

# **COMMONWEALTH OF AUSTRALIA**

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# COMP2823

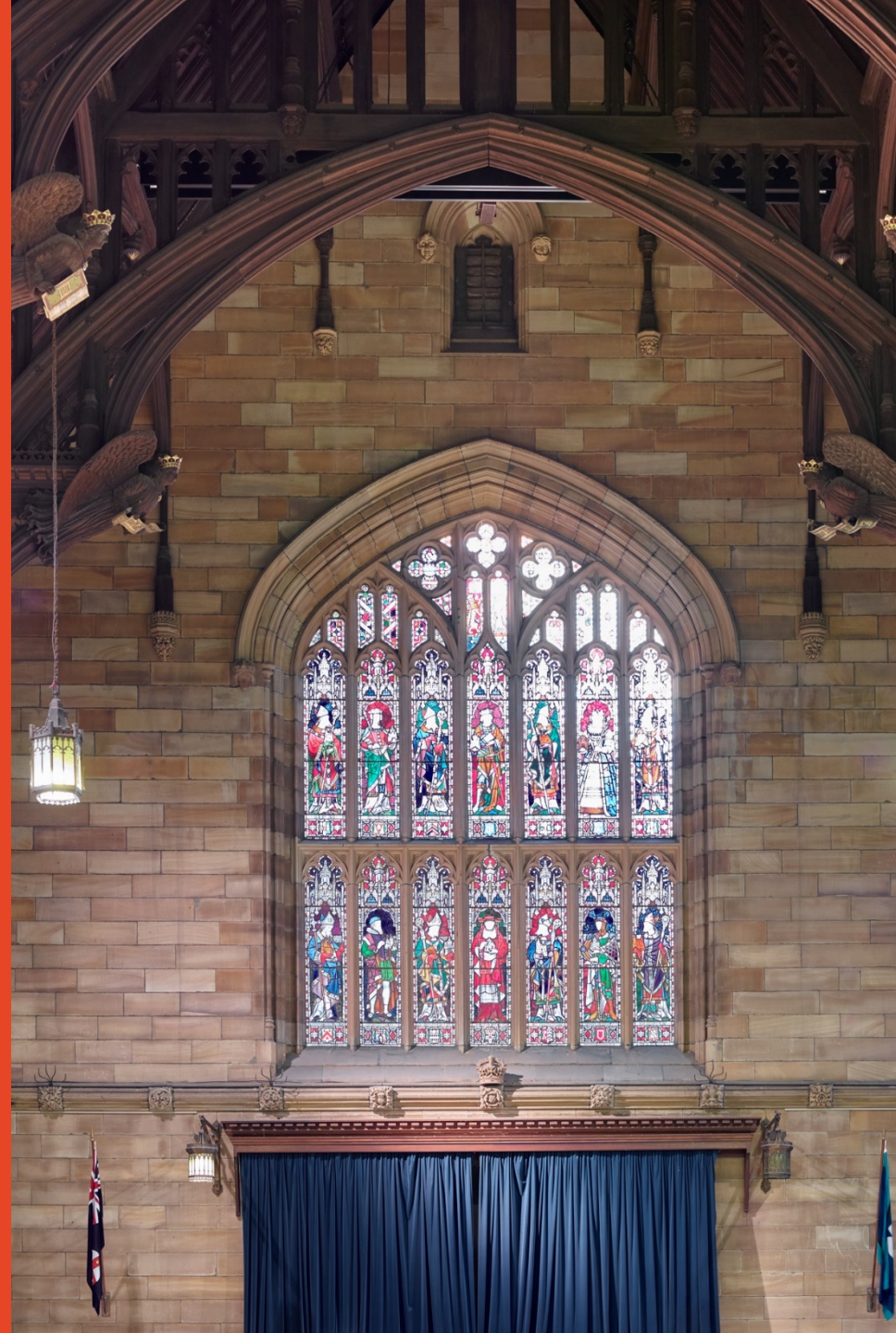
## Lecture 10: Divide and Conquer [GT 3.1 and 8]

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provided by the textbook publisher Wiley.*



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# Divide and Conquer

**Divide and Conquer algorithms** can normally be broken into these three parts:

1. **Divide** If it is a base case, solve directly, otherwise break up the problem into several parts.
2. **Recur/Delegate** Recursively solve each part [each sub-problem].
3. **Conquer** Combine the solutions of each part into the overall solution.

# Divide and Conquer

1. **Divide** If it is a base case, solve directly, otherwise break up the problem into several parts.

Typical base case:

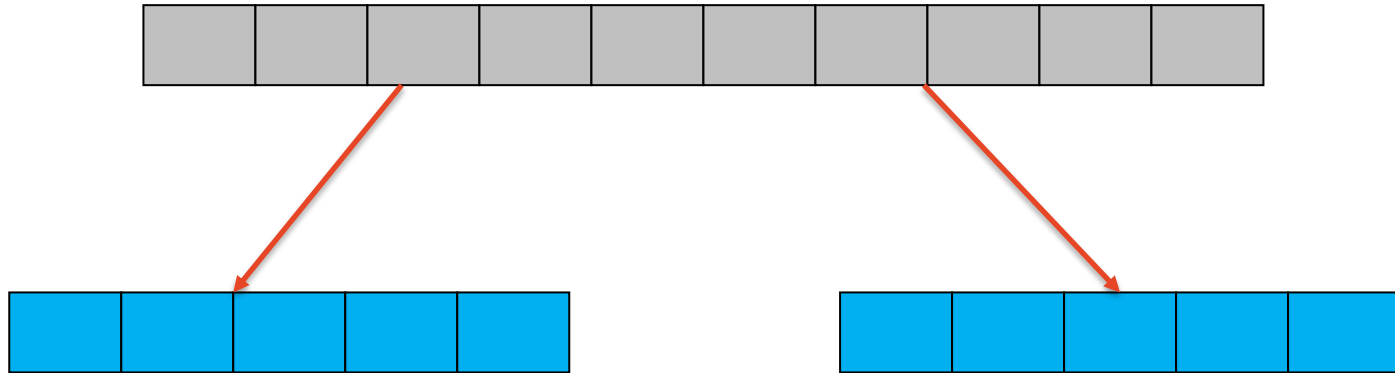
Subproblem of constant size (usually 0 or 1 elements) for which you can compute the solution explicitly



easy to compute solution

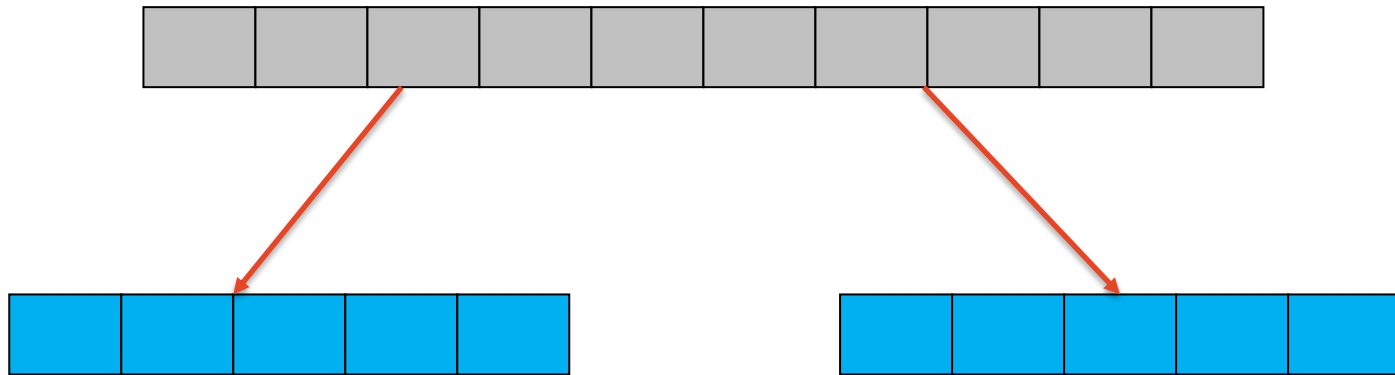
# Divide and Conquer

1. **Divide** If it is a base case, solve directly, otherwise break up the problem into several parts.



