# CS711008Z Algorithm Design and Analysis

Lecture 7. Binary heap, binomial heap, and Fibonacci heap

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#### Outline

- Introduction to priority queue
- Various implementations of priority queue:
  - ullet Linked list: a list having n items is too long to support efficient EXTRACTMIN and INSERT operations simultaneously;
  - Binary heap: using a tree rather than a linked list;
  - Binomial heap: allowing multiple trees rather than a single tree to support efficient UNION operation
  - Fibonacci heap: implement DecreaseKey via simply
    cutting an edge rather than exchanging nodes, and control
    a "bushy" tree shape via allowing at most one child losing
    for any node.

Priority queue

# Priority queue: motivation

- Motivation: It is usually a case to extract the minimum from a set S of n numbers, dynamically.
- Here, the word "dynamically" means that on S, we might perform INSERTION, DELETION and DECREASEKEY operations.
- The question is how to organize the data to efficiently support these operations.

#### Priority queue

- Priority queue is an abstract data type similar to stack or queue, but each element has a priority associated with its name.
- A min-oriented priority queue must support the following core operations:
  - **1** H=MAKEHEAP(): to create a new heap H;
  - ② INSERT(H, x): to insert into H an element x together with its priority
  - EXTRACTMIN(H): to extract the element with the highest priority;
  - DecreaseKey(H, x, k): to decrease the priority of element x,
  - Union $(H_1,H_2)$ : return a new heap containing all elements of heaps  $H_1$  and  $H_2$ , and destroy the input heaps

# Priority queue is very useful

- Priority queue has extensive applications, such as:
  - Dijkstra's shortest path algorithm
  - Prim's MST algorithm
  - Huffman coding
  - ullet  $A^*$  searching algorithm
  - HeapSort
  - .....

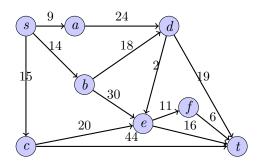
An example: Dijkstra's algorithm

# Dijkstra's algorithm [1959]

Here PQ denotes a min-priority queue.

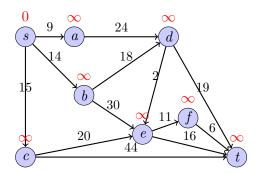
```
Dijkstra(G, s, t)
 1: key(s) = 0; //key(u) stores an upper bound of the shortest distance
   from s to u:
2: PQ. Insert (s);
3: for all node v \neq s do
4: key(v) = +\infty
 5: PQ. Insert (v) //n times
6: end for
7: S = \{\}; // Let S be the set of explored nodes;
8: while S \neq V do
9: v^* = PQ. EXTRACTMIN(); //n times
10: S = S \cup \{v^*\}:
11: for all v \notin S and \langle v^*, v \rangle \in E do
12:
         if key(v^*) + d(v^*, v) < key(v) then
           PQ.DECREASEKEY(v, key(v^*) + d(v^*, v)); //m times
13:
         end if
14:
      end for
15:
16: end while
```

# Dijkstra's algorithm: an example



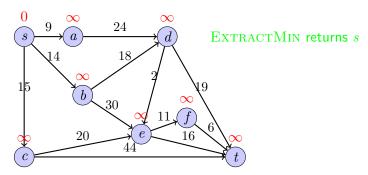
#### Initialization

$$S = \{\}$$
 
$$PQ = \{s(0), a(\infty), b(\infty), c(\infty), d(\infty), e(\infty), f(\infty), t(\infty)\}$$



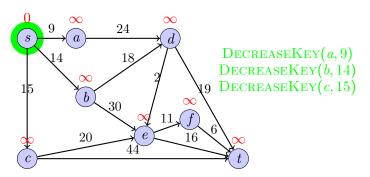
# Step 1: EXTRACTMIN

$$S = \{\}$$
 
$$PQ = \{s(0), a(\infty), b(\infty), c(\infty), d(\infty), e(\infty), f(\infty), t(\infty)\}$$



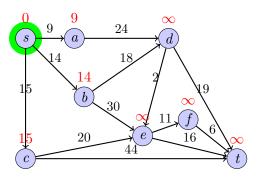
#### Step 1: DecreaseKey

$$S = \{s\}$$
 
$$PQ = \{a(\infty), b(\infty), c(\infty), d(\infty), e(\infty), f(\infty), t(\infty)\}$$



#### Step 2: EXTRACTMIN

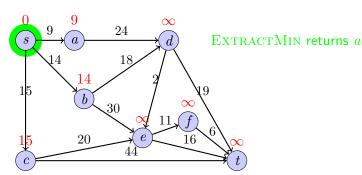
$$S = \{s\} \\ PQ = \{a(9), b(14), c(15), d(\infty), e(\infty), \mathit{f}(\infty), \mathit{t}(\infty)\}$$



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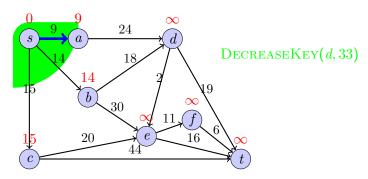
### Step 2: EXTRACTMIN

$$S = \{s\} \\ PQ = \{a(9), b(14), c(15), d(\infty), e(\infty), f(\infty), t(\infty)\}$$



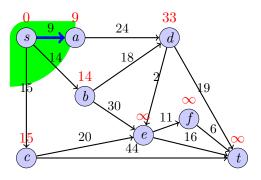
#### Step 2: DecreaseKey

$$S = \{s, a\}$$
 
$$PQ = \{b(14), c(15), d(\infty), e(\infty), f(\infty), t(\infty)\}$$



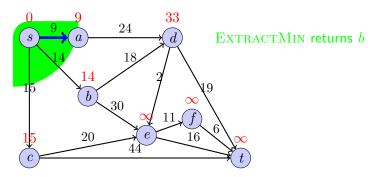
# Step 3: EXTRACTMIN

$$S = \{s, a\} \\ PQ = \{b(14), c(15), d(33), e(\infty), f(\infty), t(\infty)\}$$



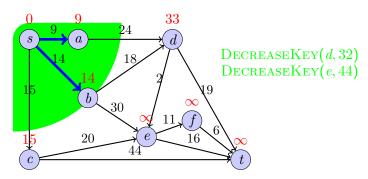
# Step 3: EXTRACTMIN

$$S = \{s, a\} \\ PQ = \{b(14), c(15), d(33), e(\infty), f(\infty), t(\infty)\}$$



