

## CSE 143

### Searching and Sorting

[Chapter 9, pp. 402-432]

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### Two important problems

- *Search*: finding something in a set of data
- *Sorting*: putting a set of data in order
- Both very common, very useful operations
- Both can be done more efficiently after some thought
- Both have been studied intensively by computer scientists

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### Review: Linear Search

- Given an array  $A$  of  $N$  ints, search for an element  $x$ .

```
// Return index of x if found, or -1 if not
int Find (int A[], int N, int x) {
    for ( int i = 0; i < N; i++ )
        if ( A[i] == x )
            return i;
    return -1;
}
```

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### How Efficient Is Linear Search?

```
// Return index of x if found, or -1 if not
int Find (int A[], int N, int x) {
    for ( int i = 0; i < N; i++ )
        if ( A[i] == x )
            return i;
    return -1;
}
```

- Problem size:  $N$
- Best case ( $x$  is  $A[0]$ ):  $O(1)$
- Worst case ( $x$  not present):  $O(N)$
- Average case ( $x$  in middle):  $O(N/2) = O(N)$ 
  - Challenge for math majors: prove this!

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### Review: Binary Search

- If array is *sorted*, we can search faster
  - Start search in middle of array
  - If  $x$  is less than middle element, search (recursively) in lower half
  - If  $x$  is greater than middle element, search (recursively) in upper half
- Why is this faster than linear search?
  - At each step, linear search throws out one element
  - Binary search throws out *half* of remaining elements

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### Example

Find 26 in the following sorted array:

```
1  3  4  7  9 11 15 19 22 24 26 31 35 50 61
                        ↑
                22 24 26 31 35 50 61
                        ↑
            22 24 26
                ↑
                26
                ↑
```

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## Binary Search (Recursive)

```
int find(int A[], int size, int x) {
    return findInRange(A, x, 0, size-1);
}

int findInRange(int A[], int x, int lo, int hi) {
    if (lo > hi) return -1;
    int mid = (lo+hi) / 2;
    if (x == A[mid])
        return mid;
    else if (x < A[mid])
        return findInRange(A, x, lo, mid-1);
    else
        return findInRange(A, x, mid+1, hi);
}
```

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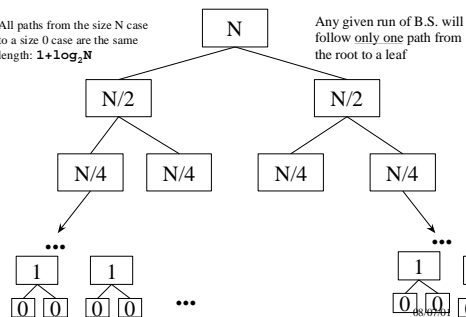
## Analysis (recursive)

- Time per recursive call of binary search is  $O(1)$
- How many recursive calls?
  - Each call discards at least half of the remaining input.
  - Recursion ends when input size is 0
  - How many times can we divide  $N$  in half?  $1 + \log_2 N$
- With  $O(1)$  time per call and  $O(\log N)$  calls, total is  $O(1) * O(\log N) = O(\log N)$
- Doubling size of input only adds a *single* recursive call
  - Very fast for large arrays, especially compared to  $O(N)$  linear search

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## Binary Search Sizes

All paths from the size  $N$  case to a size 0 case are the same length:  $1 + \log_2 N$



## Sorting

- Binary search requires a sorted input array  
*But how did the array get sorted?*
- Many other applications need sorted input array
  - Language dictionaries
  - Telephone books
  - Printing data in organized fashion  
Web search engine results, for example
  - Spreadsheets
- Data sets may be very large

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## Sorting Algorithms

Many different sorting algorithms, with many different characteristics

- Some work better on small vs. large inputs
- Some preserve relative ordering of “equal” elements (*stable* sorts)
- Some need extra memory, some are in-place
- Some designed to exploit data locality (not jump around in memory/disk)
- Which ones are best?
  - Try to answer using efficiency analysis

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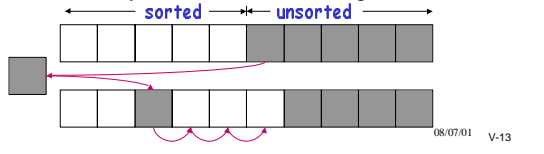
## Sorts You May Know – Or Soon Will!

