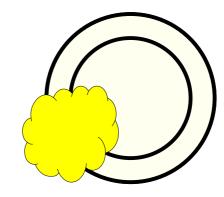
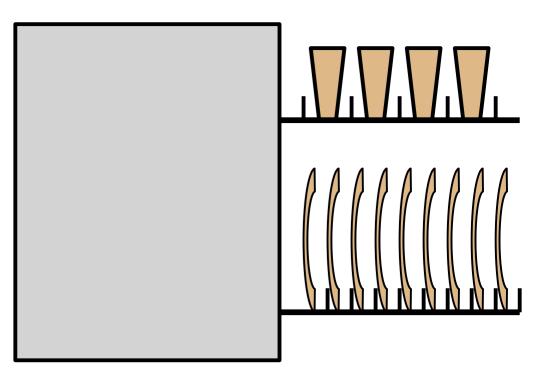
Amortized Analysis

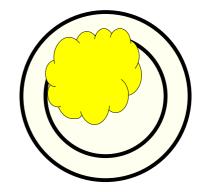
A Motivating Analogy

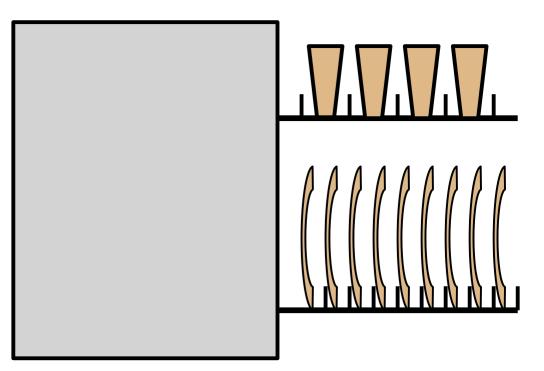
- What do I do with a dirty dish or kitchen utensil?
- **Option 1:** Wash it by hand.
- Option 2: Put it in the dishwasher rack, then run the dishwasher if it's full.



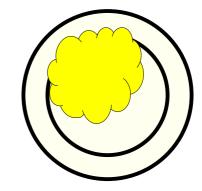


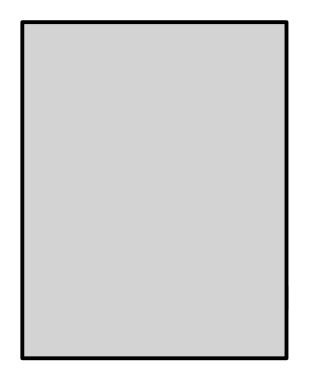
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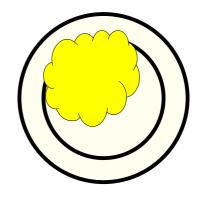


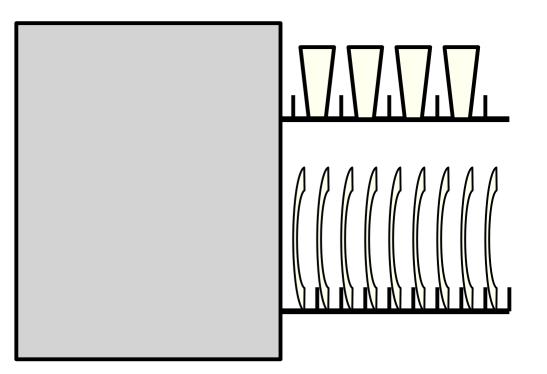
- What do I do with a dirty dish or kitchen utensil?
- **Option 1:** Wash it by hand.
- Option 2: Put it in the dishwasher rack, then run the dishwasher if it's full.





- 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*.

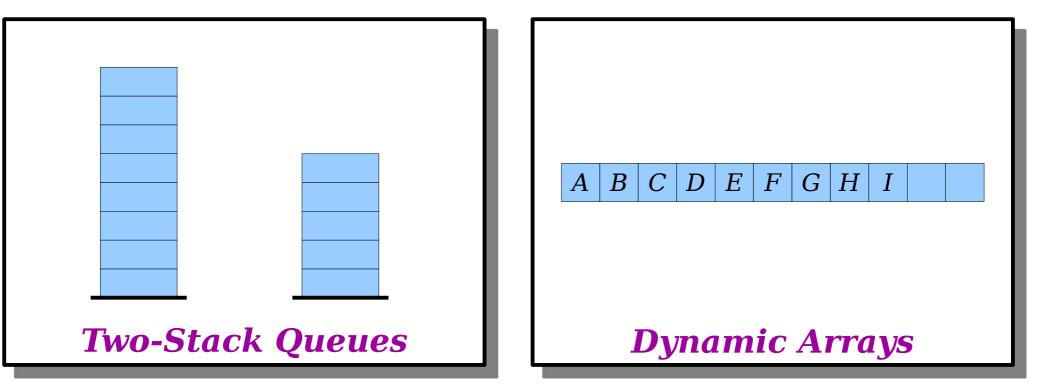
Where We're Going

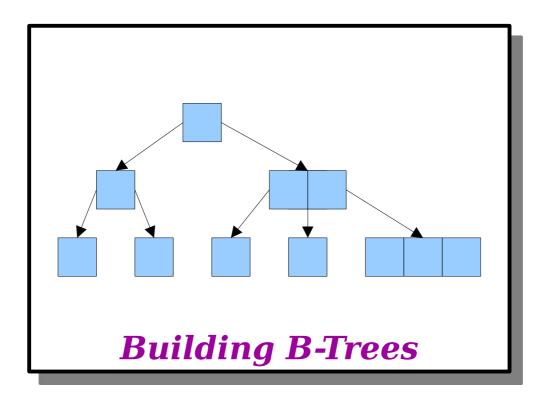
- Amortized Analysis (Today)
 - A little accounting trickery never hurt anyone, right?
- Scapegoat Trees (Tuesday)
 - Building a balanced BST, lazily.
- Tournament Heaps (Next Thursday)
 - A fast, flexible priority queue that's a great building block for more complicated structures.
- Abdication Heaps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

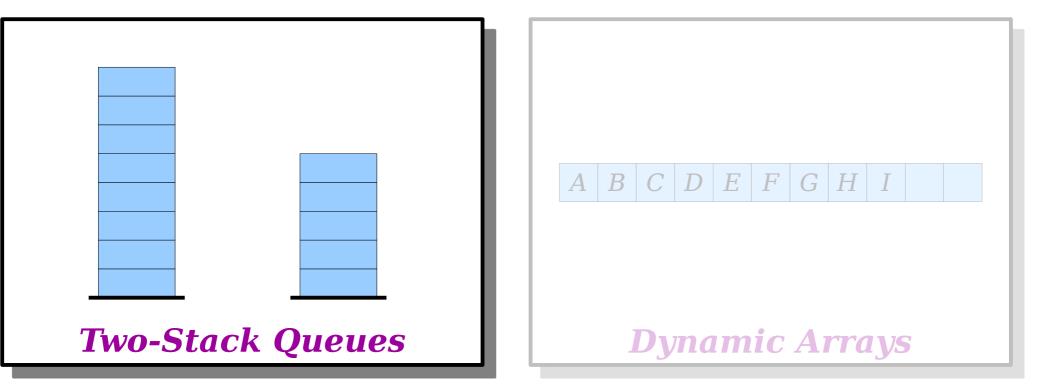
Outline for Today

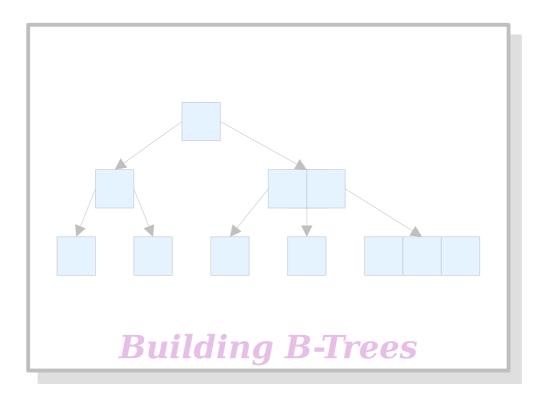
- Amortized Analysis
 - Trading worst-case efficiency for aggregate efficiency.
- Examples of Amortization
 - Three motivating data structures and algorithms.
- **Potential Functions**
 - Quantifying messiness and formalizing costs.
- Performing Amortized Analyses
 - How to show our examples are indeed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

Three Examples



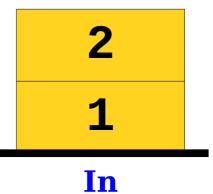


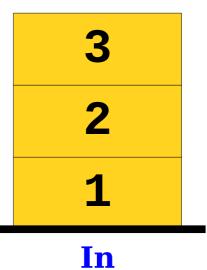


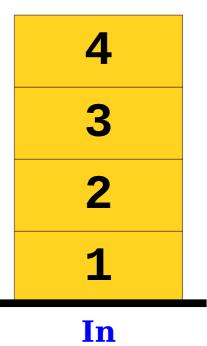


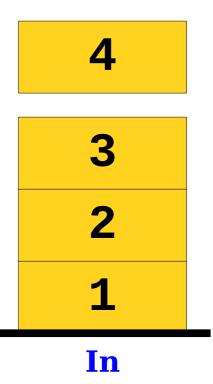
Out



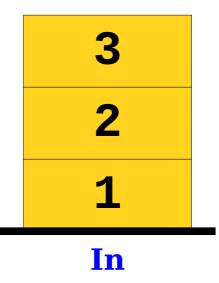


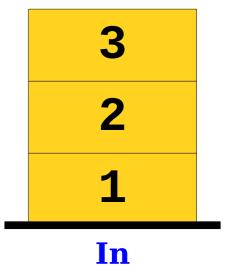




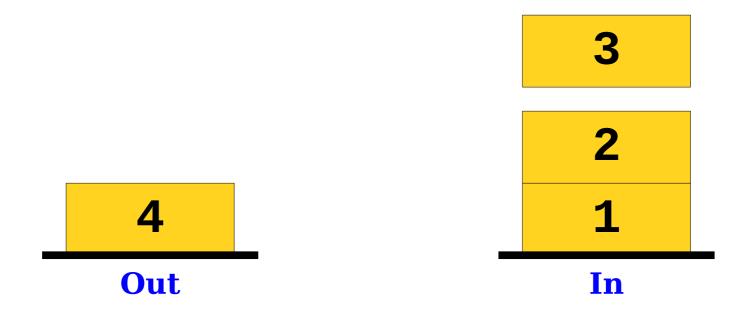


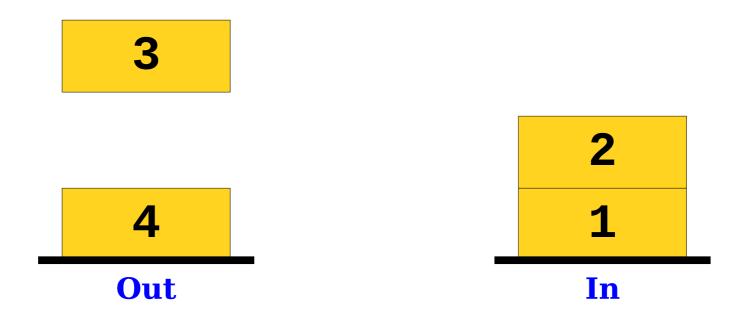






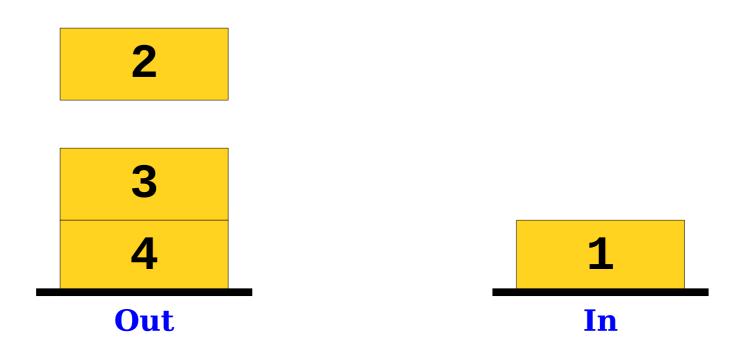


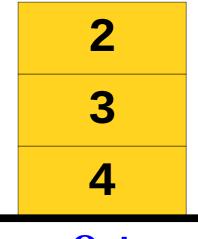


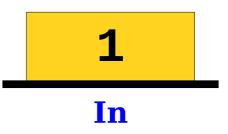




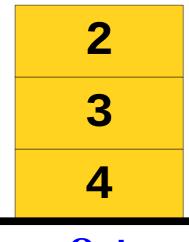
2 3 4 0ut In



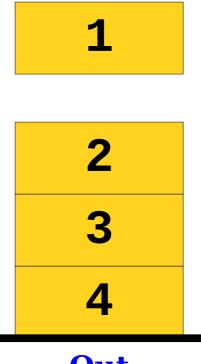








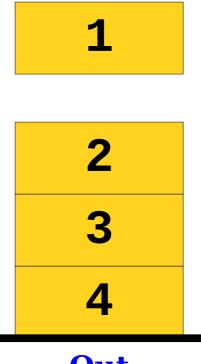
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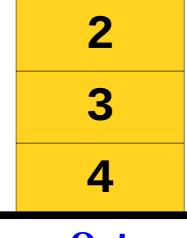
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Out



Out



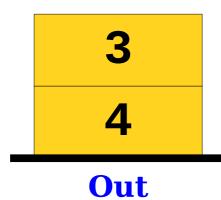
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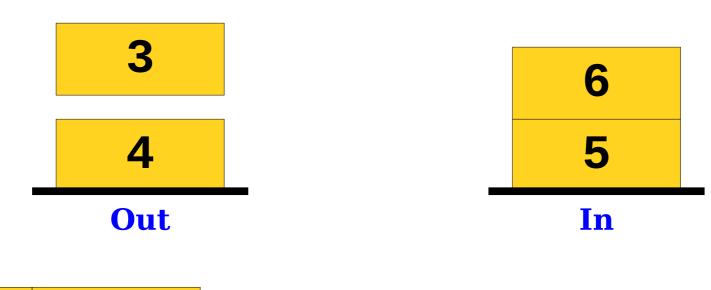
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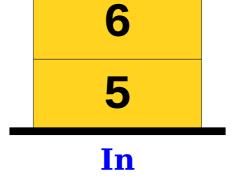




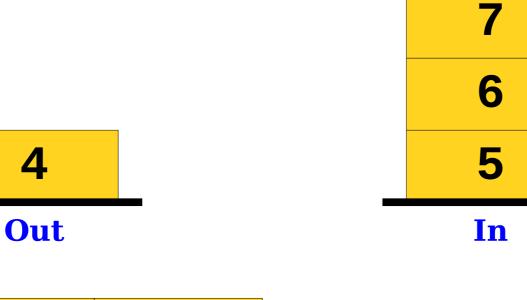




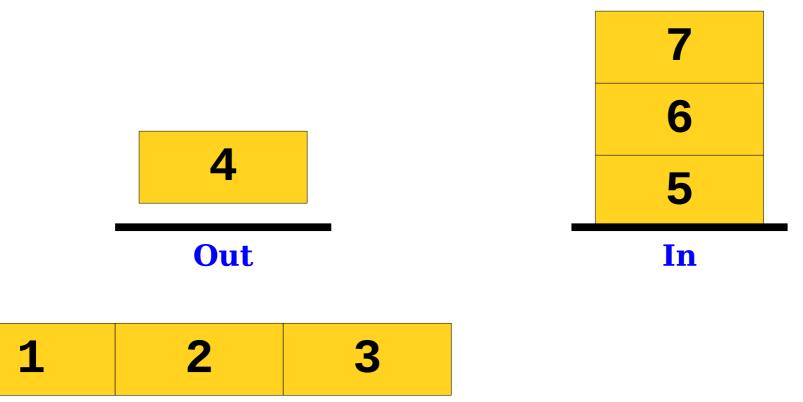
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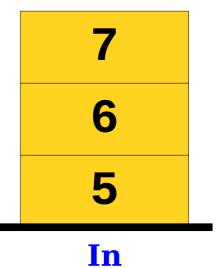


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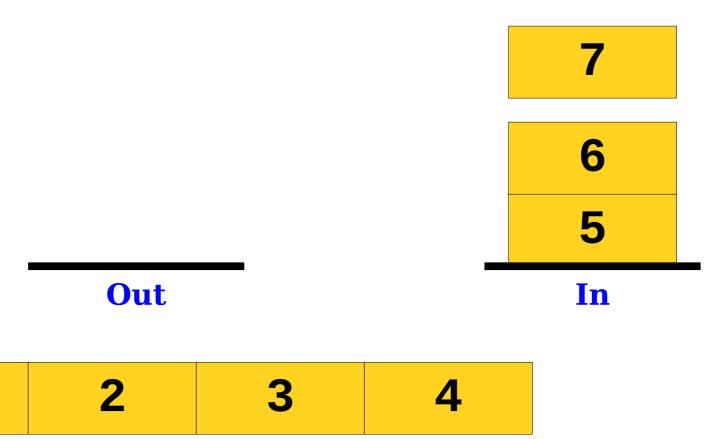
1 2 3



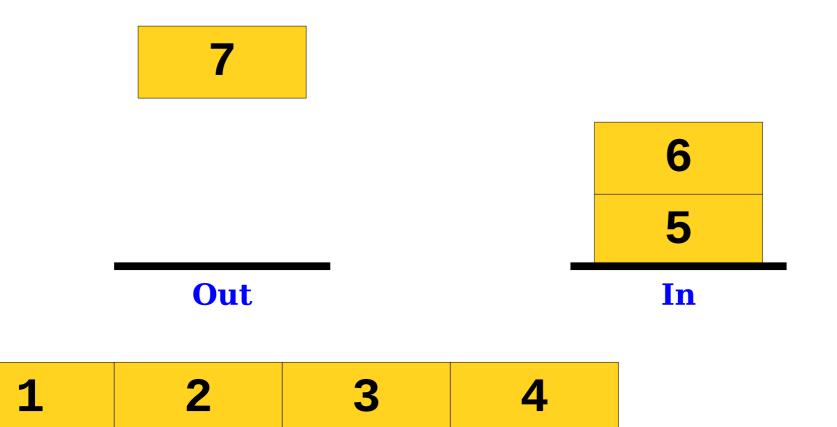


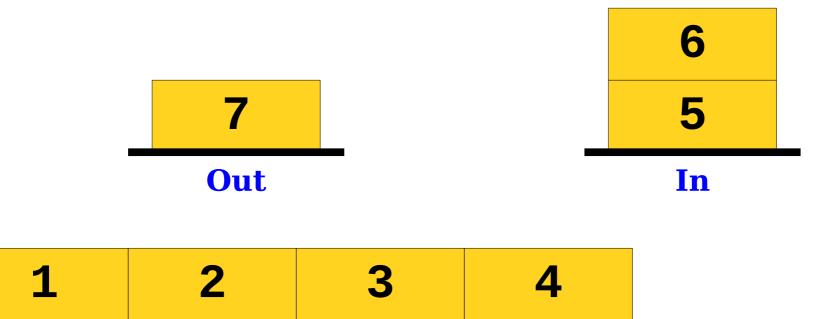
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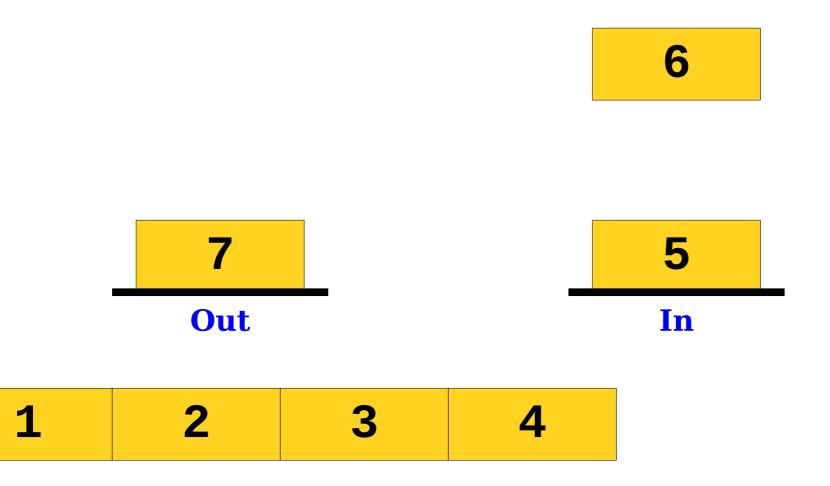
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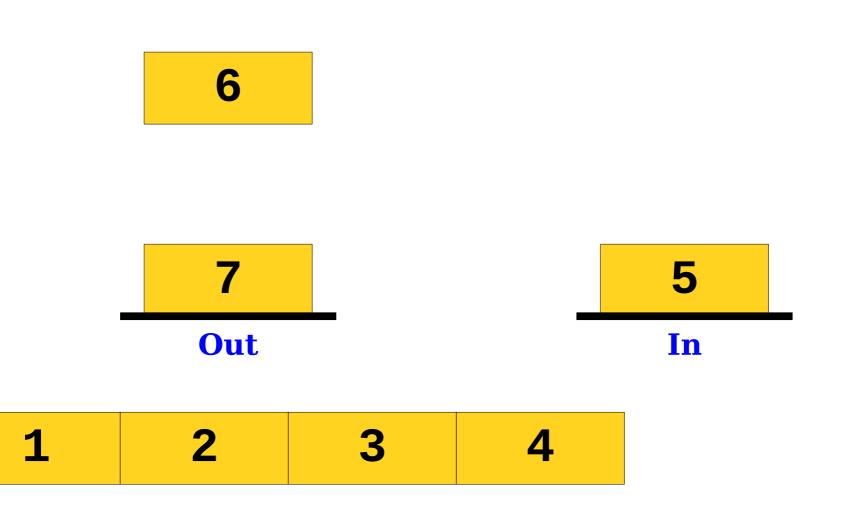


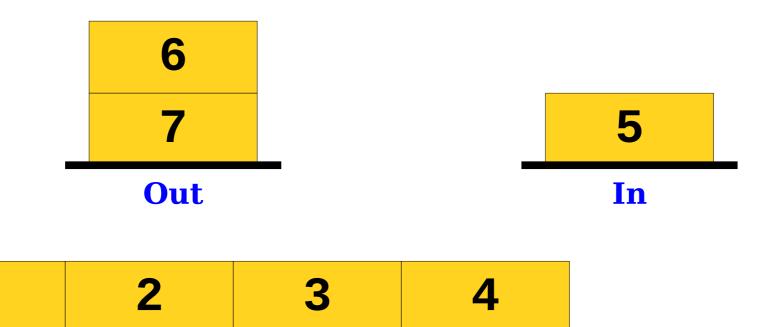
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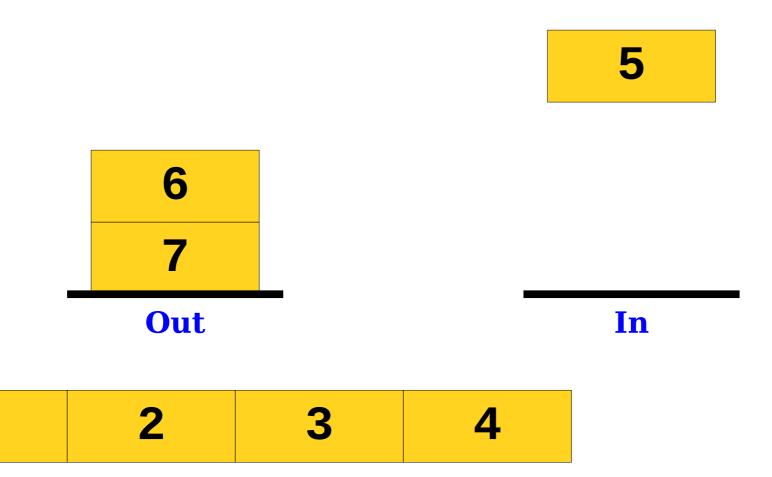




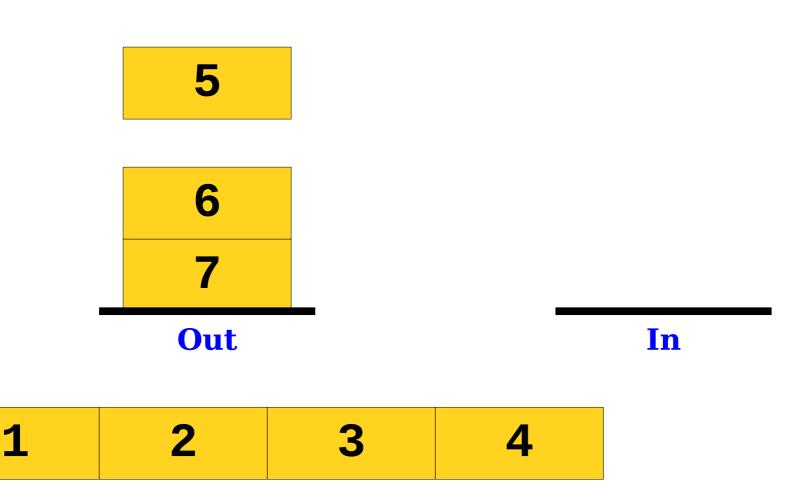


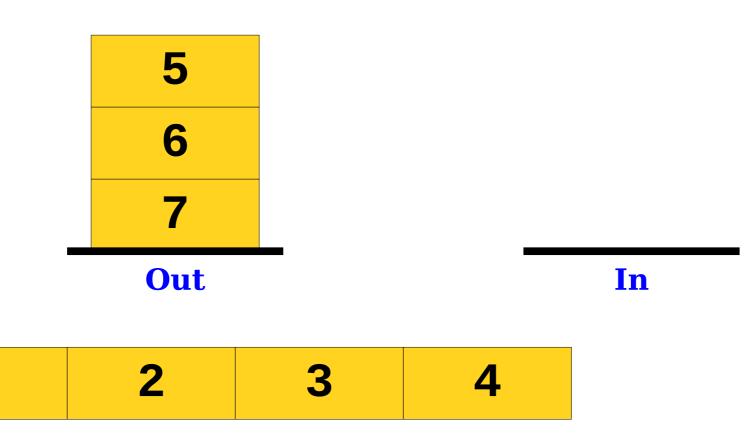


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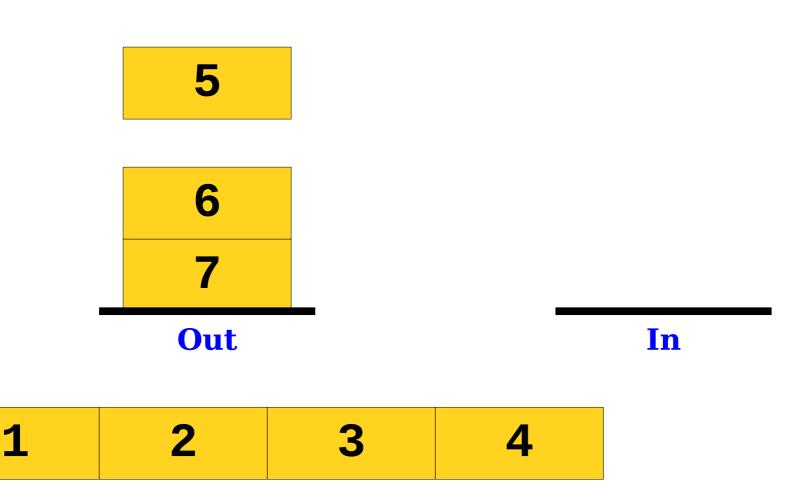


