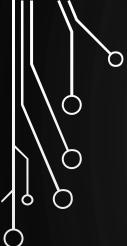


CHAPTER 12 SORTING AND SELECTION

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ACKNOWLEDGEMENT: THESE SLIDES ARE ADAPTED FROM SLIDES PROVIDED WITH DATA STRUCTURES AND ALGORITHMS IN JAVA, GOODRICH, TAMASSIA AND GOLDWASSER (WILEY 2016)



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DIVIDE AND CONQUER ALGORITHMS

DIVIDE AND CONQUER ALGORITHMS ANALYSIS WITH RECURRENCE EQUATIONS

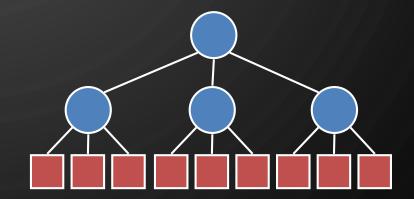
 Divide-and-conquer is a general algorithm design paradigm:

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- Divide: divide the input data S into k (disjoint) subsets S_1, S_2, \ldots, S_k
- Recur: solve the subproblems recursively
- Conquer: combine the solutions for S_1, S_2, \dots, S_k into a solution for S
- The base case for the recursion are subproblems of constant size
- Analysis can be done using recurrence equations (relations)



DIVIDE AND CONQUER ALGORITHMS ANALYSIS WITH RECURRENCE EQUATIONS

• When the size of all subproblems is the same (frequently the case) the recurrence equation representing the algorithm is:

$$T(n) = D(n) + kT\left(\frac{n}{c}\right) + C(n)$$

Where

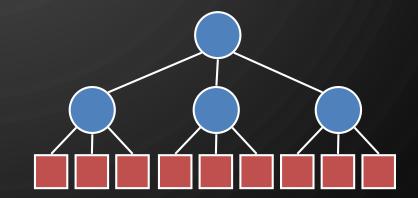
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- D(n) is the cost of dividing S into the k subproblems S_1, S_2, \dots, S_k
- There are k subproblems, each of size $\frac{n}{c}$ that will be solved recursively
- C(n) is the cost of combining the subproblem solutions to get the solution for S



EXERCISE RECURRENCE EQUATION SETUP

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- Algorithm transform multiplication of two *n*-bit integers *I* and *J* into multiplication of $\left(\frac{n}{2}\right)$ -bit integers and some additions/shifts
- Where does recursion happen in this algorithm?
- 2. Rewrite the step(s) of the algorithm to show this clearly.

Algorithm multiply(I, J)**Input:** *n*-bit integers *I*, *J* Output: I * J 1. if n > 1 then 2. Split I and I into high and low order halves: I_h, I_l, J_h, J_l 3. $x_1 \leftarrow I_h * J_h; \quad x_2 \leftarrow I_h * J_l;$ 4. $x_3 \leftarrow I_l * J_h; \quad x_4 \leftarrow I_l * J_l$ 5. $Z \leftarrow x_1 * 2^n + x_2 * 2^{\frac{n}{2}} + x_3 * 2^{\frac{n}{2}} + x_4$ 6.else 7. $Z \leftarrow I * I$ 8. return Z

Q

EXERCISE RECURRENCE EQUATION SETUP

- Algorithm transform multiplication of two *n*-bit integers *I* and *J* into multiplication of $\left(\frac{n}{2}\right)$ -bit integers and some additions/shifts
- 3. Assuming that additions and shifts of n-bit numbers can be done in O(n) time, describe a recurrence equation showing the running time of this multiplication algorithm

Algorithm multiply(I,J)**Input:** *n*-bit integers *I*, *J* Output: *I* * *J* **1. if** n > 1 then 2. Split I and J into high and low order halves: I_h, I_l, J_h, J_l 3. $x_1 \leftarrow \text{multiply}(I_h, J_h); x_2 \leftarrow \text{multiply}(I_h, J_l)$ 4. $x_3 \leftarrow \text{multiply}(I_l, J_h); x_4 \leftarrow \text{multiply}(I_l, J_l)$ 5. $Z \leftarrow x_1 * 2^n + x_2 * 2^{\frac{n}{2}} + x_3 * 2^{\frac{n}{2}} + x_4$ 6. else 7. $Z \leftarrow I * I$ 8. return Z

Q

EXERCISE RECURRENCE EQUATION SETUP

- Algorithm transform multiplication of two *n*-bit integers *I* and *J* into multiplication of $\left(\frac{n}{2}\right)$ -bit integers and some additions/shifts
- The recurrence equation for this algorithm is:
 - $T(n) = 4T\left(\frac{n}{2}\right) + O(n)$
 - The solution is $O(n^2)$ which is the same as naïve algorithm

Algorithm multiply(I,J)**Input:** *n*-bit integers *I*, *J* Output: *I* * *J* 1. if n > 1 then 2. Split I and J into high and low order halves: I_h, I_l, J_h, J_l 3. $x_1 \leftarrow \text{multiply}(I_h, J_h); x_2 \leftarrow \text{multiply}(I_h, J_l)$ 4. $x_3 \leftarrow \text{multiply}(I_l, J_h); x_4 \leftarrow \text{multiply}(I_l, J_l)$ 5. $Z \leftarrow x_1 * 2^n + x_2 * 2^{\frac{n}{2}} + x_3 * 2^{\frac{n}{2}} + x_4$ 6. else 7. $Z \leftarrow I * I$ 8. return Z

DIVIDE AND CONQUER ALGORITHMS ANALYSIS WITH RECURRENCE EQUATIONS

- Remaining question: how do we solve recurrence relations?
 - Iterative substitution continually expand a recurrence to yield a summation, then bound the summation
 - Analyze the recursion tree determine work per level and number of levels in a recursion tree. This is not a proof technique, more of an intuitive sketch of a proof
 - Master theorem (method) rule to go directly to solution of recurrence. This is slightly beyond scope of course, but we will see it anyway



ITERATIVE SUBSTITUTION

- In the iterative substitution, or "plug-and-chug," technique, we iteratively apply the recurrence equation to itself and see if we can find a pattern. Example:
 - $T(n) = 2T\left(\frac{n}{2}\right) + bn$

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- $= 2\left(2T\left(\frac{n}{2^2}\right) + b\left(\frac{n}{2}\right)\right) + bn = 2^2T\left(\frac{n}{2^2}\right) + 2bn$
- $= 2^3 T\left(\frac{n}{2^3}\right) + 3bn$
- $= 2^i T\left(\frac{n}{2^i}\right) + ibn$

• So,

- Note that base, T(n) = b, case occurs when $2^i = n$. That is, $i = \log n$.
 - $T(n) = bn + n\log n = O(n\log n)$



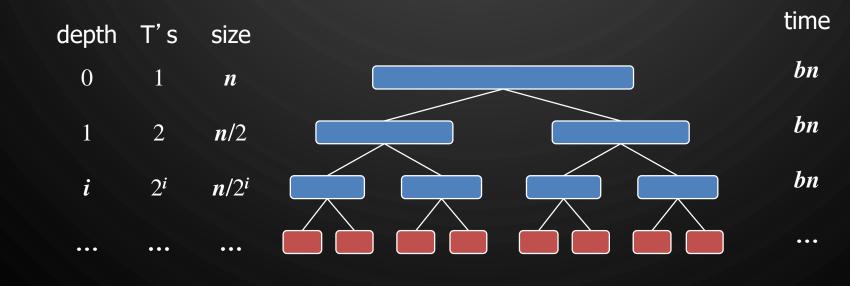
THE RECURSION TREE

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• Draw the recursion tree for the recurrence relation and look for a pattern. Example: $T(n) = 2T\left(\frac{n}{2}\right) + bn$



 \circ • Total time: $bn + bn \log n = O(n \log n)$

THE MASTER THEOREM (METHOD)

• Many divide-and-conquer algorithms have the form:

$$T(n) = aT\left(\frac{n}{b}\right) + f(n)$$

• The master theorem:

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If f(n) is O(n^{log_b a-ε}), then T(n) is Θ(n^{log_b a})
 If f(n) is Θ(n^{log_b a} log^k n), then T(n) is Θ(n^{log_b a} log^{k+1} n)
 If f(n) is Ω(n^{log_b a+ε}), then T(n) is Θ(f(n)), provided af (ⁿ/_b) ≤ δf(n) for some δ < 1

Examples

•
$$T(n) = 4T\left(\frac{n}{2}\right) + n$$

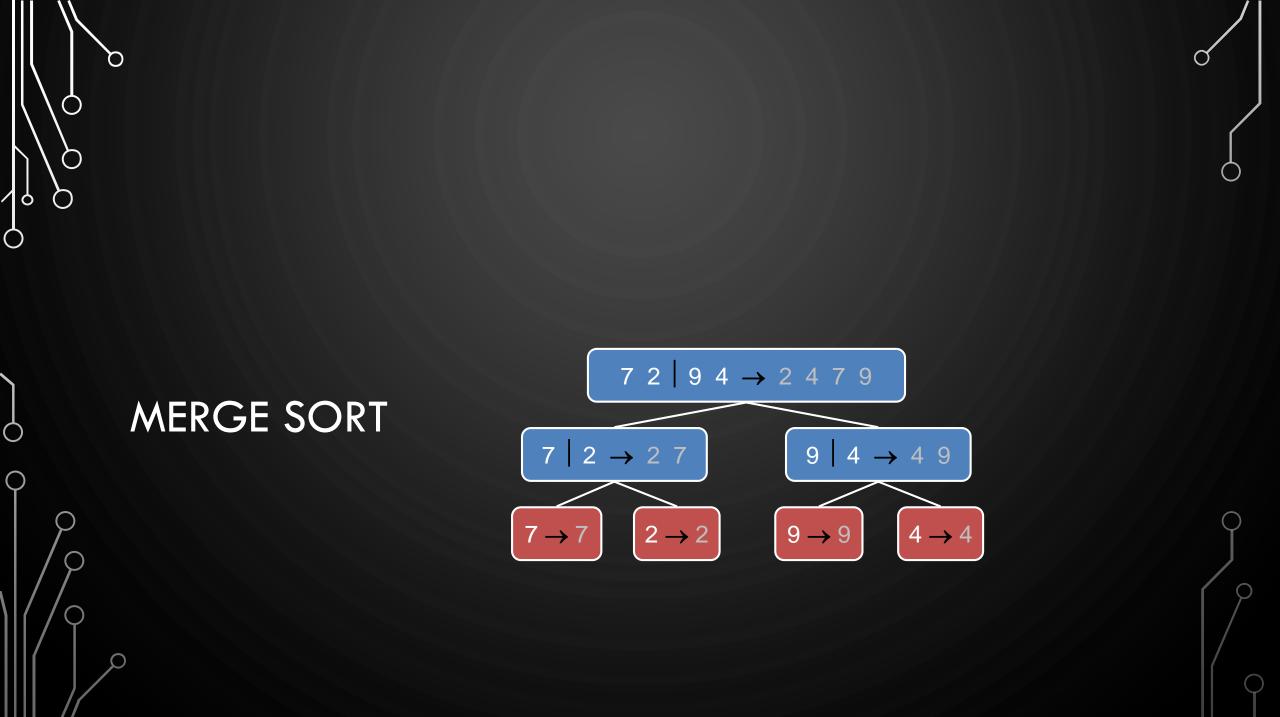
• $O(n^2)$

•
$$T(n) = T\left(\frac{n}{2}\right) + 1$$

• $O(\log n)$, (binary search)

•
$$T(n) = T\left(\frac{n}{3}\right) + n\log n$$

• $O(n \log n)$



MERGE-SORT

- Merge-sort is based on the divide-andconquer paradigm. It consists of three steps:
 - Divide: partition input sequence S into two sequences S_1 and S_2 of about $\frac{n}{2}$ elements each
 - Recur: recursively sort S_1 and S_2
 - Conquer: merge S₁ and S₂ into a sorted sequence
- What is the recurrence relation?

