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DATA STRUCTURES & ALGORITHMS

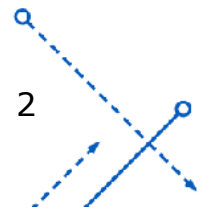
Lecture 2: Sorting (part 2)

Lecturer: Dr. Nguyen Hai Minh



CONTENT

- Sorting Lower Bound
 - Decision trees
- Analysis of sorting algorithms using different algorithm design methods (cont)
 - Space and Time tradeoffs: Counting Sort, Radix Sort



SORTING LOWER BOUND

5/20/24

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How fast can we sort?

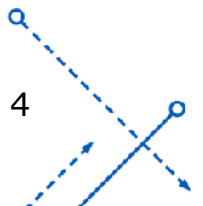
□ All the sorting algorithms we have seen so far are **comparison sorts**: only use comparisons to determine the relative order of elements.

■ *E.g.*, insertion sort, merge sort, quicksort, heapsort.

□ The best worst-case running time that we've seen for comparison sorting is $O(n \log_2 n)$.

Is $O(n \log_2 n)$ the best we can do?

□ **Decision trees** can help us answer this question



Asymptotic lower bound – Ω -notation

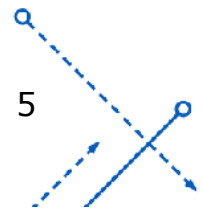
□ Provides an asymptotic lower bound on a function

- For a given function $g(n)$, we denote by $\Omega(g(n))$ (pronounced “big-omega of g of n ”) the set of functions

$\Omega(g(n)) = \{f(n) : \text{there exist positive constants } c \text{ and } n_0 \text{ such that: } 0 \leq cg(n) \leq f(n) \text{ for all } n \geq n_0\}$

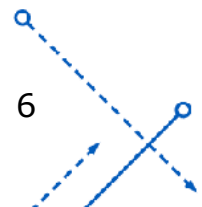
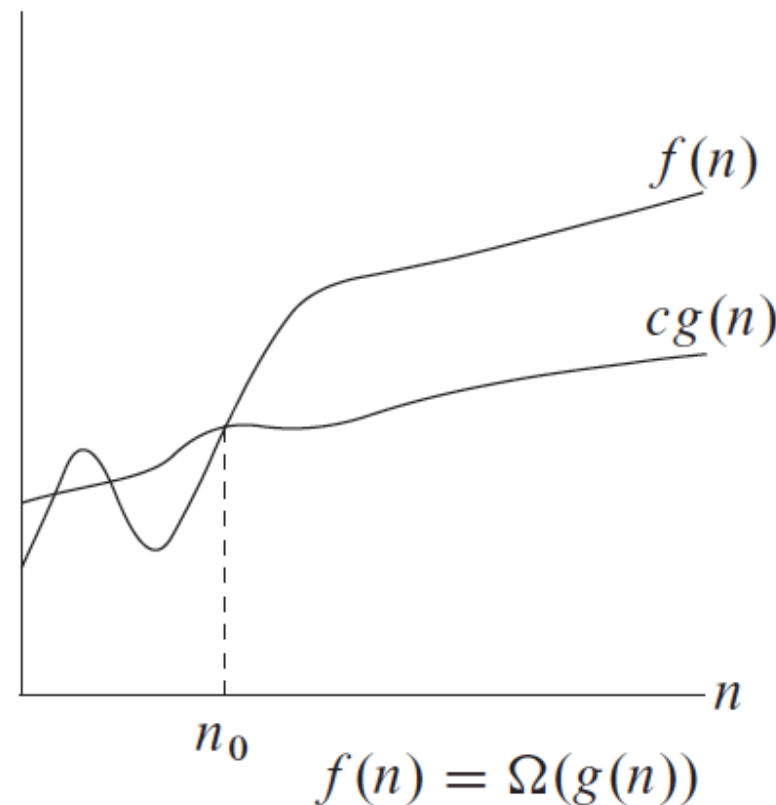
□ Example:

- Explain: f is big-omega of g if there is c so that f is on or above $c * g$ when n is large enough
- $\sqrt{n} = \Omega(\log_2 n)$ ($c = 1, n = 16$)



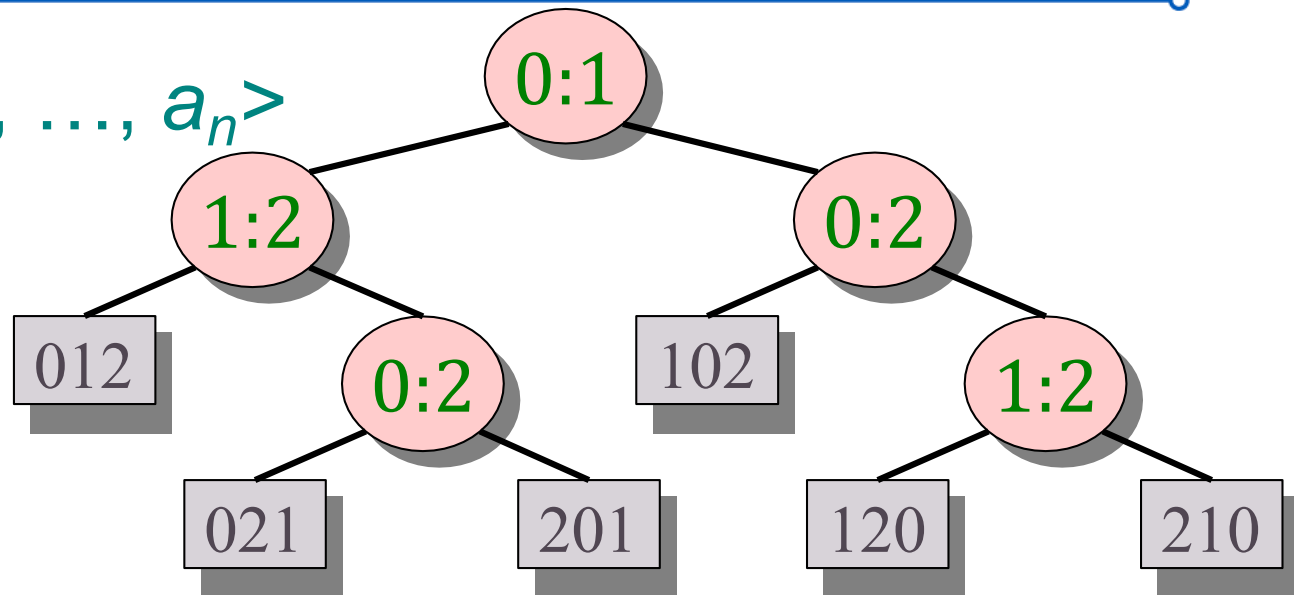
Asymptotic lower bound – Ω notation

- Running time of an algorithm is $\Omega(g(n))$ means that the running time of that algorithm is at least a constant times $g(n)$, for sufficiently large n .

