



# CSE373: Data Structures and Algorithms Lecture 2: Math Review; Algorithm Analysis

Dan Grossman Fall 2013

## Today

- Finish discussing 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:  $n \ge n/2 + 1$ 

To prove P(n) for all integers  $n \ge n_0$ , 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.)

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## Powers of 2

- A bit is 0 or 1 (just two different "letters" or "symbols")
- A sequence of *n* bits can represent 2<sup>n</sup> distinct things
   For example, the numbers 0 through 2<sup>n</sup>-1
- 2<sup>10</sup> is 1024 ("about a thousand", kilo in CSE speak)
- 2<sup>20</sup> is "about a million", mega in CSE speak
- 2<sup>30</sup> 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

## Example

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P(n) = "the sum of the first *n* powers of 2 (starting at 0) is 2<sup>n</sup>-1"

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Theorem: P(n) holds for all  $n \ge 1$ Proof: By induction on n

- Base case: *n*=1. Sum of first 1 power of 2 is 2<sup>0</sup>, which equals 1. And for *n*=1, 2<sup>n</sup>-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
  - $(2^{k}-1) + 2^{(k+1)-1} = (2^{k}-1) + 2^{k} = 2^{k+1}-1$

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### 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?

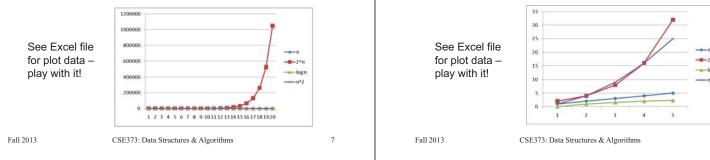
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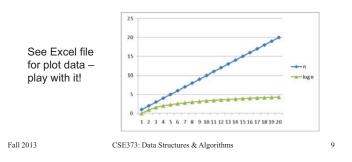
## Logarithms and Exponents

- Since so much is binary in CS log almost always means log<sub>2</sub>
- Definition:  $\log_2 \mathbf{x} = \mathbf{y}$  if  $\mathbf{x} = 2^{\mathbf{y}}$
- So, log<sub>2</sub> 1,000,000 = "a little under 20"
- Just as exponents grow very quickly, logarithms grow very slowly



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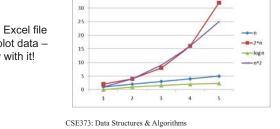


#### Properties of logarithms

- 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 22<sup>y</sup> grows quickly
- (log x) (log x) is written  $log^2x$ - It is greater than log x for all x > 2 - It is not the same as log log x

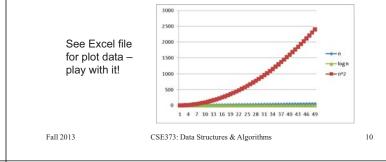
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#### Log base doesn't matter much!

