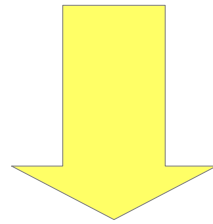


# **Sorting**

(Weiss chapter 7.1-2, 7.6-7)

# Sorting

|   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 5 | 3 | 9 | 2 | 8 | 7 | 3 | 2 | 1 | 4 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|



|   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | 2 | 2 | 3 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 7 | 8 | 9 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|

Zillions of sorting algorithms (bubblesort, insertion sort, selection sort, quicksort, heapsort, mergesort, shell sort, counting sort, radix sort, ...)

# Insertion sort

Imagine someone is dealing you cards.  
Whenever you get a new card you put it into  
the right place in your hand:



This is the idea of *insertion sort*.

# Insertion sort

Sorting

|   |   |   |   |   |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| 5 | 3 | 9 | 2 | 8 |
|---|---|---|---|---|

Start by “picking up” the 5:

|   |  |  |  |  |
|---|--|--|--|--|
| 5 |  |  |  |  |
|---|--|--|--|--|

# Insertion sort

Sorting



Then insert the 3 into the right place:



# Insertion sort

Sorting

|   |   |   |   |   |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| 5 | 3 | 9 | 2 | 8 |
|---|---|---|---|---|

Then the 9:

|   |   |   |  |  |
|---|---|---|--|--|
| 3 | 5 | 9 |  |  |
|---|---|---|--|--|

# Insertion sort

Sorting

|   |   |   |   |   |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| 5 | 3 | 9 | 2 | 8 |
|---|---|---|---|---|

Then the 2:

|   |   |   |   |  |
|---|---|---|---|--|
| 2 | 3 | 5 | 9 |  |
|---|---|---|---|--|

# Insertion sort

Sorting



Finally the 8:



What's the complexity?



# Complexity of insertion sort

Insertion sort does  $n$  insertions for an array of size  $n$

Does this mean it is  $O(n)$ ? *No!* An insertion is not constant time.

To insert into a sorted array, you must move all the elements up one, which is  $O(n)$ .

Thus total is  $O(n^2)$ .

# In-place insertion sort

This version of insertion sort needs to make a new array to hold the result

An *in-place* sorting algorithm is one that doesn't need to make temporary arrays

- Has the potential to be more efficient

Let's make an in-place insertion sort!

Basic idea: loop through the array, and insert each element into the part which is already sorted

# In-place insertion sort

|   |   |   |   |   |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| 5 | 3 | 9 | 2 | 8 |
|---|---|---|---|---|

The first element of the array is sorted:

|   |   |   |   |   |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| 5 | 3 | 9 | 2 | 8 |
|---|---|---|---|---|

White bit: sorted

# In-place insertion sort

|   |   |   |   |   |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| 5 | 3 | 9 | 2 | 8 |
|---|---|---|---|---|

Insert the 3 into the correct place:

|   |   |   |   |   |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| 3 | 5 | 9 | 2 | 8 |
|---|---|---|---|---|

# In-place insertion sort

|   |   |   |   |   |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| 3 | 5 | 9 | 2 | 8 |
|---|---|---|---|---|

Insert the 9 into the correct place:

|   |   |   |   |   |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| 3 | 5 | 9 | 2 | 8 |
|---|---|---|---|---|

# In-place insertion sort

|   |   |   |   |   |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| 3 | 5 | 9 | 2 | 8 |
|---|---|---|---|---|

Insert the 2 into the correct place:

|   |   |   |   |   |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| 2 | 3 | 5 | 9 | 8 |
|---|---|---|---|---|

# In-place insertion sort

|   |   |   |   |   |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| 2 | 3 | 5 | 9 | 8 |
|---|---|---|---|---|

Insert the 8 into the correct place:

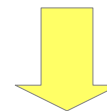
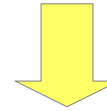
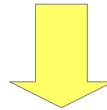
|   |   |   |   |   |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| 2 | 3 | 5 | 8 | 9 |
|---|---|---|---|---|

# In-place insertion

Idea: look left, move elements left-to-right until we find the right spot



Save this at the beginning





# In-place insertion sort

This notation  
means  
 $0, 1, \dots, i-1$

for  $i = 1$  to  $n$

    insert  $\text{array}[i]$  into  $\text{array}[0..i)$

An aside: we have the *invariant* that  
 $\text{array}[0..i)$  is sorted

- An invariant is something that holds whenever the loop body starts to run
- Initially,  $i = 1$  and  $\text{array}[0..1)$  is sorted
- As the loop runs, more and more of the array becomes sorted
- When the loop finishes,  $i = n$ , so  $\text{array}[0..n)$  is sorted – the whole array!

# Insertion sort

$O(n^2)$  in the worst case (which usually happens)

$O(n)$  in the best case (a sorted array – nothing needs to be moved)

Actually the fastest sorting algorithm in general for small lists – it has low constant factors

- Insertion turns into a pretty tight loop
- Insertion sort into a tight nested loop

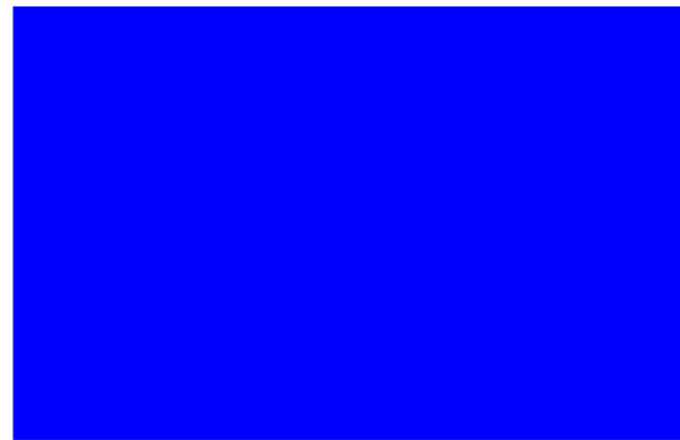
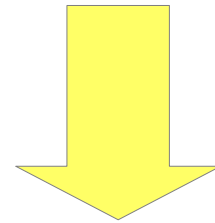
# Divide and conquer

Very general name for a type of recursive algorithm

You have a problem to solve.

- *Split* that problem into smaller subproblems
- *Recursively* solve those subproblems
- *Combine* the solutions for the subproblems to solve the whole problem

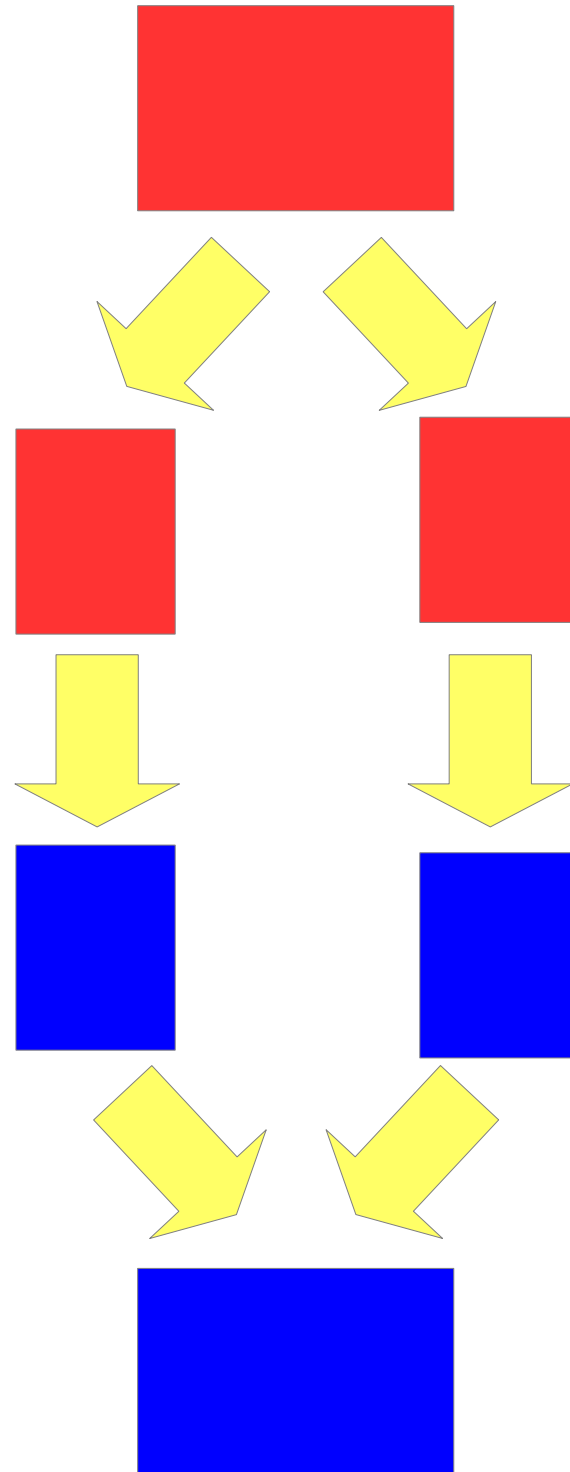
To solve this...



1. *Split* the problem into subproblems

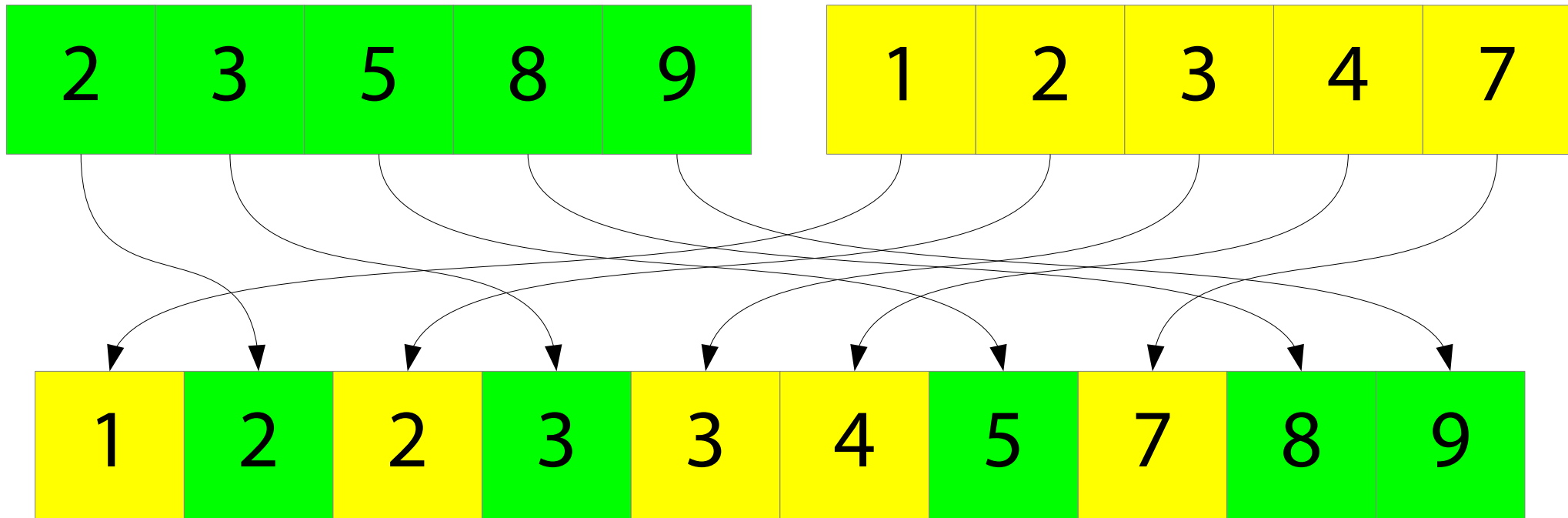
2. *Recursively* solve the subproblems

3. *Combine* the solutions

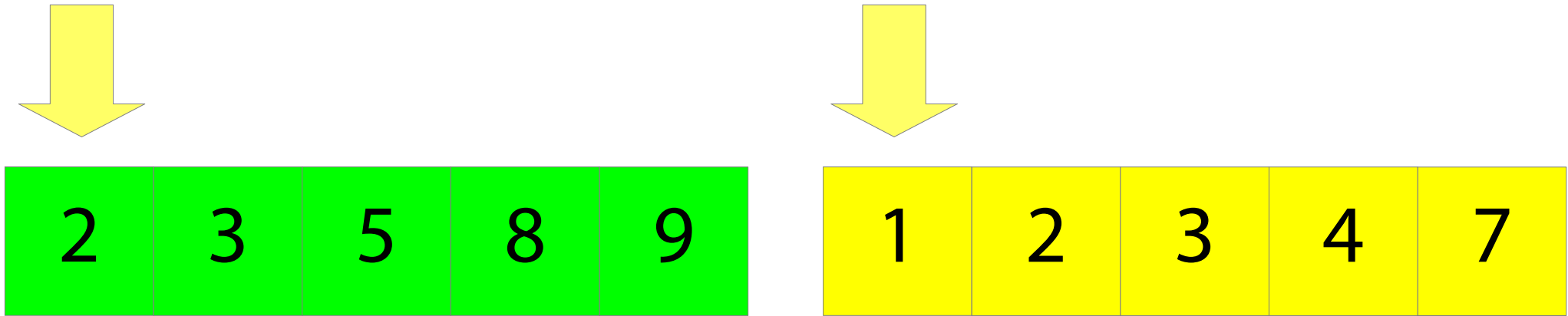


# Mergesort

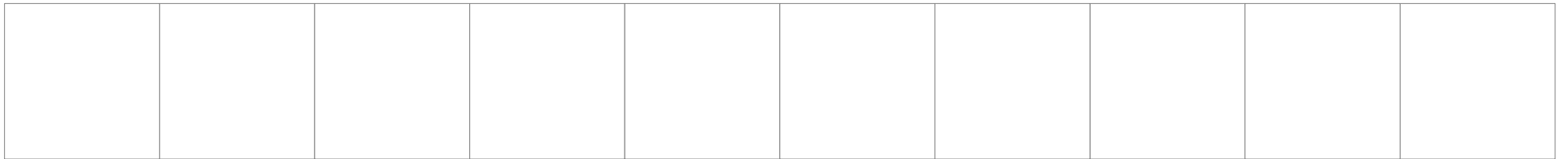
We can *merge* two sorted lists into one in linear time:



# Mergesort



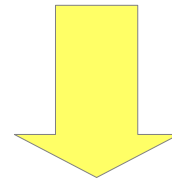
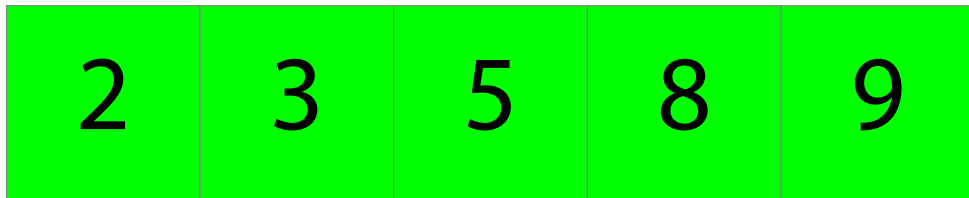
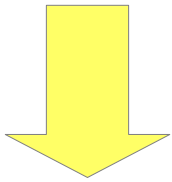
1 is smaller



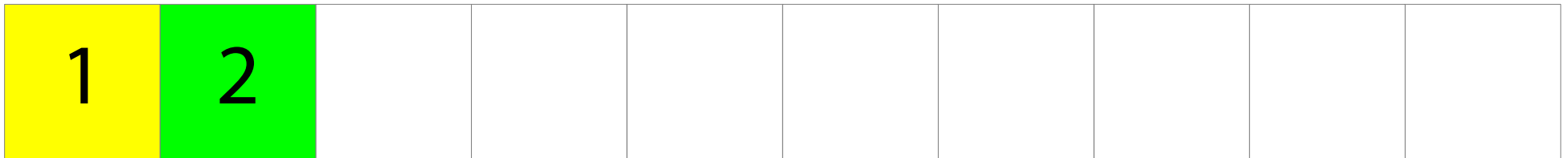




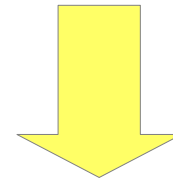
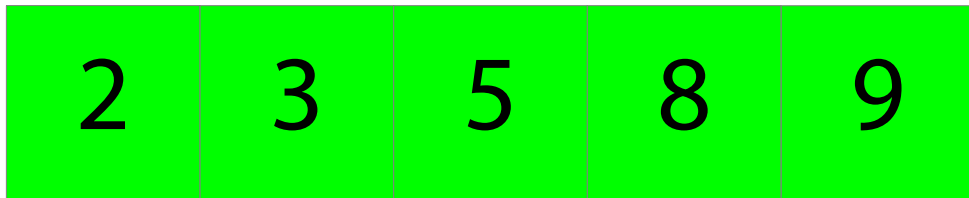
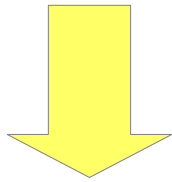
# Mergesort



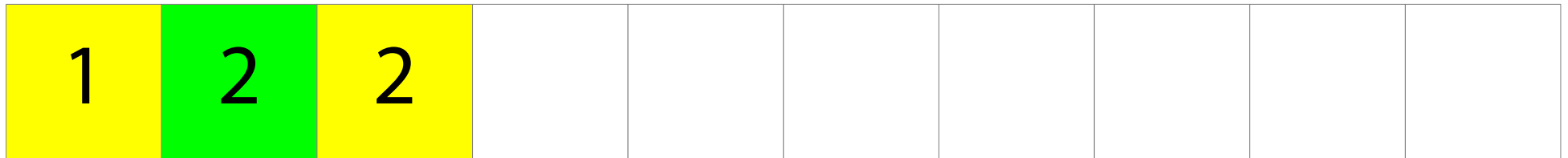
2 is smaller



# Mergesort



And so on!



# Mergesort

A divide-and-conquer algorithm

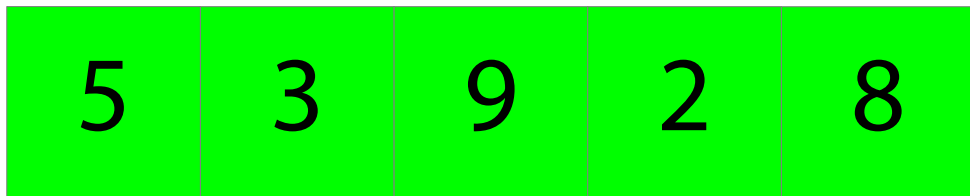
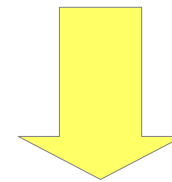
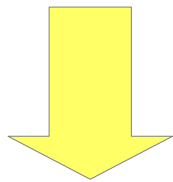
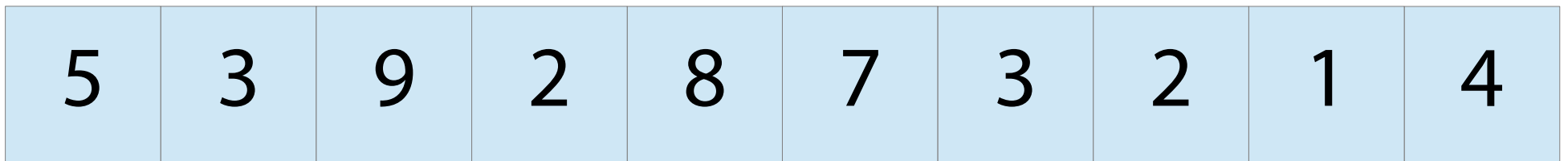
To mergesort a list:

- *Split* the list into two equal (as near as possible) parts
- *Recursively* mergesort the two parts
- *Merge* the two sorted lists together

Base cases: empty list, list of length 1

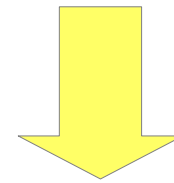
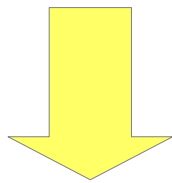
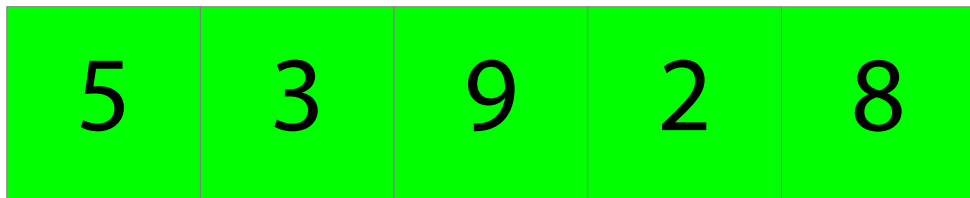
# Mergesort

