

Sorting

SFWRENG 2CO3: Data Structures and Algorithms

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Using MERGE-like algorithms

Consider the following variant of MERGE.

Algorithm MERGE(L_1, L_2):

Input: L_1 and L_2 are ordered lists of distinct values.

```
1: output :=  $\emptyset$ .
2:  $i_1, i_2 := 0, 0$ .
3: while  $i_1 < |L_1|$  or  $i_2 < |L_2|$  do
4:   if ( $i_1 < |L_1|$  and  $i_2 < |L_2|$ ) and also  $L_1[i_1] = L_2[i_2]$  then
5:     Add  $L_1[i_1]$  to output.
6:      $i_1, i_2 := i_1 + 1, i_2 + 1$ .
7:   else if  $i_2 = |L_2|$  or else ( $i_1 < |L_1|$  and also  $L_1[i_1] < L_2[i_2]$ ) then
8:     Add  $L_1[i_1]$  to output.
9:      $i_1 := i_1 + 1$ .
10:  else  $L_1[i_1] > L_2[i_2]$ 
11:    Add  $L_2[i_2]$  to output.
12:     $i_2 := i_2 + 1$ .
13: return output. /* return  $L_1 \cup L_2$ . */
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13: return output. /* return  $L_1 \setminus L_2$ . */
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12:     $i_2 := i_2 + 1$ .
13: return output. /* return  $(L_1 \cup L_2) \setminus (L_1 \cap L_2)$ . */
```

Using MERGE-like algorithms

Consider relations $\text{enrolled}(c, \text{student})$ and $\text{teaches}(c, \text{faculty})$, *ordered* on course *course*.

Problem

Compute all pairs $(\text{student}, \text{faculty})$ such that *faculty* is a teacher of *student*.

Solutions

- ▶ A nested-loop join: $\Theta(|\text{enrolled}| \cdot |\text{teaches}|)$.
- ▶ Using binary search: $\Theta(|\text{enrolled}| \cdot \log_2(|\text{teaches}|) + |\text{result}|)$.

Can we do better?

Using MERGE-like algorithms

Consider relations $\text{enrolled}(c, \text{student})$ and $\text{teaches}(c, \text{faculty})$, *ordered* on course *course*.

Algorithm ETMERGEJOIN(*enrolled*, *teaches*):

- 1: *output* := \emptyset .
- 2: $i_1, i_2 := 0, 0$.
- 3: **while** $i_1 < |\text{enrolled}|$ **and** $i_2 < |\text{teaches}|$ **do**
- 4: **if** $\text{enrolled}[i_1].c = \text{teaches}[i_2].c$ **then**
- 5: A potential join output!
- 6: Need to find all enrolled students for course $\text{enrolled}[i_1].c$.
- 7: Need to find all teaching faculty for course $\text{teaches}[i_2].c$.
- 8:
- 9: **else if** $\text{enrolled}[i_1].c < \text{teaches}[i_2].c$ **then**
- 10: $i_1 := i_1 + 1$.
- 11: **else** $\text{enrolled}[i_1].c < \text{teaches}[i_2].c$
- 12: $i_2 := i_2 + 1$.
- 13: **return** *output*. /* return pairs (s, f) such that f is a teacher of s . */

Using MERGE-like algorithms

Consider relations $\text{enrolled}(c, \text{student})$ and $\text{teaches}(c, \text{faculty})$, *ordered* on course *course*.

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- 1: *output* := \emptyset .
- 2: $i_1, i_2 := 0, 0$.
- 3: **while** $i_1 < |\text{enrolled}|$ **and** $i_2 < |\text{teaches}|$ **do**
- 4: **if** $\text{enrolled}[i_1].c = \text{teaches}[i_2].c$ **then**
- 5: $j_1 :=$ first j with either $j = |\text{enrolled}|$ or else $\text{enrolled}[j].c \neq \text{enrolled}[i_1].c$.
- 6: $j_2 :=$ first j with either $j = |\text{teaches}|$ or else $\text{teaches}[j].c \neq \text{teaches}[i_2].c$.
- 7: Add all (s, f) with $(c_1, s) \in \text{enrolled}[i_1, j_1)$ and $(c_2, f) \in \text{teaches}[i_2, j_2)$ to *output*.
- 8: $i_1, i_2 := j_1, j_2$.
- 9: **else if** $\text{enrolled}[i_1].c < \text{teaches}[i_2].c$ **then**
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Using MERGE-like algorithms

Consider relations $\text{enrolled}(c, \text{student})$ and $\text{teaches}(c, \text{faculty})$, *ordered* on course *course*.

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- 8: $i_1, i_2 := j_1, j_2$.

Complexity

- ▶ The *merge*-part visits every value in *enrolled* and *teaches* once.
- ▶ The *join*-part only visits those pairs of values necessary for the result.

Hence, the complexity is $\Theta(|\text{enrolled}| + |\text{teaches}| + |\text{result}|)$.

Using MERGE-like algorithms

Consider relations $\text{enrolled}(c, \text{student})$ and $\text{teaches}(c, \text{faculty})$, *ordered* on course c .

Problem

Compute all pairs $(\text{student}, \text{faculty})$ such that faculty is a teacher of student .

Solutions

- ▶ A nested-loop join: $\Theta(|\text{enrolled}| \cdot |\text{teaches}|)$.
- ▶ Using binary search: $\Theta(|\text{enrolled}| \cdot \log_2(|\text{teaches}|) + |\text{result}|)$.
- ▶ Using merge join: $\Theta(|\text{enrolled}| + |\text{teaches}| + |\text{result}|)$.

Stable sorting

Consider a list *enrolled* of enrollment data with schema

$\text{enrolled}(\text{dept}, \text{code}, \text{sid}, \text{date})$.

If we add enrollment data to *the end of the list*, then *enrolled* is always sorted on *date*.

Problem

Group *enrolled* on $(\text{dept}, \text{code})$ and within each group sort enrollments on *date*.

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Group *enrolled* on $(\text{dept}, \text{code})$ and within each group sort enrollments on *date*.

Brute-force solution: Lexicographical sorting on $(\text{dept}, \text{code}, \text{date})$

Let $(d_1, c_1, s_1, t_1), (d_2, c_2, s_2, t_2) \in \text{enrolled}$. We use the comparison

(d_1, c_1, s_1, t_1) *before* (d_2, c_2, s_2, t_2) if $(d_1 < d_2) \vee ((d_1 = d_2) \wedge (c_1 < c_2)) \vee$
 $((d_1 = d_2) \wedge (c_1 = c_2) \wedge (t_1 < t_2))$.

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$$(d_1, c_1, s_1, t_1) \text{ before } (d_2, c_2, s_2, t_2) \text{ if } (d_1 < d_2) \vee ((d_1 = d_2) \wedge (c_1 < c_2)) \vee ((d_1 = d_2) \wedge (c_1 = c_2) \wedge (t_1 < t_2)).$$

Downside: During sorting, we end up throwing away the existing ordering on *date*, and then we rebuild that order from scratch!

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If we add enrollment data to *the end of the list*, then *enrolled* is always sorted on *date*.

Problem

Group *enrolled* on $(\text{dept}, \text{code})$ and within each group sort enrollments on *date*.

Better solution: Use a *stable sort algorithm*

A *stable sort algorithm* maintains the relative order of “equal values”.

Let $(d_1, c_1, s_1, t_1), (d_2, c_2, s_2, t_2) \in \text{enrolled}$. If we sort *enrolled* using a *stable sort algorithm* using the comparison

(d_1, c_1, s_1, t_1) *before* (d_2, c_2, s_2, t_2) if $(d_1 < d_2) \vee ((d_1 = d_2) \wedge (c_1 < c_2))$

then within each $(\text{dept}, \text{code})$ -group, enrollments remain ordered on *date* for free!

Stable sorting

Definition

Let L be a list that is already ordered with respect to some attributes a_1, \dots, a_n .

Consider a sort step S that re-orders L based on other attributes b_1, \dots, b_m .

We say that the sort step S is *stable* if, for every value $r_1 \in L$ and $r_2 \in L$ such that r_1 originally came before r_2 and r_1 and r_2 agree on attributes b_1, \dots, b_m , the resulting re-ordered list will still have r_1 come before r_2 .

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Question: Have we already seen stable sort algorithms?

Yes: SELECTIONSORT, INSERTIONSORT, and MERGESORT.

Note: even minor changes to these algorithms will make them non-stable! (e.g., changing $<$ into \leq).

Intermezzo: Recurrence trees

In a recurrence tree

- ▶ nodes labeled N represent a *function call* with “input size N ”;
- ▶ the children of a node represent *recursive calls*;
- ▶ per node, we can determine *the work* within that call (besides recursion);
- ▶ per depth, we can determine the *total work for that depth*;
- ▶ by *summing over all depths*: the total complexity.

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We already saw two examples: LOWERBOUNDREC and MERGESORTR.

