## **CE100 Algorithms and Programming II**

Week-4 (Heap/Heap Sort)

Spring Semester, 2021-2022

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### Heap/Heap Sort

#### Outline (1)

- Heaps
  - Max / Min Heap
- Heap Data Structure
  - Heapify
    - Iterative
    - Recursive



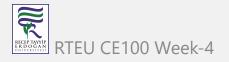
# Outline (2)

- Extract-Max
- Build Heap



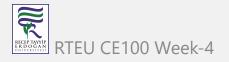
### Outline (3)

- Heap Sort
- Priority Queues
- Linked Lists
- Radix Sort
- Counting Sort



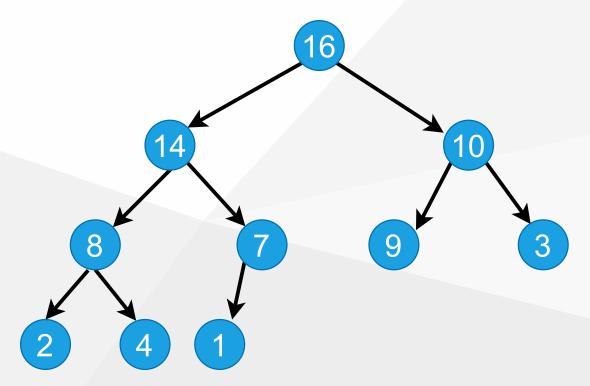
#### Heapsort

- Worst-case runtime: O(nlgn)
- Sorts in-place
- Uses a special data structure (heap) to manage information during execution of the algorithm
  - Another design paradigm



## **Heap Data Structure (1)**

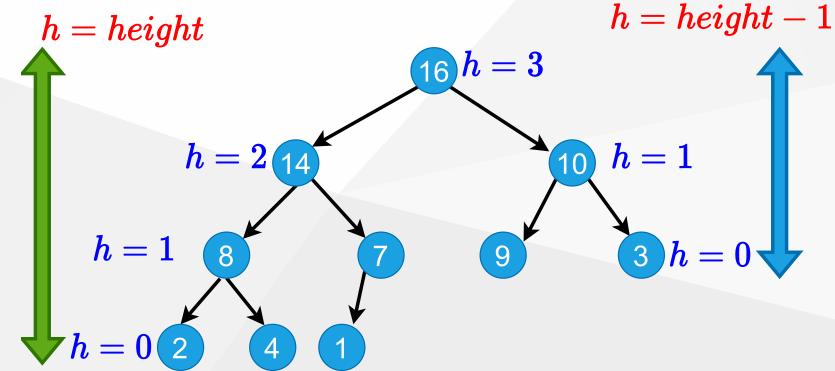
- Nearly complete binary tree
  - Completely filled on all levels except possibly the lowest level





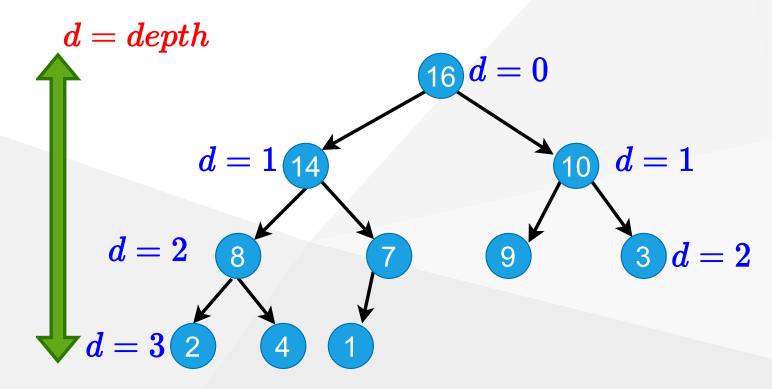
#### **Heap Data Structure (2)**

- Height of node i: Length of the longest simple downward path from i to a leaf
- Height of the tree: height of the root



#### **Heap Data Structures (3)**

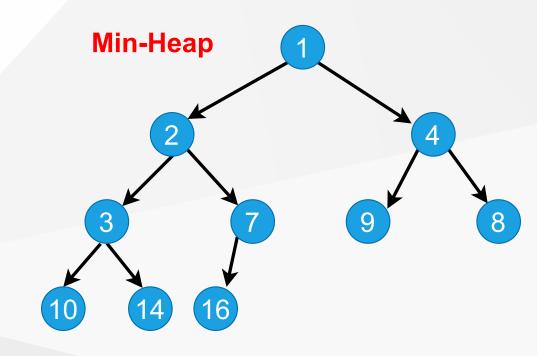
• Depth of node i: Length of the simple downward path from the root to node i





#### **Heap Property: Min-Heap**

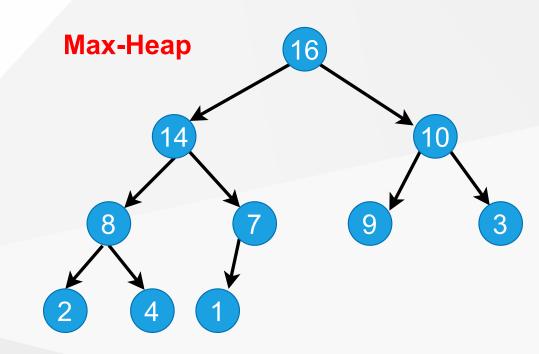
- The smallest element in any subtree is the root element in a min-heap
- Min heap: For every node i other than root,  $A[parent(i)] \leq A[i]$ 
  - Parent node is always smaller than the child nodes





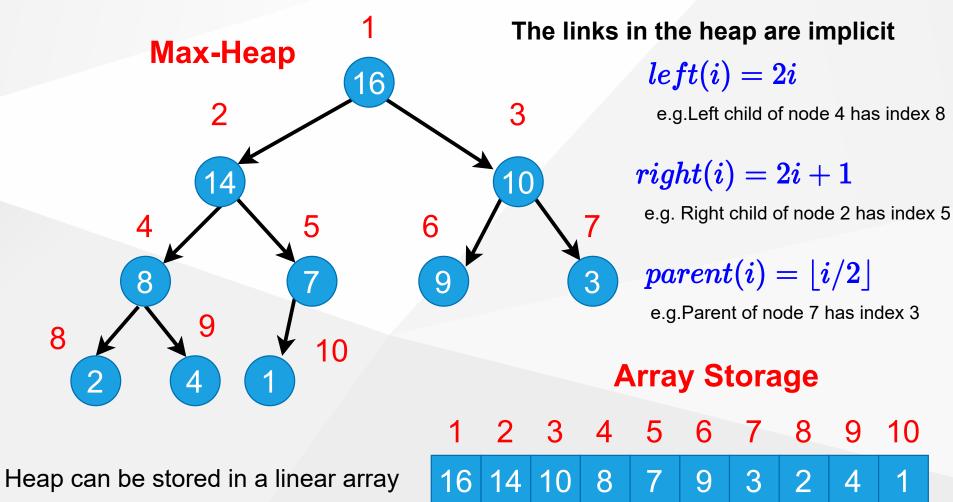
#### Heap Property: Max-Heap

- The largest element in any subtree is the root element in a max-heap
  - We will focus on max-heaps
- ullet Max heap: For every node  ${f i}$  other than root,  $A[parent(i)] \geq A[i]$ 
  - Parent node is always larger than the child nodes





#### **Heap Data Structures (4)**



#### **Heap Data Structures (5)**

- Computing left child, right child, and parent indices very fast
  - **left(i) = 2i** ⇒ binary left shift
  - ∘ right(i) = 2i+1 ⇒ binary left shift, then set the lowest bit to 1
  - o parent(i) = floor(i/2) => right shift in binary
- ullet A[1] is always the **root** element
- ullet Array A has two attributes:
  - $\circ$  length(A): The number of elements in A
  - $\circ$  **n** = **heap-size(A)**: The number elements in heap
    - $n \leq length(A)$



### **Heap Operations : EXTRACT-MAX (1)**

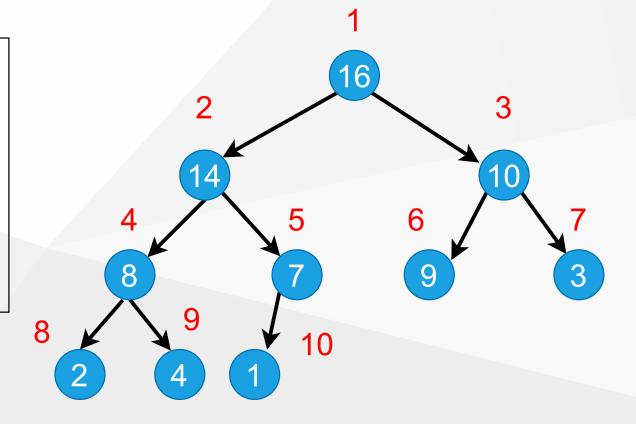
```
EXTRACT-MAX(A, n)
  max = A[1]
  A[1] = A[n]
  n = n - 1
  HEAPIFY(A, 1,n)
  return max
```



#### **Heap Operations : EXTRACT-MAX (2)**

Return the max element, and reorganize the heap to maintain heap property

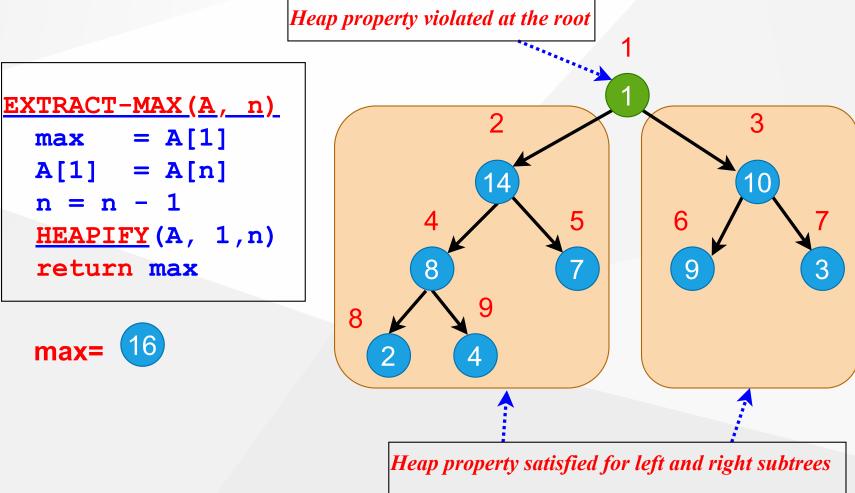
```
EXTRACT-MAX (A, n)
    max = A[1]
    A[1] = A[n]
    n = n - 1
    HEAPIFY (A, 1, n)
    return max
```



max=?



## **Heap Operations: HEAPIFY (1)**



#### **Heap Operations: HEAPIFY (2)**

- Maintaining heap property:
  - $\circ$  Subtrees rooted at left[i] and right[i] are already heaps.
  - $\circ$  But, A[i] may violate the heap property (i.e., may be smaller than its children)
- Idea: Float down the value at A[i] in the heap so that subtree rooted at i becomes a heap.



#### **Heap Operations: HEAPIFY (2)**

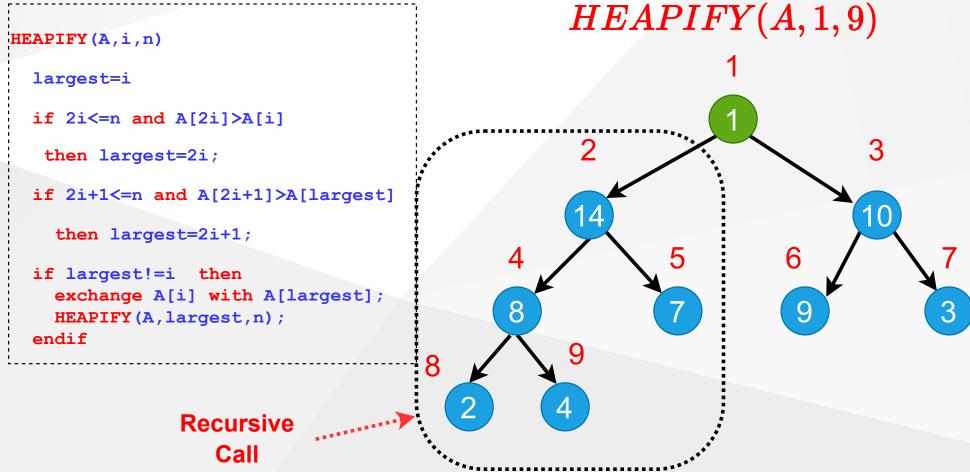
```
HEAPIFY(A, i, n)
  largest = i
  if 2i <= n and A[2i] > A[i] then
   largest = 2i;
  endif
  if 2i+1 <= n and A[2i+1] > A[largest] then
   largest = 2i+1;
  endif
  if largest != i then
    exchange A[i] with A[largest];
    HEAPIFY(A, largest, n);
  endif
```

### **Heap Operations: HEAPIFY (3)**

```
HEAPIFY (A, i, n)
                                                initialize largest
  largest=i
                                                to be the node i
                                                                        compute the
  if 2i<=n and A[2i]>A[i]...
                                                check the left
                                                                        largest of:
                                                child of node i
   then largest=2i;
                                                                        1) node i
                                                                        2) left child of node i
  if 2i+1<=n and A[2i+1]>A[largest]
                                                check the right
                                                                        3) right child of node i
                                                child of node i
     then largest=2i+1;
  if largest!=i then
                                                exchange the largest
     exchange A[i] with A[largest]; •
                                                of the 3 with node i
     HEAPIFY(A, largest, n);
  endif
                                                recursive call on the
                                                subtree
```

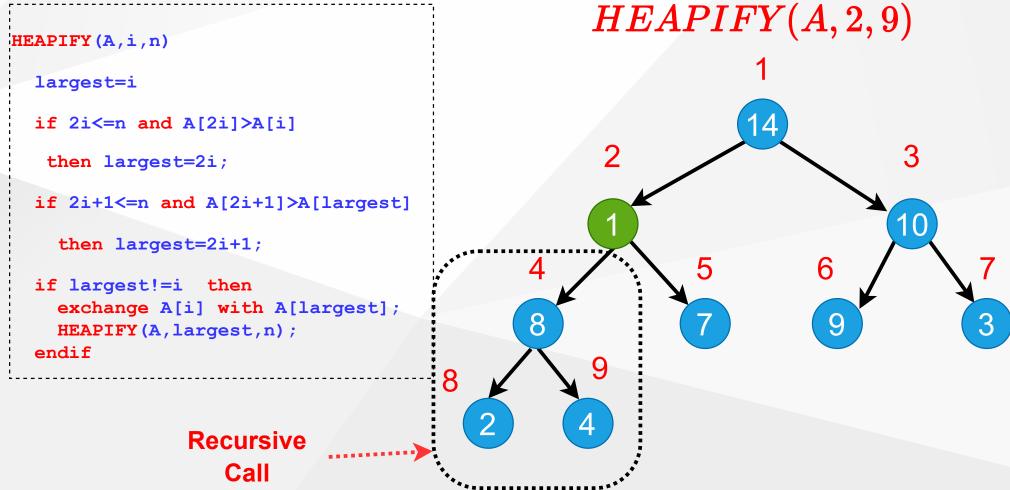


#### **Heap Operations: HEAPIFY (4)**





#### **Heap Operations: HEAPIFY (5)**





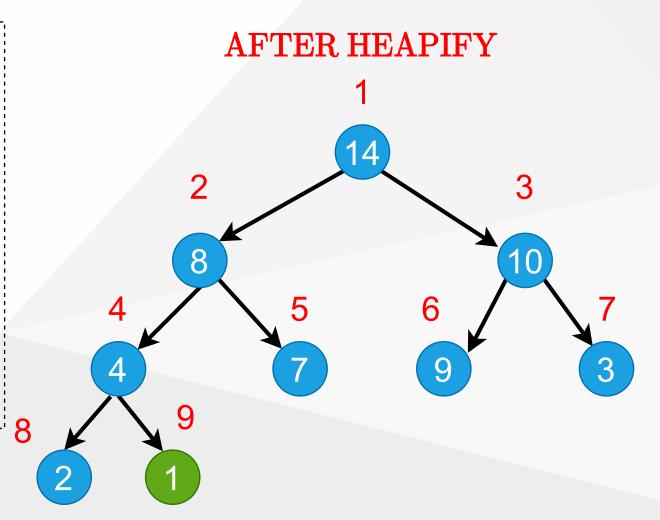
#### **Heap Operations: HEAPIFY (6)**

```
HEAPIFY(A, 4, 9)
HEAPIFY(A,i,n)
 largest=i
 if 2i<=n and A[2i]>A[i]
   then largest=2i;
 if 2i+1<=n and A[2i+1]>A[largest]
    then largest=2i+1;
                                                                   6
 if largest!=i then
   exchange A[i] with A[largest];
   HEAPIFY(A,largest,n);
 endif
           Recursive Call
            (Base Case)
```