# Divide and Conquer

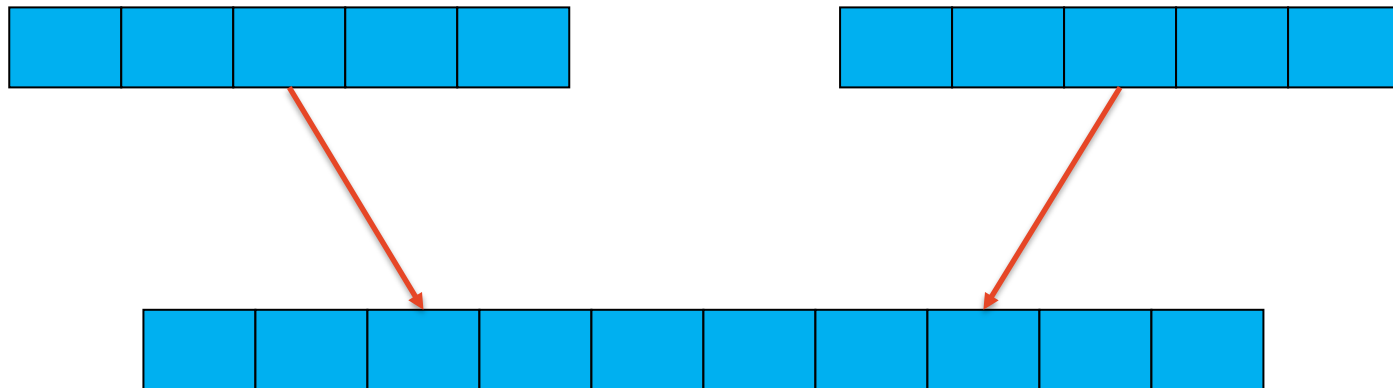
2. **Recur/Delegate** Recursively solve each part [each sub-problem].



The sub-problems are solved by the Recursion Fairy (similar to induction hypothesis), so we don't have to worry about them.

# Divide and Conquer

3. **Conquer** Combine the solutions of each part into the overall solution.



# Searching Sorted Array

**Given** A sorted sequence  $S$  of  $n$  numbers  $a_0, a_1, \dots, a_{n-1}$  stored in an array  $A[0, 1, \dots, n - 1]$ .

**Problem** Given a number  $x$ , is  $x$  in  $S$ ?

0	2	5	7	12	22	25	37	39	50	55	80
---	---	---	---	----	----	----	----	----	----	----	----



# Searching: Naïve Approach

**Problem** Given a number  $x$ , is  $x$  in  $S$ ?

**Idea** Check every element in turn to see if it is equal to  $x$ .

```
for e in S do
  if e equals x then
    return "Yes"
return "No"
```

Found an element equal to  $x$  in  $S$

There was no element equal to  $x$  in  $S$

0	2	5	7	12	22	25	37	39	50	55	80
---	---	---	---	----	----	----	----	----	----	----	----

**Running Time**  $O(n)$

## Binary Search in sorted $A[0 \text{ to } n-1]$

1. If the array is empty, then return “No”
2. Compare  $x$  to the middle element, namely  $A[\lfloor n/2 \rfloor]$
3. If this middle element is  $x$ , then return “Yes”
4. When the middle element is not  $x$ : if  $A[\lfloor n/2 \rfloor] > x$ , then recursively search  $A[0:\lfloor n/2 \rfloor]$
5. if  $A[\lfloor n/2 \rfloor] < x$ , then recursively search  $A[\lfloor n/2 \rfloor + 1:n]$

0	2	5	7	12	22	25	37	39	50	55	80
---	---	---	---	----	----	----	----	----	----	----	----

Heads up: pseudocode textbook uses indexing from 1 to  $n$ , not 0 to  $n-1$

# Binary Search

- Example, search for  $x=5$

0	2	5	7	12	22	25	37	39	50	55	80
---	---	---	---	----	----	----	----	----	----	----	----

# Binary Search

- Example, search for  $x=5$

0	2	5	7	12	22	25	37	39	50	55	80
---	---	---	---	----	----	----	----	----	----	----	----

A[6]

# Binary Search

- Example, search for  $x=5$

0	2	5	7	12	22	25	37	39	50	55	80
---	---	---	---	----	----	----	----	----	----	----	----

$$A[6] = 25 > 5 = x$$

# Binary Search

- Example, search for  $x=5$

0	2	5	7	12	22
---	---	---	---	----	----

A[3]

<del>25</del>	37	39	50	55	80
---------------	----	----	----	----	----

# Binary Search

- Example, search for  $x=5$

0	2	5	7	12	22
---	---	---	---	----	----

<del>25</del>	37	39	50	55	80
---------------	----	----	----	----	----

$$A[3] = 7 > 5 = x$$

# Binary Search

- Example, search for  $x=5$

0	2	5
---	---	---

A[1]

<del>7</del>	12	22	<del>25</del>	37	39	50	55	80
--------------	----	----	---------------	----	----	----	----	----



# Binary Search

- Example, search for  $x=5$

0	2	5	<del>7</del>	12	22	<del>25</del>	37	39	50	55	80
---	---	---	--------------	----	----	---------------	----	----	----	----	----

$$A[1] = 2 < 5 = x$$

# Binary Search

- Example, search for  $x=5$



A[2]

# Binary search correctness

Invariant: If  $x$  is in  $A$  before the divide step, then  $x$  is in  $A$  after the divide step

- if  $A[\lfloor n/2 \rfloor] > x$ , then  $x$  must be in  $A[0: \lfloor n/2 \rfloor]$
- if  $A[\lfloor n/2 \rfloor] < x$ , then  $x$  must be in  $A[\lfloor n/2 \rfloor + 1: n]$

Every divide step leads to a smaller array.

Thus, if  $x$  in  $A$ , we will eventually inspect its position due to the invariant and return “Yes”.

Thus, if  $x$  is not in  $A$ , then eventually we reach the empty array and return “No”.

# Recurrence formula

An easy way to analyze the time complexity of a divide-and-conquer algorithm is to define and solve a recurrence

Let  $T(n)$  be the running time of the algorithm, we need to find out:

- Divide step cost in terms of  $n$
- Recur step(s) cost in terms of  $T(\text{smaller values})$
- Conquer step cost in terms of  $n$

Together with information about the base case, we can set up a recurrence for  $T(n)$  and then solve it.

$$T(n) = \begin{cases} \text{“Recur”} + \text{“Divide and Conquer”} & \text{for } n > 1 \\ \text{“Base case” (typically } O(1)) & \text{for } n = 1 \end{cases}$$

