



Chapter 1

Divide and Conquer

Closest Pair, Polynomial Multiplication

Algorithm Theory
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Formulation of the D&C principle

Divide-and-conquer method for solving a problem instance of size n :

1. Divide

$n \leq c$: Solve the problem directly.

$n > c$: Divide the problem into k subproblems of sizes $n_1, \dots, n_k < n$ ($k \geq 2$).

2. Conquer

Solve the k subproblems in the same way (recursively).

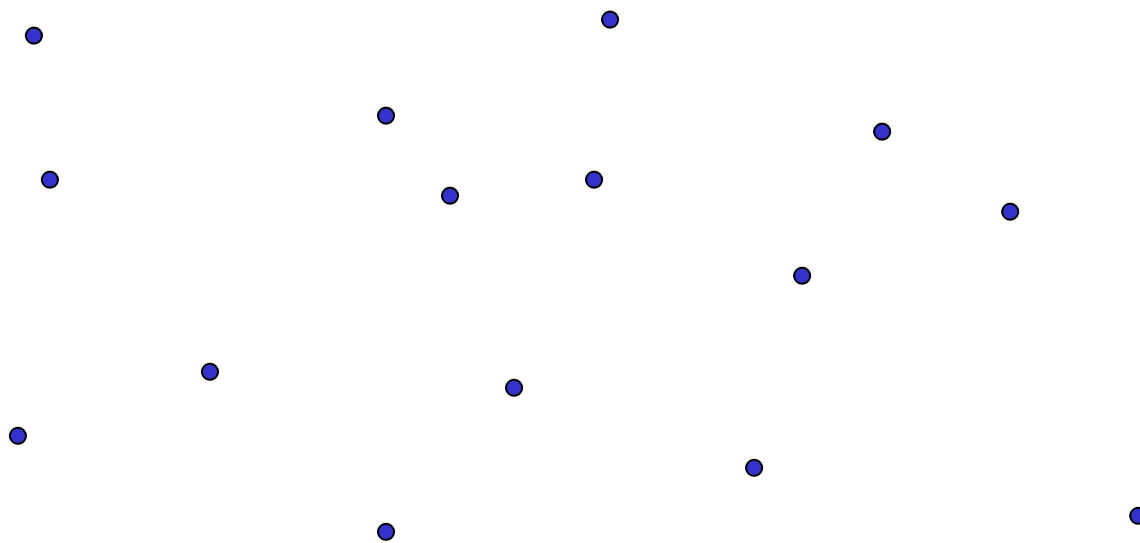
3. Combine

Combine the partial solutions to generate a solution for the original instance.

Geometric divide-and-conquer



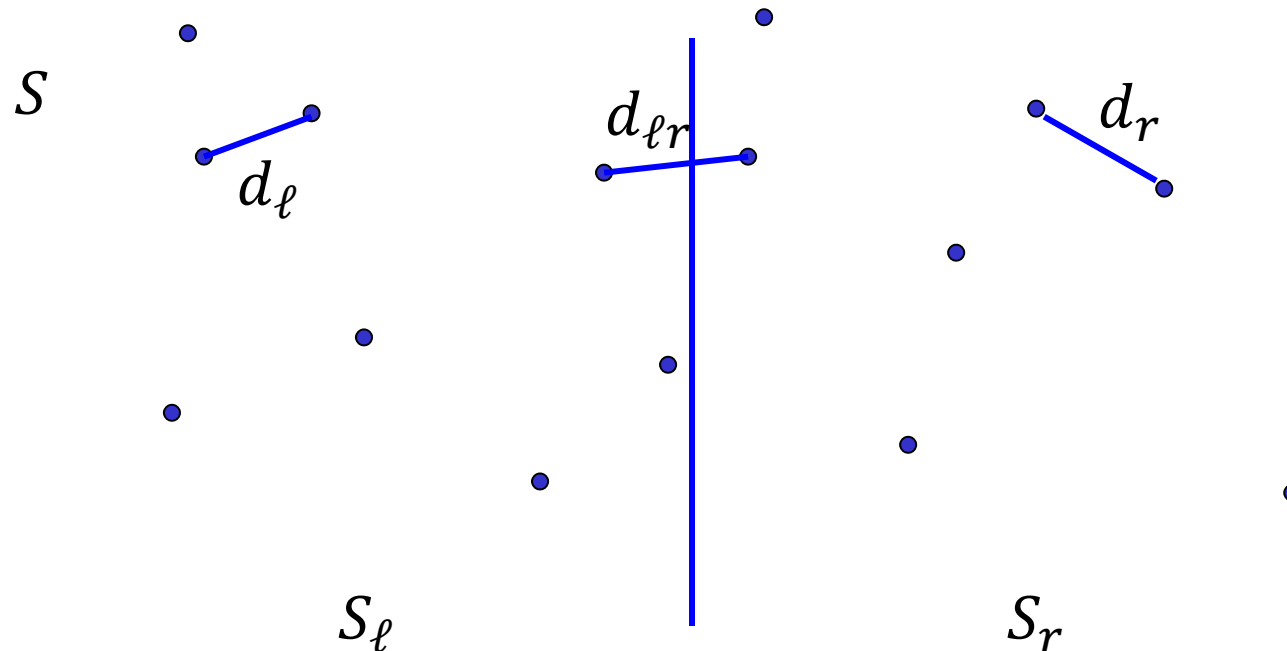
Closest Pair Problem: Given a set S of n points, find a pair of points with the **smallest distance**.



