

# Sorting

**CS10003 PROGRAMMING AND DATA STRUCTURES**



# The Basic Problem

Given an array:  $x[0], x[1], \dots, x[\text{size}-1]$  reorder the elements so that

$$x[0] \leq x[1] \leq \dots \leq x[\text{size}-1]$$

- That is, reorder entries so that the list is in increasing (non-decreasing) order.

We can also sort a list of elements in decreasing (non-increasing) order.

We prefer not to use additional arrays for the element rearrangement.

# Example

**Original list:**

10, 30, 20, 80, 70, 10, 60, 40, 70

**Sorted in non-decreasing order:**

10, 10, 20, 30, 40, 60, 70, 70, 80

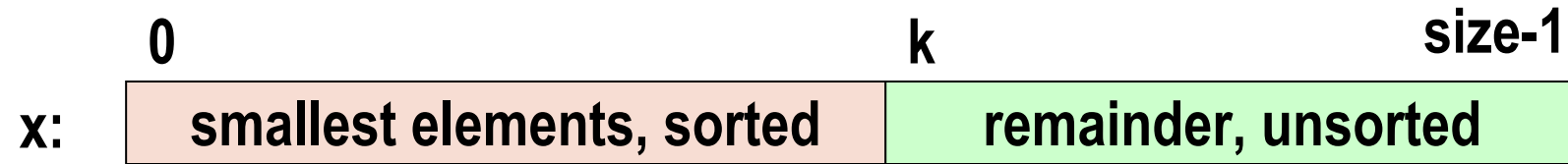
**Sorted in non-increasing order:**

80, 70, 70, 60, 40, 30, 20, 10, 10

# Selection Sort

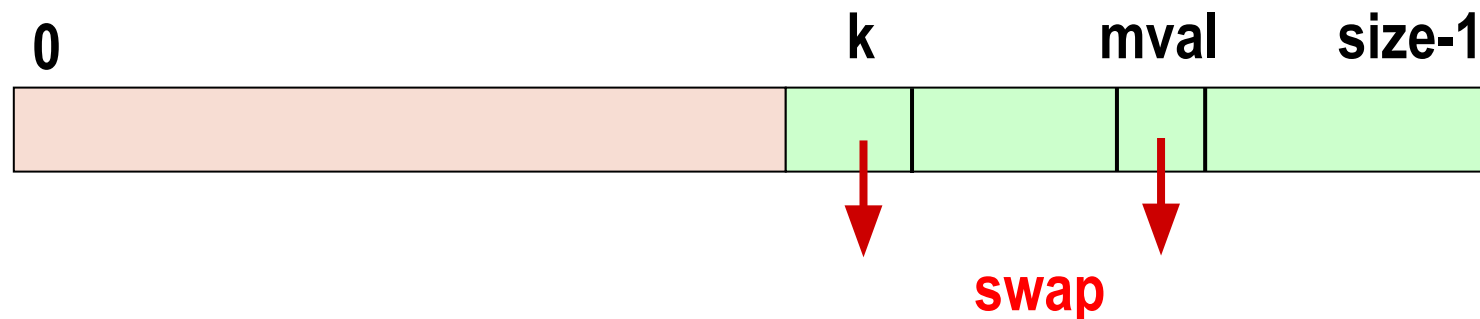
# SELECTION SORT: The idea

General situation :



Steps:

- Initialize  $k = 0$ .
- Find smallest element,  $\text{mval}$ , in the array segment  $x[k \dots \text{size}-1]$
- Swap smallest element with  $x[k]$ , then increase  $k$ .



# Subproblem

```
/* Find index of smallest element in x[k...size-1] */  
  
int min_loc (int x[ ], int k, int size)  
{  
    int j, pos;  
  
    pos = k;  
    for (j=k+1; j<size; j++)  
        if (x[j] < x[pos])  
            pos = j;  
    return pos;  
}
```

# Selection Sort Function

```
/* Sort x[0..size-1] in non-decreasing order */

int sel_sort (int x[], int size) {
    int k, m, temp;

    for (k = 0; k < size-1; k++) {
        m = min_loc (x, k, size);
        /* Swap x[k], x[m] */
        temp = x[k];
        x[k] = x[m];
        x[m] = temp;
    }
}
```

# Example

X: 

3	12	-5	6	142	21	-17	45
---	----	----	---	-----	----	-----	----

X: 

-17	12	-5	6	142	21	3	45
-----	----	----	---	-----	----	---	----

X: 

