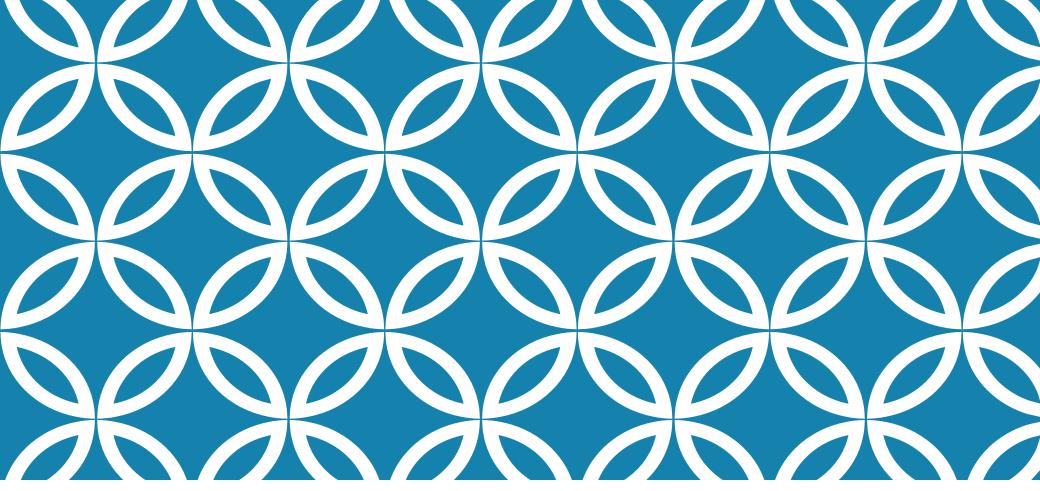


Fabrizio Ferrandi

a.a. 2021-2022



QUICKSORT

DIVIDE AND CONQUER PARTITIONING WORST-CASE ANALYSIS INTUITION RANDOMIZED QUICKSORT ANALYSIS

Material adapted from Erik D. Demaine and Charles E. Leiserson slides

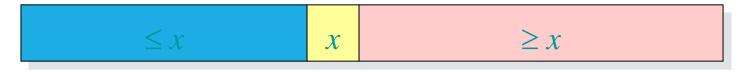
QUICKSORT

- Proposed by C.A.R. Hoare in 1962.
- Divide-and-conquer algorithm.
- Sorts "in place" (like insertion sort, but not like merge sort).
- Very practical (with tuning).

DIVIDE AND CONQUER

Quicksort an *n*-element array:

1. Divide: Partition the array into two subarrays around a pivot x such that elements in lower subarray $\le x \le$ elements in upper subarray.



- 2. Conquer: Recursively sort the two subarrays.
- 3. Combine: Trivial.

Key: Linear-time partitioning subroutine.

PARTITIONING SUBROUTINE

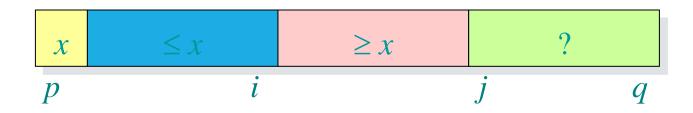
PARTITION(A, p, q) $\triangleright A[p ... q]$ $x \leftarrow A[p]$ $\triangleright \text{pivot} = A[p]$ $i \leftarrow p$ for $j \leftarrow p + 1$ to q in the worse case we are spending O(n)
do if $A[j] \leq x$ then $i \leftarrow i + 1$ i'm increasing i

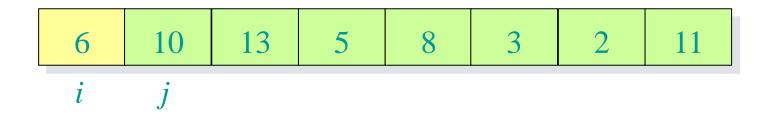
we move the values according to this pivot -> in that case is gonna to be the first element

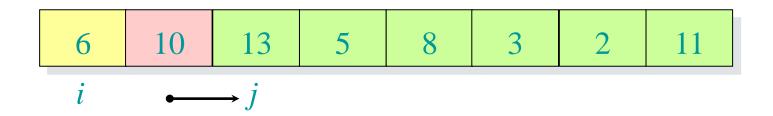
Running time = O(n) for n elements.

exchange $A[i] \leftrightarrow A[j]$ exchange $A[p] \leftrightarrow A[i]$ return i

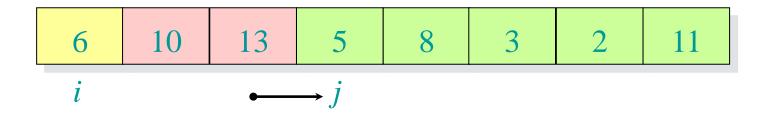
Invariant:

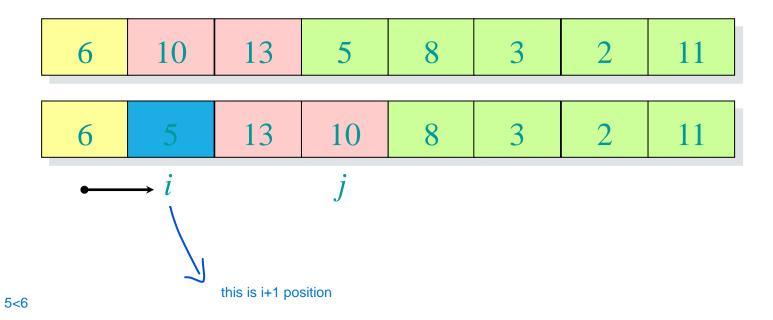


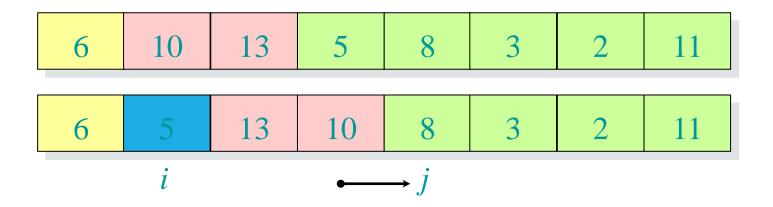


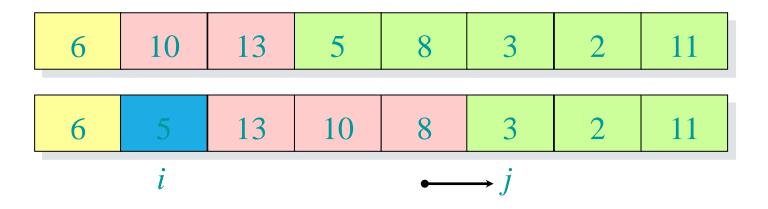


10 is greater so we move on

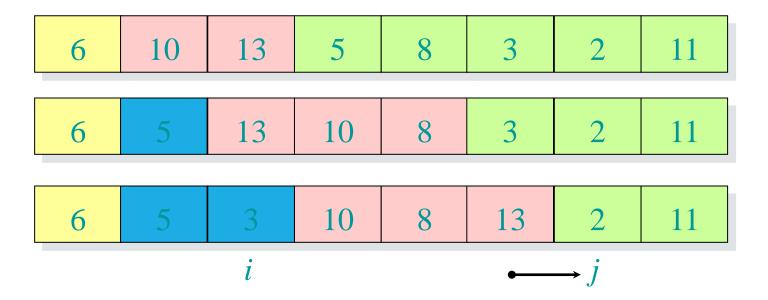






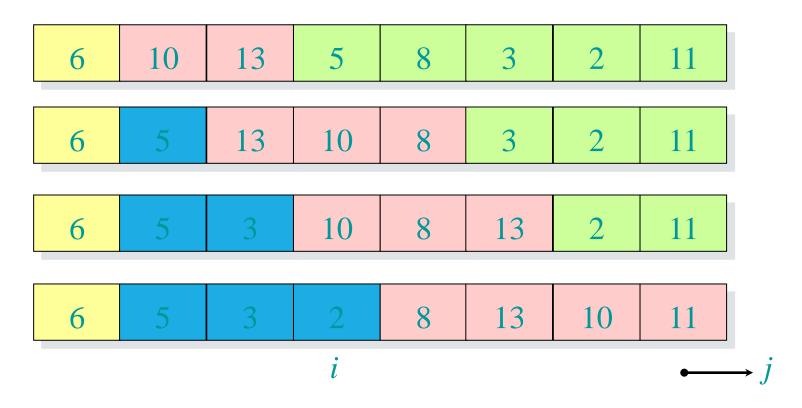


6	10	13	5	8	3	2	11
6	5	13	10	8	3	2	11
6	5	3	10	Q	13	2	11
U	-	$\rightarrow i$	10	O	$\frac{13}{j}$		11



6	10	13	5	8	3	2	11
6	5	13	10	8	3	2	11
6	5	3	10	8	13	2	11
6	5	3	2	8	13	10	11
$\longrightarrow i$			\overline{j}				

6	10	13	5	8	3	2	11
6	5	13	10	8	3	2	11
6	5	3	10	8	13	2	11
6	5	3	2	8	13	10	11
			i			•	$\rightarrow j$



ora facciamo A[p] <-> A[i]

6	10	13	5	8	3	2	11
6	5	13	10	8	3	2	11
6	5	3	10	8	13	2	11
6	5	3	2	8	13	10	11
2	5	3	6	8	13	10	11
			i				

PSEUDOCODE FOR QUICKSORT

```
QUICKSORT(A, p, r)

if p < r

then q \leftarrow \text{PARTITION}(A, p, r)

QUICKSORT(A, p, q-1)

QUICKSORT(A, q+1, r)
```

Initial call: QUICKSORT(A, 1, n)

ANALYSIS OF QUICKSORT

- Assume all input elements are distinct.
- In practice, there are better partitioning algorithms for when duplicate input elements may exist.
- Let T(n) = worst-case running time on an array of n elements.

for the partitioning phase

WORST-CASE OF QUICKSORT

- Input sorted or reverse sorted.
- Partition around min or max element.
- One side of partition always has no elements.

$$T(n) = T(0) + T(n-1) + \Theta(n) - \Theta(n)$$

$$= \Theta(1) + T(n-1) + \Theta(n)$$

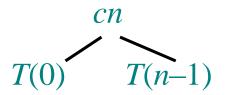
$$= T(n-1) + \Theta(n)$$

$$= \Theta(n^2)$$
(arithmetic series)

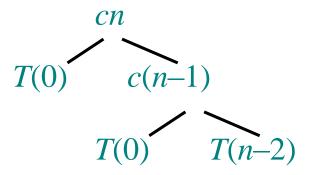
perchè gli elementi sono già ordinati

T(n)

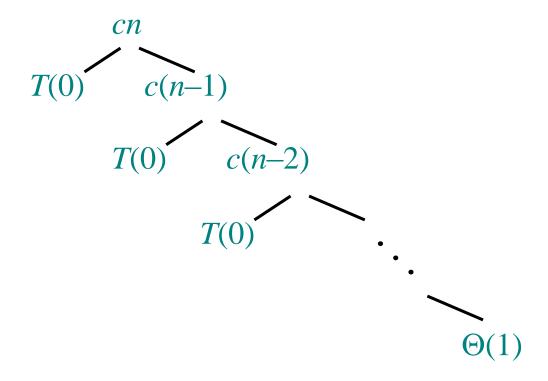
$$T(n) = T(0) + T(n-1) + cn$$



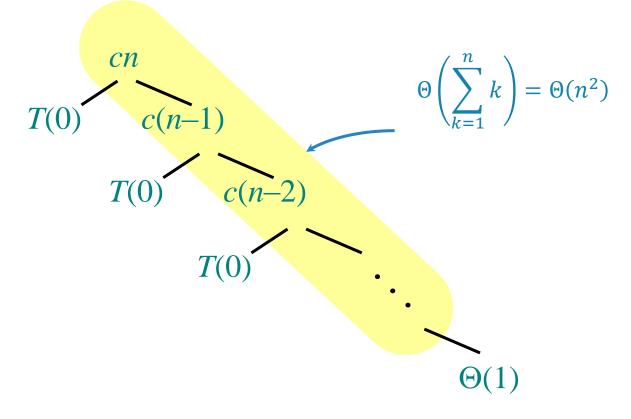
$$T(n) = T(0) + T(n-1) + cn$$



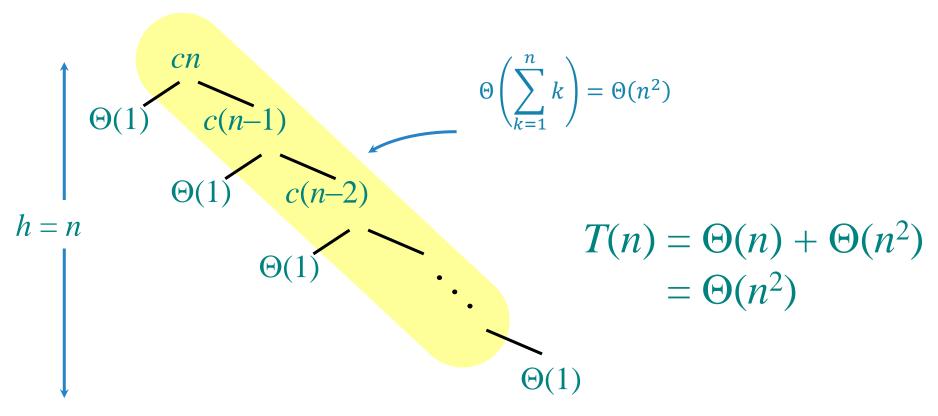
$$T(n) = T(0) + T(n-1) + cn$$



$$T(n) = T(0) + T(n-1) + cn$$



$$T(n) = T(0) + T(n-1) + cn$$



BEST-CASE ANALYSIS (For intuition only!)

complexity of the partition

If we're lucky, PARTITION splits the array evenly:

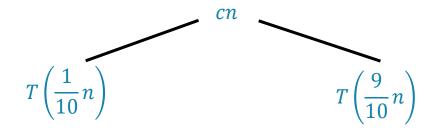
$$T(n) = 2T(n/2) + \Theta(n)$$
 $= \Theta(n \lg n)$
deriva sempre dal master theorem questa cosa di ottenere nlogn (same as merge sort)

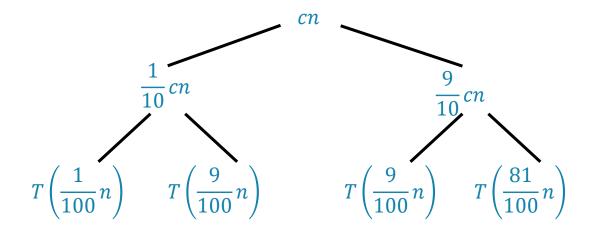
What if the split is always

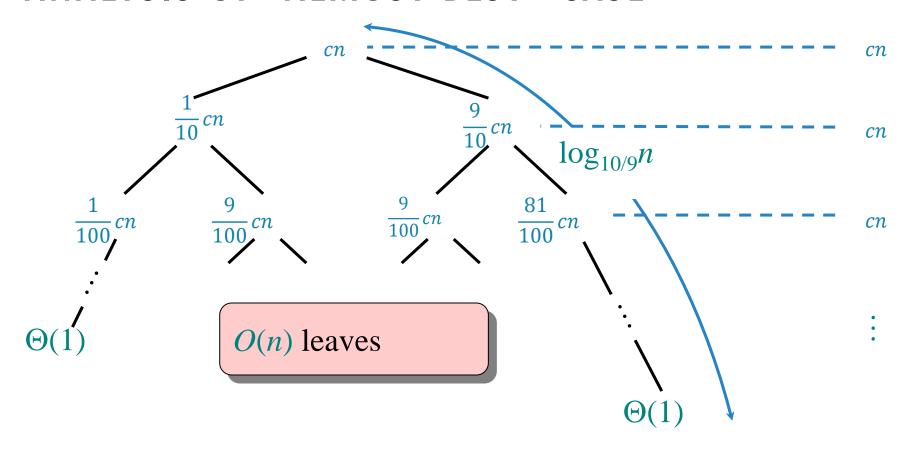
$$T(n) = T\left(\frac{1}{10}n\right) + T\left(\frac{9}{10}n\right) + \Theta(n)$$

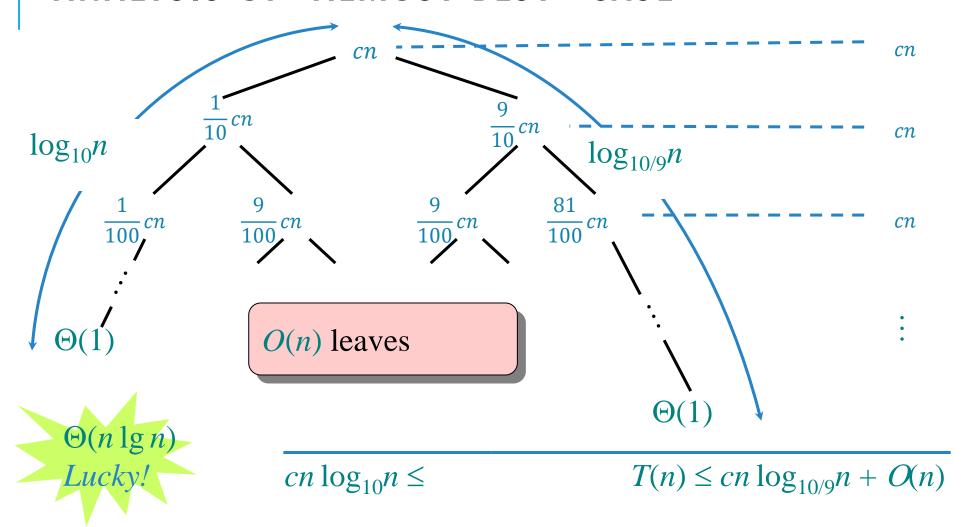
What is the solution to this recurrence?











MORE INTUITION

Suppose we alternate lucky, unlucky, lucky, unlucky, lucky,

$$L(n) = 2U(n/2) + \Theta(n) \quad lucky$$

$$U(n) = L(n-1) + \Theta(n) \quad unlucky$$

Solving:

$$L(n) = 2(L(n/2 - 1) + \Theta(n/2)) + \Theta(n)$$

$$= 2L(n/2 - 1) + \Theta(n)$$

$$= \Theta(n \lg n)$$
Lucky!

How can we make sure we are usually lucky?

RANDOMIZED QUICKSORT

IDEA: Partition around a *random* element.

- Running time is independent of the input order.
- No assumptions need to be made about the input distribution.
- No specific input elicits the worst-case behavior.
- The worst case is determined only by the output of a random-number generator.

RANDOMIZED QUICKSORT ANALYSIS

Let T(n) = the random variable for the running time of randomized quicksort on an input of size n, assuming random numbers are independent.

For k = 0, 1, ..., n-1, define the *indicator random* variable

this is the random variable
$$X_k = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if Partition generates a } k: n-k-1 \text{ split,} \\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

 $E[X_k] = \Pr\{X_k = 1\} = 1/n$, since all splits are equally likely, assuming elements are distinct.

sulla base dell'algoritmo randomico potrei dividere l'array in diverse porzioni, e poichè tutte queste porzioni possono uscire in modo equo allora la prob è proprio 1/n

ANALYSIS (CONTINUED)

$$T(n) = \begin{cases} T(0) + T(n-1) + \Theta(n) & \text{if } 0 : n-1 \text{ split,} \\ T(1) + T(n-2) + \Theta(n) & \text{if } 1 : n-2 \text{ split,} \\ \vdots & & \\ T(n-1) + T(0) + \Theta(n) & \text{if } n-1 : 0 \text{ split,} \end{cases}$$

tutti i possibili casi in cui avviene lo split

$$= \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} X_k(T(k) + T(n-k-1) + \Theta(n))$$

CALCULATING EXPECTATION
$$E[T(n)] = E\left[\sum_{k=0}^{n-1} X_k(T(k) + T(n-k-1) + \Theta(n))\right]$$

Take expectations of both sides.

$$E[T(n)] = E\left[\sum_{k=0}^{n-1} X_k(T(k) + T(n-k-1) + \Theta(n))\right]$$
$$= \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} E[X_k(T(k) + T(n-k-1) + \Theta(n))]$$

Linearity of expectation.

$$E[T(n)] = E\left[\sum_{k=0}^{n-1} X_k(T(k) + T(n-k-1) + \Theta(n))\right]$$

$$= \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} E[X_k(T(k) + T(n-k-1) + \Theta(n))]$$

$$= \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} E[X_k] \cdot E[T(k) + T(n-k-1) + \Theta(n)]$$

Independence of X_k from other random choices.

