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Sometimes we also have

• S. merge(S'): $S := S \cup S'$; $S' := \emptyset$.



An addressable Priority Queue also supports:



8 Priority Queues

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An addressable Priority Queue also supports:

handle S. insert(x): Adds element x to the data-structure, and returns a handle to the object for future reference.



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- handle S. insert(x): Adds element x to the data-structure, and returns a handle to the object for future reference.
- **S. delete(***h***):** Deletes element specified through handle *h*.
- S. decrease-key(h, k): Decreases the key of the element specified by handle h to k. Assumes that the key is at least k before the operation.



Dijkstra's Shortest Path Algorithm

```
Algorithm 39 Shortest-Path(G = (V, E, d), s \in V)
 1: Input: weighted graph G = (V, E, d); start vertex s;
 2: Output: key-field of every node contains distance from s;
 3: S.build(); // build empty priority queue
4: for all v \in V \setminus \{s\} do
5: v \cdot \ker - \infty;
6: h_v \leftarrow S.insert(v);
7: s.key \leftarrow 0; S.insert(s);
8: while S.is-empty() = false do
9:
    v \leftarrow S.delete-min():
10: for all x \in V s.t. (v, x) \in E do
11:
               if x.key > v.key + d(v, x) then
12:
                    S.decrease-key(h_x, v.key+d(v, x));
13:
                    x.key \leftarrow v.key + d(v, x);
```



8 Priority Queues

Prim's Minimum Spanning Tree Algorithm

```
Algorithm 40 Prim-MST(G = (V, E, d), s \in V)
1: Input: weighted graph G = (V, E, d); start vertex s;
 2: Output: pred-fields encode MST;
 3: S.build(); // build empty priority queue
4: for all v \in V \setminus \{s\} do
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6: h_v \leftarrow S.insert(v);
 7: s.key \leftarrow 0; S.insert(s);
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                     x.key \leftarrow d(v, x);
13:
14:
                     x.pred \leftarrow v;
```



Analysis of Dijkstra and Prim

Both algorithms require:

- 1 build() operation
- ▶ |V| insert() operations
- ▶ |V| delete-min() operations
- ▶ |V| is-empty() operations
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Analysis of Dijkstra and Prim

Both algorithms require:

- 1 build() operation
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How good a running time can we obtain?



Operation	Binary Heap	BST	Binomial Heap	Fibonacci Heap*
build	п	$n\log n$	$n\log n$	п
minimum	1	$\log n$	$\log n$	1
is-empty	1	1	1	1
insert	$\log n$	$\log n$	$\log n$	1
delete	$\log n^{**}$	$\log n$	$\log n$	$\log n$
delete-min	$\log n$	$\log n$	$\log n$	$\log n$
decrease-key	$\log n$	$\log n$	$\log n$	1
merge	n	$n\log n$	$\log n$	1

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decrease-key	$\log n$	$\log n$	$\log n$	1
merge	n	$n\log n$	$\log n$	1

Note that most applications use $\mathbf{build}()$ only to create an empty heap which then costs time 1.

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decrease-key	$\log n$	$\log n$	$\log n$	1
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Note that most applications use **build()** only to create an empty heap which then costs time 1.

The standard version of binary heaps is not addressable, and hence does not support a delete operation.

Operation	Binary Heap	BST	Binomial Heap	Fibonacci Heap*
build	n	$n\log n$	$n\log n$	п
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Note that most applications use **build()** only to create an empty heap which then costs time 1.

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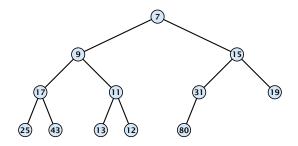
Fibonacci heaps only give an amortized guarantee.

Using Binary Heaps, Prim and Dijkstra run in time $\mathcal{O}((|V| + |E|) \log |V|).$

Using Fibonacci Heaps, Prim and Dijkstra run in time $\mathcal{O}(|V| \log |V| + |E|)$.



8 Priority Queues

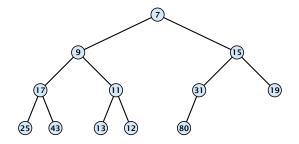




8.1 Binary Heaps

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Nearly complete binary tree; only the last level is not full, and this one is filled from left to right.

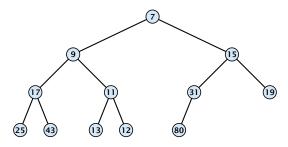




8.1 Binary Heaps

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- Nearly complete binary tree; only the last level is not full, and this one is filled from left to right.
- Heap property: A node's key is not larger than the key of one of its children.





Binary Heaps

Operations:



Binary Heaps

Operations:

• **minimum()**: return the root-element. Time $\mathcal{O}(1)$.



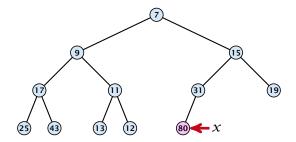
Binary Heaps

Operations:

- **minimum()**: return the root-element. Time $\mathcal{O}(1)$.
- **is-empty():** check whether root-pointer is null. Time $\mathcal{O}(1)$.



