

# Analysis of Algorithms

## Heapsort

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## Sorting Revisited

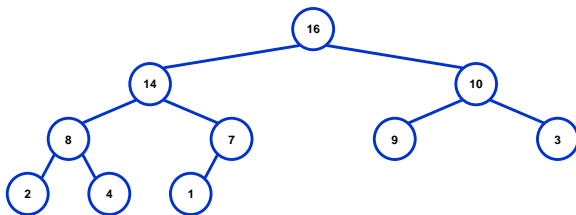
- So far we've talked about two algorithms to sort an array of numbers
  - What is the advantage of merge sort?
    - Answer:  $O(n \lg n)$  worst-case running time
  - What is the advantage of insertion sort?
    - Answer: sorts in place
    - Also: When array "nearly sorted", runs fast in practice
- Next on the agenda: **Heapsort**
  - Combines advantages of both previous algorithms

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## Heaps

- A **heap** can be seen as a complete binary tree:



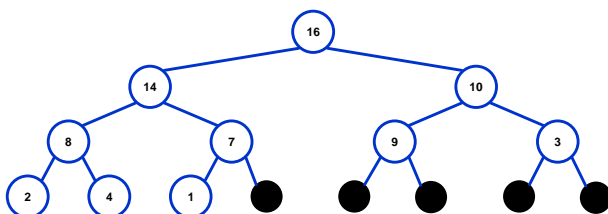
- What makes a binary tree complete?
- Is the example above complete?

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## Heaps

- A **heap** can be seen as a complete binary tree:



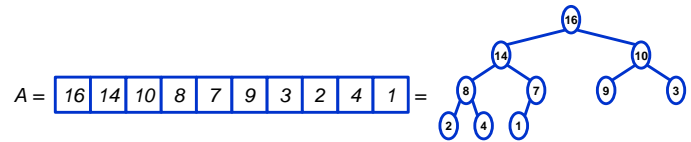
- The book calls them "nearly complete" binary trees; can think of unfilled slots as null pointers

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## Heaps

- In practice, heaps are usually implemented as arrays:

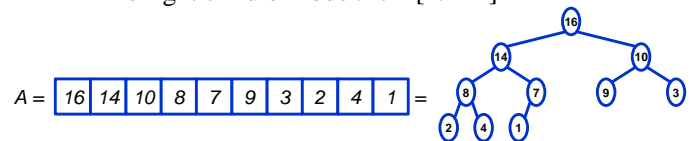


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## Heaps

- To represent a complete binary tree as an array:
  - The root node is  $A[1]$
  - Node  $i$  is  $A[i]$
  - The parent of node  $i$  is  $A[i/2]$  (note: integer divide)
  - The left child of node  $i$  is  $A[2i]$
  - The right child of node  $i$  is  $A[2i + 1]$



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## Referencing Heap Elements

- So...
  - `Parent(i) { return i/2; }`
  - `Left(i) { return 2*i; }`
  - `right(i) { return 2*i + 1; }`
- An aside: *How would you implement this most efficiently?*

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## The Heap Property

- Heaps also satisfy the **heap property**:
  - $A[\text{Parent}(i)] \geq A[i]$  for all nodes  $i > 1$ 
    - In other words, the value of a node is at most the value of its parent
  - Where is the largest element in a heap stored?

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## Heap Height

### Definitions:

- The *height* of a node in the tree = the number of edges on the longest downward path to a leaf
- The height of a tree = the height of its root

### What is the height of an $n$ -element heap? Why?

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## Heap Operations: Heapify()

### Heapify(): maintain the heap property

- Given: a node  $i$  in the heap with children  $l$  and  $r$
- Given: two subtrees rooted at  $l$  and  $r$ , assumed to be heaps
- Problem: The subtree rooted at  $i$  may violate the heap property
- Action: let the value of the parent node “float down” so subtree at  $i$  satisfies the heap property

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## Heap Operations: Heapify()

