

# CS 240 – Data Structures and Data Management

## Module 3: Sorting, Average-case and Randomization

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# Outline

## 3 Sorting, Average-case and Randomization

- Analyzing average-case run-time
- Randomized Algorithms
- SELECTION and *quick-select*
- SORTING and *quick-sort*
- Lower Bound for Comparison-Based Sorting
- Non-Comparison-Based Sorting

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## Average-case analysis

We will introduce (and solve) a new problem, and then analyze the *average-case run-time* of our algorithm.

Recall definition of average-case run-time:

$$T_{\mathcal{A}}^{\text{avg}}(n) = \sum_{\text{instance } I \text{ of size } n} T_{\mathcal{A}}(I) \cdot (\text{relative frequency of } I)$$

For this module:

- Assume that the set  $\mathcal{I}_n$  of size- $n$  instances is finite (or can be mapped to a finite set in a natural way)
- Assume that all instances occur equally frequently

Then we can use the following *simplified formula*

$$T^{\text{avg}}(n) = \frac{\sum_{I: \text{size}(I)=n} T(I)}{\#\text{instances of size } n} = \frac{1}{|\mathcal{I}_n|} \sum_{I \in \mathcal{I}_n} T(I)$$

**First example:** finding zero

## A simple algorithm

- input: an array  $A[0..n-1]$  with all 1 entries, except for one 0
- output: the position  $i \in \{0, \dots, n-1\}$  of the 0
- $\mathcal{I}_n = \{A_0, \dots, A_{n-1}\}$ :  $n$  possible arrays of size  $n$ , with  $A_j$  having 0 at position  $j$

```
find_zero( $A, n$ )  
1. for  $i \leftarrow 0$  to  $n-1$  do  
2.     if  $A[i] = 0$  then  
3.         return  $i$ 
```

Set  $T(A)$  = number of comparisons (step 2) on input  $A$

- **worst-case**:  $A[n-1] = 0$ , we visit the whole array:  $T(A) = n$
- **best-case**:  $A[0] = 0$ :  $T(A) = 1$
- **average-case?**

## A simple algorithm

- input: an array  $A[0..n-1]$  with all 1 entries, except for one 0
- output: the position  $i \in \{0, \dots, n-1\}$  of the 0
- $\mathcal{I}_n = \{A_0, \dots, A_{n-1}\}$ :  $n$  possible arrays of size  $n$ , with  $A_j$  having 0 at position  $j$

```
find_zero(A, n)
1. for  $i \leftarrow 0$  to  $n-1$  do
2.     if  $A[i] = 0$  then
3.         return  $i$ 
```

$$\begin{aligned} T^{\text{avg}}(n) &= \frac{1}{n} \sum_{A \in \mathcal{I}_n} T(A) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{j=0}^{n-1} T(A_j) \\ &= \frac{1}{n} \sum_{j=0}^{n-1} (j+1) = \frac{1}{n} \cdot \frac{n(n+1)}{2} = \frac{n}{2} + \Theta(1) \end{aligned}$$

## Recursive version

*find\_zero\_rec*(A, n)

1. **if**  $A[0] = 0$  **then return** 0
2. **else return**  $1 + \textit{find\_zero\_rec}(A[1..n-1], n-1)$

Set  $T_{\text{rec}}(A)$  = number of comparisons (step 1) on input A:

$$T_{\text{rec}}(A) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } A[0] = 0 \\ 1 + T_{\text{rec}}(\underbrace{A[1..n-1]}_{\text{length } n-1}) & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

## Recursive version

*find\_zero\_rec*(A, n)

1. **if**  $A[0] = 0$  **then return** 0
2. **else return**  $1 + \text{find\_zero\_rec}(A[1..n-1], n-1)$

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## Recurrence:

$$\begin{aligned} T_{\text{rec}}^{\text{avg}}(n) &= \frac{1}{n} \sum_{A \in \mathcal{I}_n} T_{\text{rec}}(A) = \frac{1}{n} \left( 1 + \sum_{A \in \mathcal{I}_n, A[0] \neq 0} (1 + T_{\text{rec}}(A[1..n-1])) \right) \\ &= 1 + \frac{1}{n} \sum_{A \in \mathcal{I}_n, A[0] \neq 0} T_{\text{rec}}(A[1..n-1]) = 1 + \frac{n-1}{n} T_{\text{rec}}^{\text{avg}}(n-1) \end{aligned}$$

# Recursive version

## Solving the recurrence:

$$nT_{\text{rec}}^{\text{avg}}(n) = n + (n-1)T_{\text{rec}}^{\text{avg}}(n-1)$$

Set  $U_n = nT_{\text{rec}}^{\text{avg}}(n)$ :

$$U_n = n + U_{n-1}, \quad U_0 = 0$$

so  $U_n = 1 + \dots + n = n(n+1)/2$  and

$$T_{\text{rec}}^{\text{avg}}(n) = \frac{n+1}{2} = \frac{n}{2} + \Theta(1)$$

## Conclusion:

- same result as the iterative version
- but we had to do some work to obtain a recurrence relation on the average runtime

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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! )

*randomized-silly*( $A, n$ )

$A$ : array of size  $n$

1.  $sum \leftarrow 0$
2. **if** (*random*(3)>0) **then**
3.     **for**  $i \leftarrow 0$  to  $n - 1$  **do**
4.          $sum \leftarrow sum + A[i]$
5. **return**  $sum$

# Randomized algorithms

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3.     **for**  $i \leftarrow 0$  to  $n - 1$  **do**
4.          $sum \leftarrow sum + A[i]$
5. **return**  $sum$

- We assume the existence of a function *random*( $n$ ) that returns an integer uniformly from  $\{0, 1, 2, \dots, n-1\}$ . So  $Pr(\text{random}(3)=0) = \frac{1}{3}$ .

## Expected run-time

The run-time depends on the random numbers, as well as the input.

**Definition:**  $T_{\mathcal{A}}(I, R)$  is the run-time of a randomized algorithm  $\mathcal{A}$  for an instance  $I$  and the sequence  $R$  of outcomes of random trials.

(in the example,  $R$  is either 0, 1 or 2)

**Definition:** the **expected run-time**  $T^{\text{exp}}(I)$  **for instance**  $I$  is the expected value:

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

Now take the **maximum** over all instances of size  $n$  to define the **expected run-time of  $\mathcal{A}$**

$$T^{\text{exp}}(n) := \max_{I \in \mathcal{I}_n} T^{\text{exp}}(I)$$

We can also (rarely) discuss the very worst that could happen:  
 $\max_I \max_R T(I, R)$ .

