# A Characterization of Heaps and Its Applications 

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#### Abstract

In this paper we present a new view of a classical data structure, the heap. We view a heap on $n$ elements as an ordered collection of $\left\lceil\log _{2}(n+1)\right\rceil$ substructures of sizes $2^{i}$ with $i$ in $\left\{0, \ldots,\left\lfloor\log _{2}(n)\right\rfloor\right\}$. We use the new view in the design of an algorithm for splitting a heap on $n$ elements into two heaps on $k$ and $n-k$ elements, respectively. The algorithm requires $O\left(\log ^{2}(n)\right)$ comparisons, improving the previous bound of $O(k)$ comparisons for all but small values of $k$, i.e., for $k>\log ^{2}(n)$. We also present a new and conceptually simple algorithm for merging heaps of sizes $n$ and $k$ into one heap of size $n+k$ in $O(\log (n) * \log (k))$ comparisons. © 1990 Academic Press, Inc.


## 1. Introduction

### 1.1. Background

A (min-)heap (Williams, 1964) is a binary tree with the following properties:
(1) it is heap-ordered, i.e., a key contained in any node is not greater than the keys of its offspring, and
(2) it is heap-shaped, i.e., all leaves are on at most two adjecent levels, all leaves on the last level are as far to the left as possible, and all other levels are complete. A heap is an implicit data structure in the sense of (Munro et al., 1980).

We refer to the number of elements in the heap as its size. The height of

[^0]TABLE I
Traditional Heap-operations and Their Complexities

| Operation | Description | Comparisons |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Create | Construct a heap | $O(n)$ |
| FindMin | Find element with minimum key | $O(1)$ |
| DeleteMin | Remove element with minimum key | $O(\log (n))$ |
| Insert | Insert a new element | $O(\log (n))$ |

the heap is $\lfloor\log ($ size $)\rfloor$. As usual, $\log$ stands for $\log _{2}$ and, whenever integer values are expected, we will use the floor function, e.g., as in $\lfloor\log ($ size $)\rfloor$.
A heap is an efficient implementation of the data type priority queue, as shown in Brown (1980) and Gonnet (1984). The operations shown in Table I are commonly performed on heaps (see Floyd, 1964; Knuth, 1973; Gonnet, 1984).

By exploiting the property that elements on a path from the root of a heap to a leaf occur in sorted order, the number of comparisons for inserting a new element into a heap can be reduced to $O(\log \log (n))$ (Gonnet and Munro, 1986).

In this paper, we consider two additional operations on priority queues and show how these can be implemented using heaps. These operations are given in Table II.

In addition to being of theoretic interest, the operations Split(heap, $k$ ) and Merge(heap 1 , heap 2 ) are useful in the context of a multi-processor system where processors are deactivated (e.g., because of failure) and subsequently reactivated (e.g., start-up after repair). Each processor has associated with it a priority queue of jobs and the queue of any deactivated processor must be merged with the queue of some other processor. Subsequently, after reactivation of the processor its priority queue is obtained by splitting some queue into two. In this case, the maximum queue size, $k$, of the newly activated processor, will be given as the second parameter for the Split-operation; two queues of sizes $k$ and $n-k$, respectively, are produced.
A related Merge operation for priority queues has previously been studied (see Aho et al., 1974, pp. 152-157). The authors designed a mergeable heap which consists of a $2-3$ tree with a relaxation of the left-to-right

TABLE II
Description of the Operations Split and Merge

| Merge <br> Split | Merge two heaps of sizes $n$ and $k$ <br> Split a heap into two heaps of sizes $k$ and $n-k$ |
| :--- | :--- |

ordering condition on the leaves. Only the value of the minimum key of a subtree is recorded at its root. Such heaps can be merged in $O(\log (n))$ time, but cannot be stored implicitly.

In a similar vein, Aho, et al. studied a Split operation which is related to the one we consider in this paper. Their operation $\operatorname{Split}(a, S)$ partitions a set $S$ into two sets $S_{1}=\{b \in S \mid b \leqslant a\}$ and $S_{2}=\{b \in S \mid b>a\}$. They proposed concatenable queues, also based on 2-3 trees, to implement this operation in $O(\log (n))$ time. Two such concatenable queues $S_{1}, S_{2}$ can be merged in $O(\log (n))$ time, provided that all elements of $S_{1}$ are less than all elements of $S_{2}$. However, $O(n \log n)$ time is required to construct such queues and they cannot be stored implicitly.

We define a perfect heap as a heap of size $2^{i}-1$, while heaps of all other sizes are imperfect (Sack and Strothotte, 1985). Further, we define a pennant as a tree on $2^{i}$ elements, with the following properties:
(a) the smallest element is located at the root, and
(b) for $i>0$, the root has exactly one child which is a perfect heap on the remaining $2^{i}-1$ elements.

See Fig. 1 for an illustration.
The result of merging two equal-sized pennants is itself a pennant. Furthermore, a pennant can be split into two pennants of equal size. Thus, in contrast to perfect heaps, the set of pennants is closed under these two operations.

In this paper, we develop an alternative view of heaps. Our view will be based on a 1-1 correspondence between heaps and certain ordered forests of pennants. The algorithms presented for splitting and merging heaps exploit this correspondence.


Fig. 1. The root of a pennant has one child, consisting of a perfect heap.

