

# Announcements

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## Seminar announcement

In-class midterm on Thursday. Closed book. No devices. No notes. I'll provide scratch paper. **Be sure to bring a pen or pencil.**

The midterm will take place in 3 different rooms across campus. Your room depends on your last name:

- Last names starting with A-F go to **Stiteler Hall room B26**
- Last names starting with G-L go to **Claire Fagin Hall, room 118**
- Last names starting with M-Z go to **Towne 100 (here)**

The TAs will lead a midterm review session tonight at 8pm in Wu and Chen.



<http://algs4.cs.princeton.edu>

## 2.3 QUICKSORT

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- ▶ *quicksort*
- ▶ *selection*
- ▶ *duplicate keys*
- ▶ *system sorts*

# Selection

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**Goal.** Given an array of  $N$  items, find the  $k^{th}$  smallest item.

**Ex.** Min ( $k = 0$ ), max ( $k = N - 1$ ), median ( $k = N / 2$ ).

## Applications.

- Order statistics.
- Find the "top  $k$ ."

## Use theory as a guide.

- Easy  $N \log N$  upper bound. How?
- Easy  $N$  upper bound for  $k = 1, 2, 3$ . How?
- Easy  $N$  lower bound. Why?

## Which is true?

- $N \log N$  lower bound?  is selection as hard as sorting?
- $N$  upper bound?  is there a linear-time algorithm?

# Quick-select

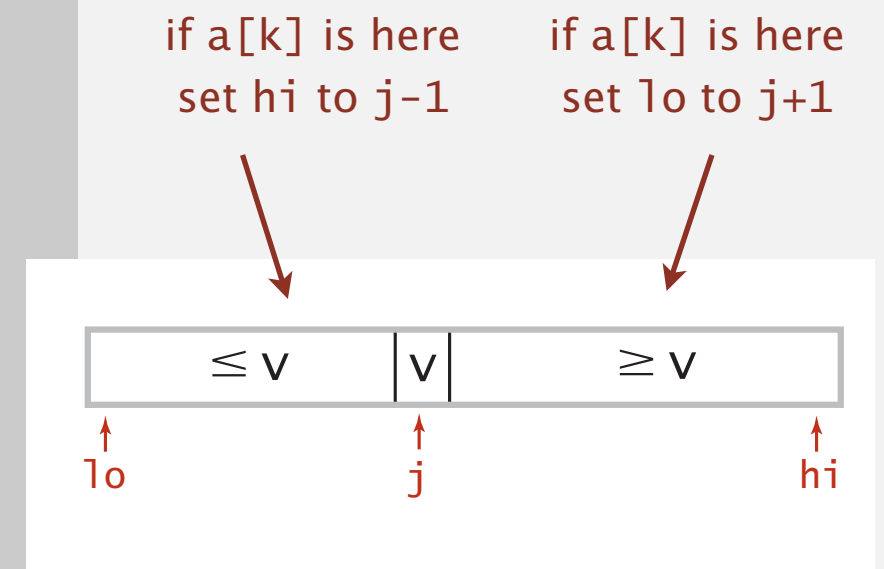
Partition array so that:

- Entry  $a[j]$  is in place.
- No larger entry to the left of  $j$ .
- No smaller entry to the right of  $j$ .



Repeat in **one** subarray, depending on  $j$ ; finished when  $j$  equals  $k$ .

```
public static Comparable select(Comparable[] a, int k)
{
    StdRandom.shuffle(a);
    int lo = 0, hi = a.length - 1;
    while (hi > lo)
    {
        int j = partition(a, lo, hi);
        if (j < k) lo = j + 1;
        else if (j > k) hi = j - 1;
        else
            return a[k];
    }
    return a[k];
}
```



# Quick-select demo

---

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**select element of rank  $k = 5$**

0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
50	21	28	65	39	59	56	22	95	12	90	53	32	77	33

**$k = 5$**

# Quick-select demo

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partition on leftmost entry

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**partitioned array**

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can safely ignore right subarray

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**stop: partitioning item is at index  $k$**

0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
12	21	22	32	28	33	39	50	95	56	90	53	59	77	65

$k = 5$

# Quick-select: mathematical analysis

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**Proposition.** Quick-select takes **linear** time on average.

**Pf sketch.**

- Intuitively, each partitioning step splits array approximately in half:  
 $N + N/2 + N/4 + \dots + 1 \sim 2N$  compares.

- Formal analysis similar to quicksort analysis yields:

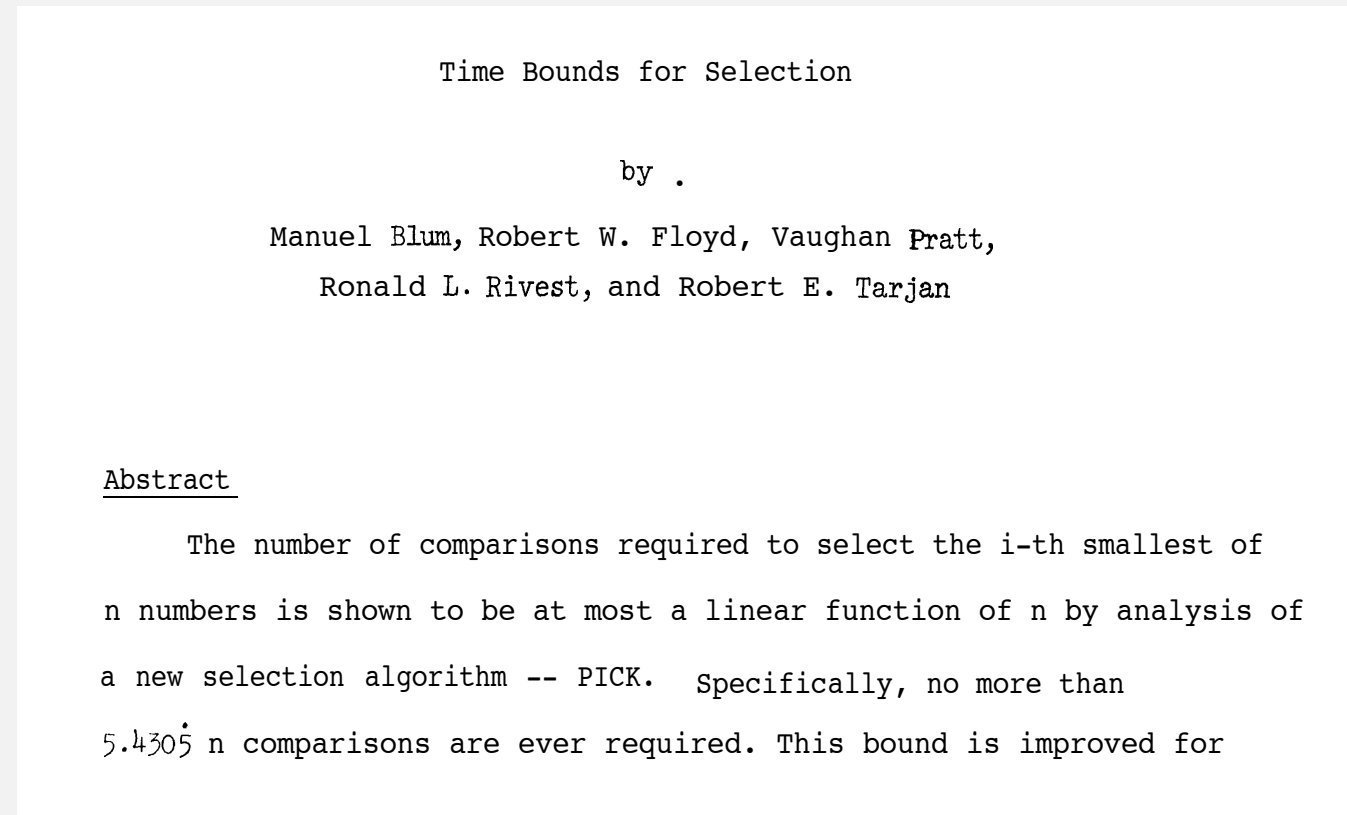
$$\begin{aligned} C_N &= 2N + 2k \ln(N/k) + 2(N-k) \ln(N/(N-k)) \\ &\leq (2 + 2 \ln 2) N \end{aligned}$$

- Ex:  $(2 + 2 \ln 2) N \approx 3.38 N$  compares to find median ( $k = N/2$ ).

