CSE 421: Introduction to Algorithms

Divide and Conquer

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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)

Fast exponentiation

- Power(a,n)
 - Input: integer n and number a
 - Output: aⁿ
- Obvious algorithm
 - n-1 multiplications
- Observation:
 - if n is even, n=2m, then aⁿ=a^m•a^m

Divide & Conquer Algorithm

- Power(a,n)
 if n=0 then return(1)
 else if n=1 then return(a)
 else
 - $\mathbf{x} \leftarrow \text{Power}(\mathbf{a}, \lfloor \mathbf{n}/2 \rfloor)$ if **n** is even then return($\mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{x}$) else

return(**a**•**x**•**x**)

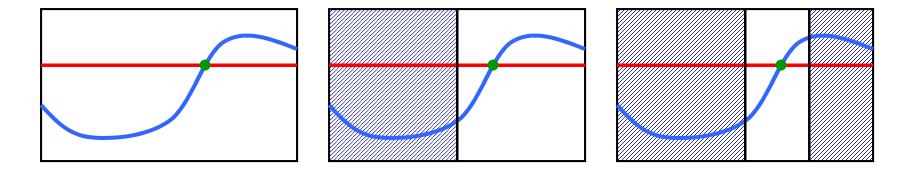
Analysis

- Worst-case recurrence
 - $T(n)=T(\lfloor n/2 \rfloor)+2$ for $n \ge 1$
 - **T**(1)=0
- Time
 - $T(n)=T(\lfloor n/2 \rfloor)+2 \leq T(\lfloor n/4 \rfloor)+2+2 \leq \dots \leq T(1)+2+\dots+2 = 2 \log_2 n$ log_n copies
- More precise analysis:
 - $T(n) = \lceil \log_2 n \rceil + \# \text{ of } 1$'s in n's binary representation

A Practical Application- RSA

- Instead of aⁿ want aⁿ mod N
 - $\mathbf{a}^{i+j} \mod \mathbf{N} = ((\mathbf{a}^i \mod \mathbf{N}) \cdot (\mathbf{a}^j \mod \mathbf{N})) \mod \mathbf{N}$
 - same algorithm applies with each x•y replaced by
 - ((x mod N)•(y mod N)) mod N
- In RSA cryptosystem (widely used for security)
 - need aⁿ mod 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: 2¹⁰²⁴ multiplies

Binary search for roots (bisection method)



- Given:
 - continuous function f and two points a<b/li>
 f(a) ≤ 0 and f(b) > 0
- Find:
 - approximation to c s.t. f(c)=0 and a<cc<b/p>

Bisection method

```
Bisection(\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{b}, \varepsilon)
    if (\mathbf{b}-\mathbf{a}) < \varepsilon then
            return(a)
     else
            c ←(a+b)/2
            if \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{c}) \leq \mathbf{0} then
                    return(Bisection(c,b,ε))
            else
                    return(Bisection(a,c,ε))
```

Time Analysis

- At each step we halved the size of the interval
- It started at size b-a
- It ended at size ε
- # of calls to f is $\log_2((b-a)/\epsilon)$

Old favorites

- Binary search
 - One subproblem of half size plus one comparison
 - Recurrence $T(n) = T(\lceil n/2 \rceil) + 1$ for $n \ge 2$

T(1) = 0So T(n) is $\lceil \log_2 n \rceil + 1$

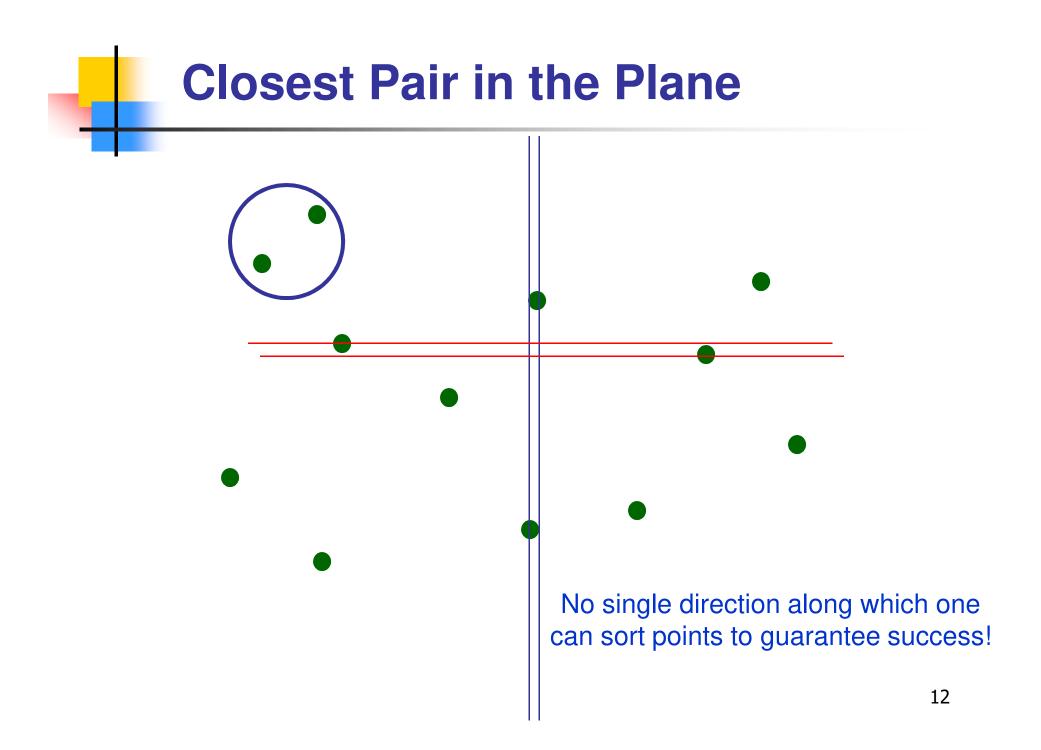
- Mergesort
 - Two subproblems of half size plus merge cost of n-1 comparisons
 - Recurrence $T(n) \le 2T(\lceil n/2 \rceil) + n-1$ for $n \ge 2$ T(1) = 0