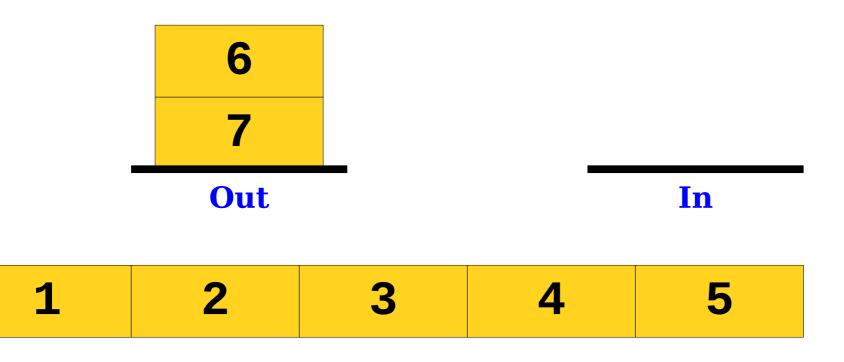
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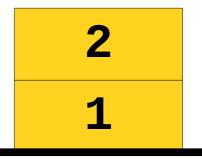




Clean Dishes



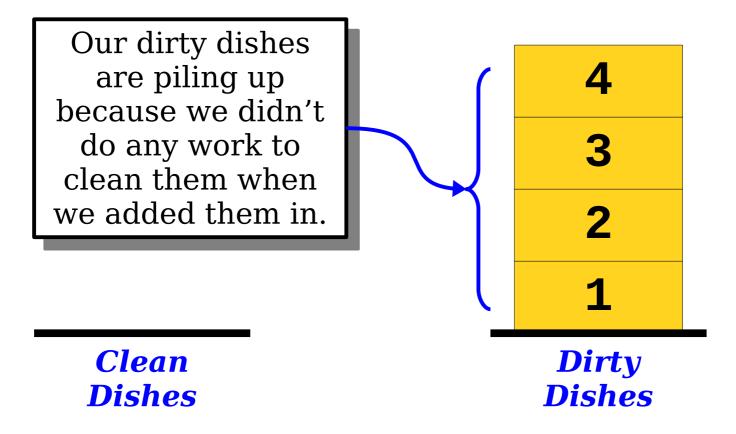
Clean Dishes

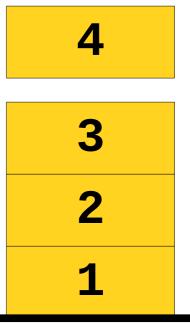


Clean Dishes



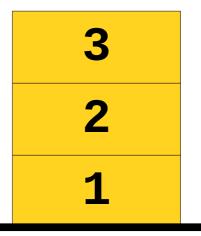
Clean Dishes



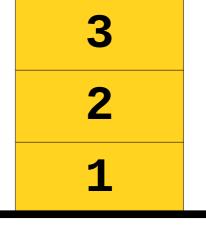


Clean Dishes





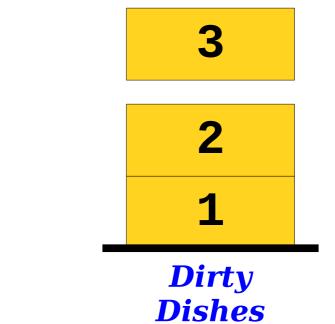
Clean Dishes



Dirty Dishes



Clean Dishes



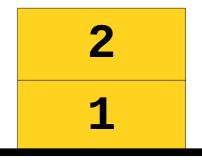


Clean Dishes



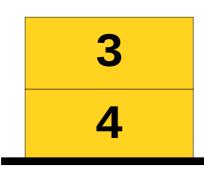


Clean Dishes



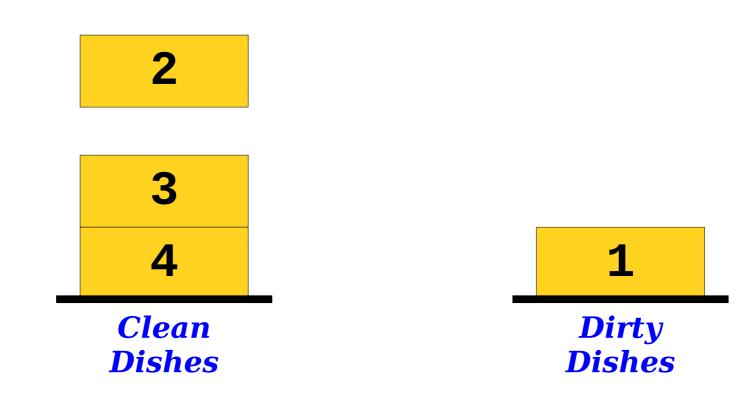


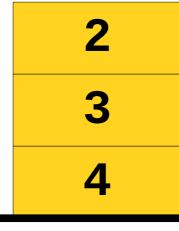
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Clean Dishes



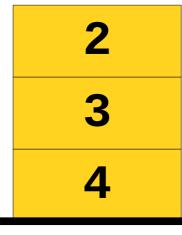




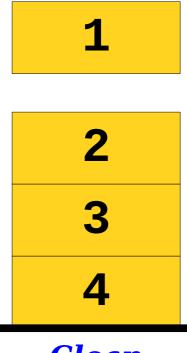
Clean Dishes



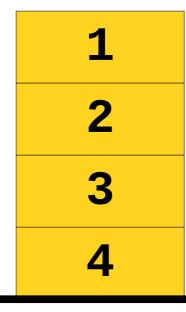




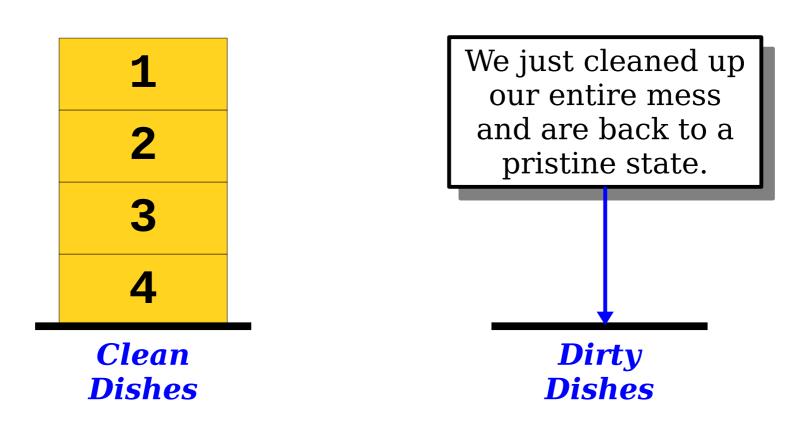
Clean Dishes

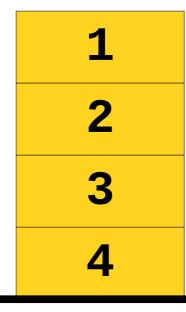


Clean Dishes



Clean Dishes

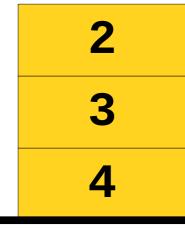




Clean Dishes

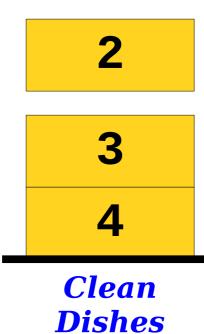


Clean Dishes



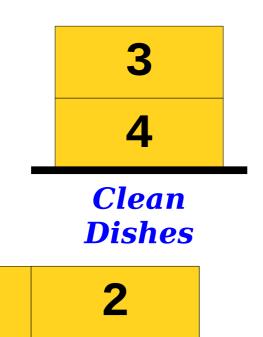
Clean Dishes Dirty Dishes

1



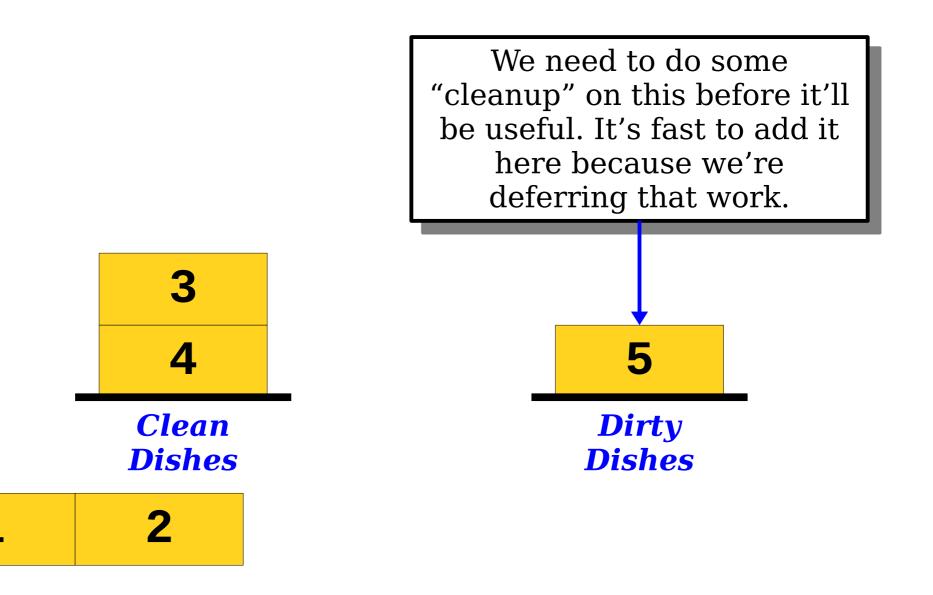
Dirty Dishes

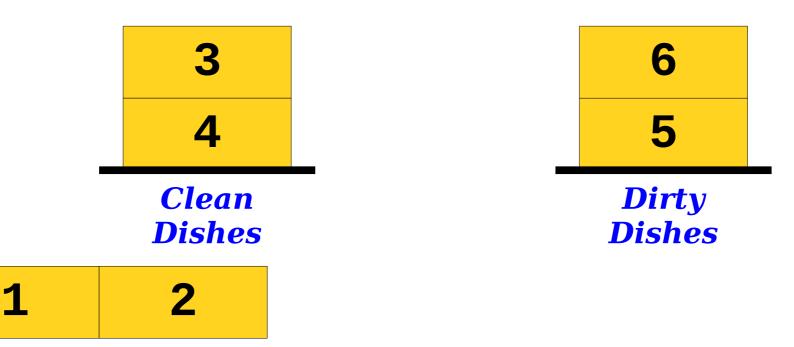
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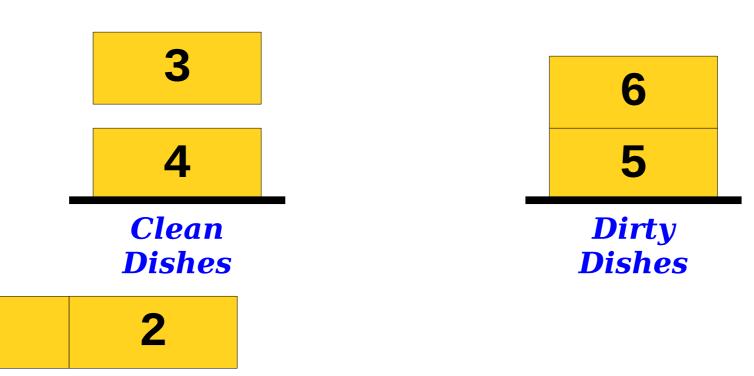


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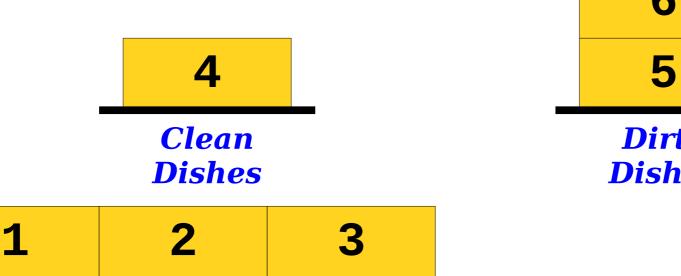
Dirty Dishes





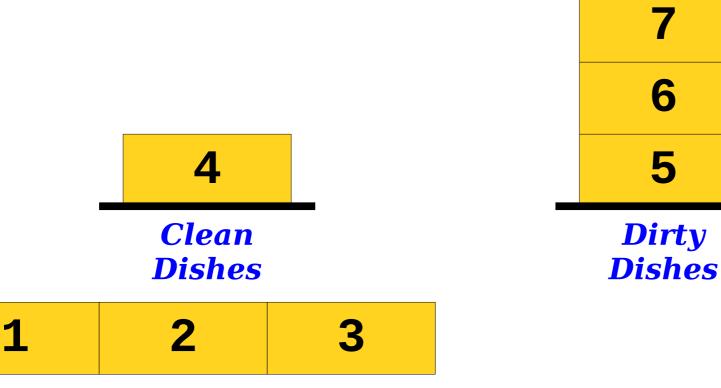


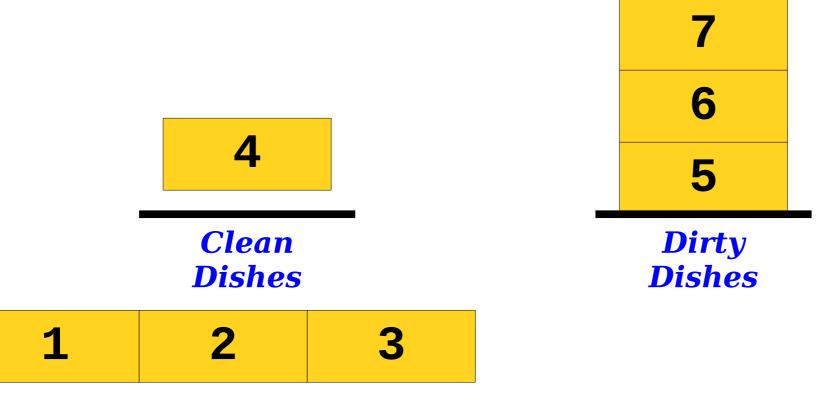
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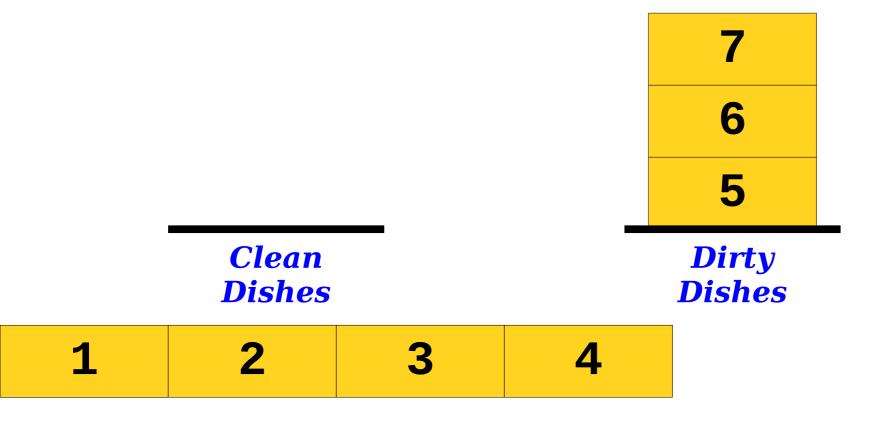


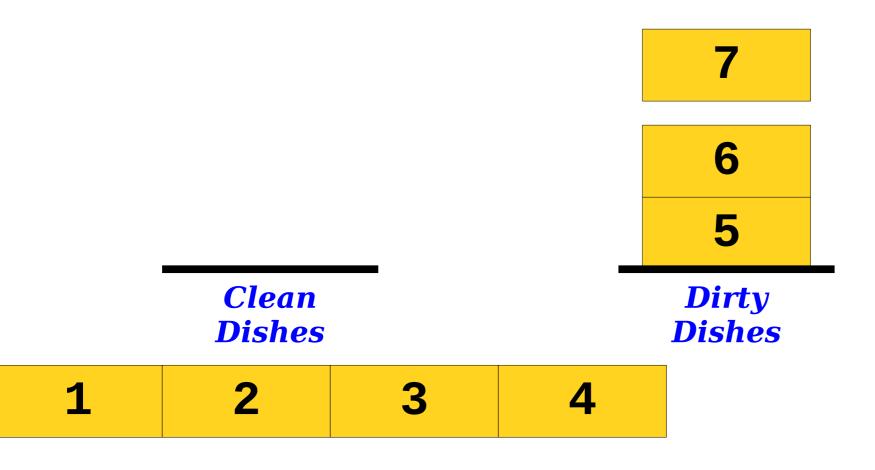


Dirty Dishes

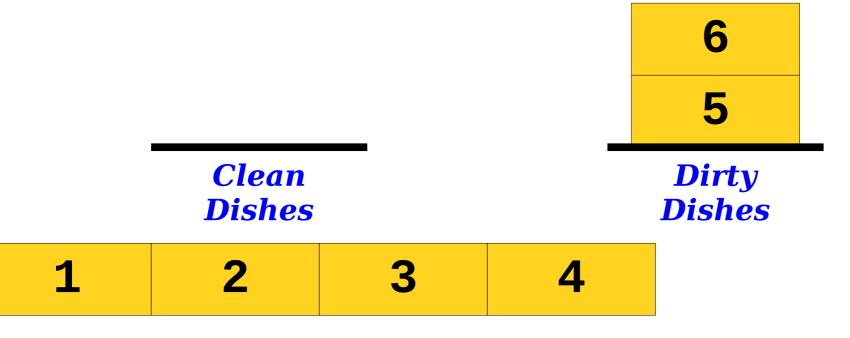


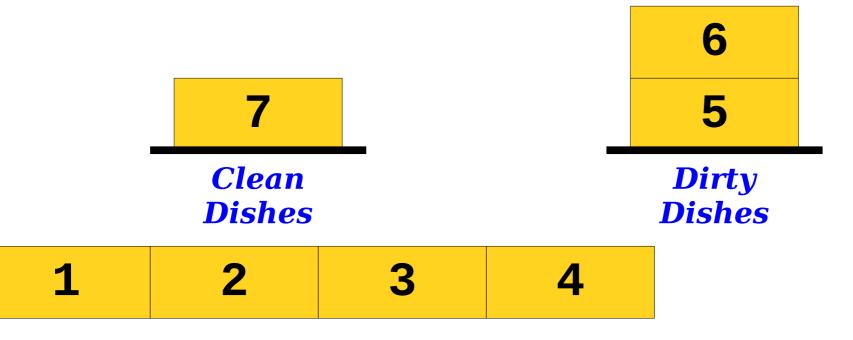


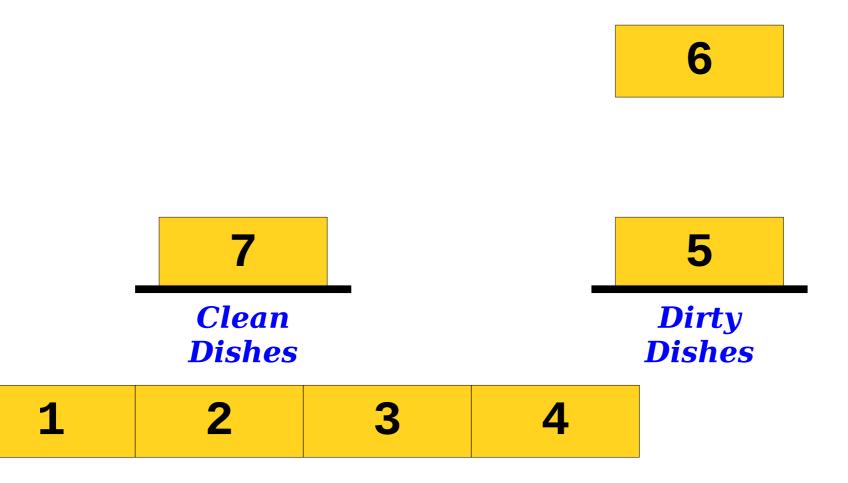


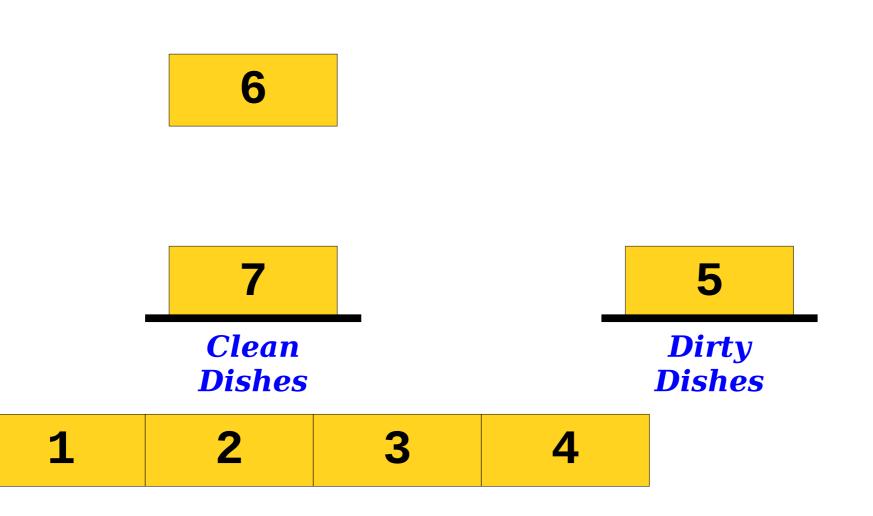


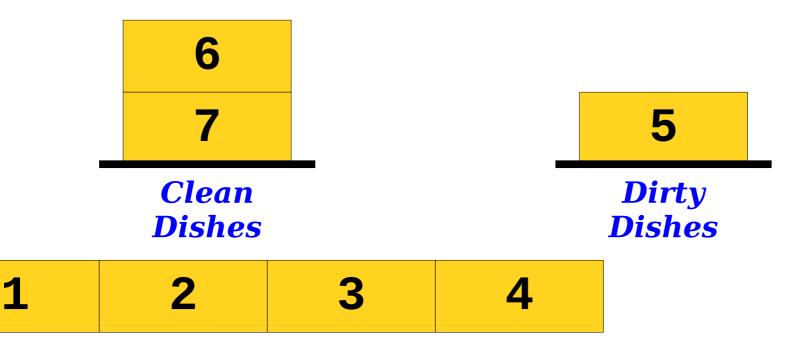


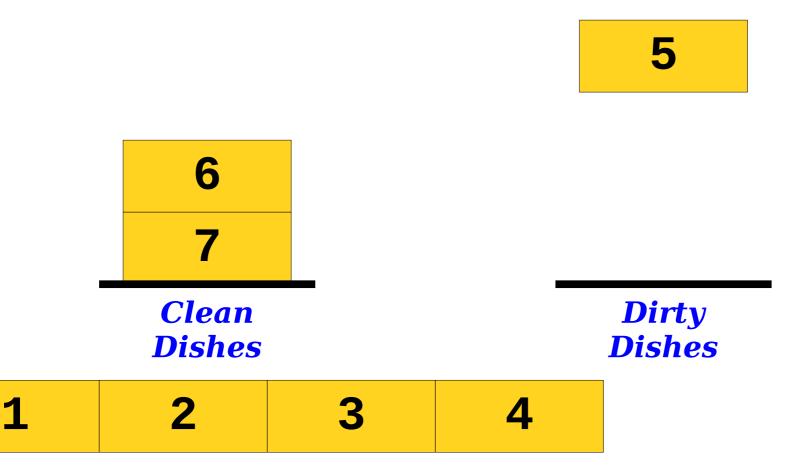


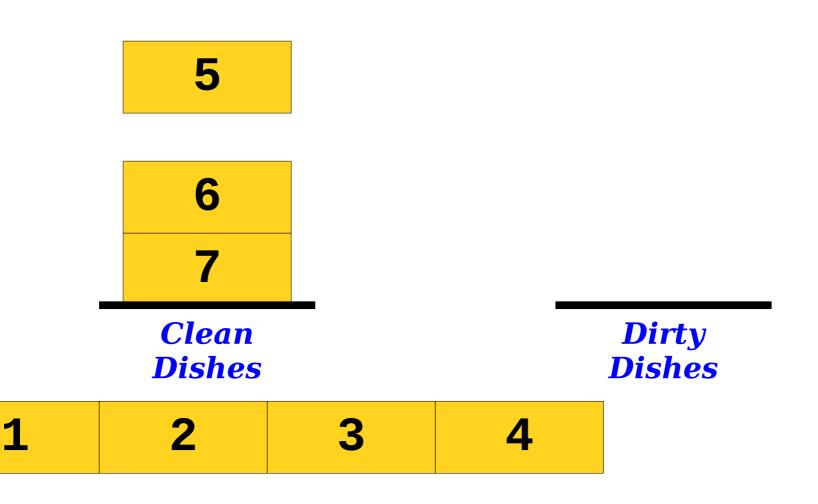


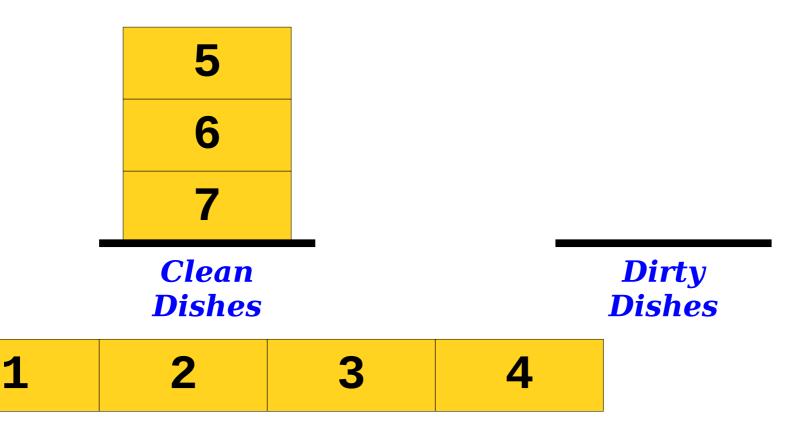


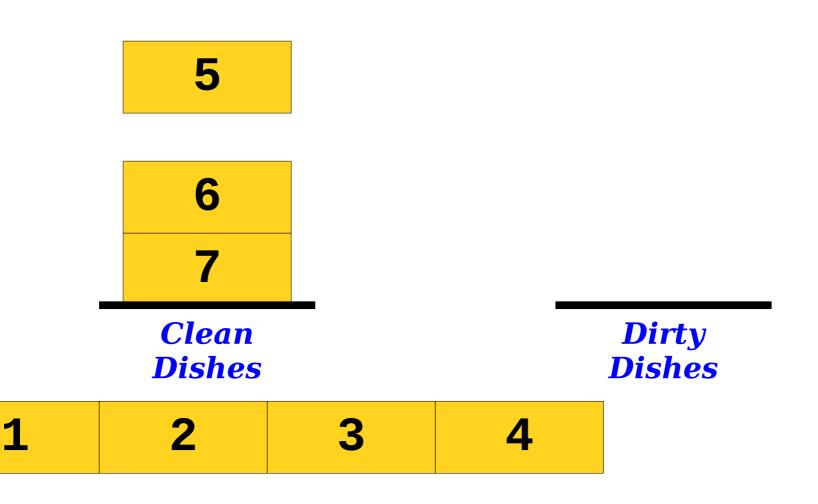


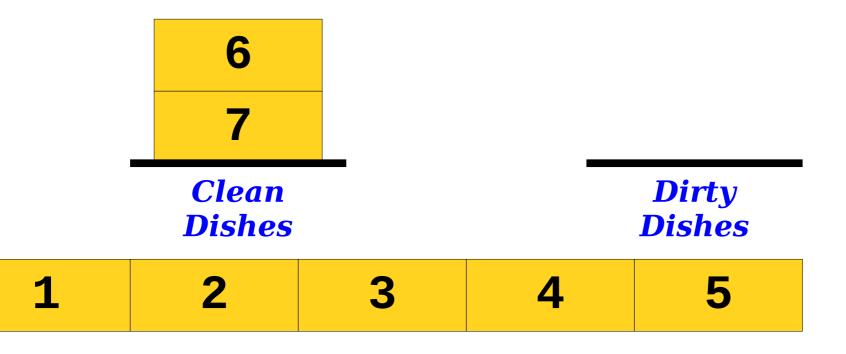






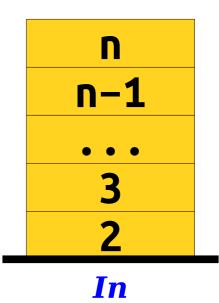






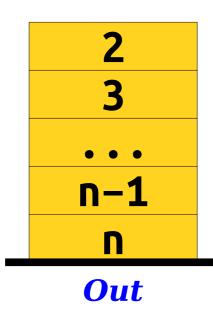
- Maintain an *In* stack and an *Out* stack.
- To enqueue an element, push it onto the In stack.
- To dequeue an element:
 - If the *Out* stack is nonempty, pop it.
 - If the *Out* stack is empty, pop elements from the *In* stack, pushing them into the *Out* stack. Then dequeue as usual.

