

# Chapter 8 - Sorting in linear time [Cormen 2001]

- We have now seen several algorithms that can sort n number in  $O(n \lg n)$  time

Q: Do you remember which ones?

- In the worst-case scenario { MergeSort  
HeapSort

- In the average-case scenario: QuickSort  
(Recall that in the worst-case scenario QuickSort is  $\Theta(n^2)$ )

- These algorithms share an interesting property:  
The sorted order they determine is based only on  
comparisons between the input elements

- These algorithms are called comparison sorts

## 8.1 - Lower bounds for sorting

- Comparison sort model:

Only uses comparisons between ~~models~~ elements to gain order information about an input sequence

$\langle a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n \rangle$



- That is, given two elements  $a_i$  and  $a_j$  we perform one of the tests:
- $$\begin{cases} a_i < a_j \\ a_i \leq a_j \\ a_i = a_j \text{ (this one is in fact useless)} \\ a_i \geq a_j \\ a_j > a_j \end{cases}$$
- These can all be reduced to comparisons of the form  $a_i \leq a_j$

- We may not inspect the values of the elements or gain order information about them in any other way

### 8.1.1 - The decision-tree model

- All comparison sorts can be viewed abstractly in terms of decision trees
- A decision tree is a full binary tree that represents the comparisons between elements that are performed by a particular sorting algorithm operating on an input of a given size.
- Control, data movement and all other aspects of the algorithm are ignored
- In a decision tree, each internal node is annotated by  $i:j$  for some  $i$  and  $j$  in the range  $1 \leq i, j \leq n$  (the array  $A$  to be sorted goes from index  $1$  to  $n$ )

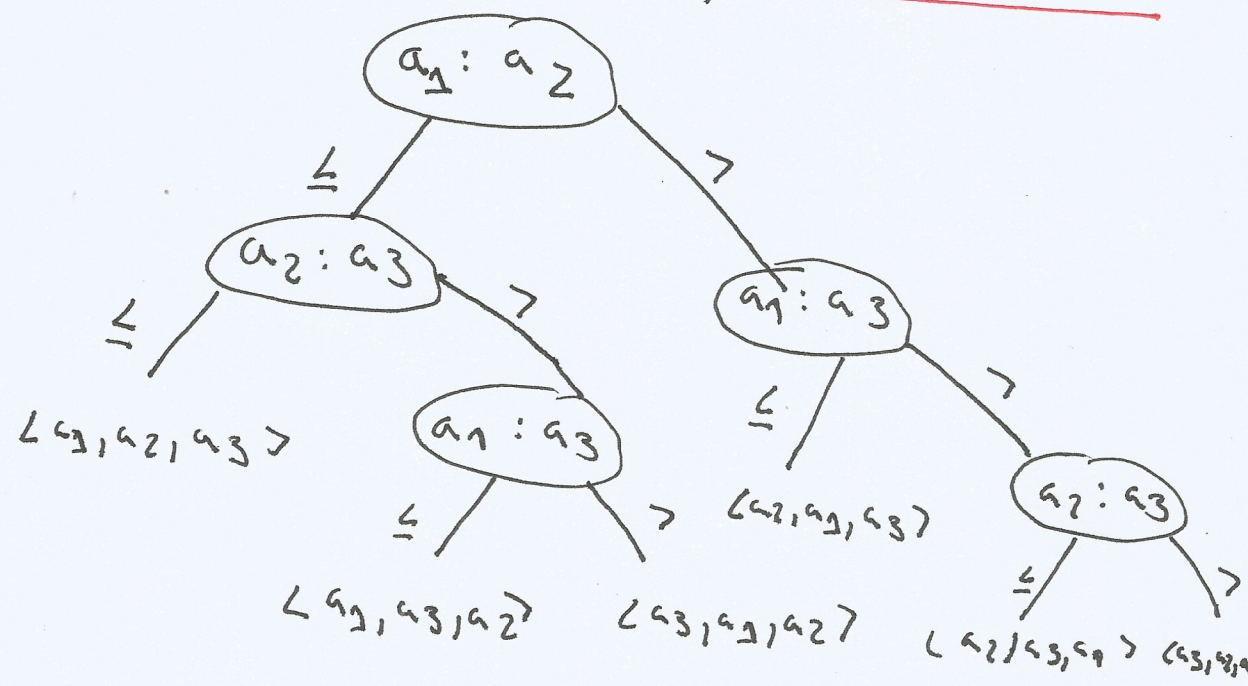


- Each leaf is annotated by a permutation  $\langle \pi(1), \pi(2), \dots, \pi(n) \rangle$   
 ↳ What is a permutation?