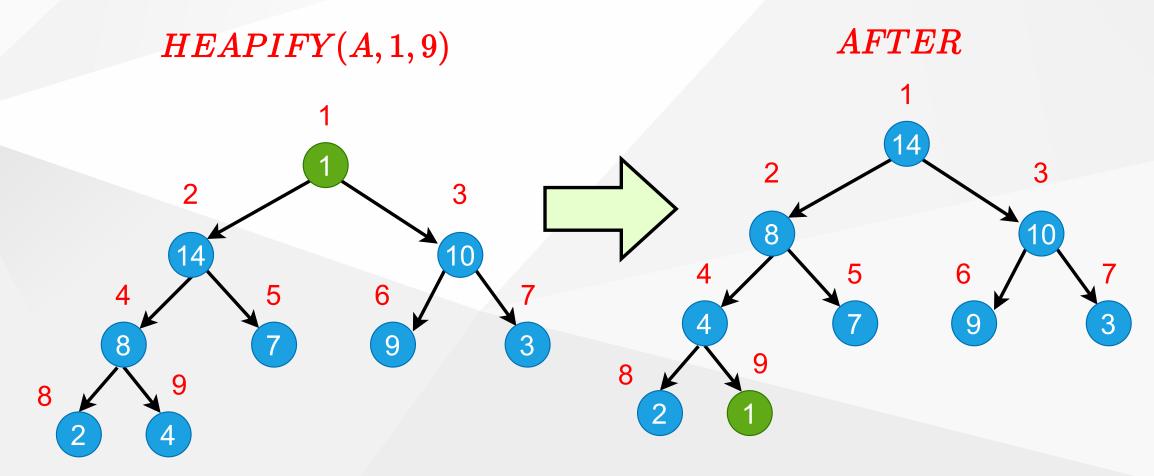
#### **Heap Operations: HEAPIFY (7)**

```
HEAPIFY(A,i,n)
  largest=i
  if 2i<=n and A[2i]>A[i]
   then largest=2i;
  if 2i+1<=n and A[2i+1]>A[largest]
    then largest=2i+1;
  if largest!=i then
    exchange A[i] with A[largest];
    HEAPIFY(A,largest,n);
  endif
```





## **Heap Operations: HEAPIFY (8)**





## **Intuitive Analysis of HEAPIFY**

- Consider HEAPIFY(A, i, n)
  - $\circ$  let h(i) be the height of node i
  - $\circ$  at most h(i) recursion levels
    - Constant work at each level:  $\Theta(1)$
  - $\circ$  Therefore T(i) = O(h(i))
- Heap is almost-complete binary tree
  - $\circ h(n) = O(lgn)$
- ullet Thus T(n)=O(lgn)



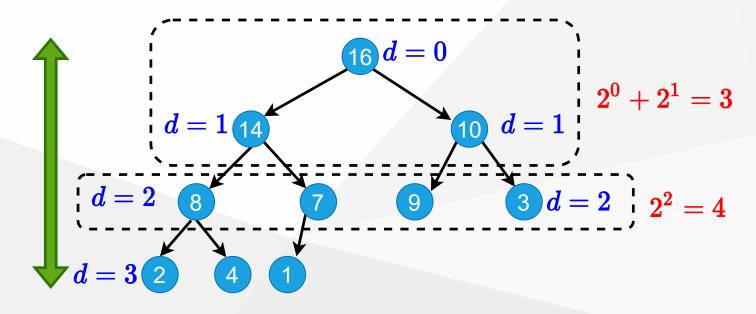
### Formal Analysis of HEAPIFY

- What is the recurrence?
  - Depends on the size of the **subtree** on which recursive call is made
    - In the next, we try to compute an **upper bound** for this **subtree**.



#### CE100 Reminder: Binary trees

- For a complete binary tree:
  - $\circ~\#$  of nodes at depth d:  $2^d$
  - $\circ~\#$  of nodes with depths less than  $d\!\!:\!2^d-1$



$$d=depth$$
 for example  $d=2$ 

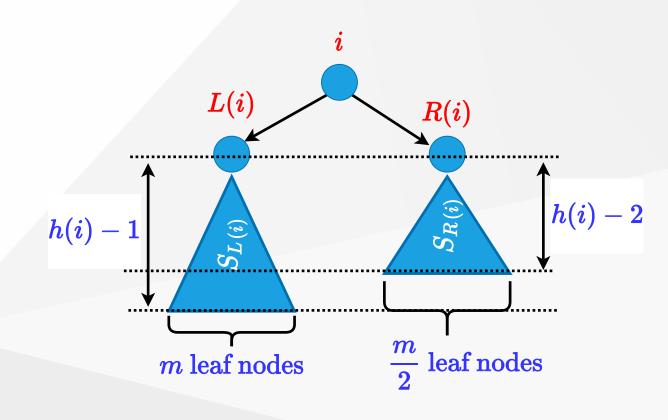
$$2^d = \text{node size at d}$$
  $2^2 = 4$ 

$$2^d - 1 = \text{node size less than d}$$
  $2^2 - 1 = 3 \Longrightarrow 2^0 + 2^1$ 



# Formal Analysis of HEAPIFY (1)

- ullet Worst case occurs when last row of the subtree  $S_i$  rooted at node i is half full
- $ullet T(n) \leq T(|S_{L(i)}|) + \Theta(1)$
- ullet  $S_{L(i)}$  and  $S_{R(i)}$  are complete binary trees of heights h(i)-1 and h(i)-2, respectively





### Formal Analysis of HEAPIFY (2)

ullet Let m be the number of **leaf nodes** in  $S_{L(i)}$ 

$$egin{aligned} egin{aligned} & |S_{L(i)}| = \overbrace{m}^{ext.} + \overbrace{(m-1)}^{int.} = 2m-1 \ & |S_{R(i)}| = \overbrace{\frac{m}{2}}^{ext.} + (\overline{\frac{m}{2}}-1) = m-1 \ & |S_{L(i)}| + |S_{R(i)}| + 1 = n \end{aligned}$$



#### Formal Analysis of HEAPIFY (2)

$$egin{aligned} (2m-1)+(m-1)+1&=n\ m&=(n+1)/3\ |S_{L(i)}|&=2m-1\ &=2(n+1)/3-1\ &=(2n/3+2/3)-1\ &=rac{2n}{3}-rac{1}{3}\leqrac{2n}{3}\ T(n)&\leq T(2n/3)+\Theta(1)\ T(n)&=O(lgn) \end{aligned}$$

ullet By CASE-2 of Master Theorem  $\Longrightarrow T(n) = \Theta(n^{log^a_b} lgn)$ 



#### Formal Analysis of HEAPIFY (2)

- Recurrence: T(n) = aT(n/b) + f(n)
- Case 2:  $rac{f(n)}{n^{log_b^a}} = \Theta(1)$
- ullet i.e., f(n) and  $n^{log^a_b}$  grow at similar rates
- Solution:  $T(n) = \Theta(n^{log^a_b} lgn)$ 
  - $\circ \ T(n) \leq T(2n/3) + \Theta(1)$  (drop constants.)
  - $0 \circ T(n) \leq \Theta(n^{log_3^1} lgn)$
  - $\circ \ T(n) \leq \Theta(n^0 lgn)$
  - $\circ \ T(n) = O(lgn)$



#### **HEAPIFY: Efficiency Issues**

- Recursion vs Iteration:
  - In the absence of tail recursion, **iterative version** is in general **more efficient** because of the **pop/push** operations **to/from** stack at each **level of recursion**.



#### **Heap Operations: HEAPIFY (1)**

#### Recursive

```
HEAPIFY(A, i, n)
largest = i
if 2i <= n and A[2i] > A[i] then
  largest = 2i
if 2i+1 <= n and A[2i+1] > A[largest] then
  largest = 2i+1
if largest != i then
  exchange A[i] with A[largest]
  HEAPIFY(A, largest, n)
```



#### Heap Operations: HEAPIFY (2)

#### **Iterative**

```
HEAPIFY(A, i, n)
  j = i
 while(true) do
    largest = j
  if 2j <= n and A[2j] > A[j] then
    largest = 2j
  if 2j+1 <= n and A[2j+1] > A[largest] then
    largest = 2j+1
  if largest != j then
    exchange A[j] with A[largest]
    j = largest
  else return
```

#### **Heap Operations: HEAPIFY (3)**

#### Recursive

```
\begin{aligned} & \underbrace{\textit{HEAPIFY}(A,i,n)} \\ & \text{largest} \leftarrow i \\ & \text{if } 2i \leq n \text{ and } A[2i] > A[i] \text{ then } \text{largest} \leftarrow 2i \\ & \text{if } 2i + 1 \leq n \text{ and } A[2i+1] > A[\text{largest}] \text{ then } \text{largest} \leftarrow 2i + 1 \\ & \text{if } \text{largest} \neq i \text{ then} \\ & \text{exchange } A[i] \leftrightarrow A[\text{largest}] \\ & \underbrace{\textit{HEAPIFY}}(A, \text{largest}, n) \end{aligned}
```

#### *Iterative*

```
HEAPIFY(A,i, n)

j ← i

while (true) do

largest ← j

if 2j \le n and A[2j] > A[j] then largest ← 2j

if 2j + 1 \le n and A[2j+1] > A[largest] then largest ← 2j + 1

if largest ≠ j then

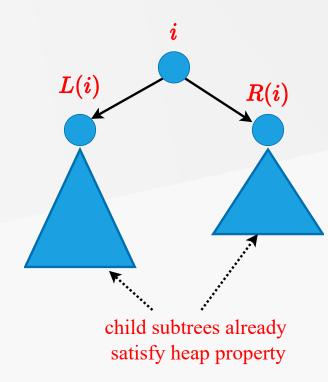
exchange A[j] \leftrightarrow A[largest]

j ← largest

else return
```

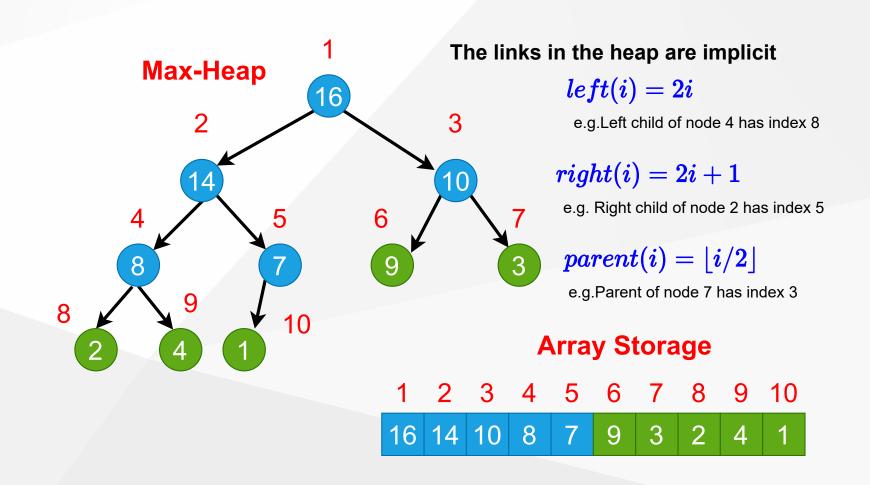
#### **Heap Operations: Building Heap**

- Given an arbitrary array, how to build a heap from scratch?
- ullet Basic idea: Call HEAPIFY on each node bottom up
  - Start from the leaves (which trivially satisfy the heap property)
  - Process nodes in bottom up order.
  - $\circ$  When HEAPIFY is called on node i, the subtrees connected to the left and right subtrees already satisfy the heap property.



# Storage of the leaves (Lemma)

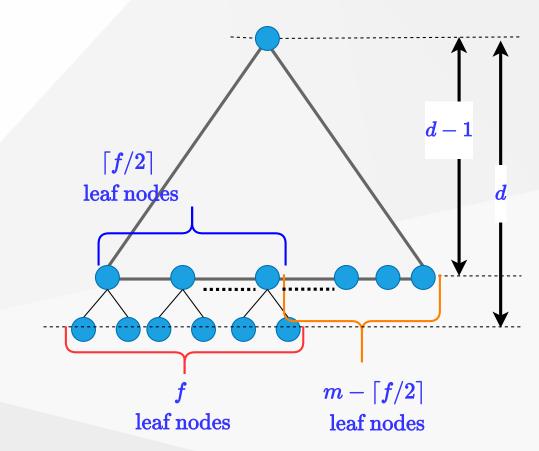
• **Lemma:** The last  $\lceil \frac{n}{2} \rceil$  nodes of a heap are all leaves.





# Storage of the leaves (Proof of Lemma) (1)

- ullet Lemma: last  $\lceil n/2 
  ceil$  nodes of a heap are all leaves
- Proof :
  - $m=2^{d-1}$ : # nodes at level d-1
  - $\circ f$ : # nodes at level d (last level)
- ullet # of nodes with depth d-1 : m
- ullet # of nodes with depth < d-1 : m-1
- ullet # of nodes with depth d : f
- ullet Total # of nodes :n=f+2m-1

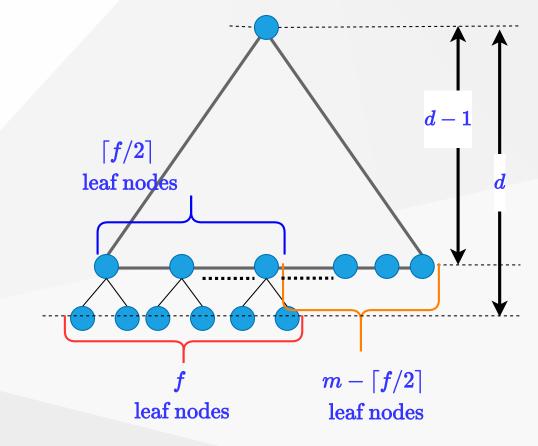


# Storage of the leaves (Proof of Lemma) (2)

ullet Total # of nodes : f=n-2m+1

$$\#$$
 of leaves:  $=f+m-\lceil f/2 
ceil$ 
 $=m+\lfloor f/2 
floor$ 
 $=m+\lfloor (n-2m+1)/2 
floor$ 
 $=\lfloor (n+1)/2 
floor$ 
 $=\lceil n/2 
ceil$ 

**Proof is Completed** 



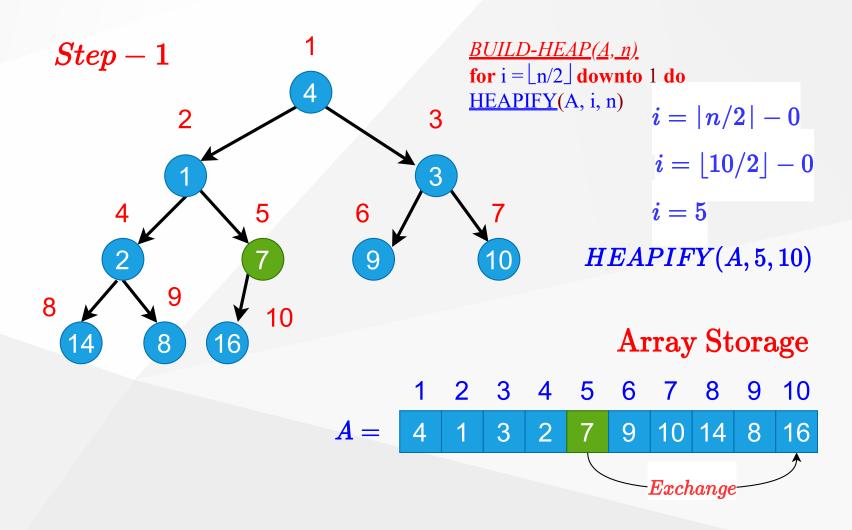
### **Heap Operations: Building Heap**

```
BUILD-HEAP (A, n)
  for i = ceil(n/2) downto 1 do
   HEAPIFY(A, i, n)
```

ullet Reminder: The last  $\lceil n/2 \rceil$  nodes of a heap are all leaves, which trivially satisfy the heap property

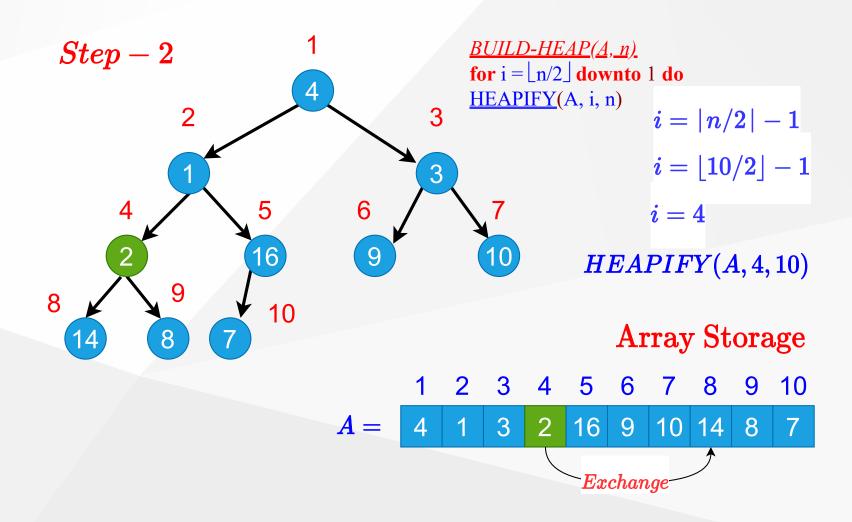


Build-Heap Example (Step-1)



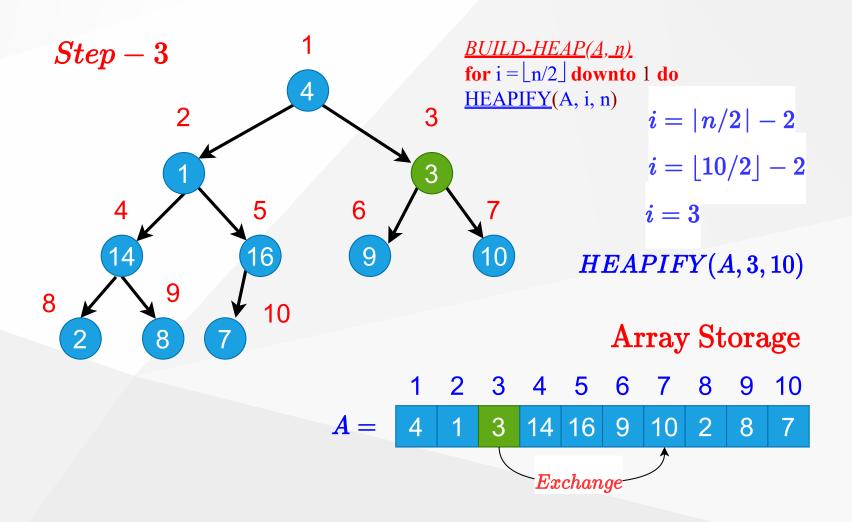


Build-Heap Example (Step-2)



