

# DATA STRUCTURES & ALGORITHMS

## Lecture 2: Sorting (part 2)

Lecturer: Dr. Nguyen Hai Minh

# CONTENT

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- 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**

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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 – $\Omega$ -notation

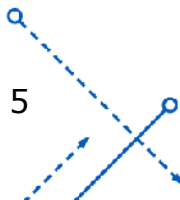
□ Provides an asymptotic lower bound on a function

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

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

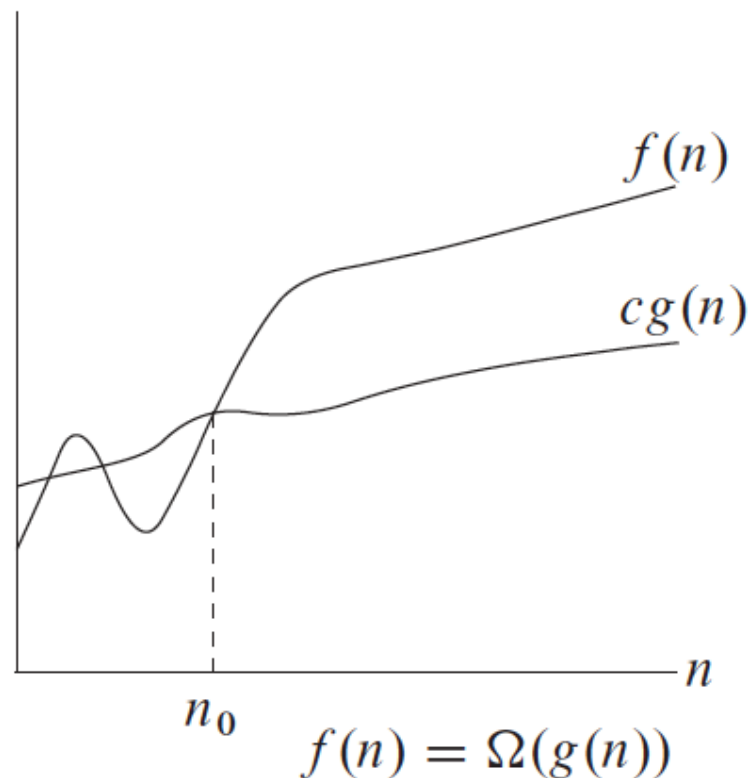
□ Example:

- 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
- $\sqrt{n} = \Omega(\log_2 n)$  ( $c = 1, n = 16$ )



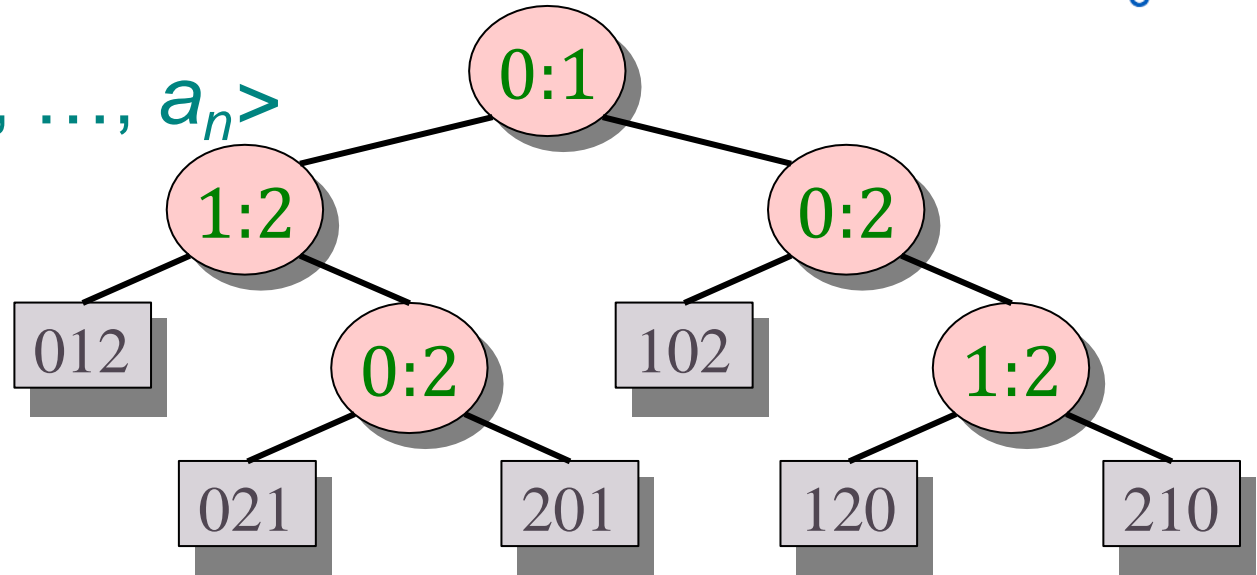
# Asymptotic lower bound – $\Omega$ notation

- 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

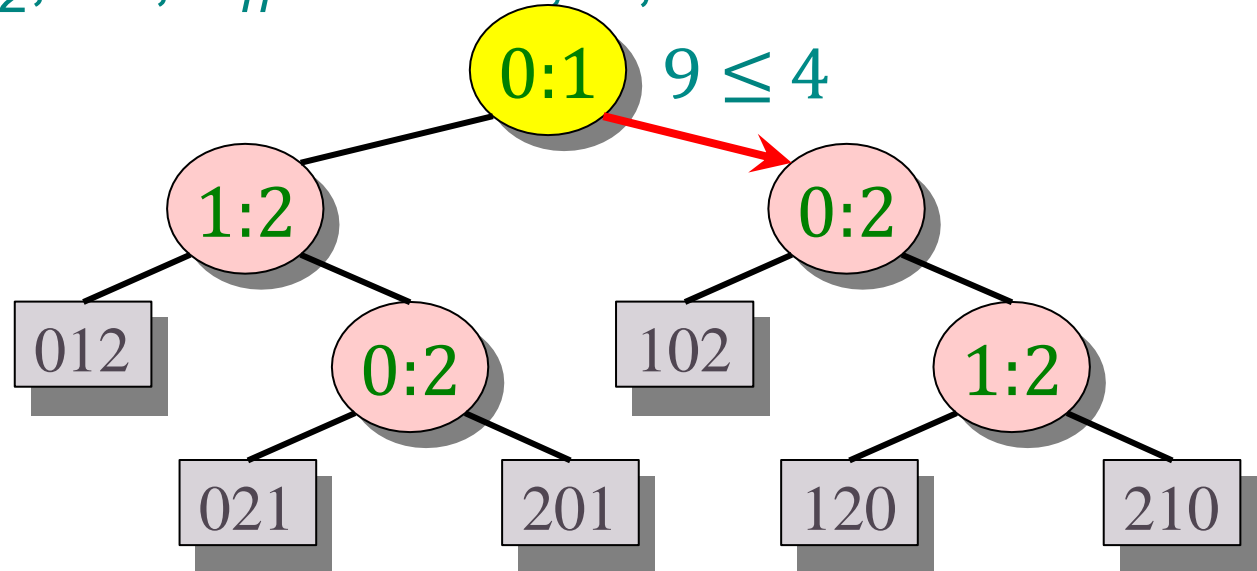
□ Sort  $\langle a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n \rangle$