Roughly **n** comparisons at each of log₂ **n** levels of recursion

So T(n) is roughly 2n log₂ n

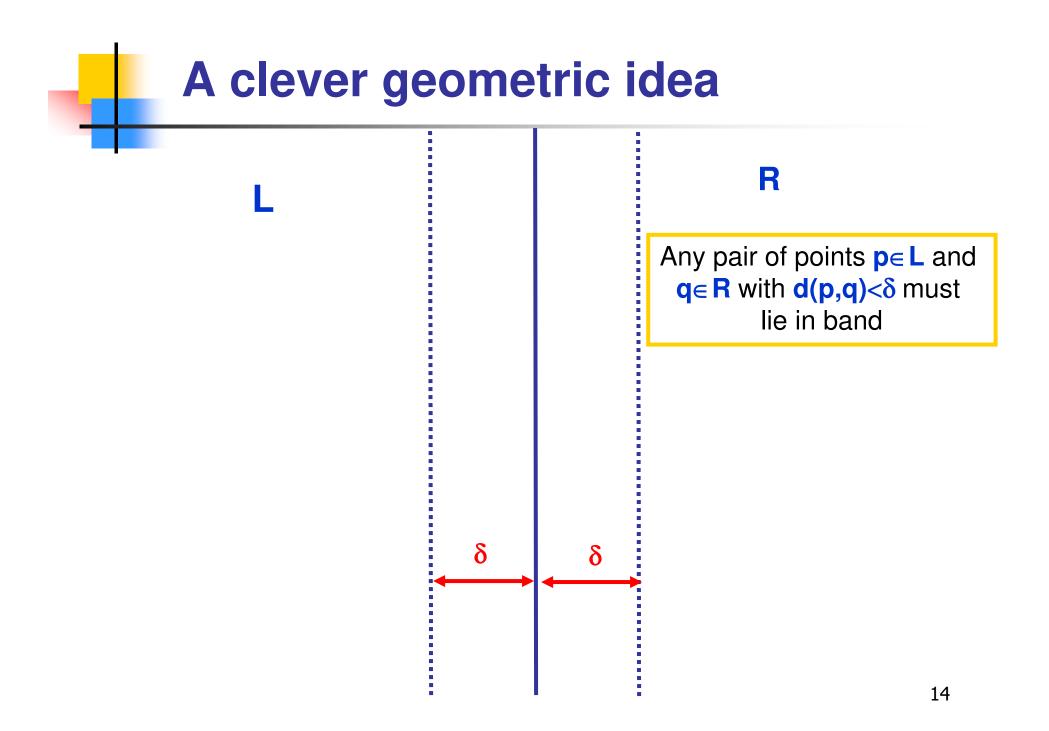
Euclidean Closest Pair

- Given a set P of n points p₁,...,p_n with real-valued coordinates
- Find the pair of points p_i,p_j∈ P such that the Euclidean distance d(p_i,p_j) is minimized
- •(n²) possible pairs
- In one dimension: easy O(n log n) algorithm
 - Sort the points
 - Compare consecutive elements in the sorted list
- What about points in the plane?

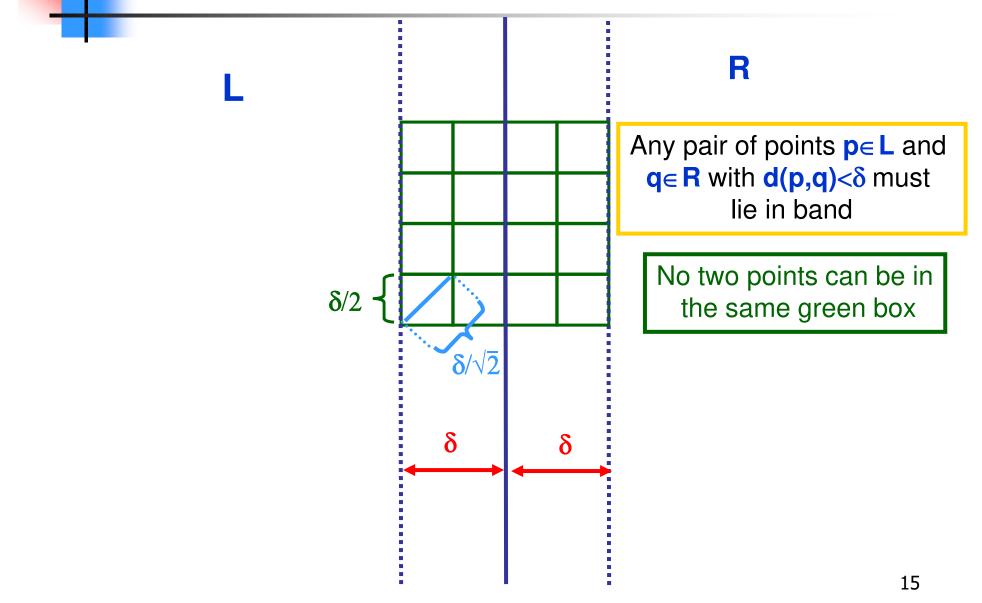


Closest Pair In the Plane: Divide and Conquer

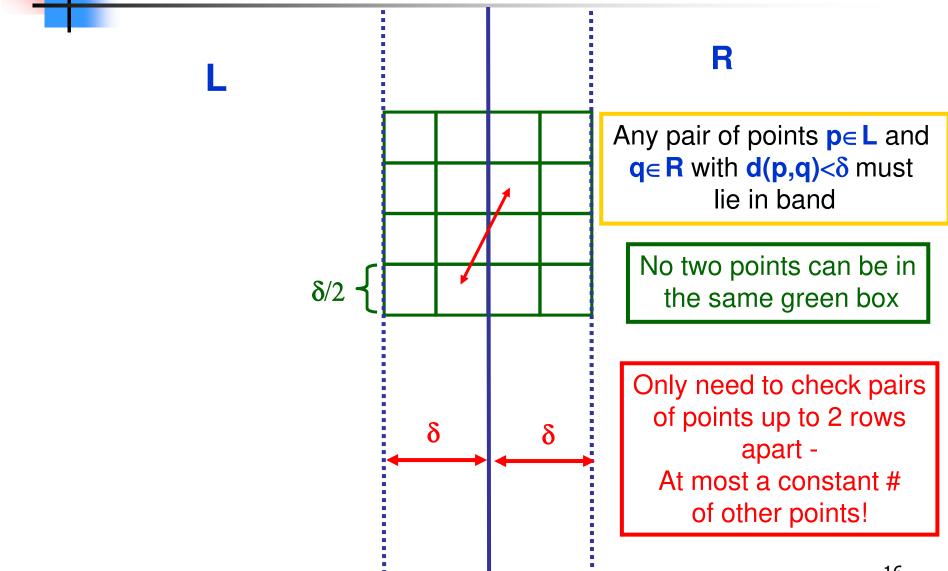
- Sort the points by their x coordinates
- Split the points into two sets of n/2 points L and R by x coordinate
- Recursively compute
 - closest pair of points in L, (p_L,q_L)
 - closest pair of points in R, (p_R,q_R)
- Let δ=min{d(p_L,q_L),d(p_R,q_R)} and let (p,q) be the pair of points that has distance δ
- But this may not be enough
 - Closest pair of points may involve one point from L and the other from R!