- 142 review
- Bubble Sort
  - Some think it's a good “intro” sort
  - Not very efficient
- Selection Sort
  - See appendix to this lecture unit
- Insertion Sort
  - A lot like Selection Sort
- Mergesort
- Quicksort
- Radixsort (see appendix)

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## Insertion Sort

- A bit like sorting a hand full of cards:
  - Pick up 1 card – it's sorted
  - Pick up 2<sup>nd</sup> card; insert it after or before 1<sup>st</sup> – both sorted
  - Pick up 3<sup>rd</sup> card; insert it after, between, or before 1<sup>st</sup> two
  - ...
- Note: make room for the newly inserted member.
- In an array, this is easiest to do right-to-left



## Insertion Sort Code

```
void insert(int list[], int n) {
    int i;
    for (int j=1; j < n; ++j) {
        // pre: 1<=j && j<n && list[0 ... j-1] in sorted order
        int temp = list[j];
        for (i = j-1; i >= 0 && list[i] > temp; --i) {
            list[i+1] = list[i];
        }
        list[i+1] = temp;
        // post: 1<=j && j<n && list[0 ... j] in sorted order
    }
}
```

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## Insertion Sort Analysis

- Outer loop –  $n$  times
- Inner loop – at most  $n$  times
- Overall –  $O(n^2)$  in worst case
- ("Average" is about  $n^2/4$  comparisons.)
- In practice, insertion sort is the fastest of the simple quadratic methods
- 2x - 4x faster than bubble or selection sorts, and no harder to code
- Among fastest methods overall for  $n < 20$  or so
- Among the fastest overall if the array is "almost sorted"

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## Comparing Sorts

- Insertion Sort:  $O(N^2)$  in average case
  - For each of the  $N$  elements of the array, you inspect and move up to  $N-1$  remaining elements to do the insertion
- Selection Sort: also  $O(N^2)$
- Bubble Sort: also  $O(N^2)$ 
  - For each of the  $N$  elements, you "bubble" through the remaining (up to  $N$ ) elements
- All are referred to as "quadratic" sorts (Why?)

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## Is $O(N^2)$ the Best Possible?

- Asymptotic average case complexity is not always the whole story
- Examples:
  - Bubble Sort is usually slowest in practice because it does lots of swaps
  - Insertion Sort is almost  $O(N)$  if the array is "almost" sorted already
- If you know something about the data for a particular application, you may be able to tailor the algorithm
- At the end of the day, still  $O(N^2)$

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## Where are we on the chart?

$N$	$\log_2 N$	$5N$	$N \log_2 N$	$N^2$	$2^N$
8	3	40	24	64	256
16	4	80	64	256	65536
32	5	160	160	1024	$\sim 10^9$
64	6	320	384	4096	$\sim 10^{19}$
128	7	640	896	16384	$\sim 10^{38}$
256	8	1280	2048	65536	$\sim 10^{76}$
10000	13	50000	$10^5$	$10^8$	$\sim 10^{3010}$

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## Can We Sort Faster Than $O(N^2)$ ?

- Why was binary search so good?
  - Answer: at each stage, we divided the problem in two parts, each only *half as big* as the original
- With Selection Sort, at each stage the new problem was only *1 smaller* than the original
  - Same was true of the other quadratic sort algorithms
- How could we treat sorting like we do searching?
  - I.e., somehow making the problem *much smaller* at each stage instead of just a *little smaller*

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## An Approach

- Try a "Divide and Conquer" approach
- Divide the array into two parts, in some sensible way
  - Hopefully doing this dividing up can be done efficiently
- Arrange it so we can
  1. sort the two halves separately
    - This would give us the "much smaller" property
  2. recombine the two halves easily
    - This would keep the amount of work reasonable

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## Strategy: Use Recursion!

- Base case
  - an array of size 1 is already sorted!
- Recursive case
  - split array in half
  - use a recursive call to sort each half
  - combine the sorted halves into a sorted array
- Two ways to do the splitting/combining
  - mergesort
  - quicksort

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## Quicksort

- Discovered by Anthony Hoare (1962)
- Split in half ("Partition")
  - Pick an element *midval* of array (the *pivot*)
  - Partition array into two portions, so that
    1. all elements less than or equal to *midval* are left of it, and
    2. all elements those greater than *midval* are right of it
  - (Recursively) sort each of those 2 portions
- Combining halves
  - No work -- already in order!

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## Partitioning Example

- Before partition:
  - **5 10 3 0 12 15 2 -4 8**
- Suppose we choose 5 as the "pivot"
- After the partition:
  - What values are to the left of the pivot?
  - What values are to the right of the pivot?
  - What about the exact order of the partitioned array? Does it matter?
  - Is the array now sorted? Is it "closer" to being sorted?
  - What is the next step...

