

# Introduction to Algorithms: Lecture 2b

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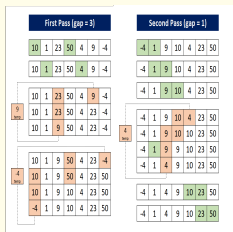
2025 spring



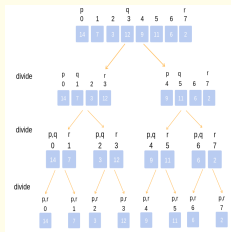
# Outline

- 1 Introduction
- 2 Lower bound for comparison sorts
- 3 Linear Time Sorting

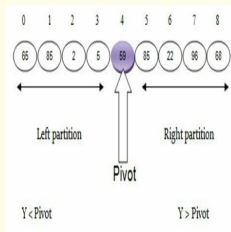
# Motivation



(a) SHELLSORT



(b) MERGESORT

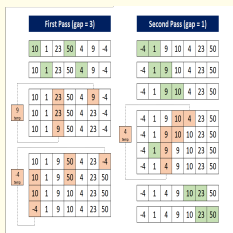


(c) QUICKSORT

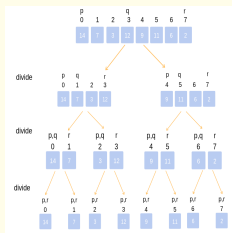
## Questions

Several algorithms sort  $n$  elements in  $O(n \log n)$  time  
 — Faster Algorithms? Is  $O(n)$  possible?

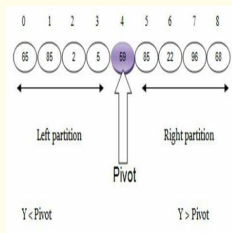
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(f) QUICKSORT

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Several algorithms sort  $n$  elements in  $O(n \log n)$  time  
— Faster Algorithms? Is  $O(n)$  possible?

Remark:  $\Omega(n)$  time to read all elements

# Overview

## Part 1: $\Omega(n \log n)$ lower bound for **comparison** sorts

All previous sorting algorithm can sort strings, real numbers, and any objects — **too flexible** to get  $O(n)$  time.

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Demonstration of string sorting using Bubble sort in C++  
Strings in sorted order are :  
String 1 is Asia  
String 2 is Educba  
String 3 is India  
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String 5 is Python  
String 6 is Technology
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## Part 2: $O(n)$ sorting

A linear-time algorithm for sorting **bounded integers**.

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# Comparison Sorts

Definition: A sort algorithm is a **comparison-sort** if it uses only comparisons between two elements  $A[i]$  and  $A[j]$  to determine the output.

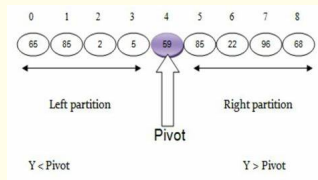


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## Example: Quicksort

If pivot  $x = A[i]$ ,  $A[j]$  is in front of  $A[i]$  for any  $A[j] < x$ .

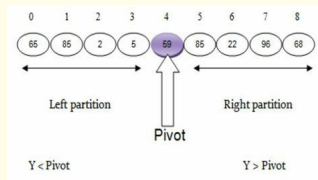


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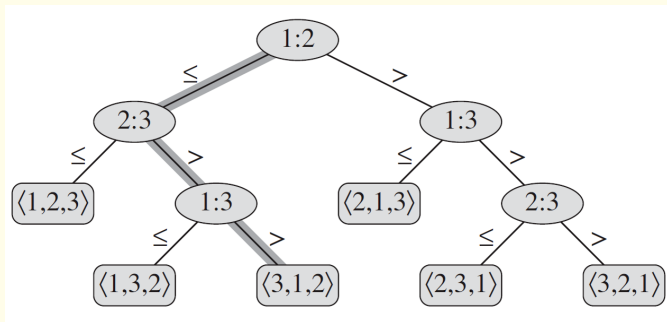
Main Question: How many comparisons do we need to determine the order of  $A$ ?

For convenience, consider  $A$  as a permutation of  $[n] := \{1, 2, \dots, n\}$ .

# Comparisons

Any deterministic sort (excluding QUICKSORT)  $\Rightarrow$  a **decision tree**:

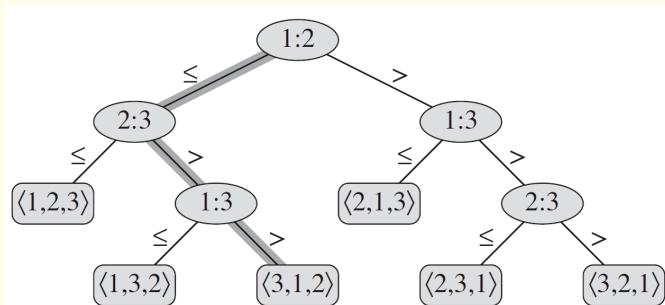
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# Comparisons

Any deterministic sort (excluding QUICKSORT)  $\Rightarrow$  a **decision tree**:

- 1 Starting from the root, each node  $(i, j)$  corresponds to a comparison
- 2 each edge has two labels “ $<$ ” and “ $>$ ”
- 3 each leaf corresponds to a termination with a correct order



# Conclusion

Observation: Worst running time  $\geq$  length (longest path from the root).

## THM 8.1 in CLRS

Any comparison sort algorithm requires  $\Omega(n \log n)$  comparisons in the worst case.



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## Proof.

- 1 Consider the decision tree corresponding to the sort algorithm.
- 2 The decision has  $n!$  permutations on its leaves  
— so its depth is  $\geq \log_2(n!)$ .



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Extensions: 1) The average-case running time is  $\Omega(n \log n)$ .  
2) The running time of any randomized comparison sort is  $\Omega(n \log n)$  with high prob.