# Binary search on an array complexity analysis

**Divide step** (find middle and compare to x) takes  $O(1)$

**Recur step** (solve left or right subproblem) takes  $T(n/2)$

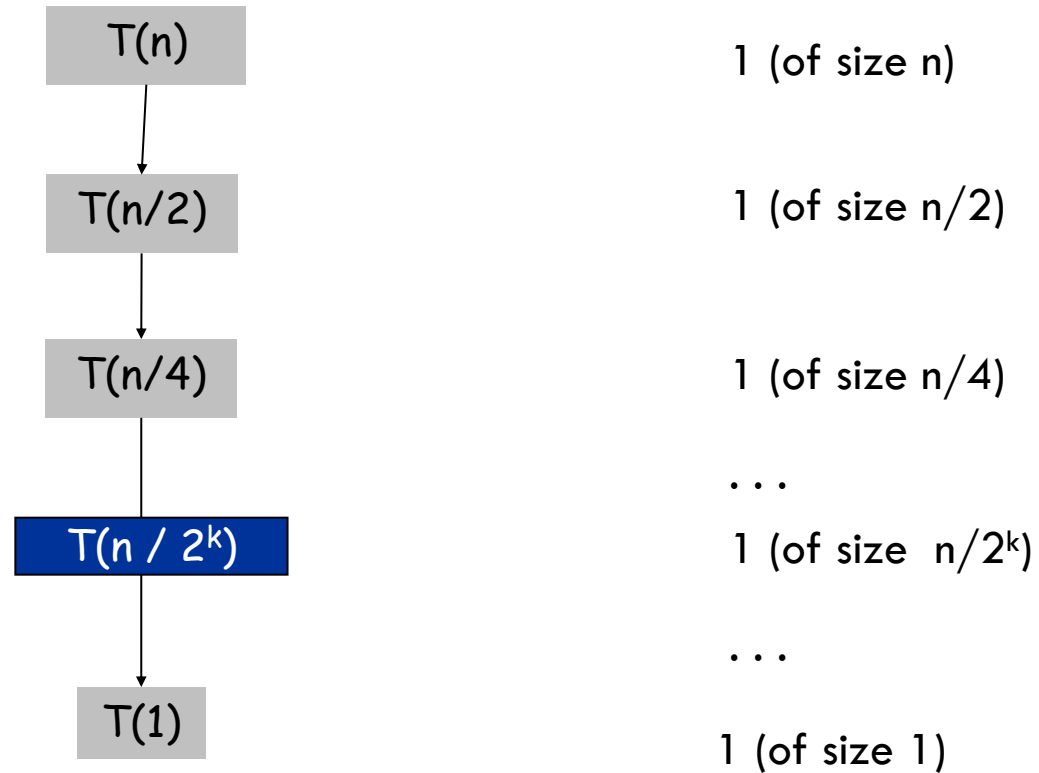
**Conquer step** (return answer from recursion) takes  $O(1)$

Now we can set up the recurrence for  $T(n)$ :

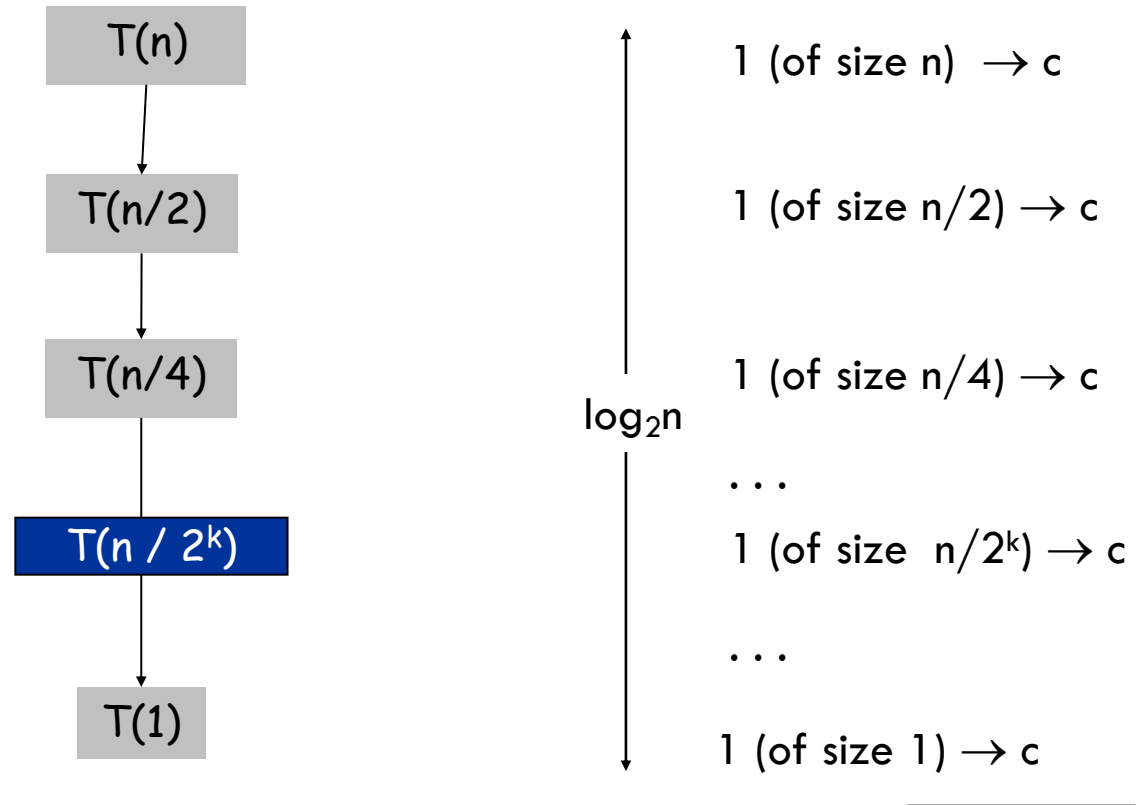
$$T(n) = \begin{cases} T(n/2) + O(1) & \text{for } n > 1 \\ O(1) & \text{for } n = 1 \end{cases}$$

This solves to  $T(n) = O(\log n)$ , since we can only halve the input  $O(\log n)$  times before reaching a base case

# Proof by unrolling



# Proof by unrolling



# Binary search on a linked list complexity analysis

**Divide step** (find middle and compare to x) takes  $O(n)$

**Recur step** (solve left or right subproblem) takes  $T(n/2)$

**Conquer step** (return answer from recursion) takes  $O(1)$

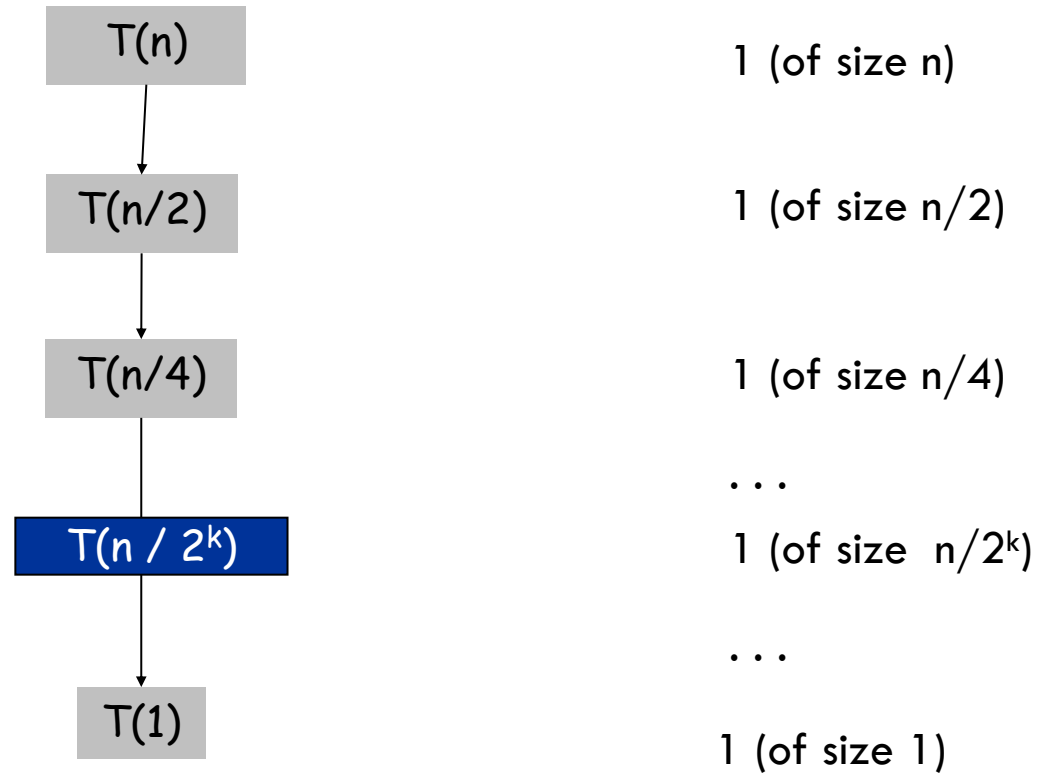
Now we can set up the recurrence for  $T(n)$ :

$$T(n) = \begin{cases} T(n/2) + O(n) & \text{for } n > 1 \\ O(1) & \text{for } n = 1 \end{cases}$$

