

Heap Sort & Priority Queue Applications

Lecture 16 built the machine. Today we point it at two different jobs: sort an entire array in place with a guarantee no comparison sort beats, and run the queue that decides who gets served next — in a hospital, an OS, or a router.

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Course Instructor · Consultation Fri 2–5 PM, LHC 308F

~75 minutes

Session outcome: apply heaps in sorting and scheduling problems

Today, part by part

● From operations to applications 00–04

Same heap, same BUILD-MAX-HEAP and MAX-HEAPIFY from Lecture 16 — two very different jobs.

● Why Heap Sort? 04–09

In-place, guaranteed $O(n \log n)$ — the two things quicksort and merge sort can't both offer at once.

● Heap Sort: advantages & limitations 09–14

What you get for giving up stability and cache locality.

● Animation: Heap Sort, start to finish 14–32

Sorting the exact heap we built in Lecture 16 — 9 rounds, every exchange and every heapify shown.

● Priority queues: why, and a real-life example 32–38

A hospital emergency room, triaged by urgency — not by who walked in first.

● Priority queues: advantages & limitations 38–43

What a heap-backed queue buys you, and what it deliberately gives up.

● Animation: the ER triage queue, live 43–55

Five patients, five priorities, arrivals and call-ins interleaved.

● More scheduling applications 55–60

OS process scheduling, Dijkstra/Prim, network QoS, A* search.

● Complexity, everything together 60–64

Heap sort and priority-queue operations, one table.

● Recap & what's next 64–75

Lecture 18: Binomial Heaps.

Same heap, two different jobs

LAST TIME — LECTURE 16

We built the machinery: the shape + heap property, the array trick (PARENT/LEFT/RIGHT), BUILD-MAX-HEAP in a verified $O(n)$, HEAP-INSERT (sift-up), and HEAP-EXTRACT-MAX (sift-down). All three run in $O(\log n)$ or better.

TODAY — PUT THE MACHINE TO WORK

- **Heap Sort:** repeat EXTRACT-MAX exactly $n-1$ times on the *same array* — no extra memory, and the array sorts itself in place.
- **Priority queues:** wrap HEAP-INSERT and EXTRACT-MIN/MAX behind a scheduling interface — "always serve the most urgent item next," whatever "urgent" means for your problem.

Guaranteed $O(n \log n)$, and not one extra byte of memory

THE GAP IT FILLS

Quicksort is fast in practice but has an $O(n^2)$ worst case on adversarial input. Merge sort guarantees $O(n \log n)$ but needs $O(n)$ extra space for the merge step. **Heap Sort guarantees $O(n \log n)$ and sorts in place** — the one combination neither of the other two offers simultaneously.

THE IDEA, IN ONE LINE

BUILD-MAX-HEAP once (Lecture 16, $O(n)$). Then repeat: swap the root (the current maximum) with the last element of the still-unsorted region, shrink that region by one, and MAX-HEAPIFY the new root back into place. Do this $n-1$ times and the array is sorted, built entirely from the back forward.

REAL-WORLD RELEVANCE

Anywhere memory is tight and a worst-case guarantee matters more than average-case speed — embedded systems, real-time systems with hard memory budgets, or any library sort that must never degrade to $O(n^2)$ regardless of input — Heap Sort (or an introspective hybrid that falls back to it) is the standard answer.

What guaranteed in-place sorting costs you

ADVANTAGES

- **Guaranteed $O(n \log n)$** in the worst case, every time — no adversarial input degrades it, unlike quicksort.
- **$O(1)$ extra space** — sorts in place, unlike merge sort's $O(n)$ auxiliary array.
- **Builds directly on operations you already trust** — no new machinery beyond BUILD-MAX-HEAP and MAX-HEAPIFY from Lecture 16.

LIMITATIONS

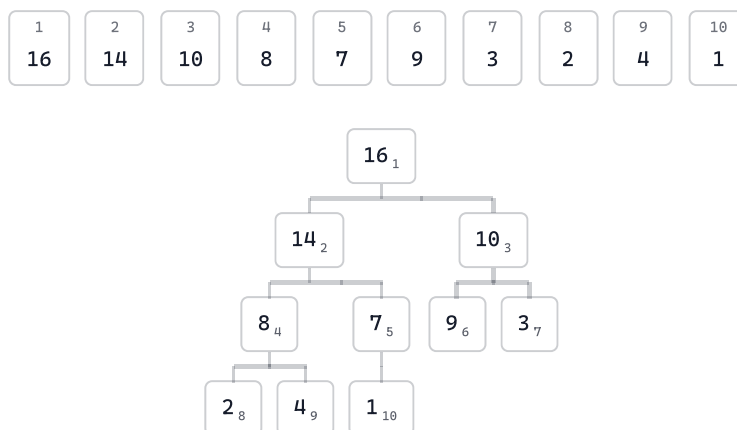
- **Not stable.** Equal-priority elements can be reordered relative to each other — the swap-with-last step has no memory of original relative order.
- **Poor cache locality in practice.** MAX-HEAPIFY jumps between indices i , $2i$, $2i+1$ — scattered memory access compared to quicksort's mostly-sequential partitioning, so heap sort is often *slower in practice* despite an equal or better asymptotic bound.
- **Not adaptive.** An already-sorted (or nearly-sorted) input gets no speed-up at all — heap sort does the same $O(n \log n)$ work regardless of how "easy" the input is, unlike insertion sort or adaptive variants of merge sort.

Sorting the exact heap we built last lecture — one extraction at a time

Starting point: [16, 14, 10, 8, 7, 9, 3, 2, 4, 1] — the max-heap Lecture 16 built from [4, 1, 3, 2, 16, 9, 10, 14, 8, 7]. Each of the 9 rounds: exchange the root with the last element of the active heap (teal cells are already **locked into their final sorted position** and never touched again), shrink the heap, then MAX-HEAPIFY the new root. Nothing is skipped — every round is shown, including the cheapest ones.

INTERACTIVE — HEAPSORT(A), 9 ROUNDS

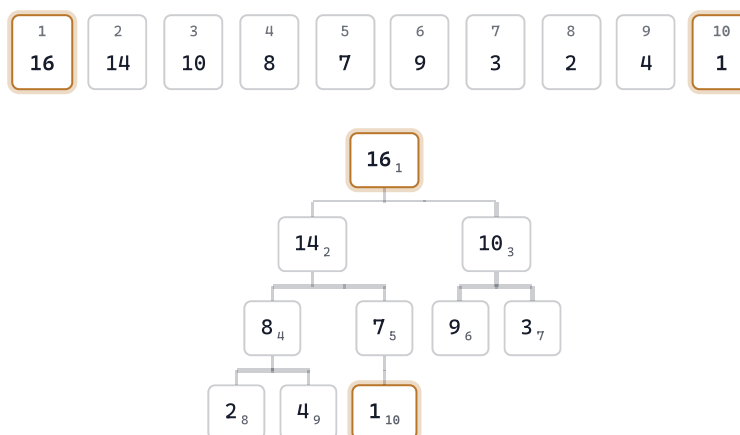
STEP 1 OF 20



ACTIVE HEAP, SIZE 10 — NOTHING SORTED YET

Start: the max-heap from Lecture 16, $A = [16, 14, 10, 8, 7, 9, 3, 2, 4, 1]$. HEAPSORT repeats, for $i = n$ downto 2: exchange $A[1]$ with $A[i]$, shrink the heap, then MAX-HEAPIFY(1). Teal cells (none yet) mark positions already locked into their final sorted value.