## Expected run-time: Example

```
randomized-silly(A, n)
A: array of size n
1.  $sum \leftarrow 0$ 
2. if (random(3)>0) then
3.     for  $i \leftarrow 0$  to  $n - 1$  do
4.          $sum \leftarrow sum + A[i]$ 
5. return  $sum$ 
```

$$T^{\text{exp}}(A) = \sum_R T(A, R) Pr(R)$$

- $R \in \{0, 1, 2\}$  with  $Pr(0) = Pr(1) = Pr(2) = \frac{1}{3}$
- If outcome is 0:  $O(1)$  time, say  $c$  time units (for some constant  $c$ )
- If outcome is 1 or 2:  $O(n)$  time, say  $cn$  time units
- $T^{\text{exp}}(A) = \frac{1}{3}c + \frac{1}{3}cn + \frac{1}{3}cn \in \Theta(n)$
- All instances have the same expected run-time, so  $T^{\text{exp}}(n) \in \Theta(n)$

# Why randomized algorithms?

- Doing randomization is often a good idea if an algorithm has bad worst-case time but seems to perform much better on most instances.
- **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.*
- Not all randomizations achieve this automatically; it must be proved.

# Randomizations of algorithms

```
randomized_find_rec(A, n)
1.   $r \leftarrow \text{random}(n)$ 
2.  if  $A[r] = 0$  then return  $r$ 
3.  swap  $A[r]$  and  $A[n - 1]$ 
4.   $p \leftarrow \text{randomized\_find\_rec}(A[0..n - 2], n - 1)$ 
5.  if  $p = r$  then return  $n - 1$  else return  $p$ 
```

- $T(A, R) = \#$  of comparisons on input  $A$  and random outcomes  $R$
- random outcomes  $R$  consist of two parts  $R = \langle x, R' \rangle$ :
  - ▶  $x$ : outcome of first random choice  $\in \{r = 0, r = 1, \dots, r = n - 1\}$
  - ▶  $R'$ : random outcomes (if any) for the recursions
- $Pr(R) = Pr(x) Pr(R')$  (random choices are independent).
- recurrence (we let  $k$  be the position of 0 in  $A$ )

$$T(A, R) = T(A, \langle x, R' \rangle) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } x = (r = k) \\ 1 + T(A'[0..n - 2], R') & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

where  $R' =$  rest of outcomes and  $A' =$  array after swap.

## Expected run-time of *randomized\_find\_rec*

$$\begin{aligned} T^{\text{exp}}(A) &= \sum_R T(A, R) \Pr(R) \\ &= 1 \cdot \Pr(r = k) \\ &\quad + \sum_{j \neq k} \sum_{R'} (1 + T(A'[0..n-2], R')) \Pr(r = j) \Pr(R') \end{aligned}$$

## Expected run-time of *randomized\_find\_rec*

$$\begin{aligned}T^{\text{exp}}(A) &= \sum_R T(A, R) \Pr(R) \\&= 1 \cdot \Pr(r = k) \\&\quad + \sum_{j \neq k} \sum_{R'} (1 + T(A'[0..n-2], R')) \Pr(r = j) \Pr(R') \\&= \frac{1}{n} + \frac{1}{n} \sum_{j \neq k} \left( \sum_{R'} \Pr(R') + \sum_{R'} T(A'[0..n-2], R') \Pr(R') \right)\end{aligned}$$

## Expected run-time of *randomized\_find\_rec*

$$\begin{aligned}T^{\text{exp}}(A) &= \sum_R T(A, R) \Pr(R) \\&= 1 \cdot \Pr(r = k) \\&\quad + \sum_{j \neq k} \sum_{R'} (1 + T(A'[0..n-2], R')) \Pr(r = j) \Pr(R') \\&= \frac{1}{n} + \frac{1}{n} \sum_{j \neq k} \left( \sum_{R'} \Pr(R') + \sum_{R'} T(A'[0..n-2], R') \Pr(R') \right) \\&= \frac{1}{n} + \frac{1}{n} \sum_{j \neq k} (1 + T^{\text{exp}}(A'[0..n-2]))\end{aligned}$$

## Expected run-time of *randomized\_find\_rec*

$$\begin{aligned}T^{\text{exp}}(A) &= \sum_R T(A, R) \Pr(R) \\&= 1 \cdot \Pr(r = k) \\&\quad + \sum_{j \neq k} \sum_{R'} (1 + T(A'[0..n-2], R')) \Pr(r = j) \Pr(R') \\&= \frac{1}{n} + \frac{1}{n} \sum_{j \neq k} \left( \sum_{R'} \Pr(R') + \sum_{R'} T(A'[0..n-2], R') \Pr(R') \right) \\&= \frac{1}{n} + \frac{1}{n} \sum_{j \neq k} (1 + T^{\text{exp}}(A'[0..n-2])) \\&\leq \frac{1}{n} + \frac{1}{n} \sum_{j \neq k} (1 + T^{\text{exp}}(n-1)) = 1 + \frac{n-1}{n} T^{\text{exp}}(n-1)\end{aligned}$$

True for **any**  $A$ :  $T^{\text{exp}}(n) \leq 1 + \frac{n-1}{n} T^{\text{exp}}(n-1)$  and so  $T^{\text{exp}}(n) \leq \frac{n+1}{2}$ .

## Summary: Average-case run-time vs. expected run-time

Are average-case run-time and expected run-time the same?

**No!**

| average-case run-time                                       | expected run-time                                                          |
|-------------------------------------------------------------|----------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| $\frac{1}{ \mathcal{I}_n } \sum_{I \in \mathcal{I}_n} T(I)$ | $\max_{I \in \mathcal{I}_n} \sum_{\text{outcomes } R} Pr(R) \cdot T(I, R)$ |
| average over instances                                      | weighted average over random outcomes                                      |
| (usually) applied to a deterministic algorithm              | applied only to a randomized algorithm                                     |

There is a relationship *only* if the randomization effectively achieves “choose the input instance randomly”.

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# The SELECTION problem

We saw **SELECTION**:

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.

(We also call this the element of **rank**  $k$ .)

| 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.

**SELECTION** can be done with heaps in time  $\Theta(n + k \log n)$ .

Special case: **MEDIANFINDING** = **SELECTION** with  $k = \lfloor \frac{n}{2} \rfloor$ . With previous approaches, this takes time  $\Theta(n \log n)$ , no better than sorting.

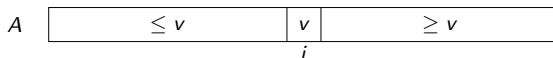
**Question:** Can we do selection in linear time?

