

Sorting

CSE 326
Data Structures
Unit 15

Reading:
Sections 7.1-7.3 Bubble and Insert sort,
7.5 Heap sort,
Section 3.2.6 Radix sort,
Section 7.6 Mergesort,
Section 7.7 Quicksort,
Section 7.8 Lower bound

Sorting

- Input
 - › an array A of data records
 - › a key value in each data record
 - › a comparison function which imposes a consistent ordering on the keys (e.g., integers)
- Output
 - › reorganize the elements of A such that
 - For any i and j , if $i < j$ then $A[i] \leq A[j]$

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Consistent Ordering

- The comparison function must provide a consistent *ordering* on the set of possible keys
 - › You can compare any two keys and get back an indication of $a < b$, $a > b$, or $a = b$
 - › The comparison functions must be consistent
 - If $\text{compare}(a, b)$ says $a < b$, then $\text{compare}(b, a)$ must say $b > a$
 - If $\text{compare}(a, b)$ says $a = b$, then $\text{compare}(b, a)$ must say $b = a$

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Why Sort?

- Sorting algorithms are among the most frequently used algorithms in computer science
- Allows binary search of an N -element array in $O(\log N)$ time
- Allows $O(1)$ time access to k th largest element in the array for any k
- Allows easy detection of any duplicates

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Evaluating a Sort Algorithm: Time

- How fast is the algorithm?
 - › The definition of a sorted array A says that for any $i < j$, $A[i] < A[j]$
 - › This means that you need to at least check on each element at the very minimum, i.e., at least $O(N)$
 - › And you could end up checking each element against every other element, which is $O(N^2)$
 - › The big question is: How close to $O(N)$ can you get?

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Space

- How much space does the sorting algorithm require in order to sort the collection of items?
 - › Is copying needed? $O(n)$ additional space
 - › In-place sorting – no copying – $O(1)$ additional space
 - › Somewhere in between for “temporary”, e.g. $O(\log n)$ space
 - › External memory sorting – data so large that does not fit in memory

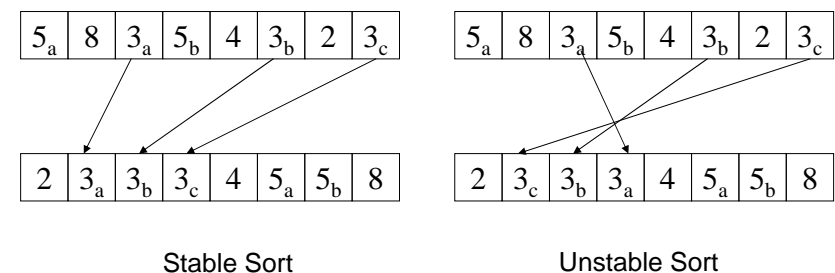
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Stability

- Stability: Does it rearrange the order of input data records which have the same key value (duplicates)?
 - › E.g. Phone book sorted by name. Now sort by county – is the list still sorted by name within each county?
 - › Extremely important property for databases
 - › A stable sorting algorithm is one which does not rearrange the order of duplicate keys

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Example



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Bubble Sort

- “Bubble” elements to their proper place in the array by comparing elements i and $i+1$, and swapping if $A[i] > A[i+1]$
 - › Bubble every element towards its correct position
 - last position has the largest element
 - then bubble every element except the last one towards its correct position
 - then repeat until done or until the end of the quarter, whichever comes first ...

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Bubblesort

```

bubble(A[1..n]: integer array, n : integer): {
  i, j : integer;
  for i = 1 to n-1 do
    for j = 2 to n-i+1 do
      if A[j-1] > A[j] then SWAP(A[j-1],A[j]);
    }
}

```

```

SWAP(a,b) : {
  t :integer;
  t:=a; a:=b; b:=t;
}

```

$i=1$: Largest element is placed at last position

$i=k$: k^{th} Largest element is placed at k^{th} to last position

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Bubblesort (recursive)

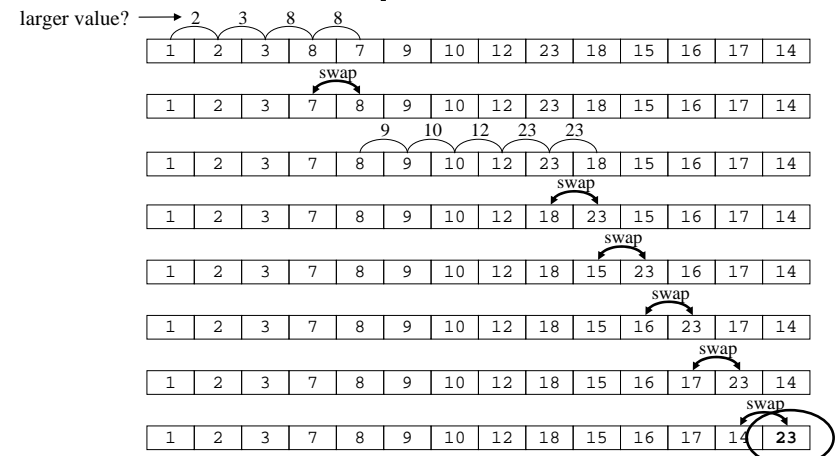
```

bubble(A[1..n]: integer array, n : integer):
{
}

