Lecture 6: Sorting Lower Bound and "Linear-Time" Sorting

Michael Dinitz

September 11, 2025 601.433/633 Introduction to Algorithms

Lots of ways of sorting in $O(n \log n)$ time: mergesort, heapsort, randomized quicksort, deterministic quicksort with BPFRT pivot selection, . . .

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All algorithms we've seen so far have been in this model

No: every algorithm in the comparison model must have worst-case running time $\Omega(n \log n)$.

Yes: If we assume extra structure for the elements, can do sorting in O(n) time*

Sorting Lower Bound

Statement

Theorem

Any sorting algorithm in the comparison model must make at least $\log(n!) = \Theta(n \log n)$ comparisons (in the worst case).

Lower bound on the number of comparisons – running time could be even worse! Allows algorithm to reorder elements, copy them, move them, etc. for free.

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Why is this hard?

- Lower bound needs to hold for all algorithms
- How can we simultaneously reason about algorithms as different as mergesort, quicksort, heapsort, . . . ?

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Sorting as Permutations

Think of an array **A** as a permutation: A[i] is the $\pi(i)$ 'th smallest element

$$A = [23, 14, 2, 5, 76]$$

Corresponds to $\pi = (3, 2, 0, 1, 4)$:

$$\pi(0) = 3$$

$$\pi(1)=2$$

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Lemma

Given **A** with |A| = n, if can sort in T(n) comparisons then can find π in T(n) comparisons

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Sorting As Permutations (cont'd)

Lemma

Given **A** with |A| = n, if can sort in T(n) comparisons then can find π in T(n) comparisons

Proof Sketch.

- ► "Tag" each element of \mathbf{A} with index: $[23, 14, 2, 5, 76] \rightarrow [(23, 0), (14, 1), (2, 2), (5, 3), (76, 4)]$
- Sort tagged A into tagged B with T(n) comparisons: [(2,2),(5,3),(14,1),(23,0),(76,4)]
- Iterate through to get π : $\pi(2) = 0, \pi(3) = 1, \pi(1) = 2, \pi(0) = 3, \pi(4) = 4$

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Corollary

If need at least T(n) comparisons to find π , need at least T(n) comparisons to sort!

Generic Algorithm

Want to show that it takes $\Omega(n \log n)$ comparisons to find π in comparison model.

Only comparisons cost us anything!

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Arbitrary algorithm:

- ▶ Starts with some comparison (e.g., compares A[0] to A[1])
- Rules out some possible permutations!
 - If A[0] < A[1] then $\pi(0) < \pi(1)$
 - If A[0] > A[1] then $\pi(0) > \pi(1)$
- Depending on outcome, choose next comparison to make.
- Continue until only one possible permutation.

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Remind you of anything?

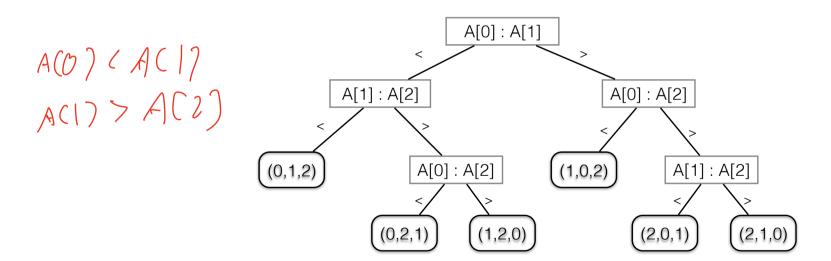
Model any algorithm as a binary decision tree

- ► Internal nodes: comparisons
- ► Leaves: permutations

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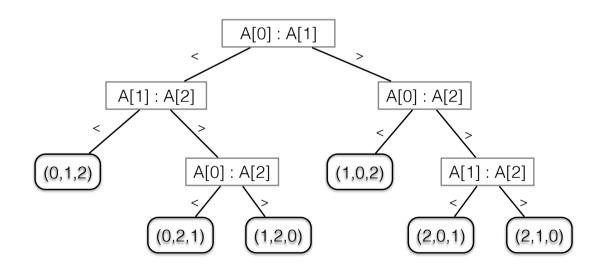
Example: n = 3. Six possible permutations.



