



Chapter 1

Divide and Conquer

Algorithm Theory
WS 2018/19

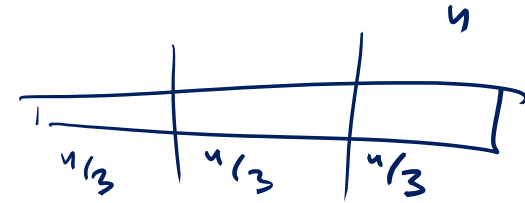
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Divide-And-Conquer Principle

- Important algorithm design method
- Examples from basic alg. & data structures class (Informatik 2):
 - Sorting: Mergesort, Quicksort
 - Binary search
- Further examples
 - Median
 - Compairing orders
 - Convex hull / Delaunay triangulation / Voronoi diagram
 - Closest pairs
 - Line intersections
 - Polynomial multiplication / FFT
 - ...

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 $< n$ ($k \geq 2$).

quick sort

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.

merge sort

Running Time

Recurrence relation:

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

subpr. *size of subproblems*
 ↓ ↓
2 T(n/2) c · n *cost for divide & combine*

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

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

Cases

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

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

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

$$T(n) = \underline{\Theta(f(n))}$$

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

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

merge sort
 $a=b=2 \Rightarrow c=1$
 $f(n)=n$

Polynomials

Real polynomial p in one variable x : n coefficients

$$p(x) = \underline{a_{n-1}}x^{n-1} + \dots + \underline{a_1}x^1 + \underline{a_0} \quad a_i \in \mathbb{R}$$

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

Degree of p : largest power of x in p ($n - 1$ 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)

Divide-&-Conquer Polynomial 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 n is power of 2
- Divide polynomial $p(x) = a_{n-1}x^{n-1} + \dots + a_0$ into 2 polynomials of degree $n/2 - 1$: Karatsuba

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

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

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

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

Divide-&-Conquer Polynomial Multiplication

- **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:**

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

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

$$\underline{T(n)} = \underline{4T(n/2)} + \underline{O(n)}$$

$$n^{\log_2 4} = n^2$$

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

- follows immediately by using the master theorem

Karatsuba Algorithm

- Recursive multiplication:

$$\begin{aligned}
 \underline{r(x)} &= \underline{(p_0(x) + p_1(x))} \cdot \underline{(q_0(x) + q_1(x))} \\
 \underline{p(x)q(x)} &= \underline{p_1(x)q_1(x)} \cdot x^n \\
 &\quad + (\underline{r(x)} - \underline{p_0(x)q_0(x)} + \underline{p_1(x)q_1(x)}) \cdot x^{n/2} \\
 &\quad + \underline{p_0(x)q_0(x)}
 \end{aligned}$$

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

$$\begin{aligned}
 &\quad \downarrow \\
 \underline{T(n)} &= \underline{3T(n/2) + O(n)}
 \end{aligned}$$

- Gives: $T(n) = O(n^{1.58496\dots})$ (see Master theorem)

Representation of Polynomials

Coefficient representation:

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

$$p(x) = \underline{a_{n-1}}x^{n-1} + \dots + a_1x + \underline{a_0}$$

- Coefficient vector $\mathbf{a} = \underbrace{(a_0, a_1, \dots, a_{n-1})}$

- Example:

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

$$\mathbf{a} = (0, 18, -15, 3)$$

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

Representation of Polynomials

Point-value representation:

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

$$p = \{(\underline{x_0}, \underline{p(x_0)}), (\underline{x_1}, \underline{p(x_1)}), \dots, (\underline{x_{n-1}}, \underline{p(x_{n-1})})\}$$

where $\underline{x_i} \neq \underline{x_j}$ for $i \neq j$.

- Example: The polynomial

$$p(x) = \underline{3x(x - 2)(x - 3)}$$

is uniquely defined by the four point-value pairs

$$\underline{(0,0), (1,6), (2,0), (3,0)}.$$

Operations: Coefficient Representation



$$p(x) = a_{n-1}x^{n-1} + \dots + a_0, \quad q(x) = b_{n-1}x^{n-1} + \dots + b_0$$

Evaluation: Horner's method: Time $O(n)$

Addition:

$$p(x) + q(x) = (a_{n-1} + b_{n-1})x^{n-1} + \dots + (a_0 + b_0)$$

- Time: $O(n)$

Multiplication:

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

- 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

$$\begin{aligned} p &= \{(x_0, p(x_0)), \dots, (x_{n-1}, p(x_{n-1}))\} \\ q &= \{(x_0, q(x_0)), \dots, (x_{n-1}, q(x_{n-1}))\} \end{aligned}$$

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

Addition:

$$p + q = \{(\underline{x_0}, \underline{p(x_0)} + \underline{q(x_0)}), \dots, (x_{n-1}, p(x_{n-1}) + q(x_{n-1}))\}$$