Yes! We will develop algorithm *quick-select* below (but we won't do the worst-case linear time version)

# Crucial subroutines

*quick-select* and the related *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.
  - ▶ For now simply use  $p = A.size - 1$ , so  $v$  is rightmost item
- *partition*( $A, n, p$ ): Rearrange  $A$  and return **pivot-rank**  $i$  so that



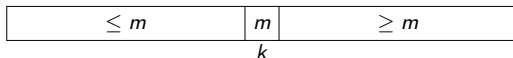
Easy to implement so that it uses at most  $n$  key-comparisons.

- ▶ Create three lists *smaller*, *equal*, *larger*
- ▶ Scan through  $A$  and add items to appropriate list
- ▶ Copy back from lists to  $A$  suitably

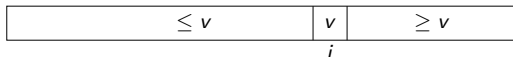
Note: can be done in place in one pass over  $A$

## Algorithm *quick-select*

**Goal:** Find element  $m$  of rank  $k$  by rearranging  $A$ :



**Recall:** *partition* method achieves



Where is  $m$  if  $i = k$ ? If  $i < k$ ? If  $i > k$ ?

*quick-select*( $A, n, k$ )

$A$ : array of size  $n$ ,  $k$ : integer s.t.  $0 \leq k < n$

1.  $i \leftarrow \text{partition}(A, n, \text{choose-pivot}(A))$
2. **if**  $i = k$  **then return**  $A[i]$
3. **else if**  $i > k$  **then return** *quick-select*( $A[0 \dots i-1], i, k$ )
4. **else if**  $i < k$  **then return** *quick-select*( $A[i+1 \dots n-1], n-i-1, k - (i+1)$ )

## Analysis of *quick-select*

Let  $T(A, k)$  be the number of key-comparisons for *quick-select*( $A, k$ ).

Note: *partition* uses  $n$  key-comparisons.

Write  $A'$  for rearranged  $A$  after *partition*, and  $i$  for the pivot-rank.

$$T(A, k) = \begin{cases} n & \text{if } i = k \\ n + T(A'[0..i-1], k) & \text{if } i > k \text{ (sub-array has size } i) \\ n + T(A'[i+1..n-1], k-i-1) & \text{if } i < k \text{ (. . . size } n-i-1) \end{cases}$$

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### Worst-case run-time:

- Sub-array always gets smaller, so  $\leq n$  recursions  $\Rightarrow O(n^2)$  time.
- This is tight: If pivot-rank is always  $n-1$  and  $k=0$   
 $T^{\text{worst}}(n) \geq n + (n-1) + (n-2) + \dots + 1 \in \Omega(n^2)$

**Best-case run-time:**  $\Theta(n)$  if  $i = k$  in first round.

# Average analysis?

What do we average on? Infinitely many arrays with e.g. integer entries. . .

- Make an **assumption**:

*All input numbers are **distinct**.*

(For most problems, this can be forced by using tie-breakers.)

- **Observe**: *quick-select* is **comparison-based**: Data accessed only by
  - ▶ comparing two elements (a *key-comparison*)
  - ▶ moving elements around (e.g. copying, swapping)
- **Observe**: Any comparison-based algorithm has the same run-time on inputs
$$A = [ \quad 14, \quad 3, \quad 2, \quad 6, \quad 1, \quad 11, \quad 7 \quad ] \quad \text{and}$$
$$A' = [ \quad 14, \quad 4, \quad 2, \quad 6, \quad 1, \quad 12, \quad 8 \quad ]$$
- The actual numbers do not matter, only their *relative order*.

## Sorting permutations

- Characterize relative order via **sorting permutation**:  
the permutation  $\pi \in \Pi_n$  for which

$$A[\pi(0)] \leq A[\pi(1)] \leq \cdots \leq A[\pi(n-1)].$$

( $\pi[0]$  = index of the smallest element, then  $\pi[1], \dots$ )

Example: 
$$\begin{array}{l} A = [ \quad 14, \quad 3, \quad 2, \quad 6, \quad 1, \quad 11, \quad 7 \quad ] \\ \pi = [ \quad 4, \quad 2, \quad 1, \quad 3, \quad 6, \quad 5, \quad 0 \quad ] \end{array}$$

## Sorting permutations

- Characterize relative order via **sorting permutation**: the permutation  $\pi \in \Pi_n$  for which

$$A[\pi(0)] \leq A[\pi(1)] \leq \dots \leq A[\pi(n-1)].$$

( $\pi[0]$  = index of the smallest element, then  $\pi[1]$ , ...)

Example: 
$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 14, & 3, & 2, & 6, & 1, & 11, & 7 \end{bmatrix}$$
$$\pi = \begin{bmatrix} 4, & 2, & 1, & 3, & 6, & 5, & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

- Make another **assumption**:  
*All  $n!$  sorting permutations are **equally frequent** among inputs.*
- Then average run-time is

$$T^{\text{avg}}(n) = \frac{1}{n!} \frac{1}{n} \sum_{A \text{ permutation of } \{0, \dots, n-1\}} \sum_k T(A, k)$$

We will estimate  $T^{\text{avg}}(n)$  via randomization.

# Randomizing quick-select

**First idea:** shuffle the array at random (does not change the result)

```
shuffle-quick-select(A, n, k)
1. for ( $j \leftarrow 1$  to  $n-1$ ) do swap(  $A[j]$ ,  $A[\text{random}(j+1)]$ ) // shuffle
2. quick-select(A, n, k)
```

**Second idea:** do the shuffling inside the recursion

```
randomized-quick-select(A, n, k)
1.  $i \leftarrow \text{partition}(A, n, \text{random}(n))$ 
2. if  $i = k$  then return  $A[i]$ 
3. else if  $i > k$  then
4.     return randomized-quick-select( $A[0 \dots i-1]$ ,  $i$ ,  $k$ )
5. else if  $i < k$  then
6.     return randomized-quick-select( $A[i+1 \dots n-1]$ ,  $n-i-1$ ,  $k-(i+1)$ )
```

**Difficult:**  $T_{\text{quick-select}}^{\text{avg}}(n) \leq T_{\text{shuffle-quick-select}}^{\text{exp}}(n) = T_{\text{rand.-quick-select}}^{\text{exp}}(n)$

## Expected run-time of *rand.-quick-select*

Let  $T(A, k, R) = \#$  key-comparisons of *randomized-quick-select* on input  $\langle A, k \rangle$  if the random outcomes are  $R$ .

