# Divide and Conquer II Proof of Correctness Solving Recurrences

# **Outline for Today**

#### Divide and Conquer II

[Example] Integer multiplication (revisited)

[Example] Find the Number (revisited)

[Example] Mergesort

Solving recurrences

**Recursion Tree method** 

Iteration method

Master method

[Example] Median and selection

Substitution method

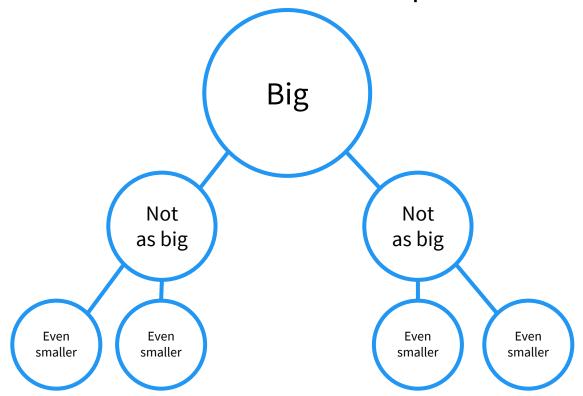
# **Divide and Conquer**

# **Divide and Conquer**

An algorithm design paradigm

Divide: break current problem into smaller sub-problems.

**Conquer:** solve the smaller sub-problems recursively and collect the results to solve the current problem.



#### Integer Multiplication

- Original large problem: multiply two n-digit numbers
- What are the subproblems?

= 
$$(12x100 + 34) \times (56x100 + 78)$$
  
=  $(12x56)100^2 + (12x78 + 34x56)100 + (34x78)$ 









One 4-digit problem



Four 2-digit sub-problems

# Integer Multiplication

- Original large problem: multiply two n-digit numbers
- What are the subproblems? More generally:

$$\begin{bmatrix} x_1 x_2 ... x_{n-1} x_n \end{bmatrix} x \begin{bmatrix} y_1 y_2 ... y_{n-1} y_n \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= (ax10^{n/2} + b) x (cx10^{n/2} + d)$$

$$= (axc)10^n + (axd + bxc)10^{n/2} + (bxd)$$

$$= (axc)10^n + (axd + bxc)10^{n/2} + (bxd)$$

One n-digit problem



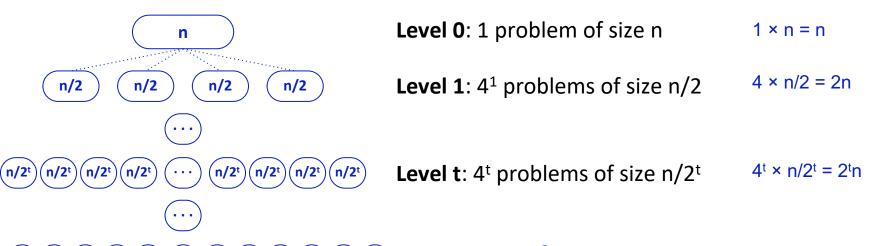
Four n/2-digit sub-problems

#### Pseudo-Code

```
algorithm multiply(x, y, n):
                                                        x, y are n-digit numbers
                if n == 1: return x \cdot y
                                                       Base case: when x and y are 1-
                                                      digit, we can directly return their
                Rewrite x as a \cdot 10^{n/2} + b
                                                      product, e.g., by referencing the
  a, b, c, d are
                                                           multiplication table
                Rewrite y as c \cdot 10^{n/2} + d
n/2-digit numbers
                set ac = multiply(a, c, n/2)
                                                               Call the algorithm
                set ad = multiply(a, d, n/2)
                                                               recursively to get
                set bc = multiply(b, c, n/2)
                                                                answers of the
                                                                 sub-problems
                set bd = multiply(b, d, n/2)
                                                                Add-up to get
                return ac 10^{n} + (ad+bc) 10^{n/2} + bd
                                                                 final answer
```

# How Efficient is the Algorithm?

**Question**: How many **basic operations** the algorithm needs to do in the **worst case**?



1 1 1 1 1 1  $\cdots$  1 1 1 1 1 Level  $\log_2 n$ :  $n^2$  problems of size 1  $4^{\log_2 n} \times 1 = 2^{\log_2 n} \times n$ 

$$(1+2+2^2+2^3+\cdots+2^{\log_2 n})n=2n^2-n=O(n^2)$$

Computational Complexity: O(n2)

# **Basic Operations**

Why multiplying two numbers can not be treated as doing one operation?

The computational complexity measures the number of **Basic Operations** needed to finish calculation.

What is basic operation? An operation that can be done by 1 step of register operation (recall what you have learned in **computer architecture** and **assembly language**)

Inlcuding:

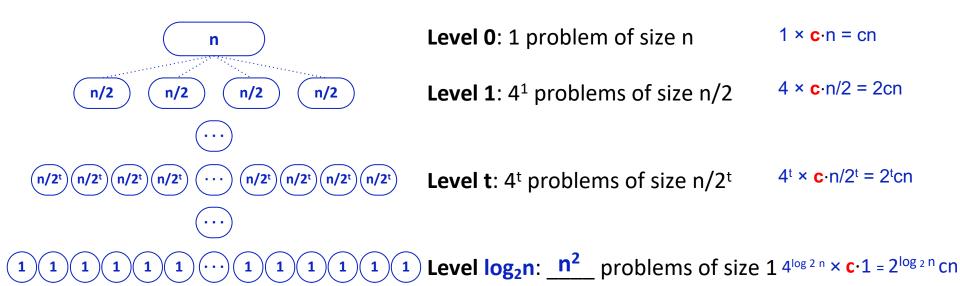
Additor: +, -

Compairor: <, >, ==

Shifter: <<, >>

Value assignment

# How Efficient is the Algorithm?

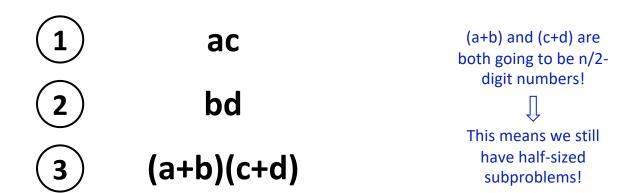


$$(1+2+2^2+2^3+\cdots+2^{\log_2 n})cn = 2cn^2-cn = O(n^2)$$

Computational Complexity: O(n2)