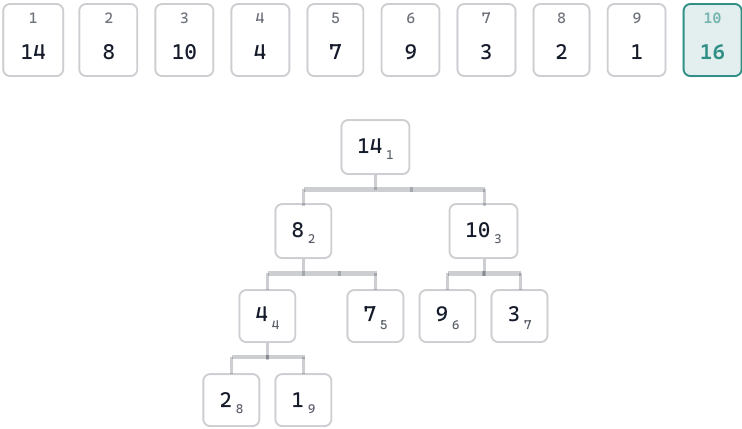
STEP 2 OF 20



EXCHANGE $A[1]$ AND $A[10]$

Round 1 of 9. Exchange $A[1]$ (the max, 16) with $A[10]$ (the last element of the active heap, 1).

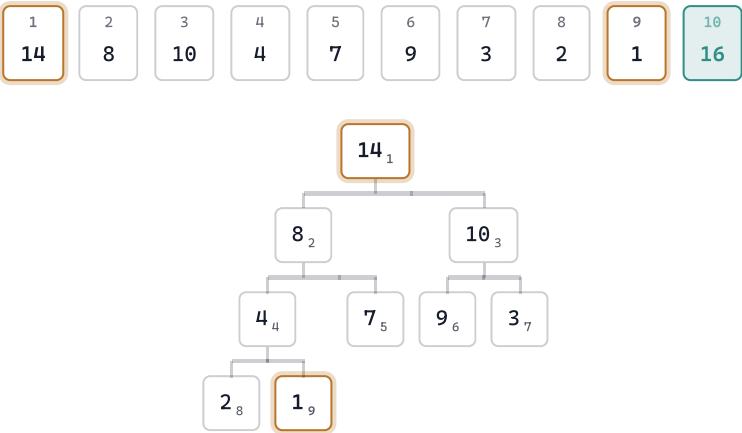
STEP 3 OF 20



16 LOCKED AT POSITION 10; HEAP SHRINKS TO SIZE 9

16 locks into position 10 — its final sorted place, never touched again. Heap-size shrinks to 9. MAX-HEAPIFY(1) sinks the displaced 1 down through 3 swaps (1↔2, 2↔4, 4↔9) to restore the heap property.

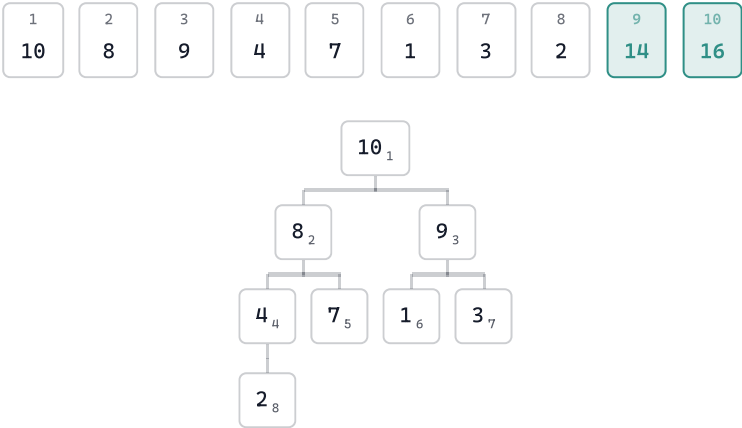
STEP 4 OF 20



EXCHANGE A[1] AND A[9]

Round 2. Exchange A[1] (14) with A[9] (1), the last element of the 9-element active heap.

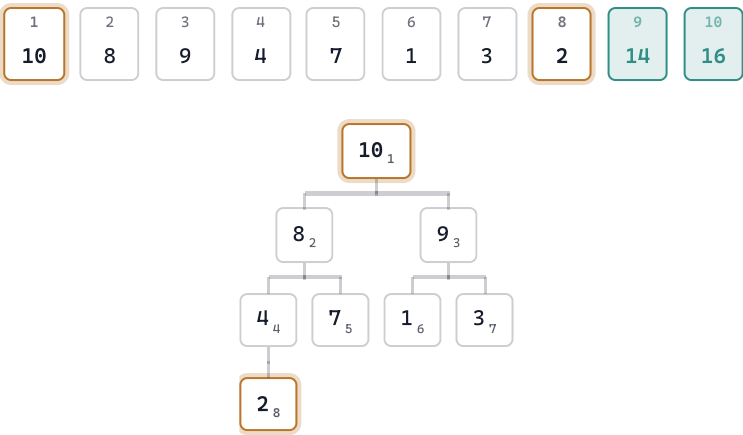
STEP 5 OF 20



14 LOCKED AT POSITION 9; HEAP SHRINKS TO SIZE 8

14 locks into position 9. Heap-size shrinks to 8. MAX-HEAPIFY(1) sinks the displaced 1 down through 2 swaps (1↔3, 3↔6).

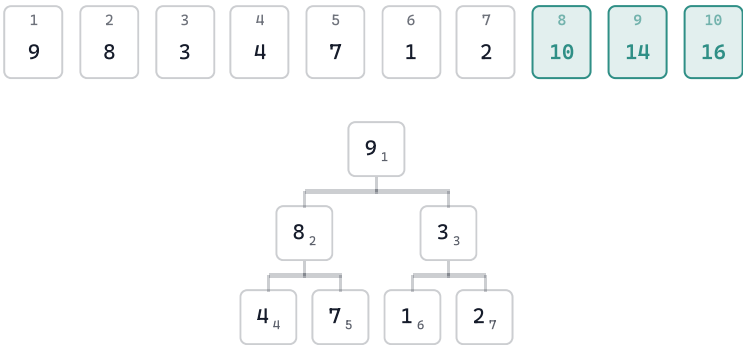
STEP 6 OF 20



EXCHANGE A[1] AND A[8]

Round 3. Exchange A[1] (10) with A[8] (2), the last element of the 8-element active heap.

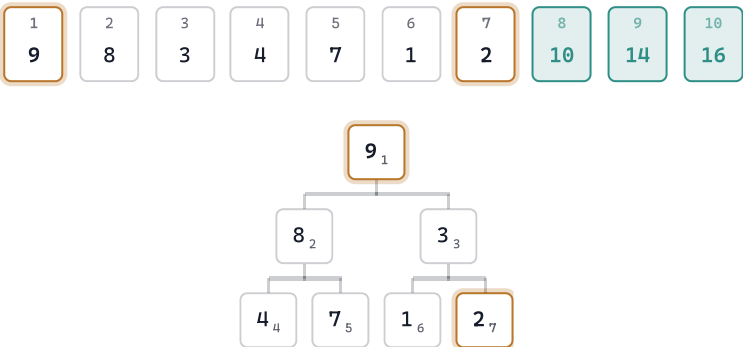
STEP 7 OF 20



10 LOCKED AT POSITION 8; HEAP SHRINKS TO SIZE 7

10 locks into position 8. Heap-size shrinks to 7. MAX-HEAPIFY(1) sinks the displaced 2 down through 2 swaps (1↔3, 3↔7).