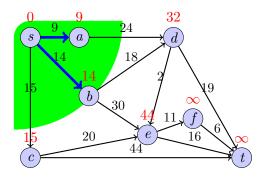
# Step 3: DecreaseKey

$$S = \{s, a, b\}$$
 
$$PQ = \{c(15), d(33), e(\infty), f(\infty), t(\infty)\}$$



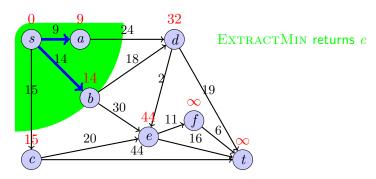
# Step 4: EXTRACTMIN

$$S = \{s, a, b\}$$
 
$$PQ = \{c(15), d(32), e(44), f(\infty), t(\infty)\}$$



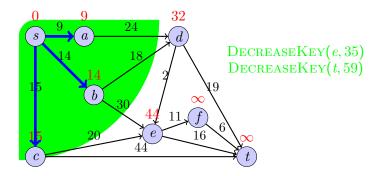
# Step 4: EXTRACTMIN

$$S = \{s, a, b\}$$
 
$$PQ = \{c(15), d(32), e(44), f(\infty), t(\infty)\}$$

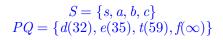


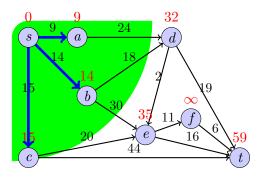
# Step 4: DecreaseKey

$$S = \{s, a, b, c\}$$
 
$$PQ = \{d(32), e(44), f(\infty), t(\infty)\}$$



# Step 5: EXTRACTMIN

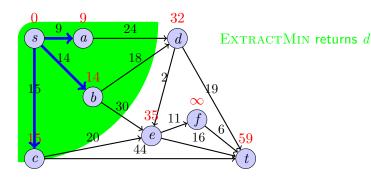




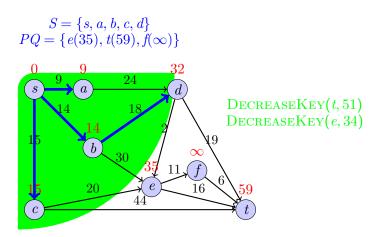
# Step 5: EXTRACTMIN

$$S = \{s, a, b, c\}$$

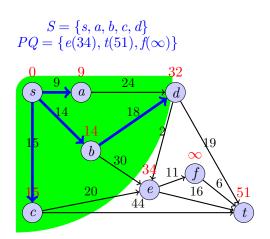
$$PQ = \{d(32), e(35), t(59), f(\infty)\}$$



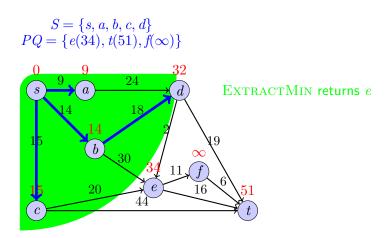
# Step 5: DecreaseKey



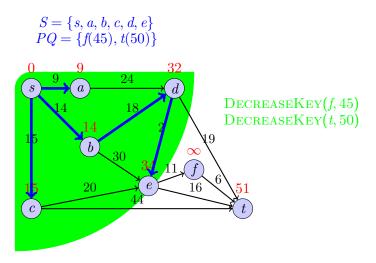
# Step 6: EXTRACTMIN



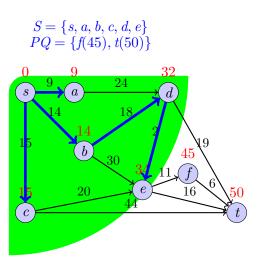
# Step 6: EXTRACTMIN



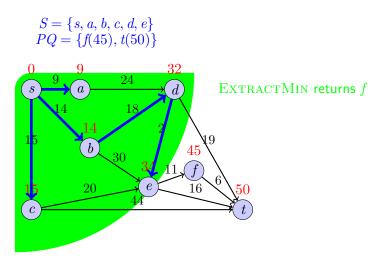
# Step 6: DecreaseKey



# Step 7: ExtractMin



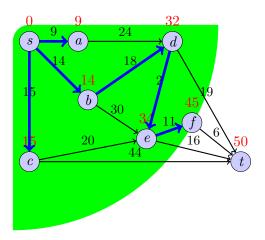
# Step 7: EXTRACTMIN



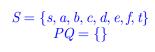
# Step 7: DecreaseKey

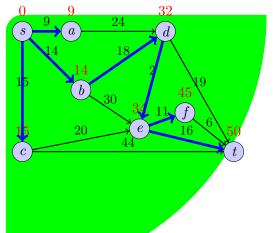
$$S = \{s, a, b, c, d, e, f\}$$

$$PQ = \{t(50)\}$$



# Step 8: EXTRACTMIN





# Time complexity of DIJKSTRA algorithm

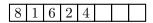
Operation	Linked	Binary	Binomial	Fibonacci
	list	heap	heap	heap
МакеНеар	1	1	1	1
Insert	1	$\log n$	$\log n$	1
ExtractMin	n	$\log n$	$\log n$	$\log n$
DecreaseKey	1	$\log n$	$\log n$	1
Delete	n	$\log n$	$\log n$	$\log n$
Union	1	n	$\log n$	1
FINDMIN	n	1	$\log n$	1
Dijkstra	$O(n^2)$	$O(m \log n)$	$O(m \log n)$	$O(m + n\log n)$

DIJKSTRA algorithm: n INSERT, n EXTRACTMIN, and m DECREASEKEY.

Implementing priority queue: array or linked list

# Implementing priority queue: unsorted array

Unsorted array:



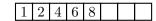
Unsorted linked list:

$$\begin{array}{c} head \\ \hline \times 8 \longrightarrow 1 \longrightarrow 6 \longrightarrow 2 \longrightarrow 4 \end{array}$$

- Operations:
  - Insert: O(1)
  - ExtractMin: O(n)
- Note: a list containing n elements is too long to find the minimum efficiently.

# Implementing priority queue: sorted array

Sorted array:



Sorted linked list:

$$\begin{array}{c}
head \\
\hline
 1 \\
\hline
 2 \\
\hline
 4 \\
\hline
 6 \\
\hline
 8
\end{array}$$

- Operations:
  - Insert: O(n)
  - ExtractMin: O(1)
- ullet Note: a list containing n elements is too long to maintain the order among elements.

