CS 240 – Data Structures and Data Management

Module 3: Sorting and Randomized Algorithms

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Based on lecture notes by many previous cs240 instructors

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References: Sedgewick 6.10, 7.1, 7.2, 7.8, 10.3, 10.5
Goodrich & Tamassia 8.3

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Outline

1. Sorting and Randomized Algorithms
   - QuickSelect
   - Randomized Algorithms
   - QuickSort
   - Lower Bound for Comparison-Based Sorting
   - Non-Comparison-Based Sorting

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Selection vs. Sorting

The **selection problem**: Given an array A of n numbers, and $0 \leq k < n$, find the element that would be at position k of the sorted array.

0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
30	60	10	0	50	80	90	10	40	70

select(3) should return 30.

Special case: **median finding** = selection with $k = \lfloor \frac{n}{2} \rfloor$.

Selection can be done with heaps in time $\Theta(n + k \log n)$.
Median-finding with this takes time $\Theta(n \log n)$.

This is the same cost as our best sorting algorithms.

Question: Can we do selection in linear time?
The *quick-select* algorithm answers this question in the affirmative.

The encountered sub-routines will also be useful otherwise.

Crucial Subroutines

quick-select and the related algorithm *quick-sort* rely on two subroutines:

- *choose-pivot*(A): Return an index p in A. We will use the **pivot-value** $v \leftarrow A[p]$ to rearrange the array.

  Simplest idea: Always select rightmost element in array

  ```
  choose-pivot1(A)
  1.    return A.size−1
  ```

  We will consider more sophisticated ideas later on.

- *partition*(A, p): Rearrange A and return **pivot-index** i so that
  - the pivot-value v is in $A[i]$,
  - all items in $A[0, \ldots, i-1]$ are $\leq v$, and
  - all items in $A[i+1, \ldots, n-1]$ are $\geq v$.

A	$\leq v$	v	$\geq v$
		i	

Partition Algorithm

Conceptually easy linear-time implementation:

partition(A, p)
A: array of size n, p: integer s.t. $0 \leq p < n$
Create empty lists *smaller*, *equal* and *larger*.
$v \leftarrow A[p]$
for each element x in A
  if $x < v$ **then** *smaller*.*append*(x)
  else if $x > v$ **then** *larger*.*append*(x)
  else *equal*.*append*(x).
$i \leftarrow$ *smaller.size*
$j \leftarrow$ *equal.size*
Overwrite $A[0 \ldots i-1]$ by elements in *smaller*
Overwrite $A[i \ldots i+j-1]$ by elements in *equal*
Overwrite $A[i+j \ldots n-1]$ by elements in *larger*
return i

More challenging: partition **in place** (with $O(1)$ auxiliary space).

Efficient In-Place partition (Hoare)

i=-1	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	j=9
	30	60	10	0	50	80	90	20	40	v=70

0	1	2	3	4	i=5	6	7	j=8	9
30	60	10	0	50	80	90	20	40	v=70

0	1	2	3	4	i=5	6	7	j=8	9
30	60	10	0	50	40	90	20	80	v=70

0	1	2	3	4	5	i=6	j=7	8	9
30	60	10	0	50	40	90	20	80	v=70

0	1	2	3	4	5	i=6	j=7	8	9
30	60	10	0	50	40	20	90	80	v=70

0	1	2	3	4	5	j=6	i=7	8	9
30	60	10	0	50	40	20	90	80	v=70

0	1	2	3	4	5	j=6	i=7	8	9
30	60	10	0	50	40	20	70	80	90

Efficient In-Place partition (Hoare)

Idea: Keep swapping the outer-most wrongly-positioned pairs.

A	$\leq v$	?	$\geq v$	v
		i	j	$n{-}1$

partition(A, p)
A: array of size n, p: integer s.t. $0 \leq p < n$
1. *swap*$(A[n-1], A[p])$
2. $i \leftarrow -1, \quad j \leftarrow n-1, \quad v \leftarrow A[n-1]$
3. **loop**
4.   **do** $i \leftarrow i+1$ **while** $i < n$ and $A[i] < v$
5.   **do** $j \leftarrow j-1$ **while** $j > 0$ and $A[j] > v$
6.   **if** $i \geq j$ **then break** (goto 9)
7.   **else** *swap*$(A[i], A[j])$
8. **end loop**
9. *swap*$(A[n-1], A[i])$
10. **return** i

Running time: $\Theta(n)$.

