



Lecture 2

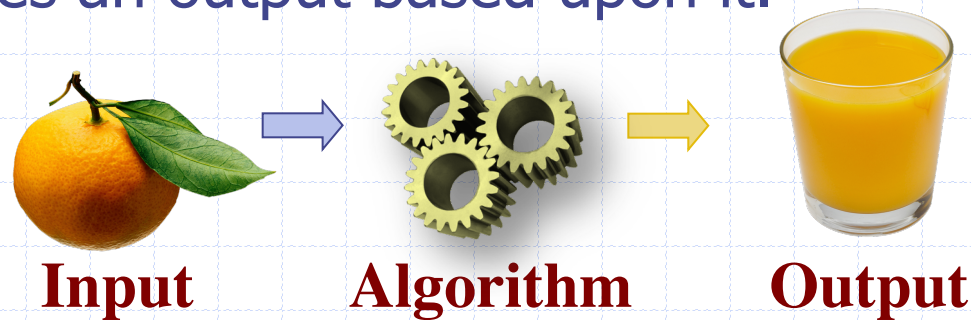
Math overview

CS 161 Design and Analysis of Algorithms

Ioannis Panageas

Algorithms and Data Structures

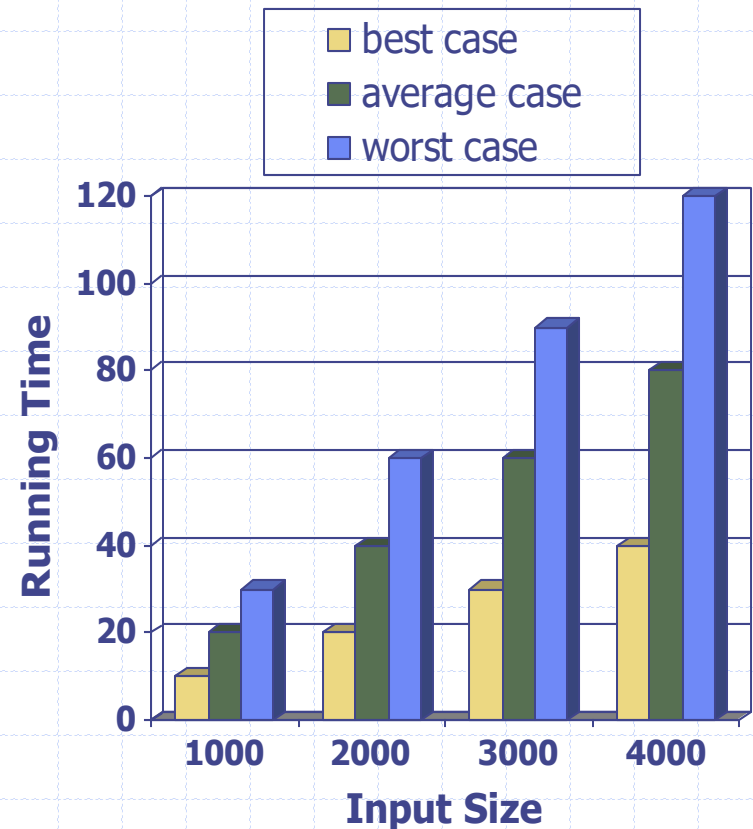
- An **algorithm** is a step-by-step procedure for performing some task in a finite amount of time.
 - Typically, an algorithm takes input data and produces an output based upon it.



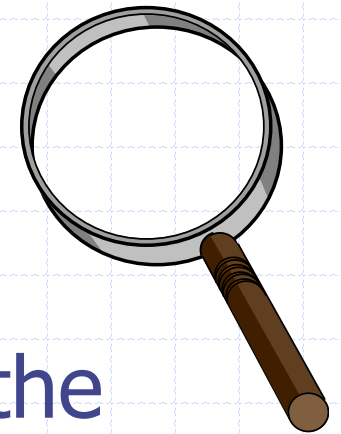
- A **data structure** is a systematic way of organizing and accessing data.

Running Time

- Most algorithms transform input objects into output objects.
- The running time of an algorithm typically grows with the input size.
- Average case time is often difficult to determine.
- We focus primarily on the **worst case running time**.
 - Easier to analyze
 - Crucial to applications such as games, finance and robotics



Theoretical Analysis



- Uses a high-level description of the algorithm instead of an implementation
- Characterizes running time as a function of the input size, n
- Takes into account all possible inputs
- Allows us to evaluate the speed of an algorithm independent of the hardware/software environment

Pseudocode

- High-level description of an algorithm
- More structured than English prose
- Less detailed than a program
- Preferred notation for describing algorithms
- Hides program design issues

Pseudocode Details

□ Control flow

- **if ... then ... [else ...]**
- **while ... do ...**
- **repeat ... until ...**
- **for ... do ...**
- Indentation replaces braces

□ Method declaration

Algorithm *method* (*arg* [, *arg...*])

Input ...

Output ...

□ Method call

method (*arg* [, *arg...*])

□ Return value

return *expression*

□ Expressions:

← Assignment

= Equality testing

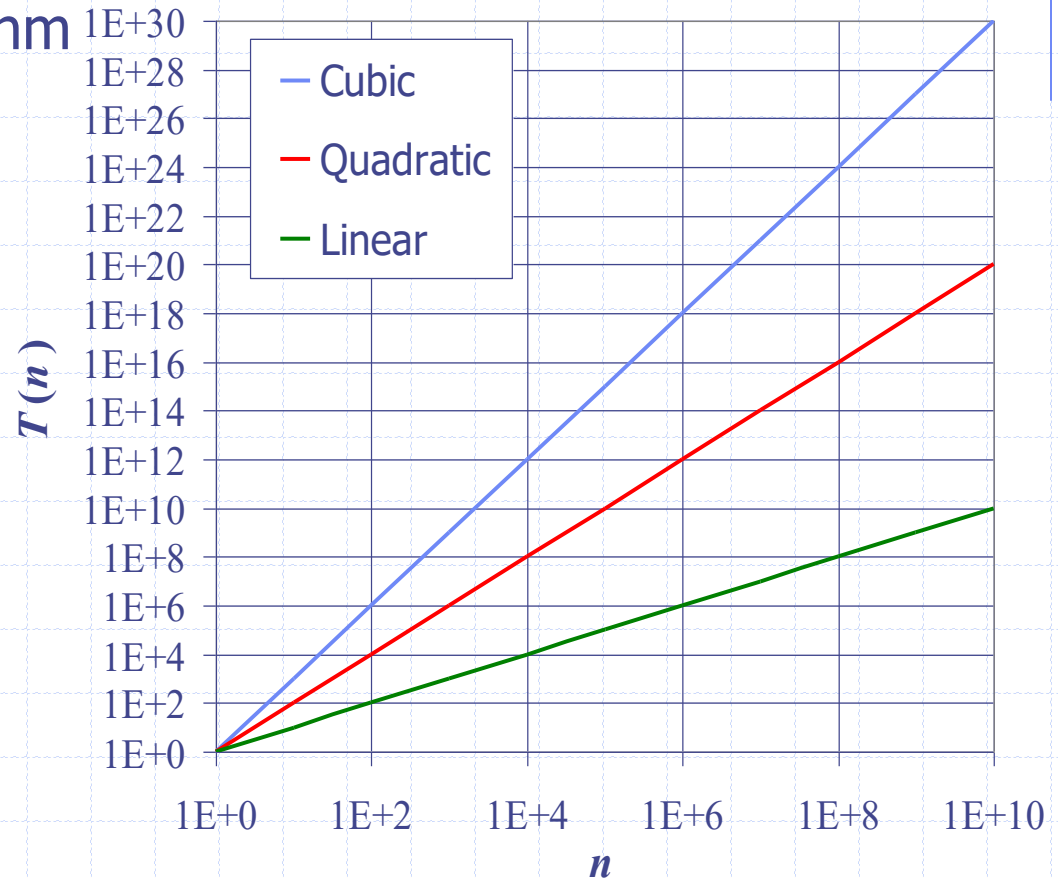
n^2 Superscripts and other mathematical formatting allowed

Seven Important Functions

□ Seven functions that often appear in algorithm analysis:

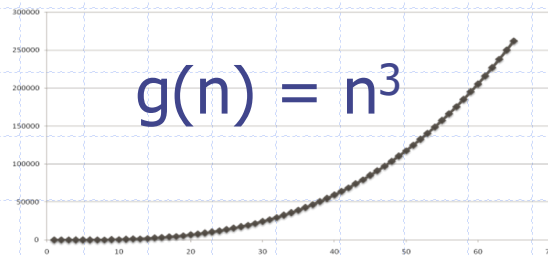
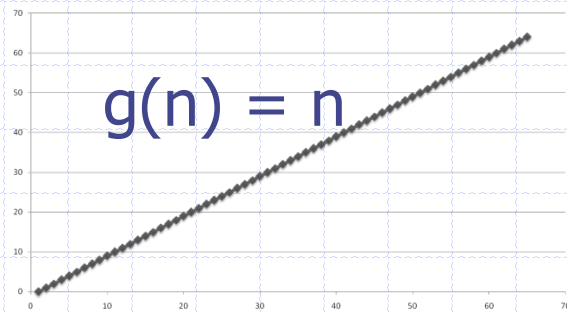
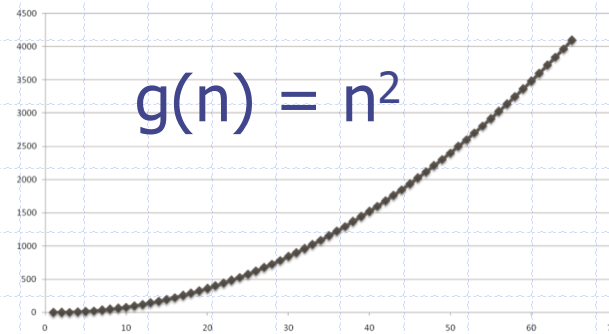
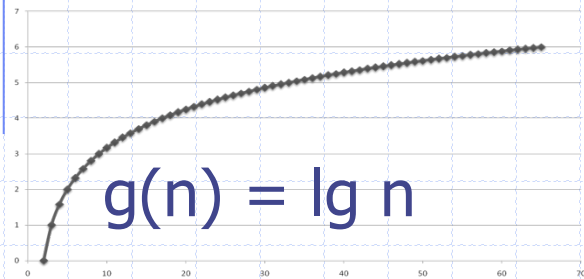
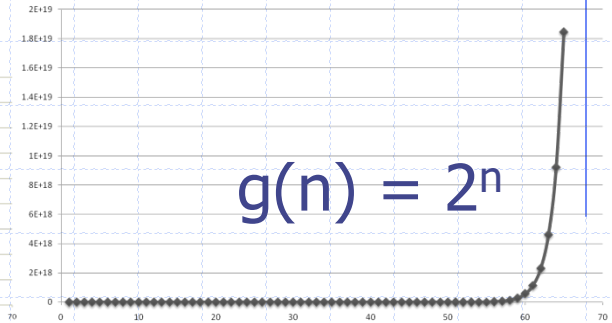
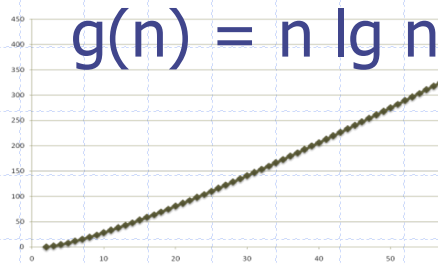
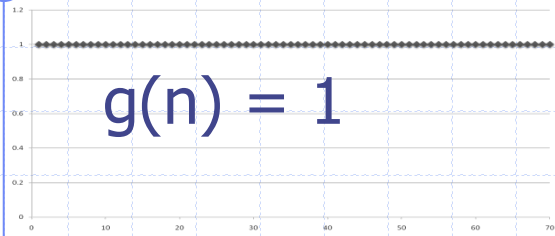
- Constant ≈ 1
- Logarithmic $\approx \log n$
- Linear $\approx n$
- N-Log-N $\approx n \log n$
- Quadratic $\approx n^2$
- Cubic $\approx n^3$
- Exponential $\approx 2^n$

□ In a log-log chart, the slope of the line corresponds to the growth rate



Functions Graphed Using “Normal” Scale

Slide by Matt Stallmann
included with permission.



