

CSE 417: Algorithms and Computational Complexity

Winter 2007

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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

- Finding & Solving Recurrences

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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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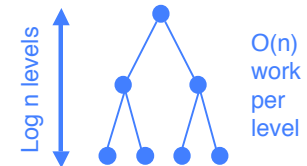
Mergesort (review)

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

$$T(n) = 2T(n/2) + cn, \quad n \geq 2$$

$$T(1) = 0$$

Solution: $O(n \log n)$
(details later)



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Why Balanced Subdivision?

Alternative "divide & conquer" algorithm:

Sort $n-1$

Sort last 1

Merge them

$$T(n) = T(n-1) + T(1) + 3n \quad \text{for } n \geq 2$$

$$T(1) = 0$$

$$\text{Solution: } 3n + 3(n-1) + 3(n-2) \dots = \Theta(n^2)$$

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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: $2(n/2)^2 + n = n^2/2 + n \ll n^2$

Almost twice as fast!

D&C in a nutshell

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Another D&C Approach, cont.

Moral 1: "two halves are better than a whole"

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:

$$(.1n)^2 + (.9n)^2 + n = .82n^2 + n$$

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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5.4 Closest Pair of Points

Closest Pair of Points

Closest pair. Given n points in the plane, find a pair with smallest Euclidean distance between them.

Fundamental geometric primitive.

- Graphics, computer vision, geographic information systems, molecular modeling, air traffic control.
 - Special case of nearest neighbor, Euclidean MST, Voronoi.
- ↑
fast closest pair inspired fast algorithms for these problems

Brute force. Check all pairs of points p and q with $\Theta(n^2)$ comparisons.

1-D version. $O(n \log n)$ easy if points are on a line.

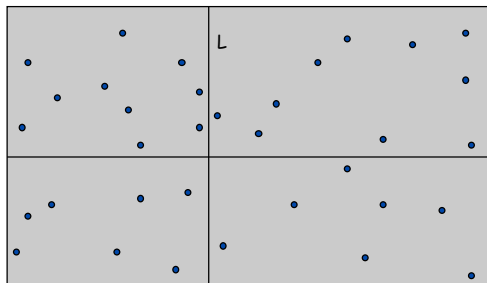
Assumption. No two points have same x coordinate.

↑
to make presentation cleaner

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Closest Pair of Points: First Attempt

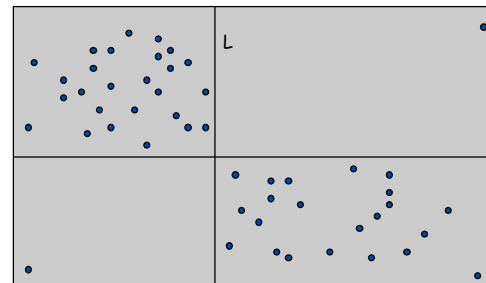
Divide. Sub-divide region into 4 quadrants.



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Closest Pair of Points: First Attempt

Divide. Sub-divide region into 4 quadrants.
Obstacle. Impossible to ensure $n/4$ points in each piece.

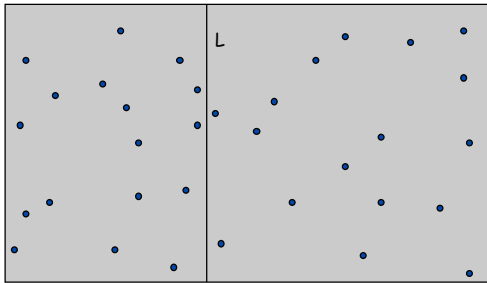


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Closest Pair of Points

Algorithm.

- **Divide:** draw vertical line L so that roughly $\frac{1}{2}n$ points on each side.

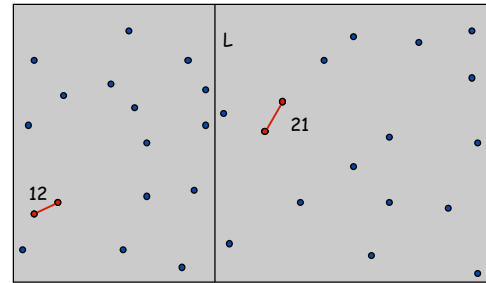


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Closest Pair of Points

Algorithm.

