

## Binomial Queues

CSE 326  
Data Structures  
Lecture 12

## Reading

- Reading
  - › Section 6.8,

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## Merging heaps

- Binary Heap is a special purpose hot rod
  - › FindMin, DeleteMin and Insert only
  - › does not support fast merges of two heaps
- For some applications, the items arrive in prioritized clumps, rather than individually
- Is there somewhere in the heap design that we can give up a little performance so that we can gain faster merge capability?

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## Binomial Queues

- Binomial Queues are designed to be merged quickly with one another
- Using pointer-based design we can merge large numbers of nodes at once by simply pruning and grafting tree structures
- More overhead than Binary Heap, but the flexibility is needed for improved merging speed

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## Worst Case Run Times

	Binary Heap	Binomial Queue
Insert	$\Theta(\log N)$	$\Theta(\log N)$
FindMin	$\Theta(1)$	$O(\log N)$
DeleteMin	$\Theta(\log N)$	$\Theta(\log N)$
Merge	$\Theta(N)$	$O(\log N)$

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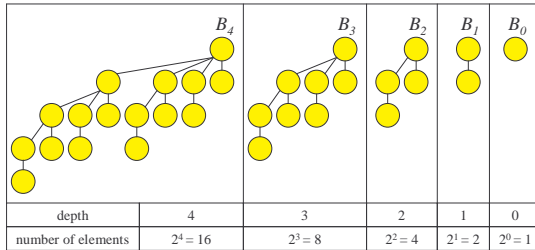
## Binomial Queues

- Binomial queues give up  $\Theta(1)$  FindMin performance in order to provide  $O(\log N)$  merge performance
- A **binomial queue** is a collection (or *forest*) of heap-ordered trees
  - › Not just one tree, but a collection of trees
  - › each tree has a defined structure and capacity
  - › each tree has the familiar heap-order property

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## Binomial Queue with 5 Trees

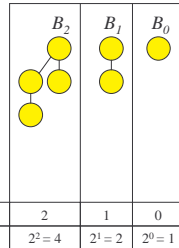


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## Structure Property

- Each tree contains two copies of the previous tree
  - the second copy is attached at the root of the first copy
- The number of nodes in a tree of depth  $d$  is exactly  $2^d$



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## Powers of 2

- Any number  $N$  can be represented in base 2
  - A base 2 value identifies the powers of 2 that are to be included

$2^3 = 8_{10}$	$2^2 = 4_{10}$	$2^1 = 2_{10}$	$2^0 = 1_{10}$		
1	1	1	1	Hex <sub>16</sub>	Decimal <sub>10</sub>
1	0	0	0	4	4
1	0	1	0	5	5

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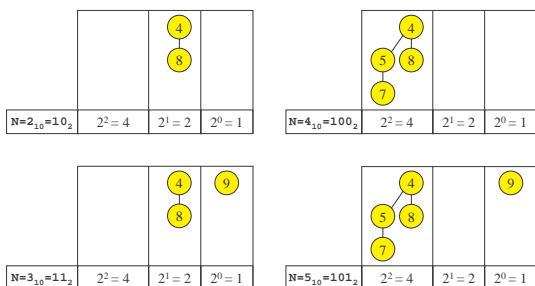
## Numbers of nodes

- Any number of entries in the binomial queue can be stored in a forest of binomial trees
- Each tree holds the number of nodes appropriate to its depth, ie  $2^d$  nodes
- So the structure of a forest of binomial trees can be characterized with a single binary number
  - $100_2 \rightarrow 1 \cdot 2^2 + 0 \cdot 2^1 + 0 \cdot 2^0 = 4$  nodes

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## Structure Examples



## What is a merge?

- There is a direct correlation between
  - the number of nodes in the tree
  - the representation of that number in base 2
  - and the actual structure of the tree
- When we merge two queues, the number of nodes in the new queue is the *sum* of  $N_1 + N_2$
- We can use that fact to help see how fast merges can be accomplished

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**Example 1.**

Merge BQ.1 and BQ.2

Easy Case.

There are no comparisons and there is no restructuring.

BQ.1

			9
$N=1_{10}=1_2$	$2^2=4$	$2^1=2$	$2^0=1$

+ BQ.2

		4	
		8	
$N=2_{10}=10_2$	$2^2=4$	$2^1=2$	$2^0=1$

= BQ.3

		4	9
		8	
$N=3_{10}=11_2$	$2^2=4$	$2^1=2$	$2^0=1$

**Example 2.**

Merge BQ.1 and BQ.2

This is an add with a carry out.

It is accomplished with one comparison and one pointer change:  $O(1)$

BQ.1

		1	
		3	
$N=2_{10}=10_2$	$2^2=4$	$2^1=2$	$2^0=1$

+ BQ.2

		4	
		6	
$N=2_{10}=10_2$	$2^2=4$	$2^1=2$	$2^0=1$

= BQ.3

		1	
		4	3
		6	
$N=4_{10}=100_2$	$2^2=4$	$2^1=2$	$2^0=1$

**Example 3.**

Merge BQ.1 and BQ.2

Part 1 - Form the carry.

