Lecture 5: Binary heaps

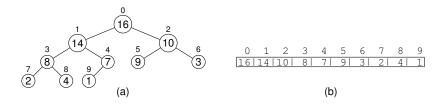
Sorting algorithms: Heapsort and Quicksort

- array A of objects with 2 special attributes: A.length and A.heap_size.
- it represents a complete binary tree with A.heap_size nodes
 - The tree is completely filled on all levels except possibly the lowest, which is filled from left to right
 - A.length represents the maximum number of nodes of the tree. Therefore, A.heap_size
 < A.length
- The index of the parent, left child, and right child of a node with index *i* are computed as follows:

$$parent(i) := \begin{cases} \lfloor (i-1)/2 \rfloor & \text{if } i \neq 0 \\ -1 & \text{if } i = 0 \end{cases}$$
$$left(i) := 2 \cdot i + 1$$
$$right(i) := 2 \cdot i + 2$$

• The heap property must hold: $A[parent(i)] \ge A[i]$ for all $i \ne 0$.

Binary heaps: Example



A 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 next to a node is the corresponding index in the array.

AUXILIARY NOTIONS

- height of a node in a tree := number of edges from the tree to a leaf.
- height of the tree := height of the root of the tree.



Remarks

- The height of a binary heap is $\Theta(\log_2(n))$ obvious.
- FIND / INSERT / REMOVE operations in binary heaps take $O(\log_2(n))$ time we shall prove this.
- We are interested in the efficient implementation of:
 - \bullet HEAPIFY(A, i)
 - 2 BUILDHEAP(A)
 - HEAPSORT(A)
 - EXTRACTMAX(A)
 - INSERT(A, key)

The purpose of these procedures will be explained later.

$\mathsf{HEAPIFY}(A, i)$

- Takes as input an array A and an index i, such that
 - the subtrees rooted at *left(i)* and *right(i)* are binary heaps.
 - The subtree rooted at i may not be a binary heap, because A[i] is smaller than its children.
- Rearranges the elements of A by letting A[i] "float down" so that the subtree rooted at index i becomes a binary heap.

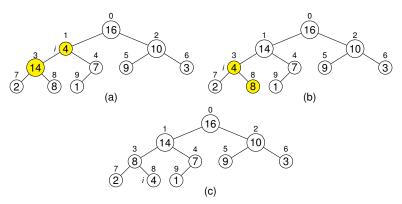
Thus, the purpose of HEAPIFY is to maintain the heap property of an array of values.

$\mathsf{HEAPIFY}(A, i)$

```
\mathsf{HEAPIFY}(A, i)
 1 I := left(i)
 2 r := right(i)
 3 if I < A.heap size and A[I] > A[i]
 4 largest := l
 5 else largest := i
 6 if r < A.heap\_size and A[r] > A[largest]
     largest := r
 8 if largest \neq i
    exchange A[i] \leftrightarrow A[largest]
10 HEAPIFY(A, largest)
```

Example

The action of HEAPIFY(A, 1), where $A.heap_size = 10$. Configuration (a) lacks heap property at index 1. The heap property for index 1 is restored in (b) by exchanging A[1] with A[3], which destroys the heap property for index 3. There recursive call HEAPIFY(A, 3) sets i = 3, swaps A[3] $\leftrightarrow A$ [8] as shown in (c), and the recursive call HEAPIFY(A, 8) yields no further change to the data structure.



Properties of HEAPIFY

- The running time complexity of HEAPIFY(A, i) is O(h), where h is the height of node with index i.
- \Rightarrow In general, the running time of HEAPIFY(A, i) is $O(\log_2(n))$.
- For a proof, check the references.

Building a binary heap BUILDHEAP (A)

- Rearranges the elements of an array A, to have the binary heap property.
- The rearrangement is achieved by successive runs of $\mathsf{HEAPIFY}(A, i)$

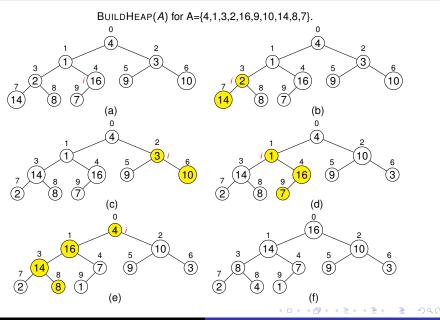
```
BuildHeap(A)
```

- heap size(A) := A.length
- for i := |(A.length 1)/2| downto 0
- HEAPIFY(A, i)3

Remarks

- The order in which the nodes are processed guarantees that the subtrees rooted at children of a node i are heaps before HEAPIFY is run at that node.
- There are O(n) calls of HEAPIFY(A, i), which has time complexity $O(\log_2 n) \Rightarrow$ time complexity $O(n \log_2 n)$.
- Tighter bound of the total runtime of step 3: O(n) (see refs.)

