

## Mathematical Background

CSE 373  
Data Structures

## Mathematical Background

- Today, we will review:
  - › Logs and exponents
  - › Series
  - › Recursion
  - › Motivation for Algorithm Analysis

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## Powers of 2

- Many of the numbers we use in Computer Science are powers of 2
- Binary numbers (base 2) are easily represented in digital computers
  - › each "bit" is a 0 or a 1
  - ›  $2^0=1, 2^1=2, 2^2=4, 2^3=8, 2^4=16, \dots, 2^{10}=1024$  (1K)
  - › , an  $n$ -bit wide field can hold  $2^n$  positive integers:
    - $0 \leq k \leq 2^n-1$

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## Unsigned binary numbers

- For unsigned numbers in a fixed width field
  - › the minimum value is 0
  - › the maximum value is  $2^n-1$ , where  $n$  is the number of bits in the field
  - › The value is  $\sum_{i=0}^{n-1} a_i 2^i$
- Each bit position represents a power of 2 with  $a_i = 0$  or  $a_i = 1$

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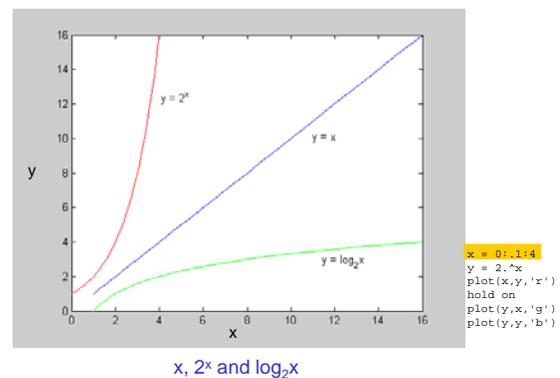
## Logs and exponents

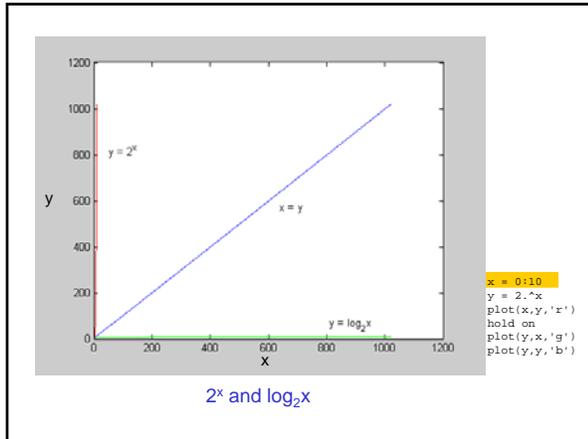
- Definition:  $\log_2 x = y$  means  $x = 2^y$ 
  - ›  $8 = 2^3$ , so  $\log_2 8 = 3$
  - ›  $65536 = 2^{16}$ , so  $\log_2 65536 = 16$
- Notice that  $\log_2 x$  tells you how many bits are needed to hold  $x$  values
  - › 8 bits holds 256 numbers:  $0$  to  $2^8-1 = 0$  to  $255$
  - ›  $\log_2 256 = 8$

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## Floor and Ceiling

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$\lfloor X \rfloor$  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  $\geq X$

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

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## Facts about Floor and Ceiling

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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

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## Properties of logs (of the mathematical kind)

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- We will assume logs to base 2 unless specified otherwise
- $\log AB = \log A + \log B$ 
  - ›  $A = 2^{\log_2 A}$  and  $B = 2^{\log_2 B}$
  - ›  $AB = 2^{\log_2 A} \cdot 2^{\log_2 B} = 2^{\log_2 A + \log_2 B}$
  - › so  $\log_2 AB = \log_2 A + \log_2 B$
  - › [note:  $\log AB \neq \log A \cdot \log B$ ]

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## Other log properties

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- $\log A/B = \log A - \log B$
- $\log (A^B) = B \log A$
- $\log \log X < \log X < X$  for all  $X > 0$ 
  - ›  $\log \log X = Y$  means  $2^{2^Y} = X$
  - ›  $\log X$  grows slower than  $X$ 
    - called a "sub-linear" function

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## A log is a log is a log

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- Any base  $x$  log is equivalent to base 2 log within a constant factor

$$\log_x B = \log_2 B$$

$B = 2^{\log_2 B}$       substitution  $\log_x B = \frac{\log_2 B}{\log_2 x}$        $x^{\log_x B} = B$  by def. of logs  
 $x = 2^{\log_2 x}$        $(2^{\log_2 x})^{\log_2 B} = 2^{\log_2 B}$   
 $2^{\log_2 x \log_2 B} = 2^{\log_2 B}$   
 $\log_2 x \log_2 B = \log_2 B$   
 $\log_x B = \frac{\log_2 B}{\log_2 x}$

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## Arithmetic Series

- $S(N) = 1 + 2 + \dots + N = \sum_{i=1}^N i$
- The sum is
  - ›  $S(1) = 1$
  - ›  $S(2) = 1 + 2 = 3$
  - ›  $S(3) = 1 + 2 + 3 = 6$

- $\sum_{i=1}^N i = \frac{N(N+1)}{2}$  Why is this formula useful when you analyze algorithms?