# Theoretical context for selection

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**Proposition.** [Blum, Floyd, Pratt, Rivest, Tarjan, 1973] Compare-based selection algorithm whose worst-case running time is linear.



**Remark.** Constants are high  $\Rightarrow$  not used in practice.

**Use theory as a guide.**

- Still worthwhile to seek **practical** linear-time (worst-case) algorithm.
- Until one is discovered, use quick-select (if you don't need a full sort).





<http://algs4.cs.princeton.edu>

## 2.3 QUICKSORT

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- ▶ *quicksort*
- ▶ *selection*
- ▶ *duplicate keys*
- ▶ *system sorts*

# Duplicate keys

---

Often, purpose of sort is to bring items with equal keys together.

- Sort population by age.
- Remove duplicates from mailing list.
- Sort job applicants by college attended.

Typical characteristics of such applications.

- Huge array.
- Small number of key values.

```
Chicago 09:25:52
Chicago 09:03:13
Chicago 09:21:05
Chicago 09:19:46
Chicago 09:19:32
Chicago 09:00:00
Chicago 09:35:21
Chicago 09:00:59
Houston 09:01:10
Houston 09:00:13
Phoenix 09:37:44
Phoenix 09:00:03
Phoenix 09:14:25
Seattle 09:10:25
Seattle 09:36:14
Seattle 09:22:43
Seattle 09:10:11
Seattle 09:22:54
```

↑  
key

# War story (system sort in C)

---

## A beautiful bug report. [Allan Wilks and Rick Becker, 1991]

We found that qsort is unbearably slow on "organ-pipe" inputs like "01233210":

```
main (int argc, char**argv) {
    int n = atoi(argv[1]), i, x[100000];
    for (i = 0; i < n; i++)
        x[i] = i;
    for ( ; i < 2*n; i++)
        x[i] = 2*n-i-1;
    qsort(x, 2*n, sizeof(int), intcmp);
}
```

Here are the timings on our machine:

```
$ time a.out 2000
real    5.85s
$ time a.out 4000
real    21.64s
$ time a.out 8000
real    85.11s
```

# War story (system sort in C)

---

**Bug.** A `qsort()` call that should have taken seconds was taking minutes.



At the time, almost all `qsort()` implementations based on those in:

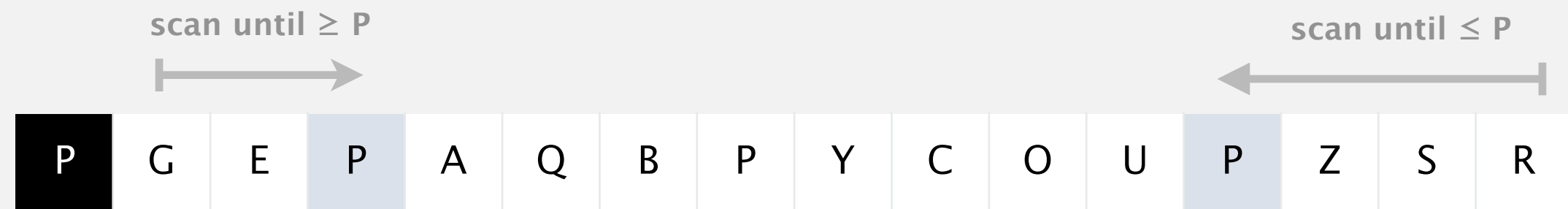
- Version 7 Unix (1979): quadratic time to sort organ-pipe arrays.
- BSD Unix (1983): quadratic time to sort random arrays of 0s and 1s.



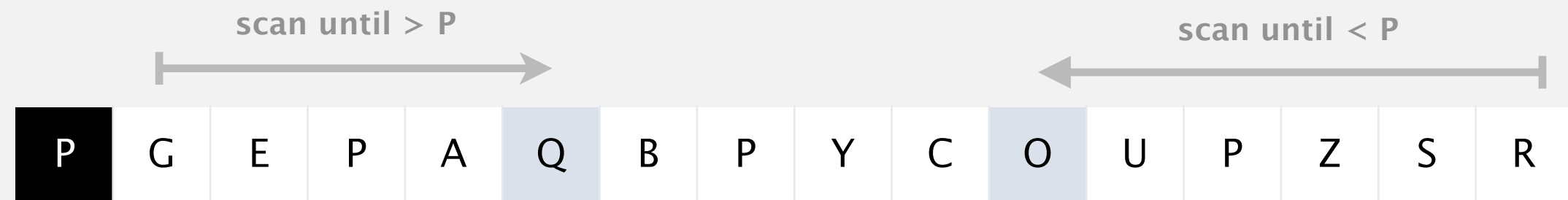
# Duplicate keys: stop on equal keys

---

Our partitioning subroutine stops both scans on equal keys.



Q. Why not continue scans on equal keys?



# Partitioning an array with all equal keys

		a[ ]															
i	j	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15
		A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A
1	15	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A
1	15	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A
2	14	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A
2	14	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A
3	13	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A
3	13	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A
4	12	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A
4	12	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A
5	11	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A
5	11	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A
6	10	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A
6	10	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A
7	9	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A
7	9	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A
	8	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A
	8	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A

# Duplicate keys: partitioning strategies

---

**Bad.** Don't stop scans on equal keys.

[  $\sim \frac{1}{2} N^2$  compares when all keys equal ]

B A A B A B B **B** C C C

**A** A A A A A A A A A A

**Good.** Stop scans on equal keys.

[  $\sim N \lg N$  compares when all keys equal ]

B A A B A **B** C C B C B

A A A A A **A** A A A A A

**Better.** Put all equal keys in place. How?

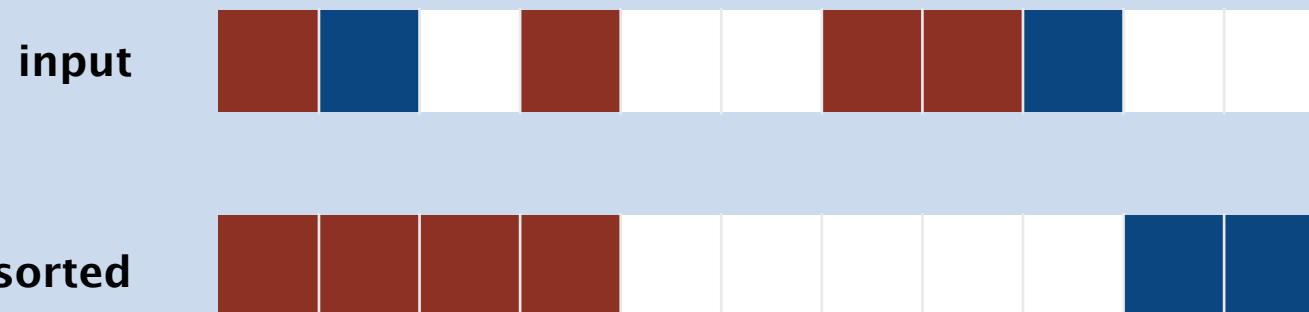
[  $\sim N$  compares when all keys equal ]

A A A **B B B B B** C C C

**A A A A A A A A A A A**

# DUTCH NATIONAL FLAG PROBLEM

**Problem.** [Edsger Dijkstra] Given an array of  $N$  buckets, each containing a red, white, or blue pebble, sort them by color.



## Operations allowed.

- $swap(i, j)$ : swap the pebble in bucket  $i$  with the pebble in bucket  $j$ .
- $color(i)$ : color of pebble in bucket  $i$ .

## Requirements.

- Exactly  $N$  calls to  $color()$ .
- At most  $N$  calls to  $swap()$ .
- Constant extra space.