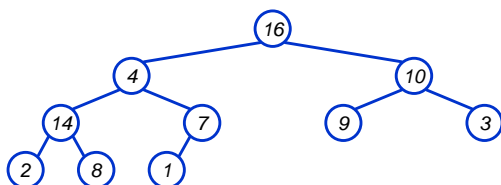
```

Heapify(A, i)
{
    l = Left(i); r = Right(i);
    if (l <= heap_size(A) && A[l] > A[i])
        largest = l;
    else
        largest = i;
    if (r <= heap_size(A) && A[r] > A[largest])
        largest = r;
    if (largest != i)
        Swap(A, i, largest);
        Heapify(A, largest);
}
    
```

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## Heapify() Example

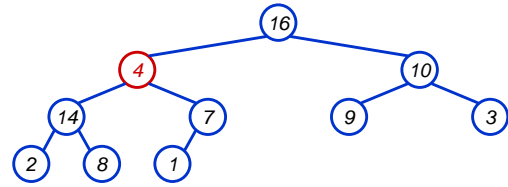


A = [16, 4, 10, 14, 7, 9, 3, 2, 8, 1]

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## Heapify() Example

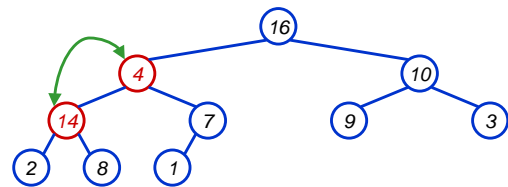


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## Heapify() Example

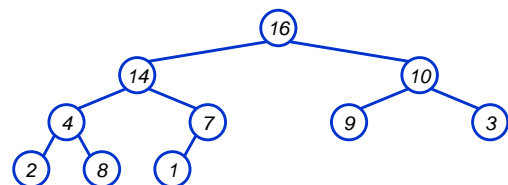


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## Heapify() Example

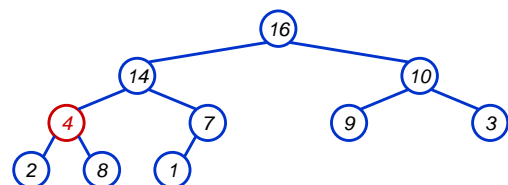


A = [16, 14, 10, 4, 7, 9, 3, 2, 8, 1]

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## Heapify() Example

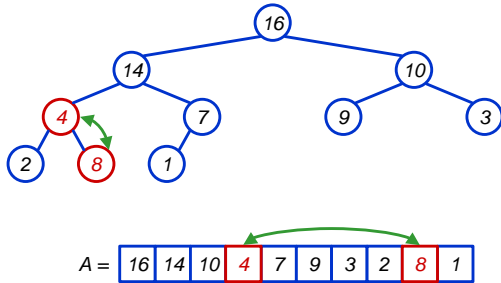


A = [16, 14, 10, 4, 7, 9, 3, 2, 8, 1]

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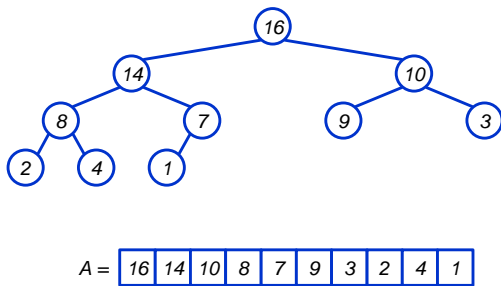
## Heapify() Example



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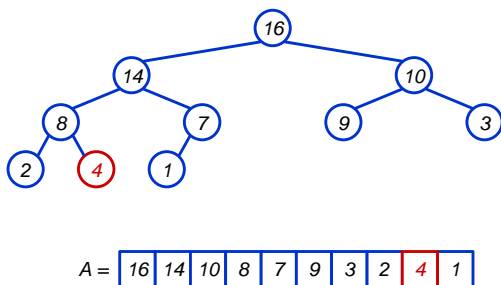
## Heapify() Example



