

# Data Structures and Algorithms

## Chapter 4

1. About sorting algorithms
2. Heapsort
  - Complete binary trees
  - Heap data structure
3. Quicksort
  - a popular algorithm
  - very fast on average

# Previous Chapter

- Divide and conquer
- Merge sort
- Tiling
- Recurrences
  - repeated substitutions
  - substitution
  - master method
- Example recurrences

# Why Sorting

- “When in doubt, sort” – one of the principles of algorithm design.
- Sorting is used as a subroutine in many algorithms:
  - Searching in databases: we can do binary search on sorted data
  - Element uniqueness, duplicate elimination
  - A large number of computer graphics and computational geometry problems.

# Why Sorting/2

- Sorting algorithms represent different algorithm design techniques.
- The lower bound for sorting  $\Omega(n \log n)$  is used to prove lower bounds of other problems.

# Sorting Algorithms so far

- Insertion sort, selection sort, bubble sort
  - Worst-case running time  $\Theta(n^2)$
  - In-place
- Merge sort
  - Worst-case running time  $\Theta(n \log n)$
  - Requires additional memory  $\Theta(n)$

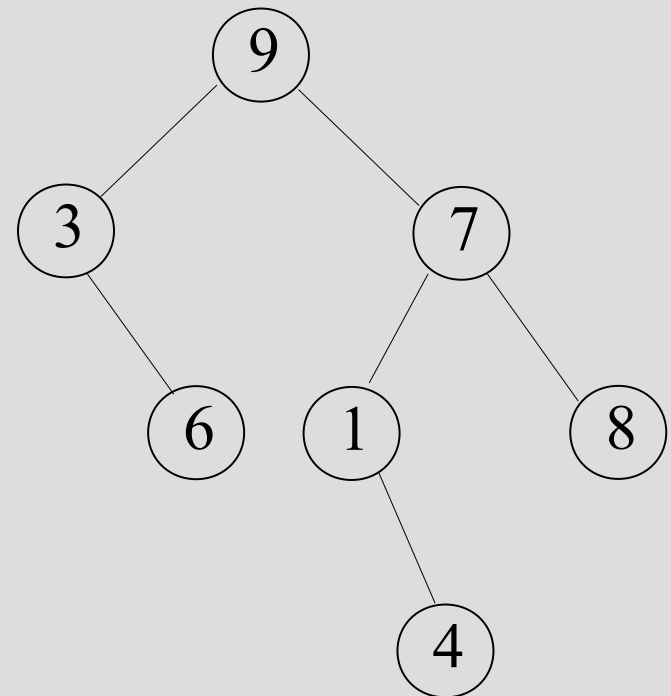
# Selection Sort

```
SelectionSort(A[1..n]) :  
    for i := 1 to n-1  
A:    Find the smallest element among A[i..n]  
B:    Exchange it with A[i]
```

- **A** takes  $\Theta(n)$  and **B** takes  $\Theta(1)$ :  $\Theta(n^2)$  in total
- Idea for improvement: smart data structure to
  - do **A** and **B** in  $\Theta(1)$
  - spend  $O(\log n)$  time per iteration to maintain the data structure
  - get a total running time of  $O(n \log n)$

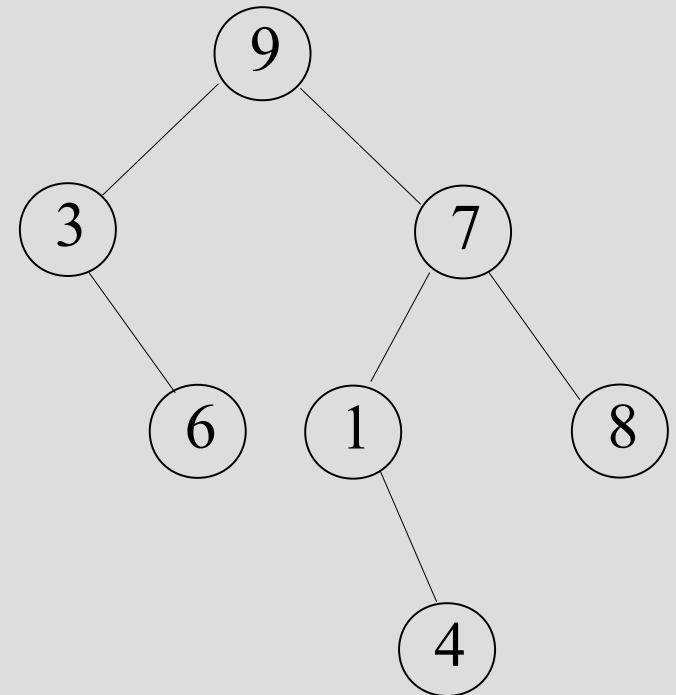
# Binary Trees

- Each node may have a left and right **child**.
  - The left child of 7 is 1
  - The right child of 7 is 8
  - 3 has no left child
  - 6 has no children
- Each node has at most one **parent**.
  - 1 is the parent of 4
- The **root** has no parent.
  - 9 is the root
- A **leaf** has no children.
  - 6, 4 and 8 are leaves



# Binary Trees/2

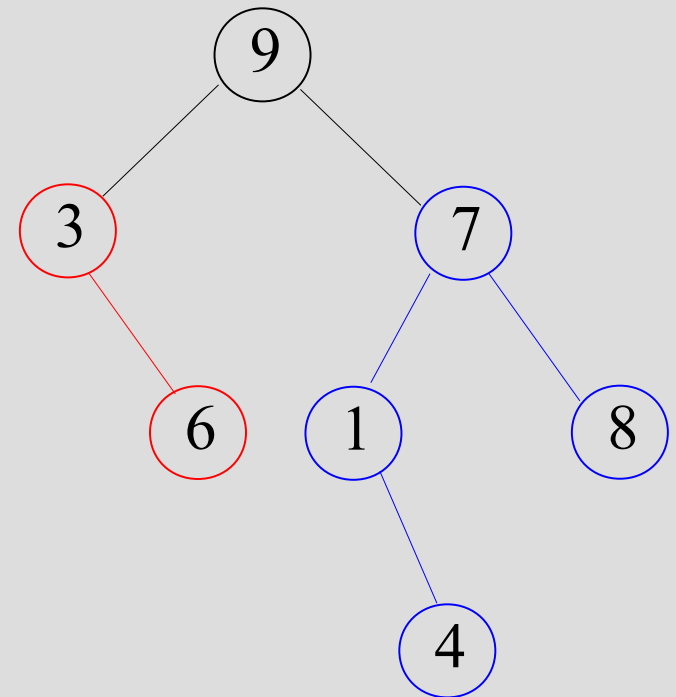
- The **depth** (or **level**) of a node  $x$  is the length of the path from the root to  $x$ .
  - The depth of 1 is 2
  - The depth of 9 is 0
- The **height** of a node  $x$  is the length of the longest path from  $x$  to a leaf.
  - The height of 7 is 2
- The height of a tree is the height of its root.
  - The height of the tree is 3





# Binary Trees/3

- The right subtree of a node  $x$  is the tree rooted at the right child of  $x$ .
  - The right subtree of 9 is the tree shown in blue.
- The left subtree of a node  $x$  is the tree rooted at the left child of  $x$ .
  - The left subtree of 9 is the tree shown in red.