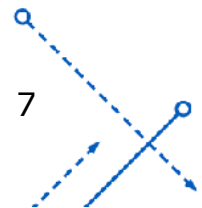


Decision tree example

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

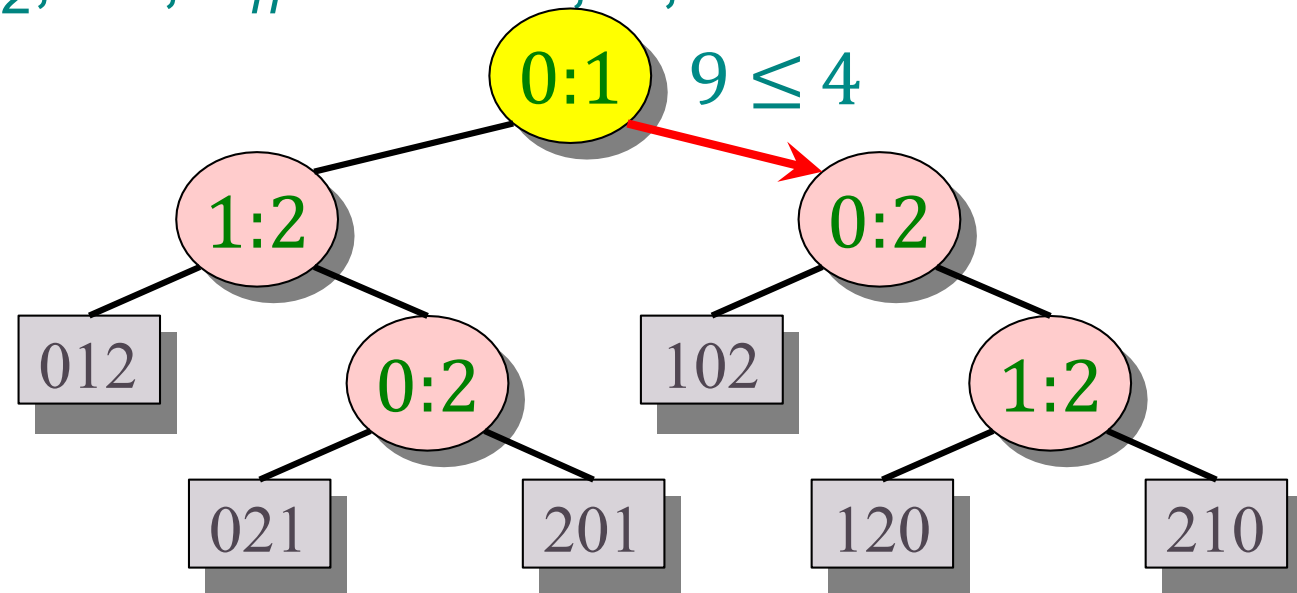


- Each internal node is labeled $i:j$ for $i, j \in \{0, 1, \dots, n-1\}$.
 - The left subtree shows subsequent comparisons if $a_i \leq a_j$.
 - The right subtree shows subsequent comparisons if $a_i > a_j$.

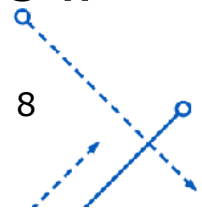


Decision tree example

□ Sort $\langle a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n \rangle = \langle 9, 4, 6 \rangle$

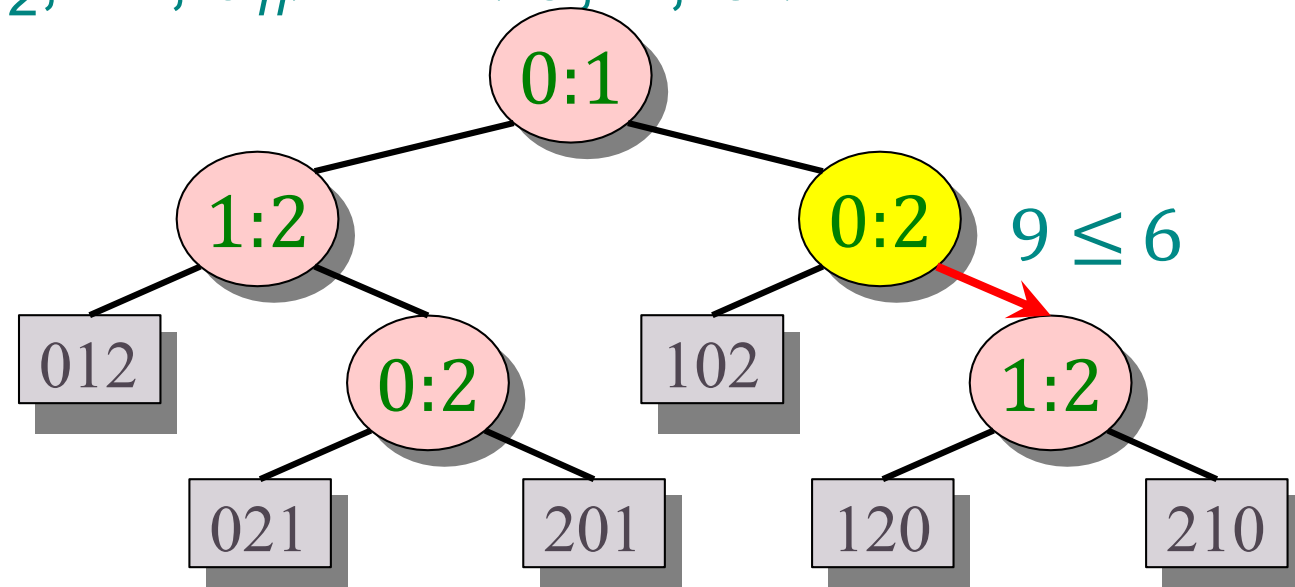


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Decision tree example

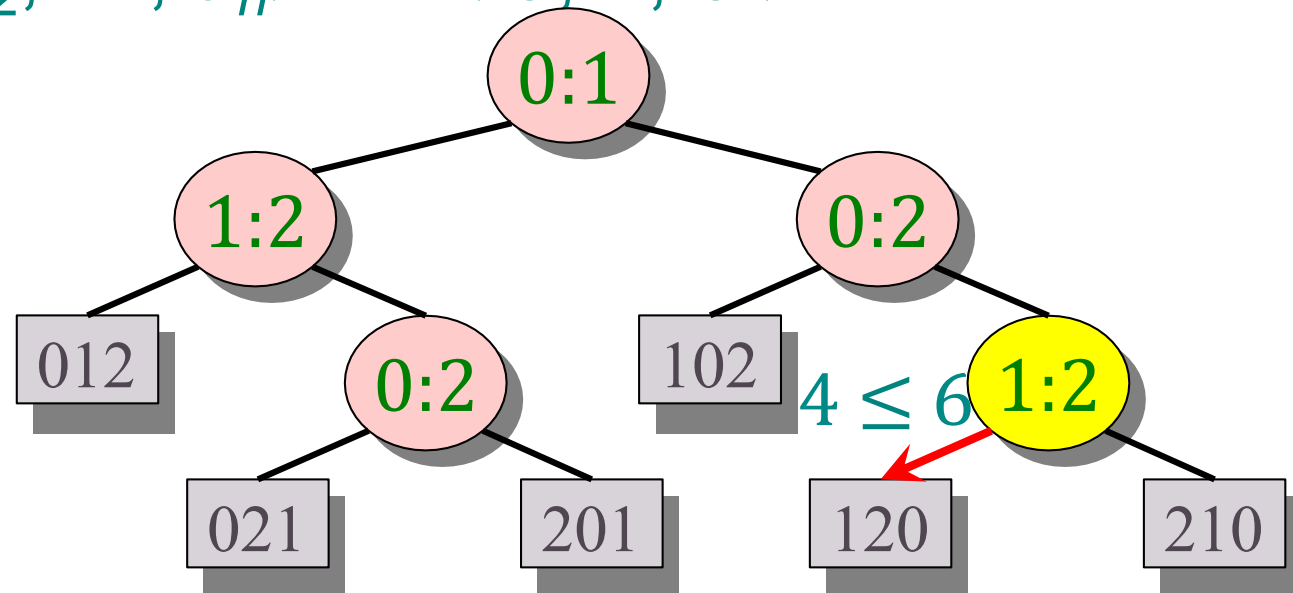
□ Sort $\langle a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n \rangle = \langle 9, 4, 6 \rangle$



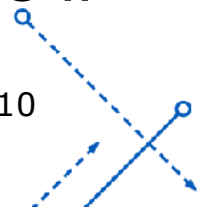
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Decision tree example

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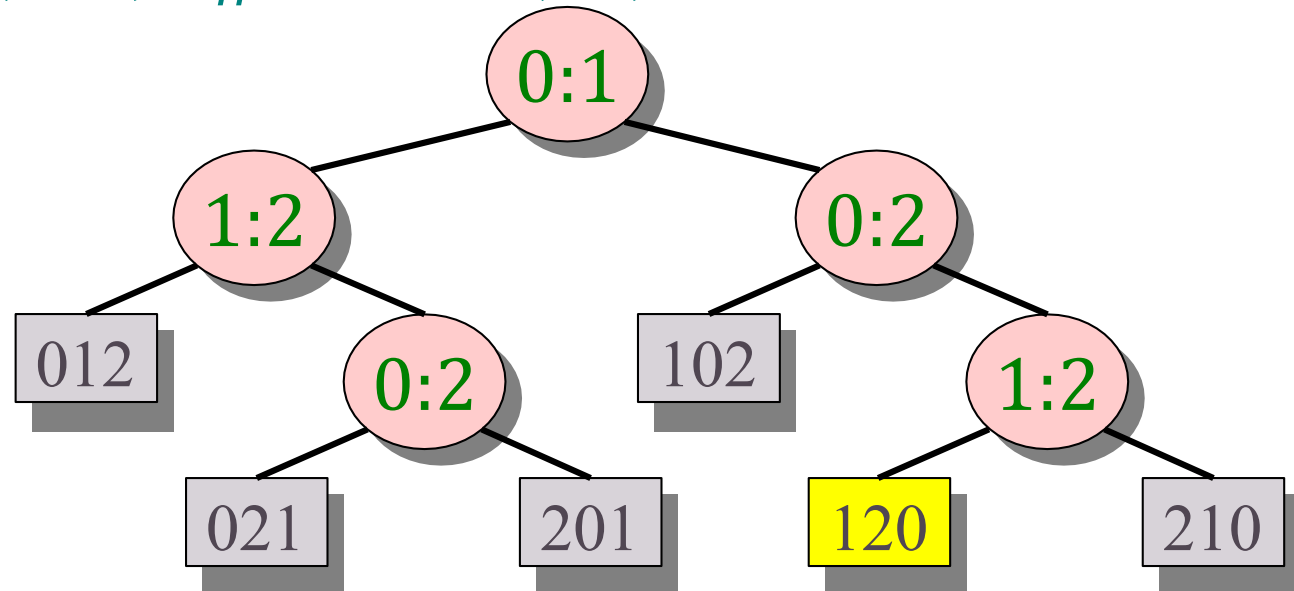


