

Heap Sort



“How Fast Can We Sort ?”



□ HOW FAST CAN WE SORT?

- *"What is the best computing time for sorting that we can hope for?"*
- We assume that the only operations permitted are **comparison** and **interchange**.
- The conclusion is: $\Omega(n \log n)$.



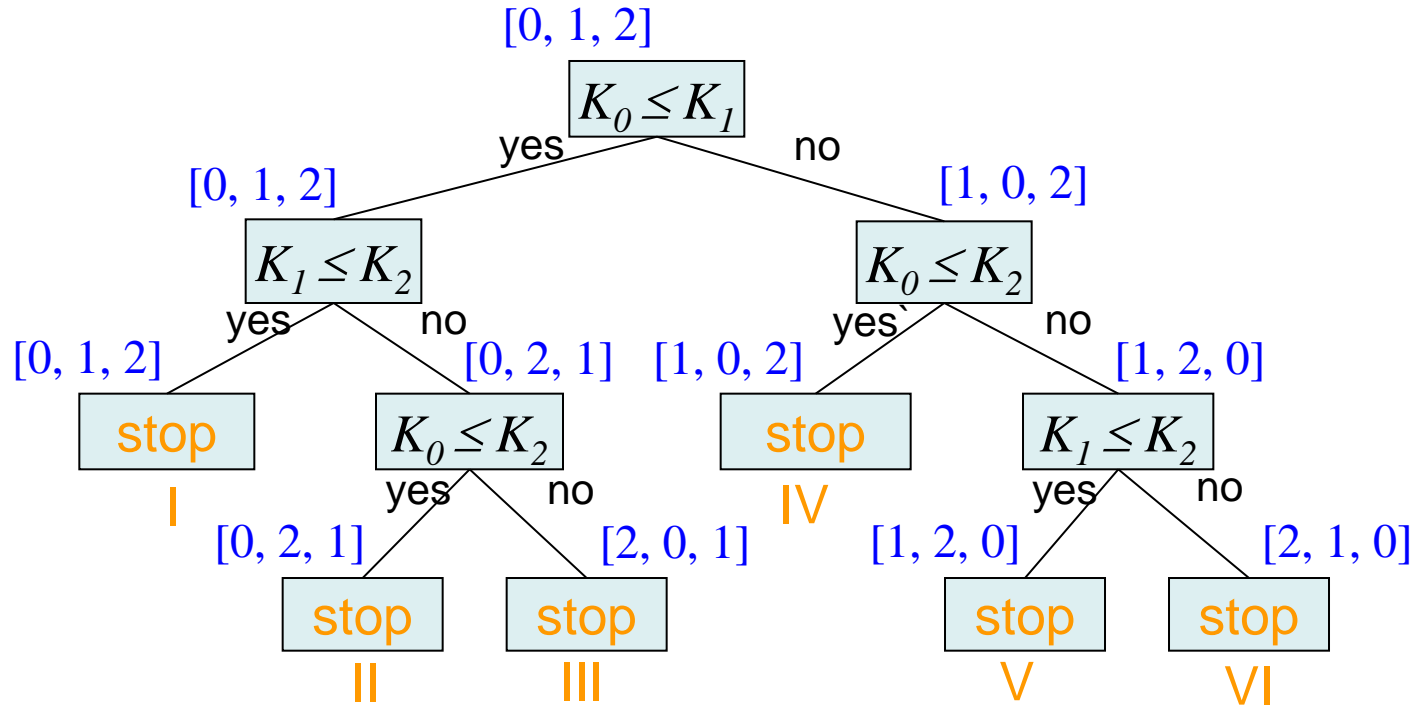
Decision Tree

Vertex and Branch

- Vertex : key comparison
- Branch : the result of Key comparison

- Each path in the tree represents a possible sequence of computations that an algorithm could produce.

■ Decision Tree for Insertion Sort with (R_0, R_1, R_2) .



■ Example: all the permutations of 7, 9, 10.

Leaf	Permutations	Sample key values that give the permutation.
I	0 1 2	(7, 9, 10)
II	0 2 1	(7, 10, 9)
III	2 0 1	(10, 7, 9)
IV	1 0 2	(9, 7, 10)
V	1 2 0	(9, 10, 7)
VI	2 1 0	(10, 9, 7)

■ Theorem 7.1

Any decision tree that sorts n distinct elements has a height of at least

$$\log(n!) + 1$$

(Proof)

There are $n!$ leaves in the decision tree.

The decision tree is a binary tree.

A binary tree can have at most 2^{k-1} leaves.

Height $k \Rightarrow$ at most 2^{k-1} leaves.

2^{k-1} leaves \Rightarrow height of at least k .

$n!$ leaves \Rightarrow height of at least $\log_2(n!) + 1$.

Therefore, the height of the decision tree is at least $\log(n!) + 1$.

■ Corollary

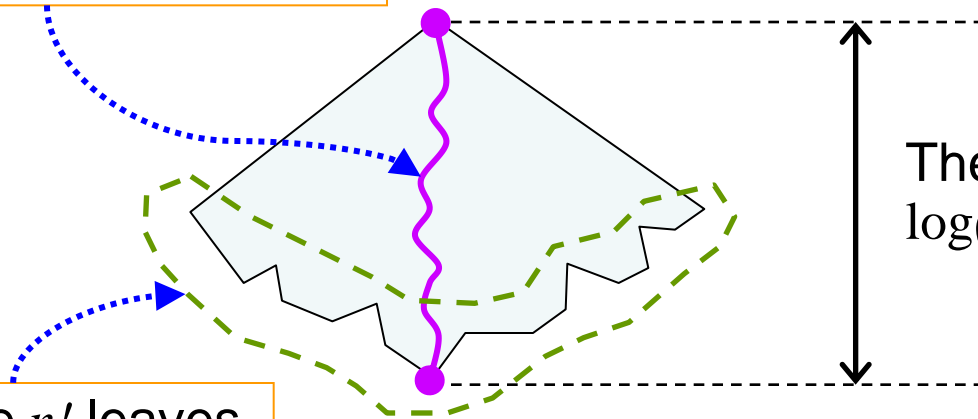
Any algorithm which sorts by comparisons only must have a worst case computing time of $\Omega(n \log_2 n)$.

(Proof)

$$n! = n(n-1)(n-2) \cdots 3 \cdot 2 \cdot 1 \geq (n/2)^{n/2}$$

$$\text{So, } \log_2(n!) \geq (n/2)\log_2(n/2) = \Omega(n \log_2 n).$$

The worst case path is the longest one from the root.



The height is at least $\log(n!)+1 \geq \Omega(n \log_2 n)$.