QuickSelect Algorithm

quick-select1(A, k)
A: array of size n, k: integer s.t. $0 \leq k < n$
$p \leftarrow$ *choose-pivot1*(A)
$i \leftarrow$ *partition*(A, p)
if $i = k$ **then**
  return $A[i]$
else if $i > k$ **then**
  return *quick-select1*$(A[0, 1, \ldots, i-1], k)$
else if $i < k$ **then**
  return *quick-select1*$(A[i+1, i+2, \ldots, n-1], k-i-1)$

Analysis of *quick-select1*

Worst-case analysis: Recursive call could always have size $n-1$.

Recurrence given by $T(n) = \begin{cases} T(n-1) + cn, & n \geq 2 \\ c, & n = 1 \end{cases}$

Solution: $T(n) = cn + c(n-1) + c(n-2) + \cdots + c \cdot 2 + c \in \Theta(n^2)$

Best-case analysis: First chosen pivot could be the kth element
No recursive calls; total cost is $\Theta(n)$.

Average case analysis?

Sorting Permutations

- Need to take average running time over all inputs.
- How to characterize input of size n?
  (There are infinitely many sets of n numbers.)
- **Simplifying assumption:** All input numbers are *distinct*.
- Observe: quick-select1 would act the same on inputs
  14, 2, 3, 6, 1, 11, 7 and
  14, 2, 4, 6, 1, 12, 8
- The actual numbers do not matter, only their *relative order*.
- Characterize input via **sorting permutation**: the permutation that would put the input in order.
- Assume all $n!$ permutations are *equally likely*.

$\rightsquigarrow$ Average cost is sum of costs for all permutations, divided by $n!$

Average-Case Analysis of *quick-select1*

Define $T(n, k)$ as average cost for selecting kth item from size-n array.
Then $T(1, k) = c$ and

$$T(n,k) = cn + \frac{1}{n}\left(\sum_{i=0}^{k-1} T(n-i-1, k-i-1) + \sum_{i=k+1}^{n-1} T(i,k)\right)$$

Proof:

- For $i = 0, \ldots, n-1$, a fraction of $1/n$ of all permutations has pivot index i.
- The average runtime for these permutations is

$$\begin{aligned} cn + T(n-i-1, k-i-1) &\quad \text{if } i < k \\ cn &\quad \text{if } i = k \\ cn + T(i,k) &\quad \text{if } k < i. \end{aligned}$$

Average-Case Analysis of *quick-select1*

$$T(n,k) = cn + \frac{1}{n}\left(\sum_{i=0}^{k-1} T(n-i-1, k-i-1) + \sum_{i=k+1}^{n-1} T(i,k)\right)$$

Theorem: $T(n,k) \leq 4cn$.

Proof: By induction on n

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Randomized algorithms

A **randomized algorithm** is one which relies on some random numbers in addition to the input.

(Computers cannot generate randomness. We assume that there exists a *pseudo-random number generator (PRNG)*, a deterministic program that uses an initial value or *seed* to generate a sequence of seemingly random numbers. The quality of randomized algorithms depends on the quality of the PRNG!)

- The run-time will depend on the input and the random numbers used.
- **Goal:** Shift the dependency of run-time from what we can't control (the input) to what we *can* control (the random numbers).

No more bad instances, just unlucky numbers.

Expected running time

Define $T(I, R)$ to be the running time of a randomized algorithm $\mathcal{A}$ for an instance I and the sequence of random numbers R.

The **expected running time** $T^{(\exp)}(I)$ for instance I is the expected value for $T(I, R)$:

$$T^{(\exp)}(I) = \mathbf{E}[T(I,R)] = \sum_R T(I,R) \cdot \Pr[R]$$

- We could now take the *maximum* or the *average* over all instances of size n to define the **expected running time** of $\mathcal{A}$.
- But we usually design $\mathcal{A}$ such that all instances of size n have the same expected run-time.
- Then maximum and average are the same, so we have

$$T^{(\exp)}(n) := \max_{\{I \,:\, size(I)=n\}} T^{(\exp)}(I) = \frac{\sum_{\{I \,:\, size(I)=n\}} T^{(\exp)}(I)}{|\{I \,:\, size(I)=n\}|}$$

Randomized QuickSelect: Shuffle

Goal: Create a randomized version of *QuickSelect* for which all input has the same expected run-time.

First idea: Randomly permute the input first using *shuffle*:

shuffle(A)
A: array of size n
1. **for** $i \leftarrow 0$ to $n-2$ **do**
2. $\quad$ *swap*($A[i], A[i + random(n-i)]$)

We assume the existence of a function *random*(n) that returns an integer uniformly from $\{0, 1, 2, \ldots, n-1\}$.