# Implementing priority queue: array or linked list

Operation	Linked	
	List	
Insert	O(1)	
EXTRACTMIN	O(n)	
DecreaseKey	O(1)	
Union	O(1)	

Binary heap: from a linked list to a tree

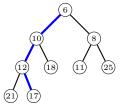
# Binary heap



Figure 1: R. W. Floyd [1964]

# Binary heap: a complete binary tree

- Basic idea:
  - loosing the structure: Recall that the objective is to find the minimum. To achieve this objective, it is not necessary to sort all elements.
  - but don't loose it too much: we still need order between some elements.

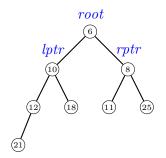


- Binary heap: elements are stored in a complete binary tree, i.e., a tree that is perfectly balanced except for the bottom level. Heap order is required, i.e., any parent has a key smaller than his children;
- Advantage: any path has a short length of  $O(\log_2 n)$  rather than n in linked list, making it efficient to-maintain-heap

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## Binary heap: an explicit implementation

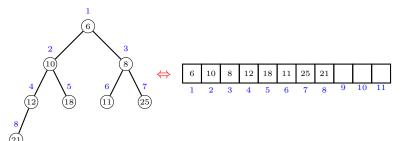
- Pointer representation: each node has pointers to its parent and two children;
- The following information are maintained:
  - the number of elements *n*;
  - the pointer to the root node;



• Note: the last node can be found in  $O(\log n)$  time.

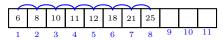
## Binary heap: an implicit implementation

- Array representation: one-one correspondence between a binary tree and an array.
  - Binary tree ⇒ array:
    - the indices starting from 1 for the sake of simplicity;
    - the indices record the order that the binary tree is traversed level by level.
  - Array ⇒ binary tree:
    - the k-th item has two children located at 2k and 2k + 1;
    - the parent of the k-th item is located at  $\lfloor \frac{k}{2} \rfloor$ ;



## Sorted array vs. binary heap

ullet Sorted array: an array containing n elements in an increasing order;



• Binary heap: heap order means that only the order among nodes in short paths (length is less than  $\log n$ ) are maintained. Note that some inverse pairs exist in the array.



Binary heap: primitive and other operations

# Primitive: exchanging nodes to restore heap order

 Primitive operation: when heap order is violated, i.e. a parent has a value larger than only one of its children, we simply exchange them to resolve the conflict.

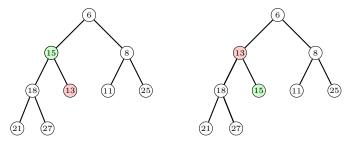


Figure 2: Heap order is violated: 15>13. Exchange them to resolve the conflict.

# Primitive: exchanging nodes to restore heap order

 Primitive operation: when heap order is violated, i.e. a parent has a value larger than both of its children, we exchange the parent with its smaller child to resolve the conflict.

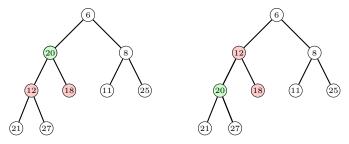
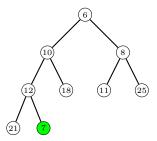
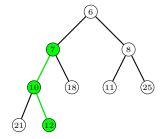


Figure 3: Heap order is violated: 20 > 12, and 20 > 18. Exchange 20 with its smaller child (12) to resolve the conflicts.

# Binary heap: INSERT operation

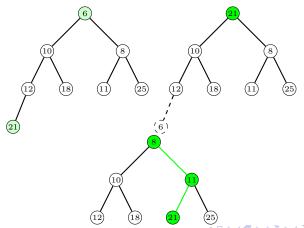
- INSERT operation: the element is added as a new node at the end. Since the heap order might be violated, the node is repeatedly exchanged with its parent until heap order is restored.
- For example, INSERT(7):





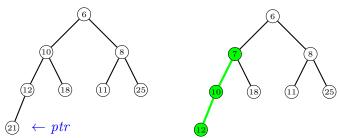
# Binary heap: EXTRACTMIN operation

- EXTRACTMIN operation: exchange element in root with the last node; repeatedly exchange the element in root with its smaller child until heap order is restored.
- For example, EXTRACTMIN():



# Binary heap: DECREASEKEY operation

- DECREASEKEY operation: given a handle to a node, repeatedly exchange the node with its parent until heap order is restored.
- $\bullet$  For example, DecreaseKey( ptr, 7 ):



# Binary heap: analysis

#### Theorem

In an implicit binary heap, any sequence of m INSERT, . DECREASEKEY, and EXTRACTMIN operations with n INSERT operations takes  $O(m \log n)$  time.

#### Note:

• Each operation touches at most  $\log n$  nodes on a path from the root to a leaf.

#### Theorem

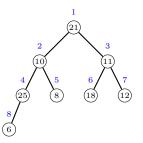
In an explicit binary heap with n nodes, the Insert, . DecreaseKey, and ExtractMin operations take  $O(m \log n)$  time in the worst case.

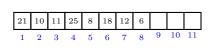
#### Note:

• If using array representation, a dynamic array expanding/contracting is needed. However, the total cost of array expanding/contracting is O(n) (see TABLEINSERT).

# Binary heap: heapify a set of items

- Question: Given a set of n elements, how to construct a binary heap containing them?
- Solutions:
  - ① Simply INSERT the elements one by one. Takes  $O(n \log n)$  time.
  - 2 Bottom-up heapifying. Takes O(n) time. For i=n to 1, we repeatedly exchange the element in node i with its smaller child until the subtree rooted at node i is heap-ordered.





# Binary heap: heapify

#### Theorem

Given n elements, a binary heap can be constructed using O(n) time.

#### Proof.

- There are at most  $\lceil \frac{n}{2h+1} \rceil$  nodes of height h;
- It takes O(h) time to sink a node of height h;
- The total time is:

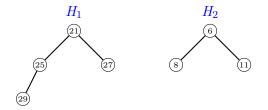
$$\begin{array}{cccc} \sum_{h=0}^{\lfloor \log_2 n \rfloor} \lceil \frac{n}{2^{h+1}} \rceil h & \leq & \sum_{h=0}^{\lfloor \log_2 n \rfloor} n \frac{h}{2^h} \\ & \leq & 2n \end{array}$$

# Implementing priority queue: binary heap

Operation	Linked	Binary
	List	Heap
Insert	O(1)	$O(\log n)$
ExtractMin	O(n)	$O(\log n)$
DECREASEKEY	O(1)	$O(\log n)$
Union	O(1)	O(n)

# Binary heap: UNION operation

• Union operation: Given two binary heaps  $H_1$  and  $H_2$ , to merge them into one binary heap.



