

CSE 417: Algorithms and Computational Complexity

Winter 2002

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Lectures 9-12

Divide and Conquer Algorithms

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The Divide and Conquer Paradigm

- Outline:
 - General Idea
 - Review of Merge Sort
 - Why does it work?
 - Importance of balance
 - Importance of super-linear growth
 - Two interesting applications
 - Polynomial Multiplication
 - Matrix Multiplication

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Algorithm Design Techniques

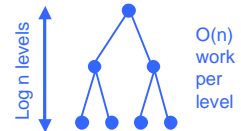
- Divide & Conquer
 - Reduce problem to one or more sub-problems of the same type
 - Typically, each sub-problem is at most a constant fraction of the size of the original problem
 - e.g. Mergesort, Binary Search, Strassen's Algorithm, Quicksort (kind of)

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Mergesort (review)

Mergesort: (recursively) sort 2 half-lists, then merge results.

- $T(n) = 2T(n/2) + cn, n \geq 2$
- $T(1) = 0$
- Solution: $\Theta(n \log n)$



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Why Balanced Subdivision?

- Alternative "divide & conquer" algorithm:
 - Sort $n-1$
 - Sort last 1
 - Merge them
- $T(n) = T(n-1) + T(1) + 3n$ for $n \geq 2$
- $T(1) = 0$
- Solution: $3n + 3(n-1) + 3(n-2) \dots = \Theta(n^2)$

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Another D&C Approach

- Suppose we've already invented DumbSort, taking time n^2
- Try *Just One Level* of divide & conquer:
 - DumbSort(first $n/2$ elements)
 - DumbSort(last $n/2$ elements)
 - Merge results
- Time: $(n/2)^2 + (n/2)^2 + n = n^2/2 + n$
 - Almost twice as fast!

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Another D&C Approach, cont.

- Moral 1:**
 Two problems of half size are *better* than one full-size problem, even given the $O(n)$ overhead of recombining, since the base algorithm has *super-linear* complexity.
- Moral 2:**
 If a little's good, then more's better—two levels of D&C would be almost 4 times faster, 3 levels almost 8, etc., even though overhead is growing. Best is usually full recursion down to some small constant size (balancing "work" vs "overhead").

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Another D&C Approach, cont.

- Moral 3: unbalanced division less good:**
 - $(.1n)^2 + (.9n)^2 + n = .82n^2/2 + n$
 - The 18% savings compounds significantly if you carry recursion to more levels, actually giving $O(n \log n)$, but with a bigger constant. So worth doing if you can't get 50-50 split, but balanced is better if you can.
 - This is intuitively why Quicksort with random splitter is good – badly unbalanced splits are rare, and not instantly fatal.
 - $(1)^2 + (n-1)^2 + n = n^2 - 2n + 2 + n$
 - Little improvement here.

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Another D&C Example: Multiplying Faster

- On the first HW you analyzed our usual algorithm for multiplying numbers
 - $\Theta(n^2)$ time
- We can do better!
 - We'll describe the basic ideas by multiplying polynomials rather than integers
 - Advantage is we don't get confused by worrying about carries at first

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Notes on Polynomials

- These are just formal sequences of coefficients so when we show something multiplied by x^k it just means shifted k places to the left – basically no work
- Usual Polynomial Multiplication:

$$\begin{array}{r}
 3x^2 + 2x + 2 \\
 \hline
 x^2 - 3x + 1 \\
 \hline
 3x^2 + 2x + 2 \\
 -9x^3 - 6x^2 - 6x \\
 \hline
 3x^4 + 2x^3 + 2x^2 \\
 \hline
 3x^4 - 7x^3 - x^2 - 4x + 2
 \end{array}$$

