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2.2 MERGESORT

- ▶ *mergesort*
- ▶ *bottom-up mergesort*
- ▶ *sorting complexity*
- ▶ *divide-and-conquer*

Two classic sorting algorithms: mergesort and quicksort

Critical components in the world's computational infrastructure.

- Full scientific understanding of their properties has enabled us to develop them into practical system sorts.
- Quicksort honored as one of top 10 algorithms of 20th century in science and engineering.

Mergesort. [this lecture]



Quicksort. [next lecture]





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Mergesort

Basic plan.

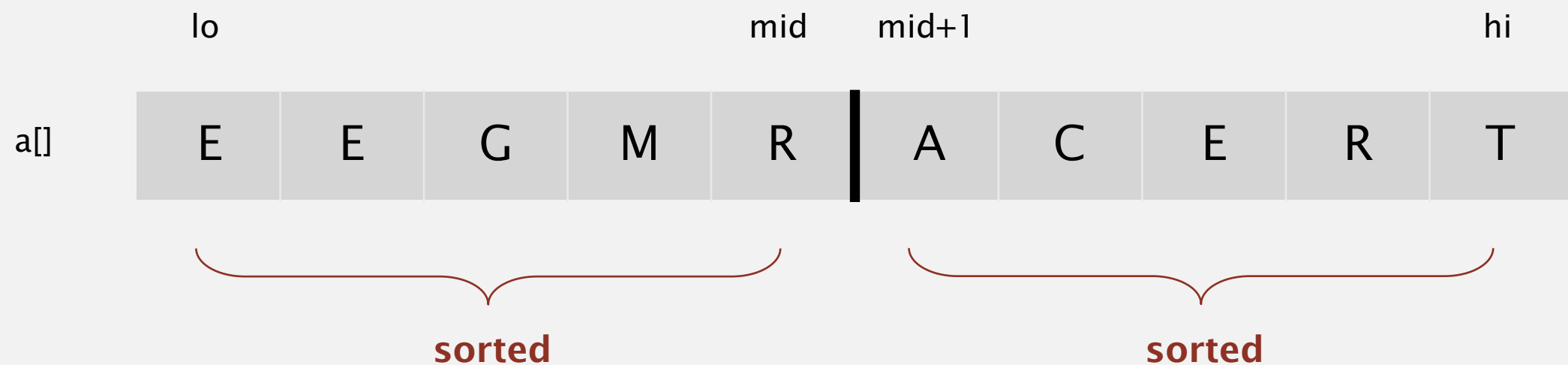
- Divide array into two halves.
- **Recursively** sort each half.
- Merge the two halves.

input	M	E	R	G	E	S	O	R	T	E	X	A	M	P	L	E	
sort left half	E	E	G	M	O	R	R	S		T	E	X	A	M	P	L	E
sort right half	E	E	G	M	O	R	R	S		A	E	E	L	M	P	T	X
merge results	A	E	E	E	E	G	L	M	M	O	P	R	R	S	T	X	

Mergesort overview

Abstract in-place merge demo

Goal. Given two sorted subarrays $a[lo]$ to $a[mid]$ and $a[mid+1]$ to $a[hi]$, replace with sorted subarray $a[lo]$ to $a[hi]$.



Merging: Java implementation

```
private static void merge(Comparable[] a, Comparable[] aux, int lo, int mid, int hi)
{
    for (int k = lo; k <= hi; k++)          copy
        aux[k] = a[k];

    int i = lo, j = mid+1;
    for (int k = lo; k <= hi; k++)
    {
        if (i > mid)          a[k] = aux[j++];
        else if (j > hi)      a[k] = aux[i++];
        else if (less(aux[j], aux[i])) a[k] = aux[j++];
        else                  a[k] = aux[i++];
    }
}
```

merge

Bad programming practice.
Used here to save vertical space.

Equivalent to:

```
{
    a[k] = aux[j];
    j++;
}
```





How many calls does `merge()` make to `less()` in order to merge two sorted subarrays, each of length $n/2$, into a sorted array of length n ?

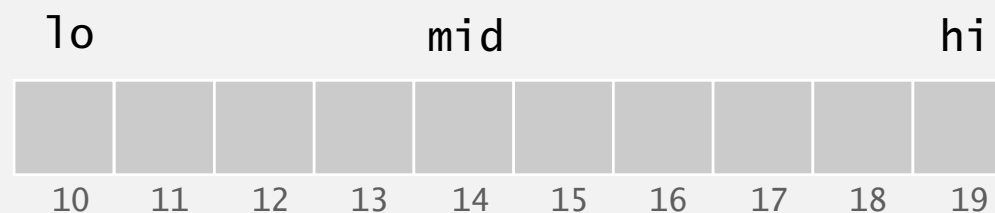
- A. $\sim \frac{1}{4} n$ to $\sim \frac{1}{2} n$
- B. $\sim \frac{1}{2} n$
- C. $\sim \frac{1}{2} n$ to $\sim n$
- D. $\sim n$

Mergesort: Java implementation

```
public class Merge
{
    private static void merge(...)
    { /* as before */ }


    private static void sort(Comparable[] a, Comparable[] aux, int lo, int hi)
    {
        if (hi <= lo) return;
        int mid = lo + (hi - lo) / 2;
        sort(a, aux, lo, mid);
        sort(a, aux, mid+1, hi);
        merge(a, aux, lo, mid, hi);
    }

    public static void sort(Comparable[] a)
    {
        Comparable[] aux = new Comparable[a.length];
        sort(a, aux, 0, a.length - 1);
    }
}
```



Mergesort: trace

	a[]															
	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15
	M	E	R	G	E	S	O	R	T	E	X	A	M	P	L	E
merge(a, aux, ^{lo} 0, 0, ^{hi} 1)	E	M	R	G	E	S	O	R	T	E	X	A	M	P	L	E
merge(a, aux, 2, 2, 3)	E	M	G	R	E	S	O	R	T	E	X	A	M	P	L	E
merge(a, aux, 0, 1, 3)	E	G	M	R	E	S	O	R	T	E	X	A	M	P	L	E
merge(a, aux, 4, 4, 5)	E	G	M	R	E	S	O	R	T	E	X	A	M	P	L	E
merge(a, aux, 6, 6, 7)	E	G	M	R	E	S	O	R	T	E	X	A	M	P	L	E
merge(a, aux, 4, 5, 7)	E	G	M	R	E	O	R	S	T	E	X	A	M	P	L	E
merge(a, aux, 0, 3, 7)	E	E	G	M	O	R	R	S	T	E	X	A	M	P	L	E
merge(a, aux, 8, 8, 9)	E	E	G	M	O	R	R	S	E	T	X	A	M	P	L	E
merge(a, aux, 10, 10, 11)	E	E	G	M	O	R	R	S	E	T	A	X	M	P	L	E
merge(a, aux, 8, 9, 11)	E	E	G	M	O	R	R	S	A	E	T	X	M	P	L	E
merge(a, aux, 12, 12, 13)	E	E	G	M	O	R	R	S	A	E	T	X	M	P	L	E
merge(a, aux, 14, 14, 15)	E	E	G	M	O	R	R	S	A	E	T	X	M	P	E	L
merge(a, aux, 12, 13, 15)	E	E	G	M	O	R	R	S	A	E	T	X	E	L	M	P
merge(a, aux, 8, 11, 15)	E	E	G	M	O	R	R	S	A	E	E	L	M	P	T	X
merge(a, aux, 0, 7, 15)	A	E	E	E	E	G	L	M	M	O	P	R	R	S	T	X



