



# CSE373: Data Structures and Algorithms

## Lecture 2: Math Review; Algorithm Analysis

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# Today

- Any questions on stacks and queues?
- Review math essential to algorithm analysis
  - Proof by induction
  - Powers of 2
  - Binary numbers
  - Exponents and logarithms
- Begin analyzing algorithms
  - Using asymptotic analysis (continue next time)

# *Mathematical induction*

Suppose  $P(n)$  is some predicate (mentioning integer  $n$ )

- Example:  $n \geq n/2 + 1$

To prove  $P(n)$  for all integers  $n \geq n_0$ , it suffices to prove

1.  $P(n_0)$  – called the “basis” or “base case”
2. If  $P(k)$ , then  $P(k+1)$  – called the “induction step” or “inductive case”

Why we will care:

To show an algorithm is correct or has a certain running time *no matter how big a data structure or input value is*

(Our “ $n$ ” will be the data structure or input size.)

# Example

$P(n)$  = “the sum of the first  $n$  powers of 2 (starting at 0) is  $2^n - 1$ ”

Theorem:  $P(n)$  holds for all  $n \geq 1$

Proof: By induction on  $n$

- Base case:  $n=1$ . Sum of first 1 power of 2 is  $2^0$ , which equals 1.  
And for  $n=1$ ,  $2^n - 1$  equals 1.
- Inductive case:
  - Assume the sum of the first  $k$  powers of 2 is  $2^k - 1$
  - Show the sum of the first  $(k+1)$  powers of 2 is  $2^{k+1} - 1$Using assumption, sum of the first  $(k+1)$  powers of 2 is  
 $(2^k - 1) + 2^{(k+1)-1} = (2^k - 1) + 2^k = 2^{k+1} - 1$

# Example

<b>n</b>	1	2	3	4
sum of first n powers of 2	$2^0 = 1$	$1 + 2^1 = 3$	$3 + 2^2 = 7$	$7 + 2^3 = 15$
<b>P(n)</b>	$2^1 - 1 = 1$			

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<b>P(n)</b>	$2^1 - 1 = 1$	$2^2 - 1 = 3$	$2^3 - 1 = 17$	

# Example

<b>n</b>	1	2	3	4	...
sum of first n powers of 2	$2^0 = 1$	$1 + 2^1 = 3$	$3 + 2^2 = 7$	$7 + 2^3 = 15$	
<b>P(n)</b>	$2^1 - 1 = 1$	$2^2 - 1 = 3$	$2^3 - 1 = 7$	$2^4 - 1 = 15$	

# *Powers of 2*

- A bit is 0 or 1 (just two different “letters” or “symbols”)
- A sequence of  $n$  bits can represent  $2^n$  distinct things
  - For example, the numbers 0 through  $2^n-1$
- $2^{10}$  is 1024 (“about a thousand”, kilo in CSE speak)
- $2^{20}$  is “about a million”, mega in CSE speak
- $2^{30}$  is “about a billion”, giga in CSE speak

Java: an `int` is 32 bits and signed, so “max int” is “about 2 billion”  
a `long` is 64 bits and signed, so “max long” is  $2^{63}-1$

# *Therefore ...*

Could give a unique id to...

