



# Divide&Conquer: MergeSort

*Algorithmic Thinking*

*Luay Nakhleh*

*Department of Computer Science*

*Rice University*

*Spring 2014*



# Divide-and-Conquer Algorithms

---

- ❖ **Divide-and-conquer** algorithms work according to the following general plan:
  1. A problem's instance is divided into several smaller instances of the same problem, ideally of about the same size.
  2. The smaller instances are solved (typically recursively, though sometimes a different algorithm is employed when instances become small enough).
  3. If necessary, the solutions obtained for the smaller instances are combined to get a solution to the original instance.



# Sorting

---

- ❖ Given a list  $L$  of  $n$  elements, we want to sort them in ascending order.
- ❖ The most basic brute-force algorithm would go through every permutation of the  $n$  elements, and return one that is sorted in ascending order.
- ❖ In the worst case, this algorithm takes  $O(n \cdot n!)$  time, since there are  $O(n!)$  permutations, and for each one, it takes  $O(n)$  to check if it is sorted in ascending order.
- ❖ Can we do better? Of course; much better!



# MergeSort: Verbal Description

---

- ❖ MergeSort divides the list  $L[0..n-1]$  into two halves  $L[0..\lfloor n/2 \rfloor - 1]$  and  $L[\lfloor n/2 \rfloor .. n-1]$ , sorting each of them recursively, and then merging the two smaller sorted arrays into a single sorted one.
- ❖ Question: How do we sort each of the two halves?
  - ❖ Answer: by dividing each into two halves, sorting them, and then merging.
- ❖ Question: When do we stop dividing the list?
  - ❖ Answer: When we reach a list of size 1 (since we know how to sort it).

# MergeSort: Pseudo-Code

## The Divide Phase

---



# MergeSort: Pseudo-Code

## The Divide Phase

---

**MergeSort**

**Input:** List L of “orderable” elements

**Modifies:** List L is sorted in-place in ascending order

**Output:** None

**If**  $n > 1$

    copy  $L[0..[n/2]-1]$  to  $A[0..[n/2]-1]$ ;

    copy  $L[[n/2]..n-1]$  to  $B[0..[n/2]-1]$ ;

**MergeSort**( $A[0..[n/2]-1]$ );

**MergeSort**( $B[0..[n/2]-1]$ );

**Merge**(A,B,L);

# MergeSort: Pseudo-Code

## The Combine Phase

---



# MergeSort: Pseudo-Code

## The Combine Phase

---

### Merge

**Input:** Two sorted lists  $A[0..p-1]$  and  $B[0..q-1]$ , and list  $L$

**Modifies:** List  $L$  contains the elements of  $A$  and  $B$  sorted in ascending order

**Output:** None

$i \leftarrow 0; j \leftarrow 0; k \leftarrow 0;$

**While**  $i < p$  and  $j < q$

**If**  $A[i] \leq B[j]$

$L[k] \leftarrow A[i];$

$i \leftarrow i + 1;$

**Else**

$L[k] \leftarrow B[j];$

$j \leftarrow j + 1;$

$k \leftarrow k + 1;$

**If**  $i = p$

    copy  $B[j..q-1]$  to  $L[k..p+q-1]$

**Else**

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



# What Is The Running Time of MergeSort?

---

- ❖ For simplicity, let us assume  $n$  is a power of 2 (that is,  $n=2^m$  for some  $m$ ).
- ❖ Let  $C(n)$  be the number of steps **MergeSort** takes on a list  $L$  that has  $n$  elements.
- ❖ Then, we have the recurrence

$$C(n) = 2C(n/2) + C_{\text{merge}}(n) \text{ for } n > 1, \text{ and } C(1) = 1.$$

- ❖ Notice that  $C_{\text{merge}}(n) = O(n)$ .
- ❖ Question: What function  $g(n)$  gives us  $C(n) = O(g(n))$ ?



# Sequences and Recurrence Relations

---

- ❖ A (numerical) sequence is an ordered list of numbers.
- ❖ Examples: 1,1,2,3,5,8,13,21,...
- ❖ A sequence can also be viewed as a function  $x(n)$ : its argument  $n$  indicates a position of a number in the list, while the function's value  $x(n)$  stands for that number itself.
- ❖  $x(n)$  is called the generic term of the sequence.