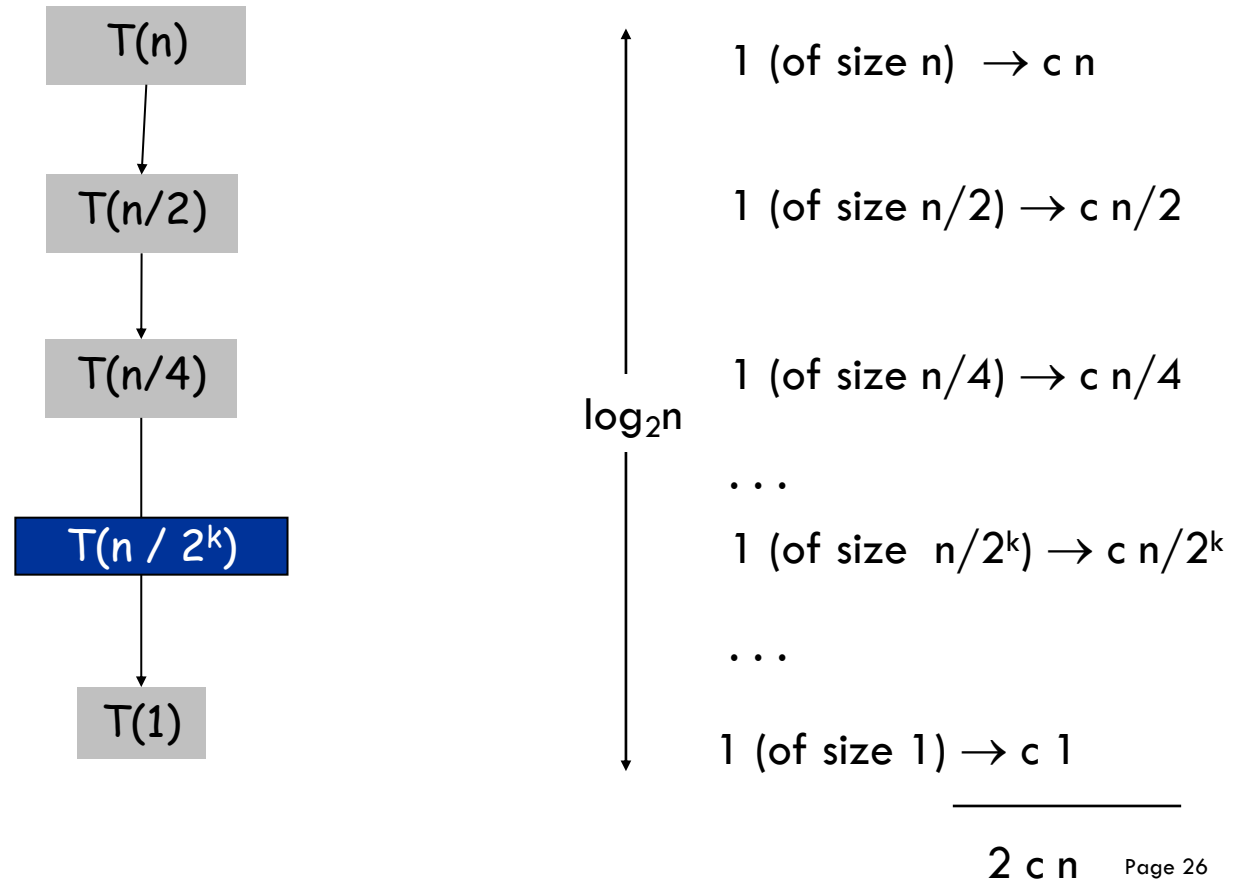
This solves to  $T(n) = O(n)$ , since to access the next index we end up with  $n/2 + n/4 + n/8 + \dots$



# Proof by unrolling



# Proof by unrolling



# Merge-Sort

1. **Divide** the array into two halves.
2. **Recur** recursively sort each half.
3. **Conquer** two sorted halves to make a single sorted array.

1	12	5	16	19	7	23	6	13	20
---	----	---	----	----	---	----	---	----	----

1	12	5	16	19
---	----	---	----	----

7	23	6	13	20
---	----	---	----	----

**Divide**

1	5	12	16	19
---	---	----	----	----

6	7	13	20	23
---	---	----	----	----

**Recur**

1	5	6	7	12	13	16	19	20	23
---	---	---	---	----	----	----	----	----	----

**Conquer**

# Merge-Sort pseudocode

```
def merge_sort(S):  
    # base case  
    if |S| < 2 then  
        return S  
  
    # divide  
    mid ← ⌊|S|/2⌋  
    left ← S[:mid]      # doesn't include S[mid]  
    right ← S[mid:]     # includes S[mid]  
  
    # recur  
    sorted_left ← merge_sort(left)  
    sorted_right ← merge_sort(right)  
  
    # conquer  
    return merge(sorted_left, sorted_right)
```

How?

# Merge

**Input** Two sorted lists.

**Output** A new merged sorted list.

To merge, we use:

- $O(n)$  comparisons.
- An array to store our results.



**Result:**

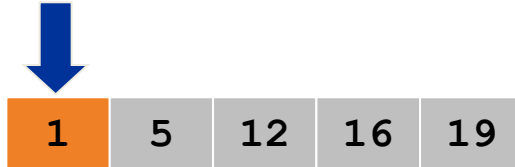


# Merge

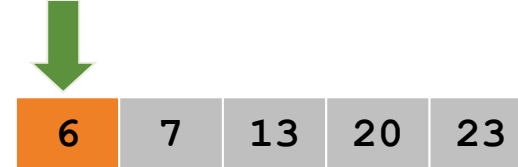
## Merge Algorithm

- Keep track of smallest element in each sorted half.
- Insert smallest of two elements into the resultant array.
- Repeat until done.

smallest



smallest



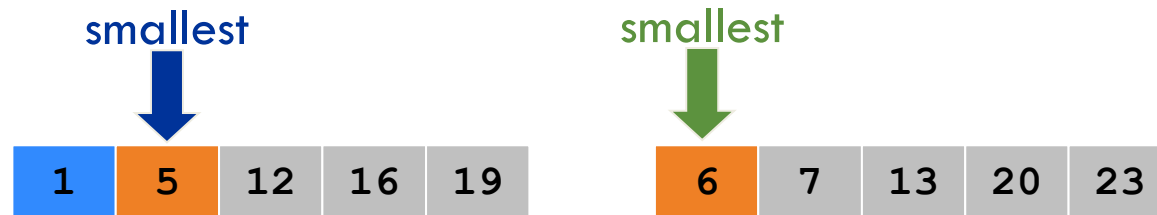
Result:



# Merge

## Merge Algorithm

- Keep track of smallest element in each sorted half.
- Insert smallest of two elements into the resultant array.
- Repeat until done.



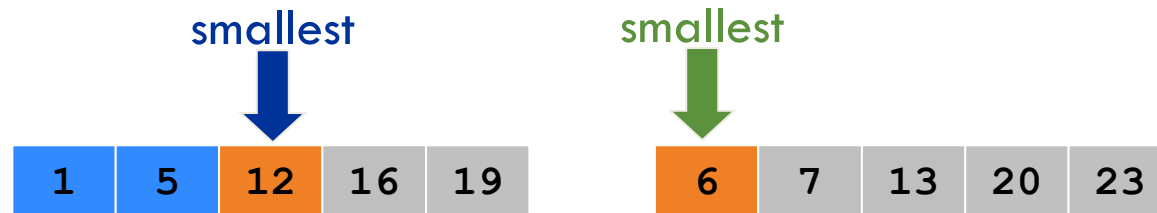
Result:



# Merge

## Merge Algorithm

- Keep track of smallest element in each sorted half.
- Insert smallest of two elements into the resultant array.
- Repeat until done.