-17	-5	12	6	142	21	3	45
-----	----	----	---	-----	----	---	----

X: 

-17	-5	3	6	142	21	12	45
-----	----	---	---	-----	----	----	----

X: 

-17	-5	3	6	142	21	12	45
-----	----	---	---	-----	----	----	----

X: 

-17	-5	3	6	12	21	142	45
-----	----	---	---	----	----	-----	----

X: 

-17	-5	3	6	12	21	142	45
-----	----	---	---	----	----	-----	----

X: 

-17	-5	3	6	12	21	45	142
-----	----	---	---	----	----	----	-----

X: 

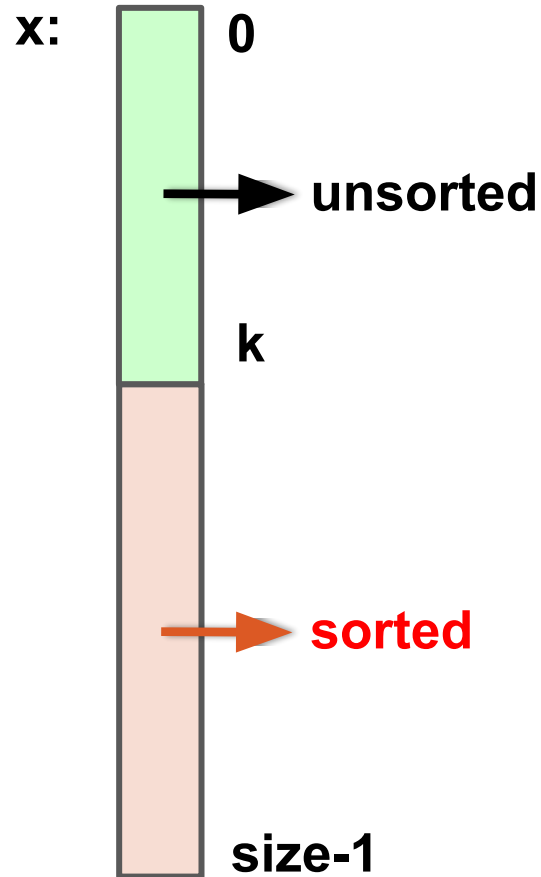
-17	-5	3	6	12	21	45	142
-----	----	---	---	----	----	----	-----



# Bubble Sort

# BUBBLE SORT: The idea

General situation:



In every pass, we go on comparing neighboring pairs, and swap them if out of order.

for  $j = 0$  to  $k-1$

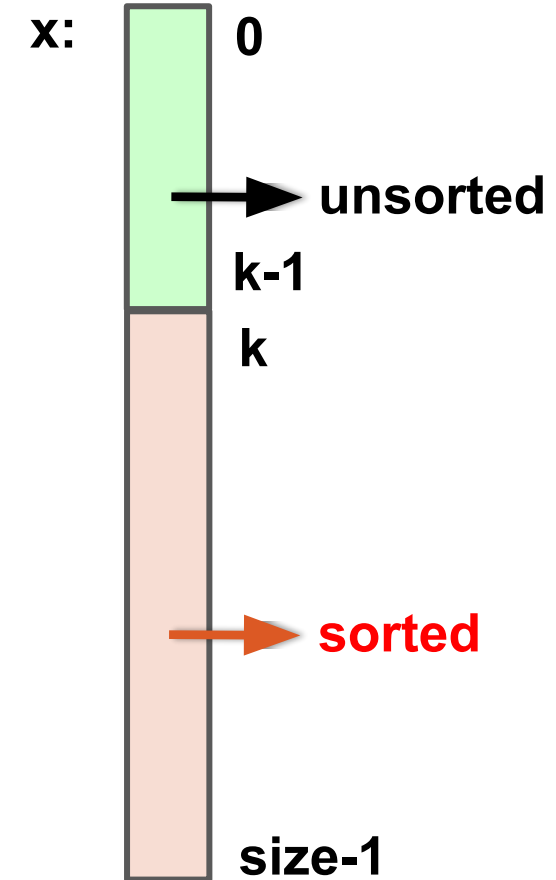
if  $(x[j] > x[j+1])$

interchange them.

At the end of this iteration, the 'next largest' element (among the unsorted part) will settle at  $x[k]$ .

Lighter elements bubble up.

Heavier elements settle down.



