

Algorithms: Divide-and-Conquer (Merge-Sort)

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Recall Last Lecture: Loop Invariant

CalculateSum(n):

1. $ans = 0$
2. **for** $i = 1, 2, \dots, n$
3. $ans = ans + i$
4. **return** ans

Often used for proof of correctness in presence of loops

Loop invariant = “a statement that is satisfied during the loop”

Ex: At the start of each iteration $ans = (i - 1) * i / 2$

Need to verify (similar to induction)

Initialization: True at the beginning of the 1st iteration of the loop

Maintenance: If it is true before an iteration of the loop, it remains true before the next iteration.

Termination: When the loop terminates, the invariant — usually along with the reason that the loop terminated — gives us a useful property that helps show that the algorithm is correct.

Recall Last Lecture: Loop Invariant

The difficulty is often to come up with the right loop invariant

```
INSERTION-SORT( $A, n$ )
```

```
  for  $j = 2$  to  $n$ 
```

```
     $key = A[j]$ 
```

```
    // Insert  $A[j]$  into the sorted sequence  $A[1..j-1]$ .
```

```
     $i = j - 1$ 
```

```
    while  $i > 0$  and  $A[i] > key$ 
```

```
       $A[i + 1] = A[i]$ 
```

```
       $i = i - 1$ 
```

```
     $A[i + 1] = key$ 
```

```
Linear-Search( $A, v$ )
```

Loop invariant: 1 for $i \leftarrow 1$ to $length(A)$

```
2 if  $A[i] = v$  then
```

```
3 return  $i$ 
```

At the start of each iteration of the “outer” for loop – the loop indexed by j – the subarray $A[1..j-1]$ consists of the elements originally in $A[1, \dots, j-1]$ but in sorted order.

Loop invariant:

At the start of each iteration of the for loop we have $A[j] \neq v$ for all $j < i$.

Recall Last Lecture: Time Analysis

Random-access machine (RAM) model

- ▶ Instructions are executed one after another
- ▶ Simplification basic instructions take constant ($O(1)$) time
 - ▶ Arithmetic: add, subtract, multiply, divide, remainder, floor, ceiling
 - ▶ Data movement: load, store, copy.
 - ▶ Control: conditional/unconditional branch, subroutine call and return

Running time: on a particular input, it is the number of primitive operations (steps) executed

We usually concentrate on finding the **worst-case running time:** the longest running time for *any* input of size n

Order of growth: Focus on the important features

- ▶ Drop lower-order terms
- ▶ Ignore the constant coefficient in the leading term

Recall Last Lecture: Analysis of insertion sort

INSERTION-SORT(A, n)

for $j = 2$ **to** n

$key = A[j]$

 // Insert $A[j]$ into the sorted sequence $A[1..j-1]$.

$i = j - 1$

while $i > 0$ and $A[i] > key$

$A[i + 1] = A[i]$

$i = i - 1$

$A[i + 1] = key$

cost *times*

c_1 n

c_2 $n - 1$

0 $n - 1$

c_4 $n - 1$

c_5 $\sum_{j=2}^n t_j$

c_6 $\sum_{j=2}^n (t_j - 1)$

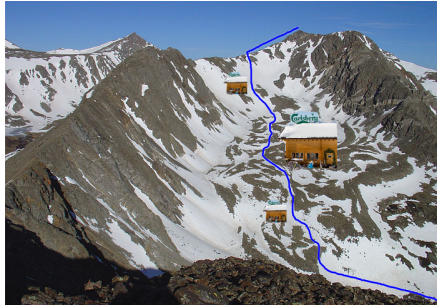
c_7 $\sum_{j=2}^n (t_j - 1)$

c_8 $n - 1$

number of times
line
executed
based on the
value of j

Worst case: The array is in reverse sorted

$$\begin{aligned} T(n) &= c_1 n + c_2(n - 1) + c_4(n - 1) + c_5 \frac{n(n + 1) - 2}{2} \\ &\quad + (c_6 + c_7) \frac{n \cdot (n - 1)}{2} + c_8(n - 1) = \Theta(n^2) \end{aligned}$$



