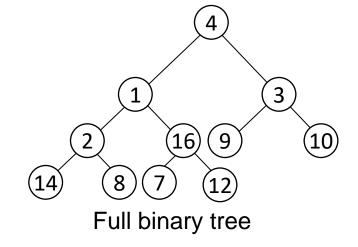
**CS-204** 

Sorting

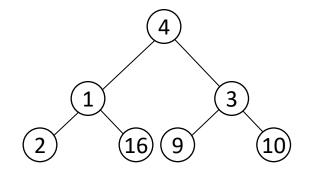
# **Heap Sort**

### **Special Types of Trees**

• Def: Full binary tree = a binary tree in which each node is either a leaf or has degree exactly 2.



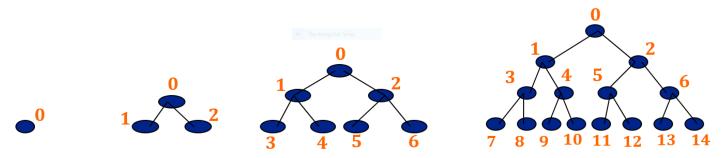
• Def: Complete binary tree = a binary tree in which all leaves are on the same level and all internal nodes have degree 2.



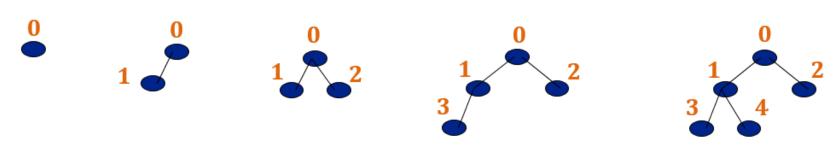
Complete binary tree

# Almost Complete Binary Tree

 Canonical labeling of nodes: Label the Nodes in the levelwise fashion from left to right, as shown below

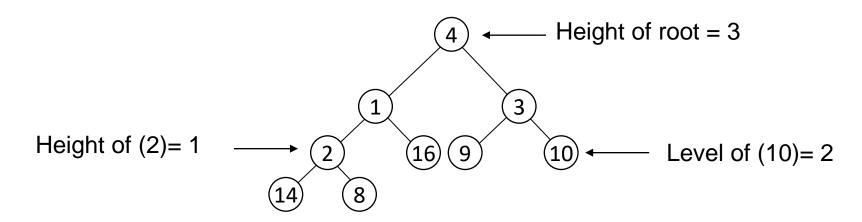


 Almost Complete Binary Tree: A binary tree made up of the first n nodes of a canonically labeled complete Binary Tree is called Almost Complete Binary Tree.



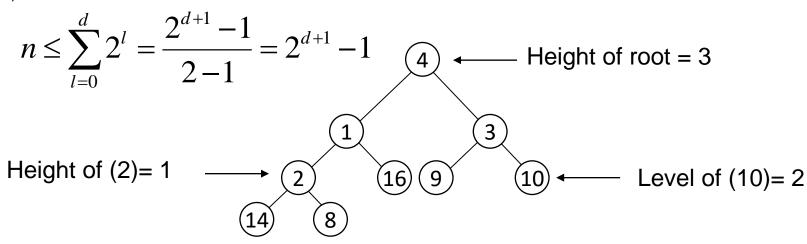
### **Definitions**

- Height of a node = the number of edges on the longest simple path from the node down to a leaf
- Level of a node = the length of a path from the root to the node
- Height of tree = height of root node



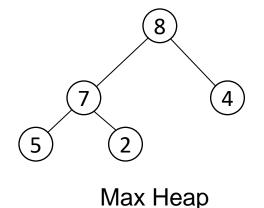
# **Useful Properties**

- ➤ There are at most 2<sup>1</sup> nodes at level (or depth) I of a binary tree
- ➤ A binary tree with maximum level d has at most 2<sup>d+1</sup> 1 nodes



# The Heap Data Structure

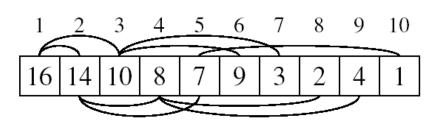
- **Def:** A **heap** is an <u>almost complete</u> binary tree with the following two properties:
  - Structural property: all levels are full, except possibly the last one, which is filled from left to right
  - Max heap property: for any node x, Parent(x)  $\geq x$

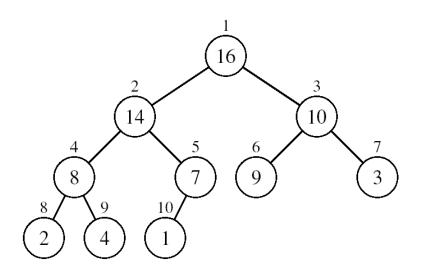


From the heap property, it follows that: The root is the maximum element of the mx-heap

# Array Representation of Heaps

- A heap can be stored as an array
   A.
  - Root of tree is A[1]
  - Left child of A[i] = A[2i]
  - Right child of A[i] = A[2i + 1]
  - Parent of  $A[i] = A[\lfloor i/2 \rfloor]$
  - Heapsize[A] ≤ length[A]
- The elements in the subarray  $A[(\lfloor n/2 \rfloor +1) ... n]$  are leaves





### **Heap Types**

- Max-heaps (largest element at root), have the max-heap property:
  - for all nodes i, excluding the root:

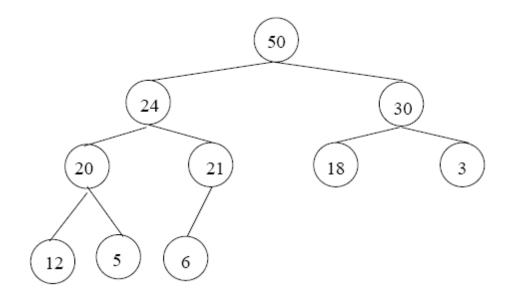
$$A[PARENT(i)] \ge A[i]$$

- Min-heaps (smallest element at root), have the min-heap property:
  - for all nodes i, excluding the root:

$$A[PARENT(i)] \leq A[i]$$

# Adding/Deleting Nodes

- New nodes are always inserted at the bottom level (left to right)
- Nodes are removed from the bottom level (right to left)

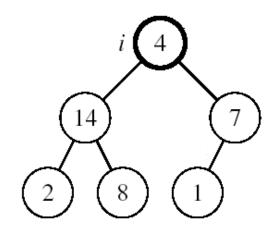


### Operations on Heaps

- Maintain/Restore the max-heap property
  - MAX-HEAPIFY
- Create a max-heap from an unordered array
  - BUILD-MAX-HEAP
- Sort an array in place
  - HEAPSORT

