

# ***Amortized Analysis***

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- **Introduction**
- **Aggregate analysis**
- **Accounting method**
- **Potential method**
- **Dynamic Table**

# Introduction

## ● Amortized Analysis

- We average the time required to perform a sequence of data-structure operations over all the operations performed.
- Show that the average cost of an operation is small, even though a single operation within the sequence might be expensive.
  - average over a sequence of operations
- probability is not involved (contrary to average case analysis)
- Guarantees *the average performance of each operation* in the worst case

# Introduction

- Three techniques for amortized analysis
  1. aggregate analysis
  2. accounting method
  3. potential method
- Examine these three methods using two examples
  - Stack with MULTIPOP operation
  - Incrementing binary counter

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# Aggregate analysis

- Aggregate analysis

- A sequence of  $n$  operations takes *worst-case* time  $T(n)$  in total.
- Average cost per operation is  $T(n)/n$  in the worst case  
= amortized cost
- Amortized cost is the same to each operation
  - Even when there are several types of operations in the sequence



# Aggregate analysis

- Example of stack operation
  - Stack operations
    - $\text{PUSH}(S, x)$
    - $\text{POP}(S)$
    - $\text{MULTIPOP}(S, k)$
  - $\text{PUSH}$  and  $\text{POP}$  run in  $O(1)$  time.
    - Thus the cost of each is 1.
  - Actual running time for  $n$  operations is  $\Theta(n)$ .
    - Total cost of a sequence of these  $n$  operations is  $n$ .

# Aggregate analysis

- Example of stack operation

- **MULTIPOP( $S, k$ )**

- Actual running time is linear in the number of POP operations actually executed.

**MULTIPOP( $S, k$ )**

1    while not STACK-EMPTY( $S$ ) and  $k > 0$

2        POP( $S$ )

3         $k = k - 1$

←  $T(1) * k$

- So, cost of MULTIPOP( $S, k$ ) is  $O(k)$ .



# Aggregate analysis

- Example of stack operation

- $\text{MULTIPOP}(S, k)$

- Remove the  $k$  top objects of stack

- If objects of stack are less than  $k$ , it removes the objects in the stack.

- So, stack is empty

| index | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
|-------|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| $S$   |   |   |   |   |   |   |

$\text{MULTIPOP}(S, 2)$  ↓ **↑ top**

| index | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
|-------|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| $S$   |   |   |   |   |   |   |

$\text{MULTIPOP}(S, 6)$  ↓ **↑ top**

| index | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
|-------|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| $S$   |   |   |   |   |   |   |

# Aggregate analysis

- Example of stack operation

- Analysis of a sequence of  $n$  PUSH, POP and MULTIPOP operations
  - on an initially empty stack
- Intuitive analysis of time complexity (wrong way)
  - The worst-case cost of one MULTIPOP:  $O(n)$
  - Stack size: at most  $n$

➔ Total cost :  $O(n^2)$

- This cost isn't tight

# Aggregate analysis

- Example of stack operation
  - Using Aggregate analysis
    - Can obtain a better upper bound from the entire sequence of  $n$  operations
  - Any sequence of  $n$  PUSH, POP and MULTIPOP operations
    - on an initially empty stack
    - [Push, push, pop, push, push, push, multipop(2), ...]  
= [Push, push, pop, push, push, push, {pop, pop}, ...]  
$$n \geq \#(\text{push}) \geq \#(\text{pop})$$
$$2n \geq \#(\text{push}) + \#(\text{pop})$$
$$\rightarrow \text{Total cost : } O(n)$$
    - Amortized cost is  $O(n) / n = O(1)$

# Aggregate analysis

- Example of incrementing a binary counter
  - Consider the problem of implementing a  $k$ -bit binary counter that counts upward from 0
    - Use an array  $A[0..k-1]$  of bits

|          |     |        |        |        |
|----------|-----|--------|--------|--------|
| $A[k-1]$ | ... | $A[2]$ | $A[1]$ | $A[0]$ |
|----------|-----|--------|--------|--------|

# Aggregate analysis

- Example of incrementing binary counter
  - Cost of INCREMENT operation is proportional to the number of bits flip

## INCREMENT (A)

1  $i = 0$

2 **while**  $i < A.length$  and  $A[i] == 1$

3  $A[i] = 0$

4  $i = i + 1$

5 **if**  $i < A.length$

6  $A[i] = 1$

← Bit flip,  $T(1)$

← Bit flip,  $T(1)$

# Aggregate analysis

- Example of incrementing binary counter
  - Cost of INCREMENT operation is proportional to the number of bits flipped.

Ex. INCREMENT(*A*)

| Counter value | <i>A</i> [4] | <i>A</i> [3] | <i>A</i> [2] | <i>A</i> [1] | <i>A</i> [0] | cost | Total cost |
|---------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|------|------------|
| 0             | 0            | 0            | 0            | 0            | 0            | 0    | 0          |
| 1             | 0            | 0            | 0            | 0            | 1            | 1    | 1          |



# Aggregate analysis

- Example of incrementing binary counter
  - Cost of INCREMENT operation is proportional to the number of bits flipped.

Ex. INCREMENT(A)

| Counter value | A[4] | A[3] | A[2] | A[1] | A[0] | cost | Total cost |
|---------------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------------|
| 0             | 0    | 0    | 0    | 0    | 0    | 0    | 0          |
| 1             | 0    | 0    | 0    | 0    | 1    | 1    | 1          |
| 2             | 0    | 0    | 0    | 1    | 0    | 2    | 3          |

# Aggregate analysis

- Example of incrementing binary counter
  - Cost of INCREMENT operation is proportional to the number of bits flipped.

Ex. INCREMENT(A)

| Counter value | A[4] | A[3] | A[2] | A[1] | A[0] | cost | Total cost |
|---------------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------------|
| 0             | 0    | 0    | 0    | 0    | 0    | 0    | 0          |
| 1             | 0    | 0    | 0    | 0    | 1    | 1    | 1          |
| 2             | 0    | 0    | 0    | 1    | 0    | 2    | 3          |
| 3             | 0    | 0    | 0    | 1    | 1    | 1    | 4          |

# Aggregate analysis

- Example of incrementing binary counter
  - Cost of INCREMENT operation is proportional to the number of bits flipped.

Ex. INCREMENT(*A*)

| Counter value | <i>A</i> [4] | <i>A</i> [3] | <i>A</i> [2] | <i>A</i> [1] | <i>A</i> [0] | cost | Total cost |
|---------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|------|------------|
| 0             | 0            | 0            | 0            | 0            | 0            | 0    | 0          |
| 1             | 0            | 0            | 0            | 0            | 1            | 1    | 1          |
| 2             | 0            | 0            | 0            | 1            | 0            | 2    | 3          |
| 3             | 0            | 0            | 0            | 1            | 1            | 1    | 4          |
| 4             | 0            | 0            | 1            | 0            | 0            | 3    | 7          |

# Aggregate analysis

- Example of incrementing binary counter
  - A single execution of INCREMENT takes time  $\Theta(k)$  in the worst case
    - In which array  $A$  contains all 1s.

| $A[k-1]$ | ... | $A[2]$ | $A[1]$ | $A[0]$ | cost |
|----------|-----|--------|--------|--------|------|
| 1        | ... | 1      | 1      | 1      | -    |
| 0        | ... | 0      | 0      | 0      | $k$  |

- Thus, a sequence of  $n$  INCREMENT operations on an initially zero counter takes time  $O(nk)$  in the worst case.