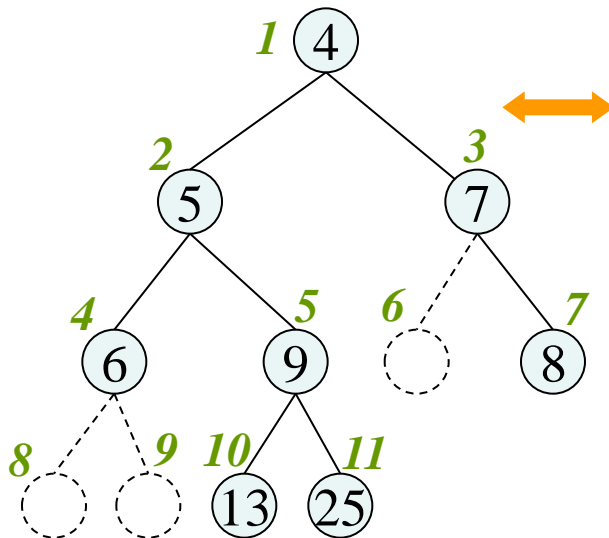
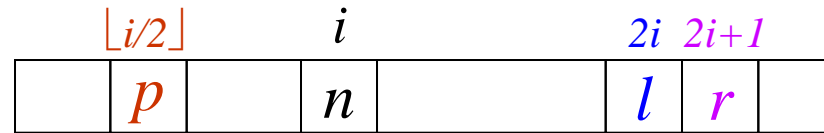
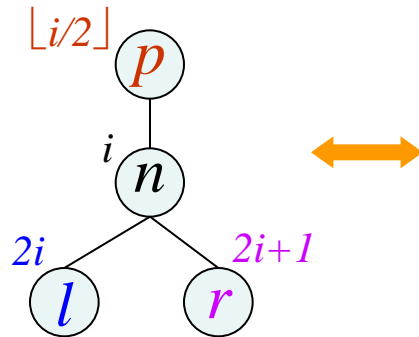
There are $n!$ leaves in the decision tree.

Heap Sort



□ Heap Sort

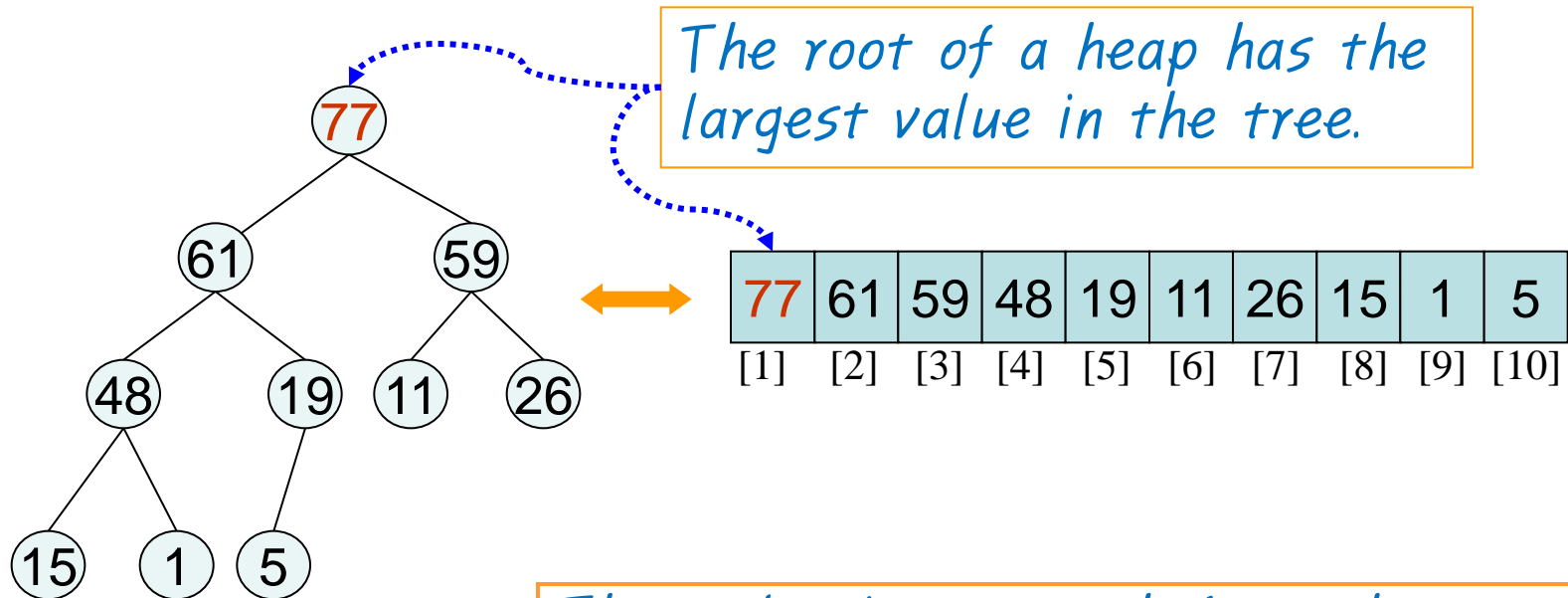
- Sequential Representation of Binary trees.
 - Especially, suitable for complete binary trees.



[0]	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]	[6]	[7]	[8]	[9]	[10]	[11]
-	4	5	7	6	9	-	8	-	-	13	25

Current Node: $i = 5$ $[i] = 9$
 Left child : $2i = 10$ $[2i] = 13$
 Right child: $(2i+1) = 11$ $[2i+1] = 25$
 Parent: $\lfloor i/2 \rfloor = 2$ $[\lfloor i/2 \rfloor] = 5$

- **Heap**: A complete binary tree such that the value of each node is at least as large as the value of its children nodes.



The nodes in any path from the root to a leaf are in non-increasing order.

- $77 \rightarrow 61 \rightarrow 48 \rightarrow 15$
- $77 \rightarrow 61 \rightarrow 48 \rightarrow 1$
- $77 \rightarrow 61 \rightarrow 19 \rightarrow 5$
- $77 \rightarrow 59 \rightarrow 11$
- $77 \rightarrow 59 \rightarrow 26$

□ Basic idea of Heap Sort

1. Make a heap from input.
2. Repeat the next step until the heap becomes empty.
 - Output and delete the root , and adjust the heap.

How to make a HEAP

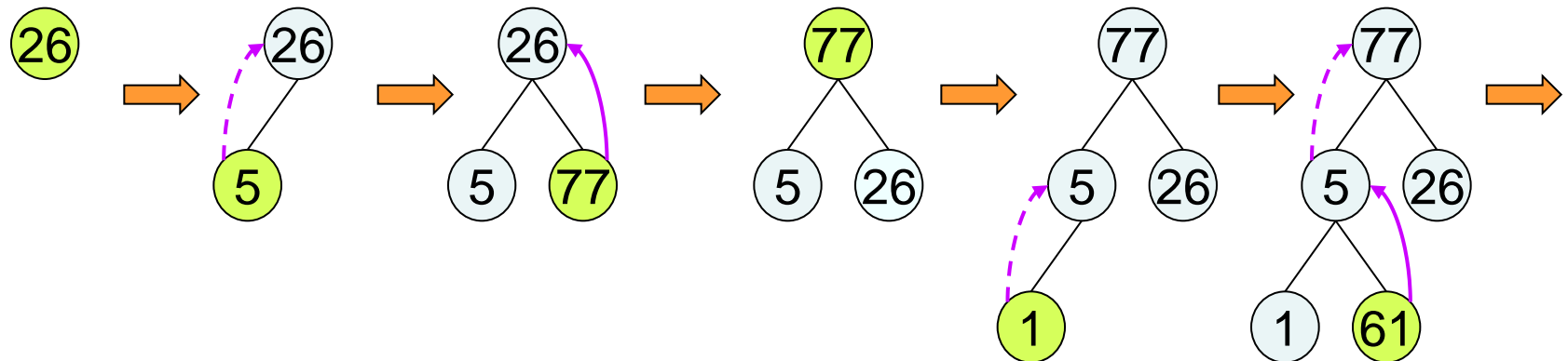
- By "INSERT"
- By "ADJUST"