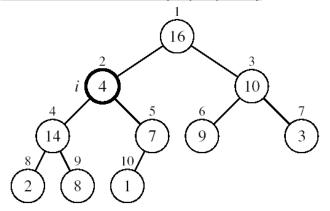
### Maintaining the Heap Property

- Suppose a node is smaller than a child
  - Left and Right subtrees of i are max-heaps
- To eliminate the violation:
  - Exchange with larger child
  - Move down the tree
  - Continue until node is not smaller than children

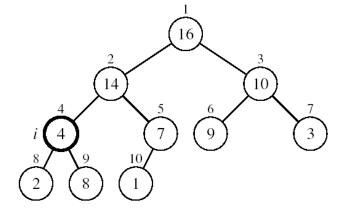


# Example

#### MAX-HEAPIFY(A, 2, 10)

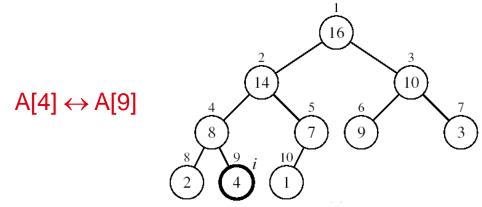


 $A[2] \leftrightarrow A[4]$ 



A[2] violates the heap property

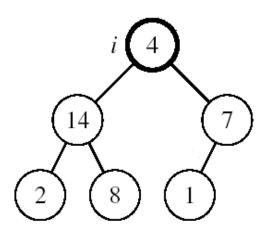
A[4] violates the heap property



Heap property restored

# Maintaining the Heap Property

- Assumptions:
  - Left and Right subtrees of i are max-heaps
  - A[i] may be smaller than its children



#### Alg: MAX-HEAPIFY(A, i, n)

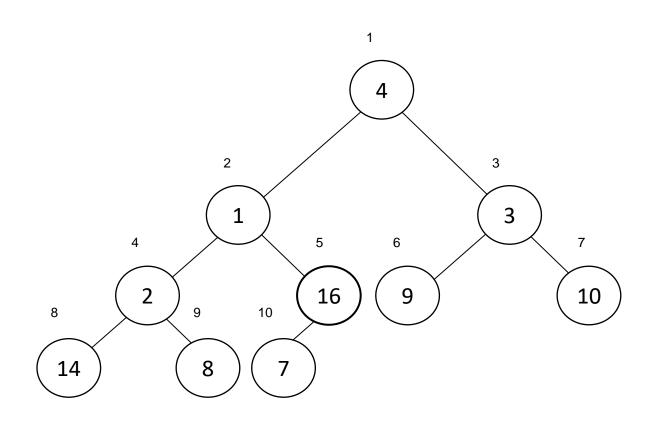
- 1.  $I \leftarrow LEFT(i)$
- 2.  $r \leftarrow RIGHT(i)$
- 3. if  $l \le n$  and A[l] > A[i]
- 4. then largest  $\leftarrow$ l
- 5. else largest ←i
- 6. if  $r \le n$  and A[r] > A[largest]
- 7. then largest  $\leftarrow$ r
- 8. if largest  $\neq$  i
- 9. **then** exchange  $A[i] \leftrightarrow A[largest]$
- 10. MAX-HEAPIFY(A, largest, n)

### MAX-HEAPIFY Running Time

 It checks a path starting from current node to leaf node. At every level it performs exactly 2 comparisons. At max length of this path is h. So total number of comparisons is at most 2h. So complexity is O(h) or O(logn)

Running time of MAX-HEAPIFY is O(lgn)

# Building a Max-Heap

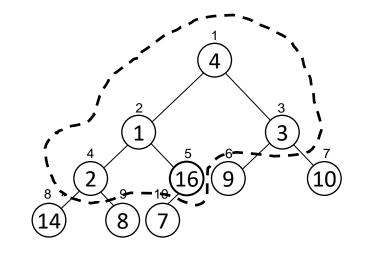


# Building a Heap

- Convert an array A[1 ... n] into a max-heap (n = length[A])
- The elements in the subarray  $A[(\lfloor n/2 \rfloor + 1) ... n]$  are leaves
- Apply MAX-HEAPIFY on elements between 1 and  $\lfloor n/2 \rfloor$

#### Alg: BUILD-MAX-HEAP(A)

- 1. n = length[A]
- 2. for  $i \leftarrow \lfloor n/2 \rfloor$  downto 1
- 3. do MAX-HEAPIFY(A, i, n)