Example



The Heapsort algorithm

HEAPSORT(A) rearranges the elements of an array A in ascending order, using the following method:

- Call BuildHeap(A) \Rightarrow a heap on the elements of the array A[0..n-1]
- A[0] is the maximum element of A
 - ▶ exchange $A[0] \leftrightarrow A[n-1]$, to place A[0] into its correct final position.
- Obscard A[n-1] from the heap by decrementing A.heap_size. We still have to sort A[0..n-2]
 - A[0..n 2] is almost a binary heap: 0 is the only index that may violate the heap property.
 - We run $\mathsf{HEAPIFY}(A,0)$ to rearrange A[0..n-2] into binary heap.
 - The Heapsort algorithm repeats this process for the heap of size n-1 down to a heap of size 2.



Heapsort

```
HEAPSORT(A)

1 BUILDHEAP(A)

2 for i := A.length - 1 downto 1

3 exchange A[0] \leftrightarrow A[i]

4 A.heap\_size := A.heap\_size - 1

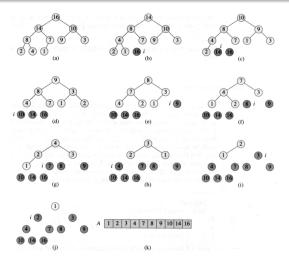
5 HEAPIFY(A, 0)
```

TIME COMPLEXITY ANALYSIS

- BuildHeap(A) takes O(n) time.
- There are n-1 calls to HEAPIFY(A, 0), and each one takes $O(log_2n)$ time.
- \Rightarrow HEAPSORT(A) takes $O(n \log_2 n)$ time, where n = A.length.



Heapsort – running example



(a) The heap data structure just after it has been built by BUILDHEAP. (b)—(j) The heap just after each call of HEAPIFY in line 5. The value of *i* at that time is shown. Only lightly shaded nodes remain in the heap. (k) The resulting sorted array A.

Priority queues

A priority queue is a data structure for maintaining a set S of elements, each with an associated value called a key. It is intended to support efficient execution of the following operations:

- INSERT(S, x): inserts the element x into a set S. We denote this operation by $S := S \cup \{x\}$.
- MAXIMUM(S): returns the element of S with the largest key.
- EXTRACTMAX(S): removes and returns the element of S
 with the largest key.

Applications of priority queues

- Job scheduling on a shared resource
 - The queue keeps track of jobs to be performed, and their relative priorities.
 - When a job is finished or interrupted, the highest-priority job is selected from the queue, using EXTRACTMAX
 - New jobs can be added at any time using INSERT
- Event-driven simulation: time of event occurrence serves as its key.

Priority queues

Can be implemented efficiently using binary heaps.

```
EXTRACTMAX(A)

1 if A.heap_size < 1

2 error "heap underflow"

3 max := A[0]

4 A[0] := A[A.heap_size - 1]

5 A.heap_size := A.heap_size - 1

6 HEAPIFY(A, 0)

7 return max
```

Running time analysis

- HEAPIFY(A, 0) takes O(log₂ n) time
 - \Rightarrow EXTRACTMAX(A) takes $O(\log_2 n)$ time.

Priority queues INSERT(A, key)

INSERT(A, key) inserts a node into a binary heap A:

- First, it expands the heap by adding a new leaf to the tree.
- Then, it traverses a path from this leaf toward the root, to find a proper place for the new element.

```
INSERT(A, key)

1   A.heap\_size := A.heap\_size + 1

2   i := A.heap\_size - 1

3   while i > 0 and A[parent(i)] < key

4   A[i] := A[parent(i)]

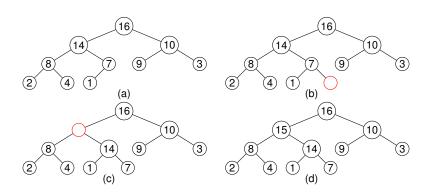
5   i := parent(i)

6   A[i] := key
```

Running time analysis

• The path traced from the new leaf to the root has length $O(\log_2 n) \Rightarrow \mathsf{HEAPINSERT}(A, key)$ takes $O(\log_2 n)$ time, where $n = A.heap_size$.

