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Sometimes we also have

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



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- 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 \text{key} \leftarrow \infty;
 6: h_v \leftarrow S.insert(v);
 7: s. \text{key} \leftarrow 0; S. \text{insert}(s);
 8: while S.is-empty() = false do
 9:
     v \leftarrow S. \mathsf{delete\text{-}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. \text{key} \leftarrow v. \text{key} + d(v, x);
```

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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;
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 7: s. \text{key} \leftarrow 0; S. \text{insert}(s);
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                      x. key \leftarrow d(v, x);
13:
14:
                      x. pred \leftarrow v:
```



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Analysis of Dijkstra and Prim

Both algorithms require:

- 1 build() operation
- ightharpoonup |V| insert() operations
- ▶ |V| delete-min() operations
- ightharpoonup |V| is-empty() operations
- ▶ |*E*| decrease-key() operations

Analysis of Dijkstra and Prim

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How good a running time can we obtain?

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

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

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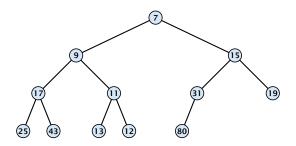
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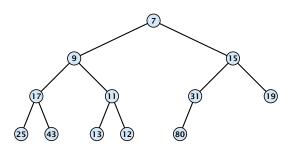
Fibonacci heaps only give an amortized guarantee.

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

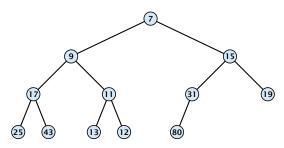
Using Fibonacci Heaps, Prim and Dijkstra run in time $\mathcal{O}(|V|\log|V|+|E|)$.



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



- 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:

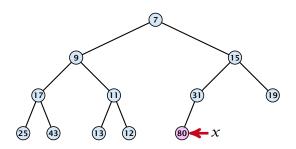
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Binary Heaps

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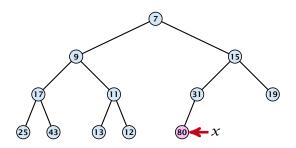
- **minimum():** return the root-element. Time $\mathcal{O}(1)$.
- **is-empty**(): check whether root-pointer is null. Time O(1).

Maintain a pointer to the last element x.



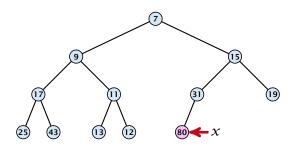
Maintain a pointer to the last element x.

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



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



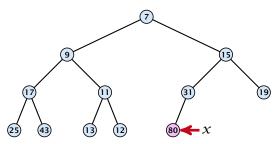
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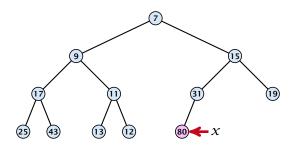
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go up until the last edge used was a right edge. go left; go right until you reach a leaf

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

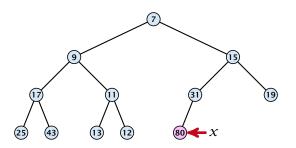


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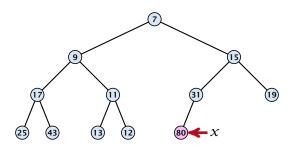
Maintain a pointer to the last element x.

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We can compute the successor of x (last element when an element is inserted) in time $\mathcal{O}(\log n)$. go up until the last edge used was a left edge. go right; go left until you reach a null-pointer.

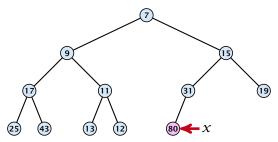


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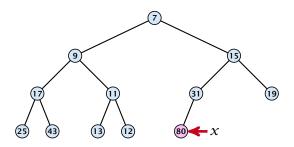
go up until the last edge used was a left edge. go right; go left until you reach a null-pointer.