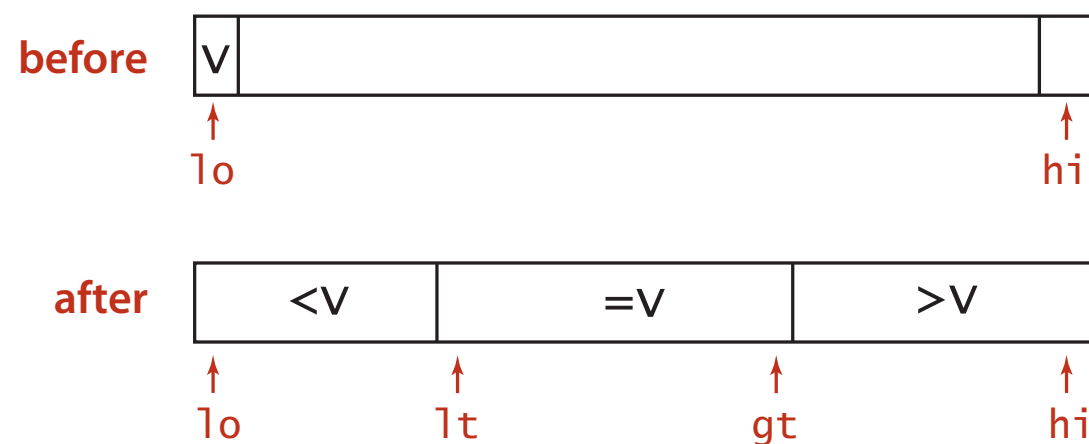


# 3-way partitioning

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**Goal.** Partition array into **three** parts so that:

- Entries between  $lt$  and  $gt$  equal to the partition item.
- No larger entries to left of  $lt$ .
- No smaller entries to right of  $gt$ .

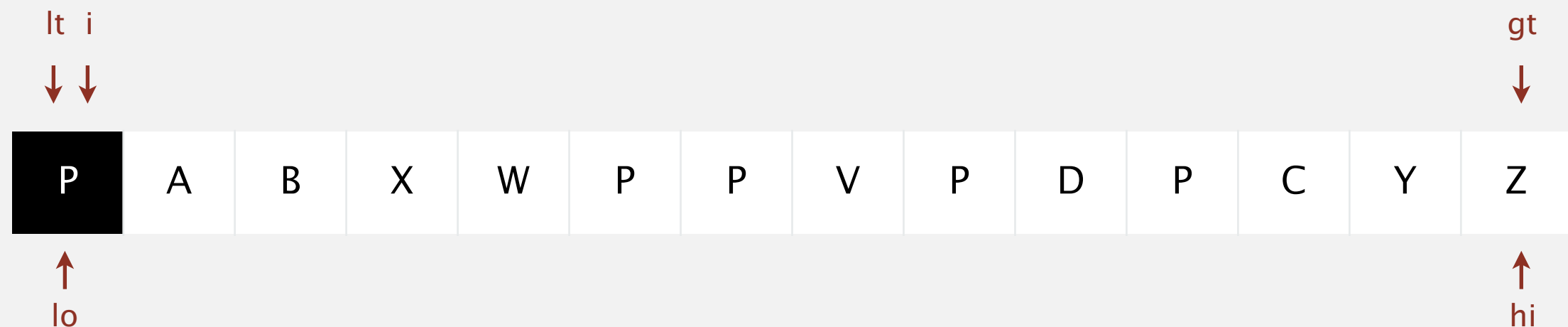


**Dutch national flag problem.** [Edsger Dijkstra]

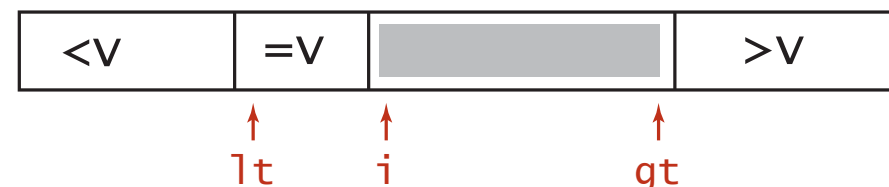
- Conventional wisdom until mid 1990s: not worth doing.
- Now incorporated into C library `qsort()` and Java 6 system sort.

# Dijkstra 3-way partitioning demo

- Let  $v$  be partitioning item  $a[lo]$ .
- Scan  $i$  from left to right.
  - $(a[i] < v)$ : exchange  $a[lt]$  with  $a[i]$ ; increment both  $lt$  and  $i$
  - $(a[i] > v)$ : exchange  $a[gt]$  with  $a[i]$ ; decrement  $gt$
  - $(a[i] == v)$ : increment  $i$



