

# CSE 373

# Data Structures & Algorithms

## Lecture 15

## Sorting (III)

# Sorting Recap

- Selection Sort
- Bubble Sort
- Insertion Sort
- Shell Sort

# Sorting Recap

- Heapsort
- Mergesort
  - Does the sorting bottom-up
- Quicksort
  - Does the sorting top-down, as part of recursion

# MergeSort and Massive Data

- MergeSort is the basis of massive sorting
  - Quicksort and Heapsort both jump all over the array, leading to expensive random disk access
  - Mergesort scans linearly through arrays, leading to (relatively) efficient sequential disk access
  - In-memory sorting of reasonable blocks can be combined with larger mergesorts
  - Mergesort can leverage multiple disks

# How fast can we sort?

Heapsort and Mergesort both have  
 $O(N \log N)$  **worst** case running time.

Heapsort, Mergesort, and Quicksort also have  
 $O(N \log N)$  **average** case running time.

Can we do any better?

# Permutations

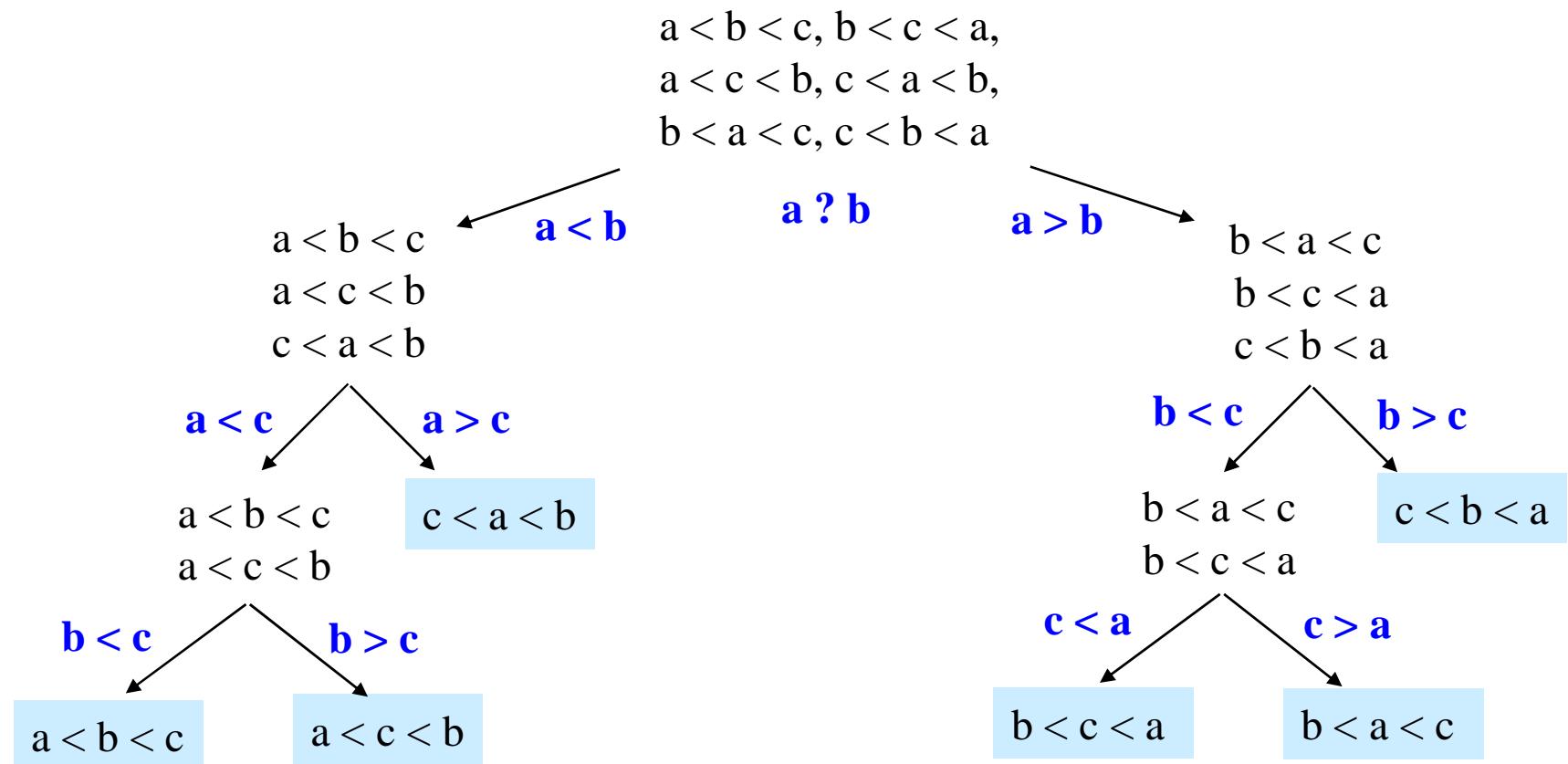
- How many possible orderings are there?
- Example: a, b, c