## 2. An Alternative View of Heaps

In this section we show that a heap can be viewed as a unique ordered collection of pennants. A pennant forest or PF, $P=\left(P_{m}, \ldots, P_{0}\right)$, is defined to be an ordered collection of pennants satisfying the following properties:
(a) each $P_{i}, i=0, \ldots, m$, is a pennant,
(b) $\operatorname{key}\left(\operatorname{root}\left(P_{i}\right)\right) \leqslant \operatorname{key}\left(\operatorname{root}\left(P_{i-1}\right)\right)$ for $0<i \leqslant m$, and
(c) $\operatorname{size}\left(P_{i}\right) \geqslant \operatorname{size}\left(P_{i-1}\right)$.

We say that a PF corresponds to a heap $H$ if it contains the same elements as $H$, and furthermore, if a node $p$ has a child $s$ in the PF then this relationship holds also in $H$.
In general, there is more than one way of constructing a pennant forest corresponding to a given heap. Conversely, it may be impossible to construct a heap to which a given pennant forest corresponds without performing additional comparisons. To illustrate the latter point and to provide the reader with a more intuitive view of the pennant structure and its relation to heaps, we discuss two examples.

Example 1. Let $P=\left(P_{3}, P_{2}, P_{1}, P_{0}\right)$ be a PF in which all pennants have the same height $h$, where $h$ is greater than 0 . Intuitively, there are too many equal-sized pennants and thus the leaves of the heap will not be on adjacent levels. Any attempt to assemble a corresponding heap from this PF will result in a violation of the heap-shape.

Another reason why a PF might not correspond to any heap is illustrated by the following example.

Example 2. Let $P=\left(P_{2}, P_{1}, P_{0}\right)$, where the height of $P_{0}$ equals 3. From the defintion of PF it follows that both $P_{2}$ and $P_{1}$ are at least as large as $P_{0}$. Intuitively, the small pieces needed for the heap creation seem to be missing and again the heap-shape is violated.

Thus it is relevant to count the number of pennants a given PF has. We associate with every PF a descriptor $D=\left(d_{m^{\prime}}, \ldots, d_{0}\right)$ such that the PF has $d_{i}$ pennants of sizes $2^{i}$, for all $i=0, \ldots, m^{\prime}$. If the number of nodes in the PF is $k$ then

$$
k=\sum_{i=0}^{m^{\prime}} d_{i} * 2^{i} .
$$

In Section 2.1 we show how a unique PF is constructed corresponding to a given heap. The class of PF's whose elements are created in this manner
are characterized using descriptors. In Section 2.2, we prove that this class of PF's contains precisely all PF's for which a corresponding heap can be constructed. This provides us with a $1-1$ correspondence between heaps and this well-defined class of PF's.

### 2.1. Constructing a PF from a Heap

Since a given heap may have many PF's to which it corresponds, we need to specify a "canonical" PF representation. The idea is to split the heap by removing all arcs lying on the path from the root to the last leaf in the heap. Each node on the path from the root to the last leaf in the heap is the root of some pennant (see Fig. 2). This yields exactly $\lceil\log (n+1)\rceil$ subtrees, each of which is a pennant. Since the roots of these pennants are also sorted, the collection of pennants forms a pennant forest. Algorithm ConstructPF states the procedure more formally; it also produces the descriptor for the PF corresponding to the given heap.

```
Algorithm ConstructPF
Input: A heap \(H\) of height \(m\)
Output: The PF \(P\) corresponding to \(H\) as well as its descriptor \(D\)
    begin
        Initialize the descriptor \(D\) to 0
        \(j:=m\)
        for each edge (Node, Child) on the path in \(H\) from the root to the
        rightmost leaf on the last level do
        \(P_{j}:=\) the subtree rooted at Node excluding the subtree
        rooted at Child \{Node now has one child less \}
        \(j:=j-1\)
        increment \(d_{\text {heigh }\left(P_{j}\right)}\) by 1
        \{Now collect the remaining leaf\}
        \(P_{0}:=\) last leaft in heap \(H\)
    increment \(d_{\text {height }\left(P_{0}\right)}\) by 1
end
```

In Fig. 3 we illustrate the PF corresponding to the heap of Fig. 2. The correctness of Algorithm ConstructPF is established in the following lemma.

Lemma 2.1. For any given heap H, Algorithm ConstructPF constructs a corresponding PF and its associated descriptor.

Proof. Let $H$ be a heap and let $m$ denote its height. We observe that any heap $H$ contains a perfect subheap of height $h-1$ rooted at the left child of the root, or it contains a perfect subheap of height $h-2$ rooted at


Fig. 2. A heap on 19 elements showing the substructure of pennants (sizes $8,4,4,2,1$ ).
the right child of the root of $H$. In the former case, the left subtree together with the root forms a pennant; in the latter case, the right subtree together with the root forms a pennant. The algorithm extracts such a pennant and then iterates this procedure on the other subtree of $H$. This subtree is again a heap, since subtrees of heaps are heaps. Thus the trees $P_{m}, \ldots, P_{0}$ are pennants. Furthermore, all roots of these pennants lie on a path in $H$ from the root to a leaf. It follows that $\left.\operatorname{key}\left(\operatorname{root} P_{j}\right)\right) \leqslant \operatorname{key}\left(\operatorname{root}\left(P_{j-1}\right)\right)$, and that $\operatorname{size}\left(P_{j}\right) \geqslant \operatorname{size}\left(P_{j-1}\right)$, for all $j$, with $0<j \leqslant m$.
Q.E.D.