- **Divide:** draw vertical line L so that roughly $\frac{1}{2}n$ points on each side.
- **Conquer:** find closest pair in each side recursively.

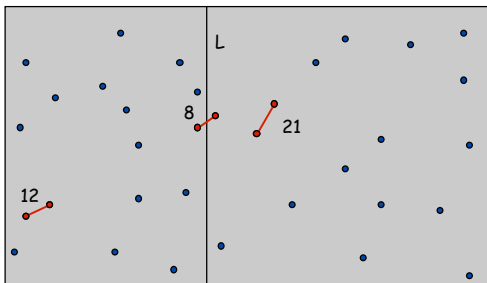


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Closest Pair of Points

Algorithm.

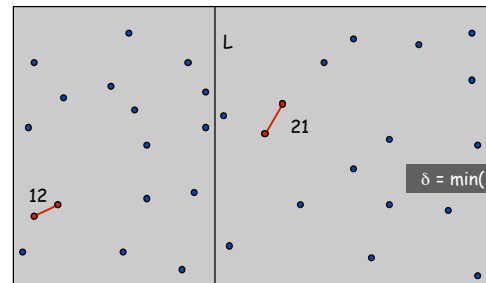
- **Divide:** draw vertical line L so that roughly $\frac{1}{2}n$ points on each side.
- **Conquer:** find closest pair in each side recursively.
- **Combine:** find closest pair with one point in each side. ← seems like $\Theta(n^2)$
- Return best of 3 solutions.



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Closest Pair of Points

Find closest pair with one point in each side, assuming that distance $< \delta$.

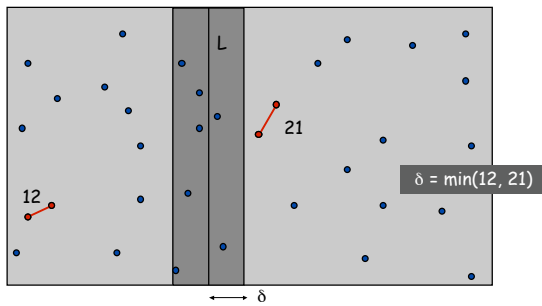


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Closest Pair of Points

Find closest pair with one point in each side, assuming that distance $< \delta$.

- Observation: only need to consider points within δ of line L .

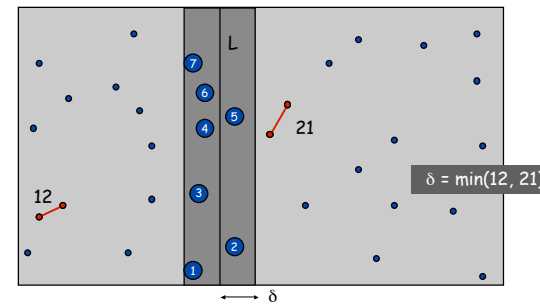


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Closest Pair of Points

Find closest pair with one point in each side, assuming that distance $< \delta$.

- Observation: only need to consider points within δ of line L .
- Sort points in 2δ -strip by their y coordinate.

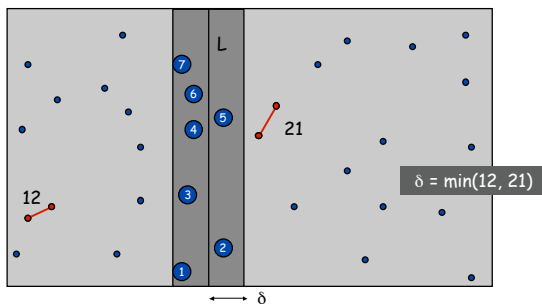


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Closest Pair of Points

Find closest pair with one point in each side, assuming that distance $< \delta$.

- Observation: only need to consider points within δ of line L .
- Sort points in 2δ -strip by their y coordinate.
- Only check distances of those within 11 positions in sorted list!