- O(n) time is needed if using heapify.
- Question: Is there a quicker way to union two heaps?

Binomial heap: using multiple trees rather than a single tree to support efficient UNION operation

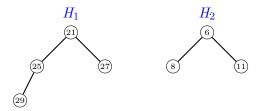
# Binomial heap



Figure 4: Jean Vuillenmin [1978]

## Binomial heap: efficient UNION

- Basic idea:
  - loosing the structure: if multiple trees are allowed to represent a heap, UNION can be efficiently implemented via simply putting trees together.
  - but don't loose it too much: there should not be too many trees; otherwise, it will take a long time to find the minimum among all root nodes.



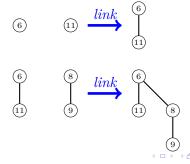
 EXTRACTMIN: simply finding the minimum element of the root nodes. Note that a root node holds the minimum of the tree due to the heap order.

## Why we can't loose the structure too much?

• An extreme case of multiple trees: each node is itself a tree. Then it will take O(n) time to find the minimum.

6 11 8 29

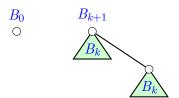
• Solution: **consolidating**, i.e., two trees (with the same size) are merged into one — the larger root is linked to the smaller one to keep the heap order. Note that after consolidating, at most  $\log n$  trees will be left.



### Binomial tree

#### Definition (Binomial tree)

The binomial tree is defined recursively: a single node is itself a  $B_0$  tree, and two  $B_k$  trees are linked into a  $B_{k+1}$  tree.



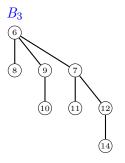
# Binomial tree examples: $B_0$ , $B_1$ , $B_2$



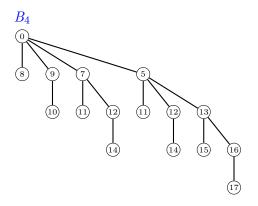




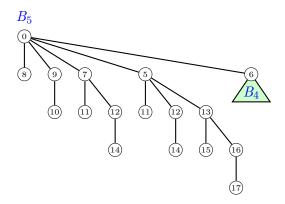
# Binomial tree example: $B_3$



# Binomial tree example: $B_4$



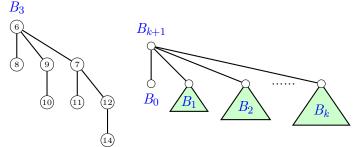
# Binomial tree example: $B_5$



## Binomial tree: property

#### Properties:

- $|B_k| = 2^k$ .
- **2** $height(B_k) = k.$
- The *i*-th child of a node has a degree of i-1.
- **5** The deletion of the root yields trees  $B_0$ ,  $B_1$ , ...,  $B_{k-1}$ .
- 6 Binomial tree is named after the fact that the node number of all levels are binomial coefficients.

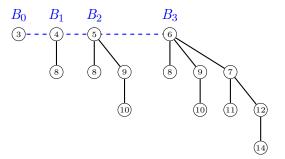


## Binomial heap: a forest

#### Definition (Binomial forest)

A binomial heap is a collection of several binomial trees:

- Each tree is heap ordered;
- There is either 0 or 1  $B_k$  for any k.
- Example:



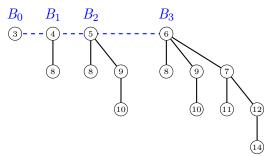
• Note that the roots are organized using doubly-linked circular list, and the minimum of them is recorded using a pointer.

## Binomial heap: properties

#### Properties:

- A binomial heap with n nodes contains the binomial tree  $B_i$  iff  $b_i = 1$ , where  $b_k b_{k-1} ... b_1 b_0$  is binary representation of n.
- ② It has at most  $|\log_2 n| + 1$  trees.
- **3** Its height is at most  $\lfloor \log_2 n \rfloor$ .

Thus, it takes  $O(\log n)$  time to find the minimum element via checking the roots.



## UNION is efficient: example 1

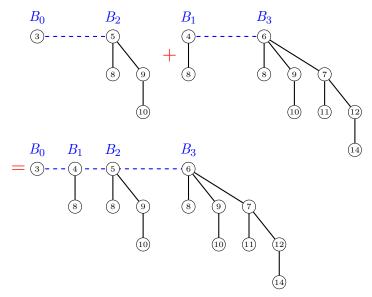


Figure 5: An easy case: no consolidating is needed

### UNION is efficient: example 2 l

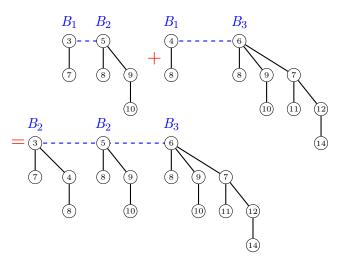


Figure 6: Consolidating two  $B_1$  trees into a  $B_2$  tree

## **UNION** is efficient: example 2 II

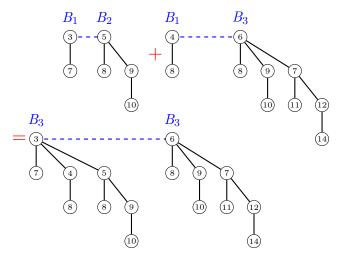
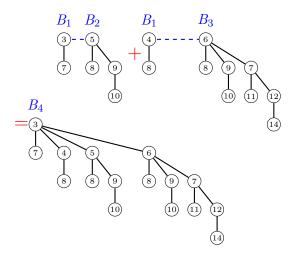


Figure 7: Consolidating two  $B_2$  trees into a  $B_3$  tree

### UNION is efficient: example 2 III



Time complexity:  $O(\log n)$  since there are at most  $O(\log n)$  trees.