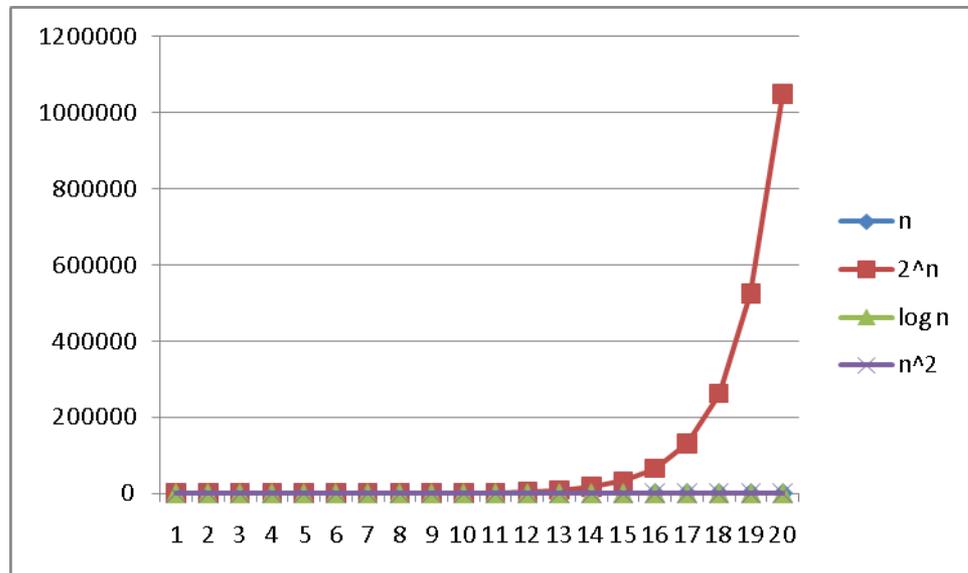
- Every person in the U.S. with 29 bits
- Every person in the world with 33 bits
- Every person to have ever lived with 38 bits (estimate)
- Every atom in the universe with 250-300 bits

So if a password is 128 bits long and randomly generated,  
do you think you could guess it?

# Logarithms and Exponents

- Since so much is binary in CS  $\log$  almost always means  $\log_2$
- Definition:  $\log_2 x = y$  if  $x = 2^y$
- So,  $\log_2 1,000,000 =$  “a little under 20”
- Just as exponents grow *very* quickly, logarithms grow *very* slowly

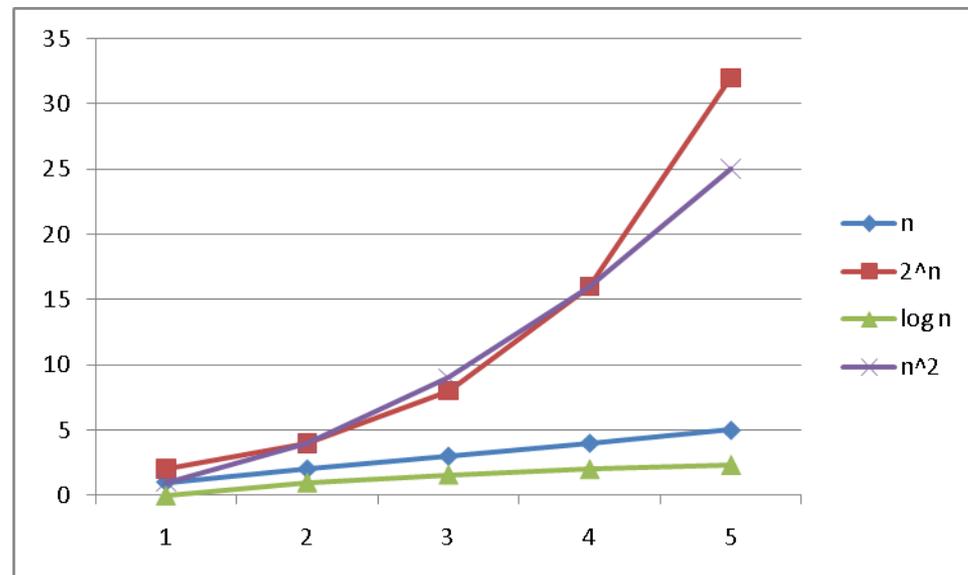
See Excel file  
for plot data –  
play with it!