Result:





# Merge

## Merge Algorithm

- Keep track of smallest element in each sorted half.
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- Repeat until done.



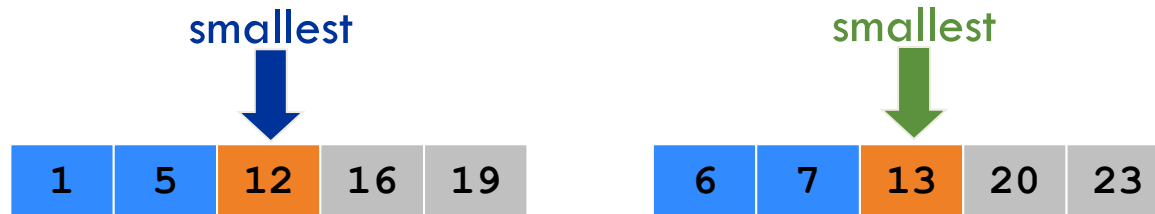
Result:



# Merge

## Merge Algorithm

- Keep track of smallest element in each sorted half.
- Insert smallest of two elements into the resultant array.
- Repeat until done.



Result:



# Merge

## Merge Algorithm

- Keep track of smallest element in each sorted half.
- Insert smallest of two elements into the resultant array.
- Repeat until done.



Result:



# Merge

## Merge Algorithm

- Keep track of smallest element in each sorted half.
- Insert smallest of two elements into the resultant array.
- Repeat until done.



Result:



# Merge

## Merge Algorithm

- Keep track of smallest element in each sorted half.
- Insert smallest of two elements into the resultant array.
- Repeat until done.



Result:



# Merge

## Merge Algorithm

- Keep track of smallest element in each sorted half.
- Insert smallest of two elements into the resultant array.
- Repeat until done.



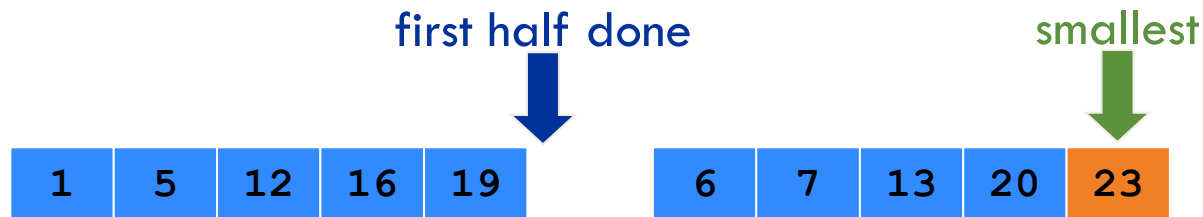
Result:



# Merge

## Merge Algorithm

- Keep track of smallest element in each sorted half.
- Insert smallest of two elements into the resultant array.
- Repeat until done.



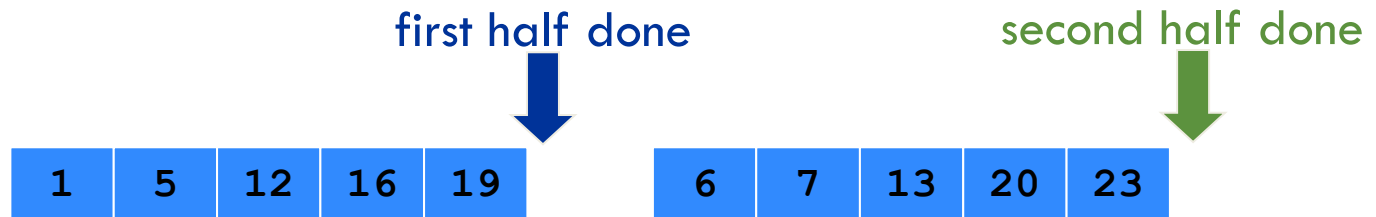
Result:



# Merge

## Merge Algorithm

- Keep track of smallest element in each sorted half.
- Insert smallest of two elements into the resultant array.
- Repeat until done.



Result:





# Merge: Implementation

```
def merge(L, R):  
    result ← array of length (|L| + |R|)  
    l, r ← 0, 0  
    while l + r < |result| do  
        index ← l + r  
        if r ≥ |R| or (l < |L| and L[l] < R[r]) then  
            result[index] ← L[l]  
            l ← l + 1  
        else  
            result[index] ← R[r]  
            r ← r + 1  
    return result
```

# Merge: Correctness

## Induction hypothesis:

- After the  $i$ -th iteration, our result contains the  $i$  smallest elements in sorted order

## Base case:

- After 0 iterations, our result is empty, so it contains the 0 smallest elements in sorted order

## Induction:

- Assume IH after iteration  $k$ , to prove it after iteration  $k+1$
- Since both halves are sorted and we add the smallest element not already in result, result now contains the  $k+1$  smallest elements
- Sorted order follows from the fact that both halves are sorted, thus adding the smallest element implies sorted order of result

# Merge-Sort

1. **Divide** array into two halves.
2. **Recur** Recursively sort each half.
3. **Conquer** Merge two sorted halves to make a sorted whole.

1	12	5	16	19	7	23	6	13	20
---	----	---	----	----	---	----	---	----	----

1	12	5	16	19	7	23	6	13	20	divide
---	----	---	----	----	---	----	---	----	----	--------

1	5	12	16	19	6	7	13	20	23	recur
---	---	----	----	----	---	---	----	----	----	-------

1	5	6	7	12	13	16	19	20	23	conquer
---	---	---	---	----	----	----	----	----	----	---------

# Merge-Sort: Correctness

Induction hypothesis:

- Merge-Sort correctly sorts an array of size  $i$

Base case:

- If our array has size 0 or 1, it's already sorted

Induction:

- Assume IH for all arrays up to size  $k$ , to prove it for array of size  $k+1$
- Splitting the array in half gives us two array of size at most  $k$ , so by IH those are sorted correctly
- We proved that given two sorted arrays, Merge returns a correctly sorted array containing the elements of both arrays
- Hence, by running Merge on the two stored halves, we sort the original array

# Merge sort complexity analysis

Divide step (find middle and split) takes  $O(n)$

Recur step (solve left and right subproblem) takes  $2 T(n/2)$

Conquer step (merge subarrays) takes  $O(n)$

Now we can set up the recurrence for  $T(n)$ :

$$T(n) = \begin{cases} 2 T(n/2) + O(n) & \text{for } n > 1 \\ O(1) & \text{for } n = 1 \end{cases}$$

This solves to  $T(n) = O(n \log n)$

# Solving recurrences by unrolling

General strategy:

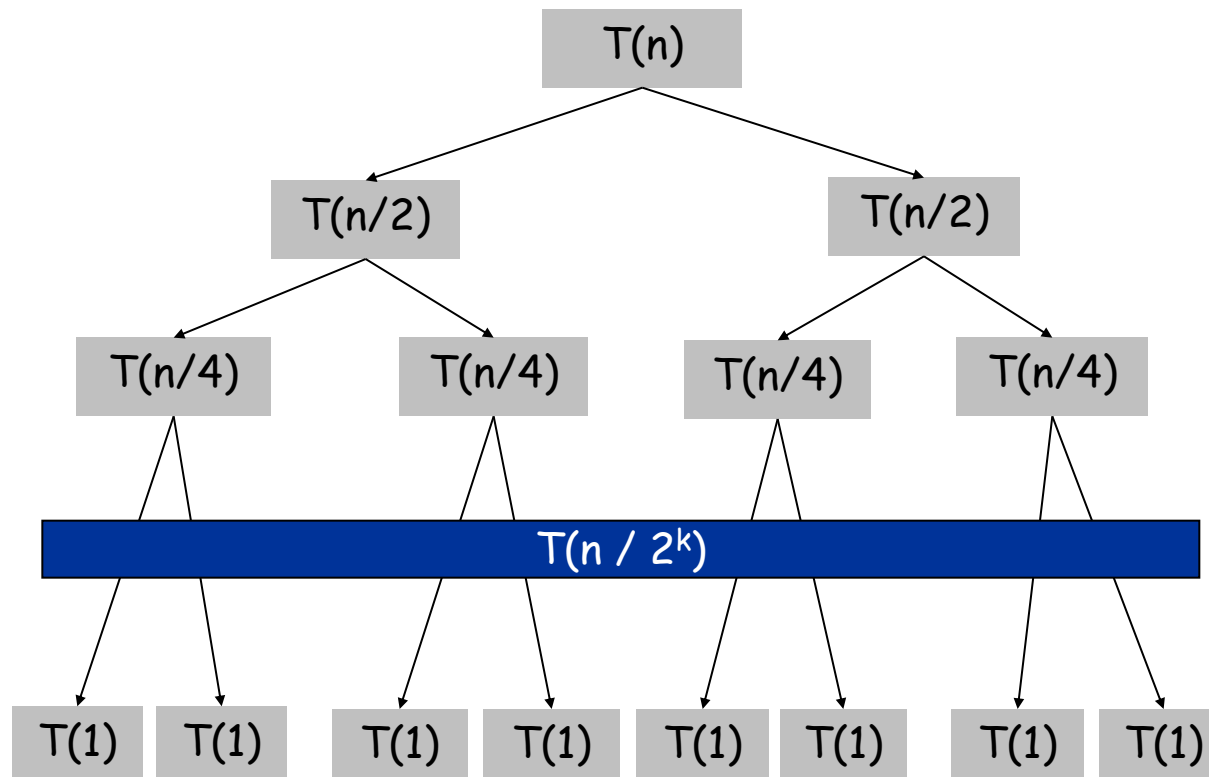
- Analyze first few levels
- Identify the pattern for a generic level
- Sum up over all levels

To verify the solution, we can substitute guess into the recurrence and prove it formally using induction if needed

For Merge sort this method yields  $T(n) = O(n \log n)$

There is a “Master theorem” (see textbook) that can handle most recurrences of interest, but unrolling is enough for our purposes

# Proof by unrolling



1 (of size  $n$ )

2 (of size  $n/2$ )

4 (of size  $n/4$ )

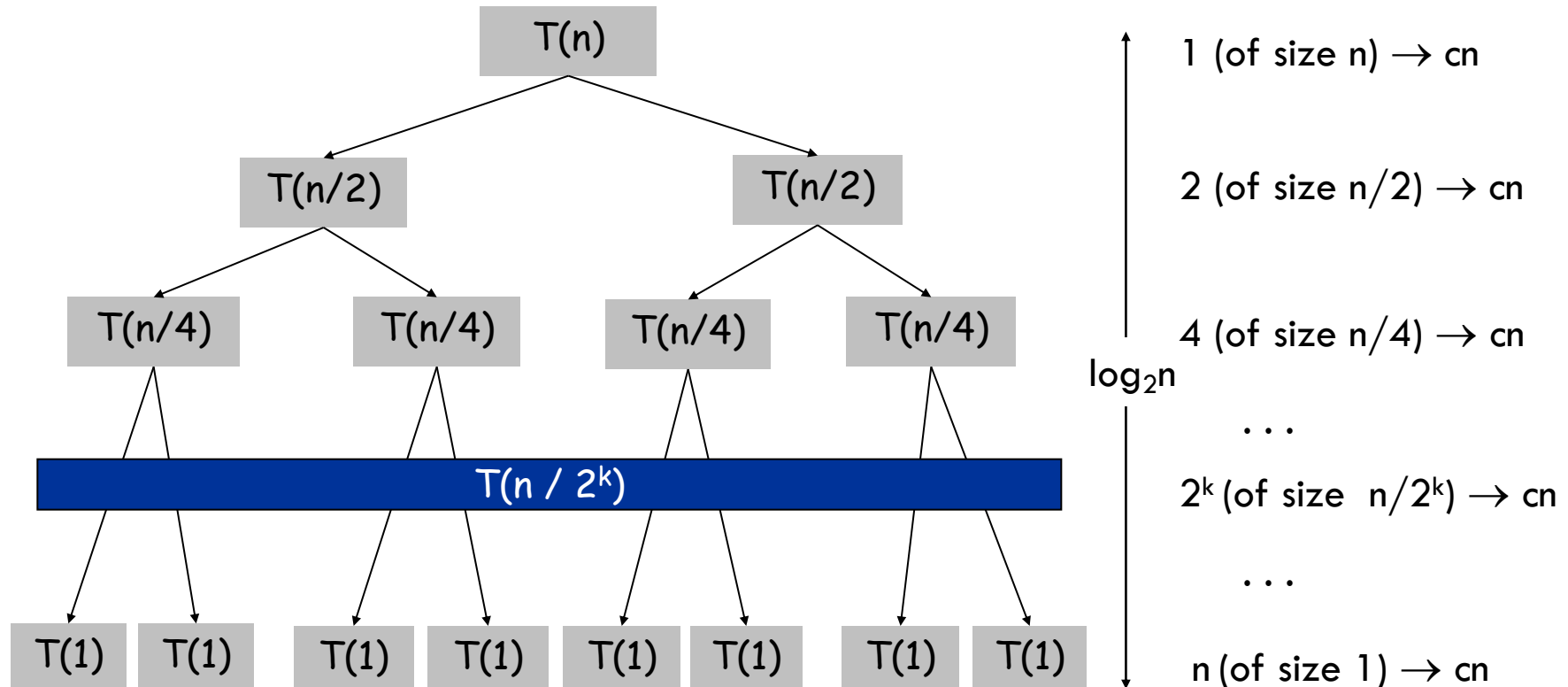
...

$2^k$  (of size  $n/2^k$ )

...

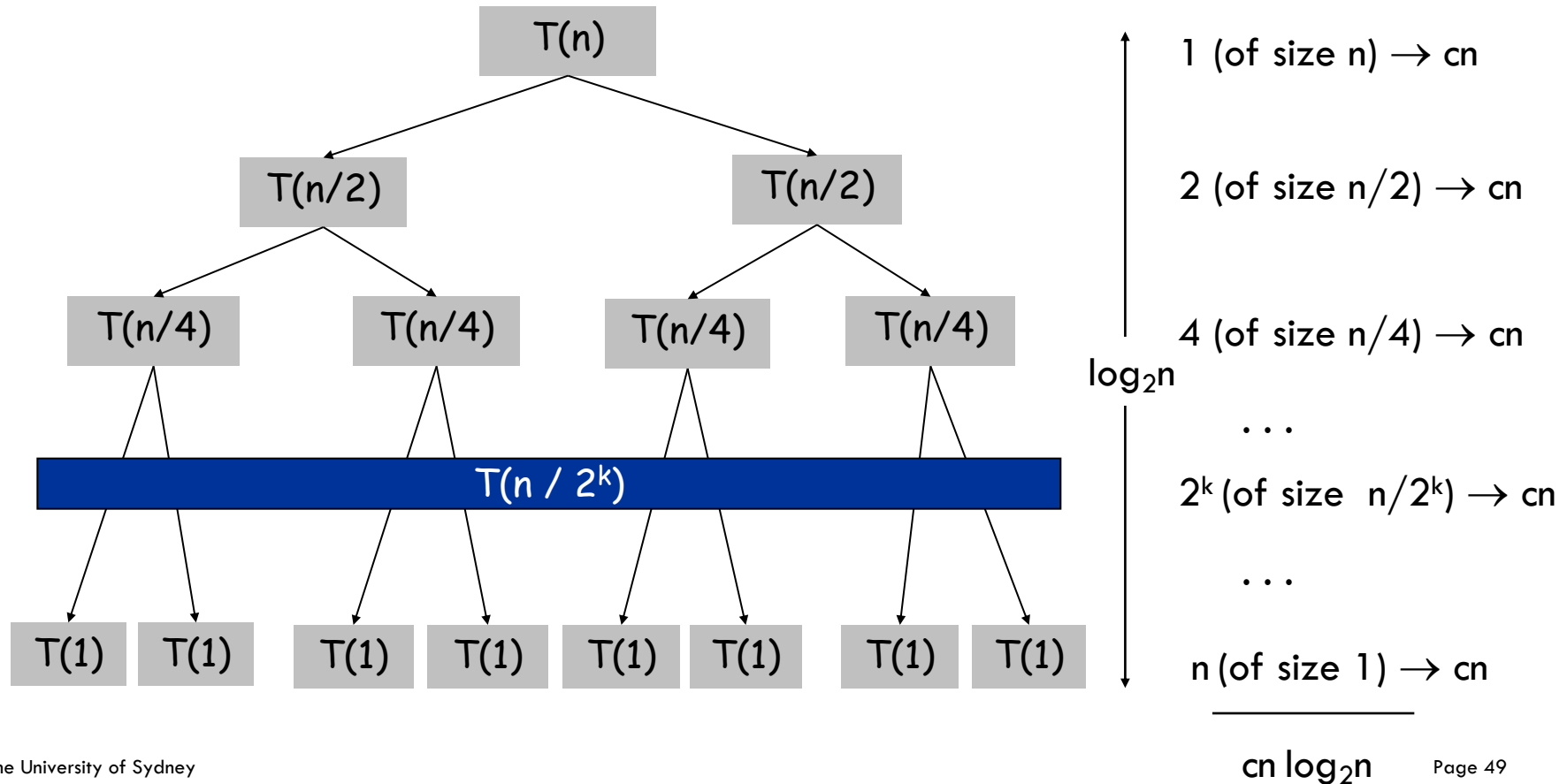
$n$  (of size 1)