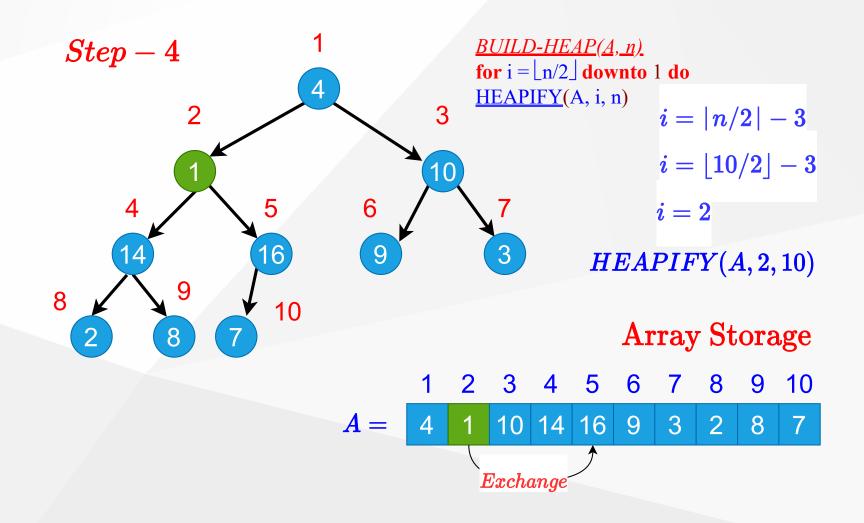


Build-Heap Example (Step-3)



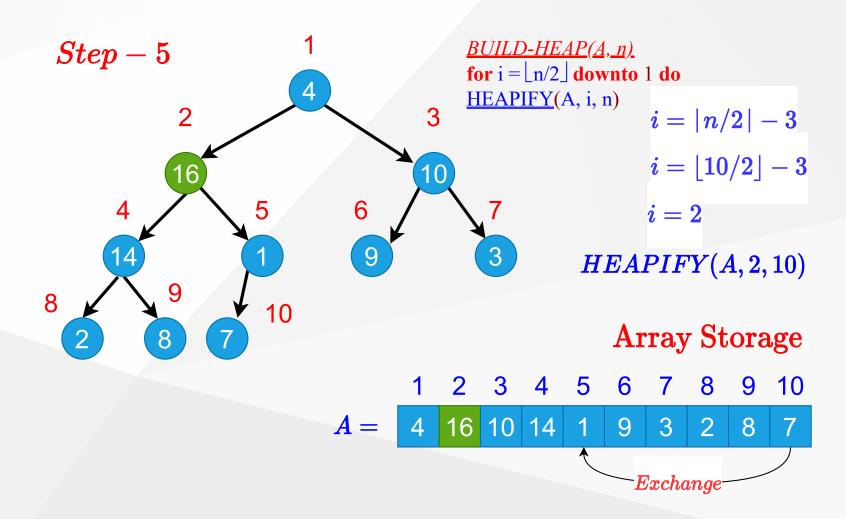


Build-Heap Example (Step-4)



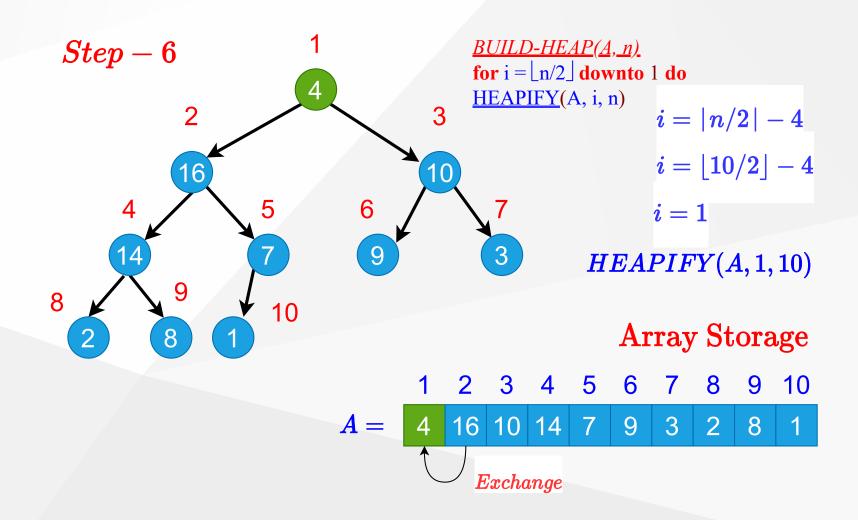


Build-Heap Example (Step-5)



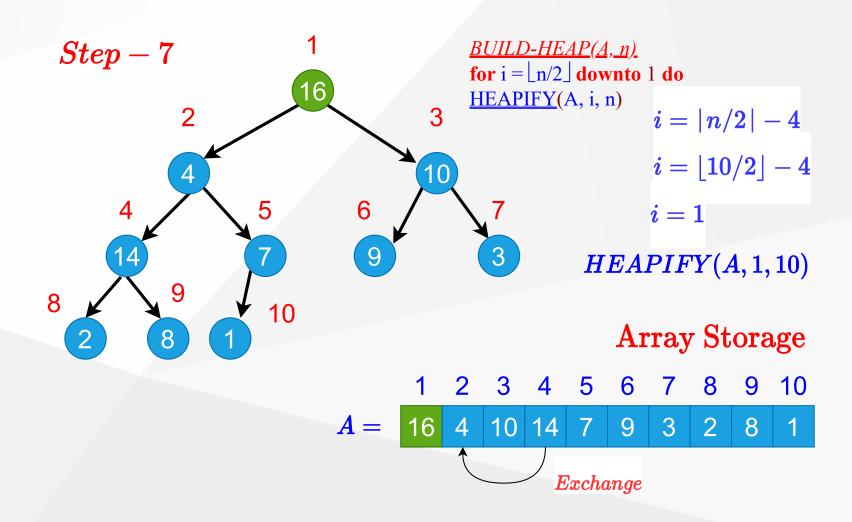


Build-Heap Example (Step-6)



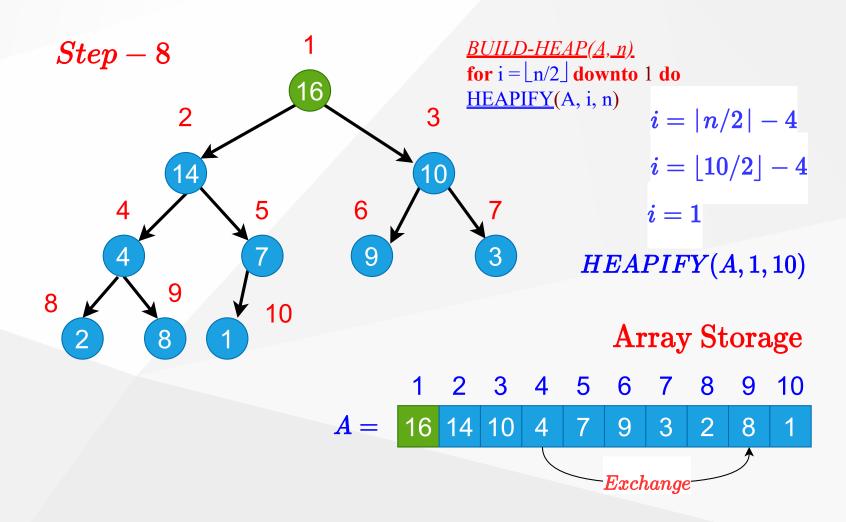


Build-Heap Example (Step-7)



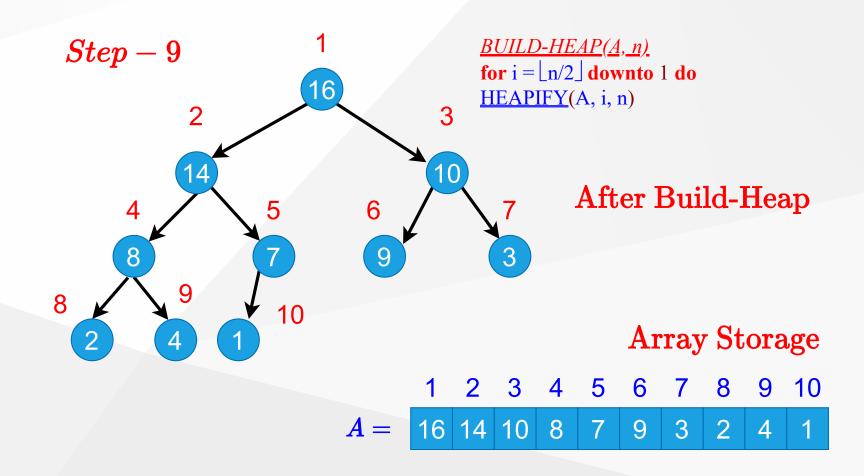


Build-Heap Example (Step-8)





Build-Heap Example (Step-9)



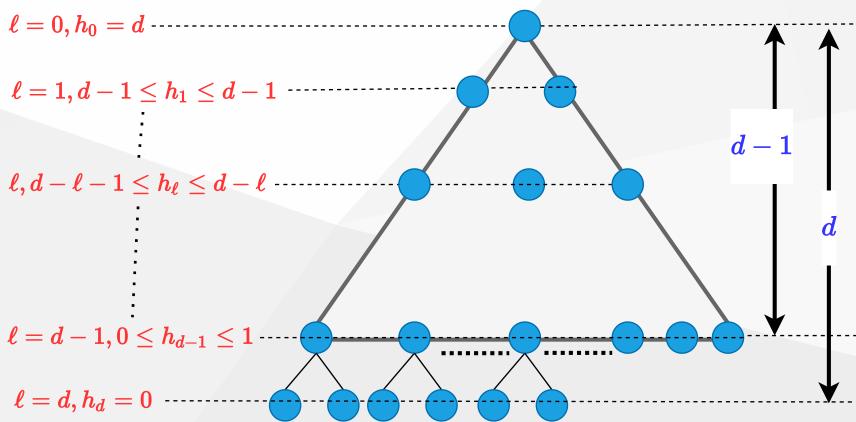


### **Build-Heap: Runtime Analysis**

- Simple analysis:
  - $\circ~O(n)$  calls to HEAPIFY, each of which takes O(lgn) time
  - $\circ~O(nlgn) \Longrightarrow$  loose bound
- In general, a good approach:
  - Start by proving an easy bound
  - Then, try to tighten it
- Is there a tighter bound?



- ullet If the heap is complete binary tree then  $h_\ell=d\!-\!\ell$
- ullet Otherwise, nodes at a given level do not all have the same height, But we have  $d\!-\!\ell\!-\!1 \le h_\ell \le d\!-\!\ell$



ullet Assume that all nodes at level  $\ell=d\!-\!1$  are processed

$$T(n) = \sum_{\ell=0}^{d-1} n_\ell O(h_\ell) = O(\sum_{\ell=0}^{d-1} n_\ell h_\ell) egin{cases} n_\ell = 2^\ell = \# ext{ of nodes at level } \ell \ h_\ell = ext{height of nodes at level } \ell \end{cases}$$

$$\therefore T(n) = Oigg(\sum_{\ell=0}^{d-1} 2^\ell (d-\ell)igg)$$

Let  $h = d - \ell \Longrightarrow \ell = d - h$  change of variables

$$T(n) = Oigg(\sum_{h=1}^d h 2^{d-h}igg) = Oigg(\sum_{h=1}^d h rac{2^d}{2^h}igg) = Oigg(2^d \sum_{h=1}^d h (1/2)^higg)$$

but 
$$2^d = \Theta(n) \Longrightarrow O\bigg(n\sum_{h=1}^d h(1/2)^h\bigg)$$



$$\sum_{h=1}^d h(1/2)^h \leq \sum_{h=0}^d h(1/2)^h \leq \sum_{h=0}^\infty h(1/2)^h$$

recall infinite decreasing geometric series

$$\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} x^k = rac{1}{1-x} ext{ where } |x| < 1$$

• differentiate both sides

$$\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} kx^{k-1} = rac{1}{(1-x)^2}$$

$$\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} kx^{k-1} = rac{1}{(1-x)^2}$$

ullet then, multiply both sides by x

$$\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} kx^k = rac{x}{(1-x)^2}$$

ullet in our case: x=1/2 and k=h

$$\therefore \sum_{h=0}^{\infty} h(1/2)^h = \frac{1/2}{(1-(1/2))^2} = 2 = O(1)$$

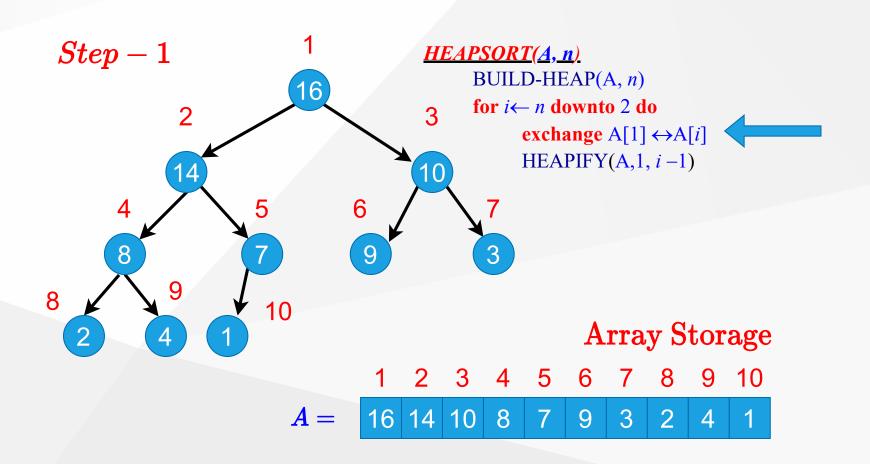
$$T(n) = O(n \sum_{h=1}^{d} h(1/2)^h) = O(n)$$

## **Heapsort Algorithm Steps**

- ullet (1) Build a heap on array  $A[1\dots n]$  by calling BUILD-HEAP(A,n)
- ullet (2) The largest element is stored at the root A[1]
  - $\circ$  Put it into its correct final position A[n] by  $A[1] \longleftrightarrow A[n]$
- (3) Discard node n from the heap
- (4) Subtrees (S2&S3) rooted at children of root remain as heaps, but the new root element may violate the heap property.
  - $\circ$  Make  $A[1\ldots n-1]$  a heap by calling HEAPIFY(A,1,n-1)
- (5)  $n \leftarrow n-1$
- ullet (6) Repeat steps (2-4) until n=2

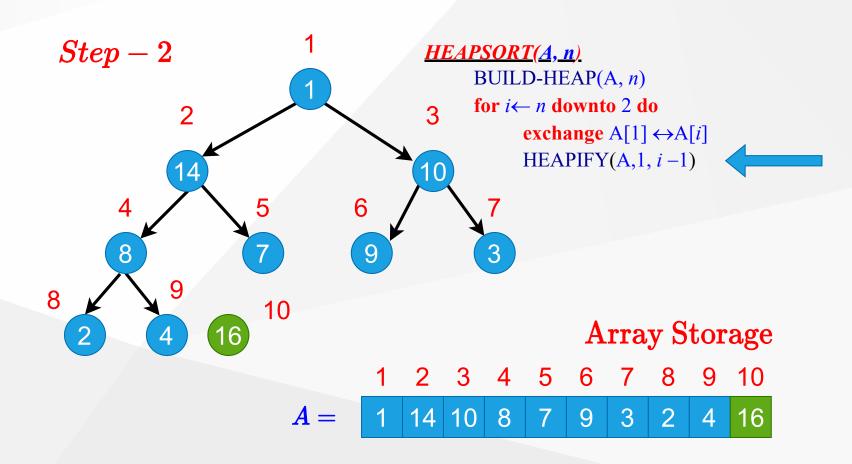


Heapsort Algorithm Example (Step-1)



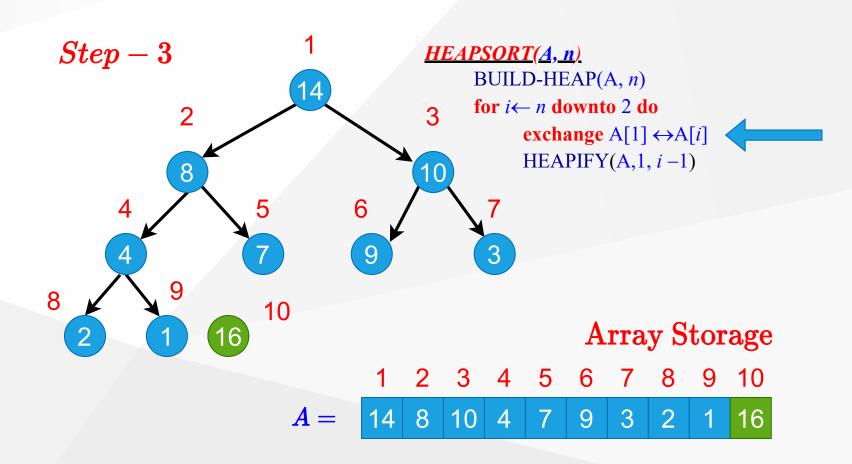


Heapsort Algorithm Example (Step-2)