# Binomial heap: INSERT operation

#### Insert(x)

- 1: Create a  $B_0$  tree for x;
- 2: Change the pointer to the minimum root node if necessary;
- 3: **while** there are two  $B_k$  trees for some k **do**
- 4: Link them together into one  $B_{k+1}$  tree;
- 5: Change the pointer to the minimum root node if necessary;
- 6: end while

## INSERT operation: an example

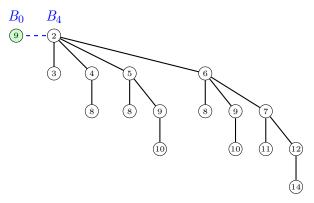


Figure 8: An easy case: no consolidating is needed

# INSERT operation: example 2 l

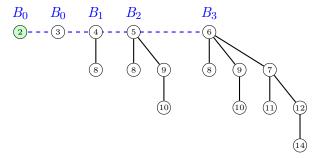


Figure 9: Consolidating two  $\mathcal{B}_0$ 

## INSERT operation: example 2 II

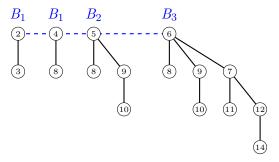


Figure 10: Consolidating two  $B_1$ 

## INSERT operation: example 2 III

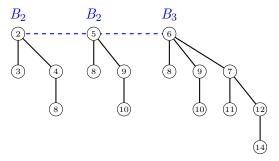


Figure 11: Consolidating two  $B_2$ 

## INSERT operation: example 2 IV

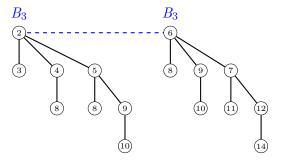
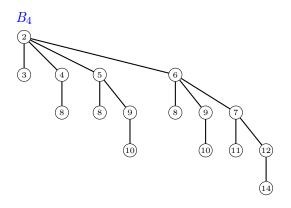


Figure 12: Consolidating two  $B_3$ 

## INSERT operation: example 2 V



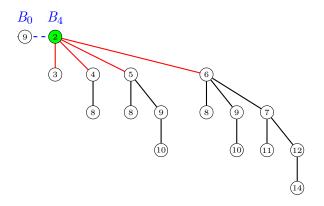
Time complexity:  $O(\log n)$  (worst case) since there are at most  $\log n$  trees.

## Binomial heap: EXTRACTMIN operation

#### EXTRACTMIN()

- 1: Remove the min node, and insert its children into the root list;
- 2: Change the pointer to the minimum root node if necessary;
- 3: **while** there are two  $B_k$  trees for some k **do**
- 4: Link them together into one  $B_{k+1}$  tree;
- 5: Change the pointer to the minimum root node if necessary;
- 6: end while

## EXTRACTMIN operation: an example I



## EXTRACTMIN operation: an example II

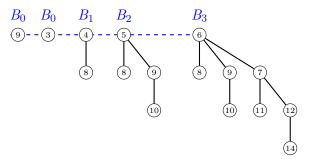


Figure 13: The four children become trees

## EXTRACTMIN operation: an example III

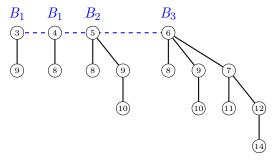


Figure 14: Consolidating two  $B_1$  trees

## EXTRACTMIN operation: an example IV

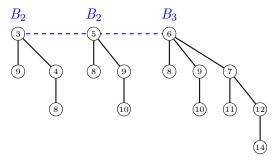


Figure 15: Consolidating two  $B_2$  trees

## EXTRACTMIN operation: an example V

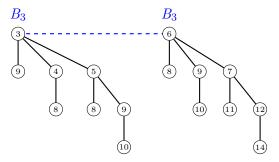
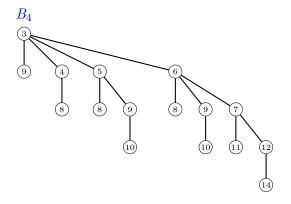


Figure 16: Consolidating two  $B_2$  trees

## EXTRACTMIN operation: an example VI



Time complexity:  $O(\log n)$ 

# Implementing priority queue: Binomial heap

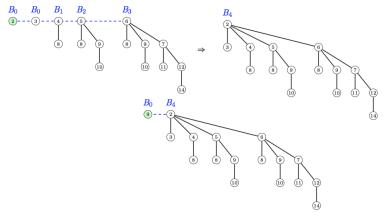
Operation	Linked	Binary	Binomial
	List	Heap	Heap
Insert	O(1)	$O(\log n)$	$O(\log n)$
ExtractMin	O(n)	$O(\log n)$	$O(\log n)$
DecreaseKey	O(1)	$O(\log n)$	$O(\log n)$
Union	O(1)	O(n)	$O(\log n)$

Binomial heap: more accurate analysis using the amortized technique

## Amortized analysis of INSERT

#### Motivation:

• If an INSERT takes a long time (say  $\log n$ ), the subsequent INSERT operations shouldn't take long!



 Thus, it will be more accurate to examine a sequence of operations rather than each operation individually.

# Amortized analysis of INSERT operation

#### INSERT(x)

- 1: Create a  $B_0$  tree for x;
- 2: Change the pointer to the minimum root node if necessary;
- 3: **while** there are two  $B_k$  trees for some k **do**
- 4: Link them together into one  $B_{k+1}$  tree;
- 5: Change the pointer to the minimum root node if necessary;
- 6: end while

#### Analysis:

- A single INSERT operation takes time 1+w, where  $w=\#\mathtt{WHILE}$ .
- For the sake of calculating the total running time of a sequence of operations, we represent the running time of a single operation as decrease of a potential function.
- Consider a quantity  $\Phi = \#trees$  (called potential function). The changes of  $\Phi$  during an operation are:
  - $\Phi$  increase: 1.
  - Φ decrease: w.
- Thus the running time of INSERT can be rewritten in terms of  $\Phi$  as
- 1+w=1+ decrease in  $\Phi$ . Note that this representation makes it convenient to sum running time of a sequence of INSERT operations. 81/124

## Amortized analysis of EXTRACTMIN

#### EXTRACTMIN()

- 1: Remove the min node, and insert its children to the root list;
- 2: Change the pointer to the minimum root node if necessary;
- 3: **while** there are two  $B_k$  trees for some k **do**
- 4: Link them together into one  $B_{k+1}$  tree;
- 5: Change the pointer to the minimum root node if necessary;
- 6: end while

#### Analysis:

- A single EXTRACTMIN operation takes d+w time, where d denotes degree of the removed root node, and  $w=\#\mathtt{WHILE}$ .
- For the sake of calculating the total running time of a sequence of operations, we represent the running time of a single operation as decrease of a potential function.
- Consider a potential function  $\Phi = \#trees$ . The changes during an operation are:
  - $\Phi$  increase: d.
  - $\Phi$  decrease: w.
- Similarly, the running time is rewritten in terms of  $\Phi$  as d+w=d+ decrease in #trees. Note that  $d \leq \log n$ .

