EL9343

Data Structure and Algorithm

Lecture 5: Randomized Quick Sort, Sorting Lower Bound, Order Statistics & Selection

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Last Lecture

Heapsort & Priority Queue

MAX-HEAPIFY
O(Ign)

► BUILD-MAX-HEAP O(n)

HEAP-SORT O(nlgn)

MAX-HEAP-INSERT O(Ign)

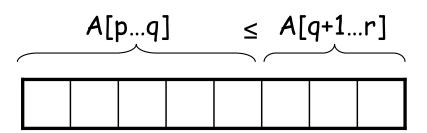
HEAP-EXTRACT-MAX
O(Ign)

HEAP-INCREASE-KEY
O(Ign)

► HEAP-MAXIMUM O(1)

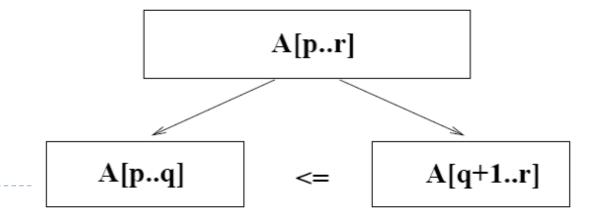
Last Lecture

Quicksort

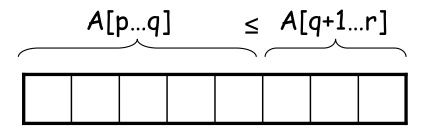


Divide

- 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: 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

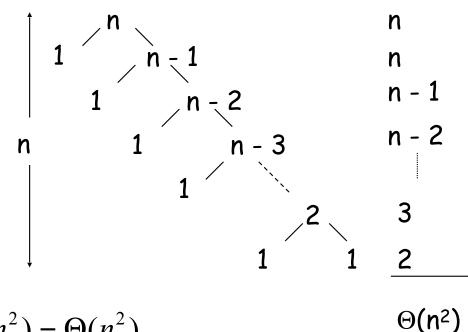
Analyzing Quicksort: Worst Case Partitioning

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

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

$$T(1) = \Theta(1)$$

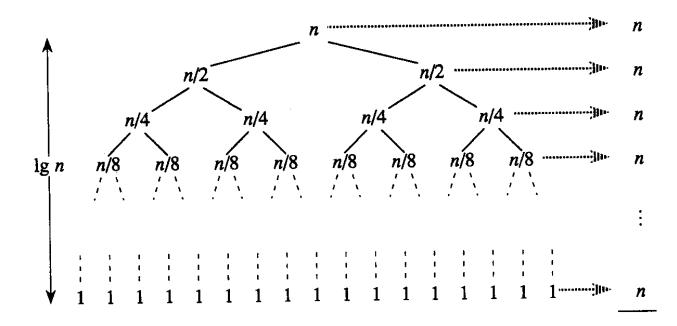
T(n) = T(n - 1) + n
=
$$n + \left(\sum_{k=1}^{n} k\right) - 1 = \Theta(n) + \Theta(n^2) = \Theta(n^2)$$



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
 - ► $T(n) = 2T(n/2) + \Theta(n)$
 - $ightharpoonup T(n) = \Theta(nlgn)$ (Master theorem)



Randomized Algorithm

- No input can elicit worst case behavior
 - Worst case occurs only if we get "unlucky" numbers from the random number generator
- Worst case becomes less likely
 - Randomization can <u>NOT</u> eliminate the worst-case but it can make it less likely!

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)

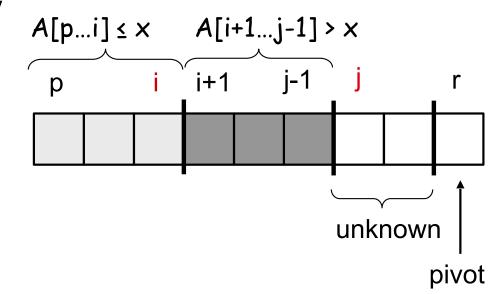
 $i \leftarrow RANDOM(p, r)$

exchange A[p] ↔ A[i]

return PARTITION(A, p, r)

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 <u>not included</u> in any of the two subarrays



Randomizing Quicksort using Lomuto's partition

```
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)
```

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)

Partition

```
Alg.: PARTITION(A, p, r)
    x \leftarrow A[r]
    i ← p - 1
    for j ← p to r - 1
           do if A[j] \leq X
                                                             # of comparisons: X<sub>k</sub>
                                                             between the pivot and
                   then i ← i + 1
                                                             the other elements
                          exchange A[i] ↔ A[j]
    exchange A[i + 1] \leftrightarrow A[r]
    return i + 1
```

Amount of work at call k: $c + X_k$

Average-Case Analysis of Quicksort

Let X = total number of comparisons performed in <u>all calls</u> to PARTITION:

The total work done over the entire execution of Quicksort is

$$O(nc+X)=O(n+X)$$

Need to estimate E(X): the average number of comparisons in all calls with random partition at each call.