 result after recursive call

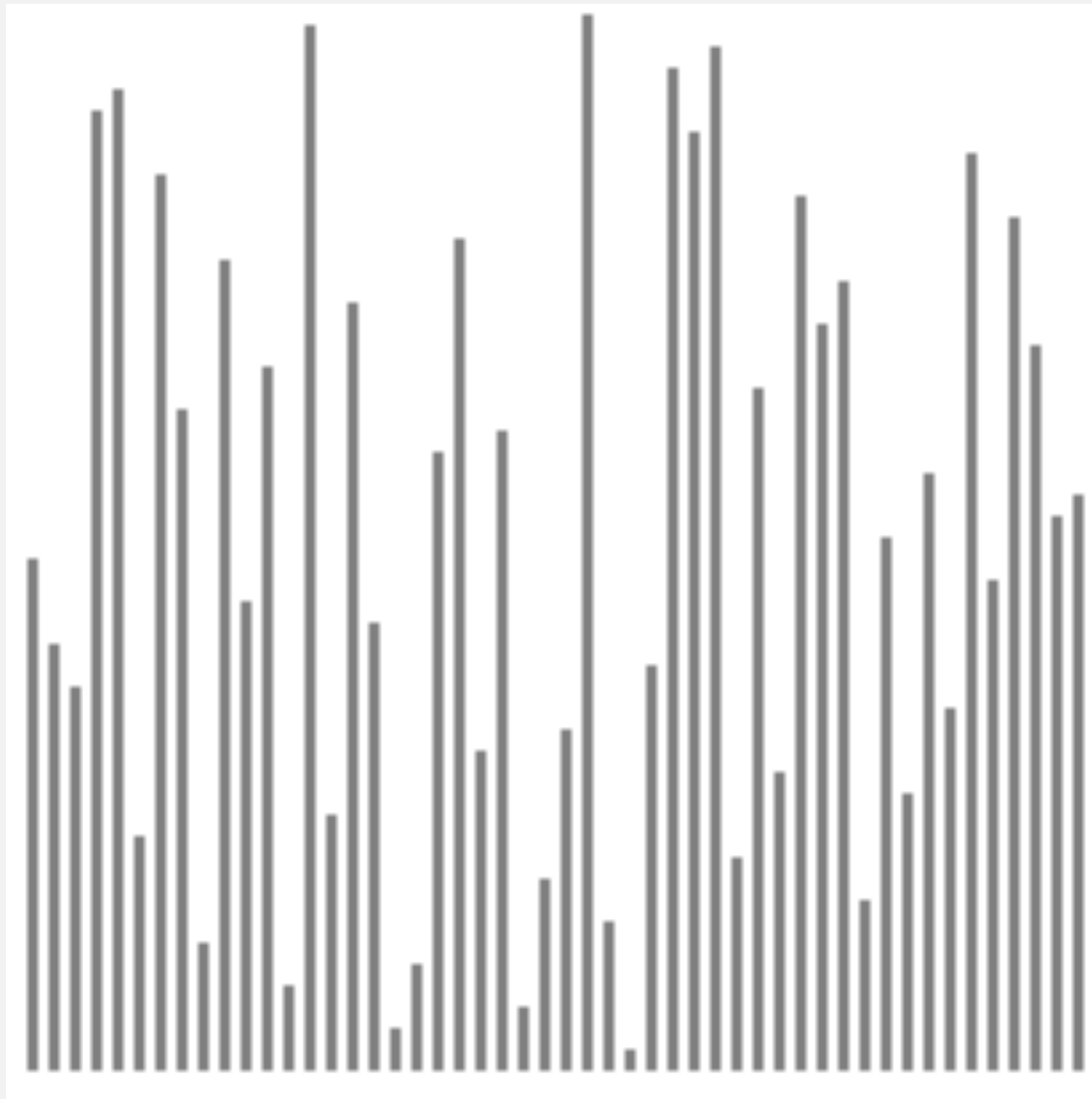


Which of the following subarray lengths will occur when running mergesort on an array of length 12?