Expected cost becomes the same as the average cost: $\Theta(n)$.

Randomized QuickSelect: Random Pivot

Second idea: Change the pivot selection.

```
choose-pivot2(A)
    return random(n)
```

```
quick-select2(A, k)
    p ← choose-pivot2(A)
    ...
```

With probablity $\frac{1}{n}$ the random pivot has index i, so the analysis is just like that for the average-case. The expected running time is again $\Theta(n)$.

This is generally the fastest quick-select implementation.

There exists a variation that has worst-case running time $O(n)$, but it uses double recursion and is slower in practice. ($\rightsquigarrow$ $cs341$)

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QuickSort

Hoare developed *partition* and *quick-select* in 1960.
He also used them to *sort* based on partitioning:

```
quick-sort1(A)
A: array of size n
    if n ≤ 1 then return
    p ← choose-pivot1(A)
    i ← partition(A, p)
    quick-sort1(A[0, 1, ..., i − 1])
    quick-sort1(A[i + 1, ..., n − 1])
```

QuickSort analysis

Define $T(n)$ to be the run-time for *quick-sort1* in a size-n array.

- $T(n)$ depends again on the pivot-index i.
- If we know i: $T(n) = \Theta(n) + T(i) + T(n-i-1)$.
- **Worst-case analysis**: $i = 0$ or $n-1$ always. Then as for *quick-select*

$$T(n) = \begin{cases} T(n-1) + cn, & n \geq 2 \\ c, & n = 1 \end{cases}$$

  for some constant $c > 0$. This resolves to $\Theta(n^2)$.
- **Best-case analysis**: $i = \lfloor \frac{n}{2} \rfloor$ or $\lceil \frac{n}{2} \rceil$ always. Then

$$T(n) = \begin{cases} T(\lfloor \frac{n-1}{2} \rfloor) + T(\lceil \frac{n-1}{2} \rceil) + cn & n \geq 2 \\ c, & n = 1 \end{cases}$$

  Similar to *merge-sort*: This resolves to $\Theta(n \log n)$.

Average-case analysis of *quick-sort1*

Now let $T(n)$ to be the *average-case* run-time for *quick-sort1* in a size-n array.

- As before, $(n-1)!$ permutations have pivot-index i.
- So average running time is

$$\begin{aligned}
T(n) &= \frac{1}{n!}\sum_{i=0}^{n-1} \sum_{\substack{I: size(I)=n \\ I \text{ has pivot-index } i}} \text{running time for instance } I \\
&\leq \frac{1}{n!}\sum_{i=0}^{n-1} (n-1)! \quad \Big(c \cdot n + T(i) + T(n-i-1)\Big) \\
&= c \cdot n + \frac{1}{n}\sum_{i=0}^{n-1}(T(i) + T(n-i-1))
\end{aligned}$$

Theorem: $T(n) \in \Theta(n \log n)$.

Proof: Can prove that $T(n) \leq 2cn\log(n)$ by induction on n

Improvement ideas for QuickSort

- We can randomize by using *choose-pivot2*, giving $\Theta(n \log n)$ *expected time* for *quick-sort2*.
- The auxiliary space is Ω(recursion depth).
  - This is $\Theta(n)$ in the worst-case.
  - It can be reduced to $\Theta(\log n)$ worst-case by recursing in smaller sub-array first and replacing the other recursion by a while-loop.
- One should stop recursing when $n \leq 10$.
  One run of InsertionSort at the end then sorts everything in $O(n)$ time since all items are within 10 units of their required position.
- Arrays with many duplicates can be sorted faster by changing *partition* to produce three subsets

$\leq v$	$= v$	$\geq v$

- Two programming tricks that apply in many situations:
  - Instead of passing full arrays, pass only the range of indices.
  - Avoid recursion altogether by keeping an explicit stack.

QuickSort with tricks

```
quick-sort3(A, n)
    Initialize a stack S of index-pairs with { (0, n−1) }
    while S is not empty
        (ℓ, r) ← S.pop()
        while (r−ℓ+1 > 10) do
            p ← choose-pivot2(A, ℓ, r)
            i ← partition(A, ℓ, r, p)
            if (i−ℓ > r−i) do
                S.push( (ℓ, i−1) )
                ℓ ← i+1
            else
                S.push( (i+1, r) )
                r ← i−1
    InsertionSort(A)
```

This is often the most efficient sorting algorithm in practice.