The PF's constructed by Algorithm ConstructPF have certain properties. In particular, we will show that since leaves in a heap lie on at most two levels, the heights of successively produced pennants differ by at most 2. Furthermore, the height of the pennant $P_{i}$ is either $i$ or $i-1$.
To formally characterize the PF's produced by Algorithm ConstructPF, we introduce the notion of a valid descriptor. A valid descriptor $\left(d_{m^{\prime}}, \ldots, d_{0}\right)$ is defined to be a descriptor which satisfies the following conditions:
(1) For all $j \leqslant m^{\prime}$, the partial sums $\sum_{i=0}^{j} d_{i}$ are either $j+2$ or $j+1$, and
(2) $0 \leqslant d_{j} \leqslant 2$.

We say that a PF is valid if its corresponding descriptor is valid.


Fig. 3. The heap of Fig. 2 represented as a PF.

## Examples of Descriptors.

| Descriptor | valid/invalid |
| :--- | :--- |
| $(2,1,0,1,1,2)$ | valid |
| $(\mathbf{4}, 1,1,1,1,1)$ | invalid |
| $(2, \mathbf{0}, 1,1,0,2)$ | invalid |
| $(1,2,1,1,2,1)$ | invalid |
| $(1,1,1,1, \mathbf{0}, 1)$ | invalid |

For invalid descriptors, in the above table, the $d_{i}$ with smallest index $i$ which makes ( $d_{i}, \ldots, d_{0}$ ) invalid is indicated in bold.

We will now examine the structure of valid PF's more closely. Note that for any $i \leqslant m$ the subsequence ( $P_{i}, \ldots, P_{0}$ ) of a valid pennant forest $\left(P_{m}, \ldots, P_{0}\right)$ is itself valid.

Lemmi 2.2. Let $P=\left(P_{m}, \ldots, P_{0}\right)$ be a valid $P F$. Then
(a) for all $0 \leqslant i \leqslant m$, height $\left(P_{i}\right)$ is either $i-1$ or $i$, and
(b) for all $0<i \leqslant m$, height $\left(P_{i}\right)-\operatorname{height}\left(P_{i-1}\right) \leqslant 2$.

Proof. (a) Since $P$ is a valid $P F$, its corresponding descriptor $D=\left(d_{m^{\prime}}, \ldots, d_{0}\right)$ is valid. There are $m+1$ pennants in $P$. Thus $m+1=\sum_{i=0}^{m^{\prime}} d_{i}$. By definition, $\sum_{i=0}^{m^{\prime}} d_{i}$ is either $m^{\prime}+1$ or $m^{\prime}+2$. Since $m^{\prime}$ is the height of $P_{m}$, height $\left(P_{m}\right)$ is either $m$ or $m-1$. Applying this argument to the valid $P F\left(P_{i}, \ldots, P_{0}\right), i<m$, proves part (a). Part (b) of the lemma follows directly from (a). Q.E.D.

A property of a heap is that its shape is uniquely determined by the heap size $n$. In fact, as will be illustrated in Lemma 2.3, just by examining the binary representation $R$ of $n$, the descriptor for the PF constructed by Algorithm ConstructPF can be generated. As shown below, this descriptor is valid.

Lemma 2.3. Let $H$ be a heap and $R$ the binary representation of its size $n$, where $r_{j}$ denotes the $j$ th bit for $j=0, \ldots,\lfloor\log n\rfloor$. The descriptor $D$ constructed by Algorithm ConstructPF on input $H$ satisfies the relationship

$$
\begin{aligned}
d_{0} & =2-r_{0} \\
d_{j} & =r_{j-1}+\left(1-r_{j}\right),
\end{aligned}
$$

for $j=1, \ldots,\lfloor\log n\rfloor$.

Proof. Algorithm ConstructPF constructs the descriptor $D$ by examining the path from the root of the heap to its $n$th node. We will use the fact that this path from the root of a heap to its $n$th node is described by the binary representation $R$ of $n$, where the high order bit is ignored, " 0 " stands for "go to left son," and " 1 " stands for "go to right son." The least significant bit of $R$ is assumed to be $r_{0}$. Combining this with Lemma 2.1, we observe that for $j>0$

$$
\operatorname{height}\left(P_{j}\right)=\left\{\begin{array}{lll}
j-1 & \text { if } & r_{j-1}=0 \\
j & \text { if } & r_{j-1}=1
\end{array}\right.
$$

Hence $d_{j}$ can be computed from $r_{j}$ and $r_{j-1}$, for $j>0$ as

| $r_{j}$ | $r_{j-1}$ | $d_{j}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 0 | 0 | 1 |
| 0 | 1 | 2 |
| 1 | 0 | 0 |
| 1 | 1 | 1 |

and for $j=0$ as

| $r_{1}$ | $r_{0}$ | $d_{0}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 0 | 0 | 2 |
| 0 | 1 | 1 |
| 1 | 0 | 2 |
| 1 | 1 | 1 |

These values of $d_{j}$ coincide exactly with the ones obtained by the relationship stated in the lemma.
Q.E.D.

