Lecture 21 Heap-sort, merge-sort. Lower limits for sorting. Sorting in linear time?

TDDD86: DALP

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1 Sorting

1.1 Heap-sort

Sorting with priority queues

- Use a priority queue to sort a collection of comparable elements
 - Insert an element with a serie of insertion operations
 - Remove the elements in sorted order with a series of operations removeMin

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- The runtime depends on the implementation of the priority queue:
 - Unsorted sequences give a selection sort and $O(n^2)$ time
 - Sorted sequences give insertion sorting and $O(n^2)$ time

procedure PQSORT(S)

```
\begin{array}{l} P \leftarrow \text{empty priority queue} \\ \textbf{while} \neg S.\text{ISEMPTY}() \textbf{do} \\ e \leftarrow S.\text{REMOVE}(S.\text{FIRST}()) \\ P.\text{INSERT}(e) \\ \textbf{while} \neg P.\text{ISEMPTY}() \textbf{do} \\ e \leftarrow P.\text{REMOVEMIN}() \\ S.\text{INSERTLAST}(e) \end{array}
```

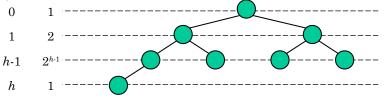
The height of a heap

Proposition 1. The height of a heap storing *n* keys is $O(\log n)$

Bevis. We use a heap as a complete binary tree.

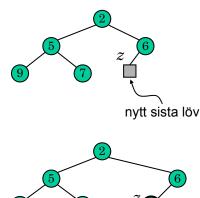
- Let *h* be the height of a heap storing *n* keys
- Since there are 2^i keys at depth i = 0, ..., h 1 and at least one key in depth h we get $n \ge 1 + 2 + 4 + ... + 2^{h-1} + 1$
- Thus $n \ge 2^h$, i.e. $h \le \log_2 n$

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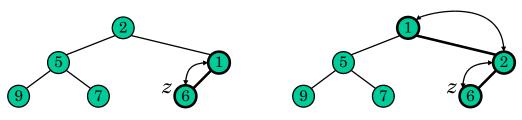
Insertion in a heap

- The method insert in an ADT priority queue corresponds to the insertion of key k in the heap
- The insertion algorithm consists of three steps
 - Find the place to insert *z* (the new last leaf)
 - Store k in z
 - Reset the heap property



Upheap

- After inserting a new key k, it is not certain that the heap property is still fulfilled
- The method upheap restores the heap property by swapping *k* along the upward path from the inserted node
- upheap terminates when the key *k* reaches the root or a node whose parent has a key that is not greater than *k*
- Since the height of a heap is $O(\log n)$, upheap runs in $O(\log n)$ time



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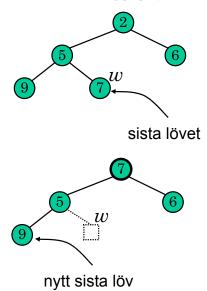
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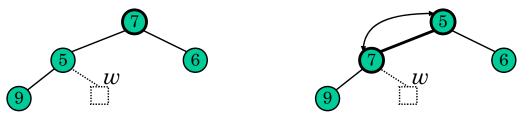
Removal from a heap

- Method removeMin consists in removing the root key from the heap
- Removal algorithm consists of three steps
 - Replace the root key with the key in the last leaf w
 - remove w
 - Reset the heap property



Downheap

- After replacement of the root key with key k from the last leaf, it is not certain that the heap property is still fulfilled
- Method downheap restores the heap property by swapping *k* along the downward path of the insertion node
- downheap terminates when the key *k* reaches a leaf or a node whose children have keys that are not less than *k*
- Since the height of a heap is $O(\log n)$, downheap runs in time $O(\log n)$



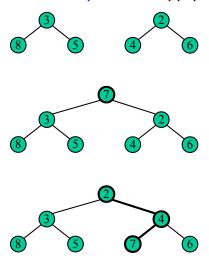
Heap-sort

- Consider a priority queue with *n* elements implemented in terms of a heap
 - memory utilization is O(n)
 - insert and remove Min run in $O(\log n)$ time
 - size, is Empty and min run in O(1) time
- Upon the utilization of heap-based priority queue we can sort a sequence of *n* elements in $O(n \log n)$ time
- The resulting algorithm is called heap-sort
- Heap-sort is much faster than quadratic sorting algorithms