Algorithm mergeSort(S,C) Input: Sequence S of n elements, Comparator C Output: Sequence S sorted according to C 1. if S.size() > 1 then 2. $(S_1,S_2) \leftarrow \text{partition}(S,\frac{n}{2})$ 3. $S_1 \leftarrow \text{mergeSort}(S_1,C)$ 4. $S_2 \leftarrow \text{mergeSort}(S_2,C)$ 5. $S \leftarrow \text{merge}(S_1,S_2)$ 6. return S

MERGE-SORT

- The running time of Merge Sort can be expressed by the recurrence equation: $T(n) = 2T\left(\frac{n}{2}\right) + M(n)$
- We need to determine M(n), the time to merge two sorted sequences each of size $\frac{n}{2}$.

Algorithm mergeSort(S,C) Input: Sequence S of n elements, Comparator C Output: Sequence S sorted according to C 1. if S.size() > 1 then 2. $(S_1,S_2) \leftarrow \text{partition}(S,\frac{n}{2})$ 3. $S_1 \leftarrow \text{mergeSort}(S_1,C)$ 4. $S_2 \leftarrow \text{mergeSort}(S_2,C)$ 5. $S \leftarrow \text{merge}(S_1,S_2)$ 6. return S

MERGING TWO SORTED SEQUENCES

- The conquer step of merge-sort consists of merging two sorted sequences A and B into a sorted sequence S containing the union of the elements of A and B
- Merging two sorted sequences, each with $\frac{n}{2}$ elements and implemented by means of a doubly linked list, takes O(n) time
 - M(n) = O(n)

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Algorithm merge(A,B)

Input: Sequences A, B with $\frac{n}{2}$ elements each **Output:** Sorted sequence of $A \cup B$ 1. $S \leftarrow \emptyset$ 2. while $\neg A$.isEmpty() $\land \neg B$.isEmpty() do **3.** if A.first() < B.first() then 4. S.addLast(A.removeFirst()) 5. else 6. S.addLast(B.removeFirst()) 7. while ¬A.isEmpty() do 8. S.addLast(A.removeFirst()) 9. while ¬B.isEmpty() do 10. S.addLast(B.removeFirst()) 11. return S

MERGE-SORT

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 So, the running time of Merge Sort can be expressed by the recurrence equation:

 $T(n) = 2T\left(\frac{n}{2}\right) + M(n)$ $= 2T\left(\frac{n}{2}\right) + O(n)$ $= O(n\log n)$

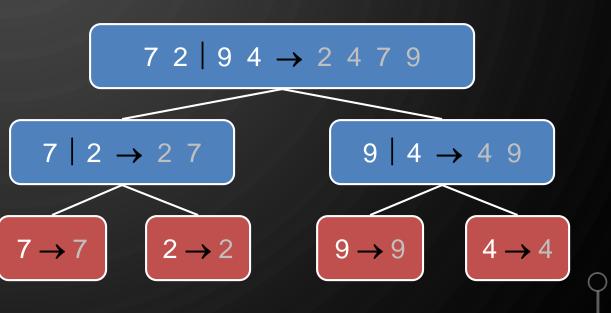
Algorithm mergeSort(S,C) Input: Sequence S of n elements, Comparator C Output: Sequence S sorted according to C 1. if S.size() > 1 then 2. $(S_1, S_2) \leftarrow \text{partition}(S, \frac{n}{2})$ 3. $S_1 \leftarrow \text{mergeSort}(S_1, C)$ 4. $S_2 \leftarrow \text{mergeSort}(S_2, C)$ 5. $S \leftarrow \text{merge}(S_1, S_2)$ 6. return S

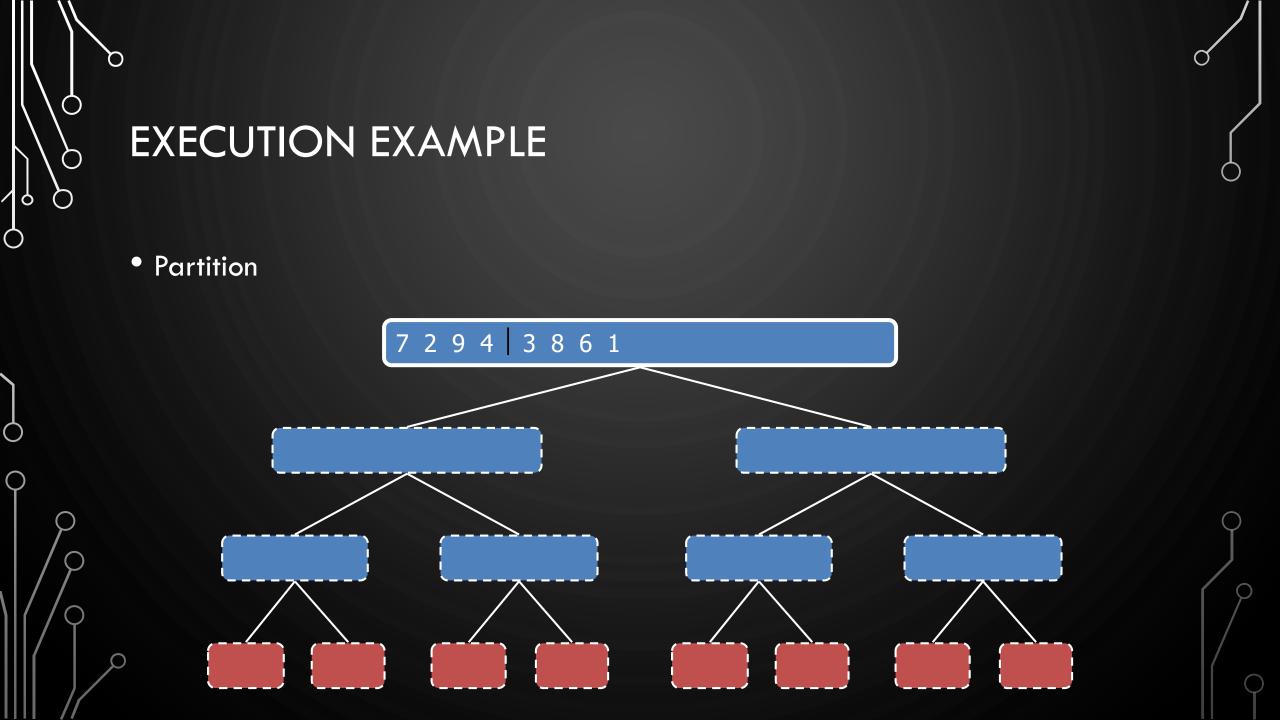
MERGE-SORT EXECUTION TREE (RECURSIVE CALLS)

- An execution of merge-sort is depicted by a binary tree
 - Each node represents a recursive call of merge-sort and stores
 - Unsorted sequence before the execution and its partition
 - Sorted sequence at the end of the execution
 - The root is the initial call

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 The leaves are calls on subsequences of size 0 or 1