# Bubble Sort

```
void bubble_sort (int x[], int size) {
    int t;
    for (i = 0; i < size; i++)
        for (j = 0; j < size-i-1; j++)
            if (x[j] > x[j+1]) {
                // swap a[j] and a[j+1]
                t = a[j];
                a[j] = a[j+1];
                a[j+1] = t;
            }
}
```

How do the passes proceed?

In pass 1, we consider index 0 to size-1  
In pass 2, we consider index 0 to size-2  
In pass 3, we consider index 0 to size-3  
.....  
.....  
In pass size-1, we consider index 0 to 1.

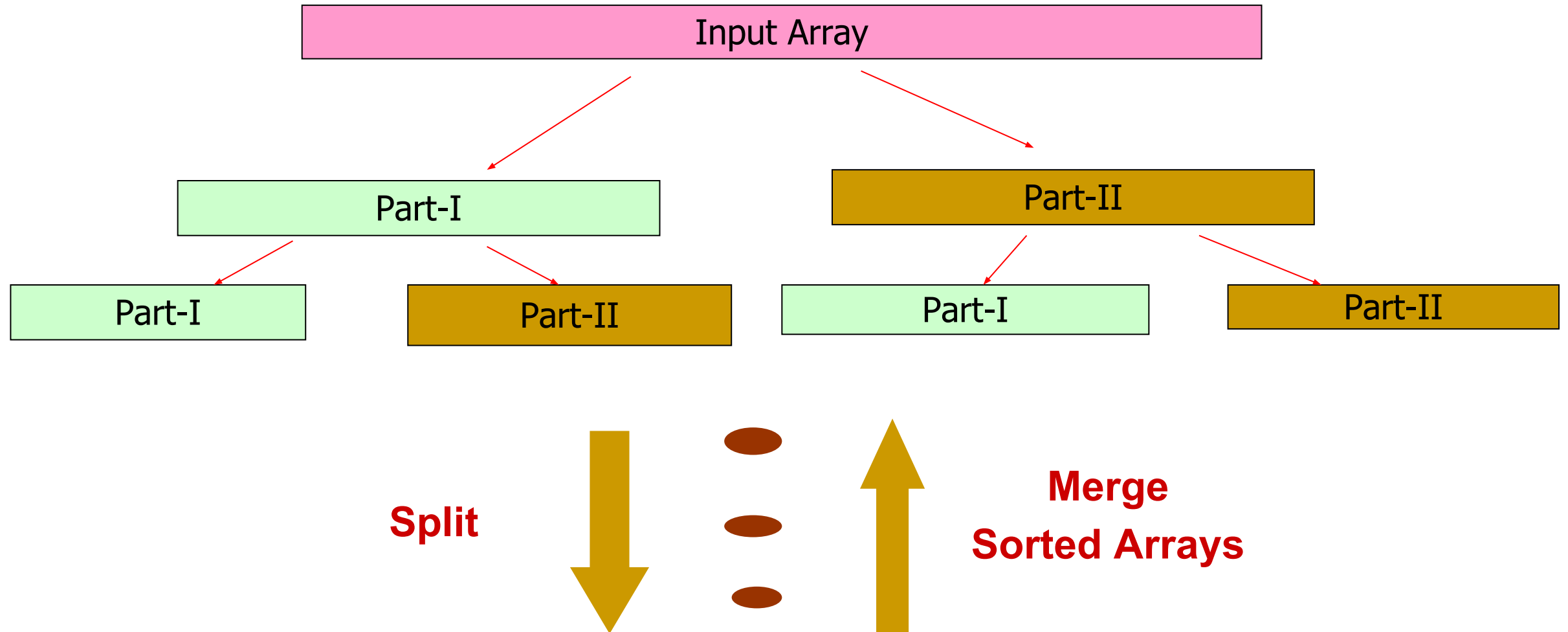
# A more efficient sorting method: Mergesort

A popular sorting algorithm based on the **divide-and-conquer** approach.

