# CSE 332 Data Structures & Parallelism

# **Beyond Comparison Sorting**

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Sorting: The Big Picture				
Simple algorithms: O(n <sup>2</sup> )	Fancier algorithms: O(n log n)	Comparison lower bound: Ω(n log n)	Specialized algorithms: O(n)	Handling huge data sets
Insertion sort Selection sort 	Heap sort Merge sort Quick sort <sub>(avg)</sub> 		Bucket sort Radix sort	External sorting

### A different view of sorting

- Assume we have n elements to sort
  - And for simplicity, none are equal (no duplicates)

• How many *permutations* (possible orderings) of the elements?

n'.

• Example, n=3

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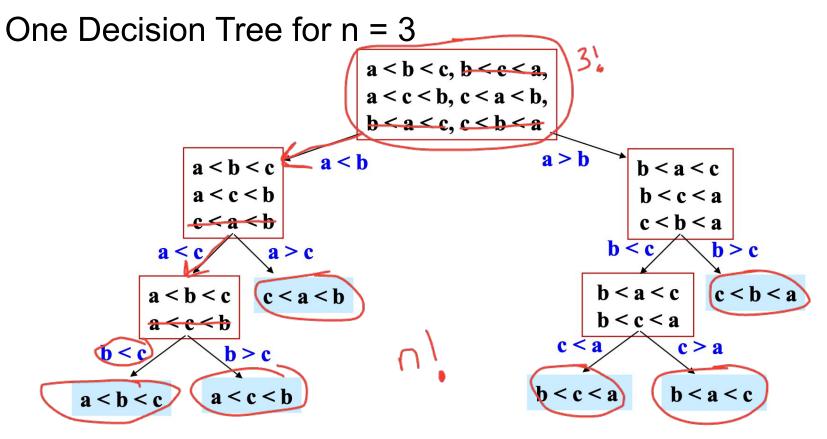
• Example, n=3, six possibilities

a[0] < a[1] < a[2] a[0] < a[2] < a[1] a[1] < a[0] < a[2]a[1] < a[2] < a[0] a[2] < a[0] < a[1] a[2] < a[1] < a[0]

In general, n choices for least element, then n-1 for next, then n-2 for next, ...
 n(n-1)(n-2)...(2)(1) = n! possible orderings

# **Counting Comparisons**

- Don't know what the algorithm is, but it cannot make progress without doing comparisons
  - Eventually does a first comparison (is a < b ?")</li>
  - Can use the result to decide what second comparison to do
  - Etc.: comparison k can be chosen based on first k-1 results
- Can represent this process as a decision tree
  - Nodes contain "set of remaining possibilities"
  - At root, anything is possible; no option eliminated
  - Edges are "answers from a comparison"
  - The algorithm does not actually build the tree; it's what our *proof* uses to represent "the most the algorithm could know so far" as the algorithm progresses



- The leaves contain all the possible orderings of a, b, c
- A different algorithm would lead to a different tree

#### Lower bound on Height

- A binary tree of height h has at most how many leaves?
  L ≤ 2<sup>h</sup>
- (A binary tree with L leaves has height at least:
- The decision tree has how many leaves:  $\gamma'$ .
- So the decision tree has height:

$$h \ge 1002n!$$

#### Lower bound on height

- The height of a binary tree with L leaves is at least log2 L
- So the height of our decision tree, h:

h ≥ log₂(n!)

- $= \log_2(n^*(n-1)^*(n-2)...(2)(1))$
- $= \log_2 n + \log_2 (n-1) + ... + \log_2 (1)$

 $\geq \log_2 n + \log_2 (n-1) + ... + \log_2 (n/2)$ 

 $\geq$  (n/2)  $\log_2(n/2)$ 

=  $(n/2)(\log_2 n - \log_2 2)$ =  $(1/2) n \log_2 n - (1/2)n$ "=  $\Omega$  (n log n) property of binary trees