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



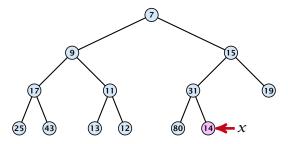
Insert

1. Insert element at successor of x.



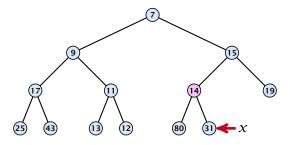
Insert

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



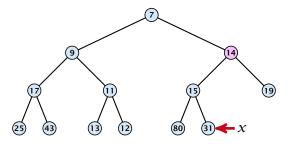
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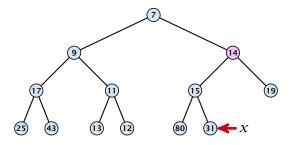
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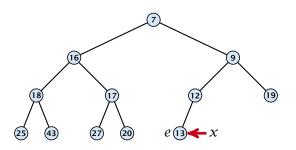
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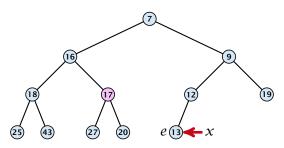


Note that an exchange can either be done by moving the data or by changing pointers. The latter method leads to an addressable priority queue.

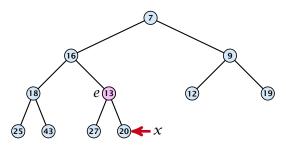
1. Exchange the element to be deleted with the element e pointed to by x.



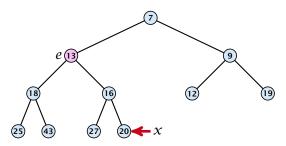
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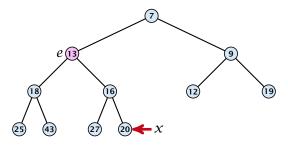
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- Exchange the element to be deleted with the element e pointed to by x.
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At its new position e may either travel up or down in the tree (but not both directions).

Operations:

- **minimum():** return the root-element. Time O(1).
- ▶ **is-empty():** check whether root-pointer is null. Time 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** (x_1, \ldots, x_n) : Insert elements arbitrarily; then do sift-down operations starting with the lowest layer in the tree. Time $\mathcal{O}(n)$.

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.
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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.

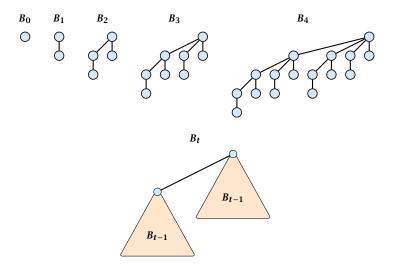
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Finding the successor of x is much easier than in the description on the previous slide. Simply increase or decrease x.

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	n	$n \log n$	$n \log n$	n
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

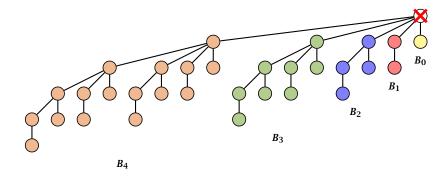
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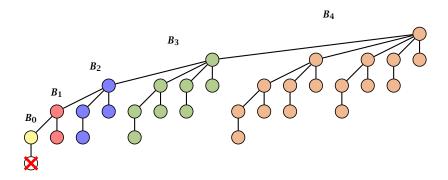
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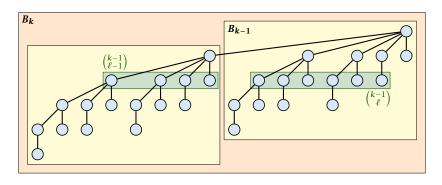
- \triangleright B_k has 2^k nodes.
- \triangleright B_k has height k.
- ▶ The root of B_k has degree k.
- ▶ B_k has $\binom{k}{\ell}$ nodes on level ℓ .
- ▶ Deleting the root of B_k gives trees $B_0, B_1, ..., B_{k-1}$.