- Time: $O(n)$

Multiplication:

$$\underline{p} \cdot \underline{q} = \{(x_0, \underline{p(x_0)} \cdot \underline{q(x_0)}), \dots, (x_{2n-2}, p(x_{2n-2}) \cdot q(x_{2n-2}))\}$$

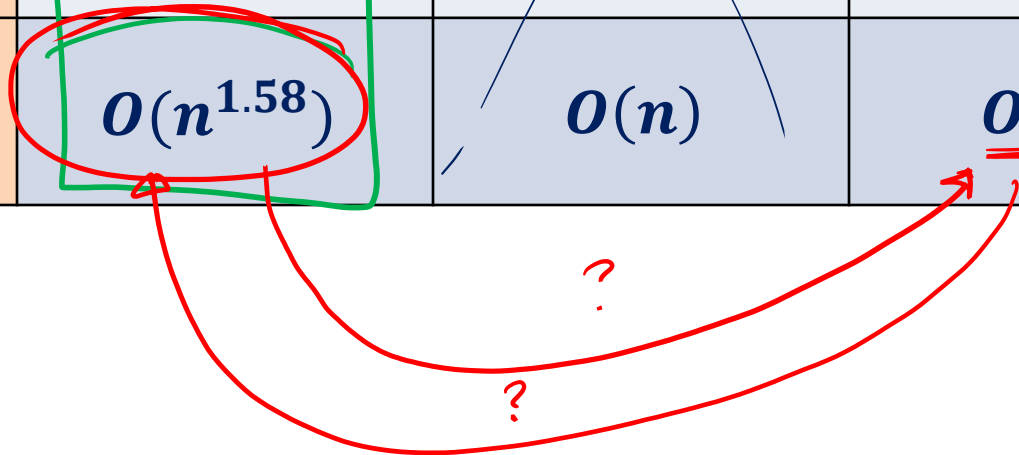
- Time: $O(n)$

Evaluation: Polynomial interpolation can be done in $O(n^2)$

Operations on Polynomials

Cost depending on representation:

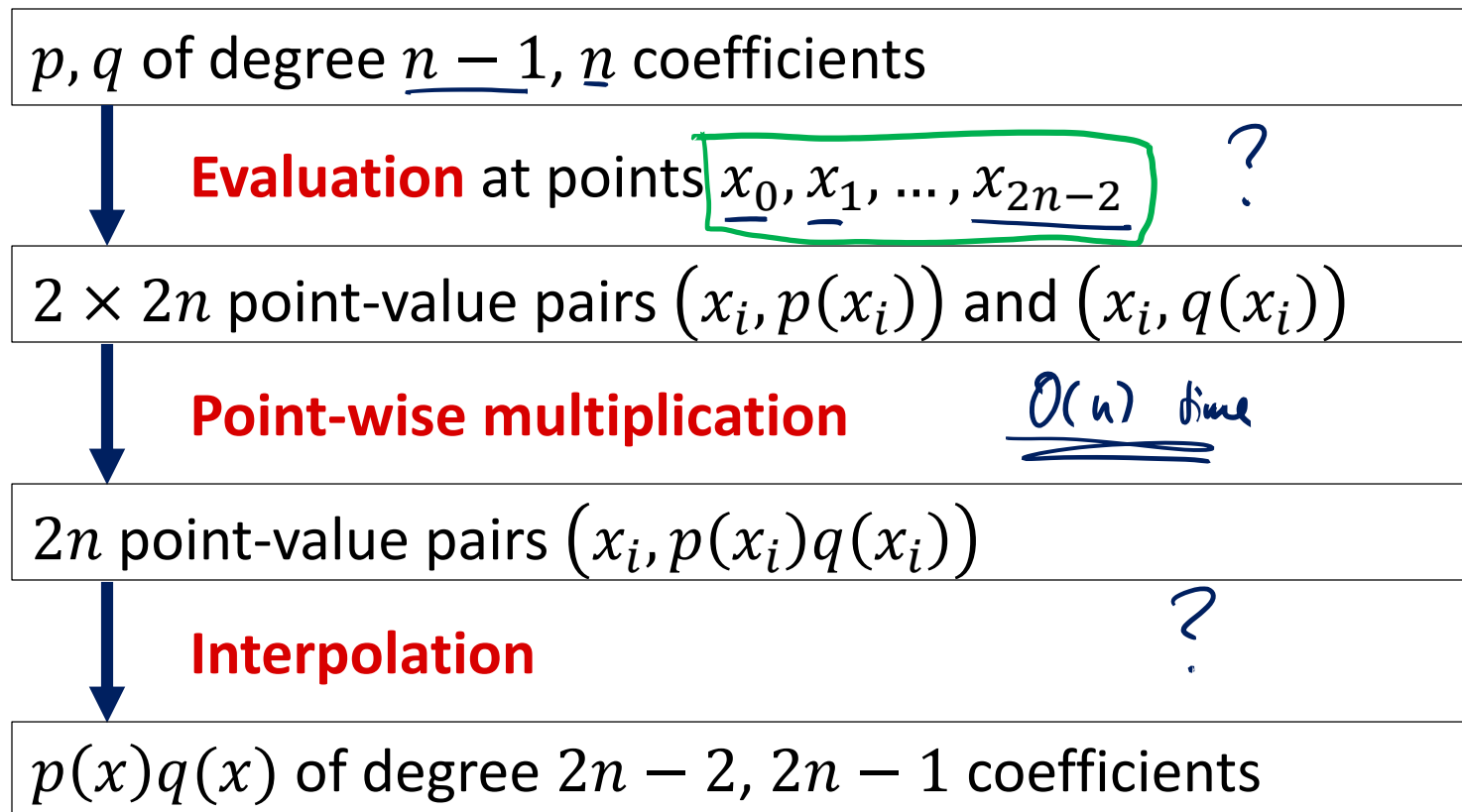
	Coefficient	Roots	Point-Value
Evaluation	$O(n)$	$O(n)$	<u>$O(n^2)$</u>
Addition	$O(n)$	∞	$O(n)$
Multiplication	<u>$O(n^{1.58})$</u>	$O(n)$	<u>$O(n)$</u>