definition of factorial

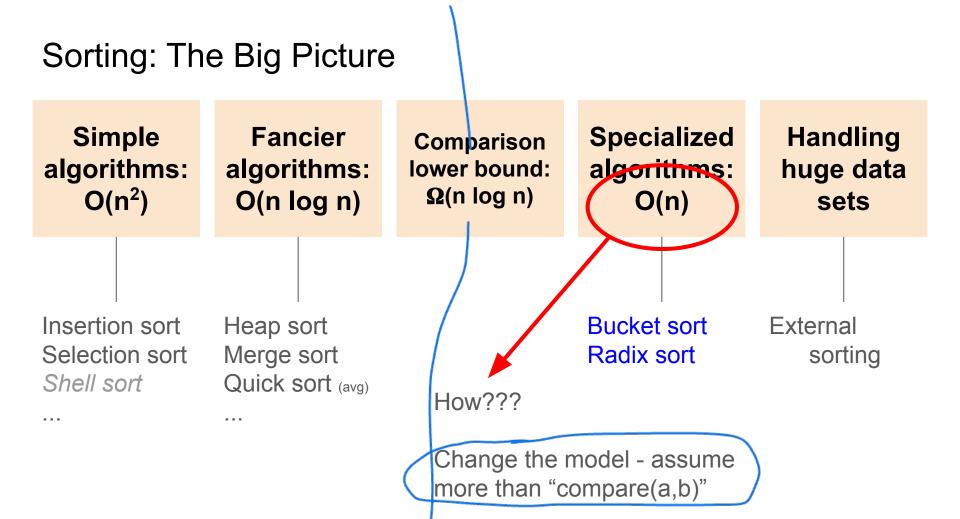
property of logarithms

keep first n/2 terms

each of the n/2 terms left is  $\geq \log_2(n/2)$ 

property of logarithms

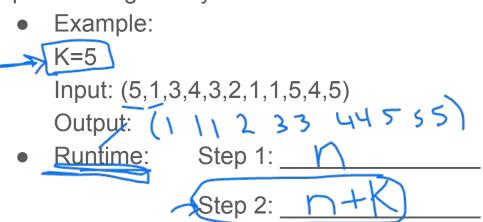
arithmetic



### BucketSort (a.k.a. BinSort)

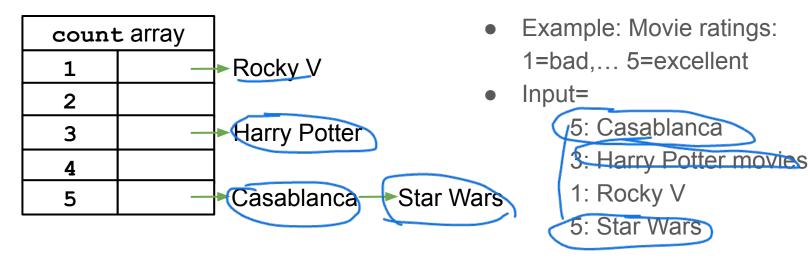
- If all values to be sorted are known to be integers between (and K) or any small range),
  - Create an array of size K, and put each element in its proper bucket (a.ka. bin)
  - <u>If</u> data is only integers, no need to store more than a *count* of how many times that bucket has been used
- Output result via linear pass through array of buckets

count array		
1	-Π)	
2	1	
3	11	
4	()	
5	111	



#### **Bucket Sort with Data**

- Most real lists aren't just #'s; we have data
- Each bucket is a list (say, linked list)
- To add to a bucket, place at end O(1) (keep pointer to last element)



# Analyzing bucket sort

Performance depends on:

- Input size: **n**
- Number of buckets: K

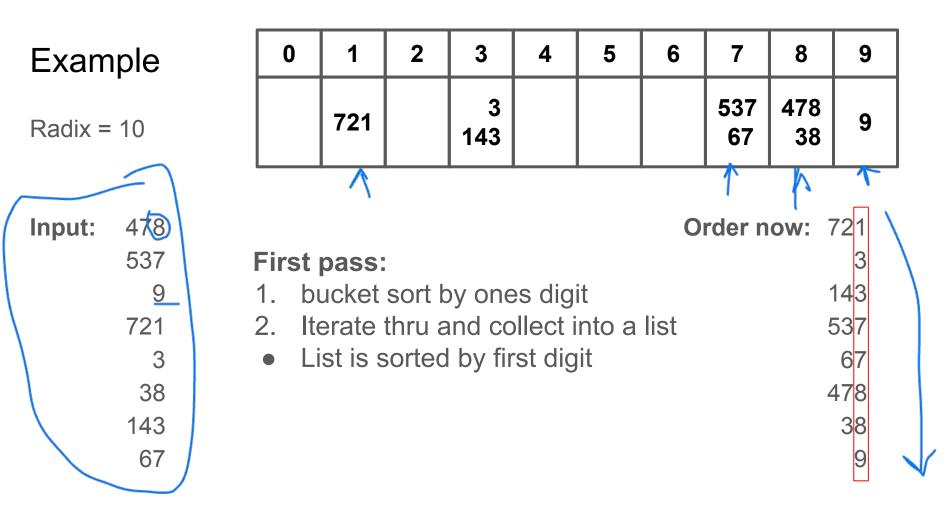
- Work to put the data in buckets:
- Work to pull data out of the buckets:  $\underline{n+k}$
- Overall: O(h+k)