### Basic idea (divide-and-conquer method)

```
sort (list)
{
    if the list has length greater than 1
    {
        Partition the list into lowlist and highlist;
        sort (lowlist);
        sort (highlist);
        combine (lowlist, highlist);
    }
}
```

# Merge Sort



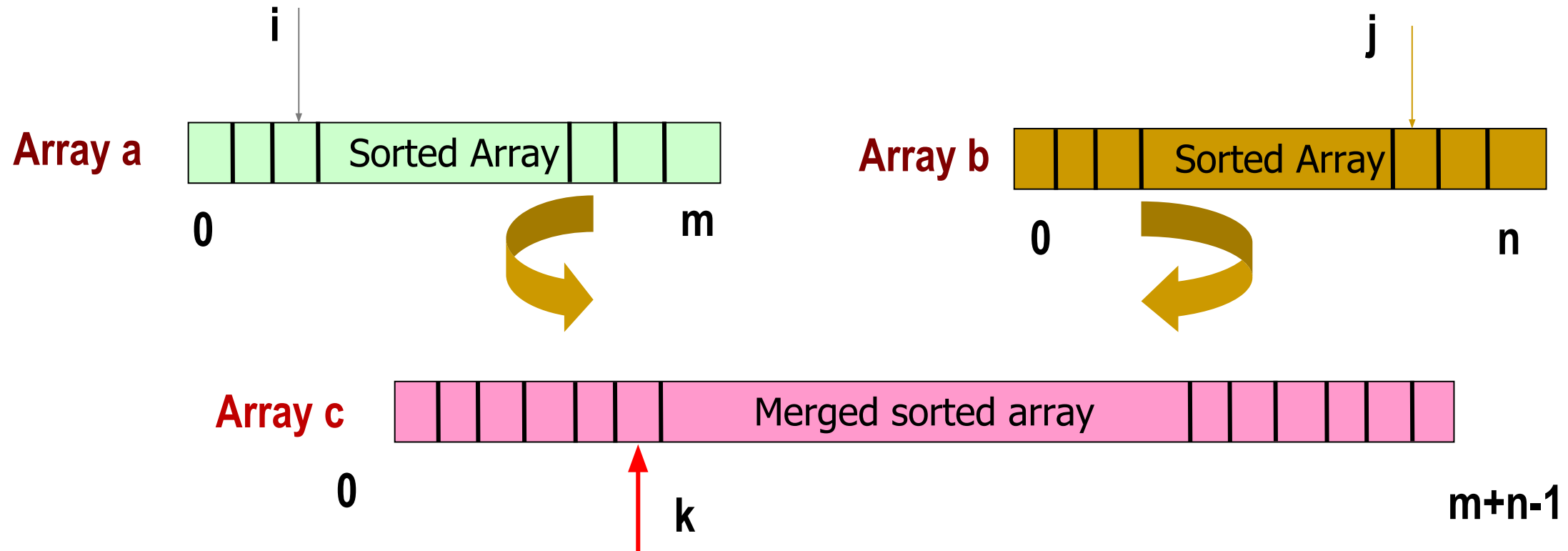
```

void merge_sort (int *A, int n)
{
    int i, j, k, m;
    int *B, *C;

    if (n > 1) {
        k = n/2;    m = n - k;
        B = (int *) malloc (k * sizeof(int));
        C = (int *) malloc (m * sizeof(int));
        for (i=0; i<k; i++)    B[i] = A[i];
        for (j=k; j<n; j++)    C[j-k] = A[j];
        // B contains first half of A
        // C contains second half of A
        merge_sort (B, k);
        merge_sort (C, m);
        merge (B, C, A, k, m); // destination array is A
        free(B); free(C);
    }
}

```

# Merging two sorted arrays



Copy element from **a** (indexed by  $i$ ) if its value is smaller than the element in **b** pointed by  $j$  ; otherwise, copy the element from **b** (indexed by  $j$ ).

If one of the arrays **a** or **b** get exhausted, simply copy the rest of the other array.



```

void merge (int *a, int *b, int *c, int m, int n)
// c is the destination array
{
    int i=0, j=0, k=0, p;

    // loop as long as neither array a nor array b is completed
    while ((i<m) && (j<n)) {
        if (a[i] < b[j])
            { c[k] = a[i]; i++; }
        else
            { c[k] = b[j]; j++; }
        k++;
    }

    if (i == m) { // array a completed; copy rest of array b to array c
        for (p=j; p<n; p++)
            { c[k] = b[p]; k++; }
    } else { // array b completed; copy rest of array a to array c
        for (p=i; p<m; p++)
            { c[k] = a[p]; k++; }
    }
}

```

# Example: showing the merge phase only

Initial array A contains 16 elements:

- 66, 33, 40, 22, 55, 88, 60, 11, 80, 20, 50, 44, 77, 30, 47, 23

Pass 1 :: Merge each pair of elements

- (33, 66) (22, 40) (55, 88) (11, 60) (20, 80) (44, 50) (30, 70) (23, 47)

