

## 6 Heapsort

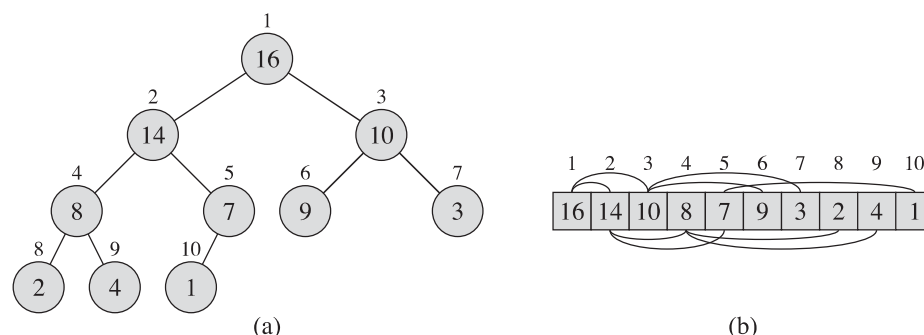
In this chapter, we introduce another sorting algorithm: heapsort. Like merge sort, but unlike insertion sort, heapsort’s running time is  $O(n \lg n)$ . Like insertion sort, but unlike merge sort, heapsort sorts in place: only a constant number of array elements are stored outside the input array at any time. Thus, heapsort combines the better attributes of the two sorting algorithms we have already discussed.

Heapsort also introduces another algorithm design technique: using a data structure, in this case one we call a “heap,” to manage information. Not only is the heap data structure useful for heapsort, but it also makes an efficient priority queue. The heap data structure will reappear in algorithms in later chapters.

The term “heap” was originally coined in the context of heapsort, but it has since come to refer to “garbage-collected storage,” such as the programming languages Java and Lisp provide. Our heap data structure is *not* garbage-collected storage, and whenever we refer to heaps in this book, we shall mean a data structure rather than an aspect of garbage collection.

### 6.1 Heaps

The (*binary*) *heap* data structure is an array object that we can view as a nearly complete binary tree (see Section B.5.3), as shown in Figure 6.1. Each node of the tree corresponds to an element of the array. The tree is completely filled on all levels except possibly the lowest, which is filled from the left up to a point. An array  $A$  that represents a heap is an object with two attributes:  $A.length$ , which (as usual) gives the number of elements in the array, and  $A.heap-size$ , which represents how many elements in the heap are stored within array  $A$ . That is, although  $A[1 \dots A.length]$  may contain numbers, only the elements in  $A[1 \dots A.heap-size]$ , where  $0 \leq A.heap-size \leq A.length$ , are valid elements of the heap. The root of the tree is  $A[1]$ , and given the index  $i$  of a node, we can easily compute the indices of its parent, left child, and right child:



**Figure 6.1** A max-heap viewed as (a) a binary tree and (b) an array. The number within the circle at each node in the tree is the value stored at that node. The number above a node is the corresponding index in the array. Above and below the array are lines showing parent-child relationships; parents are always to the left of their children. The tree has height three; the node at index 4 (with value 8) has height one.

PARENT( $i$ )

1 **return**  $\lfloor i/2 \rfloor$

LEFT( $i$ )

1 **return**  $2i$

RIGHT( $i$ )

1 **return**  $2i + 1$

On most computers, the LEFT procedure can compute  $2i$  in one instruction by simply shifting the binary representation of  $i$  left by one bit position. Similarly, the RIGHT procedure can quickly compute  $2i + 1$  by shifting the binary representation of  $i$  left by one bit position and then adding in a 1 as the low-order bit. The PARENT procedure can compute  $\lfloor i/2 \rfloor$  by shifting  $i$  right one bit position. Good implementations of heapsort often implement these procedures as “macros” or “in-line” procedures.