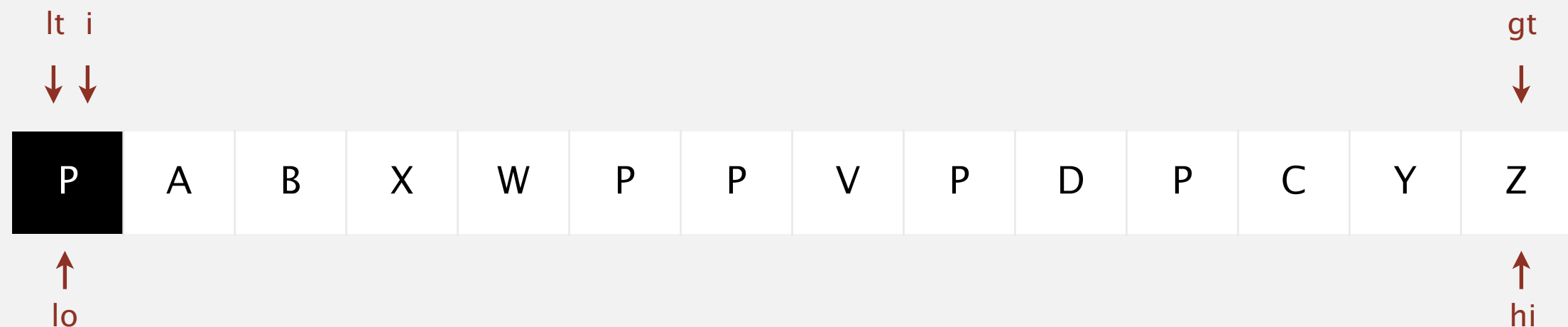
invariant



# Dijkstra 3-way partitioning demo

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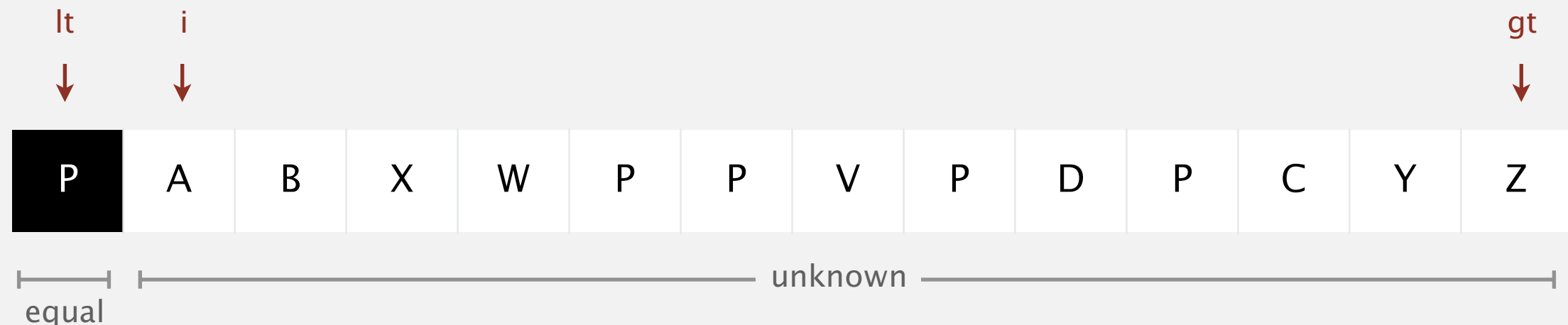
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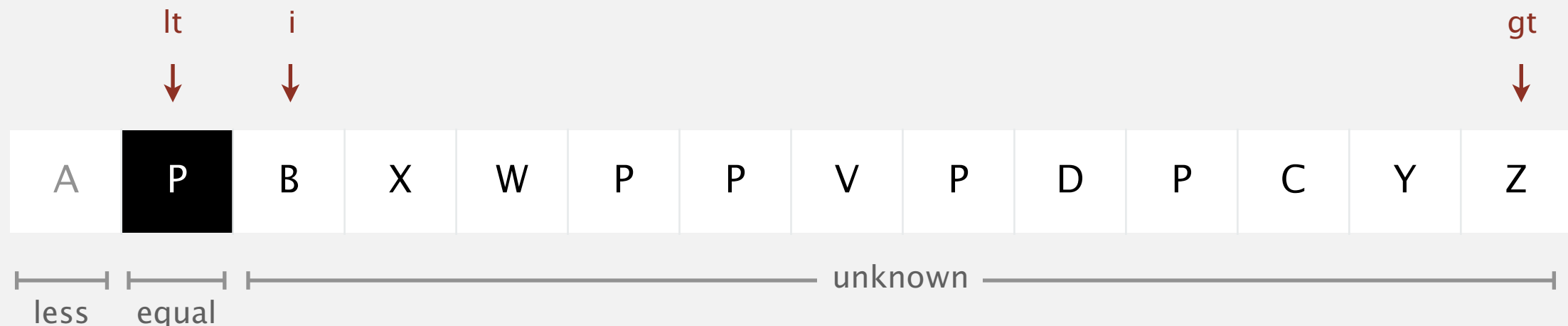
- Let  $v$  be partitioning item  $a[l_0]$ .
- Scan  $i$  from left to right.
  - ( $a[i] < v$ ): exchange  $a[l_t]$  with  $a[i]$ ; increment both  $l_t$  and  $i$
  - ( $a[i] > v$ ): exchange  $a[gt]$  with  $a[i]$ ; decrement  $gt$
  - ( $a[i] == v$ ): increment  $i$