A clever geometric idea



A clever geometric idea



Closest Pair Recombining

- Sort points by y coordinate ahead of time
- On recombination only compare each point in δ-band of LOR to the 11 points in δ-band of LOR above it in the y sorted order
 - If any of those distances is better than δ replace (p,q) by the best of those pairs
- O(n log n) for x and y sorting at start
- Two recursive calls on problems on half size
- O(n) recombination
- Total O(n log n)

Sometimes two sub-problems aren't enough

More general divide and conquer

- You've broken the problem into a different sub-problems
- Each has size at most n/b
- The cost of the break-up and recombining the sub-problem solutions is O(n^k)

Recurrence

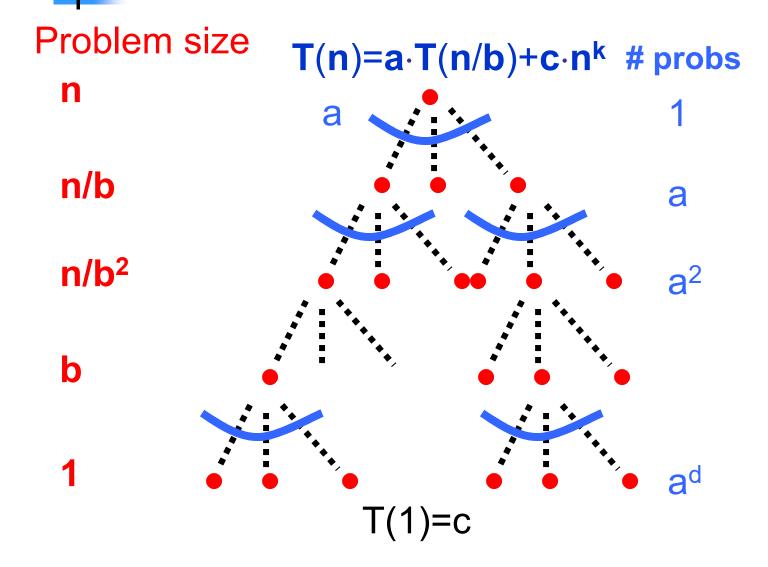
• $T(n) \le a \cdot T(n/b) + c \cdot n^k$



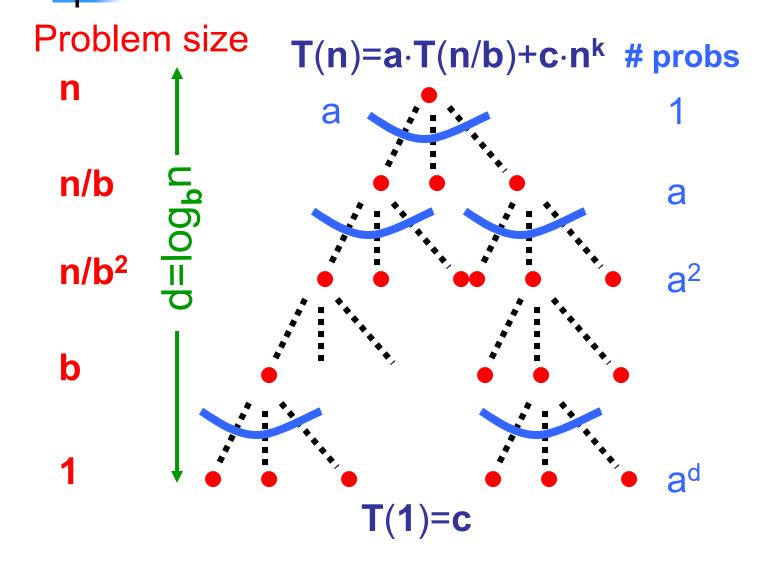
If T(n)≤ a⋅T(n/b)+c⋅n^k for n>b then if a>b^k then T(n) is ⊖(n^{log_ba})

- 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 n/b instead of n/b.

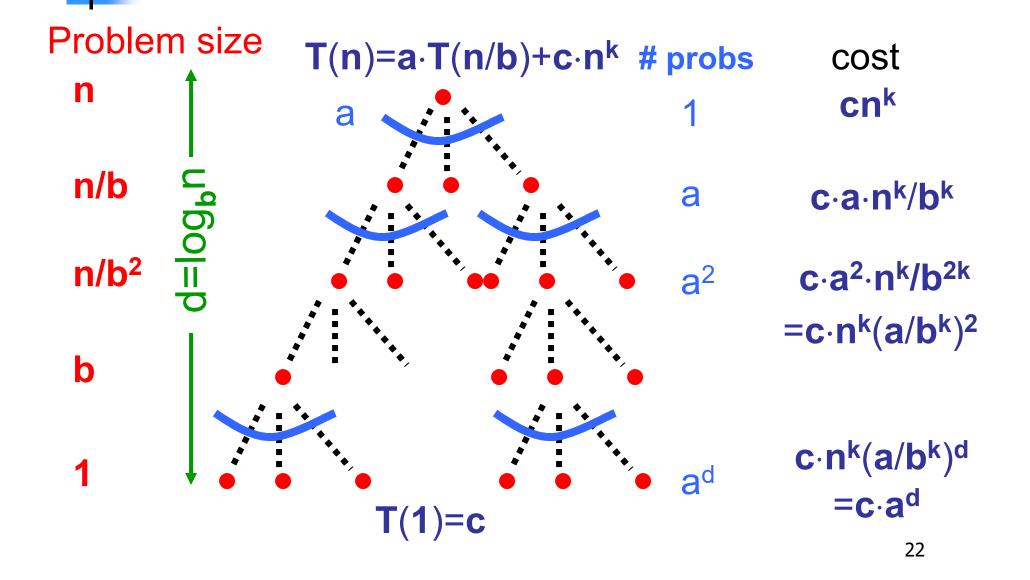
Proving Master recurrence



Proving Master recurrence



Proving Master recurrence



Geometric Series

- **S** = $t + tr + tr^2 + ... + tr^{n-1}$
- $r \cdot S = tr + tr^2 + ... + tr^{n-1} + tr^n$

- SO S=t (rⁿ -1)/(r-1) if r≠1.
- Simple rule
 - If r ≠ 1 then S is a constant times largest term in series

Total Cost

- Geometric series
 - ratio a/b^k
 - d+1=log_bn +1 terms
 - first term cn^k, last term ca^d
- If a/b^k=1
 - all terms are equal T(n) is $\Theta(n^k \log n)$
- If a/b^k<1</p>
 - first term is largest T(n) is Θ(n^k)
- If a/b^k>1
 - last term is largest T(n) is Θ(a^d)=Θ(a^{log_bn}) =Θ(n^{log_ba}) (To see this take log_b of both sides)

$$\begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & a_{13} & a_{14} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & a_{23} & a_{24} \\ a_{31} & a_{32} & a_{33} & a_{34} \\ a_{41} & a_{42} & a_{43} & a_{44} \end{bmatrix} \bullet \begin{bmatrix} b_{11} & b_{12} & b_{13} & b_{14} \\ b_{21} & b_{22} & b_{23} & b_{24} \\ b_{31} & b_{32} & b_{33} & b_{34} \\ b_{41} & b_{42} & b_{43} & b_{44} \end{bmatrix}$$

