The Limits of Sorting Comparison Sorts III

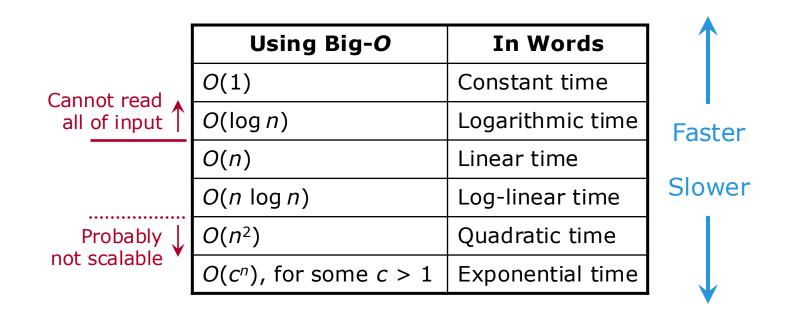
CS 311 Data Structures and Algorithms Lecture Slides Friday, October 4, 2024

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Topics

- Analysis of Algorithms
- Introduction to Sorting
- Comparison Sorts I
- Asymptotic Notation
- Divide and Conquer
- ✓ Comparison Sorts II
 - The Limits of Sorting
 - Comparison Sorts III
 - Non-Comparison Sorts
 - Sorting in the C++ STL

Review



Useful Rules

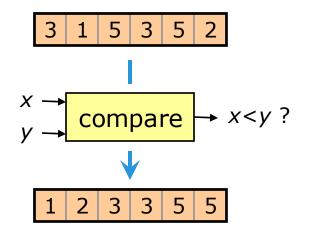
- Rule of Thumb. For nested "real" loops, order is O(n^t), where t is the number of nested loops.
- Addition Rule. O(f(n)) + O(g(n)) is either O(f(n)) or O(g(n)), whichever is larger. And similarly for Θ. This works when adding up any fixed, finite number of terms.

Sort: Place a list in order.

Key: The part of the item we sort by.

Comparison sort: Sorting algorithm that only gets information about item by comparing them in pairs.

A general-purpose comparison sort places no restrictions on the size of the list or the values in it.



Analyzing a general-purpose comparison sort:

- (Time) Efficiency
- Requirements on Data
- Space Efficiency <
- Stability <
- Performance on Nearly Sorted Data \leftarrow 1. All items <u>close</u> to proper places,

- **In-place** = no large additional space required.
- **Stable** = never reverses the relative order of equivalent items.
- OR
 - 2. few items out of order.

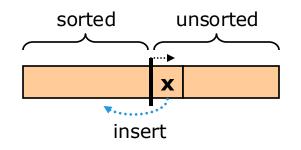
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Sorting Algorithms Covered

- Quadratic-Time $[O(n^2)]$ Comparison Sorts
 - Bubble Sort
 - ✓ Insertion Sort
 - Quicksort
- Log-Linear-Time [O(n log n)] Comparison Sorts
 - ✓ Merge Sort
 - Heap Sort (mostly later in semester)
 - Introsort
- Special Purpose—Not Comparison Sorts
 - Pigeonhole Sort
 - Radix Sort

Insertion Sort repeatedly does this:



Analysis

- (Time) Efficiency: $O(n^2)$. Average case same. \otimes
- Requirements on Data: Works for Linked Lists, etc. ③
- Space Efficiency: In-place. ☺
- Stability: It is stable. ☺
- Performance on Nearly Sorted Data: O(n) for both kinds. ☺

Notes

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See insertion_sort.cpp.
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- Too slow for most use cases.
- Fast in special cases: *nearly sorted data* and *small lists*.
- Thus, often used as part of other algorithms.

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g(*n*) is:

- O(f(n)) if $g(n) \le k \times f(n) \dots$
- $\Omega(f(n))$ if $g(n) \ge k \times f(n) \dots$

Θ is very useful! Ω not as much.

• $\Theta(f(n))$ if both are true—possibly with different values of k.

	1	n	n log n	<i>n</i> ²	5 <i>n</i> ²	n² log n	<i>п</i> ³	<i>n</i> ⁴
<i>O</i> (<i>n</i> ²)	YES	YES	YES	YES	YES	no	no	no
Ω(<i>n</i> ²)	no	no	no	YES	YES	YES	YES	YES
Θ(<i>n</i> ²)	no	no	no	YES	YES	no	no	no

In an algorithmic context, g(n) might be:

- The maximum number of basic operations performed by the algorithm when given input of size n.
- The maximum amount of additional space required.

In-place means using O(1) additional space.

Review Divide and Conquer [1/2]

- A Divide/Decrease and Conquer algorithm needs analysis.
 - It splits its input into b nearly equal-sized parts.
 - It makes a recursive calls, each taking one part.
 - It does other work requiring f(n) operations.

To Analyze

- Find b, a, d so that f(n) is $\Theta(n^d)$ —or $O(n^d)$.
- Compare *a* and *b*^{*d*}.
- Apply the appropriate case of the Master Theorem.