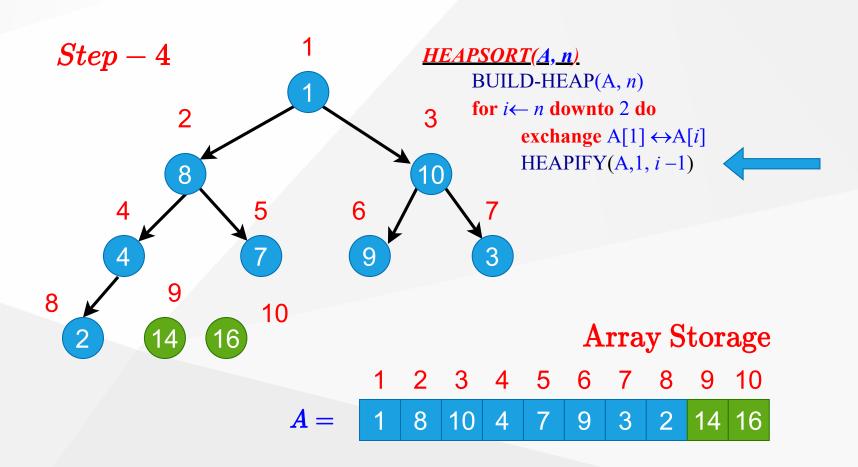


Heapsort Algorithm Example (Step-3)



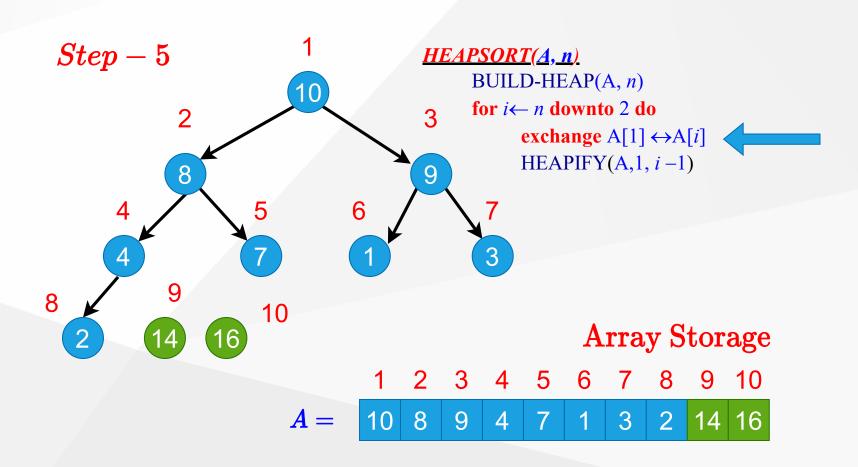


Heapsort Algorithm Example (Step-4)



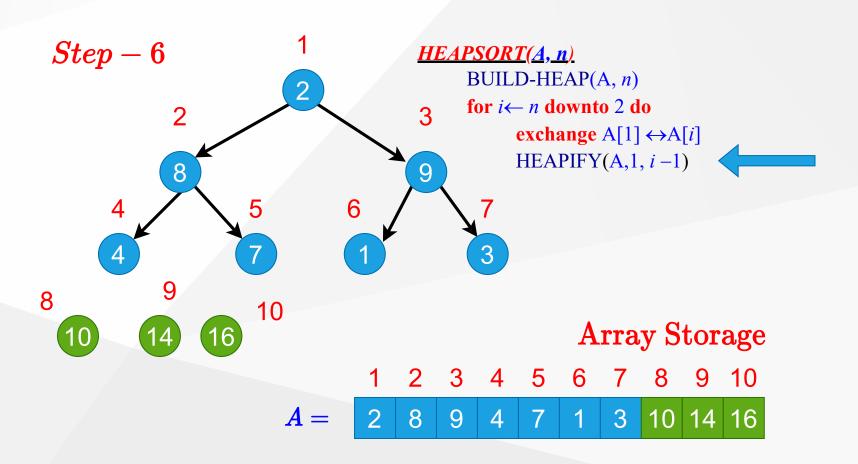


Heapsort Algorithm Example (Step-5)



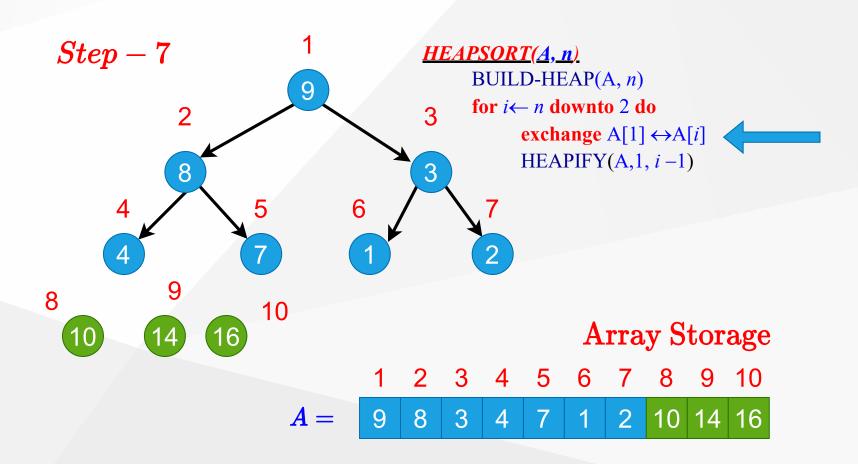


Heapsort Algorithm Example (Step-6)



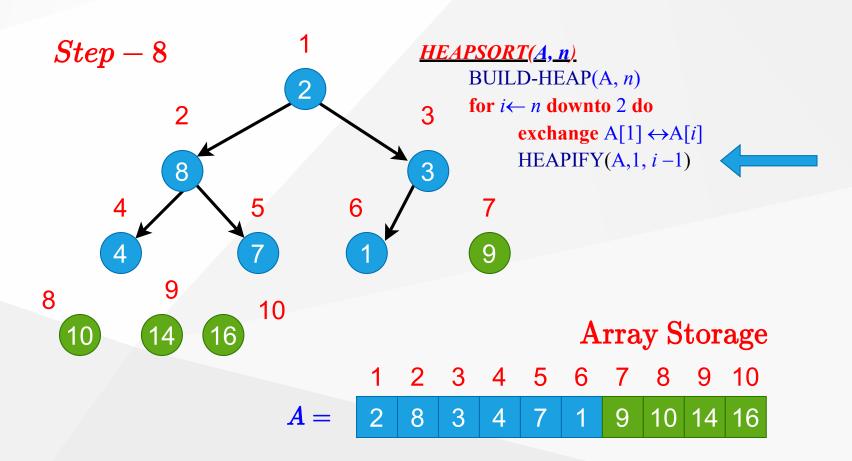


Heapsort Algorithm Example (Step-7)



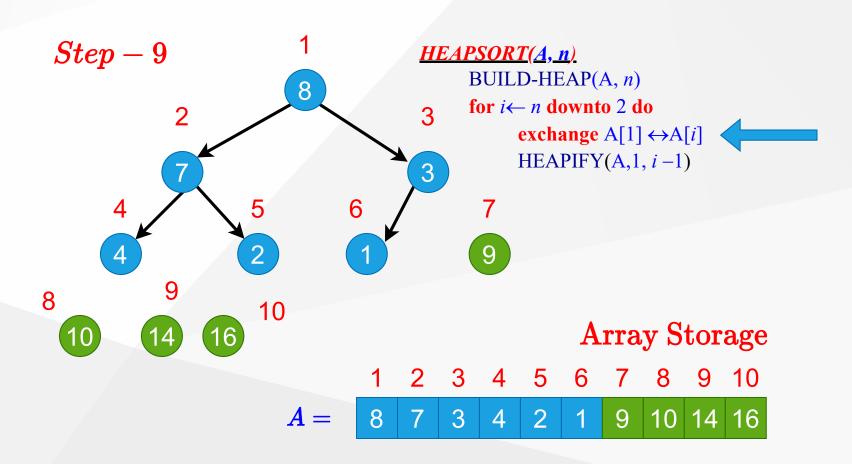


Heapsort Algorithm Example (Step-8)



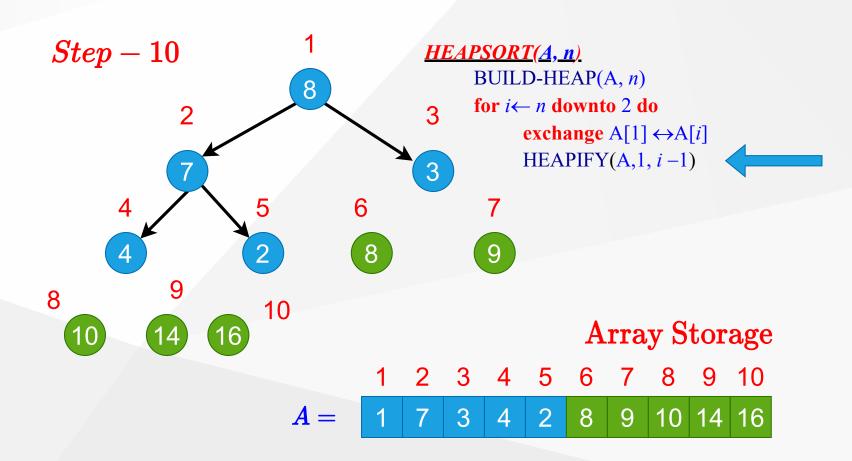


Heapsort Algorithm Example (Step-9)



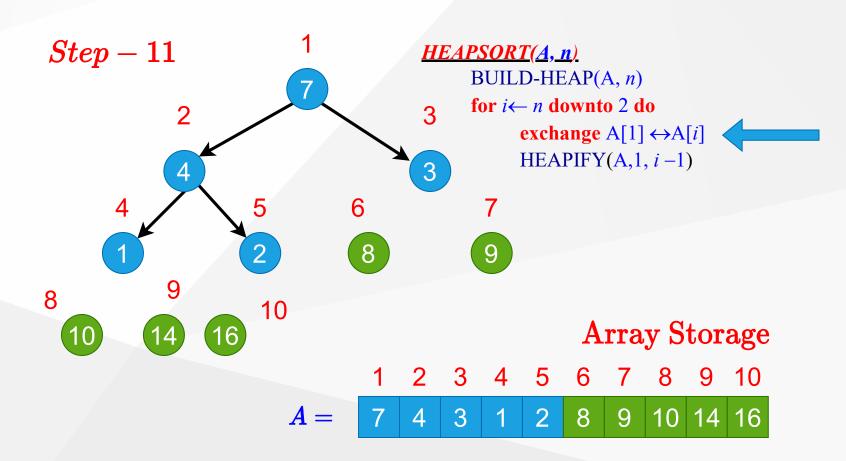


Heapsort Algorithm Example (Step-10)



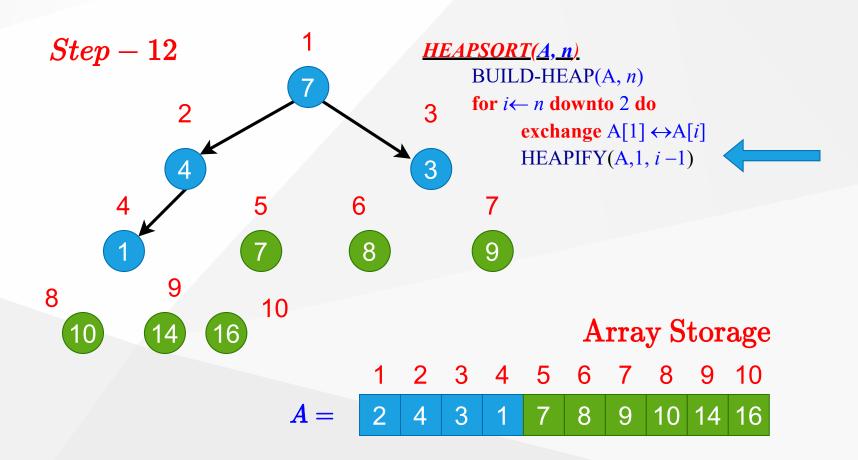


Heapsort Algorithm Example (Step-11)



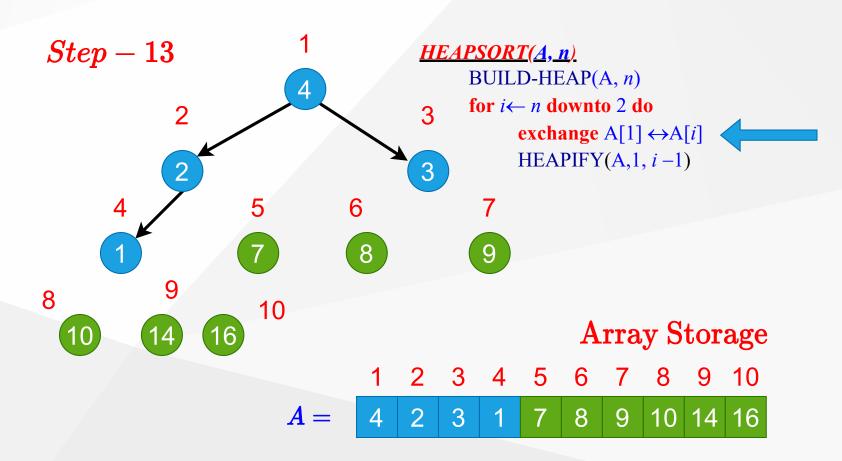


Heapsort Algorithm Example (Step-12)



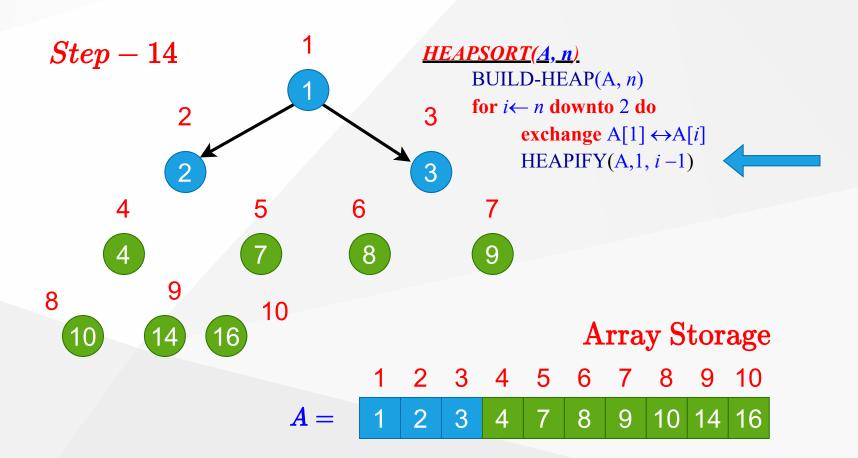


Heapsort Algorithm Example (Step-13)



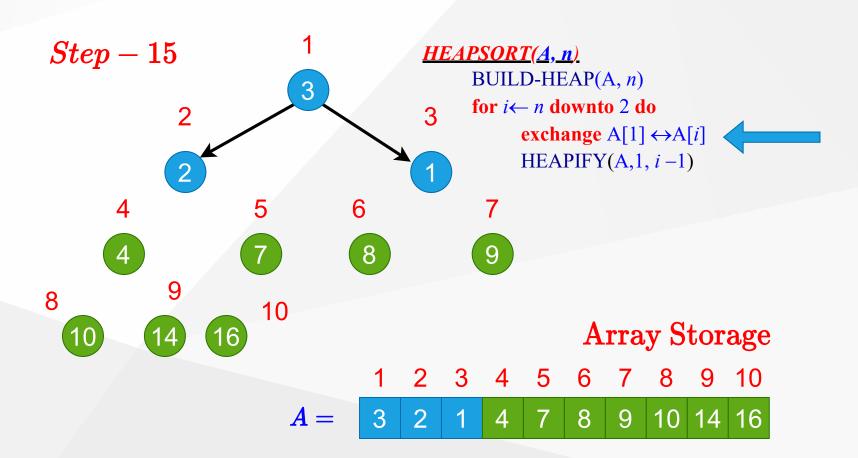


Heapsort Algorithm Example (Step-14)



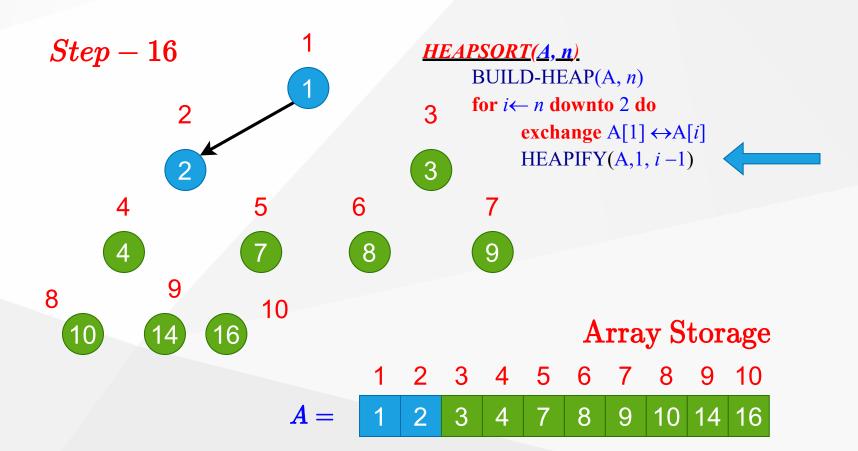


Heapsort Algorithm Example (Step-15)



