

Sun-Yuan Hsieh 謝孫源 教授 成功大學資訊工程學系

Lower bounds for sorting



Lower bounds

- $ightharpoonup \Omega(n)$ to examine all the input.
- ightharpoonup All sorts seen so far are $\Omega(n \lg n)$.
- ▶ We'll show that $\Omega(n \lg n)$ is a lower bound for comparison sorts.

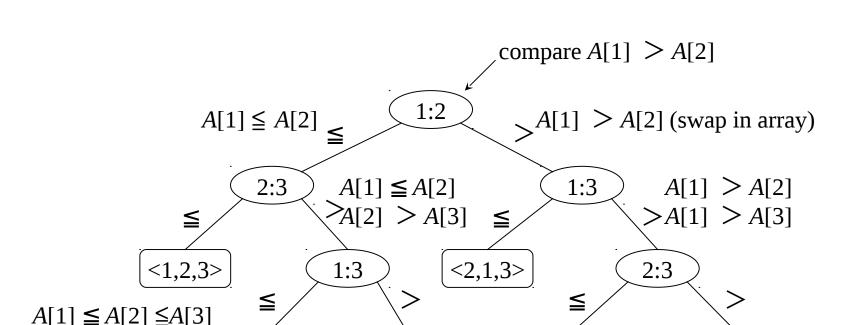




Decision tree

- Abstraction of any comparison sort.
- Represents comparisons made by
 - a specific sorting algorithm
 - on inputs of a given size.
- ► Abstracts away everything else: control and data movement.
- We're counting *only* comparisons.

For insertion sort on 3 elements:



<3,1,2>

<1,3,2>

[Each internal node is labeled by indices of array elements **from their original positions**. Each leaf is labeled by the permutation of orders that the algorithm determines.]

<2,3,1>

<3,2,1>





How many leaves on the decision tree? There are $\geq n!$ leaves, because every permutation appears at least once.

For any comparison sort,

- ▶ 1 tree for each *n*.
- ▶ View the tree as if the algorithm splits in two at each node, based on the information it has determined up to that point.
- ▶ The tree models all possible execution traces.

What is the length of the longest path from root to leaf?

- Depends on the algorithm
- ▶ Insertion sort: $\Theta(n^2)$
- ▶ Merge sort: $\Theta(n \lg n)$





Lemma

Any binary tree of height h has $\leq 2^h$ leaves.

In other words:

- ightharpoonup l = # of leaves,
- \blacktriangleright *h* = height,
- ▶ Then $l \leq 2^h$.





Proof: By induction on h.

Basis: h = 0. Tree is just one node, which is a leaf. $2^h = 1$.

Inductive step: Assume true for height = h - 1.

Extend tree of height h-1 by making as many new leaves as possible. Each leaf becomes parent to two new leaves.

of leaves for height
$$h = 2 \cdot (\# \text{ of leaves for height } h - 1)$$

$$\leq 2 \cdot 2^{h-1} \qquad \text{(ind. hypothesis)}$$

$$= 2^h. \qquad \text{(lemma)}$$

Theorem. Any decision tree that sorts n elements has height $\Omega(n | gn)$

Proof

▶ $l \ge n!$

成功大學

- ▶ By lemma, $n! \le l \le 2^h$ or $2^h \ge n!$
- ▶ Take logs: $h \ge \lg(n!)$
- ▶ Use Stirling's approximation: $n! > (n/e)^n$ (by equation (3.16)) $h \ge \lg(n/e)^n$
 - $= n \lg(n/e)$
 - $= n \lg n n \lg e$
 - $= \Omega(n \lg n)$

(theorem)





Corollary

Heapsort and merge sort are asymptotically optimal comparison sort.

Sorting in linear time





Non-comparison sorts.

Counting sort

Depends on a *key assumption*: numbers to be sorted are integers in $\{0, 1, ..., k\}$.

Input: A[1..n], where $A[j] \subseteq \{0, 1, ..., k\}$ for j = 1, 2, ..., n. Array A and values n and k are given as parameters.

Output: B[1..n], sorted. B is assumed to be already allocated and is given as a parameter.