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Polynomial Multiplication

- Given:**
 - Degree $m-1$ polynomials P and Q
 - $P = a_0 + a_1 x + a_2 x^2 + \dots + a_{m-2} x^{m-2} + a_{m-1} x^{m-1}$
 - $Q = b_0 + b_1 x + b_2 x^2 + \dots + b_{m-2} x^{m-2} + b_{m-1} x^{m-1}$
- Compute:**
 - Degree $2m-2$ Polynomial PQ
 - $PQ = a_0 b_0 + (a_0 b_1 + a_1 b_0) x + (a_0 b_2 + a_1 b_1 + a_2 b_0) x^2 + \dots + (a_{m-2} b_{m-1} + a_{m-1} b_{m-2}) x^{2m-3} + a_{m-1} b_{m-1} x^{2m-2}$
- Obvious Algorithm:**
 - Compute all $a_i b_j$ and collect terms
 - $\Theta(n^2)$ time

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Naive Divide and Conquer

- Assume $m=2k$
 - $P = (a_0 + a_1 x + a_2 x^2 + \dots + a_{k-2} x^{k-2} + a_{k-1} x^{k-1}) + (a_k + a_{k+1} x + \dots + a_{m-2} x^{k-2} + a_{m-1} x^{k-1}) x^k$
 - $= P_0 + P_1 x^k$
 - $Q = Q_0 + Q_1 x^k$
- $PQ = (P_0 + P_1 x^k)(Q_0 + Q_1 x^k)$
 - $= P_0 Q_0 + (P_1 Q_0 + P_0 Q_1) x^k + P_1 Q_1 x^{2k}$
- 4 sub-problems of size $k=m/2$ plus linear combining
 - $T(m) = 4T(m/2) + cm$
 - Solution $T(m) = O(m^2)$

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Karatsuba's Algorithm

■ A better way to compute the terms

■ Compute

- P_0Q_0
- P_1Q_1
- $(P_0+P_1)(Q_0+Q_1)$ which is $P_0Q_0+P_1Q_0+P_0Q_1+P_1Q_1$

■ Then

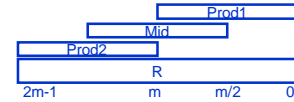
- $P_0Q_1+P_1Q_0 = (P_0+P_1)(Q_0+Q_1) - P_0Q_0 - P_1Q_1$

■ 3 sub-problems of size $m/2$ plus $O(m)$ work

- $T(m) = 3 T(m/2) + cm$
- $T(m) = O(m^\alpha)$ where $\alpha = \log_2 3 = 1.59...$

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Karatsuba: Details

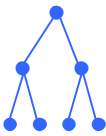


PolyMul(P, Q):

```
// P, Q are length m = 2k vectors, with P[i], Q[i] being
// the coefficient of x^i in polynomials P, Q respectively.
Let Pzero be elements 0..k-1 of P; Pone be elements k..m-1
Qzero, Qone : similar
Prod1 = PolyMul(Pzero, Qzero); // result is a (2k-1)-vector
Prod2 = PolyMul(Pone, Qone); // ditto
Pzo = Pzero + Pone; // add corresponding elements
Qzo = Qzero + Qone; // ditto
Prod3 = polyMul(Pzo, Qzo); // another (2k-1)-vector
Mid = Prod3 - Prod1 - Prod2; // subtract corr. elements
R = Prod1 + Shift(Mid, m/2) + Shift(Prod2, m) // a (2m-1)-vector
Return (R);
```

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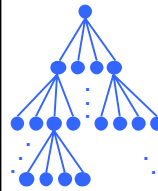
Solve: $T(n) = 2 T(n/2) + cn$



Level	Num	Size	Work
0	$1=2^0$	n	cn
1	$2=2^1$	$n/2$	$2 c n/2$
2	$4=2^2$	$n/4$	$4 c n/4$
...
i	2^i	$n/2^i$	$2^i c n/2^i$
...
$k-1$	2^{k-1}	$n/2^{k-1}$	$2^{k-1} c n/2^{k-1}$
k	2^k	$n/2^k=1$	$2^k T(1)$