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Combine 2 heaps

- Given 2 heaps and a key k
- Create a new heap where the root node stores the key k, and the two given heaps as subtrees
- Run downheap to reset the heap property



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(16)

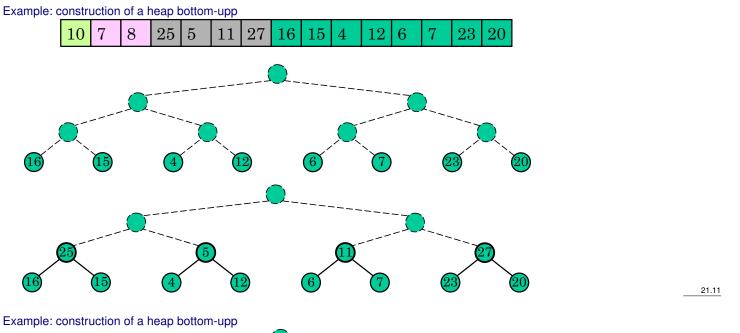
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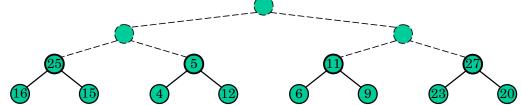
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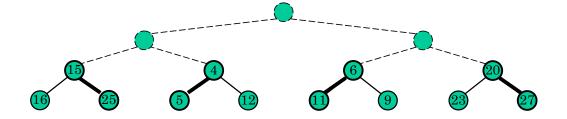
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Example: construction of a heap bottom-upp

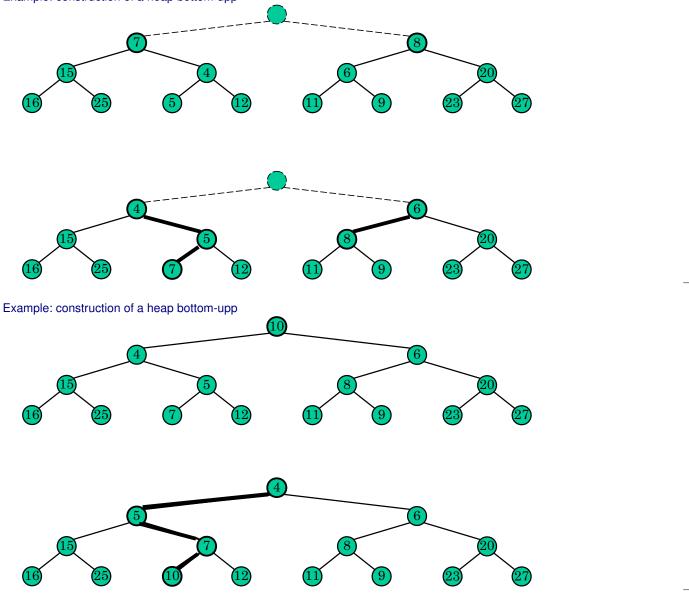




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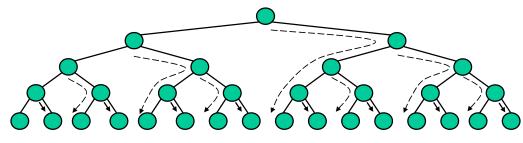
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Example: construction of a heap bottom-upp



Analysis

- We visualize the worst case time for a call to downheap with a path that first goes to the right, and then repeatedly go left to the bottom of the heap
- Since each node is traversed by at most two such paths, the total number of paths is O(n)
- Thus, the time to construct a heap bottom-upp is O(n)
- This construction method is faster than the *n* repeated deposits and makes the first phase of heap-sort more efficient



1.2 Merge-sort

Divide and conquer

- Merge-sort is a sort algorithm based on divide and conquer
- Like the heap-sort

21.15

21.14

- the execution time is $O(n \log n)$
- different heap-sort
 - does not use priority queues to help
 - access the data in a sequential manner (suitable to sort the data on disk)

Merge-sort

Merge-sort on an input sequence S having n elements is performed in 3 steps:

- Divide: split S into 2 sequences S_1 and S_2 each with n/2 elements
- Conquer: sort S_1 and S_2 recursively
- Combine: merge S_1 and S_2 in a unique sorted sequence

procedure MERGESORT(S)

```
if S.SIZE() > 1 then

(S_1, S_2) \leftarrow PARTITION(S.SIZE()/2)

MERGESORT(S_1)

MERGESORT(S_2)

S \leftarrow MERGE(S_1, S_2)
```

