Sorting

Chapter 11



Sorting Algorithms

- Comparison Sorting
 - Selection Sort
 - Bubble Sort
 - Insertion Sort
 - Merge Sort
 - Heap Sort
 - Quick Sort
- Linear Sorting
 - Counting Sort
 - Radix Sort
 - Bucket Sort



Comparison Sorts

- Comparison Sort algorithms sort the input by successive comparison of pairs of input elements.
- Comparison Sort algorithms are very general: they make no assumptions about the values of the input elements.



Sorting Algorithms and Memory

- Some algorithms sort by swapping elements within the input array
- Such algorithms are said to sort in place, and require only O(1) additional memory.
- Other algorithms require allocation of an output array into which values are copied.
- These algorithms do not sort in place, and require O(n) additional memory.



Stable Sort

- > A sorting algorithm is said to be **stable** if the ordering of identical keys in the input is preserved in the output.
- \succ The stable sort property is important, for example, when entries with identical keys are already ordered by another criterion.
- (Remember that stored with each key is a record) containing some useful information.)





Selection Sort

- Selection Sort operates by first finding the smallest element in the input list, and moving it to the output list.
- It then finds the next smallest value and does the same.
- It continues in this way until all the input elements have been selected and placed in the output list in the correct order.
- Note that every selection requires a search through the input list.
- Thus the algorithm has a nested loop structure
- Selection Sort Example

Selection Sort



$$T(n) = \sum_{i=0}^{n-2} i = O(n^2)$$



Bubble Sort

- Bubble Sort operates by successively comparing adjacent elements, swapping them if they are out of order.
- At the end of the first pass, the largest element is in the correct position.
- > A total of n passes are required to sort the entire array.
- Thus bubble sort also has a nested loop structure
- Bubble Sort Example

Expert Opinion on Bubble Sort



Bubble Sort

$$T(n) = \sum_{i=0}^{n-2} i = O(n^2)$$



Comparison

- Thus both Selection Sort and Bubble Sort have O(n²) running time.
- > However, both can also easily be designed to
 - Sort in place
 - Stable sort

Example: Insertion Sort





Example: Insertion Sort



Example: Insertion Sort

INSERTION-SORT(A)		cost	times
1	for $j \leftarrow 2$ to length[A]	c_1	n
2	do key $\leftarrow A[j]$	<i>c</i> ₂	n - 1
3	\triangleright Insert $A[j]$ into the sorted		
	sequence $A[1 \dots j - 1]$.	0	n - 1
4	$i \leftarrow j - 1$	C4	n - 1
5	while $i > 0$ and $A[i] > key$	c_5	$\sum_{i=2}^{n} t_i$
6	do $A[i + 1] \leftarrow A[i]$	<i>c</i> ₆	$\sum_{i=2}^{n} (t_i - 1)$
7	$i \leftarrow i - 1$	<i>C</i> 7	$\sum_{i=2}^{n} (t_i - 1)$
8	$A[i+1] \leftarrow key$	c_8	n-1

Norst case (reverse order):
$$t_j = j$$
: $\sum_{j=2}^n j = \frac{n(n+1)}{2} - 1 \rightarrow T(n) \in \theta(n^2)$



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Insertion Sort Example



Comparison

- Selection Sort
- Bubble Sort
- Insertion Sort
 - □ Sort in place
 - Stable sort
 - **\Box** But O(n²) running time.
- Can we do better?



Recursive Sorts

Given list of objects to be sorted

> Split the list into two sublists.



Recursively have a friend sort the two sublists.

Combine the two sorted sublists into one entirely sorted list.





Divide and Conquer





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Merge Sort

- Merge-sort is a sorting algorithm based on the divideand-conquer paradigm
- It was invented by John von Neumann, one of the pioneers of computing, in 1945



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Divide-and-Conquer

> Divide-and conquer is a general algorithm design paradigm:

- \Box Divide: divide the input data *S* in two disjoint subsets S_1 and S_2
- \Box Recur: solve the subproblems associated with S_1 and S_2
- **Conquer**: combine the solutions for S_1 and S_2 into a solution for S
- > The base case for the recursion are subproblems of size 0 or 1

Merge Sort



Split Set into Two (no real work)

Get one friend to sort the first half.

