

Introduction to Algorithms

Lecture 7 Amortized Analysis

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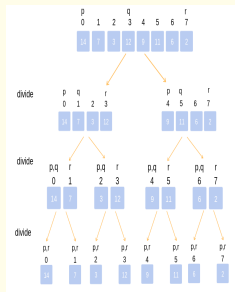
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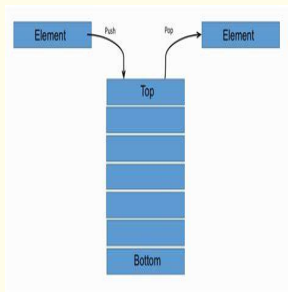
Outline

Introduction

- 1 A powerful method to analyze the running time of algorithms and data structures.
- 2 Various applications



(a) MERGESORT



(b) DATA STRUCTURE: STACK

OPTIMAL-BST(p, q, n)

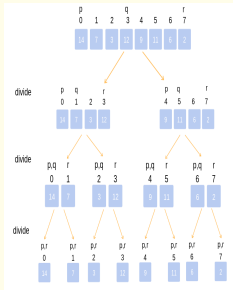
```

1  let  $e[1..n+1, 0..n]$ ,  $w[1..n+1, 0..n]$ ,
    and  $root[1..n, 1..n]$  be new tables
2  for  $i = 1$  to  $n + 1$ 
3     $e[i, i - 1] = q_{i-1}$ 
4     $w[i, i - 1] = q_{i-1}$ 
5  for  $l = 1$  to  $n$ 
6    for  $i = 1$  to  $n - l + 1$ 
7       $j = i + l - 1$ 
8       $e[i, j] = \infty$ 
9       $w[i, j] = w[i, j - 1] + p_j + q_j$ 
10     for  $r = i$  to  $j$ 
11        $t = e[i, r - 1] + e[r + 1, j] + w[i, j]$ 
12       if  $t < e[i, j]$ 
13          $e[i, j] = t$ 
14          $root[i, j] = r$ 
15  return  $e$  and  $root$ 
    
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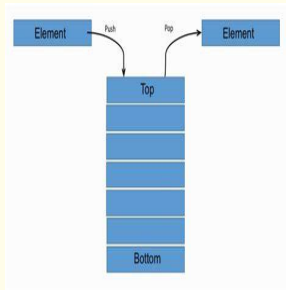
(c) IMPROVING DYNAMIC PROGRAMMING

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- 2 Various applications



(d) MERGESORT



(e) DATA STRUCTURE:
STACK

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and $root[1..n, 1..n]$ be new tables
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- 5 for $l = 1$ to n
- 6 for $i = 1$ to $n - l + 1$
- 7 $j = i + l - 1$
- 8 $e[i, j] = \infty$
- 9 $w[i, j] = w[i, j - 1] + p_j + q_j$
- 10 for $r = i$ to j *root(i,j-1) to root(i+1,j)*
- 11 $t = e[i, r - 1] + e[r + 1, j] + w[i, j]$
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- 15 return e and $root$

(f) IMPROVING DYNAMIC
PROGRAMMING

Let us introduce it formally and discuss its extensions.

Overview

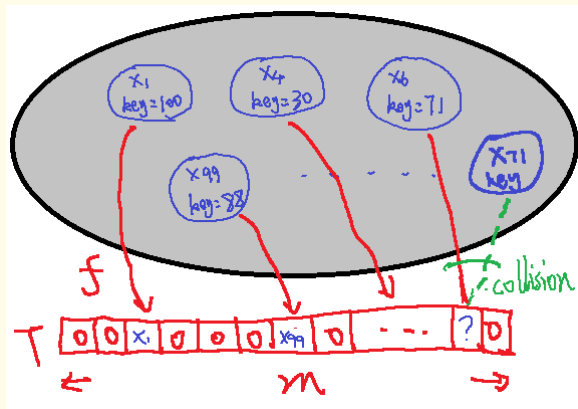
There are three major methods in amortized analysis:

- ① Basic: Aggregate method
- ② Advanced: Accounting method
- ③ Flexible: Potential method

Two examples: Dynamic Tables and Cartesian Trees

Outline

Problem Introduction



Goal: Make m (the size of hash table) as small as possible, but never get overload

Problem

What if we don't know the proper size in advance?

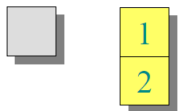