- 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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- **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!

- *Key Fact:* Any series of *n* operations on an (initially empty) two-stack queue will take time O(*n*).
- Why?

In

- *Key Fact:* Any series of *n* operations on an (initially empty) two-stack queue will take time O(*n*).
- Why?

Formulate a hypothesis!

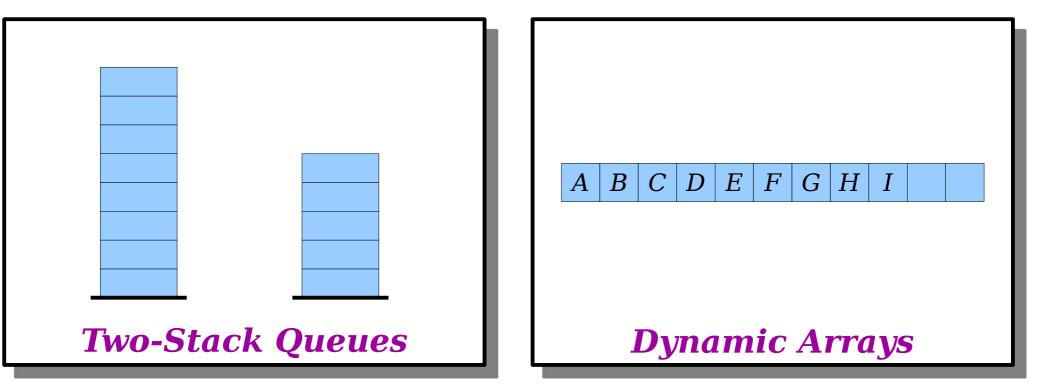
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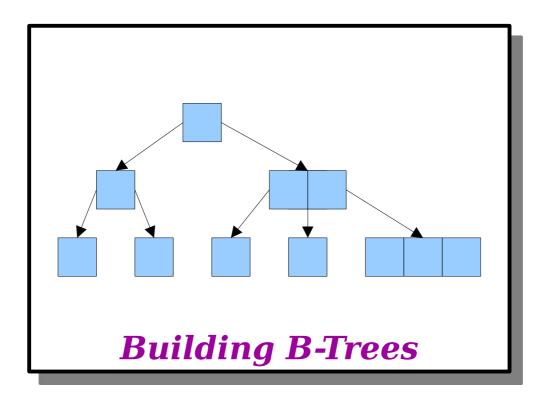
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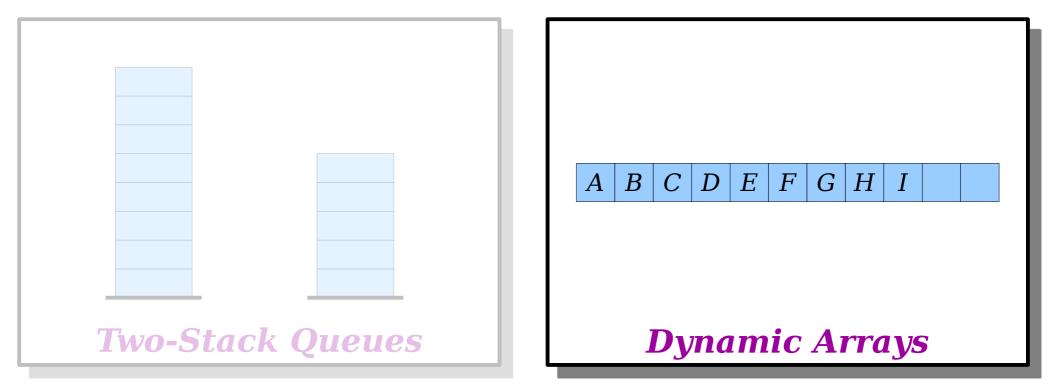
Discuss with your neighbors!

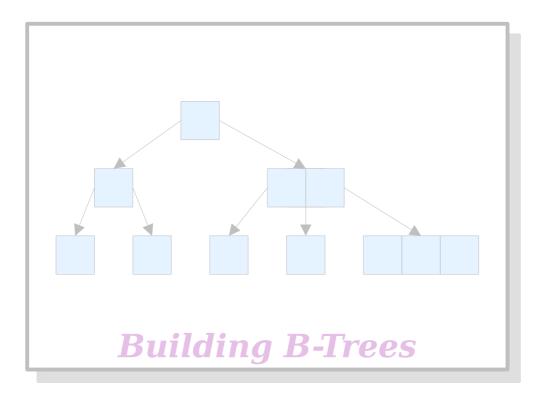
- *Key Fact:* Any series of *n* operations on an (initially empty) two-stack queue will take time O(*n*).
- Why?
- Each item is pushed into at most two stacks and popped from at most two stacks.
- Adding up the work done per element across all n operations, we can do at most O(n) work.

- It's correct but misleading to say the cost of a dequeue is O(n).
 - This is comparatively rare.
- 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?

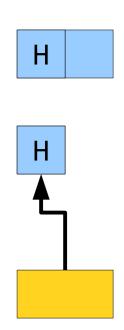








- A *dynamic array* is the most common way to implement a list of values.
- Maintain an array slightly bigger than the one you need. When you run out of space, double the array size and copy the elements over.

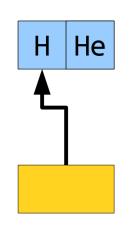


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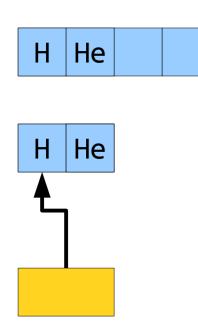
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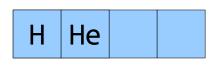
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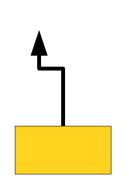


- A *dynamic array* is the most common way to implement a list of values.
- Maintain an array slightly bigger than the one you need. When you run out of space, double the array size and copy the elements over.

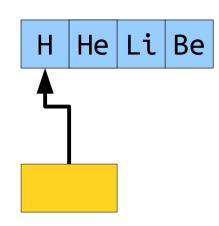


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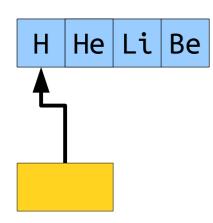


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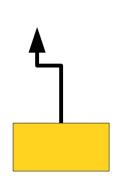
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H He Li Be

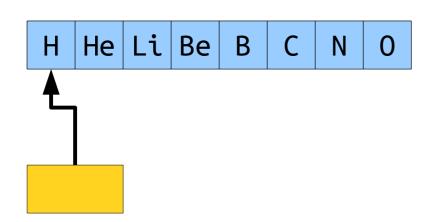


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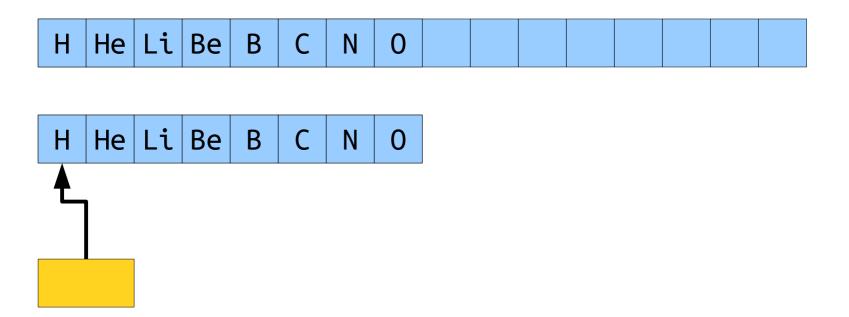
H He Li Be



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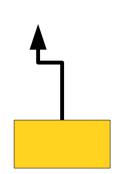


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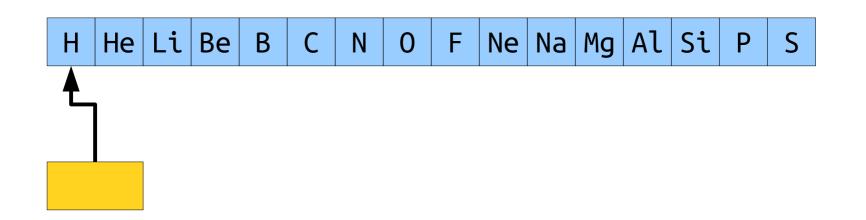


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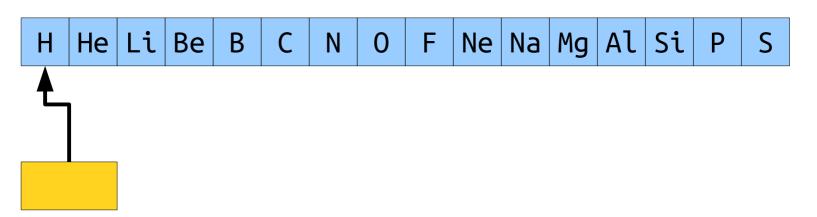
H He Li Be B C N O



- 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.



- 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 2^0 , 2^1 , 2^2 , ..., etc.
- The very last doubling is at the largest power of two less than n. This is at most $2^{\lfloor \log_2 n \rfloor}$. (Do you see why?)
- Total work done across all doubling is at most

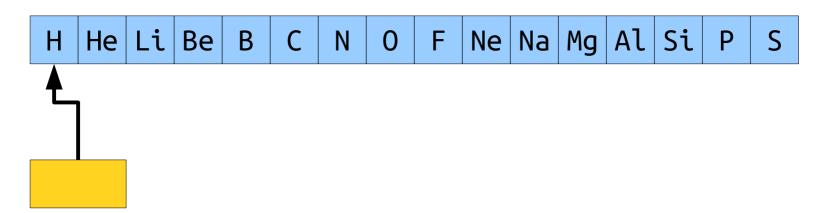
$$2^{0} + 2^{1} + \dots + 2^{\lfloor \log_{2} n \rfloor} = 2^{\lfloor \log_{2} n \rfloor + 1} - 1$$

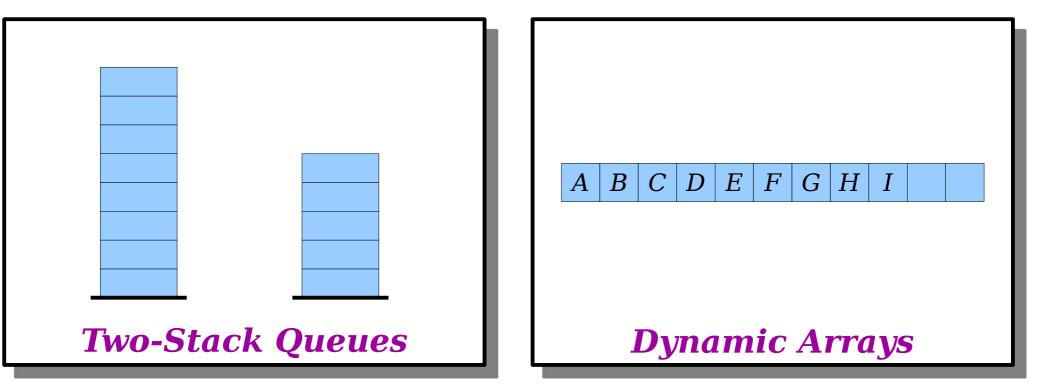
$$\leq 2^{\log_{2} n + 1}$$

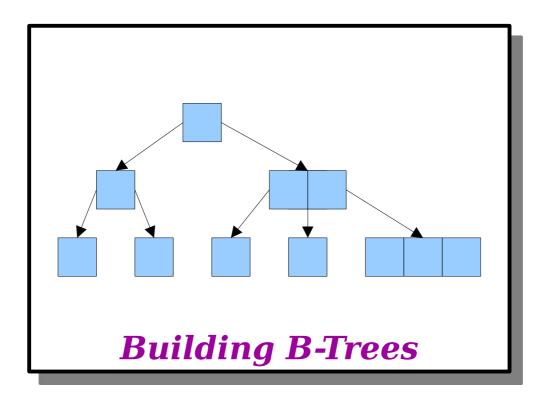
$$= 2n.$$

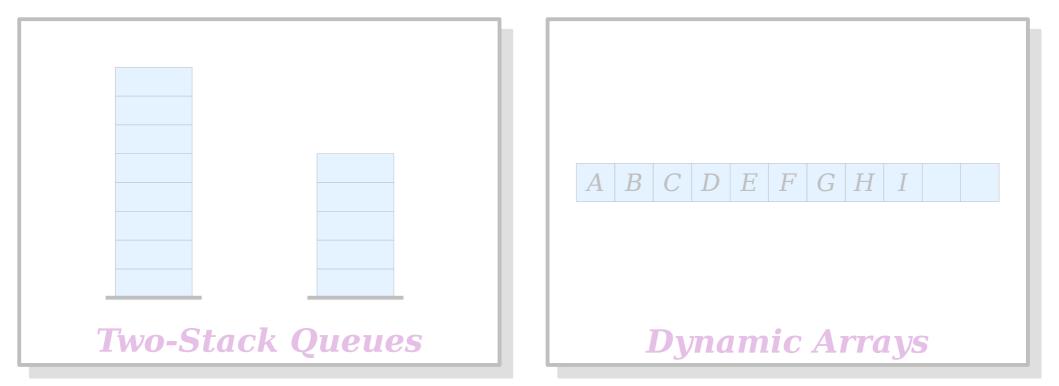
H He Li Be B C N 0 F Ne Na Mg Al Si P S

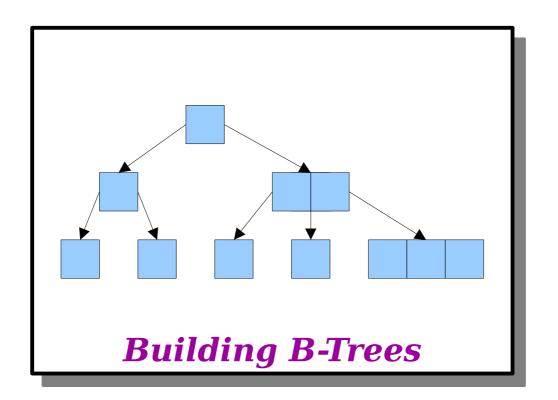
- It's correct but misleading to say the cost of an append is O(n).
 - This is comparatively rare.
- It's wrong, but useful, to pretend that the cost of an append is O(1).
 - Some operations take more time than this.
 - However, pretending each operation takes O(1) time never underestimates the true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



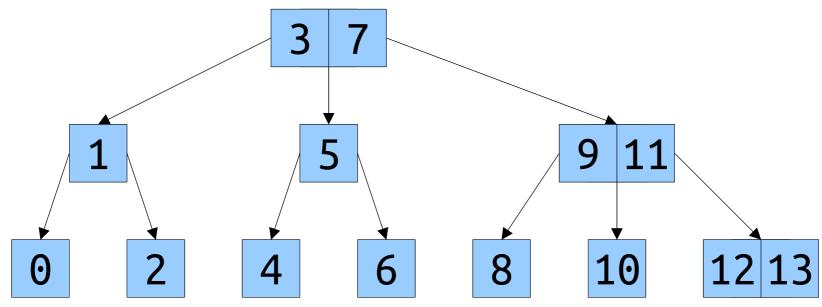








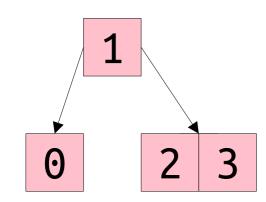
- You're given a sorted list of *n* values and a value of *b*.
- What's the most efficient way to construct a B-tree of order *b* holding these *n* values?
- **One Option:** Think really hard, calculate the shape of a B-tree of order *b* with *n* elements in it, then place the items into that B-tree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

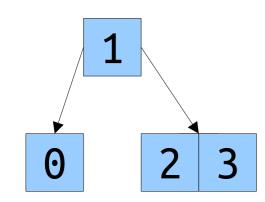


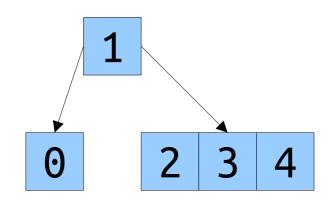


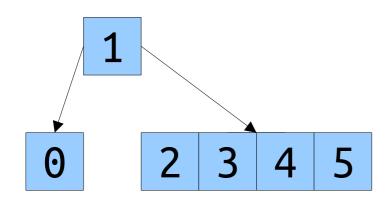


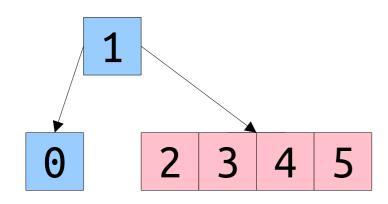


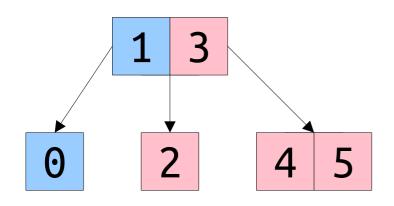


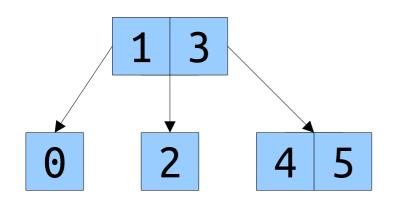


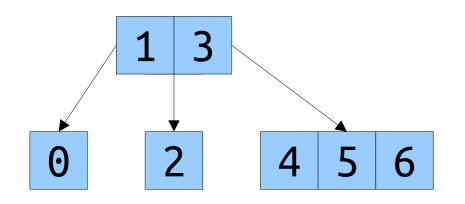


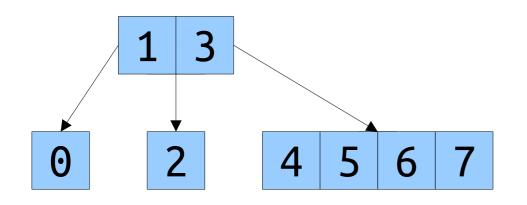


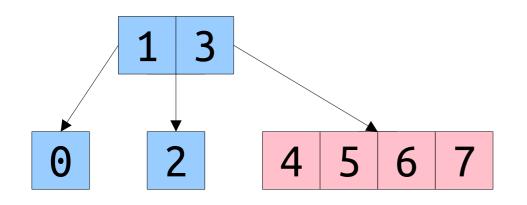


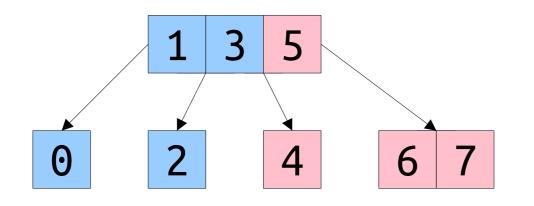


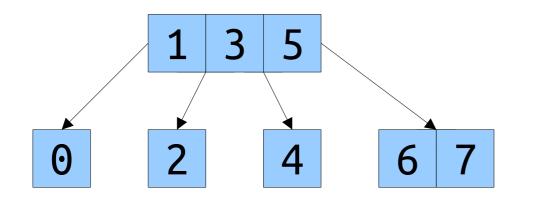


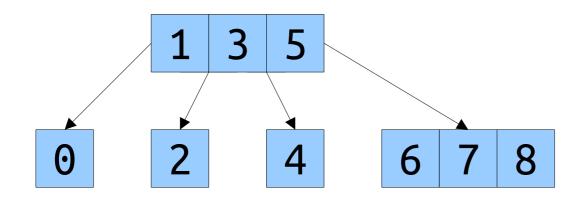


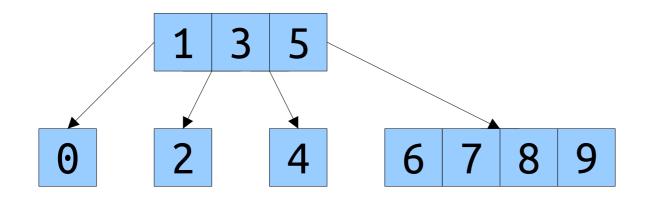


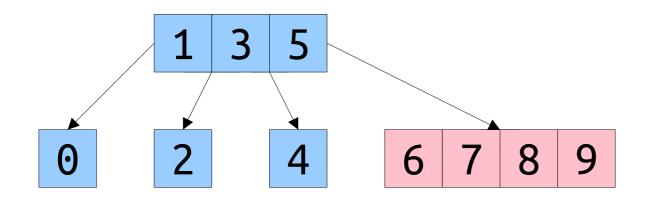


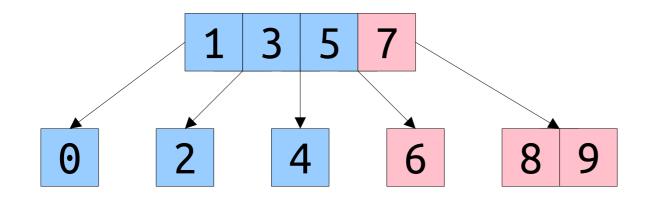




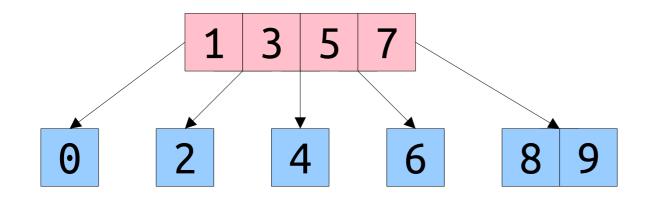




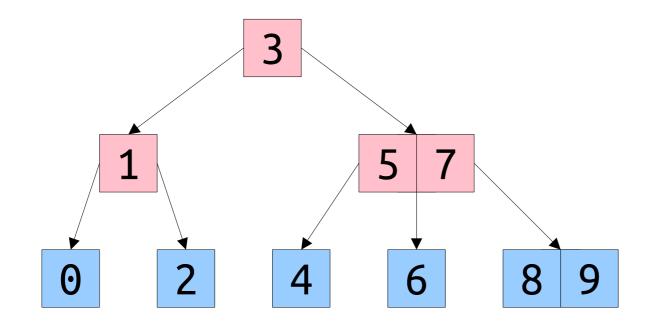




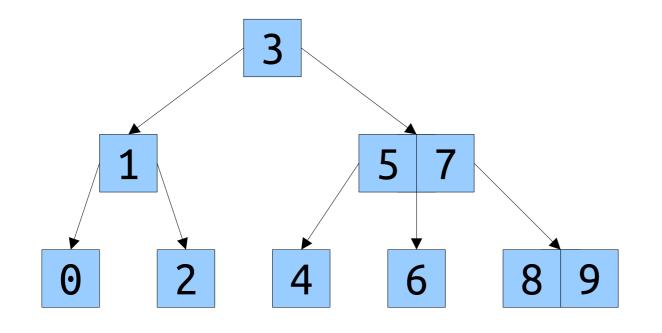
• **Idea 1:** Insert the items into an empty B-tree in sorted order.



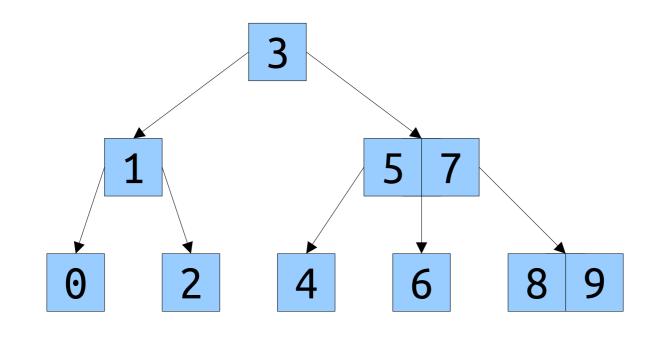
• **Idea 1:** Insert the items into an empty B-tree in sorted order.

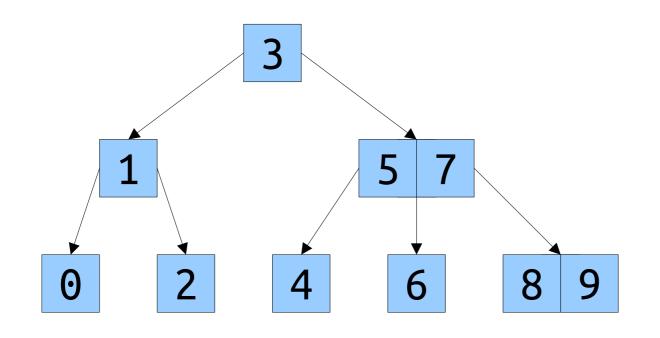


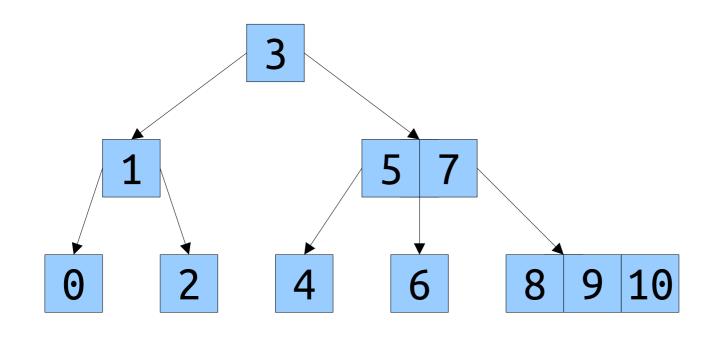
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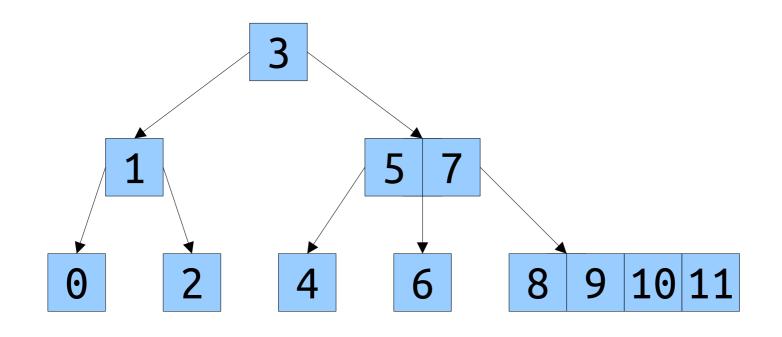


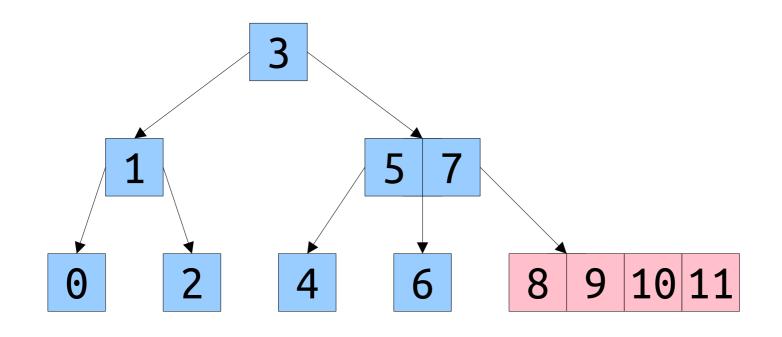
- **Idea 1:** Insert the items into an empty B-tree in sorted order.
- Cost: $\Omega(n \log_b n)$, due to the top-down search.
- Can we do better?