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## Algorithm Analysis

- Consider the following program segment:
 

```
x := 0;
for i = 1 to N do
  for j = 1 to i do
    x := x + 1;
```
- What is the value of x at the end?

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## Analyzing the Loop

- Total number of times x is incremented is the number of "instructions" executed
 
$$= 1 + 2 + 3 + \dots = \sum_{i=1}^N i = \frac{N(N+1)}{2}$$
- You've just analyzed the program!
  - › Running time of the program is proportional to  $N(N+1)/2$  for all N
  - ›  $O(N^2)$

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## Analyzing Mergesort

```
Mergesort(p : node pointer) : node pointer {
Case {
  p = null : return p; //no elements
  p.next = null : return p; //one element
  else
    d : duo pointer; // duo has two fields first,second
    d := Split(p);
    return Merge(Mergesort(d.first),Mergesort(d.second));
}
}
```

$T(n)$  is the time to sort n items.  
 $T(0), T(1) \leq c$   
 $T(n) \leq T(\lfloor n/2 \rfloor) + T(\lceil n/2 \rceil) + dn$

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## Mergesort Analysis Upper Bound

$$\begin{aligned}
 T(n) &\leq 2T(n/2) + dn && \text{Assuming } n \text{ is a power of } 2 \\
 &\leq 2(2T(n/4) + dn/2) + dn \\
 &= 4T(n/4) + 2dn \\
 &\leq 4(2T(n/8) + dn/4) + 2dn \\
 &= 8T(n/8) + 3dn \\
 &\vdots \\
 &\leq 2^k T(n/2^k) + kdn \\
 &= nT(1) + kdn && \text{if } n = 2^k \quad n = 2^k, k = \log_2 n \\
 &\leq cn + dn \log_2 n \\
 &= O(n \log n)
 \end{aligned}$$

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## Recursion Used Badly

- Classic example: Fibonacci numbers  $F_n$

0, 1, 1, 2, 3, 5, 8, 13, 21, ...



- ›  $F_0 = 0, F_1 = 1$  (Base Cases)
- › Rest are sum of preceding two  
 $F_n = F_{n-1} + F_{n-2} \quad (n > 1)$

Leonardo Pisano  
Fibonacci (1170-1250)

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## Recursion

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- A method calling itself, directly or indirectly
- Works because of how method calls are processed anyway
  - › A stack holds parameters and local variables for each invocation

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## Recursive Method Outline

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- One or more base cases
- One or more recursive cases
- Recursive cases must get "closer" to a base case
- The process must eventually terminate

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## Recursion Practice

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```
/** Return baseexp
    exp >= 0
 */
double power(double base, int exp);
```

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## Recursion vs Iteration

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- A recursive algorithm can always be expressed iteratively, and vice versa
- Recursion is often more compact and elegant
- Iteration is often more efficient
- Recursion is natural when the data structure is recursive

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## Recursion Practice

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```
/** Return the largest value in a non-
    empty array
 */
double findMax(double[ ] nums);
```

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## Kickoff: Common Trick

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```
double findMax(double[ ] nums) {
    return helper(nums, 0);
}
```

```
/** Find the largest value starting at position
    "start" of a non-empty array. */
double helper (double[ ] nums, int start);
```

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## Recursive Procedure for Fibonacci Numbers

```
fib(n : integer): integer {
  Case {
    n ≤ 0 : return 0;
    n = 1 : return 1;
    else : return fib(n-1) + fib(n-2);
  }
}
```

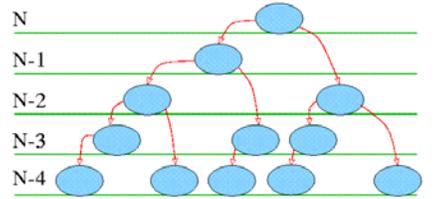
- Easy to write: looks like the definition of  $F_n$
- But, can you spot the big problem?

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## Recursive Calls of Fibonacci Procedure



- Re-computes  $\text{fib}(N-i)$  multiple times!

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## Fibonacci Analysis Lower Bound

$T(n)$  is the time to compute  $\text{fib}(n)$ .

$T(0), T(1) \geq 1$

$T(n) \geq T(n-1) + T(n-2)$

It can be shown by induction that  $T(n) \geq \phi^{n-2}$  where

$$\phi = \frac{1 + \sqrt{5}}{2} \approx 1.62$$

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## Iterative Algorithm for Fibonacci Numbers

