

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

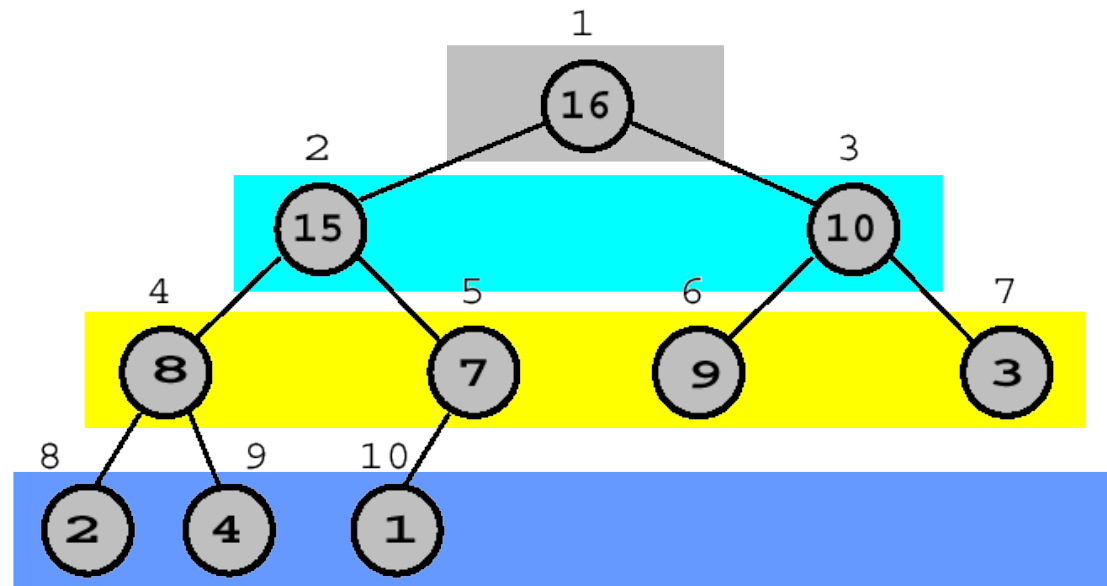
Parent (i)
return $\lfloor i/2 \rfloor$

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

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

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** $largest \leftarrow r$

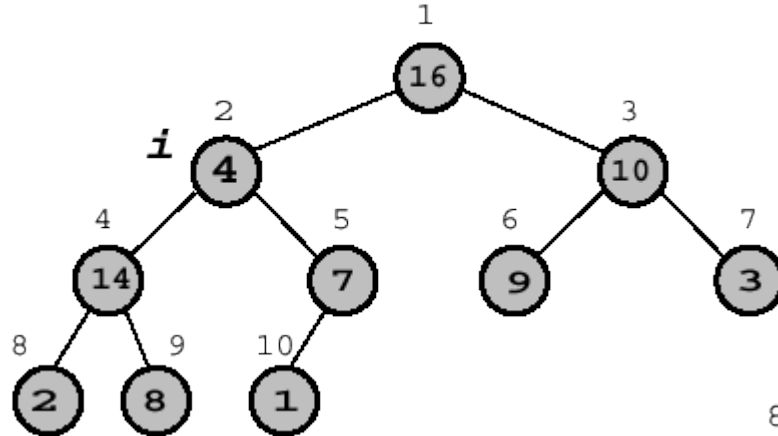
10 **if** $largest \neq i$

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

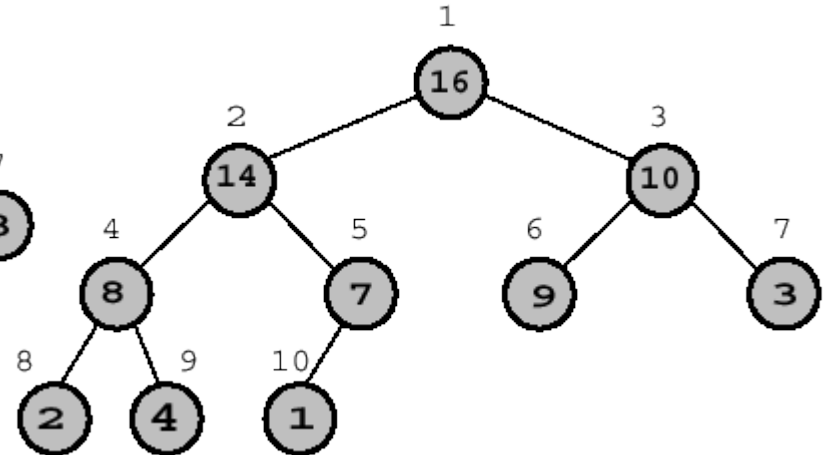
12 HEAPIFY($A, largest$)