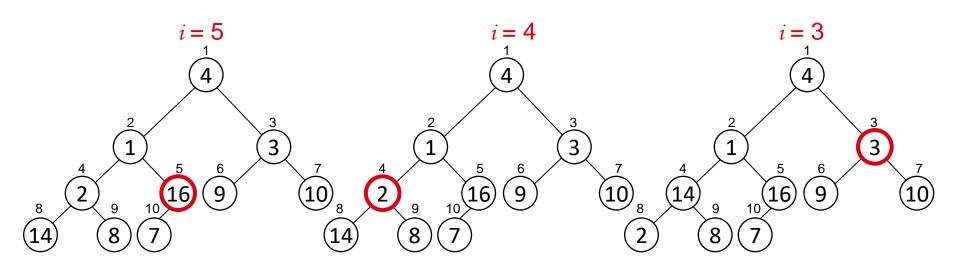


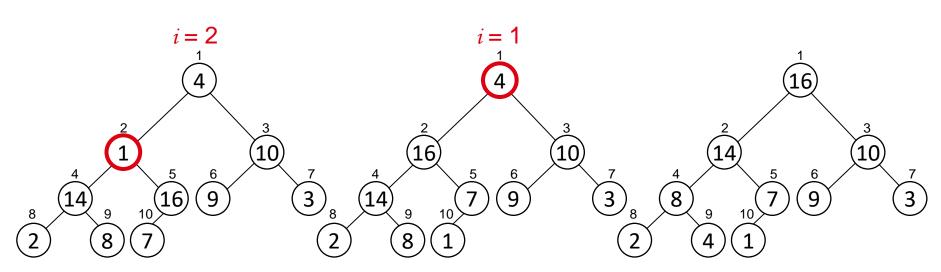
A: 4 1 3 2 16 9 10 14 8 7

# Example:

A







#### Running Time of BUILD MAX HEAP

#### Alg: BUILD-MAX-HEAP(A)

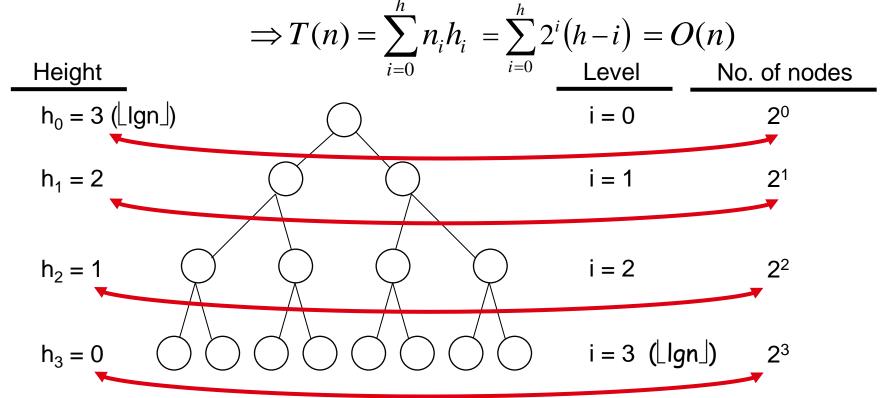
- 1. n = length[A]
- 2. for  $i \leftarrow \lfloor n/2 \rfloor$  downto 1
- 3. do MAX-HEAPIFY(A, i, n)

$$O(\lg n)$$
  $O(n)$ 

- $\Rightarrow$  Running time: O(nlgn)
- This is not an asymptotically tight upper bound

#### Running Time of BUILD MAX HEAP

• HEAPIFY takes  $O(h) \Rightarrow$  the cost of HEAPIFY on a node i is proportional to the height of the node i in the tree



 $h_i = h - i$  height of the heap rooted at level i  $n_i = 2^i$  number of nodes at level i

#### Running Time of BUILD MAX HEAP

$$T(n) = \sum_{i=0}^{h} n_i h_i$$

 $T(n) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} n_i h_i$  Cost of HEAPIFY at level i \* number of nodes at that level

$$=\sum_{i=0}^{h}2^{i}(h-i)$$

 $= \sum_{i=1}^{h} 2^{i} (h - i)$  Replace the values of  $n_{i}$  and  $h_{i}$  computed before

$$=\sum_{i=0}^{h}\frac{h-i}{2^{h-i}}2^{h}$$

 $=\sum_{i=0}^{h}\frac{h-i}{2^{h-i}}2^{h}$  Multiply by 2<sup>h-i</sup> both at the nominator and denominator

$$=2^{h}\sum_{k=0}^{h}\frac{k}{2^{k}}$$

 $=2^{h}\sum_{k=0}^{h}\frac{k}{2^{k}}$  Change variables: k = h - i

$$\leq n \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{k}{2^k}$$

The sum above is smaller than the sum of all elements to  $\infty$ 

$$=O(n)$$

The sum above is smaller than 2

$$\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} kx^k = \frac{x}{(1-x)^2}$$
for  $|x| < 1$ .

Running time of BUILD-MAX-HEAP: T(n) = O(n)

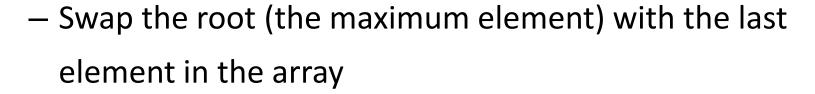
# Heapsort

#### Goal:

Sort an array using heap representations

#### Idea:

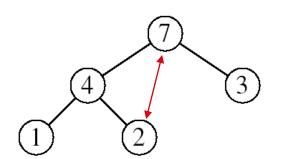




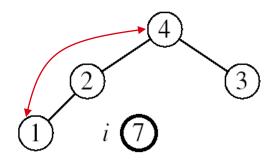
- "Discard" this last node by decreasing the heap size
- Call MAX-HEAPIFY on the new root
- Repeat this process until only one node remains

### Example:

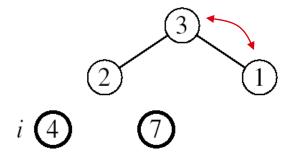
# A=[7, 4, 3, 1, 2]



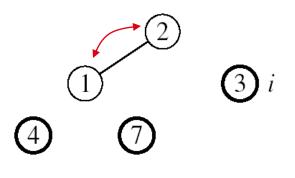
MAX-HEAPIFY(A, 1, 4)



MAX-HEAPIFY(A, 1, 3)



MAX-HEAPIFY(A, 1, 2)



MAX-HEAPIFY(A, 1, 1)



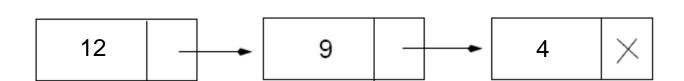
# Alg: HEAPSORT(A)

• Running time: O(nlgn) --- Can be shown to be  $\Theta(nlgn)$ 

### **Priority Queues**

#### **Properties**

- Each element is associated with a value (priority)
- The key with the highest (or lowest) priority is extracted first



# Operations on Priority Queues

- Max-priority queues support the following operations:
  - INSERT(5, x): inserts element x into set S
  - EXTRACT-MAX(S): removes and returns element of S
     with largest key
  - MAXIMUM(5): returns element of S with largest key
  - INCREASE-KEY(S, x, k): increases value of element x's key to k (Assume  $k \ge x$ 's current key value)

#### **HEAP-MAXIMUM**

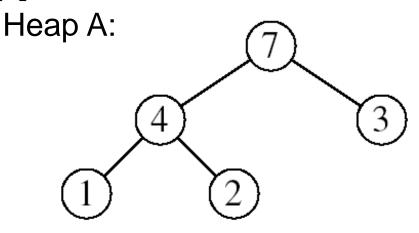
#### Goal:

Return the largest element of the heap

Running time: O(1)

### Alg: HEAP-MAXIMUM(A)

1. return A[1]