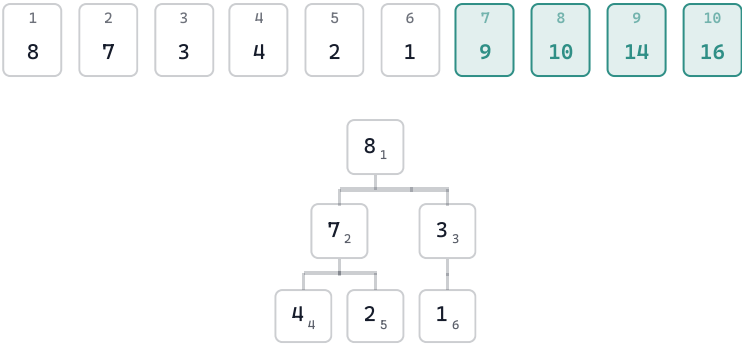
STEP 8 OF 20



EXCHANGE A[1] AND A[7]

Round 4. Exchange A[1] (9) with A[7] (2), the last element of the 7-element active heap.

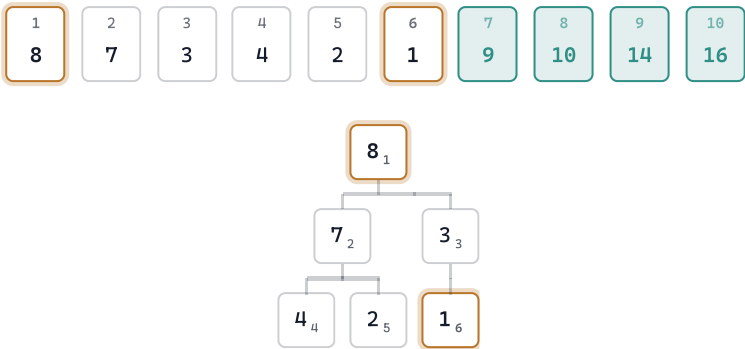
STEP 9 OF 20



9 LOCKED AT POSITION 7; HEAP SHRINKS TO SIZE 6

9 locks into position 7. Heap-size shrinks to 6. MAX-HEAPIFY(1) sinks the displaced 2 down through 2 swaps (1↔2, 2↔5).

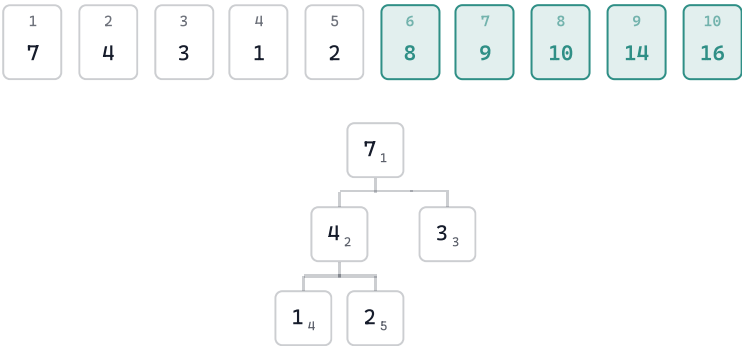
STEP 10 OF 20



EXCHANGE A[1] AND A[6]

Round 5. Exchange A[1] (8) with A[6] (1), the last element of the 6-element active heap.

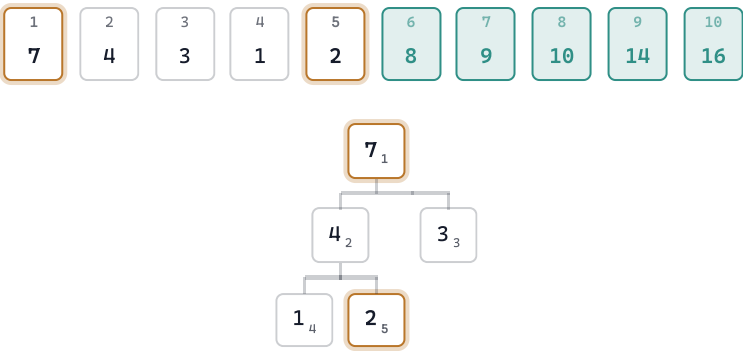
STEP 11 OF 20



8 LOCKED AT POSITION 6; HEAP SHRINKS TO SIZE 5

8 locks into position 6. Heap-size shrinks to 5. MAX-HEAPIFY(1) sinks the displaced 1 down through 2 swaps (1↔2, 2↔4).

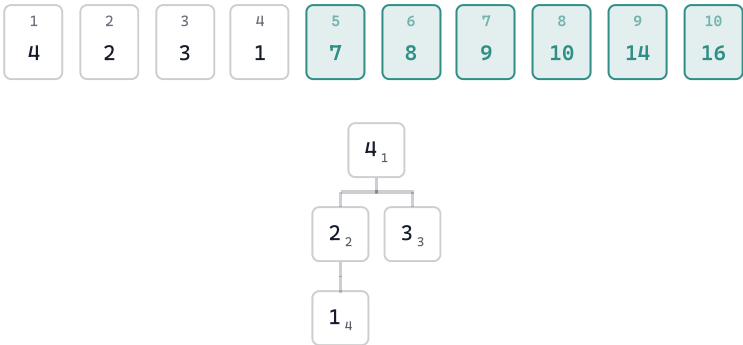
STEP 12 OF 20



EXCHANGE A[1] AND A[5]

Round 6. Exchange A[1] (7) with A[5] (2), the last element of the 5-element active heap.

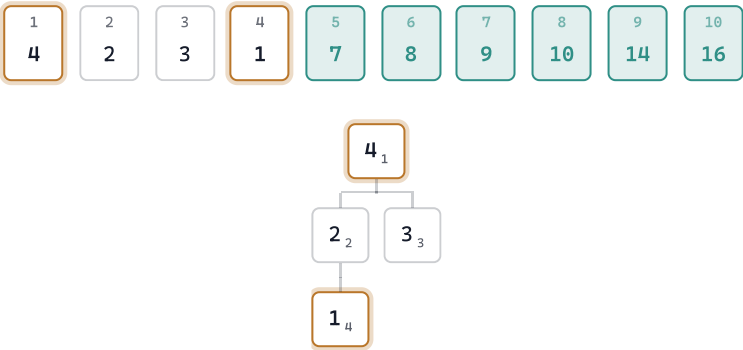
STEP 13 OF 20



7 LOCKED AT POSITION 5; HEAP SHRINKS TO SIZE 4

7 locks into position 5. Heap-size shrinks to 4. MAX-HEAPIFY(1) makes just 1 swap (1↔2) — the recursive check at index 2 finds its only child (1) already smaller, so no further swap is needed. The cheapest round so far.

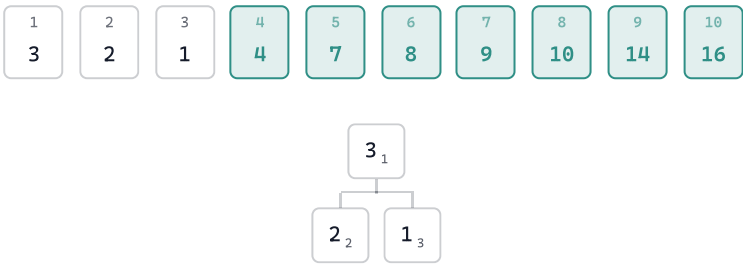
STEP 14 OF 20



EXCHANGE A[1] AND A[4]

Round 7. Exchange A[1] (4) with A[4] (1), the last element of the 4-element active heap.

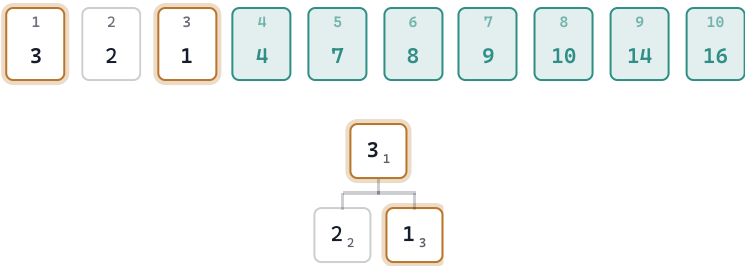
STEP 15 OF 20



4 LOCKED AT POSITION 4; HEAP SHRINKS TO SIZE 3

4 locks into position 4. Heap-size shrinks to 3. MAX-HEAPIFY(1) makes 1 swap (1↔3).

