

Sorting (Part III)

CSE 373

Data Structures

Lecture 15

Reading

- Reading
 - › Sections 7.8-7.9 and radix sort in Section 3.2.6

How fast can we sort?

- Heapsort, Mergesort, and Quicksort all run in $O(N \log N)$ best case running time
- Can we do any better?
- No, if sorting is comparison-based.

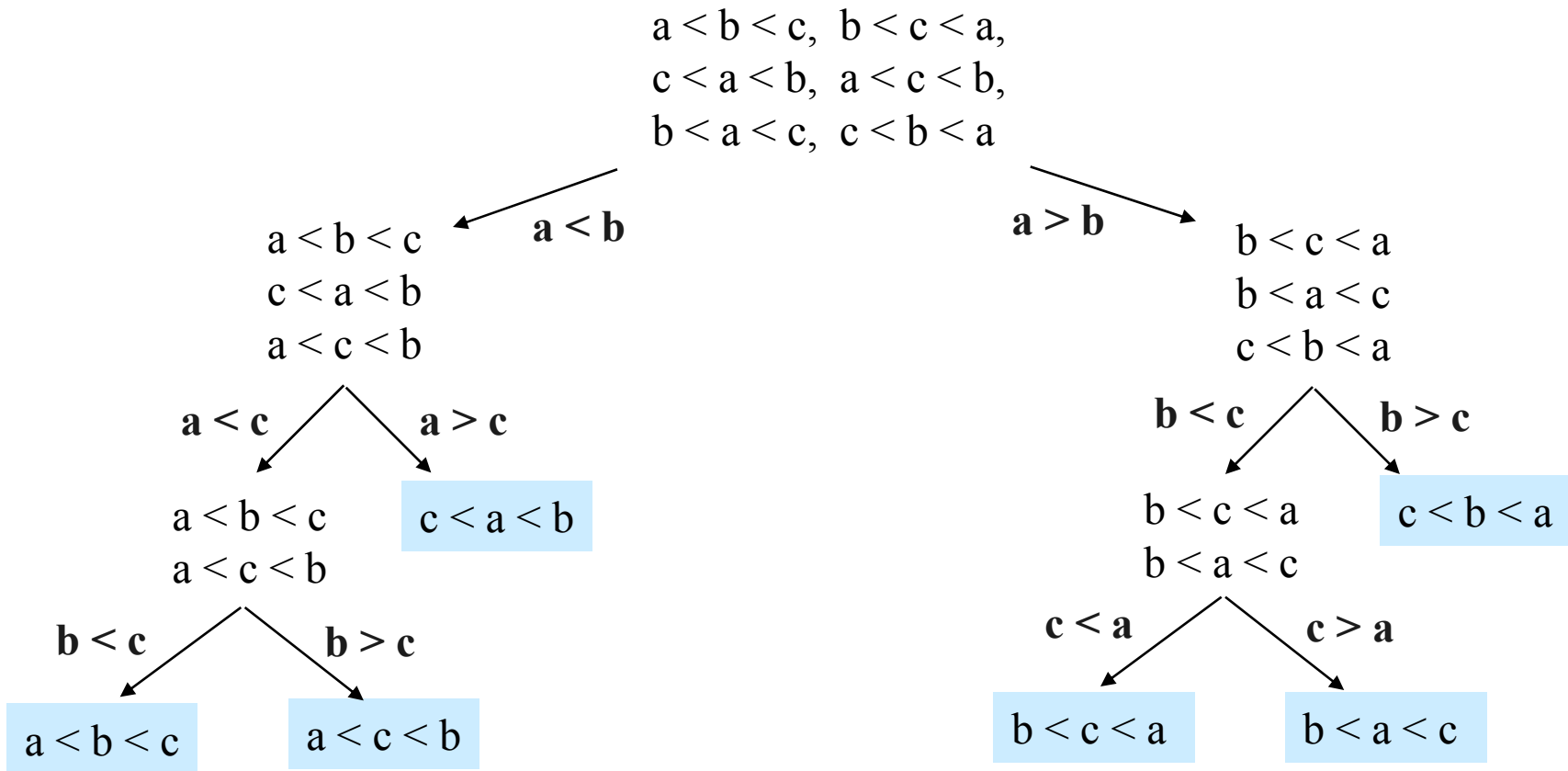
Sorting Model

- Recall the basic assumption: we can only compare two elements at a time
 - › we can only reduce the possible solution space by half each time we make a comparison
- Suppose you are given N elements
 - › Assume no duplicates
- How many possible orderings can you get?
 - › Example: a, b, c ($N = 3$)

