

# CMPS 2200 – Fall 2014

## *Sorting*

**Carola Wenk**

Slides courtesy of Charles Leiserson with small  
changes by Carola Wenk

# 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, heapsort.

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

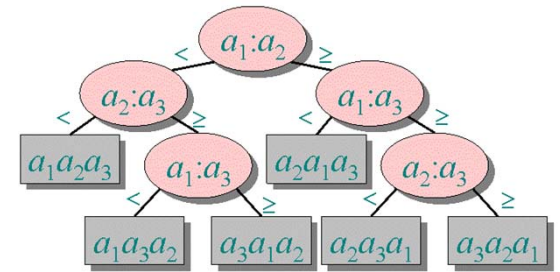
*Is  $O(n \log n)$  the best we can do?*

*Decision trees* can help us answer this question.

**Déjà vu from CMPS 1500:**

[http://www.cs.tulane.edu/~carola/teaching/cmsps1500/fall113/slides/Theory%20and%20Frontiers%20of%20Computer%20Science\\_1.pdf](http://www.cs.tulane.edu/~carola/teaching/cmsps1500/fall113/slides/Theory%20and%20Frontiers%20of%20Computer%20Science_1.pdf)

# Decision-tree model

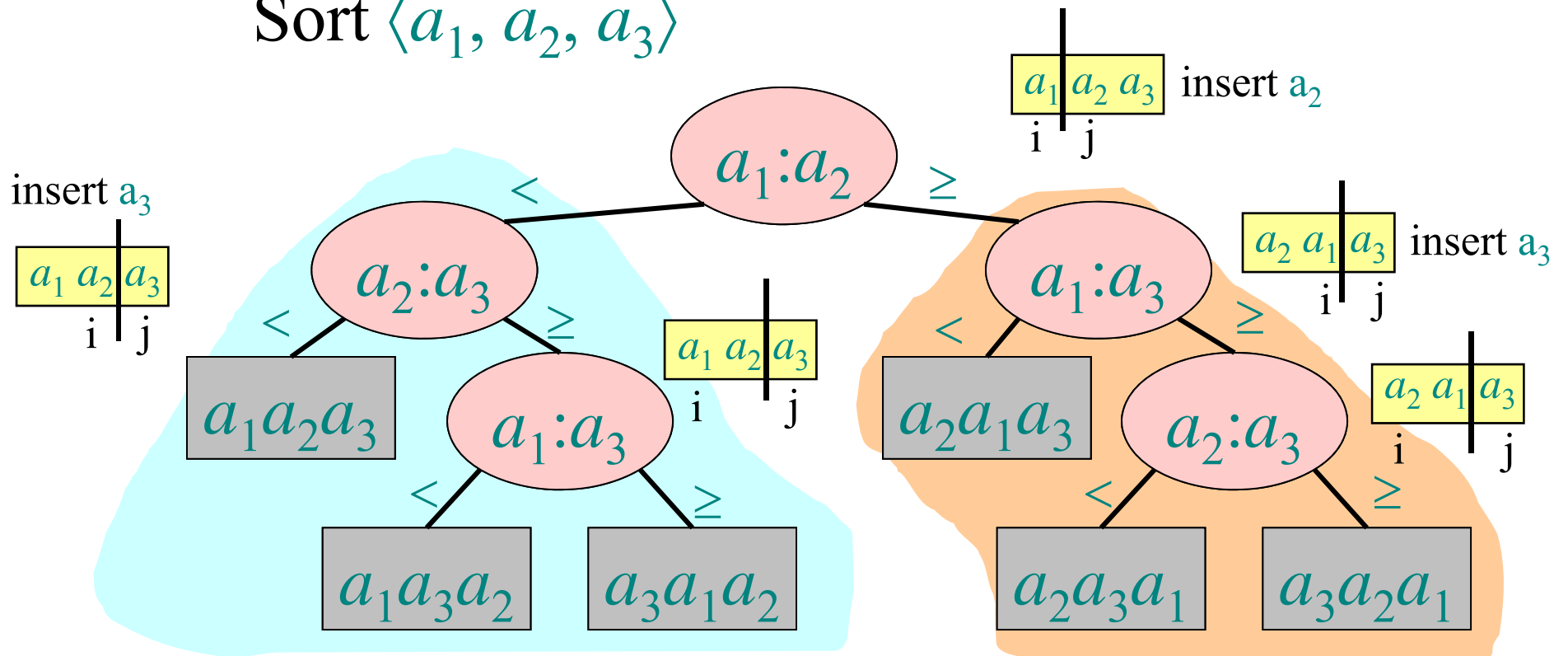


*A decision tree models the execution of any comparison sorting algorithm:*

- One tree per input size  $n$ .
- The tree contains **all** possible comparisons (= if-branches) that could be executed for **any** input of size  $n$ .
- The tree contains **all** comparisons along **all** possible instruction traces (= control flows) for **all** inputs of size  $n$ .
- For one input, only one path to a leaf is executed.
- Running time = length of the path taken.
- Worst-case running time = height of tree.

