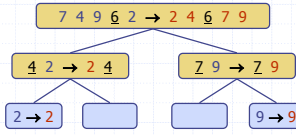


Quick-Sort

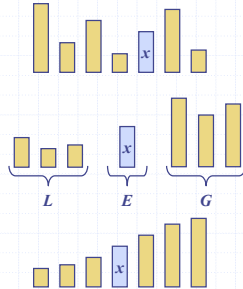


Outline and Reading

- ◆ Quick-sort (§4.3)
 - Algorithm
 - Partition step
 - Quick-sort tree
 - Execution example
- ◆ Analysis of quick-sort (4.3.1)

Quick-Sort

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



Partition

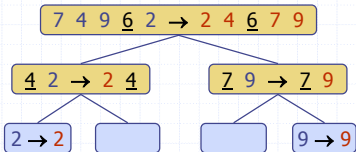
- ◆ We partition an input sequence as follows:
 - We remove, in turn, each element y from S and
 - We insert y into L, E or G , depending on the result of the comparison with the pivot x .
- ◆ Each insertion and removal is at the beginning or at the end of a sequence, and hence takes $O(1)$ time
- ◆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

```

Algorithm partition( $S, p$ )
Input sequence  $S$ , position  $p$  of pivot
Output subsequences  $L, E, G$  of the elements of  $S$  less than, equal to, or greater than the pivot, resp.
 $L, E, G \leftarrow$  empty sequences
 $x \leftarrow S.remove(p)$ 
while  $\neg S.isEmpty()$ 
     $y \leftarrow S.remove(S.first())$ 
    if  $y < x$ 
         $L.insertLast(y)$ 
    else if  $y = x$ 
         $E.insertLast(y)$ 
    else  $\{ y > x \}$ 
         $G.insertLast(y)$ 
return  $L, E, G$ 
    
```

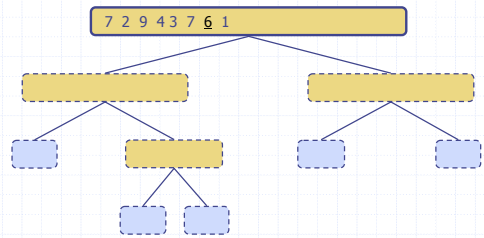
Quick-Sort Tree

- ◆ An execution of quick-sort is depicted by a binary tree
 - Each node represents a recursive call of quick-sort 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



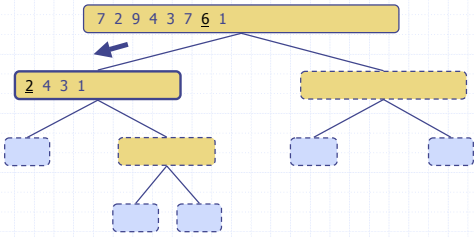
Execution Example

- ◆ Pivot selection



Execution Example (cont.)

- ◆ Partition, recursive call, pivot selection

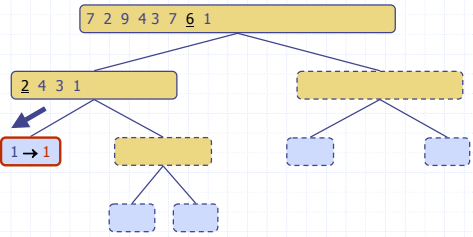


More Sorting v 1.1

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Execution Example (cont.)

- ◆ Partition, recursive call, base case

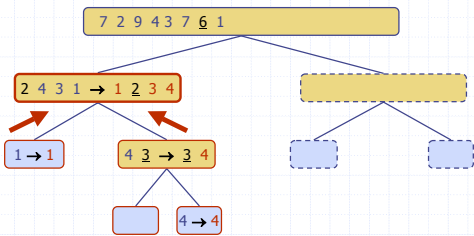


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Execution Example (cont.)

- ◆ Recursive call, ..., base case, join

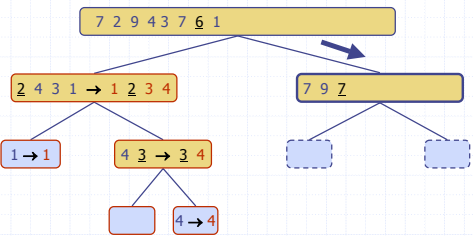


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Execution Example (cont.)