Merge two sorted sequences

- Merge 2 sequences A and B to form a seuqnce S containing the union of elements in A and B
- Merging 2 sorted sequences, each with n/2 elements, implemented with double linked lists takes O(n) time

```
function MERGE(A, B)
```

```
S \leftarrow empty sequence

while \neg A.ISEMPTY() \land \neg B.ISEMPTY() do

if A.FIRST.ELEMENT() < B.FIRST.ELEMENT() then

S.INSERTLAST(A.REMOVE(A.FIRST()))

else

S.INSERTLAST(B.REMOVE(B.FIRST()))

while \neg A.ISEMPTY() do

S.INSERTLAST(A.REMOVE(A.FIRST()))

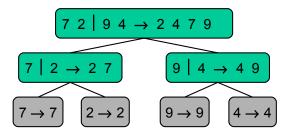
while \neg B.ISEMPTY() do

S.INSERTLAST(B.REMOVE(B.FIRST()))

return S
```

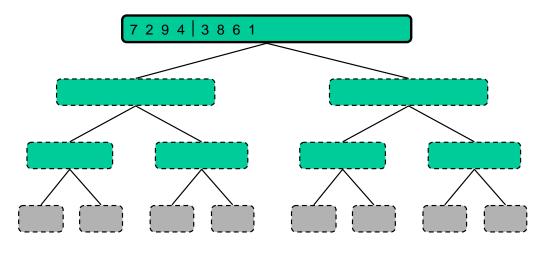
Merge-sort tree

- The execution of merge-sort can be visualized as a binary tree
 - Each node represents a recursive call to merge-sort and stores
 - * unsorted sequence before the execution and its partition
 - * Sorted sequence after the execution
 - The root is the origin of the call
 - The leaves are calls on partial sequences of size 0 or 1



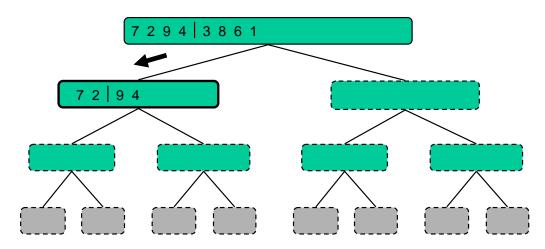
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• Partitioning



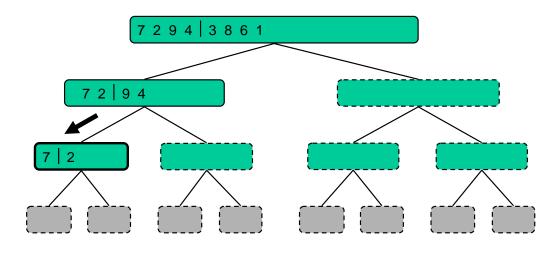
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- Example: Execution of merge-sort
 - Recursive call, partitioning