# **Reducing to Three Sub-Problems**

These *three* subproblems give us everything we need to compute our desired quantities:



Compute our final result by combining these three subproblems:

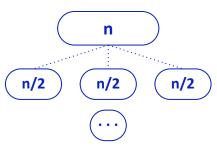
$$(ac)10^{n} + (ad + bc)10^{n/2} + (bd)$$

#### Pseudo-Code

```
algorithm karatsuba_multiply(x, y, n):
  if n == 1: return x \cdot y
  Rewrite x as a \cdot 10^{n/2} + b
  Rewrite y as c \cdot 10^{n/2} + d
  set ac = multiply(a, c, n/2)
                                                 Only 3 n/2-digit
  set ad = multiply(a, d, n/2)
                                                 sub-problems
  set abcd = multiply(a+b, c+d, n/2)
                                                 Add-up to get
  return ac 10^n + (abcd-ac-bd) 10^{n/2} + bd
                                                  final answer
```

# How Efficient is the Algorithm?

For the new algorithm, we replace branching factor of 4 to 3



**Level 0**: 30 problem of size n

$$1 \times n = n$$

**Level 1**: 3<sup>1</sup> problems of size n/2

$$3 \times n/2 = (3/2)n$$

Level t: 3t problems of size n/2t

$$3^t \times n/2^t = (3/2)^t n$$

1 1 1 1  $\cdots$  1 1 1 1 Level  $\log_2 n$ :  $\underline{n^{1.6}}$  problems of size 1

$$3^{\log 2 n} \times 1 = (3/2)^{\log_2 n} \times n$$

$$\left(1 + \frac{3}{2} + (\frac{3}{2})^2 + (\frac{3}{2})^3 + \dots + (\frac{3}{2})^{\log_2 n}\right) n = 3n^{\log_2 3} - 2n$$
$$= 3n^{1.6} - 2n = O(n^{1.6})$$

Computational Complexity: O(n1.6)

#### Binary-Search is also D-n-C! (really?!)

**Question**: Given a sorted array A[0:n-1], locate number x in the array.

**n** numbers in total, i.e., length(A)==n

```
| 11 | 14 | 16 | 23 | 28 | 31 |
                                      | 34 | 37 |
algorithm binary_search(A, x):
  set L = 0, R = n-1
  while L <= R:
      set i = L + |(R-L)/2|
      if A[i] == x: //one basic operation
          return i;
      else if A[i] < x:</pre>
          set L = i + 1;
      else if A[i] > x:
          set R = i - 1;
  return -1;
```

#### A Recursive Version of the Algorithm

**Question**: Given a sorted array A[0:n-1], locate number x in the array.

**n** numbers in total, i.e., length(A)==n

```
11 | 14 | 16 | 23 | 28 | 31 | 34 |
call binary_search(A, x, 0, n-1)
algorithm binary_search(A, x, L, R):
 if L > R:
          //one basic operation
    return -1;
 set i = L + |(R-L)/2| //four basic operations
 if A[i] == x:
               //one basic operation
    return i;
             //one basic operation
 if A[i] < x:
    return binary_search(A, x, i+1, R);
 if A[i] > x:  //one basic operation
    return binary_search(A, x, L, i-1);
```

# How Efficient is the Algorithm?

**Question**: How many **basic operations** the algorithm needs to do in the **worst case**?

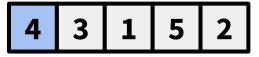
n	Level 0: 1 problem, c operation	1 × c = c
n/2	Level 1: 1 problem, c operation	1 × c = c
n/2 <sup>t</sup>	<b>Level t</b> : 1 problem, c operation	1 × c = c
	Level log <sub>2</sub> n: 1 problem, c operation	1 × c = c

- Why log<sub>2</sub>n levels? Because if n/2<sup>t</sup>=1, we have t=log<sub>2</sub>n
  - i.e., you need to cut n in half log<sub>2</sub>n times to get to size 1
- In each (sub-)problem, the number of basic operations is a constant c

$$c + c + \dots + c = c \log_2 n = O(\log n)$$

Computational Complexity: O(log(n))

#### **5-Minute Break**



Let's sort an unsorted list of numbers A. The sublist A[0:0] is trivially sorted.



Look at the second element, A[1].



Insert the element into a new position such that the sublist A[0:1] is sorted.



Now look at the third element, A[2].



Insert it such that the sublist A[0:2] is sorted.

•



The entire array A[0:4] is sorted.

```
algorithm insertion sort(list A):
 for i = 0 to length(A)-1:
   let cur value = A[i]
   let j = i - 1
    while j ≥ 0 and A[j] > cur_value:
     A[j+1] = A[j]
     j = j - 1
   A[j+1] = cur_value
```

**Question 1** How do we prove this algorithm always correctly sorts the input list?

**Question 2** How efficiently does this algorithm sort the

input list?

## **Proving Correctness**

Algorithms often initialize, modify, or delete new data.

To prove an algorithm is correct, you have to prove it's correct for any input size **n**.

However, input size **n** can be infinite, impossible to prove for each and all possible input size **n**.

mduckor

Use Mathematical Induction!

#### **Mathematical Induction**

#### **Mathematical Induction:**

We have a claim C(n), we verify that C(0) is True, we then suppose that when n=k, C(k) is true, and prove that when n=k+1, C(k+1) will be true; then we can claim that C(n) is true for all possible n.

#### Deciding the Invariant for Mathematical Induction:

The key to construct a valid proof using mathematical induction is to find a good invariant, i.e., a property that does not change during the algorithm.

