

(1) Recurrence sequences

(a) $T(n) = 3T(\frac{n}{2}) + \log_2 n$

let's substitute $n=2^m$ so we get rid of the logarithmic term:

$$T(2^m) = 3T(2^{m/2}) + m$$

Now let's define $S(m) = T(2^m)$, so hence;

$$S(m) = 3S(m/2) + m$$

Proof for the above definition:

We will show that m solves for $S \Leftrightarrow 2^m$ solves for T

(1) Assume m solves for S :

$$\text{Then } S(m) - 3S(m/2) - m = 0$$

and since $T(2^m) = S(m)$, we also have:

$$T(2^m) - 3T(2^{m/2}) - m = 0 ; \text{ Then } 2^m \text{ solves } T$$

(2) Assume 2^m solves T :

$$\text{Then } T(2^m) - 3T(2^{m/2}) - m = 0$$

and since $S(m) = T(2^m)$, we also have:

$$S(m) - 3S(m/2) - m = 0 ; \text{ Then } m \text{ solves } S$$

This shows that the recurrence relations S & T are equivalent in terms of arguments.

$S(m) = 3S(m/2) + m$ can now easily be solved
using the Master Theorem!

$$c = \log_2 3 \quad \wedge \text{ setting } k=1$$

Since $k < c$, by the Master Theorem;

$$S(m) = \Theta(m^{\log_2 3})$$

Now substituting $m = \log_2 n$;

$$T(2^{\log_2 n}) = \Theta((\log_2 n)^{\log_2 3})$$

So therefore: $T(n) = \Theta((\log_2 n)^{\log_2 3})$

(b)

$$T(n) = T(n-1) + T(n/2) + n$$

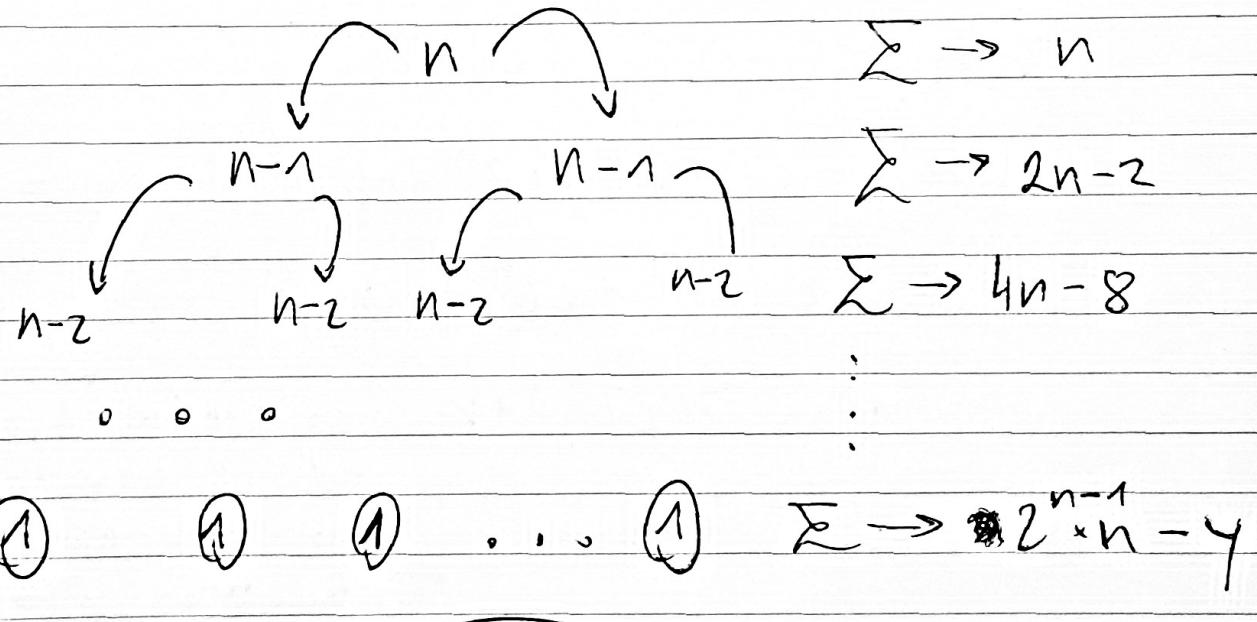
Let's define $T'(n)$ such that:

$$\begin{aligned} T'(n) &= T(n-1) + T(n-1) + n = \\ &= 2T(n-1) + n \end{aligned}$$