```

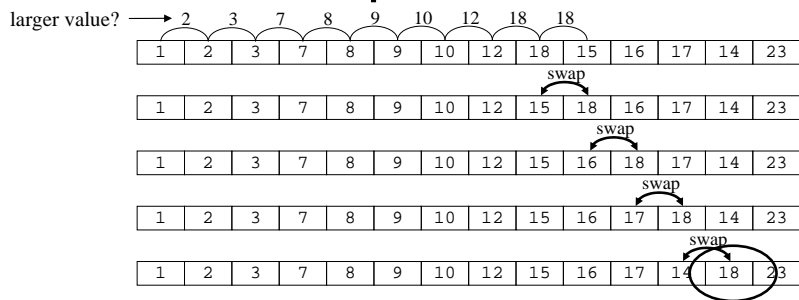
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Put the largest element in its place



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Put 2nd largest element in its place



Two elements done, only $n-2$ more to go ...

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Bubble Sort: **Just Say No**

- “Bubble” elements to their proper place in the array by comparing elements i and $i+1$, and swapping if $A[i] > A[i+1]$
- We bubble for $i=1$ to n (i.e, n times)
- Each bubblization is a loop that makes $n-i$ comparisons
- This is $O(n^2)$

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Insertion Sort

- What if first k elements of array are already sorted?
 - › 4, 7, 12, 5, 19, 16
- We can shift the tail of the sorted elements list down and then *insert* next element into proper position and we get $k+1$ sorted elements
 - › 4, 5, 7, 12, 19, 16

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Insertion Sort

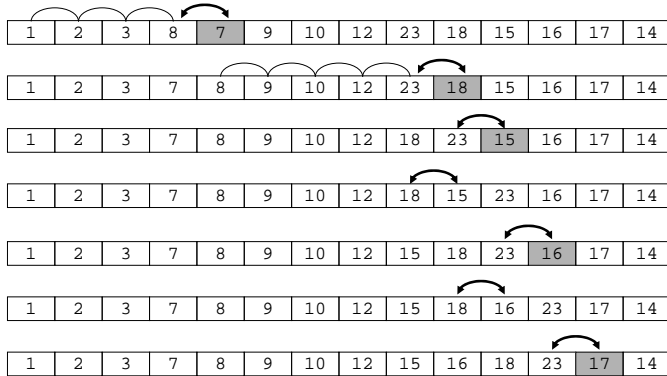
```

InsertionSort(A[1..N]: integer array, N: integer) {
    i, j, temp: integer ;
    for i = 2 to N {
        temp := A[i];
        j := i-1;
        while j > 1 and A[j-1] > temp {
            A[j] := A[j-1]; j := j-1;
            A[j] = temp;
        }
    }
}
    
```

- Is Insertion sort in place? Stable? Running time = ?
- Have we used something similar before?

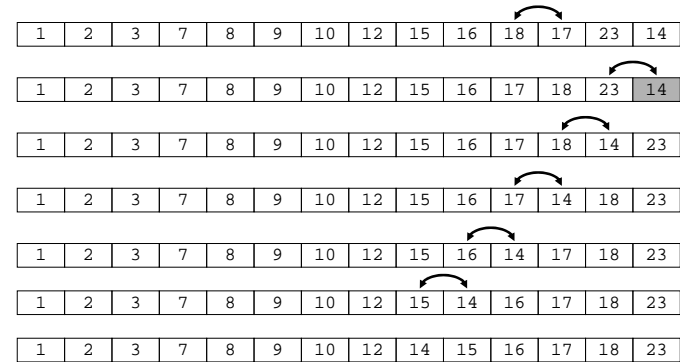
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Example



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Example



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Insertion Sort Characteristics

- In place and Stable
- Running time
 - › Worst case is $O(N^2)$
 - reverse order input
 - must copy every element every time
- Good sorting algorithm for almost sorted data
 - › Each item is close to where it belongs in sorted order.

