



Chapter 1

Divide and Conquer

Algorithm Theory
WS 2019/20

Fabian Kuhn

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.

Recurrence relation

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

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

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

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

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

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

- $f(n) = \Theta(n^c \cdot \log^k n)$, $k \geq 0$, $c = \log_b a$

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

Polynomials

Real polynomial p in one variable x :

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

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

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

Operations: Evaluation

- Given: Polynomial $p \in \mathbb{R}[x]$ of degree $n - 1$

$$p(x) = a_{n-1}x^{n-1} + a_{n-2}x^{n-2} + \dots + a_1x + a_0$$

Operations: Evaluation

- Given: Polynomial $p \in \mathbb{R}[x]$ of degree $n - 1$

$$p(x) = a_{n-1}x^{n-1} + a_{n-2}x^{n-2} + \dots + a_1x + a_0$$

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

$$p(x_0) = (\dots ((a_{n-1}x_0 + a_{n-2})x_0 + a_{n-3})x_0 + \dots + a_1)x_0 + a_0$$

- Pseudo-code:

$p := a_{n-1}; i := n - 1;$

while ($i > 0$) **do**

$i := i - 1;$

$p := p \cdot x_0 + a_i$

- Running time: $O(n)$

Operations: Addition

- Given: Polynomials $p, q \in \mathbb{R}[x]$ of degree $n - 1$

$$p(x) = a_{n-1}x^{n-1} + a_{n-2}x^{n-2} + \dots + a_1x + a_0$$

$$q(x) = b_{n-1}x^{n-1} + b_{n-2}x^{n-2} + \dots + b_1x + b_0$$

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

$$p(x) + q(x)$$

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

$$= (a_{n-1} + b_{n-1})x^{n-1} + \dots + (a_1 + b_1)x + (a_0 + b_0)$$

Operations: Multiplication

- Given: Polynomials $p, q \in \mathbb{R}[x]$ of degree $n - 1$

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

$$q(x) = b_{n-1}x^{n-1} + \dots + b_1x + b_0$$

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

$$\begin{aligned} p(x) \cdot q(x) &= (a_{n-1}x^{n-1} + \dots + a_0) \cdot (b_{n-1}x^{n-1} + \dots + b_0) \\ &= c_{2n-2}x^{2n-2} + c_{2n-3}x^{2n-3} + \dots + c_1x + c_0 \end{aligned}$$

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

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

where $a_i = b_i = 0$ for $i \geq n$.

- Running time naïve algorithm:

Faster Multiplication?

- Multiplication is slow ($\Theta(n^2)$)
- 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...
 - follows immediately by using the master theorem

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: $T(n) = O(n^{1.58496\dots})$ (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} :

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

- Coefficient vector $\mathbf{a} = (a_0, a_1, \dots, a_{n-1})$
- 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 degr. $n - 1$ is given by its $n - 1$ roots

$$p(x) = a_{n-1} \cdot (x - x_1) \cdot (x - x_2) \cdot \dots \cdot (x - x_{n-1})$$

- Example:

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

- Every polynomial has exactly $n - 1$ roots $x_i \in \mathbb{C}$ (s.t. $p(x_i) = 0$)
 - Polynomial is uniquely defined by the $n - 1$ roots and a_{n-1}
- We will not use this representation...

Representation of Polynomials

Point-value representation:

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

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

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



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

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: Linear Factors (Roots)

$$p(x) = a_{n-1} \cdot (x - x_1) \cdot \dots \cdot (x - x_{n-1})$$
$$q(x) = b_{n-1} \cdot (x - x_1) \cdot \dots \cdot (x - x_{n-1})$$

Evaluation:

- Just plug in the value where the poly. is evaluated: **Time $O(n)$**

Multiplication:

- Concatenate the two representations: **Time $O(n)$**

Addition:

- Need to find the roots of $p(x) + q(x)$
- For polynomials of degree > 4 , this is not possible by using basic arithmetic operations ($+$, $-$, \cdot , $/$, $\sqrt[a]{b}$)
- In the usual computational model impossible
 - Numerically, the roots can be computed to arbitrary precision

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:

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

- **Time:** $O(n)$

Multiplication:

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

- **Time:** $O(n)$

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

Operations on Polynomials

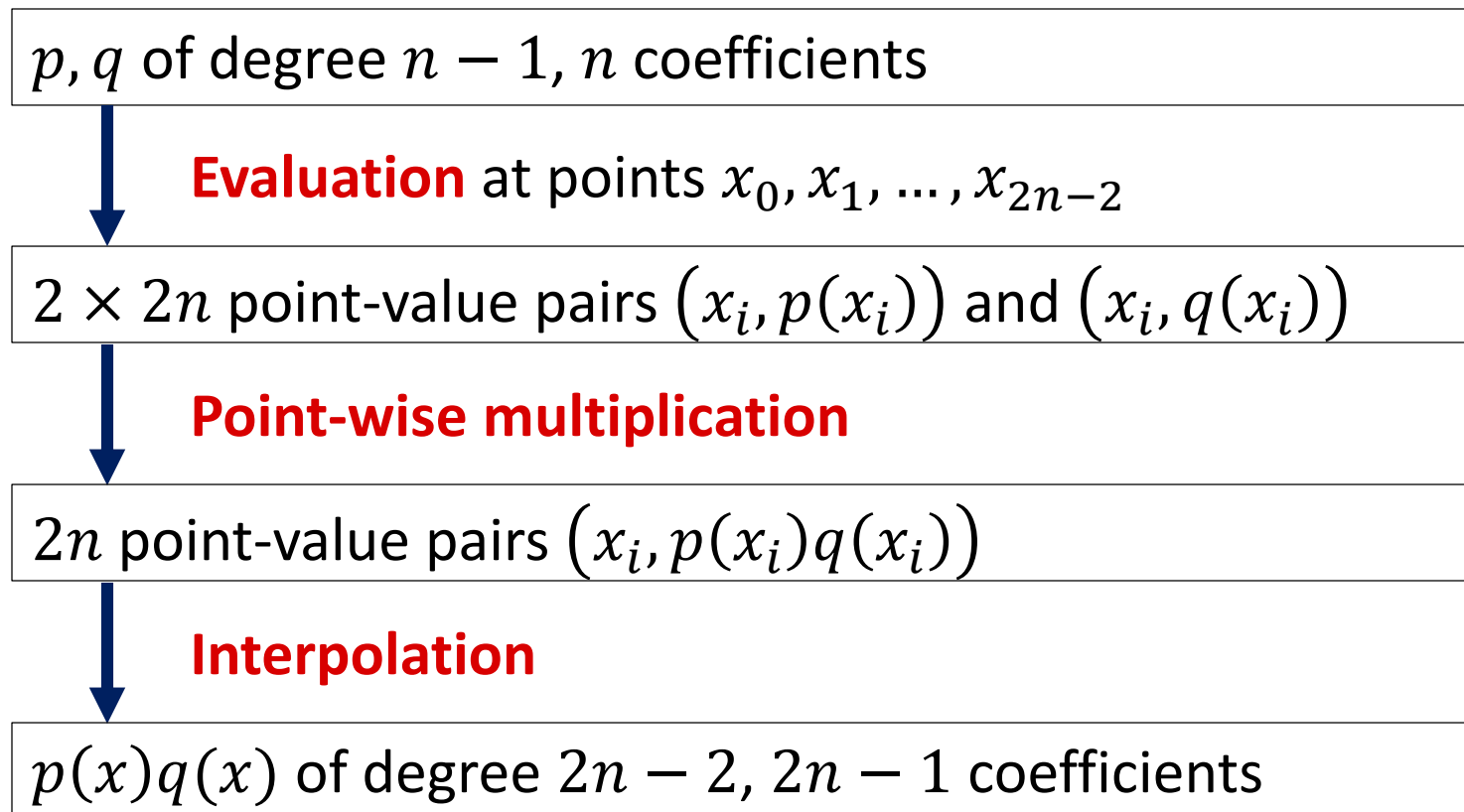
Cost depending on representation:

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

Faster Polynomial Multiplication?

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

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



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.)

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:

- We need to compute $p(x)$ for all $x \in X$ after recursive calls for polynomials p_0 and p_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. $N/2 - 1$

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

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

Let's first look at the "combine" step:

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

- Recursively compute $p_0(y)$ and $p_1(y)$ for all $y \in X^2$
 - Where $X^2 := \{x^2 : x \in X\}$
- Generally, we have $|X^2| = |X|$

Analysis

Recurrence formula for the given algorithm:

Faster Algorithm?

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

Choice of X

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

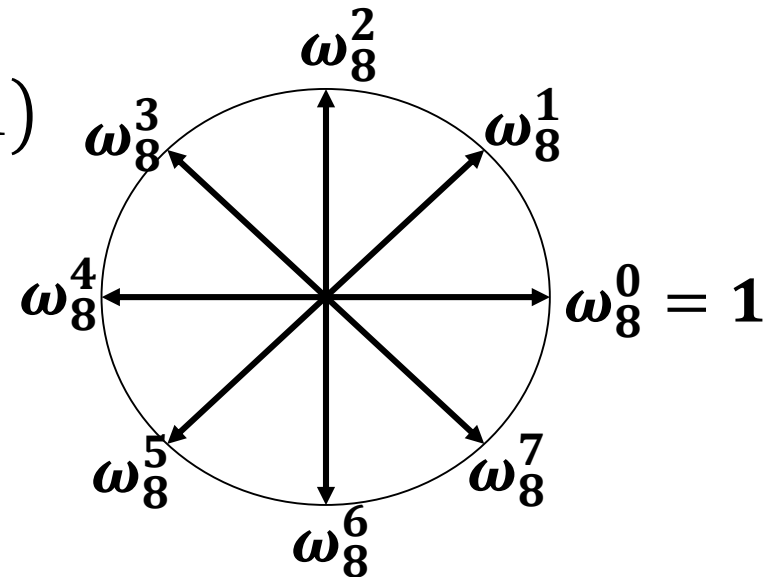
Consider the N complex roots of unity:

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

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

Powers of ω_N (roots of unity):

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



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

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:**

Properties of the Roots of Unity



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

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

New recurrence formula:

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

Faster Polynomial Multiplication?

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

p, q of degree $n - 1$, n coefficients

Evaluation at points $\omega_{2n}^0, \omega_{2n}^1, \dots, \omega_{2n}^{2n-1}$

$2 \times 2n$ point-value pairs $(\omega_{2n}^k, p(\omega_{2n}^k))$ and $(\omega_{2n}^k, q(\omega_{2n}^k))$

Point-wise multiplication

$2n$ point-value pairs $(\omega_{2n}^k, p(\omega_{2n}^k)q(\omega_{2n}^k))$

Interpolation

$p(x)q(x)$ of degree $2n - 2$, $2n - 1$ coefficients