

# CSC2100 Data Structures

## Heaps

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# Introduction

- In some applications, a simple queue may not be the best strategy to complete jobs.
  - Printer queue
  - Multiprocessing queue
- Problems
  - Sometimes it seems that small jobs take longer
  - Important jobs can't be done first



# Priority Queues (Heaps)

- Different from a simple queue where one adds an entry at the end and takes an entry at the front,
- A priority queue takes an entry that satisfies some special properties among all the entries and place it at the front so to be taken out first.



# Example

- In a job queue, there are many algorithms that can be implemented to accomplish tasks.
  - first-come-first-serve
  - shortest-job-first
  - longest-job-first
  - priority-first
  - combination of the above

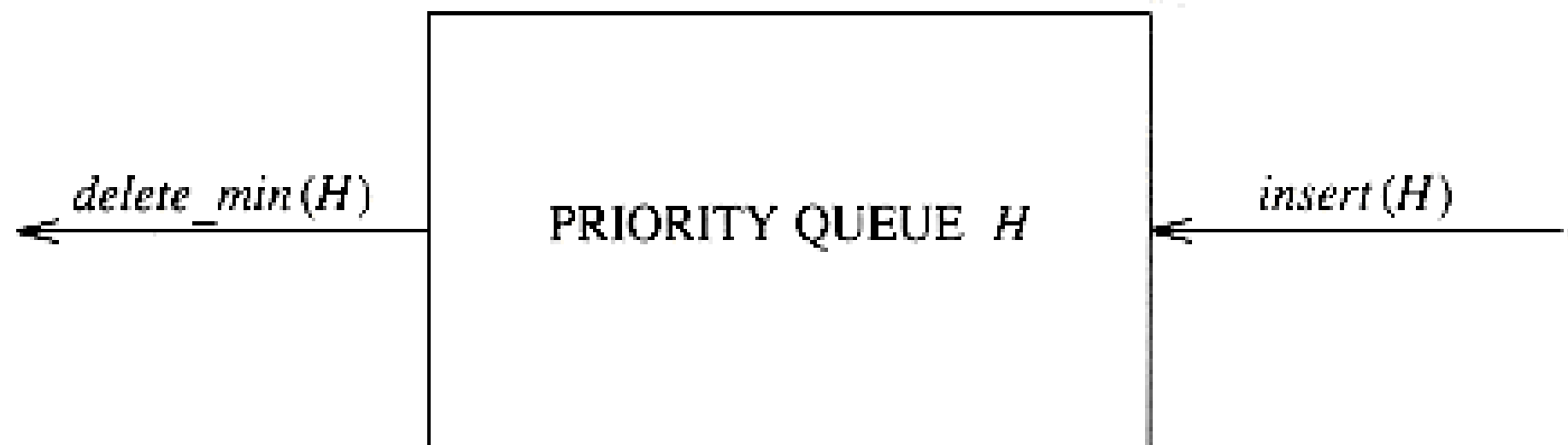


# Priority Queue

- A **priority queue** consists of entries, each of which contains a key called the **priority** of the entry.
- A priority queue has only two operations other than the usual creation, size, full, and empty operations:
  - Insert--inserts an entry.
  - Delete\_Min--finds, passes back, and removes the entry having the highest priority.
- If entries have equal priorities, then the first entry inserted is removed first.



# Model of a Priority Queue



# Implementation of a Priority Queue

- Several possible implementations are possible.
  - Simple linked list
  - A sorted contiguous list
  - An unsorted list
  - Binary search tree



# Binary Heap (or just Heap)

- Heaps have two properties
  - Structure property
  - Heap order property
- As with AVL trees, an operation on a heap can destroy one of the properties, so a heap operation must not terminate until all heap properties are in order.