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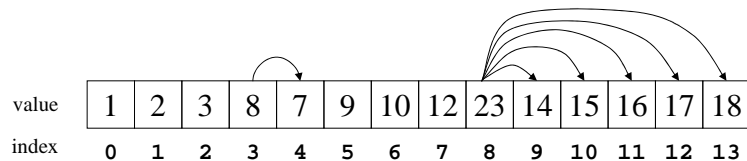
Inversions

- An inversion is a pair of elements in wrong order
 - › $i < j$ but $A[i] > A[j]$
- By definition, a sorted array has no inversions
- So you can think of sorting as the process of removing inversions in the order of the elements

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Inversions

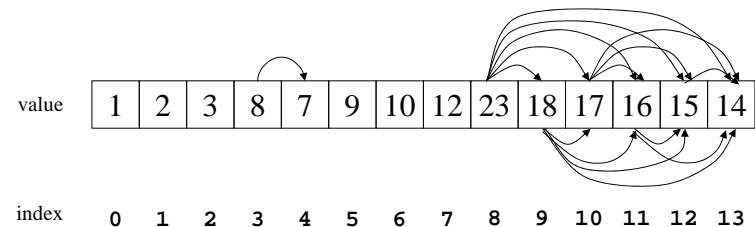
- A single value out of place can cause several inversions



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Reverse order

- All values out of place (reverse order) causes numerous inversions



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Inversions

- Our simple sorting algorithms so far swap adjacent elements and remove just one inversion at a time
 - › Their running time is proportional to number of inversions in array
- Given N distinct keys, the maximum possible number of inversions is

$$(n-1) + (n-2) + \dots + 1 = \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} i = \frac{(n-1)n}{2}$$

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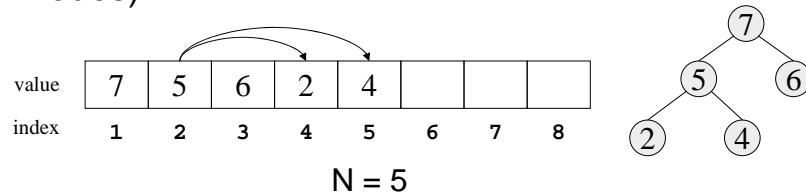
Inversions and Adjacent Swap Sorts

- "Average" list will contain half the max number of inversions = $\frac{(n-1)n}{4}$
 - › So the average running time of Insertion sort is $\Theta(N^2)$
- Any sorting algorithm that only swaps adjacent elements requires $\Omega(N^2)$ time because each swap removes only one inversion (lower bound)

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Heap Sort

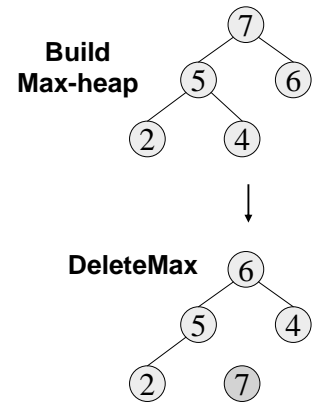
- We use a Max-Heap
- Root node = A[1]
- Children of A[i] = A[2i], A[2i+1]
- Keep track of current size N (number of nodes)



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Using Binary Heaps for Sorting

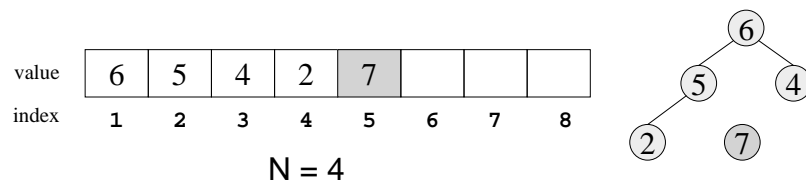
- Build a max-heap
- Do N DeleteMax operations and store each Max element as it comes out of the heap
- Data comes out in largest to smallest order
- Where can we put the elements as they are removed from the heap?



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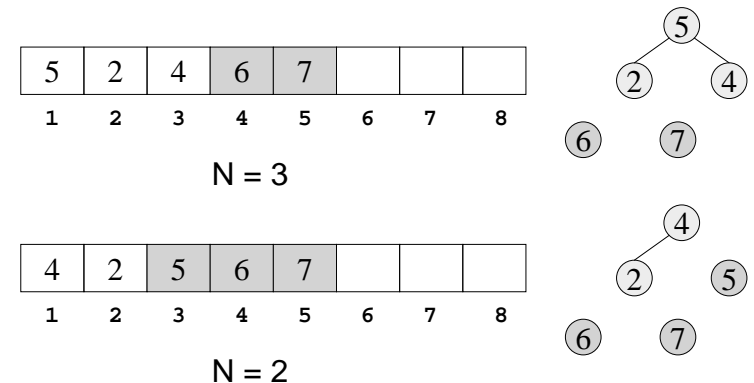
1 Removal = 1 Addition

- Every time we do a DeleteMax, the heap gets smaller by one node, and we have one more node to store
 - › Store the data at the end of the heap array
 - › Not "in the heap" but it is in the heap array