Maintain a pointer to the last element *x*.

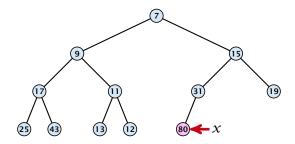




8.1 Binary Heaps

Maintain a pointer to the last element *x*.

We can compute the predecessor of x (last element when x is deleted) in time O(log n).



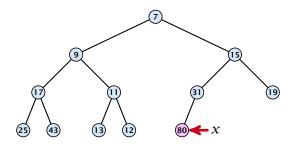


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We can compute the predecessor of x (last element when x is deleted) in time O(log n).

go up until the last edge used was a right edge. go left; go right until you reach a leaf





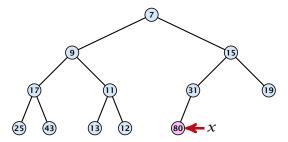
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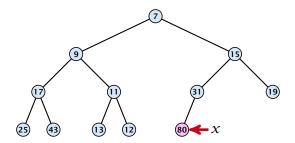
if you hit the root on the way up, go to the rightmost element





8.1 Binary Heaps

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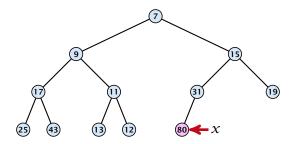




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Maintain a pointer to the last element *x*.

We can compute the successor of x (last element when an element is inserted) in time O(log n).



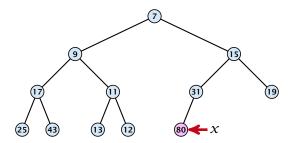


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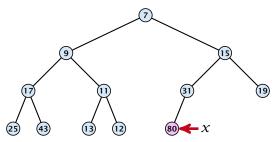
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We can compute the successor of x (last element when an element is inserted) in time O(log n).

go up until the last edge used was a left edge. go right; go left until you reach a null-pointer.

if you hit the root on the way up, go to the leftmost element; insert a new element as a left child;

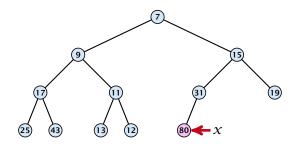




8.1 Binary Heaps

Insert

1. Insert element at successor of *x*.

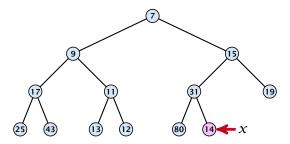




8.1 Binary Heaps

Insert

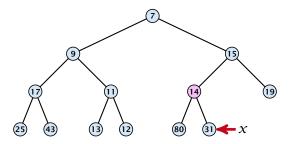
- **1.** Insert element at successor of *x*.
- 2. Exchange with parent until heap property is fulfilled.





Insert

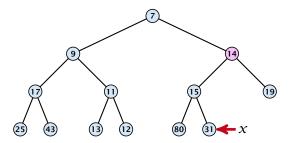
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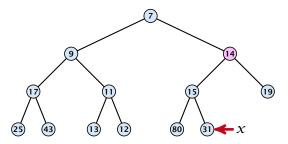
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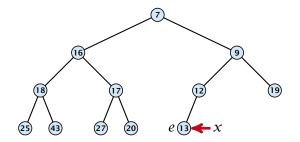
- 1. Insert element at successor of *x*.
- 2. Exchange with parent until heap property is fulfilled.



Note that an exchange can either be done by moving the data or by changing pointers. The latter method leads to an addressable priority queue.



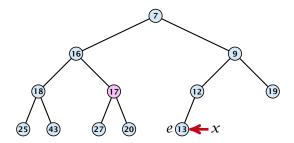
1. Exchange the element to be deleted with the element *e* pointed to by *x*.





8.1 Binary Heaps

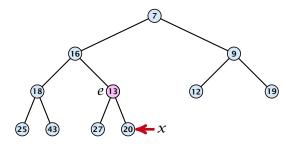
- 1. Exchange the element to be deleted with the element *e* pointed to by *x*.
- **2.** Restore the heap-property for the element *e*.





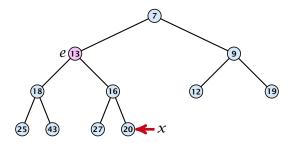
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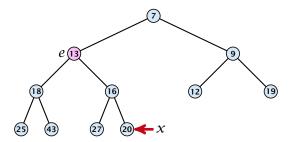


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- Exchange the element to be deleted with the element *e* pointed to by *x*.
- 2. Restore the heap-property for the element *e*.



At its new position e may either travel up or down in the tree (but not both directions).



Operations:

- **minimum()**: return the root-element. Time $\mathcal{O}(1)$.
- **is-empty():** check whether root-pointer is null. Time $\mathcal{O}(1)$.
- insert(k): insert at successor of x and bubble up. Time $O(\log n)$.
- delete(h): swap with x and bubble up or sift-down. Time O(log n).



