# COMP90038 Algorithms and Complexity

Lecture 13: Priority Queues, Heaps and Heapsort (with thanks to Harald Søndergaard)

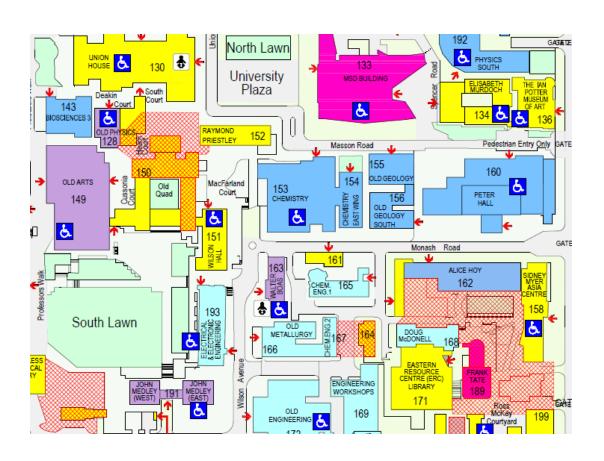
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Peter Hall Building G.83

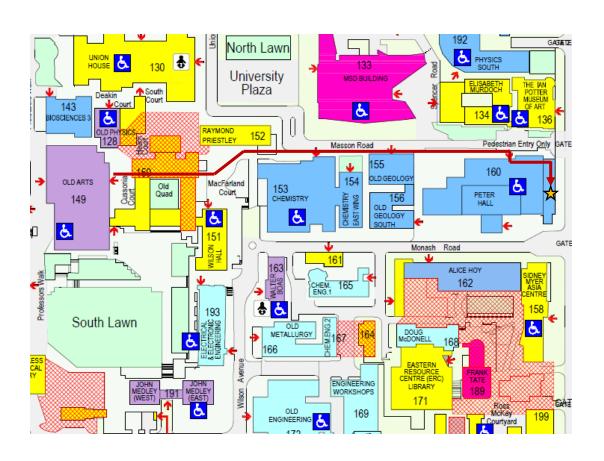
### Where to find me?

 My office is at the Peter Hall building (Room G.83)



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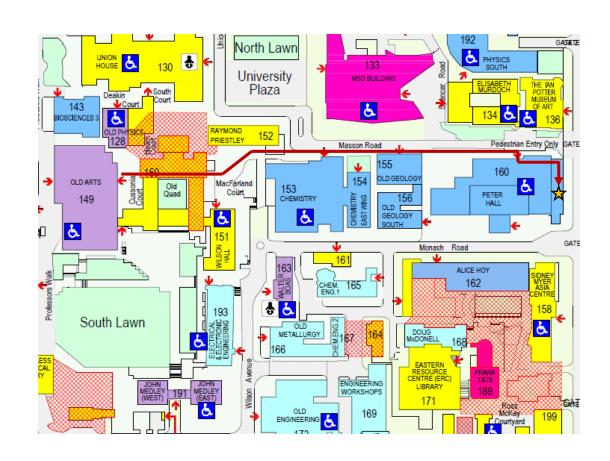
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#### Where to find me?

 My office is at the Peter Hall building (Room G.83)

- Consultation hours:
  - Wednesdays 10:00am-11:00am
  - By appointment on Monday/Friday (limited slots)



### Heaps and Priority Queues

- The heap is a very useful data structure for priority queues, used in many algorithms.
- A priority queue is a **set** (or **pool**) of elements.
- An element is injected into the priority queue together with a priority (often the key value itself) and elements are ejected according to priority.
- We think of the heap as a partially ordered binary tree.
- Since it can easily be maintained as a complete tree, the standard implementation uses an array to represent the tree.

