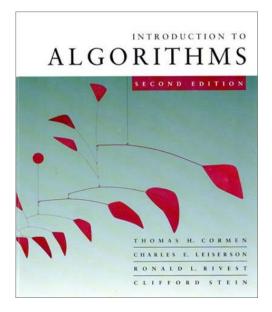


CS 5633 -- Spring 2010



Amortized Analysis

Carola Wenk

Slides courtesy of Charles Leiserson with small changes by Carola Wenk

CS 5633 Analysis of Algorithms

3/11/2010

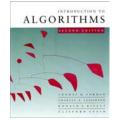
Dynamic tables

Task: Store a dynamic set in a table/array. Elements can only be inserted, and all inserted elements are stored in one contiguous part in the array. The table should be as small as possible, but large enough so that it won't overflow.

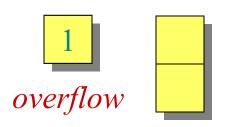
Problem: We may not know the proper size in advance!

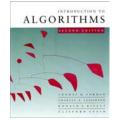
Solution: Dynamic tables.

IDEA: Whenever the table overflows, "grow" it by allocating (via **malloc** or **new**) a new, larger table. Move all items from the old table into the new one, and free the storage for the old table.

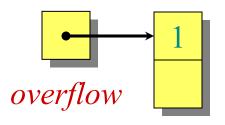


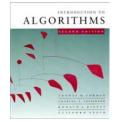
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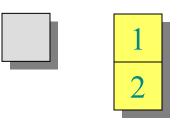


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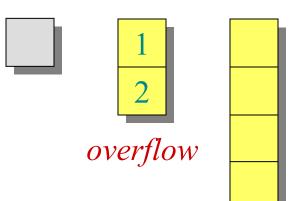


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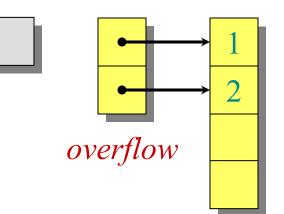


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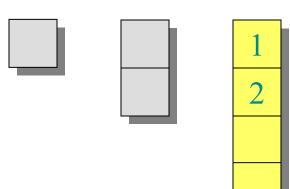


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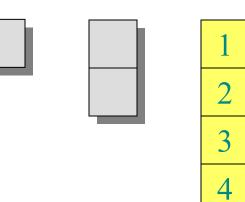


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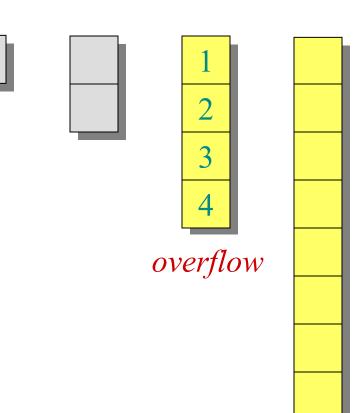


- 1. INSERT
- 2. INSERT
- 3. INSERT
- 4. INSERT



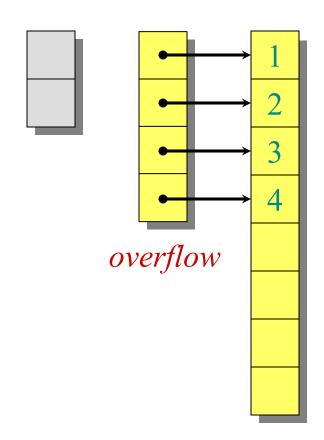


- 1. INSERT
- 2. INSERT
- 3. INSERT
- 4. INSERT
- 5. INSERT



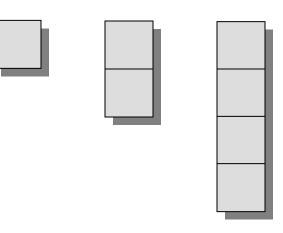


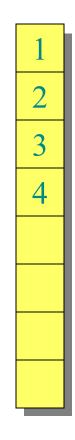
- 1. INSERT
- 2. INSERT
- 3. INSERT
- 4. INSERT
- 5. INSERT