- In this case it corresponds to a change of the elements of the array that will result in the sorted version of the array.

- The execution of the sorting algorithm corresponds to tracing a path from the root of the decision tree to a leaf.

- At each internal node a comparison is made:  $a_i \leq a_j$   
 Example: Insertion Sort on an array of three elements



- When we come to a leaf, the sorting algorithm has established the ordering  $a_{\pi(1)} \leq a_{\pi(2)} \leq \dots \leq a_{\pi(n)}$



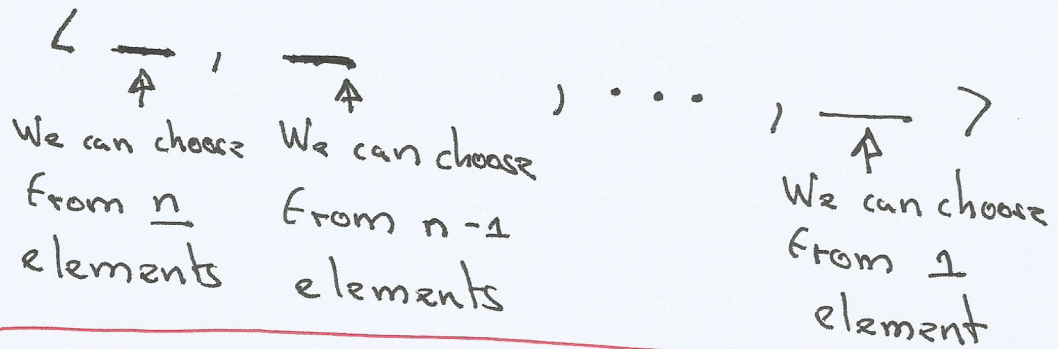
- Any sorting algorithm must be able to produce each permutation of its input

**Question:** How many permutations exist?

For an array of size 2:  $\langle a_1, a_2 \rangle \langle a_2, a_1 \rangle$

for an array of size 3:  $\langle a_1, a_2, a_3 \rangle, \langle a_2, a_3, a_1 \rangle$   
 $\langle a_3, a_1, a_2 \rangle \langle a_2, a_1, a_3 \rangle$   
 $\langle a_1, a_3, a_2 \rangle \langle a_3, a_2, a_1 \rangle$

For any array:



$\therefore n!$  possible permutations

- This means that the decision tree must have at least  $n!$  leaves

8.1.2 A lower bound for the worst case

- Length of the longest path from the root of a decision tree to any of its leaves represents the worst-case number of comparisons



- Consequently, the worst-case number of comparisons for a comparison sort equals the height of its decision tree.

- A lower bound on the heights of all decision trees is therefore a lower bound on the running time of any comparison sort algorithms.

**Question:**  
How can we calculate such a lower bound?

Well we know that:

- Minimum number of leaves should be the total
- Maximum number of leaves for a tree of height  $h$  is  $2^h$
- I.e.  $n! \leq l \leq 2^h$  where  $l$  is the number of leaves

- By taking logarithms on both sides:

$$\log(n!) \leq \log(2^h)$$

$$\Leftrightarrow h \geq \log(n!)$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 - \log(n!) &= \log[n \cdot (n-1) \cdot (n-2) \cdot \dots \cdot 1] \\
 &= \log(n) + \log(n-1) + \log(n-2) + \dots + \log 1 \\
 &= \sum_{k=1}^n \log \left( \frac{n}{k} \right)
 \end{aligned}$$



Notes:  
 $\int u'v = uv - \int uv'$

$$\ln n! = \sum_{k=1}^n \ln k$$

(for large n)  $\approx \int_1^n \ln u \, du = \int_1^n \frac{1}{u'} \cdot \frac{\ln u}{u} \, du = \frac{u \ln u}{u} - \int_1^n \frac{1}{u} \, du$

$$= \left[ u \ln u - \int_1^n 1 \, du \right]_1^n = \left[ u \ln u - u \right]_1^n = n \ln n - n - (1 \ln 1 - 1)$$

$$= n \ln n - n + 1$$

$\therefore_1 \log n! = n \ln n - n + 1$

$\therefore_2 h \geq \log(n!) = n \log n - n + 1 \Rightarrow \Omega(n \log n)$

$\therefore_3$  Theorem 8.1 - Any comparison sort requires  $\Omega(n \log n)$  comparisons in the worst-case

$\therefore_4$  Corollary 8.2:

Heapsort and merge sort are asymptotically optimal comparison sorts

Why?