So hence we know that:

$$T'(n) \geq T(n)$$

If we analyse algorithm $T'(n)$



So we know for the principles of the binary tree that there 2^{n-1} nodes at level $n-1$

Since we have $n-1$ levels and if I generalise that at each level there is exactly $2^{n-1}n$ being done, then:

$$T'(n) = \Theta(2^{n-1}n^2)$$

Since we know that $T'(n) \geq T(n)$ I claim
 that $T(n) = O(n^2 2^{n-1})$. I will prove that
 $T(n) \leq cn^2 2^{n-1}$ for some constant $c > 0$

$$T(n) = T(n-1) + T(n/2) + n$$

$$T(n-1) \leq c(n-1)^2 2^{n-2}$$

$$T(n/2) \leq c \cdot (n/2)^2 2^{n/2-1} = cn^2 2^{n/2-3}$$

Now by using substitution method:

$$\begin{aligned} T(n) &\leq c(n-1)^2 2^{n-2} + cn^2 2^{n/2-3} + n = \\ &= cn^2 2^{n-2} - c2n^2 2^{n-2} + c2^{n-2} + cn^2 2^{n/2-3} + n = \\ &= cn^2 2^{n-2} - cn^2 2^{n-1} + c2^{n-2} + cn^2 2^{n/2-3} + n \leq \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} &cn^2 2^{n-1} \geq c2^{n-2} + n \quad \text{so therefore we can get rid of these three terms since they are not significant as } n \rightarrow \infty \\ &\leq cn^2 2^{n-2} + cn^2 2^{n/2-3} \leq \end{aligned}$$

$$cn^2 2^{n/2-3} \rightarrow cn^2 2^{n-2}$$

$$\leq 2cn^2 2^{n-2} = \underline{\underline{cn^2 2^{n-1}}}$$

This holds for every $n \geq 0$ with the following base cases:

$$n=0 ; \quad T(0) = 0$$

$$n=1 ; \quad T(1) = 0$$

6

Strassen's Algorithm:

$$W(n) = 7W(n/2) + O(n^2) \Rightarrow O(n^{\log_2 7})$$

My Asymptotically Faster Algorithm:

$$M(n) = aT(n/b) + O(n^2) \Rightarrow O(n^x)$$

$$x < \log_2 7$$



$$\log_b a < \log_2 7 \quad \curvearrowright b=4$$

$$\log_4 a < \log_2 7$$

$$\curvearrowright$$

$$a < 4^{\log_2 7} = 49$$

$$a < 49$$

This algorithm needs less than 49 subproblems
in order to be asymptotically faster than
Strassen's algorithm.

②

DFT

a) Compute the DFT of the vector $(0, 1, 2, 5)$

$$\text{DFT}(4, [0, 1, 2, 5])$$

$$\Rightarrow A_{\text{even}} = [0, 2]$$

$$\Rightarrow A_{\text{odd}} = [1, 5]$$

$$\text{DFT}(2, [0, 2])$$

$$\rightarrow A_{\text{even}} = [0]$$

$$\rightarrow A_{\text{odd}} = [2]$$

$$\text{DFT}(2, [1, 5])$$

$$\rightarrow A_{\text{even}} = [1]$$

$$\rightarrow A_{\text{odd}} = [5]$$

$$\text{DFT}(1, [0])$$

Base case

$$[0]$$

$$\text{DFT}(1, [2])$$

Base case

$$[2]$$

$$\text{DFT}(1, [1])$$

Base case

$$[1]$$

$$\text{DFT}(1, [5])$$

Base case

$$[5]$$

$$\text{DFT}(2, [0, 2]) = [2, -2]$$

$$\text{DFT}(2, [1, 5]) = [6, -4]$$

$$\text{DFT}(4, [0, 1, 2, 5]) = [8, -2 - 4i, -4, -2 + 4i]$$

b

Polynomial $A(x)$ of degree n :

$$A(x) = g(x)(x - x_0) + r$$

$$A(x) - r = g(x)(x - x_0)$$

let's introduce algorithm ~~Coefficient-At~~

Value-At $((x_0), [a_0, \dots, a_{n-1}])$

that can generate value of the polynomial at $\underline{x_0}$

Algorithm Value-At $((x_0), [a_0, \dots, a_{n-1}])$

- 1) power = 1
- 2) value = 0
- 3) for $i=0$ to n :
- 4) value = value + $a[i] * power$
- 5) power += 1
- 6) return value