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 - The left subtree shows subsequent comparisons if $a_i \leq a_j$.
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Decision tree example

□ Sort $\langle a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n \rangle = \langle 9, 4, 6 \rangle$



□ Each leaf contains a permutation $4 \leq 6 \leq 9$ $\langle \pi(0), \pi(1), \dots, \pi(n-1) \rangle$ to indicate that the ordering $a_{\pi(0)} \leq a_{\pi(1)} \leq \dots \leq a_{\pi(n-1)}$ has been established.



Decision tree model

A decision tree can model the execution of any comparison sort:

- One tree for each input size n .
- View the algorithm as splitting whenever it compares two elements.
- The tree contains the comparisons along all possible instruction traces.
- The running time of the algorithm = the length of the path taken.
- Worst-case running time = height of tree.

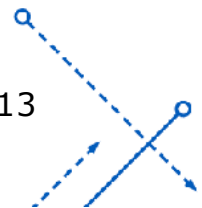


Lower bound for decision-tree sorting

Theorem. Any decision tree that can sort n elements must have height $\Omega(n \log_2 n)$.

Proof. The tree must contain $\geq n!$ leaves, since there are $n!$ possible permutations. A height- h binary tree has $\leq 2^h$ leaves. Thus, $n! \leq 2^h$.

$$\begin{aligned} \therefore h &\geq \log_2(n!) && (\log_2 n \text{ is monotonically increasing}) \\ &\geq \log_2((n/e)^n) && (\text{Stirling's formula}) \\ &= n \log_2 n - n \log_2 e \\ &= \Omega(n \log_2 n) \end{aligned}$$



Lower bound for comparison sorting

Corollary. Heapsort and merge sort are asymptotically optimal comparison sorting algorithms.



SPACE-AND-TIME TRADEOFFS ALGORITHMS

Counting Sort

Radix Sort

Space and Time Trade-offs

- ***Space and time trade-offs*** are a well-known issue for both theoreticians and practitioners of computing.
- Consider the problem of computing values of a function at many points in its domain:
 - Precompute the function's values and store them in a table to speed up running time.
 - This idea is quite useful in the development of some important algorithms for other programs.

Space and Time Trade-offs

□ Input Enhancement:

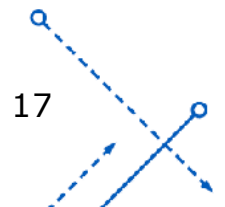
- Preprocess the problem's input and store the additional information obtained to accelerate solving the problem
- E.g., *Counting Sort, Boyer-Moore string matching*

□ Prestructuring:

- Use extra space to facilitate faster and/or more flexible access to the data
- E.g., *Hashing, indexing with B-trees*

□ Dynamic Programming:

- Record solutions to overlapping subproblems of a given problem in a table
- E.g., *the Knapsack problem*



Counting Sort Idea

- ❑ One rather obvious idea is to count, for each element of a list to be sorted, the total number of elements smaller than this element and record the results in a table.
- ❑ These numbers will indicate the positions of the elements in the sorted list: e.g., if the count is 10 for some element, it should be in the 11th position
- ❑ Thus, we will be able to sort the list by simply copying its elements to their appropriate positions in a new, sorted list.



Counting Sort

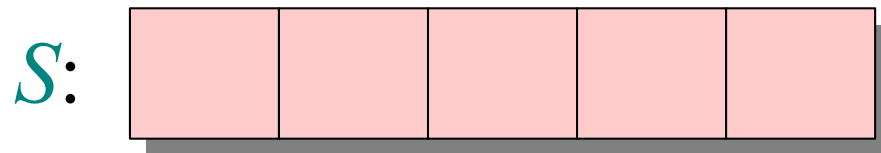
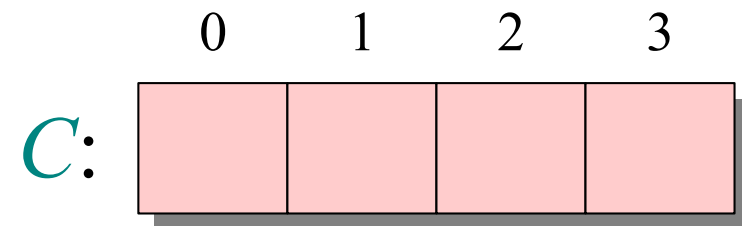
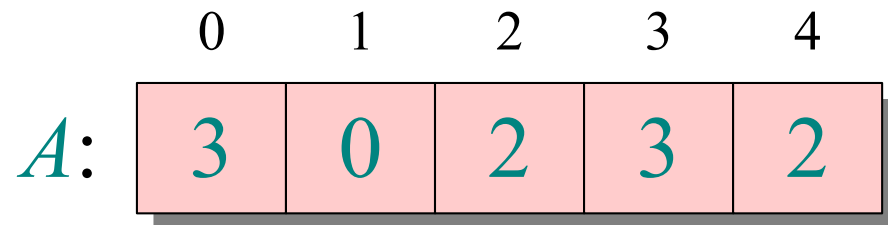
COUNTING-SORT($A[0..n-1], k$) //Input: An array $A[0..n - 1]$ of integers between $[0, k]$ //Output: Array $S[0..n - 1]$ of A 's elements sorted in nondecreasing order	Cost times
<pre> 1 for $j \leftarrow 0$ to k do 2 $C[j] \leftarrow 0$ 3 for $i \leftarrow 0$ to $n - 1$ do 4 $C[A[i]] \leftarrow C[A[i]] + 1$ 5 for $j \leftarrow 1$ to k do 6 $C[j] \leftarrow C[j - 1] + C[j]$ 7 for $i \leftarrow n - 1$ to 0 do 8 $S[C[A[i]] - 1] \leftarrow A[i]$ 9 $C[A[i]] \leftarrow C[A[i]] - 1$ 10 return S </pre>	$k + 1$ n k n n



Counting Sort Analysis

1. Input size: n, k
2. Basic operation: assignment & addition inside 4 loops
3. The number of key comparisons ***depends on the array size and the max value of the array.***
4. Sum of number of times the basic operations is:
$$C(n, k) = k + 1 + n + k + n + n = 2k + 3n + 1$$
5. Order of growth: ***$O(n + k)$***

Counting sort – Illustration



Counting Sort – Loop 1

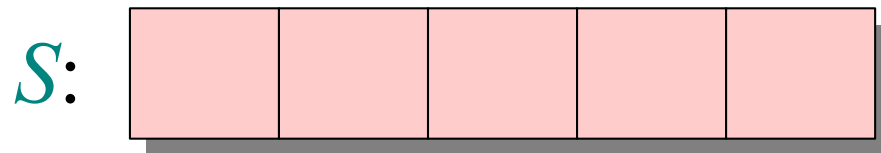
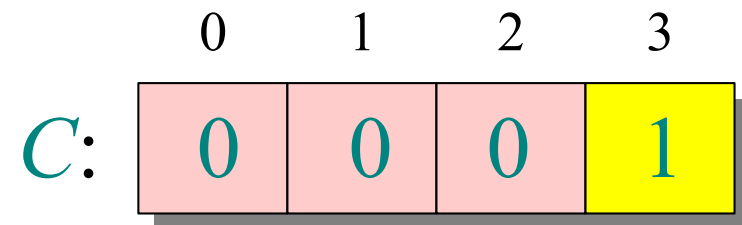
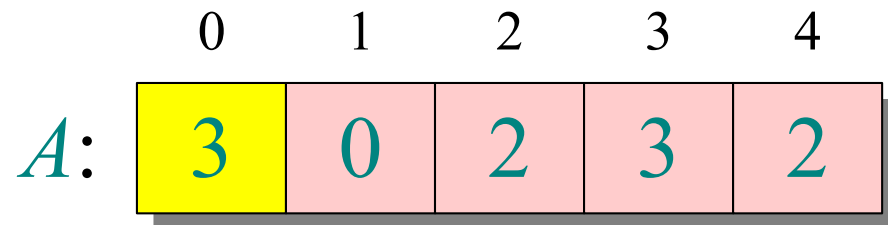
	0	1	2	3	4
A :	3	0	2	3	2