Intermezzo: Recurrence trees

Example: the *Fibonacci numbers*

$$fib(N) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } N = 1 \text{ or } N = 2; \\ fib(N - 1) + fib(N - 2) & \text{if } N > 2. \end{cases}$$

Intermezzo: Recurrence trees

$$fib(N) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } N = 1 \text{ or } N = 2; \\ fib(N - 1) + fib(N - 2) & \text{if } N > 2. \end{cases}$$

Prove that $fib(N) \leq 2^N$

Simplification: $fib(i - 2) \leq fib(i - 1)$.

N

Number

Cost

Total

$$1 = 2^0$$

1

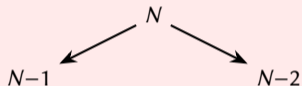
$$1 \cdot 1 = 1$$

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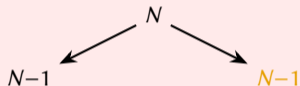
<u>Number</u>	<u>Cost</u>	<u>Total</u>
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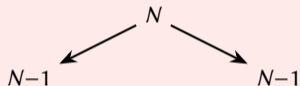
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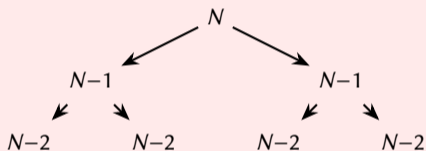
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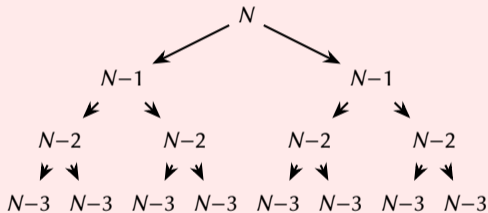
<u>Number</u>	<u>Cost</u>	<u>Total</u>
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$4 = 2^2$	1	$4 \cdot 1 = 4$

Intermezzo: Recurrence trees

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Simplification: $fib(i-2) \leq fib(i-1)$.



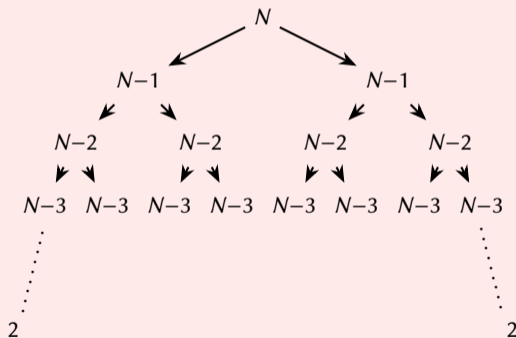
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$4 = 2^2$	1	$4 \cdot 1 = 4$
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Simplification: $fib(i-2) \leq fib(i-1)$.



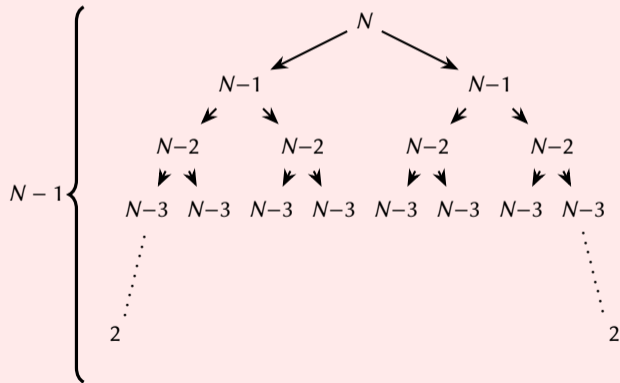
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$4 = 2^2$	1	$4 \cdot 1 = 4$
$8 = 2^3$	1	$8 \cdot 1 = 8$
\vdots	\vdots	\vdots
2^i	1	$2^i \cdot 1 = 2^i$
\vdots	\vdots	\vdots

Intermezzo: Recurrence trees

$$fib(N) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } N = 1 \text{ or } N = 2; \\ fib(N - 1) + fib(N - 2) & \text{if } N > 2. \end{cases}$$

Prove that $fib(N) \leq 2^N$

Simplification: $fib(i - 2) \leq fib(i - 1)$.



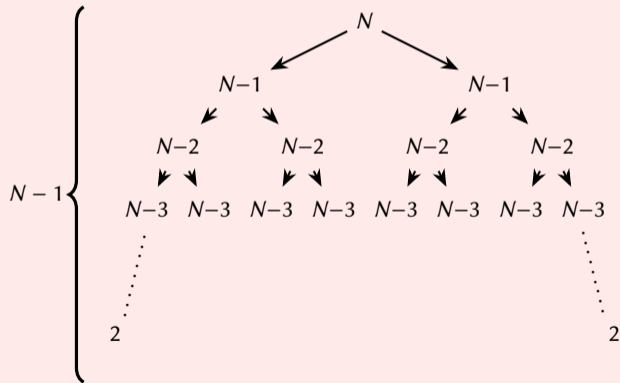
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Prove that $fib(N) \leq 2^N$

Simplification: $fib(i-2) \leq fib(i-1)$.



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2^i	1	$2^i \cdot 1 = 2^i$
\vdots	\vdots	\vdots
		+

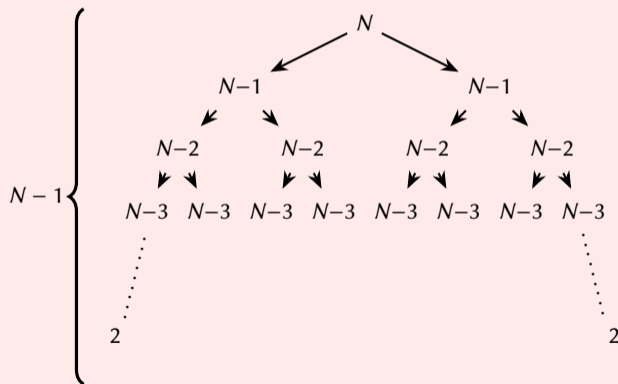
$$\sum_{i=0}^{N-2} 2^i$$

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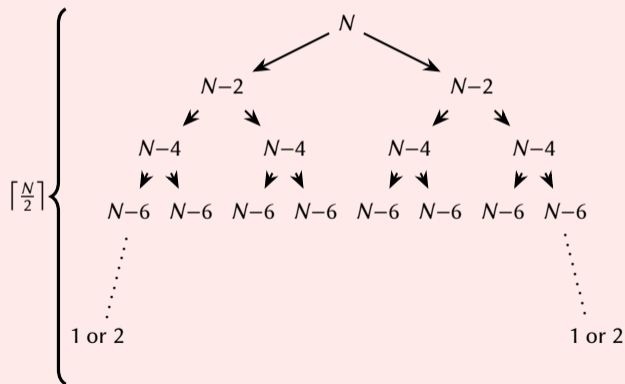
<u>Number</u>	<u>Cost</u>	<u>Total</u>
$1 = 2^0$	1	$1 \cdot 1 = 1$
$2 = 2^1$	1	$2 \cdot 1 = 2$
$4 = 2^2$	1	$4 \cdot 1 = 4$
$8 = 2^3$	1	$8 \cdot 1 = 8$
\vdots	\vdots	\vdots
2^i	1	$2^i \cdot 1 = 2^i$
\vdots	\vdots	\vdots
		+
		<hr/>
		$\sum_{i=0}^{N-2} 2^i = 2^{N-1} - 1$

Intermezzo: Recurrence trees

$$fib(N) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } N = 1 \text{ or } N = 2; \\ fib(N-1) + fib(N-2) & \text{if } N > 2. \end{cases}$$

Prove that $2^{\lceil \frac{N}{2} \rceil} \leq fib(N)$

Simplification: $fib(i-1) \geq fib(i-2)$.



<u>Number</u>	<u>Cost</u>	<u>Total</u>
$1 = 2^0$	1	$1 \cdot 1 = 1$
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2^i	1	$2^i \cdot 1 = 2^i$
\vdots	\vdots	\vdots

+

$$\sum_{i=0}^{\lceil \frac{N}{2} \rceil} 2^i = 2^{\lceil \frac{N}{2} \rceil + 1} - 1$$

Intermezzo: Recurrence trees

Example: the *Fibonacci numbers*

$$fib(N) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } N = 1 \text{ or } N = 2; \\ fib(N - 1) + fib(N - 2) & \text{if } N > 2. \end{cases}$$

Via recurrence trees, we have proven that:

$$2^{\lceil \frac{N}{2} \rceil} \leq fib(N) \leq 2^N.$$

Intermezzo: The Master Theorem

Let $T(N)$ be a *recurrence* of the form

$$T(N) = \begin{cases} \textit{constant} & \textit{if base case;} \\ aT\left(\frac{N}{b}\right) + f(N) & \textit{if recursive case,} \end{cases}$$

with $a \geq 1$, $b > 1$, and we can read $\frac{N}{b}$ also as $\lceil \frac{N}{b} \rceil$ or $\lfloor \frac{N}{b} \rfloor$.