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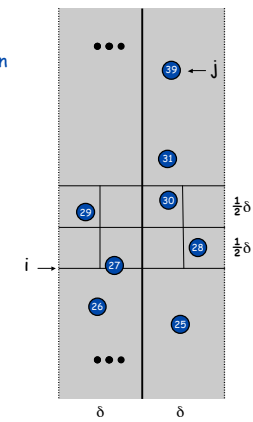
Closest Pair of Points

Def. Let s_i be the point in the 2δ -strip, with the i^{th} smallest y -coordinate.

Claim. If $|i - j| \geq 8$, then the distance between s_i and s_j is at least δ .

Pf.

- No two points lie in same $\frac{1}{2}\delta$ -by- $\frac{1}{2}\delta$ box.
- only 8 boxes



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Closest Pair Algorithm

```

Closest-Pair( $p_1, \dots, p_n$ ) {
  if ( $n \leq ??$ ) return ??

  Compute separation line L such that half the points
  are on one side and half on the other side.

   $\delta_1 = \text{Closest-Pair}(\text{left half})$ 
   $\delta_2 = \text{Closest-Pair}(\text{right half})$ 
   $\delta = \min(\delta_1, \delta_2)$ 

  Delete all points further than  $\delta$  from separation line L

  Sort remaining points  $p[1]..p[m]$  by y-coordinate.

  for  $i = 1..m$ 
     $k = 1$ 
    while  $i+k \leq m$  &&  $p[i+k].y < p[i].y + \delta$ 
       $\delta = \min(\delta, \text{distance between } p[i] \text{ and } p[i+k]);$ 
       $k++;$ 

  return  $\delta$ .
}

```

Going From Code to Recurrence

Carefully define what you're counting, and write it down!

"Let $C(n)$ be the number of comparisons between sort keys used by MergeSort when sorting a list of length $n \geq 1$ "

In code, clearly separate **base case** from **recursive case**, highlight **recursive calls**, and **operations being counted**.

Write Recurrence(s)

Closest Pair Algorithm

```

Closest-Pair( $p_1, \dots, p_n$ ) {
  if ( $n \leq 1$ ) return  $\infty$ 
  Compute separation line L such that half the points
  are on one side and half on the other side.
   $\delta_1 = \text{Closest-Pair}(\text{left half})$ 
   $\delta_2 = \text{Closest-Pair}(\text{right half})$ 
   $\delta = \min(\delta_1, \delta_2)$ 
  Delete all points further than  $\delta$  from separation line L
  Sort remaining points  $p[1]..p[m]$ 
  for  $i = 1..m$ 
     $k = 1$ 
    while  $i+k \leq m$  &&  $p[i+k].y < p[i].y + \delta$ 
       $\delta = \min(\delta, \text{distance between } p[i] \text{ and } p[i+k]);$ 
       $k++;$ 
  return  $\delta$ .
}

```

Base Case

Basic operations: distance calcs

Recursive calls (2)

0

$2T(n/2)$

Basic operations at this recursive level

$O(n)$

Closest Pair of Points: Analysis

Running time.

$$T(n) \leq \begin{cases} 0 & n=1 \\ 2T(n/2) + 7n & n>1 \end{cases} \Rightarrow T(n) = O(n \log n)$$

BUT - that's only the number of distance calculations

Divide-and-Conquer Multiplication: Warmup

To multiply two n -digit integers:

- Multiply four $\frac{1}{2}n$ -digit integers.
- Add two $\frac{1}{2}n$ -digit integers, and shift to obtain result.