EXECUTION EXAMPLE

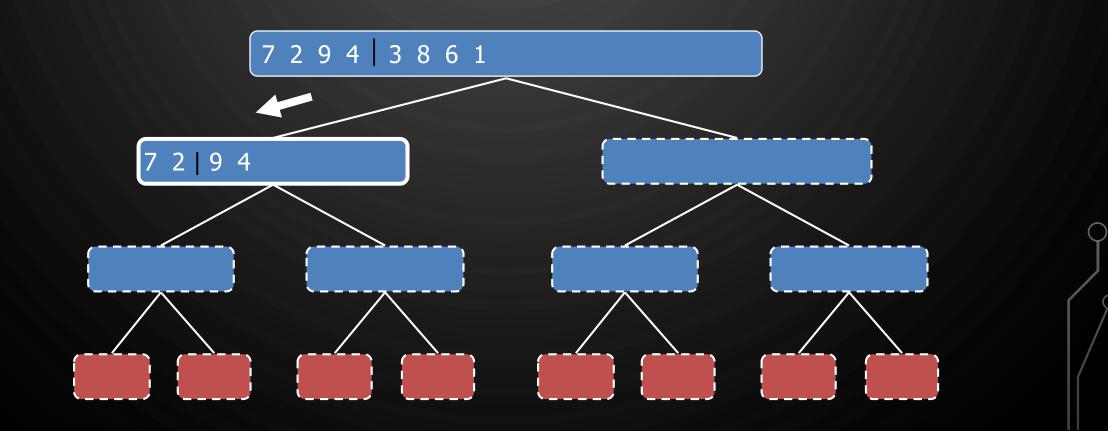
• Recursive Call, partition

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EXECUTION EXAMPLE

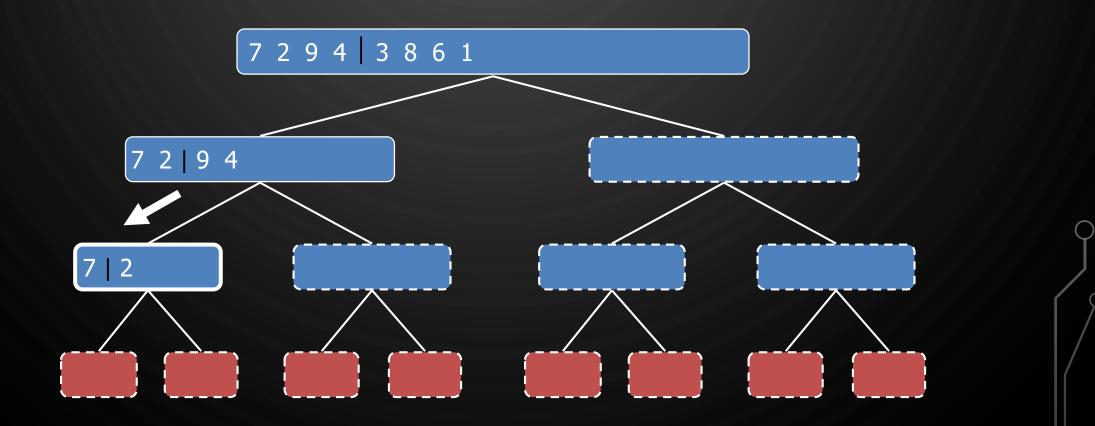
• Recursive Call, partition

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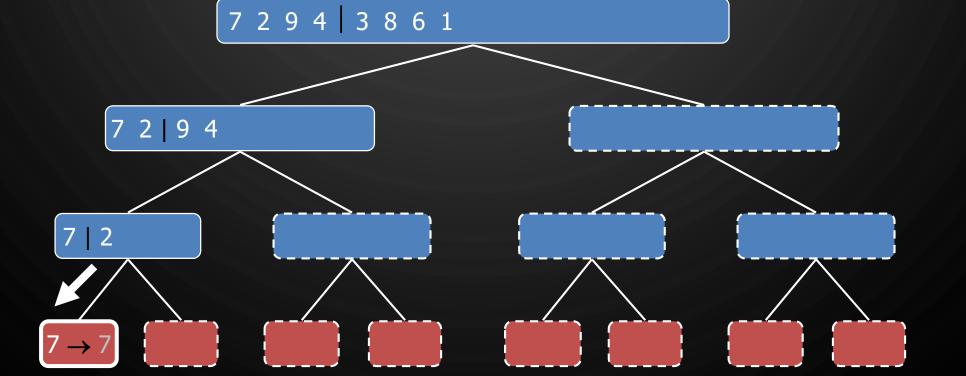
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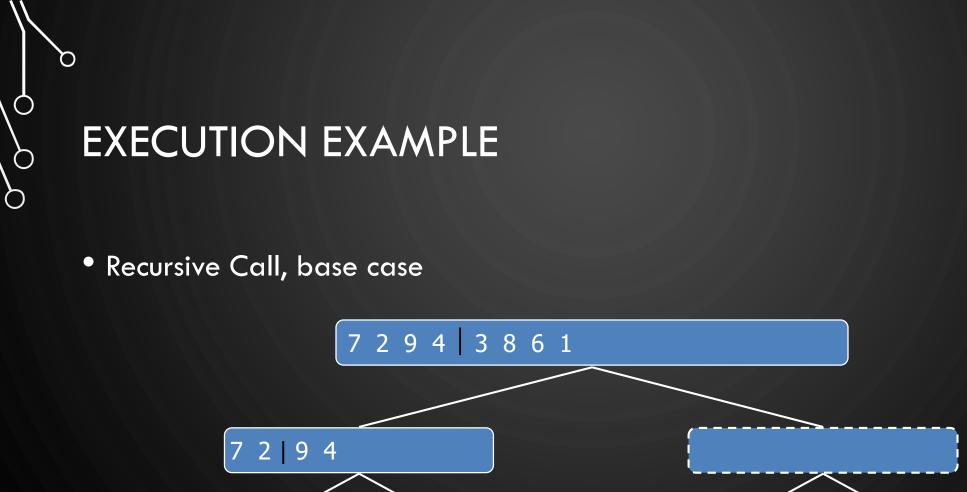
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• Recursive Call, base case





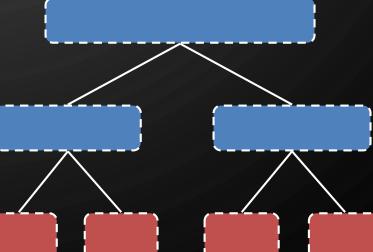
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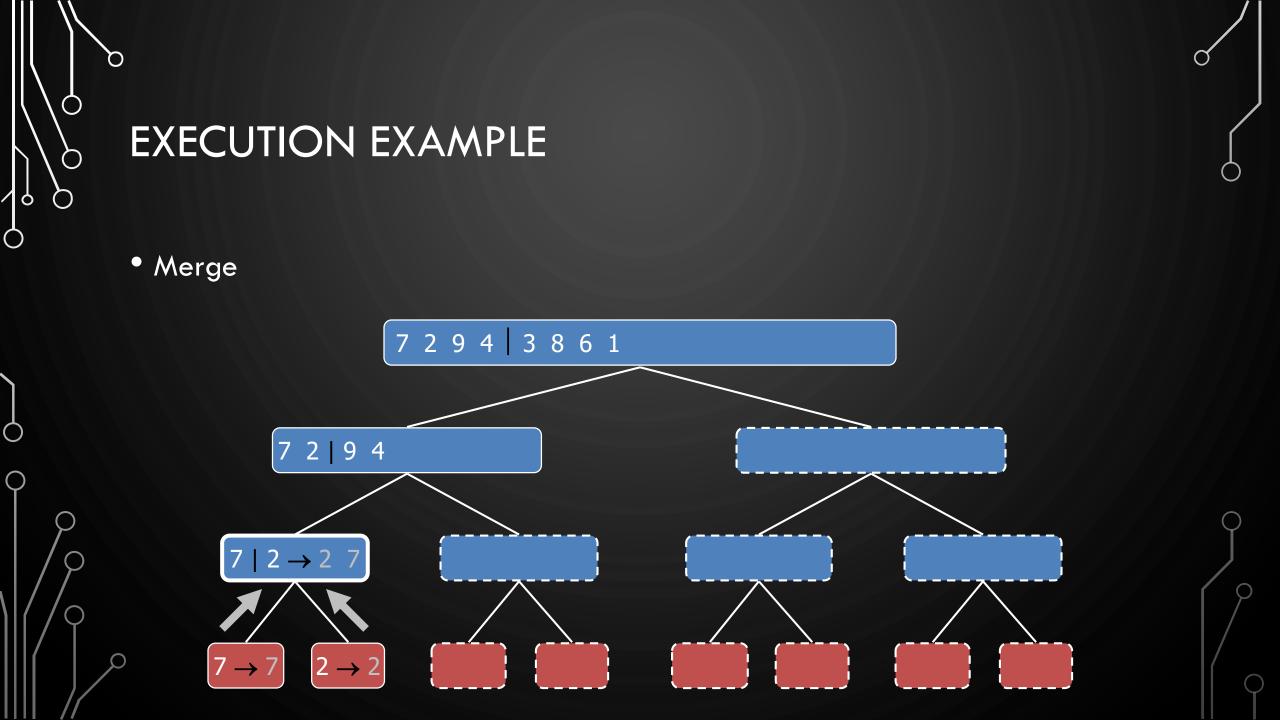
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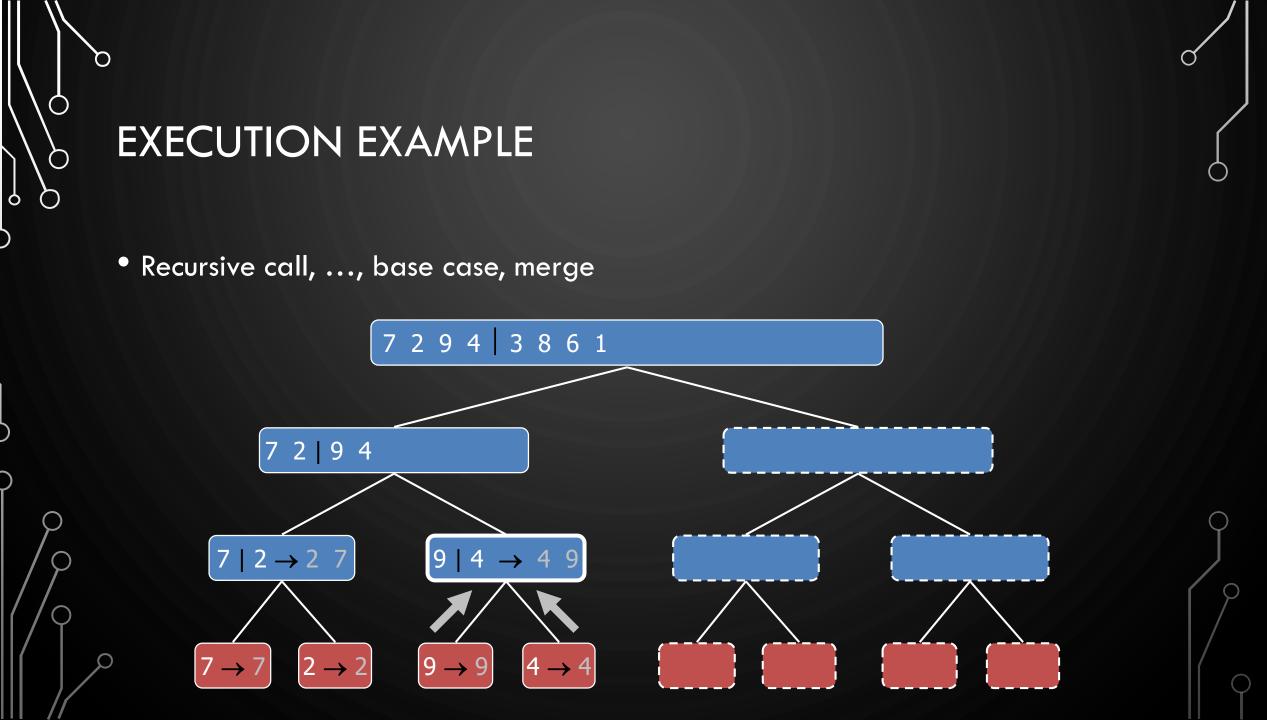
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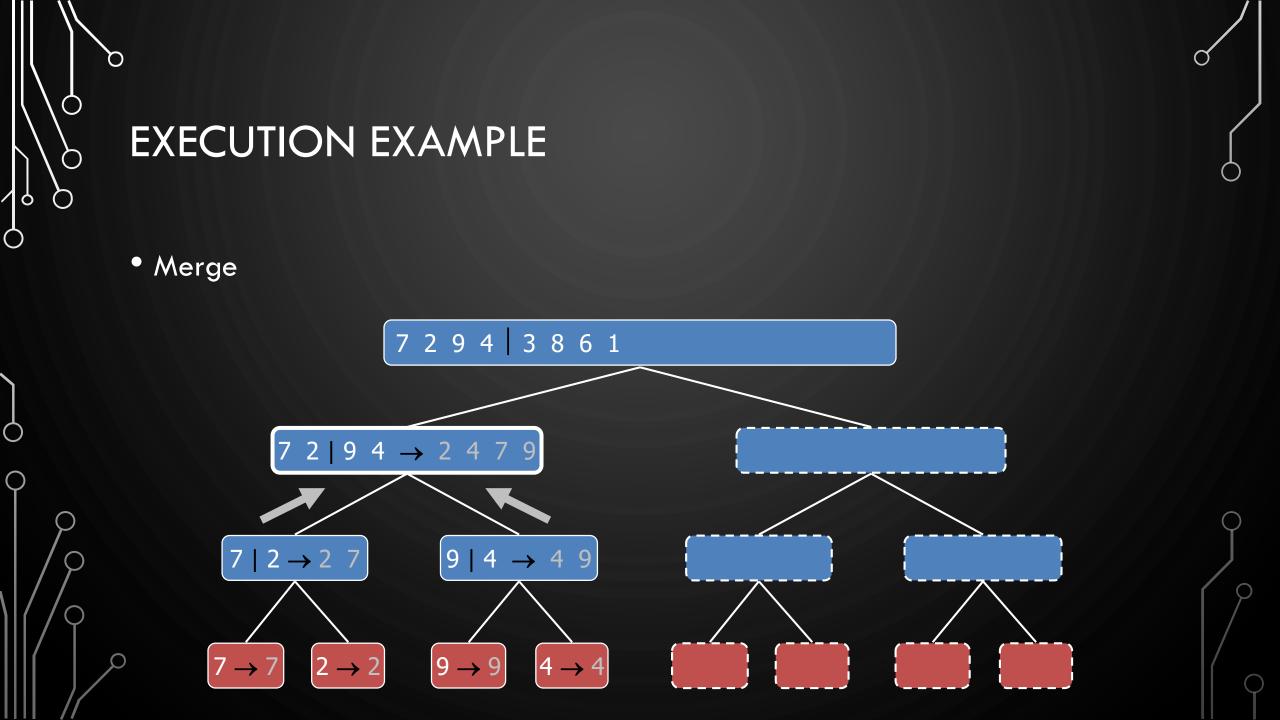
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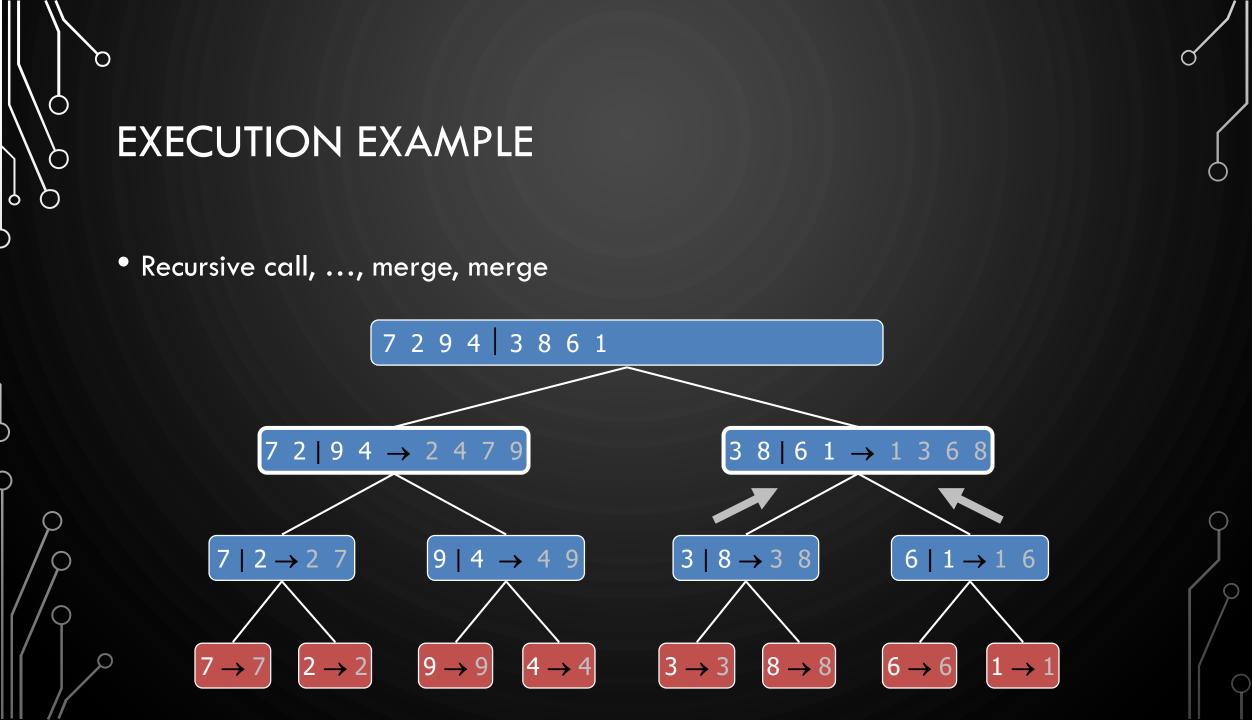
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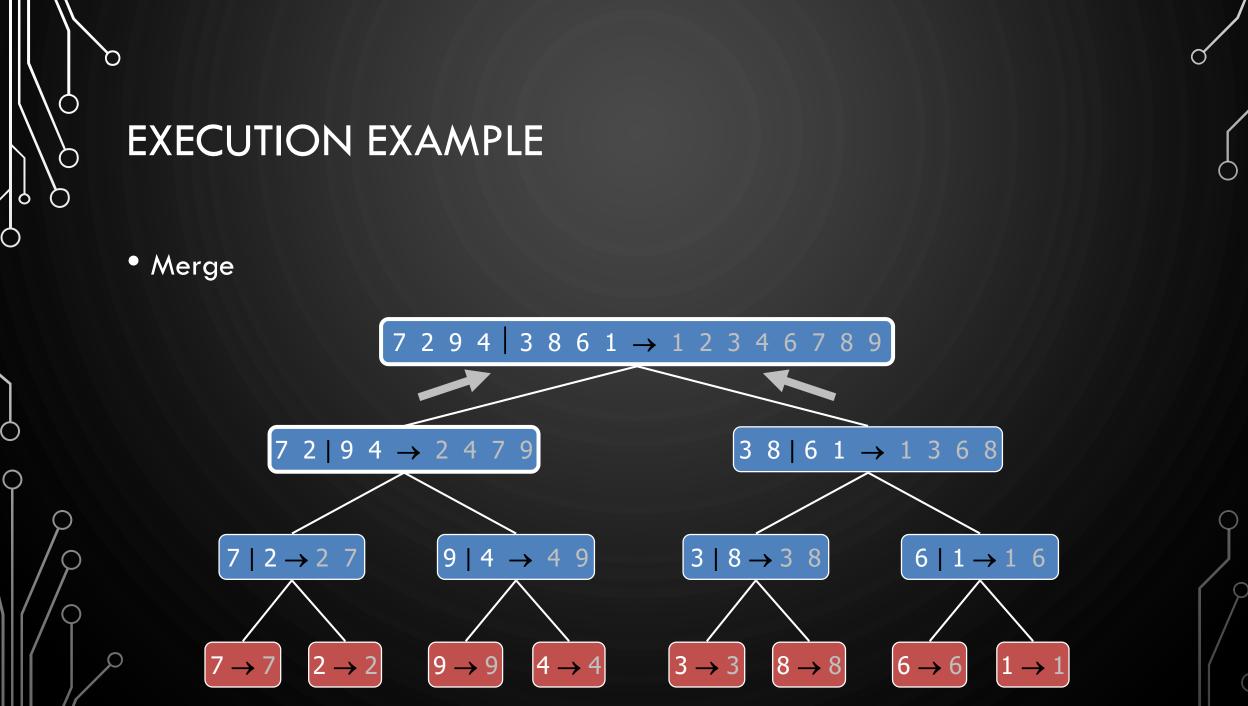