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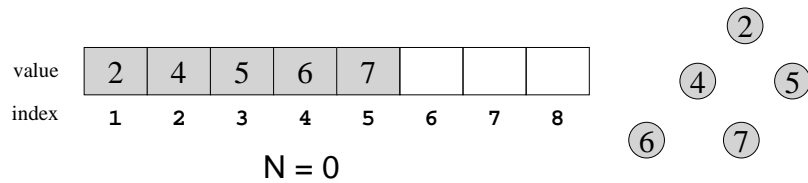
Repeated DeleteMax



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Heap Sort is In-place

- After all the DeleteMaxs, the heap is gone but the array is full and is in sorted order



Heapsort: Analysis

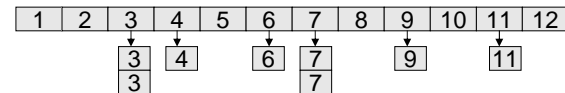
- Running time
 - › time to build max-heap is $O(N)$
 - › time for N DeleteMax operations is $N O(\log N)$
 - › total time is **$O(N \log N)$**
- Can also show that running time is $\Omega(N \log N)$ for some inputs,
 - › so *worst case* is **$\Theta(N \log N)$**
 - › *Average case* running time is also $O(N \log N)$
- Heapsort is in-place but not stable (why?)

Bucket Sort: Sorting Integers

- The goal: sort N numbers, all between 1 to k .
- Example: sort 8 numbers 3,6,7,4,11,3,5,7. All between 1 to 12.
- The method: Use an array of k queues. Queue j (for $1 \leq j \leq k$) keeps the input numbers whose value is j .
- Each queue is denoted 'a bucket'.
- Scan the list and put the elements in the buckets.
- Output the content of the buckets from 1 to k .

Bucket Sort: Sorting Integers

- Example: sort 8 numbers 3,6,7,4,11,3,9,7 all between 1 to 12.
- Step 1: scan the list and put the elements in the queues



- Step 2: concatenate the queues
 $\begin{matrix} 3 & 4 & 6 & 7 & 9 & 11 \\ 3 & & & 7 & & \end{matrix} \rightarrow 3,3,4,6,7,7,9,11$
- Time complexity: $O(n+k)$.

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!

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Radix Sort Example

Input data

Bucket sort
by 1's digit

After 1st pass

478
537
9
721
3
38
123
67

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

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.

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Radix Sort Example

After 1st pass

Bucket sort
by 10's
digit

After 2nd pass

721
3
123
537
67
478
38
9

0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
03		721	537			67	478		
09		123	38						

3
9
721
123
537
38
67
478

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Radix Sort Example

After 2nd pass

Bucket sort
by 100's
digit

After 3rd pass

3
9
721
123
537
38
67
478

0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
003	123			478	537		721		
009									
038									
067									

3
9
38
67
123
478
537
721

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

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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
 - › Time to sort N numbers in the range 0 to B^P-1 is $O(P(B+N))$ (P iterations, B buckets in each)

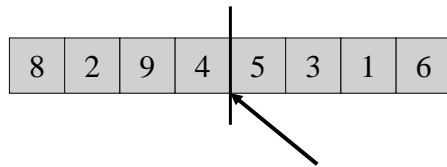
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“Divide and Conquer”

- Very important strategy in computer science:
 - › Divide problem into smaller parts
 - › Independently solve the parts
 - › Combine these solutions to get overall solution
- **Idea 1:** Divide array into two halves, *recursively* sort left and right halves, then *merge* two halves à Mergesort
- **Idea 2 :** Partition array into items that are “small” and items that are “large”, then recursively sort the two sets à Quicksort

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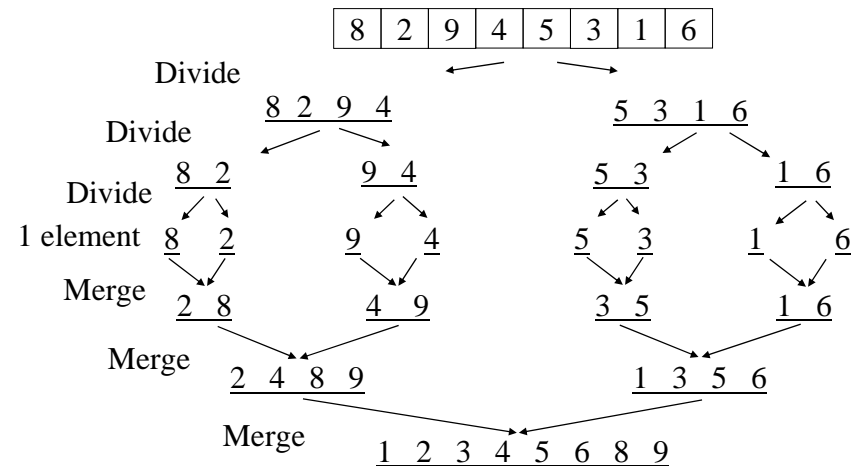
Mergesort