Get one friend to sort the second half.







Merge-Sort

- Merge-sort on an input sequence S with n elements consists of three steps:
 - **Divide**: partition *S* into two sequences S_1 and S_2 of about n/2 elements each
 - \Box Recur: recursively sort S_1 and S_2
 - \Box Conquer: merge S_1 and S_2 into a unique sorted sequence

```
Algorithm mergeSort(S)

Input sequence S with n elements

Output sequence S sorted

if S.size() > 1

(S_1, S_2) \leftarrow split(S, n/2)

mergeSort(S<sub>1</sub>)

mergeSort(S<sub>2</sub>)

merge(S<sub>1</sub>, S<sub>2</sub>, S)
```

Merging Two Sorted Sequences

- The conquer step of merge-sort consists of merging two sorted sequences A and B into a sorted sequence S containing the union of the elements of A and B
- > Merging two sorted sequences, each with n/2 elements takes O(n) time
- Normally, merging is not in-place: new memory must be allocated to hold S.
- It is possible to do in-place merging using linked lists.
 - Code is more complicated
 - Only changes memory usage by a constant factor



Merging Two Sorted Sequences (As Arrays)

```
Algorithm merge(S_1, S_2, S):
Input: Sorted sequences S_1 and S_2 and an empty sequence S, implemented as arrays
Output: Sorted sequence S containing the elements from S_1 and S_2
i \leftarrow j \leftarrow 0
while i < S_1.size() and j < S_2.size() do
  if S_1.get(i) \le S_2.get(j) then
    S.addLast(S<sub>1</sub>.get(i))
    i \leftarrow i + 1
  else
    S.addLast(S_2.get(j))
    i \leftarrow i + 1
while i < S_1.size() do
  S.addLast(S_1.get(i))
  i \leftarrow i + 1
while j < S_2.size() do
  S.addLast(S_2.get(j))
  j \leftarrow j + 1
```



Merging Two Sorted Sequences (As Linked Lists)

Algorithm merge(S_1, S_2, S):

```
Input: Sorted sequences S_1 and S_2 and an empty sequence S, implemented as linked lists
```

Output: Sorted sequence S containing the elements from S_1 and S_2

while $S_1 \neq \emptyset$ and $S_2 \neq \emptyset$ do

```
if S_1.first().element() \leq S_2.first().element() then
```

```
S.addLast(S<sub>1</sub>.remove(S<sub>1</sub>.first()))
```

 $i \leftarrow i + 1$

else

```
S.addLast(S_2.remove(S_2.first()))
```

while $S_1 \neq \emptyset$ do

 $S.addLast(S_1.remove(S_1.first()))$

```
while S_2 \neq \emptyset do
```

```
S.addLast(S<sub>2</sub>.remove(S<sub>2</sub>.first()))
```

Merge-Sort Tree

An execution of merge-sort is depicted by a binary tree
 each node represents a recursive call of merge-sort and stores

- Insorted sequence before the execution and its partition
- \diamond sorted sequence at the end of the execution
- the root is the initial call

□ the leaves are calls on subsequences of size 0 or 1



Execution Example

Partition





Recursive call, partition



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Recursive call, partition





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Recursive call, base case





Recursive call, base case





> Merge





> Recursive call, ..., base case, merge





Merge





Recursive call, ..., merge, merge



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➢ Merge





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Analysis of Merge-Sort

> The height h of the merge-sort tree is $O(\log n)$

□ at each recursive call we divide in half the sequence,

- The overall amount or work done at the nodes of depth *i* is *O*(*n*)
 we partition and merge 2ⁱ sequences of size *n*/2ⁱ
 we make 2ⁱ⁺¹ recursive calls
- > Thus, the total running time of merge-sort is $O(n \log n)$



Heapsort

- Invented by Williams & Floyd in 1964
- > O(*nlogn*) worst case like merge sort
- Sorts in place like insertion sort
- Combines the best of both algorithms



Largest i values are sorted on the right. Remaining values are off to the left.



Max is easier to find if a heap.