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Dynamic Tables — Whenever the table overloads, “grow” it by creating a larger table and move all items from the old table into the new one

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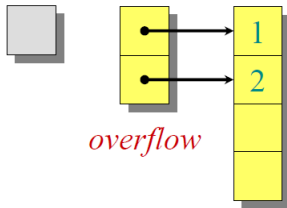
1. INSERT
2. INSERT



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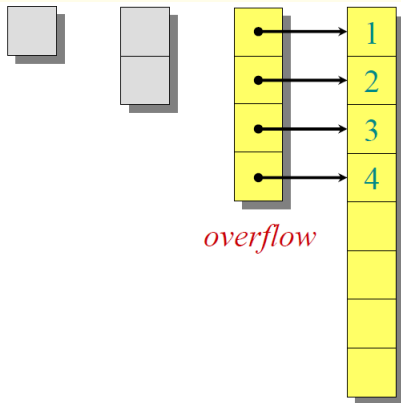
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Solution

Dynamic Tables — Whenever the table overloads, “grow” it by creating a larger table and move all items from the old table into the new one

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



Running Time

Consider n insertions:

- 1 The worst-case time of one INSERT is $\Theta(n)$.
- 2 The total time of all insertions is $n \cdot \Theta(n) = \Theta(n^2)$.

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Analysis

c_i denotes cost of the i th insertion, which is insertion + table change

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	$\overset{+}{1}$ 1	$\overset{+}{1}$ 2	1	$\overset{+}{1}$ 4	1	1	1	$\overset{+}{1}$ 8	1

Calculation

The total cost is $\Theta(n)$ and the average cost is $O(1)$.

$$\begin{aligned}\text{Cost of } n \text{ insertions} &= \sum_{i=1}^n c_i \\ &\leq n + \sum_{j=0}^{\lfloor \lg(n-1) \rfloor} 2^j \\ &\leq 3n \\ &= \Theta(n).\end{aligned}$$

Discussion

Amortized analyses: Proof strategies show that **the average cost per operation is small**, even though a single one could be expensive.

Aggregate Method

Last 2 slides give an aggregate analysis
— we have seen similar ones in MERGESORT and DYNAMIC PROGRAMMING.

Though simple, lacks the flexibility and precision of the accounting and potential methods

Accounting Method

Intro: Assign different charges to different operations (could be more or less)

- 1 Call the charged amount of an operation its amortized cost
- 2 The difference between amortized cost and actual time is the credit
- 3 Credit of one operation could be positive and negative
— most credits are positive s.t. they cover those expensive operations with negative credits

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Formal Definition

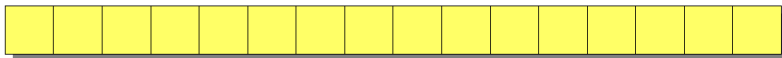
Let c_i be the actual cost of operation i and \hat{c}_i be its amortized cost:

- 1 \hat{c}_i is small for all i
- 2 $\sum_{i=1}^n \hat{c}_i \geq \sum_{i=1}^n c_i$ for any n

Back to Dynamic Table

Charge $\hat{c}_i = 3$ for every INSERT.

