## Binary heaps (chapters 20.3-20.5) Leftist heaps

## Binary heaps are arrays!

A binary heap is really implemented using an array!


Possible because
of completeness
property

| 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 | 11 | 12 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 8 | 18 | 29 | 20 | 28 | 39 | 66 | 37 | 26 | 76 | 32 | 74 | 89 |

## Child positions

The left child of node $i$ is at index $2 i+1$ in the array...

...the right child is at index $2 i+2$

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## Parent position



## Reminder: inserting into a binary heap

To insert an element into a binary heap:

- Add the new element at the end of the heap
- Sift the element up: while the element is less than its parent, swap it with its parent
We can do exactly the same thing for a binary heap represented as an array!


## Inserting into a binary heap

Step 1: add the new element to the end of the array, set child to its index


## Inserting into a binary heap

Step 2: compute parent = (child-1)/2


## Inserting into a binary heap

Step 3: if array[parent] > array[child], swap them


| 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 | 11 | 12 | 13 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 6 | 18 | 29 | 20 | 28 | 39 | 8 | 37 | 26 | 76 | 32 | 74 | 89 | 66 |

## Inserting into a binary heap

Step 4: set child = parent, parent = (child - 1) / 2, and repeat


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## Binary heaps as arrays

Binary heaps are "morally" trees

- This is how we view them when we design the heap algorithms
But we implement the tree as an array
- The actual implementation translates these tree concepts to use arrays
In the rest of the lecture, we will only show the heaps as trees
- But you should have the "array view" in your head when looking at these trees


## Building a heap

## One more operation, build heap

- Takes an arbitrary array and makes it into a heap
- In-place: moves the elements around to make the heap property hold
Idea:
- Heap property: each element must be less than its children
- If a node breaks this property, we can fix it by sifting down
- So simply looping through the array and sifting down each element in turn ought to fix the invariant
- But when we sift an element down, its children must already have the heap property (otherwise the sifting doesn't work)
- To ensure this, loop through the array in reverse


## Building a heap

Go through elements in reverse order, sifting each down


## Building a heap

## Leaves never need sifting down!



## Building a heap

29 is greater than 18 so needs swapping


## Building a heap

32 is greater than 18 so needs swapping


## Building a heap

37 is greater than 20 so needs swapping


## Building a heap

28 is greater than 6 so needs swapping


## Build heap complexity

You would expect $\mathrm{O}(\mathrm{n} \log \mathrm{n})$ complexity:

- n "sift down" operations
- each sift down has $\mathrm{O}(\log n)$ complexity

Actually, it's O(n)! See book 20.3.

- (Rough reason: sifting down is most expensive for elements near the root of the tree, but the vast majority of elements are near the leaves)


## Heapsort

To sort a list using a heap:

- start with an empty heap
- add all the list elements in turn
- repeatedly find and remove the smallest element from the heap, and add it to the result list (this is a kind of selection sort)
However, this algorithm is not in-place. Heapsort uses the same idea, but without allocating any extra memory.


## Heapsort, in-place

We are going to repeatedly remove the largest value from the array and put it in the right place

- using a so-called max heap, a heap where you can find and delete the maximum element instead of the minimum
We'll divide the array into two parts
- The first part will be a heap
- The rest will contain the values we've removed
(This division is the same idea we used for in-place selection and insertion sort)


## Heapsort, in-place

First turn the array into a heap
Then just repeatedly delete the minimum element! Remember the deletion algorithm:

- Swap the maximum (first) element with the last element of the heap
- Reduce the size of the heap by 1 (deletes the first element, breaks the invariant)
- Sift the first element down
(repairs the invariant)
The swap actually puts the maximum element in the right place in the array


## Trace of heapsort

First build a heap (not shown)


## Trace of heapsort

Step 1: swap maximum and last element; decrease size of heap by 1


## Trace of heapsort

## Step 2: sift first element down



## Trace of heapsort

Step 2: sift first element down


## Trace of heapsort

Step 2: sift first element down


## Trace of heapsort

Step 2: sift first element down


## Trace of heapsort

We now have the biggest element at the end of the array, and a heap that's one element smaller! 76

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## Trace of heapsort

Step 1: swap maximum and last element; decrease size of heap by 1


## Trace of heapsort

Step 2: sift first element down


## Trace of heapsort

Step 2: sift first element down


## Trace of heapsort

Step 2: sift first element down


## Trace of heapsort



## Trace of heapsort

Step 1: swap maximum and last element; decrease size of heap by 1


## Trace of heapsort

Step 2: sift first element down


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Step 2: sift first element down


## Trace of heapsort



## Complexity of heapsort

Building the heap takes $\mathrm{O}(\mathrm{n})$ time
We delete the maximum element n times, each deletion taking $\mathrm{O}(\log \mathrm{n})$ time Hence the total complexity is $\mathrm{O}(\mathrm{n} \log \mathrm{n})$

## Warning

Our formulas for finding children and parents in the array assume 0-based arrays
The book, for some reason, uses 1-based arrays (and later switches to 0-based arrays)!
In a heap implemented using a 1-based array:

- the left child of index $i$ is index $2 i$
- the right child is index $2 i+1$
- the parent is index $i / 2$

Be careful when doing the lab!

