

Divide and Conquer Algorithms

CS 4104: Data and Algorithm Analysis

Yoseph Berhanu Alebachew

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Virginia Tech

- 1. Introduction
- 2. Example Problems

Counting Inversions

Closest Pair of Points

Maximum Sub-array

Integer Multiplication

Matrix Multiplications: Strassen's Algorithm

Convolutions and Fast Fourier Transform

3. Conclusion

Introduction

- Divide and conquer refers to a class of algorithmic techniques.
- Process:
 - Break: Divide the input into several parts.
 - Solve: Solve the problem in each part recursively.
 - **Combine:** Combine the solutions to these subproblems into an overall solution.
- Characteristics:
 - Simplicity: Often a straightforward method.
 - Power: Can be a powerful technique for solving complex problems
- Will also become useful when we discuss other design techniques (e.g., Dynamic Programming)

Divide and Conquer: Runtime

- Involves solving a recurrence relation.
- Bounds the running time recursively.
- Analyze in terms of the running time on smaller instances.
- Previous Lectures (Greedy Algorithms):
 - Brute Force Approach: Exponential running time.
 - Greedy Algorithm: Reduced running time to polynomial.
- Divide and Conquer (most of the time):
 - Natural Brute-Force Algorithm: May already be polynomial time.
 - Strategy: Serves to reduce the running time to a lower polynomial.
- For example, the brute-force algorithm for finding the closest pair among n points in the plane would measure all Θ(n²) distances, for a (polynomial) running time of Θ(n²).
- Using divide and conquer will improve the running time to O(nlogn).

- Sorting is a common problem
- As a reminder it is the process of arranging elements in a specific order
- Common orders include numerical and lexicographical.
- Formal Problem Statements:
 - Input: A sequence of n numbers a_1, a_2, \ldots, a_n .
 - Output: A permutation a'_1, a'_2, \ldots, a'_n of the input sequence such that $a'_1 \leq a'_2 \leq \ldots \leq a'_n$.
- Basic algorithms such as Bubble, Insertion and Selection Sort have ${\cal O}(n^2$
- Can we do better? Can we use divide and conquer approach

Algorithm 1 Mergesort

- 1: procedure MERGESORT(A, left, right)
- 2: if left < right then
- 3: mid = (left + right)/2
- 4: MERGESORT(A, left, mid)
- 5: MERGESORT(A, mid + 1, right)
- 6: MERGE(A, left, mid, right)
- 7: end if
- 8: end procedure

Algorithm 2 Mergesort - Merge Procedure

```
1: procedure MERGE(A, left, mid, right)

    procedure MERGE(A, left, mid, nght
    n1 = mid - left + 1
    n2 = right - mid
    for i = 1ton1 do
    for i = A[left + i - 1]
    end for

  8: for j = 1 to n2 do
  9:
             R[j] = A[mid + j]
10: end for
11: i = 1, j = 1
12:
        for k = left to right do
13:
             if i \leq n1 and (j > n2 or L[i] \leq R[j] then
14:
                  A[k] = L[i]
15:
                  i = i + 1
16:
             else
17:
                  A[k] = R[j]
18:
                j = j + 1
19.
             end if
20: end for
21: end procedure
```

• Initial Array:

38 27	43	3	9	82	10
-------	----	---	---	----	----

• Initial Array:

• Split Step 1:



• Initial Array:

• Split Step 1:

• Split Step 2:

• Initial Array:

• Split Step 1:

• Split Step 2:

• Split Step 3:

• Merge Step 1:



• Merge Step 1:

• Merge Step 2:



• Merge Step 1:

• Merge Step 2:

• Merge Step 3:

• Merge Step 1:

• Merge Step 2:

• Merge Step 3:

• Sorted Array:

3 9 10	27 3	38 43	82
--------	------	-------	----

• Correctness:

- Each step of dividing and merging ensures the subarrays are sorted.
- Final merge produces a completely sorted array.
- Merging two sorted lists by picking the smallest item from the head of each list at a time ensures the end result is sorted
- Proof by induction:
 - Base Case: Single element arrays are trivially sorted.
 - Inductive Step: Merging two **sorted** arrays in picking the smallest item from the two heads **maintains** order.
 - Termination: The algorithm terminates when all elements are merged back together

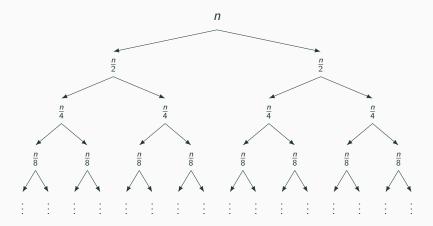
- Recurrence Relation: T(n) = 2T(n/2) + O(n)
 - Divide the array into two halves.
 - Recursively sort each half.
 - Merge the halves in linear time.

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- Solution:
 - Using the Master Theorem (Will discuss later):
 - a = 2, b = 2, f(n) = O(n)
 - T(n) = O(nlogn)
- Time Complexity:
 - Best, Average, and Worst Case: O(nlogn)

- How can we solve for T(n) = 2T(n/2) + n?
 - How to find the asymptotic bound
- Three methods:
 - Recursive Tree
 - Converts the recurrence into a tree.
 - Draw the recursion tree.
 - Sum the costs of all levels.
 - Substation Method
 - Substitute inside the equation
 - Master theorem
 - Check cases and use the rule

• **Example**: Solve T(n) = 2T(n/2) + n.



Question: What patterns can we observe from the tree structure?

• Pattern for
$$T(n) = 2T(n/2) + n$$
.

• Level 0: $2(n) = n = 2^0(n/2^0)$

• Level 1:
$$2(n/2) = n = 2^1(n/2^1)$$

• Level 2:
$$4(n/4) = n = 2^2(n/2^2)$$

• Level 3:
$$8(n/8) = n = 2^3(n/2^3)$$
.

- Level i: $2^{i}(n/2^{i})$.
- Sum the cost at each level
- Lets say the height of the tree is h
 - Then T(n) = h * n

Questions:

- What will be the maximum value of *i* ?
 - What will be the height the tree ?
 - What will be the cost of a node at the leaf ?
 - Poll 2

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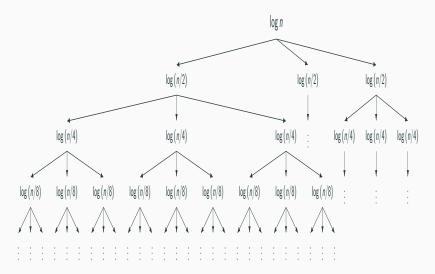
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.

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 - Then T(n) = h * n

Questions:

- What will be the maximum value of *i* ?
 - What will be the height the tree ?
 - What will be the cost of a node at the leaf ?
 - Poll 2 The value of (n/x) becomes 1
- How many leaves will the tree have

• **Example**: Solve $T(n) = 3T(n/2) + \log n$.



- Pattern for $T(n) = 3T(n/2) + \log n$.
 - Level 0: log *n*.
 - Level 1: $3 \cdot \log(n/2)$.
 - Level 2: 3² · log (n/4).
 - Level 3: 3³ · log (n/8).
 - Level i: $3^i \cdot \log(n/2^i)$.
- Sum the cost at each level.
 - Then T(n) is the sum of the costs of all levels.

Questions:

- What will be the maximum value of *i*?
 - What will be the height of the tree?
 - What will be the cost of the node at the leaf?
- How many leaves will the tree have?

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Questions:

- What will be the maximum value of *i*?
 - What will be the height of the tree?
 - What will be the cost of the node at the leaf?
- How many leaves will the tree have?

Poll 3

- Sum up to log *n* levels: $\sum_{i=0}^{\log n} 3^i \log(n/2^i)$.
- Simplify the series to find the overall complexity.