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



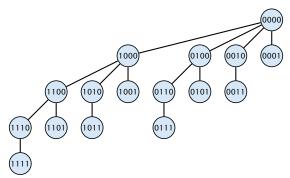
Deleting the leaf furthest from the root (in B_5) leaves a path that connects the roots of sub-trees B_4 , B_3 , B_2 , B_1 , and B_0 .

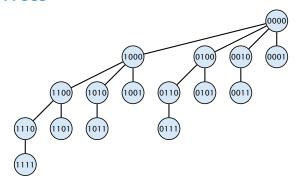


The number of nodes on level ℓ in tree B_k is therefore

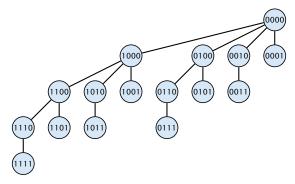
$$\begin{pmatrix} k-1\\\ell-1 \end{pmatrix} + \begin{pmatrix} k-1\\\ell \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} k\\\ell \end{pmatrix}$$





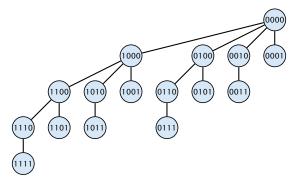


The binomial tree B_k is a sub-graph of the hypercube H_k .



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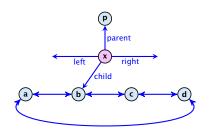
The parent of a node with label b_k, \ldots, b_1 is obtained by setting the least significant 1-bit to 0.

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



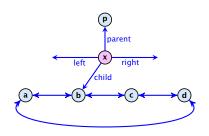
How do we implement trees with non-constant degree?

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



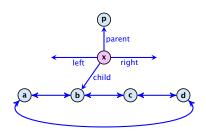
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- A child-pointer points to an arbitrary node within the list.



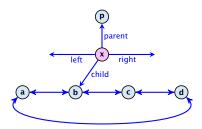
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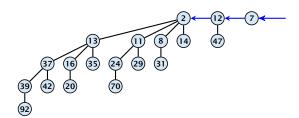
How do we implement trees with non-constant degree?

- 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).

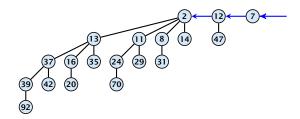


- Given a pointer to a node x we can splice out the sub-tree rooted at x in constant time.
- ▶ We can add a child-tree *T* to a node *x* in constant time if we are given a pointer to *x* and a pointer to the root of *T*.

Binomial Heap

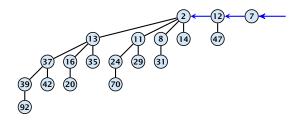


Binomial Heap



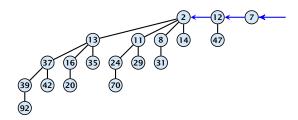
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Binomial Heap



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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 .

Given the number n of keys to be stored in a binomial heap we can deduce the binomial trees that will be contained in the collection.

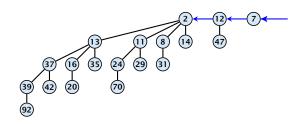
Given the number n of keys to be stored in a binomial heap we can deduce the binomial trees that will be contained in the collection.

Let B_{k_1} , B_{k_2} , B_{k_3} , $k_i < k_{i+1}$ denote the binomial trees in the collection and recall that every tree may be contained at most once.

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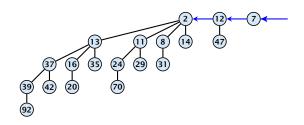
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Then $n=\sum_i 2^{k_i}$ must hold. But since the k_i are all distinct this means that the k_i define the non-zero bit-positions in the binary representation of n.

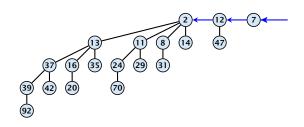


Properties of a heap with n keys:

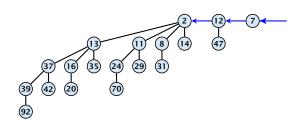
Let $n = b_d b_{d-1}, \dots, b_0$ denote binary representation of n.