Heap-Sort Algorithm

- Build an array-based (max) heap
- Iteratively call removeMax() to extract the keys in descending order
- Store the keys as they are extracted in the unused tail portion of the array

Heap-Sort Algorithm

Algorithm HeapSort(S)

Input: S, an unsorted array of comparable elements Output: S, a sorted array of comparable elements T = MakeMaxHeap (S) for i = n-1 downto 1 S[i] = T.removeMax()



Heap Sort Example



Heap-Sort Running Time

The heap can be built bottom-up in O(n) time

- Extraction of the ith element takes O(log(n i+1)) time (for downheaping)
- Thus total run time is

$$T(n) = O(n) + \sum_{i=1}^{n} \log(n - i + 1)$$
$$= O(n) + \sum_{i=1}^{n} \log i$$
$$\leq O(n) + \sum_{i=1}^{n} \log n$$
$$= O(n \log n)$$





Divide and Conquer







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QuickSort

- Invented by C.A.R. Hoare in 1960
- "There are two ways of constructing a software design: One way is to make it so simple that there are obviously no deficiencies, and the other way is to make it so complicated that there are no obvious deficiencies. The first method is far more difficult."



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Quick-Sort

Quick-sort is a divide-andconquer algorithm:

Divide: pick a random element x (called a pivot) and partition S into

 $\diamond L \text{ elements less than } x$ $\diamond E \text{ elements equal to } x$ $\diamond G \text{ elements greater than } x$

Recur: Quick-sort *L* and *G*

 $\Box Conquer: join L, E and G$



The Quick-Sort Algorithm

Algorithm QuickSort(S)

```
if S.size() > 1
(L, E, G) = Partition(S)
QuickSort(L)
QuickSort(G)
S = (L, E, G)
```

Partition

- Remove, in turn, each element y from S and
- Insert y into sequence L, E or G, depending on the result of the comparison with the pivot x (e.g., last element in S)
- Each insertion and removal is at the beginning or at the end of a sequence, and hence takes O(1) time
- Thus, partitioning takes
 O(n) time

Algorithm *Partition*(*S*) **Input** sequence *S* Output subsequences *L*, *E*, *G* of the elements of S less than, equal to, or greater than the pivot, resp. $L, E, G \leftarrow$ empty sequences x S.getLast().element while $\neg S.isEmpty()$ $y \leftarrow S.removeFirst(S)$ if y < xL.addLast(y)else if y = xE.addLast(y) else { y > x } G.addLast(y) return L, E, G

Partition

Since elements are removed at the beginning and added at the end, this partition algorithm is stable. Algorithm *Partition*(*S*) **Input** sequence *S* Output subsequences *L*, *E*, *G* of the elements of S less than, equal to, or greater than the pivot, resp. $L, E, G \leftarrow$ empty sequences x S.getLast().element while $\neg S.isEmpty()$ $y \leftarrow S.removeFirst(S)$ if y < xL.addLast(y) else if y = xE.addLast(y) else { y > x } G.addLast(y) return L, E, G

Quick-Sort Tree

- An execution of quick-sort is depicted by a binary tree
 - Each node represents a recursive call of quick-sort and stores
 - Unsorted sequence before the execution and its pivot
 - Sorted sequence at the end of the execution
 - The root is the initial call
 - □ The leaves are calls on subsequences of size 0 or 1





Execution Example

Pivot selection





> Partition, recursive call, pivot selection





> Partition, recursive call, base case



Recursive call, ..., base case, join





Recursive call, pivot selection





> Partition, ..., recursive call, base case





Join, join



Quick-Sort Properties

- The algorithm just described is stable, since elements are removed from the beginning of the input sequence and placed on the end of the output sequences (L,E, G).
- However it does not sort in place: O(n) new memory is allocated for L, E and G
- Is there an in-place quick-sort?

In-Place Quick-Sort

Note: Use the lecture slides here instead of the textbook implementation (Section 11.2.2)

Partition set into two using randomly chosen pivot



In-Place Quick-Sort



Get one friend to sort the first half.



Get one friend to sort the second half.



In-Place Quick-Sort



Glue pieces together. (No real work)

14,23,25,30,31,52,62,79,88,98



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Problem: Partition a list into a set of small values and a set of large values.



Precise Specification

Precondition: A[p...r] is an arbitrary list of values. x = A[r] is the pivot.