## From Lemma 2.3 follows

Corollary 2.1. Let $H$ be a heap, $D=\left(d_{m}, \ldots, d_{0}\right)$ its descriptor as produced by Algorithm ConstructPF, and $R=r_{m} \cdots r_{0}$ the binary representation of its size $n$. Then for all $0 \leqslant k \leqslant m$
(a) $\sum_{j=0}^{k} d_{j}=(k+2)-r_{k}$,
(b) $\sum_{j=0}^{k} d_{j} 2^{j}=2^{k+1}-r_{k} 2^{k}+\sum_{j=0}^{k-1} r_{j} 2^{j}$.

Lemma 2.4. Let $H$ be a heap. The PF constructed by Algorithm Construct PF on input $H$ is valid.

Proof. Follows from Corollary 2.1(a).
Q.E.D.

Examples.

| Number | Binary representation | Valid descriptor |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 22 | $(1,0,1,1,0)$ | $(2,1,0,2)$ |
| 19 | $(1,0,0,1,1)$ | $(1,2,1,1)$ |

### 2.2. Constructing a Heap from a Valid PF

So far we have shown how to construct a valid PF corresponding to a given heap. We shall now turn to the inverse operation: given a valid PF, construct a hcap. This cstablishes a $1-1$ correspondence between heaps and valid pennant forests.

We will give a general algorithm for converting any PF into a binary tree, and then show, by using Lemma 2.3, that in the special case of valid PF's as input, the binary tree generated by the algorithm is a heap.

```
Algorithm ConstructBinaryTree
Input: \(\mathrm{PF}=\left(P_{m}, \ldots, P_{0}\right)\)
Output: A binary tree \(T\).
    begin
        \(T:=P_{0}\)
        for \(i:=1\) to \(m\) do
            begin
                if height \((T) \neq \operatorname{height}\left(P_{i}\right)\) then Let the child of the root of \(P_{i}\) be
                    the left child and let \(T\) be the right child of \(P_{i}\)
            else
                    Let the child of the root of \(P_{i}\) be the right child (if any) and
                    let \(T\) be the left child of \(P_{i}\)
                \(T:=P_{i}\)
            end
    end
```

Lemma 2.5. If $\left(P_{m}, \ldots, P_{0}\right)$ is a valid $P F$, then Algorithm ConstructBinaryTree constructs a heap of height $m$.

Proof. Let $P=\left(P_{m}, \ldots, P_{0}\right)$ be a valid PF. We prove the lemma by induction on $m$ :
$m=0$ : Since $d_{0} \geqslant 1, P_{0}$ contains exactly one element, and is thus a heap of height 0 .
$m=i>0$ : Assume that the result is true for each valid subforest ( $P_{i-1}, \ldots, P_{0}$ ) and let $H_{i-1}$ be the heap constructed from this subforest. By the induction hypothesis, height $\left(H_{i-1}\right)=i-1$. We will show that the
algorithm maintains the heap properties when $H_{i-1}$ is merged with $P_{i}$ to give $H_{i}$. We will show that
(i) the heap shape is maintained,
(ii) the heap ordering is maintained, and
(iii) $\operatorname{height}\left(H_{i}\right)=\operatorname{height}\left(H_{i-1}\right)+1$.
(i) $P_{i}$ has a height of either $i$ or $i-1$ (Lemma 2.2(a)). Hence its perfect child $C$ has a height of either $i-1$ or $i-2$. In the case where the height of $C$ is $i-1$, the algorithm makes $C$ the left child of the new heap, whereas $H_{i-1}$ becomes the right child. Alternatively, if the height of $C$ is $i-2, C$ becomes the right child of the new root and $H_{i-1}$ becomes the left child. In both cases the heap shape is maintained.
(ii) From the definition of PFs, $\operatorname{key}\left(\operatorname{root}\left(P_{i}\right)\right) \leqslant \operatorname{key}\left(\operatorname{root}\left(P_{i-1}\right)\right)$, for $i=1, \ldots, m$. Since $\operatorname{key}\left(\operatorname{root}\left(H_{i-1}\right)\right)=\operatorname{key}\left(\operatorname{root}\left(P_{i-1}\right)\right)$, we see that $\operatorname{key}\left(\operatorname{root}\left(P_{i}\right)\right) \leqslant \operatorname{key}\left(\operatorname{root}\left(H_{i-1}\right)\right)$, hence the heap ordering is maintained.
(iii) Since $H_{i-1}$ becomes a new child of the root of $H_{i}$, we obtain height $\left(H_{i}\right) \geqslant \operatorname{height}\left(H_{i-1}\right)+1$. Using the induction hypothesis, we see that height $\left(H_{i}\right) \geqslant i$. Furthermore, height $\left(P_{i}\right) \geqslant \operatorname{height}\left(H_{i-1}\right)$. As shown in Lemma 2.2(a), height $\left(P_{i}\right)$ is either $i-1$ or $i$. Thus, we obtain that height $\left(H_{i}\right) \leqslant i$. Therefore, height $\left(H_{i}\right)=i$ as was to be shown. $\quad$ Q.E.D.