- Given the sum: $\sum_{i=0}^{\log n} 3^i \log \left(\frac{n}{2^i}\right)$.
 - Rewrite the term inside the summation:

$$3^{i} \log\left(\frac{n}{2^{i}}\right) = 3^{i} \log n - 3^{i} i \log 2$$

• Split the sum:

$$\sum_{i=0}^{\log n} 3^i \log n - \sum_{i=0}^{\log n} 3^i i \log 2$$

• Analyze the first sum:

$$\sum_{i=0}^{\log n} 3^i \log n = \log n \sum_{i=0}^{\log n} 3^i$$

• The geometric series sum:

$$\sum_{i=0}^{\log n} 3^i = \frac{3^{\log n+1}-1}{2} \approx \frac{3n^{\log 3}}{2} = O(n^{\log 3})$$

• Therefore:

$$\log n \cdot O(n^{\log 3}) = O(n^{\log 3} \log n)$$

- Analyze the second sum: $\sum_{i=0}^{\log n} 3^i i \log 2 = \log 2 \sum_{i=0}^{\log n} 3^i i$
 - The sum $\sum_{i=0}^{\log n} 3^i i$ is dominated by its largest term when $i \approx \log n$:

$$\sum_{i=0}^{\log n} 3^i i \approx (\log n) 3^{\log n} = (\log n) n^{\log 3}$$

• Therefore:

$$\log 2 \cdot O((\log n)n^{\log 3}) = O((\log n)n^{\log 3})$$

Combining both sums:

$$\sum_{i=0}^{\log n} 3^{i} \log \left(\frac{n}{2^{i}}\right) = O(n^{\log 3} \log n) + O((\log n) n^{\log 3})$$

• The first term dominant so our overall complexity is: $O((\log n)n^{\log 3})$

Substitution Method: Introduction

- The substitution method is used to find asymptotic bounds on recurrence relations.
- Steps:
 - Guess the form of the solution.
 - Use mathematical induction to find constants and show the solution fits.
 - You can use recursion tree to guess the solution

Question:

- Why is guessing the form of the solution important in the substitution method?
- What happens if our initial guess for T(n) is incorrect?

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Question:

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- What happens if our initial guess for T(n) is incorrect?

Substitution Method: Example 1

• Solve
$$T(n) = 2T(n/2) + n$$
.

- Guess: $T(n) = O(n \log n)$.
- Task: Show $T(n) \leq c(n \log n)$.
- Base case: for T(1), can find a constant c such that $T(1) \leq c$.
- Inductive step: assume $T(\frac{k}{2}) \le c\frac{k}{2}\log\frac{k}{2}$ for a $\frac{k}{2} < n$.
- Now show for k that $T(k) \leq c(k \log k)$

$$T(k) = 2T(\frac{k}{2}) + k$$

• Replace $T(\frac{k}{2})$ from our assumption

$$T(k) \leq 2crac{k}{2}\lograc{k}{2}+k$$
 $T(k) \leq ck\log k - ck\log 2 + k$

• Since our base for log is $2 \log 2 = 1$

 $T(k) \leq ck \log k - ck + k$ $T(k) \leq ck \log k - (c - 1)k$ • Notice (c - 1)k is a positive number, therefore

$$T(k) \le ck \log k \Rightarrow T(k) = O(k \log k)$$
¹⁹

Substitution Method: Example 2

• Solve
$$T(n) = 3T(n/3) + n$$
.

- Guess: $T(n) = O(n \log n)$.
- Task: Show $T(n) \leq c(n \log n)$.
- Base case: for T(1), we can find a constant c such that $T(1) \leq c$.
- Inductive step: assume $T(\frac{k}{3}) \le c\frac{k}{3}\log\frac{k}{3}$ for a $\frac{k}{3} < n$.
- Now show for k that $T(k) \leq c(k \log k)$

$$T(k) = 3T(\frac{k}{3}) + k$$

• Replace $T(\frac{k}{3})$ from our assumption

$$T(k) \leq 3crac{k}{3}\lograc{k}{3}+k$$
 $T(k) \leq ck\log k - ck\log 3 + k$

Combine terms:

$$T(k) \leq ck \log k - (c \log 3 - 1)k$$

• Notice $(c \log 3 - 1)k$ is a positive number, therefore

 $T(k) \leq ck \log k \Rightarrow T(k) = O(k \log k)$

Master Theorem: Introduction

• The Master Theorem provides a straightforward way to solve recurrences of the form:

T(n) = aT(n/b) + f(n)

- It applies to divide-and-conquer algorithms where the problem is divided into a subproblems, each of size n/b, and f(n) represents the cost outside the recursive calls.
- Advantages:
 - Provides a quick method to determine the time complexity of recursive algorithms.
 - Helps in identifying the dominant term in the recurrence.
- Limitations:
 - Not applicable to all types of recurrences, especially those with non-polynomial f(n).
 - Assumes that the recurrence divides the problem into equal-sized subproblems.

Master Theorem

• For $a \ge 1$ and b > 1 in a recursion of the form

$$T(n) = aT(n/b) + f(n)$$

- Master defines three cases:
 - If $f(n) = O(n^{\log_b a})$, then $T(n) = O(n^{\log_b a})$.
 - If $f(n) = \Theta(n^{\log_b a})$, then $T(n) = O(n^{\log_b a} \log n)$.
 - If f(n) = Ω(n^{log_b a}), and if af(n/b) ≤ kf(n) for some k < 1 and sufficiently large n, then T(n) = O(f(n)).
- Important considerations:
 - The function f(n) must be *polynomially* bounded.
 - The Master Theorem does not apply if f(n) is not in the form of $O(n^c)$.
 - More generally the function f(n) should be positive and asymptotically non-decreasing.

Master Theorem: Examples

- Solve T(n) = 2T(n/2) + n.
 - Here, a = 2, b = 2, and f(n) = n.
 - $\log_b a = \log_2 2 = 1$
 - Compare f(n) = n with $n^{\log_b a} = n^1$
 - Case 2: $f(n) = O(n^{\log_b a})$
 - Therefore, $T(n) = O(n \log n)$.
- Solve $T(n) = 3T(n/4) + \log n$.
 - Here, a = 3, b = 4, and $f(n) = \log n$.
 - $\log_b a = \log_4 3 \approx 0.792$
 - Compare $f(n) = \log n$ with $n^{\log_b a} = n^{0.792}$
 - Case 1: $f(n) = O(n^{\log_b a})$
 - Therefore, $T(n) = O(n^{\log_b a}) = O(n^{0.792}).$

Master Theorem: Examples

- Solve $T(n) = 4T(n/2) + n^2$.
 - Here, a = 4, b = 2, and $f(n) = n^2$.
 - $\log_b a = \log_2 4 = 2$
 - Compare $f(n) = n^2$ with $n^{\log_b a} = n^2$
 - Case 2: $f(n) = \Theta(n^{\log_b a})$
 - Therefore, $T(n) = O(n^{\log_b a} \log n) = O(n^2 \log n)$.

• Solve
$$T(n) = 3T(n/2) + n^3$$
.

- Here, a = 3, b = 2, and $f(n) = n^3$.
- $\log_b a = \log_2 3 \approx 1.585$
- Compare $f(n) = n^3$ with $n^{\log_b a} = n^{1.585}$
- **Case 3**: $f(n) = \Omega(n^{\log_b a})$
- Also, af(n/b) ≤ kf(n) for some k < 1
- Therefore, $T(n) = O(f(n)) = O(n^3)$.

Example Problems

Counting Inversions: The Problem

- An inversion in an array A[1...n] is a pair of indices (i, j) such that i < j and A[i] > A[j].
- The problem is to count the number of inversions in the array.
- Inversions indicate how far the array is from being sorted.
- Consider the array *A* = [2, 4, 1, 3, 5]
- The inversions are:
 - (2,1)
 - (4,1)
 - (4,3)
- Thus, the total number of inversions is 3.
- How many inversion does the array *A* = [2, 6, 4, 3, 8, 11] ?
 - Answer: $3 \Rightarrow (6, 4), (6, 3), (4, 3)$

Question: How many inversions does a completely sorted array have?

Counting Inversions: Brute-force solution

• A simple approach is to use a nested loop to count all inversions.

```
1: count = 0

2: for i = 1 to n - 1 do

3: for j = i + 1 to n do

4: if A[i] > A[j] then

5: count = count + 1

6: end if

7: end for

8: end for

9:

10: return count
```

Question: What is the time complexity of this brute-force solution? Poll 5

Counting Inversions: Brute-force solution

• A simple approach is to use a nested loop to count all inversions.