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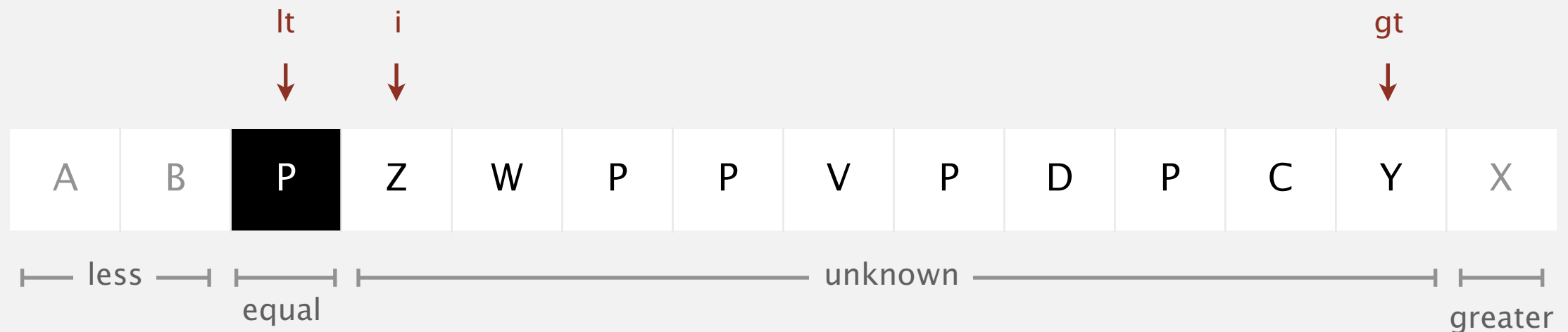
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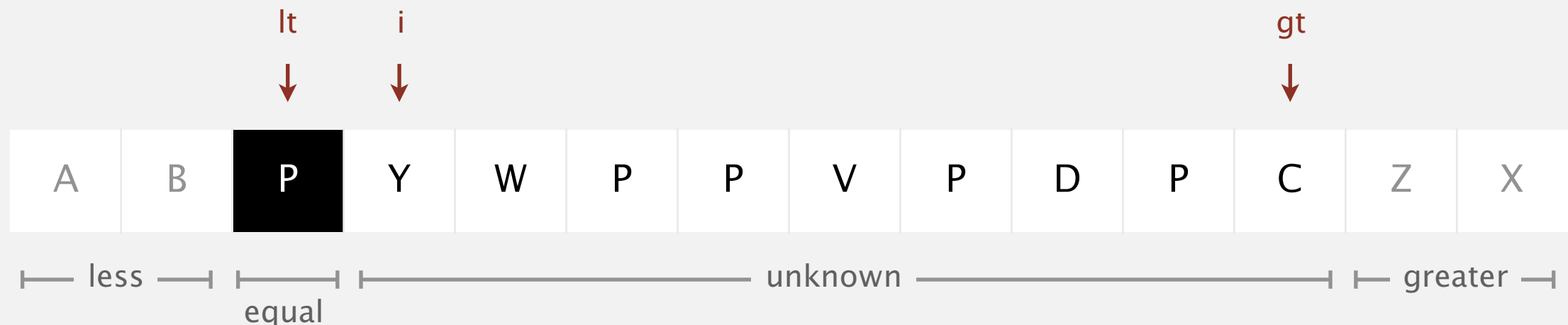
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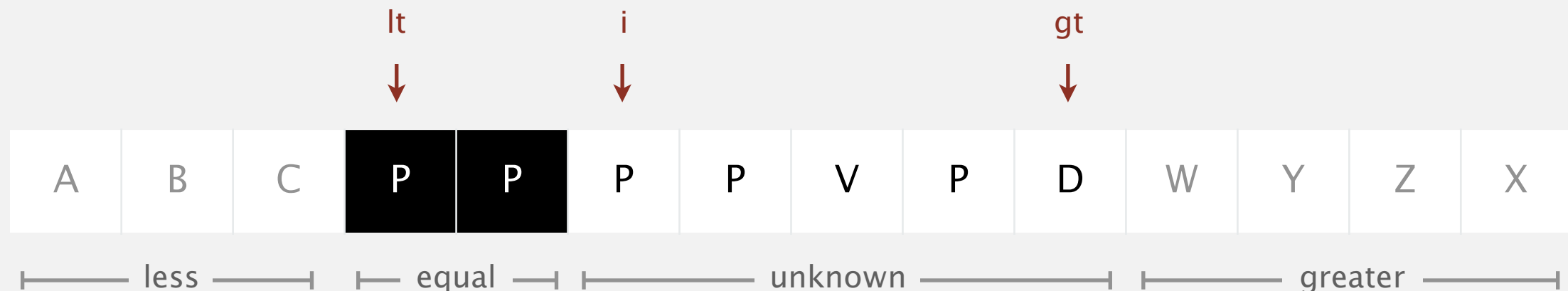
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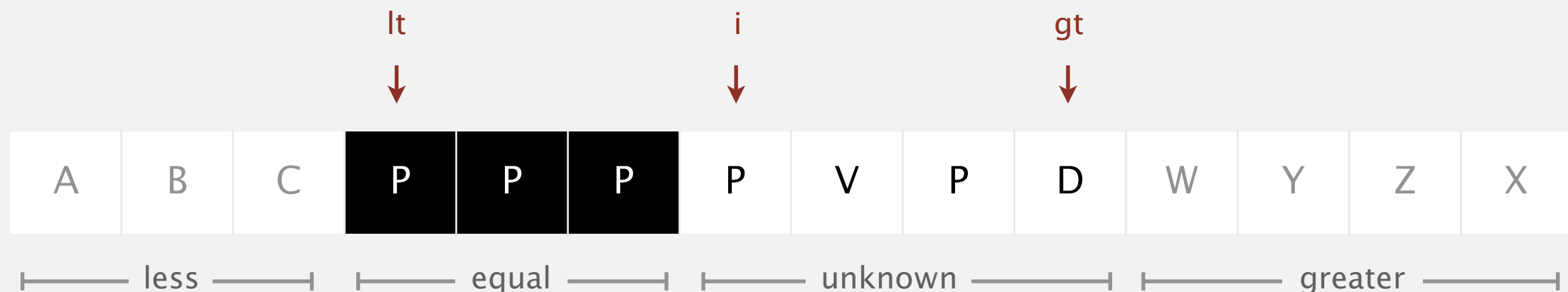
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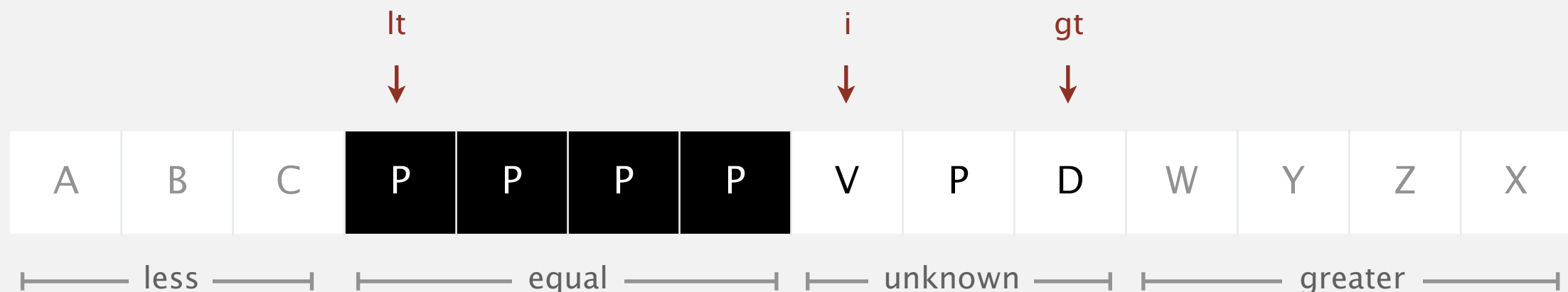
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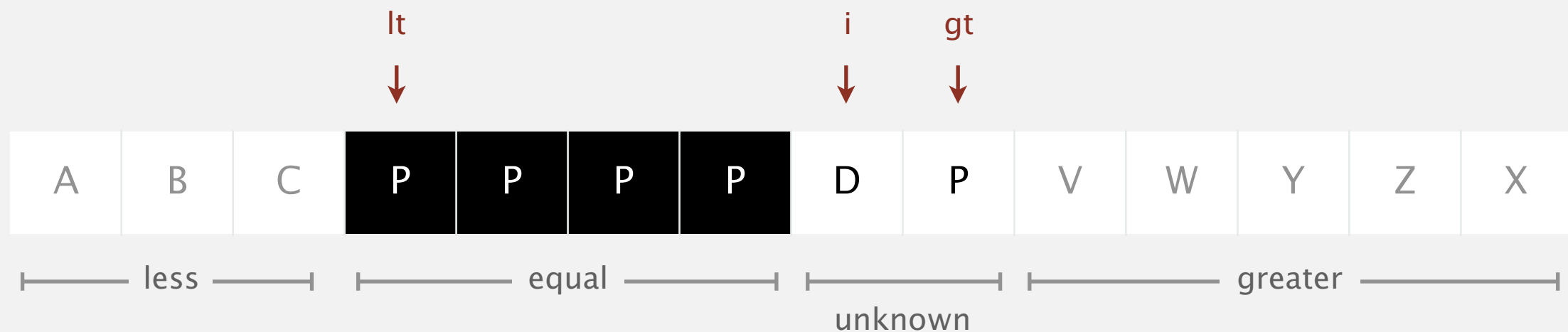
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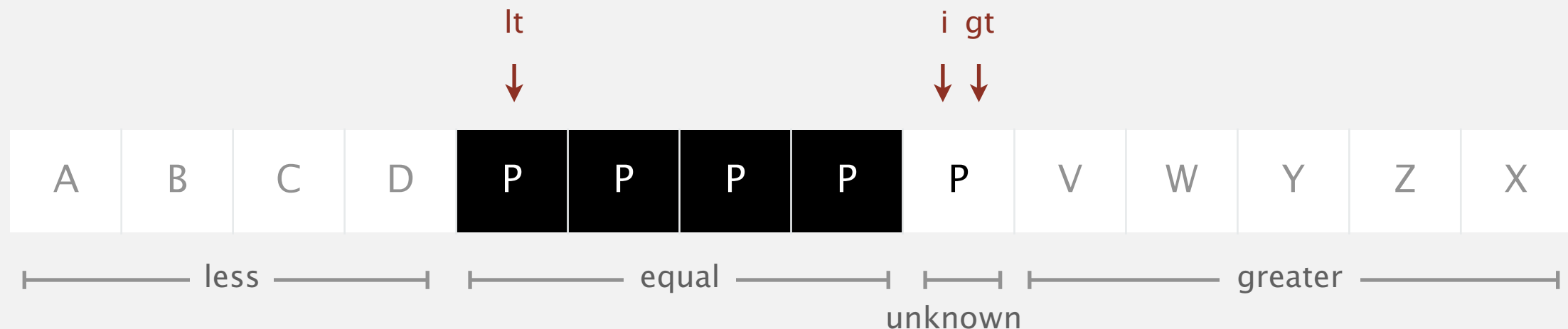
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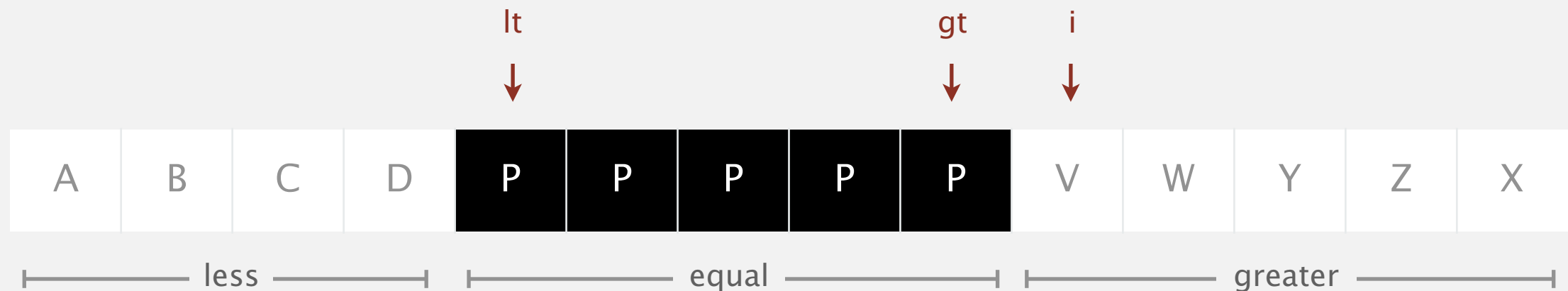
- Let  $v$  be partitioning item  $a[l_o]$ .
- Scan  $i$  from left to right.
  - $(a[i] < v)$ : exchange  $a[l_t]$  with  $a[i]$ ; increment both  $l_t$  and  $i$
  - $(a[i] > v)$ : exchange  $a[gt]$  with  $a[i]$ ; decrement  $gt$
  - $(a[i] == v)$ : increment  $i$