Pass 2 :: Merge each pair of pairs

- (22, 33, 40, 66) (11, 55, 60, 88) (20, 44, 50, 80) (23, 30, 47, 77)

Pass 3 :: Merge each pair of sorted quadruplets

- (11, 22, 33, 40, 55, 60, 66, 88) (20, 23, 30, 44, 47, 50, 77, 80)

Pass 4 :: Merge the two sorted subarrays to get the final list

- (11, 20, 22, 23, 30, 33, 40, 44, 47, 50, 55, 60, 66, 77, 80, 88)

```

void merge_sort (int *A, int n)
{
    int i, j, k, m;
    int *B, *C;
    if (n > 1) {
        k = n/2;    m = n - k;
        B = (int *) malloc (k * sizeof(int));
        C = (int *) malloc (m * sizeof(int));
        for (i=0; i<k; i++)
            B[i] = A[i];
        for (j=k; j<n; j++)
            C[j-k] = A[j];
        // B contains first half of A
        // C contains second half of A
        merge_sort (B, k);
        merge_sort (C, m);
        merge (B, C, A, k, m); // dest A
        free(B); free(C);
    }
}

```

```

void merge (int *a, int *b, int *c, int m, int n)
{
    int i=0, j=0, k=0, p;

    while ((i < m) && (j < n)) {
        if (a[i] < b[j])
            { c[k] = a[i]; i++; }
        else
            { c[k] = b[j]; j++; }
        k++;
    }

    if (i == m) {
        for (p=j; p<n; p++)
            { c[k] = b[p]; k++; }
    } else {
        for (p=i; p<m; p++)
            { c[k] = a[p]; k++; }
    }
}

```

# Time complexity of merge sort

If  $n$  denotes the number of elements to be sorted, then the number of comparisons required in merge sort is approximately proportional to  $n \log n$ .

We need extra storage space as we have to temporarily create space for the arrays B and C.