# Proof by unrolling





# Proof by unrolling



# Some recurrence formulas with solutions

Recurrence	Solution
$T(n) = 2 T(n/2) + O(n)$	$T(n) = O(n \log n)$
$T(n) = 2 T(n/2) + O(\log n)$	$T(n) = O(n)$
$T(n) = 2 T(n/2) + O(1)$	$T(n) = O(n)$
$T(n) = T(n/2) + O(n)$	$T(n) = O(n)$
$T(n) = T(n/2) + O(1)$	$T(n) = O(\log n)$
$T(n) = T(n-1) + O(n)$	$T(n) = O(n^2)$
$T(n) = T(n-1) + O(1)$	$T(n) = O(n)$

## What if $n$ is not even?

Technically speaking we should be solving

$$T(n) = \begin{cases} T(\lfloor n/2 \rfloor) + T(\lceil n/2 \rceil) + O(n) & \text{for } n > 1 \\ O(1) & \text{for } n = 1 \end{cases}$$

If  $n=2^k$ , we would get the neat  $T(n) = 2T(n/2) + O(n)$ . But this is not always possible for more complicated recurrences.

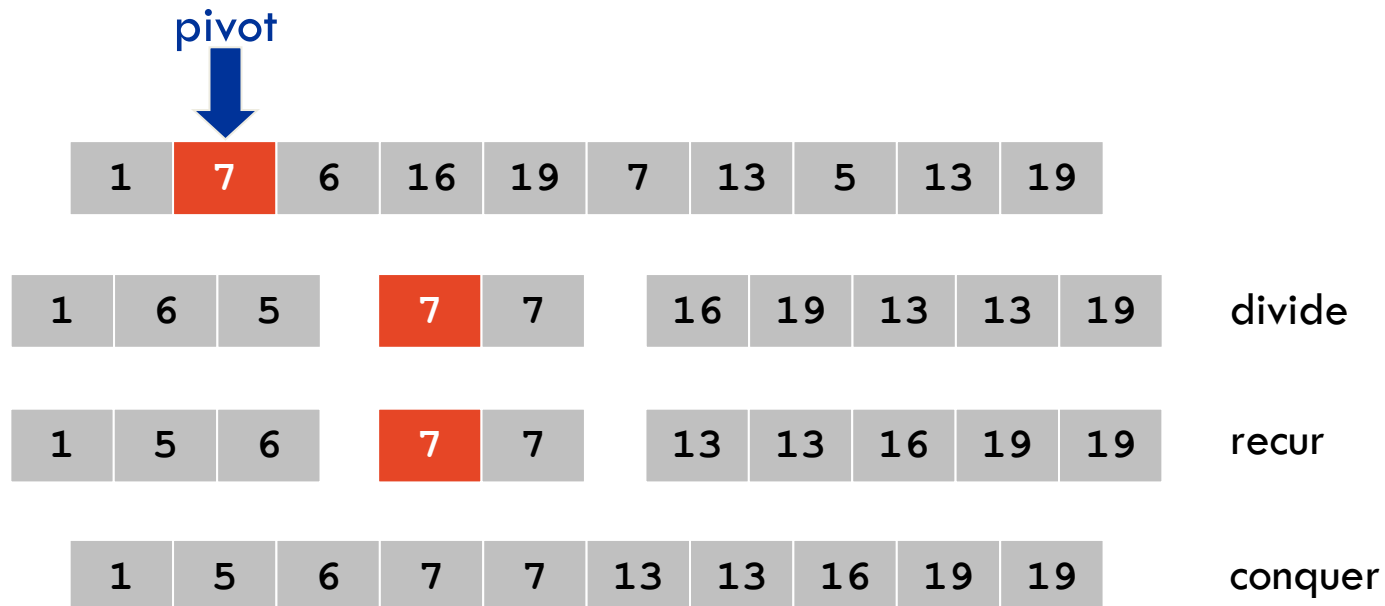
For those cases, if we want to be formal, we have two options:

1. Solve the simpler recurrence to get a guess of a solution and then prove the solution by induction on the real recurrence
2. Define an auxiliary recurrence  $S(n) = T(n + c)$  for some constant  $c$ . Show that  $S(n) \leq 2 S(n) + O(n)$

But you don't need to worry about all that in your proofs here.

# Quick sort

1. **Divide** Choose a random element from the list as the **pivot**  
Partition the elements into 3 lists:  
(i) less than, (ii) equal to and (iii) greater than the **pivot**
2. **Recur** Recursively sort the **less than** and **greater than** lists
3. **Conquer** Join the sorted 3 lists together



# Quick sort complexity analysis

**Divide step** (pick pivot and split) takes  $O(n)$

**Recur step** (solve left and right subproblem) takes  $T(n_L) + T(n_R)$

**Conquer step** (merge subarrays) takes  $O(n)$

Now we can set up the recurrence for  $T(n)$ :

$$E[T(n)] = \begin{cases} E[T(n_L) + T(n_R)] + O(n) & \text{for } n > 1 \\ O(1) & \text{for } n = 1 \end{cases}$$

This solves to  $E[T(n)] = O(n \log n)$  expected time

# Quick sort detailed complexity analysis

Expected running time of quick sort is proportional to the expected number of comparisons in the algorithm.