- ◆ Recursive call, pivot selection

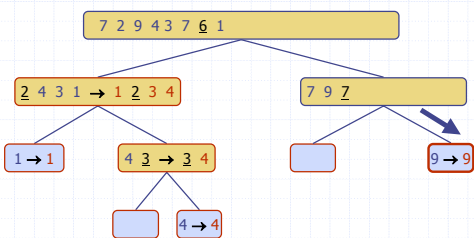


More Sorting v 1.1

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Execution Example (cont.)

- ◆ Partition, ..., recursive call, base case

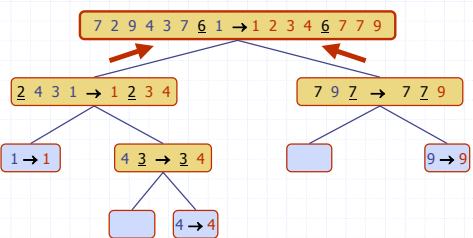


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Execution Example (cont.)

- ◆ Join, join

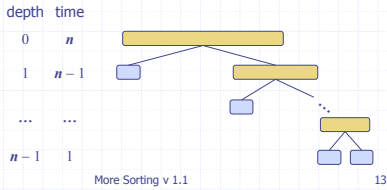


More Sorting v 1.1

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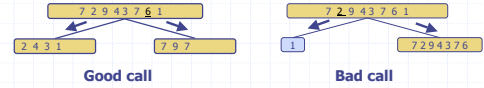
Worst-case Running Time

- The worst case for quick-sort occurs when the pivot is the unique minimum or maximum element
- One of L and G has size $n - 1$ and the other has size 0
- The running time is proportional to the sum $n + (n - 1) + \dots + 2 + 1$
- Thus, the worst-case running time of quick-sort is $O(n^2)$



Expected Running Time

- 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 $3s/4$
 - Bad call:** one of L and G has size greater than $3s/4$



- A call is **good** with probability $1/2$
 - $1/2$ of the possible pivots cause good calls:



More Sorting v 1.1

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Sorting Lower Bound



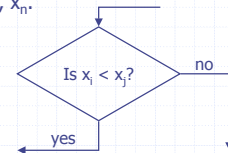
More Sorting v 1.1

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Comparison-Based Sorting (§ 4.4)



- 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, \dots, x_n .

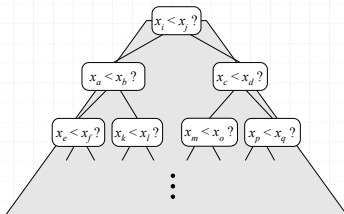


More Sorting v 1.1

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Counting Comparisons

- Let us just count comparisons then.
- Each possible run of the algorithm corresponds to a root-to-leaf path in a **decision tree**

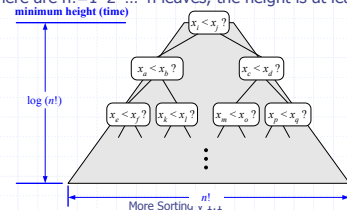


More Sorting v 1.1

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Decision Tree Height

- The height of this decision tree is a lower bound on the running time
- Every possible 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 $n! = 1 * 2 * \dots * n$ leaves, the height is at least $\log(n!)$



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The Lower Bound

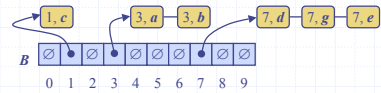


- ◆ Any comparison-based sorting algorithm takes at least $\log(n!)$ time
- ◆ Therefore, any such algorithm takes time at least

$$\log(n!) \geq \log\left(\frac{n}{2}\right)^{\frac{n}{2}} = (n/2) \log(n/2).$$

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

Bucket-Sort and Radix-Sort



Bucket-Sort (§ 4.5.1)



- ◆ 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); N total buckets.