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

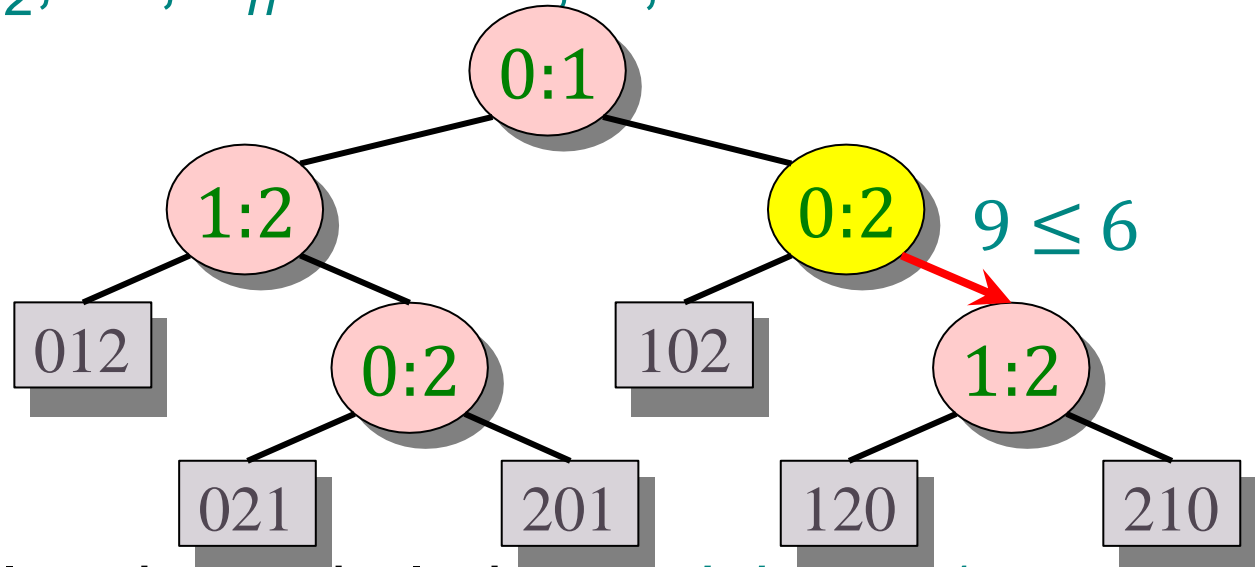


- Each internal node is labeled  $i:j$  for  $i, j \in \{0, 1, \dots, n-1\}$ .
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# Decision tree example

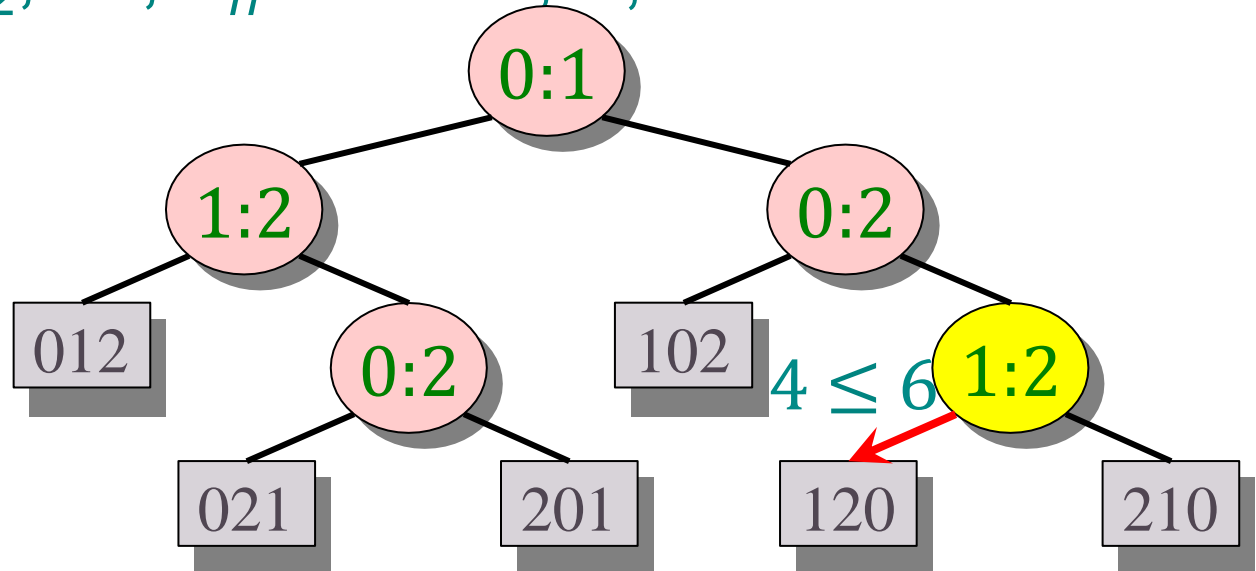
□ Sort  $\langle a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n \rangle = \langle 9, 4, 6 \rangle$



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# Decision tree example

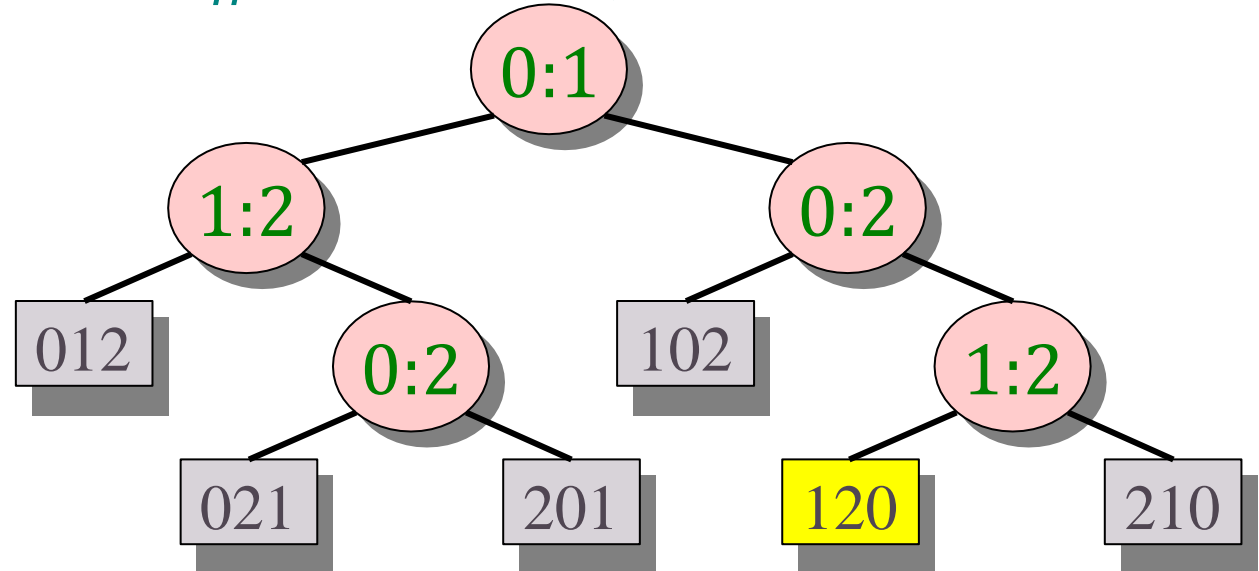
□ Sort  $\langle a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n \rangle = \langle 9, 4, 6 \rangle$



- Each internal node is labeled  $i:j$  for  $i, j \in \{0, 1, \dots, n-1\}$ .
  - The left subtree shows subsequent comparisons if  $a_i \leq a_j$ .
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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  $\Omega(n \log_2 n)$ .