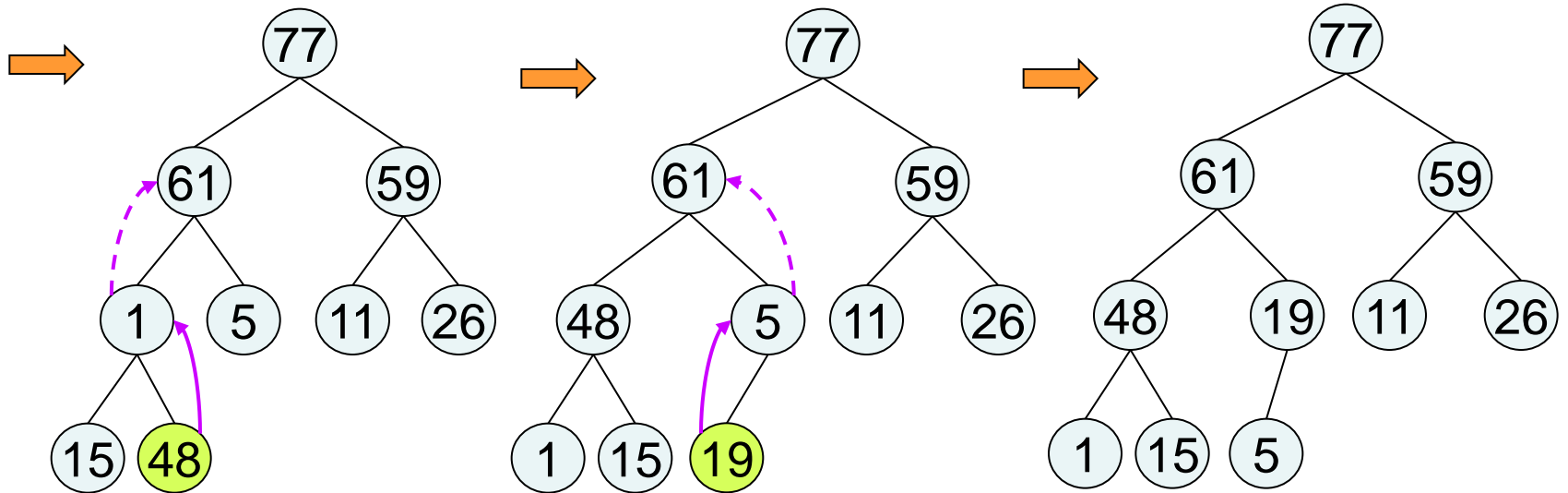
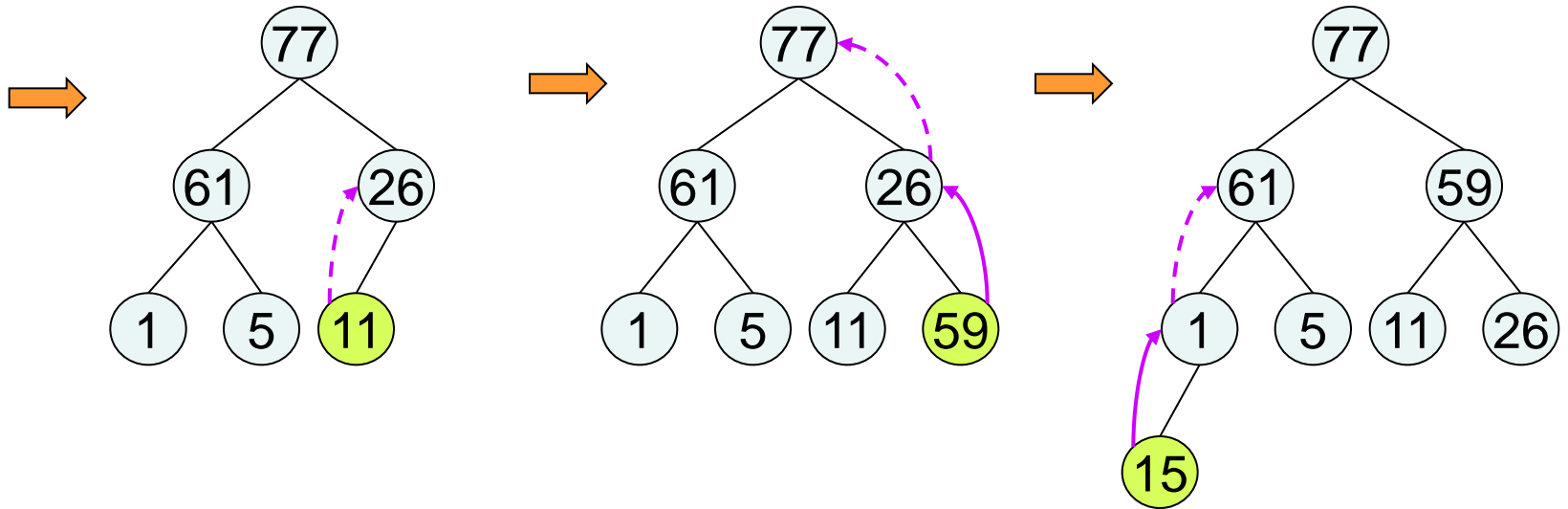


□ Making Initial Heaps by “INSERT”

■ Example

(26, 5, 77, 1, 61, 11, 59, 15, 48, 19)

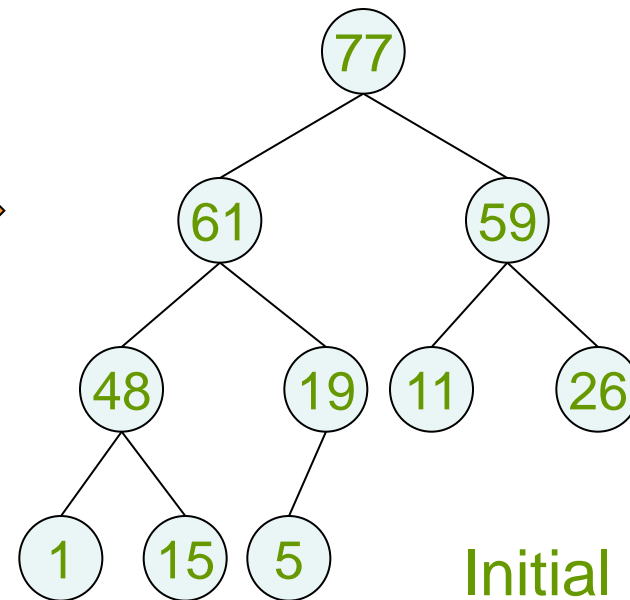
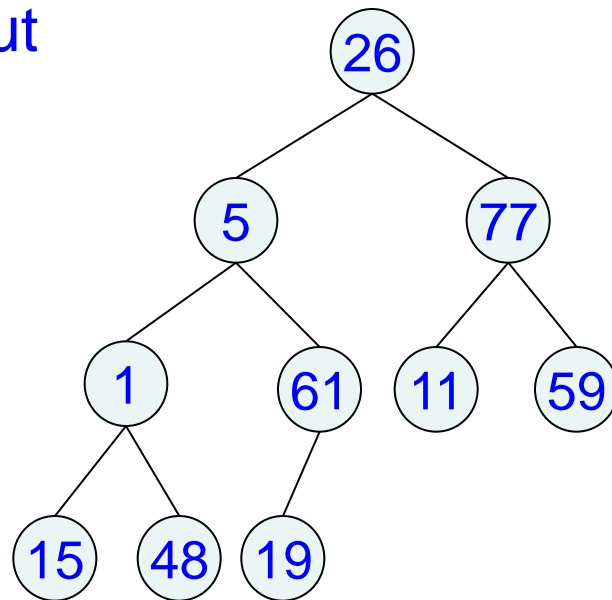




