Algorithms 2020: Searching and Sorting

(Based on [Manber 1989])

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1 Binary Search

Searching a Sorted Sequence

Problem 1. Let x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n be a sequence of real numbers such that $x_1 \leq x_2 \leq \dots \leq x_n$. Given a real number z, we want to find whether z appears in the sequence, and, if it does, to find an index i such that $x_i = z$.

Idea: cut the search space in half by asking only one question.

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} T(1)=O(1) \\ T(n)=T(\frac{n}{2})+O(1), n\geq 2 \end{array} \right.$$

Time complexity: $O(\log n)$ (applying the master theorem with $a=1,\,b=2,\,k=0,$ and $b^k=1=a$).

Binary Search

```
function Find (z, Left, Right): integer;
begin

if Left = Right then

if X[Left] = z then Find := Left

else Find := 0

else

Middle := \lceil \frac{Left + Right}{2} \rceil;

if z < X[Middle] then

Find := Find(z, Left, Middle - 1)

else

Find := Find(z, Middle, Right)

end

Algorithm Binary_Search (X, n, z);
begin

Position := Find(z, 1, n);
end
```

Binary Search: Alternative

```
function Find (z, Left, Right): integer; begin

if Left > Right then

Find := 0

else

Middle := \lceil \frac{Left + Right}{2} \rceil;

if z = X[Middle] then

Find := Middle

else if z < X[Middle] then

Find := Find(z, Left, Middle - 1)

else

Find := Find(z, Middle + 1, Right)
end
```

How do the two algorithms compare?

1.1 Cyclically Sorted Sequence

Searching a Cyclically Sorted Sequence

Problem 2. Given a cyclically sorted list, find the position of the minimal element in the list (we assume, for simplicity, that this position is unique).

• Example 1:

- The 4th is the minimal element.
- Example 2:

- The 1st is the minimal element.
- To cut the search space in half, what question should we ask?

/* If X[Middle] < X[Right], then the minimal is in the left half (including X[Middle]; otherwise, it is in the right half (excluding X[Middle]). */

Cyclic Binary Search

```
else
```

 $Cyclic_Find := Cyclic_Find(Middle + 1, Right)$

end

1.2 "Fixpoints"

"Fixpoints"

Problem 3. Given a sorted sequence of distinct integers a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n , determine whether there exists an index i such that $a_i = i$.

• Example 1:

• Example 2:

• Again, can we cut the search space in half by asking only one question?

/* As the numbers are distinct, they increase or decrease at least as fast as the indices (which always increase or decrease by one). If X[Middle] < Middle, then the fixpoint (if it exists) must be in the left half (excluding X[Middle]); otherwise, it must be in the right half (including X[Middle]). */

A Special Binary Search

```
function Special_Find (Left,Right):integer;
begin

if Left=Right then

if A[Left]=Left then Special\_Find:=Left

else Special\_Find:=0

else

Middle:=\lfloor\frac{Left+Right}{2}\rfloor;

if A[Middle]< Middle then

Special\_Find:=Special\_Find(Middle+1,Right)

else

Special\_Find:=Special\_Find(Left,Middle)

end

A Special Binary Search (cont.)

Algorithm Special\_Binary\_Search (A,n);

begin

Position:=Special\_Find(1,n);
end
```

1.3 Stuttering Subsequence

Stuttering Subsequence

Problem 4. Given two sequences $A (= a_1 a_2 \cdots a_n)$ and $B (= b_1 b_2 \cdots b_m)$, find the maximal value of i such that B^i is a subsequence of A.

- If B = xyzzx, then $B^2 = xxyyzzzzxx$, $B^3 = xxxyyyzzzzzxxx$, etc.
- \bullet B is a subsequence of A if we can embed B inside A in the same order but with possible holes.
- For example, $B^2 = xxyyzzzzxx$ is a subsequence of xxzzyyyyxxzzzzzxxx.
- If B^j is a subsequence of A, then B^i is a subsequence of A, for $1 \le i \le j$.
- The maximum value of i cannot exceed $\lfloor \frac{n}{m} \rfloor$ (or B^i would be longer than A).