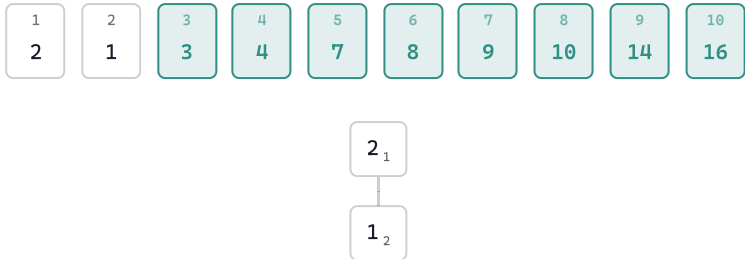
STEP 16 OF 20



EXCHANGE A[1] AND A[3]

Round 8. Exchange A[1] (3) with A[3] (1), the last element of the 3-element active heap.

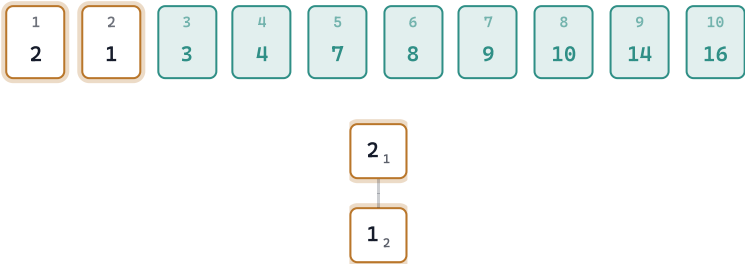
STEP 17 OF 20



3 LOCKED AT POSITION 3; HEAP SHRINKS TO SIZE 2

3 locks into position 3. Heap-size shrinks to 2. MAX-HEAPIFY(1) makes 1 swap (1↔2).

STEP 18 OF 20



EXCHANGE A[1] AND A[2] - FINAL ROUND

Round 9 (final). Exchange A[1] (2) with A[2] (1), the last element of the 2-element active heap.

STEP 19 OF 20



2 LOCKED AT POSITION 2; HEAP SHRINKS TO SIZE 1 - A SINGLE NODE NEEDS NO FURTHER HEAPIFY

2 locks into position 2. Heap-size shrinks to 1 — a single-node heap is trivially valid, so the loop stops here (i would next be 1, which HEAPSORT never processes, since a 1-element region is already sorted).

STEP 20 OF 20

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1	2	3	4	7	8	9	10	14	16

heap empty – fully sorted

Rounds: 9

Total swap operations: 23

Total cost: $O(n \log n)$

Extra space: $O(1)$

Done. $A = [1, 2, 3, 4, 7, 8, 9, 10, 14, 16]$ — fully sorted in ascending order, in place. 9 rounds, 23 total swap operations (the round's own exchange plus every internal MAX-HEAPIFY swap), for $O(n \log n)$ total work using nothing beyond the array itself.

A hospital emergency room doesn't serve first-come, first-served

THE REAL-LIFE EXAMPLE

Walk into an ER and it doesn't matter who arrived first. A triage nurse assigns each patient an urgency level; the **most urgent waiting patient is always seen next**, no matter how long anyone else has been sitting there. A patient arriving in cardiac arrest jumps ahead of five people who arrived hours earlier with a sprained ankle.

THE ABSTRACT VERSION

That's exactly a **priority queue**: an abstract data type supporting INSERT (a new item arrives, with a priority) and EXTRACT-MIN/MAX (serve the most urgent item waiting). It is a *generalization* of a plain queue (FIFO, priority = arrival time) and of a plain stack (LIFO) — a binary heap is simply the standard, efficient way to **implement** it.

WHY A HEAP, SPECIFICALLY

A priority queue needs exactly the two operations a binary heap is built for: insert a new arrival (sift-up, $O(\log n)$) and extract the current extreme (sift-down, $O(\log n)$). No other operation is required — which is precisely why a heap, and not a sorted list or a balanced BST, is the standard choice: it's the simplest structure that does exactly this and nothing more.

Exactly the right abstraction for "serve the most urgent next" — and only that

ADVANTAGES

- **$O(\log n)$ arrival and service** — scales to large, constantly-changing queues without ever re-sorting everything.
- **Priority, not arrival order, decides service** — modeling urgency directly, rather than bolting it onto a FIFO queue with manual re-ordering.
- **$O(1)$ peek** at "who's next" without removing them — useful for dashboards/monitoring ("what's the most urgent item right now?").

LIMITATIONS

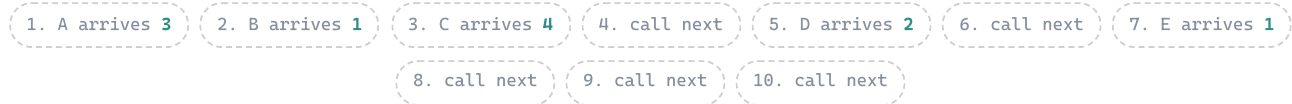
- **No fairness guarantee.** A steady stream of high-priority arrivals can starve low-priority items indefinitely — a real operational risk in scheduling systems, usually solved by aging (gradually increasing a waiting item's priority over time), which a plain heap does not do automatically.
- **Changing an item's priority is expensive** without extra bookkeeping (Lecture 16's decrease-key limitation) — if a waiting patient's condition worsens, updating their position needs an auxiliary index, not just a heap.
- **No efficient "list everyone waiting, in order"** — that requires repeated extraction (effectively a heap sort), not a cheap traversal.

Five patients, five priorities, arrivals and call-ins interleaved

Triage levels 1 (most critical) through 5 (least urgent) — a **min-priority queue**, since the lowest number is the most urgent. Watch what happens when a critical patient arrives *after* two others have already been waiting.

INTERACTIVE — ER TRIAGE QUEUE: ARRIVALS (INSERT) AND CALL-INS (EXTRACT-MIN)

STEP 1 OF 19

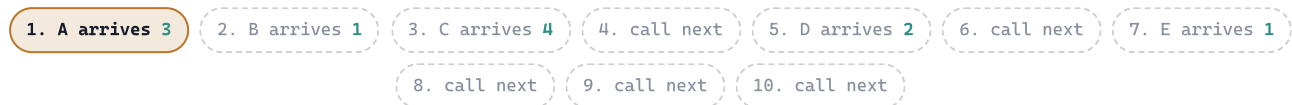


empty

EMPTY QUEUE

An ER triage queue is a **min-priority queue** on urgency level (1 = critical, 5 = minor). The row above is the full schedule of events, so you can always see what is coming next. Each INSERT is shown in two halves — **place at the end**, then **sift up** — and each EXTRACT-MIN likewise: **take the root and refill it**, then **sift down**.

STEP 2 OF 19



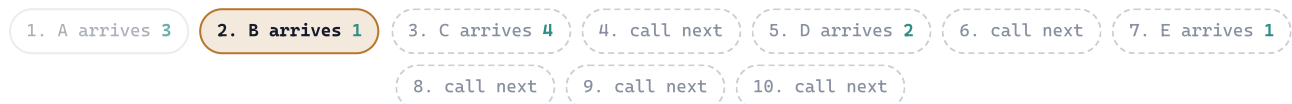
1
3·A

3·A₁

PLACED AT THE END — THE ONLY NODE, SO NOTHING TO COMPARE AGAINST

1 — A arrives, level 3. INSERT always puts the new patient at the **end of the array** (here, position 1). It is the root as well as the only node, so there is no parent to compare with and no sift-up to do.