 $= \begin{bmatrix} a_{11}b_{11} + a_{12}b_{21} + a_{13}b_{31} + a_{14}b_{41} & a_{11}b_{12} + a_{12}b_{22} + a_{13}b_{32} + a_{14}b_{42} & \circ & a_{11}b_{14} + a_{12}b_{24} + a_{13}b_{34} + a_{14}b_{44} \\ a_{21}b_{11} + a_{22}b_{21} + a_{23}b_{31} + a_{24}b_{41} & a_{21}b_{12} + a_{22}b_{22} + a_{23}b_{32} + a_{24}b_{42} & \circ & a_{21}b_{14} + a_{22}b_{24} + a_{23}b_{34} + a_{24}b_{44} \\ a_{31}b_{11} + a_{32}b_{21} + a_{33}b_{31} + a_{34}b_{41} & a_{31}b_{12} + a_{32}b_{22} + a_{33}b_{32} + a_{34}b_{42} & \circ & a_{31}b_{14} + a_{32}b_{24} + a_{33}b_{34} + a_{34}b_{44} \\ a_{41}b_{11} + a_{42}b_{21} + a_{43}b_{31} + a_{44}b_{41} & a_{41}b_{12} + a_{42}b_{22} + a_{43}b_{32} + a_{44}b_{42} & \circ & a_{41}b_{14} + a_{42}b_{24} + a_{43}b_{34} + a_{44}b_{44} \end{bmatrix}$

n³ multiplications, n³-n² additions

```
for i=1 to n
   for j=1 to n
       C[i,j]←0
       for k=1 to n
           C[i,j]=C[i,j]+A[i,k]\cdot B[k,j]
       endfor
   endfor
endfor
```

$$\begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & a_{13} & a_{14} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & a_{23} & a_{24} \\ a_{31} & a_{32} & a_{33} & a_{34} \\ a_{41} & a_{42} & a_{43} & a_{44} \end{bmatrix} \bullet \begin{bmatrix} b_{11} & b_{12} & b_{13} & b_{14} \\ b_{21} & b_{22} & b_{23} & b_{24} \\ b_{31} & b_{32} & b_{33} & b_{34} \\ b_{41} & b_{42} & b_{43} & b_{44} \end{bmatrix}$$

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=

$$\begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & a_{13} & a_{14} \\ a_{21} & 1a_{22} & a_{23} & 1a_{24} \\ a_{31} & a_{32} & a_{33} & a_{34} \\ a_{41} & 2a_{42} & a_{43}^{2} & 2a_{44} \end{bmatrix} \leftarrow \begin{bmatrix} b_{11} & b_{12} & b_{13} & b_{14} \\ b_{21} & 1b_{22} & b_{23} & 1a_{24} \\ b_{31} & b_{32} & b_{32} & b_{34} \\ b_{41} & 2b_{42} & b_{43}^{2} & 2b_{44} \end{bmatrix}$$

Simple Divide and Conquer

Strassen's Divide and Conquer Algorithm

Strassen's algorithm

- Multiply 2x2 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^{2.373}) time
 - not practical but Strassen's is practical provided calculations are exact and we stop recursion when matrix has size somewhere between 10 and 100

The algorithm

Another Divide & Conquer Example: Multiplying Faster

- If you analyze our usual grade school algorithm for multiplying numbers
 - **Θ**(**n**²) time
 - On real machines each "digit" is, e.g., 32 bits long but still get O(n²) running time with this algorithm when run on n-bit multiplication
- 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

Notes on Polynomials

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

Usual polynomial multiplication

$$\begin{array}{r} 4x^2+2x+2\\ x^2-3x+1\\ 4x^2+2x+2\\ -12x^3-6x^2-6x\\ 4x^4+2x^3+2x^2\\ 4x^4-10x^3+0x^2-4x+2\end{array}$$

Polynomial Multiplication

Given:

- Degree n-1 polynomials P and Q
 - $P = a_0 + a_1 x + a_2 x^2 + \ldots + a_{n-2} x^{n-2} + a_{n-1} x^{n-1}$

Q = $\mathbf{b}_0 + \mathbf{b}_1 \mathbf{x} + \mathbf{b}_2 \mathbf{x}^2 + \dots + \mathbf{b}_{n-2} \mathbf{x}^{n-2} + \mathbf{b}_{n-1} \mathbf{x}^{n-1}$

Compute:

- Degree 2n-2 Polynomial P Q
- $PQ = a_0b_0 + (a_0b_1+a_1b_0) X + (a_0b_2+a_1b_1+a_2b_0) X^2$ +...+ $(a_{n-2}b_{n-1}+a_{n-1}b_{n-2}) X^{2n-3} + a_{n-1}b_{n-1} X^{2n-2}$

Obvious Algorithm:

- Compute all a_ib_i and collect terms
- (n²) time

Naive Divide and Conquer

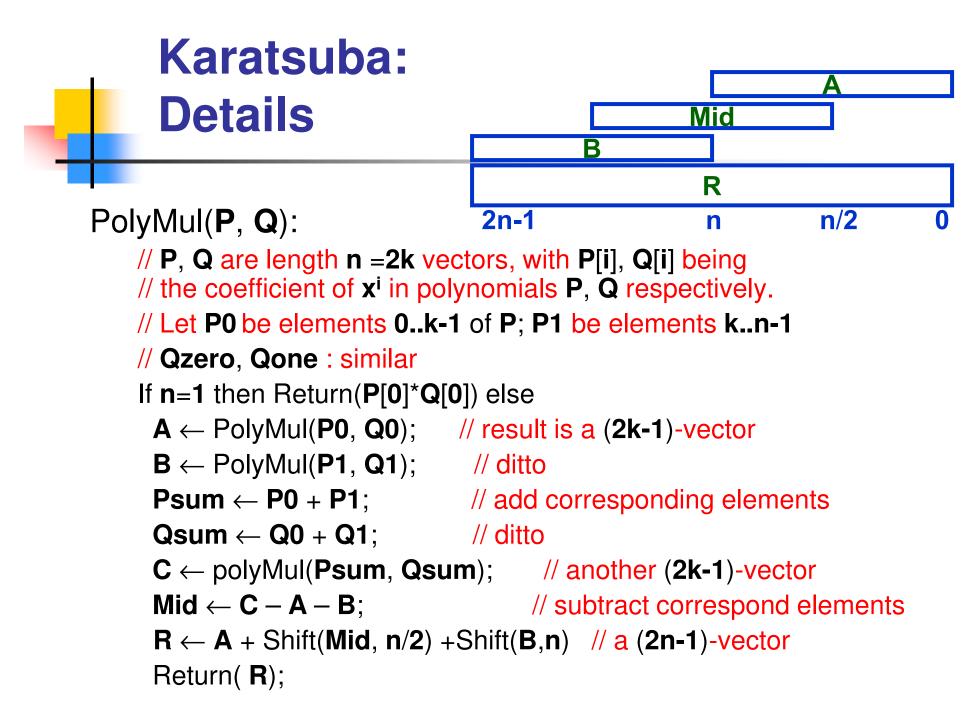
Assume n=2k

 $P = (a_0 + a_1 \quad x + a_2 \ x^2 + \dots + a_{k-2} \ x^{k-2} + a_{k-1} \ x^{k-1}) +$ $(a_k + a_{k+1} \ x + \dots + a_{n-2} \ x^{k-2} + a_{n-1} \ x^{k-1}) \ x^k$ $= P_0 + P_1 \ x^k \text{ where } P_0 \text{ and } P_1 \text{ are degree } k-1$ polynomials

- Similarly $\mathbf{Q} = \mathbf{Q}_0 + \mathbf{Q}_1 \mathbf{x}^k$
- $PQ = (P_0 + P_1 x^k)(Q_0 + Q_1 x^k)$ = $P_0Q_0 + (P_1Q_0 + P_0Q_1)x^k + P_1Q_1x^{2k}$
- 4 sub-problems of size k=n/2 plus linear combining
 - $T(n)=4 \cdot T(n/2)+cn$ Solution $T(n) = \Theta(n^2)$