# Complete Binary Trees

4

- A **complete binary tree** is a binary tree where
  - all leaves have the same depth.
  - all internal (non-leaf) nodes have two children.
- A **nearly complete binary tree** is a binary tree where
  - the depth of two leaves differs by at most 1.
  - all leaves with the maximal depth are as far left as possible.

# Heaps

2 5

- A binary tree is a **binary heap** iff
  - it is a nearly complete binary tree
  - each node is greater than or equal to all its children
- The properties of a binary heap allow
  - an efficient storage as an array (because it is a nearly complete binary tree)
  - a fast sorting (because of the organization of the values)

# Heaps/2

Heap property

$$A[\text{Parent}(i)] \geq A[i]$$

Parent(i)

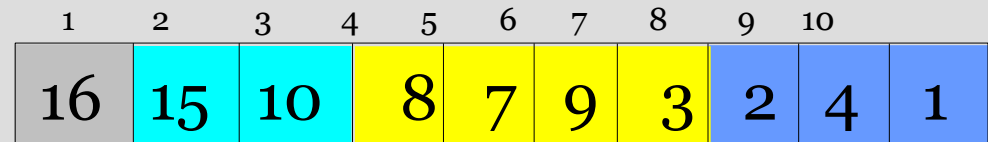
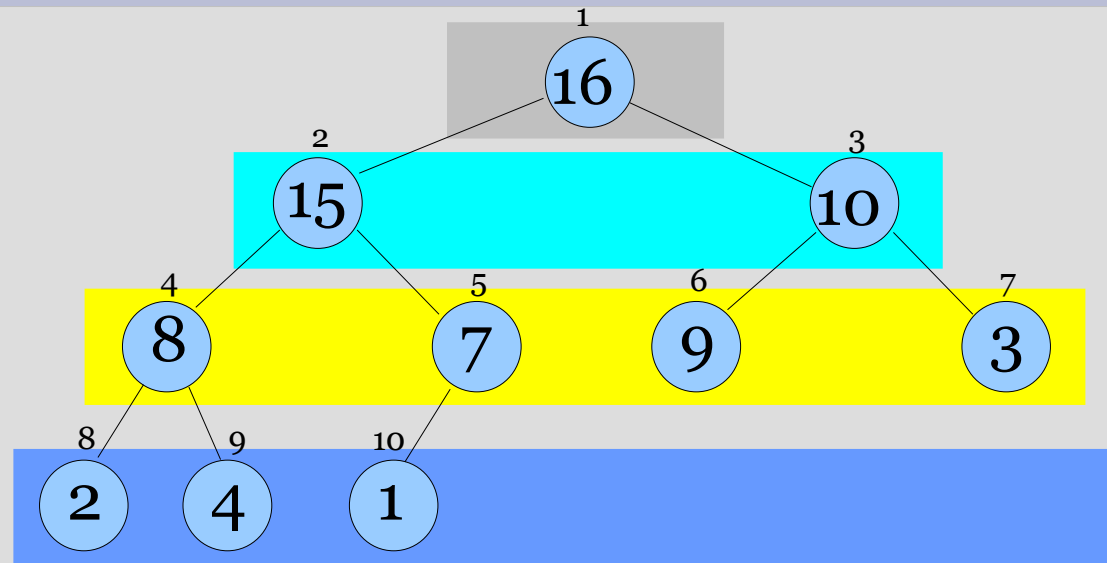
$$\text{return } \lfloor i/2 \rfloor$$

Left(i)

$$\text{return } 2i$$

Right(i)

$$\text{return } 2i+1$$



Level: 0 1 2 3

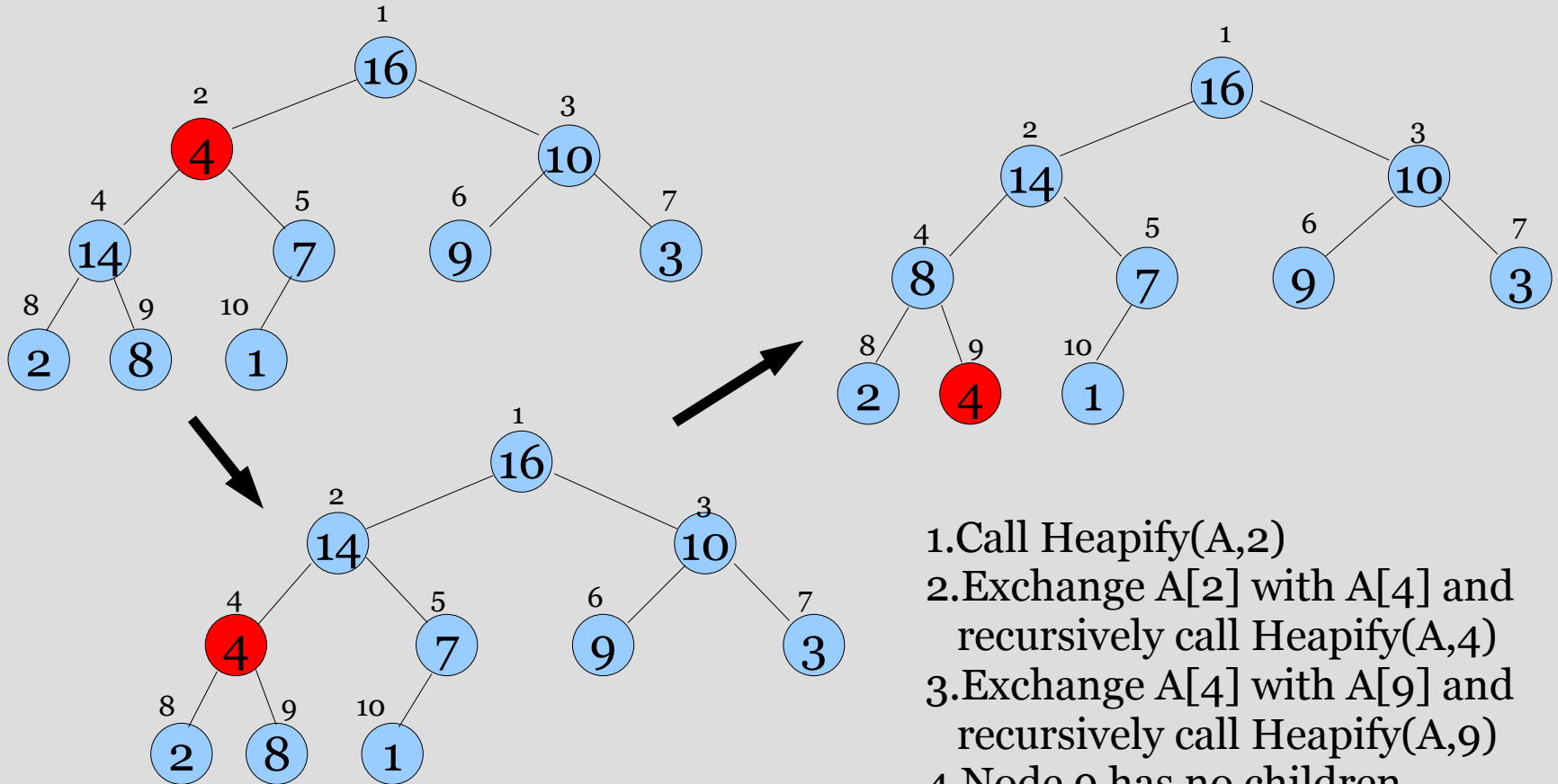
# Heaps/3

- Notice the implicit tree links in the array: children of node  $i$  are  $2i$  and  $2i+1$
- The heap data structure can be used to implement a fast sorting algorithm.
- The basic elements are
  - **Heapify**: reconstructs a heap after an element was modified
  - **BuildHeap**: constructs a heap from an array
  - **HeapSort**: the sorting algorithm

