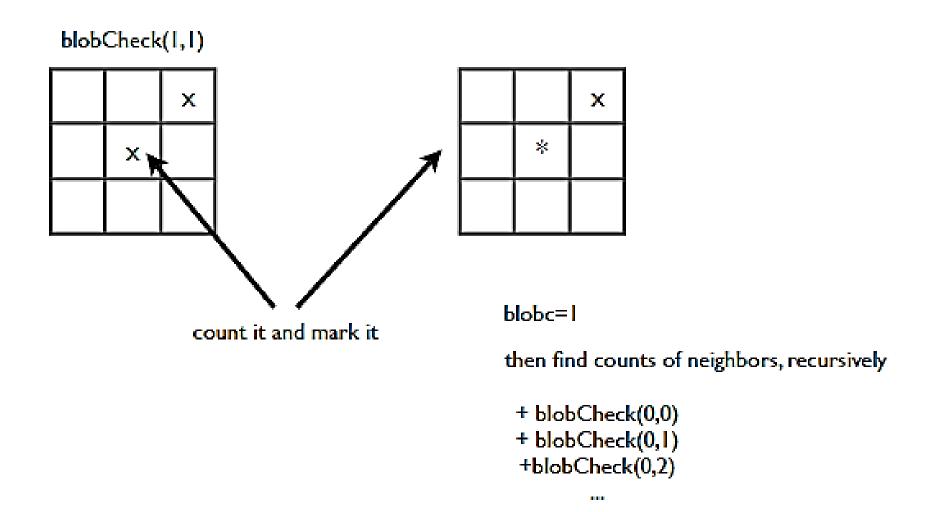
- It does not count the neighbours of the neighbours, and their neighbours, and so on.
- Instead of adding +1 for each neighbour that is filled, need to count its blob recursively.

#### Does this work?

```
blobCheck(i, j):
   if (i,j) is FILLED -> add 1 (for the current cell)
                          -> count blobs of its 8 neighbours
// first check base cases
if (outsideGrid(i,j)) return 0;
if (grid[i][j] != FILLED) return 0;
blob counter = 1
for (1 = -1; 1 \le 1; 1++)
   for (k = -1; k \le 1; k++)
       if (l==0 && k==0) continue; // skip of middle cell
      blob counter += blobCheck(i+k, j+l);
  Example: blobCheck(1,1)
    blobCount(1,1) calls blobCount(0,2)
    blobCount(0,2) calls blobCount(1,1)
```

• Problem: infinite recursion because of the multiple counting of the same cell.

**Idea:** once you count a cell, mark it so that it is not counted again by its neighbours.



- blobCheck(i,j) works correctly if the cell (i,j) is not filled
- blobCheck(i,j) works correctly if the cell (i,j) is filled
  - mark the cell
  - the blob of this cell is 1 plus the blobCheck of all neighbours
  - because the cell is marked, the neighbours will not see it as FILLEDa cell is counted only once

#### Why does this stop?

- blobCheck(i,j) will generate recursive calls to neighbours
- recursive calls are generated only if the cell is FILLED
- when a cell is marked, it is NOT FILLED anymore,
   so the size of the blob of filled cells is one smaller
  - => the blob when calling blobCheck(neighbor of i,j) is smaller that blobCheck(i,j)

## Summary

- Divide and conquer is an important concept in algorithmics.
- Master theorem is a general tool for solving standard recursive formulas.
- Invariants are an important tool to show correctness of algorithms/programs.
- Binary Search is effective to locate elements in a sorted array.
  - Algorithm maintains two invariants.
  - It halves the problem size in each iteration.
  - This implies  $O(\log n)$  comparisons.

# Other references and things to do

- Have a look at the attached references in CloudDeakin.
- Read chapters 4.4, 12.1.3-12.1.4, and 5.1.3 in Data Structures and Algorithms in Java. Michael T. Goodrich, Irvine Roberto Tamassia, and Michael H. Goldwasser, 2014.