Amortized Analysis

A Motivating Analogy

- What do I do with a dirty dish or kitchen utensil?
- *Option 1:* Wash it by hand.
- **Option 2:** Put it in the dishwasher rack, then run the dishwasher if it's full.

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- *Option 1:* Wash it by hand.
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- Washing every individual dish and utensil by hand is *way* slower than using the dishwasher, but I always have access to my plates and kitchen utensils.
- Running the dishwasher is faster in aggregate, but means I may have to wait a bit for dishes to be ready.

Key Idea: Design data structures that trade *per-operation efficiency* for *overall efficiency*.

Where We're Going

- *Amortized Analysis (Today)*
	- A little accounting trickery never hurt anyone, right?
- *Scapegoat Trees (Tuesday)*
	- Building a balanced BST, lazily.
- *Tournament Heaps (Next Thursday)*
	- A fast, flexible priority queue that's a great building block for more complicated structures.
- *Abdication Heaps (Next Tuesday)*
	- A priority queue optimized for graph algorithms that, at least in theory, leads to optimal implementations.

Outline for Today

- *Amortized Analysis*
	- Trading worst-case efficiency for aggregate efficiency.
- *Examples of Amortization*
	- Three motivating data structures and algorithms.
- *Potential Functions*
	- Quantifying messiness and formalizing costs.
- *Performing Amortized Analyses*
	- How to show our examples are indeed fast.

Three Examples

Out

Out

Out

 $\overline{2}$

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Out

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Clean Dishes

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Clean Dishes

Dirty Dishes

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Clean Dishes

1 2

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Dirty Dishes

1 2 3

Dirty Dishes

6

- Maintain 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 nonempty, pop it.
	- If the *Out* stack is empty, pop elements from the *In* stack, pushing them into the *Out* stack. Then dequeue as usual.

- \bullet Each enqueue takes time O(1).
	- Just push an item onto the *In* stack.
- Dequeues can vary in their runtime.
	- Could be $O(1)$ if the *Out* stack isn't empty.
	- Could be $\Theta(n)$ if the *Out* stack is empty.

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$$
\begin{array}{c}\n 3 \\
\hline\n n-1 \\
\hline\n 0\n \end{array}
$$

- *Intuition:* We only do expensive dequeues after a long run of cheap enqueues.
- Think "dishwasher:" we very slowly introduce a lot of dirty dishes to get cleaned up all at once.
- Provided we clean up all the dirty dishes at once, and provided that dirty dishes accumulate slowly, this is a fast strategy!

$$
\begin{array}{c}\n 3 \\
\hline\n \bullet \bullet \bullet \\
\hline\n n-1 \\
\hline\n 0\n \end{array}
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- **Key Fact:** Any series of *n* operations on an (initially empty) two-stack queue will take time O(*n*).
- \cdot Why?

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- *Why?*

● Each item is pushed into at most two stacks and popped from a hypothesis!

● Adding up the work done per element across all *n*

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matchborough the state of the sta Discuss with your neighbors!

$$
\begin{array}{c}\n 3 \\
\hline\n \bullet\n \end{array}
$$

 \blacksquare

- *Key Fact:* Any series of *n* operations on an (initially empty) two-stack queue will take time O(*n*).
- *Why?*
- Each item is pushed into at most two stacks and popped from at most two stacks.
- Adding up the work done per element across all *n* operations, we can do at most O(*n*) work.

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$$

- It's correct but misleading to say the cost of a dequeue is $O(n)$.
	- This is comparatively rare.
- \bullet It's wrong, but useful, to pretend the cost of a dequeue is $O(1)$.
	- Some operations take more time than this.
	- However, if we pretend each operation takes time $O(1)$, then the sum of all the costs never underestimates the total.
- *Question:* What's an honest, accurate way to describe the runtime of the two-stack queue?

$$
\begin{array}{c}\n 3 \\
\hline\n \bullet \bullet \bullet \\
\hline\n n-1 \\
\hline\n 0\n \end{array}
$$

- A *dynamic array* is the most common way to implement a list of values.
- Maintain an array slightly bigger than the one you need. When you run out of space, double the array size and copy the elements over.

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- Most appends to a dynamic array take time $O(1)$.
- Infrequently, we do $\Theta(n)$ work to copy all *n* elements from the old array to a new one.
- Think "dishwasher:"
	- We slowly accumulate "messes" (filled slots).
	- We periodically do a large "cleanup" (copying the array).
- *Claim:* The cost of doing *n* appends to an initially empty dynamic array is always O(*n*).