Merge sort:  $O(n \log n)$   
 Heapsort:  $O(n \log n)$  } This matches the lower-bound  $\Omega(n \log n)$



## 3.2 Counting Sort

- Assumes that each of the  $n$  input elements is an integer in the range  $\underline{0}$  to  $\underline{k}$ .
- When  $k = O(n)$  then the sort runs in  $O(n)$  time
- Idea: 1) Determine, for each input element  $\underline{u}$ , the number of elements less than  $\underline{u}$   
2) This information can be used to place element  $\underline{u}$  directly into its position in the output array  
E.g.: If there are 17 elements less than  $\underline{u}$ , then  $\underline{u}$  belong in output position 18  
Note: This scheme must be modified slightly to handle the situation in which several elements have the same value, since we don't want to put them all in the same position



Counting Sort (A, B, k) {

sorted array

original array

↳ maximum value of the elements to be sorted

for c = 0 : k {

C[c] = 0 // Vector initialization

→ O(k)

}

for j = 1 : length[A] {

→ O(n)

C[A[j]] = C[A[j]] + 1;

// C[c] now contains the number of elements equal to c

}

for i = 1 : k {

→ O(k)

C[i] = C[i] + C[i-1]

// C[c] now contains the number of elements less than or equal to c

}

for j = length[A] : 1 {

// We need to start from the end

B[C[A[j]]] = A[j]

C[A[j]] = ~~C[A[j]]~~ - 1;

→ O(n)

}

}



Example:

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
A =	2	5	3	0	2	3	0	3

$k = 5$

1<sup>st</sup> step

C =	0	1	2	3	4	5
	2	0	2	3	0	1

Maximum element  
→ (calculate the number of elements equal to  $A[i]$ ,  $V_c$ )

2<sup>nd</sup> step

C =	0	1	2	3	4	5
	2	2	4	7	7	8

→ (calculate the number of elements less than or equal to  $A[i]$ ,  $V_c$ )

3<sup>rd</sup> step

$A[8] = 3$ , B =

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
								3

C =

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

4<sup>th</sup> step:

$A[7] = 0$

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
B =		0						3

C =

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

5<sup>th</sup> step:

$A[6] = 3$

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
B =		0				3	3	

C =

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

6<sup>th</sup> step:

$A[5] = 2$

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
B =		0		2		3	3	

C =

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



7th step:

$A[4] = 0$

B =

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

C =

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

8th step:

$A[3] = 3$

B =

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

C =

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

9th step:

$A[2] = 5$

B =

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

C =

0	1	2	3	4	5
0	2	3	4	7	7

10th step:

$A[1] = 2$

B =

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

C =

0	1	2	3	4	5
0	2	2	4	7	7



Question:

How much time does counting sort require?

(Please refer to page 8)

- Total time:  $\Theta(k) + \Theta(n) + \Theta(k) + \Theta(n)$   
 $= \Theta(k + n)$

- What does this mean?

- Notice that if  $k \ll n$  (read as:  $k$  is order  $n$ )  
(or  $k = O(n)$ )

Then  $\Theta(k + n) = \Theta(n + n) = \Theta(n)$

- Counting sort beats the  $\Omega(n \lg n)$  time of comparison sort because no comparisons between input elements occur in the code. Instead, counting sort uses the actual values of the elements to index into an array.

- Counting sort is also stable:

Numbers with the same value appear in the output array in the same order as they do in the input array

Now you ask "why is this important?"

