

Part II

Foundations

3 Goals

- ▶ Gain knowledge about efficient algorithms for important problems, i.e., learn how to solve certain types of problems efficiently.
- ▶ Learn how to analyze and judge the efficiency of algorithms.
- ▶ Learn how to design efficient algorithms.

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4 Modelling Issues

What do you measure?

- ▶ **Memory requirement**
- ▶ Running time
- ▶ Number of comparisons
- ▶ Number of multiplications
- ▶ Number of hard-disc accesses
- ▶ Program size
- ▶ Power consumption
- ▶ ...

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How do you measure?

- ▶ Implementing and testing on representative inputs
 - ▶ How do you choose your inputs?
 - ▶ May be very time-consuming.
 - ▶ Very reliable results if done correctly.
 - ▶ Results only hold for a specific machine and for a specific set of inputs.

- ▶ Theoretical analysis in a specific **model of computation**.

Given a problem, does the following algorithm always run in $O(n^2)$ time?

Yes, because $n^2 > n$.

Typically focuses on the

Can this lower bound for any comparison-based sorting algorithm needs at least $\Omega(n \log n)$ comparisons in the worst case?

Yes, yes.

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Quick example: How long does the Tims algorithm always run?

→ $\Theta(n^2)$ (independent of machine)

Typical example: $\Theta(n^2)$

Can this lower bound be very computer-architecture dependent?
Algorithm needs at least $\frac{n(n-1)}{2}$ comparisons in the worst case.

→ $\Theta(n^2)$

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Quick question: How many times does this algorithm always run in $\Theta(n^2)$?

Typical answer: $\Theta(n^2)$.

Can this lower bound be any computer- or language-independent sorting algorithm with at least $\log_2(n!)$ comparisons in the worst case?

Yes, it can!

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Input length

The theoretical bounds are usually given by a function $f: \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$ that maps the **input length** to the running time (or storage space, comparisons, multiplications, program size etc.).

The **input length** may e.g. be

the size of the input (number of bits)

the number of arguments

the number of nodes in the input tree

the number of nodes in the input graph

the number of nodes in the input DAG

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Suppose n numbers from the interval $\{1, \dots, N\}$ have to be sorted. In this case we usually say that the input length is n instead of e.g. $n \log N$, which would be the number of bits required to encode the input.

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1. Calculate running time and storage space etc. on a simplified, idealized model of computation, e.g. Random Access Machine (RAM), Turing Machine (TM), . . .
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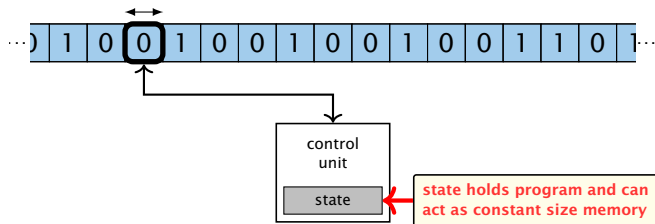
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Turing Machine

- ▶ Very simple model of computation.
- ▶ Only the “current” memory location can be altered.
- ▶ Very good model for discussing computability, or polynomial vs. exponential time.
- ▶ Some simple problems like recognizing whether input is of the form x^x , where x is a string, have quadratic lower bound.

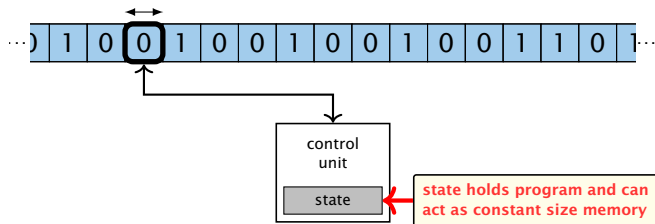
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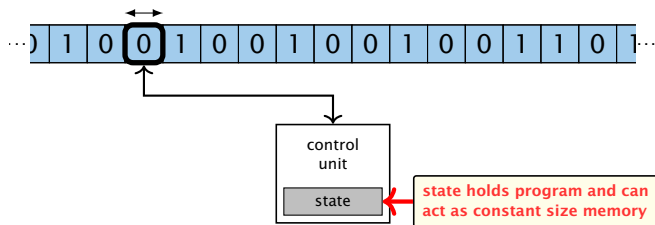
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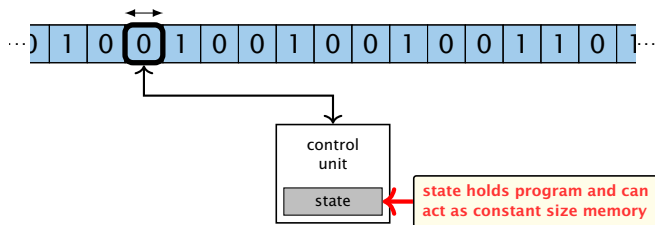
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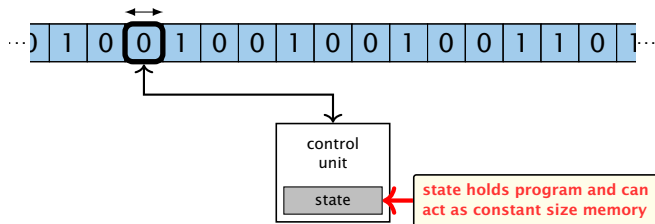
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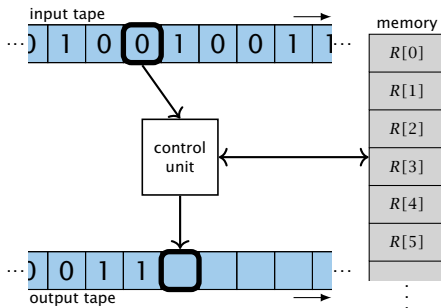
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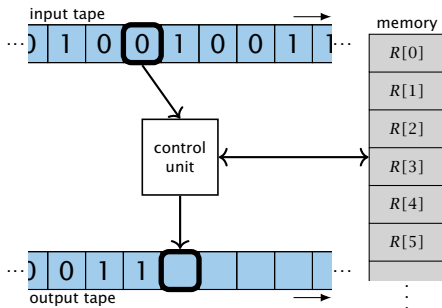
Random Access Machine (RAM)

- ▶ Input tape and output tape (sequences of zeros and ones; unbounded length).
- ▶ Memory unit: infinite but countable number of registers $R[0], R[1], R[2], \dots$
- ▶ Registers hold integers.
- ▶ Indirect addressing.



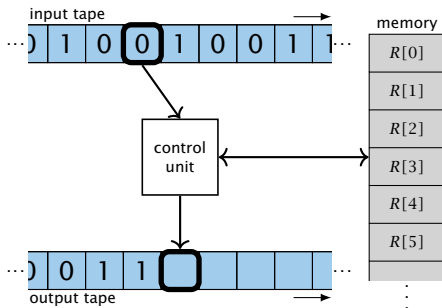
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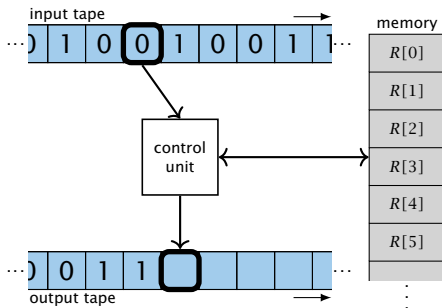
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- ▶ **indirect** addressing
 - ▶ $R[j] := R[R[i]]$
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Operations

- ▶ branching (including loops) based on comparisons
 - ▶ `jump x`
jumps to position x in the program;
sets instruction counter to x ;
reads the next operation to perform from register $R[x]$
 - ▶ `jumpz x $R[i]$`
jump to x if $R[i] = 0$
if not the instruction counter is increased by 1;
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Model of Computation

- ▶ **uniform** cost model

Every operation takes time 1.

- ▶ **logarithmic** cost model

The cost depends on the content of memory cells:

- ▶ The time for a step is equal to the largest operand involved.

- ▶ The word size of a register is equal to the length (in bits) of the largest value ever stored in it.

- ▶ The time for a step is equal to the word size.

Bounded word RAM model: cost is uniform but the largest value stored in a register may not exceed 2^w , where usually $w = \log_2 n$.

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Example 2

Algorithm 1 RepeatedSquaring(n)

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1:  $r \leftarrow 2$ ;  
2: for  $i = 1 \rightarrow n$  do  
3:    $r \leftarrow r^2$   
4: return  $r$ 
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There are **different types of complexity bounds**:

- ▶ **best-case** complexity:

$$C_{bc}(n) := \min\{C(x) \mid |x| = n\}$$

Usually easy to analyze, but not very meaningful.

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Formal Definition

Let f denote functions from \mathbb{N} to \mathbb{R}^+ .