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1. if $f(N) = O(N^{\log_b(a-\epsilon)})$ with $\epsilon > 0$, then $T(N) = \Theta(N^{\log_b(a)})$.
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3. if $f(N) = \Omega(N^{\log_b(a+\epsilon)})$ with $\epsilon > 0$ and $af\left(\frac{N}{b}\right) \leq cf(N)$ for a $c < 1$ (for large N), then $T(N) = \Theta(f(N))$.

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Someone else has already proved this—so we can reuse the result!

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Example: Runtime complexity of LOWERBOUNDREC

$$T(N) = \begin{cases} 4 & \text{if } N = 1; \\ T\left(\frac{N}{2}\right) + 8 & \text{if } N > 1. \end{cases}$$

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Case 2 yields: $T(N) = \Theta(N^{\log_2(1)} \log^1(N)) = \log(N)$.

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Example: Runtime complexity of MERGESORTR

$$T(N) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } N = 1; \\ T\left(\lfloor \frac{N}{2} \rfloor\right) + T\left(\lceil \frac{N}{2} \rceil\right) + N & \text{if } N > 1. \end{cases}$$

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Case 2 yields: $T(N) = \Theta(N^{\log_2(2)} \log^1(N)) = \Theta(N \log(N))$.

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A third example

$$T(N) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } N = 1; \\ 7T\left(\lfloor \frac{N}{4} \rfloor\right) + N & \text{if } N > 1. \end{cases}$$

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Case 1 yields: $T(N) = \Theta(N^{\log_4(7)}) \approx \Theta(N^{1.40367\dots})$.

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A fourth example

$$T(N) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } N = 1; \\ 2T\left(\lfloor \frac{N}{2} \rfloor\right) + N^3 & \text{if } N > 1. \end{cases}$$

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Case 3 yields: $T(N) = \Theta(N^3)$.

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Feel free to use the Master Theorem, we will provide a copy during the final exam.

Can we do better than MERGESORT?

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Algorithm COUNTSORT($L[0 \dots N]$):

Input: Each value in L is either 0 or 1.

1: $count_0 := 0$

2: **for all** $v \in L$ **do** Count number of 0's

3: **if** $v = 0$ **then**

4: $count_0 := count_0 + 1$.

5: **for** $i := 0$ to $count_0 - 1$ **do** Write the counted number of 0's

6: $L[i] := 0$.

7: **for** $i := count_0$ to $N - 1$ **do** Write the remaining 1's

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Complexity: Linear ($\Theta(N)$ comparisons, $\Theta(N)$ changes)

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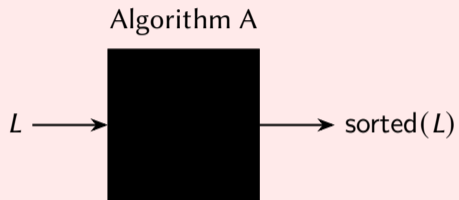
- 1: $count_0 := 0$
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Complexity: Linear ($\Theta(N)$ comparisons, $\Theta(N)$ changes)

COUNTSORT does *not* solve general-purpose sorting!

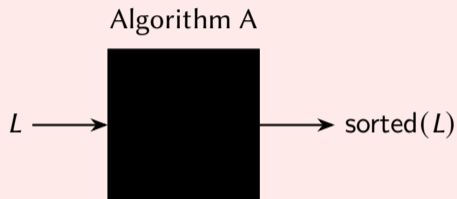
A lower bound for general-purpose sorting

Assume: We have a list $L[0 \dots N)$ of N distinct values



A lower bound for general-purpose sorting

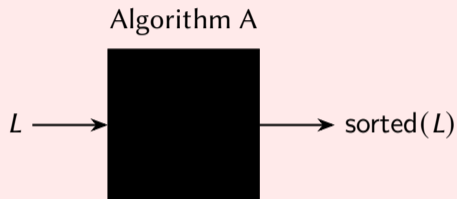
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When is Algorithm A *general-purpose*?

A lower bound for general-purpose sorting

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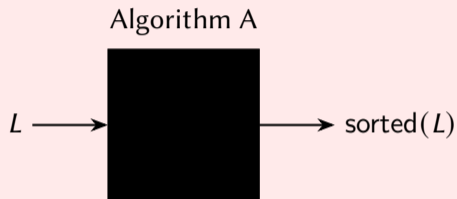


When is Algorithm A *general-purpose*?

- ▶ A uses *comparisons* to determine sorted order;
- ▶ A does *not require assumptions* on the value distribution in L .

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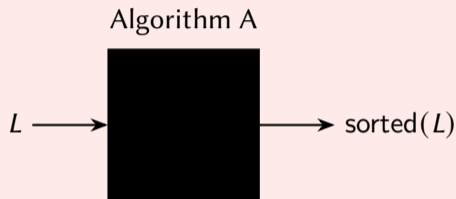


What do we know about *general-purpose* Algorithm A?

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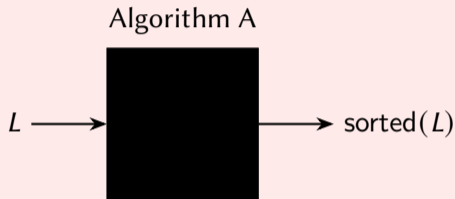
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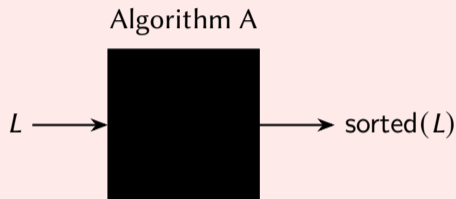
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- ▶ Algorithm A must perform *different* operations to order L_1 and L_2 .
- ▶ Algorithm A uses *comparisons* to decide which operations to perform.

There must be a *distinguishing comparison* after which A behaves *differently*.

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We can represent a *distinguishing comparison* via a *comparison tree node*

Consider sorting lists $L[0 \dots, N)$ with values $1, \dots, N$ in an *unknown order*.

\mathcal{S} : All possible lists L that are treated the same by Algorithm A up till this point

$C: L[i] < L[j]$

All lists in \mathcal{S} for which C *did not* hold

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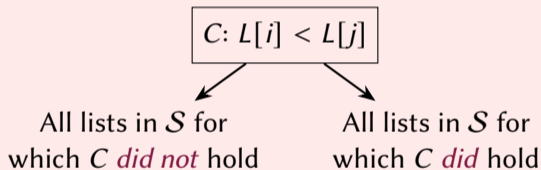
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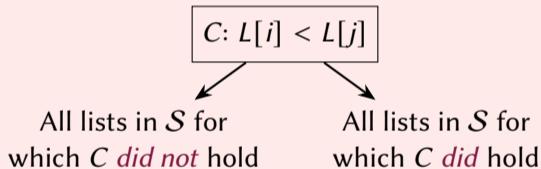
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- ▶ in \mathcal{T} , each leaf of \mathcal{T} must represent *one* list;
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Otherwise not all distinct lists L are processed in a different way.

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What is the worst-case length of path π ?

The lengths of paths in \mathcal{T} depend on the *height of \mathcal{T}* ,
→ which depends on the *number of leaves* in \mathcal{T} .

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$$\prod_{i=1}^N i = N! \text{ leaves} \quad (\text{all possible permutations}).$$

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Consider sorting lists $L[0 \dots, N)$ with values $1, \dots, N$ in an *unknown order*.

The *minimal* height of a tree \mathcal{T} with $N!$ leaves

Consider a node n from which we can reach M leaves.

How do we make the distance from n to all its leaves minimal?

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The left and right child of n each can reach $\frac{M}{2}$ leaves:

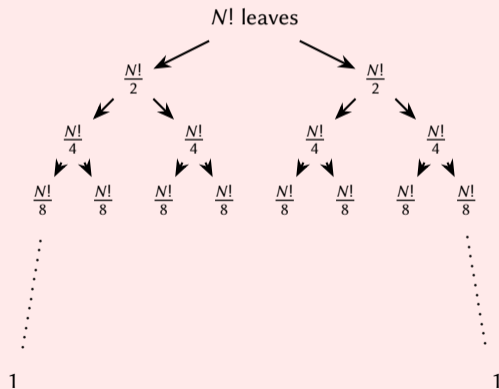
→ minimize the size of the tree rooted at *both children*.

