VE281

Data Structures and Algorithms

Comparison Sort

Learning Objectives:

- Know the difference between comparison sort and noncomparison sort
- Know the procedures of merge sort and quick sort
- Know the master theorem
- Know different characteristics of sorting algorithms, such as time complexity, stability, etc.

Outline

- Sorting Basics
- Merge Sort
- Quick Sort
- Comparison Sort Summary

Sorting

- Given array A of size N, reorder A so that its elements are in order.
 - "In order" with respect to a consistent comparison function, such as "≤" or "≥".
- Sorting order
 - Ascending order
 - Descending order
- Unless otherwise specified, we consider sorting in ascending order.

Characteristics of Sorting Algorithms

- Average-case time complexity
- Worst-case time complexity
- Space usage: in place or not?
 - in place: requires O(1) additional memory
 - Don't forget the stack space used in recursive calls
 - In place is better
 - Why? The data can fit into cache, not main memory
 - Real example: quick sort versus merge sort. Both have average-case time complexity of $O(n \log n)$. Quick sort is faster, due to in place

Characteristics of Sorting Algorithms

• **Stability**: whether the algorithm maintains the relative order of records with equal keys

$$(4, b), (3, e), (3, b), (5, b)$$
 $(3, e), (3, b), (4, b), (5, b)$

Sort on the first number

Stable!

- Usually there is a secondary key whose ordering you want to keep. Stable sort is thus useful for sorting over multiple keys
- Example: sort complex numbers a+bi
 - Ordering rule: first compare a; when there is a tie, compare b
 - One sorting method: first sort b, then sort a

$$3+5i$$
, $2+6i$, $3+4i$, $5+2i$

Sort on b

... sort on a

Stability is important!

Types of Sorting Algorithms

- Sorting algorithms can be classified as **comparison sort** and **non-comparison sort**.
- Comparison sort: each item is compared against others to determine its order.

- Non-comparison sort: each item is put into predefined "bins" independent of the other items presented.
 - No comparison with other items needed.
 - It is also known as **distribution-based sort**.

Types of Sorting Algorithms

- General types of comparison sort
 - Insertion-based: insertion sort
 - Selection-based: selection sort, heap sort
 - Exchange-based: bubble sort, quick sort
 - Merging-based: merge sort
- Non-comparison sort: counting sort, bucket sort, radix sort

Insertion Sort

- A[0] alone is a sorted array.
- For **i=1** to **N-1**
 - Insert A[i] into the appropriate location in the sorted array A[0], ..., A[i-1], so that A[0], ..., A[i] is sorted.
 - To do so, save **A[i]** in a temporary variable **t**, shift sorted elements greater than **t** right, and then insert **t** in the gap.
- Time comlexity? $O(N^2)$
- In place? Yes. O(1) additional memory.
- Stable?
 - Yes, because elements are visited in order and equal elements are inserted after its equals.

Insertion Sort

Best Case Time Complexity

- For **i=1** to **N-1**
 - Insert A[i] into the appropriate location in the sorted array A[0], ..., A[i-1], so that A[0], ..., A[i] is sorted.
- The **best case** time complexity is O(N).
 - It happens when the array is already sorted.
 - For other sorting algorithms we will talk, their best case time complexity is $\Omega(N \log N)$.

Selection Sort

- For **i=0** to **N-2**
 - Find the smallest item in the array A[i], ..., A[N-1]. Then, swap that item with A[i].
- Finding the smallest item requires linear scan.

?

Which Statements Are Correct for Selection Sort?

For i=0 to N-2

Find the smallest item in the array A[i], ..., A[N-1]. Then, swap that item with A[i].

- A. Its worse-case time complexity is $O(N^2)$
- **B.** Its best-case time complexity is $\Omega(N^2)$
- C. It is not in-place
- **D.** It is stable



Bubble Sort

```
For i=N-2 downto 0
For j=0 to i
If A[j]>A[j+1] swap A[j] and A[j+1]
```

- Compares two adjacent items and swap them to keep them in ascending order.
 - From the beginning to the end. The last item will be the largest.
- Time complexity? $O(N^2)$
- In place? Yes.
- Stable?
 - Yes, because equal elements will not be swapped.