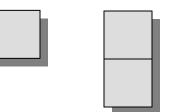
- 1. INSERT
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- 3. INSERT
- 4. INSERT
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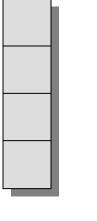


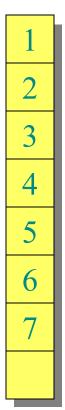




- 1. INSERT
- 2. INSERT
- 3. INSERT
- 4. INSERT
- 5. INSERT
- 6. INSERT
- 7. INSERT







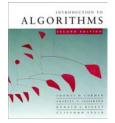


Worst-case analysis

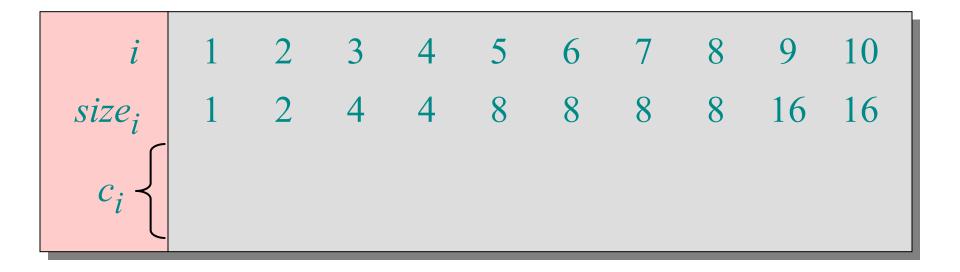
Consider a sequence of *n* insertions. The worst-case time to execute one insertion is O(n). Therefore, the worst-case time for *n* insertions is $n \cdot O(n) = O(n^2)$.

WRONG! In fact, the worst-case cost for *n* insertions is only $\Theta(n) \ll O(n^2)$.

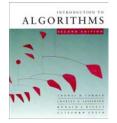
Let's see why.



Let c_i = the cost of the *i* th insertion

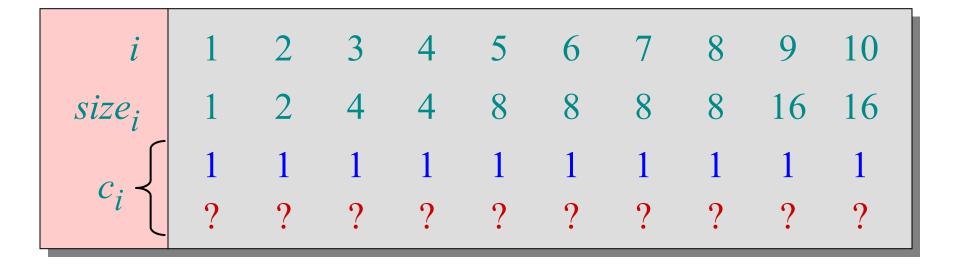


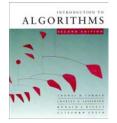
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Let c_i = the cost of the *i* th insertion