### The Priority Queue

- As an abstract data type, the priority queue supports the following operations on a "pool" of elements (ordered by some linear order):
  - find an item with maximal priority
  - insert a new item with associated priority
  - test whether a priority queue is empty
  - eject the largest element
- Other operations may be relevant, for example:
  - replace the maximal item with some new item
  - construct a priority queue from a list of items
  - **join** two priority queues

### Some Uses of Priority Queues

- **Job scheduling** done by your operating system. The OS will usually have a notion of "importance" of different jobs.
- (Discrete event) **simulation** of complex systems (like traffic, or weather). Here priorities are typically event times.
- Numerical computations involving floating point numbers. Here priorities are measures of computational "error".

• Many sophisticated algorithms make essential use of priority queues (Huffman encoding and many shortest-path algorithms, for example).

### Stacks and Queues as Priority Queues

- Special instances are obtained when we use **time** for priority:
  - If "large" means "late" we obtain the **stack**.
  - If "large" means "early" we obtain the queue.

## Possible Implementations of the Priority Queue

• Assume priority = key.

Unsorted array or list
Sorted array or list **Heap** 

INJECT(e)	EJECT()		
$O(\log n)$	<i>O</i> (log <i>n</i> )		

How is this accomplished?

### The Heap

• A heap is a complete binary tree which satisfies the heap condition:

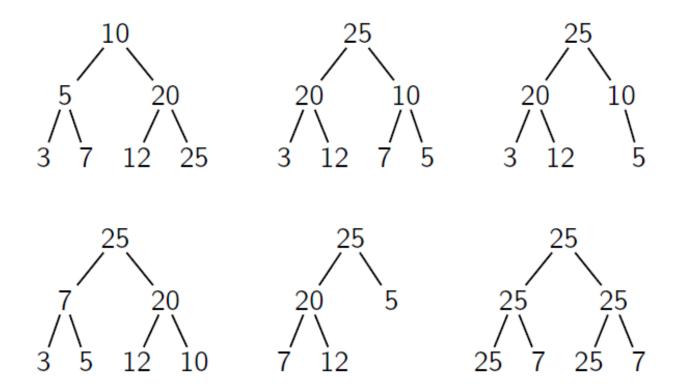
Each child has a priority (key) which is no greater than its parent's.

• This guarantees that the root of the tree is a maximal element.

 (Sometimes we talk about this as a max-heap – one can equally well have min-heaps, in which each child is no smaller than its parent.)

### Heaps and Non-Heaps

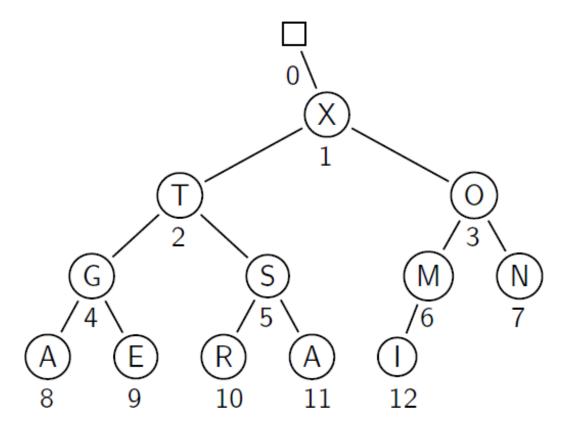
Which of these are heaps?

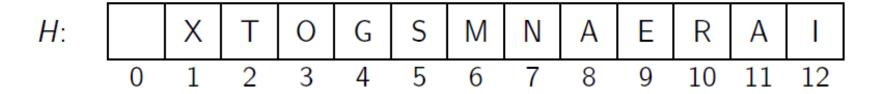


### Heaps as Arrays

• We can utilise the completeness of the tree and place its elements in level-order in an array *H*.

• Note that the children of node *i* will be nodes 2*i* and 2*i* + 1.

