

# Design and Analysis of Algorithms

## Part I: Divide and Conquer

### Lecture 9: Heapsort, Lower Bound for Sorting and Sorting in Linear Time



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# Outline

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- Review to Divide-and-Conquer Paradigm
- Heapsort
  - Priority Queues
  - (Binary) Heap
  - Heapsort
- Lower Bound for Comparison-based Sorting
  - Objective
  - Decision Tree Model
- Sorting in Linear Time
  - Counting Sort

# Review to Divide-and-Conquer Paradigm

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- **Divide-and-conquer** (D&C) is an important algorithm design paradigm.
  - **Divide**  
Dividing a given problem into two or more subproblems (ideally of approximately equal size)
  - **Conquer**  
Solving each subproblem (directly if small enough or **recursively**)
  - **Combine**  
Combining the solutions of the subproblems into a global solution

# Review to Divide-and-Conquer Paradigm

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- In Part I, we will illustrate Divide-and-Conquer using several examples:
  - Maximum Contiguous Subarray (最大子数组)
  - Counting Inversions (逆序计数)
  - Polynomial Multiplication (多项式乘法)
  - QuickSort and Partition (快速排序与划分)
  - Randomized Selection (随机化选择)
  - Supplement Topic of Sorting (排序问题补充主题)
    - Heapsort (堆排序)
    - Lower Bound for Sorting (基于比较的排序下界)
    - Sorting in Linear Time (线性时间排序)

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# Priority Queue: Motivating Example

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3 jobs have been submitted to a printer in the order A, B, C. Consider the printing pool at this moment.

Sizes: Job A — 100 pages

Job B — 10 pages

Job C — 1 page



Average finish time with FIFO service:

$$(100 + 110 + 111) / 3 = 107 \text{ time units}$$

Average finish time for shortest-job-first service:

$$(1 + 11 + 111) / 3 = 41 \text{ time units}$$

# Priority Queue: Motivating Example

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- The elements in the queue are printing jobs, each with the associated number of pages that serves as its priority
- Processing the shortest job first corresponds to extracting the smallest element from the queue
- Insert new printing jobs as they arrive

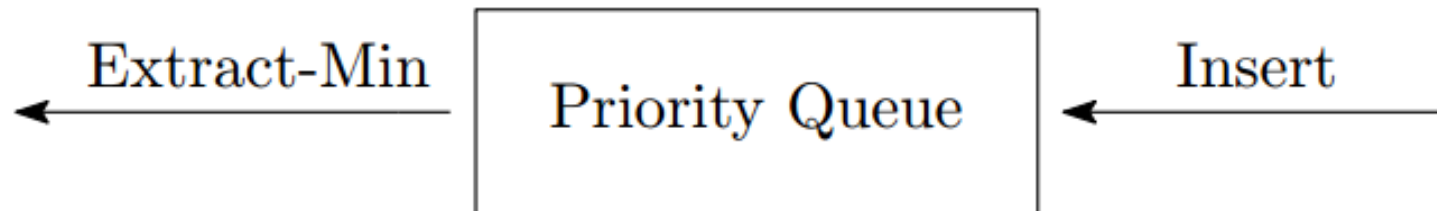
A queue is capable of supporting two operations: **Insert** and **Extract-Min**?

# Priority Queue

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Priority queue is an abstract data structure that supports two operations

- Insert: inserts the new element into the queue
- Extract-Min: removes and returns the smallest element from the queue





# Possible Implementations

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- Unsorted list + a pointer to the smallest element
  - **Insert** in  $O(1)$  time
  - **Extract-Min** in  $O(n)$  time, since it requires a linear scan to find the new minimum
- Sorted array
  - **Insert** in  $O(n)$  time
  - **Extract-Min** in  $O(1)$  time
- Sorted doubly linked list
  - **Insert** in  $O(n)$  time
  - **Extract-Min** in  $O(1)$  time

## Question

Is there any data structure that supports both these priority queue operations in  $O(\log n)$  time?