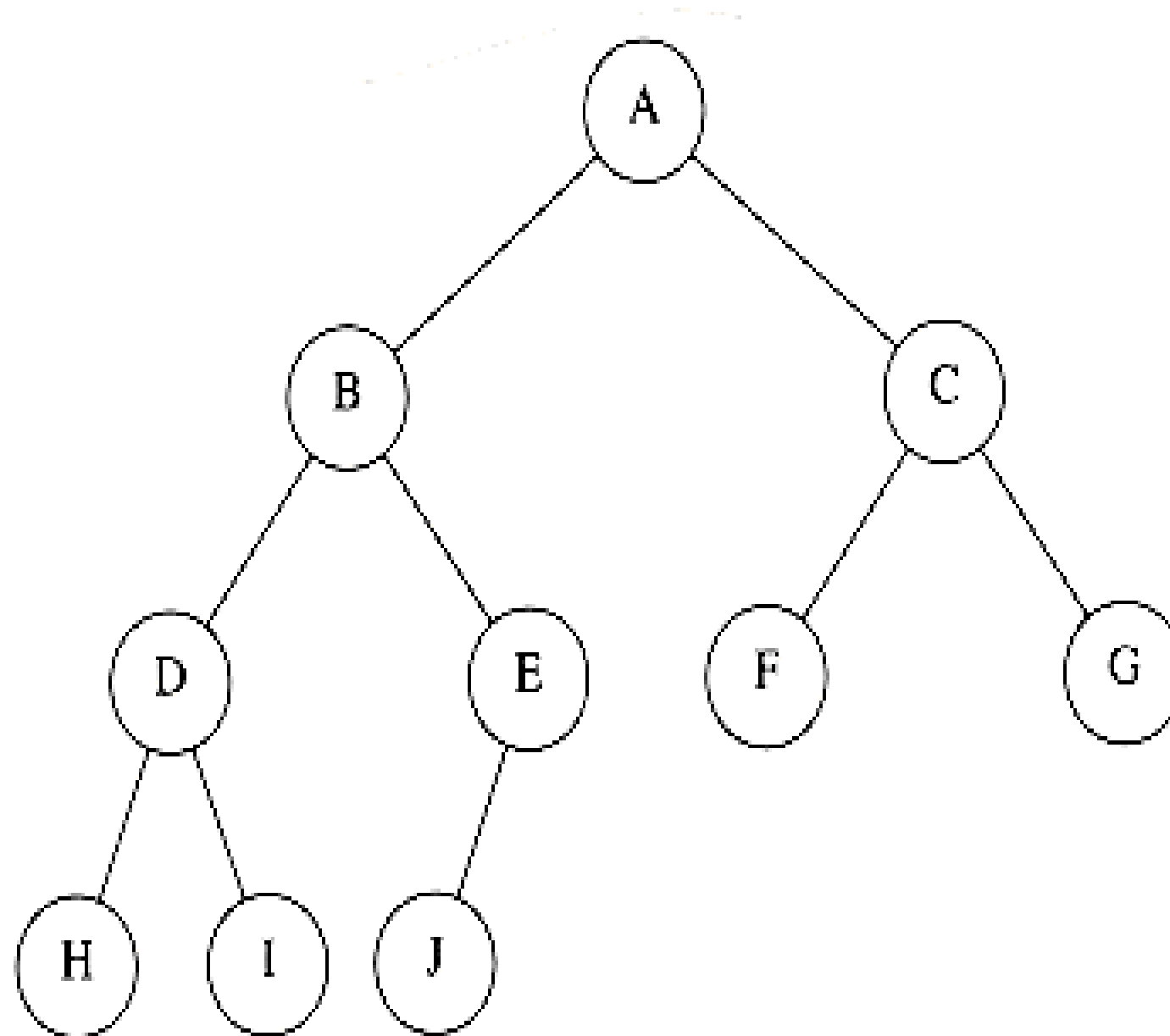


# Structure Property

- A heap is a binary tree that is completely filled, with the possible **exception** of the bottom level, which is filled from left to right.
- Such a tree is known as a **complete binary tree**.



# Example



# Observation

- A complete binary tree of height  $h$  has between  $2^h$  and  $2^{h+1} - 1$  nodes.
- This implies that the height of a complete binary tree is  $\lfloor \log n \rfloor$ , which is clearly  $O(\log n)$ .
- Because a complete binary tree is so regular, it can be represented in an array and no pointers are necessary.



# Example of an Implementation

	A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H	I	J			
0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13

- For any element in array position  $i$ , the left child is in position  $2i$ , the right child is in the cell after the left child ( $2i + 1$ ), and the parent is in position  $\lfloor i/2 \rfloor$ .
- Thus not only are pointers not required, but the operations required to traverse the tree are extremely simple.
- Problem is the estimation of the maximum heap size is required in advance.



# Heap Order Property

- The property that allows operations to be performed quickly is the **heap order** property.
- For a heap, the **smallest** element should be at the root so that the operation to remove will be quick.
- By the heap order property, the minimum element can always be found at the root.
- Thus, we get the extra operation, `find_min`, in constant time,  $O(1)$ .