Naive solution:

Divide-and-conquer solution

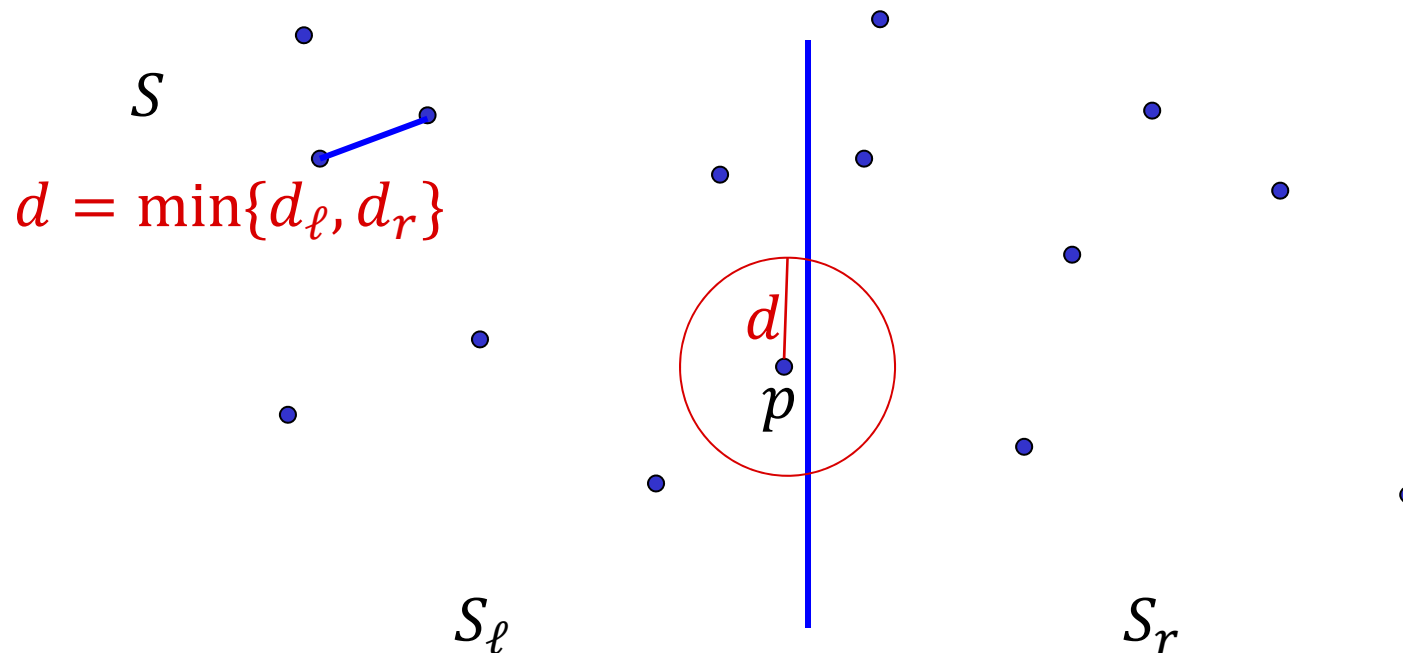
1. **Divide:** Divide S into two equal sized sets S_ℓ und S_r .
2. **Conquer:** $d_\ell = \text{mindist}(S_\ell)$ $d_r = \text{mindist}(S_r)$
3. **Combine:** $d_{\ell r} = \min\{d(p_\ell, p_r) \mid p_\ell \in S_\ell, p_r \in S_r\}$
return $\min\{d_\ell, d_r, d_{\ell r}\}$