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- delete(*h*): Swap with x and bubble up or sift-down. Time $O(\log n)$.
- build(x₁,..., x_n): Insert elements arbitrarily; then do sift-down operations starting with the lowest layer in the tree. Time O(n).





The standard implementation of binary heaps is via arrays. Let A[0, ..., n-1] be an array

- The parent of *i*-th element is at position $\lfloor \frac{i-1}{2} \rfloor$.
- The left child of *i*-th element is at position 2i + 1.
- The right child of *i*-th element is at position 2i + 2.



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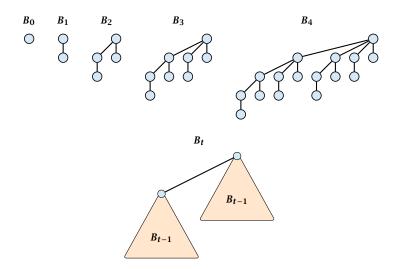
Finding the successor of x is much easier than in the description on the previous slide. Simply increase or decrease x.

The resulting binary heap is not addressable. The elements don't maintain their positions and therefore there are no stable handles.



Operation	Binary Heap	BST	Binomial Heap	Fibonacci Heap*
build	п	$n\log n$	$n\log n$	п
minimum	1	$\log n$	$\log n$	1
is-empty	1	1	1	1
insert	$\log n$	$\log n$	$\log n$	1
delete	$\log n^{**}$	$\log n$	$\log n$	$\log n$
delete-min	$\log n$	$\log n$	$\log n$	$\log n$
decrease-key	$\log n$	$\log n$	$\log n$	1
merge	n	$n\log n$	log n	1







Properties of Binomial Trees

▶ B_k has 2^k nodes.



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- The root of B_k has degree k.

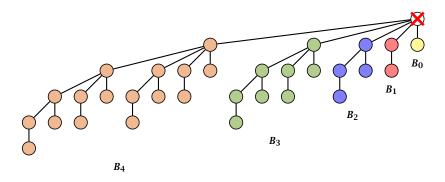


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- The root of B_k has degree k.
- B_k has $\binom{k}{\ell}$ nodes on level ℓ .



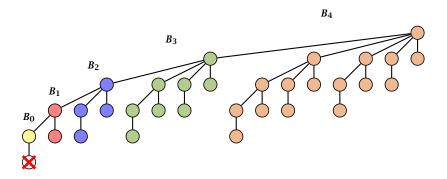
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- The root of B_k has degree k.
- B_k has $\binom{k}{\ell}$ nodes on level ℓ .
- Deleting the root of B_k gives trees $B_0, B_1, \ldots, B_{k-1}$.





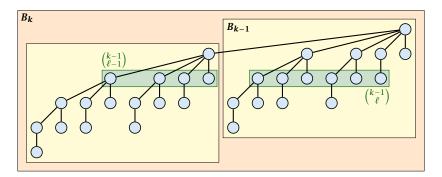
Deleting the root of B_5 leaves sub-trees B_4 , B_3 , B_2 , B_1 , and B_0 .





Deleting the leaf furthest from the root (in B_5) leaves a path that connects the roots of sub-trees B_4 , B_3 , B_2 , B_1 , and B_0 .



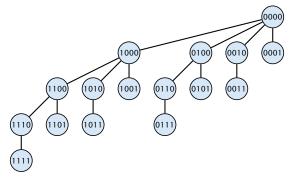


The number of nodes on level ℓ in tree B_k is therefore

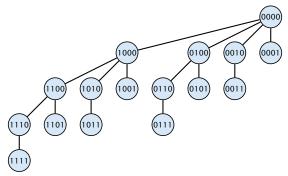
$$\binom{k-1}{\ell-1} + \binom{k-1}{\ell} = \binom{k}{\ell}$$



8.2 Binomial Heaps

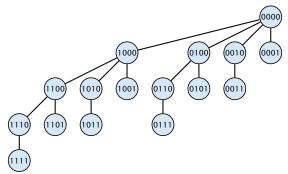






The binomial tree B_k is a sub-graph of the hypercube H_k .

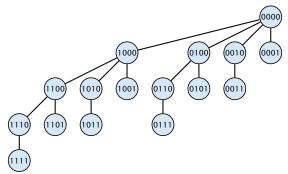




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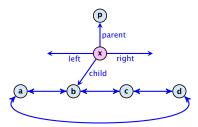
The parent of a node with label b_k, \ldots, b_1 is obtained by setting the least significant 1-bit to 0.

The ℓ -th level contains nodes that have ℓ 1's in their label.



How do we implement trees with non-constant degree?

The children of a node are arranged in a circular linked list.

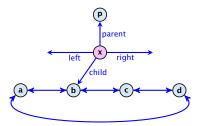




8.2 Binomial Heaps

How do we implement trees with non-constant degree?

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- A child-pointer points to an arbitrary node within the list.

