

Amortized Analysis

Definition 32

A data structure with operations $\text{op}_1(), \dots, \text{op}_k()$ has amortized running times t_1, \dots, t_k for these operations if the following holds.

Suppose you are given a sequence of operations (starting with an empty data-structure) that operate on at most n elements, and let k_i denote the number of occurrences of $\text{op}_i()$ within this sequence. Then the actual running time must be at most $\sum_i k_i t_i(n)$.

Potential Method

Introduce a potential for the data structure.

- ▶ $\Phi(D_i)$ is the potential after the i -th operation.
- ▶ Amortized cost of the i -th operation is

$$\hat{c}_i = c_i + \Phi(D_i) - \Phi(D_{i-1}) .$$

- ▶ Show that $\Phi(D_i) \geq \Phi(D_0)$.

Then

$$\sum_{i=1}^k c_i \leq \sum_{i=1}^k c_i + \Phi(D_k) - \Phi(D_0) = \sum_{i=1}^k \hat{c}_i$$

This means the amortized costs can be used to derive a bound on the total cost.

Example: Stack

Stack

- ▶ $S.$ **push**()
- ▶ $S.$ **pop**()
- ▶ $S.$ **multipop**(k): removes k items from the stack. If the stack currently contains less than k items it empties the stack.

Actual cost:

- ▶ $S.$ **push**(): cost 1.
- ▶ $S.$ **pop**(): cost 1.
- ▶ $S.$ **multipop**(k): cost $\min\{\text{size}, k\}$.

Example: Stack

Use potential function $\Phi(S) = \text{number of elements on the stack}$.

Amortized cost:

- ▶ **$S.\text{push}()$** : cost

$$\hat{C}_{\text{push}} = C_{\text{push}} + \Delta\Phi = 1 + 1 \leq 2 .$$

- ▶ **$S.\text{pop}()$** : cost

$$\hat{C}_{\text{pop}} = C_{\text{pop}} + \Delta\Phi = 1 - 1 \leq 0 .$$

- ▶ **$S.\text{multipop}(k)$** : cost

$$\hat{C}_{\text{mp}} = C_{\text{mp}} + \Delta\Phi = \min\{\text{size}, k\} - \min\{\text{size}, k\} \leq 0 .$$

Note that the analysis becomes wrong if $\text{pop}()$ or $\text{multipop}()$ are called on an empty stack.

Example: Binary Counter

Incrementing a binary counter:

Consider a computational model where each bit-operation costs one time-unit.

Incrementing an n -bit binary counter may require to examine n -bits, and maybe change them.

Actual cost:

- ▶ Changing bit from 0 to 1: cost 1.
- ▶ Changing bit from 1 to 0: cost 1.
- ▶ Increment: cost is $k + 1$, where k is the number of consecutive ones in the least significant bit-positions (e.g, 001101 has $k = 1$).

Example: Binary Counter

Choose potential function $\Phi(x) = k$, where k denotes the number of ones in the binary representation of x .

Amortized cost:

- ▶ Changing bit from 0 to 1: cost

$$\hat{C}_{0 \rightarrow 1} = C_{0 \rightarrow 1} + \Delta\Phi = 1 + 1 \leq 2 .$$

- ▶ Changing bit from 1 to 0: cost 0.

$$\hat{C}_{1 \rightarrow 0} = C_{1 \rightarrow 0} + \Delta\Phi = 1 - 1 \leq 0 .$$

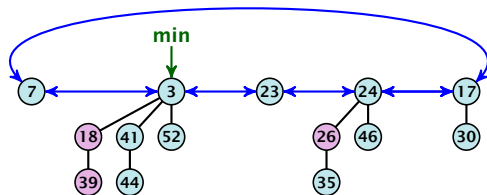
- ▶ Increment. Let k denotes the number of consecutive ones in the least significant bit-positions. An increment involves k (1 \rightarrow 0)-operations, and one (0 \rightarrow 1)-operation.

Hence, the amortized cost is $k\hat{C}_{1 \rightarrow 0} + \hat{C}_{0 \rightarrow 1} \leq 2$.

8.3 Fibonacci Heaps

Collection of trees that fulfill the heap property.

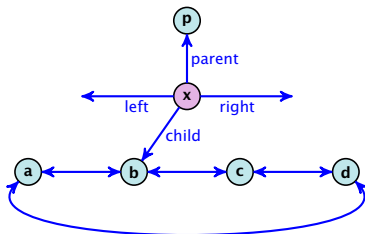
Structure is much more relaxed than binomial heaps.



