YSC2229: Introductory Data Structures and Algorithms



Week 04: Advanced Sorting Techniques

Merge sort

• <u>Idea</u>: split the array to be sorted into two equal (± 1) parts, sort these arrays by *recursive* calls, and then *merge* them, preserving the ordering.

Merge sort by example

Recursive descent: splitting the array

0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1	2	12	8	18	3	4	6

0	1	2	3
1	2	12	8

0	1	2	3	
18	3	4	6	

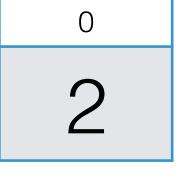
0	1
1	2

0	1
12	8

0	1
18	3

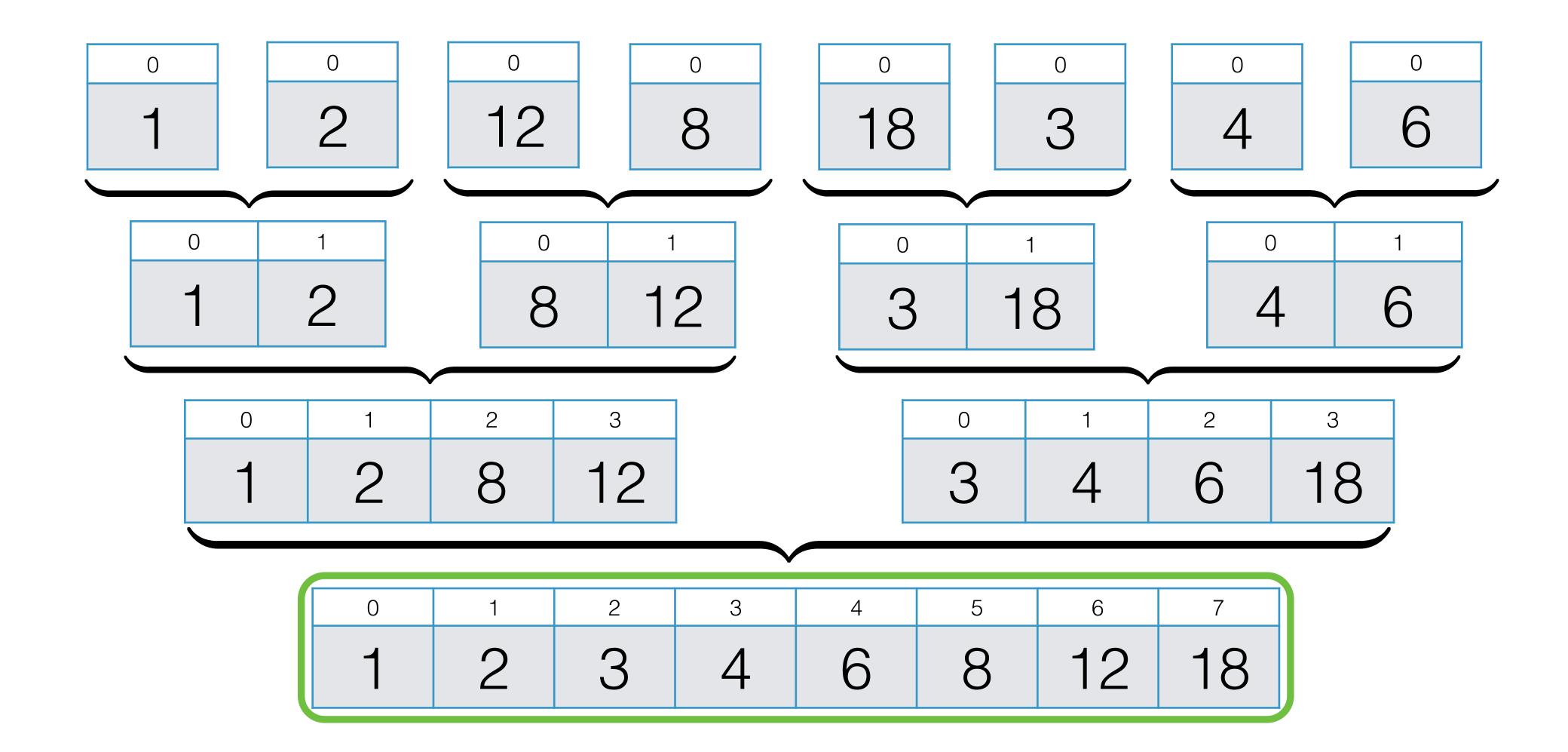
0	1
4	6

0
1



Merge sort by example

Merging the sorted sub-arrays



Merge sort complexity

```
M(n) MergeSort(A[0 ... n-1]) {
                       if (n = 1) {
            M(1) = 0 return A;
                       } else {
                         m := n/2;
                         L := A[0, ..., m-1];
         copying: n/2
                         R := A[m, ..., n-1];
         copying: n/2
                         Merge(
merging: n comparisons
                            MergeSort(L),
              M(n/2)
                            MergeSort(R), A)
              M(n/2)
                         return A;
```

• The complexity does not depend on the input properties, just its $size \Rightarrow worst-case = average case$.

Merge sort complexity

$$M(n) = 2 M(n/2) + 2n$$
, if $n > 1$
 $M(1) = 0$

Change variable $n \mapsto 2^k$: $M(n) = h(k) = 2 h(k-1) + 2 \cdot 2^k$

Change of function: $h(k) = 2^k g(k)$

h(0) = g(0) = M(1) = 0

By substituting h: $2^{k} g(k) = 2 \cdot 2^{k-1} g(k-1) + 2 \cdot 2^{k}$

g(k) = g(k-1) + 2

By method of differences: g(k) = 2k + M(1)

Merge sort complexity

$$M(n) = 2 M(n/2) + 2n$$
, if $n > 1$
 $M(1) = 0$

$$\begin{split} M(n) &= h(k) = 2 \; h(k-1) \, + \, 2 \cdot 2^k \qquad \quad h(k) = \, 2^k \, g(k) \qquad \quad g(k) = \, 2k \, + \, M(1) \\ g(k) &= \, 2k \\ h(k) &= \, 2 \cdot 2^k \cdot k \\ M(n) &= \, 2n \; log_2 n \, \in \, O(n \, log_2 n \, | \, n \, is \, a \, power \, of \, 2) \end{split}$$

Since $n \cdot \log n$ is non-decreasing for n > 1, and it is also *smooth*,

 $M(n) \in O(n \log n)$

Quicksort

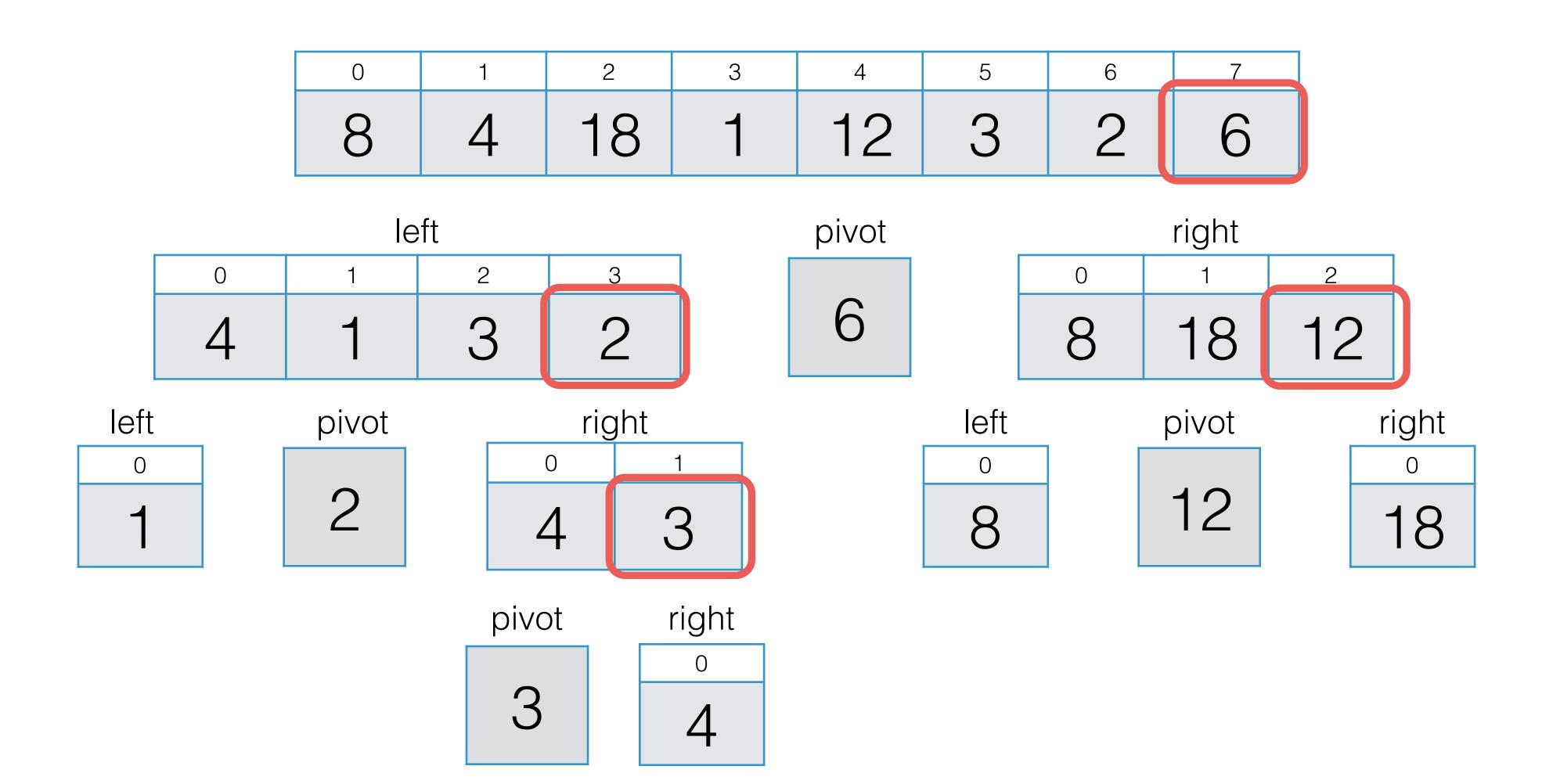
- Invented by Tony Hoare (the same as of Hoare triples) in 1961;
- Idea: divide-and-conquer with partially sorted sub-arrays;
- In practice, one of the fastest sorting algorithms as of today.



```
QuickSort (A[0 ... n-1]) {
 if (n ≤ 1) { return A; } // nothing to sort, return A
 else {
   1 := 0; r := 0;
                                // take the last array element as a "pivot"
   pivot := A[n-1];
   for (i = 1 ... n-1) {
    if (A[i] < pivot) then {</pre>
                         // collect all elements of A smaller than pivot in
        L[1] := A[i];
        1 := 1 + 1;
                              // the "left" subarray L
      } else {
                                // collect all elements of A greater or equal than pivot in
        R[r] := A[i];
                                // the "Right" subarray R
        r := r + 1;
   Concat(QuickSort(L), pivot, QuickSort(R), A) // run recursively on L, R, and then
                                                           concatenate (L ++ [pivot] ++ R) into A
   return A;
```