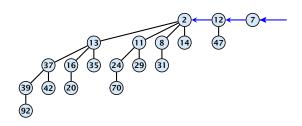
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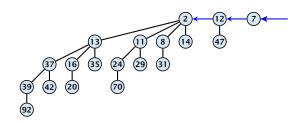
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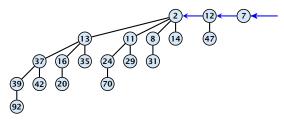
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- ▶ The height of the largest tree is at most $\lfloor \log n \rfloor$.
- The trees are stored in a single-linked list; ordered by dimension/size.



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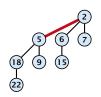
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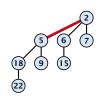
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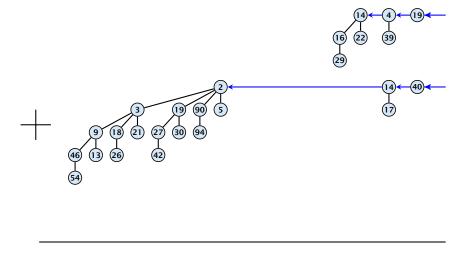
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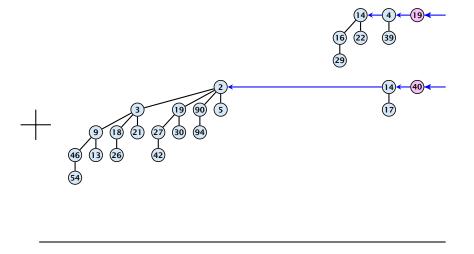
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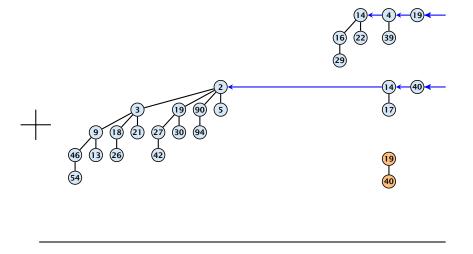
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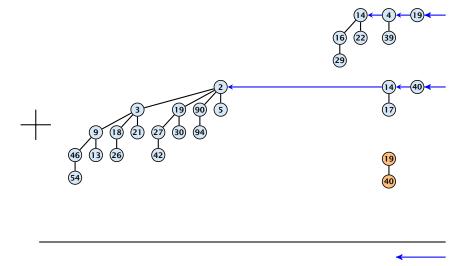
For more trees the technique is analogous to binary addition.

