

Fundamentals

CSE 373 - Data Structures
April 8, 2002

Readings and References

- Reading
 - › Chapters 1-2, *Data Structures and Algorithm Analysis in C*, Weiss
- Other References

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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 will be powers of 2
- Binary numbers (base 2) are easily represented in digital computers
 - › each "bit" is a 0 or a 1
 - › $2^0=1, 2^1=2, 2^2=4, 2^3=8, 2^4=16, 2^8=256, \dots$
 - › 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

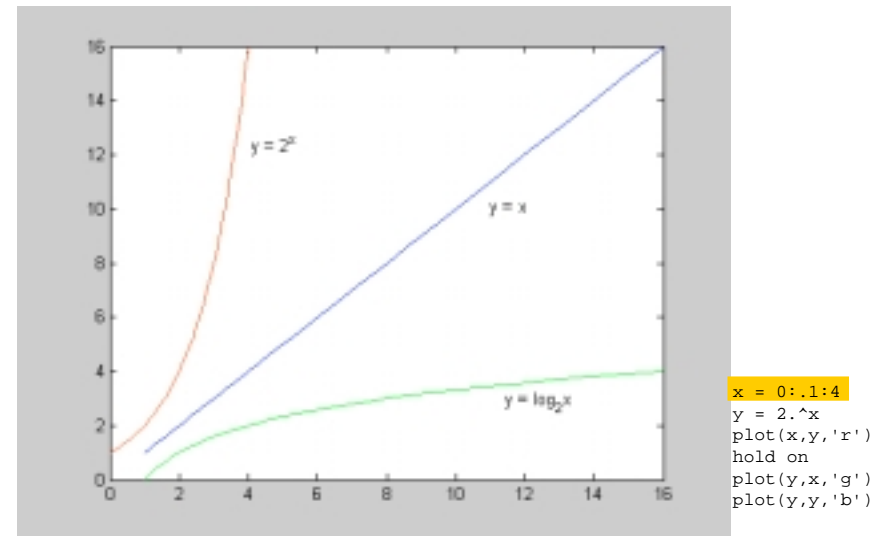
- Each bit position represents a power of 2
- For unsigned numbers in a fixed width field
 - > the minimum value is 0
 - > the maximum value is 2^n-1 , where n is the number of bits in the field
- Fixed field widths determine many limits
 - > 5 bits = 32 possible values ($2^5 = 32$)
 - > 10 bits = 1024 possible values ($2^{10} = 1024$)

Binary, Hex, and Decimal

$2^8=256$	$2^7=128$	$2^6=64$	$2^5=32$	$2^4=16$	$2^3=8$	$2^2=4$	$2^1=2$	$2^0=1$	Hex ₁₆	Decimal ₁₀
							1	1	0x3	3
					1	0	0	1	0x9	9
					1	0	1	0	0xA	10
					1	1	1	1	0xF	15
				1	0	0	0	0	0x10	16
				1	1	1	1	1	0x1F	31
		1	1	1	1	1	1	1	0x7F	127
	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	0xFF	255

Logs and exponents

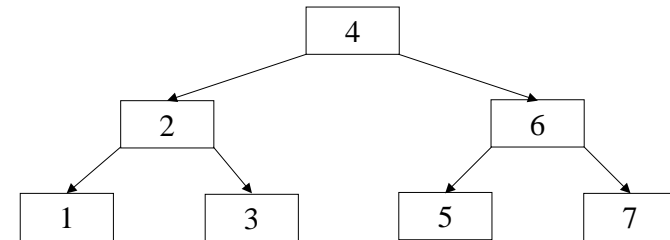
- Definition: $\log_2 x = y$ means $x = 2^y$
 - > the log of x, base 2, is the value y that gives $x = 2^y$
 - > $8 = 2^3$, so $\log_2 8 = 3$
 - > $65536 = 2^{16}$, so $\log_2 65536 = 16$
- Notice that $\log_2 x$ tells you how many bits are needed to hold x values
 - > 8 bits holds 256 numbers: 0 to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



2^x and $\log_2 x$

Example: $\log_2 x$ and tree depth

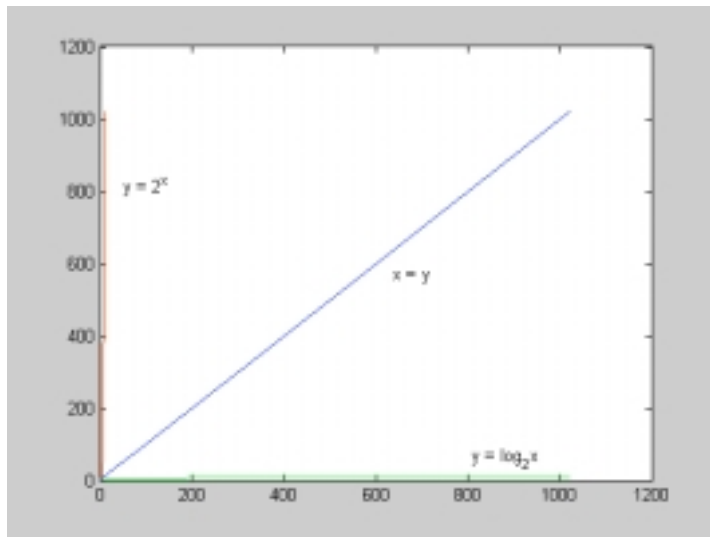
- 7 items in a binary tree, $3 = \lfloor \log_2 7 \rfloor + 1$ levels