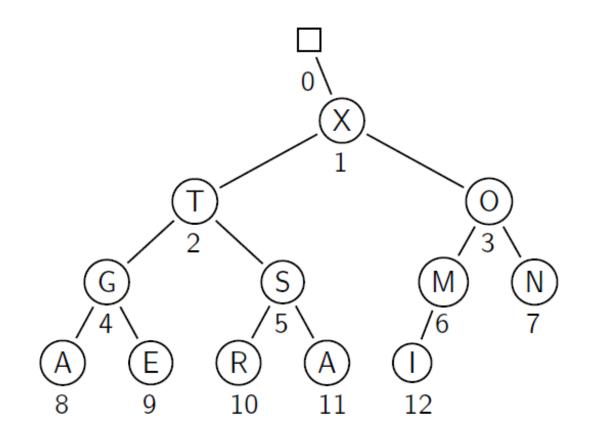


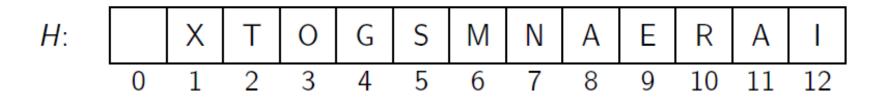


### Heaps as Arrays

 This way, the heap condition is very simple:

• For all  $i \subset \{0,1,...,n\}$ , we must have  $H[i] \leq H[i/2]$ .



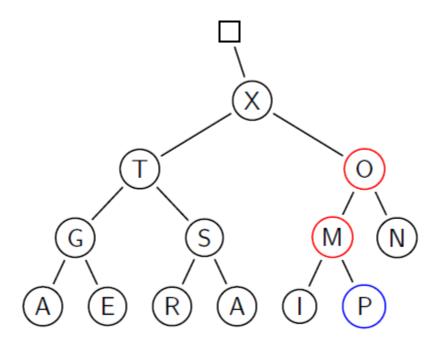


### Properties of the Heap

- The root of the tree H[1] holds a maximal item; the cost of EJECT is O(1) plus time to restore the heap.
- The height of the heap is  $\lfloor \log_2 n \rfloor$ .
- Each subtree is also a heap.
- The children of node i are 2i and 2i+1.
- The nodes which happen to be parents are in array positions 1 to  $\lfloor n/2 \rfloor$ .
- It is easier to understand the heap operations if we think of the heap as a tree.

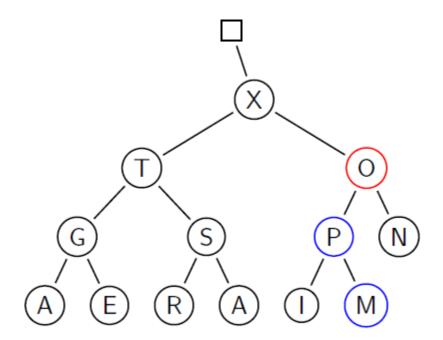
### Injecting a New Item

• Place the new item at the end; then let it "climb up", repeatedly swapping with parents that are smaller:



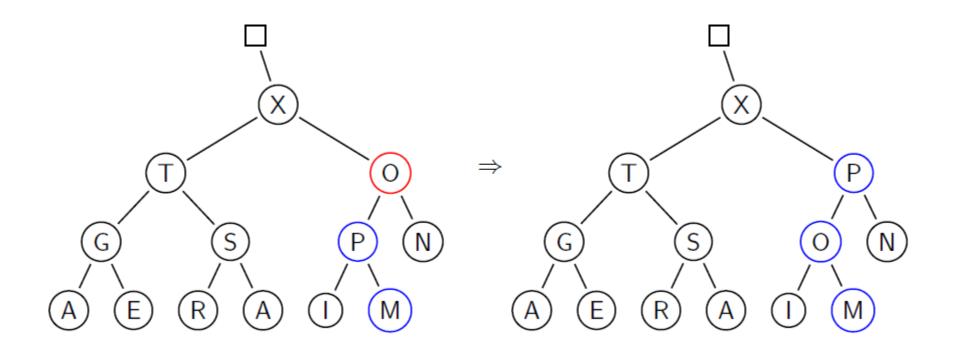
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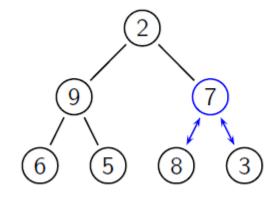
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### Building a Heap Bottom-Up