Heapify Example

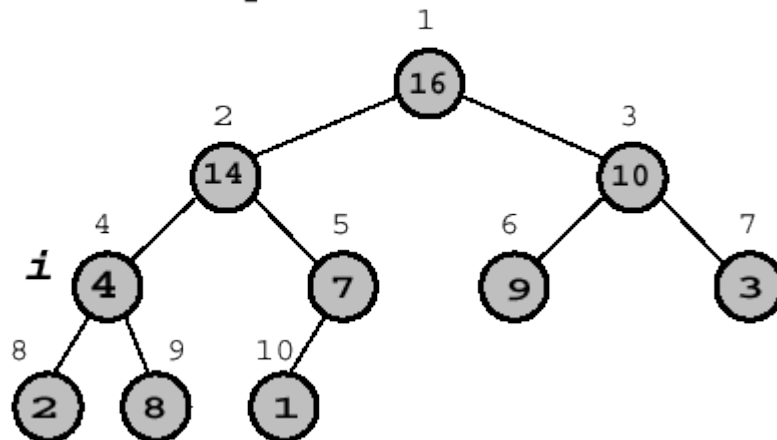
1. Call `HEAPIFY(A, 2)`



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



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



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 : $O(h)$

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

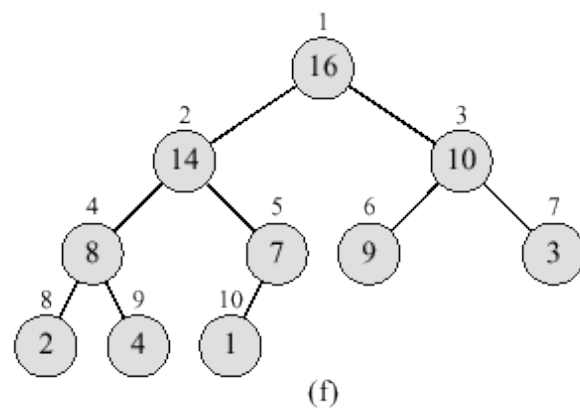
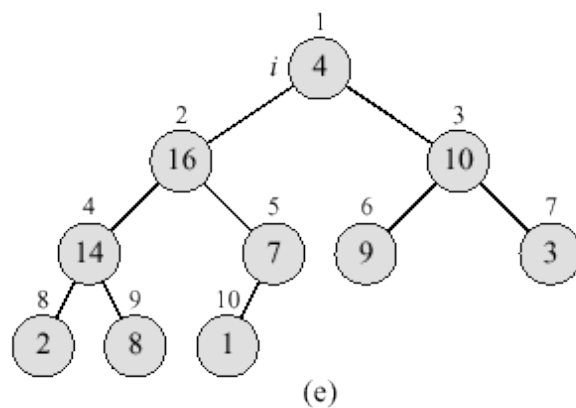
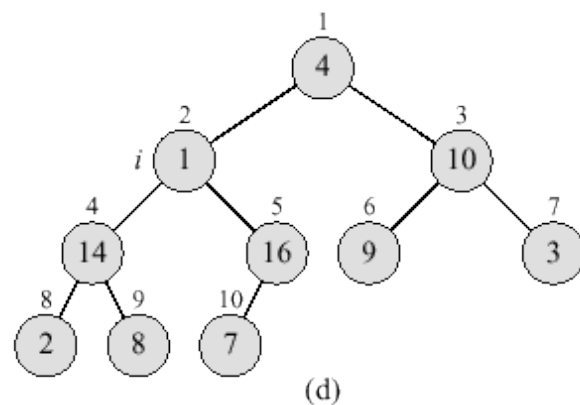
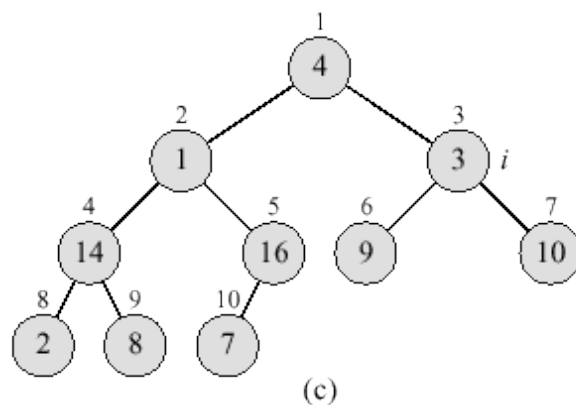
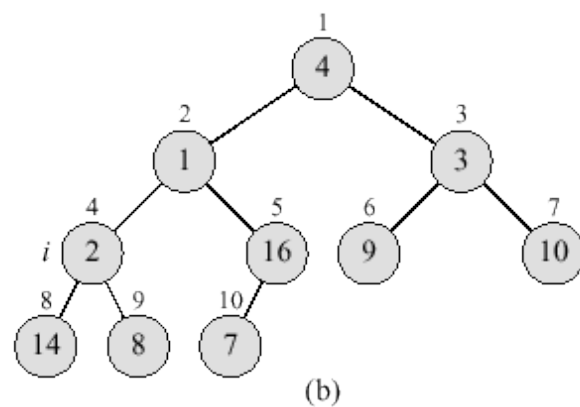
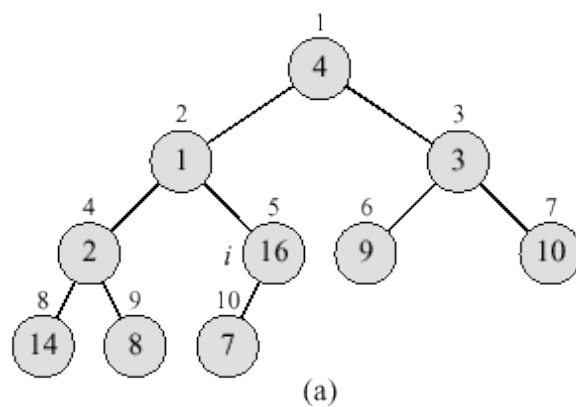
Building a Heap