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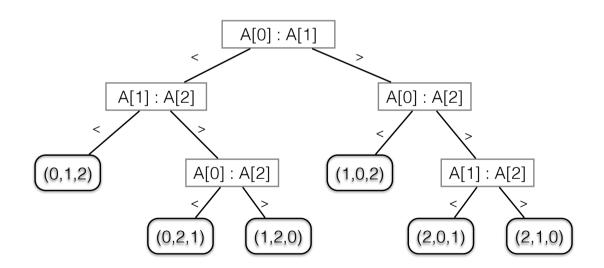
Max # comparisons:

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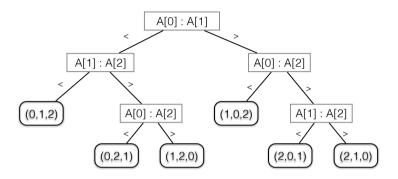
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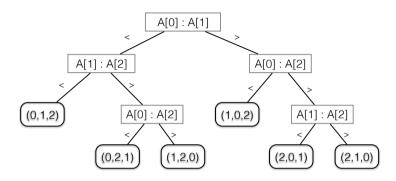
Max # comparisons: 3

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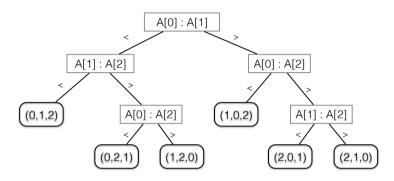


Scale to general **n**. Consider arbitrary decision tree.



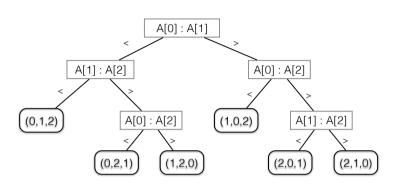
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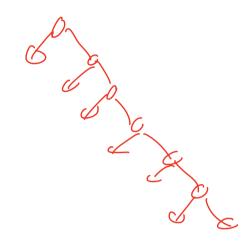
Max # comparisons



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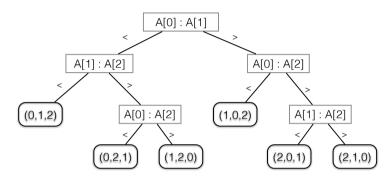
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$$\geq \log_2(\# \text{ leaves})$$