Two Problems with Simple Sorts

- They learn only one piece of information per comparison and hence might compare every pair of elements.
 - Contrast with binary search: learns N/2 pieces of information with first comparison.
- They often move elements one place at a time (bubble sort and insertion sort), even if the element is "far" from its **final place**.
 - Contrast with selection sort, which moves each element exactly to its final place.
- Fast sorts attack these two problems.
 - Two famous ones: merge sort and quick sort.

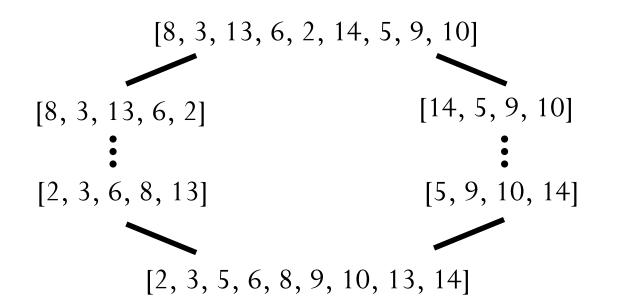
Outline

- Sorting Basics
- Merge Sort
- Quick Sort
- Comparison Sort Summary

Merge Sort

Algorithm

- Spilt array into two (roughly) equal subarrays.
- Merge sort each subarray recursively.
 - The two subarrays will be sorted.
- Merge the two sorted subarrays into a sorted array.



Merge Sort

Pseudo-code

```
void mergesort(int *a, int left, int
  right) {
   if (left >= right) return;
   int mid = (left+right)/2;
   mergesort(a, left, mid);
   mergesort(a, mid+1, right);
   merge(a, left, mid, right);
}
```

Merge Two Sorted Arrays

- For example, merge A = (2, 5, 6) and B = (1, 3, 8, 9, 10).
- Compare the smallest element in the two arrays A and B and move the smaller one to an additional array C.
- Repeat until one of the arrays becomes empty.
- Then append the other array at the end of array C.

Merge Two Sorted Arrays

Implementation

- We actually do not "remove" element from arrays A and B.
 - We just keep a pointer indicating the smallest element in each array.
 - We "remove" element by incrementing that pointer.

Time complexity is O(sizeA + sizeB)

Merge Sort

Time Complexity

```
void mergesort(int *a, int left, int
  right) {
    if (left >= right) return;
    int mid = (left+right)/2;
    mergesort(a, left, mid); T(N/2)
    mergesort(a, mid+1, right); T(N/2)
    merge(a, left, mid, right); O(N)
}
```

- Let T(N) be the time required to merge sort N elements.
- Merge two sorted arrays with total size N takes O(N).

```
Recursive relation: T(N) = 2T(N/2) + O(N)
```

How to solve the recurrence?

Solve Recurrence: Master Method

- A "black box" for solving recurrence.
- However, there is an important assumption: all sub-problems have roughly **equal** sizes.
 - E.g., merge sort
 - Not apply to unbalanced division.

Solve Recurrence: Master Method

- Recurrence: $T(n) \le aT\left(\frac{n}{b}\right) + O(n^d)$
 - Base case: $T(n) \leq constant$ for all sufficiently small n.
 - $a = \text{number of recursive calls (integer } \ge 1)$
 - b = input size shrinkage factor (integer > 1)
 - $O(n^d)$: the runtime of merging solutions. d is real value ≥ 0 .
 - a, b, d are independent of n.

• Claim:

base doesn't matter

$$T(n) = \begin{cases} O(n^d \log n) & \text{if } a = b^d \\ O(n^d) & \text{if } a < b^d \\ O(n^{\log_b a}) & \text{if } a > b^d \end{cases}$$

base matters!