- 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]

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 = $n \cdot O(\lg n) = O(n \lg n)$
- 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 ←  $\lfloor n/2 \rfloor$  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)

1 BUILD-HEAP(A)

2 **for** $i \leftarrow n$ **downto** 2

3 **do** exchange $A[1] \leftrightarrow A[i]$

4 $n \leftarrow n - 1$

5 HEAPIFY($A, 1$)

Analysis

?? $O(n)$

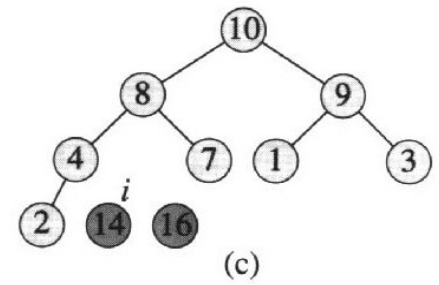
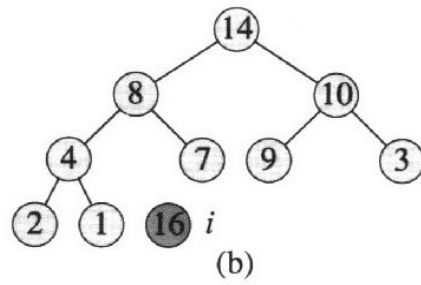
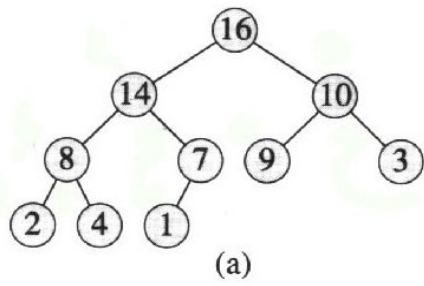
n times