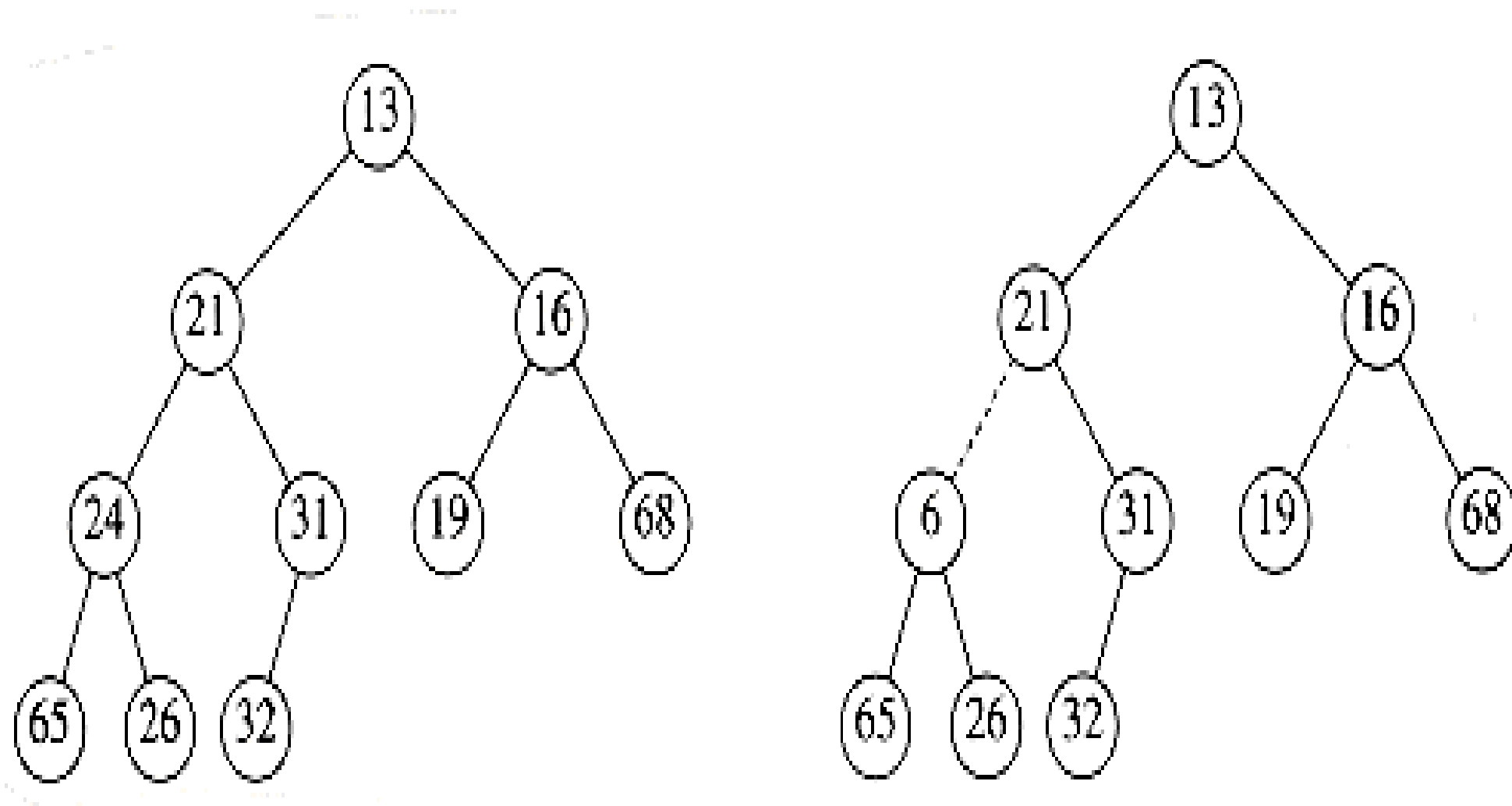


# Heap Order Property

- Since we want to be able to find the minimum quickly, it makes sense that the smallest element should be at the root.
- If we consider that any subtree should also be a heap, then any node should be smaller than all of its descendants.
- Applying this logic, we arrive at the heap order property.
- In a heap, for every node  $X$ , the key in the parent of  $X$  is smaller than (or equal to) the key in  $X$ , with the obvious exception of the root (which has no parent).



# Example



- Two complete trees (only the left tree is a heap).



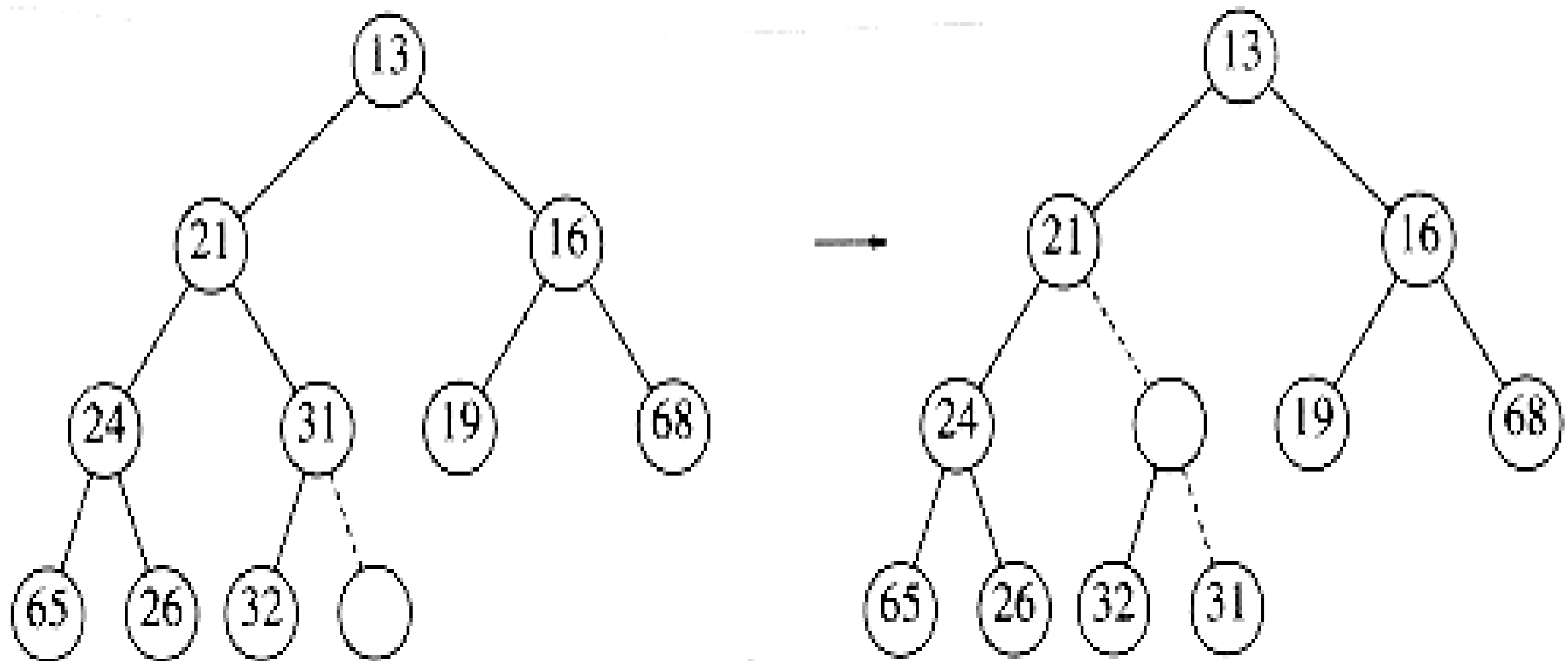
# Heap Operations - Insert

- We create a hole in the next available location.
- If  $x$  can be placed in the hole without violating the heap order, then we do so and are done.
- Otherwise we slide the element that is in the hole's parent node into the hole, thus bubbling the hole up toward the root.
- We continue this process until  $x$  can be placed in the hole.
- This strategy is known as a **percolate up**.