This unchanging property is called an **invariant**.

#### **Invariant for Insertion Sort**

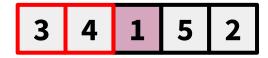
```
algorithm insertion sort(list A):
  for i = 0 to length(A)-1:
                                      Algorithm takes care of
                                       each element of the
    let cur value = A[i]
                                      array one by one, from
    let j = i - 1
                                       the first to the last
    while j ≥ 0 and A[j] > cur_value:
       A[j+1] = A[j]
       j = j - 1
    A[j+1] = cur value
```

#### **Invariant for Insertion Sort**

**Invariant** of the outer for-loop: At the start of iteration i of the outer for-loop, the first i elements of the list are (always) sorted.

#### Sanity checks:

At the start of the third iteration (i.e. the iteration when i = 2), the first 2 elements of the list are sorted. True.



At the start of the fifth iteration (i.e. the iteration when i = 4), the first 4 lements of the list are sorted. True.



## **Proving Correctness**

Less formally (explain it to your co-worker) ...

At the start of the first iteration, the first element of the array is sorted.

By construction, the i<sup>th</sup> iteration puts element A[i] in the right place.

At the start of the final iteration (i = length(A), aka the end of the algorithm), the first length(A) elements are sorted.

More formally (rigorously) ...

**Outer invariant (for-loop):** At the start of iteration i of the outer for-loop, the first i elements of the list are sorted.

Inner invariant (while-loop): At the start of iteration j of the inner while-loop, A[0:j,j+2:i] contains the same elements as the original sublist A[0:i-1], still sorted, such that all of the values in the right sublist A[j+2:i] are greater than cur\_value.

## **Proving Correctness**

More formally (rigorously, prove using induction twice) ...

Lemma: If A[0:i-1] has already been sorted by the end of iteration i-1 of the loop, then A[0:i] will be sorted by the end of iteration i of the loop.

Proof:

To prove this statement, we examine the inner loop invariant, by induction.

• The invariant holds at the start of the iteration j = i-1 of the inner while-loop. To see why, notice that A[0:j,j+2:i] describes the same sublist as A[0:i-1,i+1:i] (since we initialized j to i-1), which trivially contains the same elements as the original sublist A[0:i-1], still sorted, since the right sublist A[i+1:i] is empty.

• Furthermore, since the right sublist is empty, all of its values are all vacuously

greater than cur\_value.

```
algorithm insertion_sort(list A):
  for i = 0 to length(A)-1:
    let cur_value = A[i]
    let j = i - 1
    while j ≥ 0 and A[j] > cur_value:
        A[j+1] = A[j]
        j = j - 1
        A[j+1] = cur_value
```

```
algorithm insertion_sort(list A):
  for i = 0 to length(A)-1:
    let cur_value = A[i]
    let j = i - 1
    while j ≥ 0 and A[j] > cur_value:
        A[j+1] = A[j]
        j = j - 1
        A[j+1] = cur_value
```

#### Proof of lemma, cont.:

Now, we will prove the inductive step. Suppose that the invariant holds at the start of an arbitrary iteration j = y (inductive hypothesis). We prove that it still holds at the start of iteration j = y-1. There are two cases of the while-loop condition to consider when j=y-1:

The condition returns True.

First, A[j] is copied to A[j+1], as a result, A[j] = A[j+1], i.e., A[y-1] = A[y] (note that current j=y-1). By inductive hypothesis, we have A[0:y,y+2:i] satisfies the invariant. As a result, A[0:y-1,y+1:i] also satisfies the invariant. Since j=y-1, so A[0:j,j+2:i] now satisfies the invariant for j = y-1, maintaining the invariant for the next iteration.

The condition returns False.

The loop terminates. Since either (1) j is -1 or (2) cur\_value is greater than A[j], then A[0:j], cur\_value must be sorted (recall the invariant guarantees that A[0:j] is sorted). Furthermore, since all of the values in the right sublist A[j+2:i] are sorted and greater than cur\_value, then A[0:j], cur\_value, A[j+2:i] must be sorted. Thus, at the termination of the loop, A[0:i] (the first i+1 elements) is sorted.

## **Proving Correctness**

Theorem: Insertion sort sorts the input list.

#### Proof:

By the end of the 0-th iteration of the outer for-loop, **A[0:0]** (a single element) is trivially sorted.

By our lemma, if A[0:i-1] is sorted by the end of iteration i-1 of the loop, then A[0:i] will be sorted by the end of iteration i of the loop.

The loop terminates by the end of iteration **length(A)-1**, which implies that **A[0:length(A)-1]** is sorted when the loop ends, which proves the theorem.

#### **Proving Correctness**

Both the lemma and theorem follow a consistent format:

Initialization: The loop invariant starts out as true.

**Maintenance:** If the loop invariant is true at step i, then it's true at step i+1.

**Termination:** If the loop invariant is true at the end of the algorithm, this tells you something about what you're trying to prove.

**Question 1** 

How do we prove this algorithm always sorts the input list?

**Question 2** 

How efficiently does this algorithm sort the input list?