- Write random outcomes  $R$  as  $R = \langle i, R' \rangle$  (where ' $i$ ' stands for 'the first random number was such that the pivot-rank is  $i$ ')  
• Observe:  $Pr(\text{pivot-rank is } i) = \frac{1}{n}$   
• We recurse in an array of size  $i$  or  $n-i-1$  (or not at all)  
• Recursive formula for one instance (and fixed  $R = \langle i, R' \rangle$ ):

$$T(A, k, R) = \begin{cases} n & \text{if } i = k \\ n + T(A'[0..i-1], k, R') & \text{if } i > k \\ n + T(A'[i+1..n-1], k-i-1, R') & \text{if } i < k \end{cases}$$

# Analysis of *rand.-quick-select* (do not read)

$$\begin{aligned}
 T^{\text{exp}}(A, k) &= \sum_R \Pr(R) \cdot T(\langle A, k \rangle, R) = \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} \sum_{R'} \Pr(i) \cdot \Pr(R') \cdot T(\langle A, k \rangle, \langle i, R' \rangle) \\
 &= \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=0}^{k-1} \sum_{R'} \Pr(R') \left( n + T(\langle A'[i+1..n-1], k-i-1 \rangle, R') \right) \\
 &\quad + \underbrace{\frac{1}{n} \cdot n}_{i=k} + \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=k+1}^{n-1} \sum_{R'} \Pr(R') \left( n + T(\langle A'[0..i-1], k \rangle, R') \right) \\
 &= n + \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=0}^{k-1} \sum_{R'} \Pr(R') T(\langle A'[i+1..n-1], k-i-1 \rangle, R') \\
 &\quad + \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=k+1}^{n-1} \sum_{R'} \Pr(R') T(\langle A'[0..i-1], k \rangle, R') \\
 &= n + \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=0}^{k-1} \underbrace{T^{\text{exp}}(\langle A'[i+1..n-1], k-i-1 \rangle)}_{\leq T^{\text{exp}}(n-i-1)} + \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=k+1}^{n-1} \underbrace{T^{\text{exp}}(\langle A'[0..i-1], k \rangle)}_{\leq T^{\text{exp}}(i)} \\
 &\leq n + \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} \max\{T^{\text{exp}}(i), T^{\text{exp}}(n-i-1)\} \quad \text{independent of } A, k
 \end{aligned}$$

tedious but straightforward

## Analysis of *randomized-quick-select*

In summary, the expected run-time of *randomized-quick-select* satisfies:

$$T^{\text{exp}}(n) \leq n + \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} \max\{T^{\text{exp}}(i), T^{\text{exp}}(n-i-1)\} \quad (\text{and } T(0) = 0)$$

**Claim:** This recursion resolves to  $O(n)$ .

# Summary of SELECTION

- *randomized-quick-select* has expected run-time  $\Theta(n)$ 
  - ▶ The run-time bound is tight since *partition* takes  $\Omega(n)$  time
  - ▶ If we're unlucky in the random numbers then the run-time is still  $\Omega(n^2)$
- So the expected run-time of *shuffle-quick-select* is also  $\Theta(n)$
- So the average-case run-time of *quick-select* is  $\Theta(n)$
- *randomized-quick-select* is generally the fastest solution to SELECTION
- There exists a variation that solves SELECTION with worst-case run-time  $\Theta(n)$ , but it uses double recursion and is slower in practice ( $\rightarrow$  cs341)

# Outline

## 3 Sorting, Average-case and Randomization

- Analyzing average-case run-time
- Randomized Algorithms
- SELECTION and *quick-select*
- SORTING and *quick-sort*
- Lower Bound for Comparison-Based Sorting
- Non-Comparison-Based Sorting

## Algorithm *quick-sort*

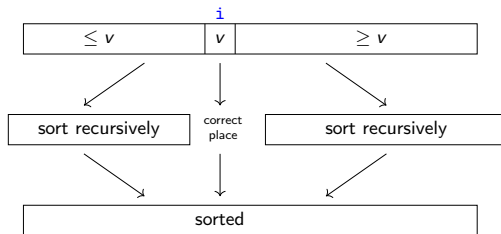
Hoare developed *partition* and *quick-select* in 1960.

He also used them to *sort* based on partitioning:

*quick-sort*( $A, n$ )

$A$ : array of size  $n$

1. **if**  $n \leq 1$  **then return**
2.  $p \leftarrow \text{choose-pivot}(A)$
3.  $i \leftarrow \text{partition}(A, n, p)$
4. *quick-sort*( $A[0, 1, \dots, i-1], i$ )
5. *quick-sort*( $A[i+1, \dots, n-1], n-i-1$ )



## Analysis of *quick-sort*

Set  $T(A) := \#$  of key-comparison for *quick-sort* in array  $A$ .

**Worst-case run-time:**  $\Theta(n^2)$

- Sub-arrays get smaller  $\Rightarrow \leq n$  levels of recursions
- On each level there are  $\leq n$  items in total  $\Rightarrow \leq n$  key-comparisons
- So run-time in  $O(n^2)$ ; this is tight exactly as for *quick-select*

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**Best-case run-time:**  $\Theta(n \log n)$

- If pivot-rank is always in the middle, then we recurse in two sub-arrays of size  $\leq n/2$ .
- $T(n) \leq n + 2T(n/2) \in O(n \log n)$  exactly as for *merge-sort*
- This can be shown to be tight.

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**Average-case run-time:** by randomization

# Randomizing quick-sort

*randomized-quick-sort*( $A, n$ )

1. **if**  $n \leq 1$  **then return**
2.  $i \leftarrow \text{partition}(A, n, \text{random}(n))$
3. *randomized-quick-sort*( $A[0, 1, \dots, i-1], i$ )
4. *randomized-quick-sort*( $A[i+1, \dots, n-1], n-i-1$ )

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- We use  $n$  comparisons in *partition*.
- $\Pr(\text{pivot has rank } i) = \frac{1}{n}$
- We recurse in two arrays, of size  $i$  and  $n-i-1$

