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ON-CHIP COMMUNICATION ARCHITECTURES

SYSTEMS ON SILICON



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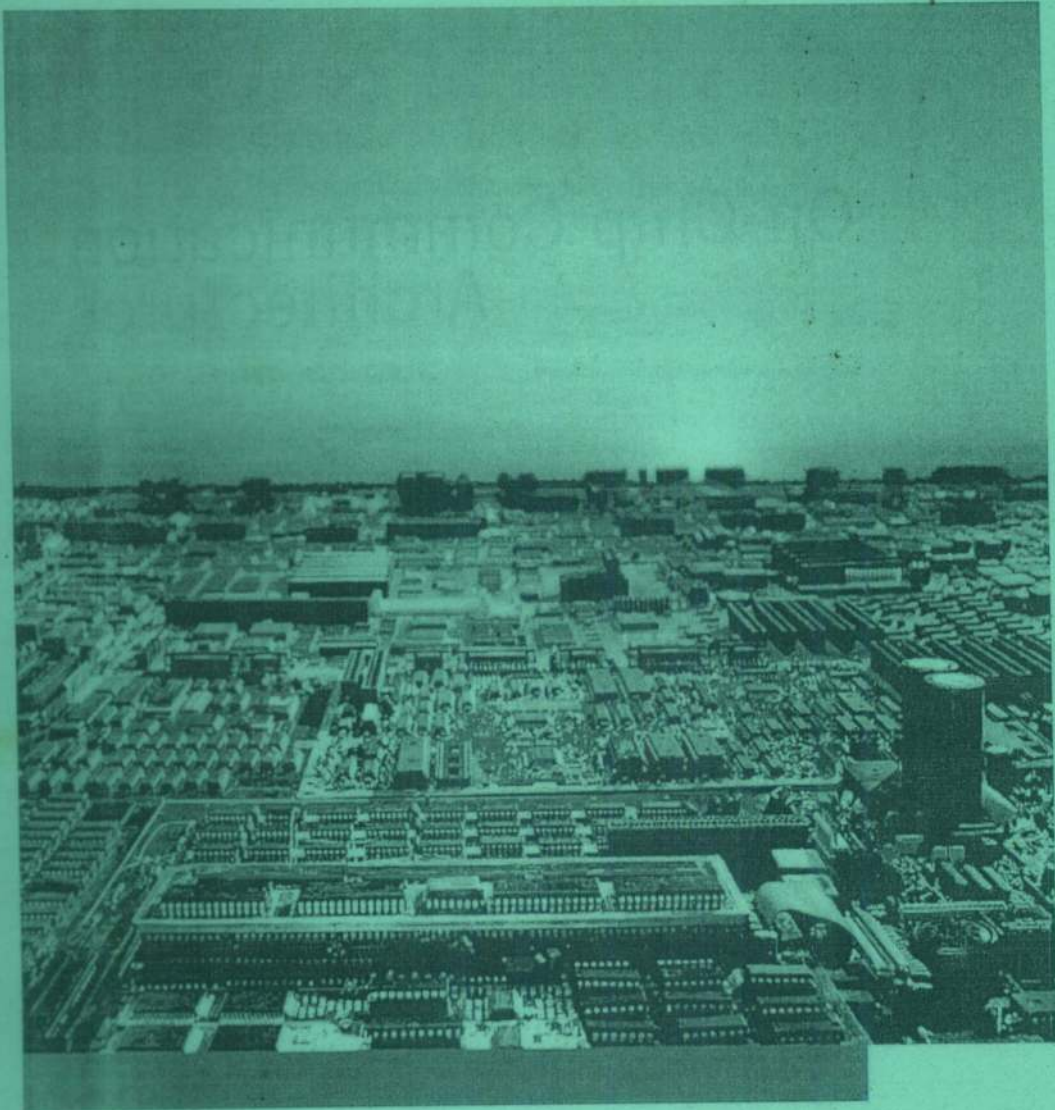
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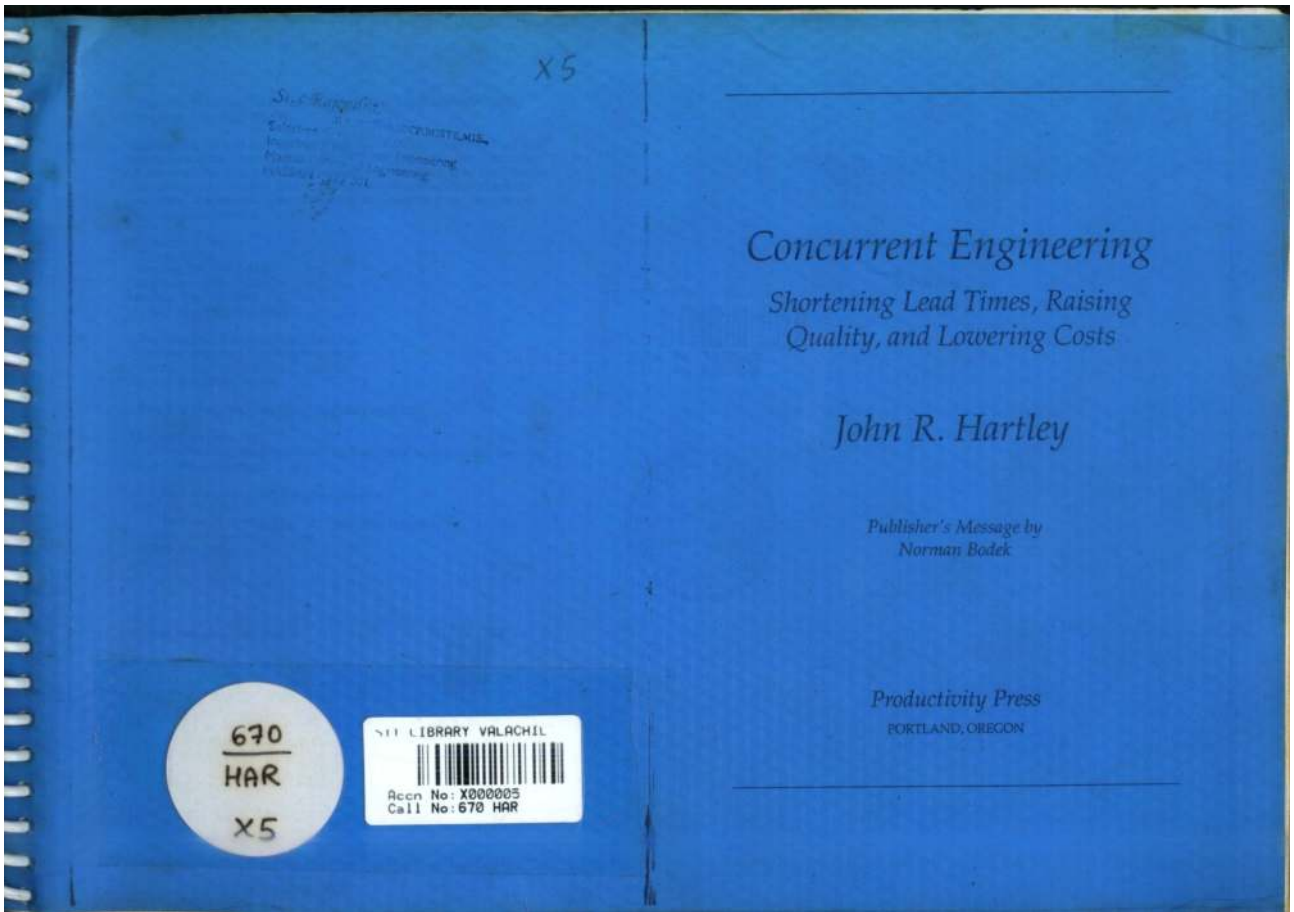
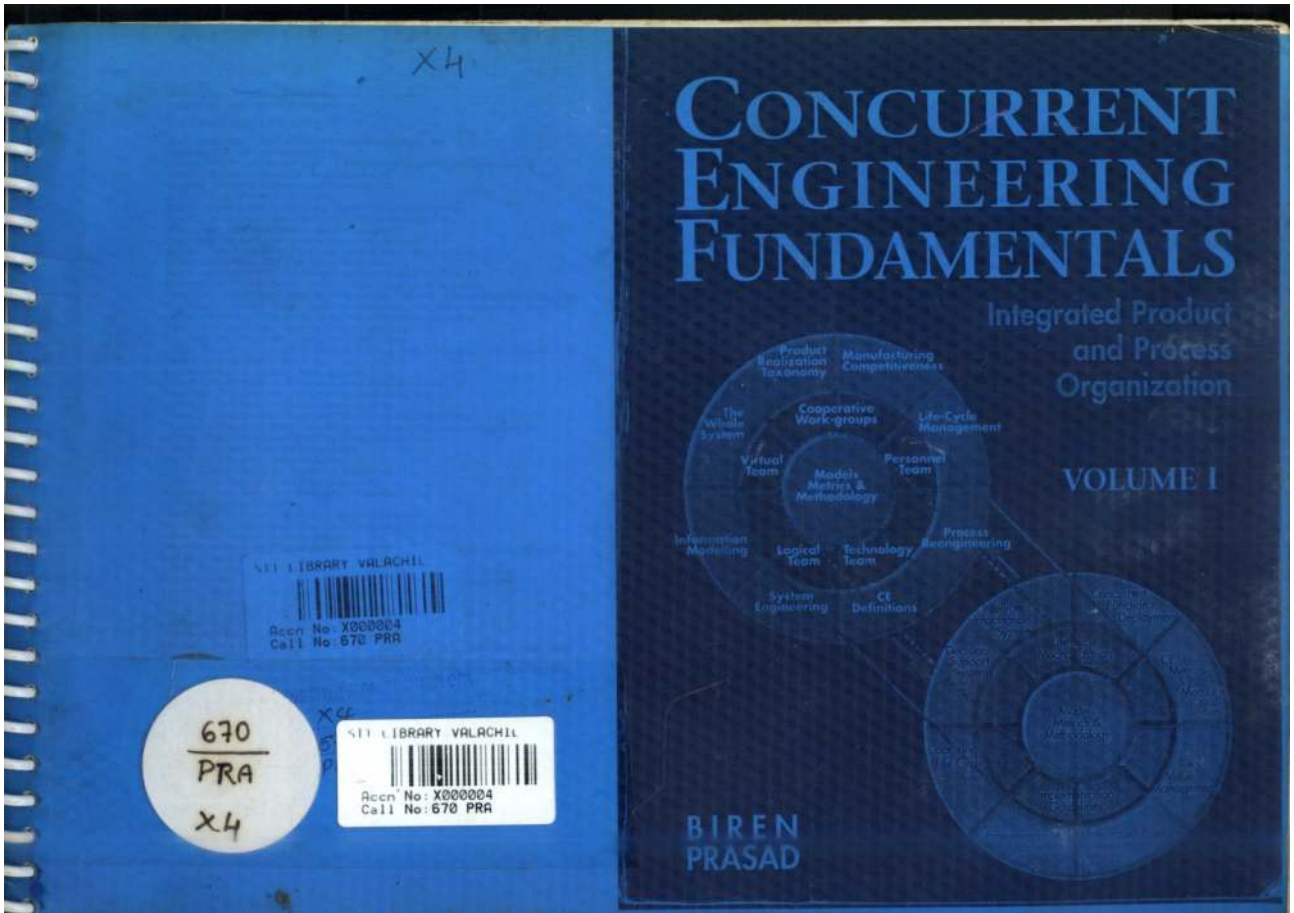
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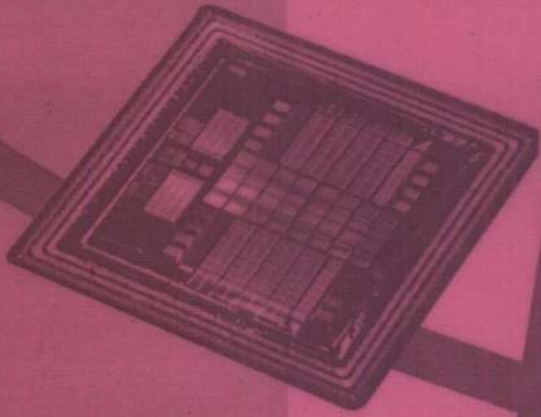
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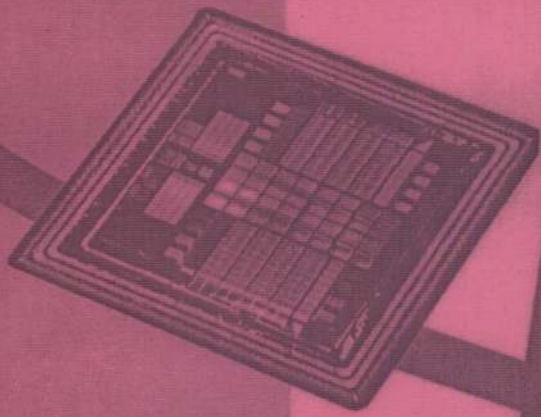
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
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A course based on this text can extend over 25-30 lecture hours and should be supplemented by discussion sessions and a laboratory project. The aim of the project should be to take the student through various stages of the design cycle and then to fabricate what he has designed. The stress should be more on conceptualization and less on detailed design. While we believe this course should be taught at the very beginning of an engineer's education, if it is included at a later stage, care should be taken to emphasize the design process itself rather than the analytic and detailed design aspects which the students get in their other courses anyway.