# **Analyzing Runtime**

```
algorithm insertion sort(list A):
        for i = 1 to length(A):
          let cur_value = A[i]
          let j = i - 1
          while j > 0 and A[j] > cur_value:
  O(n)
work per | A[j+1] = A[j]
iteration | j = j - 1
          A[j+1] = cur_value
                                  O(n)
                                iterations
```

Total work:  $O(n^2)$ 

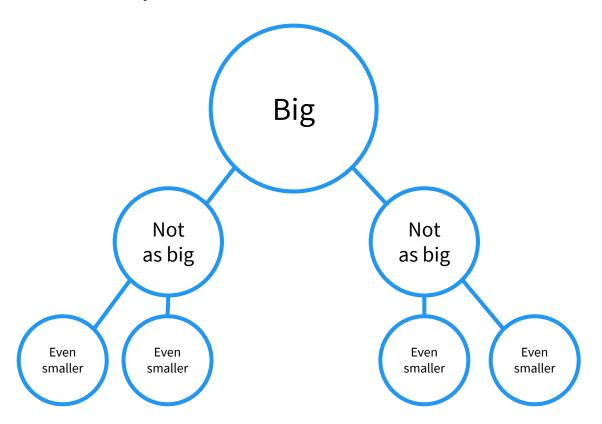
#### **5-Minute Break**

# Mergesort

# **Divide and Conquer**

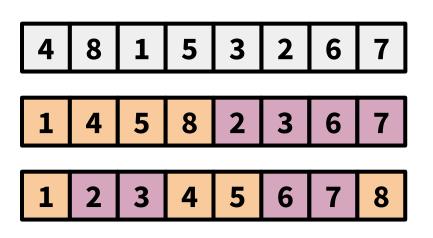
**Divide:** break current problem into smaller problems.

**Conquer:** solve the smaller problems and collate the results to solve the current problem.



## Mergesort

Let's use divide and conquer to improve upon insertion sort!



Let's sort an unsorted list of numbers A.

Recursively sort each half, A[0:3] and A[4:7], separately.

Merge the results from each half together.

```
algorithm mergesort(list A):
  if length(A) \leq 1:
    return A
  let left = first half of A
 let right = second half of A
  return merge(
    mergesort(left),
    mergesort(right)
```

Runtime: O(nlogn)

```
algorithm merge(list A, list B):
  let result = []
  while both A and B are nonempty:
    if head(A) <= head(B):</pre>
      append head(A) to result
      pop head(A) from A
    else:
      append head(B) to result
      pop head(B) from B
  append remaining elements in A to result
  append remaining elements in B to result
  return result
```

**Total work:** O(a+b), where a and b are the lengths of lists A and B.

- **Question 1** How do we prove this algorithm always sorts the input list?
- **Question 2** How efficiently does this algorithm sort the input list?



```
algorithm mergesort(list A):
               if length(A) \leq 1:
                 return A
Θ(n) operations to
              let left = first half of A
slip A into left and
              let right = second half of A
   right lists
Θ(n) operations to | return merge(
 merge two lists
                 mergesort(left),
                                          T([n/2]) operations to sort left list
                 mergesort(right)
                                          T(|n/2|) operations to sort right list
```

Let T(n) be the number of basic operations of mergesort(A) when input size is n:

$$T(0) = T(1) = \Theta(1)$$

$$T(n) = T(\lceil n/2 \rceil) + T(\lfloor n/2 \rfloor) + \Theta(n)$$

Here's our first recurrence relation,

$$T(0) = T(1) = \Theta(1)$$
  
 $T(n) = T([n/2]) + T([n/2]) + \Theta(n)$ 

**Assumption 1:** n is a power of two.

Why is it ok to make this assumption?



$$T(0) = \Theta(1)$$

$$T(1) = \Theta(1) = c_1$$

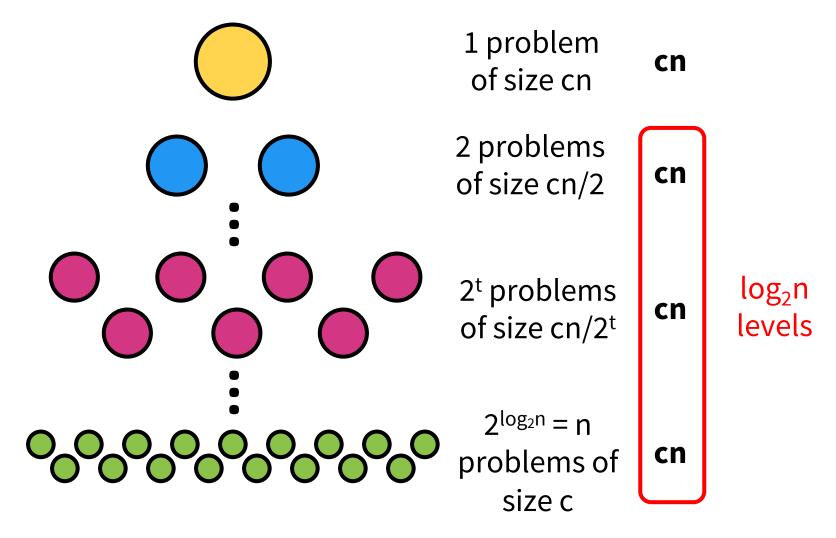
$$T(n) = T([n/2]) + T([n/2]) + \Theta(n)$$
  
=  $2T(n/2) + c_2n$ 

**Assumption 2:** Let  $c = max\{c_1, c_2\}$ 

$$T(1) \le c$$

$$T(n) \le 2T(n/2) + cn$$

#### **Recursion Tree Method**



Total work:  $cn log_2 n + cn = O(nlog n)$ 

#### **Iteration Method**

Recall, our recurrence relation:

$$T(1) \le c$$
  
 $T(n) \le 2T(n/2) + cn$ 

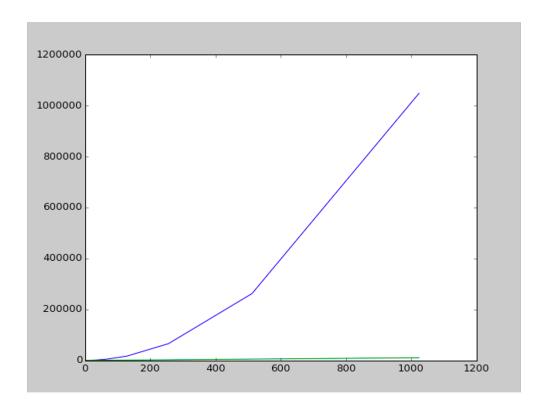
$$T(n) \le 2 \cdot T(n/2) + cn$$
  
 $\le 2 \cdot (2T(n/4) + cn/2) + cn$   
 $= 4 \cdot T(n/4) + 2cn$   
 $\le 4 \cdot (2T(n/8) + cn/4) + 2cn$   
 $= 8 \cdot T(n/8) + 3cn$   
...  
 $\le 2^k T(n/2^k) + kcn$ 

What is k? It's the number of times to divide n by 2 to get 1.

