EL9343

Data Structure and Algorithm

Lecture 4: Introduction to sorting II: HeapSort, Quicksort

Instructor: Pei Liu

Last Lecture

- Divide-and-conquer algorithms
 - maximum subarray

Insertion sort

Design approach: Incremental

Sorts in place: Yes

Pest case: Θ(n)

• Worst case: $\Theta(n^2)$

Introduction to Sorting: Merge Sort

Bubble Sort

Design approach: Incremental

Sorts in place: Yes

Running time: $\Theta(n^2)$

Merge Sort

Design approach: divide and conquer

Sorts in place: No

▶ Running time: Θ(nlogn)

Introduction to Sorting: HeapSort

- So far we've talked about several algorithms to sort an array of numbers
 - What is the advantage of merge sort?
 - Answer: O(n lg n) worst-case running time
 - What is the advantage of insertion sort?
 - Answer: sorts in place
 - Also: When array "nearly sorted", runs fast in practice
- Next on the agenda: Heapsort
 - Combines advantages of both previous algorithms

Data Structure: Tree

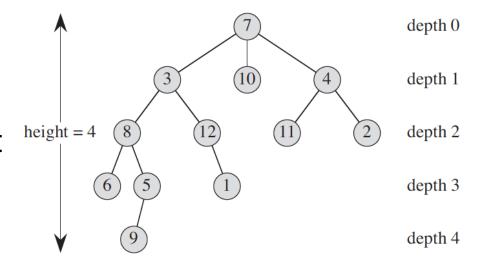
- (Free) Tree: connected, acyclic, undirected graph
- Forest: acyclic, undirected graph, possibly disconnected



- Rooted Tree: a free tree with special root node
 - Ancestor of node x: any node on the path from root to x
 - Descendant of node x: any node with x as its ancestor
 - Parent of node x: node immediately before x on path from root
 - Child of node x: any node with x as its parent
 - Siblings of node x: nodes sharing parent with x
 - Leaf/external node: without child
- Internal node: with at least one child

Data Structure: Tree

- degree of x: number of children
- depth of x: length of the simple path from root to x
- level of a tree: all nodes at the same depth
- height of x: length of the longest simple path from x downward to some leaf node
- height of a tree: height of root
- Ordered Tree: rooted tree in which children of each node are ordered



Special Types of Trees

Binary Tree (recursive def.)

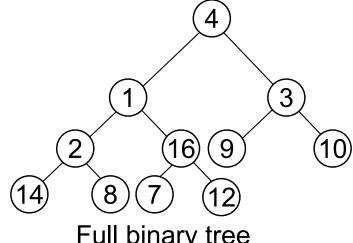
- Contains no node
- Or has a root node, left subtree (binary), right subtree (binary)

Full binary tree

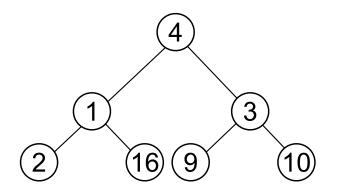
A binary tree in which each node is either a leaf or has degree exactly 2.

Complete binary tree

A binary tree in which all leaves are on the same level and all internal nodes have degree 2.



Full binary tree

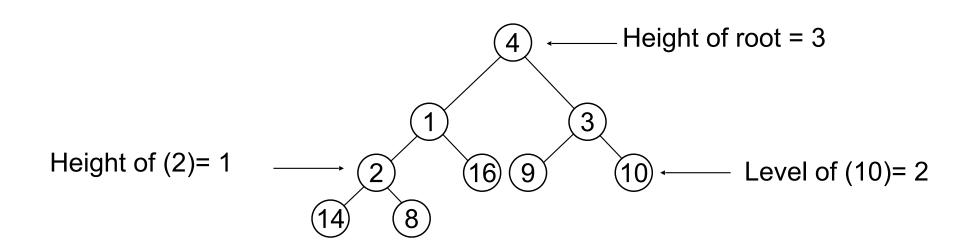


Complete binary tree

Useful Properties

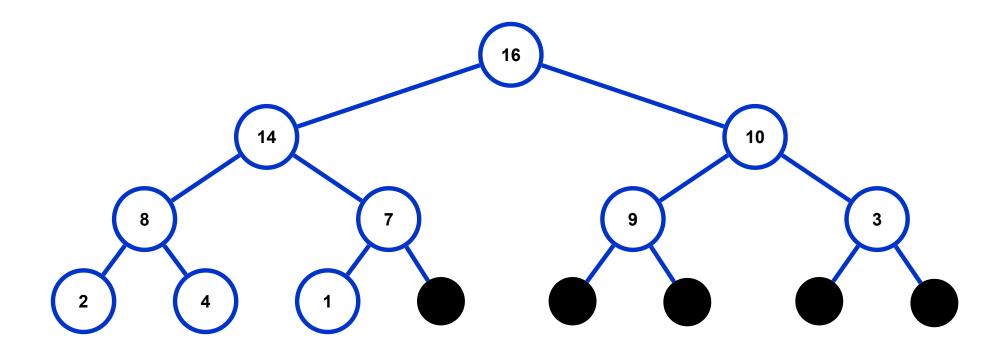
- There are at most 2' nodes at level / of a binary tree
- ▶ A binary tree with depth d has at most 2^{d+1}-1 nodes
- A binary tree with n nodes has depth at least | Ign |

$$n \le \sum_{l=0}^{d} 2^{l} = \frac{2^{d+1} - 1}{2 - 1} = 2^{d+1} - 1$$



Data Structure: Heap

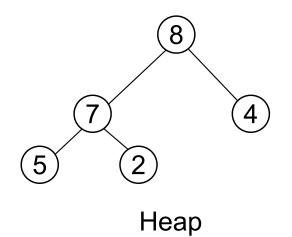
A heap can be seen as a complete binary tree:



The book calls them "nearly complete" binary trees; can think of unfilled slots as null pointers

The Heap Data Structure

- A heap can be seen as a complete binary tree with the following two properties:
 - Structural property: all levels are full, except possibly the last one, which is filled from left to right
 - ▶ Order (heap) property: for any node x: $Parent(x) \ge x$



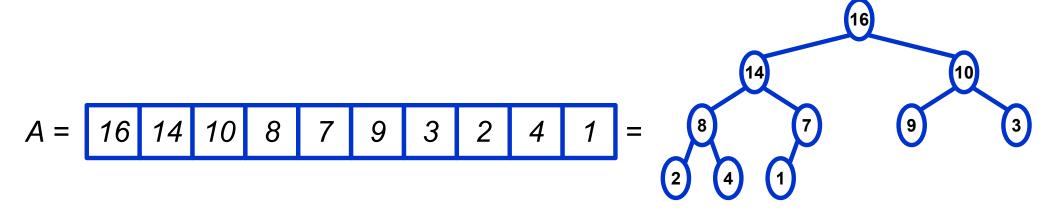
From the heap property, it follows that:

"The root is the maximum element of the heap!"