Primitive Operations



- Basic computations performed by an algorithm
 - Identifiable in pseudocode
 - Largely independent from the programming language
 - Exact definition not important
- Examples:
 - Evaluating an expression
 - Assigning a value to a variable
 - Indexing into an array
 - Calling a method

Counting Primitive Operations

- Example: By inspecting the pseudocode, we can determine the maximum number of primitive operations executed by an algorithm, as a function of the input size

Algorithm arrayMax(A, n):

Input: An array A storing $n \geq 1$ integers.

Output: The maximum element in A .

$currentMax \leftarrow A[0]$

for $i \leftarrow 1$ **to** $n - 1$ **do**

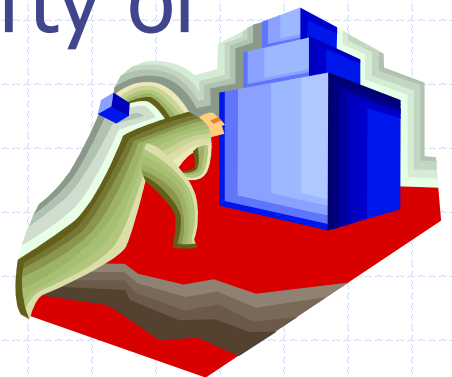
if $currentMax < A[i]$ **then**

$currentMax \leftarrow A[i]$

return $currentMax$

Growth Rate of Running Time

- Changing the hardware/ software environment
 - Affects $T(n)$ by a constant factor, but
 - Does not alter the growth rate of $T(n)$
- The linear growth rate of the running time $T(n)$ is an intrinsic property of algorithm **arrayMax**



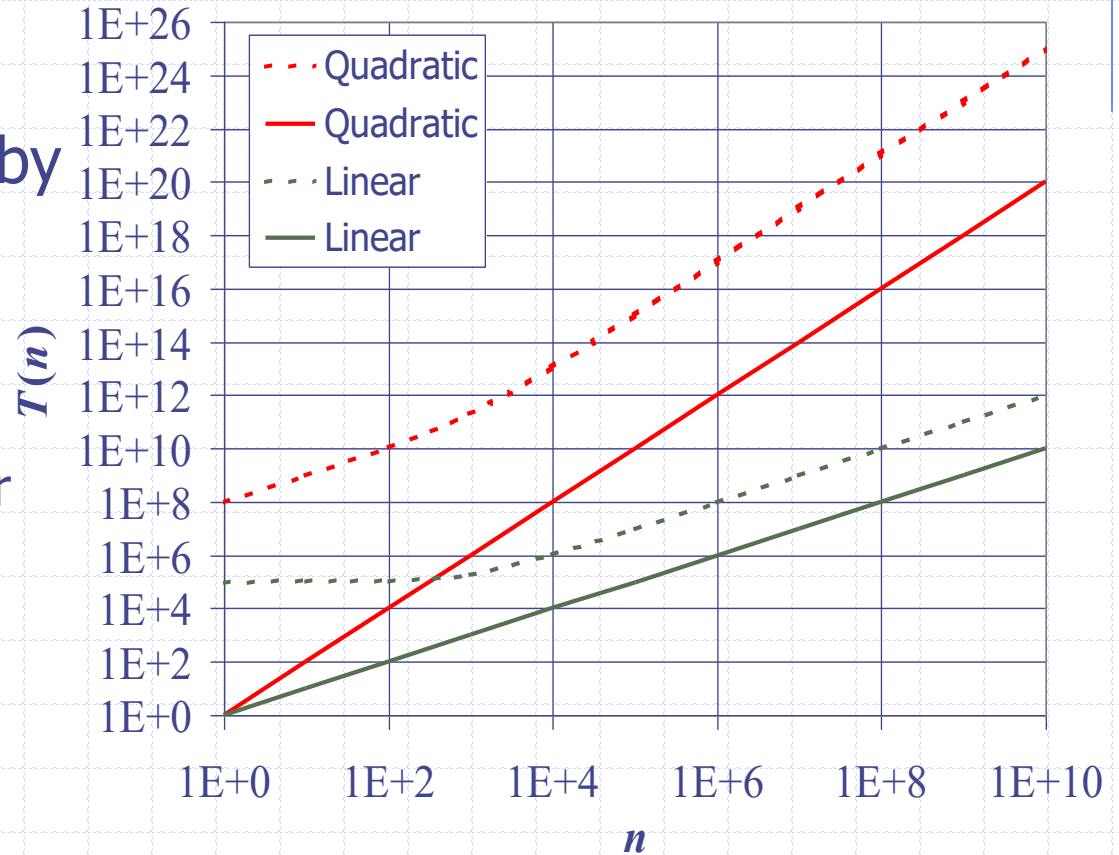
Why Growth Rate Matters

if runtime is...	time for $n + 1$	time for $2n$	time for $4n$
$c \lg n$	$c \lg (n + 1)$	$c (\lg n + 1)$	$c(\lg n + 2)$
cn	$c(n + 1)$	$2cn$	$4cn$
$cn \lg n$	$\sim cn \lg n + cn$	$2cn \lg n + 2cn$	$4cn \lg n + 4cn$
cn^2	$\sim cn^2 + 2cn$	$4cn^2$	$16cn^2$
cn^3	$\sim cn^3 + 3cn^2$	$8cn^3$	$64cn^3$
$c2^n$	$c2^{n+1}$	$c2^{2n}$	$c2^{4n}$

runtime
quadruples
when
problem
size doubles

Constant Factors

- The growth rate is minimally affected by
 - constant factors or
 - lower-order terms
- Examples
 - $10^2n + 10^5$ is a linear function
 - $10^5n^2 + 10^8n$ is a quadratic function



Asymptotic Algorithm Analysis

- The asymptotic analysis of an algorithm determines the running time in big-Oh notation
- To perform the asymptotic analysis
 - We find the worst-case number of primitive operations executed as a function of the input size
 - We express this function with big-Oh notation
- Example:
 - We say that algorithm `arrayMax` “runs in $O(n)$ time”
- Since constant factors and lower-order terms are eventually dropped anyhow, we can disregard them when counting primitive operations

Big-Oh Rules



- If $f(n)$ is a polynomial of degree d , then $f(n)$ is $O(n^d)$, i.e.,
 1. Drop lower-order terms
 2. Drop constant factors
- Use the smallest possible class of functions
 - Say “ $2n$ is $O(n)$ ” instead of “ $2n$ is $O(n^2)$ ”
- Use the simplest expression of the class
 - Say “ $3n + 5$ is $O(n)$ ” instead of “ $3n + 5$ is $O(3n)$ ”

Analyzing Recursive Algorithms

- Use a function, $T(n)$, to derive a **recurrence relation** that characterizes the running time of the algorithm in terms of smaller values of n .

Algorithm recursiveMax(A, n):

Input: An array A storing $n \geq 1$ integers.

Output: The maximum element in A .

if $n = 1$ **then**

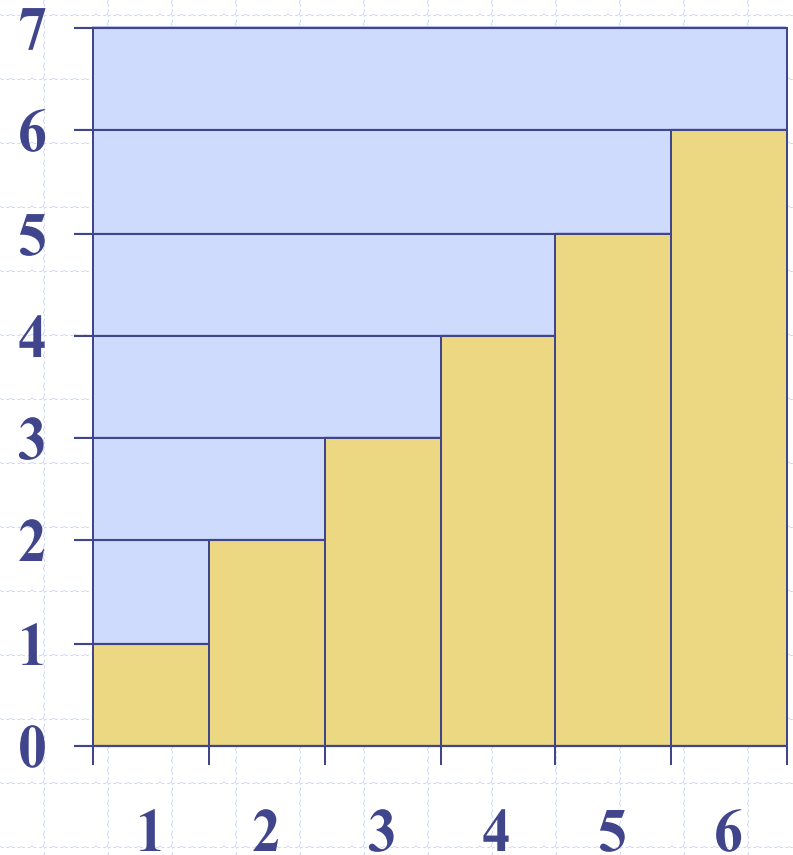
return $A[0]$

return $\max\{\text{recursiveMax}(A, n - 1), A[n - 1]\}$

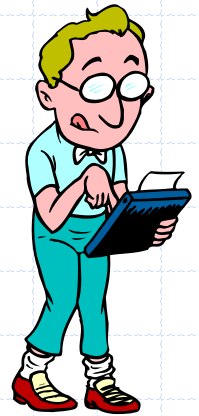
$$T(n) = \begin{cases} 3 & \text{if } n = 1 \\ T(n - 1) + 7 & \text{otherwise,} \end{cases}$$

Arithmetic Progression

- Assume the running time of **P** is $O(1 + 2 + \dots + n)$
- The sum of the first n integers is $n(n + 1) / 2$
 - There is a simple visual proof of this fact
- Thus, algorithm **P** runs in $O(n^2)$ time



Math you need to Review



- Summations
- Powers
- Logarithms
- Proof techniques
- Basic probability
- Properties of powers:
 - $a^{(b+c)} = a^b a^c$
 - $a^{bc} = (a^b)^c$
 - $a^b / a^c = a^{(b-c)}$
 - $b = a^{\log_a b}$
 - $b^c = a^{c \cdot \log_a b}$
- Properties of logarithms:
 - $\log_b(xy) = \log_b x + \log_b y$
 - $\log_b(x/y) = \log_b x - \log_b y$
 - $\log_b x^a = a \log_b x$
 - $\log_b a = \log_x a / \log_x b$

O (“big oh”)

O (“big oh”)

Informally:

O (“big oh”)

Informally:

- ▶ $g \in O(f)$ if g is bounded above by a constant multiple of f (for sufficiently large values of n).

O (“big oh”)

Informally:

- ▶ $g \in O(f)$ if g is bounded above by a constant multiple of f (for sufficiently large values of n).
- ▶ $g \in O(f)$ if “ g grows no faster than (a constant multiple of) f .”

O (“big oh”)

Informally:

- ▶ $g \in O(f)$ if g is bounded above by a constant multiple of f (for sufficiently large values of n).
- ▶ $g \in O(f)$ if “ g grows no faster than (a constant multiple of) f .”
- ▶ $g \in O(f)$ if the ratio g/f is bounded above by a constant (for sufficiently values of n).

O (“big oh”)

O (“big oh”)

Formally:

O (“big oh”)

Formally:

- ▶ $g \in O(f)$ if and only if:

$$\exists C > 0 \exists n_0 > 0 \forall n > n_0 g(n) \leq C \cdot f(n).$$

O (“big oh”)

Formally:

- ▶ $g \in O(f)$ if and only if:

$$\exists C > 0 \exists n_0 > 0 \forall n > n_0 g(n) \leq C \cdot f(n).$$

- ▶ Equivalently: $g \in O(f)$ if and only if:

$$\exists C > 0 \exists n_0 > 0 \forall n > n_0 \frac{g(n)}{f(n)} \leq C.$$

O (“big oh”)

Formally:

- ▶ $g \in O(f)$ if and only if:

$$\exists C > 0 \exists n_0 > 0 \forall n > n_0 g(n) \leq C \cdot f(n).$$

- ▶ Equivalently: $g \in O(f)$ if and only if:

$$\exists C > 0 \exists n_0 > 0 \forall n > n_0 \frac{g(n)}{f(n)} \leq C.$$

- ▶ Sometimes we write: $g = O(f)$ rather than $g \in O(f)$

Examples of O -notation:

Example 1: $f(n) = n$, $g(n) = 1000n$: $g \in O(f)$.

Examples of O -notation:

Example 1: $f(n) = n$, $g(n) = 1000n$: $g \in O(f)$.

