



Chapter 4

Data Structures

Algorithm Theory
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Examples

Dictionary:

- Operations: $\text{insert}(key, value)$, $\text{delete}(key)$, $\text{find}(key)$
- Implementations:
 - Linked list: all operations take $O(n)$ time (n : size of data structure)
 - Balanced binary tree: all operations take $O(\log n)$ time
 - Hash table: all operations take $O(1)$ times (with some assumptions)

Stack (LIFO Queue):

- Operations: push, pull
- Linked list: $O(1)$ for both operations

(FIFO) Queue:

- Operations: enqueue, dequeue
- Linked list: $O(1)$ time for both operations

Here: **Priority Queues (heaps), Union-Find data structure**

Dijkstra's Algorithm

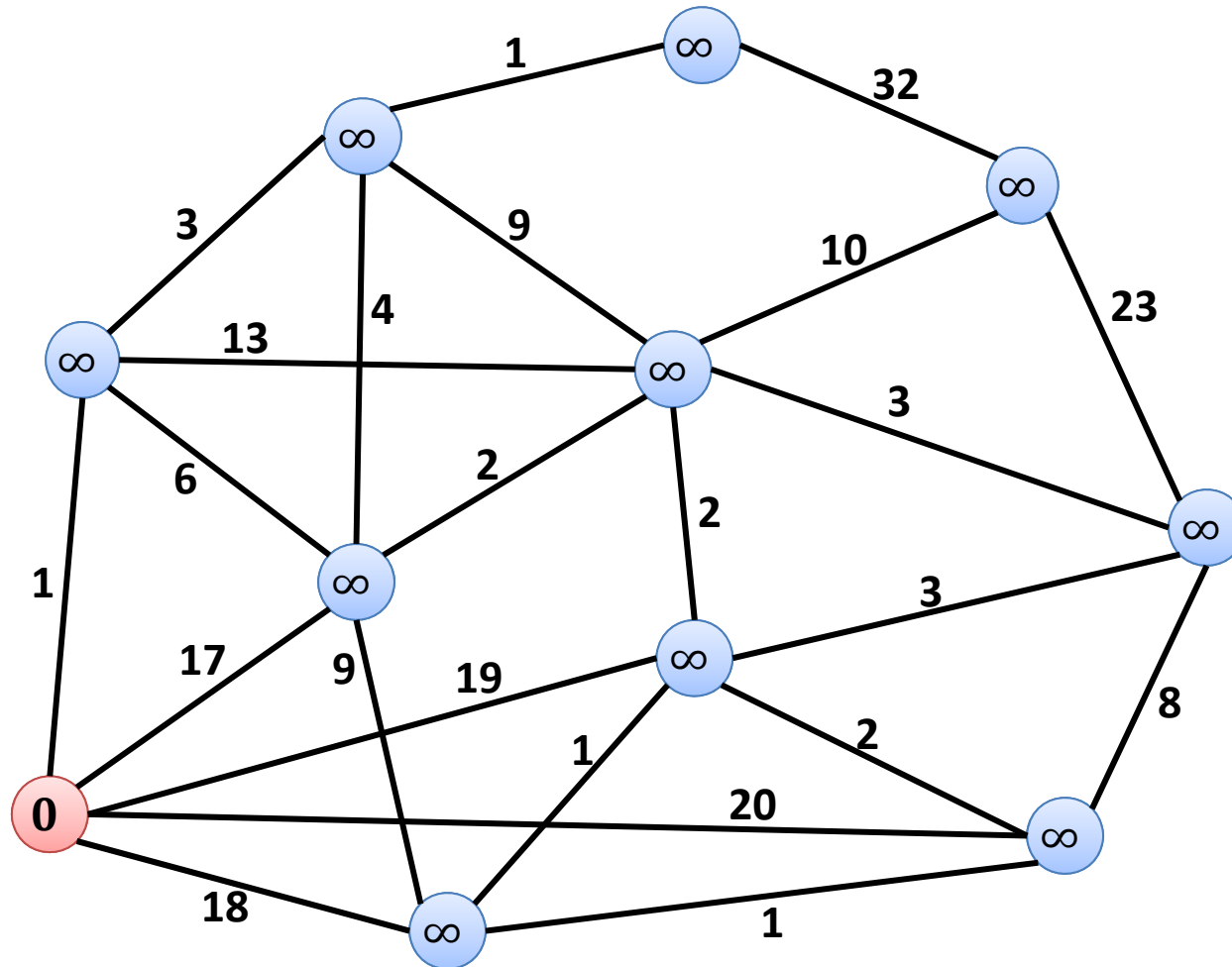
Single-Source Shortest Path Problem:

- **Given:** graph $G = (V, E)$ with edge weights $w(e) \geq 0$ for $e \in E$
source node $s \in V$
- **Goal:** compute shortest paths from s to all $v \in V$

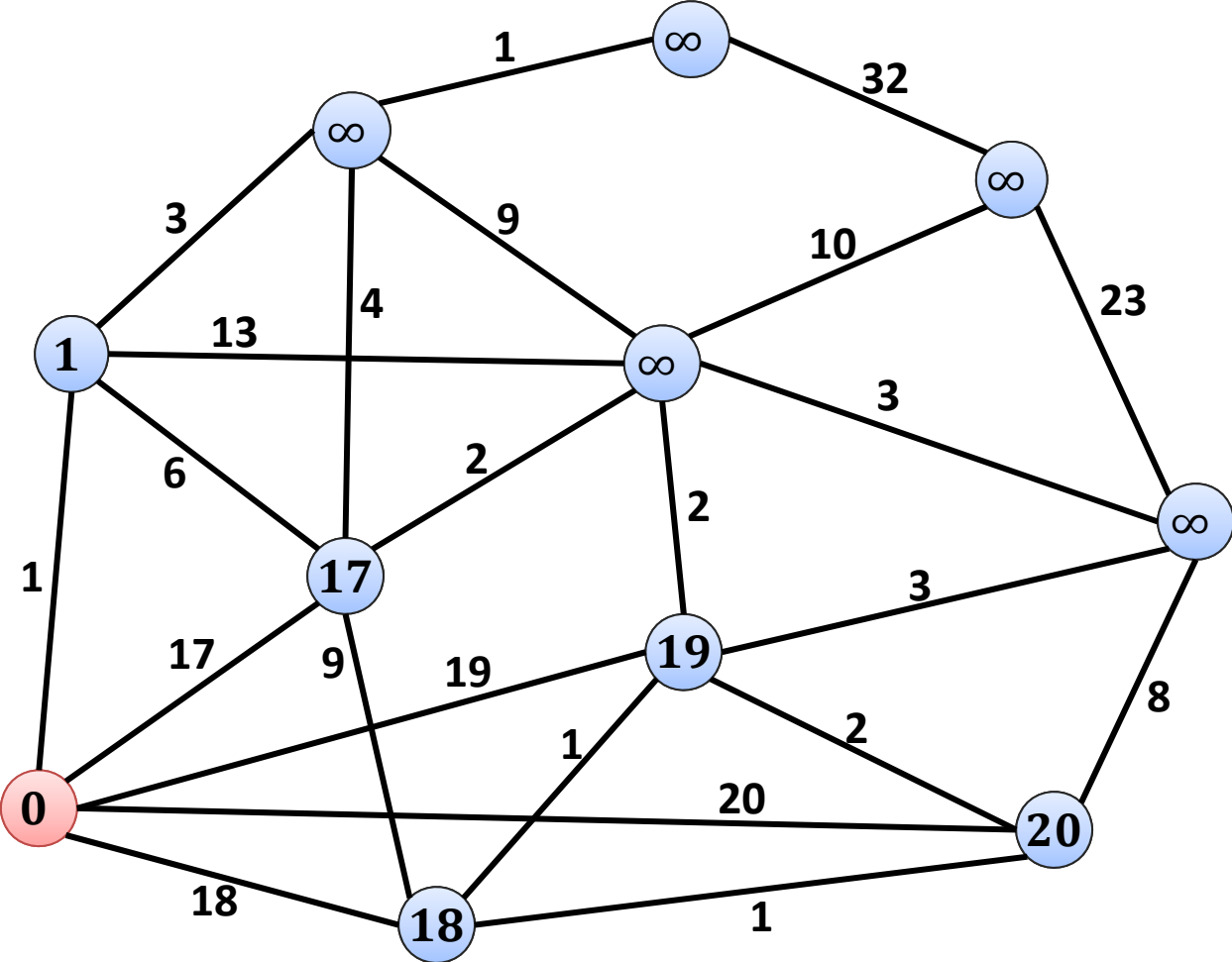
Dijkstra's Algorithm:

1. Initialize $d(s, s) = 0$ and $d(s, v) = \infty$ for all $v \neq s$
2. All nodes are unmarked
3. Get unmarked node u which minimizes $d(s, u)$:
4. For all $e = \{u, v\} \in E$, $d(s, v) = \min\{d(s, v), d(s, u) + w(e)\}$
5. mark node u
6. Until all nodes are marked