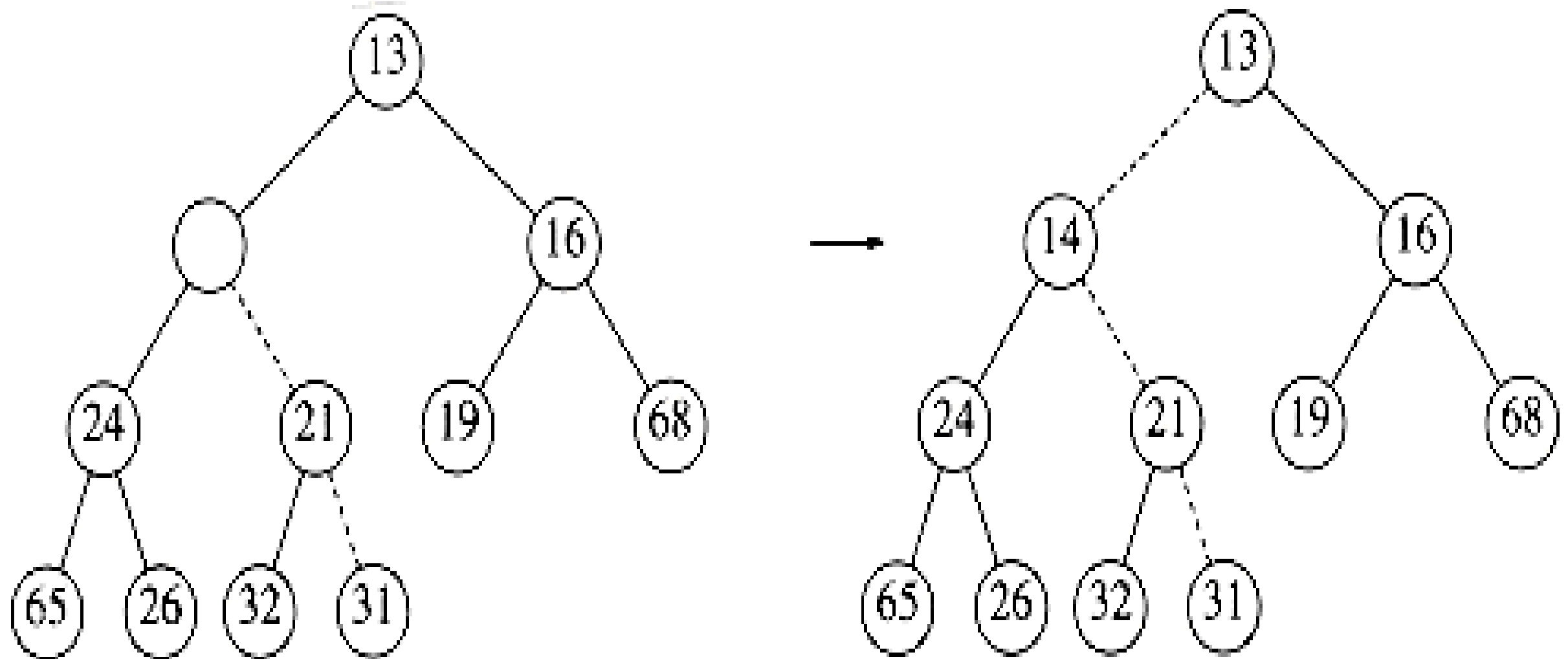




# Example-Insert 14



# Example



# Observation

- The time to do the insertion could be as much as  $O(\log n)$  if the element to be inserted is the new minimum and is percolated all the way to the root.
- It has been shown that 2.607 comparisons are required on average to perform an insert.
- The average insert moves an element up 1.607 levels.



# Heap Operations - Delete

- Deletions are handled in a similar manner as insertions.
- Finding the minimum is easy; the hard part is removing it.
- When the root is removed, a hole is created.
- We then need to slide the smaller of the hole's children into the hole, thus pushing the hole down one level.