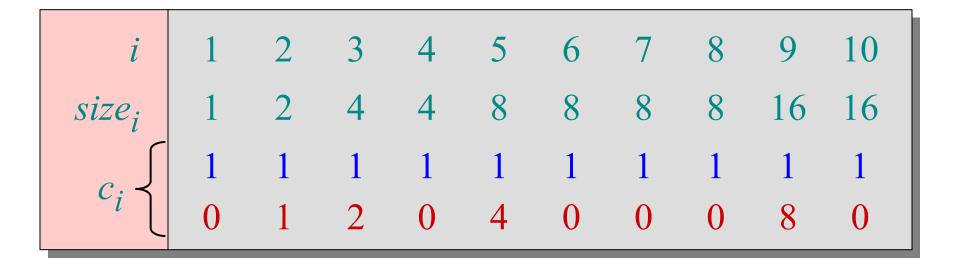
= 1 + cost to double array size

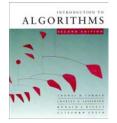




Let c_i = the cost of the *i* th insertion

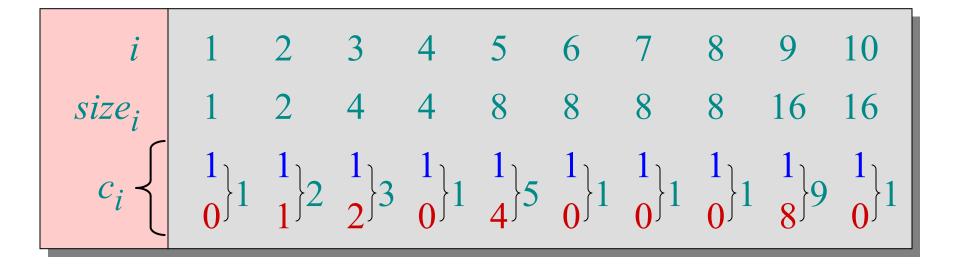
= 1 + cost to double array size

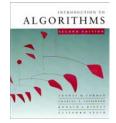




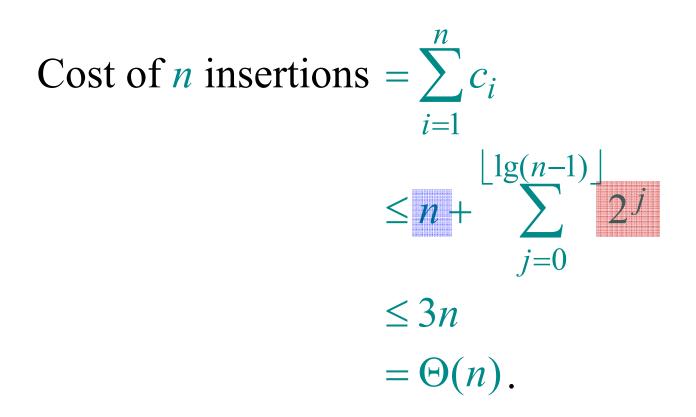
Let c_i = the cost of the *i* th insertion

= 1 + cost to double array size





Tighter analysis (continued)



Thus, the average cost of each dynamic-table operation is $\Theta(n)/n = \Theta(1)$.

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Amortized analysis

An *amortized analysis* is any strategy for analyzing a **sequence** of operations:

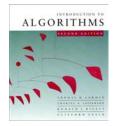
- compute the total cost of the sequence, OR
- amortized cost of an operation = average cost per operation, averaged over the number of operations in the sequence
- amortized cost can be small, even though a single operation within the sequence might be expensive



Amortized analysis

Even though we're taking averages, however, probability is not involved!

• An amortized analysis guarantees the average performance of each operation in the *worst case*.



Types of amortized analyses

- Three common amortization arguments:
- the *aggregate* method,
- the *accounting* method,
- the *potential* method.

We've just seen an aggregate analysis.

The aggregate method, though simple, lacks the precision of the other two methods. In particular, the accounting and potential methods allow a specific *amortized cost* to be allocated to each operation.

ALGORITHMS

Accounting method

- Charge *i* th operation a fictitious *amortized cost* \hat{c}_i , where \$1 pays for 1 unit of work (*i.e.*, time).
- This fee is consumed to perform the operation, and
- any amount not immediately consumed is stored in the *bank* for use by subsequent operations.
- The bank balance must not go negative! We must ensure that

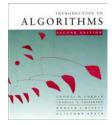
$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} c_i \le \sum_{i=1}^{n} \hat{c}_i$$

for all *n*.

• Thus, the total amortized costs provide an upper bound on the total true costs.

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Accounting analysis of dynamic tables

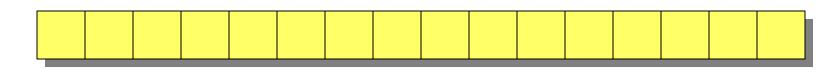
Charge an amortized cost of $\hat{c}_i = \$3$ for the *i* th insertion.

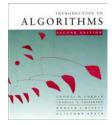
- \$1 pays for the immediate insertion.
- \$2 is stored for later table doubling.

When the table doubles, \$1 pays to move a recent item, and \$1 pays to move an old item.