# Decision-tree for insertion sort

Sort  $\langle a_1, a_2, a_3 \rangle$

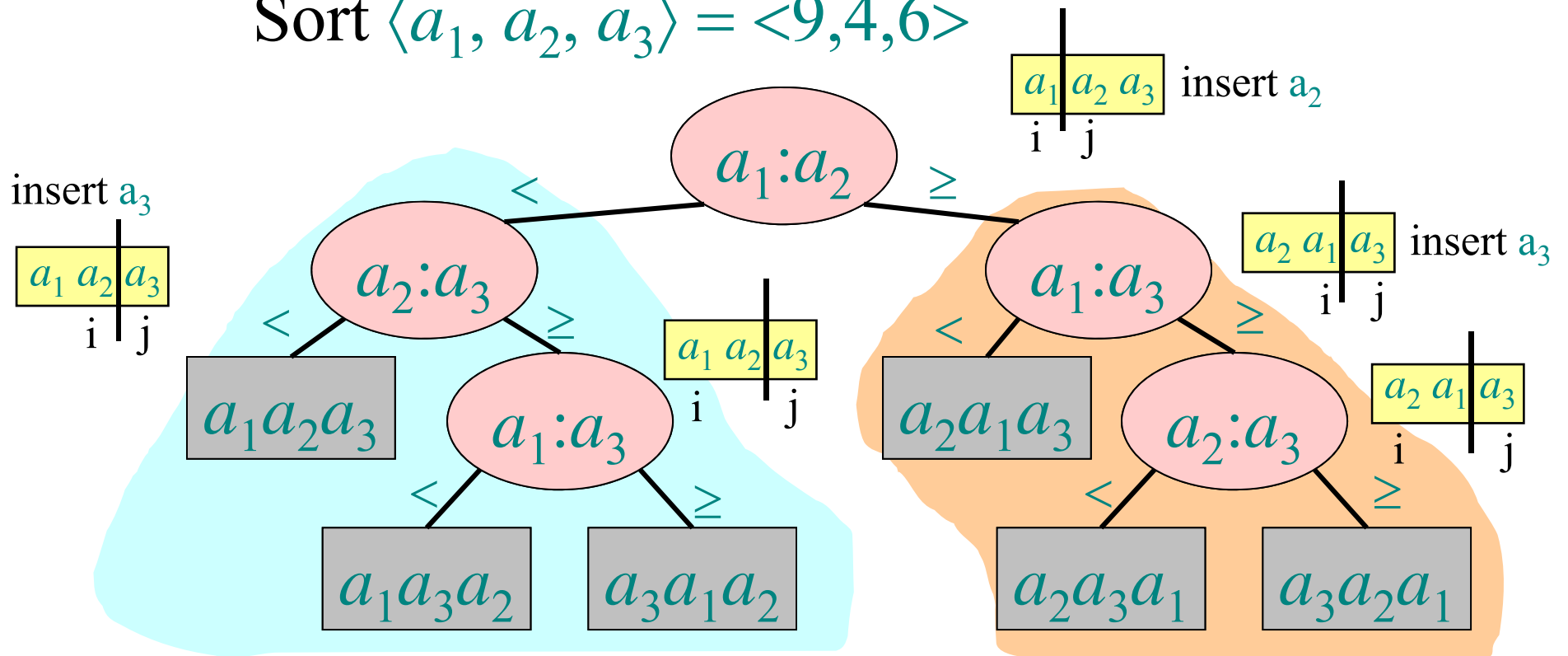


Each internal node is labeled  $a_i:a_j$  for  $i, j \in \{1, 2, \dots, n\}$ .

- The left subtree shows subsequent comparisons if  $a_i < a_j$ .
- The right subtree shows subsequent comparisons if  $a_i \geq a_j$ .

# Decision-tree for insertion sort

Sort  $\langle a_1, a_2, a_3 \rangle = \langle 9, 4, 6 \rangle$

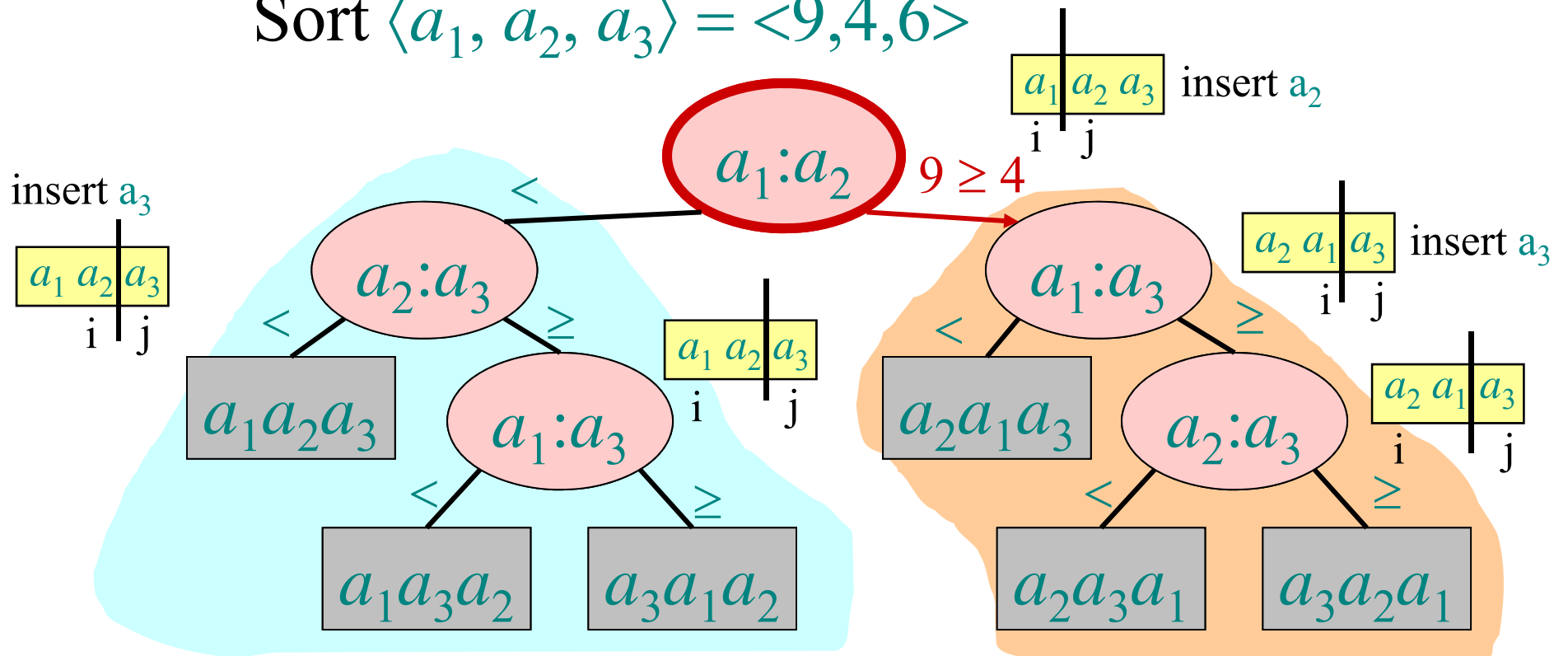


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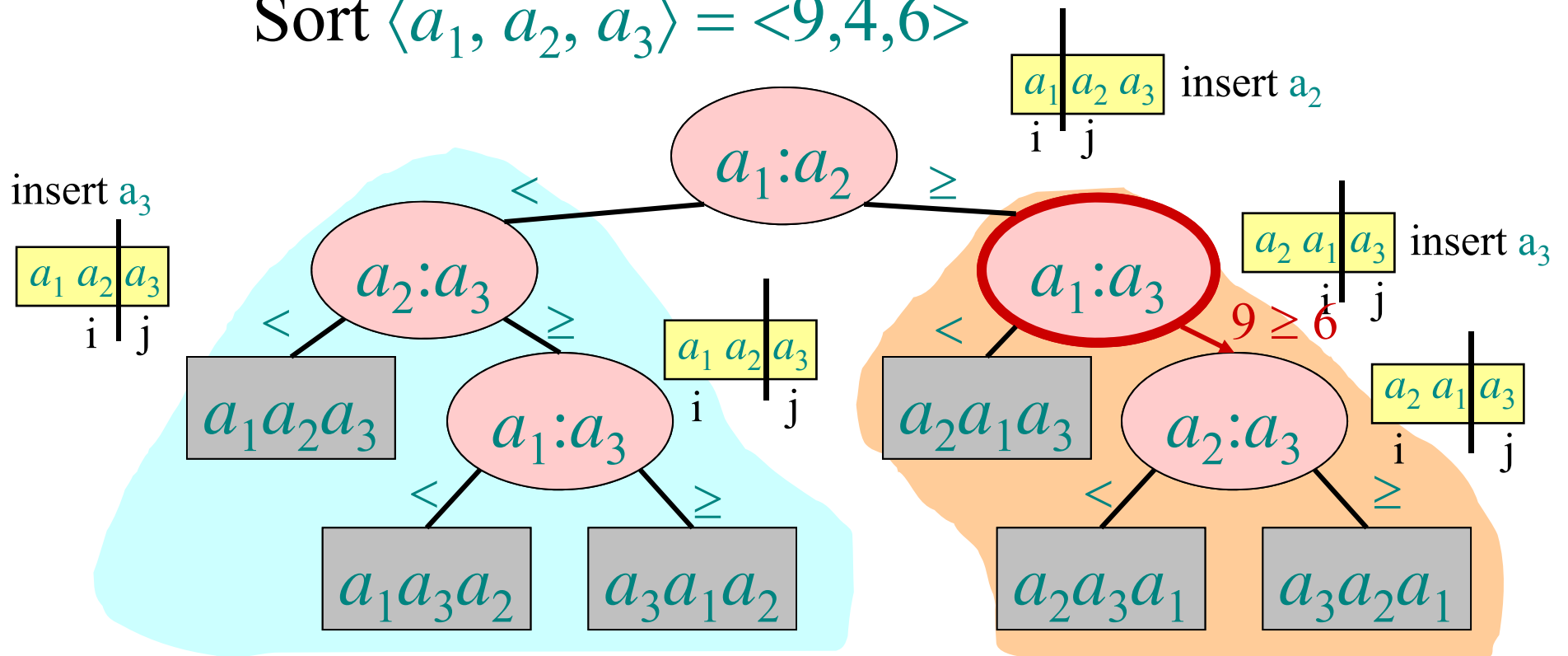