Proof:

Examples of O -notation:

Example 1: $f(n) = n$, $g(n) = 1000n$: $g \in O(f)$.

Proof: Let $C = 1000$. Then $g(n) \leq C \cdot f(n)$ for all n .

Examples of O -notation:

Examples of O -notation:

Example 2: $f(n) = n^2$, $g(n) = n^{3/2}$: $g \in O(f)$.

Examples of O -notation:

Example 2: $f(n) = n^2$, $g(n) = n^{3/2}$: $g \in O(f)$.

Proof:

Examples of O -notation:

Example 2: $f(n) = n^2$, $g(n) = n^{3/2}$: $g \in O(f)$.

Proof: $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{g(n)}{f(n)} = 0$.

Examples of O -notation:

Example 2: $f(n) = n^2$, $g(n) = n^{3/2}$: $g \in O(f)$.

Proof: $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{g(n)}{f(n)} = 0$.

Hence for any $C > 0$ the ratio is less than C as long as n is sufficiently large.

Examples of O -notation:

Example 2: $f(n) = n^2$, $g(n) = n^{3/2}$: $g \in O(f)$.

Proof: $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{g(n)}{f(n)} = 0$.

Hence for any $C > 0$ the ratio is less than C as long as n is sufficiently large. (Of course, how large n must be to be “sufficiently large” depends on C).

Examples of O -notation:

Example 2: $f(n) = n^2$, $g(n) = n^{3/2}$: $g \in O(f)$.

Proof: $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{g(n)}{f(n)} = 0$.

Hence for any $C > 0$ the ratio is less than C as long as n is sufficiently large. (Of course, how large n must be to be “sufficiently large” depends on C).

Alternate Proof:

Examples of O -notation:

Example 2: $f(n) = n^2$, $g(n) = n^{3/2}$: $g \in O(f)$.

Proof: $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{g(n)}{f(n)} = 0$.

Hence for any $C > 0$ the ratio is less than C as long as n is sufficiently large. (Of course, how large n must be to be “sufficiently large” depends on C).

Alternate Proof: If $n \geq 1$, $n^{1/2} \geq 1$, so $n^{3/2} \leq n^2$.

Examples of O -notation:

Example 2: $f(n) = n^2$, $g(n) = n^{3/2}$: $g \in O(f)$.

Proof: $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{g(n)}{f(n)} = 0$.

Hence for any $C > 0$ the ratio is less than C as long as n is sufficiently large. (Of course, how large n must be to be “sufficiently large” depends on C).

Alternate Proof: If $n \geq 1$, $n^{1/2} \geq 1$, so $n^{3/2} \leq n^2$.

Hence we can choose $C = 1$ and $n_0 = 1$.

Examples of O -notation:

Examples of O -notation:

Example 3: $f(n) = n^3$, $g(n) = n^4$: $g \notin O(f)$.

Examples of O -notation:

Example 3: $f(n) = n^3$, $g(n) = n^4$: $g \notin O(f)$.

Proof:

Examples of O -notation:

Example 3: $f(n) = n^3$, $g(n) = n^4$: $g \notin O(f)$.

Proof: $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{g(n)}{f(n)} = \infty$.

Examples of O -notation:

Example 3: $f(n) = n^3$, $g(n) = n^4$: $g \notin O(f)$.

Proof: $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{g(n)}{f(n)} = \infty$.

Hence there is no $C > 0$ such that $g(n) \leq C \cdot f(n)$ for sufficiently large n .

Examples of O -notation:

Examples of O -notation:

Example 4: $f(n) = n^2$, $g(n) = 5n^2 + 23n + 2$: $g \in O(f)$.

Examples of O -notation:

Example 4: $f(n) = n^2$, $g(n) = 5n^2 + 23n + 2$: $g \in O(f)$.

Proof:

Examples of O -notation:

Example 4: $f(n) = n^2$, $g(n) = 5n^2 + 23n + 2$: $g \in O(f)$.

Proof: If $n \geq 1$, then $n \leq n^2$ and $1 \leq n^2$.

Examples of O -notation:

Example 4: $f(n) = n^2$, $g(n) = 5n^2 + 23n + 2$: $g \in O(f)$.

Proof: If $n \geq 1$, then $n \leq n^2$ and $1 \leq n^2$. Hence:

Examples of O -notation:

Example 4: $f(n) = n^2$, $g(n) = 5n^2 + 23n + 2$: $g \in O(f)$.

Proof: If $n \geq 1$, then $n \leq n^2$ and $1 \leq n^2$. Hence:

$$g(n) = 5n^2 + 23n + 2$$

Examples of O -notation:

Example 4: $f(n) = n^2$, $g(n) = 5n^2 + 23n + 2$: $g \in O(f)$.

Proof: If $n \geq 1$, then $n \leq n^2$ and $1 \leq n^2$. Hence:

$$\begin{aligned}g(n) &= 5n^2 + 23n + 2 \\ &\leq 5n^2 + 23n^2 + 2n^2\end{aligned}$$

Examples of O -notation:

Example 4: $f(n) = n^2$, $g(n) = 5n^2 + 23n + 2$: $g \in O(f)$.

Proof: If $n \geq 1$, then $n \leq n^2$ and $1 \leq n^2$. Hence:

$$\begin{aligned}g(n) &= 5n^2 + 23n + 2 \\ &\leq 5n^2 + 23n^2 + 2n^2 \\ &\leq 30n^2\end{aligned}$$

Examples of O -notation:

Example 4: $f(n) = n^2$, $g(n) = 5n^2 + 23n + 2$: $g \in O(f)$.

Proof: If $n \geq 1$, then $n \leq n^2$ and $1 \leq n^2$. Hence:

$$\begin{aligned}g(n) &= 5n^2 + 23n + 2 \\ &\leq 5n^2 + 23n^2 + 2n^2 \\ &\leq 30n^2 \\ &= 30f(n)\end{aligned}$$

Examples of O -notation:

Example 4: $f(n) = n^2$, $g(n) = 5n^2 + 23n + 2$: $g \in O(f)$.

Proof: If $n \geq 1$, then $n \leq n^2$ and $1 \leq n^2$. Hence:

$$\begin{aligned}g(n) &= 5n^2 + 23n + 2 \\ &\leq 5n^2 + 23n^2 + 2n^2 \\ &\leq 30n^2 \\ &= 30f(n)\end{aligned}$$

So we can take $C = 30$, $n_0 = 1$.

More asymptotic notation:

o (“little oh”), Ω (“big Omega”)

More asymptotic notation:

o (“little oh”), Ω (“big Omega”)

- ▶ o (“little oh”):

More asymptotic notation:

o (“little oh”), Ω (“big Omega”)

▶ o (“little oh”):

$$g \in o(f) \quad \text{if and only if} \quad \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{g(n)}{f(n)} = 0.$$

More asymptotic notation:

o (“little oh”), Ω (“big Omega”)

▶ o (“little oh”):

$$g \in o(f) \quad \text{if and only if} \quad \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{g(n)}{f(n)} = 0.$$

▶ Ω (“big Omega”) (or just “Omega”)

More asymptotic notation:

o (“little oh”), Ω (“big Omega”)

▶ o (“little oh”):

$$g \in o(f) \quad \text{if and only if} \quad \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{g(n)}{f(n)} = 0.$$

▶ Ω (“big Omega”) (or just “Omega”)

$$g \in \Omega(f) \quad \text{if and only if} \quad \exists_{C>0} \exists_{n_0>0} \forall_{n>n_0} g(n) \geq C \cdot f(n).$$

More asymptotic notation:

o (“little oh”), Ω (“big Omega”)

▶ o (“little oh”):

$$g \in o(f) \quad \text{if and only if} \quad \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{g(n)}{f(n)} = 0.$$

▶ Ω (“big Omega”) (or just “Omega”)

$$g \in \Omega(f) \quad \text{if and only if} \quad \exists C > 0 \exists n_0 > 0 \forall n > n_0 \quad g(n) \geq C \cdot f(n).$$

Equivalently:

More asymptotic notation:

o (“little oh”), Ω (“big Omega”)

▶ o (“little oh”):

$$g \in o(f) \quad \text{if and only if} \quad \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{g(n)}{f(n)} = 0.$$

▶ Ω (“big Omega”) (or just “Omega”)

$$g \in \Omega(f) \quad \text{if and only if} \quad \exists_{C>0} \exists_{n_0>0} \forall_{n>n_0} g(n) \geq C \cdot f(n).$$

Equivalently:

$$g \in \Omega(f) \quad \text{if and only if} \quad \exists_{C>0} \exists_{n_0>0} \forall_{n>n_0} \frac{g(n)}{f(n)} \geq C.$$

One more definition:

Θ (“Theta”)

One more definition:

Θ (“Theta”)

▶ $g \in \Theta(f)$ if and only if:

$$g \in O(f) \text{ and } g \in \Omega(f).$$

One more definition:

Θ (“Theta”)

- ▶ $g \in \Theta(f)$ if and only if:

$$g \in O(f) \text{ and } g \in \Omega(f).$$

- ▶ Equivalently, $g \in \Theta(f)$ if and only if:

$$\exists C_1 > 0 \exists C_2 > 0 \exists n_0 > 0 \forall n > n_0 \quad C_1 \leq \frac{g(n)}{f(n)} \leq C_2.$$

Examples of Asymptotic notation

Examples of Asymptotic notation

Example 1: $f(n) = n$, $g(n) = 1000n$.

Examples of Asymptotic notation

Example 1: $f(n) = n$, $g(n) = 1000n$.

$$g \in \Omega(f), g \in \Theta(f)$$

Examples of Asymptotic notation

Example 1: $f(n) = n$, $g(n) = 1000n$.

$$g \in \Omega(f), g \in \Theta(f)$$

To see that $g \in \Omega(f)$, we can take $C = 1$.

Examples of Asymptotic notation

Example 1: $f(n) = n$, $g(n) = 1000n$.

$$g \in \Omega(f), g \in \Theta(f)$$

To see that $g \in \Omega(f)$, we can take $C = 1$.

Then $g(n) = 1000 \cdot n > 1 \cdot n = C \cdot f(n)$.

Examples of Asymptotic notation

Example 1: $f(n) = n$, $g(n) = 1000n$.

$$g \in \Omega(f), g \in \Theta(f)$$

To see that $g \in \Omega(f)$, we can take $C = 1$.

$$\text{Then } g(n) = 1000 \cdot n > 1 \cdot n = C \cdot f(n).$$

To see that $g \in \Theta(f)$, we could argue that $g \in O(f)$ (shown earlier) and $g \in \Omega(f)$ (shown above).

Examples of Asymptotic notation

Example 1: $f(n) = n$, $g(n) = 1000n$.

$$g \in \Omega(f), g \in \Theta(f)$$

To see that $g \in \Omega(f)$, we can take $C = 1$.

$$\text{Then } g(n) = 1000 \cdot n > 1 \cdot n = C \cdot f(n).$$

To see that $g \in \Theta(f)$, we could argue that $g \in O(f)$ (shown earlier) and $g \in \Omega(f)$ (shown above).

Or we can take $C_1 = 1$, $C_2 = 1000$. Then

$$C_1 \leq \frac{g(n)}{f(n)} \leq C_2.$$

Examples of Asymptotic notation

Examples of Asymptotic notation

Example 2: $f(n) = n^2$, $g(n) = n^{3/2}$:

Examples of Asymptotic notation

Example 2: $f(n) = n^2$, $g(n) = n^{3/2}$:

$$g \in o(f)$$

Examples of Asymptotic notation

Example 2: $f(n) = n^2$, $g(n) = n^{3/2}$:

$$g \in o(f)$$

Because $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{g(n)}{f(n)} = 0$.

Examples of Asymptotic notation

Examples of Asymptotic notation

Example 3: $f(n) = n^3$, $g(n) = n^4$:

Examples of Asymptotic notation

Example 3: $f(n) = n^3$, $g(n) = n^4$:

$$g \in \Omega(f)$$

Examples of Asymptotic notation

Example 3: $f(n) = n^3$, $g(n) = n^4$:

$$g \in \Omega(f)$$

Because $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{g(n)}{f(n)} = \infty$, so we can choose any C we want.

Examples of Asymptotic notation

Example 4: $f(n) = n^2$, $g(n) = 5n^2 - 23n + 2$:

Examples of Asymptotic notation

Example 4: $f(n) = n^2$, $g(n) = 5n^2 - 23n + 2$:

$g \in \Omega(f)$.

Examples of Asymptotic notation

Example 4: $f(n) = n^2$, $g(n) = 5n^2 - 23n + 2$:

$g \in \Omega(f)$.

