## Amortized Analysis

## Outline for Today

- Cartesian Trees Revisited
  - Why could we construct them in time O(n)?
- Amortized Analysis
  - Analyzing data structures over the long term.
- The Two-Stack Queue
  - A simple and elegant queue implementation.
- 2-3-4 Trees
  - A better analysis of 2-3-4 tree insertions and deletions.

#### **Cartesian Trees Revisited**

#### **Cartesian Trees**

- A *Cartesian tree* is a binary tree derived from an array and defined as follows:
  - The empty array has an empty Cartesian tree.
  - For a nonempty array, the root stores the index of the minimum value. Its left and right children are Cartesian trees for the subarrays to the left and right of the minimum.

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## The Runtime Analysis

- Adding an individual node to a Cartesian tree might take time O(n).
- However, the net time spent adding new nodes across the whole tree is O(n).
- Why is this?
  - Every node pushed at most once.
  - Every node popped at most once.
  - Work done is proportional to the number of pushes and pops.
  - Total runtime is O(*n*).

#### The Tradeoff

- Typically, we've analyzed data structures by bounding the worst-case runtime of each operation.
- Sometimes, all we care about is the total runtime of a sequence of *m* operations, not the cost of each individual operation.
- Trade worst-case runtime per operation for worst-case runtime overall.
- This is a fundamental technique in data structure design.

## The Goal

- Suppose we have a data structure and perform a series of operations *op*<sub>1</sub>, *op*<sub>2</sub>, ..., *op*<sub>m</sub>.
  - These operations might be the same operation, or they might be different.
- Let *t*(*op*<sub>*k*</sub>) denote the time required to perform operation *op*<sub>*k*</sub>.
- **Goal:** Bound the expression

$$T = \sum_{i=1}^{m} t(op_i)$$

• There are many ways to do this. We'll see three recurring techniques.

## Amortized Analysis

- An *amortized analysis* is a different way of bounding the runtime of a sequence of operations.
- Each operation *op*<sup>*i*</sup> really takes time *t*(*op*<sup>*i*</sup>).
- *Idea:* Assign to each operation *op<sub>i</sub>* a new cost *a(op<sub>i</sub>)*, called the *amortized cost*, such that

$$\sum_{i=1}^m t(op_i) \leq \sum_{i=1}^m a(op_i)$$

 If the values of *a(op<sub>i</sub>)* are chosen wisely, the second sum can be much easier to evaluate than the first.

# The Aggregate Method

• In the *aggregate method*, we directly evaluate

$$T = \sum_{i=1}^{m} t(op_i)$$

and then set  $a(op_i) = T / m$ .

- Assigns each operation the average of all the operation costs.
- The aggregate method says that the cost of a Cartesian tree insertion is amortized O(1).

## Amortized Analysis

- We will see two types of amortized analysis today:
  - The *banker's method* (also called the *accounting method*) works by placing "credits" on the data structure redeemable for units of work.
  - The *potential method* (also called the *physicist's method*) works by assigning a potential function to the data structure and factoring in changes to that potential to the overall runtime.
- All three techniques are useful at different times, so we'll see how to use all three today.

- In the *banker's method*, operations can place *credits* on the data structure or spend credits that have already been placed.
- Placing a credit somewhere takes time O(1).
- Credits may be removed from the data structure to pay for O(1) units of work.
- *Note:* the credits don't actually show up in the data structure. It's just an accounting trick.
- The amortized cost of an operation is

 $a(op_i) = t(op_i) + O(1) \cdot (added_i - removed_i)$ 

• If we never spend credits we don't have:

 $\sum_{i=1}^{m} a(op_i) = \sum_{i=1}^{m} (t(op_i) + O(1) \cdot (added_i - removed_i))$ 

$$= \sum_{i=1}^{m} t(op_i) + O(1) \sum_{i=1}^{m} (added_i - removed_i)$$

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} t(op_i) + O(1) \cdot netCredits$$

$$\geq \sum_{i=1}^{m} t(op_i)$$

m

• The sum of the amortized costs upperbounds the sum of the true costs.



Work done: 1 push Credits Added: \$1

Amortized Cost: 2

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Work done: 1 push, 1 pop Credits Removed: \$1 Credits Added: \$1

Amortized Cost: 2



Work done: 1 push Credits Added: \$1

Amortized Cost: 2







• Using the banker's method, the cost of an insertion is

 $t(op) + O(1) \cdot (added_i - removed_i)$ = 1 + k + O(1) \cdot (1 - k) = 1 + k + 1 - k = 2 = O(1)

- Each insertion has amortized cost O(1).
- Any *n* insertions will take time O(n).

#### Intuiting the Banker's Method



## Intuiting the Banker's Method

Each credit placed can be used to "move" a unit of work from one operation to another.

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#### An Observation

 We defined the amortized cost of an operation to be

 $a(op_i) = t(op_i) + O(1) \cdot (added_i - removed_i)$ 

• Equivalently, this is

$$a(op_i) = t(op_i) + O(1) \cdot \Delta credits_i$$

- Some observations:
  - It doesn't matter where these credits are placed or removed from.
  - The total number of credits added and removed doesn't matter; all that matters is the *difference* between these two.