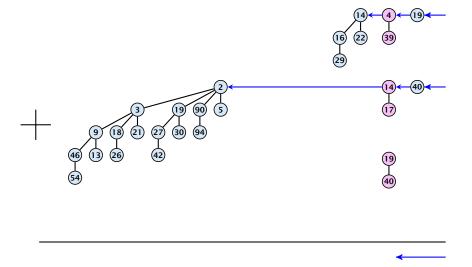


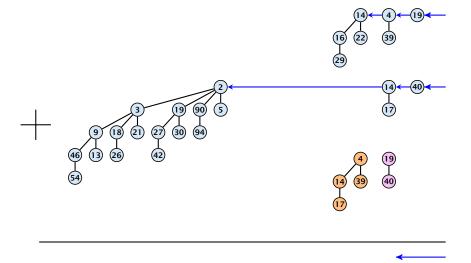


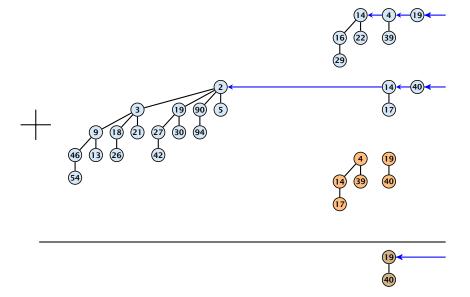


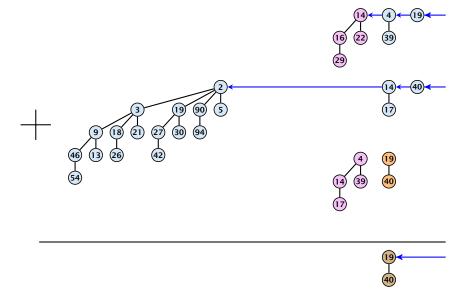


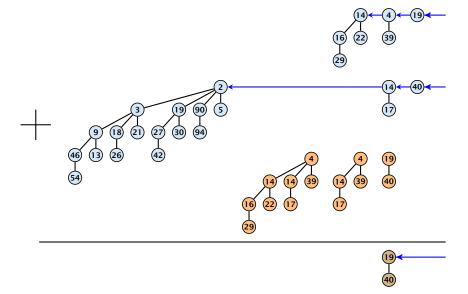


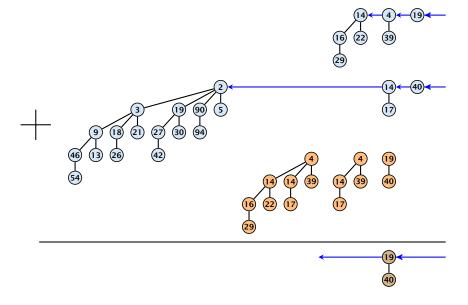


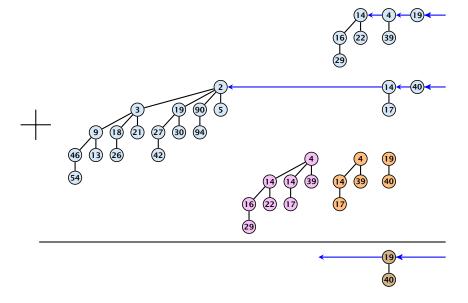


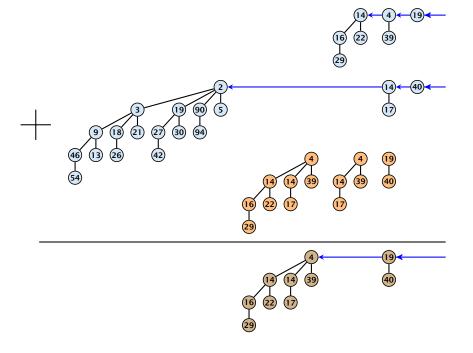


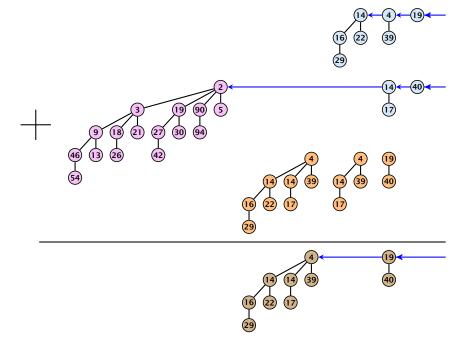


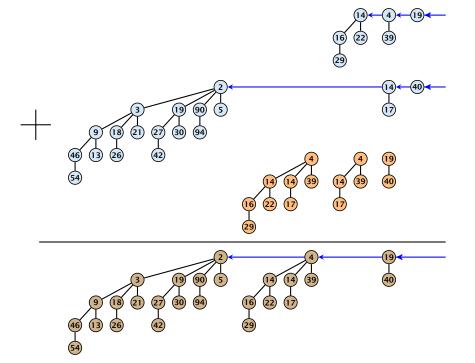


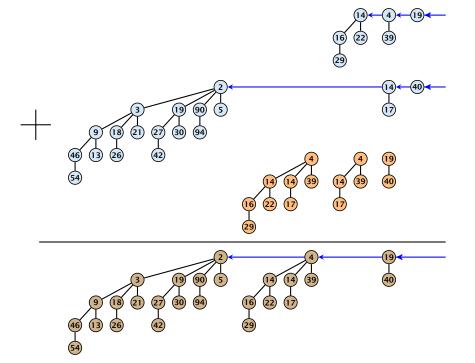












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- ▶ Time: $\mathcal{O}(\log n)$.