Divide-and-conquer solution

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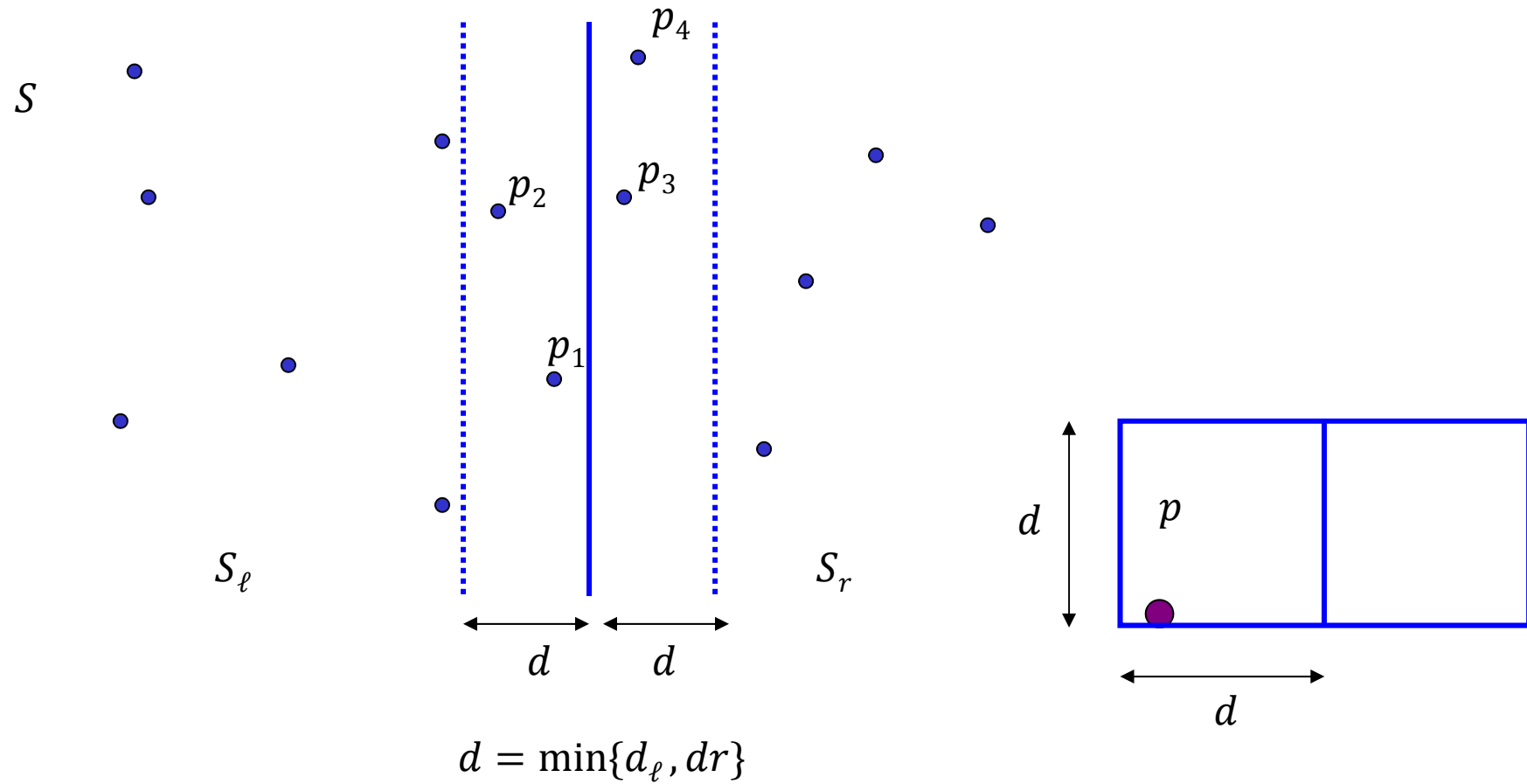
Computation of $d_{\ell r}$:



Merge step

- Assume that the points in both halves are sorted by increasing y -coordinates
1. Consider only points **within distance $< d$ of the bisection line**, in the order of increasing y -coordinates.
 2. For each point p consider all points q **within y -distance less than d**
 3. There are **at most 7** such points.