Faster Polynomial Multiplication?

Multiplication is fast when using the point-value representation

Idea to compute $\overbrace{p(x) \cdot q(x)}^{\text{degree } 2n-2}$ (for polynomials of degree $< n$):



Coefficients to Point-Value Representation



Given: Polynomial $p(x)$ by the coefficient vector $(a_0, a_1, \dots, a_{N-1})$

Goal: Compute $p(x)$ for all x in a given set X

- Where X is of size $|X| = N$
- Assume that N is a power of 2

Divide and Conquer Approach

- Divide $p(x)$ of degree $N - 1$ (N is even) into 2 polynomials of degree $N/2 - 1$ differently than in Karatsuba's algorithm

- $p_0(y) = a_0 + a_2y + a_4y^2 + \dots + a_{N-2}y^{N/2-1}$ (even coeff.)
- $p_1(y) = a_1 + a_3y + a_5y^2 + \dots + a_{N-1}y^{N/2-1}$ (odd coeff.)

$$p(x) = a_0 + a_1x + a_2x^2 + a_3x^3 + \dots + a_{N-2}x^{N-2} + a_{N-1}x^{N-1}$$

Coefficients to Point-Value Representation



Goal: Compute $p(x)$ for all x in a given set X of size $|X| = N$

- Divide $p(x)$ of degr. $N - 1$ into 2 polynomials of degr. $N/2 - 1$

$$p_0(y) = a_0 + a_2y + a_4y^2 + \dots + a_{N-2}y^{N/2-1} \quad (\text{even coeff.})$$

$$p_1(y) = a_1 + a_3y + a_5y^2 + \dots + a_{N-1}y^{N/2-1} \quad (\text{odd coeff.})$$

Let's first look at the "combine" step: *need $p(x)$ for all $x \in X$*

$$\forall x \in X : \underline{p(x) = p_0(x^2) + x \cdot p_1(x^2)}$$

- Recursively compute $p_0(y)$ and $p_1(y)$ for all $y \in X^2$
 - Where $X^2 := \{x^2 : x \in X\}$ *$X = \{2, 3, 7, 103\}$, $X^2 = \{4, 9, 49, 10609\}$*

- Generally, we have $\underline{|X^2| = |X|}$
 $|X^2| < |X|$

$$|X^2| \leq |X|$$

$$|Y| \geq n$$

Recurrence formula for the given algorithm:

$$T(n, |X|) = 2T(n/2, |X^2|) + O(n + |X|)$$

#coeff. #points

$$\leq 2T(n/2, |X|) + O(n + |X|)$$

at start:

$$|X| = \Theta(n)$$



$$T(n, n) = \Theta(n^2)$$

Faster Algorithm?

- In order to have a faster algorithm, we need $|X^2| < |X|$

$n = |X|$ best we can hope for: $|X^2| = |X|/2$

$$T(n, |X|) = 2T(n/2, |X^2|) + O(n + |X|)$$

$$= 2T(n/2, |X|/2) + O(n + |X|)$$

$$\underline{T'(n) = 2T'(n/2) + O(n)}$$

$$\Rightarrow T(n, n) = T'(n) = O(n \log n)$$

$$T'(k) := T(k, k)$$

$$\{1\} \quad x^2$$

$$\{-1, 1\} \quad x$$

$$\{-i, i, -1, 1\}$$

$$\{-i, i, -1, 1, \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} + \frac{i}{\sqrt{2}}, \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} - \frac{i}{\sqrt{2}}, -\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} + \frac{i}{\sqrt{2}}, -\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} - \frac{i}{\sqrt{2}}\}$$

