9. Sorting II

Mergesort, Quicksort

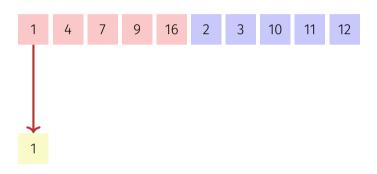
9.1 Mergesort

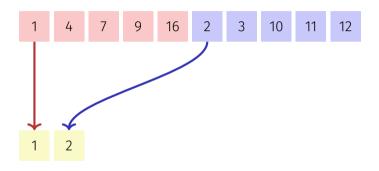
[Ottman/Widmayer, Kap. 2.4, Cormen et al, Kap. 2.3],

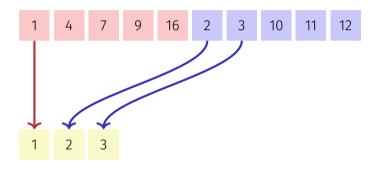
Divide and Conquer!

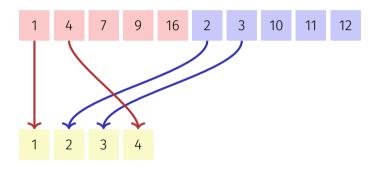
- \blacksquare Assumption: two halves of the array A are already sorted.
- lacktriangle Minimum of A can be evaluated with a single element comparison.
- Iteratively: merge the two presorted halves of A in $\mathcal{O}(n)$.

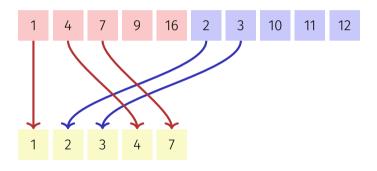
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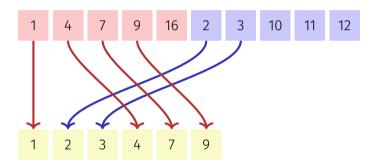


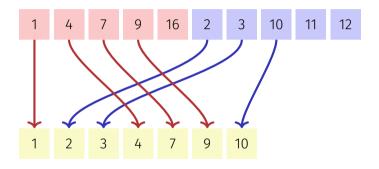


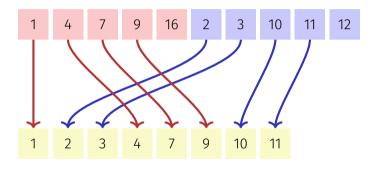


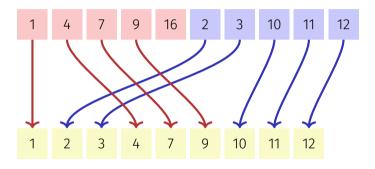


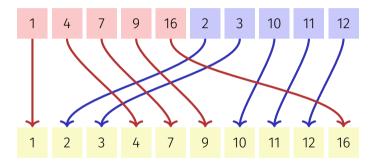












Algorithm Merge(A, l, m, r)

```
Array A with length n, indexes 1 < l < m < r < n.
  Input:
               A[l,\ldots,m], A[m+1,\ldots,r] sorted
  Output: A[l, \ldots, r] sorted
1 B \leftarrow \text{new Array}(r - l + 1)
i \leftarrow l: i \leftarrow m+1: k \leftarrow 1
3 while i \leq m and i \leq r do
4 if A[i] < A[j] then B[k] \leftarrow A[i]; i \leftarrow i+1
b \in B[k] \leftarrow A[j]; j \leftarrow j+1
6 \quad k \leftarrow k+1:
7 while i \leq m do B[k] \leftarrow A[i]; i \leftarrow i+1; k \leftarrow k+1
8 while i \le r do B[k] \leftarrow A[i]: i \leftarrow i+1: k \leftarrow k+1
9 for k \leftarrow l to r do A[k] \leftarrow B[k-l+1]
```

Correctness

Hypothesis: after k iterations of the loop in line 3 $B[1, \ldots, k]$ is sorted and $B[k] \leq A[i]$, if $i \leq m$ and $B[k] \leq A[j]$ if $j \leq r$.

Proof by induction:

Base case: the empty array $B[1,\ldots,0]$ is trivially sorted. Induction step $(k\to k+1)$:

- B[1,...,k] is sorted by hypothesis and $B[k] \leq A[i]$.
- After $B[k+1] \leftarrow A[i]$ B[1, ..., k+1] is sorted.
- $B[k+1] = A[i] \le A[i+1]$ (if $i+1 \le m$) and $B[k+1] \le A[j]$ if $j \le r$.
- $k \leftarrow k + 1, i \leftarrow i + 1$: Statement holds again.