The Master Theorem

Suppose T(n) = a T(n/b) + f(n); $a \ge 1, b > 1, f(n)$ is $\Theta(n^d)$.

"n/b" can be a nearby integer.

Then:

- Case 1. If $a < b^d$, then T(n) is $\Theta(n^d)$.
- Case 2. If $a = b^d$, then T(n) is $\Theta(n^d \log n)$.
- Case 3. If $a > b^d$, then T(n) is $\Theta(n^k)$, where $k = \log_b a$.

We may also replace each "Θ" above with "O".

Try It!

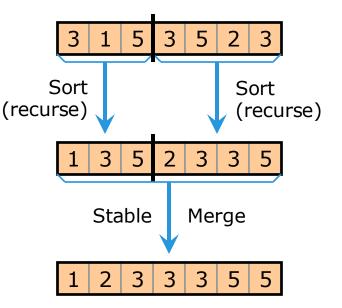
Algorithm A is given a list as input. It uses a Divide and Conquer strategy. It splits its input in half (or nearly so), and handles each part with a recursive call. It also does other work requiring constant time.

Use the Master Theorem to determine the order of Algorithm A.

See In-Class Worksheet 1: The Master Theorem. Merge Sort: recursively sort top & bottom halves of list, merge.

Analysis

- Efficiency: Θ(n log n). Avg same. ☺
- Requirements on Data: Works for Linked Lists, etc. ☺
- Space Efficiency: Θ(log n) space for recursion. Iterative version is in-place for Linked List. Θ(n) space for array. ⊕/☺/☺



- Stable: Yes. 🙂
- Performance on Nearly Sorted Data: Not better or worse. 😑

See merge_sort.cpp.

Notes

- Practical & often used.
- Fastest known for (1) stable sort, (2) sorting a Linked List.

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The Limits of Sorting

We have mentioned that most sorting algorithms fall into one of two categories:

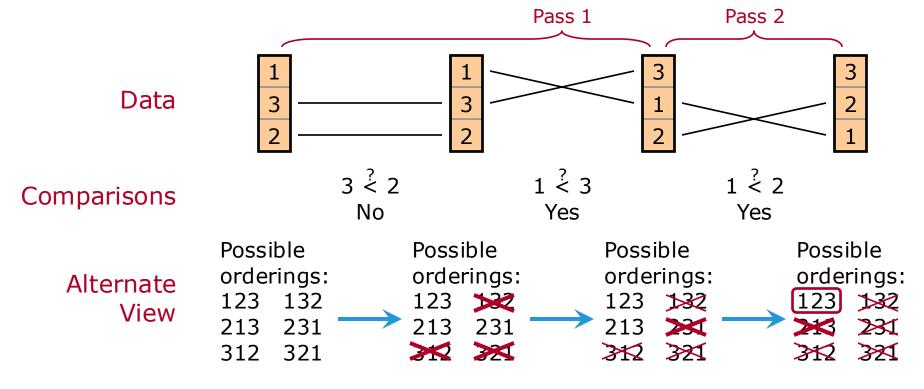
- Slow: $\Theta(n^2)$ —e.g., Bubble Sort, Insertion Sort.
- Fast: Θ(n log n)—e.g., Merge Sort.

Can we sort even faster than that?

No, we cannot—not with a general-purpose comparison sort.

Fact. A general-purpose comparison sort that lies in any timeefficiency category faster than $\Theta(n \log n)$ is *impossible*. (Remember: worst-case analysis.)

More precisely: we can *prove* that the worst-case number of comparisons performed by a general-purpose comparison sort must be $\Omega(n \log n)$. Here is what Ω is good for: statements that say, "You cannot do better than this." Sorting determines the order of a list. Many orderings are possible.
A comparison finds the relative order of two items. Say x < y; now we know that any ordering with y before x is not the answer.
We cannot stop until only one possible ordering is left.
Example. Bubble Sort the list 2 3 1.



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We prove that the worst-case number of comparisons performed by a general-purpose comparison sort must be $\Omega(n \log n)$.

As on the previous slide:

- We are given a list of *n* items to be sorted.
- There are $n! = n \times (n-1) \times ... \times 3 \times 2 \times 1$ orderings of *n* items.
- Start with all n! orderings. Do comparisons, throwing out orderings that do not match what we know, until just one ordering is left.

How many comparisons are required?

- With each comparison, we cannot guarantee that more than half of the orderings will be thrown out. (Remember: worst case.)
- How many times must we cut *n*! in half, to get 1?
- Answer: log₂(n!).

Continued on next slide

We know that the worst-case number of comparisons performed by a general-purpose comparison sort cannot be less than $\log_2(n!)$.

Now we use **Stirling's Approximation**: $n! \approx \frac{n^n}{a^n} \sqrt{2\pi n}$.

See stirling.py.

Take \log_2 of both sides: $\log_2(n!) \approx n \log_2 n - n \log_2 e + \frac{1}{2} \log_2(2\pi) + \frac{1}{2} \log_2 n,$ which is $\Theta(n \log n)$.