Auxiliary storage: C[0...k]





COUNTING-SORT(A, B, n, k)

for
$$i \leftarrow 0$$
 to k

$$\mathbf{do} \ C[i] \leftarrow 0$$

for
$$j \leftarrow 1$$
 to n
do $C[A[j]] \leftarrow C[A[j]] + 1$

for
$$i \leftarrow 1$$
 to k

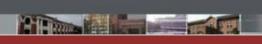
$$\mathbf{do}\ C[i] \leftarrow C[i] + C[i-1]$$

for
$$j \leftarrow n$$
 downto 1

do
$$B[C[A[j]]] \leftarrow A[j]$$

 $C[A[j]] \leftarrow C[A[j]] - 1$



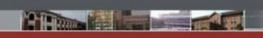


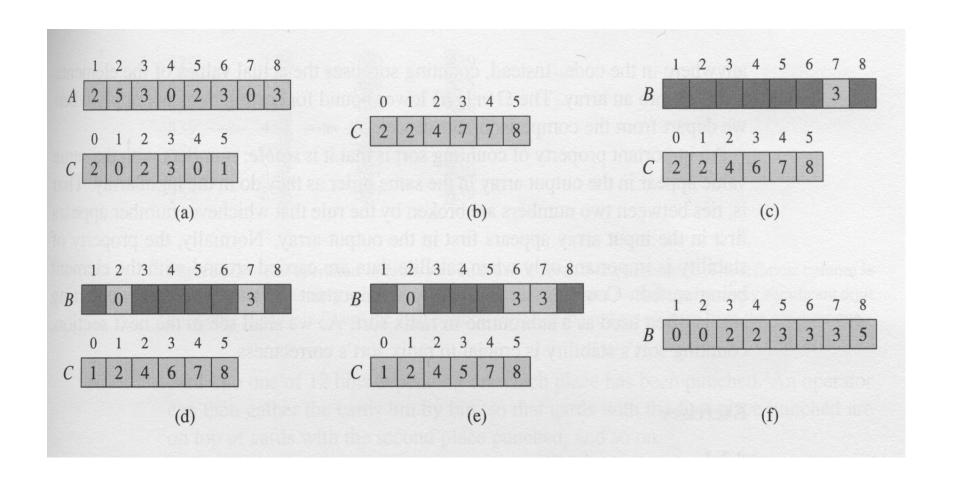
Do an example for $A = 2_1$, 5_1 , 3_1 , 0_1 , 2_2 , 3_2 , 0_2 , 3_3

Counting sort is *stable* (keys with same value appear in same order in output as they did in input) because of how the last loop works.

The operation of Counting-sort on an











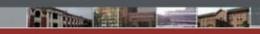
Analysis: $\Theta(n + k)$, which is $\Theta(n)$ if k = O(n).

How big a *k* is practical?

- Good for sorting 32-bit values? No.
- ▶ 16-bit? Probably not.
- ▶ 8-bit? Maybe, depending on *n*.
- ▶ 4-bit? Probably (unless *n* is really small).

Counting sort will be used in radix sort.

Radix sort



Key idea: Sort least significant digits first.

To sort *d* digits:

RADIX-SORT(A, d)

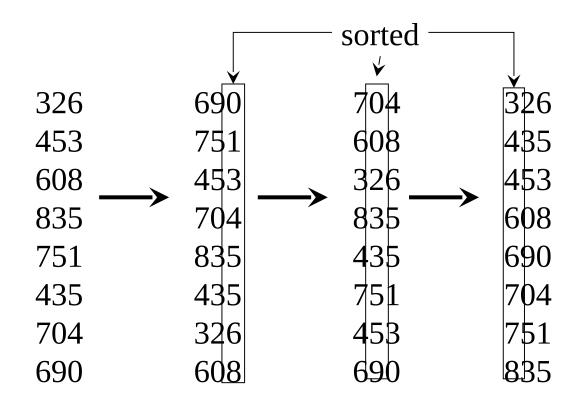
for $i \leftarrow 1$ to d

do use a stable sort to sort array *A* on digit *i*





Example:





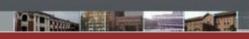


Correctness:

- ▶ Induction on number of passes (*i* in pseudocode).
- Assume digits 1, 2, ..., i 1 are sorted.
- ▶ Show that a stable sort on digit *i* leaves digits 1,..., *i* sorted:
 - ▶ If 2 digits in position i are different, ordering by position i is correct, and positions 1, ..., i 1 are irrelevant.
 - ▶ If 2 digits in position *i* are equal, numbers are already in the right order (by inductive hypothesis). The stable sort on digit *i* leaves them in the right order.