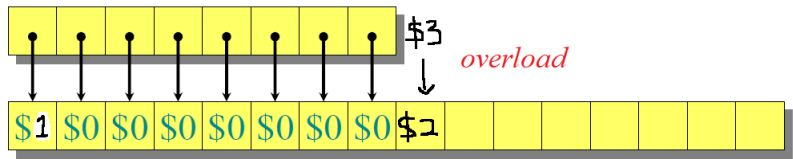
- 1 pays for the immediate insertion.
- 2 is stored for later table change — 1 for a recent item and 1 for an old item



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Accounting Analysis

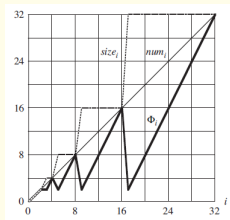
Bank balance is always non-negative

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
\hat{c}_i	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3
$bank_i$	2	3	3	5	3	5	7	9	3	5

Potential Method

Basic Idea: View the bank account as the potential energy (a la physics) of the table

- 1 Start with an initial table (data structure/status) D_0
- 2 Operation i changes D_{i-1} to D_i while its cost is c_i
- 3 Define a potential function $\Phi : D \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ s.t. $\Phi(D_0) = 0$ and $\Phi(D_i) \geq 0$ for all $i \geq 1$

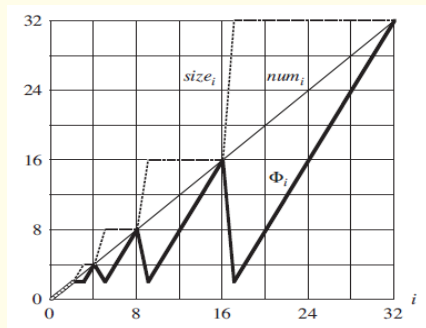


- 4 Goal: Minimize the amortized time $\hat{c}_i = c_i + \Phi(D_i) - \Phi(D_{i-1})$

More Notation

Let $\Delta(\Phi_i) = \Phi(D_i) - \Phi(D_{i-1})$ be the potential difference.

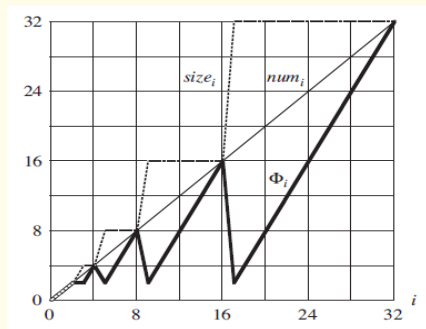
- ① $\Delta(\Phi_i) > 0$ indicates $\hat{c}_i > c_i$ s.t. it stores energy for later use
- ② $\Delta(\Phi_i) < 0$ indicates $\hat{c}_i < c_i$ s.t. it consumes energy



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Cost

Amortize time $\sum_i \hat{c}_i = \sum_i (c_i + \Phi(D_i) - \Phi(D_{i-1})) = \sum_i c_i + \Phi(D_n) - \Phi(D_0)$
 \geq actual time $\sum_i c_i$.

Back to Dynamic Table

One potential function for the current table T is

$$\Phi(T) = 2T.num - T.size \text{ equivalent to } \Phi(D_i) = 2i - 2^{\lceil \log_2 i \rceil}$$

Example:



$$\Phi = 2 \cdot 6 - 2^3 = 4$$



(accounting method)

$$\begin{aligned}\hat{c}_i &= c_i + \Phi(D_i) - \Phi(D_{i-1}) \\ &= 1 + i \cdot \mathbb{I}\{i = 2^k + 1\} + (2i - 2^{\lceil \log_2 i \rceil}) - (2(i-1) - 2^{\lceil \log_2 i-1 \rceil}) \\ &= 1 + i \cdot \mathbb{I}\{i = 2^k + 1\} + 2 - 2^{\lceil \log_2 i \rceil} + 2^{\lceil \log_2 i-1 \rceil} \\ &= O(1)\end{aligned}$$

Discussion

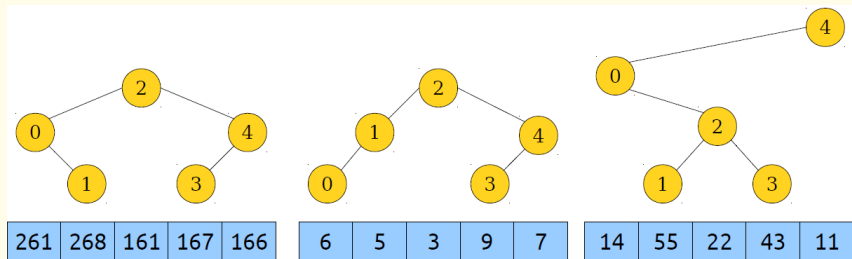
- 1 For many data structures (stack, binary search trees like Splay and Treap), amortized cost provide a clean statement
- 2 3 methods: Aggregate method, accounting method, and Potential method.
- 3 Each method has some situation where it is arguably the simplest or most precise — Potential method is the most flexible one b.c. of $\Phi(D_i)$

