

6.2 Master Theorem

Lemma 1

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:

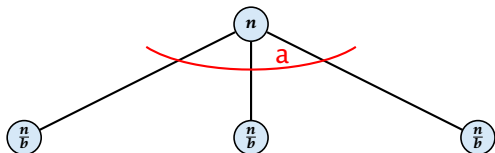
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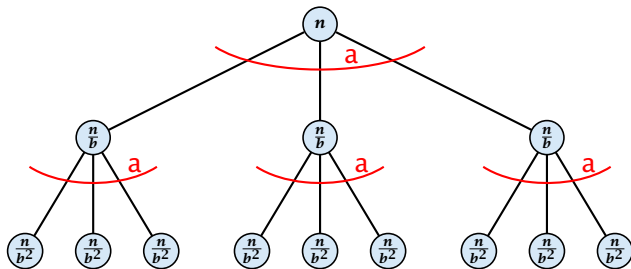
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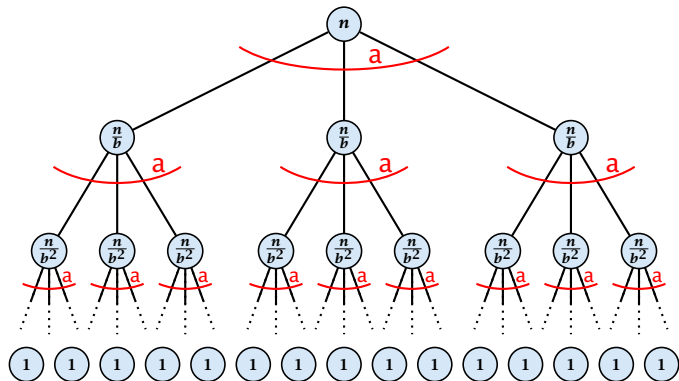
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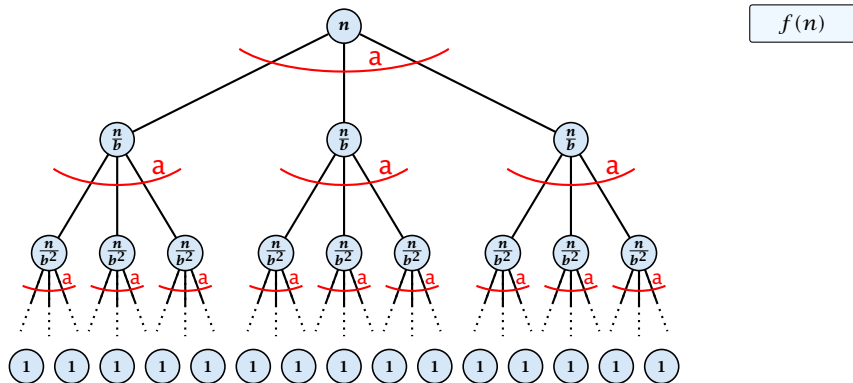