DIVIDE-AND-CONQUER

Merge Sort

Divide-and-Conquer

Powerful algorithmic approach:

recursively divide problem into smaller subproblems

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

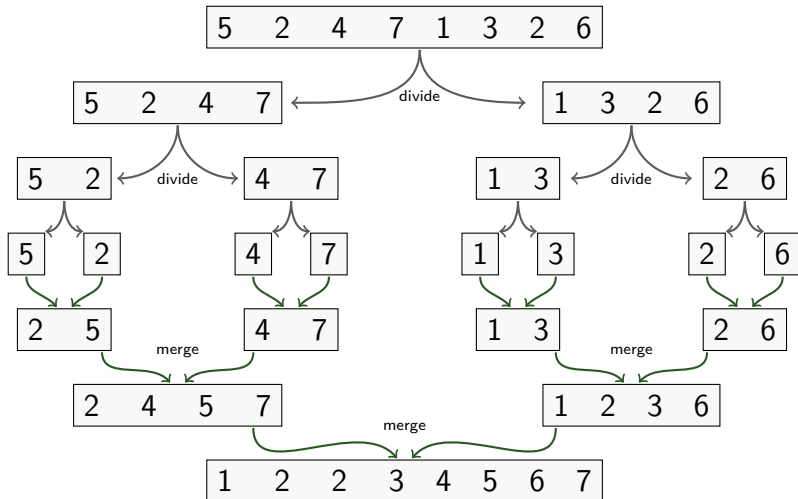
Conquer the subproblems by solving them recursively.

Base case: If the subproblems are small enough, just solve them by brute force

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

Merge Sort = D & C applied to sorting

Example $\langle 5, 2, 4, 7, 1, 3, 2, 6 \rangle$



Merge sort

To sort $A[p \dots r]$:

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

Conquer by recursively sorting the two subarrays $A[p \dots q]$ and $A[q + 1, \dots, r]$

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

```
MERGE-SORT( $A, p, r$ )
```

```
  if  $p < r$ 
```

```
     $q = \lfloor (p + r)/2 \rfloor$ 
```

```
    MERGE-SORT( $A, p, q$ )
```

```
    MERGE-SORT( $A, q + 1, r$ )
```

```
    MERGE( $A, p, q, r$ )
```

```
    // check for base case
```

```
    // divide
```

```
    // conquer
```

```
    // conquer
```

```
    // combine
```

Merging

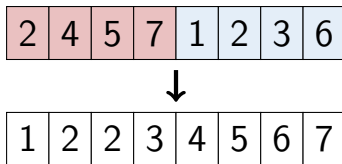
What remains is the MERGE procedure to solve the “merge” problem:

Definition

INPUT: Array A and indices $p \leq q < r$ such that subarrays $A[p \dots q]$, $A[q + 1 \dots r]$ are sorted.

OUTPUT: The two subarrays are merged into a single sorted subarray in $A[p \dots r]$.

Example:



Correctness of Merge-Sort

Assuming MERGE is correct

MERGE-SORT(A, p, r)

if $p < r$

$q = \lfloor (p + r)/2 \rfloor$

MERGE-SORT(A, p, q)

MERGE-SORT($A, q + 1, r$)

MERGE(A, p, q, r)

Theorem

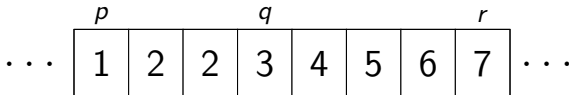
Assuming that the implementation of the MERGE procedure is correct, MERGE-SORT(A, p, r) correctly sorts the numbers in $A[p \dots r]$

Proof by induction on $n = r - p$

Base case $n = 0$: In this case $r = p$ so $A[p \dots r]$ is trivially sorted.

Inductive case: Assume statement true $\forall n \in \{0, 1, \dots, k - 1\}$ and prove the statement for $n = k$.

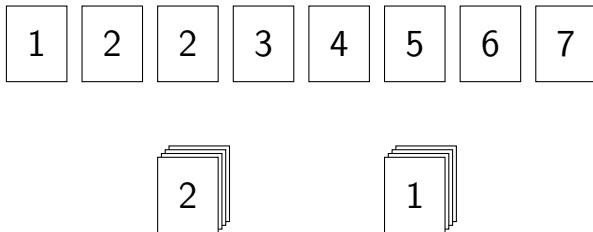
- ▶ By induction hypothesis **MERGE-SORT(A, p, q)** and **MERGE-SORT($A, q+1, r$)** successfully sort the two subarrays.
- ▶ Therefore a correct merge procedure will successfully sort $A[p \dots q]$ as required.