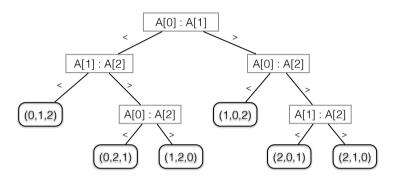


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= $\log_2(n!)$



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= \Theta(n \log n)
```

Sorting Lower Bound Summary

Theorem

Every sorting algorithm in the comparison model must make at least $\log(n!) = \Theta(n \log n)$ comparisons (in the worst case).

Proof Sketch.

- 1. Lower bound on finding permutation $\pi \implies$ lower bound on sorting
- 2. Any algorithm for finding π is a binary decision tree with n! leaves.
- 3. Any binary decision tree with n! leaves has depth $\geq \log(n!) = \Theta(n \log n)$
- \implies Every algorithm has worst case number of comparisons at least $\Theta(n \log n)$.

"Linear-Time" Sorting

Bypassing the Lower Bound

What if we're *not* in the comparison model?

Can do more than just compare elements.

Main example: integers.

- What is the **3**rd bit of A[0]?
- ▶ Is $A[0] \ll k$ larger than $A[1] \gg c$?
- ► Is **A**[**0**] even?

Same ideas apply to letters, strings, etc.

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- ightharpoonup Maintain an array B of length k initialized to all 0
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Running time: O(n+k)

Bucket Sort: Counting Sort++

Often want to sort *objects* based on *keys*:

- ▶ Each object has a key: integer in $\{0, 1, ..., k-1\}$
- ▶ **A** consists of **n** objects

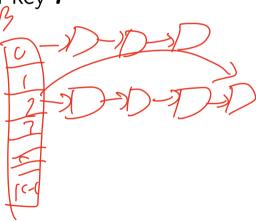
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Stable: if two objects have same key, order between them after sorting is same as before.

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- Assume all numbers have exactly d digits (for simplicity)

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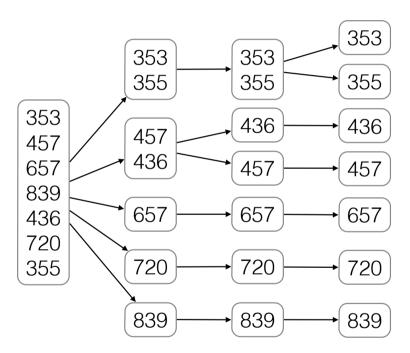
If you were sorting cards, with a number on each card, what might you do?

Radix Sort: Algorithm

Divide into 10 buckets by first digit, recurse on each bucket by second-digit, etc.

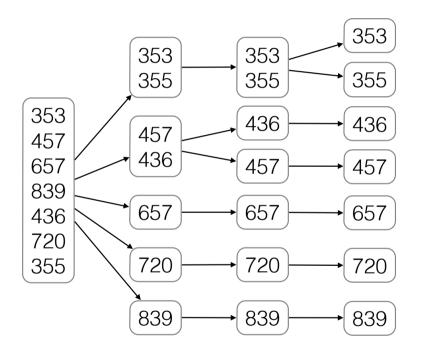
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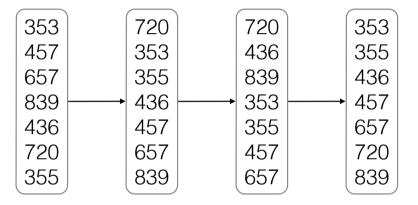


Works, but clunky

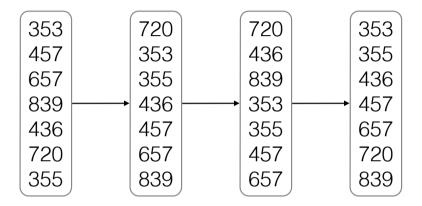
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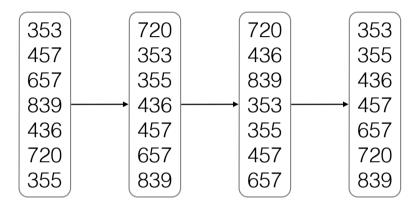


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Theorem

Radix sort from least significant to most significant is correct if the sort used on each digit is stable.

Proof.

Claim: After i'th iteration, correctly sorted by last i digits (interpreted as # in $[0, 10^i - 1]$).

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- ► After *i* + **1** sort:



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Induction:

- Suppose correct for i
- ► After *i* + 1 sort:
 - If two numbers have different i + 1 digits, now correct.
 - If two number have same i + 1 digit, were correct and still correct by stability.



Recall have n numbers, all numbers have d digits.

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Is this good? Bad? In between?

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Improve to O(n)?

Change to go b digits at a time instead of just 1.

- ▶ Kind of cheating: look at **b** digits in constant time.
- Necessary if we want time better than nd

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Total time:
$$O\left(\frac{d}{b}\left(n+10^b\right)\right)$$

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Total time: $O\left(\frac{d}{b}\left(n+10^b\right)\right)$

Set $b = \log_{10} n$. If $d = O(\log n)$, then time

$$O\left(\frac{d}{\log_{10} n}(n+n)\right) = O(n)$$

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Example: sorting integers between 0 and n^{10} . Then d should be about $\log_{10} n^{10} = 10 \log_{10} n$, as required.