# Aggregate analysis

- Example of incrementing binary counter
  - Aggregate Analysis
    - can tighten our analysis to yield a worst-case cost of  $O(n)$  for a sequence of  $n$  INCREMENT operations
      - by observing that not all bits flip each time INCREMENT is called

# Aggregate analysis

- Example of incrementing binary counter

- Compute bit flip of Array A

- flip of  $A[0]$  :  $n$
- flip of  $A[1]$  :  $\left\lfloor \frac{n}{2} \right\rfloor$
- flip of  $A[2]$  :  $\left\lfloor \frac{n}{4} \right\rfloor$

- The total number of flip in the sequence

- $\sum_{i=0}^{k-1} \left\lfloor \frac{n}{2^i} \right\rfloor < \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} n/2^i = 2n$

→ Total cost  $O(n)$

- Amortized cost =  $O(n)/n = O(1)$

|   | A[3]       | A[2]       | A[1]       | A[0]     |
|---|------------|------------|------------|----------|
| 1 | 0          | 0          | 0          | 1        |
| 2 | 0          | 0          | 1          | 0        |
| 3 | 0          | 0          | 1          | 1        |
| 4 | 0          | 1          | 0          | 0        |
| 5 | 0          | 1          | 0          | 1        |
| 6 | 0          | 1          | 1          | 0        |
| 7 | 0          | 1          | 1          | 1        |
| 8 | 1          | 0          | 0          | 0        |
|   | ↑<br>$n/8$ | ↑<br>$n/4$ | ↑<br>$n/2$ | ↑<br>$n$ |



# Aggregate analysis

- Running time
  - $O(n)$  time in total
- Amortized cost
  - $O(n) / n = O(1)$

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- **Dynamic Table**

# Accounting method

## ● Accounting method

- Amortized cost of an operation: assign differing charges to different operations, with some operations charged more or less than they actually cost
- Credit
  - the difference between amortized cost and actual cost
  - can help pay for later operations whose amortized cost is less than their actual cost
- Different operations may have different amortized costs, unlike aggregate analysis.

# Accounting method

## Accounting method

- choose amortized cost of operations, so that the total amortized cost provides an upper bound on the total actual cost.

- $c_i$  : actual cost of the  $i$ th operation
- $\hat{c}_i$  : amortized cost of the  $i$ th operation
- $\sum_{i=0}^n \hat{c}_i \geq \sum_{i=0}^n c_i$ , for all sequences of  $n$  operations

- The total credit stored in the data structure is  $\sum_{i=0}^n \hat{c}_i - \sum_{i=0}^n c_i$ , and must be non-negative at all times.

# Accounting method

- Example of stack operation
  - The actual costs of the operations
    - PUSH 1
    - POP 1
    - MULTIPOP  $\min(k,s)$
  - The amortized costs of the operations
    - PUSH 2
    - POP 0
    - MULTIPOP 0

# Accounting method

## ● Example of stack operation

|          |   |   |   |   |
|----------|---|---|---|---|
| index    | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| <i>S</i> |   |   |   |   |

|          |   |   |   |   |
|----------|---|---|---|---|
| <i>S</i> | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| credit   |   |   |   |   |



# Accounting method

## ● Example of stack operation

### ● PUSH

|       |   |   |   |   |
|-------|---|---|---|---|
| index | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| S     |   |   |   |   |

↑  
top

|        |   |   |   |   |
|--------|---|---|---|---|
| S      | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| credit | 1 |   |   |   |

- PUSH : actual cost 1 + prepaid credit 1
- Amortized cost : actual cost + credit = 2

# Accounting method

## ● Example of stack operation

### ● PUSH

|       |   |   |   |   |
|-------|---|---|---|---|
| index | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| S     |   |   |   |   |

↑  
top

|        |   |   |   |   |
|--------|---|---|---|---|
| S      | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| credit | 1 | 1 |   |   |

- PUSH : actual cost 1 + prepaid credit 1
- Amortized cost : actual cost + credit = 2

# Accounting method

- Example of stack operation

- PUSH

|       |   |   |   |   |
|-------|---|---|---|---|
| index | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| S     |   |   |   |   |

↑  
top

|        |   |   |   |   |
|--------|---|---|---|---|
| S      | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| credit | 1 | 1 | 1 |   |

- PUSH : actual cost 1 + prepaid credit 1
- Amortized cost : actual cost + credit = 2

# Accounting method

- Example of stack operation

- POP

|          |   |   |   |   |
|----------|---|---|---|---|
| index    | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| <i>S</i> |   |   |   |   |

↑  
top

|          |   |   |   |   |
|----------|---|---|---|---|
| <i>S</i> | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| credit   | 1 | 1 | 0 |   |

- POP and MULTIPOP : pay credit 1
  - Amortized cost : actual cost - credit = 0

# Accounting method

## ● Example of stack operation

### ● PUSH

|       |   |   |   |   |
|-------|---|---|---|---|
| index | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| S     |   |   |   |   |

↑  
top

|        |   |   |   |   |
|--------|---|---|---|---|
| S      | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| credit | 1 | 1 | 1 |   |

- PUSH : actual cost 1 + prepaid of credit 1
- Amortized cost : actual cost + credit = 2

# Accounting method

## • Example of stack operation

- POP and MULTIPOP must execute after PUSH operation
  - Charging the PUSH operation a little bit more (= credit)  
So, credit pay actual cost of POP and MULTIPOP operation
- The amount of credit is always nonnegative
  - Because the stack always has nonnegative objects.
  - Thus, the total amortized cost is an upper bound on the total actual cost
- Total amortized cost :  $O(n)$
- Total actual cost :  $O(n)$



# Accounting method

## ● Example of incrementing a binary counter

### ● The actual costs

- Bit set (  $0 \rightarrow 1$  ) : 1
- Bit reset (  $1 \rightarrow 0$  ) : 1

### ● The amortized costs

- Bit set : 2
- Bit reset : 0

# Accounting method

- Example of incrementing binary counter

| A[3] | A[2] | A[1] | A[0] |
|------|------|------|------|
| 0    | 0    | 0    | 1    |
|      |      |      |      |
|      |      |      |      |
|      |      |      |      |
|      |      |      |      |

| A      | A[0] | A[1] | A[2] | A[3] | A[4] |
|--------|------|------|------|------|------|
| credit | 1    |      |      |      |      |

# Accounting method

- Example of incrementing binary counter

| A[3] | A[2] | A[1] | A[0] |
|------|------|------|------|
| 0    | 0    | 0    | 1    |
|      |      |      | 0    |
|      |      |      |      |
|      |      |      |      |
|      |      |      |      |

| A      | A[0] | A[1] | A[2] | A[3] | A[4] |
|--------|------|------|------|------|------|
| credit | 0    |      |      |      |      |

# Accounting method

- Example of incrementing binary counter

| A[3] | A[2] | A[1] | A[0] |
|------|------|------|------|
| 0    | 0    | 0    | 1    |
| 0    | 0    | 1    | 0    |
|      |      |      |      |
|      |      |      |      |
|      |      |      |      |

| A      | A[0] | A[1] | A[2] | A[3] | A[4] |
|--------|------|------|------|------|------|
| credit | 0    | 1    |      |      |      |

# Accounting method

- Example of incrementing binary counter

| A[3] | A[2] | A[1] | A[0] |
|------|------|------|------|
| 0    | 0    | 0    | 1    |
| 0    | 0    | 1    | 0    |
| 0    | 0    | 1    | 1    |
|      |      |      |      |
|      |      |      |      |

| A      | A[0] | A[1] | A[2] | A[3] | A[4] |
|--------|------|------|------|------|------|
| credit | 1    | 1    |      |      |      |

# Accounting method

- Example of incrementing binary counter

| A[3] | A[2] | A[1] | A[0] |
|------|------|------|------|
| 0    | 0    | 0    | 1    |
| 0    | 0    | 1    | 0    |
| 0    | 0    | 1    | 1    |
|      |      |      | 0    |
|      |      |      |      |

| A      | A[0] | A[1] | A[2] | A[3] | A[4] |
|--------|------|------|------|------|------|
| credit | 0    | 1    |      |      |      |



# Accounting method

## ● Example of incrementing binary counter

| A[3] | A[2] | A[1] | A[0] |
|------|------|------|------|
| 0    | 0    | 0    | 1    |
| 0    | 0    | 1    | 0    |
| 0    | 0    | 1    | 1    |
|      |      | 0    | 0    |
|      |      |      |      |

| A      | A[0] | A[1] | A[2] | A[3] | A[4] |
|--------|------|------|------|------|------|
| credit | 0    | 0    |      |      |      |

# Accounting method

## ● Example of incrementing binary counter

| A[3] | A[2] | A[1] | A[0] |
|------|------|------|------|
| 0    | 0    | 0    | 1    |
| 0    | 0    | 1    | 0    |
| 0    | 0    | 1    | 1    |
|      | 1    | 0    | 0    |
|      |      |      |      |

| A      | A[0] | A[1] | A[2] | A[3] | A[4] |
|--------|------|------|------|------|------|
| credit | 0    | 0    | 1    |      |      |

# Accounting method

## ● Example of incrementing binary counter

| A[3] | A[2] | A[1] | A[0] |
|------|------|------|------|
| 0    | 0    | 0    | 1    |
| 0    | 0    | 1    | 0    |
| 0    | 0    | 1    | 1    |
| 0    | 1    | 0    | 0    |
| 0    | 1    | 0    | 1    |

| A      | A[0] | A[1] | A[2] | A[3] | A[4] |
|--------|------|------|------|------|------|
| credit | 1    | 0    | 1    |      |      |

# Accounting method

- Example of incrementing binary counter
  - Bit reset must execute after bit set
    - Charging the bit set in credit
      - So, credit pay for actual cost of reset operation
  - The amount of credit is always nonnegative
    - Because the number of 1s in the counter never becomes negative
    - Thus, the total amortized cost is an upper bound on the total actual cost
- the total amortized cost :  $O(n)$
- the total actual cost :  $O(n)$

# Accounting method

- Amortized cost
  - $O(n)$  time in total
- Running time
  - $O(n)$  time in total

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- *Accounting method*
- ~~Potential method~~
- **Dynamic Table**

(57 min)



# Potential method

- Potential method
  - Similar to an accounting method
    - Credit → “potential energy” or just “potential”
  - The potential with the data structure as a whole rather than with specific objects within the data structure.

