

# **Applied Algorithms**

## **CSCI-B505 / INFO-I500**

**Lecture 6.**

**Amortized Analysis - 1**

- Amortized Analysis
  - Aggregate Method
    - Accounting Method
  - Potential Method

# Amortized Analysis ?

## *Amortize:*

- *gradually write off the initial cost of (an asset) over a period*
- *reduce or pay off (a debt) with regular payments*

- In an algorithm, there may be cheap operations and expensive operations.
- Regular worst-case analysis assumes the expensive operations always dominate the execution.
- However, there can be a **deterministic** limit on the number of times *expensive* happens.

Let's see on an example...

# Queue Implementation with Two Stacks

Implement a queue by using two stacks.

**Enqueue(x):**

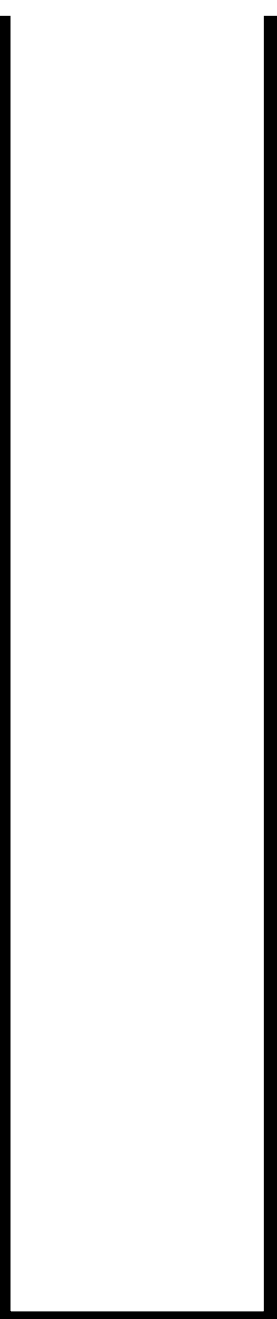
Push x into stack-1.

**Dequeue():**

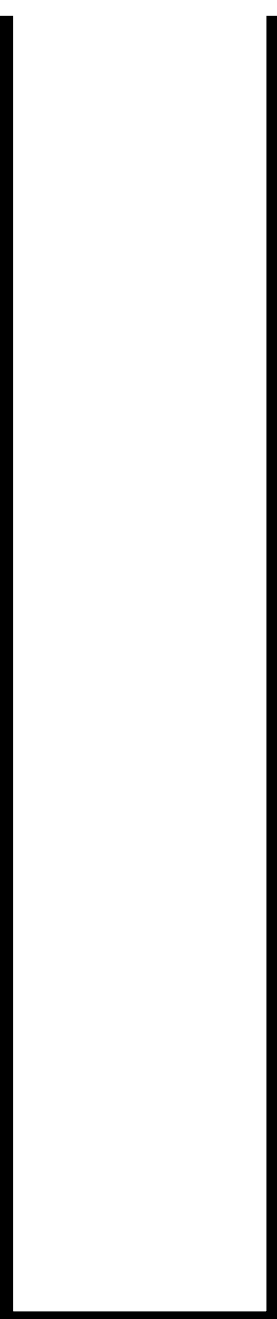
**If stack-2 is empty, then**

**Pop everything from stack-1 and push into stack-2;**

**Pop from stack-2**



Stack-1



Stack-2

Enqueue(7)

Dequeue()

Enqueue(2)

Dequeue()

Enqueue(9)

Enqueue(1)

Dequeue()

Enqueue(2)

Enqueue(8)

Dequeue()

# Queue Implementation with Two Stacks

Assume  $n$  insert or fetch operations will be executed.