$O(1)$

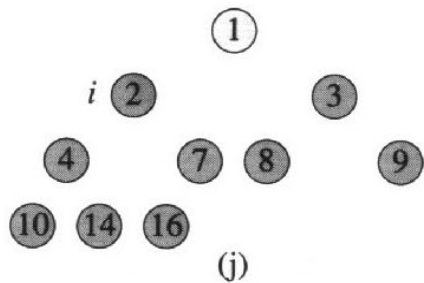
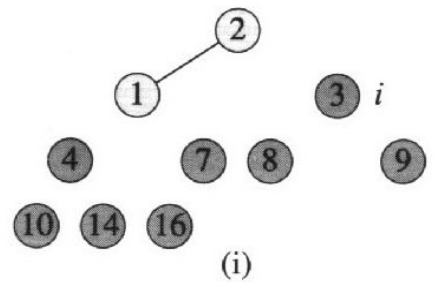
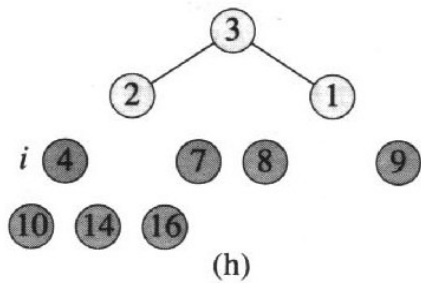
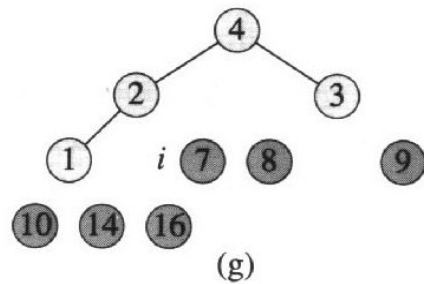
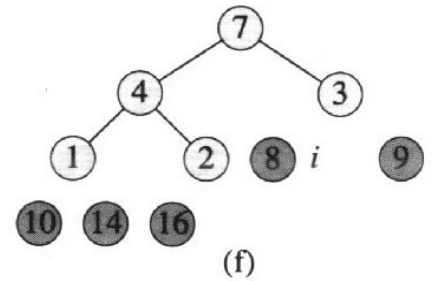
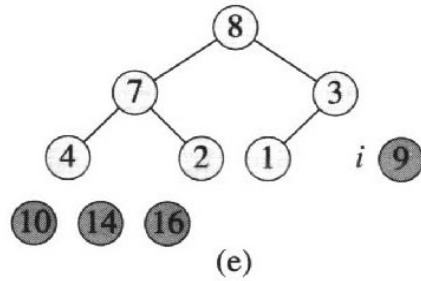
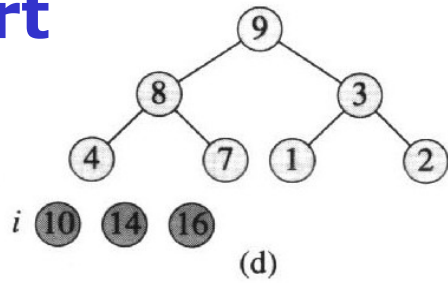
$O(1)$

$O(\lg n)$

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
---	---	---	---	---	---	---	----	----	----