- Divide it in two at the midpoint
- Conquer each side in turn (by recursively sorting)
- Merge two halves together

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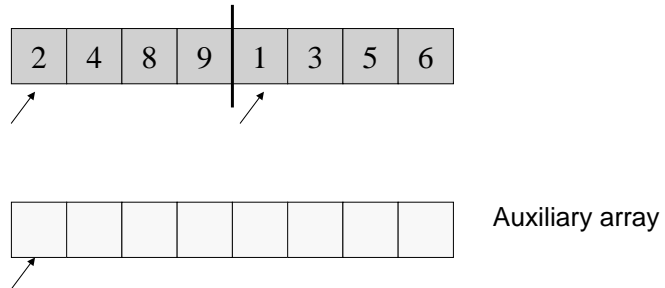
Mergesort Example



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Auxiliary Array

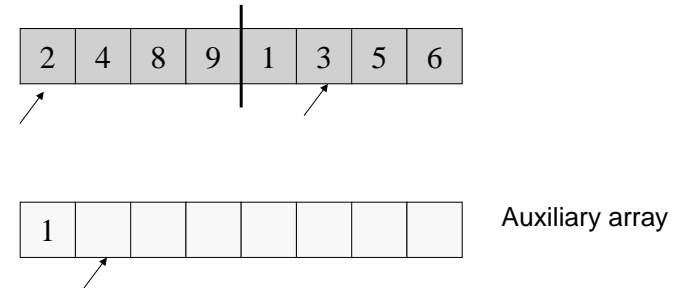
- The merging requires an auxiliary array.



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Auxiliary Array

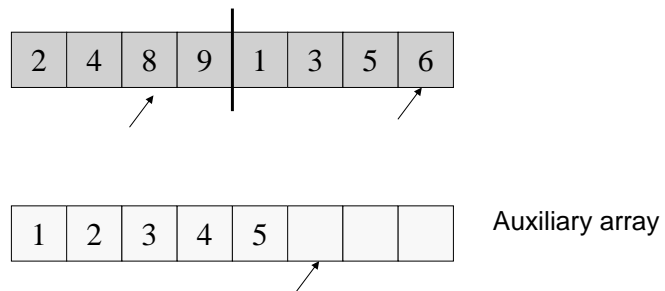
- The merging requires an auxiliary array.



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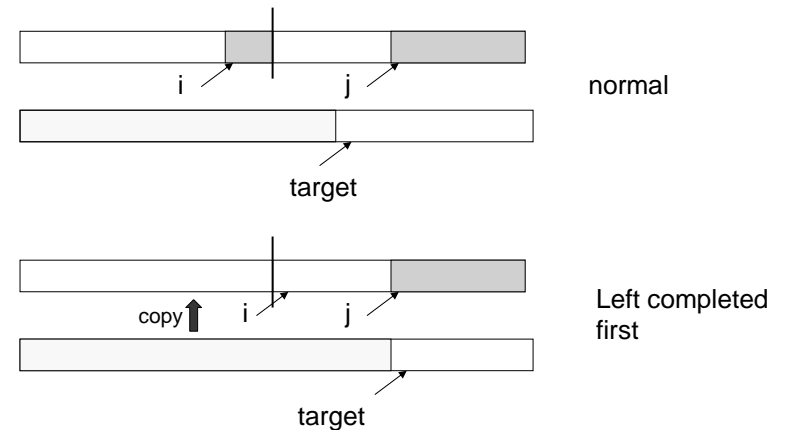
Auxiliary Array

- The merging requires an auxiliary array.



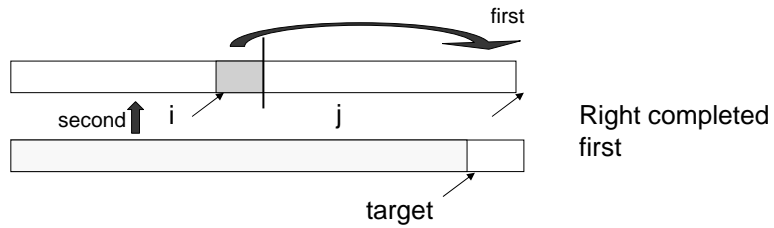
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Merging



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Merging



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Merging

```

Merge(A[], T[] : integer array, left, right : integer) : {
  mid, i, j, k, l, target : integer;
  mid := (right + left)/2;
  i := left; j := mid + 1; target := left;
  while i ≤ mid and j ≤ right do
    if A[i] ≤ A[j] then T[target] := A[i] ; i:= i + 1;
    else T[target] := A[j]; j := j + 1;
    target := target + 1;
  if i > mid then //left completed//
    for k := left to target-1 do A[k] := T[k];
  if j > right then //right completed//
    k := mid; l := right;
    while k ≥ i do A[l] := A[k]; k := k-1; l := l-1;
    for k := left to target-1 do A[k] := T[k];
}
    
```

