

## Next...

1. Covered basics of a simple design technique (Divide-and-conquer) – Ch. 2 of the text.
2. Next, more sorting algorithms.

# Sorting

Switch from design paradigms to applications.  
Sorting and order statistics (Ch 6 – 9).

First:

## Heapsort

–Heap *data structure* and priority queue *ADT*

## Quicksort

–a popular algorithm, very fast on average

## Why Sorting?

“When in doubt, sort” – one of the principles of algorithm design. Sorting used as a subroutine in many of the algorithms:

- Searching in databases: we can do binary search on sorted data
- A large number of computer graphics and computational geometry problems
- Closest pair, element uniqueness
- A large number of sorting algorithms are developed representing different algorithm design techniques.
- A lower bound for sorting  $\Omega(n \log n)$  is used to prove lower bounds of other problems.

## Sorting algorithms so far

- Insertion sort, selection sort
  - Worst-case running time  $\Theta(n^2)$ ; in-place
- Merge sort
  - Worst-case running time  $\Theta(n \log n)$ , but requires additional memory  $\Theta(n)$ ; (WHY?)

## Selection sort

```
Selection-Sort(A[1..n]):  
  For i → n downto 2  
    A:   Find the largest element among A[1..i]  
    B:   Exchange it with A[i]
```

- A takes  $\Theta(n)$  and B takes  $\Theta(1)$ :  $\Theta(n^2)$  in total
- Idea for improvement: use a *data structure*, to do both A and B in  $O(\lg n)$  time, balancing the work, achieving a better trade-off, and a total running time  $O(n \log n)$ .

## Heap sort

- Binary heap data structure  $A$ 
  - array
  - Can be viewed as a nearly complete binary tree
    - All levels, except the lowest one are completely filled
  - The key in root is greater or equal than all its children, and the left and right subtrees are again binary heaps
- Two attributes
  - $\text{length}[A]$
  - $\text{heap-size}[A]$

# Heap sort

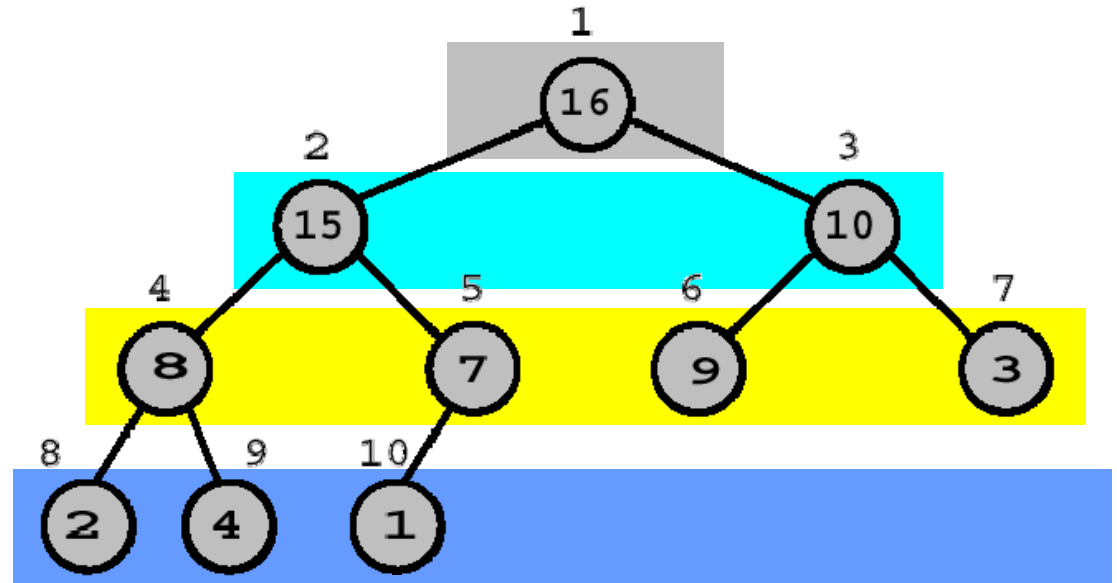
**Parent (*i*)**  
return  $\lfloor i/2 \rfloor$

**Left (*i*)**  
return  $2i$

**Right (*i*)**  
return  $2i+1$

Heap property:

$$A[\text{Parent}(i)] \geq A[i]$$



1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
16	15	10	8	7	9	3	2	4	1

Level: 3      2      1      0

## Heap sort

- Notice the implicit tree links; children of node  $i$  are  $2i$  and  $2i+1$
- Why is this useful?
  - In a binary representation, a multiplication/division by two is left/right shift
  - Adding 1 can be done by adding the lowest bit



## Heapify

- $i$  is index into the array  $A$
- Binary trees rooted at  $\text{Left}(i)$  and  $\text{Right}(i)$  are heaps
- But,  $A[i]$  might be smaller than its children, thus violating the heap property
- The method Heapify makes  $A$  a heap once more by moving  $A[i]$  down the heap until the heap property is satisfied again

## Heapify

$n$  is total number of elements

HEAPIFY( $A, i$ )

1  $\triangleright$  Left & Right subtrees of  $i$  are heaps.

2  $\triangleright$  Makes subtree rooted at  $i$  a heap.

