

CSE 326 Lecture 2: Mathematical Background

- ◆ Today, we will review:
 - ⇒ Logs and exponents
 - ⇒ Series
 - ⇒ Recursion
 - ⇒ Big-Oh notation for analysis of algorithms
- ◆ Covered in Chapters 1 and 2 of the text

Logs and exponents

- ◆ We will be dealing mostly with binary numbers (base 2)
- ◆ **Definition:** $\log_X B = A$ means $X^A = B$
- ◆ Any base is equivalent to base 2 within a constant factor:
$$\log_x B = \frac{\log_2 B}{\log_2 X}$$
- ◆ Why?

Logs and exponents

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

- ◆ Why?
- ◆ Because: Let $R = \log_2 B$, $S = \log_2 X$, and $T = \log_x B$,
 $\Leftrightarrow 2^R = B$, $2^S = X$, and $X^T = B$
 Then, $2^R = B = X^T = 2^{ST}$ i.e. $R = ST$ and therefore, $T = R/S$.

Properties of logs



- ◆ We will assume logs to base 2 unless specified otherwise
- ◆ $\log AB = ?$
- ◆ $\log A/B = ?$
- ◆ $\log A^B = ?$

Properties of logs

- ◆ We will assume logs to base 2 unless specified otherwise
- ◆ $\log AB = \log A + \log B$ (note: $\log AB \neq \log A \cdot \log B$)
- ◆ $\log A/B = \log A - \log B$ (note: $\log A/B \neq \log A / \log B$)
- ◆ $\log A^B = B \log A$ (note: $\log A^B \neq (\log A)^B = \log^B A$)

More on logs



- ◆ $\log \log X < \log X < X$ for all $X > 1$
 - ⇨ $\log \log X = Y$ means $2^{2^Y} = X$
 - ⇨ $\log X$ grows slower than X ; called a “sub-linear” function
- ◆ $\log 1 = 0, \log 2 = 1, \log 1024 = 10$

Arithmetic Series

- ♦ $S(N) = 1 + 2 + \dots + N = \sum_{i=1}^N i = ?$
- ♦ Note: $S(1) = 1, S(2) = 3, S(3) = 6, S(4) = 10, \dots$
 - ⇨ Is there a pattern?

Arithmetic Series

- ♦ $S(N) = 1 + 2 + \dots + N = \sum_{i=1}^N i = ?$
- ♦ Is $S(N) = N(N+1)/2$?
 - ⇨ Prove by induction (base case: $N = 1, S(N) = 1(2)/2 = 1$)
 - ⇨ Assume true for $N = k: S(k) = k(k+1)/2$
 - ⇨ Suppose $N = k+1$.
 - ⇨ $S(k+1) = 1 + 2 + \dots + k + (k+1) = S(k) + (k+1)$
 $= k(k+1)/2 + (k+1) = (k+1)(k/2 + 1) =$
 $(k+1)(k+2)/2. \checkmark$

- ♦
$$\sum_{i=1}^N i = \frac{N(N+1)}{2}$$

Arithmetic Series

♦ $S(N) = 1 + 2 + \dots + N = \sum_{i=1}^N i = ?$

♦ $\sum_{i=1}^N i = \frac{N(N+1)}{2}$ Why is this formula useful?

Yes, why indeed?
(yawn)



A Sneak Preview of Algorithm Analysis

- ♦ Consider the following program segment:
- ```
for (i = 1; i <= N; i++)
 for (j = 1; j <= i; j++)
 <print "Hey, wassup?"> // pseudocode for Java/C++ print
```
- ♦ How many times is the “print” statement executed?  
⇒ Or, How many wassup’s will you see?