Permutations

- How many possible orderings can you get?
 - › Example: a, b, c ($N = 3$)
 - › (a b c), (a c b), (b a c), (b c a), (c a b), (c b a)
 - › 6 orderings = $3 \cdot 2 \cdot 1 = 3!$ (i.e., “3 factorial”)
 - › All the possible permutations of a set of 3 elements
- For N elements
 - › N choices for the first position, $(N-1)$ choices for the second position, ..., (2) choices, 1 choice
 - › $N(N-1)(N-2)\Lambda(2)(1) = N!$ possible orderings

Decision Tree



The leaves contain all the possible orderings of a, b, c

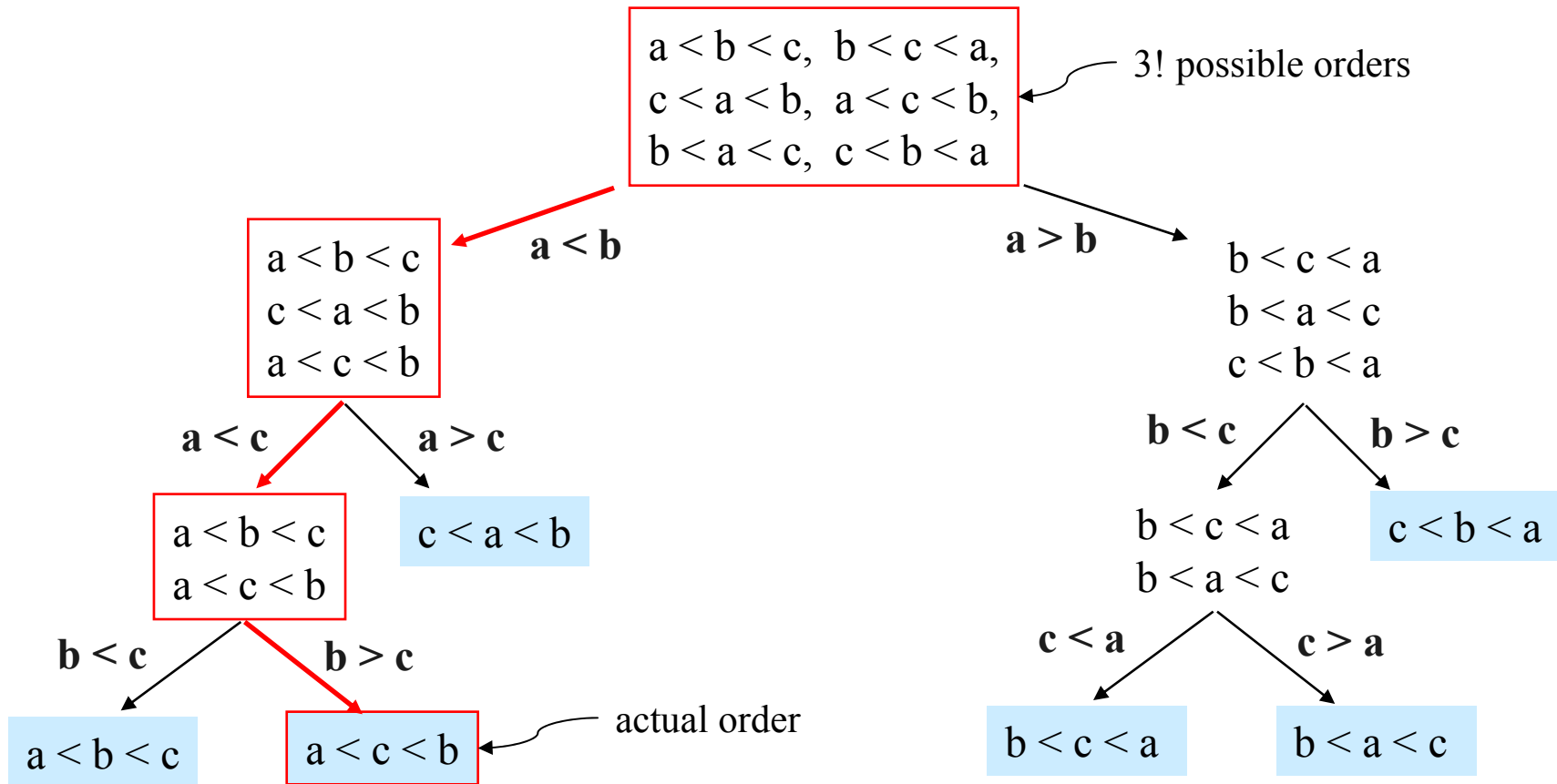
Decision Trees

- A Decision Tree is a Binary Tree such that:
 - › Each node = a set of orderings
 - i.e., the remaining solution space
 - › Each edge = 1 comparison
 - › Each leaf = 1 unique ordering
 - › How many leaves for N distinct elements?
 - $N!$, i.e., a leaf for each possible ordering
- Only 1 leaf has the ordering that is the desired correctly sorted arrangement

Decision Trees and Sorting

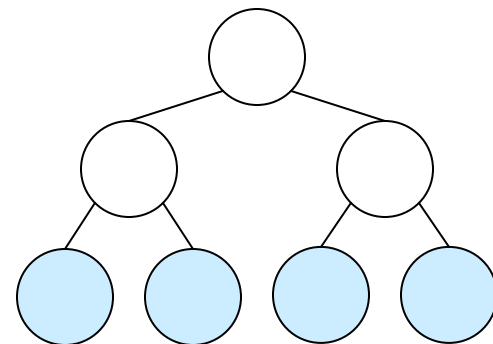
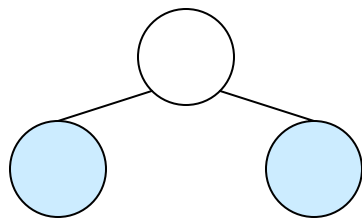
- Every comparison-based sorting algorithm corresponds to a decision tree
 - › Finds correct leaf by choosing edges to follow
 - i.e., by making comparisons
 - › Each decision reduces the possible solution space by one half
- Run time is \geq maximum no. of comparisons
 - › maximum number of comparisons is the length of the longest path in the decision tree, i.e. the height of the tree

Decision Tree Example



How many leaves on a tree?

- Suppose you have a binary tree of height d . How many leaves can the tree have?
 - › $d = 1 \rightarrow$ at most 2 leaves,
 - › $d = 2 \rightarrow$ at most 4 leaves, etc.



Lower bound on Height

- A binary tree of height d has at most 2^d leaves
 - › depth $d = 1 \rightarrow 2$ leaves, $d = 2 \rightarrow 4$ leaves, etc.