Proof:

Examples of Asymptotic notation

Example 4: $f(n) = n^2$, $g(n) = 5n^2 - 23n + 2$:

$g \in \Omega(f)$.

Proof: If $n \geq 23$, then $23n \leq n^2$.

Examples of Asymptotic notation

Example 4: $f(n) = n^2$, $g(n) = 5n^2 - 23n + 2$:

$g \in \Omega(f)$.

Proof: If $n \geq 23$, then $23n \leq n^2$. Hence if $n \geq 23$:

Examples of Asymptotic notation

Example 4: $f(n) = n^2$, $g(n) = 5n^2 - 23n + 2$:

$g \in \Omega(f)$.

Proof: If $n \geq 23$, then $23n \leq n^2$. Hence if $n \geq 23$:

$$g(n) = 5n^2 - 23n + 2$$

Examples of Asymptotic notation

Example 4: $f(n) = n^2$, $g(n) = 5n^2 - 23n + 2$:

$g \in \Omega(f)$.

Proof: If $n \geq 23$, then $23n \leq n^2$. Hence if $n \geq 23$:

$$\begin{aligned} g(n) &= 5n^2 - 23n + 2 \\ &\geq 5n^2 - n^2 \end{aligned}$$

Examples of Asymptotic notation

Example 4: $f(n) = n^2$, $g(n) = 5n^2 - 23n + 2$:

$g \in \Omega(f)$.

Proof: If $n \geq 23$, then $23n \leq n^2$. Hence if $n \geq 23$:

$$\begin{aligned}g(n) &= 5n^2 - 23n + 2 \\ &\geq 5n^2 - n^2 \\ &\geq 4n^2\end{aligned}$$

Examples of Asymptotic notation

Example 4: $f(n) = n^2$, $g(n) = 5n^2 - 23n + 2$:

$g \in \Omega(f)$.

Proof: If $n \geq 23$, then $23n \leq n^2$. Hence if $n \geq 23$:

$$\begin{aligned}g(n) &= 5n^2 - 23n + 2 \\ &\geq 5n^2 - n^2 \\ &\geq 4n^2 \\ &= 4f(n)\end{aligned}$$

Examples of Asymptotic notation

Example 4: $f(n) = n^2$, $g(n) = 5n^2 - 23n + 2$:

$g \in \Omega(f)$.

Proof: If $n \geq 23$, then $23n \leq n^2$. Hence if $n \geq 23$:

$$\begin{aligned}g(n) &= 5n^2 - 23n + 2 \\ &\geq 5n^2 - n^2 \\ &\geq 4n^2 \\ &= 4f(n)\end{aligned}$$

So we can take $C = 4$, $n_0 = 23$.

Another Example

Another Example

Example 5: $\ln n = o(n)$

Another Example

Example 5: $\ln n = o(n)$

Proof:

Another Example

Example 5: $\ln n = o(n)$

Proof:

Examine the ratio $\frac{\ln n}{n}$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$.

Another Example

Example 5: $\ln n = o(n)$

Proof:

Examine the ratio $\frac{\ln n}{n}$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$.

If we try to evaluate the limit directly, we obtain the “indeterminate form” $\frac{\infty}{\infty}$.

Another Example

Example 5: $\ln n = o(n)$

Proof:

Examine the ratio $\frac{\ln n}{n}$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$.

If we try to evaluate the limit directly, we obtain the “indeterminate form” $\frac{\infty}{\infty}$.

We need to apply **L'Hôpital's rule** (from calculus).

Another Example

Example 5: $\ln n = o(n)$

Proof:

Examine the ratio $\frac{\ln n}{n}$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$.

If we try to evaluate the limit directly, we obtain the “indeterminate form” $\frac{\infty}{\infty}$.

We need to apply **L'Hôpital's rule** (from calculus).

(Continued on next slide)

Example 5, continued:

$$\ln n = o(n)$$

L'Hôpital's rule: If the ratio of limits

$$\frac{\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} g(n)}{\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} f(n)}$$

is an indeterminate form (i.e., ∞/∞ or $0/0$), then

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{g(n)}{f(n)} = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{g'(n)}{f'(n)}$$

where f' and g' are, respectively, the derivatives of f and g .

Example 5, continued:

$$\ln n = o(n)$$

Let $f(n) = n$, $g(n) = \ln n$.

Example 5, continued:

$$\ln n = o(n)$$

Let $f(n) = n$, $g(n) = \ln n$.

Then $f'(n) = 1$, $g'(n) = 1/n$.

Example 5, continued:

$$\ln n = o(n)$$

Let $f(n) = n$, $g(n) = \ln n$.

Then $f'(n) = 1$, $g'(n) = 1/n$.

By L'Hôpital's rule:

Example 5, continued:

$$\ln n = o(n)$$

Let $f(n) = n$, $g(n) = \ln n$.

Then $f'(n) = 1$, $g'(n) = 1/n$.

By L'Hôpital's rule:

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{g(n)}{f(n)} = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{g'(n)}{f'(n)}$$

Example 5, continued:

$$\ln n = o(n)$$

Let $f(n) = n$, $g(n) = \ln n$.

Then $f'(n) = 1$, $g'(n) = 1/n$.

By L'Hôpital's rule:

$$\begin{aligned}\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{g(n)}{f(n)} &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{g'(n)}{f'(n)} \\ &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1/n}{1}\end{aligned}$$

Example 5, continued:

$$\ln n = o(n)$$

Let $f(n) = n$, $g(n) = \ln n$.

Then $f'(n) = 1$, $g'(n) = 1/n$.

By L'Hôpital's rule:

$$\begin{aligned}\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{g(n)}{f(n)} &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{g'(n)}{f'(n)} \\ &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1/n}{1} \\ &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{n}\end{aligned}$$

Example 5, continued:

$$\ln n = o(n)$$

Let $f(n) = n$, $g(n) = \ln n$.

Then $f'(n) = 1$, $g'(n) = 1/n$.

By L'Hôpital's rule:

$$\begin{aligned}\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{g(n)}{f(n)} &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{g'(n)}{f'(n)} \\ &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1/n}{1} \\ &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{n} \\ &= 0.\end{aligned}$$

Example 5, continued:

$$\ln n = o(n)$$

Let $f(n) = n$, $g(n) = \ln n$.

Then $f'(n) = 1$, $g'(n) = 1/n$.

By L'Hôpital's rule:

$$\begin{aligned}\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{g(n)}{f(n)} &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{g'(n)}{f'(n)} \\ &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1/n}{1} \\ &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{n} \\ &= 0.\end{aligned}$$

Hence $g(n) = o(f(n))$.

Math background

Math background

- ▶ Sums, Summations

Math background

- ▶ Sums, Summations
- ▶ Logarithms, Exponents Floors, Ceilings, Harmonic Numbers

Math background

- ▶ Sums, Summations
- ▶ Logarithms, Exponents Floors, Ceilings, Harmonic Numbers
- ▶ Proof Techniques

Math background

- ▶ Sums, Summations
- ▶ Logarithms, Exponents Floors, Ceilings, Harmonic Numbers
- ▶ Proof Techniques
- ▶ Basic Probability

Sums, Summations

Sums, Summations

- ▶ Summation notation:

Sums, Summations

- ▶ Summation notation:

$$\sum_{i=a}^b f(i) = f(a) + f(a+1) + \cdots + f(b).$$

Sums, Summations

- ▶ Summation notation:

$$\sum_{i=a}^b f(i) = f(a) + f(a+1) + \cdots + f(b).$$

- ▶ Special cases:

Sums, Summations

- ▶ Summation notation:

$$\sum_{i=a}^b f(i) = f(a) + f(a+1) + \cdots + f(b).$$

- ▶ Special cases:
 - ▶ What if $a = b$?

Sums, Summations

- ▶ Summation notation:

$$\sum_{i=a}^b f(i) = f(a) + f(a+1) + \cdots + f(b).$$

- ▶ Special cases:
 - ▶ What if $a = b$? $f(a)$

Sums, Summations

- ▶ Summation notation:

$$\sum_{i=a}^b f(i) = f(a) + f(a+1) + \cdots + f(b).$$

- ▶ Special cases:
 - ▶ What if $a = b$? $f(a)$
 - ▶ What if $a > b$?

Sums, Summations

- ▶ Summation notation:

$$\sum_{i=a}^b f(i) = f(a) + f(a+1) + \cdots + f(b).$$

- ▶ Special cases:
 - ▶ What if $a = b$? $f(a)$
 - ▶ What if $a > b$? 0

Sums, Summations

- ▶ Summation notation:

$$\sum_{i=a}^b f(i) = f(a) + f(a+1) + \cdots + f(b).$$

- ▶ Special cases:
 - ▶ What if $a = b$? $f(a)$
 - ▶ What if $a > b$? 0
- ▶ If $S = \{s_1, \dots, s_n\}$ is a finite set:

Sums, Summations

- ▶ Summation notation:

$$\sum_{i=a}^b f(i) = f(a) + f(a+1) + \cdots + f(b).$$

- ▶ Special cases:

- ▶ What if $a = b$? $f(a)$
- ▶ What if $a > b$? 0

- ▶ If $S = \{s_1, \dots, s_n\}$ is a finite set:

$$\sum_{x \in S} f(x) = f(s_1) + f(s_2) + \cdots + f(s_n).$$

Geometric sum

Geometric sum

- ▶ Geometric sum:

Geometric sum

- ▶ Geometric sum:

$$\sum_{i=0}^n a^i = 1 + a^1 + a^2 + \cdots + a^n = \frac{1 - a^{n+1}}{1 - a},$$

provided that $a \neq 1$.

Geometric sum

- ▶ Geometric sum:

$$\sum_{i=0}^n a^i = 1 + a^1 + a^2 + \cdots + a^n = \frac{1 - a^{n+1}}{1 - a},$$

provided that $a \neq 1$.

- ▶ Previous formula holds for $a = 0$ because $a^0 = 1$ even when $a = 0$.

Geometric sum

- ▶ Geometric sum:

$$\sum_{i=0}^n a^i = 1 + a^1 + a^2 + \cdots + a^n = \frac{1 - a^{n+1}}{1 - a},$$

provided that $a \neq 1$.

- ▶ Previous formula holds for $a = 0$ because $a^0 = 1$ even when $a = 0$.
- ▶ Special case of geometric sum:

Geometric sum

- ▶ Geometric sum:

$$\sum_{i=0}^n a^i = 1 + a^1 + a^2 + \cdots + a^n = \frac{1 - a^{n+1}}{1 - a},$$

provided that $a \neq 1$.

- ▶ Previous formula holds for $a = 0$ because $a^0 = 1$ even when $a = 0$.
- ▶ Special case of geometric sum:

$$\sum_{i=0}^n 2^i = 1 + 2 + 4 + 8 + \cdots + 2^n = 2^{n+1} - 1.$$

Infinite Geometric sum

Infinite Geometric sum

- ▶ From the previous slide:

$$\sum_{i=0}^n a^i = 1 + a^1 + a^2 + \cdots + a^n = \frac{1 - a^{n+1}}{1 - a},$$

provided that $a \neq 1$.

Infinite Geometric sum

- ▶ From the previous slide:

$$\sum_{i=0}^n a^i = 1 + a^1 + a^2 + \cdots + a^n = \frac{1 - a^{n+1}}{1 - a},$$

provided that $a \neq 1$.

- ▶ If $|a| < 1$, we can take the limit as $n \rightarrow \infty$:

Infinite Geometric sum

- ▶ From the previous slide:

$$\sum_{i=0}^n a^i = 1 + a^1 + a^2 + \cdots + a^n = \frac{1 - a^{n+1}}{1 - a},$$

provided that $a \neq 1$.

- ▶ If $|a| < 1$, we can take the limit as $n \rightarrow \infty$:

$$\sum_{i=0}^{\infty} a^i = 1 + a^1 + a^2 + \cdots = \frac{1}{1 - a},$$

Infinite Geometric sum

- ▶ From the previous slide:

$$\sum_{i=0}^n a^i = 1 + a^1 + a^2 + \cdots + a^n = \frac{1 - a^{n+1}}{1 - a},$$

provided that $a \neq 1$.

- ▶ If $|a| < 1$, we can take the limit as $n \rightarrow \infty$:

$$\sum_{i=0}^{\infty} a^i = 1 + a^1 + a^2 + \cdots = \frac{1}{1 - a},$$

- ▶ Special case of infinite geometric sum:

Infinite Geometric sum

- ▶ From the previous slide:

$$\sum_{i=0}^n a^i = 1 + a^1 + a^2 + \cdots + a^n = \frac{1 - a^{n+1}}{1 - a},$$

provided that $a \neq 1$.

