

A note on the complexity of addition

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Abstract

We show that the sum of a sequence of integers can be computed in linear time on a Turing machine. In particular, the most obvious algorithm for this problem, which appears to require quadratic time due to carry propagation, actually runs in linear time by amortized analysis.

Keywords: computational complexity, integer addition, amortized analysis

1 Introduction

Elementary arithmetic operations on integers are some of the most basic algorithmic tasks, and their computational complexity is of fundamental importance. Even for such simple problems, accurate determination of their asymptotic time complexity (always measured on *multi-tape Turing machines* (*TM*) in this note) may be surprisingly difficult: while the complexity of $+$, $-$, and $<$ is clearly $\Theta(n)$ (the school-book algorithms run in time $O(n)$, which is optimal as any algorithm must at least read the whole input), the complexity of \times and $/$ is still not settled after decades of research—the recent $O(n \log n)$ upper bound due to Harvey and van der Hoeven [3] is regarded as optimal by many, but no nontrivial lower bounds are known¹.

The problem we are interested in in this note is nowhere near as difficult to analyze, however it is just as basic, and yet it appears to have been missed by standard literature (cf. [4]). We consider the generalization of $+$ to summation of *many* integers: that is, the input is a sequence $\langle X_i : i < k \rangle$ of nonnegative integers written in binary and separated by $+$ signs (say), and the output is $\sum_{i < k} X_i$. (All our indices start from 0.) We denote this problem SEQSUM. The size of the input is $\max\{k - 1, 0\} + \sum_i n_i$, where $n_i = |X_i|$ denotes the length of X_i in binary; in order to simplify bounds, we will use the slightly different parameter $n = k + \sum_i n_i$. Can we still compute the result in time $O(n)$?

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¹Assuming the network coding conjecture, Afshani et al. [1] proved an $\Omega(n \log n)$ bound on the number of wires in multiplication circuits, but besides being conditional, this does not imply any super-linear lower bounds on TM time complexity.

Algorithm 1 The accumulator algorithm

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1: procedure SEQSUM( $X, Y$ )
2:   while  $X.\text{head} \neq \perp$  do
3:      $c \leftarrow 0$  ▷ carry bit
4:     while  $X.\text{head} \in \{0, 1\}$  do ▷ addition loop
5:        $\langle c, Y.\text{head} \rangle \leftarrow \text{divmod}(X.\text{head} + Y.\text{head} + c, 2)$ 
6:        $X.\text{left}, Y.\text{left}$ 
7:       while  $c \neq 0$  do ▷ carry propagation
8:          $\langle c, Y.\text{head} \rangle \leftarrow \text{divmod}(Y.\text{head} + c, 2)$ 
9:          $Y.\text{left}$ 
10:       $X.\text{left}$  ▷ skip separator
11:      rewind  $Y$  back to the right end
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2 The accumulator algorithm

Alg. 1 describes a baseline TM algorithm for SEQSUM, which uses one tape as an “accumulator” to which we add the input numbers X_i one by one. In the pseudocode, X denotes the input tape, and Y the accumulator tape (which may be the output tape if we do not insist on its being write-only, or it may be a work tape that is duplicated to the output). We assume the tapes are infinite to the left, and the machine starts with heads at the right-most positions; the input sequence is written from right to left, with each integer starting with the least-significant bit on the right (as humans are used to). The symbol under the head of a tape T is accessed with $T.\text{head}$, and the $T.\text{left}$ instruction moves the head one position to the left. The carry bit $c \in \{0, 1\}$ is included in the TM state. The $\text{divmod}(a, b)$ operator computes the pair $\langle \lfloor a/b \rfloor, a \bmod b \rangle$; note that lines 5 and 6 together really denote a single step of the machine that updates $Y.\text{head}$ and c (i.e., the state) based on the current contents of $X.\text{head}$, $Y.\text{head}$, and c , and moves both tape heads. (See [5] for a working implementation of the Turing machine, in an environment with somewhat different tape conventions.)

In order to analyze the time complexity of Alg. 1, consider an input $\langle X_i : i < k \rangle$, write $n_i = |X_i|$ and $n = k + \sum_{i < k} n_i$ as in Sec. 1, and put $Y_i = \sum_{j < i} X_j$ and $m_i = |Y_i|$. The i th (counting from 0) iteration of the outer loop performs the addition $X_i + Y_i \rightarrow Y_{i+1}$, and takes time $O(\max\{n_i, m_i\}) \subseteq O(n)$ as $m_i \leq n$; the overall running time is thus $O(nk) \subseteq O(n^2)$. While these estimates are somewhat wasteful, there is no obvious way how to improve them. In particular, the addition of X_i to Y_i may cost time $\approx m_i$ even if n_i is much smaller than m_i due to carry propagation, and there are instances where $m_i = \Omega(n)$ for all $i \neq 0$, and $k = \Omega(n)$, whence $\sum_{i < k} m_i = \Omega(n^2)$: e.g., take $|X_0| = n/2$ and $X_i = 1$ for $1 \leq i < k = n/4$. Thus, Alg. 1 appears to require quadratic time at first sight.

Nonetheless, we will show that Alg. 1 only needs time $O(n)$ by a more refined argument.