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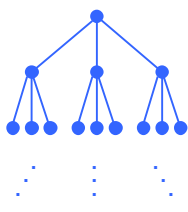
Solve: $T(n) = 4 T(n/2) + cn$



Level	Num	Size	Work
0	$1=4^0$	n	cn
1	$4=4^1$	$n/2$	$4 c n/2$
2	$16=4^2$	$n/4$	$16 c n/4$
...
i	4^i	$n/2^i$	$4^i c n/2^i$
...
$k-1$	4^{k-1}	$n/2^{k-1}$	$4^{k-1} c n/2^{k-1}$
k	4^k	$n/2^k=1$	$4^k T(1)$

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Solve: $T(1) = c$ $T(n) = 3 T(n/2) + cn$



$n = 2^k$; $k = \log_2 n$

Total Work: $T(n) = \sum_{i=0}^k 3^i cn / 2^i$

Level	Num	Size	Work
0	$1=3^0$	n	cn
1	$3=3^1$	$n/2$	$3 c n/2$
2	$9=3^2$	$n/4$	$9 c n/4$
...
i	3^i	$n/2^i$	$3^i c n/2^i$
...
$k-1$	3^{k-1}	$n/2^{k-1}$	$3^{k-1} c n/2^{k-1}$
k	3^k	$n/2^k=1$	$3^k T(1)$

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Solve: $T(1) = c$ $T(n) = 3 T(n/2) + cn$ (cont.)

$$\begin{aligned}
 T(n) &= \sum_{i=0}^k 3^i cn / 2^i \\
 &= cn \sum_{i=0}^k 3^i / 2^i \\
 &= cn \sum_{i=0}^k \left(\frac{3}{2}\right)^i \\
 &= cn \frac{\left(\frac{3}{2}\right)^{k+1} - 1}{\left(\frac{3}{2}\right) - 1}
 \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 \sum_{i=0}^k x^i &= \\
 &= \frac{x^{k+1} - 1}{x - 1} \\
 & \quad (x \neq 1)
 \end{aligned}$$

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Solve: $T(1) = c$
 $T(n) = 3T(n/2) + cn$ (cont.)

$$= 2cn \left(\left(\frac{3}{2} \right)^{k+1} - 1 \right)$$

$$< 2cn \left(\frac{3}{2} \right)^{k+1}$$

$$= 3cn \left(\frac{3}{2} \right)^k$$

$$= 3cn \frac{3^k}{2^k}$$

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Solve: $T(1) = c$
 $T(n) = 3T(n/2) + cn$ (cont.)

$$= 3cn \frac{3^{\log_2 n}}{2^{\log_2 n}}$$

$$= 3cn \frac{3^{\log_2 n}}{n}$$

$$= 3c 3^{\log_2 n}$$

$$= 3c (n^{\log_2 3})$$

$$= O(n^{1.59...})$$

$$a^{\log_b n}$$

$$= (b^{\log_b a})^{\log_b n}$$

$$= (b^{\log_b n})^{\log_b a}$$

$$= n^{\log_b a}$$

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Master Divide and Conquer Recurrence

- If $T(n) = aT(n/b) + cn^k$ for $n > b$ then
 - if $a > b^k$ then $T(n)$ is $\Theta(n^{\log_b a})$
 - if $a < b^k$ then $T(n)$ is $\Theta(n^k)$
 - if $a = b^k$ then $T(n)$ is $\Theta(n^k \log n)$
- Works even if it is $\lceil n/b \rceil$ instead of n/b .