$$E[T(n)] = E\left[\sum_{k=0}^{n-1} X_k(T(k) + T(n-k-1) + \Theta(n))\right]$$

$$= \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} E[X_k(T(k) + T(n-k-1) + \Theta(n))]$$

$$= \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} E[X_k] \cdot E[T(k) + T(n-k-1) + \Theta(n)]$$

$$= \frac{1}{n} \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} E[T(k)] + \frac{1}{n} \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} E[T(n-k-1)] + \frac{1}{n} \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} \Theta(n)$$

Linearity of expectation; $E[X_k] = 1/n$.

$$E[T(n)] = E\left[\sum_{k=0}^{n-1} X_k(T(k) + T(n-k-1) + \Theta(n))\right]$$

$$= \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} E[X_k(T(k) + T(n-k-1) + \Theta(n))]$$

$$= \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} E[X_k] \cdot E[T(k) + T(n-k-1) + \Theta(n)]$$

$$= \frac{1}{n} \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} E[T(k)] + \frac{1}{n} \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} E[T(n-k-1)] + \frac{1}{n} \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} \Theta(n)$$

$$= \frac{2}{n} \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} E[T(k)] + \Theta(n)$$

Summations have identical terms.

HAIRY RECURRENCE
$$E[T(n)] = \frac{2}{n} \sum_{k=2}^{n-1} E[T(k)] + \Theta(n)$$

(The k = 0, 1 terms can be absorbed in the $\Theta(n)$.)

Prove: $E[T(n)] \le a n \lg n$ for constant a > 0.

• Choose a large enough so that an lg n dominates E[T(n)] for sufficiently small $n \ge 2$.

Use fact:
$$\sum_{k=2}^{n-1} k \lg k \le \frac{1}{2} n^2 \lg n - \frac{1}{8} n^2$$
 (exercise).

$$E[T(n)] \le \frac{2}{n} \sum_{k=2}^{n-1} ak \lg k + \Theta(n)$$

Substitute inductive hypothesis.

$$E[T(n)] \le \frac{2}{n} \sum_{k=2}^{n-1} ak \lg k + \Theta(n)$$
$$\le \frac{2a}{n} \left(\frac{1}{2}n^2 \lg n - \frac{1}{8}n^2\right) + \Theta(n)$$

Use fact.

$$E[T(n)] \le \frac{2}{n} \sum_{k=2}^{n-1} ak \lg k + \Theta(n)$$

$$\le \frac{2a}{n} \left(\frac{1}{2} n^2 \lg n - \frac{1}{8} n^2\right) + \Theta(n)$$

$$= an \lg n - \left(\frac{an}{4} - \Theta(n)\right)$$

Express as *desired* – *residual*.

$$E[T(n)] \le \frac{2}{n} \sum_{k=2}^{n-1} ak \lg k + \Theta(n)$$

$$= \frac{2a}{n} \left(\frac{1}{2}n^2 \lg n - \frac{1}{8}n^2\right) + \Theta(n)$$

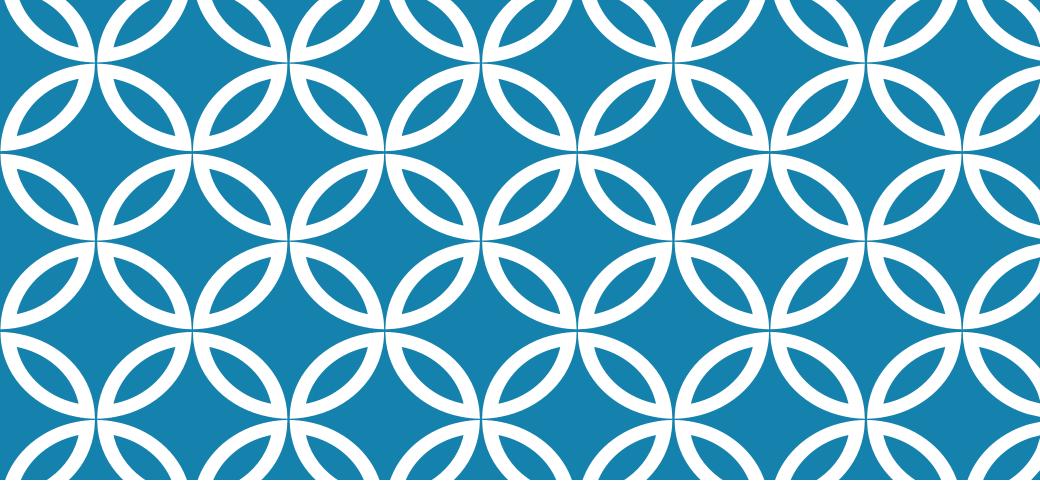
$$= an \lg n - \left(\frac{an}{4} - \Theta(n)\right)$$

$$\le an \lg n$$

if a is chosen large enough so that an/4 dominates the $\Theta(n)$.

QUICKSORT IN PRACTICE

- Quicksort is a great general-purpose sorting algorithm.
- Quicksort is typically over twice as fast as merge sort.
- Quicksort can benefit substantially from *code tuning*.
- Quicksort behaves well even with caching and virtual memory.



SORTING LOWER BOUNDS

DECISION TREES

LINEAR-TIME SORTING

COUNTING SORT

RADIX SORT

APPENDIX: PUNCHED CARDS

HOW FAST CAN WE SORT?

All the sorting algorithms we have seen so far are *comparison sorts*: only use comparisons to determine the relative order of elements.

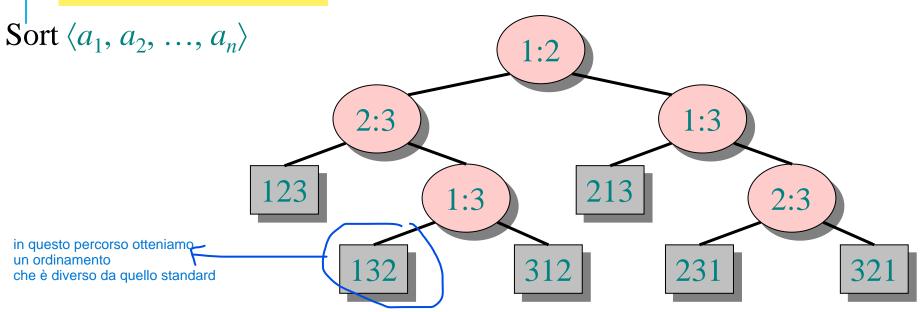
• *E.g.*, insertion sort, merge sort, quicksort, heapsort.

The best worst-case running time that we've seen for comparison sorting is $O(n \lg n)$.

Is $O(n \lg n)$ the best we can do?

