# CSE 326 Autumn 2006

#### Section 2 Notes

I glossed over some calculation details and also made some flat-out mistakes in section. Here is a (more) correct version of the notes. Sorry for the confusion.

First some useful identities and sums to know for solving recurrences:

$$c\log_b a = \log_b a^c \tag{1}$$

$$b^{\log_b a} = a \tag{2}$$

$$c^{\log_b a} = a^{\log_b c} \tag{3}$$

$$\sum_{i=0}^{n} r^{i} = \frac{r^{n+1} - 1}{r - 1} \tag{4}$$

If you are interested in the proofs, e-mail me.

### 1. Example recurrences

It isn't really important to understand the details of multiplication algorithms. We just solve the recurrences below:

Note that the analysis below is sloppy with respect to rounding logarithms to the nearest integer, but it does not change the asymptotic bounds.

#### (a) 3rd grade algorithm

The naive 3rd grade recursive algorithm divides numbers into 4 parts and does 4 multiplications, giving us the following recurrence:

$$T(n) = 4T(\frac{n}{2}) + O(n) \tag{5}$$

We can expand the term  $T(\frac{n}{2})$  by substituting  $\frac{n}{2}$  in equation 5 wherever we see an n.

$$T(n) = 4[4T(\frac{n}{4}) + O(\frac{n}{2})] + O(n)$$
 (6)

$$= 4 \cdot 4\left[4T\left(\frac{n}{8}\right) + O\left(\frac{n}{4}\right)\right] + 4O\left(\frac{n}{2}\right) + O(n) \tag{7}$$

How many times can we divide n by 2 before we get to the base case, T(1) = O(1)? That is, how many times can we expand the recurrence? We will call this number k below.

$$\frac{n}{2^k} = 1 \Rightarrow n = 2^k \Rightarrow k = \log_2 n \tag{8}$$

This is the definition of a logarithm, the inverse of exponentiation.

Now we can express the recurrence as a sum:

$$T(n) = 4^{\log_2 n} T(1) + \sum_{i=0}^{\log_2 n} 4^i (\frac{1}{2})^i O(n)$$
(9)

$$= 2^{2\log_2 n} + O(n) \sum_{i=0}^{\log_2 n} 2^i$$
 (10)

We can simplify the first term with identity 1 and the second term (which is a sum) with identity 4.

$$T(n) = 2^{\log_2 n^2} + O(n) \frac{2^{\log_2 n + 1} - 1}{2 - 1}$$
(11)

We can apply identity 2 to both terms to simplify it further:

$$T(n) = n^2 + O(n)(2n - 1) (12)$$

$$= O(n^2) (13)$$

## (b) Karatsuba's algorithm

The recurrence for Karatsuba's algorithm performs 3 multiplications on subparts instead of 4.

$$T(n) = 3T(\frac{n}{2}) + O(n) \tag{14}$$

Again we expand the recurrence:

$$T(n) = 3[3T(\frac{n}{4}) + O(\frac{n}{2})] + O(n)$$
(15)

$$= 3 \cdot 3[3T(\frac{n}{8}) + O(\frac{n}{4})] + 3O(\frac{n}{2}) + O(n)$$
 (16)

$$= 3^{\log_2 n} + O(n) \sum_{i=0}^{\log_2 n} (3/2)^i$$
 (17)

$$= n^{\log_2 3} + O(n) \frac{3^{\log_2 n + 1} 2^{-\log_2 n + 1} - 1}{1/2}$$
 (18)

$$= n^{\log_2 3} + O(n) \frac{3^{\log_2 n + 1} 2^{-\log_2 n + 1} - 1}{1/2}$$
 (19)