	0	1	2	3
C :	0	0	0	0

S :					
-------	--	--	--	--	--

for $j \leftarrow 0$ **to** k
 do $C[j] \leftarrow 0$

Counting Sort – Loop 2



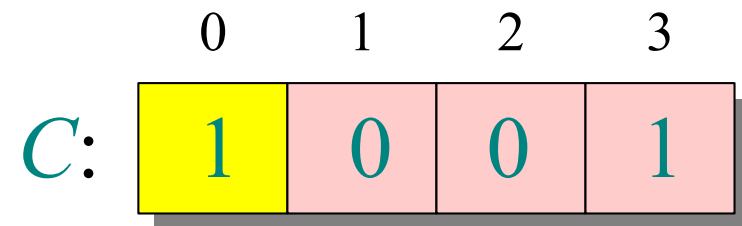
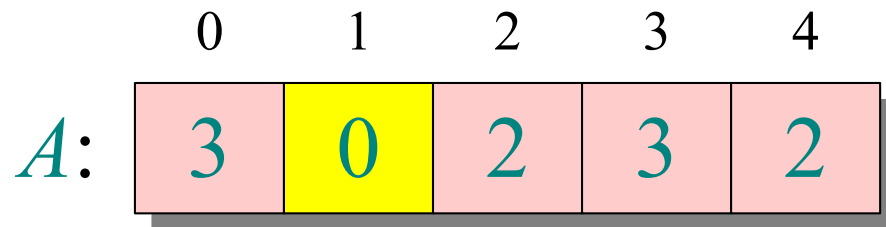
for $i \leftarrow 0$ **to** $n-1$

do $C[A[i]] \leftarrow C[A[i]] + 1$

$\triangleleft C[i] = |\{\text{key} = i\}|$



Counting Sort – Loop 2



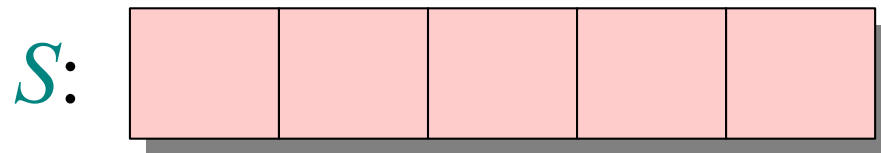
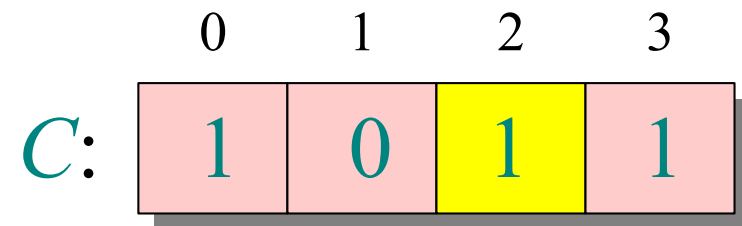
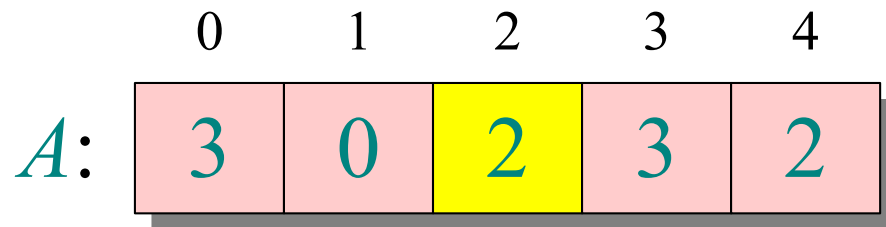
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Counting Sort – Loop 2



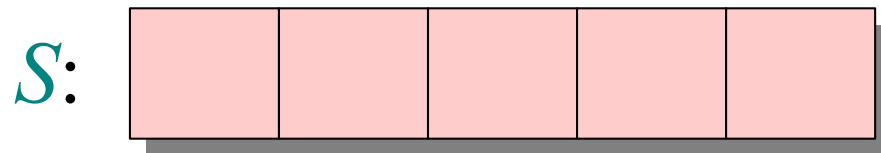
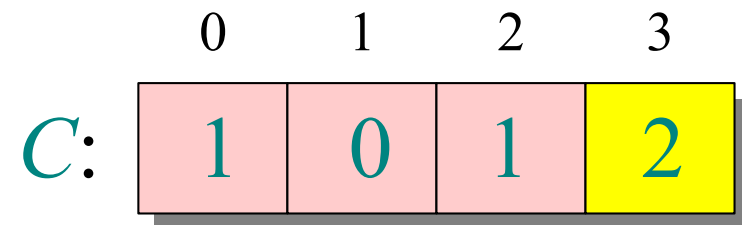
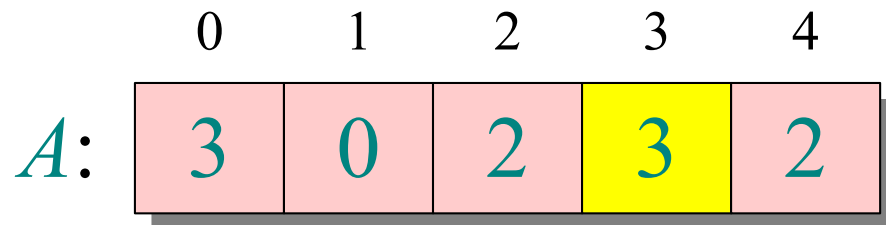
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Counting Sort – Loop 2



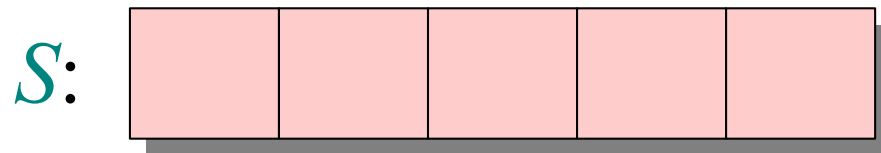
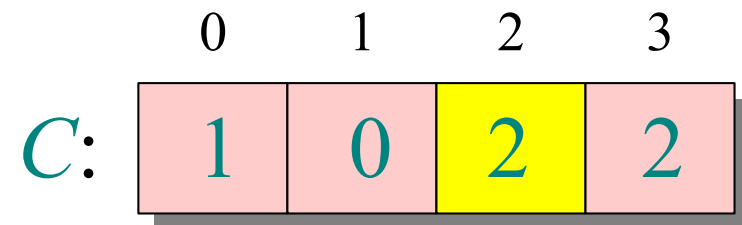
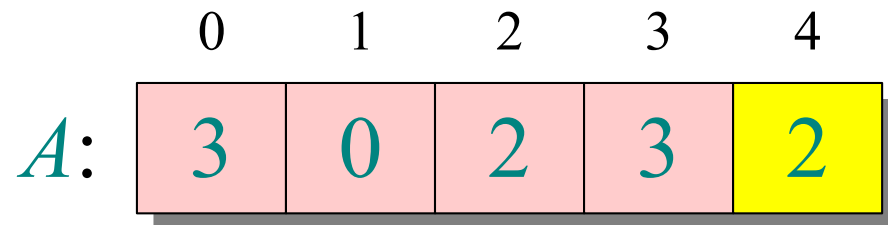
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Counting Sort – Loop 2