3  $l \leftarrow \text{LEFT}(i)$   $\triangleright l = 2i$

4  $r \leftarrow \text{RIGHT}(i)$   $\triangleright r = 2i + 1$

5 **if**  $l \leq n$  and  $A[l] > A[i]$

6     **then**  $largest \leftarrow l$

7     **else**  $largest \leftarrow i$

8 **if**  $r \leq n$  and  $A[r] > A[largest]$

9     **then**  $largest \leftarrow r$

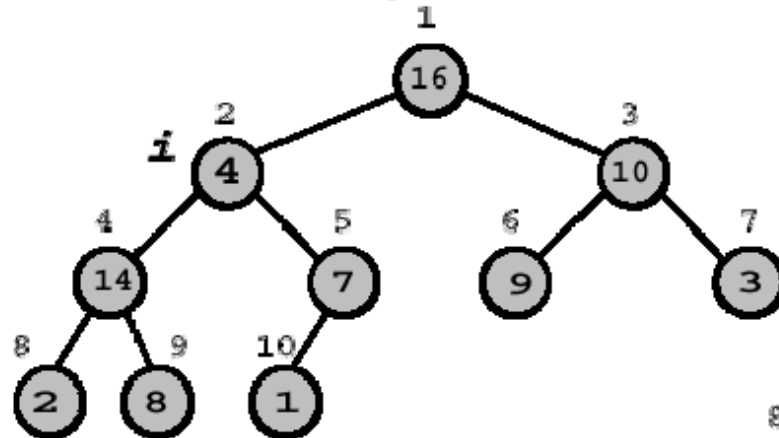
10 **if**  $largest \neq i$

11     **then** exchange  $A[i] \leftrightarrow A[largest]$

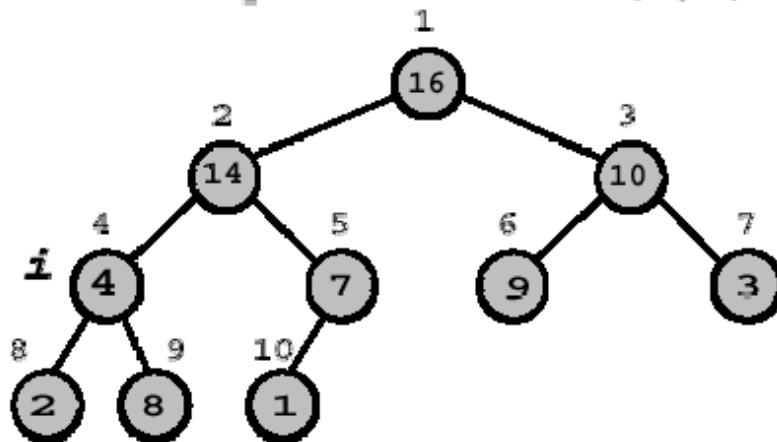
12         HEAPIFY( $A, largest$ )

# Heapify Example

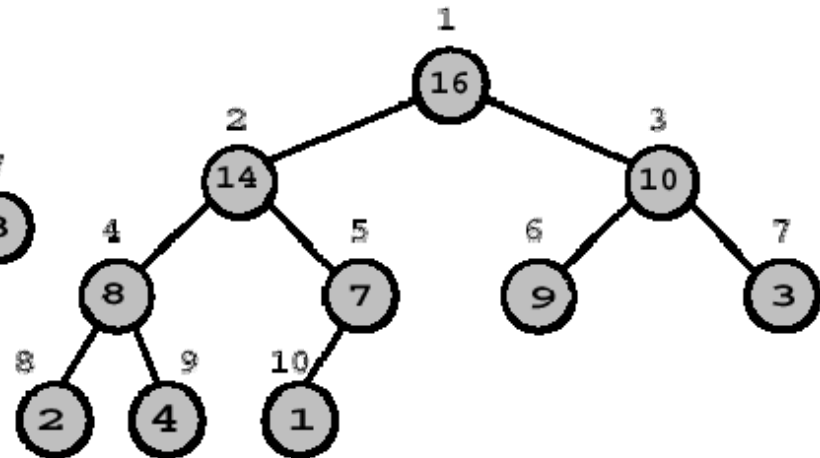
1. Call HEAPIFY(A,2)



2. Exchange A[2] with A[4] and recursively call HEAPIFY(A,4)



3. Exchange A[4] with A[9] and recursively call HEAPIFY(A,9)



4. Node 9 has no children, so we are done.

## Heapify: Running time

- The running time of Heapify on a subtree of size  $n$  rooted at node  $i$  is
  - determining the relationship between elements:  $\Theta(1)$
  - plus the time to run Heapify on a subtree rooted at one of the children of  $i$ , where  $2n/3$  is the worst-case size of this subtree.
  - Alternatively
    - Running time on a node of height  $h$ :  $O(h)$