Representation of input and Initial Heap

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
26	5	77	1	61	11	59	15	48	19

Input



Initial Heap

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
77	61	59	48	19	11	26	1	15	5

■ Worst Case Analysis of INSERT

- It is when the elements are inserted in ascending order.
- Each new element will rise to become the new root.
- Complexity: $O(n \log n)$

■ Average case of INSERT: $O(n)$



■ Proof of Worst Case Complexity of INSERT

- The level i in a complete binary tree has at most 2^{i-1} nodes.
- A complete binary tree with n nodes has maximum level $\log_2(n+1)$.

$$\begin{aligned}
 & \sum_{i=2}^{\lceil \log_2(n+1) \rceil} (i-1) 2^{i-1}, \text{ (Let } k = \lceil \log_2(n+1) \rceil \text{)}. \\
 &= \sum_{i=2}^k (i-1) 2^{i-1} = \sum_{i=1}^{k-1} i \cdot 2^i \\
 &= (k-1)2^{k+1} - k2^k + 2 \\
 &= 2k \cdot 2^k - 2 \cdot 2^k - k \cdot 2^k + 2 \\
 &= k \cdot 2^k - 2(2^k - 1) \leq k \cdot 2^k \\
 &= \lceil \log_2(n+1) \rceil 2^{\lceil \log_2(n+1) \rceil} = O(n \log n)
 \end{aligned}$$

Lemma : $\sum_{i=1}^k i \cdot x^i = \frac{k \cdot x^{k+2} - (k+1)x^{k+1} + x}{(x-1)^2}, x \neq 1$

(Proof)

Let $S = \sum_{i=1}^k i \cdot x^i$

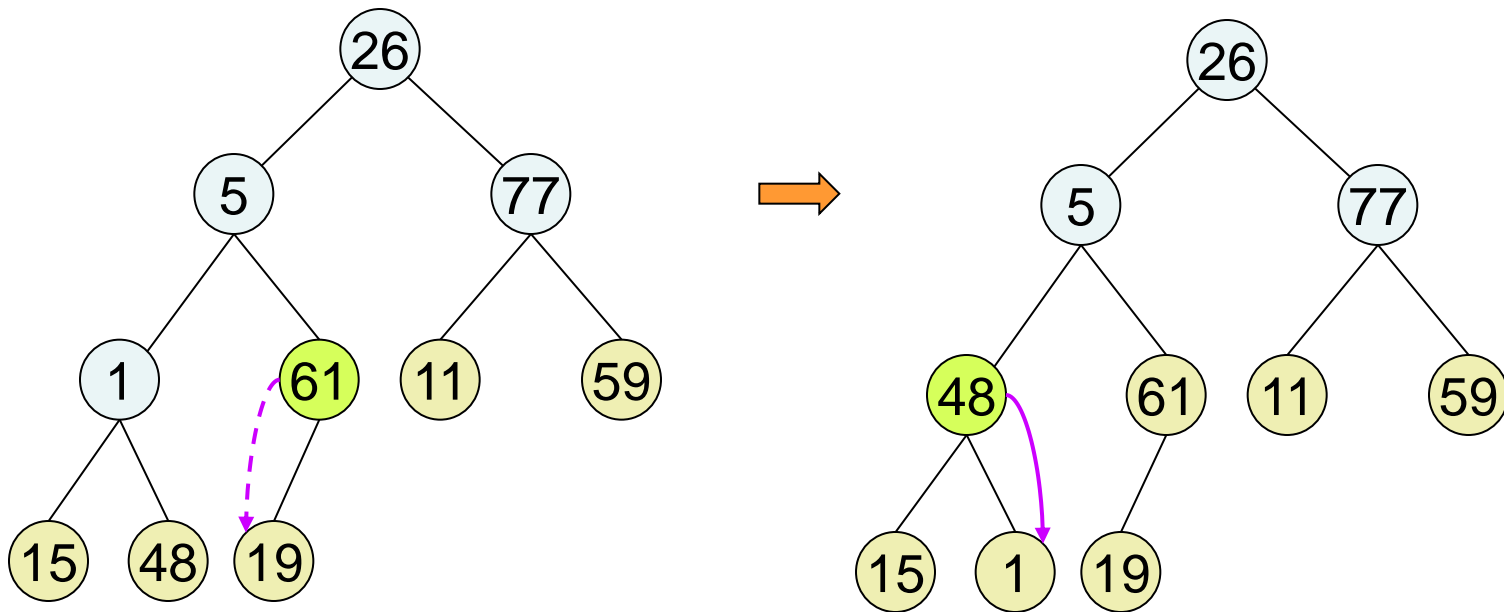
Then, $S - x \cdot S = \sum_{i=1}^k i \cdot x^i - x \sum_{i=1}^k i \cdot x^i$