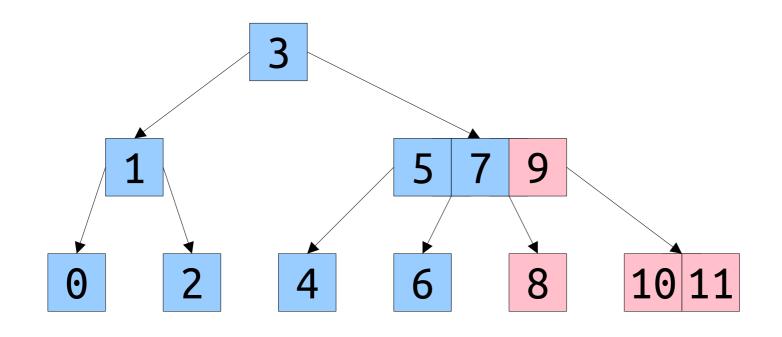


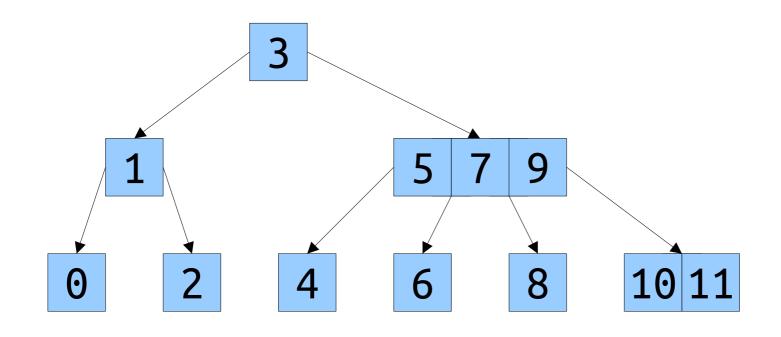


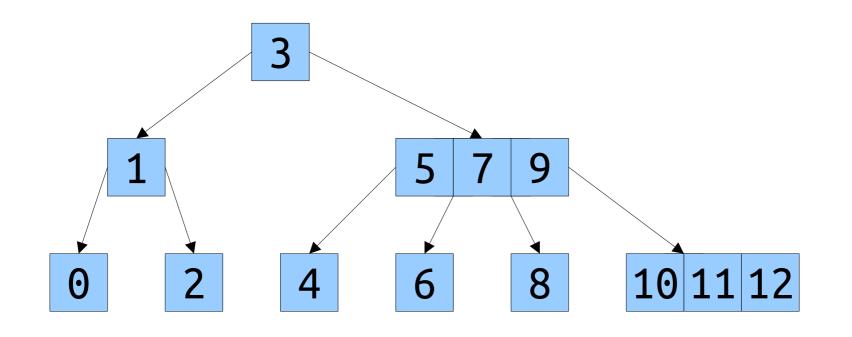


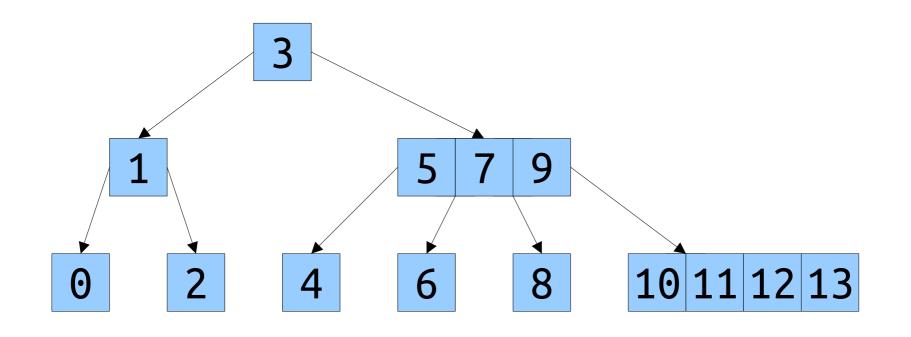


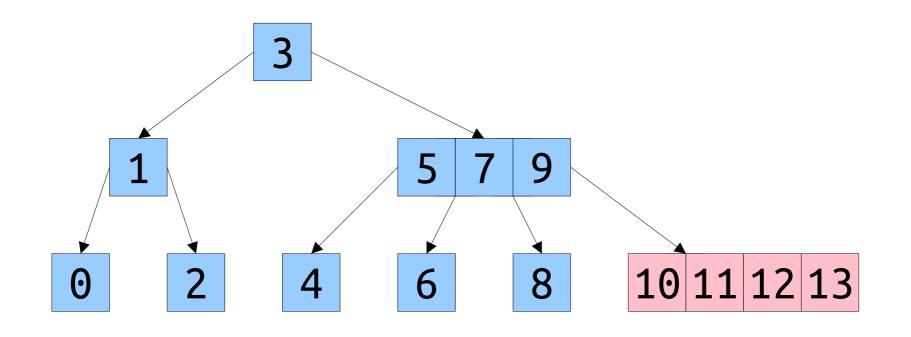


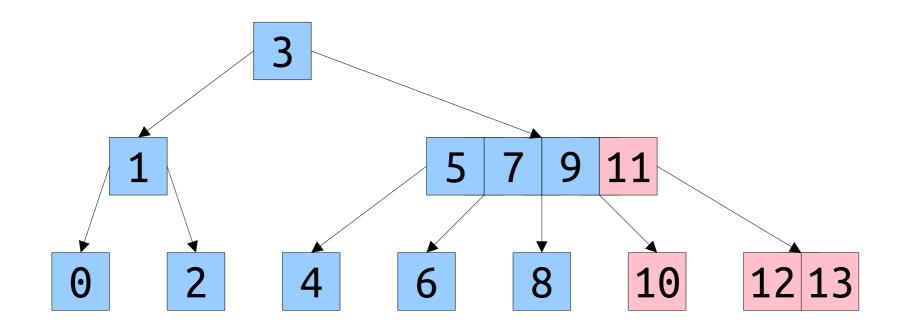


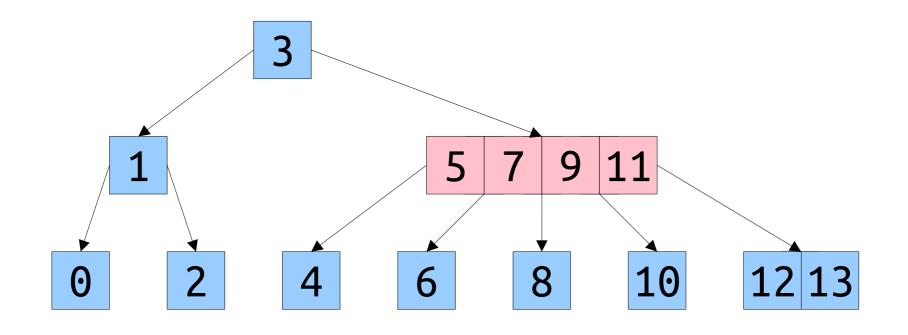


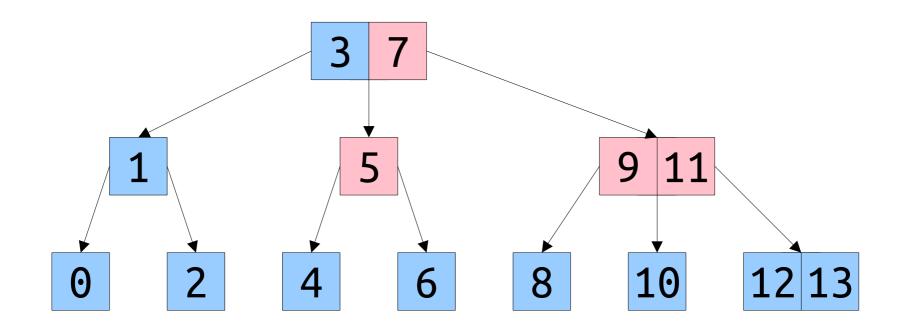


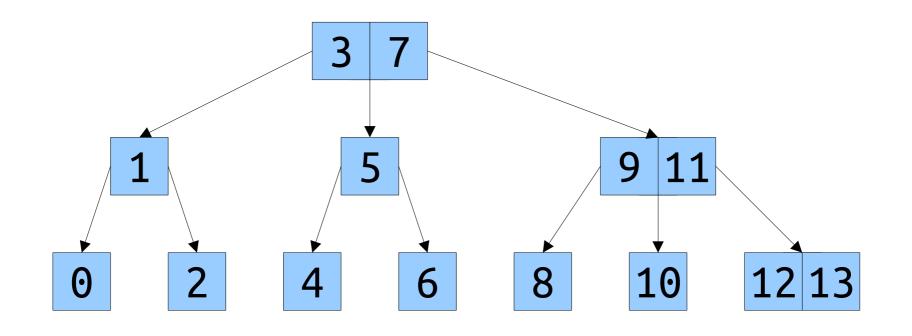




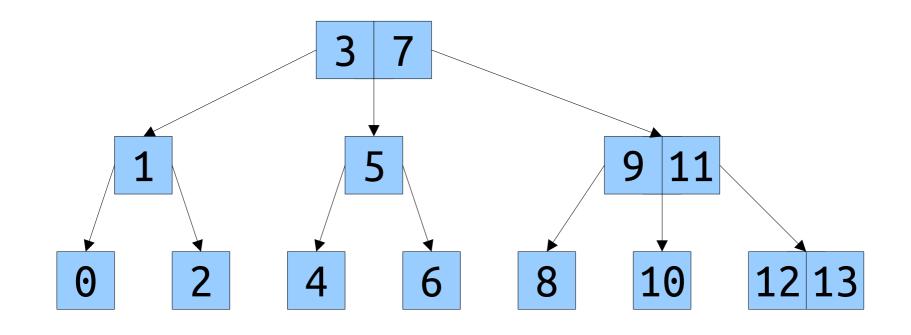




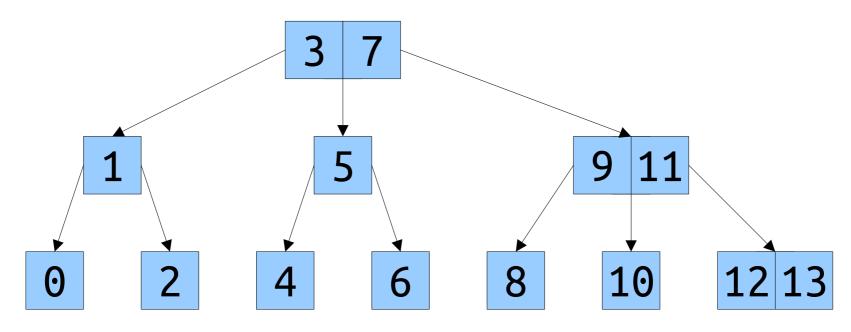




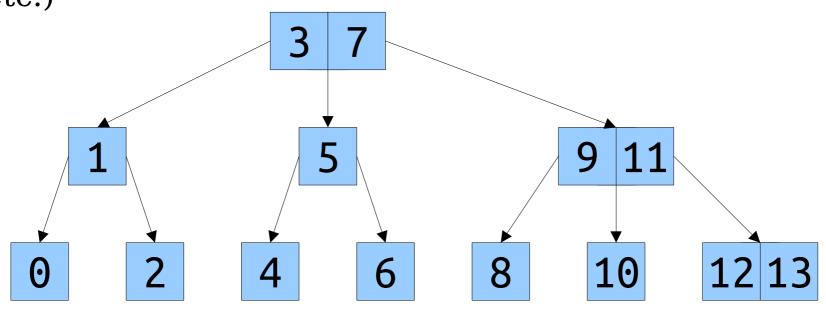
- **Idea 2:** Since all insertions will happen at the rightmost leaf, store a pointer to that leaf. Add new values by appending to this leaf, then doing any necessary splits.
- **Question:** How fast is this?



- 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.
- (etc.)



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

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

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

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

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

• Total number of splits:

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

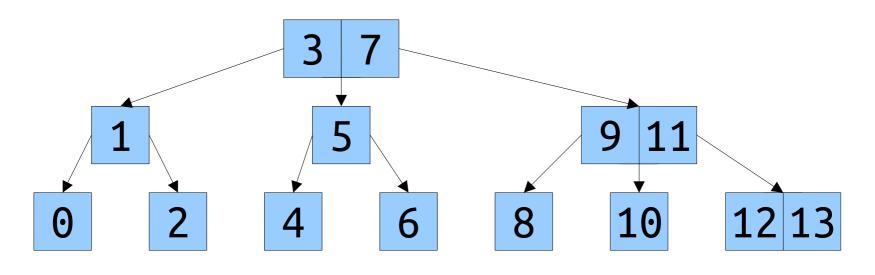
$$= \frac{n}{b} \cdot \left(1 + \frac{1}{b} + \frac{1}{b^2} + \frac{1}{b^3} + \frac{1}{b^4} + \dots\right)$$

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

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

• Total cost of those splits: $\Theta(n)$.

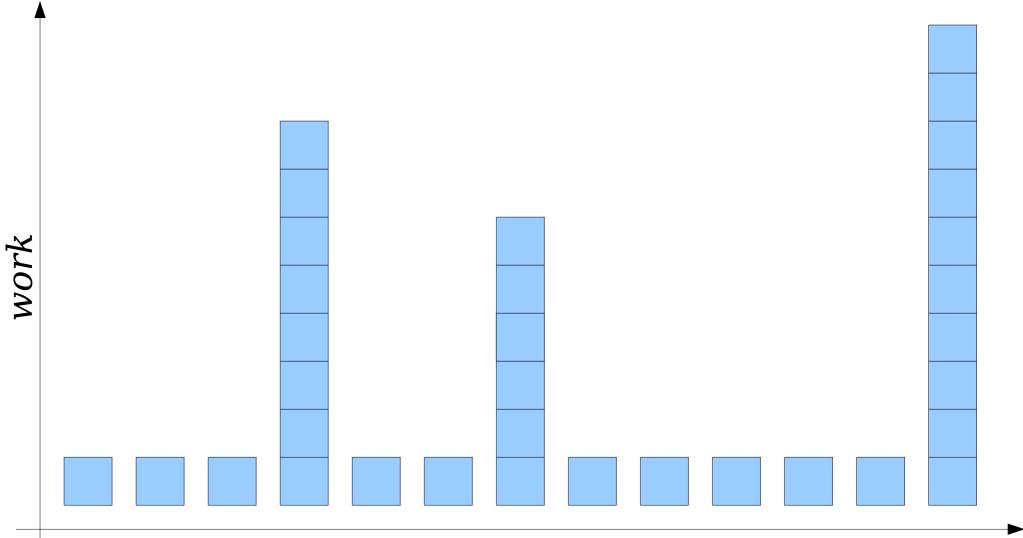
- It is correct but misleading to say the cost of an insert is O(b log_b n).
 - This is comparatively rare.
- It is wrong, but useful, to pretend that the cost of an insert is O(1).
 - Some operations take more time than this.
 - However, pretending each insert takes time O(1) never underestimates the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

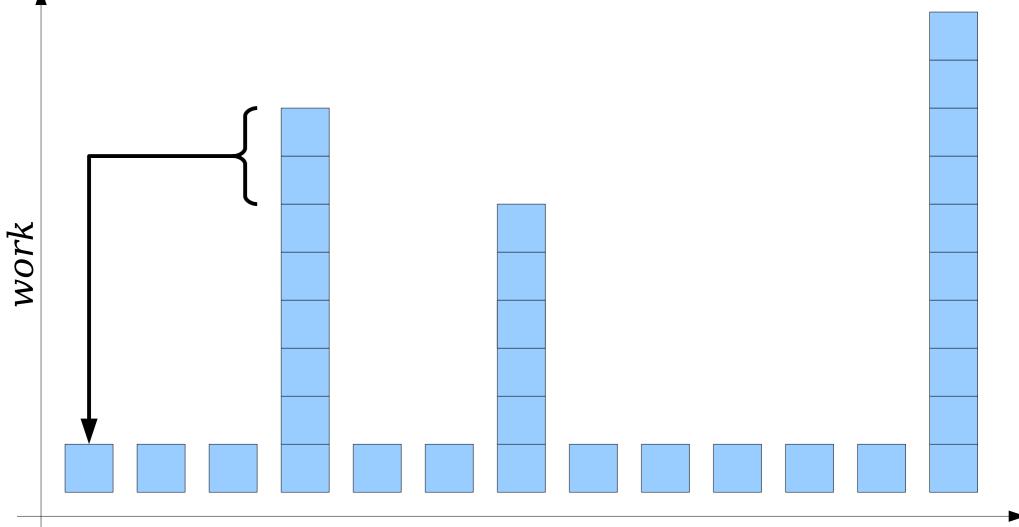


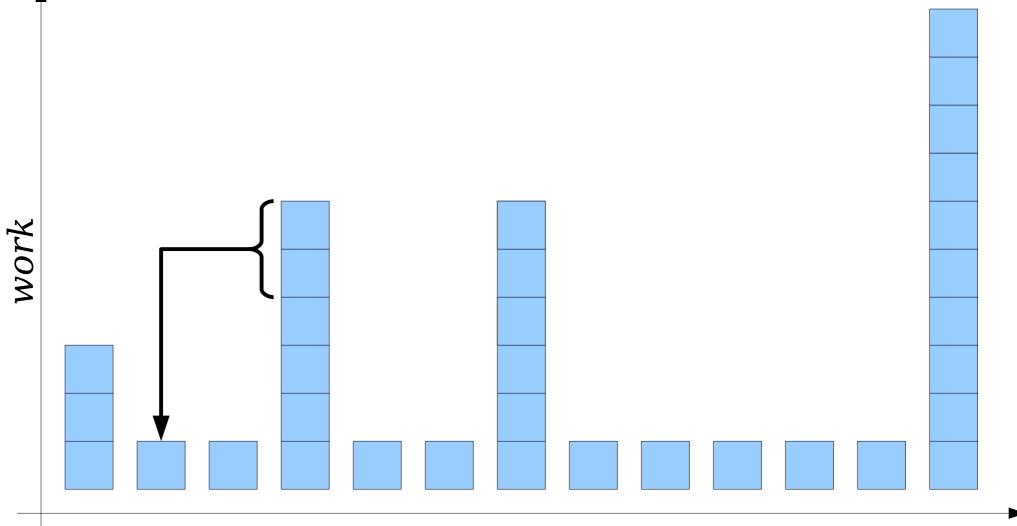
Amortized Analysis

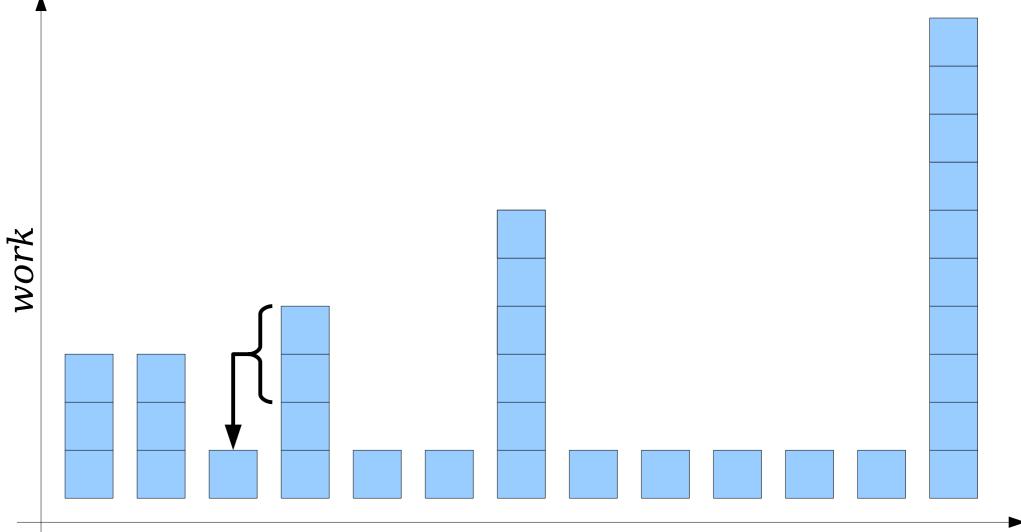
The Setup

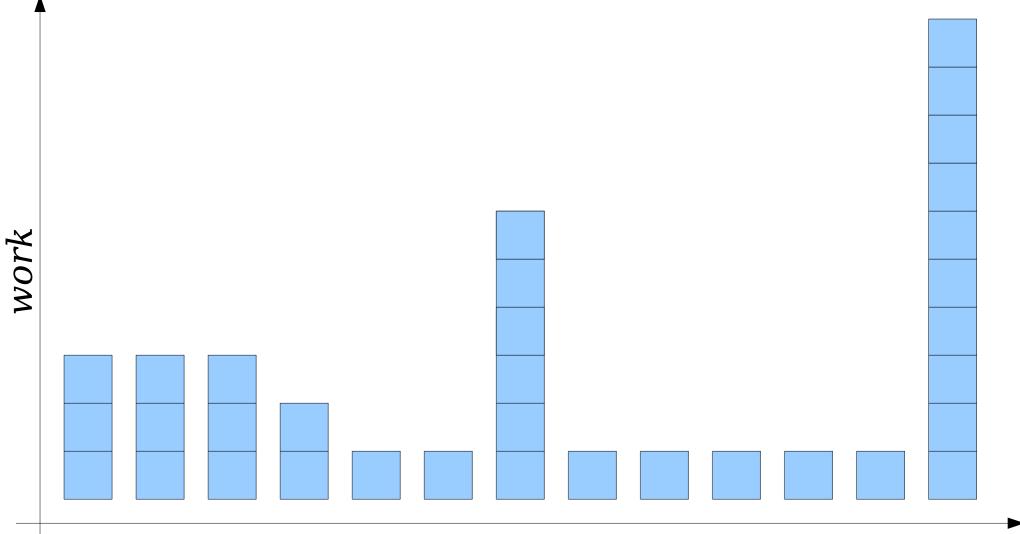
- We now have three examples of data structures where
 - individual operations may be slow, but
 - any series of operations is fast.
- Giving weak upper bounds on the cost of each operation is not useful for making predictions.
- How can we clearly communicate when a situation like this one exists?