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ANOTHER ANALYSIS OF MERGE-SORT

• The height h of the merge-sort tree is $O(\log n)$

- at each recursive call we divide in half the sequence,
- The work done at each level is O(n)
 - At level *i*, we partition and merge 2^i sequences of size $\frac{n}{2^i}$
- Thus, the total running time of mergesort is $O(n \log n)$

	depth	#seqs	size	Cost for level
	0	1	n	n
	1	2	n/2	n
	 i	 2 ⁱ	$\frac{n}{2^i}$	n
		/	n	
	log n	$2^{\log n} = n$	$\frac{1}{2^{\log n}} = 1$	n
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SUMMARY OF SORTING ALGORITHMS (SO FAR)

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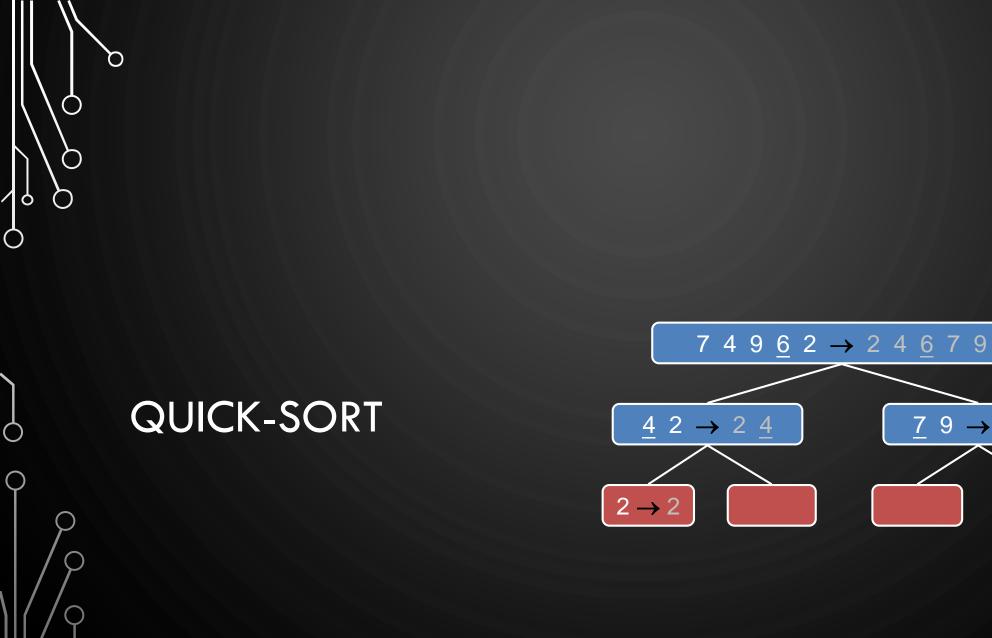
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Algorithm	Time	Notes
Selection Sort	$O(n^2)$	Slow, in-place For small data sets (< 1K)
Insertion Sort	$O(n^2)$ WC, AC O(n) BC	Slow, in-place For small data sets (< 1K)
Heap Sort	$O(n \log n)$	Fast, in-place For large data sets (1K – 1M)
Merge Sort	$O(n \log n)$	Fast, sequential data access For huge data sets (>1M)



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 $\underline{7} 9 \rightarrow \underline{7} 9$

 $9 \rightarrow 9$

QUICK-SORT

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- Quick-sort is a randomized sorting algorithm based on the divide-andconquer paradigm:
 - **Divide:** pick a random element x (called **pivot**) and partition S into

x

E

- L elements less than x
- E elements equal x
- G elements greater than x
- Recur: sort L and G
- Conquer: join L, E, and G

ANALYSIS OF QUICK SORT USING RECURRENCE RELATIONS

- Assumption: random pivot expected to give equal sized sublists
- The running time of Quick Sort can be expressed as: $T(n) = 2T\left(\frac{n}{2}\right) + P(n)$
- P(n) time to partition on input of size n

```
Algorithm quickSort(S)
Input: Sequence S
Output: Sequence S with the elements
         sorted
1. if S.size() \leq 1 then
2. return S
3. i \leftarrow rand()\%(r-l) + l / random integer
4.
                          //between l and r
5. x \leftarrow S.at(i)
6. (L, E, G) \leftarrow \text{partition}(x)
7. quickSort(L)
8. quickSort(G)
9. return splice(L,E,G)
```

PARTITION

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- We partition an input sequence as follows:
 - We remove, in turn, each element y from S and
 - We insert y into L, E, or G, depending on the result of the comparison with the pivot x
- Each insertion and removal is at the beginning or at the end of a sequence, and hence takes O(1) time
- Thus, the partition step of quick-sort takes O(n) time