So 
$$k = log_2 n$$
  
 $T(n) \le 2^k T(n/2^k) + kcn$   
 $= 2^{log_2 n} T(n/2^{log_2 n}) + cnlog_2 n$   
 $= nT(1) + cnlog_2 n$   
 $\le cn + cnlog_2 n$   
 $= 0(nlog_1)$ 

The best and worst-case runtime of mergesort is  $\Theta(n \log n)$ . The worst-case runtime of insertion\_sort was  $\Theta(n^2)$ .

#### THIS IS A HUGE IMPROVEMENT!!



# **Solving Recurrences**

## **Solving Recurrences**

We've seen four recursive algorithms, recursion relations:

naive\_recursive\_multiply

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

karatsuba\_multiply

$$T(n) = 3T(n/2) + O(n)$$
  
=  $O(n^{log_23}) = O(n^{1.6})$ 

What's the pattern???

mergesort

$$T(n) = 2T(n/2) + O(n)$$
$$= O(nlogn)$$

binary\_search

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

#### **Master Method**

Suppose 
$$T(n) = a \cdot T(n/b) + O(n^d)$$
.

$$T(n) = \begin{cases} O(n^{d}logn) \text{ if } a = b^{d} \\ O(n^{d}) \text{ if } a < b^{d} \\ O(n^{log_{b}a}) \text{ if } a > b^{d} \end{cases}$$

#### where

a is the number of subproblems,

b is the factor by which the input size shrinks, and d parametrizes the runtime to create the subproblems and merge their solutions.

#### **Master Method**

We've seen four recursive algorithms.

naive\_recursive\_multiply 
$$a=4$$

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

$$= O(n^2)$$

$$karatsuba_multiply$$

$$T(n) = 3T(n/2) + O(n)$$

$$= O(n^{\log_2 3}) = O(n^{1.6})$$

$$mergesort$$

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

$$= O(n\log_n)$$

$$binary_search$$

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

$$= O(\log_n)$$

$$binary_search$$

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

$$= O(\log_n)$$

$$d = 0$$

$$a = 4$$

$$b = 2$$

$$a > b^d \to O(n^{\log_b a})$$

$$d = 1$$

$$b = 2$$

$$a = b^d \to O(n^d \log_n)$$

$$d = 1$$

$$b = 2$$

$$a = b^d \to O(n^d \log_n)$$

$$d = 0$$

#### **Master Method**

We can prove the Master Method by writing out a generic proof using a recursion tree.

Draw out the tree.

Determine the work per level.

Sum across all levels.

The three cases of the Master Method correspond to whether the recurrence is top heavy, balanced, or bottom heavy.

General proof of Master Method is one of our homework.

#### **Solving Recurrences**

So far, we've seen three approaches to solving recurrences.

**Recursion Tree Method** 

**Iteration Method** 

**Master Method** 

#### **5-Minute Break**

#### Median and Selection

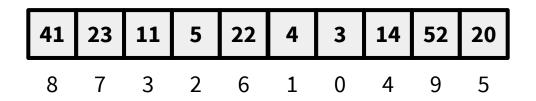
#### **Beyond Master Method**

The Master Method only works when the sub-problems are the same size.

$$T(n) = a \cdot T(n/b) + O(n^d)$$

Here, we'll investigate a recursive algorithm that the Master Method can't solve.

In the select\_k algorithm, we will attempt to return the k<sup>th</sup> smallest element of an unsorted list of values **A**.



```
select_k(A,0) \Rightarrow 3 \qquad select_k(A,0) \Rightarrow min(A)
select_k(A,4) \Rightarrow 14 \qquad select_k(A,[n/2]-1) \Rightarrow median(A)
select_k(A,9) \Rightarrow 52 \qquad select_k(A,n-1) \Rightarrow max(A)
```

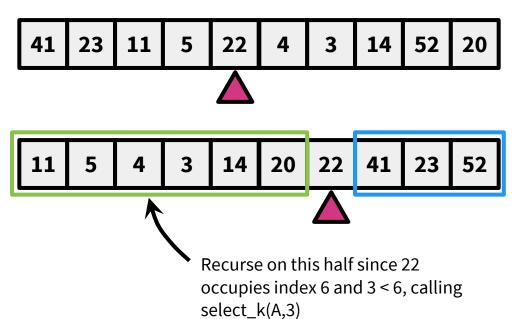
#### A Slower Select-k Algorithm

```
algorithm naive_select_k(list A, k):
   A = mergesort(A)
   return A[k]
```

Runtime: O(nlogn)

Main idea: choose a pivot, partition around it, and recurse.

Suppose we call  $select_k(A,3)$ .

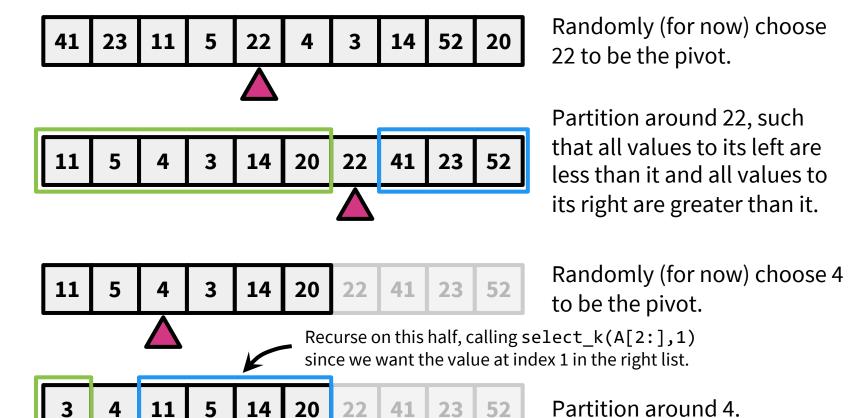


Randomly (for now) choose 22 to be the pivot.