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```
randomized-quick-sort(A, n)
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3. randomized-quick-sort(A[0, 1, ..., i-1], i)
4. randomized-quick-sort(A[i+1, ..., n-1], n-i-1)
```

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- $Pr(\text{pivot has rank } i) = \frac{1}{n}$
- We recurse in two arrays, of size  $i$  and  $n-i-1$

This implies

$$T^{\text{exp}}(n) = \underbrace{\dots = \dots \leq \dots}_{\text{long but straightforward}} = n + \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} (T^{\text{exp}}(i) + T^{\text{exp}}(n-i-1))$$

## Expected run-time of *randomized-quick-sort*

$$T^{\text{exp}}(n) \leq n + \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} \left( T^{\text{exp}}(i) + T^{\text{exp}}(n-i-1) \right) = n + \frac{2}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} T^{\text{exp}}(i) \quad (\text{since } T(0) = 0)$$

**Claim:**  $T^{\text{exp}}(n) \in O(n \log n)$ .

**Proof:**

## quick-sort: Summary

- *randomized-quick-sort* has expected run-time  $\Theta(n \log n)$ .
  - ▶ The run-time bound is tight since the best-case run-time is  $\Omega(n \log n)$
  - ▶ If we're unlucky in the random numbers then the run-time is still  $\Omega(n^2)$
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  - ▶ Each nested recursion-call requires  $\Theta(1)$  space on the call stack.
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  - ▶ So  $\Theta(n)$  auxiliary space (can be improved to  $\Theta(\log n)$ )
- There are numerous tricks to improve *randomized-quick-select*
- With these, this is in practice the fastest solution to SORTING (but *not* in theory).

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# Lower bounds for sorting

We have seen many sorting algorithms:

| Sort                         | Running time                 | Analysis                |
|------------------------------|------------------------------|-------------------------|
| <i>selection-sort</i>        | $\Theta(n^2)$                | worst-case              |
| <i>insertion-sort</i>        | $\Theta(n^2)$<br>$\Theta(n)$ | worst-case<br>best-case |
| <i>merge-sort</i>            | $\Theta(n \log n)$           | worst-case              |
| <i>heap-sort</i>             | $\Theta(n \log n)$           | worst-case              |