$$\begin{aligned}
 x &= 2^{n/2} \cdot x_1 + x_0 \\
 y &= 2^{n/2} \cdot y_1 + y_0 \\
 xy &= (2^{n/2} \cdot x_1 + x_0)(2^{n/2} \cdot y_1 + y_0) \\
 &= 2^n \cdot x_1 y_1 + 2^{n/2} \cdot (x_1 y_0 + x_0 y_1) + x_0 y_0
 \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{array}{r}
 1101 \quad 0101 \quad y_1 y_0 \\
 * 0111 \quad 1101 \quad x_1 x_0 \\
 \hline
 0100 \quad 0001 \quad x_0 y_0 \\
 1010 \quad 1001 \quad x_0 y_1 \\
 0010 \quad 0011 \quad x_1 y_0 \\
 0101 \quad 1011 \quad x_1 y_1 \\
 \hline
 01110 \quad 1000 \quad 0000 \quad 0001
 \end{array}$$

$$T(n) = \underbrace{4T(n/2)}_{\text{recursive calls}} + \underbrace{\Theta(n)}_{\text{add, shift}} \Rightarrow T(n) = \Theta(n^2)$$

↑
assumes n is a power of 2

Key trick: 2 multiplies for the price of 1:

$$\begin{aligned}
 x &= 2^{n/2} \cdot x_1 + x_0 \\
 y &= 2^{n/2} \cdot y_1 + y_0 \\
 xy &= (2^{n/2} \cdot x_1 + x_0)(2^{n/2} \cdot y_1 + y_0) \\
 &= 2^n \cdot x_1 y_1 + 2^{n/2} \cdot (x_1 y_0 + x_0 y_1) + x_0 y_0
 \end{aligned}$$

Well, ok, 4 for 3 is more accurate...

$$\begin{aligned}
 \alpha &= x_1 + x_0 \\
 \beta &= y_1 + y_0 \\
 \alpha\beta &= (x_1 + x_0)(y_1 + y_0) \\
 &= x_1 y_1 + (x_1 y_0 + x_0 y_1) + x_0 y_0 \\
 (x_1 y_0 + x_0 y_1) &= \alpha\beta - x_1 y_1 - x_0 y_0
 \end{aligned}$$

Karatsuba Multiplication

To multiply two n -digit integers:

- Add two $\frac{2}{3}n$ digit integers.
- Multiply **three** $\frac{1}{2}n$ -digit integers.
- Add, subtract, and shift $\frac{2}{3}n$ -digit integers to obtain result.

$$\begin{aligned}
 x &= 2^{n/2} \cdot x_1 + x_0 \\
 y &= 2^{n/2} \cdot y_1 + y_0 \\
 xy &= 2^n \cdot x_1 y_1 + 2^{n/2} \cdot (x_1 y_0 + x_0 y_1) + x_0 y_0 \\
 &= 2^n \cdot x_1 y_1 + 2^{n/2} \cdot ((x_1 + x_0)(y_1 + y_0) - x_1 y_1 - x_0 y_0) + x_0 y_0
 \end{aligned}$$

Theorem. [Karatsuba-Ofman, 1962] Can multiply two n -digit integers in $O(n^{1.585})$ bit operations.

$$T(n) \leq \underbrace{T(\lfloor n/2 \rfloor) + T(\lceil n/2 \rceil) + T(1 + \lfloor n/2 \rfloor)}_{\text{recursive calls}} + \underbrace{\Theta(n)}_{\text{add, subtract, shift}}$$

Sloppy version : $T(n) \leq 3T(n/2) + O(n)$
 $\Rightarrow T(n) = O(n^{\log_{2/3} 3}) = O(n^{1.585})$

Multiplication – The Bottom Line

- Naïve: $\Theta(n^2)$
- Karatsuba: $\Theta(n^{1.59\dots})$
- Amusing exercise: generalize Karatsuba to do 5 size $n/3$ subproblems $\Rightarrow \Theta(n^{1.46\dots})$
- Best known: $\Theta(n \log n \log \log n)$
- "Fast Fourier Transform"
- but mostly unused in practice (unless you need really big numbers - a billion digits of π , say)
- High precision arithmetic IS important for crypto

Recurrences

Where they come from,
how to find them (above)

Next: how to solve them

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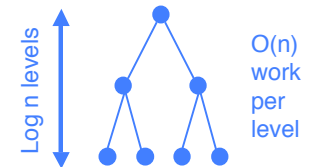
Mergesort (review)

Mergesort: (recursively) sort 2 half-lists, then
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$$T(1) = 0$$