# Heapify

- Input: index  $i$  in array  $A$ , *number  $n$  of elements*
- Binary trees rooted at  $Left(i)$  and  $Right(i)$  are heaps.
- $A[i]$  might be smaller than its children, thus violating the heap property.
- **Heapify** makes  $A$  a heap by moving  $A[i]$  down the heap until the heap property is satisfied again.

# Heapify Example



1. Call  $\text{Heapify}(A, 2)$
2. Exchange  $A[2]$  with  $A[4]$  and recursively call  $\text{Heapify}(A, 4)$
3. Exchange  $A[4]$  with  $A[9]$  and recursively call  $\text{Heapify}(A, 9)$
4. Node 9 has no children, so we are done

# Heapify Algorithm

```
Heapify(A, i, n)
  l := 2*i;    // l := Left(i)
  r := 2*i+1; // r := Right(i)
  if l <= n and A[l] > A[i]
    then max := l
    else max := i
  if r <= n and A[r] > A[max]
    max := r
  if max != i
    exchange A[i] and A[max]
    Heapify(A, max, n)
```



# Heapify: Running Time

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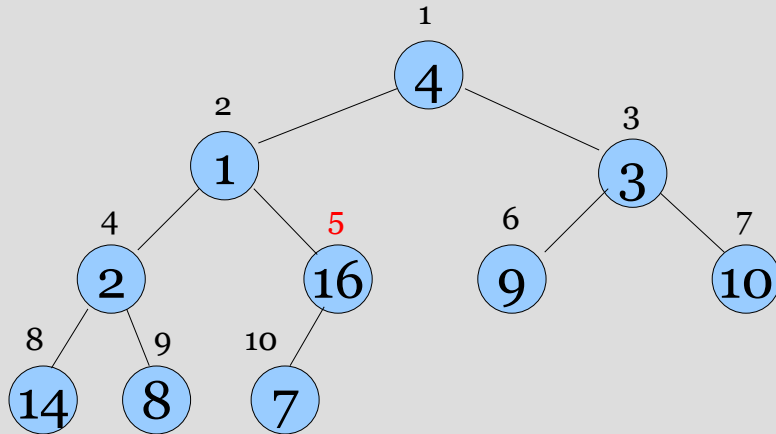
- The running time of Heapify on a subtree of size  $n$  rooted at  $i$  includes the time to
  - determine relationship between elements:  $\Theta(1)$
  - run Heapify on a subtree rooted at one of the children of  $i$ 
    - $2n/3$  is the worst-case size of this subtree (half filled bottom level)
    - $T(n) \leq T(2n/3) + \Theta(1)$  implies  $T(n) = O(\log n)$
  - Alternatively
    - Running time on a node of height  $h$ :  $O(h) = O(\log n)$

# Building a Heap

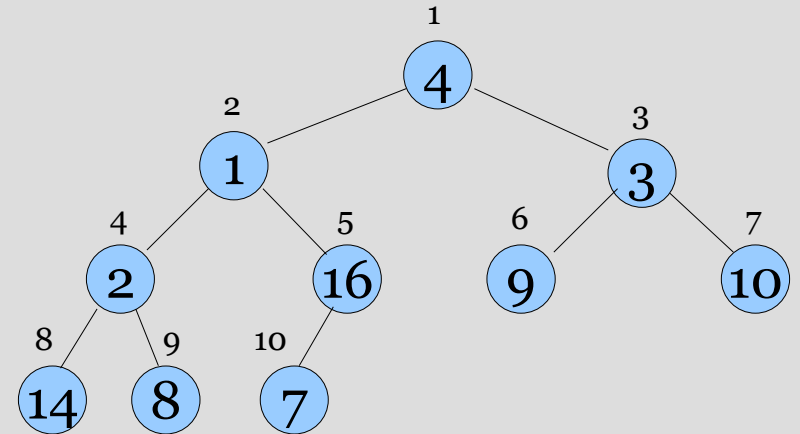
- Convert an array  $A[1..n]$  into a heap.
- Notice that the elements in the subarray  $A[(\lfloor n/2 \rfloor + 1)..n]$  are 1-element heaps to begin with.

```
BuildHeap(A)  
  for  $i := \lfloor n/2 \rfloor$  to 1 do  
    Heapify(A, i, n)
```

# Building a Heap/2



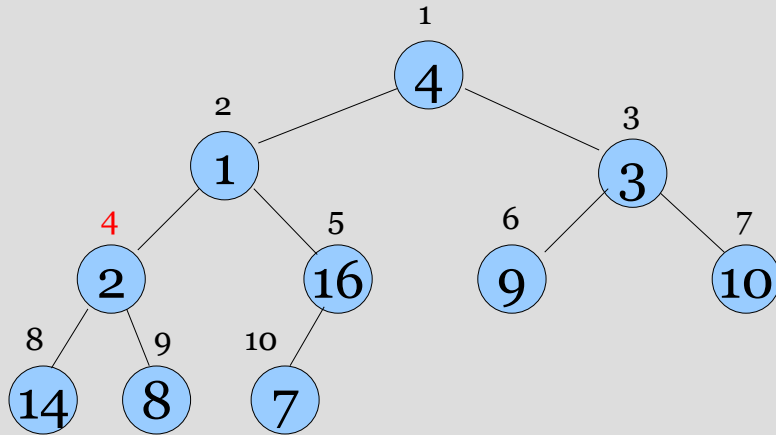
4	1	3	2	16	9	10	14	8	7
---	---	---	---	----	---	----	----	---	---



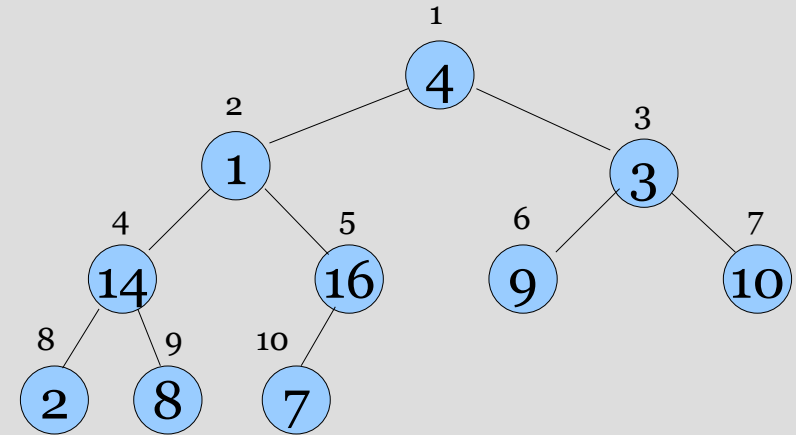
4	1	3	2	16	9	10	14	8	7
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- `Heapify(A, 7, 10)`
- `Heapify(A, 6, 10)`
- `Heapify(A, 5, 10)`