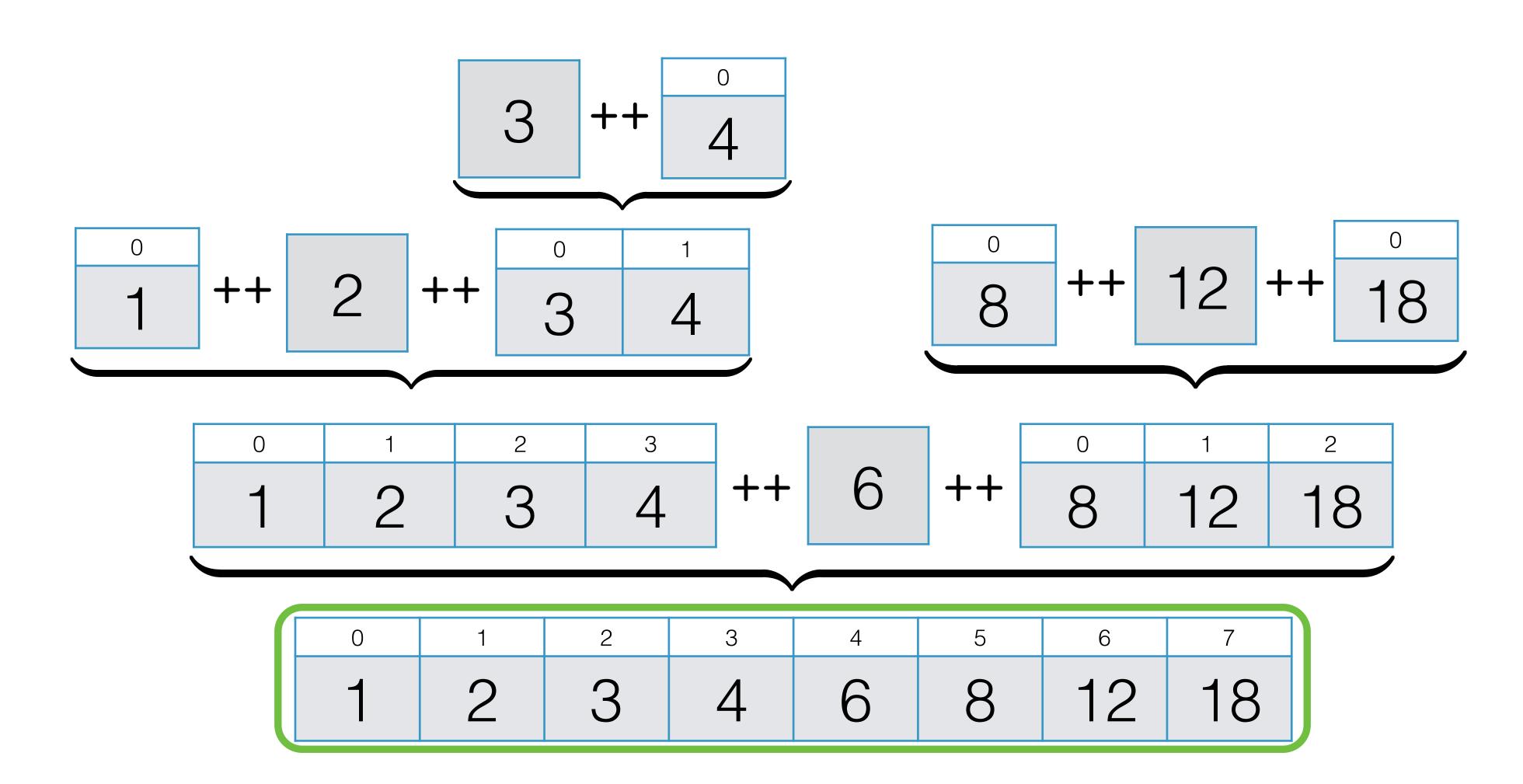
Quicksort by example

Recursive descent: choosing pivots and constructing sub-arrays



Quicksort by example

Combining sorted sub-arrays and pivots



Quicksort vs. Merge sort

- Quicksort can be seen as a complement to Merge sort in distributing the computational complexity;
- In Merge sort, creating sub-arrays is simply copying, whereas in Quicksort it requires rearranging elements wrt. the pivot;
- In Merge sort, combining partial results is merging (complicated, requires comparisons), whereas in Quicksort they are concatenated (simple, no comparisons).

Worst-case complexity of Quicksort

- Worst case is achieved when the arrays L and R are severely imbalanced;
- This happens, for instance, if the pivot is always the smallest element in the array.

```
QuickSort (A[0 ... n-1]) {
    Q(0) = 0 \longrightarrow if (n \le 1) \{ return A; \}
(no comparisons)
                             else {
                                1 := 0; r := 0;
                                 pivot := A[n - 1];
                            for (i = 1 ... n-1) {
   if (A[i] < pivot) then {
     L[l] := A[i];
     l := l + 1;
   } else {
     R[r] := A[i];
     r := r + 1;
}</pre>
  (n - 1) comparisons
 Q(|L|) + Q(|R|) Concat(QuickSort(L), pivot, QuickSort(R), A)
                                 return A;
```

Worst-case complexity of Quicksort

• In the worst case, |L| = n - 1, so we obtain the following recurrence relation:

By method of differences:

$$Q(n) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} i - \sum_{i=1}^{n} 1 = \frac{n(n+1)}{2} - n = \frac{n(n-1)}{2} \in O(n^2)$$

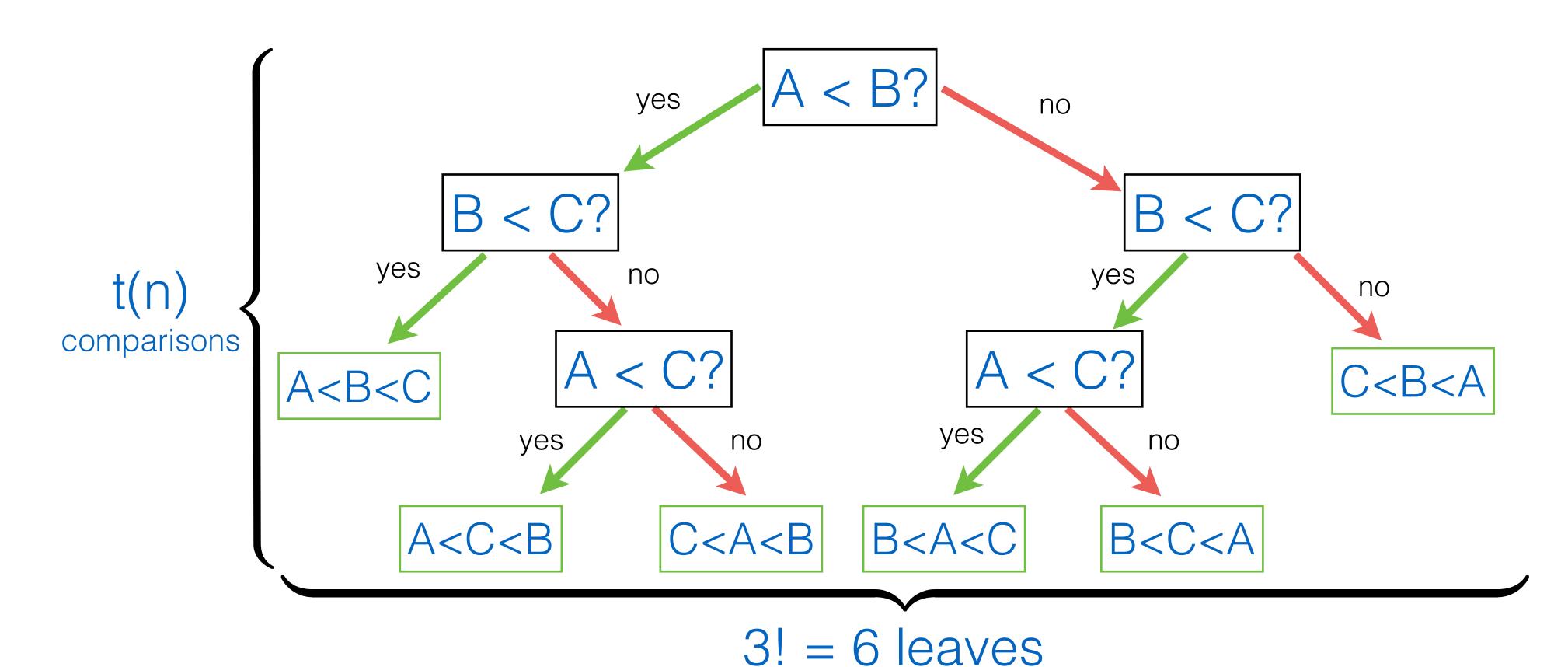
But for *Quicksort*, this worst case is *highly* improbable.