Algorithm partition(*S*, *p*) **Input:** Sequence S, position p of the pivot **Output:** Subsequences L, E, G of the elements of Sless than, equal to, or greater than the pivot, respectively $L, E, G \leftarrow \emptyset$ 1. 2. $x \leftarrow S.remove(p)$ 3. while ¬S.isEmpty() do 4. $y \leftarrow S.removeFirst()$ 5. if y < x then 6. L.addLast(y)7. else if y = x then 8. E.addLast(y)

- 9. else //y > x
- 10. G.addLast(y)
- **11.** return L, E, G

SO, THE EXPECTED COMPLEXITY OF QUICK SORT

- Assumption: random pivot expected to give equal sized sublists
- The running time of Quick Sort can be expressed as: $T(n) = 2T\left(\frac{n}{2}\right) + P(n)$ $= 2T\left(\frac{n}{2}\right) + O(n)$ $= O(n \log n)$

Algorithm quickSort(S) Input: Sequence S **Output:** Sequence S with the elements sorted **1.** if S.size() ≤ 1 then 2. return S3. $i \leftarrow rand()\%(r-l) + l / / random integer$ 4. //between l and r5. $x \leftarrow S.at(i)$ 6. $(L, E, G) \leftarrow \text{partition}(x)$ 7. quickSort(L)8. quickSort(G) 9. return splice(L,E,G)

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QUICK-SORT TREE

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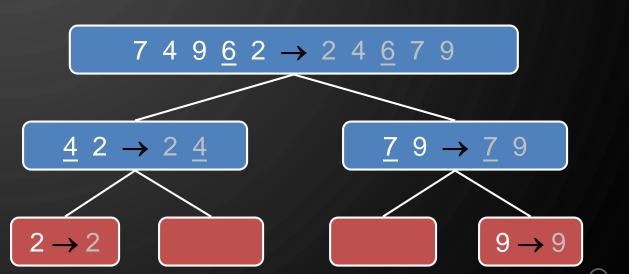
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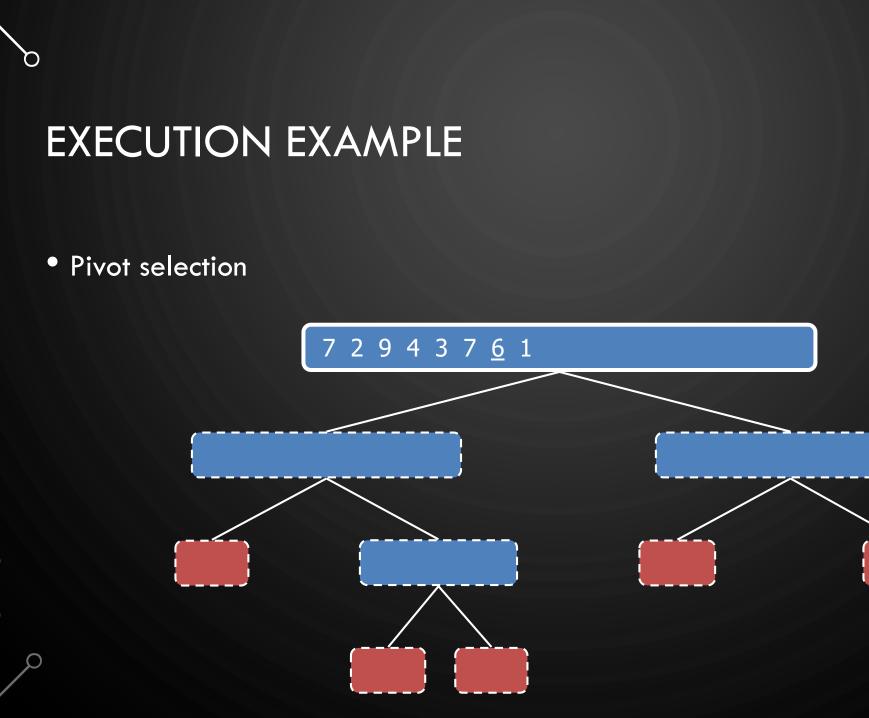
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- An execution of quick-sort is depicted by a binary tree
 - Each node represents a recursive call of quicksort and stores
 - Unsorted sequence before the execution and its pivot
 - Sorted sequence at the end of the execution
 - The root is the initial call
 - The leaves are calls on subsequences of size 0 or 1





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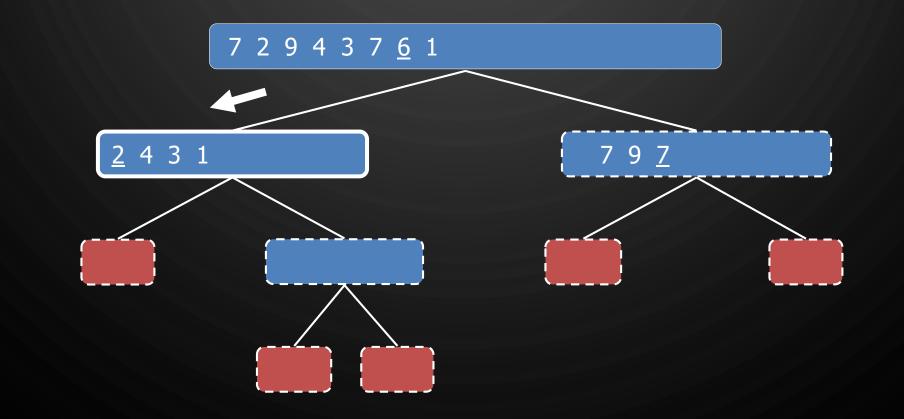
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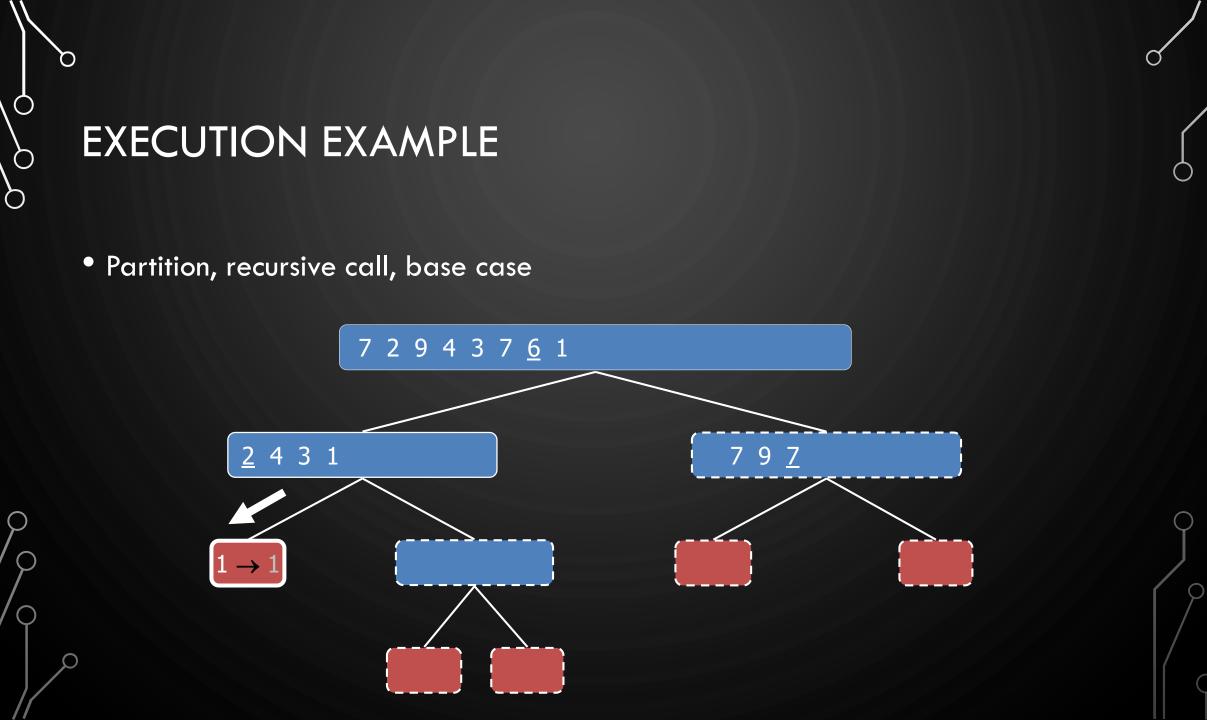
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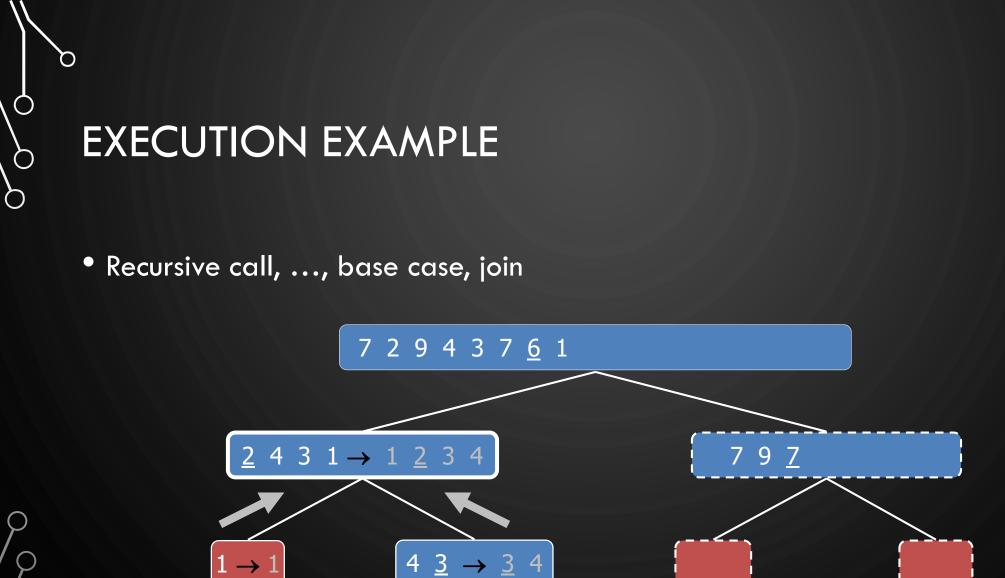
• Partition, recursive call, pivot selection





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 $4 \rightarrow 4$

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EXECUTION EXAMPLE

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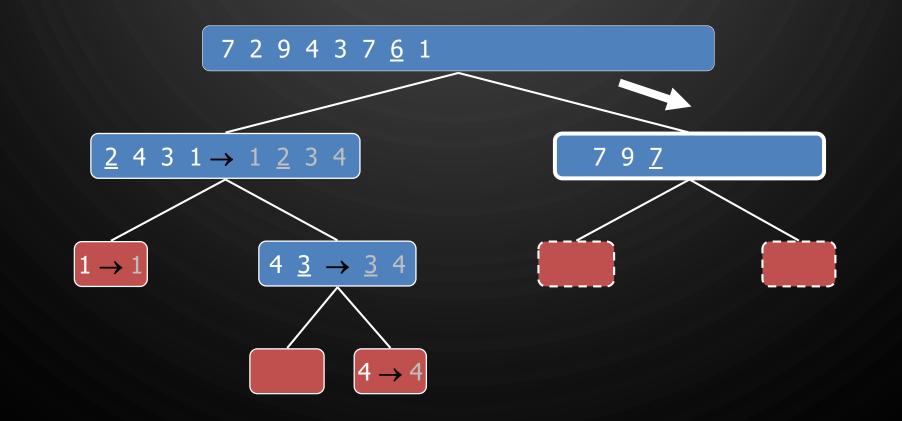
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• Recursive call, pivot selection