STEP 3 OF 19



1 2
3·A 1·B

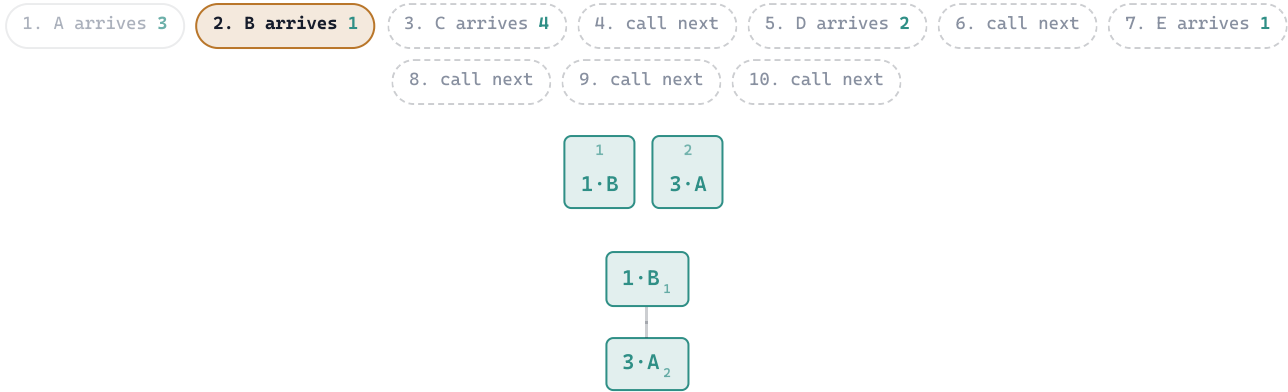
3·A₁

1·B₂

PLACED AT POSITION 2 — HEAP PROPERTY NOW VIOLATED

2 — B arrives, level 1. First half of INSERT: B goes at the end, position 2. Compare with its parent at position $\lceil 2/2 \rceil = 1$: parent A is level 3, B is level 1. In a *min*-heap the smaller number must sit above — so this is a violation and B must sift up.

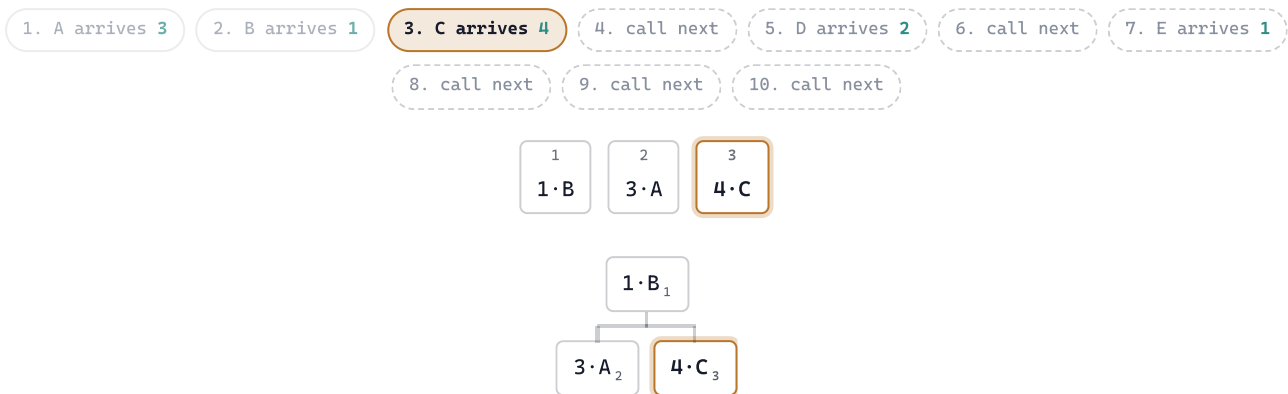
STEP 4 OF 19



SIFT-UP: B SWAPPED WITH A, NOW AT THE ROOT

2 — sift up. Swap B with its parent. B is now at position 1 and has no parent left, so the sift stops. B is the front of the queue.

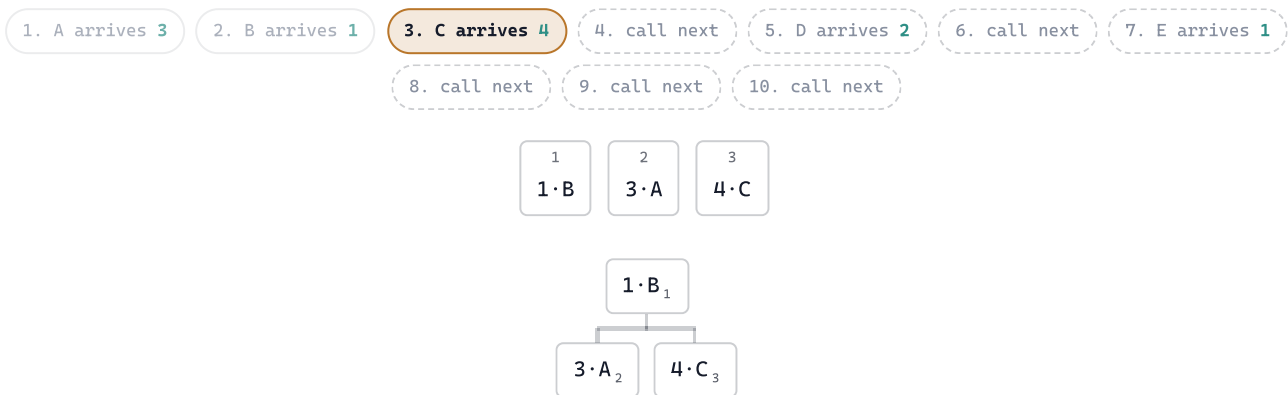
STEP 5 OF 19



PLACED AT POSITION 3 — PARENT IS POSITION 1

3 — C arrives, level 4. C goes at the end, position 3. Its parent is position $\lfloor 3/2 \rfloor = 1$, holding B at level 1. C (4) is *larger* than its parent, so the min-heap property already holds.

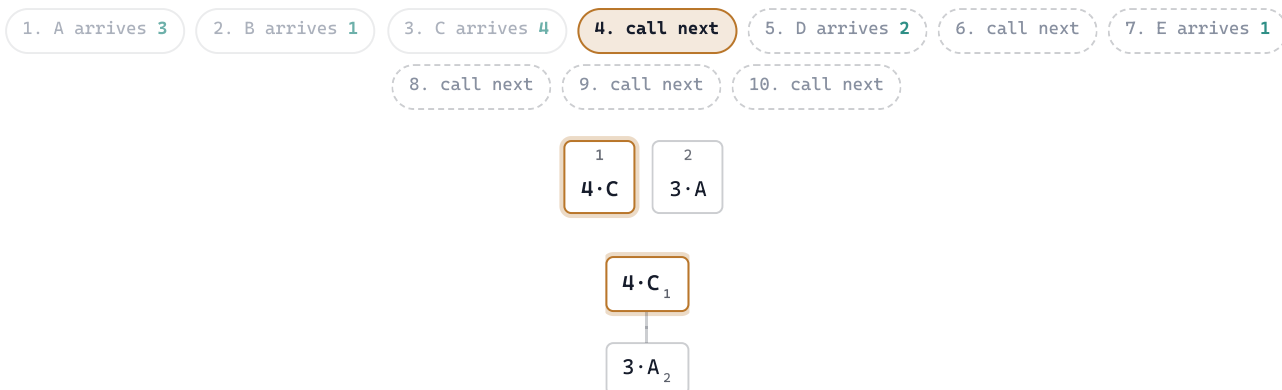
STEP 6 OF 19



NO SWAP NEEDED — C SETTLES WHERE IT LANDED

3 — sift up: nothing to do. Zero swaps. This is the cheap case, and it is why INSERT is $O(\log n)$ in the *worst* case but often far less. B is still the most urgent.