By Lemma 2.5, a heap can be constructed from a given valid pennant forest. By Lemmas 2.1 and 2.3 and Corollary 2.1, a valid pennant forest can be constructed from a given heap. Thus, summarizing this section, we see that heaps and valid pennant forests are in $1-1$ correspondence. Furthermore, since the heap-shape is uniquely determined by the heap-size we obtain:

Lemma 2.6. For any integer $n$ there exists a unique valid descriptor

$$
D=\left(d_{m}, \ldots, d_{0}\right) \quad \text { with } \quad \sum_{i=0}^{m} d_{i} 2^{i}=n
$$

We say that $D$ is the descriptor for integer $n$.
Although we have given algorithms to construct a valid PF from a given heap and vice versa, no key comparisons must be done to "see" a heap as a pennant forest or conversely to "see" a valid PF as a heap. This view is crucial for the design of the algorithms to follow.

## 3. Splitting Heaps

In this section we will show how the pennant structure can be utilized for solving the problem of splitting a given heap into two heaps. We define the operation Split as:
input: a heap on $n$ elements and an integer $k$,
output: two heaps of sizes $k$ and $n-k$, respectively.
The algorithm may choose which elements are to be placed into each output heap. This problem can easily be solved by removing the last $k$ item from the heap and building a new heap from these items. The total cost of this solution is $O(k)$, which is good for small values of $k$. Here we describe an algorithm for the operation Split which makes use of the pennant view of heaps. The algorithm is more efficient for all but small values of $k$, i.e., $k>\log ^{2}(n)$.

To write the Split algorithm, we first define a primitive operation, SplitPennant, which takes a pennant of size $s$ and produces two pennants each of size $s / 2$. The procedure is as follows:

```
Algorithm SplitPennant
Input: A pennant P of size s
Output: Pennants Q and R each of size s/2
    r:= node at root of P
    Q:= left child of P attached to r
    R:= child of P}\mathrm{ with its right subheap
```

Remark 3.1. A pennant of size $s$ can be split into two pennants each of size $s / 2$ without using any key comparisons.

One further primitive operation is required for the algorithm Split. We use the procedure TrickleDown(Root) which is analogous to the procedure Sift-Up described in Knuth (1973). In our algorithm, TrickleDown is applied to the root of a data structure $P^{*}$ which is a pennant forest except that the heap-ordering may be violated at root. The procedure restores the heap-ordering in $P^{*}$ while maintaining its shape.

We now have the tools necessary to present the algorithm Split for splitting a heap. The input for the algorithm is a heap, called $H$, on $n$ elements, and an integer $k$.

Let $P=\left(P_{m}, \ldots, P_{0}\right)$ be the valid PF for the heap $H, P^{\prime}=\left(P_{m^{\prime}}^{\prime}, \ldots, P_{0}^{\prime}\right)$ for the heap $H^{\prime}$ containing $k$ elements, and $P^{\prime \prime}=\left(P_{m}^{\prime \prime}, \ldots, P_{0}^{\prime \prime}\right)$ for the heap $H^{\prime \prime}$ on the remaining $n-k$ elements.

We formulate the Split algorithm by using the valid pennant forests representation of the heaps. The algorithm is as follows:

## Algorithm Split

Input: A valid pennant forest $P$ of size $n$ and an integer $k$.
Output: Two valid pennant forests $P^{\prime}$ and $P^{\prime \prime}$ of size $k$ and $n-k$, respectively.
Compute the descriptor representations $D=\left(d_{m}, \ldots, d_{0}\right), D^{\prime}=\left(d_{m^{\prime}}^{\prime}, \ldots, d_{0}^{\prime}\right)$, and $D^{\prime \prime}=\left(d_{m}^{\prime \prime}, \ldots, d_{0}^{\prime \prime}\right)$ for $n, k$, and $n-k$, respectively.
\{For convenience, we define $d_{i}^{\prime}=0$ for all $i>m^{\prime}$ and $d_{i}^{\prime \prime}=0$ for all $i>m^{\prime \prime}$.\}
for $i:=0$ to $\max \left(m^{\prime}, m^{\prime \prime}\right)$ do
\{If $P$ does not have enough pennants of height $i$, we have to split larger pennants. $\}$
while $d_{i}^{\prime}+d_{i}^{\prime \prime}>d_{i}$ do
Let $S$ be the smallest indexed pennant in $P$ such that $h=$ height $(S)>i$.
Using SplitPennant split $S$ into two pennants $Q$ and $R$ of height $h-1$.
Replace $S$ by ( $R$ and $Q$ ) in $P$.
TrickleDown $(\operatorname{root}(R))$ in PF $P$
$d_{h}:=d_{h}-1$
$d_{h-1}:=d_{h-1}+2$
$P^{\prime}$ is constructed by removing a subsequence of $P$ consisting of $d_{i}^{\prime}$ pennants of height $i$, for $i:=m^{\prime}, \ldots, 0$.
The remaining subsequence, consisting of $d_{i}^{\prime \prime}$ pennants of height $i$, for $i:=m^{\prime \prime}, \ldots, 0$, is $P^{\prime \prime}$.

Theorem 3.1. Let $P$ be a valid pennant forest of size $n$ and $k \leqslant n$ be a positive integer. Algorithm Split constructs two valid pennant forests on $k$ and $n-k$ elements, respectively, using $O\left(\log ^{2} n\right)$ comparisons.