We feel that the contents of the book may also be of some value to practising designers in systematizing the practices which they may already be following.

We wish to express our sincerest appreciation to Dr. Santosh Gupta who contributed in innumerable ways to the development of this text; to Dr. J.K. Gbelawat and Dr. M. Von Oppen for contributions to Chapters 9 and 13 respectively; to many students and teachers of the course 'Introduction to Design'; and to the Curriculum Development Centre, Quality Improvement Programme, at the Indian Institute of Technology, Kanpur, for providing financial assistance for the preparation of the manuscript.

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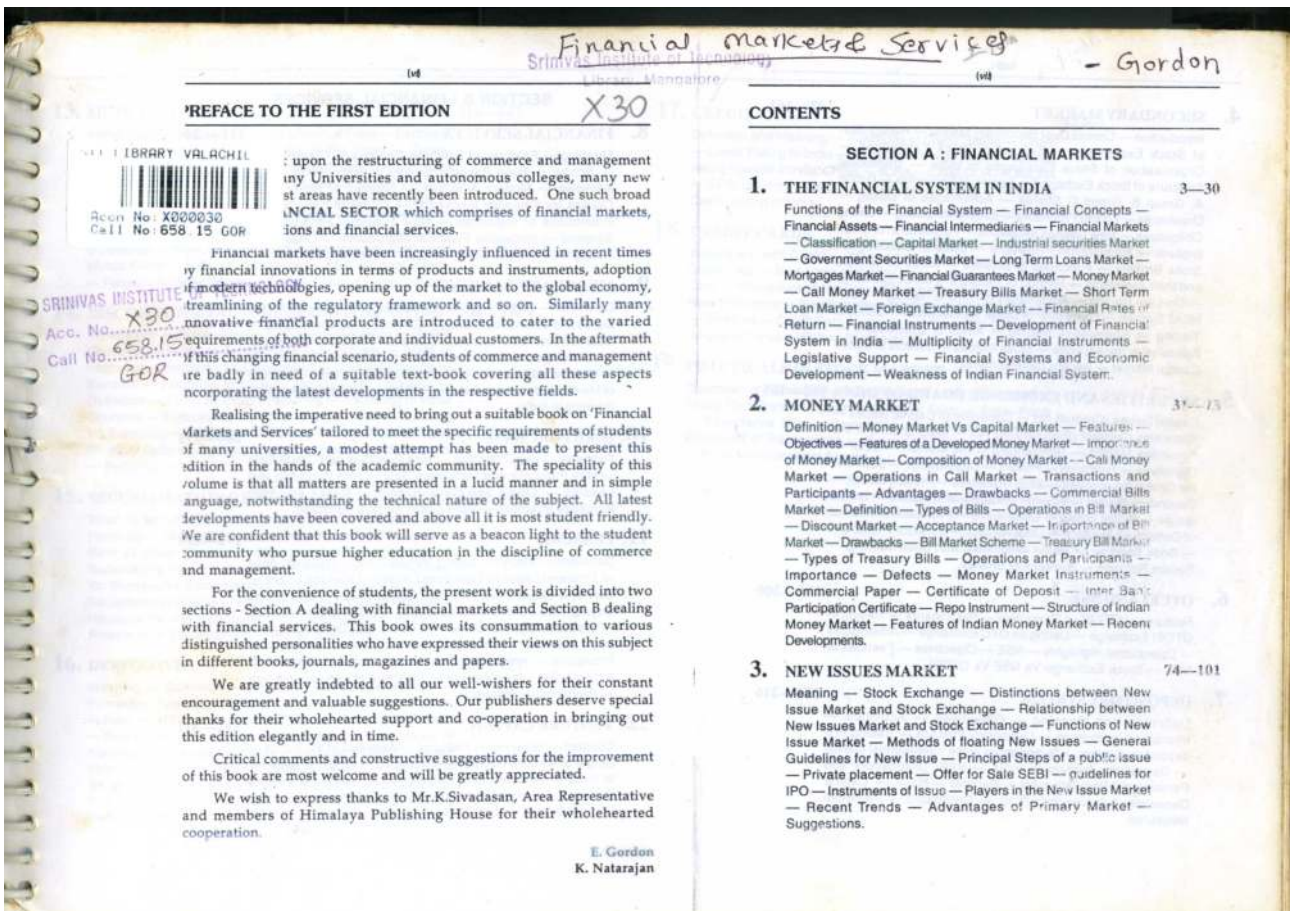
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Foundation of Fluid
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xvi List of Symbols

ρ Dimensionless parameter
 ξ Average depth of penetration
 ΔH_f Enthalpy of formation
 ΔH_c Enthalpy of combustion
 ΔU_r Internal energy of reaction
Superscript * refers to standard state

Fuels and Combustion

by

Sharma & Chandrasekhar

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Acknowledgments

I would like to express my appreciation to the students who used the notes that led to the present text. I would like to thank Mr. Qiang Fu, Mr. Lingtao Cao and Ms. Qing Liu, graduate students at the University of Miami, for their help in solving some of the examples and problems using MATLAB, MAPLE, and MATHECAD. I wish to thank my family, wife Kamala, daughters Sridevi and Shobha, and grand daughter Siriveena, for their numerous intangible contributions to this work. In particular, I dedicate this book to my wife, Kamala, for providing me the inspiration and support in completing this book.

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Applied Mathematics
by
S. S. Rao

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1 Introduction to Numerical Methods

1.1 Importance of Numerical Methods in Engineering

Most engineering analysis problems involve (1) the development of a mathematical model to represent all the important characteristics of the physical system; (2) the derivation of the governing equations of the model by applying physical laws, such as equilibrium equation, Newton's laws of motion, conservation of mass and conservation of energy; (3) solution of the governing equations; and (4) interpretation of the solution. Depending on the system being analyzed and the mathematical model used, the governing equations may be a set of linear or nonlinear algebraic equations, a set of transcendental equations, a set of ordinary or partial differential equations, a set of homogeneous equations leading to an eigenvalue problem, or an equation involving integrals or derivatives. We may or may not be able to find the solution of a governing equation analytically. If the solution can be

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- 1.2 Computers
- 1.3 Computer Programming Languages
- 1.4 Data Representation
- 1.5 Programming Structure
- 1.6 Errors
- 1.7 Numerical Methods Considered
- 1.8 Software for Numerical Analysis
- 1.9 Use of Software Packages
- 1.10 Computer Programs

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Thermal Power Engineering

by
Aswatha Narayana P.A. & Seetharama K.N.

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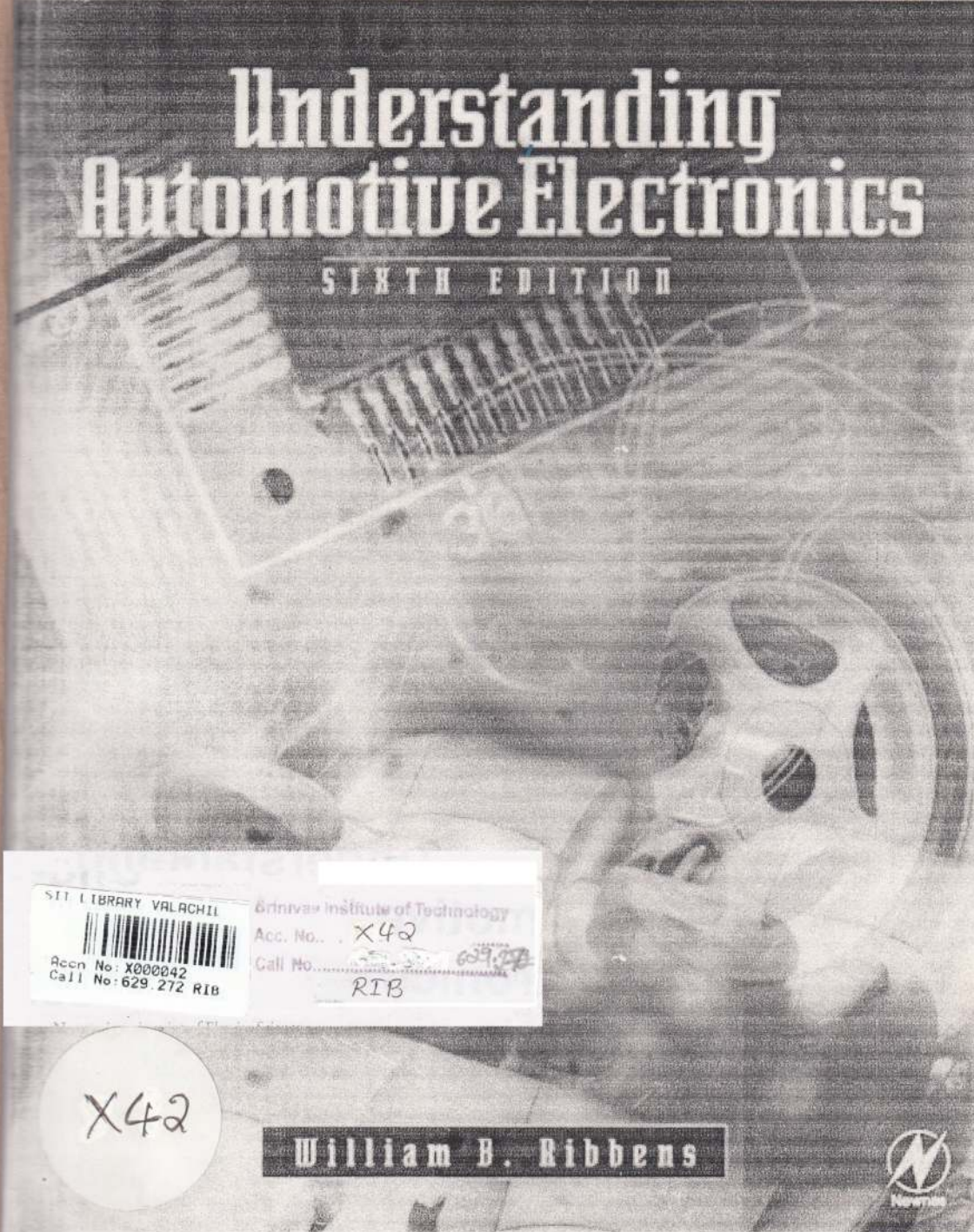