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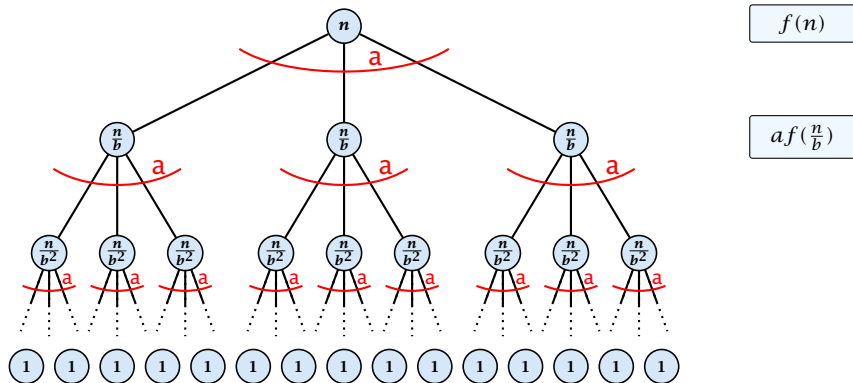
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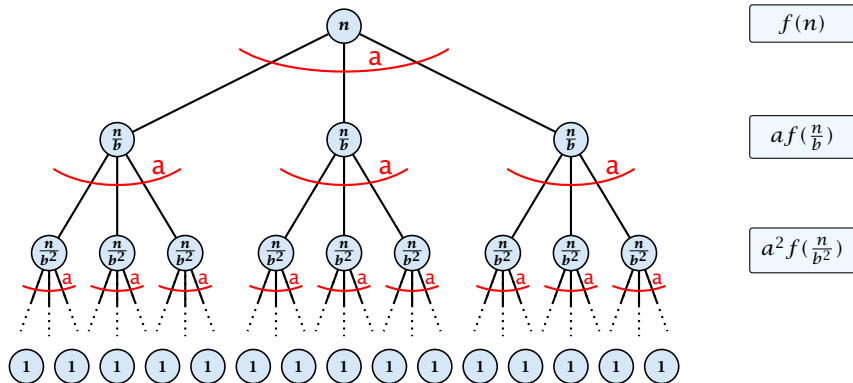
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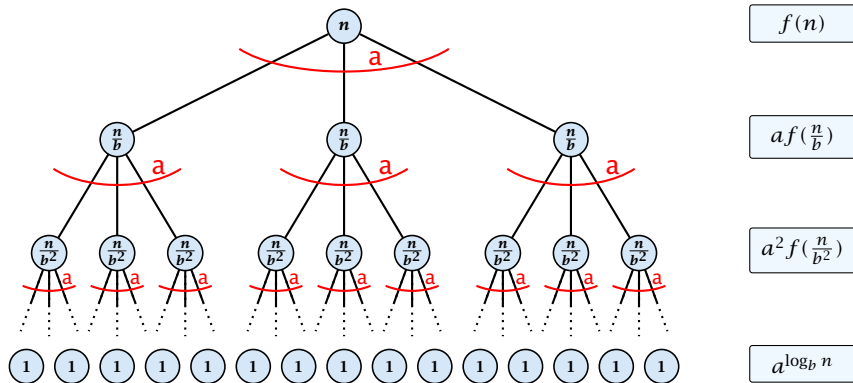
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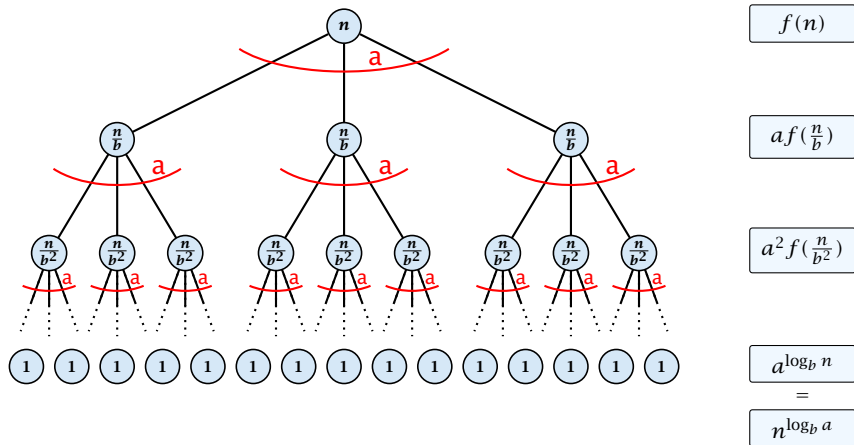
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6.2 Master Theorem