Example:



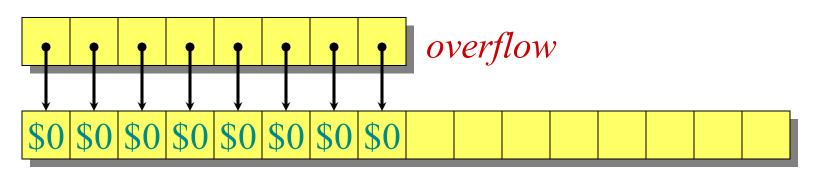


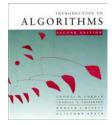


Accounting analysis of dynamic tables

Charge an amortized cost of $\hat{c}_i = \$3$ for the *i* th insertion.

- \$1 pays for the immediate insertion.
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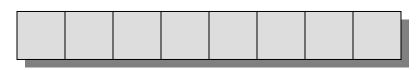




Accounting analysis of dynamic tables

Charge an amortized cost of $\hat{c}_i = \$3$ for the *i* th insertion.

- \$1 pays for the immediate insertion.
- \$2 is stored for later table doubling.
- When the table doubles, \$1 pays to move a recent item, and \$1 pays to move an old item. **Example:**







Accounting analysis (continued)

Key invariant: Bank balance never drops below 0. Thus, the sum of the amortized costs provides an upper bound on the sum of the true costs.

i	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
size _i	1	2	4	4	8	8	8	8	16	16
c _i	1	2	3	1	5	1	1	1	9	1
ĉ	2*	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3
i size _i c _i ĉ _i bank _i	1	2	2	4	2	4	6	8	2	4

*Okay, so I lied. The first operation costs only \$2, not \$3. 3/11/2010 CS 5633 Analysis of Algorithms



Incrementing a Binary Counter

Given: A *k*-bit binary counter *A*[0,1,...,*k*-1], initialized with 0,0,...,0. The counter supports the following INCREMENT operation:

INCREMENT(A) // increases counter by 1 $i \leftarrow 0$ while i < length(A) and A[i]=1 do $A[i] \leftarrow 0$ i++if i < length(A) then $A[i] \leftarrow 1$

• **Question:** In a sequence of *n* INCREMENT operations, what is the amortized runtime of one INCREMENT operation?



Binary Counter Example

Example for $k=8$ and $n=$	9:	1→0 flip	$0 \rightarrow 1$ flip
Initial counter After 1 increment After 2 increments After 3 increments After 4 increments After 5 increments After 6 increments After 7 increments After 8 increments After 9 increments	0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 1 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 1 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 1 1 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 1 0 1 0 0 0 0 0 0 1 0 1 0 0 0 0 0 0 1 1 1 0 0 0 0 0 1 0 0 1 0 0 0 0 0 1 0 0 0	\$1 \$2 \$1 \$3	\$1 \$1 \$1 \$1 \$1 \$1 \$1 \$1 \$1 \$1 \$1 \$1 \$1 \$

- The worst-case runtime of one INCREMENT operation is O(k)
- For *n* operations the total is O(nk)

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Accounting Method

INCREMENT(A) // increases counter $i \leftarrow 0$ while i < length(A) and A[i]=1 do $A[i] \leftarrow 0$ if i < length(A) then $A[i] \leftarrow 1$

- Charge \$2 to set a bit to 1 ($0 \rightarrow 1$ flip)
 - > \$1 pays for the actual flip

> Store \$1 on the bit as credit to be used later when this bit is flipped back to 0

• Charge 0 to set a bit to $0 (1 \rightarrow 0 \text{ flip})$

> Every 1 in the counter has \$1 credit on it, which is used to pay for this flip



Binary Counter Example

Example for *k*=8 and *n*=9:

Initial counter After 1 increment After 2 increments After 3 increments After 4 increments After 5 increments After 6 increments After 7 increments After 8 increments After 9 increments $\begin{array}{c}
0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\
0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\
0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\
0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\
0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\
0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1
\end{array}$

$\begin{array}{ccc} 1 \longrightarrow 0 & 0 \longrightarrow 1 \\ flip & flip \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{ccc} 1 \longrightarrow 0 & 0 \longrightarrow 1 \\ flip & flip \end{array}$
\$1	\$2
\$1 \$1 \$1	\$0 \$2 \$2
\$2 \$1 \$1	\$0 \$2 \$2
\$1 \$1 \$1	\$0 \$2 \$2
\$3 \$1	\$0 \$2
\$1	\$2
Actual cost	Amortized cost