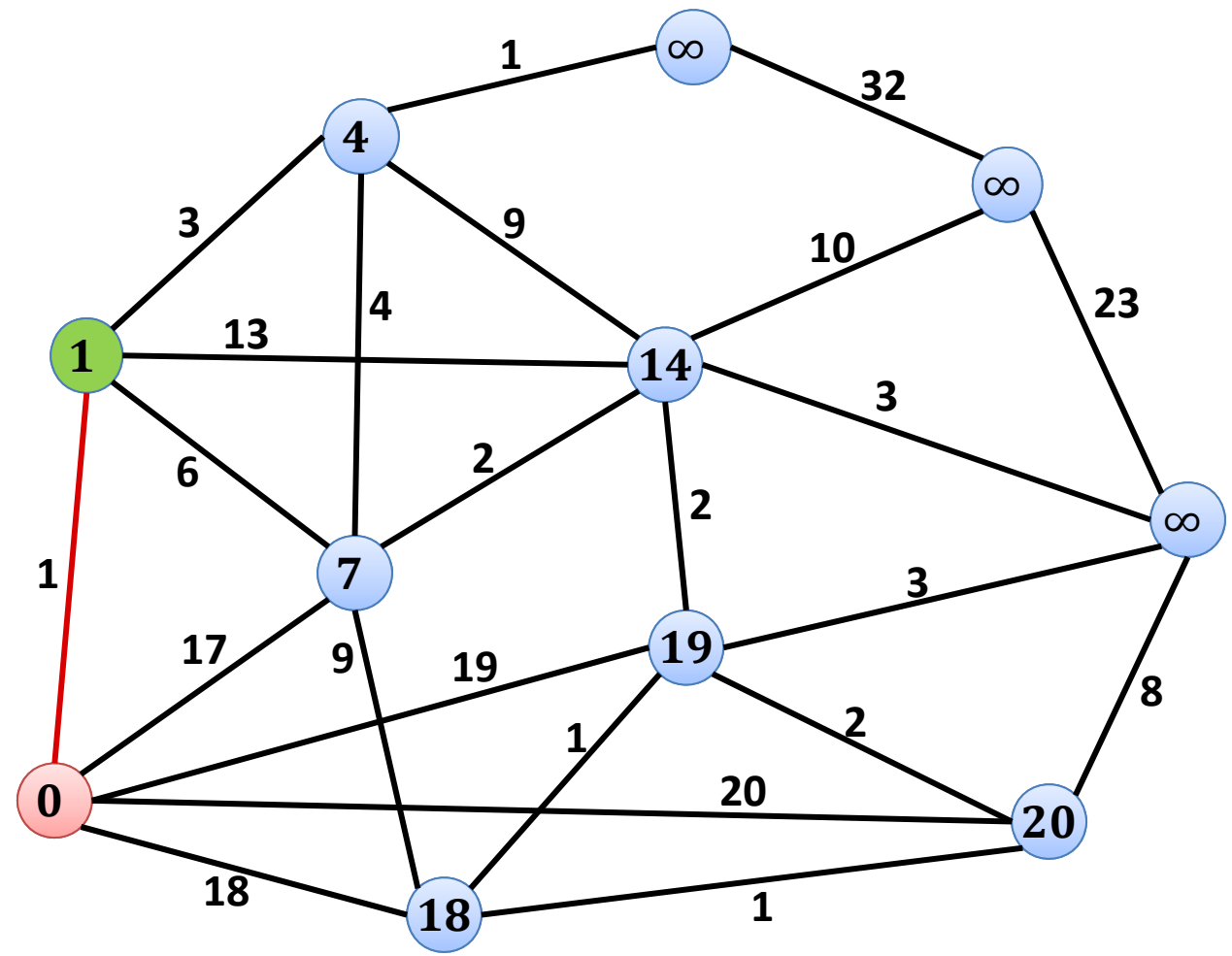
Example



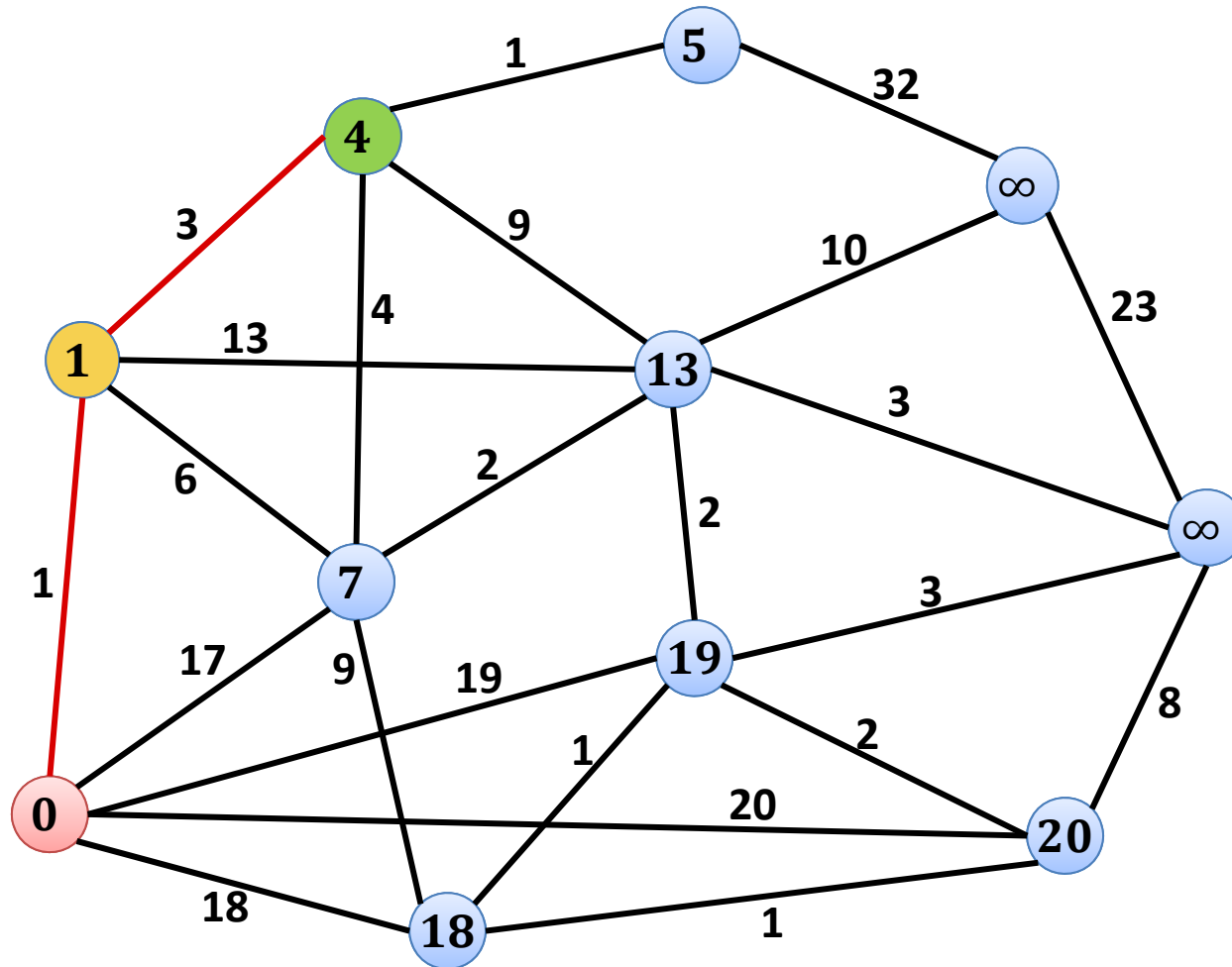
Example



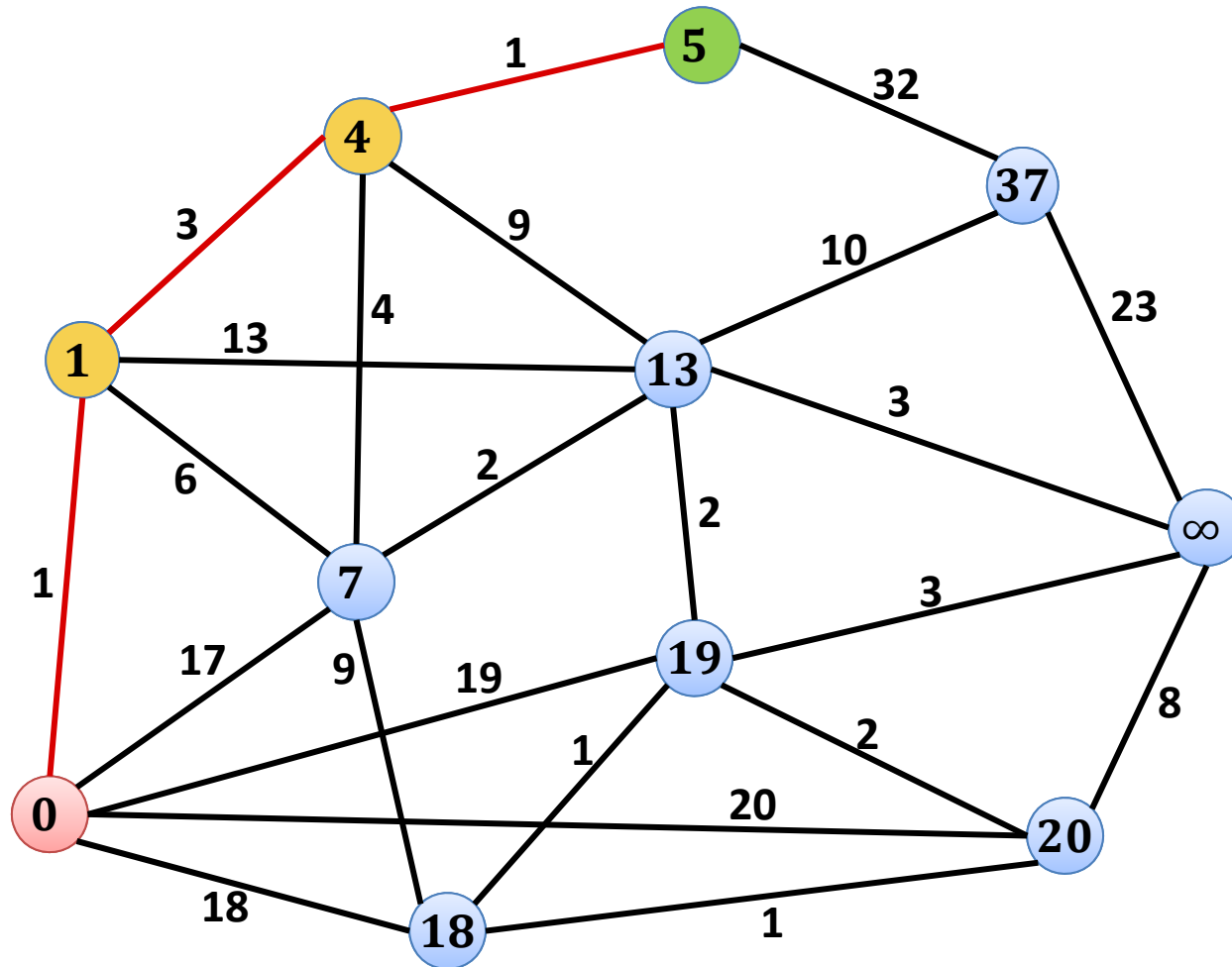
Example



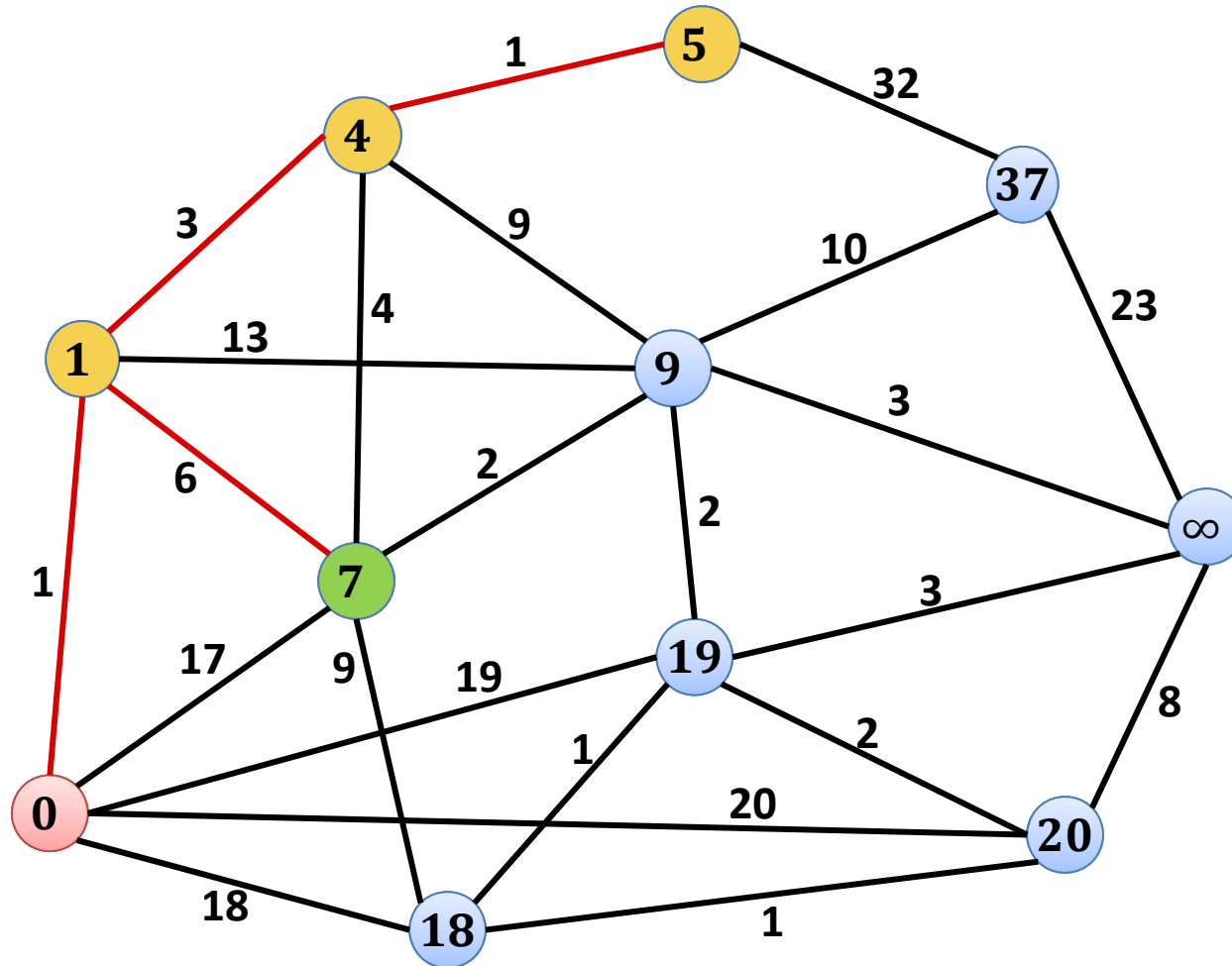
Example



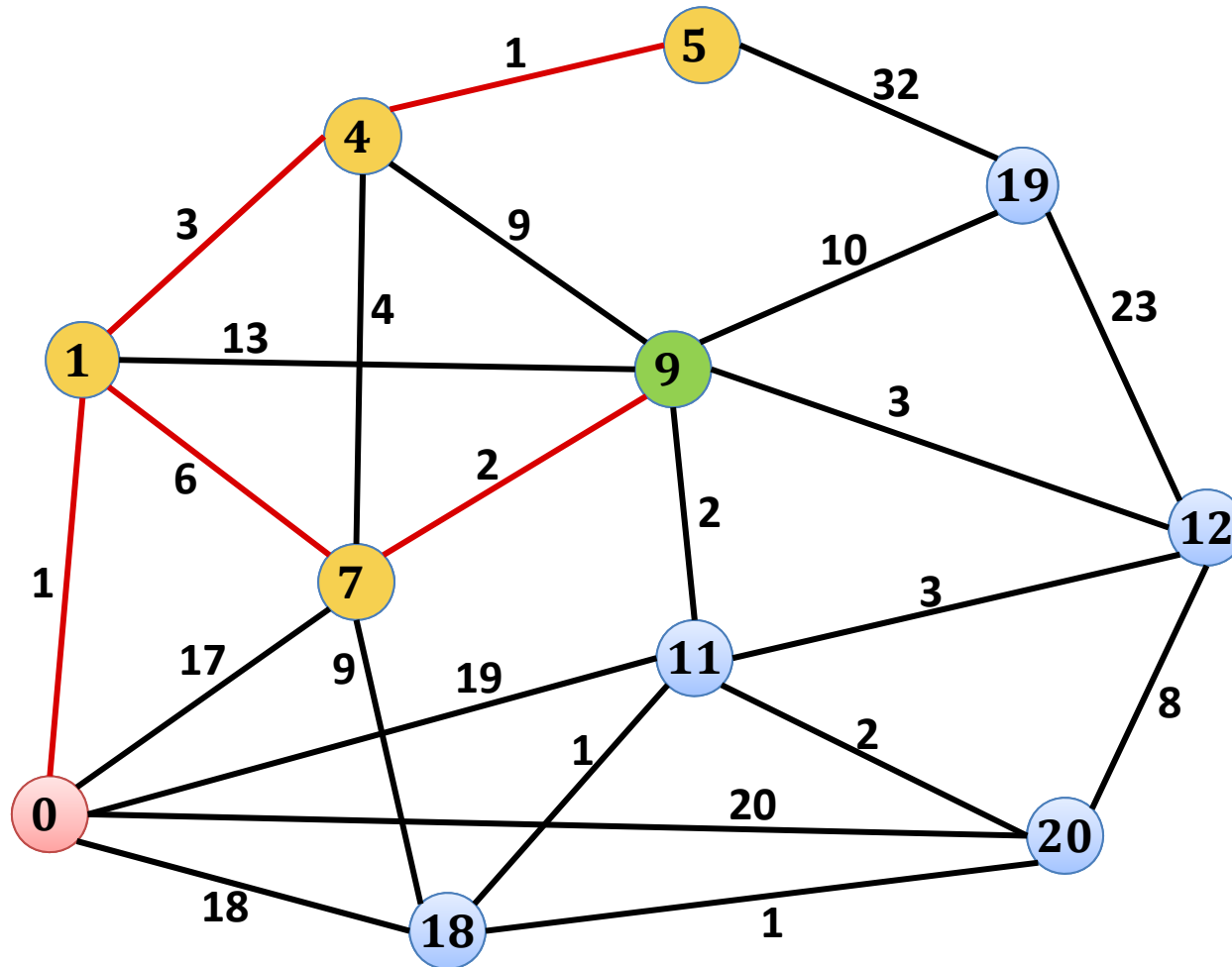
Example



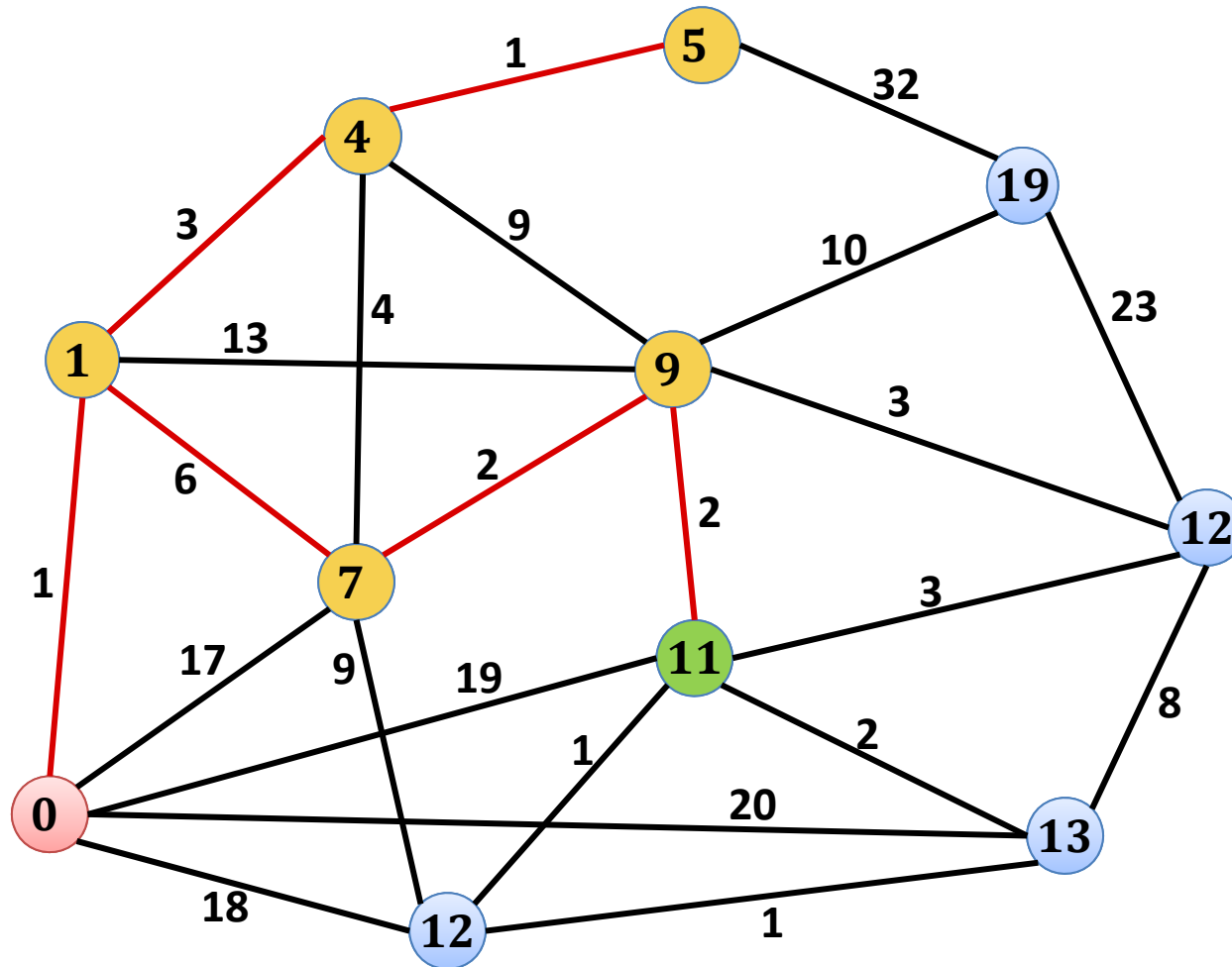
Example



Example



Example



Implementation of Dijkstra's Algorithm



Dijkstra's Algorithm:

1. Initialize $d(s, s) = 0$ and $d(s, v) = \infty$ for all $v \neq s$
2. All nodes $v \neq s$ are unmarked
3. Get unmarked node u which minimizes $d(s, u)$:
4. For all $e = \{u, v\} \in E$, $d(s, v) = \min\{d(s, v), d(s, u) + w(e)\}$
5. mark node u
6. Until all nodes are marked

Priority Queue / Heap

- Stores $(key, data)$ pairs (like dictionary)
- But, different set of operations:
- **Initialize-Heap**: creates new empty heap
- **Is-Empty**: returns true if heap is empty
- **Insert** $(key, data)$: inserts $(key, data)$ -pair, returns pointer to entry
- **Get-Min**: returns $(key, data)$ -pair with minimum key
- **Delete-Min**: deletes minimum $(key, data)$ -pair
- **Decrease-Key** $(entry, newkey)$: decreases key of $entry$ to $newkey$
- **Merge**: merges two heaps into one

Implementation of Dijkstra's Algorithm



Store nodes in a priority queue, use $d(s, v)$ as keys:

1. Initialize $d(s, s) = 0$ and $d(s, v) = \infty$ for all $v \neq s$
2. All nodes $v \neq s$ are unmarked
3. Get unmarked node u which minimizes $d(s, u)$:
4. mark node u
5. For all $e = \{u, v\} \in E$, $d(s, v) = \min\{d(s, v), d(s, u) + w(e)\}$
6. Until all nodes are marked

Analysis

Number of priority queue operations for Dijkstra:

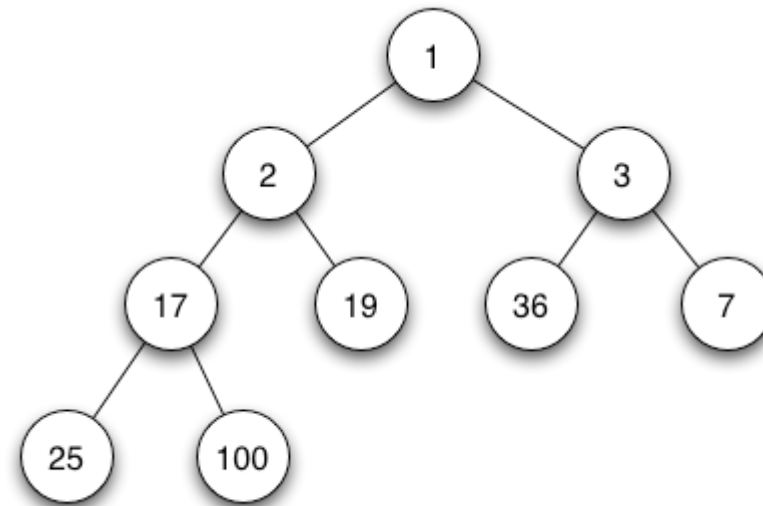
- **Initialize-Heap:** **1**
- **Is-Empty:** **$|V|$**
- **Insert:** **$|V|$**
- **Get-Min:** **$|V|$**
- **Delete-Min:** **$|V|$**
- **Decrease-Key:** **$|E|$**
- **Merge:** **0**

Priority Queue Implementation

Implementation as min-heap:

→ complete binary tree,
e.g., stored in an array

- **Initialize-Heap:** $O(1)$
- **Is-Empty:** $O(1)$
- **Insert:** $O(\log n)$
- **Get-Min:** $O(1)$
- **Delete-Min:** $O(\log n)$
- **Decrease-Key:** $O(\log n)$
- **Merge** (heaps of size m and n , $m \leq n$): $O(m \log n)$