Combine step



Implementation

- Initially **sort** the points in S in order of increasing **x -coordinates**
- **While** computing **closest pair**, also **sort S** according to **y -coord.**
 - Partition S into S_ℓ and S_r , solve and sort sub-problems recursively
 - Merge to get sorted S according to y -coordinates
 - Center points: points within x -distance $d = \min\{d_\ell, d_r\}$ of center
 - Go through center points in S in order of incr. y -coordinates

Running Time

Recurrence relation:

$$T(n) = 2 \cdot T(n/2) + c \cdot n, \quad T(1) = a$$

Solution:

- Same as for computing number of number of inversions, merge sort (and many others...)

$$T(n) = O(n \cdot \log n)$$

Recurrence Relations: Master Theorem



Recurrence relation

$$T(n) = a \cdot T\left(\frac{n}{b}\right) + f(n), \quad T(n) = O(1) \text{ for } n \leq n_0$$

Cases

- $f(n) = O(n^c)$, $c < \log_b a$

$$T(n) = \Theta(n^{\log_b a})$$

- $f(n) = \Omega(n^c)$, $c > \log_b a$

$$T(n) = \Theta(f(n))$$

- $f(n) = \Theta(n^c \cdot \log^k n)$, $c = \log_b a$

$$T(n) = \Theta(n^c \cdot \log^{k+1} n)$$

Polynomials

Real polynomial p in one variable x :

$$p(x) = a_n x^n + a_{n-1} x^{n-1} + \dots + a_1 x^1 + a_0$$

Coefficients of p : $a_0, a_1, \dots, a_n \in \mathbb{R}$

Degree of p : largest power of x in p (n in the above case)

Example:

$$p(x) = 3x^3 - 15x^2 + 18x$$

Set of all real-valued polynomials in x : $\mathbb{R}[x]$ (polynomial ring)

Operations: Addition

- Given: Polynomials $p, q \in \mathbb{R}[x]$ of degree n

$$p(x) = a_n x^n + a_{n-1} x^{n-1} + \dots + a_1 x + a_0$$

$$q(x) = b_n x^n + b_{n-1} x^{n-1} + \dots + b_1 x + b_0$$

- Compute sum $p(x) + q(x)$:

$$\begin{aligned} p(x) + q(x) &= (a_n x^n + \dots + a_0) + (b_n x^n + \dots + b_0) \\ &= (a_n + b_n) x^n + \dots + (a_1 + b_1) x + (a_0 + b_0) \end{aligned}$$

Operations: Multiplication

- Given: Polynomials $p, q \in \mathbb{R}[x]$ of degree n

$$p(x) = a_n x^n + a_{n-1} x^{n-1} + \dots + a_1 x + a_0$$

$$q(x) = b_n x^n + b_{n-1} x^{n-1} + \dots + b_1 x + b_0$$

- Product $p(x) \cdot q(x)$:

$$p(x) \cdot q(x) = (a_n x^n + \dots + a_0) \cdot (b_n x^n + \dots + b_0)$$

$$= c_{2n} x^{2n} + c_{2n-1} x^{2n-1} + \dots + c_1 x + c_0$$

- Obtaining c_i : what products of monomials have degree i ?

$$\text{For } 0 \leq i \leq 2n: c_i = \sum_{j=0}^i a_j b_{i-j}$$

where $a_i = b_i = 0$ for $i > n$.

Operations: Evaluation

- Given: Polynomial $p \in \mathbb{R}[x]$ of degree n

$$p(x) = a_n x^n + a_{n-1} x^{n-1} + \dots + a_1 x + a_0$$

- **Horner's method** for evaluation at specific value x_0 :

$$p(x_0) = (\dots ((a_n x_0 + a_{n-1})x_0 + a_{n-2})x_0 + \dots + a_1)x_0 + a_0$$

- Pseudo-code:

```
 $p := a_n; i := n;$   
while ( $i > 0$ ) do  
     $i := i - 1;$   
     $p := p \cdot x_0 + a_i$   
end
```

- Running time: $O(n)$

Representation of Polynomials

Coefficient representation:

- Polynomial $p(x) \in \mathbb{R}[x]$ of degree n is given by its $n + 1$ coefficients a_0, \dots, a_n :

$$p(x) = a_n x^n + \dots + a_1 x + a_0$$

- Example:

$$p(x) = 3x^3 - 15x^2 + 18x$$

- The most typical (and probably most natural) representation of polynomials

Representation of Polynomials

Product of linear factors:

- Polynomial $p(x) \in \mathbb{C}[x]$ of degree n is given by its n roots

$$p(x) = a_n \cdot (x - x_1) \cdot (x - x_2) \cdot \dots \cdot (x - x_n)$$

- Example:

$$p(x) = 3x(x - 2)(x - 3)$$

- Every polynomial has exactly n roots $x_i \in \mathbb{C}$ for which $p(x_i) = 0$
 - Polynomial is uniquely defined by the n roots and a_n
- We will not use this representation...