Karatsuba's Algorithm

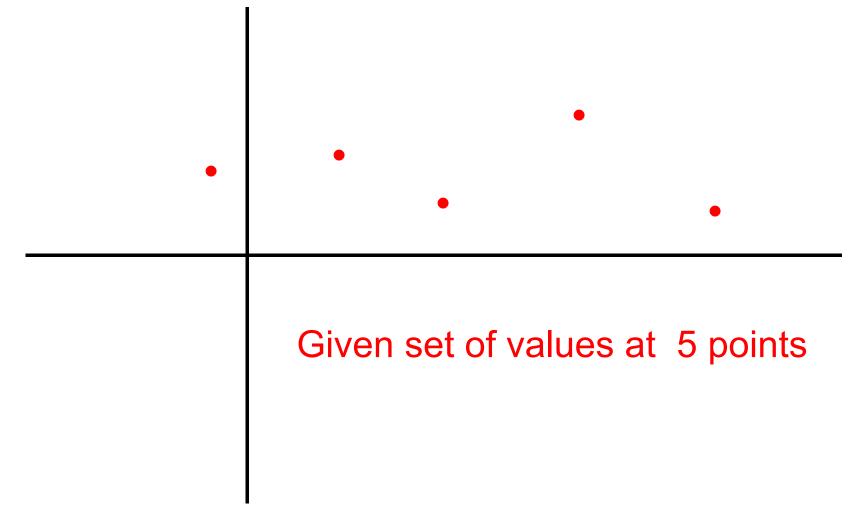
- A better way to compute the terms
 - Compute
 - $\blacksquare \mathsf{A} \leftarrow \mathsf{P}_0 \mathsf{Q}_0$
 - $\blacksquare B \leftarrow P_1 Q_1$
 - $\mathbf{C} \leftarrow (\mathbf{P}_0 + \mathbf{P}_1)(\mathbf{Q}_0 + \mathbf{Q}_1) = \mathbf{P}_0 \mathbf{Q}_0 + \mathbf{P}_1 \mathbf{Q}_0 + \mathbf{P}_0 \mathbf{Q}_1 + \mathbf{P}_1 \mathbf{Q}_1$
 - Then
 - $P_0Q_1+P_1Q_0=C-A-B$
 - So $PQ = A + (C A B)x^k + Bx^{2k}$
 - 3 sub-problems of size n/2 plus O(n) work
 - **T**(n) = 3 T(n/2) + cn
 - $T(n) = O(n^{\alpha})$ where $\alpha = \log_2 3 = 1.59...$



Multiplication

- Polynomials
 - Naïve: **Θ**(**n**²)
 - Karatsuba: Θ(n^{1.59...})
 - Best known: O(n log n)
 - "Fast Fourier Transform"
 - FFT widely used for signal processing
- Integers
 - Similar, but some ugly details re: carries, etc. due to Schonhage-Strassen in 1971 gives ⊖(n log n loglog n)
 - Improvement in 2007 due to Furer gives $\Theta(n \log n 2^{\log^* n})$
 - Used in practice in symbolic manipulation systems like Maple

Hints towards FFT: Interpolation





Given set of values at 5 points Can find unique degree 4 polynomial going through these points

Multiplying Polynomials by Evaluation & Interpolation

- Any degree n-1 polynomial R(y) is determined by R(y₀), ... R(y_{n-1}) for any n distinct y₀,...,y_{n-1}
- To compute PQ (assume degree at most n/2-1)
 - Evaluate P(y₀),..., P(y_{n-1})
 - Evaluate Q(y₀),...,Q(y_{n-1})
 - Multiply values P(y_i)Q(y_i) for i=0,...,n-1
 - Interpolate to recover PQ

Interpolation

- Given values of degree n-1 polynomial R at n distinct points y₀,...,y_{n-1}
 - **R**(**y**₀),...,**R**(**y**_{n-1})

. . .

- Compute coefficients c₀,...,c_{n-1} such that
 - $\mathbf{R}(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{C}_0 + \mathbf{C}_1 \mathbf{X} + \mathbf{C}_2 \mathbf{X}^2 + \ldots + \mathbf{C}_{n-1} \mathbf{X}^{n-1}$
- System of linear equations in c₀,...,c_{n-1}

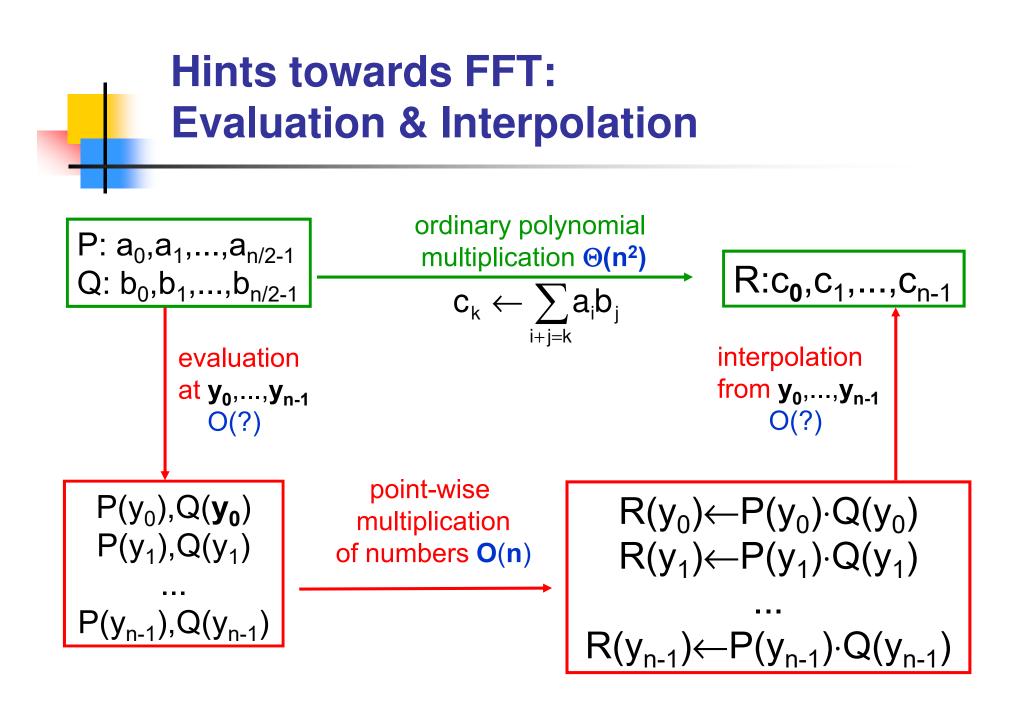
known

unknown

 $C_0 + C_1 y_{n-1} + C_2 y_{n-1}^2 + ... + C_{n-1} y_{n-1}^{n-1} = R(y_{n-1})$

Interpolation: n equations in n unknowns

- Matrix form of the linear system $\begin{pmatrix}
 1 & y_0 & y_0^2 & \dots & y_0^{n-1} \\
 1 & y_1 & y_1^2 & \dots & y_1^{n-1} \\
 \dots & & & & \\
 1 & y_{n-1} & y_{n-1}^2 & \dots & y_{n-1}^{n-1}
 \end{pmatrix}
 \begin{pmatrix}
 C_0 \\
 C_1 \\
 C_2 \\
 . \\
 C_{n-1}
 \end{pmatrix} =
 \begin{pmatrix}
 R(y_0) \\
 R(y_1) \\
 . \\
 R(y_{n-1})
 \end{pmatrix}$
- - System has a unique solution C₀,...,C_{n-1}