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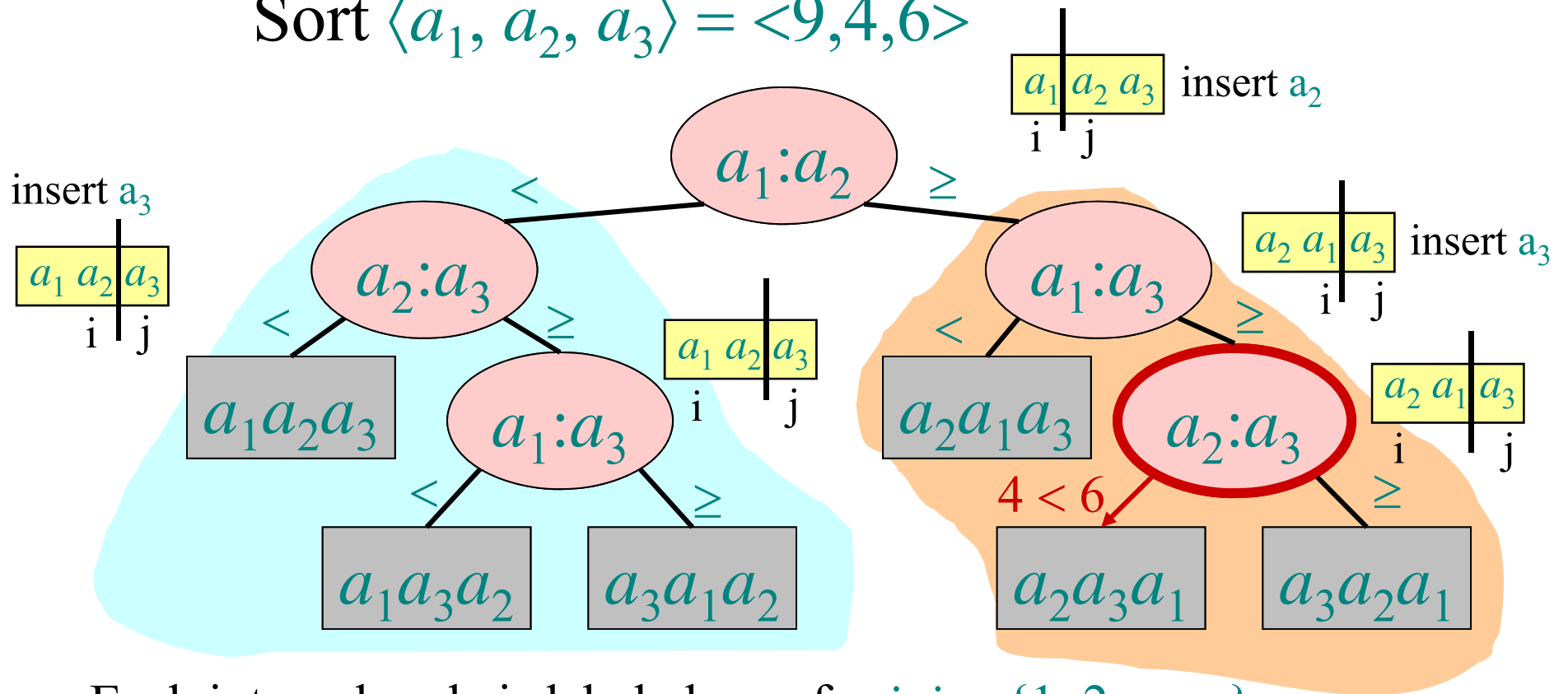