Priority queues INSERT(A, key) illustrated



- (a) The heap 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) Key 15 is inserted into the tree.

Quicksort Properties

- Sorting algorithm with worst-case running time $\Theta(n^2)$ on an input array of n numbers.
- Very efficient on average: $\Theta(n \log n)$
- Often, the best practical choice for sorting

3-step divide-and-conquer algorithm for sorting a subarray A[p..r]

Divide: The subarray A[p..r] is partitioned (rearranged) into two nonempty subarrays A[p..q], A[q+1..r] such that

• The elements of A[p..q] are smaller than the elements of A[q+1..r]

The index q is computed as part of this partitioning procedure.

Conquer: The subarrays A[p..q] and A[q + 1..r] are sorted by recursive calls to quicksort.

Combine: Since the subarrays are sorted in place, no work is needed to combine them: the entire array A[p..r] is now sorted.

```
QUICKSORT(A, p, r)

1. if p < r

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

3. QUICKSORT(A, p, q)

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

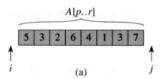
Partitioning the array

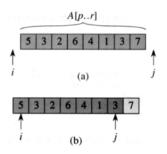
```
PARTITION(A, p, r)
  1 x \leftarrow A[p]
  2 \quad i \leftarrow p-1
  j \leftarrow r+1
  4 while TRUE
            do repeat j \leftarrow j-1
                  until A[j] \leq x
                repeat i \leftarrow i + 1
                  until A[i] \geq x
 9
                if i < j
10
                   then exchange A[i] \leftrightarrow A[j]
11
                   else return j
```

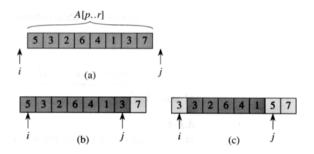
- ▶ Element x = A[p] from A[p..r] is selected as pivot around which to partition A[p..r].
- ➤ The while loop grows two regions A[p..i] and A[j..r] from the top and bottom of A[p..r], respectively, such that
 - Every element in A[p..i] is less than or equal to x.
 - Every element in A[j..r] is greater than or equal to x.

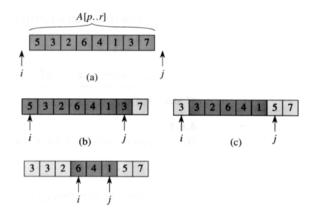
Initially, i = p - 1 and j = r + 1, so the two regions are empty.

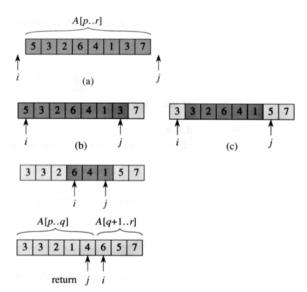
- Within the while loop, index j is decremented and index i is incremented, in lines 5-8, until A[i] ≥ x ≥ A[j].
 - By exchanging A[i] and A[j], the two regions can be extended.
- ▶ The **while** loop repeats until $i \ge j$, at which point the entire array A[p..r] has been partitioned into two subarrays A[p..q] and A[q+1..r] where $p \le q < r$, such that all elements in A[p..q] are smaller than or equal to any element in A[q+1..r].
- ▶ The value q = j is returned at the end of the procedure.











- The running time of PARTITION on an array A[p..r] is $\Theta(r-p+1)$.
- Worst case behavior happens when the partitioning alway produces one partition with 1 element, and the other with all the rest. In this case:
 - Partitioning an array of size n takes $\Theta(n)$ time and $T(1) = \Theta(1)$.
 - The recurrence relation is $T(n) = T(n-1) + \Theta(n-1) = \dots = \sum_{k=1}^{n} \Theta(k) = \Theta(\sum_{k=1}^{n} k) = \Theta(n^2)$.
 - \Rightarrow in the worst case, the running time is $\Theta(n^2)$.
- Best case is when the partitioning produces regions of equal size \Rightarrow the recurrence relation $T(n) = 2 T(n/2) + \Theta(n)$.
 - ⇒ $T(n) = \Theta(n \log n)$ (*Cf.* the Master Theorem)

References

Chapters 7 (Heapsort) and 8 (Quicksort) from the book

 Thomas H. Cormen, Charles E. Leiserson, Ronald L. Rivest. Introduction to Algorithms. McGraw Hill, 2000.