## A Sneak Preview of Algorithm Analysis

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- ◆ The program segment being analyzed:

```
for (i = 1; i <= N; i++)
 for (j = 1; j <= i; j++)
 <print "Hey, wassup?">
```

- ◆ Inner loop executes “print”  $i$  times in the  $i^{\text{th}}$  iteration
- ◆ There are  $N$  iterations in the outer loop ( $i$  goes from 1 to  $N$ )
- ◆ Total number of times “print” is executed =  $\sum_{i=1}^N i = \frac{N(N+1)}{2}$

## A Sneak Preview of Algorithm Analysis

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- ◆ The program segment being analyzed:

```
for (i = 1; i <= N; i++)
 for (j = 1; j <= i; j++)
 <print "Hey, wassup?">
```

- ◆ Total number of times “print” is executed =  $\sum_{i=1}^N i = \frac{N(N+1)}{2}$
- ◆ Running time of the program is proportional to  $N(N+1)/2$  for all  $N$ .



Congrats - You just analyzed your first program!

## Other Important Series (know them well!)

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- ◆ Sum of squares:  $\sum_{i=1}^N i^2 = \frac{N(N+1)(2N+1)}{6} \approx \frac{N^3}{3}$  for large N
- ◆ Sum of exponents:  $\sum_{i=1}^N i^k \approx \frac{N^{k+1}}{|k+1|}$  for large N and  $k \neq -1$
- ◆ Harmonic series ( $k = -1$ ):  $\sum_{i=1}^N \frac{1}{i} \approx \log_e N$  for large N  
     $\Leftrightarrow \log_e N$  (or  $\ln N$ ) is the natural log of N
- ◆ Geometric series:  $\sum_{i=0}^N A^i = \frac{A^{N+1} - 1}{A - 1}$

## Recursion

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- ◆ A function that calls itself is said to be recursive  
     $\Leftrightarrow$  E.g. Recursive procedure “sum” in the first lecture
- ◆ Recursion may be a natural way to program certain functions that involve repetitive calculations (as compared to iteration by “for” or “while” loops)
- ◆ Classic example: Fibonacci numbers  $F_n$

1, 1, 2, 3, 5, 8, 13, 21, 34, ... ○○○

- $\Leftrightarrow$  First two are:  $F_0 = F_1 = 1$
- $\Leftrightarrow$  Rest are sum of preceding two
- $\Leftrightarrow F_n = F_{n-1} + F_{n-2}$  ( $n > 1$ )



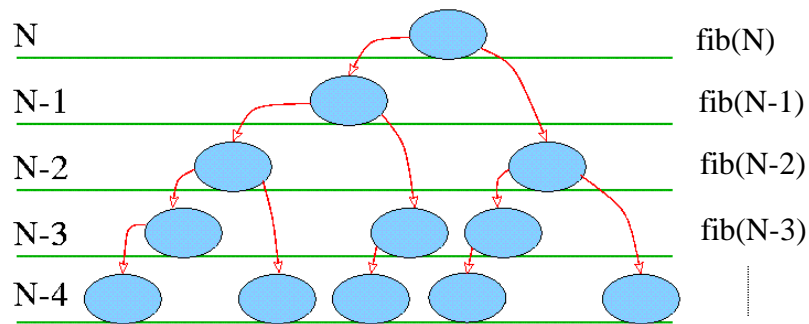
Leonardo Pisano  
Fibonacci (1170-1250)

## Recursive Procedure for Fibonacci Numbers

- ◆ 

```
public static int fib(int i) {
 if (i < 0) return 0; //invalid input
 if (i == 0 || i == 1) return 1; //base cases
 else return fib(i-1)+fib(i-2);
}
```
- ◆ Easy to write: looks like the definition of  $F_n$
- ◆ But, can you spot a big problem?

## Recursive Calls of Fibonacci Procedure



- ◆ Wastes precious time by re-computing  $\text{fib}(N-i)$  multiple times, for  $i = 2, 3, 4$ , etc.!