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2^x and $\log_2 x$

Properties of logs (of the mathematical kind)

- 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

- $\log A/B = \log A - \log B$
- $\log (A^B) = B \log A$
- $\log \log X < \log X < X$ 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

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

$$B = 2^{\log_2 B}$$

$$x = 2^{\log_2 x}$$

$$\log_x B = \log_x B$$

$$x^{\log_x B} = B$$

$$(2^{\log_2 x})^{\log_x B} = 2^{\log_2 B}$$

$$2^{\log_2 x \log_x B} = 2^{\log_2 B}$$

$$\log_2 x \log_x B = \log_2 B$$

$$\log_x B = \frac{\log_2 B}{\log_2 x}$$

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?

Quicky Algorithm Analysis

- Consider the following program segment:

```
for (i = 1; i <= N; i++)
```

```
  for (j = 1; j <= i; j++)
```

```
    printf("Hello\n");
```

- How many times is “printf” executed?

- Or, How many Hello’s will you see?

What is actually being executed?

- The program segment being analyzed:

```
for (i = 1; i <= N; i++)
```

```
  for (j = 1; j <= i; j++)
```

```
    printf("Hello\n");
```

- Inner loop executes “printf” i times in the i^{th} iteration

- j goes from 1 to i

- There are N iterations in the outer loop

- i goes from 1 to N

Lots of hellos

- Total number of times “printf” is executed =
$$1+2+3+\dots = \sum_{i=1}^N i = \frac{N(N+1)}{2}$$
- Congratulations - You’ve just analyzed your first program!
 - › Running time of the program is proportional to $N(N+1)/2$ for all N
 - › Proportional to N^2

Recursion

- Classic (bad) example: Fibonacci numbers F_n

1, 1, 2, 3, 5, 8, 13, 21, 34, ...



Leonardo Pisano
Fibonacci (1170-1250)

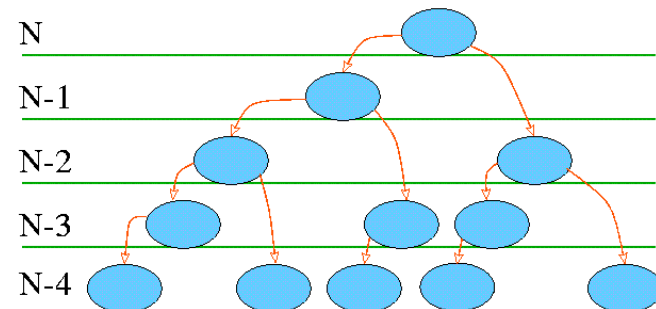
- › First two are defined to be 1
- › Rest are sum of preceding two
- › $F_n = F_{n-1} + F_{n-2}$ ($n > 1$)

Recursive Procedure for Fibonacci Numbers

```
int fib(int i) {  
    if (i < 0) return 0;  
    if (i == 0 || i == 1)  
        return 1;  
    else  
        return fib(i-1)+fib(i-2);  
}
```

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

Recursive Calls of Fibonacci Procedure



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

Iterative Procedure for Fibonacci Numbers

```
int fib_iter(int i) {
    int fib0 = 1, fib1 = 1, fibj = 1;
    if (i < 0) return 0;
    for (int j = 2; j <= i; j++) {
        fibj = fib0 + fib1;
        fib0 = fib1;
        fib1 = fibj;
    }
    return fibj;
}
```

- More variables and more bookkeeping but avoids repetitive calculations and saves time.

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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

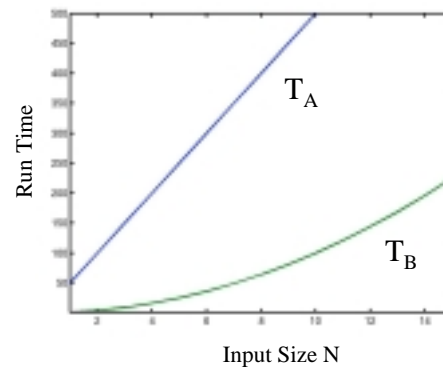
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Motivation for Algorithm Analysis

- Suppose you are given two algos 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?

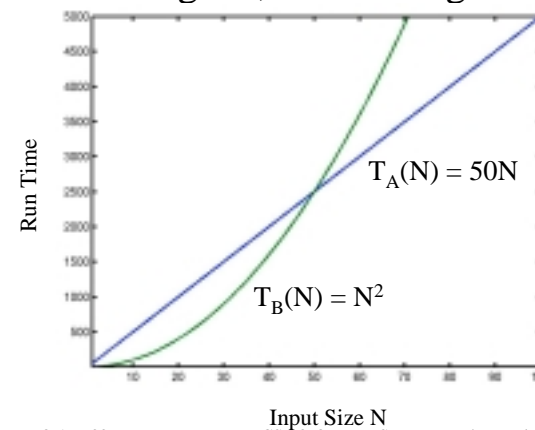
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More Motivation

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



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