- ▶ $\mathcal{O}(f) = \{g \mid \exists c > 0 \exists n_0 \in \mathbb{N}_0 \forall n \geq n_0 : [g(n) \leq c \cdot f(n)]\}$
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There is an equivalent definition using limes notation (**assuming that the respective limes exists**). f and g are functions from \mathbb{N}_0 to \mathbb{R}_0^+ .

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Abuse of notation

1. People write $f = \mathcal{O}(g)$, when they mean $f \in \mathcal{O}(g)$. This is **not** an equality (how could a function be equal to a set of functions).
2. People write $f(n) = \mathcal{O}(g(n))$, when they mean $f \in \mathcal{O}(g)$, with $f: \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^+, n \mapsto f(n)$, and $g: \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^+, n \mapsto g(n)$.
3. People write e.g. $h(n) = f(n) + o(g(n))$ when they mean that there exists a function $z: \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^+, n \mapsto z(n), z \in o(g)$ such that $h(n) = f(n) + z(n)$.
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How do we interpret an expression like:

$$2n^2 + 3n + 1 = 2n^2 + \Theta(n)$$

Here, $\Theta(n)$ stands for an anonymous function in the set $\Theta(n)$ that makes the expression true.

Note that $\Theta(n)$ is on the right hand side, otw. this interpretation is wrong.

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Careful!

“It is understood” that every occurrence of an Θ -symbol (or $\Theta, \Omega, o, \omega$) on the left represents **one anonymous function**.

Hence, the left side is **not** equal to

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We can view an expression containing asymptotic notation as generating a set:

$$n^2 \cdot \mathcal{O}(n) + \mathcal{O}(\log n)$$

represents

$$\left\{ f : \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^+ \mid f(n) = n^2 \cdot g(n) + h(n) \right. \\ \left. \text{with } g(n) \in \mathcal{O}(n) \text{ and } h(n) \in \mathcal{O}(\log n) \right\}$$

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Then an asymptotic equation can be interpreted as containment btw. two sets:

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$$n^2 \cdot \mathcal{O}(n) + \mathcal{O}(\log n) \subseteq \Theta(n^2)$$

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Lemma 3

Let f, g be functions with the property

$\exists n_0 > 0 \forall n \geq n_0 : f(n) > 0$ (the same for g). Then

- ▶ $c \cdot f(n) \in \Theta(f(n))$ for any constant c
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The expressions also hold for Ω . Note that this means that $f(n) + g(n) \in \Theta(\max\{f(n), g(n)\})$.

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Comments

- ▶ Do not use asymptotic notation within induction proofs.
- ▶ For any constants a, b we have $\log_a n = \Theta(\log_b n)$.
Therefore, we will usually ignore the base of a logarithm within asymptotic notation.
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Asymptotic Notation

In general asymptotic classification of running times is a good measure for comparing algorithms:

- ▶ If the running time analysis is tight and actually occurs in practise (i.e., the asymptotic bound is not a purely theoretical worst-case bound), then the algorithm that has better asymptotic running time will always outperform a weaker algorithm for large enough values of n .
- ▶ However, suppose that I have two algorithms:

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- ▶ If the running time analysis is tight and actually occurs in practise (i.e., the asymptotic bound is not a purely theoretical worst-case bound), then the algorithm that has better asymptotic running time will always outperform a weaker algorithm for large enough values of n .
- ▶ However, suppose that I have two algorithms:
 - ▶ Algorithm A. Running time $f(n) = 1000 \log n = \mathcal{O}(\log n)$.
 - ▶ Algorithm B. Running time $g(n) = \log^2 n$.