3 Amortized analysis

We will estimate the running time of Alg. 1 more accurately using basic methods of amortized complexity [6]. The point is that even though a single addition $X_i + Y_i \rightarrow Y_{i+1}$ may cost time up to m_i due to long carry propagation, the latter cannot happen very often; but we need to quantify this idea properly to see that it indeed works out to an $O(n)$ overall cost.

A well-known simple special case is the *binary counter* (see e.g. [2, pp. 451 ff.]): the counter holds an integer in binary, starting with 0, and we perform n increment operations; this is virtually identical to Alg. 1 applied to an input of the form $1 + 1 + \dots + 1$. Each increment may access up to $\log n$ bits, hence a naïve bound on the running time is $O(n \log n)$. But while all n increments access the 0th bit of the counter, only $n/2$ access the 1st bit, $n/4$ the 2nd bit, etc., thus the overall running time is only $O(n)$.

For a general instance of Alg. 1, it seems difficult to directly count the number of carries in a similar way. However, we can prove a linear upper bound using the “accounting method”.

Theorem 1 *Algorithm 1 solves SEQSUM in time $4n + 1$.*

Proof: For each $i < k$, let t_i denote the furthest bit position (starting from 0) of Y accessed by Alg. 1 during the addition of X_i to the accumulator. This addition takes $2(t_i+1)$ steps (including the rewind on line 11), hence the total running time² of the algorithm is $t = 2 \sum_i (t_i + 1) + 1$.

If there is no carry propagation, then $t_i = n_i$, and the addition loop modifies up to n_i bits of Y in positions $0, \dots, n_i - 1$.

If there *is* carry propagation, then $t_i \geq n_i$, the main addition loop may modify some bits in positions $0, \dots, n_i - 1$, and the carry propagation loop modifies positions n_i, \dots, t_i : the bit in position t_i changes from 0 to 1, and the $t_i - n_i$ bits in positions $n_i, \dots, t_i - 1$ change from 1 to 0. Since the accumulator starts with 0, each of the latter $t_i - n_i$ changes can be uniquely associated with the latest change of 0 to 1 in the same position during the addition of X_j to the accumulator for some $j < i$. We have already seen that the number of such changes for a given j is at most $n_j + 1$, thus

$$\sum_{i < k} (t_i - n_i) \leq \sum_{j < k} (n_j + 1) = n.$$

It follows that

$$t = 2 \left(\sum_{i < k} (n_i + 1) + \sum_{i < k} (t_i - n_i) \right) + 1 \leq 4n + 1.$$

(In other words, we charge 2 coins for each change $0 \rightarrow 1$, one of which is spent right away, and the other is saved on that position as credit; changes $1 \rightarrow 0$ are then paid from credit.)

We can alternatively frame the argument using the “potential method”: let Φ_i be the number of 1s in Y_i . The discussion above shows that $\Phi_{i+1} - \Phi_i \leq n_i - (t_i - n_i) + 1$, i.e.,

$$t_i + 1 \leq 2(n_i + 1) + \Phi_i - \Phi_{i+1},$$

²The final $+ 1$ is for a transition to a halting state; depending on the exact details of the formalization of TM, it may be unnecessary. The reader may check that it can be shaved off anyway as long as $n \geq 1$.

therefore

$$t \leq 4 \sum_{i < k} (n_i + 1) + 2 \sum_{i < k} (\Phi_i - \Phi_{i+1}) + 1 = 4n - 2\Phi_k + 1 \leq 4n + 1$$

as $\Phi_0 = 0$. □

We mention that even though the problem is stated for binary integers for convenience, the result actually holds for any base $b \geq 2$. (There is also a trivial linear-time algorithm for unary integers.) Moreover, it generalizes to sums of possibly negative integers, represented by a sign bit and absolute value: it suffices to sum the positive and negative entries separately, and subtract the results.

Let us briefly discuss the role of the model of computation. The main alternative to TM in algorithmic complexity are *random-access machines* (*RAM*). There is a lot of variation in RAM models both in terms of available features and in terms of the definition of time complexity. Typically, simple arithmetic operations on registers such as addition and subtraction are included as primitive operations. It follows that in unit-cost RAM models with unlimited register size, the SEQSUM problem is trivially solvable in linear time. If we limit register size to $O(\log n)$ bits (word RAM) or in logarithmic-cost models, the problem becomes nontrivial again as the obvious algorithm needs quadratic time (or at least appears so, as in the case of TM). We can still solve SEQSUM in time $O(n)$ by Theorem 1 using an array of constant-size registers to simulate TM tapes, as long as we can access the individual entries of the array with unit cost. But if indexing register number r costs $\log r$, this algorithm requires time $\Theta(n \log n)$; in such a model, $\Theta(n \log n)$ time is necessary even just to read the input if it is also represented as an array of bits.

4 Conclusion

We analyzed the performance of a straightforward algorithm for summing a sequence of integers on a TM, and found that it takes time $O(n)$, despite first appearances suggesting it is only $O(n^2)$. The argument is quite simple, and it is an extension of a standard example in amortized complexity (the binary counter). Nevertheless, to the best of our knowledge it has not been observed before in commonly available literature; given the fundamental nature of the problem, we believe it is worthwhile to point out the result explicitly.

References

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