Example of Merge Sort

Recurrence:
$$T(n) \le aT\left(\frac{n}{b}\right) + O(n^d)$$

Claim:
$$T(n) = \begin{cases} O(n^d \log n) & \text{if } a = b^d \\ O(n^d) & \text{if } a < b^d \\ O(n^{\log_b a}) & \text{if } a > b^d \end{cases}$$

- $a = 2, b = 2, d = 1 \implies b^d = a$
- $T(n) = O(n \log n)$



What are a, b, d for Binary Search?

Recurrence:
$$T(n) \le aT\left(\frac{n}{h}\right) + O(n^d)$$

Claim:
$$T(n) = \begin{cases} O(n^d \log n) & \text{if } a = b^d \\ O(n^d) & \text{if } a < b^d \\ O(n^{\log_b a}) & \text{if } a > b^d \end{cases}$$

A.
$$a = 2$$
, $b = 2$, $d = 0$ **B.** $a = 1$, $b = 2$, $d = 0$

C.
$$a = 2$$
, $b = 2$, $d = 1$ **D.** $a = 1$, $b = 2$, $d = 1$



Merge Sort

Characteristics

- Not in-place
 - For efficient merging two sorted arrays, we need an auxiliary O(N) space.
 - Recursion needs up to $O(\log N)$ stack space.
- Stable if **merge()** maintains the relative order of equal keys.

Divide-and-Conquer Approach

- Merge sort uses the divide-and-conquer approach.
- Recursively **breaking** down a problem into two or more sub-problems of the same (or related) type, until these become simple enough to be solved directly.
 - For merge sort, split an array into two and sort them respectively.
- The solutions to the sub-problems are then **combined** to give a solution to the original problem.
 - For merge sort, merge two sorted arrays.

Outline

- Sorting Basics
- Merge Sort
- Quick Sort
- Comparison Sort Summary

Algorithm

Another divide-and-conquer approach to sort

partition()

- Choose an array element as **pivot**.
- Put all elements < pivot to the left of pivot.
- Put all elements \geq pivot to the right of pivot.
- Move pivot to its correct place in the array.
- Sort left and right subarrays recursively (not including pivot).

```
void quicksort(int *a, int left,
  int right) {
   int pivotat; // index of the pivot
   if(left >= right) return;
   pivotat = partition(a, left, right);
   quicksort(a, left, pivotat-1);
   quicksort(a, pivotat+1, right);
}
```

Choice of Pivot

- If your input is random, you can choose the **first** element.
 - But this is very bad for presorted input.
- A better strategy: **randomly** pick an element from the array as pivot.
 - Claim: for any input, the average running time is $O(n \log n)$.
 - <u>Note</u>: average is over random choice of pivots made by the algorithm, **not** on the input.

Partitioning the Array

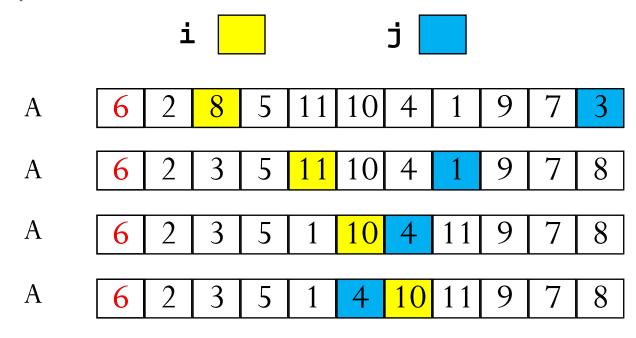
- Once pivot is chosen, swap pivot to the beginning of the array.
- When another array B is available, scan original array A from left to right.
 - Put elements < pivot at the left end of B.
 - Put elements \geq pivot at the right end of B.
 - The pivot is put at the remaining position of B.
 - Copy B back to A.
 - A 6 2 8 5 11 10 4 1 9 7 3
 - B 2 5 4 1 3 6 7 9 10 11 8

In-Place Partitioning the Array

- 1. Once pivot is chosen, swap pivot to the beginning of the array.
- 2. Start counters i=1 and j=N-1.
- 3. Increment i until we find element A[i]>=pivot.
 - **A[i]** is the leftmost item \geq pivot.
- 4. Decrement j until we find element A[j]<pivot.
 - **A[j]** is the rightmost item < pivot.
- 5. If i<j, swap A[i] with A[j]. Go back to step 3.
- 6. Otherwise, swap the first element (pivot) with A[j].