- A.** { 1, 2, 3, 4, 6, 8, 12 }
- B.** { 1, 2, 3, 6, 12 }
- C.** { 1, 2, 4, 8, 12 }
- D.** { 1, 3, 6, 9, 12 }

Mergesort: animation

50 random items

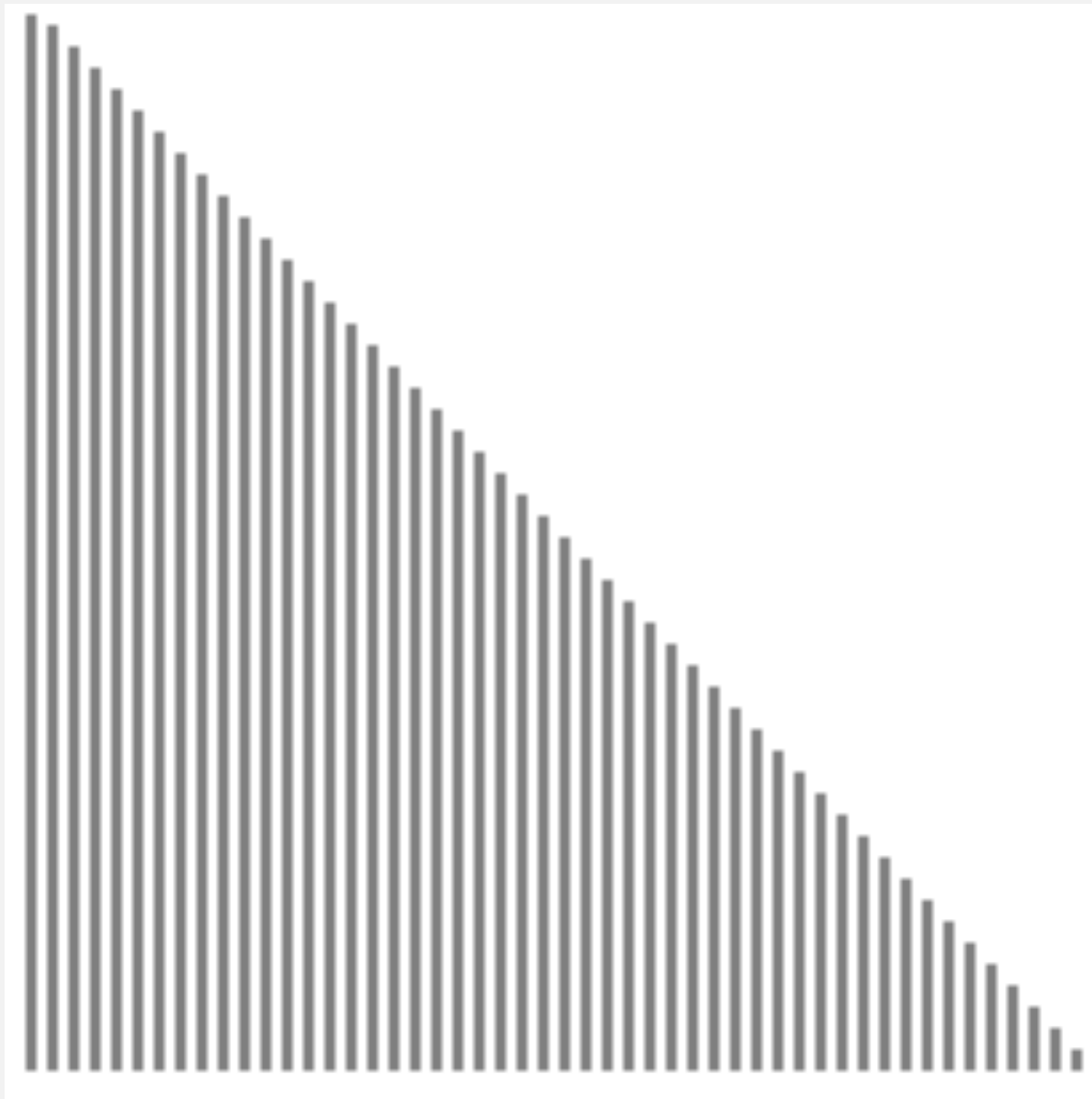


- ▲ algorithm position
- █ in order
- █ current subarray
- █ not in order

<http://www.sorting-algorithms.com/merge-sort>

Mergesort: animation

50 reverse-sorted items



- ▲ algorithm position
- █ in order
- █ current subarray
- █ not in order

<http://www.sorting-algorithms.com/merge-sort>

Mergesort: empirical analysis

Running time estimates:

- Laptop executes 10^8 compares/second.
- Supercomputer executes 10^{12} compares/second.

	insertion sort (n^2)			mergesort ($n \log n$)		
computer	thousand	million	billion	thousand	million	billion
home	instant	2.8 hours	317 years	instant	1 second	18 min
super	instant	1 second	1 week	instant	instant	instant


Bottom line. Good algorithms are better than supercomputers.

Mergesort analysis: number of compares

Proposition. Mergesort uses $\leq n \lg n$ compares to sort any array of length n .

Pf sketch. The number of compares $C(n)$ to mergesort an array of length n satisfies the recurrence:

$$C(n) \leq C(\lceil n/2 \rceil) + C(\lfloor n/2 \rfloor) + n - 1 \quad \text{for } n > 1, \text{ with } C(1) = 0.$$



We solve this simpler recurrence, and assume n is a power of 2:

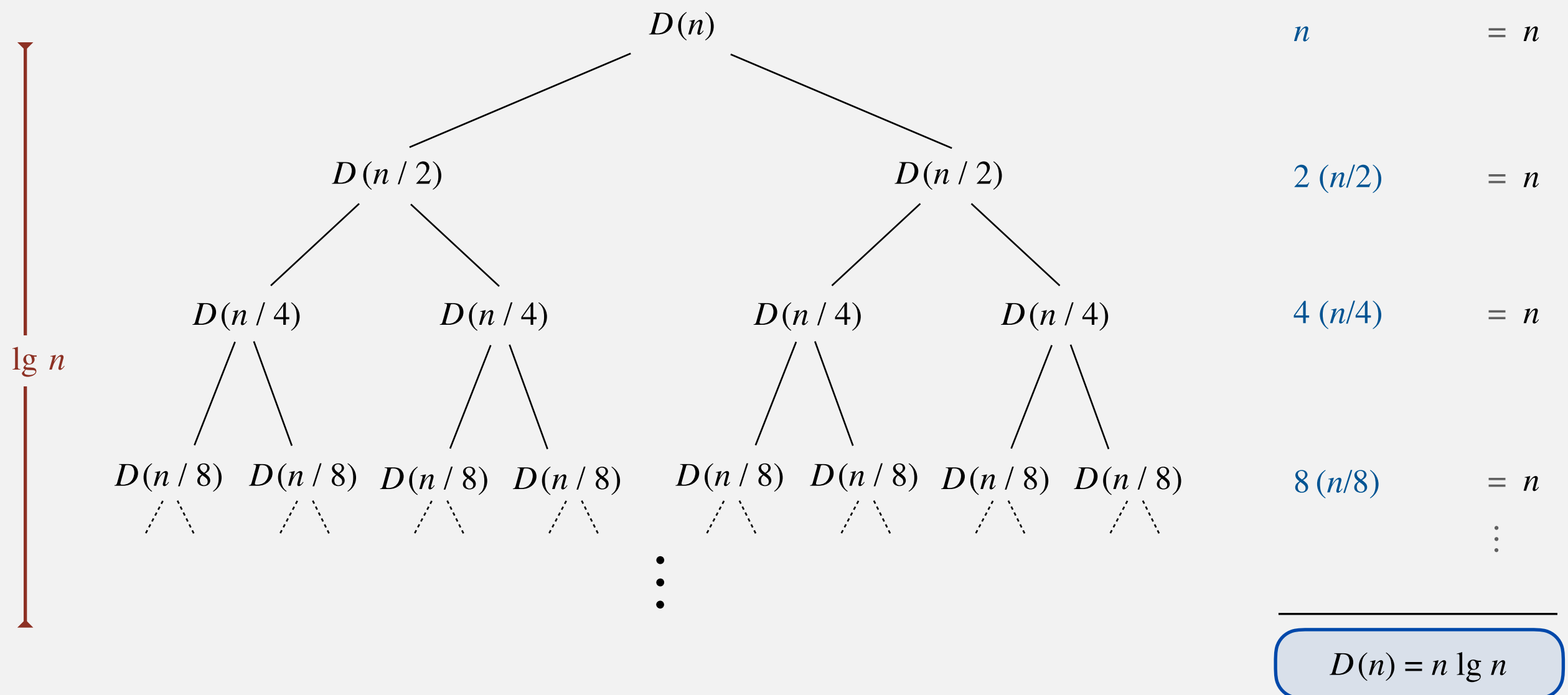
$$D(n) = 2 D(n/2) + n, \text{ for } n > 1, \text{ with } D(1) = 0.$$

result holds for all n
(analysis cleaner in this case)

Divide-and-conquer recurrence

Proposition. If $D(n)$ satisfies $D(n) = 2D(n/2) + n$ for $n > 1$, with $D(1) = 0$, then $D(n) = n \lg n$.