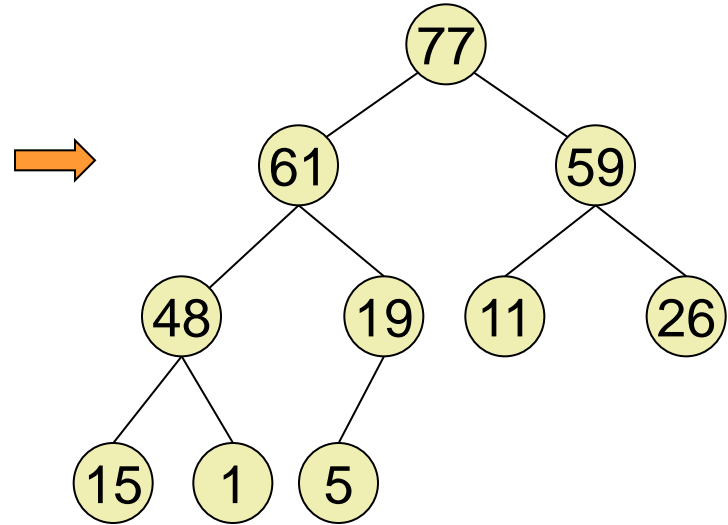
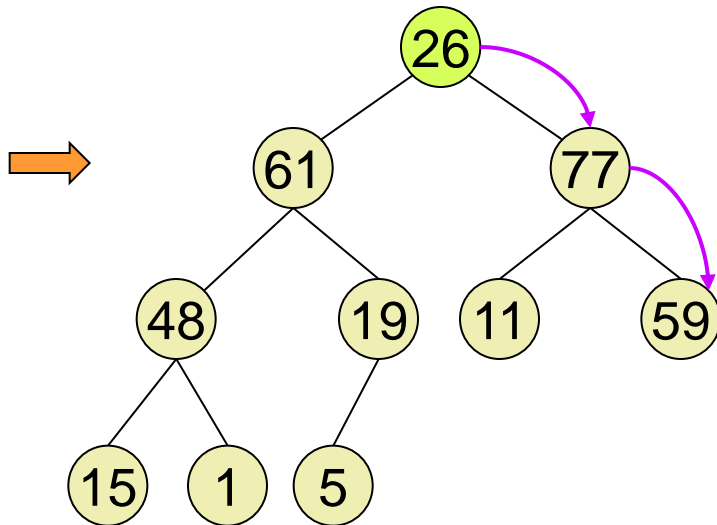
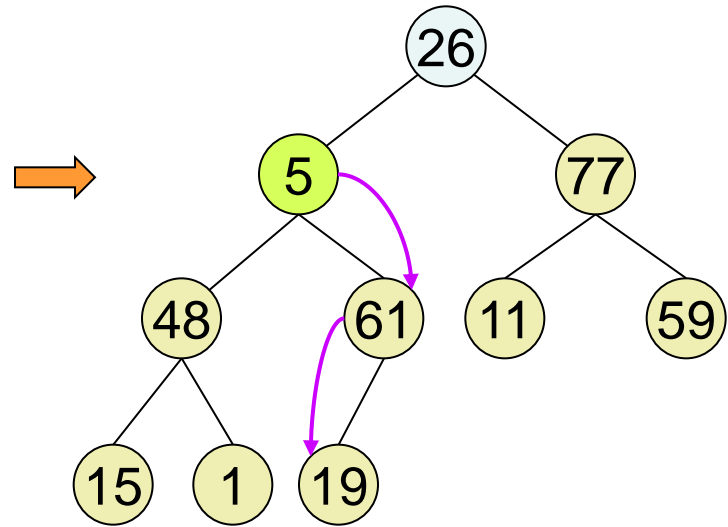
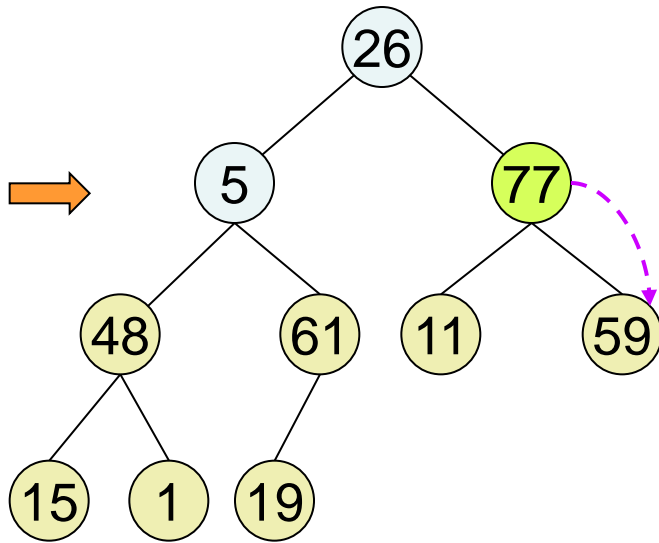
$$\begin{aligned}
 (1-x)S &= \sum_{i=1}^k i \cdot x^i - \sum_{i=1}^k i \cdot x^{i+1} \\
 &= \sum_{i=1}^k i \cdot x^i - \sum_{i=1}^k (i+1-1) \cdot x^{i+1} \\
 &= \sum_{i=1}^k i \cdot x^i - \left(\sum_{i=1}^k (i+1) \cdot x^{i+1} - \sum_{i=1}^k x^{i+1} \right) \\
 &= \left(\sum_{i=1}^k i \cdot x^i - \sum_{i=2}^{k+1} i \cdot x^i \right) + \sum_{i=1}^k x^{i+1} \\
 &= (x - (k+1)x^{k+1}) + \frac{x^2(1-x^k)}{(1-x)} \\
 &= \frac{x(1-x) - (k+1)x^{k+1}(1-x) + x^2(1-x^k)}{(1-x)} \\
 &= \frac{x - x^2 - (k+1)x^{k+1} + (k+1)x^{k+2} + x^2 - x^{k+2}}{(1-x)} \\
 &= \frac{kx^{k+2} - (k+1)x^{k+1} + x}{(1-x)}
 \end{aligned}$$

$$\therefore S = \sum_{i=1}^k i \cdot x^i = \frac{kx^{k+2} - (k+1)x^{k+1} + x}{(x-1)^2}$$

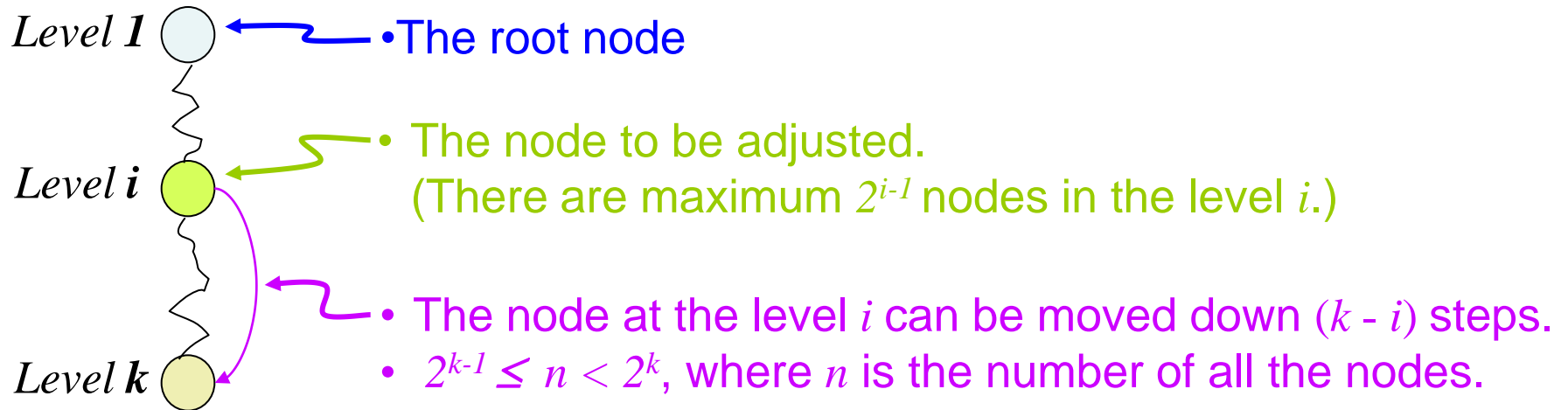
□ Making Initial Heaps by “ADJUST”

- Initially, each leaf is a heap.