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## Quicksort Code

```
// sort A[0..N-1]
void quicksort(int A[], int N) {
    qsort(A, 0, N-1);
}

// sort A[lo..hi]
void qsort(int A[], int lo, int hi) {
    if ( lo >= hi ) return;
    int mid = partition(A, lo, hi);
    qsort(A, lo, mid-1);
    qsort(A, mid+1, hi);
}
```

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## Partition Helper Function

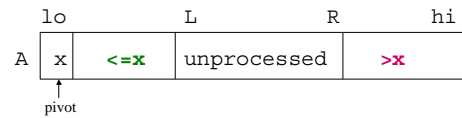
- Partition will have to choose a pivot (midval)
  - Simple implementation: pivot on first element of array
- At the end, have to return new index of midval
  - We don't know in advance where it will end up!
- Have to rearrange  $A[lo] \dots A[hi]$  so elements  $\leq$  midval are left of midval, and the rest are right of midval
  - this can be tricky code

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## A Partition Implementation

- Use first element of array section as the pivot

Invariant:



- For simplicity, handle only one case per iteration
  - This can be tuned to be more efficient, but not needed for our purposes.

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## Partition

```
// Partition A[lo..hi]; return location of pivot
// Precondition: lo < hi
int partition(int A[], int lo, int hi){
    assert(lo < hi);
    int L = lo+1, R = hi;
    while (L <= R) {
        if (A[L] <= A[lo]) L++;
        else if (A[R] > A[lo]) R--;
        else { // A[L] > pivot && A[R] <= pivot
            swap(A[L], A[R]);
            L++; R--;
        }
    }
    // put pivot element in middle & return location
    swap(A[lo], A[L-1]);
    return L-1;
}
```

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## Example of Quicksort

6 4 2 9 5 8 1 7

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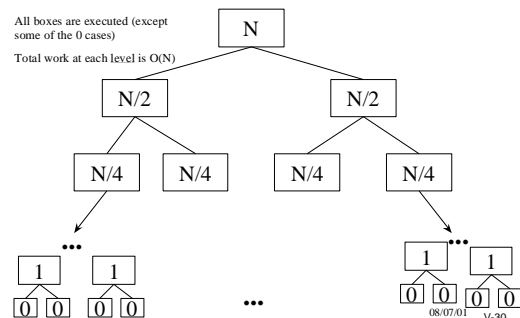
## Complexity of Quicksort

- Each call to Quicksort (ignoring recursive calls):
  - One call to **partition** =  $O(n)$ , where  $n$  is size of *part* of array being sorted
    - Note: This  $n$  is smaller than the  $N$  of the original problem
  - Some  $O(1)$  work
  - Total =  $O(n)$  for  $n$  the size of array part being sorted
- Including recursive calls:
  - Two recursive calls at each level of recursion, each partitions "half" the array at a cost of  $O(N/2)$
  - How many levels of recursion?

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## QuickSort (Ideally)

All boxes are executed (except some of the 0 cases)  
Total work at each level is  $O(N)$



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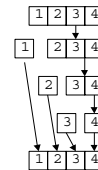
## Best Case for Quicksort

- Assume `partition` will split array exactly in half
- Depth of recursion is then  $\log_2 N$
- Total work is  $O(N) * O(\log N) = O(N \log N)$ , much better than  $O(N^2)$  for selection sort
- Example: Sorting 10,000 items:
  - Selection sort:  $10,000^2 = 100,000,000$
  - Quicksort:  $10,000 \log_2 10,000 \approx 132,877$

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## Worst Case for Quicksort

- If we're very unlucky, then each pass through `partition` removes only a *single* element.



- In this case, we have  $N$  levels of recursion rather than  $\log_2 N$ . What's the total complexity?

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## Average Case for Quicksort

- How to perform average-case analysis?
  - Assume data values are in random order
- What probability that  $A[lo]$  is the least element in  $A$ ?
  - If data is random, it is  $1/N$
- Expected time turns out to be  $O(N \log N)$ , like best case

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## Back to Worst Case

- Can we do better than  $O(N^2)$ ?
  - Depends on how we pick the pivot element `midval`
  - Lots of tricks have been tried
- One such trick:
  - pick `midval` randomly among  $A[lo]$ ,  $A[lo+1]$ , ...,  $A[hi-1]$ ,  $A[hi]$
  - Expected time turns out to be  $O(N \log N)$ , *independent of input*

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## Divide & Conquer Revisited