There are two kinds of binary heaps: max-heaps and min-heaps. In both kinds, the values in the nodes satisfy a *heap property*, the specifics of which depend on the kind of heap. In a *max-heap*, the *max-heap property* is that for every node  $i$  other than the root,

$$A[\text{PARENT}(i)] \geq A[i],$$

that is, the value of a node is at most the value of its parent. Thus, the largest element in a max-heap is stored at the root, and the subtree rooted at a node contains

values no larger than that contained at the node itself. A **min-heap** is organized in the opposite way; the **min-heap property** is that for every node  $i$  other than the root,

$$A[\text{PARENT}(i)] \leq A[i] .$$

The smallest element in a min-heap is at the root.

For the heapsort algorithm, we use max-heaps. Min-heaps commonly implement priority queues, which we discuss in Section 6.5. We shall be precise in specifying whether we need a max-heap or a min-heap for any particular application, and when properties apply to either max-heaps or min-heaps, we just use the term “heap.”

Viewing a heap as a tree, we define the **height** of a node in a heap to be the number of edges on the longest simple downward path from the node to a leaf, and we define the height of the heap to be the height of its root. Since a heap of  $n$  elements is based on a complete binary tree, its height is  $\Theta(\lg n)$  (see Exercise 6.1-2). We shall see that the basic operations on heaps run in time at most proportional to the height of the tree and thus take  $O(\lg n)$  time. The remainder of this chapter presents some basic procedures and shows how they are used in a sorting algorithm and a priority-queue data structure.

- The MAX-HEAPIFY procedure, which runs in  $O(\lg n)$  time, is the key to maintaining the max-heap property.
- The BUILD-MAX-HEAP procedure, which runs in linear time, produces a max-heap from an unordered input array.
- The HEAPSORT procedure, which runs in  $O(n \lg n)$  time, sorts an array in place.
- The MAX-HEAP-INSERT, HEAP-EXTRACT-MAX, HEAP-INCREASE-KEY, and HEAP-MAXIMUM procedures, which run in  $O(\lg n)$  time, allow the heap data structure to implement a priority queue.

## Exercises

### 6.1-1

What are the minimum and maximum numbers of elements in a heap of height  $h$ ?

### 6.1-2

Show that an  $n$ -element heap has height  $\lfloor \lg n \rfloor$ .

### 6.1-3

Show that in any subtree of a max-heap, the root of the subtree contains the largest value occurring anywhere in that subtree.

**6.1-4**

Where in a max-heap might the smallest element reside, assuming that all elements are distinct?

**6.1-5**

Is an array that is in sorted order a min-heap?

**6.1-6**

Is the array with values  $\langle 23, 17, 14, 6, 13, 10, 1, 5, 7, 12 \rangle$  a max-heap?

**6.1-7**

Show that, with the array representation for storing an  $n$ -element heap, the leaves are the nodes indexed by  $\lfloor n/2 \rfloor + 1, \lfloor n/2 \rfloor + 2, \dots, n$ .