8.3 Fibonacci Heaps

How do we implement trees with non-constant degree?

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



8.3 Fibonacci Heaps

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

8.3 Fibonacci Heaps

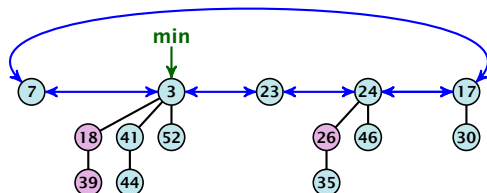
Additional implementation details:

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

8.3 Fibonacci Heaps

The potential function:

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



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

8.3 Fibonacci Heaps

We assume that one unit of potential can pay for a constant amount of work, where the constant is chosen “big enough” (to take care of the constants that occur).

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

8.3 Fibonacci Heaps

S. minimum()

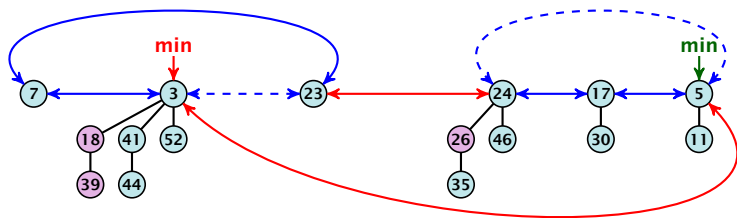
- ▶ Access through the min-pointer.
- ▶ Actual cost $\mathcal{O}(1)$.
- ▶ No change in potential.
- ▶ Amortized cost $\mathcal{O}(1)$.

8.3 Fibonacci Heaps

S . merge(S')

- ▶ Merge the root lists.
- ▶ Adjust the min-pointer

- In the figure below the dashed edges are replaced by red edges.
- The minimum of the left heap becomes the new minimum of the merged heap.



Running time:

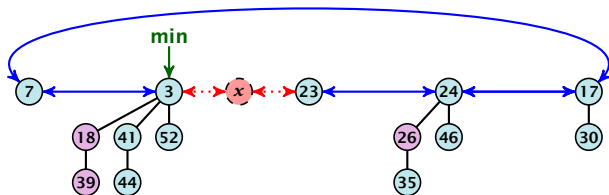
- ▶ Actual cost $\mathcal{O}(1)$.
- ▶ No change in potential.
- ▶ Hence, amortized cost is $\mathcal{O}(1)$.

8.3 Fibonacci Heaps

x is inserted next to the min-pointer as this is our entry point into the root-list.

S. insert(x)

- ▶ Create a new tree containing x .
- ▶ Insert x into the root-list.
- ▶ Update min-pointer, if necessary.



Running time:

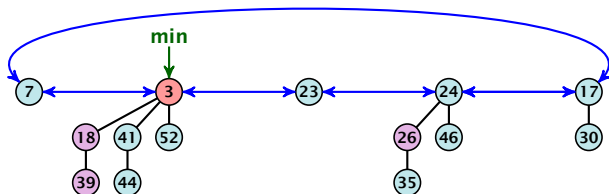
- ▶ Actual cost $\mathcal{O}(1)$.
- ▶ Change in potential is $+1$.
- ▶ Amortized cost is $c + \mathcal{O}(1) = \mathcal{O}(1)$.

8.3 Fibonacci Heaps

$D(\min)$ is the number of children of the node that stores the minimum.

S. delete-min(x)

- ▶ Delete minimum; add child-trees to heap; time: $D(\min) \cdot \mathcal{O}(1)$.
- ▶ Update min-pointer; time: $(t + D(\min)) \cdot \mathcal{O}(1)$.

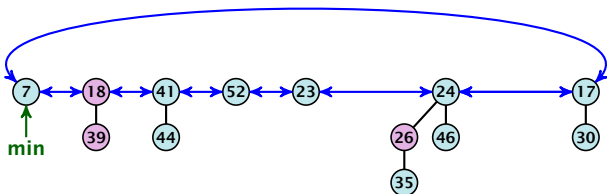


8.3 Fibonacci Heaps

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S. delete-min(x)

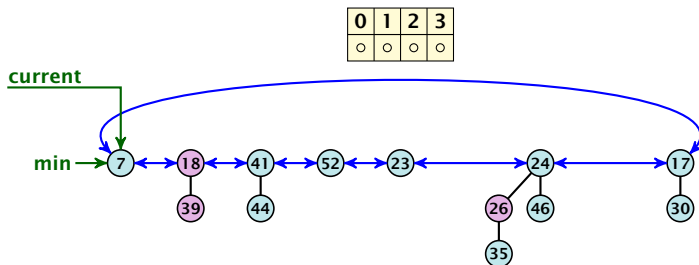
- ▶ Delete minimum; add child-trees to heap; time: $D(\min) \cdot \mathcal{O}(1)$.
- ▶ Update min-pointer; time: $(t + D(\min)) \cdot \mathcal{O}(1)$.