# Building a Heap/3



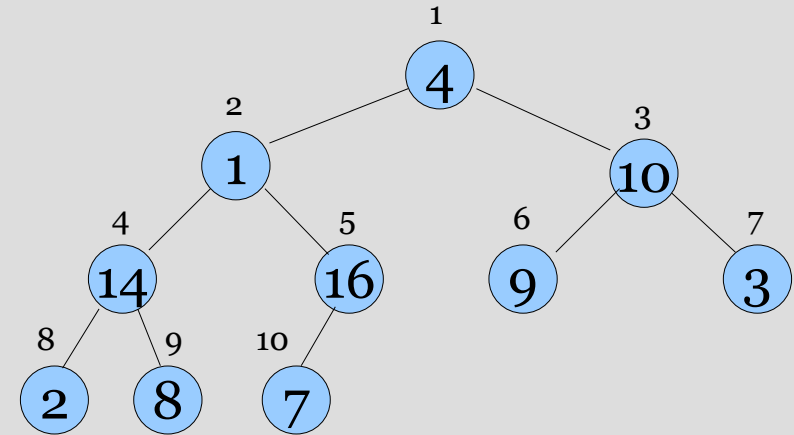
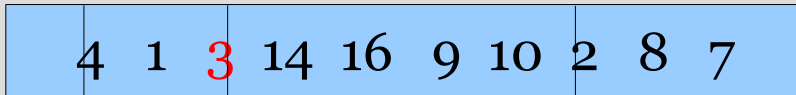
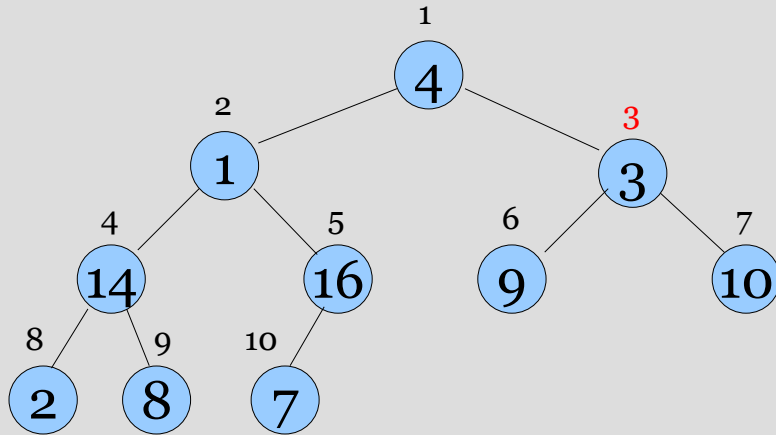
4	1	3	2	16	9	10	14	8	7
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4	1	3	14	16	9	10	2	8	7
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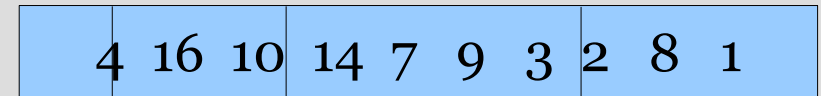
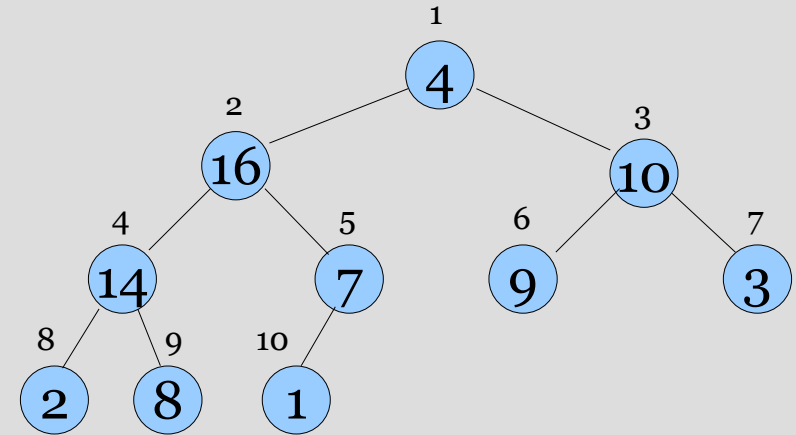
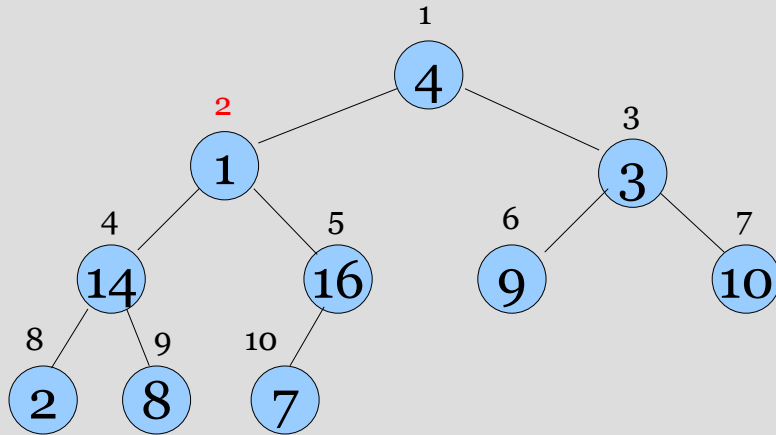
- Heapify(A, 4, 10)

