Algorithms with numbers (1) CISC5835, Computer Algorithms CIS, Fordham Univ.

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Acknowledgement

- The set of slides have used materials from the following resources
 - Slides for textbook by Dr. Y. Chen from Shanghai Jiaotong Univ.
 - Slides from Dr. M. Nicolescu from UNR
 - Slides sets by Dr. K. Wayne from Princeton
 - which in turn have borrowed materials from other resources
 - Other online resources

Outline

- Motivation
- Algorithm for integer addition
- Algorithms for multiplication
 - grade-school algorithm
 - recursive algorithm
 - divide-and-conquer algorithm
- Division
- Exponentiation

Algorithms for integer arithmetics

- We study adding/multiplying two integers
 - earliest algorithms!
 - mostly what you learned in grade school!
- Analyze running time of these algorithms by counting number of elementary operations on individual bits when adding/multiplying two N-bits long ints (so called bit complexity)
 - input size N: the length of operands
 - for example, to add two N-bits integer numbers, we need to O(n) bit operations (such as adding three bits together).

Practical consideration

- But, why bother?
 - Given that with a single (machine) instruction, one can add/subtract/multiply integers whose size in bits is within word length of computer – 32, or 64.
 - i.e., they are implemented in hardware
- Bit complexity of arithmetic operations algorithms captures <u>amount of hardware (transistors and</u> <u>wires) necessary for implementing algorithm using</u> <u>digital logic circuit.</u>
 - e.g., number of logic gates needed ...

Support for Big Integer

- What if we need to handle numbers that are several thousand bits long?
 - need to implement arithmetic operations of large integers in software.
- Ex: Use an array of ints to store the (decimal or binary) digits of integer,
 - int digits[3]={2,4,6}; //represents 642
 - int digits1[10]={3,4,5,7,0,7,8}; //represent 8707543
 - int bindigits[4]={1,0,1,0}; //represent 0101, i.e., 3
- Algorithms studied here are presented assuming base 2
 - those for other base (e.g., base 10) are similar

Support for Big Integer*

- But notice that each int variable can store up to 64 bits, and we can add/subtract/multiple 64-bits ints in one machine instruction
- To save space and time, one could divide big integer into chunks of 63 bits long, and store each chunk in a int

$32 \times 2^{126} + 121254 \times 2^{63} + 145246$

When adding two numbers, adding corresponding chunks together, carry over are added to the next chunks...

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Adding two binary number



Algorithm for adding integers

- <u>Sum of any three single-digit numbers is at most two digits long.</u> (holds for any base)
 - In binary the largest possible sum of three single-bit numbers is 3, which is a 2-bit number.
 - In decimal, the max possible sum of three single digit numbers is 27 (9+9+9), which is a 2-digit number
- Algorithms for addition (in any base):
 - align their right-hand ends,
 - perform a single right-to-left pass
 - the sum is computed digit by digit, maintaining overflow as a carry
 - since we know each individual sum is a two-digit number, the carry is always a single digit, and so at any given step, three single-digit numbers are added)

Question

Given two binary numbers x and y, how long does our algorithm take to add them?

We want the answer expressed as a **function of the size of the input**: the number of bits of x and y.

Suppose x and y are each n bits long. Then the sum of x and y is n + 1 bits at most, and each individual bit of this sum gets computed in a fixed amount of time.

The total running time for the addition algorithm is therefore of the form $c_0 + c_1 n$, where c_0 and c_1 are some constants, i.e., O(n).

Question

Is there a faster algorithm?

In order to add two *n*-bit numbers we must at least read them and write down the answer, and even that requires *n* operations. So the addition algorithm is *optimal*, up to multiplicative constants!

Ubiquitous log₂N

- log₂N is the power to which you need to raise 2 in order to obtain N.
 - e.g., $\log_2 8=3$ (as $2^3=8$), $\log_2 1024=10$ (as $2^{10}=1024$).
- Going backward, it can be seen as the number of times you
- must halve N to get down to 1, more precisely: $\lceil log_2N \rceil$ e.g., N=10, $\lceil log_210 \rceil = 4^{N=8}$, $\lceil log_28 \rceil = 3$ It is the number of bits in binary representation of N, more
- precisely: e.g., hw $\log_2(N+1)$
- It is the depth of a complete binary tree with N nodes, more precisely:
 - height of a heap with N nodes ...
- It is even the sum 1+1/2+1/3+...+1/N, to within a constant factor.