Idea behind linear-time merging

Think of two pile of cards that are placed face up

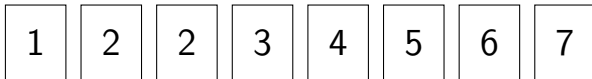
- ▶ Basic step: pick the smaller of the two cards and place it in the output pile



Idea behind linear-time merging

Think of two pile of cards that are placed face up

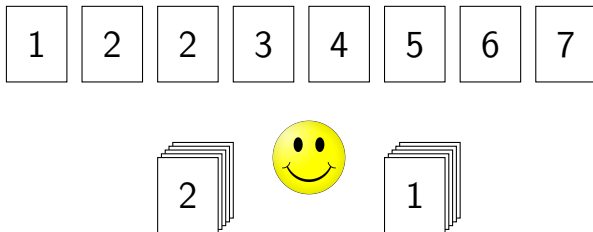
- ▶ Basic step: pick the smaller of the two cards and place it in the output pile
- ▶ There are $\leq n$ basic steps, since each basic step removes one card from the input piles, and we started with n cards in the input pile
- ▶ Therefore the procedure should take $\theta(n)$ time



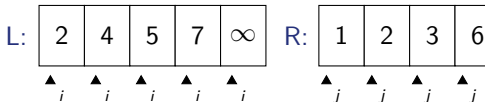
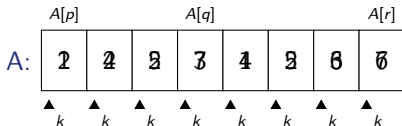
Implementation Simplification

Instead of checking whether a pile is empty:

- ▶ Put in the bottom of each input pile a special **sentinel** card of value ∞
- ▶ Stop once we have performed $n = r - p + 1$ basic steps (picked n cards)



Merging Algorithm


$$\text{MERGE}(A, p, q, r)$$
$$n_1 = q - p + 1$$
$$n_2 = r - q$$

let $L[1..n_1 + 1]$ and $R[1..n_2 + 1]$ be new arrays

for $i = 1$ **to** n_1
$$L[i] = A[p + i - 1]$$

for $j = 1$ **to** n_2

$$R[j] = A[q + j]$$
$$L[n_1 + 1] = \infty$$
$$R[n_2 + 1] = \infty$$
$$i = 1$$
$$j = 1$$
for $k = p$ **to** r

if $L[i] \leq R[j]$

$$A[k] = L[i]$$
$$i = i + 1$$

```

else  $A[k] = R[j]$ 

```

$$j = j + 1$$
$$\text{MERGE}(A, p, q, r)$$
$$n_1 = q - p + 1$$
$$n_2 = r - q$$

let $L[1..n_1 + 1]$ and $R[1..n_2 + 1]$ be new arrays

for $i = 1$ **to** n_1
$$L[i] = A[p + i - 1]$$
for $j = 1$ **to** n_2
$$R[j] = A[q + j]$$
$$L[n_1 + 1] = \infty$$
$$R[n_2 + 1] = \infty$$
$$i = 1$$
 $j = 1$ **for** $k = p$ **to** r

if $L[i] \leq R[j]$

$$A[k] = L[i]$$

Merging Algorithm

► Runtime analysis?

MERGE(A, p, q, r)

$n_1 = q - p + 1$

$n_2 = r - q$

let $L[1 \dots n_1 + 1]$ and $R[1 \dots n_2 + 1]$ be new arrays

for $i = 1$ **to** n_1

$L[i] = A[p + i - 1]$

for $j = 1$ **to** n_2

$R[j] = A[q + j]$

$L[n_1 + 1] = \infty$

$R[n_2 + 1] = \infty$

$i = 1$

$j = 1$

for $k = p$ **to** r

if $L[i] \leq R[j]$

$A[k] = L[i]$

$i = i + 1$

else $A[k] = R[j]$

$j = j + 1$

Analyzing divide-and-conquer algorithms

Use a **recurrence** equation to describe the running time:

- ▶ Let $T(n)$ = “running time on a problem of size n ”
- ▶ If n is small enough say $n \leq c$ for some constant c then $T(n) = \Theta(1)$ (by brute force)
- ▶ Otherwise, suppose we divide into a sub problems each of size n/b .
- ▶ Let $D(n)$ be the time to divide and let $C(n)$ the time to combine solutions.
- ▶ We get the recurrence

$$T(n) = \begin{cases} \Theta(1) & \text{if } n \leq c, \\ aT(n/b) + D(n) + C(n) & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