Better Implementation

- Can we do better?
- Cost of Dijkstra with complete binary min-heap implementation:

$$O(|E| \log|V|)$$

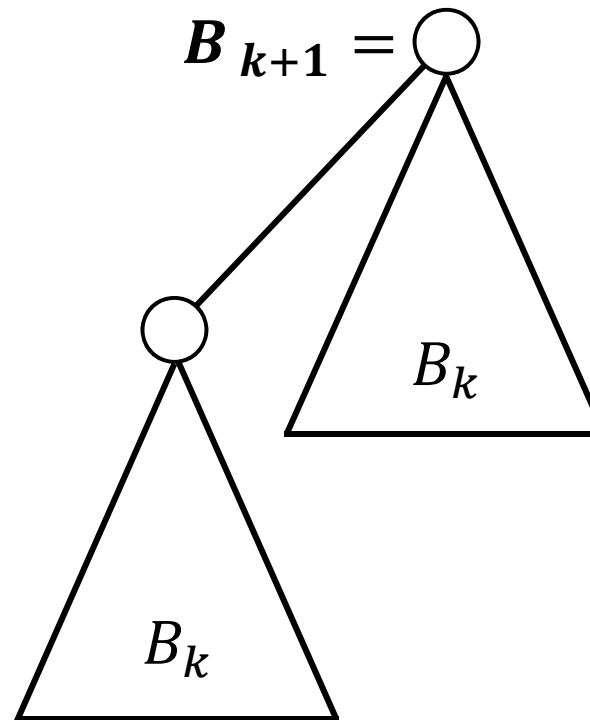
- Can be improved if we can make decrease-key cheaper...
- Cost of merging two heaps is expensive
- We will get there in two steps:

Binomial heap → Fibonacci heap

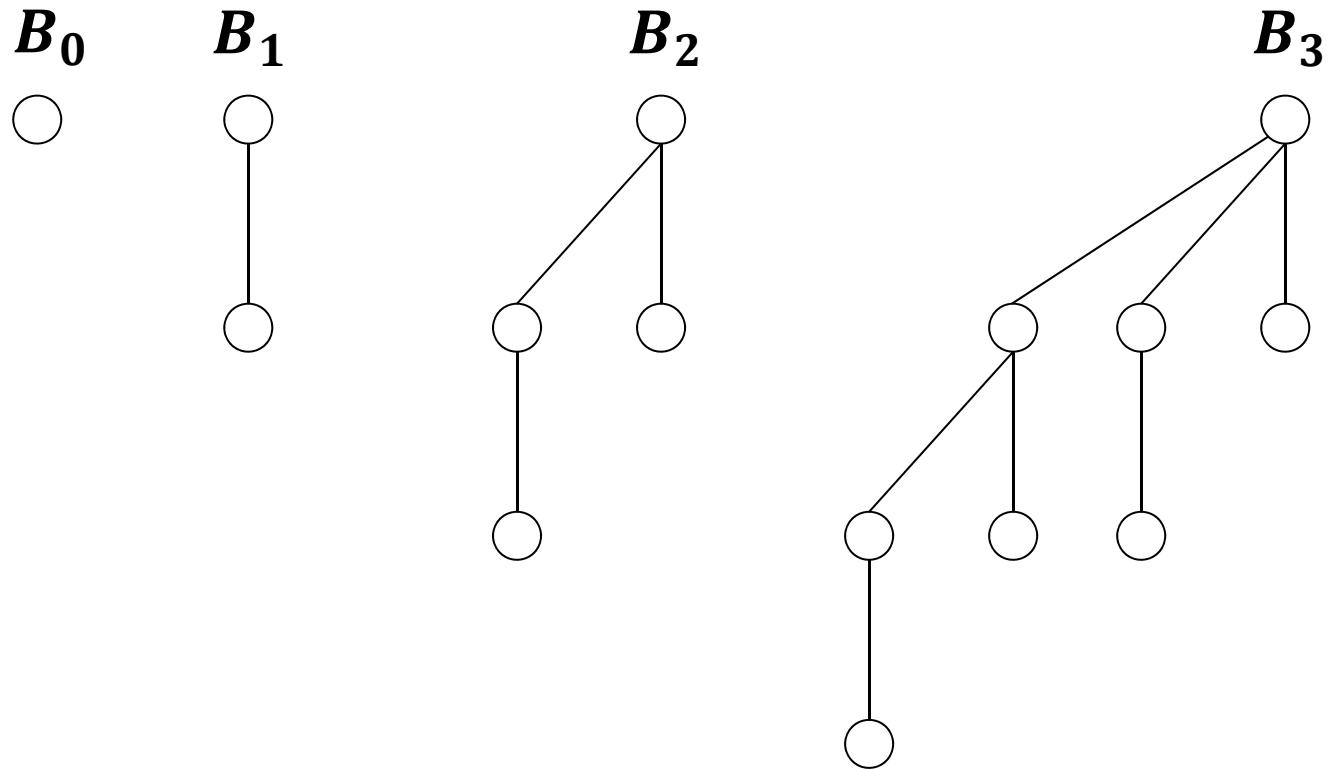
Definition: Binomial Tree

Binomial tree B_k of order k ($n \geq 0$):

$$B_0 = \bigcirc$$



Binomial Trees



Properties

1. Tree B_k has 2^k nodes
2. Height of tree B_k is k
3. Root degree of B_k is k
4. In B_k , there are exactly $\binom{k}{i}$ nodes at depth i

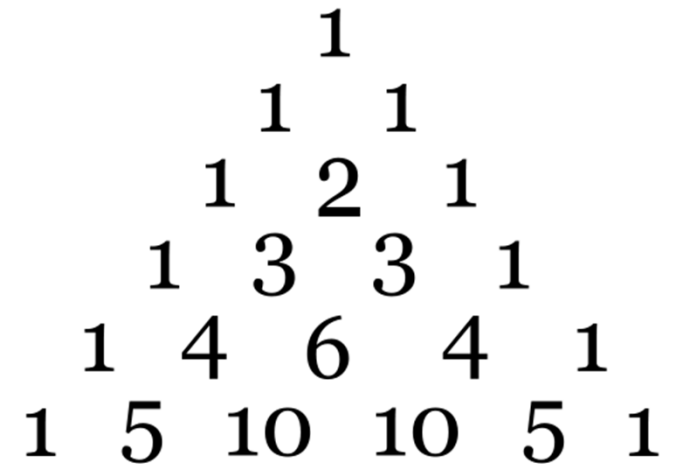
Binomial Coefficients

- Binomial coefficient:

$$\binom{k}{i} : \# \text{ of } i \text{ - element - subsets of a set of size } k$$

- Property: $\binom{k}{i} = \binom{k-1}{i-1} + \binom{k-1}{i}$

Pascal triangle:



Number of Nodes at Depth i in B_k

Claim: In B_k , there are exactly $\binom{k}{i}$ nodes at depth i

Binomial Heap

- Keys are stored in nodes of **binomial trees of different order**

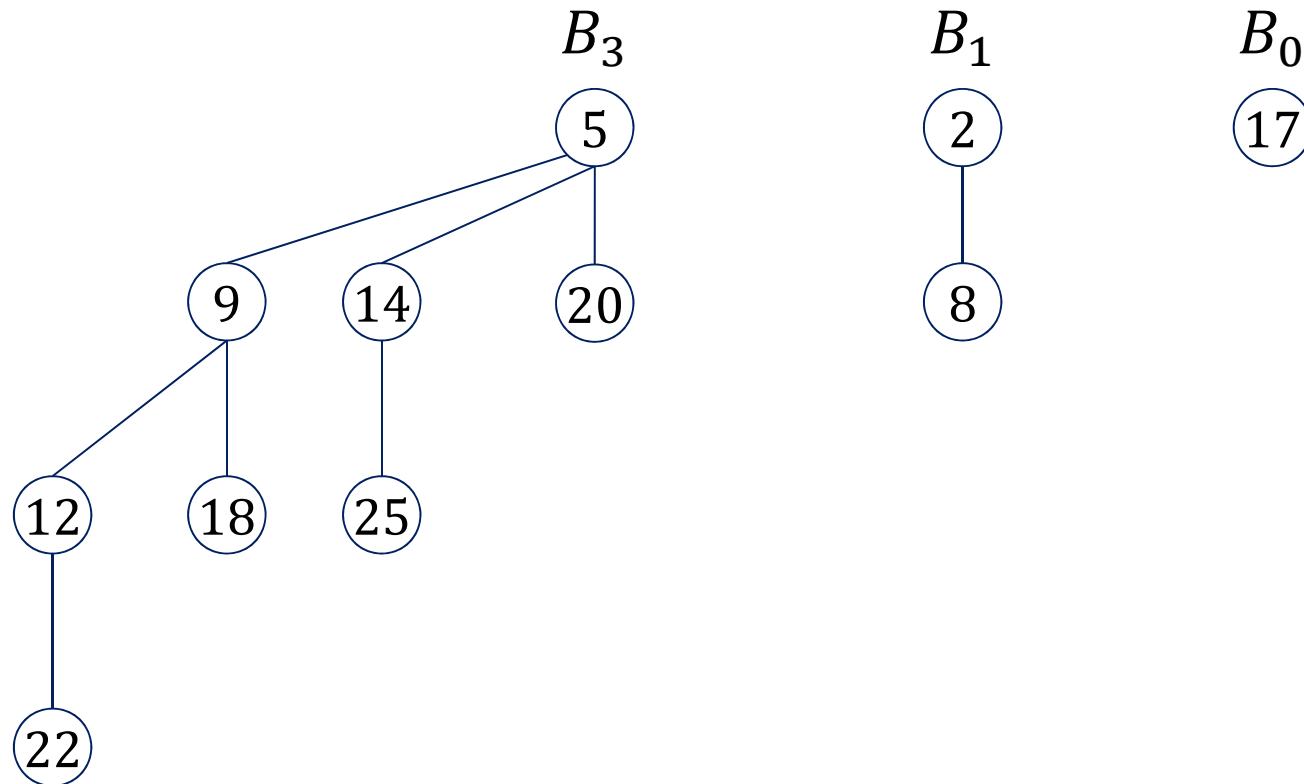
n nodes: there is a binomial tree B_i of order i iff bit i of base-2 representation of n is 1.

- **Min-Heap Property:**

Key of node $v \leq$ keys of all nodes in sub-tree of v

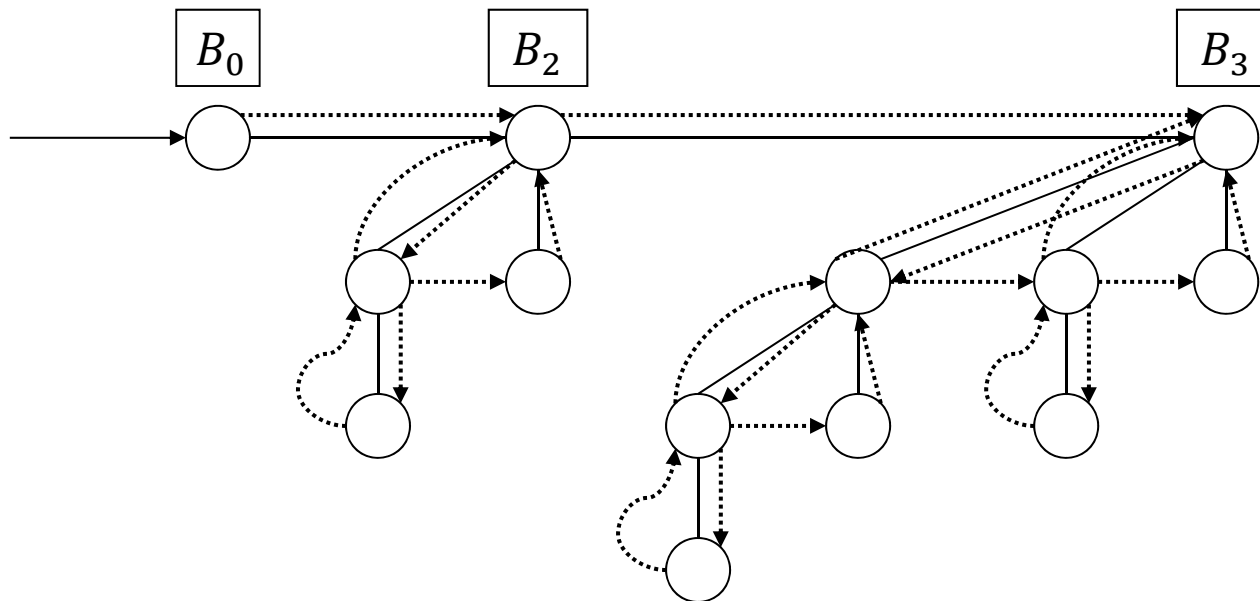
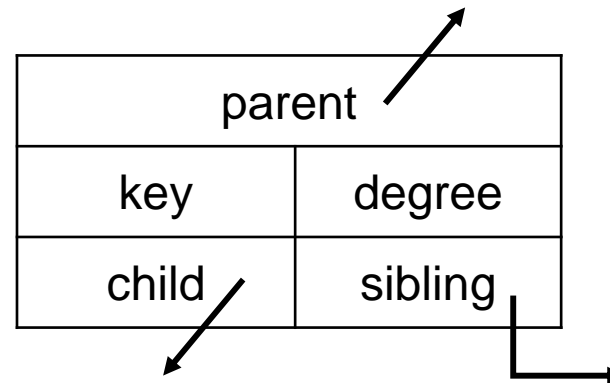
Example

- 11 keys: {2, 5, 8, 9, 12, 14, 17, 18, 20, 22, 25}
- Binary representation of n : $(11)_2 = 1011$
 → trees B_0 , B_1 , and B_3 present



Child-Sibling Representation

Structure of a node:

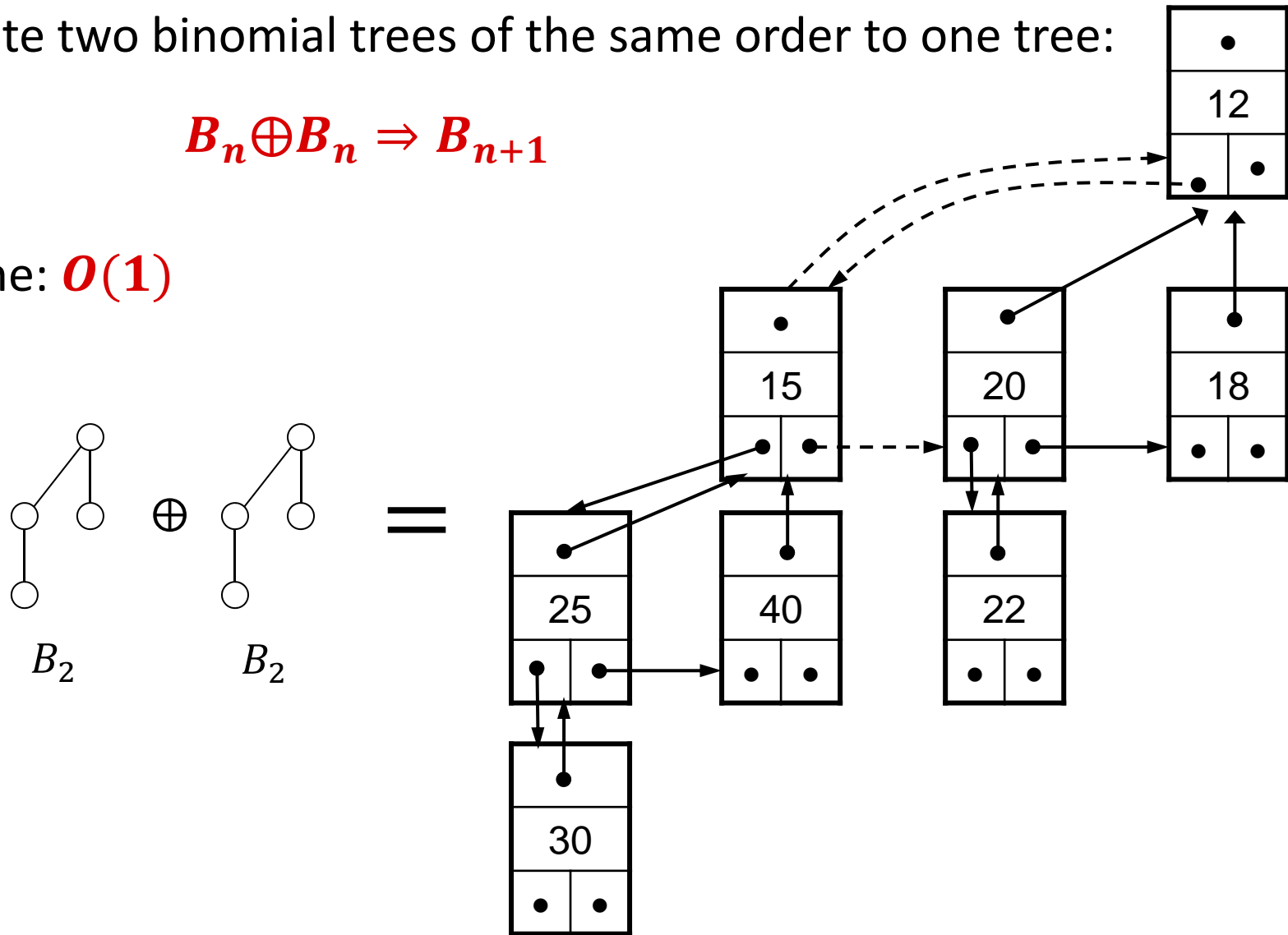


Link Operation

- Unite two binomial trees of the same order to one tree:

$$B_n \oplus B_n \Rightarrow B_{n+1}$$

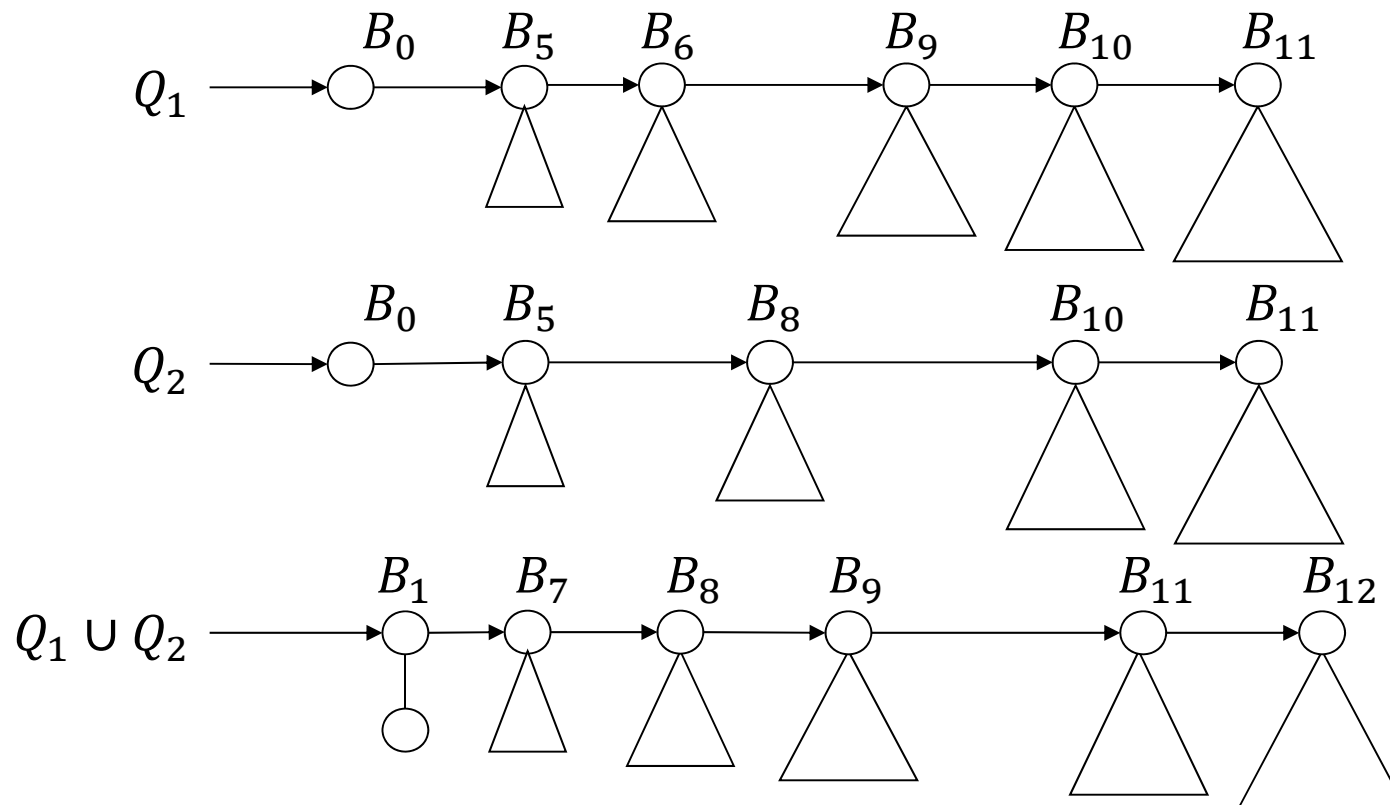
- Time: $O(1)$



Merge Operation

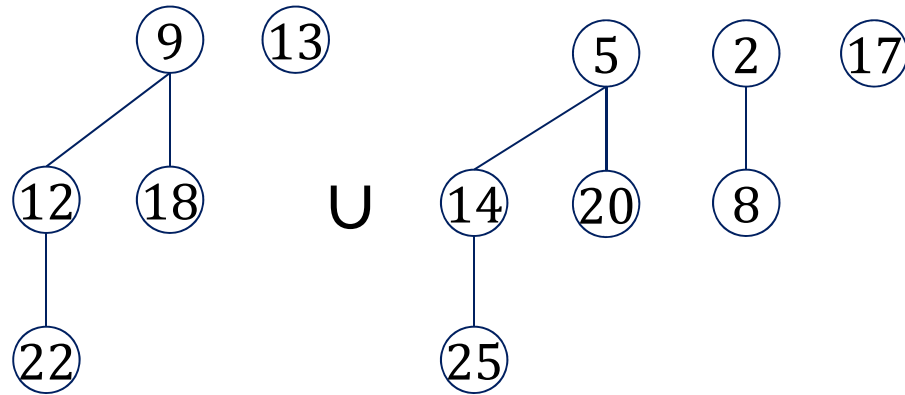
Merging two binomial heaps:

- **For $i = 0, 1, \dots, \log n$:**
 If there are 2 or 3 binomial trees B_i : apply link operation to merge 2 trees into one binomial tree B_{i+1}



Time:
 $O(\log n)$

Example



Operations

Initialize: create empty list of trees

Get minimum of queue: **time $O(1)$** (if we maintain a pointer)

Decrease-key at node v :

- Set *key* of node v to new key
- Swap with parent until min-heap property is restored
- **Time: $O(\log n)$**

Insert *key* x into queue Q :

1. Create queue Q' of size 1 containing only x
 2. Merge Q and Q'
- **Time for insert: $O(\log n)$**

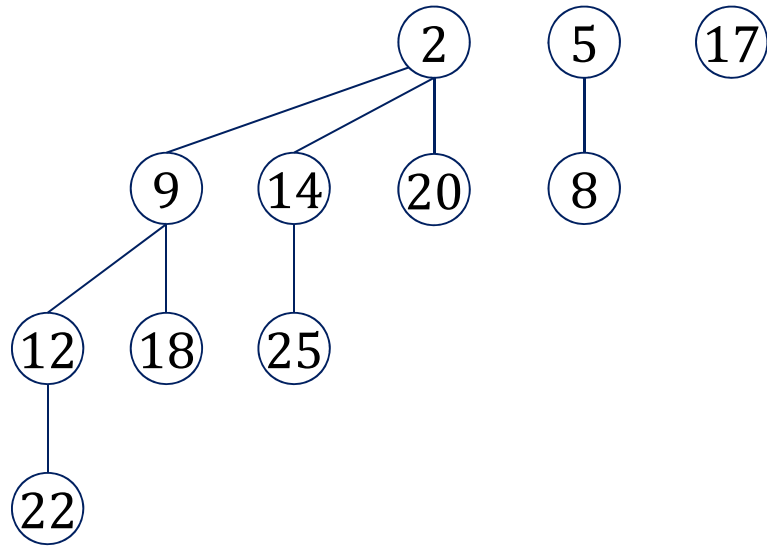
Operations

Delete-Min Operation:

1. Find tree B_i with minimum root r
2. Remove B_i from queue $Q \rightarrow$ queue Q'
3. Children of r form new queue Q''
4. Merge queues Q' and Q''

- **Overall time: $O(\log n)$**

Delete-Min Example



Complexities Binomial Heap

- Initialize-Heap: $O(1)$
- Is-Empty: $O(1)$
- Insert: $O(\log n)$
- Get-Min: $O(1)$
- Delete-Min: $O(\log n)$
- Decrease-Key: $O(\log n)$
- Merge (heaps of size m and n , $m \leq n$): $O(\log n)$

Can We Do Better?

- Binomial heap:
insert, delete-min, and decrease-key cost $O(\log n)$
- One of the operations **insert or delete-min** must cost $\Omega(\log n)$:
 - **Heap-Sort**:
Insert n elements into heap, then take out the minimum n times
 - (Comparison-based) sorting costs at least $\Omega(n \log n)$.
- But maybe we can improve decrease-key and one of the other two operations?
- **Structure of binomial heap** is not flexible:
 - Simplifies analysis, allows to get strong worst-case bounds
 - **But**, operations almost inherently need at least logarithmic time

Fibonacci Heaps

Lacy-merge variant of binomial heaps:

- Do not merge trees as long as possible...

Structure:

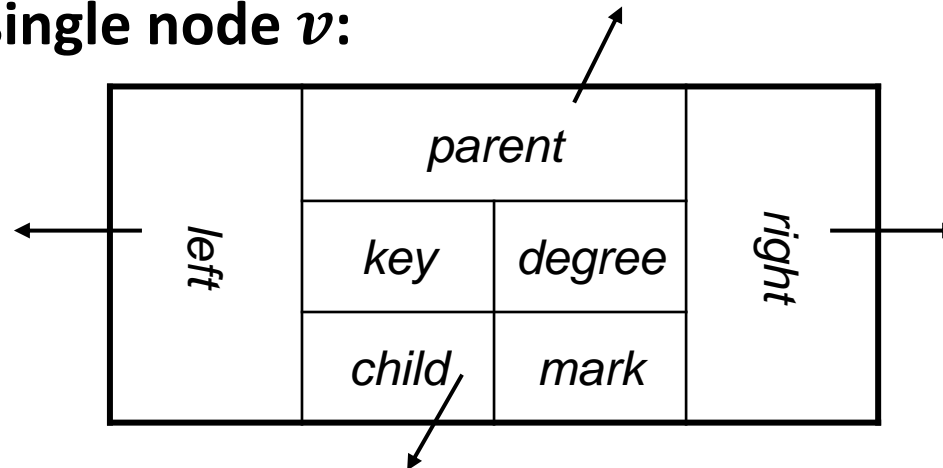
A Fibonacci heap H consists of a collection of trees satisfying the min-heap property.

Variables:

- $H.min$: root of the tree containing the (a) minimum key
- $H.rootlist$: circular, doubly linked, unordered list containing the roots of all trees
- $H.size$: number of nodes currently in H

Trees in Fibonacci Heaps

Structure of a single node v :



- $v.child$: points to **circular, doubly linked and unordered list** of the children of v
- $v.left, v.right$: pointers to siblings (in doubly linked list)
- $v.mark$: will be used later...

Advantages of circular, doubly linked lists:

- **Deleting** an element takes **constant time**
- **Concatenating** two lists takes **constant time**

Example

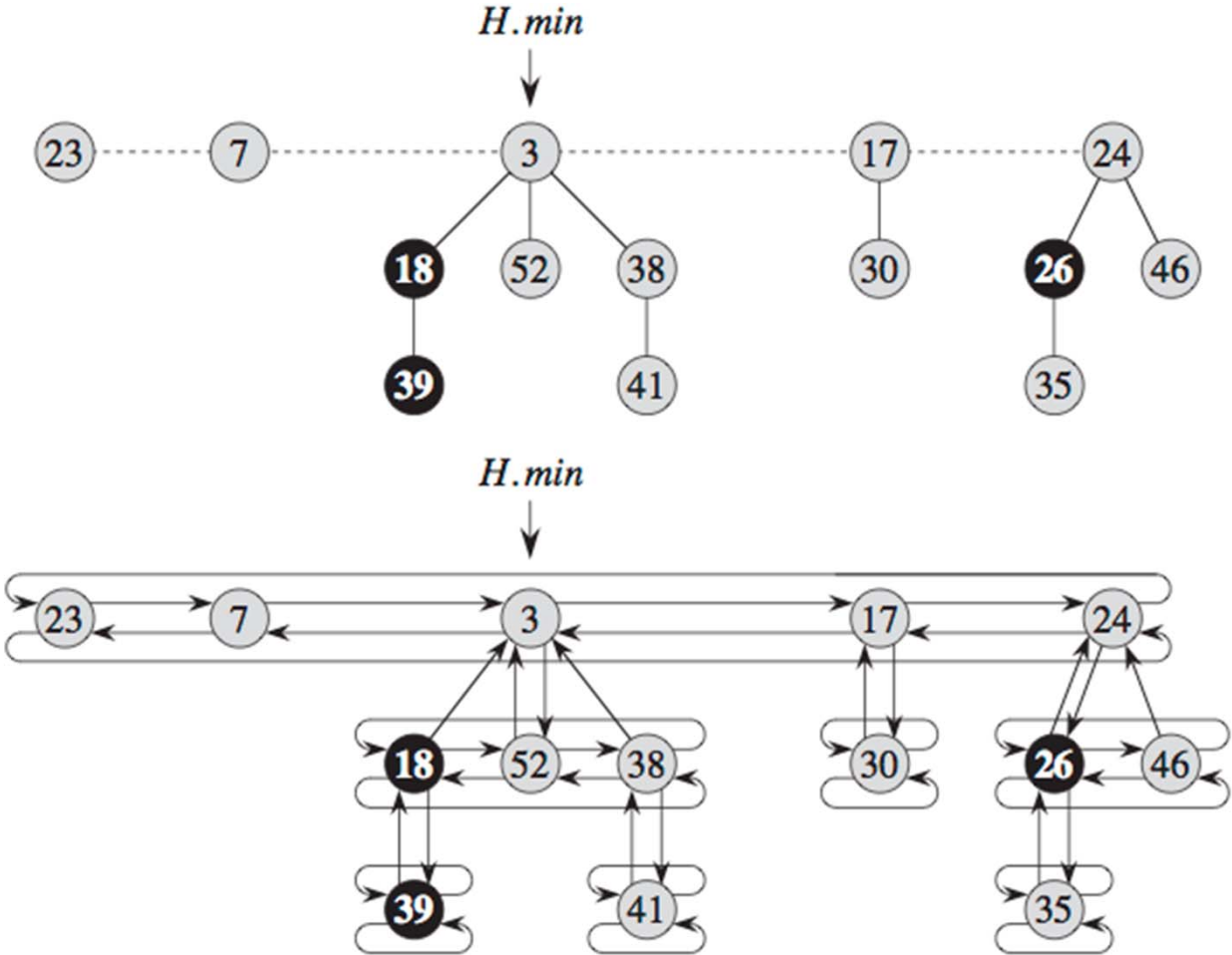


Figure: Cormen et al., Introduction to Algorithms

Simple (Lazy) Operations

Initialize-Heap H :

- $H.rootlist := H.min := null$

Merge heaps H and H' :

- concatenate root lists
- update $H.min$

Insert element e into H :

- create new one-node tree containing $e \rightarrow H'$
- merge heaps H and H'

Get minimum element of H :

- return $H.min$

Operation Delete-Min

Delete the node with minimum key from H and return its element:

1. $m := H.min;$
2. **if** $H.size > 0$ **then**
3. remove $H.min$ from $H.rootlist$;
4. add $H.min.child$ (list) to $H.rootlist$
5. **$H.Consolidate()$;**

 // Repeatedly merge nodes with equal degree in the root list
 // until degrees of nodes in the root list are distinct.
 // Determine the element with minimum key
6. **return** m

Rank and Maximum Degree

Ranks of nodes, trees, heap:

Node v :

- $rank(v)$: degree of v

Tree T :

- $rank(T)$: rank (degree) of root node of T

Heap H :

- $rank(H)$: maximum degree of any node in H

Assumption (n : number of nodes in H):

$$rank(H) \leq D(n)$$

- for a known function $D(n)$

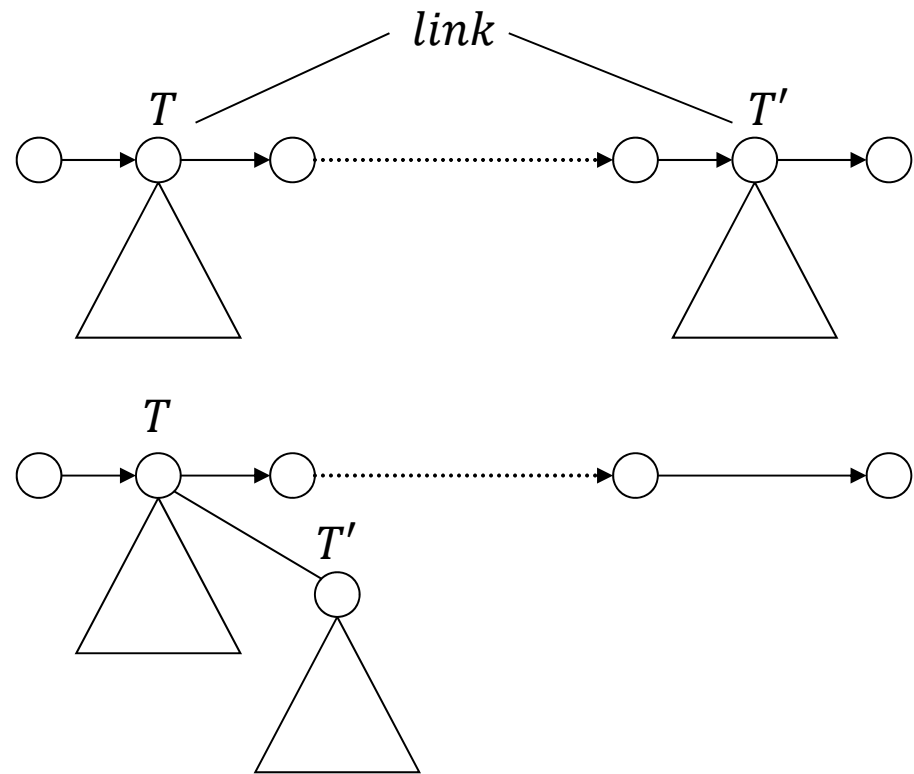
Merging Two Trees

Given: Heap-ordered trees T, T' with $rank(T) = rank(T')$

- Assume: min-key of $T <$ min-key of T'

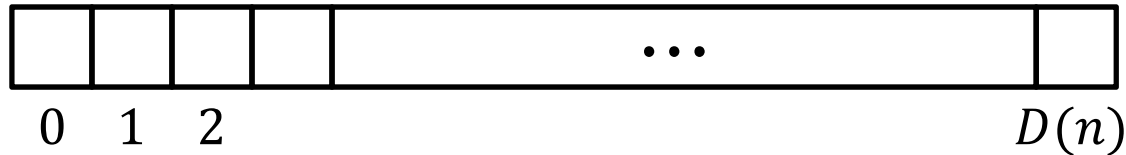
Operation $link(T, T')$:

- Removes tree T' from root list and adds T' to child list of T
- $rank(T) := rank(T) + 1$
- $T'.mark := \mathbf{false}$



Consolidation of Root List

Array A pointing to find roots with the same rank:



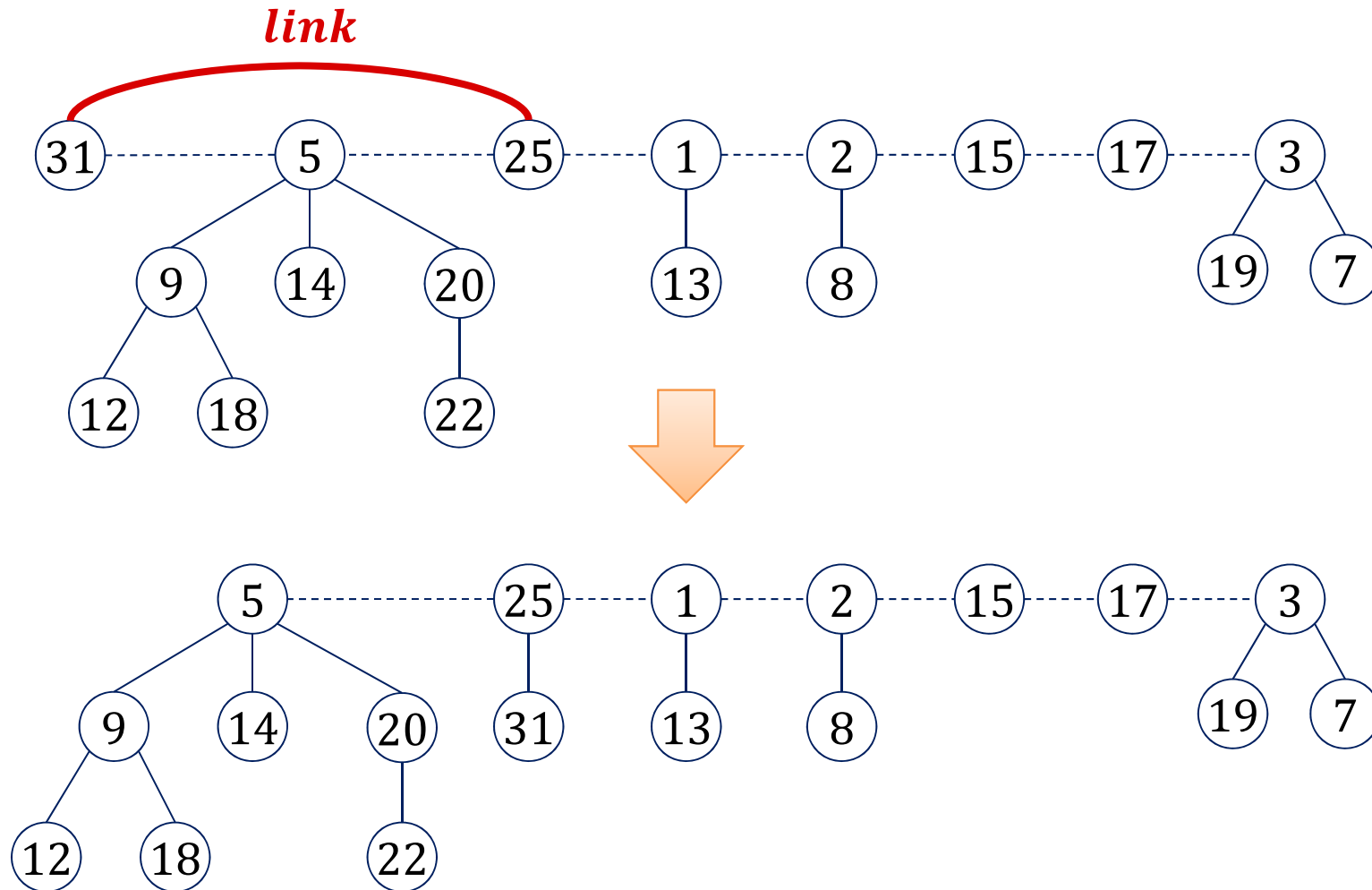
Consolidate:

1. **for** $i := 0$ **to** $D(n)$ **do** $A[i] := \text{null}$;
2. **while** $H.\text{rootlist} \neq \text{null}$ **do**
3. $T :=$ “delete and return first element of $H.\text{rootlist}$ ”
4. **while** $A[\text{rank}(T)] \neq \text{null}$ **do**
5. $T' := A[\text{rank}(T)]$;
6. $A[\text{rank}(T)] := \text{null}$;
7. $T := \text{link}(T, T')$
8. $A[\text{rank}(T)] := T$
9. Create new $H.\text{rootlist}$ and $H.\text{min}$

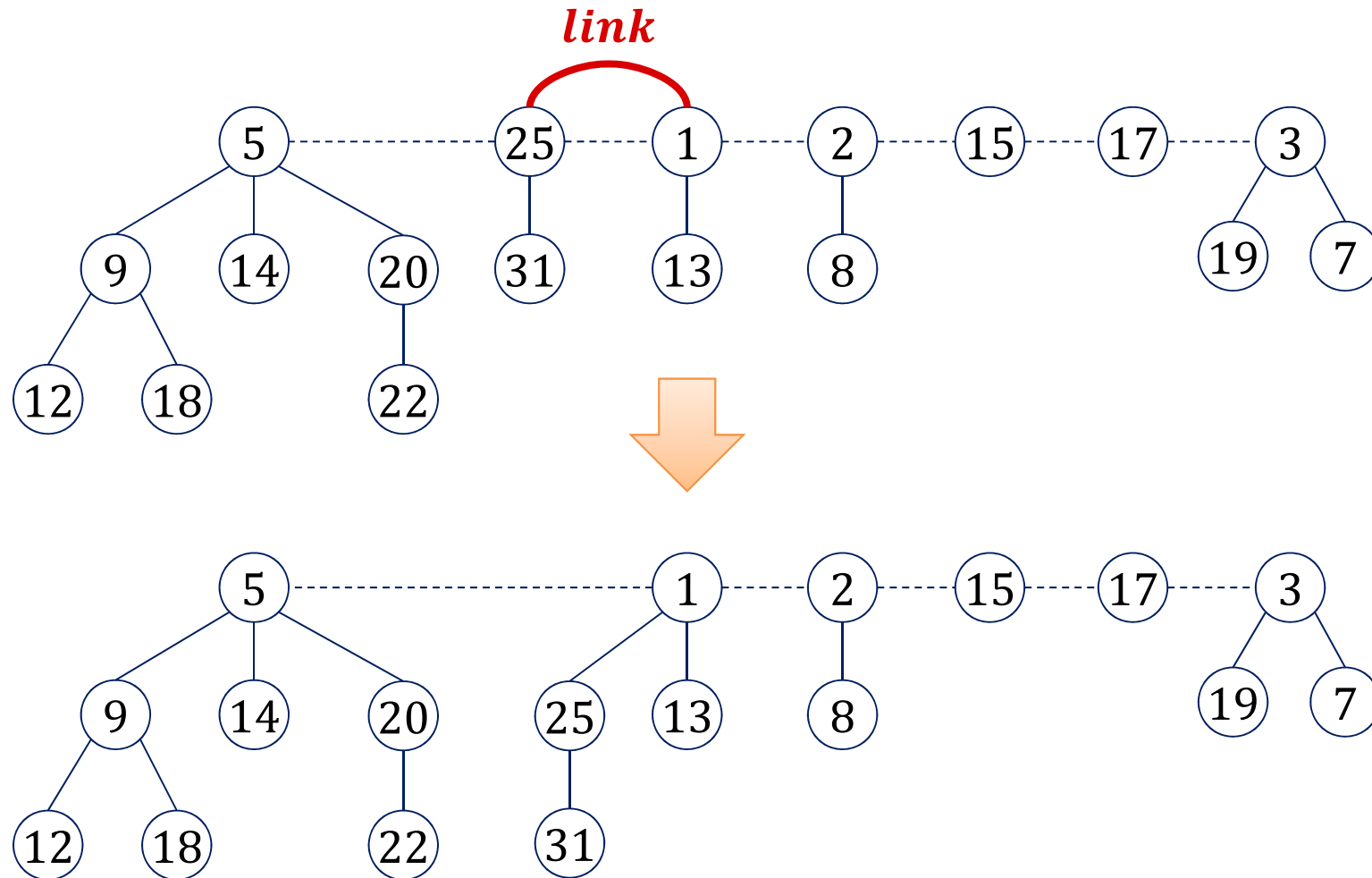
Time:

$O(|H.\text{rootlist}| + D(n))$

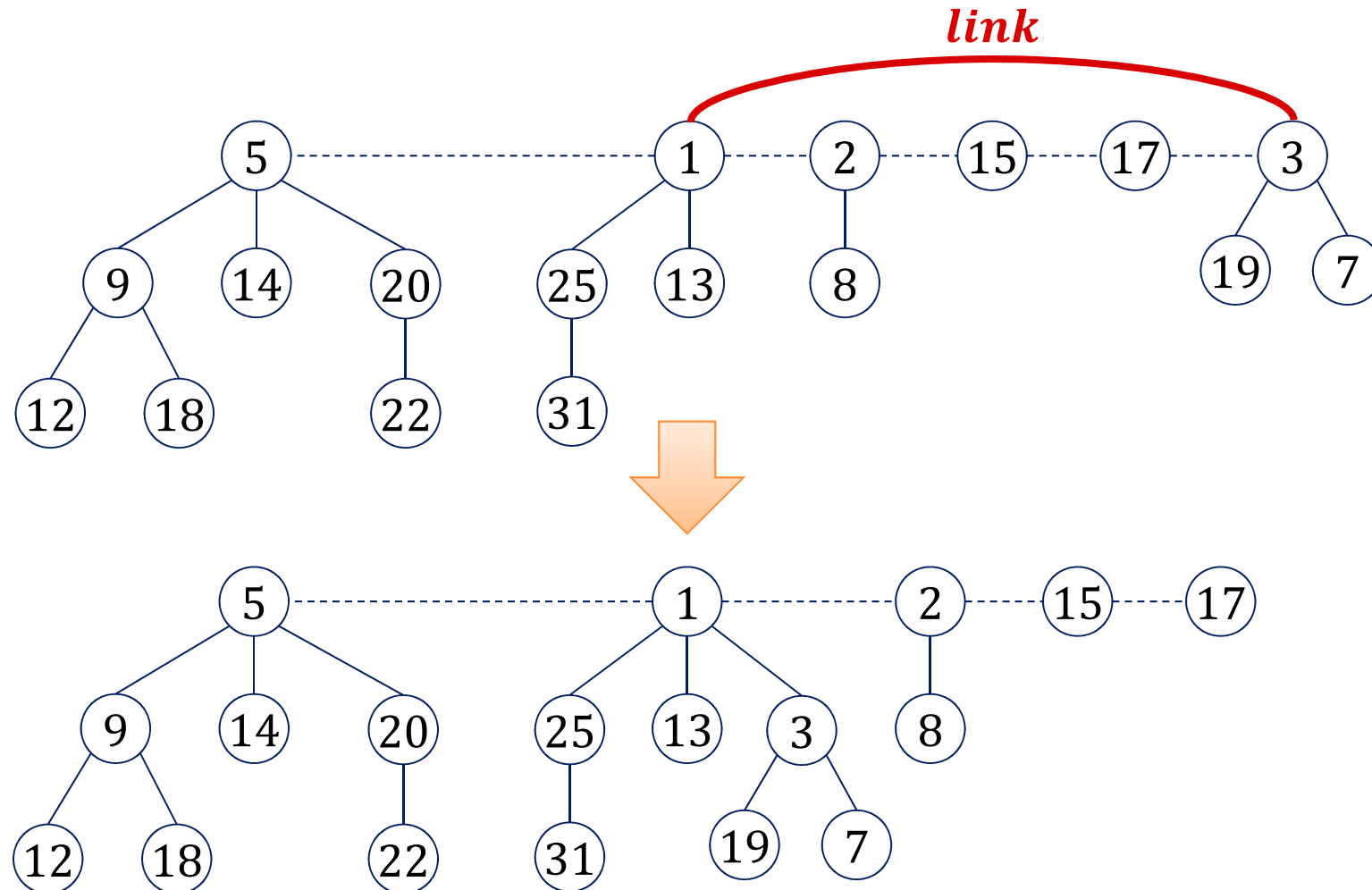
Consolidate Example



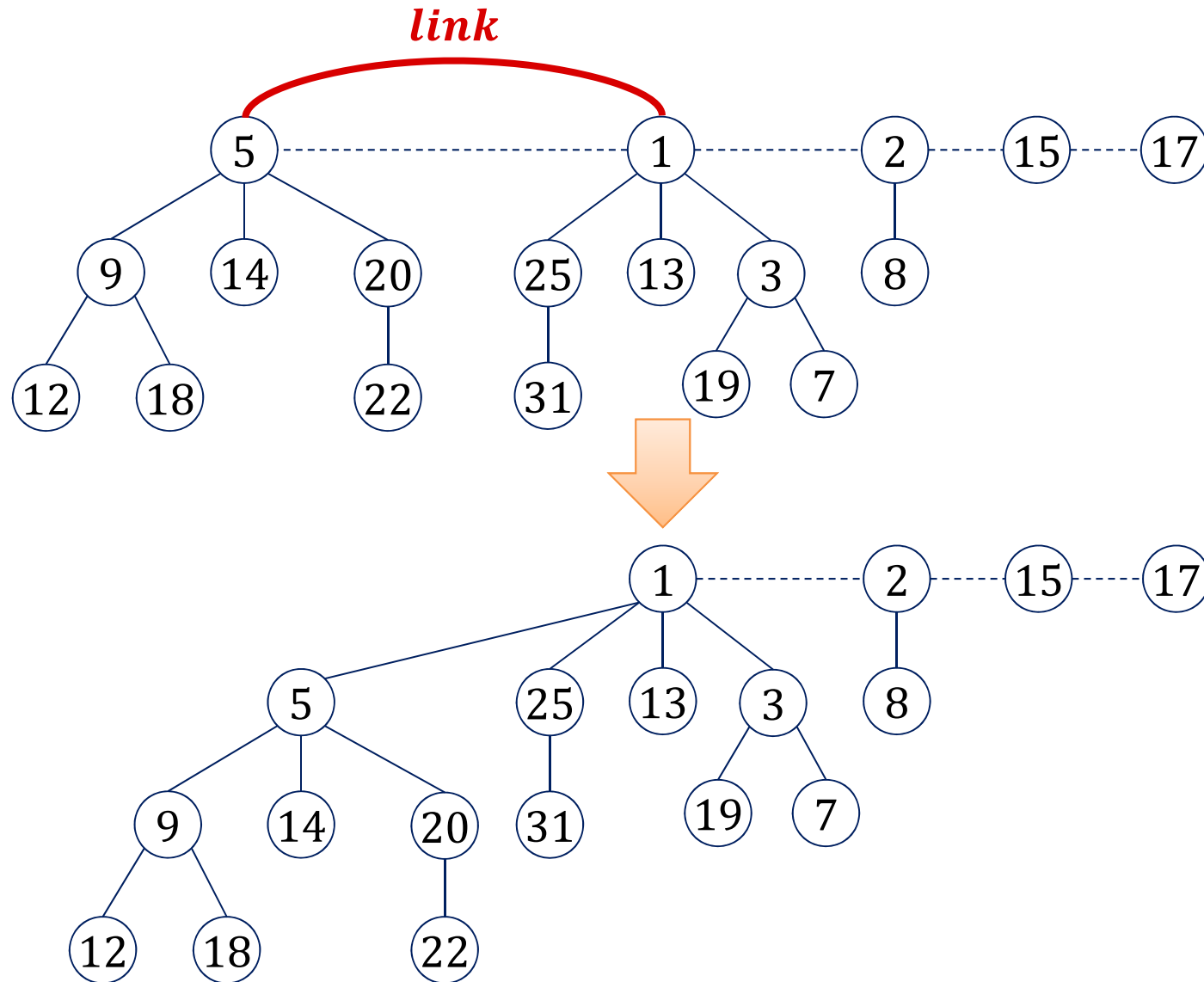
Consolidate Example



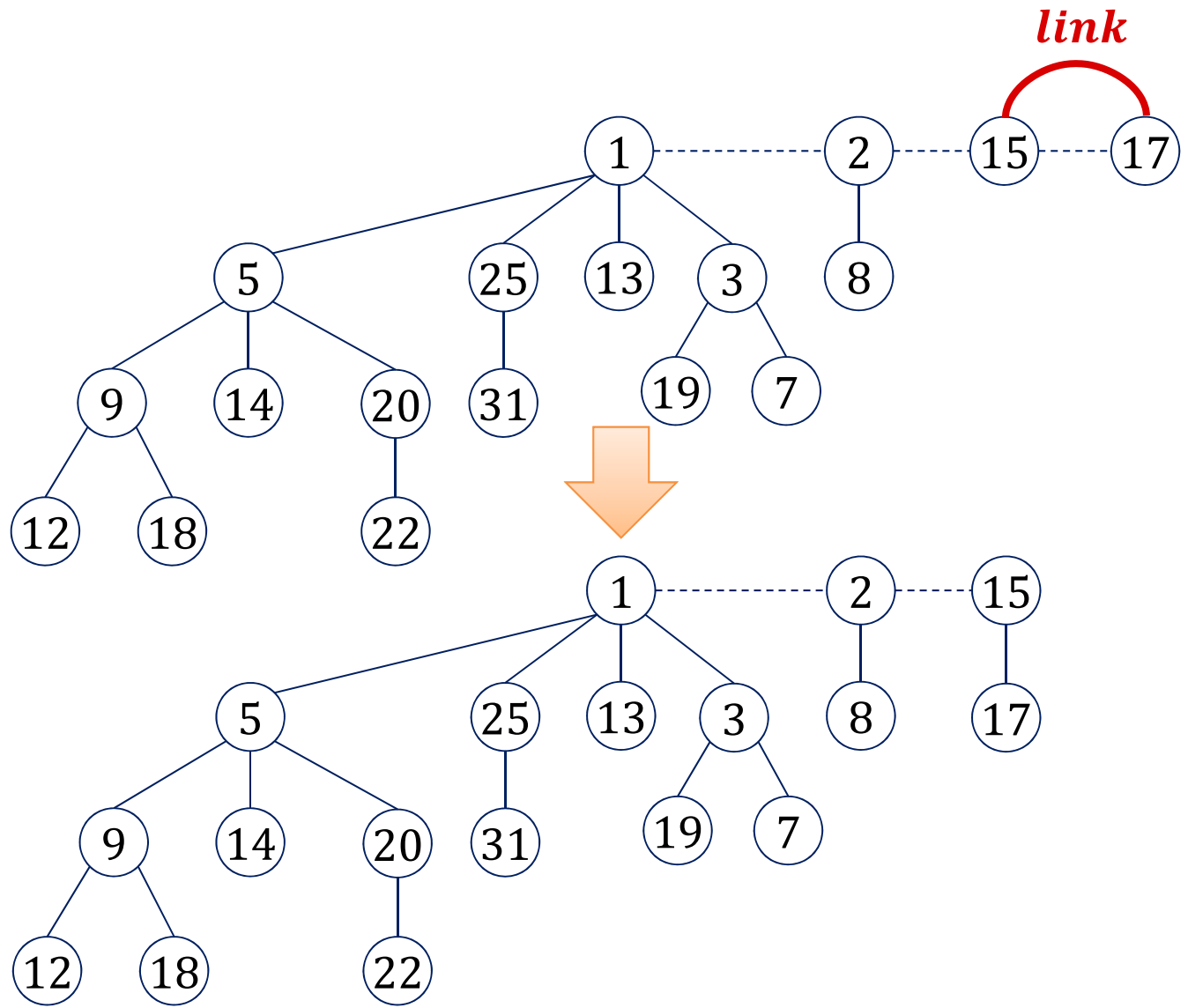
Consolidate Example



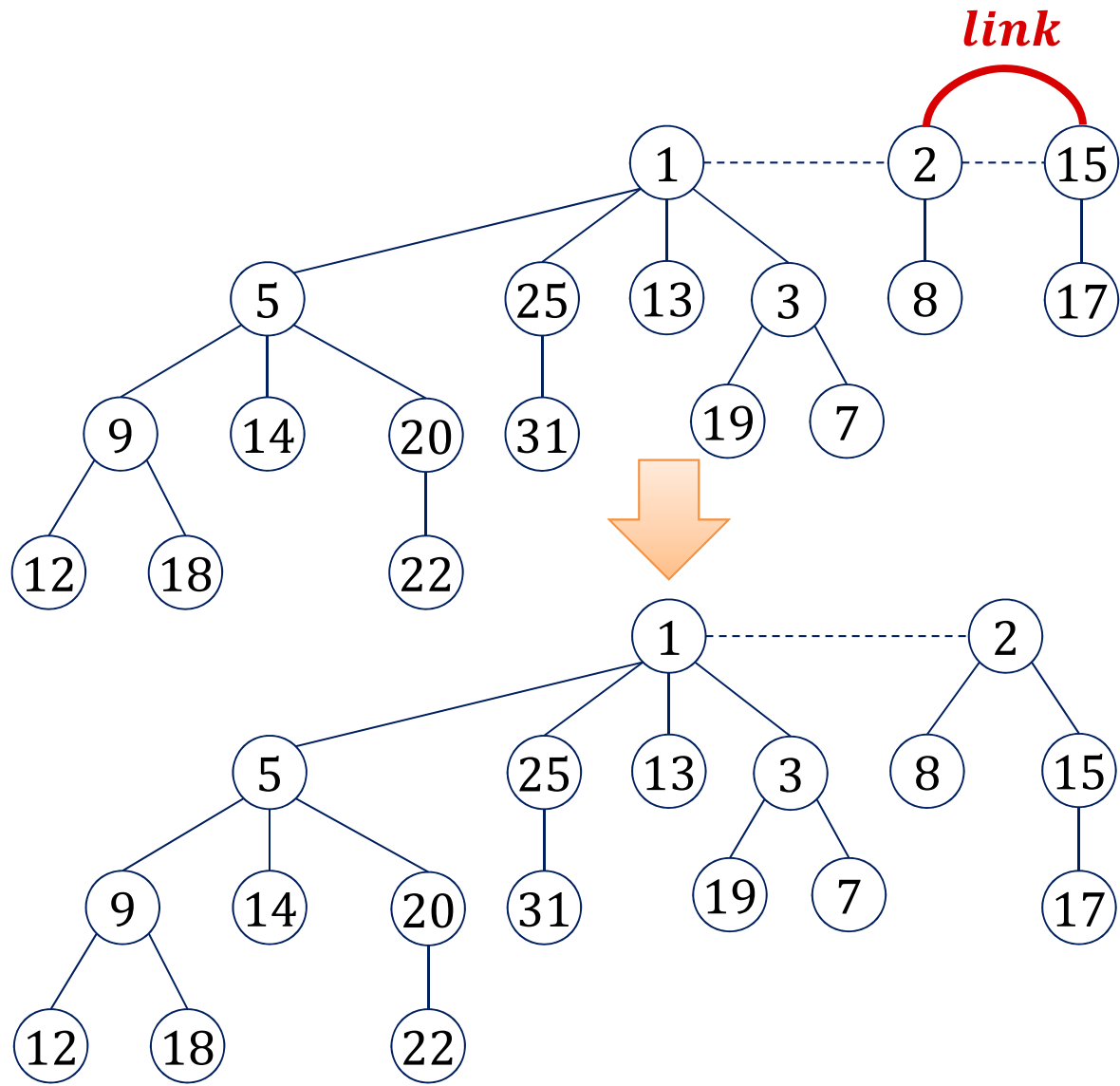
Consolidate Example



Consolidate Example



Consolidate Example



Operation Decrease-Key

Decrease-Key(v, x): (decrease key of node v to new value x)

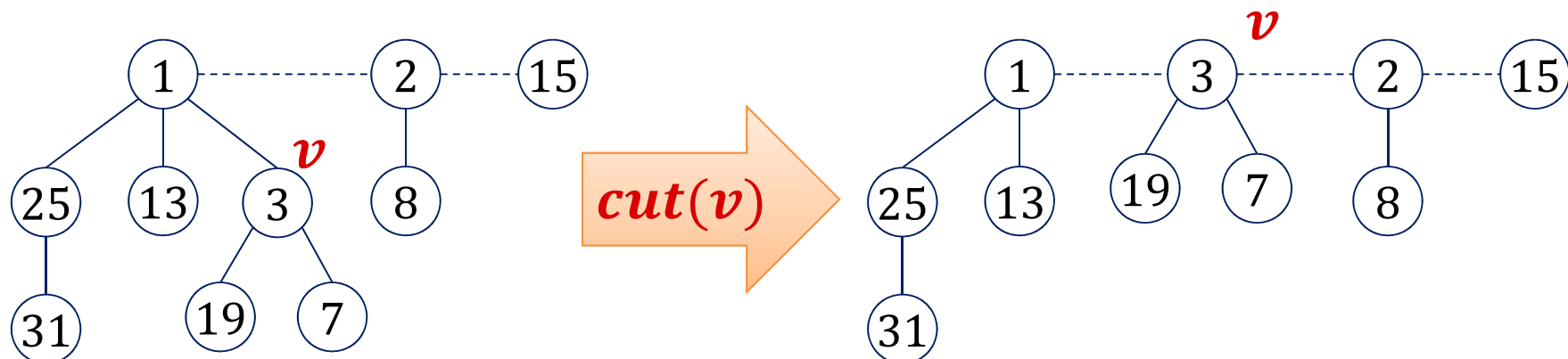
1. **if** $x \geq v.key$ **then return**;
2. $v.key := x$; update $H.min$;
3. **if** $v \in H.rootlist \vee x \geq v.parent.key$ **then return**
4. **repeat**
5. $parent := v.parent$;
6. **$H.cut(v)$** ;
7. $v := parent$;
8. **until** $\neg(v.mark) \vee v \in H.rootlist$;
9. **if** $v \notin H.rootlist$ **then** $v.mark := true$;

Operation $\text{Cut}(v)$

Operation $H.\text{cut}(v)$:

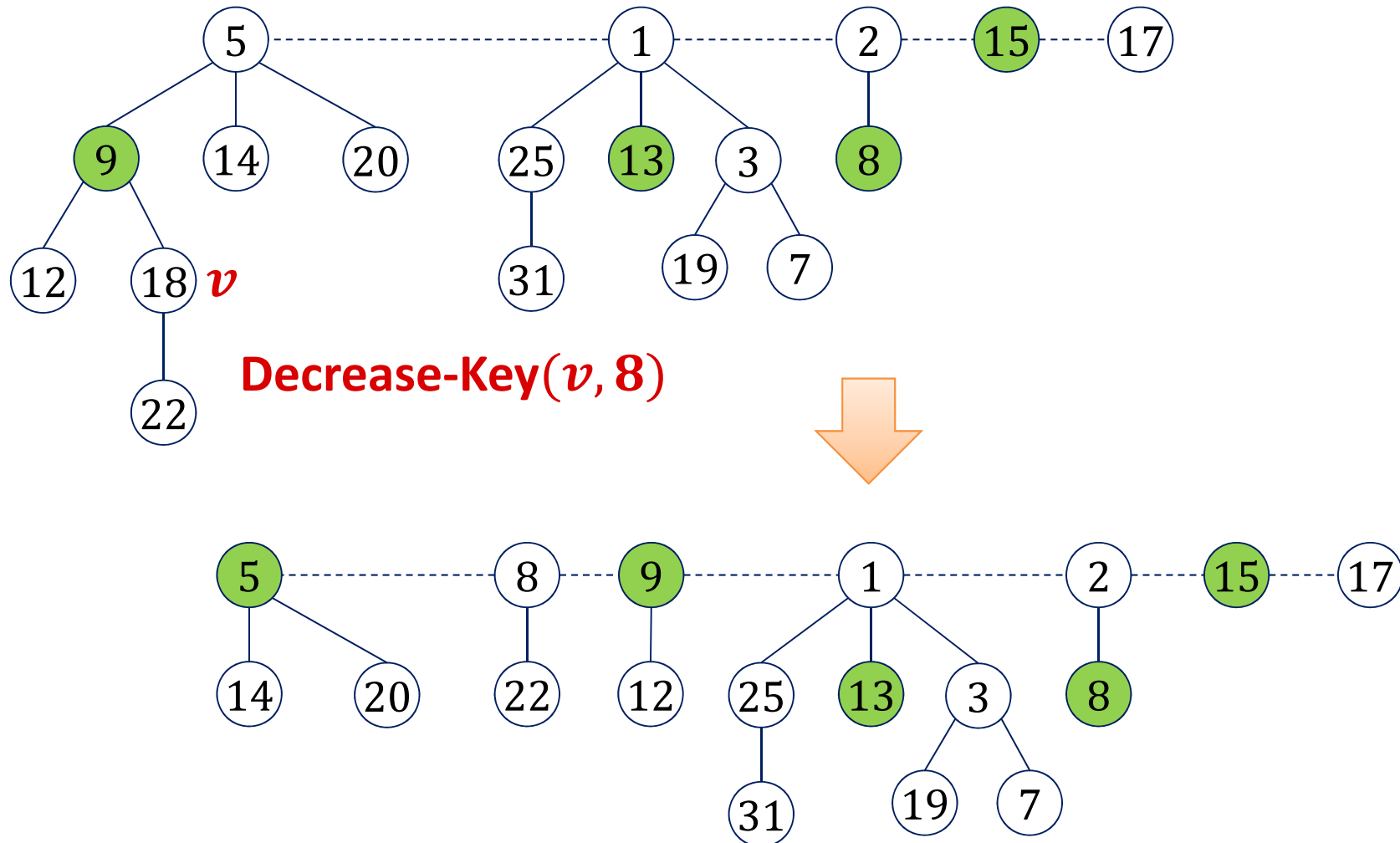
- Cuts v 's sub-tree from its parent and adds v to rootlist

1. **if** $v \notin H.\text{rootlist}$ **then**
2. // cut the link between v and its parent
3. $\text{rank}(v.\text{parent}) := \text{rank}(v.\text{parent}) - 1$;
4. remove v from $v.\text{parent}.\text{child}$ (list)
5. $v.\text{parent} := \text{null}$;
6. add v to $H.\text{rootlist}$



Decrease-Key Example

- Green nodes are marked



Fibonacci Heap Marks

History of a node v :

v is being linked to a node $\Rightarrow v.mark := \text{false}$

a child of v is cut $\Rightarrow v.mark := \text{true}$

a second child of v is cut $\Rightarrow H.cut(v)$

- Hence, the boolean value $v.mark$ indicates whether node v has lost a child since the last time v was made the child of another node.

Cost of Delete-Min & Decrease-Key

Delete-Min:

1. Delete min. root r and add $r.child$ to $H.rootlist$
time: $O(1)$
2. Consolidate $H.rootlist$
time: $O(\text{length of } H.rootlist + D(n))$
 - Step 2 can potentially be linear in n (size of H)

Decrease-Key (at node v):

1. If new key $<$ parent key, cut sub-tree of node v
time: $O(1)$
2. Cascading cuts up the tree as long as nodes are marked
time: $O(\text{number of consecutive marked nodes})$
 - Step 2 can potentially be linear in n

Exercises: Both operations can take $\Theta(n)$ time in the worst case!

Cost of Delete-Min & Decrease-Key

- Cost of delete-min and decrease-key can be $\Theta(n)$...
 - Seems a large price to pay to get insert and merge in $O(1)$ time
- Maybe, the operations are efficient most of the time?
 - It seems to require a lot of operations to get a long rootlist and thus, an expensive consolidate operation
 - In each decrease-key operation, at most one node gets marked: We need a lot of decrease-key operations to get an expensive decrease-key operation
- Can we show that the **average cost** per operation is small?
- We can \rightarrow requires **amortized analysis**

Amortization

- Consider sequence o_1, o_2, \dots, o_n of n operations (typically performed on some data structure D)
- t_i : execution time of operation o_i
- $T := t_1 + t_2 + \dots + t_n$: total execution time
- The execution time of a single operation might vary within a large range (e.g., $t_i \in [1, O(i)]$)
- The worst case overall execution time might still be small
 - average execution time per operation might be small in the worst case, even if single operations can be expensive

Analysis of Algorithms

- Best case
- Worst case
- Average case
- Amortized worst case

What is the **average cost of an operation
in a **worst case sequence** of operations?**

Example: Binary Counter

Incrementing a binary counter: determine the bit flip cost:

Operation	Counter Value	Cost
	00000	
1	0000 1	1
2	000 10	2
3	000 11	1
4	00 100	3
5	0010 1	1
6	001 10	2
7	001 11	1
8	0 1000	4
9	0100 1	1
10	010 10	2
11	010 11	1
12	01 100	3
13	0110 1	1

Accounting Method

Observation:

- Each increment flips exactly one 0 into a 1

$$00100\mathbf{0}1111 \Rightarrow 00100\mathbf{1}0000$$

Idea:

- Have a bank account (with initial amount 0)
- Paying x to the bank account costs x
- Take “money” from account to pay for expensive operations

Applied to binary counter:

- Flip from 0 to 1: pay 1 to bank account (cost: 2)
- Flip from 1 to 0: take 1 from bank account (cost: 0)
- Amount on **bank account = number of ones**
→ We always have enough “money” to pay!

Accounting Method



Op.	Counter	Cost	To Bank	From Bank	Net Cost	Credit
	0 0 0 0 0					
1	0 0 0 0 1	1				
2	0 0 0 1 0	2				
3	0 0 0 1 1	1				
4	0 0 1 0 0	3				
5	0 0 1 0 1	1				
6	0 0 1 1 0	2				
7	0 0 1 1 1	1				
8	0 1 0 0 0	4				
9	0 1 0 0 1	1				
10	0 1 0 1 0	2				

Potential Function Method

- Most **generic** and **elegant** way to do amortized analysis!
 - But, also more abstract than the others...
- State of data structure / system: $S \in \mathcal{S}$ (state space)

Potential function $\Phi: \mathcal{S} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}_{\geq 0}$

- **Operation i :**
 - t_i : actual cost of operation i
 - S_i : state after execution of operation i (S_0 : initial state)
 - $\Phi_i := \Phi(S_i)$: potential after exec. of operation i
 - a_i : **amortized cost** of operation i :

$$a_i := t_i + \Phi_i - \Phi_{i-1}$$

Potential Function Method

Operation i :

actual cost: t_i **amortized cost:** $a_i = t_i + \Phi_i - \Phi_{i-1}$

Overall cost:

$$T := \sum_{i=1}^n t_i = \left(\sum_{i=1}^n a_i \right) + \Phi_0 - \Phi_n$$

Binary Counter: Potential Method

- Potential function:
 Φ : number of ones in current counter
- Clearly, $\Phi_0 = 0$ and $\Phi_i \geq 0$ for all $i \geq 0$
- Actual cost t_i :
 - 1 flip from 0 to 1
 - $t_i - 1$ flips from 1 to 0
- Potential difference: $\Phi_i - \Phi_{i-1} = 1 - (t_i - 1) = 2 - t_i$
- Amortized cost: **$a_i = t_i + \Phi_i - \Phi_{i-1} = 2$**

Back to Fibonacci Heaps

- Worst-case cost of a single delete-min or decrease-key operation is $\Omega(n)$
- Can we prove a small worst-case amortized cost for delete-min and decrease-key operations?

Remark:

- Data structure that allows operations O_1, \dots, O_k
- We say that operation O_p has amortized cost a_p if for every execution the total time is

$$T \leq \sum_{p=1}^k n_p \cdot a_p ,$$

where n_p is the number of operations of type O_p

Amortized Cost of Fibonacci Heaps

- Initialize-heap, is-empty, get-min, insert, and merge have **worst-case cost $O(1)$**
- Delete-min has **amortized cost $O(\log n)$**
- Decrease-key has **amortized cost $O(1)$**
- Starting with an empty heap, any sequence of n operations with at most n_d delete-min operations has total cost (time)

$$T = O(n + n_d \log n).$$

- We will now need the marks...
- Cost for Dijkstra: $O(|E| + |V| \log |V|)$

Fibonacci Heaps: Marks

Cycle of a node:

1. Node v is removed from root list and linked to a node
 $v.mark = false$
2. Child node u of v is cut and added to root list
 $v.mark = true$
3. Second child of v is cut
node v is cut as well and moved to root list

The boolean value $v.mark$ indicates whether node v has lost a child since the last time v was made the child of another node.