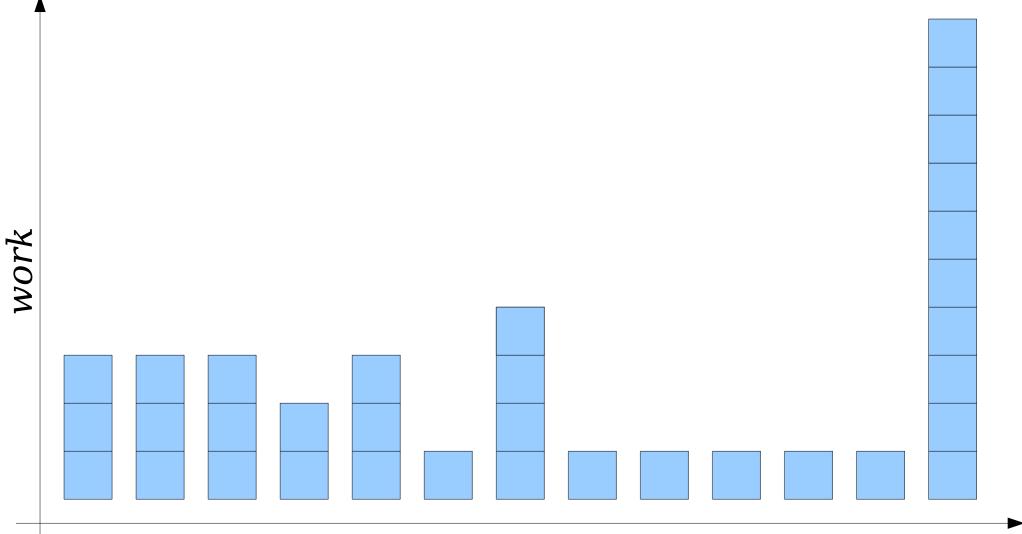


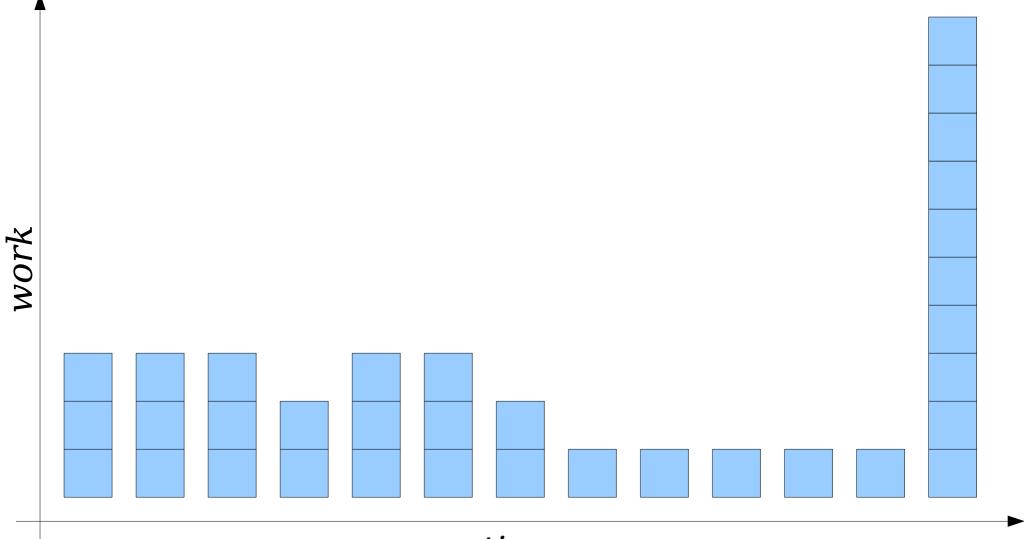


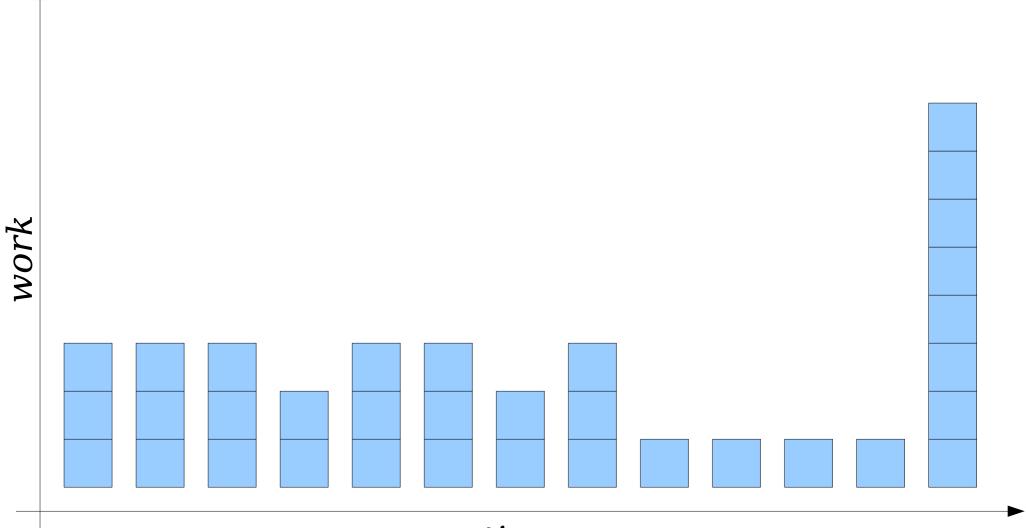


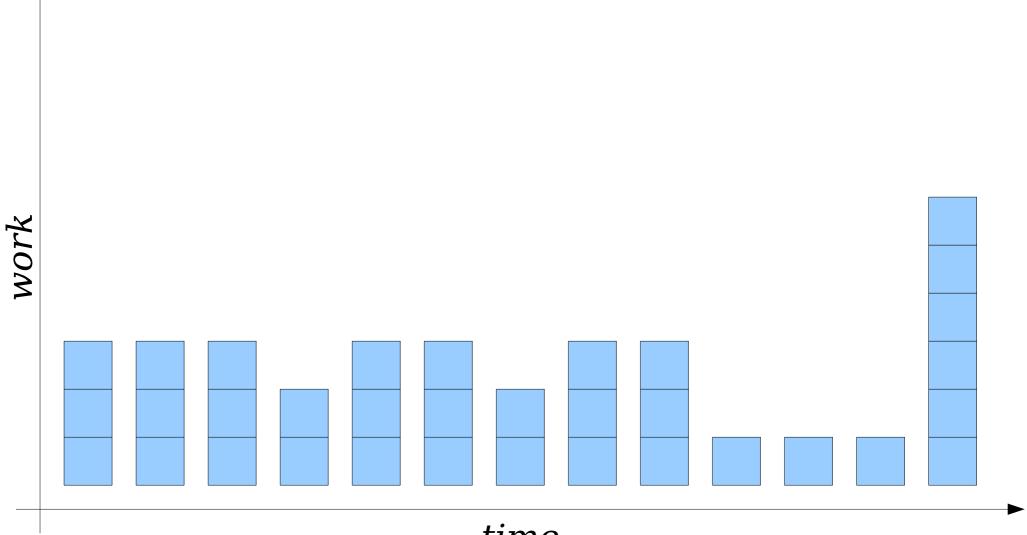


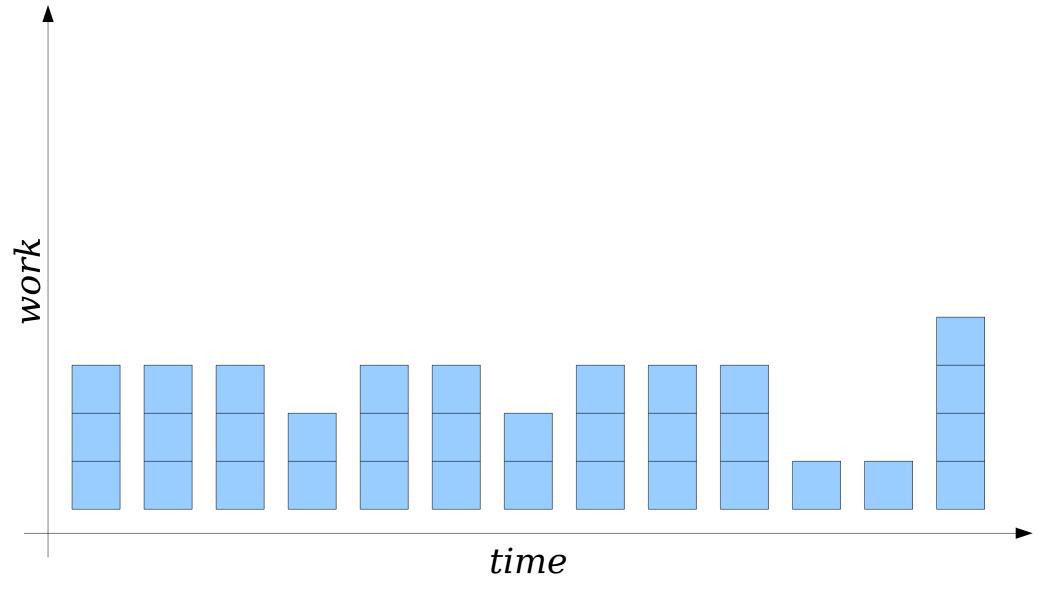


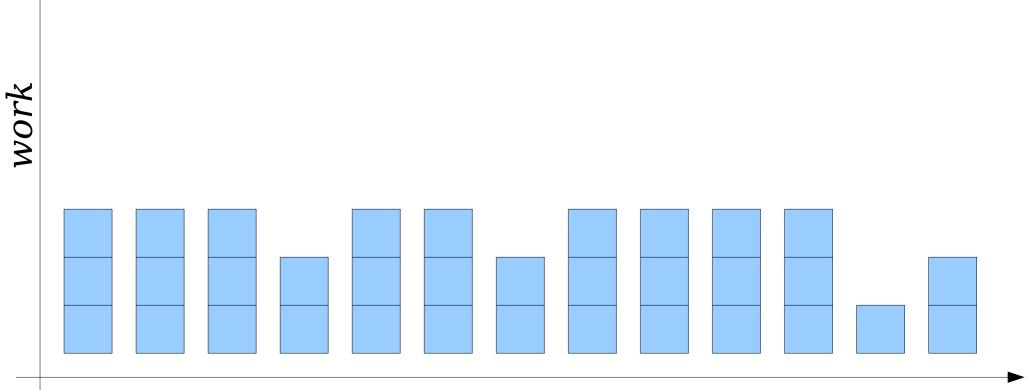


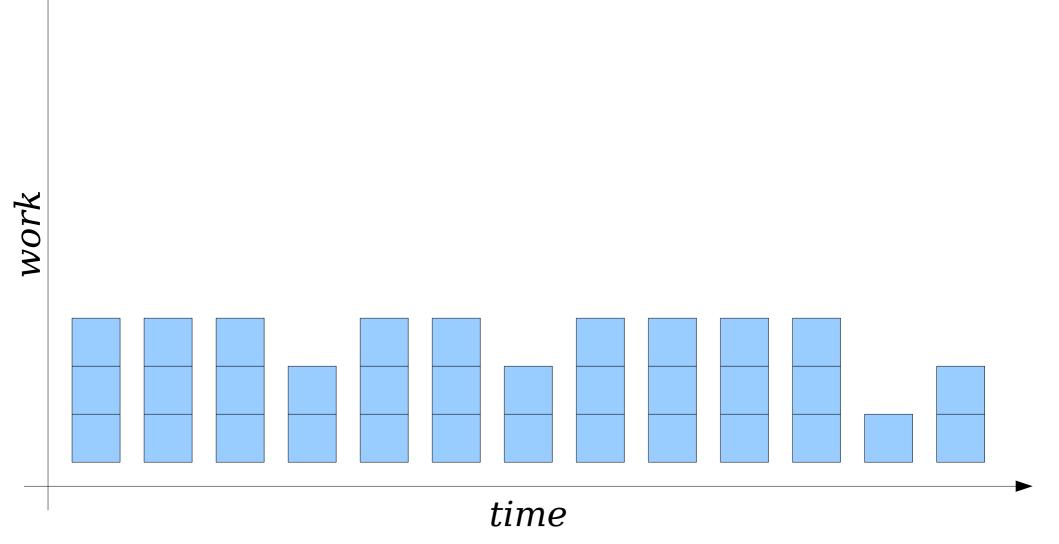


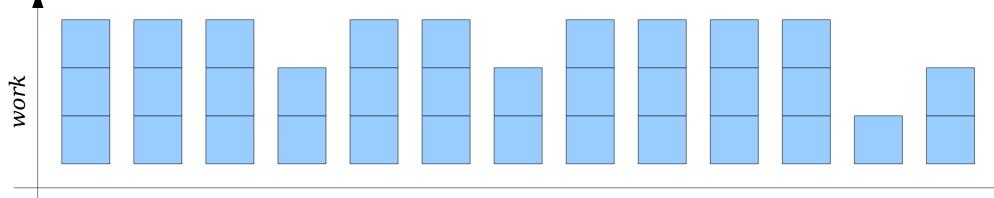


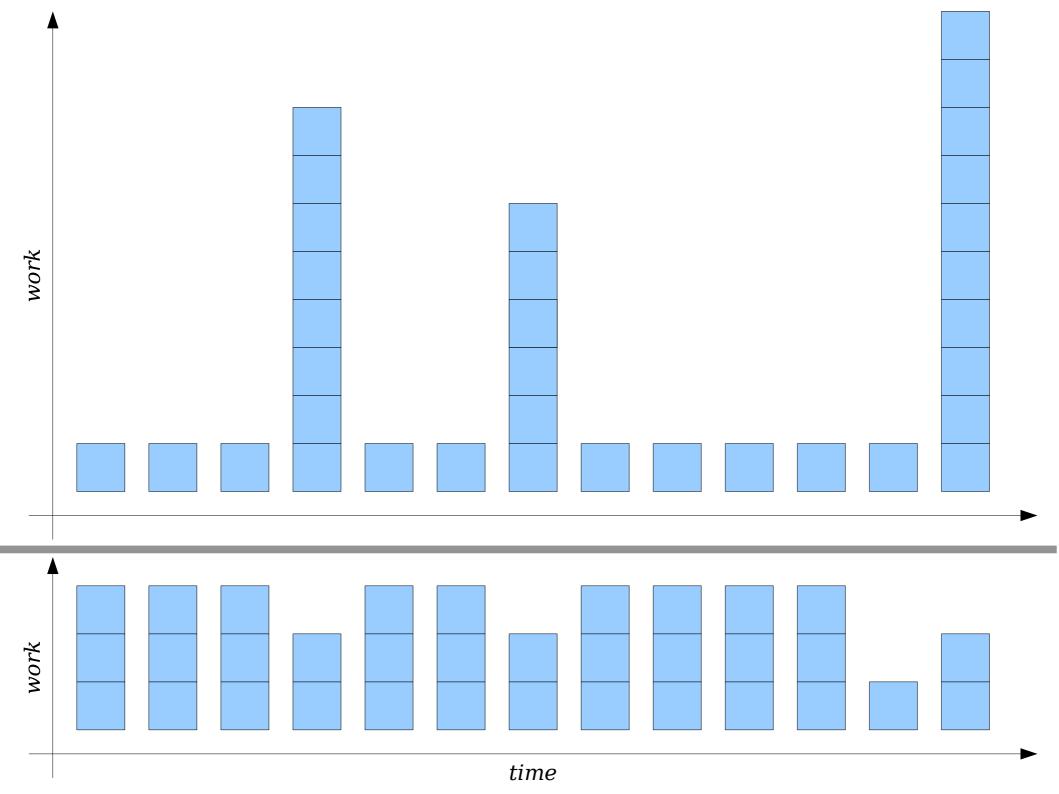


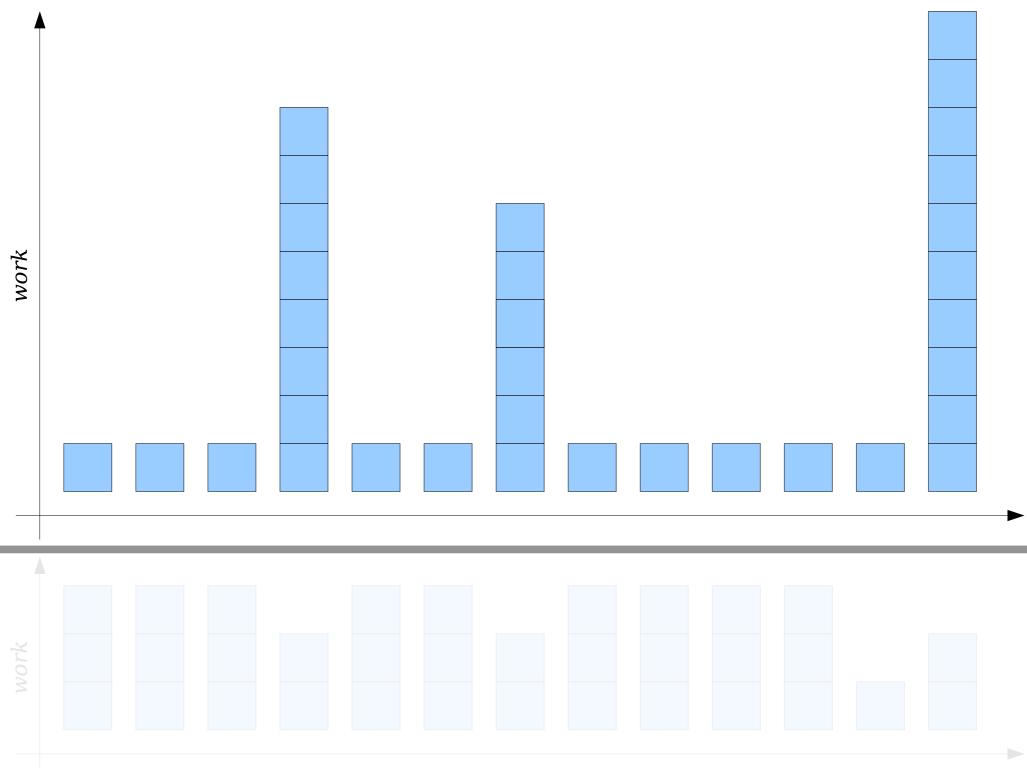


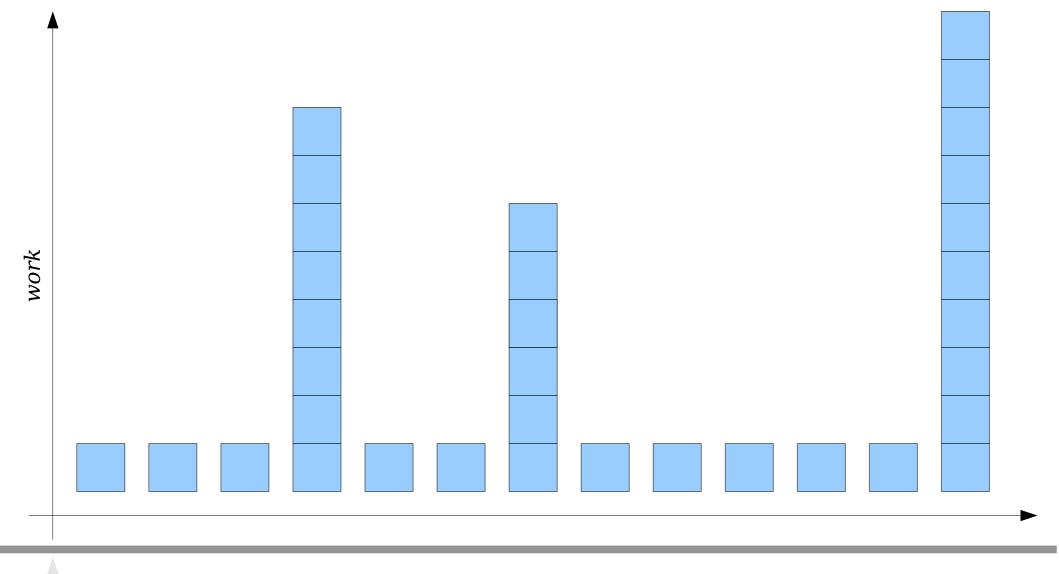




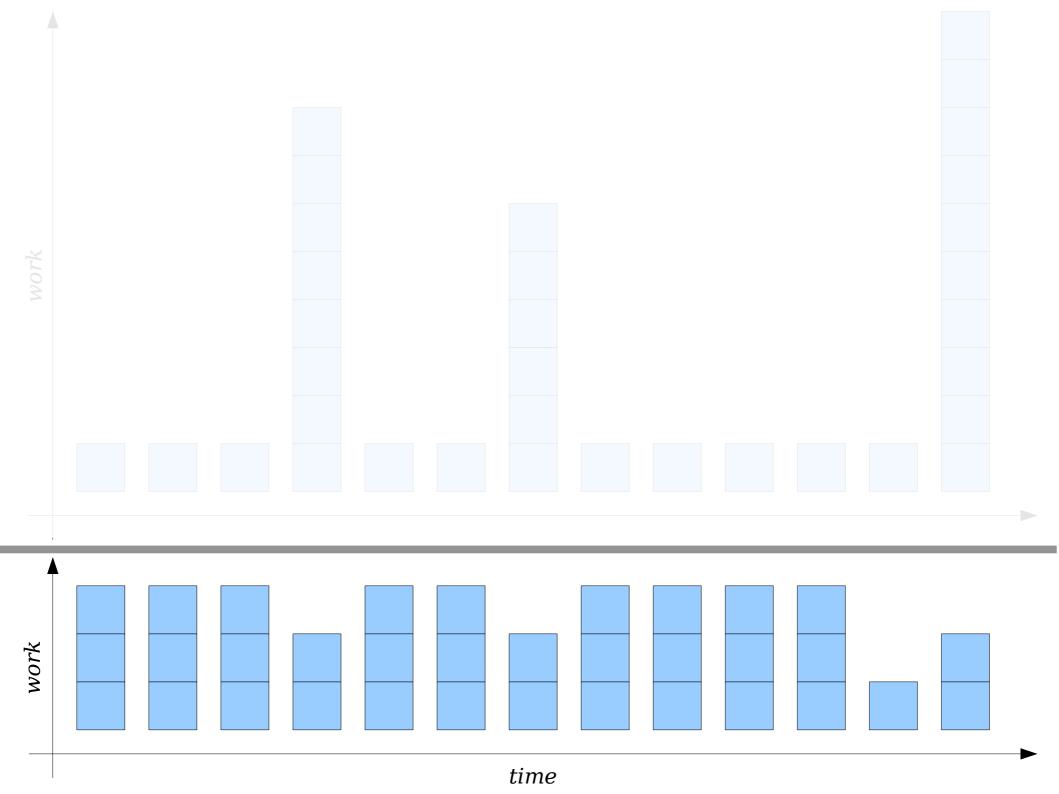


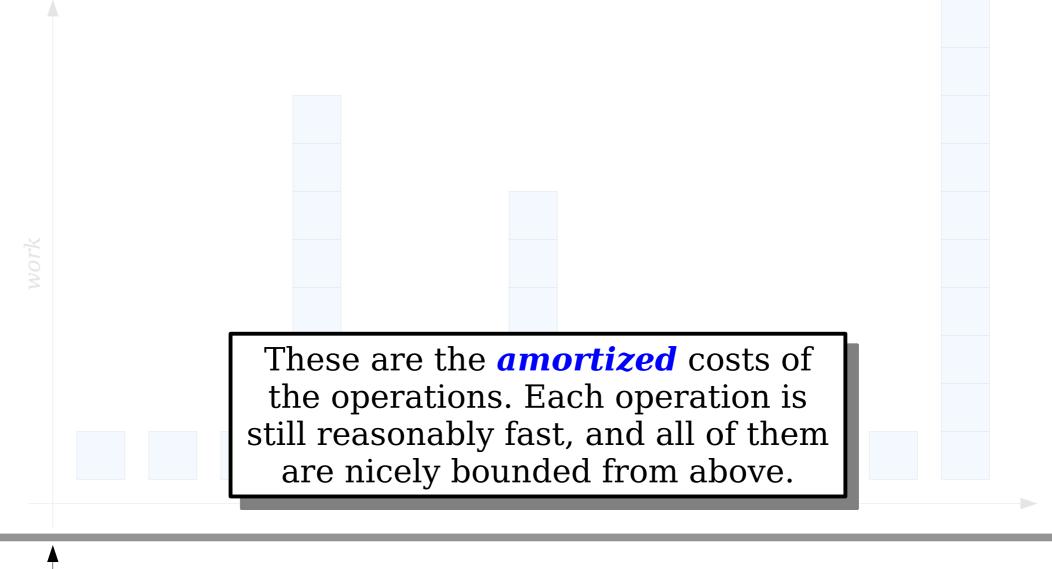


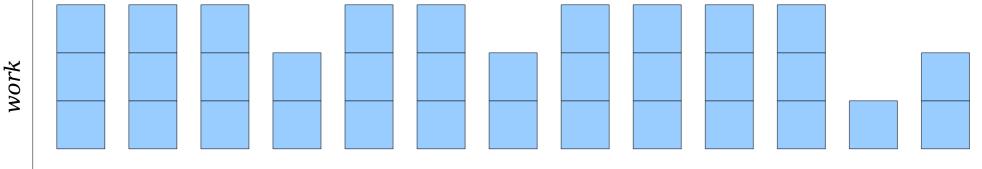




These are the **real** costs of the operations. Most operations are fast, but we can't get a nice upper bound on any one operation cost.







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:

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

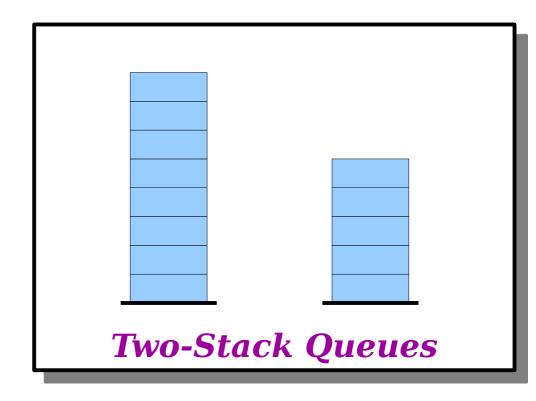
- Amortized costs shift work backwards from expensive operations onto cheaper ones.
 - Cheap operations are artificially made more expensive to pay for future cleanup work.
 - Expensive operations are artificially made cheaper by shifting the work backwards.

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

 $n \cdot \mathrm{O}(1) = \mathrm{O}(n).$

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

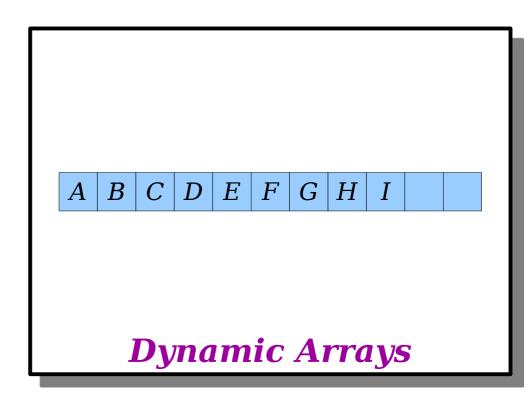


Where We're Going

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

 $n \cdot \mathrm{O}(1) = \mathrm{O}(n).$

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

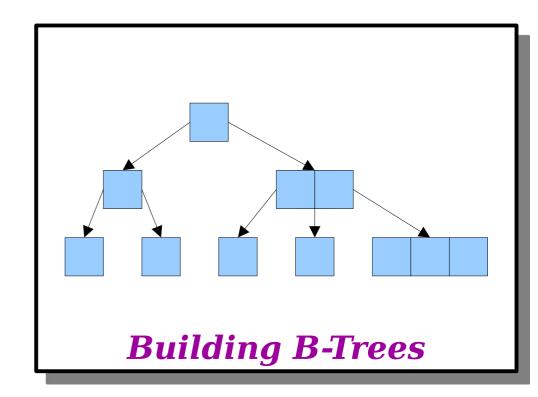


Where We're Going

- 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

 $n \cdot \mathrm{O}(1) = \mathrm{O}(n).$

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



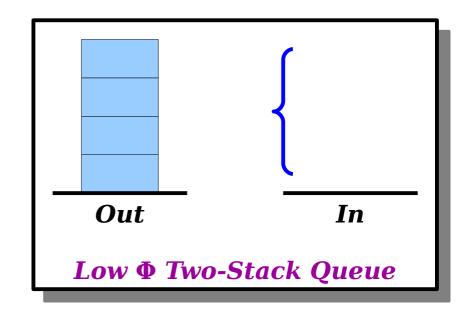
Formalizing This Idea

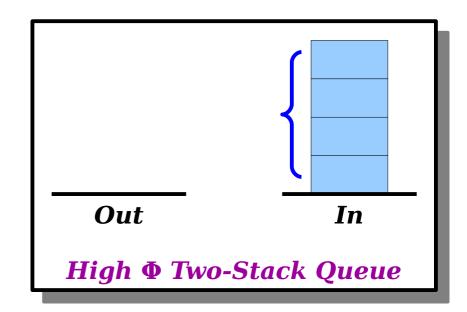
Assigning Amortized Costs

- 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

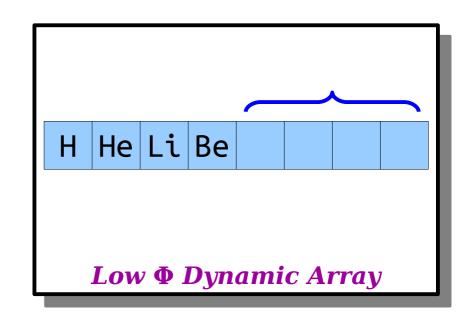
- To assign amortized costs, we'll need to measure how "messy" the data structure is.
- For each data structure, we define a **potential function** Φ such that
 - Φ is small when the data structure is "clean," and
 - Φ is large when the data structure is "messy."

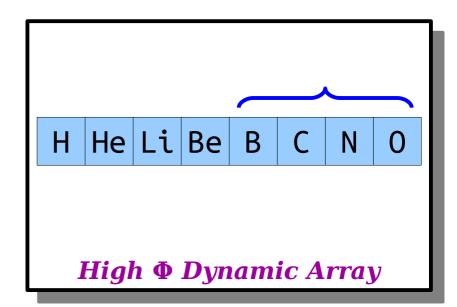




Potential Functions

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 - 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* + $k \cdot \Delta \Phi$

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.

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

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

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

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

$$\begin{split} \sum amortized-cost &= \sum \left(real-cost + k \cdot \Delta \Phi\right) \\ &= \sum real-cost + k \cdot \sum \Delta \Phi \\ &= \sum real-cost + k \cdot (\Phi_{end} - \Phi_{start}) \end{split}$$

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$$\begin{split} \sum amortized-cost &= \sum \left[real-cost + k \cdot \Delta \Phi \right] \\ &= \sum real-cost + k \cdot \sum \Delta \Phi \\ &= \sum real-cost + k \cdot \left[\Phi_{end} - \Phi_{start} \right] \end{split}$$

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Let's make two assumptions:

$$\Phi \ge 0.$$

$$\Phi_{start} = 0.$$

$$\begin{split} \sum amortized-cost &= \sum \left(real-cost + k \cdot \Delta \Phi\right) \\ &= \sum real-cost + k \cdot \sum \Delta \Phi \\ &= \sum real-cost + k \cdot \left(\Phi_{end} - \Phi_{start}\right) \\ &\geq \sum real-cost \end{split}$$

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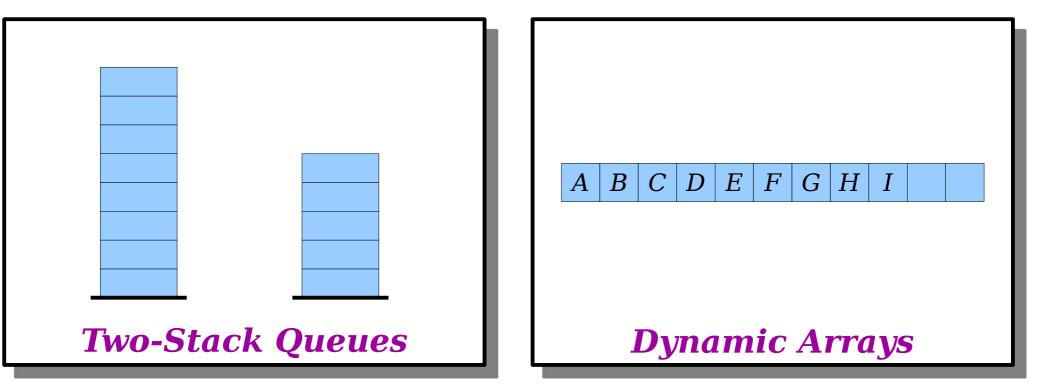
Assigning costs this way will never, in any circumstance, overestimate the total amount of work done.