# Sequences and Recurrence Relations

---

- ❖ There are two principal ways to define a sequence:
  - ❖ by an explicit formula expressing its generic term as a function of  $n$ ; e.g.,  $x(n) = 2n$  for  $n \geq 0$ ,
  - ❖ by an equation relating its generic term to one or more other terms of the sequences, combined with one or more explicit values for the first term(s); e.g.,

$$\begin{aligned}x(n) &= x(n-1) + n \quad \text{for } n > 0, \\x(0) &= 0.\end{aligned}$$



# Sequences and Recurrence Relations

---

- ❖ There are two principal ways to define a sequence:
  - ❖ by an explicit formula expressing its generic term as a function of  $n$ ; e.g.,  $x(n) = 2n$  for  $n \geq 0$ ,
  - ❖ by an equation relating its generic term to one or more other terms of the sequences, combined with one or more explicit values for the first term(s); e.g.,

$$\begin{aligned} x(n) &= x(n-1) + n \quad \text{for } n > 0, & \longleftarrow \text{recurrence} \\ x(0) &= 0. \end{aligned}$$



# Sequences and Recurrence Relations

---

- ❖ There are two principal ways to define a sequence:
  - ❖ by an explicit formula expressing its generic term as a function of  $n$ ; e.g.,  $x(n) = 2n$  for  $n \geq 0$ ,
  - ❖ by an equation relating its generic term to one or more other terms of the sequences, combined with one or more explicit values for the first term(s); e.g.,

$$\begin{aligned} x(n) &= x(n-1) + n && \text{for } n > 0, && \text{← recurrence} \\ x(0) &= 0. && && \text{← initial condition} \end{aligned}$$

# Sequences and Recurrence Relations

---

- ❖ To solve a given recurrence subject to a given initial condition means to find an explicit formula for the generic term of the sequence that satisfies both the recurrence and the initial condition or to prove that such a sequence does not exist.



# Common Recurrence Types in Algorithm Analysis

---

- ❖ There are a few recurrence types that arise in the analysis of algorithms with remarkable regularity.
- ❖ This happens because they reflect one of the fundamental design techniques.
- ❖ Of particular interest to us is a recurrence that arises when analyzing the running time of divide&conquer algorithms.



# Common Recurrence Types in Algorithm Analysis

---

- ✧ Assuming all smaller instances (resulting from the divide phase) have the same size  $n/b$ , with  $a$  of them being actually solved, we get the following recurrence valid for  $n=b^k, k=1,2,\dots$  :

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

where  $a \geq 1$ ,  $b \geq 2$ , and  $f(n)$  is a function that accounts for the time spent on dividing the problem into smaller ones and combining their solutions.



# The Master Theorem

---

- ✧ Let  $T(n)$  be an eventually nondecreasing function that satisfies the recurrence

$$\begin{aligned} T(n) &= aT(n/b) + f(n) \quad \text{for } n = b^k, \quad k = 1, 2, \dots \\ T(1) &= c, \end{aligned}$$

where  $a \geq 1, b \geq 2, c > 0$ .

- ✧ If  $f(n) = O(n^d)$  where  $d \geq 0$ , then

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

# The Master Theorem: The MergeSort Example

---

- ❖ We've seen that a recurrence for the running time of MergeSort is:  
 $C(n) = 2C(n/2) + C_{\text{merge}}(n)$  for  $n > 1$ , and  $C(1) = 1$ .



# The Master Theorem: The MergeSort Example

---

- ❖ We've seen that a recurrence for the running time of MergeSort is:  
 $C(n) = 2C(n/2) + C_{\text{merge}}(n)$  for  $n > 1$ , and  $C(1) = 1$ .
- ❖ Recall the recurrence in the Master Theorem:

$$T(n) = aT(n/b) + f(n) \quad \text{for } n = b^k, \quad k = 1, 2, \dots$$
$$T(1) = c,$$

# The Master Theorem:

## The MergeSort Example

---

- ❖ We've seen that a recurrence for the running time of MergeSort is:  
 $C(n) = 2C(n/2) + C_{\text{merge}}(n)$  for  $n > 1$ , and  $C(1) = 1$ .
- ❖ Recall the recurrence in the Master Theorem:

$$T(n) = aT(n/b) + f(n) \quad \text{for } n = b^k, \quad k = 1, 2, \dots$$
$$T(1) = c,$$

- ❖ Thus, we have:  $a=2$ ,  $b=2$ ,  $c=1$ , and  $f(n)=O(n^1)$ , i.e.,  $d=1$ .



# The Master Theorem:

## The MergeSort Example

---

- ❖ We've seen that a recurrence for the running time of MergeSort is:  
 $C(n) = 2C(n/2) + C_{\text{merge}}(n)$  for  $n > 1$ , and  $C(1) = 1$ .
- ❖ Recall the recurrence in the Master Theorem:

$$T(n) = aT(n/b) + f(n) \quad \text{for } n = b^k, \quad k = 1, 2, \dots$$
$$T(1) = c,$$

- ❖ Thus, we have:  $a=2$ ,  $b=2$ ,  $c=1$ , and  $f(n)=O(n^1)$ , i.e.,  $d=1$ .
- ❖ Since we have  $a=b^d$ , it follows from the Master Theorem that

$$T(n) = O(n^1 \log n) = O(n \log n)$$