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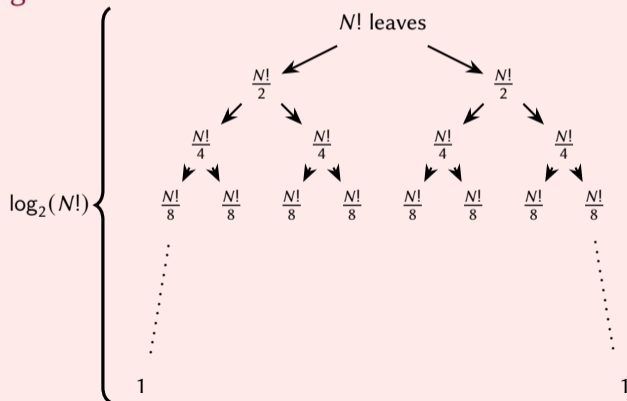


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$$\log_2(N!) = \log_2(N \cdot (N - 1) \cdot \dots \cdot 1)$$

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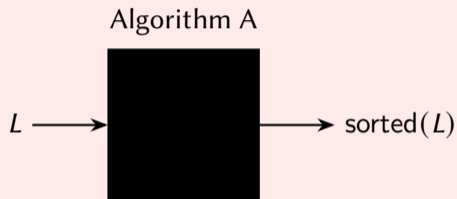
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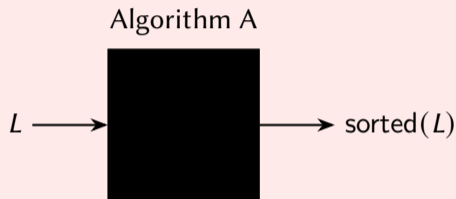
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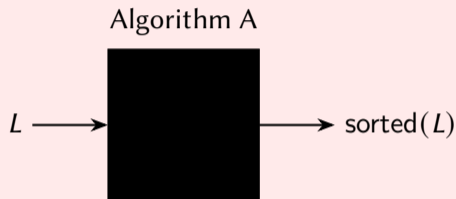


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If Algorithm A performs less comparisons for *some* inputs, then A will perform more comparisons for *other* inputs.

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General-purpose sorting algorithms such as MERGESORT are *optimal*: their worst-case complexity matches the lower bound of $\Theta(N \log_2(N))$.

A potentially-faster sort: QUICKSORT

Can we improve upon the *optimal* MERGESORT algorithm?

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Can we improve upon the *optimal* MERGESORT algorithm?

- ▶ Reduce massive $\Theta(N)$ memory consumption?
- ▶ Reduce constants: MERGE performs many operations on several lists.

A potentially-faster sort: QUICKSORT

Divide-and-conquer

Divide Turn problem into smaller subproblems.

Conquer Solve the smaller subproblems using *recursion*.

Combine Combine the subproblem solutions into a final solution.

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Dividing a list into *small* and *large* values sounds easier than MERGE!

QUICKSORT: High-level overview

Algorithm QUICKSORT($L[start \dots end]$):

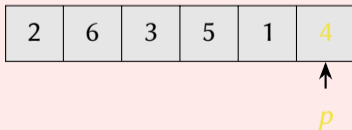
1: **if** $end - start > 1$ **then**

2	6	3	5	1	4
---	---	---	---	---	---

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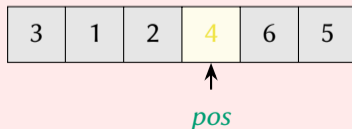
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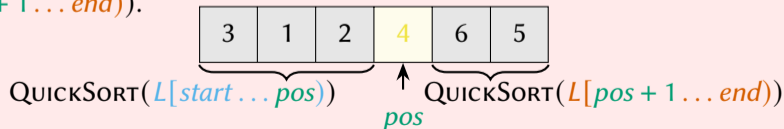
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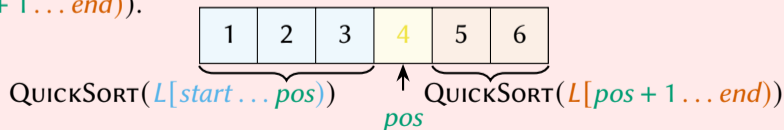
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start

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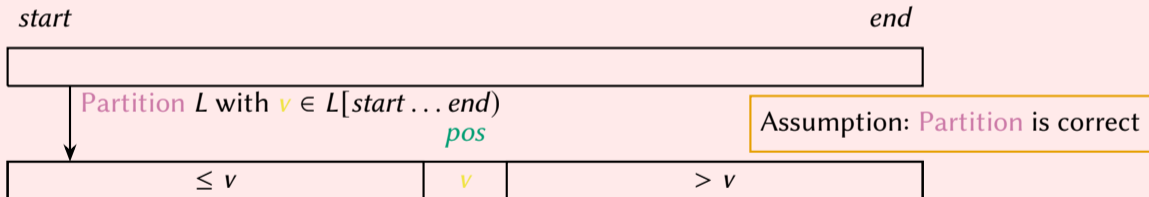


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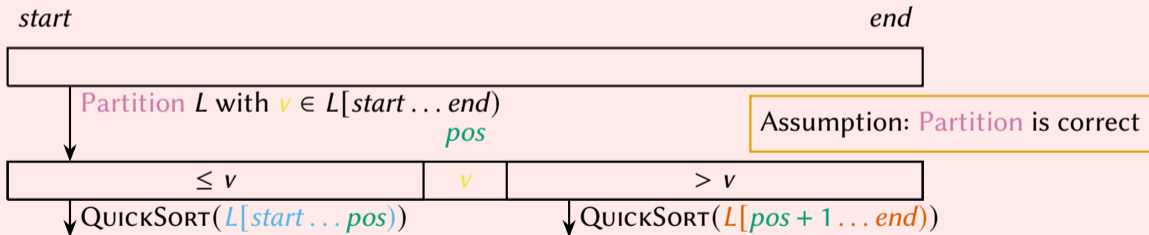


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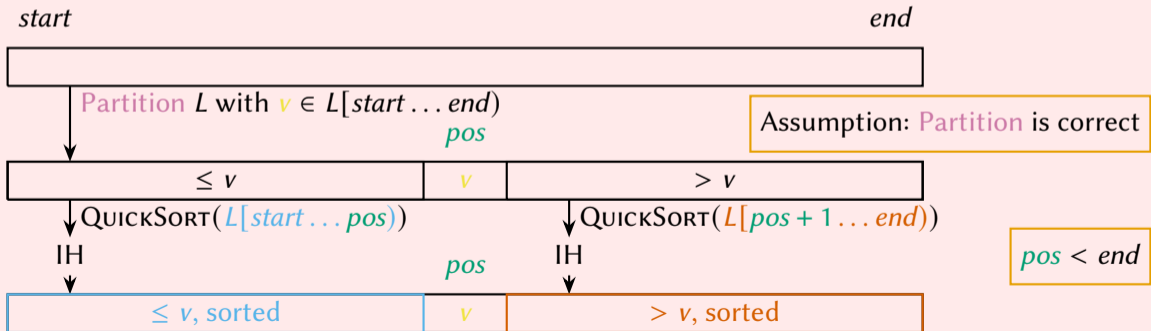


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2: $v, i, j := L[start], start, start + 1$.

Values in $L[start + 1 \dots i + 1)$ are smaller-or-equal to v .

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Values in $L[i + 1 \dots j)$ are larger than v .

8: Exchange $L[i]$ and $L[start]$.

9: **return** i .

Assumption: Partition is correct

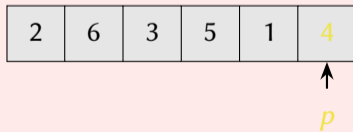
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- 3: **while** $j \neq end$ **do**
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Assumption: Partition is correct

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Algorithm PARTITION(L , $start$, end , p):

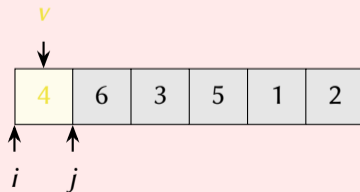
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4	6	3	5	1	2
---	---	---	---	---	---

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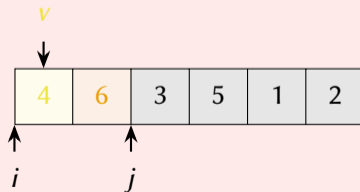
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Algorithm PARTITION(L , $start$, end , p):

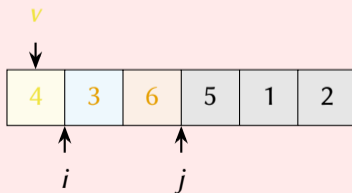
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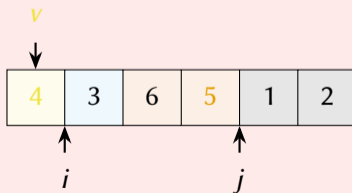
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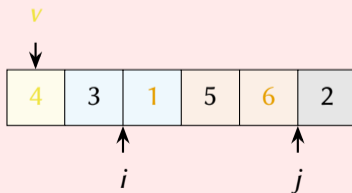
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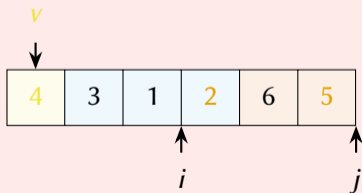
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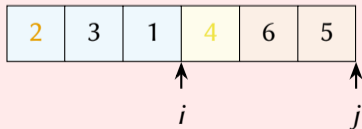
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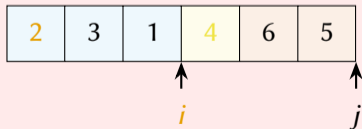
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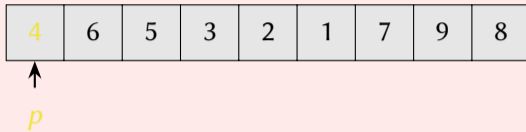
QUICKSORT: A complete example

We did not specify yet how to choose a pivot value!