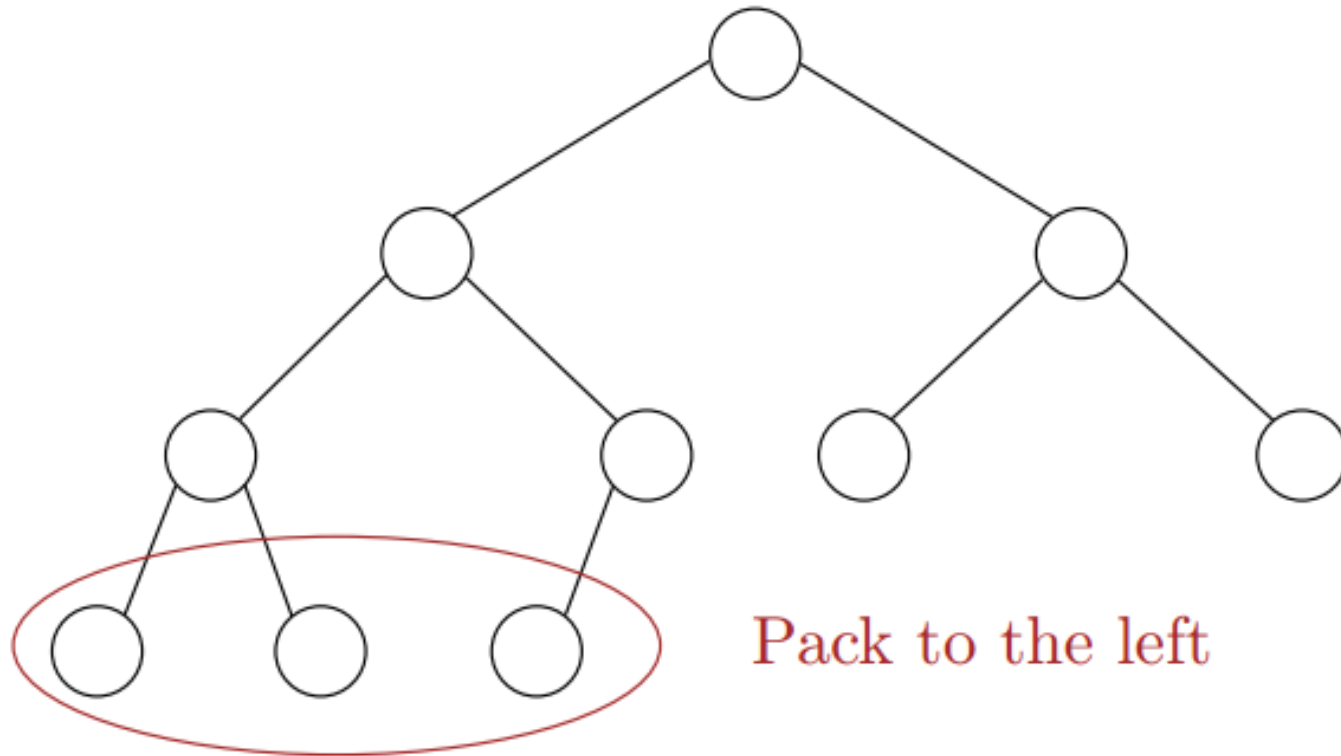
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# (Binary) Heap

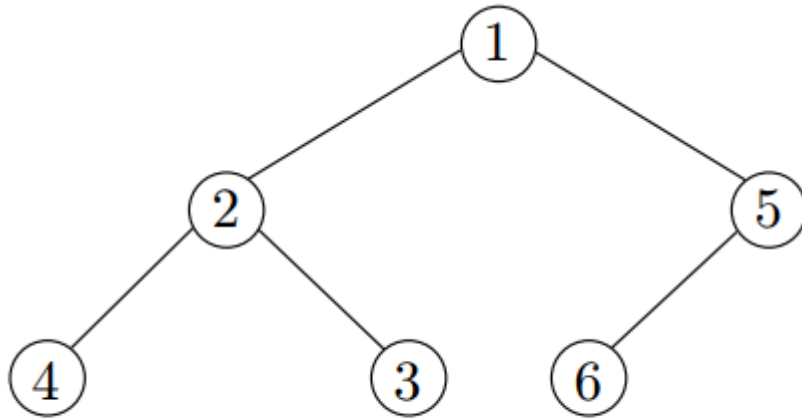
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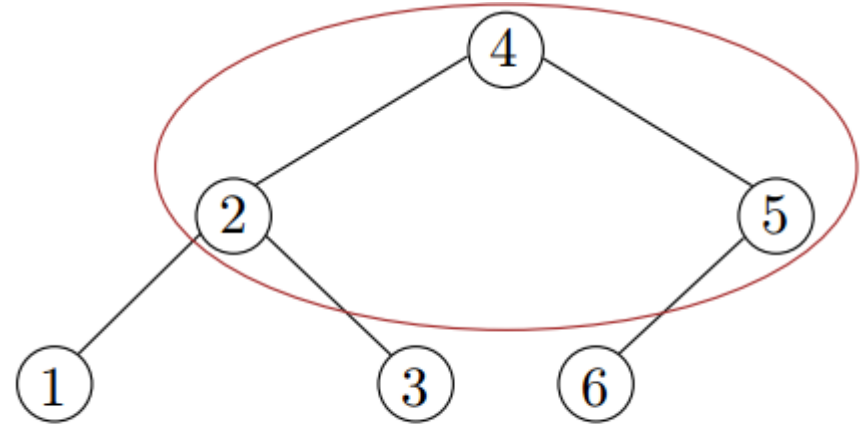
Heaps are "almost complete binary trees"

- All levels are full except possibly the lowest level.
- If the lowest level is not full, then nodes must be packed to the left.