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Lower bounds for sorting

We have seen many sorting algorithms:

Sort	Running time	Analysis
Selection Sort	$\Theta(n^2)$	worst-case
Insertion Sort	$\Theta(n^2)$	worst-case
Merge Sort	$\Theta(n \log n)$	worst-case
Heap Sort	$\Theta(n \log n)$	worst-case
quick-sort1	$\Theta(n \log n)$	average-case
quick-sort2	$\Theta(n \log n)$	expected

Question: Can one do better than $\Theta(n \log n)$ running time?
Answer: Yes and no! *It depends on what we allow*.

- No: Comparison-based sorting lower bound is $\Omega(n \log n)$.
- Yes: Non-comparison-based sorting can achieve $O(n)$ (under restrictions!). $\rightarrow$ see below

The Comparison Model

In the **comparison model** data can only be accessed in two ways:

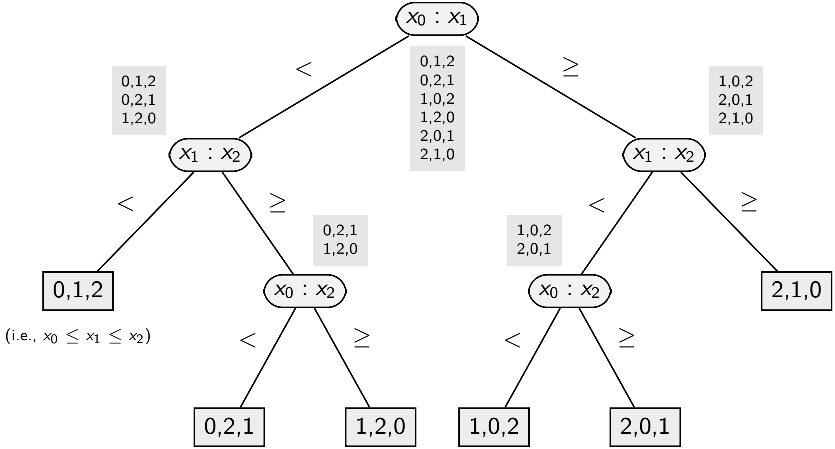
- comparing two elements
- moving elements around (e.g. copying, swapping)

This makes very few assumptions on the kind of things we are sorting.
We count the number of above operations.

All sorting algorithms seen so far are in the comparison model.

Decision trees

Comparison-based algorithms can be expressed as **decision tree**.
To sort $\{x_0, x_1, x_2\}$:



Lower bound for sorting in the comparison model

Theorem. Any correct *comparison-based* sorting algorithm requires at least $\Omega(n \log n)$ comparison operations to sort n distinct items.

Proof.

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Non-Comparison-Based Sorting

- Assume keys are numbers in base R (R: **radix**)
  - $R = 2, 10, 128, 256$ are the most common.

Example ($R = 4$):

123	230	21	320	210	232	101

- Assume all keys have the same number m of digits.
  - Can achieve after padding with leading 0s.

Example ($R = 4$):

123	230	021	320	210	232	101

- Can sort based on individual digits.
  - How to sort 1-digit numbers?
  - How to sort multi-digit numbers based on this?

(Single-digit) Bucket Sort

Sort array A by last digit:

A
123
230
021
320
210
232
101

$\Longrightarrow$

B	
$B[0]$	$\rightarrow$ 230 $\rightarrow$ 320 $\rightarrow$ 210
$B[1]$	$\rightarrow$ 021 $\rightarrow$ 101
$B[2]$	$\rightarrow$ 232
$B[3]$	$\rightarrow$ 123

$\Longrightarrow$

A
230
320
210
021
101
232
123

(Single-digit) Bucket Sort

- Sorts numbers by a single digit.
- Create a "bucket" for each possible digit: Array $B[0..R-1]$ of lists
- Copy item with digit i into bucket $B[i]$
- At the end copy buckets in order into A.

Bucket-sort(A, d)
A: array of size n, contains numbers with digits in $\{0, \ldots, R-1\}$
d: index of digit by which we wish to sort

Initialize an array $B[0...R-1]$ of empty lists
for $i \leftarrow 0$ to $n-1$ **do**
    Append $A[i]$ at end of $B[d^{\text{th}}$ digit of $A[i]]$
$i \leftarrow 0$
for $j \leftarrow 0$ to $R-1$ **do**
    while $B[j]$ is non-empty **do**
        move first element of $B[j]$ to $A[i{+}{+}]$

- This is **stable**: equal items stay in original order.
- Run-time $\Theta(n+R)$, auxiliary space $\Theta(n)$

Count Sort

- Bucket sort wastes space for linked lists.
- Observe: We know exactly where numbers in $B[j]$ go:
  - The first of them is at index $|B[0]| + |B[1]| + \cdots + |B[j-1]|$
  - The others follow.
- So we don't need the lists; it's enough to count how many there would be in it.