4	6	5	3	2	1	7	9	8
---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---

QUICKSORT: A complete example

We did not specify yet how to choose a pivot value → random choices for now.



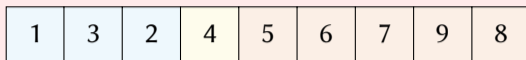
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1	3	2	4	5	6	7	9	8
---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---

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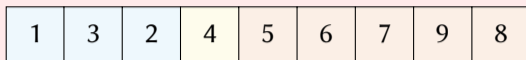


QUICKSORT($L[0 \dots 3]$)



QUICKSORT: A complete example

We did not specify yet how to choose a pivot value → random choices for now.



QUICKSORT($L[0 \dots 3]$)



p

QUICKSORT: A complete example

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1	3	2	4	5	6	7	9	8
---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---

QUICKSORT($L[0 \dots 3]$)

1	3	2
---	---	---

QUICKSORT: A complete example

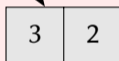
We did not specify yet how to choose a pivot value → random choices for now.



QUICKSORT($L[0 \dots 3]$)

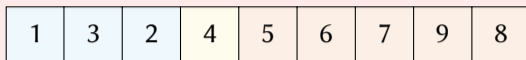


QUICKSORT($L[1 \dots 3]$)



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We did not specify yet how to choose a pivot value \rightarrow random choices for now.



QUICKSORT($L[0 \dots 3]$)



QUICKSORT($L[1 \dots 3]$)



p

QUICKSORT: A complete example

We did not specify yet how to choose a pivot value → random choices for now.



QUICKSORT($L[0 \dots 3]$)

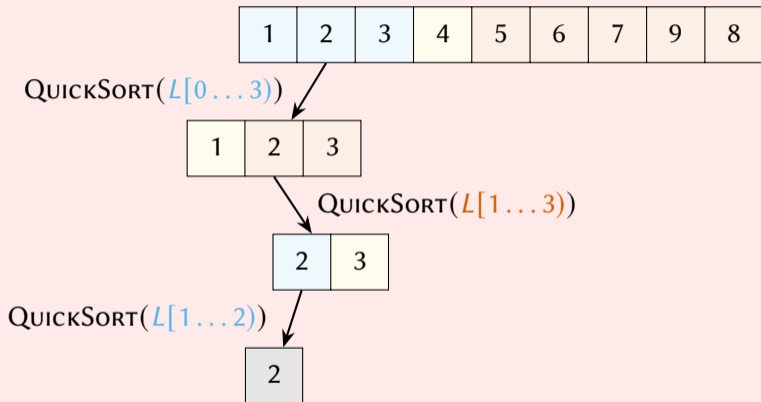


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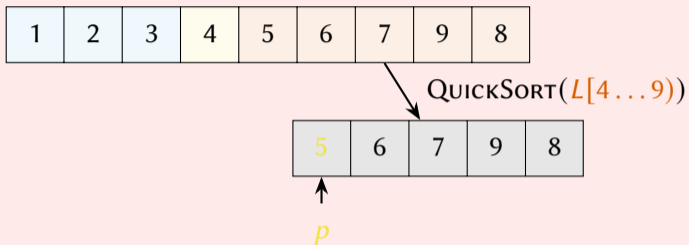
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	9	8
---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---

QUICKSORT($L[4 \dots 9]$)

5	6	7	9	8
---	---	---	---	---

QUICKSORT: A complete example

We did not specify yet how to choose a pivot value → random choices for now.



QUICKSORT: A complete example

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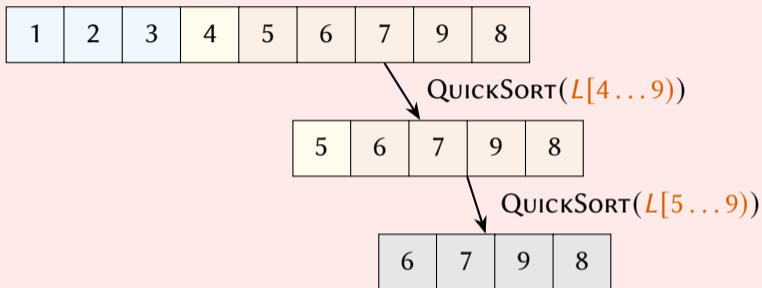
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	9	8
---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---

QUICKSORT($L[4 \dots 9]$)

5	6	7	9	8
---	---	---	---	---

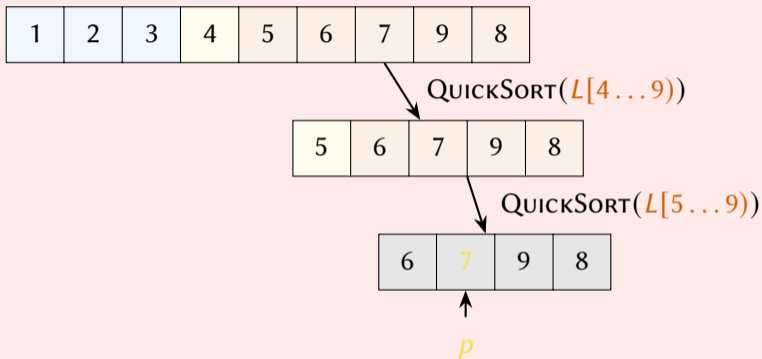
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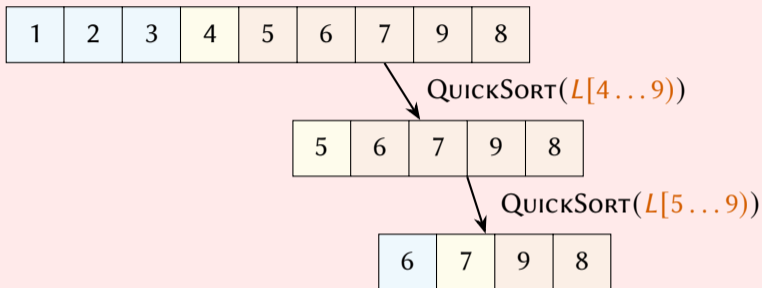
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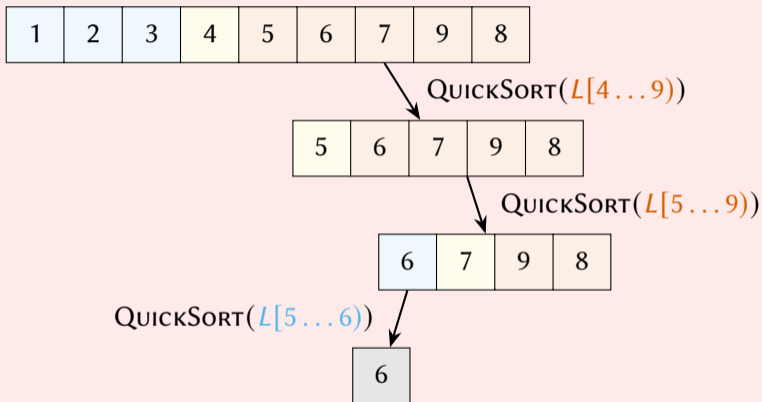
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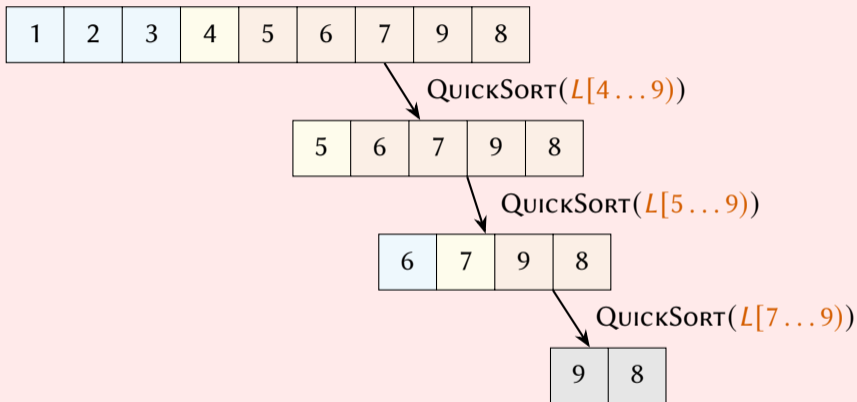
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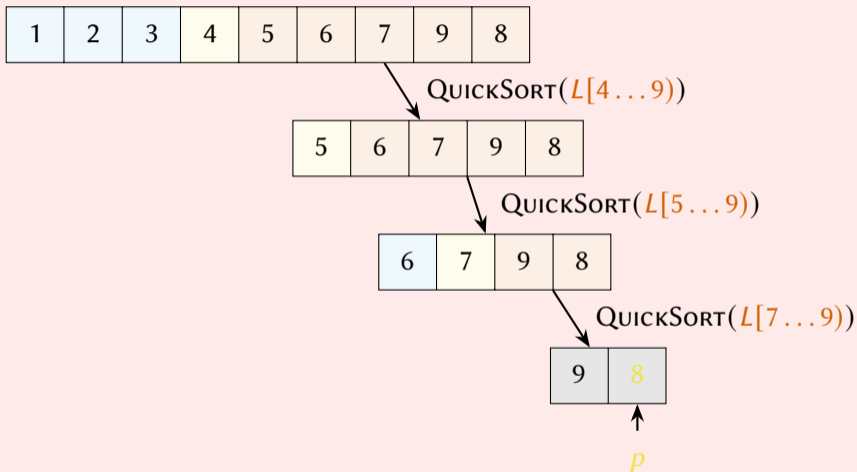
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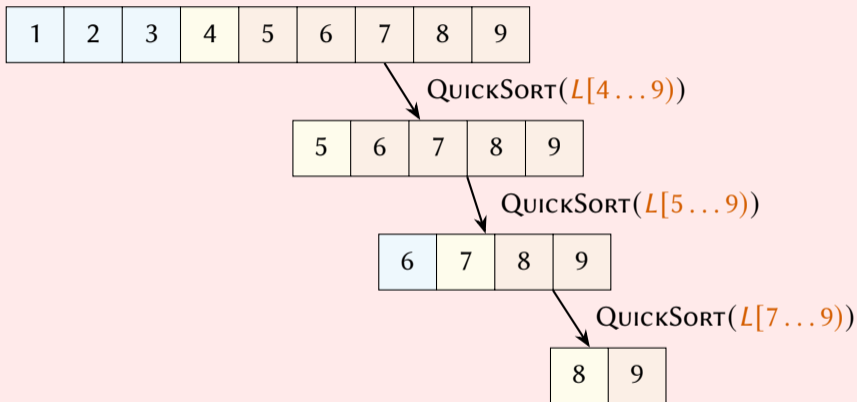
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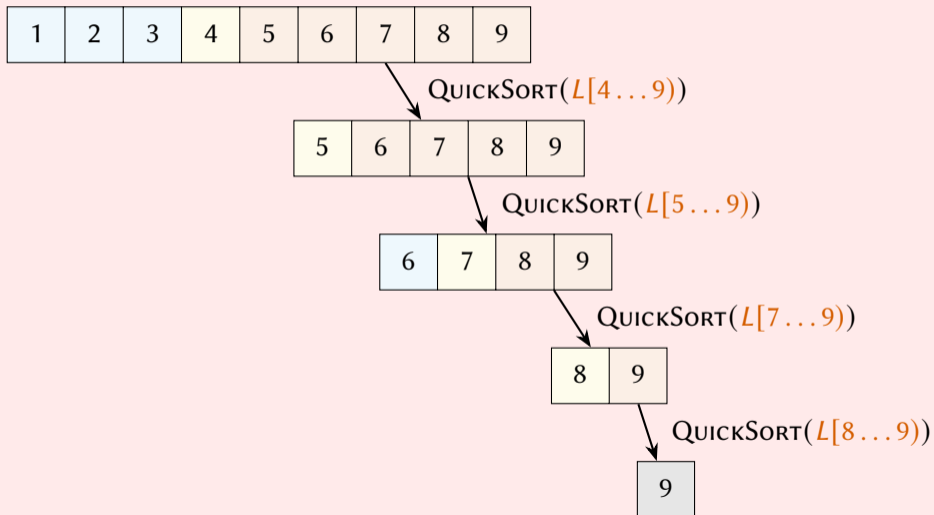
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---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---