(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  $max$ 
```

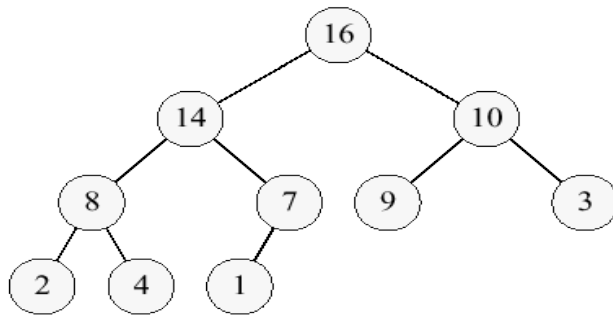
Priority Queues(4)

- 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: $\Theta(\lg n)$

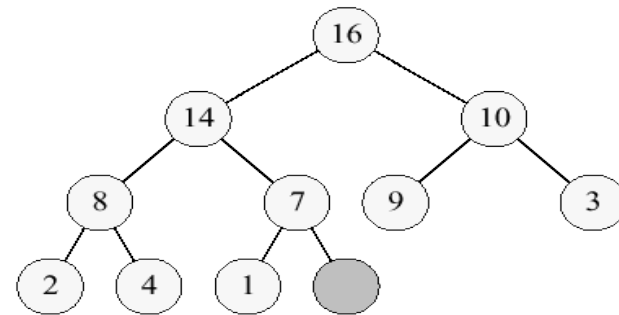
```
HEAP-INSERT(A, key)
1 heap-size[A]  $\leftarrow$  heap-size[A] + 1
2 i  $\leftarrow$  heap-size[A]
3 while i > 1 and A[PARENT(i)] < key
4     do A[i]  $\leftarrow$  A[PARENT(i)]
5     i  $\leftarrow$  PARENT(i)
6 A[i]  $\leftarrow$  key
```

Priority Queues(5)

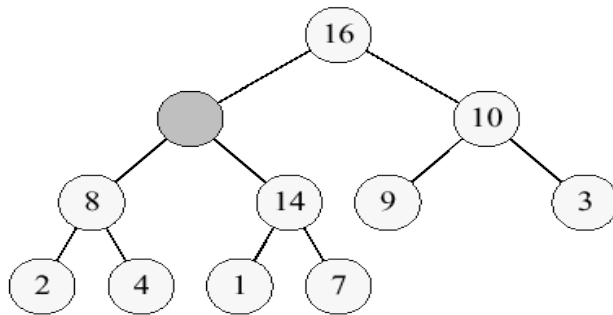
Insert a new element: 15



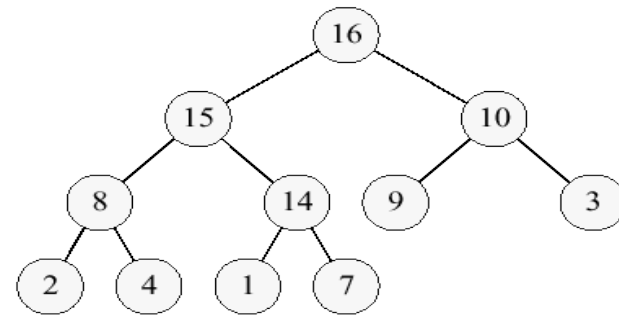
(a)



(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

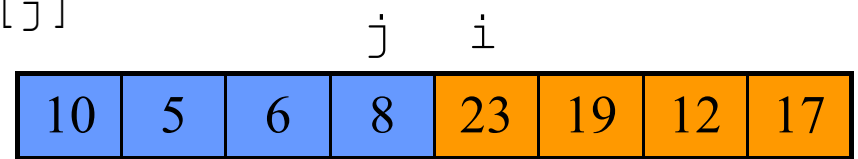
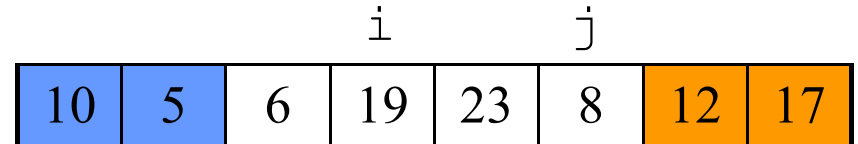
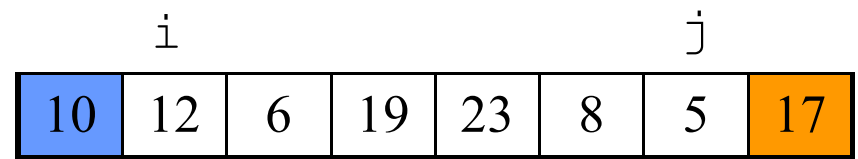
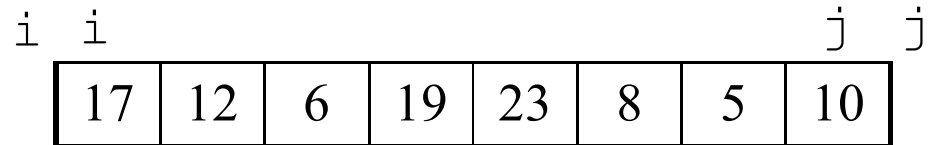
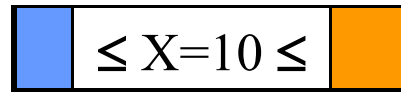
Partitioning

- Linear time partitioning procedure

Partition(A, p, r)

```

01  x ← A[r]
02  i ← p-1
03  j ← r+1
04  while TRUE
05      repeat j ← j-1
06          until A[j] ≤ x
07      repeat i ← i+1
08          until A[i] ≥ x
09  if i < j
10      then exchange A[i] ↔ A[j]
11      else return j
    