$$= n^{\log_2 3} + 2O(n)n^{\log_2 3 + 1}2^{\log_2 n^{-1}} - 1 \tag{20}$$

$$= n^{\log_2 3} + 2O(n)n^{\log_2 3 + 1}n^{-1} - 1 \tag{21}$$

$$= n^{\log_2 3} + 4n^{\log_2 3} - 1 \tag{22}$$

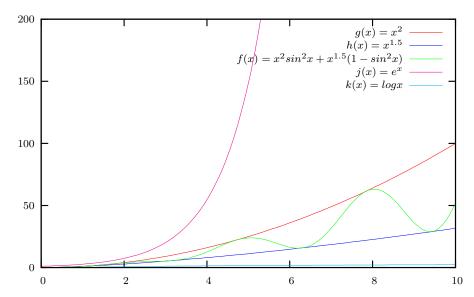
$$= O(n^{\log_2 3}) \tag{23}$$

$$\approx O(n^{1.585}) \tag{24}$$

Therefore, Karatsuba's algorithm is asymptotically faster than the 3rd-grade algorithm.

#### 2. Asymptotic notation: Big-O and friends

Unfortunately, I reversed the definitions of O(n) with  $\Omega(n)$  and likewise of o(n) with  $\omega(n)$ . Ack! I hang my head in shame. Thanks to Joanna Salacka for pointing this out. Here is the diagram again and the definition of the functions:



Here are the correct asymptotic relationships:

$$f(x) \in o(j(x)) \Rightarrow f(x) \in O(j(x))$$
$$f(x) \in \omega(k(x)) \Rightarrow f(x) \in \Omega(k(x))$$
$$f(x) \in O(g(x))$$
$$f(x) \in \Omega(h(x))$$

Note that  $\sin^2 x$  varies between 0 and 1, and that by definition f(x) is tightly lower-bounded by  $x^{1.5}$  and tightly upper-bounded by  $x^2$ . I did this to be tricky in the following ways.

The upper bound function  $x^2$  is in  $\omega(x^{1.5})$ , So,  $x^2$  will always intersect the lower bound of f(x) no matter how small of a constant we multiply it with. So  $g(x) = x^2$  will always grow faster than f(x)'s lower bound but there exists some (small) constants c for which cg(x) cannot grow as fast as f(x)'s upper bound. For these constants, f(x) and cg(x) intersect an infinite number of times, and therefore, f(x) is not in  $o(x^2)$ . However, it is still in  $O(x^2)$  because there are other (large) constants c for which  $f(x) \leq cg(x)$ .

Likewise, there are (small) constants c for which  $f(x) \ge ch(x)$ , so that's why  $f(x) \in \Omega(h(x))$ . However, there are also some (large) constants c for which ch(x) can grow faster than f(x)'s lower bound, and again we will have an infinite number of intersections between the two functions. Therefore, f(x) is not in  $\omega(h(x))$ .

In reality, most algorithm running times are polynomials, and you will never see trigonometric functions like sine. I'll make future examples simpler and more realistic.

#### 3. Merge sort

I made a mistake in both sections about the arguments to mergesort. The algorithm should take a beginning and ending index, and the midpoint should be defined as their average (rounded to an integer).

Here is the correct pseudocode for merge sort.

```
global arrays x[m], y[m]

MergeSort(start, end)

if (start == end)
    return

midpoint = floor((end + start)/2)
    MergeSort(start, midpoint)
    MergeSort(midpoint + 1, end)
    i = start, j = midpoint + 1, k = 1

while (i < midpoint or j < end)
    if (x[i] < x[j])
        y[k] = x[i], i++, k++
    else
        y[k] = x[j], j++, k++</pre>
copy y[1 to (end-start)] to x[start to end]
return
```

Here is the recurrence for mergesort:

$$T(n) = 2T(\frac{n}{2}) + O(n) \tag{25}$$

And here is how to solve it:

$$T(n) = 2[2T(\frac{n}{4}) + O(\frac{n}{2})] + O(n)$$
(26)

$$= 2 \cdot 2\left[2T\left(\frac{n}{8}\right) + O\left(\frac{n}{4}\right)\right] + 2O\left(\frac{n}{2}\right) + O(n)$$
 (27)

$$= 2^{\log_2 n} + O(n) \sum_{i=0}^{\log_2 n} 1 \tag{28}$$

$$= n + O(n)\log_2 n \tag{29}$$

$$= O(n\log_2 n) \tag{30}$$

Therefore, mergesort is asymptotically faster than insertion or selection sort, which both take  $O(n^2)$  time.