$$\begin{array}{l} a < b < c \\ a < c < b \end{array}$$
$$\begin{array}{l} b < a < c \\ b < c < a \end{array}$$
$$\begin{array}{l} c < a < b \\ c < b < a \end{array}$$

# Permutations

- For 3 elements
  - $6 \text{ orderings} = 3 \cdot 2 \cdot 1 = 3!$  (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
  - $N(N-1)(N-2)\dots(2)(1) = \underline{N! \text{ possible orderings}}$

# Decision Tree

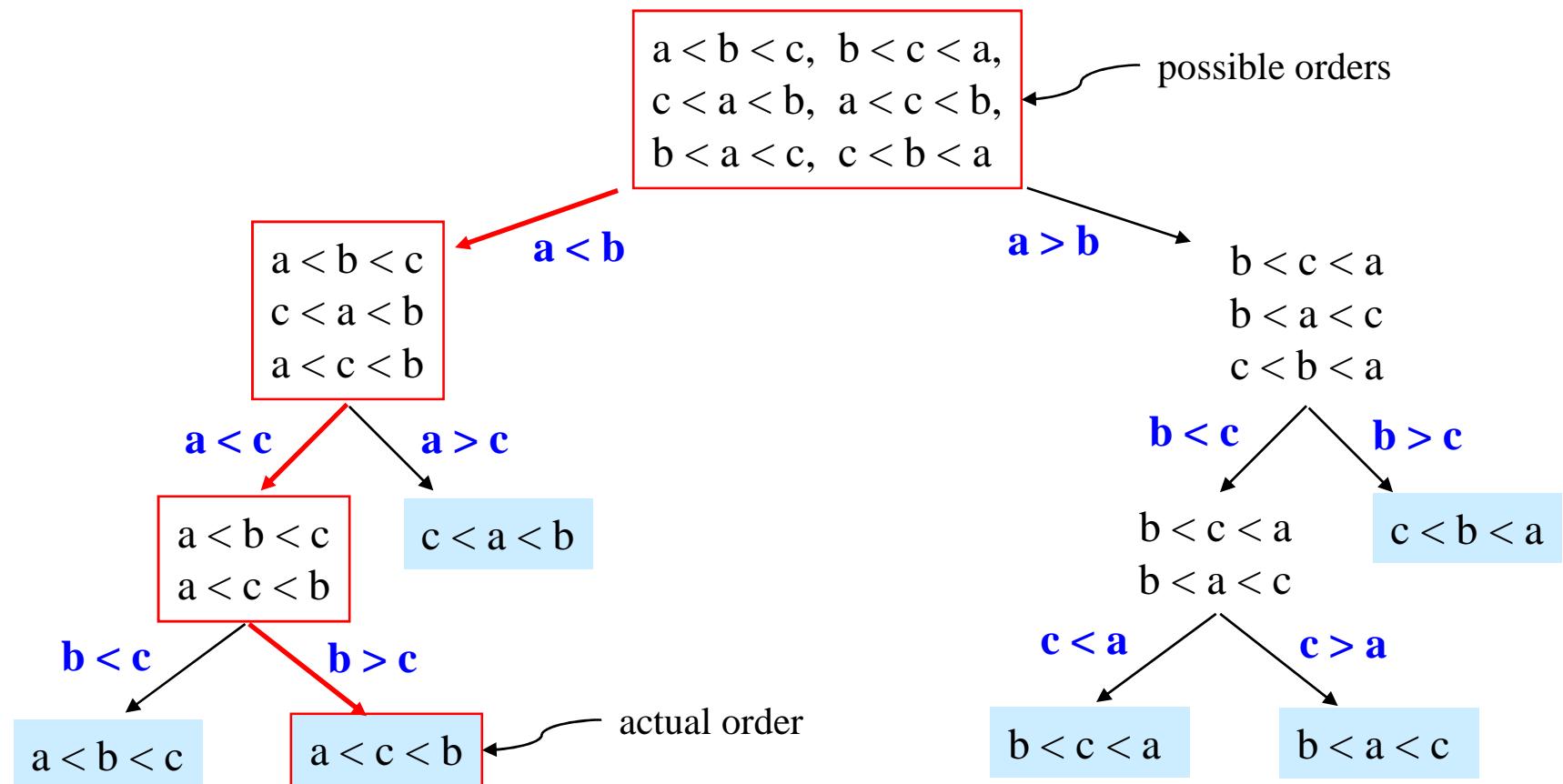


The leaves contain all the possible orderings of a, b, c

# Decision Trees

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

# Decision Tree Example

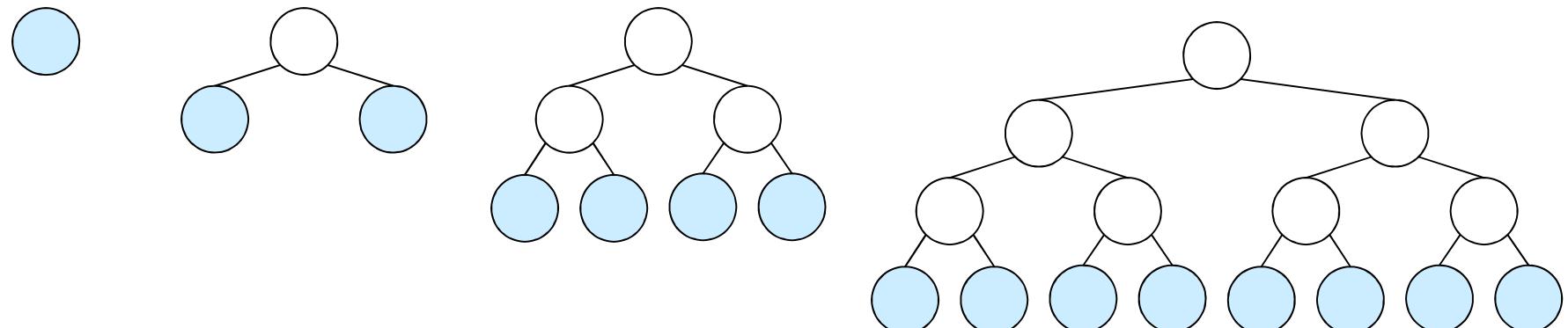


# Decision Trees and Sorting

- Every sorting algorithm corresponds to this type of decision tree
- Finds correct leaf by following edges
  - In other words, by making comparisons
- Think about worst case run time
  - Worst case  $\geq$  maximum comparisons
  - Maximum comparisons is the length of the longest path in the decision tree
  - Which is the height of the tree.

# How many leaves on a tree?

- Suppose you have a binary tree of height  $h$ .  
How many leaves in a perfect tree?



- We can prune a perfect tree to make any binary tree of same height. Can # of leaves increase?

# Lower bound on Height

- The decision tree has how many leaves:

$$L = N!$$

- A binary tree with  $L$  leaves has height at least:

$$h \geq \log_2 L$$

- So the decision tree has height:

$$h \geq \log_2(N!)$$

$\log(N!)$

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# $\log(N!)$

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

# $\log(N!)$

$$\begin{aligned}\log(N!) &= \log(N \cdot (N-1) \cdot (N-2) \cdots (2) \cdot (1)) \\ &= \log N + \log(N-1) + \log(N-2) + \cdots + \log 2 + \log 1\end{aligned}$$

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select just the  
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$$\geq \frac{N}{2} \log \frac{N}{2}$$

○

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

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

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and finally output the result.