$$T(n) \leq T(2n/3) + \Theta(1) \Rightarrow T(n) = O(\log n)$$

## Building a Heap

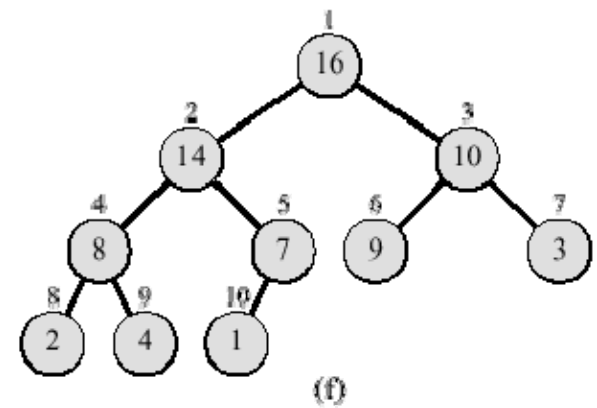
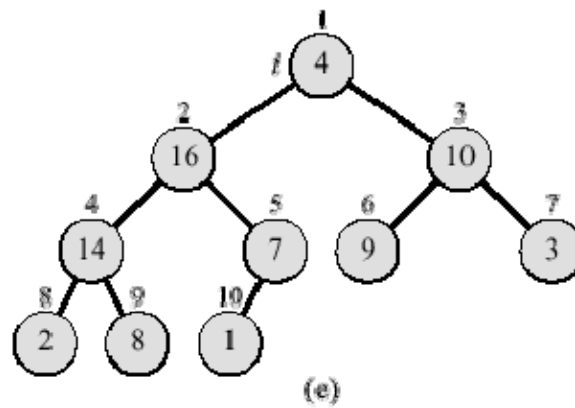
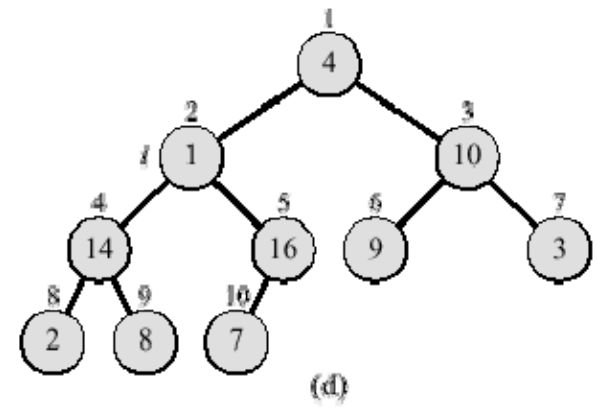
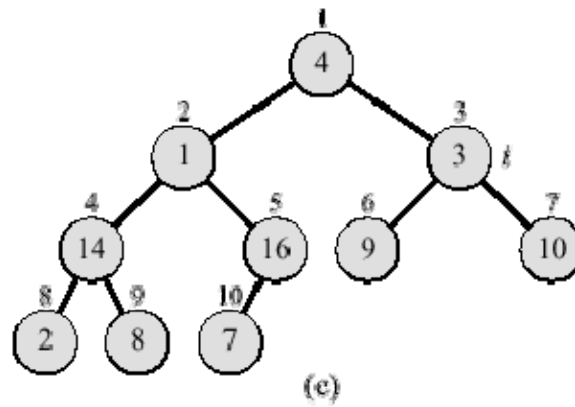
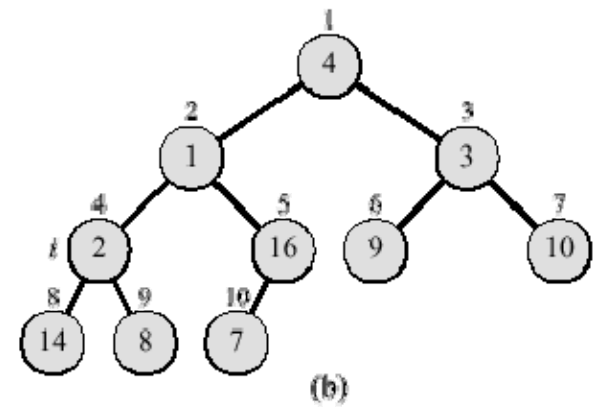
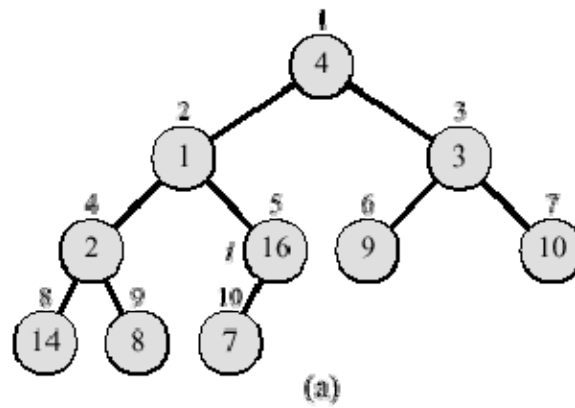
- Convert an array  $A[1\dots n]$ , where  $n = \text{length}[A]$ , into a heap
- Notice that the elements in the subarray  $A[(\lfloor n/2 \rfloor + 1)\dots n]$  are already 1-element heaps to begin with!

```
BUILD-HEAP( $A$ )  
  1 for  $i \leftarrow \lfloor n/2 \rfloor$  downto 1  
  2   do HEAPIFY( $A, i$ )
```

$A$ 

4	1	3	2	16	9	10	14	8	7
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## Building a heap



## Building a Heap: Analysis

- Correctness: induction on  $i$ , all trees rooted at  $m > i$  are heaps
- Running time: less than  $n$  calls to Heapify =  $n O(\lg n) = O(n \lg n)$
- Good enough for an  $O(n \lg n)$  bound on Heapsort, but sometimes we build heaps for other reasons, would be nice to have a tight bound
  - Intuition: for most of the time Heapify works on smaller than  $n$  element heaps

## Building a Heap: Analysis (2)

- Definitions

- height of node: longest path from node to leaf
- height of tree: height of root

```
BUILD-HEAP(A)
  1 for  $i \leftarrow \lfloor n/2 \rfloor$  downto 1
  2   do HEAPIFY(A, i)
```

- time to Heapify =  $O(\text{height of subtree rooted at } i)$
- assume  $n = 2^k - 1$  (a complete binary tree  $k = \lfloor \lg n \rfloor$ )

$$\begin{aligned} T(n) &= O\left(\frac{n+1}{2} + \frac{n+1}{4} \cdot 2 + \frac{n+1}{8} \cdot 3 + \dots + 1 \cdot k\right) \\ &= O\left((n+1) \cdot \sum_{i=1}^{\lfloor \lg n \rfloor} \frac{i}{2^i}\right) \text{ since } \sum_{i=1}^{\lfloor \lg n \rfloor} \frac{i}{2^i} = \frac{1/2}{(1-1/2)^2} = 2 \\ &= O(n) \end{aligned}$$