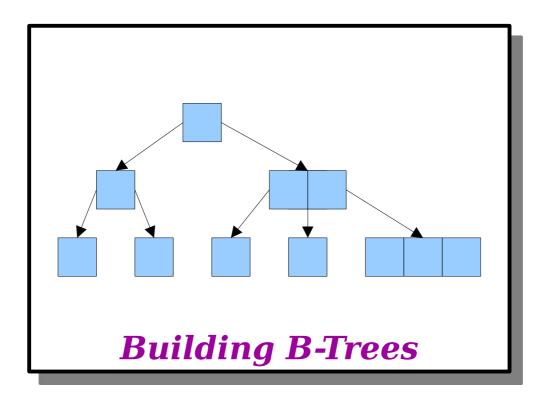
The Story So Far

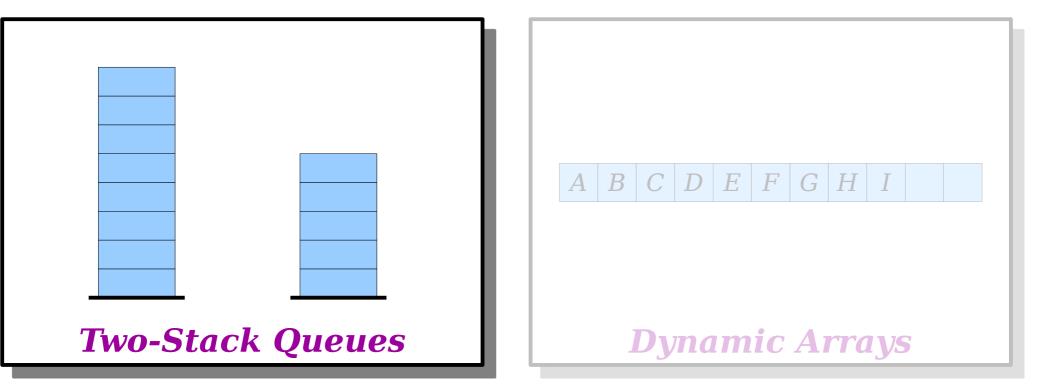
• We will assign amortized costs to each operation such that

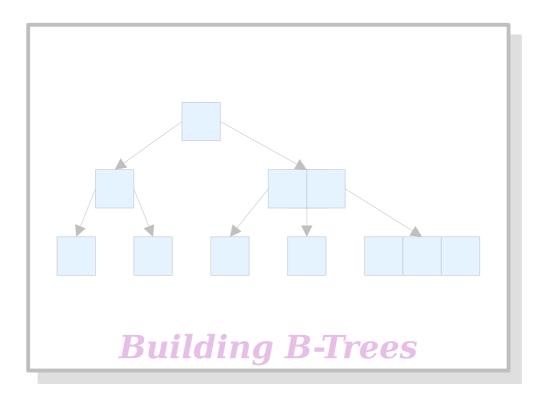
\sum amortized-cost $\geq \sum$ real-cost

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









The Two-Stack Queue

Out

In

The Two-Stack Queue

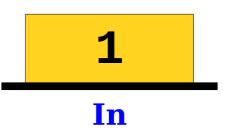
 Φ = height of *In* stack

Out

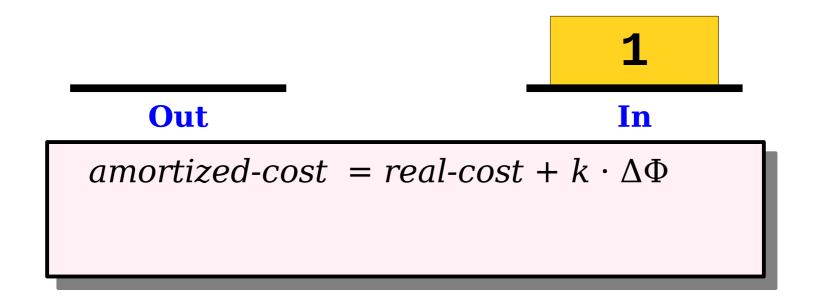
In

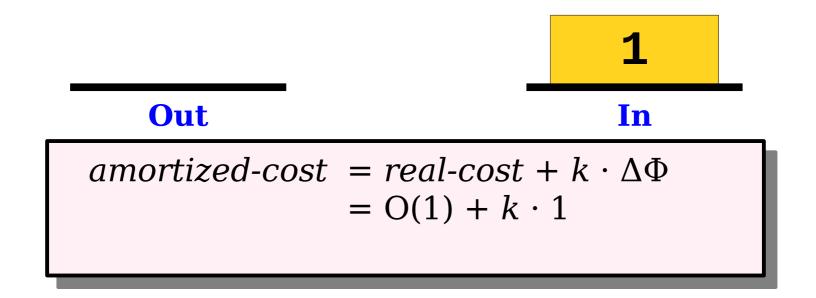
The Two-Stack Queue

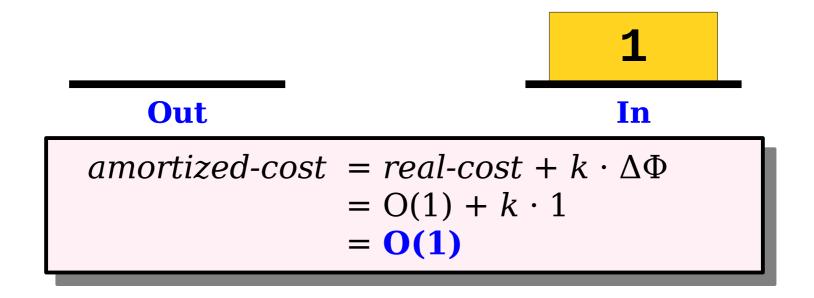
 Φ = height of *In* stack



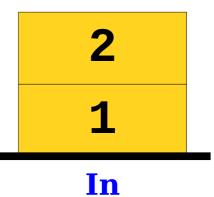
Out

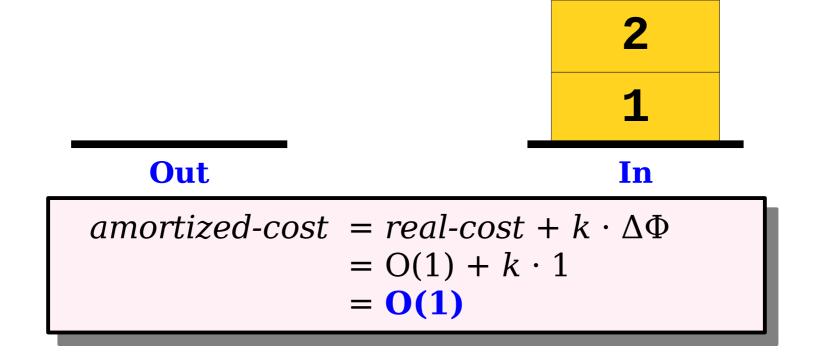




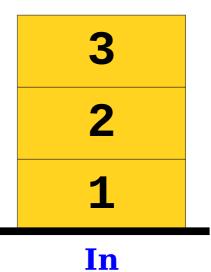


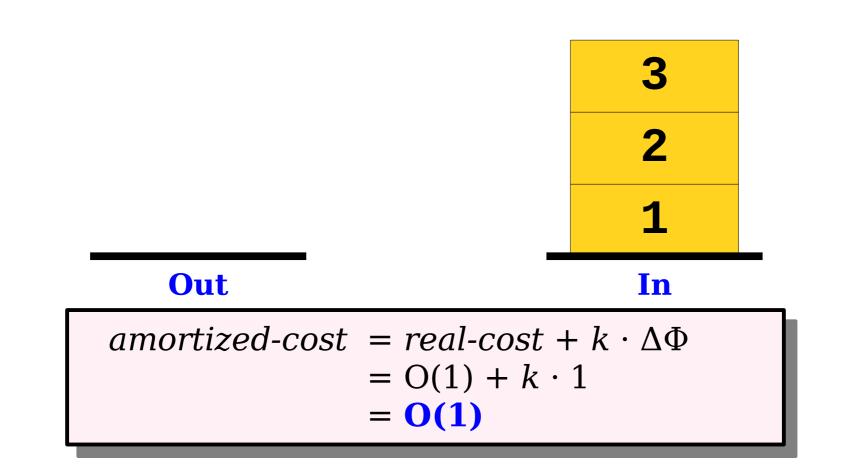
 Φ = height of *In* stack



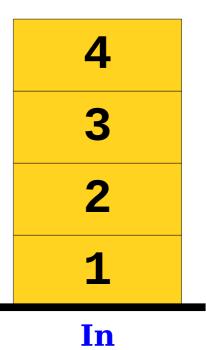


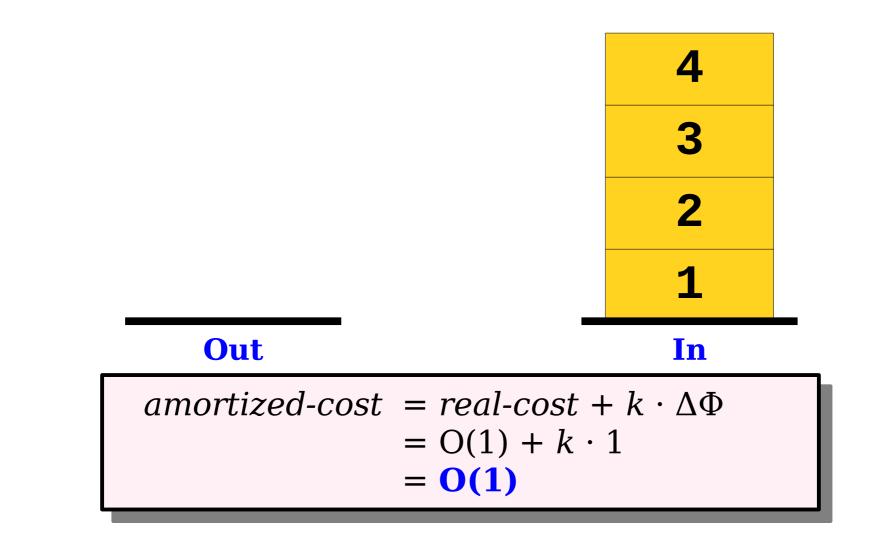
 Φ = height of *In* stack



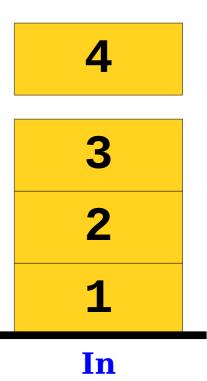


 Φ = height of *In* stack



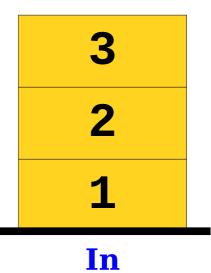


 Φ = height of *In* stack

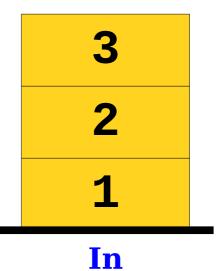


 Φ = height of *In* stack



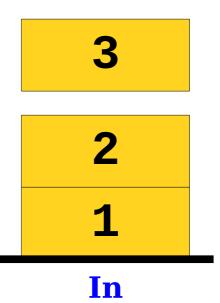


 Φ = height of *In* stack





 Φ = height of *In* stack

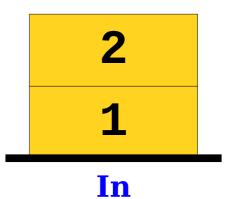




 Φ = height of *In* stack







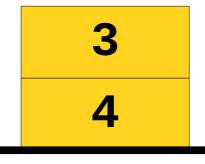


 Φ = height of *In* stack

2

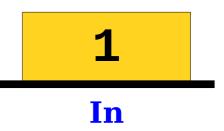
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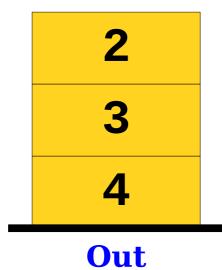
In



 Φ = height of *In* stack



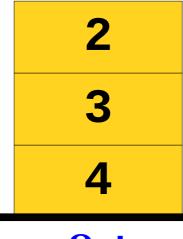






 Φ = height of *In* stack





Out

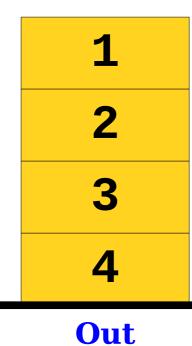
 Φ = height of *In* stack



2 3 4

Out

 Φ = height of *In* stack



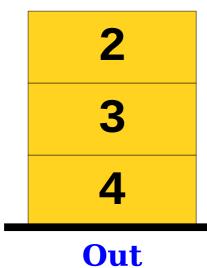
 Φ = height of *In* stack

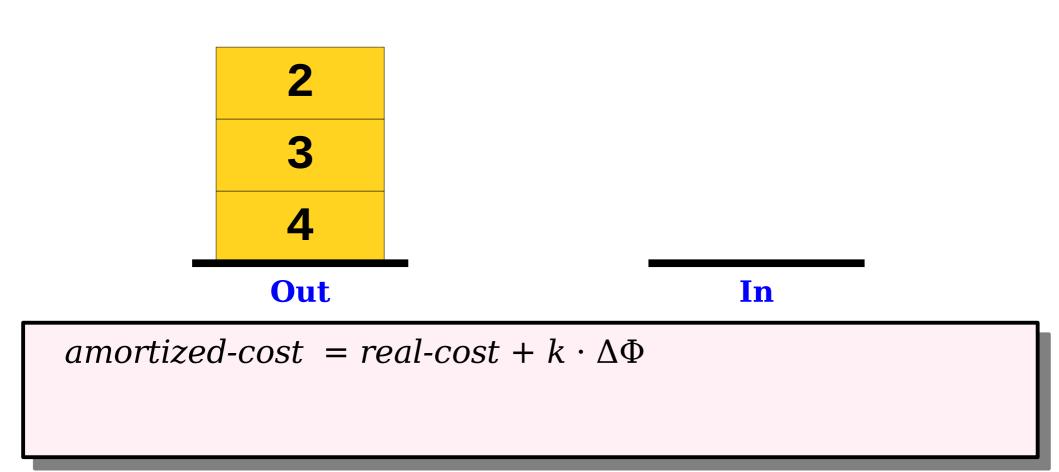


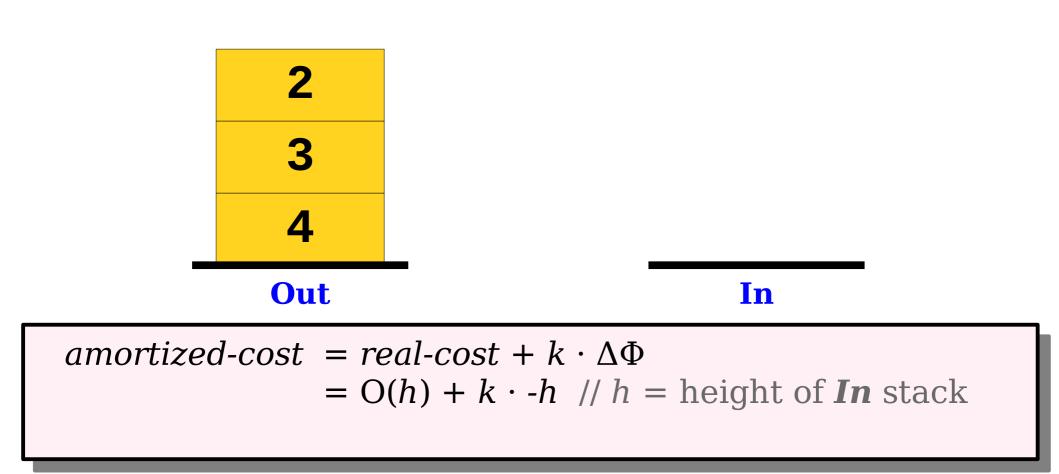
2 3 4

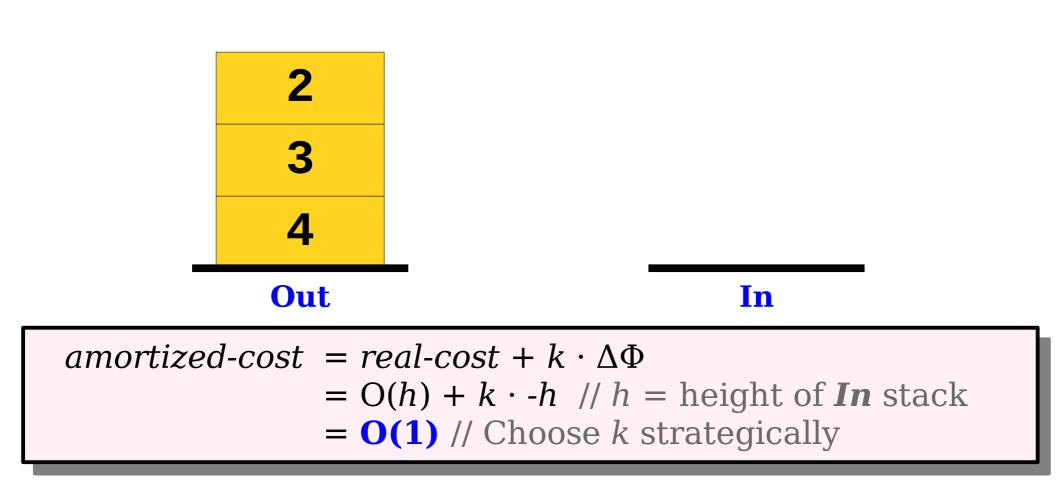
Out

 Φ = height of *In* stack

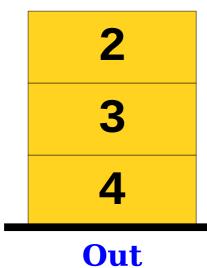








 Φ = height of *In* stack



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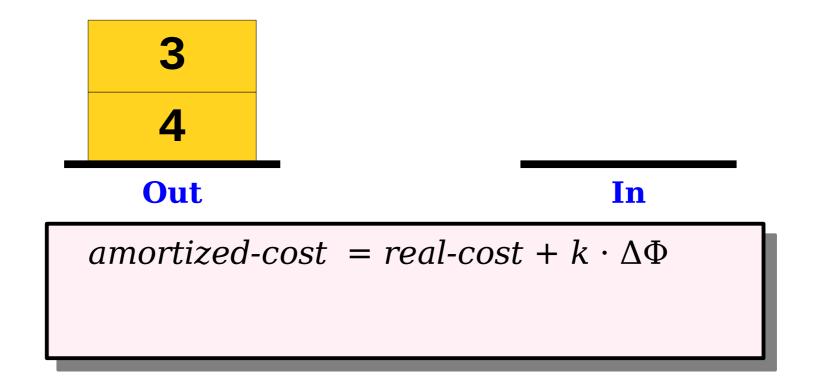


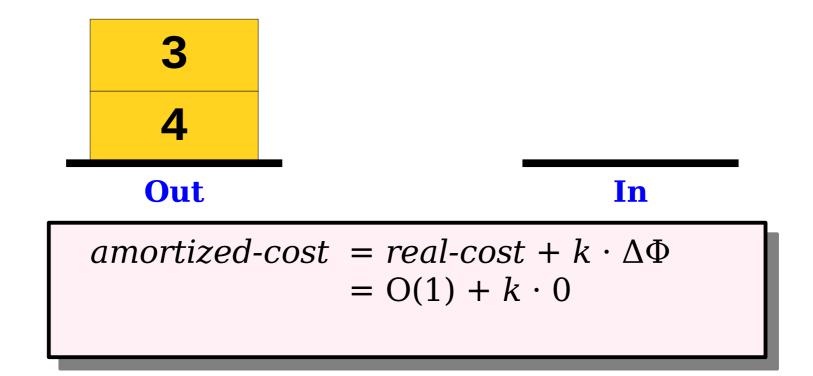
Out

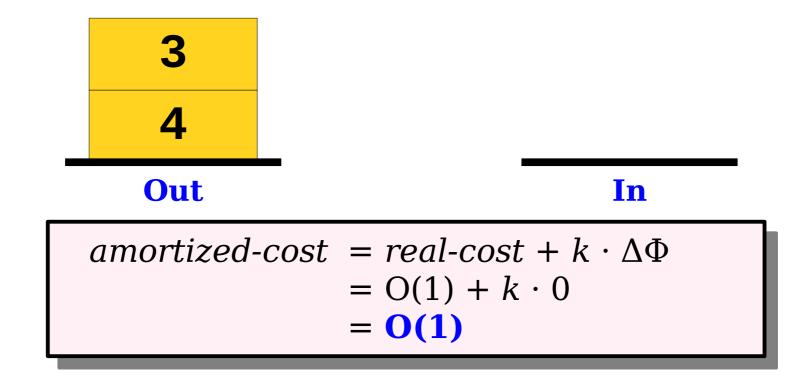
 Φ = height of *In* stack



Out





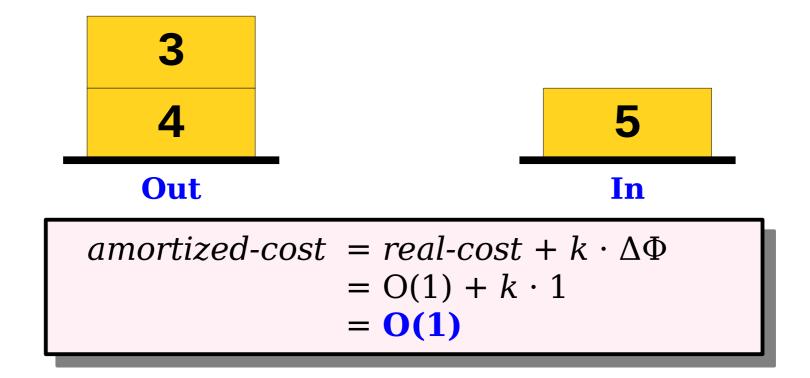


 Φ = height of *In* stack

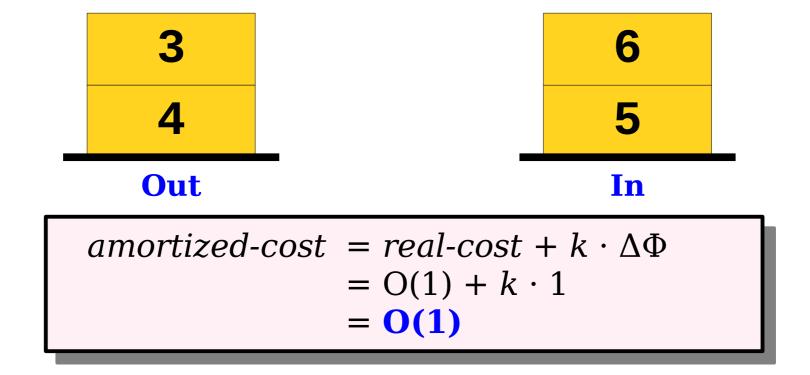


Out





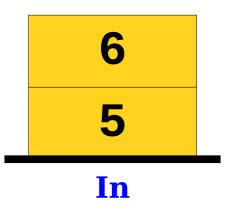


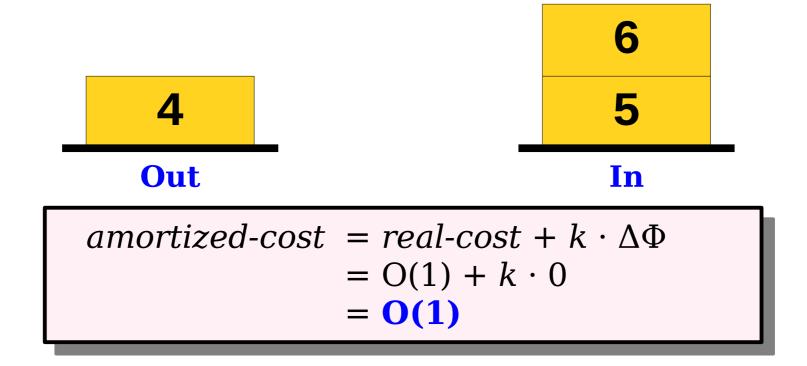




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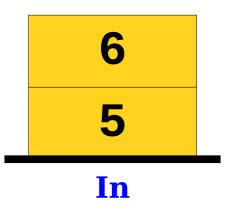




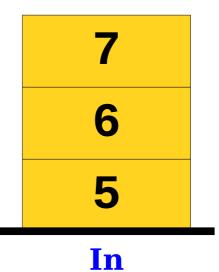


 Φ = height of *In* stack

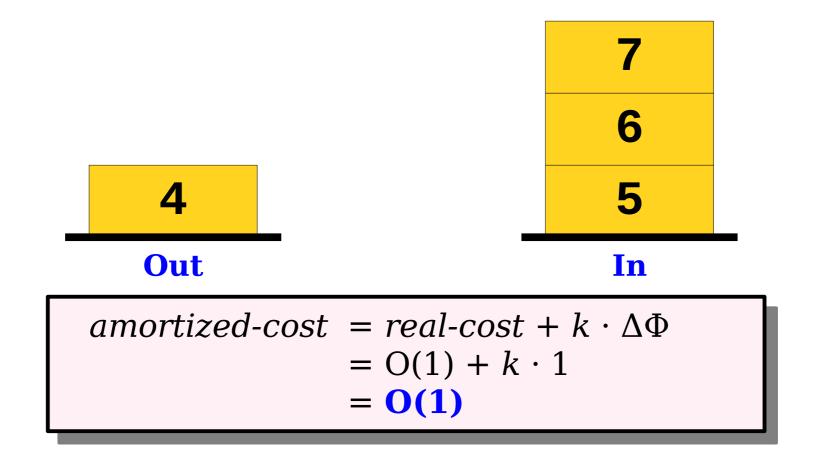




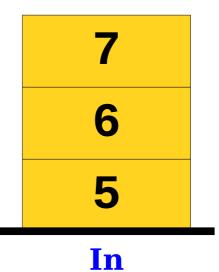
 Φ = height of *In* stack







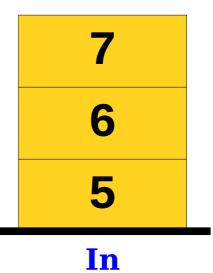
 Φ = height of *In* stack

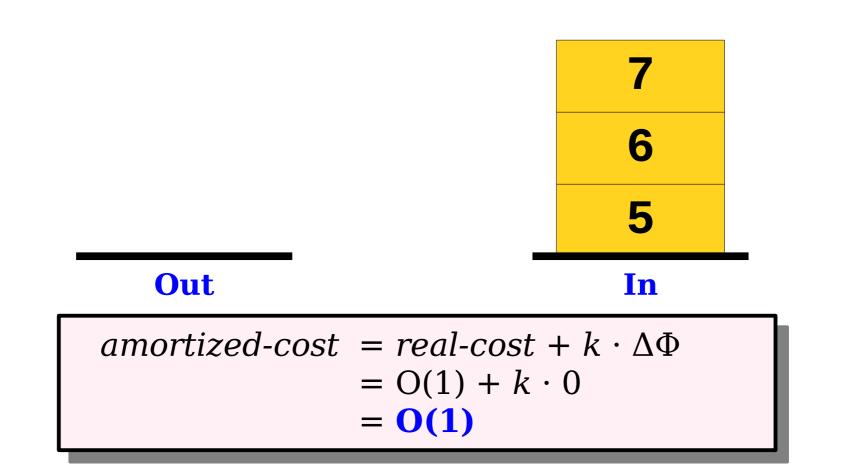




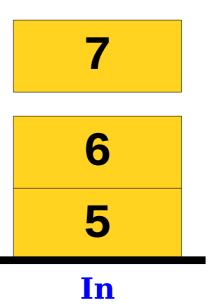


 Φ = height of *In* stack



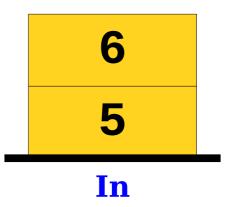


 Φ = height of *In* stack

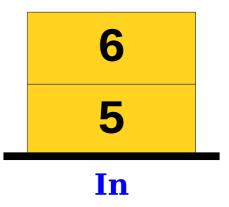


 Φ = height of *In* stack



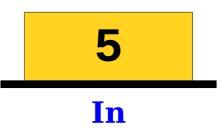






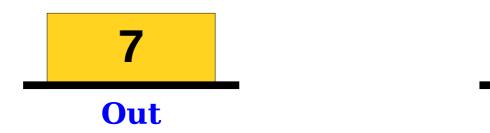


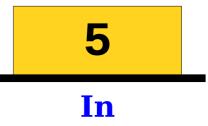




 Φ = height of *In* stack

6







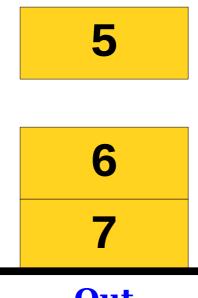
 Φ = height of *In* stack

5



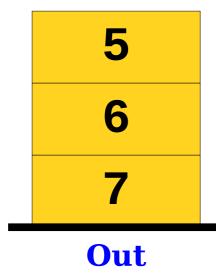
Out

 Φ = height of *In* stack

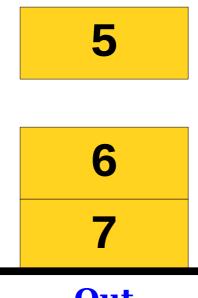


Out

 Φ = height of *In* stack

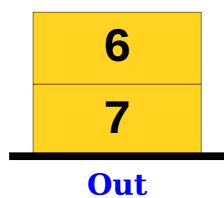


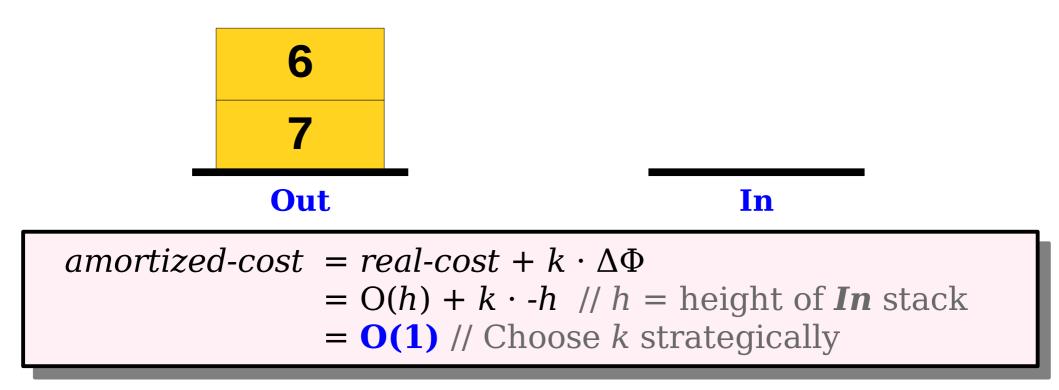
 Φ = height of *In* stack



Out

 Φ = height of *In* stack





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

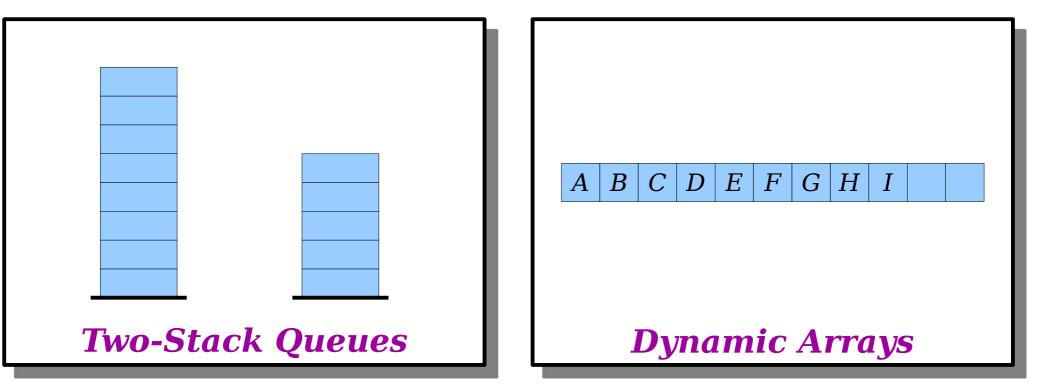
$$O(1) + k \cdot \Delta \Phi = O(1) + k \cdot 0 = O(1).$$