Partition around 22, such that all values to its left are less than it and all values to its right are greater than it.

Main idea: choose a pivot, partition around it, and recurse.

Suppose we call  $select_k(A,3)$ .



```
algorithm partition(list A, p):
  L, R = []
 for i = 0 to length(A)-1:
    if i == p: continue
    else if A[i] <= A[p]:
      L.append(A[i])
    else if A[i] > A[p]:
      R.append(A[i])
  return L, A[p], R
```

Runtime: O(n)

```
algorithm select_k(list A, k):
  if length(A) == 1: return A[0]
  p = random choose pivot(A)
  L, A[p], R = partition(A, p)
  if length(L) == k:
    return A[p]
  else if length(L) > k:
    return select k(L, k)
  else if length(L) < k:</pre>
    return select k(R, k-length(L)-1)
```

Runtime: O(n<sup>2</sup>) We'll talk about why this is the case later.

- **Question 1** How do we prove this algorithm always returns the k<sup>th</sup> smallest element of **A**?
- **Question 2** How efficiently does this algorithm return the k<sup>th</sup> smallest element?

#### **Proving Correctness**

Informally (explain it to your co-worker) ...

```
(Ignore the fact that there's no error-checking so select_k(A,10) where length(A) <= 10 breaks the algorithm.)
```

Inductive hypothesis: At the return of each recursive call of list size  $\leq n$ , select\_k(A,k) returns the  $k^{th}$  smallest element of **A**.

**Initial state**: When length(A) == 1, then returning the only element is correct.

Suppose the inductive hypothesis holds for size  $\leq$  n. We want to show that it holds for n + 1. There are three cases:

- (1) length(L) = k: A[p] is the correct thing to return.
- (2) length(L) > k: the k<sup>th</sup> smallest element of L is the correct thing to return.
- (3) length(L) < k: the  $(k length(L) 1)^{st}$  smallest element is the correct thing to return.

**By induction**, select\_k is correct.

Recall p = random\_choose\_pivot(A).

Why is this algorithm  $O(n^2)$ ?

Computation complexity **measures the worst case**.

Suppose we called  $select_k(A,0)$ , i.e. we want the min element, and we get unlucky with our selected pivot.

We can fix this by choosing our pivot more carefully.

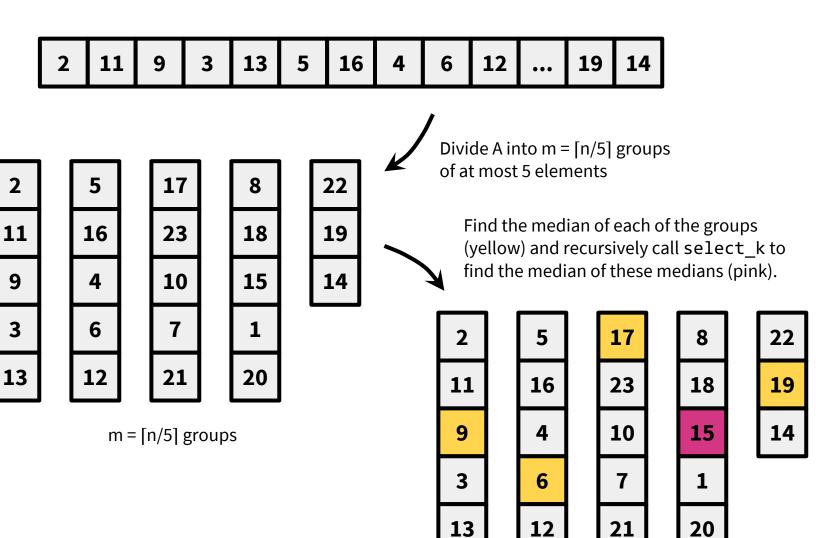
```
algorithm smartly_choose_pivot(list A):
            groups = split A into m=[length(A)/5]
 Partition into
                      groups, of size ≤ 5 each
 m=n/5 groups
           candidate pivots = []
            for i = 0 to m-1:
For each group,
              p_i = median(groups[i]) # O(1)
select its median
              candidate pivots.append(p i)
           |A[p] = select k(candidate pivots, m/2)
Select the median
  of medians
           return index of(A[p])
```

```
algorithm select k(list A, k):
            if length(A) \leq 100:
 If length is
 small, naïve
               return naive select k(A, k)
select k directly
Otherwise, choose p = smartly choose pivot(A)
pivot smartly and
            L, A[p], R = partition(A, p)
  partition
            if length(L) == k:
               return A[p]
            else if length(L) > k:
Recursive calls
               return select k(L, k)
            else if length(L) < k:</pre>
               return select k(R, k-length(L)-1)
```

Instead of p = random\_choose\_pivot(A), now we have
p = smartly\_choose\_pivot(A).

Why is this algorithm O(n)?

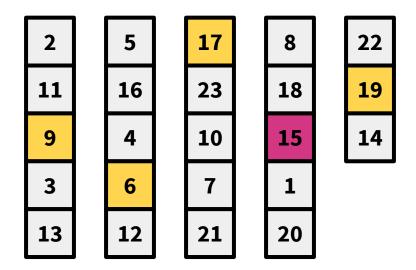
Main idea: each of the arrays L and R are pretty balanced. Thus, while the **median of medians** might not be the actual median, it's pretty close.