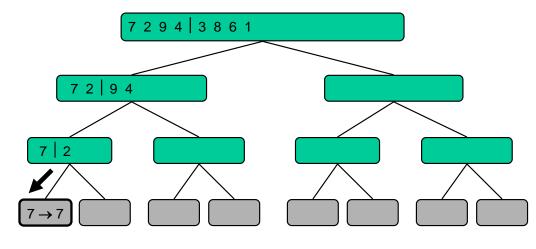


Example: Execution of merge-sort

• Recursive call, partitioning

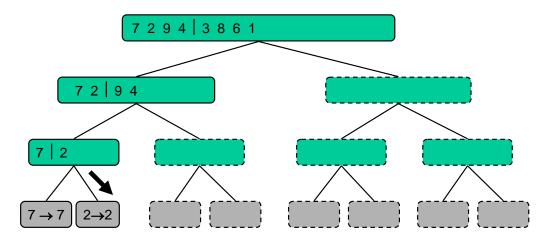


• Recursive call, base case



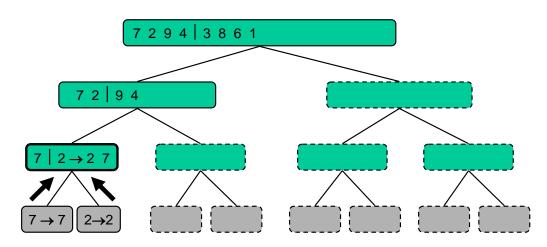
Example: Execution of merge-sort

• Recursive call, base case



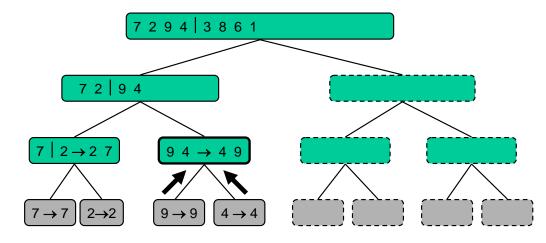
Example: Execution of merge-sort

• Merging



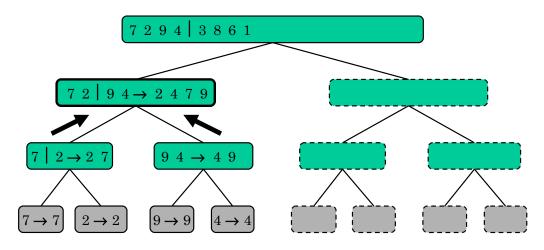
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• Recursive call, ..., base case



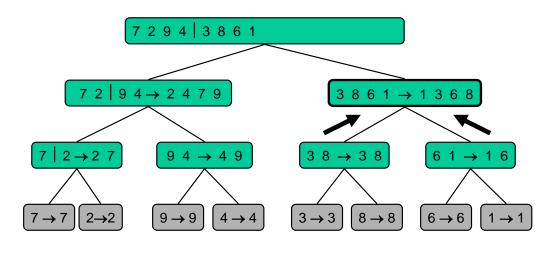
Example: Execution of merge-sort

• merging



Example: Execution of merge-sort

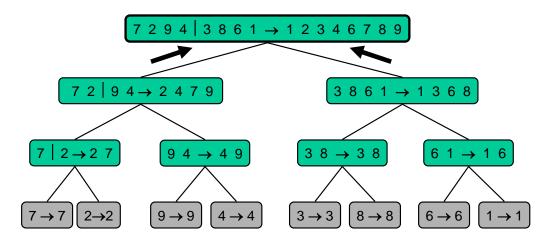
• Recursive call, ..., merging, merging



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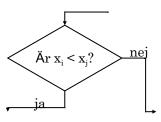
• merging



2 A lower limit for the comparison based sorting

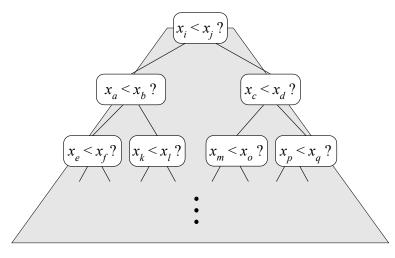
comparison based sorting

- Many sorting algorithms are *comparison-based*
 - They sort through comparisons between pairs of objects
 - Example: insertion-sort, selection-sort, heap-sort, merge-sort, quick-sort, ...
- Let us therefore try to derive a lower limit for the execution time in the worst case for each algorithm using the comparison to sort *n* elements *x*₁, *x*₂,...,*x*_n



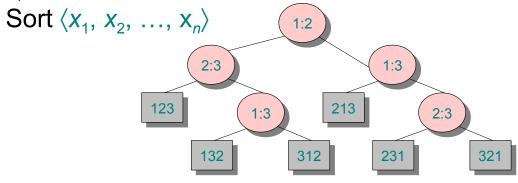
Calculating comparisons

- Let's just count comparisons
- Every possible execution of an algorithm is represented by a root-to-leaf path in a decision tree



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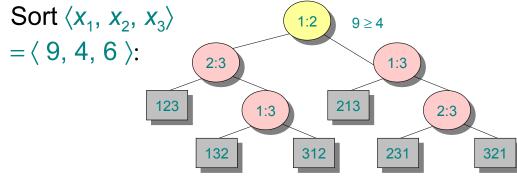
Example: Decision tree



Each internal node is marked i : j for $i, j \in \{1, 2, ..., n\}$

- The left subtree shows subsequent comparisons if $x_i \le x_j$
- The right subtree shows subsequent comparisons if $x_i \ge x_j$