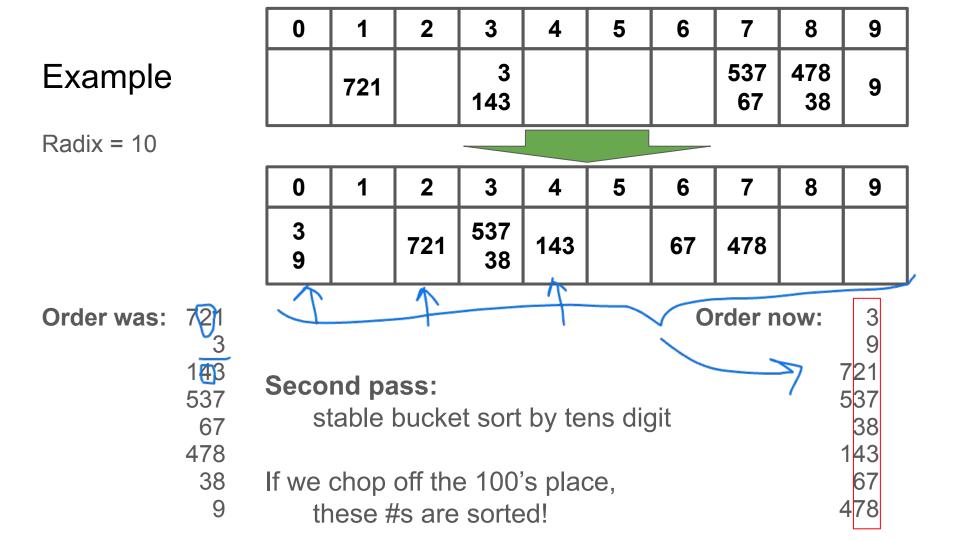
# Radix sort

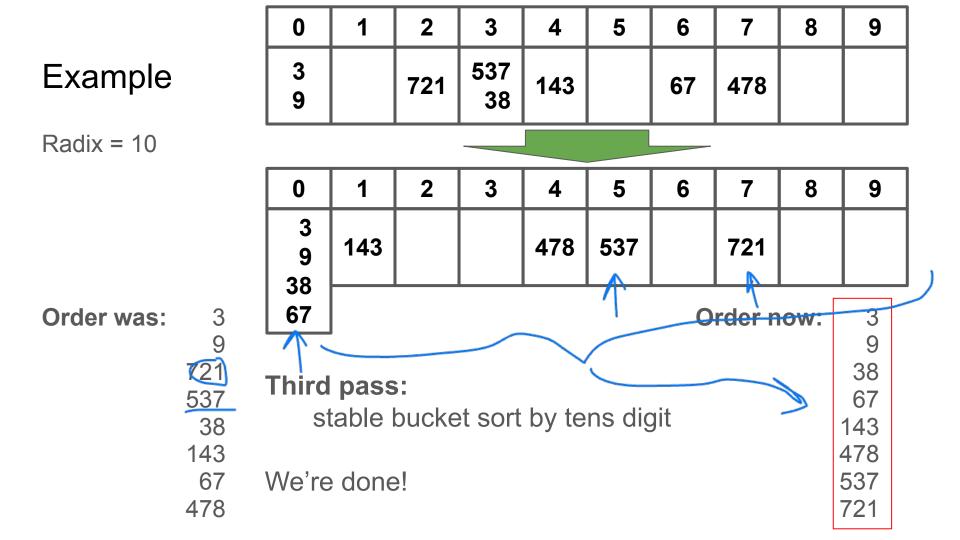


- Radix = "the base of a number system"
  - Examples will use 10 because we are used to that
  - In implementations use larger numbers
    - For example, for ASCII strings, might use 128
- Idea:
  - Bucket sort on one digit at a time
    - Number of buckets = radix
    - Starting with *least* significant digit, sort with Bucket Sort
    - Keeping sort <u>stable</u>
  - Do one pass per digit
- Invariant: After k passes, the last k digits are sorted

Aside: Origins go back to the 1890 U.S. census







# Analysis of Radix Sort

Performance depends on:

- Input size: **n**
- Number of buckets = Radix: B
  - e.g. Base 10 #: 10; binary #: 2; Alpha-numeric char: 62
- Number of passes = 'Digits": P
  e.g. Ages of people: 3; Phone #: 10; Person's name: ?
- - Each pass is a Bucket Sort
- Total work is P(n+B)
  - We do 'P' passes, each of which is a Bucket Sort

# Recap: Features of Sorting Algorithms

In-place

• Sorted items occupy the same space as the original items. (No copying required, only O(1) extra space if any.)

#### Stable

• Items in input with the same value end up in the same order as when they began.

Examples:

- Merge Sort not in place stable
- Quick Sort in place not stable

# Sorting massive data: External Sorting

Need sorting algorithms that **minimize disk access** time:

- Quicksort and Heapsort both jump all over the array, leading to expensive random disk accesses
- Mergesort scans linearly through arrays, leading to (relatively) efficient sequential disk access

Basic Idea:

- Load chunk of data into Memory, sort, store this "run" on disk/tape
- Use the Merge routine from Mergesort to merge runs
- Repeat until you have only one run (one sorted chunk)
- Mergesort can leverage multiple disks
- Weiss gives some examples

# Sorting Summary

- Simple O(n<sup>2</sup>) sorts can be fastest for small n
  - selection sort, insertion sort (latter linear for mostly-sorted)
  - good for "below a cut-off" to help divide-and-conquer sorts
- O(n log n) sorts
  - heap sort, in-place but not stable nor parallelizable
  - merge sort, not in place but stable and works as external sort
  - quick sort, in place but not stable and O(n<sup>2</sup>) in worst-case
    - often fastest, but depends on costs of comparisons/copies
- $\Omega(n \log n)$  is worst-case and average lower-bound for sorting by comparisons
- Non-comparison sorts
  - Bucket sort good for small number of key values
  - Radix sort uses fewer buckets and more phases
- Best way to sort? It depends!