Analysis (Merge)

Lemma 12

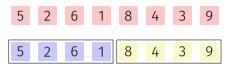
If: array A with length n, indexes $1 \le l < r \le n$. $m = \lfloor (l+r)/2 \rfloor$ and $A[l, \ldots, m]$, $A[m+1, \ldots, r]$ sorted.

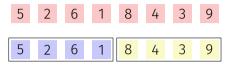
Then: in the call of Merge(A, l, m, r) a number of $\Theta(r-l)$ key movements and comparisons are executed.

Proof: straightforward(Inspect the algorithm and count the operations.)

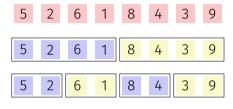
5 2 6 1 8 4 3 9

5 2 6 1 8 4 3 9

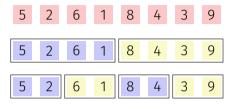




Split

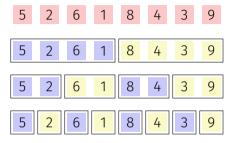


Split



Split

Split



Split

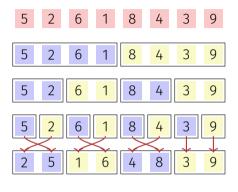
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Split

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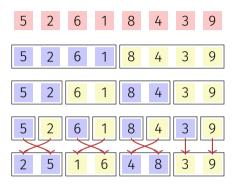
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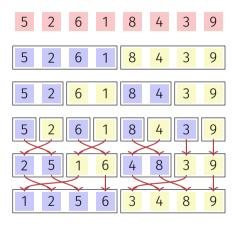


Split

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Split

Merge

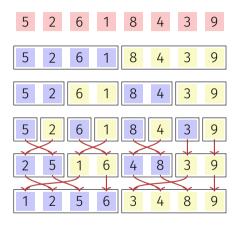


Split

Split

Split

Merge



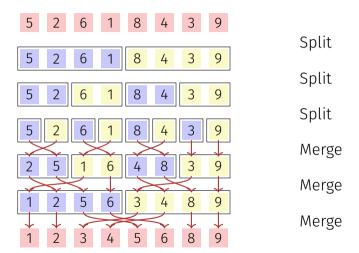
Split

Split

Split

Merge

Merge



Algorithm (recursive 2-way) Mergesort(A, l, r)

```
\begin{array}{lll} \textbf{Input:} & \text{Array $A$ with length $n$. } 1 \leq l \leq r \leq n \\ \textbf{Output:} & A[l,\ldots,r] \text{ sorted.} \\ & \textbf{if } l < r \text{ then} \\ & & m \leftarrow \lfloor (l+r)/2 \rfloor & // \text{ middle position} \\ & & \text{Mergesort}(A,l,m) & // \text{ sort lower half} \\ & & \text{Mergesort}(A,m+1,r) & // \text{ sort higher half} \\ & & \text{Merge}(A,l,m,r) & // \text{ Merge subsequences} \\ \end{array}
```

Analysis

Recursion equation for the number of comparisons and key movements:

$$T(n) = T(\left\lceil \frac{n}{2} \right\rceil) + T(\left\lfloor \frac{n}{2} \right\rfloor) + \Theta(n)$$

Analysis

Recursion equation for the number of comparisons and key movements:

$$T(n) = T(\left\lceil \frac{n}{2} \right\rceil) + T(\left\lfloor \frac{n}{2} \right\rfloor) + \Theta(n) \in \Theta(n \log n)$$

Algorithm StraightMergesort(A)

```
Avoid recursion: merge sequences of length 1, 2, 4, ... directly
Input: Array A with length n
Output: Array A sorted
length \leftarrow 1
while length < n do
                                        // Iterate over lengths n
    r \leftarrow 0
    while r + length < n do // Iterate over subsequences
        l \leftarrow r + 1
        m \leftarrow l + length - 1
        r \leftarrow \min(m + length, n)
       \mathsf{Merge}(A, l, m, r)
    length \leftarrow length \cdot 2
```

Analysis

Like the recursive variant, the straight 2-way mergesort always executes a number of $\Theta(n \log n)$ key comparisons and key movements.

Natural 2-way mergesort

Observation: the variants above do not make use of any presorting and always execute $\Theta(n \log n)$ memory movements.

How can partially presorted arrays be sorted better?