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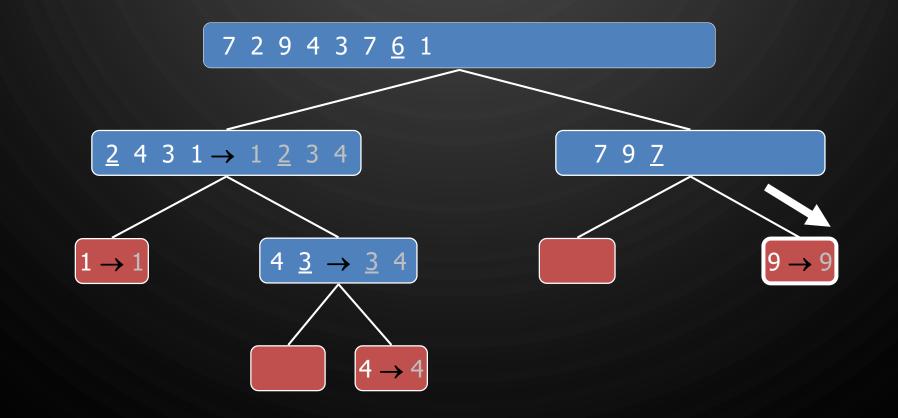
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• Partition, ..., recursive call, base case





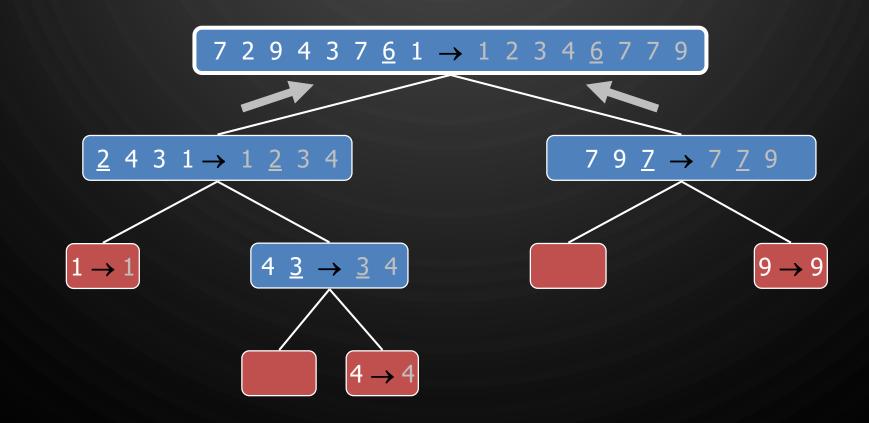
• Join, join

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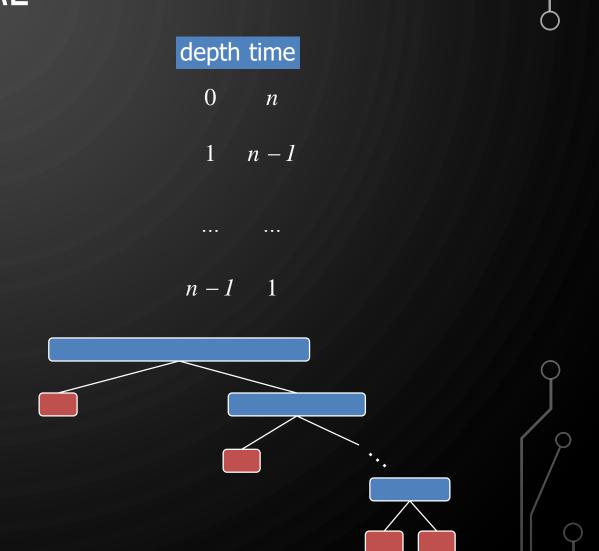
WORST-CASE RUNNING TIME

 The worst case for quick-sort occurs when the pivot is the unique minimum or maximum element

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- One of L and G has size n-1 and the other has size 0
- The running time is proportional to: $n + (n - 1) + \dots + 2 + 1 = O(n^2)$
- Alternatively, using recurrence equations: $T(n) = T(n-1) + O(n) = O(n^2)$



EXPECTED RUNNING TIME REMOVING EQUAL SPLIT ASSUMPTION

- Consider a recursive call of quick-sort on a sequence of size S
 - Good call: the sizes of L and G are each less than $\frac{3s}{4}$
 - Bad call: one of L and G has size greater than $\frac{3s}{4}$





Bad call

Good call

• A call is good with probability 1/2

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• 1/2 of the possible pivots cause good calls:

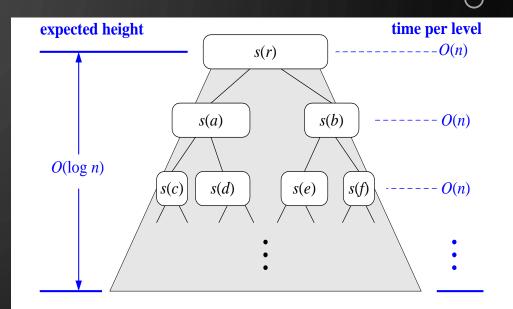


EXPECTED RUNNING TIME

- Probabilistic Fact: The expected number of coin tosses required in order to get k heads is 2k (e.g., it is expected to take 2 tosses to get heads)
- For a node of depth *i*, we expect
 - $\frac{l}{2}$ ancestors are good calls
 - The size of the input sequence for the current call is at most $\left(\frac{3}{4}\right)^2 n$
- Therefore, we have

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- For a node of depth $2\log_{\frac{4}{2}} n$, the expected input size is one
- The expected height of the quick-sort tree is $O(\log n)$
- The amount or work done at the nodes of the same depth is O(n)
- Thus, the expected running time of quick-sort is $O(n \log n)$





IN-PLACE QUICK-SORT

- Quick-sort can be implemented to run in-place
- In the partition step, we use replace operations to rearrange the elements of the input sequence such that
 - the elements less than the pivot have indices less than h
 - the elements equal to the pivot have indices between h and k
 - the elements greater than the pivot have indices greater than k
- The recursive calls consider
 - elements with indices less than h
 - elements with indices greater than k

Algorithm inPlaceQuickSort(S, l, r) Input: Array S, indices l, rOutput: Array S with the elements between l and r sorted 1. if $l \ge r$ then 2. return S3. $i \leftarrow rand()\%(r-l)+l$ //random integer 4. //between l and r5. $x \leftarrow S[i]$ 6. $(h,k) \leftarrow inPlacePartition(x)$ 7. inPlaceQuickSort(S, l, h - 1)8. inPlaceQuickSort(S, k + 1, r)9. return S

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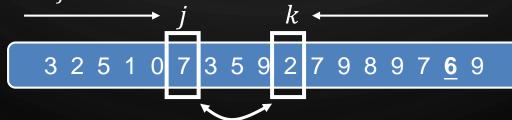
IN-PLACE PARTITIONING

• Perform the partition using two indices to split S into L and $E \cup G$ (a similar method can split $E \cup G$ into E and G).

j k
$$3 2 5 1 0 7 3 5 9 2 7 9 8 9 7 6 9$$
 (pivot = 6

Repeat until j and k cross:

- Scan *j* to the right until finding an element $\geq x$.
- Scan k to the left until finding an element < x.
- Swap elements at indices *j* and *k*



SUMMARY OF SORTING ALGORITHMS (SO FAR)

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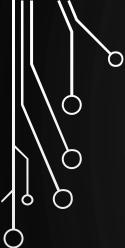
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Algorithm	Time	Notes
Selection Sort	$O(n^2)$	In-place Slow, for small data sets
Insertion Sort	$O(n^2)$ WC, AC O(n) BC	In-place Slow, for small data sets
Heap Sort	$O(n \log n)$	In-place Fast, For large data sets
Quick Sort	Exp. $O(n \log n)$ AC, BC $O(n^2)$ WC	Randomized, in-place Fastest, for large data sets
Merge Sort	$O(n \log n)$	Sequential data access Fast, for huge data sets



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SORTING LOWER BOUND



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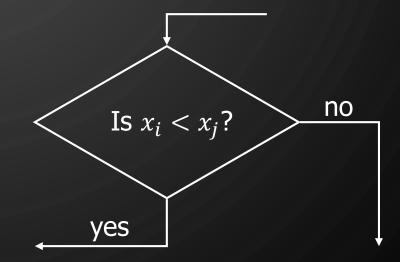
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COMPARISON-BASED SORTING

 Many sorting algorithms are comparison based.

- They sort by making comparisons between pairs of objects
- Examples: bubble-sort, selection-sort, insertion-sort, heap-sort, merge-sort, quick-sort, ...
- Let us therefore derive a lower bound on the running time of any algorithm that uses comparisons to sort n elements, $x_1, x_2, ..., x_n$.



COUNTING COMPARISONS

• Let us just count comparisons then.

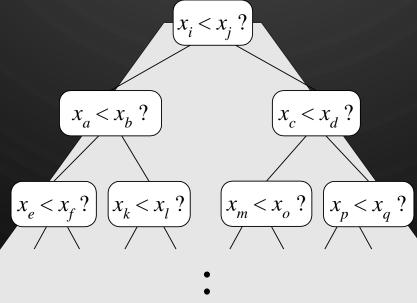
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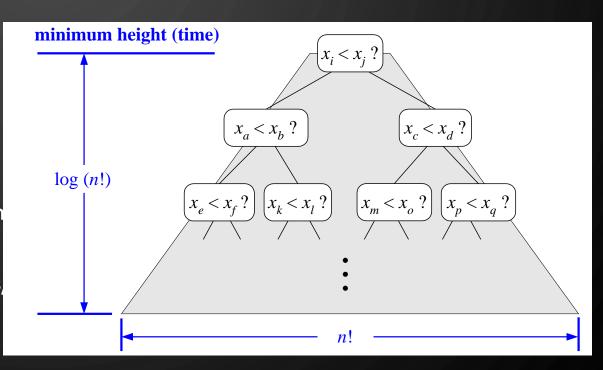
• Each possible run of the algorithm corresponds to a root-to-leaf path in a decision tree $x < x^2$

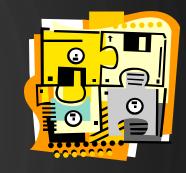


DECISION TREE HEIGHT

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- The height of the decision tree is a lower bound on the running time
- Every input permutation must lead to a separate leaf output
- If not, some input ...4...5... would have same output ordering as ...5...4..., which would be wrong
- Since there are n! = 1 * 2 * ··· * n leaves, the height is at least log(n!)