Karatsuba's algorithm and evaluation and interpolation

- Strassen gave a way of doing 2x2 matrix multiplies with fewer multiplications
- Karatsuba's algorithm can be thought of as a way of multiplying degree 1 polynomials (which have 2 coefficients) using fewer multiplications
 - $PQ = (P_0 + P_1 z)(Q_0 + Q_1 z)$

 $= P_0Q_0 + (P_1Q_0 + P_0Q_1)z + P_1Q_1z^2$

- Evaluate at 0,1,-1 (Could also use other points)
 - $A = P(0)Q(0) = P_0Q_0$
 - $C = P(1)Q(1) = (P_0 + P_1)(Q_0 + Q_1)$
 - $\mathbf{D} = \mathbf{P}(-1)\mathbf{Q}(-1) = (\mathbf{P}_0 \mathbf{P}_1)(\mathbf{Q}_0 \mathbf{Q}_1)$
- Interpolating, Karatsuba's Mid=(C-D)/2 and B=(C+D)/2-A

Evaluation at Special Points

- Evaluation of polynomial at 1 point takes O(n) time
 - So 2n points (naively) takes O(n²)—no savings
 - But the algorithm works no matter what the points are...
- So...choose points that are related to each other so that evaluation problems can share subproblems

The key idea: Evaluate at related points

$$P(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{a}_0 + \mathbf{a}_1 \mathbf{x} + \mathbf{a}_2 \mathbf{x}^2 + \mathbf{a}_3 \mathbf{x}^3 + \mathbf{a}_4 \mathbf{x}^4 + \dots + \mathbf{a}_{n-1} \mathbf{x}^{n-1}$$

= $\mathbf{a}_0 + \mathbf{a}_2 \mathbf{x}^2 + \mathbf{a}_4 \mathbf{x}^4 + \dots + \mathbf{a}_{n-2} \mathbf{x}^{n-2}$
+ $\mathbf{a}_1 \mathbf{x} + \mathbf{a}_3 \mathbf{x}^3 + \mathbf{a}_5 \mathbf{x}^5 + \dots + \mathbf{a}_{n-1} \mathbf{x}^{n-1}$
= $\mathbf{P}_{even}(\mathbf{x}^2) + \mathbf{x} \mathbf{P}_{odd}(\mathbf{x}^2)$

•
$$P(-x) = a_0 - a_1 x + a_2 x^2 - a_3 x^3 + a_4 x^4 - \dots - a_{n-1} x^{n-1}$$

= $a_0 + a_2 x^2 + a_4 x^4 + \dots + a_{n-2} x^{n-2}$
- $(a_1 x + a_3 x^3 + a_5 x^5 + \dots + a_{n-1} x^{n-1})$
= $P_{even}(x^2) - x P_{odd}(x^2)$
where $P_{even}(z) = a_0 + a_2 z + a_4 z^2 + \dots + a_{n-2} z^{n/2-1}$
and $P_{odd}(z) = a_1 + a_3 z + a_5 z^2 + \dots + a_{n-1} z^{n/2-1}$

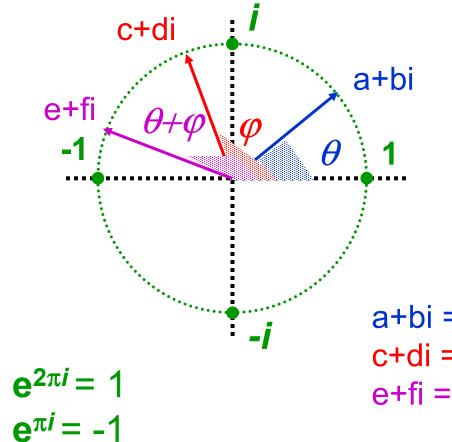
The key idea: Evaluate at related points

- So... if we have half the points as negatives of the other half
 - i.e., $y_{n/2} = -y_0$, $y_{n/2+1} = -y_1$,..., $y_{n-1} = -y_{n/2-1}$

then we can reduce the size **n** problem of evaluating degree **n-1** polynomial **P** at **n** points to evaluating **2** degree **n/2 - 1** polynomials P_{even} and P_{odd} at **n/2** points $y_0^2, \ldots y_{n/2-1}^2$ and recombine answers with O(1) extra work per point

- But to use this idea recursively we need half of y₀²,...y_{n/2-1}² to be negatives of the other half
 - If $y_{n/4}^2 = -y_0^2$, say, then $(y_{n/4}/y_0)^2 = -1$
 - Motivates use of complex numbers as evaluation points

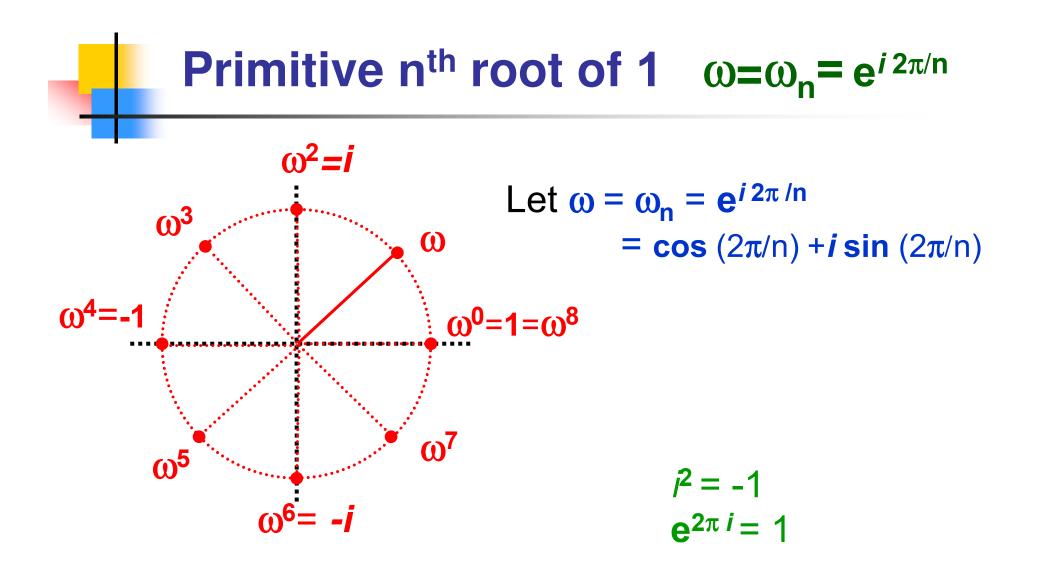
Complex Numbers $i^{2} = -1$



To multiply complex numbers: 1. add angles 2. multiply lengths (all length 1 here)

e+fi = (a+bi)(c+di)

a+bi =cos θ +*i* sin θ = e^{*i* θ} c+di =cos φ +*i* sin φ = e^{*i* φ} e+fi =cos (θ + φ) +*i* sin (θ + φ) = e^{*i*(θ + φ)}