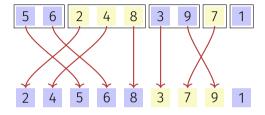
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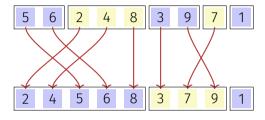
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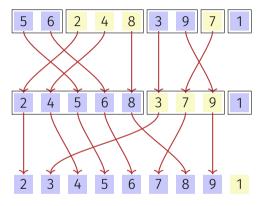
① Recursive merging of previously sorted parts (runs) of A.

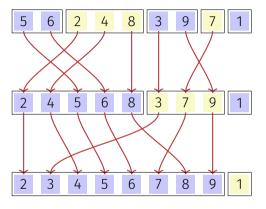
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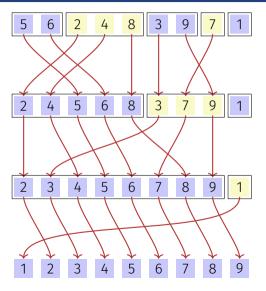
5 6 2 4 8 3 9 7 1











Algorithm NaturalMergesort(A)

```
Input: Array A with length n > 0
Output: Array A sorted
repeat
    r \leftarrow 0
    while r < n do
        l \leftarrow r + 1
       m \leftarrow l; while m < n and A[m+1] \geq A[m] do m \leftarrow m+1
        if m < n then
            r \leftarrow m+1; while r < n and A[r+1] \ge A[r] do r \leftarrow r+1
            Merge(A, l, m, r);
        else
until l=1
```

Analysis

Is it also asymptotically better than StraightMergesort on average?

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①No. Given the assumption of pairwise distinct keys, on average there are n/2 positions i with $k_i > k_{i+1}$, i.e. n/2 runs. Only one iteration is saved on average.

Natural mergesort executes in the worst case and on average a number of $\Theta(n\log n)$ comparisons and memory movements.

9.2 Quicksort

[Ottman/Widmayer, Kap. 2.2, Cormen et al, Kap. 7]

What is the disadvantage of Mergesort?

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How?

Pivot and Partition!



1. Choose a (an arbitrary) **pivot** p



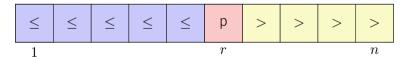
- 1. Choose a (an arbitrary) **pivot** p
- 2. Partition A in two parts, one part L with the elements with $A[i] \leq p$ and another part R with A[i] > p



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Algorithm Partition(A, l, r, p)

```
Input: Array A, that contains the pivot p in A[l, ..., r] at least once.
Output: Array A partitioned in [l, \ldots, r] around p. Returns position of p.
while l \leq r do
    while A[l] < p do
    l \leftarrow l + 1
    while A[r] > p do
    r \leftarrow r - 1
    swap(A[l], A[r])
   if A[l] = A[r] then
    \lfloor l \leftarrow l+1 \rfloor
```

return |-1

Algorithm Quicksort(A, l, r)

```
\begin{array}{ll} \textbf{Input:} & \text{Array $A$ with length $n$. $1 \leq l \leq r \leq n$.} \\ \textbf{Output:} & \text{Array $A$, sorted in $A[l,\ldots,r]$.} \\ \textbf{if $l < r$ then} \\ & \text{Choose pivot $p \in A[l,\ldots,r]$} \\ & k \leftarrow \texttt{Partition}(A,l,r,p) \\ & \text{Quicksort}(A,l,k-1) \\ & \text{Quicksort}(A,k+1,r) \end{array}
```

2 4 5 6 8 3 7 9 1

2 4 5 6 8 3 7 9 1

- 2 4 5 6 8 3 7 9 1
- 2 1 3 6 8 5 7 9 4

- 2 4 5 6 8 3 7 9 1
- 2 1 3 6 8 5 7 9 4

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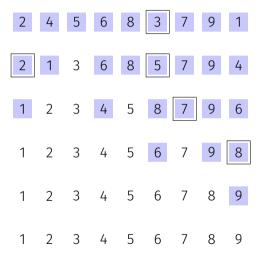
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4 5 6 8 3 7 9 1 2 1 3 6 8 5 7 9 4 1 2 3 4 5 8 7 9 6 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 9 8 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9



Analysis: number comparisons

Worst case.

Analysis: number comparisons

Worst case. Pivot = min or max; number comparisons:

$$T(n) = T(n-1) + c \cdot n, \ T(1) = d \quad \Rightarrow \quad T(n) \in \Theta(n^2)$$

Result of a call to partition (pivot 3):

- 2 1 3 6 8 5 7 9 4
- 1 How many swaps have taken place?