for $i \leftarrow 0$ **to** $n-1$

do $C[A[i]] \leftarrow C[A[i]] + 1$

$\triangleleft C[i] = |\{\text{key} = i\}|$



Counting Sort – Loop 3

	0	1	2	3	4
A :	3	0	2	3	2

	0	1	2	3
C :	1	0	2	2

S :					
-------	--	--	--	--	--

	0	1	2	3
C' :	1	1	2	2

for $j \leftarrow 1$ **to** k

do $C[j] \leftarrow C[j] + C[j-1]$

$\triangleleft C[j] = |\{\text{key} \leq j\}|$



Counting Sort – Loop 3

	0	1	2	3	4
A :	3	0	2	3	2

	0	1	2	3
C :	1	0	2	2

S :					
-------	--	--	--	--	--

	0	1	2	3
C' :	1	1	3	2

for $j \leftarrow 1$ **to** k
do $C[j] \leftarrow C[j] + C[j-1]$

$$\triangleleft C[j] = |\{\text{key} \leq j\}|$$



Counting Sort – Loop 3

	0	1	2	3	4
A :	3	0	2	3	2

	0	1	2	3
C :	1	0	2	2

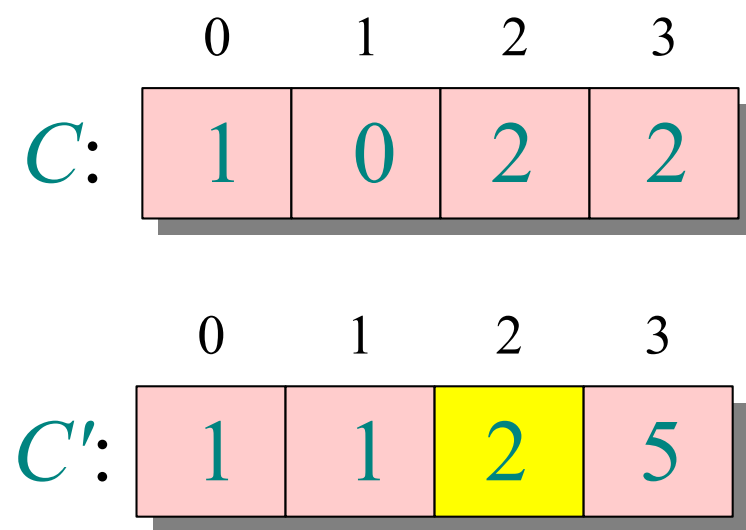
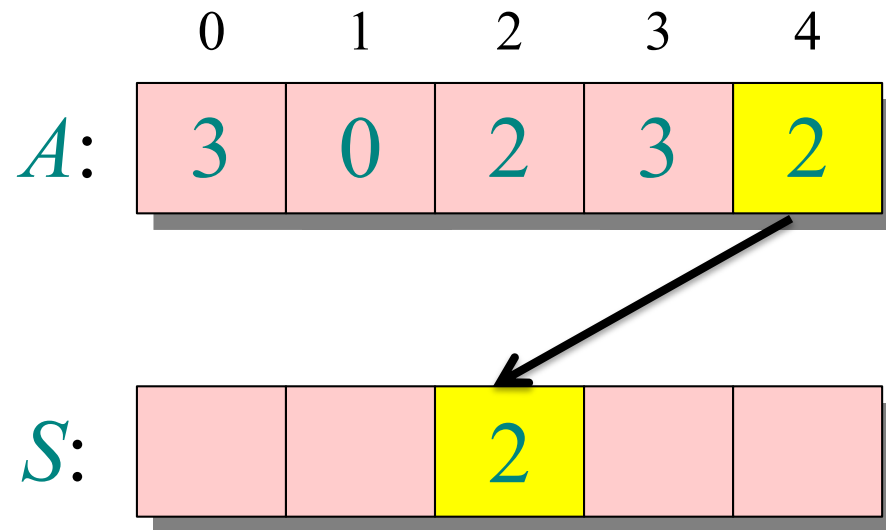
S :					
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	0	1	2	3
C' :	1	1	3	5

for $j \leftarrow 1$ **to** k
do $C[j] \leftarrow C[j] + C[j-1]$

$$\triangleleft C[j] = |\{\text{key} \leq j\}|$$

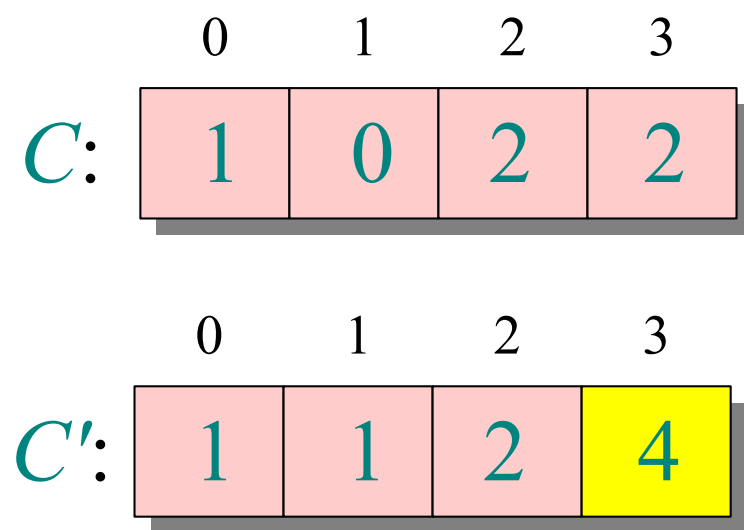
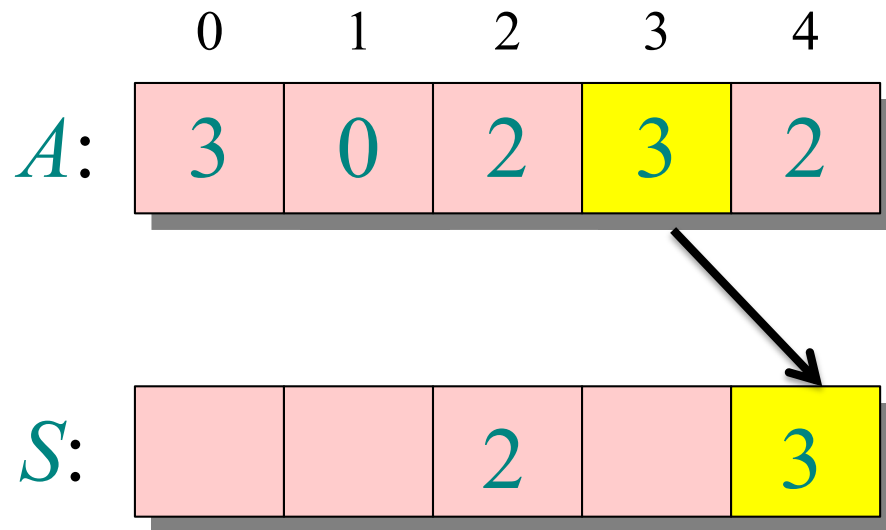
Counting Sort – Loop 4



```

for  $i \leftarrow n-1$  down to 0
  do  $S[C[A[i]] - 1] \leftarrow A[i]$ 
      $C[A[i]] \leftarrow C[A[i]] - 1$ 
    
```

Counting Sort – Loop 4

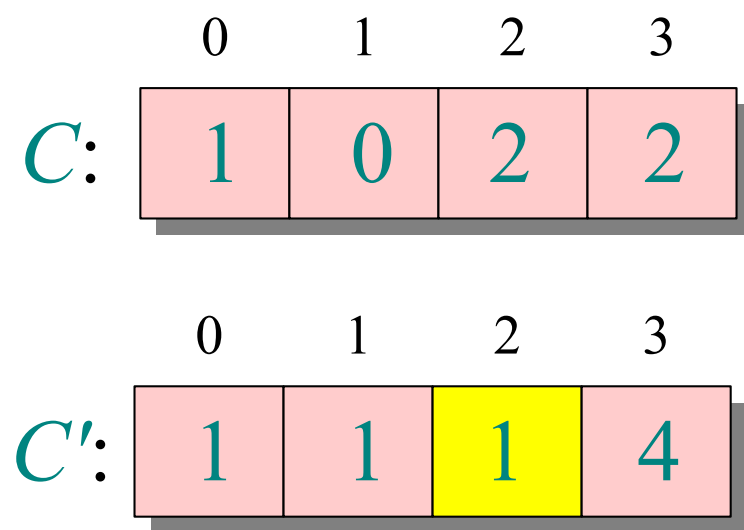
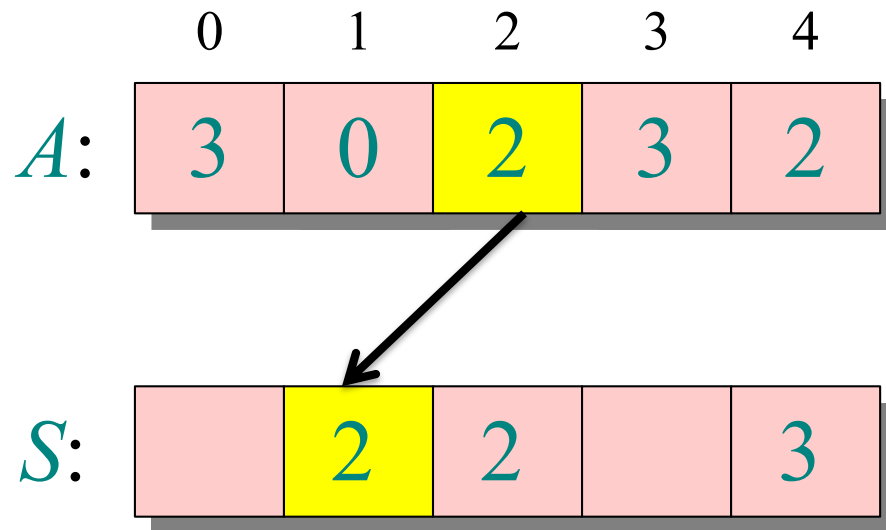