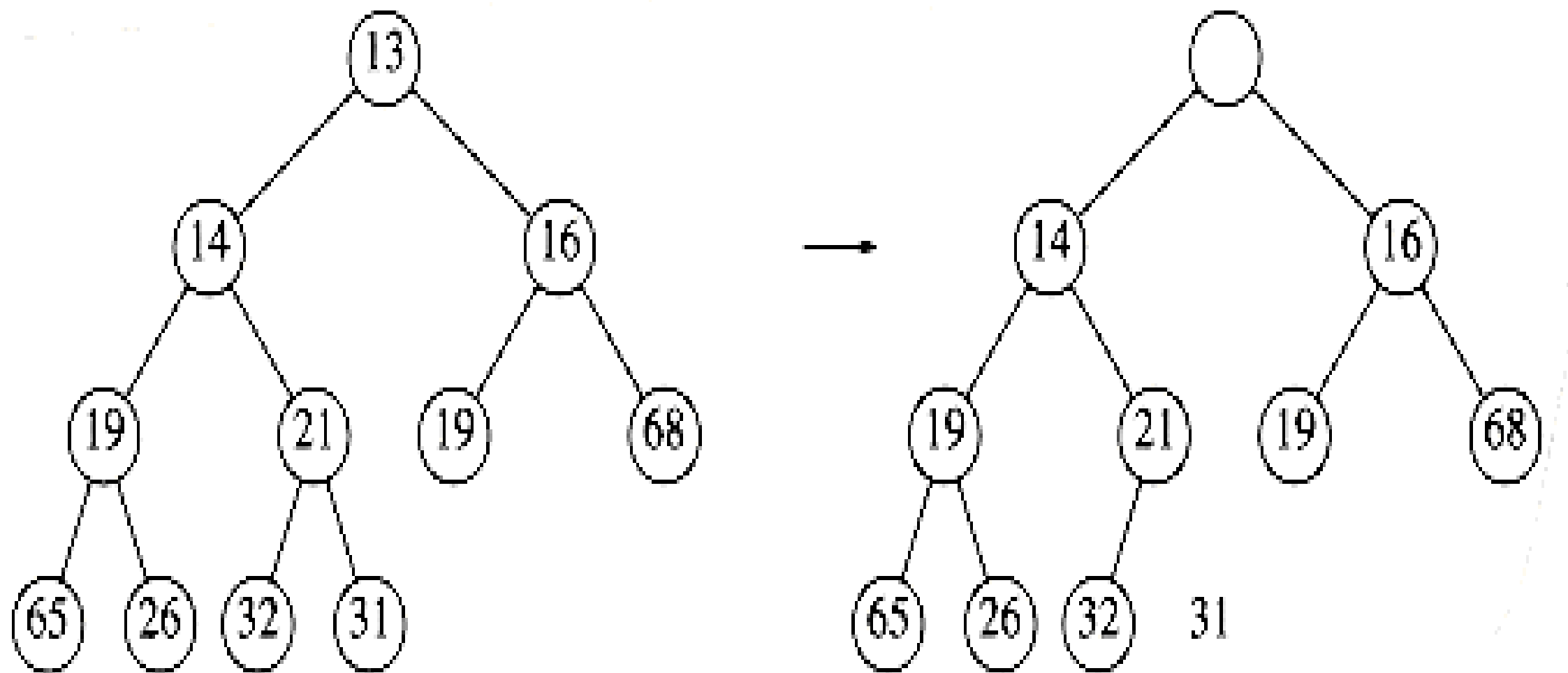


# Deletion

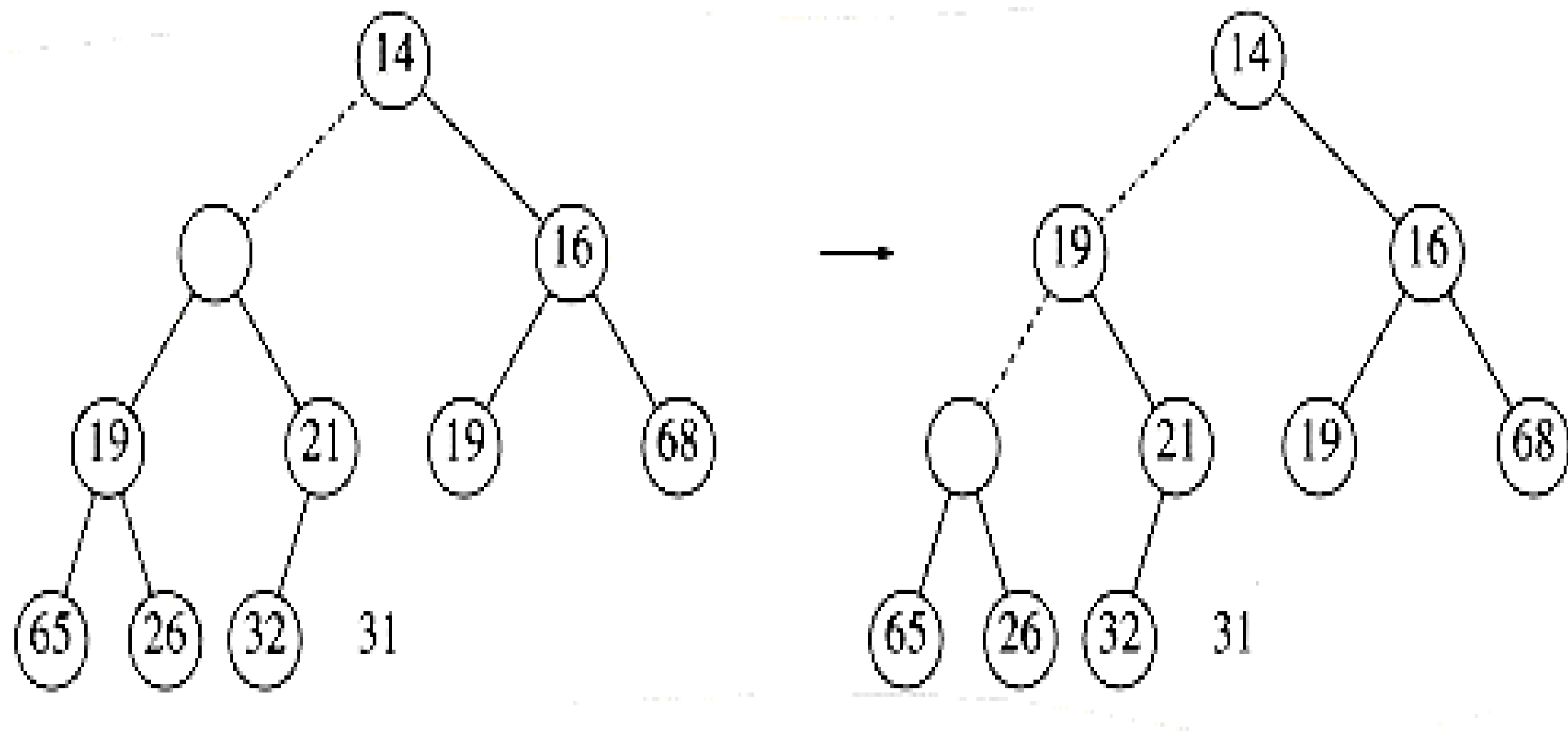
- We repeat this step until  $x$  can be placed in the hole.
- Thus, our action is to place  $x$  in its correct spot along a path from the root containing **minimum** children.
- The rearranging will typically take less than  $O(\log n)$ .