Stuttering Subsequence (cont.)

Two ways to find the maximum i:

- Sequential search: try 1, 2, 3, etc. sequentially. Time complexity: O(nj), where j is the maximum value of i.
- Binary search between 1 and $\lfloor \frac{n}{m} \rfloor$. Time complexity: $O(n \log \frac{n}{m})$.

Can binary search be applied, if the bound $\lfloor \frac{n}{m} \rfloor$ is unknown?

Think of the base case in a reversed induction.

/* Try 2^0 , 2^1 , 2^2 , \cdots , 2^{k-1} , and 2^k sequentially. If the target falls between 2^{k-1} and 2^k , apply binary search within that region. */

2 Interpolation Search

Interpolation Search

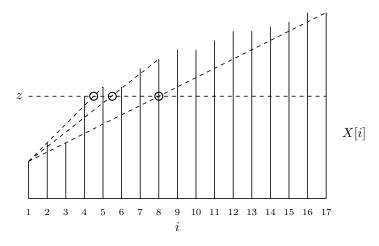
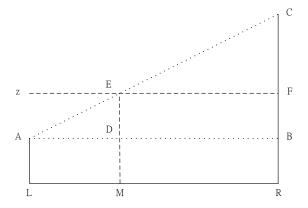


Figure: Interpolation search.

Source: redrawn from [Manber 1989, Figure 6.4].

Interpolation Search (cont.)



$$\frac{\overline{LM}}{\overline{LR}} = \frac{\overline{AD}}{\overline{AB}} = \frac{\overline{AE}}{\overline{AC}} = \frac{\overline{BF}}{\overline{BC}}, \text{so } |\overline{LM}| = \frac{|\overline{BF}|}{|\overline{BC}|} \times |\overline{LR}|$$

Interpolation Search (cont.)

```
function Int_Find (z, Left, Right): integer;
begin

if X[Left] = z then Int\_Find := Left
else if Left = Right or X[Left] = X[Right] then
Int\_Find := 0
else

Next\_Guess := \lceil Left + \frac{(z - X[Left])(Right - Left)}{X[Right] - X[Left]} \rceil;
if z < X[Next\_Guess] then
Int\_Find := Int\_Find(z, Left, Next\_Guess - 1)
else
Int\_Find := Int\_Find(z, Next\_Guess, Right)
end

/* Next\_Guess - Left = |\overline{LM}| = \frac{|\overline{BF}|}{|\overline{BC}|} \times |\overline{LR}| \approx \lceil \frac{(z - X[Left])(Right - Left)}{X[Right] - X[Left]} \rceil */
```

Interpolation Search (cont.)

```
\label{eq:Algorithm Interpolation_Search} \begin{split} \textbf{Algorithm Interpolation\_Search} & (X,n,z); \\ \textbf{begin} & \quad \textbf{if} \ z < X[1] \ \text{or} \ z > X[n] \ \textbf{then} \ Position := 0 \\ & \quad \textbf{else} \ Position := Int\_Find(z,1,n); \\ \textbf{end} & \quad \end{split}
```

3 Sorting

Sorting

Problem 5. Given n numbers x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n , arrange them in increasing order. In other words, find a sequence of distinct indices $1 \le i_1, i_2, \dots, i_n \le n$, such that $x_{i_1} \le x_{i_2} \le \dots \le x_{i_n}$.

A sorting algorithm is called **in-place** if no additional work space is used besides the initial array that holds the elements.

3.1 Using Balanced Search Trees

Using Balanced Search Trees

- Balanced search trees, such as AVL trees, may be used for sorting:
 - 1. Create an empty tree.

Algorithm Straight_Radix (X, n, k);

- 2. Insert the numbers one by one to the tree.
- 3. Traverse the tree and output the numbers.
- What's the time complexity? Suppose we use an AVL tree.