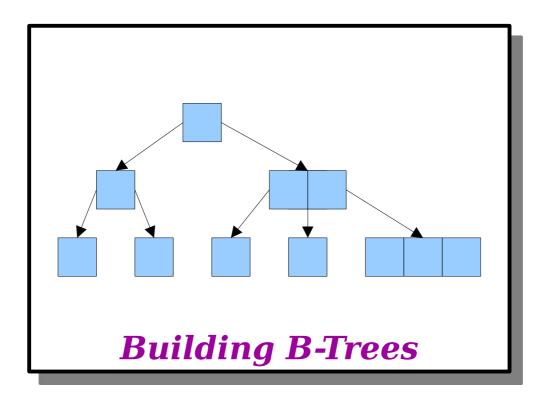
Otherwise, the *Out* stack is empty. Suppose the *In* stack has height h. The dequeue does O(h) work to pop the elements from the *In* stack and push them onto the *Out* stack, followed by one additional pop for the dequeue. This is O(h) total work.

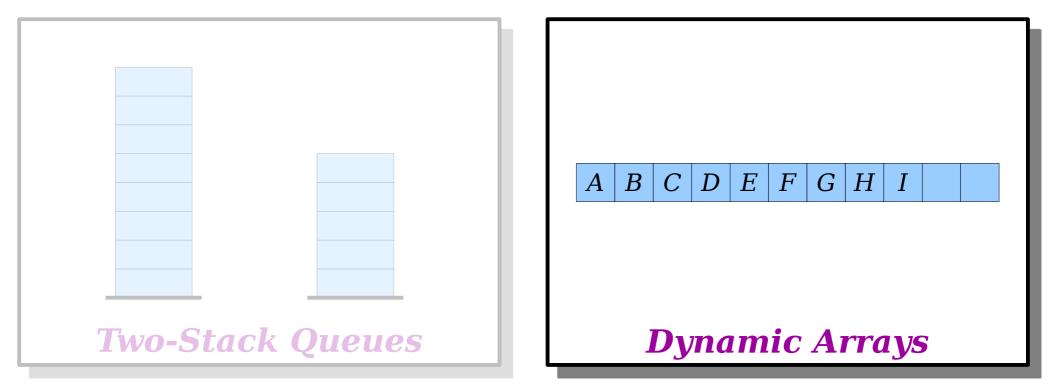
At the beginning of this operation, we have $\Phi = h$. At the end of this operation, we have $\Phi = 0$. Therefore, $\Delta \Phi = -h$, so the amortized cost of the operation is

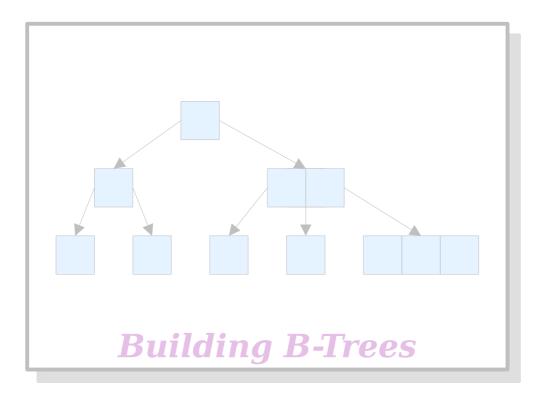
$$\mathcal{O}(h) + k \cdot -h = \mathcal{O}(1),$$

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



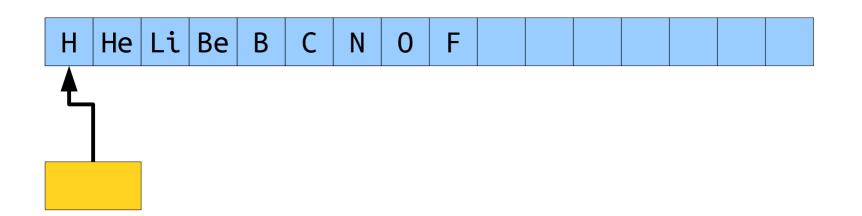


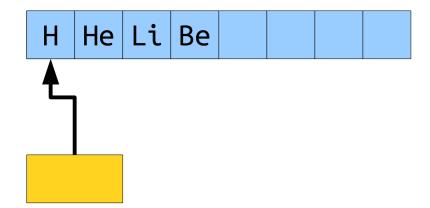


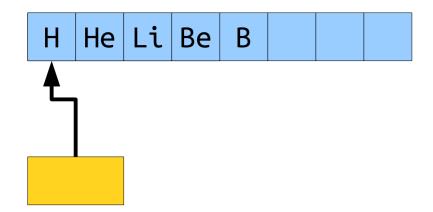


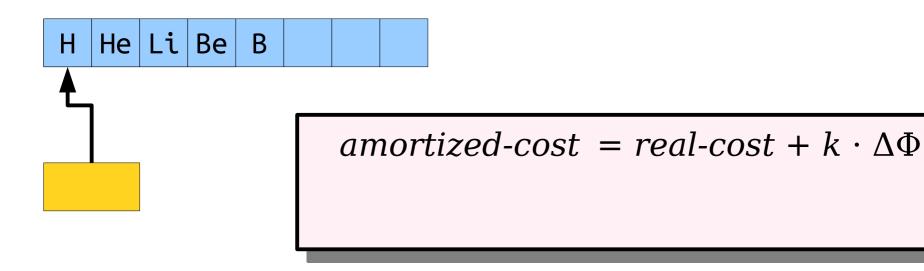
Analyzing Dynamic Arrays

- **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.

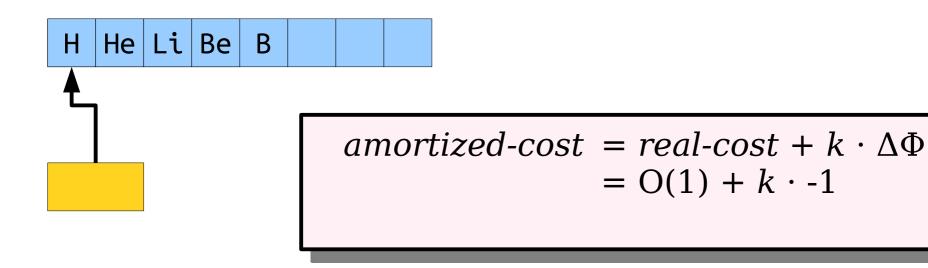


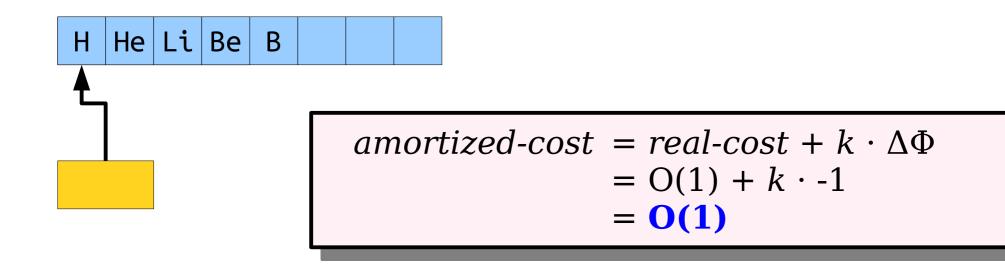


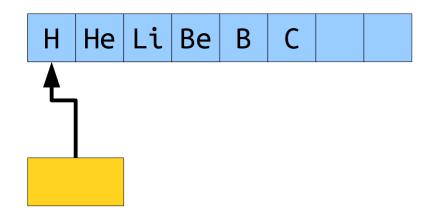


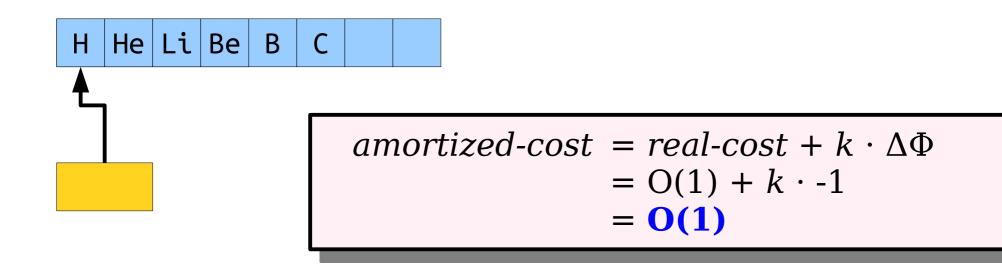


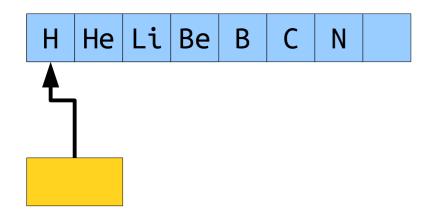
 $= O(1) + k \cdot -1$

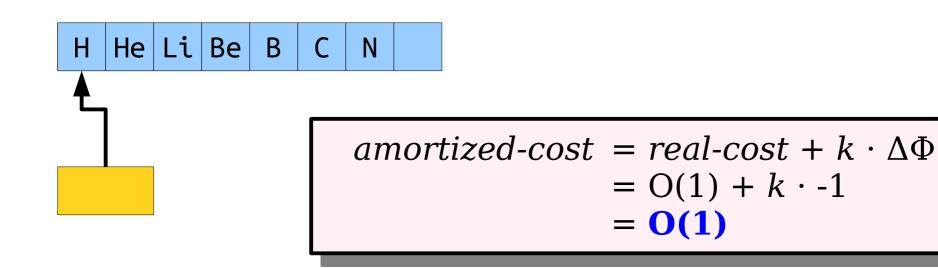


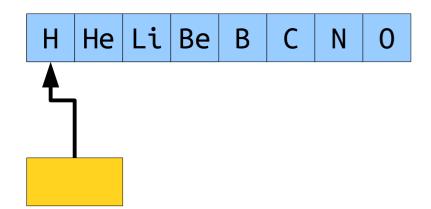


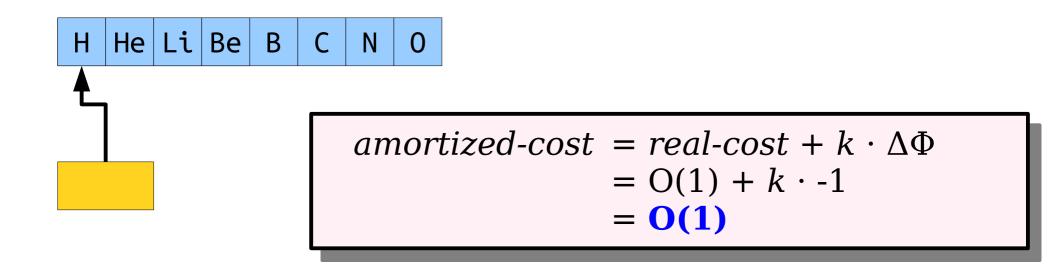


















 Φ = number of free slots

Η

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!

He Li Be B C N O F

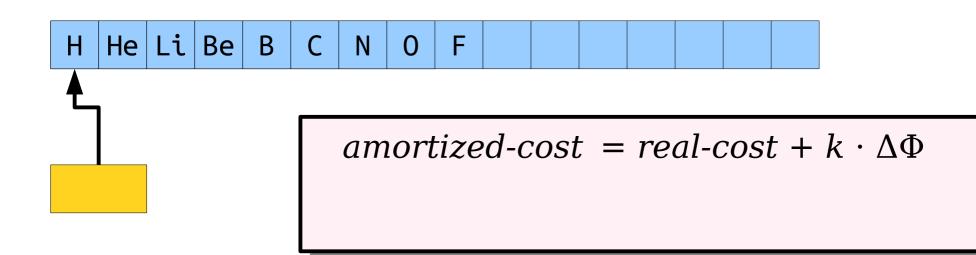
 Φ = number of free slots

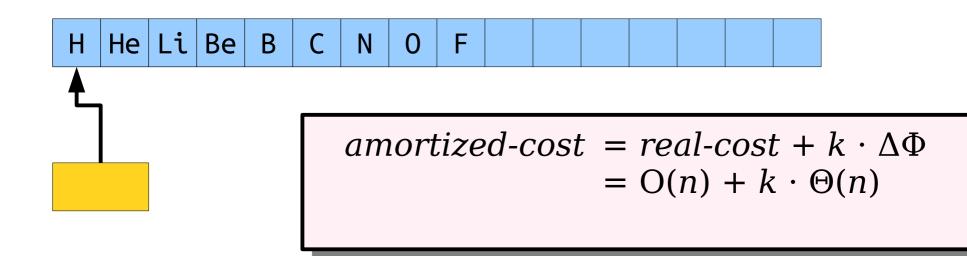
With this choice of Φ , what is the amortized cost of an append to an array of size *n* when no free slots are left?

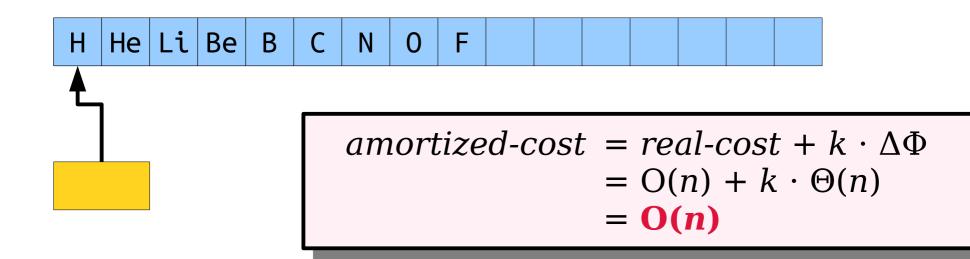
Discuss with your neighbors!

H He Li Be B C N O F









Analyzing Dynamic Arrays

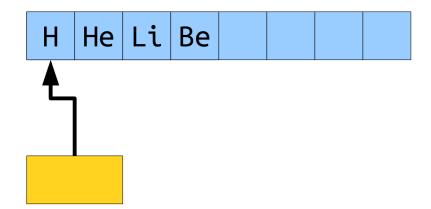
- **Intuition:** Φ should measure how "messy" the data structure is.
 - Having lots of free slots means there's very little mess.
 - Having few free slots means there's a lot of mess.
- We basically got our potential function backwards. Oops.
- **Question:** What should Φ be?

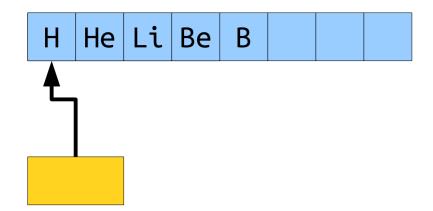
Analyzing Dynamic Arrays

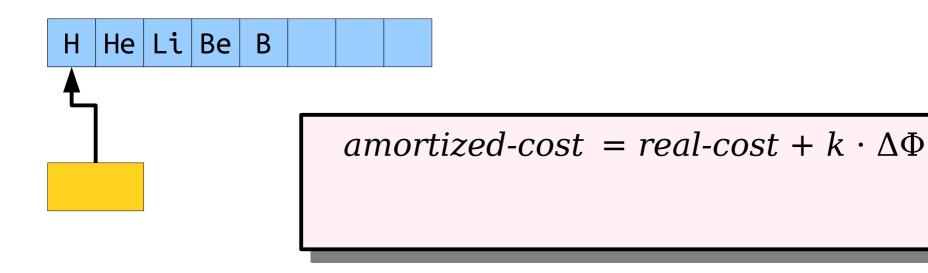
• The amortized cost of an append is

```
amortized-cost = real-cost + k \cdot \Delta \Phi.
```

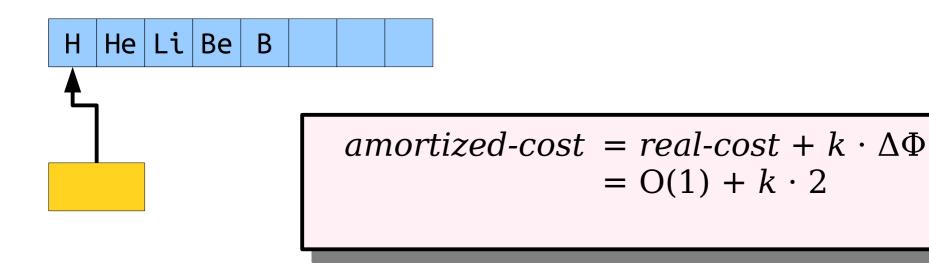
- When we double the array size, our real cost is $\Theta(n)$. We need $\Delta \Phi$ to be something like -n.
- **Goal:** Pick Φ so that
 - when there are no slots left, $\Phi \approx n$, and
 - right after we double the array size, $\Phi \approx 0$.
- With some trial and error, we can come up with

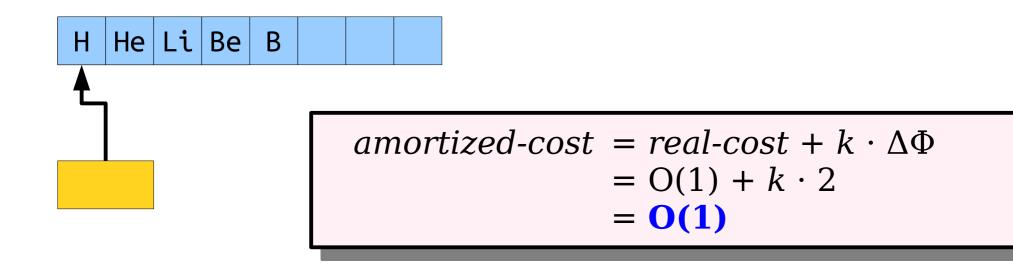


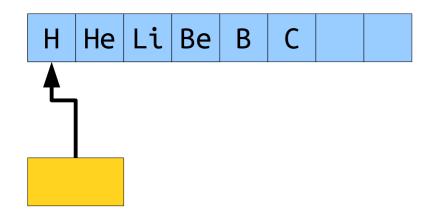


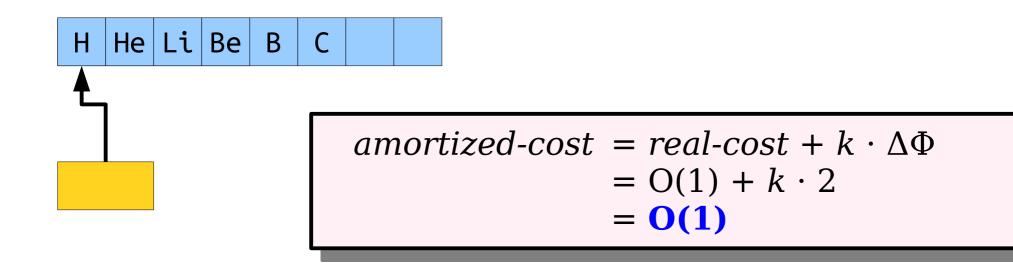


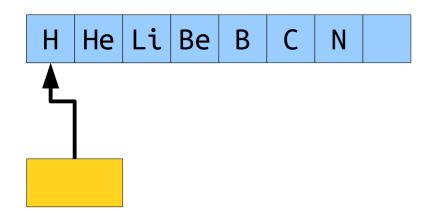
 $= O(1) + k \cdot 2$

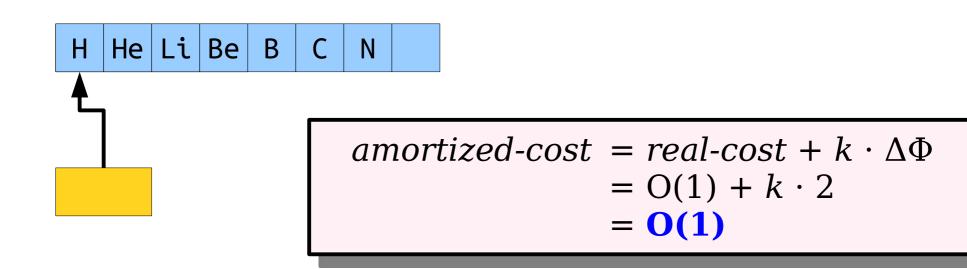


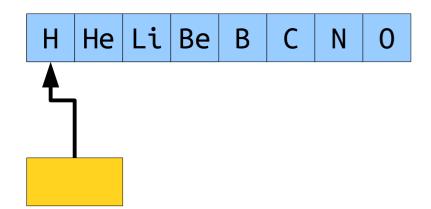


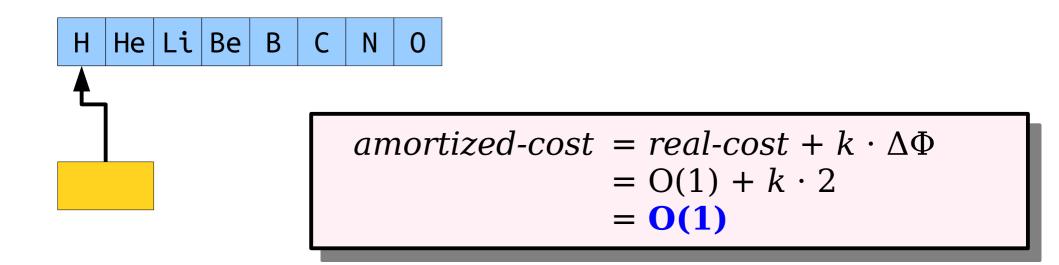




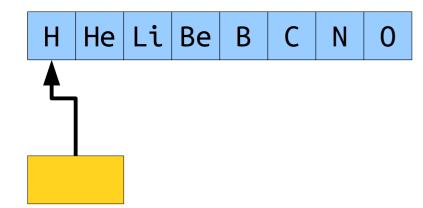






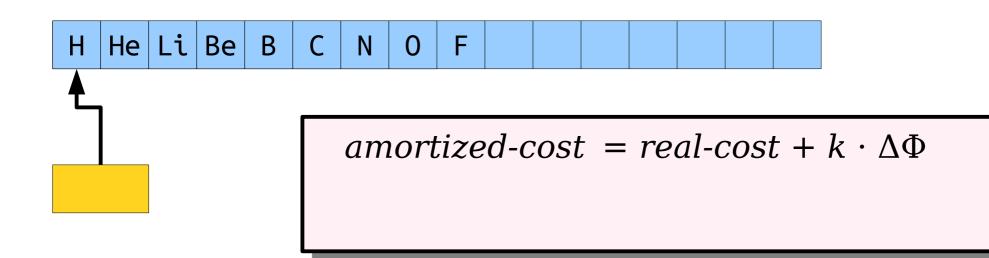


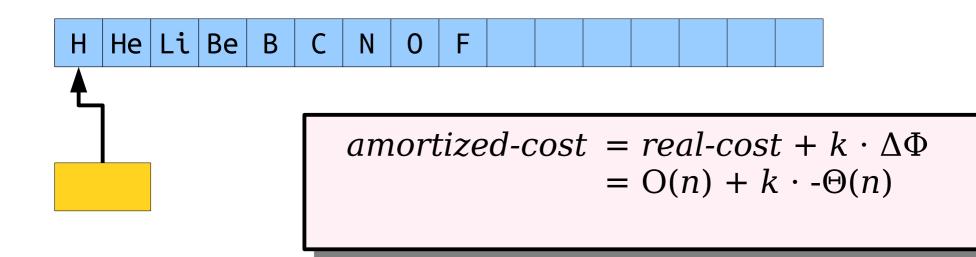


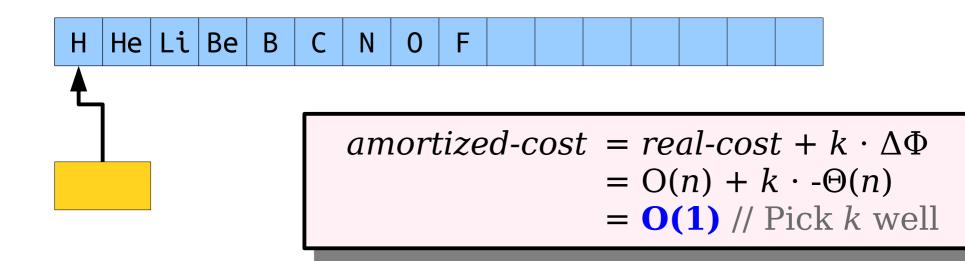












A Caveat

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



• Quick fix: This is an edge case, so set $\Phi = \max\{0, \#elems - \#free\text{-slots} \}$ **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 $\Phi = \max\{0, n - \#free - slots\}$, 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