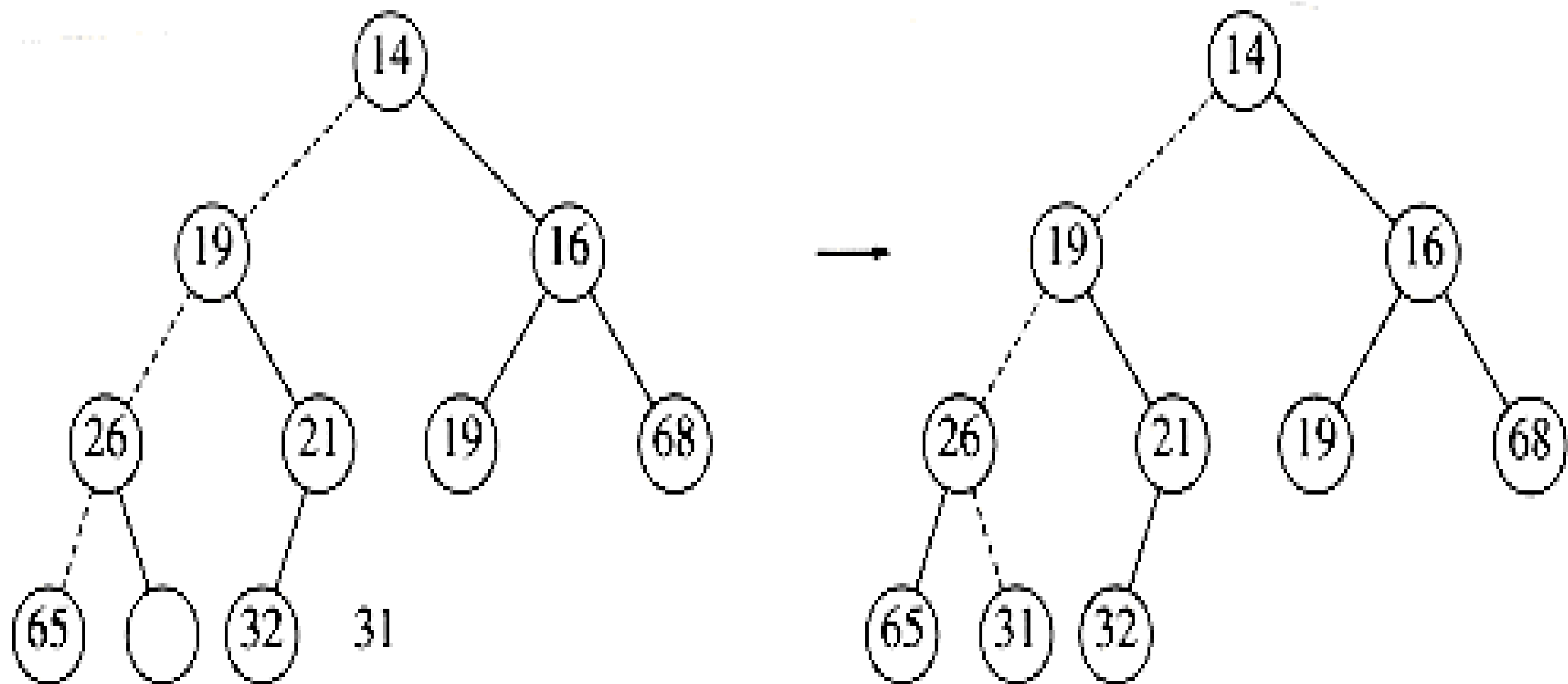
# Example



# Example



# Example





# Other Heap Operations

- Finding the minimum can be performed in constant time.
- No help in finding the maximum.
- There is no ordering information.
- Decrease\_Key ( $P, \Delta$ )
- Increase\_Key( $P, \Delta$ )
- Remove( $l$ )
- Build\_Heap

