

- Data Structures and Algorithms
- Kyuseok Shim
- Soeecs, SNU.

Sorting Algorithms in General

Sorting: Permuting a sequence of numbers into ascending order

O(n²) Sorting Algorithms:

Insertion Sort, Bubble Sort

O(*n*log*n*) Sorting Algorithms

- Heap Sort: Based on Heap data structure
- Quick Sort: Widely regarded as the "fastest" algorithm
- Merge Sort: Stable algorithm; if two elements have the same value, then their relative position after sorting is the same

Is it possible to sort faster than O(*n*log*n*) time?

- Any comparison-based sorting must make at least O(nlogn)
 Comparisons in the worst-case
- Linear-Time sorting algorithms for SMALL integers

Consists of N-1 passes

- For pass p = 1 through N-1, it ensures that the elements in position 0 through p are in sorted order.
- Use the fact that the elements 0 through p-1 are already known to be in sorted order.

void insertionSort()

```
{
1
2
        int j;
3
        for (int p = 1; p < n; p++)
4
        {
                 int tmp = a[p];
5
                 for (j = p; j > 0 \&\& tmp < a[j-1]; j--)
6
                          a[j] = a[j-1];
7
                 a[j] = tmp;
8
         }
9
10 }
```

Original	34	8	64	51	32	21	Position Moved
After p =1	8	34	64	51	32	21	1
After p = 2	8	34	64	51	32	21	0
After p = 3	8	34	51	64	32	21	1
After p = 4	8	32	34	51	64	21	3
After p = 5	8	21	32	34	51	64	4

THEOREM 7.1

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- Proof:
 - For any list L, consider L', the list in reverse order.
 - Consider any pair of two elements in the list (x,y), with y > x.
 - In exactly one of L and L', this ordered pair represents an inversion
 - The total number of these pairs in a list L and its reverse L' is N(N-1)/2.
 - Thus, an average list has half this amount.

THEOREM 7.1

- Any algorithm that sorts by exchanging adjacent elements requires Omega(N²)
- Proof:
 - Each swap removes only one inversion so Omega(N²) swaps are required.

Divide and Conquer

- This is more than just a military strategy, it is also a method of algorithm design that has created such efficient algorithms as Merge Sort, Quick Sort
- In terms or algorithms, this method has three distinct steps:
 - Divide: If the input size is too large to deal with in a straightforward manner, divide the data into two or more disjoint subsets.
 - Recurse: Use divide and conquer to solve the subproblems associated with the data subsets.
 - Conquer: Take the solutions to the subproblems and "merge" these solutions into a solution for the original problem.

Merge Sort

- Divide:
 - If S has at least two elements, remove all the elements from S and put them into two sequences, S 1 and S 2, each containing about half of the elements of S. (i.e. S 1 contains the first n/2 elements and S 2 contains the remaining n/2 elements.
- **Recurse**: Recursive sort sequences *S* 1 and *S* 2.
- Conquer: Merge the sorted sequences S1 and S2 into a unique sorted sequence S.

Merge(A,p,q,r)

```
n1 <- q - p + 1
n2 <- r - q
create arrays L[1..n1+1] and R[1..n2+1]
for i <- 1 to n1
do L[i] <- A[p+i-1]
for j <- 1 to n2
do R[j] <- A[q+j]
L[n1+1] <- infinity
R[n2+1] <- infinity
```

Merge(A,p,q,r)

```
i <- 1

j <- 1

for k <- p to r

do if L[i] <= R[j]

then A[k] <- L[I]

i <- i + 1

else A[k] <- R[j]

j <- j + 1
```

Loop Invariant:

At the start of each iteration for the for-loop above, the subarray A[p..k-1] contains the k-p smallest elements of L[1..n1+1] and R[1..n2+1], in sorted order. Moreover, L[I] and R[j] are the smallest elements of their arrays that have not been copied back into A.



















- Q1: How deep is this tree?
- Q2: How much memory is needed for merge sort?

MergeSort(A,p,r)
if p < r
Then q = floor((p+r)/2)
MergeSort(A,p,q)
MergeSort(A,q+1,r)
Merge(A,p,q,r)</pre>

Merge Sort

Merge() is the procedure to merge two sorted lists.