The complexity of QUICKSORT

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The complexity of QUICKSORT depends on the chosen pivot values.

The complexity of QUICKSORT

Example: Pivots are always smaller than all other values

$$T(N) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } N \leq 1; \\ & \text{if } N > 1. \end{cases}$$

The complexity of QUICKSORT

Example: Pivots are always smaller than all other values

$$T(N) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } N \leq 1; \\ T(N-1) + N & \text{if } N > 1. \end{cases}$$

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	<u>Number</u>	<u>Cost</u>	<u>Total</u>
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▼			
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N	1	N	N
▼			
$N-1$	1	$N-1$	$N-1$
▼			
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▼			
$N-1$	1	$N-1$	$N-1$
▼			
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▼			
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	<u>Number</u>	<u>Cost</u>	<u>Total</u>
N	1	N	N
▼			
$N-1$	1	$N-1$	$N-1$
▼			
$N-2$	1	$N-2$	$N-2$
▼			
$N-3$	1	$N-3$	$N-3$
⋮	⋮	⋮	⋮
⋮	⋮	⋮	⋮
1	1	1	1

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	<u>Number</u>	<u>Cost</u>	<u>Total</u>	
N	1	N	N	}
▼				
$N-1$	1	$N-1$	$N-1$	
▼				
$N-2$	1	$N-2$	$N-2$	
▼				
$N-3$	1	$N-3$	$N-3$	}
⋮	⋮	⋮	⋮	
⋮	⋮	⋮	⋮	
1	1	1	1	

$\sum_{i=1}^N i = \frac{N(N+1)}{2} = \Theta(N^2).$

The complexity of QUICKSORT

Example: Pivots are “in the middle” of all values

$$T(N) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } N \leq 1; \\ & \text{if } N > 1. \end{cases}$$

The complexity of QUICKSORT

Example: Pivots are “in the middle” of all values

$$T(N) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } N \leq 1; \\ 2T(\lfloor \frac{N}{2} \rfloor) + N & \text{if } N > 1. \end{cases}$$

The complexity of QUICKSORT

Example: Pivots are “in the middle” of all values

$$T(N) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } N \leq 1; \\ 2T(\lfloor \frac{N}{2} \rfloor) + N & \text{if } N > 1. \end{cases}$$

We have seen this one before: $T(N) = \Theta(N \log_2(N))$.

The complexity of QUICKSORT

The complexity of QUICKSORT depends *a lot* on the chosen pivot values.

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Randomized QUICKSORT: Choose pivot values fully at random

We *cannot* provide an exact complexity for Randomized QUICKSORT:

Executions on *the same list* can have vastly different random choices (and complexities).

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Expected-case analysis: an analysis in terms of the distribution of random choices.

Expected-case analysis is *not* average-case analysis!

Average-case analysis: an analysis in terms of the distribution of inputs.

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Executions on *the same list* can have vastly different random choices (and complexities).

Expected-case analysis: an analysis in terms of the distribution of random choices.

Any random choice in Randomized QUICKSORT is equally likely:

$$T(N) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } N \leq 1; \\ \frac{1}{N} \left(\sum_{i=0}^{N-1} (T(i) + T(N - (i + 1))) \right) + N & \text{if } N > 1. \end{cases}$$

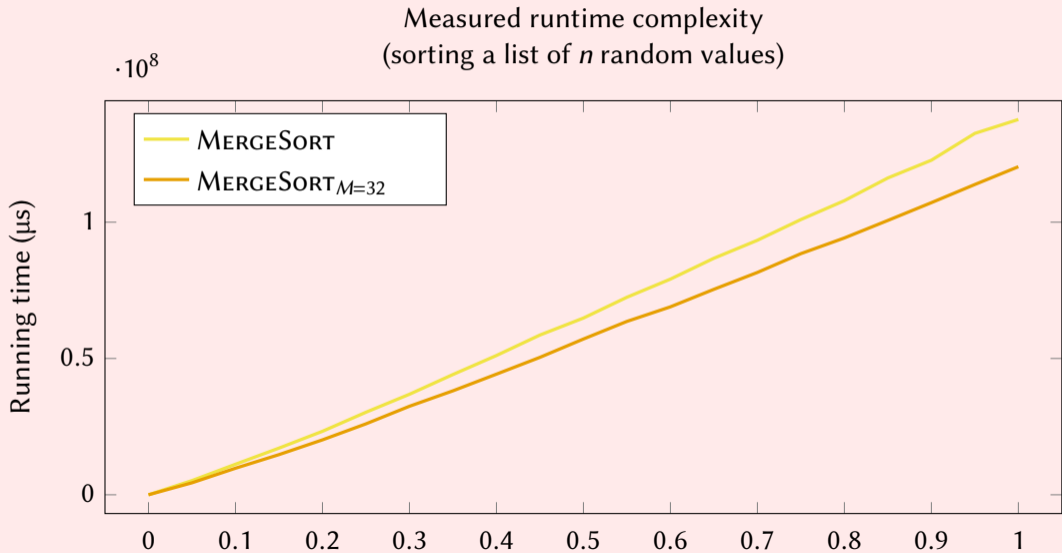
With some *mathematical tricks*, we can show that $T(N) = \Theta(N \log_2(N))$.

