



CSE373: Data Structure & Algorithms Lecture 21: More Comparison Sorting

Aaron Bauer Winter 2014

The main problem, stated carefully

For now, assume we have *n* comparable elements in an array and we want to rearrange them to be in increasing order

Input:

- An array **A** of data records
- A key value in each data record
- A comparison function (consistent and total)

Effect:

- Reorganize the elements of A such that for any i and j,
 if i < j then A[i] ≤ A[j]
- (Also, **A** must have exactly the same data it started with)
- Could also sort in reverse order, of course

An algorithm doing this is a comparison sort

Winter 2014

Sorting: The Big Picture

Surprising amount of neat stuff to say about sorting:



Mergesort Analysis

Having defined an algorithm and argued it is correct, we should analyze its running time and space:

To sort *n* elements, we:

- Return immediately if n=1
- Else do 2 subproblems of size n/2 and then an O(n) merge

Recurrence relation:

 $T(1) = c_1$ $T(n) = 2T(n/2) + c_2 n$

One of the recurrence classics...

For simplicity let constants be 1 – no effect on asymptotic answer

$$T(1) = 1$$

$$T(n) = 2T(n/2) + n$$

$$= 2(2T(n/4) + n/2) + n$$

$$= 4T(n/4) + 2n$$

$$= 4(2T(n/8) + n/4) + 2n$$

$$= 8T(n/8) + 3n$$

....

$$= 2^{k}T(n/2^{k}) + kn$$

So total is $2^{k}T(n/2^{k}) + kn$ where $n/2^{k} = 1$, i.e., log n = k That is, $2^{\log n}T(1) + n \log n$ $= n + n \log n$ $= O(n \log n)$

Or more intuitively...

This recurrence is common you just "know" it's $O(n \log n)$

Merge sort is relatively easy to intuit (best, worst, and average):

- The recursion "tree" will have log n height
- At each level we do a *total* amount of merging equal to *n*



CSE373: Data Structures & Algorithms

Quicksort

- Also uses divide-and-conquer
 - Recursively chop into two pieces
 - Instead of doing all the work as we merge together, we will do all the work as we recursively split into halves
 - Unlike merge sort, does not need auxiliary space
- $O(n \log n)$ on average \odot , but $O(n^2)$ worst-case \odot
- Faster than merge sort in practice?
 - Often believed so
 - Does fewer copies and more comparisons, so it depends on the relative cost of these two operations!

Quicksort Overview

- 1. Pick a pivot element
- 2. Partition all the data into:
 - A. The elements less than the pivot
 - B. The pivot
 - C. The elements greater than the pivot
- 3. Recursively sort A and C
- 4. The answer is, "as simple as A, B, C"

(Alas, there are some details lurking in this algorithm)

Winter 2014

CSE373: Data Structures & Algorithms

Think in Terms of Sets



[Weiss]

CSE373: Data Structures & Algorithms

Example, Showing Recursion



Details

Have not yet explained:

- How to pick the pivot element
 - Any choice is correct: data will end up sorted
 - But as analysis will show, want the two partitions to be about equal in size
- How to implement partitioning
 - In linear time
 - In place

Pivots

- Best pivot?
 - Median
 - Halve each time



- Worst pivot?
 - Greatest/least element
 - Problem of size n 1
 - $O(n^2)$



Potential pivot rules

While sorting arr from 10 (inclusive) to hi (exclusive)...

• Pick arr[lo] Or arr[hi-1]

- Fast, but worst-case occurs with mostly sorted input

- Pick random element in the range
 - Does as well as any technique, but (pseudo)random number generation can be slow
 - Still probably the most elegant approach
- Median of 3, e.g., arr[lo], arr[hi-1], arr[(hi+lo)/2]
 - Common heuristic that tends to work well

Partitioning

- Conceptually simple, but hardest part to code up correctly
 - After picking pivot, need to partition in linear time in place
- One approach (there are slightly fancier ones):
 - 1. Swap pivot with **arr[lo]**
 - 2. Use two fingers i and j, starting at lo+1 and hi-1

```
3. while (i < j)
    if (arr[j] > pivot) j--
    else if (arr[i] < pivot) i++
    else swap arr[i] with arr[j]</pre>
```