## The Potential Method

- In the *potential method*, we define a *potential* function  $\Phi$  that maps a data structure to a non-negative real value.
- Each operation on the data structure might change this potential.
- If we denote by Φ<sub>i</sub> the potential of the data structure just before operation *i*, then we can define *a*(*op*<sub>i</sub>) as

$$a(op_i) = t(op_i) + O(1) \cdot (\Phi_{i+1} - \Phi_i)$$

- Intuitively:
  - Operations that increase the potential have amortized cost greater than their true cost.
  - Operations that decrease the potential have amortized cost less than their true cost.

#### The Potential Method

$$\begin{split} \sum_{i=1}^{m} a(op_i) &= \sum_{i=1}^{m} \left( t(op_i) + O(1) \cdot (\Phi_{i+1} - \Phi i) \right) \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^{m} t(op_i) + O(1) \cdot \sum_{i=1}^{m} (\Phi_{i+1} - \Phi i) \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^{m} t(op_i) + O(1) \cdot (\Phi_{m+1} - \Phi_1) \end{split}$$

- Assuming that  $\Phi_{i+1} \Phi_1 \ge 0$ , this means that the sum of the amortized costs upper-bounds the sum of the real costs.
- Typically,  $\Phi_1 = 0$ , so  $\Phi_{i+1} \Phi_1 \ge 0$  holds.

 $\Phi = \mathbf{1}$ 





Constructing Cartesian Trees  $\Phi = 1$  137



Notice that  $\Phi$  went

 $1 \rightarrow 0 \rightarrow 1$ 

All that matters is the *net* change.

$$\Phi = 2$$
 137 159



Constructing Cartesian Trees  

$$\Phi = 3$$
 137 159 314



#### **Constructing Cartesian Trees** $\Phi = \mathbf{1}$ Work done: 1 push, 3 pops $\Delta \Phi$ : -2 Amortized Cost: 2

## The Potential Method

 Using the potential method, the cost of an insertion into a Cartesian tree can be computed as

 $t(op) + \Delta \Phi$ 

- $= 1 + k + O(1) \cdot (1 k)$
- = 1 + k + 1 k
- = 2

= 0(1)

- So the amortized cost of an insertion is O(1).
- Therefore, n total insertions takes time O(n).

#### Another Example: *Two-Stack Queues*

## The Two-Stack Queue

- Maintain two stacks, an *In* stack and an *Out* stack.
- To enqueue an element, push it onto the In stack.
- To dequeue an element:
  - If the *Out* stack is empty, pop everything off the *In* stack and push it onto the *Out* stack.
  - Pop the *Out* stack and return its value.

# An Aggregate Analysis

- **Claim:** Cost of a sequence of *n* intermixed enqueues and dequeues is O(*n*).
- Proof:
  - Every value is pushed onto a stack at most twice: once for *in*, once for *out*.
  - Every value is popped off of a stack at most twice: once for *in*, once for *out*.
  - Each push/pop takes time O(1).
  - Net runtime: **O(***n***)**.

- Let's analyze this data structure using the banker's method.
- Some observations:
- All enqueues take worst-case time O(1).
- Each dequeue can be split into a "light" or "heavy" dequeue.
  - In a "light" dequeue, the *out* stack is nonempty. Worst-case time is O(1).
  - In a "heavy" dequeue, the *out* stack is empty. Worst-case time is O(n).

#### The Two-Stack Queue



Out

#### The Two-Stack Queue



Out

In
## The Banker's Method

- Enqueue:
  - O(1) work, plus one credit added.
  - Amortized cost: **O(1)**.
- "Light" dequeue:
  - O(1) work, plus no change in credits.
  - Amortized cost: **O(1)**.
- "Heavy" dequeue:
  - $\Theta(k)$  work, where k is the number of entries that started in the "in" stack.
  - k credits spent.
  - By choosing the amount of work in a credit appropriately, amortized cost is O(1).

## The Potential Method

- Define  $\Phi(D)$  to be the height of the *in* stack.
- Enqueue:
  - Does O(1) work and increases  $\Phi$  by one.
  - Amortized cost: **O(1)**.
- "Light" dequeue:
  - Does O(1) work and leaves  $\Phi$  unchanged.
  - Amortized cost: **O(1)**.
- "Heavy" dequeue:
  - Does  $\Theta(k)$  work, where k is the number of entries moved from the "in" stack.
  - $\Delta \Phi = -k$ .
  - By choosing the amount of work stored in each unit of potential correctly, amortized cost becomes **O(1)**.

#### Time-Out for Announcements!

#### Problem Set Two

- Problem Set Two solutions are now available. If you didn't pick them up in class, you can grab them from the Gates building.
- We're working on grading PS2 right now. We're aiming to have them returned by Tuesday of next week.

