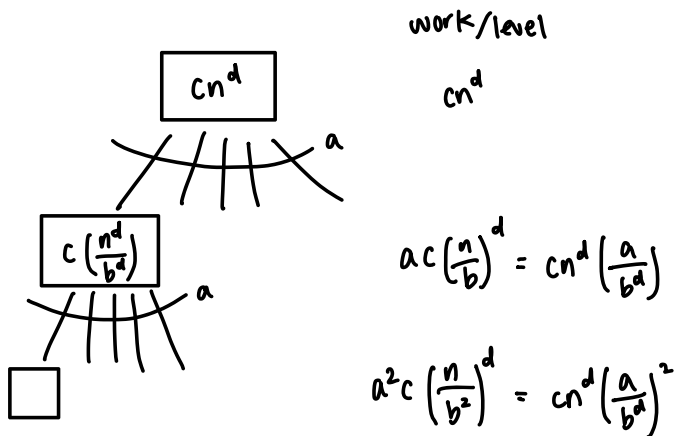


## Master Theorem

$$T(n) = aT\left(\frac{n}{b}\right) + cn^d$$



$$\text{Total work: } cn^d \left( 1 + \frac{a}{b^d} + \left(\frac{a}{b^d}\right)^2 + \dots + \left(\frac{a}{b^d}\right)^k \right) \quad k = \log_b n \text{ (\# of levels)}$$

### Cases:

1.  $a = b^d$

\* each level same work

$$\text{Total} = O(cn^d(k+1)) = O(n^d \log n)$$

2.  $a < b^d$

$$\text{Total} = O(n^d)$$

\* work exponentially decaying each level, root dominates

3.  $a > b^d$

\* last term dominates

$$\text{Total} = O\left(cn^d \left(\frac{a}{b^d}\right)^{\log_b n}\right) = O\left(cn^d \left(\frac{a^{\log_b n}}{b^{(\log_b n)d}}\right)\right) = O(a^{\log_b n})$$

$$= O(a^{\log_a n \log_b a}) = O(n^{\log_b a})$$

$$\frac{\log_b n}{\log_b a} = \log_a n$$

# 1 Asymptotics and Limits

If we would like to prove asymptotic relations instead of just using them, we can use limits.

**Asymptotic Limit Rules:** If  $f(n), g(n) \geq 0$ :

- If  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{f(n)}{g(n)} < \infty$ , then  $f(n) = \mathcal{O}(g(n))$ .
- If  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{f(n)}{g(n)} = c$ , for some  $c > 0$ , then  $f(n) = \Theta(g(n))$ .
- If  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{f(n)}{g(n)} > 0$ , then  $f(n) = \Omega(g(n))$ .

Note that these are all sufficient conditions involving limits, and are not true definitions of  $\mathcal{O}$ ,  $\Theta$ , and  $\Omega$ . (you should check on your own that these statements are correct!)

(a) Prove that  $n^3 = \mathcal{O}(n^4)$ .

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{n^3}{n^4} = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{n} = 0 < \infty$$

(b) Find an  $f(n), g(n) \geq 0$  such that  $f(n) = \mathcal{O}(g(n))$ , yet  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{f(n)}{g(n)} \neq 0$ .

$$f(n) = 3n$$

$$g(n) = 5n$$

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{3n}{5n} = \frac{3}{5} < \infty$$

$$f(n) = \Theta(g(n))$$

but by definition it is also  $f(n) = \mathcal{O}(g(n))$

(c) Prove that for any  $c > 0$ , we have  $\log n = \mathcal{O}(n^c)$ .

*Hint:* Use L'Hôpital's rule: If  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} f(n) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} g(n) = \infty$ , then  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{f(n)}{g(n)} = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{f'(n)}{g'(n)}$  (if the RHS exists)

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\log n}{n^c} = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1/n}{cn^{c-1}} = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{cn^c} = 0 < \infty$$

(d) Find an  $f(n), g(n) \geq 0$  such that  $f(n) = \mathcal{O}(g(n))$ , yet  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{f(n)}{g(n)}$  does not exist. In this case, you would be unable to use limits to prove  $f(n) = \mathcal{O}(g(n))$ .

$$f(x) = x(\sin x + 1)$$

$$g(x) = x$$

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{x(\sin x + 1)}{x} = \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \sin x + 1, \text{ oscillates forever}$$

known bound:  $\sin x + 1 \leq 2$

$$f(x) \leq 2g(x) \text{ so } f(x) = \mathcal{O}(g(x))$$

## 2 Asymptotic Complexity Comparisons

- (a) Order the following functions so that for all  $i, j$ , if  $f_i$  comes before  $f_j$  in the order then  $f_i = O(f_j)$ . Do not justify your answers.