1. *Split* the list into two equal parts



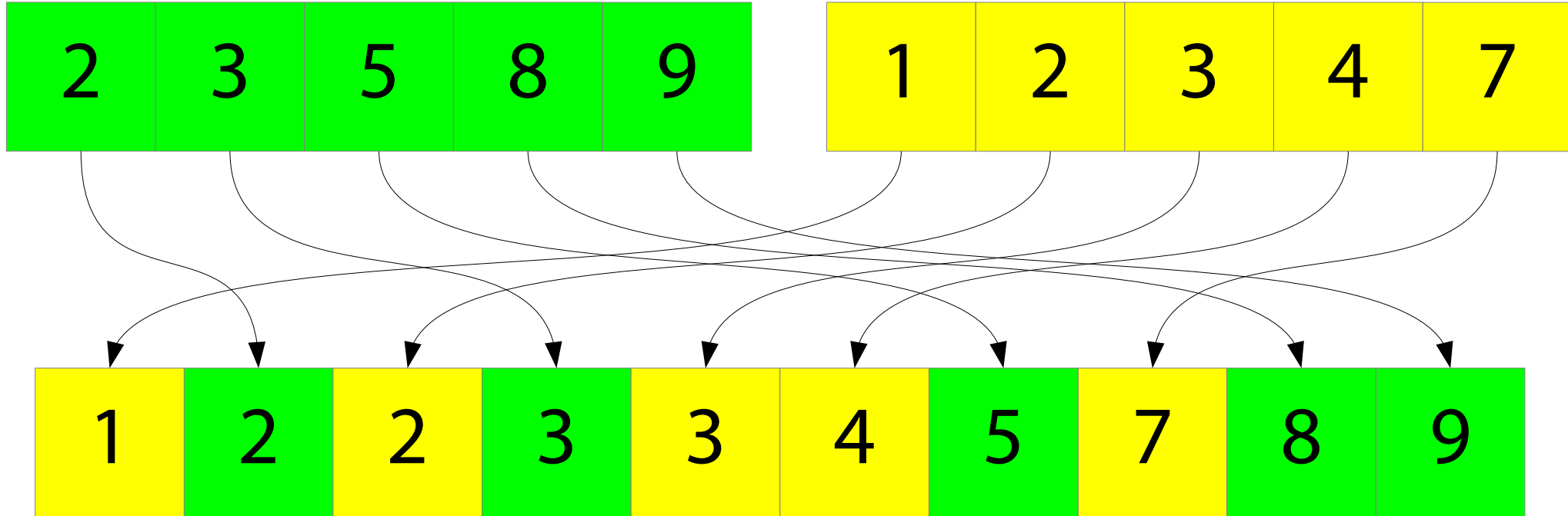
# Mergesort

2. *Recursively* mergesort the two parts



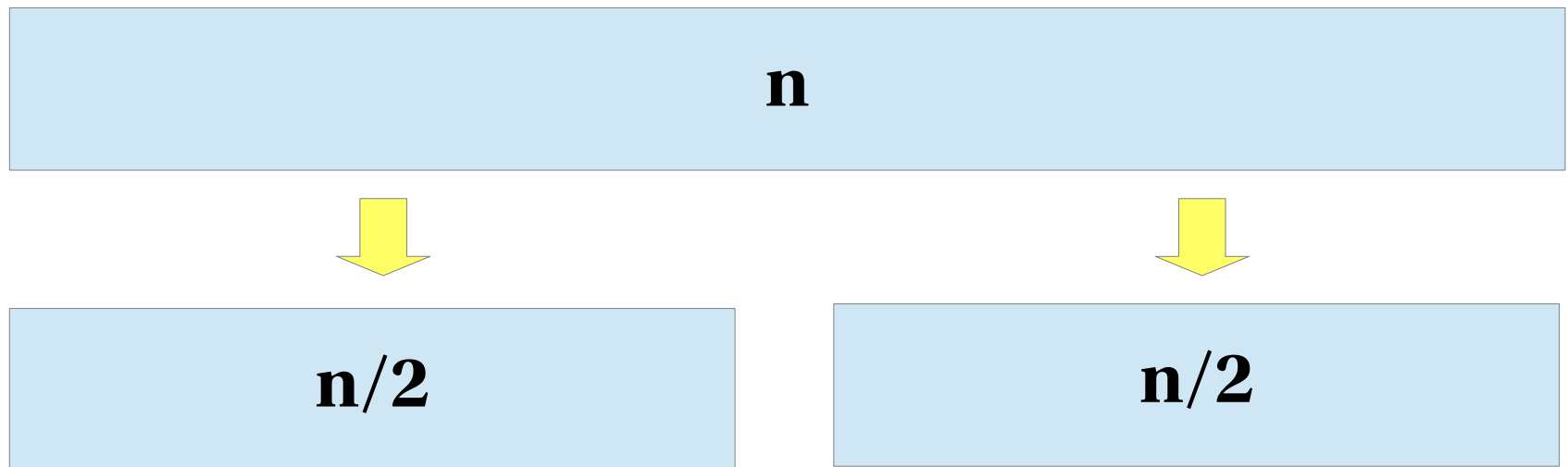
# Mergesort

3. *Merge* the two sorted lists together



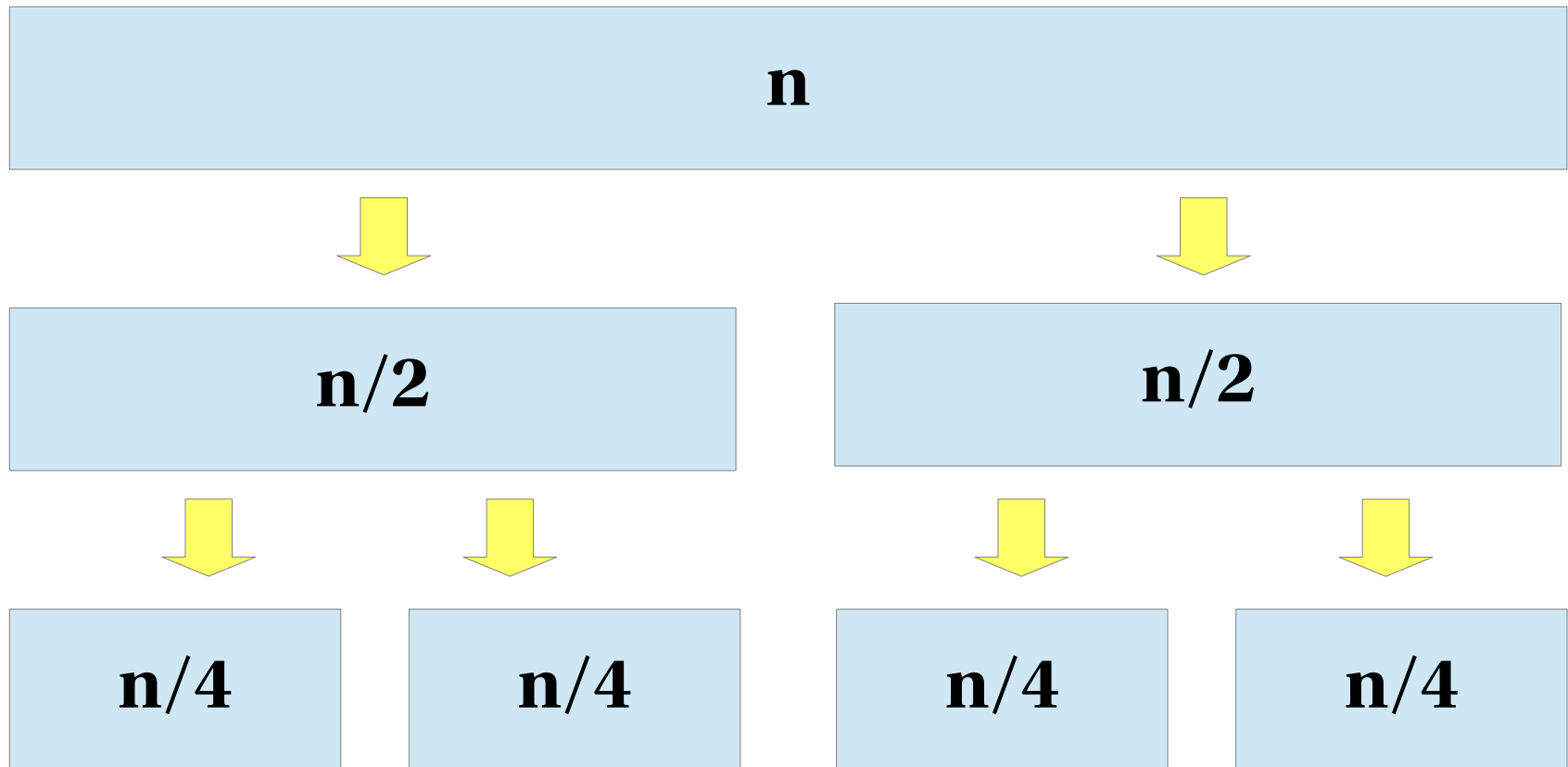
# Complexity of mergesort

An array of size  $n$  gets split into two arrays of size  $n/2$ :

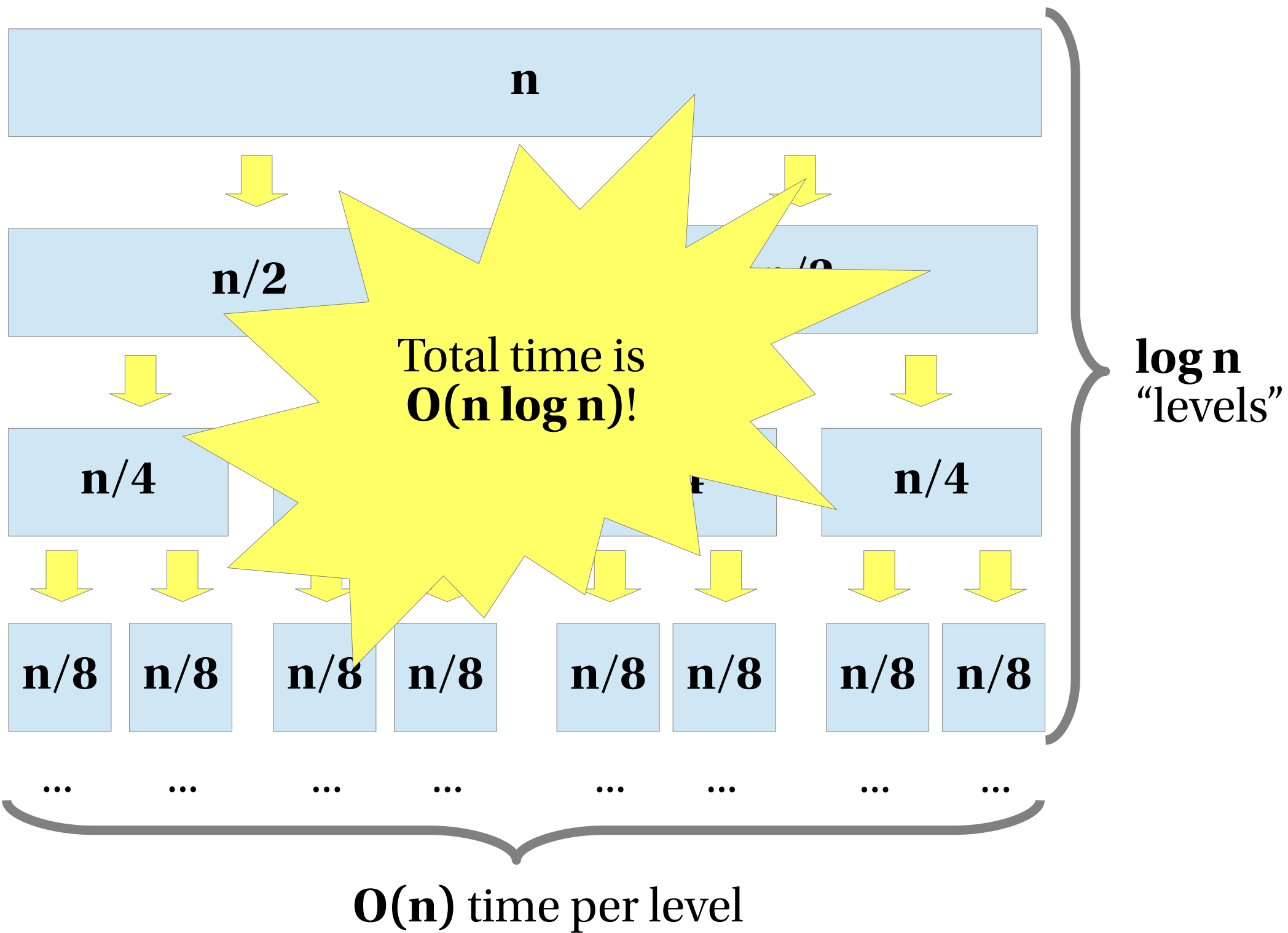


# Complexity of mergesort

The recursive calls will split these arrays into four arrays of size  $n/4$ :







# Complexity analysis

Mergesort's complexity is  $O(n \log n)$

- Recursion goes  $\log n$  “levels” deep
- At each level there is a total of  $O(n)$  work

General “divide and conquer” theorem:

- If an algorithm does  $O(n)$  work to split the input into two pieces of size  $n/2$  (or  $k$  pieces of size  $n/k$ )...
- ...then recursively processes those pieces...
- ...then does  $O(n)$  work to recombine the results...
- ...then the complexity is  $O(n \log n)$

# Quicksort

Mergesort is great... except that it's not in-place

- So it needs to allocate memory
- And it has a high constant factor

Quicksort: let's do divide-and-conquer sorting, but do it in-place

# Quicksort

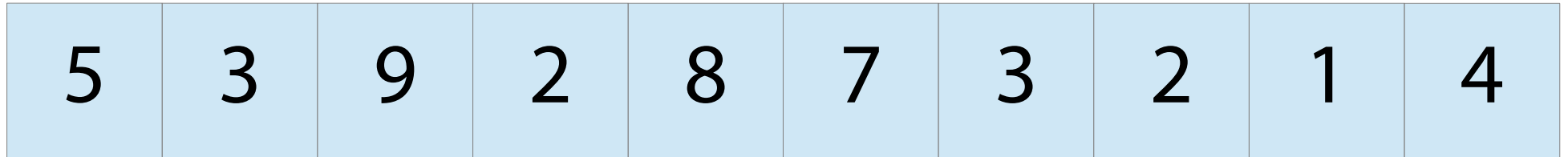
Pick an element from the array, called the *pivot*

*Partition* the array:

- First come all the elements smaller than the pivot, then the pivot, then all the elements greater than the pivot

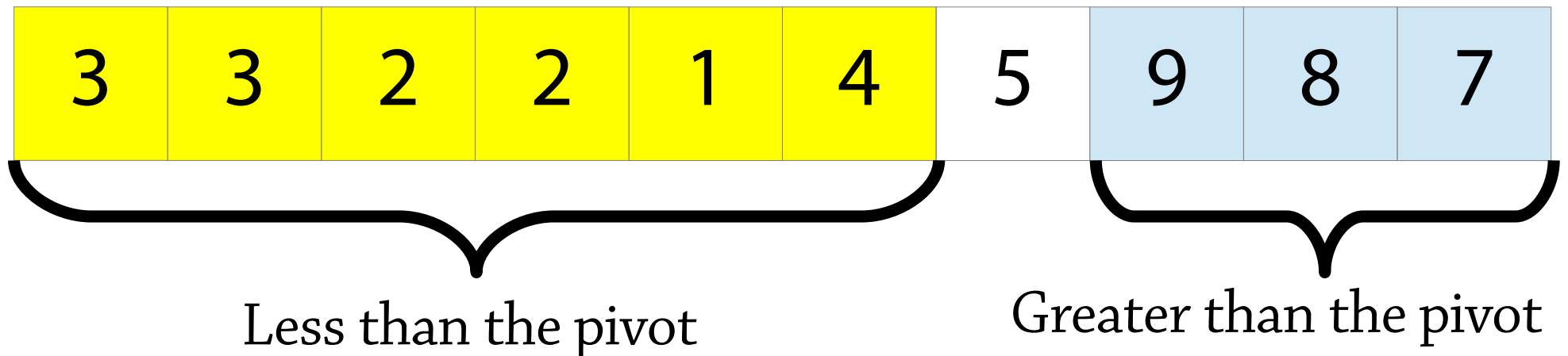
*Recursively* quicksort the two partitions

# Quicksort



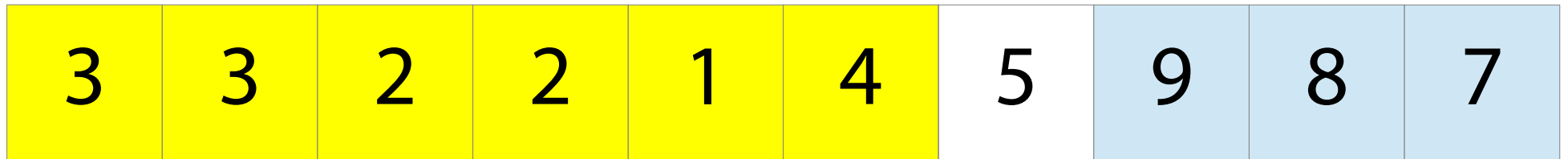
Say the pivot is 5.

Partition the array into: all elements less than 5, then 5, then all elements greater than 5

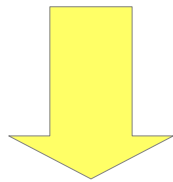


# Quicksort

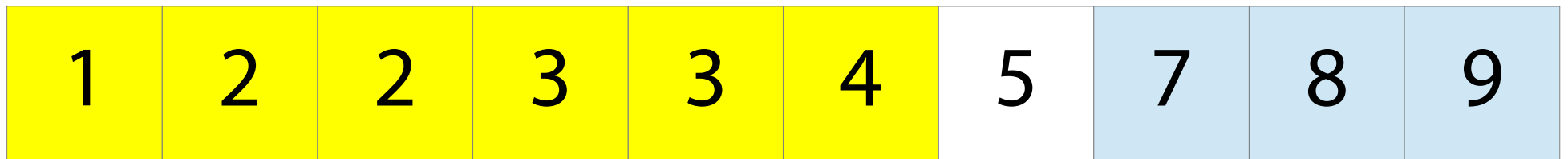
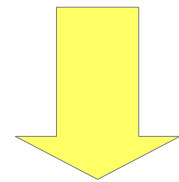
Now recursively quicksort the two partitions!