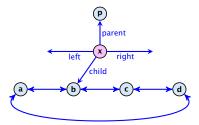




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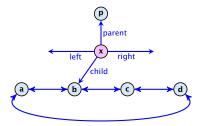




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How do we implement trees with non-constant degree?

- The children of a node are arranged in a circular linked list.
- A child-pointer points to an arbitrary node within the list.
- A parent-pointer points to the parent node.
- Pointers x.left and x.right point to the left and right sibling of x (if x does not have siblings then x.left = x.right = x).



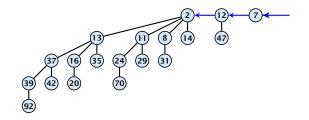


8.2 Binomial Heaps

- Given a pointer to a node x we can splice out the sub-tree rooted at x in constant time.
- We can add a child-tree T to a node x in constant time if we are given a pointer to x and a pointer to the root of T.



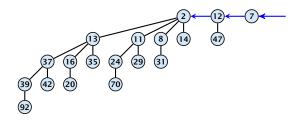
Binomial Heap





8.2 Binomial Heaps

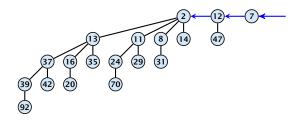
Binomial Heap



In a binomial heap the keys are arranged in a collection of binomial trees.



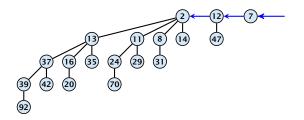
Binomial Heap



In a binomial heap the keys are arranged in a collection of binomial trees.

Every tree fulfills the heap-property





In a binomial heap the keys are arranged in a collection of binomial trees.

Every tree fulfills the heap-property

There is at most one tree for every dimension/order. For example the above heap contains trees B_0 , B_1 , and B_4 .





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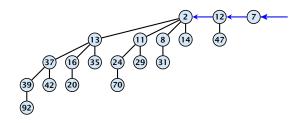
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Then $n = \sum_i 2^{k_i}$ must hold. But since the k_i are all distinct this means that the k_i define the non-zero bit-positions in the binary representation of n.



Properties of a heap with *n* keys:

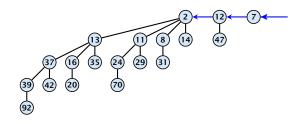




8.2 Binomial Heaps

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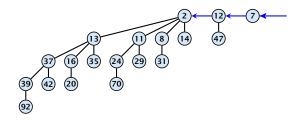




8.2 Binomial Heaps

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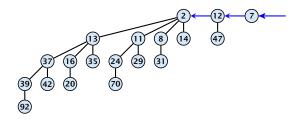
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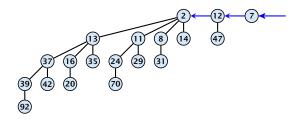
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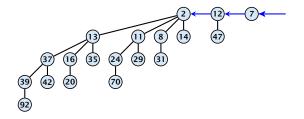
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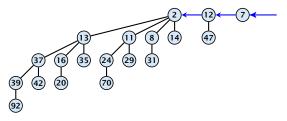
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- The minimum must be contained in one of the roots.
- The height of the largest tree is at most $\lfloor \log n \rfloor$.
- The trees are stored in a single-linked list; ordered by dimension/size.





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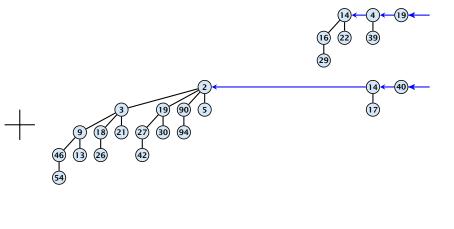
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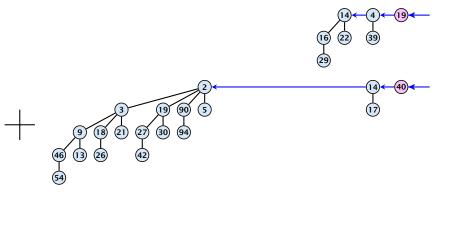
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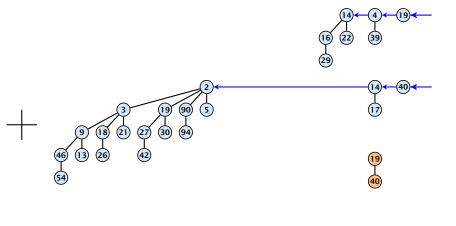
For more trees the technique is analogous to binary addition.