Potential Function

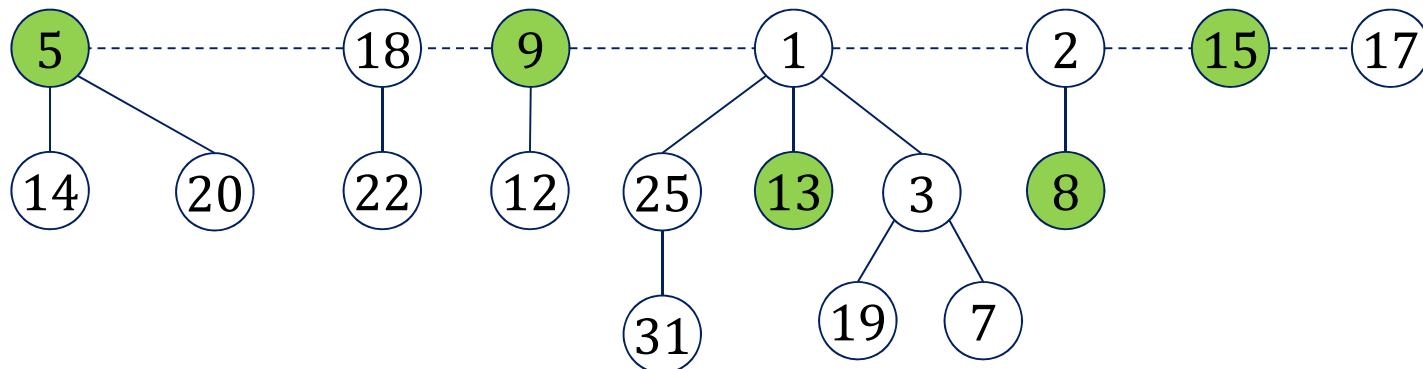
System state characterized by two parameters:

- **R** : number of trees (length of $H.rootlist$)
- **M** : number of marked nodes that are not in the root list

Potential function:

$$\Phi := R + 2M$$

Example:



- $R = 7, M = 2 \rightarrow \Phi = 11$

Actual Time of Operations

- Operations: ***initialize-heap, is-empty, insert, get-min, merge***

actual time: $O(1)$

- Normalize unit time such that

$$t_{init}, t_{is-empty}, t_{insert}, t_{get-min}, t_{merge} \leq 1$$

- Operation ***delete-min***:

- Actual time: $O(\text{length of } H.\text{rootlist} + D(n))$

- Normalize unit time such that

$$t_{del-min} \leq D(n) + \text{length of } H.\text{rootlist}$$

- Operation ***decrease-key***:

- Actual time: $O(\text{length of path to next unmarked ancestor})$

- Normalize unit time such that

$$t_{decr-key} \leq \text{length of path to next unmarked ancestor}$$

Amortized Times

Assume operation i is of type:

- **initialize-heap:**
 - actual time: $t_i \leq 1$, potential: $\Phi_{i-1} = \Phi_i = 0$
 - amortized time: $a_i = t_i + \Phi_i - \Phi_{i-1} \leq 1$
- **is-empty, get-min:**
 - actual time: $t_i \leq 1$, potential: $\Phi_i = \Phi_{i-1}$ (heap doesn't change)
 - amortized time: $a_i = t_i + \Phi_i - \Phi_{i-1} \leq 1$
- **merge:**
 - Actual time: $t_i \leq 1$
 - combined potential of both heaps: $\Phi_i = \Phi_{i-1}$
 - amortized time: $a_i = t_i + \Phi_i - \Phi_{i-1} \leq 1$

Amortized Time of Insert

Assume that operation i is an *insert* operation:

- **Actual time:** $t_i \leq 1$
- **Potential function:**
 - M remains unchanged (no nodes are marked or unmarked, no marked nodes are moved to the root list)
 - R grows by 1 (one element is added to the root list)

$$M_i = M_{i-1}, \quad R_i = R_{i-1} + 1$$
$$\Phi_i = \Phi_{i-1} + 1$$

- **Amortized time:**

$$a_i = t_i + \Phi_i - \Phi_{i-1} \leq 2$$

Amortized Time of Delete-Min

Assume that operation i is a *delete-min* operation:

Actual time: $t_i \leq D(n) + |H.rootlist|$

Potential function $\Phi = R + 2M$:

- R : changes from $H.rootlist$ to at most $D(n)$
- M : (# of marked nodes that are not in the root list)
 - no new marks
 - if node v is moved away from root list, $v.mark$ is set to false
→ value of M does not increase!

$$M_i \leq M_{i-1}, \quad R_i \leq R_{i-1} + D(n) - |H.rootlist|$$
$$\Phi_i \leq \Phi_{i-1} + D(n) - |H.rootlist|$$

Amortized Time:

$$a_i = t_i + \Phi_i - \Phi_{i-1} \leq 2D(n)$$

Amortized Time of Decrease-Key

Assume that operation i is a *decrease-key* operation at node u :

Actual time: $t_i \leq$ length of path to next unmarked ancestor v

Potential function $\Phi = R + 2M$:

- Assume, node u and nodes u_1, \dots, u_k are moved to root list
 - u_1, \dots, u_k are marked and moved to root list, v . mark is set to true
- $\geq k$ marked nodes go to root list, ≤ 1 node gets newly marked
- R grows by $\leq k + 1$, M grows by 1 and is decreased by $\geq k$


$$R_i \leq R_{i-1} + k + 1, \quad M_i \leq M_{i-1} + 1 - k$$

$$\Phi_i \leq \Phi_{i-1} + (k + 1) - 2(k - 1) = \Phi_{i-1} + 3 - k$$

Amortized time:

$$a_i = t_i + \Phi_i - \Phi_{i-1} \leq k + 1 + 3 - k = 4$$

Complexities Fibonacci Heap

- Initialize-Heap: $O(1)$
 - Is-Empty: $O(1)$
 - Insert: $O(1)$
 - Get-Min: $O(1)$
 - Delete-Min: $O(D(n))$
 - Decrease-Key: $O(1)$
 - Merge (heaps of size m and $n, m \leq n$): $O(1)$
 - How large can $D(n)$ get?
- amortized**
- 

Rank of Children

Lemma:

Consider a node v of rank k and let u_1, \dots, u_k be the children of v in the order in which they were linked to v . Then,

$$\mathit{rank}(u_i) \geq i - 2.$$

Proof:

Size of Trees

Fibonacci Numbers:

$$F_0 = 0, \quad F_1 = 1, \quad \forall k \geq 2: F_k = F_{k-1} + F_{k-2}$$

Lemma:

In a Fibonacci heap, the size of the sub-tree of a node v with rank k is at least F_{k+2} .

Proof:

- S_k : minimum size of the sub-tree of a node of rank k

Size of Trees



$$S_0 = 1, \quad S_1 = 2, \quad \forall k \geq 2: S_k \geq 2 + \sum_{i=0}^{k-2} S_i$$

- Claim about Fibonacci numbers:

$$\forall k \geq 0: F_{k+2} = 1 + \sum_{i=0}^k F_i$$

Size of Trees



$$S_0 = 1, S_1 = 2, \forall k \geq 2: S_k \geq 2 + \sum_{i=0}^{k-2} S_i, \quad F_{k+2} = 1 + \sum_{i=0}^k F_i$$

- Claim of lemma: $S_k \geq F_{k+2}$

Size of Trees

Lemma:

In a Fibonacci heap, the size of the sub-tree of a node v with rank k is at least F_{k+2} .

Theorem:

The maximum rank of a node in a Fibonacci heap of size n is at most

$$D(n) = O(\log n).$$

Proof:

- The Fibonacci numbers grow exponentially:

$$F_k = \frac{1}{\sqrt{5}} \cdot \left(\left(\frac{1 + \sqrt{5}}{2} \right)^k - \left(\frac{1 - \sqrt{5}}{2} \right)^k \right)$$

- For $D(n) \geq k$, we need $n \geq F_{k+2}$ nodes.

Summary: Binomial and Fibonacci Heaps



	Binomial Heap	Fibonacci Heap
<i>initialize</i>	$O(1)$	$O(1)$
<i>insert</i>	$O(\log n)$	$O(1)$
<i>get-min</i>	$O(1)$	$O(1)$
<i>delete-min</i>	$O(\log n)$	$O(\log n)$ *
<i>decrease-key</i>	$O(\log n)$	$O(1)$ *
<i>merge</i>	$O(\log n)$	$O(1)$
<i>is-empty</i>	$O(1)$	$O(1)$

* amortized time

Minimum Spanning Trees

Prim Algorithm:

1. Start with any node v (v is the initial component)
2. In each step:
Grow the current component by adding the minimum weight edge e connecting the current component with any other node

Kruskal Algorithm:

1. Start with an empty edge set
2. In each step:
Add minimum weight edge e such that e does not close a cycle

Implementation of Prim Algorithm

Start at node s , very similar to Dijkstra's algorithm:

1. Initialize $d(s) = 0$ and $d(v) = \infty$ for all $v \neq s$
2. All nodes $s \geq v$ are unmarked
3. Get unmarked node u which minimizes $d(u)$:
4. For all $e = \{u, v\} \in E$, $d(v) = \min\{d(v), w(e)\}$
5. mark node u
6. Until all nodes are marked

Implementation of Prim Algorithm

Implementation with Fibonacci heap:

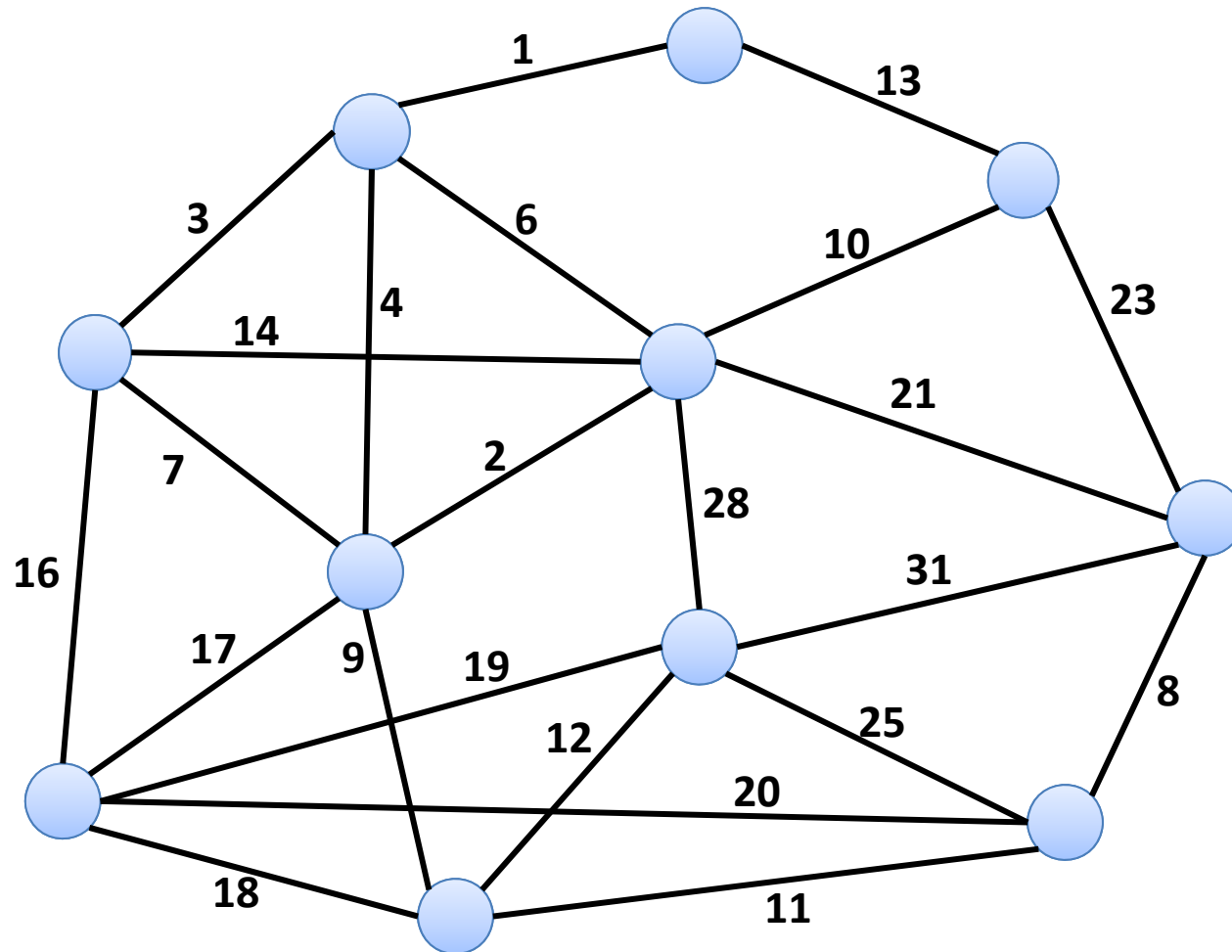
- Analysis identical to the analysis of Dijkstra's algorithm:

$O(n)$ insert and delete-min operations

$O(m)$ decrease-key operations

- Running time: **$O(m + n \log n)$**

Kruskal Algorithm



1. Start with an empty edge set
2. In each step: Add minimum weight edge e such that e does not close a cycle

Implementation of Kruskal Algorithm



1. Go through edges in order of increasing weights

2. For each edge e :

if e does not close a cycle then

add e to the current solution

Union-Find Data Structure

Also known as **Disjoint-Set Data Structure...**

Manages partition of a set of elements

- set of disjoint sets

Operations:

- **make_set(x):** create a new set that only contains element x
- **find(x):** return the set containing x
- **union(x, y):** merge the two sets containing x and y

Implementation of Kruskal Algorithm

1. Initialization:
For each node v : $\text{make_set}(v)$
2. Go through edges in order of increasing weights:
Sort edges by edge weight
3. For each edge $e = \{u, v\}$:
if $\text{find}(u) \neq \text{find}(v)$ then
 add e to the current solution
 $\text{union}(u, v)$

Managing Connected Components

- Union-find data structure can be used more generally to manage the connected components of a graph
 - ... if edges are added incrementally
- **make_set(v)** for every node v
- **find(v)** returns component containing v
- **union(u, v)** merges the components of u and v
(when an edge is added between the components)
- Can also be used to manage biconnected components

Basic Implementation Properties

Representation of sets:

- Every set S of the partition is identified with a **representative**, by one of its members $x \in S$

Operations:

- **make_set(x)**: x is the representative of the new set $\{x\}$
- **find(x)**: return representative of set S_x containing x
- **union(x, y)**: unites the sets S_x and S_y containing x and y and returns the new representative of $S_x \cup S_y$

Observations

Throughout the discussion of union-find:

- n : total number of `make_set` operations
- m : total number of operations (`make_set`, `find`, and `union`)

Clearly:

- $m \geq n$
- There are **at most $n - 1$ union** operations

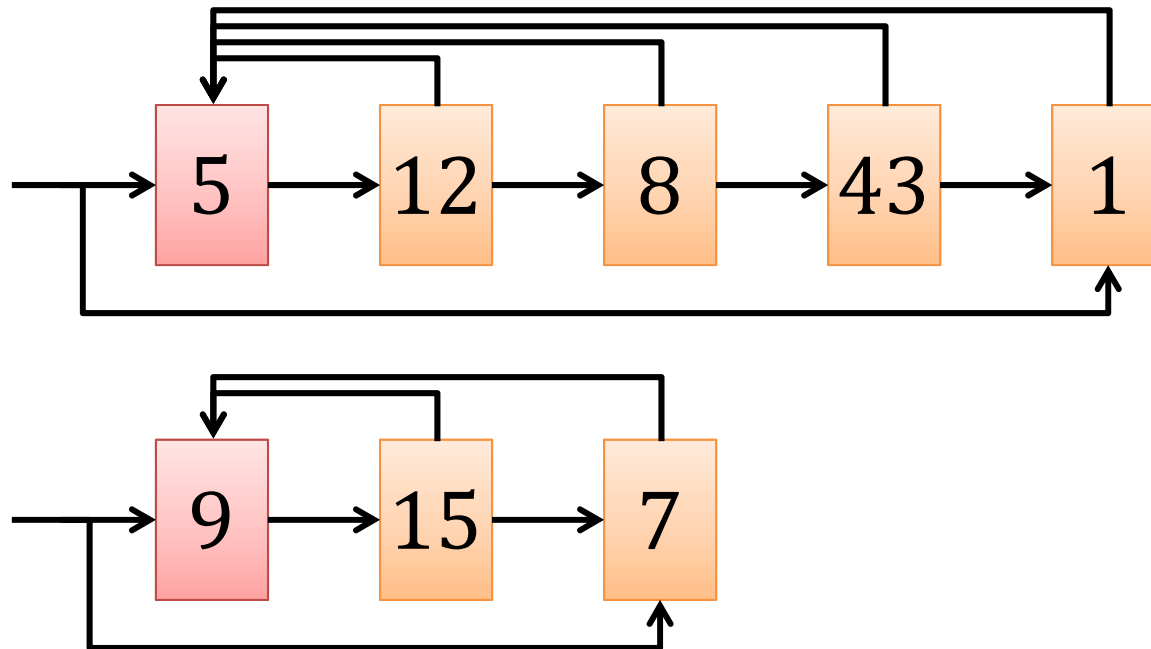
Remark:

- We assume that the n `make_set` operations are the first n operations
 - Does not really matter...