Quicksort



Quicksort



# Pseudocode

```
// call as sort(a, 0, a.length-1);  
void sort(int[] a, int low, int high) {  
    if (low >= high) return;  
    int pivot = partition(a, low, high);  
    // assume that partition returns the  
    // index where the pivot now is  
    sort(a, low, pivot-1);  
    sort(a, pivot+1, high);  
}
```

Common optimisation: switch to insertion sort when the input array is small

# Quicksort's performance

Mergesort is fast because it splits the array into two *equal* halves

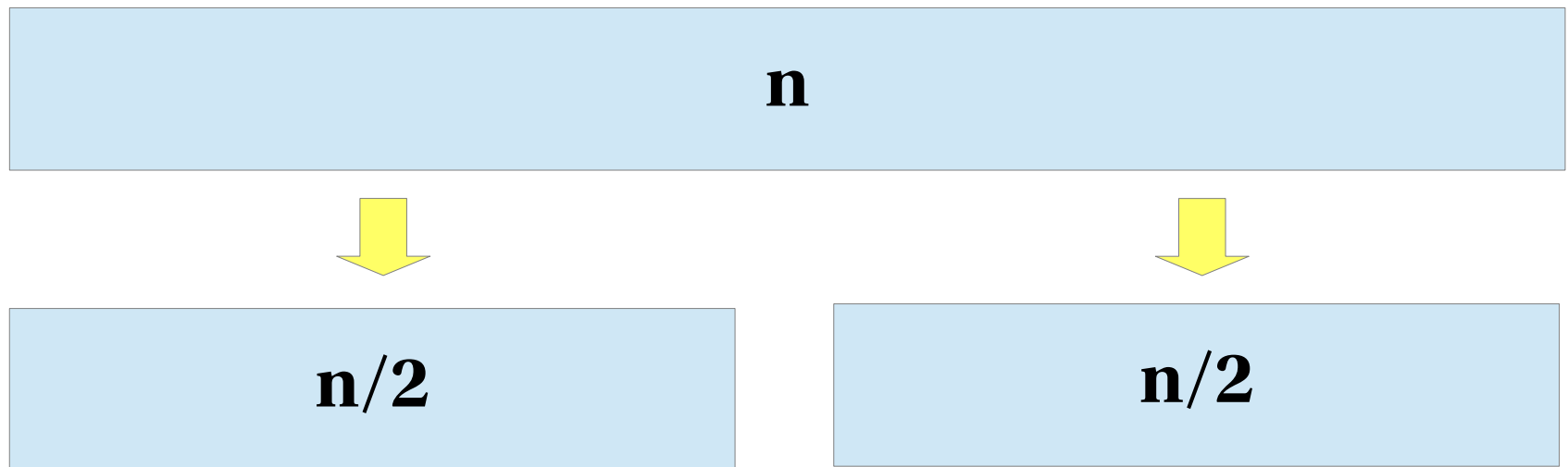
Quicksort just gives you two halves of whatever size!

So does it still work fast?



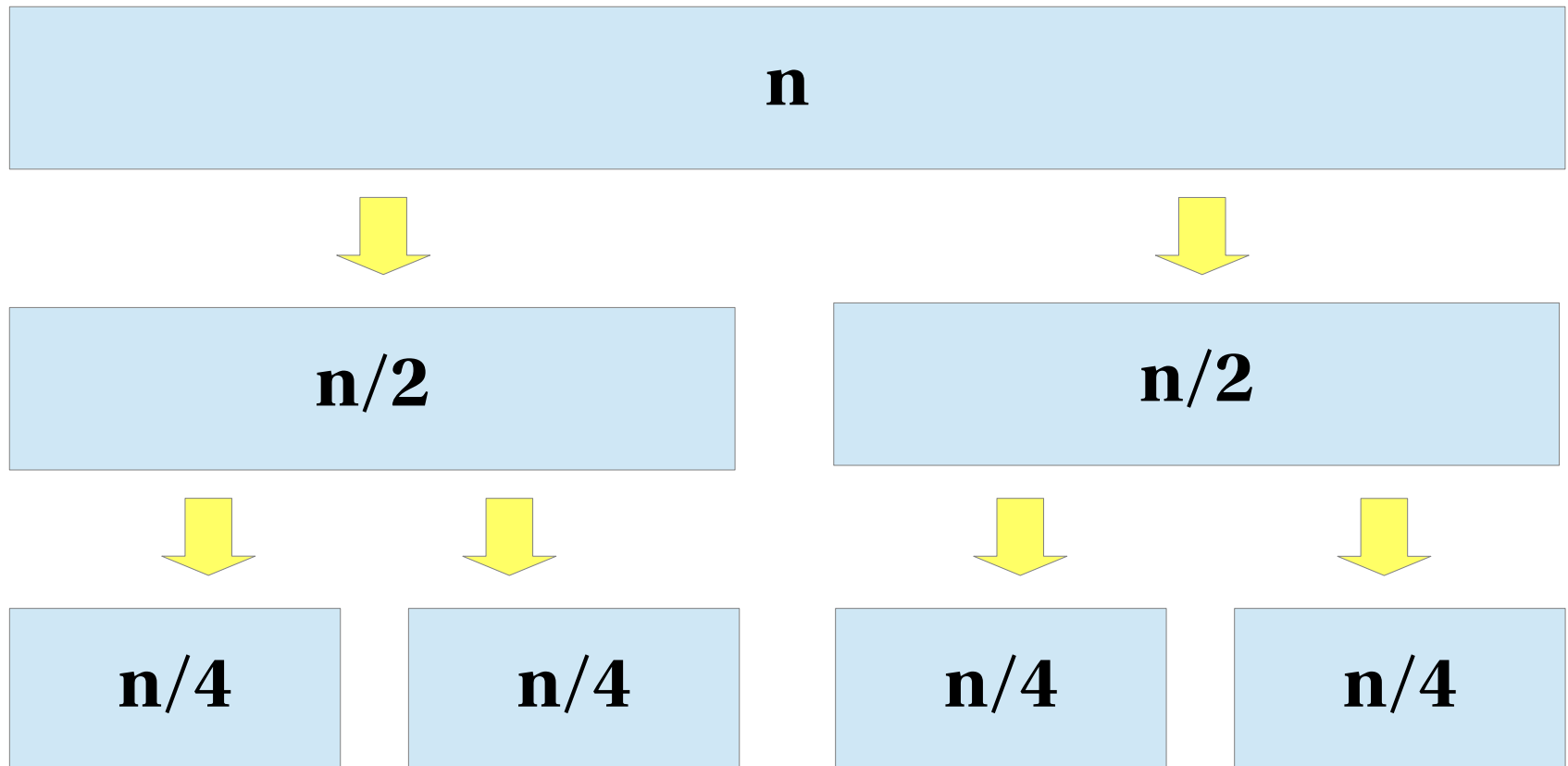
# Complexity of quicksort

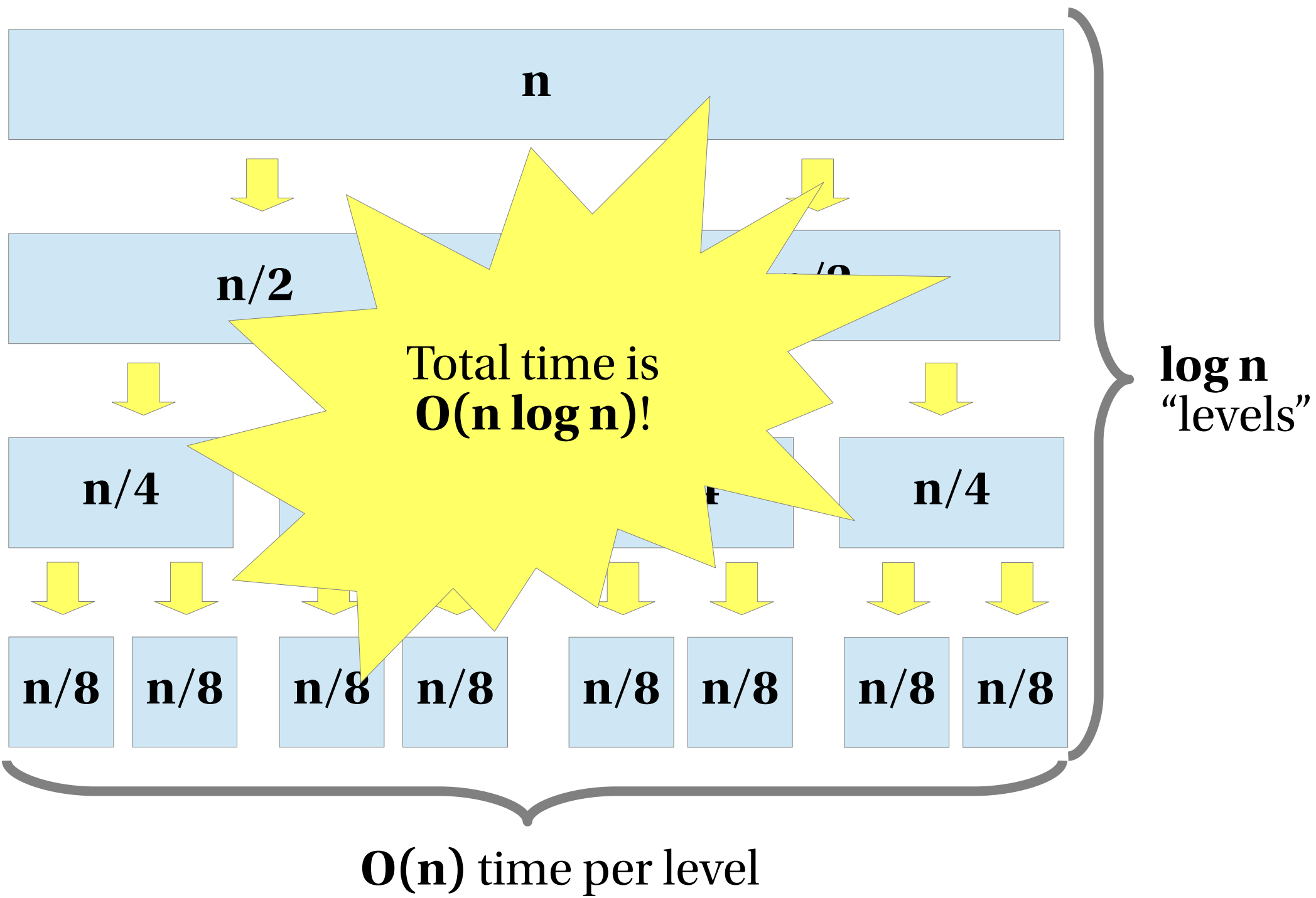
In the best case, partitioning splits an array of size  $n$  into two halves of size  $n/2$ :



# Complexity of quicksort

The recursive calls will split these arrays into four arrays of size  $n/4$ :



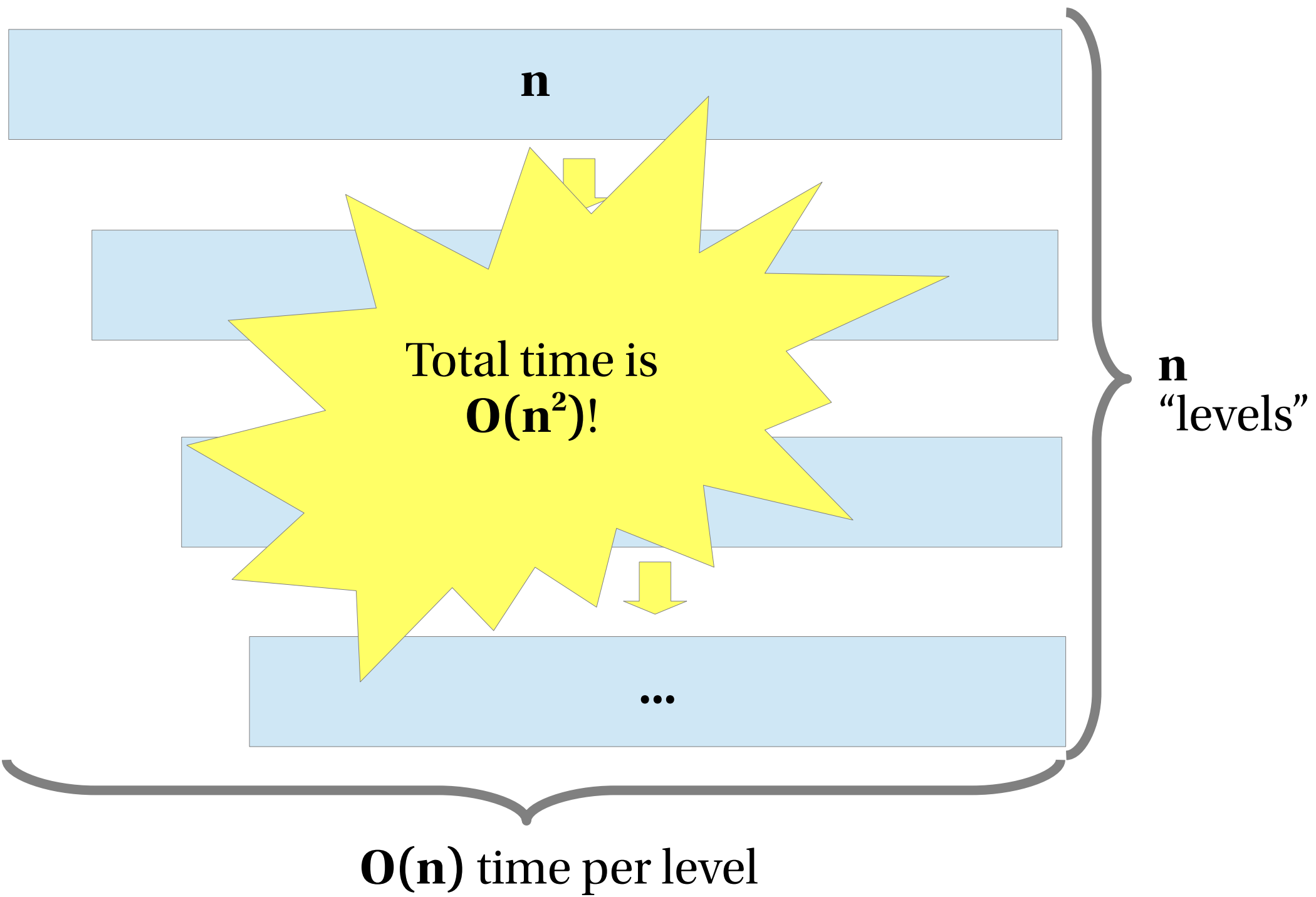


# Complexity of quicksort

But that's the best case!