 - › Can prove by induction
- Number of leaves, $L \leq 2^d$
- Height $d \geq \log_2 L$
- The decision tree has $N!$ leaves
- So the decision tree has height $d \geq \log_2(N!)$

$\log(N!)$ is $\Omega(N \log N)$

$$\log(N!) = \log(N \cdot (N-1) \cdot (N-2) \cdots (2) \cdot (1))$$

$$= \log N + \log(N-1) + \log(N-2) + \cdots + \log 2 + \log 1$$

select just the first $N/2$ terms

$$\geq \log N + \log(N-1) + \log(N-2) + \cdots + \log \frac{N}{2}$$

each of the selected terms is $\geq \log N/2$

$$\geq \frac{N}{2} \log \frac{N}{2}$$

$$n! \approx \sqrt{2\pi n} \left(\frac{n}{e}\right)^n$$

Sterling's formula

$$\geq \frac{N}{2} (\log N - \log 2) = \frac{N}{2} \log N - \frac{N}{2}$$

$$= \Omega(N \log N)$$

$\Omega(N \log N)$

- Run time of any comparison-based sorting algorithm is $\Omega(N \log N)$
- Can we do better if we don't use comparisons?

Radix Sort: Sorting integers

- Historically goes back to the 1890 census.
- Radix sort = multi-pass bucket sort of integers in the range 0 to B^P-1
- Bucket-sort from least significant to most significant “digit” (base B)
- Requires $P(B+N)$ operations where P is the number of passes (the number of base B digits in the largest possible input number).
- If P and B are constants then $O(N)$ time to sort!

Radix Sort Example

Input data

478
537
9
721
3
38
123
67

Bucket sort
by 1's digit

| 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 |
|---|-------------|---|-------------------------|---|---|---|---------------------------|---------------------------|----------|
| | 72 <u>1</u> | | <u>3</u> 12 <u>3</u> | | | | 53 <u>7</u> 6 <u>7</u> | 47 <u>8</u> 3 <u>8</u> | <u>9</u> |

After 1st pass

721
3
123
537
67
478
38
9

This example uses B=10 and base 10 digits for simplicity of demonstration. Larger bucket counts should be used in an actual implementation.