# Heap-order Property



A min-heap



Not a heap

Heap-order property (*Min-heap*):

The value of a node is at least the value of its parent.

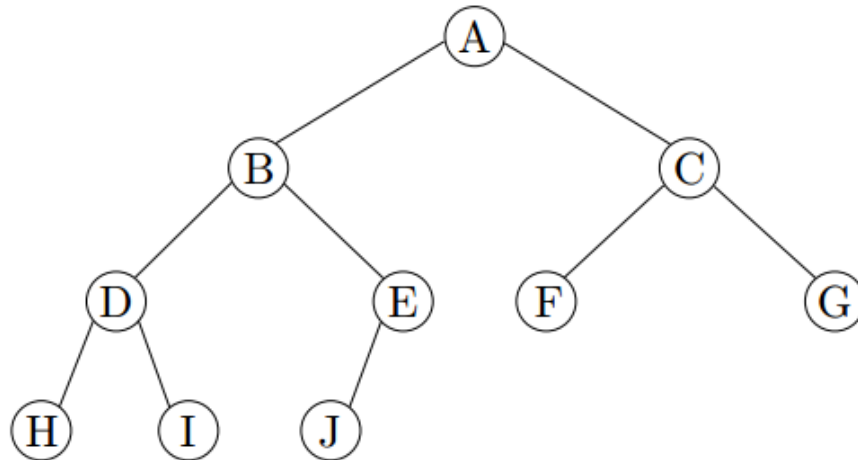
$$A[\text{Parent}(i)] \leq A[i]$$

# Heap Properties

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- If the heap-order property is maintained, heaps support the following operations efficiently (assume there are  $n$  elements in the heap)
  - **Insert** in  $O(\log n)$  time
  - **Extract-Min** in  $O(\log n)$  time
- Structure properties
  - A heap of height  $h$  has between  $2^h$  to  $2^{h+1}-1$  nodes. Thus, an  $n$ -element heap has height  $\Theta(\log n)$ .
  - The structure is so regular, it can be represented in an array and no links are necessary !

# Array Implementation of Heap

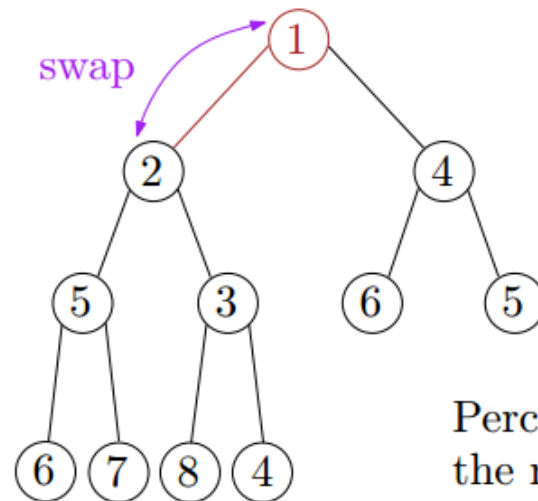


1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H	I	J

- The root is in array position 1.
- For any element in array position  $i$ ,
  - The left child is in position  $2i$ .
  - The right child is in position  $2i+1$ .
  - The parent is in position  $\lfloor i/2 \rfloor$ .
- We will draw the heaps as trees, with the understanding that an actual implementation will use simple arrays.