Pf by picture. [assuming n is a power of 2]



Mergesort analysis

Key point. Any algorithm with the following structure takes $\Theta(n \log n)$ time:

```
public static void f(int n)
{
    if (n == 0) return;
    f(n/2);      ← solve two problems
    f(n/2);      ← of half the size
    linear(n);   ← do a linear amount of work
}
```

Notable examples. FFT, hidden-line removal, Kendall-tau distance, ...

Mergesort analysis: number of array accesses

Proposition. Mergesort uses $\leq 6n \lg n$ array accesses to sort any array of length n .

Pf sketch. The number of array accesses $A(n)$ satisfies the recurrence:

$$A(n) \leq A(\lceil n/2 \rceil) + A(\lfloor n/2 \rfloor) + 6n \text{ for } n > 1, \text{ with } A(1) = 0.$$

[Rest of the proof is similar to the analysis of number of compares.]

Mergesort analysis: memory

Proposition. Mergesort uses extra space proportional to n .

Pf. The array `aux[]` needs to be of length n for the last merge.

two sorted subarrays

A C D G H I M N U V

B E F J O P Q R S T

merged result

A B C D E F G H I J M N O P Q R S T U V

“Essentially no extra memory”



Def. A sorting algorithm is **in-place** if it uses $\leq c \log n$ extra memory.

Ex. Insertion sort and selection sort.

Challenge 1 (not hard). Use `aux[]` array of length $\sim \frac{1}{2} n$ instead of n .

Challenge 2 (very hard). In-place merge.



Is our implementation of mergesort **stable**?

- A. Yes.
- B. No, but it can be easily modified to be stable.
- C. No, mergesort is inherently unstable.
- D. *I don't remember what stability means.*



a sorting algorithm is stable if it preserves the relative order of equal keys

input	C	A ₁	B	A ₂	A ₃
sorted	A ₃	A ₁	A ₂	B	C

not stable

Stability: mergesort

Proposition. Mergesort is **stable**.

```
public class Merge
{
    private static void merge(...)
    { /* as before */ }

    private static void sort(Comparable[] a, Comparable[] aux, int lo, int hi)
    {
        if (hi <= lo) return;
        int mid = lo + (hi - lo) / 2;
        sort(a, aux, lo, mid);
        sort(a, aux, mid+1, hi);
        merge(a, aux, lo, mid, hi);
    }

    public static void sort(Comparable[] a)
    { /* as before */ }
}
```

Pf. Suffices to verify that merge operation is stable.

Stability: mergesort

Proposition. Merge operation is **stable**.

```
private static void merge(...)
{
    for (int k = lo; k <= hi; k++)
        aux[k] = a[k];

    int i = lo, j = mid+1;
    for (int k = lo; k <= hi; k++)
    {
        if (i > mid)                a[k] = aux[j++];
        else if (j > hi)            a[k] = aux[i++];
        else if (less(aux[j], aux[i])) a[k] = aux[j++];
        else                        a[k] = aux[i++];
    }
}
```

0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
<hr/>					<hr/>					
A ₁	A ₂	A ₃	B	D	A ₄	A ₅	C	E	F	G

Pf. Takes from left subarray if equal keys.

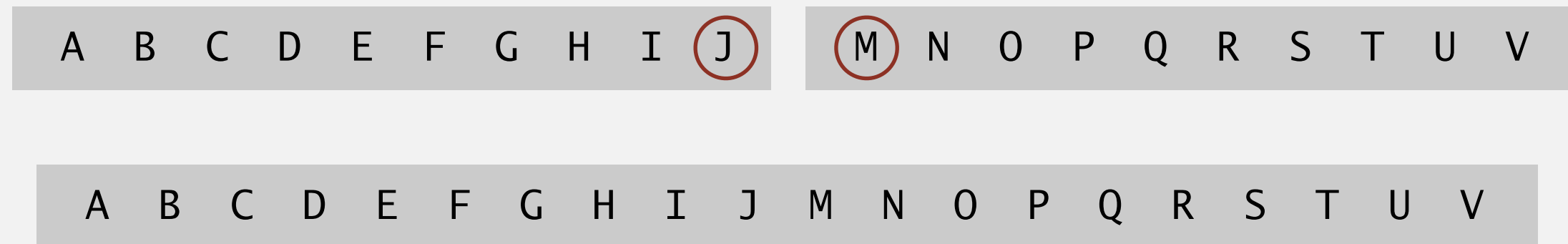
Mergesort: practical improvements

Use insertion sort for small subarrays.

- Mergesort has too much overhead for tiny subarrays.
- Cutoff to insertion sort for ≈ 10 items.

Stop if already sorted.

- Is largest item in first half \leq smallest item in second half?
- Helps for partially ordered arrays.



Eliminate the copy to the auxiliary array. Save time (but not space) by switching the role of the input and auxiliary array in each recursive call.

Java 6: `Arrays.sort()` uses mergesort for sorting objects, with the above tricks.



Algorithms

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- ▶ *divide-and-conquer*

Bottom-up mergesort

Basic plan.

- Pass through array, merging subarrays of size 1.
- Repeat for subarrays of size 2, 4, 8,

	a[i]															
	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15
sz = 1	M	E	R	G	E	S	O	R	T	E	X	A	M	P	L	E
merge(a, aux, 0, 0, 1)	E	M	R	G	E	S	O	R	T	E	X	A	M	P	L	E
merge(a, aux, 2, 2, 3)	E	M	G	R	E	S	O	R	T	E	X	A	M	P	L	E
merge(a, aux, 4, 4, 5)	E	M	G	R	E	S	O	R	T	E	X	A	M	P	L	E
merge(a, aux, 6, 6, 7)	E	M	G	R	E	S	O	R	T	E	X	A	M	P	L	E
merge(a, aux, 8, 8, 9)	E	M	G	R	E	S	O	R	E	T	X	A	M	P	L	E
merge(a, aux, 10, 10, 11)	E	M	G	R	E	S	O	R	E	T	A	X	M	P	L	E
merge(a, aux, 12, 12, 13)	E	M	G	R	E	S	O	R	E	T	A	X	M	P	L	E
merge(a, aux, 14, 14, 15)	E	M	G	R	E	S	O	R	E	T	A	X	M	P	E	L
sz = 2																
merge(a, aux, 0, 1, 3)	E	G	M	R	E	S	O	R	E	T	A	X	M	P	E	L
merge(a, aux, 4, 5, 7)	E	G	M	R	E	O	R	S	E	T	A	X	M	P	E	L
merge(a, aux, 8, 9, 11)	E	G	M	R	E	O	R	S	A	E	T	X	M	P	E	L
merge(a, aux, 12, 13, 15)	E	G	M	R	E	O	R	S	A	E	T	X	E	L	M	P
sz = 4																
merge(a, aux, 0, 3, 7)	E	E	G	M	O	R	R	S	A	E	T	X	E	L	M	P
merge(a, aux, 8, 11, 15)	E	E	G	M	O	R	R	S	A	E	E	L	M	P	T	X
sz = 8																
merge(a, aux, 0, 7, 15)	A	E	E	E	E	G	L	M	M	O	P	R	R	S	T	X