Proof. Throughout this algorithm, $P$ is a (not necessarily valid) pennant forest of size $n$ described by the descriptor $D$. Since $D, D^{\prime}$ and $D^{\prime \prime}$ are descriptors for $n, k$, and $n-k$, it follows that

$$
\sum_{i=0}^{m} d_{i} 2^{i}=n, \quad \sum_{i=0}^{m^{\prime}} d_{i}^{\prime} 2^{i}=k, \quad \sum_{i=0}^{m^{\prime \prime}} d_{i}^{\prime \prime} 2^{i}=n-k
$$

We show that, for $0 \leqslant t \leqslant m$,

$$
\begin{equation*}
\sum_{j=0}^{i} d_{j} 2^{j} \leqslant \sum_{j=0}^{t}\left(d_{j}^{\prime}+d_{j}^{\prime \prime}\right) 2^{j} \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

is always true and, after the iteration of the for-loop in which the loop index has value $i, d_{j}=d_{j}^{\prime}+d_{j}^{\prime \prime}$ for all $0 \leqslant j \leqslant i$. In particular, this proves the correctness of the algorithm.

Initially, $D, D^{\prime}$, and $D^{\prime \prime}$ are all valid PFs. Thus, using Corollary 2.2 it is easy to show that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\sum_{j=0}^{\prime} d_{j} 2^{j} \leqslant \sum_{i=0}^{i}\left(d_{j}^{\prime}+d_{j}^{\prime \prime}\right) 2^{j} \tag{2}
\end{equation*}
$$

for $0 \leqslant t \leqslant m$. Also, notice that the value of $d_{j}$ does not change during the $i$ th iteration of the loop, for $j<i$.
The proof proceeds by induction. Assume that the claim is true before some iteration of the while-loop during the $i$ th iteration of the for-loop. Suppose that during that iteration, a pennant of height $h$ is replaced by two pennants of height $h-1$. Since $d_{h-1} 2^{h-1}+d_{h} 2^{h}=\left(d_{h-1}+2\right) 2^{h-1}+$ $\left(d_{h}-1\right) 2^{h}$, the value of $\sum_{j=0, \ldots,}, d_{i} 2^{i}$ remains unchanged for $k \neq h-1$. However, we must show that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\sum_{j=0}^{h-2} d_{j} 2^{j}+\left(d_{j-1}+2\right) 2^{h-1} \leqslant \sum_{i=0}^{h-1}\left(d_{j}^{\prime}+d_{i}^{\prime \prime}\right) 2^{j} \tag{3}
\end{equation*}
$$

For $0 \leqslant j<i$, Eq. (3) is equivalent to

$$
\begin{equation*}
\sum_{j=i}^{h-1} d_{i} 2^{j}+2^{h} \leqslant \sum_{j=i}^{h-1}\left(d_{j}^{\prime}+d_{j}^{\prime \prime}\right) 2^{i}, \quad \text { because } d_{j}=d_{j}^{\prime}+d_{j}^{\prime \prime} \tag{4}
\end{equation*}
$$

We assume that this is false and obtain a contradiction. Now we know that $d_{i}<d_{i}^{\prime}+d_{i}^{\prime \prime}$ and $d_{j}=0$, for $i<j<h$, by definition of $h$. Thus

$$
\begin{equation*}
d_{i} 2^{i}<\left(d_{i}^{\prime}+d_{i}^{\prime \prime}\right) 2^{i} \leqslant \sum_{j=i}^{n-1}\left(d_{j}^{\prime}+d_{j}^{\prime \prime}\right) 2^{j}<d_{i} 2^{i}+2^{i}+2^{h} \tag{5}
\end{equation*}
$$

and $\sum_{j=i, \ldots, h-1}\left(d_{j}^{\prime}+d_{j}^{n}\right) 2^{j}=d_{i} 2^{i}+\alpha$, where $0<\alpha<2^{h}$. Finally,

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \sum_{j=0}^{i-1} d_{j} 2^{j}+d_{i} 2^{i}+\sum_{j=h}^{m} d_{j} 2^{j}=\sum_{j=0}^{m} d_{2} 2^{j}=\sum_{j=0}^{m}\left(d_{j}^{\prime}+d_{j}^{\prime \prime}\right) 2^{j} \\
& \quad=\sum_{j=0}^{i-1}\left(d_{j}^{\prime}+d_{j}^{\prime \prime}\right) 2^{j}+\sum_{j=i}^{n-1}\left(d_{j}^{\prime}+d_{j}^{\prime \prime}\right) 2^{j}+\sum_{j=h}^{m}\left(d_{j}^{\prime}+d_{j}^{\prime \prime}\right) 2^{j} \\
& \quad=\sum_{j=0}^{i-1} d_{j} 2^{j}+d_{i} 2^{i}+\alpha+\sum_{j=h}^{m}\left(d_{j}^{\prime}+d_{j}^{\prime \prime}\right) 2^{j}
\end{aligned}
$$

implies that

$$
\sum_{j=h}^{m} d_{j} 2^{j}=\alpha+\sum_{j=h}^{m}\left(d_{j}^{\prime}+d_{j}^{\prime \prime}\right) 2^{j}
$$

which is impossible, since $\alpha$ is not divisible by $2^{h}$. Hence the correctness of (1) is established.