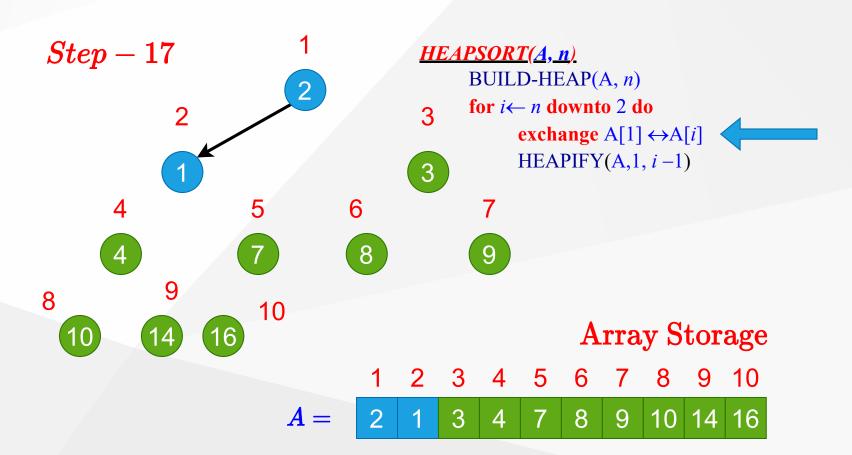


Heapsort Algorithm Example (Step-16)



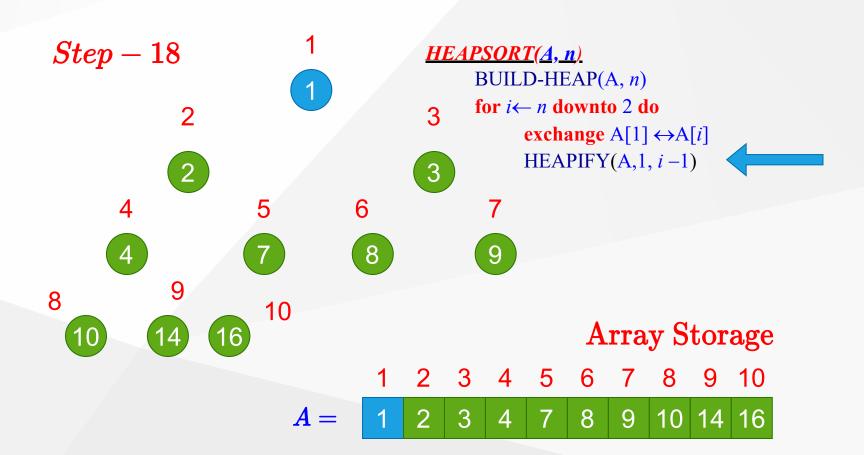


Heapsort Algorithm Example (Step-17)



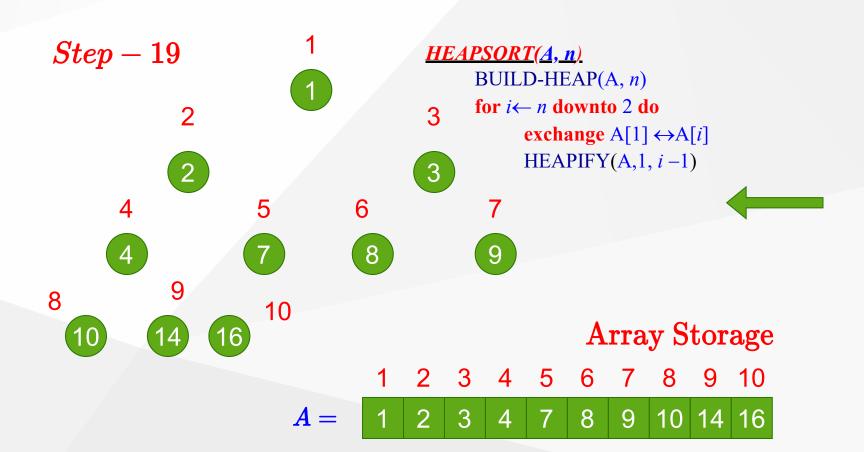


Heapsort Algorithm Example (Step-18)





Heapsort Algorithm Example (Step-19)





### **Heapsort Algorithm: Runtime Analysis**

```
HEAPSORT(A, n)BUILD-HEAP(A, n)\Theta(n)for i \leftarrow n downto 2 doexchange A[1] \leftrightarrow A[i]\Theta(1)HEAPIFY(A,1, i-1)O(lg(i-1))
```

$$egin{aligned} T(n) &= \Theta(n) + \sum_{i=2}^n O(lgi) \ &= \Theta(n) + Oigg(\sum_{i=2}^n O(lgn)igg) \ &= O(nlgn) \end{aligned}$$



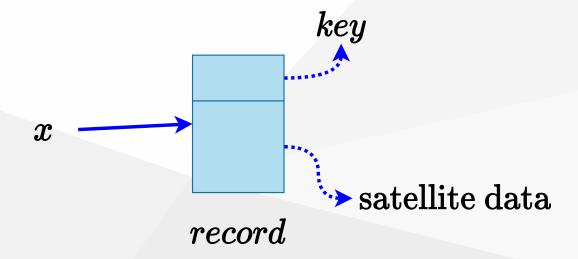
### **Heapsort - Notes**

- Heapsort is a very good algorithm but, a good implementation of quicksort always beats heapsort in practice
- However, heap data structure has many popular applications, and it can be efficiently used for implementing priority queues



### Data structures for Dynamic Sets

• Consider sets of records having key and satellite data





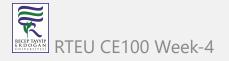
### **Operations on Dynamic Sets**

- Queries: Simply return info;
  - $\circ \ MAX(S)/MIN(S)$  : (Query) return  $x \in S$  with the largest/smallest key
  - $\circ \; SEARCH(S,k)$  : (Query) return  $x \in S$  with key[x] = k
  - $\circ \ SUCCESSOR(S,x)/PREDECESSOR(S,x)$  : (Query) return  $y \in S$  which is the next larger/smaller element after x
- Modifying operations: Change the set
  - $\circ \ INSERT(S,x)$  : (Modifying)  $S \leftarrow S \cup \{x\}$
  - $\circ \ DELETE(S,x):$  (Modifying)  $S \leftarrow S \{x\}$
  - $\circ$   $\operatorname{EXTRACT-MAX}(S)/\operatorname{EXTRACT-MIN}(S)$  : (Modifying) return and delete  $x \in S$  with the largest/smallest key
- Different data structures support/optimize different operations

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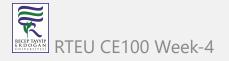
### **Priority Queues (PQ)**

- Supports
  - $\circ$  INSERT
  - $\circ MAX/MIN$
  - EXTRACT-MAX/EXTRACT-MIN



### **Priority Queues (PQ)**

- One application: Schedule jobs on a shared resource
  - PQ keeps track of jobs and their relative priorities
  - $\circ$  When a job is finished or interrupted, highest priority job is selected from those pending using EXTRACT-MAX
  - $\circ$  A new job can be added at any time using INSERT



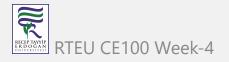
### **Priority Queues (PQ)**

- Another application: Event-driven simulation
  - Events to be simulated are the items in the PQ
  - $\circ$  Each event is associated with a time of occurrence which serves as a key
  - Simulation of an event can cause other events to be simulated in the future
  - Use EXTRACT-MIN at each step to choose the next event to simulate
  - $\circ$  As new events are produced insert them into the PQ using INSERT



### Implementation of Priority Queue

- Sorted linked list: Simplest implementation
  - $\circ$  INSERT
    - lacksquare O(n) time
    - Scan the list to find place and splice in the new item
  - EXTRACT-MAX
    - O(1) time
    - Take the first element
  - Fast extraction but slow insertion.



# Implementation of Priority Queue

- Unsorted linked list: Simplest implementation
  - $\circ$  INSERT
    - O(1) time
    - Put the new item at front
  - EXTRACT-MAX
    - lacksquare O(n) time
    - Scan the whole list
  - Fast insertion but slow extraction.
- Sorted linked list is better on the average
  - $\circ$  **Sorted list:** on the average, scans n/2 element per insertion
- $\circ$  Unsorted list: always scans n element at each extraction

### Heap Implementation of PQ

- ullet INSERT and  $EXTRACT ext{-MAX}$  are both O(lgn)
  - o good compromise between fast insertion but slow extraction and vice versa
- EXTRACT-MAX: already discussed HEAP-EXTRACT-MAX
- INSERT: Insertion is like that of Insertion-Sort.

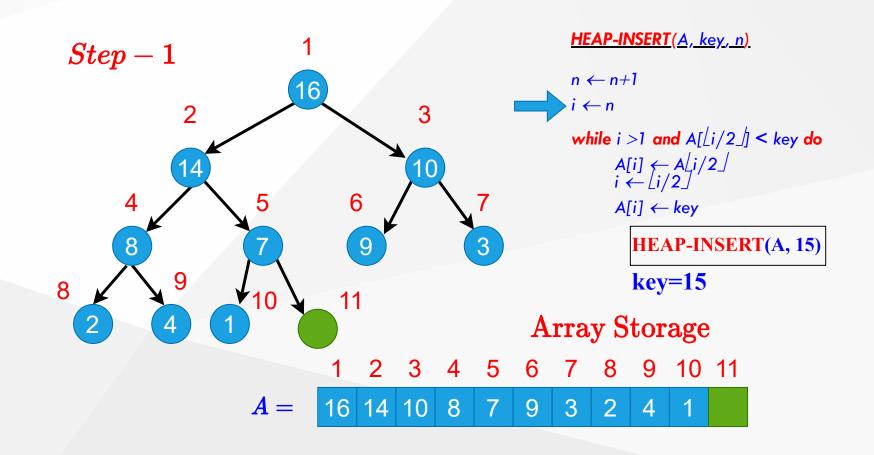
```
HEAP-INSERT(A, key, n)
  n = n+1
  i=n
  while i>1 and A[floor(i/2)] < key do
    A[i]=A[floor(i/2)]
    i= floor(i/2)
  A[i]=key</pre>
```

### Heap Implementation of PQ

- ullet Traverses O(lgn) nodes, as HEAPIFY does but makes fewer comparisons and assignments
  - $\circ$  HEAPIFY: compares parent with both children
  - $\circ \; HEAP-INSERT$ : with only one

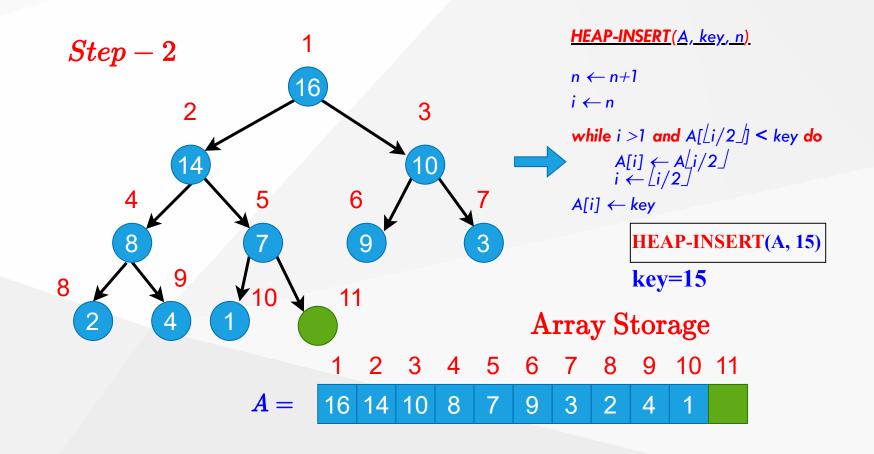


HEAP-INSERT Example (Step-1)



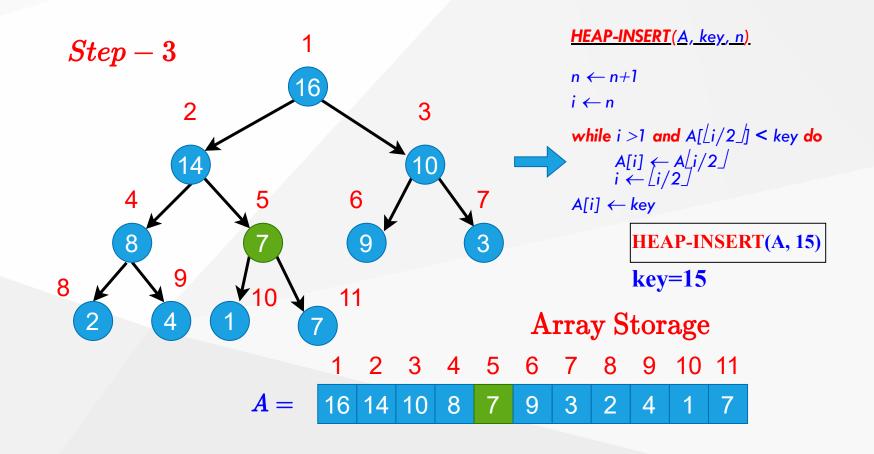


HEAP-INSERT Example (Step-2)



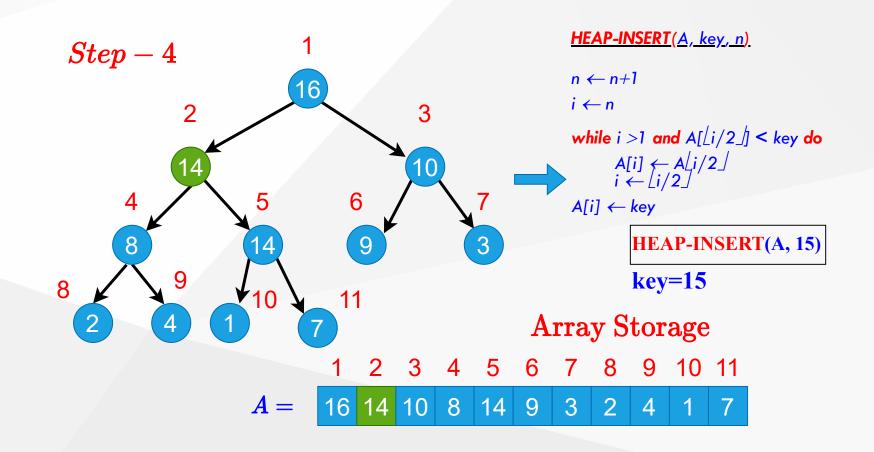


HEAP-INSERT Example (Step-3)



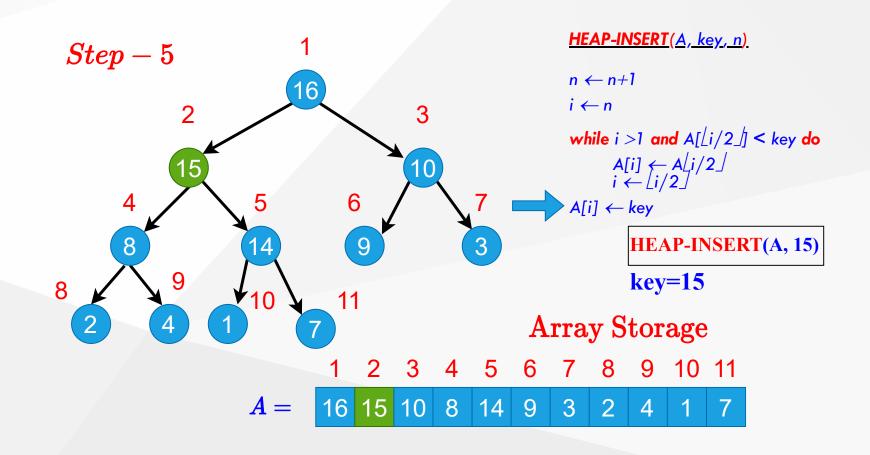


HEAP-INSERT Example (Step-4)





HEAP-INSERT Example (Step-5)





### **Heap Increase Key**

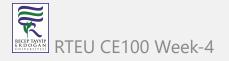
ullet Key value of  $i^{th}$  element of heap is increased from A[i] to key

```
HEAP-INCREASE-KEY(A, i, key)

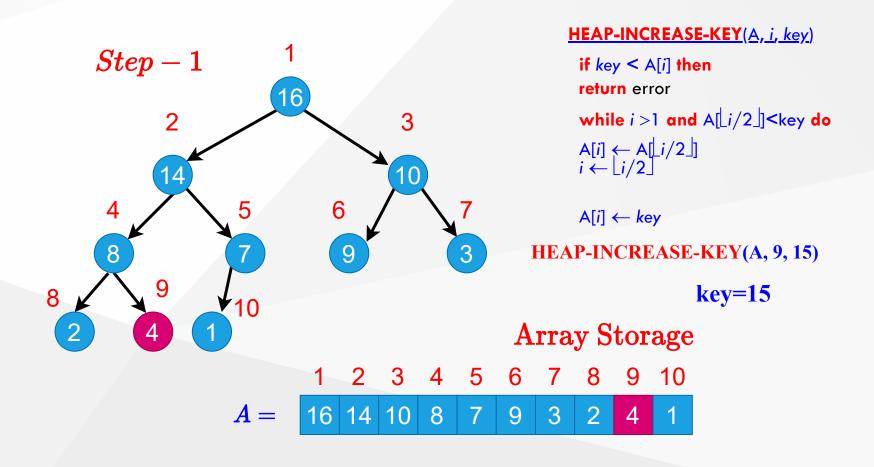
if key < A[i] then
  return error

while i > 1 and A[floor(i/2)] < key do
  A[i] = A[floor(i/2)]
  i = floor(i/2)

A[i] = key</pre>
```