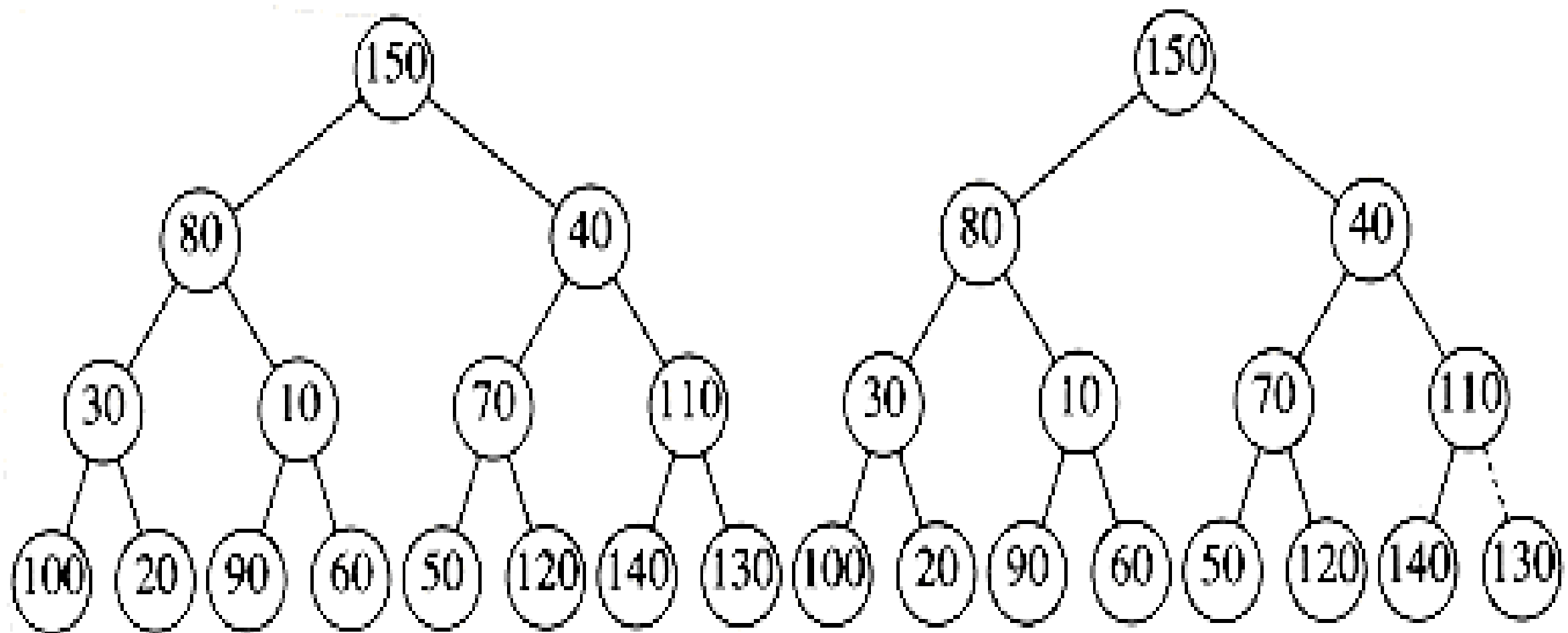


# Observation on Build\_Heap

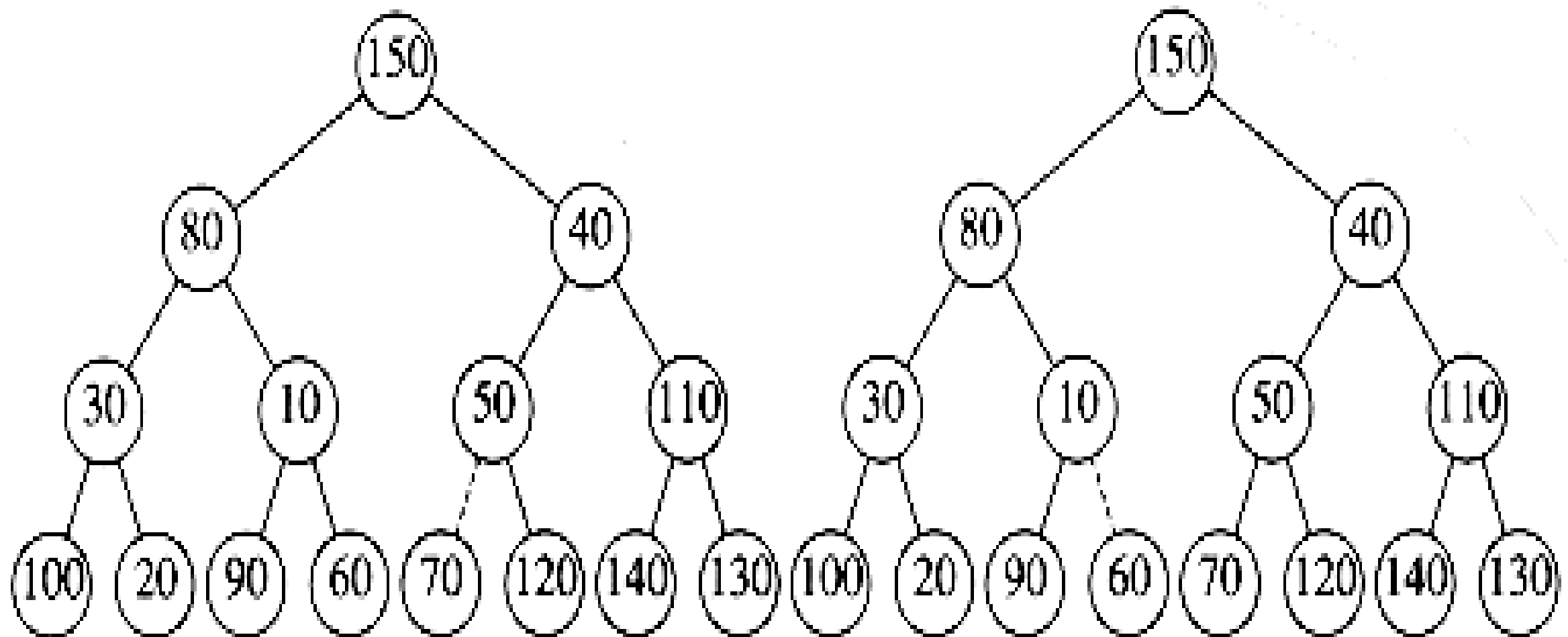
- Takes  $n$  keys and places them into an empty heap.
- We could perform  $n$  successive Inserts.
- This will take  $O(n)$  average but  $O(n \log n)$  worst-case.
- One other way is to place the  $n$  keys into the tree in any order.
- Then perform Percolate\_Down on half of the nodes.



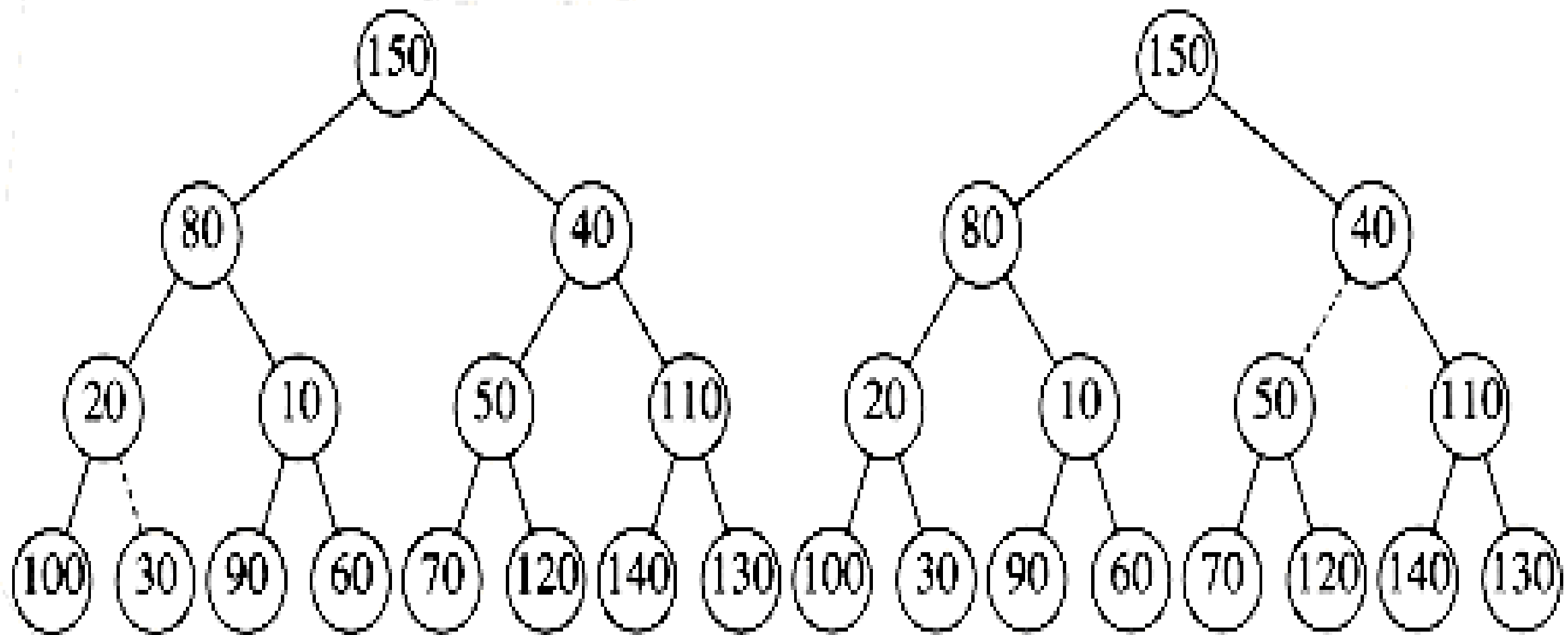
# Example-Initial, Percolate Down(7)



