



CSE332: Data Abstractions

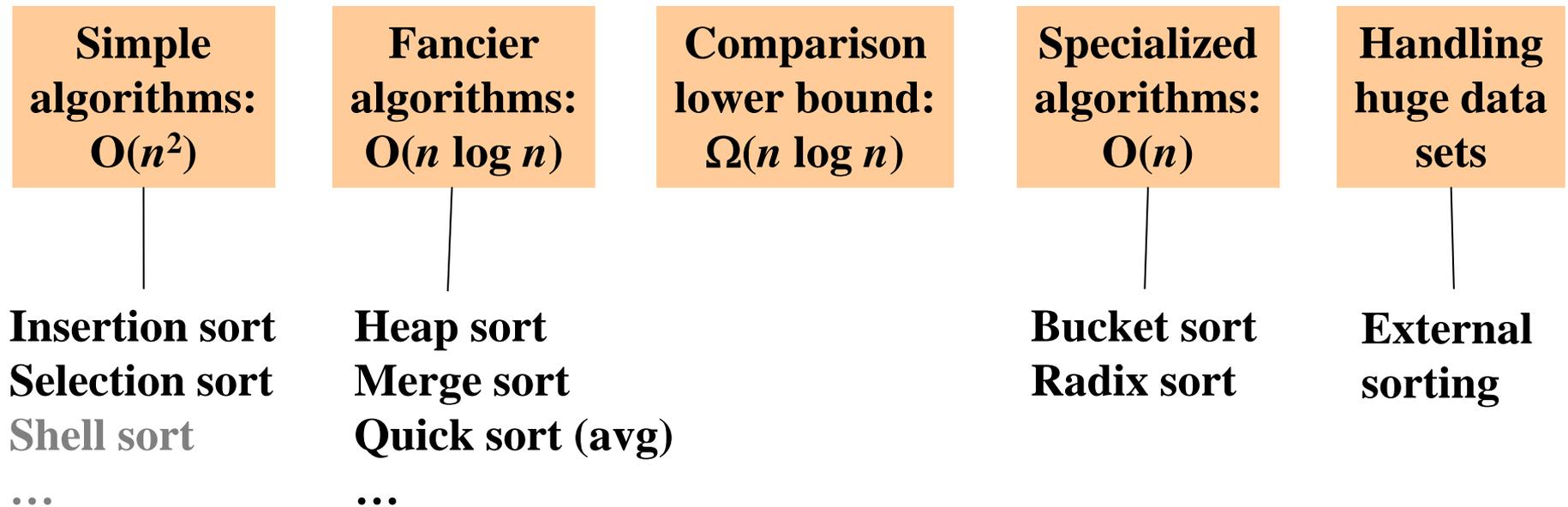
Lecture 14: Beyond Comparison Sorting

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The Big Picture

Surprising amount of juicy computer science: 2-3 lectures...



How Fast Can We Sort?

- Heap sort & Merge sort have $O(n \log n)$ worst-case running time
- Quick sort has $O(n \log n)$ average-case running time
- These bounds are all tight, actually $\Theta(n \log n)$
- So maybe we need to dream up another algorithm with a lower asymptotic complexity, such as $O(n)$ or $O(n \log \log n)$
 - 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

A General View of Sorting

- Assume we have n elements to sort
 - For simplicity, assume none are equal (no duplicates)
- How many *permutations* of the elements (possible orderings)?
- Example, $n=3$
 - $a[0] < a[1] < a[2]$ $a[0] < a[2] < a[1]$ $a[1] < a[0] < a[2]$
 - $a[1] < a[2] < a[0]$ $a[2] < a[0] < a[1]$ $a[2] < a[1] < a[0]$
- In general, n choices for least element, $n-1$ for next, $n-2$ for next, ...
 - $n(n-1)(n-2)\dots(2)(1) = n!$ possible orderings