In the worst case, everything is greater than the pivot (say)

- The recursive call has size  $n-1$
- Which in turn recurses with size  $n-2$ , etc.
- Amount of time spent in partitioning:  
 $n + (n-1) + (n-2) + \dots + 1 = \mathbf{O(n^2)}$



# Worst cases

When we simply use the first element as the pivot, we get this worst case for:

- Sorted arrays
- Reverse-sorted arrays

The best pivot to use is the *median* value of the array, but in practice it's too expensive to compute...

Most important decision in QuickSort:  
**what to use as the pivot**

# Complexity of quicksort

You don't need to split the array into *exactly* equal parts, it's enough to have some balance

- e.g. 10%/90% split still gives  $O(n \log n)$  runtime
- Median-of-three: pick first, middle and last element of the array and pick the median of those three – gives  $O(n \log n)$  in practice
- Pick pivot at random: gives  $O(n \log n)$  *expected* (probabilistic) complexity

Introsort: detect when we get into the  $O(n^2)$  case and switch to a different algorithm (e.g. heapsort, later in the course)

# Partitioning algorithm

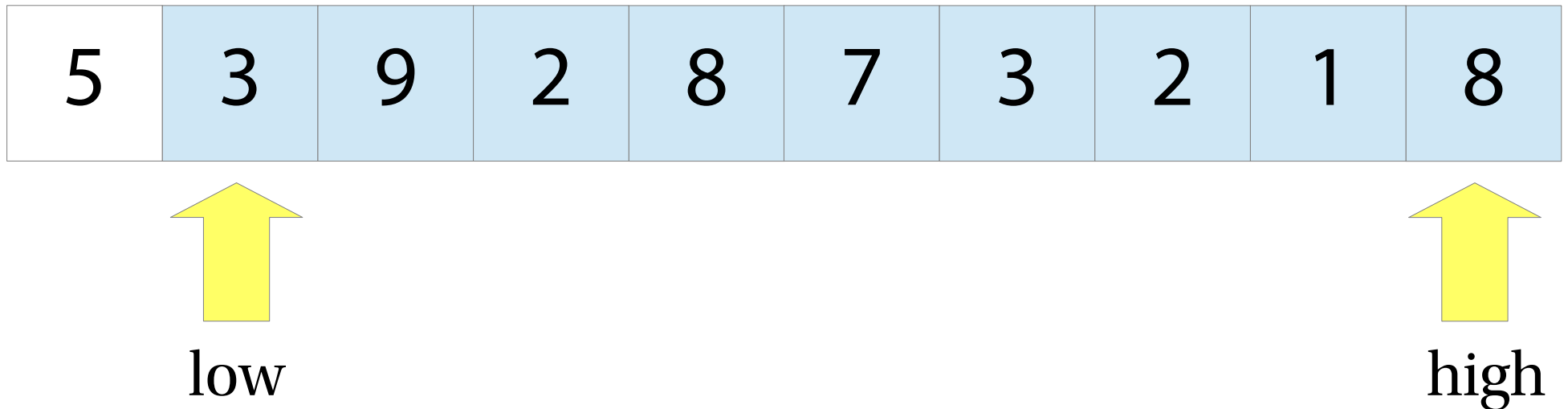
1. Pick a pivot (here 5)

|   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 5 | 3 | 9 | 2 | 8 | 7 | 3 | 2 | 1 | 8 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|



# Partitioning algorithm

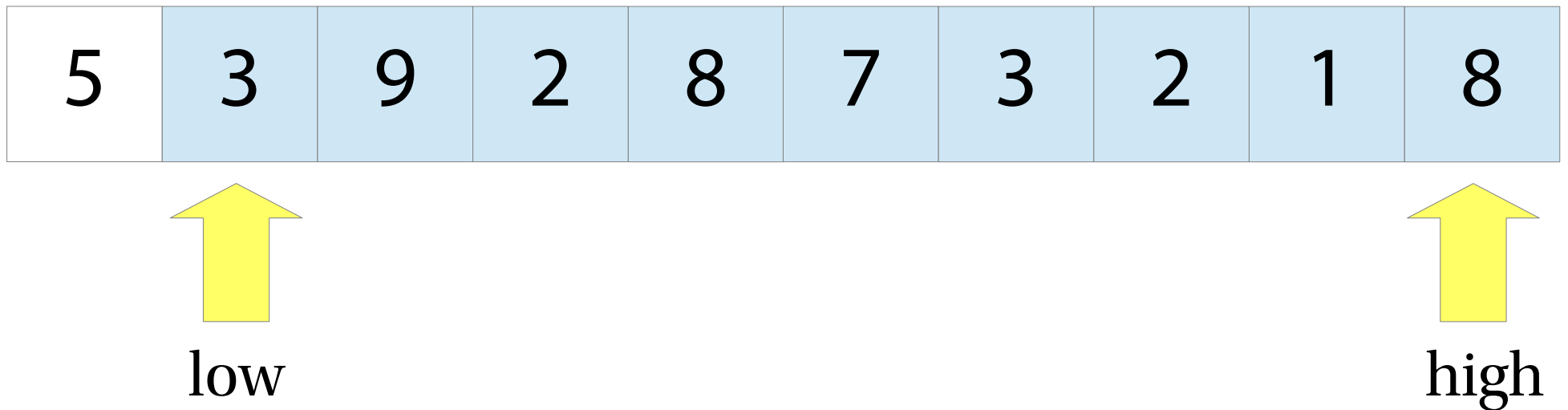
2. Set two indexes, low and high



Idea: everything to the left of low is less than the pivot (coloured yellow), everything to the right of high is greater than the pivot (green)

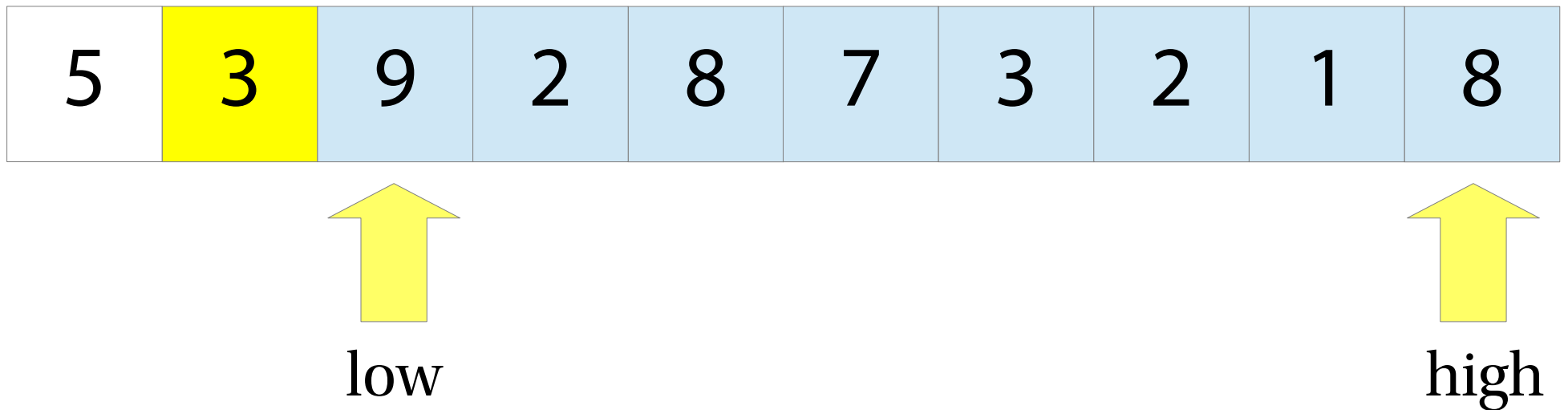
# Partitioning algorithm

3. Move low right until you find something greater than or equal to the pivot



# Partitioning algorithm

3. Move low right until you find something greater than or equal to the pivot



```
while (a[low] < pivot) low++;
```

# Partitioning algorithm

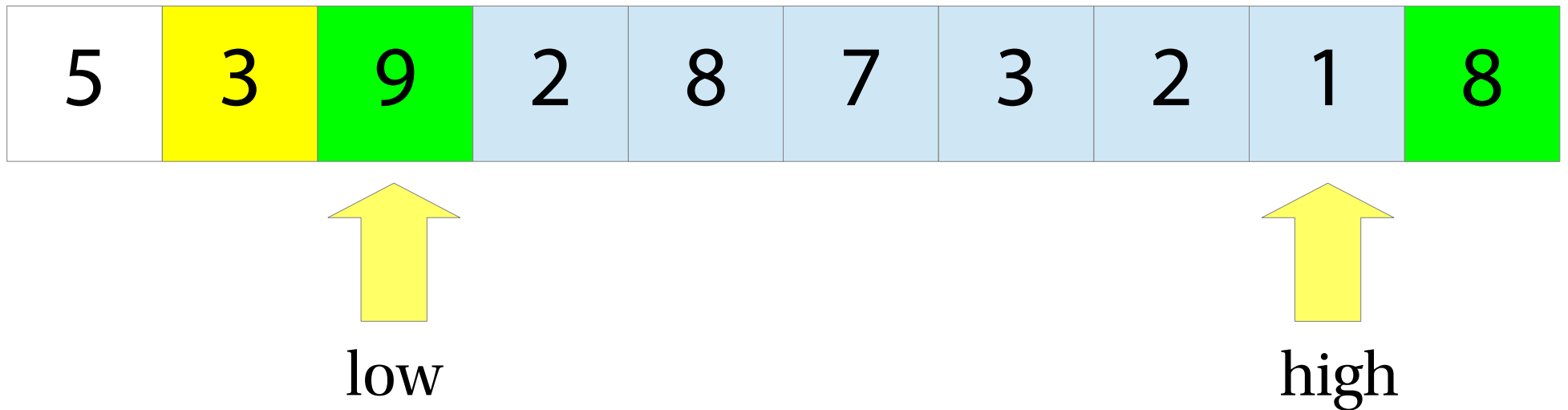
3. Move low right until you find something greater than or equal to the pivot



```
while (a[low] < pivot) low++;
```

# Partitioning algorithm

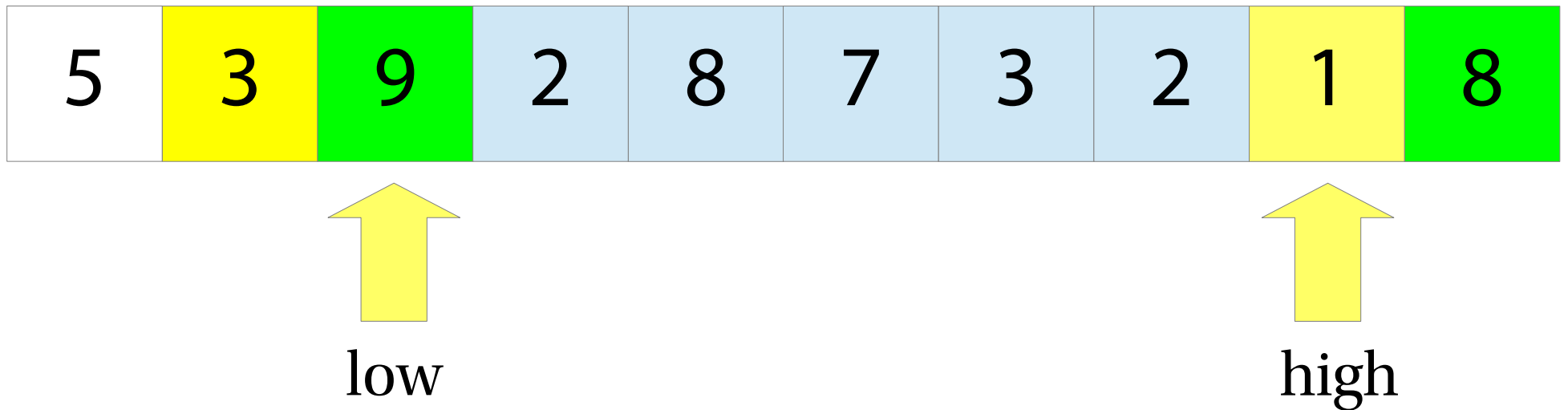
3. Move high left until you find something less than or equal to the pivot



```
while (a[high] < pivot) high--;
```

# Partitioning algorithm

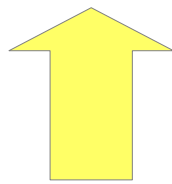
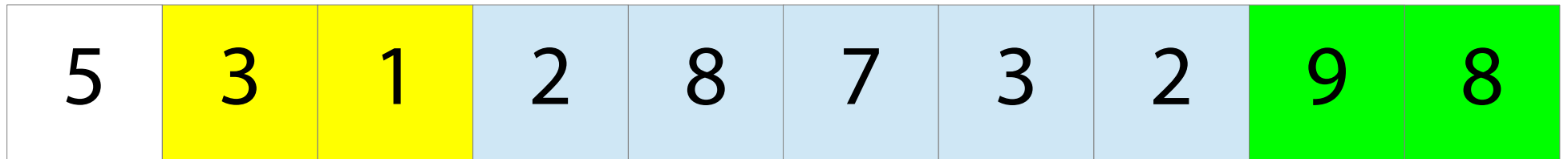
3. Move high left until you find something less than or equal to the pivot