Facts about $\omega = e^{2\pi i / n}$ for even n

- $\omega = e^{2\pi i / n}$ for $i = \sqrt{-1}$
- ωⁿ = 1
- ω^{n/2} = -1
- $\omega^{n/2+k} = -\omega^k$ for all values of **k**
- $\omega^2 = e^{2\pi i / m}$ where m=n/2
- ω^k = cos(2kπ/n)+*i* sin(2kπ/n) so can compute with powers of ω
- ω^{k} is a root of $x^{n}-1 = (x-1)(x^{n-1}+x^{n-2}+...+1) = 0$ but for $k \neq 0$, $\omega^{k} \neq 1$ so $\omega^{k(n-1)}+\omega^{k(n-2)}+...+1=0$

The key idea for n even

•
$$P(\omega) = a_0 + a_1 \omega + a_2 \omega^2 + a_3 \omega^3 + a_4 \omega^4 + ... + a_{n-1} \omega^{n-1}$$

 $= a_0 + a_2 \omega^2 + a_4 \omega^4 + ... + a_{n-2} \omega^{n-2}$
 $+ a_1 \omega + a_3 \omega^3 + a_5 \omega^5 + ... + a_{n-1} \omega^{n-1}$
 $= P_{even}(\omega^2) + \omega P_{odd}(\omega^2)$

$$P(-\omega) = a_0 - a_1 \omega + a_2 \omega^2 - a_3 \omega^3 + a_4 \omega^4 - \dots - a_{n-1} \omega^{n-1}$$

$$= a_0 + a_2 \omega^2 + a_4 \omega^4 + \dots + a_{n-2} \omega^{n-2}$$

$$- (a_1 \omega + a_3 \omega^3 + a_5 \omega^5 + \dots + a_{n-1} \omega^{n-1})$$

$$= P_{even}(\omega^2) - \omega P_{odd}(\omega^2)$$
where $P_{even}(x) = a_0 + a_2 x + a_4 x^2 + \dots + a_{n-2} x^{n/2-1}$
and $P_{odd}(x) = a_1 + a_3 x + a_5 x^2 + \dots + a_{n-1} x^{n/2-1}$

The recursive idea for n a power of 2

- Goal:
 - Evaluate P at $1, \omega, \omega^2, \omega^3, \dots, \omega^{n-1}$
- Now
 - Peven and Podd have degree n/2-1 where
 - $P(\omega^k) = P_{even}(\omega^{2k}) + \omega^k P_{odd}(\omega^{2k})$
 - $P(-\omega^k) = P_{even}(\omega^{2k}) \omega^k P_{odd}(\omega^{2k})$
- Recursive Algorithm
 - Evaluate P_{even} at $1, \omega^2, \omega^4, \dots, \omega^{n-2}$
 - Evaluate P_{odd} at $1, \omega^2, \omega^4, \dots, \omega^{n-2}$
 - Combine to compute P at $1, \omega, \omega^2, \dots, \omega^{n/2-1}$
 - Combine to compute P at -1,-ω,-ω²,...,-ω^{n/2-1} (i.e. at ω^{n/2}, ω^{n/2+1}, ω^{n/2+2},..., ωⁿ⁻¹)

 ω^2 is $e^{2\pi i / m}$ where m=n/2 so problems are of same type but smaller size

Analysis and more

- Run-time
 - $T(n)=2 \cdot T(n/2)+cn$ so $T(n)=O(n \log n)$
- So much for evaluation ... what about interpolation?
 - Given

• $r_0 = R(1), r_1 = R(\omega), r_2 = R(\omega^2), ..., r_{n-1} = R(\omega^{n-1})$

Compute

• $C_0, C_1, ..., C_{n-1}$ s.t. $R(x) = C_0 + C_1 x + ... + C_{n-1} x^{n-1}$

Interpolation ≈ Evaluation: strange but true

- Non-obvious fact:
 - If we define a new polynomial $S(x) = r_0 + r_1 x + r_2 x^2 + ... + r_{n-1} x^{n-1}$ where $r_0, r_1, ..., r_{n-1}$ are the evaluations of **R** at **1**, ω , ..., ω^{n-1}
 - Then $c_k = S(\omega^{-k})/n$ for k = 0, ..., n-1
 - Relies on the fact the interpolation (inverse) matrix has jk entry ω^{-(jk)}/n instead of ω^{jk}
- **So**...
 - evaluate S at 1,ω⁻¹,ω⁻²,...,ω⁻⁽ⁿ⁻¹⁾ then divide each answer by n to get the c₀,...,c_{n-1}
 - ω⁻¹ behaves just like ω did so the same O(n log n) evaluation algorithm applies !

Divide and Conquer Summary

- Powerful technique, when applicable
- Divide large problem into a few smaller problems of the same type
- Choosing sub-problems 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, ...

Why this is called the discrete Fourier transform

Real Fourier series

 Given a real valued function f defined on [0,2π] the Fourier series for f is given by f(x)=a₀+a₁ cos(x) + a₂ cos(2x) +...+ a_m cos(mx) +... where

$$\mathbf{a}_{m} = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{0}^{2\pi} f(\mathbf{x}) \cos(m\mathbf{x}) \, d\mathbf{x}$$

- is the component of f of frequency m
- In signal processing and data compression one ignores all but the components with large a_m and there aren't many since

Why this is called the discrete Fourier transform

Complex Fourier series

 Given a function f defined on [0,2π] the complex Fourier series for f is given by f(z)=b₀+b₁ e^{iz} + b₂ e^{2iz} +...+ b_m e^{miz} +...

where $b_m = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{0}^{2\pi} f(z) e^{-miz} dz$

is the component of **f** of frequency **m**

• If we **discretize** this integral using values at n $2\pi/n$ apart equally spaced points between 0 and 2π we get

$$\overline{b}_{m} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} f_{k} e^{-2kmi\pi/n} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} f_{k} \omega^{-km} \text{ where } f_{k} = f(2k\pi/n)$$

just like interpolation!

CSE 421: Introduction to Algorithms

Divide and Conquer Beyond the Master Theorem Median and Quicksort

Paul Beame

Today

Divide and conquer examples

- Simple, randomized median algorithm
 Expected O(n) time
- Not so simple, deterministic median algorithm
 - Worst case O(n) time
- Expected time analysis for Randomized QuickSort
 - Expected O(n log n) time

Order problems: Find the kth smallest

- Runtime models
 - Machine Instructions
 - Comparisons
- Minimum
 - O(n) time
 - n-1 comparisons
- 2nd Smallest
 - O(n) time
 - ? comparisons

Median Problem

- k^{th} smallest for k = n/2
- Easily done in O(n log n) time with sorting
 - How can the problem be solved in O(n) time?