```
fib_iter(n : integer): integer {
  fib0, fib1, fibresult, i : integer;
  fib0 := 0; fib1 := 1;
  case {
    n < 0 : fibresult := 0;
    n = 1 : fibresult := 1;
    else :
      for i = 2 to n do {
        fibresult := fib0 + fib1;
        fib0 := fib1;
        fib1 := fibresult;
      }
  }
  return fibresult;
}
```

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## Recursion Summary

- Recursion may simplify programming, but beware of generating large numbers of calls
  - › Function calls can be expensive in terms of time and space
- Be sure to get the base case(s) correct!
- Each step must get you closer to the base case

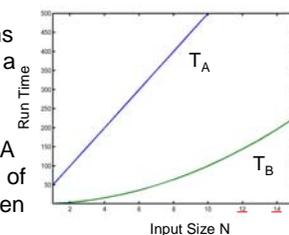
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## Motivation for Algorithm Analysis

- Suppose you are given two algorithms A and B for solving a problem
- The running times  $T_A(N)$  and  $T_B(N)$  of A and B as a function of input size N are given



Which is better?

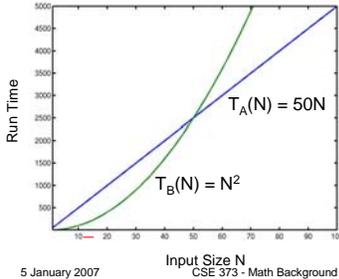
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## More Motivation

- For large  $N$ , the running time of A and B



Now which algorithm would you choose?

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## Asymptotic Behavior

- The "asymptotic" performance as  $N \rightarrow \infty$ , regardless of what happens for small input sizes  $N$ , is generally most important.
- Performance for small input sizes may matter in practice, if you are sure that small  $N$  will be common forever.
- We will compare algorithms based on how they scale for large values of  $N$ .

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## Big O

- Mainly used to express upper bounds on time of algorithms. " $n$ " is the size of the input.
- Definition: Let  $T$  and  $f$  be functions of the natural numbers.  **$T(n)$  is  $O(f(n))$  if there are constants  $c$  and  $n_0$  such that**  
$$T(n) \leq c f(n) \text{ for all } n \geq n_0.$$
- $2 \cdot n$  is  $O(n)$
- $2 + n$  is  $O(n)$
- $10000n + 10$  is  $O(n)$
- $n \log_2 n$  is  $O(n \log n)$
- $.00001 n^2$  is not  $O(n \log n)$

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## Big O Informality

- Instead of saying " $T$  is  $O(f)$ " people often say things like
  - " $T$  is Big O of  $f$ "
  - " $T = O(f)$ "
  - " $T$  is bounded by  $f$ ", etc.
- Be careful how you understand " $T = O(f)$ ". This is not an equation!

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## Why Order Notation

- The difference in performance between two computers is generally a constant multiple (roughly).
  - The  $n_0$  in our definition takes that into account
- In asymptotic performance ( $n \rightarrow \infty$ ) the low order terms are "dominated" by the higher order terms

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## Some Basic Time Bounds

- In order best to worst:
  - Logarithmic time is  $O(\log n)$
  - Linear time is  $O(n)$
  - $O(n \log n)$
  - Quadratic time is  $O(n^2)$
  - Cubic time is  $O(n^3)$
  - Polynomial time is  $O(n^k)$  for some  $k$ .
  - Exponential time is  $O(c^n)$  for some  $c > 1$ .
- Advice: learn these names and their order!

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## Kinds of Analysis

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- **Asymptotic** – uses order notation, ignores constant factors and low order terms.
- **Upper bound** vs. **lower bound**
- **Worst case** – time bound valid for all inputs of length  $n$ .
- **Average case** – time bound valid on average – requires a distribution of inputs.
- **Amortized** – worst case time averaged over a sequence of operations.
- Others – best case, common case (80%-20%) etc.

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## What to Analyze

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- **Execution time**
  - › Number of instructions executed
  - › Number of some particular operation executed
    - Example: for sorting algorithms, we might just count the number of comparisons made
- **Memory**
- **Disc accesses, network transfer time, power, etc.**

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