# Potential method

- Potential method

- With  $n$  operations,

$D_0$  : an initial data structure

$D_i$  : the data structure that results after applying the  $i$ th operation to data structure  $D_{i-1}$

$\Phi(D_i)$  : the potential associated with data structure  $D_i$

- Potential difference (  $\Phi(D_i) - \Phi(D_{i-1})$  )

- positive

The potential of the data structure increases

- negative

The decrease in the potential pays for the actual cost of the operation

# Potential method

- Potential method

- Amortized cost

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

- The total amortized cost of the  $n$  operations

- $$\begin{aligned}\sum_{i=0}^n \hat{c}_i &= \sum_{i=0}^n (c_i + \Phi(D_i) - \Phi(D_{i-1})) \\ &= \sum_{i=0}^n c_i + \Phi(D_n) - \Phi(D_0)\end{aligned}$$

- We require  $\Phi(D_i) \geq \Phi(D_0)$  for all  $i$

- so that  $\sum_{i=0}^k \hat{c}_i \geq \sum_{i=0}^k c_i$  for all  $1 \leq k \leq n$

# Potential method

- Example of stack operation
  - Potential function  $\Phi$ 
    - the number of objects in the stack
    - $\Phi(D_0) = 0$
  - The stack  $D_i$  that results after the  $i$ th operation has nonnegative potential
    - $\Phi(D_i) \geq 0 = \Phi(D_0)$

# Potential method

- Example of stack operation

- Amortized cost analysis of each operation

- PUSH operation

- If the  $i$ th operation on a stack containing  $s$  objects is a PUSH operation,

- $\Phi(D_i) - \Phi(D_{i-1}) = (s + 1) - s = 1$

- So, the amortized cost is  $\hat{c}_i = c_i + \Phi(D_i) - \Phi(D_{i-1})$   
 $= 1 + (s + 1) - s$   
 $= 2$

- POP operation

- If the  $i$ th operation on a stack containing  $s$  objects is a POP operation,

- $\Phi(D_i) - \Phi(D_{i-1}) = (s - 1) - s = -1$

- So, the amortized cost is  $\hat{c}_i = c_i + \Phi(D_i) - \Phi(D_{i-1})$   
 $= 1 + (s - 1) - s$   
 $= 0$

# Potential method

- Example of stack operation

- Amortized cost analysis of each operation

- MULTIPOP( $S, k$ ) operation

- If the  $i$ th operation on a stack containing  $s$  objects is a MULTIPOP operation,
- $k' = \min(k, s)$  : The number of objects to be popped off the stack

- $\Phi(D_i) - \Phi(D_{i-1}) = -\min(k, s) = -k'$

The amortized cost is  $\hat{c}_i = c_i + \Phi(D_i) - \Phi(D_{i-1})$

$$= k' - k'$$

$$= 0$$



# Potential method

- Example of stack operation

- Amortized cost :  $O(1)$
- Total amortized cost :  $O(n)$
- Total actual cost :  $O(n)$

### 3. Potential method

- Example of incrementing binary counter
  - Potential function  $\Phi$ 
    - The number of 1's in the array
    - $b_i$  : The number of 1's in the counter after the  $i$ th INCREMENT operation
    - $t_i$  : The number of bits reset in the  $i$ th INCREMENT operation
  - Actual cost of the operation
    - $c_i$  is at most  $t_i + 1$

#### INCREMENT (A)

```
1   $i = 0$ 
2  while  $i < A.length$  and  $A[i] == 1$ 
3       $A[i] = 0$ 
4       $i = i + 1$ 
5  if  $i < A.length$ 
6       $A[i] = 1$ 
```

### 3. Potential method

#### • Example of incrementing a binary counter

- Case of  $b_i = 0$ 
  - the  $i$ th operation resets all  $k$  bits
  - $b_{i-1} = t_i = k$
- Case of  $b_i > 0$ 
  - $b_i = b_{i-1} - t_i + 1$
- In either case
  - $b_i \leq b_{i-1} - t_i + 1$

Ex) 1111  $\rightarrow$  0000

| Counter value | $A[k]$ | ... | $A[2]$ | $A[1]$ | $A[0]$ | $b_i$ |
|---------------|--------|-----|--------|--------|--------|-------|
| $i-1$         | 1      | ... | 1      | 1      | 1      | $k$   |
| $i$           | 0      | ... | 0      | 0      | 0      | 0     |

Ex) 0111  $\rightarrow$  1000

| Counter value | $A[k]$ | ... | $A[2]$ | $A[1]$ | $A[0]$ | $b_i$ |
|---------------|--------|-----|--------|--------|--------|-------|
| $i-1$         | 0      | ... | 1      | 1      | 1      | $k-1$ |
| $i$           | 1      | ... | 0      | 0      | 0      | 1     |

### 3. Potential method

- Example of incrementing a binary counter

- Potential difference

- $$\begin{aligned}\Phi(D_i) - \Phi(D_{i-1}) &= b_i - b_{i-1} \\ &\leq (b_{i-1} - t_i + 1) - b_{i-1} \\ &= 1 - t_i\end{aligned}$$

- Amortized cost

- $$\begin{aligned}\hat{c}_i &= c_i + \Phi(D_i) - \Phi(D_{i-1}) \\ &\leq (t_i + 1) + (1 - t_i) = 2 \\ &\rightarrow O(1)\end{aligned}$$

### 3. Potential method

- Example of incrementing a binary counter
  - If the counter starts at zero,  $\Phi(D_0) = 0$  and since  $\Phi(D_i) \geq 0$  for all  $i$ 
    - The total amortized cost of a sequence of  $n$  INCREMENT operations is an upper bound on the total actual cost
    - The worst-case cost of  $n$  INCREMENT operations is  $O(n)$

### 3. Potential method

- Example of incrementing a binary counter
  - If it does not start at zero
    - $b_0 \geq 0, b_n \leq k$  ( $k$  : the number of bits in the counter)
    - $\sum_{i=0}^n \hat{c}_i = \sum_{i=0}^n c_i + \Phi(D_n) - \Phi(D_0)$ 
      - $\sum_{i=0}^n c_i = \sum_{i=0}^n \hat{c}_i - \Phi(D_n) + \Phi(D_0)$  ( $\hat{c}_i \leq 2$  for all  $1 \leq i \leq n$ )
$$\leq \sum_{i=0}^n 2 - b_n + b_0 \quad (\Phi(D_n) = b_n, \Phi(D_0) = b_0)$$
$$= 2n - b_n + b_0$$
  - The total actual cost is  $O(n)$  ( $b_0 \leq k, k = O(n)$ )



# Contents

- *Introduction*
- *Aggregate analysis*
- *Accounting method*
- *Potential method*
- **Dynamic Table**

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# Dynamic tables

- We do not always know in advance how many objects some applications will store in a table
  - insertion
    - So allocate space for a table and reallocate the table when new item is added.
  - deletion
    - Similarly, if many objects have been deleted from the table, it may be worthwhile to reallocate the table with a smaller size
- Using amortized analysis, we shall show that the amortized cost of insertion and deletion is only  $O(1)$

# Aggregate analysis

## ● INSERT

- When inserting an item into a full table, we can expand the table by allocating a new table with more slots than the old table had.
- A common heuristic allocates a new table with **twice as many slots as the old one.**

# Aggregate analysis

## ● INSERT

- *T.table* : a pointer to the block of storage representing the table.
- *T.num* : the number of items in the table
- *T.size* : the total number of slots in the table.