Accounting Method

INCREMENT(A) // increases counter $i \leftarrow 0$ while i < length(A) and A[i]=1 do $A[i] \leftarrow 0$ if i < length(A) then $A[i] \leftarrow 1$

- Charge \$2 to set a bit to 1 ($0 \rightarrow 1$ flip)
 - > \$1 pays for the actual flip

> Store \$1 on the bit as credit to be used later when this bit is flipped back to 0

• Charge 0 to set a bit to $0 (1 \rightarrow 0 \text{ flip})$

 \succ Every 1 in the counter has \$1 credit on it, which is used to pay for this flip

 \Rightarrow Since each INCREMENT operation is composed of one $0 \rightarrow 1$ flip and possibly multiple $1 \rightarrow 0$ flips, the amortized runtime of one INCREMENT operation is O(1).



Potential method

IDEA: View the bank account as the potential energy (*à la* physics) of the dynamic set. **Framework:**

- Start with an initial data structure D_0 .
- Operation *i* transforms D_{i-1} to D_i .
- The cost of operation i is c_i .
- Define a *potential function* $\Phi : \{D_i\} \to \mathsf{R}$, such that $\Phi(D_0) = 0$ and $\Phi(D_i) \ge 0$ for all *i*.
- The *amortized cost* \hat{c}_i with respect to Φ is defined to be $\hat{c}_i = c_i + \Phi(D_i) \Phi(D_{i-1})$.



Understanding potentials

$$\hat{c}_i = c_i + \underbrace{\Phi(D_i) - \Phi(D_{i-1})}_{\checkmark}$$

potential difference $\Delta \Phi_i$

- If $\Delta \Phi_i > 0$, then $\hat{c}_i > c_i$. Operation *i* stores work in the data structure for later use.
- If $\Delta \Phi_i < 0$, then $\hat{c}_i < c_i$. The data structure delivers up stored work to help pay for operation *i*.



The amortized costs bound the true costs

The total amortized cost of n operations is

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} \hat{c}_{i} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \left(c_{i} + \Phi(D_{i}) - \Phi(D_{i-1}) \right)$$

Summing both sides.



The amortized costs bound the true costs

The total amortized cost of n operations is

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} \hat{c}_{i} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \left(c_{i} + \Phi(D_{i}) - \Phi(D_{i-1}) \right)$$
$$= \sum_{i=1}^{n} c_{i} + \Phi(D_{n}) - \Phi(D_{0})$$

The series telescopes.

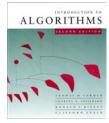


The amortized costs bound the true costs

The total amortized cost of n operations is

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} \hat{c}_{i} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \left(c_{i} + \Phi(D_{i}) - \Phi(D_{i-1}) \right)$$
$$= \sum_{i=1}^{n} c_{i} + \Phi(D_{n}) - \Phi(D_{0})$$
$$\ge \sum_{i=1}^{n} c_{i} \qquad \text{since } \Phi(D_{n}) \ge 0 \text{ and}$$
$$\Phi(D_{0}) = 0.$$

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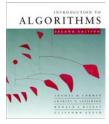
Potential analysis of table doubling

Define the potential of the table after the *i*th insertion by $\Phi(D_i) = 2i - \text{size}_i = 2i - 2^{\lceil \log i \rceil}$. (Assume that $2^{\lceil \log 0 \rceil} = 0$.)

Immediately after an expansion $i = \text{size}_i / 2$, and therefore $\Phi(D_i) = 0$. Immediately before an expansion $i = \text{size}_i$, and therefore $\Phi(D_i) = i$.

Therefore:

- $\Phi(D_0) = 0$,
- $\Phi(D_i) \ge 0$ for all *i*.