Algorithm 4	Brute-force	Inversion Count
-------------	-------------	-----------------

```
1: count = 0

2: for i = 1 to n - 1 do

3: for j = i + 1 to n do

4: if A[i] > A[j] then

5: count = count + 1

6: end if

7: end for

8: end for

9:

10: return count
```

Question: What is the time complexity of this brute-force solution? Poll 5

- We can use a divide-and-conquer approach, similar to merge sort, to count inversions more efficiently.
- The idea is to:
 - Divide the array into two halves.
 - Count the inversions in each half.
 - Count the inversions that cross the two halves.
- This approach can reduce the time complexity significantly.

Question: What if we use merge sort as is and count the number of time we picked the item from the right halve on the merge step ? Pall 6

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Algorithm 5 Counting Inversions

- 1: function COUNTINGINVERSIONS(arr, n)
- 2: return mergeSort(arr, 0, n-1)
- 3: function mergeSortCountInversion(arr, left, right)

```
4: inv = 0
```

5: if left ; right then

```
6: mid = (left + right) // 2
```

```
7: inv += mergeSortCountInversion(arr, left, mid)
```

```
8: inv += mergeSortCountInversion(arr, mid + 1, right)
```

```
9: inv += MERGE(arr, left, mid, right)
```

```
10: end if
```

```
11: return inv
```

Counting Inversions: Pseudo-code

Algorithm 6 Merge Initialization

```
1:
      function MERGE(arr, left, mid, right)
 i = left, j = mid + 1, inv = 0
      while i < mid and j < right do
          if arr[i] < arr[j] then
                 i = i + 1
           else
                 temp = arr[j]
                 shift arr[i:j-1] right
                 arr[i] = temp
10:
                 inv += (mid - i + 1)
11:
                 i = i + 1
12:
                 mid = mid + 1
13:
                 j = j + 1
14:
           end if
15:
      end while
16:
      while j < right do
17:
               temp = arr[j]
18:
               shift arr[i:j-1] right
19:
               arr[i] = temp
20:
               inv\_count += (mid - i + 1)
21:
22:
               i = i + 1
               mid = mid + 1
23:
              j = j + 1
24: end while
25:
         return inv_count
```

• Consider the array A = [2, 4, 1, 3, 5]

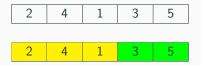
Counting Inversions: Example

- Consider the array A = [2, 4, 1, 3, 5]
- Initial array:

2 4	1	3	5
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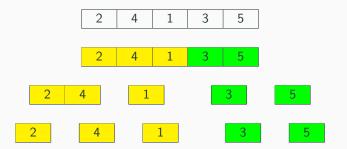
Counting Inversions: Example

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Counting Inversions: Example

- Consider the array A = [2, 4, 1, 3, 5]
- Initial array:























- The divide-and-conquer algorithm correctly counts inversions because:
 - It divides the array into two halves and counts inversions in each half.
 - It counts the inversions that cross the two halves during the merge step.
- The correctness follows from the correctness of merge sort, where each element is compared and merged correctly.

- The time complexity of the divide-and-conquer algorithm can be analyzed as follows:
 - The recurrence relation is T(n) = 2T(n/2) + O(n).
 - This is the same as merge sort, which solves to $T(n) = O(n \log n)$.
- Therefore, the running time of the inversion counting algorithm is $O(n \log n)$.

Question: How does the time complexity of the divide-and-conquer approach compare to the brute-force solution?

Counting Inversions: Applications

- Sorting and Order Statistics:
 - Counting inversions can measure how far an array is from being sorted.
 - Useful in evaluating and improving sorting algorithms.
- Genome Analysis:
 - In bioinformatics, counting inversions helps in genome rearrangement problems.
 - Used to study the evolutionary distance between species by comparing genome sequences.
- Rank Correlation:
 - Spearman's footrule and Kendall's tau distance between two rankings can be computed using inversion count.
 - Important in statistics for comparing ranked lists.
- Network Theory:
 - Inversions can help analyze network reliability and failure rates.
 - Used to study the robustness of network topologies.
- In Economics:
 - Counting inversions can model and analyze discrepancies in economic indicators.

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- Given a set of points in a plane, find the pair of points with the minimum Euclidean distance between them.
- Input: A set of points $P = \{(x_1, y_1), (x_2, y_2), \dots, (x_n, y_n)\}.$
- **Output:** The pair of points (p_1, p_2) such that the distance $d(p_1, p_2)$ is minimized.
- Applications:
 - Computational geometry problems.
 - Pattern recognition and clustering.
 - Network design and layout optimization.

• Algorithm:

- Initialize *min_dist* to infinity.
- For each pair of points (p_i, p_j) in the set P:
 - Compute the distance $d(p_i, p_j)$.
 - If $d(p_i, p_j) < min_dist$, update min_dist and the closest pair.
- Time Complexity: $O(n^2)$.
- This solution checks all possible pairs, making it inefficient for large datasets.

- The divide-and-conquer approach improves efficiency.
- Steps:
 - Sort the points by their x-coordinates.
 - Recursively find the closest pair in the left and right halves.
 - Find the closest pair that straddles the dividing line.
 - Combine these results to find the overall closest pair.
- **Time Complexity:** $O(n \log n)$.

Closest Pair of Points: Pseudo-code

Algorithm 7 Closest Pair of Points

- 1: function CLOSESTPAIR(P)
- 2: Sort P by x-coordinates
- 3: return CLOSESTPAIRREC(P)

4:

- 5: function CLOSESTPAIRREC(P)
- 6: if length(P) \leq 3 then
- 7: return BRUTEFORCE(P)

8: end if

```
9: mid = length(P) / 2
```

```
10: L = P[1 \dots mid]
```

- 11: $R = P[mid + 1 \dots end]$
- 12: $(p_1, q_1) = \text{CLOSESTPAIRREC}(L)$
- 13: $(p_2, q_2) = \text{CLOSESTPAIRREC}(R)$
- 14: $\delta = \min(d(p_1, q_1), d(p_2, q_2))$
- 15: $M = \text{points in } P \text{ within } \delta \text{ of the dividing line}$
- 16: $(p_3, q_3) = \text{CLOSESTSPLITPAIR}(M, \delta)$
- 17: return the pair with the smallest distance among (p_1, q_1) , (p_2, q_2) , and (p_3, q_3)

```
function CLOSESTSPLITPAIR(M, \delta)
  Sort M by y-coordinates
  best = \delta
  best_pair = (nil, nil)
for i = 1 to length(M) do
  for i = i + 1 to min(i + 7, length(M)) do
    if d(M[i], M[i]) < best then
            best = d(M[i], M[j])
            best_pair = (M[i], M[i])
    end if
  end for
end for
  return best_pair
```

If there are less than 3 points Compare the distance using the brute-force algorithm

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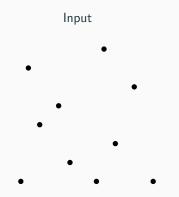


If there are less than 3 points Compare the distance using the brute-force algorithm



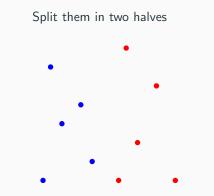
This has a constant time complexity (three comparison)

Closest Pair of Points: Visual Explanation

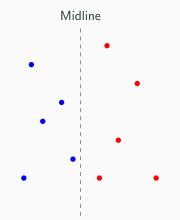


Sort the points based on their x value

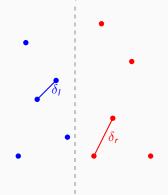




Closest Pair of Points: Visual Explanation

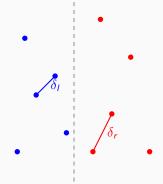


Find closest pairs in each half (done through a recursive call)

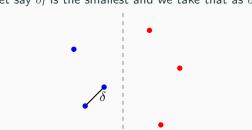


Closest Pair of Points: Visual Explanation



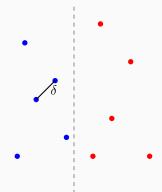


Closest Pair of Points: Visual Explanation

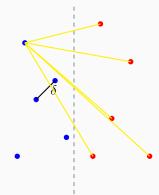


Let say δ_l is the smallest and we take that as δ

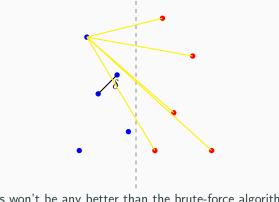
Check if there is a pair that has a smaller distance than δ that has a point in each of the halves