Analysis of Merge Sort

MERGE-SORT(A, p, r)

if $p < r$	// check for base case
$q = \lfloor (p + r)/2 \rfloor$	// divide
MERGE-SORT(A, p, q)	// conquer
MERGE-SORT($A, q + 1, r$)	// conquer
MERGE(A, p, q, r)	// combine

Divide: takes constant time, i.e., $D(n) = \Theta(1)$

Conquer: recursively solve two subproblems, each of size $n/2 \Rightarrow 2T(n/2)$.

Combine: Merge on an n -element subarray takes $\Theta(n)$ time $\Rightarrow C(n) = \Theta(n)$.

Recurrence for merge sort running time is

$$T(n) = \begin{cases} \Theta(1) & \text{if } n = 1, \\ 2T(n/2) + \Theta(n) & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

Comparing the Two Sorting Algorithms

	worst-case running time	in-place
Insertion Sort	$\Theta(n^2)$	YES
Merge Sort	$\Theta(n \log n)$	NO

- ▶ A sorting algorithm is in-place if the numbers are rearranged within the array (while using at most a constant amount of additional space)
- ▶ Insertion sort is incremental: having sorted the subarray $A[1 \dots j - 1]$, we inserted the single element $A[j]$ into its proper place, yielding the sorted subarray $A[1 \dots j]$.
- ▶ Merge sort is divide-and-conquer: break the problem into smaller subproblems and then combine the solutions to the subproblems

SOLVING RECURRENCES

INDUCTION
INDUCTION
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Analysing Recurrences

As an example, we shall consider the following recurrence

$$T(n) = \begin{cases} c & \text{if } n = 1, \\ 2T(n/2) + c \cdot n & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

Note that this recurrence upper bounds and lower bounds the recurrence for MERGE-SORT by selecting c sufficiently large and small, respectively.

We shall solve recurrences by using three techniques:

- ▶ The substitution method
- ▶ Recursion trees
- ▶ Master method

The substitution method

- ▶ Guess the form of the solution
- ▶ Use mathematical induction to find the constants and show that the solution works.

$$T(n) = 2T(n/2) + c \cdot n$$

A qualified guess is that $T(n) = \Theta(n \log n)$

The substitution method: proof of guess

Upper bound

There exists a constant $a > 0$ such that $T(n) \leq a \cdot n \log n$ for all $n \geq 2$

Proof by induction on n

Base cases: For any constant $n \in \{2, 3, 4\}$, $T(n)$ has a constant value, selecting a larger than this value will satisfy the base cases when $n \in \{2, 3, 4\}$.

Inductive step: Assume statement true $\forall n \in \{2, 3, \dots, k-1\}$ and prove the statement for $n = k$.

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

We can thus select a to be a positive constant so that both the base cases and the inductive step holds. Hence, $T(n) = O(n \log n)$

The substitution method: proof of guess

Lower bound

There exists a constant $b > 0$ such that $T(n) \geq b \cdot n \log n$ for all $n \geq 0$

Proof by induction on n

Base case: For $n = 1$, $T(n) = c$ and $b \cdot n \log n = 0$ so the base case is satisfied for any b .

Inductive step: Assume statement true $\forall n \in \{0, 1, \dots, k-1\}$ and prove the statement for $n = k$.

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

We can thus select b to be a positive constant so that both the base cases and the inductive step holds. Hence, $T(n) = \Omega(n \log n)$

Common mistake using the substitution method

Be careful when using asymptotic notation!

The false proof for the recurrence $T(n) = 4T(n/4) + n$, that $T(n) = O(n)$:

$$\begin{aligned} T(n) &\leq 4(c(n/4)) + n \\ &\leq cn + n = O(n) \end{aligned} \quad \text{wrong!}$$