## Summary of binary heaps

Binary heaps: $\mathrm{O}(\log \mathrm{n})$ insert, $\mathrm{O}(1)$ find minimum, $\mathrm{O}(\log \mathrm{n})$ delete minimum

- A complete binary tree with the heap property, represented as an array
Heapsort: build a max heap, repeatedly remove last element and place at end of array
- Can be done in-place, O(n $\log \mathrm{n})$

In fact, heaps were originally invented for heapsort!

## Leftist heaps

## Merging two heaps

Another operation we might want to do is merge two heaps

- Build a new heap with the contents of both heaps
- e.g., merging a heap containing $1,2,8,9,10$ and a heap containing $3,4,5,6,7$ gives a heap containing $1,2,3,4,5,6$, $7,8,9,10$
For our earlier naïve priority queues:
- An unsorted array: concatenate the arrays
- A sorted array: merge the arrays (as in mergesort)

For binary heaps:

- Takes O(n) time because you need to at least copy the contents of one heap to the other
Can't combine two arrays in less than $O(n)$ time!


## Merging tree-based heaps

Go back to our idea of a binary tree with the heap property:


If we can merge two of these trees, we can implement insertion and delete minimum!
(We'll see how to implement merge later)

## Insertion

To insert a single element:

- build a heap containing just that one element - merge it into the existing heap!
E.g., inserting 12

A tree with
just one node


## Delete minimum

To delete the minimum element:

- take the left and right branches of the tree
- these contain every element except the smallest
- merge them!
E.g., deleting 8 from the previous heap



## Heaps based on merging

If we can take trees with the heap property, and implement merging with $\mathrm{O}(\log \mathrm{n})$ complexity, we get a priority queue with:

- O(1) find minimum
- O(logn) insertion (by merging)
- $\mathrm{O}(\log \mathrm{n})$ delete minimum (by merging)
- plus this useful merge operation itself

There are lots of heaps based on this idea:

- skew heaps, Fibonacci heaps, binomial heaps

We will study one: leftist heaps

## Naive merging

1. Look at the roots of the two trees


We are going to pick the smaller one as the root of the new tree

## Naive merging

2. Recursively merge the right branch and the second tree


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## Performance of naïve merging

The merge algorithm descends down the right branch of both trees

So the runtime depends on how many times you can follow the right branch before you get to the end of the tree

- Let's call this the right null path length

Complexity: $\mathrm{O}(\mathrm{m}+\mathrm{n})$

- where $m$ and $n$ are the right null path lengths of the two trees
Logarithmic complexity for balanced trees, but can become linear is the trees are heavily "rightbiased"


## Worst case for naïve merging

A heavily right-biased tree:


## Leftist heaps - observation

Naive merging is:

- bad (linear complexity) for right-biased trees
- good (logarithmic or better) for left-biased trees

Idea of leftist heaps:

- Add an invariant that stops the tree becoming right-biased
- In other words, by repeatedly following the right branch, you quickly reach the end of the tree


## Null path length

We define the null path length (npl) of a node to be the shortest path that leads to the end of the tree (a null in Java)


The null path length of null itself is 0
Similar concept to height, but with height we measure the longest path in the tree

## Leftist heaps

Leftist invariant: the npl of the left child $\geq$ the npl of the right child


This means: the quickest way to reach a null is to follow the right branch

## Leftist merging

We start with the naïve merging algorithm from earlier:

- The leftist invariant means that naïve merging stops after $\mathrm{O}(\log \mathrm{n})$ steps
But the merge might break the leftist invariant!
- When we descend into the right child, its npl might increase, and become greater than the left child
Fix it by:
- Going upwards in the tree from where the merge finished, and wherever we encounter a node where left child's npl < right child's npl, swap the two children!


## Leftist merging

1. Start with naïve merging from earlier


## Leftist merging

2. The recursion "bottomed out" at 66 here


## Leftist merging

3. Go up to the parent, compare left and right child's npl


left npl: 0 right npl: 1<br>Invariant broken!

## Leftist merging

4. If the leftist invariant is broken, swap the left and right children


66 becomes the left child instead

## Leftist merging

## 5. Go up again and repeat!


left npl: 2
right npl: 1 OK!

## Leftist merging

## 5. Go up again and repeat!



> left npl: 1
> right npl: 2
> Invariant broken!
> Swap left and right.

## Leftist merging

## 5. Go up again and repeat!



left npl: 1<br>right npl: 2<br>Invariant broken!<br>Swap left and right.

## Leftist merging

6. When we've reached the root, we've finished!


Notice how the final heap "leans to the left".

## Implementation

Implementation:

- Need to be able to compute npl efficiently
- Add a field for the npl to each node, and update it whenever we modify the node
- Update by computing: $\mathrm{npl}=1+$ right child's npl


## Complexity of leftist merging

I claim: the npl of a tree of size n is $\mathrm{O}(\log \mathrm{n})$

- Check it for yourself :)
- For balanced trees, the npl is $\mathrm{O}(\log \mathrm{n})$, much like height
- By unbalancing a tree, we make some paths longer, and some shorter. This increases the height, but decreases the npl!
Hence, in a leftist heap, by following the right branch $\mathrm{O}(\log \mathrm{n})$ times, you reach a null
So merge takes $O(\log n)$ time!
- $\log n$ steps down the tree to do the naïve tree
- then log n steps upwards while repairing the leftist invariant


## Leftist heaps

## Implementation of priority queues:

- binary trees with heap property
- leftist invariant for $\mathrm{O}(\log \mathrm{n})$ merging
- other operations are based on merge

A good fit for functional languages:

- based on trees rather than arrays