Analysis of Value-At $((x_0), [a_0, \dots, a_{n-1}])$ algorithm:

lines 1) and 2) get executed in constant time.
line 3) gets executed $n+1$ times. The loop gets executed n times, each execution repeats lines 4) and 5), which are constant work. Lastly, line 6) gets executed in constant time by returning the value. Therefore:

$$T(n) = \Theta(n+1) + \Theta(n) = \Theta(n)$$

We can easily compute coefficients of $A(x) - r$ by subtracting r from coefficients.

Since $r = \text{Value-At}((x_0), [a_0 \dots a_{n-1}])$ we can ~~not~~ perform the following subtraction:

$$[a_0, a_1, \dots, a_n] - [r, 0, 0, \dots, 0] = [a_0 - r, a_1 \dots a_n],$$

which can be implemented in constant time. Now we have $A(x) - r = Q(x)(x - x_0)$ and $Q(x) = \frac{A(x) - r}{x - x_0}$

Now by performing long-division of $A(x) - r$ by $(x - x_0)$ we get the following recurrence for coefficients $Q(x)$:

~~$c_{n-2} = a_{n-1+i} = Q_{n-1}$~~

$$c_{n-2-i} = a_{n-2+i+1} + x_0 c_{n-2+i-i} =$$

$$= a_{n-1-i} + x_0 c_{n-1-i}$$

where c represents the coefficient of factor x^{n-1-i} of polynomial $Q(x)$

This can easily be converted into an algorithm:

1) $Q = C[c_0 \dots c_{n-2}]$

2) $C[n-2] = Q[n-1]$

3) for $i = 1$ up to $n-2$:

4) $C[n-2-i] = Q[n-1-i] + x_0 C[n-1-i]$

This loop gets executed $n-2$ times, conducting constant work, hence ~~$\Theta(n)$~~ $\Theta(n)$

This proves that the coefficients of $Q(x)$ (array C) can be computed in linear time.

C

Given list of zeros of polynomial, compute a polynomial in $O(n \lg^2 n)$

Let's define an algorithm Compute-Poly, which in-takes a list of zeros and outputs coefficients of the polynomial.

Compute-Poly ($[z_0, z_1, \dots, z_{n-1}]$)

1) if $\text{len}[z_0, z_1, \dots, z_{n-1}] = 1$
2) return $[-z_0, 1]$

3) $z_{\text{first}} = [z_0 \dots z_{\frac{n}{2}}]$

4) $z_{\text{second}} = [z_{\frac{n}{2}} \dots z_{n-1}]$

5) $a = \text{Compute-Poly}(z_{\text{first}})$

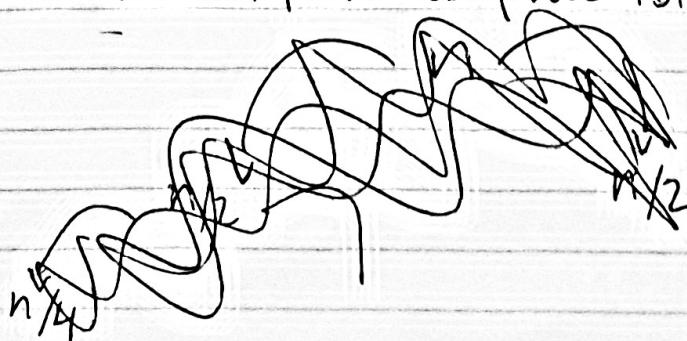
6) $b = \text{Compute-Poly}(z_{\text{second}})$

7) return DFT-Multiplication((a, b), $n+1$)