- $f_1(n) = 3^n$
- $f_2(n) = n^{\frac{1}{3}}$
- $f_3(n) = 12$
- $f_4(n) = 2^{\log_2 n} = n$
- $f_5(n) = \sqrt{n} = n^{\frac{1}{2}}$
- $f_6(n) = 2^n$
- $f_7(n) = \log_2 n$
- $f_8(n) = 2^{\sqrt{n}}$
- $f_9(n) = n^3$

As an answer you may just write the functions as a list, e.g.  $f_8, f_9, f_1, \dots$

$12, \log_2 n, n^{\frac{1}{3}}, \sqrt{n}, 2^{\log_2 n}, n^3, 2^{\sqrt{n}}, 2^n, 3^n$

- (b) In each of the following, indicate whether  $f = O(g)$ ,  $f = \Omega(g)$ , or both (in which case  $f = \Theta(g)$ ). **Briefly** justify each of your answers. Recall that in terms of asymptotic growth rate, logarithmic  $<$  polynomial  $<$  exponential.

	$f(n)$	$g(n)$
(i)	$\log_3 n$	$\log_4(n)$
(ii)	$n \log(n^4)$	$n^2 \log(n^3)$
(iii)	$\sqrt{n}$	$(\log n)^3$
(iv)	$n + \log n$	$n + (\log n)^2$

i)  $f = \Theta(g)$

change of base:  $\log_a b = \frac{\log b}{\log a}$

$\log_3 n = \frac{\log n}{\log 3}$        $\log_4 n = \frac{\log n}{\log 4}$

ii)  $n \log(n^4) = 4n \log n$   
 $n^2 \log(n^3) = 3n^2 \log n$

$f = O(g)$

iii)  $n^{\frac{1}{2}}$  vs  $(\log n)^3$   
 polynomial vs logarithmic

$f = \Omega(g)$

iv) linear term dominates

$f = \Theta(g)$

### 3 Hadamard matrices

The Hadamard matrices  $H_0, H_1, H_2, \dots$  are defined as follows:

- $H_0$  is the  $1 \times 1$  matrix  $[1]$
- For  $k > 0$ ,  $H_k$  is the  $2^k \times 2^k$  matrix

$$H_k = \left[ \begin{array}{c|c} H_{k-1} & H_{k-1} \\ \hline H_{k-1} & -H_{k-1} \end{array} \right]$$

- (a) Write down the Hadamard matrices  $H_0$ ,  $H_1$ , and  $H_2$ .

$$H_0 = [1]$$

$$H_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$H_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 & 1 & -1 \\ 1 & 1 & -1 & -1 \\ 1 & -1 & -1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

- (b) Compute the matrix-vector product  $H_2 \cdot v$  where  $H_2$  is the Hadamard matrix you found above, and

$$v = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \\ -1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Note that since  $H_2$  is a  $4 \times 4$  matrix, and the vector has length 4, the result will be a vector of length 4.

$$H_2 v = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 & 1 & -1 \\ 1 & 1 & -1 & -1 \\ 1 & -1 & -1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \\ -1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 4 \end{bmatrix}$$

- (c) Now, we will compute another quantity. Take  $v_1$  and  $v_2$  to be the top and bottom halves of  $v$  respectively. Therefore, we have that

$$v_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix}, v_2 = \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}, v = \begin{bmatrix} v_1 \\ v_2 \end{bmatrix}$$

Compute  $u_1 = H_1(v_1 + v_2)$  and  $u_2 = H_1(v_1 - v_2)$  to get two vectors of length 2. Stack  $u_1$  above  $u_2$  to get a vector  $u$  of length 4. What do you notice about  $u$ ?

$$u_1 = H_1(v_1 + v_2) = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$u_2 = H_1(v_1 - v_2) = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ -2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 4 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$u = \begin{bmatrix} u_1 \\ u_2 \end{bmatrix}$$

(d) Suppose that

$$v = \begin{bmatrix} v_1 \\ v_2 \end{bmatrix}$$

is a column vector of length  $n = 2^k$ .  $v_1$  and  $v_2$  are the top and bottom half of the vector, respectively. Therefore, they are each vectors of length  $\frac{n}{2} = 2^{k-1}$ . Write the matrix-vector product  $H_k v$  in terms of  $H_{k-1}$ ,  $v_1$ , and  $v_2$  (note that  $H_{k-1}$  is a matrix of dimension  $\frac{n}{2} \times \frac{n}{2}$ , or  $2^{k-1} \times 2^{k-1}$ ). Since  $H_k$  is a  $n \times n$  matrix, and  $v$  is a vector of length  $n$ , the result will be a vector of length  $n$ .

$$H_k v = \begin{bmatrix} H_{k-1} (v_1 + v_2) \\ H_{k-1} (v_1 - v_2) \end{bmatrix}$$