BQ.1

		1	7
		3	
$N=3_{10}=11_2$	$2^2=4$	$2^1=2$	$2^0=1$

+ BQ.2

		4	
		6	
$N=3_{10}=11_2$	$2^2=4$	$2^1=2$	$2^0=1$

= carry

		7	
		8	
$N=2_{10}=10_2$	$2^2=4$	$2^1=2$	$2^0=1$

**Example 3.**

Part 2 - Add the existing values and the carry.

carry

		7	
		8	
$N=2_{10}=10_2$	$2^2=4$	$2^1=2$	$2^0=1$

+ BQ.1

		1	7
		3	
$N=3_{10}=11_2$	$2^2=4$	$2^1=2$	$2^0=1$

+ BQ.2

		4	
		6	
$N=3_{10}=11_2$	$2^2=4$	$2^1=2$	$2^0=1$

= BQ.3

		1	7
		4	3
		6	
$N=6_{10}=110_2$	$2^2=4$	$2^1=2$	$2^0=1$

## Merge Algorithm

- Just like binary addition algorithm
- Assume trees  $X_0, \dots, X_n$  and  $Y_0, \dots, Y_n$  are binomial queues
  - $X_i$  and  $Y_i$  are of type  $B_i$  or null

```

C0 := null; //initial carry is null//
for i = 0 to n do
  combine  $X_i, Y_i$ , and  $C_i$  to form  $Z_i$  and new  $C_{i+1}$ 
 $Z_{n+1} := C_{n+1}$ 

```

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## Exercise

$N=3_{10}=11_2$

		4	9
		8	
$2^2=4$	$2^1=2$	$2^0=1$	

$N=5_{10}=101_2$

		3	13	1
		7	10	
		12	15	
$2^2=4$	$2^1=2$	$2^0=1$		

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## O(log N) time to Merge

- For N keys there are at most  $\lceil \log_2 N \rceil$  trees in a binomial forest.
- Each merge operation only looks at the root of each tree.
- Total time to merge is  $O(\log N)$ .

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## Insert

- Create a single node queue  $B_0$  with the new item and merge with existing queue
- $O(\log N)$  time

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## DeleteMin

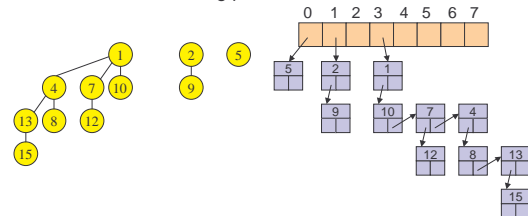
1. Assume we have a binomial forest  $X_0, \dots, X_m$
  2. Find tree  $X_k$  with the smallest root
  3. Remove  $X_k$  from the queue
  4. Remove root of  $X_k$  (return this value)
    - › This yields a binomial forest  $Y_0, Y_1, \dots, Y_{k-1}$ .
  5. Merge this new queue with remainder of the original (from step 3)
- Total time =  $O(\log N)$

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## Implementation

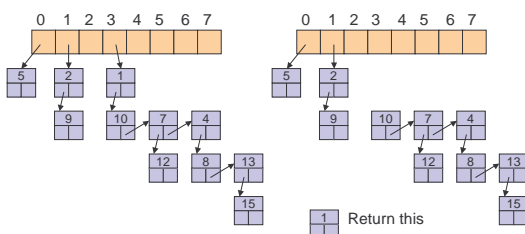
- Binomial forest as an array of multiway trees
  - › FirstChild, Sibling pointers



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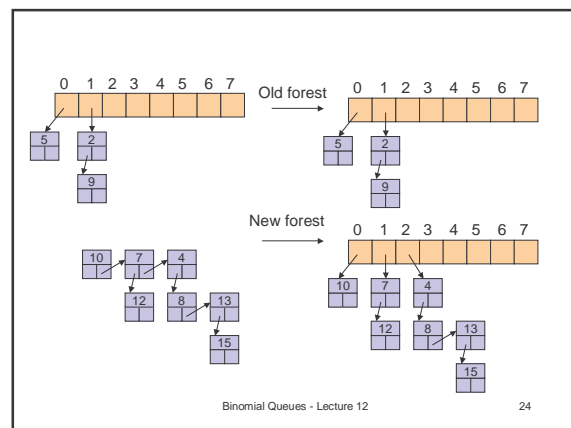
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## DeleteMin Example



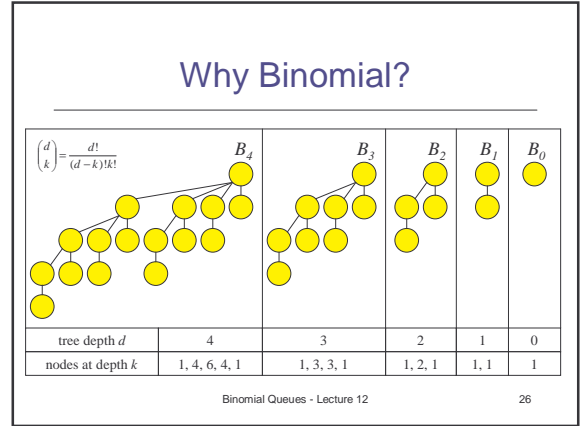
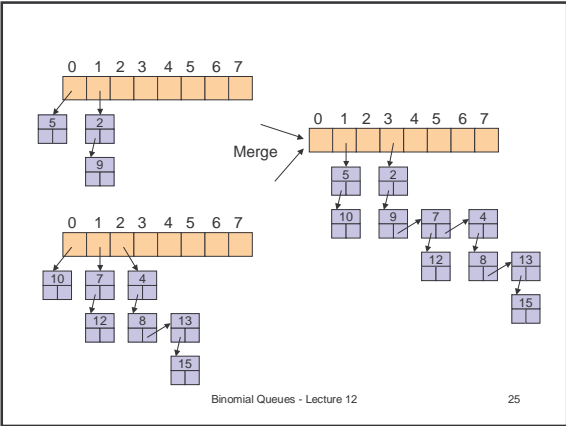
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### Other Priority Queues

- Leftist Heaps
  - ›  $O(\log N)$  time for insert, delete, merge
- Skew Heaps
  - ›  $O(\log N)$  amortized time for insert, delete, merge
- Calendar Queues
  - ›  $O(1)$  average time for insert and delete
  - › Assuming insertions are "random"

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