The naive way to do this is, to pair every point in one half with all points in the other and check the distance is lower than δ

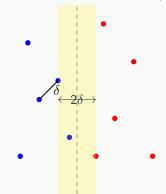


The naive way to do this is, to pair every point in one half with all points in the other and check the distance is lower than δ

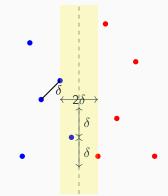


This won't be any better than the brute-force algorithm

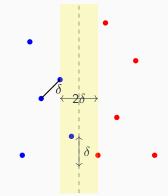
Notice we really don't need to check for points that are more than δ away from the midpoint (x-value)



Even within this band, for a point we only need to check it's pairing to points that are a maximum of δ away in their y-value

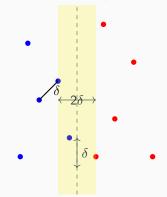


If we sort the points within this band by their y-value, for each point, we only need to check the points within δ distance in one direction

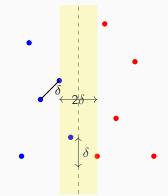


Closest Pair of Points: Visual Explanation

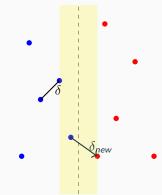
How will this reduce the number of points we need tp check ?



Closest Pair of Points: Visual Explanation



Claim: with these constraints, we only need to check a maximum of 6 points for each point in the band? This makes comparing crossing points a constant time operation, per point Meaning the upper bound of this operation will be O(n) If we find a smaller distance, this new pair will be our closest pair of points at this level of the recursion



- How did the divide and conquer improve the runtime?
- Notice how the actual check is still a brute force method
- What changed is the candidates we need to consider at each step
- How did the approach help us reduce the brute force checks we make ?
 - By having the smallest distance in both halves, it gave us a cut-off point to remove most of the point from consideration

- The divide-and-conquer algorithm correctly finds the closest pair of points.
- The correctness follows from:
 - The correctness of the recursive calls to find the closest pairs in the left and right halves.
 - The correctness of the merge step to find the closest split pair.
 - Ensuring that all potential closest pairs are considered.

Question: Why does the merge step only consider points within δ of the dividing line?

- The time complexity of the divide-and-conquer algorithm can be analyzed as follows:
 - Sorting the points by x-coordinates takes $O(n \log n)$.
 - The recursive calls each handle half the points, leading to 2T(n/2).
 - The merge step takes O(n) time.
- The recurrence relation is T(n) = 2T(n/2) + O(n).
- Solving this using the Master Theorem gives $T(n) = O(n \log n)$.
- Therefore, the running time of the closest pair of points algorithm is $O(n \log n)$.

Question: How does the time complexity of the divide-and-conquer approach compare to the brute-force solution?

• Computational Geometry:

- Widely used in geometric computations and computer graphics.
- Astronomy:
 - Finding the closest stars or celestial objects in space.
- Geographical Information Systems (GIS):
 - Finding the closest facilities (e.g., hospitals, schools) to a given location.
- Networking:
 - Optimizing the layout of network nodes to minimize latency.
- Clustering:
 - Used as a subroutine in clustering algorithms to group points based on proximity.

- Given an array of integers, find the contiguous sub-array (containing at least one number) which has the largest sum.
- Example: For the array [-2, 1, -3, 4, -1, 2, 1, -5, 4], the contiguous sub-array with the largest sum is [4, -1, 2, 1] with sum 6.

• The sub-array [4, -1, 2, 1] has the largest sum, which is 6.

Maximum Sub-array: Brute-force Approach

- The naive approach involves checking all possible sub-array.
 - Initialize a variable max_sum to negative infinity.
 - Iterate through each sub-array and calculate its sum.
 - Update *max_sum* if the current sub-array sum is greater.

Algorithm 8 Brute-force Maximum Sub-array

Require: Array *arr* of length *n*

```
1: max sum \leftarrow -\infty
 2. for i \leftarrow 0 to n-1 do
 3:
        for i \leftarrow i to n-1 do
 4:
          current\_sum \leftarrow 0
 5:
           for k \leftarrow i to j do
 6:
               current\_sum \leftarrow current\_sum + arr[k]
 7.
            end for
 8:
            max\_sum \leftarrow max(max\_sum, current\_sum)
 g٠
        end for
10: end for
11: return max_sum
```

• Time Complexity: $O(n^3)$, where *n* is the length of the array.

- The Divide and Conquer approach splits the array into two halves and recursively finds the maximum sub-array sum.
- Algorithm:
 - Divide the array into two halves.
 - Recursively find the maximum sub-array sum in the left half and right half.
 - Find the maximum sub-array sum that crosses the midpoint.
 - Return the maximum of the three sums.

Algorithm 9 Divide and Conquer Maximum Sub-array

Require: Array arr of length n

Ensure: Maximum sub-array sum

- 1: if n = 1 then
- 2: return arr[0]
- 3: end if
- 4: $mid \leftarrow \lfloor n/2 \rfloor$
- 5: $left_max \leftarrow max_subarray(arr, 0, mid 1)$
- 6: $right_max \leftarrow max_subarray(arr, mid, n-1)$
- 7: $cross_max \leftarrow max_crossing_subarray(arr, 0, mid, n 1)$
- 8: return max(*left_max*, *right_max*, *cross_max*)

Maximum Sub-array: Max Crossing Sub-array Pseudo-code

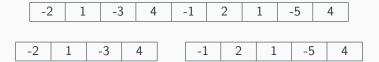
Algorithm 10 Max Crossing Sub-array

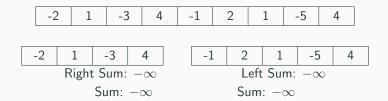
Require: Array arr, indices low, mid, high

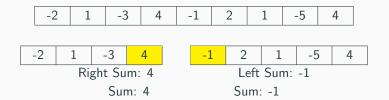
Ensure: Maximum sub-array sum that crosses the midpoint

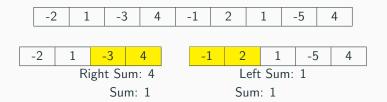
```
1: left sum \leftarrow -\infty
 2. sum \leftarrow 0
 3: for i \leftarrow mid to low step -1 do
    sum \leftarrow sum + arr[i]
 4:
 5: if sum > left_sum then
 6·
      left\_sum \leftarrow sum
 7.
       end if
 8: end for
 9: right_sum \leftarrow -\infty
10: sum \leftarrow 0
11: for i \leftarrow mid + 1 to high do
12: sum \leftarrow sum + arr[j]
13: if sum > right_sum then
14:
      right\_sum \leftarrow sum
15
       end if
16: end for
17: return left_sum + right_sum
```

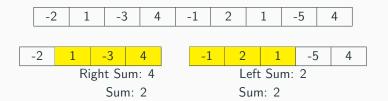
-2	1	-3	4	-1	2	1	-5	4

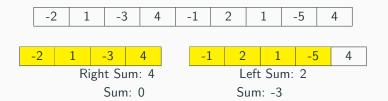


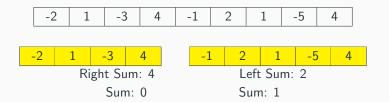


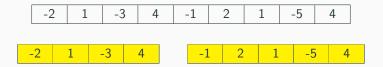




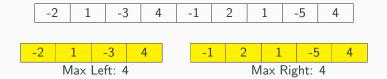




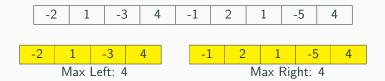




Max Crossing: 4 + 2 = 6



Max Crossing: 4 + 2 = 6



Max Crossing: 4 + 2 = 6Max Sub-array : 6

- The correctness of the Divide and Conquer approach follows from:
 - The maximum subarray sum must be in the left half, the right half, or cross the midpoint.
 - The algorithm correctly identifies the maximum sum in each of these cases.
 - By combining the results, the approach guarantees the correct maximum subarray sum.