## 6.2 Maintaining the heap property

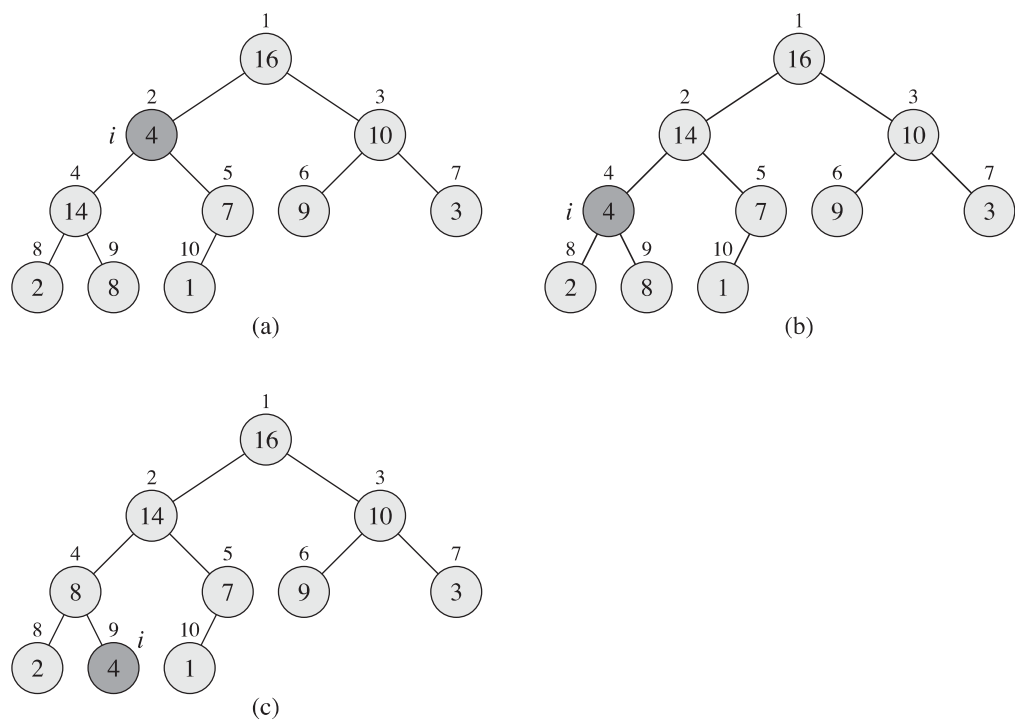
In order to maintain the max-heap property, we call the procedure MAX-HEAPIFY. Its inputs are an array  $A$  and an index  $i$  into the array. When it is called, MAX-HEAPIFY assumes that the binary trees rooted at  $\text{LEFT}(i)$  and  $\text{RIGHT}(i)$  are max-heaps, but that  $A[i]$  might be smaller than its children, thus violating the max-heap property. MAX-HEAPIFY lets the value at  $A[i]$  “float down” in the max-heap so that the subtree rooted at index  $i$  obeys the max-heap property.

MAX-HEAPIFY( $A, i$ )

```

1   $l = \text{LEFT}(i)$ 
2   $r = \text{RIGHT}(i)$ 
3  if  $l \leq A.\text{heap-size}$  and  $A[l] > A[i]$ 
4       $\text{largest} = l$ 
5  else  $\text{largest} = i$ 
6  if  $r \leq A.\text{heap-size}$  and  $A[r] > A[\text{largest}]$ 
7       $\text{largest} = r$ 
8  if  $\text{largest} \neq i$ 
9      exchange  $A[i]$  with  $A[\text{largest}]$ 
10     MAX-HEAPIFY( $A, \text{largest}$ )
```

Figure 6.2 illustrates the action of MAX-HEAPIFY. At each step, the largest of the elements  $A[i]$ ,  $A[\text{LEFT}(i)]$ , and  $A[\text{RIGHT}(i)]$  is determined, and its index is stored in  $\text{largest}$ . If  $A[i]$  is largest, then the subtree rooted at node  $i$  is already a max-heap and the procedure terminates. Otherwise, one of the two children has the largest element, and  $A[i]$  is swapped with  $A[\text{largest}]$ , which causes node  $i$  and its



**Figure 6.2** The action of  $\text{MAX-HEAPIFY}(A, 2)$ , where  $A.\text{heap-size} = 10$ . (a) The initial configuration, with  $A[2]$  at node  $i = 2$  violating the max-heap property since it is not larger than both children. The max-heap property is restored for node 2 in (b) by exchanging  $A[2]$  with  $A[4]$ , which destroys the max-heap property for node 4. The recursive call  $\text{MAX-HEAPIFY}(A, 4)$  now has  $i = 4$ . After swapping  $A[4]$  with  $A[9]$ , as shown in (c), node 4 is fixed up, and the recursive call  $\text{MAX-HEAPIFY}(A, 9)$  yields no further change to the data structure.

children to satisfy the max-heap property. The node indexed by *largest*, however, now has the original value  $A[i]$ , and thus the subtree rooted at *largest* might violate the max-heap property. Consequently, we call  $\text{MAX-HEAPIFY}$  recursively on that subtree.