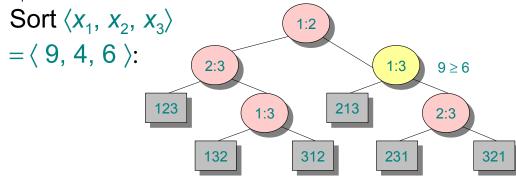
Example: Decision tree



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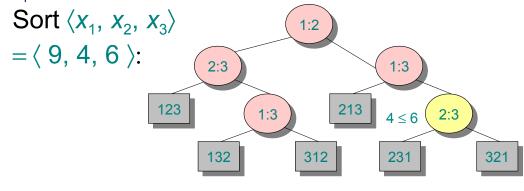




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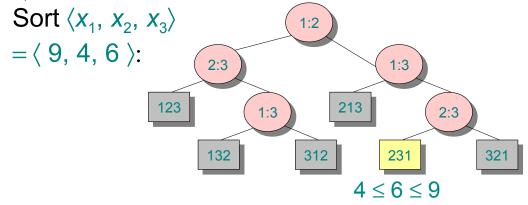
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Each internal node is marked i : j for $i, j \in \{1, 2, ..., n\}$

- The left subtree shows subsequent comparisons if $x_i \le x_j$
- The right subtree shows subsequent comparisons if $x_i \ge x_j$

Example: Decision tree



Each leaf contains a permutation $\langle \pi(i), \pi(2), \ldots, \pi(n) \rangle$ to indicate that the order $x_{\pi(1)} \leq x_{\pi(2)} \leq \ldots \leq x_{\pi(2)}$

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

Decision tree model

A decision tree can model the execution of the comparison-based sorting algorithms:

- A tree for each size of the input data
- Consider the algorithm execution to be shared whenever two elements are compared
- The tree contains all comparisons along all the possible consequences of instructions
- The running time of the algorithm = the length of the path traversed
- The running time in the worst case = the height of the tree

The height of a decision tree

- The height of the decision tree is a lower limit on the execution time in the worst case
- Every possible permutation of the input should lead to a separate output leaf
- Since there is $n! = 1 \cdot 2 \cdot ... \cdot n$ leaves, the height of a tree is at least log(n!)

3 Sorting in linear time?

3.1 Counting-sort

Counting sort

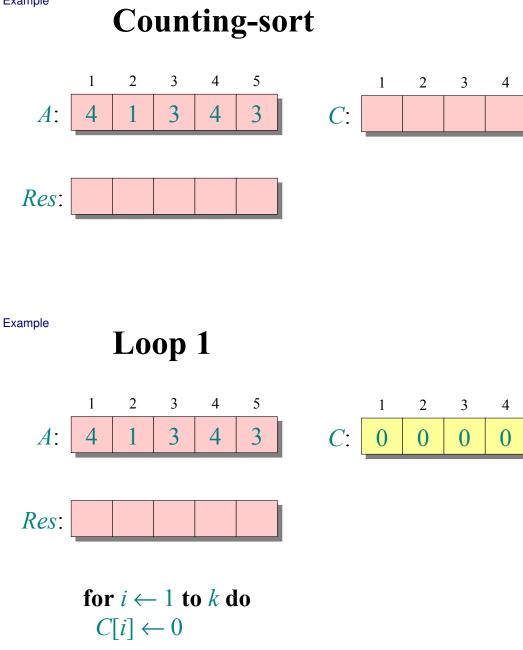
Require: A[1,...,n], where $A[j] \in \{1,2,...,k\}$ **function** COUNTINGSORT(A) Array to count : $C[1, \ldots, k]$ Array to store the result: Res[1, ..., n]for $i \leftarrow 1$ to k do $C[i] \leftarrow 0$ for $j \leftarrow 1$ to n do $C[A[j]] \leftarrow C[A[j]] + 1$ $\triangleright C[i] = |\{nyckel = i\}|$ for $i \leftarrow 2$ to k do $C[i] \gets C[i] + C[i-1]$ $\triangleright C[i] = |\{nyckel \leq i\}|$ for $j \leftarrow n$ downto i do $\textit{Res}[C[A[j]]] \gets A[j]$ $C[A[j]] \leftarrow C[A[j]] - 1$ return Res

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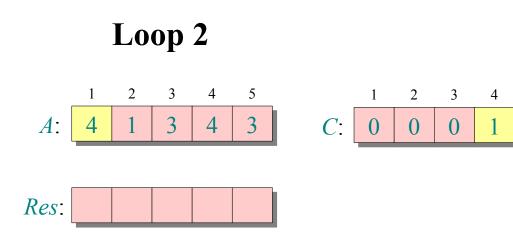
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Example