- Quicksort illustrates "Divide and Conquer" approach:
  - Divide the array into two parts, in some sensible way  
Quicksort: "Partition"
  - Sort the two parts separately (recursively)
  - Recombine the two halves easily  
Quicksort: nothing to do at this step
- Mergesort takes similar steps
  - Divide the array
  - Sort the parts recursively
  - Recombine the parts

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## Mergesort

- Split in half
  - just take the first half and the second half of the array, *without* rearranging
  - sort the halves separately
- Combining the sorted halves ("merge")
  - repeatedly pick the least element from each array
  - compare, and put the smaller in the resulting array
  - example: if the two arrays are
 

$$\begin{array}{ccccccc} 1 & 12 & 15 & 20 & & & \\ 5 & 6 & 13 & 21 & 30 & & \end{array}$$

 The "merged" array is
 

$$1 \ 5 \ 6 \ 12 \ 13 \ 15 \ 20 \ 21 \ 30$$
  - note: we will need a temporary result array

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## Mergesort Code

```
// Sort A[0..N-1] into ascending order
void mergesort(int A[], int N) {
    mergesort_help(A, 0, N-1);
}
// Sort A[lo..hi] into ascending order
void mergesort_help(int A[],int lo,int hi) {
    if (lo < hi) {
        int mid = (lo + hi) / 2;
        mergesort_help(A, lo, mid);
        mergesort_help(A, mid + 1, hi);
        merge(A, lo, mid, hi);
    }
}
```

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## Merge Code

```
// merge sequences A[lo..mid] & A[mid+1..hi],
// leaving merged result in A[lo..hi]
void merge(int A[], int lo, int mid, int hi){
    int left = lo; int right = mid + 1;
    int tempArray[MAX_SIZE];
    for (int i = 0; i <= hi-lo; ++i) {
        assert (left <= mid || right <= hi);
        assert (left <= right && left <= mid+1 && right <= hi+1);
        if (right == hi+1 || (left <= mid) && (A[left] < A[right]))
            tempArray[i] = A[left++];
        else
            tempArray[i] = A[right++];
    }
    for (int j = 0; j <= hi-lo; ++j)
        A[lo + j] = tempArray[j];
}
```

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## Mergesort Example

8 4 2 9 5 6 1 7

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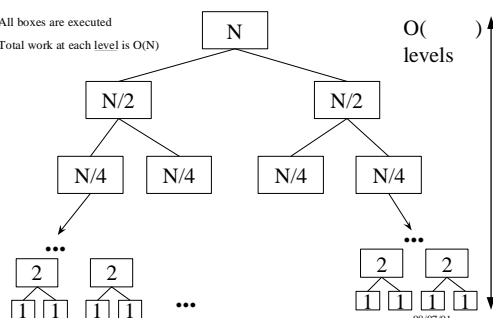
## Mergesort Complexity

- Time complexity of merge() =  $O(\text{ } )$ 
  - N is size of the part of the array being sorted
- Recursive calls:
  - Two recursive calls at each level of recursion, each does "half" the array at a cost of  $O(N/2)$
  - How many levels of recursion?

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## Mergesort Recursion

All boxes are executed  
Total work at each level is  $O(N)$



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## Mergesort Space Complexity

- "Efficiency" refers to use of resources
  - Very often *time* is the resource
  - Could also be *space* (memory)
- Mergesort needs a temporary array at each call
  - Total temp. space is N at each level
  - Space complexity of  $O(N \log N)$
- Compare with Quicksort, Selection Sort, etc:
  - None of them required a temp array
  - All were "in-place" sorts: space complexity  $O(N)$

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## External Sorting

- *Random Factoid: Merging is the usual basis for sorting large data files*
  - Sometimes called "external" sorting
- Big files won't fit into memory all at once
- Pieces of the file are brought into memory, sorted internally, written out to sorted "runs" (subfiles) and then merged.
- Goes all the way back to early computers
  - Main memories and disks were extremely small
  - Large data files were stored on tape, which had (and still have) extremely high storage capacities

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## Guaranteed Fast Sorting

- There are other sorting algorithms which are always  $O(N \log N)$ , even in worst case
  - Examples: Mergesort, Balanced Binary Search Trees, Heapsort
  - There are even  $O(N)$  algorithms: Radix, Bucket sort (see appendix to this lecture)
- Why not always use something other than Quicksort?
  - Others may be hard to implement, may require extra memory, have limitations
  - Hidden constants: a well-written quicksort will nearly always beat other algorithms