Postcondition: A is rearranged such that $A[p...q-1] \le A[q] = x < A[q+1...r]$ for some q.



Loop Invariant



Loop invariant:

- 1. All entries in $A[p \dots i]$ are \leq pivot.
- 2. All entries in $A[i + 1 \dots j 1]$ are > pivot.
- 3. A[r] = pivot.



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Maintaining Loop Invariant

- Consider element at location j
 - If greater than pivot, incorporate into
 '> set' by incrementing j.



 If less than or equal to pivot, incorporate into '≤ set' by swapping with element at location i+1 and incrementing both i and j.



- Measure of progress: size of unprocessed set. ·

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Maintaining Loop Invariant



Establishing Loop Invariant

Loop invariant:

- 1. All entries in $A[p \dots i]$ are \leq pivot.
- 2. All entries in $A[i + 1 \dots j 1]$ are > pivot.
- 3. A[r] = pivot.



Establishing Postcondition



Establishing Postcondition







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In-Place Partitioning: Running Time

Each iteration takes O(1) time \rightarrow Total = O(n)





or
In-Place Partitioning is NOT Stable



or





The In-Place Quick-Sort Algorithm

```
Algorithm QuickSort(A, p, r)
```

```
if p < r
    q = Partition(A, p, r)
    QuickSort(A, p, q - 1)
    QuickSort(A, q + 1, r)
```



Running Time of Quick-Sort



Quick-Sort Running Time

- We can analyze the running time of Quick-Sort using a recursion tree.
- > At depth i of the tree, the problem is partitioned into 2^i sub-problems.
- The running time will be determined by how balanced these partitions are.







Quick Sort



If the list is already sorted, then the list is worst case unbalanced.



QuickSort: Choosing the Pivot

Common choices are:

- random element
- middle element
- median of first, middle and last element



Best-Case Running Time

- The best case for quick-sort occurs when each pivot partitions the array in half.
- Then there are O(log n) levels
- There is O(n) work at each level
- Thus total running time is O(n log n)





Worst Time:

Expected Time:



Worst-case Running Time

- The worst case for quick-sort occurs when the pivot is the unique minimum or maximum element
- > One of *L* and *G* has size n 1 and the other has size 0
- The running time is proportional to the sum

 $n + (n - 1) + \ldots + 2 + 1$

> Thus, the worst-case running time of quick-sort is $O(n^2)$



Average-Case Running Time

- If the pivot is selected randomly, the average-case running time for Quick Sort is O(n log n).
- > Proving this requires a probabilistic analysis.
- We will simply provide an intution for why average-case O(n log n) is reasonable.



Expected Time Complexity for Quick Sort

- Q: Why is it reasonable to expect $O(n \log n)$ time complexity?
- A: Because on average, the partition is not too unbalanced.

Example: Imagine a deterministic partition, in which the 2 subsets are always in fixed proportion, i.e., p(n-1) & q(n-1), where p,q are constants, $p,q \in [0...1], p+q=1$.



Expected Time Complexity for Quick Sort

Then
$$T(n) = T(p(n-1)) + T(q(n-1)) + O(n)$$

wlog suppose that $a > n$

Let k be the depth of the recursion tree Then $q^k n = 1 \rightarrow k = \log n / \log(1 / q)$

Thus $k \in O(\log n)$:

O(n) work done per level $\rightarrow T(n) = O(n \log n)$.



Properties of QuickSort

- In-place?
- ➤ Stable? ✓
- Fast?
 - Depends.
 - □ Worst Case: $\Theta(n^2)$
 - \Box Expected Case: $\Theta(n \log n)$, with small constants



Summary of Comparison Sorts

Algorithm	Best Case	Worst Case	Average Case	ln Place	Stable	Comments
Selection	n²	n²		Yes	Yes	
Bubble	n	n ²		Yes	Yes	
Insertion	n	n²		Yes	Yes	Good if often almost sorted
Merge	n log n	n log n		No	Yes	Good for very large datasets that require swapping to disk
Неар	n log n	n log n		Yes	No	Best if guaranteed n log n required
Quick	n log n	n²	n log n	Yes	No	Usually fastest in practice

Comparison Sort: Lower Bound

MergeSort and HeapSort are both $\theta(n \log n)$ (worst case).

Can we do better?



