

# Introduction to Algorithms

## Topic 6-4 : Divide and Conquer

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# Outline

Large Number Multiplication

Strassen's Algorithm for Matrix Multiplication

Defective Chessboard

Polynomials and the FFT

# Overview

In divide and conquer approach, a problem is divided into smaller problems, then the smaller problems are solved independently, and finally the solutions of smaller problems are combined into a solution for the large problem.

Generally, divide-and-conquer algorithms have three parts:

- ▶ **Divide:** Divide the problem into a number of sub-problems that are smaller instances of the same problem.
- ▶ **Conquer:** Conquer the sub-problems by solving them recursively. If they are small enough, solve the sub-problems as base cases.
- ▶ **Combine:** Combine the solutions to the sub-problems into the solution for the original problem.

## Pros and cons

Divide and conquer approach supports parallelism as sub-problems are independent. Hence, an algorithm, which is designed using this technique, can run on the multiprocessor system or in different machines simultaneously.

In this approach, most of the algorithms are designed using recursion, hence memory management is very high. For recursive function stack is used, where function state needs to be stored.

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## Large Number Multiplication

Problem Description

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## Strassen's Algorithm for Matrix Multiplication

## Defective Chessboard

## Polynomials and the FFT

## Problem Description

- ▶ **Input:** two  $n$  – bit integers  $X$  and  $Y$ .
- ▶ **Output:** product of  $X$  and  $Y$ .
- ▶ **Example:**  $X = 1980$        $Y = 2315$

$$\begin{array}{r} 1980 \\ \times 2315 \\ \hline 9900 \\ 1980 \\ 5940 \\ + 3960 \\ \hline = 4573700 \end{array}$$

This is the algorithm you learned in grade school. Notice it takes  $O(n^2)$  time.

# Solution

## Divide and Conquer

$$X = \begin{array}{|c|} \hline a \\ \hline \end{array} \quad \begin{array}{|c|} \hline b \\ \hline \end{array}$$

$$Y = \begin{array}{|c|} \hline c \\ \hline \end{array} \quad \begin{array}{|c|} \hline d \\ \hline \end{array}$$

$$X = a \cdot 2^{n/2} + b \quad Y = c \cdot 2^{n/2} + d$$

$$XY = ac \cdot 2^n + (ad + bc) \cdot 2^{n/2} + bd$$

# Being Clever

## Time Complexity

$$T(n) = \begin{cases} O(1) & n = 1 \\ 4T(n/2) + O(n) & n > 1 \end{cases}$$

whose solution we claimed to be  $T(n) = O(n^2)$ . Compared to the original method, this method has not been significantly improved. In order to reduce the time complexity, we must reduce the number of multiplications.

$$XY = ac \cdot 2^n + (ad + bc) \cdot 2^{n/2} + bd \quad (1)$$

$$XY = ac \cdot 2^n - ((a - b)(c - d) - ac - bd) \cdot 2^{n/2} + bd \quad (2)$$

$$XY = ac \cdot 2^n + ((a + b)(c + d) - ac - bd) \cdot 2^{n/2} + bd \quad (3)$$



## Being Clever

### Analysis

The complexity of the last two XY multiplication schemes is  $O(n^{\log 3})$ , but considering  $a+c, b+d$  may get the result of  $n+1$  bit, which makes the size of the problem bigger, so it does not choose the third option.

$$T(n) = \begin{cases} O(1) & n = 1 \\ 3T(n/2) + O(n) & n > 1 \end{cases}$$

Thus,  $T(n) = O(n^{\log 3}) = O(n^{1.59})$

## Being Clever

- ▶ Is there a faster way?
- ▶ If you divide a large integer into more segments, combine them in a more complicated way, it will be possible to get a better algorithm.
- ▶ In the end, this idea led to the fast Fourier transform. This method can also be seen as a complex divide calculation method, for large integer multiplication, it can be solved in  $O(n \log n)$  time.

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## Problem Description

Let us consider two matrices  $A$  and  $B$ . We want to calculate the resultant matrix  $C$  by multiplying  $A$  and  $B$ .