#### Problem Set Mixer

- Looking for a partner for the problem sets? Stick around after class today for our problem set mixer event.
- Free snacks!

#### Back to CS166!

#### Another Example: **2-3-4 Trees**

#### 2-3-4 Trees

- Inserting or deleting values from a 2-3-4 trees takes time O(log *n*).
- Why is that?
  - We do some amount of work finding the insertion or deletion point, which is  $\Theta(\log n)$ .
  - We also do some amount of work "fixing up" the tree by doing insertions or deletions.
- What is the cost of that second amount of work?

- Most insertions into 2-3-4 trees require no fixup – we just insert an extra key into a leaf.
- Some insertions require some fixup to split nodes and propagate upward.



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- Some insertions require some fixup to split nodes and propagate upward.



- Most deletions from a 2-3-4 tree require no fixup; we just delete a key from a leaf.
- Some deletions require fixup work to propagate the deletion upward in the tree.



#### 2-3-4 Tree Fixup

- *Claim:* The fixup work on 2-3-4 trees is amortized O(1).
- We'll prove this in three steps:
  - First, we'll prove that in any sequence of m insertions, the amortized fixup work is O(1).
  - Next, we'll prove that in any sequence of m deletions, the amortized fixup work is O(1).
  - Finally, we'll show that in any sequence of insertions and deletions, the amortized fixup work is O(1).

- Suppose we only insert and never delete.
- The fixup work for an insertion is proportional to the number of 4-nodes that get split.
- **Idea:** Place a credit on each 4-node to pay for future splits.



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- Using the banker's method, we get that pure insertions have O(1) amortized fixup work.
- Could also do this using the potential method.
  - Define  $\Phi$  to be the number of 4-nodes.
  - Each "light" insertion might introduce a new 4node, requiring amortized O(1) work.
  - Each "heavy" insertion splits k 4-nodes and decreases the potential by k for O(1) amortized work.

- Suppose we only delete and never insert.
- The fixup work per layer is O(1) and only propagates if we combine three 2-nodes together into a 4-node.
- **Idea:** Place a credit on each 2-node whose children are 2-nodes (call them "tiny triangles.")



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- Using the banker's method, we get that pure deletions have O(1) amortized fixup work.
- Could also do this using the potential method.
  - Define  $\Phi$  to be the number of 2-nodes with two 2-node children (call these "tiny triangles.")
  - Each "light" deletion might introduce two tiny triangles: one at the node where the deletion ended and one right above it. Amortized time is O(1).
  - Each "heavy" deletion combines k tiny triangles and decreases the potential by at least k. Amortized time is O(1).

## Combining the Two

- We've shown that pure insertions and pure deletions require O(1) amortized fixup time.
- What about interleaved insertions and deletions?
- **Initial idea:** Use a potential function that's the sum of the two previous potential functions.
- $\Phi$  is the number of 4-nodes plus the number of tiny triangles.

$$\Phi = \#(\Box ) + \#(\Box)$$

#### A Problem ) + #( $\Phi = \#(|$ = 6 41 56 76 11 21 31

# A Problem $\Phi = \#(\Box \Box) + \#(\Box \Box)$





## A Problem

- When doing a "heavy" insertion that splits multiple 4nodes, the resulting nodes might produce new "tiny triangles."
- Symptom: Our potential doesn't drop nearly as much as it should, so we can't pay for future operations. Amortized cost of the operation works out to  $\Theta(\log n)$ , not O(1) as we hoped.
- **Root Cause:** Splitting a 4-node into a 2-node and a 3-node might introduce new "tiny triangles," which in turn might cause future deletes to become more expensive.

#### The Solution

- 4-nodes are troublesome for two separate reasons:
  - They cause chained splits in an insertion.
  - After an insertion, they might split and produce a tiny triangle.
- **Idea:** Charge each 4-node for two different costs: the cost of an expensive insertion, plus the (possible) future cost of doing an expensive deletion.











#### The Solution

- This new potential function ensures that if an insertion chains up *k* levels, the potential drop is at least *k* (and possibly up to 2*k*).
- Therefore, the amortized fixup work for an insertion is O(1).
- Using the same argument as before, deletions require amortized O(1) fixups.

## Why This Matters

- Via the isometry, red/black trees have O(1) amortized fixup per insertion or deletion.
- In practice, this makes red/black trees much faster than other balanced trees on insertions and deletions, even though other balanced trees can be better balanced.
## More to Explore

- A *finger tree* is a variation on a B-tree in which certain nodes are pointed at by "fingers." Insertions and deletions are then done only around the fingers.
- Because the only cost of doing an insertion or deletion is the fixup cost, these trees have amortized O(1) insertions and deletions.
- They're often used in purely functional settings to implement queues and deques with excellent runtimes.
- Liked the previous analysis? Consider looking into this for your final project!

## Next Time

- Binomial Heaps
  - A simple and versatile heap data structure based on binary arithmetic.
- Lazy Binomial Heaps
  - Rejiggering binomial heaps for fun and profit.