This argument shows why it's so important to use a stable sort for intermediate sort.





Analysis: Assume that we use counting sort as the intermediate sort.

- \triangleright $\Theta(n + k)$ per pass (digits in range 0, ..., k)
- ▶ *d* passes
- $ightharpoonup \Theta(d(n+k))$ total
- ▶ If k = O(n), time = $\Theta(dn)$.



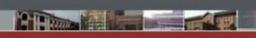


How to break each key into digits?

- ▶ *n* words
- ▶ *b* bits/word
- ▶ Break into *r*-bit digits. Have $d = \|b/r\|$
- ► Use counting sort, $k = 2^r 1$ Example: 32-bit words, 8-bit digits. b=32, r=8, d=32/8=4, k=28-1=255

Time =
$$\Theta \left[\frac{b}{r} (n+2^r) \right]$$





How to choose r? Balance b/r and $n + 2^r$. Choosing $r \approx \lg n$ gives us $\Theta\left[\frac{b}{\lg n}(n+n)\right] = \Theta(bn/\lg n)$

- If we choose $r < \lg n$, then $b/r > b/\lg n$, and $n + 2^r$ term doesn't improve.
- If we choose $r > \lg n$, then $n + 2^r$ term gets big. Example: $r = 2 \lg n \Rightarrow 2^r = 2^{2 \lg n} = (2^{\lg n})^2 = n^2$.
- So, to sort 2^{16} 32-bit numbers, use $r = \lg 2^{16} = 16$ bit. $\lfloor b/r \rfloor$ = 2 passes.

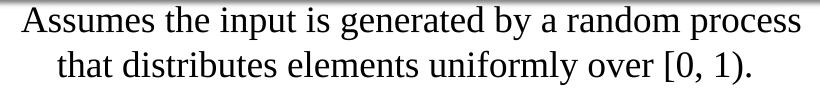
Compare radix sort to merge sort and quicksort:

- ▶ 1 million (2²⁰) 32-bit integers.
- Radix sort: [32/20] = 2 passes.
- ► Merge sort/quicksort: lg n = 20 passes.
- ▶ Remember, though, that each radix sort "pass" is really 2 passes—one to take census, and one to move data.

How does radix sort violate the ground rules for a comparison sort?

- ▶ Using counting sort allows us to gain information about keys by means other than directly comparing 2 keys.
- Used keys as array indices.

Bucket sort



Idea:

- ightharpoonup Divide [0, 1) into *n* equal-sized *buckets*.
- Distribute the *n* input values into the buckets.
- Sort each bucket.
- ▶ Then go through buckets in order, listing elements in each one.





Input: A[1..n], where $0 \le A[i] < 1$ for all i.

Auxiliary array: B[0..n - 1] of linked lists, each list initially empty.

BUCKET-SORT(A, n)

for $i \leftarrow 1$ to n

do insert A[i] into list $B \left[\begin{bmatrix} n \cdot A[i] \end{bmatrix} \right]$

for $i \leftarrow 0$ to n - 1

do sort list B[i] with insertion sort

concatenate lists B[0], B[1], ..., B[n-1] together in order

return the concatenated lists





- **Correctness:** Consider A[i], A[j]. Assume without loss of generality that $A[i] \le A[j]$. Then $[n \cdot A[i]] \le [n \cdot A[j]]$. So A[i] is placed into the same bucket as A[j] or into a bucket with a lower index.
- ▶ If same bucket, insertion sort fixes up.
- ▶ If earlier bucket, concatenation of lists fixes up.