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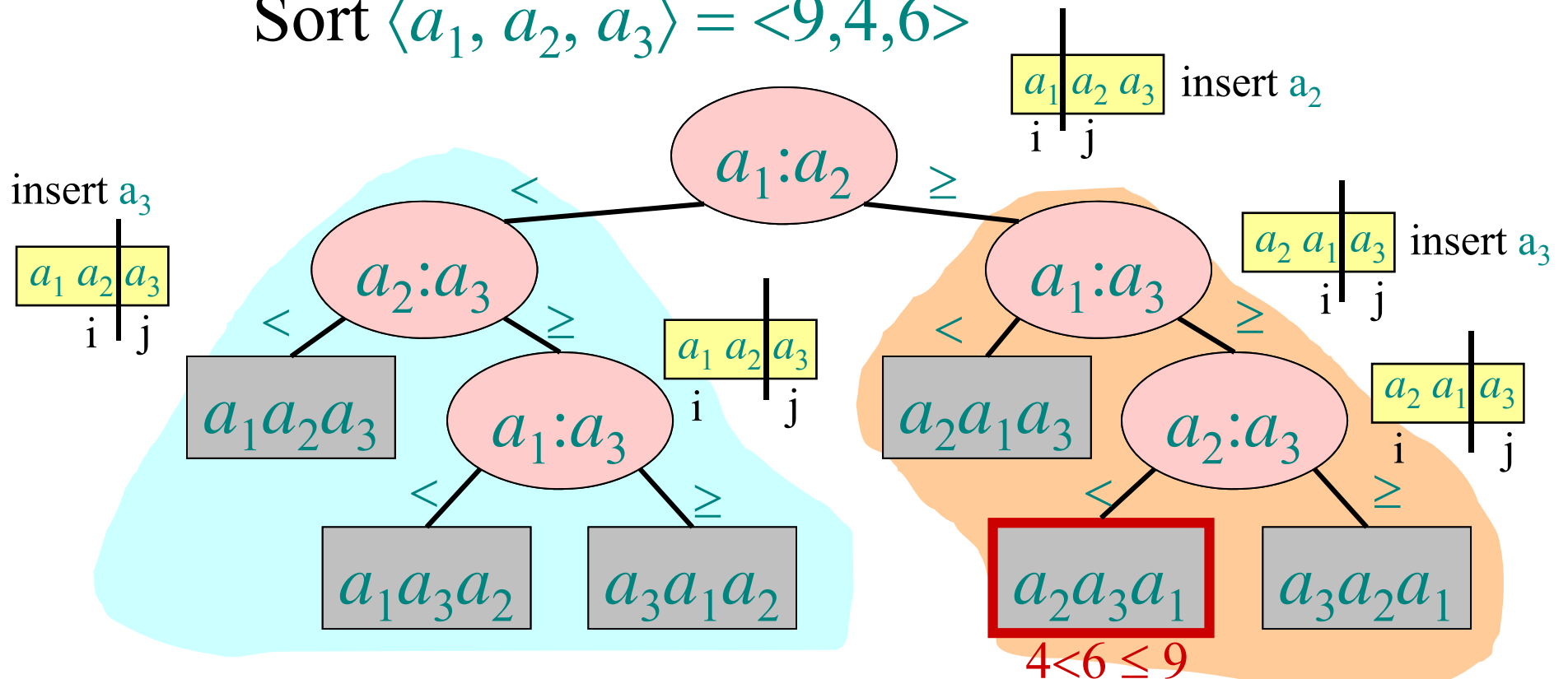
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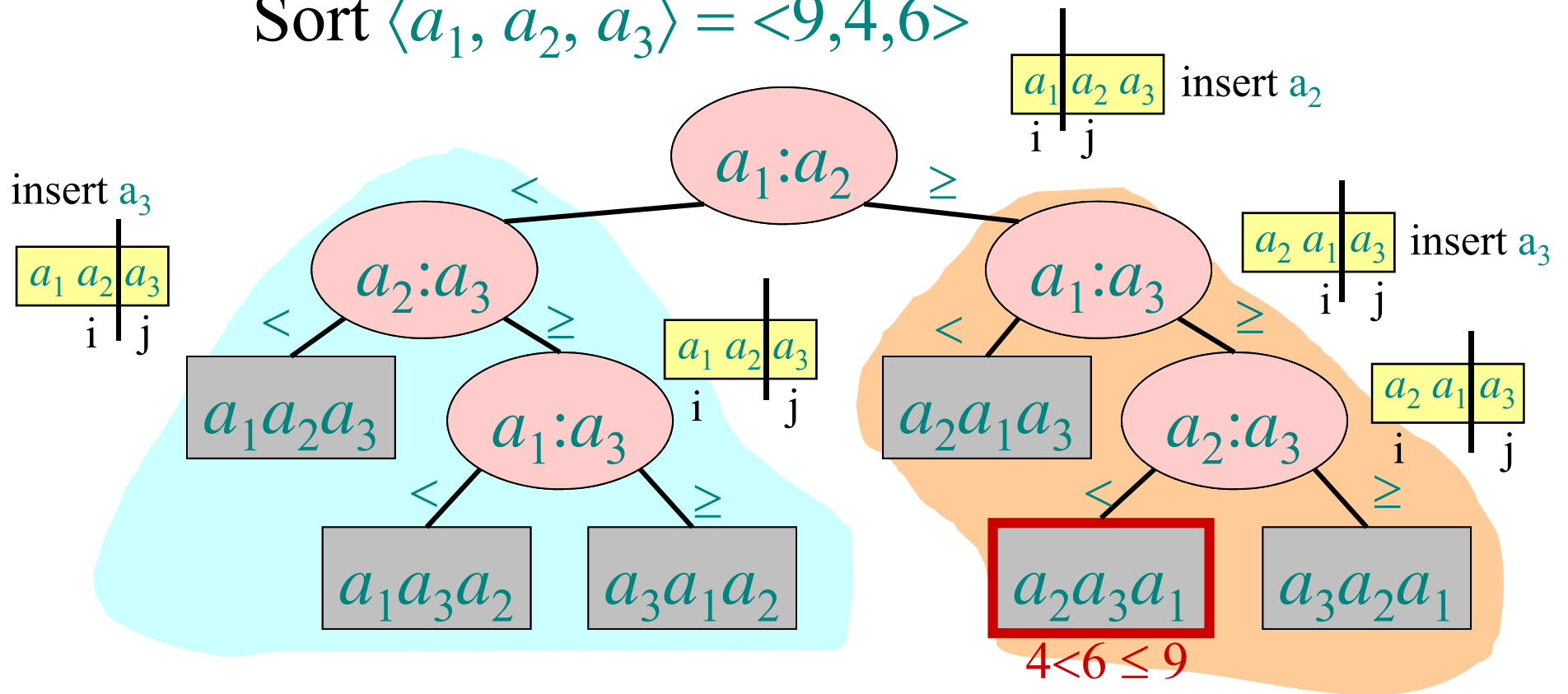


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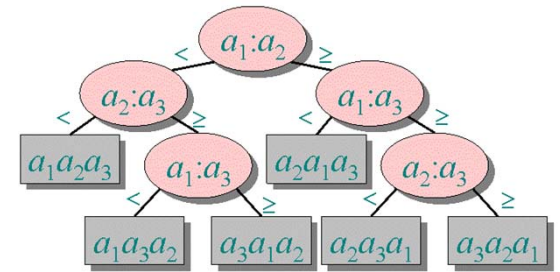
# Decision-tree for insertion sort

Sort  $\langle a_1, a_2, a_3 \rangle = \langle 9, 4, 6 \rangle$



Each leaf contains a permutation  $\langle \pi(1), \pi(2), \dots, \pi(n) \rangle$  to indicate that the ordering  $a_{\pi(1)} \leq a_{\pi(2)} \leq \dots \leq a_{\pi(n)}$  has been established.

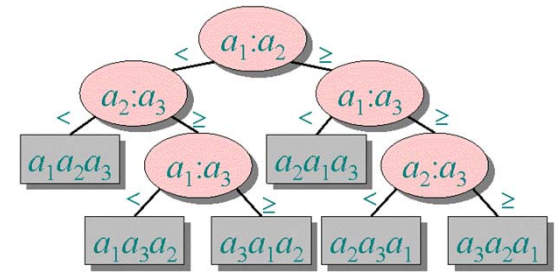
# Decision-tree model



*A decision tree models the execution of any comparison sorting algorithm:*

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- For one input, only one path to a leaf is executed.
- Running time = length of the path taken.
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# Lower bound for comparison sorting



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

*Proof.* The tree must contain  $\geq n!$  leaves, since there are  $n!$  possible permutations. For a binary tree of height- $h$  holds that  $\#leaves \leq 2^h$ . Thus,  $n! \leq 2^h$ .

$$\begin{aligned} \therefore h &\geq \log(n!) && (\log \text{ is mono. increasing}) \\ &\geq \log((n/2)^{n/2}) \\ &= n/2 \log n/2 \\ &\Rightarrow h \in \Omega(n \log n). \end{aligned}$$



# Lower bound for comparison sorting

**Corollary.** Mergesort is an asymptotically optimal comparison sorting algorithm.



# Sorting in linear time

**Counting sort:** No comparisons between elements.

- **Input:**  $A[0 \dots n-1]$ , where  $A[j] \in \{0, 1, 2, \dots, k-1\}$ .
- **Output:**  $B[0 \dots n-1]$ , sorted.
- **Auxiliary storage:**  $C[0 \dots k-1]$ .