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# Counting Sort

Suppose all elements are integers in  $[0, 1, \dots, k]$  for small  $k = O(n)$ .

## Basic Idea

Instead of comparing them, one could count how many elements  $= 0, = 1, \dots, = k$  separately.

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$\Rightarrow$  Positions of elements with value  $\ell$  are between  $(\# \text{ elements} < \ell) + 1$  and  $(\# \text{ elements} < \ell + 1)$ .

Implementation: After counting  $(\# \text{ elements} = 0), \dots, (\# \text{ elements} = k)$ , sum them up.

# Description

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

```
1  let  $C[0..k]$  be a new array
2  for  $i = 0$  to  $k$ 
3       $C[i] = 0$ 
4  for  $j = 1$  to  $A.length$ 
5       $C[A[j]] = C[A[j]] + 1$ 
6  //  $C[i]$  now contains the number of elements equal to  $i$ .
7  for  $i = 1$  to  $k$ 
8       $C[i] = C[i] + C[i - 1]$ 
9  //  $C[i]$  now contains the number of elements less than or equal to  $i$ .
10 for  $j = A.length$  downto 1
11      $B[C[A[j]]] = A[j]$ 
12      $C[A[j]] = C[A[j]] - 1$ 
```

on Page 195 of CLRS

# Analysis

The correctness follows from the main properties of  $C$ .

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## Next Question

What if  $k$  is huge say  $k = n^{O(1)}$  or  $k = 2^{64}$ ?

# Radix Sort

If  $k$  is huge, consider the binary representation of all numbers.

Example:

$$A[1] = 683 \qquad \qquad \qquad = (1010101011)_2$$

$$A[2] = 121 \qquad \qquad \qquad = (0001111001)_2$$

$$\vdots$$

$$A[n-1] = 794 \qquad \qquad \qquad = (1100011010)_2$$

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1st idea: Sort according to 1st bit, then 2nd bit, 3rd bit, ...

$$\begin{array}{ll} A[2] = 121 & = (\textcolor{red}{0}001111001)_2 \\ & \vdots \\ A[i-1] = 301 & = (\textcolor{red}{0}100101101)_2 \\ A[i] = 648 & = (\textcolor{red}{1}010001000)_2 \\ & \vdots \\ A[1] = 683 & = (\textcolor{red}{1}010101011)_2 \end{array}$$

# Key Idea

Then sort the two groups separately.

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However, this needs to store  $\log_2 k$  levels (and many groups).

## Question

Can we find a simpler solution?

## An elegant solution: Radix-sort

Recall **stable**: numbers with the same value appear in the output are in the same order as their order in the input

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procedure RADIX-SORT( $d$ )  
  for  $i = 1, \dots, d$  do  
    use a stable sort (e.g., COUNTINGSORT) to sort array  $A$  on  
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Example: 1010, 0101, 1111, 0000, 0001, 0100, 1110, 0011

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- 2 Then  $A[i]$  is always in front of  $A[j]$  because of the stable sort.

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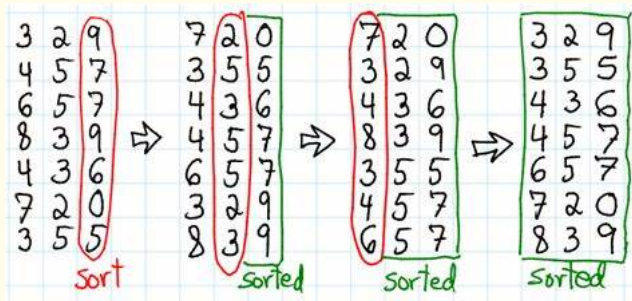
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- 1 Choose  $r = \log n + O(1)$  s.t. the running time becomes  $O(\frac{b}{\log n} \cdot n)$ .
- 2 When  $b = O(\log n)$  — all numbers are in  $\text{poly}(n)$ , linear time! ☺

## Extensions

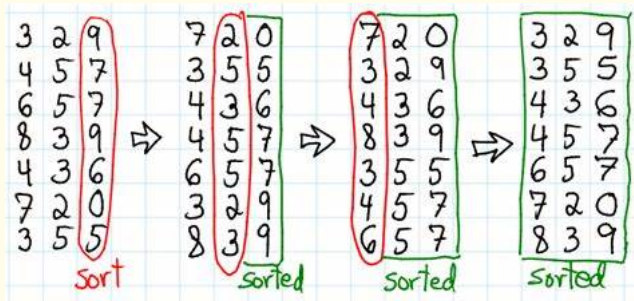
It works for strings, dates, and objects with several keywords.

# Conclusion



- 1 COUNTSORT and RADIXSORT are fast and easy to implement.
- 2 Some restrictions.

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- 1 COUNTSORT and RADIXSORT are fast and easy to implement.
- 2 Some restrictions.
- 3 Two keys in RADIXSORT are (1) a delicate property called stable; (2) adjusting parameters.

# Summary of sorting algorithms

Type	Time	Method	
SHELLSORT	$O(n \log^2 n)$	INSERTIONSORT	(1) $O(1)$ -extra space; (2) easy to implement
MERGESORT	$O(n \log n)$	Divide & Conquer	(1) $O(n)$ -extra space; (2) big constant in $O$
QUICKSORT	$O(n \log n)$	Divide & Conquer	(1) Most widely used; (2) Randomized
RADIXSORT	$O(n)$	COUNTINGSORT	(1) For integers $\leq n^{O(1)}$ ; (2) big constant in $O$

Table of sorting algorithms

More: (1) A lower bound  $\Omega(n \log n)$  for comparison sort.  
(2) Many algorithms could be applied to sort strings and other objects.

# Questions?