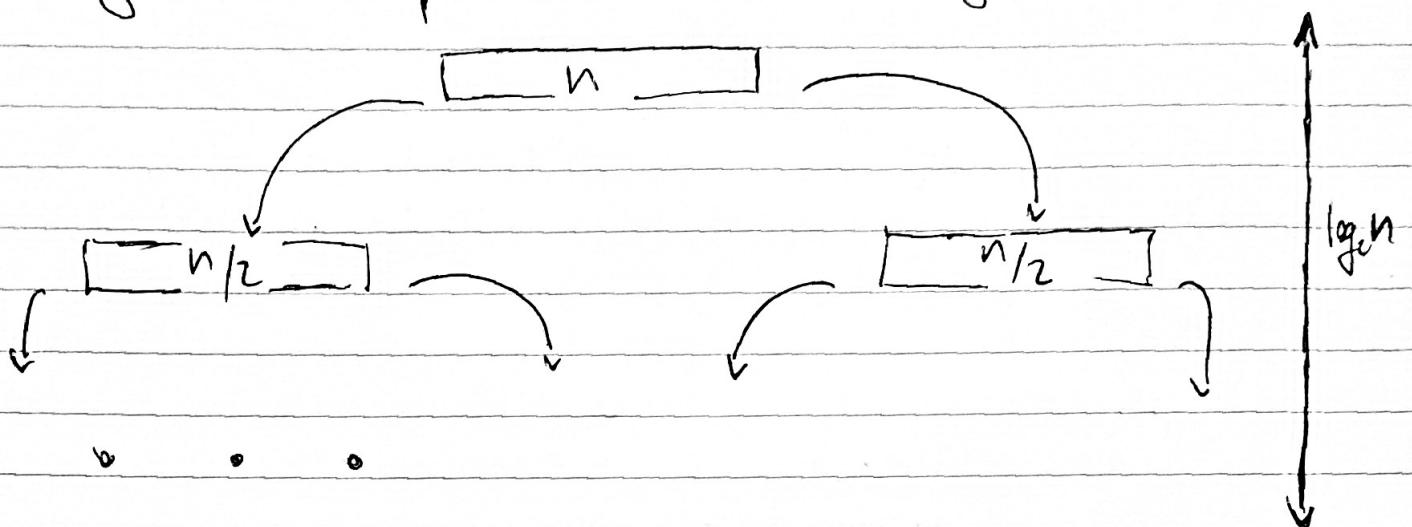
DFT-Multiplication was defined during lectures and runs in $O(n \lg n)$. It multiplies polynomials and computes a polynomial bound by $n+1$.

Discrete Fourier Transform

~~Since we compute Compute Poly~~



Using the tree presentation of this algorithm:



We can see that there are $\log_2 n$ levels and at each level the algorithm performs $n \log_2 n$ of work. Hence, in total $\text{Compute-Poly} = O(n \lg n)$

So hence algorithm Compute-Poly is indeed $O(n \lg n)$

Now let's prove that Compute-Poly indeed computes polynomial $P(x)$ of degree-bound $n+1$.

Base case: Let $[z_0]$ be a single root.

Compute-Poly $([z_0])$ returns $[-z_0, 1]$, which corresponds to $P(x) = -z_0 + x$.

$$P(z_0) = z_0 - z_0 = 0 \quad \checkmark$$

$$\deg(P(x)) = 1 < n+1 = n+1 = 2$$

So hence it holds true for the base case.

(d)

So we know that two sets A and B are in range of 0 to 10n.

We wish to compute the Cartesian sum of A and B, defined by:

$$C := \{x+y \mid x \in A \text{ and } y \in B\}$$

where integers of C are in range of 0 to 20n

If we translate this problem into ~~polynomial~~ multiplication we can apply the DFT algorithm and solve efficiently.

Let's suppose set A represents powers of the polynomial (as well as set B) where the coefficient (either a 0 or a 1) tells us if the power (=element) is present in the set.

Once we perform the multiplication of polynomials we can easily analyse the resulting polynomial. The non-zero coefficients of the terms are the frequency of elements in C, and the power of non-zero-coefficient terms are the elements in C.