

Algorithms and Satisfiability

Lecture 6: Amortized Analysis

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Amortized analysis



- Main goals of the lecture:
 - *to understand what is **amortized analysis**, when is it used, and how it differs from the average-case analysis;*
 - *to be able to apply the techniques of the **aggregate analysis**, the **accounting method**, and the **potential method** to analyze operations on simple data structures.*

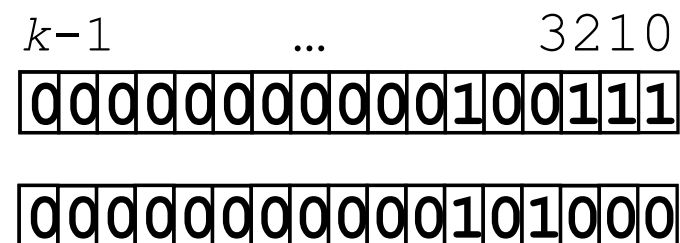
Sequence of operations



- *The problem:*
 - We have a data structure
 - We perform a sequence of operations
 - Operations may be of different types (e.g., *insert*, *delete*)
 - Depending on the state of the structure the actual cost of an operation may differ (e.g., *inserting into a sorted array*)
 - Just analyzing the worst-case time of a single operation may not say too much
 - We want the average running time of an operation (*but from the worst-case sequence of operations!*).

A decorative graphic consisting of several overlapping hexagons in shades of gray, arranged in a cluster on the right side of the page.

