



Chapter 1 Divide and Conquer

Algorithm Theory WS 2019/20

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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 $n_1, \dots, n_k < n$ $(k \ge 2)$.

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.

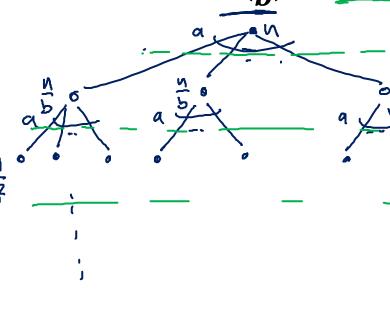
Recurrence Relations & (a log b log b log a

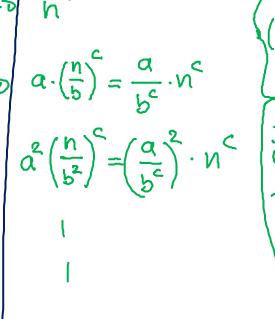


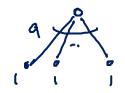
Recurrence relation

$$\underline{T(n)} = \underline{a} \cdot T\left(\frac{n}{h}\right) + \underline{O(n^c)},$$

$$T(n) = O(1)$$
 for $n \le n_0$







α

cost for divide le combine

Recurrence Relations: Master Theorem



Recurrence relation

$$T(n) = a \cdot T\left(\frac{n}{h}\right) + f(n), \qquad T(n) = O(1) \text{ for } n \le n_0$$

Cases

•
$$f(n) = O(n^c)$$
, $c < \log_b a$

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

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

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

•
$$f(n) = \Theta(n^c \cdot \underline{\log^k n}), k \ge 0, c = \log_b a$$

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

$$T(n)=2\cdot T(\frac{n}{2})+O(n)$$

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

Polynomials



Real polynomial p in one variable x: $a_i \in \mathbb{R}$

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

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

Degree of p: largest power of x in p (n-1 in the above case)

Example:

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

$$\alpha_0 = 0, \ \alpha_1 = 18, \ \alpha_2 = 15, \ \alpha_3 = 3$$

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

$$p(x) = a_{\underline{n-1}}x^{n-1} + \underline{a_{n-2}}x^{n-2} + \dots + a_1x + a_0$$
 given some value $X_o \in \mathbb{R}$, compare $p(X_o)$

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 :

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

Pseudo-code:

$$p \coloneqq a_{n-1}; i \coloneqq n-1;$$

while $(i > 0)$ do
 $i \coloneqq i-1;$
 $p \coloneqq p \cdot x_0 + a_i$

• 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):

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

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

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

O(n) time

Operations: Multiplication



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

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

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

$$c_0 = a_0 \cdot b_0, c_1 = a_1 \cdot b_0 + a_0 \cdot b_1, c_2 = a_0 \cdot b_2 + a_1b_1 + a_2b_0$$

• Product $p(x) \cdot q(x)$:

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

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

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

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

• Running time naïve algorithm: $\mathbb{O}(N^2)$

Faster Multiplication? $(\alpha_{n-1}, \alpha_{n-2}, \dots, \alpha_{\frac{n}{2}}, \alpha_{\frac{n}{2}-1}, \dots, \alpha_{\epsilon})$

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

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

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

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

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

Use Divide-And-Conquer



Divide:

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

Multiplication:

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

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

$$\frac{T(n) = 4T\binom{n}{2} + O(n)}{\sum_{a=4, b=2, log_b a=2>1}^{\text{Masker thus}} log_b a=2>1}$$

$$\lim_{a=4, b=2, log_b a=2>1}^{\text{Masker thus}} log_b a=2>1$$

- 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
$$\underline{r(x)} = (p_0(x) + p_1(x)) \cdot (q_0(x) + q_1(x))$$
:

$$L(x) = \int_{0}^{C} (x) \cdot d(x) + \int_{0}^{C} (x) d(x)$$

compade:
$$r(x)$$
, A , C
 $B = r(x) - A - C$
 $T(n) = 3 \cdot T(\frac{n}{2}) + O(n)$