**Practically best sorting method:  
Quicksort**

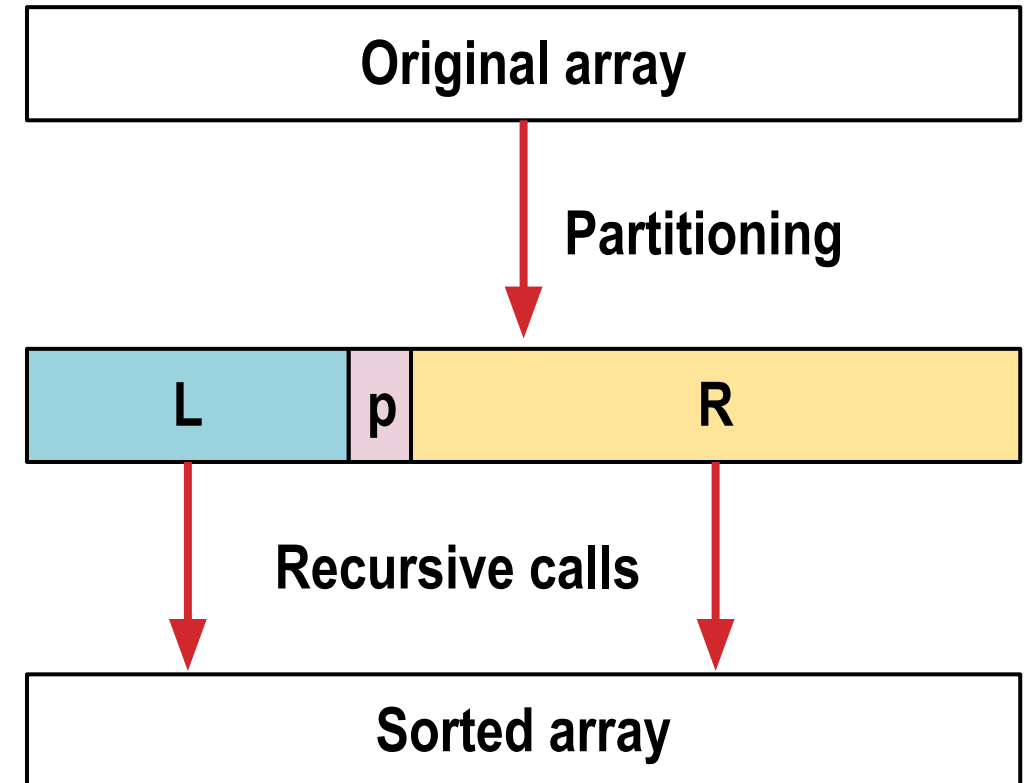
# Introduction to Quick Sort

- Merge sort is a theoretically best (optimal) sorting algorithm.
- Quick sort is the practically best general-purpose sorting algorithm.
- Problems of merge sort:
  - Extra space requirement
  - Merging step is difficult to carry out without extra arrays.
- Quick sort is another recursive sorting algorithm.
- Quick sort takes a divide-and-conquer approach.
- In merge sort, the main work (merging) is done after the recursive calls return.
- In quick sort, the main work (partitioning) is done before the recursive calls are made.
- Basic idea of quick sort
  - Choose an element  $p$  of the array  $A$  as the pivot.
  - Decompose the array in three parts:  $L$  consisting the elements of  $A$  less than (or equal to)  $p$ ,  $R$  consisting of the elements of  $A$  larger than  $p$ , and the single element  $p$ .
  - Recursively sort  $L$  and  $R$ .
  - Output sorted( $L$ ) followed by  $p$  followed by sorted( $R$ ).
  - If partitioning is done in  $A$  itself, then there is no task left after the recursive calls.

# Quick sort: Skeleton of the algorithm

```
void quicksort ( int A[], int n )
{
    int pivotidx;

    if (n <= 1) return;
    pivotidx = partition (A, n);
    quicksort (A, pivotidx);
    quicksort (A+pivotidx+1, n-pivotidx-1);
}
```



# Partitioning using extra arrays

```
int partition ( int A[], int n )
{
    int *L, *R, p, i, j, l, r;

    if (n <= 1) return n-1;

    L = (int *)malloc(n * sizeof(int));
    R = (int *)malloc(n * sizeof(int));
    p = A[n-1]; // Choose the last element of A as pivot
    l = r = 0; // Initialize the sizes of L and R
    for (i=0; i<=n-2; ++i)
        if (A[i] <= p) L[l++] = A[i]; else R[r++] = A[i];
    for (i=0; i<l; ++i) A[i] = L[i]; // Copy L to A
    A[i++] = p; // Append p to A
    for (j=0; j<r; ++j) A[i++] = R[j]; // Append R to A
    free(L); free(R); // No further needs for L and R
    return l;
}
```



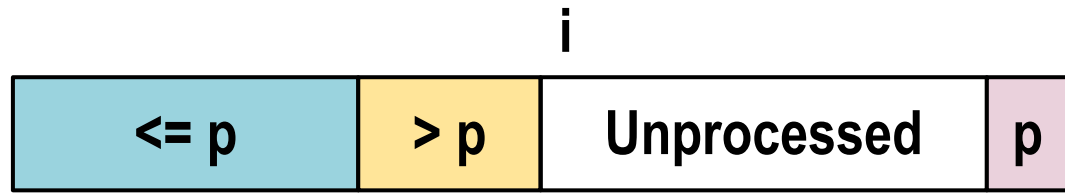
# In-place partitioning

- Possibility of partitioning  $A$  without any extra arrays make quick sort attractive and efficient.
- There are many variants of the in-place partitioning algorithm.
- We follow the CLRS variant:

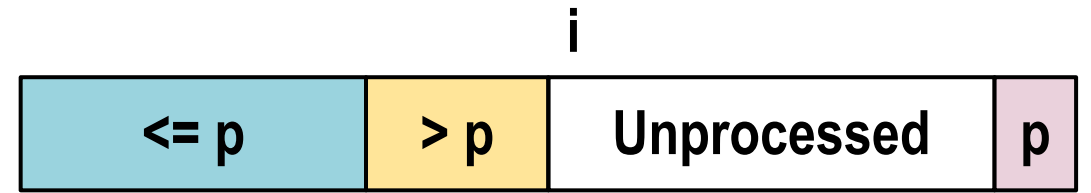
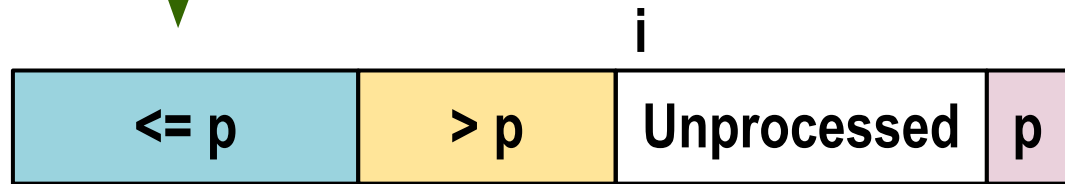
Cormen , Leiserson, Rivest, and Stein, *Introduction to Algorithms*, 4th Edition, MIT Press