Review of Probabilities

Definitions

- random experiment: an experiment whose result is not certain in advance (e.g., throwing a die)
- outcome: the result of a random experiment
- sample space: the set of all possible outcomes (e.g., {1,2,3,4,5,6})
- event: a subset of the sample space (e.g., obtain an odd number in the experiment of throwing a die = $\{1,3,5\}$)

Review of Probabilities

Probability of an event

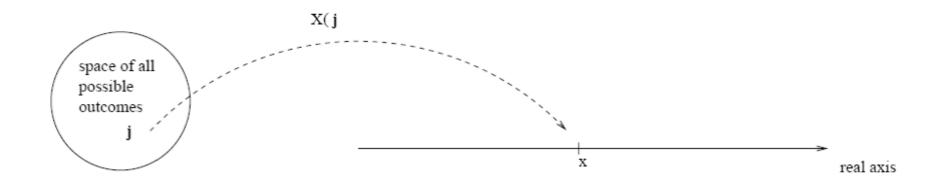
- The likelihood that an event will occur if the underlying random experiment is performed

$$P(event) = \frac{number\ of\ favorable\ outcomes}{total\ number\ of\ possible\ outcomes}$$

Example: $P(obtain\ an\ odd\ number) = 3/6 = 1/2$

Random Variables

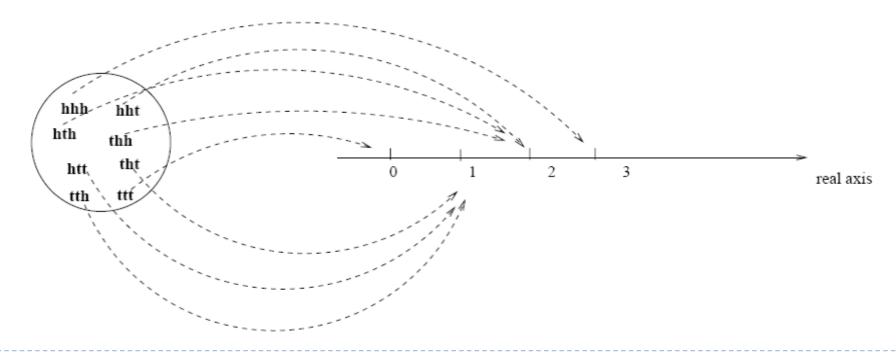
- Def.: (Discrete) random variable X: a function from a sample space S to the real numbers.
 - It associates a real number with each possible outcome of an experiment.



Random Variables

E.g.: Toss a coin three times

define X = "numbers of heads"



Computing Probabilities Using Random Variables

- Example: consider the experiment of throwing a pair of dice

Define the r.v. X="sum of dice"

$$X = x$$
 corresponds to the event $A_x = \{s \in S/X(s) = x\}$

(e.g.,
$$X = 5$$
 corresponds to $A_5 = \{(1,4),(4,1),(2,3),(3,2)\}$

$$P(X = x) = P(A_x) = \sum_{s:X(s)=x} P(s)$$

$$(P(X=5) = P((1,4)) + P((4,1)) + P((2,3)) + P((2,3)) = 4/36 = 1/9)$$

Expectation

Expected value (expectation, mean) of a discrete random variable X is:

$$E[X] = \Sigma_x \times Pr\{X = x\}$$

"Average" over all possible values of random variable X

Examples

Example: X = face of one fair dice

$$E[X] = 1 \cdot 1/6 + 2 \cdot 1/6 + 3 \cdot 1/6 + 4 \cdot 1/6 + 5 \cdot 1/6 + 6 \cdot 1/6$$

= 3.5

Example: : X="sum of dice"