A heap is a binary tree that is filled in order

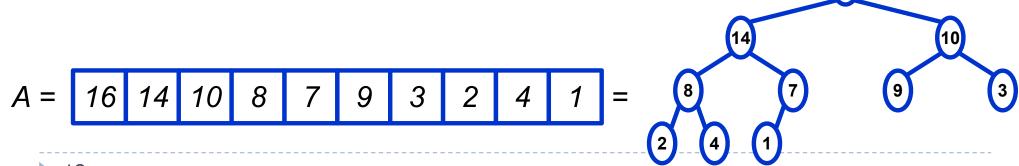
The Heap Data Structure

In practice, heaps are usually implemented as arrays:



Array Representation of Heaps

- A heap can be stored as an array A.
 - Root of tree is A[1]
 - Node i is A[i]
 - Left child of node i = A[2i]
 - ▶ Right child of node i = A[2i + 1]
 - ▶ Parent of node $i = A[\lfloor i/2 \rfloor]$
 - Heapsize[A] ≤ length[A]
- ▶ The elements in the subarray A[(Ln/2 L +1) .. n] are leaves



Heap Types

- Max-heaps (largest element at root), have the max-heap property:
 - For all nodes i, excluding the root:

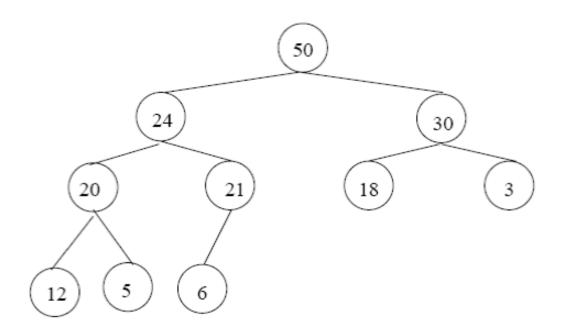
$$A[PARENT(i)] \ge A[i]$$

- Min-heaps (smallest element at root), have the min-heap property:
 - For all nodes i, excluding the root:

$$A[PARENT(i)] \leq A[i]$$

Adding/Deleting Nodes

- New nodes are always inserted at the bottom level (left to right)
- Nodes are removed from the bottom level (right to left)

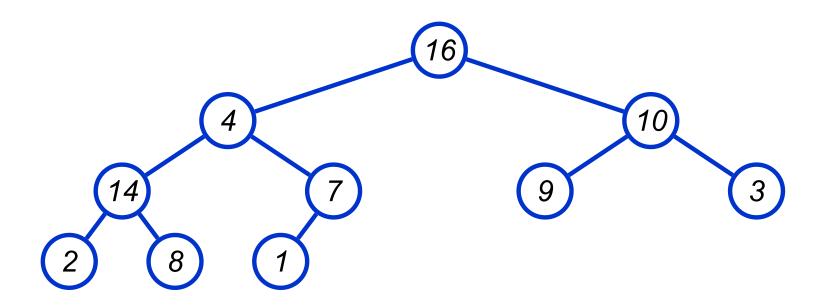


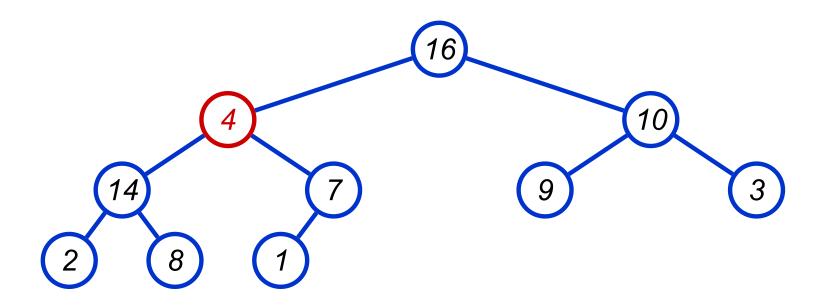
Operations on Heaps

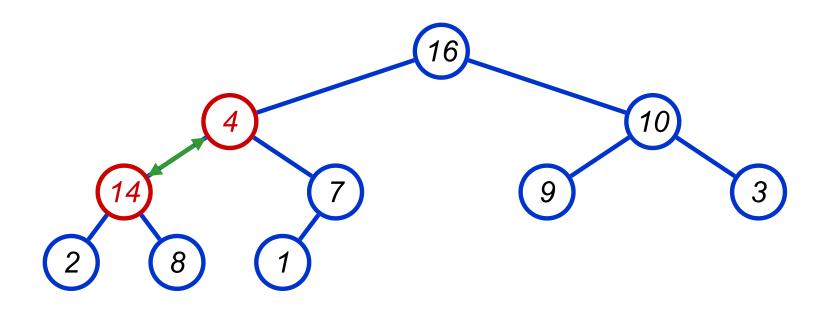
- Maintain/Restore the max-heap property
 - MAX-HEAPIFY
- Create a max-heap from an unordered array
 - BUILD-MAX-HEAP
- Sort an array in place
 - HEAPSORT
- Priority queues

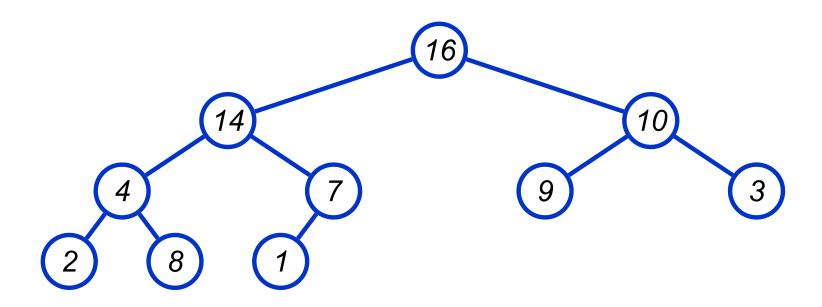
Heap Operations: MAX-HEAPIFY

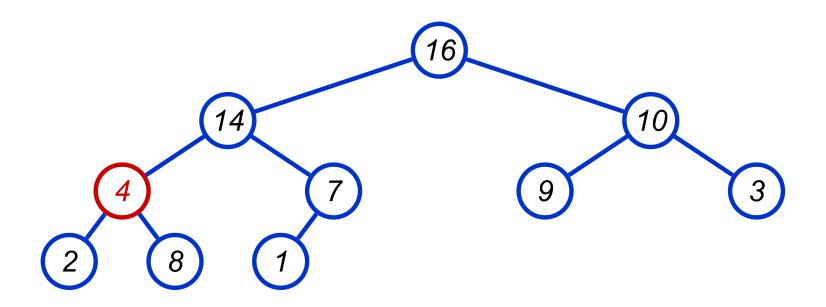
- Maintain the max-heap property: MAX-HEAPIFY
- Suppose a node is smaller than a child
 - Left and Right subtrees of i are max-heaps
- To eliminate the violation:
 - Exchange with larger child
 - Move down the tree
 - Continue until node is not smaller than children