- We take  $p = A[n-1]$  as the pivot.
- The array  $A$  is always maintained as the concatenation  $LRU_p$ , where
  - $L$  consists of elements  $\leq p$
  - $R$  consists of elements  $> p$
  - $U$  is the unprocessed part (elements in  $U$  are not yet classified to go to  $L$  or  $R$ )
- Each iteration processes one element from  $U$ , and sends that element to  $L$  or  $R$  as appropriate.
- After  $n - 1$  iterations, there are no unprocessed elements, so the array is of the form  $LR_p$ .
- It is then converted to the form  $L_pR$ .
- Blocks ( $L$  and  $R$ ) are never fully shifted. Only element swaps are used.
- This may destroy the order of the (equal) keys in the partitioned array.

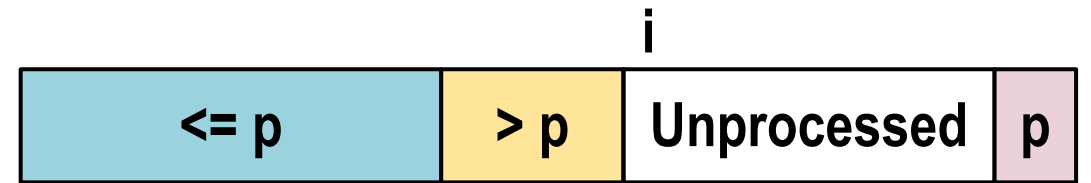
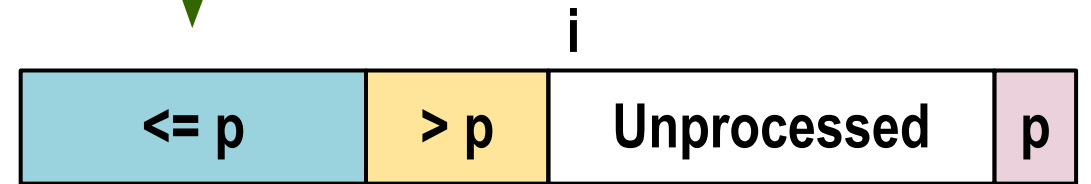
# In-place partitioning



Case 1:  $A[i] > p$



Case 2:  $A[i] \leq p$



After end of loop



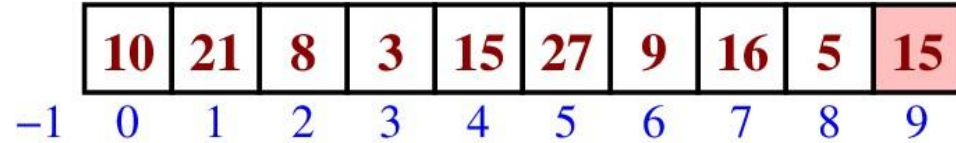
# In-place partitioning: The code

```
int partition ( int A[], int n )
{
    int lend = -1, i;
    int p, t;

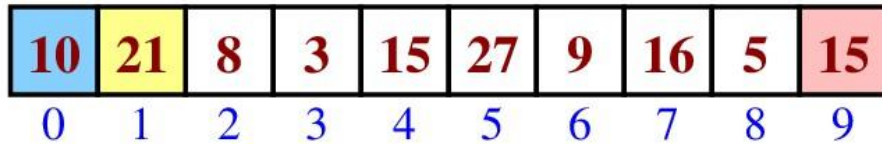
    p = A[n-1]; // Last element of A is the pivot
    for (i=0; i<=n-2; ++i) {
        if (A[i] <= p) { // Region L grows
            ++lend;
            t = A[lend]; A[lend] = A[i]; A[i] = t;
        }
        // else Region R grows, ++i will do it
    }
    i = lend + 1; // i is the first index of Region R
    t = A[i]; A[i] = A[n-1]; A[n-1] = t;
    return i;
}
```