"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,

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\log_{B} x = (\log_{A} x) / (\log_{A} B)
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<ul> <li>[X] Foor function: the largest integer ≤ X</li> <li>[Z7] = 2 [-2.7] = 3 [2] = 2</li> <li>[X] Celling function: the smallest integer ≥ X</li> <li>[Z3] = 3 [-2.3] = -2 [2] = 2</li> <li>[X] Celling function: the smallest integer ≥ X</li> <li>[Z3] = 3 [-2.3] = -2 [2] = 2</li> <li>[X] Celling function: the smallest integer ≥ X</li> <li>[Z3] = 3 [-2.3] = -2 [2] = 2</li> <li>[X] Celling function: the smallest integer ≥ X</li> <li>[Z3] = 3 [-2.3] = -2 [2] = 2</li> <li>[X] Celling function: the smallest integer ≥ X</li> <li>[Z3] = 3 [-2.3] = -2 [2] = 2</li> <li>[X] Celling function: the smallest integer ≥ X</li> <li>[Z3] = 3 [-2.3] = -2 [2] = 2</li> <li>[X] Celling function: the smallest integer ≥ X</li> <li>[Z3] = 3 [-2.3] = -2 [2] = 2</li> <li>[X] Celling function: the smallest integer ≥ X</li> <li></li></ul>	Floor and ceiling	Floor and ceiling properties
<page-header>      Martin Martin Martin Signal (1)     Martin Martin Martin Signal (1)     (2)     <td< td=""><td><math>\lfloor 2.7 \rfloor = 2</math> <math>\lfloor -2.7 \rfloor = -3</math> <math>\lfloor 2 \rfloor = 2</math> <math>\lceil X \rceil</math> Ceiling function: the smallest integer <math>\ge X</math></td><td><math display="block">2.  X \leq \left\lceil X \right\rceil &lt; X + 1</math></td></td<></page-header>	$\lfloor 2.7 \rfloor = 2$ $\lfloor -2.7 \rfloor = -3$ $\lfloor 2 \rfloor = 2$ $\lceil X \rceil$ Ceiling function: the smallest integer $\ge X$	$2.  X \leq \left\lceil X \right\rceil < X + 1$
As the "size" of an algorithm is input grows (integer, length of array, size of queue, etc.): - How much more memory 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 <i>correctness</i> – does it produce the right answer for all inputs - Usually more important, naturally Fall 2013 CMETRY Data Structures & Algorithm • What does this pseudocode return? $\frac{x}{x} := 0;$ for $x := 1 + 0$ % 0, it returns Fall 2013 CMETRY Data Structures & Algorithm • Usually more important, naturally Fall 2013 CMETRY Data Structures & Algorithm • Usually more important, naturally Fall 2013 CMETRY Data Structures & Algorithm • Correctness: For any N ≥ 0, it returns $3N(N+1)/2$ • Correctness: For any N ≥ 0, it returns $3N(N+1)/2$ • Correctness: For any N ≥ 0, it returns $3N(N+1)/2$ • Correctness: For any N ≥ 0, it returns $3N(N+1)/2$ • Correctness: For any N ≥ 0, it returns $3N(N+1)/2$ • Correctness: For any N ≥ 0, it returns $3N(N+1)/2$ • Correctness: For any N ≥ 0, it returns $3N(N+1)/2$ • Base: n=0, returns 0 • Inductive: From $P/(2)$ , sholds $3k(k+1)/2 + 3k(k+1)$ = ( $3k(k+1)/2 = (k+1)/(3k+6)/2 = 3(k+1)/(k+2)/2$		Fall 2013 CSE373: Data Structures & Algorithms 14
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 $3N(N+1)/2$ • Correctness: For any N $\geq 0$ , it returns $3N(N+1)/2$ • Proof: By induction on n $- P(n) = after outer for-loop executes n times, x holds3n(n+1)/2• Base: n=0, return 0- Inductive: From P(k), x holds 3k(k+1)/2 after k iterations.Next iteration adds 3(k+1), for total of 3k(k+1)/2 + 3(k+1)= (3k(k+1) + 6(k+1))/2 = (k+1)(3k+6)/2 = 3(k+1)(k+2)/2• Mow long does this pseudocode run?x := 0;for i=1 to N dofor j=1 to i dox := x + 3;return x;• Correctness: For any N \geq 0,- Assignments, additions, returns take "1 unit time"- Loops take the sum of the time for their iterations- And how many times is that$	<ul> <li>As the "size" of an algorithm's input grows (integer, length of array, size of queue, etc.): <ul> <li>How much longer does the algorithm take (time)</li> <li>How much more memory does the algorithm need (space)</li> </ul> </li> <li>Because the curves we saw are so different, often care about only "which curve we are like"</li> <li>Separate issue: Algorithm <i>correctness</i> – does it produce the right answer for all inputs</li> </ul>	<pre>• What does this pseudocode return?     x := 0;     for i=1 to N do     for j=1 to i do         x := x + 3;     return x;</pre>
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Fall 2013     CSE373: Data Structures & Algorithms     17     Fall 2013     CSE373: Data Structures & Algorithms     18	<ul> <li>What does this pseudocode return?</li> <li>x := 0; for i=1 to N do for j=1 to i do x := x + 3; return x;</li> <li>Correctness: For any N ≥ 0, it returns 3N(N+1)/2</li> <li>Proof: By induction on n <ul> <li>P(n) = after outer for-loop executes n times, x holds 3n(n+1)/2</li> <li>Base: n=0, returns 0</li> <li>Inductive: From P(k), 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)</li> </ul> </li> </ul>	<ul> <li>How long does this pseudocode run?</li> <li>x := 0; for i=1 to N do for j=1 to i do x := x + 3; return x;</li> <li>Running time: For any N ≥ 0, - Assignments, additions, returns take "1 unit time" - Loops take the sum of the time for their iterations</li> <li>So: 2 + 2*(number of times inner loop runs)</li> </ul>
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## 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;

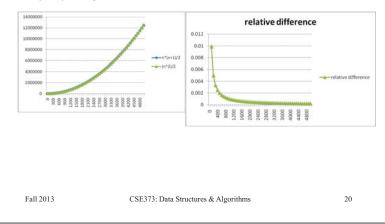
- The total number of loop iterations is N\*(N+1)/2
  - This is a very common loop structure, worth memorizing
  - Proof is by induction on N, known for centuries
  - This is proportional to  $N^2$ , and we say  $O(N^2)$ , "big-Oh of"
    - · For large enough N, the N and constant terms are irrelevant,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

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## Lower-order terms don't matter

N\*(N+1)/2 vs. just N2/2

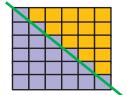


#### **Big-O: Common Names**

O(1)	constant (same as $O(k)$ for constant $k$ )	
$O(\log n)$	logarithmic	
O(n)	linear	
O(n log n)	"n log <i>n</i> "	
O(n <sup>2</sup> )	quadratic	
<i>O</i> ( <i>n</i> <sup>3</sup> )	cubic	
<i>O</i> ( <i>n</i> <sup>k</sup> )	polynomial (where is <i>k</i> is any constant)	
$O(k^n)$	exponential (where k is any constant > 1)	
Pet peeve: "exponential" does not mean "grows really fast", it means "grows at rate proportional to <i>k</i> <sup>n</sup> for some <i>k</i> >1"		
<ul> <li>A savings account accrues interest exponentially (k=1.01?)</li> </ul>		
<ul> <li>If you don't know k, you probably don't know it's exponential</li> </ul>		
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∑ i=1 i 

= N\*N/2+N/2



- Area of square: N\*N •
- Area of lower triangle of square: N\*N/2 •

Geometric interpretation

- 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)

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