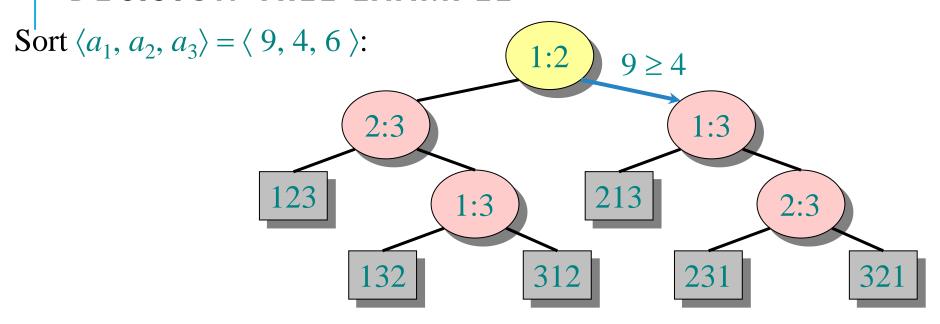
Decision trees can help us answer this question.





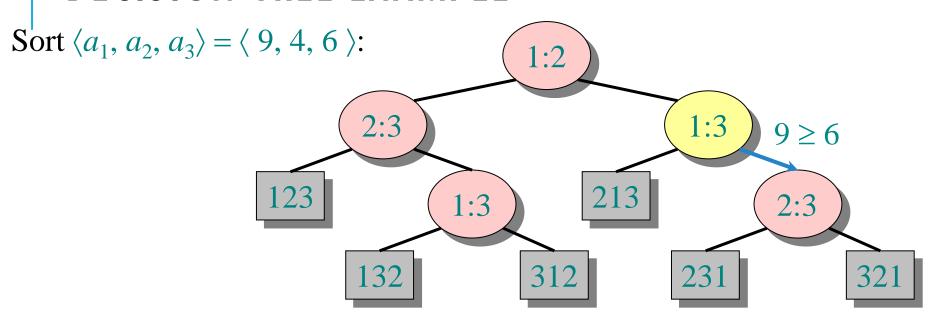
Each internal node is labeled *i*:*j* for $i, j \in \{1, 2, ..., n\}$.

- The left subtree shows subsequent comparisons if $a_i \le a_j$.
- The right subtree shows subsequent comparisons if $a_i > a_j$.



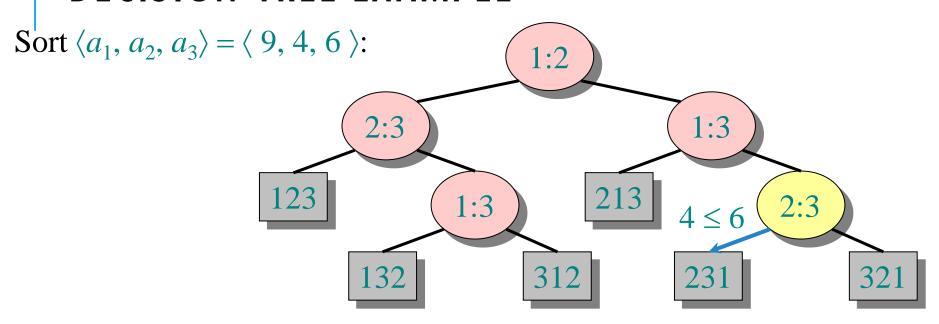
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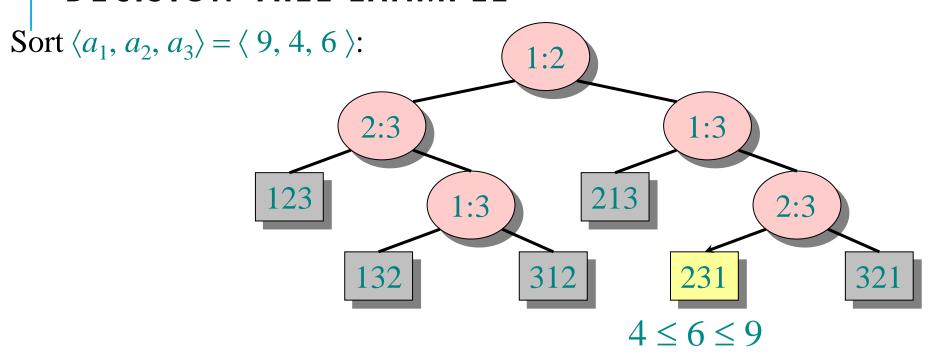
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Each internal node is labeled *i*:*j* for $i, j \in \{1, 2, ..., n\}$.

- The left subtree shows subsequent comparisons if $a_i \le a_j$.
- The right subtree shows subsequent comparisons if $a_i > a_j$.

September 26, 2005



Each leaf contains a permutation $\langle \pi(1), \pi(2), ..., \pi(n) \rangle$ to indicate that the ordering $a_{\pi(1)} \leq a_{\pi(2)} \leq \cdots \leq a_{\pi(n)}$ has been established.

DECISION-TREE MODEL

A decision tree can model the execution of any comparison sort:

- One tree for each input size *n*.
- View the algorithm as splitting whenever it compares two elements.
- The tree contains the comparisons along all possible instruction traces.
- The running time of the algorithm = the length of the path taken.
- Worst-case running time = height of tree.

LOWER BOUND FOR DECISION-TREE SORTING

Theorem. Any decision tree that can sort n elements must have height $\Omega(n \lg n)$.

Proof. The tree must contain $\geq n!$ leaves, since there are n! possible permutations. A height-h binary tree has $\leq 2^h$ leaves. Thus, $n! \leq 2^h$.

```
∴ h \ge \lg(n!) (lg is mono. increasing)

\ge \lg ((n/e)^n) (Stirling's formula)

= n \lg n - n \lg e

= \Omega(n \lg n).
```

LOWER BOUND FOR COMPARISON SORTING

Corollary. Heapsort and merge sort are asymptotically optimal comparison sorting algorithms.

SORTING IN LINEAR TIME

Counting sort: No comparisons between elements.

- *Input*: A[1 ... n], where $A[j] \in \{1, 2, ..., k\}$.
- Output: B[1 ... n], sorted.
- Auxiliary storage: C[1..k].

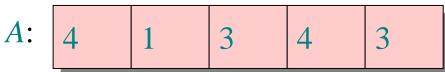
this is an assumption -> i wont store all the value in the auxiliary mem

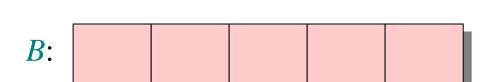
COUNTING SORT

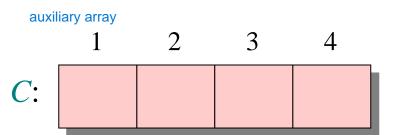
```
for i \leftarrow 1 to k
    do C[i] \leftarrow 0
for j \leftarrow 1 to n
    do C[A[j]] \leftarrow C[A[j]] + 1 \quad \triangleright C[i] = |\{\text{key} = i\}|
for i \leftarrow 2 to k
                                                  \triangleright C[i] = |\{\text{key} \le i\}|
    do C[i] \leftarrow C[i] + C[i-1]
for j \leftarrow n downto 1
    do B[C[A[j]]] \leftarrow A[j]
         C[A[j]] \leftarrow C[A[j]] - 1
```

COUNTING-SORT EXAMPLE









for
$$i \leftarrow 1$$
 to k do $C[i] \leftarrow 0$

in this loop we're counting how many 4 are there and we store the counter in position 4