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- Find the minimum key-value among all roots.
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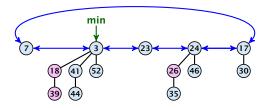
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Collection of trees that fulfill the heap property.

Structure is much more relaxed than binomial heaps.

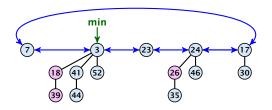


Additional implementation details:

- 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:

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



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

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).

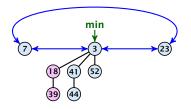
To make this more explicit we use \boldsymbol{c} to denote the amount of work that a unit of potential can pay for.

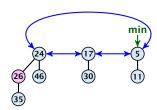
S. minimum()

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

S. merge(S')

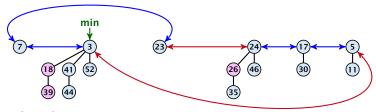
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- Adjust the min-pointer





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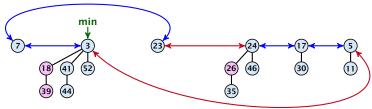


Running time:

Actual cost $\mathcal{O}(1)$.

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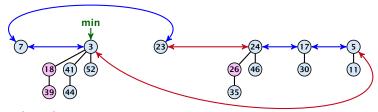


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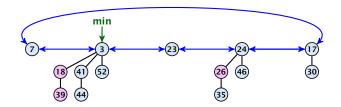


Running time:

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

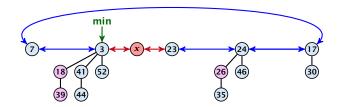
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- ► Insert *x* into the root-list.
- Update min-pointer, if necessary.



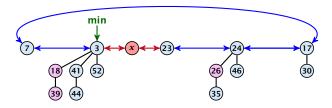
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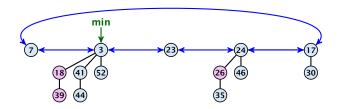
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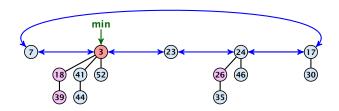
- ightharpoonup Actual cost $\mathcal{O}(1)$.
- ightharpoonup Change in potential is +1.
- ▶ Amortized cost is c + O(1) = O(1).



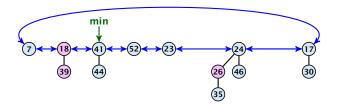


S. delete-min(x)

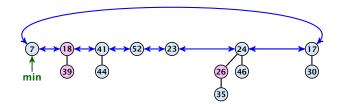
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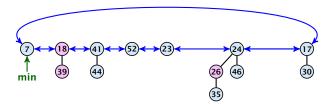


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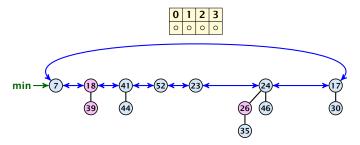
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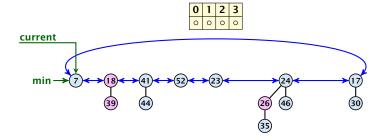


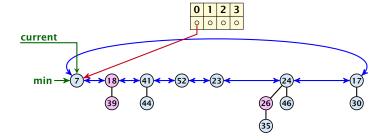
Consolidate root-list so that no roots have the same degree. Time $t\cdot\mathcal{O}(1)$ (see next slide).