Best worst time for comparison-based sorting

- Quicksort, Insertion sort, Merge sort are all comparison-based sorting algorithms: they compare elements pairwise;
- An "ideal" algorithm will *always* perform no more than t(n) comparisons, where n is the size of the array being sorted;
 - What is then t(n)?
- A number of *possible orderings* of n elements is n!, and such an algorithm should find "the right one" by following a path in a *binary* tree, where each node corresponds to comparing just two elements.

Decision tree of a comparison-based sorting

- Example: array [A, B, C] of three elements;
- All possible orderings between A, B, and C are possible.



Best-worst case complexity analysis

- By making t(n) steps in a decision tree, the algorithm should be able to say, which ordering it is;
- The number of reachable leaves in t(n) steps is $2^{t(n)}$;
- The number of possible orderings is n! is, therefore

$$2t(n) \ge n$$

Best-worst case complexity analysis

$$2^{t(n)} \ge n!$$

$$t(n) \ge \log_2(n!)$$

Stirling's formula for large n: $n! \approx \sqrt{2\pi n} \left(\frac{n}{e}\right)^n$

$$t(n) \approx n \log_e n$$

= $(\log_e 2) n \log_2 n$

 $t(n) \in O(n log n)$

Can we do sorting better than in O(n log n)?

Yes, if we don't base it on comparisons.

Quiz

- We want to sort n integer numbers, all in the range 1...n;
- · No repetitions, all numbers are present exactly once;
- What is the worst-case complexity?

Quiz

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- · No repetitions, all numbers are present exactly once;
- What is the worst-case complexity?

Answer: O(n)

• We know that it has to be 1, 2, ..., n-1, n, so just generate this sequence.

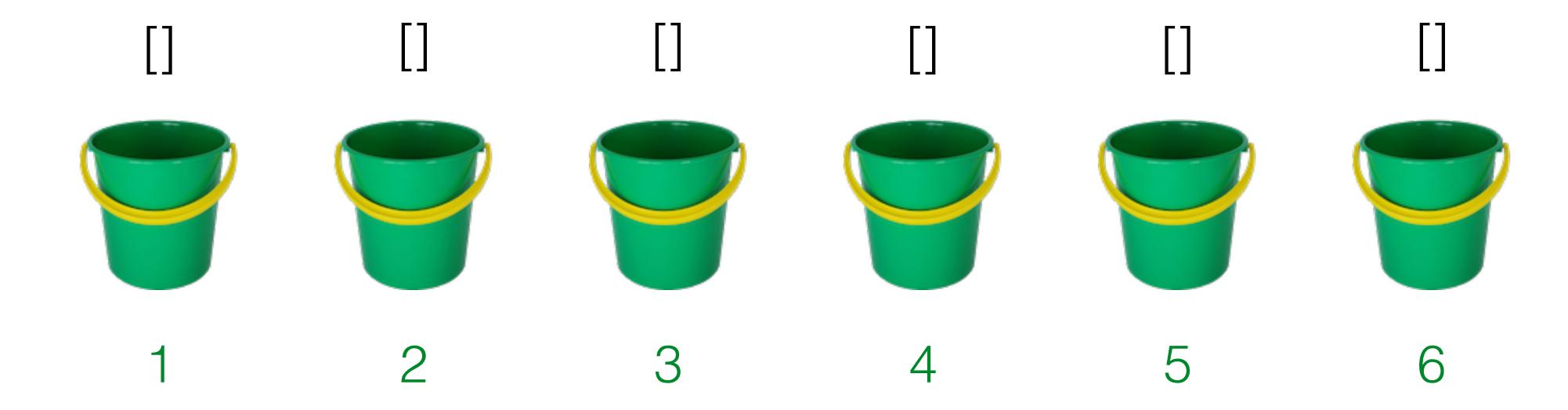
Bucket sort

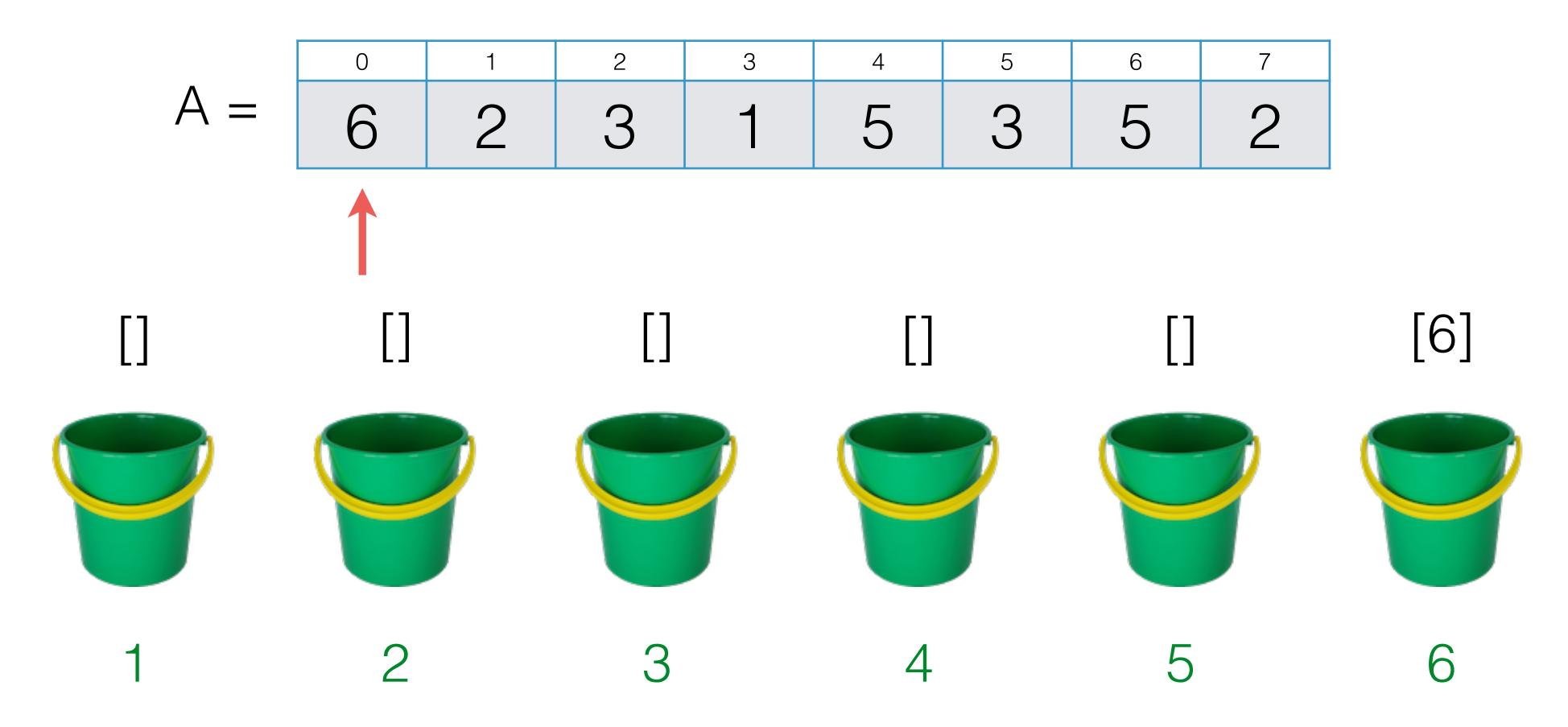
- We want to sort an array A of n records, whose keys are integer numbers;
- All keys in A are in the range | ...k;
- There might be repeated keys, some keys might be absent;
- **Idea**: allocate k "buckets" and put records into them, the "flush" the buckets in their order.