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6 Recurrences

Algorithm 2 mergesort(list L)

```
1:  $n \leftarrow \text{size}(L)$ 
2: if  $n \leq 1$  return  $L$ 
3:  $L_1 \leftarrow L[1 \cdots \lfloor \frac{n}{2} \rfloor]$ 
4:  $L_2 \leftarrow L[\lfloor \frac{n}{2} \rfloor + 1 \cdots n]$ 
5: mergesort( $L_1$ )
6: mergesort( $L_2$ )
7:  $L \leftarrow \text{merge}(L_1, L_2)$ 
8: return  $L$ 
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```

This algorithm requires

$$T(n) = T\left(\left\lceil \frac{n}{2} \right\rceil\right) + T\left(\left\lfloor \frac{n}{2} \right\rfloor\right) + \mathcal{O}(n) \leq 2T\left(\left\lceil \frac{n}{2} \right\rceil\right) + \mathcal{O}(n)$$

comparisons when $n > 1$ and 0 comparisons when $n \leq 1$.

Recurrences

How do we bring the expression for the number of comparisons (\approx running time) into a **closed form**?

For this we need to **solve** the recurrence.

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Methods for Solving Recurrences

1. Guessing+Induction

Guess the right solution and prove that it is correct via induction. It needs experience to make the right guess.

2. Master Theorem

For a lot of recurrences that appear in the analysis of algorithms this theorem can be used to obtain tight asymptotic bounds. It does not provide exact solutions.

3. Characteristic Polynomial

Linear homogenous recurrences can be solved via this method.

4. Generating Functions

A more general technique that allows to solve certain types of linear inhomogenous relations and also sometimes non-linear recurrence relations.

5. Transformation of the Recurrence

Sometimes one can transform the given recurrence relations so that it e.g. becomes linear and can therefore be solved with one of the other techniques.

6.1 Guessing+Induction

First we need to get rid of the \mathcal{O} -notation in our recurrence:

$$T(n) \leq \begin{cases} 2T(\lceil \frac{n}{2} \rceil) + cn & n \geq 2 \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Informal way:

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One way of solving such a recurrence is to **guess** a solution, and check that it is correct by plugging it in.

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Suppose we guess $T(n) \leq dn \log n$ for a constant d .

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Formally, this is not correct if n is not a power of 2. Also even in this case one would need to do an induction proof.

6.1 Guessing+Induction

$$T(n) \leq \begin{cases} 2T(\frac{n}{2}) + cn & n \geq 16 \\ b & \text{otw.} \end{cases}$$

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Hence, statement is **true** if we choose $d \geq c$.

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Note that we can do this as for constant-sized inputs the running time is always some constant (b in the above case).

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$$= dn \log n + (\log 9 - 4)dn + 2d \log n + cn$$

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$$\log n \leq \frac{n}{4}$$

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$$\boxed{\frac{n}{2} + 1 \leq \frac{9}{16}n} \leq dn \log\left(\frac{9}{16}n\right) + 2d \log n + cn$$

$$\boxed{\log \frac{9}{16}n = \log n + (\log 9 - 4)} = dn \log n + (\log 9 - 4)dn + 2d \log n + cn$$

$$\boxed{\log n \leq \frac{n}{4}} \leq dn \log n + (\log 9 - 3.5)dn + cn$$

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$$\left\lceil \frac{n}{2} \right\rceil \leq \frac{n}{2} + 1$$

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$$\leq dn \log\left(\frac{9}{16}n\right) + 2d \log n + cn$$

$$\log \frac{9}{16}n = \log n + (\log 9 - 4)$$

$$= dn \log n + (\log 9 - 4)dn + 2d \log n + cn$$

$$\log n \leq \frac{n}{4}$$

$$\leq dn \log n + (\log 9 - 3.5)dn + cn$$

$$\leq dn \log n - 0.33dn + cn$$

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We also make a guess of $T(n) \leq dn \log n$ and get

$$\begin{aligned}T(n) &\leq 2T\left(\left\lceil \frac{n}{2} \right\rceil\right) + cn \\&\leq 2\left(d\left\lceil \frac{n}{2} \right\rceil \log \left\lceil \frac{n}{2} \right\rceil\right) + cn \\&\leq 2\left(d\left(\frac{n}{2} + 1\right) \log\left(\frac{n}{2} + 1\right)\right) + cn \\&\leq dn \log\left(\frac{9}{16}n\right) + 2d \log n + cn \\&= dn \log n + (\log 9 - 4)dn + 2d \log n + cn \\&\leq dn \log n + (\log 9 - 3.5)dn + cn \\&\leq dn \log n - 0.33dn + cn \\&\leq dn \log n\end{aligned}$$

for a suitable choice of d .

6.2 Master Theorem

Lemma 4

Let $a \geq 1$, $b \geq 1$ and $\epsilon > 0$ denote constants. Consider the recurrence

$$T(n) = aT\left(\frac{n}{b}\right) + f(n) .$$

Case 1.

If $f(n) = \mathcal{O}(n^{\log_b(a)-\epsilon})$ then $T(n) = \Theta(n^{\log_b a})$.

Case 2.

If $f(n) = \Theta(n^{\log_b(a)} \log^k n)$ then $T(n) = \Theta(n^{\log_b a} \log^{k+1} n)$,
 $k \geq 0$.

Case 3.

If $f(n) = \Omega(n^{\log_b(a)+\epsilon})$ and for sufficiently large n
 $af\left(\frac{n}{b}\right) \leq cf(n)$ for some constant $c < 1$ then $T(n) = \Theta(f(n))$.

6.2 Master Theorem

We prove the Master Theorem for the case that n is of the form b^{ℓ} , and we assume that the non-recursive case occurs for problem size 1 and incurs cost 1 .

The Recursion Tree

The running time of a recursive algorithm can be visualized by a recursion tree:

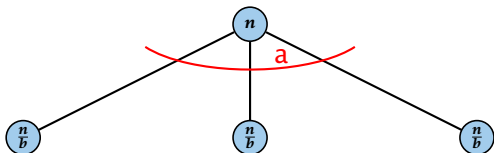
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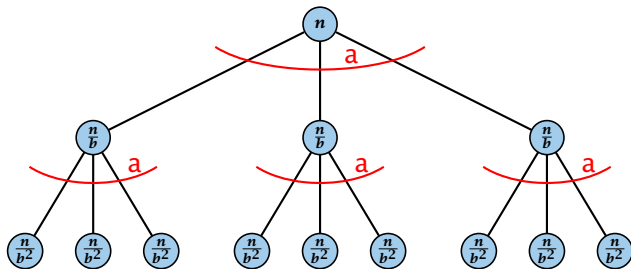
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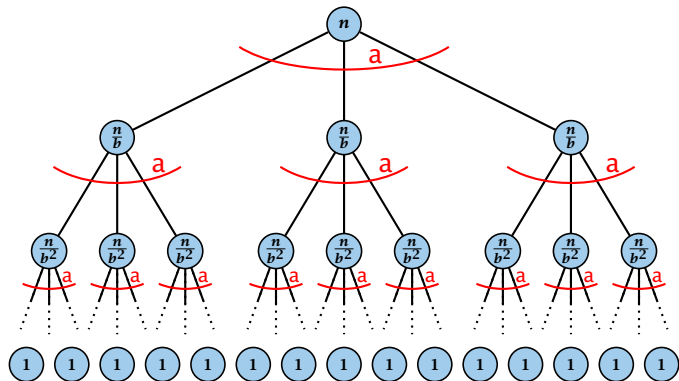
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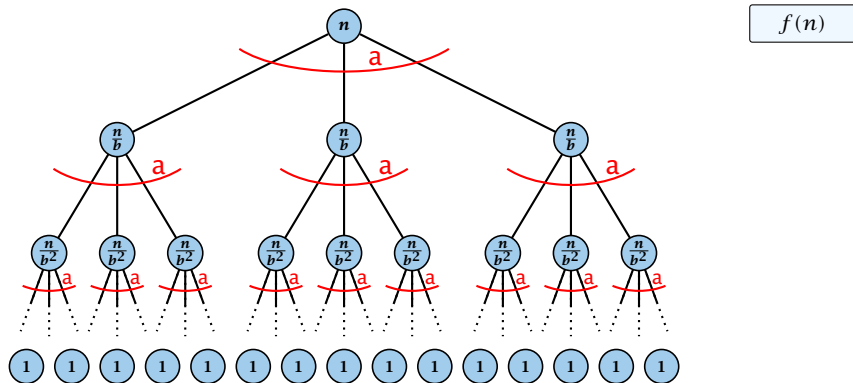
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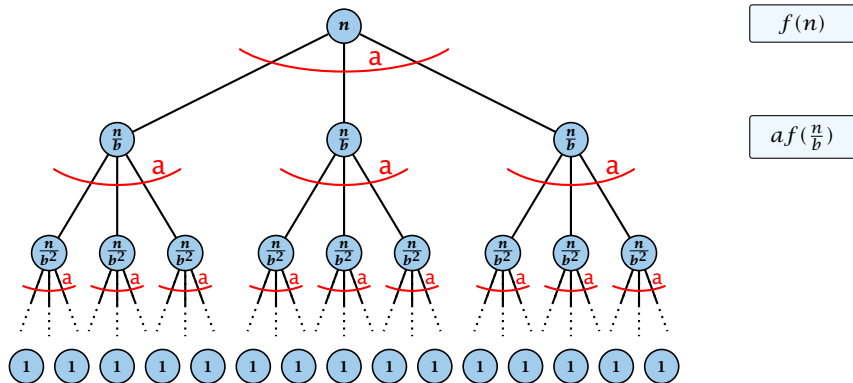
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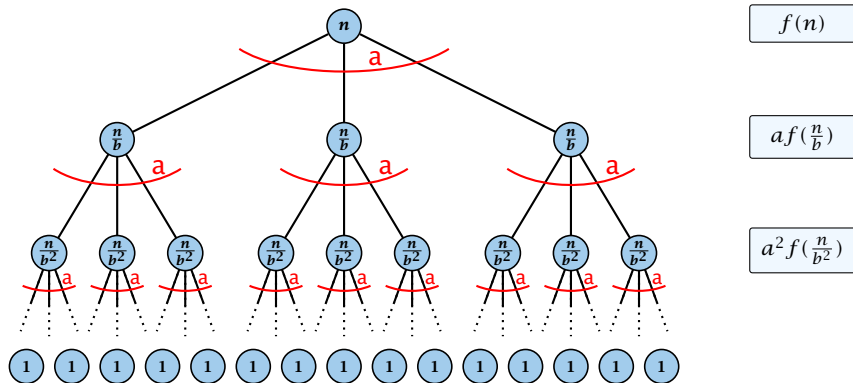
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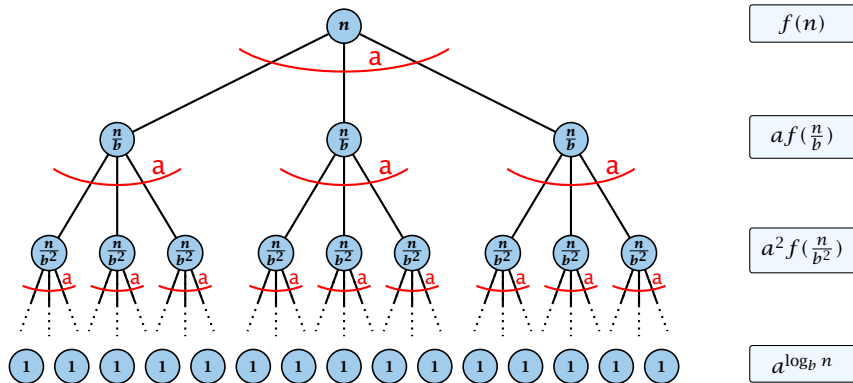
The Recursion Tree

The running time of a recursive algorithm can be visualized by a recursion tree:



The Recursion Tree

The running time of a recursive algorithm can be visualized by a recursion tree:



6.2 Master Theorem

This gives

$$T(n) = n^{\log_b a} + \sum_{i=0}^{\log_b n - 1} a^i f\left(\frac{n}{b^i}\right).$$

Case 1. Now suppose that $f(n) \leq cn^{\log_b a - \epsilon}$.

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$$T(n) = n^{\log_b a}$$

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$$T(n) - n^{\log_b a} = \sum_{i=0}^{\log_b n - 1} a^i f\left(\frac{n}{b^i}\right)$$

Case 1. Now suppose that $f(n) \leq cn^{\log_b a - \epsilon}$.

$$\begin{aligned} T(n) - n^{\log_b a} &= \sum_{i=0}^{\log_b n - 1} a^i f\left(\frac{n}{b^i}\right) \\ &\leq c \sum_{i=0}^{\log_b n - 1} a^i \left(\frac{n}{b^i}\right)^{\log_b a - \epsilon} \end{aligned}$$

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$$b^{-i(\log_b a - \epsilon)} = b^{\epsilon i} (b^{\log_b a})^{-i} = b^{\epsilon i} a^{-i}$$

Case 1. Now suppose that $f(n) \leq cn^{\log_b a - \epsilon}$.

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$$\boxed{b^{-i(\log_b a - \epsilon)} = b^{\epsilon i} (b^{\log_b a})^{-i} = b^{\epsilon i} a^{-i}} = cn^{\log_b a - \epsilon} \sum_{i=0}^{\log_b n - 1} (b^{\epsilon})^i$$