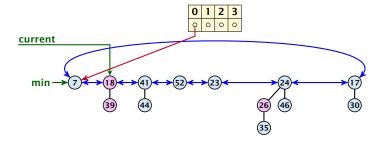
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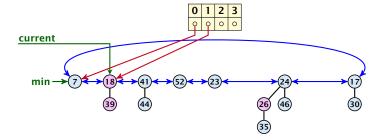


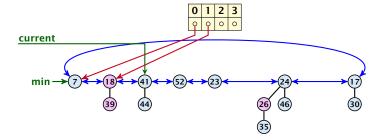
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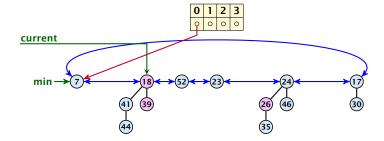


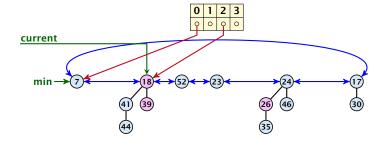


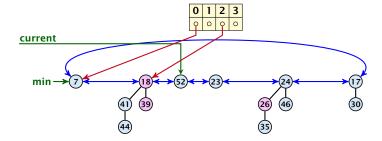


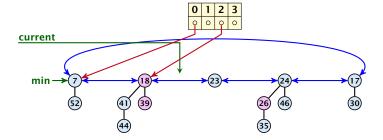


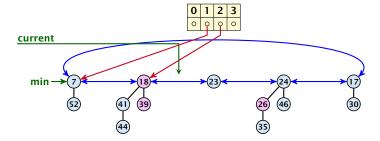


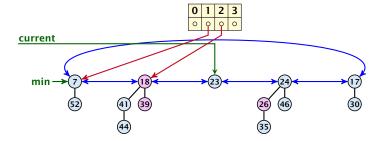


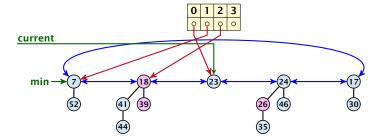


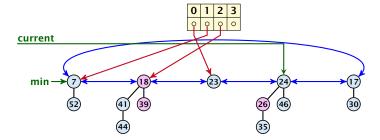


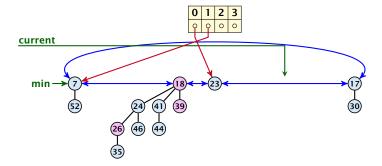


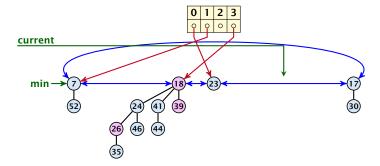


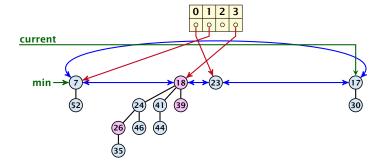


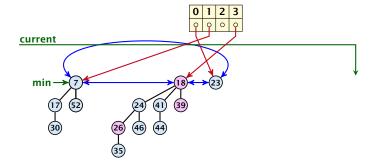


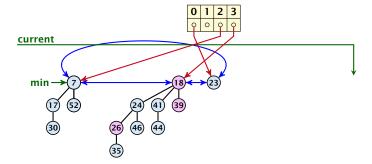


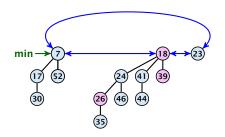












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 $\leq (c_1 + c)D_n + (c_1 - c)t + c$

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- Actual cost for a delete-min is at most $\mathcal{O}(1) \cdot (D_n + t)$. Hence, there exists c_1 s.t. actual cost is at most $c_1 \cdot (D_n + t)$.

- ▶ $t' \le D_n + 1$ as degrees are different after consolidating.
- ► 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

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

$$\leq (c_1 + c)D_n + (c_1 - c)t + c \leq 2c(D_n + 1)$$

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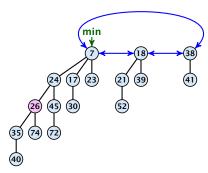
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for $c \ge c_1$.

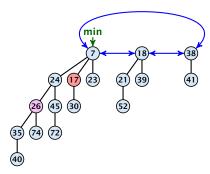
If the input trees of the consolidation procedure are binomial trees (for example only singleton vertices) then the output will be a set of distinct binomial trees, and, hence, the Fibonacci heap will be (more or less) a Binomial heap right after the consolidation.