Question: Why does the algorithm consider the cross sum?

- Kadane's Algorithm provides an efficient way to solve the Maximum Subarray problem.
- Algorithm:
 - Initialize two variables: *max_so_far* to negative infinity and *max_ending_here* to 0.
 - Iterate through the array.
 - At each element, add the element to *max_ending_here*.
 - If *max_ending_here* is greater than *max_so_far*, update *max_so_far*.
 - If max_ending_here is less than 0, reset it to 0.
- **Time Complexity:** O(n), where *n* is the length of the array.

Algorithm 11 Kadane's Algorithm

Require: Array arr of length n

Ensure: Maximum subarray sum

- 1: $max_so_far \leftarrow -\infty$
- 2: $max_ending_here \leftarrow 0$
- 3: for $i \leftarrow 0$ to n-1 do
- 4: $max_ending_here \leftarrow max_ending_here + arr[i]$
- 5: **if** *max_so_far* < *max_ending_here* **then**
- 6: $max_so_far \leftarrow max_ending_here$

7: end if

- 8: **if** *max_ending_here* < 0 **then**
- 9: $max_ending_here \leftarrow 0$
- 10: end if

11: end for

12: **return** *max_so_far*

Maximum Subarray: Correctness

- Assume the algorithm does not find the maximum subarray sum.
- Let *max_so_far* be the maximum sum found by Kadane's Algorithm, and let *S* be the actual maximum subarray sum.
- If max_so_far ≠ S, then there exists a subarray with a sum greater than max_so_far.
- Kadane's Algorithm updates *max_so_far* whenever *max_ending_here* exceeds the current *max_so_far*.
- This means Kadane's Algorithm would have updated *max_so_far* to *S* when encountering the subarray with sum *S*.
- Therefore, *max_so_far* should have been updated to *S*, contradicting the assumption.
- Hence, *max_so_far* = *S*, and Kadane's Algorithm correctly finds the maximum subarray sum.

- The Divide and Conquer approach has a time complexity of $O(n \log n)$.
- The steps include:
 - Dividing the array: $O(\log n)$ levels of recursion.
 - Finding the maximum sum in each half: O(n) at each level.
- Overall, the algorithm is more efficient than the naive approach for large arrays.
- Kadane's Algorithm, on the other hand, runs in linear time O(n), making it the most efficient solution for this problem.

Question: How does Kadane's Algorithm improve upon the Divide and Conquer approach in terms of complexity and implementation?

• Financial Analysis:

- Identifying the period with the maximum profit in stock price changes.
- Example: Finding the period during which a stock's price increased the most.
- Genomics:
 - Analyzing DNA sequences to find regions with significant activity or patterns.
 - Example: Identifying the most active region in a sequence of gene expression data.
- Signal Processing:
 - Detecting the period with the highest signal strength in time-series data.
 - Example: Finding the time interval with the strongest signal in an audio recording.

• Image Processing:

- Locating the region with the highest intensity in an image.
- Example: Detecting the brightest spot in a satellite image.

• Computer Graphics:

- Enhancing regions in a graphical representation.
- Example: Highlighting areas in a graph with the highest concentration of data points.

• Gaming:

- Calculating the highest score achieved in a game session.
- Example: Identifying the period during which the player accumulated the highest score.

- The problem we consider is an extremely basic one: the multiplication of two integers.
- In a sense, this problem is so basic that one may not initially think of it even as an algorithmic question.
- But, in fact, elementary schoolers are taught a concrete (and quite efficient) algorithm to multiply two n-digit numbers x and y.
- You first compute a "partial product" by multiplying each digit of y separately by x, and then you add up all the partial products.
- This works for both base-10 and base-2 (i.e., binary) the same.
- The total running time for this algorithm is $O(n^2)$.
 - It takes O(n) time to compute each partial product.
 - There are *n* partial products.

Decimal Multiplication	Binary Multiplication
2384	1011
×7433	×1101
7152	1011
71520	0000
9536 <i>00</i>	1011 <i>00</i>
16688 <i>000</i>	1011 <i>000</i>
17720272	1000111111

- One approach to improve the running time of integer multiplication is using a divide and conquer algorithm.
- Karatsuba algorithm is a famous example of this technique:
 - 1. Split each number into two halves.
 - 2. Multiply the parts recursively.
 - 3. Combine the results to get the final product.
- In practice, the performance improvement is only worth it if the number is large enough

Algorithm 12 Karatsuba Algorithm
Require: Two integers x and y
1: if $x < 10$ or $y < 10$ then
2: return $x \times y$
3: end if
4: $n \leftarrow \max(\text{size of } x, \text{size of } y)$
5: $m \leftarrow \lceil n/2 \rceil$
6: $high_1, low_1 \leftarrow split_at(x, m)$
7: $high_2, low_2 \leftarrow split_at(y, m)$
8: $z_0 \leftarrow Karatsuba(\mathit{low}_1, \mathit{low}_2)$
9: $z_1 \leftarrow Karatsuba(\mathit{low}_1 + \mathit{high}_1, \mathit{low}_2 + \mathit{high}_2)$
10: $z_2 \leftarrow Karatsuba(high_1, high_2)$
11: return $(z_2 \times 10^{2 \times m}) + ((z_1 - z_2 - z_0) \times 10^m) + z_0$

Integer Multiplication: Karatsuba Algorithm Example

Step 1: Split the numbers

$$x = 43921 \Rightarrow high_1 = 439, low_1 = 21$$

$$y = 19543 \Rightarrow high_2 = 195, low_2 = 43$$

Step 2: Compute z_0, z_1, z_2

$$egin{aligned} z_0 &= \mathsf{Karatsuba}(21,43)
ightarrow 903 \ z_1 &= \mathsf{Karatsuba}(460,238)
ightarrow 109480 \ z_2 &= \mathsf{Karatsuba}(439,195)
ightarrow 85605 \end{aligned}$$

Step 3: Combine the results

$$m = \lfloor 5/3 \rfloor$$

$$z_1 - z_2 - z_0 = 109480 - 85605 - 903 = 22972$$
Result = $(z_2 \times 10^{2 \times 2}) + ((z_1 - z_2 - z_0) \times 10^2) + z_0$
= $(85605 \times 10^4) + (22972 \times 10^2) + 903$
= $856050000 + 2297200 + 903$
= 858348103

Integer Multiplication: Karatsuba Algorithm Example

Step 2.1: Compute *z*₀**:** *Karatsuba*(21, 43)

$$21 \Rightarrow high_1 = 2, low_1 = 1$$

$$43 \Rightarrow high_2 = 4, low_2 = 3$$

$$z_0 = (2 \times 4 \times 10^{2 \times 1}) + ((2+1)(4+3) - 2 \times 4 - 1 \times 3) \times 10^1 + (1 \times 3)$$

$$= 903$$

Step 2.2: Compute *z*₁**:** *Karatsuba*(460, 238)

$$460 \Rightarrow high_1 = 46, low_1 = 0$$
$$238 \Rightarrow high_2 = 23, low_2 = 8$$
$$z_1 = 109480$$

Step 2.3: Compute *z*₂**:** *Karatsuba*(439, 195)

$$439 \Rightarrow high_1 = 43, low_1 = 9$$
$$195 \Rightarrow high_2 = 19, low_2 = 5$$
$$z_2 = 85605$$

- Naive algorithm runtime: $O(n^2)$.
- The runtime recurrence: T(n) = 3T(n/2) + O(n)
- Karatsuba algorithm runtime: $O(n^{\log_2 3}) \approx O(n^{1.585})$.
- Other algorithms:
 - Toom-Cook multiplication: $O(n^{1.465})$.
 - Schönhage-Strassen algorithm: $O(n \log n \log \log n)$.
 - Fastest known algorithm (Fürer's algorithm): $O(n \log n2^{O(\log^* n)})$.
- Each algorithm provides different trade-offs in terms of implementation complexity and performance.

- Integer multiplication is a fundamental problem with various algorithmic solutions.
- The naive approach is simple but less efficient for large numbers.
- Advanced algorithms like Karatsuba, Toom-Cook, and Schönhage-Strassen offer better performance.
- Understanding these algorithms provides insight into algorithm design and optimization techniques.