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## Summary

- Searching
  - Linear Search:  $O(N)$
  - Binary Search:  $O(\log N)$ , needs sorted data
- Sorting
  - Quadratics Sorts:  $O(N^2)$   
Selection, Insertion, Bubble
  - Mergesort:  $O(N \log N)$
  - Quicksort: average:  $O(N \log N)$ , worst-case:  $O(N^2)$
  - Bucket, Radix (see appendix)
  - Many others (CSE373, CSE326)

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## Appendix

Selection Sort, Bucket Sort, and Radix Sort

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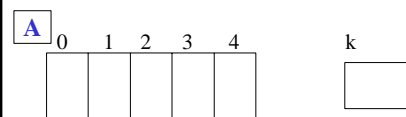
## Selection Sort

- Simple -- what you might do by hand
- Idea: Make repeated passes through the array, picking the smallest, then second smallest, etc., and move each to the front of the array

```
void selectionSort (int A[], int N) {  
    for (int lo=0; lo<N-1; lo++) {  
        int k = indexOfSmallest(A, lo, N-1);  
        swap(A[lo], A[k]);  
    }  
}
```

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## Example



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## Analysis of IndexOfSmallest

- Finding the smallest element:

```
int indexOfSmallest(int A[], int lo, int hi) {
    int smallIndex = lo;
    for (int i=lo+1; i<=hi; i++)
        if (A[i] < A[smallIndex])
            smallIndex = i;
    return smallIndex;
}
```

- How much work does indexOfSmallest do?

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## Analysis of Selection Sort

- Loop in selectionSort iterates \_\_\_\_ times

- How much work is done each time...
  - by indexOfSmallest
  - by swap
  - by other statements

- Full formula:

- Asymptotic complexity:

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## Shortcut Analysis

- Go through outer loop about  $N$  times
- Each time, the amount of work done is no worse than about  $N+c$
- So overall, we do about  $N*(N+c)$  steps, or  $O(N^2)$

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## Guaranteed Fast Sorting

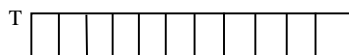
- There are other sorting algorithms which are always  $O(N \log N)$ , even in worst case
  - Examples: Mergesort, Balanced Binary Search Trees, Heapsort
- Why not always use something other than Quicksort?
  - Others may be hard to implement, may require extra memory
  - Hidden constants: a well-written quicksort will nearly always beat other algorithms

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## “Bucket Sort:” Even Faster Sorting

- Sort  $n$  integers from the range  $1..m$ 
  1. Use temporary array  $T$  of size  $m$  initialized to some sentinel value
  2. If  $v$  occurs in the data, "mark"  $T[v]$
  3. Make pass over  $T$  to "condense" the values
- Run time  $O(n + m)$
- Example ( $n = 5, m = 6$ )

Data: 9, 3, 8, 1, 6



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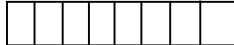
## Reasons Not to Always Use Bucket Sort

- **Integers might be from a large range**
  - Social Security Numbers: requires an array `T[999999999]` no matter how few data points
  - Large arrays will either be disallowed by the compiler, or written to disk (causing extreme slowdown)
- You may not know `m` in advance
- Might be no reasonable sentinel value
  - If any positive or negative integer is possible
- Sort key might not be an integer
  - Salary, date, name, etc.

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## Radix Sort: Another Fast Sort

- Imagine you only had to sort numbers from 0 to 9
- First, figure out how many of each number
  - array: 4 6 2 7 9 7 4 4
  - occurrences? 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9
- Next, calculate starting index for each number
  - indices? 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9
- Last, put numbers into correct position



- Run time  $O(n)$
- So far, this is identical to bucket sort...

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## Larger numbers

- What about 2 and 3-digit numbers?
- Sort low digits first, then high digits
  - original: 45 92 33 60 29 55 14
  - first pass:
  - final pass:
- Complexity
  - # of passes? work per pass? overall?
- Problems
  - You may not know # of digits in advance
  - Sort key might not be an integer
    - Salary, date, name, etc.

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## Summary

- Searching
  - Linear Search:  $O(N)$
  - Binary Search:  $O(\log N)$ , needs sorted data
- Sorting
  - Selection Sort:  $O(N^2)$ 
    - Other quadratic sorts: Insertion, Bubble
  - Mergesort:  $O(N \log N)$
  - Quicksort:  $O(N \log N)$  average,  $O(N^2)$  worst-case
  - Bucketsort:  $O(N)$  [but what about space??]
  - Radixsort:  $O(N * D)$

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