## Building a Heap: Analysis (3)

- How? By using the following "trick"

$$\sum_{i=0}^{\infty} x^i = \frac{1}{1-x} \quad \text{if } |x| < 1 \quad // \text{differentiate}$$

$$\sum_{i=1}^{\infty} i \cdot x^{i-1} = \frac{1}{(1-x)^2} \quad // \text{multiply by } x$$

$$\sum_{i=1}^{\infty} i \cdot x^i = \frac{x}{(1-x)^2} \quad // \text{plug in } x = \frac{1}{2}$$

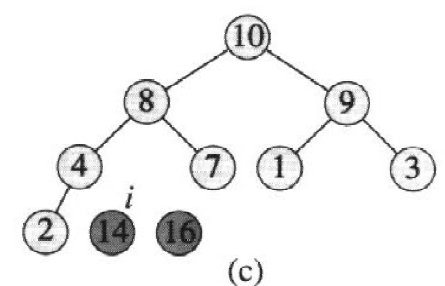
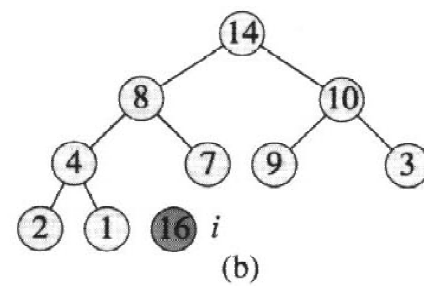
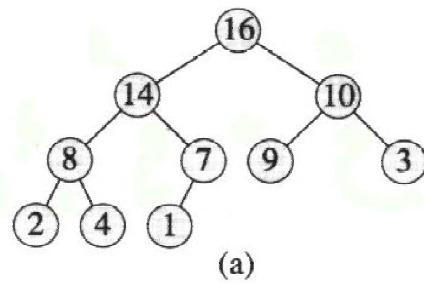
$$\sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \frac{i}{2^i} = \frac{1/2}{1/4} = 2$$

- Therefore Build-Heap time is  $O(n)$

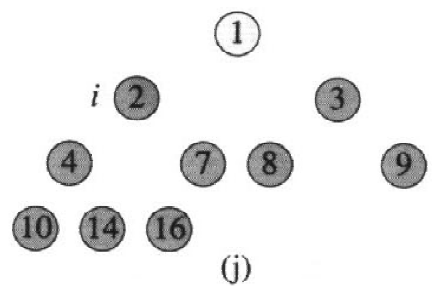
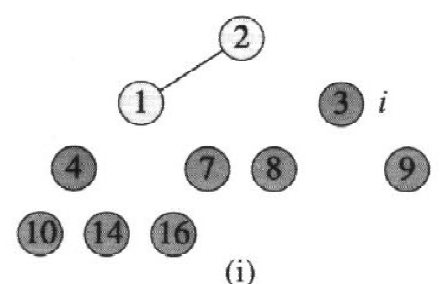
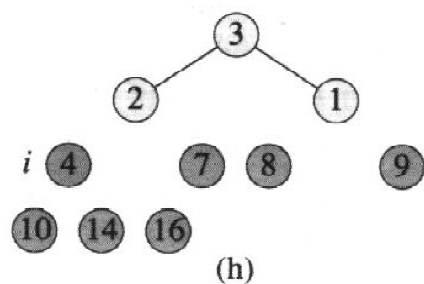
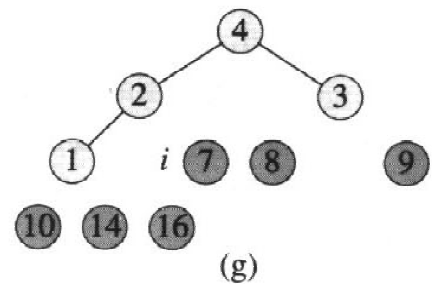
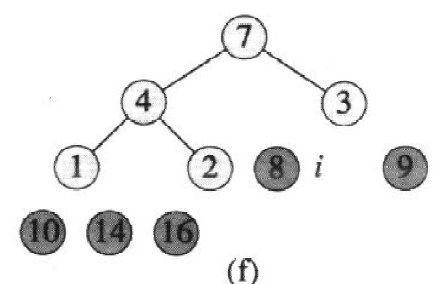
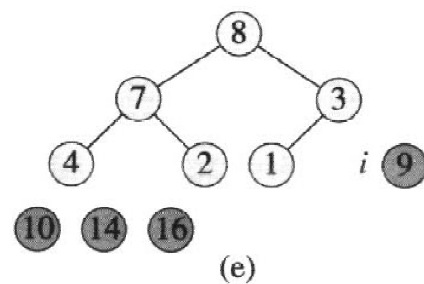
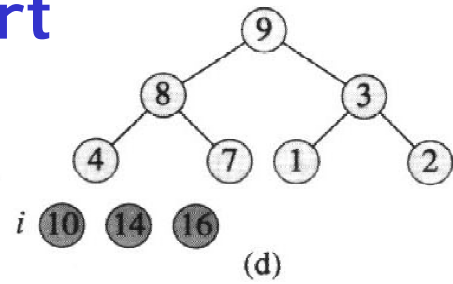
## Heap sort

HEAPSORT( $A$ )	Analysis
1 BUILD-HEAP( $A$ )	?? $O(n)$
2 <b>for</b> $i \leftarrow n$ <b>downto</b> 2	$n$ times
3 <b>do</b> exchange $A[1] \leftrightarrow A[i]$	$O(1)$
4 $n \leftarrow n - 1$	$O(1)$
5         HEAPIFY( $A, 1$ )	$O(\lg n)$

The total running time of heap sort is  $O(n \lg n)$   
+ Build-Heap( $A$ ) time, which is  $O(n)$



## Heap sort



A

1	2	3	4	7	8	9	10	14	16
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(k)

## Heap Sort: Summary

- Heap sort uses a heap data structure to improve selection sort and make the running time asymptotically optimal
- Running time is  $O(n \log n)$  – like merge sort, but unlike selection, insertion, or bubble sorts
- Sorts in place – like insertion, selection or bubble sorts, but unlike merge sort