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Recursive Mergesort

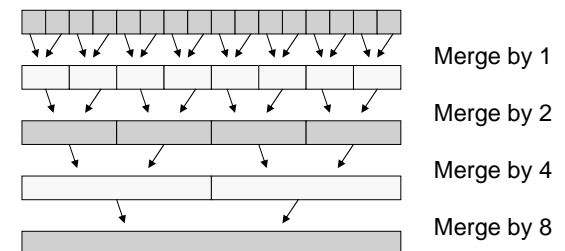
```

Mergesort(A[], T[] : integer array, left, right : integer) : {
  if left < right then
    mid := (left + right)/2;
    Mergesort(A,T,left,mid);
    Mergesort(A,T,mid+1,right);
    Merge(A,T,left,right);
}

MainMergesort(A[1..n]: integer array, n : integer) : {
  T[1..n]: integer array;
  Mergesort[A,T,1,n];
}
    
```

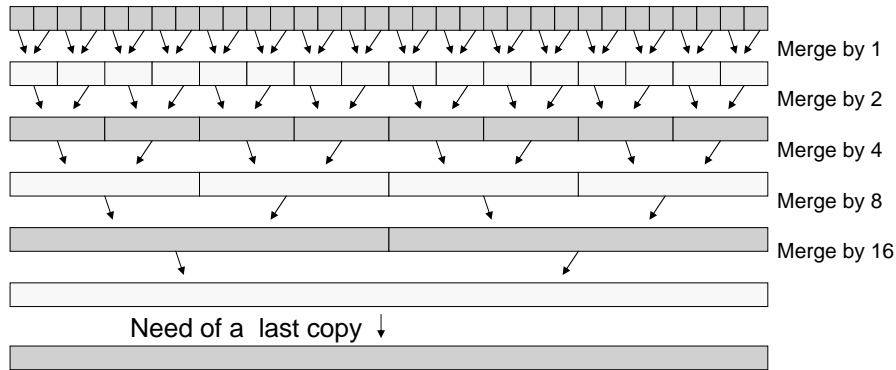
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Iterative Mergesort



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Iterative Mergesort



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Iterative Mergesort

```

IterativeMergesort(A[1..n]: integer array, n : integer) : {
//precondition: n is a power of 2//
i, m, parity : integer;
T[1..n]: integer array;
m := 2; parity := 0;
while m ≤ n do
  for i = 1 to n - m + 1 by m do
    if parity = 0 then Merge(A,T,i,i+m-1);
    else Merge(T,A,i,i+m-1);
    parity := 1 - parity;
  m := 2*m;
if parity = 1 then
  for i = 1 to n do A[i] := T[i];
}
    
```

How do you handle non-powers of 2?
How can the final copy be avoided?

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Mergesort Analysis

- Let $T(N)$ be the running time for an array of N elements
- Mergesort divides array in half and calls itself on the two halves. After returning, it merges both halves using a temporary array
- Each recursive call takes $T(N/2)$ and merging takes $O(N)$

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Mergesort Recurrence Relation

- The recurrence relation for $T(N)$ is:
 - › $T(1) \leq a$
 - base case: 1 element array à constant time
 - › $T(N) \leq 2T(N/2) + dN$
 - Sorting N elements takes
 - the time to sort the left half
 - plus the time to sort the right half
 - plus an $O(N)$ time to merge the two halves
- $T(N) = ?$

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Mergesort Analysis

Upper Bound

$$\begin{aligned}T(n) &\leq 2T(n/2) + dn && \text{Assuming } n \text{ is a power of } 2 \\ &\leq 2(2T(n/4) + dn/2) + dn \\ &= 4T(n/4) + 2dn \\ &\leq 4(2T(n/8) + dn/4) + 2dn \\ &= 8T(n/8) + 3dn \\ &\vdots \\ &\leq 2^k T(n/2^k) + kdn \\ &= nT(1) + kdn && \text{if } n = 2^k \quad n = 2^k, k = \log n \\ &\leq cn + dn \log_2 n \\ &= O(n \log n)\end{aligned}$$

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Properties of Mergesort

- Not in-place
 - › Requires an auxiliary array ($O(n)$ extra space)
- Stable
 - › Make sure that left is sent to target on equal values.
- Iterative Mergesort reduces copying.