Count Sort Pseudocode

count-sort(A, d)
A: array of size n, contains numbers with digits in $\{0, \ldots, R-1\}$
d: index of digit by which we wish to sort
// count how many of each kind there are
    count $\leftarrow$ array of size R, filled with zeros
    for $i \leftarrow 0$ to $n-1$ **do**
        increment *count*[d^{th} digit of $A[i]$]

// find left boundary for each kind
    idx $\leftarrow$ array of size R, *idx*$[0] = 0$
    for $i \leftarrow 1$ to $R-1$ **do**
        idx$[i] \leftarrow$ *idx*$[i-1]$ + *count*$[i-1]$

// move to new array in sorted order, then copy back
    aux $\leftarrow$ array of size n
    for $i \leftarrow 0$ to $n-1$ **do**
        aux[*idx*[d^{th} digit of $A[i]$]] $\leftarrow A[i]$
        increment *idx*[d^{th} digit of $A[i]$]
    $A \leftarrow$ *copy*(*aux*)

Example: Count Sort

A
123
230
021
320
210
232
101

$\Longrightarrow$

count	*idx*
0, 1, 2, 3	0
0, 1, 2	3
0, 1	5
0, 1	6

$\Longrightarrow$

A
230
320
210
021
101
232
123

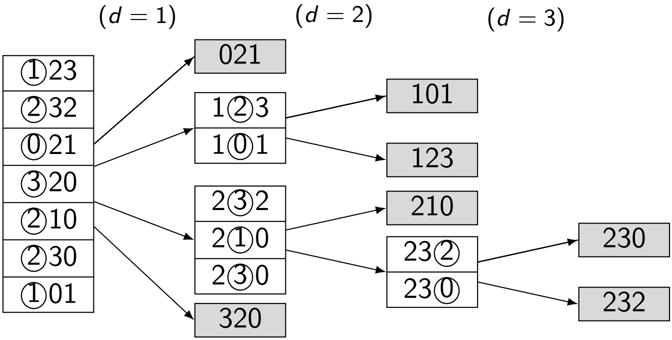
MSD-Radix-Sort

Sorts array of m-digit radix-R numbers recursively:
sort by leading digit, then each group by next digit, etc.

```
MSD-Radix-sort(A,   ℓ ← 0,   r ← n−1,   d ← 1)
    if ℓ < r
        count-sort(A[ℓ..r], d)
        if d < m
            for i ← 0 to R − 1 do
                let ℓ_i and r_i be boundaries of ith bin
                    (i.e., A[ℓ_i..r_i] all have dth digit i)
                MSD-Radix-sort(A, ℓ_i, r_i, d+1)
```

- ℓ_i and r_i are automatically computed with *count-sort*

MSD-Radix-Sort Example



- Drawback of *MSD-Radix-Sort*: many recursions
- **Auxiliary space**: $\Theta(n + R + m)$ (for *count-sort* and recursion stack)
- **Run-time**: $\Theta(m(n + R))$ can be achieved if auxiliary arrays for *count-sort* are shared across subroutines.

LSD-Radix-Sort

LSD-radix-sort(A)
A: array of size n, contains m-digit radix-R numbers

```
for d ← m down to 1 do
        count-sort(A, d)
```

123		230		101		021
230		320		210		101
021	$(d = 3)$	210	$(d = 2)$	320	$(d = 1)$	123
320	$\Longrightarrow$	021	$\Longrightarrow$	021	$\Longrightarrow$	210
210		101		123		230
232		232		230		232
101		123		232		320

- Loop-invariant: A is sorted w.r.t. digits $d, \ldots, m$ of each entry.
- **Time cost**: $\Theta(m(n + R))$ **Auxiliary space**: $\Theta(n + R)$

Summary

- Sorting is an important and *very* well-studied problem
- Can be done in $\Theta(n \log n)$ time; faster is not possible for general input
- *HeapSort* is the only $\Theta(n \log n)$-time algorithm we have seen with $O(1)$ auxiliary space.
- *MergeSort* is also $\Theta(n \log n)$, selection & insertion sorts are $\Theta(n^2)$.
- *QuickSort* is worst-case $\Theta(n^2)$, but often the fastest in practice
- *CountSort* and *RadixSort* achieve $o(n \log n)$ if the input is special

- Randomized algorithms can eliminate "bad cases"
- Best-case, worst-case, average-case, expected-case can all differ, but for well-design randomizations of algorithms, the expected case is the same as the average-case of the non-randomized algorithm.