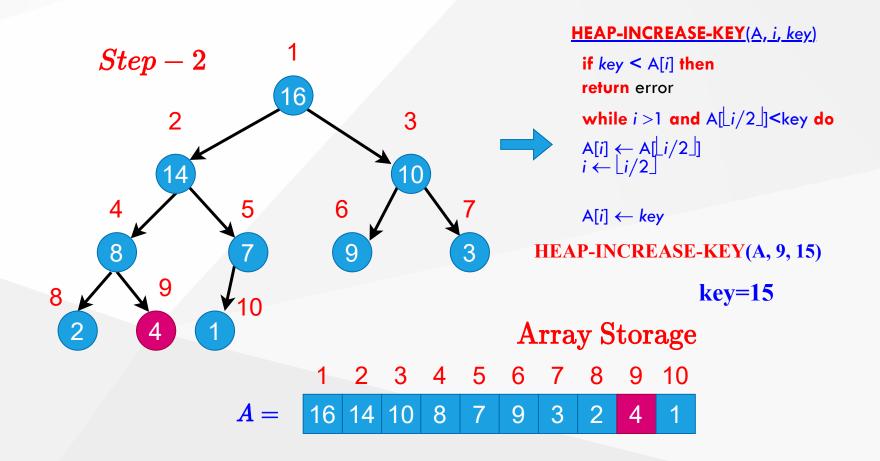


HEAP-INCREASE-KEY Example (Step-1)



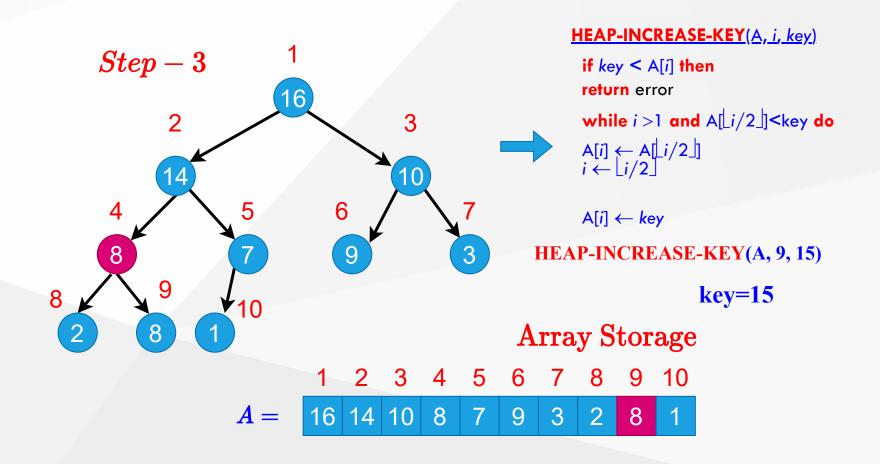


HEAP-INCREASE-KEY Example (Step-2)



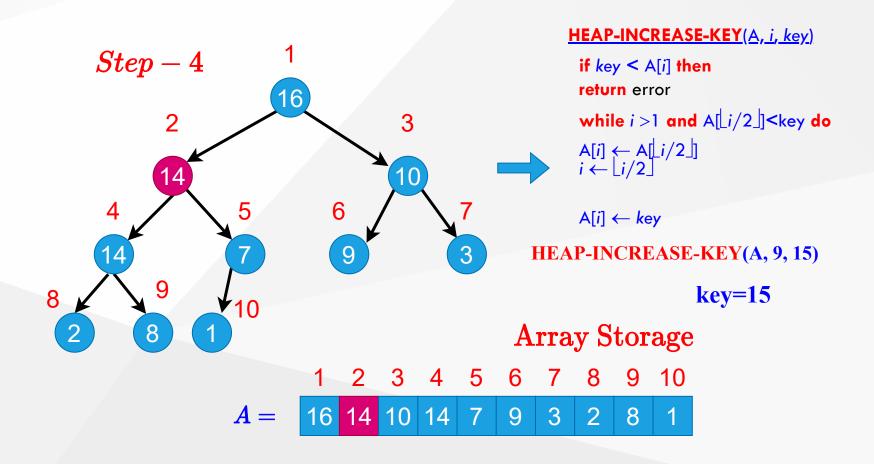


HEAP-INCREASE-KEY Example (Step-3)



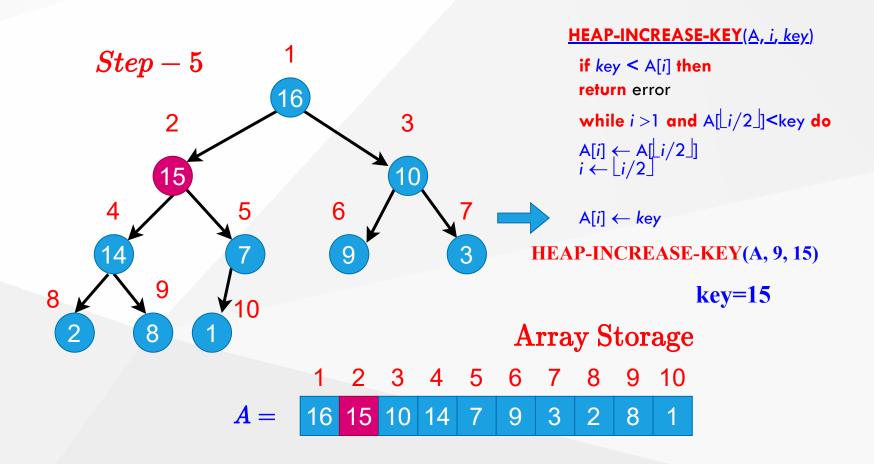


HEAP-INCREASE-KEY Example (Step-4)



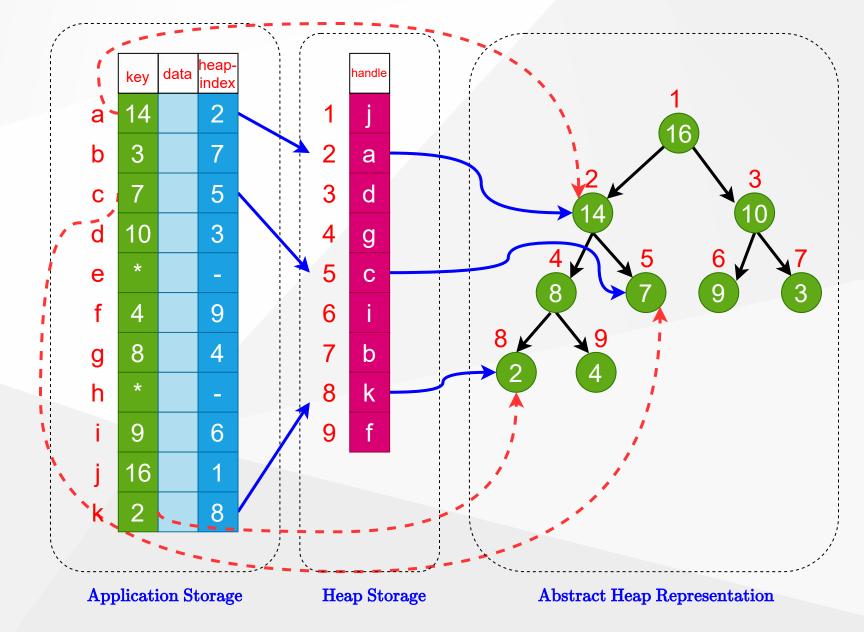


HEAP-INCREASE-KEY Example (Step-5)





Heap Implementat ion of Priority Queue (PQ)





#### **Summary: Max Heap**

- Heapify(A, i)
  - Works when both child subtrees of node i are heaps
  - "Floats down" node i to satisfy the heap property
  - $\circ$  Runtime: O(lgn)
- Max(A, n)
  - Returns the max element of the heap (no modification)
  - $\circ$  Runtime: O(1)
- Extract-Max(A, n)
  - Returns and removes the max element of the heap
  - $\circ$  Fills the gap in A[1] with A[n], then calls **Heapify(A,1)**
  - $\circ$  Runtime: O(lgn)



#### **Summary: Max Heap**

- Build-Heap(A, n)
  - Given an arbitrary array, builds a heap from scratch
  - $\circ$  Runtime: O(n)
- Min(A, n)
  - O How to return the min element in a max-heap?
  - $\circ$  Worst case runtime: O(n)
    - because ~half of the heap elements are leaf nodes
  - Instead, use a min-heap for efficient min operations
- Search(A, x)
  - $\circ$  For an arbitrary x value, the worst-case runtime: O(n)
  - Use a sorted array instead for efficient search operations



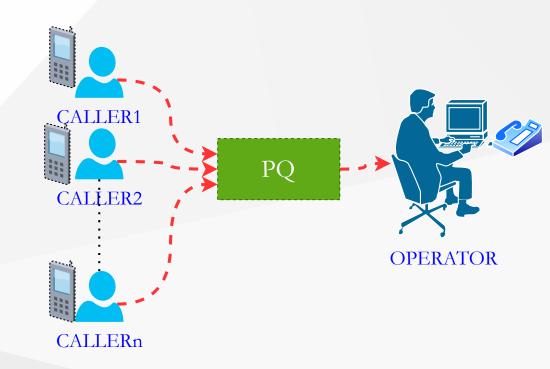
### **Summary: Max Heap**

- Increase-Key(A, i, x)
  - $\circ$  Increase the key of node i (from A[i] to x)
  - $\circ$  "Float up" x until heap property is satisfied
  - $\circ$  Runtime: O(lgn)
- Decrease-Key(A, i, x)
  - $\circ$  Decrease the key of node i (from A[i] to x)
  - Call Heapify(A, i)
  - $\circ$  Runtime: O(lgn)



### **Phone Operator Problem**

- ullet A phone operator answering n phones
- Each phone i has  $x_i$  people waiting in line for their calls to be answered.
- Phone operator needs to answer the phone with the largest number of people waiting in line.
- New calls come continuously, and some people hang up after waiting.





### **Phone Operator Solution**

- **Step 1**: Define the following array:
- A[i]: the ith element in heap
- A[i].id: the index of the corresponding phone
- A[i].key: # of people waiting in line for phone with index A[i].id

| _ |   |
|---|---|
|   |   |
|   |   |
|   | ١ |
| _ | ٠ |

id key

n



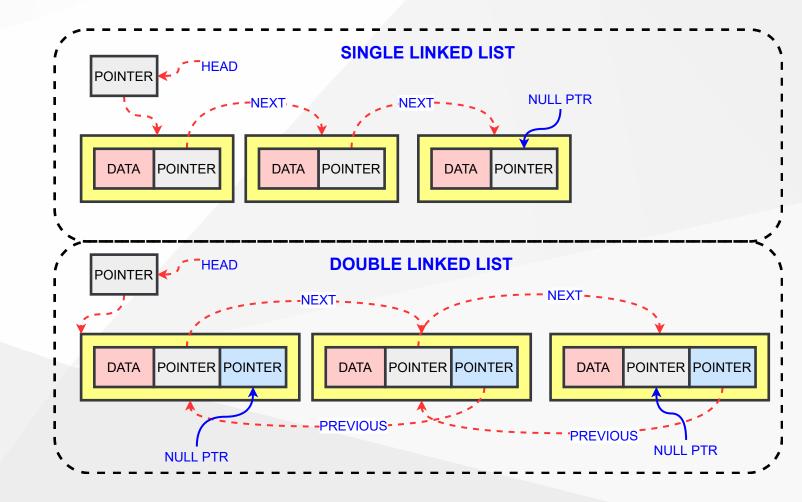
### **Phone Operator Solution**

- Step 2: Build-Max-Heap(A, n)
  - Execution:
    - When the operator wants to answer a phone:
      - id = A[1].id
        - Decrease-Key(A, 1, A[1].key 1)
        - lacktriangle answer phone with index id
      - When a new call comes in to phone i:
        - Increase-Key(A, i, A[i].key + 1)
      - When a call drops from phone i:
        - Decrease-Key(A, i, A[i].key 1)



#### **Linked Lists**

- Like arrays, Linked List is a linear data structure.
- Unlike arrays, linked list elements are not stored at a contiguous location; the elements are linked using pointers.





### **Linked Lists - C Definition**

• (

```
// A linked list node
struct Node {
  int data;
  struct Node* next;
};
```



## **Linked Lists - Cpp Definition**

Cpp

```
class Node {
public:
   int data;
   Node* next;
};
```



#### **Linked Lists - Java Definition**

Java

```
class LinkedList {
 Node head; // head of the list
 /* Linked list Node*/
 class Node {
      int data;
      Node next;
      // Constructor to create a new node
      // Next is by default initialized
      // as null
      Node(int d) { data = d; }
```



### **Linked Lists - Csharp Definition**

Csharp

```
class LinkedList {
 // The first node(head) of the linked list
 // Will be an object of type Node (null by default)
 Node head;
 class Node {
      int data;
      Node next;
      // Constructor to create a new node
      Node(int d) { data = d; }
```



### **Priority Queue using Linked List Methods**

- Implement Priority Queue using Linked Lists.
  - opush(): This function is used to insert a new data into the queue.
  - pop(): This function removes the element with the highest priority from the queue.
  - peek()/top(): This function is used to get the highest priority element in the queue without removing it from the queue.



#### Priority Queue using Linked List Algorithm

```
PUSH(HEAD, DATA, PRIORITY)
  Create NEW.Data = DATA & NEW.Priority = PRIORITY
  If HEAD.priority < NEW.Priority</pre>
    NEW -> NEXT = HEAD
   HEAD = NEW
  Else
    Set TEMP to head of the list
  Endif
 WHILE TEMP -> NEXT != NULL and TEMP -> NEXT -> PRIORITY > PRIORITY THEN
    TEMP = TEMP -> NEXT
  ENDWHILE
  NEW -> NEXT = TEMP -> NEXT
  TEMP -> NEXT = NEW
```

#### Priority Queue using Linked List Algorithm

```
POP(HEAD)
//Set the head of the list to the next node in the list.
HEAD = HEAD -> NEXT.
Free the node at the head of the list
```

```
PEEK(HEAD):
Return HEAD -> DATA
```



#### **Priority Queue using Linked List Notes**

- LinkedList is already sorted.
- Time Complexities and Comparison with Binary Heap

|             | peek() | push() | pop()  |
|-------------|--------|--------|--------|
| Linked List | O(1)   | O(n)   | O(1)   |
| Binary Heap | O(1)   | O(lgn) | O(lgn) |



#### **Sorting in Linear Time**



#### **How Fast Can We Sort?**

- The algorithms we have seen so far:
  - Based on comparison of elements
  - We only care about the relative ordering between the elements (not the actual values)
  - $\circ$  The smallest worst-case runtime we have seen so far: O(nlgn)
  - $\circ$  Is O(nlgn) the best we can do?
- Comparison sorts: Only use comparisons to determine the relative order of elements.

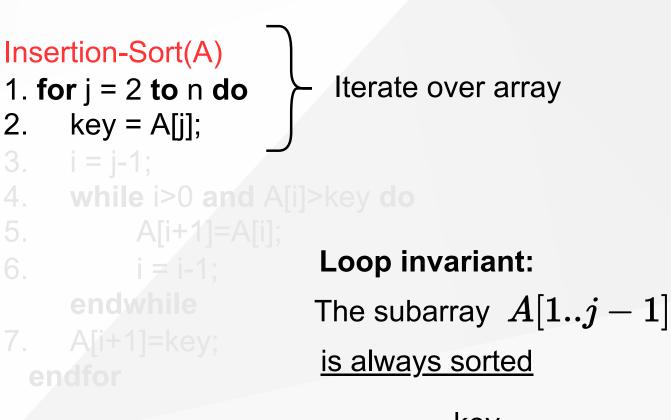


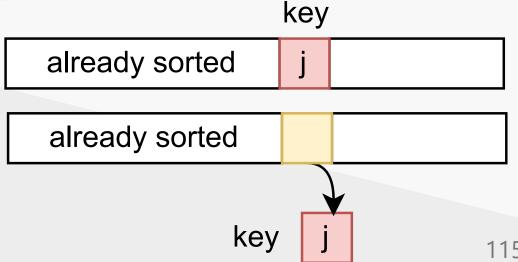
#### **Decision Trees for Comparison Sorts**

- Represent a sorting algorithm abstractly in terms of a decision tree
  - A binary tree that represents the comparisons between elements in the sorting algorithm
  - Control, data movement, and other aspects are ignored
- ullet One decision tree corresponds to one sorting algorithm and one value of n (input size)



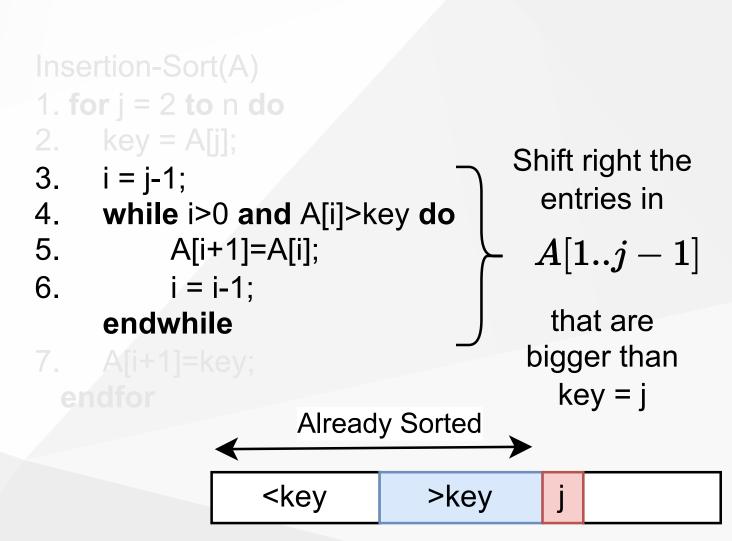
#### Reminder: Insertion Sort Step-By-Step Description (1)







