## Amortized Analysis

A Motivating Analogy

## Doing the Dishes

- 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.



## Doing the Dishes

- 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.
- (This is an example of a tradeoff between throughput and latency.)


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?
- Binomial Heaps (Thursday)
- A fast, flexible priority queue that's a great building block for more complicated structures.
- Fibonacci 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

$\begin{array}{llllllllll}A & B & C & D & E & F & G & H & I\end{array}$

Dynamic Arrays


## The Two-Stack Queue

- 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.


## The Two-Stack Queue



## The Two-Stack Queue



Clean
Dishes

We just cleaned up our entire mess and are back to a pristine state.


Dirty
Dishes

## The Two-Stack Queue

We need to do some "cleanup" on this before it'll be useful. It's fast to add it here because we're deferring that work.


Clean
Dishes


Dirty
Dishes

## The Two-Stack Queue

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



## The Two-Stack Queue

- Intuition: We only do expensive dequeues after a long run of cheap enqueues.
- Think "dishwasher:" we very slowly introduce a lot of dirty dishes that 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!



## The Two-Stack Queue

- 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 $\mathrm{O}(n)$ work.



## The Two-Stack Queue

- 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 $\mathrm{O}(1)$.
- 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?



$$
\left.\begin{array}{l|l|l|l|l|l|l}
A & B & C & D & E & F & G
\end{array}\right]
$$

## Two-Stack Queues

Dynamic Arrays



## Dynamic Arrays

- Adynamic 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.



## Dynamic Arrays

- Adynamic 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.

$$
\text { H He Li Be B C N } 0
$$



## Dynamic Arrays

- Adynamic 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.



## Dynamic Arrays

- 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 $\mathrm{O}(n)$.



## Dynamic Arrays

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

$$
\begin{aligned}
2^{0}+2^{1}+\ldots+2^{\left\lfloor\log _{2} n\right\rfloor} & =2^{\left.\log _{2} n\right\rfloor+1}-1 \\
& \leq 2^{\log _{2} n+1} \\
& =2 n .
\end{aligned}
$$



## Dynamic Arrays

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



Two-Stack Queues


## Building B-Trees

- 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?



## Building B-Trees

- Idea 1: Insert the items into an empty B-tree in sorted order.
- Cost: $\Omega\left(n \log _{b} n\right)$, due to the top-down search.
- Can we do better?



## Building B-Trees

- 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?



## Building B-Trees

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



## Building B-Trees

- 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.)



## Building B-Trees

- Total number of splits:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \frac{n}{b} \cdot\left(1+\frac{1}{b} \cdot\left(1+\frac{1}{b} \cdot\left(1+\frac{1}{b} \cdot(\ldots)\right)\right)\right) \\
= & \frac{n}{b} \cdot\left(1+\frac{1}{b}+\frac{1}{b^{2}}+\frac{1}{b^{3}}+\frac{1}{b^{4}}+\ldots\right) \\
= & \frac{n}{b} \cdot \Theta(1) \\
= & \Theta\left(\frac{n}{b}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

- Total cost of those splits: $\boldsymbol{\Theta}(\boldsymbol{n})$.


## Building B-Trees

- It is correct but misleading to say the cost of an insert is $\mathrm{O}\left(b \log _{b} n\right)$.
- This is comparatively rare.
- It is wrong, but useful, to pretend that the cost of an insert is $\mathrm{O}(1)$.
- 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?


Key Idea: Backcharge expensive operations to cheaper ones.


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.

These are the amortized costs of the operations. Each operation appears fast, and all costs are nicely bounded from above.

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:

$$
\sum \text { amortized-cost } \geq \sum \text { real-cost }
$$

- 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 $\mathrm{O}(1)$.
- Any sequence of $n$ operations on a twostack queue will take time

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



Two-Stack Queues

- However, each individual operation may take more than
$\mathrm{O}(1)$ time to complete.