Comparison Sort: Decision Trees

Example: Sorting a 3-element array A[1..3]





Comparison Sort: Decision Trees
For a 3-element array, there are 6 external nodes.
For an n-element array, there are *n*! external nodes.





Comparison Sort

- To store n! external nodes, a decision tree must have a height of at least [log n!]
- Worst-case time is equal to the height of the binary decision tree.

Thus $T(n) \in \Omega(\log n!)$ where $\log n! = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \log i \ge \sum_{i=1}^{\lfloor n/2 \rfloor} \log \lfloor n/2 \rfloor \in \Omega(n \log n)$ Thus $T(n) \in \Omega(n \log n)$

Thus MergeSort & HeapSort are asymptotically optimal.



Linear Sorts?

Comparison sorts are very general, but are $\Omega(n \log n)$

Faster sorting may be possible if we can constrain the nature of the input.

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Example 1. Counting Sort

- Invented by Harold Seward in 1954.
- Counting Sort applies when the elements to be sorted come from a finite (and preferably small) set.
- For example, the elements to be sorted are integers in the range [0...k-1], for some fixed integer k.
- \succ We can then create an array V[0...k-1] and use it to count the number of elements with each value [0...k-1].
- > Then each input element can be placed in exactly the right place in the output array in constant time.



Input: 3 3 2 1 1 1 1 1 2 2 1 0 0 1 0 ()() Output: 00 $\mathbf{0}$ $\left(\right)$ 2 2 3 3 3 0 1

 \succ Input: N records with integer keys between [0...3].

- Output: Stable sorted keys.
- > Algorithm:
 - Count frequency of each key value to determine transition locations
 - Go through the records in order putting them where they go.





Stable sort: If two keys are the same, their order does not change.

Thus the 4th record in input with digit 1 must be the 4th record in output with digit 1.

It belongs at output index 8, because 8 records go before it ie, 5 records with a smaller digit & 3 records with the same digit

Count These!



Input: () Output: Index: 10 11 12 13 14 15 16 17 18

Value v: # of records with digit v:



N records. Time to count? $\theta(N)$

Input: () Output: Index: 10 11 12 13 14 15 16 17 18

Value v: # of records with digit v: # of records with digit < v:

N records, k different values. Time to count? $\theta(k)$

Input: () Output: ••• Index: 10 11 12 13 14 15 16 17 18 ()

= location of first record with digit v.

of records with digit < v:

Value v:

 \mathbf{O}

3 3 2 Input: 2 2 0 1 1 0 1 () () ()Output: Index: 3 10 11 12 13 14 15 16 17 18 2 5 8 4 7 9 1 6 Value v: 3 Location of first record 14 with digit v.

Algorithm: Go through the records in order putting them where they go.



Loop Invariant

- The first i-1 keys have been placed in the correct locations in the output array
- The auxiliary data structure v indicates the location at which to place the *i*th key for each possible key value from [1..k-1].



Input: () () Output: Index: 10 11 12 13 14 15 16 17 18 () Value v: Location of next record with digit v.

Algorithm: Go through the records in order putting them where they go.



Input: () Output: () Index: 10 11 12 13 14 15 16 17 18 Value v: () Location of next record with digit v.

Algorithm: Go through the records in order putting them where they go.



Input: 3 3 2 2 2 1 1 0 1 0 () ()Output: 1 () () Index: 3 10 11 12 13 14 15 16 17 18 2 5 8 1 4 7 9 0 6 Value v: 3 \mathbf{O} Location of next record 6 14 with digit v.

Algorithm: Go through the records in order putting them where they go.



Input: () Output: Index: 10 11 12 13 14 15 16 17 18 Value v: \mathbf{O} Location of next record with digit v.

Algorithm: Go through the records in order putting them where they go.



Input: () Output: Index: 10 11 12 13 14 15 16 17 18 () Value v: Location of next record with digit v.

Algorithm: Go through the records in order putting them where they go.



Input: () Output: Index: 10 11 12 13 14 15 16 17 18 () Value v: Location of next record with digit v.

Algorithm: Go through the records in order putting them where they go.



1

8

3

1

7

Input: Output: () Index: ()

Location of next record with digit v.