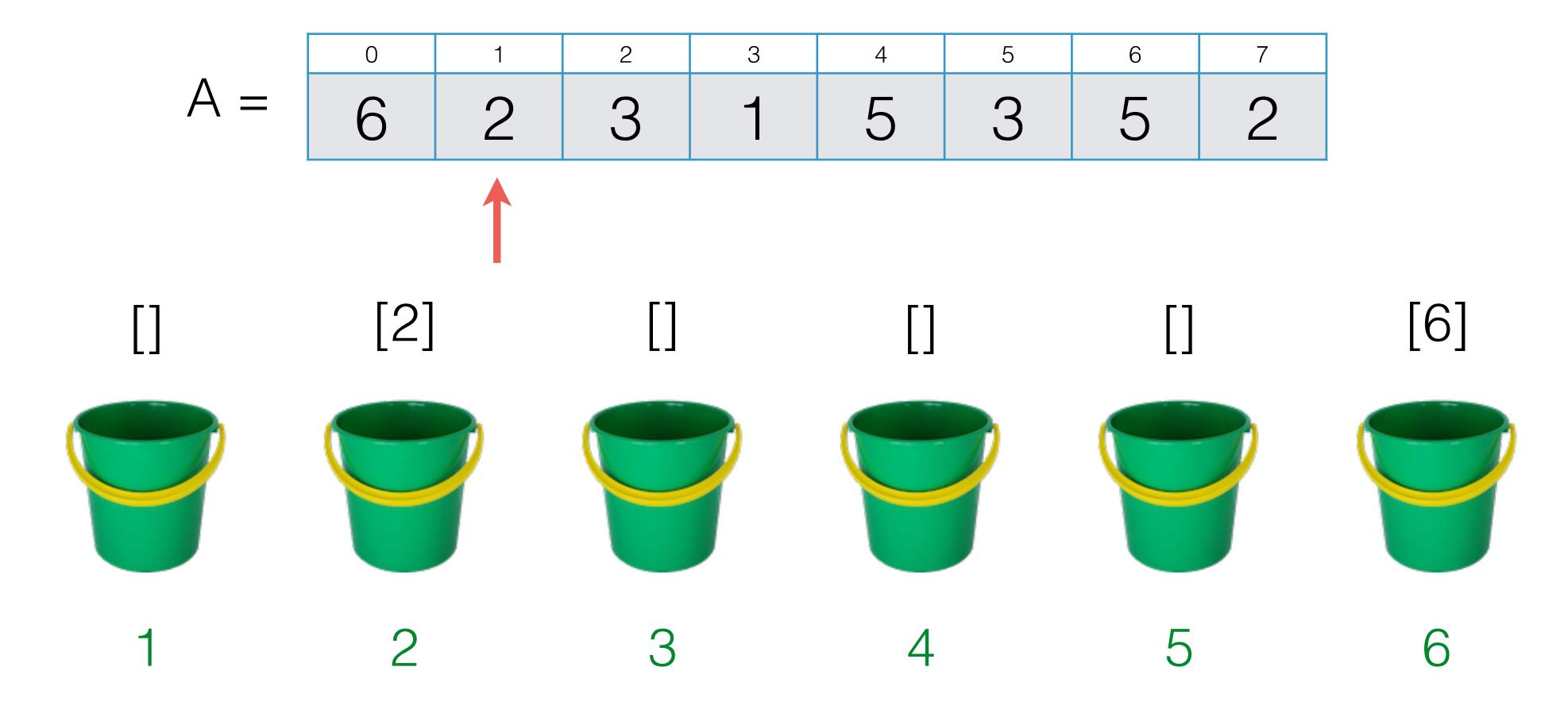
Bucket sort

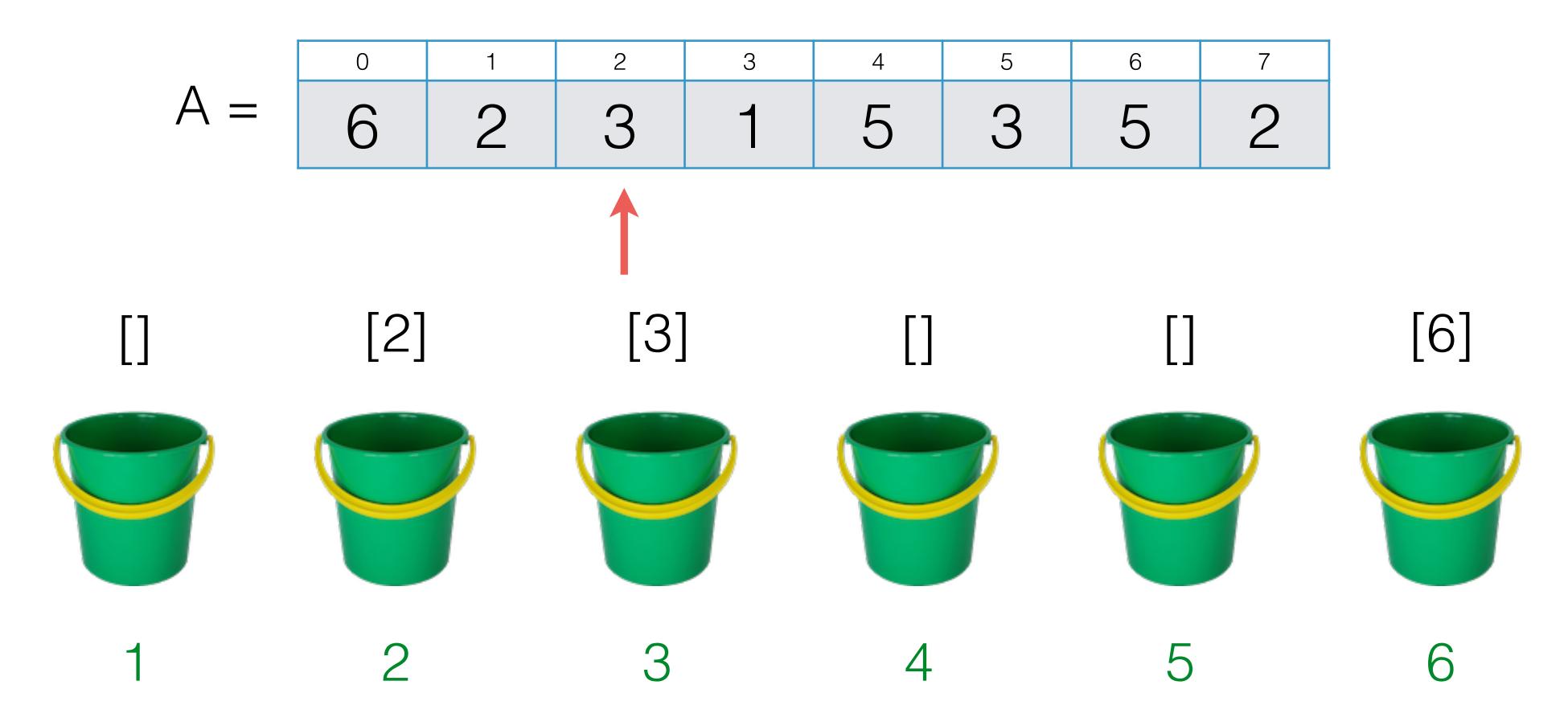
```
BucketSort (A[0 ... n-1], k) {
 buckets := array of k empty lists; // create k empty buckets
 for (i = 0..n-1) {
   key := A[i].key; // get the next key
   bucket := buckets[key];  // find the bucket for the key
   buckets[key] := bucket ++ [A[i]]; // add the record into bucket
 result = []
 for (j = 0..k-1) { // concatenate all buckets
   result := result ++ buckets[j];
 return result;
```

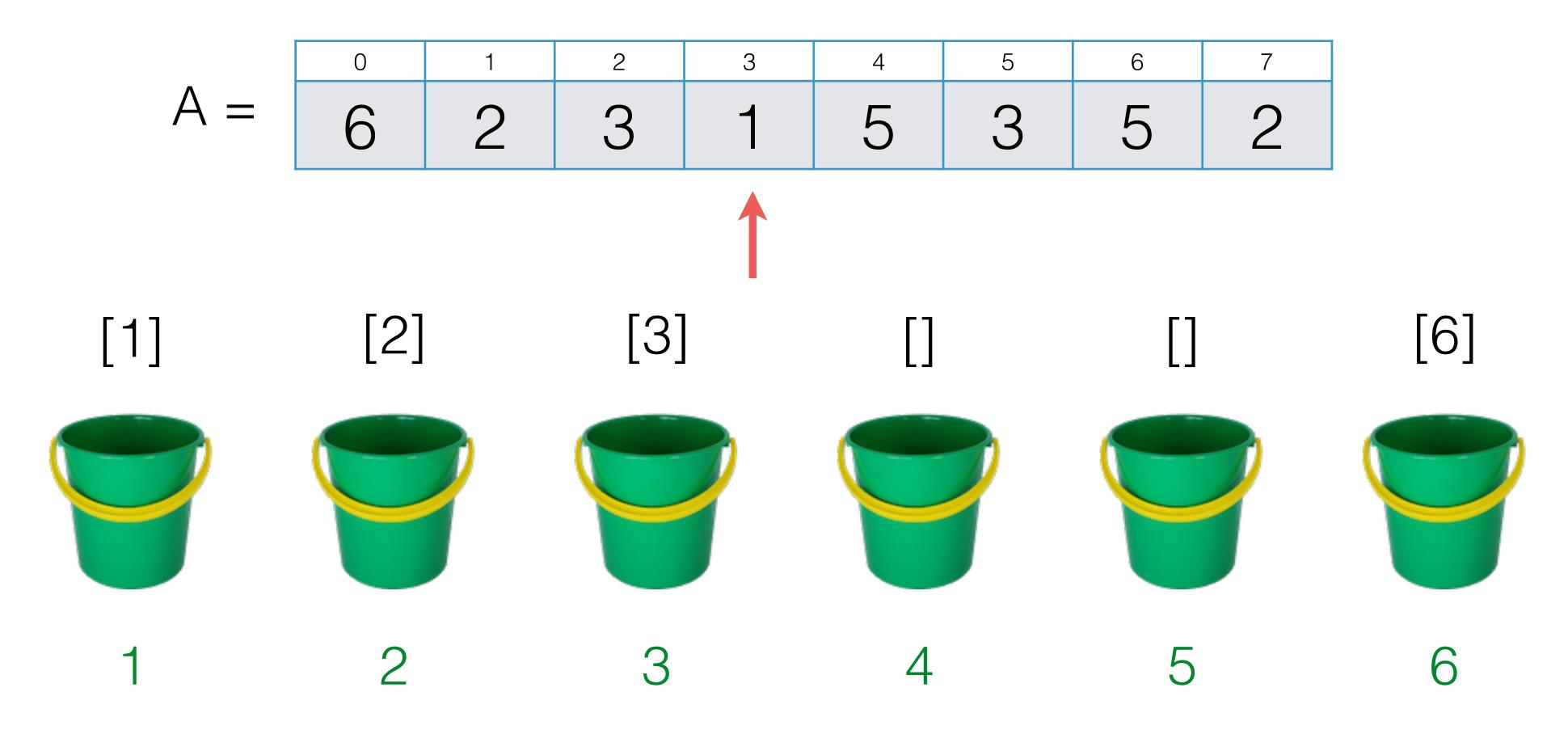
$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 & 5 & 6 & 7 \\ 6 & 2 & 3 & 1 & 5 & 3 & 5 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$$