Solution: $\Theta(n \log n)$
(details later) **now**

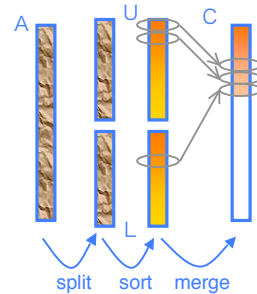


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Merge Sort

```
MS(A: array[1..n]) returns array[1..n] {
  If(n=1) return A[1];
  New U:array[1:n/2] = MS(A[1..n/2]);
  New L:array[1:n/2] = MS(A[n/2+1..n]);
  Return(Merge(U,L));
}

Merge(U,L: array[1..n]) {
  New C: array[1..2n];
  a=1; b=1;
  For i = 1 to 2n
    C[i] = "smaller of U[a], L[b] and correspondingly a++ or b++";
  Return C;
}
```



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Going From Code to Recurrence

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"Let $C(n)$ be the number of comparisons between
sort keys used by MergeSort when sorting a list of
length $n \geq 1$ "

In code, clearly separate *base case* from *recursive case*, highlight *recursive calls*, and *operations being counted*.

Write Recurrence(s)

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Merge Sort

```

MS(A: array[1..n]) returns array[1..n] {
  If(n=1) return A[1];
  New L:array[1:n/2] = MS(A[1..n/2]);
  New R:array[1:n/2] = MS(A[n/2+1..n]);
  Return(Merge(L,R));
}

Merge(A,B: array[1..n]) {
  New C: array[1..2n];
  a=1; b=1;
  For i = 1 to 2n {
    C[i] = "smaller of A[a], B[b] and a++ or b++";
  }
  Return C;
}
  
```

Base Case (points to `If(n=1)`)

Recursive calls (points to `MS(A[1..n/2])` and `MS(A[n/2+1..n])`)

Recursive case (points to `Merge(L,R)`)

Operations being counted (points to the loop in `Merge`)

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The Recurrence

$$C(n) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } n = 1 \\ 2C(n/2) + (n-1) & \text{if } n > 1 \end{cases}$$

Base case (points to $n = 1$)

Recursive calls (points to $2C(n/2)$)

One compare per element added to merged list, except the last. (points to $(n-1)$)

Total time: proportional to $C(n)$
(loops, copying data, parameter passing, etc.)

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

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

Total work: add last col (points to the last column of the table)

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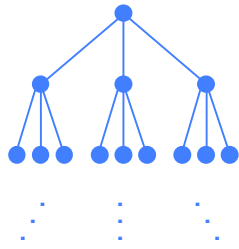
Solve: $T(1) = c$ $T(n) = 4T(n/2) + cn$

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

$$\sum_{i=0}^k 4^i cn/2^i = O(n^2)$$

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



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	$n/2^k=1$	$3^k T(1)$

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

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

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

$$= cn \sum_{i=0}^k 3^i / 2^i$$

$$= cn \sum_{i=0}^k \left(\frac{3}{2}\right)^i$$

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

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

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Solve: $T(1) = c$
 $T(n) = 3 T(n/2) + cn$ (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: $T(1) = c$
 $T(n) = 3 T(n/2) + cn$ (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 $\Theta(n^{\log_b a})$ [many subproblems => leaves dominate]

if $a < b^k$ then $T(n)$ is $\Theta(n^k)$ [few subproblems => top level dominates]

if $a = b^k$ then $T(n)$ is $\Theta(n^k \log n)$ [balanced => all log n levels contribute]

True even if it is $\lceil n/b \rceil$ instead of n/b .

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Another D&C Approach, cont.

Moral 3: unbalanced division less good:

$$(.1n)^2 + (.9n)^2 + n = .82n^2 + n$$

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.

In contrast:

$$(1)^2 + (n-1)^2 + n = n^2 - 2n + 2 + n$$

Little improvement here.

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D & C Summary

“two halves are better than a whole”

if the base algorithm has super-linear complexity.

“If a little's good, then more's better”

repeat above, recursively

Analysis: recursion tree or Master Recurrence

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