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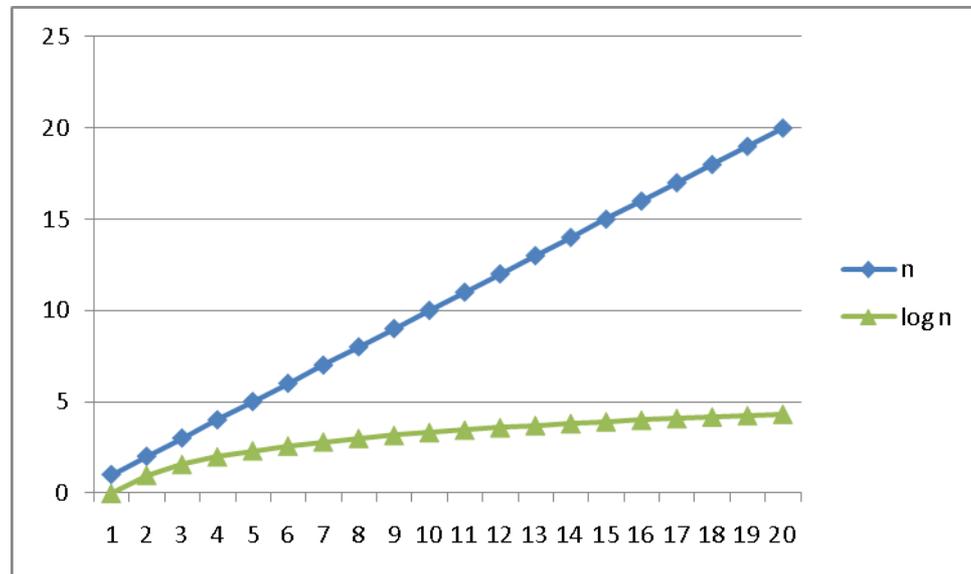
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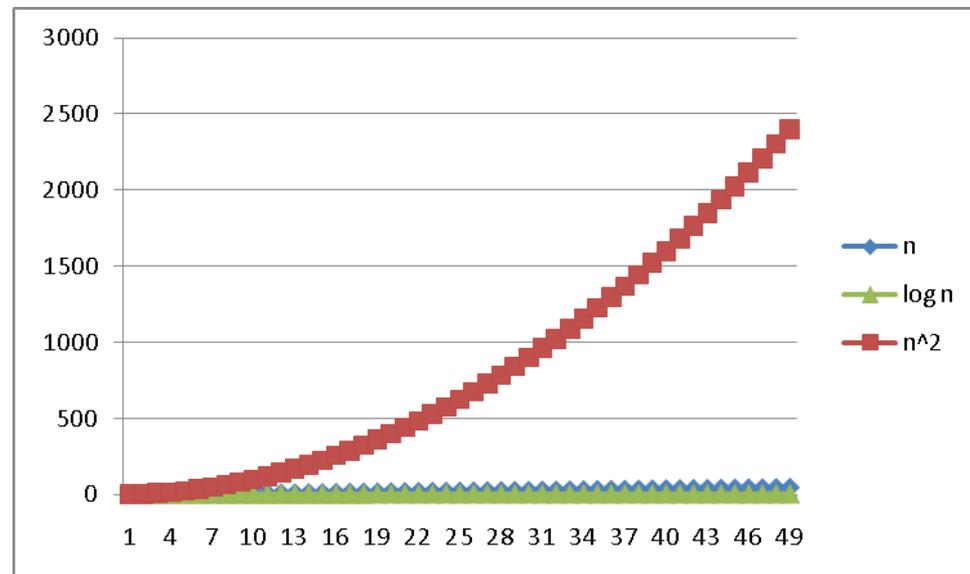
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# *Properties of logarithms*

- $\log(A*B) = \log A + \log B$ 
  - So  $\log(N^k) = k \log N$
- $\log(A/B) = \log A - \log B$
- $\log(\log x)$  is written  $\log \log x$ 
  - Grows as slowly as  $2^{2^y}$  grows quickly
- $(\log x)(\log x)$  is written  $\log^2 x$ 
  - It is greater than  $\log x$  for all  $x > 2$
  - It is not the same as  $\log \log x$

# *Log base doesn't matter much!*

“Any base  $B$  log is equivalent to base 2 log within a constant factor”

- And we are about to stop worrying about constant factors!
- In particular,  $\log_2 x = 3.22 \log_{10} x$
- In general,

$$\log_B x = (\log_A x) / (\log_A B)$$

# *Floor and ceiling*

$\lfloor X \rfloor$  Floor function: the largest integer  $\leq X$

$$\lfloor 2.7 \rfloor = 2 \quad \lfloor -2.7 \rfloor = -3 \quad \lfloor 2 \rfloor = 2$$