# Insertion

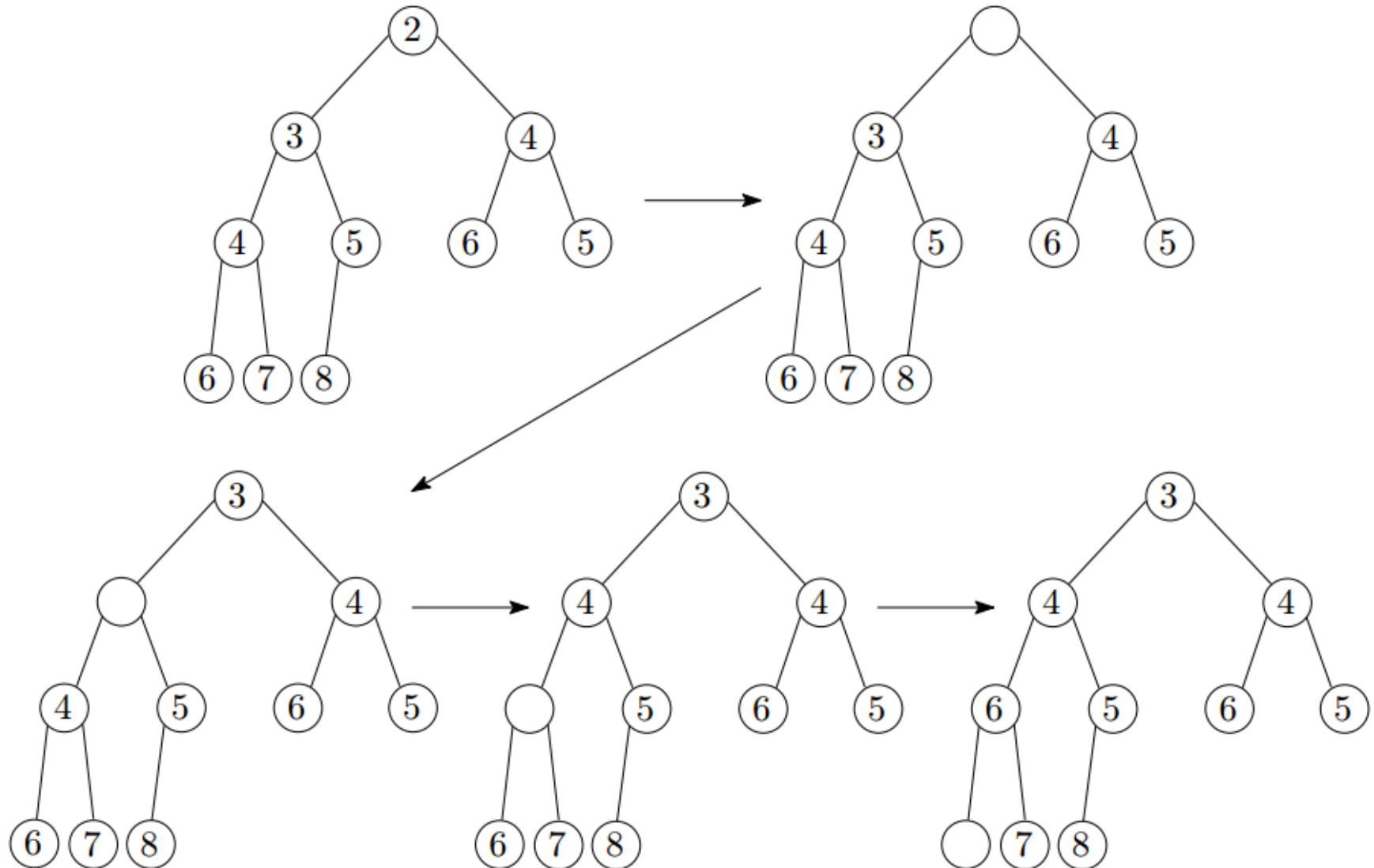
- Add the new element to the next available position at the lowest level
- Restore the min-heap property if violated
  - General strategy is percolate up (or bubble up): if the parent of the element is larger than the element, then interchange the parent with child.



Percolate up to maintain  
the min-heap property

- Correctness: after each swap, the min-heap property is satisfied for the subtree rooted at the new element
- Time complexity =  $O(\text{height}) = O(\log n)$