### Naive Method

If  $A = (a_{ij})$  and  $B = (b_{ij})$  are square  $n \times n$  matrices, then in the product  $C = A \cdot B$ , we define the entry  $c_{ij}$ , for  $i, j = 1, 2, \dots, n$ , by

$c_{ij} = \sum_{k=1}^n a_{ik} \cdot b_{kj}$ . We must compute  $n^2$  matrix entries, and each is the sum of  $n$  values.

## Naive Method

Square-Matrix-Multiply(A, B)

```
1: n = A.rows
2: let C be a new  $n \times n$  matrix
3: for i = 1 to n do
4:     for j = 1 to n do
5:          $c_{ij} = 0$ 
6:         for k = 1 to n do
7:              $c_{ij} = c_{ij} + a_{ik} \cdot b_{kj}$ 
8: return C
```

### Complexity

Here, we assume that integer operations take  $O(1)$  time. There are three for loops in this algorithm and one is nested in other. Hence, the algorithm takes  $O(n^3)$  time to execute

## Simple Divide and Conquer

Following is simple Divide and Conquer method to multiply two square matrices.

- ▶ Divide matrices A and B in 4 sub-matrices of size  $N/2 \times N/2$  as shown in the below diagram.
- ▶ Calculate following values recursively.

$$\begin{pmatrix} A_1 & A_2 \\ A_3 & A_4 \end{pmatrix} \times \begin{pmatrix} B_1 & B_2 \\ B_3 & B_4 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} A_1B_1 + A_2B_3 & A_1B_2 + A_2B_4 \\ A_3B_1 + A_4B_3 & A_3B_2 + A_4B_4 \end{pmatrix}$$

In the above method, we do 8 multiplications for matrices of size  $N/2 \times N/2$  and 4 additions. Addition of two matrices takes  $O(n^2)$  time. So the time complexity is  $T(n) = 8T(n/2) + O(n^2)$ . From Master's Theorem, time complexity of above method is  $O(n^3)$  which is unfortunately

# Strassen's Matrix Multiplication

In the above divide and conquer method, the main component for high time complexity is 8 recursive calls. The idea of Strassen's method is to reduce the number of recursive calls to 7.

Strassen's method is similar to above simple divide and conquer method in the sense that this method also divide matrices to sub-matrices of size  $N/2 \times N/2$  as shown in the above slide, but in Strassen's method, the four sub-matrices of result are calculated using following formula.

## Strassen's Matrix Multiplication

The Strassen algorithm defines instead new matrices:

$$M_1 = (A_1 + A_4)(B_1 + B_4) \quad M_2 = (A_3 + A_4)B_1$$

$$M_3 = A_1(B_2 - B_4) \quad M_4 = A_4(B_3 - B_1)$$

$$M_5 = (A_1 + A_2)B_4 \quad M_6 = (A_3 - A_1)(B_1 + B_2)$$

$$M_7 = (A_2 - A_4)(B_3 + B_4)$$

only using 7 multiplications(one for each  $M_k$ ) instead of 8.

We may now express the  $C_i$  in terms of  $M_k$ :

$$C_1 = M_1 + M_4 - M_5 + M_7$$

$$C_2 = M_3 + M_5$$

$$C_3 = M_2 + M_4$$

$$C_4 = M_1 - M_2 + M_3 + M_6$$



## Time Complexity

- ▶ Addition and Subtraction of two matrices takes  $O(n^2)$  time. So time complexity can be written as:

$$T(n) = 7T(n/2) + O(n^2)$$

From Master's Theorem, time complexity of above method is  $O(n^{\log 7})$  which is approximately  $O(n^{2.8074})$

- ▶ Hopcroft and Kerr have proved(1971) that 7 multiplications are necessary in two  $2 \times 2$  matrices's multiplication. Therefore, to further improve the time of matrix multiplication complexity, it can no longer be based on the method of calculating the 7-times multiplication of  $2 \times 2$  matrices. Perhaps a better algorithm for  $3 \times 3$  or  $5 \times 5$  matrices should be studied. Currently, the best calculation time upper bound is  $O(n^{2.376})$ .