## Amortized analysis

- Let's consider any sequence of n INSERT and m EXTRACTMIN operations.
- The total running time is at most  $n + m \log n +$  total decrease in #trees.
- Note: total decrease in  $\#trees \le$  total increase in #trees (why?), which is at most  $n + m \log n$ .
- Thus the total time is at most  $2n + 2m \log n$ .
- We say INSERT takes O(1) amortized time, and EXTRACTMIN takes  $O(\log n)$  amortized time.

#### Definition (Amortized time)

For any sequence of  $n_1$  operation 1,  $n_2$  operation 2..., if the total time is  $O(n_1\,T_1+n_2\,T_2...)$ , we say that operation 1 takes  $T_1$  amortized time, operation 2 takes  $T_2$  amortized time ....

## Intuition of the amortized analysis

- The actual running time of an INSERT operation is 1+w. A large w means that the INSERT operation takes a long time. Note that the w time was spent on "decreasing trees"; thus, if the w time was amortized over the operations "creating trees", the "amortized time" of INSERT operation will be only O(1).
- The actual running time of an EXTRACTMIN operation is at most  $\log n + w$ . Note that at most  $\log n$  new trees are created during an EXTRACTMIN operation; thus, the amortized time is still  $O(\log n)$  even if some costs have been amortized to it from other operations due to "tree creating".

# Implementing priority queue: Binomial heap

Operation	Linked	Binary	Binomial	Binomial
	List	Heap	Heap	Heap*
Insert	O(1)	$O(\log n)$	$O(\log n)$	O(1)
ExtractMin	O(n)	$O(\log n)$	$O(\log n)$	$O(\log n)$
DecreaseKey	O(1)	$O(\log n)$	$O(\log n)$	$O(\log n)$
Union	O(1)	O(n)	$O(\log n)$	O(1)

<sup>\*</sup>amortized cost

# Binomial heap: DecreaseKey operation

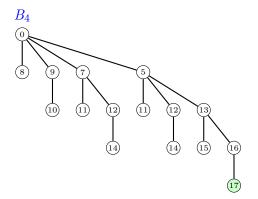


Figure 17: DecreaseKey: 17 to 1

- Time:  $O(\log n)$  since in the worst case, we need to perform node exchanging up to the root.
- Question: is there a quicker way for decrease key?

Fibonacci heap: an efficient implementation of DECREASEKEY via simply cutting an edge rather than exchanging nodes

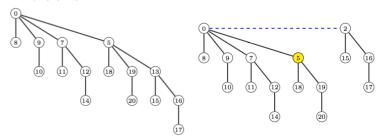
# Fibonacci heap



Figure 18: Robert Tarjan [1986]

## Fibonacci heap: an efficient DECREASEKEY operation

- Basic idea:
  - loosing the structure: Binomial heap requires trees to be in perfect shape. Now we loose this restriction — when heap order is violated, a simple solution is to "cut off a node, and insert it into the root list".
  - but don't loose it too much: the "cutting off" operation
    makes a tree not "binomial" any more; however, it should not
    deviate from a binomial tree too much. A technique to achieve
    this objective is allowing any non-root node to lose "at most
    one child".



## Fibonacci heap: DESCREASEKEY

#### DecreaseKey(v, x)

- 1: key(v) = x;
- 2: if heap order is violated then
- 3: u = v's parent;
- 4: Cut subtree rooted at node v, and insert it into the root list;
- 5: Change the pointer to the minimum root node if necessary;
- 6: **while** u is marked **do**
- 7: Cut subtree rooted at node *u*, and insert it into the root list:
- 8: Change the pointer to the minimum root node if necessary;
- 9: Unmark u;
- 10: u = u's parent;
- 11: end while
- 12: Mark u;
- 13: end if



## DECREASEKEY: an example I

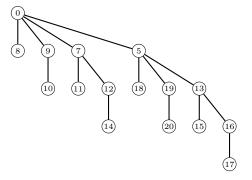


Figure 20: A Fibonacci heap. To DecreaseKey: 19 to 3.

## DECREASEKEY: an example II

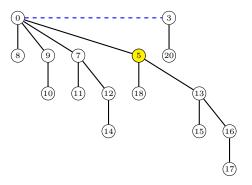


Figure 21: After DecreaseKey: 19 to 3. To DecreaseKey: 15 to 2.

## DECREASEKEY: an example III

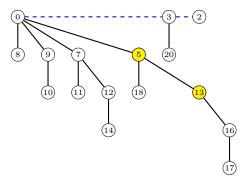


Figure 22: After DecreaseKey: 15 to 2. To DecreaseKey: 12 to 8.

## DECREASEKEY: an example IV

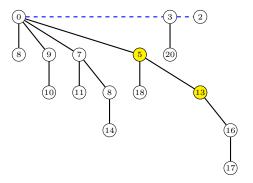


Figure 23: After DecreaseKey: 12 to 8. To DecreaseKey: 14 to 1.

## DECREASEKEY: an example V

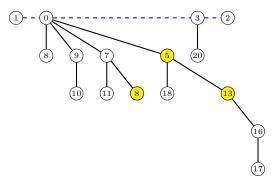


Figure 24: After DecreaseKey: 14 to 1. To DecreaseKey: 16 to 9.

## DECREASEKEY: an example VI

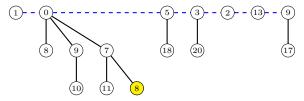


Figure 25: After DecreaseKey: 16 to 9

## Fibonacci heap: INSERT

#### INSERT(x)

- 1: Create a tree for x, and insert it into the root list;
- 2: Change the pointer to the minimum root node if necessary;

Note: Being lazy! Consolidating trees when extracting minimum.