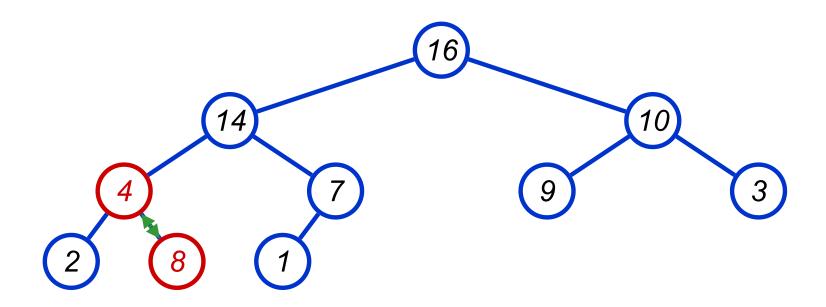




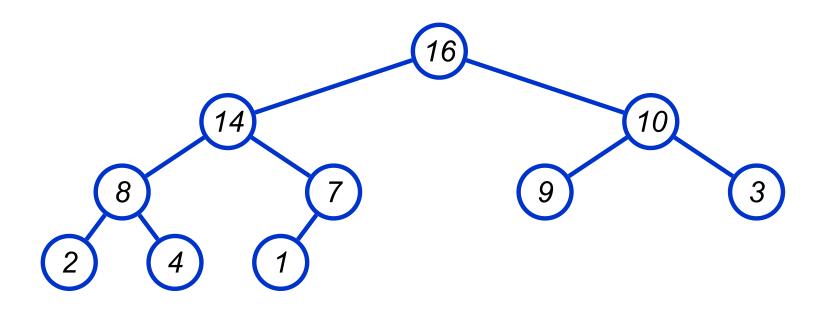




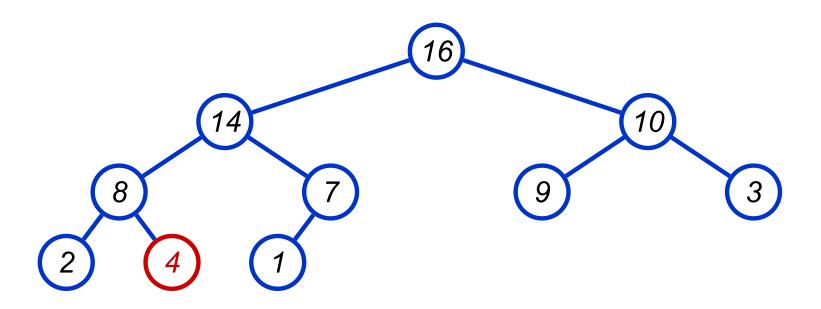


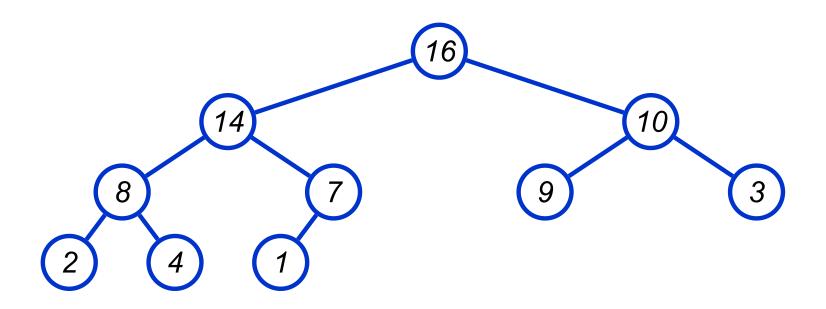






A = 16 14 10 8 7 9 3 2 4 1





Heap Operations: MAX-HEAPIFY

```
Max-Heapify(A, i)
      l = Left(i); r = Right(i);
      if (1 \le \text{heap size}(A) \&\& A[1] > A[i])
             largest = 1;
      else
             largest = i;
      if (r <= heap size(A) && A[r] > A[largest])
             largest = r;
      if (largest != i)
             Swap(A, i, largest);
             Heapify(A, largest);
```

Assumptions:

- Left and Right subtrees of i are max-heaps
- ▶ A[i] may be smaller than its children

Analyzing MAX-HEAPIFY - Informal

- Intuitively
 - It trace a path from the root to a leaf (longest path length: h
 - At each level, it makes exactly 2 comparisons
 - Total number of comparison is 2h
 - Running time is O(h) or O(lgn)
- Running time of MAX-HEAPIFY is O(Ign)
- Can be written in terms of the height of the heap, as being O(h)
 - Since the height of the heap is LIgn \(\]

Analyzing MAX-HEAPIFY - Formal

- Fixing up relationships between i, l, and r takes $\Theta(1)$ time
- If the heap at i has n elements, how many elements can the subtrees at I or r have?
 - Answer:2n/3 (worst case: bottom row 1/2 full)
- So time taken by MAX-HEAPIFY is given by
 - ► $T(n) \le T(2n/3) + \Theta(1)$

Analyzing MAX-HEAPIFY - Formal

- So we have
 - $T(n) \le T(2n/3) + \Theta(1)$
- By case 2 of the Master Theorem,
 - $T(n) = O(\lg n)$

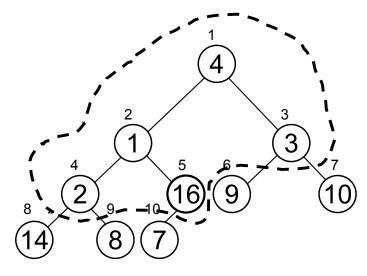
Thus, MAX-HEAPIFY takes logarithmic time

Building a Heap

- We can build a heap in a bottom-up manner by running MAX-HEAPIFY on successive subarrays
 - Convert an array A[1 ... n] into a max-heap (n = length[A])
 - The elements in the subarray A[(Ln/2 J +1) .. n] are leaves
 - ▶ Apply MAX-HEAPIFY on elements between 1 and Ln/2

Alg: BUILD-MAX-HEAP(A) n = length[A]for $i \leftarrow \lfloor n/2 \rfloor$ downto 1

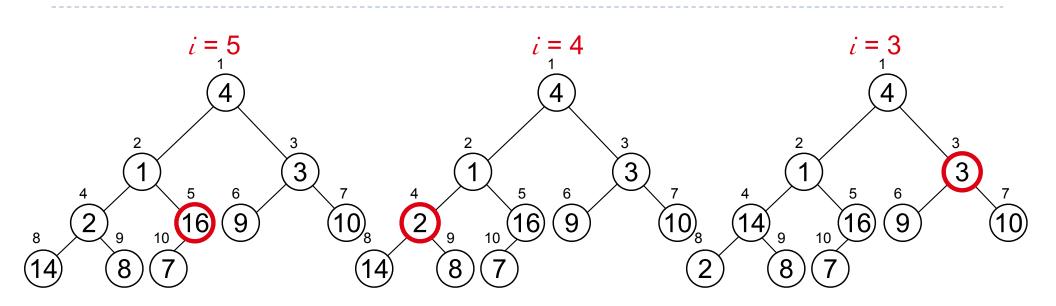
do MAX-HEAPIFY(A, i, n)

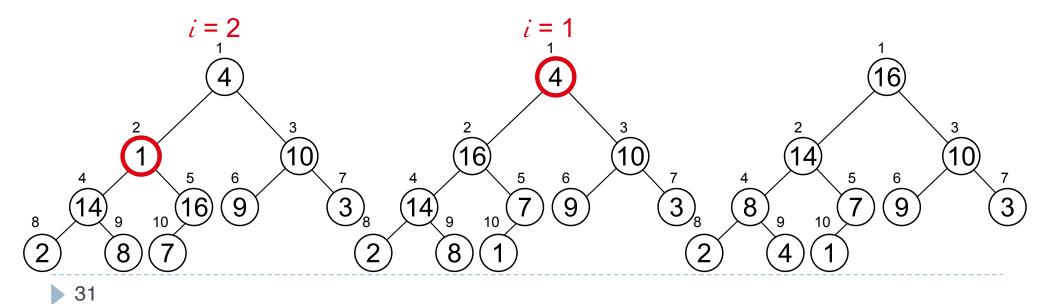


4	1	3	2	16	9	10	14	8	7

Example:

4 1 3 2 16 9 10 14 8





Analyzing BUILD MAX HEAP

Alg: BUILD-MAX-HEAP(A)

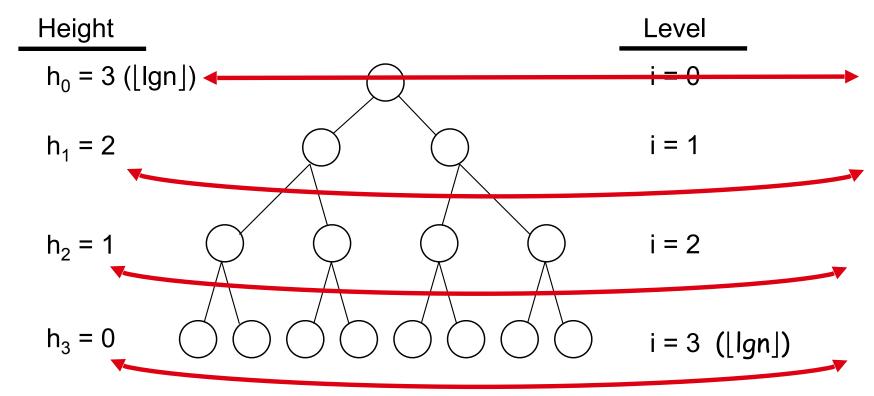
- 1. n = length[A]
- 2. for $i \leftarrow \lfloor n/2 \rfloor$ downto 1
- 3. do MAX-HEAPIFY(A, i, n)

$$O(\operatorname{lgn})$$
 O(n)

- ▶ Each call to MAX-HEAPIFY takes O(lg n) time
- ▶ There are O(n) such calls (specifically, $\lfloor n/2 \rfloor$)
- ▶ Thus the running time is O(*n* lg *n*)
 - Is this a correct asymptotic upper bound? YES
 - Is this an asymptotically tight bound? NO
- ► A tighter bound is O(n)

Running Time of BUILD MAX HEAP

► HEAPIFY takes O(h) ⇒ the cost of HEAPIFY on a node i is proportional to the height of the node i in the tree



 $h_i = h - i$ height of the heap rooted at level i $n_i = 2^i$ number of nodes at level i

Running Time of BUILD MAX HEAP

$$T(n) = \sum_{i=0}^{n} n_i h_i$$

Cost of HEAPIFY at level i * number of nodes at that level

$$=\sum_{i=0}^h 2^i (h-i)$$

= $\sum_{i=1}^{n} 2^{i} (h - i)$ Replace the values of n_{i} and h_{i} computed before

$$= \sum_{i=0}^{h} \frac{h-i}{2^{h-i}} 2^{h}$$

 $= \sum_{i=0}^{h} \frac{h-i}{2^{h-i}} 2^{h}$ Multiply by 2^h both at the nominator and denominator and write 2ⁱ as $\frac{1}{2^{-i}}$

$$=2^h \sum_{k=0}^h \frac{k}{2^k}$$

 $= 2^{h} \sum_{k=0}^{h} \frac{k}{2^{k}}$ Change variables: k = h - i

$$\leq n \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{k}{2^k}$$

The sum above is smaller than the sum of all elements to ∞ and h = Ign

$$= O(n)$$

The sum above is 2

Running time of BUILD-MAX-HEAP: T(n) = O(n)

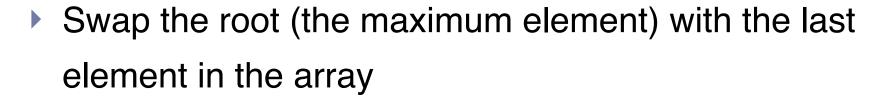
Heapsort

Goal:

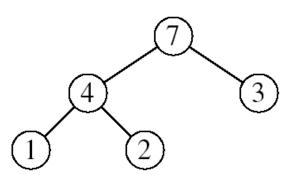
Sort an array using heap representations

Idea:



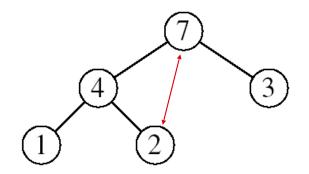


- "Discard" this last node by decreasing the heap size
- Call MAX-HEAPIFY on the new root
- Repeat this process until only one node remains

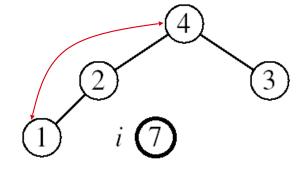


Example

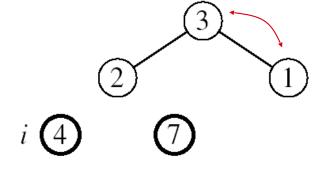
A=[7, 4, 3, 1, 2]



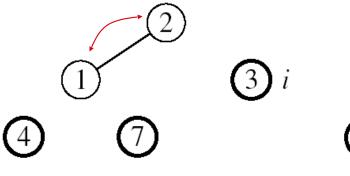
MAX-HEAPIFY(A, 1, 4)



MAX-HEAPIFY(A, 1, 3)



MAX-HEAPIFY(A, 1, 2)



3

MAX-HEAPIFY(A, 1, 1)

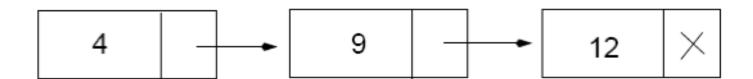
Analyzing Heapsort

- 1. BUILD-MAX-HEAP(A)
- 2. for i ← length[A] downto 2
- 3. **do** exchange $A[1] \leftrightarrow A[i]$
- 4. MAX-HEAPIFY(A, 1, i 1)
- O(n)
 n-1 times
 O(lgn)

- ▶ The call to **BUILD-MAX-HEAP** takes O(*n*) time
- Each of the n 1 calls to MAX-HEAPIFY takes O(lg n) time
- Thus the total time taken by **HeapSort** = $O(n) + (n - 1) O(\lg n) = O(n) + O(n \lg n) = O(n \lg n)$

Priority Queues

- The heap data structure is incredibly useful for implementing priority queues, which maintains a set of elements.
- Properties of priority queues
 - Each element is associated with a value (priority)
 - The key with the highest (or lowest) priority is extracted first



Operations on Priority Queues

- Max-priority queues support the following operations:
 - ► INSERT(S, x): inserts element x into set S
 - EXTRACT-MAX(S): removes and returns element of S with largest key
 - MAXIMUM(S): returns element of S with largest key
 - INCREASE-KEY(S, x, k): increases value of element x's key to k (Assume k ≥ x's current key value)

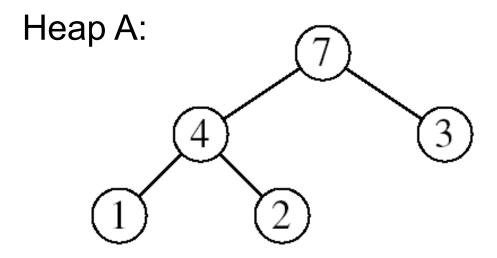
HEAP-MAXIMUM

Goal:Return the largest element of the heap

Alg: HEAP-MAXIMUM(A)