The running time of  $\text{MAX-HEAPIFY}$  on a subtree of size  $n$  rooted at a given node  $i$  is the  $\Theta(1)$  time to fix up the relationships among the elements  $A[i]$ ,  $A[\text{LEFT}(i)]$ , and  $A[\text{RIGHT}(i)]$ , plus the time to run  $\text{MAX-HEAPIFY}$  on a subtree rooted at one of the children of node  $i$  (assuming that the recursive call occurs). The children's subtrees each have size at most  $2n/3$ —the worst case occurs when the bottom level of the tree is exactly half full—and therefore we can describe the running time of  $\text{MAX-HEAPIFY}$  by the recurrence

$$T(n) \leq T(2n/3) + \Theta(1).$$

The solution to this recurrence, by case 2 of the master theorem (Theorem 4.1), is  $T(n) = O(\lg n)$ . Alternatively, we can characterize the running time of MAX-HEAPIFY on a node of height  $h$  as  $O(h)$ .

## Exercises

### 6.2-1

Using Figure 6.2 as a model, illustrate the operation of MAX-HEAPIFY( $A, 3$ ) on the array  $A = \langle 27, 17, 3, 16, 13, 10, 1, 5, 7, 12, 4, 8, 9, 0 \rangle$ .

### 6.2-2

Starting with the procedure MAX-HEAPIFY, write pseudocode for the procedure MIN-HEAPIFY( $A, i$ ), which performs the corresponding manipulation on a min-heap. How does the running time of MIN-HEAPIFY compare to that of MAX-HEAPIFY?

### 6.2-3

What is the effect of calling MAX-HEAPIFY( $A, i$ ) when the element  $A[i]$  is larger than its children?

### 6.2-4

What is the effect of calling MAX-HEAPIFY( $A, i$ ) for  $i > A.heap\text{-}size/2$ ?

### 6.2-5

The code for MAX-HEAPIFY is quite efficient in terms of constant factors, except possibly for the recursive call in line 10, which might cause some compilers to produce inefficient code. Write an efficient MAX-HEAPIFY that uses an iterative control construct (a loop) instead of recursion.

### 6.2-6

Show that the worst-case running time of MAX-HEAPIFY on a heap of size  $n$  is  $\Omega(\lg n)$ . (*Hint:* For a heap with  $n$  nodes, give node values that cause MAX-HEAPIFY to be called recursively at every node on a simple path from the root down to a leaf.)

## 6.3 Building a heap

We can use the procedure MAX-HEAPIFY in a bottom-up manner to convert an array  $A[1..n]$ , where  $n = A.length$ , into a max-heap. By Exercise 6.1-7, the elements in the subarray  $A[(\lfloor n/2 \rfloor + 1) .. n]$  are all leaves of the tree, and so each is

a 1-element heap to begin with. The procedure BUILD-MAX-HEAP goes through the remaining nodes of the tree and runs MAX-HEAPIFY on each one.

BUILD-MAX-HEAP( $A$ )

```

1   $A.heap-size = A.length$ 
2  for  $i = \lfloor A.length/2 \rfloor$  downto 1
3      MAX-HEAPIFY( $A, i$ )
```

Figure 6.3 shows an example of the action of BUILD-MAX-HEAP.

To show why BUILD-MAX-HEAP works correctly, we use the following loop invariant:

At the start of each iteration of the **for** loop of lines 2–3, each node  $i + 1$ ,  $i + 2, \dots, n$  is the root of a max-heap.

We need to show that this invariant is true prior to the first loop iteration, that each iteration of the loop maintains the invariant, and that the invariant provides a useful property to show correctness when the loop terminates.

**Initialization:** Prior to the first iteration of the loop,  $i = \lfloor n/2 \rfloor$ . Each node  $\lfloor n/2 \rfloor + 1, \lfloor n/2 \rfloor + 2, \dots, n$  is a leaf and is thus the root of a trivial max-heap.