## Priority Queues

- A priority queue is an ADT (abstract data type) for maintaining a set  $S$  of elements, each with an associated value called key
- A PQ supports the following operations
  - $\text{Insert}(S, x)$  insert element  $x$  in set  $S$  ( $S \leftarrow S \cup \{x\}$ )
  - $\text{Maximum}(S)$  returns the element of  $S$  with the largest key
  - $\text{Extract-Max}(S)$  returns and removes the element of  $S$  with the largest key

## Priority Queues (2)

- Applications:
  - job scheduling shared computing resources (Unix)
  - Event simulation
  - As a building block for other algorithms
- A Heap can be used to implement a PQ

## Priority Queues(3)

- Removal of max takes constant time on top of Heapify  $\Theta(\lg n)$

**HEAP-EXTRACT-MAX(*A*)**

```
1  ▷ Removes and returns largest element of A
2  max  $\leftarrow A[1]$ 
3  A[1]  $\leftarrow A[n]$ 
4  n  $\leftarrow n - 1$ 
5  HEAPIFY(A, 1)      ▷ Remakes heap
6  return max
```

## Priority Queues(4)

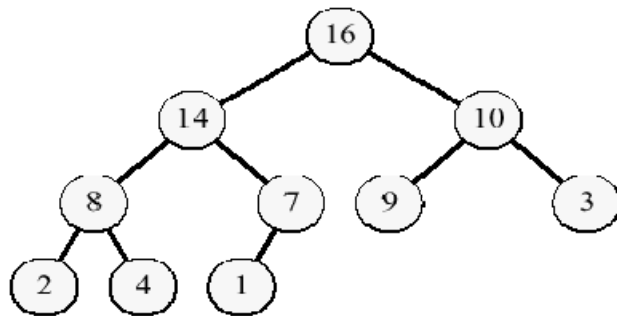
- Insertion of a new element
  - enlarge the PQ and propagate the new element from last place "up" the PQ
  - tree is of height  $\lg n$ , running time:  $\Theta(\lg n)$

```
HEAP-INSERT(A, key)
1 heap-size[A]  $\leftarrow$  heap-size[A] + 1
2 i  $\leftarrow$  heap-size[A]
3 while i > 1 and A[PARENT(i)] < key
4     do A[i]  $\leftarrow$  A[PARENT(i)]
5     i  $\leftarrow$  PARENT(i)
6 A[i]  $\leftarrow$  key
```

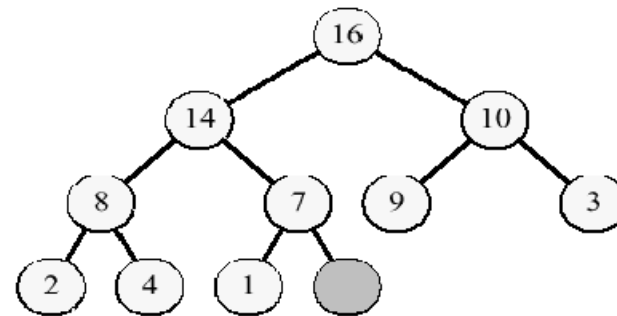


## Priority Queues(5)

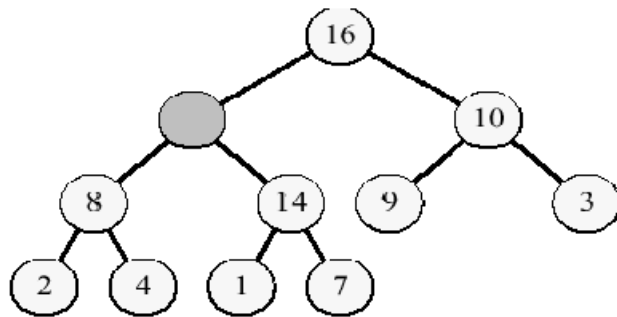
Insert a new element: 15



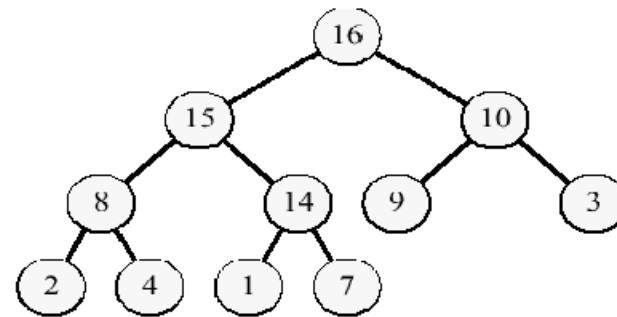
(a)



(b)



(c)



(d)

## Quick Sort

- Characteristics
  - sorts "almost" in place, i.e., does not require an additional array, like insertion sort
  - Divide-and-conquer, like merge sort
  - very practical, average sort performance  $O(n \log n)$  (with small constant factors), but worst case  $O(n^2)$  [**CAVEAT: this is true for the CLRS version**]

## Quick Sort – the main idea

- To understand quick-sort, let's look at a high-level description of the algorithm
- A divide-and-conquer algorithm
  - Divide: partition array into 2 subarrays such that elements in the lower part  $\leq$  elements in the higher part
  - Conquer: recursively sort the 2 subarrays
  - Combine: trivial since sorting is done in place