This gives

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

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

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

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Hence,

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

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

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

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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.

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

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.

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

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

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

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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,

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

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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.

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

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

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.

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

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

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

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

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1	1	0	1	1	0	1	0	1	<i>A</i>
1	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	1	<i>B</i>
								1	
									0

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1	1	0	1	1	0	1	0	1	<i>A</i>
1	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	1	<i>B</i>
							1	1	
							0	0	

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

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1	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	1	B
						1	1	1	
						0	0	0	

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<hr/>									
					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
					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/>									
				0	1	0	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 :

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

The diagram illustrates the addition of two 9-bit integers, A and B, to produce a 9-bit result. The bits of A are 1 1 0 1 1 0 1 0 1 and the bits of B are 1 0 0 0 1 0 0 1 1. A vertical blue box highlights the 5th bit (index 4) of both numbers, which is 1 in both. Below the horizontal line, the 5th bit of the result is 0, and the 6th bit (index 5) is 1. Small green numbers 1 and 0 are placed below the 4th and 5th bits of the input numbers, respectively, indicating carry propagation. The result bits are 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/>									
				1	0	1	1	1	
				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 :

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

The diagram illustrates the addition of two integers, A and B, using a register of constant size. The numbers are represented as bit strings. A vertical blue box highlights the current bit position being processed, which is the 4th bit from the right (index 3). The carry-in from the previous step is 1, which is added to the 4th bits of A (1) and B (0), resulting in a sum of 0 and a carry-out of 1. The carry-out of 1 from this step becomes the carry-in for the next step (the 5th bit).

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	

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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
	0	1	1	0	1	1	1		
<hr/>									
		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
	0	1	1	0	1	1	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
	0	0	1	1	0	1	1	1		
<hr/>										
	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/>									
1	1	0	0	1	0	0	0		

The diagram illustrates the addition of two 8-bit integers, A and B. The bits of A are 1, 1, 0, 1, 1, 0, 1, 0, 1. The bits of B are 1, 0, 0, 0, 1, 0, 0, 1, 1. A horizontal line is drawn under the bits of B. The sum of A and B is 1, 1, 0, 0, 1, 0, 0, 0, 0. A carry of 1 is shown in a blue box on the left.

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	<i>A</i>
	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	1	<i>B</i>
	0	1	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	

Note: In the original image, a vertical blue box highlights the first column of bits (1, 1, 0) and the carry bit 1 to its left. Green numbers 1, 0, 0, 1, 1, 0, 1, 1, 1 are positioned below the second row of 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
1	0	0	1	1	0	1	1	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 :

	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 ($m \leq n$).

Example: Multiplying Two Integers

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

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

Example: Multiplying Two Integers

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

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

Example: Multiplying Two Integers

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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 ($m \leq n$).

$$\begin{array}{r} 10001 \times 1011 \\ \hline 10001 \\ 100010 \\ 0000000 \\ 10001000 \\ \hline 10111011 \end{array}$$

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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$$\boxed{B} \times \boxed{A}$$

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

$$\boxed{b_n \quad \dots \quad b_0} \times \boxed{a_n \quad \dots \quad a_0}$$

Example: Multiplying Two Integers

A recursive approach:

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

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

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 .



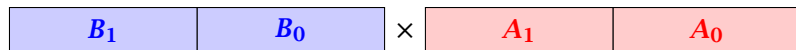
Then it holds that

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

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,

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

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

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

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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 $\mathcal{O}(n)$
- 5: $Z_2 \leftarrow \text{mult}(A_1, B_1)$
- 6: $Z_1 \leftarrow \text{mult}(A_1, B_0) + \text{mult}(A_0, B_1)$
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8: **return** $Z_2 \cdot 2^n + Z_1 \cdot 2^{\frac{n}{2}} + Z_0$

$\mathcal{O}(1)$

$\mathcal{O}(1)$

$\mathcal{O}(n)$

$\mathcal{O}(n)$

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

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$\mathcal{O}(1)$

$\mathcal{O}(1)$

$\mathcal{O}(n)$

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

$2T(\frac{n}{2}) + \mathcal{O}(n)$

Example: Multiplying Two Integers

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Example: Multiplying Two Integers

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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: $f(n) = \Theta(n^{\log_b a} \log^k n)$ $T(n) = \Theta(n^{\log_b a} \log^{k+1} n)$
- ▶ Case 3: $f(n) = \Omega(n^{\log_b a + \epsilon})$ $T(n) = \Theta(f(n))$

Example: Multiplying Two Integers

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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.

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⇒ Not better than the “school method”.

Example: Multiplying Two Integers

We can use the following identity to compute Z_1 :

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

Example: Multiplying Two Integers

We can use the following identity to compute Z_1 :

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Hence,

Algorithm 4 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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$\mathcal{O}(n)$

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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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