# Counting sort

**1.for** ( $i = 0; i < k; i++$ )

$C[i] = 0$

**2.for** ( $j = 0; j < n; j++$ )

$C[A[j]] = C[A[j]] + 1$       *//*  $C[i] == |\{\text{key} = i\}|$

**3.for** ( $i = 1; i < k; i++$ )

$C[i] = C[i] + C[i-1]$       *//*  $C[i] == |\{\text{key} \leq i\}|$

**4.for** ( $j = n-1; j \geq 0; j--$ )

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

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

# Counting-sort example

*A*:

0	1	2	3	4
3	0	2	3	2

*C*:

0	1	2	3

*B*:

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# Loop 1

	0	1	2	3	4
<i>A</i> :	3	0	2	3	2

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

<i>B</i> :					
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**1. for** ( $i = 0; i < k; i++$ )  
     $C[i] = 0$

# Loop 2

	0	1	2	3	4
<i>A</i> :	3	0	2	3	2

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

<i>B</i> :					
------------	--	--	--	--	--

**2.for** ( $j = 0; i < n; j++$ )

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

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

# Loop 2

	0	1	2	3	4
<i>A</i> :	3	0	2	3	2

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

<i>B</i> :					
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**2.** **for** ( $j = 0; i < n; j++$ )

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

# Loop 3

	0	1	2	3	4
<i>A</i> :	3	0	2	3	2

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

<i>B</i> :					
------------	--	--	--	--	--

<i>C'</i> :	1	1	2	2
-------------	---	---	---	---

**3.** **for** ( $i = 1; i < k; i++$ )

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

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

# Loop 3

	0	1	2	3	4
<i>A</i> :	3	0	2	3	2

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

<i>B</i> :					
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# Loop 3

	0	1	2	3	4
<i>A</i> :	3	0	2	3	2

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<i>B</i> :					
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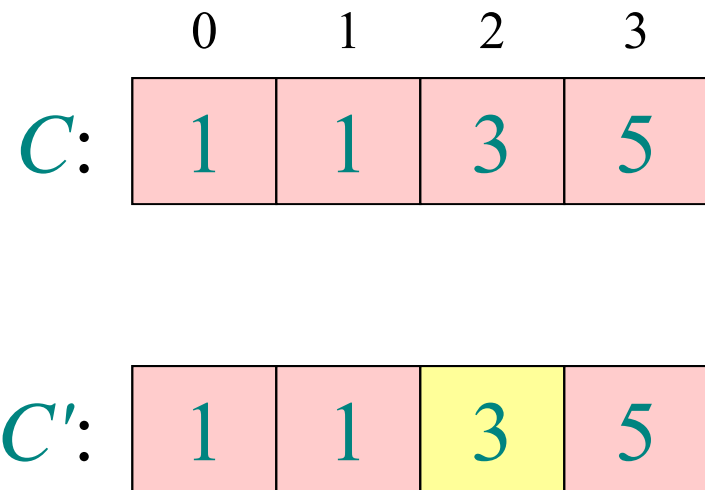
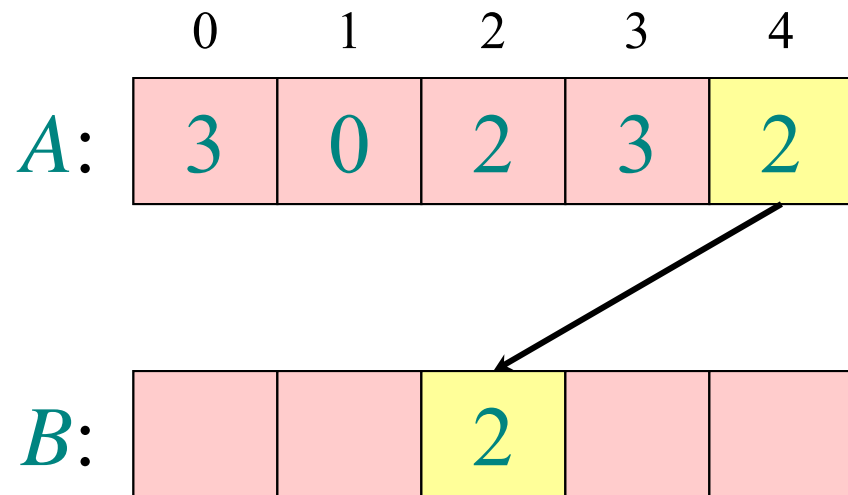
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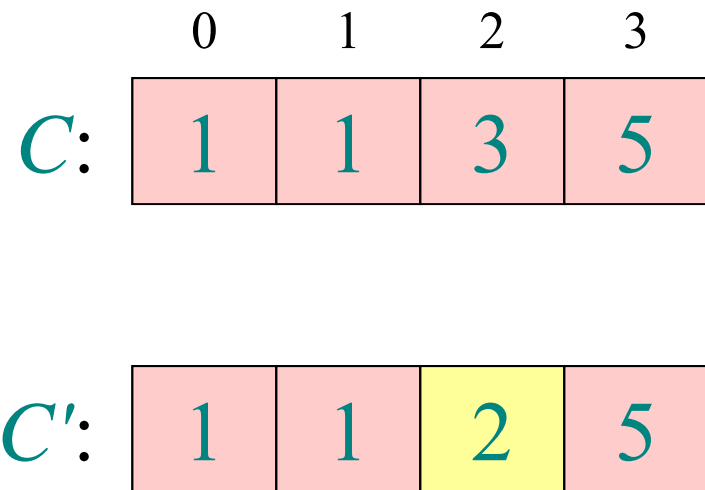
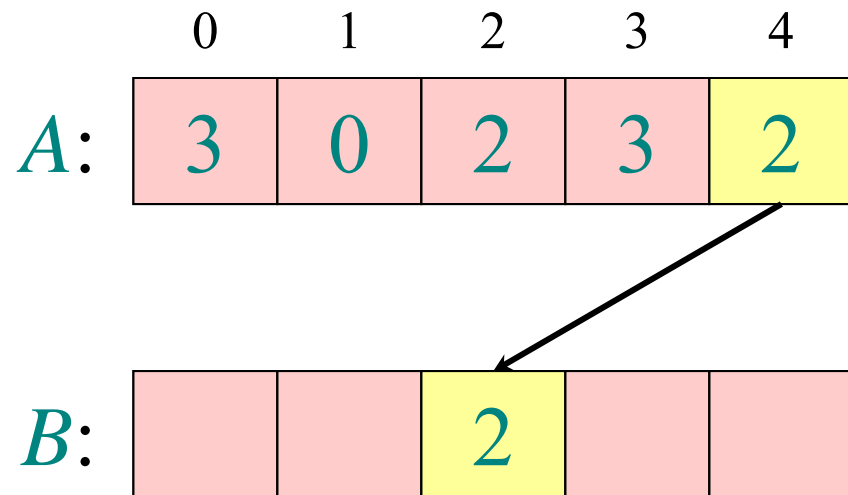
$$// C[i] == |\{\text{key} \leq i\}|$$

