

Sorting



Assumptions

- 1. No knowledge of the keys or numbers we are sorting on.
- 2. Each key supports a comparison interface or operator.
- 3. Sorting entire records, as opposed to numbers, is an implementation detail.
- 4. Each key is unique (just for convenience).

Comparison Sorting

Comparison Sorting

- Given a set of *n* values, there can be *n*! permutations of these values.
- So if we look at the behavior of the sorting algorithm over all possible *n*! inputs we can determine the worst-case complexity of the algorithm.

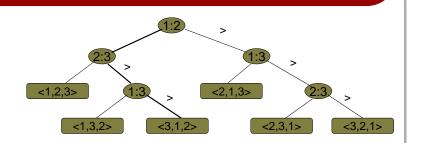
Decision Tree



Decision tree model

- Full binary tree
 - A full binary tree (sometimes proper binary tree or 2tree) is a tree in which every node other than the leaves has two children
- Internal node represents a comparison.
 - Ignore control, movement, and all other operations, just see comparison
- Each leaf represents one possible result (a permutation of the elements in sorted order).
- The height of the tree (i.e., longest path) is the lower bound.

Decision Tree Model



Internal node *i.j* indicates comparison between a_i and a_j , suppose three elements < a1, a2, a3> with instance <6,8,5> Leaf node < $\pi(1)$, $\pi(2)$, $\pi(3)$ > indicates ordering $a_{\pi(1)} \quad a_{\pi(2)} \quad a_{\pi(3)}$. Path of **bold lines** indicates sorting path for <6,8,5>. There are total 3!=6 possible permutations (paths).

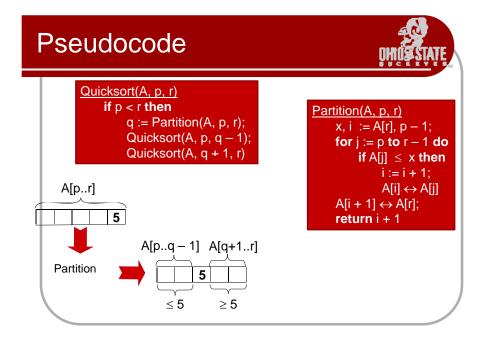
Decision Tree Model



- The longest path is the worst case number of comparisons. The length of the longest path is the height of the decision tree.
- **Theorem 8.1**: Any comparison sort algorithm requires Ω(*n*lg *n*) comparisons in the worst case.
- Proof:
 - Suppose height of a decision tree is *h*, and number of paths (i,e,, permutations) is *n*!.
 - Since a binary tree of height *h* has at most 2^{*h*} leaves,
 - $n! \leq 2^h$, so $h \geq \lg(n!) \geq \Omega(n \lg n)$ (By equation 3.18).
- That is to say: any comparison sort in the worst case needs at least nlg n comparisons.

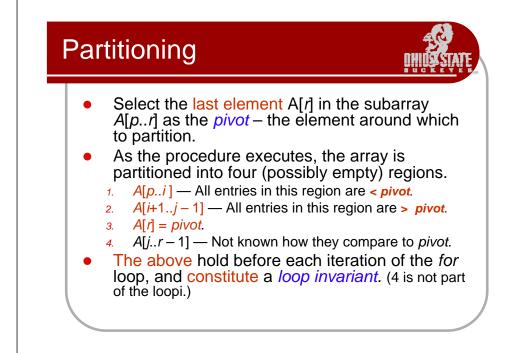
QuickSort Design

- Follows the **divide-and-conquer** paradigm.
- Divide: Partition (separate) the array A[p..r] into two (possibly empty) subarrays A[p..q–1] and A[q+1..r].
 - Each element in A[p..q-1] < A[q].
 - *A*[*q*] < each element in *A*[*q*+1..*r*].
 - Index *q* is computed as part of the partitioning procedure.
- **Conquer:** Sort the two subarrays by recursive calls to quicksort.
- Combine: The subarrays are sorted in place no work is needed to combine them.
- How do the divide and combine steps of quicksort compare with those of merge sort?



Example		DHIDE STATE
initially:	p r 2 5 8 3 9 4 1 7 10 6 i j	<u>note:</u> pivot (x) = 6
next iteration:	<mark>2</mark> 5 8 3 9 4 1 7 10 6 i j	Partition(A, p, r)
next iteration:	2 5 8 3 9 4 1 7 10 6 i j	x, i := A[r], p − 1; for j := p to r − 1 do if A[j] ≤ x then
next iteration:	2 5 8 3 9 4 1 7 10 6 i j	i := i + 1; A[i] \leftrightarrow A[j] A[i + 1] \leftrightarrow A[r];
next iteration:	2 5 3 8 9 4 1 7 10 6 i j	return i + 1