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

8.3 Fibonacci Heaps

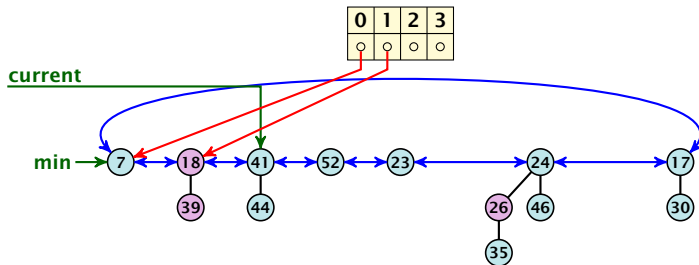
Consolidate:



During the consolidation we traverse the root list. Whenever we discover two trees that have the same degree we merge these trees. In order to efficiently check whether two trees have the same degree, we use an array that contains for every degree value d a pointer to a tree left of the current pointer whose root has degree d (if such a tree exist).

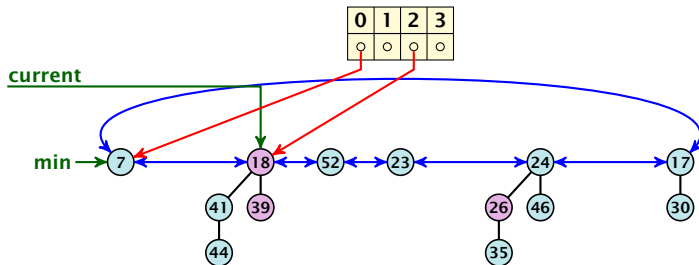
8.3 Fibonacci Heaps

Consolidate:



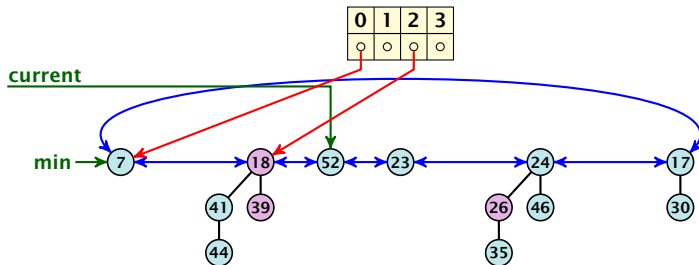
8.3 Fibonacci Heaps

Consolidate:



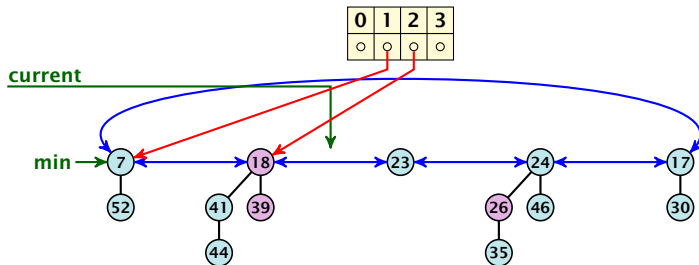
8.3 Fibonacci Heaps

Consolidate:



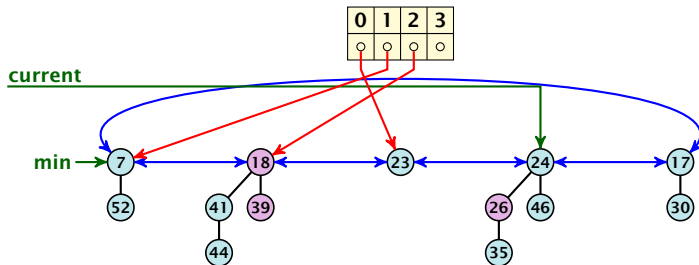
8.3 Fibonacci Heaps

Consolidate:



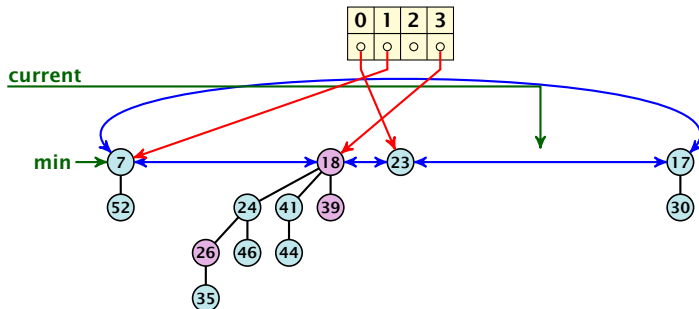
8.3 Fibonacci Heaps

Consolidate:



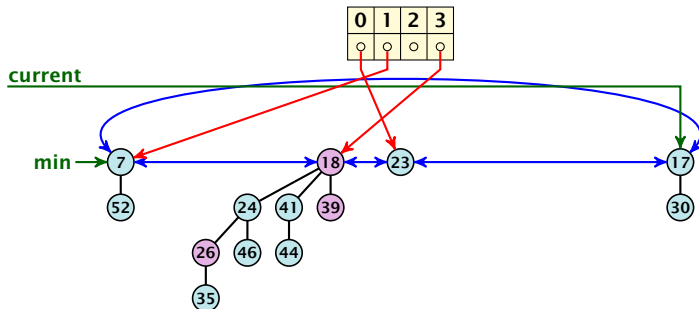
8.3 Fibonacci Heaps

Consolidate:



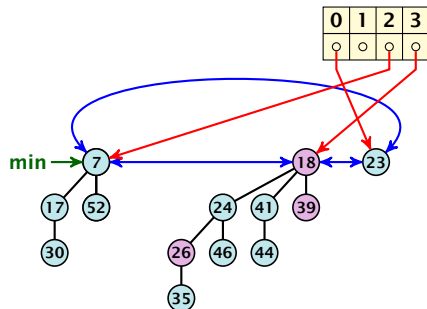
8.3 Fibonacci Heaps

Consolidate:



8.3 Fibonacci Heaps

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8.3 Fibonacci Heaps

t and t' denote the number of trees before and after the `delete-min()` operation, respectively.
 D_n is an upper bound on the degree (i.e., number of children) of a tree node.

Actual cost for `delete-min()`

- ▶ At most $D_n + t$ elements in root-list before consolidate.
- ▶ Actual cost for a `delete-min` is at most $\mathcal{O}(1) \cdot (D_n + t)$.
Hence, there exists c_1 s.t. actual cost is at most $c_1 \cdot (D_n + t)$.

Amortized cost for `delete-min()`

- ▶ $t' \leq D_n + 1$ 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

$$\begin{aligned}c_1 \cdot (D_n + t) - c \cdot (t - D_n - 1) \\ \leq (c_1 + c)D_n + (c_1 - c)t + c \leq 2c(D_n + 1) \leq \mathcal{O}(D_n)\end{aligned}$$

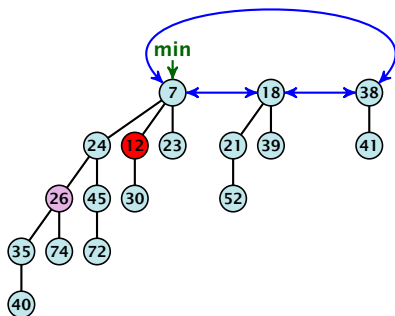
for $c \geq c_1$.

8.3 Fibonacci Heaps

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.

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

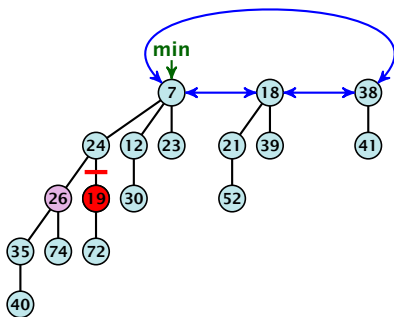
Fibonacci Heaps: decrease-key(handle h, v)



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

- ▶ Just decrease the key-value of element referenced by h . Nothing else to do.

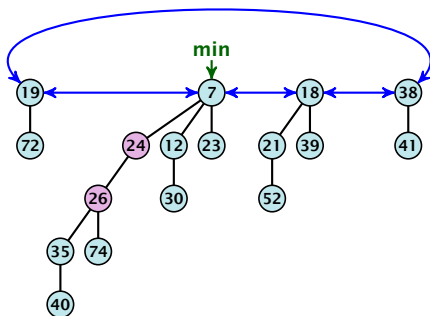
Fibonacci Heaps: decrease-key(handle h, v)



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 .