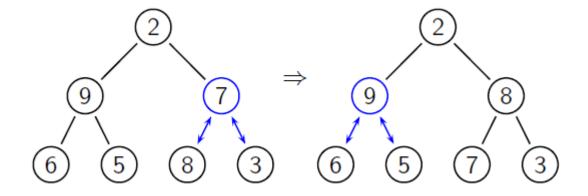
• To construct a heap from an arbitrary set of elements, we can just use the inject operation repeatedly. The construction cost will be *n* log *n*. But there is a better way:



• Start with the last parent and move backwards, in level-order. For each parent node, if the largest child is larger than the parent, swap it with the parent.

### Building a Heap Bottom-Up

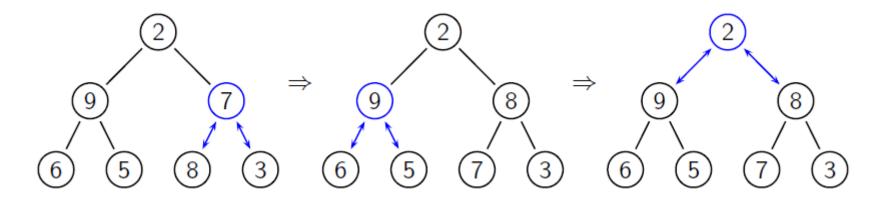
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### Building a Heap Bottom-Up

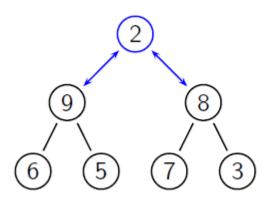
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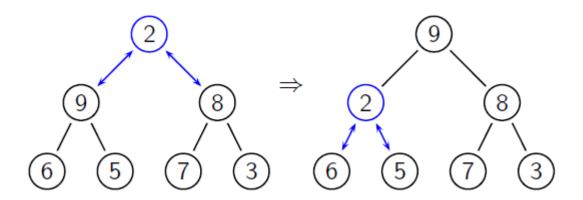
### Building a Heap Bottom-Up: Sifting Down

• Whenever a parent is found to be out of order, let it "sift down" until both children are smaller:



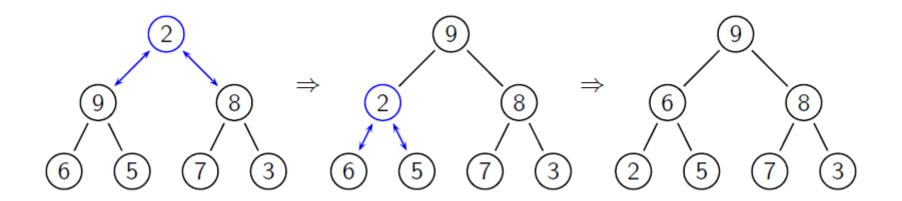
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### Turning $H[1] \dots H[n]$ into a Heap, Bottom-Up

```
for i \leftarrow \lfloor n/2 \rfloor downto 1 do
    k \leftarrow i
     v \leftarrow H[k]
    heap \leftarrow False
    while not heap and 2 \times k \le n do
                                                               \triangleright j is k's left child
         j \leftarrow 2 \times k
         if j < n then
              if H[j] < H[j+1] then
                   j \leftarrow j + 1
                                                         ▷ i is k's largest child
          if v \ge H[j] then
              heap ← True
          else
                                                                   \triangleright Promote H[i]
              H[k] \leftarrow H[j]
              k \leftarrow j
     H[k] \leftarrow v
```