Potential analysis of table doubling

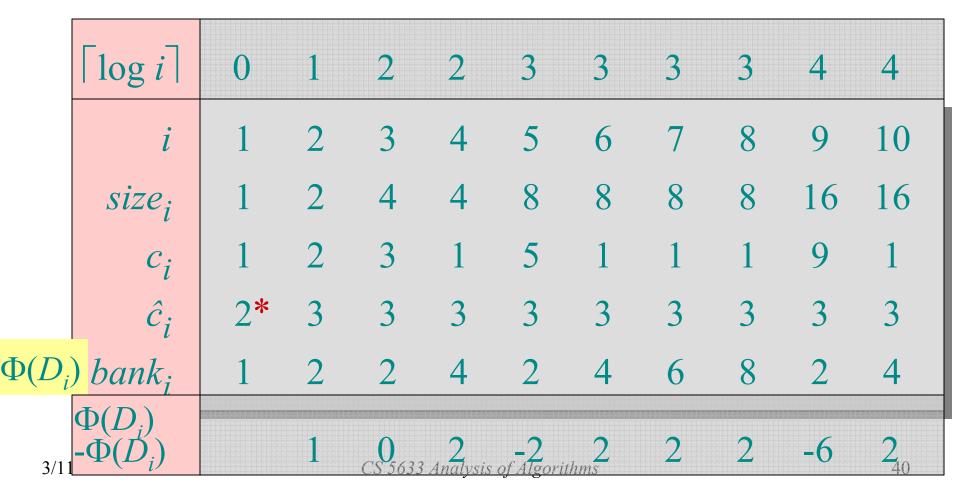
Define the potential of the table after the *i*th insertion by $\Phi(D_i) = 2i - \text{size}_i = 2i - 2^{\lceil \log i \rceil}$. (Assume that $2^{\lceil \log 0 \rceil} = 0$.)

$\lceil \log i \rceil$	0	1	2	2	3	3	3	3	4	4
									9	10
size _i	1	2	4	4	8	8	8	8	16	16
c _i	1	2	3	1	5	1	1	1	9	1
\hat{c}_i	2*	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3
bank _i	possesses possessessessessessessessessessessessesse	2	2	Laura Maria	2	Lange.	6	8	2	4



Potential analysis of table doubling

Define the potential of the table after the *i*th insertion by $\Phi(D_i) = 2i - \text{size}_i = 2i - 2^{\lceil \log i \rceil}$. (Assume that $2^{\lceil \log 0 \rceil} = 0$.)





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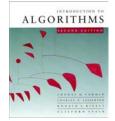
Calculation of amortized costs

The amortized cost of the *i* th insertion is

$$\hat{c}_{i} = c_{i} + \Phi(D_{i}) - \Phi(D_{i-1})$$

$$= \begin{cases} i + (2i - 2^{\lceil \log i \rceil}) - (2(i-1) - 2^{\lceil \log (i-1) \rceil}) \\ \text{if } i - 1 \text{ is an exact power of } 2, \\ 1 + (2i - 2^{\lceil \log i \rceil}) - (2(i-1) - 2^{\lceil \log (i-1) \rceil}) \\ \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

for all $i \ge 1$



Calculation (Case 1)

Case 1: i - 1 is an exact power of 2.

$$\begin{aligned} \hat{c}_i &= i + \left(2i - 2^{\lceil \log i \rceil}\right) - \left(2(i-1) - 2^{\lceil \log (i-1) \rceil}\right) \\ &= i + 2 - \left(2^{\lceil \log i \rceil} - 2^{\lceil \log (i-1) \rceil}\right) \\ &= i + 2 - \left(2(i-1) - (i-1)\right) \\ &= i + 2 - 2i + 2 + i - 1 \\ &= 3 \end{aligned}$$



Calculation (Case 2)

Case 2: i - 1 is not an exact power of 2.

$$\hat{c}_{i} = 1 + (2i - 2^{\lceil \log i \rceil}) - (2(i-1) - 2^{\lceil \log (i-1) \rceil})$$
$$= 1 + 2 - (2^{\lceil \log i \rceil} - 2^{\lceil \log (i-1) \rceil})$$
$$= 3$$

Therefore, *n* insertions cost $\Theta(n)$ in the worst case.

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Conclusions

- Amortized costs can provide a clean abstraction of data-structure performance.
- Any of the analysis methods can be used when an amortized analysis is called for, but each method has some situations where it is arguably the simplest.
- Different schemes may work for assigning amortized costs in the accounting method, sometimes yielding radically different bounds.