By construction, after the $i$ th iteration of the for-loop, $d_{i} \geqslant d_{i}^{\prime}+d_{i}^{\prime \prime}$, but

$$
\sum_{j=0}^{i} d_{j} 2^{j} \leqslant \sum_{j=0}^{i}\left(d_{j}^{j}+d_{j}^{\prime \prime}\right) 2^{j}=\left(d_{i}^{\prime}+d_{i}^{\prime \prime}\right) 2^{i}+\sum_{j=0}^{i-1} d_{j} 2^{j},
$$

so $d_{i} \leqslant d_{i}^{\prime}+d_{i}^{\prime \prime}$. Thus $d_{i}=d_{i}^{\prime}+d_{i}^{\prime \prime}$.
The $O\left(\log ^{2} n\right)$ time complexity of the algorithm follows by observing that at most one SplitPennant operation need be performed for each pennant in $P$ since initially $d_{i}+2 \leqslant d_{i}^{\prime}+d_{i}^{\prime \prime}$ for all $i$. For each such SplitPennant operation, the algorithm carries out a TrickleDown operation at a cost of $O(\log n)$. Since $P$ contains $O(\log n)$ pennants, the overall complexity is $O\left(\log ^{2} n\right)$ in the worst case.
Q.E.D.

Remark 3.2. The total number of comparisons required by Algorithm Split is $O\left(\log ^{2}(\max (k, n-k))\right)=O\left(\log ^{2}(n)\right)$.

An Example. We illustrate the algorithm presented in this section by showing how a heap $H$ on 22 elements is split into two heaps $H^{\prime}$ and $H^{\prime \prime}$ on 3 and 19 elements, respectively. We refer to the corresponding PFs as $P, P^{\prime}$, and $P^{\prime \prime}$ and to their descriptors as $D, D^{\prime}$, and $D^{\prime \prime}$, respectively. Their descriptors are

$$
\begin{aligned}
D & =(2,1,0,2) \\
D^{\prime} & =(0,0,1,1) \\
D^{\prime \prime} & =(1,2,1,1)
\end{aligned}
$$

The algorithm first splits pennants in $P$ such that for each pennant in $P^{\prime}$ or $P^{\prime \prime}$ there is exactly one pennant of the same size in $P$. This leaves $P$ with a descriptor of $(1,2,2,2)$. Now the algorithm extracts from $P$ the subsequence of pennants required for $P^{\prime}$, leaving $P$ with exactly the sequence required for $P^{\prime \prime}$. This completes the execution of the algorithm.

## 4. Merging Heaps

In Section 2 we presented a new way of seeing a heap as a forest of pennants. This enabled us to design an efficient algorithm for solving the problem of splitting a heap on $k$ elements into two heaps of size $k$ and $n-k$, respectively, where $k \leqslant n$. Here we show how to employ this view in the design of an algorithm for merging heaps. This operation, called Merge, merges two heaps, i.e., it creates a heap $H$ containing all $n+k$ elements given two heaps $H^{\prime}, H^{\prime \prime}$, with $n$ and $k$ elements, respectively. An alternate solution exhibiting the same time bound has been presented in Sack and Strothotte (1985). The algorithm described here achieves a higher degree of clarity by making use of the pennant structure of heaps.

The algorithm first "sees" the two input heaps as valid PFs, referred to as $P^{\prime}$ and $P^{\prime \prime}$; it then builds the "union" of both PFs. Notice, however, that by the union process a PF may be created which is no longer valid (e.g., the union may produce more than two pennants of equal height). Even worse, since the roots of pennants originating from different heaps are not necessarily sorted, the resulting collection of pennants may not even be a pennant forest. Thus, some care must be taken to ensure that the output of the Merge algorithm is indeed a valid pennant forest.

We require a primitive operation Merge Pennants, which merges two equal-sized pennants into one larger pennant:

## Algorithm MergePennants

Input: Two pennants, $P_{0}, P_{1}$, both of size $s$
Output: One pennant, $R$, of size $2 s$, containing the elements from $P_{0}$ and $P_{1}$
$i:=$ index of the pennant with smaller root
$j:=$ index of the other pennant
$R:=\operatorname{root}$ of $P_{i}$
right child of root of $P_{j}:=$ child of $P_{j}$
left child of root of $P_{j}:=$ child of $P_{i}$
child of $R:=P_{j}$
TrickleDown(child of $R$ )

Remark 4.1. Two pennants, each of size $s$, can be merged in $O(\log (s))$ time.

We formulate the Merge algorithm by using the valid pennant forests representation of the heaps. The following algorithm constructs a descriptor $D$ for the valid pennant forest $P$. We use $D$ to represent a temporary descriptor used during the execution of the algorithm. The algorithm terminates when $\underline{D}$ is equal to $D$.

## Algorithm Merge

Input: Two valid pennant forests $P^{\prime}$ and $P^{\prime \prime}$ of sizes $n$ and $k$, respectively ( $n \geqslant k$ )
Output: A valid pennant forest $P$ of size $n+k$
[Initialization]
compute the descriptor representations $D=\left(d_{m}, \ldots, d_{0}\right), D^{\prime}=\left(d_{m^{\prime}}^{\prime}, \ldots, d_{0}^{\prime}\right)$ and $D^{\prime \prime}=\left(d_{m^{\prime \prime}}^{\prime \prime}, \ldots, d_{0}^{\prime \prime}\right)$ for $n+k, n$ and $k$, respectively
initialize $P$ to empty
set descriptor $\underline{D}=\left(\underline{d}_{m}, \ldots, \underline{d}_{0}\right)$ as follows:
$\underline{d}=\left\{\begin{array}{l}d_{i}^{\prime}+d_{i}^{\prime \prime} \text { for all } 0 \leqslant i \leqslant m^{\prime \prime} \\ d_{i}^{\prime} \text { for all } m^{\prime \prime}<i \leqslant m^{\prime}\end{array}\right.$