# Aggregate analysis

TABLE-INSERT( $T, x$ )

1      **if**  $T.size == 0$

2              allocate  $T.table$  with 1 slot

3               $T.size = 1$

4      **if**  $T.num == T.size$

5              allocate *new-table* with  $2 * T.size$  slots

6              insert all items in  $T.table$  into *new-table*

7              free  $T.table$

8               $T.table = new-table$

9               $T.size = 2 * T.size$

10      insert  $x$  into  $T.table$

11       $T.num = T.num + 1$

elementary insertion

expansion

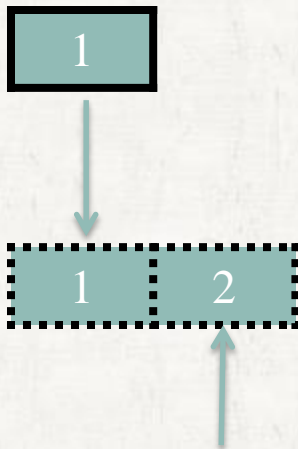
# Aggregate analysis

- Let us analyze a sequence of  $n$  TABLE-INSERT operations on an initially empty table.
  - If the current table has room for the new item, then cost  $c_i = 1$ .
  - If the current table is full, an expansion occurs, then  $c_i = i$ .
    - 1 for insert new item,  $i-1$  for move for extend



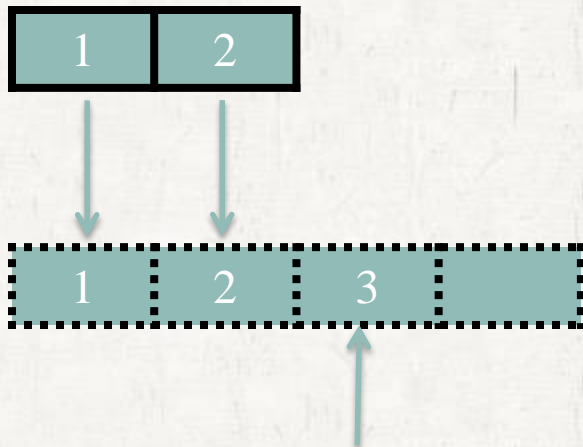
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    - 1 for insert new item,  $i-1$  for move for extend



# Aggregate analysis

- Let us analyze a sequence of  $n$  TABLE-INSERT operations on an initially empty table.

$$c_i = \begin{cases} i & \text{if } i-1 \text{ is an exact power of } 2 \\ 1 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

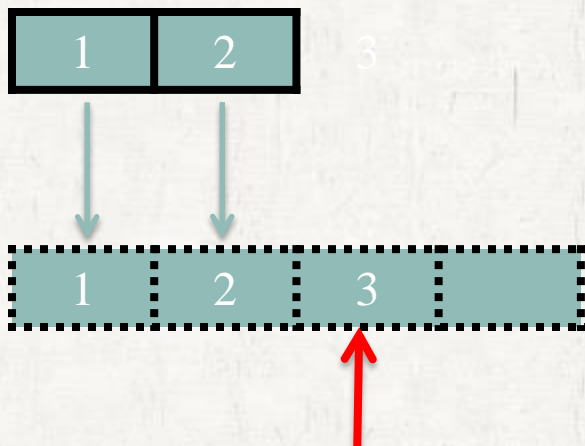
# Aggregate analysis

- The total cost of  $n$  TABLE-INSERT operations is therefore

$$\begin{aligned}\sum_{i=1}^n c_i &\leq n + \sum_{j=0}^{\lfloor \lg n \rfloor} 2^j \\ &< n + 2n \\ &= 3n\end{aligned}$$

# Aggregate analysis

- Let us analyze a sequence of  $n$  TABLE-INSERT operations on an initially empty table.
  - For 1 to  $n$ , when item inserted in table, it's cost is 1.
    - It requires  $1 * n = n$  cost.
    - It is expressed in under arrow.



$$\boxed{n} + \sum_{j=0}^{\lfloor \lg n \rfloor} 2^j$$



# Aggregate analysis

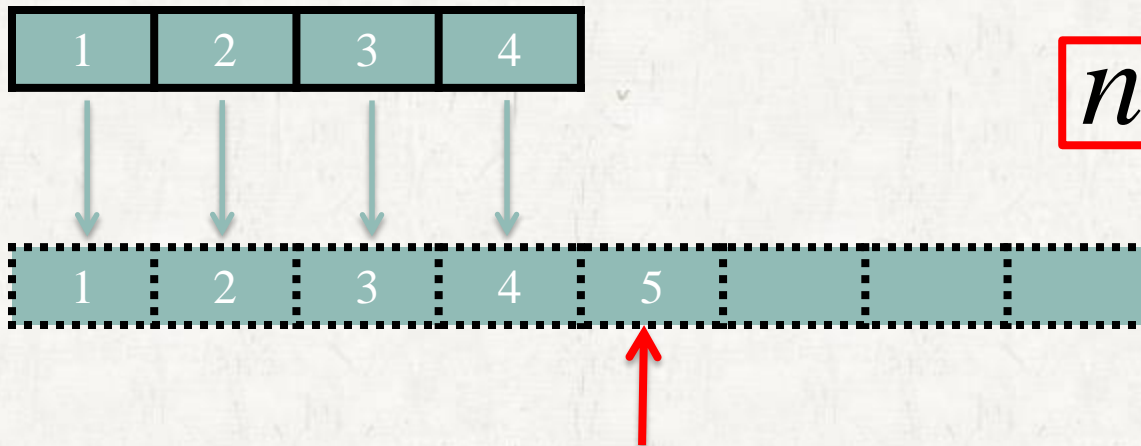
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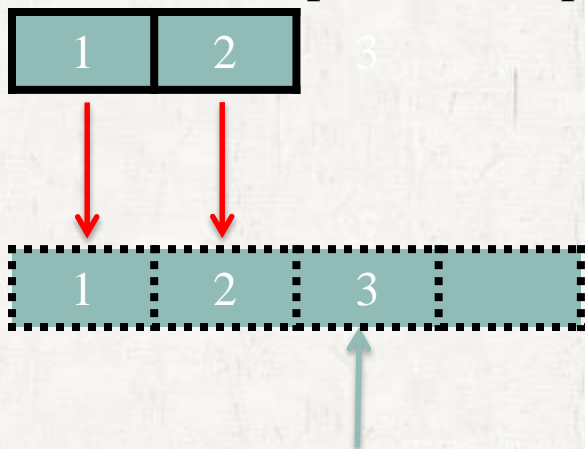
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  - For 1 to  $n$ , when item inserted in table, it's cost is 1.
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# Aggregate analysis

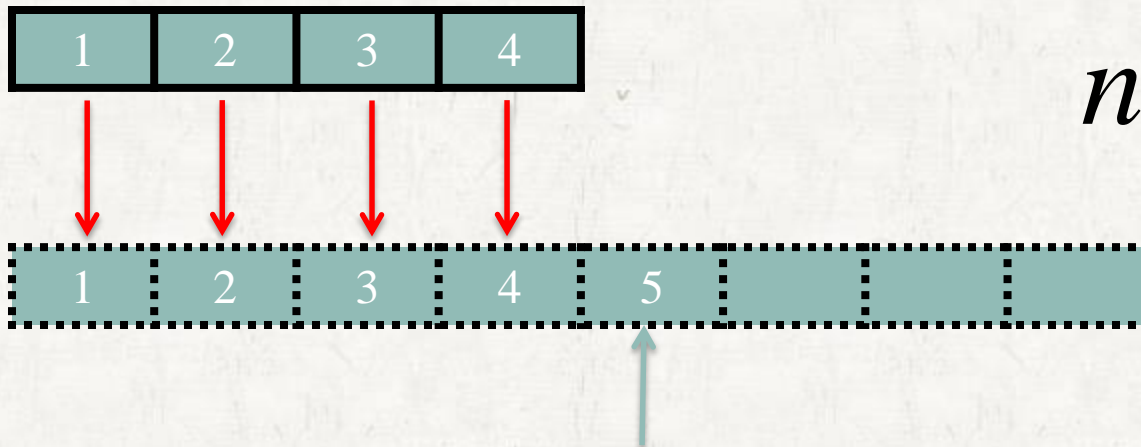
- Let us analyze a sequence of  $n$  TABLE-INSERT operations on an initially empty table.
  - When table size is exact power of 2, table expansion occur
    - $2^j$  insert is occurred.
    - And it occurred  $\lfloor \lg n \rfloor$  times.
    - It is expressed in upper arrow



$$n + \sum_{j=0}^{\lfloor \lg n \rfloor} 2^j$$

# Aggregate analysis

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  - When table size is exact power of 2, table expansion occur
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    - And it occurred  $\lfloor \lg n \rfloor$  times.
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$$n + \sum_{j=0}^{\lfloor \lg n \rfloor} 2^j$$

# Aggregate analysis

- The total cost of  $n$  TABLE-INSERT operations is therefore

$$\begin{aligned}\sum_{i=1}^n c_i &\leq n + \sum_{j=0}^{\lfloor \lg n \rfloor} 2^j \\ &< n + 2n \\ &= 3n\end{aligned}$$

- Since the total cost of  $n$  TABLE-INSERT operations is bounded by  $3n$ , the amortized cost of single operation is at most  $3 ( 3n / n )$

# Accounting method

- By using the accounting method, we can gain some feeling for why the amortized cost of a TABLE-INSERT operation should be 3.