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. $\binom{n}{2} - 1$ -polynomials

$$T(n) = 3T\binom{n}{2} + O(n)$$

• Gives: $T(n) = O(n^{1.58496...})$ (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 $\underline{n-1}$ 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:

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



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

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:

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

- Naive solution: Need to compute product $a_i b_i$ for all $0 \le i, j \le n$
- Time: $O(n^2)$ \longrightarrow can be improved to $O(N^{1.58...})$

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



$$\Rightarrow p = \{(x_0, p(x_0)), ..., (x_{n-1}, p(x_{n-1}))\}$$

\(\Rightarrow q = \{(x_0, q(x_0)), ..., (x_{n-1}, q(x_{n-1}))\}

• Note: we use the same points $x_0, ..., x_{n-1}$ for both polynomials

Addition:

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

• Time: O(n)

Multiplication:

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

• 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)	$\int O(n)$
The state of the s			

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):

p,q of degree n-1, n coefficients **Evaluation** at points $x_0, x_1, ..., x_{2n-2}$ $2 \times 2n$ point-value pairs $(x_i, p(x_i))$ and $(x_i, q(x_i))$ **Point-wise multiplication** 2n point-value pairs $(x_i, p(x_i)q(x_i))$ **Interpolation** p(x)q(x) of degree 2n-2, 2n-1 coefficients

Coefficients to Point-Value Representation



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

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

- Where X is of size |X| = N
- Assume that <u>N</u> 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

$$p_0(y) = a_0 + a_2 y + a_4 y^2 + \dots + a_{N-2} y^{N/2-1}$$
 (even coeff.)

$$p_1(y) = a_1 + a_3 y + a_5 y^2 + \dots + a_{N-1} y^{N/2-1}$$
 (odd coeff.)

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

$$p_0(y) = a_0 + a_2 y + a_4 y^2 + \dots + a_{N-2} y^{N/2-1}$$
 (even coeff.)

$$p_1(y) = a_1 + a_3 y + a_5 y^2 + \dots + a_{N-1} y^{N/2-1}$$
 (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 :

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

Recursively compate $p_0(y)$, $p_1(y)$ for all $y \in X^2$

$$\chi^2 := \{x^2 : x \in X\}$$

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

$$p_0(y) = a_0 + a_2 y + a_4 y^2 + \dots + a_{N-2} y^{N/2-1}$$
 (even coeff.)
 $p_1(y) = a_1 + a_3 y + a_5 y^2 + \dots + a_{N-1} y^{N/2-1}$ (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 $\underline{p_0(y)}$ and $\underline{p_1(y)}$ for all $\underline{y \in X^2}$ – Where $X^2 \coloneqq \{x^2 : x \in X\}$
- Generally, we have $|X^2| = |X|$

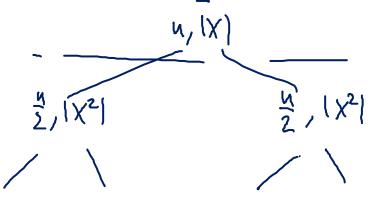
Analysis

$$|\chi\rangle = N$$



Recurrence formula for the given algorithm:

$$T(n,|X|) = 2T(\frac{n}{2},|X^2|) + O(n+|X|) \leq 2T(\frac{n}{2},|X|) + O(n+|X|)$$



$$|\chi^{2}| \stackrel{?}{=} |\chi|$$

if $|\chi^{2k}| = \frac{|\chi^{k}|}{2}$,

we would get an O(nlogn) alg.