1 2 3 4 5 A: 4 1 3 4 3

 $C: \begin{array}{|c|c|c|c|c|c|} \hline 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 \\ \hline 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ \hline \end{array}$

for
$$j \leftarrow 1$$
 to n
do $C[A[j]] \leftarrow C[A[j]] + 1 \quad \triangleright C[i] = |\{\text{key} = i\}|$

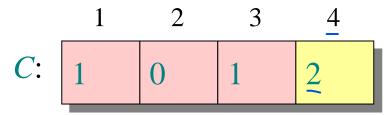
1 2 3 4 5
A: 4 1 3 4 3

for
$$j \leftarrow 1$$
 to n
do $C[A[j]] \leftarrow C[A[j]] + 1 \quad \triangleright C[i] = |\{\text{key} = i\}|$

1 2 3 4 5
A: 4 1 3 4 3

for
$$j \leftarrow 1$$
 to n
do $C[A[j]] \leftarrow C[A[j]] + 1 \quad \triangleright C[i] = |\{\text{key} = i\}|$

 $A: \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 & 5 \\ 4 & 1 & 3 & 4 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$

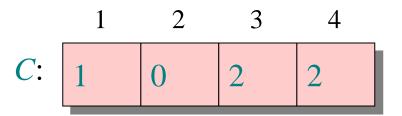


for
$$j \leftarrow 1$$
 to n
do $C[A[j]] \leftarrow C[A[j]] + 1 \quad \triangleright C[i] = |\{\text{key} = i\}|$

 $A: \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 & 5 \\ 4 & 1 & 3 & 4 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$

for
$$j \leftarrow 1$$
 to n
do $C[A[j]] \leftarrow C[A[j]] + 1 \quad \triangleright C[i] = |\{\text{key} = i\}|$

 $A: \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 & 5 \\ 4 & 1 & 3 & 4 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$



B:

for $i \leftarrow 2$ to kdo $C[i] \leftarrow C[i] + C[i-1]$

$$ightharpoonup C[i] = |\{\text{key} \le i\}|$$

5 3 3

	1	2	3	4
<i>C</i> :	1	0	2	2

for
$$i \leftarrow 2$$
 to k
do $C[i] \leftarrow C[i] + C[i-1]$ $\triangleright C[i] = |\{\text{key } \le i\}|$

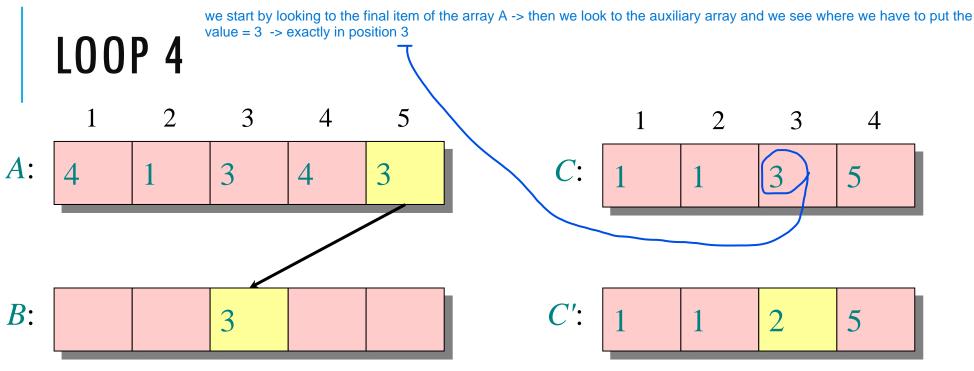
$$ightharpoonup C[i] = |\{\text{key} \le i\}|$$

5 3 3

	1	2	3	4
<i>C</i> :	1	0	2	2

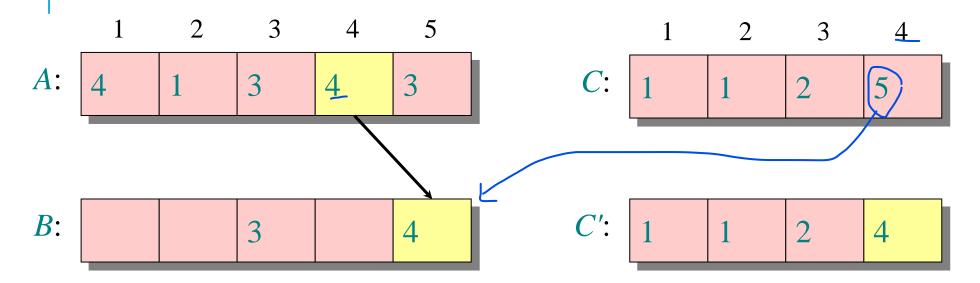
for
$$i \leftarrow 2$$
 to k
do $C[i] \leftarrow C[i] + C[i-1]$ $\triangleright C[i] = |\{\text{key } \le i\}|$

$$ightharpoonup C[i] = |\{\text{key} \le i\}|$$

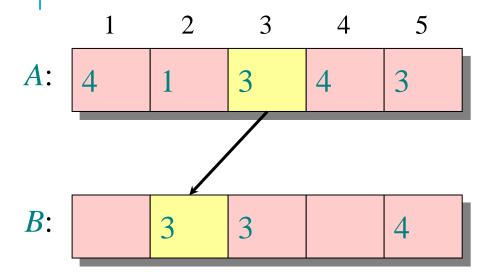


and we're decrementing here

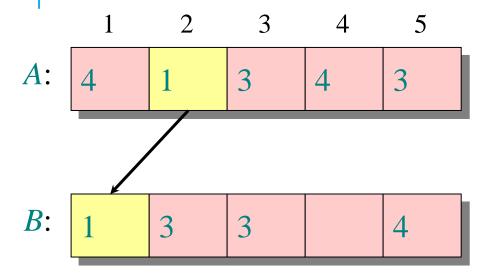
for
$$j \leftarrow n$$
 downto 1
do $B[C[A[j]]] \leftarrow A[j]$
 $C[A[j]] \leftarrow C[A[j]] - 1$

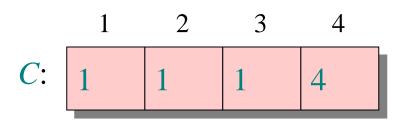


for
$$j \leftarrow n$$
 downto 1
do $B[C[A[j]]] \leftarrow A[j]$
 $C[A[j]] \leftarrow C[A[j]] - 1$

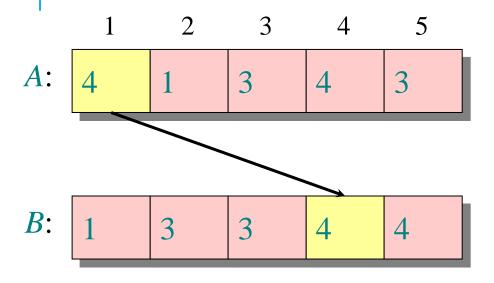


for
$$j \leftarrow n$$
 downto 1
do $B[C[A[j]]] \leftarrow A[j]$
 $C[A[j]] \leftarrow C[A[j]] - 1$





for
$$j \leftarrow n$$
 downto 1
do $B[C[A[j]]] \leftarrow A[j]$
 $C[A[j]] \leftarrow C[A[j]] - 1$



for
$$j \leftarrow n$$
 downto 1
do $B[C[A[j]]] \leftarrow A[j]$
 $C[A[j]] \leftarrow C[A[j]] - 1$