3.2 Radix Sort

```
Radix Sort
```

begin

```
put all elements of X in a queue GQ;
    for i := 1 to d do
        initialize queue Q[i] to be empty
    for i := k downto 1 do
        while GQ is not empty do
              pop x from GQ;
              d := the i-th digit of x;
              insert x into Q[d];
        for t := 1 to d do
            insert Q[t] into GQ;
    for i := 1 to n do
        pop X[i] from GQ
end
   Time complexity: O(nk).
      Merge Sort
3.3
Merge Sort
Algorithm Mergesort (X, n);
begin M_{-}Sort(1,n) end
procedure M_{-}Sort (Left, Right);
begin
    if Right - Left = 1 then
      if X[Left] > X[Right] then swap(X[Left], X[Right])
    else if Left \neq Right then
           Middle := \lceil \frac{1}{2}(Left + Right) \rceil;
           M\_Sort(Left, Middle - 1);
           M\_Sort(Middle, Right);
```

Merge Sort (cont.)

```
i := Left; \ j := Middle; \ k := 0;
while (i \le Middle - 1) and (j \le Right) do
k := k + 1;
if X[i] \le X[j] then
TEMP[k] := X[i]; \ i := i + 1
else TEMP[k] := X[j]; \ j := j + 1;
if j > Right then
for t := 0 to Middle - 1 - i do
X[Right - t] := X[Middle - 1 - t]
for t := 0 to k - 1 do
X[Left + t] := TEMP[1 + t]
```

end

Time complexity: $O(n \log n)$.

Merge Sort (cont.)

6	2	8	5	10	9	12	1	15	7	3	13	4	11	16	14
2	6	8	5	10	9	12	1	15	7	3	13	4	11	16	14
2	6	(5)	\otimes	10	9	12	1	15	7	3	13	4	11	16	14
2	(5)	6	8	10	9	12	1	15	7	3	13	4	11	16	14
2	5	6	8	9	10	12	1	15	7	3	13	4	11	16	14
2	5	6	8	9	10	1	(12)	15	7	3	13	4	11	16	14
2	5	6	8	1	9	(10)	(12)	15	7	3	13	4	11	16	14
1	2	5	6	8	9	(10)	(12)	15	7	3	13	4	11	16	14
1	2	5	6	8	9	10	12	7	(15)	3	13	4	11	16	14
1	2	5	6	8	9	10	12	7	15	3	(13)	4	11	16	14
1	2	5	6	8	9	10	12	3	7	13)	(15)	4	11	16	14
1	2	5	6	8	9	10	12	3	7	13	15	4		16	14
1	2	5	6	8	9	10	12	3	7	13	15	4	11	(14)	(16)
1	2	5	6	8	9	10	12	3	7	13	15	4	(11)	(14)	(16)
1	2	5	6	8	9	10	12	3	4	7	(11)	(13)	(14)	(15)	(16)
1	2	3	4	(5)	6	7	8	9	10	(11)	(12)	(13)	(14)	(15)	(16)

Figure: An example of mergesort.

Source: redrawn from [Manber 1989, Figure 6.8].

3.4 Quick Sort

Quick Sort

```
 \begin{aligned} & \textbf{Algorithm Quicksort} \ (X,n); \\ & \textbf{begin} \\ & Q\_Sort(1,n) \\ & \textbf{end} \\ \\ & \textbf{procedure Q\_Sort} \ (Left,Right); \\ & \textbf{begin} \\ & \textbf{if} \ Left < Right \ \textbf{then} \\ \end{aligned}
```

```
Partition(X, Left, Right);
      Q\_Sort(Left, Middle - 1);
      Q\_Sort(Middle + 1, Right)
end
   Time complexity: O(n^2), but O(n \log n) in average
Quick Sort (cont.)
{\bf Algorithm~Partition}(X, Left, Right);
begin
    pivot := X[Left];
    L := Left; R := Right;
    while L < R do
          while X[L] \leq pivot and L \leq Right do L := L + 1;
          while X[R] > pivot and R \ge Left do R := R - 1;
          if L < R then swap(X[L], X[R]);
    Middle := R;
    swap(X[Left], X[Middle])
end
```

Quick Sort (cont.)