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Increment (A)
1 $i \leftarrow 0$
2 while $i < k$ and $A[i] = 1$ do
1 $A[i] \leftarrow 0$
2 $i \leftarrow i + 1$
5 if $i < k$ then $A[i] \leftarrow 1$
```



- But usually we do much less bit assignments!

# Analysis of the binary counter



- *How many bit-assignments do we do on average?*
  - Let's consider a sequence of  $n$  *Increments*
  - Let's compute the sum of bit assignments:
    - $A[0]$  assigned on each operation:  $n$  assignments
    - $A[1]$  assigned every two operations:  $n/2$  assignments
    - $A[2]$  assigned every four ops:  $n/4$  assignments
    - $A[i]$  assigned every  $2^i$  ops:  $n/2^i$  assignments

$$\sum_{i=0}^{\lfloor \lg n \rfloor} \left\lfloor \frac{n}{2^i} \right\rfloor = n \sum_{i=0}^{\lfloor \lg n \rfloor} \left\lfloor \frac{1}{2^i} \right\rfloor < 2n$$

- Thus, a single operation takes  $2n/n = 2 = O(1)$  **amortized time**

# Aggregate analysis

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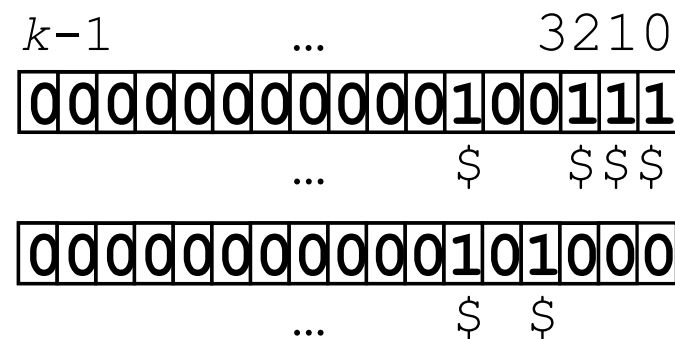


- ***Aggregate analysis*** – a simple way to do amortized analysis
  - Treat all operations equally
  - Compute the *worst-case* running time of a sequence of  $n$  operations.
  - Divide by  $n$  to get an amortized running time

# Another look at the binary counter



- *Another way of looking at it (proving the amortized time):*
  - To assign a bit, I have to pay \$1
  - When I assign “1”, I pay \$1, plus I put \$1 in my “savings account” associated with that bit.
  - When I assign “0”, I can do it using a dollar from the savings account on that bit
  - *How much do I have to pay for the Increment(A) for this scheme to work?*
    - Only one assignment of “1” in the algorithm. Obviously, \$2 will always pay for the entire operation



# Accounting method



- Principles of the **accounting method**
  - 1. Associate credit accounts with different parts of the structure
  - 2. Associate amortized costs with operations and show how they credit or debit accounts
    - Different costs may be assigned to different operations
  - Requirement ( $c$  – real cost,  $\hat{c}$  – amortized cost):

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

- This is equivalent to requiring that the sum of all credits in the data structure is *non-negative* after any sequence of operations
  - What would it mean not to satisfy this requirement?
- 3. Show that this requirement is satisfied



# Stack example

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- Start with an empty stack and consider a sequence of  $n$  operations: *Push*, *Pop*, and *Multipop*( $k$ ).
  - What is the worst-case running time of an operation from this sequence?
  - 1. Let's associate an account with each element in the stack
  - 2. After pushing an element, put a dollar into the account associated with it,
    - then *Pop* and *Multipop* can work only using money in the accounts (amortized cost 0)
    - *Push* has amortized cost 2
  - 3. The total credit in the structure is always  $\geq 0$
  - Thus, the amortized cost of an operation is  $O(1)$

# Potential method



- *We can have one account associated with the whole structure:*
  - We call it a **potential**
  - It's a function that maps a state of the data structure after operation  $i$  to a number:  $\Phi(D_i)$ 
    - $\hat{c}_i = c_i + \Phi(D_i) - \Phi(D_{i-1})$
- The main step of this method is defining the potential function
  - Requirement:  $\Phi(D_n) - \Phi(D_0) \geq 0$
- Once we have  $\Phi$ , we can compute the amortized costs of operations

# Binary counter example

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- *How do we define the potential function for the binary counter?*
  - Potential of  $A$ :  $b_i$  – a number of “1”s
  - *What is  $\Phi(D_i) - \Phi(D_{i-1})$ , if the number of bits set to 0 in operation  $i$  is  $t_i$ ?*
  - *What is the amortized cost of Increment( $A$ )?*
    - We showed that:  $\Phi(D_i) - \Phi(D_{i-1}) \leq 1 - t_i$
    - Real cost:  $c_i = t_i + 1$
    - Thus,  $\hat{c}_i = c_i + \Phi(D_i) - \Phi(D_{i-1}) \leq (t_i + 1) + (1 - t_i) = 2$

# Potential method



- *We can analyze the counter even if it does not start at 0 using the potential method:*
  - Let's say we start with  $b_0$  and end with  $b_n$  "1"s
  - Observe that:
$$\sum_{i=1}^n c_i = \sum_{i=1}^n \hat{c}_i - \Phi(D_n) + \Phi(D_0)$$
  - We have that:  $\hat{c}_i \leq 2$
  - This means that:
$$\sum_{i=1}^n c_i \leq 2n - b_n + b_0$$