- Given two $n \times n$ matrices A and B, compute the product matrix $C = A \times B$.
- Traditional matrix multiplication algorithm runs in $O(n^3)$ time.
- Can we use divide and conquer to improve the performance ?

Strassen's Algorithm: Idea

- Strassen's algorithm breaks down one n × n matrix multiplication into seven ⁿ/₂ × ⁿ/₂ matrix multiplications.
- This reduces the number of multiplications required compared to the traditional algorithm.
- The algorithm uses the following key identities to achieve this:

$$M_{1} = (A_{11} + A_{22})(B_{11} + B_{22})$$

$$M_{2} = (A_{21} + A_{22})B_{11}$$

$$M_{3} = A_{11}(B_{12} - B_{22})$$

$$M_{4} = A_{22}(B_{21} - B_{11})$$

$$M_{5} = (A_{11} + A_{12})B_{22}$$

$$M_{6} = (A_{21} - A_{11})(B_{11} + B_{12})$$

$$M_{7} = (A_{12} - A_{22})(B_{21} + B_{22})$$

• The resultant submatrices are then combined to form the final product matrix.

$$C_{11} = M_1 + M_4 - M_5 + M_7$$

$$C_{12} = M_3 + M_5$$

$$C_{21} = M_2 + M_4$$

$$C_{22} = M_1 - M_2 + M_3 + M_6$$

Algorithm 13 Strassen's Algorithm

Require: Two $n \times n$ matrices A and B **Ensure:** Product matrix $C = A \times B$ 1: if n == 1 then 2: re 3: end if return $C = A \times B$ 4: Partition A and B into four submatrices of size $\frac{n}{2} \times \frac{n}{2}$ 5: Compute the seven products using Strassen's identities: 6: $M_1 = (A_{11} + A_{22})(B_{11} + B_{22})$ 7: $M_2 = (A_{21} + A_{22})B_{11}$ 8: $M_3 = A_{11}(B_{12} - B_{22})$ 9: $M_4 = A_{22}(B_{21} - B_{11})$ 10: $M_5 = (A_{11} + A_{12})B_{22}$ 11: $M_6 = (A_{21} - A_{11})(B_{11} + B_{12})$ 12: $M_7 = (A_{12} - A_{22})(B_{21} + B_{22})$ 13: Compute the resulting submatrices: 14: $C_{11} = M_1 + M_4 - M_5 + M_7$ 15: $C_{12} = M_3 + M_5$ 16: $C_{21} = M_2 + M_4$ 17: $C_{22} = M_1 - M_2 + M_3 + M_6$ 18: Combine C11, C12, C21, C22 into the final matrix C 19: return C

Strassen's Algorithm: Example

Example: Multiply two 2x2 matrices using Strassen's algorithm

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 3 \\ 7 & 5 \end{pmatrix}, \quad B = \begin{pmatrix} 6 & 8 \\ 4 & 2 \end{pmatrix}$$

• Compute the seven products:

$$M_{1} = (1+5)(6+2) = 6 \times 8 = 48$$

$$M_{2} = (7+5)6 = 12 \times 6 = 72$$

$$M_{3} = 1(8-2) = 1 \times 6 = 6$$

$$M_{4} = 5(4-6) = 5 \times (-2) = -10$$

$$M_{5} = (1+3)2 = 4 \times 2 = 8$$

$$M_{6} = (7-1)(6+8) = 6 \times 14 = 84$$

$$M_{7} = (3-5)(4+2) = -2 \times 6 = -12$$

Strassen's Algorithm: Example

• Compute the resulting submatrices:

$$C_{11} = M_1 + M_4 - M_5 + M_7 = 48 - 10 - 8 - 12 = 18$$

$$C_{12} = M_3 + M_5 = 6 + 8 = 14$$

$$C_{21} = M_2 + M_4 = 72 - 10 = 62$$

$$C_{22} = M_1 - M_2 + M_3 + M_6 = 48 - 72 + 6 + 84 = 66$$

• Combine the submatrices into the final matrix:

$$C = \begin{pmatrix} 18 & 14 \\ 62 & 66 \end{pmatrix}$$

Strassen's Algorithm: Runtime

- The traditional matrix multiplication algorithm runs in $O(n^3)$ time.
- Strassen's algorithm divides each $n \times n$ matrix into four $\frac{n}{2} \times \frac{n}{2}$ submatrices.
- Performs seven recursive multiplications on these submatrices.
- Additionally, performs a constant number of matrix additions and subtractions, each taking $O(n^2)$ time.

$$T(n) = 7T\left(\frac{n}{2}\right) + O(n^2)$$

- Strassen's algorithm reduces the time complexity to approximately $O(n^{2.81})$.
- This is achieved by reducing the number of recursive multiplications from 8 to 7.
- The improved runtime comes at the cost of additional additions and subtractions.

- Strassen's algorithm demonstrates that matrix multiplication can be performed more efficiently than the traditional $O(n^3)$ approach.
- It laid the groundwork for further research in fast matrix multiplication algorithms.
- Practical implementations need to consider the trade-offs between reduced multiplication operations and increased addition/subtraction operations.
- Strassen's algorithm is especially useful for large matrices where the reduction in multiplication operations significantly improves performance.

- Given two vectors a = (a₀, a₁,..., a_{n-1}) and b = (b₀, b₁,..., b_{n-1}), there are a number of common ways of combining them.
 - One can compute the sum, producing the vector $a + b = (a_0 + b_0, a_1 + b_1, \dots, a_{n-1} + b_{n-1}).$
 - One can compute the inner product, producing the real number $a \cdot b = a_0 b_0 + a_1 b_1 + \ldots + a_{n-1} b_{n-1}$.
- Another means of combining vectors, very important in applications, is the convolution *a* * *b*.
- The convolution of two vectors of length n (as a and b are) is a vector with 2n − 1 coordinates, where coordinate k is equal to:

$$(a*b)_k = \sum_{i=0}^k a_i b_{k-i}$$
 for $0 \le k < 2n-1$

- Let's say you are throwing a pair of dice and would like to know the chances of getting a certain combination
 - E.g., What are the chances of getting a 1 and 2 ?
- Let's assume the die is fair and it is equally likely to get any of the faces

2 (1)

	1	2	3	4	5	6
1	(1,1)	(2,1)	(3,1)	(4,1)	(5,1)	(6,1)
2	(1,2)	(2,2)	(3,2)	(4,2)	(5,2)	(6,2)
3	(1,3)	(2,3)	(3,3)	(4,3)	(5,3)	(6,3)
4	(1,4)	(2,4)	(3,4)	(4,4)	(5,4)	(6,4)
5	(1,5)	(2,5)	(3,5)	(4,5)	(5,5)	(6,5)
6	(1,6)	(2,6)	(3,6)	(4,6)	(5,6)	(6,6)

3 (2)

	1	2	3	4	5	6
1	(1,1)	(2,1)	(3,1)	(4,1)	(5,1)	(6,1)
2	(1,2)	(2,2)	(3,2)	(4,2)	(5,2)	(6,2)
3	(1,3)	(2,3)	(3,3)	(4,3)	(5,3)	(6,3)
4	(1,4)	(2,4)	(3,4)	(4,4)	(5,4)	(6,4)
5	(1,5)	(2,5)	(3,5)	(4,5)	(5,5)	(6,5)
6	(1,6)	(2,6)	(3,6)	(4,6)	(5,6)	(6,6)

	1	2	3	4	5	6
1	(1,1)	(2,1)	(3,1)	(4,1)	(5,1)	(6,1)
2	(1,2)	(2,2)	(3,2)	(4,2)	(5,2)	(6,2)
3	(1,3)	(2,3)	(3,3)	(4,3)	(5,3)	(6,3)
4	(1,4)	(2,4)	(3,4)	(4,4)	(5,4)	(6,4)
5	(1,5)	(2,5)	(3,5)	(4,5)	(5,5)	(6,5)
6	(1,6)	(2,6)	(3,6)	(4,6)	(5,6)	(6,6)

5 (4)