- ▶ If $|a| < 1$, we can take the limit as $n \rightarrow \infty$:

$$\sum_{i=0}^{\infty} a^i = 1 + a^1 + a^2 + \cdots = \frac{1}{1 - a},$$

- ▶ Special case of infinite geometric sum:

$$\sum_{i=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{2^i} = 1 + \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{4} + \frac{1}{8} + \cdots = 2.$$

Other Summations

Other Summations

- ▶ Sum of first n integers

Other Summations

- ▶ Sum of first n integers

$$\sum_{i=1}^n i = 1 + 2 + 3 + \cdots + n = \frac{n(n+1)}{2} = \Theta(n^2)$$

Other Summations

- ▶ Sum of first n integers

$$\sum_{i=1}^n i = 1 + 2 + 3 + \cdots + n = \frac{n(n+1)}{2} = \Theta(n^2)$$

- ▶ Sum of first n squares

Other Summations

- ▶ Sum of first n integers

$$\sum_{i=1}^n i = 1 + 2 + 3 + \cdots + n = \frac{n(n+1)}{2} = \Theta(n^2)$$

- ▶ Sum of first n squares

$$\sum_{i=1}^n i^2 = 1 + 4 + 9 + \cdots + n^2 = \frac{n(n+1)(2n+1)}{6} = \Theta(n^3)$$

Other Summations

- ▶ Sum of first n integers

$$\sum_{i=1}^n i = 1 + 2 + 3 + \cdots + n = \frac{n(n+1)}{2} = \Theta(n^2)$$

- ▶ Sum of first n squares

$$\sum_{i=1}^n i^2 = 1 + 4 + 9 + \cdots + n^2 = \frac{n(n+1)(2n+1)}{6} = \Theta(n^3)$$

- ▶ In general, for any fixed positive integer k :

Other Summations

- ▶ Sum of first n integers

$$\sum_{i=1}^n i = 1 + 2 + 3 + \cdots + n = \frac{n(n+1)}{2} = \Theta(n^2)$$

- ▶ Sum of first n squares

$$\sum_{i=1}^n i^2 = 1 + 4 + 9 + \cdots + n^2 = \frac{n(n+1)(2n+1)}{6} = \Theta(n^3)$$

- ▶ In general, for any fixed positive integer k :

$$\sum_{i=1}^n i^k = 1 + 2^k + 3^k + \cdots + n^k = \Theta(n^{k+1})$$

Logarithms

Logarithms

Definition: $\log_b x = y$ if and only if $b^y = x$.

Logarithms

Definition: $\log_b x = y$ if and only if $b^y = x$.

Some useful properties:

Logarithms

Definition: $\log_b x = y$ if and only if $b^y = x$.

Some useful properties:

1. $\log_b 1 = 0$.

2. $\log_b b^a = a$.

3. $\log_b(xy) = \log_b x + \log_b y$.

4. $\log_b(x^a) = a \log_b x$.

5. $x^{\log_b y} = y^{\log_b x}$.

6. $\log_x b = \frac{1}{\log_b x}$.

7. $\log_a x = \frac{\log_b x}{\log_b a}$.

8. $\log_a x = (\log_b x)(\log_a b)$.

Logarithms

Definition: $\log_b x = y$ if and only if $b^y = x$.

Some useful properties:

1. $\log_b 1 = 0$.

2. $\log_b b^a = a$.

3. $\log_b(xy) = \log_b x + \log_b y$.

4. $\log_b(x^a) = a \log_b x$.

5. $x^{\log_b y} = y^{\log_b x}$.

6. $\log_x b = \frac{1}{\log_b x}$.

7. $\log_a x = \frac{\log_b x}{\log_b a}$.

8. $\log_a x = (\log_b x)(\log_a b)$.

Exercise: Prove the above properties.

Logarithms

Logarithms

Example (#2): Prove $\log_b b^a = a$.

Logarithms

Example (#2): Prove $\log_b b^a = a$.

Solution: Let $y = \log_b b^a$

Logarithms

Example (#2): Prove $\log_b b^a = a$.

Solution: Let $y = \log_b b^a$

$$b^y = b^a \quad [\text{by definition of log}]$$

Logarithms

Example (#2): Prove $\log_b b^a = a$.

Solution: Let $y = \log_b b^a$
 $b^y = b^a$ [by definition of log]
 $y = a$

Logarithms

Special Notations:

Logarithms

Special Notations:

- ▶ $\ln x = \log_e x$ ($e = 2.71828\dots$)

Logarithms

Special Notations:

- ▶ $\ln x = \log_e x$ ($e = 2.71828\dots$)
- ▶ $\lg x = \log_2 x$

Logarithms

Special Notations:

- ▶ $\ln x = \log_e x$ ($e = 2.71828\dots$)
- ▶ $\lg x = \log_2 x$

Some conversions (from Rules #7 and #8 on previous slides):

Logarithms

Special Notations:

- ▶ $\ln x = \log_e x$ ($e = 2.71828\dots$)
- ▶ $\lg x = \log_2 x$

Some conversions (from Rules #7 and #8 on previous slides):

- ▶ $\ln x = (\log_2 x)(\log_e 2) = 0.693 \lg x.$

Logarithms

Special Notations:

- ▶ $\ln x = \log_e x$ ($e = 2.71828\dots$)
- ▶ $\lg x = \log_2 x$

Some conversions (from Rules #7 and #8 on previous slides):

- ▶ $\ln x = (\log_2 x)(\log_e 2) = 0.693 \lg x.$
- ▶ $\lg x = \frac{\log_e x}{\log_e 2} = \frac{\ln x}{0.693} = 1.44 \ln x.$

Floors and ceilings

Floors and ceilings

- ▶ $\lfloor x \rfloor =$ largest integer $\leq x$. (Read as **Floor** of x)

Floors and ceilings

- ▶ $\lfloor x \rfloor$ = largest integer $\leq x$. (Read as **Floor** of x)
- ▶ $\lceil x \rceil$ = smallest integer $\geq x$ (Read as **Ceiling** of x)

Factorials

▶ $n! = 1 \cdot 2 \cdots n$

Factorials

- ▶ $n! = 1 \cdot 2 \cdots n$
- ▶ $n!$ represents the number of distinct permutations of n objects.

Factorials

- ▶ $n! = 1 \cdot 2 \cdots n$
- ▶ $n!$ represents the number of distinct permutations of n objects.

1	2	3
1	3	2
2	1	3
2	3	1
3	1	2
3	2	1

Combinations

Combinations

$\binom{n}{k}$ = The number of different ways of choosing k objects from a collection of n objects. (Pronounced “ n choose k ”.)

Combinations

$\binom{n}{k}$ = The number of different ways of choosing k objects from a collection of n objects. (Pronounced “ n choose k ”.)

Example: $\binom{5}{2} = 10$

Combinations

$\binom{n}{k}$ = The number of different ways of choosing k objects from a collection of n objects. (Pronounced “ n choose k ”.)

Example: $\binom{5}{2} = 10$

$\{1, 2\}$ $\{1, 3\}$ $\{1, 4\}$ $\{1, 5\}$ $\{2, 3\}$
 $\{2, 4\}$ $\{2, 5\}$ $\{3, 4\}$ $\{3, 5\}$ $\{4, 5\}$

Combinations

$\binom{n}{k}$ = The number of different ways of choosing k objects from a collection of n objects. (Pronounced “ n choose k ”.)

Example: $\binom{5}{2} = 10$

$\{1, 2\}$ $\{1, 3\}$ $\{1, 4\}$ $\{1, 5\}$ $\{2, 3\}$
 $\{2, 4\}$ $\{2, 5\}$ $\{3, 4\}$ $\{3, 5\}$ $\{4, 5\}$

Formula: $\binom{n}{k} = \frac{n!}{k!(n-k)!}$

Combinations

$\binom{n}{k}$ = The number of different ways of choosing k objects from a collection of n objects. (Pronounced “ n choose k ”.)

Example: $\binom{5}{2} = 10$

$\{1, 2\}$ $\{1, 3\}$ $\{1, 4\}$ $\{1, 5\}$ $\{2, 3\}$
 $\{2, 4\}$ $\{2, 5\}$ $\{3, 4\}$ $\{3, 5\}$ $\{4, 5\}$

Formula: $\binom{n}{k} = \frac{n!}{k!(n-k)!}$

Special cases: $\binom{n}{0} = 1$, $\binom{n}{1} = n$, $\binom{n}{2} = \frac{n(n-1)}{2}$

Harmonic Numbers

Harmonic Numbers

The n th Harmonic number is the sum:

$$H_n = \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{1}{i}$$

Harmonic Numbers

The n th Harmonic number is the sum:

$$H_n = \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{1}{i}$$

These numbers go to infinity:

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} H_n = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{i} = \infty$$

Harmonic Numbers

The harmonic numbers are closely related to logs.

Harmonic Numbers

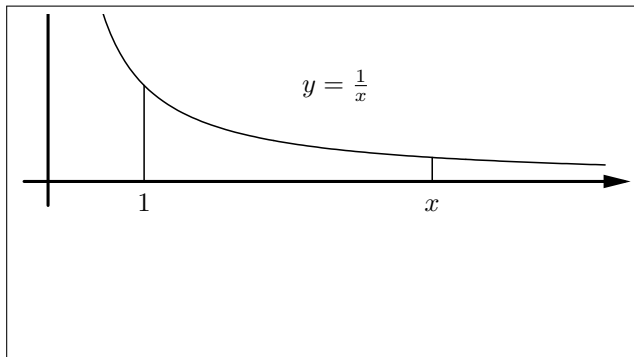
The harmonic numbers are closely related to logs. Recall:

$$\ln x = \int_1^x \frac{1}{t} dt$$

Harmonic Numbers

The harmonic numbers are closely related to logs. Recall:

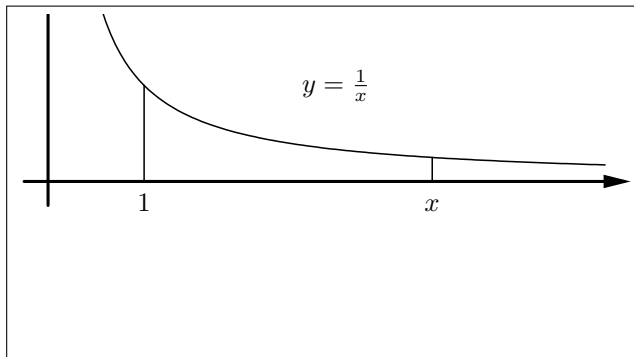
$$\ln x = \int_1^x \frac{1}{t} dt$$



Harmonic Numbers

The harmonic numbers are closely related to logs. Recall:

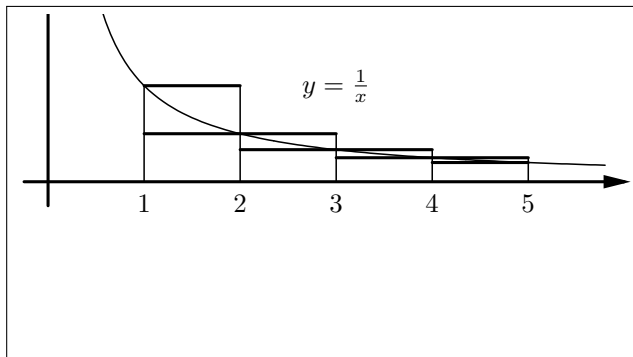
$$\ln x = \int_1^x \frac{1}{t} dt$$



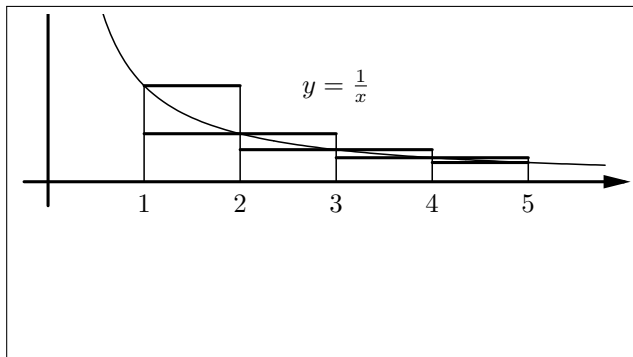
We will show that $H_n = \Theta(\log n)$.