ANALYSIS

$$\Theta(k) \qquad \text{for } i \leftarrow 1 \text{ to } k \\
\text{do } C[i] \leftarrow 0$$

$$\Theta(n) \qquad \text{for } j \leftarrow 1 \text{ to } n \\
\text{do } C[A[j]] \leftarrow C[A[j]] + 1$$

$$\Theta(k) \qquad \text{for } i \leftarrow 2 \text{ to } k \\
\text{do } C[i] \leftarrow C[i] + C[i-1]$$

$$\text{for } j \leftarrow n \text{ downto } 1 \\
\text{do } B[C[A[j]]] \leftarrow A[j] \\
C[A[j]] \leftarrow C[A[j]] - 1$$

in this algorithm there is no decision tree. It is just counting -> but the main problem is that this algorithm is using a lot of memory to storing data in auxiliary arrays

RUNNING TIME

If k = O(n), then counting sort takes $\Theta(n)$ time.

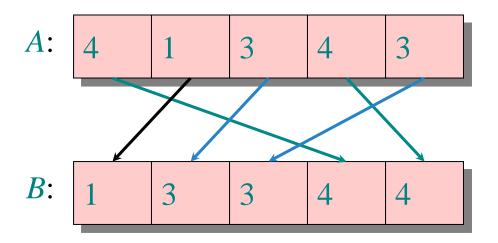
- But, sorting takes $\Omega(n \lg n)$ time!
- Where's the fallacy?

Answer:

- Comparison sorting takes $\Omega(n \lg n)$ time.
- Counting sort is not a comparison sort. because it doesnt use any comparison
- In fact, not a single comparison between elements occurs!

STABLE SORTING

Counting sort is a *stable* sort: it preserves the input order among equal elements.



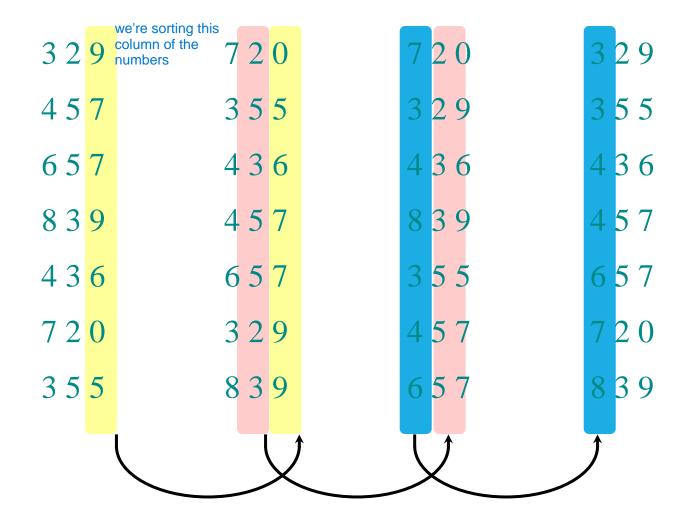
quicksort is not very stable

Exercise: What other sorts have this property?

RADIX SORT

- *Origin*: Herman Hollerith's card-sorting machine for the 1890 U.S. Census. (See Appendix ①)
- Digit-by-digit sort.
- Hollerith's original (bad) idea: sort on mostsignificant digit first.
- Good idea: Sort on *least-significant digit first* with auxiliary *stable* sort.

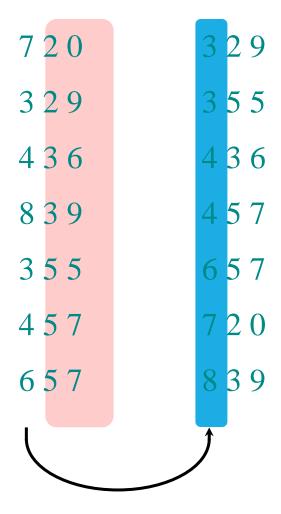
OPERATION OF RADIX SORT



CORRECTNESS OF RADIX SORT

Induction on digit position

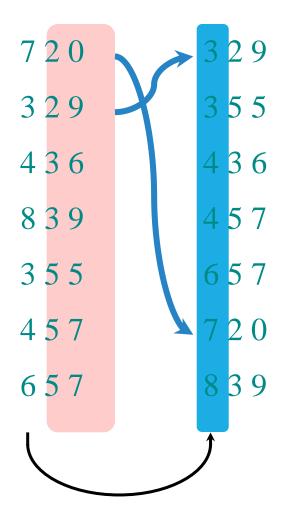
- Assume that the numbers are sorted by their low-order t-1 digits.
- Sort on digit *t*



CORRECTNESS OF RADIX SORT

Induction on digit position

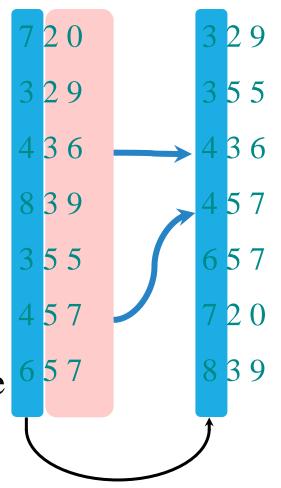
- Assume that the numbers are sorted by their low-order t-1 digits.
- Sort on digit *t*
 - Two numbers that differ in digit t are correctly sorted.



CORRECTNESS OF RADIX SORT

Induction on digit position

- Assume that the numbers are sorted by their low-order t-1 digits.
- Sort on digit *t*
 - Two numbers that differ in digit t are correctly sorted.
 - Two numbers equal in digit t are put in the same order as the input ⇒ correct order.



ANALYSIS OF RADIX SORT

- Assume counting sort is the auxiliary stable sort.
- Sort *n* computer words of *b* bits each.
- Each word can be viewed as having b/r base- 2^r digits.

Example: 32-bit word

 $r = 8 \Rightarrow b/r = 4$ passes of counting sort on base-28 digits; or $r = 16 \Rightarrow b/r = 2$ passes of counting sort on base-216 digits.

How many passes should we make?

ANALYSIS (CONTINUED)

Recall: Counting sort takes $\Theta(n + k)$ time to sort n numbers in the range from 0 to k - 1.

If each *b*-bit word is broken into *r*-bit pieces, each pass of counting sort takes $\Theta(n+2^r)$ time. Since there are b/r passes, we have



Choose r to minimize T(n, b):

• Increasing r means fewer passes, but as $r > \lg n$, the time grows exponentially.

CHOOSING R $T(n,b) = \Theta\left(\frac{b}{r}(n+2^r)\right)$

Minimize T(n, b) by differentiating and setting to 0.

Or, just observe that we don't want $2^r > n$, and there's no harm asymptotically in choosing r as large as possible subject to this constraint.

