



CSE332: Data Abstractions Lecture 2: Math Review; Algorithm Analysis

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Announcements

Project 1 posted

- Section materials on Eclipse will be very useful if you have never used it
- (Could also start in a different environment if necessary)
- Section materials on generics will be very useful for Phase B

Homework 1 posted

Feedback on typos is welcome

- Won't announce every minor fix to posted materials

Section tomorrow

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ta Abstractions

Today

- · Finish discussing queues
- · Review math essential to algorithm analysis
 - Proof by induction
 - Powers of 2
 - Exponents and logarithms
- Begin analyzing algorithms
 - Using asymptotic analysis (continue next time)

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Mathematical induction

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

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

To prove P(n) for all integers $n \ge c$, it suffices to prove

- 1. P(c) 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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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 $n \ge 1$

Proof: By induction on n

Base case: n=1. Sum of first 1 power of 2 is 2⁰, which equals 1.
 And for n=1, 2ⁿ-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 $(2^{k}-1) + 2^{(k+1)-1} = (2^{k}-1) + 2^{k} = 2^{k+1}-1$

Powers of 2

- A bit is 0 or 1
- A sequence of *n* bits can represent 2ⁿ distinct things
 - For example, the numbers 0 through 2ⁿ-1
- 2¹⁰ is 1024 ("about a thousand", kilo in CSE speak)
- 220 is "about a million", mega in CSE speak
- 230 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

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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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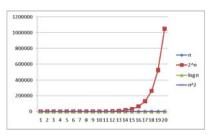
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Logarithms and Exponents

- Since so much is binary in CS log almost always means log₂
- Definition: $log_2 x = y if x = 2^y$
- So, log₂ 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!



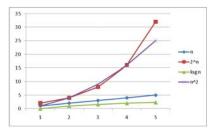
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Logarithms and Exponents

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- Definition: $log_2 \mathbf{x} = \mathbf{y}$ if $\mathbf{x} = 2^{\mathbf{y}}$
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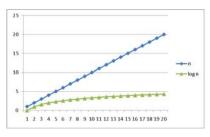
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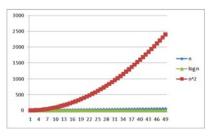
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Properties of logarithms

- 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 fast
- (log x) (log x) is written log²x
 It is greater than log x for all x > 2

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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,

```
log_B x = (log_A x) / (log_A B)
```

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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

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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 ≥ 0, it returns...

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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 ≥ 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

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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;
```

- Running time: For any N ≥ 0,
 - Assignments, additions, returns take "1 unit time"
 - Loops take the sum of the time for their iterations
- So: 2 + 2*(number of times inner loop runs)
 - And how many times is that...

Example

· How long does this pseudocode run?

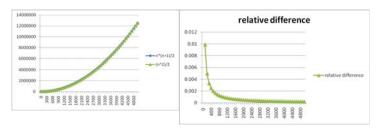
```
x := 0;
for i=1 to N do
   for j=1 to i do
    x := x + 3;
return x;
```

- 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 N2, and we say O(N2), "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 N2/2

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Lower-order terms don't matter

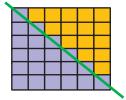
N*(N+1)/2 vs. just $N^2/2$



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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)

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Recurrence Equations

- For running time, what the loops did was irrelevant, it was how many times they executed.
- Running time as a function of input size n (here loop bound):
 T(n) = n + T(n-1)
 (and T(0) = 2ish, but usually implicit that T(0) is some constant)

Any algorithm with running time described by this formula is $O(n^2)$

- "Big-Oh" notation also ignores the constant factor on the high-order term, so $3N^2$ and $17N^2$ and (1/1000) N^2 are all $O(N^2)$
 - As N grows large enough, no smaller term matters
 - Next time: Many more examples + formal definitions

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 is k 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 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

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