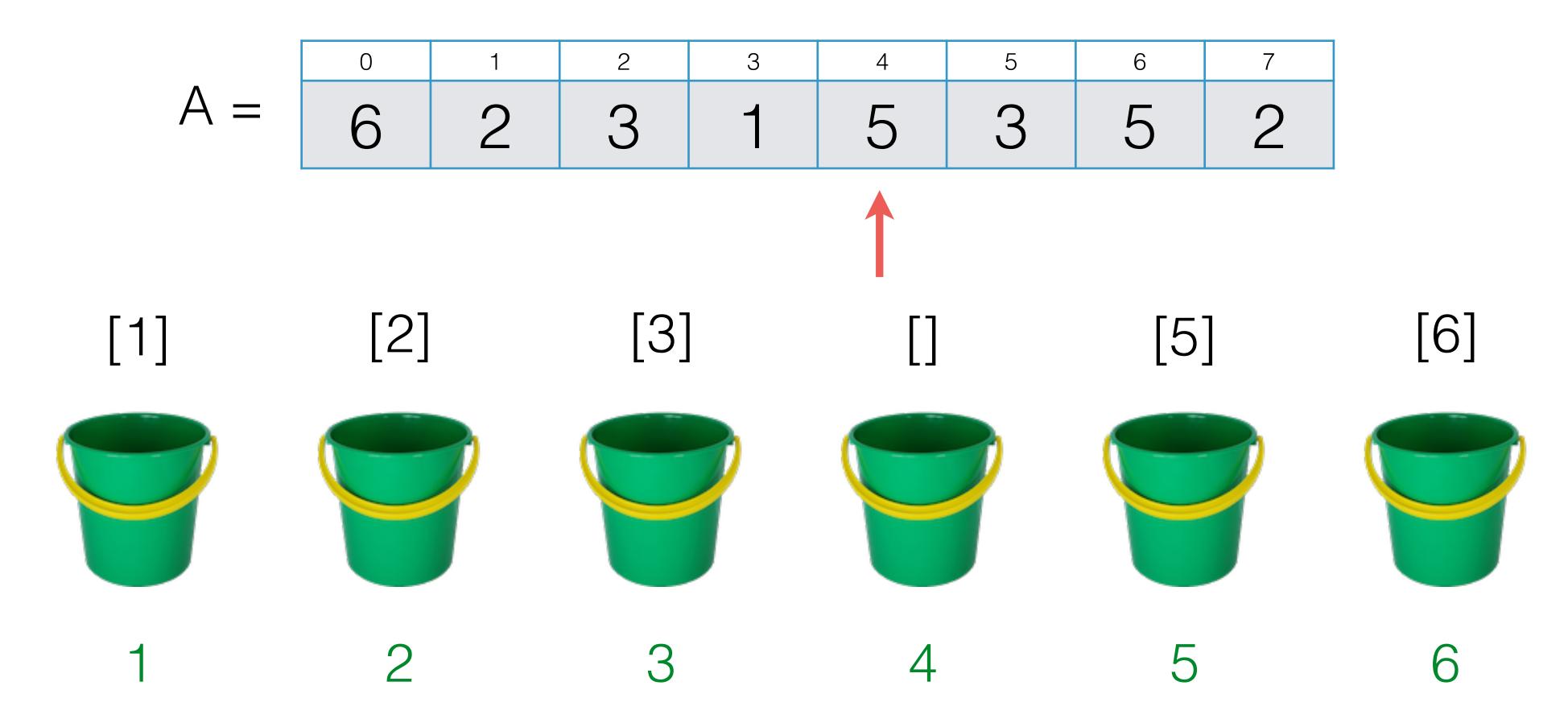


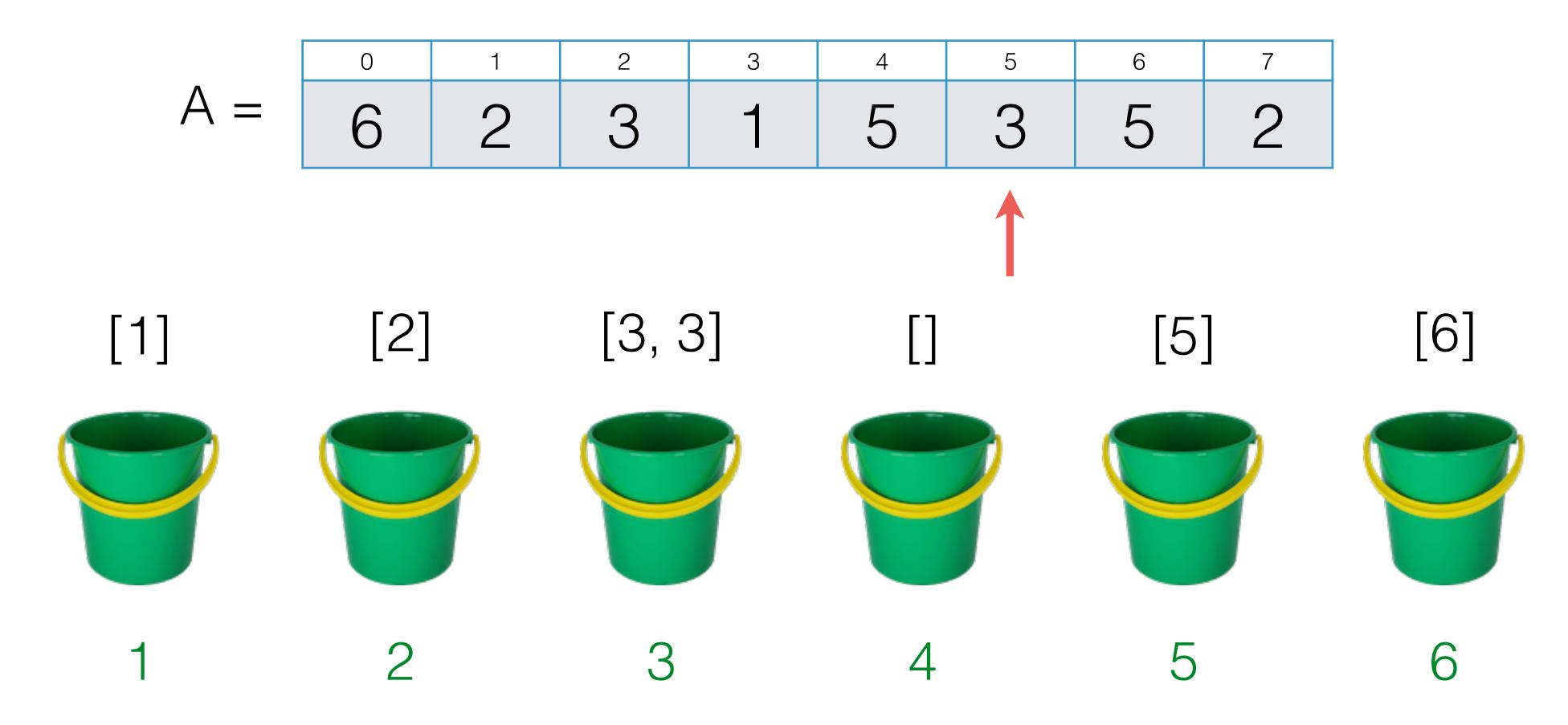


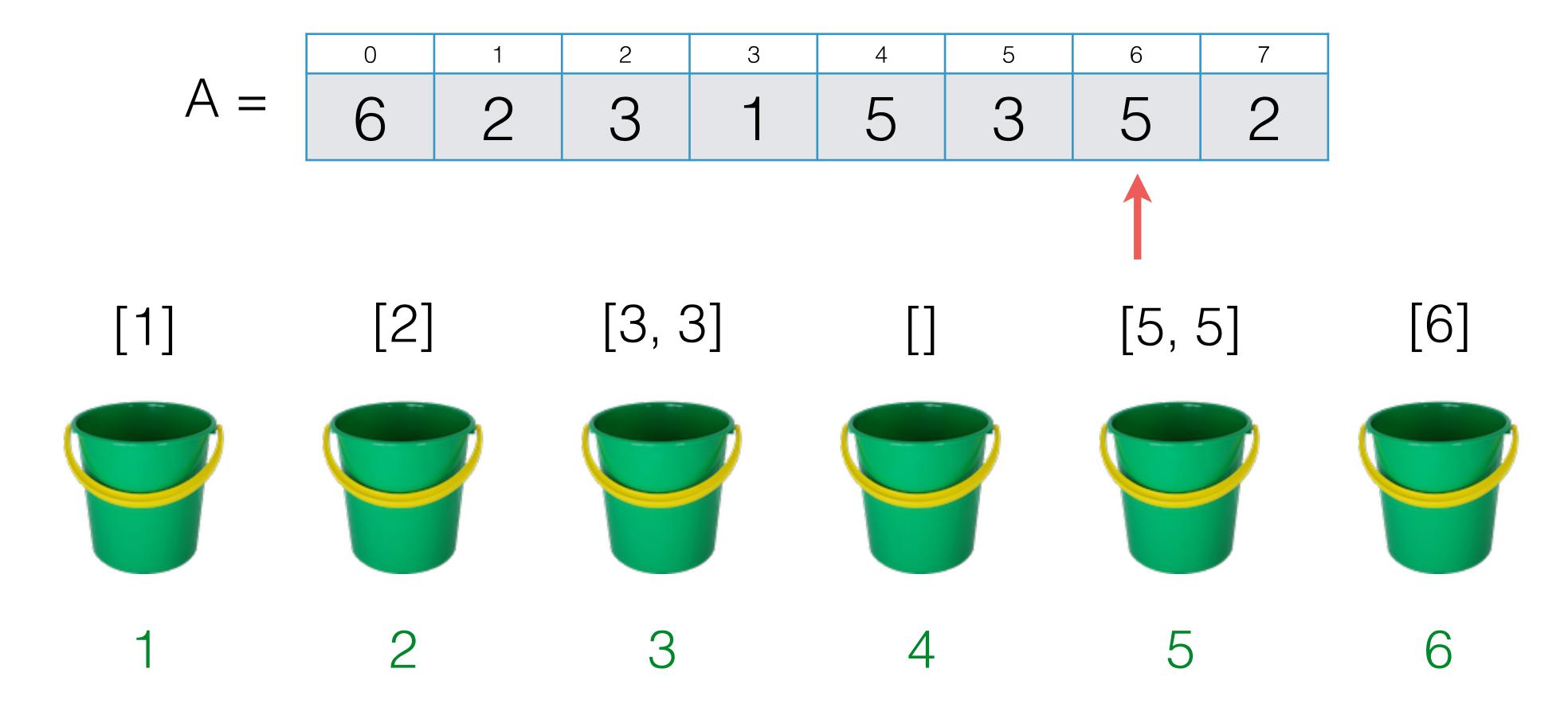