# Accounting method

## TABLE-INSERT( $T, x$ )

```
1      if  $T.size == 0$ 
2          allocate  $T.table$  with 1 slot
3           $T.size = 1$ 
4      if  $T.num == T.size$ 
5          allocate  $new-table$  with  $2 * T.size$  slots
6          insert all items in  $T.table$  into  $new-table$ 
7          free  $T.table$ 
8           $T.table = new-table$ 
9           $T.size = 2 * T.size$ 
10     insert  $x$  into  $T.table$ 
11      $T.num = T.num + 1$ 
```

elementary insertion

# Accounting method

- By using the accounting method, we can gain some feeling for why the amortized cost of a TABLE-INSERT operation should be 3.
  - There are two types of elementary insertion:
    - 6          insert all items in  $T.table$  into new-table
    - 10        insert  $x$  into  $T.table$

# Accounting method

- By using the accounting method, we can gain some feeling for why the amortized cost of a TABLE-INSERT operation should be 3.
  - each item pays for 3 elementary insertions:
    - 1 **cost** for line 10,
    - 2 **credit** for line 6.
  - Credit is used to move items when expansion is occurred

# Accounting method

- By using the accounting method, we can gain some feeling for why the amortized cost of a TABLE-INSERT operation should be 3.
  - each item pays for 3 elementary insertions:
    - inserting itself into the current table
    - moving itself when the table expands
    - moving another item that has already been moved once when the table expands

|   |   |  |  |
|---|---|--|--|
| 1 | 2 |  |  |
| 0 | 0 |  |  |

Credit for move

# Accounting method

- By using the accounting method, we can gain some feeling for why the amortized cost of a TABLE-INSERT operation should be 3.
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|   |   |   |  |
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| 1 | 2 | 3 |  |
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|   |   |   |  |
|---|---|---|--|
| 1 | 2 | 3 |  |
| 0 | 0 | 1 |  |

Credit for move



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|   |   |   |  |
|---|---|---|--|
| 1 | 2 | 3 |  |
| 1 | 0 | 1 |  |

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|   |   |   |   |
|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 |


Credit for move

# Accounting method

- By using the accounting method, we can gain some feeling for why the amortized cost of a TABLE-INSERT operation should be 3.
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|   |   |   |   |
|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 |

Credit for move



|   |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|---|--|--|--|--|--|--|--|
| 1 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 0 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |

# Accounting method

- By using the accounting method, we can gain some feeling for why the amortized cost of a TABLE-INSERT operation should be 3.
  - each item pays for 3 elementary insertions:
    - inserting itself into the current table
    - moving itself when the table expands
    - moving another item that has already been moved once when the table expands

|   |   |   |   |
|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 |

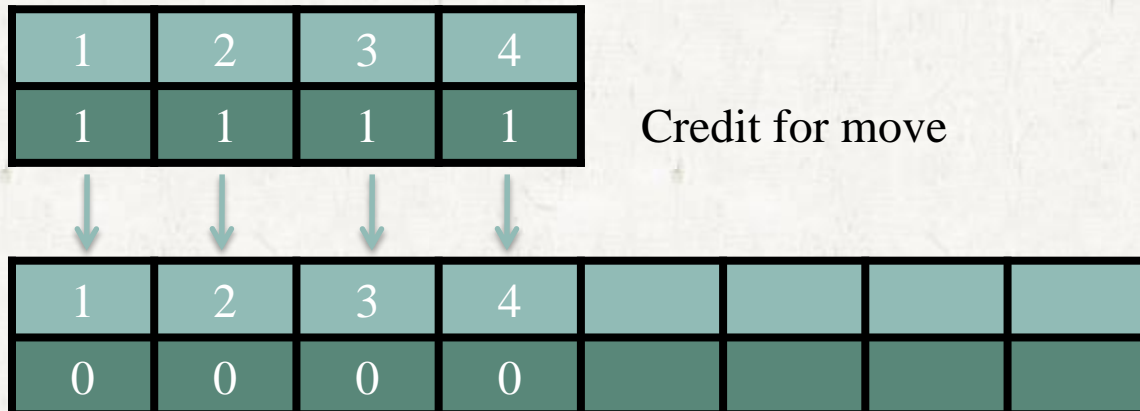
Credit for move



|   |   |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|---|---|--|--|--|--|--|--|
| 1 | 2 |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 0 | 0 |  |  |  |  |  |  |

# Accounting method

- By using the accounting method, we can gain some feeling for why the amortized cost of a TABLE-INSERT operation should be 3.
  - each item pays for 3 elementary insertions:
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    - moving another item that has already been moved once when the table expands





## Potential method

- We can use the potential method to analyze a sequence of  $n$  TABLE-INSERT operations.
  - and we shall use it in Section 17.4.2 to design a TABLE-DELETE operation that has an  $O(1)$  amortized cost as well



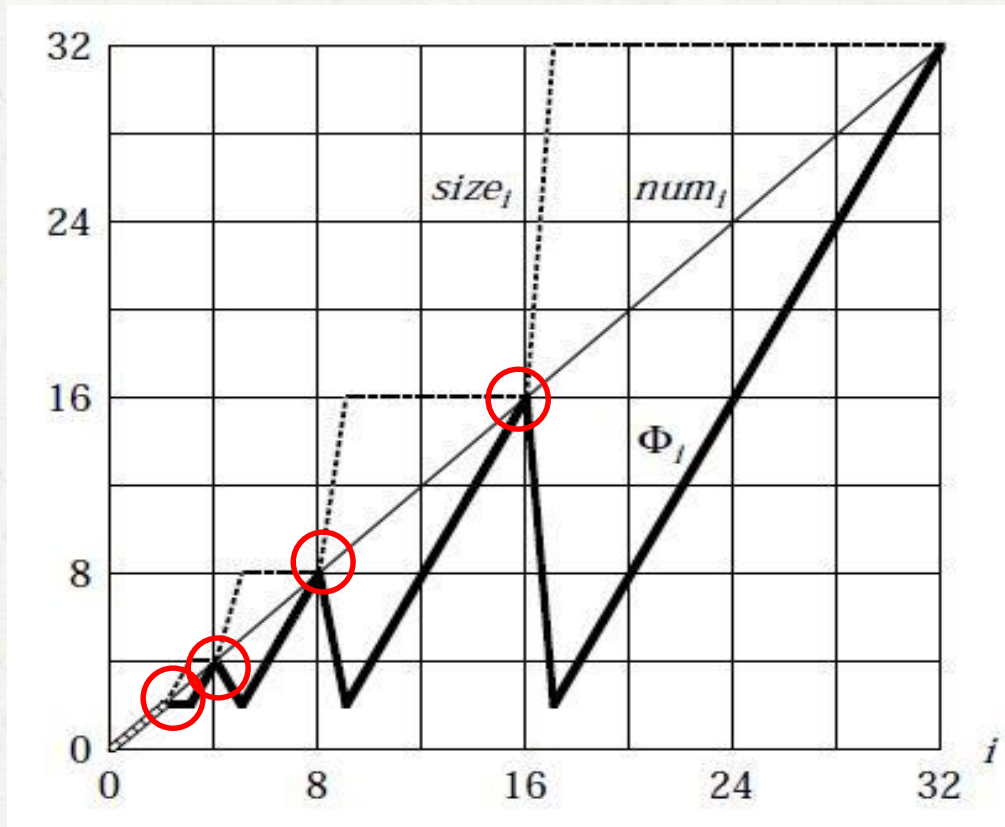
# Potential method

- We can use the potential method to analyze a sequence of  $n$  TABLE-INSERT operations.
  - and we shall use it in Section 17.4.2 to design a TABLE-DELETE operation that has an  $O(1)$  amortized cost as well
- We start by defining a potential function  $\Phi$ 
  - 0 immediately after an expansion
  - table size by the time the table is full