Outline

Introduction

A Cartesian tree is a binary tree derived from an array:

- 1 Root stores the index of the minimum value
- 2 Its left and right children are Cartesian trees for the subarrays to the left and right



Construction

- 1 Naive algorithm: $O(n^2)$
- 2 BST or Heap: $O(n \log n)$
- 3 Greedy Algorithm: $O(n)$

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Greedy Algorithm

Process a_1, \dots, a_n from left to right and maintain the tree for a_1, \dots, a_i

- 1 If $a_i < a_{i+1}$, insert v_{i+1} as the right child of v_i

Construction

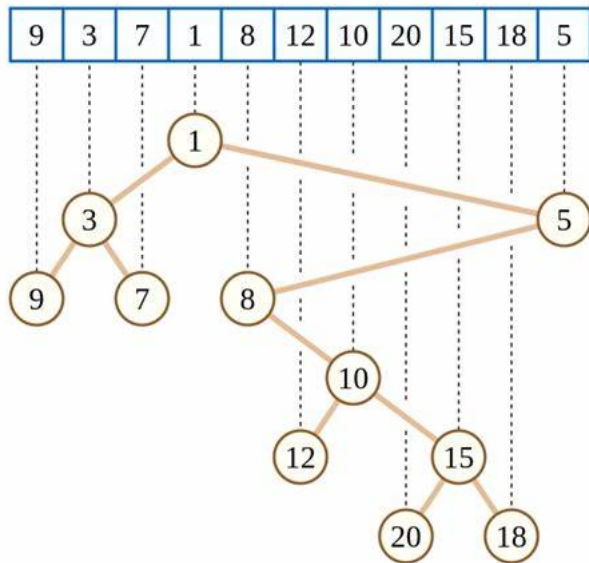
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- 1 If $a_i < a_{i+1}$, insert v_{i+1} as the right child of v_i
- 2 Otherwise consider v_i 's ancestors: Find the nearest ancestor j with $a_j < a_{i+1}$ and insert v_{i+1} as v_j 's right child (put v_j 's right child as v_{i+1} 's left child)
- 3 If no ancestor satisfies $a_j < a_{i+1}$, make v_{i+1} as the root whose left child is the old root

Example



Analysis

Correctness follows by Induction: It always maintains the Cartesian tree of a_1, \dots, a_i

Running Time

$O(n)$ — short answer is like a stack, each node gets at most one push and one pop

Let us try accounting method

Accounting Method

Define the credit as **number of nodes from current node v_i to root**

271



Work done: 1 push

Credits Added: \$1

Amortized Cost: 2

271

271	137	159	314	42
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Accounting Method

Define the credit as **number of nodes from current node v_i to root**



137



Work done: 1 push, 1 pop

Credits Removed: \$1

Credits Added: \$1

Amortized Cost: 2

137

271

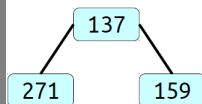
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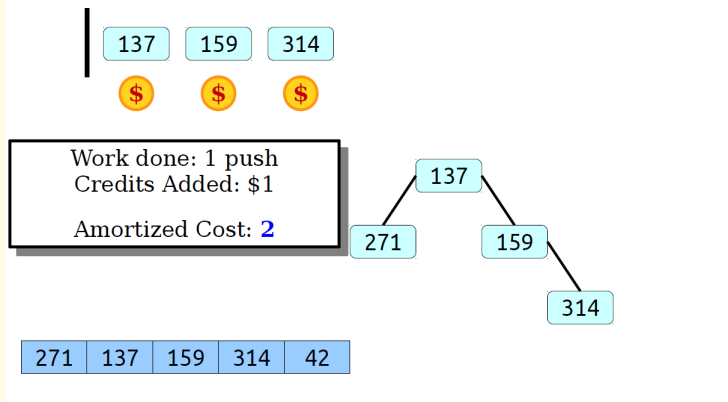
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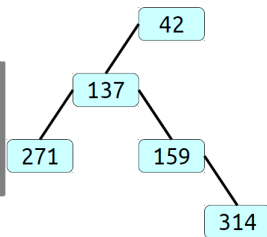
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42



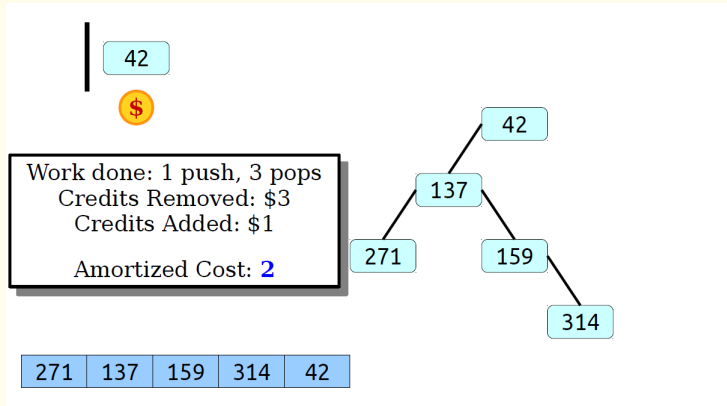
Work done: 1 push, 3 pops
Credits Removed: \$3
Credits Added: \$1
Amortized Cost: **2**



271	137	159	314	42
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Accounting Method

Define the credit as **number of nodes from current node v_i to root**



Similarly, define the potential function $\Phi(D)$ as the length.

Questions?