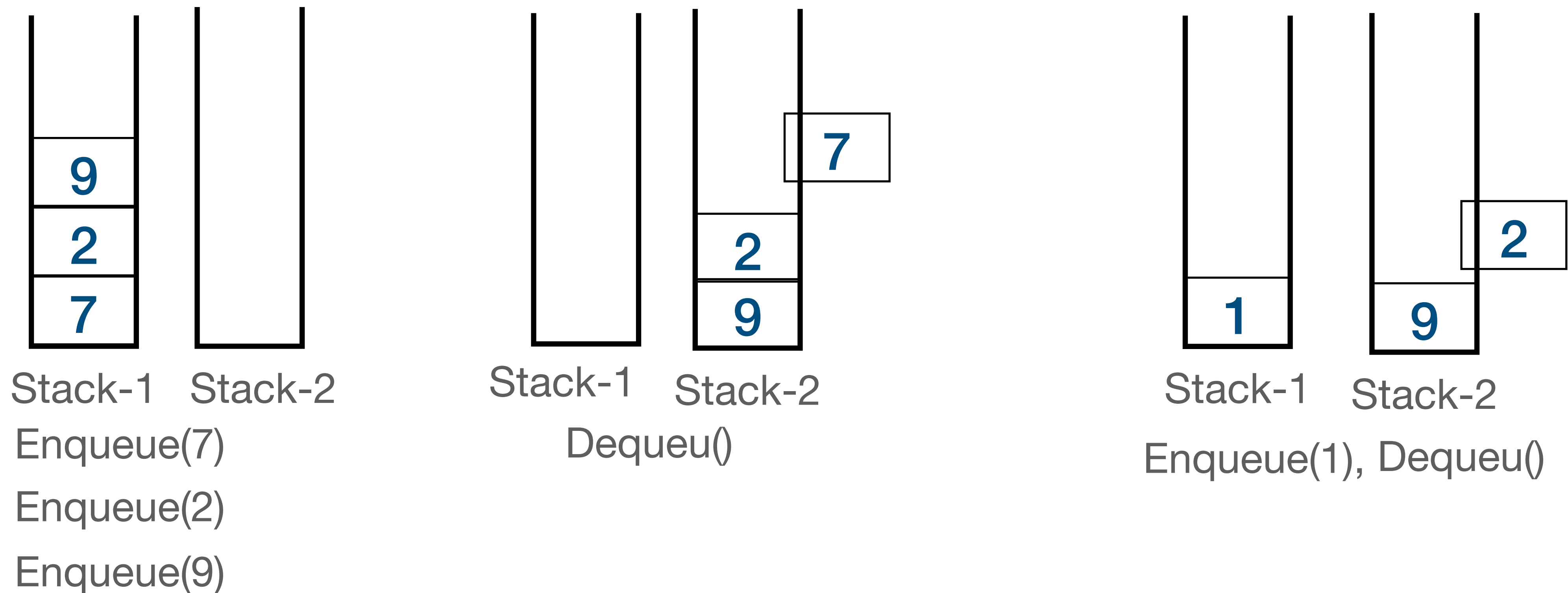
What will be the time-complexity on this implementation?

```
for (i=1 to n){  
    operation = randomSelect(enqueue, dequeue);  
    execute the operation;}
```

- Enqueue() is cheap, worst case  $O(1)$ -time.
- Dequeue() is expensive, worst-case  $O(n)$ -time.
- If I always do the expensive operation then worst-case complexity becomes  $O(n^2)$  !?

Is this correct ?

# Queue Implementation with Two Stacks



**Once an expensive 'dequeue' happens,  
some of the following 'dequeue's will always be cheap.**

# Queue Implementation with Two Stacks

*Once an expensive dequeue happens, the following ones are always cheap.*

- How many times an item is inserted into the stack-1 and stack-2 ?
- How many times it is popped from stack-1 and stack-2 ?
- For  $n$  enqueue/dequeue, **at most**  $4n$  push/pop are achieved
- $\frac{4n}{n} = 4 \in O(1)$  per each enqueue/dequeue operation.

This is **NOT** average-case analysis,  
but a **worst-case** analysis.

# Binary Counter

Assume we have a k-bit binary counter, and the cost of incrementing this counter is defined as being equal to the number of bits flipped. What is the cost of incrementing this counter n times?