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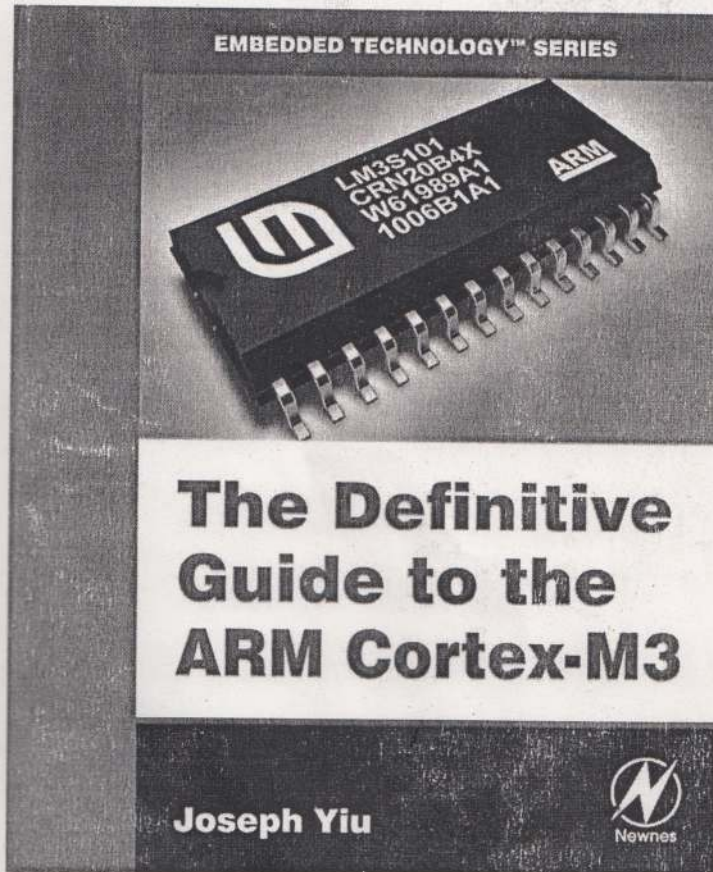
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in twelve states and created brand loyalty. In just the first two years of the Total Rewards program, revenue increased by \$100 million from customers who gambled at more than one Harrah's casino. Since 1998, each percentage-point increase in Harrah's share of its customers' overall gambling budgets has coincided with an additional \$125 million in shareholder value. The company's record earnings of \$3.7 billion in 2001 were up 11 percent from 2000. More than half of the revenue at Harrah's three Las Vegas casinos now comes from players the company already knows from its casinos outside of Nevada.

❖ QUESTIONS FOR THE OPENING VIGNETTE

1. How did Harrah's end up with a major problem on its hands?
2. Why was it important to collect data on customers?
3. How do DSS technologies (data mining, data warehouse, customer resource management, etc.) help managers identify customer profiles and their profitability?
4. What was the impact of the Harrah's customer-loyalty program?
5. *Open-ended:* How could a retail store effectively develop methods and systems like those used by Harrah's to boost profitability and market share?

1.2 MANAGERS AND DECISION-MAKING

The opening vignette illustrates how Harrah's developed and uses a computerized decision support system to maintain customer loyalty, expand its market, and cross-market its properties. Harrah's was an underperformer in the market until the DSS was deployed. It is now an industry leader, operating successfully in an extremely competitive market. Some of the points demonstrated by this vignette are:

- The nature of the competition in the gaming industry makes it necessary to use computerized decision support tools to succeed and to survive.
- The company uses the World Wide Web extensively for its interface. Analysts, marketing specialists, and even customers can access the system directly through the World Wide Web.
- The system is based on data organized in a special data warehouse to allow easy processing and analysis.
- The major technologies used are data mining (business intelligence/business analytics) systems to identify profitable customer classes (analysis) and a customer-relationship management (CRM) system to market promotions, monitor sales, and identify problems and new opportunities. The data-mining methods may include regression analysis, neural networks, cluster analysis, and optimization approaches.
- The DSS is used in making a variety of marketing decisions, ranging from determining which customers are most profitable to how to promote the properties to all customers. Promotions can be made on a day-to-day basis.
- Decision support is based on a vast amount of internal and external data.
- The DSS analysis software applications are separate from the transaction processing system (TPS), yet they use much of the TPS data. Statistical and other quantitative models are used in the CRM. The managers are ultimately responsible for all decisions.



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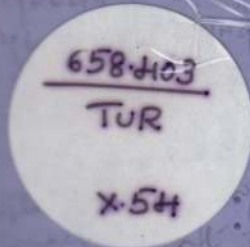
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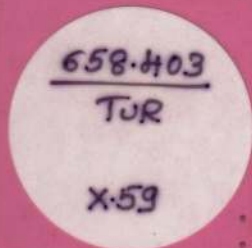
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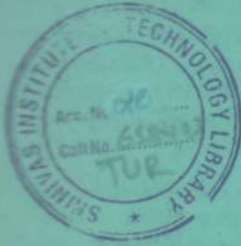
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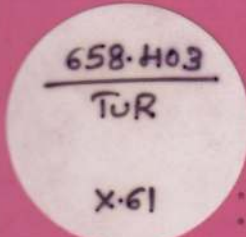
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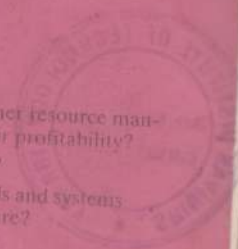
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Kishan Kumar