# Loop 4



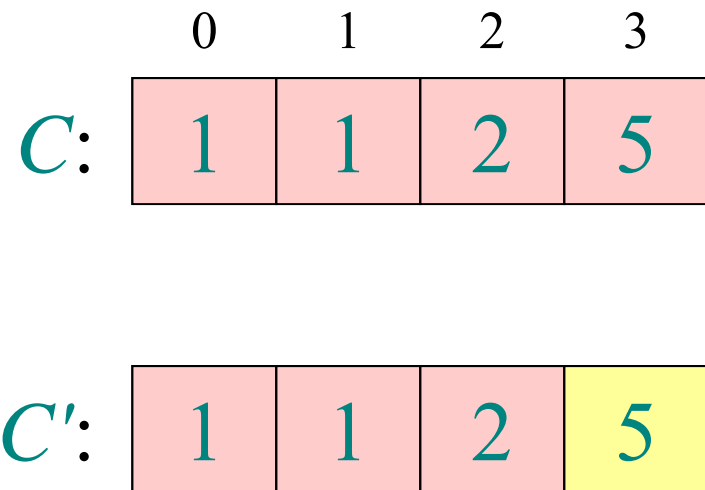
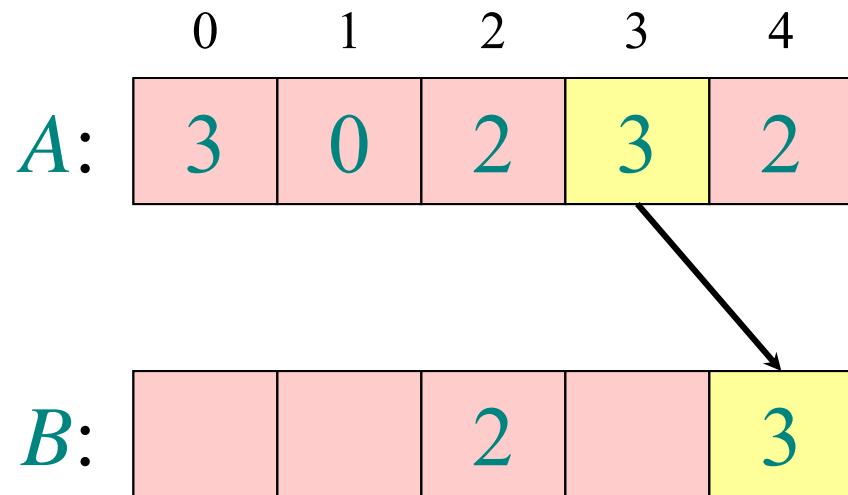
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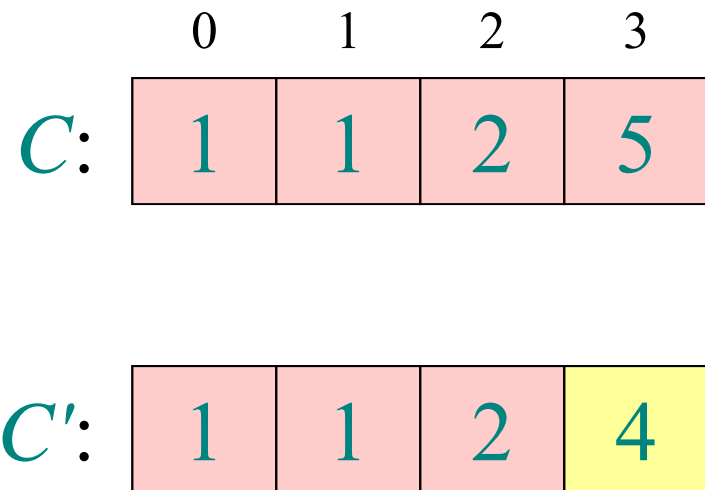
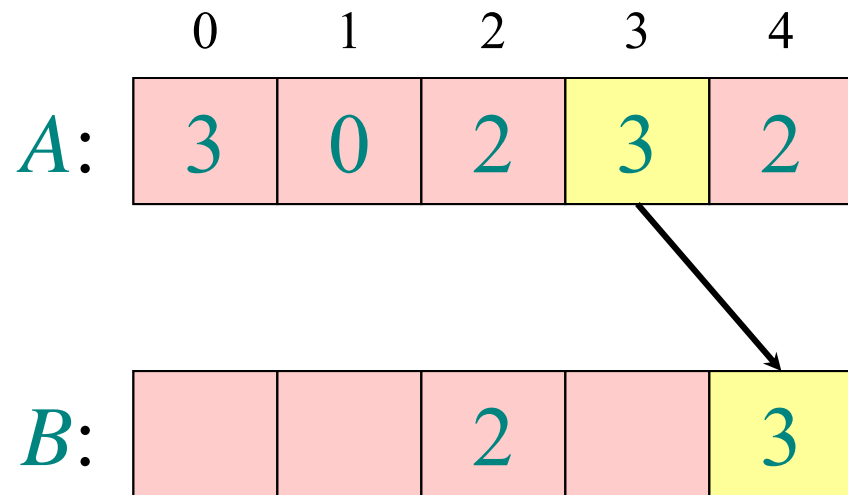
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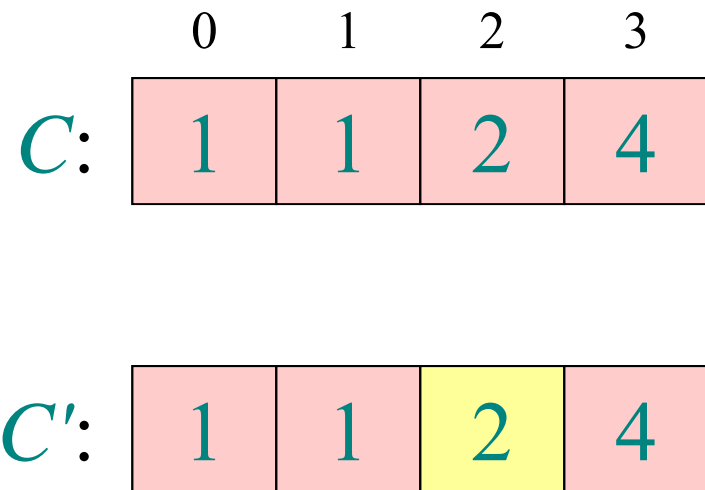
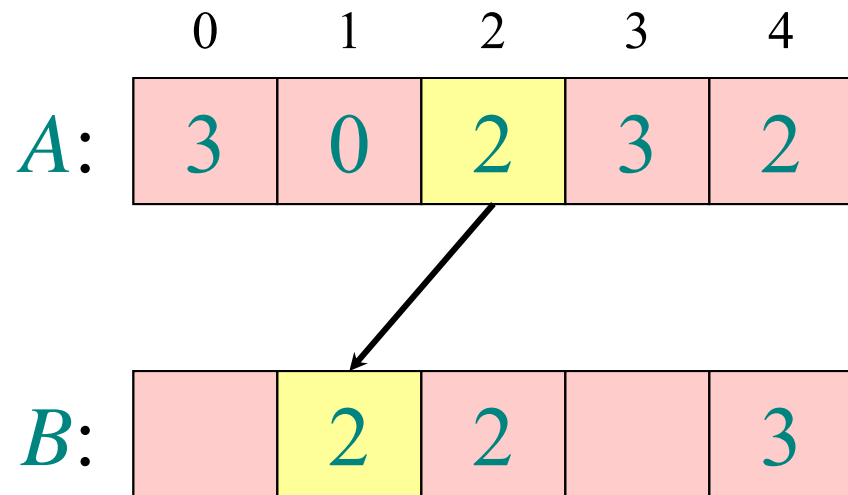
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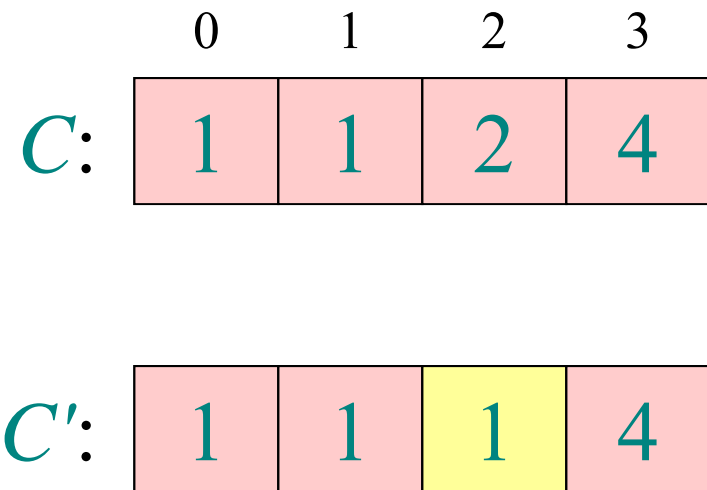