**Example**  $K=5$ . Input = (5,1,3,4,3,2,1,1,5,4,5)



count array	
1	
2	
3	
4	
5	

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5	1

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1	1
2	1
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5	1

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count array	
1	2
2	1
3	2
4	1
5	1

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count array	
1	3
2	1
3	2
4	1
5	1

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3	2
4	1
5	2

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count array	
1	3
2	1
3	2
4	2
5	2

# RadixSort

- Radix = “The base of a number system”
  - We’ll use 10 for convenience
  - Use a larger number in any implementation
  - ASCII Strings, for example, might use 128
- Idea:
  - BucketSort on one digit at a time
    - Requires stable sort!
  - After sort k, the last k digits are sorted
  - Set number of buckets:  $B = \text{radix}$ .

# Radix Sort Example (1<sup>st</sup> pass)

Bucket sort by 1's digit										
After 1 <sup>st</sup> pass										
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>	
47	53	89	72	38	12	63				

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 (2<sup>nd</sup> pass)

After 1<sup>st</sup> 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
03		721	537			67	478		
09		123	38						

After 2<sup>nd</sup> pass

3

9

721

123

537

38

67

478

# Radix Sort Example (3<sup>rd</sup> pass)

After 2<sup>nd</sup> 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
003	123			478	537		721		
009									
038									
067									

After 3<sup>rd</sup> pass

3  
9  
38  
67  
123  
478  
537  
721

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

# RadixSort

- Input: 126, 328, 636, 341, 416, 131, 328

BucketSort on lsd:

	341					126		328	
	131					636		328	
0	1	2	3	4	5	416			9

BucketSort on next-higher digit:

	416	126	131	341					
		328	636						
	328								
0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9

BucketSort on msd:

	126		328	416		636			
	131		328						
		341							
0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9

Output: 126, 131, 328, 328, 341, 416, 636

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# Radixsort: Complexity

In our examples, we had:

- Input size,  $N$
- Number of buckets,  $B = 10$
- Maximum value,  $M < 10^3$
- Number of passes,  $P = 3$

How much work per pass?

Same as BucketSort!

$O(B + N)$

Total time?

$O(P * (B + N))$

# Choosing the Radix

Run time is roughly proportional to:

$$P(B+N) = \log_B M(B+N)$$

Can show that this is minimized when:

$$B \log_e B \approx N$$

In theory, then, the best base (radix) depends only on  $N$ .

For fast computation, prefer  $B = 2^b$ . Then best  $b$  is:

$$2^b \log_e 2^b \approx N \quad \rightarrow \quad b + \log_2 b \approx \log_2 N$$

Example:

- $N = 1$  million (i.e.,  $\sim 2^{20}$ ) 64 bit numbers,  $M = 2^{64}$
- $\log_2 N \approx 20 \rightarrow b = 16$
- $B = 2^{16} = 65,536$  and  $P = \log_{(2^{16})} 2^{64} = 4$ .

In practice, memory word sizes, space, other architectural considerations, are important in choosing the radix.

# Summary of sorting

$O(N^2)$  average, worst case:

- **Selection Sort, Bubblesort, Insertion Sort**

$O(N \log N)$  worst case:

- **Heapsort**: In-place, not stable.
- **Mergesort**:  $O(N)$  extra space, stable, massive data.
- **Quicksort**:  $O(N \log N)$  average case; claimed fastest in practice, but  $O(N^2)$  worst case. Recursion/stack requirement. Not stable.

$\Omega(N \log N)$  worst and average case:

- **Any comparison-based sorting algorithm**

$O(N)$

- **Radix Sort**: fast and stable. Not comparison based. Not in-place. Poor memory locality can undercut performance. If  $N$  distinct keys, then each has  $O(\log N)$  bits: back to  $O(N \log N)$