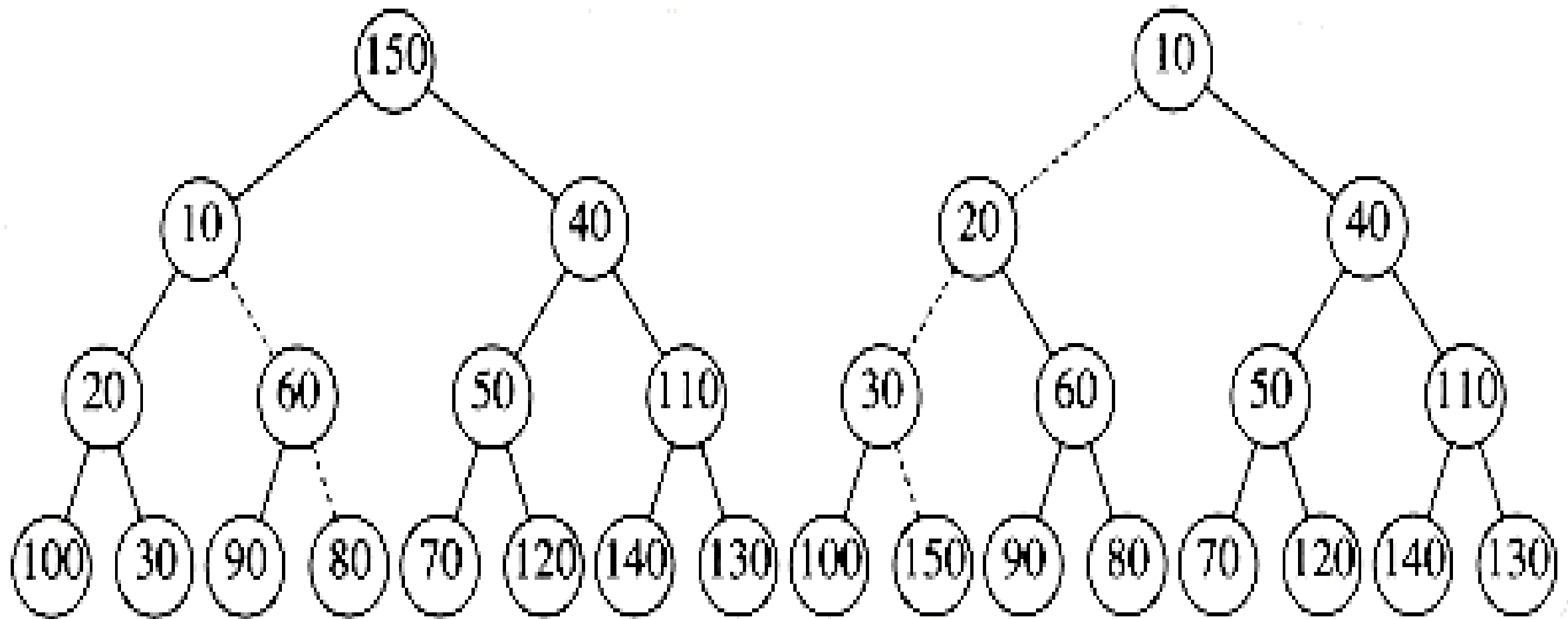
# Example-Percolate\_Down(6), Percolate\_Down(5)



# Example-Percolate\_Down(4), Percolate\_Down(3)



# Example-Percolate\_Down(2), Percolate\_Down(1)



# Back to the k Selection Problem

## First Algorithm

- We now could use what we just learned and apply it to find out the  $k$ -th smallest or largest element in a set.
- To build a heap, it takes  $O(n)$  average and  $O(n \log n)$  for worst case scenario.
- To delete a heap, it take  $O(\log n)$ .
- Hence, the total running time is  $O(n + k \log n)$ .



# More

- For small  $k$  then the running time dominated by the heap building operation and is  $O(n)$ .
- For larger values of  $k$ , the running time is  $O(k \log n)$  time.





# Second Algorithm

- We could also build a smaller heap tree of  $k$  elements.
- It then compares the remaining entries against the heap. If the new element is larger, then it replaces the root or else it is being discarded.
- To build a  $k$  element heap, the time will be  $O(k)$ .



# More

- The time to process each of the remaining elements is  $O(1)$ , to test if the element goes into the heap, plus  $O(\log k)$ , to delete the root and insert the new element if this is necessary.
- Thus, the total time is  $O(k + (n-k) \log k) = O(n \log k)$ .
- This algorithm also gives a bound of  $n \log n$  for finding the median.