Linked List Implementation

Each set is implemented as a linked list:

- representative: first list element (all nodes point to first elem.)
in addition: pointer to first and last element



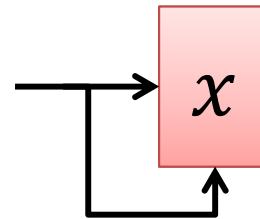
- sets: $\{1,5,8,12,43\}$, $\{7,9,15\}$; representatives: 5, 9

Linked List Implementation

make_set(x):

- Create list with one element:

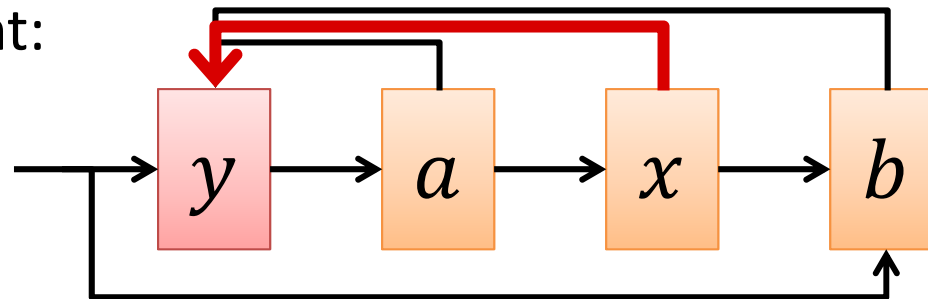
time: $O(1)$



find(x):

- Return first list element:

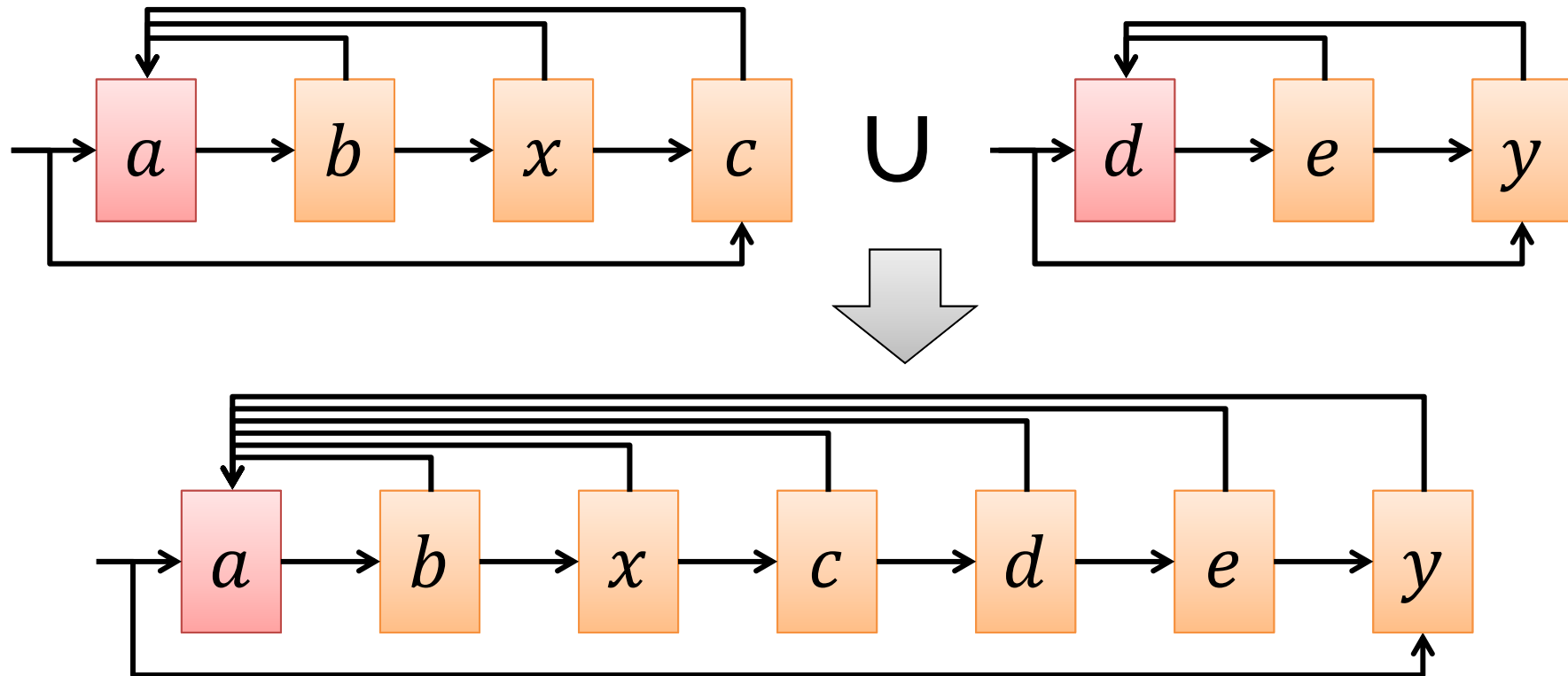
time: $O(1)$



Linked List Implementation

union(x, y):

- Append list of y to list of x :



Time: $O(\text{length of list of } y)$

Cost of Union (Linked List Implementation)



Total cost for $n - 1$ union operations can be $\Theta(n^2)$:

- $\text{make_set}(x_1), \text{make_set}(x_2), \dots, \text{make_set}(x_n),$
 $\text{union}(x_{n-1}, x_n), \text{union}(x_{n-2}, x_{n-1}), \dots, \text{union}(x_1, x_2)$

Weighted-Union Heuristic

- In a bad execution, **average cost per union** can be $\Theta(n)$
- Problem: The longer list is always appended to the shorter one

Idea:

- In each union operation, append shorter list to longer one!

Cost for union of sets S_x and S_y : $O(\min\{|S_x|, |S_y|\})$

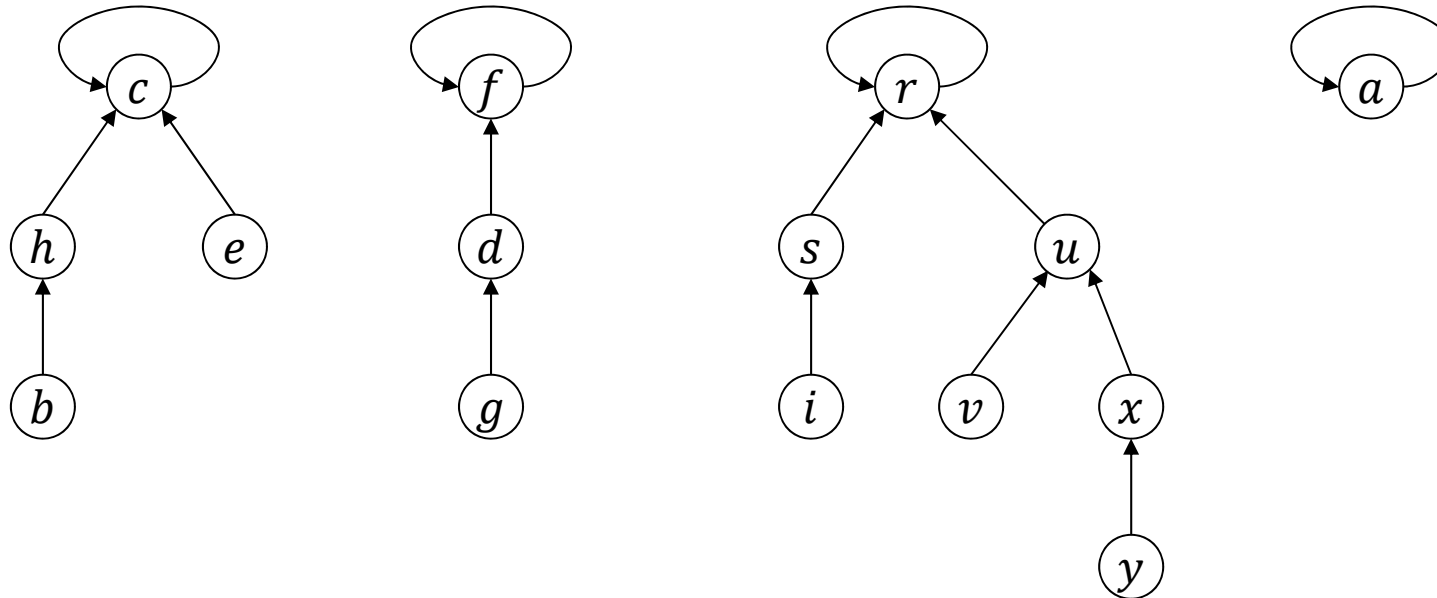
Theorem: The overall cost of m operations of which at most n are `make_set` operations is **$O(m + n \log n)$** .

Weighted-Union Heuristic

Theorem: The overall cost of m operations of which at most n are `make_set` operations is $O(m + n \log n)$.

Proof:

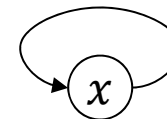
Disjoint-Set Forests



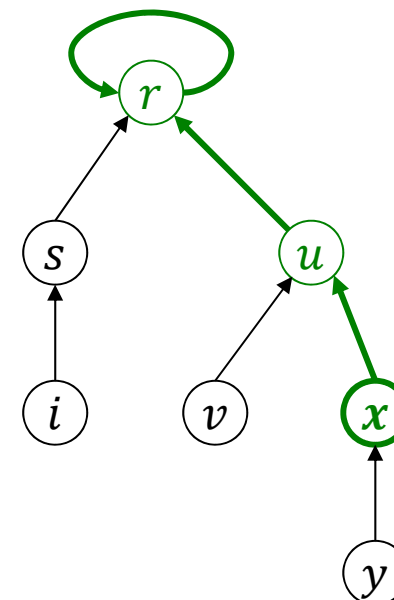
- Represent each set by a tree
- Representative of a set is the root of the tree

Disjoint-Set Forests

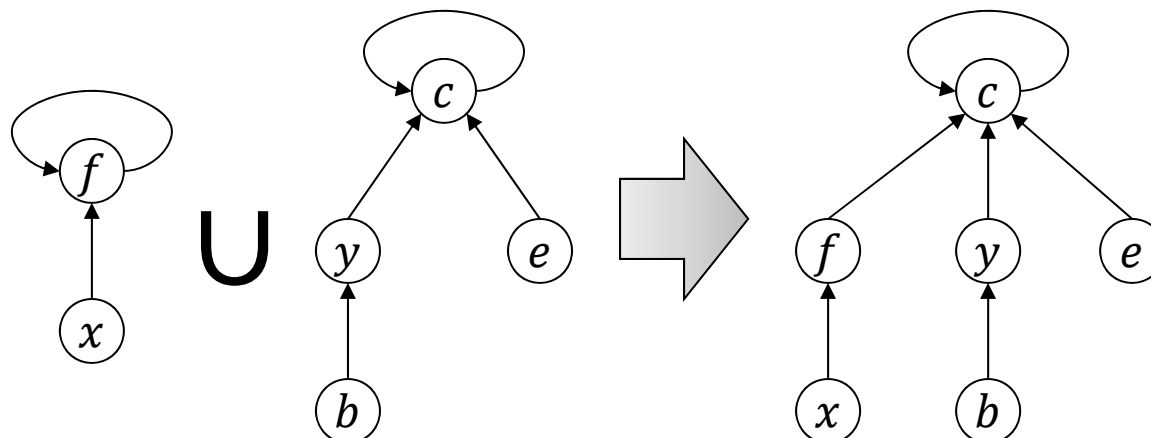
make_set(x): create new one-node tree



find(x): follow parent point to root
(parent pointer to itself)



union(x, y): attach tree of x to tree of y



Bad Sequence

Bad sequence leads to tree(s) of depth $\Theta(n)$

- $\text{make_set}(x_1), \text{make_set}(x_2), \dots, \text{make_set}(x_n),$
 $\text{union}(x_1, x_2), \text{union}(x_1, x_3), \dots, \text{union}(x_1, x_n)$

Union-By-Size Heuristic

Union of sets S_1 and S_2 :

- Root of trees representing S_1 and S_2 : r_1 and r_2
- W.l.o.g., assume that $|S_1| \geq |S_2|$
- **Root of $S_1 \cup S_2$: r_1** (r_2 is attached to r_1 as a new child)

Theorem: If the union-by-size heuristic is used, the **worst-case cost of a find-operation is $O(\log n)$**

Proof:

Similar Strategy: **union-by-rank**

- rank: essentially the depth of a tree

Union-Find Algorithms

Recall: m operations, n of the operations are make_set-operations

Linked List with Weighted Union Heuristic:

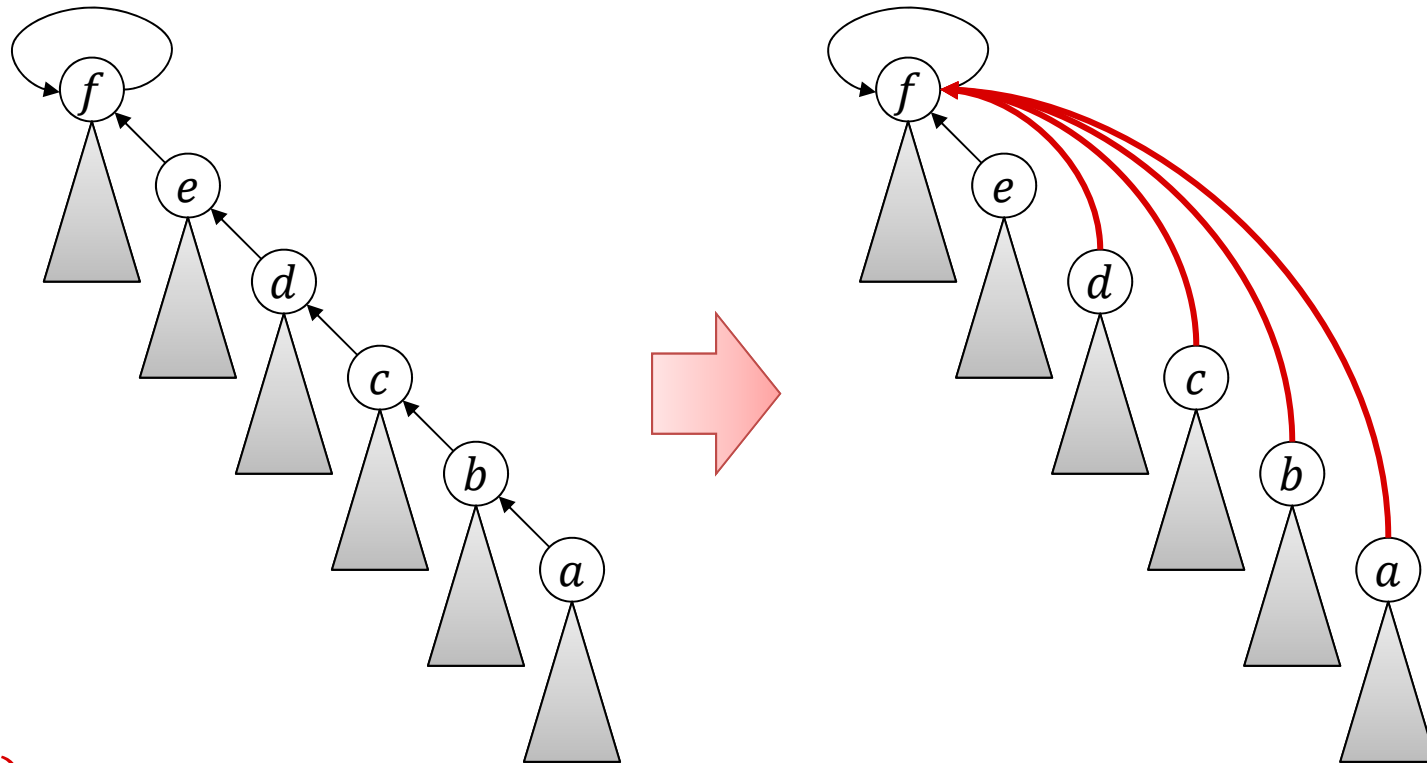
- make_set: **worst-case** cost $O(1)$
- find : **worst-case** cost $O(1)$
- union : **amortized** worst-case cost $O(\log n)$

Disjoint-Set Forest with Union-By-Size Heuristic:

- make_set: **worst-case** cost $O(1)$
- find : **worst-case** cost $O(\log n)$
- union : **worst-case** cost $O(\log n)$

Can we make this faster?

Path Compression During Find Operation



find(a):

1. **if** $a \neq a.parent$ **then**
2. $a.parent := find(a.parent)$
3. **return** $a.parent$

Complexity With Path Compression

When using only path compression (without union-by-rank):

m : total number of operations

- f of which are find-operations
- n of which are make_set-operations
→ at most $n - 1$ are union-operations

Total cost: $O\left(n + f \cdot \left\lceil \log_{2+f/n} n \right\rceil\right) = O\left(m + f \cdot \log_{2+m/n} n\right)$

Union-By-Size and Path Compression



Theorem:

Using the combined union-by-rank and path compression heuristic, the running time of m disjoint-set (union-find) operations on n elements (at most n make_set-operations) is

$$\Theta(m \cdot \alpha(m, n)),$$

Where $\alpha(m, n)$ is the inverse of the Ackermann function.

Ackermann Function and its Inverse

Ackermann Function:

For $k, \ell \geq 1$,

$$A(k, \ell) := \begin{cases} 2^\ell, & \text{if } k = 1, \ell \geq 1 \\ A(k - 1, 2), & \text{if } k > 1, \ell = 1 \\ A(k - 1, A(k, \ell - 1)), & \text{if } k > 1, \ell > 1 \end{cases}$$

Inverse of Ackermann Function:

$$\alpha(m, n) := \min\{k \geq 1 \mid A(k, \lfloor m/n \rfloor) > \log_2 n\}$$

Inverse of Ackermann Function

- $\alpha(m, n) := \min\{k \geq 1 \mid A(k, \lfloor m/n \rfloor) > \log_2 n\}$
 $m \geq n \Rightarrow A(k, \lfloor m/n \rfloor) \geq A(k, 1) \Rightarrow \alpha(m, n) \leq \min\{k \geq 1 \mid A(k, 1) > \log n\}$
- $A(1, \ell) = 2^\ell, \quad A(k, 1) = A(k - 1, 2),$
 $A(k, \ell) = A(k - 1, A(k, \ell - 1))$