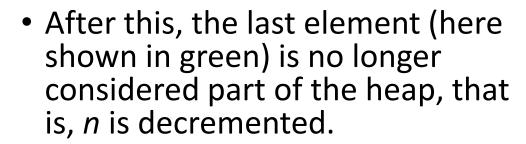
### Analysis of Bottom-Up Heap Creation

• For simplicity, assume the heap is a full binary tree:  $n = 2^{h+1} - 1$ . Here is an upper bound on the number of "down-sifts" needed (consider the root to be at level \$h\$, so leaves are at level 0):

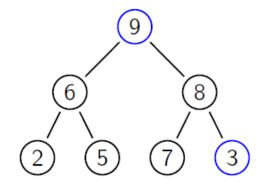
$$\sum_{i=1}^{h} \sum_{\text{podes at level } i} i = \sum_{i=1}^{h} i \cdot 2^{h-i} = 2^{h+1} - h - 2$$

- The last equation is easily proved by mathematical induction.
- Note that  $2^{h+1}$  h 2 < n, so we perform at most a linear number of down-sift operations. Each down-sift is preceded by two key comparisons, so the number of comparisons is also linear.
- Hence we have a **linear-time** algorithm for heap creation.

• Here the idea is to swap the root with the last item z in the heap, and then let z "sift down" to its proper place.

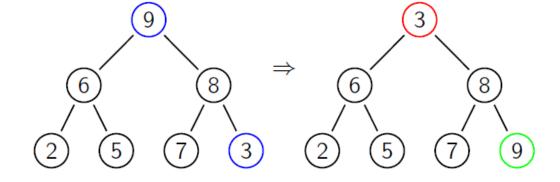


• Clearly ejection is  $O(\log n)$ .



 Here the idea is to swap the root with the last item z in the heap, and then let z "sift down" to its proper place.

• After this, the last element (here shown in green) is no longer considered part of the heap, that is, *n* is decremented.

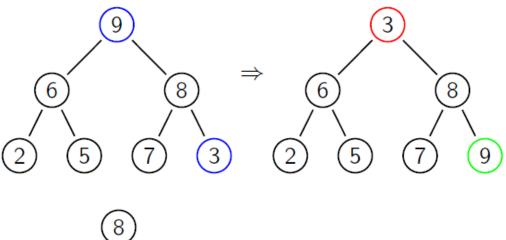


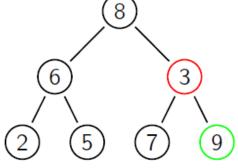
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Clearly ejection is O(log n).

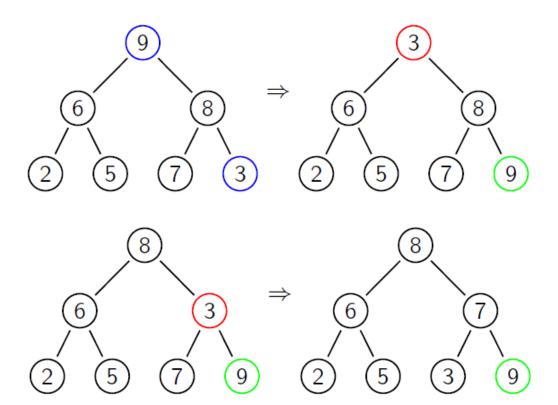




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• After this, the last element (here shown in green) is no longer considered part of the heap, that is, *n* is decremented.

Clearly ejection is O(log n).



### Exercise: Build and Then Deplete a Heap

• First build a heap from the items S, O, R, T, I, N, G.

• Then repeatedly eject the largest, placing it at the end of the heap.

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• First build a heap from the items S, O, R, T, I, N, G.

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 Anything interesting to notice about the tree that used to hold a heap?

• Heapsort is a Θ(n log n) sorting algorithm, based on the idea from this exercise.

• Given an unsorted array *H*[1] ... H[*n*]:

- Step 1: Turn *H* into a heap.
- **Step 2:** Apply the eject operation *n*-1 times.