Events												
Sum	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
Probability	0/36	1/36	2/36	3/36	4/36	5/35	6/36	5/36	4/360	3/36	2/36	1/36

$$E(X) = 1P(X = 1) + 2P(X = 2) + ... + 12P(X = 12) = (0 + 2 + ... + 12)/36 = 7$$

Indicator Random Variables

Given a sample space S and an event A, we define the indicator random variable I(A) associated with A:

$$I\{A\} = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if A occurs} \\ 0 & \text{if A does not occur} \end{cases}$$

- The expected value of an indicator random variable $X_A = I\{A\}$:
 - $E[X_A] = Pr \{A\}$
- Proof: $E[X_A] = E[I\{A\}] = 1 * Pr\{A\} + 0 * Pr\{\bar{A}\} = Pr\{A\}$

Average-Case Analysis of Quicksort

Let X = total number of comparisons performed in all calls to PARTITION:

The total work done over the entire execution of Quicksort is O(n+X)

Need to estimate E(X): the average number of comparisons in all calls with random partition at each call.

Comparisons in PARTITION: Observation 1

- Each pair of elements is compared at most once during the entire execution of the algorithm
 - Elements are compared only to the pivot point
 - Pivot point is excluded from future calls to PARTITION

Notation

$$\begin{bmatrix} z_2 & z_9 & z_8 & z_3 & z_5 & z_4 & z_1 & z_6 & z_{10} & z_7 \\ 2 & 9 & 8 & 3 & 5 & 4 & 1 & 6 & 7 \end{bmatrix}$$

- Problem Rename the elements of A as z_1, z_2, \ldots, z_n , with z_i being the <u>i-th smallest</u> element
- ▶ Define the set $Z_{ij} = \{z_i, z_{i+1}, ..., z_j\}$ the set of elements between z_i and z_j , inclusive

Total Number of Comparisons in PARTITION

- ▶ Define $X_{ij} = I\{z_i \text{ is compared to } z_j\}$
- Total number of comparisons X performed by the algorithm:

$$X = \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} \sum_{j=i+1}^{n} X_{ij}$$

$$\downarrow i \longrightarrow n-1$$

$$\downarrow i+1 \longrightarrow n$$

Expected Number of Total Comparisons in PARTITION

Compute the expected value of X:

$$E[X] = E\left[\sum_{i=1}^{n-1} \sum_{j=i+1}^{n} X_{ij}\right] = \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} \sum_{j=i+1}^{n} E[X_{ij}] =$$
by linearity of expectation

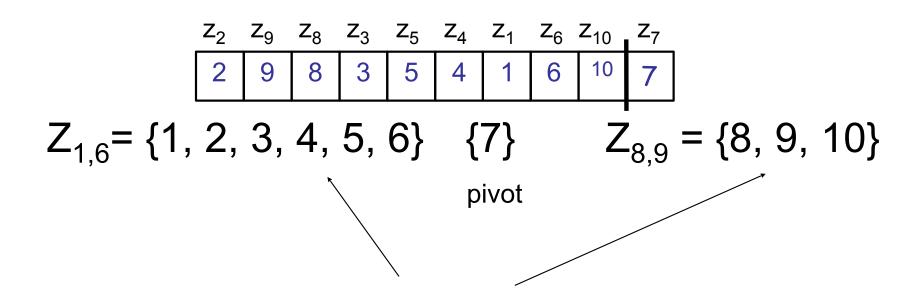
indicator random variable

$$= \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} \sum_{j=i+1}^{n} \Pr\{z_i \text{ is compared to } z_j\}$$

the expectation of X_{ij} is equal to the probability of the event " z_i is compared to z_j "

Comparisons in PARTITION: Observation 2

Only the pivot is compared with elements in both partitions!



Elements between different partitions are <u>never</u> compared!

Comparisons in PARTITION

$$Z_{2} \quad Z_{9} \quad Z_{8} \quad Z_{3} \quad Z_{5} \quad Z_{4} \quad Z_{1} \quad Z_{6} \quad Z_{10} \quad Z_{7}$$

$$\boxed{2} \quad 9 \quad 8 \quad 3 \quad 5 \quad 4 \quad 1 \quad 6 \quad 10 \quad 7$$