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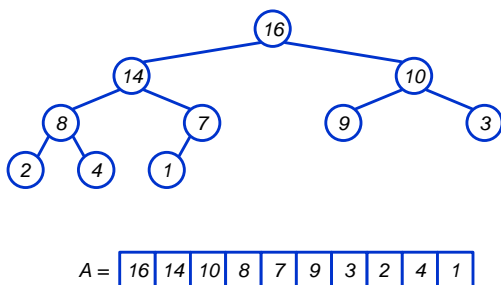
## Heapify() Example



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## Heapify() Example



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## Analyzing Heapify(): Informal

- Aside from the recursive call, what is the running time of **Heapify()**?
- How many times can **Heapify()** recursively call itself?
- What is the worst-case running time of **Heapify()** on a heap of size  $n$ ?

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## Analyzing Heapify(): Formal

- Fixing up relationships between  $i$ ,  $l$ , and  $r$  takes  $\Theta(1)$  time
- If the heap at  $i$  has  $n$  elements, how many elements can the subtrees at  $l$  or  $r$  have?
  - Draw it
- Answer:  $2n/3$  (worst case: bottom row 1/2 full)
- So time taken by **Heapify()** is given by  $T(n) \leq T(2n/3) + \Theta(1)$

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## Analyzing Heapify(): Formal

- So we have  $T(n) \leq T(2n/3) + \Theta(1)$
- By case 2 of the Master Theorem,  $T(n) = O(\lg n)$
- Thus, **Heapify()** takes logarithmic time

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## Heap Operations: BuildHeap()

- We can build a heap in a bottom-up manner by running **Heapify()** on successive subarrays
  - Fact: for array of length  $n$ , all elements in range  $A[\lfloor n/2 \rfloor + 1 .. n]$  are heaps (*Why?*)
  - So:
    - Walk backwards through the array from  $n/2$  to 1, calling **Heapify()** on each node.
    - Order of processing guarantees that the children of node  $i$  are heaps when  $i$  is processed

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## BuildHeap()

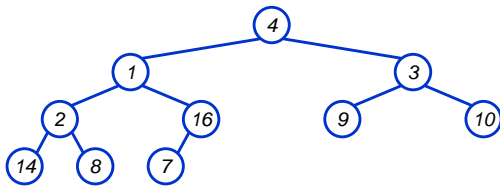
```
// given an unsorted array A, make A a heap
BuildHeap(A)
{
    heap_size(A) = length(A);
    for (i = [length[A]/2] downto 1)
        Heapify(A, i);
}
```

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## BuildHeap() Example

- Work through example  
 $A = \{4, 1, 3, 2, 16, 9, 10, 14, 8, 7\}$



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## Analyzing BuildHeap()

- Each call to **Heapify()** takes  $O(\lg n)$  time
- There are  $O(n)$  such calls (specifically,  $\lfloor n/2 \rfloor$ )
- Thus the running time is  $O(n \lg n)$ 
  - Is this a correct asymptotic upper bound?
  - Is this an asymptotically tight bound?
- A tighter bound is  $O(n)$ 
  - How can this be? Is there a flaw in the above reasoning?

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## Analyzing BuildHeap(): Tight

- To **Heapify()** a subtree takes  $O(h)$  time where  $h$  is the height of the subtree
  - $h = O(\lg m)$ ,  $m = \#$  nodes in subtree
  - The height of most subtrees is small
- Fact: an  $n$ -element heap has at most  $\lceil n/2^{h+1} \rceil$  nodes of height  $h$
- CLR 7.3 uses this fact to prove that **BuildHeap()** takes  $O(n)$  time