# Extract-Min: First Attempt

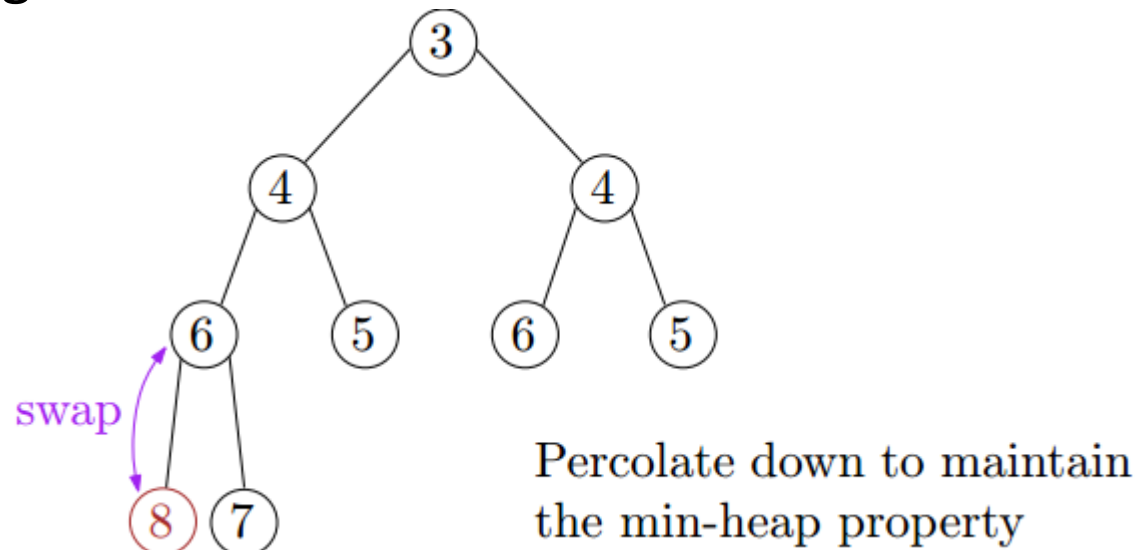


Min-heap property preserved, but completeness not preserved!



# Extract-Min

- Copy the last element to the root (i.e., overwrite the minimum element stored there)
- Restore the min-heap property by percolate down (or bubble down): if the element is larger than either of its children, then interchange it with the smaller of its children.



- Correctness: after each swap, the min-heap property is satisfied for all nodes except the node containing the element (with respect to its children)
- Time complexity =  $O(\text{height}) = O(\log n)$

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# Heapsort

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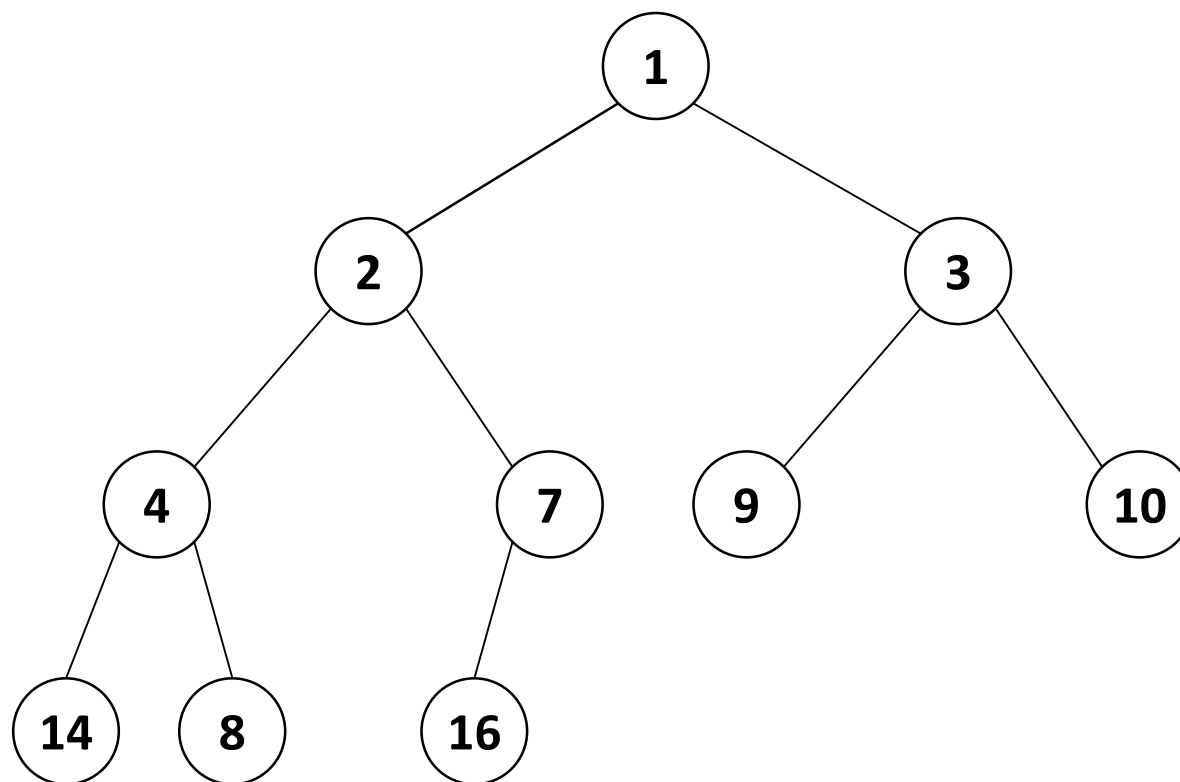
- Build a binary heap of  $n$  elements
  - the minimum element is at the top of the heap
  - insert  $n$  elements one by one
    - $O(n \log n)$
    - (there is a more efficient way, check CLRS 6.3 if interested)
- Perform  $n$  **Extract-Min** operations
  - the elements are extracted in sorted order
  - each **Extract-Min** operation takes  $O(\log n)$  time
    - $O(n \log n)$
- Total time complexity:  $O(n \log n)$