Harmonic Numbers

Harmonic Numbers

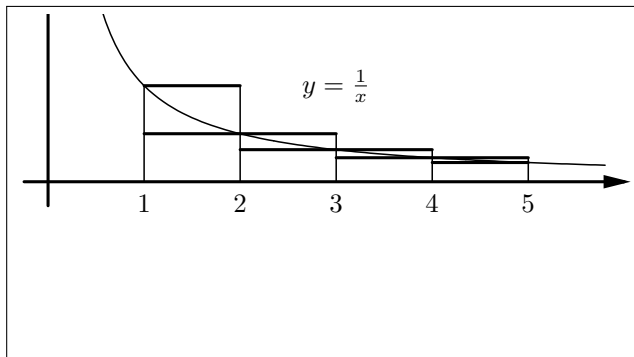


Harmonic Numbers



$$\frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{3} + \dots + \frac{1}{n} < \ln n < 1 + \frac{1}{2} + \dots + \frac{1}{n-1}$$

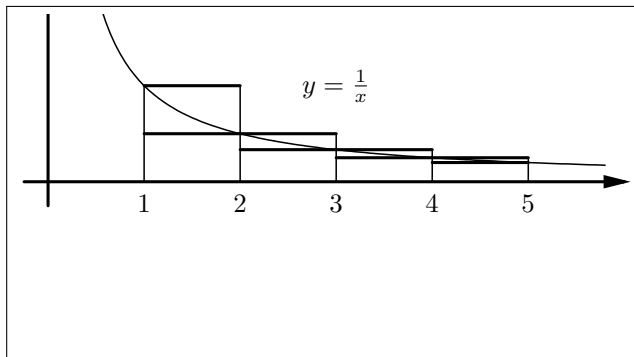
Harmonic Numbers



$$\frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{3} + \dots + \frac{1}{n} < \ln n < 1 + \frac{1}{2} + \dots + \frac{1}{n-1}$$

$$H_n - 1 < \ln n < H_n - \frac{1}{n}$$

Harmonic Numbers



$$\frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{3} + \dots + \frac{1}{n} < \ln n < 1 + \frac{1}{2} + \dots + \frac{1}{n-1}$$

$$H_n - 1 < \ln n < H_n - \frac{1}{n}$$

Hence $\ln n + \frac{1}{n} < H_n < \ln n + 1$, so $H_n = \Theta(\log n)$.

Proof/Justification Techniques

Proof/Justification Techniques

- ▶ **Proof by Example** Can be used to prove

Proof/Justification Techniques

- ▶ **Proof by Example** Can be used to prove
 - ▶ A statement of the form “There exists. . .” is **true**.

Proof/Justification Techniques

- ▶ **Proof by Example** Can be used to prove
 - ▶ A statement of the form “There exists. . .” is **true**.
 - ▶ A statement of the form “For all. . .” is **false**.

Proof/Justification Techniques

- ▶ **Proof by Example** Can be used to prove
 - ▶ A statement of the form “There exists. . .” is **true**.
 - ▶ A statement of the form “For all. . .” is **false**.
 - ▶ A statement of the form “If P then Q” is **false**.

Proof/Justification Techniques

- ▶ **Proof by Example** Can be used to prove
 - ▶ A statement of the form “There exists. . .” is **true**.
 - ▶ A statement of the form “For all. . .” is **false**.
 - ▶ A statement of the form “If P then Q” is **false**.
- ▶ **Illustration:**

Proof/Justification Techniques

- ▶ **Proof by Example** Can be used to prove
 - ▶ A statement of the form “There exists. . .” is **true**.
 - ▶ A statement of the form “For all. . .” is **false**.
 - ▶ A statement of the form “If P then Q” is **false**.
- ▶ **Illustration:** Consider the statement:
All numbers of the form $2^k - 1$ are prime.

Proof/Justification Techniques

- ▶ **Proof by Example** Can be used to prove
 - ▶ A statement of the form “There exists. . .” is **true**.
 - ▶ A statement of the form “For all. . .” is **false**.
 - ▶ A statement of the form “If P then Q” is **false**.
- ▶ **Illustration:** Consider the statement:
All numbers of the form $2^k - 1$ are prime.

This statement is **False**: $2^4 - 1 = 15 = 3 \cdot 5$

Proof/Justification Techniques

- ▶ **Proof by Example** Can be used to prove
 - ▶ A statement of the form “There exists. . .” is **true**.
 - ▶ A statement of the form “For all. . .” is **false**.
 - ▶ A statement of the form “If P then Q” is **false**.

- ▶ **Illustration:** Consider the statement:

All numbers of the form $2^k - 1$ are prime.

This statement is **False**: $2^4 - 1 = 15 = 3 \cdot 5$

- ▶ **Note:** The statement can be rewritten as:

If n is an integer of the form $2^k - 1$, then n is prime.

Proof/Justification Techniques

- ▶ Suppose we want to prove a statement of the form “If P then Q” is **true**.

Proof/Justification Techniques

- ▶ Suppose we want to prove a statement of the form “If P then Q” is **true**.
There are three approaches:

Proof/Justification Techniques

- ▶ Suppose we want to prove a statement of the form “If P then Q” is **true**.

There are three approaches:

1. **Direct proof**: Assume P is **true**. Show that Q must be **true**.

Proof/Justification Techniques

- ▶ Suppose we want to prove a statement of the form “If P then Q” is **true**.

There are three approaches:

1. **Direct proof**: Assume P is **true**. Show that Q must be **true**.
2. **Indirect proof**: Assume Q is **false**. Show that P must be **false**.

Proof/Justification Techniques

- ▶ Suppose we want to prove a statement of the form “If P then Q” is **true**.

There are three approaches:

1. **Direct proof**: Assume P is **true**. Show that Q must be **true**.
2. **Indirect proof**: Assume Q is **false**. Show that P must be **false**. This is also known as a **proof by contraposition**.
3. **Proof by contradiction**: Assume P is **true** and Q is **false**. Show that there is a contradiction.

Proof/Justification Techniques

- ▶ Suppose we want to prove a statement of the form “If P then Q” is **true**.

There are three approaches:

1. **Direct proof**: Assume P is **true**. Show that Q must be **true**.
2. **Indirect proof**: Assume Q is **false**. Show that P must be **false**. This is also known as a **proof by contraposition**.
3. **Proof by contradiction**: Assume P is **true** and Q is **false**. Show that there is a contradiction.

See [GT] Section 1.3.3 for examples.

Proof/Justification Techniques: Induction

Proof/Justification Techniques: Induction

- ▶ A technique for proving theorems about the positive (or nonnegative) integers.

Proof/Justification Techniques:

Induction

- ▶ A technique for proving theorems about the positive (or nonnegative) integers.
- ▶ Let $P(n)$ be a statement with an integer parameter, n .
Mathematical induction is a technique for proving that $P(n)$ is true for all integers \geq some **base value** b .

Proof/Justification Techniques:

Induction

- ▶ A technique for proving theorems about the positive (or nonnegative) integers.
- ▶ Let $P(n)$ be a statement with an integer parameter, n .
Mathematical induction is a technique for proving that $P(n)$ is true for all integers \geq some **base value** b .
- ▶ Usually, the base value is 0 or 1.

Proof/Justification Techniques:

Induction

- ▶ A technique for proving theorems about the positive (or nonnegative) integers.
- ▶ Let $P(n)$ be a statement with an integer parameter, n .
Mathematical induction is a technique for proving that $P(n)$ is true for all integers \geq some **base value** b .
- ▶ Usually, the base value is 0 or 1.
- ▶ To show $P(n)$ holds for all $n \geq b$, we must show two things:

Proof/Justification Techniques:

Induction

- ▶ A technique for proving theorems about the positive (or nonnegative) integers.
- ▶ Let $P(n)$ be a statement with an integer parameter, n .
Mathematical induction is a technique for proving that $P(n)$ is true for all integers \geq some **base value** b .
- ▶ Usually, the base value is 0 or 1.
- ▶ To show $P(n)$ holds for all $n \geq b$, we must show two things:
 1. **Base Case:** $P(b)$ is true (where b is the base value).

Proof/Justification Techniques:

Induction

- ▶ A technique for proving theorems about the positive (or nonnegative) integers.
- ▶ Let $P(n)$ be a statement with an integer parameter, n .
Mathematical induction is a technique for proving that $P(n)$ is true for all integers \geq some **base value** b .
- ▶ Usually, the base value is 0 or 1.
- ▶ To show $P(n)$ holds for all $n \geq b$, we must show two things:
 1. **Base Case:** $P(b)$ is true (where b is the base value).
 2. **Inductive step:** If $P(k)$ is true, then $P(k + 1)$ is true.

Induction Example

Example: Show that for all $n \geq 1$

$$\sum_{i=1}^n i \cdot 2^i = (n-1) \cdot 2^{(n+1)} + 2$$

Induction Example

Example: Show that for all $n \geq 1$

$$\sum_{i=1}^n i \cdot 2^i = (n-1) \cdot 2^{(n+1)} + 2$$

Base Case: ($n = 1$)

Induction Example

Example: Show that for all $n \geq 1$

$$\sum_{i=1}^n i \cdot 2^i = (n-1) \cdot 2^{(n+1)} + 2$$

Base Case: ($n = 1$)

LHS

Induction Example

Example: Show that for all $n \geq 1$

$$\sum_{i=1}^n i \cdot 2^i = (n-1) \cdot 2^{(n+1)} + 2$$

Base Case: ($n = 1$)

$$\text{LHS} = \sum_{i=1}^1 i \cdot 2^i = 1 \cdot 2^1 = 2.$$

Induction Example

Example: Show that for all $n \geq 1$

$$\sum_{i=1}^n i \cdot 2^i = (n-1) \cdot 2^{(n+1)} + 2$$

Base Case: ($n = 1$)

$$\text{LHS} = \sum_{i=1}^1 i \cdot 2^i = 1 \cdot 2^1 = 2.$$

RHS

Induction Example

Example: Show that for all $n \geq 1$

$$\sum_{i=1}^n i \cdot 2^i = (n-1) \cdot 2^{(n+1)} + 2$$

Base Case: ($n = 1$)

$$\text{LHS} = \sum_{i=1}^1 i \cdot 2^i = 1 \cdot 2^1 = 2.$$

$$\text{RHS} = (1-1) \cdot 2^{1+1} + 2 = 0 + 2 = 2.$$

Induction Example

Example: Show that for all $n \geq 1$

$$\sum_{i=1}^n i \cdot 2^i = (n-1) \cdot 2^{(n+1)} + 2$$

Base Case: ($n = 1$)

$$\text{LHS} = \sum_{i=1}^1 i \cdot 2^i = 1 \cdot 2^1 = 2.$$

$$\text{RHS} = (1-1) \cdot 2^{1+1} + 2 = 0 + 2 = 2.$$

LHS

Induction Example

Example: Show that for all $n \geq 1$

$$\sum_{i=1}^n i \cdot 2^i = (n-1) \cdot 2^{(n+1)} + 2$$

Base Case: ($n = 1$)

$$\text{LHS} = \sum_{i=1}^1 i \cdot 2^i = 1 \cdot 2^1 = 2.$$

$$\text{RHS} = (1-1) \cdot 2^{1+1} + 2 = 0 + 2 = 2.$$

$$\text{LHS} = \text{RHS} \quad \checkmark$$

Induction Example, continued

Inductive Step:

Induction Example, continued

Inductive Step:

Assume $P(k)$ is true:

$$\sum_{i=1}^k i \cdot 2^i = (k-1) \cdot 2^{(k+1)} + 2.$$

Induction Example, continued

Inductive Step:

Assume $P(k)$ is true:

$$\sum_{i=1}^k i \cdot 2^i = (k-1) \cdot 2^{(k+1)} + 2.$$

Show $P(k+1)$ is true:

$$\sum_{i=1}^{k+1} i \cdot 2^i = k \cdot 2^{(k+2)} + 2.$$

Induction Example, continued

$$\text{Assume: } \sum_{i=1}^k i \cdot 2^i = (k-1) \cdot 2^{(k+1)} + 2.$$

$$\text{Show: } \sum_{i=1}^{k+1} i \cdot 2^i = k \cdot 2^{(k+2)} + 2.$$

Induction Example, continued

$$\text{Assume: } \sum_{i=1}^k i \cdot 2^i = (k-1) \cdot 2^{(k+1)} + 2.$$

$$\text{Show: } \sum_{i=1}^{k+1} i \cdot 2^i = k \cdot 2^{(k+2)} + 2.$$

$$\sum_{i=1}^{k+1} i \cdot 2^i$$

Induction Example, continued

$$\text{Assume: } \sum_{i=1}^k i \cdot 2^i = (k-1) \cdot 2^{(k+1)} + 2.$$

$$\text{Show: } \sum_{i=1}^{k+1} i \cdot 2^i = k \cdot 2^{(k+2)} + 2.$$

$$\sum_{i=1}^{k+1} i \cdot 2^i = \sum_{i=1}^k i \cdot 2^i + (k+1) \cdot 2^{(k+1)}$$