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**Defective Chessboard**

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## Problem Description

- **Definition:** A defective chessboard is a  $2^k \times 2^k$  board of squares with exactly one defective square
- **Example:**

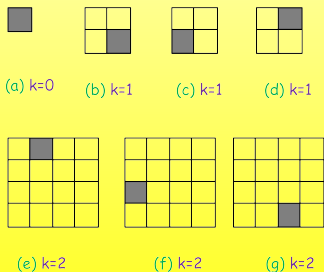


Figure: Defective chessboards

# Problem Description

## Defective Chessboard Problem

- ▶ The problem is to tile (cover) all nondefective cells using a **triomino**.
- ▶ A triomino is an L shaped object that can cover three squares of a chessboard.
- ▶ A triomino has four orientations:

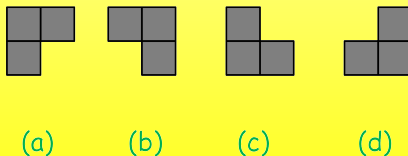
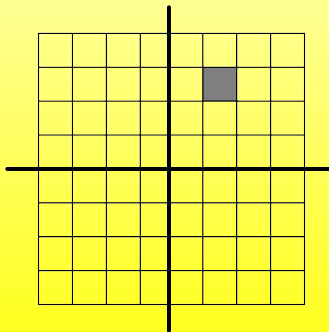


Figure: Triominoes with different orientations

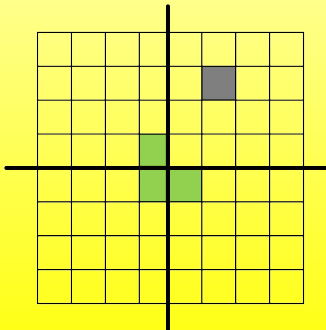
# Tiling A Defective Chessboard

- ▶ Divide into four smaller chessboards.
- ▶ One of these is a defective chessboard.



## Tiling A Defective Chessboard

- ▶ Make the other three chessboards defective by placing a triomino at their common corner.
- ▶ Recursively tile the four defective chessboards.



## Time Complexity

- ▶ Let  $n = 2^k$ ,  $d$  is a constant.
- ▶ Let  $t(k)$  be the time taken to tile a  $2^k \times 2^k$  defective chessboard. Then,

$$t(k) = \begin{cases} d & k = 0 \\ 4t(k-1) + c & k > 0 \end{cases}$$

- ▶ Here,  $c$  is constant representing time spent on finding the appropriate position for a triomino and to rotate the triomino for a required shape.

## Time Complexity

$$\begin{aligned}t(k) &= 4t(k-1) + c \\&= 4[4t(k-2) + c] + c \\&= 4^2t(k-2) + 4c + c \\&= \dots \\&= 4^k t(0) + 4^{k-1}c + 4^{k-2}c + \dots + 4^2c + 4c + c \\&= 4^k d + 4^{k-1}c + 4^{k-2}c + \dots + 4^2c + 4c + c \\&= \theta(4^k) \\&= \theta(\text{number of triominoes placed})\end{aligned}$$

Since each grid must spend  $\theta(1)$  time to place each triomino, it is **impossible** to get a faster algorithm for this problem.



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## Problem Description

### Definition 1:

A polynomial in variable  $x$  over a field  $F$  (such as,  $\mathbb{R}$  or  $\mathbb{C}$ ) is

$$A(x) = \sum_{j=0}^{n-1} a_j x^j \quad (1)$$

where  $a_j \in F$  is called a coefficient.

### Problem 1:

The straightforward method of polynomial multiplication is  $\theta(n^2)$ , where  $n$  is the degree of polynomials. While the Fast Fourier Transform (FFT) can reduce the time to  $\theta(n \log n)$ .

# Representation of polynomials

## Definition 2:

For the polynomial(1), we have two ways of representing it:

- ▶ **Coefficient Representation:**

$a = (a_0, a_1, \dots, a_{n-1})$  is a coefficient representation of (1).

- ▶ **Point-value Representation:**

$P = \{(x_0, y_0), (x_1, y_1), \dots, (x_{n-1}, y_{n-1})\}$  is a point-value representation of (1), where all of the  $x_k$  are distinct and  $y_k = A(x_k), k = 0, 1, \dots, n-1$ .