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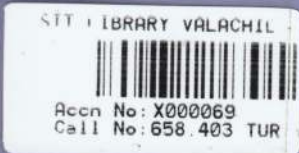
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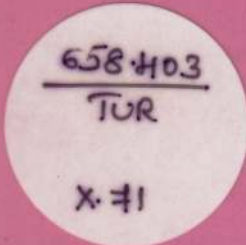
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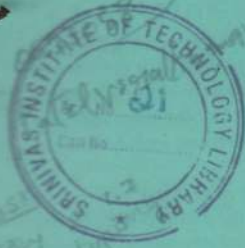
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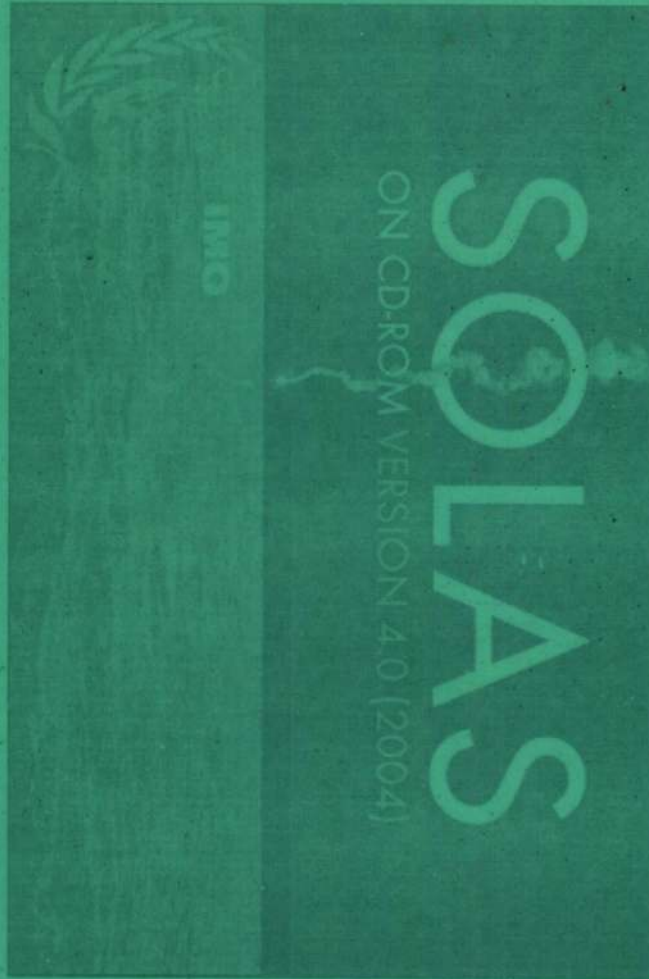
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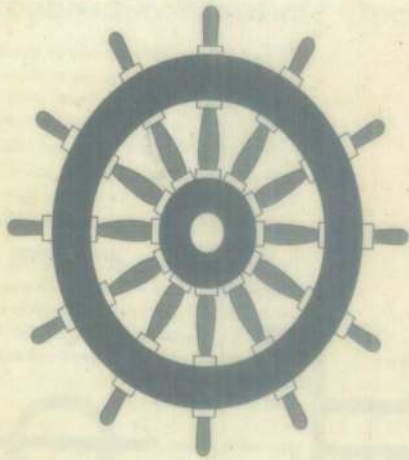
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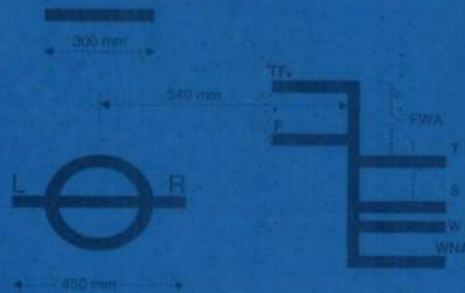
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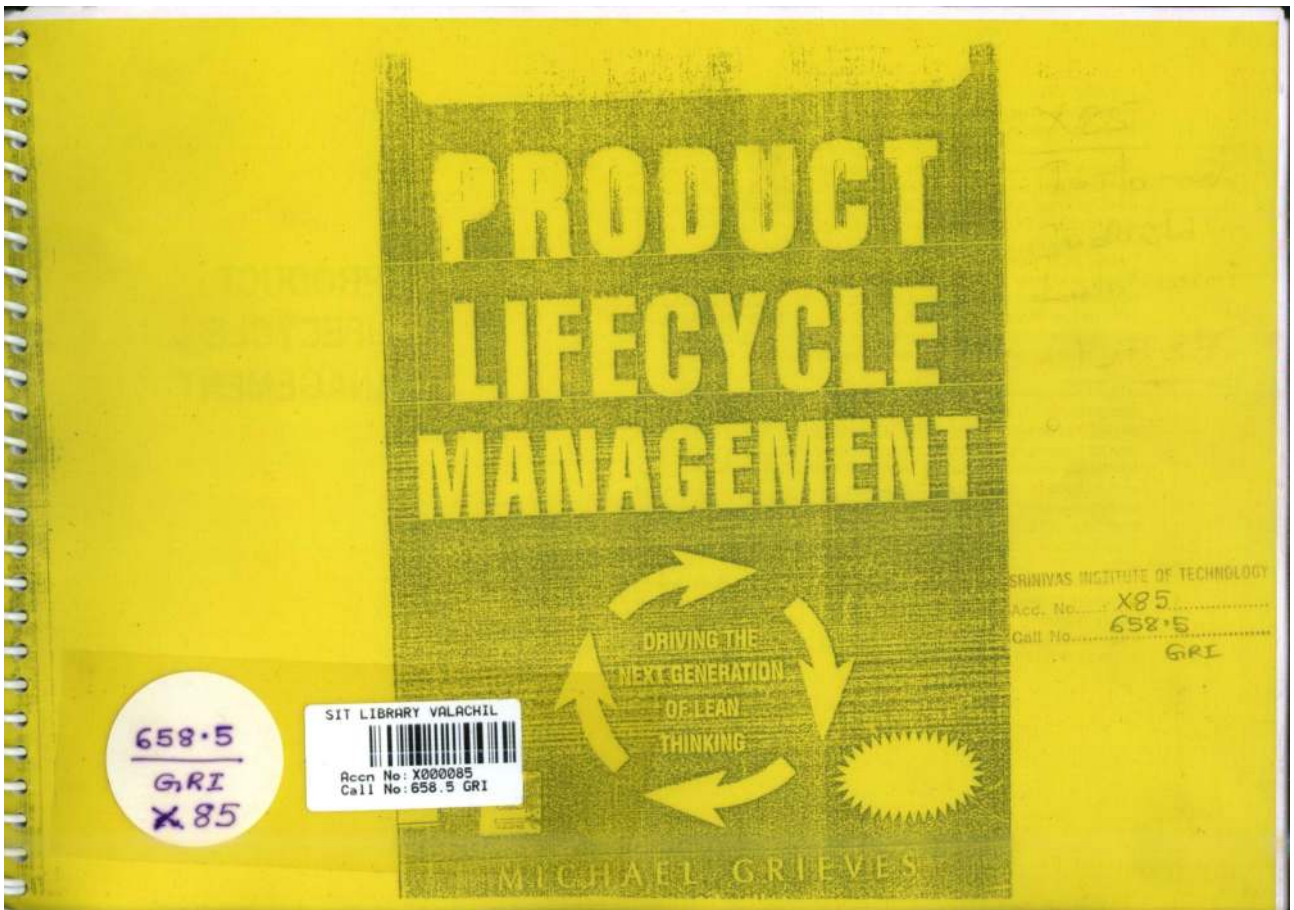
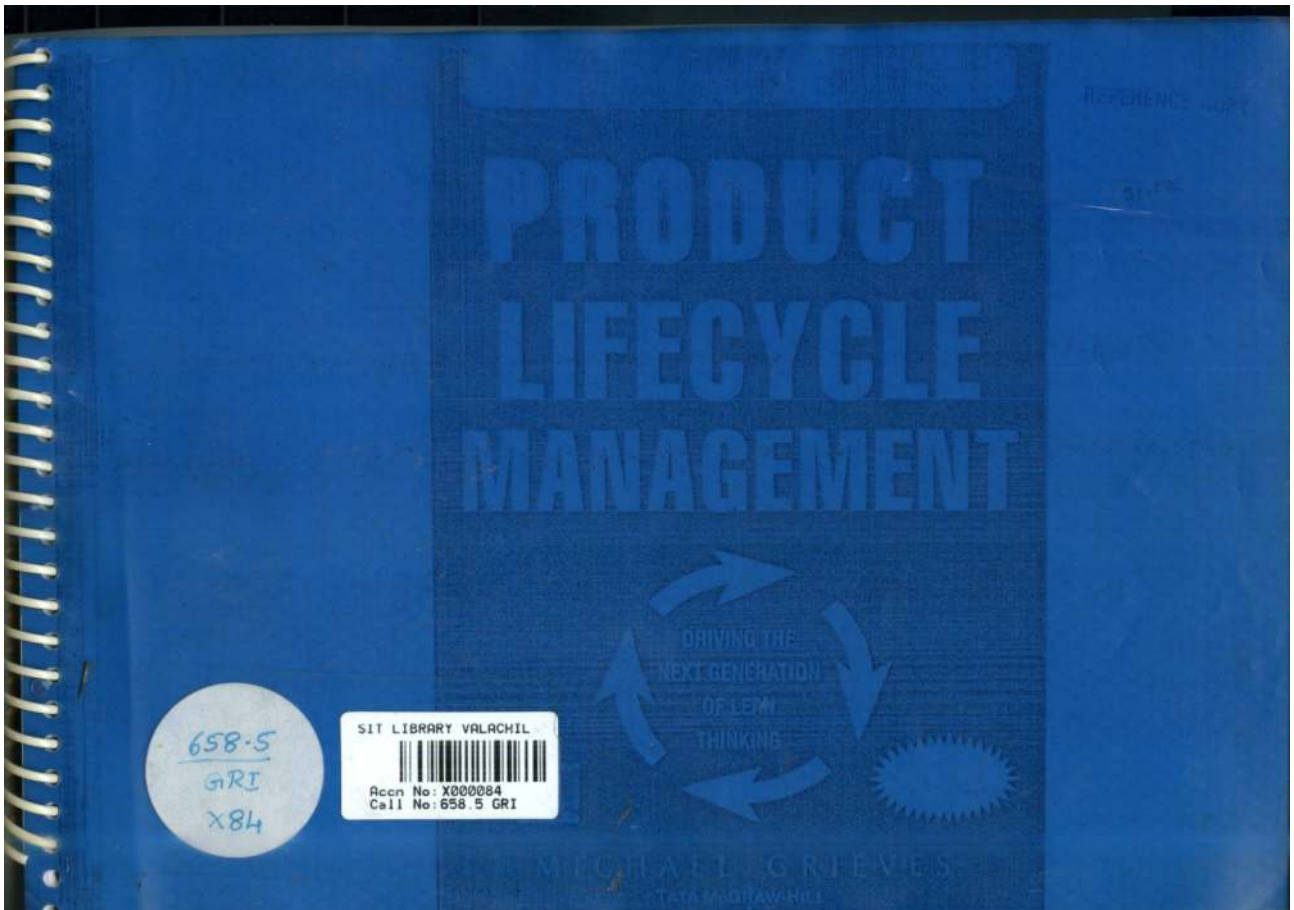