Running time: O(1)

1. return A[1]



Heap-Maximum(A) returns 7

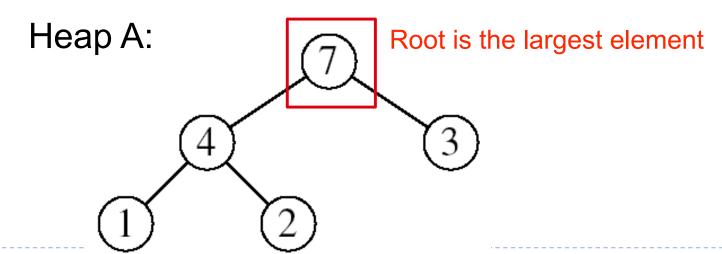
HEAP-EXTRACT-MAX

Goal

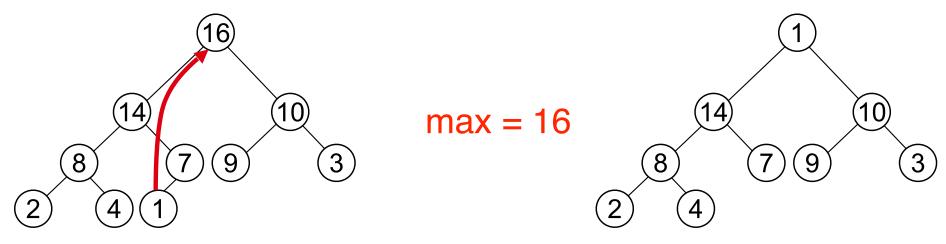
Extract the largest element of the heap (i.e., return the max value and also remove that element from the heap

Idea

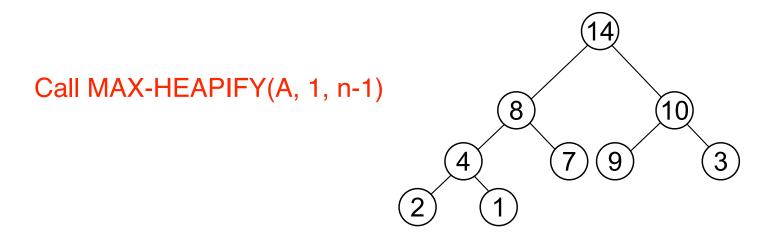
- Exchange the root element with the last
- Decrease the size of the heap by 1 element
- Call MAX-HEAPIFY on the new root, on a heap of size n-1



Example: HEAP-EXTRACT-MAX



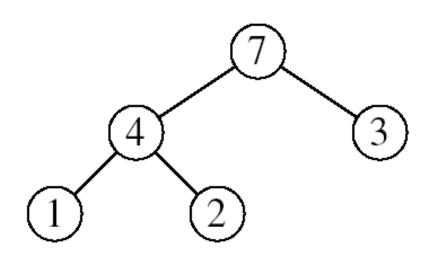
Heap size decreased with 1



HEAP-EXTRACT-MAX

Alg: HEAP-EXTRACT-MAX(A, n)

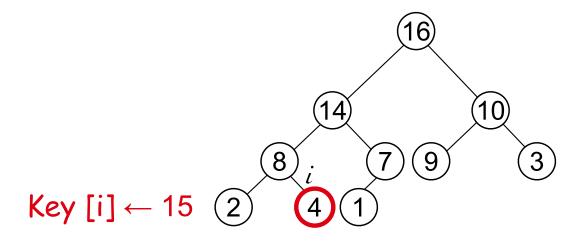
- 1. **if** n < 1
- then error "heap underflow"
- 3. $max \leftarrow A[1]$
- A[1] ← A[n]
- 5. MAX-HEAPIFY(A, 1, n-1)
- 6. **return** max



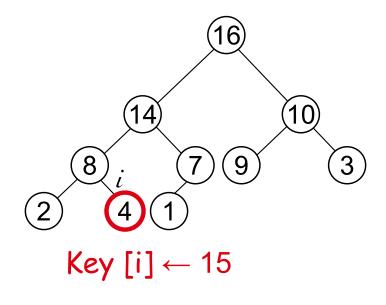
remakes heap

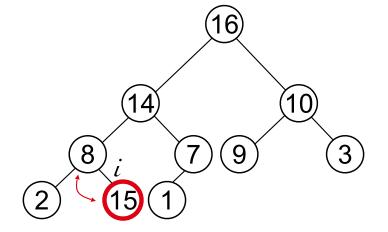
HEAP-INCREASE-KEY

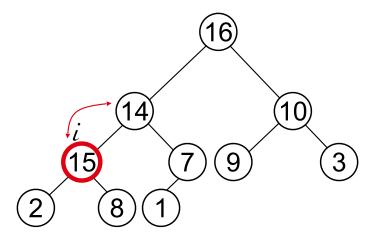
- Goal
 - Increases the key of an element i in the heap
- Idea
 - Increment the key of A[i] to its new value
 - If the max-heap property does not hold anymore: traverse a path toward the root to find the proper place for the newly increased key

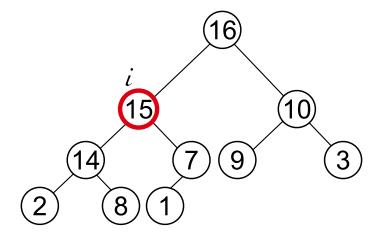


Example: HEAP-INCREASE-KEY





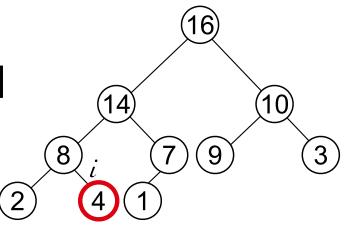




Analyzing HEAP-INCREASE-KEY

Alg: HEAP-INCREASE-KEY(A, i, key)

- 1. **if** key < A[i]
- 2. **then error** "new key is smaller than current key"
- 3. A[i] ← key
- 4. while i > 1 and A[PARENT(i)] < A[i]
- 5. **do** exchange A[i] ↔ A[PARENT(i)]
- 6. i ← PARENT(i)
- Running time: O(Ign)



Key [i] \leftarrow 15

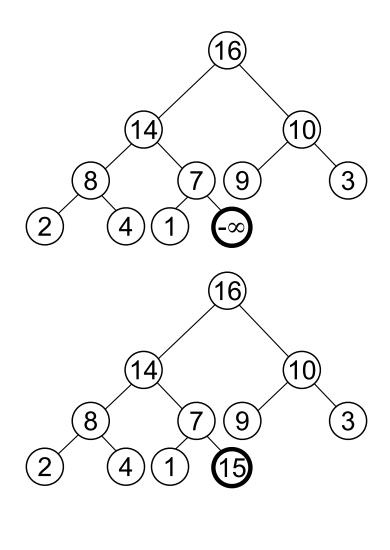
MAX-HEAP-INSERT

Goal

Inserts a new element into a maxheap

Idea

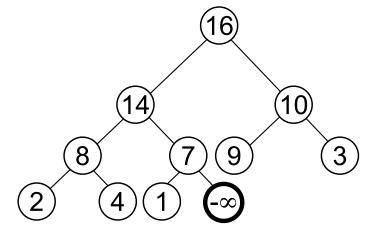
- Expand the max-heap with a new element whose key is -∞
- Calls HEAP-INCREASE-KEY to set the key of the new node to its correct value and maintain the maxheap property