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$$\boxed{b^{-i(\log_b a - \epsilon)} = b^{\epsilon i} (b^{\log_b a})^{-i} = b^{\epsilon i} a^{-i}} = cn^{\log_b a - \epsilon} \sum_{i=0}^{\log_b n - 1} (b^{\epsilon})^i$$

$$\boxed{\sum_{i=0}^k q^i = \frac{q^{k+1} - 1}{q - 1}}$$

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$$\boxed{\sum_{i=0}^k q^i = \frac{q^{k+1} - 1}{q - 1}} = cn^{\log_b a - \epsilon} (b^{\epsilon \log_b n} - 1) / (b^{\epsilon} - 1)$$

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Hence,

$$T(n) \leq \left(\frac{c}{b^{\epsilon} - 1} + 1 \right) n^{\log_b(a)}$$

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$$\begin{aligned} b^{-i(\log_b a - \epsilon)} &= b^{\epsilon i} (b^{\log_b a})^{-i} = b^{\epsilon i} a^{-i} \\ &= cn^{\log_b a - \epsilon} \sum_{i=0}^{\log_b n - 1} (b^{\epsilon})^i \\ \sum_{i=0}^k q^i &= \frac{q^{k+1} - 1}{q - 1} \\ &= cn^{\log_b a - \epsilon} (b^{\epsilon \log_b n} - 1) / (b^{\epsilon} - 1) \\ &= cn^{\log_b a - \epsilon} (n^{\epsilon} - 1) / (b^{\epsilon} - 1) \\ &= \frac{c}{b^{\epsilon} - 1} n^{\log_b a} (n^{\epsilon} - 1) / (n^{\epsilon}) \end{aligned}$$

Hence,

$$T(n) \leq \left(\frac{c}{b^{\epsilon} - 1} + 1 \right) n^{\log_b(a)} \quad \Rightarrow T(n) = \mathcal{O}(n^{\log_b a}).$$

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Hence,

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Hence,

$$T(n) = \Omega(n^{\log_b a} \log_b n)$$

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$n = b^\ell \Rightarrow \ell = \log_b n$	$= cn^{\log_b a} \sum_{i=0}^{\ell-1} \left(\log_b\left(\frac{b^\ell}{b^i}\right)\right)^k$
--	--

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$$n = b^\ell \Rightarrow \ell = \log_b n$$

$$= cn^{\log_b a} \sum_{i=0}^{\ell-1} \left(\log_b\left(\frac{b^\ell}{b^i}\right)\right)^k$$

$$= cn^{\log_b a} \sum_{i=0}^{\ell-1} (\ell - i)^k$$

$$= cn^{\log_b a} \sum_{i=1}^{\ell} i^k \approx \frac{1}{k} \ell^{k+1}$$

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$$\Rightarrow T(n) = \mathcal{O}(n^{\log_b a} \log^{k+1} n).$$

Case 3. Now suppose that $f(n) \geq dn^{\log_b a + \epsilon}$, and that for sufficiently large n : $af(n/b) \leq cf(n)$, for $c < 1$.

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$$T(n) - n^{\log_b a} = \sum_{i=0}^{\log_b n - 1} a^i f\left(\frac{n}{b^i}\right)$$

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$$\begin{aligned} T(n) - n^{\log_b a} &= \sum_{i=0}^{\log_b n - 1} a^i f\left(\frac{n}{b^i}\right) \\ &\leq \sum_{i=0}^{\log_b n - 1} c^i f(n) + \mathcal{O}(n^{\log_b a}) \end{aligned}$$

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From this we get $a^i f(n/b^i) \leq c^i f(n)$, where we assume that $n/b^{i-1} \geq n_0$ is still sufficiently large.

$$\begin{aligned} T(n) - n^{\log_b a} &= \sum_{i=0}^{\log_b n - 1} a^i f\left(\frac{n}{b^i}\right) \\ &\leq \sum_{i=0}^{\log_b n - 1} c^i f(n) + \mathcal{O}(n^{\log_b a}) \end{aligned}$$

$$q < 1 : \sum_{i=0}^n q^i = \frac{1 - q^{n+1}}{1 - q} \leq \frac{1}{1 - q}$$

Case 3. Now suppose that $f(n) \geq dn^{\log_b a + \epsilon}$, and that for sufficiently large n : $af(n/b) \leq cf(n)$, for $c < 1$.

From this we get $a^i f(n/b^i) \leq c^i f(n)$, where we assume that $n/b^{i-1} \geq n_0$ is still sufficiently large.

$$\begin{aligned} T(n) - n^{\log_b a} &= \sum_{i=0}^{\log_b n - 1} a^i f\left(\frac{n}{b^i}\right) \\ &\leq \sum_{i=0}^{\log_b n - 1} c^i f(n) + \mathcal{O}(n^{\log_b a}) \\ &\leq \frac{1}{1-c} f(n) + \mathcal{O}(n^{\log_b a}) \end{aligned}$$

$$q < 1 : \sum_{i=0}^n q^i = \frac{1-q^{n+1}}{1-q} \leq \frac{1}{1-q}$$

Case 3. Now suppose that $f(n) \geq dn^{\log_b a + \epsilon}$, and that for sufficiently large n : $af(n/b) \leq cf(n)$, for $c < 1$.

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$$\begin{aligned} T(n) - n^{\log_b a} &= \sum_{i=0}^{\log_b n - 1} a^i f\left(\frac{n}{b^i}\right) \\ &\leq \sum_{i=0}^{\log_b n - 1} c^i f(n) + \mathcal{O}(n^{\log_b a}) \\ &\leq \frac{1}{1-c} f(n) + \mathcal{O}(n^{\log_b a}) \end{aligned}$$

$$q < 1 : \sum_{i=0}^n q^i = \frac{1-q^{n+1}}{1-q} \leq \frac{1}{1-q}$$

Hence,

$$T(n) \leq \mathcal{O}(f(n))$$

Case 3. Now suppose that $f(n) \geq dn^{\log_b a + \epsilon}$, and that for sufficiently large n : $af(n/b) \leq cf(n)$, for $c < 1$.

From this we get $a^i f(n/b^i) \leq c^i f(n)$, where we assume that $n/b^{i-1} \geq n_0$ is still sufficiently large.

$$\begin{aligned} T(n) - n^{\log_b a} &= \sum_{i=0}^{\log_b n - 1} a^i f\left(\frac{n}{b^i}\right) \\ &\leq \sum_{i=0}^{\log_b n - 1} c^i f(n) + \mathcal{O}(n^{\log_b a}) \\ &\leq \frac{1}{1-c} f(n) + \mathcal{O}(n^{\log_b a}) \end{aligned}$$

$$q < 1 : \sum_{i=0}^n q^i = \frac{1-q^{n+1}}{1-q} \leq \frac{1}{1-q}$$

Hence,

$$T(n) \leq \mathcal{O}(f(n))$$

$$\Rightarrow T(n) = \Theta(f(n)).$$

Example: Multiplying Two Integers

Suppose we want to multiply two n -bit Integers, but our registers can only perform operations on integers of constant size.

Example: Multiplying Two Integers

Suppose we want to multiply two n -bit Integers, but our registers can only perform operations on integers of constant size.

For this we first need to be able to add two integers A and B :

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For this we first need to be able to add two integers A and B :

$$\begin{array}{r} 1\ 1\ 0\ 1\ 1\ 0\ 1\ 0\ 1\ A \\ 1\ 0\ 0\ 0\ 1\ 0\ 0\ 1\ 1\ B \\ \hline \end{array}$$

Example: Multiplying Two Integers

Suppose we want to multiply two n -bit Integers, but our registers can only perform operations on integers of constant size.

For this we first need to be able to add two integers A and B :

1	1	0	1	1	0	1	0	1	A
1	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	1	B
<hr/>									
								1	

Example: Multiplying Two Integers

Suppose we want to multiply two n -bit Integers, but our registers can only perform operations on integers of constant size.

For this we first need to be able to add two integers A and B :

1	1	0	1	1	0	1	0	1	A
1	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	1	B
<hr/>									
								0	

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$$\begin{array}{r} 1\ 1\ 0\ 1\ 1\ 0\ 1\ 0\ 1\ A \\ 1\ 0\ 0\ 0\ 1\ 0\ 0\ 1\ 1\ B \\ \hline 0 \end{array}$$

Example: Multiplying Two Integers

Suppose we want to multiply two n -bit Integers, but our registers can only perform operations on integers of constant size.

For this we first need to be able to add two integers A and B :

$$\begin{array}{rcccccccccc} 1 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & & A \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & & B \\ \hline & & & & & & & 1 & 1 & & \\ & & & & & & & 0 & 0 & & \end{array}$$

Example: Multiplying Two Integers

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For this we first need to be able to add two integers A and B :

1	1	0	1	1	0	1	0	1	A
1	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	1	B
<hr/>									
						1	1		
								0	0

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Suppose we want to multiply two n -bit Integers, but our registers can only perform operations on integers of constant size.

For this we first need to be able to add two integers A and B :

1	1	0	1	1	0	1	0	1	A