In-Place Partitioning the Array

Example



• Now, j < i, swap the first element (pivot) with A[j].

A 4 2 3 5 1 6 10 11 9 7 8

In-Place Partitioning the Array

Time Complexity

- 1. Once pivot is chosen, swap pivot to the beginning of the array.
- 2. Start counters i=1 and j=N-1.
- 3. Increment i until we find element A[i]>=pivot.
- 4. Decrement j until we find element A[j]<pivot.
- 5. If i<j, swap A[i] with A[j]. Go back to step 3.
- 6. Otherwise, swap the first element (pivot) with A[j].
- Scan the entire array no more than twice.
- Time complexity is O(N), where N is the size of the array.

Time Complexity

```
void quicksort(int *a, int left,
  int right) {
   int pivotat; // index of the pivot
   if(left >= right) return;
   pivotat = partition(a, left, right); O(N)
   quicksort(a, left, pivotat-1);   T(LeftSz)
   quicksort(a, pivotat+1, right);  T(RightSz)
}
```

- Let T(N) be the time needed to sort N elements.
 - T(0) = c, where c is a constant.
- Recursive relation:

$$T(N) = T(LeftSz) + T(RightSz) + O(N)$$

• LeftSz + RightSz = N - 1

Worst Case Time Complexity

• Recursive relation:

$$T(N) = T(LeftSz) + T(RightSz) + O(N)$$

• Worst case happens when each time the pivot is the smallest item or the largest item

•
$$T(N) = T(N-1) + T(0) + O(N)$$

 $\leq T(N-1) + T(0) + dN$
 $\leq T(N-2) + 2T(0) + d(N-1) + dN$
...
 $\leq T(0) + NT(0) + d + 2d + \dots + d(N-1) + dN$
 $= O(N^2)$

Best Case Time Complexity

• Recursive relation:

$$T(N) = T(LeftSz) + T(RightSz) + O(N)$$

- Best case happens when each time the pivot divides the array into two equal-sized ones.
 - T(N) = T((N-1)/2) + T((N-1)/2) + O(N)
 - The recursive relation is similar to that of merge sort.
 - $\bullet \ T(N) = O(N \log N)$

Average Time Complexity

- Average time complexity of quick sort can be proved to be $O(N \log N)$.
 - Assume **randomly** pick an element from the array as pivot.
 - <u>Note</u>: average is over random choice of pivots made by the algorithm, **not** on the input.
 - The claim holds for any input.

Other Characteristics

- In-place?
 - In-place partitioning.
 - Worst case needs O(N) stack space.
 - Average case needs $O(\log N)$ stack space.
 - "Weakly" in-place.
- Not stable.

Summary

- Like merge sort, quick sort is a divide-and-conquer algorithm.
- Merge sort: easy division, complex combination.
- Quick sort: complex division (partition with pivot step), easy combination.

- Insertion sort is faster than quick sort for small arrays.
 - Terminate quick sort when array size is below a threshold. Do insertion sort on subarrays.

Outline

- Sorting Basics
- Merge Sort
- Quick Sort
- Comparison Sort Summary

Comparison Sorts Summary

	Worst Case Time	Average Case Time	In Place	Stable
Insertion	$O(N^2)$	$O(N^2)$	Yes	Yes
Selection	$O(N^2)$	$O(N^2)$	Yes	No
Bubble	$O(N^2)$	$O(N^2)$	Yes	Yes
Merge Sort	$O(N \log N)$	$O(N \log N)$	No	Yes
Quick Sort	$O(N^2)$	$O(N \log N)$	Weakly	No

For comparison sort, is $O(N \log N)$ the best we can do in the **worst case**?

Comparison Sorts

Worst Case Time Complexity

• Theorem: A sorting algorithm that is based on pairwise comparisons must use $\Omega(N \log N)$ operations to sort in the worst case.