Choosing $r = \lg n$ implies $T(n, b) = \Theta(bn/\lg n)$.

• For numbers in the range from 0 to $n^d - 1$, we have $b = d \lg n \Rightarrow$ radix sort runs in $\Theta(dn)$ time.

CONCLUSIONS

In practice, radix sort is fast for large inputs, as well as simple to code and maintain.

Example (32-bit numbers):

- At most 3 passes when sorting ≥ 2000 numbers.
- Merge sort and quicksort do at least $\lceil \lg 2000 \rceil = 11$ passes.

Downside: Unlike quicksort, radix sort displays little locality of reference, and thus a well-tuned quicksort fares better on modern processors, which feature steep memory hierarchies.

APPENDIX: PUNCHED-CARD TECHNOLOGY

- Herman Hollerith (1860-1929)
- Punched cards
- Hollerith's tabulating system
- Operation of the sorter
- Origin of radix sort
- "Modern" IBM card
- Web resources on punched-card technology

Return to last slide viewed.

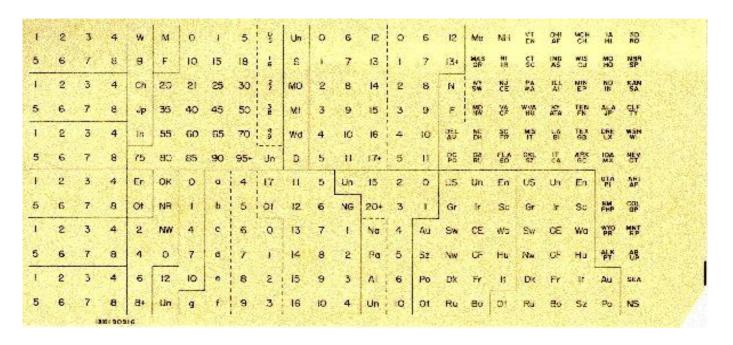
HERMAN HOLLERITH (1860-1929)

- The 1880 U.S. Census took almost 10 years to process.
- While a lecturer at MIT, Hollerith prototyped punched-card technology.
- His machines, including a "card sorter," allowed the 1890 census total to be reported in 6 weeks.
- He founded the Tabulating Machine Company in 1911, which merged with other companies in 1924 to form International Business Machines.



PUNCHED CARDS

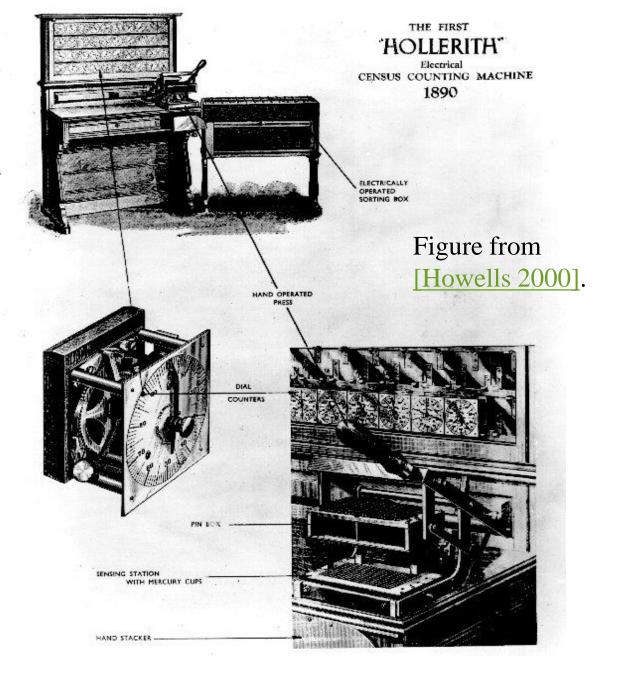
- Punched card = data record.
- Hole = value.
- Algorithm = machine + human operator.



Replica of punch card from the 1900 U.S. census.
[Howells 2000]

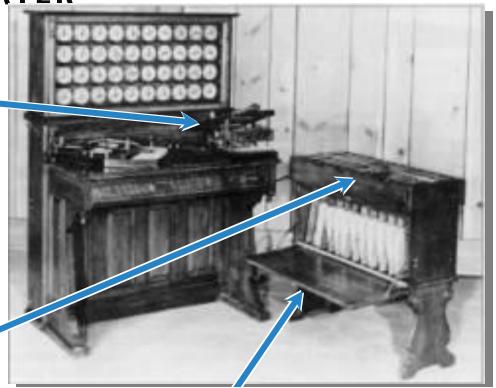
HOLLERITH'S TABULATING SYSTEM

- Pantograph card punch
- Hand-press reader
- Dial counters
- Sorting box



OPERATION OF THE SORTER

- An operator inserts a card into the press.
- Pins on the press reach through the punched holes to make electrical contact with mercury-filled cups beneath the card.
- Whenever a particular digit value is punched, the lid of the corresponding sorting bin lifts.
- The operator deposits the card into the bin and closes the lid.



Hollerith Tabulator, Pantograph, Press, and Sorter

• When all cards have been processed, the front panel is opened, and the cards are collected in order, yielding one pass of a stable sort.

ORIGIN OF RADIX SORT

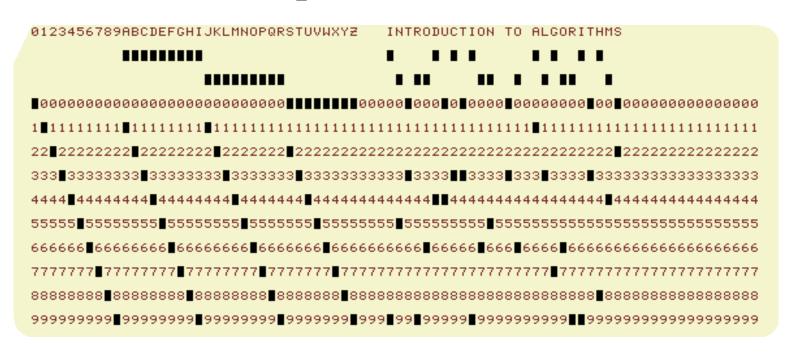
Hollerith's original 1889 patent alludes to a most-significant-digit-first radix sort:

"The most complicated combinations can readily be counted with comparatively few counters or relays by first assorting the cards according to the first items entering into the combinations, then reassorting each group according to the second item entering into the combination, and so on, and finally counting on a few counters the last item of the combination for each group of cards."

Least-significant-digit-first radix sort seems to be a folk invention originated by machine operators.

"MODERN" IBM CARD

One character per column.



Produced by the <u>WWW Virtual</u>
Punch-Card
Server.

So, that's why text windows have 80 columns!

WEB RESOURCES ON PUNCHED-CARD TECHNOLOGY

- Doug Jones's punched card index
- Biography of Herman Hollerith
- The 1890 U.S. Census
- Early history of IBM
- Pictures of Hollerith's inventions
- <u>Hollerith's patent application</u> (borrowed from <u>Gordon Bell's CyberMuseum</u>)
- Impact of punched cards on U.S. history

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