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## Heapsort

- Given **BuildHeap()**, an in-place sorting algorithm is easily constructed:
  - Maximum element is at  $A[1]$
  - Discard by swapping with element at  $A[n]$ 
    - Decrement  $\text{heap\_size}[A]$
    - $A[n]$  now contains correct value
  - Restore heap property at  $A[1]$  by calling **Heapify()**
  - Repeat, always swapping  $A[1]$  for  $A[\text{heap\_size}(A)]$

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## Heapsort

```
Heapsort(A)
{
    BuildHeap(A);
    for (i = length(A) downto 2)
    {
        Swap(A[1], A[i]);
        heap_size(A) -= 1;
        Heapify(A, 1);
    }
}
```

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## Analyzing Heapsort

- The call to **BuildHeap()** takes  $O(n)$  time
- Each of the  $n - 1$  calls to **Heapify()** takes  $O(\lg n)$  time
- Thus the total time taken by **Heapsort()**
  - $= O(n) + (n - 1) O(\lg n)$
  - $= O(n) + O(n \lg n)$
  - $= O(n \lg n)$

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## Priority Queues

- Heapsort is a nice algorithm, but in practice Quicksort (coming up) usually wins
- But the heap data structure is incredibly useful for implementing *priority queues*
  - A data structure for maintaining a set  $S$  of elements, each with an associated value or *key*
  - Supports the operations **Insert()**, **Maximum()**, and **ExtractMax()**
  - What might a priority queue be useful for?

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## Priority Queues

- A data structure for maintaining a set  $S$  of elements, each with an associated value called a *key*.
- Applications: scheduling jobs on a shared computer, prioritizing events to be processed based on their predicted time of occurrence.
- Heap can be used to implement a priority queue.

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## Basic Operations

- $\text{Insert}(S, x)$  - inserts the element  $x$  into the set  $S$ , i.e.  $S \rightarrow S \cup \{x\}$
- $\text{Maximum}(S)$  - returns the element of  $S$  with the largest key
- $\text{Extract-Max}(S)$  - removes and returns the element of  $S$  with the largest key

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## Heap-Extract-Max(A)

1. if  $\text{heap-size}[A] < 1$
2. then error "heap underflow"
3.  $\text{max} \leftarrow A[1]$
4.  $A[1] \leftarrow A[\text{heap-size}[A]]$
5.  $\text{heap-size}[A] \leftarrow \text{heap-size}[A] - 1$
6.  $\text{Heapify}(A, 1)$
7. return max

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## Heap-Insert(A, key)

1.  $\text{heap-size}[A] \leftarrow \text{heap-size}[A] + 1$
2.  $i \leftarrow \text{heap-size}[A]$
3. while  $i > 1$  and  $A[\text{Parent}(i)] < \text{key}$
4. do  $A[i] \leftarrow A[\text{Parent}(i)]$
5.  $i \leftarrow \text{Parent}(i)$
6.  $A[i] \leftarrow \text{key}$

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## Running Time

- Running time of Heap-Extract-Max is  $O(\lg n)$ .
  - Performs only a constant amount of work on top of Heapify, which takes  $O(\lg n)$  time
- Running time of Heap-Insert is  $O(\lg n)$ .
  - The path traced from the new leaf to the root has length  $O(\lg n)$ .

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## Examples

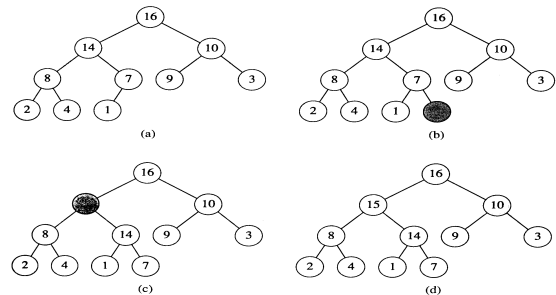


Figure 7.5 The operation of HEAP-INSERT. (a) The heap of Figure 7.4(a) before we insert a node with key 15. (b) A new leaf is added to the tree. (c) Values on the path from the new leaf to the root are copied down until a place for the key 15 is found. (d) The key 15 is inserted.

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