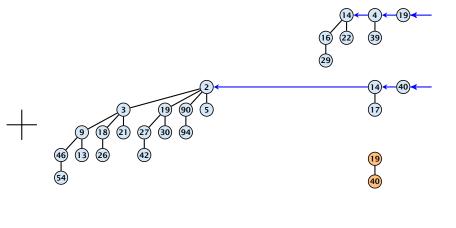




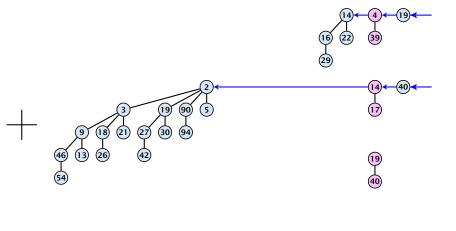




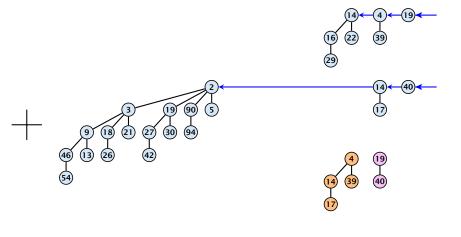




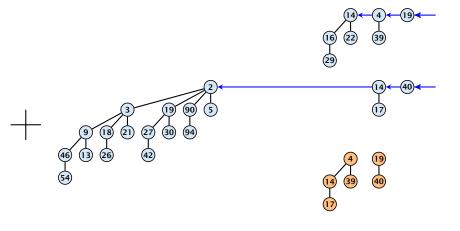




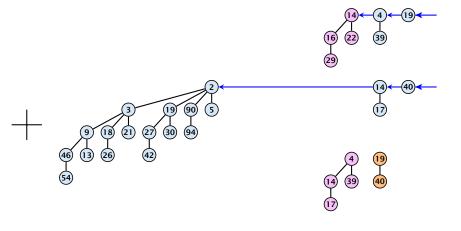




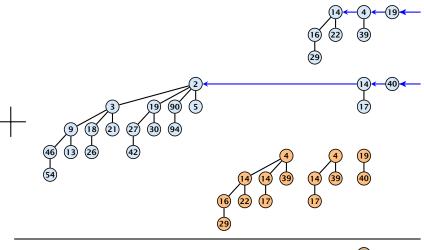




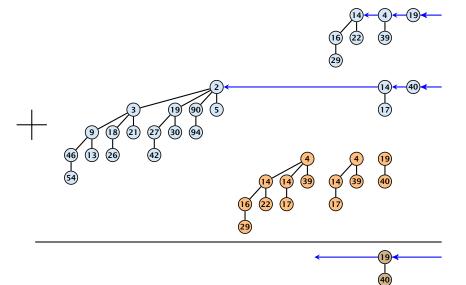


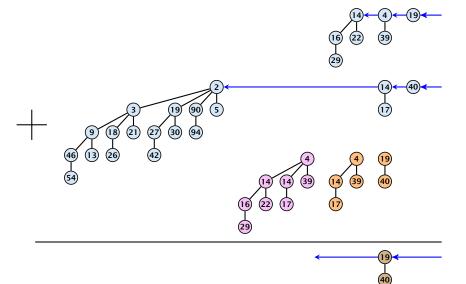


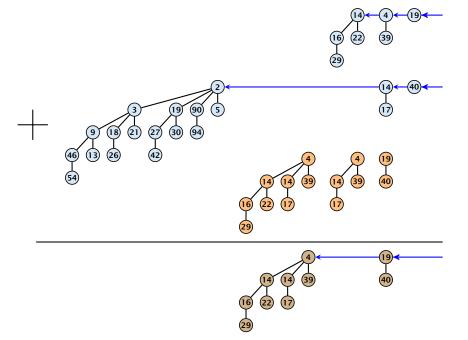


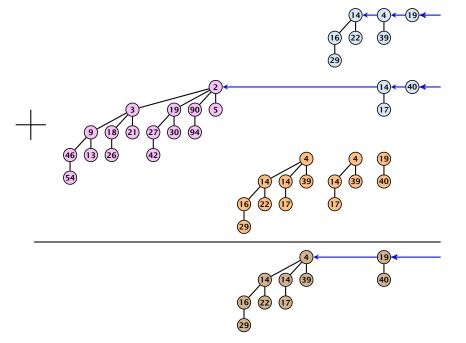


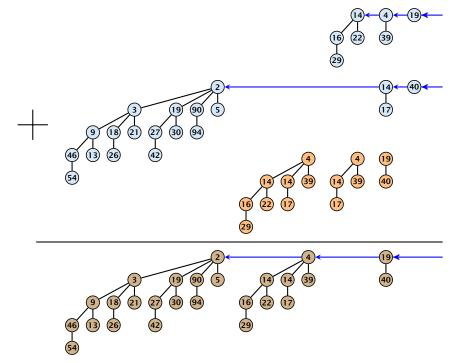


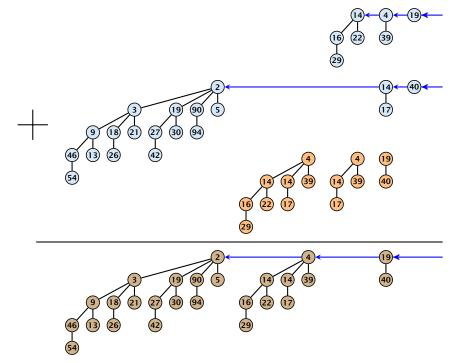












- S_1 . merge(S_2):
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S. minimum():

- Find the minimum key-value among all roots.
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S. delete-min():

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 - Time: $O(\log n)$ since the trees have height $O(\log n)$.