# Potential method

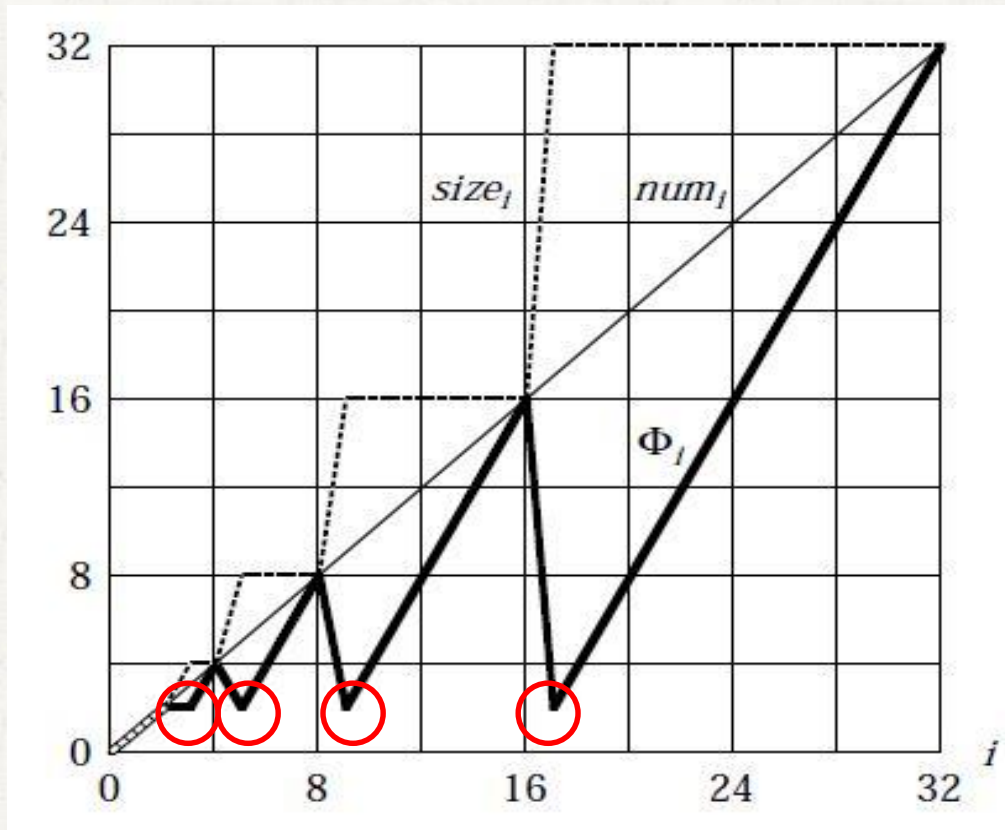
- $\Phi(T) = 2 * T.num - T.size$  (17.5)
- Immediately before an expansion, we have  $T.num = T.size$  and thus  $\Phi(T) = T.num$
- $\Phi(T)$  is always nonnegative
  - The initial value of the potential is 0
  - and since the table is always at least half full,  $T.num \geq T.size/2$

# Potential method



- Before extention,  $\Phi_i = num_i$

# Potential method



- After extension,  $\Phi_i = 0$  but immediately increased by 2

# Potential method

- The amortized cost of the  $i$ th TABLE-INSERT operation
  - $num_i$  : the number of items stored in the table after the  $i$ th operation
  - $size_i$  : the total size of the table after the  $i$ th operation
  - $\Phi_i$  : the potential after the  $i$ th operation
  - $\hat{c}_i$  : its amortized cost with respect to  $\Phi$
- Initially, we have  $num_0 = 0$ ,  $size_0 = 0$ , and  $\Phi_0 = 0$ .

# Potential method

- The amortized cost of the  $i$ th TABLE-INSERT operation
  - If the  $i$ th TABLE-INSERT operation does not trigger an expansion, then we have  $size_i = size_{i-1}$  and the amortized cost of the operation is
    - $\Phi(T) = 2 * T.num - T.size$

$$\begin{aligned}\hat{c}_i &= c_i + \Phi_i - \Phi_{i-1} \\ &= 1 + (2 * num_i - size_i) - (2 * num_{i-1} - size_{i-1}) \\ &= 1 + (2 * num_i - size_i) - (2 * (num_i - 1) - size_i) \\ &= 3\end{aligned}$$



# Potential method

- The amortized cost of the  $i$ th TABLE-INSERT operation

- If the  $i$ th operation does trigger an expansion, then we have

$$size_i = 2 * size_{i-1}$$

$$size_{i-1} = num_{i-1} = num_i - 1$$

$$size_i = 2 * (num_i - 1).$$

Thus, the amortized cost of the operation is

$$\hat{c}_i = c_i + \Phi_i - \Phi_{i-1}$$

$$= num_i + (2 * num_i - size_i) - (2 * num_{i-1} - size_{i-1})$$

$$= num_i + (2 * num_i - 2 * (num_i - 1)) - (2 * (num_i - 1) - (num_i - 1))$$

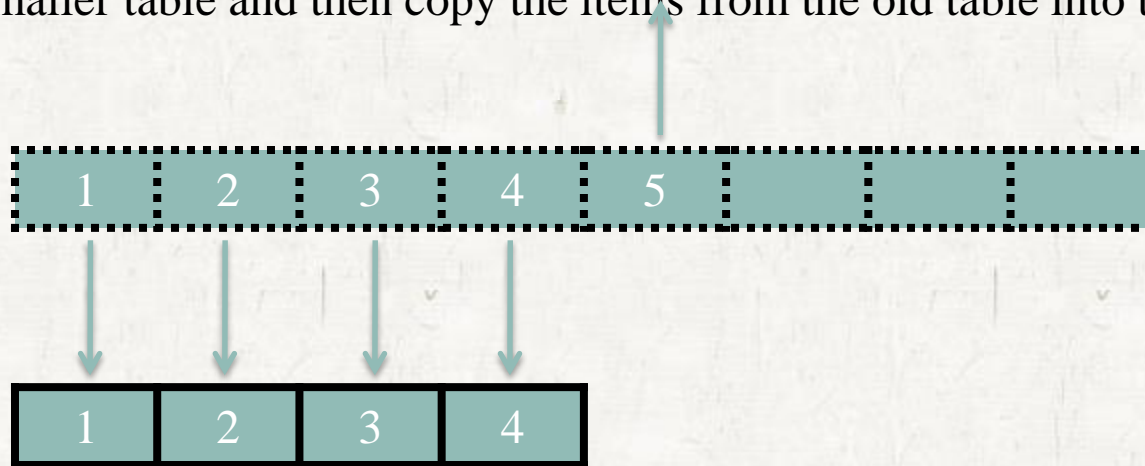
$$= num_i + 2 - (num_i - 1)$$

$$= 3$$

# Table expansion and contraction

- TABLE-DELETE operation.

- Table contraction is analogous to table expansion:
  - when the number of items in the table drops too low, we allocate a new, smaller table and then copy the items from the old table into the new one



# Table expansion and contraction

- TABLE-DELETE operation.
  - load factor :  $\alpha(T) = T.num / T.size$

# Table expansion and contraction

- TABLE-DELETE operation.
  - load factor :  $\alpha(T) = T.num / T.size$
- we would like to preserve two properties:
  - the load factor of the dynamic table is bounded below by a positive constant
  - the amortized cost of a table operation is bounded above by a constant.