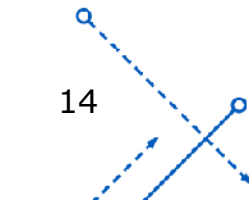
**Proof.** The tree must contain  $\geq n!$  leaves, since there are  $n!$  possible permutations. A height- $h$  binary tree has  $\leq 2^h$  leaves. Thus,  $n! \leq 2^h$ .

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



# Lower bound for comparison sorting

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



The background of the slide is a solid blue color. Overlaid on this background is a complex, abstract pattern of white lines and dots. The pattern consists of several intersecting straight lines, some solid and some dashed, creating a grid-like structure. Scattered throughout this grid are numerous small white circles or dots, some of which are connected by thin lines, suggesting a network or a path. The overall effect is a technical or mathematical aesthetic.

# 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

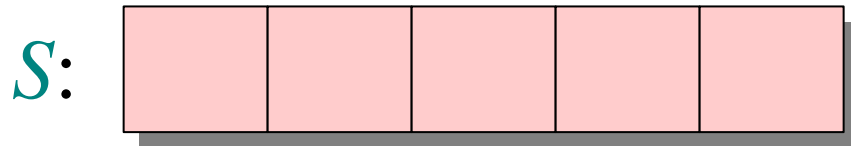
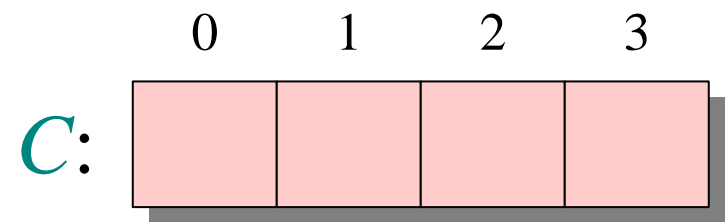
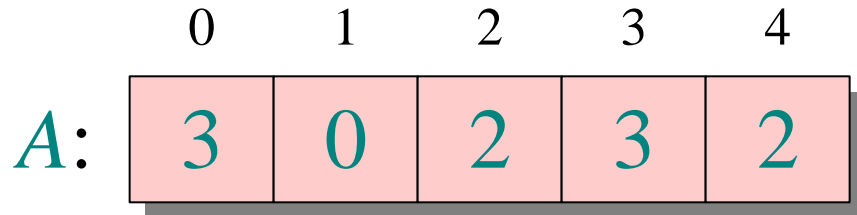
COUNTING-SORT( $A[0..n-1], k$ ) //Input: An array $A[0..n-1]$ of integers between $[0, k]$ //Output: Array $S[0..n-1]$ of $A$ 's elements sorted in nondecreasing order	Cost times
<pre> 1  for j ← 0 to k do 2      C[j] ← 0 3  for i ← 0 to n - 1 do 4      C[A[i]] ← C[A[i]] + 1 5  for j ← 1 to k do 6  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

# 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

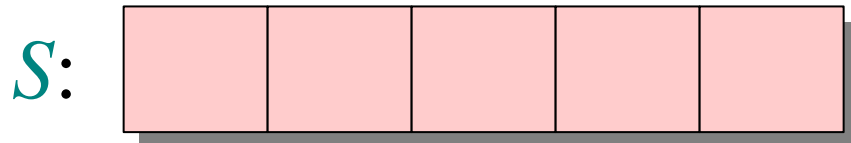
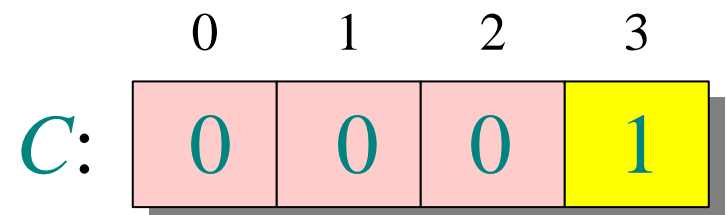
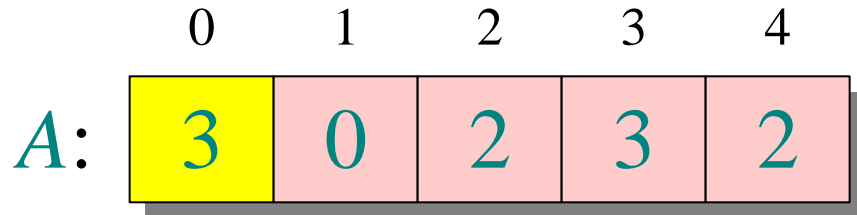
	0	1	2	3	4
$A$ :	3	0	2	3	2

	0	1	2	3
$C$ :	0	0	0	0

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

# Counting Sort – Loop 2



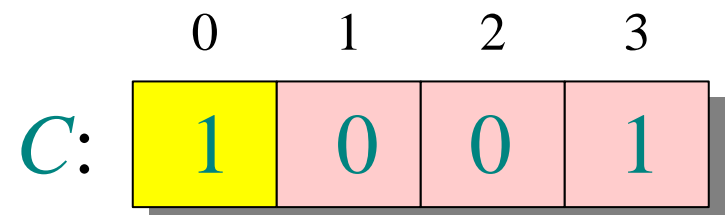
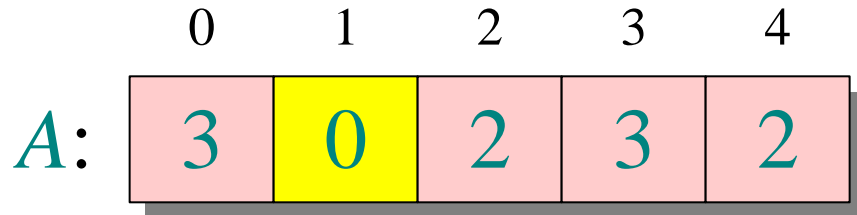
**for**  $i \leftarrow 0$  **to**  $n-1$