Radix Sort Example

After 1st pass

721
3
123
537
67
478
38
9

Bucket sort
by 10's
digit

| 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 |
|--------------------------|---|------------------------------|----------------------------|---|---|------------|--------------|---|---|
| <u>0</u> 3 <u>0</u> 9 | | 7 <u>2</u> 1 1 <u>2</u> 3 | 5 <u>3</u> 7 <u>3</u> 8 | | | <u>6</u> 7 | 4 <u>7</u> 8 | | |

After 2nd pass

3
9
721
123
537
38
67
478

Radix Sort Example

After 2nd pass

3
9
721
123
537
38
67
478

Bucket sort
by 100's
digit

| 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 |
|-------------|-------------|---|---|-------------|-------------|---|-------------|---|---|
| <u>0</u> 03 | <u>1</u> 23 | | | <u>4</u> 78 | <u>5</u> 37 | | <u>7</u> 21 | | |

After 3rd pass

3
9
38
67
123
478
537
721

Invariant: after k passes the low order k digits are sorted.

Implementation Options

- List
 - › List of data, bucket array of lists.
 - › Concatenate lists for each pass.
- Array / List
 - › Array of data, bucket array of lists.
- Array / Array
 - › Array of data, array for all buckets.
 - › Requires counting.

Array / Array

Data Array

| | |
|---|-----|
| 0 | 478 |
| 1 | 537 |
| 2 | 9 |
| 3 | 721 |
| 4 | 3 |
| 5 | 38 |
| 6 | 123 |
| 7 | 67 |

Count Array

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

Address Array

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

Target Array

| | | | |
|---|-----|---|---|
| 0 | 721 | } | 1 |
| 1 | 3 | | 3 |
| 2 | 123 | } | 7 |
| 3 | 537 | | 8 |
| 4 | 67 | } | 9 |
| 5 | 478 | | |
| 6 | 38 | | |
| 7 | 9 | | |



$add[0] := 0$

$add[i] := add[i-1] + count[i-1], i > 0$

Bucket i ranges from
 $add[i]$ to $add[i+1]-1$

Array / Array

- Pass 1 (over A)
 - › Calculate counts and addresses for 1st “digit”
- Pass 2 (over T)
 - › Move data from A to T
 - › Calculate counts and addresses for 2nd “digit”
- Pass 3 (over A)
 - › Move data from T to A
 - › Calculate counts and addresses for 3nd “digit”
- ...
- In the end an additional copy may be needed.

Choosing Parameters for Radix Sort

- N number of integers – given
- m bit numbers - given
- B number of buckets
 - › $B = 2^r$: power of 2 so that calculations can be done by shifting.
 - › N/B not too small, otherwise too many empty buckets.
 - › $P = m/r$ should be small.
- Example – 1 million 64 bit numbers. Choose $B = 2^{16} = 65,536$. 1 Million / B \approx 15 numbers per bucket. $P = 64/16 = 4$ passes.

Properties of Radix Sort

- Not in-place
 - › needs lots of auxiliary storage.
- Stable
 - › equal keys always end up in same bucket in the same order.
- Fast
 - › $B = 2^r$ buckets on m bit numbers

$$O\left(\frac{m}{r}(n + 2^r)\right) \text{ time}$$

Internal versus External Sorting

- So far assumed that accessing $A[i]$ is fast – Array A is stored in internal memory (RAM)
 - › Algorithms so far are good for internal sorting
- What if A is so large that it doesn't fit in internal memory?
 - › Data on disk or tape
 - › Delay in accessing $A[i]$ – e.g. need to spin disk and move head

Internal versus External Sorting

- Need sorting algorithms that minimize disk access time
 - › External sorting – Basic Idea:
 - Load chunk of data into RAM, 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)
 - Text gives some examples

Summary of Sorting

- Sorting choices:
 - › $O(N^2)$ – Bubblesort, Insertion Sort
 - › $O(N \log N)$ average case running time:
 - Heapsort: In-place, not stable.
 - Mergesort: $O(N)$ extra space, stable.
 - Quicksort: claimed fastest in practice but, $O(N^2)$ worst case. Needs extra storage for recursion. Not stable.
 - › $O(N)$ – Radix Sort: fast and stable. Not comparison based. Not in-place.