# Table expansion and contraction

TABLE-DELETE( $T, x$ )

```
1      if  $T.size == 0$ 
2          break
3      if  $T.num == T.size / 2$ 
4          allocate new-table with  $T.size / 2$  slots
5          insert all items in  $T.table$  into new-table
6          free  $T.table$ 
7           $T.table = new-table$ 
8           $T.size = T.size / 2$ 
9      delete  $x$  into  $T.table$ 
10      $T.num = T.num - 1$ 
```

# Table expansion and contraction

- Table expansion and contraction
  - double the table size upon inserting an item into a full table
  - halve the size when deleting an item would cause the table to become less than half full
  - This strategy would guarantee that the load factor of the table never drops below  $1/2$ , but have **problem**



# Table expansion and contraction

- Table expansion and contraction
  - We perform  $n$  operations on a table  $T$ , where  $n$  is an exact power of 2.
  - The first  $n/2$  operations are insertions,
    - cost a total of  $\Theta(n)$ .
  - At the end of this sequence of insertions,  $T.num = T.size = n/2$ .
  - For the second  $n/2$  operations, we perform the following sequence:
    - insert, delete, delete, insert, insert, delete, delete, insert, insert, . . . .

# Table expansion and contraction

- Table expansion and contraction

- First  $n/2$  insertion.

|   |      |       |
|---|------|-------|
| 1 | .... | $n/2$ |
|---|------|-------|

# Table expansion and contraction

- Table expansion and contraction

- First  $n/2$  insertion.



- And **insert**, delete, delete, insert, insert, delete, delete, insert, insert, . . .



$n/2$  elementary insertion operation



# Table expansion and contraction

- Table expansion and contraction

- First  $n/2$  insertion.



- And **insert, delete**, delete, insert, insert, delete, delete, insert, insert, . . .



# Table expansion and contraction

- Table expansion and contraction

- First  $n/2$  insertion.



- And **insert, delete, delete**, insert, insert, delete, delete, insert, insert, . . .



$(n/2 - 1)$  elementary insertion operation



# Table expansion and contraction

- Table expansion and contraction

- First  $n/2$  insertion.



- And **insert, delete, delete, insert**, insert, delete, delete, insert, insert, . . .





# Table expansion and contraction

- Table expansion and contraction

- First  $n/2$  insertion.



- And **insert, delete, delete, insert, insert**, delete, delete, insert, insert, . . .



$n/2$  elementary insertion operation



# Table expansion and contraction

- Table expansion and contraction

- First  $n/2$  insertion.



- And **insert, delete, delete, insert, insert, delete, delete, insert, insert, . . .**
    - $n / 2$  number of insertion occur in 2 operation!

# Table expansion and contraction

- Table expansion and contraction
  - The cost of each expansion and contraction is  $\Theta(n)$ , and there are  $\Theta(n)$  of them.
    - After  $n/2$  th operation, cost of each 2 operation is  $n/2$
  - Thus, the total cost of the  $n$  operations is  $\Theta(n^2)$ , making the amortized cost of an operation  $\Theta(n)$ .

# Table expansion and contraction

- Improve upon this strategy
  - Specifically, we continue to double the table size upon inserting an item into a full table,
  - but we halve the table size when deleting an item causes the table to become less than  $1/4$  full, rather than  $1/2$  full as before.
  - The load factor of the table is therefore bounded below by the constant  $1/4$ .

# Table expansion and contraction

- potential method to analyze the cost of a sequence of  $n$  TABLE-INSERT and TABLE-DELETE operations
  - Let us denote the load factor of a nonempty table  $T$  by  $\alpha(T) = T.num / T.size$
  - Since for an empty table,  $T.num = T.size = 0$  and  $\alpha(T) = 1$
  - We shall use as our potential function

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

# Table expansion and contraction

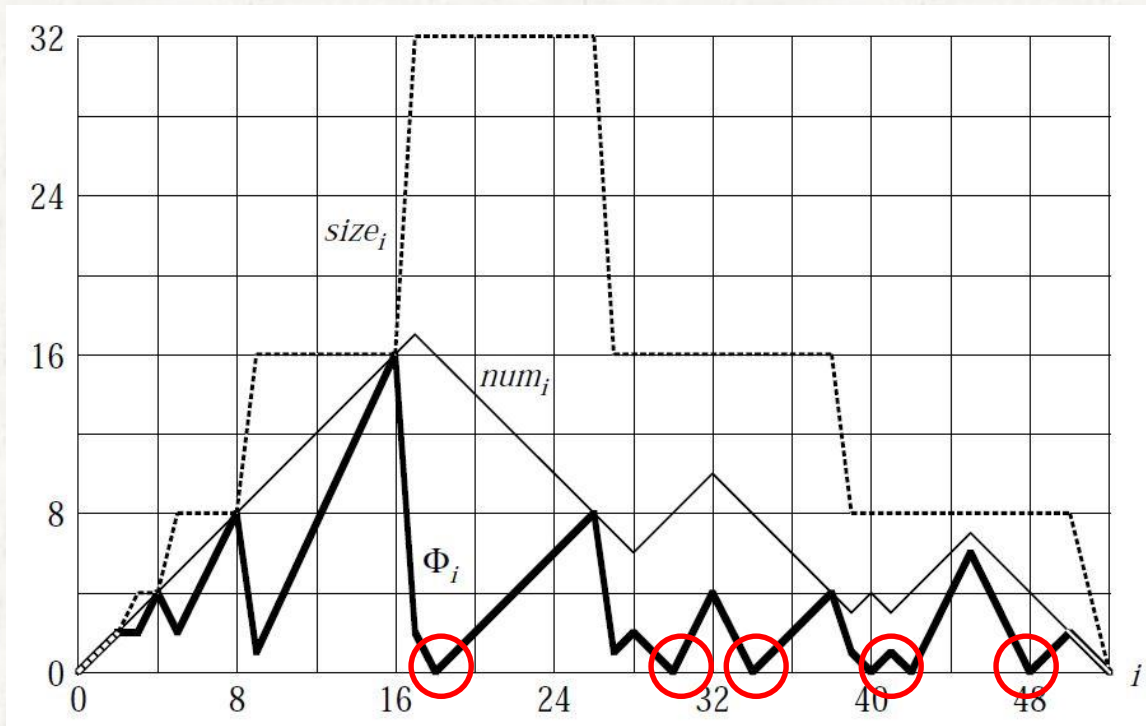
- potential method to analyze the cost of a sequence of  $n$  TABLE-INSERT and TABLE-DELETE operations

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

- When  $\alpha(T) = 1/4$ , and if  $i$ th operation is deletion
  - Contraction is occur.
  - It need  $num_i$  potential