# Partitioning

- Linear time partitioning procedure

**Partition**(A,p,r)

01  $x \leftarrow A[r]$

02  $i \leftarrow p-1$

03  $j \leftarrow r+1$

04 **while** TRUE

05     **repeat**  $j \leftarrow j-1$

06         **until**  $A[j] \leq x$

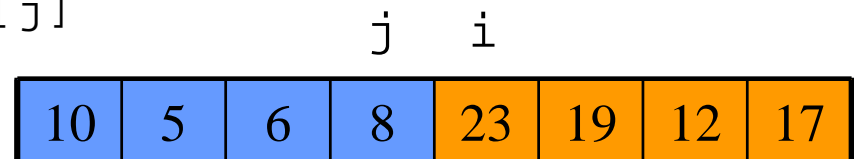
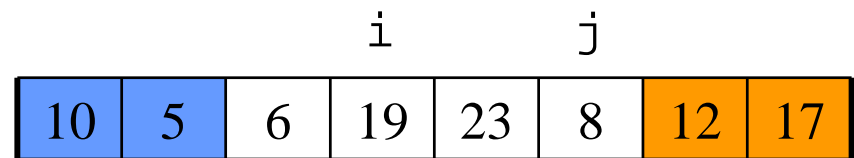
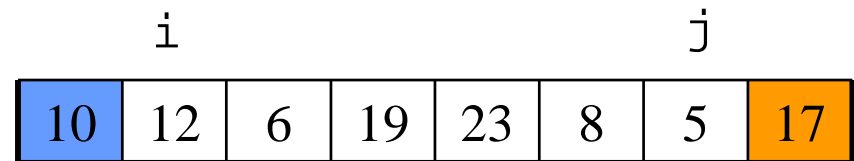
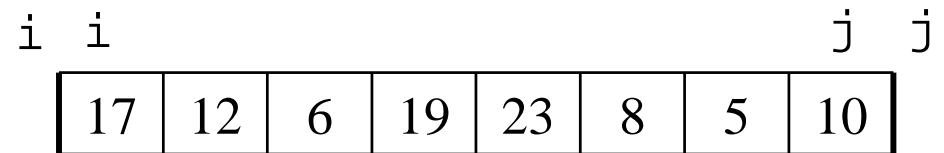
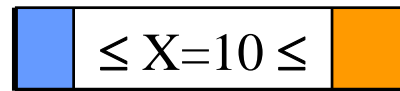
07     **repeat**  $i \leftarrow i+1$

08         **until**  $A[i] \geq x$

09     **if**  $i < j$

10         **then** exchange  $A[i] \leftrightarrow A[j]$

11     **else return**  $j$



## Quick Sort Algorithm

- Initial call Quicksort(A, 1, length[A])

**Quicksort(A,p,r)**

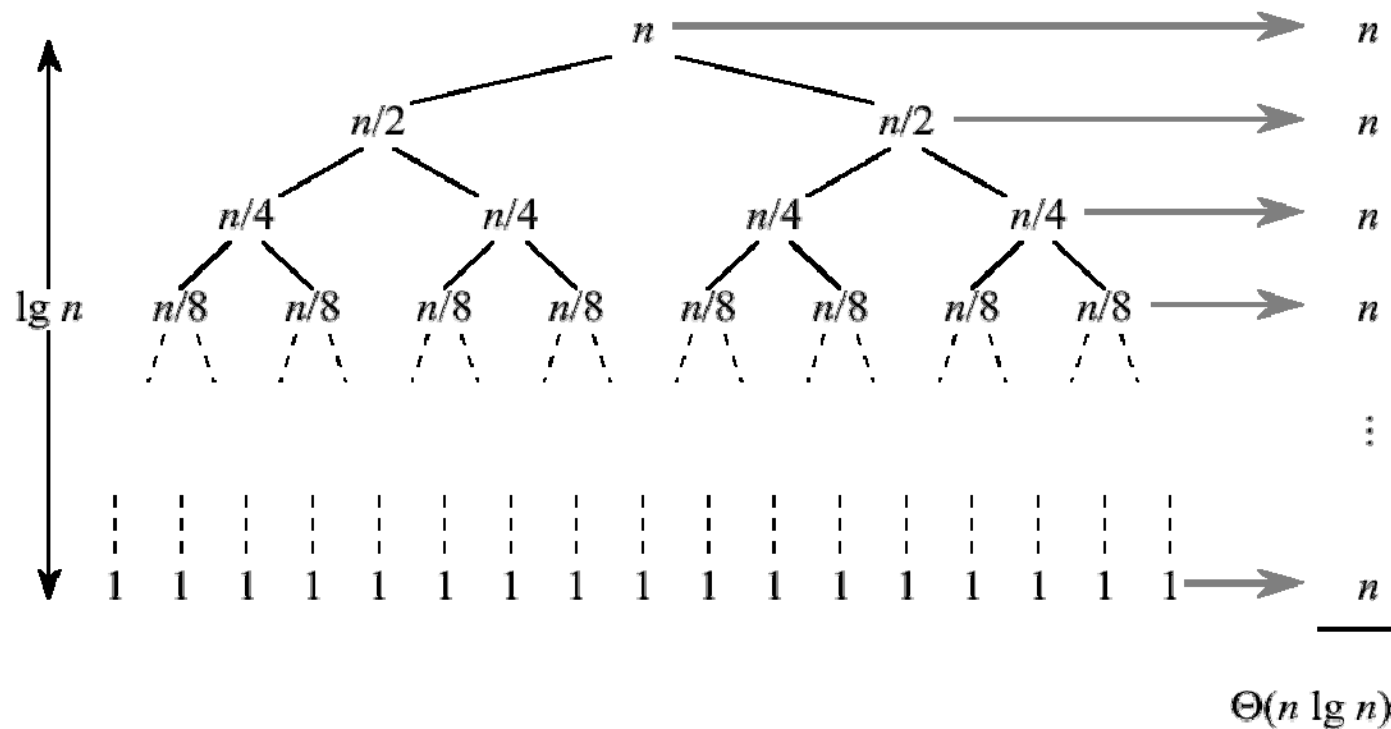
```
01 if p<r
02     then q←Partition(A,p,r)
03         Quicksort(A,p,q)
04         Quicksort(A,q+1,r)
```

## Analysis of Quicksort

- Assume that all input elements are distinct
- The running time depends on the distribution of splits

## Best Case

- If we are lucky, Partition splits the array evenly  
 $T(n) = 2T(n/2) + \Theta(n)$



## Using the median as a pivot

- The recurrence in the previous slide works out, BUT.....