| <i>quick-sort</i>            | $\Theta(n \log n)$           | average-case            |
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**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!). ( $\rightarrow$  later)

## Lower bound for sorting

All algorithms so far are **comparison-based**: Data is accessed only by

- comparing two elements (a *key-comparison*)
- moving elements around (e.g. copying, swapping)

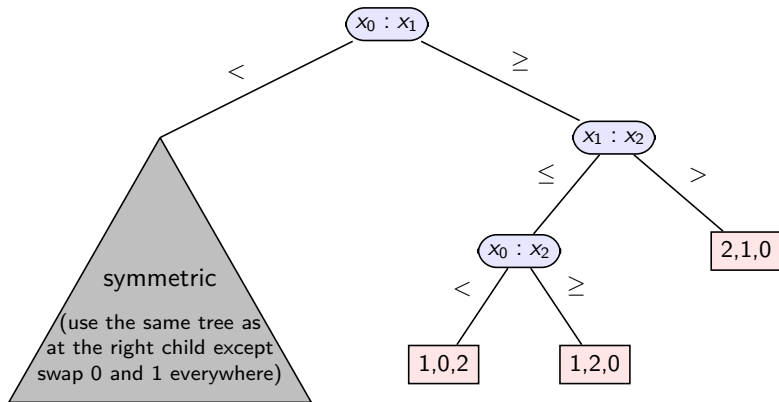
**Theorem.** Any *comparison-based* sorting algorithm requires in the worst case  $\Omega(n \log n)$  comparisons to sort  $n$  distinct items.

**Proof.**

# Decision trees

Any comparison-based algorithms can be expressed as **decision tree**.

To sort  $\{x_0, x_1, x_2\}$ :

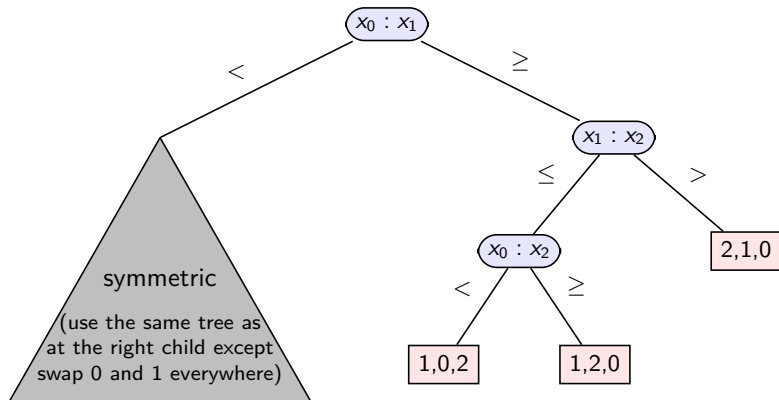


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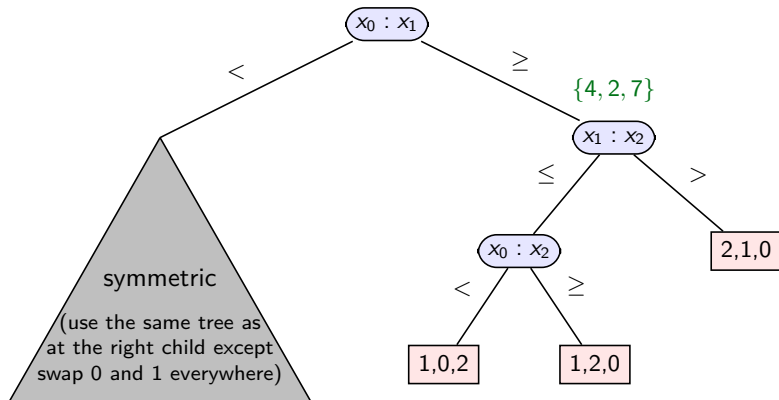
Example:  $\{x_0=4, x_1=2, x_2=7\}$



# Decision trees

Any comparison-based algorithms can be expressed as **decision tree**.

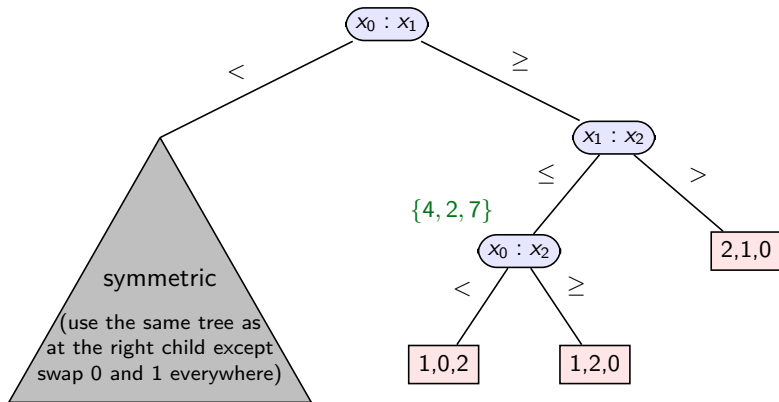
To sort  $\{x_0, x_1, x_2\}$ :



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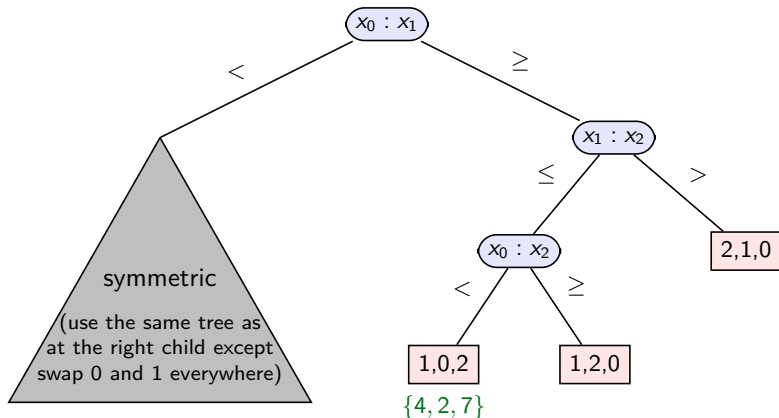
To sort  $\{x_0, x_1, x_2\}$ :



# Decision trees

Any comparison-based algorithms can be expressed as **decision tree**.

To sort  $\{x_0, x_1, x_2\}$ :



Output:  $\{4, 2, 7\}$  has sorting permutation  $\langle 1, 0, 2 \rangle$   
(i.e.,  $x_1=2 \leq x_0=4 \leq x_2=7$ )

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# Non-comparison-based sorting

- Assume keys are numbers in base  $R$  ( $R$ : **radix**)
  - ▶ So all digits are in  $\{0, \dots, R-1\}$
  - ▶  $R = 2, 10, 128, 256$  are the most common, but  $R$  need not be constant

Example ( $R = 4$ ):

|     |     |    |     |     |     |     |
|-----|-----|----|-----|-----|-----|-----|
| 123 | 230 | 21 | 320 | 210 | 232 | 101 |
|-----|-----|----|-----|-----|-----|-----|

- Assume all keys have the same number  $w$  of digits.
  - ▶ Can achieve after padding with leading 0s.
  - ▶ In typical computers,  $w = 32$  or  $w = 64$ , but  $w$  need not be constant

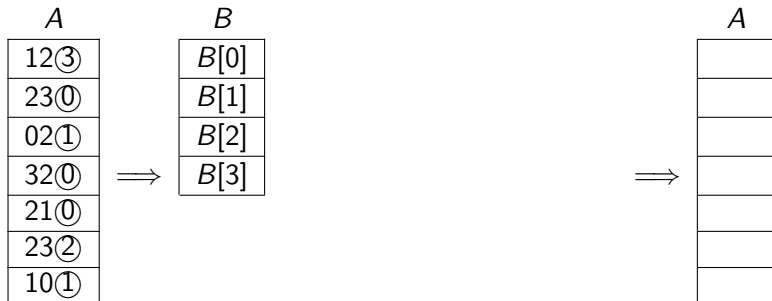
Example ( $R = 4$ ):

|     |     |     |     |     |     |     |
|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|
| 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?

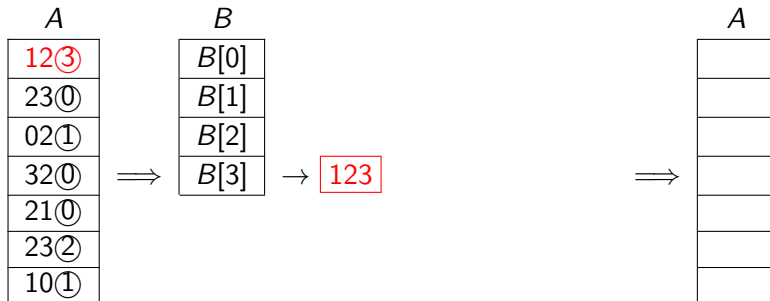