()

1

3

4

5

6

2

Value v: 0 2 8 18 14

2

0

0

9

Algorithm: Go through the records in order putting them where they go.



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10 11 12 13 14 15 16 17 18

3

2

()

3

Input: () Output: Index: 10 11 12 13 14 15 16 17 18 () Value v: () Location of next record with digit v.

Algorithm: Go through the records in order putting them where they go.


Input: () () Output: Index: 10 11 12 13 14 15 16 17 18 () Value v: () Location of next record with digit v.

Algorithm: Go through the records in order putting them where they go.



Input: 2 2 2 0 () N 1 3 Output: 0 1 3 0 () 1 1 Index: 3 10 11 12 13 14 15 16 17 18 2 4 5 7 8 9 1 6 () Value v: 3 () Location of next record 2 10 14 19 with digit v.

Algorithm: Go through the records in order putting them where they go.



Input: () N Output: Index: 10 11 12 13 14 15 16 17 18 Value v: () Location of next record with digit v.

Algorithm: Go through the records in order putting them where they go.



Input: () Output: Index: 10 11 12 13 14 15 16 17 18 () Value v: () Location of next record with digit v.

Algorithm: Go through the records in order putting them where they go.



Input: () Output: Index: 10 11 12 13 14 15 16 17 18 () Value v: () Location of next record with digit v.

Algorithm: Go through the records in order putting them where they go.



Input: N ()Output: Index: 10 11 12 13 14 15 16 17 18 Value v: Location of next record with digit v.

Time = $\theta(N)$

Total = $\theta(N+k)$



Example 2. RadixSort

Input:

- An array of *N* numbers.
- Each number contains d digits.
- Each digit between [0...k-1]

Output:

• Sorted numbers.

Digit Sort:

- Select one digit
- Separate numbers into k piles
 based on selected digit (e.g., Counting Sort).

Stable sort: If two cards are the same for that digit, their order does not change.



Sort wrt which digit first?

The most significant.



Sort wrt which digit Second?

The next most significant.

All meaning in first sort lost.





Sort wrt which digit first?

The least significant.



Sort wrt which digit Second?

The next least significant.







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344		333		2 24
125	~	143	~	1 25
333	Sort wrt which	243	Sort wrt which	2 25
134	digit first?	344	digit Second?	3 25
224		134		3 33
334	The least	224	The next least	1 34
143	significant.	334	significant.	3 34
225	C	125	C	1 43
325		225		2 43
243		325		3 4 4
	CRE 2011	2 Ar	Is sorted wrt least sig	ہے۔ . 2 digits.

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Is sorted wrt first i+1 digits.

These are in the correct order because sorted wrt high order digit





Is sorted wrt first i+1 digits.

These are in the
correct order
because was sorted &
stable sort left sorted

Loop Invariant



> The keys have been correctly stable-sorted with respect to the *i-1* least-significant digits.



Running Time

RADIX-SORT(A, d)for $i \leftarrow 1$ to d **do** use a stable sort to sort array A on digit *i* Running time is $\Theta(d(n+k))$ Where d = # of digits in each number n = # of elements to be sorted k = # of possible values for each digit

Example 3. Bucket Sort

- > Applicable if input is constrained to finite interval, e.g., [0...1).
- If input is random and uniformly distributed, expected run time is $\Theta(n)$.



Bucket Sort

insert A[i] into list $B[\lfloor n \cdot A[i] \rfloor]$





Loop Invariants



Loop 1

The first *i-1* keys have been correctly placed into buckets of width 1/n.

Loop 2

□ The keys within each of the first *i*-1 buckets have been correctly stable-sorted.



PseudoCode

BUCKET-SORT(A, n)Expected Running Timefor $i \leftarrow 1$ to ndo insert A[i] into list $B[\lfloor n \cdot A[i] \rfloor]$ $\frown \Theta(1) \times n$ do insert $i \leftarrow 0$ to n - 1 $\leftarrow \Theta(1) \times n$ $\frown \Theta(1) \times n$ do sort list B[i] with insertion sort $\leftarrow \Theta(1) \times n$ concatenate lists $B[0], B[1], \ldots, B[n-1] \leftarrow \Theta(n)$ $\ominus O(n)$ return the concatenated lists $\bigcirc (n)$