1	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	1	B
<hr/>						0	0	0	

The diagram illustrates the addition of two integers, A and B, using a register of constant size. The integers are represented as binary strings: A = 110110101 and B = 100010011. The addition is performed bit by bit, with carry bits (1) shown below the digits. The result of the addition is 000, which is shown in a box below the horizontal line.

Example: Multiplying Two Integers

Suppose we want to multiply two n -bit Integers, but our registers can only perform operations on integers of constant size.

For this we first need to be able to add two integers A and B :

	1	1	0	1	1	0	1	0	1	A
	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	1	B
<hr/>										
						1	1	1		
							0	0	0	

Example: Multiplying Two Integers

Suppose we want to multiply two n -bit Integers, but our registers can only perform operations on integers of constant size.

For this we first need to be able to add two integers A and B :

1	1	0	1	1	0	1	0	1		A	
1	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	1		B	
					0	1	1	1			
					1	0	0	0			

Example: Multiplying Two Integers

Suppose we want to multiply two n -bit Integers, but our registers can only perform operations on integers of constant size.

For this we first need to be able to add two integers A and B :

$$\begin{array}{rcccccccc} 1 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & A \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & B \\ \hline & & & & 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 & & \\ & & & & & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & \end{array}$$

Example: Multiplying Two Integers

Suppose we want to multiply two n -bit Integers, but our registers can only perform operations on integers of constant size.

For this we first need to be able to add two integers A and B :

$$\begin{array}{rcccccccc} 1 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & A \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & B \\ \hline & & & & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & \end{array}$$

The diagram illustrates the addition of two 9-bit integers, A and B, using a ripple carry adder. The numbers are aligned by their least significant bits. A horizontal line is drawn under the bottom row. The result of the addition is shown in the bottom row. The carry bits are shown as small '1's below the bottom row. The carry bit from the 4th bit to the 5th bit is highlighted in a light blue box.

Example: Multiplying Two Integers

Suppose we want to multiply two n -bit Integers, but our registers can only perform operations on integers of constant size.

For this we first need to be able to add two integers A and B :

1	1	0	1	1	0	1	0	1	A
1	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	1	B
				1	0	1	1	1	
				0	1	0	0	0	

Example: Multiplying Two Integers

Suppose we want to multiply two n -bit Integers, but our registers can only perform operations on integers of constant size.

For this we first need to be able to add two integers A and B :

$$\begin{array}{rcccccccc} 1 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & A \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & B \\ \hline & & & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & \end{array}$$

The diagram illustrates the addition of two 9-bit integers, A and B, using a carry propagation method. The numbers are aligned by their least significant bits. A horizontal line is drawn under the second row. The result of the addition is shown in the third row. The carry bits are indicated by small numbers below the digits in the second row: a '1' under the third digit, a '1' under the fourth digit, a '0' under the fifth digit, a '1' under the sixth digit, a '1' under the seventh digit, and a '1' under the eighth digit. The digit '1' in the fourth column of the result row is highlighted with a light blue box.

Example: Multiplying Two Integers

Suppose we want to multiply two n -bit Integers, but our registers can only perform operations on integers of constant size.

For this we first need to be able to add two integers A and B :

1	1	0	1	1	0	1	0	1	A
1	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	1	B
<hr/>									
			1	1	0	1	1	1	
			0	0	1	0	0	0	

Example: Multiplying Two Integers

Suppose we want to multiply two n -bit Integers, but our registers can only perform operations on integers of constant size.

For this we first need to be able to add two integers A and B :

$$\begin{array}{r} 1\ 1\ 0\ 1\ 1\ 0\ 1\ 0\ 1\ A \\ 1\ 0\ 0\ 0\ 1\ 0\ 0\ 1\ 1\ B \\ \hline 1\ 0\ 0\ 1\ 0\ 0\ 0 \end{array}$$

The diagram illustrates the addition of two 9-bit integers, A and B, to produce a 9-bit result. The numbers are aligned to the right. A vertical box highlights the third bit position (from the right). Below the horizontal line, the carry bits are indicated: a '0' under the second bit, and '1' under the third, fourth, fifth, sixth, seventh, and eighth bits.

Example: Multiplying Two Integers

Suppose we want to multiply two n -bit Integers, but our registers can only perform operations on integers of constant size.

For this we first need to be able to add two integers A and B :

1	1	0	1	1	0	1	0	1	A
1	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	1	B
<hr/>									
		1	0	0	1	0	0	0	

Note: In the original image, a vertical box highlights the first two bits of the top row (1, 1) and the first bit of the bottom row (1). Below the horizontal line, the first bit of the result (1) is shown in the second column, with a carry of 0 written below the first bit of the second row.

Example: Multiplying Two Integers

Suppose we want to multiply two n -bit Integers, but our registers can only perform operations on integers of constant size.

For this we first need to be able to add two integers A and B :

	1	1	0	1	1	0	1	0	1	A
	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	1	B
	<small>0</small>	<small>0</small>	<small>1</small>	<small>1</small>	<small>0</small>	<small>1</small>	<small>1</small>	<small>1</small>		
<hr/>										
	1	1	0	0	1	0	0	0		

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Suppose we want to multiply two n -bit Integers, but our registers can only perform operations on integers of constant size.

For this we first need to be able to add two integers A and B :

1	1	0	1	1	0	1	0	1	A
1	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	1	B
<hr/>									
	1	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	

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Suppose we want to multiply two n -bit Integers, but our registers can only perform operations on integers of constant size.

For this we first need to be able to add two integers A and B :

	1	1	0	1	1	0	1	0	1	A
	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	1	B
1	0	0	1	1	0	1	1	1		
<hr/>										
	0	1	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	

Example: Multiplying Two Integers

Suppose we want to multiply two n -bit Integers, but our registers can only perform operations on integers of constant size.

For this we first need to be able to add two integers A and B :

	1	1	0	1	1	0	1	0	1	A
	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	1	B
	<hr/>									