# Dijkstra 3-way partitioning demo

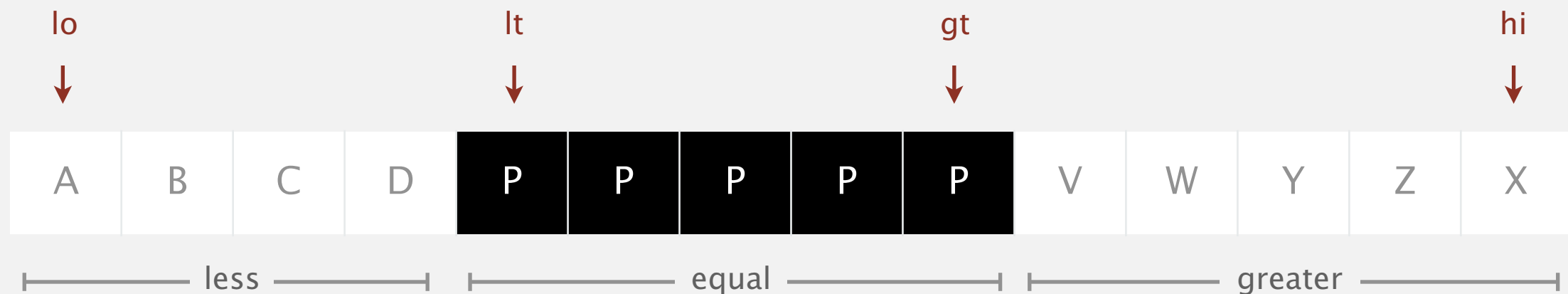
- Let  $v$  be partitioning item  $a[l_o]$ .
- Scan  $i$  from left to right.
  - $(a[i] < v)$ : exchange  $a[l_t]$  with  $a[i]$ ; increment both  $l_t$  and  $i$
  - $(a[i] > v)$ : exchange  $a[g_t]$  with  $a[i]$ ; decrement  $g_t$
  - $(a[i] == v)$ : increment  $i$



# Dijkstra 3-way partitioning demo

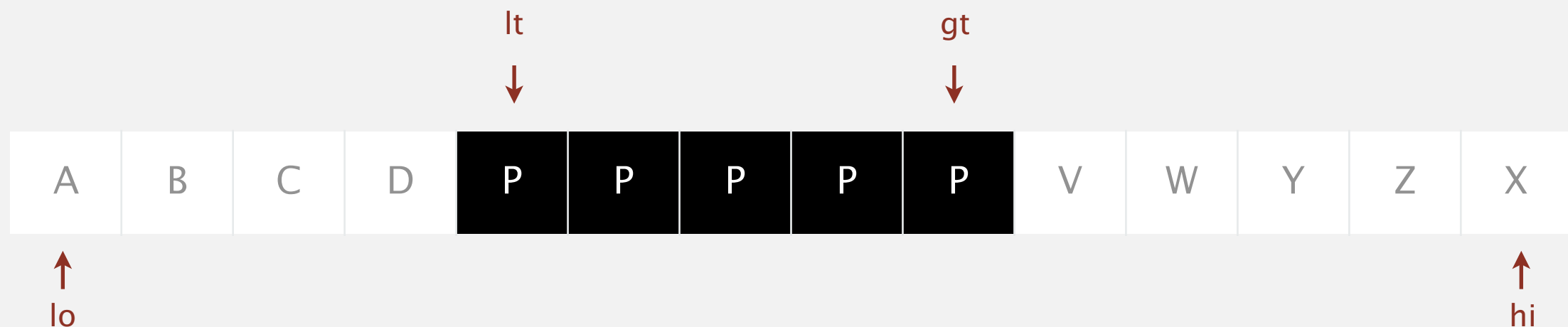
---

- Let  $v$  be partitioning item  $a[lo]$ .
- Scan  $i$  from left to right.
  - $(a[i] < v)$ : exchange  $a[lt]$  with  $a[i]$ ; increment both  $lt$  and  $i$
  - $(a[i] > v)$ : exchange  $a[gt]$  with  $a[i]$ ; decrement  $gt$
  - $(a[i] == v)$ : increment  $i$

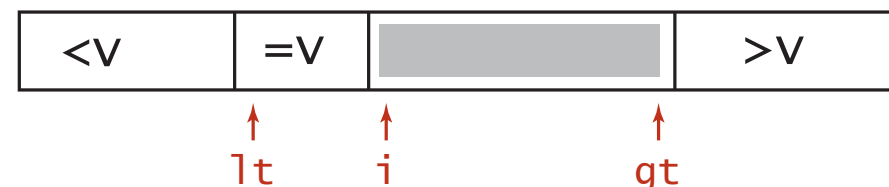


# Dijkstra 3-way partitioning demo

- Let  $v$  be partitioning item  $a[lo]$ .
- Scan  $i$  from left to right.
  - $(a[i] < v)$ : exchange  $a[lt]$  with  $a[i]$ ; increment both  $lt$  and  $i$
  - $(a[i] > v)$ : exchange  $a[gt]$  with  $a[i]$ ; decrement  $gt$
  - $(a[i] == v)$ : increment  $i$



