Notes on Linear Sorting

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Comparison sorts

- ▶ The only operation that may be used to gain information about a sequence is comparisons between pairs of elements.
- ▶ All sorts seen so far are comparison sorts:
 - insertion sort
 - merge sort
 - quicksort
 - heapsort

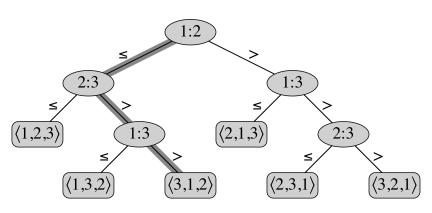
Lower bounds for comparison sorts

- $ightharpoonup \Omega(n)$ to examine all the input
- ▶ All sorts seen so far are $\Omega(n \lg n)$
- ▶ We will show that all comparison sorts must be $\Omega(n \lg n)$

Decision tree

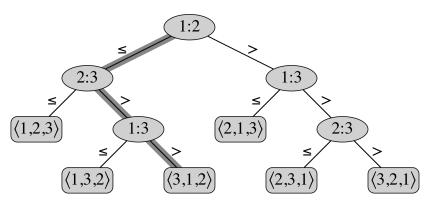
- Abstraction of any comparison sort
- Represents comparisons made by
 - a specific sorting algorithm
 - on inputs of a given size
- ▶ Abstracts away everything else: control and data movement.
- We're counting only comparisons.

Insertion sort on three elements



- ▶ Internal nodes labeled by comparisons (original positions).
- Leaf nodes labeled by permutation of order from original.
- ▶ Number of leaves $\geq n!$.

For any comparison sort



- \triangleright 1 tree for each n
- View the tree as if the algorithm splits in two at each node.
- ▶ The tree models all possible execution traces.

What is 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.

- ▶ ℓ =# of leaves
- ▶ h = height
- ▶ then $\ell < 2^h$

Proof by induction on *h*:

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

Inductive step: Assume true for h-1. Extend tree with as many new leaves as possible. Each leaf becomes the parent of two new leaves.

$$\#$$
 of leaves for $h=2(\#$ of leaves for $h-1)$

$$\leq 2(2^{h-1})$$

$$= 2^h$$

Theorem: any decision tree that sorts n elements has height $\Omega(n \lg n)$

- ▶ $n! \le \ell \le 2^h$
- ▶ $h \ge \lg(n!)$
- ▶ Sterling's approximation: $n! > (n/e)^n$
- Therefore:

$$h \ge \lg(n!)$$

$$\ge \lg(n/e)^n$$

$$= n\lg(n/e)$$

$$= n\lg n - n\lg e$$

$$= \Omega(n\lg n)$$

Sorting in linear time

- Impossible with any comparison sort.
- Counting sort
- ▶ Key assumption: numbers to be sorted are integers in $\{0, ..., k\}$.
- ▶ Key idea: count how many numbers are ≤ each number.
- This tells you where it goes in the array.

Input: A[1..n] where $A[j] \in \{0, ..., k\}$

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

Auxiliary storage: C[0..k]

Counting sort example

 3_3

Counting sort example

Counting sort is **stable**:

Keys with the same value appear in the same order in output as in input.



Counting sort analysis

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

1 let $C[0..k]$ be a new array

2 for $i = 0$ to k

3 $C[i] = 0$

4 for $j = 1$ to n

5 $C[A[j]] = C[A[j]] + 1$

6 for $i = 1$ to k

7 $C[i] = C[i] + C[i - 1]$

8 for $j = n$ downto 1

9 $B[C[A[j]]] = A[j]$

10 $C[A[j]] = C[A[j]] - 1$

$$\triangleright$$
 $\Theta(n+k)$

- which is $\Theta(n)$ if k = O(n).
- ► How big a *k* is practical?
 - ► 64-bit values? Are you kidding?
 - 32-bit values? No.
 - ▶ 16-bit? Probably not.
 - ▶ 8-bit? Maybe, depending on *n*.
 - ▶ 4-bit? Unless *n* is really small.

Counting sort will be used in radix sort.

Radix sort example

329		720		720		329
457		355		329		355
657		436		436		436
839]])»-	457	·····ij)p-	839	jjp-	457
436		657		355		657
720		329		457		720
355		839		657		839

- Sort on each digit individually.
- Start with least significant digit.
- Must use a stable sort subroutine.
- ▶ Subroutine only works on a small range of numbers.



Radix sort

- ▶ IBM in early 20th century.
- Punch card sorting machines only sorted on one column.
- Humans would reload the cards and change the column.
- Human-machine cyborg algorithm!
- Key idea: Sort least significant digits first.