	0	1	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	

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For this we first need to be able to add two integers A and B :

	1	1	0	1	1	0	1	0	1	A
	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	1	B
	<hr/>									
1	0	1	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	

Example: Multiplying Two Integers

Suppose we want to multiply two n -bit Integers, but our registers can only perform operations on integers of constant size.

For this we first need to be able to add two integers A and B :

$$\begin{array}{r} 1\ 1\ 0\ 1\ 1\ 0\ 1\ 0\ 1\ A \\ 1\ 0\ 0\ 0\ 1\ 0\ 0\ 1\ 1\ B \\ \hline 1\ 0\ 1\ 1\ 0\ 0\ 1\ 0\ 0\ 0 \end{array}$$

This gives that two n -bit integers can be added in time $\mathcal{O}(n)$.

Example: Multiplying Two Integers

Suppose that we want to multiply an n -bit integer A and an m -bit integer B ($m \leq n$).

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Suppose that we want to multiply an n -bit integer A and an m -bit integer B ($m \leq n$).

$$\begin{array}{r} 10001 \\ \times 1011 \\ \hline \end{array}$$

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$$\begin{array}{r} 10001 \times 1011 \\ \hline \end{array}$$

Example: Multiplying Two Integers

Suppose that we want to multiply an n -bit integer A and an m -bit integer B ($m \leq n$).

$$\begin{array}{r} 1\ 0\ 0\ 0\ 1 \times 1\ 0\ 1\ \boxed{1} \\ \hline 1\ 0\ 0\ 0\ 1 \end{array}$$

Example: Multiplying Two Integers

Suppose that we want to multiply an n -bit integer A and an m -bit integer B ($m \leq n$).

$$\begin{array}{r} 1\ 0\ 0\ 0\ 1 \times 1\ 0\ 1\ 1 \\ \hline 1\ 0\ 0\ 0\ 1 \end{array}$$

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Suppose that we want to multiply an n -bit integer A and an m -bit integer B ($m \leq n$).

$$\begin{array}{r} 1\ 0\ 0\ 0\ 1 \times 1\ 0\ 1\ 1 \\ \hline 1\ 0\ 0\ 0\ 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{array}$$

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Suppose that we want to multiply an n -bit integer A and an m -bit integer B ($m \leq n$).

$$\begin{array}{r} 1\ 0\ 0\ 0\ 1 \times 1\ 0\ 1\ 1 \\ \hline 1\ 0\ 0\ 0\ 1 \\ 1\ 0\ 0\ 0\ 1\ 0 \end{array}$$

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Suppose that we want to multiply an n -bit integer A and an m -bit integer B ($m \leq n$).

$$\begin{array}{r} 1\ 0\ 0\ 0\ 1 \times 1\ 0\ 1\ 1 \\ \hline 1\ 0\ 0\ 0\ 1 \\ 1\ 0\ 0\ 0\ 1\ 0 \end{array}$$

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$$\begin{array}{r} 1\ 0\ 0\ 0\ 1 \times 1\ 0\ 1\ 1 \\ \hline 1\ 0\ 0\ 0\ 1 \\ 1\ 0\ 0\ 0\ 1\ 0 \\ 0\ 0 \end{array}$$

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Suppose that we want to multiply an n -bit integer A and an m -bit integer B ($m \leq n$).

$$\begin{array}{r} 1\ 0\ 0\ 0\ 1 \times 1\ 0\ 1\ 1 \\ \hline 1\ 0\ 0\ 0\ 1 \\ 1\ 0\ 0\ 0\ 1\ 0 \\ 0\ 0\ 0\ 0\ 0\ 0\ 0 \end{array}$$

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Suppose that we want to multiply an n -bit integer A and an m -bit integer B ($m \leq n$).

$$\begin{array}{r} 1\ 0\ 0\ 0\ 1 \times 1\ 0\ 1\ 1 \\ \hline 1\ 0\ 0\ 0\ 1 \\ 1\ 0\ 0\ 0\ 1\ 0 \\ 0\ 0\ 0\ 0\ 0\ 0\ 0 \end{array}$$

Example: Multiplying Two Integers

Suppose that we want to multiply an n -bit integer A and an m -bit integer B ($m \leq n$).

$$\begin{array}{r} 1\ 0\ 0\ 0\ 1 \times 1\ 0\ 1\ 1 \\ \hline 1\ 0\ 0\ 0\ 1 \\ 1\ 0\ 0\ 0\ 1\ 0 \\ 0\ 0\ 0\ 0\ 0\ 0\ 0 \\ 0\ 0\ 0 \end{array}$$

Example: Multiplying Two Integers

Suppose that we want to multiply an n -bit integer A and an m -bit integer B ($m \leq n$).

$$\begin{array}{r} 1\ 0\ 0\ 0\ 1 \times 1\ 0\ 1\ 1 \\ \hline 1\ 0\ 0\ 0\ 1 \\ 1\ 0\ 0\ 0\ 1\ 0 \\ 0\ 0\ 0\ 0\ 0\ 0\ 0 \\ 1\ 0\ 0\ 0\ 1\ 0\ 0\ 0 \end{array}$$

Example: Multiplying Two Integers

Suppose that we want to multiply an n -bit integer A and an m -bit integer B ($m \leq n$).

$$\begin{array}{r} 1\ 0\ 0\ 0\ 1 \times 1\ 0\ 1\ 1 \\ \hline 1\ 0\ 0\ 0\ 1 \\ 1\ 0\ 0\ 0\ 1\ 0 \\ 0\ 0\ 0\ 0\ 0\ 0\ 0 \\ 1\ 0\ 0\ 0\ 1\ 0\ 0\ 0 \\ \hline \end{array}$$

Example: Multiplying Two Integers

Suppose that we want to multiply an n -bit integer A and an m -bit integer B ($m \leq n$).

$$\begin{array}{r} 1\ 0\ 0\ 0\ 1 \times 1\ 0\ 1\ 1 \\ \hline 1\ 0\ 0\ 0\ 1 \\ 1\ 0\ 0\ 0\ 1\ 0 \\ 0\ 0\ 0\ 0\ 0\ 0\ 0 \\ 1\ 0\ 0\ 0\ 1\ 0\ 0\ 0 \\ \hline 1\ 0\ 1\ 1\ 1\ 0\ 1\ 1 \end{array}$$

Example: Multiplying Two Integers

Suppose that we want to multiply an n -bit integer A and an m -bit integer B ($m \leq n$).

$$\begin{array}{r} 1\ 0\ 0\ 0\ 1 \times 1\ 0\ 1\ 1 \\ \hline 1\ 0\ 0\ 0\ 1 \\ 1\ 0\ 0\ 0\ 1\ 0 \\ 0\ 0\ 0\ 0\ 0\ 0\ 0 \\ 1\ 0\ 0\ 0\ 1\ 0\ 0\ 0 \\ \hline 1\ 0\ 1\ 1\ 1\ 0\ 1\ 1 \end{array}$$

Time requirement:

Example: Multiplying Two Integers

Suppose that we want to multiply an n -bit integer A and an m -bit integer B ($m \leq n$).

$$\begin{array}{r} 1\ 0\ 0\ 0\ 1 \times 1\ 0\ 1\ 1 \\ \hline 1\ 0\ 0\ 0\ 1 \\ 1\ 0\ 0\ 0\ 1\ 0 \\ 0\ 0\ 0\ 0\ 0\ 0\ 0 \\ 1\ 0\ 0\ 0\ 1\ 0\ 0\ 0 \\ \hline 1\ 0\ 1\ 1\ 1\ 0\ 1\ 1 \end{array}$$

Time requirement:

- ▶ Computing intermediate results: $\mathcal{O}(nm)$.

Example: Multiplying Two Integers

Suppose that we want to multiply an n -bit integer A and an m -bit integer B ($m \leq n$).

$$\begin{array}{r} 1\ 0\ 0\ 0\ 1 \times 1\ 0\ 1\ 1 \\ \hline 1\ 0\ 0\ 0\ 1 \\ 1\ 0\ 0\ 0\ 1\ 0 \\ 0\ 0\ 0\ 0\ 0\ 0\ 0 \\ 1\ 0\ 0\ 0\ 1\ 0\ 0\ 0 \\ \hline 1\ 0\ 1\ 1\ 1\ 0\ 1\ 1 \end{array}$$

Time requirement:

- ▶ Computing intermediate results: $\mathcal{O}(nm)$.
- ▶ Adding m numbers of length $\leq 2n$:
 $\mathcal{O}((m+n)m) = \mathcal{O}(nm)$.

Example: Multiplying Two Integers

A recursive approach:

Suppose that integers A and B are of length $n = 2^k$, for some k .

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Suppose that integers A and B are of length $n = 2^k$, for some k .

$$\boxed{b_{n-1} \quad \dots \quad b_0} \times \boxed{a_{n-1} \quad \dots \quad a_0}$$

Example: Multiplying Two Integers

A recursive approach:

Suppose that integers A and B are of length $n = 2^k$, for some k .

$$\boxed{b_{n-1} \quad \cdots \quad b_{\frac{n}{2}} \quad b_{\frac{n}{2}-1} \quad \cdots \quad b_0} \times \boxed{a_{n-1} \quad \cdots \quad a_{\frac{n}{2}} \quad a_{\frac{n}{2}-1} \quad \cdots \quad a_0}$$

Example: Multiplying Two Integers

A recursive approach:

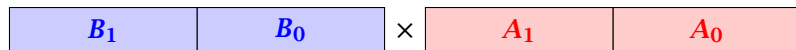
Suppose that integers A and B are of length $n = 2^k$, for some k .

$$\begin{array}{|c|c|} \hline B_1 & B_0 \\ \hline \end{array} \times \begin{array}{|c|c|} \hline A_1 & A_0 \\ \hline \end{array}$$

Example: Multiplying Two Integers

A recursive approach:

Suppose that integers A and B are of length $n = 2^k$, for some k .



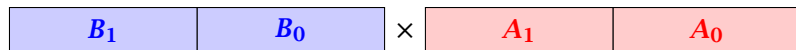
Then it holds that

$$A = A_1 \cdot 2^{\frac{n}{2}} + A_0 \text{ and } B = B_1 \cdot 2^{\frac{n}{2}} + B_0$$

Example: Multiplying Two Integers

A recursive approach:

Suppose that integers A and B are of length $n = 2^k$, for some k .



Then it holds that

$$A = A_1 \cdot 2^{\frac{n}{2}} + A_0 \text{ and } B = B_1 \cdot 2^{\frac{n}{2}} + B_0$$

Hence,

$$A \cdot B = A_1 B_1 \cdot 2^n + (A_1 B_0 + A_0 B_1) \cdot 2^{\frac{n}{2}} + A_0 B_0$$

Example: Multiplying Two Integers

Algorithm 3 $\text{mult}(A, B)$