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Counting Sort – Loop 4

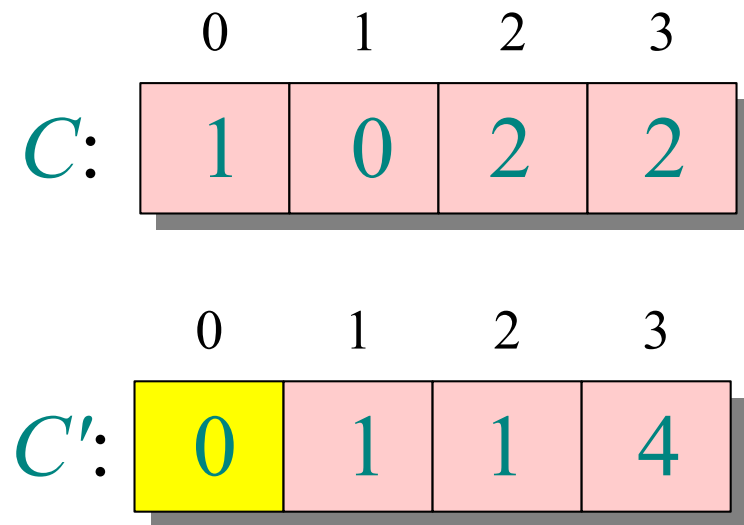
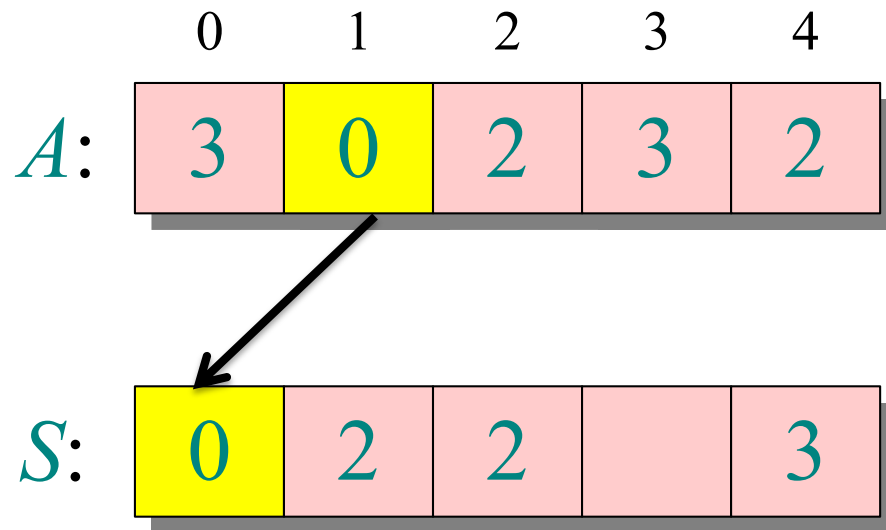


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Counting Sort – Loop 4

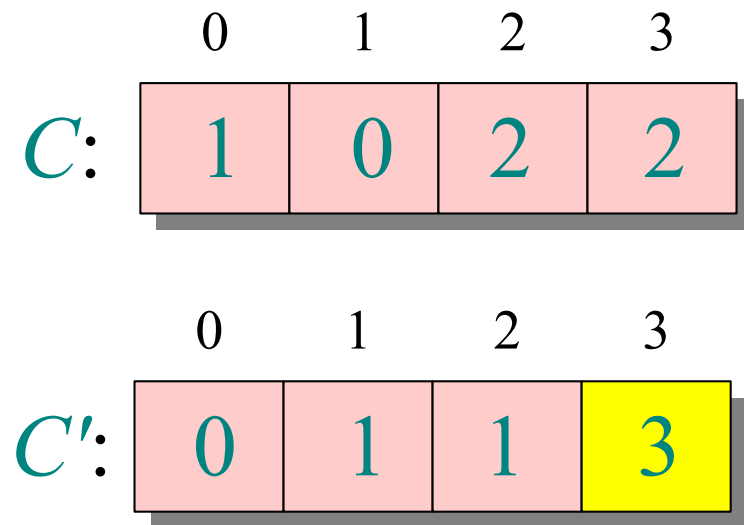
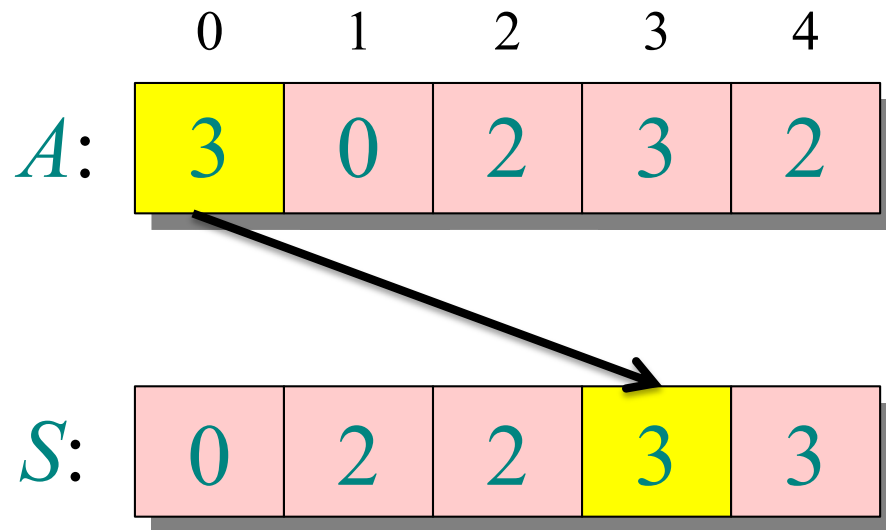


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```



Counting Sort – Loop 4



```

for  $i \leftarrow n-1$  down to 0
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      $C[A[i]] \leftarrow C[A[i]] - 1$ 
    
```

Counting Sort – Running time

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

- But, sorting takes $\Omega(n \log_2 n)$ time!
- Where's the fallacy?

Answer:

- **Comparison sorting** takes $\Omega(n \log_2 n)$ time.
- Counting sort is not a **comparison sort**.
- In fact, not a single comparison between elements occurs!



Counting Sort – Pros and Cons

□ Pros:

- It performs particularly well when the range of the input is small compared to the number of elements.
- Stable sort
- There is no comparison operation. Instead, it uses integer counting and index-based placement to sort the elements, resulting in faster execution.