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

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



# Counting Sort – Loop 2



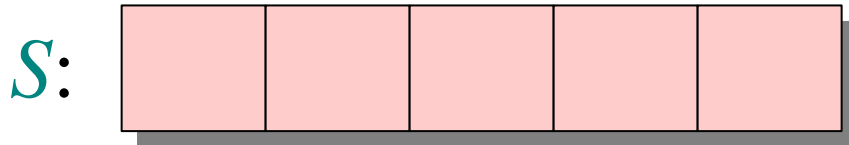
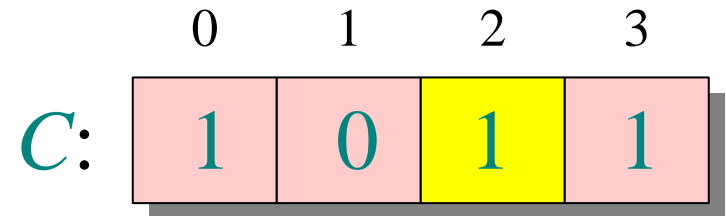
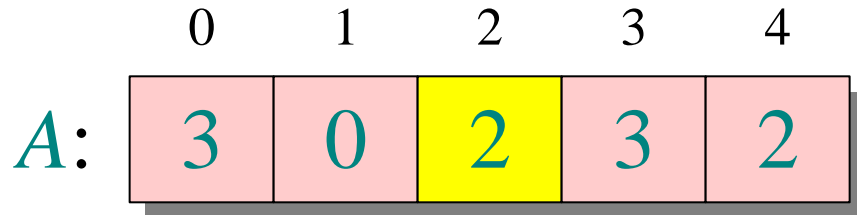
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# Counting Sort – Loop 2



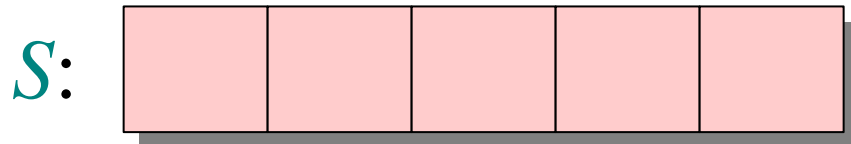
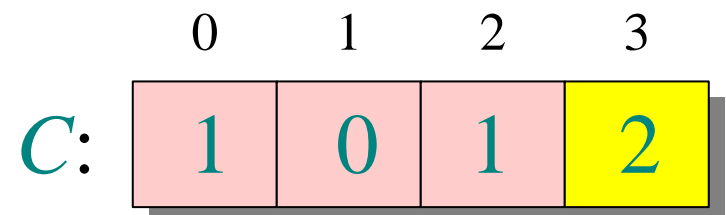
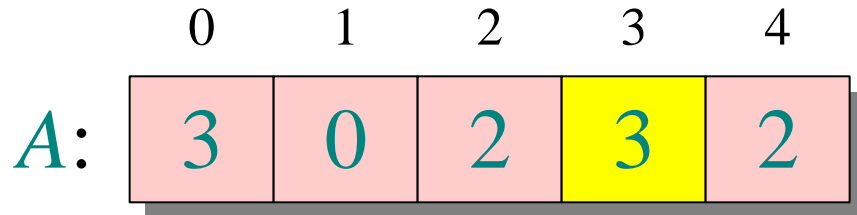
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# Counting Sort – Loop 2



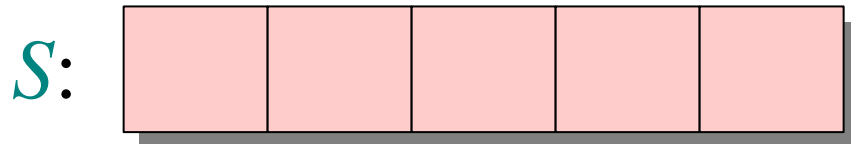
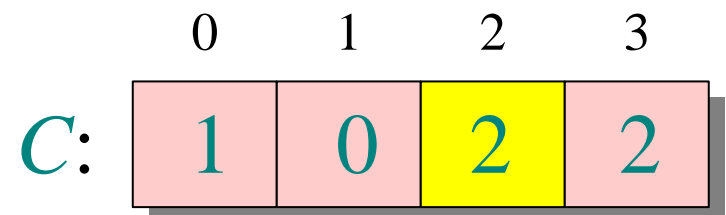
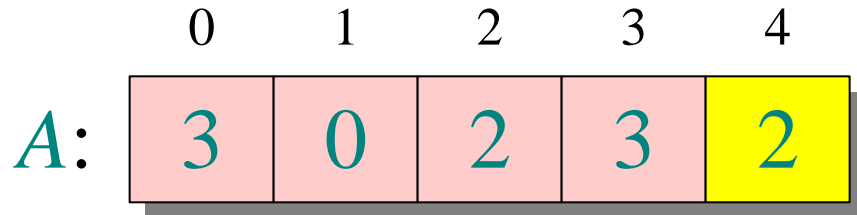
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# Counting Sort – Loop 2



**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
<i>A</i> :	3	0	2	3	2

<i>S</i> :					
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	0	1	2	3
<i>C</i> :	1	0	2	2

	0	1	2	3
<i>C'</i> :	1	1	2	2

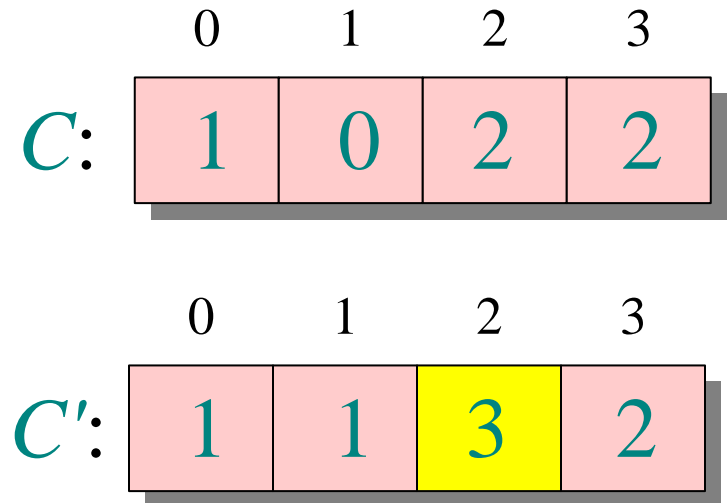
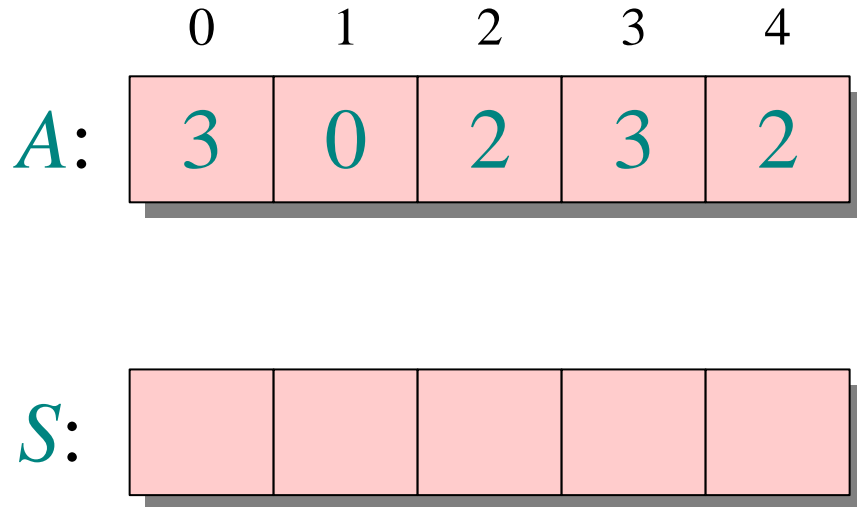
**for**  $j \leftarrow 1$  **to**  $k$

