### 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





- 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.

- **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!

- *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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- 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 O 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 total 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.
- 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<sub>b</sub> 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.)



• 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<sub>b</sub> 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?



#### time

*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.




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:

# $\sum$ 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.

- 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."





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





- 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?

• 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  $\Phi$  just after the operation finishes and  $\Phi$  just before the operation started:

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

- 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

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

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!

# Why This Works

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

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

# Why This Works

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

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

















**Theorem:** The amortized cost of any enqueue or dequeue operation on a two-stack queue is 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

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

Now, consider a dequeue operation. If the *Out* stack is nonempty, then the dequeue does O(1) work and does not change  $\Phi$ . 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  $\Phi$  such that the amortized cost of an append is O(1).
- **Initial (wrong!) guess:** Set  $\Phi$  to be the number of free slots left in the array.

















# 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

```
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  $\Phi$  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






#### Dynamic Arrays

 $\Phi = #elems - #free-slots$ 



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#### Dynamic Arrays

 $\Phi = #elems - #free-slots$ 



### 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  $\Phi = \max\{ 0, \#elems - \#free - slots \}$  **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  $\Phi$  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).





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



- 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  $\Delta \Phi$ : - $\Theta(bL)$ .



- 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  $\Phi$  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  $\Theta(bL)$  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  $-\Theta(bL)$ . In the layer just above the last split, we add one more key into a node, increasing  $\Phi$  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  $\Theta$  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 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  $\Phi$  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

#### amortized-cost = 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.