## Iterative Procedure for Fibonacci Numbers

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- ◆ 

```
public static int fib_iter(int i) {
 int fib0 = 1, fib1 = 1, fibj = 1;
 if (i < 0) return 0; //invalid input
 for (int j = 2; j <= i; j++) { //calculate all fib nos. up to i
 fibj = fib0 + fib1;
 fib0 = fib1;
 fib1 = fibj;
 }
 return fibj;
}
```
- ◆ More variables and more bookkeeping but avoids repetitive calculations and saves time.
  - ⇒ How much time is saved over the recursive procedure?
  - ⇒ Answer in next class...

## Recursion Summary

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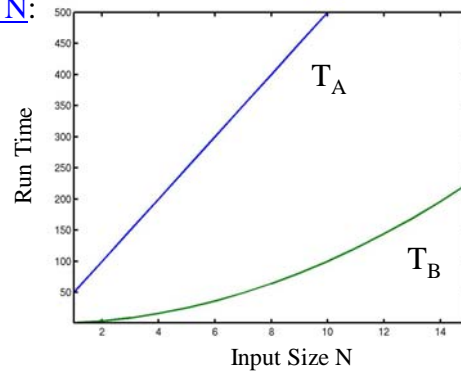
- ◆ Recursion may simplify programming, but beware of generating large numbers of calls
  - ⇒ Function calls can be expensive in terms of time and space
  - ⇒ There is a hidden space cost associated with the system's stack
- ◆ Be sure to get the base case(s) correct!
- ◆ Each step must get you closer to the base case
- ◆ You may use induction to prove your program is correct
  - ⇒ See example in previous lecture

## Motivation for Big-Oh Notation

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- ◆ Suppose you are given two algorithms A and B for solving a problem
- ◆ Here is the *running time*  $T_A(N)$  and  $T_B(N)$  of A and B as a function of input size N:

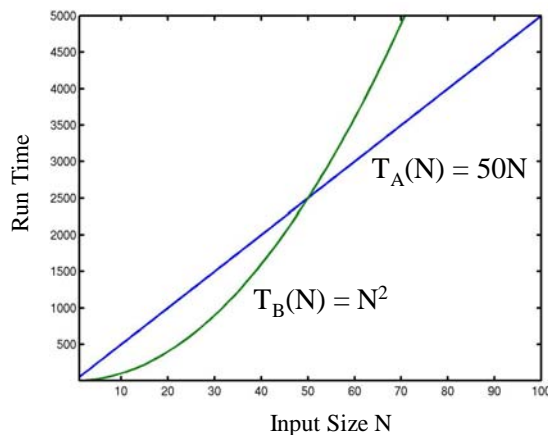
Which algorithm would you choose?



## Motivation for Big-Oh Notation (cont.)

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



Now which algorithm would you choose?

## Motivation for Big-Oh: Asymptotic Behavior

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- ◆ In general, what really matters is the “asymptotic” performance as  $N \rightarrow \infty$ , **regardless of what happens for small input sizes  $N$ .**
- ◆ Performance for small input sizes may matter in practice, if you are sure that small  $N$  will be common
  - ⇒ This is usually not the case for most applications
- ◆ Given functions  $T_1(N)$  and  $T_2(N)$  that define the running times of two algorithms, **we need a way to decide which one is better (i.e. asymptotically smaller)**
  - ⇒ Big-Oh notation

## Big-Oh Notation

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- ◆  $T(N) = O(f(N))$  if there are **positive constants  $c$  and  $n_0$**  such that  $T(N) \leq cf(N)$  for  $N \geq n_0$ .
- ◆ We say that  $T(N)$  is “big-oh” of  $f(N)$  (or, order of  $f(N)$ )
- ◆ Example 1: Suppose  $T(N) = 50N$ . Then,  $T(N) = O(N)$ 
  - ⇒ **Why?**

## Big-Oh Example 2

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- ◆  $T(N) = O(f(N))$  if there are positive constants  $c$  and  $n_0$  such that  $T(N) \leq cf(N)$  for  $N \geq n_0$ .
- ◆ We say that  $T(N)$  is “big-oh” of  $f(N)$  (or, order of  $f(N)$ )
- ◆ Example 1: Suppose  $T(N) = 50N$ . Then,  $T(N) = O(N)$ 
  - ⇒ Choose  $c = 50$  and  $n_0 = 1$  (many other choices work too!)
- ◆ Example 2: Suppose  $T(N) = 50N+11$ . Then,  $T(N) = O(N)$ 
  - ⇒ Why?