Result of a call to partition (pivot 3):

- 2 1 3 6 8 5 7 9 4
- 1 How many swaps have taken place?
- ① 2. The maximum number of swaps is given by the number of keys in the smaller part.

Thought experiment

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■ Each key from the smaller part pays a coin when it is being swapped.

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- Each key from the smaller part pays a coin when it is being swapped.
- After a key has paid a coin the domain containing the key decreases to half its previous size.

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- \blacksquare Every key needs to pay at most $\log n$ coins. But there are only n keys.

Thought experiment

- Each key from the smaller part pays a coin when it is being swapped.
- After a key has paid a coin the domain containing the key decreases to half its previous size.
- \blacksquare Every key needs to pay at most $\log n$ coins. But there are only n keys.

Consequence: there are $O(n \log n)$ key swaps in the worst case.

Randomized Quicksort

Despite the worst case running time of $\Theta(n^2)$, quicksort is used practically very often.

Reason: quadratic running time unlikely provided that the choice of the pivot and the pre-sorting are not very disadvantageous.

Avoidance: randomly choose pivot. Draw uniformly from [l, r].

Analysis (randomized quicksort)

Expected number of compared keys with input length n:

$$T(n) = (n-1) + \frac{1}{n} \sum_{k=1}^{n} (T(k-1) + T(n-k)), \ T(0) = T(1) = 0$$

Claim $T(n) \le 4n \log n$.

Proof by induction:

Base case straightforward for n = 0 (with $0 \log 0 := 0$) and for n = 1.

Hypothesis: $T(n) \le 4n \log n$ for some n.

Induction step: $(n-1 \rightarrow n)$

Analysis (randomized quicksort)

$$T(n) = n - 1 + \frac{2}{n} \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} T(k) \stackrel{\text{H}}{\leq} n - 1 + \frac{2}{n} \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} 4k \log k$$

$$= n - 1 + \sum_{k=1}^{n/2} 4k \underbrace{\log k}_{\leq \log n - 1} + \sum_{k=n/2+1}^{n-1} 4k \underbrace{\log k}_{\leq \log n}$$

$$\leq n - 1 + \frac{8}{n} \left((\log n - 1) \sum_{k=1}^{n/2} k + \log n \sum_{k=n/2+1}^{n-1} k \right)$$

$$= n - 1 + \frac{8}{n} \left((\log n) \cdot \frac{n(n-1)}{2} - \frac{n}{4} \left(\frac{n}{2} + 1 \right) \right)$$

$$= 4n \log n - 4 \log n - 3 \leq 4n \log n$$

Analysis (randomized quicksort)

Theorem 13

On average randomized quicksort requires $\mathcal{O}(n \log n)$ comparisons.

Practical Considerations

Worst case recursion depth $n-1^9$. Then also a memory consumption of $\mathcal{O}(n)$.

Can be avoided: recursion only on the smaller part. Then guaranteed $\mathcal{O}(\log n)$ worst case recursion depth and memory consumption.

⁹stack overflow possible!

Quicksort with logarithmic memory consumption

```
Input: Array A with length n. 1 < l < r < n.
Output: Array A, sorted between l and r.
while l < r do
    Choose pivot p \in A[l, \ldots, r]
    k \leftarrow \mathsf{Partition}(A, l, r, p)
    if k-l < r-k then
        Quicksort(A[l, \ldots, k-1])
      l \leftarrow k+1
    else
    Quicksort(A[k+1,\ldots,r])
r \leftarrow k-1
```

The call of Quicksort(A[l, ..., r]) in the original algorithm has moved to iteration (tail recursion!): the if-statement became a while-statement.

Practical Considerations.

- Practically the pivot is often the median of three elements. For example: Median3(A[l], A[r], $A[\lfloor l+r/2 \rfloor]$).
- There is a variant of quicksort that requires only constant storage. Idea: store the old pivot at the position of the new pivot.
- Complex divide-and-conquer algorithms often use a trivial $(\Theta(n^2))$ algorithm as base case to deal with small problem sizes.