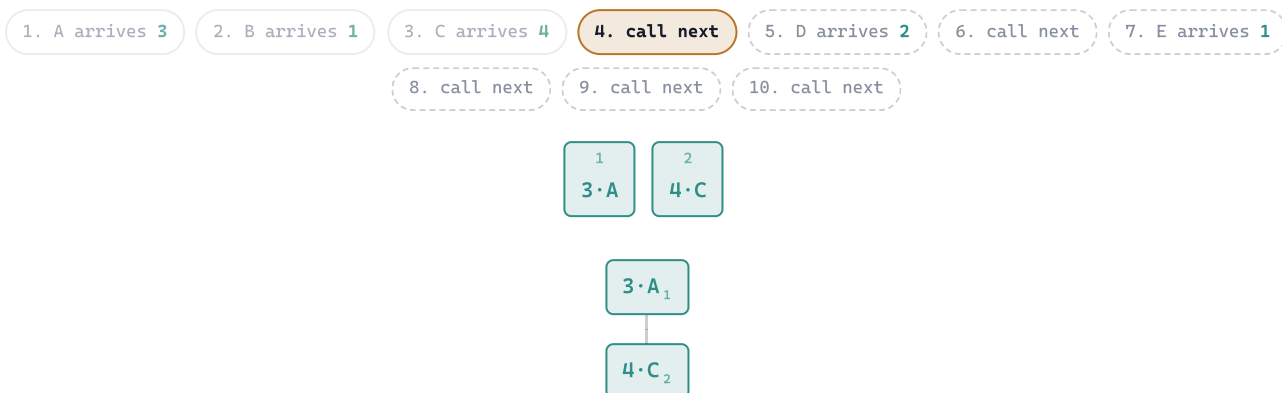
STEP 7 OF 19



Served so far: B (1)

4 — ER calls the next patient. EXTRACT-MIN returns the root, **B** (level 1). First half: the root is now empty, so the **last** element in the array — C — is moved up to fill it. That keeps the tree complete, but almost always breaks the heap property.

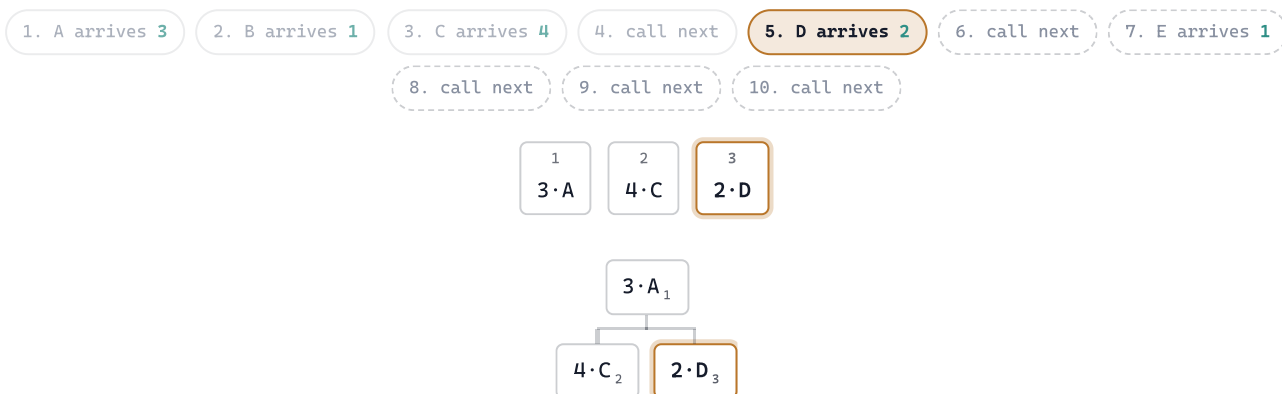
STEP 8 OF 19



Served so far: B (1)

4 — sift down. Compare the new root C (4) with its children: only position 2 exists, holding A (3). A is smaller, so swap. C reaches the bottom and stops. A is the new front.

STEP 9 OF 19



5 — D arrives, level 2. D goes at the end, position 3. Parent is position 1, holding A at level 3. D (2) is more urgent than A (3) — violation, so D sifts up.

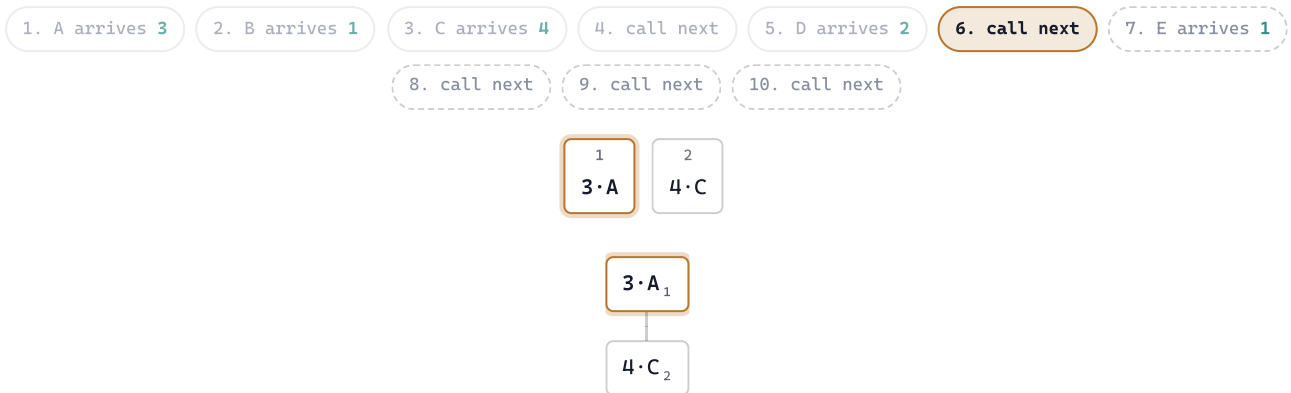
STEP 10 OF 19



SIFT-UP: D SWAPPED PAST A, STRAIGHT TO THE ROOT

5 — sift up. Swap D with A. D lands at the root and stops. Note it overtook *both* A and C, even though both had been waiting longer.

STEP 11 OF 19

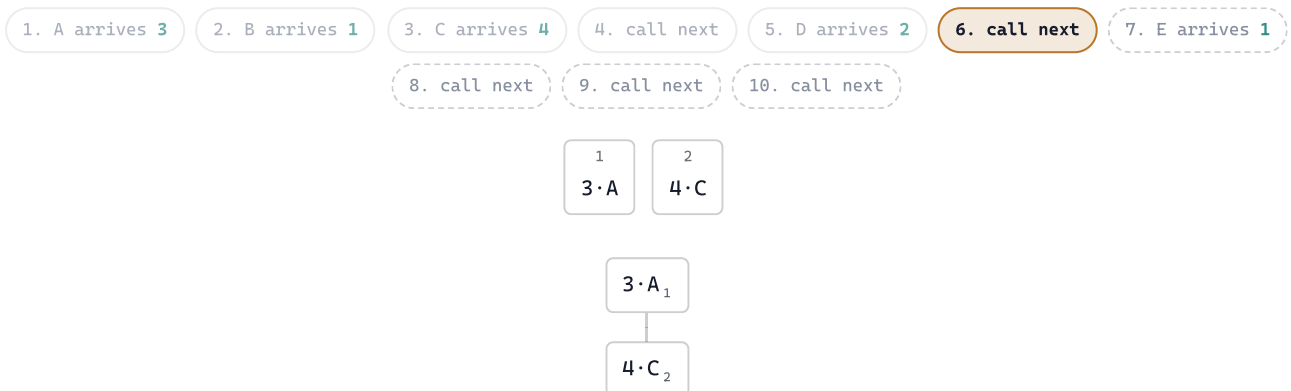


D REMOVED; LAST ELEMENT (A) MOVED INTO THE ROOT

Served so far: B (1) → D (2)

6 — ER calls the next patient. EXTRACT-MIN returns **D** (level 2) — *not* A, who has been waiting since the very first arrival. The last element, A, moves up into the empty root.