## Where We're Going

- The amortized cost of appending to a dynamic array is $\mathrm{O}(1)$.
- Any sequence of $n$ appends to a dynamic array will take time

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

- However, each

$$
\left.\begin{array}{|l|l|l|l|l|l|l|l}
\hline A & B & C & D & E & F & G & H
\end{array}\right]
$$

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 $\mathrm{O}(1)$.
- Any sequence of $n$ appends will take time

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



## Building B-Trees

- 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 $\Phi$ that, in a sense, "quantifies messiness."
- $\Phi$ is small when the data structure is "clean," and
- $\Phi$ is large when the data structure is "messy."


High $\Phi$ Two-Stack Queue

## 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 $\Phi$ that, in a sense, "quantifies messiness."
- $\Phi$ is small when the data structure is "clean," and
- $\Phi$ is large when the data structure is "messy."



## Potential Functions

- Once we have $\Phi$, we can start looking, for each operation, at how $\Phi$ changes.
- If an operation makes things "messier," then $\Phi$ increases.
- If an operation makes things "cleaner," then $\Phi$ decreases.
- What we want to have happen:
- If an operation increases $\Phi$, we artificially raise its cost.
- If an operation decreases $\Phi$, we artificially lower its cost.
- Why?


## Potential Functions

- Define the amortized cost of an operation to be $\boldsymbol{a m o r t i z e d}-c o s t=$ real-cost $+\boldsymbol{k} \cdot \Delta \Phi$
where $k$ is a constant under our control and $\Delta \Phi$ is the difference between $\Phi$ just after the operation finishes and $\Phi$ just before the operation started:

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

- Intuitively:
- If $\Phi$ increases, the data structure got "messier," and the amortized cost is higher than the real cost to account for future cleanup costs.
- If $\Phi$ decreases, the data structure got "cleaner," and the amortized cost is lower than the real cost


## Why This Works

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

$$
\begin{aligned}
& =\sum \text { real }- \text { cost }+k \cdot \sum \Delta \Phi \\
& =\sum \text { real }-\cos t+k \cdot\left(\Phi_{\text {end }}-\Phi_{\text {start }}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

Think "fundamental theorem of calculus," but for discrete derivatives!
$\int_{a}^{b} f^{\prime}(x) d x=f(b)-f(a) \quad \sum_{x=a}^{b} \Delta f(x)=f(b+1)-f(a)$
Look up finite calculus if you're curious to learn more!

## Why This Works

$\sum$ amortized-cost $=\sum($ real-cost $+k \cdot \Delta \Phi)$
$=\sum$ real-cost $+k \cdot \sum \Delta \Phi$
$=\sum$ real-cost $+k \cdot\left(\Phi_{\text {end }}-\Phi_{\text {start }}\right)$
$\geq$ Ereal-cost
Let's make two assumptions:

$$
\begin{gathered}
\Phi \geq 0 \\
\Phi_{\text {start }}=0
\end{gathered}
$$

## Why This Works

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

$$
\sum \text { amortized-cost } \geq \sum \text { real-cost }
$$

- To do so, define a potential function $\Phi$ such that
- $\Phi$ measures how "messy" the data structure is,
- $\Phi_{\text {start }}=0$, and
- $\Phi \geq 0$.
- Then, define amortized costs of operations as $\boldsymbol{a m o r t i z e d}-c o s t=$ real-cost $+\boldsymbol{k} \cdot \boldsymbol{\Delta \Phi}$ for a choice of $k$ under our control.
$\begin{array}{llllllllll}A & B & C & D & E & F & G & H & I\end{array}$

Dynamic Arrays


## The Two-Stack Queue

## $\Phi=$ height of In stack

## Out

1
In

$$
\begin{aligned}
\text { amortized-cost } & =\text { real-cost }+k \cdot \Delta \Phi \\
& =\mathrm{O}(1)+k \cdot 1 \\
& =\mathbf{O ( 1 )}
\end{aligned}
$$