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

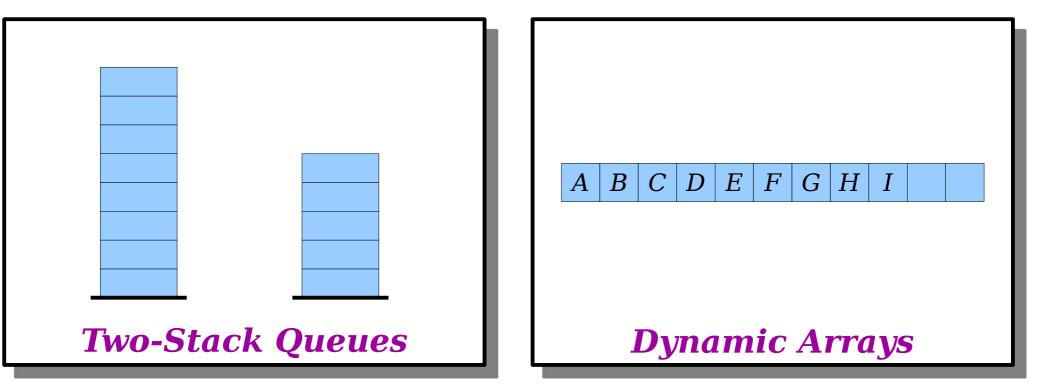
Otherwise, the operation copies *n* elements into a new array twice as large as before, increasing the number of free slots to *n*, then fills one of those slots. Just before the operation we had $\Phi = n$, and just after the operation we have $\Phi = 2$. Therefore, the amortized cost is

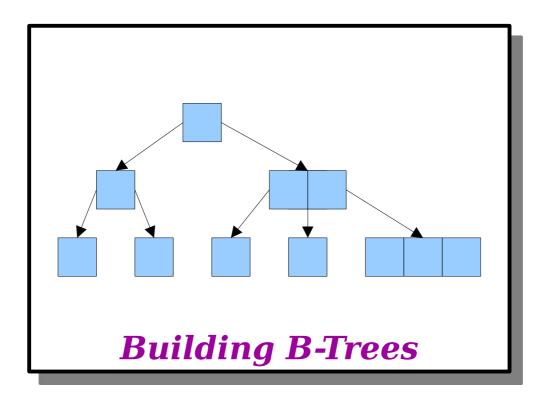
$$O(n) + k \cdot \Delta \Phi = O(n) + k \cdot (2 - n) = O(n) - nk + 2k,$$

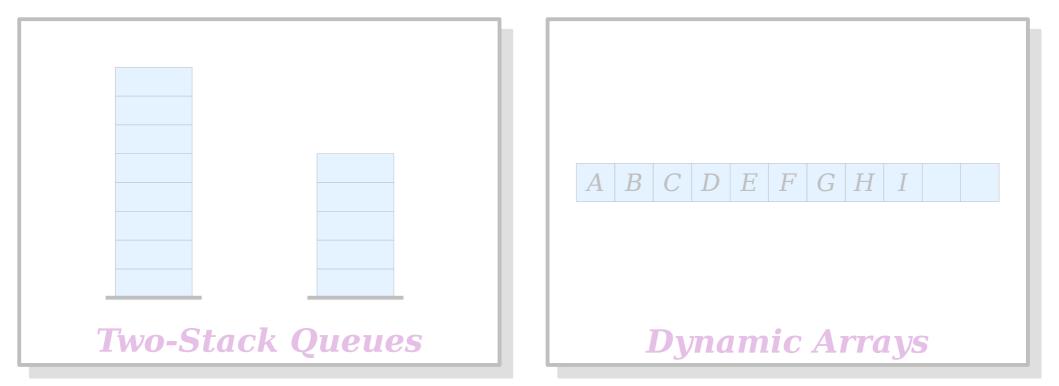
which can be made to equal O(1) by choosing the the k term to match the constant hidden in the O(n) term.

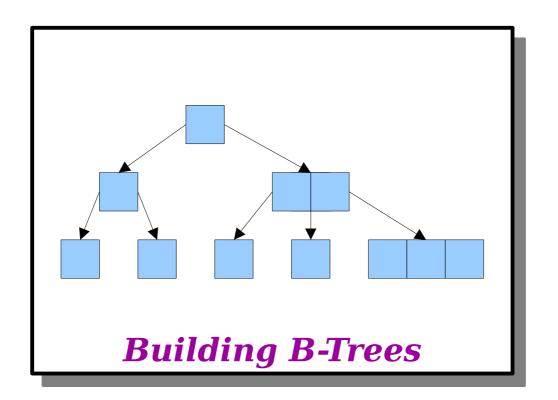
Some Exercises

- 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 ¼ 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).



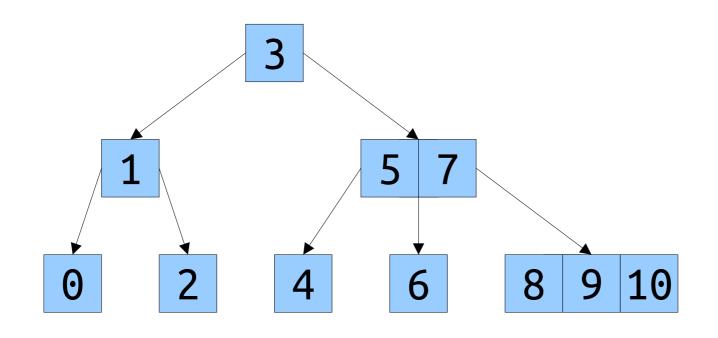


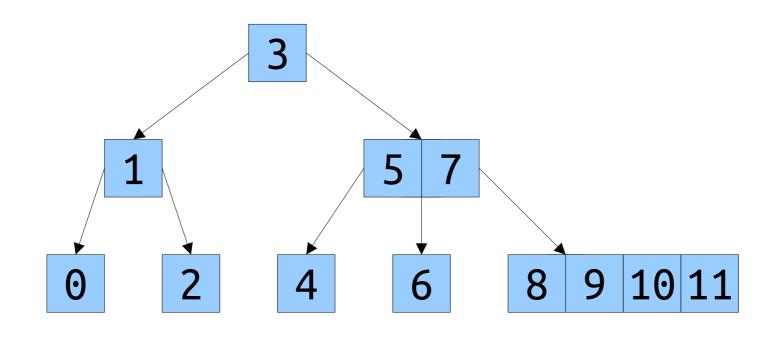


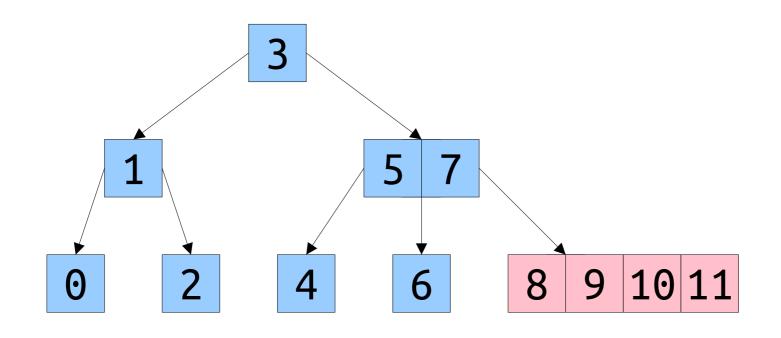


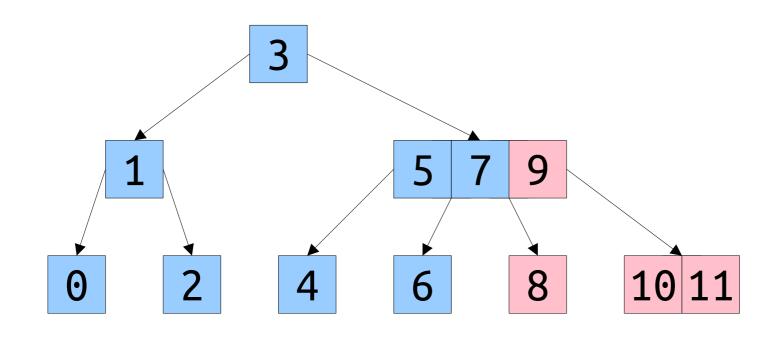
Building B-Trees

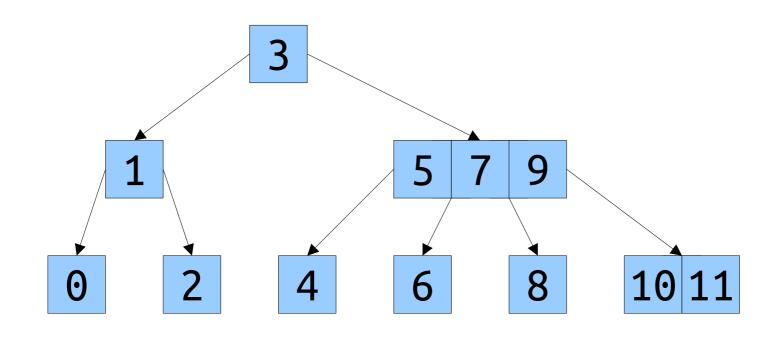
• **Algorithm:** Store a pointer to the rightmost leaf. To add an item, append it to the rightmost leaf, splitting and kicking the median key up if we are out of space.

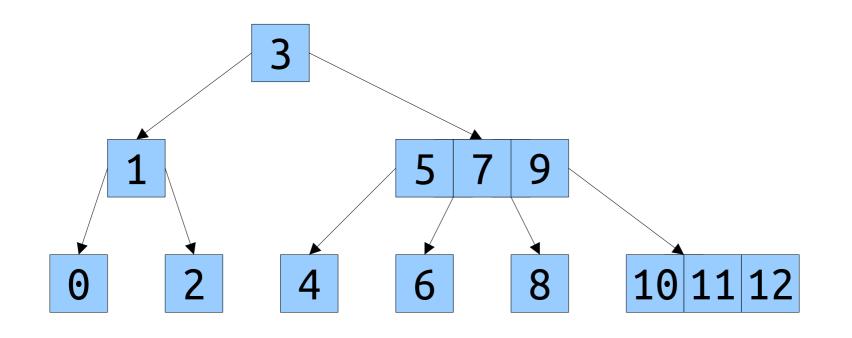


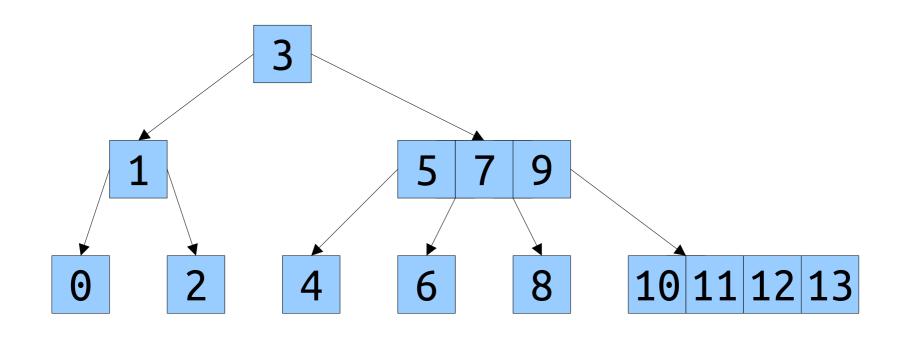


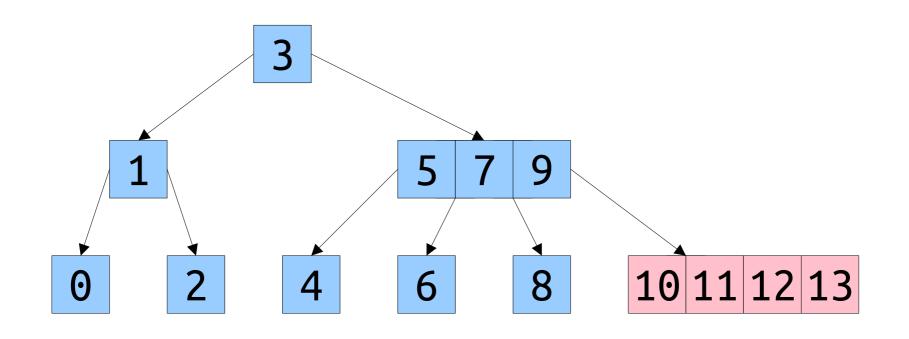


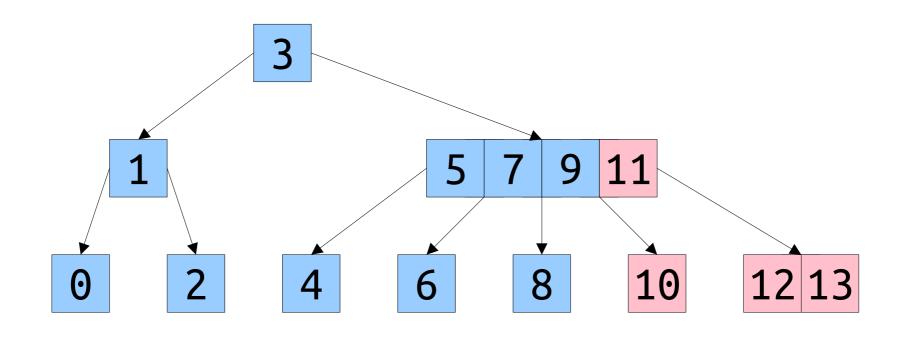


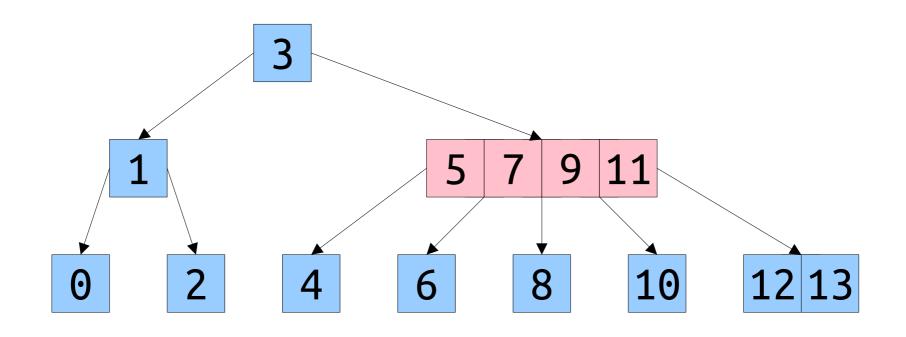


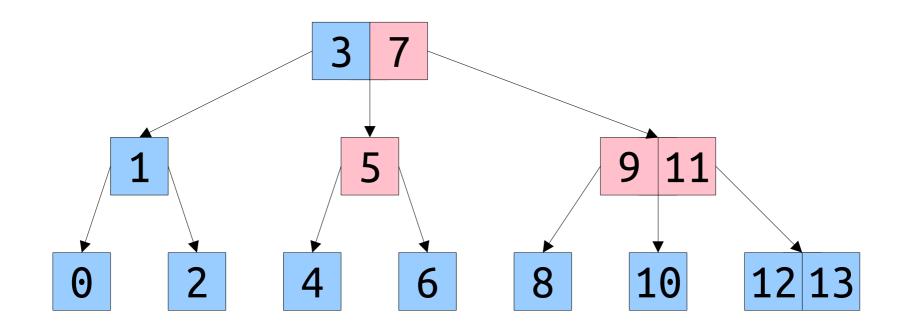


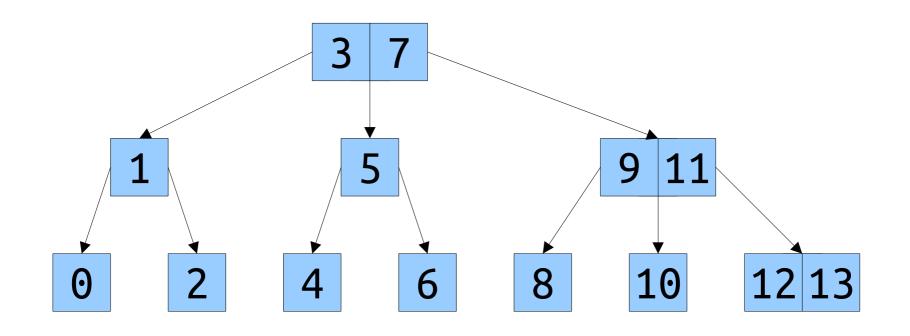




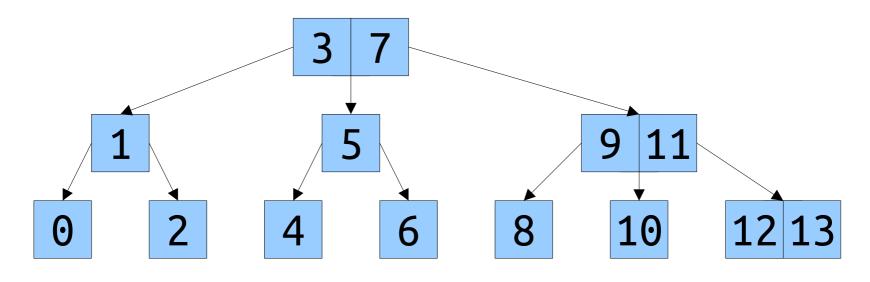




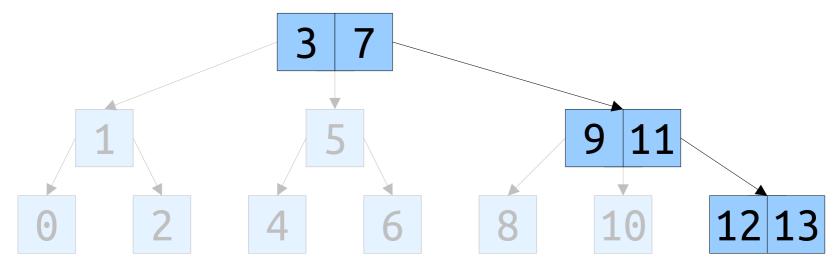




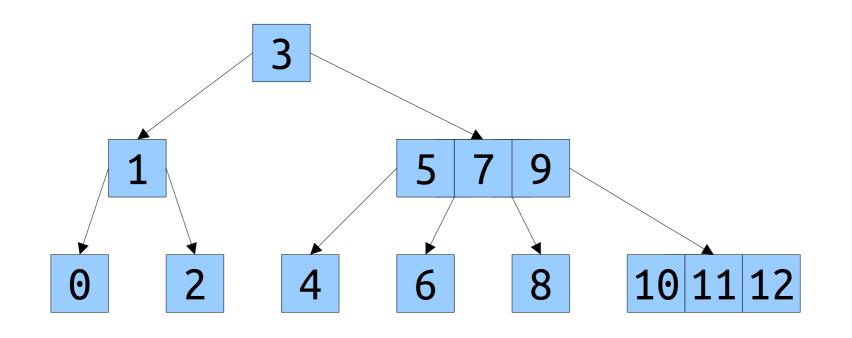
- What is the actual cost of appending an element?
 - Suppose that we perform splits at L layers in the tree.
 - Each split takes time $\Theta(b)$ to copy and move keys around.
 - Total cost: **(bL)**.
- **Goal:** Pick a potential function Φ so that we can offset this cost and make each append cost amortized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



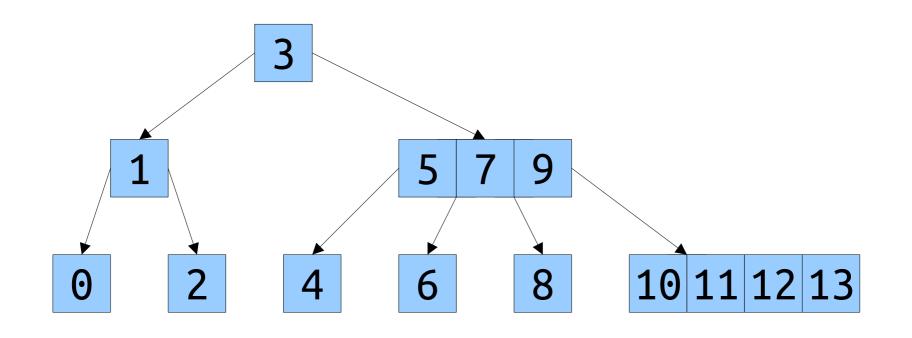
- Our potential function should, intuitively, quantify how "messy" our data structure is.
- Some observations:
 - We only care about nodes in the right spine of the tree.
 - Nodes in the right spine slowly have keys added to them. When they split, they lose (about) half of their keys.
- **Idea:** Set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



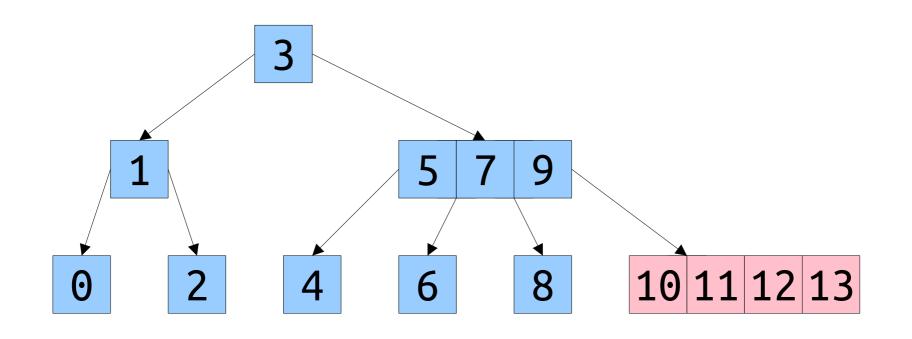
- Let Φ be the number of keys on the right spine.
- Each split moves (roughly) half the keys from the split node into a node off the right spine.



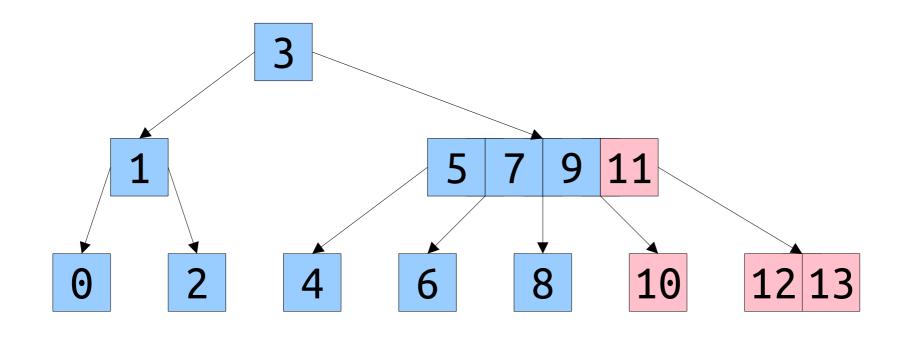
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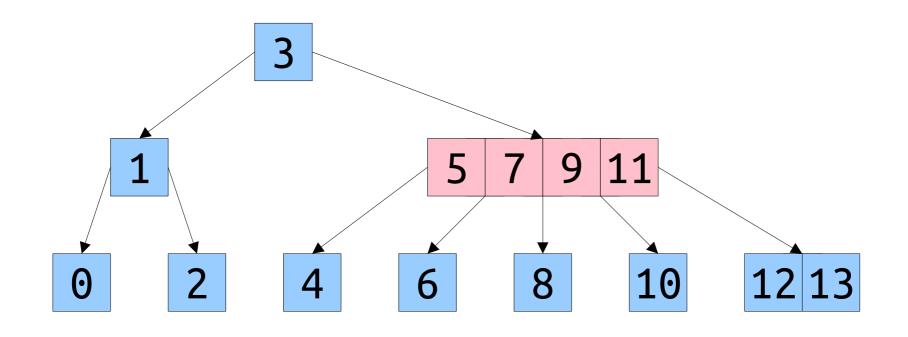
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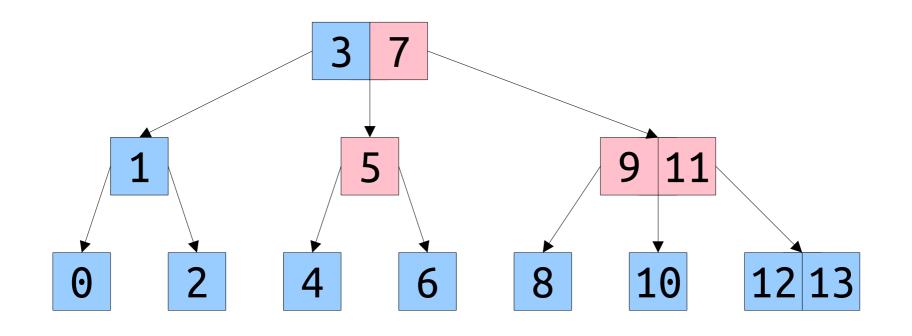
- Let Φ be the number of keys on the right spine.
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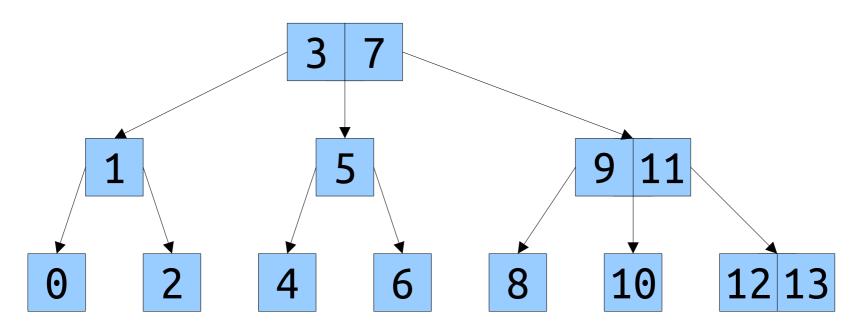
- Let Φ be the number of keys on the right spine.
- Each split moves (roughly) half the keys from the split node into a node off the right spine.



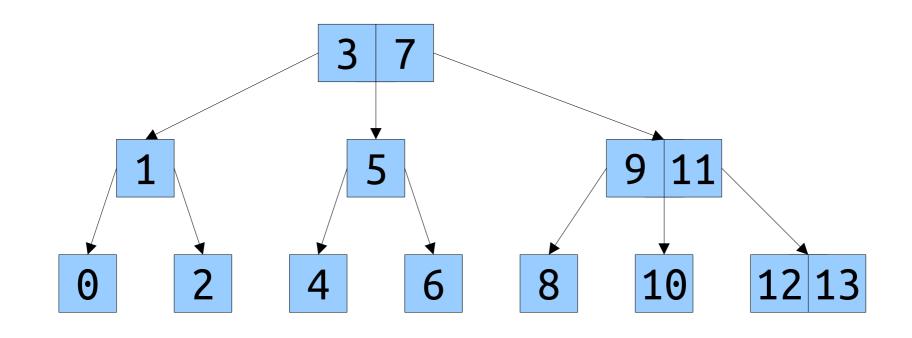
- Let Φ be the number of keys on the right spine.
- Each split moves (roughly) half the keys from the split node into a node off the right spine.



- 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.
- Change in potential per split: $-\Theta(b)$.
- 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 $\Theta(b)$ work for a net total of $\Theta(bL)$ work.

Each of those *L* splits moves $\Theta(b)$ keys off of the right spine of the tree, decreasing Φ by $\Theta(b)$ for a net drop in potential of $-\Theta(bL)$. 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.
- To do so, we define a potential function Φ that, intuitively, measures how "messy" the data structure is. We then set

amortized-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.