Multiplication in base 2

				1	1	0	1	(binary 13)
			\times	1	0	1	1	(binary 11)
				1	1	0	1	(1101 times 1)
			1	1	0	1		(1101 times 1, shifted once)
		0	0	0	0			(1101 times 0, shifted twice)
+	1	1	0	1				(1101 times 1, shifted thrice)
1	0	0	0	1	1	1	1	(binary 143)

The grade-school algorithm for multiplying two numbers x and y:

- create an array of intermediate sums, each representing the product of x by a single digit of y.
- these values are appropriately left-shifted and then added up.

Multiplication in base 2

				1	1	0	1	(binary 13)
			\times	1	0	1	1	(binary 11)
				1	1	0	1	(1101 times 1)
			1	1	0	1		(1101 times 1, shifted once)
		0	0	0	0			(1101 times 0, shifted twice)
+	1	1	0	1				(1101 times 1, shifted thrice)
1	0	0	0	1	1	1	1	(binary 143)

If x and y are both n bits, then there are n intermediate rows, with lengths of up to 2n bits.

The total time taken to add up these rows, doing two numbers at a time, is

$$\underbrace{O(n) + \ldots + O(n)}_{n-1 \text{ times}}$$
.

which is $O(n^2)$.

Multiplication: top-down approach



- Totally, n recursive calls, because at each call y is halved (i.e., n decreases by 1)
- In each recursive call: a division by 2 (right shift), a test for odd/ even (looking up the last bit); a multiplication by 2 (left shift); and possibly one addition => a total of O(n) bit operations.
- The total time taken is thus O(n²).

Divide-and-conquer

Suppose x and y are two *n*-bit integers, and assume for convenience that *n* is a power of 2.

Lemma

For every n there exists an n' with $n \le n' \le 2n$ such that n' a power of 2.

As a first step toward multiplying x and y, we split each of them into their left and right halves, which are n/2 bits long:

$$x = \begin{bmatrix} x_L \\ x_R \end{bmatrix} = 2^{n/2} x_L + x_R$$
$$y = \begin{bmatrix} y_L \\ y_R \end{bmatrix} = 2^{n/2} y_L + y_R.$$

 $xy = (2^{n/2}x_L + x_R)(2^{n/2}y_L + y_R) = 2^n x_L y_L + 2^{n/2}(x_L y_R + x_R y_L) + x_R y_R.$

The additions take linear time, as do the multiplications by powers of 2. The significant operations are the four n/2-**bit multiplications**; these we can handle by *four recursive calls*.

Running time

 $xy = (2^{n/2}x_L + x_R)(2^{n/2}y_L + y_R) = 2^n x_L y_L + 2^{n/2}(x_L y_R + x_R y_L) + x_R y_R.$

Our method for multiplying n-bit numbers

1. making recursive calls to multiply these four pairs of n/2-bit numbers,

2. evaluates the above expression in O(n) time

Writing T(n) for the overall running time on n-bit inputs, we get the recurrence relation:

T(n) = 4T(n/2) + O(n)

By master theorem, $T(n)=(n^2)$

Can we do better?

$$xy = (2^{n/2}x_L + x_R)(2^{n/2}y_L + y_R) = 2^n x_L y_L + 2^{n/2}(x_L y_R + x_R y_L) + x_R y_R$$

By **Gauss**'s trick, three multiplications, x_Ly_L , x_Ry_R , and $(x_L + x_R)(y_L + y_R)$, suffice, as

 $x_Ly_R + x_Ry_L = (x_L + x_R)(y_L + y_R) - x_Ly_L - x_Ry_R.$

The recurrence relation:

$$T(n) = 3T(n/2) + O(n)$$

By Master Theorem:
$$T(n) = n^{log_2 3}$$

Integer Division

DIVIDE
$$(x, y)$$

// Two *n*-bit integers *x* and *y*, where $y \ge 1$.
1. if $x = 0$ then return $(q, r) = (0, 0)$
2. $(q, r) = \text{DIVIDE}(\lfloor x/2 \rfloor, y)$
3. $q = 2 \cdot q, r = 2 \cdot r$
4. if *x* is odd then $r = r + 1$
5. if $r \ge y$ then $r = r - y, q = q + 1$
6. return (q, r)

Readings



• Chapter 1.1