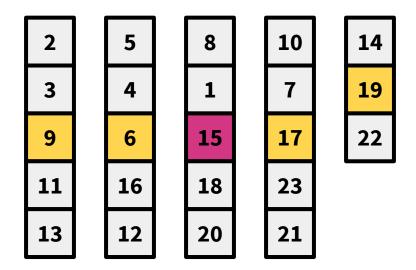
at most 5 elements

9

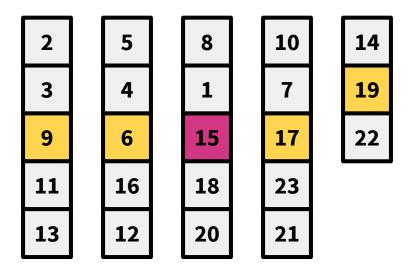
3



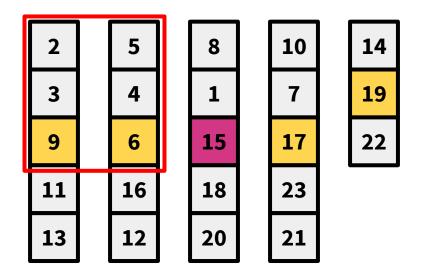
Clearly the median of medians (15) is not necessarily the actual median (12), but we claim that it's guaranteed to be pretty close.



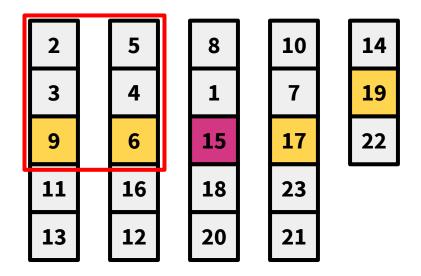
To see why, let's partition elements within each of the groups around the group's median, and partition the groups around the group with the median of medians.



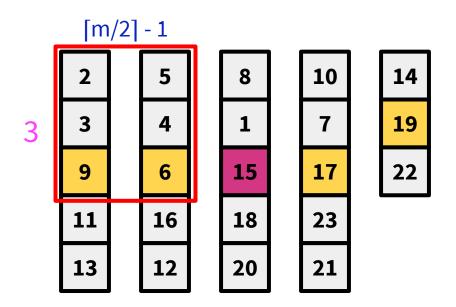
How many elements are smaller than the median of medians?



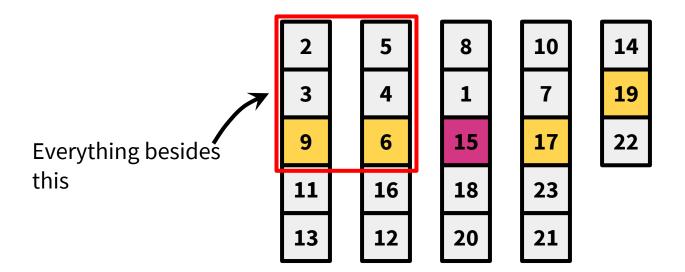
At least these guys (2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 9): everything above and to the left. There might be more (1, 7, 8, 11, 12, 13, 14), but we are guaranteed that *at least* these guys will be smaller.



How many are there?



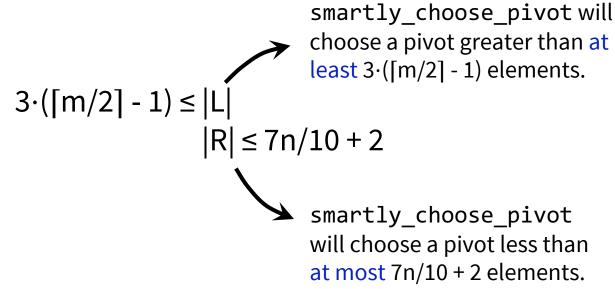
At least  $3 \cdot (\lceil m/2 \rceil - 1)$ 



How many elements are larger than the median of medians? At most  $n - 1 - 3 \cdot (\lceil m/2 \rceil - 1) \le 7n/10 + 2$ .

Because  $m = \lceil n/5 \rceil$ 

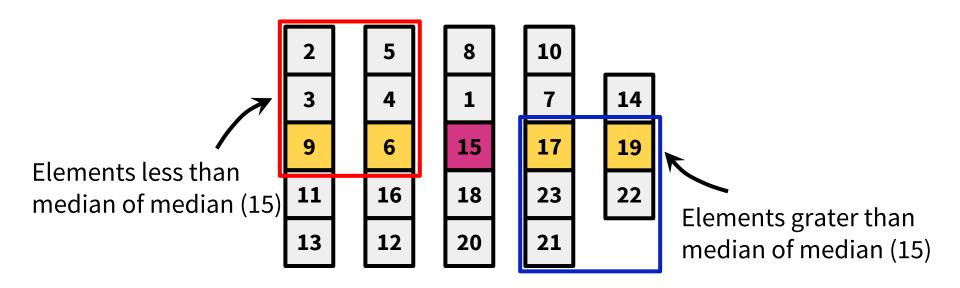
We just showed that ...



We can just as easily show the inverse.

$$3 \cdot (\lceil m/2 \rceil - 1) \le |L| \le 7n/10 + 2$$

$$3 \cdot (\lceil m/2 \rceil - 1) \le |R| \le 7n/10 + 2$$



What's the greatest number of elements that can be smaller than p?

```
random_choose_pivot might choose the largest element, so n-1.

smartly_choose_pivot will choose an element greater than at most 7n/10 + 2 elements.
```