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

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



# Counting Sort – Loop 3



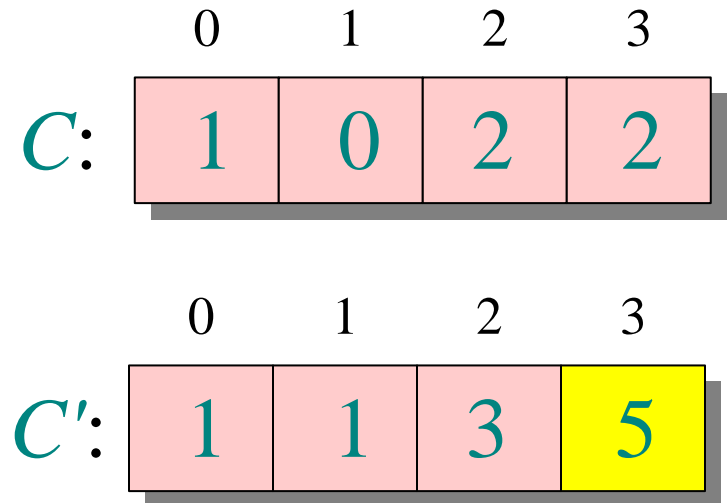
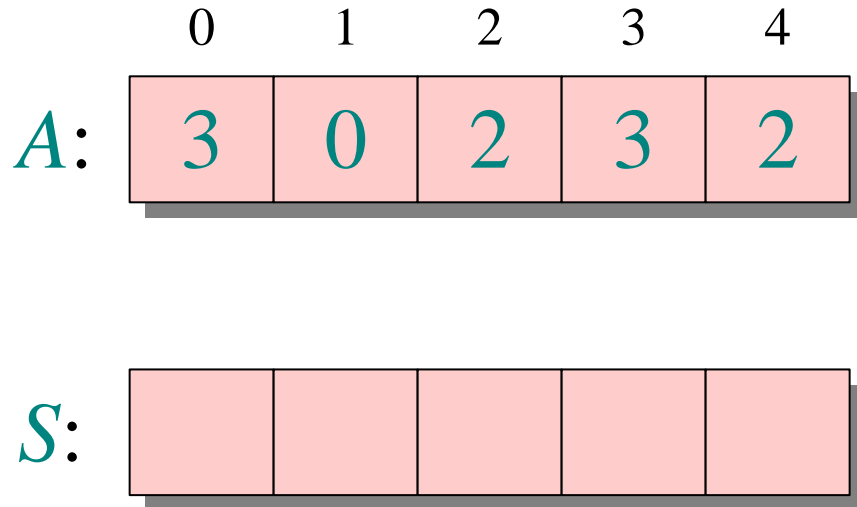
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# Counting Sort – Loop 3



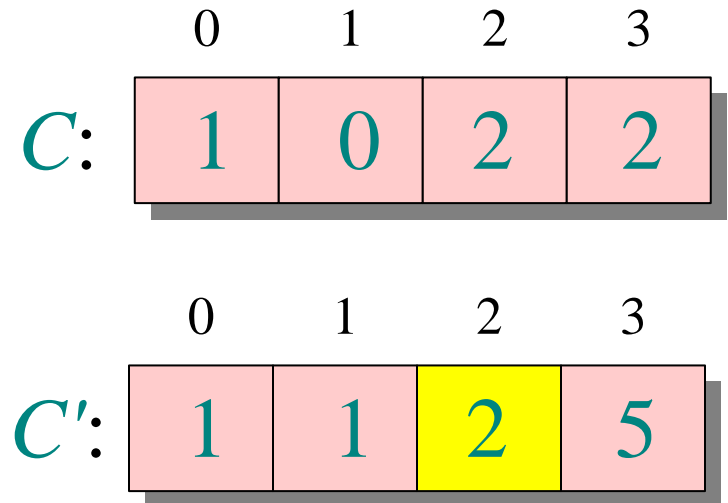
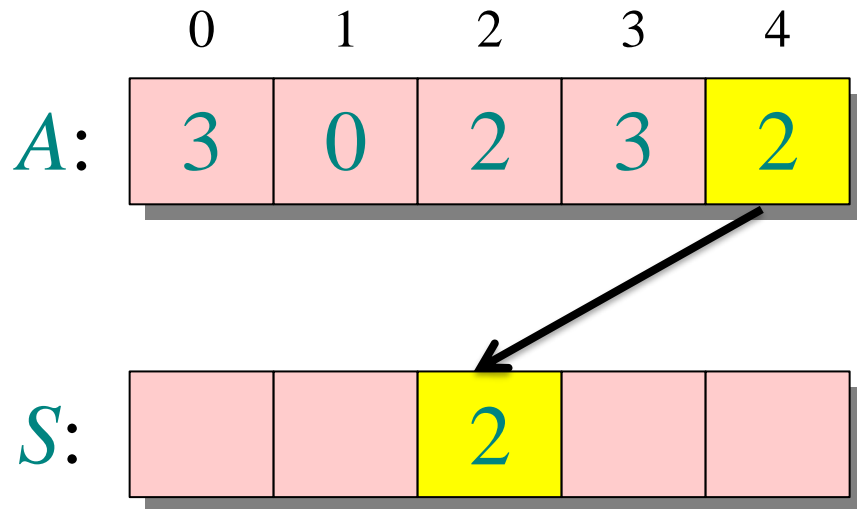
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# Counting Sort – Loop 4