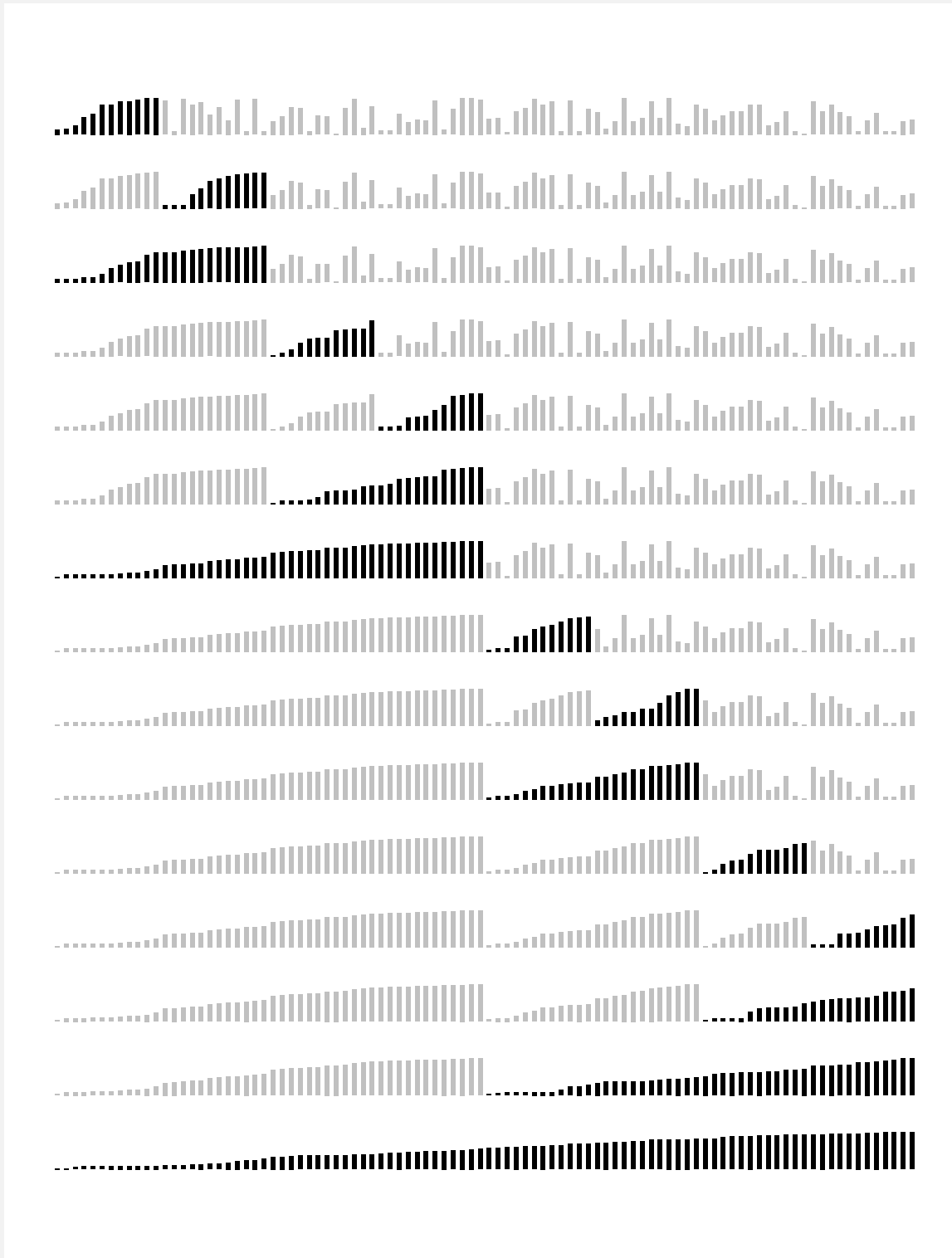
Bottom-up mergesort: Java implementation

```
public class MergeBU
{
    private static void merge(...)
    { /* as before */ }

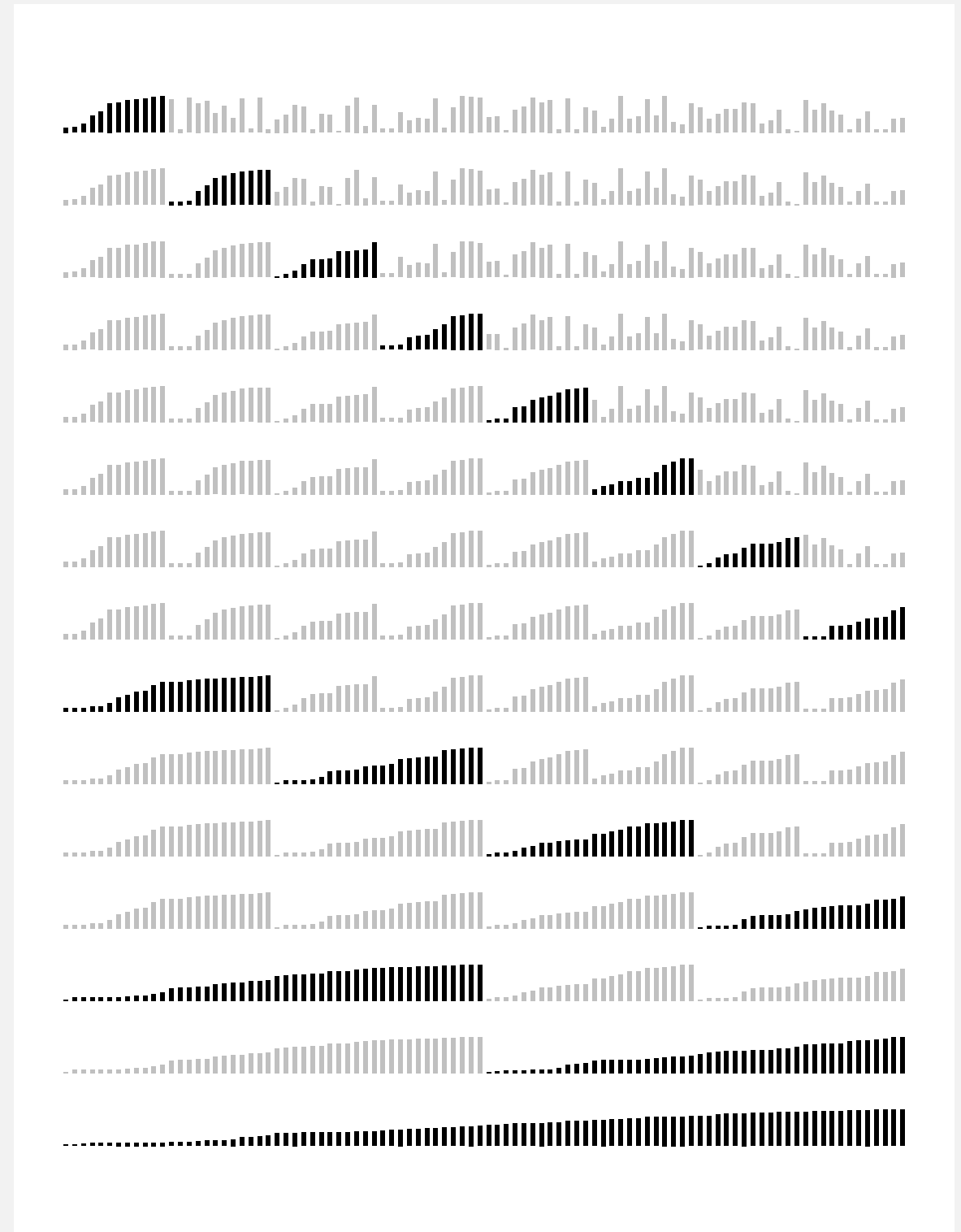
    public static void sort(Comparable[] a)
    {
        int n = a.length;
        Comparable[] aux = new Comparable[n];
        for (int sz = 1; sz < n; sz = sz+sz)
            for (int lo = 0; lo < n-sz; lo += sz+sz)
                merge(a, aux, lo, lo+sz-1, Math.min(lo+sz+sz-1, n-1));
    }
}
```