$\lceil X \rceil$  Ceiling function: the smallest integer  $\geq X$

$$\lceil 2.3 \rceil = 3 \quad \lceil -2.3 \rceil = -2 \quad \lceil 2 \rceil = 2$$

## *Floor and ceiling properties*

1.  $X - 1 < \lfloor X \rfloor \leq X$
2.  $X \leq \lceil X \rceil < X + 1$
3.  $\lfloor n/2 \rfloor + \lceil n/2 \rceil = n$  if  $n$  is an integer

# *Algorithm Analysis*

As the “size” of an algorithm’s input grows

(integer, length of array, size of queue, etc.):

- How much longer does the algorithm take (time)
- How much more memory does the algorithm need (space)

Because the curves we saw are so different, often care about only “which curve we are like”

Separate issue: Algorithm *correctness* – does it produce the right answer for all inputs

- Usually more important, naturally

# Example

- What does this pseudocode return?

```
x := 0;
for i=1 to N do
  for j=1 to i do
    x := x + 3;
return x;
```

- Correctness: For any  $N \geq 0$ , it returns...

# Example

- What does this pseudocode return?

```
x := 0;  
for i=1 to N do  
    for j=1 to i do  
        x := x + 3;  
return x;
```

- Correctness: For any  $N \geq 0$ , it returns  $3N(N+1)/2$
- Proof: By induction on  $n$ 
  - $P(n)$  = after outer for-loop executes  $n$  times,  $\mathbf{x}$  holds  $3n(n+1)/2$
  - Base:  $n=0$ , returns 0
  - Inductive: From  $P(k)$ ,  $\mathbf{x}$  holds  $3k(k+1)/2$  after  $k$  iterations. Next iteration adds  $3(k+1)$ , for total of  $3k(k+1)/2 + 3(k+1)$   
 $= (3k(k+1) + 6(k+1))/2 = (k+1)(3k+6)/2 = 3(k+1)(k+2)/2$

# Example

- How long does this pseudocode run?

```
x := 0;
for i=1 to N do
  for j=1 to i do
    x := x + 3;
return x;
```

- Running time: For any  $N \geq 0$ ,
  - Assignments, additions, returns take “1 unit time”
  - Loops take the sum of the time for their iterations
- So:  $2 + 2 * (\text{number of times inner loop runs})$ 
  - And how many times is that...

# Example

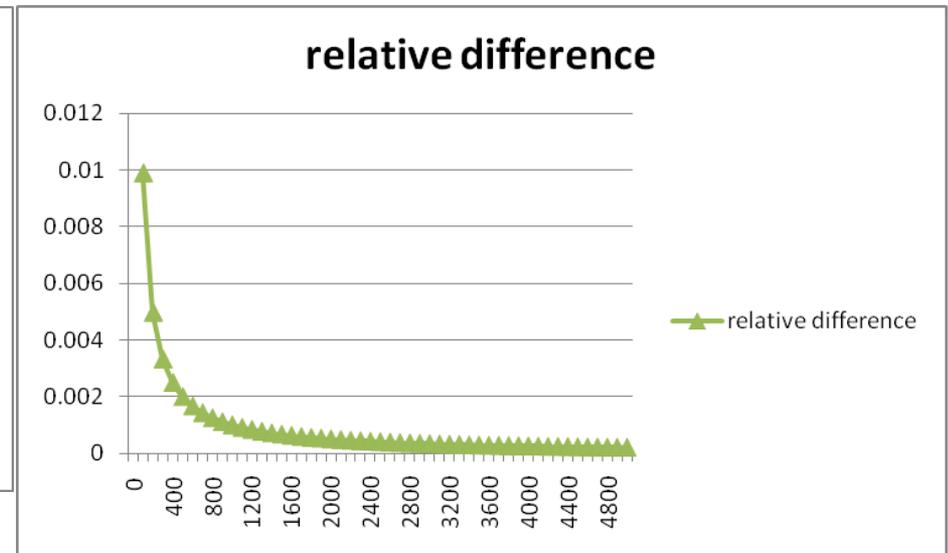
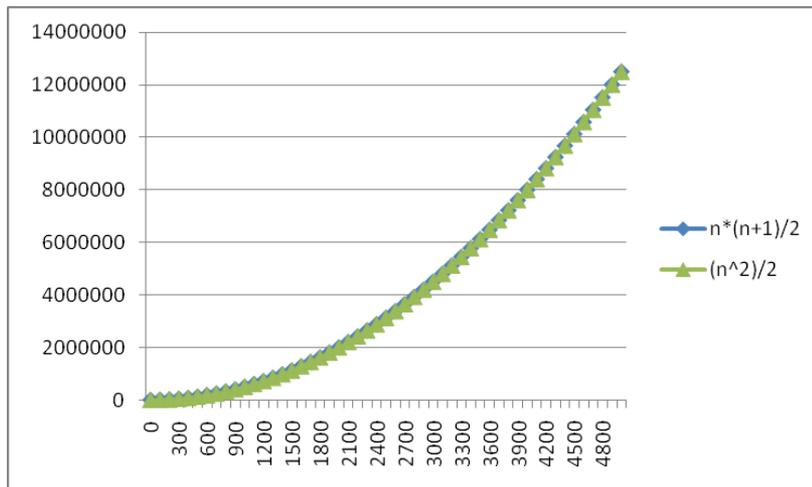
- How long does this pseudocode run?

```
x := 0;
for i=1 to N do
  for j=1 to i do
    x := x + 3;
return x;
```