S. delete(handle h):



8.2 Binomial Heaps

14. Jan. 2024 366/386

- S. delete(handle h):
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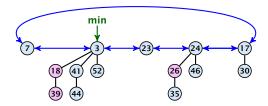
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Collection of trees that fulfill the heap property.

Structure is much more relaxed than binomial heaps.





8.3 Fibonacci Heaps

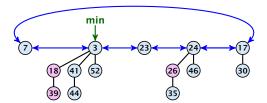
Additional implementation details:

- Every node x stores its degree in a field x. degree. Note that this can be updated in constant time when adding a child to x.
- Every node stores a boolean value x.marked that specifies whether x is marked or not.



The potential function:

- t(S) denotes the number of trees in the heap.
- m(S) denotes the number of marked nodes.
- We use the potential function $\Phi(S) = t(S) + 2m(S)$.



The potential is $\Phi(S) = 5 + 2 \cdot 3 = 11$.



14. Jan. 2024 369/386 We assume that one unit of potential can pay for a constant amount of work, where the constant is chosen "big enough" (to take care of the constants that occur).

To make this more explicit we use *c* to denote the amount of work that a unit of potential can pay for.

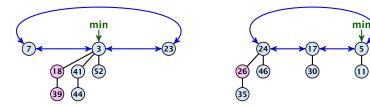


S. minimum()

- Access through the min-pointer.
- Actual cost $\mathcal{O}(1)$.
- No change in potential.
- Amortized cost $\mathcal{O}(1)$.



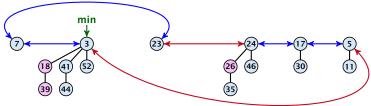
- S.merge(S')
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8.3 Fibonacci Heaps

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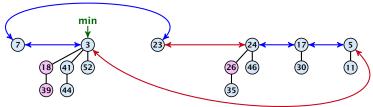


Running time:

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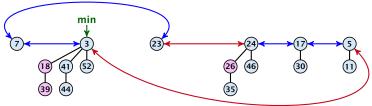


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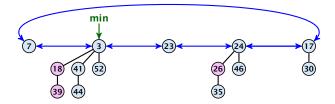


Running time:

- ► Actual cost O(1).
- No change in potential.
- Hence, amortized cost is $\mathcal{O}(1)$.

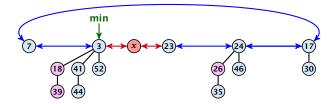


- S. insert(x)
 - Create a new tree containing x.
 - Insert x into the root-list.
 - Update min-pointer, if necessary.



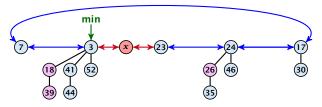


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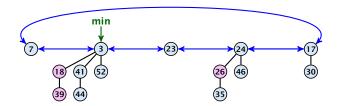


Running time:

- Actual cost $\mathcal{O}(1)$.
- Change in potential is +1.
- Amortized cost is c + O(1) = O(1).



S. delete-min(x)

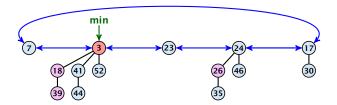




8.3 Fibonacci Heaps

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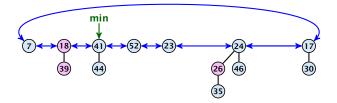
► Delete minimum; add child-trees to heap; time: D(min) · O(1).





8.3 Fibonacci Heaps

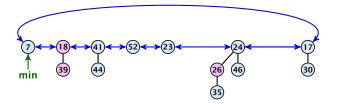
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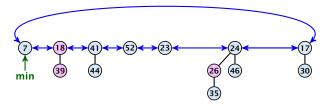
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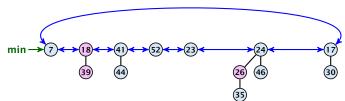


Consolidate root-list so that no roots have the same degree. Time $t \cdot O(1)$ (see next slide).



Consolidate:



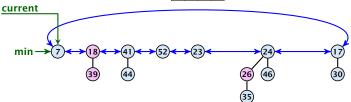




8.3 Fibonacci Heaps

Consolidate:

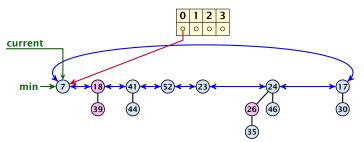






8.3 Fibonacci Heaps

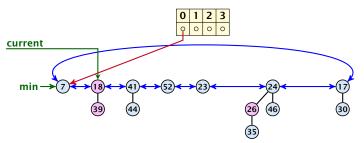
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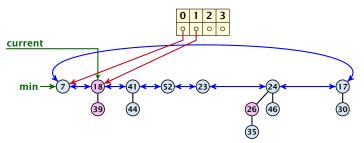
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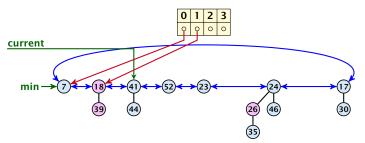
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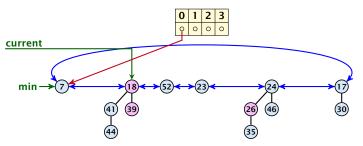
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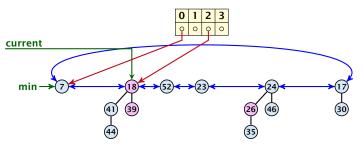
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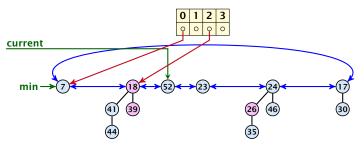
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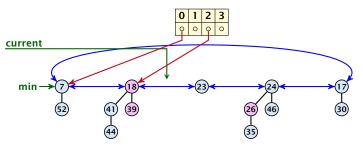
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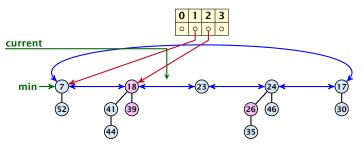
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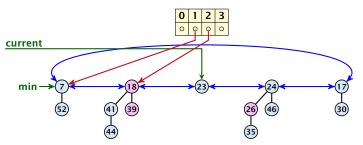
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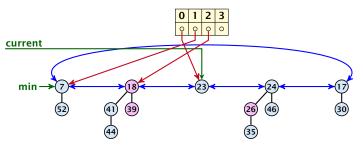
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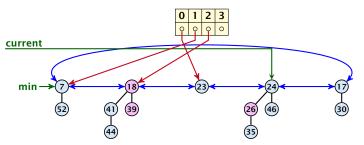
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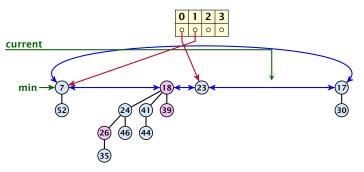
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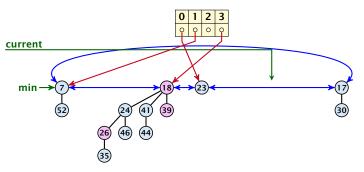
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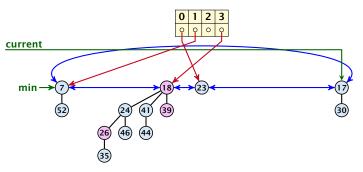
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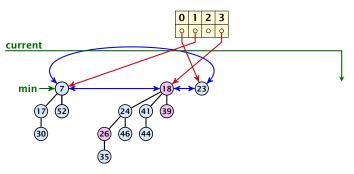
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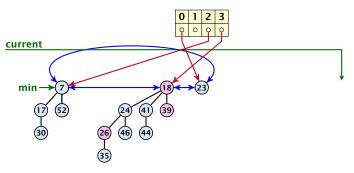
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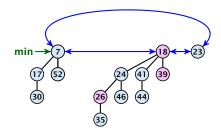
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8.3 Fibonacci Heaps

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8.3 Fibonacci Heaps

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- Therefore $\Delta \Phi \leq D_n + 1 t$;
- We can pay $c \cdot (t D_n 1)$ from the potential decrease.
- The amortized cost is

 $c_1 \cdot (D_n + t) - c \cdot (t - D_n - 1)$



Actual cost for delete-min()

- At most $D_n + t$ elements in root-list before consolidate.
- ► Actual cost for a delete-min is at most O(1) · (D_n + t). Hence, there exists c₁ s.t. actual cost is at most c₁ · (D_n + t).

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for $\textbf{\textit{c}} \geq \textbf{\textit{c}}_1$.



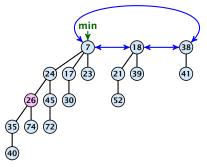
If the input trees of the consolidation procedure are binomial trees (for example only singleton vertices) then the output will be a set of distinct binomial trees, and, hence, the Fibonacci heap will be (more or less) a Binomial heap right after the consolidation.



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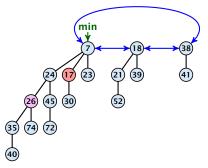
If we do not have delete or decrease-key operations then $D_n \leq \log n$.





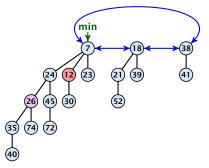
Case 1: decrease-key does not violate heap-property





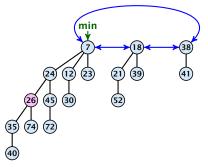
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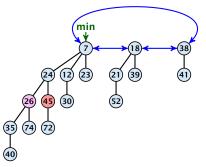
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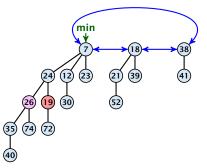




Case 2: heap-property is violated, but parent is not marked

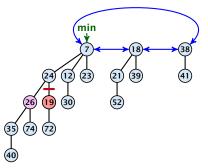
- Decrease key-value of element x reference by h.
- If the heap-property is violated, cut the parent edge of x, and make x into a root.
- Adjust min-pointers, if necessary.
- Mark the (previous) parent of x (unless it's a root).