Heap-Maximum(A) returns 7

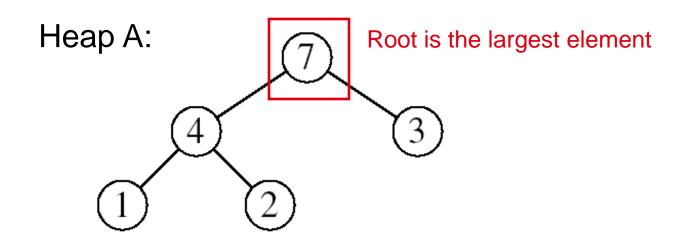
#### **HEAP-EXTRACT-MAX**

#### Goal:

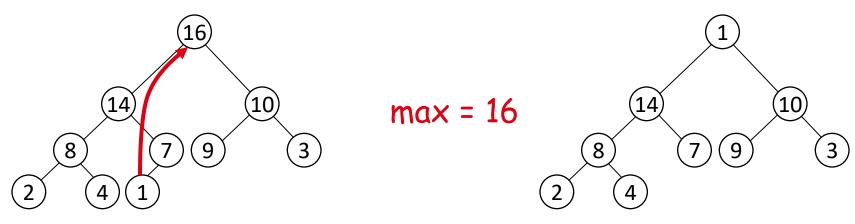
 Extract the largest element of the heap (i.e., return the max value and also remove that element from the heap

#### Idea:

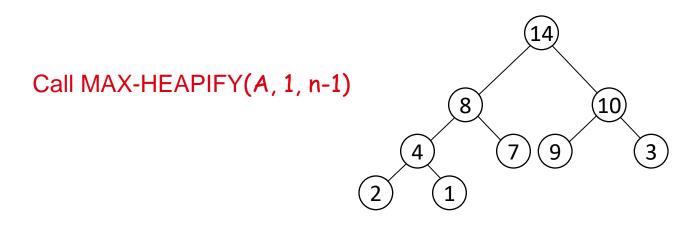
- Exchange the root element with the last
- Decrease the size of the heap by 1 element
- Call MAX-HEAPIFY on the new root, on a heap of size n-1



### Example: HEAP-EXTRACT-MAX



Heap size decreased with 1

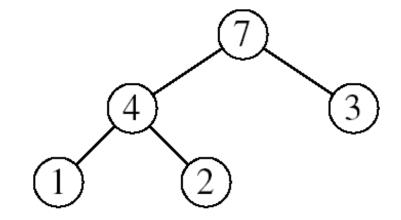


#### HEAP-EXTRACT-MAX

### Alg: HEAP-EXTRACT-MAX(A, n)

- 1. if n < 1
- 2. **then error** "heap underflow"
- 3.  $\max \leftarrow A[1]$
- 4.  $A[1] \leftarrow A[n]$
- 5. MAX-HEAPIFY(A, 1, n-1) remakes heap
- 6. **return** max

Running time: O(lgn)



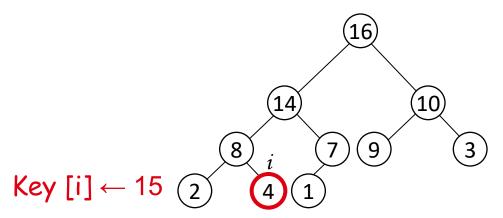
#### **HEAP-INCREASE-KEY**

#### Goal:

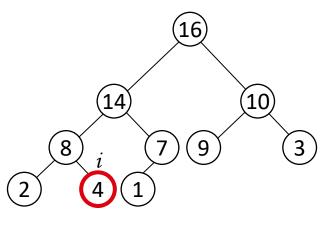
Increases the key of an element i in the heap

#### • Idea:

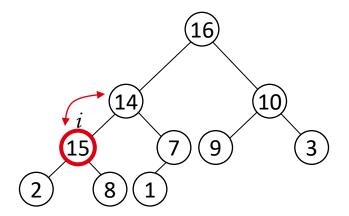
- Increment the key of A[i] to its new value
- If the max-heap property does not hold anymore: traverse a path toward the root to find the proper place for the newly increased key

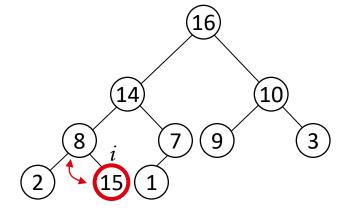


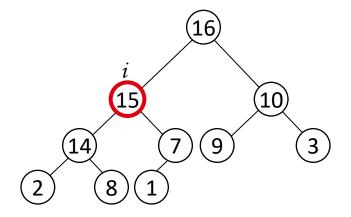
# Example: HEAP-INCREASE-KEY







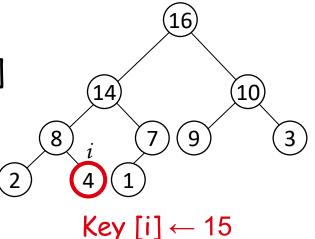




#### **HEAP-INCREASE-KEY**

Alg: HEAP-INCREASE-KEY(A, i, key)

- 1. **if** key < A[i]
- 2. **then error** "new key is smaller than current key"
- 3.  $A[i] \leftarrow \text{key}$
- 4. **while** i > 1 and A[PARENT(i)] < A[i]
- 5. **do** exchange  $A[i] \leftrightarrow A[PARENT(i)]$
- 6.  $i \leftarrow PARENT(i)$
- Running time: O(lgn)



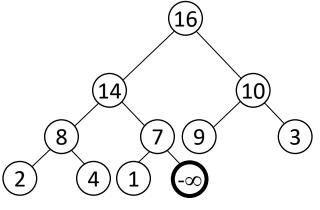
#### **MAX-HEAP-INSERT**

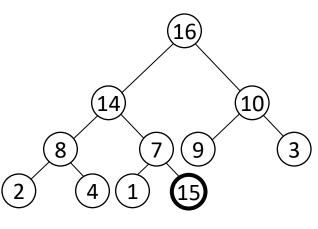
#### Goal:

Inserts a new element into a max-heap

#### Idea:

- Expand the max-heap with a new element whose key is -∞
- Calls HEAP-INCREASE-KEY to set the key of the new node to its correct value and maintain the max-heap property

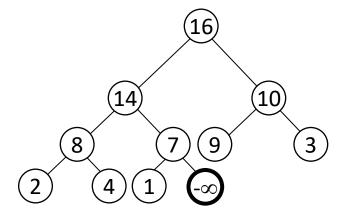


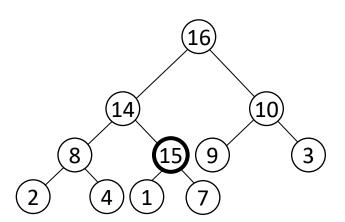


### Example: MAX-HEAP-INSERT

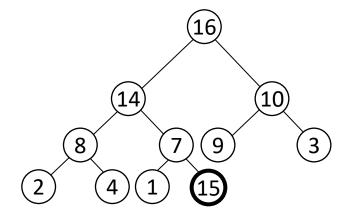
Insert value 15:

- Start by inserting -∞

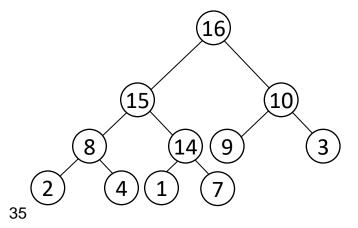




Increase the key to 15
Call HEAP-INCREASE-KEY on A[11] = 15



The restored heap containing the newly added element



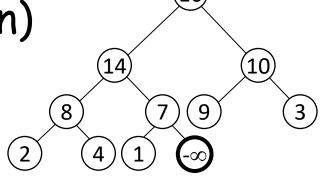
#### **MAX-HEAP-INSERT**

Alg: MAX-HEAP-INSERT(A, key, n)

- 1. heap-size[A]  $\leftarrow$  n + 1
- 2.  $A[n + 1] \leftarrow -\infty$



Running time: O(lgn)



#### Summary

We can perform the following operations on heaps:

– MAX-HEAPIFYO(Ign)

- BUILD-MAX-HEAP O(n)

HEAP-SORTO(nlgn)

- MAX-HEAP-INSERT O(lgn)

HEAP-EXTRACT-MAXO(Ign)

HEAP-INCREASE-KEYO(Ign)

- HEAP-MAXIMUM O(1)

Average O(lgn)

# **Quick Sort**

#### QuickSort Design

- Follows the divide-and-conquer paradigm.
- **Divide:** Partition (separate) the array A[p..r] into two (possibly empty) subarrays A[p..q-1] and A[q+1..r].
  - Each element in  $A[p..q-1] \leq A[q]$ .
  - -A[q] < each element in A[q+1..r].
  - Index q is computed as part of the partitioning procedure.
- Conquer: Sort the two subarrays by recursive calls to quicksort.
- Combine: The subarrays are sorted in place no work is needed to combine them.
- How do the divide and conquer steps of quicksort compare with those of merge sort?

#### Pseudocode

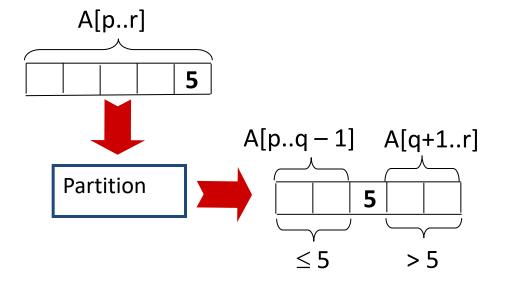
```
Quicksort(A, p, r)

if p < r then

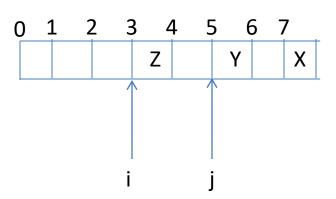
q := Partition(A, p, r);

Quicksort(A, p, q - 1);

Quicksort(A, q + 1, r)
```



```
\begin{aligned} & \underline{\text{Partition}(A, p, r)} \\ & & \text{x:= A[r]} \\ & & \text{i=p-1;} \\ & & \text{for j := p to r-1 do} \\ & & \text{if A[j]} \leq x \text{ then} \\ & & \text{i := i+1;} \\ & & \text{A[i]} \leftrightarrow \text{A[j]} \\ & & \text{A[i]} \leftrightarrow \text{A[r];} \\ & & \text{return i+1} \end{aligned}
```



#### Example

Position of I and j after of line 3

```
2 5 8 3 9 4 1 7 10 6
initially:
next iteration:
                    2 5 8 3 9 4 1 7 10 6
next iteration:
                     2 5 8 3 9 4 1 7 10 6
next iteration:
                     2 5 8 3 9 4 1 7 10 6
next iteration:
                     2 5 3 8 9 4 1 7 10 6
```

```
      Partition(A, p, r)

      1
      x := A[r]

      2
      i = p - 1;

      3
      for j := p to r - 1 do

      4
      if A[j] \le x then

      5
      i := i + 1;

      6
      A[i] \leftrightarrow A[j]

      7
      A[i + 1] \leftrightarrow A[r];

      8
      return i + 1
```

**note:** pivot (x) = 6

#### Example (Continued)

```
      next iteration:
      2 5 3 8 9 4 1 7 10 6

      next iteration:
      2 5 3 4 9 8 1 7 10 6

      next iteration:
      2 5 3 4 1 8 9 7 10 6

      next iteration:
      2 5 3 4 1 8 9 7 10 6

      next iteration:
      2 5 3 4 1 8 9 7 10 6

      i
      j

      after final swap:
      2 5 3 4 1 6 9 7 10 8

      i
      j
```

```
\begin{aligned} & \underline{\text{Partition}(A, p, r)} \\ & & \text{x:= A[r]} \\ & & \text{i=p-1;} \\ & & \text{for j := p to r-1 do} \\ & & \text{if A[j]} \leq x \text{ then} \\ & & \text{i := i+1;} \\ & & \text{A[i]} \leftrightarrow \text{A[j]} \\ & & \text{A[i]} \leftrightarrow \text{A[r];} \\ & & \text{return i+1} \end{aligned}
```

### **Partitioning**

- Select the last element A[r] in the subarray A[p..r] as the pivot – the element around which to partition.
- As the procedure executes, the array is partitioned into four (possibly empty) regions.
  - 1. A[p..i] All entries in this region are  $\leftarrow$  pivot.
  - 2. A[i+1..j-1] All entries in this region are > pivot.
  - 3. A[r] = pivot.
  - 4. A[j..r-1] Not known how they compare to pivot.
- The above hold before each iteration of the for loop, and constitute a loop invariant.

