Algorithms

Linear-Time Sorting Algorithms

- Insertion sort:
 - Easy to code
 - Fast on small inputs (less than ~50 elements)
 - Fast on nearly-sorted inputs
 - O(n²) worst case
 - O(n²) average (equally-likely inputs) case
 - O(n²) reverse-sorted case

• Merge sort:

- Divide-and-conquer:
 - Split array in half
 - Recursively sort subarrays
 - Linear-time merge step
- O(n lg n) worst case
- Doesn't sort in place

- Heap sort:
 - Uses the very useful heap data structure
 - Complete binary tree
 - Heap property: parent key > children's keys
 - O(n lg n) worst case
 - Sorts in place
 - Fair amount of shuffling memory around

- Quick sort:
 - Divide-and-conquer:
 - Partition array into two subarrays, recursively sort
 - All of first subarray < all of second subarray</p>
 - No merge step needed!
 - O(n lg n) average case
 - Fast in practice
 - O(n²) worst case
 - Naïve implementation: worst case on sorted input
 - Address this with randomized quicksort

How Fast Can We Sort?

- We will provide a lower bound, then beat it
 - *How do you suppose we'll beat it?*
- First, an observation: all of the sorting algorithms so far are *comparison sorts*
 - The only operation used to gain ordering information about a sequence is the pairwise comparison of two elements
 - Theorem: all comparison sorts are $\Omega(n \lg n)$
 - A comparison sort must do O(n) comparisons (*why?*)
 - What about the gap between O(n) and O(n lg n)

Decision Trees

- *Decision trees* provide an abstraction of comparison sorts
 - A decision tree represents the comparisons made by a comparison sort. Every thing else ignored
 - (Draw examples on board)
- What do the leaves represent?
- *How many leaves must there be?*

Decision Trees

- Decision trees can model comparison sorts. For a given algorithm:
 - One tree for each *n*
 - Tree paths are all possible execution traces
 - What's the longest path in a decision tree for insertion sort? For merge sort?
- What is the asymptotic height of any decision tree for sorting n elements?
- Answer: $\Omega(n \lg n)$ (now let's prove it...)

Lower Bound For Comparison Sorting

- Thm: Any decision tree that sorts *n* elements has height Ω(*n* lg *n*)
- What's the minimum # of leaves?
- What's the maximum # of leaves of a binary tree of height h?
- Clearly the minimum # of leaves is less than or equal to the maximum # of leaves

Lower Bound For Comparison Sorting

- So we have... $n! \le 2^h$
- Taking logarithms: $lg(n!) \le h$
- Stirling's approximation tells us:

• Thus:
$$h \ge \lg \left(\frac{n}{e}\right)^n$$

Lower Bound For Comparison Sorting

• So we have $h \ge \lg \left(\frac{n}{e}\right)^n$

$$= n \lg n - n \lg e$$

$$= \Omega(n \lg n)$$

 Thus the minimum height of a decision tree is Ω(n lg n)

Lower Bound For Comparison Sorts

- Thus the time to comparison sort *n* elements is Ω(*n* lg *n*)
- Corollary: Heapsort and Mergesort are asymptotically optimal comparison sorts
- But the name of this lecture is "Sorting in linear time"!
 - How can we do better than $\Omega(n \lg n)$?

Sorting In Linear Time

• Counting sort

- No comparisons between elements!
- But...depends on assumption about the numbers being sorted
 - We assume numbers are in the range 1.. k
- The algorithm:
 - Input: A[1..*n*], where A[j] \in {1, 2, 3, ..., *k*}
 - Output: B[1..*n*], sorted (notice: not sorting in place)
 - ◆ Also: Array C[1..*k*] for auxiliary storage

1	CountingSort(A, B, k)
2	for i=1 to k
3	C[i] = 0;
4	for j=1 to n
5	C[A[j]] += 1;
6	for $i=2$ to k
7	C[i] = C[i] + C[i-1];
8	for j=n downto 1
9	B[C[A[j]]] = A[j];
10	C[A[j]] -= 1;

Work through example: A={*4* 1 3 4 3}*, k* = 4



What will be the running time?

- Total time: O(n + k)
 - Usually, k = O(n)
 - Thus counting sort runs in O(*n*) time
- But sorting is $\Omega(n \lg n)!$
 - No contradiction--this is not a comparison sort (in fact, there are *no* comparisons at all!)
 - Notice that this algorithm is *stable*

- Cool! Why don't we always use counting sort?
- Because it depends on range k of elements
- Could we use counting sort to sort 32 bit integers? Why or why not?

• Answer: no, *k* too large (2³² = 4,294,967,296)

- *How did IBM get rich originally?*
- Answer: punched card readers for census tabulation in early 1900's.
 - In particular, a *card sorter* that could sort cards into different bins
 - Each column can be punched in 12 places
 - Decimal digits use 10 places
 - Problem: only one column can be sorted on at a time

- Intuitively, you might sort on the most significant digit, then the second msd, etc.
- Problem: lots of intermediate piles of cards (read: scratch arrays) to keep track of
- Key idea: sort the *least* significant digit first
 RadixSort(A, d)
 for i=1 to d
 StableSort(A) on digit i
 Example: Fig 9.3

- *Can we prove it will work?*
- Sketch of an inductive argument (induction on the number of passes):
 - Assume lower-order digits {j: j<i}are sorted
 - Show that sorting next digit i leaves array correctly sorted
 - If two digits at position i are different, ordering numbers by that digit is correct (lower-order digits irrelevant)
 - If they are the same, numbers are already sorted on the lower-order digits. Since we use a stable sort, the numbers stay in the right order

- What sort will we use to sort on digits?
- Counting sort is obvious choice:
 - Sort *n* numbers on digits that range from 1..*k*Time: O(n + k)
- Each pass over *n* numbers with *d* digits takes time O(*n*+*k*), so total time O(*dn*+*dk*)

• When *d* is constant and k=O(n), takes O(n) time

• *How many bits in a computer word?*

- Problem: sort 1 million 64-bit numbers
 - Treat as four-digit radix 2¹⁶ numbers
 - Can sort in just four passes with radix sort!
- Compares well with typical O(n lg n) comparison sort
 - Requires approx lg n = 20 operations per number being sorted
- So why would we ever use anything but radix sort?

- In general, radix sort based on counting sort is
 - Fast
 - Asymptotically fast (i.e., O(n))
 - Simple to code
 - A good choice
- To think about: *Can radix sort be used on floating-point numbers?*