Analysis:



- Relies on no bucket getting too many values.
- ▶ All lines of algorithm except insertion sorting take $\Theta(n)$ altogether.
- ► Intuitively, if each bucket gets a constant number of elements, it takes O(1) time to sort each bucket $\stackrel{\Rightarrow}{}$ O(n) sort time for all buckets.
- ▶ We "expect" each bucket to have few elements, since the average is 1 element per bucket.
- But we need to do a careful analysis.





Define a random variable:

 $ightharpoonup n_i$ = the number of elements placed in bucket B[i].

Because insertion sort runs in quadratic time, bucket sort time is $T(n) = \Theta(n) + \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} O(n_i^2)$

Take expectations of both sides:

$$E[T(n)] = E \left[\Theta(n) + \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} O(n_i^2)\right]$$

$$= \Theta(n) + \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} E[O(n_i^2)] \qquad \text{(linearity of expectation)}$$

$$= \Theta(n) + \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} O(E[n_i^2]) \qquad (E[aX] = aE[X])$$





Claim

$$E[n_i^2] = 2 - (1/n)$$
 for $i = 0, ..., n - 1$.

Proof of claim

Define indicator random variables:

- $ightharpoonup X_{ij} = I\{A[j] \text{ falls in bucket } i\}$
- $ightharpoonup \Pr\{A[j_n] \text{ falls in bucket } i\} = 1/n$





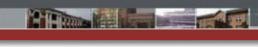
Then

$$E[n_i^2] = E \begin{bmatrix} \sum_{j=1}^n X_{ij} \end{bmatrix}^2 \begin{bmatrix} \sum_{j=1}^n X_{ij} \end{bmatrix}^2 \begin{bmatrix} \sum_{j=1}^n X_{ij} X_{ij} X_{ik} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= E \begin{bmatrix} \sum_{j=1}^n X_{ij}^2 + 2 \sum_{j=1}^{n-1} \sum_{k=j+1}^n X_{ij} X_{ik} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= \sum_{j=1}^n E[X_{ij}^2] + 2 \sum_{j=1}^{n-1} \sum_{k=j+1}^n E[X_{ij} X_{ik}] \quad \text{(linearity of expectation)}$$





$$E[X_{ij}^{2}] = 0^{2} \cdot Pr[A[j] \text{ doesn't fall in bucket } i] + 1^{2} \cdot Pr[A[j] \text{ falls in bucket } i]$$

$$= 0 \cdot \left[1 - \frac{1}{n}\right] + 1 \cdot \frac{1}{n}$$

$$= \frac{1}{n}$$

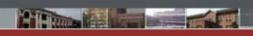
 $E[X_{ij}X_{ik}]$ for $j \neq k$: Since $j \neq k$, X_{ij} and X_{ik} are independent random variables

$$\Rightarrow E[X_{ij}X_{ik}] = E[X_{ij}]E[X_{ik}]$$

$$= \frac{1}{n} \cdot \frac{1}{n}$$

$$= \frac{1}{n} \cdot \frac{1}{n}$$





Therefore:

$$E[n_i^2] = \sum_{j=1}^n \frac{1}{n} + 2 \sum_{j=1}^{n-1} \sum_{k=j+1}^n \frac{1}{n^2}$$

$$= n \cdot \frac{1}{n} + 2 \left\| \frac{1}{n} \right\| \frac{1}{n^2}$$

$$= 1 + \frac{n-1}{n}$$

$$= 1 + 1 - \frac{1}{n}$$

$$= 2 - \frac{1}{n}$$

(claim)

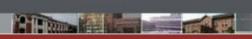




Therefore:

$$E[T(n)] = \Theta(n) + \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} O(2-1/n)$$
$$= \Theta(n) + O(n)$$
$$= \Theta(n)$$





- Again, not a comparison sort. Used a function of key values to index into an array.
- ▶ This is a *probabilistic analysis*—we used probability to analyze an algorithm whose running time depends on the distribution of inputs.
- ▶ Different from a *randomized algorithm*, where we use randomization to impose a distribution.
- ▶ With bucket sort, if the input isn't drawn from a uniform distribution on [0,1), all bets are off (performance-wise, but the algorithm is still correct).