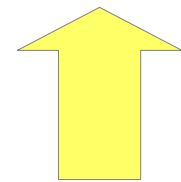
```
while (a[high] < pivot) high--;
```

# Partitioning algorithm

4. Swap them!



low

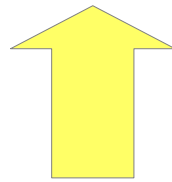
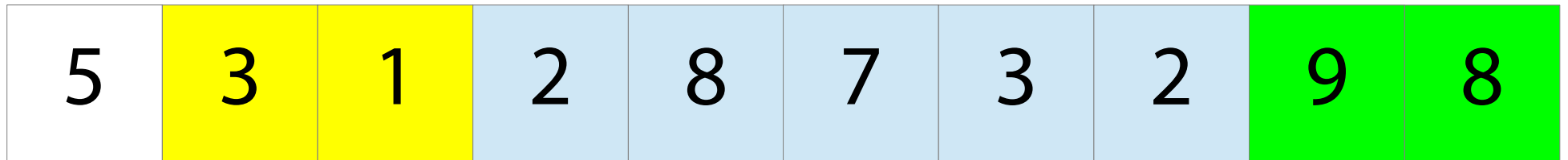


high

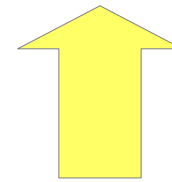
```
swap(a[low], a[high]);
```

# Partitioning algorithm

5. Advance low and high and repeat



low



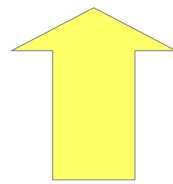
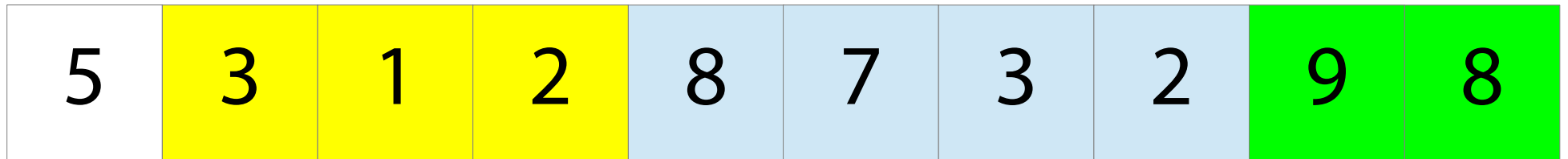
high

`low++; high--;`

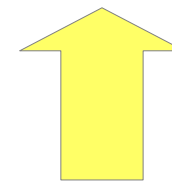


# Partitioning algorithm

5. Advance low and high and repeat



low

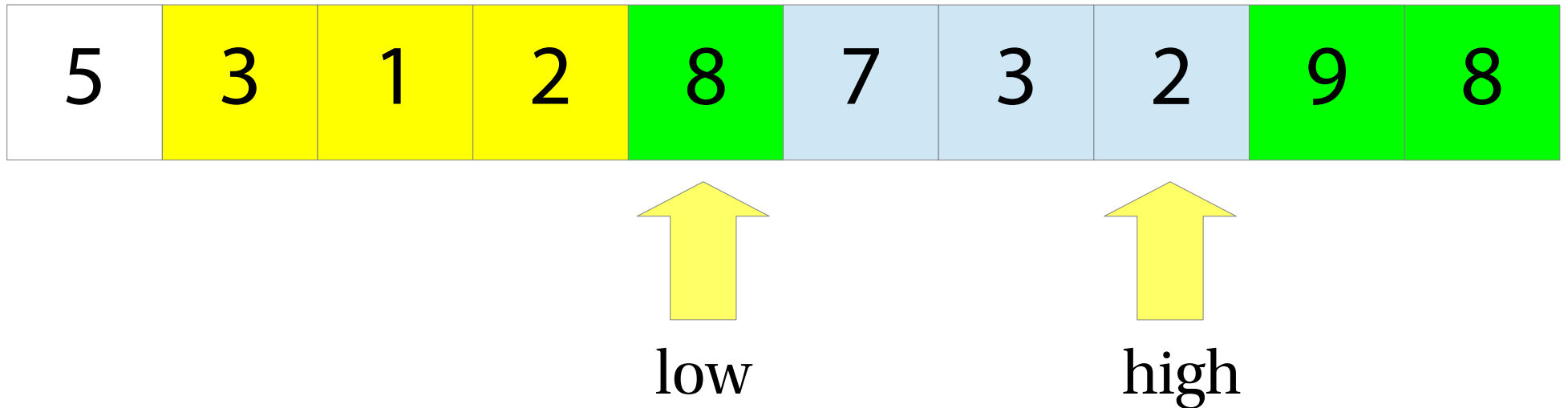


high

```
while (a[low] < pivot) low++;
```

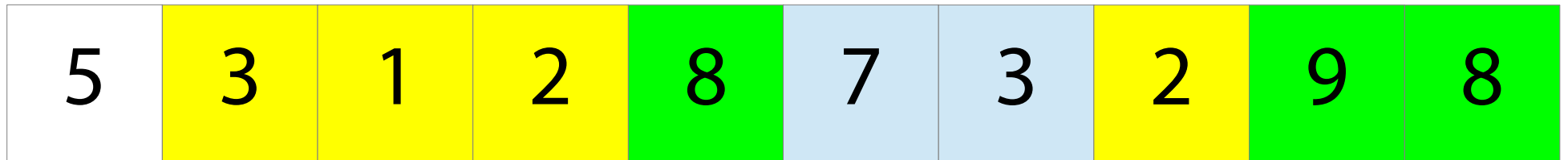
# Partitioning algorithm

5. Advance low and high and repeat



# Partitioning algorithm

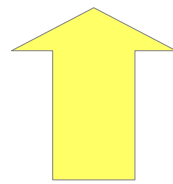
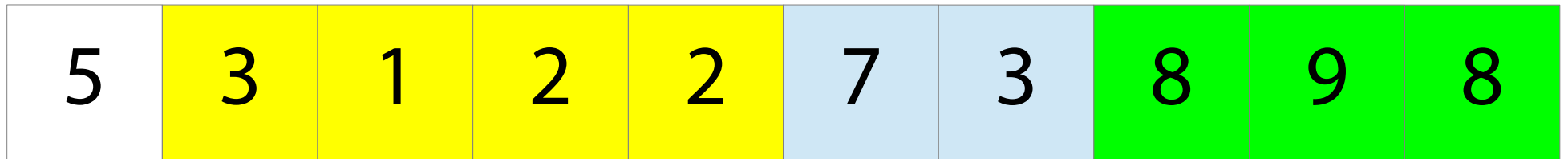
5. Advance low and high and repeat



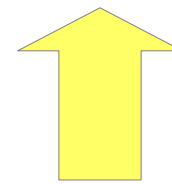
```
while (a[low] < pivot) high++;
```

# Partitioning algorithm

5. Advance low and high and repeat



low

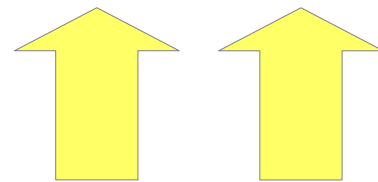
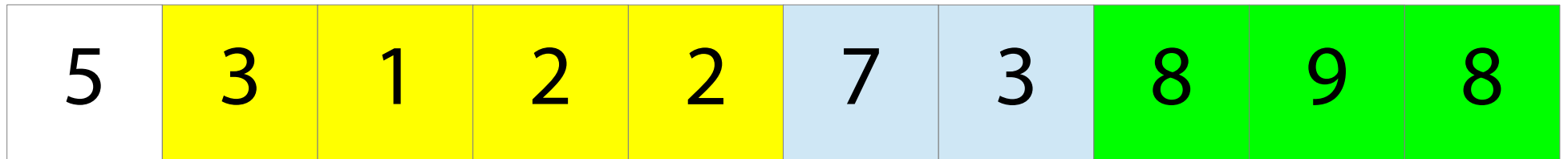


high

```
swap(a[low], a[high]);
```

# Partitioning algorithm

5. Advance low and high and repeat

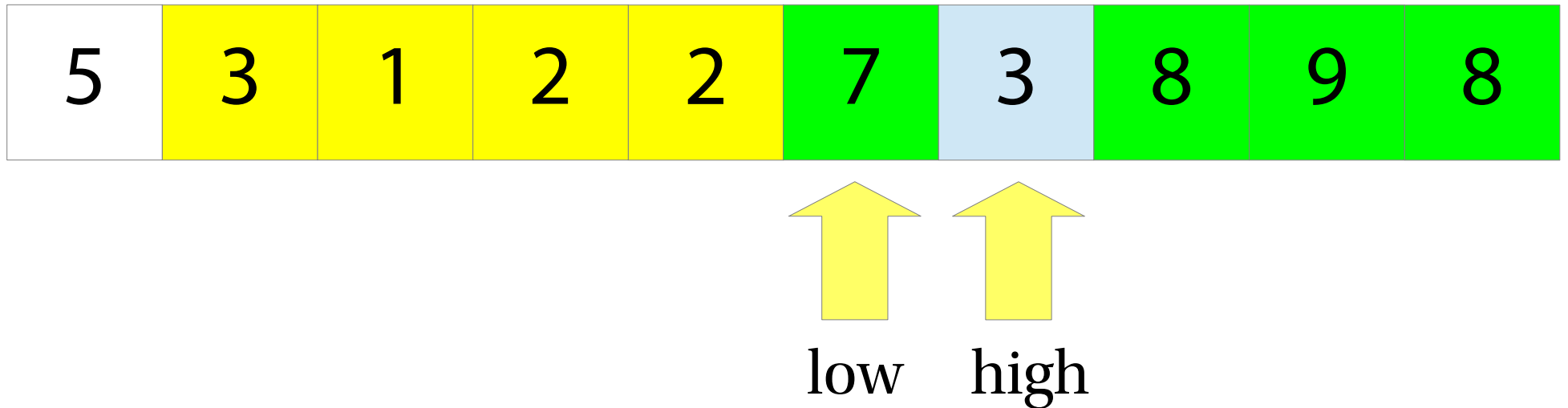


low high

`low++; high--;`

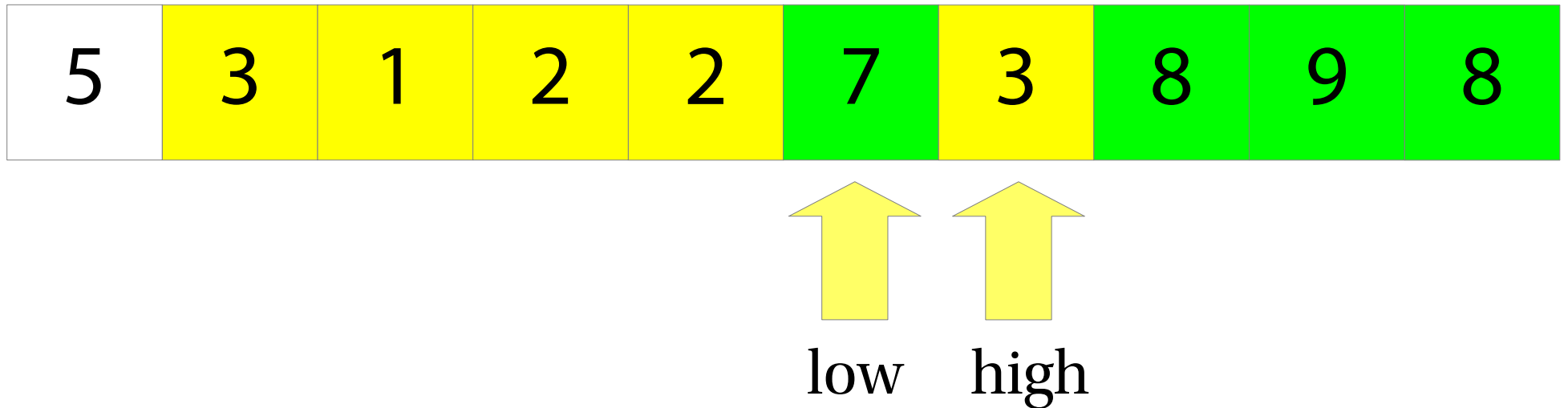
# Partitioning algorithm

5. Advance low and high and repeat



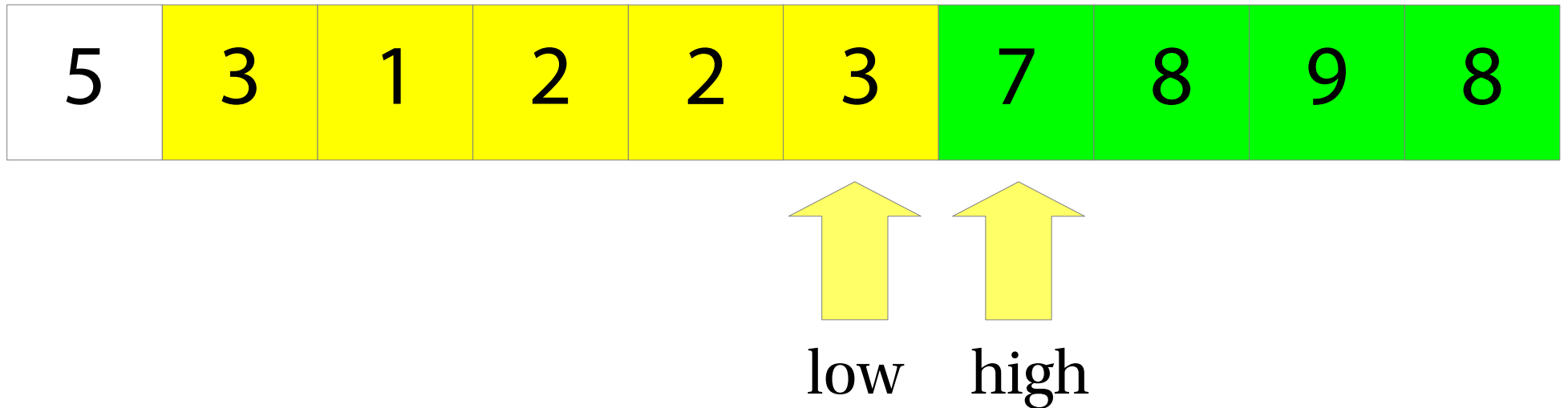
# Partitioning algorithm

5. Advance low and high and repeat



# Partitioning algorithm

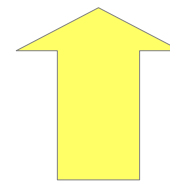
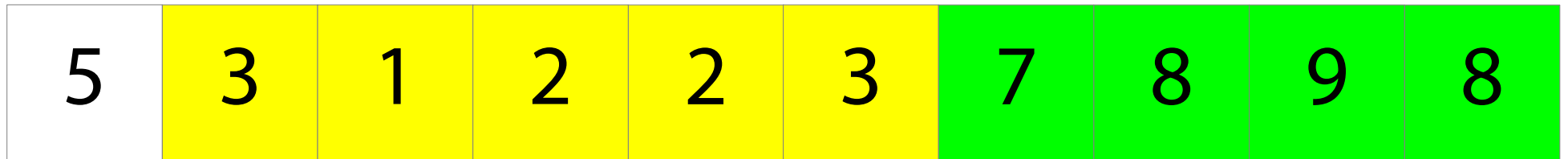
5. Advance low and high and repeat