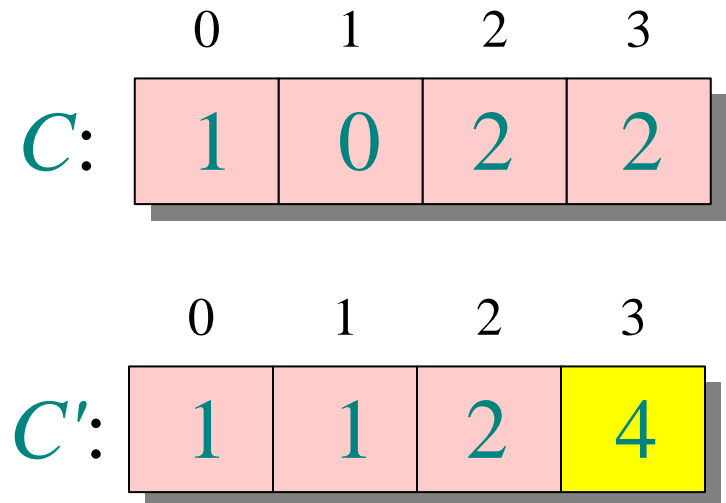
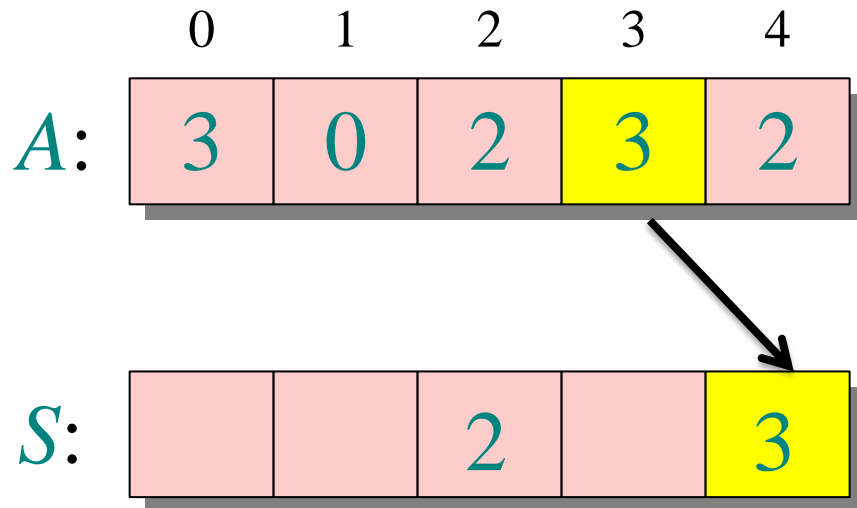