Step [A]
for every pennant $p$ in $P^{\prime}$ whose size is greater than
the size of the largest pennant in $P^{\prime \prime}$ (in order of decreasing size) do
if $\operatorname{root}(p)>\operatorname{root}\left(P^{\prime \prime}\right)$ then
swap $\operatorname{root}(p)$ and $\operatorname{root}\left(P^{\prime \prime}\right)$
TrickleDown $\left(\operatorname{root}\left(P^{\prime \prime}\right)\right)$
append $p$ to $P$
Step [B]
(1) append the pennants remaining in $P^{\prime}$ and in $P^{\prime \prime}$ to $P$ such that the pennants appear in decreasing order of size and among pennants of like size, they
appear in non-decreasing order of the keys stored and the roots
(2) \{now establish the heap-ordering among the keys of roots of pennants in $P$ \}
let $i$ equal to the number of pennants appended to $P$ in step $[\mathrm{B}(1)]$
for $i:=0$ to $l-1$ do
TrickleDown $\left(\operatorname{root}\left(P_{i}\right)\right)$ in pennant forest $P$

## Step [C]

\{sweep through $P$ once more to make it valid\}
for $i:=0$ to $m$ do
while $d_{i}<\underline{d}_{i}$ do
merge the two pennants of size $i$ in $P$ with the smallest roots using MergePennants

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \underline{d}_{i}:=\underline{d}-2 \\
& \underline{d}_{i+1}:=\underline{d}_{i+1}+1
\end{aligned}
$$

Theorem 4.1. Let $P^{\prime}$ and $P^{\prime \prime}$ be valid pennant forest of sizes $n$ and $k$, respectively, for $n \geqslant k$. Algorithm Merge constructs a pennant forest $P$ on these $n+k$ elements in $O(\log (n) * \log (k))$ comparisons in the worst case.

Proof. We shall show the following:
(1) the output $P$ has the heap-shape,
(2) the output $P$ is heap-ordered, and
(3) the algorithm terminates after at most $O(\log (n) * \log (k))$ comparisons. In particular, this will prove the stated result.
(1) Heap-shape. By the same argument used for Eq. (2) (from Section 3), after Step [B] of the algorithm, the following holds:

$$
\sum_{j=0}^{i} d_{j} 2^{j} \leqslant \sum_{j=0}^{i} d_{2} 2^{j}, \quad \text { for all } i, \text { where } \quad 0 \leqslant i \leqslant m .
$$

Indeed, by induction, we can show that this property always holds throughout Step [C] of the algorithm and in particular, at the end of Step [C], $d_{j}=d_{j}$, for all $j$, where $0 \leqslant j \leqslant m$. The proof is analogous to that of the correctness proof of the Split algorithm (Theorem 3.1) and is omitted here.
(2) Heap-ordering. It is straightforward to show by induction that the following conditions hold after the $i$ th iteration of the loop of Step [A]:
(a) the keys of the roots of the pennants in $P$ are in non-decreasing order, and
(b) all elements remaining in $P^{\prime}$ and $P^{\prime \prime}$ have keys greater than or equal to the keys of the roots of the smallest pennants in $P$.

Similarly, it follows by induction that $P$ is a (not necessarily valid) pennant forest after Step [B]. Finally, an inductive argument can be used to show that after every iteration of the while-loop of [C], $P$ remains a pennant forest, since
(a) the subtrees created within the while-loop are pennants, and
(b) the relative order of the roots of the pennants in $P$ remaining after Step [C] is the same as before Step [C].
(3) Complexity analysis. We shall analyze each step individually:

Step [A]: Observe that the loop is executed $O(\log (n))$ times, each iteration performing a TrickleDown on a heap of $k$ elements. Thus this step costs $O(\log (n) * \log (k))$ comparisons.

Step [B]: Step B(1) takes $O(\log n)$ comparisons. In Step B(2), the loop is executed $O(\log (k))$ times. Since there are only a constant number of equal-sized pennants in $P$, each iteration costs $O(\log (k))$ comparisons. Hence this step costs $O\left(\log ^{2}(k)+\log (n)\right)$ comparisons.

Step [C]: Since the for-loop is executed $O(\log (n))$ times, the number of comparisons is bounded by $O\left(\log ^{2}(n)\right)$. However, a more careful analysis reveals a bound of $O\left(\log (n)+\log ^{2}(k)\right)$. Observe that in the worst case, the first $O(\log (k))$ iterations of the loop may each require a TrickleDown at a cost of $O(\log (k))$ each. However, by examining the binary representation of $n$ and $n+k$, we observe that $d_{i} \neq d_{i}^{\prime}$ for at most two values of $i$ greater than $\log (k)$. Hence the body of the while-loop of the algorithm is entered at most twice during the last $\lfloor\log (n)\rfloor-\lfloor\log (k)\rfloor$ iterations of the for-loop, at a cost of at most $O(\log (n))$ comparisons each. Thus the overall cost of this step is $O\left(\log (n)+\log ^{2}(k)\right)$.

Thus the cost of the merge algorithm is $O(\log (n) * \log (k))$ comparisons.
Q.E.D.

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