# Building a Heap/4



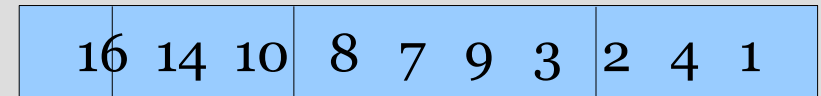
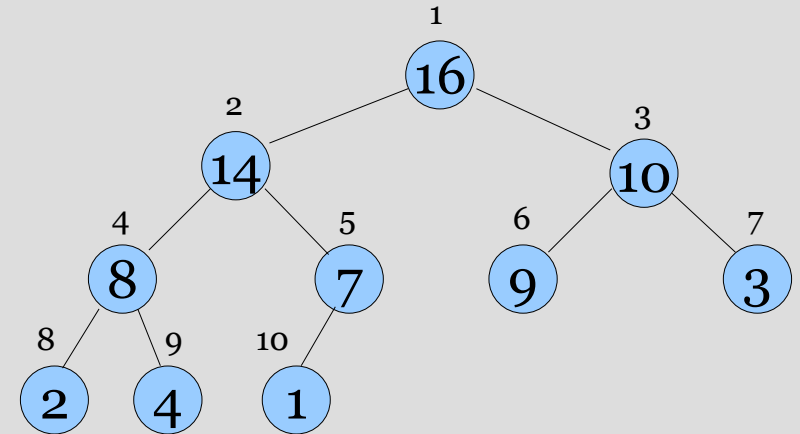
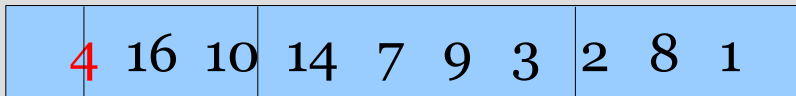
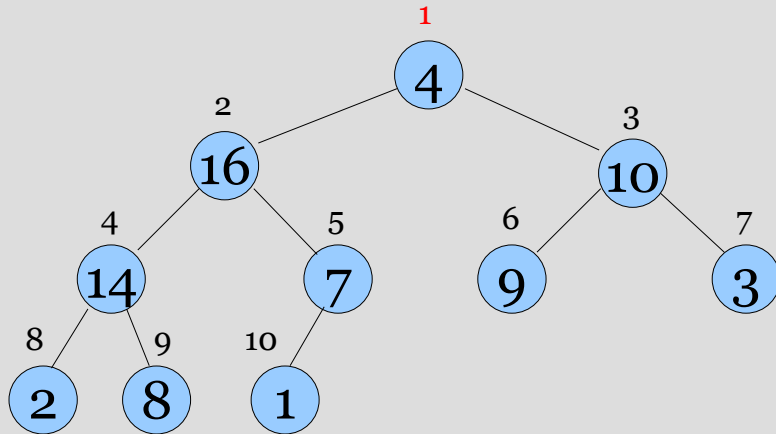
- Heapify(A, 3, 10)

# Building a Heap/5



- Heapify(A, 2, 10)

# Building a Heap/6



- Heapify(A, 1, 10)

# Building a Heap: Analysis

- Correctness: induction on  $i$ , all trees rooted at  $m > i$  are heaps.
- Running time:  $n$  calls to Heapify =  $n O(\log n) = O(n \log n)$
- Non-tight bound but good enough for an overall  $O(n \log n)$  bound for Heapsort.
- Intuition for a tight bound:
  - most of the time Heapify works on less than  $n$  element heaps



# Building a Heap: Analysis/2

- Tight bound:
  - An  $n$  element heap has height  $\log n$ .
  - The heap has  $n/2^{h+1}$  nodes of height  $h$ .
  - Cost for one call of Heapify is  $O(h)$ .

- $$T(n) = \sum_{h=0}^{\log n} \frac{n}{2^{h+1}} O(h) = O\left(n \sum_{h=0}^{\log n} \frac{h}{2^h}\right)$$

- Math: 
$$\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} kx^k = \frac{x}{(1-x)^2} \quad \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{k}{x^k} = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} k(1/x)^k = \frac{1/x}{(1-1/x)^2}$$

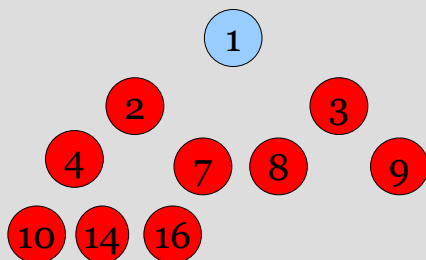
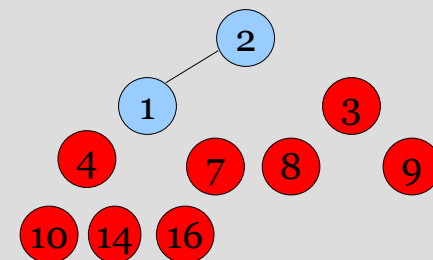
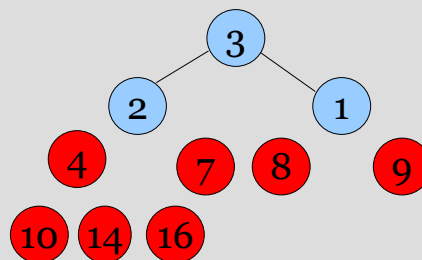
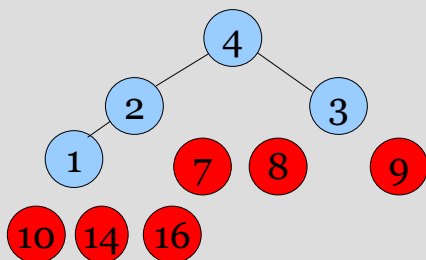
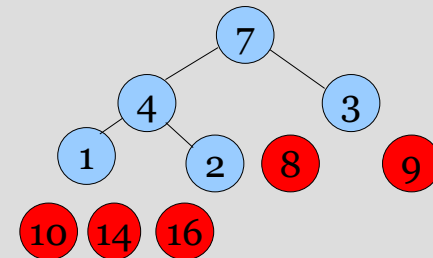
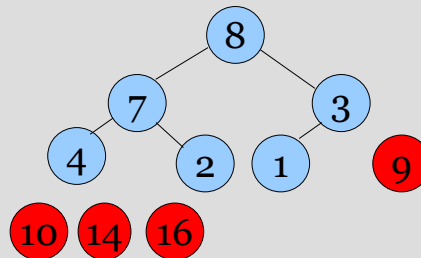
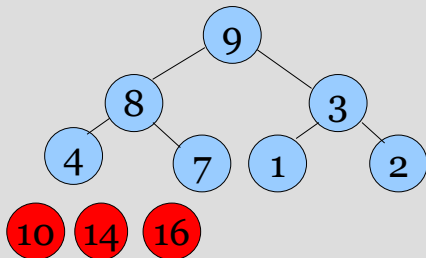
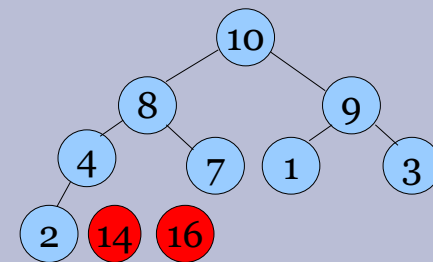
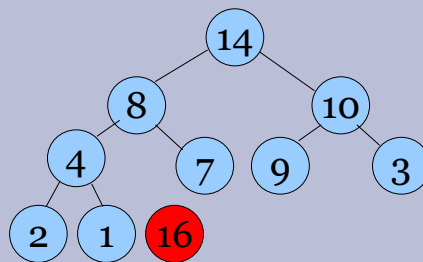
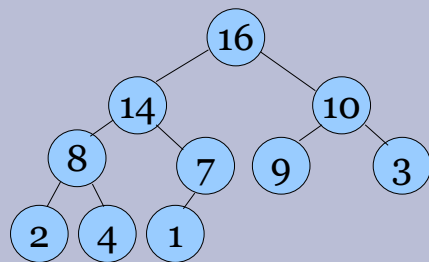
- $$T(n) = O\left(n \sum_{h=0}^{\log n} \frac{h}{2^h}\right) = O\left(n \frac{1/2}{(1-1/2)^2}\right) = O(n)$$

# HeapSort

- The total running time of heap sort is  $O(n) + n * O(\log n) = O(n \log n)$

<b>HeapSort(A)</b>	
BuildHeap(A)	$O(n)$
<b>for</b> $i := n$ <b>to</b> $2$ <b>do</b>	<b>n times</b>
exchange $A[1]$ and $A[i]$	$O(1)$
$n := n-1$	$O(1)$
Heapify(A, 1, n)	$O(\log n)$

# Heap Sort



1 2 3 4 7 8 9 10 14 16

# Heap Sort: Summary

1

- Heap sort uses a heap data structure to improve selection sort and make the running time asymptotically optimal.
- Running time is  $O(n \log n)$  – like merge sort, but unlike selection, insertion, or bubble sorts.
- Sorts in place – like insertion, selection or bubble sorts, but unlike merge sort.
- The heap data structure is used for other things than sorting.