Worst Case Analysis of ADJUST



$$\sum_{i=1}^k (k-i)2^{i-1} = \sum_{j=0}^{k-1} j \cdot 2^{k-j-1} = 2^{k-1} \sum_{j=1}^{k-1} j(1/2)^j$$

$$(1) \quad 2^{k-1} \leq n$$

$$(2) \quad \sum_{j=1}^{k-1} j(1/2)^j = \frac{(k-1)(1/2)^{k+1} - k(1/2)^k + 1/2}{(1/2)^2}$$

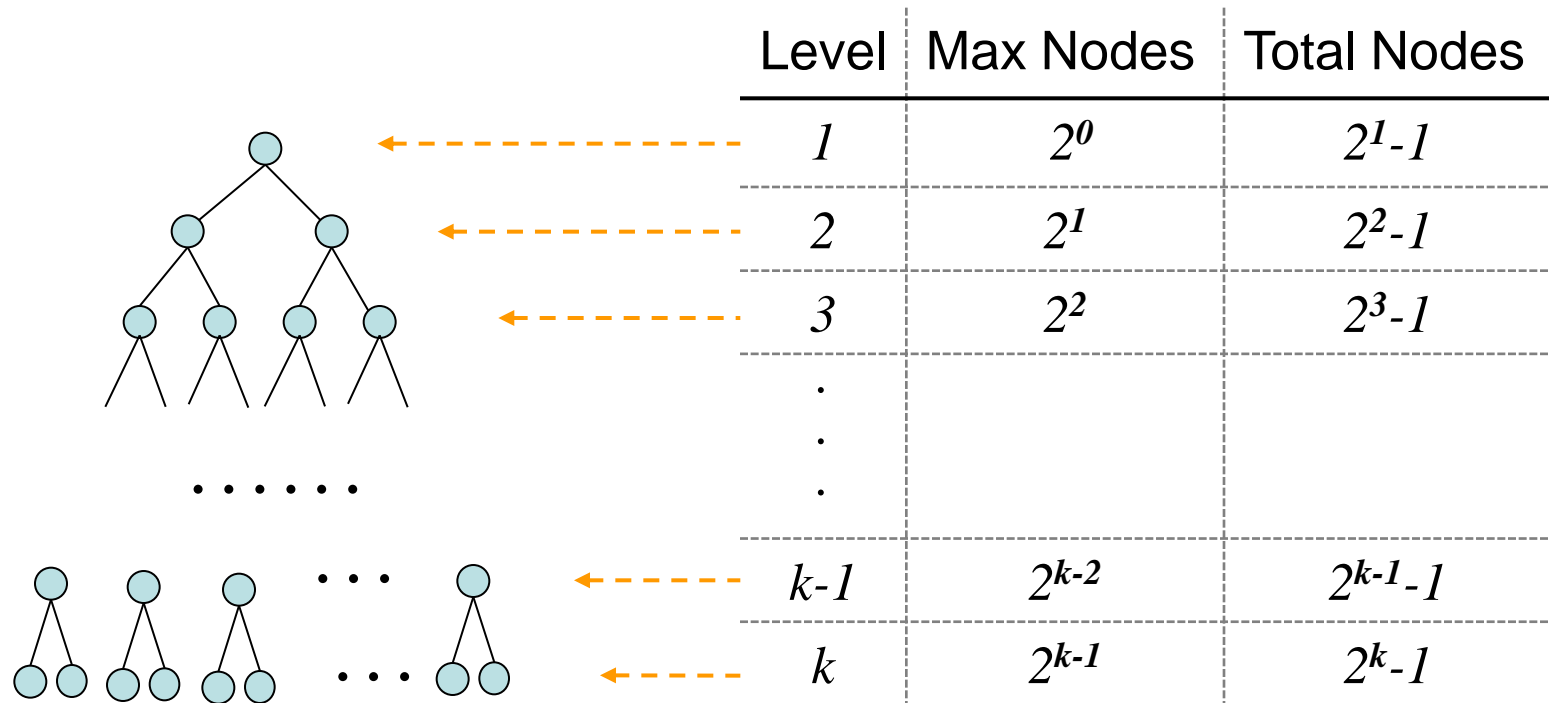
$$= (k-1)(1/2)^{k-1} - k(1/2)^{k-2} + 2$$

$$= 2 - (k+1)(1/2)^{k-1} \leq 2$$

$$\therefore \sum_{i=1}^k (k-i)2^{i-1} \leq n \cdot 2 = O(n)$$

■ Relationship between the depth and the number of nodes in the complete binary trees.

- Let n be the number of nodes in a complete binary tree.
- Let k be the depth of it (i.e., the maximum level).



■ Relationship between the depth and the number of nodes in the complete binary trees. (Cont'd)

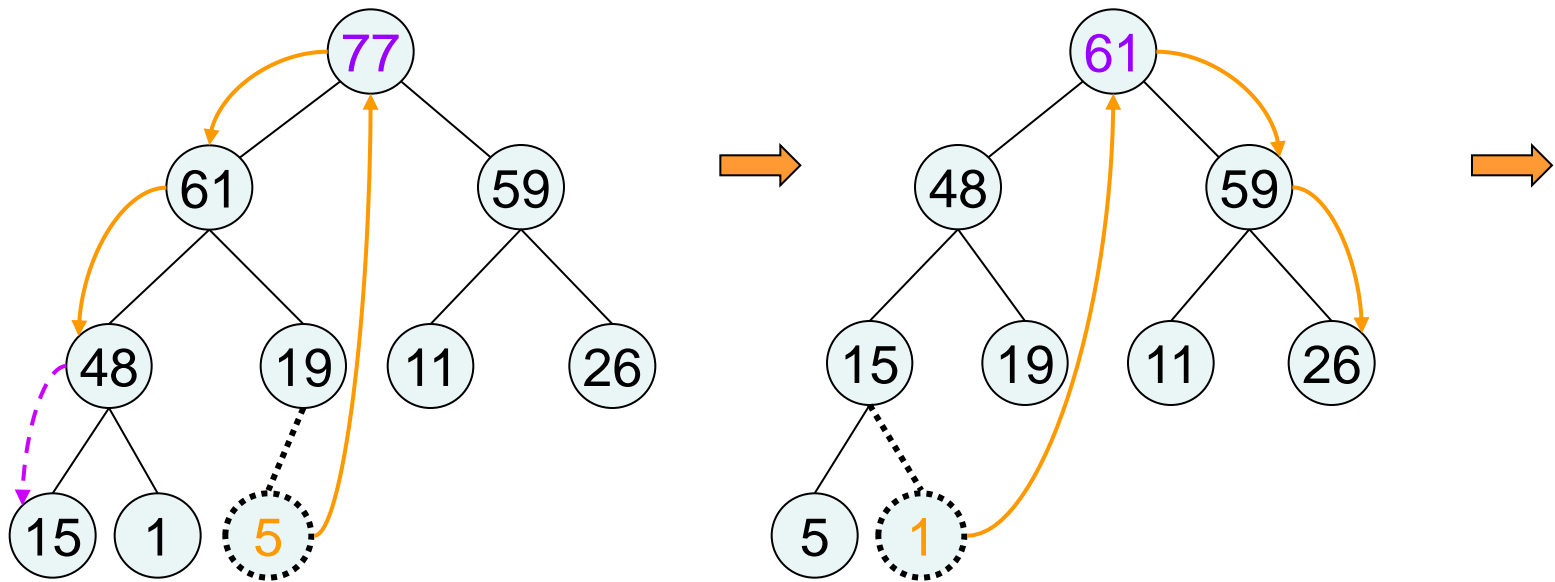
- From the complete binary tree,
 - ◆ $2^{k-1} \leq n < 2^k$
 - ◆ $2^{k-1} \leq n \leq 2^k - 1$
- By taking \log_2 at each side, we get:
 - ◆ $k - 1 \leq \log_2 n$, i.e. $k \leq \log_2 n + 1$
 - ◆ $n + 1 \leq 2^k$, i.e. $\log_2(n + 1) \leq k$
- By combining the two inequalities,
 - ◆ $\log_2(n + 1) \leq k \leq \log_2 n + 1 < \log_2(n + 1) + 1$,
i.e., $\log_2(n + 1) \leq k < \log_2(n + 1) + 1$
- Therefore, we finally get the equation:
 - ◆ $k = \lceil \log_2(n + 1) \rceil$