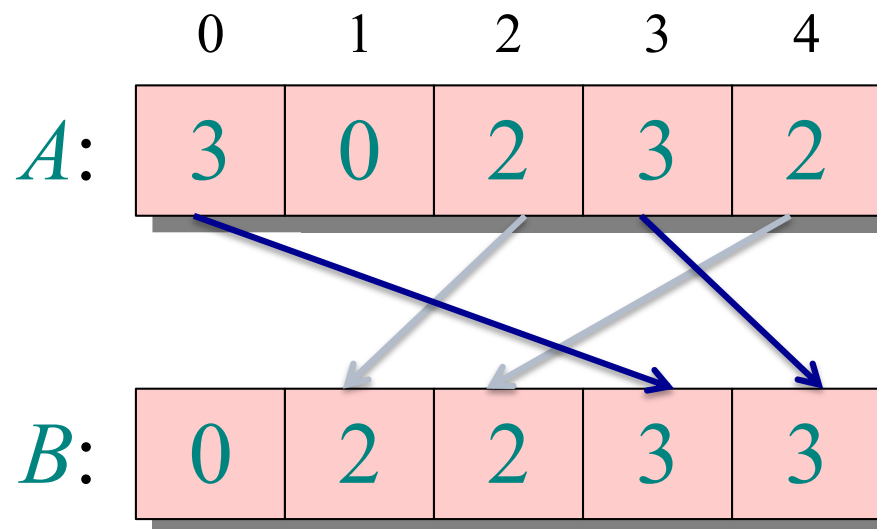
□ Cons:

- Limited to sorting integers
- Not in-place. It requires additional memory space proportional to the range of the input.
- The input range must be known in advance.

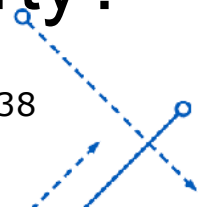


Stable sorting

- Counting sort is a **stable** sort: it preserves the input order among equal elements.

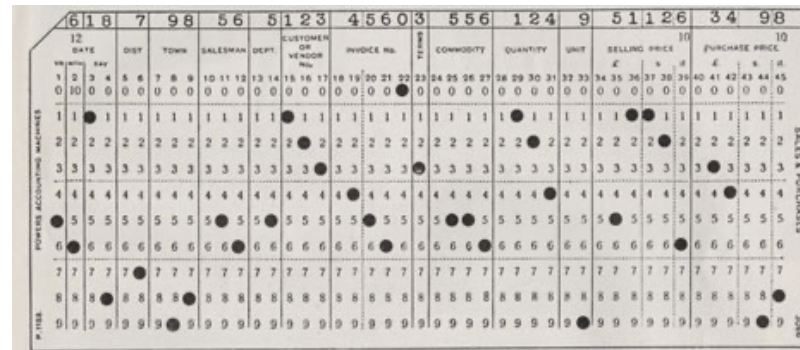


- **Exercise:** What other sorts have this property?



Radix Sort

- Origin: Herman Hollerith's card-sorting machine for the 1890 U.S. Census.
 - The cards have 80 columns, each has 12 places to punch by a machine.



12	6	18	7	98	56	5	123	4	5603	556	124	9	5	1126	34	98
DATE	DAY	DIST	TOWN	SALESMAN	DEPT.	CUSTOMER OR VENDOR	INVOICE NO.	COMMODITY	QUANTITY	UNIT	SELLING PRICE	PURCHASE PRICE				
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17
0	10	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2
3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3
4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4
5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5
6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6
7	7	7	7	7	7	7	7	7	7	7	7	7	7	7	7	7
8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8
9	9	9	9	9	9	9	9	9	9	9	9	9	9	9	9	9

- The sorter can examine a given column of each card in a deck and distribute the card into one of 12 bins depending on which place has been punched.

Radix Sort Idea

- For **decimal** digits, each column uses only **10** places.
 - A **d -digit** number occupies a field of **d** columns.
- Since the card sorter can look at only one column at a time, the problem of sorting n cards on a d -digit number requires a sorting algorithm:
 - **Intuitively:** Sort numbers on their **most significant** (leftmost) digit first.
 - **Better idea:** Sort numbers on their **least significant** (rightmost) digit first with auxiliary **stable** sort.
 - Then, it sorts the entire deck again on the second-least significant digit and recombines the deck.
 - Only d passes through the deck are required to sort.

Radix Sort – Algorithm & Analysis

RADIX-SORT($A[0..n-1], d$) //Input: An array $A[0..n-1]$ of n d -digit integers //Output: Array $A[0..n-1]$ sorted in nondecreasing order	Cost times
1 for $i \leftarrow 0$ to $d-1$ do 2 Use a stable sort to sort array A on digit i	$d \cdot C(n)$