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for  $i \leftarrow n-1$  down to 0
  do  $S[C[A[i]] - 1] \leftarrow A[i]$ 
       $C[A[i]] \leftarrow C[A[i]] - 1$ 
  
```



# Counting Sort – Loop 4



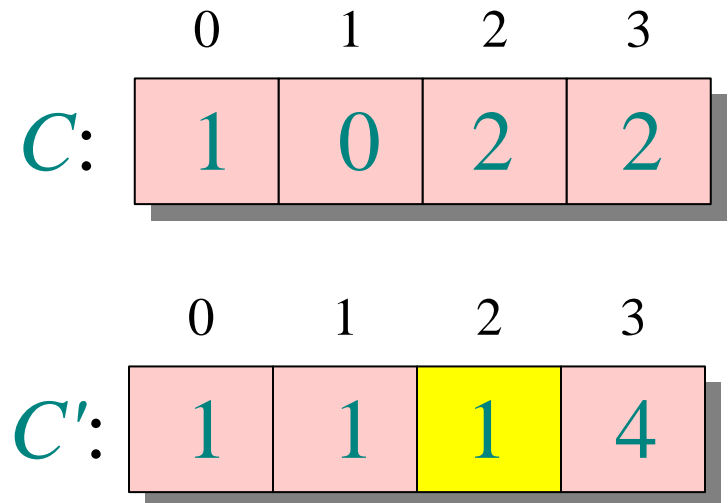
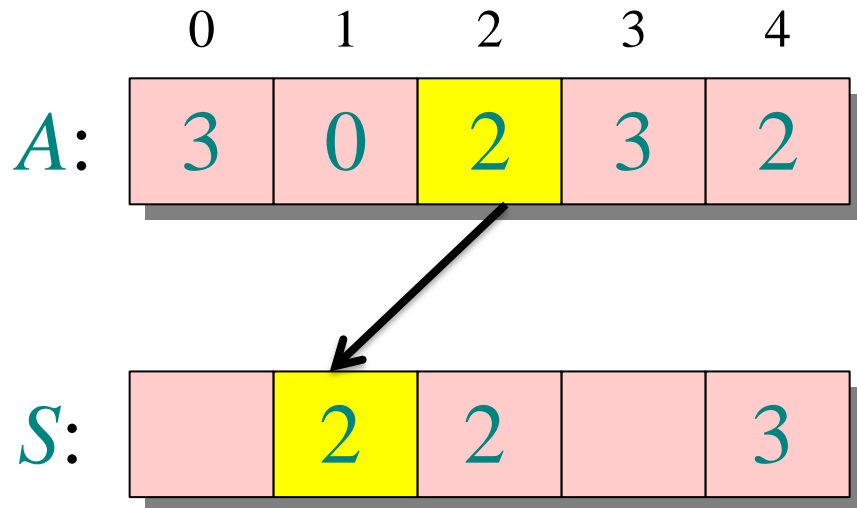
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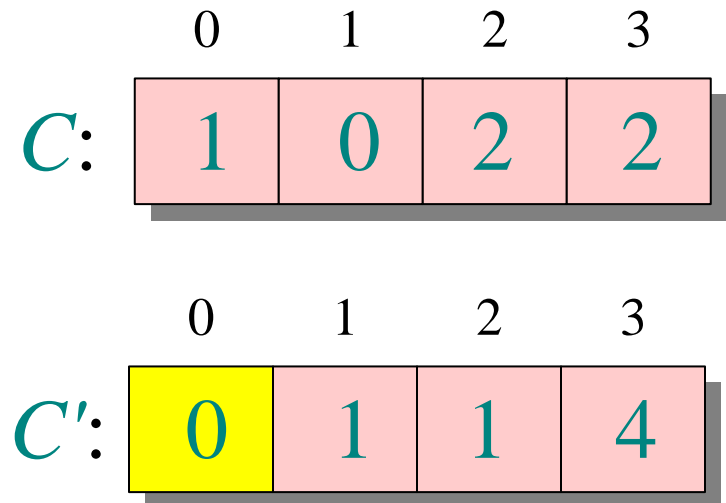
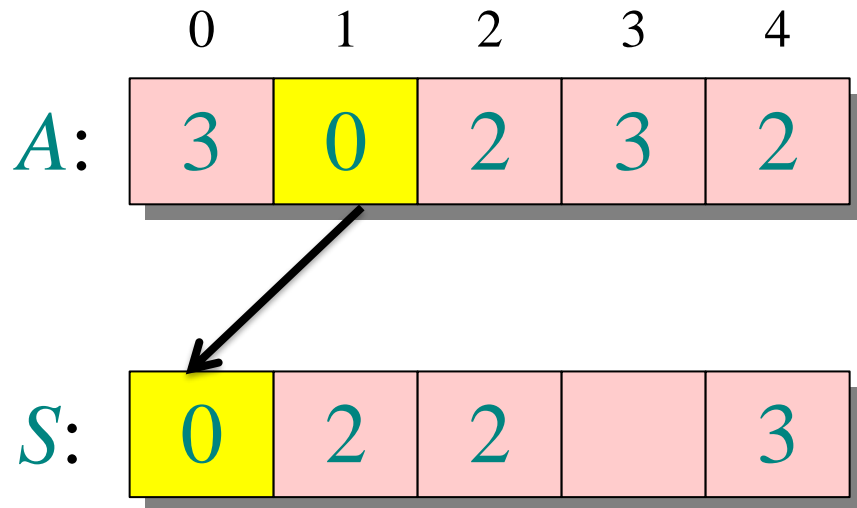
# Counting Sort – Loop 4



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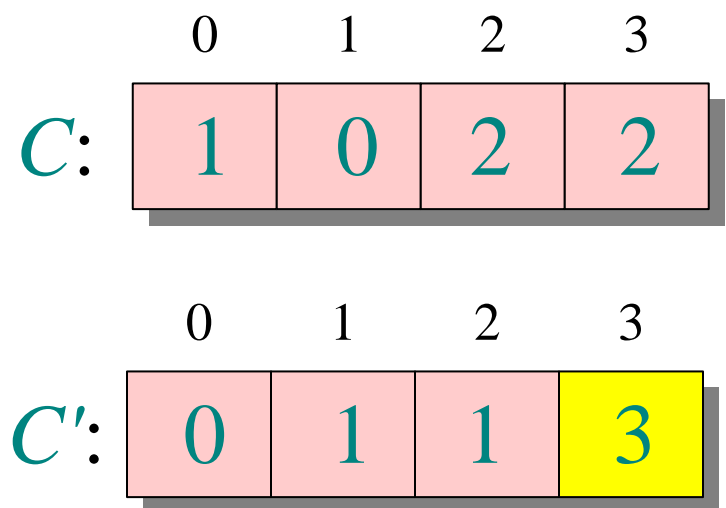
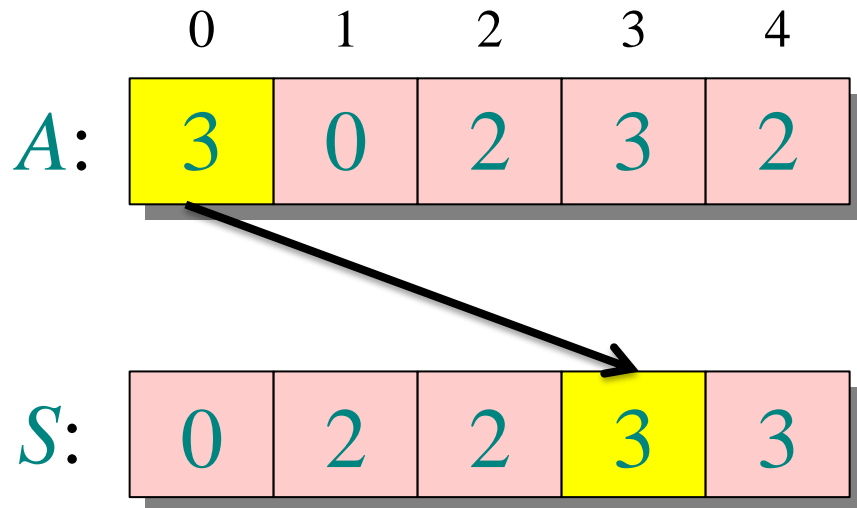
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```

# 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 – 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 – 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

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## □ Pros:

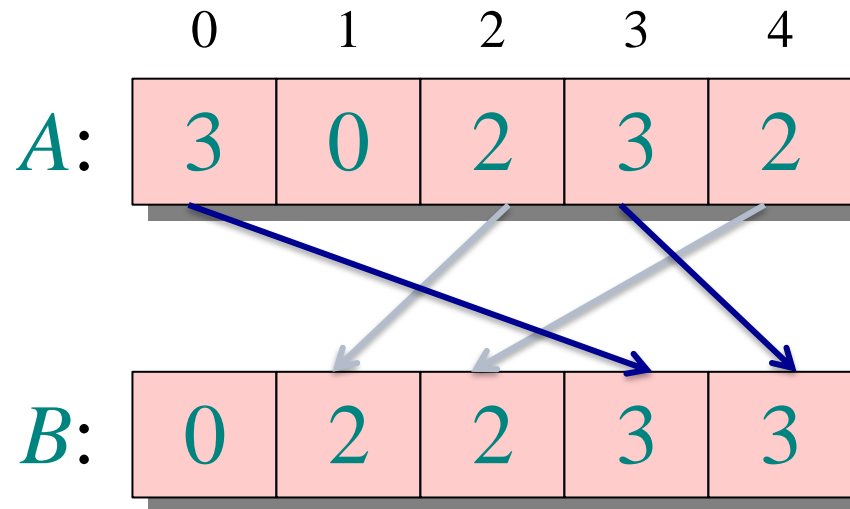
- It performs particularly well when the range of the input is small compared to the number of elements.
- Stable sort
- There is no comparison operation. Instead, it uses integer counting and index-based placement to sort the elements, resulting in faster execution.

## □ 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.

6		1		8		7		9		6		5		6		5		1		2		3		4		5		6		0		3		5		5		6		1		2		4		9		5		1		1		2		6		3		4		9		8																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																					