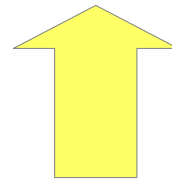


# Partitioning algorithm

5. Advance low and high and repeat



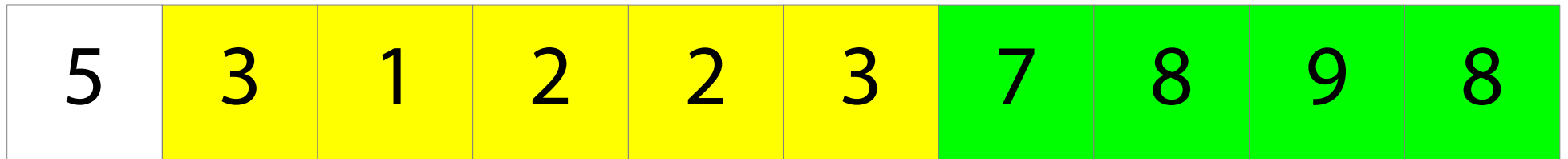
low



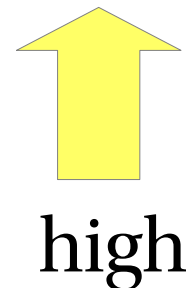
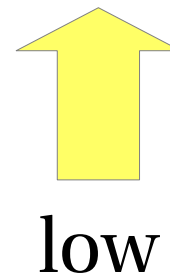
high

# Partitioning algorithm

6. When low and high have crossed, we are finished!

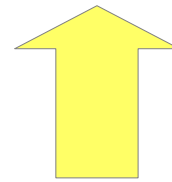
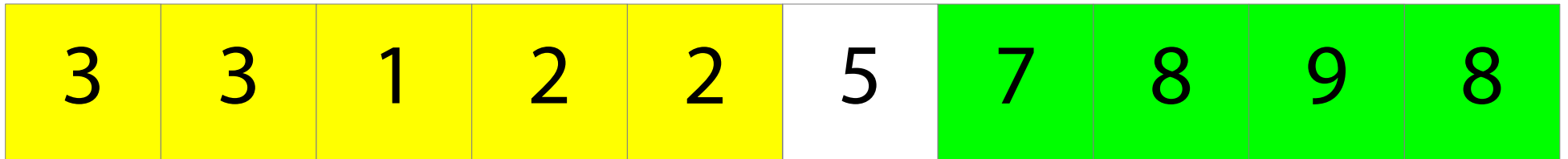


But the pivot is in the wrong place.

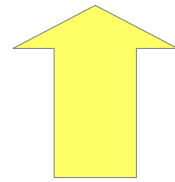


# Partitioning algorithm

7. Last step: swap pivot with high



low



high

# Details

1. What to do if we want to use a different element (not the first) for the pivot?
  - Swap the pivot with the first element before starting partitioning!

# Details

2. What happens if the array contains many duplicates?

- We only advance  $a[\text{low}]$  as long as  $a[\text{low}] < \text{pivot}$
- If  $a[\text{low}] == \text{pivot}$  we stop, same for  $a[\text{high}]$
- If the array contains just one element over and over again, low and high will advance at the same rate
- Hence we get equal-sized partitions

# Details

## 3. Which pivot should we pick?

- First element: gives  $O(n^2)$  behaviour for already-sorted lists – **no!**
- Median – leads to optimal partition but expensive to compute – **no!**
- Median-of-three: pick first, middle and last element of the array and pick the median of those three – **yes!**
- Pick pivot at random: gives  $O(n \log n)$  *expected* (probabilistic) complexity – **yes!**

# Quicksort

Typically the fastest sorting algorithm...  
...but very sensitive to details!

- Must choose a good pivot to avoid  $O(n^2)$  case
- Must take care with duplicates
- Switch to insertion sort for small arrays to get better constant factors

If you do all that right, you get an in-place sorting algorithm, with low constant factors and  $O(n \log n)$  complexity

# Mergesort vs quicksort

## Quicksort:

- In-place
- $O(n \log n)$  but  $O(n^2)$  if you are not careful – delicate, may be unsuitable if the input can be chosen by a malicious user
- Works on arrays only (random access)

## Compared to mergesort:

- Not in-place – somewhat higher constant factors
- $O(n \log n)$  – reliable
- Only requires sequential access to the list – can be used to sort lists in functional languages, data stored on disk, etc.

## Both widely used in practice!

- Insertion sort as base case is common



# Sorting

Why is sorting important? Because sorted lists are much easier to deal with!

- Searching – use binary instead of linear search
- Finding duplicates – takes linear instead of quadratic time
- etc.

The only thing that is hard about sorted lists is *updating* them

- Insertion, deletion takes  $O(n)$  time
- For data that does not need to be updated, a sorted list is often the best

Most sorting algorithms are based on *comparisons*

- Compare elements – is one bigger than the other? If not, do something about it!
- Advantage: they can work on all sorts of data
- Disadvantage: specialised algorithms for e.g. sorting lists of integers can be faster

# **Complexity of recursive functions**

# Calculating complexity

Let  $T(n)$  be the time mergesort takes on a list of size  $n$

Mergesort does  $O(n)$  work to split the list in two, two recursive calls of size  $n/2$  and  $O(n)$  work to merge the two halves together, so...

$$T(n) = O(n) + 2T(n/2)$$

Time to sort a list of size  $n$

Linear amount of time spent in splitting + merging

Plus two recursive calls of size  $n/2$

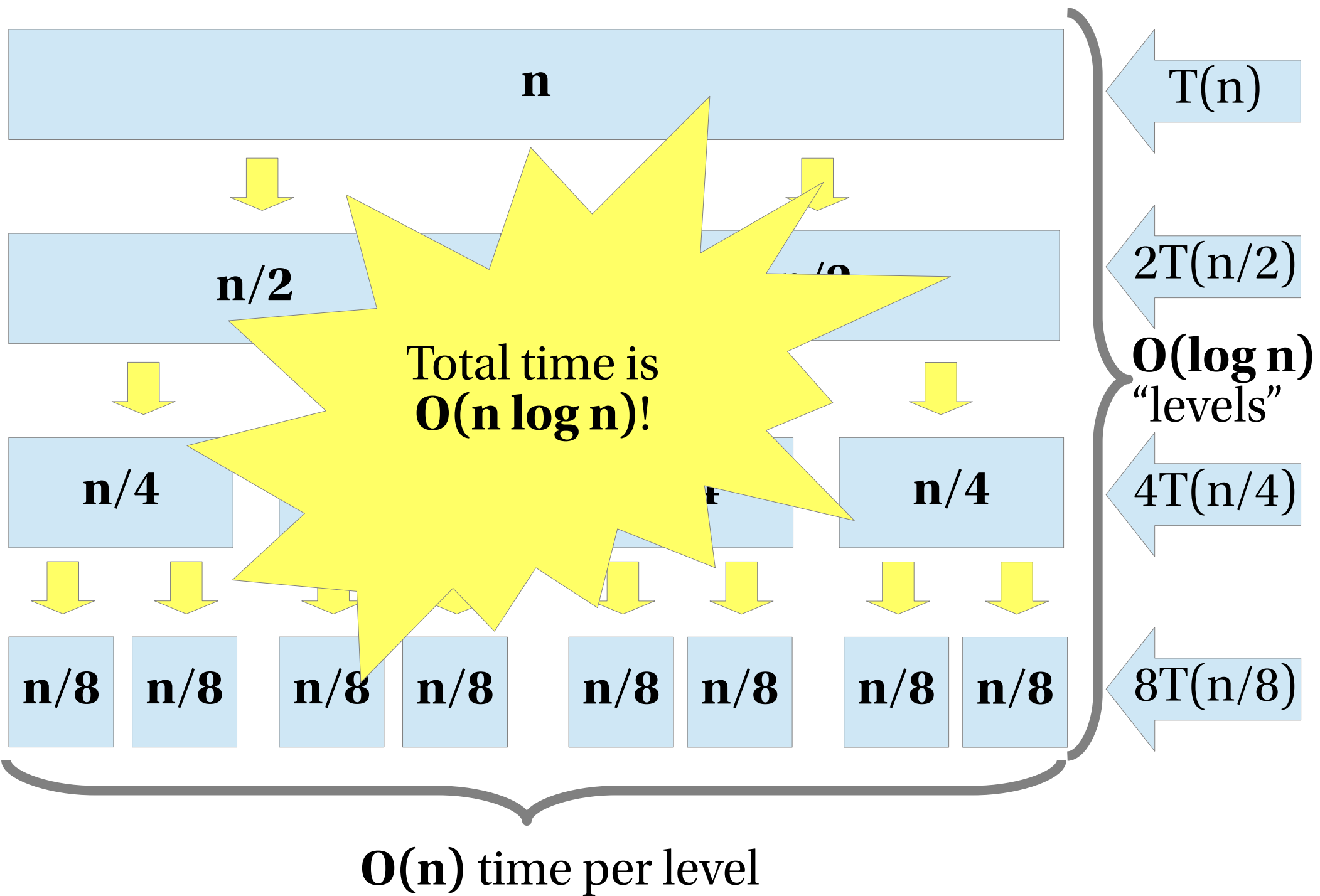
# Calculating complexity

Procedure for calculating complexity of a recursive algorithm:

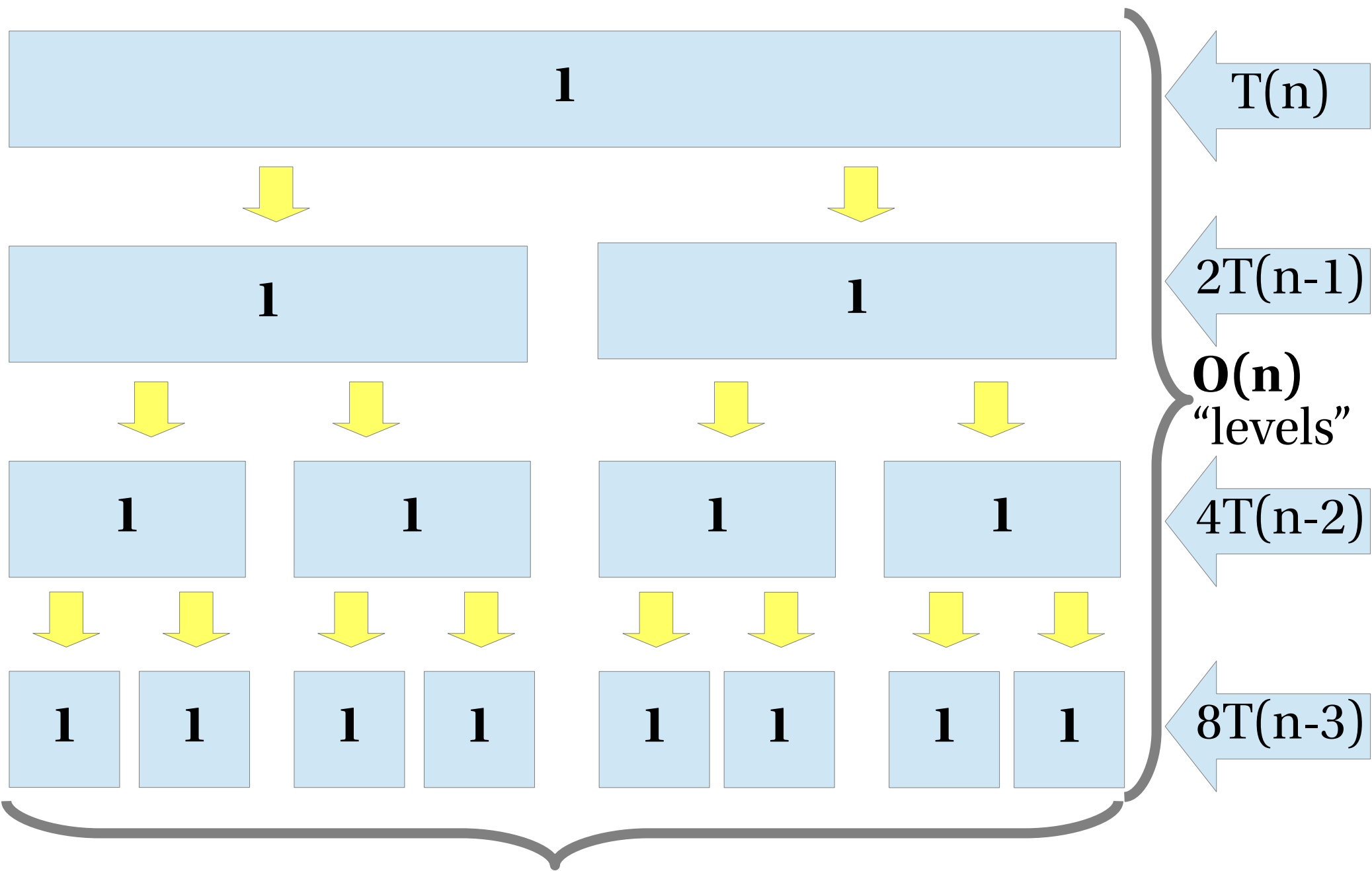
- Write down a *recurrence relation*  
e.g.  $T(n) = O(n) + 2T(n/2)$
- *Solve* the recurrence relation to get a formula for  $T(n)$  (difficult!)