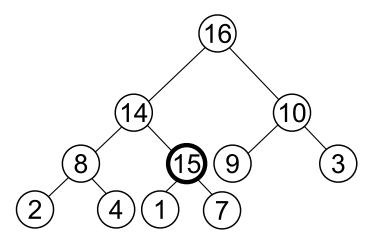


Example: MAX-HEAP-INSERT

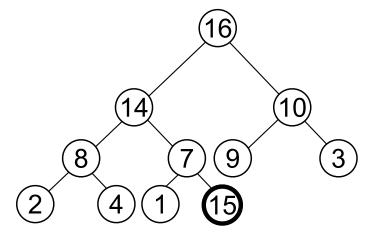
Insert value 15:

- Start by inserting -∞

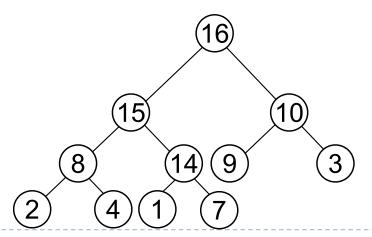




Increase the key to 15
Call HEAP-INCREASE-KEY on A[11] = 15



The restored heap containing the newly added element

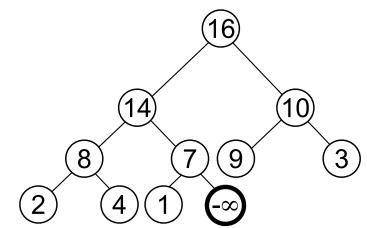


Analyzing MAX-HEAP-INSERT

Alg: MAX-HEAP-INSERT(A, key, n)

- heap-size[A] ← n + 1
- 2. $A[n + 1] \leftarrow -\infty$
- 3. HEAP-INCREASE-KEY(A, n + 1, key)

Running time: O(lgn)



Summary

We can perform the following operations on heaps:

MAX-HEAPIFY O(Ign)

▶ BUILD-MAX-HEAP O(n)

HEAP-SORT O(nlgn)

MAX-HEAP-INSERT O(Ign)

HEAP-EXTRACT-MAX
O(Ign)

HEAP-INCREASE-KEY
O(Ign)

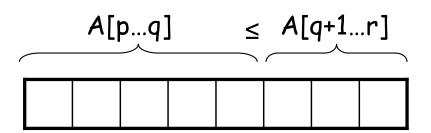
► HEAP-MAXIMUM O(1)

Quicksort: Brief Review

- Sorts in place
- Sorts O(nlgn) in the average case
- Sorts O(n²) in the worst case
 - But the worst case doesn't happen often (more on this later...)

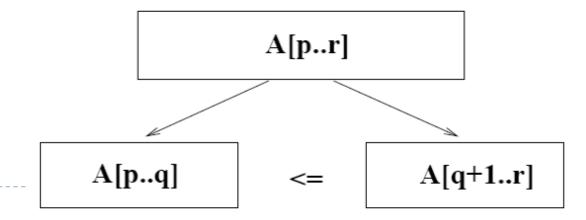
Quicksort

Sort an array A[p...r]

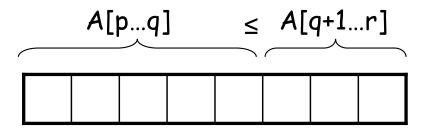


Divide

- Partition the array A into 2 subarrays A[p..q] and A[q+1..r], such that each element of A[p..q] is smaller than or equal to each element in A[q+1..r]
- Need to find index q to partition the array



Quicksort



Conquer

Recursively sort A[p..q] and A[q+1..r] by calls to Quicksort

Combine (unlike merge sort)

- Trivial: the arrays are sorted in place
- No additional work is required to combine them
- The entire array is now sorted

Quicksort

```
Alg.: QUICKSORT(A, p, r)

if p < r

then q ← PARTITION(A, p, r)

QUICKSORT (A, p, q)

QUICKSORT (A, q+1, r)</pre>
```

Initially: p=1, r=n

Recurrence: T(n) = T(q) + T(n - q) + f(n)

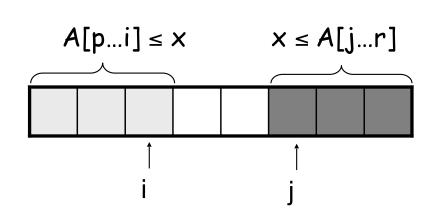
f(n) depends on partition()

Partition

- Clearly, all the action takes place in the PARTITION() function
 - Rearranges the subarray in place
 - End result:
 - Two subarrays
 - All values in first subarray ≤ all values in second
 - Returns the index of the "pivot" element separating the two subarrays
- How should you implement this?

Partition

- Choosing PARTITION()
 - There are different ways to do this
 - Each has its own advantages/disadvantages
- Hoare partition
 - Select a pivot element x around which to partition
 - Starts from both ends
 - Grows two regions
 - ► $A[p...i] \le x$
 - $\mathbf{x} \leq A[j...r]$



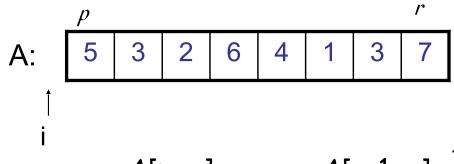
Partition in Words

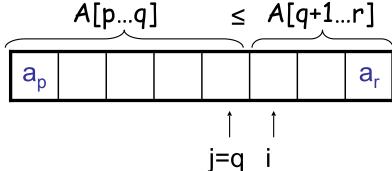
- Partition(A, p, r):
 - Select an element to act as the "pivot" (which?)
 - Grow two regions, A[p..i] and A[j..r]
 - All elements in A[p..i] <= pivot</p>
 - All elements in A[j..r] >= pivot
 - Increment i until A[i] >= pivot
 - Decrement j until A[j] <= pivot</p>
 - Swap A[i] and A[j]
 - Repeat until i >= j
 - Return j

Partition Code

Alg. PARTITION (A, p, r)

- 1. $x \leftarrow A[p]$
- 2. $i \leftarrow p 1$
- 3. $i \leftarrow r + 1$
- while TRUE
- 5. do repeat $j \leftarrow j 1$
- 6. $until A[j] \le x$
- 7. **do repeat** i ← i + 1
- 8. $until A[i] \ge x$
- 9. **if** i < j
- 10. **then** exchange $A[i] \leftrightarrow A[j]$
- 11. else return j