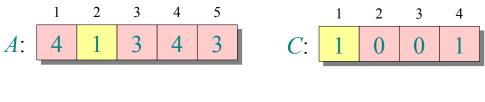
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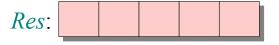


for $j \leftarrow 1$ to n do $C[A[j]] \leftarrow C[A[j]] + 1 \triangleright C[i] = |\{\text{nyckel} = i\}|$

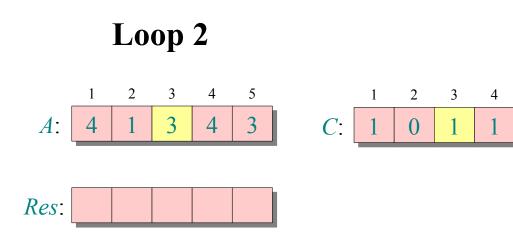








for $j \leftarrow 1$ to n do $C[A[j]] \leftarrow C[A[j]] + 1 \triangleright C[i] = |\{\text{nyckel} = i\}|$ (21.43)

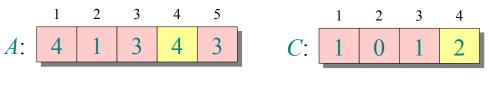


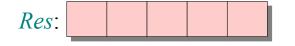
for $j \leftarrow 1$ to n do $C[A[j]] \leftarrow C[A[j]] + 1 \triangleright C[i] = |\{\text{nyckel} = i\}|$

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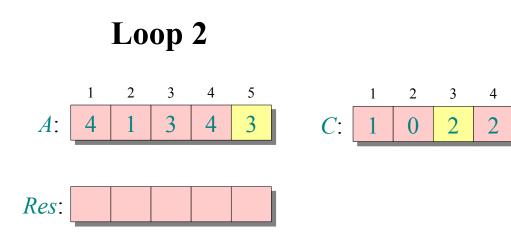








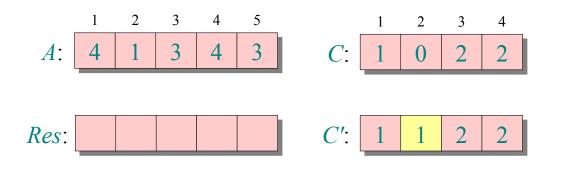
for $j \leftarrow 1$ to n do $C[A[j]] \leftarrow C[A[j]] + 1 \triangleright C[i] = |\{nyckel = i\}|$



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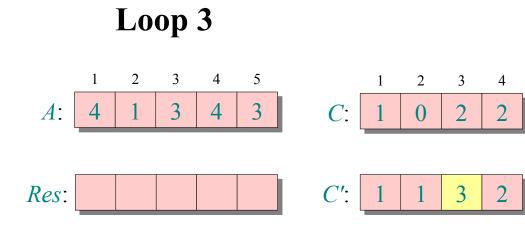
Example





for $i \leftarrow 2$ **to** k **do** $C[i] \leftarrow C[i] + C[i-1] \triangleright C[i] = |\{\text{nyckel} \le i\}|$

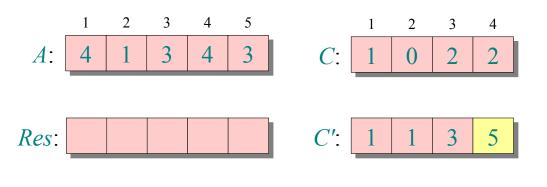
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for $i \leftarrow 2$ to k do $C[i] \leftarrow C[i] + C[i-1] \triangleright C[i] = |\{nyckel \le i\}|$



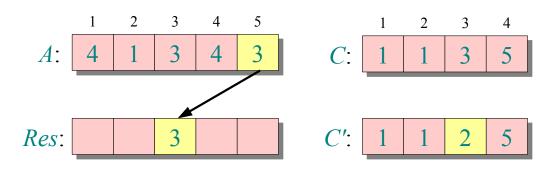




for $i \leftarrow 2$ to k do $C[i] \leftarrow C[i] + C[i-1] \triangleright C[i] = |\{\text{nyckel} \le i\}|$