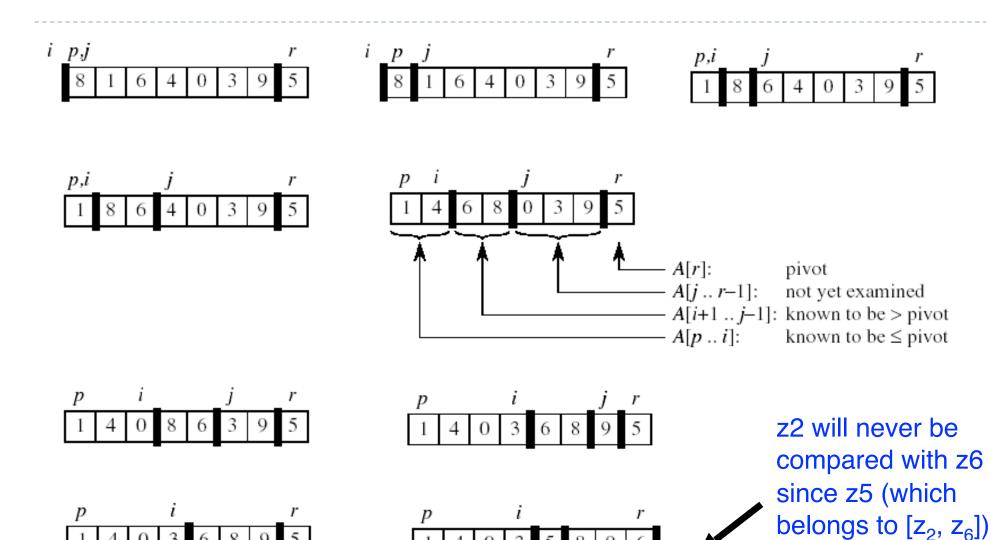
$$Z_{1.6} = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6\} \quad \{7\} \qquad Z_{8.9} = \{8, 9, 10\}$$

$$\Pr\{z_i \text{ is compared to } z_i\}$$
?

- Case 1: pivot x chosen such as: z_i < x < z_j
 - z_i and z_i will never be compared
- Case 2: z_i or z_i is the pivot
 - z_i and z_i will be compared
 - only if one of them is chosen as pivot before any other element in range z_i to z_i

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Let's See Why



 $Z_2 Z_4 Z_1 Z_3 Z_5 Z_7 Z_9 Z_6$

was chosen as a

pivot first!

Probability of comparing z_i with z_i

Pr{ z_i is compared to z_i }

- = $Pr\{z_i \text{ is the first pivot chosen from } Z_{ij}\}$ +
 - $Pr\{z_j \text{ is the first pivot chosen from } Z_{ij}\}$

$$= 1/(j-i+1) + 1/(j-i+1) = 2/(j-i+1)$$

- ▶ There are j i + 1 elements between z_i and z_j
 - Pivot is chosen randomly and independently
 - ▶ The probability that any particular element is the first one chosen is 1/(j - i + 1)

Number of Comparisons in PARTITION

Expected number of comparisons in PARTITION:

$$E[X] = \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} \sum_{j=i+1}^{n} \Pr\{z_i \text{ is compared to } z_j\}$$

$$E[X] = \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} \sum_{j=i+1}^{n} \frac{2}{j-i+1} = \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} \sum_{k=1}^{n-i} \frac{2}{k+1} < \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} \sum_{k=1}^{n} \frac{2}{k} = \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} O(\lg n)$$

(set k=j-i)

(harmonic series)

$$= O(n \lg n)$$

⇒ Expected running time of Quicksort using RANDOMIZED-

PARTITION is O(nlgn)

Sorting So Far ...

Insertion sort:

- Easy to code
- Fast on small inputs (less than ~50 elements)
- Fast on nearly-sorted inputs
- O(n²) worst case
- O(n²) average (equally-likely inputs) case
- O(n²) reverse-sorted case

Sorting So Far ...

- Merge sort:
 - Divide-and-conquer appoarch
 - Split array in half
 - Recursively sort subarrays
 - Linear-time merge step
 - O(nlgn) worst case
 - Doesn't sort in place

Sorting So Far ...

- Heap sort:
 - Uses the very useful heap data structure
 - Complete binary tree
 - Heap property: parent key > children's keys
 - O(nlgn) worst case
 - Sorts in place
 - Not stable

Sorting So Far ...