## The Two-Stack Queue

## $\Phi=$ height of $\operatorname{In}$ stack



## The Two-Stack Queue

## $\Phi=$ height of $\operatorname{In}$ stack



## The Two-Stack Queue

## $\Phi=$ height of $\operatorname{In}$ stack



## The Two-Stack Queue

## $\Phi=$ height of $\operatorname{In}$ stack



## Out

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

$$
=\mathrm{O}(h)+k \cdot-h / / h=\text { height of } \operatorname{In} \text { stack }
$$

$$
\text { = O(1) // Choose } k \text { strategically }
$$

## The Two-Stack Queue

## $\Phi=$ height of $\operatorname{In}$ stack



Out

## In

$$
\begin{aligned}
\text { amortized-cost } & =\text { real-cost }+k \cdot \Delta \Phi \\
& =\mathrm{O}(1)+k \cdot 0 \\
& =\mathbf{O ( 1 )}
\end{aligned}
$$

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

Proof: Let $\Phi$ 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

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

Now, consider a dequeue operation. If the Out stack is nonempty, then the dequeue does $\mathrm{O}(1)$ work and does not change $\Phi$. Its cost is therefore

$$
\mathrm{O}(1)+k \cdot \Delta \Phi=\mathrm{O}(1)+k \cdot 0=\mathrm{O}(1)
$$

Otherwise, the Out stack is empty. Suppose the In stack has height $h$. The dequeue does $\mathrm{O}(h)$ 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 $\mathrm{O}(h)$ 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

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

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


$$
\left.\begin{array}{l|l|l|l|l|l|l}
A & B & C & D & E & F & G
\end{array}\right]
$$

## Two-Stack Queues

Dynamic Arrays



## Analyzing Dynamic Arrays

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



## Dynamic Arrays

## $\Phi=$ number of free slots



$$
\begin{aligned}
\text { amortized-cost } & =\text { real-cost }+k \cdot \Delta \Phi \\
& =\mathrm{O}(1)+k \cdot-1 \\
& =\mathbf{O}(\mathbf{1})
\end{aligned}
$$

## Dynamic Arrays

## $\Phi=$ number of free slots



$$
\begin{aligned}
\text { amortized-cost } & =\text { real-cost }+k \cdot \Delta \Phi \\
& =\mathrm{O}(1)+k \cdot-1 \\
& =\mathbf{O ( 1 )}
\end{aligned}
$$

## Dynamic Arrays

## $\Phi=$ number of free slots



$$
\begin{aligned}
\text { amortized-cost } & =\text { real-cost }+k \cdot \Delta \Phi \\
& =\mathrm{O}(1)+k \cdot-1 \\
& =\mathbf{O}(\mathbf{1})
\end{aligned}
$$

## Dynamic Arrays

## $\Phi=$ number of free slots



$$
\begin{aligned}
\text { amortized-cost } & =\text { real-cost }+k \cdot \Delta \Phi \\
& =\mathrm{O}(1)+k \cdot-1 \\
& =\mathbf{O}(\mathbf{1})
\end{aligned}
$$

## Dynamic Arrays

## $\Phi=$ number of free slots

$$
\text { H He Li Be } \mathrm{B} \text { C } \mathrm{C} \text { N } 0
$$



## Dynamic Arrays

## $\Phi=$ number of free slots



## Analyzing Dynamic Arrays

- Intuition: $\Phi$ 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 $\Phi$ be?


## Analyzing Dynamic Arrays

- The amortized cost of an append is

$$
\text { amortized-cost }=\text { real-cost }+k \cdot \Delta \Phi .
$$

- When we double the array size, our real cost is $\Theta(n)$. We need $\Delta \Phi$ to be something like $-n$.
- Goal: Pick $\Phi$ 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

$$
\Phi=\# e l e m s-\# f r e e-s l o t s
$$

```
H He Li Be B C N O
```


## Dynamic Arrays

$$
\Phi=\# e l e m s-\# f r e e-s l o t s
$$



$$
\begin{aligned}
\text { amortized-cost } & =\text { real-cost }+k \cdot \Delta \Phi \\
& =\mathrm{O}(1)+k \cdot 2 \\
& =\mathbf{O}(\mathbf{1})
\end{aligned}
$$

## Dynamic Arrays

$$
\Phi=\# e l e m s-\# f r e e-s l o t s
$$



$$
\begin{aligned}
\text { amortized-cost } & =\text { real-cost }+k \cdot \Delta \Phi \\
& =\mathrm{O}(1)+k \cdot 2 \\
& =\mathbf{O ( 1 )}
\end{aligned}
$$