	1	2	3	4	5	6
1	(1,1)	(2,1)	(3,1)	(4,1)	(5,1)	(6,1)
2	(1,2)	(2,2)	(3,2)	(4,2)	(5,2)	(6,2)
3	(1,3)	(2,3)	(3,3)	(4,3)	(5,3)	(6,3)
4	(1,4)	(2,4)	(3,4)	(4,4)	(5,4)	(6,4)
5	(1,5)	(2,5)	(3,5)	(4,5)	(5,5)	(6,5)
6	(1,6)	(2,6)	(3,6)	(4,6)	(5,6)	(6,6)

6 (5)

	1	2	3	4	5	6
1	(1,1)	(2,1)	(3,1)	(4,1)	(5,1)	(6,1)
2	(1,2)	(2,2)	(3,2)	(4,2)	(5,2)	(6,2)
3	(1,3)	(2,3)	(3,3)	(4,3)	(5,3)	(6,3)
4	(1,4)	(2,4)	(3,4)	(4,4)	(5,4)	(6,4)
5	(1,5)	(2,5)	(3,5)	(4,5)	(5,5)	(6,5)
6	(1,6)	(2,6)	(3,6)	(4,6)	(5,6)	(6,6)

7 (6)

	1	2	3	4	5	6
1	(1,1)	(2,1)	(3,1)	(4,1)	(5,1)	(6,1)
2	(1,2)	(2,2)	(3,2)	(4,2)	(5,2)	(6,2)
3	(1,3)	(2,3)	(3,3)	(4,3)	(5,3)	(6,3)
4	(1,4)	(2,4)	(3,4)	(4,4)	(5,4)	(6,4)
5	(1,5)	(2,5)	(3,5)	(4,5)	(5,5)	(6,5)
6	(1,6)	(2,6)	(3,6)	(4,6)	(5,6)	(6,6)

8 (5)

	1	2	3	4	5	6
1	(1,1)	(2,1)	(3,1)	(4,1)	(5,1)	(6,1)
2	(1,2)	(2,2)	(3,2)	(4,2)	(5,2)	(6,2)
3	(1,3)	(2,3)	(3,3)	(4,3)	(5,3)	(6,3)
4	(1,4)	(2,4)	(3,4)	(4,4)	(5,4)	(6,4)
5	(1,5)	(2,5)	(3,5)	(4,5)	(5,5)	(6,5)
6	(1,6)	(2,6)	(3,6)	(4,6)	(5,6)	(6,6)

9 (4)

	1	2	3	4	5	6
1	(1,1)	(2,1)	(3,1)	(4,1)	(5,1)	(6,1)
2	(1,2)	(2,2)	(3,2)	(4,2)	(5,2)	(6,2)
3	(1,3)	(2,3)	(3,3)	(4,3)	(5,3)	(6,3)
4	(1,4)	(2,4)	(3,4)	(4,4)	(5,4)	(6,4)
5	(1,5)	(2,5)	(3,5)	(4,5)	(5,5)	(6,5)
6	(1,6)	(2,6)	(3,6)	(4,6)	(5,6)	(6,6)

10 (3)

	1	2	3	4	5	6
1	(1,1)	(2,1)	(3,1)	(4,1)	(5,1)	(6,1)
2	(1,2)	(2,2)	(3,2)	(4,2)	(5,2)	(6,2)
3	(1,3)	(2,3)	(3,3)	(4,3)	(5,3)	(6,3)
4	(1,4)	(2,4)	(3,4)	(4,4)	(5,4)	(6,4)
5	(1,5)	(2,5)	(3,5)	(4,5)	(5,5)	(6,5)
6	(1,6)	(2,6)	(3,6)	(4,6)	(5,6)	(6,6)

	1	2	3	4	5	6
1	(1,1)	(2,1)	(3,1)	(4,1)	(5,1)	(6,1)
2	(1,2)	(2,2)	(3,2)	(4,2)	(5,2)	(6,2)
3	(1,3)	(2,3)	(3,3)	(4,3)	(5,3)	(6,3)
4	(1,4)	(2,4)	(3,4)	(4,4)	(5,4)	(6,4)
5	(1,5)	(2,5)	(3,5)	(4,5)	(5,5)	(6,5)
6	(1,6)	(2,6)	(3,6)	(4,6)	(5,6)	(6,6)

12 (1)

	1	2	3	4	5	6
1	(1,1)	(2,1)	(3,1)	(4,1)	(5,1)	(6,1)
2	(1,2)	(2,2)	(3,2)	(4,2)	(5,2)	(6,2)
3	(1,3)	(2,3)	(3,3)	(4,3)	(5,3)	(6,3)
4	(1,4)	(2,4)	(3,4)	(4,4)	(5,4)	(6,4)
5	(1,5)	(2,5)	(3,5)	(4,5)	(5,5)	(6,5)
6	(1,6)	(2,6)	(3,6)	(4,6)	(5,6)	(6,6)

	Die 1								
	1	2	3	4	5	6			
1	(1,1)	(2,1)	(3,1)	(4,1)	(5,1)	(6,1)			
2	(1,2)	(2,2)	(3,2)	(4,2)	(5,2)	(6,2)			
3	(1,3)	(2,3)	(3,3)	(4,3)	(5,3)	(6,3)			
4	(1,4)	(2,4)	(3,4)	(4,4)	(5,4)	(6,4)			
5	(1,5)	(2,5)	(3,5)	(4,5)	(5,5)	(6,5)			
6	(1,6)	(2,6)	(3,6)	(4,6)	(5,6)	(6,6)			

• This takes $O(n^2)$

- Another way to look at this operation is as follows:
 - Flip the second list
 - Slide it one step at a time and count the probability

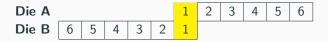
Die A	1	2	3	4	5	6
Die B	1	2	3	4	5	6

- Another way to look at this operation is as follows:
 - Flip the second list
 - Slide it one step at a time and count the probability



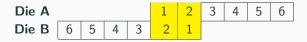
2 (1)

- Another way to look at this operation is as follows:
 - · Flip the second list
 - Slide it one step at a time and count the probability





- Another way to look at this operation is as follows:
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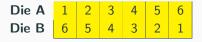


- Another way to look at this operation is as follows:
 - Flip the second list
 - Slide it one step at a time and count the probability

 Die A
 1
 2
 3
 4
 5
 6

 Die B
 6
 5
 4
 3
 2
 1

- Another way to look at this operation is as follows:
 - Flip the second list
 - Slide it one step at a time and count the probability





- Another way to look at this operation is as follows:
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- Another way to look at this operation is as follows:
 - Flip the second list
 - Slide it one step at a time and count the probability

- Both of these examples assume the die is fair
 - i.e, every face of both dice has equal probability of occurrence
- If that is not the case we can just replace the count by multiplication
- This algorithm for computing convolution is $O(n^2)$

Image Matrix
$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 0 \\ 4 & 5 & 6 & 1 \\ 7 & 8 & 9 & 0 \\ 1 & 3 & 5 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$$

Kernel

$$K = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$



mage Matrix

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 0 \\ 4 & 5 & 6 & 1 \\ 7 & 8 & 9 & 0 \\ 1 & 3 & 5 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$$
Ker

$$K = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\mathsf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathsf{6} \\ \\ \\ \end{bmatrix}$$

Image Matrix
 Kernel

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 0 \\ 4 & 5 & 6 & 1 \\ 7 & 8 & 9 & 0 \\ 1 & 3 & 5 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$$
 Kernel

$$\mathcal{K} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 6 & 8 \\ & & \\ & & \end{bmatrix}$$

Image Matrix

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 0 \\ 4 & 5 & 6 & 1 \\ 7 & 8 & 9 & 0 \\ 1 & 3 & 5 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$$
Kernel

$$K = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 6 & 8 & 6 \\ & & \\ & & \end{bmatrix}$$

1 0

Image Matrix
 Kernel

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 0 \\ 4 & 5 & 6 & 1 \\ 7 & 8 & 9 & 0 \\ 1 & 3 & 5 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$$
 $K = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 6 & 8 & 6 \\ 12 & & \\ & & \end{bmatrix}$$

1 0

Image MatrixKernel
$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 0 \\ 4 & 5 & 6 & 1 \\ 7 & 8 & 9 & 0 \\ 1 & 3 & 5 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$$
 $K = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 6 & 8 & 6 \\ 12 & 14 \\ & & \end{bmatrix}$$