(e) Use your results from (c) to come up with a divide-and-conquer algorithm to calculate the matrix-vector product  $H_k v$ , and show that it can be calculated using  $O(n \log n)$  operations. Assume that all the numbers involved are small enough that basic arithmetic operations like addition and multiplication take unit time. You do not need to prove correctness.

$$H_k \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n} \quad v \in \mathbb{R}^n$$

Work at each level:

$$\text{Find vectors } v_1 + v_2 \text{ and } v_1 - v_2 \leftarrow O(n)$$

Recursive step:

$$\text{Find products } H_{k-1} (v_1 + v_2) \text{ and } H_{k-1} (v_1 - v_2)$$

$$H_{k-1} \in \mathbb{R}^{n/2 \times n/2} \quad v_1, v_2 \in \mathbb{R}^{n/2}$$

$$T(n) = 2T(n/2) + O(n) = O(n \log n)$$

## 4 Monotone matrices

A  $m$ -by- $n$  matrix  $A$  is *monotone* if  $n \geq m$ , each row of  $A$  has no duplicate entries, and it has the following property: if the minimum of row  $i$  is located at column  $j_i$ , then  $j_1 < j_2 < j_3 \dots j_m$ . For example, the following matrix is monotone (the minimum of each row is bolded):

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 3 & 4 & 6 & 5 & 2 \\ 7 & 3 & \mathbf{2} & 5 & 6 & 4 \\ 7 & 9 & 6 & 3 & 10 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

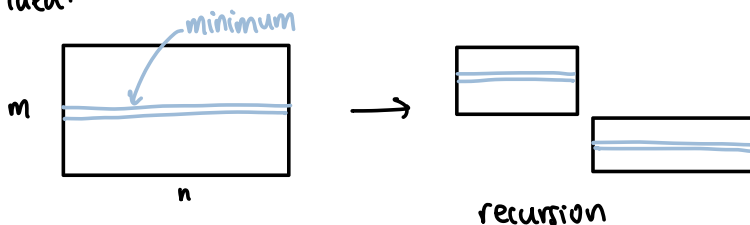
Give an efficient (i.e., better than  $O(mn)$ -time) algorithm that finds the minimum in each row of an  $m$ -by- $n$  monotone matrix  $A$ .

**Give a 3-part solution.** You do not need to write a formal recurrence relation in your runtime analysis; an informal summary of the runtime analysis such as “proof by picture” is fine.

starting thoughts:

- how to divide into smaller subproblems?
- key observation of matrix: if minimum of row  $i$  is found at column  $j$ , then minimum of each row  $< i$  is in column  $< j$  and minimum of each row  $> i$  is in column  $> j$ 
  - ↳ dramatically reduce search space

main idea:



proof of correctness:

proof by induction on number of rows of  $A$  [see official solutions]

runtime analysis:

\* master's theorem doesn't work since the split might not be even

key observations:

- work at each level is  $O(n)$ , since we scan at most the entire row
- must eventually scan every row, there are  $m$  rows

$O(mn)$

## Complex Numbers:

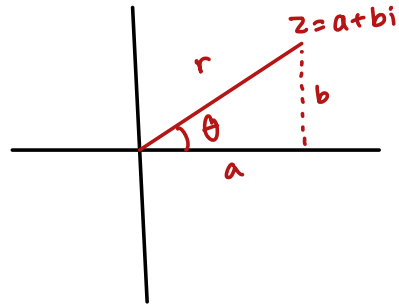
$$z = a + bi \quad (\text{rectangular})$$

↑            ↑  
real    imaginary

$$z = r(\cos \theta + i \sin \theta) \quad (\text{polar})$$

$$a = r \cos \theta$$

$$b = r \sin \theta$$



Using Euler's Formula:

$$r e^{i\theta} = r(\cos \theta + i \sin \theta)$$

$n^{\text{th}}$  roots of unity:  $n$  complex numbers satisfying  $w^n = 1$

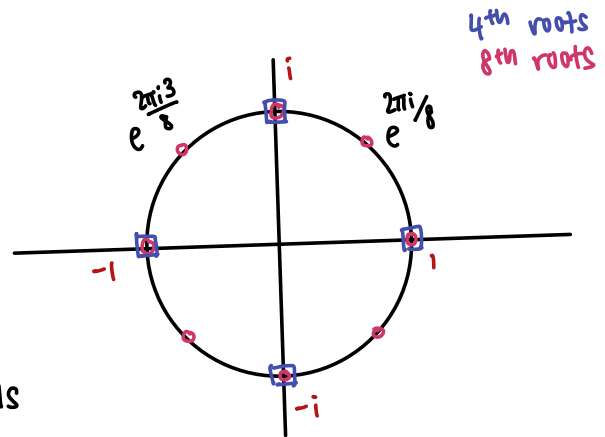
$$w_k = e^{2\pi i k/n} \quad k = 0, 1, 2, \dots, n-1$$

ex: what are the second roots of unity?