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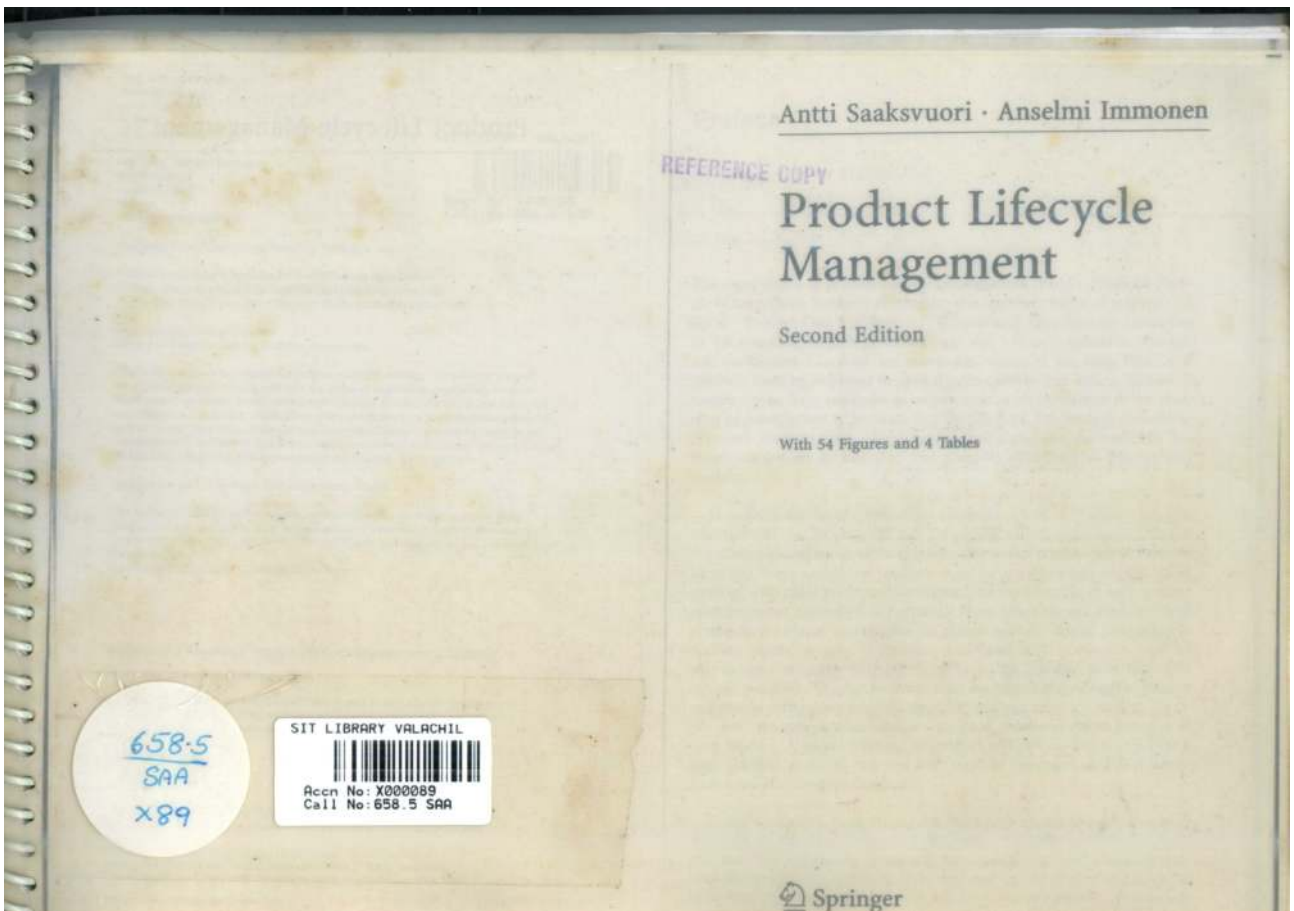
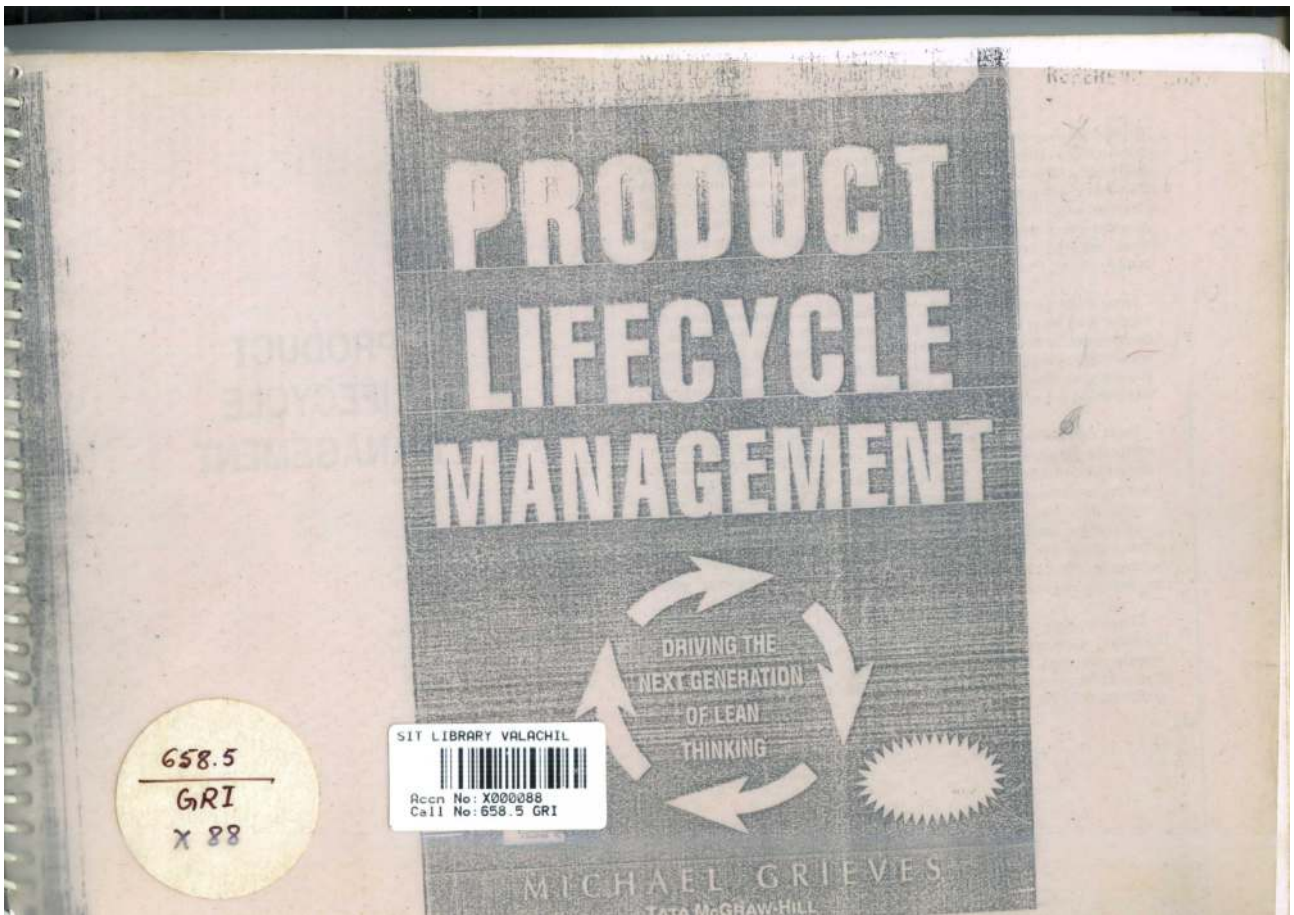


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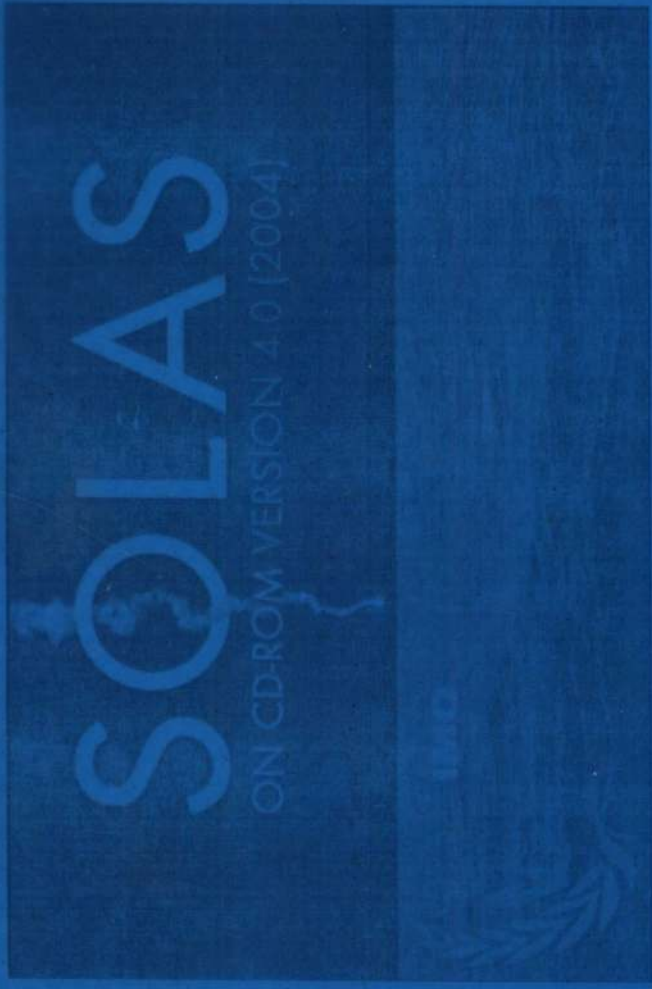
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By John Stark

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Product Life cycle Management:
Paradigms for 21st century Product Realization

By John Stark

Published: Springer
Place: Verlag
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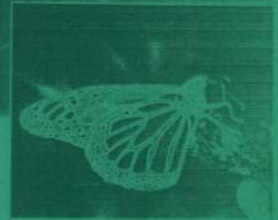
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608 ALGORITHMS

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CHAPTER 24

PROBABILISTIC AND RANDOMIZED ALGORITHMS

The algorithms that we have considered so far (with the exception of the Karp-Rabin string matcher) are *deterministic*; that is, they leave nothing to chance. Running a deterministic algorithm time after time with the same input produces identical results each time. On the other hand, a *probabilistic* algorithm contains steps that make random choices by invoking a random (or pseudorandom) number generator. Thus, they are subject to the laws of chance. In particular, a probabilistic algorithm can perform differently for two runs with the same input.


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The expected behavior of a randomized algorithm over all inputs is no better than the average behavior of its associated deterministic algorithm and is usually a little worse due to the overhead of calls to a random number generator, among other factors. Monte Carlo algorithms often produce solutions very quickly but only guarantee correctness with high probability. A Las Vegas algorithm never outputs an incorrect solution but has some probability of reporting a failure to produce a solution. In practice, obtaining solutions with high probability is almost as satisfactory as the foolproof guarantee provided by a deterministic algorithm. For many important problems, such as prime testing, the most efficient algorithms currently known for their solutions are probabilistic.

Numerical probabilistic algorithms were among the first examples of introducing randomness into the design of algorithms. A classical example is the estimation of π obtained by throwing darts at a square and recording how many darts landed inside a circle inscribed in the square.

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- 24.24 Using Formula (24.5.5), show that $\sum_{i=1}^n i^2 = \frac{1}{6}n(n+1)(2n+1)$, so that the expected number of basic operations performed by *RoyalFlushes* is linear in the input size n .
- 24.25 Suppose that we are given an NC algorithm for evaluating a multivariate polynomial $P(x_1, \dots, x_n)$ of degree n over the real numbers. For example, $P(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)$ might be a determinant of matrix A whose entries involve the variables x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n . Design and analyze an NC algorithm (a parallel Monte Carlo algorithm having logarithmic complexity in n and m) which uses a polynomial number of processors in n and m for determining whether or not P is identically zero. Use the following lemma.

Lemma

For any set of k real numbers $S = \{r_1, \dots, r_k\}$, the number of zeros in S^n of a multivariate polynomial $P(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_k)$ of degree n is at most $k^n - 1$.

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CHAPTER 25

LOWER-BOUND THEORY

Given a problem and a specific algorithm for solving the problem, it is important to determine how close the algorithm comes to exhibiting optimal worst-case or average complexity for the problem itself. But how do we determine what optimal behavior *is* for the problem? Of course, the complexity of any algorithm that correctly solves the problem gives us *upper bounds* on the complexities of the problem. The object of this chapter is to discuss various techniques for determining good lower-bound estimates for the worst-case and average complexities of problems such as comparison-based searching and sorting.

25.1 BASIC TERMINOLOGY AND TECHNIQUES

In Chapter 3, we found *sharp* lower-bound formulas for the worst-case complexity of the problem of adjacent-key comparison-based sorting and for the best-case, worst-case, and average complexities of the problem of finding the maximum value in a list. In other words, we found algorithms solving these problems that performed no more than the absolute minimum number of basic operations required to solve the given problems by any algorithm. There are relatively few problems for which sharp lower-bound formulas have been established. It is more realistic to search for lower-bound formulas for the order of complexity of a problem. An algorithm whose complexity has the same order as a lower bound for the problem is called *order-optimal*. Even establishing order optimality is rare and usually can only be done in the context of suitably restricting the problem or type of algorithm allowed.

We discuss six basic techniques for determining lower bounds: simple counting arguments (based on a principle of minimal work), enumeration arguments, decision (comparison) tree arguments, adversary arguments, information theoretic arguments, and graph theoretic arguments.

25.1.1 SIMPLE COUNTING ARGUMENTS

Simple counting arguments for establishing lower bounds are based on showing that any algorithm for solving a given problem must do a certain amount of minimal work to correctly output the

- 11.24 Find a sequence of admissible moves for the two-level heuristic search illustrated in Figure 23.16 that leads to a loss for player A in 3×3 tic-tac-toe.
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- 11.28 Redo Exercise 23.22 for deep alpha-beta pruning. Indicate any pruned nodes that were not pruned by alpha-beta pruning.