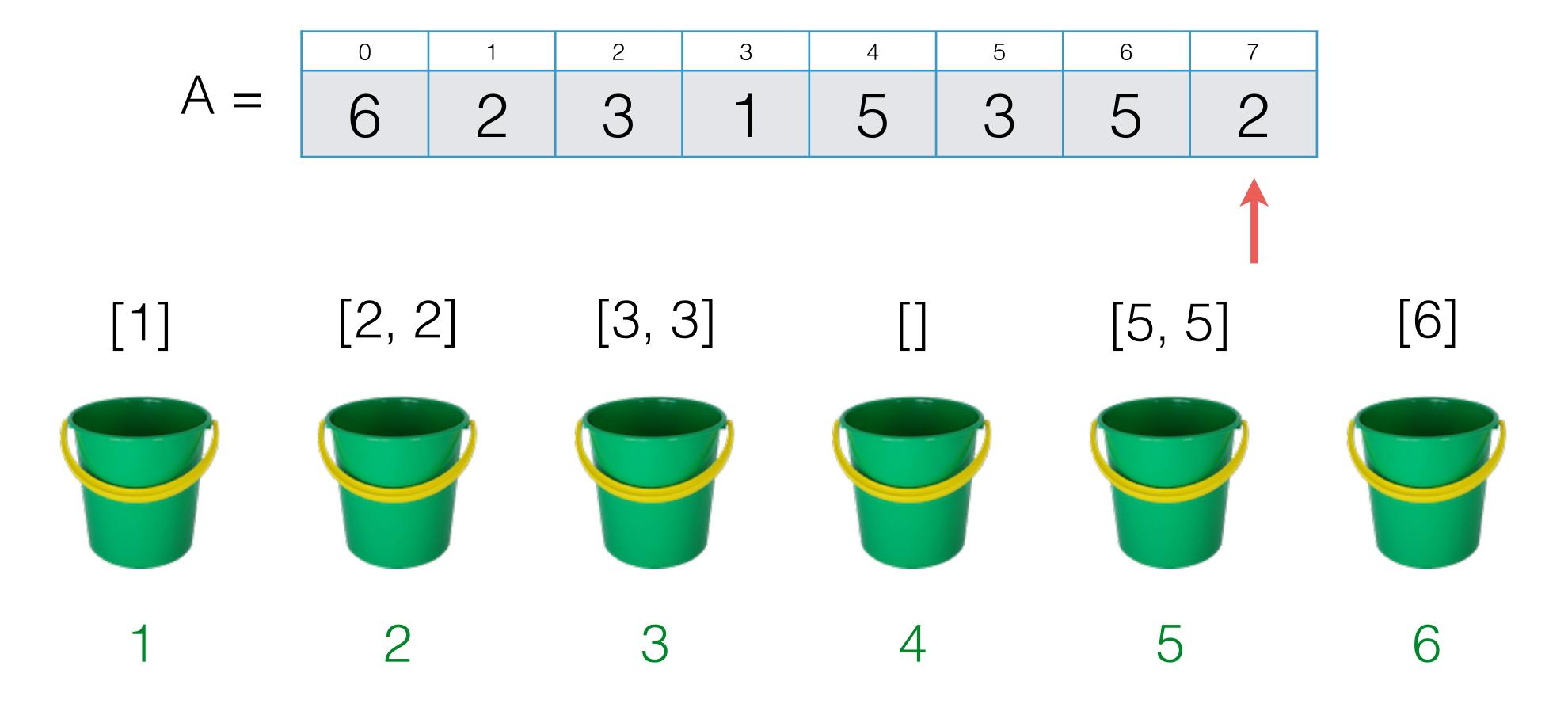


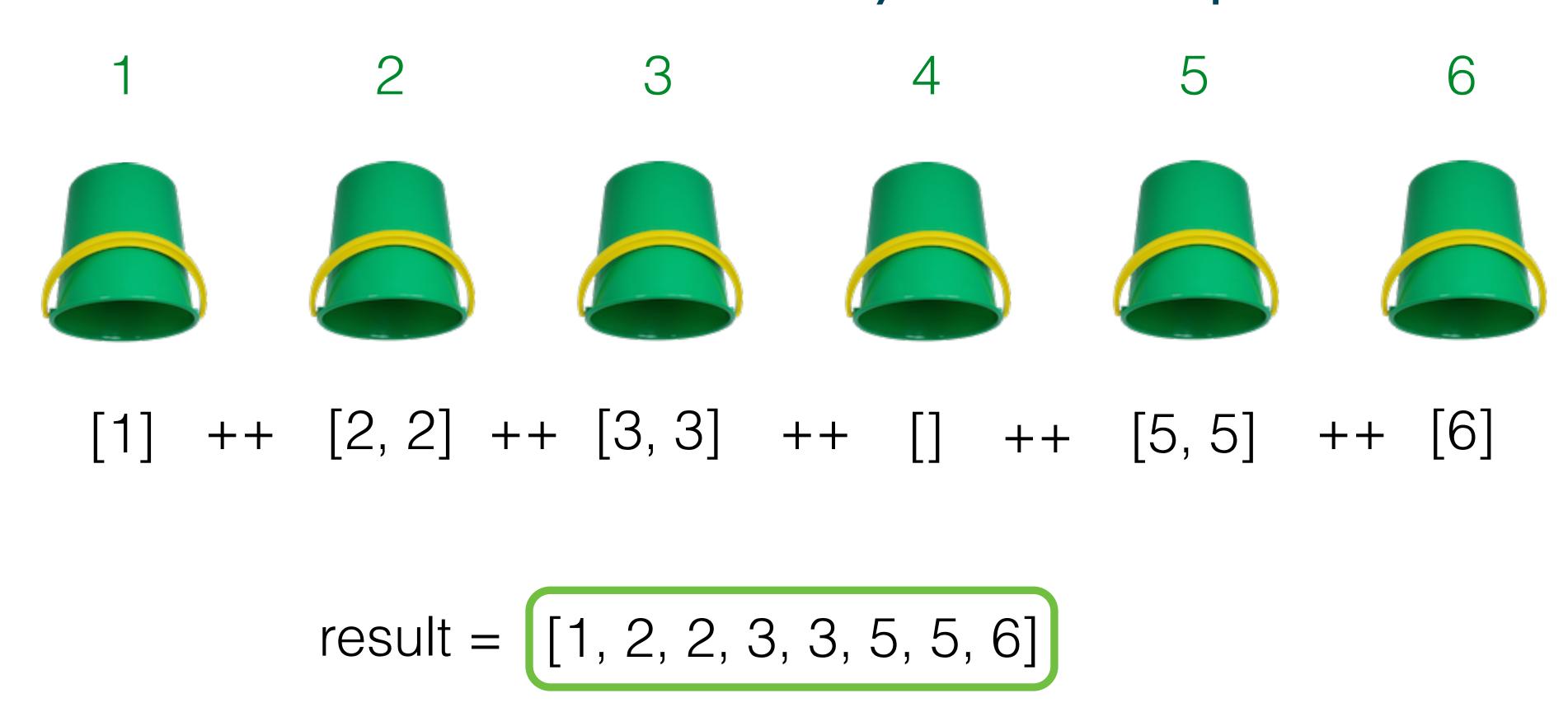












Bucket Sort Worst-case Complexity

Overall complexity: O(n + k)