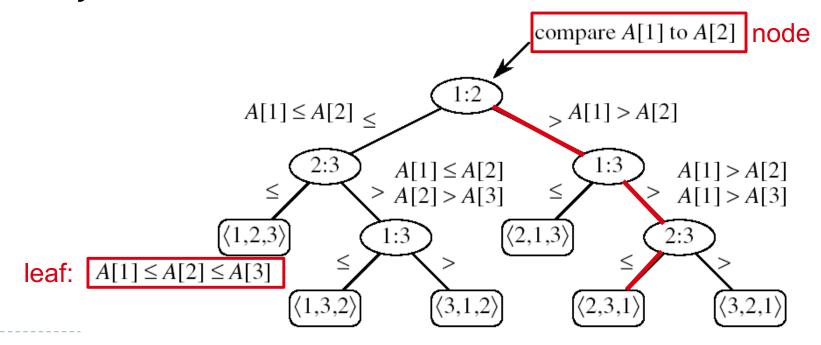
- Quick sort:
 - Divide-and-conquer:
 - Partition array into two subarrays, recursively sort
 - No merge step needed!
 - O(nlgn) average case
 - Fast in practice
 - O(n²) worst case
 - Naïve implementation: worst case on sorted input
 - Address this with randomized quicksort

How Fast Can We Sort?

- We will provide a lower bound, then beat it
 - How do you suppose we'll beat it?
- First, an observation: all of the sorting algorithms so far are comparison sorts
 - The only operation used to gain ordering information about a sequence is the pairwise comparison of two elements
 - Theorem: all comparison sorts are Ω (n lg n)

Decision Trees

- Decision trees provide an abstraction of comparison sorts
 - A decision tree represents the comparisons made by a comparison sort. Every thing else ignored
- What do the leaves represent?
- How many leaves must there be?

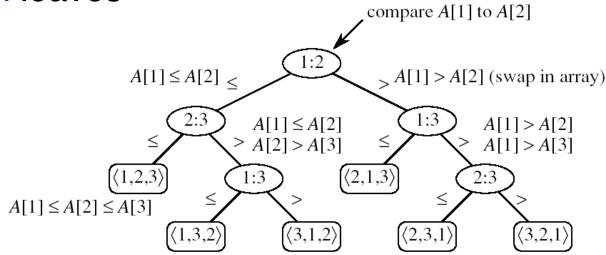


Decision Trees

- Decision trees can model comparison sorts. For a given algorithm:
 - One tree for each n
 - Tree paths are all possible execution traces
 - Worst-case number of comparisons depends on the length of the longest path from the root to a leaf (i.e., the height of the decision tree)
- What is the asymptotic height of any decision tree for sorting n elements?
 - Answer: $\Omega(n \lg n)$ (now let's prove it...)

The minimum # of leaves of a decision tree

- All permutations on n elements must appear as one of the leaves in the decision tree: n! permutations
- At least n! leaves



Any binary tree of height h has at most 2h leaves

Lower Bound For Comparison Sorting

- *Theorem:* Any decision tree that sorts *n* elements has height $\Omega(n \lg n)$
 - So we have: $n! \leq 2^h$
 - Taking logarithms: $\lg (n!) \le h$
 - Stirling's approximation tells us: $n! > \left(\frac{n}{e}\right)^n$ Thus: $h \ge \lg\left(\frac{n}{e}\right)$