# Heapsort - Example

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- Build a binary heap of n elements

1	2	3	4	7	9	10	14	8	16
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# Heapsort - Example

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- Perform  $n$  Extract-Min operations

<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>7</b>	<b>8</b>	<b>9</b>	<b>10</b>	<b>14</b>	<b>16</b>
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# Summary

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- Priority queue is an abstract data structure that supports two operations: **Insert** and **Extract-Min**.
- If priority queues are implemented using heaps, then these two operations are supported in  $O(\log n)$  time.
- Heapsort takes  $O(n \log n)$  time, which is as efficient as merge sort and quicksort.

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# Objective

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- All sorting algorithms seen so far are based on comparing elements
  - E.g., insertion sort, merge sort, and heapsort
- Insertion sort has worst-case running time  $\Theta(n^2)$ , while the others have worst-case running time  $\Theta(n \log n)$

## Question

Can we do better?

## Goal

We will prove that any **comparison-based sorting algorithm** has a worst-case running time  $\Omega(n \log n)$ .



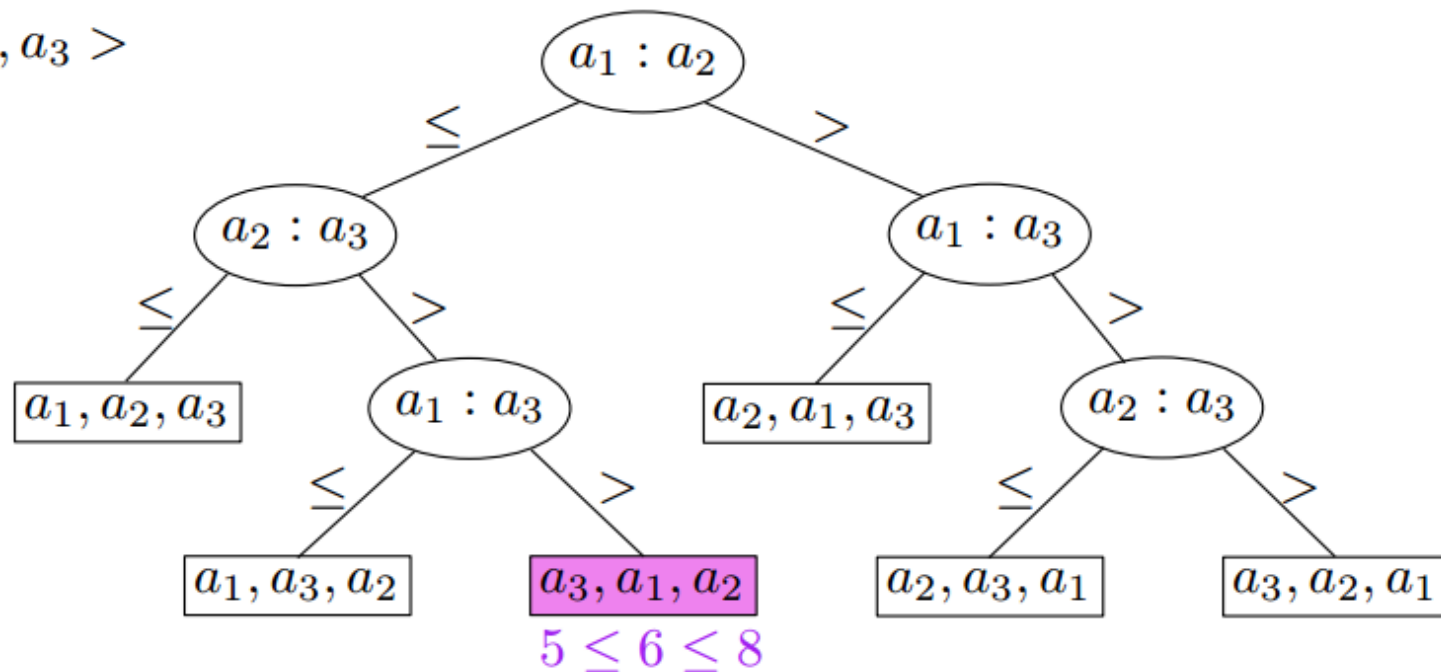
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# Decision-tree Model

Sort  $\langle a_1, a_2, a_3 \rangle$   
 $= \langle 6, 8, 5 \rangle$ :