## (Single-digit) *bucket-sort*

Sort array  $A$  by last digit:



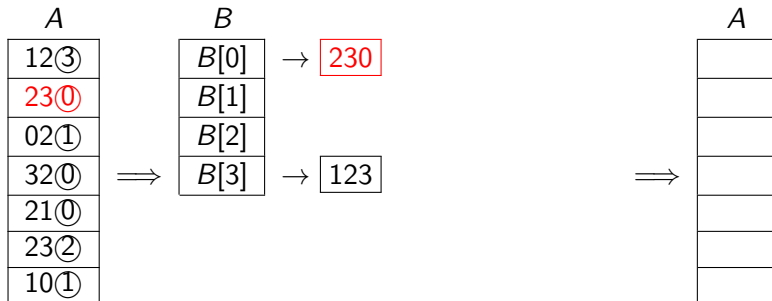
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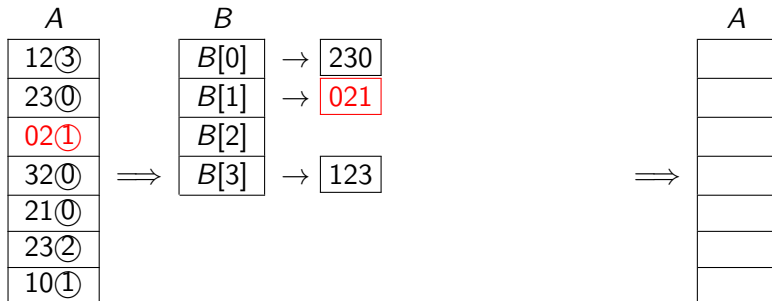
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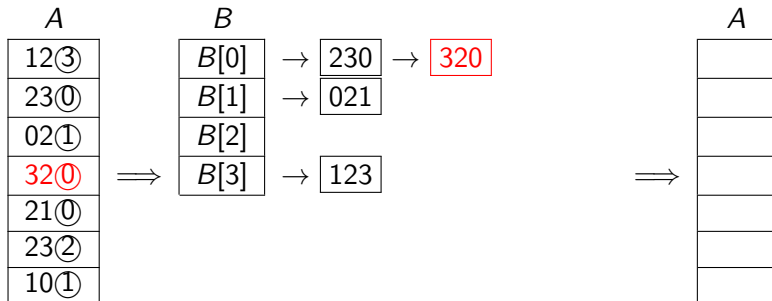
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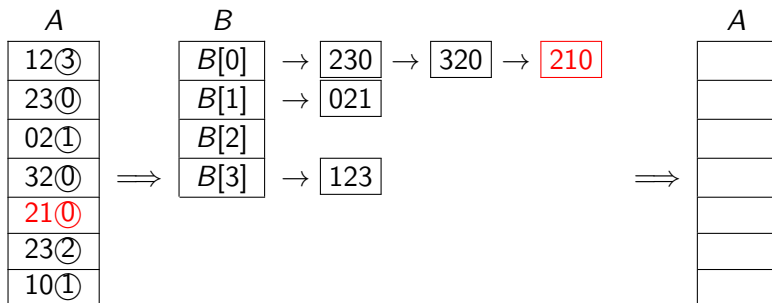
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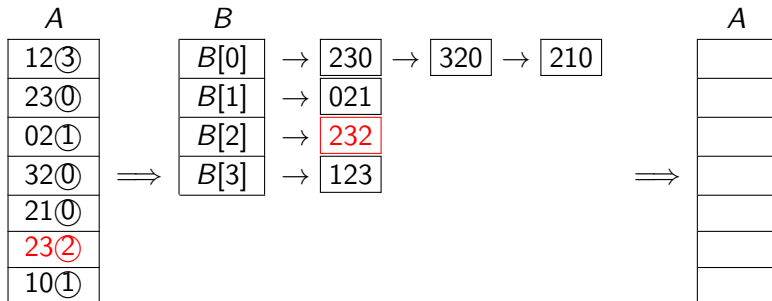
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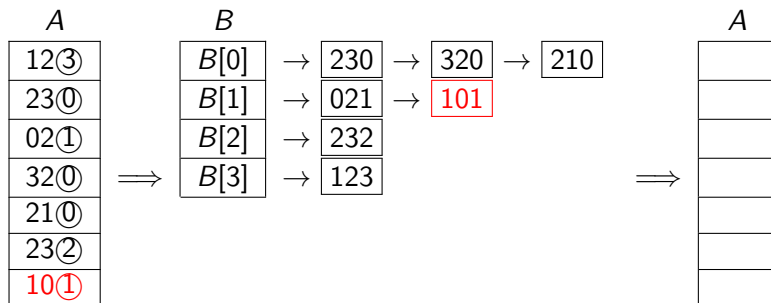
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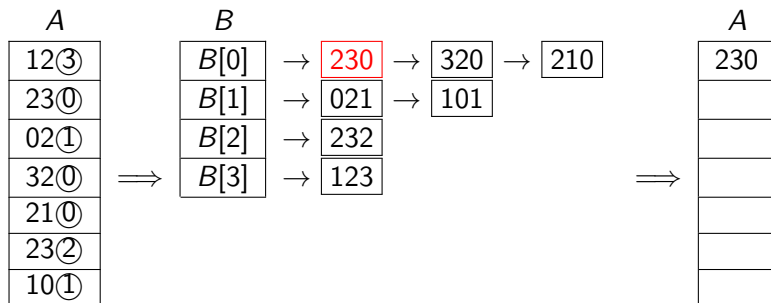
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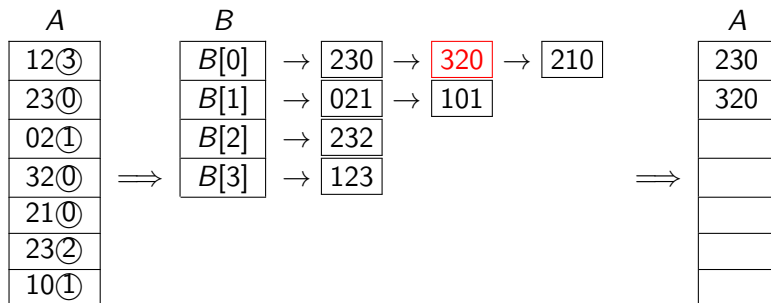
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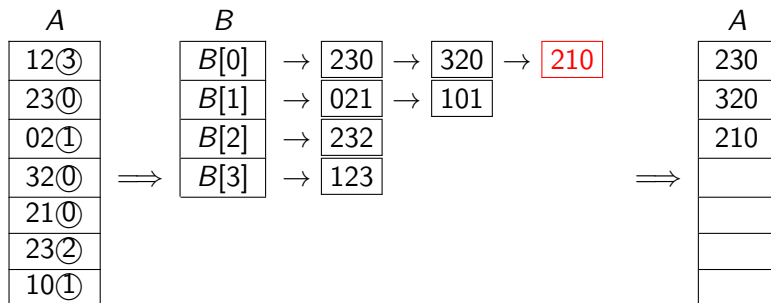
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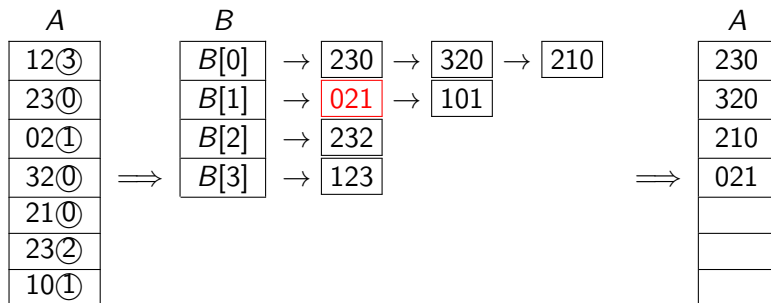
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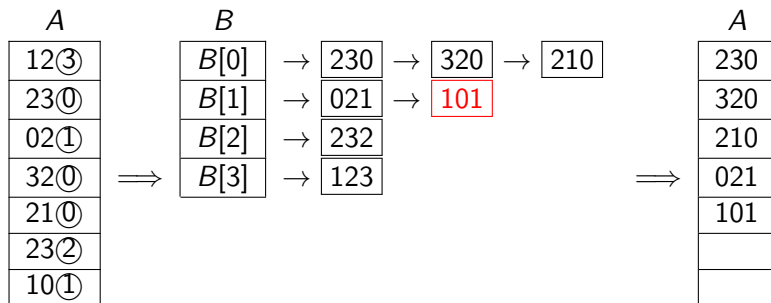
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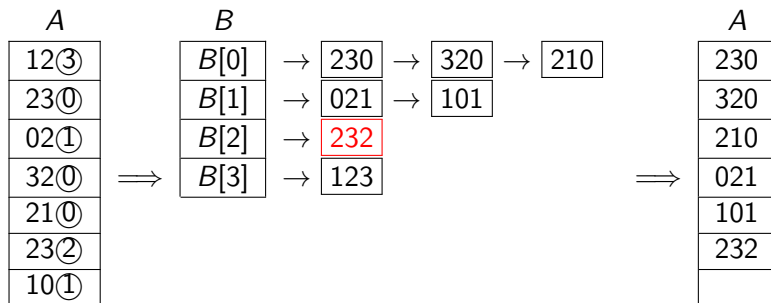
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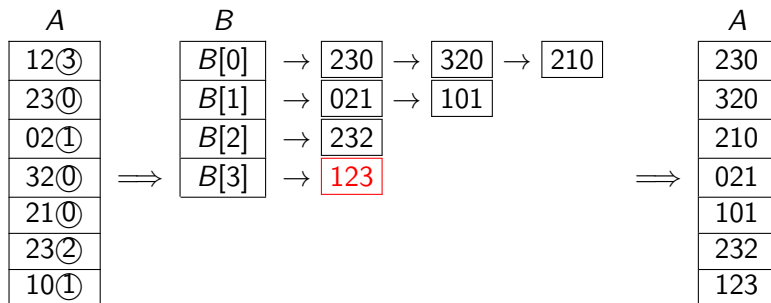
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## (Single-digit) *bucket-sort*

*bucket-sort*( $A, n, \text{sort-key}(\cdot)$ )

$A$ : array of size  $n$

*sort-key*( $\cdot$ ) : maps items of  $A$  to  $\{0, \dots, R-1\}$

1. Initialize an array  $B[0 \dots R-1]$  of empty queues (**buckets**)
2. **for**  $i \leftarrow 0$  to  $n-1$  **do**
3.     Append  $A[i]$  at end of  $B[\text{sort-key}(A[i])]$
4.      $i \leftarrow 0$
5. **for**  $j \leftarrow 0$  to  $R-1$  **do**
6.     **while**  $B[j]$  is non-empty **do**
7.         move front element of  $B[j]$  to  $A[i++]$

- In our example *sort-key*( $A[i]$ ) returns the last digit of  $A[i]$

## (Single-digit) *bucket-sort*

*bucket-sort*( $A, n, \text{sort-key}(\cdot)$ )

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- In our example *sort-key*( $A[i]$ ) returns the last digit of  $A[i]$
- *bucket-sort* is **stable**: equal items stay in original order.
- Run-time  $\Theta(n + R)$ , auxiliary space  $\Theta(n + R)$
- It is possible to replace the lists by arrays  $\rightsquigarrow$  *count-sort* (no details).

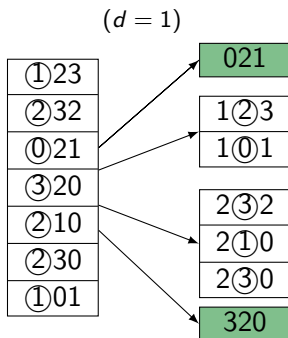