  - Note that  $b_0 \leq k$ . This means that, if  $k = O(n)$  then the total actual cost is  $O(n)$ .

# Dynamic table

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- *It is often useful to have a dynamic table:*
  - The table that expands and contracts as necessary when new elements are added or deleted.
    - **Expands** when insertion is done and the table is already full
    - **Contracts** when deletion is done and there is “too much” free space
  - Contracting or expanding involves **relocating**
    - Allocate new memory space of the new size
    - Copy all elements from the table into the new space
    - Free the old space
  - Worst-case time for insertions and deletions:
    - Without relocation:  $O(1)$
    - With relocation:  $O(m)$ , where  $m$  – the number of elements in the table

# Requirements

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- Load factor
  - *num* – current number of elements in the table
  - *size* – the total number of elements that can be stored in the allocated memory
  - Load factor  $\alpha = num/size$
- It would be nice to have these two properties:
  - Amortized cost of insert and delete is constant
  - The load factor is always above some constant
    - That is the table is not too empty

# Naïve insertions

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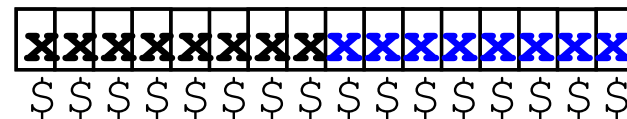
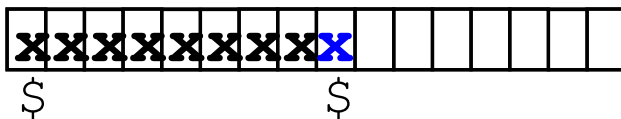


- *Let's look only at insertions: Why not expand the table by some constant when it overflows?*
  - *What is the amortized cost of an insertion?*
  - *Does it satisfy the second requirement?*

# Aggregate analysis / accounting



- The “right” way to expand – double the size of the table
  - Let’s do an aggregate analysis
  - The cost of the  $i$ -th insertion is:
    - ♦  $i$ , if  $i-1$  is an exact power of 2
    - ♦ 1, otherwise
  - Let’s sum up...
$$\sum_{i=1}^n c_i = n + \sum_{j=1}^{\lfloor \lg n \rfloor} 2^j \leq n + \frac{2^{\lg n+1} - 1}{2 - 1} = 3n - 1$$
  - The total cost of  $n$  insertions is then  $< 3n$
  - Accounting method gives the intuition:
    - ♦ Pay \$1 for inserting the element
    - ♦ Put \$1 into element’s account for reallocating it later
    - ♦ Put \$1 into the account of another element to pay for a later relocation of that element





# Potential function



- *What potential function do we want to have?*
  - It is zero right after expansion ( $num = size/2$ ) and grows...
  - ...to  $size$  right before the next expansion ( $num = size$ )
  - Thus, it has to grow by 2 on each insertion.
  - $\Phi_i = 2(num_i - size_i/2) = 2num_i - size_i$
  - It is always non-negative
  - Amortized cost of insertion:
    - ♦ Insertion does not trigger an expansion ( $size_{i-1} = size_i$ ):
      - ▲  $\Delta\Phi_i = \Phi_i - \Phi_{i-1} = 2(num_{i-1} + 1) - size_i - 2num_{i-1} + size_i = 2$
      - ▲  $\hat{c}_i = c_i + \Delta\Phi_i = 1 + 2 = 3$
    - ♦ Insertion triggers an expansion ( $size_{i-1} = num_{i-1}$ ,  $size_i = 2num_{i-1}$ ):
      - ▲  $\Delta\Phi_i = \Phi_i - \Phi_{i-1} = 2(num_{i-1} + 1) - size_i - 2num_{i-1} + size_{i-1} = 2(num_{i-1} + 1) - 2num_{i-1} - 2num_{i-1} + num_{i-1} = 2 - num_{i-1}$ .
      - ▲  $\hat{c}_i = c_i + \Delta\Phi_i = num_{i-1} + 1 + 2 - num_{i-1} = 3$
    - ♦ Both cases: 3

# Deletions

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- *Deletions: What if we contract whenever the table is about to get less than half full?*
  - *Would the amortized running times of a sequence of insertions and deletions be constant?*
  - Problem: we want to avoid doing re-allocations often without having accumulated “the money” to pay for that!

# Deletions

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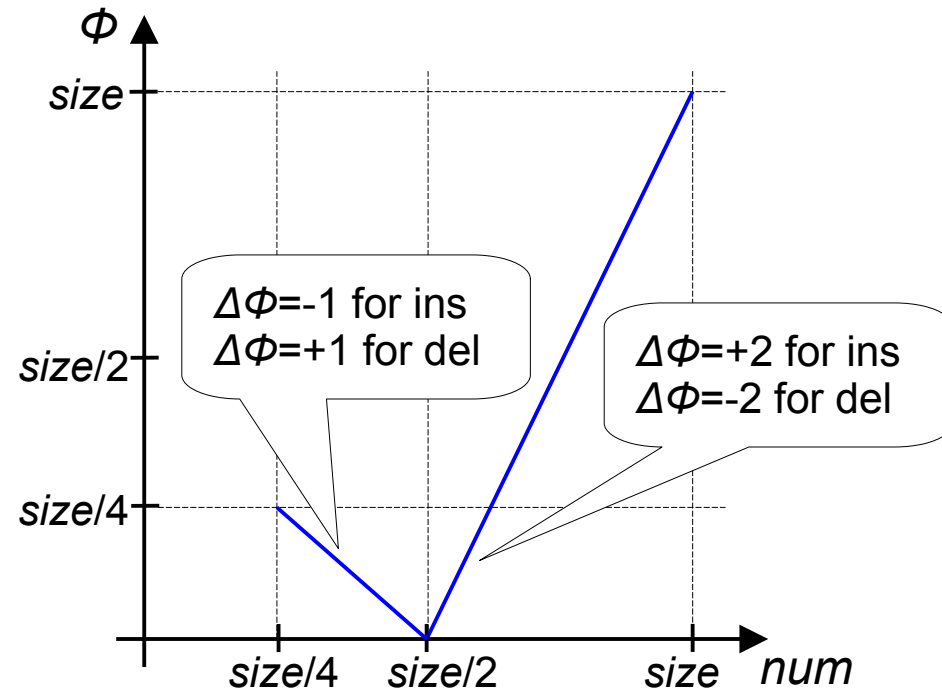
- *Idea: delay contraction!*
  - Contract only when  $num = size/4$
  - Second requirement still satisfied:  $\alpha \geq 1/4$
- *Consider the following sequence of operations (starting with an empty table of size 1):*
  - 6 ins, 3 dels, 5 ins, 7 dels, 7 ins
  - *How many contractions and expansions are performed?*
  - *What is the final size of the table?*

# Deletions



- Contraction:  $num = size/4$
- How do we define the potential function?

$$\Phi_i = \begin{cases} 2 \cdot num_i - size_i & \text{if } \alpha \geq 1/2 \\ size_i/2 - num_i & \text{if } \alpha < 1/2 \end{cases}$$



- It is always non-negative
- Let's compute the amortized running time of deletions:
  - $\alpha < 1/2$  (with contraction, without contraction)