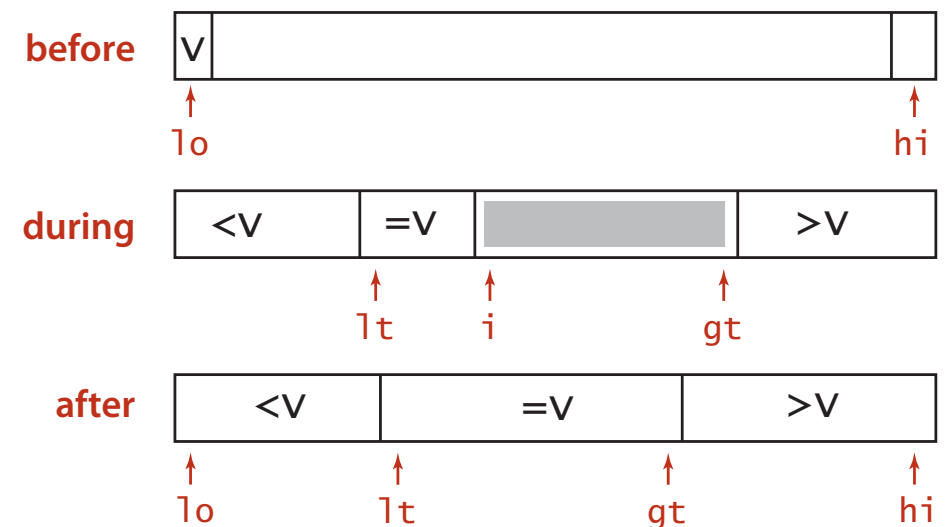
invariant



# 3-way quicksort: Java implementation

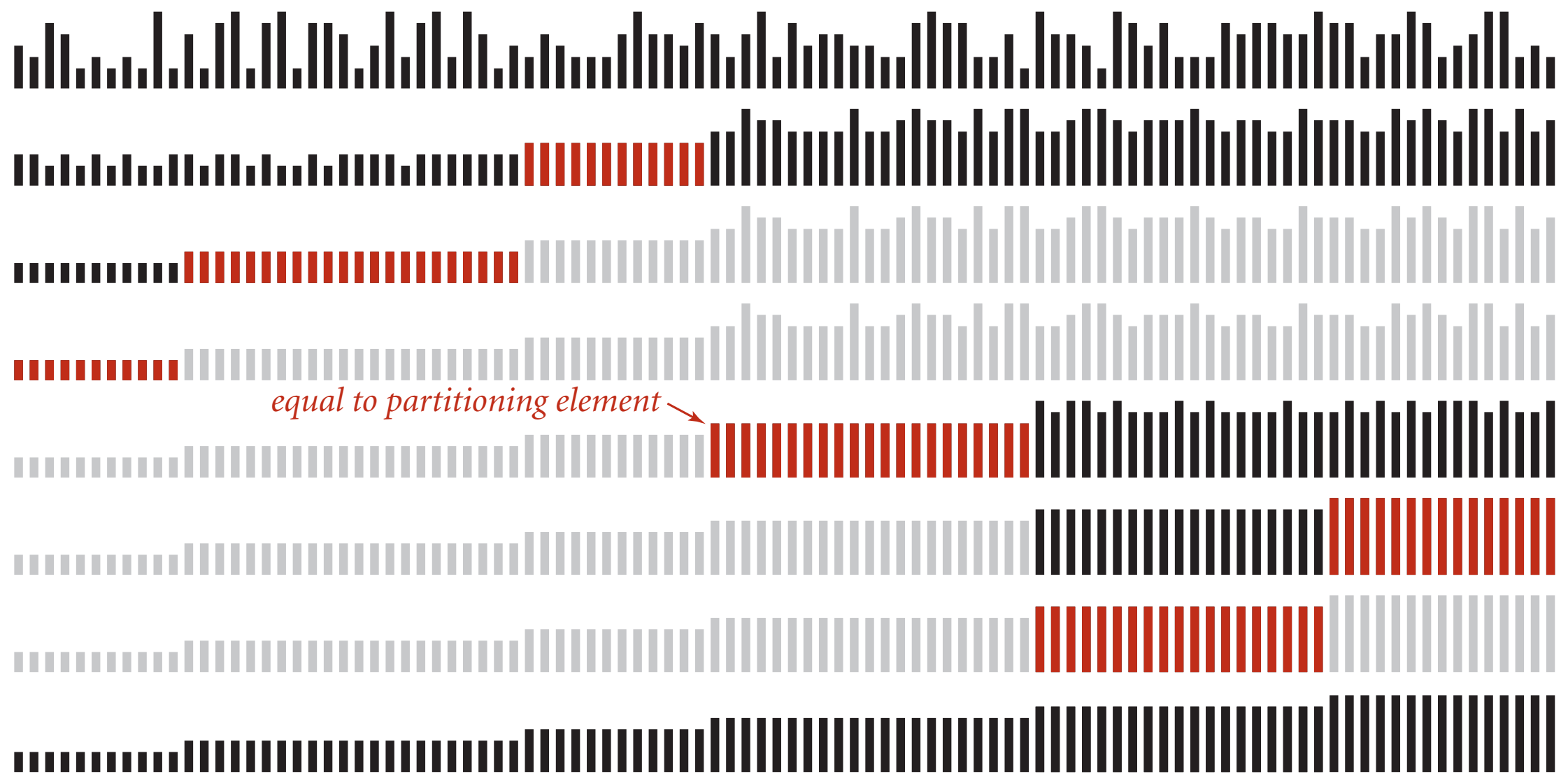
```
private static void sort(Comparable[] a, int lo, int hi)
{
    if (hi <= lo) return;
    int lt = lo, gt = hi;
    Comparable v = a[lo];
    int i = lo;
    while (i <= gt)
    {
        int cmp = a[i].compareTo(v);
        if      (cmp < 0) exch(a, lt++, i++);
        else if (cmp > 0) exch(a, i, gt--);
        else          i++;
    }

    sort(a, lo, lt - 1);
    sort(a, gt + 1, hi);
}
```



# 3-way quicksort: visual trace

---





<http://algs4.cs.princeton.edu>

## 2.3 QUICKSORT


---

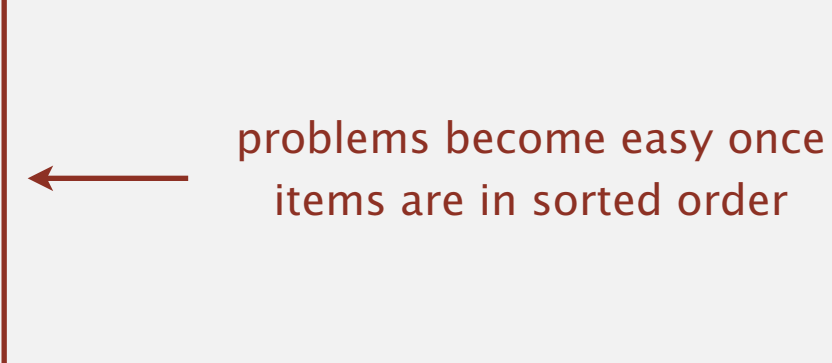
- ▶ *quicksort*
- ▶ *selection*
- ▶ *duplicate keys*
- ▶ *system sorts*

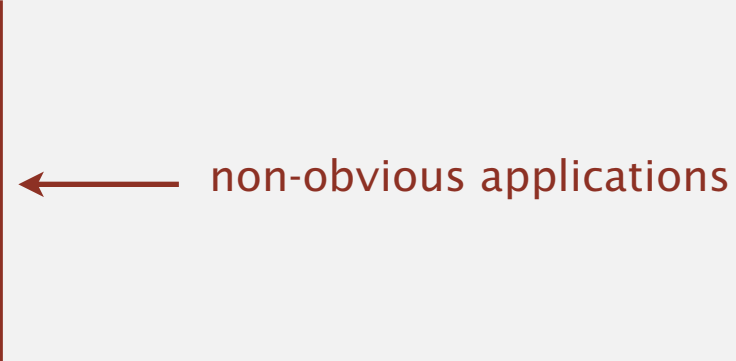
# Sorting applications

---

Sorting algorithms are essential in a broad variety of applications:

- Sort a list of names.
  - Organize an MP3 library.
  - Display Google PageRank results.
  - List RSS feed in reverse chronological order.
- 

- Find the median.
  - Identify statistical outliers.
  - Binary search in a database.
  - Find duplicates in a mailing list.
- 

- Data compression.
  - Computer graphics.
  - Computational biology.
  - Load balancing on a parallel computer.
- 

. . .

# Engineering a system sort (in 1993)

---


## Bentley-McIlroy quicksort.

- Cutoff to insertion sort for small subarrays.
- Partitioning item: median of 3 or Tukey's ninther.
- Partitioning scheme: Bentley-McIlroy 3-way partitioning.

sample 9 items



similar to Dijkstra 3-way partitioning  
(but fewer exchanges when not many equal keys)



### Engineering a Sort Function

JON L. BENTLEY

M. DOUGLAS McILROY

*AT&T Bell Laboratories, 600 Mountain Avenue, Murray Hill, NJ 07974, U.S.A.*

#### SUMMARY

We recount the history of a new `qsort` function for a C library. Our function is clearer, faster and more robust than existing sorts. It chooses partitioning elements by a new sampling scheme; it partitions by a novel solution to Dijkstra's Dutch National Flag problem; and it swaps efficiently. Its behavior was assessed with timing and debugging testbeds, and with a program to certify performance. The design techniques apply in domains beyond sorting.

Very widely used. C, C++, Java 6, ....



# A beautiful mailing list post (Yaroslavskiy, September 2009)

---

## Replacement of quicksort in java.util.Arrays with new dual-pivot quicksort

Hello All,

I'd like to share with you new **Dual-Pivot Quicksort** which is faster than the known implementations (theoretically and experimental). I'd like to propose to replace the JDK's Quicksort implementation by new one.

...

The new Dual-Pivot Quicksort uses *\*two\** pivots elements in this manner:

1. Pick an elements P1, P2, called pivots from the array.
2. Assume that  $P1 \leq P2$ , otherwise swap it.
3. Reorder the array into three parts: those less than the smaller pivot, those larger than the larger pivot, and in between are those elements between (or equal to) the two pivots.
4. Recursively sort the sub-arrays.

The invariant of the Dual-Pivot Quicksort is:

$[ < P1 \mid P1 \leq \& \leq P2 \} > P2 ]$

...

# A beautiful mailing list post (Yaroslavskiy-Bloch-Bentley, October 2009)

---

## Replacement of quicksort in java.util.Arrays with new dual-pivot quicksort

Date: Thu, 29 Oct 2009 11:19:39 +0000

Subject: Replace quicksort in java.util.Arrays with dual-pivot implementation

Changeset: b05abb410c52

Author: alanb

Date: 2009-10-29 11:18 +0000

URL: <http://hg.openjdk.java.net/jdk7/t1/jdk/rev/b05abb410c52>

6880672: Replace quicksort in java.util.Arrays with dual-pivot implementation

Reviewed-by: jjb

Contributed-by: vladimir.yaroslavskiy at sun.com, joshua.bloch at google.com, jlbentley at avaya.com

! make/java/java/FILES\_java.gmk

! src/share/classes/java/util/Arrays.java

+ src/share/classes/java/util/DualPivotQuicksort.java

<http://mail.openjdk.java.net/pipermail/compiler-dev/2009-October.txt>

# System sort in Java 7

---

## `Arrays.sort()`.

- Has one method for objects that are Comparable.
- Has an overloaded method for each primitive type.
- Has an overloaded method for use with a Comparator.
- Has overloaded methods for sorting subarrays.



## Algorithms.

- Dual-pivot quicksort for primitive types.
- Timsort for reference types.

