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#### CSE332: Data Abstractions

#### Lecture 14: Beyond Comparison Sorting

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# The Big Picture



#### How fast can we sort?

- Heapsort & mergesort have O(n log n) worst-case running time
- Quicksort has O(n log n) average-case running times
- These bounds are all tight, actually  $\Theta(n \log n)$
- So maybe we need to dream up another algorithm with a lower asymptotic complexy
  - Maybe find something with O(n) or O(n log log n) (recall loglogn is smaller than logn)
  - Instead: prove that this is impossible
    - Assuming our comparison model: The only operation an algorithm can perform on data items is a 2-element comparison
    - Show that the best we can do is O(nlogn), for the worst-case

# Different View on Sorting

- Assume we have n elements to sort
  - And for simplicity, none are equal (no duplicates)
- How many permutations (possible orderings) of the elements?
- Example, *n*=3, 6 possibilities:

a[0]<a[1]<a[2] or a[0]<a[2]<a[1] or a[1]<a[0]<a[2]

or

a[1]<a[2]<a[0] or a[2]<a[0]<a[1] or a[2]<a[1]<a[0]

- That is, these are the only possible permutations on the orderings of 3 distinct items
- Generalize to n (distinct) items:
  - n choices for least element, then n-1 for next, then n-2 for next, ...
  - n(n-1)(n-2)...(2)(1) = n! possible orderings

## Describing every comparison sort

- A different way of thinking of sorting is that the sorting algorithm has to "find" the right answer among the n! possible answers
  - Starts "knowing nothing"; "anything's possible"
  - Gains information with each comparison, eliminating some possibilities
    - Intuition: At best, each comparison performed can eliminate half of the remaining possibilities
  - In the end narrows down to a single possibility

# Representing the Sort Problem

- Can represent this sorting process as a decision tree
  - Nodes are sets of "remaining possibilities"
  - At root, anything is possible; no option eliminated
  - Edges represent comparisons made, and the node resulting from a comparison contains only consistent possibilities
    - Ex: Say we need to know whether a<b or b<a; our root for n=2</p>
    - A comparison between a & b will lead to a node that contains only one possibility
  - Note: This tree is not a data structure, it's what our proof uses to represent "the most any algorithm could know"
- Aside: Decision trees are a neat tool, sometimes used in AI to, well, make decisions
  - At each state, examine information to reduce space of possibilities
  - Classical example: 'Should I play tennis today?'; ask questions like 'Is it raining?', 'Is it hot?', etc. to work towards an answer

Decision tree for n=3



of a, b, c

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## What the decision tree tells us

- A binary tree because each comparison has 2 possible outcomes
  - Perform only comparisons between 2 elements; binary result
    - Ex: Is a<b? Yes or no?
  - We assume no duplicate elements
  - Assume algorithm doesn't ask redundant questions
- Because any data is possible, any algorithm needs to ask enough questions to produce all n! answers
  - Each answer is a leaf (no more questions to ask)
  - So the tree must be big enough to have n! leaves
  - Running any algorithm on any input will at best correspond to one root-to-leaf path in the decision tree
  - So no algorithm can have worst-case running time better than the height of the decision tree

#### Example: Sorting some data a,b,c



#### Where are we

- Proven: No comparison sort can have worst-case running time better than the height of a binary tree with n! leaves
  - Turns out average-case is same asymptotically
- Great! Now how tall is that...
- Show that a binary tree with n! leaves has height Ω(n log n)
  - That is nlogn is the lower bound; the height must be at least that
  - Factorial function grows very quickly
- Then we'll conclude: Comparison Sorting is  $\Omega$  (*n* log *n*)
  - This is an amazing computer-science result: proves all the clever programming in the world can't sort in linear time

# Lower bound on height



- The height of a binary tree with L leaves is at least  $log_2 L$ 
  - If we pack them in as tightly as possible, each row has about 2x the previous row's nodes
- So the height of our decision tree, *h*:

$$\begin{array}{ll} h \geq \log_2 (n!) \\ = \log_2 (n^*(n-1)^*(n-2)...(2)(1)) & \text{definition of factorial} \\ = \log_2 n + \log_2 (n-1) + ... + \log_2 1 & \text{property of logarithms} \\ \geq \log_2 n + \log_2 (n-1) + ... + \log_2 (n/2) & \text{drop smaller terms } (\geq 0) \\ \geq (n/2) \log_2 (n/2) & \text{each of the n/2 terms left is } \geq \log_2 (n/2) \\ = (n/2)(\log_2 n - \log_2 2) & \text{property of logarithms} \\ = (1/2)n\log_2 n - (1/2)n & \text{arithmetic} \end{array}$$

# The Big Picture



### Non-Comparison Sorts

- Say we have a list of integers between 0 & 9 (ignore associated data for the moment)
  - Size of list to sort could be huge, but we'd have lots of duplicate values
  - Assume our data is stored in 'int array[]'; how about...
    - int[] counts=new int[10];
    - //init to counts to 0's
    - for(int i=0;i<array.length;i++) counts[array[i]]++;</pre>
  - Can iterate through array in linear time
  - Now return to array in sorted order; first counts[0] slots will be 0, next counts[1] will be 1...
  - We can put elements, in order, into array[] in O(n)
- This works because array assignment is sort of 'comparing' against every element currently in counts[] in constant time
  - Not merely a 2-way comparison, but an n-way comparison
  - Thus not under restrictions of nlogn for Comparison Sorts