A[5]	A[4]	A[3]	A[2]	A[1]	A[0]	COST
0	0	0	0	0	0	
0	0	0	0	0	1	1
0	0	0	0	1	0	2
0	0	0	0	1	1	1
0	0	0	1	0	0	3
0	0	0	1	0	1	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
```



# Binary Counter

## Regular worst-case analysis:

- At most how many bits can be flipped ?
  - All of the  $k$  bits, e.g.,  $011111 \rightarrow 100000$
- Thus, if we consider  $n$  increments then it makes  $O(n \cdot k)$

A[5]	A[4]	A[3]	A[2]	A[1]	A[0]	COST
0	0	0	0	0	0	
0	0	0	0	0	1	1
0	0	0	0	1	0	2
0	0	0	0	1	1	1
0	0	0	1	0	0	3
0	0	0	1	0	1	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       $A[i] = 1$ 
    
```

**However, it is not possible to have consecutive increments with  $k$ -bits flip! So...**

# Binary Counter

A[0] flips at each increment

A[1] flips once at each 2 increments

A[2] flips once at each 4 increments

.....

A[k-1] flips once at each  $2^{k-1}$  increments

So total cost of n increment operations is

$$n + \left\lfloor \frac{n}{2} \right\rfloor + \left\lfloor \frac{n}{4} \right\rfloor + \dots + \left\lfloor \frac{n}{2^{k-1}} \right\rfloor < n \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{2^i} = 2n$$

**n increment operations cost less than 2n flips.**

**Thus, each increment costs 2, which makes  $O(1)$  time per increment.**

A[5]	A[4]	A[3]	A[2]	A[1]	A[0]	COST
0	0	0	0	0	0	
0	0	0	0	0	1	1
0	0	0	0	1	0	2
0	0	0	0	1	1	1
0	0	0	1	0	0	3
0	0	0	1	0	1	1
0	0	0	1	1	0	2

# Aggregate Method

- Compute the total cost of  $n$  operations.
- Divide this cost by  $n$  to compute the cost of one operation.
- This is the **aggregate** method of amortized analysis.
- We have two alternative approaches, *accounting* and *potential*

# Accounting Method

- Again we assume  $n$  operations will be achieved.
- We compute an **amortized cost** per operation
- Before each operation, we deposit in an account the **amortized cost** of that operation.
- Each operation drops exactly the regular **required** amount from the account, where the excess amount from cheap operations are expected to **amortize** the expensive ones.
- If there appears a case that there is not enough money in the account (**bankruptcy**), then the operation can not be performed. Thus, it should be strictly avoided.
- **What should we assume the amortized cost to avoid the bankruptcy ?**

# Accounting Method

$$\sum_{i=1}^k c_i \leq \sum_{i=1}^k \hat{c}_i$$

- The regular cost of the  $i^{th}$  operation is  $c_i$
- The amortized cost of  $i^{th}$  operation is  $\hat{c}_i$
- **For any  $k = 1 \dots n$ , the total regular cost should never exceed the total amortized cost.**

# Accounting Method

## Queue with Two Stacks

	Stack operations	Stack-1	Stack-2	Actual Cost	Deposit	Remaining Balance
Enqueue(7)	1-push	7		1	\$2	\$1
Enqueue(2)	1-push	7,2		1	\$2	\$2
Enqueue(9)	1-push	7,2,9		1	\$2	\$3
Dequeue()	3-pop, 3-push, 1-pop		9,2	7	\$0	<b>BANKRUPTCY !</b>
Dequeue()	1-pop		2	1		
Enqueue(8)	1-push	8	2	1		
Dequeue()	1-pop	8		1		
Enqueue(7)	1-push	8,7		1		
Dequeue()	2-pop, 2-push, 1-pop		2,7	5		

Assume the amortized cost for enqueue is **\$2** , and dequeue is **free** !  
Not a good choice ! We may face a bankruptcy

# Accounting Method

## Queue with Two Stacks

	Stack operations	Stack-1	Stack-2	Actual Cost	Deposit	Remaining Balance
Enqueue(7)	1-push	7		1	\$4	\$3
Enqueue(2)	1-push	7,2		1	\$4	\$6
Enqueue(9)	1-push	7,2,9		1	\$4	\$9
Dequeue()	3-pop, 3-push, 1-pop		9,2	7	<b>\$0</b>	\$2
Dequeue()	1-pop		2	1	<b>\$0</b>	\$1
Enqueue(8)	1-push	8	2	1	\$4	\$4
Dequeue()	1-pop	8		1	<b>\$0</b>	\$3
Enqueue(7)	1-push	8,7		1	\$4	\$6
Dequeue()	2-pop, 2-push, 1-pop		7	5	<b>\$0</b>	\$1

If we the amortized cost for enqueue is **\$4** , and dequeue is free, then it seems no bankruptcy ! We know it takes no more than 4 stack operations per each item in the queue. So, we pay \$4 dollars at the enqueue phase, and use the remaining \$3 during the later dequeue operations.