- *Claim:* Appending *n* elements always takes time O(*n*).
- The array doubles at sizes $2^{\rm 0}$, $2^{\rm 1}$, $2^{\rm 2}$, ..., etc.
- The very last doubling is at the largest power of two less than *n*. This is at most 2^{[log2 *n*]. (Do you see why?)}
- Total work done across all doubling is at most

$$
2^{0} + 2^{1} + ... + 2^{\lfloor \log_{2} n \rfloor} = 2^{\lfloor \log_{2} n \rfloor + 1} - 1
$$

\n
$$
\leq 2^{\log_{2} n + 1}
$$

\n
$$
= 2n.
$$

\nH He Li Be B C N O F Ne Na Mg A U Si P S

- It's correct but misleading to say the cost of an append is $O(n)$.
	- This is comparatively rare.
- It's wrong, but useful, to pretend that the cost of an append is O(1).
	- Some operations take more time than this.
	- However, pretending each operation takes $O(1)$ time never underestimates the true runtime.
- **Question:** What's an honest, accurate way to describe the runtime of the dynamic array?

- You're given a sorted list of *n* values and a value of *b*.
- What's the most efficient way to construct a B-tree of order *b* holding these *n* values?
- **One Option:** Think really hard, calculate the shape of a Btree of order *b* with *n* elements in it, then place the items into that B-tree in sorted order.
- Is there an easier option?

• *Idea 1:* Insert the items into an empty B-tree in sorted order.

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- Cost: $\Omega(n \log_b n)$, due to the top-down search.
- *Can we do better?*

- *Idea 2:* Since all insertions will happen at the rightmost leaf, store a pointer to that leaf. Add new values by appending to this leaf, then doing any necessary splits.
- **Question:** How fast is this?

- The cost of an insert varies based on the shape of the tree.
	- If no splits are required, the cost is $O(1)$.
	- If one split is required, the cost is $O(b)$.
	- If we have to split all the way up, the cost is $O(b \log_b n)$.
- Using our worst-case cost across *n* inserts gives a runtime bound of $O(nb \log_b n)$
- *Claim:* The cost of *n* inserts is always O(*n*).

- Of all the *n* insertions into the tree, a roughly $1/b$ fraction will split a node in the bottom layer of the tree (a leaf).
- Of those, roughly a $1/b$ fraction will split a node in the layer above that.
- Of those, roughly a $1/b$ fraction will split a node in the layer above that.
- \cdot (etc.)

$$
\frac{n}{b} \cdot \big(1 + \frac{1}{b} \cdot \big(1 + \frac{1}{b} \cdot \big(1 + \frac{1}{b} \cdot \big(\ldots\big)\big)\big)\big)
$$

$$
\frac{n}{b} \cdot (1 + \frac{1}{b} \cdot (1 + \frac{1}{b} \cdot (1 + \frac{1}{b} \cdot (1 + \frac{1}{b} \cdot (\dots))))
$$

=
$$
\frac{n}{b} \cdot (1 + \frac{1}{b} + \frac{1}{b^2} + \frac{1}{b^3} + \frac{1}{b^4} + \dots)
$$

$$
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$$

=
$$
\frac{n}{b} \cdot \Theta(1)
$$

$$
\frac{n}{b} \cdot (1 + \frac{1}{b} \cdot (1 + \frac{1}{b} \cdot (1 + \frac{1}{b} \cdot (1 + \frac{1}{b} \cdot (\dots))))
$$

=
$$
\frac{n}{b} \cdot (1 + \frac{1}{b} + \frac{1}{b^2} + \frac{1}{b^3} + \frac{1}{b^4} + \dots)
$$

=
$$
\frac{n}{b} \cdot \Theta(1)
$$

=
$$
\Theta(\frac{n}{b})
$$

• Total number of splits:

$$
\frac{n}{b} \cdot (1 + \frac{1}{b} \cdot (1 + \frac{1}{b} \cdot (1 + \frac{1}{b} \cdot (1 + \frac{1}{b} \cdot (\dots))))
$$

=
$$
\frac{n}{b} \cdot (1 + \frac{1}{b} + \frac{1}{b^2} + \frac{1}{b^3} + \frac{1}{b^4} + \dots)
$$

=
$$
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$$

=
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\Theta(\frac{n}{b})
$$

● Total cost of those splits: **Θ(***n***)**.