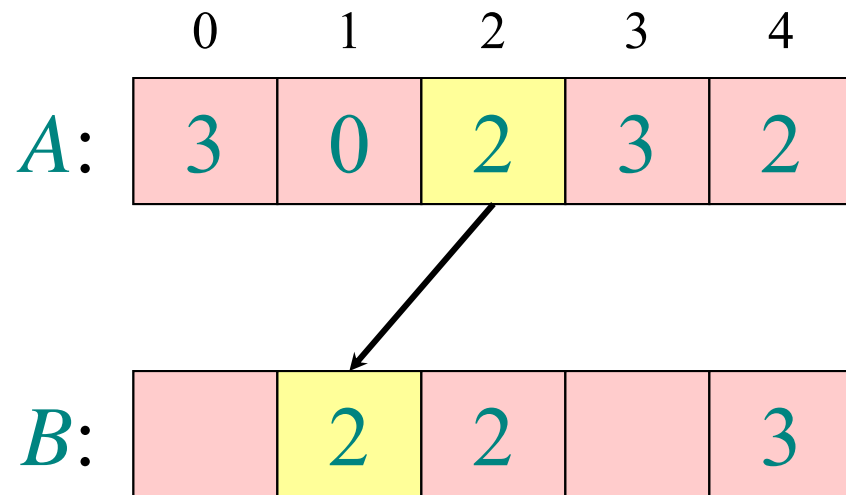
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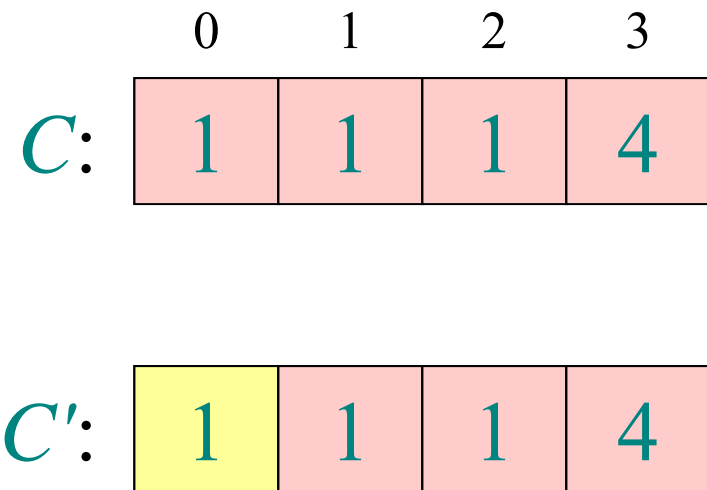
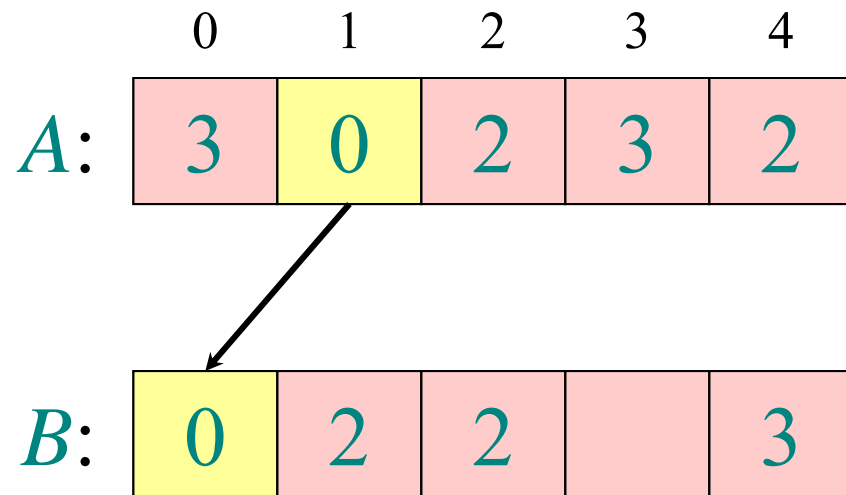
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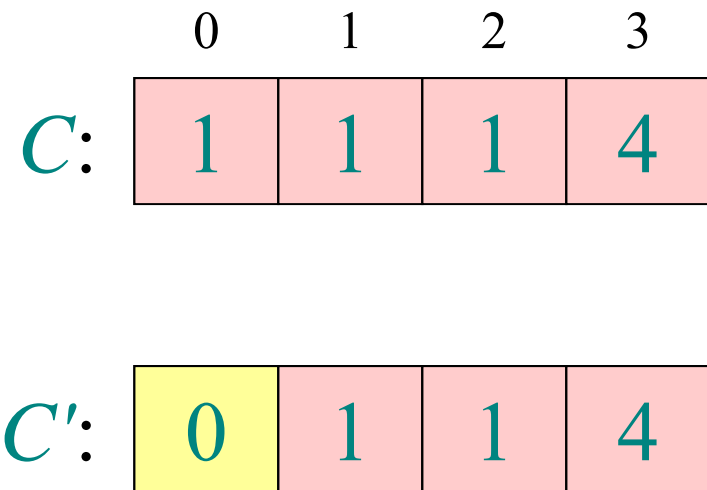
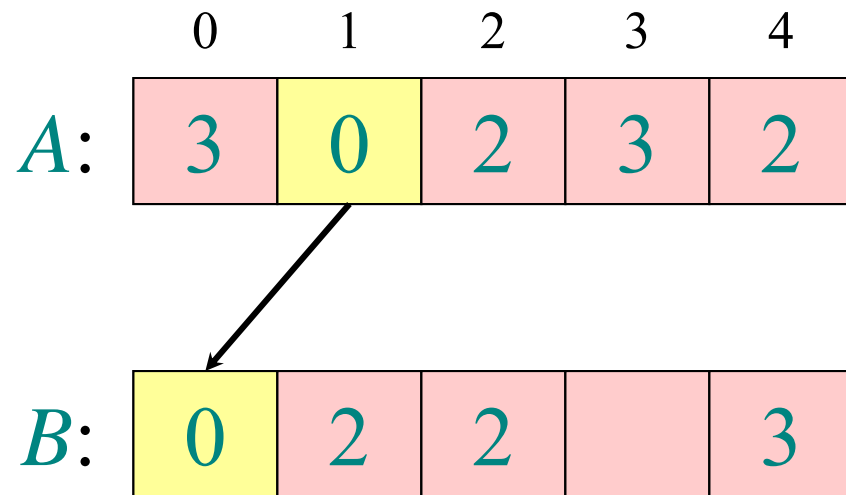
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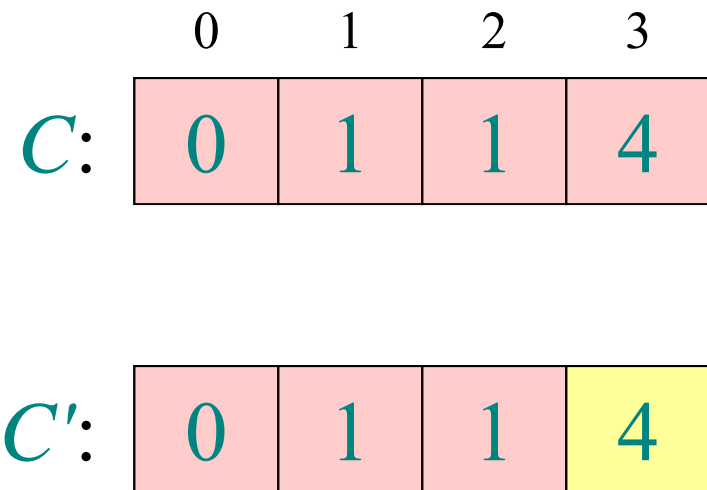
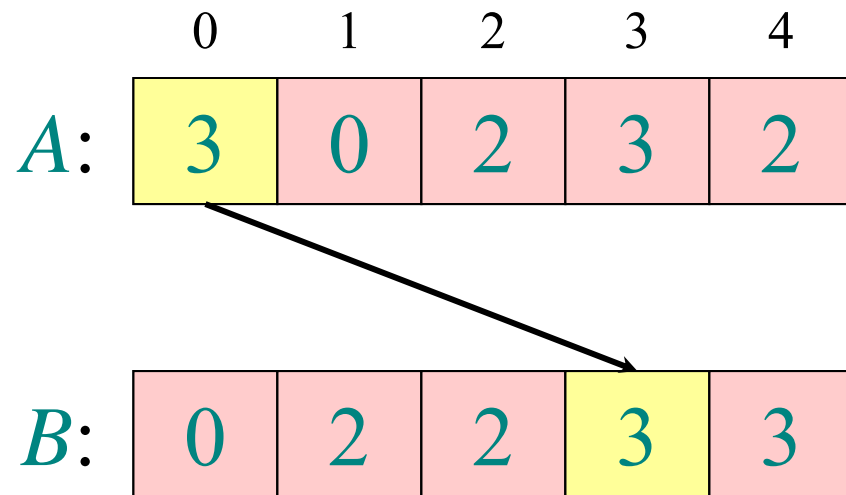