There isn't a general way of solving *any* recurrence relation – we'll just see a few families of them

Approach 1:  
draw a diagram

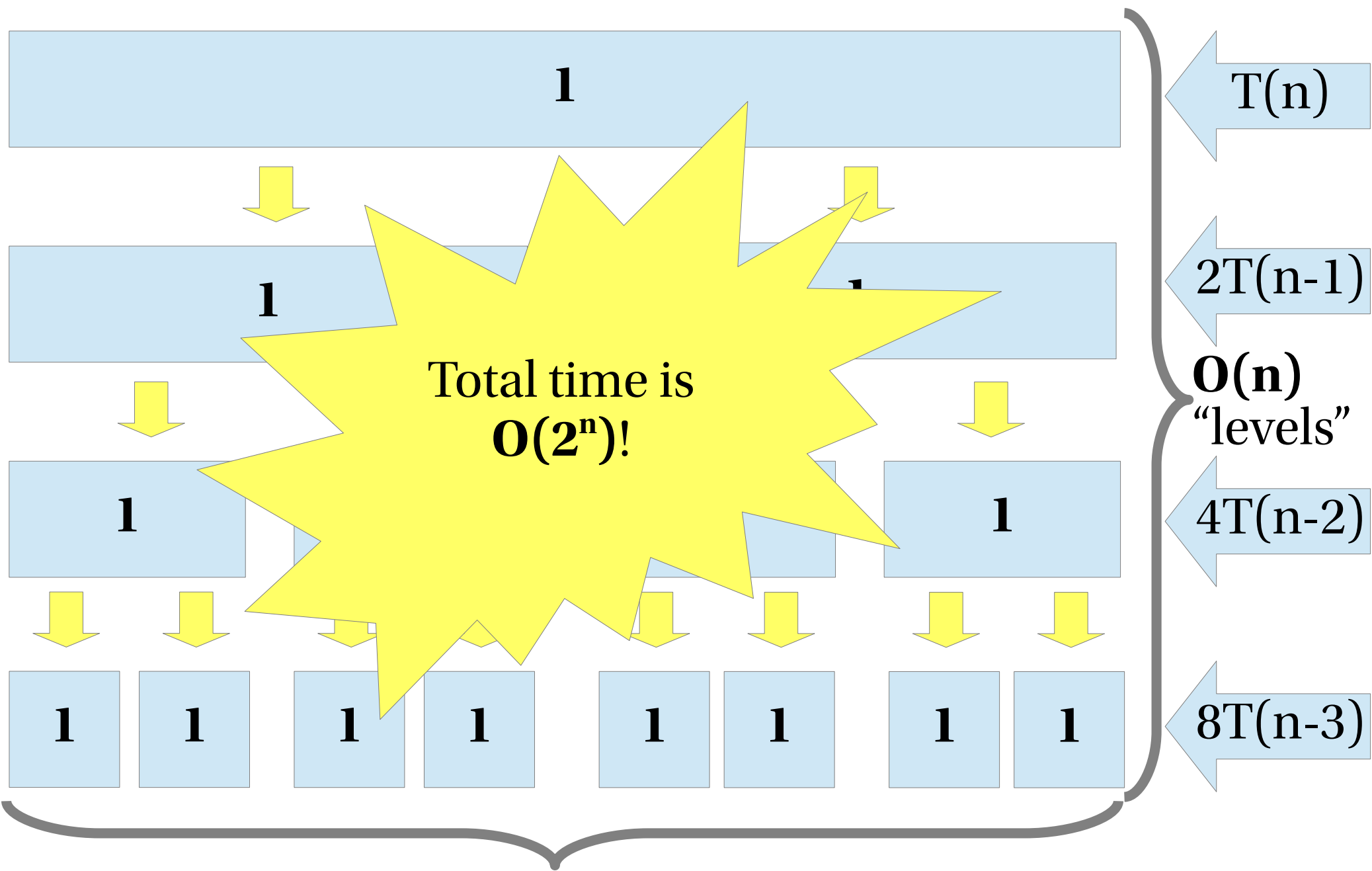


Another example:  
 $T(n) = O(1) + 2T(n-1)$



amount of work **doubles** at each level





amount of work **doubles** at each level

# This approach

Good for building an intuition

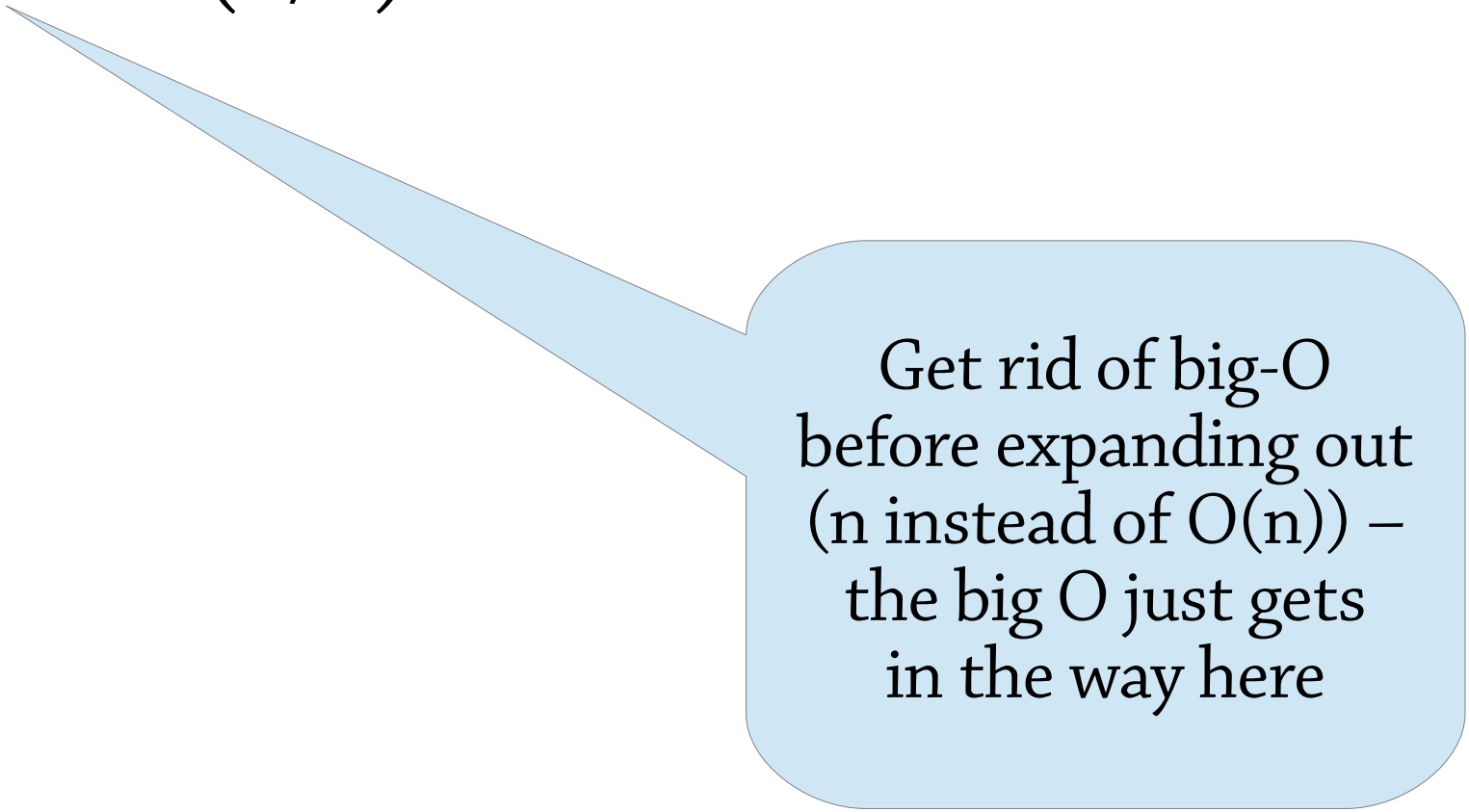
Maybe a bit error-prone

Approach 2: *expand out* the definition

Example: solving  $T(n) = O(n) + 2T(n/2)$

# Expanding out recurrence relations

$$T(n) = n + 2T(n/2)$$



Get rid of big-O  
before expanding out  
(n instead of  $O(n)$ ) –  
the big O just gets  
in the way here

# Expanding out recurrence relations

$$T(n) = n + 2T(n/2)$$

$$= n + 2(n/2 + 2T(n/4))$$

$$= n + n + 4T(n/4)$$


$$= n + n + n + 8T(n/8)$$

$$= \dots$$

$$= n + n + n + \dots + n + T(1) \text{ (log } n \text{ times)}$$

$$= O(n \log n)$$

(Note that  $T(1)$  is a constant so  $O(1)$ )



Expand out  $T(n/2)$

If you prefer it a bit more formally...

$$T(n) = n + 2T(n/2)$$

$$= 2n + 4T(n/4)$$

$$= 3n + 8T(n/8) = \dots$$

General form is  **$T(n) = kn + 2^k T(n/2^k)$**   
(you can prove this by induction on  $k$ )

When  $k = \log n$ , this is  **$n \log n + nT(1)$**

which is  $O(n \log n)$

# Divide-and-conquer algorithms

$$T(n) = O(n) + 2T(n/2): T(n) = O(n \log n)$$

- This is mergesort!

$$T(n) = 2T(n-1): T(n) = O(2^n)$$

- Because  $2^n$  recursive calls of depth  $n$   
(exercise: show this)

Other cases: *master theorem*

- Kind of fiddly – best to just look it up if you need it  
(avoid Wikipedia unfortunately)

Another example:  $T(n) = O(n) + T(n-1)$

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

$$= n + (n-1) + T(n-2)$$

$$= n + (n-1) + (n-2) + T(n-3)$$

$$= \dots$$

$$= n + (n-1) + (n-2) + \dots + 1 + T(0)$$

$$= n(n+1) / 2 + T(0)$$

$$= O(n^2)$$

Another example:  $T(n) = O(1) + T(n-1)$

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

$$= 2 + T(n-2)$$

$$= 3 + T(n-3)$$

$$= \dots$$

$$= n + T(0)$$

$$= O(n)$$



Another example:  $T(n) = O(1) + T(n/2)$

$$T(n) = 1 + T(n/2)$$

$$= 2 + T(n/4)$$

$$= 3 + T(n/8)$$

$$= \dots$$

$$= \log n + T(1)$$

$$= O(\log n)$$

Another example:  $T(n) = O(n) + T(n/2)$

$$T(n) = n + T(n/2):$$

$$T(n) = n + T(n/2)$$

$$= n + n/2 + T(n/4)$$

$$= n + n/2 + n/4 + T(n/8)$$

$$= \dots$$

$$= n + n/2 + n/4 + \dots$$

$$< 2n$$

$$= O(n)$$

**Not**  
 $O(n \log n)$ ,  
which is what you  
might expect

# Functions that recurse once

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

$$T(n) = O(n) + T(n-1): T(n) = O(n^2)$$

$$T(n) = O(1) + T(n/2): T(n) = O(\log n)$$

$$T(n) = O(n) + T(n/2): T(n) = O(n)$$

*An almost-rule-of-thumb:*

- Solution is *maximum recursion depth* times *amount of work in one call*

(except that this rule of thumb would give  $O(n \log n)$  for the last case)

Functions that recurse once are basically loops!

# Complexity of recursive functions

Basic idea – recurrence relations

Easy enough to write down, hard to solve

- One technique: expand out the recurrence and see what happens
- Another rule of thumb: multiply work done per level with number of levels
- Drawing a diagram might help

Master theorem for divide and conquer

*Luckily, in practice you come across the same few recurrence relations, so you usually just need to know how to solve those*