Example ((Continued)	DHUS STATE
next iteration:	2 5 3 8 9 4 1 7 10 6	
next iteration:	2 5 3 8 9 4 1 7 10 6	
next iteration:	2 5 3 4 9 8 1 7 10 6	$\frac{Partition(A, p, r)}{x, i} := A[r], p - 1;$
next iteration:	2 5 3 4 1 8 9 7 10 6	for j := p to r − 1 do if A[j] ≤ x then
next iteration:	2 5 3 4 1 8 9 7 10 6	i := i + 1; A[i] ↔ A[j]
next iteration:	2 5 3 4 1 8 9 7 10 6	A[i + 1] ↔ A[r]; return i + 1
after final swap:	2 5 3 4 1 6 9 7 10 8 i j	



Correctness of Partition



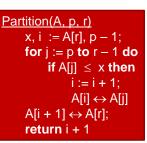
Use loop invariant.

• Initialization:

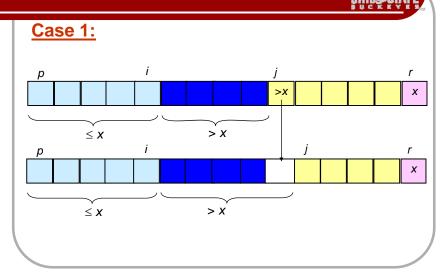
- Before first iteration
 - A[p..i] and A[i+1..j 1] are empty Conds. 1 and 2 are satisfied (trivially).
 - *r* is the index of the *pivot*
 - Cond. 3 is satisfied.

Maintenance:

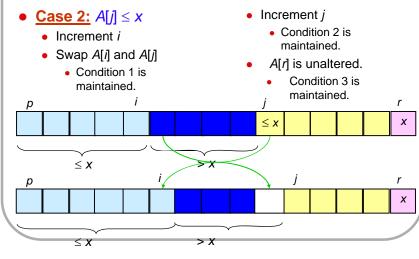
- <u>Case 1:</u> *A*[*j*] > *x*
 - Increment j only.
 - Loop Invariant is maintained.

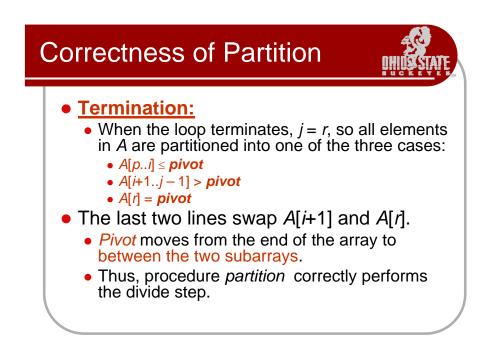


Correctness of Partition



Correctness of Partition





Complexity of Partition



• PartitionTime(*n*) is given by the number of iterations in the *for* loop.

•
$$\Theta(n)$$
: $n = r - p + 1$.

 $\begin{array}{l} \underline{Partition(A, p, r)} \\ x, i := A[r], p - 1; \\ \textbf{for } j := p \textbf{ to } r - 1 \textbf{ do} \\ \textbf{ if } A[j] \leq x \textbf{ then} \\ i := i + 1; \\ A[i] \leftrightarrow A[j] \\ A[i + 1] \leftrightarrow A[r]; \\ \textbf{ return } i + 1 \end{array}$

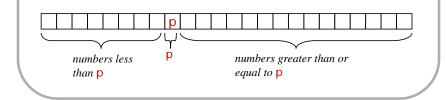
Quicksort Overview

 To sort a[left...right]: if left < right: Partition a[left...right] such that: all a[left...p-1] are less than a[p], and all a[p+1...right] are >= a[p] Quicksort a[left...p-1] Quicksort a[p+1...right] Terminate

Partitioning in Quicksort



- A key step in the Quicksort algorithm is partitioning the array
 - We choose some (any) number p in the array to use as a pivot
 - We partition the array into three parts:



Alternative Partitioning

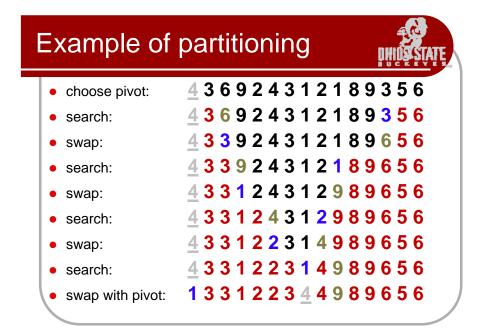


- Choose an array value (say, the first) to use as the pivot
- Starting from the left end, find the first element that is greater than or equal to the pivot
- Searching backward from the right end, find the first element that is less than the pivot
- Interchange (swap) these two elements
- Repeat, searching from where we left off, until done