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Multiplication – The Bottom Line

- Polynomials
 - Naïve: $\Theta(n^2)$
 - Karatsuba: $\Theta(n^{1.59...})$
 - Best known: $\Theta(n \log n)$
 - "Fast Fourier Transform"
- Integers
 - Similar, but some ugly details re: carries, etc. gives $\Theta(n \log n \log \log n)$,
 - but mostly unused in practice

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Hints towards FFT:
I. Interpolation

Given set of values at 5 points

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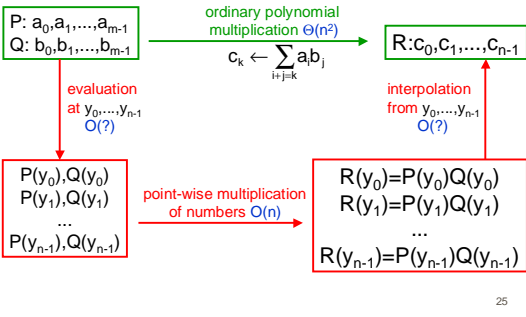
Hints towards FFT:
I. Interpolation

Given set of values at 5 points

Find unique degree 4 polynomial going through these points

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Hints towards FFT: II. Evaluation & Interpolation



Hints towards FFT: III. Evaluation at Special Points

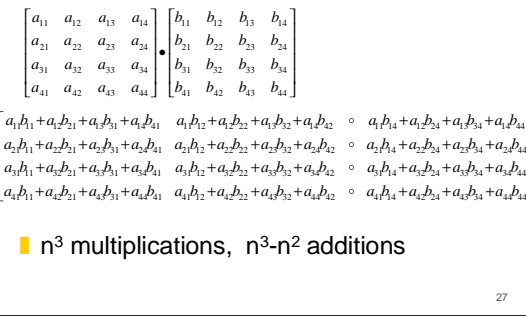
- Evaluation of polynomial at 1 point takes $O(m)$, so m points (naively) takes $O(m^2)$ —no savings
- Key trick: use carefully chosen points where there's some sharing of work for several points, namely various powers of

$$\omega = e^{2\pi i / m}, i = \sqrt{-1}$$

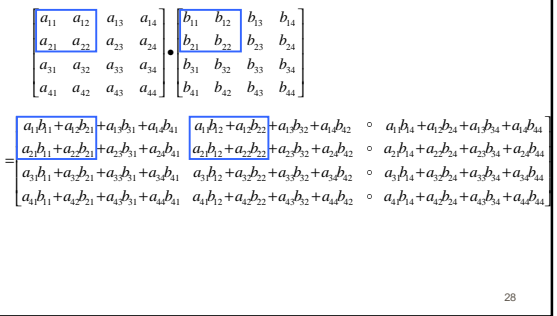
- Plus more Divide & Conquer.
- Result: both eval and interpolation in $O(n \log n)$

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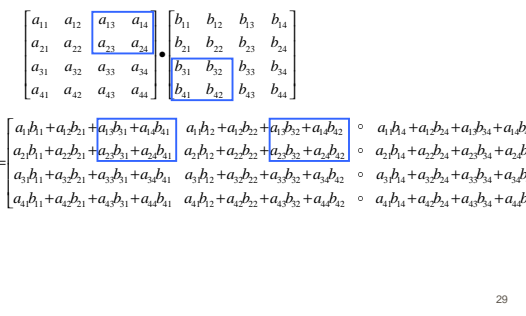
Multiplying Matrices



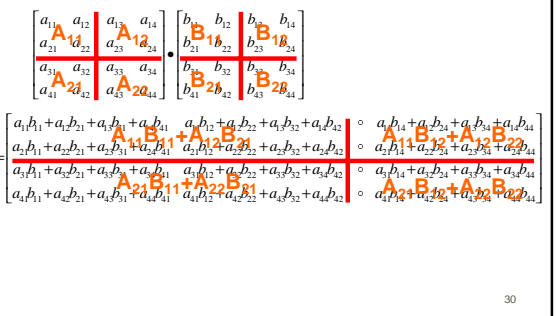
Multiplying Matrices



Multiplying Matrices



Multiplying Matrices



Multiplying Matrices

$$\begin{pmatrix} A_{11} & A_{12} \\ A_{21} & A_{22} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} B_{11} & B_{12} \\ B_{21} & B_{22} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} A_{11}B_{11}+A_{12}B_{21} & A_{11}B_{12}+A_{12}B_{22} \\ A_{21}B_{11}+A_{22}B_{21} & A_{21}B_{12}+A_{22}B_{22} \end{pmatrix}$$