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- 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

<b>RADIX-SORT(<math>A[0..n-1], d</math>)</b> //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	<b>for</b> $i \leftarrow 0$ <b>to</b> $d-1$ <b>do</b>	
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

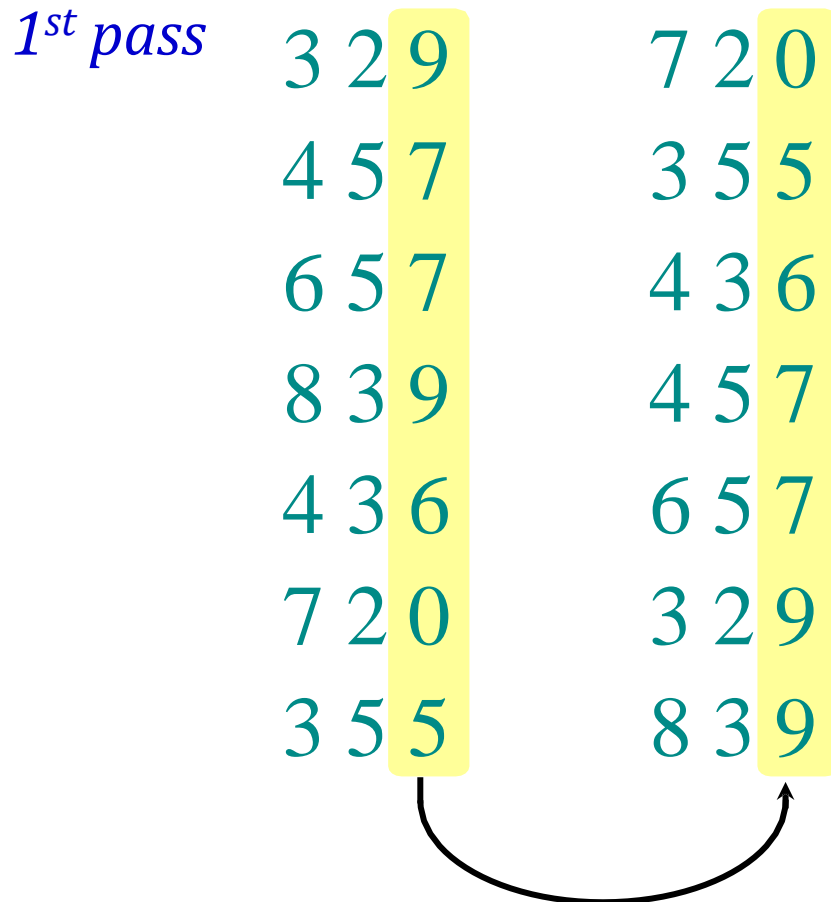
$O(d(n+k))$

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

$O(n)$

# Operation of LSD Radix sort

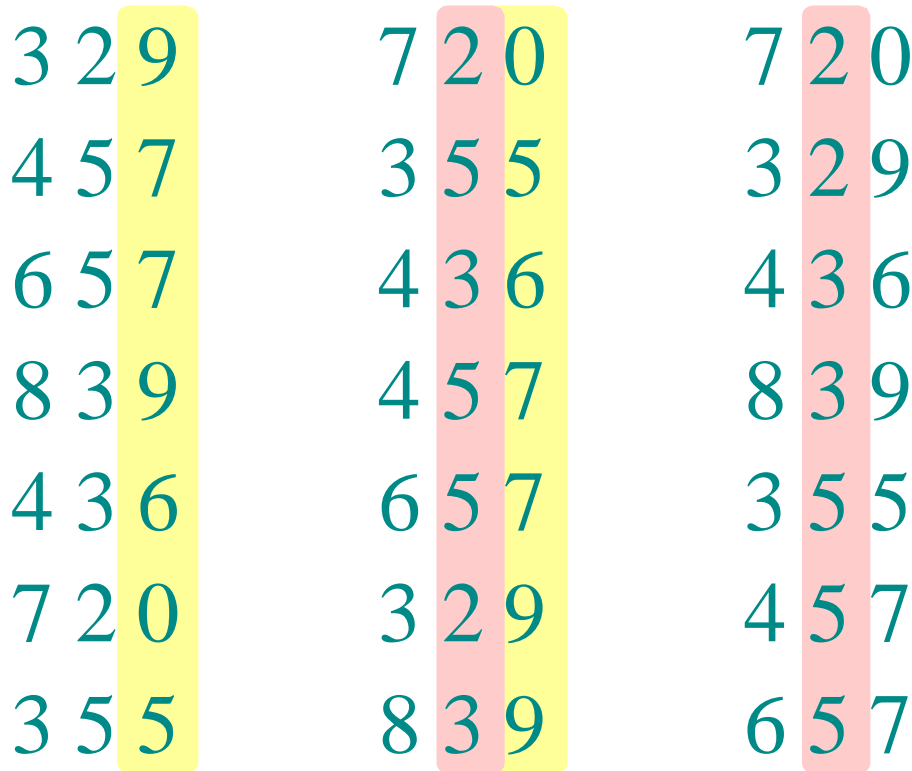
□ Radix sort on a “deck” of seven 3-digit numbers:



# Operation of LSD Radix sort

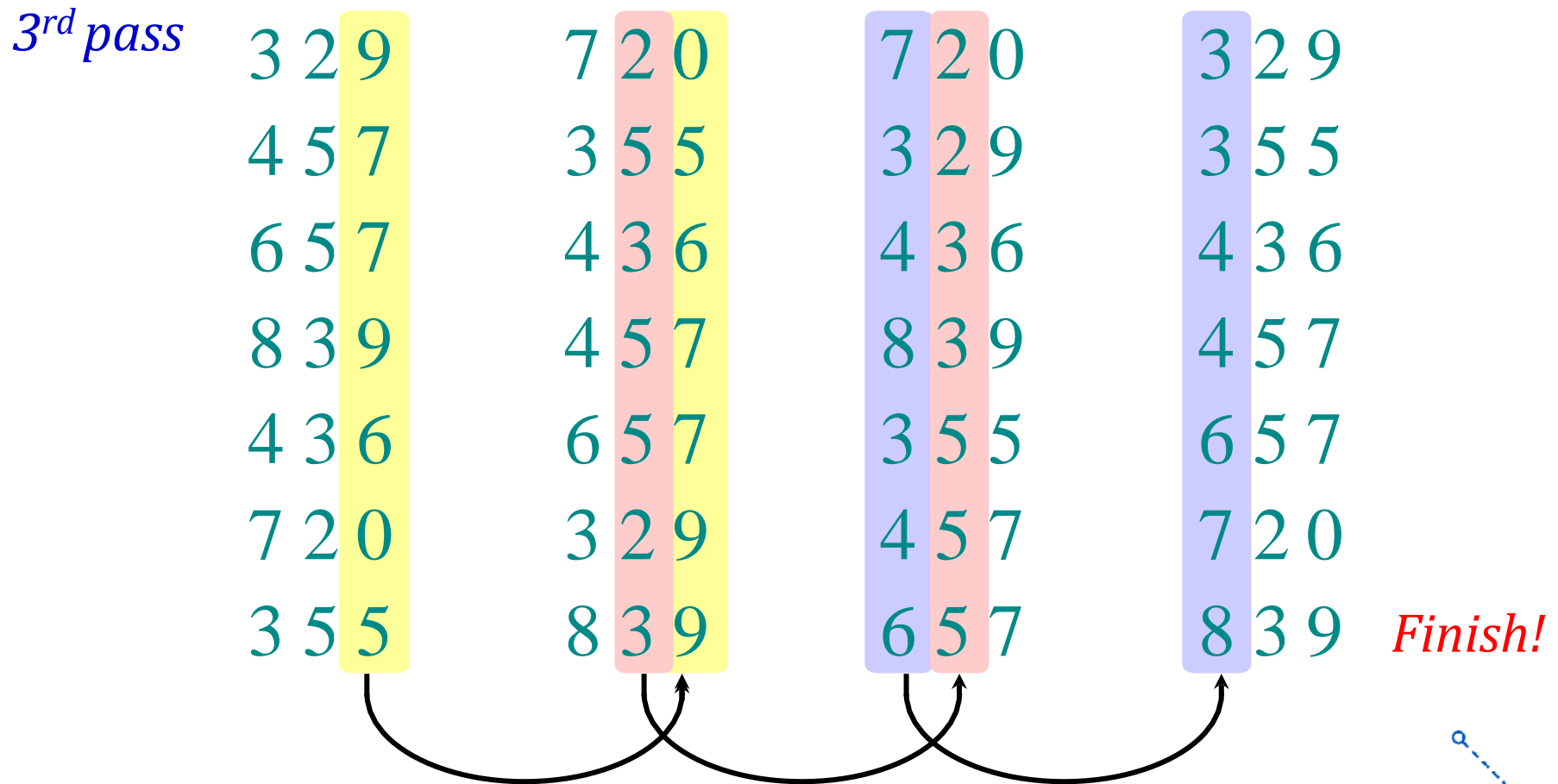
□ Radix sort on a “deck” of seven 3-digit numbers.

*2<sup>nd</sup> pass*



# Operation of LSD Radix sort

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



# Radix Sort – Pros and Cons

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## □ 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  $\rightarrow$  bar, bare, car, care
  - 9, 8, 10, 1, 3  $\rightarrow$  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,

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



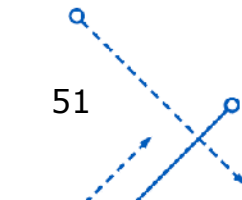


# What's next?

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## □ After today:

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



# Q&A