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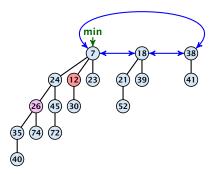
If we do not have delete or decrease-key operations then $D_n \leq \log n$.



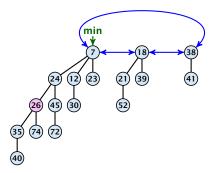
Case 1: decrease-key does not violate heap-property



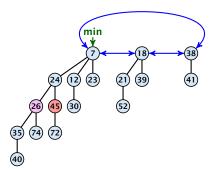
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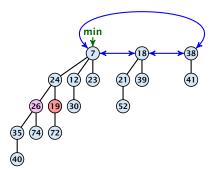
Case 1: decrease-key does not violate heap-property



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

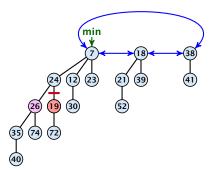
- Decrease key-value of element x reference by h.
- If the heap-property is violated, cut the parent edge of x, and make x into a root.
- Adjust min-pointers, if necessary.
- Mark the (previous) parent of x (unless it's a root).





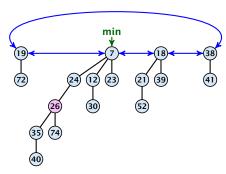
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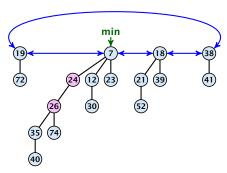
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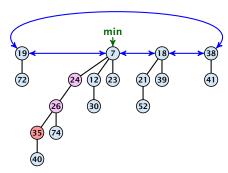
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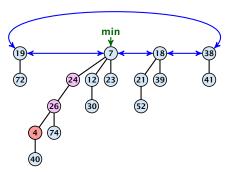
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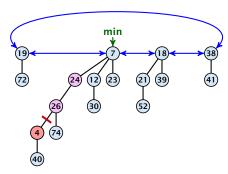
- ▶ Decrease key-value of element x reference by h.
- Let the parent edge of x, and make x into a root.
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- Continue cutting the parent until you arrive at an unmarked node.





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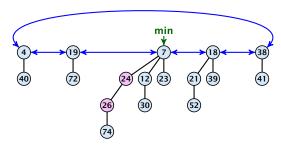


Case 3: heap-property is violated, and parent is marked

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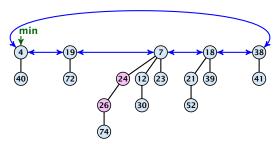


8.3 Fibonacci Heaps



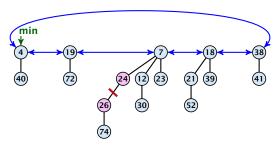
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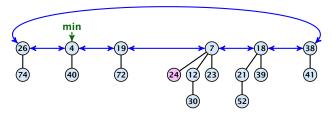
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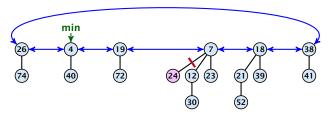
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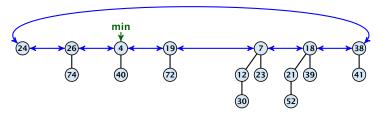
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- Decrease key-value of element x reference by h.
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- Execute the following:

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 $t' = t + \ell$, as every cut creates one new root.

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- $ightharpoonup t'=t+\ell$, as every cut creates one new root.
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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: $\mathcal{O}(D_n)$

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

Lemma 1

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

$$\operatorname{degree}(y_i) \geq \left\{ \begin{array}{ll} 0 & \textit{if } i = 1 \\ i - 2 & \textit{if } i > 1 \end{array} \right.$$

Proof

▶ When y_i was linked to x, at least $y_1, ..., y_{i-1}$ were already linked to x.

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$$= 2 + \sum_{i=2}^{k-2} s_i$$

Definition 2

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. $F_k \geq \phi^k$.
- **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:
$$1 = F_0 \ge \Phi^0 = 1$$

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

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

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