# Most-significant-digit(MSD)-radix-sort

Sort array of  $w$ -digit radix- $R$  numbers recursively:  
sort by 1st digit, then each group by 2nd digit, etc.

|     |
|-----|
| ①23 |
| ②32 |
| ①01 |
| ③20 |
| ②10 |
| ②30 |
| ①01 |

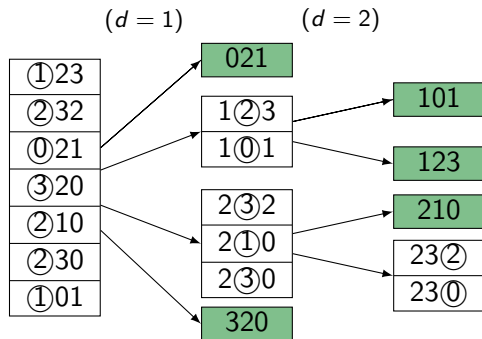
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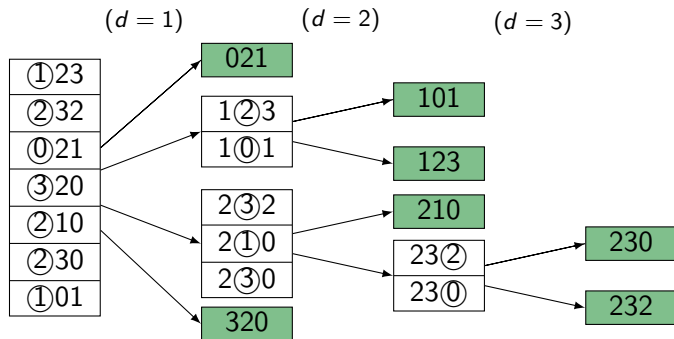
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# MSD-radix-sort

*MSD-radix-sort*( $A, n, d \leftarrow 1$ )

$A$ : array of size  $n$ , contains  $w$ -digit radix- $R$  numbers

1. **if** ( $d \leq w$  and ( $n > 1$ ))
2.     *bucket-sort*( $A, n, \text{'return } d\text{th digit of } A[i]\text{'}$ )
3.      $\ell \leftarrow 0$                                  // find sub-arrays and recurse
4.     **for**  $j \leftarrow 0$  to  $R - 1$
5.         Let  $r \geq \ell - 1$  be maximal s.t.  $A[\ell..r]$  have  $d$ th digit  $j$
6.         *MSD-radix-sort*( $A[\ell..r], r - \ell + 1, d + 1$ )
7.          $\ell \leftarrow r + 1$

## Analysis:

- $\Theta(w)$  levels of recursion in worst-case.
- $\Theta(n)$  subproblems on most levels in worst-case.
- $\Theta(R + (\text{size of sub-array}))$  time for each *bucket-sort* call.

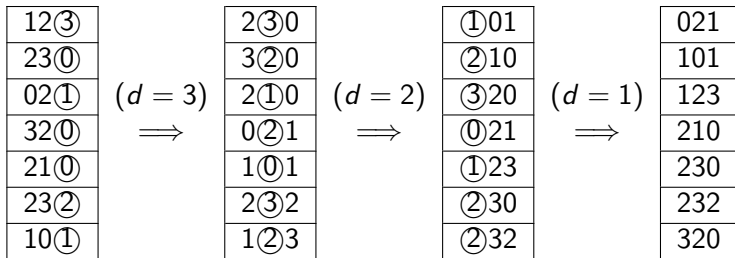
$\Rightarrow$  Run-time  $\Theta(wnR)$  — slow. Many recursions and allocated arrays.

# Least-significant-digit(LSD)-radix-sort

*LSD-radix-sort*( $A, n$ )

$A$ : array of size  $n$ , contains  $m$ -digit radix- $R$  numbers

1. **for**  $d \leftarrow$  least significant to most significant digit **do**
2.     *bucket-sort*( $A, n$ , 'return  $d$ th digit of  $A[i]$ ')



- Loop-invariant:  $A$  is sorted w.r.t. digits  $d, \dots, w$  of each entry.
- **Time cost:**  $\Theta(w(n + R))$      **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
- *heap-sort* is the only  $\Theta(n \log n)$ -time algorithm we have seen with  $O(1)$  auxiliary space.
- *merge-sort* is also  $\Theta(n \log n)$ , selection & insertion sorts are  $\Theta(n^2)$ .
- *quick-sort* is worst-case  $\Theta(n^2)$ , but often the fastest in practice
- *bucket-sort* and *radix-sort* achieve  $o(n \log n)$  if the input is special
- Randomized algorithms can eliminate “bad cases”
- Best-case, worst-case, average-case can all differ.
- Often it is easier to analyze the run-time on randomly chosen input rather than the average-case run-time.