Remarks on Bucket Sort

- Bucket sort works for any sets of keys, known in advance;
- For instance, it can work with a pre-defined set of strings;
- But what if the size k of the set of keys is much larger than n?
 - The complexity O(n + k) is not so good in this case.

Stability of Sorting Algorithms

A sorting algorithm is **stable** if, when two records in the original array have the same key, they stay in *their original order* in the sorted result.

- Is Insertion sort stable?
 - Yes
- What about Bucket sort?
 - Yes
- Merge sort?
 - Maybe. It depends on how we divide the list into two and how we merge them, resolving situations for elements with the same key.
- Quicksort?
 - Maybe. Depends on the implementation of the partition step.

Radix sort

- An enhancement of the *Bucket sort*'s idea, for the case when the size of key set k in the array A is *very large*;
- · Idea: partition each key using its decimal representation:

```
• key = a + 10b + 100c + 1000d + ...
```

- then, sort keys by each register of the decimal representation, right-to-left, using Bucket sort
- For each internal bucket sort k = 10 (the base of decimal representation);
- Essentially:

```
RadixSort(A) {
   BucketSort A by a with k = 10;
   BucketSort A by b with k = 10;
   BucketSort A by c with k = 10;
...
}
```

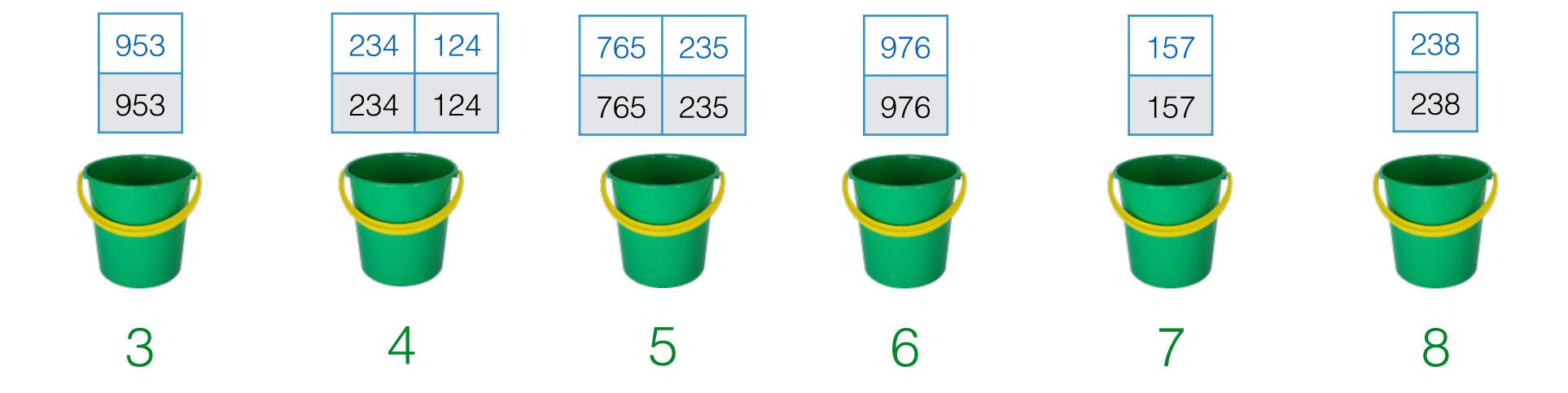
Radix sort

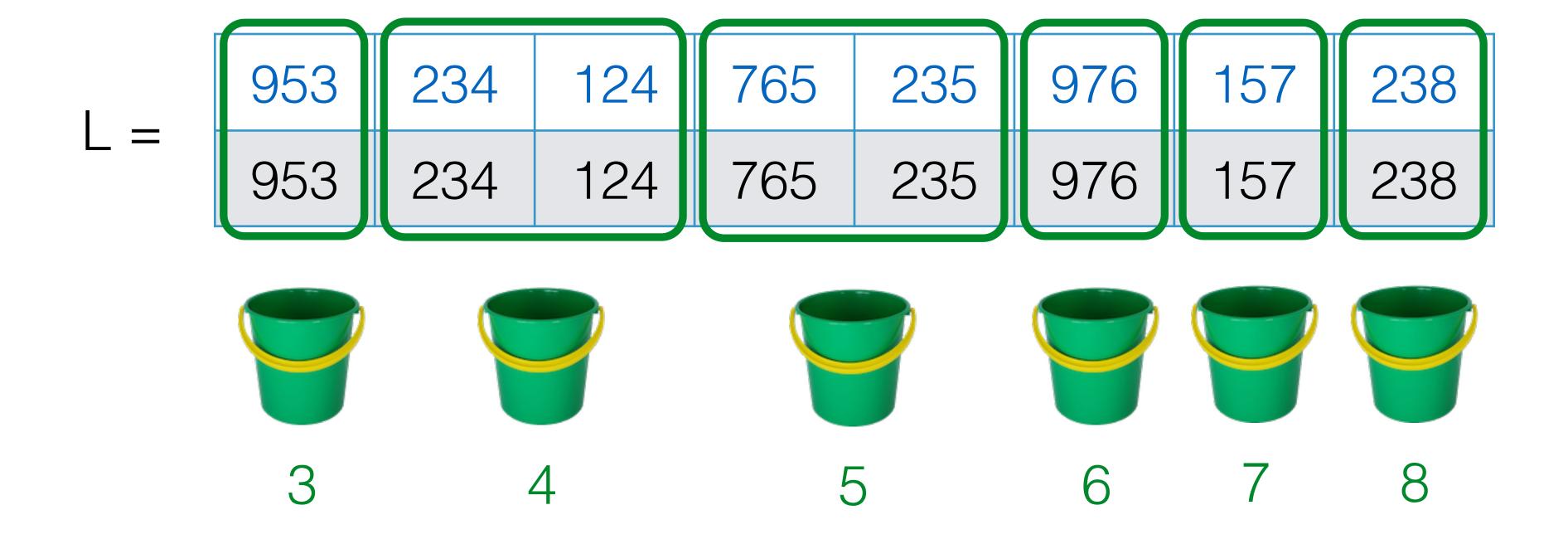
(in very crude pseudocode)

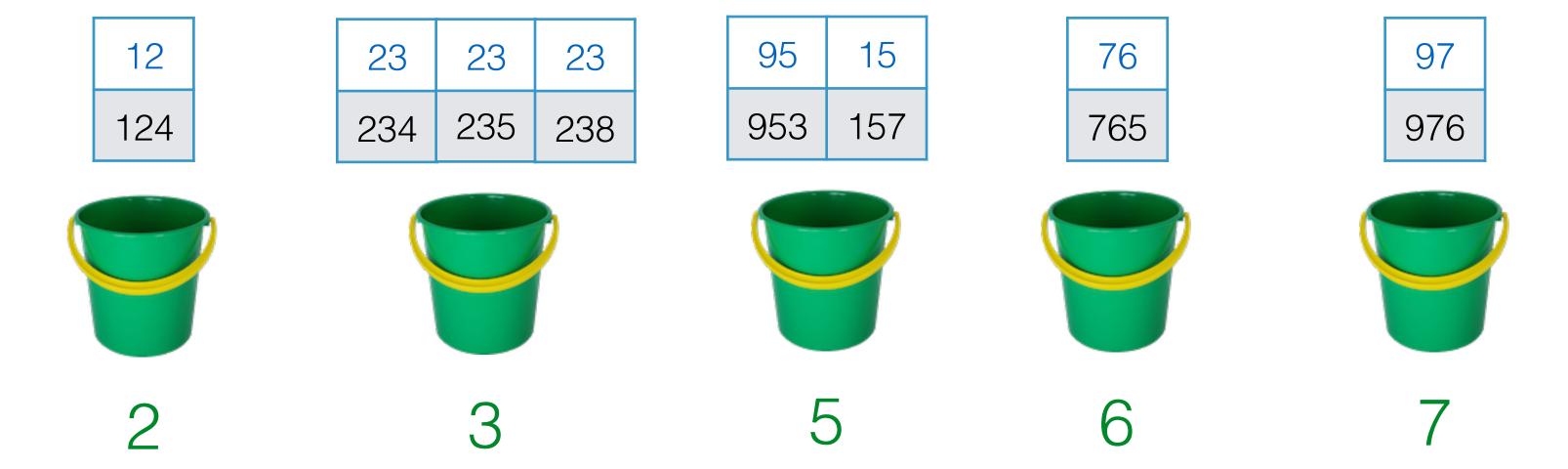
```
RadixSort(A) {
  L := zip(A.keys, A);
  while (some key in L.fst is non zero) {
    L := BucketSort(L[keys mod 10], 10); // sort by last register
    L.fst := L.fst / 10; // shift L keys' representation to the next register
  }
  return L.snd; // return sorted second component
}
```