Q: Can we find the median in linear-time?

A: YES! But we need to wait until we get to Chapter 8.....



## Worst Case

- What is the worst case?
- One side of the partition has only one element

$$T(n) = T(1) + T(n-1) + \Theta(n)$$

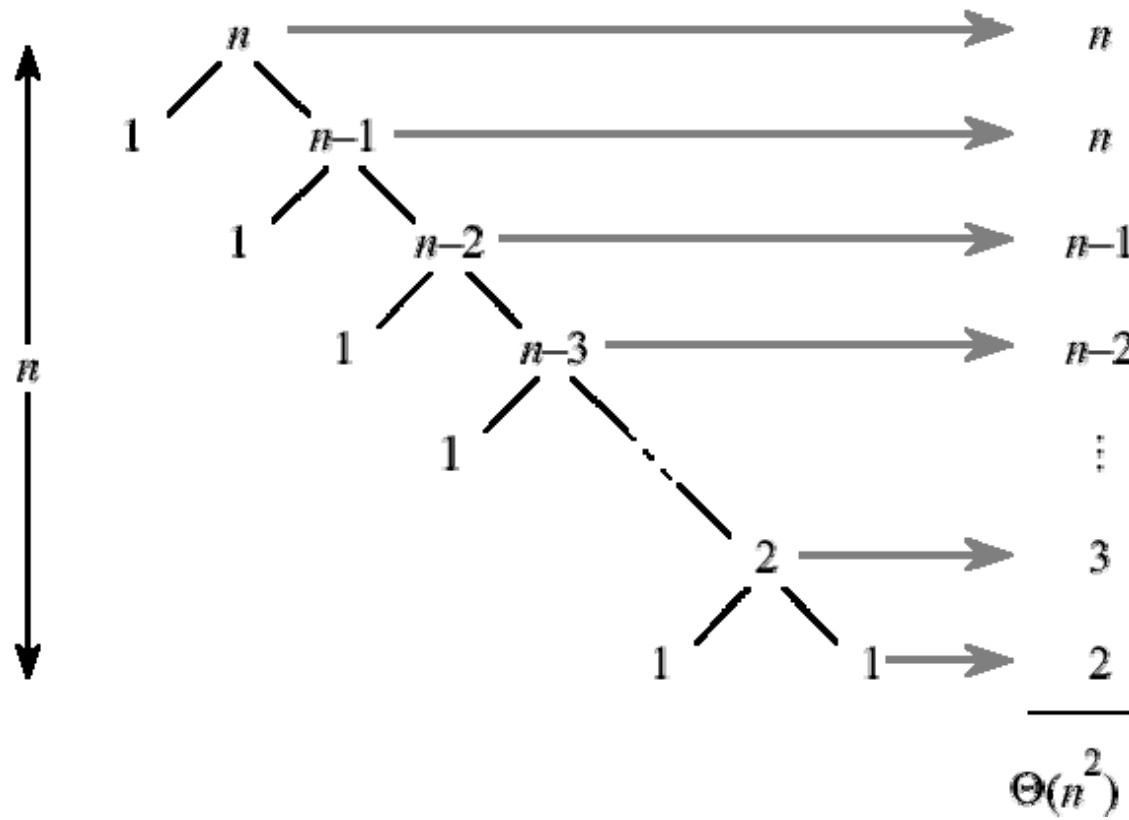
$$= T(n-1) + \Theta(n)$$

$$= \sum_{k=1}^n \Theta(k)$$

$$= \Theta\left(\sum_{k=1}^n k\right)$$

$$= \Theta(n^2)$$

## Worst Case (2)



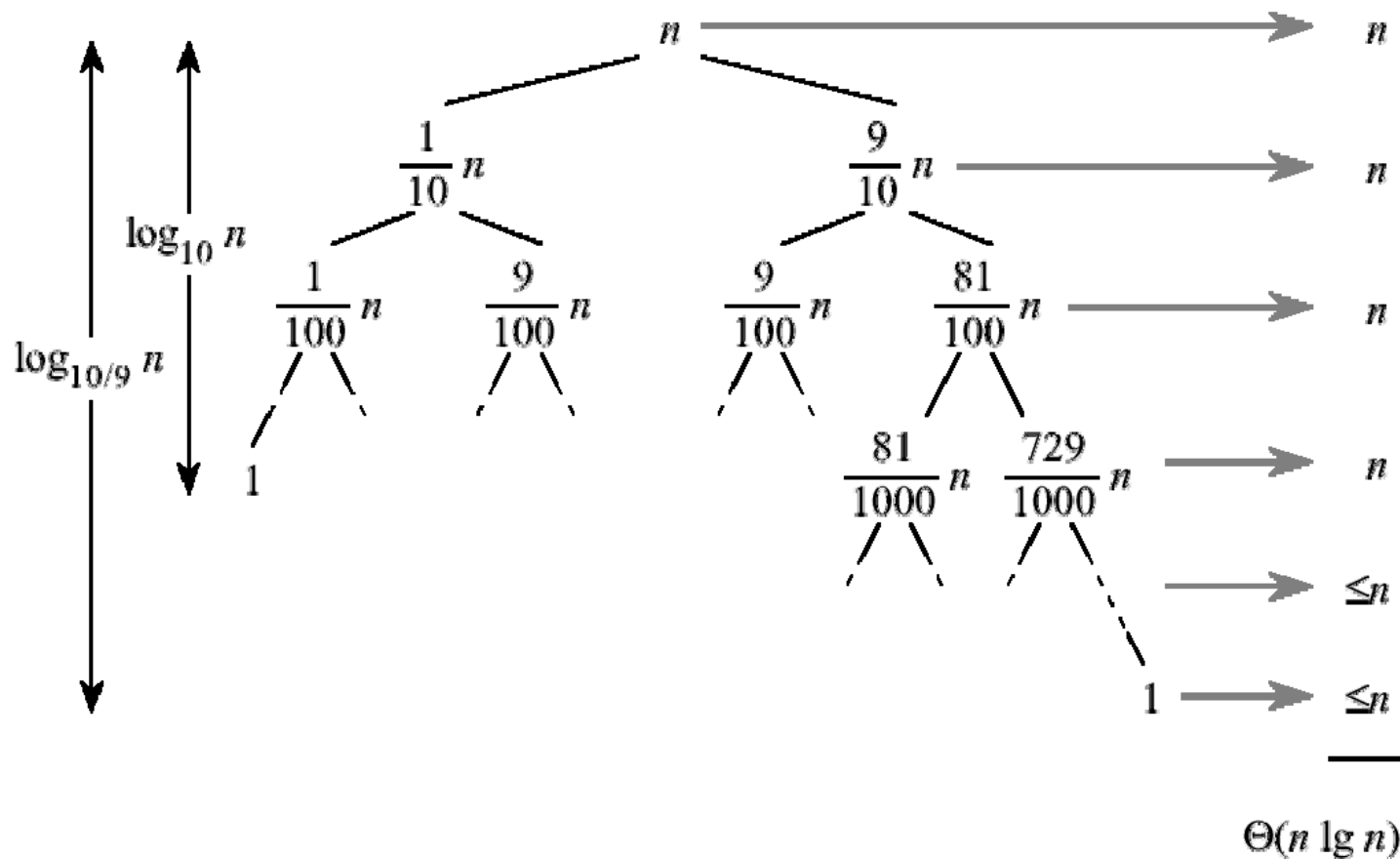
## Worst Case (3)

- When does the worst case appear?
  - input is sorted
  - input reverse sorted
- Same recurrence for the worst case of insertion sort
- However, sorted input yields the best case for insertion sort!

## Analysis of Quicksort

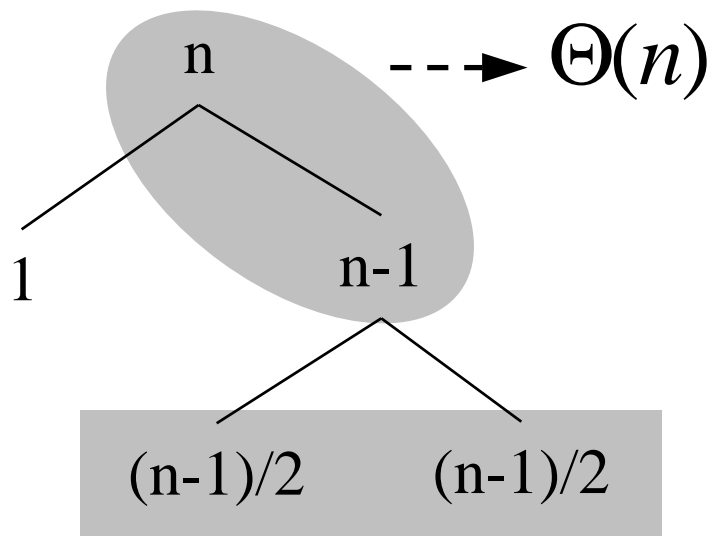
- Suppose the split is 1/10 : 9/10

$$T(n) = T(n/10) + T(9n/10) + \Theta(n) = \Theta(n \lg n)!$$



## An Average Case Scenario

- Suppose, we alternate lucky and unlucky cases to get an average behavior