6	2	8	5	10	9	12	1	15	7	3	13	4	11	16	14
6	2	4	5	10	9	12	1	15	7	3	13	8	11	16	14
6	2	4	5	3	9	12	1	15	7	(10)	13	8	11	16	14
6	2	4	5	3	1	12	9	15	7	10	13	8	11	16	14
1	2	4	5	3	6	12	9	15	7	10	13	8	11	16	14

Figure: Partition of an array around the pivot 6.

Source: redrawn from [Manber 1989, Figure 6.10].

Quick Sort (cont.)

6	2	8	5	10	9	12	1	15	7	3	13	4	11	16	14
1	2	4	5	3	6	12	9	15	7	10	13	8	11	16	14
1	2	4	5	3	6	12	9	15	7	10	13	8	11	16	14
1	2	4	5	3	6	12	9	15	7	10	13	8	11	16	14
1	2	3	4	5	6	12	9	15	7	10	13	8	11	16	14
1	2	3	4	5	6	8	9	11	7	10	(12)	13	15	16	14
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	11	9	10	(12)	13	15	16	14
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	10	9	(11)	(12)	13	15	16	14
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	(10)	(11)	(12)	13	15	16	14
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	(10)	(11)	(12)	(13)	15	16	14
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	(10)	(11)	(12)	(13)	14	(15)	16

Figure: An example of quicksort.

Source: redrawn from [Manber 1989, Figure 6.12].

Average-Case Complexity of Quick Sort

• When X[i] is selected (at random) as the pivot,

$$T(n) = n - 1 + T(i - 1) + T(n - i)$$
, where $n \ge 2$.

The average running time will then be

$$\begin{split} T(n) &= n - 1 + \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (T(i-1) + T(n-i)) \\ &= n - 1 + \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} T(i-1) + \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} T(n-i) \\ &= n - 1 + \frac{1}{n} \sum_{j=0}^{n-1} T(j) + \frac{1}{n} \sum_{j=0}^{n-1} T(j) \\ &= n - 1 + \frac{2}{n} \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} T(i) \end{split}$$

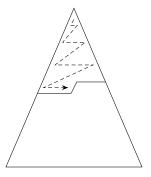
• Solving this recurrence relation with full history, $T(n) = O(n \log n)$.

3.5 Heap Sort

Heap Sort (cont.)

Heap Sort

```
Algorithm Heapsort (A, n);
begin
    Build\_Heap(A);
    for i := n downto 2 do
        swap(A[1], A[i]);
        Rearrange\_Heap(i-1)
end
   Time complexity: O(n \log n)
Heap Sort (cont.)
procedure Rearrange_Heap (k);
begin
    parent := 1;
    child := 2;
    while child \le k-1 do
          if A[child] < A[child+1] then
             child := child + 1;
          if A[child] > A[parent] then
             swap(A[parent], A[child]);
             parent := child;
             child := 2*child
          else \ child := k
end
```



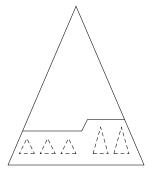


Figure: Top down and bottom up heap construction.

Source: redrawn from [Manber 1989, Figure 6.14].

How do the two approaches compare?

/* Top down: $O(n \log n)$.

Bottom up: O(sum of the heights of all nodes) = O(n). Consider a full binary tree of height h. From an excercise problem in HW#2, we know that "sum of the heights of all nodes" of the tree equals $2^{h+1} - (h+2) \le 2^{h+1} - 1 = n$. */

Building a Heap Bottom Up

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16
6	2	8	5	10	9	12	1	15	7	3	13	4	11	16	14
6	2	8	5	10	9	12	(14)	15	7	3	13	4	11	16	1
6	2	8	5	10	9	(16)	14	15	7	3	13	4	11	(12)	1
6	2	8	5	10	(13)	16	14	15	7	3	9	4	11	12	1
6	2	8	5	10	13	16	14	15	7	3	9	4	11	12	1
6	2	8	(15)	10	13	16	14	(5)	7	3	9	4	11	12	1
6	2	(16)	15	10	13	(12)	14	5	7	3	9	4	11	8	1
6	(15)	16	(14)	10	13	12	2	5	7	3	9	4	11	8	1
16)	15	13)	14	10	9	12	2	5	7	3	6	4	11	8	1

Figure: An example of building a heap bottom up.