Recurrence equation : T(1) = 1 $T(n) = 2T(\frac{n}{2}) + n$

$$\frac{T(n)}{n} = \frac{T(1)}{1} + \log n$$
$$T(n) = n\log n + n = O(n\log n)$$

Merge Sort

- Merging two half arrays S1, S2 into a full array S requires three pointers, one for S1, another for S2, and the other for S.
- The formal analysis result coincides with the intuitive count of the big Oh, namely, the area taken by the merge sort tree.
- The amount of memory needed for merge sort
 - An extra array

Given an array A[1...r]

Quick Sort

- Divide: The array A[1...r] is *partition*ed into two nonempty subarrays A[1...p-1] and A[p+1...r] around the pivot A[p] such that all elements in A[1...p-1] <= A[p] <= all elements in A[p+1...r]
- Conquer: Each of A[1...p] and A[p+1...r] are sorted by recursive calls to Quick sort

```
Qucksort(A,1,r) {
    if (1 >= r) return;
    p=Partition(A,1,r);
    Quicksort(A,1,p-1);
    Quicksort(A,p+1,r);
}
```

Quick Sort: Partition

Shaded region: not yet partitioned, white region: Partitioned

First, choose the pivot somehow, let's say, it is A[0]=5. Second, Move the pivot at the end of the array. Move i to the right until finding the element > the pivot, and Move j to the left until finding the element < the pivot.



Performance of Quick Sort

T(n) = T(i) + T(n - i - 1) + n(Y(0)) = T(1) = 0)Performance depends on the selection of pivot **worst- case partitioning** divide *n* - 1 and 1 element

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

= T(n-2) + (n-1) + n
= T(1) + $\sum_{i=2}^{n} i + n$
= O(n²)

best - case partitioning divide $\frac{n}{2}$ and $\frac{n}{2}$ elements

$$T(n) = 2T(\frac{n}{2}) + n$$
$$= 2T(\frac{n}{4}) + 2n$$
$$= O(n\log n)$$

Performance of Quick Sort-Cont.

Average-case partitioning:

Assume that the size of a partition is equally likely(that is $\frac{1}{2}$)

probability is $\frac{1}{n}$)

The average value of T(i) of T(n-i-1) is $\frac{1}{n}\sum_{j=0}^{n-1}T(j)$

$$T(n) = \frac{2}{n} \left[\sum_{j=0}^{n-1} T(j) \right] + n$$

We already know $T(n) = O(n \log n)$ from the average case analysis of unbalanced binary search tree

This average performance requires good selection of pivot!

 Median-of-Partitioning: take the median of the left, right, and center elements in A[1...r]

Average Time Complexity

$$T_{avg}(n) \le cn + \frac{1}{n} \sum_{j=1}^{n} (T_{avg}(j-1) + T_{avg}(n-j)) = cn + \frac{2}{n} \sum_{j=0}^{n-1} T_{avg}(j), n \ge 2$$
(7.1)

We may assume $T_{avg}(0) \le b$ and $T_{avg}(1) \le b$ for some constant b. We shall now show $T_{avg}(n) \le kn \log_e n$ for $n \ge 2$ and k = 2(b + c). The proof is by induction on n. Induction base: For n = 2, Eq. (7.1) yields $T_{avg}(2) \le 2c + 2b \le kn \log_e 2$. Induction hypothesis: Assume $T_{avg}(n) \le kn \log_e n$ for $1 \le n < m$. Induction step: From Eq. (7.1) and the induction hypothesis we have

$$T_{avg}(m) \le cm + \frac{4b}{m} + \frac{2}{m} \sum_{j=2}^{m-1} T_{avg}(j) \le cm + \frac{4b}{m} + \frac{2k}{m} \sum_{j=2}^{m-1} j \log_e j$$
(7.2)

Since $j \log_e j$ is an increasing function of j. Eq. (7.2) yields

$$T_{avg}(m) \le cm + \frac{4b}{m} + \frac{2k}{m} \int_{2}^{m} x \log_{e} x \, dx = cm + \frac{4b}{m} + \frac{2k}{m} \left[\frac{m^{2} \log_{e} m}{2} - \frac{m^{2}}{4} \right]$$
$$= cm + \frac{4b}{m} + km \log_{e} m - \frac{km}{2} \le km \log_{e} m, \text{ for } m \ge 2 \equiv$$

Average Time Complexity

T(n) T(1) n+1 --- = --- + 2 c sigma 1/i n+1 2 i = 3

Sigma $1/i = O(\log n)$

Thus, $T(n) = O(n \log n)$