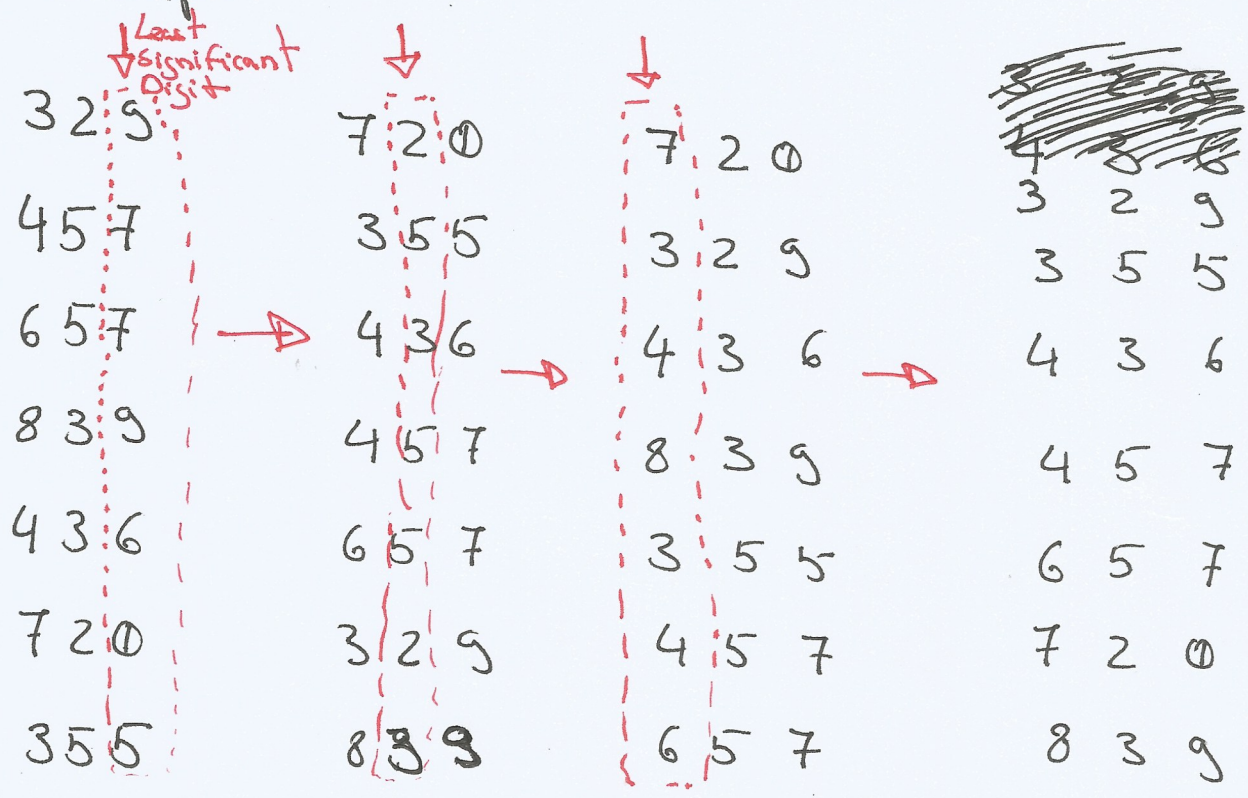
Stability is important when satellite data need to be carried around with the element being sorted.



# 8.3 - Radix Sort

- Sorts  $d$ -digit algorithms
- Solves the problem counterintuitively by sorting on the least significant digit first
- The numbers are sorted again on the second-least significant digit.
- The process continues until all  $d$  digits have been sorted.

- Example:



- Notice that the problem of sorting  $n$  number of  $d$ -digits requires a sorting algorithm that is stable, since we have  $(d-1)$  satellite data that needs to be moved around with the sorted element



Question: Which stable sorting algorithms do you know?

↳ Counting Sort ;)

Radix Sort ( $A, d$ ) {

for  $i=1$  to  $d$ :

Use a stable algorithm (e.g. counting sort)

to sort array  $A$  on digit  $i$

Question:

How much time does Radix Sort require?

- Each digit  $d$  can be viewed as ~~being~~ belonging to  $[0, k-1]$  (i.e. each digit can take on  $k$  possible values)
  - If we use counting sort as the stable algorithm then for each digit we require  $\Theta(n+k)$  time
  - This procedure is repeated for  $d$  digits, which implies  $\Theta(d(n+k))$
  - Notice that when  $d$  is constant and  $k = \Theta(n)$  then we have  $\Theta(d(n+n)) = \Theta(n)$   
 $\downarrow$   
 constant
- fair assumption.