```
1: if  $|A| = |B| = 1$  then  
2:     return  $a_0 \cdot b_0$   
3: split  $A$  into  $A_0$  and  $A_1$   
4: split  $B$  into  $B_0$  and  $B_1$   
5:  $Z_2 \leftarrow \text{mult}(A_1, B_1)$   
6:  $Z_1 \leftarrow \text{mult}(A_1, B_0) + \text{mult}(A_0, B_1)$   
7:  $Z_0 \leftarrow \text{mult}(A_0, B_0)$   
8: return  $Z_2 \cdot 2^n + Z_1 \cdot 2^{\frac{n}{2}} + Z_0$ 
```

Example: Multiplying Two Integers

Algorithm 3 $\text{mult}(A, B)$

```
1: if  $|A| = |B| = 1$  then
2:   return  $a_0 \cdot b_0$ 
3: split  $A$  into  $A_0$  and  $A_1$ 
4: split  $B$  into  $B_0$  and  $B_1$ 
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7:  $Z_0 \leftarrow \text{mult}(A_0, B_0)$ 
8: return  $Z_2 \cdot 2^n + Z_1 \cdot 2^{\frac{n}{2}} + Z_0$ 
```

$\mathcal{O}(1)$

Example: Multiplying Two Integers

Algorithm 3 $\text{mult}(A, B)$

1: **if** $|A| = |B| = 1$ **then**

$\mathcal{O}(1)$

2: **return** $a_0 \cdot b_0$

$\mathcal{O}(1)$

3: split A into A_0 and A_1

4: split B into B_0 and B_1

5: $Z_2 \leftarrow \text{mult}(A_1, B_1)$

6: $Z_1 \leftarrow \text{mult}(A_1, B_0) + \text{mult}(A_0, B_1)$

7: $Z_0 \leftarrow \text{mult}(A_0, B_0)$

8: **return** $Z_2 \cdot 2^n + Z_1 \cdot 2^{\frac{n}{2}} + Z_0$

Example: Multiplying Two Integers

Algorithm 3 $\text{mult}(A, B)$

1: **if** $|A| = |B| = 1$ **then**

$\mathcal{O}(1)$

2: **return** $a_0 \cdot b_0$

$\mathcal{O}(1)$

3: split A into A_0 and A_1

$\mathcal{O}(n)$

4: split B into B_0 and B_1

5: $Z_2 \leftarrow \text{mult}(A_1, B_1)$

6: $Z_1 \leftarrow \text{mult}(A_1, B_0) + \text{mult}(A_0, B_1)$

7: $Z_0 \leftarrow \text{mult}(A_0, B_0)$

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Example: Multiplying Two Integers

Algorithm 3 $\text{mult}(A, B)$

- 1: **if** $|A| = |B| = 1$ **then** $\mathcal{O}(1)$
- 2: **return** $a_0 \cdot b_0$ $\mathcal{O}(1)$
- 3: split A into A_0 and A_1 $\mathcal{O}(n)$
- 4: split B into B_0 and B_1 $\mathcal{O}(n)$
- 5: $Z_2 \leftarrow \text{mult}(A_1, B_1)$
- 6: $Z_1 \leftarrow \text{mult}(A_1, B_0) + \text{mult}(A_0, B_1)$
- 7: $Z_0 \leftarrow \text{mult}(A_0, B_0)$
- 8: **return** $Z_2 \cdot 2^n + Z_1 \cdot 2^{\frac{n}{2}} + Z_0$

Example: Multiplying Two Integers

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8: **return** $Z_2 \cdot 2^n + Z_1 \cdot 2^{\frac{n}{2}} + Z_0$

$\mathcal{O}(1)$

$\mathcal{O}(1)$

$\mathcal{O}(n)$

$\mathcal{O}(n)$

$T\left(\frac{n}{2}\right)$

Example: Multiplying Two Integers

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2: **return** $a_0 \cdot b_0$

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3: split A into A_0 and A_1

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Example: Multiplying Two Integers

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2: return $a_0 \cdot b_0$	$\mathcal{O}(1)$
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8: return $Z_2 \cdot 2^n + Z_1 \cdot 2^{\frac{n}{2}} + Z_0$	$\mathcal{O}(n)$

We get the following recurrence:

$$T(n) = 4T\left(\frac{n}{2}\right) + \mathcal{O}(n) .$$

Example: Multiplying Two Integers

Master Theorem: Recurrence: $T[n] = aT(\frac{n}{b}) + f(n)$.

- ▶ Case 1: $f(n) = \mathcal{O}(n^{\log_b a - \epsilon})$ $T(n) = \Theta(n^{\log_b a})$
- ▶ Case 2: $f(n) = \Theta(n^{\log_b a} \log^k n)$ $T(n) = \Theta(n^{\log_b a} \log^{k+1} n)$
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In our case $a = 4$, $b = 2$, and $f(n) = \Theta(n)$. Hence, we are in Case 1, since $n = \mathcal{O}(n^{2-\epsilon}) = \mathcal{O}(n^{\log_b a - \epsilon})$.

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We get a running time of $\mathcal{O}(n^2)$ for our algorithm.

Example: Multiplying Two Integers

Master Theorem: Recurrence: $T[n] = aT(\frac{n}{b}) + f(n)$.

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⇒ Not better than the “school method”.

Example: Multiplying Two Integers

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$$\begin{aligned}Z_1 &= A_1B_0 + A_0B_1 \\ &= (A_0 + A_1) \cdot (B_0 + B_1) - A_1B_1 - A_0B_0\end{aligned}$$

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Hence,

Algorithm 4 mult(A, B)

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1: if  $|A| = |B| = 1$  then
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3: split  $A$  into  $A_0$  and  $A_1$ 
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Example: Multiplying Two Integers

We get the following recurrence:

$$T(n) = 3T\left(\frac{n}{2}\right) + \mathcal{O}(n) .$$

Master Theorem: Recurrence: $T[n] = aT\left(\frac{n}{b}\right) + f(n)$.

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Again we are in Case 1. We get a running time of $\Theta(n^{\log_2 3}) \approx \Theta(n^{1.59})$.

A huge improvement over the "school method".

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6.3 The Characteristic Polynomial

Consider the recurrence relation:

$$c_0T(n) + c_1T(n-1) + c_2T(n-2) + \dots + c_kT(n-k) = f(n)$$

This is the general form of a **linear** recurrence relation of **order k** with constant coefficients ($c_0, c_k \neq 0$).

The recurrence is **linear** because it only depends on the preceding values. That is, the recurrence relation is of the form

The recurrence is **linear** as there are no products of variables. If $f(n) = 0$, then the recurrence relation becomes a **linear homogeneous** recurrence relation of order k .

Note that we ignore **boundary conditions** for the moment.

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- ▶ $T(n)$ only depends on the k preceding values. This means the recurrence relation is of **order k** .
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- ▶ The recurrence is linear as there are no products of $T[n]$'s.
- ▶ If $f(n) = 0$ then the recurrence relation becomes a linear, **homogenous** recurrence relation of order k .

Note that we ignore **boundary conditions** for the moment.

6.3 The Characteristic Polynomial

Consider the recurrence relation:

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Observations:

- ▶ The solution $T[1], T[2], T[3], \dots$ is completely determined by a set of **boundary conditions** that specify values for $T[1], \dots, T[k]$.
- ▶ In fact, any k consecutive values completely determine the solution.
- ▶ k non-consecutive values might not be an appropriate set of boundary conditions (depends on the problem).

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- ▶ First determine all solutions that satisfy recurrence relation.
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The Homogenous Case

The solution space

$$S = \left\{ \mathcal{T} = T[1], T[2], T[3], \dots \mid \mathcal{T} \text{ fulfills recurrence relation} \right\}$$

is a **vector space**. This means that if $\mathcal{T}_1, \mathcal{T}_2 \in S$, then also $\alpha\mathcal{T}_1 + \beta\mathcal{T}_2 \in S$, for arbitrary constants α, β .

How do we find a non-trivial solution?

We guess that the solution is of the form λ^n , $\lambda \neq 0$, and see what happens. In order for this guess to fulfill the recurrence we need

$$c_0\lambda^n + c_1\lambda^{n-1} + c_2 \cdot \lambda^{n-2} + \dots + c_k \cdot \lambda^{n-k} = 0$$

for all $n \geq k$.

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Dividing by λ^{n-k} gives that all these constraints are identical to

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This means that if λ_i is a root (Nullstelle) of $P[\lambda]$ then $T[n] = \lambda_i^n$ is a solution to the recurrence relation.

Let $\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_k$ be the k (complex) roots of $P[\lambda]$. Then, because of the vector space property

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Lemma 5

Assume that the characteristic polynomial has k *distinct* roots $\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_k$. Then *all* solutions to the recurrence relation are of the form

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Proof.

There is one solution for every possible choice of boundary conditions for $T[1], \dots, T[k]$.

We show that the above set of solutions contains one solution for every choice of boundary conditions.