Heap sort after making an initial heap



■ Heap sort after making an initial heap [1]

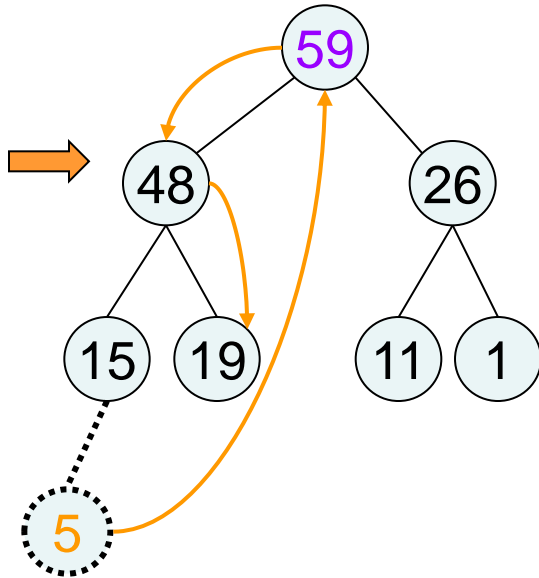
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
77	71	59	48	19	11	26	15	1	5



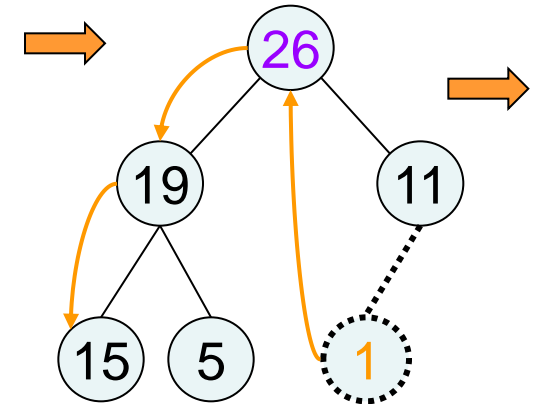
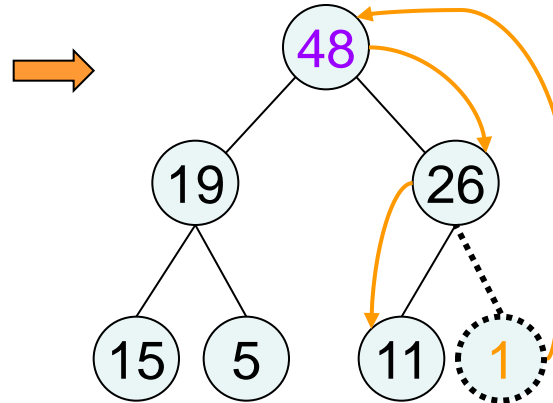
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
61	48	59	15	19	11	26	5	1	77

■ Heap sort after making an initial heap [2]

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
59	48	26	5	19	11	15	5	61	77



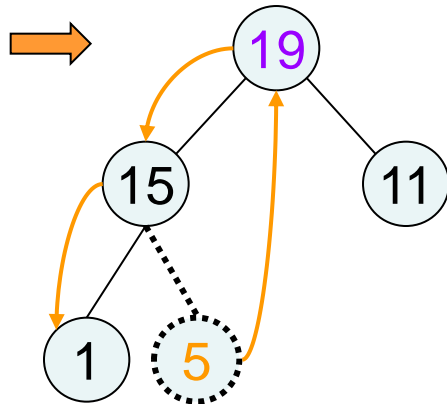
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
48	19	26	15	5	11	1	59	61	77



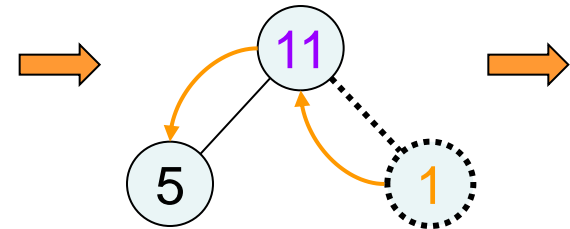
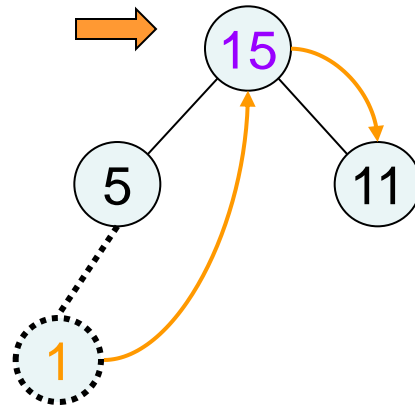
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
26	19	11	15	5	1	48	59	61	77

■ Heap sort after making an initial heap [3]

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
19	15	11	1	5	26	48	59	61	77



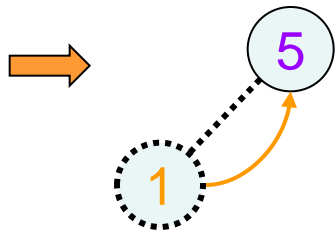
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
15	5	11	1	19	26	48	59	61	77



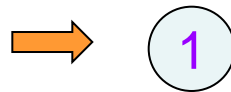
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
11	5	1	15	19	26	48	59	61	77

■ Heap sort after making an initial heap [4]

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
5	1	11	15	19	26	48	59	61	77



1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1	5	11	15	19	26	48	59	61	77



At this time, the tree has only one node. So, we stop the sorting. And the array has now been sorted.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1	5	11	15	19	26	48	59	61	77

■ Complexity of Heap Sort

- Overall Sorting time:
 - ◆ Total ADJUST time + Making an initial heap
- Total ADJUST time: $O(n \log n)$
 - ◆ Each ADJUST with n nodes. : $O(\log n)$
 - ◆ We need n times of ADJUST after deleting each root.
- Making an initial heap
 - ◆ $O(n \log n)$ by INSERT
 - ◆ $O(n)$ by ADJUST
- Therefore, totally $O(n \log n)$.

■ INSERT vs ADJUST

- ADJUST : $O(n)$

- ◆ But it requires that all the elements should be available before the heap creation begins.

- INSERT : $O(n \log n)$

- ◆ We can add a new element into the heap at any time.

■ Partial Sorting using Heap Sort

- We need only first k records in the sorted nodes from n records, especially when $k \ll n$.

$$\Rightarrow O(k \log n)$$

Radix Sort

Bin Sort



❑ RADIX SORT

■ There are **several keys**.