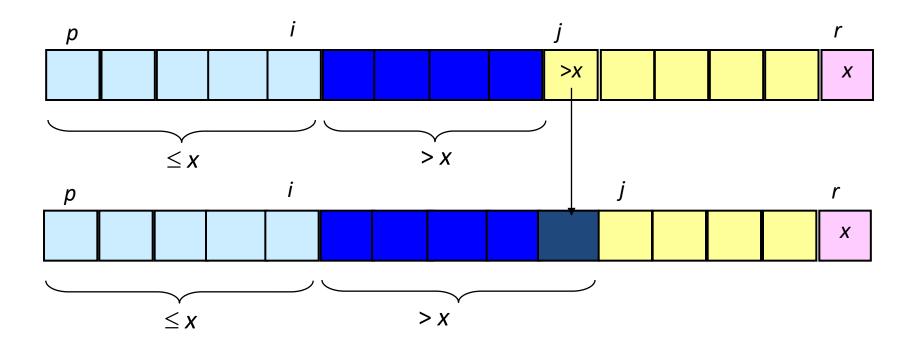
- Use loop invariant.
- Initialization:
  - Before first iteration
    - A[p..i] and A[i+1..j-1] are empty Conds. 1 and 2 are satisfied (trivially).
    - *r* is the index of the *pivot* 
      - Cond. 3 is satisfied.

#### Maintenance:

- Case 1: A[j] > x
  - Increment j only.
  - Loop Invariant is maintained.

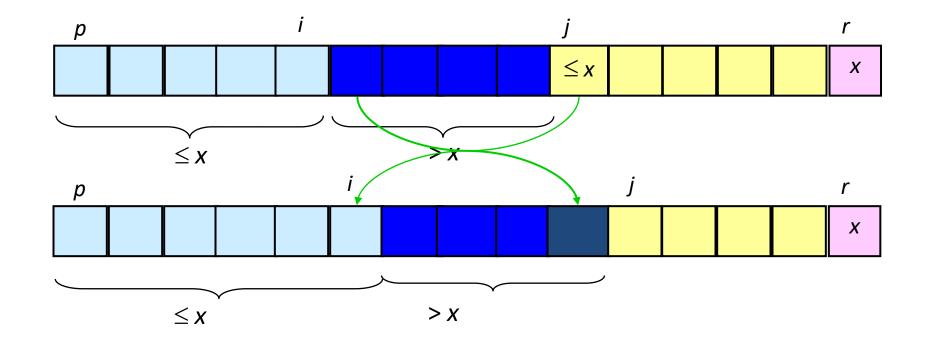
```
\begin{array}{l} \underline{Partition(A,\,p,\,r)} \\ x \coloneqq A[r] \\ i = p-1; \\ \textbf{for} \ j \coloneqq p \ \textbf{to} \ r-1 \ \textbf{do} \\ \textbf{if} \ A[j] \le x \ \textbf{then} \\ i \coloneqq i+1; \\ A[i] \longleftrightarrow A[j] \\ A[i+1] \longleftrightarrow A[r]; \\ \textbf{return} \ i+1 \end{array}
```

#### **Case 1:**



- Case 2:  $A[j] \leq x$ 
  - Increment i
  - Swap A[i] and A[j]
    - Condition 1 is maintained.

- Increment j
  - Condition 2 is maintained.
- A[r] is unaltered.
  - Condition 3 is maintained.



#### • Termination:

- When the loop terminates, j = r, so all elements in A are partitioned into one of the three cases:
  - *A*[*p*..*i*] ≤ *pivot*
  - A[i+1..j-1] > pivot
  - *A*[*r*] = *pivot*
- The last two lines swap A[i+1] and A[r].
  - Pivot moves from the end of the array to between the two subarrays.
  - Thus, procedure partition correctly performs the divide step.

- Assume that keys are random, uniformly distributed.
- What is best case running time?
  - Recursion:
    - 1. Partition splits array in two sub-arrays of size n/2
    - 2. Quicksort each sub-array

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- Assume that keys are random, uniformly distributed.
- Recurrence relation  $T(n)=2T(n/2)+\Theta(n)$
- Running time: O(n log<sub>2</sub>n)

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- Best case running time: O(n log<sub>2</sub>n)
- Worst case running time?
  - Recursion:
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      - one sub-array of size 0
      - the other sub-array of size n-1
    - 2. Quicksort each sub-array
  - Depth of recursion tree?

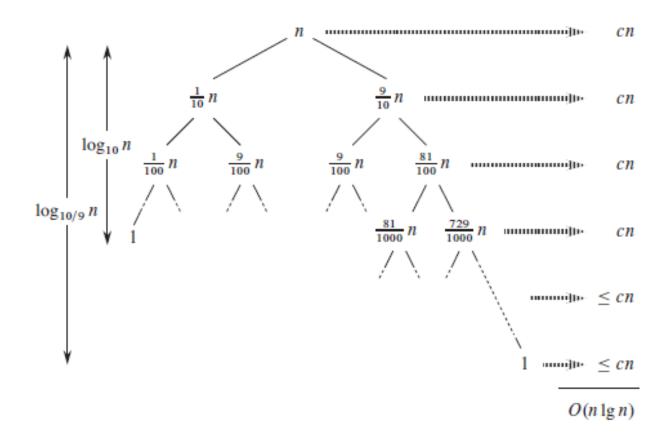
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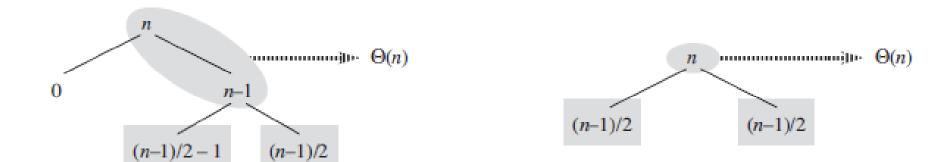
- Assume that keys are random, uniformly distributed.
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    - 2. Quicksort each sub-array
  - Depth of recursion tree? O(n)
  - Number of accesses per partition? O(n)

- Assume that keys are random, uniformly distributed.
- Recurrence Relation T(n)=T(n-1)+⊕(n)
- Worst case running time: O(n²)

#### Balanced partitioning



mix of "good" and "bad" splits



## A randomized version of quicksort

- RANDOMIZED-PARTITION (A, p, r)
  - 1. i = RANDOM(p, r)
  - 2. exchange A[r] with A[i]
  - **3.** return PARTITION(A, p, r)
- RANDOMIZED-QUICKSORT(A,p,r)
  - 1. if p < r
    - 1. q = RANDOMIZED-PARTITION(A,p,r)
    - RANDOMIZED-QUICKSORT(A,p,q -1)
    - 3. RANDOMIZED-QUICKSORT(A,q+1, r)

#### **Expected running time**

- The running time of QUICKSORT is dominated by the time spent in the PARTITION procedure.
- Each time the PARTITION procedure is called, it selects a pivot element, and this element is never included in any future recursive calls to QUICKSORT and PARTITION.
- Thus, there can be at most n calls to PARTITION over the entire execution of the quicksort algorithm.