Representation of Polynomials

Point-value representation:

- Polynomial $p(x) \in \mathbb{R}[x]$ of degree n is given by $n + 1$ point-value pairs:

$$p = \{(x_0, p(x_0)), (x_1, p(x_1)), \dots, (x_n, p(x_n))\}$$

where $x_i \neq x_j$ for $i \neq j$.

- Example: The polynomial

$$p(x) = 3x(x - 2)(x - 3)$$

is uniquely defined by the four point-value pairs $(0,0)$, $(1,6)$, $(2,0)$, $(3,0)$.

Operations: Coefficient Representation



Deg.- n polynomials $p(x) = a_n x^n + \dots + a_0$, $q(x) = b_n x^n + \dots + b_0$

Addition:

$$p(x) + q(x) = (a_n + b_n)x^n + \dots + (a_0 + b_0)$$

- Time: $O(n)$

Multiplication:

$$p(x) \cdot q(x) = c_{2n} x^{2n} + \dots + c_0, \quad \text{where } c_i = \sum_{j=0}^i a_j b_{i-j}$$

- Naive solution: Need to compute product $a_i b_j$ for all $0 \leq i, j \leq n$
- Time: $O(n^2)$

Operations Point-Value Representation



Degree- n polynomials

$$p = \{(x_0, p(x_0)), \dots, (x_n, p(x_n))\}, q = \{(x_0, q(x_0)), \dots, (x_n, q(x_n))\}$$

- Note: we use the same points x_0, \dots, x_n for both polynomials

Addition:

$$p + q = \{(x_0, p(x_0) + q(x_0)), \dots, (x_n, p(x_n) + q(x_n))\}$$

- Time: $O(n)$

Multiplication:

$$p \cdot q = \{(x_0, p(x_0) \cdot q(x_0)), \dots, (x_n, p(x_n) \cdot q(x_n))\}$$

- Time: $O(n)$

Faster Multiplication?

- Multiplication is slow ($\Theta(n^2)$) when using the standard coefficient representation
- Try **divide-and-conquer** to get a faster algorithm
- Assume: degree is $n - 1$, n is even
- **Divide polynomial $p(x) = a_{n-1}x^{n-1} + \dots + a_0$ into 2 polynomials of degree $n/2 - 1$:**

$$p_0(x) = a_{n/2-1}x^{n/2-1} + \dots + a_0$$

$$p_1(x) = a_{n-1}x^{n/2-1} + \dots + a_{n/2}$$

$$p(x) = p_1(x) \cdot x^{n/2} + p_0(x)$$

- Similarly: $q(x) = q_1(x) \cdot x^{n/2} + q_0(x)$

Use Divide-And-Conquer

- **Divide:**

$$p(x) = p_1(x) \cdot x^{n/2} + p_0(x), \quad q(x) = q_1(x) \cdot x^{n/2} + q_0(x)$$

- **Multiplication:**

$$p(x)q(x) = p_1(x)q_1(x) \cdot x^n + (p_0(x)q_1(x) + p_1(x)q_0(x)) \cdot x^{n/2} + p_0(x)q_0(x)$$

- 4 multiplications of degree $n/2 - 1$ polynomials:

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

- Leads to $T(n) = \Theta(n^2)$ like the naive algorithm... (see exercises)

More Clever Recursive Solution

- **Recall that**

$$p(x)q(x) = p_1(x)q_1(x) \cdot x^n + (p_0(x)q_1(x) + p_1(x)q_0(x)) \cdot x^{n/2} + p_0(x)q_0(x)$$

- Compute $r(x) = (p_0(x) + p_1(x)) \cdot (q_0(x) + q_1(x))$:

Karatsuba Algorithm

- Recursive multiplication:

$$r(x) = (p_0(x) + p_1(x)) \cdot (q_0(x) + q_1(x))$$

$$p(x)q(x) = p_1(x)q_1(x) \cdot x^n$$

$$+ (r(x) - p_0(x)q_0(x) + p_1(x)q_1(x)) \cdot x^{n/2}$$

$$+ p_0(x)q_0(x)$$

- Recursively do **3 multiplications of degr. $(n/2 - 1)$ -polynomials**

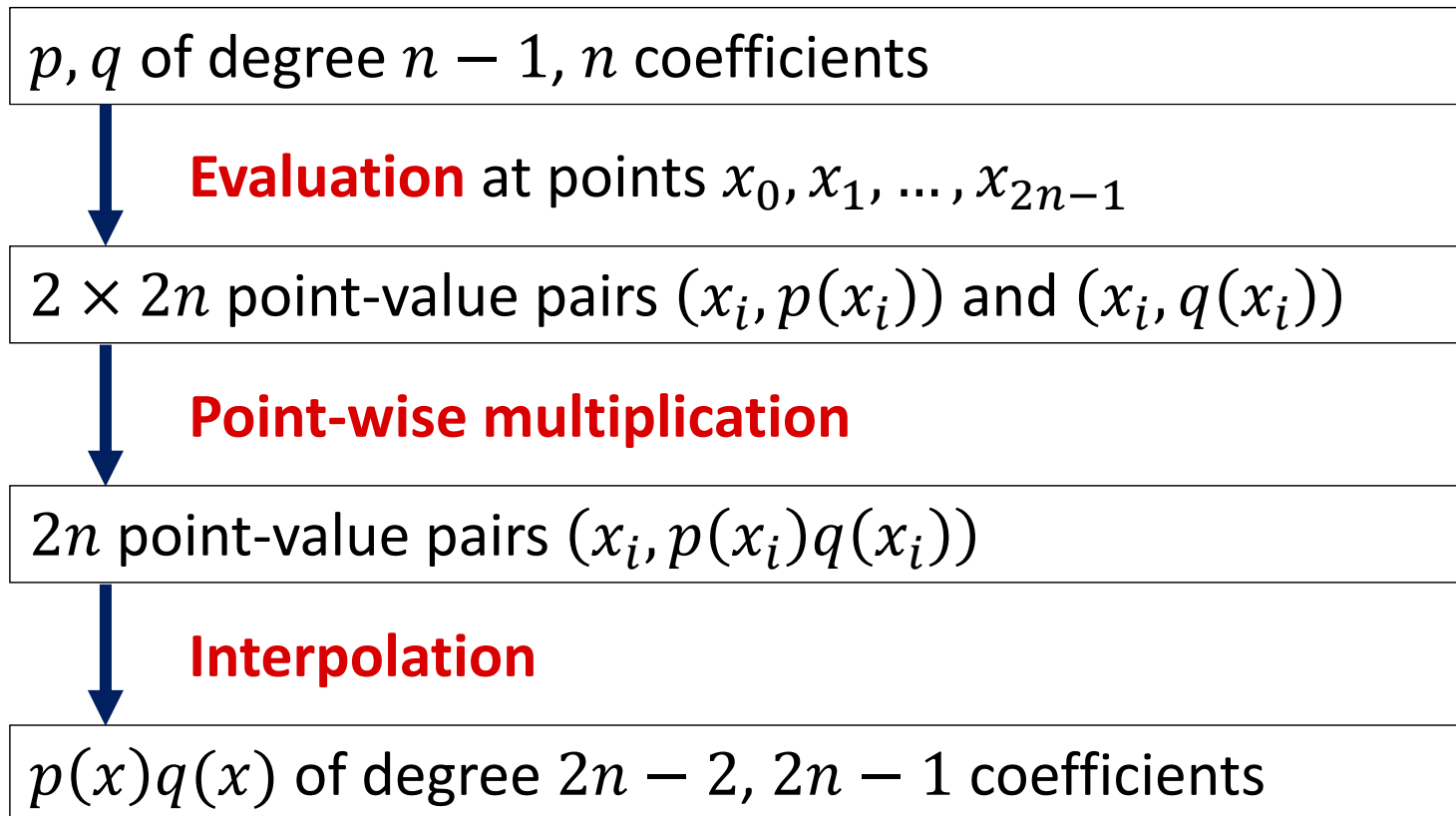
$$T(n) = 3T(n/2) + O(n)$$

- Gives: $T(n) = O(n^{1.59})$ (see Master theorem)

Faster Polynomial Multiplication?

Multiplication is fast when using the **point-value representation**

Idea to compute $p(x) \cdot q(x)$ (for polynomials of degree $< n$):



Point-Value Representation of p, q

- Select points x_0, x_1, \dots, x_{N-1} to evaluate p and q in a clever way

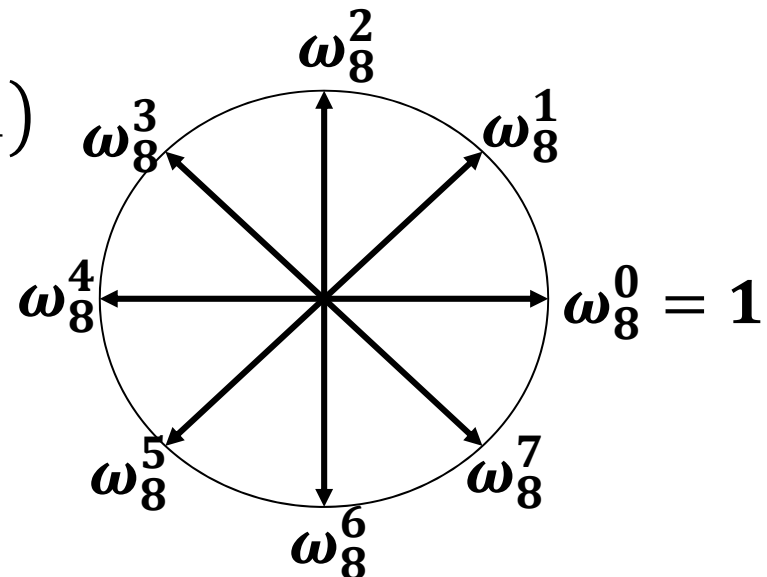
Consider the N powers of the principle N th root of unity:

Principle root of unity: $\omega_N = e^{2\pi i/N}$

$$(i = \sqrt{-1}, \quad e^{2\pi i} = 1)$$

Powers of ω_n (roots of unity):

$$1 = \omega_N^0, \omega_N^1, \dots, \omega_N^{N-1}$$



Note: $\omega_N^k = e^{2\pi i k/N} = \cos \frac{2\pi k}{N} + i \cdot \sin \frac{2\pi k}{N}$

Discrete Fourier Transform

- The values $p(\omega_N^i)$ for $i = 0, \dots, N - 1$ uniquely define a polynomial p of degree $< N$.

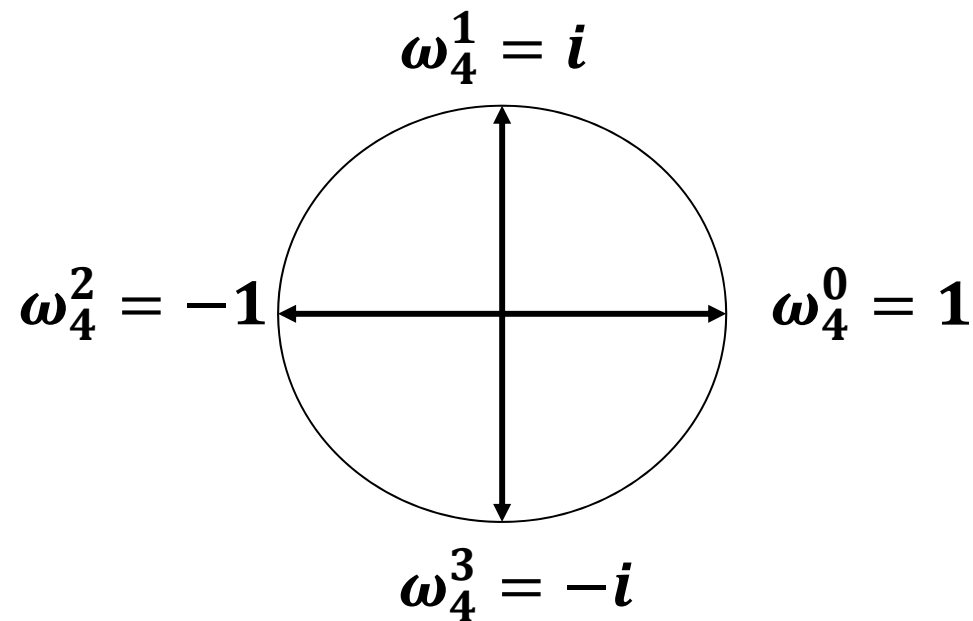
Discrete Fourier Transform (DFT):

- Assume $a = (a_0, \dots, a_{N-1})$ is the coefficient vector of poly. p
$$(p(x) = a_{N-1}x^{N-1} + \dots + a_1x + a_0)$$

$$\text{DFT}_N(a) := \left(p(\omega_N^0), p(\omega_N^1), \dots, p(\omega_N^{N-1}) \right)$$

Example

- Consider polynomial $p(x) = 3x^3 - 15x^2 + 18x$
- Choose $N = 4$
- Roots of unity:



Example

- Consider polynomial $p(x) = 3x^3 - 15x^2 + 18x$
- $N = 4$, roots of unity: $\omega_4^0 = 1, \omega_4^1 = i, \omega_4^2 = -1, \omega_4^3 = -i$
- Evaluate $p(x)$ at ω_4^k :