Image Matrix
 Kernel

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 0 \\ 4 & 5 & 6 & 1 \\ 7 & 8 & 9 & 0 \\ 1 & 3 & 5 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$$
 $K = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 6 & 8 & 6 \\ 12 & 14 & 10 \\ \end{bmatrix}$$

Image Matrix

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 0 \\ 4 & 5 & 6 & 1 \\ 7 & 8 & 9 & 0 \\ 1 & 3 & 5 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$$
Kernel

$$K = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 6 & 8 & 6 \\ 12 & 14 & 10 \\ 9 & & \end{bmatrix}$$

1 0

Image MatrixKernel
$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 0 \\ 4 & 5 & 6 & 1 \\ 7 & 8 & 9 & 0 \\ 1 & 3 & 5 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$$
 $K = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$

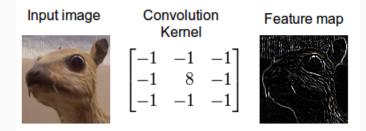
$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 6 & 8 & 6 \\ 12 & 14 & 10 \\ 9 & 12 \end{bmatrix}$$

Image Matrix
 Kernel

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 0 \\ 4 & 5 & 6 & 1 \\ 7 & 8 & 9 & 0 \\ 1 & 3 & 5 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$$
 $K = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 6 & 8 & 6 \\ 12 & 14 & 10 \\ 9 & 12 & 5 \end{bmatrix}$$

1 0



Convolving an image with an edge detector kernel.¹

¹Source: https://developer.nvidia.com/discover/convolution

- Convolution:
 - An operation on two functions f and g producing a third function that expresses how the shape of one is modified by the other.
 - **Discrete Convolution:** Given two sequences *a* and *b*, their convolution *c* is defined as:

$$c[n] = \sum_{m=0}^{n} a[m] \cdot b[n-m]$$

- Fast Fourier Transform (FFT):
 - An efficient algorithm to compute the Discrete Fourier Transform (DFT) and its inverse.
 - The DFT of a sequence x of length N is given by:

$$X[k] = \sum_{n=0}^{N-1} x[n] \cdot e^{-i2\pi kn/N}$$

• Problem:

- Compute the convolution of two sequences efficiently using the FFT.
- Applications in signal processing, image processing, and solving differential equations.

Algorithm 14 FFT-based Convolution

Require: Sequences a and b of length N

Ensure: Convolution *c* of *a* and *b*

- 1: Compute the FFT of a: $A \leftarrow FFT(a)$
- 2: Compute the FFT of *b*: $B \leftarrow FFT(b)$
- 3: Multiply pointwise in the frequency domain: $C \leftarrow A \cdot B$
- 4: Compute the inverse FFT of C: $c \leftarrow \mathsf{IFFT}(C)$
- 5: return c

- The FFT can be used to compute convolutions efficiently.
- Steps:
 - Compute the FFT of both sequences *a* and *b*.
 - Multiply the resulting frequency-domain representations element-wise.
 - Compute the inverse FFT of the product to get the convolution result.
- **Time Complexity:** $O(n \log n)$ due to the efficiency of the FFT.

• Consider two sequences a = [1, 2, 3] and b = [4, 5, 6]

- Consider two sequences a = [1, 2, 3] and b = [4, 5, 6]
- Step 1: Compute the FFT of a and b

	Sequence	FFT	Value		
а	[1, 2, 3]	A[k]	{6, -1.5 + 0.87i, -1.5 - 0.87i}		
b	[4, 5, 6]	B[k]	{15, -1.5 + 0.87i, -1.5 - 0.87i}		

- Consider two sequences a = [1, 2, 3] and b = [4, 5, 6]
- Step 1: Compute the FFT of a and b

	Sequence	FFT	Value		
а	[1, 2, 3]	A[k]	{6, -1.5 + 0.87i, -1.5 - 0.87i}		
b	[4, 5, 6]	B[k]	{15, -1.5 + 0.87i, -1.5 - 0.87i}		

• Step 2: Multiply the FFT results element-wise

	Value
$C[0] = A[0] \cdot B[0]$	90
$C[1] = A[1] \cdot B[1]$	0.75 - 2.6i
$C[2] = A[2] \cdot B[2]$	0.75 + 2.6i

- Consider two sequences a = [1, 2, 3] and b = [4, 5, 6]
- Step 1: Compute the FFT of a and b

	Sequence	FFT	Value		
а	[1, 2, 3]	A[k]	{6, -1.5 + 0.87i, -1.5 - 0.87i}		
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• Step 2: Multiply the FFT results element-wise

	Value
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$C[1] = A[1] \cdot B[1]$	0.75 - 2.6i
$C[2] = A[2] \cdot B[2]$	0.75 + 2.6i

• Step 3: Compute the inverse FFT of *C*[*k*] to get the convolution result

Convolution Result	4	13	28	27
18				

- The correctness of the FFT-based convolution follows from:
 - The correctness of the FFT and its inverse.
 - The convolution theorem, which states that the pointwise product of two sequences' Fourier transforms is the Fourier transform of their convolution.
- Thus, the algorithm correctly computes the convolution by leveraging the FFT.

Question: Why is the convolution theorem crucial in this approach?

- The FFT-based convolution has a time complexity of $O(n \log n)$.
- The steps include:
 - Computing the FFT of both sequences: $O(n \log n)$.
 - Pointwise multiplication: O(n).
 - Computing the inverse FFT: $O(n \log n)$.
- Overall, the algorithm is significantly faster than the brute-force approach for large sequences.

Question: How does the runtime of the FFT-based approach compare to the brute-force solution?

FFT: Application

• Signal Processing:

- Used to filter signals, remove noise, and detect features in time-series data.
- Image Processing:
 - Used for image filtering, edge detection, and image convolution.
- Audio Processing:
 - Enhances audio signals, equalizes sound frequencies, and applies effects like reverb.

• Communications:

- Used in modulating and demodulating signals in communication systems.
- Numerical Analysis:
 - Solves differential equations, convolves functions, and applies integral transforms.
- Machine Learning:
 - Applies convolution operations in neural networks, especially in Convolutional Neural Networks (CNNs) for image recognition and classification tasks.

Conclusion

Divide and Conquer Algorithms: Summary

• Definition:

- A strategy to solve a complex problem by breaking it down into simpler sub-problems, solving each sub-problem recursively, and combining their solutions to solve the original problem.
- Key Steps:
 - Divide: Break the problem into smaller sub-problems.
 - Conquer: Solve each sub-problem recursively.
 - Combine: Merge the solutions of the sub-problems to form the solution to the original problem.

• Examples:

- Merge Sort: Recursively splits the array in half, sorts each half, and merges the sorted halves.
- Quick Sort: Partitions the array into sub-arrays around a pivot and recursively sorts the sub-arrays.
- Binary Search: Recursively divides the search interval in half to find an element in a sorted array.
- Strassen's Matrix Multiplication: Divides matrices into smaller sub-matrices and combines their products.

Divide and Conquer Algorithms: Summary

• Applications:

- Sorting algorithms (e.g., Merge Sort, Quick Sort)
- Searching algorithms (e.g., Binary Search)
- Numerical algorithms (e.g., Fast Fourier Transform)
- Graph algorithms (e.g., Closest Pair of Points)

• Advantages:

- Often reduces time complexity compared to brute-force approaches.
- Provides a clear and recursive structure to solve problems.

• Challenges:

- Overhead of recursive calls.
- Combining solutions of sub-problems can be complex.

• Conclusion:

- Divide and Conquer is a powerful paradigm that provides efficient solutions to many complex problems.
- Understanding its principles and applications is crucial for designing effective algorithms.

Divide and Conquer Algorithms: Other Examples

- Quicksort
- Power Of Numbers
- *K*th element of two Arrays
- Cooley–Tukey Fast Fourier Transform (FFT) algorithm
- The Painter's Partition Problem-II
- Modular Exponentiation for large numbers
- Candy
- Sequence of Sequence
- Possible paths
- Scrambled String
- The Nth Fibonnaci
- Killing Spree
- Convex Hull

Questions?