**Counting
Sort: $O(n+k)$**

n d -digits numbers

each has k possible values

$O(d(n+k))$

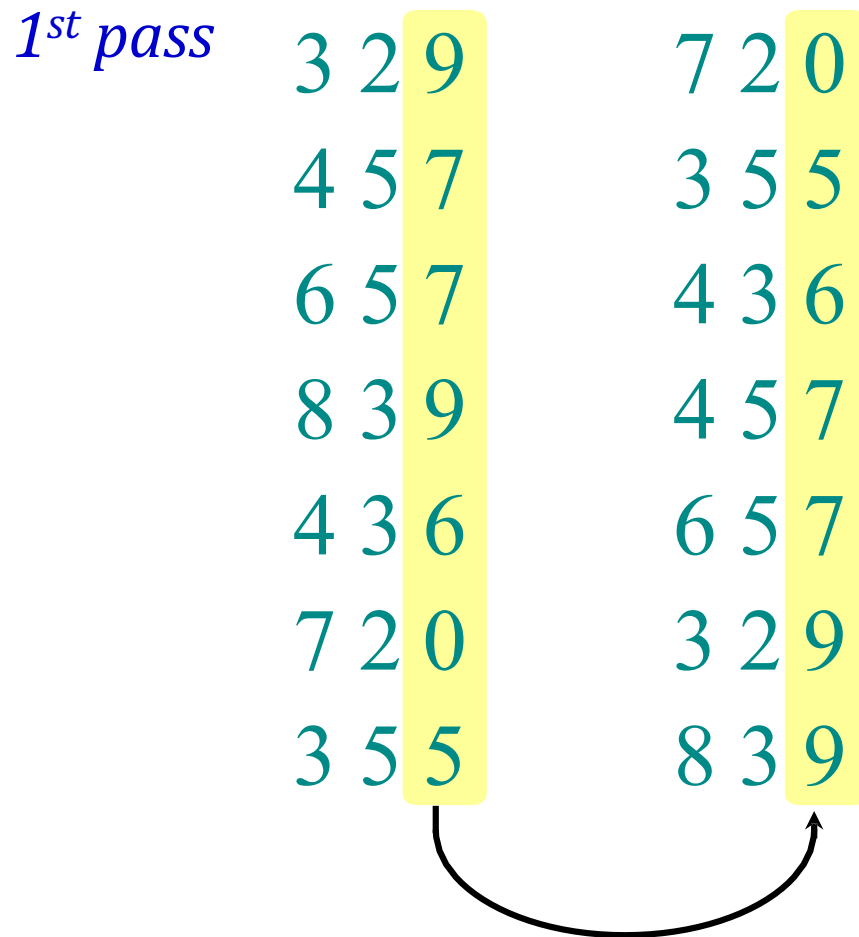
if d is constant
and $k = O(n)$

$O(n)$



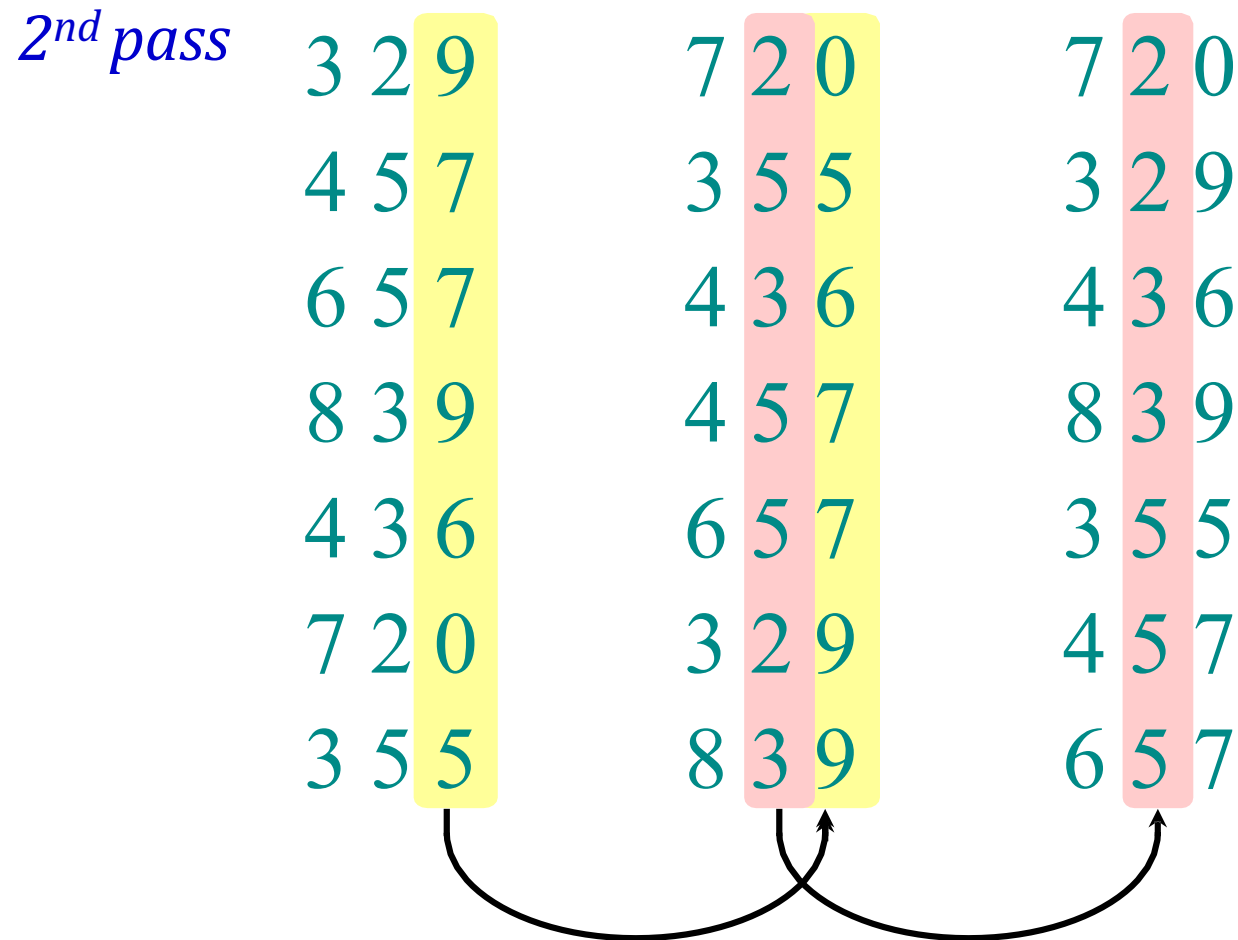
Operation of LSD Radix sort

□ Radix sort on a “deck” of seven 3-digit numbers:



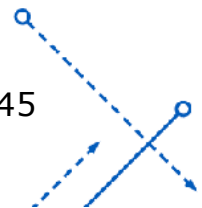
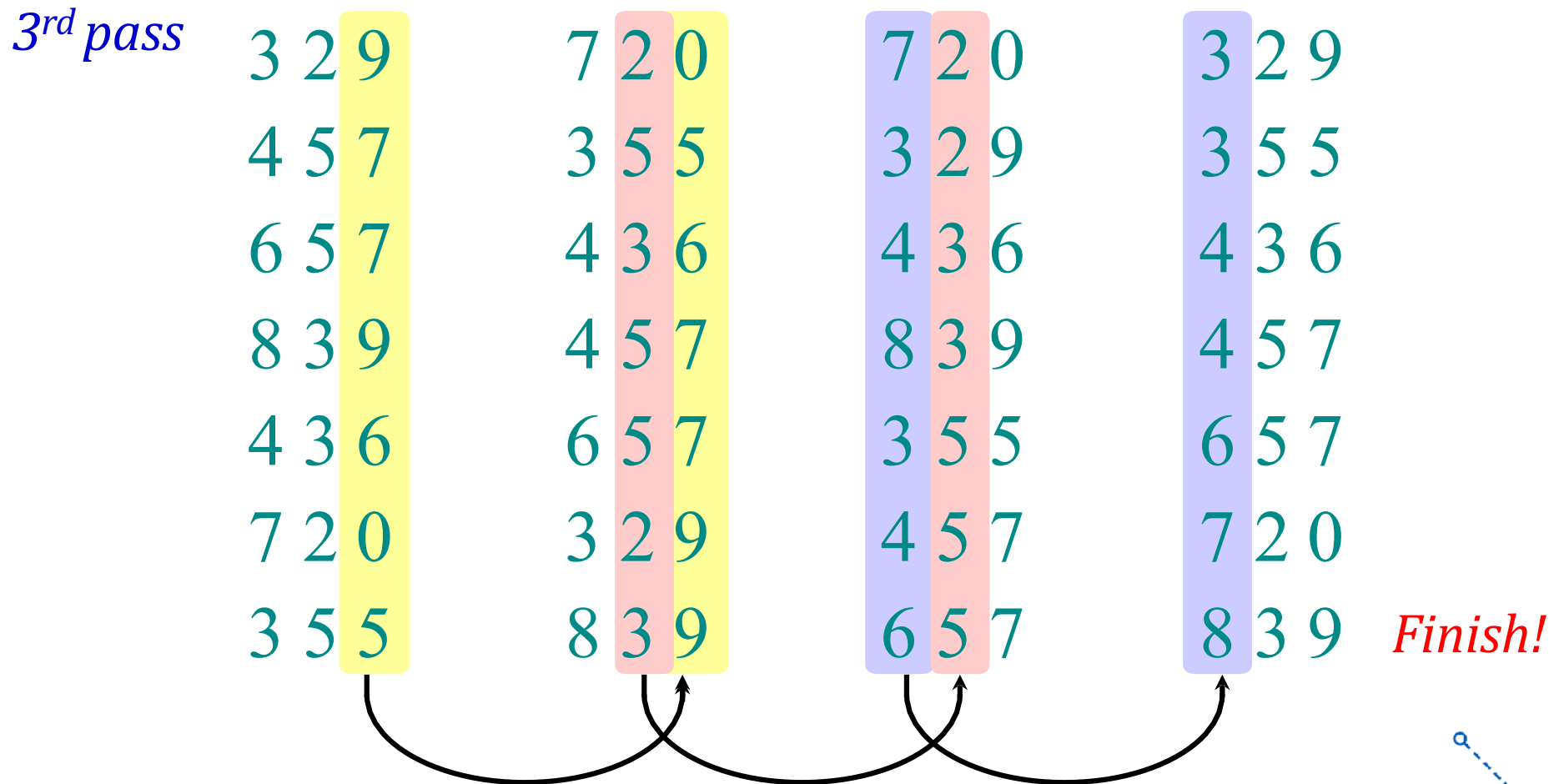
Operation of LSD Radix sort

- Radix sort on a “deck” of seven 3-digit numbers.



Operation of LSD Radix sort

- Radix sort on a “deck” of seven 3-digit numbers.



Radix Sort – Pros and Cons

□ Pros:

- In practice, radix sort is fast for large inputs, as well as simple to code and maintain.
- Can be used to sort records of information that are keyed by multiple fields.

□ Cons:

- The digit sorts must be stable.
- Unlike quicksort, radix sort displays little locality of reference, and thus a well-tuned quicksort far better on modern processors.

Radix Sort – Lemma

- **Lemma :** Given n b -bit numbers and any positive integer $r \leq b$, RADIX-SORT correctly sorts these numbers in $((b/r)(n + 2^r))$ time if the stable sort it uses takes $O(n + k)$ time for inputs in the range 0 to k .
- **Proof:**
 - See Textbook 1, page 295~

Most significant digit Radix sort

- Use lexicographic order, which is suitable for sorting strings, such as words, or fixed-length integer representations.
- No need to preserve the order of duplicate keys
- **Example:**
 - car, bar, care, bare → bar, bare, car, care
 - 9, 8, 10, 1, 3 → 1, 10, 3, 8, 9

More Reading

□ Stirling's approximation

■ Textbook 1 – Page 57

A weak upper bound on the factorial function is $n! \leq n^n$, since each of the n terms in the factorial product is at most n . *Stirling's approximation*,

$$n! = \sqrt{2\pi n} \left(\frac{n}{e}\right)^n \left(1 + \Theta\left(\frac{1}{n}\right)\right), \quad (3.18)$$

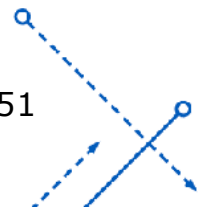
where e is the base of the natural logarithm, gives us a tighter upper bound, and a lower bound as well. As Exercise 3.2-3 asks you to prove,

$$\begin{aligned} n! &= o(n^n), \\ n! &= \omega(2^n), \\ \lg(n!) &= \Theta(n \lg n), \end{aligned} \quad (3.19)$$

What's next?

□ After today:

- Read textbook 1 – Chapter 8
- Read textbook 3 – 7.1
- Do Homework 2



Q&A