Reminder: Insertion Sort Step-By-Step Description (2)



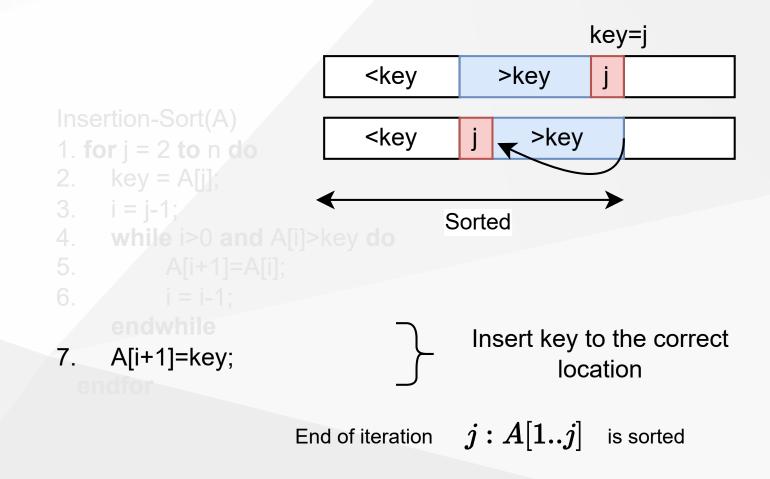
>key

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<key

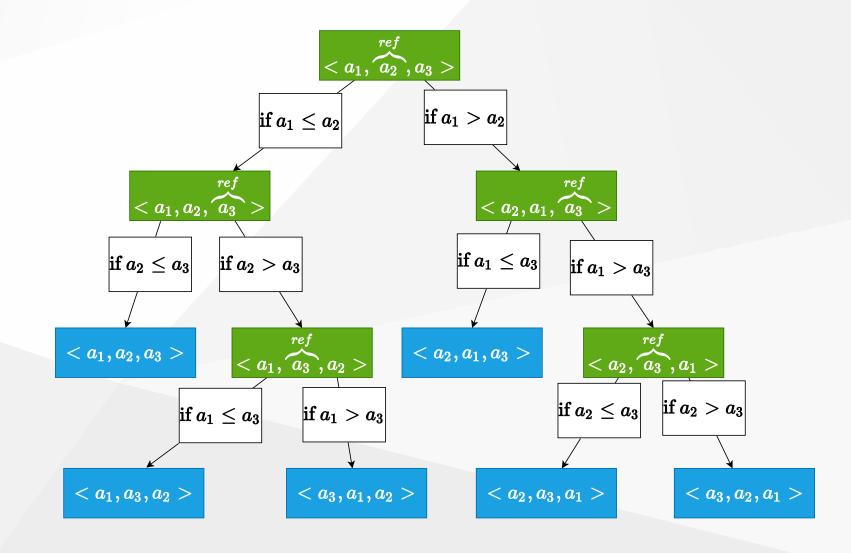


Reminder: Insertion Sort Step-By-Step Description (3)



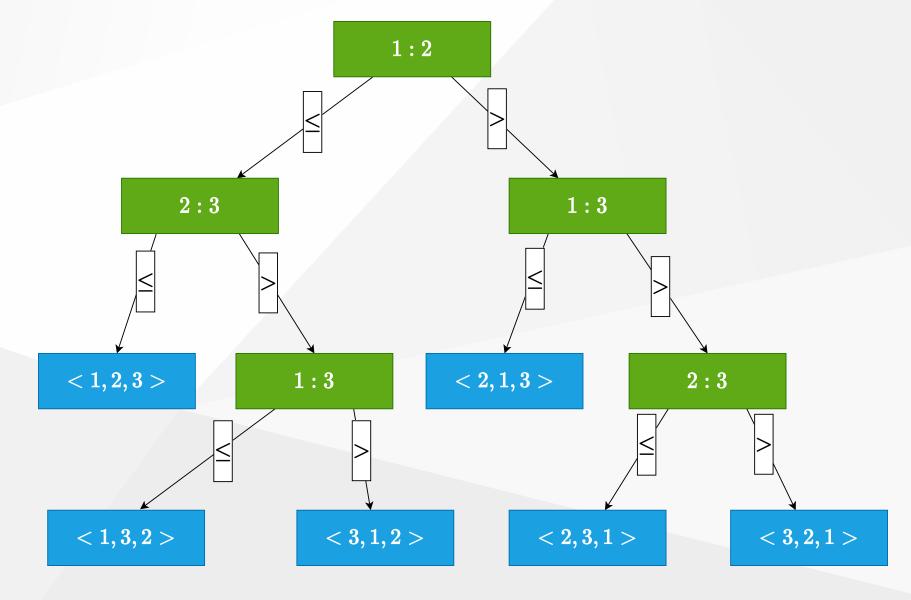
# Different Outcomes for Insertion Sort and n=3

• Input :  $< a_1, a_2, a_3 >$ 





## Decision Tree for Insertion Sort and n=3





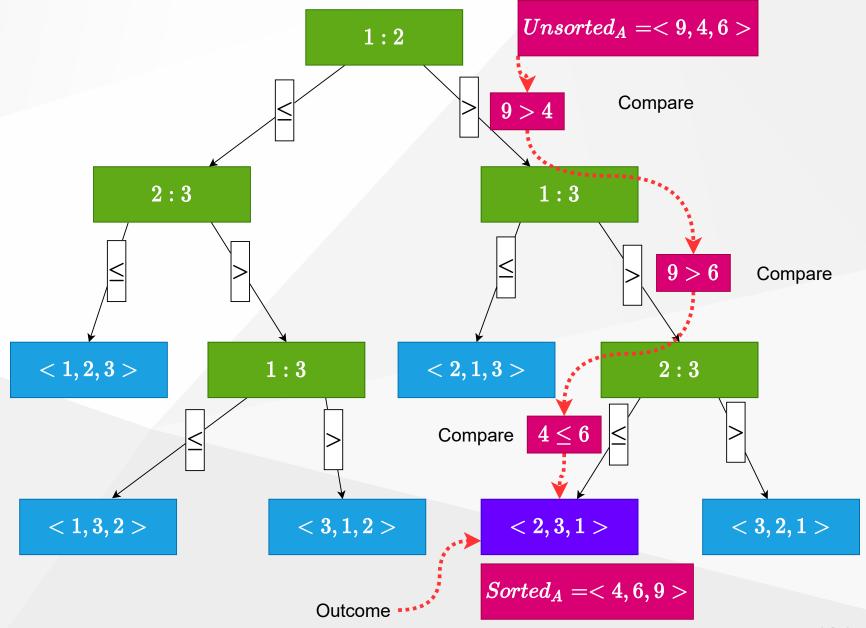
#### **Decision Tree Model for Comparison Sorts**

- ullet Internal node (i:j): Comparison between elements  $a_i$  and  $a_j$
- Leaf node: An output of the sorting algorithm
- Path from root to a leaf: The execution of the sorting algorithm for a given input
- All possible executions are captured by the decision tree
- All possible outcomes (permutations) are in the leaf nodes



## Decision Tree for Insertion Sort and n=3

• Input: <9,4,6>

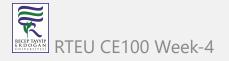




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#### **Decision Tree Model**

- A decision tree can model the execution of any comparison sort:
  - $\circ$  One tree for each input size n
  - View the algorithm as splitting whenever it compares two elements
  - The tree contains the comparisons along all possible instruction traces
- The running time of the algorithm = the length of the path taken
- Worst case running time = height of the tree





#### **Lower Bound for Comparison Sorts**

- Let *n* be the number of elements in the input array.
- What is the min number of leaves in the decision tree?
  - $\circ$  n! (because there are n! permutations of the input array, and all possible outputs must be captured in the leaves)
- ullet What is the max number of leaves in a binary tree of height  $h?\Longrightarrow 2^h$
- So, we must have:

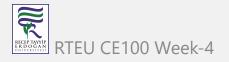
$$2^h \ge n!$$



#### Lower Bound for Decision Tree Sorting

- Theorem: Any comparison sort algorithm requires  $\Omega(nlgn)$  comparisons in the worst case.
- ullet Proof: We'll prove that any decision tree corresponding to a comparison sort algorithm must have height  $\Omega(nlgn)$

$$egin{aligned} 2^h &\geq n! \ h &\geq lg(n!) \ &\geq lg((n/e)^n)(StirlingApproximation) \ &= nlgn-nlge \ &= \Omega(nlgn) \end{aligned}$$



#### **Lower Bound for Decision Tree Sorting**

Corollary: Heapsort and merge sort are asymptotically optimal comparison sorts.

**Proof:** The O(nlgn) upper bounds on the runtimes for heapsort and merge sort

match the  $\Omega(nlgn)$  worst-case lower bound from the previous theorem.



#### **Sorting in Linear Time**

• Counting sort: No comparisons between elements

 $\circ$  Input:  $A[1\dots n]$ , where  $A[j]\in\{1,2,\dots,k\}$ 

 $\circ$  Output:  $B[1\dots n]$ , sorted

 $\circ$  Auxiliary storage:  $C[1\dots k]$ 

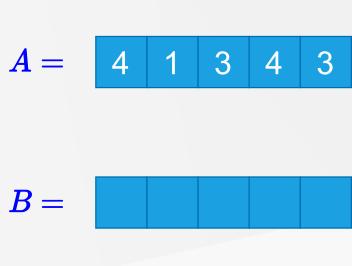


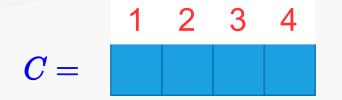
for 
$$i \leftarrow 1$$
 to  $k$  do
$$C[i] \leftarrow 0$$
for  $j \leftarrow 1$  to  $n$  do
$$C[A[j]] \leftarrow C[A[j]] + 1$$

$$// C[i] = |\{key = i\}|$$
for  $i \leftarrow 2$  to  $k$  do
$$C[i] \leftarrow C[i] + C[i-1]$$

$$// C[i] = |\{key \le i\}|$$
for  $j \leftarrow n$  downto  $1$  do
$$B[C[A[j]]] \leftarrow A[j]$$

$$C[A[j]] \leftarrow C[A[j]] - 1$$



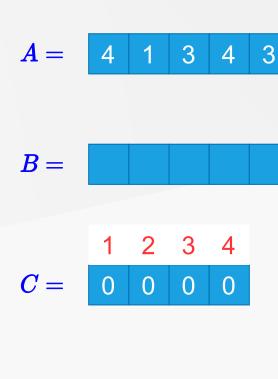






• Step 1: Initialize all counts to 0





 Step 2: Count the number of occurrences of each value in the input array



```
for i \leftarrow 1 to k do
    C[i] \leftarrow 0
for j \leftarrow 1 to n do
   C[A[j]] \leftarrow C[A[j]] + 1
// C[i] = |\{key = i\}|
for i \leftarrow 2 to k do
  C[i] \leftarrow C[i] + C[i-1]
// C[i] = |\{ \text{key} \le i \}|
for j \leftarrow n downto 1 do
   B[C[A[j]]] \leftarrow A[j]
   C[A[j]] \leftarrow C[A[j]] - 1
```



$$C = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

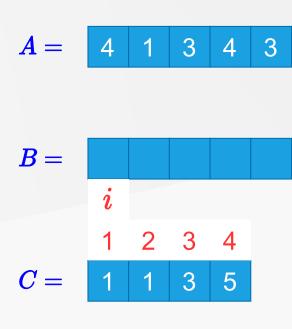
B =



 Step 3: Compute the number of elements less than or equal to each value

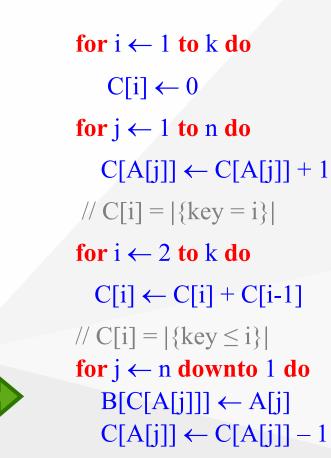


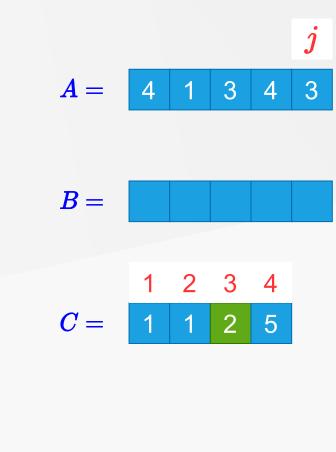
```
for i \leftarrow 1 to k do
    C[i] \leftarrow 0
for j \leftarrow 1 to n do
   C[A[j]] \leftarrow C[A[j]] + 1
// C[i] = |\{key = i\}|
for i \leftarrow 2 to k do
  C[i] \leftarrow C[i] + C[i-1]
// C[i] = |\{ \text{key} \le i \}|
for j \leftarrow n downto 1 do
   B[C[A[j]]] \leftarrow A[j]
   C[A[j]] \leftarrow C[A[j]] - 1
```



 Step 4: Populate the output array

 $\circ$  There are C[3]= 3 elements that are  $\leq 3$ 



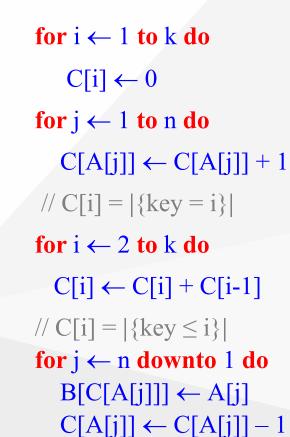


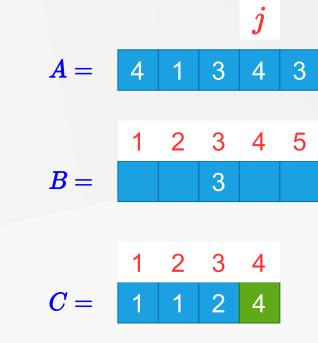


- **Step 4**: Populate the output array
  - $\circ$  There are C[4]=5 elements that are <4



#### **Step-5:** Populate the output array

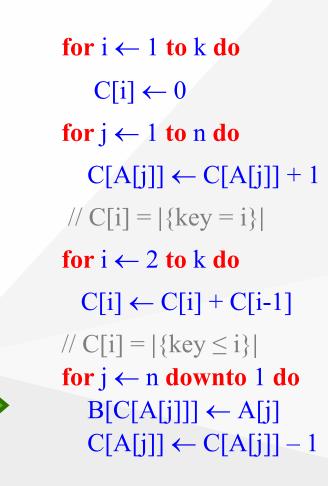


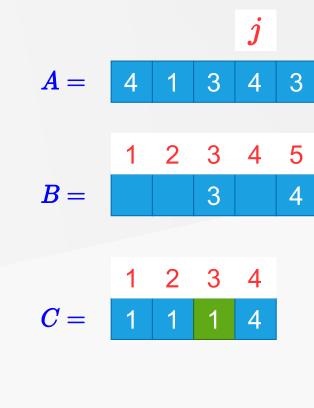


There are C[4] = 5 elts that are  $\leq 4$ 



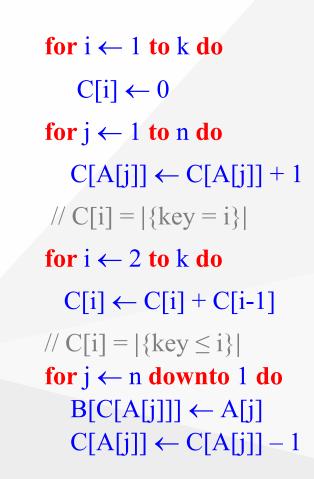
- Step 4: Populate the output array
  - $\circ$  There are C[3]=2 elements that are <3

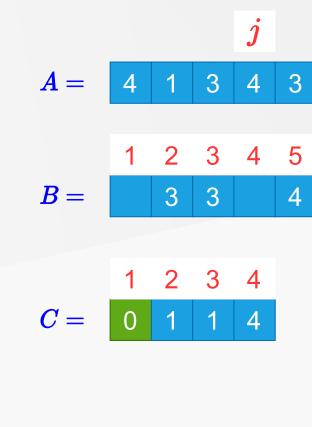






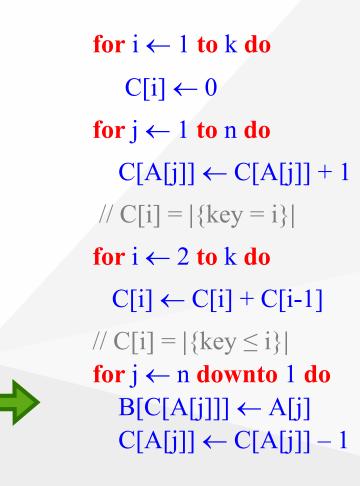
- Step 4: Populate the output array
  - $\circ$  There are C[1]=1 elements that are <1







- Step 4: Populate the output array
  - $\circ$  There are C[4]=4 elements that are <4





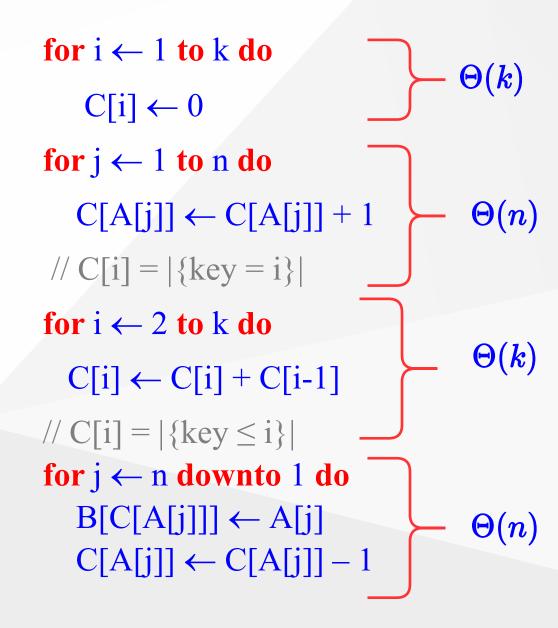


### **Counting Sort: Runtime Analysis**

• Total Runtime:

$$\Theta(n+k)$$

- n : size of the input array
- k: the range of input values





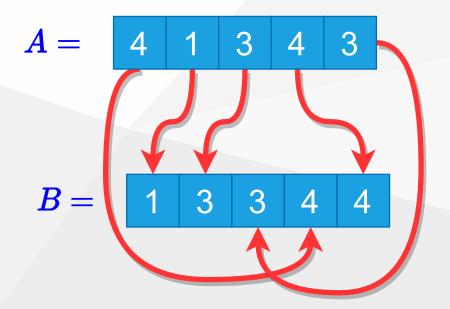
#### **Counting Sort: Runtime**

- Runtime is  $\Theta(n+k)$ 
  - $\circ$  If k=O(n), then counting sort takes  $\Theta(n)$
- Question: We proved a lower bound of  $\Theta(nlgn)$  before! Where is the fallacy?
- Answer:
  - $\circ$   $\Theta(nlgn)$  lower bound is for comparison-based sorting
  - Counting sort is not a comparison sort
  - In fact, not a single comparison between elements occurs!