Bottom line. Simple and non-recursive version of mergesort.

Mergesort: visualizations



top-down mergesort (cutoff = 12)



bottom-up mergesort (cutoff = 12)



Which is faster in practice for $n = 2^{20}$, top-down mergesort or bottom-up mergesort?

- A. Top-down (recursive) mergesort.
- B. Bottom-up (non-recursive) mergesort.
- C. No observable difference.
- D. *I don't know.*

Hint: the answer depends on concepts you'll learn in COS 217.

Sorting summary

	inplace?	stable?	best	average	worst	remarks
selection	✓		$\frac{1}{2} n^2$	$\frac{1}{2} n^2$	$\frac{1}{2} n^2$	n exchanges
insertion	✓	✓	n	$\frac{1}{4} n^2$	$\frac{1}{2} n^2$	use for small n or partially ordered
shell	✓		$n \log_3 n$?	$c n^{3/2}$	tight code; subquadratic
merge		✓	$\frac{1}{2} n \lg n$	$n \lg n$	$n \lg n$	$n \log n$ guarantee; stable
?	✓	✓	n	$n \lg n$	$n \lg n$	holy sorting grail



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Complexity of sorting

Computational complexity. Framework to study efficiency of algorithms for solving a particular problem X .

Model of computation. Allowable operations.

Cost model. Operation counts.

Upper bound. Cost guarantee provided by **some** algorithm for X .

Lower bound. Proven limit on cost guarantee of **all** algorithms for X .

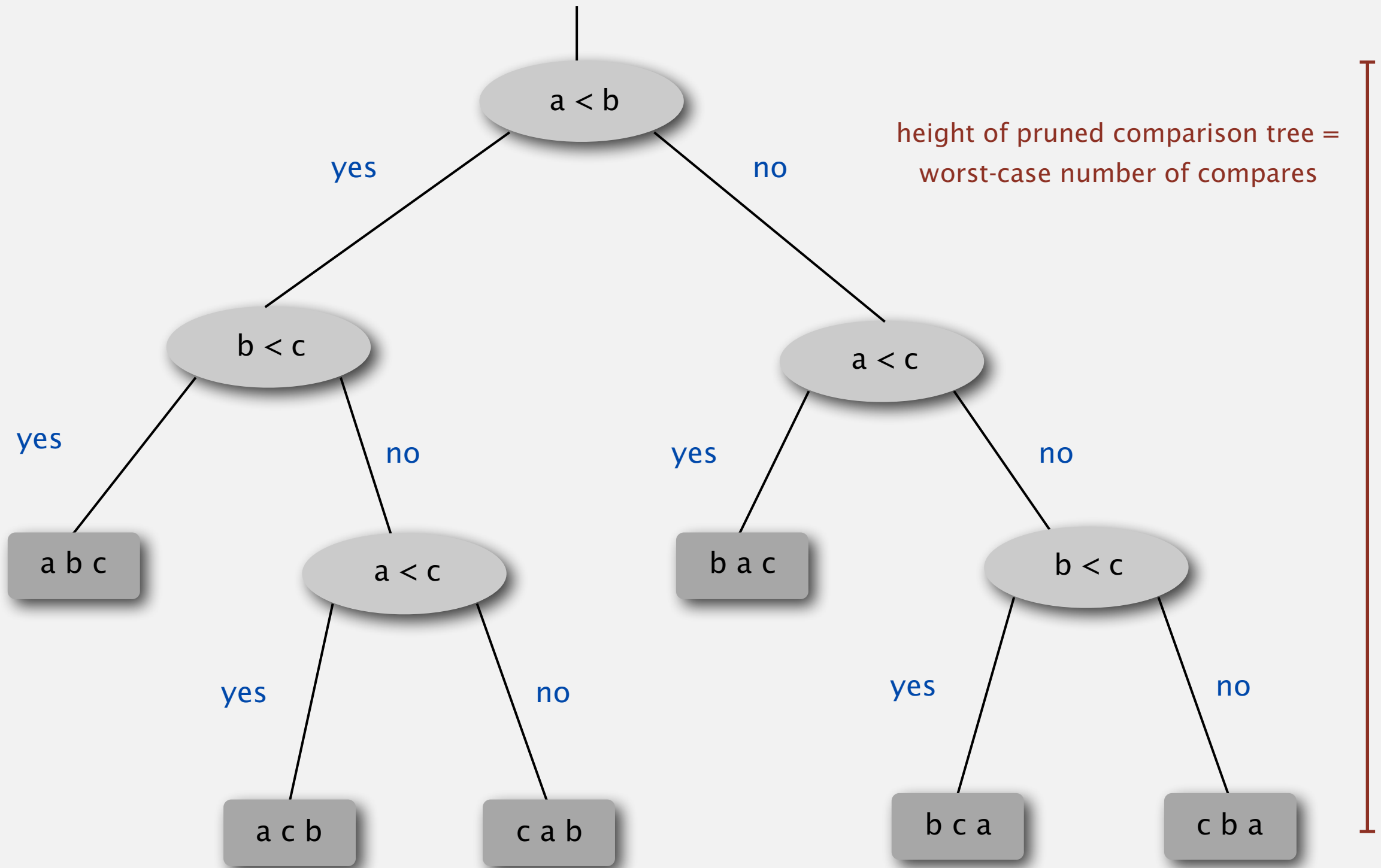
Optimal algorithm. Algorithm with best possible cost guarantee for X .

← lower bound ~ upper bound

model of computation	<i>comparison tree</i>
cost model	<i># compares</i>
upper bound	<i>$\sim n \lg n$ from mergesort</i>
lower bound	?
optimal algorithm	?