## Big-Oh Example 3

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- ◆  $T(N) = O(f(N))$  if there are positive constants  $c$  and  $n_0$  such that  $T(N) \leq cf(N)$  for  $N \geq n_0$ .
- ◆ Example 2: Suppose  $T(N) = 50N+11$ . Then,  $T(N) = O(N)$ 
  - ⇒ Why?
  - ⇒  $T(N) = 50N+11 \leq 50N+11N = 61N$  for  $N \geq 1$ .
  - ⇒ So,  $c = 61$  and  $n_0 = 1$  works
- ◆ Example 3:  $T_A(N) = N+1$ ,  $T_B(N) = N^2$ .  
Show that  $T_A(N) = O(T_B(N))$ : what works for  $c$  and  $n_0$ ?

### Big-Oh Example 3

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♦  $T(N) = O(f(N))$  if there are positive constants  $c$  and  $n_0$  such that  $T(N) \leq cf(N)$  for  $N \geq n_0$ .

♦ Example 3:  $T_A(N) = N+1$ ,  $T_B(N) = N^2$ .

$T_A(N) = O(T_B(N))$ : choose  $c = 1$  and  $n_0 = 2$  or  
choose  $c = 2$  and  $n_0 = 1$  or  
choose  $c = 326$  and  $n_0 = 322$  etc.  
but not:  $c = 0.5$  and  $n_0 = 2$  or  
 $c = 1$  and  $n_0 = 1$

### Big-Oh Example 4

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♦  $T(N) = O(f(N))$  if there are positive constants  $c$  and  $n_0$  such that  $T(N) \leq cf(N)$  for  $N \geq n_0$ .

♦ Example 4:  $T(N) = \frac{N(N+1)}{2}$

Is  $T(N) = O(N)$ ?  $O(N^2)$ ?  $O(N^3)$ ?

## Big-Oh Example 4

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- ◆  $T(N) = O(f(N))$  if there are positive constants  $c$  and  $n_0$  such that  $T(N) \leq cf(N)$  for  $N \geq n_0$ .

- ◆ Example 4:  $T(N) = \frac{N(N+1)}{2}$

$$T(N) = O(N^2)$$

$$T(N) = \frac{N(N+1)}{2} = \frac{N^2}{2} + \frac{N}{2} \leq N^2 + N \leq 2N^2 \text{ for } N \geq 0$$

(so, choose  $c = 2$  and  $n_0 = 1$ )

## Example of Application to Run Time Analysis

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- ◆ Recall: Our dumb printing program segment:

```
for (i = 1; i <= N; i++)
 for (j = 1; j <= i; j++)
 <print "Hey, wassup?">
```

- ◆ Running time is proportional to number of times print statement is executed =

$$\sum_{i=1}^N i = \frac{N(N+1)}{2} = O(N^2)$$

- ◆ Runs in "Quadratic time"

## Common functions we will encounter...

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| Name        | Big-Oh           |
|-------------|------------------|
| Constant    | $O(1)$           |
| Log log     | $O(\log \log N)$ |
| Logarithmic | $O(\log N)$      |
| Log squared | $O((\log N)^2)$  |
| Linear      | $O(N)$           |
| $N \log N$  | $O(N \log N)$    |
| Quadratic   | $O(N^2)$         |
| Cubic       | $O(N^3)$         |
| Exponential | $O(2^N)$         |

Increasing cost ↓

} Polynomial time

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## Next Lecture: Using Big-Oh for Algorithm Analysis

To do:

Finish reading Chapters 1 and 2

Start (and Finish!) Homework #1