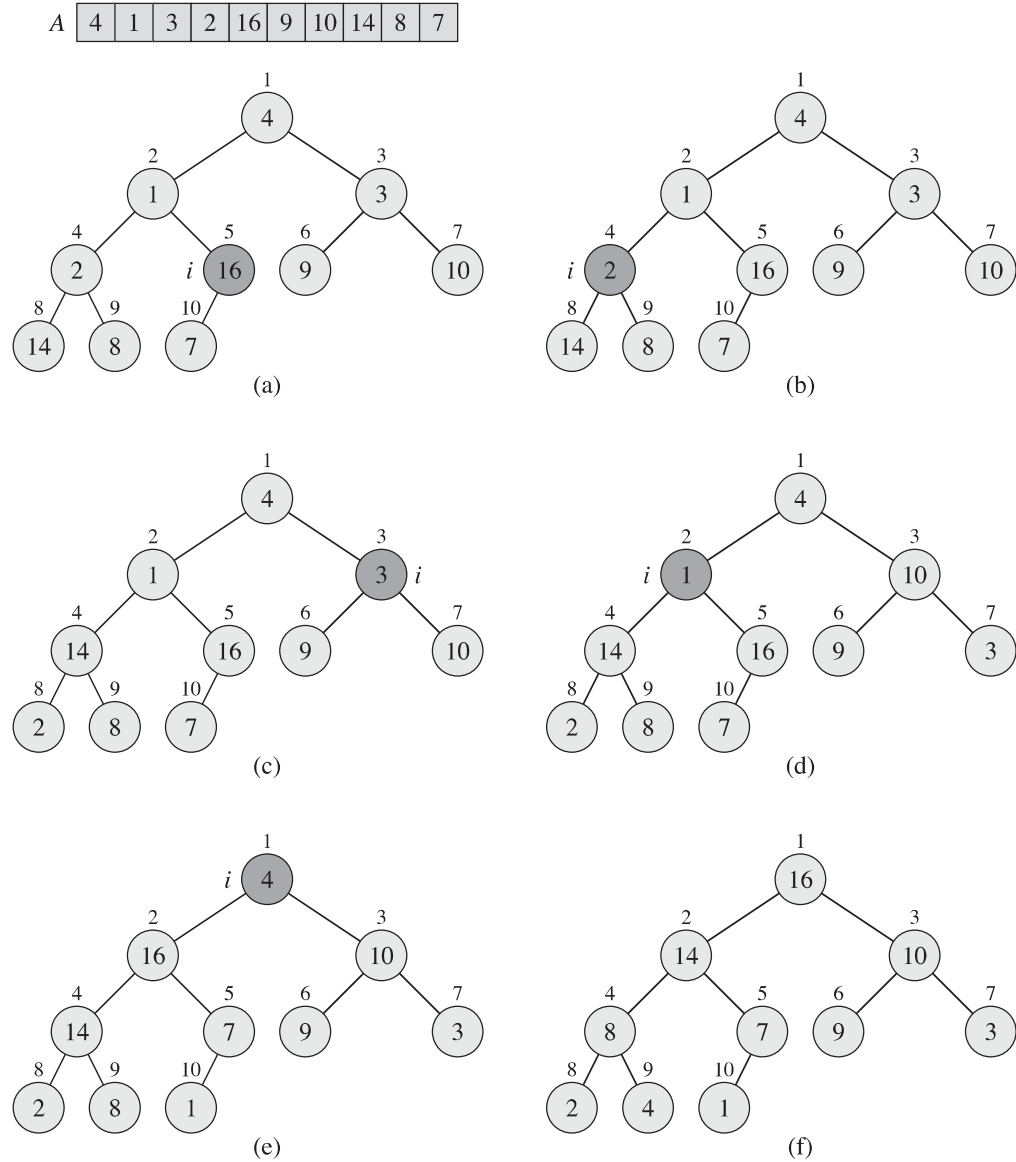
**Maintenance:** To see that each iteration maintains the loop invariant, observe that the children of node  $i$  are numbered higher than  $i$ . By the loop invariant, therefore, they are both roots of max-heaps. This is precisely the condition required for the call MAX-HEAPIFY( $A, i$ ) to make node  $i$  a max-heap root. Moreover, the MAX-HEAPIFY call preserves the property that nodes  $i + 1, i + 2, \dots, n$  are all roots of max-heaps. Decrementing  $i$  in the **for** loop update reestablishes the loop invariant for the next iteration.