### **Expected Running Time of Partition**

 One call to PARTITION takes O(1) time plus an amount of time that is proportional to the number of iterations of the **for** loop in lines 3–6

if we can count the total number of times that line 4 is executed, we can bound the total time spent in the for loop during the entire execution of QUICKSORT.

```
Partition(A, p, r)

1. x:= A[r],

2. i=p-1;

3. for j := p to r - 1 do

4. if A[j] ≤ x then

5. i := i + 1;

6. A[i] ↔ A[j]

7. A[i + 1] ↔ A[r];

8. return i + 1
```

- Assume line 4 is executed for X times
- We rename the elements of the array A as  $z_1$ ,  $z_2$ , ...,  $z_n$ , with  $z_i$  being the  $i^{th}$  smallest element.

• We also define the set  $Z_{ij} = \{z_{i, z_{i+1, ..., z_j}}\}$  to be the set of elements between  $z_i$  and  $z_j$ , inclusive.

#### When does the algorithm compare $z_i$ and $z_j$ ?

- X<sub>ij</sub> = 1 {z<sub>i</sub> is compared to z<sub>j</sub>};
- $X = \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} \sum_{j=i+1}^{n} X_{ij}$
- $E[X] = E[\sum_{i=1}^{n-1} \sum_{j=i+1}^{n} X_{ij}]$

$$=\sum_{i=1}^{n-1}\sum_{j=i+1}^{n}E[Xij]$$

$$=\sum_{i=1}^{n-1}\sum_{j=i+1}^{n} \text{Prob}\{\text{zi is compared to zj}\}\$$

- once a pivot x is chosen with z<sub>i</sub> < x < z<sub>j</sub>, we know that z<sub>i</sub> and z<sub>j</sub> will not be compared at any subsequent time.
- Pr {z<sub>i</sub> is compared to z<sub>j</sub>} = Pr {z<sub>i</sub> or z<sub>j</sub> is first pivot chosen from Z<sub>ii</sub>}
- = Pr  $\{z_i \text{ is the first pivot chosen from } Z_{ij} \}$  + Pr  $\{z_j \text{ is the first pivot chosen from } Z_{ij} \}$  = 1/(i-i+1)+1/(i-i+1)=2/(i-i+1)

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

$$= \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} \sum_{k=1}^{n-i} \frac{2}{k+1}$$

$$< \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} \sum_{k=1}^{n} \frac{2}{k}$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} O(\lg n)$$

$$= O(n \lg n).$$

#### **Linear Sorts**

Counting sort

Bucket sort

Radix sort

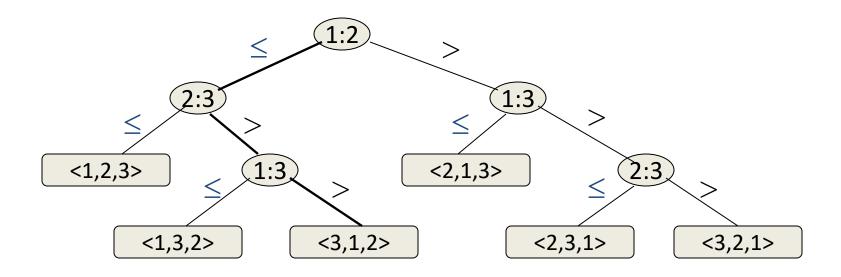
## **Comparison Sorting**

- Given a set of n values, there can be n! permutations of these values.
- So if we look at the behavior of the sorting algorithm over all possible n! inputs we can determine the worst-case complexity of the algorithm.

#### **Decision Tree**

- Decision tree model
  - Full binary tree
  - Internal node represents a comparison.
  - Each leaf represents one possible result (a permutation of the elements in sorted order).
  - The height of the tree (i.e., longest path) is the lower bound.

#### **Decision Tree Model**



Internal node i:j indicates comparison between  $a_i$  and  $a_j$ . suppose three elements < a1, a2, a3> with instance <6,8,5> Leaf node  $<\pi(1), \pi(2), \pi(3)>$  indicates ordering  $a_{\pi(1)} \le a_{\pi(2)} \le a_{\pi(3)}$ . Path of **bold lines** indicates sorting path for <6,8,5>. There are total 3!=6 possible permutations (paths).

#### **Decision Tree Model**

- The longest path is the worst case number of comparisons. The length of the longest path is the height of the decision tree.
- Theorem 8.1: Any comparison sort algorithm requires  $\Omega(n \lg n)$  comparisons in the worst case.

#### Proof:

- Suppose height of a decision tree is h, and number of paths (i,e,, permutations) is n!.
- Since a binary tree of height h has at most 2<sup>h</sup> leaves,
  - $n! \le 2^h$ , so  $h \ge \lg (n!)$

#### **Decision Tree Model**

$$n! = \sqrt{2\pi n} \left(\frac{n}{e}\right)^n \left(1 + \Theta\left(\frac{1}{n}\right)\right)$$
  
 $\lg(n!) = \Theta(n \lg n)$ ,

 That is to say: any comparison sort in the worst case needs at least nlg n comparisons.

#### **Linear Sorts**

 We will study algorithms that do not depend only on comparing whole keys to be sorted.

- Counting sort
- Bucket sort
- Radix sort

# **Counting sort**

#### Assumptions:

- n records
- Each record has a key and a value
- All keys are in the range of 1 to k

#### Space

- The unsorted list is stored in A, the sorted list will be stored in an additional array B
- Uses an additional array C of size k

# **Counting sort**

#### Main idea:

- 1. For each key value i, i = 1,...,k, count the number of times the keys occurs in the unsorted input array A.
  - Store results in an auxiliary array, C
- 2. Use these counts to compute the offset. Offset<sub>i</sub> is used to calculate the location where the record with key value *i* will be stored in the sorted output list *B*.
  - The offset, value has the location where the last key, .
- When would you use counting sort?
- How much memory is needed?