- It is correct but misleading to say the cost of an insert is $O(b \log_b n)$.
	- This is comparatively rare.
- It is wrong, but useful, to pretend that the cost of an insert is $O(1)$.
	- Some operations take more time than this.
	- \cdot However, pretending each insert takes time $O(1)$ never underestimates the total amount of work done across all operations.
- **Question:** What's an honest, accurate way to describe the cost of inserting one more value?

Amortized Analysis

The Setup

- We now have three examples of data structures where
	- *individual operations may be slow*, but
	- *any series of operations is fast*.
- Giving weak upper bounds on the cost of each operation is not useful for making predictions.
- How can we clearly communicate when a situation like this one exists?

time

time

These are the *real* costs of the operations. Most operations are fast, but we can't get a nice upper bound on any one operation cost.

rk

time

Amortized Analysis

• *Key Idea:* Assign each operation a (fake!) cost called its *amortized cost* such that, *for any series of operations performed*, the following is true:

∑ *amortized***-***cost* [≥] ∑ *real* **-***cost*

- Amortized costs shift work backwards from expensive operations onto cheaper ones.
	- Cheap operations are artificially made more expensive to pay for future cleanup work.
	- Expensive operations are artificially made cheaper by shifting the work backwards.

Where We're Going

- The *amortized* cost of an enqueue or dequeue into a two-stack queue is O(1).
- Any sequence of *n* operations on a twostack queue will take time

 $n \cdot O(1) = O(n)$.

• However, each individual operation may take more than O(1) time to complete.

Where We're Going

- The *amortized* cost of appending to a dynamic array is O(1).
- Any sequence of *n* appends to a dynamic array will take time

 $n \cdot O(1) = O(n)$.

• However, each individual operation may take more than O(1) time to complete.

Where We're Going

- The *amortized* cost of inserting a new element at the end of a B-tree, assuming we have a pointer to the rightmost leaf, is $O(1)$.
- Any sequence of *n* appends will take time

 $n \cdot O(1) = O(n)$.

• However, each individual operation may take more than O(1) time to complete.

Formalizing This Idea

Assigning Amortized Costs

- The approach we've taken so far for assigning amortized costs is called an *aggregate analysis*.
	- Directly compute the maximum possible work done across any sequence of operations, then divide that by the number of operations.
- This approach works well here, but it doesn't scale well to more complex data structures.
	- What if different operations contribute to / clean up messes in different ways?
	- What if it's not clear what sequence is the worst-case sequence of operations?
- In practice, we tend to use a different strategy called the *potential method* to assign amortized costs.

Potential Functions

- To assign amortized costs, we'll need to measure how "messy" the data structure is.
- For each data structure, we define a *potential function* Φ such that
	- \bullet Φ is small when the data structure is "clean," and
	- \bullet Φ is large when the data structure is "messy." *Out In*

Potential Functions

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	- \bullet Φ is large when the data structure is "messy."

Potential Functions

• Once we've chosen a potential function Φ , we define the amortized cost of an operation to be

amortized-cost **=** *real-cost* **+** *k* **· ΔΦ**

where *k* is a constant under our control and $\Delta\Phi$ is the difference between Φ just after the operation finishes and Φ just before the operation started:

$$
\Delta \Phi = \Phi_{after} - \Phi_{before}
$$

- Intuitively:
	- If Φ increases, the data structure got "messier," and the amortized cost is *higher* than the real cost.
	- If Φ decreases, the data structure got "cleaner," and the amortized cost is *lower* than the real cost.

\sum *amortized*-*cost* = \sum *(real*-*cost* + $k \cdot \Delta \Phi$)

 \sum *amortized*-*cost* = \sum *(real*-*cost* + $k \cdot \Delta \Phi$) $=$ \sum *real*-*cost* + $k \cdot \sum \Delta \Phi$

$$
\sum
$$
amortized-cost = \sum [real-cost + k $\cdot \Delta \Phi$]
= \sum real-cost + k $\cdot \sum \Delta \Phi$

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\sum
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= \sum real-cost + k $\cdot \sum \Delta \Phi$

Think "fundamental theorem of calculus," but for discrete derivatives!

$$
\int_{a}^{b} f'(x) dx = f(b) - f(a) \qquad \qquad \sum_{x=a}^{b} \Delta f(x) = f(b+1) - f(a)
$$

Look up *finite calculus* if you're curious to learn more!

$$
\sum
$$
amortized-cost = \sum [real-cost + k $\cdot \Delta \Phi$]
= \sum real-cost + k $\cdot \sum \Delta \Phi$
= \sum real-cost + k $\cdot (\Phi_{end} - \Phi_{start})$

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Let's make two assumptions:
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$$
\Phi \geq 0.
$$
\n
$$
\Phi_{start} = 0.
$$

$$
\sum
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 $\geq \sum$ real-cost

Assigning costs this way will never, in any circumstance, overestimate the total amount of work done.

