

## 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

	<u>Binary Heap</u>	<u>Binomial Queue</u>
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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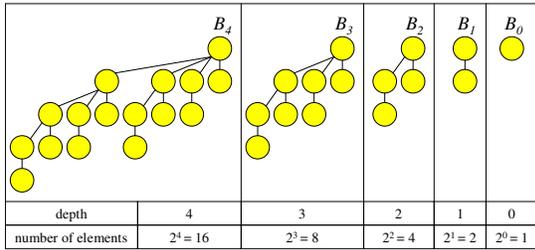
## Binomial Queues

- 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

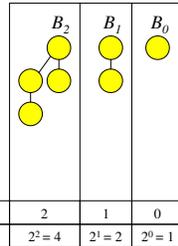


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## Structure Property

- 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

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

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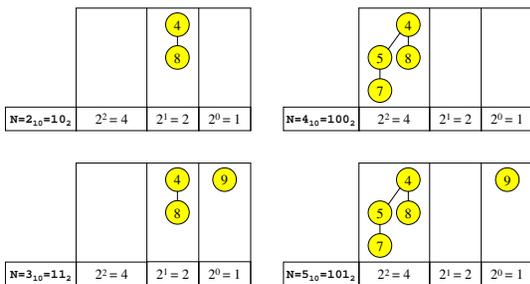
## Numbers of nodes

- 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, i.e.  $2^d$  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 8	9
$N=3_{10}=11_2$	$2^2=4$	$2^1=2$	$2^0=1$

**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 3	7
$N=3_{10}=11_2$	$2^2=4$	$2^1=2$	$2^0=1$
+ BQ.2		4 6	8
$N=3_{10}=11_2$	$2^2=4$	$2^1=2$	$2^0=1$
= 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 3	7
$N=3_{10}=11_2$	$2^2=4$	$2^1=2$	$2^0=1$
+ BQ.2		4 6	8
$N=3_{10}=11_2$	$2^2=4$	$2^1=2$	$2^0=1$
= BQ.3		1 4 3 6	7 8
$N=6_{10}=110_2$	$2^2=4$	$2^1=2$	$2^0=1$

## 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 Xi, Yi, and Ci to form Zi and new Ci+1
Zn+1 := Cn+1

```

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## Exercise

$N=3_{10}=11_2$	$2^2=4$	$2^1=2$	$2^0=1$
		4 8	9
$N=5_{10}=101_2$	$2^2=4$	$2^1=2$	$2^0=1$
		2 7 10 12	13 15 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  $O(\log N)$ .

## Insert

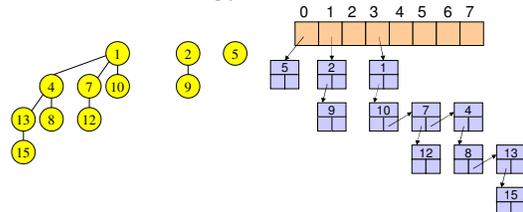
- Create a single node queue  $B_0$  with the new item and merge with existing queue
- $O(\log N)$  time

## DeleteMin

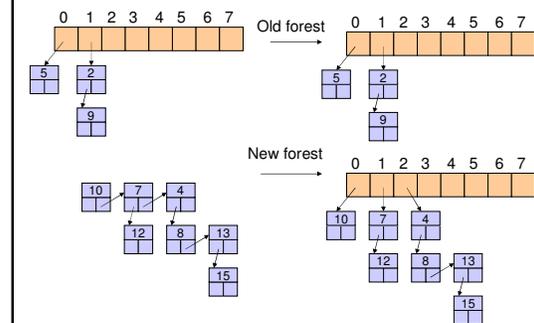
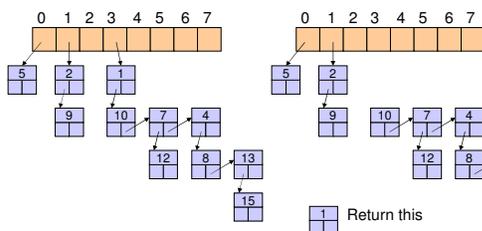
1. Assume we have a binomial forest  $X_0, \dots, X_m$
2. Find tree  $X_k$  with the smallest root
3. Remove  $X_k$  from the queue
4. Remove root of  $X_k$  (return this value)
  - › This yields a binomial forest  $Y_0, Y_1, \dots, Y_{k-1}$ .
5. Merge this new queue with remainder of the original (from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

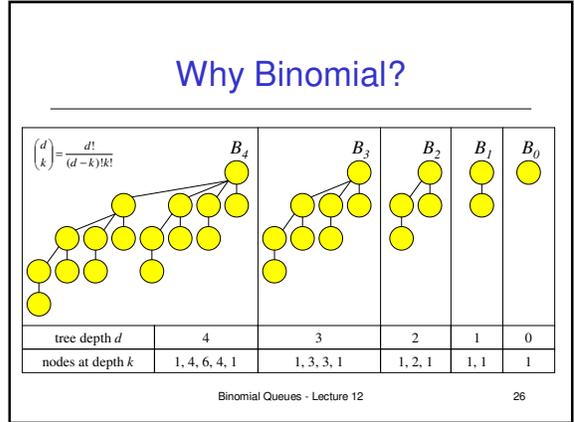
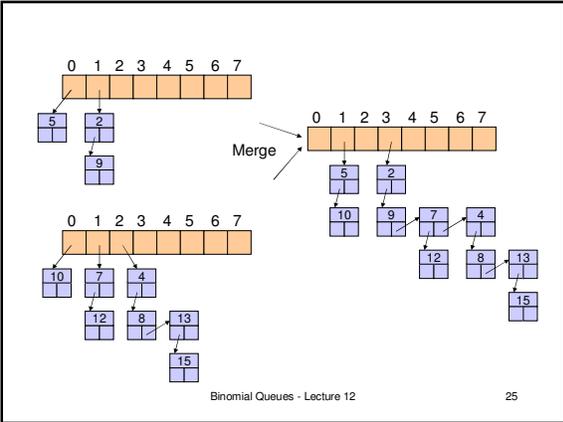
## Implementation

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



## DeleteMin Example





- ### Other Priority Queues
- Leftist Heaps
    - ›  $O(\log N)$  time for insert, deletemin, merge
  - Skew Heaps
    - ›  $O(\log N)$  amortized time for insert, deletemin, merge
  - Fibonacci Heaps –
    - ›  $O(1)$  amortized time for findmin, insert, merge
    - ›  $O(\log n)$  amortized time for deletemin, delete
  - Calendar Queues
    - ›  $O(1)$  average time for insert and deletemin
    - › Assuming insertions are suitably "random"
    - › Suitable for limited, but important, applications
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