$$L(n) = 2U(n/2) + \Theta(n) \quad \text{lucky}$$

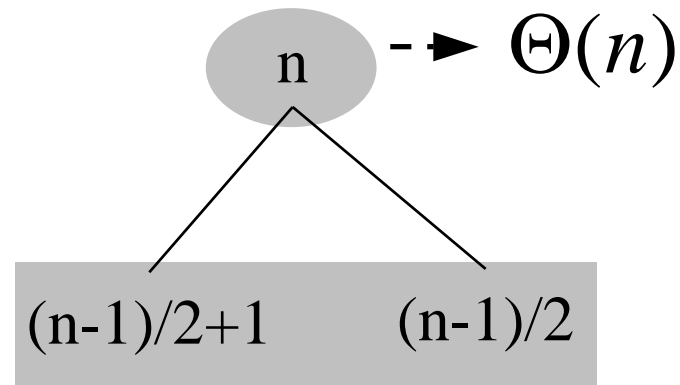
$$U(n) = L(n-1) + \Theta(n) \quad \text{unlucky}$$

we consequently get

$$L(n) = 2(L(n/2 - 1) + \Theta(n/2)) + \Theta(n)$$

$$= 2L(n/2 - 1) + \Theta(n)$$

$$= \Theta(n \log n)$$



## An Average Case Scenario (2)

- How can we make sure that we are usually lucky?
  - Partition around the "middle" ( $n/2$ th) element?
  - Partition around a random element (works well in practice)
- Randomized algorithm
  - running time is independent of the input ordering
  - no specific input triggers worst-case behavior
  - the worst-case is only determined by the output of the random-number generator

## Randomized Quicksort

- Assume all elements are distinct
- Partition around a random element
- Randomization is a general tool to improve algorithms with bad worst-case but good average-case complexity