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Suppose I am given boundary conditions $T[i]$ and I want to see whether I can choose the α'_i 's such that these conditions are met:

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We show that the column vectors are linearly independent. Then the above equation has a solution.

Computing the Determinant

$$\begin{vmatrix} \lambda_1 & \lambda_2 & \cdots & \lambda_{k-1} & \lambda_k \\ \lambda_1^2 & \lambda_2^2 & \cdots & \lambda_{k-1}^2 & \lambda_k^2 \\ \vdots & \vdots & & \vdots & \vdots \\ \lambda_1^k & \lambda_2^k & \cdots & \lambda_{k-1}^k & \lambda_k^k \end{vmatrix} =$$

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$$\begin{vmatrix} 1 & 0 & \cdots & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & (\lambda_2 - \lambda_1) \cdot 1 & \cdots & (\lambda_2 - \lambda_1) \cdot \lambda_2^{k-3} & (\lambda_2 - \lambda_1) \cdot \lambda_2^{k-2} \\ \vdots & \vdots & & \vdots & \vdots \\ 1 & (\lambda_k - \lambda_1) \cdot 1 & \cdots & (\lambda_k - \lambda_1) \cdot \lambda_k^{k-3} & (\lambda_k - \lambda_1) \cdot \lambda_k^{k-2} \end{vmatrix}$$

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$$\prod_{i=2}^k (\lambda_i - \lambda_1) \cdot \begin{vmatrix} 1 & \lambda_2 & \cdots & \lambda_2^{k-3} & \lambda_2^{k-2} \\ \vdots & \vdots & & \vdots & \vdots \\ 1 & \lambda_k & \cdots & \lambda_k^{k-3} & \lambda_k^{k-2} \end{vmatrix}$$

Computing the Determinant

Repeating the above steps gives:

$$\begin{vmatrix} \lambda_1 & \lambda_2 & \cdots & \lambda_{k-1} & \lambda_k \\ \lambda_1^2 & \lambda_2^2 & \cdots & \lambda_{k-1}^2 & \lambda_k^2 \\ \vdots & \vdots & & \vdots & \vdots \\ \lambda_1^k & \lambda_2^k & \cdots & \lambda_{k-1}^k & \lambda_k^k \end{vmatrix} = \prod_{i=1}^k \lambda_i \cdot \prod_{i>\ell} (\lambda_i - \lambda_\ell)$$

Hence, if all λ_i 's are different, then the determinant is non-zero.

The Homogeneous Case

What happens if the roots are not all distinct?

Suppose we have a root λ_i with multiplicity (Vielfachheit) at least 2. Then not only is λ_i^n a solution to the recurrence but also $n\lambda_i^{n-1}$.

To see this consider the polynomial

$$P[\lambda] \cdot \lambda^{n-k} = c_0\lambda^n + c_1\lambda^{n-1} + c_2\lambda^{n-2} + \dots + c_k\lambda^{n-k}$$

Since λ_i is a root we can write this as $Q[\lambda] \cdot (\lambda - \lambda_i)^2$.

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$$P[\lambda] \cdot \lambda^{n-k} = c_0\lambda^n + c_1\lambda^{n-1} + c_2\lambda^{n-2} + \dots + c_k\lambda^{n-k}$$

Since λ_i is a root we can write this as $Q[\lambda] \cdot (\lambda - \lambda_i)^2$.

Calculating the derivative gives a polynomial that still has root λ_i .

This means

$$c_0 n \lambda_i^{n-1} + c_1 (n-1) \lambda_i^{n-2} + \dots + c_k (n-k) \lambda_i^{n-k-1} = 0$$

Hence,

$$\underbrace{c_0 n \lambda_i^n}_{T[n]} + \underbrace{c_1 (n-1) \lambda_i^{n-1}}_{T[n-1]} + \dots + \underbrace{c_k (n-k) \lambda_i^{n-k}}_{T[n-k]} = 0$$

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The Homogeneous Case

Suppose λ_i has multiplicity j . We know that

$$c_0 n \lambda_i^n + c_1 (n-1) \lambda_i^{n-1} + \dots + c_k (n-k) \lambda_i^{n-k} = 0$$

(after taking the derivative; multiplying with λ ; plugging in λ_i)

Doing this again gives

$$c_0 n^2 \lambda_i^n + c_1 (n-1)^2 \lambda_i^{n-1} + \dots + c_k (n-k)^2 \lambda_i^{n-k} = 0$$

We can continue $j-1$ times.

Hence, $n^\ell \lambda_i^n$ is a solution for $\ell \in 0, \dots, j-1$.

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We can continue $j-1$ times.

Hence, $n^\ell \lambda_i^n$ is a solution for $\ell \in 0, \dots, j-1$.

The Homogeneous Case

Lemma 6

Let $P[\lambda]$ denote the characteristic polynomial to the recurrence

$$c_0T[n] + c_1T[n-1] + \dots + c_kT[n-k] = 0$$

Let $\lambda_i, i = 1, \dots, m$ be the (complex) roots of $P[\lambda]$ with multiplicities ℓ_i . Then the general solution to the recurrence is given by

$$T[n] = \sum_{i=1}^m \sum_{j=0}^{\ell_i-1} \alpha_{ij} \cdot (n^j \lambda_i^n) .$$

The full proof is omitted. We have only shown that any choice of α_{ij} 's is a solution to the recurrence.

Example: Fibonacci Sequence

$$T[0] = 0$$

$$T[1] = 1$$

$$T[n] = T[n - 1] + T[n - 2] \text{ for } n \geq 2$$

The characteristic polynomial is

$$\lambda^2 - \lambda - 1$$

Finding the roots, gives

$$\lambda_{1/2} = \frac{1}{2} \pm \sqrt{\frac{1}{4} + 1} = \frac{1}{2} (1 \pm \sqrt{5})$$

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$$\alpha \left(\frac{1 + \sqrt{5}}{2} \right) + \beta \left(\frac{1 - \sqrt{5}}{2} \right) = 1 \implies \alpha - \beta = \frac{2}{\sqrt{5}}$$

Example: Fibonacci Sequence

Hence, the solution is

$$\frac{1}{\sqrt{5}} \left[\left(\frac{1 + \sqrt{5}}{2} \right)^n - \left(\frac{1 - \sqrt{5}}{2} \right)^n \right]$$

The Inhomogeneous Case

Consider the recurrence relation:

$$c_0T(n) + c_1T(n-1) + c_2T(n-2) + \cdots + c_kT(n-k) = f(n)$$

with $f(n) \neq 0$.

While we have a fairly general technique for solving **homogeneous**, linear recurrence relations the inhomogeneous case is different.

The Inhomogeneous Case

The general solution of the recurrence relation is

$$T(n) = T_h(n) + T_p(n) ,$$

where T_h is **any** solution to the homogeneous equation, and T_p is **one** particular solution to the inhomogeneous equation.

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The Inhomogeneous Case

Example:

$$T[n] = T[n - 1] + 1 \quad T[0] = 1$$

Then,

$$T[n - 1] = T[n - 2] + 1 \quad (n \geq 2)$$

Subtracting the first from the second equation gives,

$$T[n] - T[n - 1] = T[n - 1] - T[n - 2] \quad (n \geq 2)$$

or

$$T[n] = 2T[n - 1] - T[n - 2] \quad (n \geq 2)$$

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$T[1] = 2$ gives $1 + \beta = 2 \Rightarrow \beta = 1$.

The Inhomogeneous Case

If $f(n)$ is a polynomial of degree r this method can be applied $r + 1$ times to obtain a homogeneous equation:

$$T[n] = T[n - 1] + n^2$$

Shift:

$$T[n - 1] = T[n - 2] + (n - 1)^2$$

Difference:

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Shift:

$$T[n - 1] = 2T[n - 2] - T[n - 3] + 2(n - 1) - 1$$

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Shift:

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and so on...

6.4 Generating Functions

Definition 7 (Generating Function)

Let $(a_n)_{n \geq 0}$ be a sequence. The corresponding

- ▶ **generating function** (Erzeugendenfunktion) is

$$F(z) := \sum_{n \geq 0} a_n z^n;$$

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6.4 Generating Functions

There are two different views:

A generating function is a **formal power series** (formale Potenzreihe).

Then the generating function is an **algebraic object**.

Let $f = \sum_{n \geq 0} a_n z^n$ and $g = \sum_{n \geq 0} b_n z^n$.

- ▶ **Equality:** f and g are equal if $a_n = b_n$ for all n .
- ▶ **Addition:** $f + g := \sum_{n \geq 0} (a_n + b_n) z^n$.
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We view a power series as a function $f : \mathbb{C} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$.

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It means that the power series $1 - z$ and the power series $\sum_{n \geq 0} z^n$ are invers, i.e.,

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Hence, the generating function of the sequence $a_n = n + 1$ is $1/(1-z)^2$.

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Hence, the generating function of the sequence

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The generating function of the sequence $a_n = n$ is $\frac{z}{(1-z)^2}$.

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We know

$$\sum_{n \geq 0} y^n = \frac{1}{1-y}$$

Hence,

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which gives

$$A = \frac{7}{4} \quad B = -\frac{1}{4} \quad C = -\frac{1}{2}$$

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6. This means $a_n = \frac{7}{4}3^n - \frac{1}{2}n - \frac{3}{4}$.

6.5 Transformation of the Recurrence

Example 9

$$f_0 = 1$$

$$f_1 = 2$$

$$f_n = f_{n-1} \cdot f_{n-2} \text{ for } n \geq 2 .$$

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6 Recurrences

Let $n = 2^k$:

$$g_k = 3^{k+1} - 2^{k+1}, \text{ hence}$$

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