#### **Stable Sorting**

- Counting sort is a stable sort: It preserves the input order among equal elements.
  - i.e. The numbers with the same value appear in the output array in the same order as they do in the input array.
- Note: Which other sorting algorithms have this property?





#### **Radix Sort**

- Origin: Herman Hollerith's card-sorting machine for the 1890 US Census.
- Basic idea: Digit-by-digit sorting
- Two variations:
  - Sort from MSD to LSD (bad idea)
  - Sort from LSD to MSD (good idea)

(LSD/MSD: Least/most significant digit)



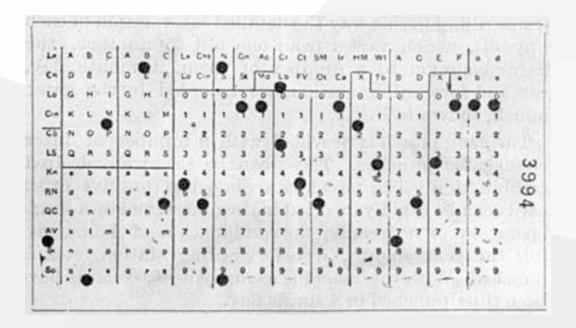
#### Herman Hollerith (1860-1929)

- The 1880 U.S. Census took almost 10 years to process.
- While a lecturer at MIT, Hollerith prototyped punched-card technology.
- His machines, including a **card sorter**, allowed the 1890 census total to be reported in **6 weeks**.
- He founded the **Tabulating Machine Company** in 1911, which merged with other companies in 1924 to form **International Business Machines(IBM)**.



#### **Hollerith Punched Card**

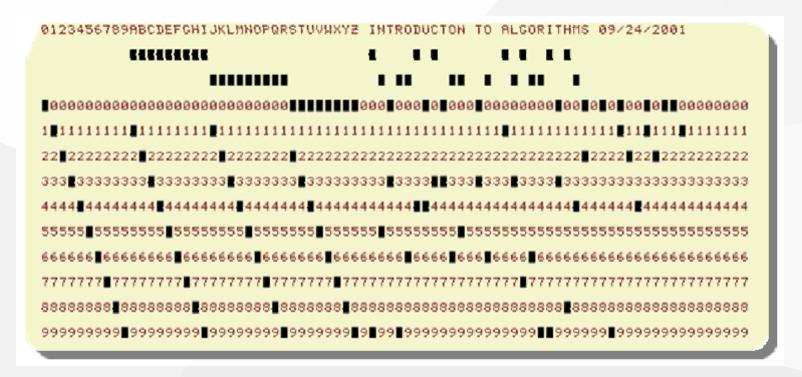
- **Punched card:** A piece of stiff paper that contains digital information represented by the presence or absence of holes.
  - 12 rows and 24 columns
  - o coded for age, state of residency, gender, etc.





#### **Modern IBM card**

- One character per column
  - So, that's why text windows have 80 columns!

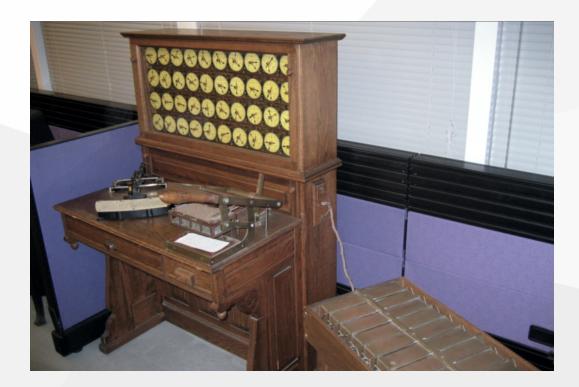


for more samples visit https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Punched\_card

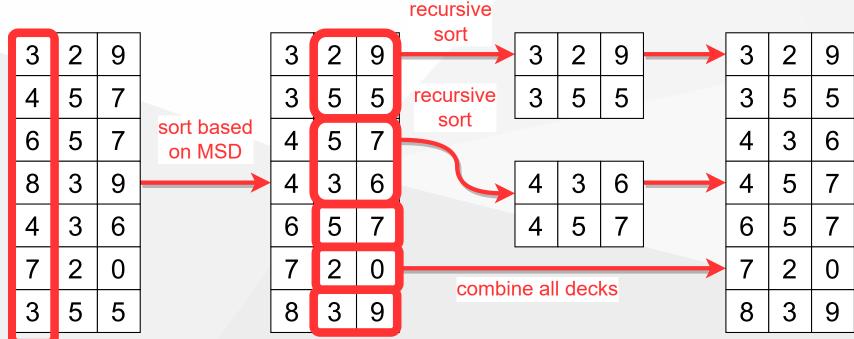
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#### Hollerith Tabulating Machine and Sorter

- Mechanically sorts the cards based on the hole locations.
- Sorting performed for one column at a time
- Human operator needed to load/retrieve/move cards at each stage

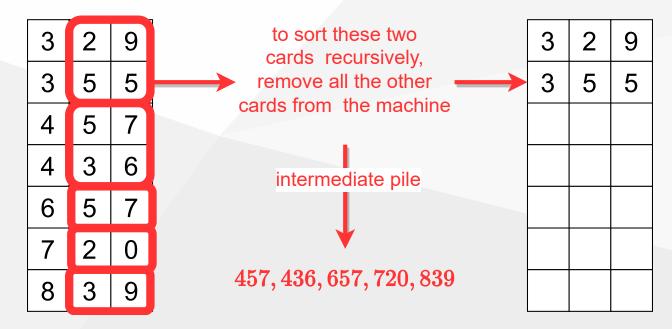


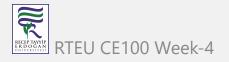
- Sort starting from the most significant digit (MSD)
- Then, sort each of the resulting bins recursively
- At the end, combine the decks in order





- To sort a subset of cards recursively:
  - All the other cards need to be removed from the machine, because the machine can handle only one sorting problem at a time.
  - The human operator needs to keep track of the intermediate card piles





- MSD-first sorting may require:
  - very large number of sorting passes
  - o very large number of intermediate card piles to maintain
- S(d):
  - # of passes needed to sort d-digit numbers (worst-case)
- Recurrence:
  - $\circ \ S(d)=10S(d-1)+1$  with S(1)=1
    - Reminder: Recursive call made to each subset with the same most significant digit(MSD)



• Recurrence: S(d) = 10S(d-1) + 1S(d) = 10S(d-1) + 1 $=10\Big(10S(d-2)+1\Big)+1$  $=10\Big(10\Big(10S(d-3)+1\Big)+1\Big)+1$  $= 10iS(d-i) + 10i - 1 + 10i - 2 + \cdots + 101 + 100$  $=\sum 10^i$ 

ullet Iteration terminates when i=d-1 with S(d-(d-1))=S(1)=1

• Recurrence: S(d) = 10S(d-1) + 1

$$egin{aligned} S(d) &= \sum_{i=0}^{d-1} 10^i \ &= rac{10^d-1}{10-1} \ &= rac{1}{9}(10^d-1) \ &\downarrow \ S(d) &= rac{1}{9}(10^d-1) \end{aligned}$$



- P(d): # of intermediate card piles maintained (worst-case)
- Reminder: Each routing pass generates 9 intermediate piles except the sorting passes on least significant digits (LSDs)
  - $\circ$  There are  $10^{d-1}$  sorting calls to LSDs

$$egin{aligned} P(d) &= 9(S(d) - 10^{d-1}) \ &= 9rac{(10^{d-1})}{9 - 10^{d-1}} \ &= (10^{d-1} - 9*10^{d-1}) \ &= 10^{d-1} - 1 \end{aligned}$$



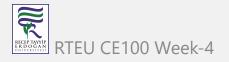
$$P(d) = 10^{d-1} - 1$$

Alternative solution: Solve the recurrence

$$P(d) = 10P(d-1) + 9$$

$$P(1) = 0$$

- Example: To sort 3 digit numbers, in the worst case:
  - $\circ \ S(d) = (1/9)(103-1) = 111$  sorting passes needed
  - $\circ \ P(d) = 10d-1-1=99$  intermediate card piles generated
- MSD-first approach has more recursive calls and intermediate storage requirement
  - Expensive for a **tabulating machine** to sort punched cards
  - Overhead of recursive calls in a modern computer



#### LSD-First Radix Sort

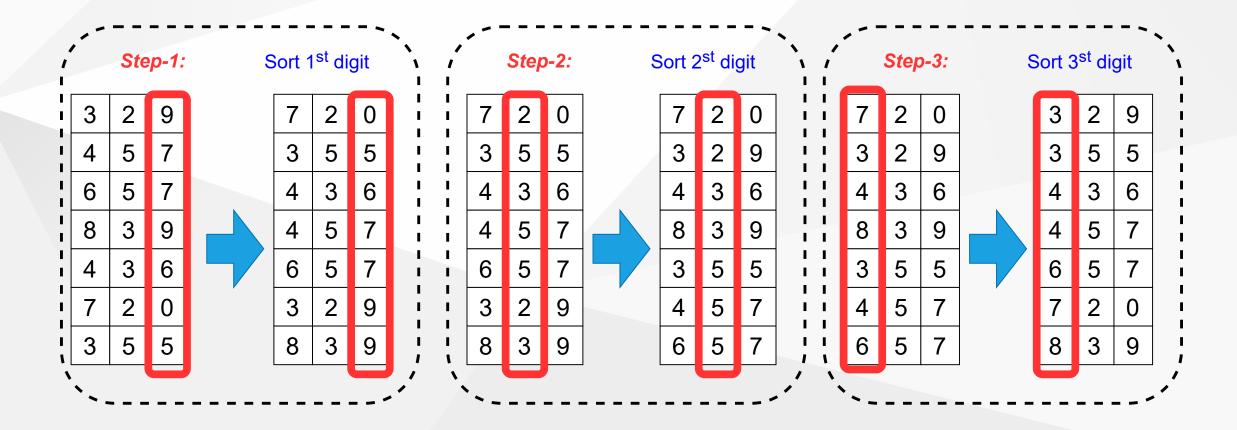
- Least significant digit (LSD)-first radix sort seems to be a folk invention originated by machine operators.
- It is the counter-intuitive, but the better algorithm.
- Basic Algorithm:

```
Sort numbers on their LSD first (Stable Sorting Needed)
Combine the cards into a single deck in order
Continue this sorting process for the other digits
from the LSD to MSD
```

- ullet Requires only d sorting passes
- No intermediate card pile generated



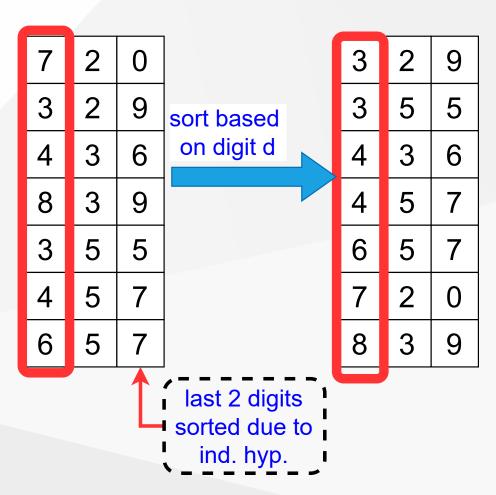
# LSD-first Radix Sort Example





# **Correctness of Radix Sort (LSD-first)**

- Proof by induction:
  - $\circ$  Base case: d=1 is correct (trivial)
  - $\circ$  Inductive hyp: Assume the first d-1 digits are sorted correctly
- ullet Prove that all d digits are sorted correctly after sorting digit d
- Two numbers that differ in digit d are correctly sorted (e.g. 355 and 657)
- Two numbers equal in digit d are put in the same order as the input
  - (correct order)



### **Radix Sort Runtime**

- Use counting-sort to sort each digit
- Reminder: Counting sort complexity:  $\Theta(n+k)$ 
  - ∘ *n*: size of input array
  - $\circ$  k: the range of the values
- Radix sort runtime:  $\Theta(d(n+k))$ 
  - $\circ$  d: # of digits

How to choose the d and k?



# Radix Sort: Runtime – Example 1

- ullet We have flexibility in choosing d and k
- Assume we are trying to sort 32-bit words
  - We can define each digit to be 4 bits
  - $\circ$  Then, the range for each digit  $k=2^4=16$ 
    - lacksquare So, counting sort will take  $\Theta(n+16)$
  - $\circ$  The number of digits d=32/4=8
  - $\circ$  Radix sort runtime:  $\Theta(8(n+16)) = \Theta(n)$

32-bits

 $\bullet \ \ [4bits|4bits|4bits|4bits|4bits|4bits|4bits|]$ 



# Radix Sort: Runtime – Example 2

- ullet We have flexibility in choosing d and k
- Assume we are trying to sort 32-bit words
  - Or, we can define each digit to be 8 bits
  - $\circ$  Then, the range for each digit  $k=2^8=256$ 
    - lacksquare So, counting sort will take  $\Theta(n+256)$
  - $\circ$  The number of digits d=32/8=4
  - $\circ$  Radix sort runtime:  $\Theta(4(n+256)) = \Theta(n)$

ullet [8bits|8bits|8bits|8bits]



#### **Radix Sort: Runtime**

- Assume we are trying to sort b-bit words
  - $\circ$  Define each digit to be r bits
  - $\circ$  Then, the range for each digit  $k=2^r$ 
    - lacksquare So, counting sort will take  $\Theta(n+2^r)$
  - $\circ$  The number of digits d=b/r
    - Radix sort runtime:

$$T(n,b) = \Thetaigg(rac{b}{r}(n+2^r)igg)$$

 $\bullet$   $\overbrace{[rbits|rbits|rbits|rbits]}^{b/r ext{ bits}}$ 

# **Radix Sort: Runtime Analysis**

$$T(n,b) = \Thetaigg(rac{b}{r}(n+2^r)igg)$$

- ullet Minimize T(n,b) by differentiating and setting to 0
- Or, intuitively:
  - $\circ$  We want to balance the terms (b/r) and  $(n+2^r)$
  - $\circ$  Choose rpprox lgn
    - lacktriangledown If we choose  $r<< lgn \Longrightarrow (n+2^r)$  term doesn't improve
    - lacktriangledown If we choose  $r>>lgn\Longrightarrow (n+2^r)$  increases **exponentially**



# **Radix Sort: Runtime Analysis**

$$T(n,b) = \Thetaigg(rac{b}{r}(n+2^r)igg)$$
 Choose  $r = lgn \Longrightarrow T(n,b) = \Theta(bn/lgn)$ 

- For numbers in the range from 0 to  $n^d-1$ , we have:
  - $\circ$  The number of bits b=lg(nd)=dlgn
    - Radix sort runs in  $\Theta(dn)$



### **Radix Sort: Conclusions**

Choose 
$$r = lgn \Longrightarrow T(n,b) = \Theta(bn/lgn)$$

- Example: Compare radix sort with merge sort/heapsort
  - $\circ~1$  million ( $2^{20}$ ), 32-bit numbers  $(n=2^{20},b=32)$ 
    - lacktriangleq Radix sort:  $\lfloor 32/20 \rfloor = 2$  passes
    - Merge sort/heap sort: lgn = 20 passes
- Downsides:
  - Radix sort has little locality of reference (more cache misses)
  - The version that uses counting sort is not in-place
- On modern processors, a well-tuned quicksort implementation typically runs faster.

#### References

- Introduction to Algorithms, Third Edition | The MIT Press
- Bilkent CS473 Course Notes (new)
- Bilkent CS473 Course Notes (old)
- Insertion Sort GeeksforGeeks
- Priority Queue Using Linked List GeeksforGeeks
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- NIST Dictionary of Algorithms and Data Structures



$$-End-Of-Week-4-Course-Module-$$