$$\left(\omega_4^0, p(\omega_4^0)\right) = (1, p(1)) = (1, 6)$$

$$\left(\omega_4^1, p(\omega_4^1)\right) = (i, p(i)) = (i, 15 + 15i)$$

$$\left(\omega_4^2, p(\omega_4^2)\right) = (-1, p(-1)) = (-1, -36)$$

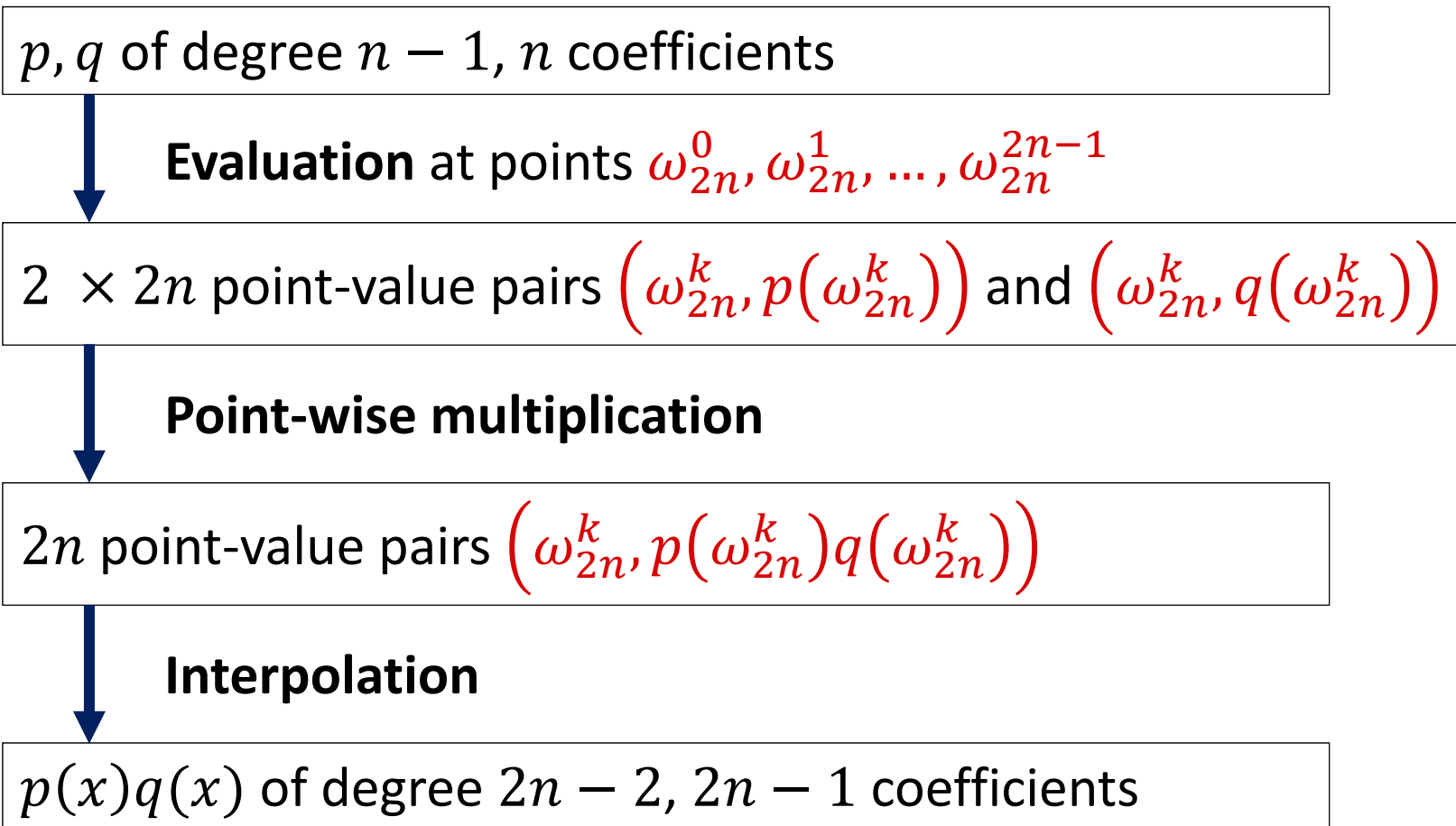
$$\left(\omega_4^3, p(\omega_4^3)\right) = (-i, p(-i)) = (-i, 15 - 15i)$$

- For $a = (3, -15, 18, 0)$:

$$\mathbf{DFT}_4(a) = (6, 15 + 15i, -36, 15 - 15i)$$

Faster Polynomial Multiplication?

Idea to compute $p(x) \cdot q(x)$ (for polynomials of degree $< n$):



Properties of the Roots of Unity

- **Cancellation Lemma:**

For all integers $n > 0$, $k \geq 0$, and $d > 0$, we have:

$$\omega_{dn}^{dk} = \omega_n^k, \quad \omega_n^{k+n} = \omega_n^k$$

- **Proof:**