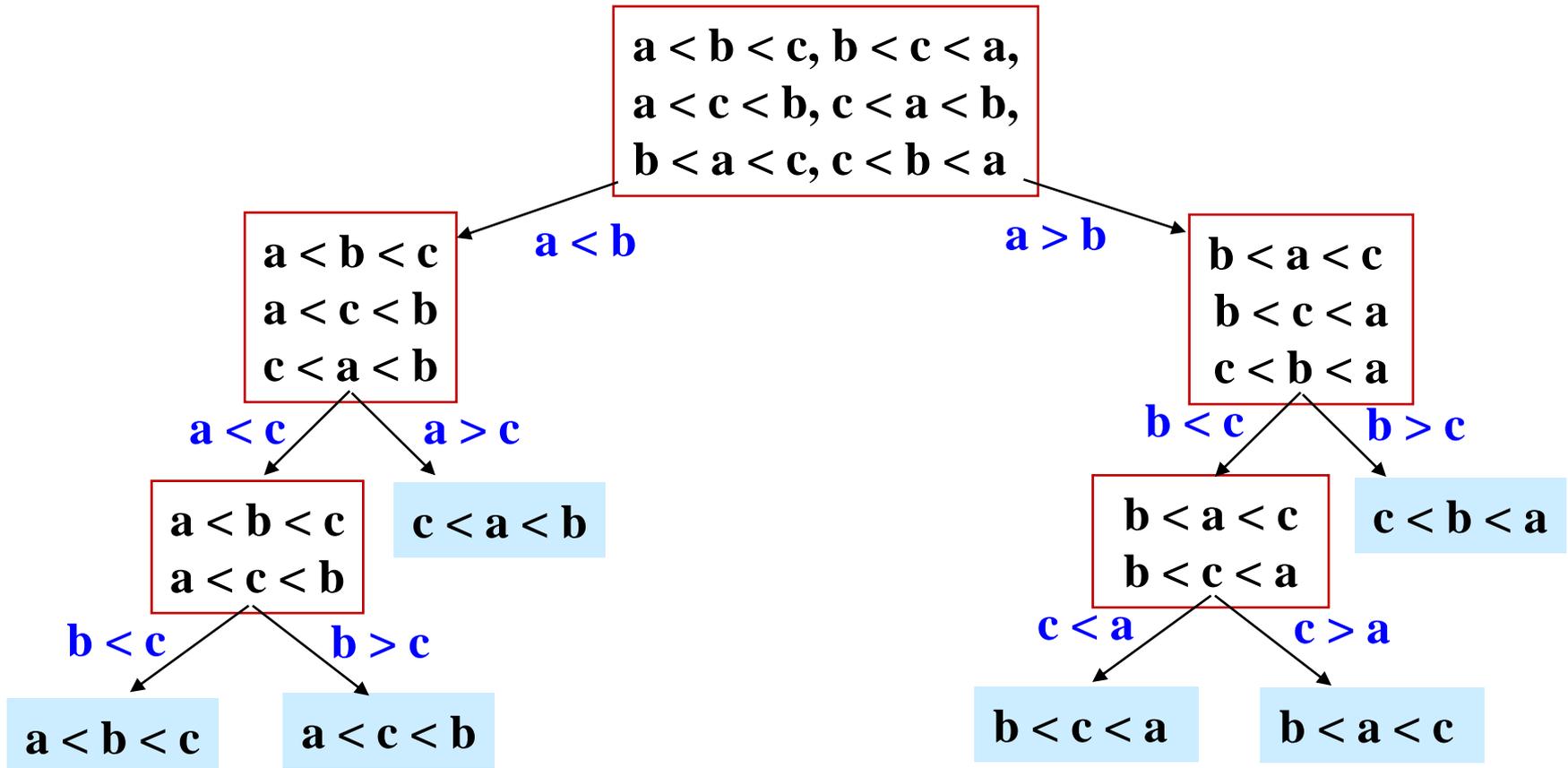
Counting Comparisons

- So *every* sorting algorithm has to “find” the right answer among the $n!$ possible answers
 - Starts “knowing nothing” and gains information with each comparison
 - Intuition: Each comparison can *at best* eliminate *half* the remaining possibilities
 - Must narrow answer down to a single possibility
- What we will show:
Any sorting algorithm must do *at least* $(1/2)n \log_2 n - (1/2)n$ (which is $\Omega(n \log n)$) comparisons
 - Otherwise there are at least two permutations among the $n!$ possible that cannot yet be distinguished, so the algorithm would have to guess and could be wrong