$$2 \cdot \left(\frac{n}{2} + |X^{2}|\right) = n + 2|X^{2}|$$

$$4\left(\frac{n}{4} + |X^{4}|\right) = n + 4|X^{4}|$$

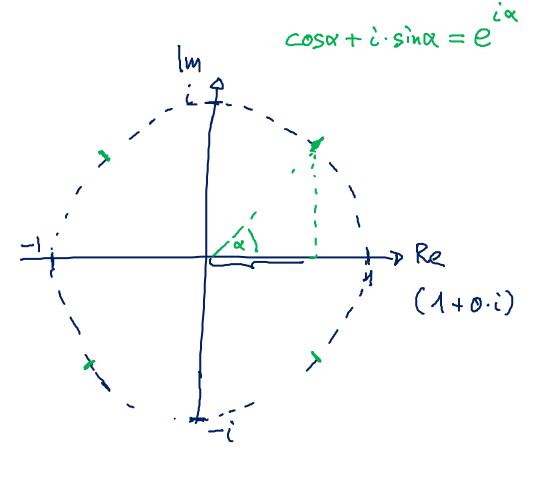
$$\frac{1}{2}$$

$$\frac$$

Faster Algorithm?



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

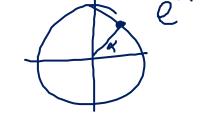


Choice of *X*



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

Consider the *N* complex roots of unity:

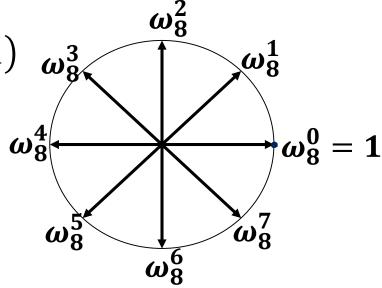


Principle root of unity:
$$\omega_N = e^{2\pi i/N}$$

$$(i = \sqrt{-1}, \quad e^{2\pi i} = 1) \quad \omega_{N}^3$$

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, $k \ge 0$, and d > 0, we have:

$$oldsymbol{\omega}_{dn}^{dk} = oldsymbol{\omega}_n^k$$
 ,

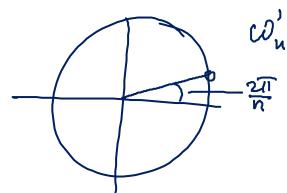
 $\omega_n^{k+n} = \omega_n^k$

• Proof:
$$\frac{2\pi}{n}$$
.

$$\omega_{dn}^{dk} = e^{i\frac{2\pi}{dn}dk} = \omega_{n}^{k}$$

$$\omega_{n}^{k+n} = e^{i\frac{2\pi}{n}k} e^{i\frac{2\pi}{n}n} = \omega_{n}^{k}$$

$$e^{2\pi i} = 1$$

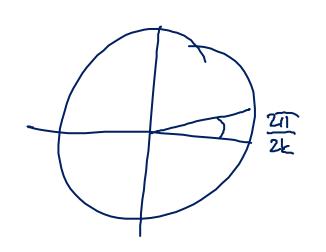


Properties of the Roots of Unity



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

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



$$\chi^{2} = \left\{ \omega_{2k}^{2i} = \omega_{k}^{i}, i \in \{0, ..., 2k-1\} \right\}$$

$$= \left\{ \omega_{k}^{i}, i \in \{0, -, k-1\} \right\}$$

Analysis



New recurrence formula:

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

$$\lim_{N \to \infty} |X| = N$$

for
$$|X|=N$$

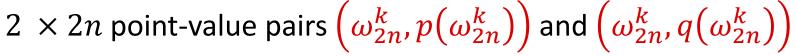
$$2 \Rightarrow O(N \log N)$$

Faster Polynomial Multiplication?



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

p, q of degree n-1, n coefficients $\text{Evaluation at points } \omega_{2n}^0, \omega_{2n}^1, \dots, \omega_{2n}^{2n-1} \quad \mathcal{O}(u \log n)$



Point-wise multiplication

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

Interpolation

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