STEP 12 OF 19

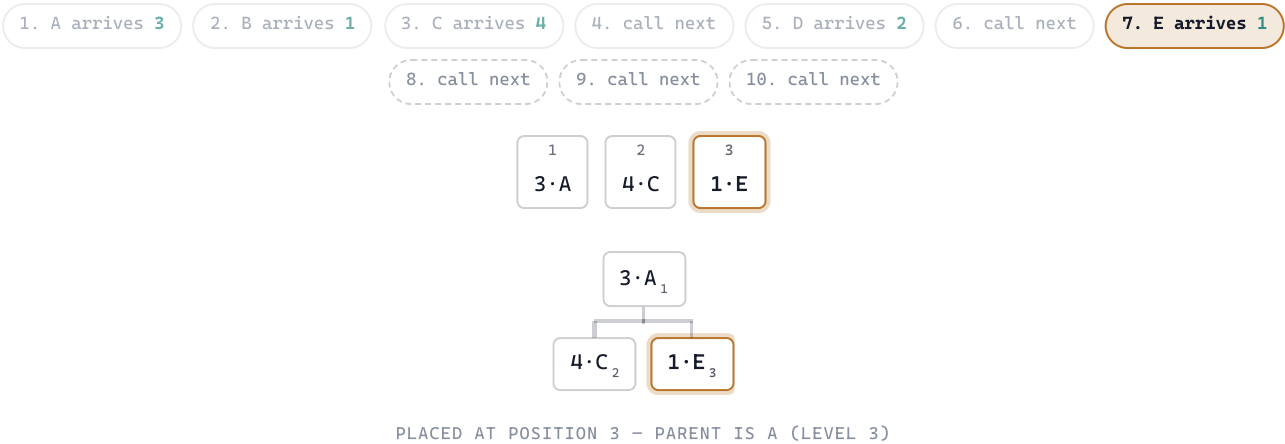


SIFT-DOWN: A (3) IS ALREADY SMALLER THAN ITS CHILD C (4) — NO SWAP

Served so far: B (1) → D (2)

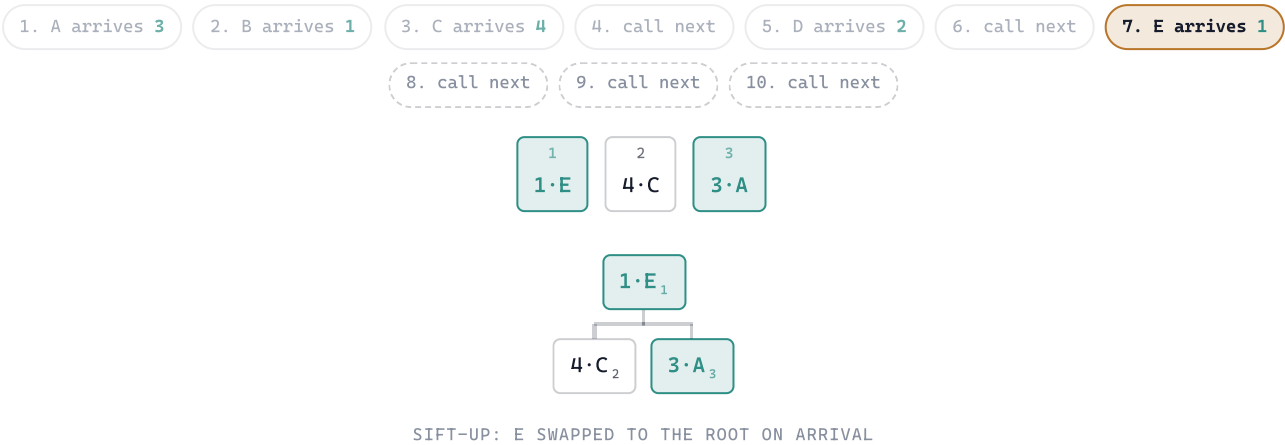
6 — sift down: nothing to do. The new root A (3) is compared with its only child C (4). A is already the smaller, so the heap property holds and the sift stops immediately.

STEP 13 OF 19



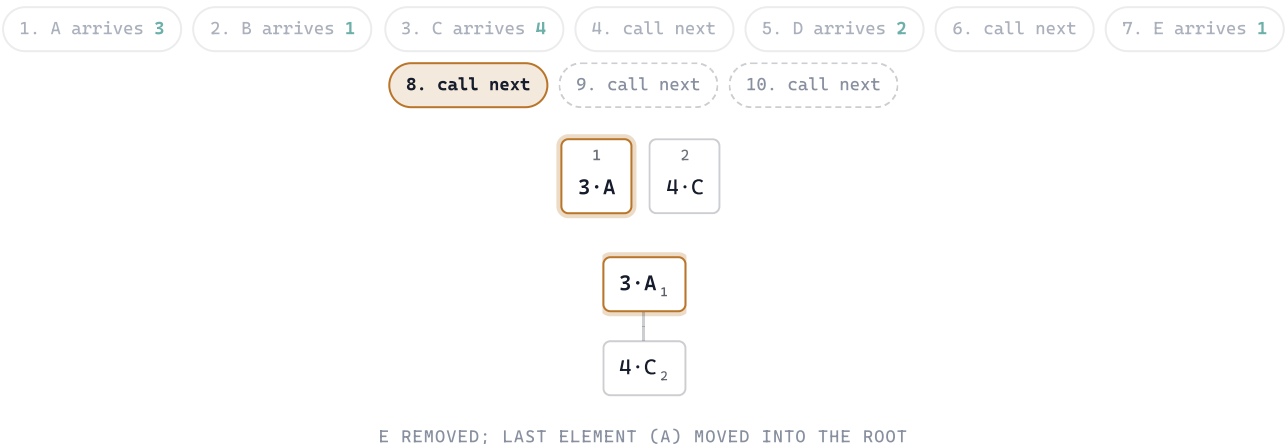
7 — E arrives, level 1 (critical). E goes at the end, position 3. Parent at position 1 is A (3). E (1) is far more urgent — violation, sift up.

STEP 14 OF 19



7 — sift up. Swap E with A; E reaches the root and stops. A critical patient jumps the whole queue the moment they walk in — ahead of A (waiting since event 1) and C (since event 3).

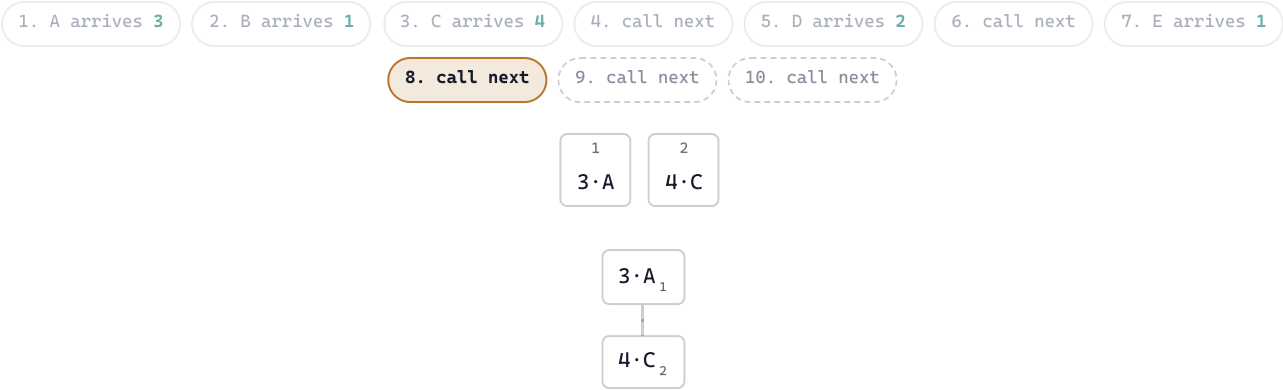
STEP 15 OF 19



Served so far: B (1) → D (2) → E (1)

8 — ER calls the next patient. EXTRACT-MIN returns E (level 1) — served almost immediately after arriving. A moves up into the root.