# Quick Sort

- Characteristics
  - Like insertion sort, but unlike merge sort, sorts in-place, i.e., does not require an additional array.
  - Very practical, average sort performance  $O(n \log n)$  (with small constant factors), but worst case  $O(n^2)$ .

# Quick Sort – the Principle

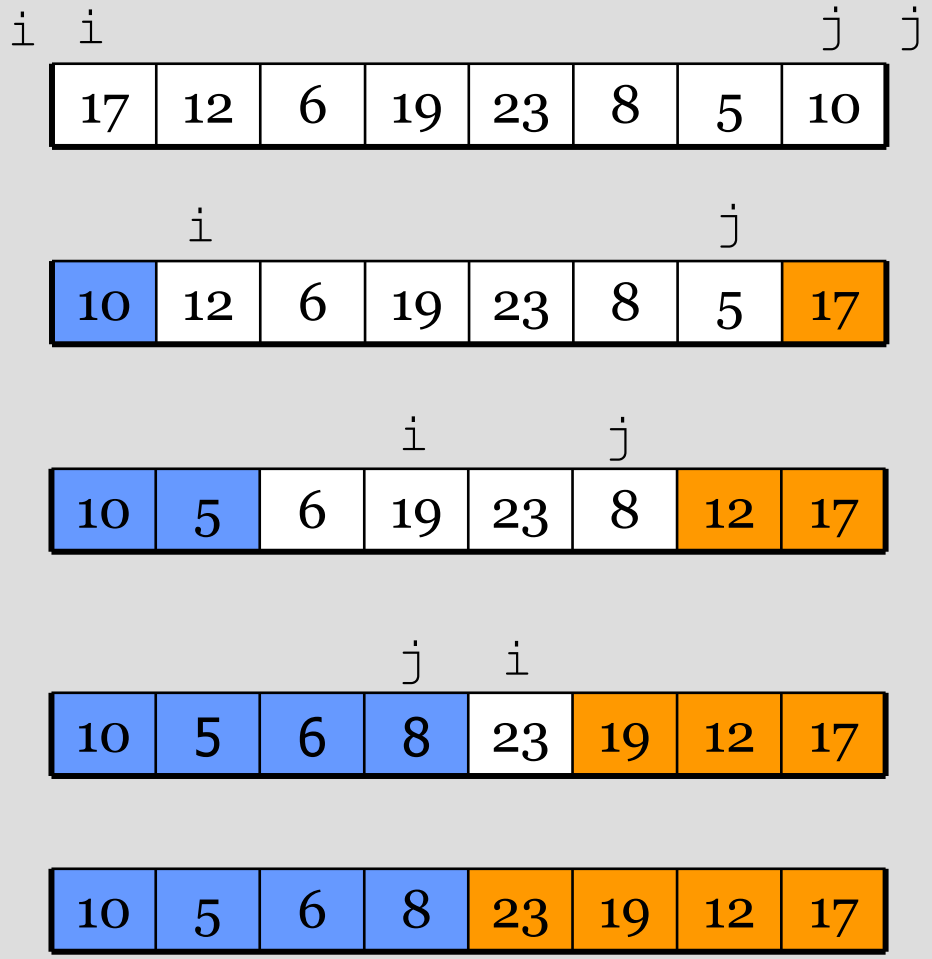
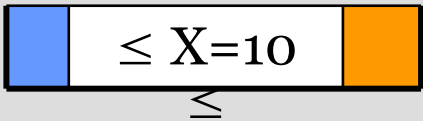
- To understand quick sort, let's look at a high-level description of the algorithm.
- A divide-and-conquer algorithm
  - **Divide**: partition array into 2 subarrays such that elements in the lower part  $\leq$  elements in the higher part.
  - **Conquer**: recursively sort the 2 subarrays
  - **Combine**: trivial since sorting is done in place

# Partitioning

**Partition** (A, l, r)

```

01 x := A[r]
02 i := l-1
03 j := r+1
04 while TRUE
05     repeat j := j-1
06         until A[j] ≤ x
07     repeat i := i+1
08         until A[i] ≥ x
09     if i < j
10         then switch A[i] ↔ A[j]
11         else return i
    
```