The complexity of QUICKSORT

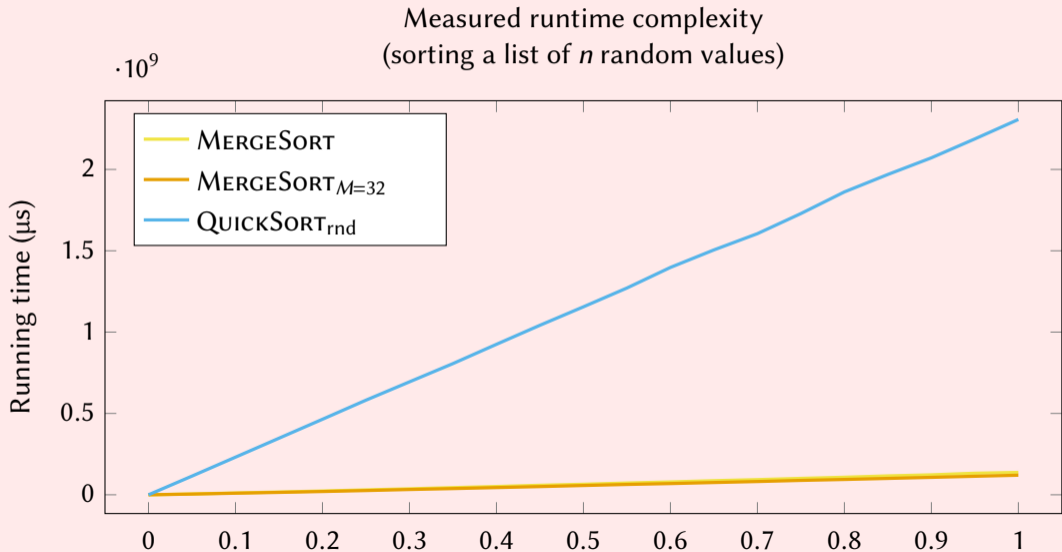
The complexity of QUICKSORT depends *a lot* on the chosen pivot values.

We will later develop a QUICKSORT variant that always has a $\Theta(N \log_2(N))$ complexity, this independent of how pivot values are chosen.

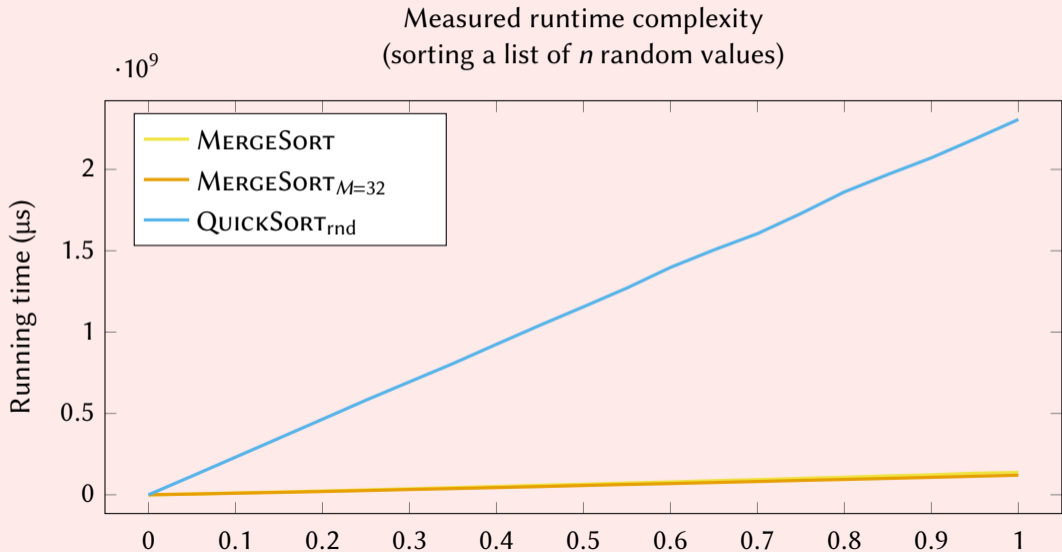
The performance of QUICKSORT



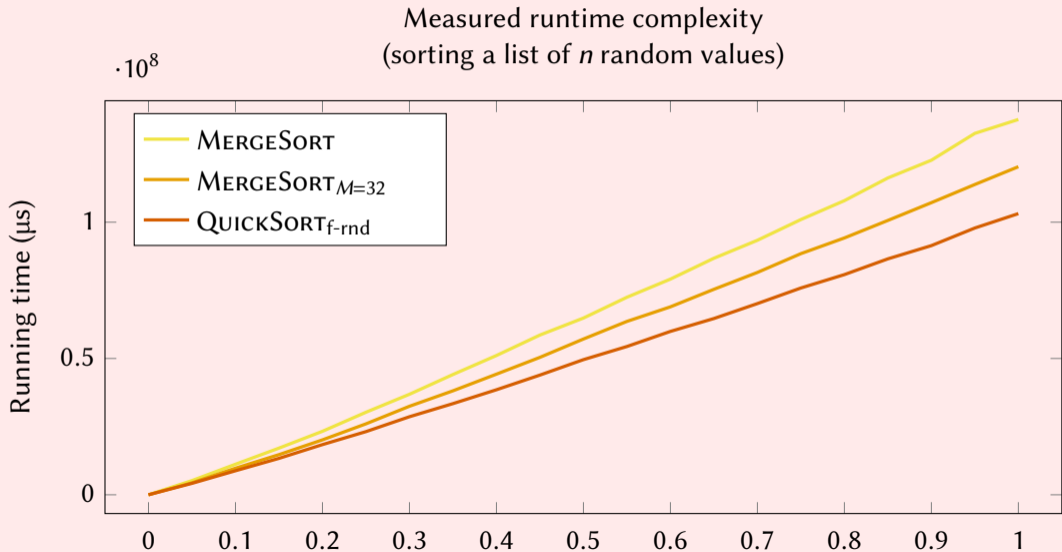
The performance of QUICKSORT



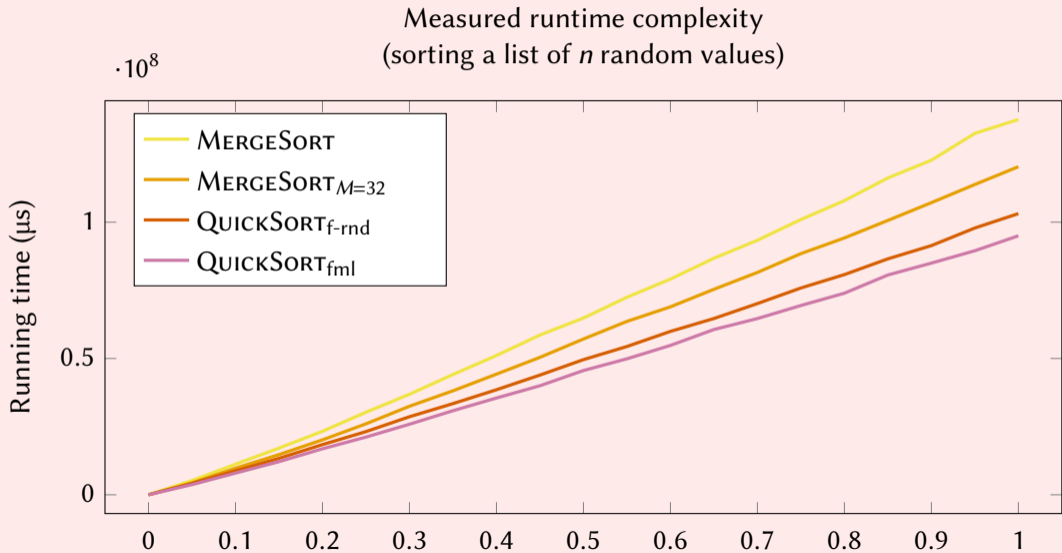
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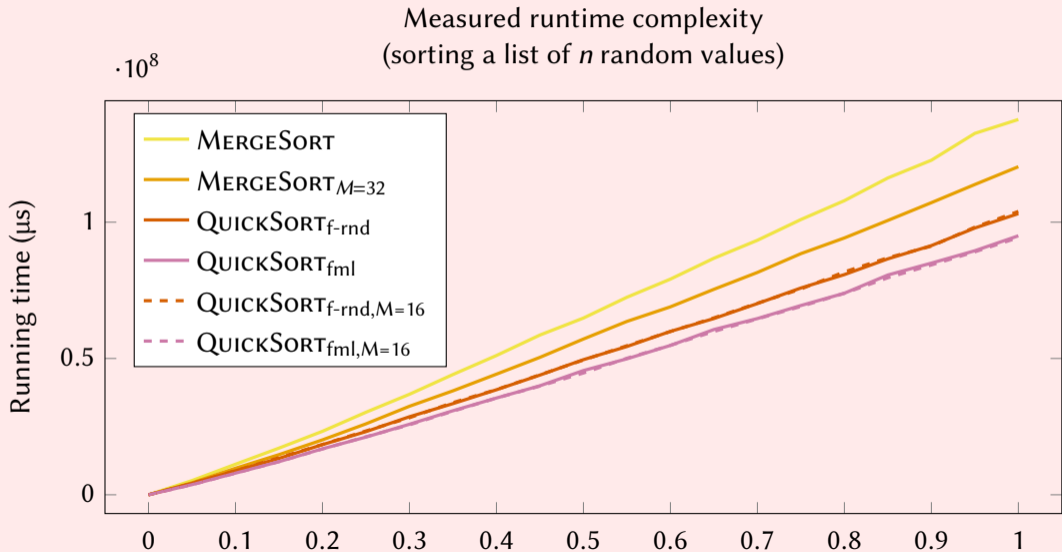
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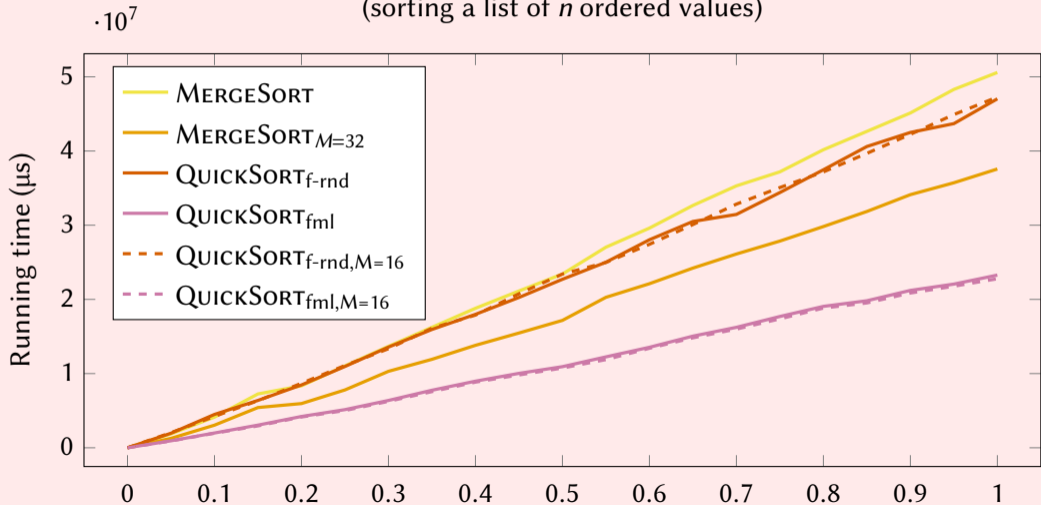