Alternative Partitioning



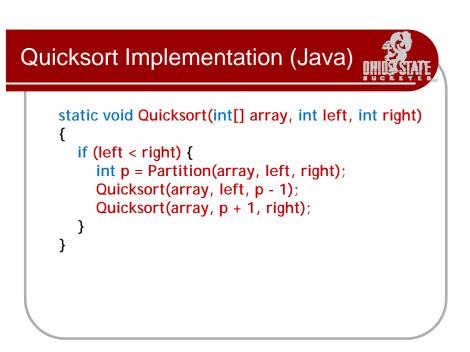
To partition a[left...right]: Set pivot = a[left], I = left + 1, r = right; while I < r, do while I < right & a[I] < pivot , set I = I + 1 while r > left & a[r] >= pivot , set r = r - 1 if I < r, swap a[I] and a[r] Set a[left] = a[r], a[r] = pivot Terminate



Partition Implementation (Java)



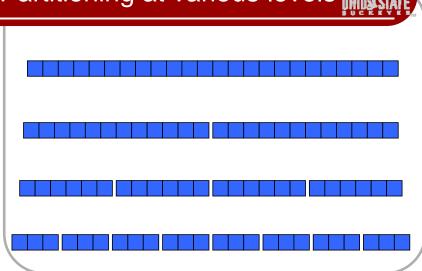
```
static int Partition(int[] a, int left, int right) {
    int p = a[left], l = left + 1, r = right;
    while (l < r) {
        while (l < right && a[l] < p) l++;
        while (r > left && a[r] >= p) r--;
        if (l < r) {
            int temp = a[l]; a[l] = a[r]; a[r] = temp;
        }
    }
    a[left] = a[r];
    a[r] = p;
    return r;
}</pre>
```



Analysis of quicksort—best case

- Suppose each partition operation divides the array almost exactly in half
- Then the depth of the recursion in log₂n
 - Because that's how many times we can halve n
- We note that
 - Each partition is linear over its subarray
 - All the partitions at one level cover the array

Partitioning at various levels



Best Case Analysis



- We cut the array size in half each time
- So the depth of the recursion in log₂n
- At each level of the recursion, all the partitions at that level do work that is linear in n
- $O(\log_2 n) * O(n) = O(n \log_2 n)$
- Hence in the best case, quicksort has time complexity O(n log₂n)
- What about the worst case?

Worst case



- In the worst case, partitioning always divides the size n array into these three parts:
 - A length one part, containing the pivot itself
 - A length zero part, and
 - A length n-1 part, containing everything else
- We don't recur on the zero-length part
- Recurring on the length n-1 part requires (in the worst case) recurring to depth n-1

Worst case partitioning



Worst case for quicksort

- In the worst case, recursion may be n levels deep (for an array of size n)
- But the partitioning work done at each level is still n
- $O(n) * O(n) = O(n^2)$
- So worst case for Quicksort is O(n²)
- When does this happen?
 - There are many arrangements that *could* make this happen
 - Here are two common cases:
 - When the array is already sorted
 - When the array is *inversely* sorted (sorted in the opposite order)

Typical case for quicksort



- If the array is sorted to begin with, Quicksort is terrible: O(n²)
- It is possible to construct other bad cases
- However, Quicksort is usually O(n log₂n)
- The constants are so good that Quicksort is generally the faster algorithm.
- Most real-world sorting is done by Quicksort

Picking a better pixot Sefore, we picked the *first* element of the subarray to use as a pivot If the array is already sorted, this results in O(n²) behavior It's no better if we pick the *last* element We could do an *optimal* quicksort (guaranteed O(n log n)) if we always picked a pivot value that exactly cuts the array in half Such a value is called a median: half of the values in the array are larger, half are smaller The easiest way to find the median is to *sort* the array and pick the value in the middle (!)

Median of three



- Obviously, it doesn't make sense to sort the array in order to find the median to use as a pivot.
- Instead, compare just *three* elements of our (sub)array—the first, the last, and the middle
 - Take the *median* (middle value) of these three as the pivot
 - It's possible (but not easy) to construct cases which will make this technique O(n²)

Quicksort for Small Arrays

- For very small arrays (N<= 20), quicksort does not perform as well as insertion sort
- A good cutoff range is N=10
- Switching to insertion sort for small arrays can save about 15% in the running time

Mergesort vs Quicksort



- Both run in O(*n* lg*n*)
- Compared with Quicksort, Mergesort has less number of comparisons but larger number of moving elements
- In Java, an element comparison is expensive but moving elements is cheap. Therefore, Mergesort is used in the standard Java library for generic sorting

Mergesort vs Quicksort

In C++, copying objects can be expensive while comparing objects often is relatively cheap. Therefore, quicksort is the sorting routine commonly used in C++ libraries