## Dynamic Arrays

$$
\Phi=\# e l e m s-\# f r e e-s l o t s
$$



$$
\begin{aligned}
\text { amortized-cost } & =\text { real-cost }+k \cdot \Delta \Phi \\
& =\mathrm{O}(1)+k \cdot 2 \\
& =\mathbf{O}(\mathbf{1})
\end{aligned}
$$

## Dynamic Arrays

$$
\Phi=\# e l e m s-\# f r e e-s l o t s
$$



$$
\begin{aligned}
\text { amortized-cost } & =\text { real-cost }+k \cdot \Delta \Phi \\
& =\mathrm{O}(1)+k \cdot 2 \\
& =\mathbf{O}(\mathbf{1})
\end{aligned}
$$

## Dynamic Arrays

$$
\Phi=\# e l e m s-\# f r e e-s l o t s
$$

$$
\text { H } \mathrm{He} \mathrm{Li} \mathrm{Be} \mathrm{~B} \text { C } \mathrm{N} \quad \mathrm{O}
$$



## Dynamic Arrays

$$
\Phi=\# e l e m s ~-~ \# f r e e-s l o t s ~
$$



## A Caveat

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


$$
\Phi=-4
$$

- Quick fix: This is an edge case, so set

$$
\Phi=\max \{0, \# e l e m s-\# f r e e-\text { slots }\}
$$

Theorem: The amortized cost of an append to a dynamic array is $\mathrm{O}(1)$.
Proof: Suppose the dynamic array has initial capacity $2 C=O(1)$. Then, define $\Phi=\max \{0, n-\# f r e e$-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 $\mathrm{O}(1)$. 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

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

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

$$
\mathrm{O}(n)+k \cdot \Delta \Phi=\mathrm{O}(n)+k \cdot(2-n)=\mathrm{O}(n)-n k+2 k,
$$

which can be made to equal $\mathrm{O}(1)$ 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 $\Phi$ so that the amortized cost of an append is $\mathrm{O}(1)$.
- Suppose we also allow elements to be removed from the array, and when it's $1 / 4$ full we shrink it by a factor of two. Find a choice of $\Phi$ so the amortized cost of appending or removing the last element is $\mathrm{O}(1)$.


Two-Stack Queues


## 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.



## Building B-Trees

- 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 $\Phi$ so that we can offset this cost and make each append cost amortized $\mathrm{O}(1)$.



## Building B-Trees

- 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 $\Phi$ to be the number of keys in the right spine of the tree.

$$
37
$$

911

## Building B-Trees

- Let $\Phi$ 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 $\Delta \Phi$ : - $\boldsymbol{\Theta}(\boldsymbol{b L})$.



## Building B-Trees

- Actual cost of an append that does $L$ splits: $\mathrm{O}(b L)$.
- $\Delta \Phi$ for that operation: $-\Theta(b L)$.
- 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 $\mathrm{O}(1)$.
Proof: Assume we are working with a B-tree of order $b$. Let $\Phi$ 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 $\Theta(b L)$ work.

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

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

$$
\Theta(b L)+k \cdot \Delta \Phi=\Theta(b L)-k \cdot \Theta(b L)
$$

which can be made to be $\mathrm{O}(1)$ by choosing k to equate the constants hidden in the O and $\Theta$ 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 $\mathrm{O}(1)$.
- Red/black trees are modeled on 2-3-4 trees. You can build a red/black tree from $n$ sorted keys in time $\mathrm{O}(n)$ this way.
- Great exercise: Explore how to do this, and work out what choice of $\Phi$ 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 $\Phi$ that, intuitively, measures how "messy" the data structure is. We then set

$$
\text { amortized-cost }=\text { real-cost }+k \cdot \Delta \Phi .
$$

- For simplicity, we assume that $\Phi$ is nonnegative and that $\Phi$ for an empty data structure is zero.


## Next Time

- Binomial Heaps
- A very clever way to build a priority queue.
- Lazy Binomial Heaps
- Designing for amortization.