```



Quick Sort Algorithm

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

Quicksort(A, p, r)

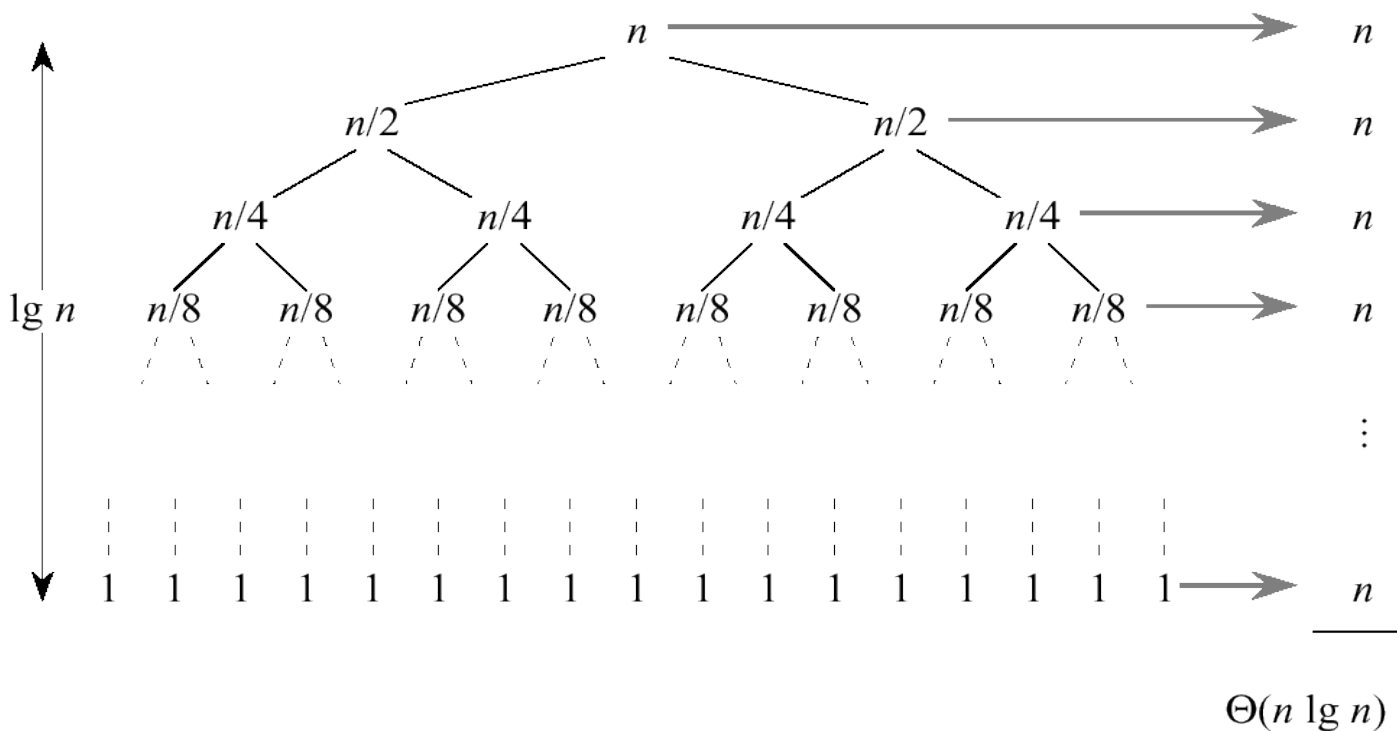
```
01  if p < r
02      then q ← Partition(A, p, r)
03          Quicksort(A, p, q)
04          Quicksort(A, q+1, r)
```

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

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

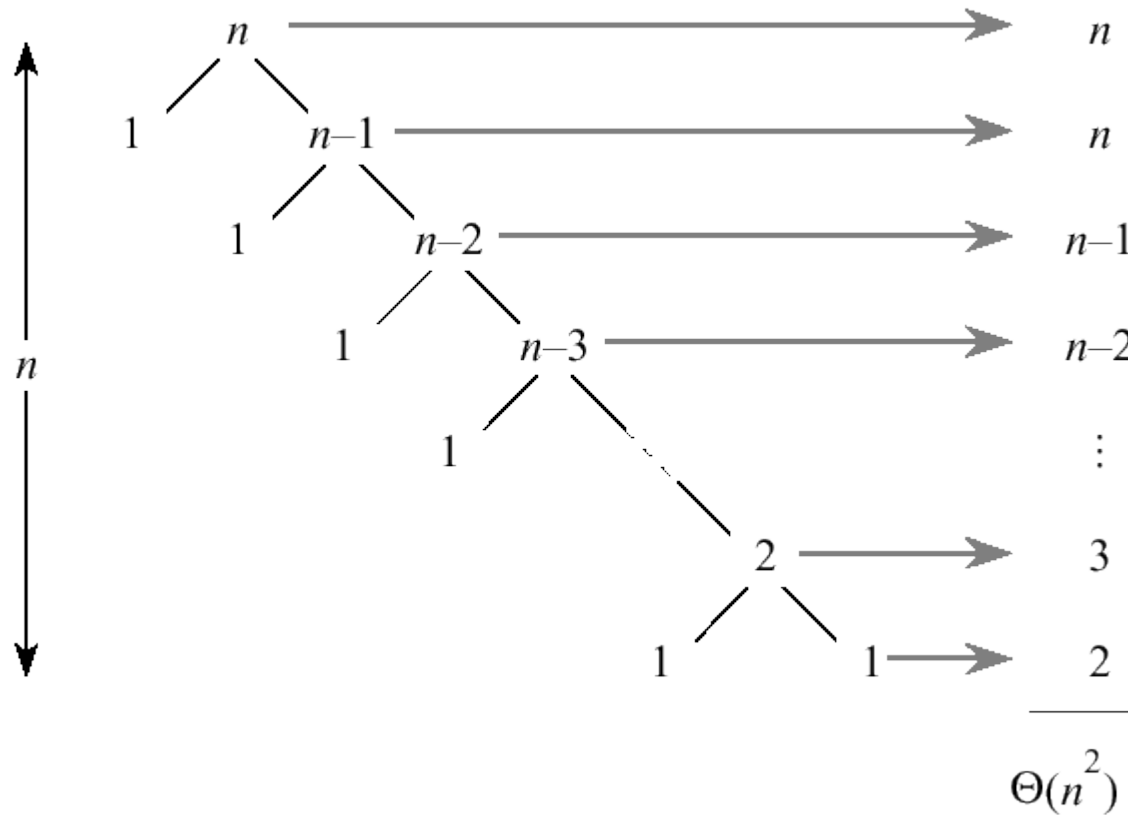
$$= T(n-1) + \Theta(n)$$

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

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

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