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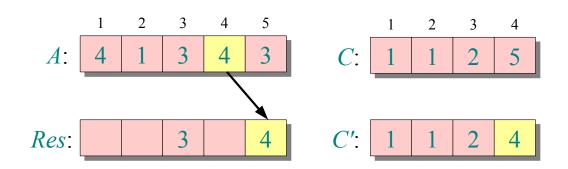
Loop 4



for $j \leftarrow n$ **downto** 1**do** $Res[C[A[j]]] \leftarrow A[j]$ $C[A[j]] \leftarrow C[A[j]] - 1$

Example

Loop 4

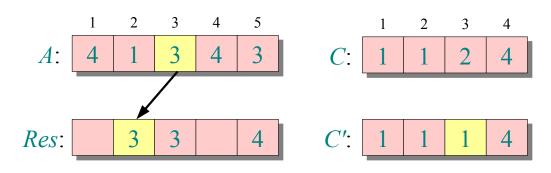


for $j \leftarrow n$ **downto** 1**do** $Res[C[A[j]]] \leftarrow A[j]$ $C[A[j]] \leftarrow C[A[j]] - 1$

Example

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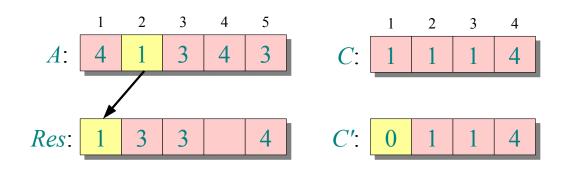
Loop 4



for $j \leftarrow n$ **downto** 1**do** $Res[C[A[j]]] \leftarrow A[j]$ $C[A[j]] \leftarrow C[A[j]] - 1$

Example

Loop 4

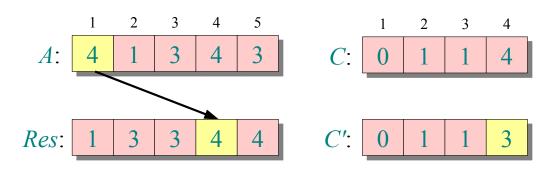


for $j \leftarrow n$ **downto** 1**do** $Res[C[A[j]]] \leftarrow A[j]$ $C[A[j]] \leftarrow C[A[j]] - 1$

Example

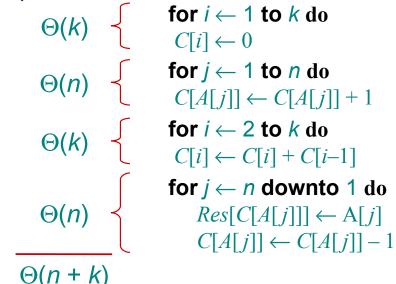
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Loop 4



for $j \leftarrow n$ **downto** 1**do** $Res[C[A[j]]] \leftarrow A[j]$ $C[A[j]] \leftarrow C[A[j]] - 1$





Execution time

If $k \in O(n)$ the counting sort takes $\Theta(n)$ time

- But sorting takes $\Omega(n \log n)$ time!
- What is wrong?

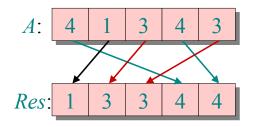
Answer

- comparison-based sort takes $\Omega(n \log n)$ time
- Counting-sort is not comparison-based
- In fact, not a single comparison performed between some elements!

Stable sorting

Counting-sort is a stable sorting method: it preserves the input order of equal elements

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To think about:

What are the other stable sorting methods?

3.2 Bucket-sort

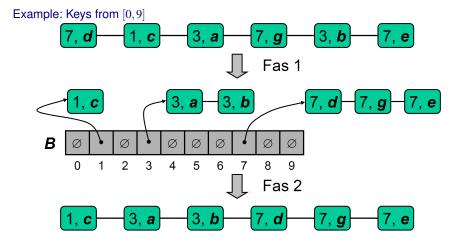
Bucket-sort

- Let *S* be a sequence of *n* elements (key, value) with keys from [0, N-1]
- Bucket-sort uses the keys as indexes in a help array *B* of sequences
 - Phase 1: Empty the sequence *S* by moving each item (k, v) last in its bucket B[k]
 - Phase 2: For i = 0, ..., N 1 move items in bucket B[i] to the end of the sequence S
- Analysis:
 - Phase 1 runs for O(n) time
 - Phase 2 runs for O(n+N) time