**Termination:** At termination,  $i = 0$ . By the loop invariant, each node  $1, 2, \dots, n$  is the root of a max-heap. In particular, node 1 is.

We can compute a simple upper bound on the running time of BUILD-MAX-HEAP as follows. Each call to MAX-HEAPIFY costs  $O(\lg n)$  time, and BUILD-MAX-HEAP makes  $O(n)$  such calls. Thus, the running time is  $O(n \lg n)$ . This upper bound, though correct, is not asymptotically tight.

We can derive a tighter bound by observing that the time for MAX-HEAPIFY to run at a node varies with the height of the node in the tree, and the heights of most nodes are small. Our tighter analysis relies on the properties that an  $n$ -element heap has height  $\lceil \lg n \rceil$  (see Exercise 6.1-2) and at most  $\lceil n/2^{h+1} \rceil$  nodes of any height  $h$  (see Exercise 6.3-3).

The time required by MAX-HEAPIFY when called on a node of height  $h$  is  $O(h)$ , and so we can express the total cost of BUILD-MAX-HEAP as being bounded from above by



**Figure 6.3** The operation of BUILD-MAX-HEAP, showing the data structure before the call to MAX-HEAPIFY in line 3 of BUILD-MAX-HEAP. **(a)** A 10-element input array  $A$  and the binary tree it represents. The figure shows that the loop index  $i$  refers to node 5 before the call MAX-HEAPIFY( $A, i$ ). **(b)** The data structure that results. The loop index  $i$  for the next iteration refers to node 4. **(c)–(e)** Subsequent iterations of the **for** loop in BUILD-MAX-HEAP. Observe that whenever MAX-HEAPIFY is called on a node, the two subtrees of that node are both max-heaps. **(f)** The max-heap after BUILD-MAX-HEAP finishes.



$$\sum_{h=0}^{\lfloor \lg n \rfloor} \left\lceil \frac{n}{2^{h+1}} \right\rceil O(h) = O \left( n \sum_{h=0}^{\lfloor \lg n \rfloor} \frac{h}{2^h} \right).$$

We evaluate the last summation by substituting  $x = 1/2$  in the formula (A.8), yielding

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{h=0}^{\infty} \frac{h}{2^h} &= \frac{1/2}{(1 - 1/2)^2} \\ &= 2. \end{aligned}$$

Thus, we can bound the running time of BUILD-MAX-HEAP as

$$\begin{aligned} O \left( n \sum_{h=0}^{\lfloor \lg n \rfloor} \frac{h}{2^h} \right) &= O \left( n \sum_{h=0}^{\infty} \frac{h}{2^h} \right) \\ &= O(n). \end{aligned}$$

Hence, we can build a max-heap from an unordered array in linear time.

We can build a min-heap by the procedure BUILD-MIN-HEAP, which is the same as BUILD-MAX-HEAP but with the call to MAX-HEAPIFY in line 3 replaced by a call to MIN-HEAPIFY (see Exercise 6.2-2). BUILD-MIN-HEAP produces a min-heap from an unordered linear array in linear time.

## Exercises

### 6.3-1

Using Figure 6.3 as a model, illustrate the operation of BUILD-MAX-HEAP on the array  $A = \langle 5, 3, 17, 10, 84, 19, 6, 22, 9 \rangle$ .

### 6.3-2

Why do we want the loop index  $i$  in line 2 of BUILD-MAX-HEAP to decrease from  $\lfloor A.length/2 \rfloor$  to 1 rather than increase from 1 to  $\lfloor A.length/2 \rfloor$ ?

### 6.3-3

Show that there are at most  $\lceil n/2^{h+1} \rceil$  nodes of height  $h$  in any  $n$ -element heap.

## 6.4 The heapsort algorithm

The heapsort algorithm starts by using BUILD-MAX-HEAP to build a max-heap on the input array  $A[1..n]$ , where  $n = A.length$ . Since the maximum element of the array is stored at the root  $A[1]$ , we can put it into its correct final position