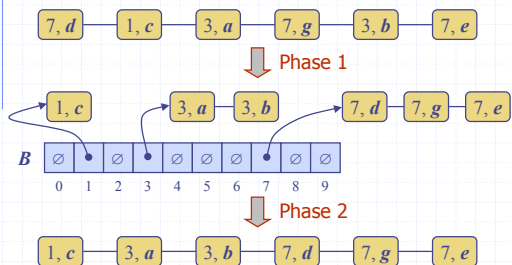
Phase 1: Empty sequence S by moving each item (k, o) into its bucket $B[k]$

Phase 2: For $i = 0, \dots, N - 1$, move the items of bucket $B[i]$ to the end of sequence S

Example



- ◆ Key range $[0, 9]$



Bucket-Sort (§ 4.5.1)



- ◆ **Phase 1:** Move items into buckets
- ◆ **Phase 2:** Move buckets into sequence, in order.

- ◆ **Analysis:**

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

Bucket-sort takes $O(n + N)$ time

- ◆ **Correctness:**

- What are loop invariants for Phase 1 and 2?

Algorithm *bucketSort(S, N)*

Input sequence S of (key, element) items with keys in the range $[0, N - 1]$

Output sequence S sorted by increasing keys

$B \leftarrow$ array of N empty sequences

while $\neg S.isEmpty()$

$f \leftarrow S.first()$

$(k, o) \leftarrow S.remove(f)$

$B[k].insertLast((k, o))$

for $i \leftarrow 0$ **to** $N - 1$

while $\neg B[i].isEmpty()$

$f \leftarrow B[i].first()$

$(k, o) \leftarrow B[i].remove(f)$

$S.insertLast((k, o))$

Bucket-Sort Properties



- ◆ Keys have a fixed range of values.
- ◆ Keys are NOT compared.
- ◆ bucketSort is a stable sort.
- ◆ **Stable Sort Property:**
 - Any two items with the same key will be in the same relative order after sorting.

Lexicographic Order



- ◆ A d -tuple is a sequence of d keys (k_1, k_2, \dots, 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 are a 3-tuple
- ◆ The lexicographic order of two d -tuples is recursively defined as follows

$$(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_d) < (y_1, y_2, \dots, y_d)$$



$$x_1 < y_1 \vee x_1 = y_1 \wedge (x_2, \dots, x_d) < (y_2, \dots, y_d)$$

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

Radix-Sort (§ 4.5.2)

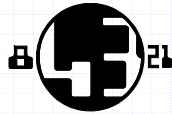
Algorithm $radixSort(S, N)$

Input sequence S of d -tuples such that $(0, \dots, 0) \leq (x_1, \dots, x_d)$ and $(x_1, \dots, x_d) \leq (N-1, \dots, N-1)$ for each tuple (x_1, \dots, x_d) in S
Output sequence S sorted in lexicographic order
for $i \leftarrow d$ **down to** 1
 $bucketSort(S, N, i)$
 (bucketSorts S on dimension i)

Example:

(7,4,6) (5,1,5) (2,4,6) (2, 1, 4) (3, 2, 4)
 (2, 1, 4) (3, 2, 4) (5,1,5) (7,4,6) (2,4,6)
 (2, 1, 4) (5,1,5) (3, 2, 4) (7,4,6) (2,4,6)
 (2, 1, 4) (2,4,6) (3, 2, 4) (5,1,5) (7,4,6)

Radix-Sort for Base 10 Numbers



- ◆ Consider a sequence of n d -digit integers

$$x = x_{d-1} \dots x_1 x_0$$

- ◆ We represent each element as a d -tuple of integers in the range $[0, 9]$ and apply bucket-sort with $N = 10$
- ◆ This application of the radix-sort algorithm runs in $O(dn)$ time
- ◆ For example, we can sort a sequence of 10-digit integers in linear time

Algorithm $base10RadixSort(S)$

Input sequence S of d -digit integers
Output sequence S sorted
 replace each element x of S with the item $(0, x)$
for $i \leftarrow 0$ **to** $d-1$
 replace the key k of each item (k, x) of S with digit x_i of x
 $bucketSort(S, 10)$

Example



- ◆ Sorting a sequence of 4-digit integers