← can access information only through compares (e.g., Java Comparable framework)

Comparison tree (for 3 distinct keys a, b, and c)



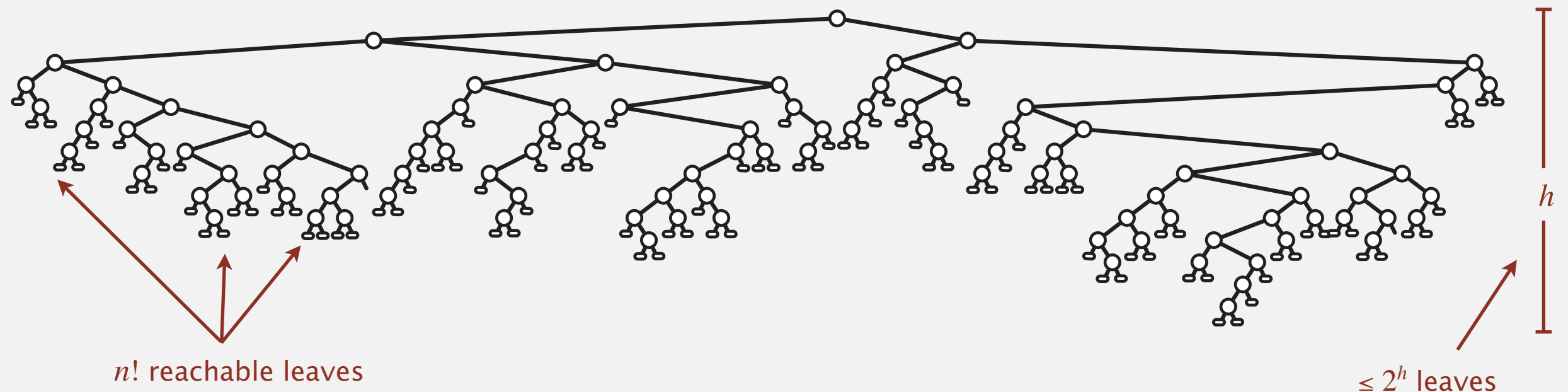
each reachable leaf corresponds to one (and only one) ordering;
exactly one reachable leaf for each possible ordering

Compare-based lower bound for sorting

Proposition. Any compare-based sorting algorithm must make at least $\lg(n!) \sim n \lg n$ compares in the worst case.

Pf.

- Assume array consists of n distinct values a_1 through a_n .
- Worst-case number of compares = **height** h of pruned comparison tree.
- Binary tree of height h has $\leq 2^h$ leaves.
- $n!$ different orderings $\Rightarrow n!$ reachable leaves.



Compare-based lower bound for sorting

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- Assume array consists of n distinct values a_1 through a_n .
- Worst-case number of compares = **height** h of pruned comparison tree.
- Binary tree of height h has $\leq 2^h$ leaves.
- $n!$ different orderings $\Rightarrow n!$ reachable leaves.

$$2^h \geq \# \text{ reachable leaves} = n!$$

$$\Rightarrow h \geq \lg(n!)$$

$$\sim n \lg n$$

↑
Stirling's formula

Complexity of sorting

Model of computation. Allowable operations.

Cost model. Operation count(s).

Upper bound. Cost guarantee provided by some algorithm for X .

Lower bound. Proven limit on cost guarantee of all algorithms for X .

Optimal algorithm. Algorithm with best possible cost guarantee for X .

model of computation	<i>comparison tree</i>
cost model	<i># compares</i>
upper bound	$\sim n \lg n$
lower bound	$\sim n \lg n$
optimal algorithm	<i>mergesort</i>

complexity of sorting

First goal of algorithm design: optimal algorithms.

Complexity results in context

Compares? Mergesort **is** optimal with respect to number compares.

Space? Mergesort **is not** optimal with respect to space usage.



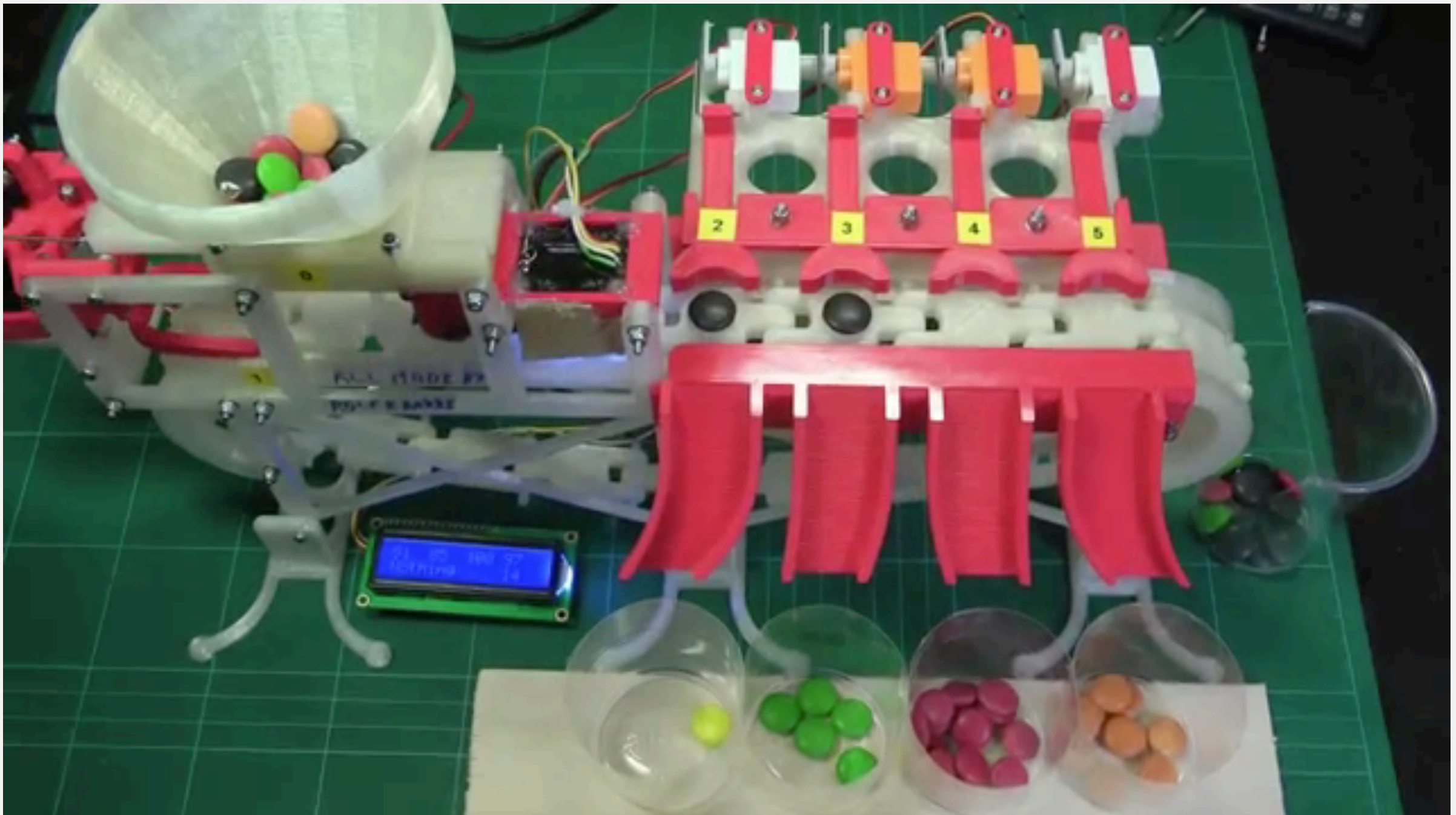
Lessons. Use theory as a guide.