Select(k, n) – find the k-th smallest from a list of length n



- $T(n) = n + T(\alpha n)$ for $\alpha < 1$
- Linear time solution
- Select algorithm in linear time, reduce the problem from selecting the k-th smallest of n values to the j-th smallest of αn values, for α < 1



```
QSelect(k, S)
               Choose element x from S
               S_{I} = \{y \text{ in } S \mid y < x \}
               S_{F} = \{y \text{ in } S \mid y = x \}
              S_{G} = \{y \text{ in } S \mid y > x \}
               if |\mathbf{S}_{\mathbf{I}}| \ge \mathbf{k}
                              return QSelect(\mathbf{k}, \mathbf{S}_{\mathbf{l}})
               else if |\mathbf{S}_{\mathbf{I}}| + |\mathbf{S}_{\mathbf{F}}| \ge \mathbf{k}
                              return x
               else
                              return QSelect(\mathbf{k} - |\mathbf{S}_{\mathbf{I}}| - |\mathbf{S}_{\mathbf{F}}|, \mathbf{S}_{\mathbf{G}})
```

Implementing "Choose an element x"

- Ideally, we would choose an x in the middle, to reduce both sets in half and guarantee progress
- Method 1
 - Select an element at random
- Method 2
 - BFPRT Algorithm
 - Select an element by a complicated, but linear time method that guarantees a good split

Random Selection

Consider a call to QSelect(**k**, **S**), and let **S**' be the elements passed to the recursive call.

With probability at least $\frac{1}{2}$, $|S'| < \frac{3}{4}|S|$



elements of S listed in sorted order

 \Rightarrow On average only 2 recursive calls before the size of S' is at most 3n/4

Expected runtime is O(n)

- Given x, one pass over S to determine S_L, S_E, and S_G and their sizes: cn time.
 - Expect 2cn cost before size of S' drops to at most 3|S|/4
- Let T(n) be the expected running time ■ $T(n) \le T(3n/4) + 2cn$ $\le 2cn + (^{3}/_4) 2cn + (^{3}/_4)^2 2cn + ...$ $\le 2cn (1 + (^{3}/_4) + (^{3}/_4)^2 + ...)$

Making the algorithm deterministic

In O(n) time, find an element that guarantees that the larger set in the split has size at most ³/₄ n

Blum-Floyd-Pratt-Rivest-Tarjan Algorithm

- Divide S into n/5 sets of size 5
- Sort each of these sets of size 5
- Let M be the set of all medians of the sets of size 5
- Let x be the median of M
- **S**_L= { $y \text{ in } S \mid y < x$ }, **S**_G = { $y \text{ in } S \mid y > x$ }
- Claim: $|S_L| < \frac{3}{4} |S|$, $|S_G| < \frac{3}{4} |S|$

BFPRT, Step 1: Construct sets of size 5, sort each set

13, 15, 32, 14, 95, 5, 16, 45, 86, 65, 62, 41, 81, 52, 32, 32, 12, 73, 25, 81, 47, 8, 69, 9, 7, 81, 18, 25, 42, 91, 64, 98, 96, 91, 6, 51, 21, 12, 36, 11, 11, 9, 5, 17, 77

13	5	62	32	47	81	64	51	11
15	16	41	12	8	18	98	21	9
32	45	81	73	69	25	96	12	5
14	86	52	25	9	42	91	36	17
95	65	32	81	7	91	6	11	77

95	86	81	81	69	91	98	51	77
32	65	62	73	47	81	96	36	17
15	45	52	32	9	42	91	21	11
14	16	41	25	8	25	64	12	9
13	5	32	12	7	18	6	11	5

BFPRT, Step 2: Find median of column medians

95	86	81	81	69	91	98	51	77
32	65	62	73	47	81	96	36	17
15	45	52	32	9	42	91	21	11
14	16	41	25	8	25	64	12	9
13	5	32	12	7	18	6	11	5

	95	51	77	69	81	91	98	86	81	
	32	36	17	47	73	81	96	65	62	
	15	21	11	9	32	42	91	45	52	
	14	12	9	8	25	25	64	16	41	
	13	11	5	7	12	18	6	5	32	

BFPRT Recurrence

- Sorting all n/5 lists of size 5
 - c'n time
- Finding median of set M of medians
 - Recursive computation: T(n/5)
- Computing sets S_L, S_E, S_G and S'
 - c''n time
- Solving selection problem on S'
 - Recursive computation: T(3n/4) since $|S'| \le \frac{3}{4} n$

$T(n) \le cn + T(n/5) + T(3n/4)$ is O(n)

- Key property
 - 3/4 + 1/5 < 1 (The sum is 19/20)
- Sum of problem sizes decreases by 19/20 factor per level of recursion
- Overhead per level is linear in the sum of the problem sizes
 - Overhead decreases by 19/20 factor per level of recursion
 - Total overhead is linear (sum of geometric series with constant ratio and linear largest term)



 $\begin{array}{l} \mbox{QuickSort}(\textbf{S}) \\ \mbox{if \textbf{S} is empty, return} \\ \mbox{Choose element \textbf{x} from \textbf{S} "pivot" \\ \mbox{S}_L = \{ \textbf{y} \mbox{ in \textbf{S} | $\textbf{y} < \textbf{x} } \} \\ \mbox{S}_E = \{ \textbf{y} \mbox{ in \textbf{S} | $\textbf{y} < \textbf{x} } \} \\ \mbox{S}_G = \{ \textbf{y} \mbox{ in \textbf{S} | $\textbf{y} > \textbf{x} } \} \\ \mbox{return } [\mbox{QuickSort}(\textbf{S}_L), \mbox{S}_E, \mbox{QuickSort}(\textbf{S}_G)] \\ \end{array}$

QuickSort

- Pivot Selection
 - Choose the median
 - **T**(n) = T(n/2) + T(n/2) + cn, O(n log n)
 - Choose arbitrary element
 - Worst case O(n²)
 - Average case O(n log n)
 - Choose random pivot
 - Expected time O(n log n)

Expected run time for QuickSort: "Global analysis"

- Count comparisons
- a_i, a_j elements in positions i and j in the final sorted list. p_{ij} the probability that a_i and a_j are compared
- Expected number of comparisons:

 $\sum\nolimits_{i < j} p_{ij}$

Lemma: $P_{ij} \le 2/(j - i + 1)$

If a_i and a_j are compared then it must be during the call when they end up in different subproblems

- Before that, they aren't compared to each other

After they aren't compared to each other
 During this step they are only compared if one
 of them is the pivot

Since all elements between a_i and a_j are also in the subproblem this is 2 out of at least j-i+1 choices

Average runtime is 2nln n

$$\begin{split} \sum_{i < j} p_{ij} &\leq \sum_{i < j} 2/(j - i + 1) & \text{write } j = k + i \\ &= 2 \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} \sum_{k=1}^{n-i} 1/(k + 1) \\ &\leq 2 (n - 1) (H_n - 1) \\ \text{where } H_n = 1 + 1/2 + 1/3 + 1/4 + \dots + 1/n \\ &= \ln n + O(1) \end{split}$$

 $\leq 2n \ln n + O(n) \leq 1.387n \log_2 n$