**Stage 1 (heap construction)** 

2 9 **7** 6 5 <u>8</u>

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2 9 **7** 6 5 <u>8</u> 2 **9** 8 <u>6 5</u> 7

#### **Stage 1 (heap construction)**

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2 **9** 8 6 5 7

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```
291658
```

- 2 **9** 8 6 5 7
- **2** 9 8 6 5 7
- 9 **2** 8 <u>6 5</u> 7

#### **Stage 1 (heap construction)**

```
2 9 7 0 3 0
```

- 2 **9** 8 6 5 7
- **2** 9 8 6 5 7
- 9 **2** 8 <u>6 5</u> 7
- 9 6 8 2 5 7

#### **Stage 1 (heap construction)**

```
2 9 7 6 5 <u>8</u>
2 9 8 <u>6 5</u> 7
2 <u>9</u> 8 6 5 7
9 2 8 6 5 7
```

#### **Stage 2 (maximum deletions)**

**9** 6 8 2 5 <u>7</u>

#### **Stage 1 (heap construction)**

```
2 9 7 6 5 <u>8</u>
2 9 8 <u>6 5</u> 7
2 <u>9</u> 8 6 5 7
9 2 8 6 5 7
```

#### **Stage 2 (maximum deletions)**

**9** 6 8 2 5 <u>7</u> 7 6 8 2 5 | **9** 

#### **Stage 1 (heap construction)**

```
2 9 7 6 5 <u>8</u>
2 9 8 <u>6 5</u> 7
2 9 8 6 5 7
9 2 8 <u>6 5</u> 7
```

			2		
7	6	8	2	5	9
8	6	7	2	5	9

#### **Stage 1 (heap construction)**

```
2 9 7 6 5 <u>8</u>
2 9 8 <u>6 5</u> 7
2 9 8 6 5 7
9 2 8 <u>6 5</u> 7
9 6 8 2 5 7
```

9	6	8	2	5	<u>7</u>
7	6	8	2	5	9
8	6	7	2	<u>5</u>	9
5	6	7	2	8	9

#### **Stage 1 (heap construction)**

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2 9 7 6 5 <u>8</u>
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9 6 8 2 5 7
```

9	6	8	2	5	<u>7</u>
7	6	8	2	5	9
8	6	7	2	<u>5</u>	9
5	6	7	2	8	9
7	6	5	2	8	9
2	6	5 I	7	8	9

#### **Stage 1 (heap construction)**

```
2 9 7 6 5 <u>8</u>
2 9 8 <u>6 5</u> 7
2 9 8 6 5 7
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9	6	8	2	5	<u>7</u>
7	6	8	2	5	9
8	6	7	2	<u>5</u>	9
5	6	7	2	8	9
7	6	5	2	8	9
2	6	5	7	8	9
6	2	<u>5</u>	7	8	9
5	2	6	7	8	9

#### **Stage 1 (heap construction)**

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2 9 7 6 5 <u>8</u>
2 9 8 <u>6 5</u> 7
2 9 8 6 5 7
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```

9	6	8	2	5	<u>7</u>
7	6	8	2	5	- <del>7</del> <b>9</b>
8	6	7 7	2	5   <b>8</b>	9
5	6	7	2	8	9
7	6	5	2	8	9 9
2	6	5	2   <b>7</b>	8	9
6	2 2	5 5 <u>5</u> 	7	8	9
5	2	6	7	8	9 9
5	2	6	7	8	9
9 7 8 5 7 2 6 5 5 2 2	2   <b>5</b> <b>5</b>	6	7	8	9 9
2	5	6 6	7	8	9

### Properties of Heapsort

• On average slower than quicksort, but stronger performance guarantee.

• Truly in-place.

• Not stable.

### Next lecture

- Transform-and-Conquer
  - Pre-sorting (Levitin Section 6.1)