# In-place partitioning: An example

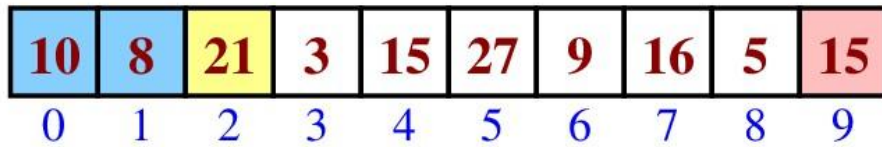
*lend i*



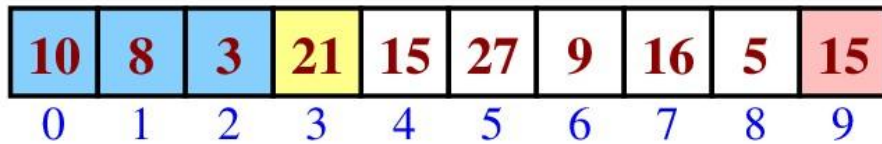
*lend i*



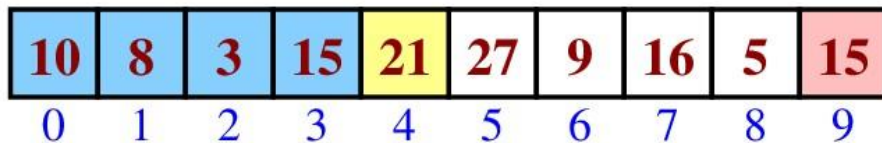
*lend i*



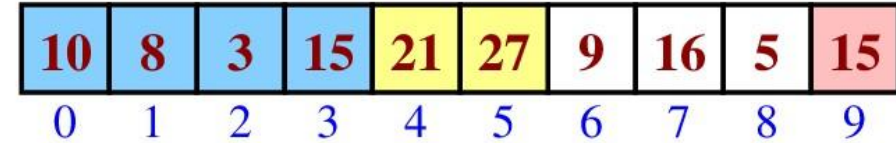
*lend i*



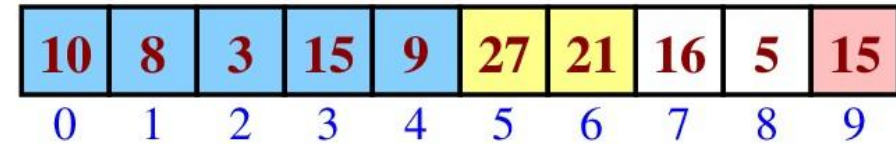
*lend i*



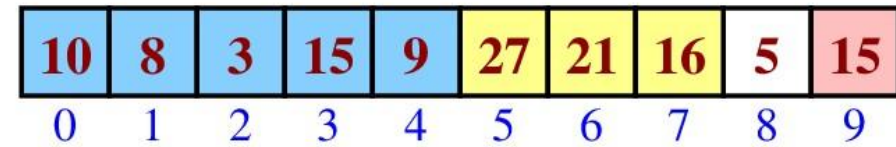
*lend i*



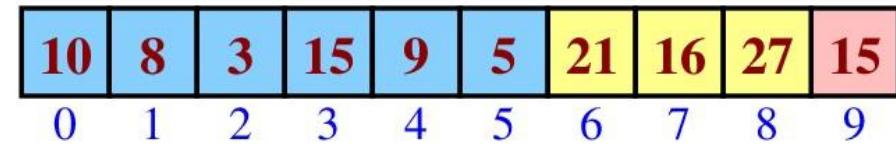
*lend i*



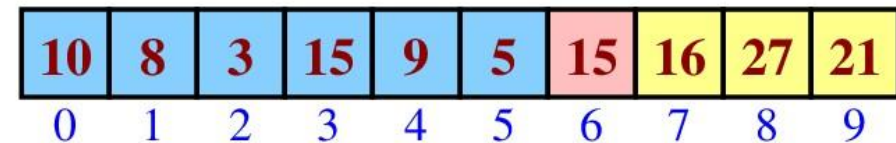
*lend i*



*lend i*



*lend i*



# Performance of quick sort

- Running times are specified as “*roughly proportional to a function of the input size.*”
- No (comparison-based) sorting algorithm can run faster than  $n \log n$  is the worst case.
- For merge sort:
  - All cases are the same. No specific best / worst / average case.
  - Each case has running time  $n \log n$  for merge sort.
- For quick sort:
  - Best case: Partitioning divides the array roughly into two equal halves
  - Worst case: Partitioning always gives one subarray of size one less than the array.
  - Average case: The pivot is any one element (smallest to largest) with equal probability.
- Example of worst case: The array is already sorted in ascending or descending order.
- Running time of quick sort:
  - Best and average case:  $n \log n$
  - Worst case:  $n^2$
- Quick sort is not theoretically optimal.
- In practice, quick sort is considered the fastest sorting algorithm for “general” arrays.