The performance of QUICKSORT



The performance of QUICKSORT

Measured runtime complexity
(sorting a list of n ordered values)



Further comparing MERGESORT and QUICKSORT

	Comparisons	Changes	Memory
MERGESORT	$\Theta(N \log_2(N))$	$N \log_2(N)$	$\Theta(N)$
QUICKSORT	$\Theta(N \log_2(N))$ (expected)	$\Theta(N \log_2(N))$ (expected)	$\Theta(\log_2(N))$ (expected)

Further comparing MERGESORT and QUICKSORT

QUICKSORT is *not* stable

Consider a L list of pairs ($name, age$) that is already sorted on age:

$$L = [(Alicia, 12), (Dafni, 20), (Celeste, 27), (Dafni, 35), (Alicia, 56), (Celeste, 80)].$$

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- ▶ QUICKSORT($L[0, 6)$) on names only will *not maintain* ordering on age:

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We say that MERGESORT is *stable*.

Using PARTITION: Order statistics

Problem

Given a list $L[start \dots end)$ and k , $start \leq k < end$, return the k -th smallest value in $L[start \dots end)$.

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Algorithm $SELECT(L, start, end, k)$:

- 1: Choose the position $p \in [start, end)$ of the *pivot value* $v := L[pos]$.
- 2: $pos := PARTITION(L, start, end, p)$.
- 3: **if** $pos = k$ **then**
- 4: **return** $L[pos]$.
- 5: **else if** $pos > k$ **then**
- 6: **return** $SELECT(L, start, pos - 1, k)$.
- 7: **else**
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Essentially a “half” QUICKSORT that only sorts those values that could be the k -th.

Using PARTITION: Order statistics

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Given a list $L[start \dots end]$ and k , $start \leq k < end$, return the k -th smallest value in $L[start \dots end]$.

Algorithm SELECT(L , $start$, end , k):

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- 2: $pos := \text{PARTITION}(L, start, end, p)$.
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Randomized SELECT: $\Theta(N)$ (expected).

Using PARTITION: Order statistics

`SELECT(L, 0, 9, 6)`: We want the $k = 6$ -th smallest value.

4	6	5	3	2	1	7	9	8
---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---

Using PARTITION: Order statistics

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↑
 p

Using PARTITION: Order statistics

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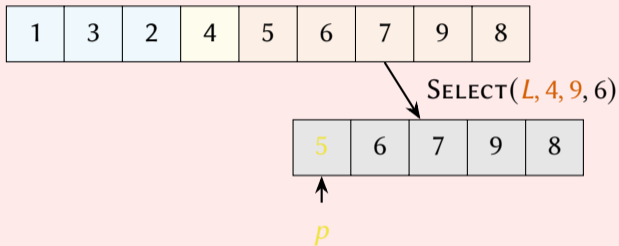
`SELECT(L, 4, 9, 6)`



5	6	7	9	8
---	---	---	---	---

Using PARTITION: Order statistics

SELECT(L , 0, 9, 6): We want the $k = 6$ -th smallest value.



Using PARTITION: Order statistics

`SELECT(L, 0, 9, 6)`: We want the $k = 6$ -th smallest value.

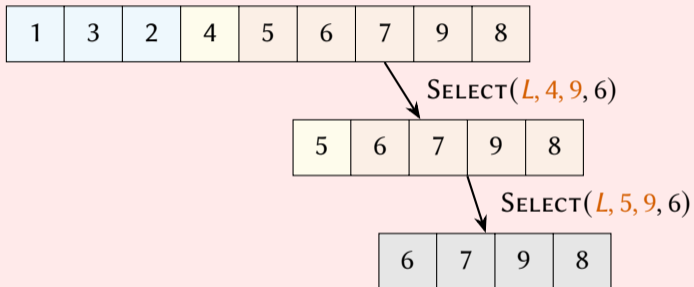
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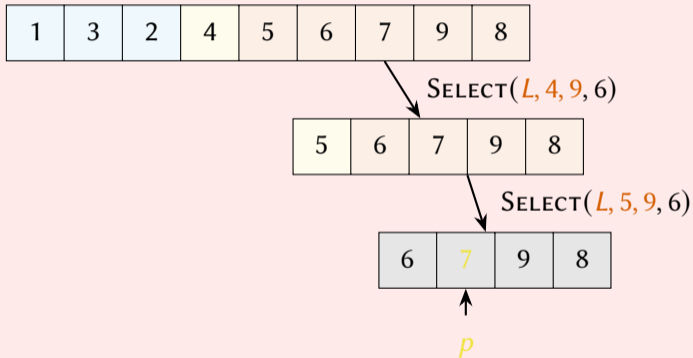
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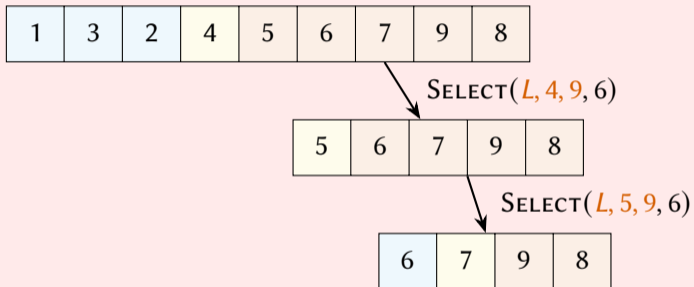
Using PARTITION: Order statistics

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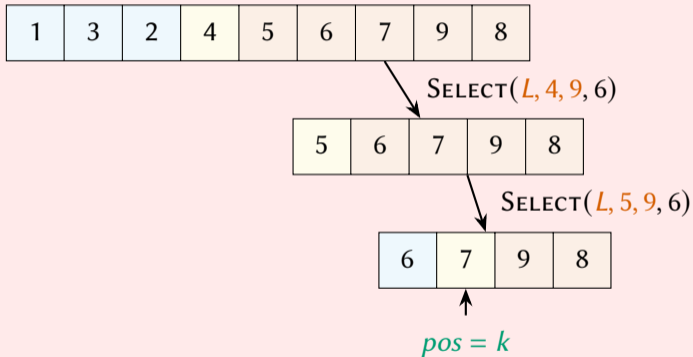
Using PARTITION: Order statistics

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Using PARTITION: Order statistics

SELECT(L , 0, 9, 6): We want the $k = 6$ -th smallest value.



Final notes on QUICKSORT

	C++	Java
QUICKSORT	<code>std::sort</code>	<code>java.util.Arrays.sort</code> (non-Objects)
PARTITION	<code>std::partition</code>	
(related)	<code>std::stable_partition</code>	