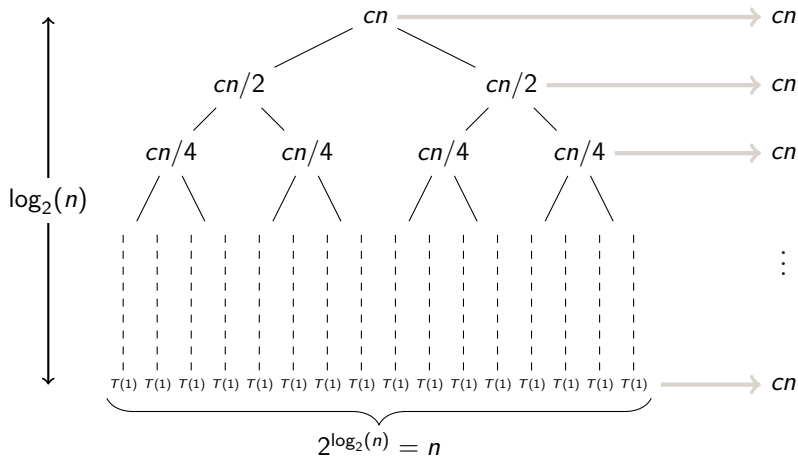
Because we haven't proven the *exact form* of our inductive hypothesis (which is that $T(n) \leq cn$), **this proof is false**

Another way to generate a guess. Then verify by substitution method.

- ▶ Each node corresponds to the cost of a subproblem
- ▶ We sum the costs within each level of the tree to obtain a set of per-level costs,
- ▶ then we sum all the per-level costs to determine the total cost of all levels of the recursion.

Recursion trees

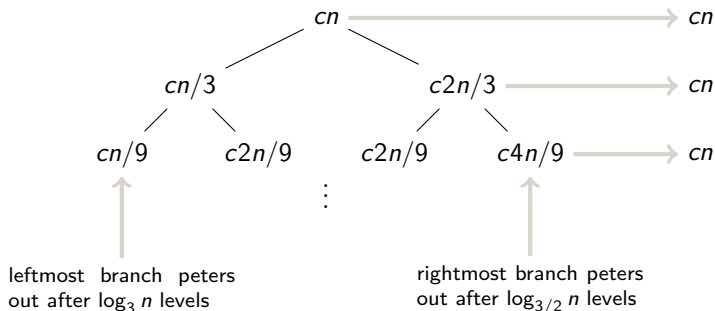
Our favorite example: $T(1) = c$ and $T(n) = 2T(n/2) + cn$



Qualified guess: $T(n) = cn \log_2 n = \Theta(n \log n)$

Recursion trees

Another interesting example: $T(n) = T(n/3) + T(2n/3) + cn$



- ▶ There are $\log_3 n$ full levels and after $\log_{3/2} n$ levels the problem size is down to 1.
- ▶ Each level contributes $\approx cn$

Qualified guess: exist positive constants a, b so that

$$a \cdot n \log_3(n) \leq T(n) \leq b \cdot n \log_{3/2} n \Rightarrow T(n) = \Theta(n \log n)$$

Master method

Used to black-box solve recurrences of the form $T(n) = aT(n/b) + f(n)$

Theorem (Master Theorem)

Let $a \geq 1$ and $b > 1$ be constants, let $T(n)$ be defined on the nonnegative integers by the recurrence

$$T(n) = aT(n/b) + f(n).$$

Then, $T(n)$ has the following asymptotic bounds

- ▶ If $f(n) = O(n^{\log_b a - \epsilon})$ for some constant $\epsilon > 0$, then $T(n) = \Theta(n^{\log_b a})$
- ▶ If $f(n) = \Theta(n^{\log_b a})$, then $T(n) = \Theta(n^{\log_b a} \log n)$
- ▶ If $f(n) = \Omega(n^{\log_b a + \epsilon})$ for some constant $\epsilon > 0$, and if $a \cdot f(n/b) \leq c \cdot f(n)$ for some constant $c < 1$ and all sufficiently large n , then $T(n) = \Theta(f(n))$

Our favorite example: $T(1) = c$ and $T(n) = 2T(n/2) + cn$

- ▶ $f(n) = O(n)$ and $a = b = 2$ so $\log_b(a) = 1$ and $f(n) = \Theta(n^{\log_b(a)})$.
- ▶ By Master theorem, we have $T(n) = \Theta(n \log n)$:)



Summary

- ▶ Divide-and-conquer simple but powerful algorithmic paradigm
- ▶ Solving the recurrence for merge sort shows that it runs in time $\Theta(n \log n)$, i.e., much faster than Insertion sort for large instances
- ▶ For small instances insertion sort can still be faster
- ▶ Solving recurrences fun but delicate