- Each internal node is labeled  $a_i : a_j$  for  $\{1, 2, \dots, n\}$ 
  - The left subtree shows subsequent comparisons if  $a_i \leq a_j$
  - The right subtree shows subsequent comparisons if  $a_i > a_j$
- Each leaf corresponds to an input ordering

# Decision-tree Model

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A decision tree can model the execution of any comparison-based sorting algorithm

- One tree for each input size  $n$
- Worst-case running time = height of tree

# Lower Bound for Sorting

## Theorem

*Any comparison-based sorting algorithm requires  $\Omega(n \log n)$  comparisons.*

## Proof.

- A decision tree to sort  $n$  elements must have at least  $n!$  leaves, since there are  $n!$  possible orderings.
- A binary tree of height  $h$  has at most  $2^h$  leaves
- Thus,  $n! \leq 2^h$   
 $\Rightarrow h \geq \log n! = \Omega(n \log n)$  (proved in previous lecture)



## Corollary

*Heapsort and merge sort are asymptotically optimal comparison-based sorting algorithms.*

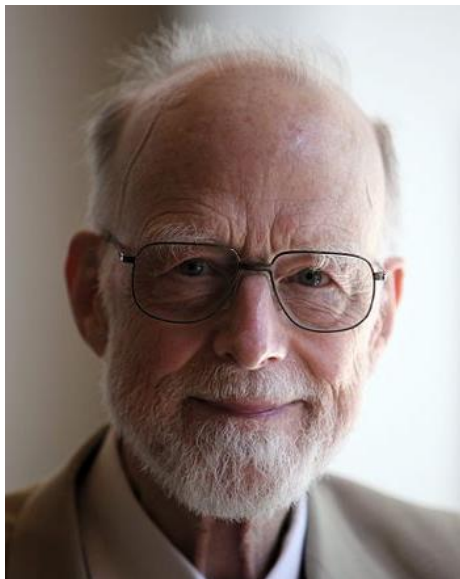
# Summary

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**John von Neumann**

**Merge Sort Algorithm  
was invented in 1945**



**Tony Hoare**

**Quicksort Algorithm  
was invented in 1959**



**J. W. J. Williams**

**Heapsort Algorithm  
was invented in 1964**

**Can we do better for the sorting problem?**

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- **Sorting in Linear Time**
  - **Counting Sort**

# Main Ideas

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- Counting sort determines, for each input element  $x$ , the number of elements less than  $x$ .
- It uses this information to place element  $x$  directly into its position in the output array.
  - For example, if 17 elements are less than  $x$ , then  $x$  belongs in output position 18.

# Counting Sort

Counting-Sort( $A, B, k$ )

**Input:**  $A[1...n]$  where  $A[j] \in \{1, 2, \dots, k\}$

**Output:**  $B[1...n]$ , sorted

let  $C[1...k]$  be a new array;

**for**  $i \leftarrow 1$  *to*  $k$  **do**

$C[i] \leftarrow 0$ ;

**end**

**for**  $j \leftarrow 1$  *to*  $n$  **do**

$C[A[j]] \leftarrow C[A[j]] + 1$ ; //  $C[i] = |\{key = i\}|$

**end**

**for**  $i \leftarrow 2$  *to*  $k$  **do**

$C[i] \leftarrow C[i] + C[i - 1]$ ; //  $C[i] = |\{key \leq i\}|$

**end**

**for**  $j \leftarrow n$  *to*  $1$  **do**

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

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

**end**

**return**  $B$ ;



# Counting Sort

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end  
for  $j \leftarrow 1$  to  $n$  do  
    |  $C[A[j]] \leftarrow C[A[j]] + 1$ ; //  $C[i] = |\{key = i\}|$   
end  
for  $i \leftarrow 2$  to  $k$  do  
    |  $C[i] \leftarrow C[i] + C[i - 1]$ ; //  $C[i] = |\{key \leq i\}|$   
end  
for  $j \leftarrow n$  to  $1$  do  
    |  $B[C[A[j]]] \leftarrow A[j]$ ;  
    |  $C[A[j]] \leftarrow C[A[j]] - 1$ ;  
end  
return  $B$ ;
```

# Example: Counting Sort

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	1	2	3	4	5
<i>A</i>	4	2	1	4	2

	1	2	3	4
<i>C</i>				

<i>B</i>					
----------	--	--	--	--	--

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|  $B[C[A[j]]] \leftarrow A[j]$ ;  
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**end**

**return**  $B$ ;

# Example: Counting Sort

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	1	2	3	4	5
<i>A</i>	4	2	1	4	2

	1	2	3	4
<i>C</i>	0	0	0	0

<i>B</i>					
----------	--	--	--	--	--

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for  $i \leftarrow 1$  to  $k$  do  
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**end**

**return**  $B$ ;

# Example: Counting Sort

---

	1	2	3	4	5
$A$	4	2	1	4	2

	1	2	3	4
$C$	1	2	0	2

$B$					
-----	--	--	--	--	--