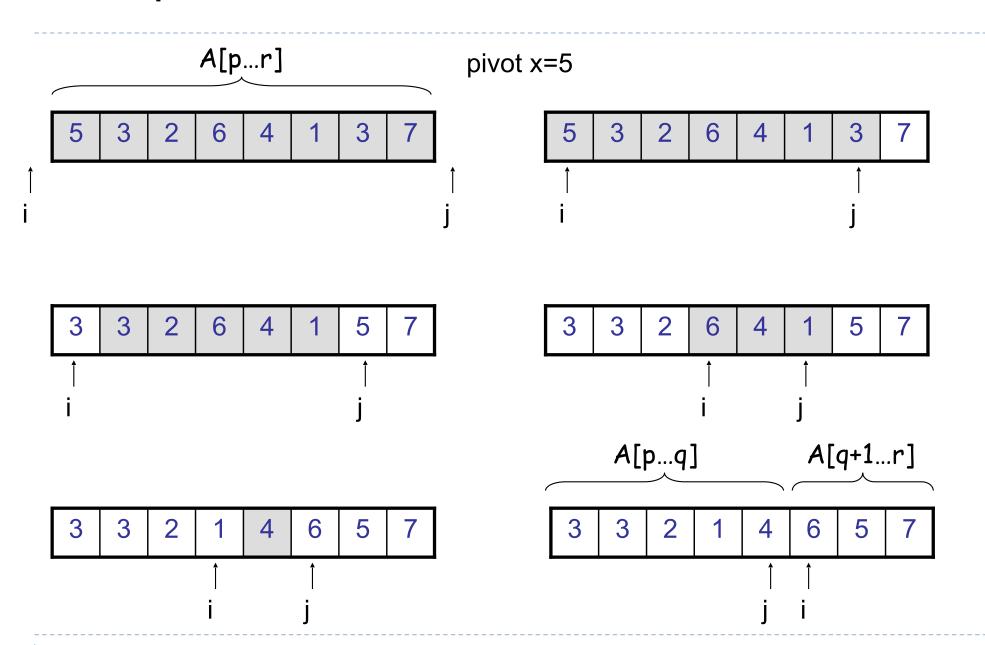


A:

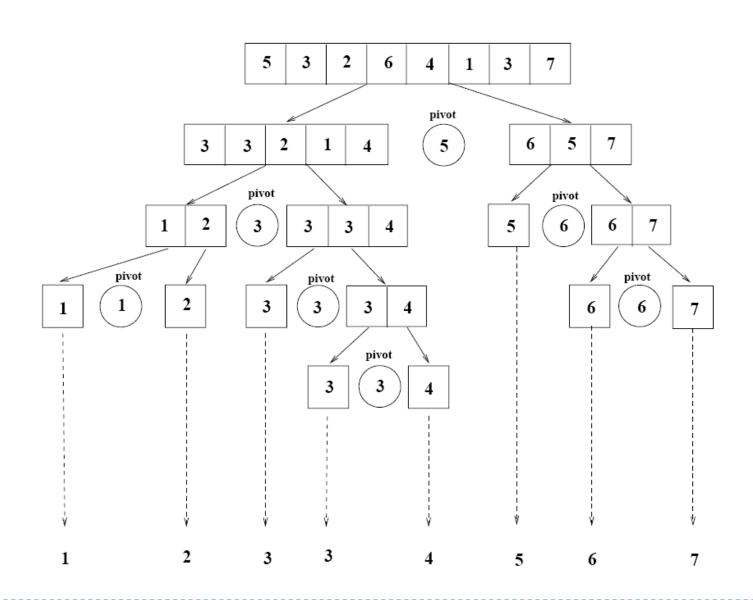
Each element is visited once!

Running time: $\Theta(n)$ n = r - p + 1

Example



Example



Quicksort: Recurrence

```
Alg.: QUICKSORT(A, p, r)

if p < r

then q ← PARTITION(A, p, r)

QUICKSORT (A, p, q)

QUICKSORT (A, q+1, r)</pre>
```

Initially: p=1, r=n

Recurrence: T(n) = T(q) + T(n - q) + n

Analyzing Quicksort

- What will be the worst case for the algorithm?
 - Partition is always unbalanced
- What will be the best case for the algorithm?
 - Partition is perfectly balanced
- Which is more likely?
 - ▶ The latter, except...
- Will any particular input elicit the worst case?
 - Yes: Already-sorted input

Analyzing Quicksort: Worst Case Partitioning

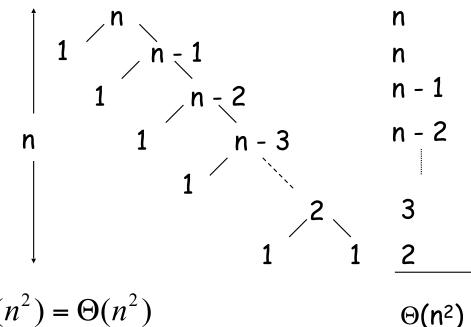
Worst-case partitioning

- ▶ One region has one element and the other has n 1 elements
- Maximally unbalanced
- Recurrence: q=1

$$T(n) = T(1) + T(n - 1) + n,$$

▶
$$T(1) = \Theta(1)$$

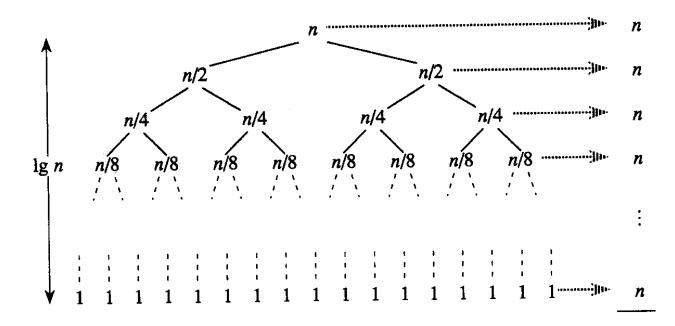
T(n) =
$$n + \left(\sum_{k=1}^{n} k\right) - 1 = \Theta(n) + \Theta(n^2) = \Theta(n^2)$$



When does the worst case happen?

Analyzing Quicksort: Best Case Partitioning

- Best-case partitioning
 - Partitioning produces two regions of size n/2
- Recurrence: q=n/2
 - $T(n) = 2T(n/2) + \Theta(n)$
 - $ightharpoonup T(n) = \Theta(n \lg n)$ (Master theorem)

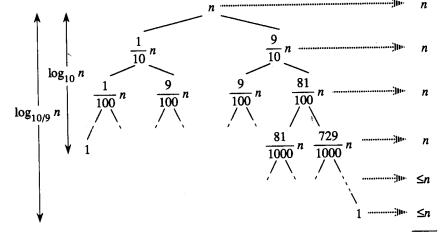


64

Case Between Worst and Best

An intuitive explanation/example:

- Suppose that partition() always produces a 9-to-1 split. This looks quite unbalanced!
- The recurrence is thus:
 - T(n) = T(9n/10) + T(n/10) + n
 - How deep will the recursion go?
- Using the recursion tree:



 $\Theta(n \lg n)$

longest path:
$$Q(n) \le n \sum_{i=0}^{\log_{10/9} n} 1 = n(\log_{10/9} n + 1) = c_2 n \lg n$$

shortest path:
$$Q(n) \ge n \sum_{i=0}^{\log_{10} n} 1 = n \log_{10} n = c_1 n lgn$$

Thus,
$$Q(n) = \Theta(nlgn)$$

How does partition affect performance?

- Any splitting of constant proportionality yields $\Theta(nlgn)$ time !!!
- Consider the (1: n-1) splitting:

ratio=1/(n-1) not a constant !!!