Counting Comparisons

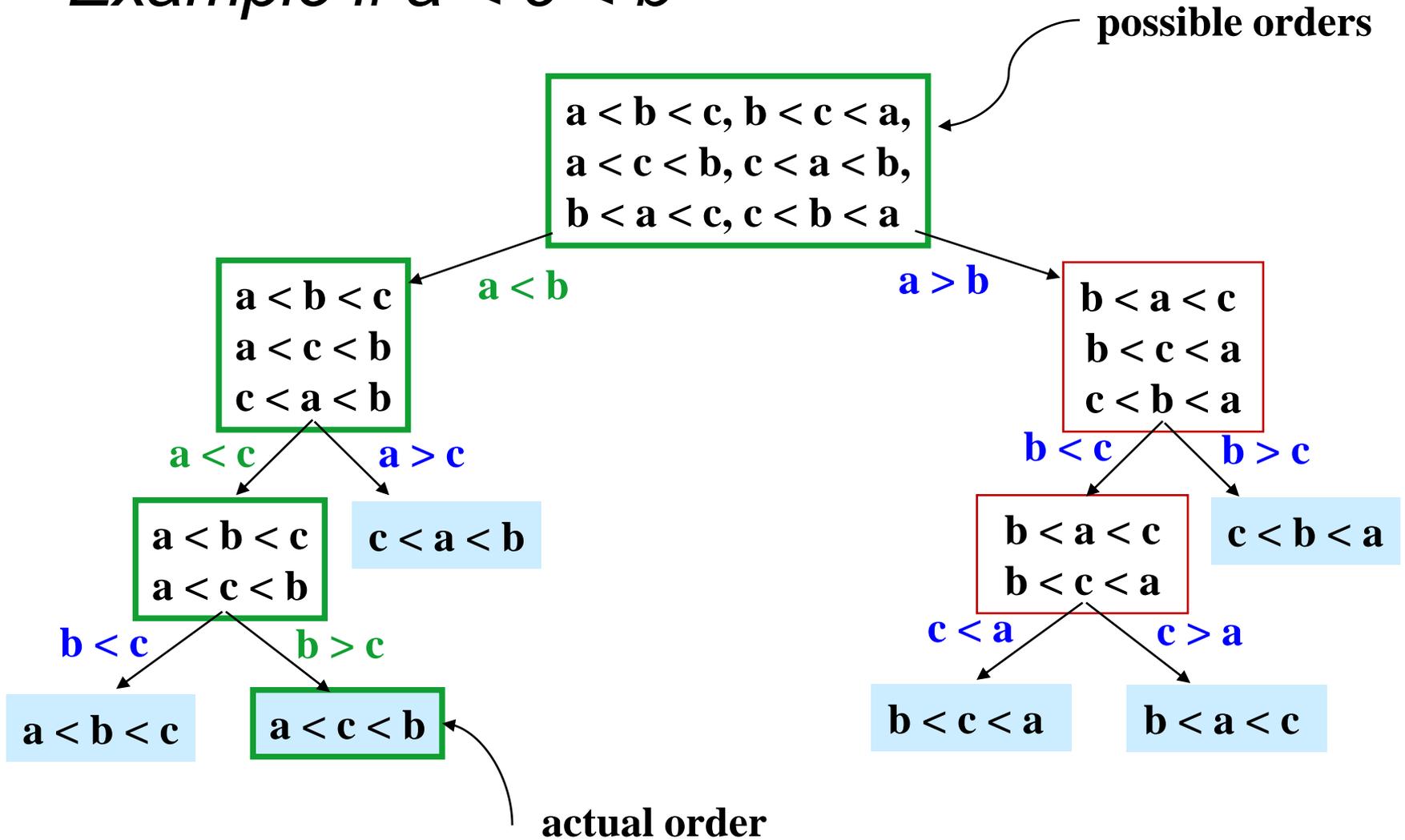
- Don't know what the algorithm is, but it cannot make progress without doing comparisons
 - Eventually does a first comparison “is $a < b$?”
 - Can use the result to decide what second comparison to do
 - Etc.: comparison k can be chosen based on first $k-1$ results
- Can represent this process as a *decision tree*
 - Nodes contain “set of remaining possibilities”
 - Edges are “answers from a comparison”
 - The algorithm does not actually build the tree; it's what our *proof* uses to represent “the most the algorithm could know so far” as the algorithm progresses

One Decision Tree for $n=3$



- The leaves contain all the possible orderings of a , b , c
- A different algorithm would lead to a different tree