The Story So Far

• We will assign amortized costs to each operation such that

\sum *amortized* - *cost* \sum \sum *real* - *cost*

- To do so, define a *potential function* Φ such that
	- \bullet Φ measures how "messy" the data structure is,
	- $\Phi_{start} = 0$, and
	- $\Phi \geq 0$.
- Then, define amortized costs of operations as a *mortized-cost* = $real\text{-}cost$ + $k \cdot \Delta\Phi$ for a choice of *k* under our control.

The Two-Stack Queue

Out In

The Two-Stack Queue

 Φ = height of **In** stack

Out In

The Two-Stack Queue

 Φ = height of **In** stack

 Φ = height of **In** stack

 Φ = height of **In** stack

 Φ = height of **In** stack

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 Φ = height of *In* stack

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 Φ = height of *In* stack

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 Φ = height of *In* stack

Out

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 Φ = height of *In* stack

Out

 Φ = height of **In** stack

 Φ = height of **In** stack

 Φ = height of **In** stack

 Φ = height of **In** stack

Out

Theorem: The amortized cost of any enqueue or dequeue operation on a two-stack queue is O(1).

Proof: Let Φ be the height of the *In* stack in the two-stack queue. Each enqueue operation does a single push and increases the height of the *In* stack by one. Therefore, its amortized cost is

 $O(1) + k \cdot \Delta \Phi = O(1) + k \cdot 1 = O(1)$.

Now, consider a dequeue operation. If the *Out* stack is nonempty, then the dequeue does $O(1)$ work and does not change Φ . Its cost is therefore

$$
O(1) + k \cdot \Delta \Phi = O(1) + k \cdot 0 = O(1).
$$

Otherwise, the *Out* stack is empty. Suppose the *In* stack has height *h*. The dequeue does O(*h*) work to pop the elements from the *In* stack and push them onto the *Out* stack, followed by one additional pop for the dequeue. This is O(*h*) total work.

At the beginning of this operation, we have $\Phi = h$. At the end of this operation, we have $\Phi = 0$. Therefore, $\Delta \Phi = -h$, so the amortized cost of the operation is

$$
O(h) + k \cdot -h = O(1),
$$

assuming we pick *k* to cancel out the constant factor hidden in the O(*h*) term. I

Analyzing Dynamic Arrays

- *Goal:* Choose a potential function Φ such that the amortized cost of an append is O(1).
- *Initial (wrong!) guess:* Set Φ to be the number of free slots left in the array.

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

 Φ = number of free slots

With this choice of Φ, what is the amortized cost of an append to an array of size *n* when no free slots are left?

> Formulate a hypothesis!

 H He Li Be B C N O F

 Φ = number of free slots

With this choice of Φ, what is the amortized cost of an append to an array of size *n* when no free slots are left?

> Discuss with your neighbors!

 H He Li Be B C N O F

Analyzing Dynamic Arrays

- *Intuition:* Φ should measure how "messy" the data structure is.
	- Having lots of free slots means there's very little mess.
	- Having few free slots means there's a lot of mess.
- We basically got our potential function backwards. Oops.
- *Question:* What should Φ be?

Analyzing Dynamic Arrays

• The amortized cost of an append is

```
amortized-cost = real\text{-}cost + k \cdot \Delta\Phi.
```
- When we double the array size, our real cost is $\Theta(n)$. We need ΔΦ to be something like -*n*.
- *Goal:* Pick Φ so that
	- when there are no slots left, $\Phi \approx n$, and
	- right after we double the array size, $\Phi \approx 0$.
- With some trial and error, we can come up with

H He Li Be B C N O

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

A Caveat

- We require that $\Phi_{\text{start}} = 0$ and that $\Phi \geq 0$.
- What happens when we have a newly-created dynamic array?

• *Quick fix:* This is an edge case, so set $\Phi = \max\{0, \#elems - \#free-slots\}$ **Theorem:** The amortized cost of an append to a dynamic array is $O(1)$.

Proof: Suppose the dynamic array has initial capacity $2C = O(1)$. Then, define Φ = max{ 0, *n* - #*free-slots* }, where *n* is the number of elements stored in the dynamic array. Note that for $n < C$ that an append simply fills in a free slot and leaves $\Phi = 0$, so the amortized cost of such an append is $O(1)$. Otherwise, we have $n > C$ and $\Phi = n - #free-slots$.