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CHAPTER
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PROBABILISTIC AND
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CHAPTER 24

PROBABILISTIC AND RANDOMIZED ALGORITHMS

The algorithms that we have considered so far (with the exception of the Karp-Rabin string matcher) are *deterministic*; that is, they leave nothing to chance. Running a deterministic algorithm time after time with the same input produces identical results each time. On the other hand, a *probabilistic* algorithm contains steps that make random choices by invoking a random (or pseudorandom) number generator. Thus, they are subject to the laws of chance. In particular, a probabilistic algorithm can perform differently for two runs with the same input.

Probabilistic algorithms fall into four main design categories: randomizations of deterministic algorithms, Monte Carlo algorithms, Las Vegas algorithms, and numerical probabilistic algorithms. A randomization of a deterministic algorithm occurs when certain steps that made canonical choices are replaced by steps that make these choices in a random fashion. Randomization is done to break the connection between a particular input and worst-case behavior and thereby homogenize the expected behavior of inputs to the algorithm.

The expected behavior of a randomized algorithm over all inputs is no better than the average behavior of its associated deterministic algorithm and is usually a little worse due to the overhead of calls to a random number generator, among other factors. Monte Carlo algorithms often produce solutions very quickly but only guarantee correctness with high probability. A Las Vegas algorithm never outputs an incorrect solution but has some probability of reporting a failure to produce a solution. In practice, obtaining solutions with high probability is almost as satisfactory as the foolproof guarantee provided by a deterministic algorithm. For many important problems, such as prime testing, the most efficient algorithms currently known for their solutions are probabilistic.

Numerical probabilistic algorithms were among the first examples of introducing randomness into the design of algorithms. A classical example is the estimation of π obtained by throwing darts at a square and recording how many darts landed inside a circle inscribed in the square.

- 24.24 Find a sequence of admissible moves for the two-level heuristic search illustrated in Figure 23.16 that leads to a loss for player A in 3×3 tic-tac-toe.
- 24.25 Show that by assigning the values 9, 0, and -9 to terminal nodes that are wins, ties, or losses, respectively, for player A, the two-level search illustrated in Figure 23.16 never leads to a loss for player A.
- 24.26 Because there are no tie positions in the $3 \times 3 \times 3$ tic-tac-toe game, the first player has a winning strategy. Find a winning strategy for the first player.
- 24.27 Design a recursive function $DABNodeValue(X, NumLevels, ParentValue, NodeValueLowBnd)$ for deep alpha-beta pruning. The initial invocation of $DABNodeValue$ should have $ParentValue = \infty$ and $NodeValueLowBnd = -\infty$.
- 24.28 Redo Exercise 23.22 for deep alpha-beta pruning. Indicate any pruned nodes that were not pruned by alpha-beta pruning.