THE LOWER BOUND

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• Any comparison-based sorting algorithm takes at least log(n!) time

$$\log(n!) \ge \log\left(\frac{n}{2}\right)^{\frac{n}{2}} = \frac{n}{2}\log\frac{n}{2}$$

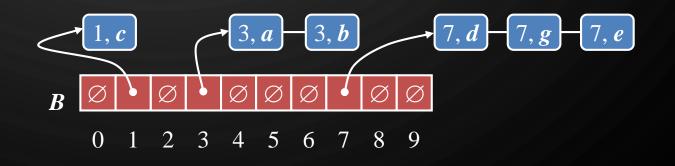
• That is, any comparison-based sorting algorithm must run in $\Omega(n\log n)$ time.



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BUCKET-SORT AND RADIX-SORT

CAN WE SORT IN LINEAR TIME?



BUCKET-SORT

- Let be S be a sequence of n (key, element) items with keys in the range [0, N 1]
- Bucket-sort uses the keys as indices into an auxiliary array B of sequences (buckets)
 - Phase 1: Empty sequence S by moving each entry into its bucket B[k]
 - Phase 2: for $i \leftarrow 0 \dots N 1$, move the items of bucket B[i] to the end of sequence S
- Analysis:

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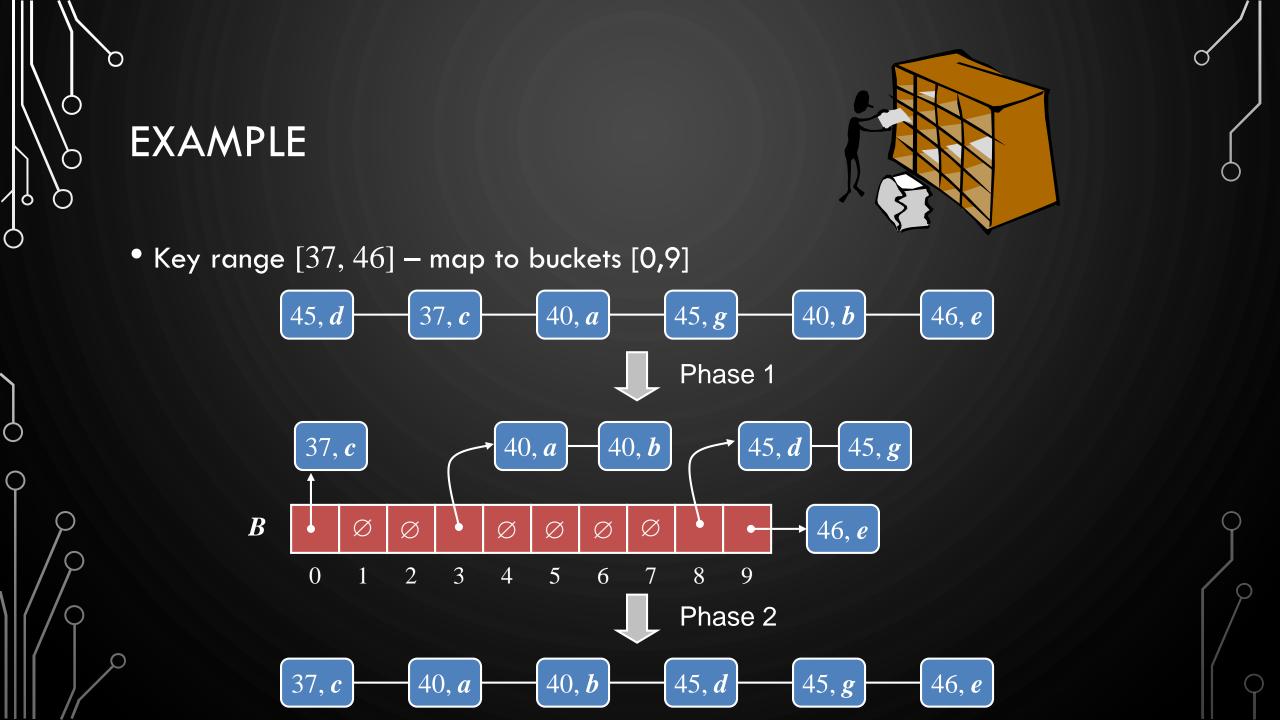
- Phase 1 takes O(n) time
- Phase 2 takes O(n+N) time
- Bucket-sort takes O(n+N) time



Algorithm bucketSort(S, N) **Input:** Sequence S of entries with integer keys in the range [0, N-1]**Output:** Sequence S sorted in nondecreasing order of the keys 1. $B \leftarrow array of N$ empty sequences **2.** for each entry $e \in S$ do 3. $k \leftarrow e.key()$ 4. remove e from S5. insert e at the end of bucket B[k]6. for $i \leftarrow 0$ to N-1 do 1. for each entry $e \in B[i]$ do 8. remove e from bucket B[i]

insert e at the end of S

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PROPERTIES AND EXTENSIONS

Properties

- Key-type
 - The keys are used as indices into an array and cannot be arbitrary objects
 - No external comparator
- Stable sorting
 - The relative order of any two items with the same key is preserved after the execution of the algorithm

- Extensions
 - Integer keys in the range [a, b]
 - Put entry e into bucket B[k-a]
 - String keys from a set D of possible strings, where D has constant size (e.g., names of the 50 U.S. states)
 - Sort D and compute the index i(k) of each string k of D in the sorted sequence
 - Put item e into bucket B[i(k)]

LEXICOGRAPHIC ORDER

Given a list of tuples:
(7,4,6) (5,1,5) (2,4,6) (2,1,4) (5,1,6) (3,2,4)

After sorting, the list is in lexicographical order:
 (2,1,4) (2,4,6) (3,2,4) (5,1,5) (5,1,6) (7,4,6)

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LEXICOGRAPHIC ORDER FORMALIZED

- A d-tuple is a sequence of d keys $(k_1, k_2, ..., k_d)$, where key k_i is said to be the i-th dimension of the tuple
 - Example the Cartesian coordinates of a point in space is a 3-tuple (x, y, z)
- The lexicographic order of two d-tuples is recursively defined as follows
- $(x_1, x_2, ..., x_d) < (y_1, y_2, ..., y_d) \Leftrightarrow$ $x_1 < y_1 \lor (x_1 = y_1 \land (x_2, ..., x_d) < (y_2, ..., y_d))$

• i.e., the tuples are compared by the first dimension, then by the second dimension, etc.

EXERCISE LEXICOGRAPHIC ORDER

- Given a list of 2-tuples, we can order the tuples lexicographically by applying a stable sorting algorithm two times:
 (3,3) (1,5) (2,5) (1,2) (2,3) (1,7) (3,2) (2,2)
- Possible ways of doing it:
 - Sort first by 1st element of tuple and then by 2nd element of tuple
 - Sort first by 2nd element of tuple and then by 1st element of tuple
- Show the result of sorting the list using both options

EXERCISE LEXICOGRAPHIC ORDER

- (3,3) (1,5) (2,5) (1,2) (2,3) (1,7) (3,2) (2,2)
- Using a stable sort,
 - Sort first by 1st element of tuple and then by 2nd element of tuple
 - Sort first by 2nd element of tuple and then by 1st element of tuple
- Option 1:

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- 1st sort: (1,5) (1,2) (1,7) (2,5) (2,3) (2,2) (3,3) (3,2)
- 2nd sort: (1,2) (2,2) (3,2) (2,3) (3,3) (1,5) (2,5) (1,7) WRONG
- Option 2:
 - 1st sort: (1,2) (3,2) (2,2) (3,3) (2,3) (1,5) (2,5) (1,7)
 - 2nd sort: (1,2) (1,5) (1,7) (2,2) (2,3) (2,5) (3,2) (3,3) CORRECT

LEXICOGRAPHIC-SORT

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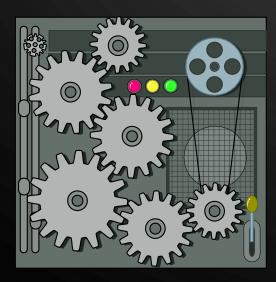
- Let C_i be the comparator that compares two tuples by their *i*-th dimension
- Let stableSort(S, C) be a stable sorting algorithm that uses comparator C
- Lexicographic-sort sorts a sequence of *d*tuples in lexicographic order by executing *d* times algorithm stableSort, one per dimension
- Lexicographic-sort runs in O(dT(n)) time, where T(n) is the running time of stableSort

Algorithm lexicographicSort(S) Input: Sequence S of d-tuples Output: Sequence S sorted in lexicographic order 1. for $i \leftarrow d$ to 1 do 2. stableSort(S,C_i)

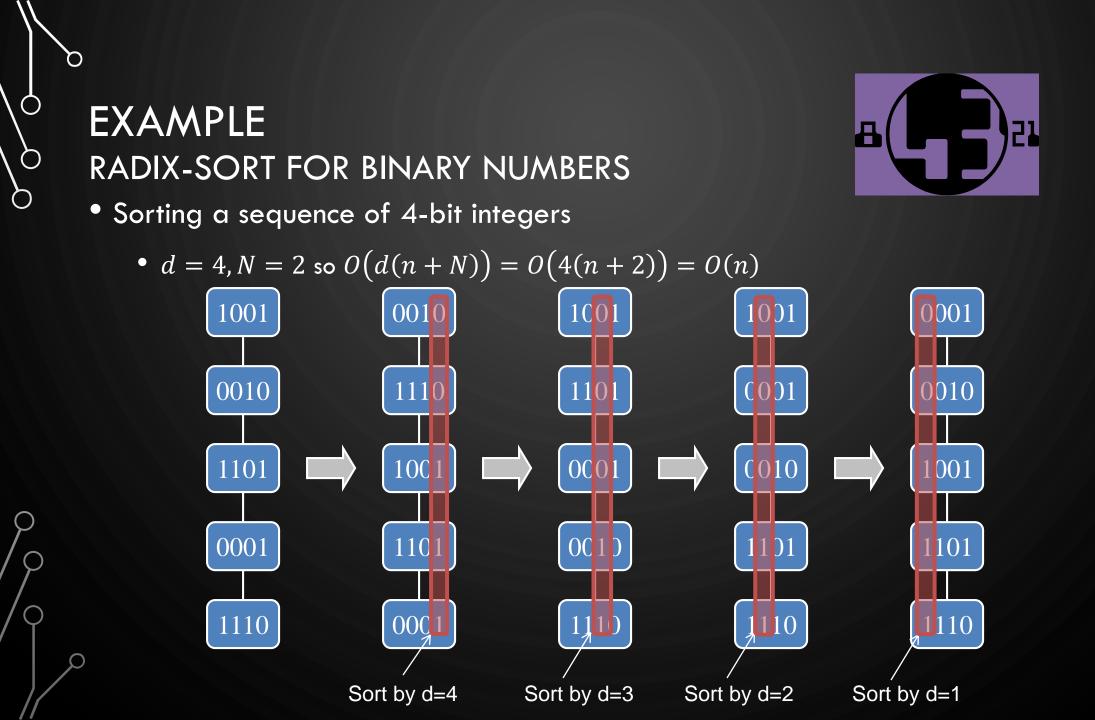
RADIX-SORT

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- Radix-sort is a specialization of lexicographic-sort that uses bucket-sort as the stable sorting algorithm in each dimension
- Radix-sort is applicable to tuples where the keys in each dimension i are integers in the range [0, N 1]
- Radix-sort runs in time O(d(n+N))