- The total number of loop iterations is  $N*(N+1)/2$ 
  - This is a very common loop structure, worth memorizing
  - Proof is by induction on  $N$ , known for centuries
  - This is *proportional to*  $N^2$ , and we say  $O(N^2)$ , “big-Oh of”
    - For large enough  $N$ , the  $N$  and constant terms are irrelevant, as are the first assignment and return
    - See plot...  $N*(N+1)/2$  vs. just  $N^2/2$

# Lower-order terms don't matter

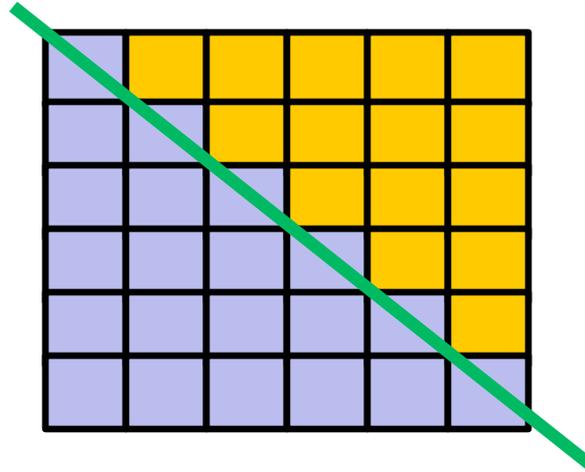
$N*(N+1)/2$  vs. just  $N^2/2$



# Geometric interpretation

$$\sum_{i=1}^N i = N*N/2 + N/2$$

```
for i=1 to N do
  for j=1 to i do
    // small work
```



- Area of square:  $N*N$
- Area of lower triangle of square:  $N*N/2$
- Extra area from squares crossing the diagonal:  $N*1/2$
- As  $N$  grows, fraction of “extra area” compared to lower triangle goes to zero (becomes insignificant)

# Big-O: Common Names

$O(1)$	constant (same as $O(k)$ for constant $k$ )
$O(\log n)$	logarithmic
$O(n)$	linear
$O(n \log n)$	“ $n \log n$ ”
$O(n^2)$	quadratic
$O(n^3)$	cubic
$O(n^k)$	polynomial (where $k$ is any constant)
$O(k^n)$	exponential (where $k$ is any constant $> 1$ )

Note: “exponential” does not mean “grows really fast”, it means “grows at rate proportional to  $k^n$  for some  $k > 1$ ”

- A savings account accrues interest exponentially ( $k=1.01$ ?)
- If you don't know  $k$ , you probably don't know it's exponential