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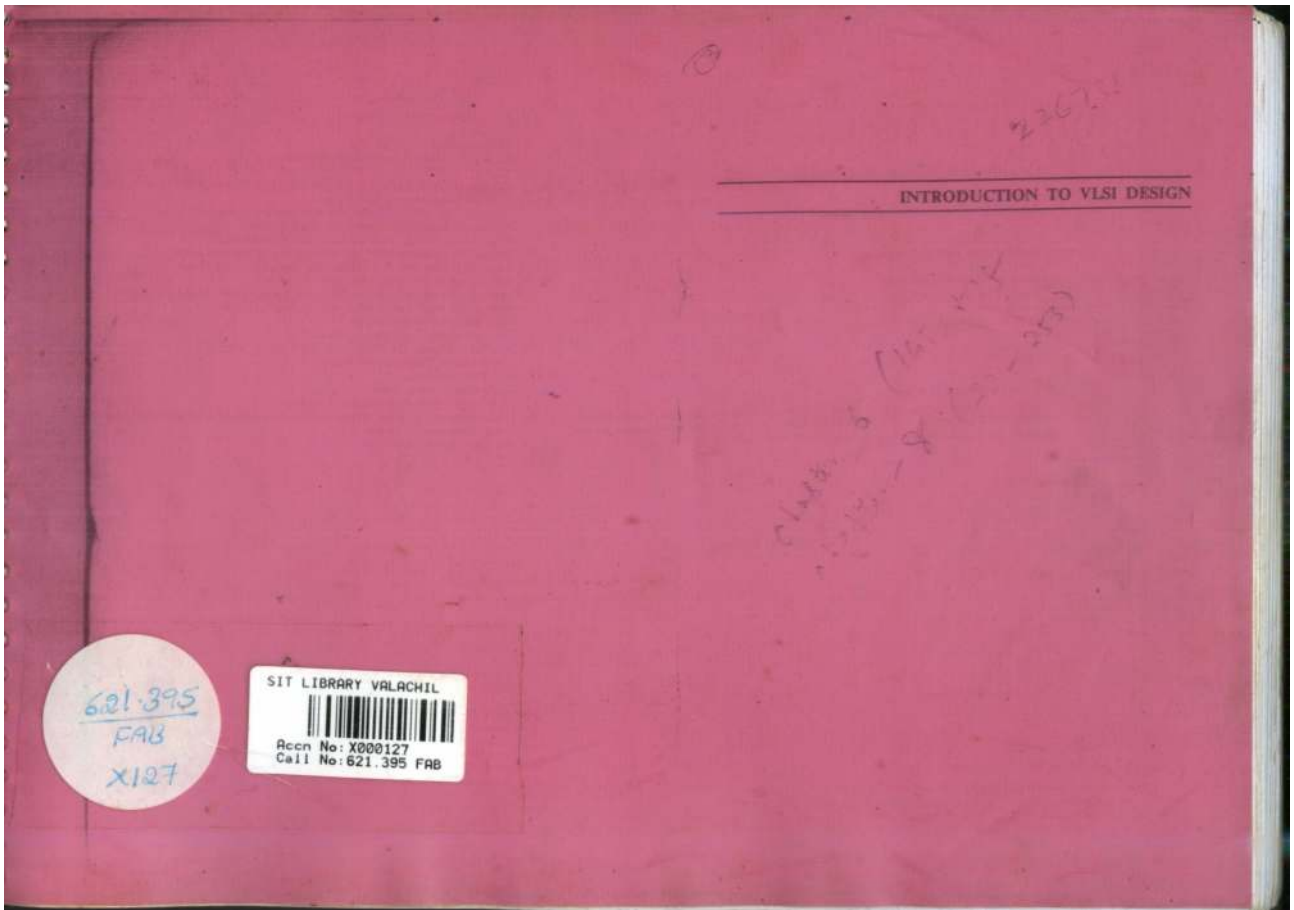
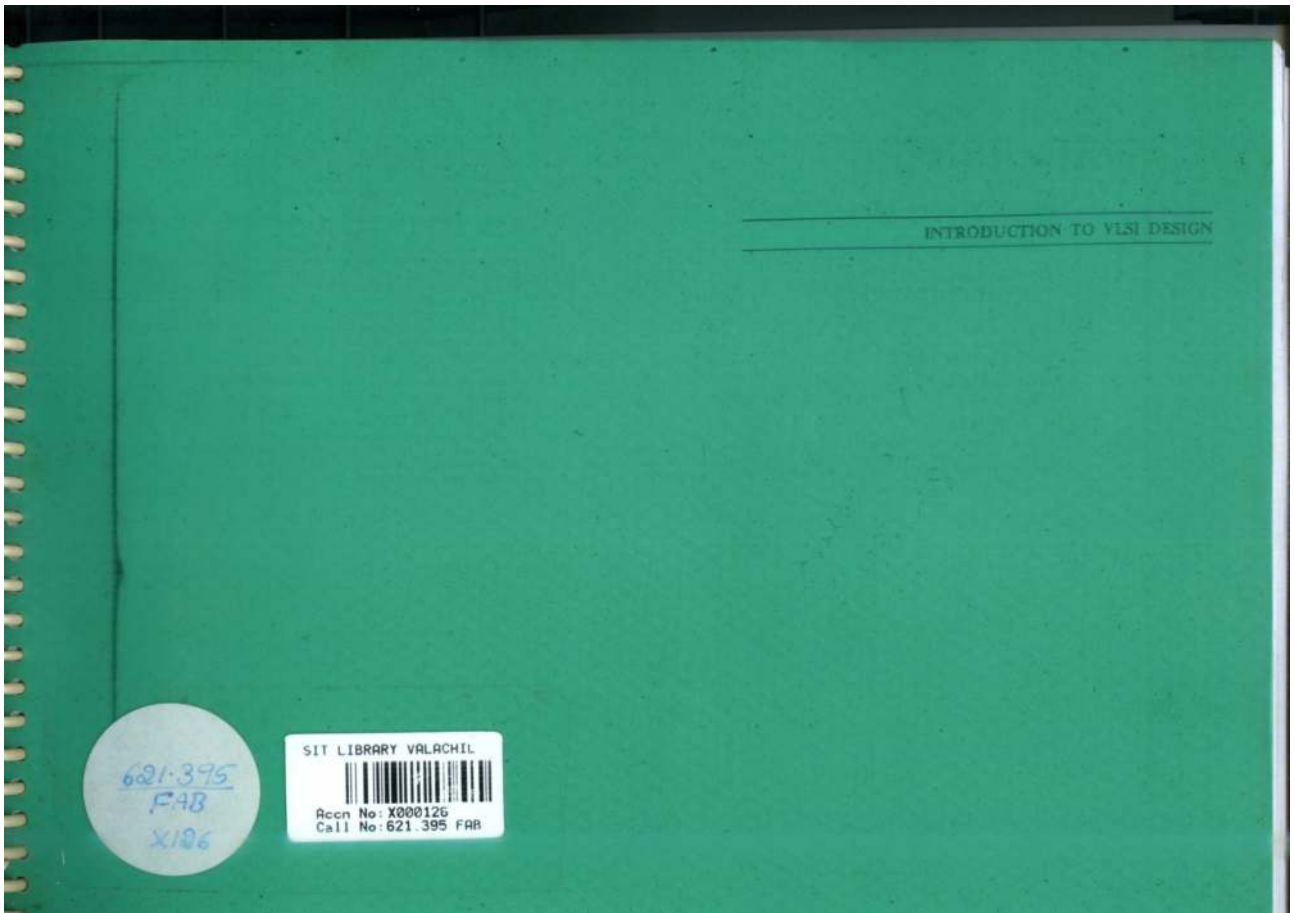
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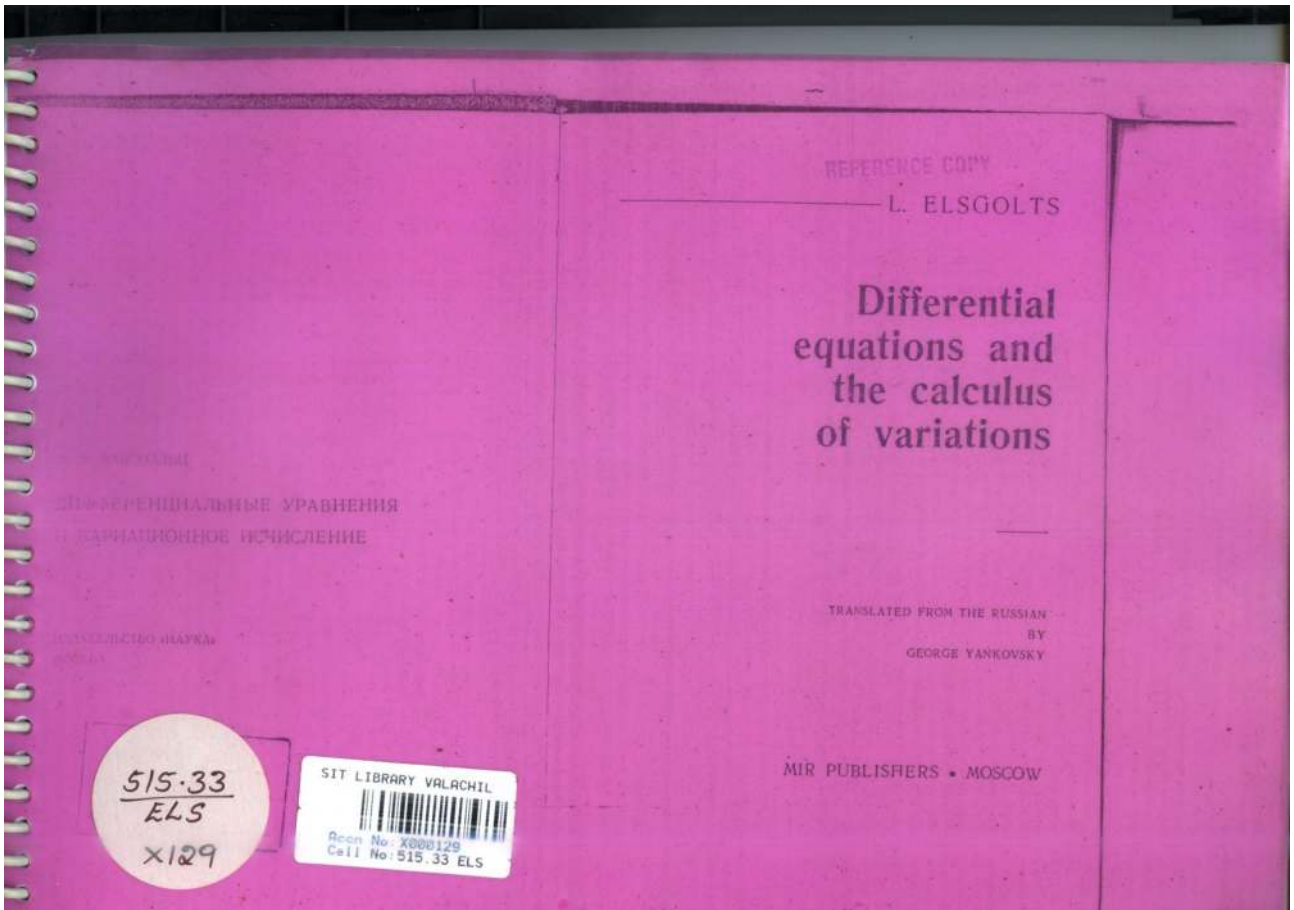
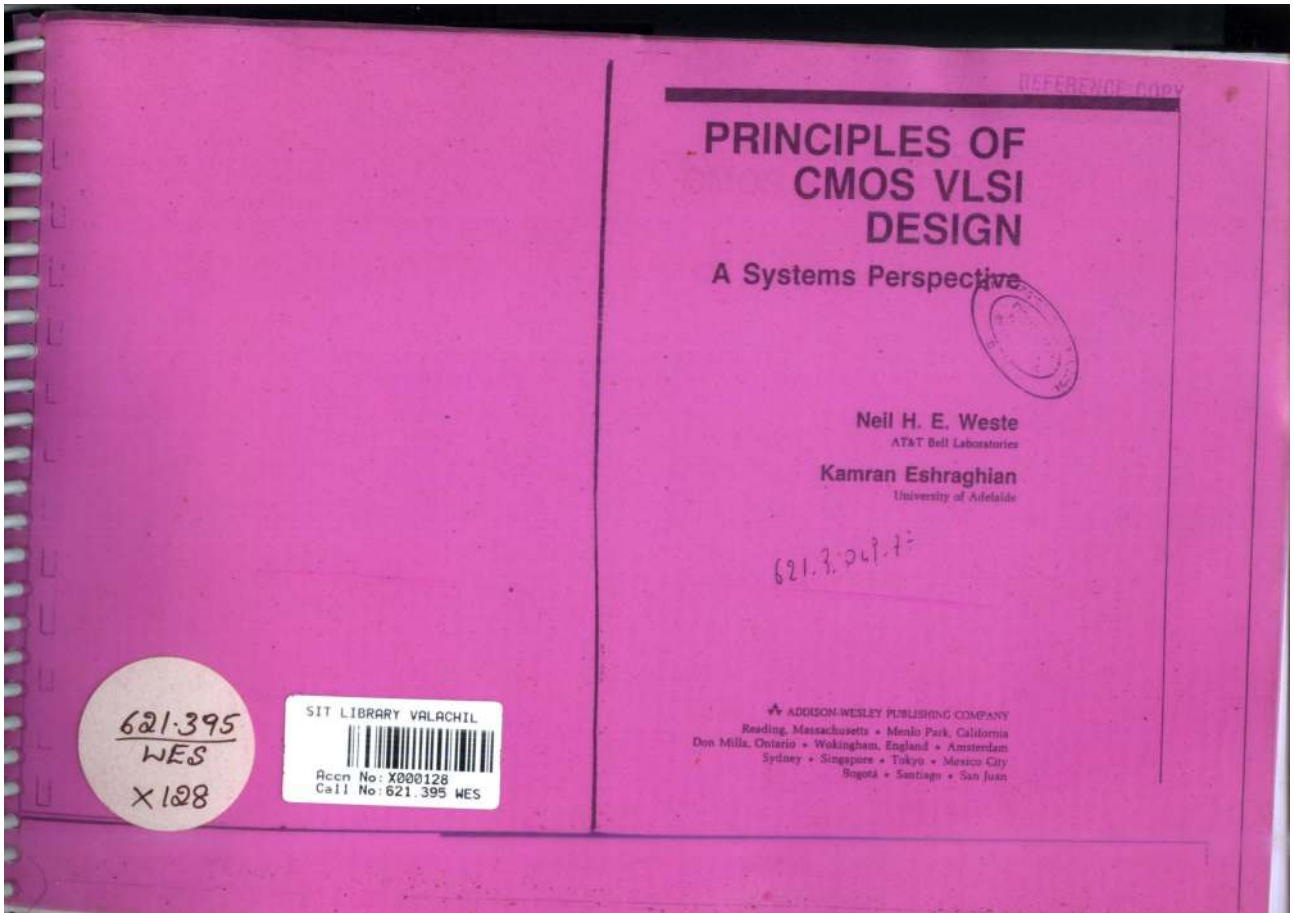
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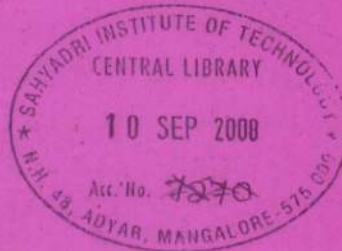
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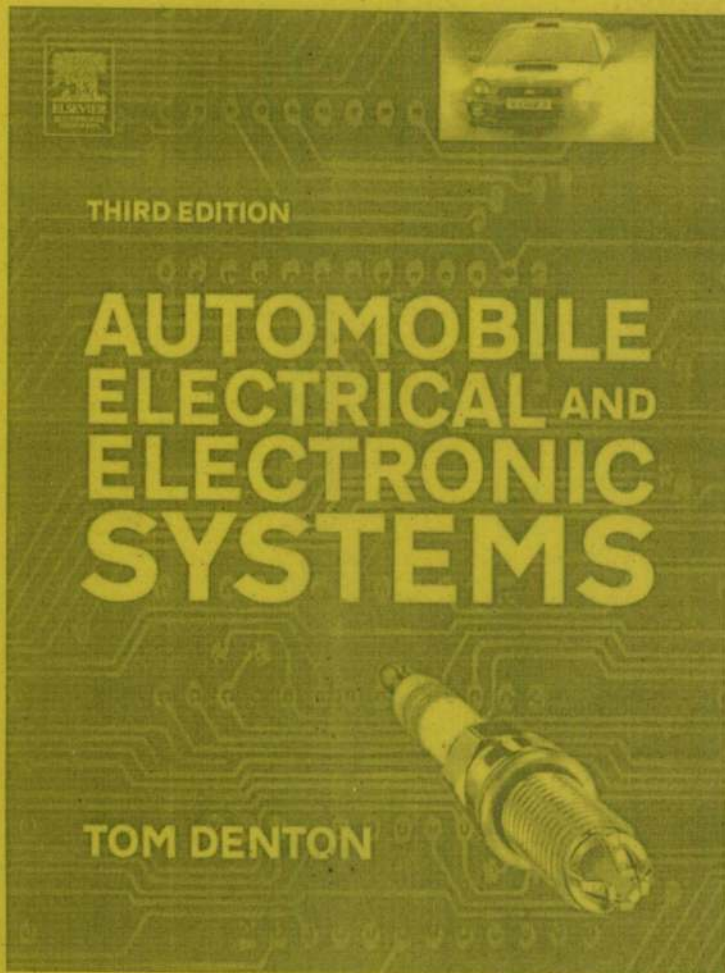