● Example: sorting a deck of cards.

◆ [suit] ♣ < ♦ < ♥ < ♠

◆ [Face Value] 2 < 3 < ... < 9 < 10 < J < Q < K < A

◆ Two possible Sorted Decks:

■ 2♣ < 3♣ < ... < A♣ < < 2♠ < 3♠ ... < A♠

■ 2♣ < 2♦ < 2♥ < 2♠ < 3♣ < 3♦ < ... < A♣ < A♦ < A♥ < A♠

● Basic idea:

◆ Sort by each key separately.

■ Notation:

- Each Record has the keys K^0, \dots, K^{r-1}
- So, the record R_i has the keys K_i^0, \dots, K_i^{r-1}

■ Comparison of multiple keys:

- $(x_0, x_1, \dots, x_{r-1}) \leq (y_0, y_1, \dots, y_{r-1})$
 iff either $x_i = y_i, 0 \leq i < j$ and $x_{j+1} < y_{j+1}$ for some $j < r - 1$
 or $x_i = y_i, 0 \leq i < r$.

■ Definition of Sorted Order with several keys:

- A list of records, R_0, \dots, R_{n-1} , is lexically sorted with respect to the keys K^0, K^1, \dots, K^{r-1}
 iff $(K_i^0, K_i^1, \dots, K_i^{r-1}) \leq (K_{i+1}^0, K_{i+1}^1, \dots, K_{i+1}^{r-1}), 0 \leq i < n-1$

■ Two approaches for Radix Sort

● MSD (Most Significant Digit) Sort

- ◆ K^0 first
- ◆ Example for sorting a card deck: K^0 [suit] and K^1 [face value]
 1. Sort on suit, and have 4 piles of cards.
 2. Sort each suit file on face value separately.
 3. Stack the 4 files so that the space(♠) file is on the bottom and the club(♣) file is on the top.

● LSD (Least Significant Digit) Sort

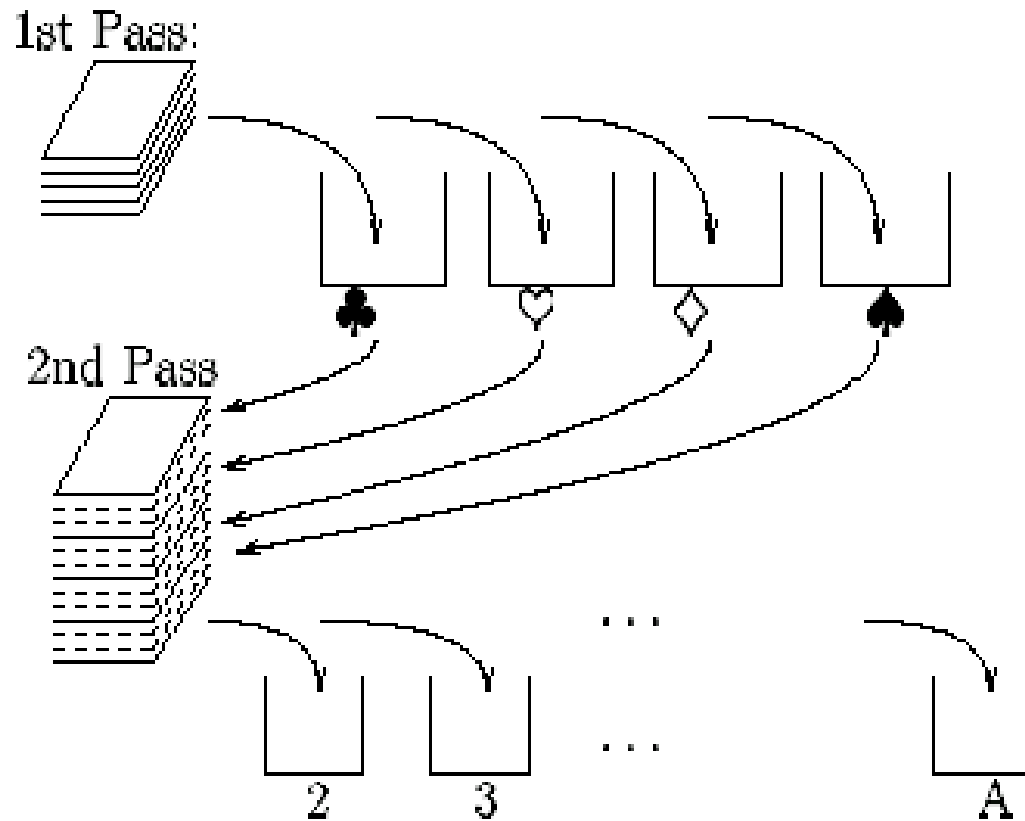
- ◆ K^{r-1} first
- ◆ Example for sorting a card deck: K^0 [suit] and K^1 [face value]
 1. Sort on face value, and have 13 piles of cards.
 2. Stack the piles to obtain a single pile.
 3. Sort on suit, and have 4 piles.
 4. Stack the piles to obtain a sorted deck.
- ◆ The sorting method in the second and the later passes must be stable.

- The LSD approach is simpler than the MSD approach.
 - ◆ In LSD approach, we do not have to sort subpiles independently.
- The term LSD or MSD indicates only the order in which the keys are sorted
 - ◆ They do not specify how each key is to be sorted.
 - ◆ We usually create bins.



Bin Sort

- It is an MSD sort.
- Time Complexity: $O(rn)=O(n)$



□ Applying Radix Sort to sorting with only one logical key

- We interpret the key as a composite of several keys
 - $K = (K^0, K^1, \dots, K^{r-1})$
 - Example: $0 \leq K \leq 999$
 - ◆ Let each K^i be as follows:
 - K^0 is the digit in the 100s place
 - K^1 is the digit in the 10s place
 - K^2 is the digit in the units place
 - ◆ Then, each K^i is $0 \leq K^i \leq 999$.
 - ◆ The Sort for each key requires only 10 bins.
 - We decompose the sort key into digits using a radix r .
 - ◆ When $r=10$, we get the decimal decomposition.
 - ◆ When $r=2$, we get the binary decomposition.
 - With a radix of r , r bins are needed to sort each digit.
- LSD radix r Sort
 - Assume that the records, R_0, \dots, R_{n-1} , have the keys that are d -tuples $(x_0, x_1, \dots, x_{d-1})$, and $0 \leq x_i < r$.
 - Implementation using linked lists for bins: See Program 7.15
 - Analysis: $O(d(r+n))$

Summary



Practical Considerations

Sorting method vs the data size

- $n \leq 20 \sim 25$: Use Insertion sort ($O(n^2)$)
- $n > 20 \sim 25$: Use Quick sort ($O(n \log n)$)
- For quick sort:
 - ◆ If the subfile size ≤ 20 after partitioning, then sort this subfile using Insertion Sort instead of Quick Sort.
 - ◆ This situation is similar in other sorts.

Long Records

- Exchanging records requires much time.
- Use linked lists

Running Time Comparisons among Sorts

	$n=256$	$n=512$
Insertion	336	1444
Bubble	1026	4054
Heap	110	241
Quick	60	146
Merge	102	242

End of Heap & Radix Sort