## BucketSort (a.k.a. BinSort)

- If all values to be sorted are known to be integers between 1 and K (or any small range)...
  - Create an array of size K and put each element in its proper bucket (a.k.a. bin)
  - Output result via linear pass through array of buckets

count array						
1 3						
2	1					
3	2					
4	2					
5	3					

Example:

```
K=5
```

```
input (5,1,3,4,3,2,1,1,5,4,5)
```

output: 1,1,1,2,3,3,4,4,5,5,5

*If* data is only integers, don't even need to store anything more than a *count* of how times that bucket has been used

# Analyzing bucket sort

- Overall: O(n+K)
  - Linear in *n*, but also linear in *K*
  - Ω(*n* log *n*) lower bound does not apply because this is not a comparison sort
- Good when range, K, is smaller (or not much larger) than number of elements, n
  - Don't spend time doing lots of comparisons of duplicates!
- Bad when *K* is much larger than *n* 
  - Wasted space; wasted time during final linear O(K) pass
  - ► If K~n<sup>2</sup>, not really linear anymore

### Bucket Sort with Data

- Most real lists aren't just #'s; we have data
- Each bucket is a list (say, linked list)
- To add to a bucket, place at end in O(1) (say, keep a pointer to last element)

cour	nt array	•	Example: Movie ratings; scale 1-5;1=bad, 5=excellent
1		→ Happy Feet	Input=
2			5: Casablanca
3		→ Harry Potter	3: Harry Potter movies
4			5: Star Wars Original
5		$\longrightarrow$ Casablanca $\longrightarrow$ Star Wars	l rilogy
			1: Happy Feet

Result: 1: Happy Feet, 3: Harry Potter, 5: Casablanca, 5: Star WarsThis result is 'stable'; Casablanca still before Star Wars

#### Radix sort

#### Radix = "the base of a number system"

- Examples will use 10 because we are used to that
- In implementations use larger numbers
  - For example, for ASCII strings, might use 128

#### Idea:

- Bucket sort on one digit at a time
  - Number of buckets = radix
  - Starting with *least* significant digit, sort with Bucket Sort
  - Keeping sort stable
- Do one pass per digit
- After *k* passes, the last *k* digits are sorted
- Aside: Origins go back to the 1890 U.S. census

# Example

Radix = 10

0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
	721		3 143				537 67	478 38	9

Input: 478 537	First pass:	Order now: 721
9 721 3	bucket sort by ones digit Iterate through and collect into list List is sorted by first digit	5 143 537
38 143 67		478 38
07		9

### Example

#### Radi

$P_{2}d_{1}v = 10$			_	_						
	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
	3 9		721	537 38	143		67	478		
Order was: 721	order was: 721 Second pass: Order now:									3
3 stable bucket sort by tens digit								9		
143						7:	21			
537	lf we d	chop (	off the			5	37			
67	these #'s are sorted									38
478	'8 1							1,	43	
38										67
9						4	78			

Example

Radix – 10		-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	_	
	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
	3 9 38	143			478	537		721			
Order was: 3	67						Or	der n	ow:	3	
721	Thir	Third pass:									
537	9	stable	buck	et sor	t by 1	00s d	ligit			67	
38	Onl	v 3 di	aits: V	Ve're	done				1	43	
67	Uni,	y o ai	grio. v	1010	dono				4	78 27	
478									5 7	21	

# Analysis

Performance depends on:

- Input size: *n*
- Number of buckets = Radix: B
  - Base 10 #: 10; binary #: 2; Alpha-numeric char: 62
- Number of passes = "Digits": P
  - Ages of people: 3; Phone #: 10; Person's name: ?
- Work per pass is 1 bucket sort: O(B+n)
  - Each pass is a Bucket Sort
- Total work is O(P(B+n))
  - We do 'P' passes, each of which is a Bucket Sort

#### Comparison

Compared to comparison sorts, sometimes a win, but often not

- Example: Strings of English letters up to length 15
  - Approximate run-time:  $15^*(52 + n)$
  - This is less than  $n \log n$  only if n > 33,000
  - Of course, cross-over point depends on constant factors of the implementations plus P and B
    - □ And radix sort can have poor locality properties
- Not really practical for many classes of keys
  - Strings: Lots of buckets

# Last word on sorting

- Simple  $O(n^2)$  sorts can be fastest for small n
  - selection sort, insertion sort (latter linear for mostly-sorted)
  - good for "below a cut-off" to help divide-and-conquer sorts

#### • O(n log n) sorts

- heap sort, in-place but not stable nor parallelizable
- merge sort, not in place but stable and works as external sort
- quick sort, in place but not stable and  $O(n^2)$  in worst-case
  - often fastest, but depends on costs of comparisons/copies
- Ω (n log n) is worst-case and average lower-bound for sorting by comparisons
- Non-comparison sorts
  - Bucket sort good for small number of key values
  - Radix sort uses fewer buckets and more phases
- Best way to sort? It depends