$T(n) = E[\# \text{ comparisons of quick sort on array of size } n]$

# comparison is  $n$  + comparisons for recursive calls

$$T(n) = n + \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{1}{n} (T(i-1) + T(n-i))$$

## Quick sort detailed complexity analysis

$T(n) = E[\# \text{ comparisons of quick sort on array of size } n]$

$$T(n) = n + \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{1}{n} (T(i-1) + T(n-i))$$

Note that every term is counted twice

$$T(n) = n + \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} \frac{2}{n} T(i)$$

# Quick sort detailed complexity analysis

Multiply by  $n$  because reasons (it'll work out)

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

Take difference between  $n T(n)$  and  $(n-1) T(n-1)$

$$\begin{aligned} & n T(n) - (n-1) T(n-1) \\ &= n^2 + 2 \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} T(i) - (n-1)^2 - 2 \sum_{i=1}^{n-2} T(i) \\ &= 2n - 1 + 2T(n-1) \end{aligned}$$



## Quick sort detailed complexity analysis

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

Getting back to  $n T(n)$

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

Express  $T(n)$  in terms of  $T(n-1)$

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

$$\frac{T(n)}{n + 1} \leq \frac{2}{n + 1} + \frac{T(n - 1)}{n}$$

## Quick sort detailed complexity analysis

$$\frac{T(n)}{n+1} \leq \frac{2}{n+1} + \frac{T(n-1)}{n}$$

Expanding the recursion

$$\frac{T(n)}{n+1} \leq \frac{2}{n+1} + \frac{2}{n} + \frac{2}{n-1} + \dots + 2$$

Do I spot a harmonic number?

$$T(n) \leq 2(n+1) H(n+1) = O(n \log n)$$

# Harmonic number

$$H(n) = \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{1}{i} = O(\log n)$$

Discretized integral of  $1/i$

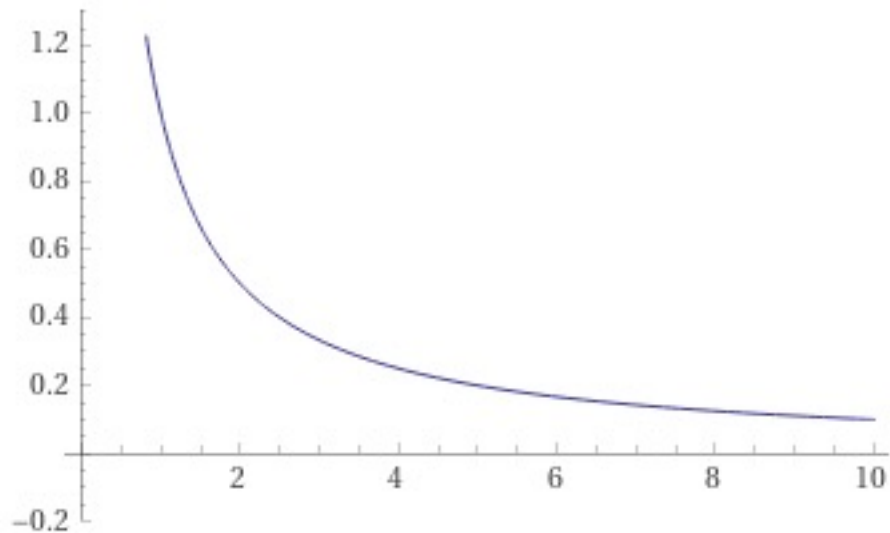


Image by Wolfram Alpha

## Interlude: Comparison sorting lower bound

So far we've seen many sorting algorithms. Some run in  $O(n^2)$  time while others run in  $O(n \log n)$  time.

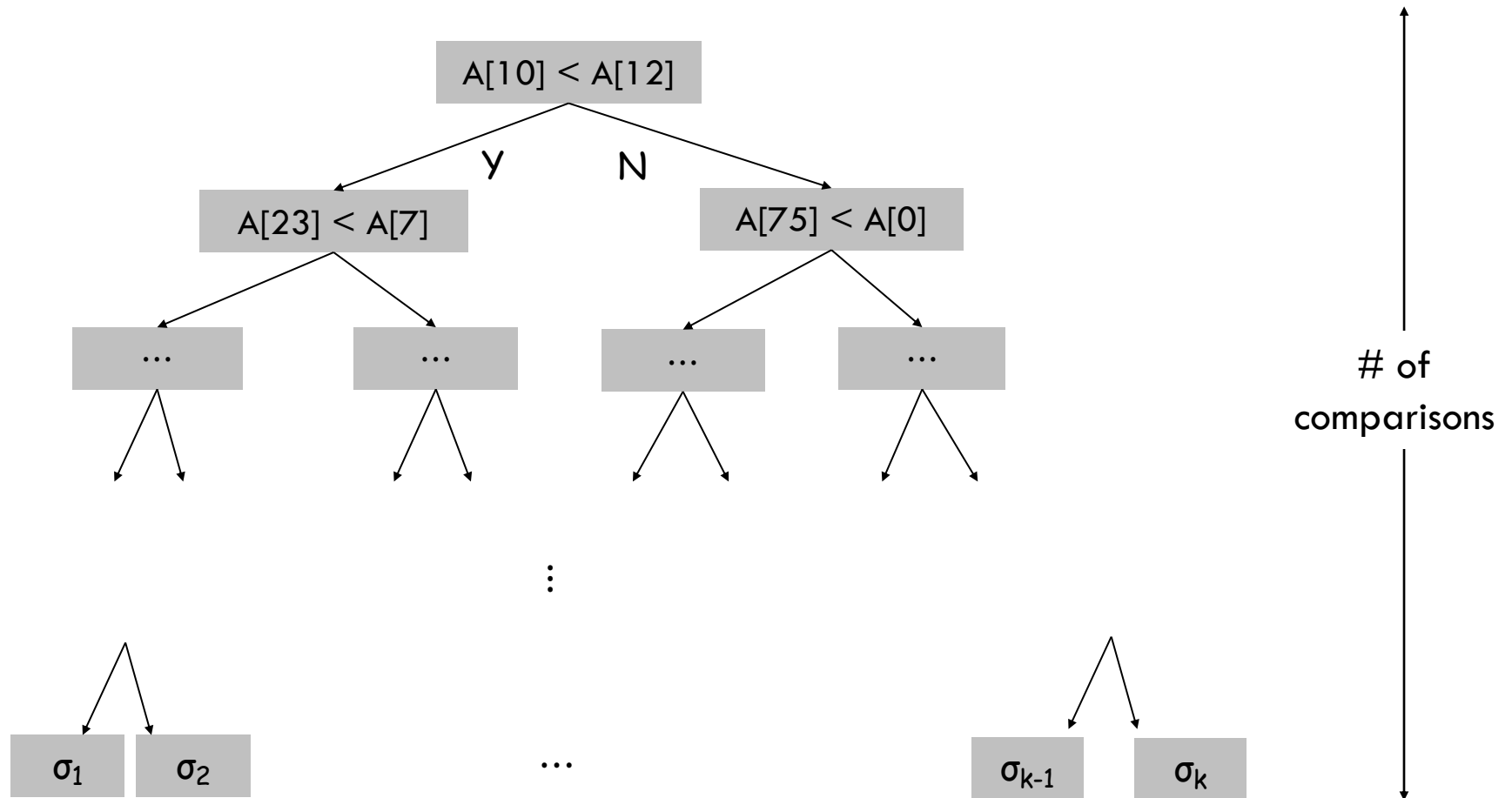
These algorithms work by performing pair-wise comparisons between elements of the sequence we are trying to sort

Such algorithms can be viewed as a decision tree where:

- each internal node compares two indices of the input array
- each external node corresponds to a permutation of  $\{1, \dots, n\}$

The height of the decision tree is a lower bound on the running time of the algorithm, since it only counts number of comparisons

# Decision tree



The output of a leaf is  $A[\sigma(1)], A[\sigma(2)], \dots, A[\sigma(n)]$

## Interlude: Comparison sorting lower bound

**Fact:** Comparison-based sorting algorithms take  $\Omega(n \log n)$  time

**Proof:**

The decision tree associated with a comparison-based sorting algorithm is binary and has at least  $n!$  external nodes. Thus the height is  $\log n!$  which is  $\Omega(n \log n)$

$$\begin{aligned}\log n! &= \log (n * (n-1) * \dots * 1) \\ &= \log n + \log(n-1) + \dots + \log 1 \\ &> n/2 * (\log n/2) \\ &= n/2 * (\log n - 1) \\ &= \Omega(n \log n)\end{aligned}$$

# Remember

Important:

Simply using Merge-Sort in your algorithm doesn't make your algorithm a divide and conquer algorithm.

Example:

A greedy algorithm first sorts the input in some way and then processes the items one by one in that order. Using Merge-Sort for the sorting step doesn't change the fact that the algorithm computes the solution in a greedy way.