Example if $a < c < b$



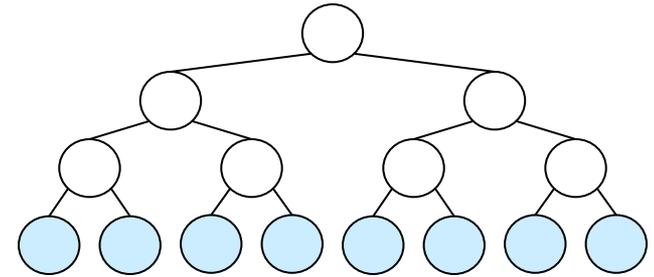
What the Decision Tree Tells Us

- A binary tree because each comparison has 2 outcomes
 - (No duplicate elements)
 - (Would have 1 outcome if a comparison is redundant)
- Because any data is possible, any algorithm needs to ask enough questions to produce all $n!$ answers
 - Each answer is a different leaf
 - So the tree must be big enough to have $n!$ leaves
 - Running *any* algorithm on *any* input will *at best* correspond to a root-to-leaf path in *some* decision tree with $n!$ leaves
 - So no algorithm can have worst-case running time better than the height of a tree with $n!$ leaves
 - Worst-case number-of-comparisons for an algorithm is an input leading to a longest path in algorithm's decision tree

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
 - A comparison sort could be worse than this height, but it cannot be better
- Now: a binary tree with $n!$ leaves has height $\Omega(n \log n)$
 - Factorial function grows very quickly
 - Height could be more, but cannot be less
- Conclusion: Comparison sorting is $\Omega(n \log n)$
 - An amazing computer-science result: proves all the clever programming in the world cannot sort in linear time