Algorithm radixSort(S,N) Input: Sequence S of d-tuples such that $(0,...,0) \leq (x_1,...,x_d)$ and $(x_1,...,x_d) \leq (N-1,...,N-1)$ for each tuple $(x_1,...,x_d)$ in S Output: Sequence S sorted in lexicographic order 1. for $i \leftarrow d$ to 1 do 2. set the key k of each entry $(k,(x_1,...,x_d))$ of S to ith dimension x_i 3. bucketSort(S,N)



SUMMARY OF SORTING ALGORITHMS

Algorithm	Time	Notes
Selection Sort	$O(n^2)$	In-place Slow, for small data sets
Insertion Sort	$O(n^2)$ WC, AC O(n) BC	In-place Slow, for small data sets
Heap Sort	$O(n \log n)$	In-place Fast, for large data sets
Quick Sort	Exp. $O(n \log n)$ AC, BC $O(n^2)$ WC	Randomized, in-place Fastest, for large data sets
Merge Sort	$O(n \log n)$	Sequential data access Fast, for huge data sets
Radix Sort	O(d(n+N)), d #digits, N range of digit values	Stable Fastest, only for integers

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THE SELECTION PROBLEM

- Given an integer k and n elements $\{x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n\}$, taken from a total order, find the k-th smallest element in this set.
 - Also called order statistics, the *i*th order statistic is the *i*th smallest element
 - Minimum k = 1 1st order statistic
 - Maximum k = n nth order statistic
 - Median $k = \left\lfloor \frac{n}{2} \right\rfloor$

• etc

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THE SELECTION PROBLEM

• Naïve solution - SORT!

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• We can sort the set in $O(n \log n)$ time and then index the k-th element. k=3

$$7 4 9 \underline{6} 2 \rightarrow 2 4 \underline{6} 7 9$$

• Can we solve the selection problem faster?



THE MINIMUM (OR MAXIMUM)

Algorithm minimum(A) Input: Array A Output: minimum element in A 1. $m \leftarrow A[1]$ 2. for $i \leftarrow 2$ to n do 3. $m \leftarrow \min(m, A[i])$ 4. return m

• Running Time

• *O(n)*

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• Is this the best possible?

QUICK-SELECT

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- Quick-select is a randomized selection algorithm based on the prune-and-search paradigm:
 - Prune: pick a random element x (called pivot) and partition S into
 - L elements < x
 - E elements = x
 - G elements > x
 - Search: depending on k, either answer is in E, or we need to recur on either L or G
- Note: Partition same as Quicksort

 $k \leq |L|$ $k \leq |L|$ $k \leq |L|$ $k \geq |L| + |E|$ k' = k - |L| - |E|

 $|L| < k \le |L| + |E|$ (done)

QUICK-SELECT VISUALIZATION

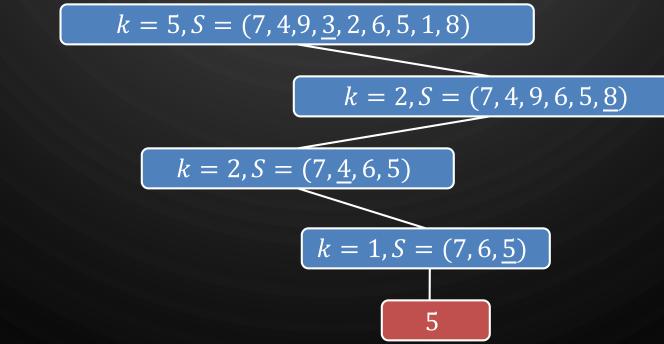
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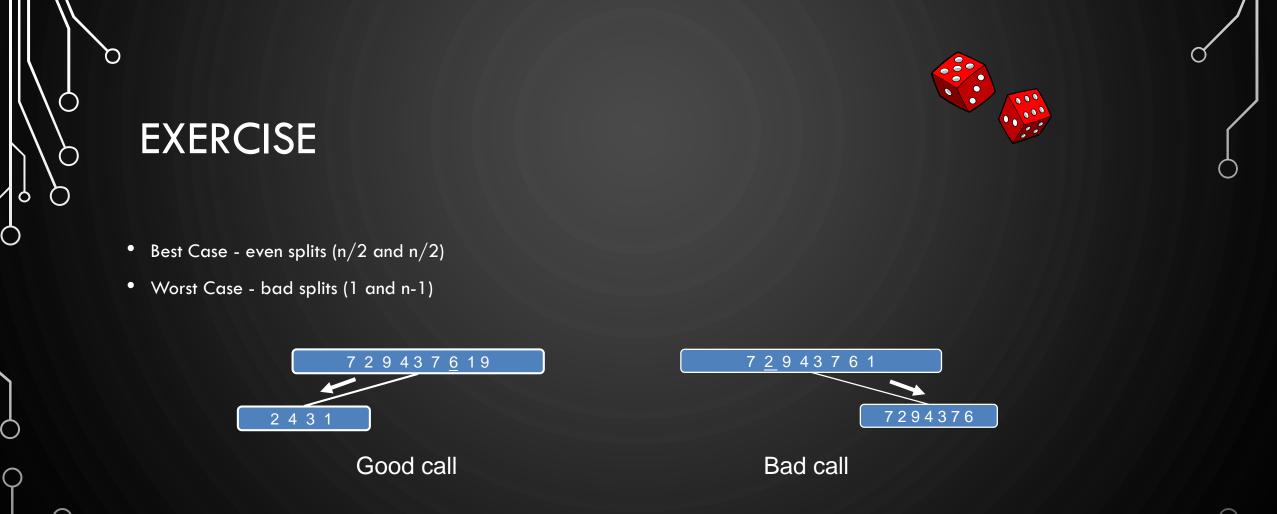
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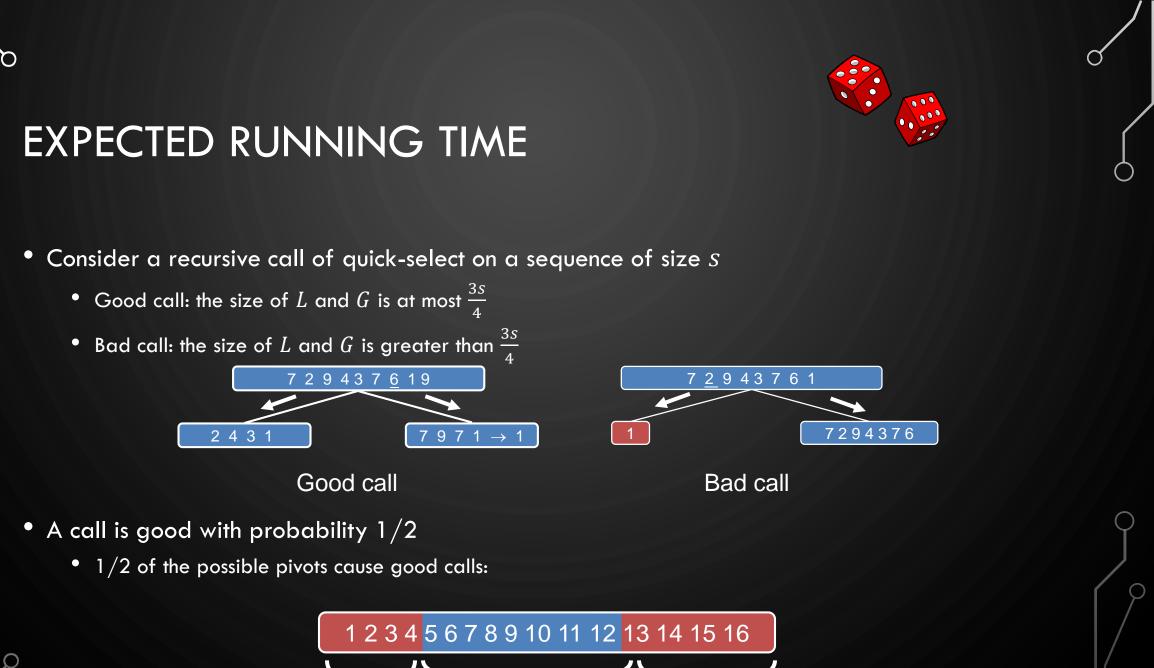
- An execution of quick-select can be visualized by a recursion path
 - Each node represents a recursive call of quick-select, and stores k and the remaining sequence





• Derive and solve the recurrence relation corresponding to the best case performance of randomized quick-select.

• Derive and solve the recurrence relation corresponding to the worst case performance of randomized quick-select.



Bad pivots

Bad pivots **Good pivots**

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EXPECTED RUNNING TIME

- Probabilistic Fact #1: The expected number of coin tosses required in order to get one head is two
- Probabilistic Fact #2: Expectation is a linear function:
 - E(X + Y) = E(X) + E(Y)
 - E(cX) = cE(X)

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- Let T(n) denote the expected running time of quick-select.
- By Fact #2, $T(n) < T\left(\frac{3n}{4}\right) + bn * (expected \# of calls before a good call)$
- By Fact #1, $T(n) < T\left(\frac{3n}{4}\right) + 2bn$
- That is, T(n) is a geometric series: $T(n) < 2bn + 2b\left(\frac{3}{4}\right)n + 2b\left(\frac{3}{4}\right)^2n + 2b\left(\frac{3}{4}\right)^3n + \cdots$
- So T(n) is O(n).
- We can solve the selection problem in O(n) expected time.



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DETERMINISTIC SELECTION

- We can do selection in O(n) worst-case time. •
- Main idea: recursively use the selection algorithm itself to find a good pivot for quick-select:
 - Divide S into $\frac{n}{5}$ sets of 5 each
 - Find a median in each set
 - Recursively find the median of the "baby" medians. •

Min size for L

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Min size

See Exercise C-12.56 for details of analysis.

INTERVIEW QUESTION 1

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• You are given two sorted arrays, A and B, where A has a large enough buffer at the end to hold B. Write a method to merge B into A in sorted order.

GAYLE LAAKMANN MCDOWELL, "CRACKING THE CODE INTERVIEW: 150 PROGRAMMING QUESTIONS AND SOLUTIONS", 5TH EDITION, CAREERCUP PUBLISHING, 2011.

INTERVIEW QUESTION 2

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- Write a method to sort an array of strings so that all the anagrams are next to each other.
 - Two words are anagrams if they use the exact same letters, i.e., race and care are anagrams

GAYLE LAAKMANN MCDOWELL, "CRACKING THE CODE INTERVIEW: 150 PROGRAMMING QUESTIONS AND SOLUTIONS", 5TH EDITION, CAREERCUP PUBLISHING, 2011.

INTERVIEW QUESTION 3

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 Imagine you have a 2 TB file with one string per line. Explain how you would sort the file.

GAYLE LAAKMANN MCDOWELL, "CRACKING THE CODE INTERVIEW: 150 PROGRAMMING QUESTIONS AND SOLUTIONS", 5TH EDITION, CAREERCUP PUBLISHING, 2011.