So $\log_2(n!)$ is $\Theta(n \log n)$.

The worst case number of comparisons done by a general-purpose comparison sort must be *at least* that big. Thus: $\Omega(n \log n)$.

The worst-case number of comparisons performed by a generalpurpose comparison sort must be $\Omega(n \log n)$.

Another way to say this involves a different model of computation:

- Legal operations:
 - Any operation that does not depend on the values of input data items.
 - A comparison of two data items.
- Basic operation: Comparison of two data items.
- Size: Number of items in given list.

A restatement of what was proven:

In the above model of computation, every general-purpose comparison sort is $\Omega(n \log n)$ time.

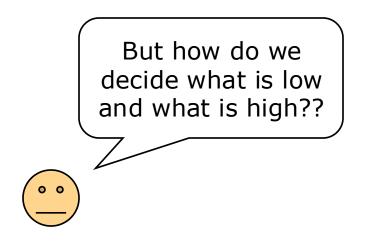
computation, comparison sorting is the only kind of sorting that can be done.

In this model of

Comparison Sorts III

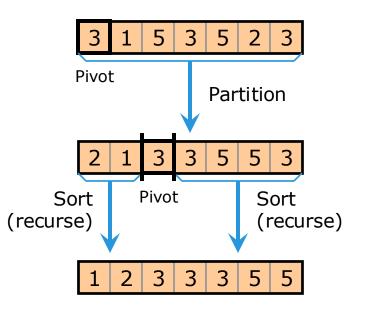
Idea

- Instead of simply splitting a list in half in the middle, try to be intelligent about it.
- Split the list into the low-valued items and the high-valued items; then recursively sort each bunch.
- Now no Merge is necessary.



Let's be more precise about this algorithmic idea. We use another Divide-and-Conquer technique:

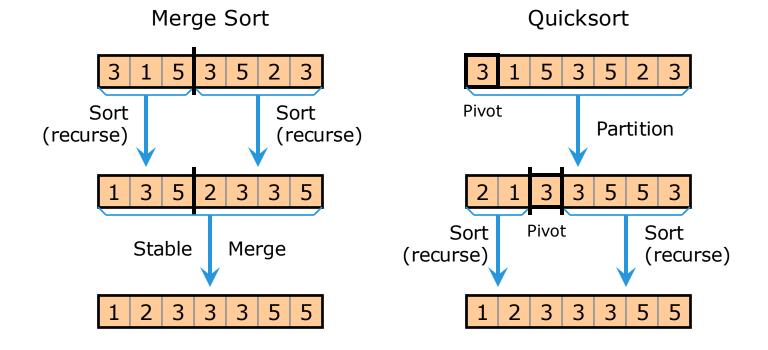
- Pick an item in the list.
 - This first item will do—*for now*.
 - The chosen item is called the **pivot**.
- Rearrange the list so that the items before the pivot are all less than or equivalent to the pivot, and the items after the pivot are all greater than or equivalent to the pivot.
 - This operation is called **Partition**. It can be done in linear time.
- Recursively sort the sub-lists: items before pivot, items after pivot.



This algorithm is called **Quicksort** [C.A.R. ("Tony") Hoare, 1961].

Compare Merge Sort & Quicksort.

- Both use Divide-and-Conquer.
- Both have an auxiliary operation (Stable Merge, Partition) that does all modification of the data set and that takes linear time.
- Merge Sort recurses first. Quicksort recurses last.



How do we do the Partition operation?

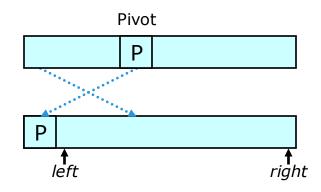
There are multiple practical partition algorithms that are used with Quicksort. Generally, these are:

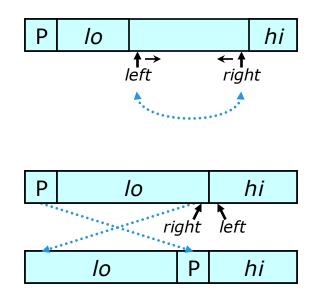
- In-place.
- Linear-time.
- Not stable.

We look at the details of a common method of doing the Partition: Hoare's Partition Algorithm.

Hoare's Partition Algorithm

- First, get the pivot out of the way: swap it with the first list item.
- Set iterator *left* to point to the first item past the pivot. Set iterator *right* to point to the last list item.
- Move iterator *left* up, leaving only low items below it. Move iterator *right* down, leaving only high items above it.
- If both iterators get stuck—*left* points to a high item and *right* points to a low item—then swap the items and continue.
- Eventually *left* & *right* cross each other.
- Finish by swapping the pivot with the last low item.





TO DO

- Write Quicksort, with the in-place Partition being a separate function.
 - Use Hoare's Partition Algorithm, written as a separate function.
 - Require random-access iterators.

Done. See quicksort1.cpp.

Comparison Sorts III will be continued next time.