Example of a punch card



Radix sort

```
Radix-Sort(A, d)
```

- 1 **for** i = 1 **to** d
- 2 use a stable sort to sort A on digit i

Radix sort correctness

- Induction on number of passes.
- ▶ Assume digits 1, ..., i 1 are sorted.
- ▶ Show that a stable sort on i leaves 1, ..., i-1 sorted:
 - ▶ If 2 digits in position *i* are different,
 - ordering by i is correct and positions $1, \ldots, i-1$ are irrelevant.
 - ▶ If 2 digits in position *i* are equal,
 - numbers are already sorted by inductive hypothesis. Stable sort leaves them that way.

Radix sort analysis

Assume we use counting sort on each digit.

- ▶ $\Theta(n+k)$ per digit
- ▶ d digits
- ▶ $\Theta(d(n+k))$ total
- If k = O(n), time $= \Theta(dn)$.

Radix sort: How to break each key into digits?

- n words
- ▶ *b* bits/word
- ▶ Break into *r*-bit digits. $d = \lceil b/r \rceil$
- ▶ Use counting sort, $k = 2^r 1$. Example: 32-bit words, 8-bit digits.

$$b = 32$$
 $r = 8$ $d = \lceil 32/8 \rceil = 4$ $k = 2^8 - 1 = 255$

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

How to choose r?

- $Time = \Theta\left(\frac{b}{r}(n+2^r)\right)$
- ▶ Balance b/r and $n+2^r$.
- ▶ Choosing $r \approx \lg n$ gives

$$\Theta\left(\frac{b}{\lg n}(n+n)\right) = \Theta\left(\frac{bn}{\lg n}\right)$$

- ▶ If we choose $r < \lg n$ then $\frac{b}{r} > \frac{b}{\lg n}$ and $n + 2^r$ is still $\Theta(n)$.
- ▶ If we choose $r > \lg n$ then $n + 2^r$ term gets big.
- ► Sort 2^{16} 32-bit numbers: Use $r = \lg 2^{16} = 16$ bits. $\lceil b/r \rceil = 2$ passes.

Compare radix to merge and quick

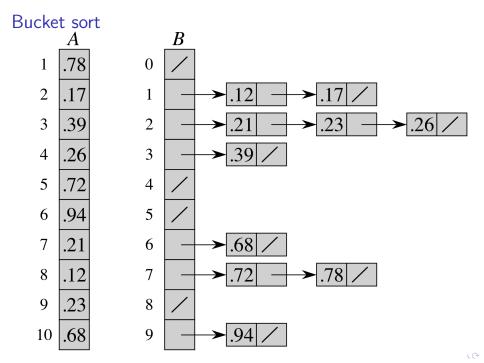
- ▶ 1 million (2²⁰) 32-bit integers.
- ▶ Radix sort: [32/20] = 2 passes.
 - Each radix "pass" is 2 passes: one to take census one to move data
- Merge/quick: $\lg n = 20$ passes.

How does radix sort violate the $\Omega(n \lg n)$ speed limit?

- Counting sort allows us to gain information about keys other than by directly comparing two keys.
- ▶ Directly comparing keys only gives one bit of information.
- Using keys as array indices gets far more information out of each key.
- ▶ Branching factor of the decision tree is *k*.
- ▶ Choosing one of k branches gets $\lceil \lg k \rceil$ bits of information.

Bucket sort

- Assume input is randomly distributed over [0, 1).
- ▶ Divide [0,1) into *n* equal-sized *buckets*.
- Distribute the n input values into the buckets.
- Sort each bucket.
- ▶ Go through the buckets in order, listing elements in each one.



Bucket sort

```
BUCKET-SORT(A, n)
 let B[0...n-1] be a new array
 for i = 0 to n - 1
      make B[i] an empty list
 for i = 1 to n
      insert A[i] into list B[|n \cdot A[i]|]
 for i = 0 to n - 1
      sort list B[i] with insertion sort
 concatenate lists B[0], B[1], \ldots, B[n-1] together in order
 return the concatenated lists
```

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

Auxiliary array: B[0..n-1] of linked lists.

Bucket sort correctness

- ▶ Consider A[i], A[j].
- ▶ Assume without loss of generality $A[i] \le A[j]$.
- ▶ Then $\lfloor n \cdot A[i] \rfloor \leq \lfloor n \cdot A[j] \rfloor$
- ▶ Therefore A[i] is placed into the same or lower bucket.
- ▶ If same bucket, insertion sort fixes it up.
- If earlier bucket, concatenation of lists fixes it up.

Bucket sort analysis

- ▶ Relies on no bucket getting too many values.
- ▶ All lines of algorithm except insertion sorting take $\Theta(n)$ altogether.
- ▶ If each bucket gets a constant number of elements, it takes O(1) time to sort each bucket.
- ▶ Therefore O(n) for all buckets.
- We expect each bucket to have few elements, since the average is 1 element per bucket.
- Uniform distribution of numbers should lead to this.

Bucket sort analysis

▶ Define n_i = the number of elements placed in B[i]