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algorithm smartly choose pivot(list A):
                            groups = split A into m=[length(A)/5]
   c_1 \cdot n = O(n) Partition into m=n/5 groups
                                       groups, of size ≤ 5 each
                            candidate pivots = []
                            |for i = 0 to m-1:
                                                                                  O(n) + T([n/5])
C_2 \cdot m = C_2 \cdot n/5 For each group,
                               p i = median(groups[i]) # 0(1)
               select its median
= c_2 \cdot n = O(n)
                               candidate pivots.append(p i)
                            |A[p] = select k(candidate pivots, m/2)
               Select the median
      T([n/5])
                 of medians
                            return index of(A[p])
                          algorithm select k(list A, k):
                            if length(A) \leq 100:
                 If length is
   c = O(1)
                 small, naïve
                               return naive select k(A, k)
               select k directly
               Otherwise, choose p = smartly choose pivot(A)
O(n) + T([n/5])
               pivot smartly and
                                                                                  T(n) = O(n) + T([n/5])
                            L, A[p], R = partition(A, p)
                  partition
                                                                                         +T([7n/10 + 2])
                            if length(L) == k:
                               return A[p]
                            else if length(L) > k:
                Recursive calls
T([7n/10 + 2])
                               return select k(L, k)
                            else if length(L) < k:</pre>
                               return select k(R, k-length(L)-1)
```

**Recurrence relation:**  $T(n) \le c \cdot n + T(\lceil n/5 \rceil) + T(\lceil 7n/10 + 2 \rceil)$ .

Partitioning, computing n/5 medians

Computing the median of n/5 medians.

Recurrence on L or R.

Recall that the Master Method only works when the subproblems are the same size.

To prove this recurrence relation yields a runtime of O(n), we will employ substitution method.

**Theorem:** T(n) = O(n)

**Proof:** We guess that for all  $n \ge 1$ ,  $T(n) \le kn$  for some k that we will determine later; this means T(n) = O(n).

We proceed by induction. Initial State, if  $1 \le n \le 100$ , then  $T(n) \le c \le kn$  will be true as long as we pick  $k \ge c$ .

Induction assumption, assume for some  $n \ge 100$ , the claim holds for all  $1 \le n' < n$ , i.e.,  $T(n') \le kn'$ . Note that  $1 \le \lfloor n/5 \rfloor$ ,  $\lfloor 7n/10 + 2 \rfloor < n$ . Then:

```
T(n) \le T(\lceil n/5 \rceil) + T(\lceil 7n/10 + 2 \rceil) + cn

\le k \lceil n/5 \rceil + k \lceil 7n/10 + 2 \rceil + cn

= k(n/5 + 1) + k(7n/10 + 2 + 1) + cn

= 9kn/10 + 4k + cn

= kn + (4k + cn - kn/10)
```

Let 4k+cn-kn/10≤0, then k≥50c/3.

The initial state requires k ≥ c, the induction state requires k≥50c/3, and Such k indeed exists! For example, if we pick k = 50c, then 4k + cn - kn/10 ≤ 0 and T(n) ≤ kn holds, completing the induction.

#### **Substitution Method**

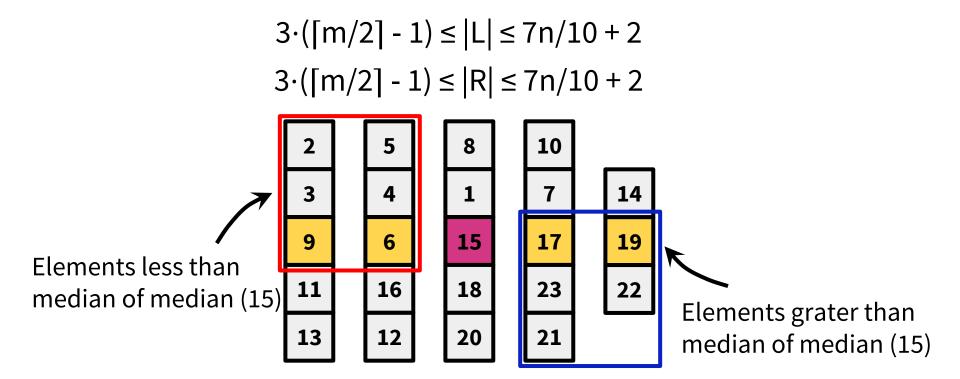
#### To use substitution method, proceed as follows:

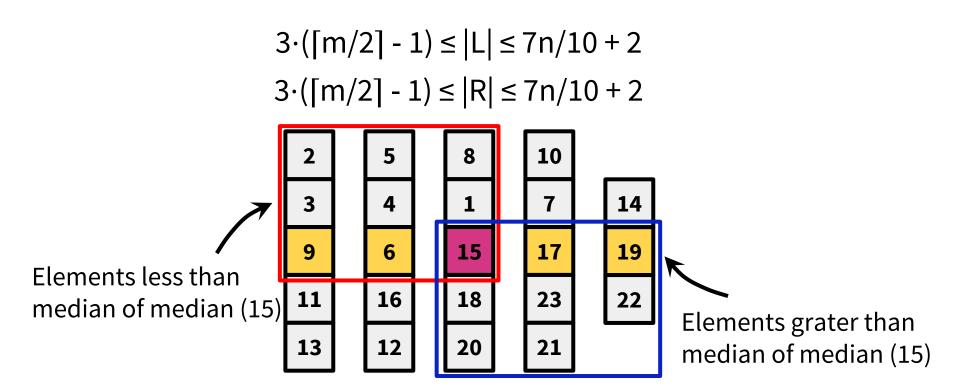
Make a guess of the form of your answer (e.g. kn)

Proceed by induction to prove the bound holds, noting what constraints arise on your undetermined constants (e.g. k).

If you induction succeeds, you will have values for your undetermined constants.

If the induction fails, then it doesn't necessarily imply that your guess fails to bound the recurrence. You may need to find tighter values for the numbers during your analysis.





$$3 \cdot \lceil m/2 \rceil - 1 \le |L| \le 7n/10$$
  
 $3 \cdot \lceil m/2 \rceil - 1 \le |R| \le 7n/10$ 

This may gives you tighter bounds for inductive proof.

#### Summary

- Divide and Conquer: Binary Search, Integer Multiplication, Merge Sort, Select K.
- Providing Correctness: Insertion Sort, Select K.
- Solving Recurrences (when sub-problems have the same size): Recursion Tree Method, Iteration Method, Master Method.
- Solving Recurrences (when sub-problems have different size): Substitution method.

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Acknowledgement: Part of the materials are adapted from Mary Wootter, Virginia Williams and David Eng's lectures on algorithms. We appreciate their contributions.