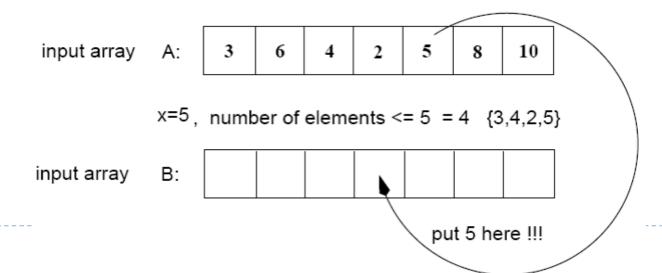
$$= n \lg n - n \lg e$$

$$= \Omega(n \lg n)$$

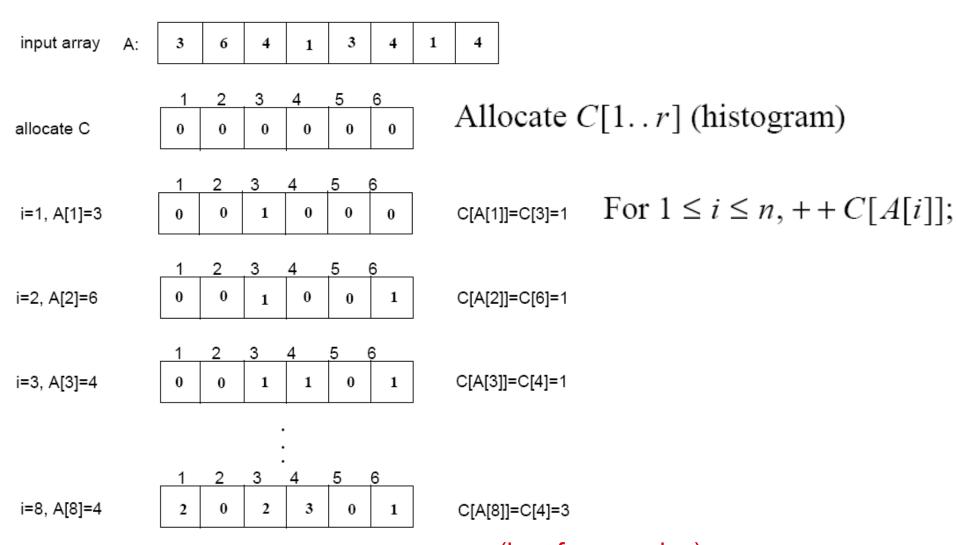
Sorting In Linear Time

Counting sort - no comparisons between elements!

- Assumptions
 - Sort n integers which are in the range [0 ... r]
 - ightharpoonup r is in the order of n, that is, r=O(n)
- Idea
 - For each element x, find the number of elements <=x</p>
 - Place x into its correct position in the output array



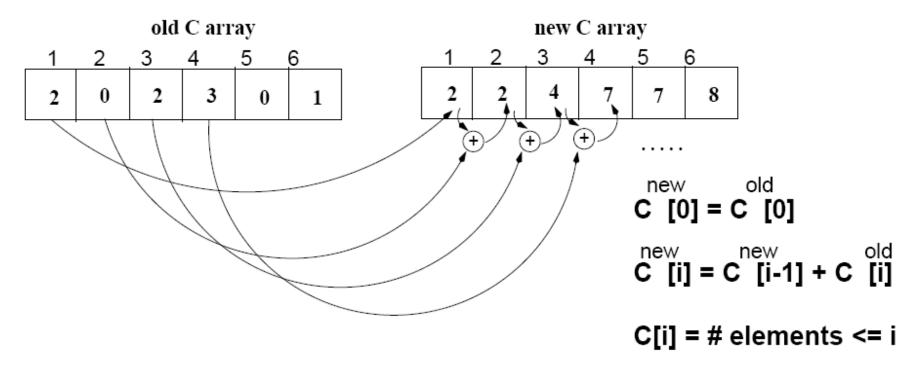
Step1: find the no. of times integer A[i] appears in A



C[i] = number of times element i appears in A (i.e., frequencies)

Step 2: find the no. of elements ≤ A[i]

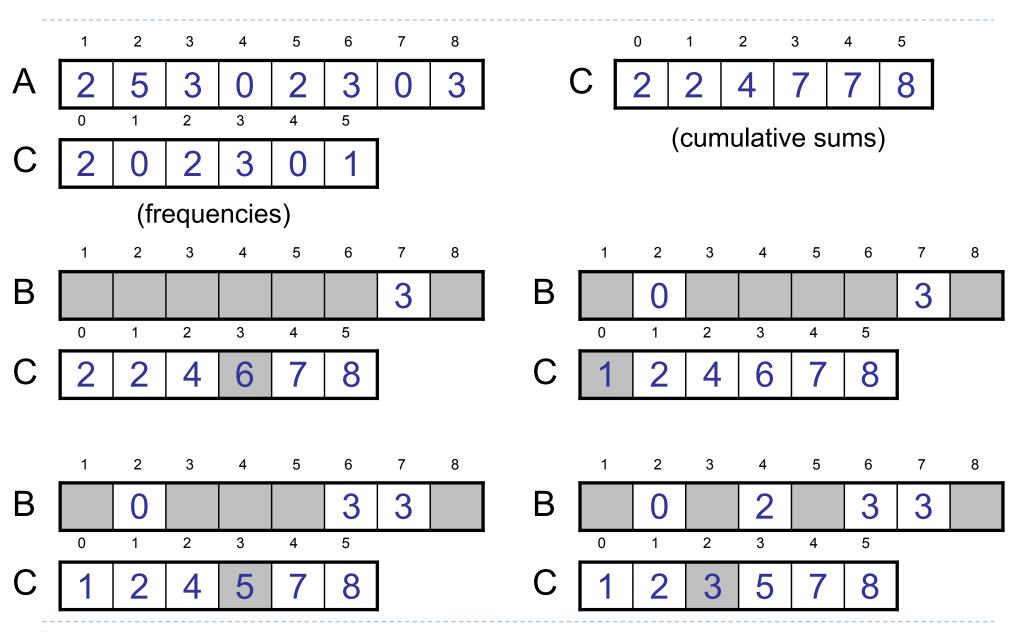
(i.e., cumulative sums)