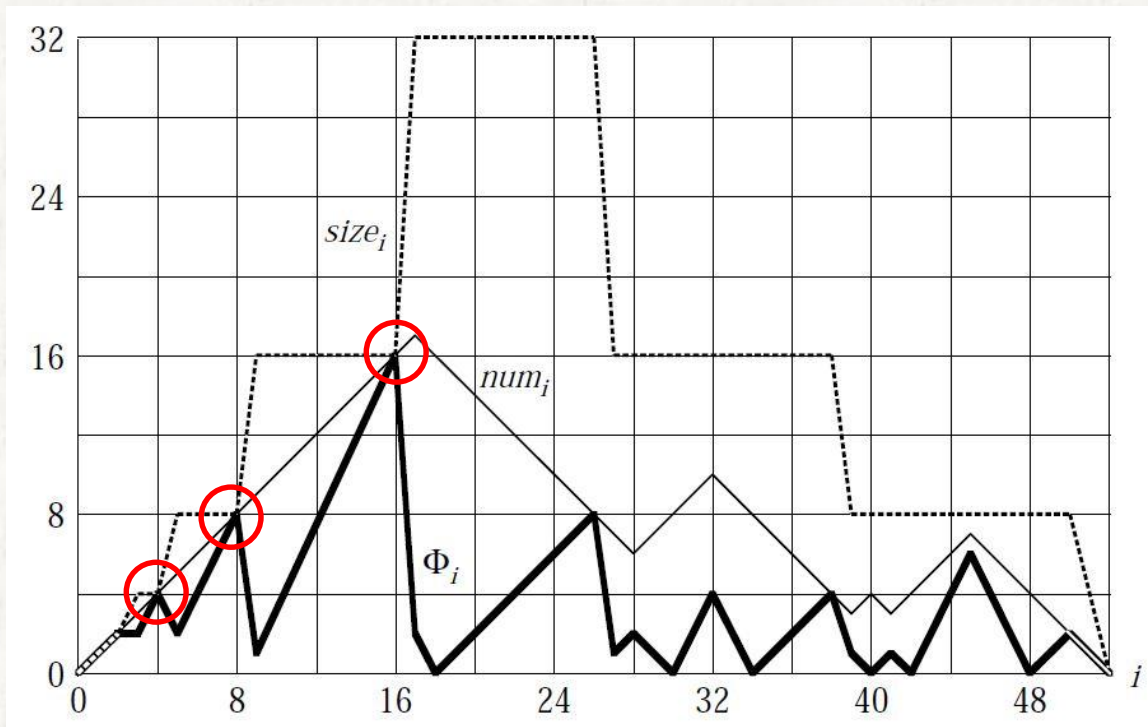


# Table expansion and contraction



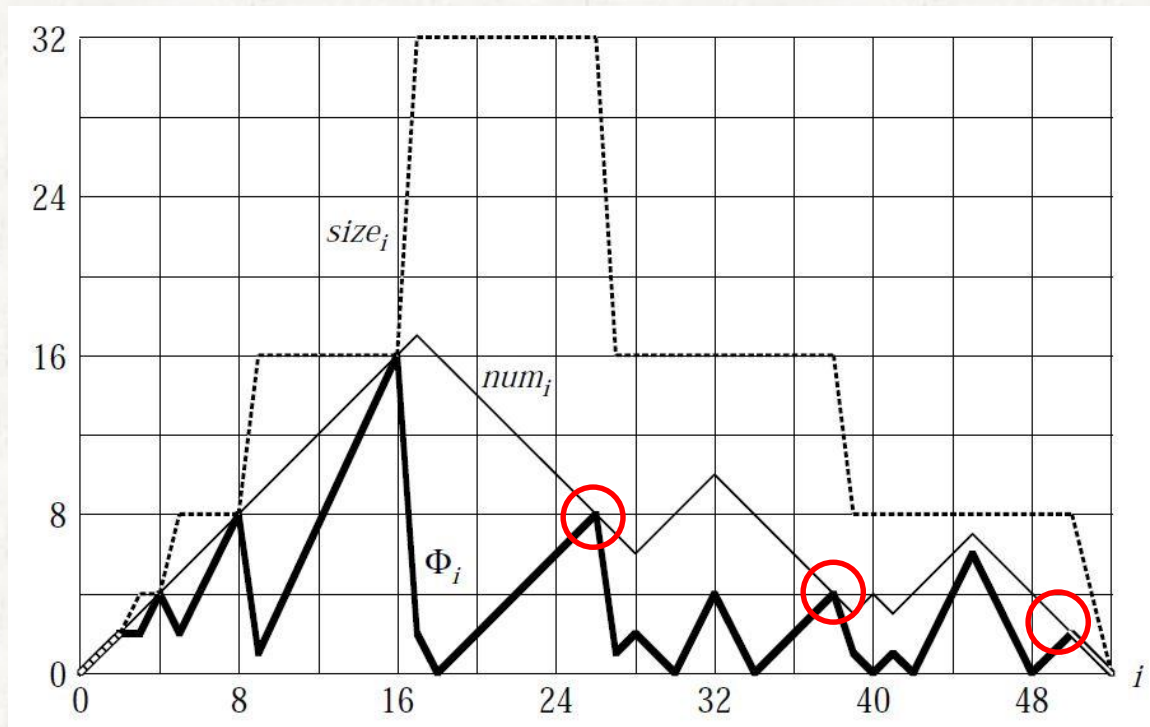
- When load factor is  $1/2$ , the potential is 0.

# Table expansion and contraction



- When the load factor is 1
  - we have  $T.size = T.num$   
which implies  $\Phi(T) = T.num$
  - Thus the potential can pay for an expansion if an item is inserted.

# Table expansion and contraction



- When the load factor is  $1/4$ , we have  $T.size = 4 * T.num$ , which implies  $\Phi(T) = T.num$ 
  - Thus the potential can pay for a contraction if an item is deleted.

# Table expansion and contraction

## ● TABLE-INSERT and TABLE-DELETE

- $c_i$  : the actual cost of the  $i$ th operation
- $\hat{c}_i$  : its amortized cost with respect to  $\Phi$
- $num_i$  : the number of items  
stored in the table after the  $i$ th operation
- $size_i$  : the total size of the table after the  $i$ th operation
- $\alpha_i$  : the load factor of the table after the  $i$ th operation
- $\Phi_i$  : the potential after the  $i$ th operation
- Initially,  $num_0 = 0$ ,  $size_0 = 0$ ,  $\alpha_0 = 1$ , and  $\Phi_0 = 0$

# Table expansion and contraction

## • TABLE-INSERT

- The analysis is identical to that for table expansion in Section 17.4.1 if  $\alpha_{i-1} \geq 1/2$ .
  - Whether the table expands or not, the amortized cost of the operation is at most 3



# Table expansion and contraction

## • TABLE-INSERT

- If  $\alpha_{i-1} < 1/2$ , table cannot expand.

- Then  $size_i = size_{i-1}$

- $num_{i-1} = num_i - 1$

Then the amortized cost of the  $i$ th operation is

$$\begin{aligned}\hat{c}_i &= c_i + \Phi_i - \Phi_{i-1} \\ &= 1 + (size_i/2 - num_i) - (size_{i-1}/2 - num_{i-1}) \\ &= 1 + (size_i/2 - num_i) - (size_i/2 - (num_i - 1)) \\ &= 0\end{aligned}$$



# Table expansion and contraction

## ● TABLE-INSERT

- If  $\alpha_{i-1} < 1/2$  but  $\alpha_i \geq 1/2$ , then
  - $\Phi_{i-1} = T.size / 2 - T.num$
  - $\Phi_i = 2 * T.num - T.size$
  - $num_i = num_{i-1} + 1 = \alpha_i * size_i$

# Table expansion and contraction

## ● TABLE-INSERT

- If  $\alpha_{i-1} < 1/2$  but  $\alpha_i \geq 1/2$ , then

$$\begin{aligned}\hat{c}_i &= c_i + \Phi_i - \Phi_{i-1} \\ &= 1 + (2 * num_i - size_i) - (size_{i-1} / 2 - num_{i-1}) \\ &= 1 + (2 * (num_{i-1} + 1) - size_{i-1}) - (size_{i-1} / 2 - num_{i-1}) \\ &= 3 * num_{i-1} - 3size_{i-1}/2 + 3 \\ &= 3\alpha_{i-1}size_{i-1} - 3size_{i-1}/2 + 3 \\ &< 3size_{i-1}/2 - 3size_{i-1}/2 + 3 \\ &= 3\end{aligned}$$

- Thus, the amortized cost of a TABLE-INSERT operation is at most 3.

# Table expansion and contraction

## ● TABLE-DELETE

- $num_i = num_{i-1} - 1$
- If  $\alpha_{i-1} < 1/2$ 
  - 1. operation causes the table to contract
  - 2. operation does trigger a contraction

# Table expansion and contraction

## • TABLE-DELETE

- If  $\alpha_{i-1} < 1/2$ 
  - 1. operation causes the table to contract
    - Then  $size_i = size_{i-1}$

$$\begin{aligned}\hat{c}_i &= c_i + \Phi_i - \Phi_{i-1} \\ &= 1 + (size_i/2 - num_i) - (size_{i-1} / 2 - num_{i-1}) \\ &= 1 + (size_i/2 - num_i) - (size_i / 2 - (num_i+1)) \\ &= 2\end{aligned}$$

# Table expansion and contraction

## • TABLE-DELETE

- If  $\alpha_{i-1} < 1/2$ 
  - 2. operation does trigger a contraction
    - actual cost of the operation is  $c_i = \text{num}_i + 1$
    - $\text{size}_i / 2 = \text{size}_{i-1} / 4 = \text{num}_{i-1} = \text{num}_i + 1$
    - the amortized cost of the operation is

$$\begin{aligned}\hat{c}_i &= c_i + \Phi_i - \Phi_{i-1} \\ &= (\text{num}_i + 1) + (\text{size}_i / 2 - \text{num}_i) - (\text{size}_{i-1} / 2 - \text{num}_{i-1}) \\ &= (\text{num}_i + 1) + ((\text{num}_i + 1) - \text{num}_i) - ((2 * \text{num}_i + 2) - (\text{num}_i + 1)) \\ &= 1\end{aligned}$$

# Table expansion and contraction

## • TABLE-DELETE

- If  $\alpha_{i-1} \geq 1/2$ 
  - It's amortize cost is constant.
  - If  $\alpha_i < 1/2$ , operation don't trigger contraction.



# Table expansion and contraction

- In summary, since the amortized cost of each operation is bounded above by a constant, the actual time for any sequence of  $n$  operations on a dynamic table is  $O(n)$ .