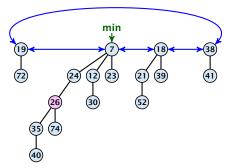
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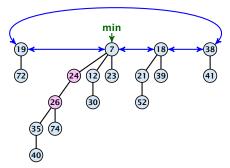
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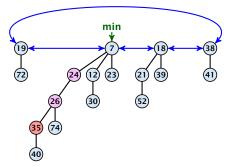
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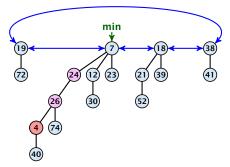
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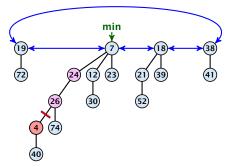
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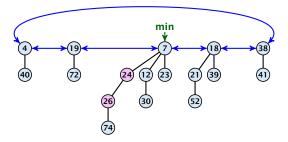
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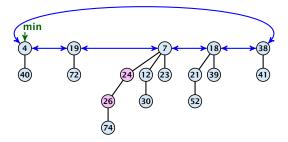
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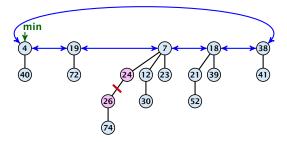
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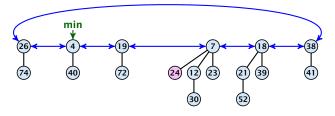
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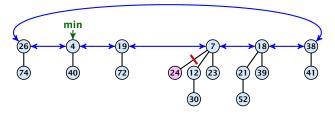
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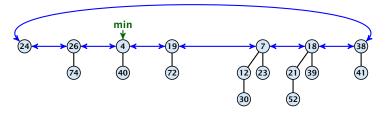
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- Adjust min-pointers, if necessary.
- Execute the following:

```
p \leftarrow parent[x];

while (p is marked)

pp \leftarrow parent[p];

cut of p; make it into a root; unmark it;

p \leftarrow pp;

if p is unmarked and not a root mark it;
```



Actual cost:



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Constant cost for decreasing the value.



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 $c_2(\ell+1) + c(4-\ell) \le (c_2-c)\ell + 4c + c_2 = \mathcal{O}(1),$

if $c \ge c_2$.



Delete node

H.delete(*x*):

- decrease value of x to $-\infty$.
- delete-min.

Amortized cost: $\mathcal{O}(D_n)$

- $\mathcal{O}(1)$ for decrease-key.
- $\mathcal{O}(D_n)$ for delete-min.



Lemma 32

Let x be a node with degree k and let $y_1, ..., y_k$ denote the children of x in the order that they were linked to x. Then

degree
$$(\gamma_i) \ge \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } i = 1\\ i - 2 & \text{if } i > 1 \end{cases}$$



Proof

When y_i was linked to x, at least y₁,..., y_{i-1} were already linked to x.



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- Since, then y_i has lost at most one child.
- Therefore, degree(y_i) $\ge i 2$.



Let s_k be the minimum possible size of a sub-tree rooted at a node of degree k that can occur in a Fibonacci heap.



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Let x be a degree k node of size s_k and let y_1, \ldots, y_k be its children.

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8.3 Fibonacci Heaps

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8.3 Fibonacci Heaps

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Definition 33

Consider the following non-standard Fibonacci type sequence:

$$F_{k} = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } k = 0\\ 2 & \text{if } k = 1\\ F_{k-1} + F_{k-2} & \text{if } k \ge 2 \end{cases}$$

Facts:

1. $F_k \ge \phi^k$. 2. For $k \ge 2$: $F_k = 2 + \sum_{i=0}^{k-2} F_i$.

The above facts can be easily proved by induction. From this it follows that $s_k \ge F_k \ge \phi^k$, which gives that the maximum degree in a Fibonacci heap is logarithmic.



k=0:

$$l = F_0 \ge \Phi^0 = 1$$

k=1:
 $2 = F_1 \ge \Phi^1 \approx 1.61$
 $F_k = F_{k-1} + F_{k-2} \ge \Phi^{k-1} + \Phi^{k-2} = \Phi^{k-2}(\Phi+1) = \Phi^k$

k=2:
$$3 = F_2 = 2 + 1 = 2 + F_0$$

k-1 \rightarrow **k**: $F_k = F_{k-1} + F_{k-2} = 2 + \sum_{i=0}^{k-3} F_i + F_{k-2} = 2 + \sum_{i=0}^{k-2} F_i$



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