Ex. Design sorting algorithm that guarantees $\sim \frac{1}{2} n \lg n$ compares?

Ex. Design sorting algorithm that is both time- and space-optimal?

Commercial break

Q. Why doesn't this Skittles sorter violate the sorting lower bound?



<https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=tSEHDBSynVo>

Complexity results in context (continued)

Lower bound may not hold if the algorithm can take advantage of:

- The initial order of the input array.

Ex: insertion sort requires only a linear number of compares on partially sorted arrays.

- The distribution of key values.

Ex: 3-way quicksort requires only a linear number of compares on arrays with a constant number of distinct keys. [stay tuned]

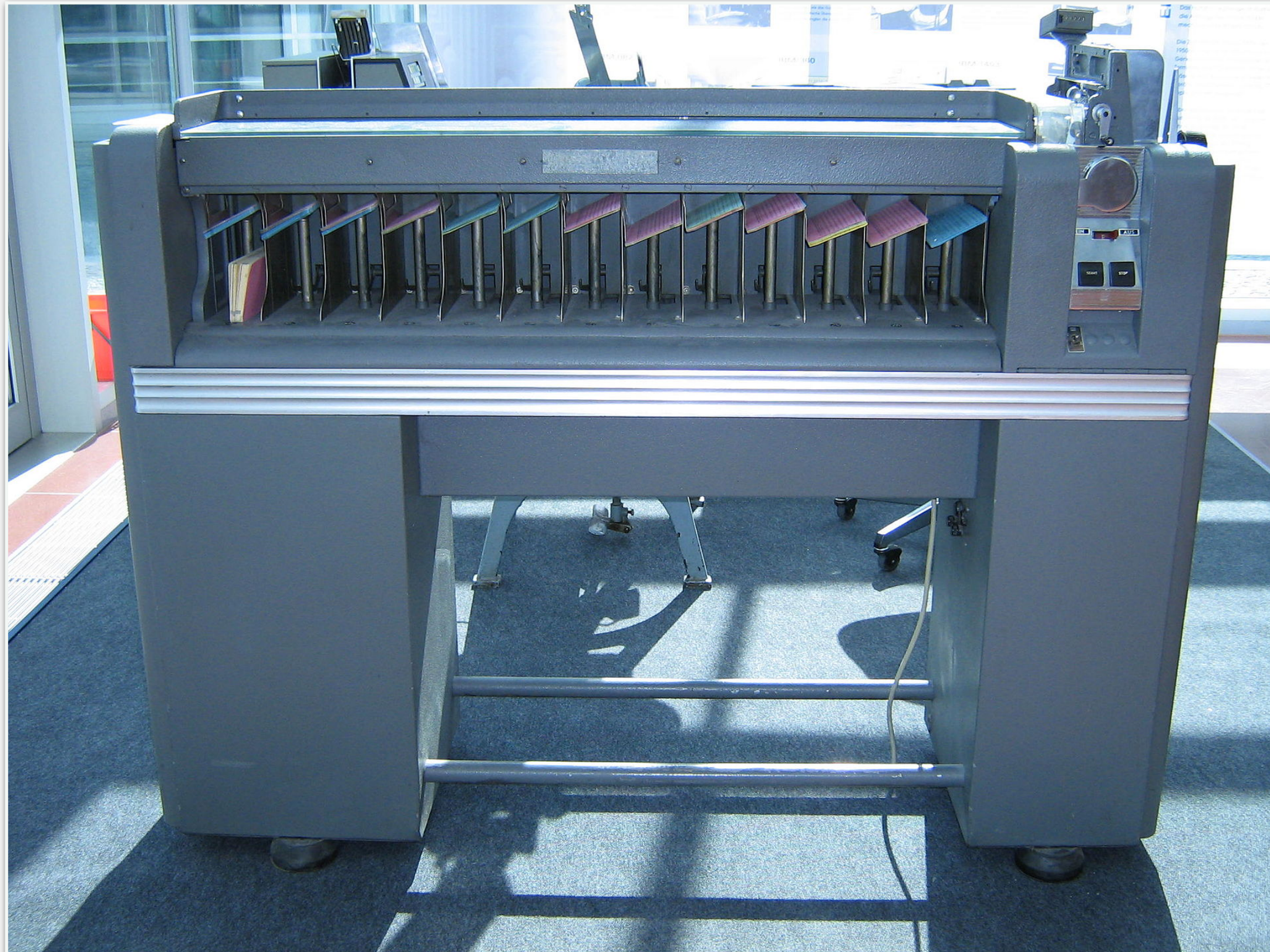
- The representation of the keys.

Ex: radix sorts require no key compares — they access the data via character/digit compares. [stay tuned]

A brief history of sorting: Hollerith census tabulator (1890s)



IBM card sorter (1940s)



Big O notation (and cousins)

notation	provides	example	shorthand for
Tilde	leading term	$\sim \frac{1}{2} n^2$	$\frac{1}{2} n^2$ $\frac{1}{2} n^2 + 22 n \log n + 3 n$
Big Theta	order of growth	$\Theta(n^2)$	$\frac{1}{2} n^2$ $10 n^2$ $5 n^2 + 22 n \log n + 3 n$
Big O	upper bound	$O(n^2)$	$10 n^2$ $100 n$ $22 n \log n + 3 n$
Big Omega	lower bound	$\Omega(n^2)$	$\frac{1}{2} n^2$ n^5 $n^3 + 22 n \log n + 3 n$

Understanding the notation

What's wrong with this statement? How would you correct it?

Any compare-based sorting algorithm must make at least $O(n \log n)$ compares in the worst case.

“At least $O(n \log n)$ ” is a nonsensical (but frequently heard) expression.

Correct: any compare-based sorting algorithm must make $\Omega(n \log n)$ compares in the worst case.

No need to say “at least $\Omega(n \log n)$ ” — that's implicit in the definition of Ω .



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SORTING A LINKED LIST



Problem. Given a singly linked list, rearrange its nodes in sorted order.

Version 1. Linearithmic time, linear extra space.

Version 2. Linearithmic time, logarithmic (or constant) extra space.