Source: adapted from [Manber 1989, Figure 6.15].

A Lower Bound for Sorting

- A lower bound for a particular problem is a proof that no algorithm can solve the problem better.
- We typically define a computation model and consider only those algorithms that fit in the model.
- Decision trees model computations performed by *comparison-based* algorithms.

Theorem 6 (Theorem 6.1). Every decision-tree algorithm for sorting has height $\Omega(n \log n)$.

Proof idea: there must be at least n! leaves, one for each possible outcome.

/* Recall Stirling's approximation: $n! = \sqrt{2\pi n} \left(\frac{n}{e}\right)^n (1 + O(1/n))$. The height of the decision tree must be at least $\log(n!)$, i.e., $\Omega(n \log n)$. */

Is the lower bound contradictory to the time complexity of radix sort?

4 Order Statistics

Order Statistics: Minimum and Maximum

Problem 7. Find the maximum and minimum elements in a given sequence.

- The obvious solution requires (n-1)+(n-2) (= 2n-3) comparisons between elements.
- Can we do better? Which comparisons could have been avoided?

/* A better algorithm: compare x_1 and x_2 . Set min to be the smaller of the two and max the larger. Compare x_3 and x_4 and then compare the smaller with min and the larger with max; these take three comparisons. Update min and max accordingly. Continue until we have exhausted the sequence of numbers. Assuming n is even, the total number of comparisons $n = 1 + 3 \times \frac{(n-2)}{2} = \frac{3}{2}n - 2$.

Order Statistics: Kth-Smallest

Problem 8. Given a sequence $S = x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n$ of elements, and an integer k such that $1 \le k \le n$, find the kth-smallest element in S.

```
Order Statistics: Kth-Smallest (cont.)

procedure Select (Left, Right, k);
begin

if Left = Right then

Select := Left

else Partition(X, Left, Right);

let \ Middle \ be \ the \ output \ of \ Partition;

if Middle - Left + 1 \ge k then

Select(Left, Middle, k)

else

Select(Middle + 1, Right, k - (Middle - Left + 1))
end
```

/* Here the formal parameter k (for rank) is made to be relative to the left bound of array indices, while Left, Middle, and Right are absolute index values. */

```
Order Statistics: Kth-Smallest (cont.)

The nested "if" statement may be simplified:

procedure Select (Left, Right, k);
begin

if Left = Right then

Select := Left
else Partition(X, Left, Right);
let \ Middle \ be \ the \ output \ of \ Partition;
if Middle \ge k then

Select(Left, Middle, k)
else

Select(Middle + 1, Right, k)
end
```

```
Order Statistics: Kth-Smallest (cont.)
Algorithm Selection (X, n, k);
begin
    if (k < 1) or (k > n) then print "error"
   else S := Select(1, n, k)
```

Finding a Majority 5

Finding a Majority

end

Problem 9. Given a sequence of numbers, find the majority in the sequence or determine that none exists.

A number is a majority in a sequence if it occurs more than $\frac{n}{2}$ times in the sequence.

Idea: compare any two numbers in the sequence. What can we conclude if they are not equal?

/* If there is a majority, it is also a majority of the other n-2 numbers. However, the reverse may not be true. */

What if they are equal?

/* Keep the first number as a candidate at hand and repeat the following:

If the next number equals the candidate, we increment the count of its occurrences; otherwise, we have a pair of unequal numbers to eliminate (by decrementing the count for the candidate). When the count becomes 0 (due to elimination), we take the next number as a new candidate. */

```
Finding a Majority (cont.)
```

Algorithm Majority (X, n);

```
begin
   C := X[1]; M := 1;
   for i := 2 to n do
       if M=0 then
           C := X[i]; M := 1
       else
           if C = X[i] then M := M + 1
           else M := M - 1;
```

Finding a Majority (cont.)

```
if M = 0 then Majority := -1
   else
        Count := 0;
        for i := 1 to n do
           if X[i] = C then Count := Count + 1;
       if Count > n/2 then Majority := C
        else Majority := -1
end
```

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