```
for  $j \leftarrow 1$  to  $n$  do  
  |  $C[A[j]] \leftarrow C[A[j]] + 1;$  //  $C[i] = |\{key = i\}|$   
end
```

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$C[i] \leftarrow C[i] + C[i - 1]$ ; //  $C[i] = |\{key \leq i\}|$

**end**

**for**  $j \leftarrow n$  *to*  $1$  **do**

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

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

**end**

**return**  $B$ ;

# Example: Counting Sort

---

	1	2	3	4	5
<i>A</i>	4	2	1	4	2

	1	2	3	4
<i>C</i>	1	2	0	2

<i>B</i>					
----------	--	--	--	--	--

<i>C'</i>	1	3	3	5
-----------	---	---	---	---

**for**  $i \leftarrow 2$  *to*  $k$  **do**

$C[i] \leftarrow C[i] + C[i - 1];$  //  $C[i] = |\{key \leq i\}|$

**end**



# Counting Sort

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**end**

**for**  $j \leftarrow n$  *to*  $1$  **do**

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

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

**end**

**return**  $B$ ;

# Example: Counting Sort

	1	2	3	4	5
$A$	4	2	1	4	2

	1	2	3	4
$C$	1	3	3	5

$B$	1	2	2	4	4
-----	---	---	---	---	---

	1	2	3	4
$C'$	0	1	3	3

```

for  $j \leftarrow n$  to 1 do
  |  $B[C[A[j]]] \leftarrow A[j];$ 
  |  $C[A[j]] \leftarrow C[A[j]] - 1;$ 
end
  
```

# Analysis

---

## Counting-Sort( $A, B, k$ )

**Input:**  $A[1...n]$  where  $A[j] \in \{1, 2, \dots, k\}$

**Output:**  $B[1...n]$ , sorted

let  $C[1...k]$  be a new array;

**for**  $i \leftarrow 1$  **to**  $k$  **do**

$C[i] \leftarrow 0$ ;  $//O(k)$

**end**

**for**  $j \leftarrow 1$  **to**  $n$  **do**

$C[A[j]] \leftarrow C[A[j]] + 1$ ;  $//O(n)$

**end**

**for**  $i \leftarrow 2$  **to**  $k$  **do**

$C[i] \leftarrow C[i] + C[i - 1]$ ;  $//O(k)$

**end**

**for**  $j \leftarrow n$  **to**  $1$  **do**

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

$C[A[j]] \leftarrow C[A[j]] - 1$ ;  $//O(n)$

**end**

**return**  $B$ ;

Total:  $O(n + k)$

# Running Time

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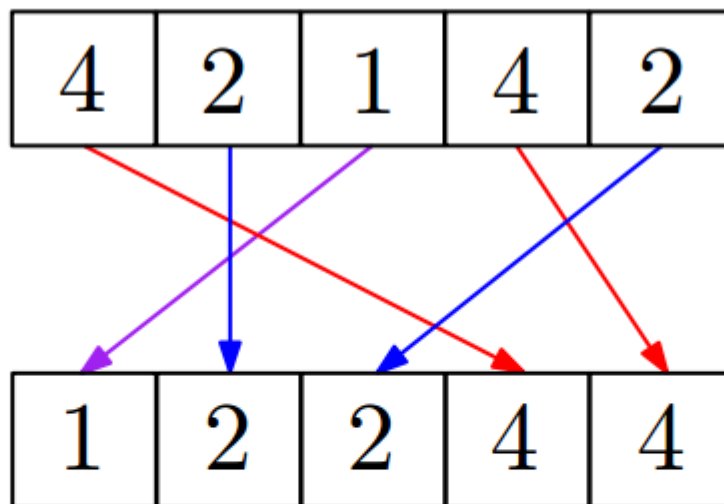
If  $k = O(n)$ , then counting sort takes  $O(n)$  time.

- But didn't we prove that sorting must take  $\Omega(n \log n)$  time?
- No, actually we proved that any comparison-based sorting algorithm takes  $\Omega(n \log n)$  time.
- Note that counting sort is not a comparison-based sorting algorithm.
- In fact, it makes no comparison at all!

# Stable Sorting

Counting sort is a **stable** sort

- it preserves the input order among equal elements.



## Exercise

What other sorts have this property?

# 谢谢