**Q.** Why use different algorithms for primitive and reference types?

**Bottom line.** Use the system sort!

# Sorting summary

	inplace?	stable?	best	average	worst	remarks
selection	✓		$\frac{1}{2} N^2$	$\frac{1}{2} N^2$	$\frac{1}{2} N^2$	$N$ exchanges
insertion	✓	✓	$N$	$\frac{1}{4} N^2$	$\frac{1}{2} N^2$	use for small $N$ or partially ordered
shell	✓		$N \log_3 N$	?	$c N^{3/2}$	tight code; subquadratic
merge		✓	$\frac{1}{2} N \lg N$	$N \lg N$	$N \lg N$	$N \log N$ guarantee; stable
timsort		✓	$N$	$N \lg N$	$N \lg N$	improves mergesort when preexisting order
quick	✓		$N \lg N$	$2 N \ln N$	$\frac{1}{2} N^2$	$N \log N$ probabilistic guarantee; fastest in practice
3-way quick	✓		$N$	$2 N \ln N$	$\frac{1}{2} N^2$	improves quicksort when duplicate keys
?	✓	✓	$N$	$N \lg N$	$N \lg N$	holy sorting grail



## 1.4 ANALYSIS OF ALGORITHMS

---

- ▶ *introduction*
- ▶ *observations*
- ▶ *mathematical models*
- ▶ *order-of-growth classifications*
- ▶ *theory of algorithms*
- ▶ *memory*

# Types of analyses

---

**Best case.** Lower bound on cost.

- Determined by “easiest” input.
- Provides a goal for all inputs.

**Worst case.** Upper bound on cost.

- Determined by “most difficult” input.
- Provides a guarantee for all inputs.

**Average case.** Expected cost for random input.

- Need a model for “random” input.
- Provides a way to predict performance.

**Ex 1.** Array accesses for brute-force 3-SUM.

Best:  $\sim \frac{1}{2} N^3$

Average:  $\sim \frac{1}{2} N^3$

Worst:  $\sim \frac{1}{2} N^3$

**Ex 2.** Compares for binary search.

Best:  $\sim 1$

Average:  $\sim \lg N$

Worst:  $\sim \lg N$

# Types of analyses

---

Best case. Lower bound on cost.

Worst case. Upper bound on cost.

Average case. “Expected” cost.

Actual data might not match input model?

- Need to understand input to effectively process it.
- Approach 1: design for the worst case.
- Approach 2: randomize, depend on probabilistic guarantee.

# Theory of algorithms

---

## Goals.

- Establish “difficulty” of a problem.
- Develop “optimal” algorithms.

## Approach.

- Suppress details in analysis: analyze “to within a constant factor.”
- Eliminate variability in input model: focus on the worst case.

**Upper bound.** Performance guarantee of algorithm for any input.

**Lower bound.** Proof that no algorithm can do better.

**Optimal algorithm.** Lower bound = upper bound (to within a constant factor).



# Commonly-used notations in the theory of algorithms

---

notation	provides	example	shorthand for	used to
<b>Big Theta</b>	asymptotic order of growth	$\Theta(N^2)$	$\frac{1}{2} N^2$ $10 N^2$ $5 N^2 + 22 N \log N + 3N$ $\vdots$	classify algorithms
<b>Big O</b>	$\Theta(N^2)$ and smaller	$O(N^2)$	$10 N^2$ $100 N$ $22 N \log N + 3 N$ $\vdots$	develop upper bounds
<b>Big Omega</b>	$\Theta(N^2)$ and larger	$\Omega(N^2)$	$\frac{1}{2} N^2$ $N^5$ $N^3 + 22 N \log N + 3 N$ $\vdots$	develop lower bounds

# Theory of algorithms: example 1

---

## Goals.

- Establish “difficulty” of a problem and develop “optimal” algorithms.
- Ex. 1-SUM = “*Is there a 0 in the array?*”

## Upper bound. A specific algorithm.

- Ex. Brute-force algorithm for 1-SUM: Look at every array entry.
- Running time of the optimal algorithm for 1-SUM is  $O(N)$ .

## Lower bound. Proof that no algorithm can do better.

- Ex. Have to examine all  $N$  entries (any unexamined one might be 0).
- Running time of the optimal algorithm for 1-SUM is  $\Omega(N)$ .

## Optimal algorithm.

- Lower bound equals upper bound (to within a constant factor).
- Ex. Brute-force algorithm for 1-SUM is optimal: its running time is  $\Theta(N)$ .

# Theory of algorithms: example 2

---

## Goals.

- Establish “difficulty” of a problem and develop “optimal” algorithms.
- Ex. 3-SUM.

## Upper bound. A specific algorithm.

- Ex. Brute-force algorithm for 3-SUM.
- Running time of the optimal algorithm for 3-SUM is  $O(N^3)$ .

# Theory of algorithms: example 2

---

## Goals.

- Establish “difficulty” of a problem and develop “optimal” algorithms.
- Ex. 3-SUM.

## Upper bound. A specific algorithm.

- Ex. **Improved** algorithm for 3-SUM.
- Running time of the optimal algorithm for 3-SUM is  $O(N^2 \log N)$ .

## Lower bound. Proof that no algorithm can do better.

- Ex. Have to examine all  $N$  entries to solve 3-SUM.
- Running time of the optimal algorithm for solving 3-SUM is  $\Omega(N)$ .

## Open problems.

- Optimal algorithm for 3-SUM?
- Subquadratic algorithm for 3-SUM?
- Quadratic lower bound for 3-SUM?

# Algorithm design approach

---

## Start.

- Develop an algorithm.
- Prove a lower bound.

## Gap?

- Lower the upper bound (discover a new algorithm).
- Raise the lower bound (more difficult).

## Golden Age of Algorithm Design.

- 1970s–.
- Steadily decreasing upper bounds for many important problems.
- Many known optimal algorithms.

## Caveats.

- Overly pessimistic to focus on worst case?
- Need better than “to within a constant factor” to predict performance.

# Commonly-used notations in the theory of algorithms

notation	provides	example	shorthand for	used to
<b>Tilde</b>	leading term	$\sim 10 N^2$	$10 N^2$ $10 N^2 + 22 N \log N$ $10 N^2 + 2 N + 37$	provide approximate model
<b>Big Theta</b>	asymptotic order of growth	$\Theta(N^2)$	$\frac{1}{2} N^2$ $10 N^2$ $5 N^2 + 22 N \log N + 3N$	classify algorithms
<b>Big Oh</b>	$\Theta(N^2)$ and smaller	$O(N^2)$	$10 N^2$ $100 N$ $22 N \log N + 3 N$	develop upper bounds
<b>Big Omega</b>	$\Theta(N^2)$ and larger	$\Omega(N^2)$	$\frac{1}{2} N^2$ $N^5$ $N^3 + 22 N \log N + 3 N$	develop lower bounds

**Common mistake.** Interpreting big-Oh as an approximate model.

**This course.** Focus on approximate models: use Tilde-notation

# Sorting summary

	inplace?	stable?	best	average	worst	remarks
selection	✓		$\frac{1}{2} N^2$	$\frac{1}{2} N^2$	$\frac{1}{2} N^2$	$N$ exchanges
insertion	✓	✓	$N$	$\frac{1}{4} N^2$	$\frac{1}{2} N^2$	use for small $N$ or partially ordered
shell	✓		$N \log_3 N$	?	$c N^{3/2}$	tight code; subquadratic
merge		✓	$\frac{1}{2} N \lg N$	$N \lg N$	$N \lg N$	$N \log N$ guarantee; stable
timsort		✓	$N$	$N \lg N$	$N \lg N$	improves mergesort when preexisting order
quick	✓		$N \lg N$	$2 N \ln N$	$\frac{1}{2} N^2$	$N \log N$ probabilistic guarantee; fastest in practice
3-way quick	✓		$N$	$2 N \ln N$	$\frac{1}{2} N^2$	improves quicksort when duplicate keys
?	✓	✓	$N$	$N \lg N$	$N \lg N$	holy sorting grail