4. Swap pivot with arr[i] *

*skip step 4 if pivot ends up being least element

Example

• Step one: pick pivot as median of 3

$$-$$
 1o = 0, hi = 10

0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
8	1	4	9	0	3	5	2	7	6

• Step two: move pivot to the lo position

Example

Often have more than one swap during partition – this is a short example



Winter 2014

CSE373: Data Structures & Algorithms

Analysis

• Best-case: Pivot is always the median

T(0)=T(1)=1 T(n)=2T(n/2) + n -- linear-time partition Same recurrence as mergesort: $O(n \log n)$

- Worst-case: Pivot is always smallest or largest element T(0)=T(1)=1 T(n) = 1T(n-1) + n Basically same recurrence as selection sort: O(n²)
- Average-case (e.g., with random pivot)
 - $O(n \log n)$, not responsible for proof (in text)

Winter 2014

Cutoffs

- For small *n*, all that recursion tends to cost more than doing a quadratic sort
 - Remember asymptotic complexity is for large *n*
- Common engineering technique: switch algorithm below a cutoff
 Reasonable rule of thumb: use insertion sort for *n* < 10
- Notes:
 - Could also use a cutoff for merge sort
 - Cutoffs are also the norm with parallel algorithms
 - Switch to sequential algorithm
 - None of this affects asymptotic complexity

Cutoff skeleton

```
void quicksort(int[] arr, int lo, int hi) {
    if(hi - lo < CUTOFF)
        insertionSort(arr,lo,hi);
    else
        ...
}</pre>
```

Notice how this cuts out the vast majority of the recursive calls

- Think of the recursive calls to quicksort as a tree
- Trims out the bottom layers of the tree

Visualizations

• http://www.cs.usfca.edu/~galles/visualization/Algorithms.html

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 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: we *know* 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[2]<a[0]
 a[2]<a[0]<a[1]
 a[2]<a[1]
- In general, n choices for least element, n-1 for next, n-2 for next, ...
 n(n-1)(n-2)...(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", "anything is possible"
 - 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 can show:

Any sorting algorithm must do *at least* $(1/2)n\log n - (1/2)n$ (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 [incorrect algorithm]

Optional: 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 ?"</p>
 - 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"
 - Root: None of the *n*! options yet eliminated
 - 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

Optional: 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

Winter 2014

CSE373: Data Structures & Algorithms



Optional: What the Decision Tree Tells Us

- A binary tree because each comparison has 2 outcomes
 - (We assume no duplicate elements)
 - (Would have 1 outcome if algorithm asks redundant questions)
- 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

Optional: Where are we

- Proven: No comparison sort can have worst-case running time better than the height of a binary tree with *n*! leaves
 - A comparison sort could be worse than this height, but it cannot be better
- Now: a binary tree with n! leaves has height $\Omega(n \log n)$
 - Height could be more, but cannot be less
 - Factorial function grows very quickly
- Conclusion: Comparison sorting is Ω (*n* log *n*)
 - An amazing computer-science result: proves all the clever programming in the world cannot comparison-sort in linear time

Optional: Height lower bound

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

$$h \ge \log_2 (n!)$$

$$= \log_2 (n^*(n-1)^*(n-2)...(2)(1))$$

$$= \log_2 n + \log_2 (n-1) + ... + \log_2 1$$

$$= \log_2 n + \log_2 (n-1) + ... + \log_2 (n/2) \text{ drop smaller terms } (\ge 0)$$

$$\ge \log_2 (n/2) + \log_2 (n/2) + ... + \log_2 (n/2) \text{ shrink terms to } \log_2 (n/2)$$

$$= (n/2)\log_2 (n/2)$$

$$= (n/2)(\log_2 n - \log_2 2)$$

$$= (1/2)n\log_2 n - (1/2)n$$

$$= (n \log n)$$