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Quicksort

- Quicksort uses a divide and conquer strategy, but does not require the $O(N)$ extra space that MergeSort does
 - › Partition array into left and right sub-arrays
 - Choose an element of the array, called pivot
 - the elements in left sub-array are all less than pivot
 - elements in right sub-array are all greater than pivot
 - › Recursively sort left and right sub-arrays
 - › Concatenate left and right sub-arrays in $O(1)$ time

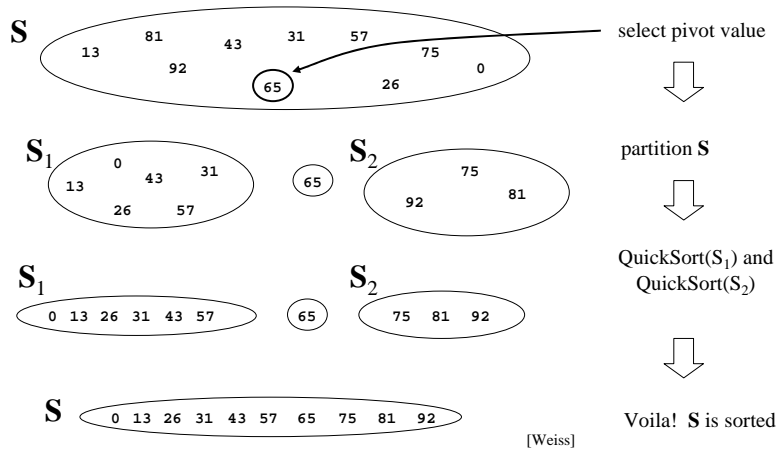
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“Four easy steps”

- To sort an array **S**
 1. If the number of elements in **S** is 0 or 1, then return. The array is sorted.
 2. Pick an element v in **S**. This is the *pivot* value.
 3. Partition **S**- $\{v\}$ into two disjoint subsets, **S**₁ = {all values $x \leq v$ }, and **S**₂ = {all values $x \geq v$ }.
 4. Return QuickSort(**S**₁), v , QuickSort(**S**₂)

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The steps of QuickSort



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Details, details

- Implementing the actual partitioning
- Picking the pivot
 - › want a value that will cause $|S_1|$ and $|S_2|$ to be non-zero, and close to equal in size if possible
- Dealing with cases where an element equals the pivot

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Quicksort Partitioning

- Need to partition the array into left and right sub-arrays
 - › the elements in left sub-array are \leq pivot
 - › elements in right sub-array are \geq pivot
- How do the elements get to the correct partition?
 - › Choose an element from the array as the pivot
 - › Make one pass through the rest of the array and swap as needed to put elements in partitions

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Partitioning: Choosing the pivot

- One implementation (there are others)
 - › median3 finds pivot and sorts left, center, right
 - Median3 takes the median of leftmost, middle, and rightmost elements
 - An alternative is to choose the pivot randomly (need a random number generator; "expensive")
 - Another alternative is to choose the first element (but can be very bad. Why?)
 - › Swap pivot with next to last element

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Partitioning in-place

- › Set pointers i and j to start and end of array
- › Increment i until you hit element $A[i] > \text{pivot}$
- › Decrement j until you hit element $A[j] < \text{pivot}$
- › Swap $A[i]$ and $A[j]$
- › Repeat until i and j cross
- › Swap pivot (at $A[N-2]$) with $A[i]$

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Example

Choose the pivot as the median of three

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

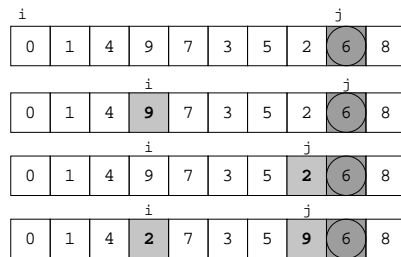
Median of 0, 6, 8 is 6. Pivot is 6

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

i j
 Place the largest at the right
 and the smallest at the left.
 Swap pivot with next to last element.

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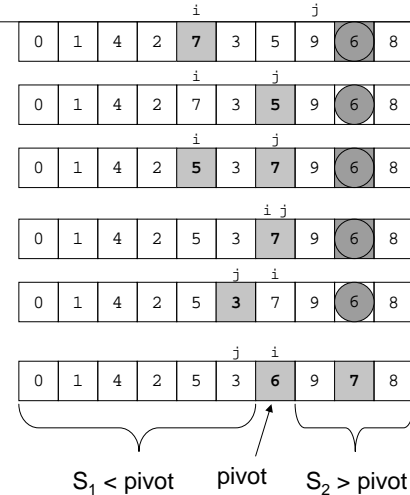
Example



Move i to the right up to $A[i]$ larger than pivot.
 Move j to the left up to $A[j]$ smaller than pivot.
 Swap

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Example



Cross-over $i > j$

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Recursive Quicksort

```
Quicksort(A[]: integer array, left, right : integer): {
  pivotindex : integer;
  if left + CUTOFF ≤ right then
    pivot := median3(A, left, right);
    pivotindex := Partition(A, left, right-1, pivot);
    Quicksort(A, left, pivotindex - 1);
    Quicksort(A, pivotindex + 1, right);
  else
    Insertionsort(A, left, right);
}
```

Don't use quicksort for small arrays.
CUTOFF = 10 is reasonable.