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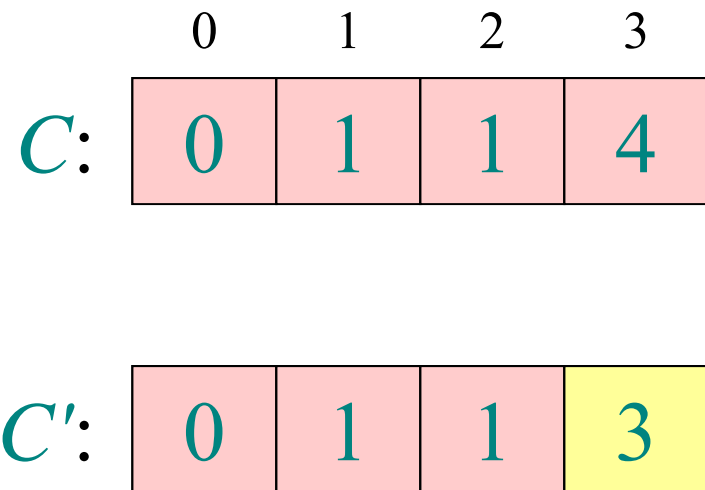
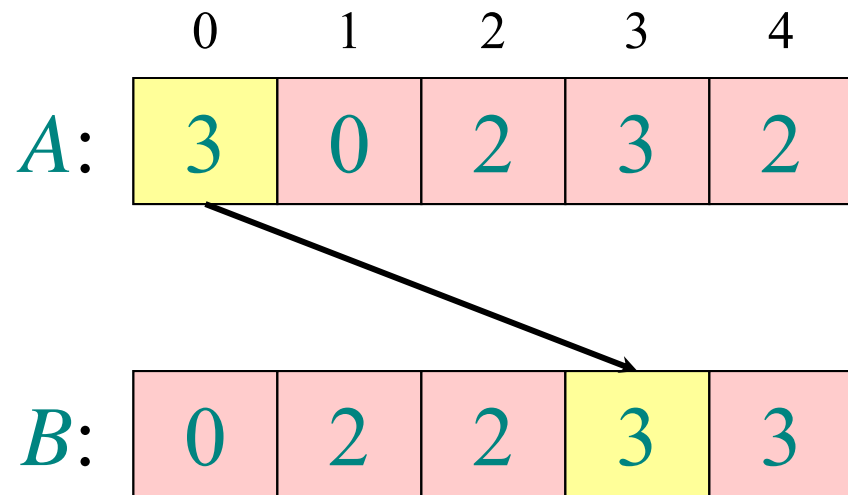
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# Analysis

$$\Theta(k) \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \mathbf{1. for} (i = 0; i < k; i++) \\ C[i] = 0 \end{array} \right.$$

$$\Theta(n) \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \mathbf{2. for} (j = 0; j < n; j++) \\ C[A[j]] = C[A[j]] + 1 \end{array} \right.$$

$$\Theta(k) \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \mathbf{3. for} (i = 1; i < k; i++) \\ C[i] = C[i] + C[i-1] \end{array} \right.$$

$$\Theta(n) \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \mathbf{4. for} (j = n-1; j \geq 0; j--) \\ B[C[A[j]]-1] = A[j] \\ C[A[j]] = C[A[j]] - 1 \end{array} \right.$$

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$$\Theta(n + k)$$

# Running time

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

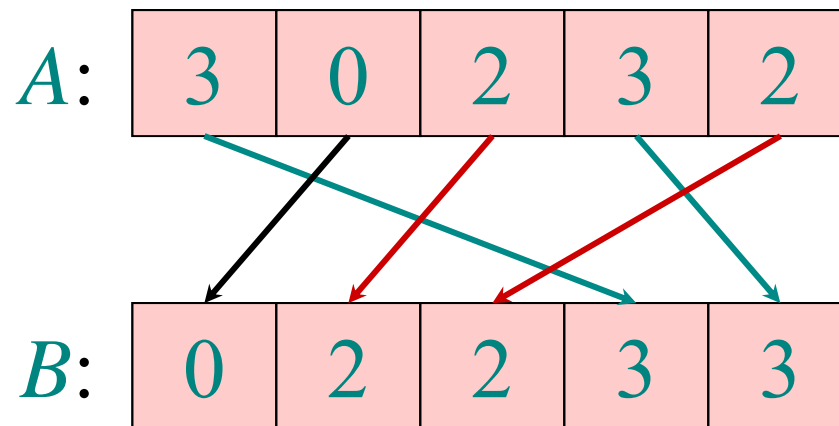
- But, sorting takes  $\Omega(n \log n)$  time!
- Where's the fallacy?

## Answer:

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

# Stable sorting

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



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