9.3 Appendix

Derivation of some mathematical formulas

$\log n! \in \Theta(n \log n)$

$$\log n! = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \log i \le \sum_{i=1}^{n} \log n = n \log n$$

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} \log i = \sum_{i=1}^{\lfloor n/2 \rfloor} \log i + \sum_{\lfloor n/2 \rfloor + 1}^{n} \log i$$

$$\ge \sum_{i=2}^{\lfloor n/2 \rfloor} \log 2 + \sum_{\lfloor n/2 \rfloor + 1}^{n} \log \frac{n}{2}$$

$$= (\underbrace{\lfloor n/2 \rfloor}_{>n/2 - 1} - 2 + 1) + (\underbrace{n - \lfloor n/2 \rfloor}_{\ge n/2})(\log n - 1)$$

$$> \frac{n}{2} \log n - 2.$$

$[n! \in o(n^n)]$

$$n \log n \ge \sum_{i=1}^{\lfloor n/2 \rfloor} \log 2i + \sum_{i=\lfloor n/2 \rfloor+1}^{n} \log i$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^{n} \log i + \lfloor \frac{n}{2} \rfloor \log 2$$

$$> \sum_{i=1}^{n} \log i + n/2 - 1 = \log n! + n/2 - 1$$

$$n^{n} = 2^{n \log_{2} n} \ge 2^{\log_{2} n!} \cdot 2^{n/2} \cdot 2^{-1} = n! \cdot 2^{n/2 - 1}$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{n!}{n^{n}} \le 2^{-n/2 + 1} \xrightarrow{n \to \infty} 0 \Rightarrow n! \in o(n^{n}) = \mathcal{O}(n^{n}) \setminus \Omega(n^{n})$$

[Even $n! \in o((n/c)^n) \, \forall \, 0 < c < e$]

Konvergenz oder Divergenz von $f_n = \frac{n!}{(n/c)^n}$. Ratio Test

$$\frac{f_{n+1}}{f_n} = \frac{(n+1)!}{\left(\frac{n+1}{c}\right)^{n+1}} \cdot \frac{\left(\frac{n}{c}\right)^n}{n!} = c \cdot \left(\frac{n}{n+1}\right)^n \longrightarrow c \cdot \frac{1}{e} \leqslant 1 \text{ if } c \leqslant e$$

because $\left(1+\frac{1}{n}\right)^n \to e$. Even the series $\sum_{i=1}^n f_n$ converges / diverges for $c \le e$.

 f_n diverges for c=e, because (Stirling): $n! \approx \sqrt{2\pi n} \left(\frac{n}{e}\right)^n$.

[Ratio Test]

Ratio test for a sequence $(f_n)_{n\in\mathbb{N}}$: If $\frac{f_{n+1}}{f_n} \xrightarrow[n\to\infty]{} \lambda$, then the sequence f_n and the series $\sum_{i=1}^n f_i$

- \blacksquare converge, if $\lambda < 1$ and
- diverge, if $\lambda > 1$.

[Ratio Test Derivation]

Ratio test is implied by Geometric Series

$$S_n(r) := \sum_{i=0}^n r^i = \frac{1 - r^{n+1}}{1 - r}.$$

converges for $n \to \infty$ if and only if -1 < r < 1.

Let $0 \le \lambda < 1$:

$$\forall \varepsilon > 0 \,\exists n_0 : f_{n+1}/f_n < \lambda + \varepsilon \,\forall n \ge n_0$$

$$\Rightarrow \exists \varepsilon > 0, \exists n_0 : f_{n+1}/f_n \le \mu < 1 \,\forall n \ge n_0$$

Thus

$$\sum_{n=n_0}^{\infty} f_n \leq f_{n_0} \cdot \sum_{n=n_0}^{\infty} \cdot \mu^{n-n_0}$$
 konvergiert.

(Analogously for divergence)

L'Hospital's rule

Theorem 14

Let $f, g : \mathbb{R}^+ \to \mathbb{R}$ differentiable functions with $g'(x) \neq 0 \ \forall x > 0$.

$$\lim_{x \to \infty} f(x) = \lim_{x \to \infty} g(x) = 0,$$

or

$$\lim_{x\to\infty}f(x)=\pm\infty \ {\rm and}\ \lim_{x\to\infty}g(x)=\pm\infty,$$

then

$$\lim_{x \to \infty} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} = \lim_{x \to \infty} \frac{f'(x)}{g'(x)}$$

if the limit of f'(x)/g'(x) exists

L'Hospital's rule

Example

Es gilt $\log^k(n) \in o(n)$, because with $f(x) = \log^k(x)$, g(n) = x, we can apply L'Hospital's rule and get

$$\lim_{x \to \infty} \frac{\log^k(x)}{x} = \lim_{x \to \infty} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} = \lim_{x \to \infty} \frac{f'(x)}{g'(x)} = \lim_{x \to \infty} k \frac{\log^{k-1}(x)}{x}$$

After k iterations we get

$$\lim_{x \to \infty} \frac{\log^k(x)}{x} = \lim_{x \to \infty} k! \frac{1}{x} = 0.$$