# Quick Sort Algorithm

3 2 9

- Initial call **Quicksort(A, 1, n)**

**Quicksort(A, l, r)**

01 **if**  $l < r$

02      $m := \text{Partition}(A, l, r)$

03     Quicksort(A, l, m-1)

04     Quicksort(A, m, r)

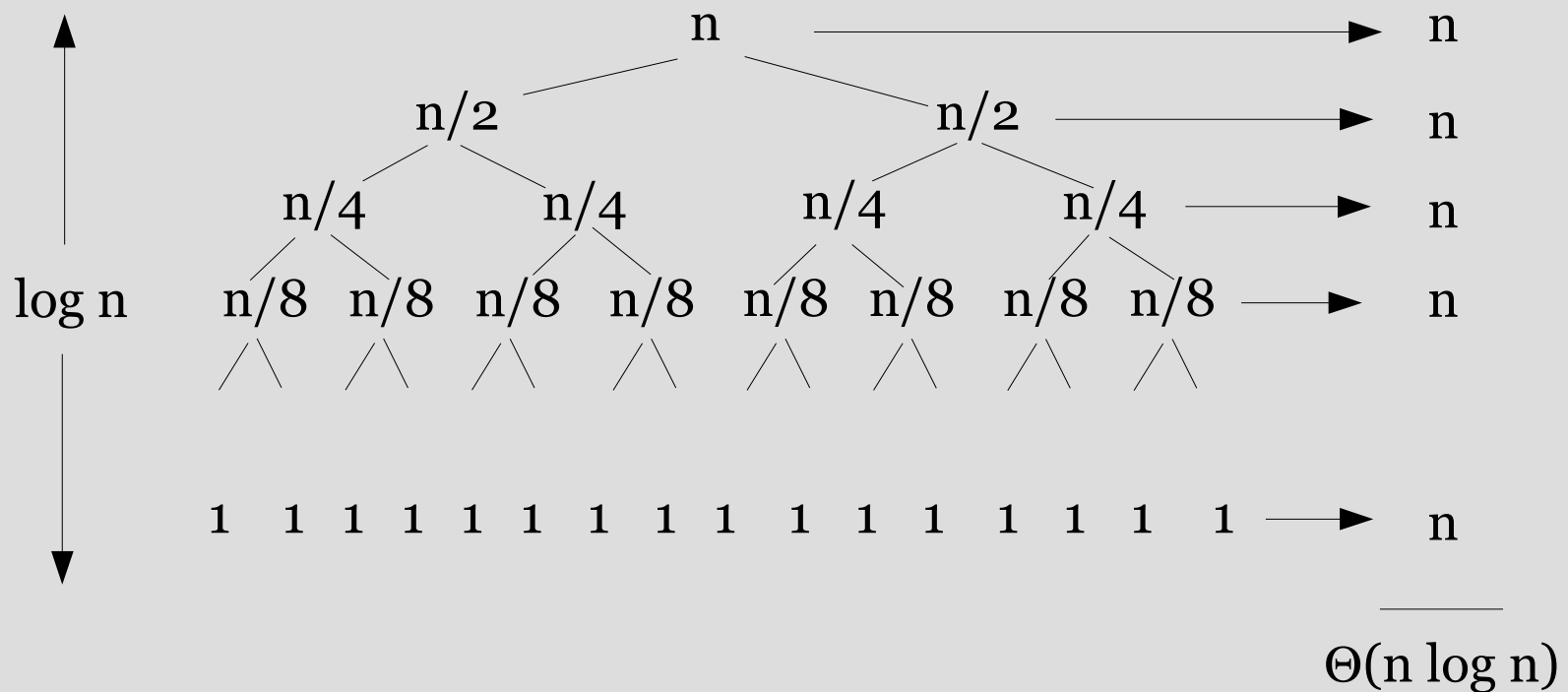


# Analysis of Quicksort

- Assume that all input elements are distinct.
- The running time depends on the distribution of splits.

# Best Case

- If we are lucky, Partition splits the array evenly:  $T(n) = 2 T(n/2) + \Theta(n)$



# Worst Case

- What is the worst case?
- One side of the partition has one element.
- $T(n) = T(n-1) + T(1) + \Theta(n)$