# Accounting Method

## Binary Counter

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      $A[i] = 1$

$1 \rightarrow 0$  flipping, FREE, no cost

$0 \rightarrow 1$  flipping, \$? **amortized cost**

- There are two different flip operations as  $1 \rightarrow 0$  and  $0 \rightarrow 1$ .
- At each increment **some number of** ones flip into 0, and **one** zero at the end flips to 1.
- Assume  $1 \rightarrow 0$  is free, so no worries on ‘*some number of*’
- What should be the amortized cost of  $0 \rightarrow 1$  to accommodate this?



# Potential Method

$$\sum_{i=1}^{i=n} \hat{c}_i = \sum_{i=1}^{i=n} c_i + \phi(D_i) - \phi(D_{i-1}) = \phi(D_n) - \phi(D_0) + \sum_{i=0}^{i=n} c_i$$

- Again we consider  $n$  operations, but the focus is on the used data structure  $D$ .
- Function  $\phi(D)$  that defines the potential energy of the data structure  $D$ .
- The amortized cost  $\hat{c}_i = c_i + \phi(D_i) - \phi(D_{i-1})$ , where  $c_i$  is the actual real cost.
- If  $\phi(D_n) \geq \phi(D_0)$  can be maintained, then the amortized cost is fine since potential never goes negative.
- **The issue is to propose such a  $\phi$  function.**

# Potential Method

## Queue with two stacks

Assume  $\phi = 2 \cdot x$ , where  $x$  is the number of items in stack-1.

After enqueue operation the potential increases by  $2 = \phi(k + 1) - \phi(k)$ .

Therefore, the amortized cost is  $\hat{c}_E = c_E + \phi(k + 1) - \phi(k) = 1 + 2 = 3$ .

How about amortized cost of  $\hat{c}_D$ . Two cases:

- 1) Stack-2 is not empty. Then, no change in the potential and the amortized cost is equal to actual cost of 1.
- 2) Stack-2 is empty, and stack-1 has  $k$  elements. Then the potential difference is  $-2k$ . The actual cost is  $2k + 1$  (why?). So, amortized cost is  $-2k + 2k + 1 = 1$ .

# Potential Method

## Binary counter

$\phi$  is the number of set bits (equal to 1) in the counter.

After an increment, assume  $t_i$  bits are flipped from 1 to 0. Then the **actual cost** is  $t_i + 1$ .

*(Think about a case like 011011  $\rightarrow$  011100,  $t_i = ?$  )*

$$\phi(D_i) - \phi(D_{i-1}) = [\phi(D_{i-1}) - t_i + 1] - \phi(D_{i-1}) = 1 - t_i .$$

Then the amortized cost is  $t_i + 1 + 1 - t_i = 2$  .

# Reading assignment

- Read chapter 14 Amortized Analysis from Cormen.
- Read the paper ‘Amortized Computational Complexity’ by Tarjan, which dates back to 1985, on a very nice review of what amortized analysis is. Here is the link <https://www.cs.princeton.edu/courses/archive/spr06/cos423/Handouts/Amortized.pdf>
- Yet another paper I suggest you to look at is Amortized Efficiency of List Update and Paging Rules available at [https://scholar.google.com/scholar?output=instlink&q=info:gElaOowSipkJ:scholar.google.com/&hl=en&as\\_sdt=0,15&scillfp=3816853723830843295&oi=lle](https://scholar.google.com/scholar?output=instlink&q=info:gElaOowSipkJ:scholar.google.com/&hl=en&as_sdt=0,15&scillfp=3816853723830843295&oi=lle)
- We will study some further examples in the next lecture.