Induction Example, continued

$$\text{Assume: } \sum_{i=1}^k i \cdot 2^i = (k-1) \cdot 2^{(k+1)} + 2.$$

$$\text{Show: } \sum_{i=1}^{k+1} i \cdot 2^i = k \cdot 2^{(k+2)} + 2.$$

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{i=1}^{k+1} i \cdot 2^i &= \sum_{i=1}^k i \cdot 2^i + (k+1) \cdot 2^{(k+1)} \\ &= (k-1) \cdot 2^{(k+1)} + 2 + (k+1) \cdot 2^{(k+1)} \end{aligned}$$

Induction Example, continued

$$\text{Assume: } \sum_{i=1}^k i \cdot 2^i = (k-1) \cdot 2^{(k+1)} + 2.$$

$$\text{Show: } \sum_{i=1}^{k+1} i \cdot 2^i = k \cdot 2^{(k+2)} + 2.$$

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{i=1}^{k+1} i \cdot 2^i &= \sum_{i=1}^k i \cdot 2^i + (k+1) \cdot 2^{(k+1)} \\ &= (k-1) \cdot 2^{(k+1)} + 2 + (k+1) \cdot 2^{(k+1)} \\ &= 2k \cdot 2^{(k+1)} + 2 \end{aligned}$$

Induction Example, continued

$$\text{Assume: } \sum_{i=1}^k i \cdot 2^i = (k-1) \cdot 2^{(k+1)} + 2.$$

$$\text{Show: } \sum_{i=1}^{k+1} i \cdot 2^i = k \cdot 2^{(k+2)} + 2.$$

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{i=1}^{k+1} i \cdot 2^i &= \sum_{i=1}^k i \cdot 2^i + (k+1) \cdot 2^{(k+1)} \\ &= (k-1) \cdot 2^{(k+1)} + 2 + (k+1) \cdot 2^{(k+1)} \\ &= 2k \cdot 2^{(k+1)} + 2 \\ &= k \cdot 2^{(k+2)} + 2 \end{aligned}$$

Induction Example, continued

$$\text{Assume: } \sum_{i=1}^k i \cdot 2^i = (k-1) \cdot 2^{(k+1)} + 2.$$

$$\text{Show: } \sum_{i=1}^{k+1} i \cdot 2^i = k \cdot 2^{(k+2)} + 2.$$

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{i=1}^{k+1} i \cdot 2^i &= \sum_{i=1}^k i \cdot 2^i + (k+1) \cdot 2^{(k+1)} \\ &= (k-1) \cdot 2^{(k+1)} + 2 + (k+1) \cdot 2^{(k+1)} \\ &= 2k \cdot 2^{(k+1)} + 2 \\ &= k \cdot 2^{(k+2)} + 2 \quad \text{QED} \end{aligned}$$

Probability

Probability

- ▶ Defined in terms of a **sample space**, S .

Probability

- ▶ Defined in terms of a **sample space**, S .
- ▶ Sample space consists of a finite set of **outcomes**, also called **elementary events**.

Probability

- ▶ Defined in terms of a **sample space**, S .
- ▶ Sample space consists of a finite set of **outcomes**, also called **elementary events**.
- ▶ An **event** is a subset of the sample space. (So an event is a set of outcomes).

Probability

- ▶ Defined in terms of a **sample space**, S .
- ▶ Sample space consists of a finite set of **outcomes**, also called **elementary events**.
- ▶ An **event** is a subset of the sample space. (So an event is a set of outcomes).
- ▶ Sample space can be infinite, even uncountable. In this course, it will generally be finite.

Probability

- ▶ Defined in terms of a **sample space**, S .
- ▶ Sample space consists of a finite set of **outcomes**, also called **elementary events**.
- ▶ An **event** is a subset of the sample space. (So an event is a set of outcomes).
- ▶ Sample space can be infinite, even uncountable. In this course, it will generally be finite.

Example: (2-coin example.) Flip two coins.

Probability

- ▶ Defined in terms of a **sample space**, S .
- ▶ Sample space consists of a finite set of **outcomes**, also called **elementary events**.
- ▶ An **event** is a subset of the sample space. (So an event is a set of outcomes).
- ▶ Sample space can be infinite, even uncountable. In this course, it will generally be finite.

Example: (2-coin example.) Flip two coins.

- ▶ Sample space $S = \{\text{HH}, \text{HT}, \text{TH}, \text{TT}\}$.

Probability

- ▶ Defined in terms of a **sample space**, S .
- ▶ Sample space consists of a finite set of **outcomes**, also called **elementary events**.
- ▶ An **event** is a subset of the sample space. (So an event is a set of outcomes).
- ▶ Sample space can be infinite, even uncountable. In this course, it will generally be finite.

Example: (2-coin example.) Flip two coins.

- ▶ Sample space $S = \{\text{HH}, \text{HT}, \text{TH}, \text{TT}\}$.
- ▶ The event “first coin is heads” is the subset $\{\text{HH}, \text{HT}\}$.

Probability function

Probability function

- ▶ A **probability function** is a function $P(\cdot)$ that maps events (subsets of the sample space S) to real numbers such that:

Probability function

- ▶ A **probability function** is a function $P(\cdot)$ that maps events (subsets of the sample space S) to real numbers such that:
 1. $P(\emptyset) = 0$.

Probability function

- ▶ A **probability function** is a function $P(\cdot)$ that maps events (subsets of the sample space S) to real numbers such that:
 1. $P(\emptyset) = 0$.
 2. $P(S) = 1$.

Probability function

- ▶ A **probability function** is a function $P(\cdot)$ that maps events (subsets of the sample space S) to real numbers such that:
 1. $P(\emptyset) = 0$.
 2. $P(S) = 1$.
 3. For every event A , $0 \leq P(A) \leq 1$.

Probability function

- ▶ A **probability function** is a function $P(\cdot)$ that maps events (subsets of the sample space S) to real numbers such that:
 1. $P(\emptyset) = 0$.
 2. $P(S) = 1$.
 3. For every event A , $0 \leq P(A) \leq 1$.
 4. If $A, B \subseteq S$ and $A \cap B = \emptyset$, then $P(A \cup B) = P(A) + P(B)$.

Probability function

- ▶ A **probability function** is a function $P(\cdot)$ that maps events (subsets of the sample space S) to real numbers such that:
 1. $P(\emptyset) = 0$.
 2. $P(S) = 1$.
 3. For every event A , $0 \leq P(A) \leq 1$.
 4. If $A, B \subseteq S$ and $A \cap B = \emptyset$, then $P(A \cup B) = P(A) + P(B)$.
- ▶ Note: Property 4 implies that if $A \subseteq B$ then $P(A) \leq P(B)$.

Probability function (continued)

Probability function (continued)

For finite sample spaces, this can be simplified:

Probability function (continued)

For finite sample spaces, this can be simplified:

- ▶ Sample space $S = \{s_1, \dots, s_k\}$,

Probability function (continued)

For finite sample spaces, this can be simplified:

- ▶ Sample space $S = \{s_1, \dots, s_k\}$,
- ▶ Each outcome S_i is assigned a probability $P(s_i)$, with

$$\sum_{i=1}^k P(s_i) = 1.$$

Probability function (continued)

For finite sample spaces, this can be simplified:

- ▶ Sample space $S = \{s_1, \dots, s_k\}$,
- ▶ Each outcome S_i is assigned a probability $P(s_i)$, with

$$\sum_{i=1}^k P(s_i) = 1.$$

- ▶ The probability of an event $E \subseteq S$ is:

$$P(E) = \sum_{s_i \in E} P(s_i).$$

Probability function (continued)

For finite sample spaces, this can be simplified:

- ▶ Sample space $S = \{s_1, \dots, s_k\}$,
- ▶ Each outcome S_i is assigned a probability $P(s_i)$, with

$$\sum_{i=1}^k P(s_i) = 1.$$

- ▶ The probability of an event $E \subseteq S$ is:

$$P(E) = \sum_{s_i \in E} P(s_i).$$

Example: (2-coin example, continued). Define

$$P(\text{HH}) = P(\text{HT}) = P(\text{TH}) = P(\text{TT}) = \frac{1}{4}.$$

Probability function (continued)

For finite sample spaces, this can be simplified:

- ▶ Sample space $S = \{s_1, \dots, s_k\}$,
- ▶ Each outcome S_i is assigned a probability $P(s_i)$, with

$$\sum_{i=1}^k P(s_i) = 1.$$

- ▶ The probability of an event $E \subseteq S$ is:

$$P(E) = \sum_{s_i \in E} P(s_i).$$

Example: (2-coin example, continued). Define

$$P(\text{HH}) = P(\text{HT}) = P(\text{TH}) = P(\text{TT}) = \frac{1}{4}.$$

Then

$$P(\text{first coin is heads}) = P(\text{HH}) + P(\text{HT}) = \frac{1}{2}.$$

Random variables

Random variables

- ▶ **Intuitive definition:** a **random variable** is a variable whose value depends on the outcome of some experiment.

Random variables

- ▶ **Intuitive definition:** a **random variable** is a variable whose value depends on the outcome of some experiment.
- ▶ **Formal definition:** a **random variable** is a function that maps outcomes in a sample space S to real numbers.

Random variables

- ▶ **Intuitive definition:** a **random variable** is a variable whose value depends on the outcome of some experiment.
- ▶ **Formal definition:** a **random variable** is a function that maps outcomes in a sample space S to real numbers.
- ▶ **Special case:** An **Indicator variable** is a random variable that is always either 0 or 1.

Expectation

Expectation

- ▶ The **expected value**, or **expectation**, of a random variable X represents its “average value”.

Expectation

- ▶ The **expected value**, or **expectation**, of a random variable X represents its “average value”.
- ▶ Formally: Let X be a random variable with a finite set of possible values $V = \{x_1, \dots, x_k\}$. Then

$$E(X) = \sum_{x \in V} x \cdot P(X = x).$$

Expectation

- ▶ The **expected value**, or **expectation**, of a random variable X represents its “average value”.
- ▶ Formally: Let X be a random variable with a finite set of possible values $V = \{x_1, \dots, x_k\}$. Then

$$E(X) = \sum_{x \in V} x \cdot P(X = x).$$

Example: (2-coin example, continued). Let X be the number of heads when two coins are thrown. Then

$$\begin{aligned} E(X) &= 0 \cdot P(X = 0) + 1 \cdot P(X = 1) + 2 \cdot P(X = 2) \\ &= 0 \cdot \left(\frac{1}{4}\right) + 1 \cdot \left(\frac{1}{2}\right) + 2 \cdot \left(\frac{1}{4}\right) \\ &= 1 \end{aligned}$$

Expectation

Expectation

Example: Throw a single six-sided die. Assume the die is fair, so each possible throw has a probability of $1/6$.

Expectation

Example: Throw a single six-sided die. Assume the die is fair, so each possible throw has a probability of $1/6$.

The expected value of the throw is:

$$1 \cdot \frac{1}{6} + 2 \cdot \frac{1}{6} + 3 \cdot \frac{1}{6} + 4 \cdot \frac{1}{6} + 5 \cdot \frac{1}{6} + 6 \cdot \frac{1}{6} = 3.5$$

Linearity of Expectation

Linearity of Expectation

- ▶ For any two random variables X and Y ,

$$E(X + Y) = E(X) + E(Y).$$

Linearity of Expectation

- ▶ For any two random variables X and Y ,

$$E(X + Y) = E(X) + E(Y).$$

- ▶ Proof: see [GT], 1.3.4

Linearity of Expectation

- ▶ For any two random variables X and Y ,

$$E(X + Y) = E(X) + E(Y).$$

- ▶ Proof: see [GT], 1.3.4
- ▶ Very useful, because usually it is easier to compute $E(X)$ and $E(Y)$ and apply the formula than to compute $E(X + Y)$ directly.

Linearity of Expectation

- ▶ For any two random variables X and Y ,

$$E(X + Y) = E(X) + E(Y).$$

- ▶ Proof: see [GT], 1.3.4
- ▶ Very useful, because usually it is easier to compute $E(X)$ and $E(Y)$ and apply the formula than to compute $E(X + Y)$ directly.