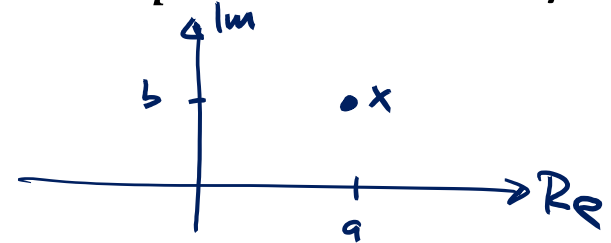
all solutions to $x^8 = 1$

$$\underline{\underline{x^N = 1}}$$

Choice of X

complex number $x \in \mathbb{C}$
 $x = a + i \cdot b$

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



Consider the N complex roots of unity:

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

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

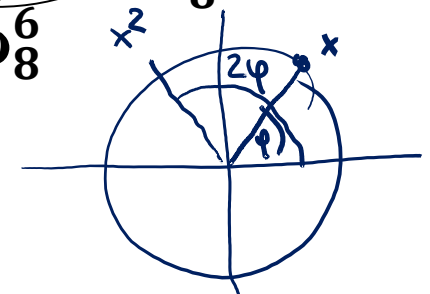
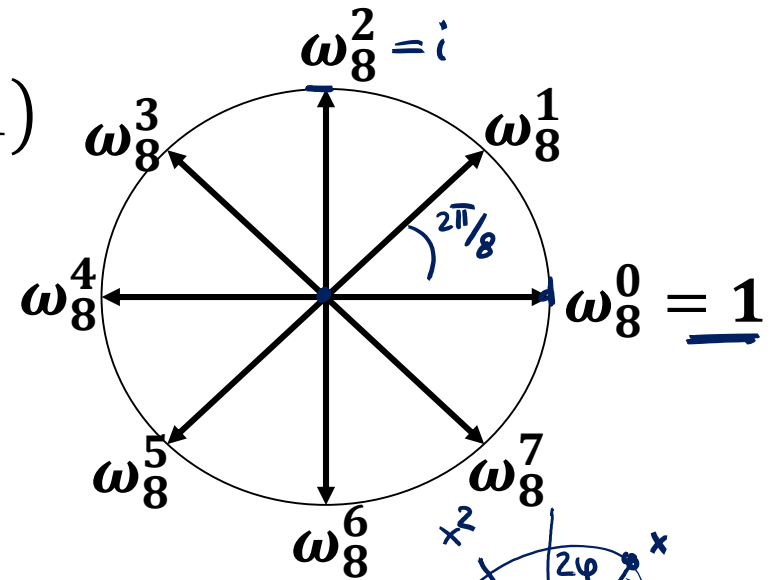
points on unit circle $\cos \varphi + i \cdot \sin \varphi = e^{2i \cdot \varphi}$

Powers of ω_n (roots of unity):

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

$x_k = e^{\frac{2\pi i \cdot k}{N}}$

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



Properties of the Roots of Unity

- **Cancellation Lemma:** $x_k = \omega_n^k := e^{\frac{2\pi i}{n} \cdot k}$

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

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

$$\omega_n^{k+n} = \omega_n^k$$

• **Proof:**

$$\omega_n^k = e^{\frac{2\pi i}{n} \cdot k} = e^{\frac{2\pi i}{d \cdot n} \cdot d \cdot k} = \underbrace{e^{\frac{2\pi i}{d \cdot n} \cdot d \cdot k}}_{\omega_{dn}^{dk}}$$

$$e^{\frac{2\pi i}{n}(k+n)} = e^{\frac{2\pi i}{n} \cdot k} \cdot e^{2\pi i} = \underbrace{e^{\frac{2\pi i}{n} \cdot k}}_{\omega_n^k} \cdot \underbrace{e^{2\pi i}}_{=1}$$

$$\frac{2\pi i}{n} \quad \frac{2\pi i}{d \cdot n}$$

Properties of the Roots of Unity $\omega_{2k} = e^{\frac{2\pi i}{2k}}$



Claim: If $X = \{\omega_{2k}^i : i \in \{0, \dots, 2k - 1\}\}$, we have

$$X^2 = \{\omega_k^i : i \in \{0, \dots, k - 1\}\}, \quad |X^2| = \frac{|X|}{2}$$

$$\omega_{2k}^{2i} = \omega_k^i$$

↑
cancellation lemma

$$|X| = 2k$$

$$|X^2| = k$$

New recurrence formula:

$$T(N, |X|) \leq 2 \cdot T\left(\frac{N}{2}, \frac{|X|}{2}\right) + O(N + |X|)$$

for $|X|=N$
 \rightarrow $O(N \log N)$