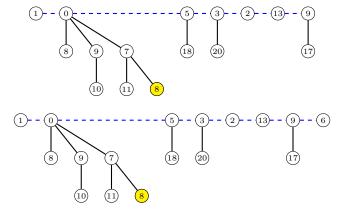


Figure 26: INSERT(6): creating a new tree, and insert it into the root list

## Fibonacci heap: EXTRACTMIN

#### EXTRACTMIN()

- 1: Remove the min node, and insert its children into the root list;
- 2: Change the pointer to the minimum root node if necessary;
- 3: **while** there are two roots u and v of the same degree  $\mathbf{do}$
- 4: Consolidate the two trees together;
- 5: Change the pointer to the minimum root node if necessary;
- 6: end while

## EXTRACTMIN: an example | 1

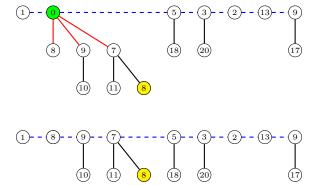


Figure 27: EXTRACTMIN: removing the min node, and adding 3 trees

#### EXTRACTMIN: an example II

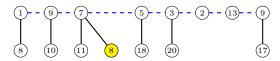


Figure 28: ExtractMin: after consolidating two trees rooted at node 1 and 8

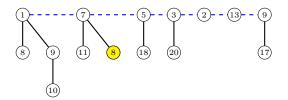


Figure 29: ExtractMin: after consolidating two trees rooted at node 1 and 9

#### EXTRACTMIN: an example III

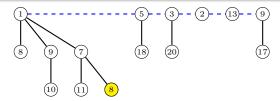


Figure 30: ExtractMin: after consolidating two trees rooted at node 1 and 7

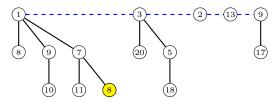


Figure 31:  $\operatorname{ExtractMin}:$  after consolidating two trees rooted at node 3 and 5

## EXTRACTMIN: an example IV

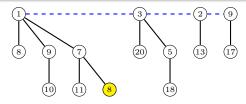


Figure 32: EXTRACTMIN: after consolidating two trees rooted at node 2 and 13

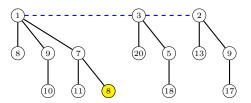


Figure 33: ExtractMin: after consolidating two trees rooted at node 2 and 9

### EXTRACTMIN: an example V

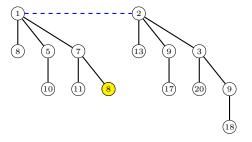


Figure 34:  $\operatorname{ExtractMin}:$  after consolidating two trees rooted at node 2 and 3

### EXTRACTMIN: an example VI

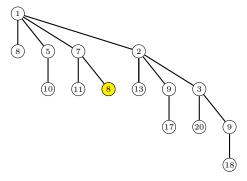


Figure 35:  $\operatorname{EXTRACTMIN}:$  after consolidating two trees rooted at node 1 and 2

Fibonacci heap: an amortized analysis

# Fibonacci heap: DECREASEKEY

### DecreaseKey(v, x)

- 1: key(v) = x;
- 2: if heap order is violated then
- 3: u = v's parent;
- 4: Cut subtree rooted at node v, and insert it into the root list;
- 5: Change the pointer to the minimum root node if necessary;
- 6: **while** u is marked **do**
- 7: Cut subtree rooted at node *u*, and insert it into the root list:
- 8: Change the pointer to the minimum root node if necessary;
- 9: Unmark u;
- 10: u = u's parent;
- 11: end while
- 12: Mark u;
- 13: end if



### DECREASEKEY: analysis

#### Analysis:

- The actual running time of a single operation is 1+w, where  $w=\#\mathtt{WHILE}.$
- To calculate the total running time of a sequence of operations, we represent the running time of a single operation as decrease of a potential function.
- Consider a **potential function**  $\Phi = \#trees + 2\#marks$ . The changes of  $\Phi$  during an operation are:
  - $\Phi$  increase: 1 + 2 = 3.
  - $\Phi$  decrease: (-1+2\*1)\*w=w.
- Thus we can rewrite the running time in terms of  $\Phi$  as  $1+w=1+\Phi$  decrease.

Intuition: a large w means that DecreaseKey takes a long time; however, if we can "amortize" w over other operations, a DecreaseKey operation takes only O(1) "amortized time".

## Fibonacci heap: EXTRACTMIN

#### ExtractMin()

- 1: Remove the min node, and insert its children into the root list;
- 2: Change the pointer to the minimum root node if necessary;
- 3: **while** there are two roots u and v of the same degree  $\mathbf{do}$
- 4: Consolidate the two trees together;
- 5: Change the pointer to the minimum root node if necessary;
- 6: end while

### EXTRACTMIN: analysis

#### Analysis:

- The actual running time of a single operation is d+w, where d denotes degree of the removed node, and  $w=\#\mathtt{WHILE}$ .
- To calculate the total running time of a sequence of operations, we represent the running time of a single operation as decrease of a potential function.
- Consider a **potential function**  $\Phi = \#trees + 2\#marks$ . The changes of  $\Phi$  during an operation are:
  - $\Phi$  increase: d.
  - $\Phi$  decrease: w.
- Thus the running time can be rewritten in terms of  $\Phi$  as d+w=d+ decrease in  $\Phi.$

Note:  $d \leq d_{max}$ , where  $d_{max}$  denotes the maximum root node degree.

## Fibonacci heap: INSERT

#### INSERT(x)

- 1: Create a tree for x, and insert it into the root list;
- 2: Change the pointer to the minimum root node if necessary;

#### Analysis:

- ullet The actual running time is 1, and the changes of  $\Phi$  during this operation are:
  - $\bullet$   $\Phi$  increase: 1.
  - $\bullet$   $\Phi$  decrease: 0.

#### Note:

- Recall that a binomial heap consolidates trees in both INSERT and EXTRACTMIN operations.
- In contrast, the Fibonacci heap adopts the strategy of "being lazy" — tree consolidating is removed from INSERT operation for the sake of efficiency, and there is no tree consolidating until an EXTRACTMIN operation.

## Fibonacci heap: amortized analysis

- Consider any sequence of n INSERT, m EXTRACTMIN, and r DECREASEKEY operations.
- The total running time is at most:  $n + md_{max} + r +$  total decrease in  $\Phi$ .
- Note: total decrease in  $\Phi \leq$  total increase in  $\Phi = n + md_{max} + 3r$ .
- Thus the total running time is at most:  $n + md_{max} + r + n + md_{max} + 3r = 2n + 2md_{max} + 4r.$
- Thus Insert takes O(1) amortized time, DecreaseKey takes O(1) amortized time, and ExtractMin takes  $O(d_{max})$  amortized time.
- In fact, EXTRACTMIN takes  $O(\log n)$  amortized time since  $d_{max}$  can be upper-bounded by  $\log n$  (why?).