Example 1: Throw two six-sided dice. Let X be the sum of the values. Then

$$E(X) = E(X_1 + X_2) = E(X_1) + E(X_2) = 3.5 + 3.5 = 7,$$

where X_i is the value on die i ($i = 1, 2$).

Linearity of Expectation

- ▶ For any two random variables X and Y ,

$$E(X + Y) = E(X) + E(Y).$$

- ▶ Proof: see [GT], 1.3.4
- ▶ Very useful, because usually it is easier to compute $E(X)$ and $E(Y)$ and apply the formula than to compute $E(X + Y)$ directly.

Example 1: Throw two six-sided dice. Let X be the sum of the values. Then

$$E(X) = E(X_1 + X_2) = E(X_1) + E(X_2) = 3.5 + 3.5 = 7,$$

where X_i is the value on die i ($i = 1, 2$).

Example 2: Throw 100 six-sided dice. Let Y be the sum of the values. Then

$$E(Y) = 100 \cdot 3.5 = 350.$$

Independent events

Independent events

- ▶ Two events A_1 and A_2 are **independent** iff

$$P(A_1 \cap A_2) = P(A_1) \cdot P(A_2).$$

Example: (2-coin example, continued).

Independent events

- ▶ Two events A_1 and A_2 are **independent** iff

$$P(A_1 \cap A_2) = P(A_1) \cdot P(A_2).$$

Example: (2-coin example, continued). Let

$$A_1 = \text{coin 1 is heads} = \{\text{HH}, \text{HT}\}$$

$$A_2 = \text{coin 2 is tails} = \{\text{HT}, \text{TT}\}$$

Independent events

- ▶ Two events A_1 and A_2 are **independent** iff

$$P(A_1 \cap A_2) = P(A_1) \cdot P(A_2).$$

Example: (2-coin example, continued). Let

$$A_1 = \text{coin 1 is heads} = \{\text{HH}, \text{HT}\}$$

$$A_2 = \text{coin 2 is tails} = \{\text{HT}, \text{TT}\}$$

Then $P(A_1) = \frac{1}{2}$, $P(A_2) = \frac{1}{2}$, and

$$P(A_1 \cap A_2) = P(\text{HT}) = \frac{1}{4} = P(A_1) \cdot P(A_2).$$

So A_1 and A_2 are independent.

Independent events

Independent events

A collection of n events $C = \{A_1, A_2, \dots, A_n\}$ is **mutually independent** (or simply **independent**) if:

For every subset $\{A_{i_1}, A_{i_2}, \dots, A_{i_k}\} \subseteq C$:

$$P(A_{i_1} \cap A_{i_2} \cap \dots \cap A_{i_k}) = P(A_{i_1}) \cdot P(A_{i_2}) \cdots P(A_{i_k}).$$

Independent events

A collection of n events $C = \{A_1, A_2, \dots, A_n\}$ is **mutually independent** (or simply **independent**) if:

For every subset $\{A_{i_1}, A_{i_2}, \dots, A_{i_k}\} \subseteq C$:

$$P(A_{i_1} \cap A_{i_2} \cap \dots \cap A_{i_k}) = P(A_{i_1}) \cdot P(A_{i_2}) \cdots P(A_{i_k}).$$

Example: Suppose we flip 10 coins. Suppose the flips are fair ($P(\text{H}) = P(\text{T}) = 1/2$) and independent. Then the probability of any particular sequence of flips (e.g., **HHTTTHTHTH**) is $1/(2^{10})$.

Example: Probability and counting

Example: Probability and counting

Example: Suppose we flip a coin 10 times. Suppose the flips are fair and independent. What is the probability of getting exactly 7 heads out of the 10 flips?

Example: Probability and counting

Example: Suppose we flip a coin 10 times. Suppose the flips are fair and independent. What is the probability of getting exactly 7 heads out of the 10 flips?

Solution:

- ▶ The outcomes consist of the set of possible sequences of 10 flips (e.g., **HHTTTHHTH**).

Example: Probability and counting

Example: Suppose we flip a coin 10 times. Suppose the flips are fair and independent. What is the probability of getting exactly 7 heads out of the 10 flips?

Solution:

- ▶ The outcomes consist of the set of possible sequences of 10 flips (e.g., **HHTTHTHTH**).
- ▶ The probability of each outcome is $1/(2^{10})$.

Example: Probability and counting

Example: Suppose we flip a coin 10 times. Suppose the flips are fair and independent. What is the probability of getting exactly 7 heads out of the 10 flips?

Solution:

- ▶ The outcomes consist of the set of possible sequences of 10 flips (e.g., **HHTTTHTHTH**).
- ▶ The probability of each outcome is $1/(2^{10})$.
- ▶ The number of **successful outcomes** is $\binom{10}{7}$.

Example: Probability and counting

Example: Suppose we flip a coin 10 times. Suppose the flips are fair and independent. What is the probability of getting exactly 7 heads out of the 10 flips?

Solution:

- ▶ The outcomes consist of the set of possible sequences of 10 flips (e.g., **HHTTTHTHTH**).
- ▶ The probability of each outcome is $1/(2^{10})$.
- ▶ The number of **successful outcomes** is $\binom{10}{7}$.
- ▶ Hence the probability of getting exactly 7 heads is:

$$\frac{\binom{10}{7}}{2^{10}} = \frac{120}{1024} = 0.117.$$

An average-case result about finding the maximum

An average-case result about finding the maximum

```
v = -∞
for i = 0 to n-1:
    if A[i] > v:
        v = A[i]
return v
```

An average-case result about finding the maximum

```
v = -∞
for i = 0 to n-1:
    if A[i] > v:
        v = A[i]
return v
```

- ▶ Worst-case number of comparisons is n .

An average-case result about finding the maximum

```
v = -∞
for i = 0 to n-1:
    if A[i] > v:
        v = A[i]
return v
```

- ▶ Worst-case number of comparisons is n .
- ▶ This can be reduced to $n - 1$

An average-case result about finding the maximum

```
v = -∞
for i = 0 to n-1:
    if A[i] > v:
        v = A[i]
return v
```

- ▶ Worst-case number of comparisons is n .
- ▶ This can be reduced to $n - 1$
- ▶ How many times is the running maximum updated?

An average-case result about finding the maximum

```
v = -∞
for i = 0 to n-1:
    if A[i] > v:
        v = A[i]
return v
```

- ▶ Worst-case number of comparisons is n .
- ▶ This can be reduced to $n - 1$
- ▶ How many times is the running maximum updated?
 - ▶ In the worst case n .

An average-case result about finding the maximum

```
v = -∞
for i = 0 to n-1:
    if A[i] > v:
        v = A[i]
return v
```

- ▶ Worst-case number of comparisons is n .
- ▶ This can be reduced to $n - 1$
- ▶ How many times is the running maximum updated?
 - ▶ In the worst case n .
 - ▶ What about the average case? ...

Average number of updates to the running maximum

Average number of updates to the running maximum

- ▶ Assume
 - ▶ all possible orderings (permutations) of A are equally likely
 - ▶ all n elements of A are distinct.

Average number of updates to the running maximum

- ▶ Assume
 - ▶ all possible orderings (permutations) of A are equally likely
 - ▶ all n elements of A are distinct.
- ▶ The running maximum gets updated on iteration i of the loop iff $\max\{A[0], \dots, A[i]\} = A[i]$.

Average number of updates to the running maximum

- ▶ Assume
 - ▶ all possible orderings (permutations) of A are equally likely
 - ▶ all n elements of A are distinct.
- ▶ The running maximum gets updated on iteration i of the loop iff $\max\{A[0], \dots, A[i]\} = A[i]$.
- ▶ The probability of this happening is $1/(i + 1)$.

Average number of updates to the running maximum

- ▶ Assume
 - ▶ all possible orderings (permutations) of A are equally likely
 - ▶ all n elements of A are distinct.
- ▶ The running maximum gets updated on iteration i of the loop iff $\max\{A[0], \dots, A[i]\} = A[i]$.
- ▶ The probability of this happening is $1/(i + 1)$.
- ▶ Define indicator variables X_i :

$$X_i = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } v \text{ gets updated on iteration } \#i \\ 0 & \text{if } v \text{ does not get updated on iteration } \#i \end{cases}$$

Average number of updates to the running maximum

- ▶ Assume
 - ▶ all possible orderings (permutations) of A are equally likely
 - ▶ all n elements of A are distinct.
- ▶ The running maximum gets updated on iteration i of the loop iff $\max\{A[0], \dots, A[i]\} = A[i]$.
- ▶ The probability of this happening is $1/(i + 1)$.
- ▶ Define indicator variables X_i :

$$X_i = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } v \text{ gets updated on iteration } \#i \\ 0 & \text{if } v \text{ does not get updated on iteration } \#i \end{cases}$$

$$\text{Then } E(X_i) = \frac{1}{i+1}$$

Average number of updates to the running maximum

- ▶ Assume
 - ▶ all possible orderings (permutations) of A are equally likely
 - ▶ all n elements of A are distinct.
- ▶ The running maximum gets updated on iteration i of the loop iff $\max\{A[0], \dots, A[i]\} = A[i]$.
- ▶ The probability of this happening is $1/(i + 1)$.
- ▶ Define indicator variables X_i :

$$X_i = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } v \text{ gets updated on iteration } \#i \\ 0 & \text{if } v \text{ does not get updated on iteration } \#i \end{cases}$$

Then $E(X_i) = \frac{1}{i+1}$

- ▶ The total number of times that v gets updated is:

$$X = \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} X_i$$

Average number of updates to the running maximum (continued)

The expected total number of times that v gets updated is:

Average number of updates to the running maximum (continued)

The expected total number of times that v gets updated is:

$$E(X)$$

Average number of updates to the running maximum (continued)

The expected total number of times that v gets updated is:

$$E(X) = E\left(\sum_{i=0}^{n-1} X_i\right)$$

Average number of updates to the running maximum (continued)

The expected total number of times that v gets updated is:

$$E(X) = E\left(\sum_{i=0}^{n-1} X_i\right) = \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} E(X_i)$$

Average number of updates to the running maximum (continued)

The expected total number of times that v gets updated is:

$$E(X) = E\left(\sum_{i=0}^{n-1} X_i\right) = \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} E(X_i) = \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} \frac{1}{i+1}$$

Average number of updates to the running maximum (continued)

The expected total number of times that v gets updated is:

$$E(X) = E\left(\sum_{i=0}^{n-1} X_i\right) = \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} E(X_i) = \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} \frac{1}{i+1} = \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{1}{i}$$

Average number of updates to the running maximum (continued)

The expected total number of times that v gets updated is:

$$E(X) = E\left(\sum_{i=0}^{n-1} X_i\right) = \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} E(X_i) = \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} \frac{1}{i+1} = \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{1}{i} = H_n$$

Average number of updates to the running maximum (continued)

The expected total number of times that v gets updated is:

$$E(X) = E\left(\sum_{i=0}^{n-1} X_i\right) = \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} E(X_i) = \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} \frac{1}{i+1} = \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{1}{i} = H_n = O(\log n)$$

Average number of updates to the running maximum (continued)

The expected total number of times that v gets updated is:

$$E(X) = E\left(\sum_{i=0}^{n-1} X_i\right) = \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} E(X_i) = \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} \frac{1}{i+1} = \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{1}{i} = H_n = O(\log n)$$

It can be shown that

$$H_n = \ln n + \gamma + o(1), \quad \text{where } \gamma = 0.5772157 \dots$$

Average number of updates to the running maximum (continued)

The expected total number of times that v gets updated is:

$$E(X) = E\left(\sum_{i=0}^{n-1} X_i\right) = \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} E(X_i) = \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} \frac{1}{i+1} = \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{1}{i} = H_n = O(\log n)$$

It can be shown that

$$H_n = \ln n + \gamma + o(1), \quad \text{where } \gamma = 0.5772157\dots$$

If there are 30,000 elements in the list, the expected update count is about 10.9

Average number of updates to the running maximum (continued)

The expected total number of times that v gets updated is:

$$E(X) = E\left(\sum_{i=0}^{n-1} X_i\right) = \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} E(X_i) = \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} \frac{1}{i+1} = \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{1}{i} = H_n = O(\log n)$$

It can be shown that

$$H_n = \ln n + \gamma + o(1), \quad \text{where } \gamma = 0.5772157\dots$$

If there are 30,000 elements in the list, the expected update count is about 10.9

If there are 3,000,000,000 elements in the list, the expected update count is about 22.4