Consider any append. If the append does not trigger a resize, it does O(1) work, increases *n* by one, and decreases #*free-slots* by one, so the amortized cost is

$$
O(1) + k \cdot \Delta \Phi = O(1) + k \cdot 2 = O(1).
$$

Otherwise, the operation copies *n* elements into a new array twice as large as before, increasing the number of free slots to *n*, then fills one of those slots. Just before the operation we had $\Phi = n$, and just after the operation we have $\Phi = 2$. Therefore, the amortized cost is

$$
O(n) + k \cdot \Delta \Phi = O(n) + k \cdot (2 - n) = O(n) - nk + 2k,
$$

which can be made to equal O(1) by choosing the the *k* term to match the constant hidden in the $O(n)$ term. \blacksquare

Some Exercises

- Suppose we grow the array not by a factor of two, but by a fixed constant $\alpha > 1$. Find a choice of Φ so that the amortized cost of an append is O(1).
- Suppose we also allow elements to be removed from the array, and when it's $\frac{1}{4}$ full we shrink it by a factor of two. Find a choice of Φ so the amortized cost of appending or removing the last element is O(1).

Building B-Trees

• *Algorithm:* Store a pointer to the rightmost leaf. To add an item, append it to the rightmost leaf, splitting and kicking the median key up if we are out of space.

- What is the actual cost of appending an element?
	- Suppose that we perform splits at *L* layers in the tree.
	- Each split takes time $\Theta(b)$ to copy and move keys around.
	- Total cost: **Θ(***bL***)**.
- *Goal:* Pick a potential function Φ so that we can offset this cost and make each append cost amortized O(1).

- Our potential function should, intuitively, quantify how "messy" our data structure is.
- Some observations:
	- We only care about nodes in the right spine of the tree.
	- Nodes in the right spine slowly have keys added to them. When they split, they lose (about) half of their keys.
- *Idea:* Set Φ to be the number of keys in the right spine of the tree.

- Let Φ be the number of keys on the right spine.
- Each split moves (roughly) half the keys from the split node into a node off the right spine.

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- Change in potential per split: $-\Theta(b)$.
- \cdot Net $\Delta \Phi$: $-\Theta(bL)$.

- Actual cost of an append that does L splits: O(*bL*).
- $\Delta\Phi$ for that operation: $-\Theta(bL)$.
- Amortized cost: **O(1)**.

Theorem: The amortized cost of appending to a B-tree by inserting it into the rightmost leaf node and applying fixup rules is O(1).

Proof: Assume we are working with a B-tree of order *b*. Let Φ be the number of nodes on the right spine of the B-tree.

Suppose we insert a value into the tree using the algorithm described above. Suppose this causes *L* nodes to be split. Each of those splits requires Θ(*b*) work for a net total of Θ(*bL*) work.

Each of those *L* splits moves Θ(*b*) keys off of the right spine of the tree, decreasing Φ by Θ(*b*) for a net drop in potential of -Θ(*bL*). In the layer just above the last split, we add one more key into a node, increasing Φ by one. Therefore, $\Delta \Phi = -\Theta(bL)$.

Overall, this tells us that the amortized cost of inserting a key this way is

$$
\Theta(bL) + k \cdot \Delta \Phi = \Theta(bL) - k \cdot \Theta(bL),
$$

which can be made to be $O(1)$ by choosing k to equate the constants hidden in the O and Θ terms.

More to Explore

- You can implement a *deque* (a doubly-ended queue) using a B-tree with pointers to the first and last leaves.
	- This is sometimes called a *finger tree*.
	- Finger trees are used extensively in purely functional programming languages.
	- By extending the analysis from here, you can show the amortized cost of appending or removing from each end of the finger tree is O(1).
- Red/black trees are modeled on 2-3-4 trees. You can build a red/black tree from *n* sorted keys in time O(*n*) this way.
	- *Great exercise:* Explore how to do this, and work out what choice of Φ to make.

To Summarize

Amortized Analysis

- Some data structures accumulate messes slowly, then clean up those messes in single, large steps.
- We can assign *amortized* costs to operations. These are fake costs such that summing up the amortized costs never underestimates the sum of the real costs.
- \bullet To do so, we define a potential function Φ that, intuitively, measures how "messy" the data structure is. We then set

a *mortized-cost* = $real$ *-cost* + $k \cdot \Delta \Phi$.

• For simplicity, we assume that Φ is nonnegative and that Φ for an empty data structure is zero.

Next Time

- *Scapegoat Trees*
	- Building a balanced BST, lazily.