■ $T(n)=8T(n/2)+4(n/2)^2=8T(n/2)+n^2$

■ $8 > 2^2$ so $T(n)$ is

$$\Theta(n^{\log_b a}) = \Theta(n^{\log_2 8}) = \Theta(n^3)$$

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Strassen's algorithm

Strassen's algorithm

■ Multiply 2×2 matrices using **7** instead of **8** multiplications (and lots more than 4 additions)

■ $T(n)=7 T(n/2)+cn^2$

■ $7 > 2^2$ so $T(n)$ is $\Theta(n_{\log_2 7})$ which is $O(n^{2.81})$

■ Fastest algorithms theoretically use $O(n^{2.376})$ time

■ not practical but Strassen's is practical provided calculations are exact and we stop recursion when matrix has size about 100 (maybe 10)

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The algorithm

■ $P_1=A_{12}(B_{11}+B_{21})$ $P_2=A_{21}(B_{12}+B_{22})$

■ $P_3=(A_{11}-A_{12})B_{11}$ $P_4=(A_{22}-A_{21})B_{22}$

■ $P_5=(A_{22}-A_{12})(B_{21}-B_{22})$

■ $P_6=(A_{11}-A_{21})(B_{12}-B_{11})$

■ $P_7=(A_{21}-A_{12})(B_{11}+B_{22})$

■ $C_{11}=P_1+P_3$ $C_{12}=P_2+P_3+P_6-P_7$

■ $C_{21}=P_1+P_4+P_5+P_7$ $C_{22}=P_2+P_4$

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Another D&C Example: Fast exponentiation

Power(a,n)

■ **Input:** integer n and number a

■ **Output:** a^n

Obvious algorithm

■ $n-1$ multiplications

Observation:

■ if n is even, $n=2m$, then $a^n=a^m \cdot a^m$

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Divide & Conquer Algorithm

Power(a,n)

if $n=0$ then
return(1)

else

$x \leftarrow \text{Power}(a, \lfloor n/2 \rfloor)$

if n is even then
return($x \cdot x$)

else
return($a \cdot x \cdot x$)

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Analysis

Worst-case recurrence

■ $T(n)=T(\lfloor n/2 \rfloor)+2$

By master theorem

■ $T(n)=O(\log n)$

More precise analysis:

■ $T(n)=\lceil \log_2 n \rceil + \# \text{ of } 1\text{'s in } n\text{'s binary representation}$

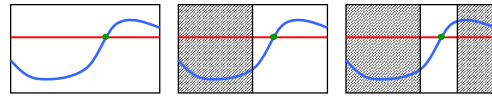
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A Practical Application- RSA

- Instead of a^n want $a^n \bmod N$
 - $a^{b^j} \bmod N = ((a^b \bmod N) \cdot (a^b \bmod N)) \bmod N$
 - same algorithm applies with each $x \cdot y$ replaced by
 - $((x \bmod N) \cdot (y \bmod N)) \bmod N$
- In RSA cryptosystem (widely used for security)
 - need $a^n \bmod N$ where a, n, N each typically have 1024 bits
 - Power: at most 2048 multiplies of 1024 bit numbers
 - relatively easy for modern machines
 - Naive algorithm: 2^{1024} multiplies

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Another Example: Binary search for roots (bisection method)



- Given:
 - continuous function f and two points $a < b$ with $f(a) < 0$ and $f(b) > 0$
- Find:
 - approximation to c s.t. $f(c) = 0$ and $a < c < b$

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Divide and Conquer Summary

- Powerful technique, when applicable
- Divide large problem into a few smaller problems of the same type
- Choosing subproblems of roughly equal size is usually critical
- Examples:
 - Merge sort, quicksort (sort of), polynomial multiplication, FFT, Strassen's matrix multiplication algorithm, powering, binary search, root finding by bisection, ...

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