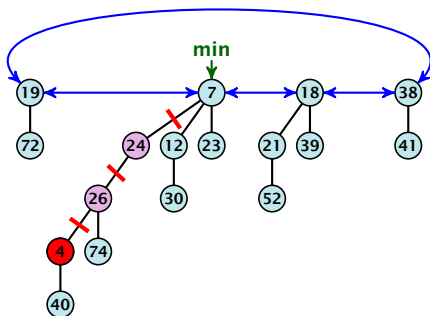
Fibonacci Heaps: decrease-key(handle h, v)



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

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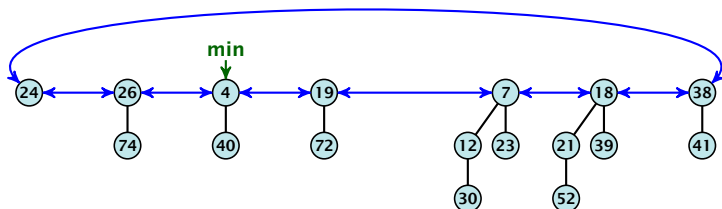
Fibonacci Heaps: decrease-key(handle h, v)



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

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

Fibonacci Heaps: decrease-key(handle h, v)



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

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

Fibonacci Heaps: decrease-key(handle h, v)

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

- ▶ Decrease key-value of element x reference by h .
- ▶ Cut the parent edge of x , and make x into a root.
- ▶ Adjust min-pointers, if necessary.
- ▶ Execute the following:

```
 $p \leftarrow \text{parent}[x];$   
while ( $p$  is marked)  
     $pp \leftarrow \text{parent}[p];$   
    cut of  $p$ ; make it into a root; unmark it;  
     $p \leftarrow pp;$   
if  $p$  is unmarked and not a root mark it;
```

Marking a node can be viewed as a first step towards becoming a root. The first time x loses a child it is marked; the second time it loses a child it is made into a root.

Fibonacci Heaps: decrease-key(handle h, v)

Actual cost:

- ▶ Constant cost for decreasing the value.
- ▶ Constant cost for each of ℓ cuts.
- ▶ Hence, cost is at most $c_2 \cdot (\ell + 1)$, for some constant c_2 .

Amortized cost:

- ▶ $t' = t + \ell$, as every cut creates one new root.
- ▶ $m' \leq m - (\ell - 1) + 1 = m - \ell + 2$, since all but the first cut marks a node; the last cut may mark a node.
- ▶ $\Delta\Phi \leq \ell + 2(-\ell + 2) = 4 - \ell$
- ▶ Amortized cost is at most

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

if $c \geq c_2$.

t and t' : number of trees before and after operation.
 m and m' : number of marked nodes before and after operation.

Delete node

H. delete(x):

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

Amortized cost: $\mathcal{O}(D(n))$

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

8.3 Fibonacci Heaps

Lemma 33

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

$$\text{degree}(y_i) \geq \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } i = 1 \\ i - 2 & \text{if } i \geq 2 \end{cases}$$

The marking process is very important for the proof of this lemma. It ensures that a node can have lost at most one child since the last time it became a non-root node. When losing a first child the node gets marked; when losing the second child it is cut from the parent and made into a root.

8.3 Fibonacci Heaps

Proof

- ▶ When y_i was linked to x , at least y_1, \dots, y_{i-1} were already linked to x .
- ▶ Hence, at this time $\text{degree}(x) \geq i - 1$, and therefore also $\text{degree}(y_i) \geq i - 1$ as the algorithm links nodes of equal degree only.
- ▶ Since, then y_i has lost at most one child.
- ▶ Therefore, $\text{degree}(y_i) \geq i - 2$.

8.3 Fibonacci Heaps

- ▶ Let s_k be the minimum possible size of a sub-tree rooted at a node of degree k that can occur in a Fibonacci heap.
- ▶ s_k monotonically increases with k
- ▶ $s_0 = 1$ and $s_1 = 2$.

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

$$\begin{aligned} s_k &= 2 + \sum_{i=2}^k \text{size}(y_i) \\ &\geq 2 + \sum_{i=2}^k s_{i-2} \\ &= 2 + \sum_{i=0}^{k-2} s_i \end{aligned}$$

8.3 Fibonacci Heaps

Definition 34

Consider the following non-standard Fibonacci type sequence:

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

Facts:

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

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