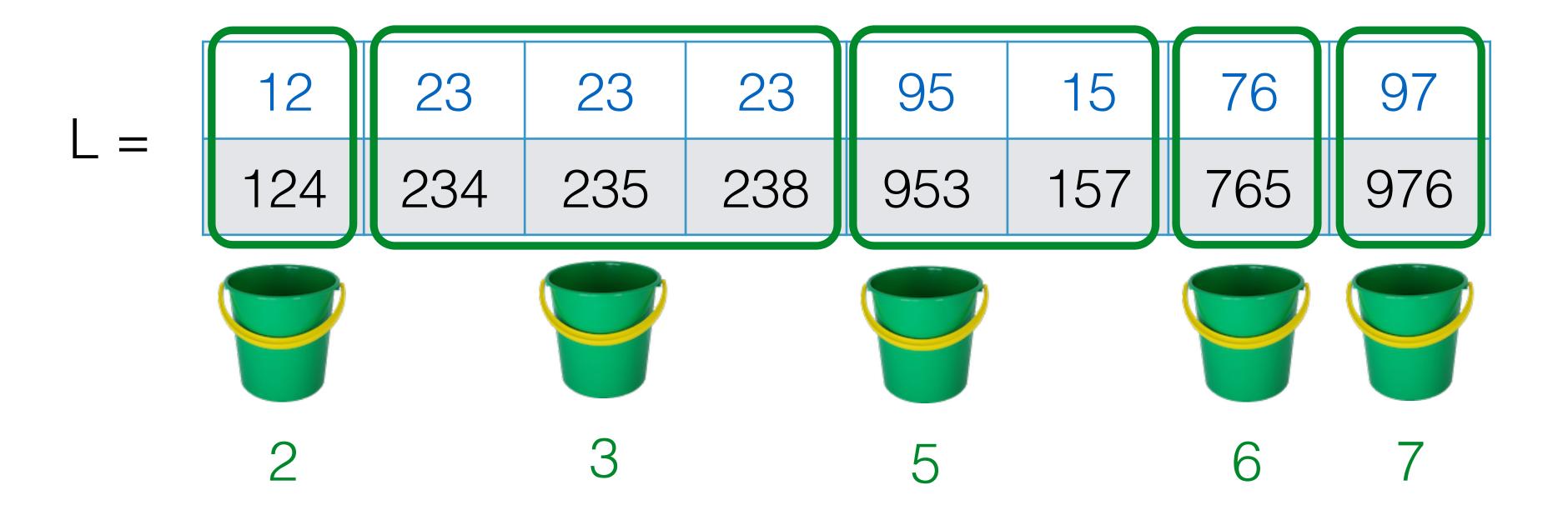
	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Α =	234	124	765	238	976	157	235	953

l	234	124	765	238	976	157	235	953
L =	234	124	765	238	976	157	235	953





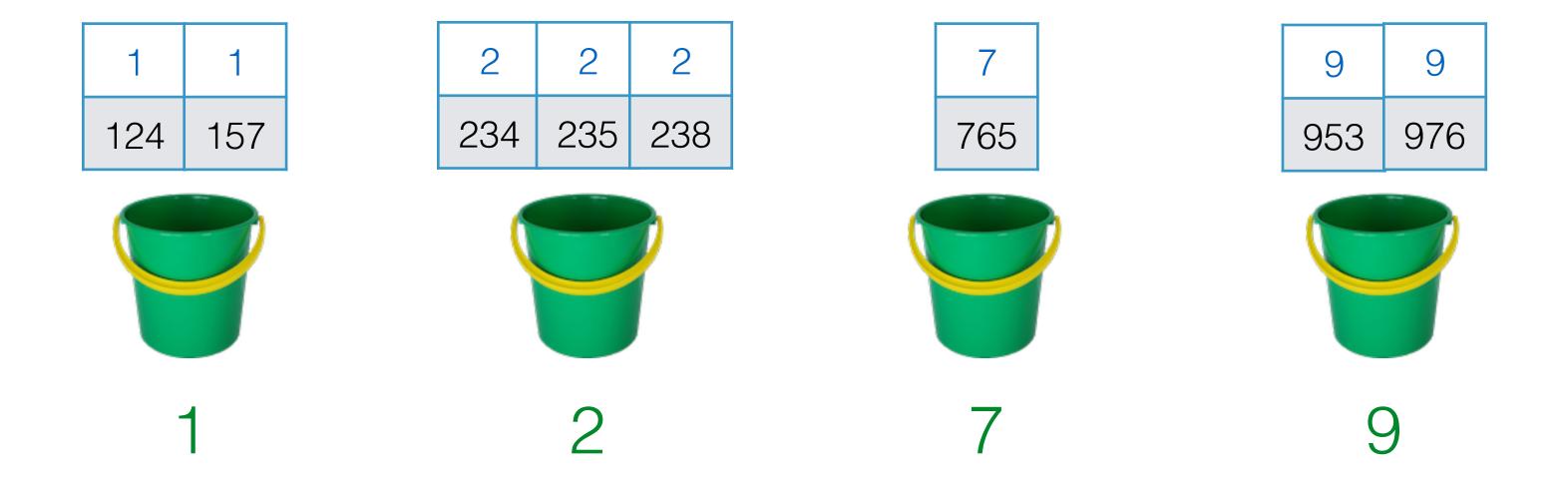


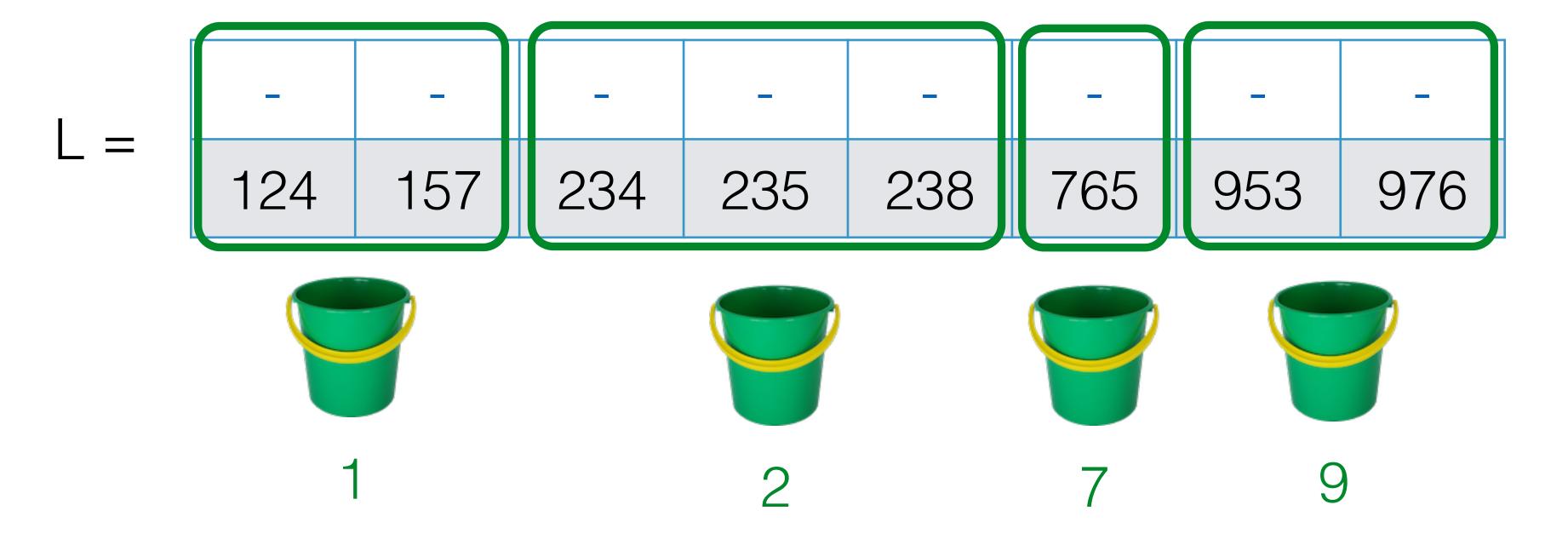


• Thanks to stability of Bucket sort, values within buckets remain sorted with respect to lower registers (e.g., for bucket 3).

 1
 2
 2
 2
 9
 1
 7
 9

 124
 234
 235
 238
 953
 157
 765
 976





0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
124	157	234	235	238	765	953	976

Complexity of Radix sort

```
RadixSort(A) {
O(n)
L := zip(A.keys, A);

while (some key in L.fst is non zero) {
L := BucketSort(L[keys mod 10], 10);
L.fst := L.fst / 10;
}

return L.snd;
}
```

Overall complexity: O(n log k)