Lower bound on height

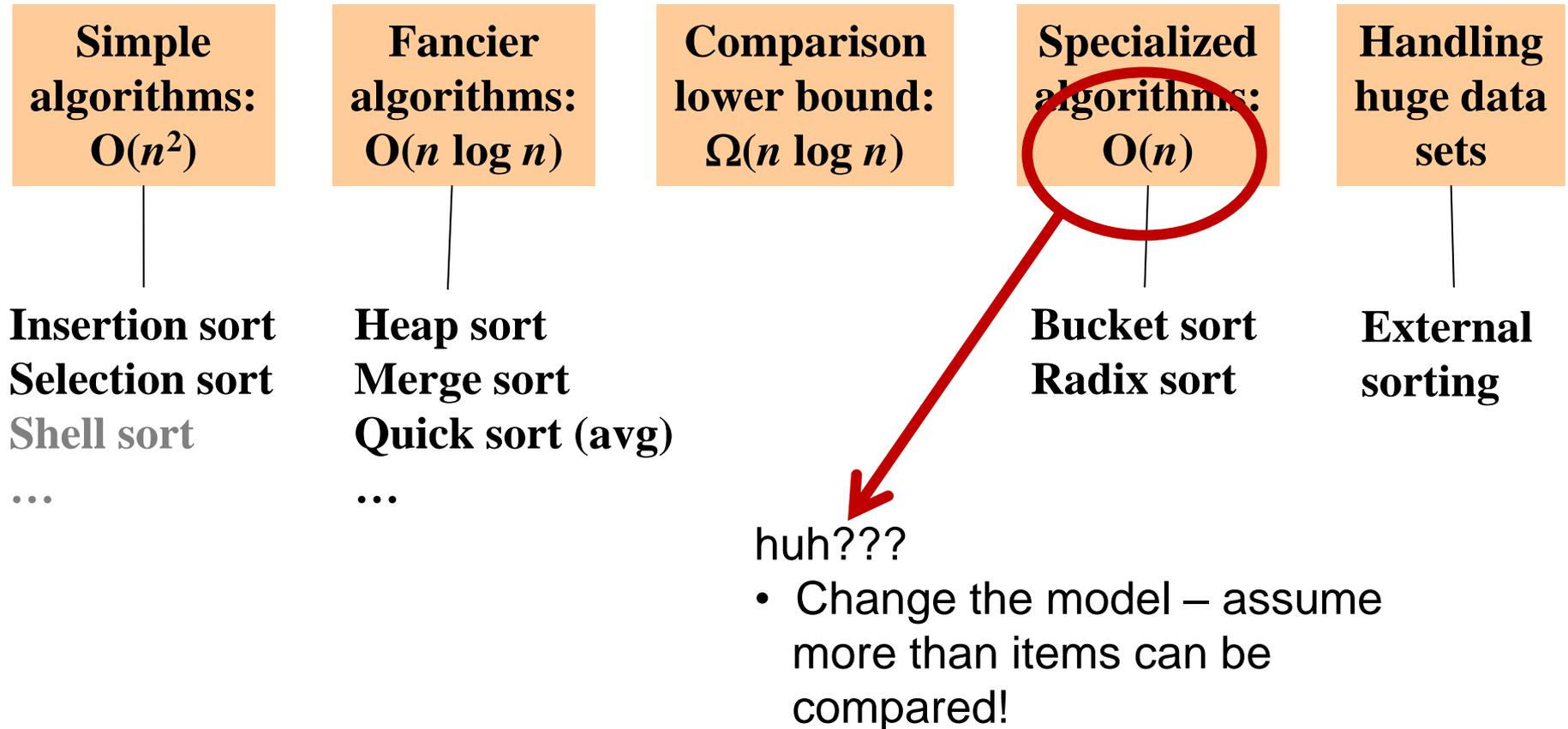


- The height of a binary tree with L leaves is at least $\log_2 L$
- So the height of our decision tree, h :

$$\begin{aligned}
 h &\geq \log_2 (n!) && \text{property of binary trees} \\
 &= \log_2 (n \cdot (n-1) \cdot (n-2) \dots (2)(1)) && \text{definition of factorial} \\
 &= \log_2 n + \log_2 (n-1) + \dots + \log_2 1 && \text{property of logarithms} \\
 &\geq \log_2 n + \log_2 (n-1) + \dots + \log_2 (n/2) && \text{drop smaller terms } (\geq 0) \\
 &\geq \log_2 (n/2) + \log_2 (n/2) + \dots + \log_2 (n/2) && \text{shrink terms to } \log_2 (n/2) \\
 &= (n/2) \log_2 (n/2) && \text{arithmetic} \\
 &= (n/2)(\log_2 n - \log_2 2) && \text{property of logarithms} \\
 &= (1/2)n \log_2 n - (1/2)n && \text{arithmetic} \\
 &\text{"=" } \Omega(n \log n)
 \end{aligned}$$

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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
 - Put each element in its proper **bucket (a.k.a. bin)**
 - *If* data is only integers, no need to store more than a *count* of how times that bucket has been used
- 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

Analyzing Bucket Sort

- Overall: $O(n+K)$
 - Linear in n , but also linear in K
 - $\Omega(n \log n)$ lower bound does not apply because this is not a comparison sort
- Good when K is smaller (or not much larger) than n
 - Do not spend time doing comparisons of duplicates
- Bad when K is much larger than n
 - Wasted space; wasted time during final linear $O(K)$ pass
- For data in addition to integer keys, use list at each bucket

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
 - Keeping sort *stable*
 - Invariant: After k passes (digits), 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
9
721
3
38
143
67

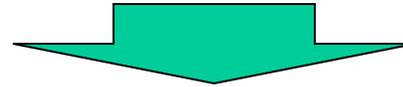
First pass:
bucket sort by ones digit

Order now: 721
3
143
537
67
478
38
9

Example

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

Radix = 10



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

Order was: 721
3
143
537
67
478
38
9

Second pass:

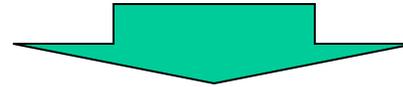
stable bucket sort by tens digit

Order now: 3
9
721
537
38
143
67
478

Example

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

Radix = 10



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

Order was:

3
9
721
537
38
143
67
478

Order now:

3
9
38
67
143
478
537
721

Third pass:

stable bucket sort by 100s digit

Analysis

Input size: n

Number of buckets = Radix: B

Number of passes = “Digits”: P

Work per pass is 1 bucket sort: $O(B+n)$

Total work is $O(P(B+n))$

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

- Example: Strings of English letters up to length 15
 - $15*(52 + n)$
 - This is less than $n \log n$ only if $n > 33,000$
 - Of course, cross-over point depends on constant factors of the implementations
 - And radix sort can have poor locality properties

Last Slide 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
- $\Omega(n \log n)$ 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!