Quicksort Best Case Performance

- Algorithm always chooses best pivot and splits sub-arrays in half at each recursion
 - › $T(0) = T(1) = O(1)$
 - constant time if 0 or 1 element
 - › For $N > 1$, 2 recursive calls plus linear time for partitioning
 - › $T(N) = 2T(N/2) + O(N)$
 - Same recurrence relation as Mergesort
 - › $T(N) = \underline{O(N \log N)}$

Quicksort Worst Case Performance

- Algorithm always chooses the worst pivot – one sub-array is empty at each recursion
 - › $T(N) \leq a$ for $N \leq C$
 - › $T(N) \leq T(N-1) + bN$
 - › $\leq T(N-2) + b(N-1) + bN$
 - › $\leq T(C) + b(C+1) + \dots + bN$
 - › $\leq a + b(C + (C+1) + (C+2) + \dots + N)$
 - › $T(N) = O(N^2)$
- Fortunately, *average case performance* is $O(N \log N)$ (see text for proof)

Properties of Quicksort

- Not stable because of long distance swapping.
- No iterative version (without using a stack).
- Pure quicksort not good for small arrays.
- “In-place”, but uses auxiliary storage because of recursive call ($O(\log n)$ space).
- $O(n \log n)$ average case performance, but $O(n^2)$ worst case performance.

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.
- We saw that radix sort is $O(N)$ but it is only for integers from bounded-range.

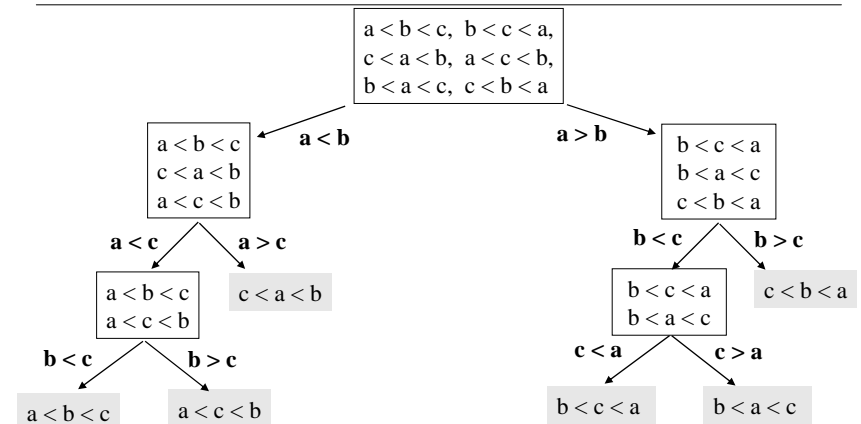
Sorting Model

- 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
 - › $N(N-1)(N-2) \dots (2)(1) = N!$ 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

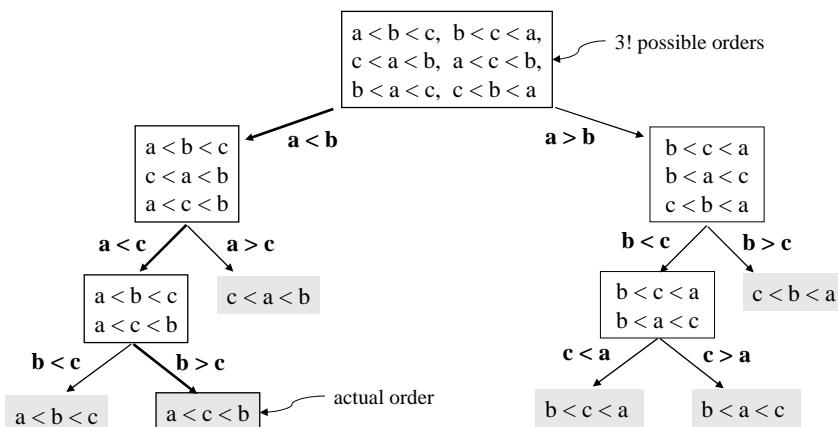
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Decision Trees and Sorting

- 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

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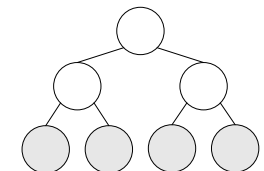
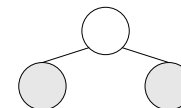
Decision Tree Example



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How many leaves on a tree?

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



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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 $d \geq \log_2(N!)$

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

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

select just the first $N/2$ terms

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

$n! \approx \sqrt{2\pi n} (n/e)^n$
 Sterling's formula

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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.
 - › Run time of any comparison-based sorting algorithm is $\Omega(N \log N)$
 - › $O(N)$ – Radix Sort: fast and stable. Not comparison based. Not in-place.

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