STEP 16 OF 19

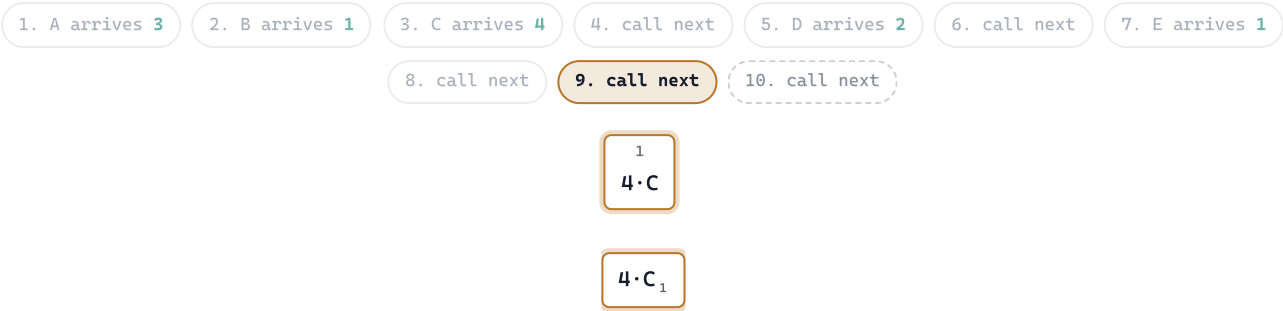


SIFT-DOWN: A (3) < C (4) – NO SWAP

Served so far: B (1) → D (2) → E (1)

8 — sift down: nothing to do. This is the defining behaviour of a priority queue: it is **not** first-come-first-served. E arrived 4th and was served 3rd.

STEP 17 OF 19



A REMOVED; LAST ELEMENT (C) MOVED INTO THE ROOT – NO CHILDREN LEFT

Served so far: B (1) → D (2) → E (1) → A (3)

9 — ER calls the next patient. EXTRACT-MIN returns **A** (level 3), finally served after waiting through four other events. C moves into the root and has no children, so there is no sift-down to do.

STEP 18 OF 19



QUEUE EMPTY

Served so far: B (1) → D (2) → E (1) → A (3) → C (4)

10 — ER calls the last patient. EXTRACT-MIN returns **C** (level 4). Nothing remains to move up, and the queue is empty.

STEP 19 OF 19

1. A arrives 3

2. B arrives 1

3. C arrives 4

4. call next

5. D arrives 2

6. call next

7. E arrives 1

8. call next

9. call next

10. call next

Final service order: B (1) → D (2) → E (1) → A (3) → C (4)

Arrival order: A, B, C, D, E

Service order: B, D, E, A, C

Every INSERT/EXTRACT-MIN: $O(\log n)$

Done. E was served 3rd despite arriving 4th (after A and C) — its priority (1) beat theirs (3 and 4) outright. Every arrival was a *place-then-sift-up* and every call-in a *take-root-then-sift-down* — exactly the $O(\log n)$ operations from Lecture 16. A priority queue is a binary heap wearing a scheduling hat.

The same pattern, well beyond hospitals

OS PROCESS SCHEDULING

Operating systems keep a ready-queue of processes keyed by priority (and often dynamically adjusted to prevent starvation) — "run the highest-priority ready process next" is the priority-queue problem verbatim.

DIJKSTRA & PRIM (LECTURE 16 CALLBACK)

Both algorithms repeatedly pick the cheapest available vertex/edge — implemented with exactly the min-priority queue we just animated, typically a binary heap, upgraded to a Fibonacci heap (Lecture 19) when decrease-key dominates the running time.

NETWORK PACKET SCHEDULING (QOS)

Routers prioritize latency-sensitive traffic (voice/video) over bulk transfers using priority queues on packets — the same "urgent jumps the line" behavior as the ER example.

A* SEARCH

Pathfinding's "open list" is a min-priority queue ordered by estimated total cost — always expand the most promising node next, exactly like always calling the most urgent patient next.

PRINTER / JOB QUEUES

Print spoolers and batch job systems often support priority levels (e.g. a rush job) — small jobs or urgent flags jump ahead of a long queue of routine ones.

EVENT-DRIVEN SIMULATION

Discrete-event simulators keep a priority queue of future events ordered by timestamp — "process the next event in time order" is a priority queue keyed on time instead of urgency.

Heap Sort and priority-queue operations, one table

OPERATION	COST	VERIFIED TODAY AS
BUILD-MAX-HEAP (once, at the start)	$O(n)$	from Lecture 16 — reused as-is
HEAPSORT total ($n-1$ rounds of exchange + MAX-HEAPIFY)	$O(n \log n)$	9 rounds, 23 total swap operations on 10 elements
HEAPSORT extra space	$O(1)$ — sorts in place	only the array itself, plus $O(1)$ temporaries for each swap
Priority queue INSERT	$O(\log n)$	each ER arrival — at most 1–2 sift-up comparisons in a 3-patient queue
Priority queue EXTRACT-MIN/MAX	$O(\log n)$	each ER call-in — at most 1 sift-down comparison in a 3-patient queue
Priority queue PEEK	$O(1)$	"who's next" without removing them — always the root

One heap, two jobs — sort everything, or serve the most urgent

- **Heap Sort turns the same heap outward-in:** repeated EXTRACT-MAX, each result parked at the shrinking heap's boundary — verified today on Lecture 16's own array, ending at the fully sorted [1,2,3,4,7,8,9,10,14,16] in 9 rounds and 23 total swaps.
- **Heap Sort's trade-off:** the only comparison sort that is simultaneously guaranteed $O(n \log n)$ *and* in-place — at the cost of stability, cache locality, and adaptiveness.
- **A priority queue is an ADT, a heap is its implementation:** INSERT and EXTRACT-MIN/MAX are all it needs, and a binary heap provides both in $O(\log n)$.
- **Priority, not arrival order, decides service** — verified in the ER simulation, where a patient arriving fifth (E, priority 1) was served *before* patients who had been waiting since the first and third arrivals (A, priority 3, and C, priority 4).
- **The trade-off:** no fairness/starvation guarantee and no cheap decrease-key without extra bookkeeping — problems Lectures 18–19's Binomial and Fibonacci heaps address directly.

LECTURE 18 — NEXT

Binomial Heaps

What a binary heap can't do at all: merge two heaps together efficiently. Binomial heaps are built specifically to fix that.

HOMEWORK — BRING TO LECTURE 18

- Run HEAPSORT by hand on the max-heap you built for last lecture's homework array. Show the array after every round and count total swaps.
- Design a min-priority-queue trace for a print-spooler scenario: 4 jobs arrive with page counts as priority (fewer pages = more urgent), with at least one job arriving mid-queue that should jump ahead of an earlier one. Show the queue after each event.
- In 3–4 sentences: explain why HEAPSORT is not a *stable* sort, using a concrete example with two equal-priority elements that could end up reordered.
- In 3–4 sentences: what does "starvation" mean for a priority queue, and sketch (in words, no code needed) how "aging" — slowly increasing a waiting item's priority over time — could prevent it.

Dr. Manu Shrivastava — LHC 308F — Friday 2:00–5:00 PM

Next: Lecture 18 — Binomial Heaps.