Bucket-sort runs for O(n+N) time

```
procedure BUCKETSORT(S,N)
```

 $\begin{array}{l} B \leftarrow \text{array with } N \text{ empty sequences} \\ \textbf{while} \neg S.\text{ISEMPTY}() \textbf{do} \\ f \leftarrow S.\text{FIRST}() \\ (k, o) \leftarrow S.\text{REMOVE}(f) \\ B[k].\text{INSERTLAST}((k, o)) \\ \textbf{for } i \leftarrow 0 \text{ to } N - 1 \text{ do} \\ \textbf{while} \neg B[i].\text{ISEMPTY}() \textbf{do} \\ f \leftarrow B[i].\text{FIRST}() \\ (k, o) \leftarrow B[i].\text{REMOVE}(f) \\ S.\text{INSERTLAST}((k, o)) \end{array}$



3.3 Radix-sort

Radix-sort

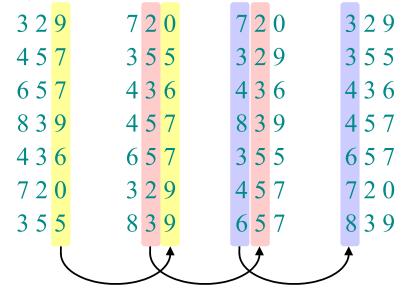
- Origin: Herman Holleriths card sorting machine for census 1890 in USA
- Holleriths original idea: sort the most significant digit first
- Good idea: sort of least significant digits first with an external stable sorting routine

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Example: Execution of radix-sort



Correctness of radix-sort

Use of induction on the digits position

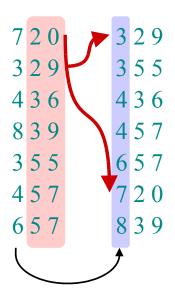
- Suppose that the numbers are sorted on their t 1 lowest digits
- Sort based on digit t

7	20	3	29
3	29	3	55
4	36	4	36
8	39	4	57
3	55	6	57
4	57	7	20
6	57	8	39
		•	

Correctness of radix-sort

Use of induction on the digits position

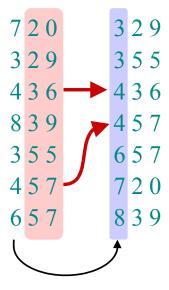
- Suppose that the numbers are sorted on their t 1 lowest digits
- Sort based on digit *t*
 - Two numbers that differ in the number *t* is correctly sorted



Correctness of radix-sort

Use of induction on the digits position

- Suppose that the numbers are sorted on their t 1 lowest digits
- Sort based on digit t
 - Two numbers that differ in the number t are correctly sorted
 - Two numbers that are equal in number t get the same order as in the input data \Rightarrow right order



Analysis of radix-sort

- Suppose the counting-sort is used as an external sorting routine
- Sort *n* machine word on *b* bits each
- We can see that every word has b/r characters in base 2^r

Example:

32-bit words

 $r = 8 \Rightarrow b/r = 4$ pass of counting-sort on digits in base 2⁸ or $r = 16 \Rightarrow b/r = 2$ pass of counting-sort on digits in base 2¹⁶

How many pass we should do?

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Analysis of radix-sort

Remember: counting-sort runs for $\Theta(n+k)$ time to sort *n* numbers from [0, k-1]. If every *b*-bit word is broken up into *r*-bit pieces, each takes pass of the counting-sort takes $\Theta(n+2^r)$. since there are b/r pass we get

$$T(n,b) = \Theta\left(\frac{b}{r}(n+2^r)\right)$$

Choose *r* to minimize T(n,b)

• Raising *r* with few passes, but when $r \gg \log n$ time increases exponentially.

Choosing r

 $T(n,b) = \Theta\left(\frac{b}{r}\left(n+2^{r}\right)\right)$

Minimizing T(n,b) by differentiate and set it to 0. Or, note that we do not want to have $2^r \gg n$, it does not harm asymptotically to choose *R* as large as possible given the conditions. The choice $r = \log n$ means $T(n,b) = \Theta(bn/\log n)$.

• For a number in the interval 0 to $n^d - 1$ we get $b = d \log n \Rightarrow$ radix-sort runs in $\Theta(dn)$ time.

Conclusions

In practice, radix-sort is fast for large inputs, as well as easy to code and maintain.

Example: 32-bits number

- At most 3 passes when sorting ≥ 2000 numbers.
- Merge-sort and quick-sort use at least $\lceil \log 2000 \rceil = 11$ pass.

Drawback: It is not possible to sort in-place the counting sort.

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