Analysis of Counting Sort

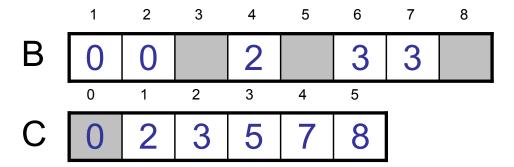
```
Alg.: COUNTING-SORT(A, B, n, r)
1. for i \leftarrow 0 to r
2. do C[i] ← 0
3. for j ← 1 to n
4.
        do C[A[i]] \leftarrow C[A[i]] + 1
        C[i] contains the number of elements equal to i
5. for i \leftarrow 1 to r
       do C[i] \leftarrow C[i] + C[i-1]
6.
        C[i] contains the number of elements ≤ i
7. for j ← n downto 1
8.
       do B[C[A[ i ]]] ← A[ i ]
           C[A[i]] \leftarrow C[A[i]] - 1
9.
```

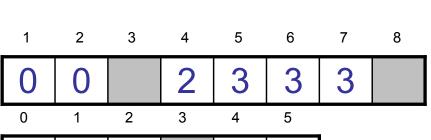
Example

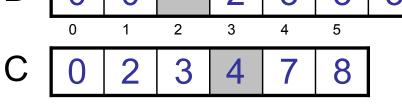


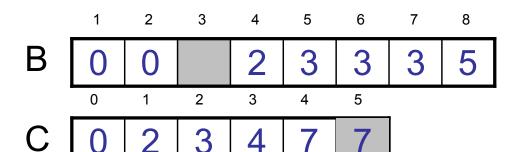
Example

A 2 5 3 0 2 3 0 3











Analysis of Counting Sort

```
Alg.: COUNTING-SORT(A, B, n, r)
1. for i \leftarrow 0 to r
  do C[i] ← 0
3. for j ← 1 to n
        do C[A[i]] ← C[A[i]] + 1
        C[i] contains the number of elements equal to i
5. for i \leftarrow 1 to r
       do C[i] \leftarrow C[i] + C[i-1]
        C[i] contains the number of elements ≤ i
7. for j ← n downto 1
       do B[C[A[ | ]]] ← A[ | ]
8.
           C[A[i]] \leftarrow C[A[i]] - 1
9.
```

Counting Sort

- Overall time: Θ(n + r)
- In practice we use COUNTING sort when r = O(n)
 - \Rightarrow running time is $\Theta(n)$
- Counting sort is stable
- Counting sort is not in place sort

Radix Sort

- Represents keys as d-digit numbers in some base-k
 - e.g., key = $x_1x_2...x_d$ where $0 \le x_i \le k-1$

- Example: key=15
 - ▶ $\text{key}_{10} = 15, d=2, k=10$ where $0 \le x_i \le 9$
 - ► $key_2 = 1111$, d=4, k=2 where $0 \le x_i \le 1$

Radix Sort

Assumptions

► $d=\Theta(1)$ and $k=O(n)$	326
Sorting looks at one column at a time	453
For a d digit number, sort the least significant	608
digit first, using a stable sort algorithm	835
Continue sorting on the <u>next least significant</u>	751
digit, (stable sort) until all digits have been	435
sorted	704
Requires only d passes through the list	690
Running time: O(d(n+k))	-

Order Statistics

- The i-th order statistic in a set of n elements is the i-th smallest element
- The minimum is thus the 1st order statistic
- ▶ The *maximum* is the *n*-th order statistic
- ▶ The *median* is the *n*/2-th order statistic
 - ▶ If *n* is even, there are 2 medians
- How can we calculate order statistics?
- What is the running time?