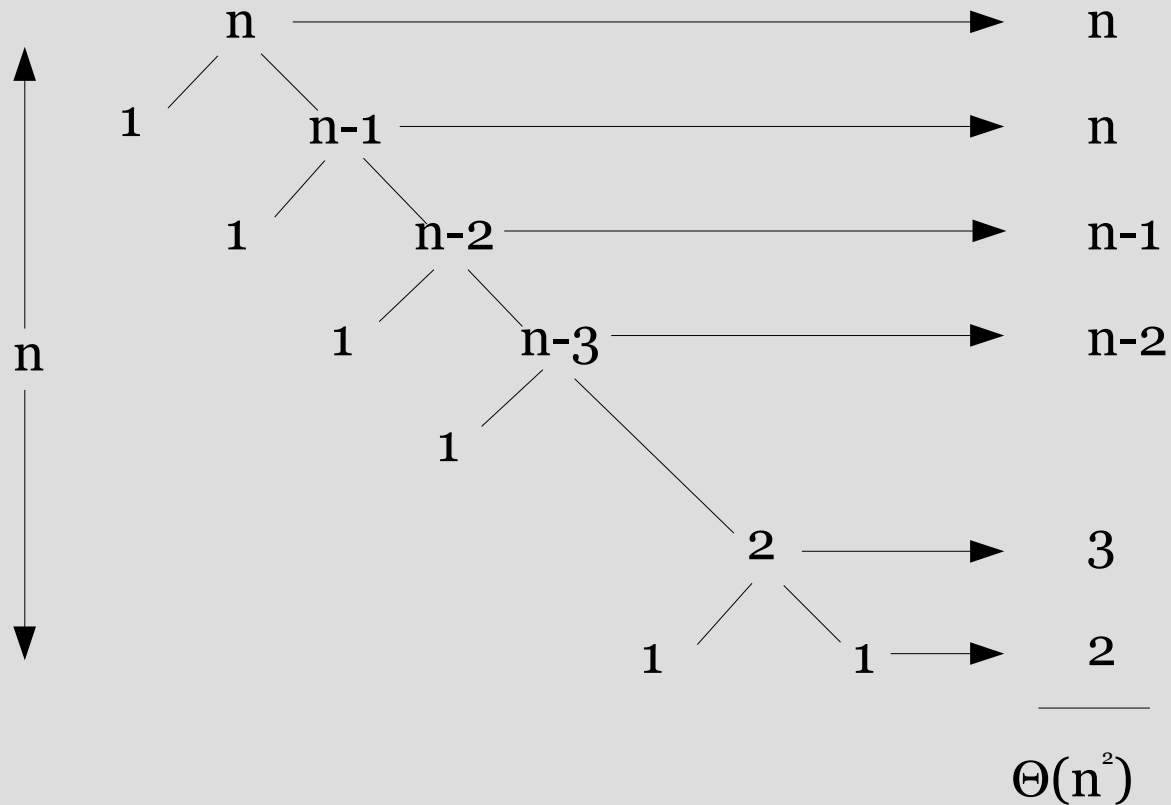
$$= T(n-1) + 0 + \Theta(n)$$

$$= \sum_{k=1}^n \Theta(k)$$

$$= \Theta\left(\sum_{k=1}^n k\right)$$

$$= \Theta(n^2)$$

# Worst Case/2

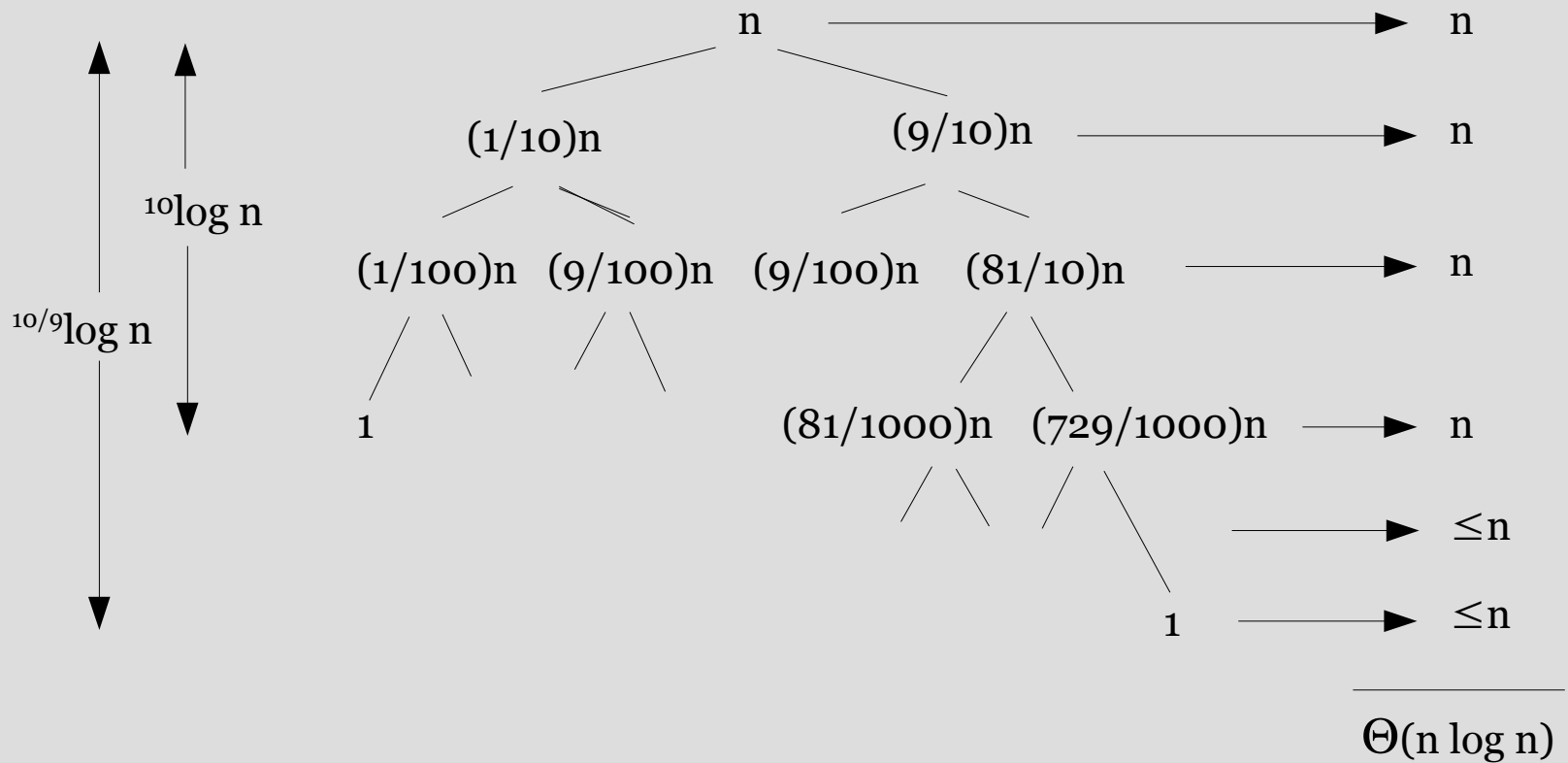


# Worst Case/3

- When does the worst case appear?
  - input is sorted
  - input reverse sorted
- Same recurrence for the worst case of insertion sort (reverse order, all elements have to be moved).
- Sorted input yields the best case for insertion sort.

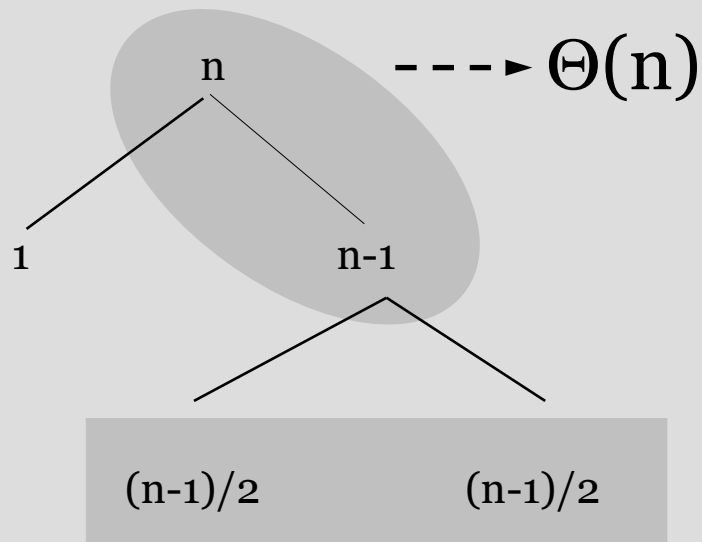
# Analysis of Quicksort

- Suppose the split is 1/10 : 9/10

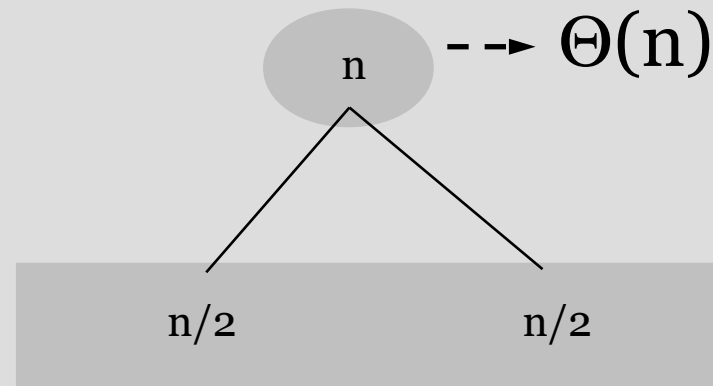


# An Average Case Scenario

- Suppose, we alternate lucky and unlucky cases to get an average behavior



$$\begin{aligned}L(n) &= 2U(n/2) + \Theta(n) \quad \text{lucky} \\U(n) &= L(n-1) + \Theta(n) \quad \text{unlucky} \\ \text{we consequently get} \\L(n) &= 2(L(n/2 - 1) + \Theta(n)) + \Theta(n) \\ &= 2L(n/2 - 1) + \Theta(n) \\ &= \Theta(n \log n)\end{aligned}$$



# An Average Case Scenario/2

- How can we make sure that we are usually lucky?
  - Partition around the "middle" ( $n/2$ th) element?
  - Partition around a random element (works well in practice)
- Randomized algorithm
  - running time is independent of the input ordering.
  - no specific input triggers worst-case behavior.
  - the worst-case is only determined by the output of the random-number generator.



# Randomized Quicksort

1 4 7 5

- Assume all elements are distinct.
- Partition around a random element.
- Consequently, all splits  $(1:n-1, 2:n-2, \dots, n-1:1)$  are equally likely with probability  $1/n$ .
- Randomization is a general tool to improve algorithms with bad worst-case but good average-case complexity.

# Randomized Quicksort/2

## **RandomizedPartition (A, l, r)**

```
01   i := Random(l, r)
02   exchange A[r] and A[i]
03   return Partition(A, l, r)
```

## **RandomizedQuicksort (A, l, r)**

```
01   if l < r then
02       m := RandomizedPartition(A, l, r)
03       RandomizedQuicksort(A, l, m)
04       RandomizedQuicksort(A, m+1, r)
```

# Summary

- Nearly complete binary trees
- Heap data structure
- Heapsort
  - based on heaps
  - worst case is  $n \log n$
- Quicksort:
  - partition based sort algorithm
  - popular algorithm
  - very fast on average
  - worst case performance is quadratic

# Summary/2

- Comparison of sorting methods.
- Absolute values are not important; relate values to each other.
- Relate values to the complexity ( $n \log n$ ,  $n^2$ ).
- Running time in seconds,  $n=2048$ .

	ordered	random	inverse
Insertion	0.22	50.74	103.8
Selection	58.18	58.34	73.46
Bubble	80.18	128.84	178.66
Heap	2.32	2.22	2.12
Quick	0.72	1.22	0.76

# Next Chapter

- Dynamic data structures
  - Pointers
  - Lists, trees
- Abstract data types (ADTs)
  - Definition of ADTs
  - Common ADTs