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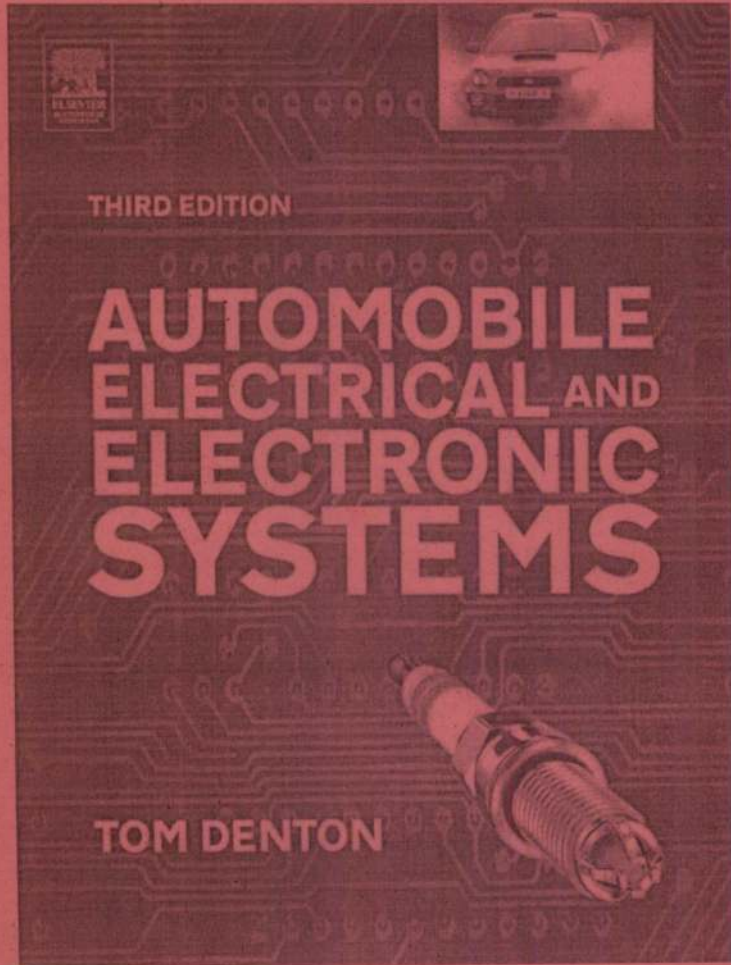
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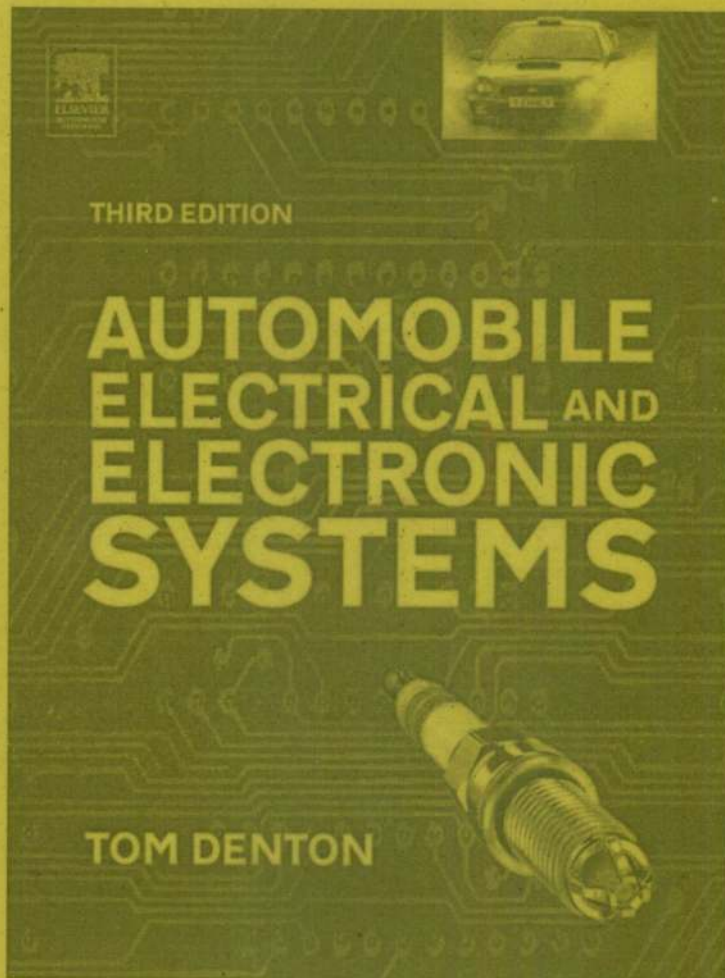
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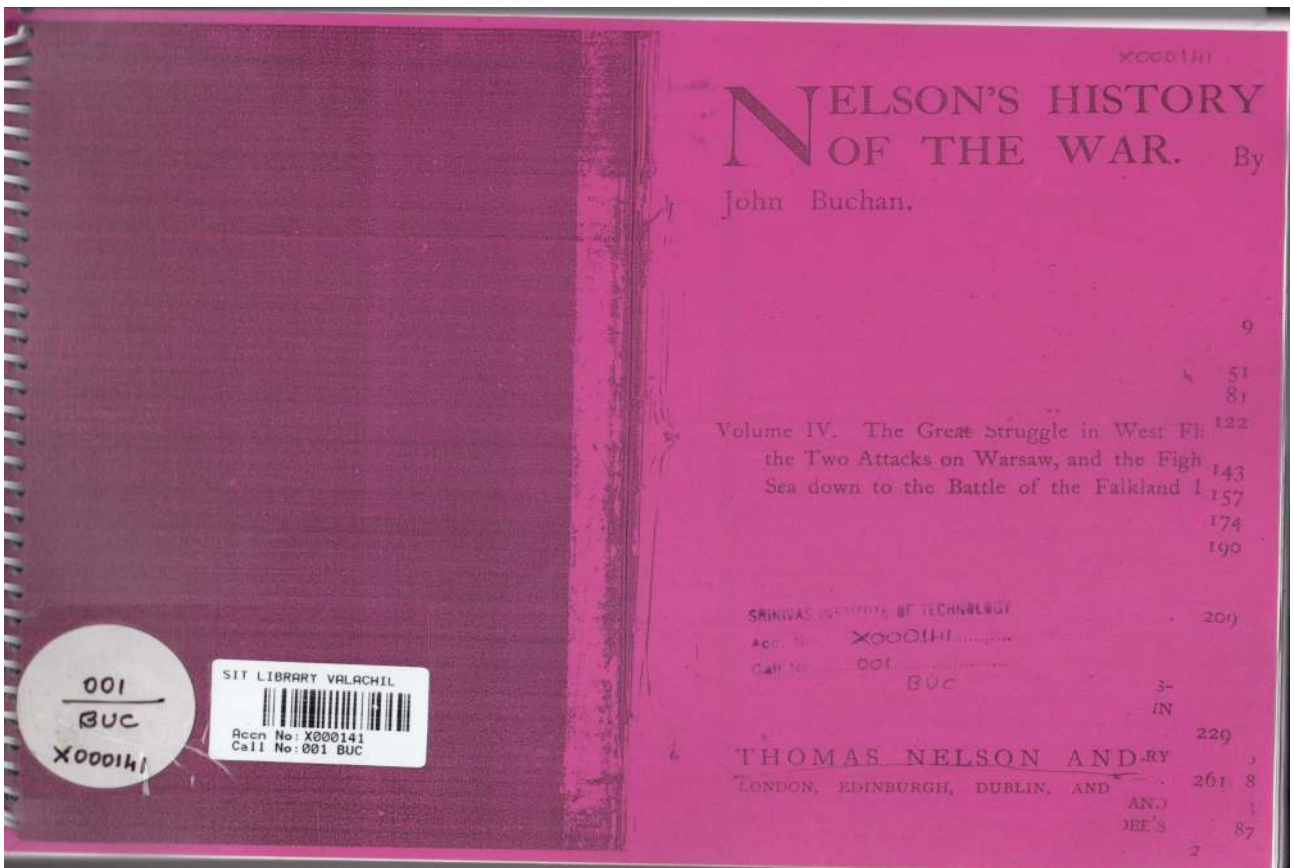
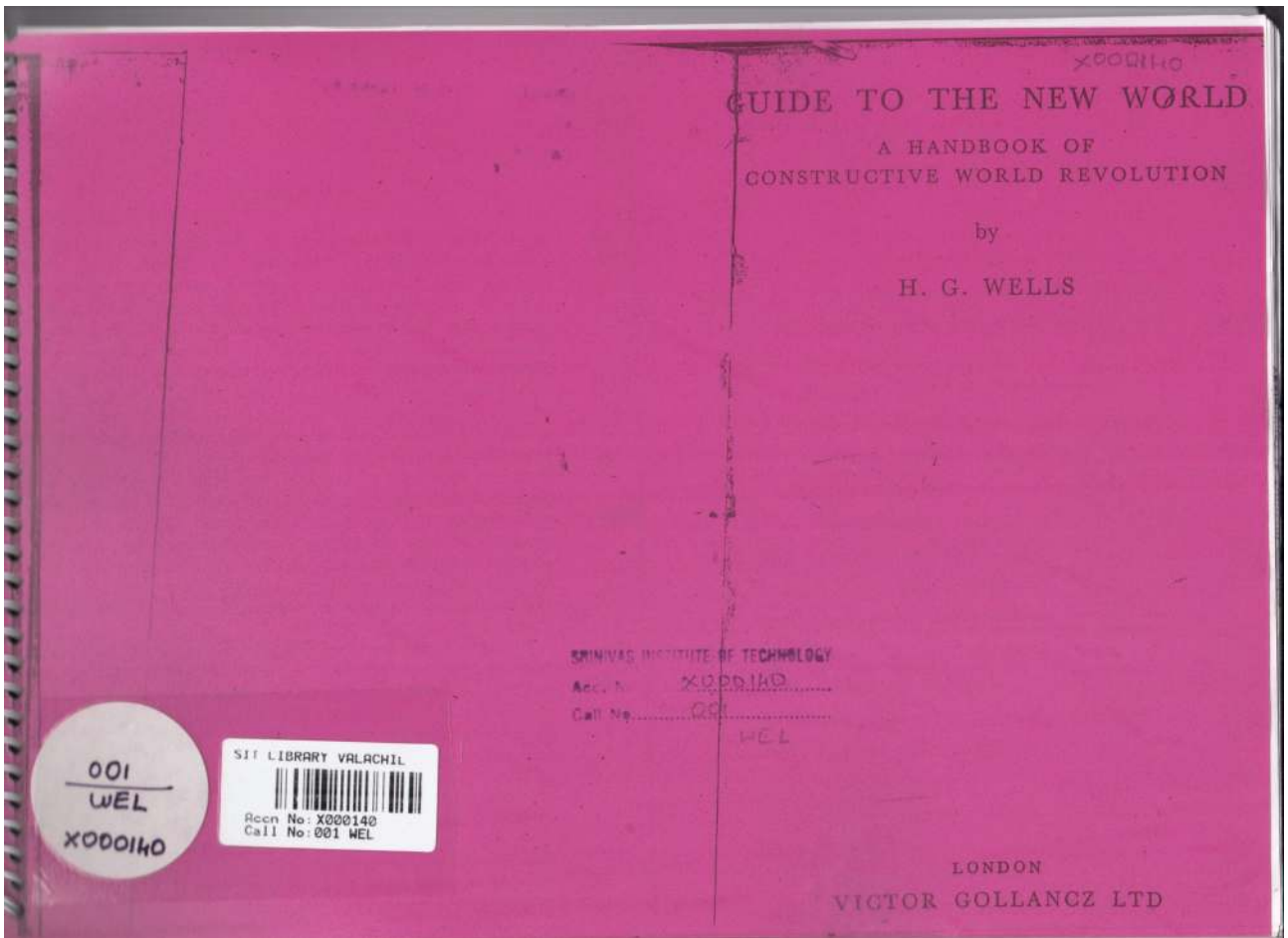
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