Order Statistics

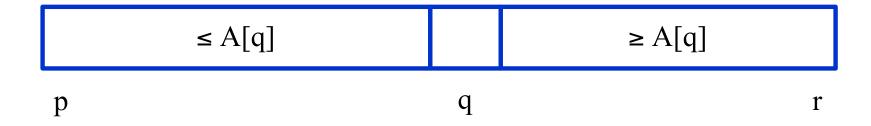
- How many comparisons are needed to find the minimum element in a set? The maximum?
- Can we find the minimum and maximum with less than twice the cost?
- Yes
 - Walk through elements by pairs
 - Compare each element in pair to the other
 - Compare the largest to maximum, smallest to minimum
 - Total cost: 3 comparisons per 2 elements = O(3n/2)

Finding Order Statistics: The Selection Problem

- A more interesting problem is selection: finding the i-th smallest element of a set
- We will show:
 - A practical randomized algorithm with O(n) expected running time
 - A cool algorithm of theoretical interest only with O(n) worst-case running time

Randomized Selection

- Key idea: use partition() from quicksort
 - But, only need to examine one subarray
 - This savings shows up in running time: O(n)
 - q = RandomizedPartition(A, p, r)



Randomized Selection

```
RandomizedSelect(A, p, r, i)

if (p == r) then return A[p];

q = RandomizedPartition(A, p, r)

k = q - p + 1;

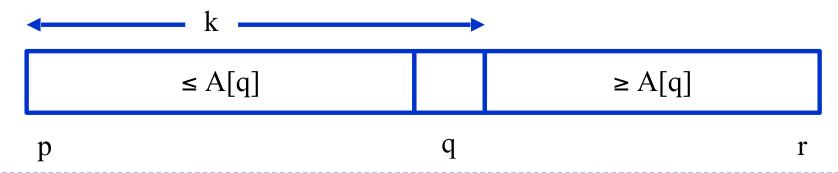
if (i == k) then return A[q]; // the pivot value is the answer

if (i < k) then

return RandomizedSelect(A, p, q-1, i);

else

return RandomizedSelect(A, q+1, r, i-k);
```



Worst case: partition always 0:n-1

```
T(n) = T(n-1) + O(n) = ???
= O(n<sup>2</sup>) (arithmetic series)
```

- No better than sorting!
- "Best" case: suppose a 9:1 partition

```
T(n) = T(9n/10) + O(n) = ???
= O(n) (Master Theorem, case 3)
```

Better than sorting!

Average case

For upper bound, assume i-th element always falls in larger side of partition:

$$T(n) \leq \frac{1}{n} \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} T(\max(k, n-k-1)) + \Theta(n)$$

$$\leq \frac{2}{n} \sum_{k=n/2}^{n-1} T(k) + \Theta(n)$$

Let's show that T(n) = O(n) by substitution

Assume $T(n) \le cn$ for sufficiently large c:

$$T(n) \leq \frac{2}{n} \sum_{k=n/2}^{n-1} T(k) + \Theta(n)$$

$$\leq \frac{2}{n} \sum_{k=n/2}^{n-1} ck + \Theta(n)$$

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

$$= \frac{2c}{n} \left(\frac{1}{2} (n-1)n - \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{n}{2} - 1 \right) \frac{n}{2} \right) + \Theta(n)$$

$$= c(n-1) - \frac{c}{2} \left(\frac{n}{2} - 1 \right) + \Theta(n)$$

Assume $T(n) \le cn$ for sufficiently large c:

$$T(n) \leq c(n-1) - \frac{c}{2} \left(\frac{n}{2} - 1\right) + \Theta(n)$$

$$= cn - c - \frac{cn}{4} + \frac{c}{2} + \Theta(n)$$

$$= cn - \frac{cn}{4} - \frac{c}{2} + \Theta(n)$$

$$= cn - \left(\frac{cn}{4} + \frac{c}{2} - \Theta(n)\right)$$

$$\leq cn \text{ (if c is big enough)}$$

Worst-Case Linear-Time Selection

- Randomized algorithm works well in practice
- What follows is a worst-case linear time algorithm, really of theoretical interest only
- Basic idea: generate a good partitioning element
 - step1: divide n elements into n/5 groups
 - step2: find median of each group of 5 elements, using insertion-sorting
 - step3: recursively SELECT to find the median x of n/5 medians found in step 2
 - step 4: use x found in step 3 to partition the array, let k be one plus the number of elements in the low side of partition
 - step 5: if i=k, return x; else recursively SELECT i-th element in low side, if i<k; or SELECT (i-k)-th element in high side, if i>k.

What's next...

Hash Tables (Chapter 11)

Binary Search Trees (Chapter 12)