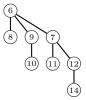


Fibonacci heap: bounding  $\mathit{d}_{\mathit{max}}$ 

# Fibonacci heap: bounding $d_{max}$

 $1+\sqrt{5}$  1 C10

• Recall that for a binomial tree having n nodes, the root degree d is **exactly**  $\log_2 n$ , i.e.  $d = \log_2 n$ .



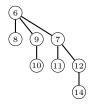
• In contrast, a tree in a Fibonacci heap might have several subtrees cutting off, leading to  $d \ge \log_2 n$ .



• However, the "marking technique" guarantees that any node can lose at most one child, thus limiting the deviation from the original binomial tree, i.e.  $\log_\phi n \geq d \geq \log_2 n$ , where

## Fibonacci heap: a property of node degree

• Recall that for a binomial tree, the i-th child of each node has a degree of exactly i-1.



• For a tree in a Fibonacci heap , we will show that the i-th child of each node has degree  $\geq i-2$ .



#### Lemma

For any node in a Fibonacci heap, the i-th child has a degree > i-2.



#### Proof.

- Suppose *u* is the **current** *i*-th child of *w*;
- If w is not a root node, it has at most 1 child lost; otherwise, it might have multiple children lost;
- Consider the time when u is linked to w. At that time,  $degree(w) \ge i 1$ , so  $degree(u) = degree(w) \ge i 1$ ;
- Subsequently, degree(u) decreases by at most 1 (Otherwise, u will be cut off and no longer a child of w).
- Thus,  $degree(u) \ge i 2$ .



# The smallest tree with root degree k in a Fibonacci heap

• Let  $F_k$  be the smallest tree with root degree of k, and for any node of  $F_k$ , the i-th child has degree  $\geq i-2$ ;



Figure 36:  $|B_1| = 2^1$  and  $|F_0| = 1 \ge \phi^0$ 

# Example: $B_2$ versus $F_1$

• Let  $F_k$  be the smallest tree with root degree of k, and for any node of  $F_k$ , the i-th child has degree  $\geq i-2$ ;



Figure 37:  $|B_2| = 2^2$  and  $|F_1| = 2 \ge \phi^1$ 

# Example: $B_3$ versus $F_2$

• Let  $F_k$  be the smallest tree with root degree of k, and for any node of  $F_k$ , the i-th child has degree  $\geq i-2$ ;

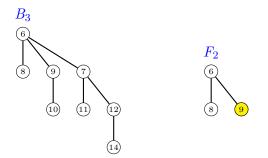


Figure 38:  $|B_3| = 2^3$  and  $|F_2| = 3 \ge \phi^2$ 

# Example: $B_4$ versus $F_3$

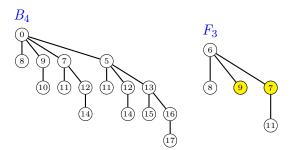


Figure 39:  $|B_4| = 2^4$  and  $|F_3| = 5 \ge \phi^3$ 

# Example: $B_5$ versus $F_4$

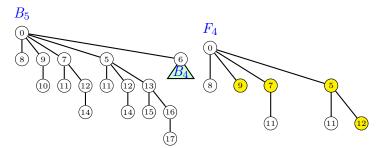
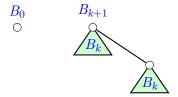


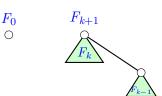
Figure 40:  $|B_5| = 2^5$  and  $|F_4| = 8 \ge \phi^4$ 

# General case of trees in Fibonacci heap

• Recall that a binomial tree  $B_{k+1}$  is a combination of two  $B_k$  trees.



• In contrast,  $F_{k+1}$  is the combination of an  $F_k$  tree and an  $F_{k-1}$  tree.



• We will show that though  $F_k$  is smaller than  $B_k$ , the difference is not too much. In fact,  $|F_k| \ge 1.618^k$ .

## Fibonacci numbers and Fibonacci heap

#### Definition (Fibonacci numbers)

The Fibonacci sequence is 0,1,1,2,3,5,8,13,21,34... It can be defined by the recursion relation:  $f_k= \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } k=0\\ 1 & \text{if } k=1\\ f_{k-1}+f_{k-2} & \text{if } k\geq 2 \end{cases}$ 

- Recall that  $f_{k+2} \geq \phi^k$ , where  $\phi = \frac{1+\sqrt{5}}{2} = 1.618...$
- Note that  $|F_k| = f_{k+2}$ , say  $|F_0| = f_2 = 1$ ,  $|F_1| = f_3 = 2$ ,  $|F_2| = f_4 = 3$ .
- Consider a Fibonacci heap H having n nodes. Let T denote a tree in H with root degree d.
- We have  $n \ge |T| \ge |F_d| = f_{d+2} \ge \phi^d$ .
- Thus  $d = O(\log_{\phi} n) = O(\log n)$ . So,  $d_{max} = O(\log n)$ .

Therefore, EXTRACTMIN operation takes  $O(\log n)$  amortized time.

# Implementing priority queue: Fibonacci heap

Operation	Linked	Binary	Binomial	Binomial	Fibonacci
	List	Heap	Heap	Heap*	Heap*
Insert	O(1)	$O(\log n)$	$O(\log n)$	O(1)	O(1)
ExtractMin	O(n)	$O(\log n)$	$O(\log n)$	$O(\log n)$	$O(\log n)$
DecreaseKey	O(1)	$O(\log n)$	$O(\log n)$	$O(\log n)$	O(1)
Union	O(1)	O(n)	$O(\log n)$	O(1)	O(1)

<sup>\*</sup>amortized cost

# Time complexity of DIJKSTRA algorithm

Operation	Linked	Binary	Binomial	Fibonacci
	list	heap	heap	heap
MakeHeap	1	1	1	1
Insert	1	$\log n$	$\log n$	1
ExtractMin	n	$\log n$	$\log n$	$\log n$
DecreaseKey	1	$\log n$	$\log n$	1
Delete	n	$\log n$	$\log n$	$\log n$
Union	1	n	$\log n$	1
FINDMIN	n	1	$\log n$	1
Dijkstra	$O(n^2)$	$O(m \log n)$	$O(m \log n)$	$O(m + n\log n)$

DIJKSTRA algorithm: n INSERT, n EXTRACTMIN, and m DECREASEKEY.