- Consider the (n/2 : n/2) splitting:

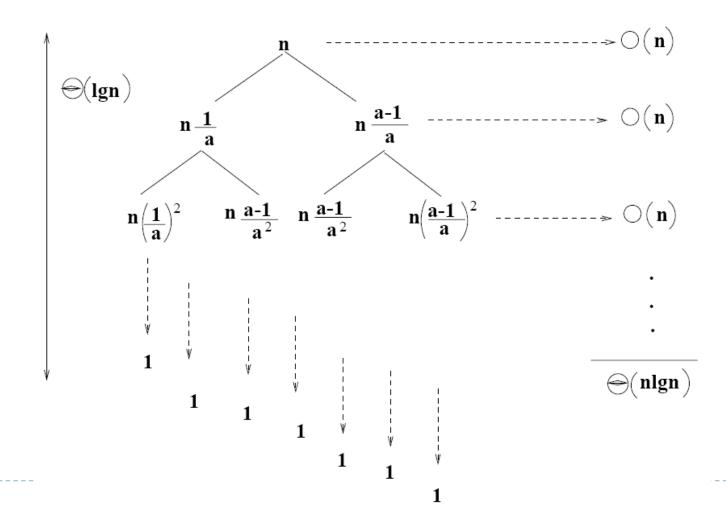
ratio=(n/2)/(n/2) = 1 it is a constant !!

- Consider the (9n/10 : n/10) splitting:

ratio=(9n/10)/(n/10) = 9 it is a constant !!

How does partition affect performance?

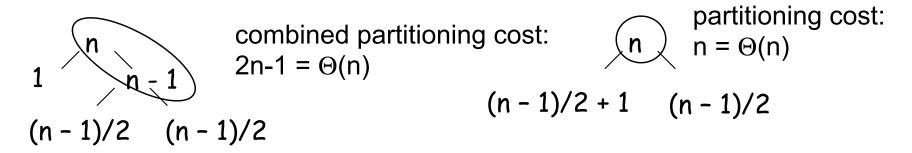
- Any ((a-1)n/a : n/a) splitting: ratio=((a-1)n/a)/(n/a) = a-1 it is a constant !!



Analyzing Quicksort: Average Case Partitioning

Average case

- All permutations of the input numbers are equally likely
- On a random input array, we will have a mix of well balanced and unbalanced splits
- Good and bad splits are randomly distributed across throughout the tree



Alternate of a good and a bad split

Nearly well balanced split

Running time of Quicksort when levels alternate between good and bad splits is O(nlgn)

Randomizing Quicksort

- Randomly permute the elements of the input array before sorting
- OR ... modify the PARTITION procedure
 - At each step of the algorithm we exchange element A[p] with an element chosen at random from A[p...r]
 - The pivot element x = A[p] is equally likely to be any one of the r − p + 1 elements of the subarray

Randomizing PARTITION

Alg.: RANDOMIZED-PARTITION(A, p, r)

 $i \leftarrow RANDOM(p, r)$

exchange A[p] ↔ A[i]

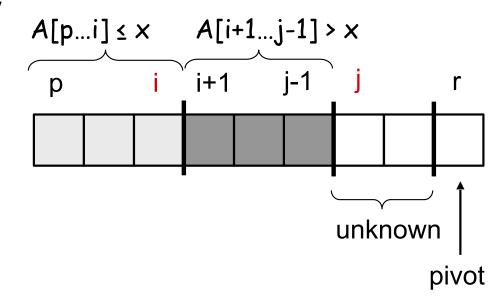
return PARTITION(A, p, r)

Randomizing Quicksort

```
Alg.:RANDOMIZED-QUICKSORT(A, p, r)
      if p < r
      then q ← RANDOMIZED-PARTITION(A, p, r)
            RANDOMIZED-QUICKSORT(A, p, q)
            RANDOMIZED-QUICKSORT(A, q + 1, r)
```

Another Partitioning: Lomuto's Partition

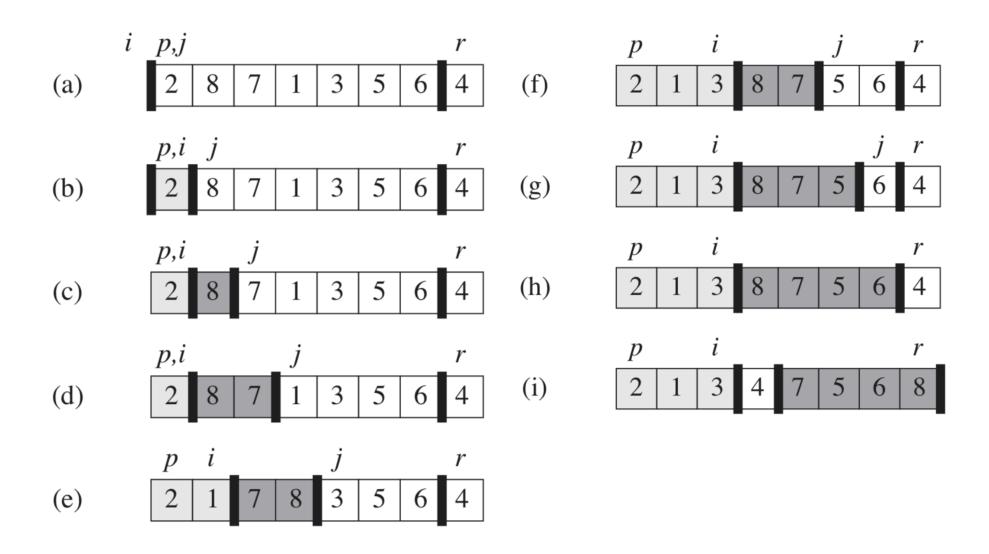
- Given an array A, partition the array into the following subarrays:
 - A pivot element x = A[q]
 - Subarray A[p..q-1] such that each element of A[p..q-1] is smaller than or equal to x (the pivot)
 - Subarray A[q+1..r], such that each element of A[p..q+1] is <u>strictly</u> greater than x (the pivot)
- The pivot element is not included in any of the two subarrays



Partition Code

```
PARTITION (A, p, r)
1 \quad x = A[r]
2 i = p - 1
3 for j = p to r - 1
       if A[j] \leq x
            i = i + 1
            exchange A[i] with A[j]
   exchange A[i + 1] with A[r]
   return i+1
```

Example



Randomizing Quicksort using Lomuto's partition

```
Alg.:RANDOMIZED-QUICKSORT(A, p, r)
      if p < r
      then q ← RANDOMIZED-PARTITION(A, p, r)
             RANDOMIZED-QUICKSORT(A, p, q - 1)
             RANDOMIZED-QUICKSORT(A, q + 1, r)
```

The pivot is no longer included in any of the subarrays!!

Analysis of Randomized Quicksort

```
Alg.:RANDOMIZED-QUICKSORT(A, p, r)
      if p < r
      then q \leftarrow RANDOMIZED-PARTITION(A, p, r)
             RANDOMIZED-QUICKSORT(A, p, q - 1)
             RANDOMIZED-QUICKSORT(A, q + 1, r)
```

PARTITION is called at most n times

(at each call a pivot is selected and never again included in future calls)

What's next...

- Analyze Quicksort
- Sorting Lower Bound
- Order Statistics & Selection