Lecture 5: Binary heaps Sorting algorithms: Heapsort and Quicksort



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- 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 := maximum number of edges from that node 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(log₂(n)) time we shall prove this.
- We are interested in the efficient implementation of:
 - HEAPIFY(A, i)
 - BUILDHEAP(A)
 - HEAPSORT(A)
 - EXTRACTMAX(A)
 - INSERT(A, key)

The purpose of these procedures will be explained later.

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- 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.

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HEAPIFY(A, i)1 I := left(i)2 r := right(i)3 if I < A. heap size and A[I] > A[i]4 largest := l5 else largest := i6 if r < A.heap_size and A[r] > A[largest]largest := r7 8 if largest \neq i 9 exchange $A[i] \leftrightarrow A[largest]$

10 HEAPIFY(*A*, *largest*)

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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.



- 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.

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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 HEAPIFY(A, i)

BUILDHEAP(A)

- 1 $heap_size(A) := A.length$
- 2 for $i := \lfloor (A.length 1)/2 \rfloor$ downto 0
- 3 HEAPIFY(A, i)

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(log₂ n) ⇒ time complexity O(n log₂ n).
- Tighter bound of the total runtime of step 3: O(n) (see refs.)

Example



Lecture 5: Binary heaps

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.
- So Discard 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 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.

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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)
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TIME COMPLEXITY ANALYSIS

- BUILDHEAP(A) takes O(n) time.
- There are n 1 calls to HEAPIFY(A, 0), and each one takes O(log₂n) time.
- \Rightarrow HEAPSORT(A) takes $O(n \log_2 n)$ time, where n = A.length.

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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 ∪ {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.

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.

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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.

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INSERT(A, key)
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- 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 $O(\log_2 n) \Rightarrow \text{HEAPINSERT}(A, key)$ 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.

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- Sorting algorithm with worst-case running time ⊖(n²) on an input array of *n* numbers.
- Very efficient on average: $\Theta(n \log n)$
- Often, the best practical choice for sorting

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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.

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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

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PARTITION(A, p, r)
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1 x \leftarrow A[p]
 2 \quad i \leftarrow p - 1
 j \leftarrow r+1
 4 while TRUE
 5
            do repeat j \leftarrow j - 1
 6
                  until A[j] \leq x
 7
                repeat i \leftarrow i + 1
 8
                  until A[i] \ge x
 9
                if i < j
10
                   then exchange A[i] \leftrightarrow A[j]
11
                   else return j
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- 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 ≥ 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 ≤ q < r, such that all elements in A[p..q] are smaller than or equal to any element in A[q + 1..r].</p>
- The value q = j is returned at the end of the procedure.

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- 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 $T(n) = T(n-1) + \Theta(n-1) =$... = $\sum_{k=1}^{n} \Theta(k) = \Theta(\sum_{k=1}^{n} k) = \Theta(n^2).$

 \Rightarrow in the worst case, the running time is $\Theta(n^2)$.

- Best case is when the partitioning produces regions of equal size ⇒ the recurrence relation T(n) = 2 T(n/2) + Θ(n).
 - $\Rightarrow T(n) = \Theta(n \log n)$ (*Cf.* the Master Theorem)

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

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

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