# **Counting Sort**

```
Input: A [ 1 .. n ], A[J] \in \{1,2,...,k \}
```

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

Uses C [ 1 .. k ], auxiliary storage

Counting-Sort(A, B, k)

- 1. for  $i \leftarrow 1$  to k
- 2. **do**  $C[i] \leftarrow 0$
- 3. **for**  $j \leftarrow 1$  **to** length[A]
- 4. **do**  $C[A[j]] \leftarrow C[A[j]] + 1$
- 5. **for**  $i \leftarrow 2$  **to** k
- 6. **do**  $C[i] \leftarrow C[i] + C[i-1]$
- 7. **for**  $j \leftarrow length[A]$  **down** 1
- 8. **do**  $B[C[A[j]]] \leftarrow A[j]$
- 9.  $C[A[j]] \leftarrow C[A[j]] -1$

Analysis:

$$k = 4$$
,  $length = 6$ 

after lines 1-2

 $C \mid 1 \mid 0 \mid 2 \mid 3$ 

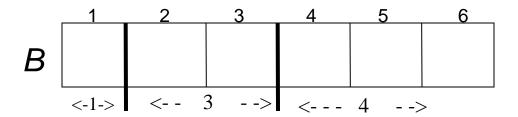
after lines 3-4

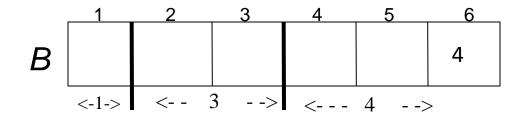
C 1 1 3 6

after lines 5-6

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- 2. **do**  $C[i] \leftarrow 0$
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- 5. for  $i \leftarrow 2$  to k
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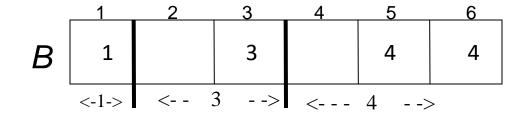




J=6

J=5

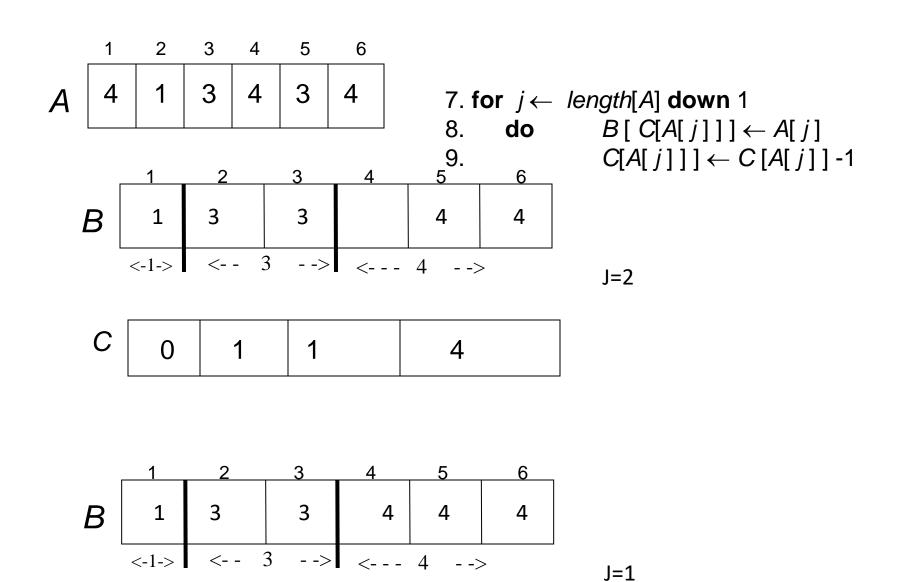
7. for j ← length[A] down 1
 8. do B[C[A[j]]] ← A[j]
 9. C[A[j]]] ← C[A[j]]-1



J=4

	1	2	3	4	5	6
В		3	3		4	4
	<-1->	< 3>		< 4>		

J=3



# **Analysis:**

- O(k + n) time - What if k = O(n)
- But Sorting takes  $\Omega$  ( $n \lg n$ ) ????
- Requires k + n extra storage.
- This is a stable sort: It preserves the original order of equal keys.
- Clearly no good for sorting 32 bit values.

## **Bucket sort**

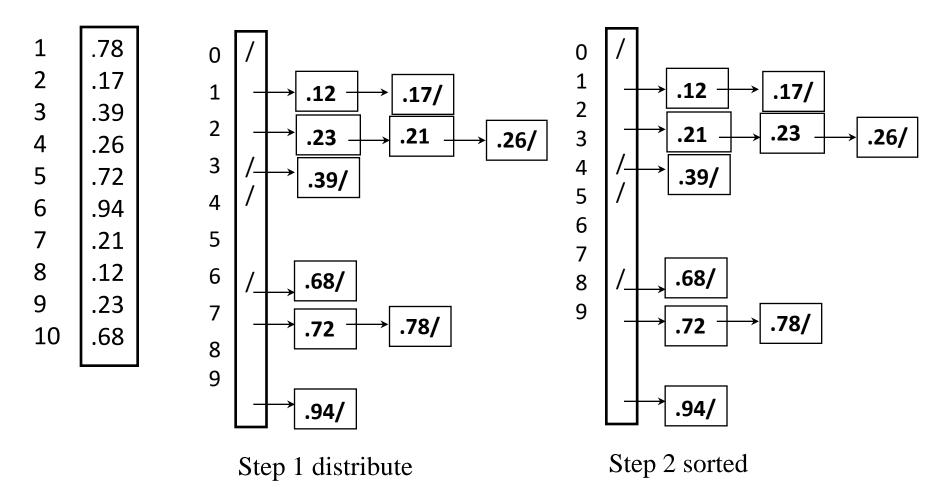
Keys are distributed uniformly in interval [0, 1)

The records are distributed into n buckets

The buckets are sorted using one of the well known sorts

Finally the buckets are combined

## **Bucket sort**



Step3 combine

# **Analysis**

- P = 1/n, probability that the key goes to bucket *i*.
- Expected size of bucket is np = n \* 1/n = 1

• The expected time to sort one bucket is  $\Theta(1)$ .

• Overall expected time is  $\Theta(n)$ .

## Radix sort

- Main idea
  - Break key into "digit" representation

$$\text{key} = i_d, i_{d-1}, ..., i_2, i_1$$

- "digit" can be a number in any base, a character, etc.
- Radix sort:

```
for i= 1 to d
  sort "digit" i using a stable sort
```

Analysis : ⊕(d \* (stable sort time)) where d is the number of "digit"s

## Radix sort

- Which stable sort?
  - Since the range of values of a digit is small the best stable sort to use is Counting Sort.
  - When counting sort is used the time complexity is  $\Theta(d * (n + k))$  where k is the range of a "digit".
    - When  $k \in O(n)$ ,  $\Theta(d * n)$

# Radix sort- with decimal digits