Worst Case (2)



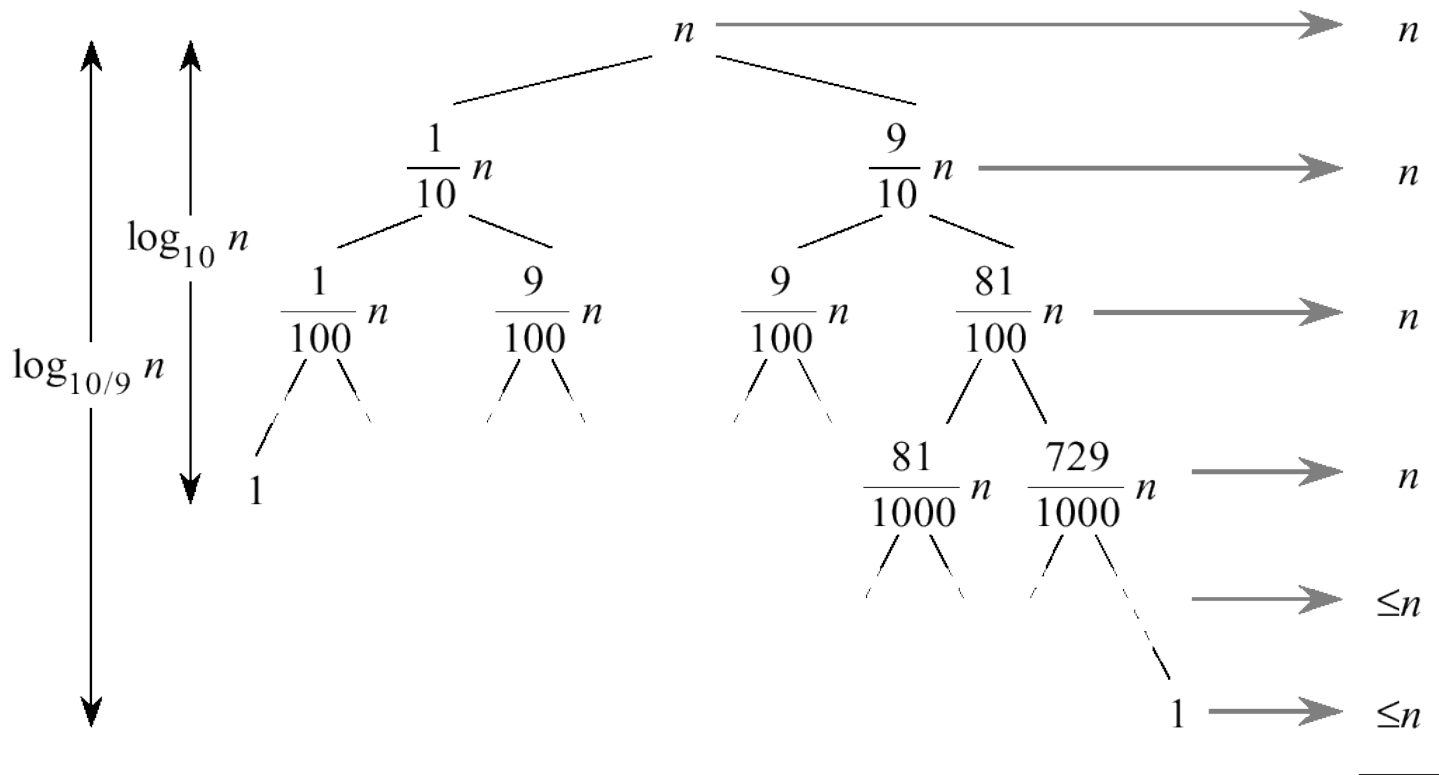
Worst Case (3)

- 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

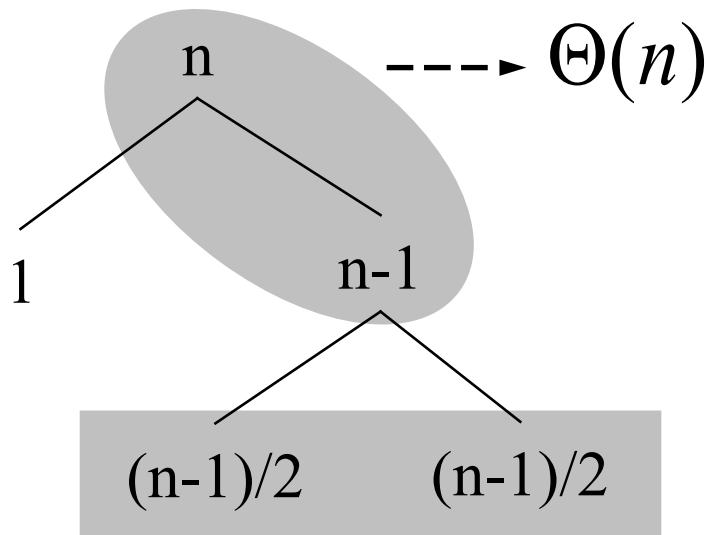
$$T(n) = T(n/10) + T(9n/10) + \Theta(n) = \Theta(n \log n)!$$



$$\Theta(n \lg n)$$

An Average Case Scenario

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



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

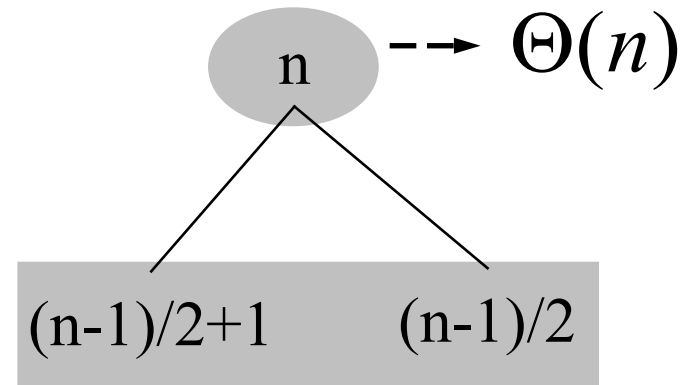
$$U(n) = L(n-1) + \Theta(n) \quad \text{unlucky}$$

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

Next: Lower bounds

Q: Can we beat the $\Omega(n \log n)$ lower bound for sorting?

A: In general no, but in some special cases
YES!

Ch 7: Sorting in linear time

Let's prove the $\Omega(n \log n)$ lower bound.

Lower bounds

- What are we counting?
Running time? Memory? Number of times a specific operation is used?
- What (if any) are the assumptions?
- Is the model general enough?

Here we are interested in lower bounds for the WORST CASE. So we will prove (directly or indirectly):

for any algorithm for a given problem, for each $n > 0$, there exists an input that make the algorithm take $\Omega(f(n))$ time. Then $f(n)$ is a lower bound on the worst case running time.