$$w^2 = 1 \quad w = +1, -1$$

fourth roots of unity?

$$\begin{array}{c} w^4 = 1 \\ \swarrow \quad \searrow \\ w^2 = 1 \quad w^2 = -1 \\ \swarrow \quad \searrow \quad \swarrow \quad \searrow \\ w = 1 \quad w = -1 \quad w = i \quad w = -i \end{array}$$



Note: Squaring  $n^{\text{th}}$  roots of unity equals  $(\frac{n}{2})^{\text{th}}$  roots of unity

$$\left( e^{\frac{2\pi i 3}{8}} \right)^2 = e^{\frac{2\pi i 6}{8}} = e^{\frac{2\pi i 3}{4}}$$

\* For  $n^{\text{th}}$  roots of unity, place  $n$  points evenly on unit circle

## 5 Complex numbers review

A *complex number* is a number that can be written in the rectangular form  $a + bi$  ( $i$  is the imaginary unit, with  $i^2 = -1$ ). The following famous equation (*Euler's formula*) relates the polar form of complex numbers to the rectangular form:

$$re^{i\theta} = r(\cos \theta + i \sin \theta)$$

In polar form,  $r \geq 0$  represents the distance of the complex number from 0, and  $\theta$  represents its angle. Note that since  $\sin(\theta) = \sin(\theta + 2\pi)$ ,  $\cos(\theta) = \cos(\theta + 2\pi)$ , we have  $re^{i\theta} = re^{i(\theta+2\pi)}$  for any  $r, \theta$ .

The  $n$ -th *roots of unity* are the  $n$  complex numbers satisfying  $\omega^n = 1$ . They are given by

$$\omega_k = e^{2\pi i k/n}, \quad k = 0, 1, 2, \dots, n-1$$

- (a) Let  $x = e^{2\pi i 3/10}, y = e^{2\pi i 5/10}$  which are two 10-th roots of unity. Compute the product  $x \cdot y$ . Is this an  $n$ -th root of unity for some  $n$ ? Is it a 10-th root of unity?

What happens if  $x = e^{2\pi i 6/10}, y = e^{2\pi i 7/10}$ ?

$$xy = \exp\left(\frac{2\pi i 3 + 2\pi i 5}{10}\right) = \exp\left(\frac{2\pi i 8}{10}\right)$$

$$xy = \exp\left(\frac{2\pi i 6 + 2\pi i 7}{10}\right) = \exp\left(\frac{2\pi i 13}{10}\right) = \exp\left(\frac{2\pi i 3}{10}\right)$$

- (b) Show that for any  $n$ -th root of unity  $\omega \neq 1$ ,  $\sum_{k=0}^{n-1} \omega^k = 0$ , when  $n > 1$ .

*Hint:* Use the formula for the sum of a geometric series  $\sum_{k=0}^n \alpha^k = \frac{\alpha^{n+1} - 1}{\alpha - 1}$ . It works for complex numbers too!

$$\sum_{k=0}^{n-1} \omega^k = \frac{\omega^n - 1}{\omega - 1} = 0$$

$$\omega^n = 1 \quad \text{by definition}$$

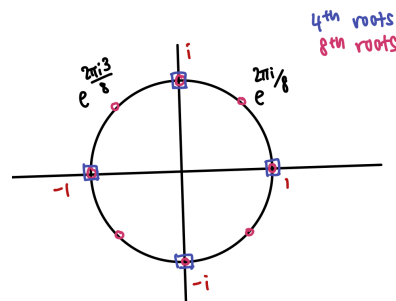
- (c) (i) Find all  $\omega$  such that  $\omega^2 = -1$ .

$$\omega = i, -i$$

- (ii) Find all  $\omega$  such that  $\omega^4 = -1$ .

$\omega^8 = 1$ , need the 8<sup>th</sup> roots of unity that aren't 4<sup>th</sup> roots of unity

$$\omega = e^{2\pi i/8}, e^{2\pi i 3/8}, e^{2\pi i 5/8}, e^{2\pi i 7/8}$$





## 6 Extra Divide and Conquer Practice: Quantiles

Let  $A$  be an array of length  $n$ . The boundaries for the  $k$  quantiles of  $A$  are  $\{a^{(n/k)}, a^{(2n/k)}, \dots, a^{((k-1)n/k)}\}$  where  $a^{(\ell)}$  is the  $\ell$ -th smallest element in  $A$ .

Devise an algorithm to compute the boundaries of the  $k$  quantiles in time  $\mathcal{O}(n \log k)$ . For convenience, you may assume that  $k$  is a power of 2.

*Hint:* Recall that  $\text{QUICKSELECT}(A, \ell)$  gives  $a^{(\ell)}$  in  $\mathcal{O}(n)$  time.