## Coefficient Representation

**Property 1:** Evaluating the polynomial (1) at a given point  $x_0$  by Horner's Rule:

$$A(x_0) = a_0 + x_0(a_1 + x_0(a_2 + \dots + x_0(a_{n-2} + x_0 a_{n-1})))$$

which takes  $\theta(n)$  time.

**Property 2:** Addition of  $n$ -dimensional coefficient vectors  $a$  and  $b$  (i.e.,  $a + b$ ) takes  $\theta(n)$  time

The convolution:  $a \otimes b = (c_0, c_1, \dots, c_{2n-2})$  is

$$c_j = \sum_{k=0}^j a_k b_{j-k} \quad (2)$$

which indicates that it takes  $\theta(n^2)$  time for polynomial multiplication by coefficient representation.

# Point-value Representation

- ▶ By Horner's rule, it takes  $\theta(n^2)$  time to get a point-value representation of polynomial(1). If we choose  $x_k$  cleverly, the complexity reduces to  $\theta(n \log n)$ .
- ▶ **Definition 3:** The process of determining the coefficient form of a polynomial from a point-value representation is called **interpolation**.
- ▶ **Question:** Does the interpolation uniquely determine a polynomial? If not, the concept of interpolation is meaningless.

# Uniqueness of Interpolation

## Theorem 1:

For any set of  $n$  point-value pairs  $\{(x_0, y_0), (x_1, y_1), \dots, (x_{n-1}, y_{n-1})\}$ , such that all the  $x_k$  values are **distinct**, there is a unique polynomial  $A(x)$  of **degree-bound**  $n$  such that  $y_k = A(x_k), k = 0, 1, \dots, n-1$ .

## Proof:

Let  $A(x) = \sum_{j=0}^{n-1} a_j x^j$ , where  $a_j$  is undetermined, then we have

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & x_0 & x_0^2 & \cdots & x_0^{n-1} \\ 1 & x_1 & x_1^2 & \cdots & x_1^{n-1} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 1 & x_{n-1} & x_{n-1}^2 & \cdots & x_{n-1}^{n-1} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} a_0 \\ a_1 \\ \vdots \\ a_{n-1} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} y_0 \\ y_1 \\ \vdots \\ y_{n-1} \end{pmatrix} \quad (3)$$

# Uniqueness of Interpolation

The left matrix is known as a **Vandermonde matrix**, denoted by  $V(x_0, x_1, \dots, x_{n-1})$ , whose determinant is:

$$\prod_{0 \leq j < k \leq n-1} (x_k - x_j) \neq 0$$

Therefore, the solution of coefficients is:

$$a = V(x_0, x_1, \dots, x_{n-1})^{-1}y$$

The LU decomposition algorithm takes  $O(n^3)$  time to solve these equations.

## Lagrange Formula

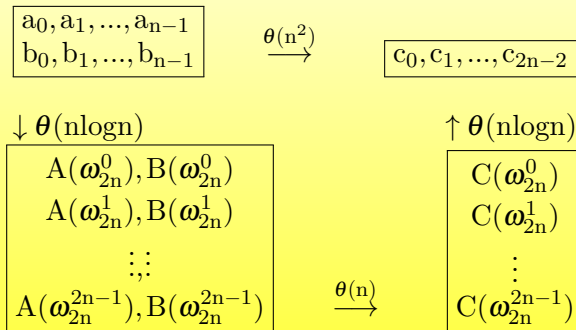
A fast algorithm for  $n$ -point interpolation is

$$A(x) = \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} y_k \frac{\prod_{j \neq k} (x - x_j)}{\prod_{j \neq k} (x_k - x_j)} \quad (4)$$

, which takes  $\Theta(n^2)$  time.



## Basic Idea of Multiplication



### Theorem 2

The product of two polynomials of degree-bound  $n$  can be computed in time  $\theta(n \log n)$ , with both input and output representations in coefficient form.

# Complex Roots of Unity

## Definition 4

A complex  $n$ th root of unity is a complex  $\omega$  such that:

$$\omega^n = 1 \quad (5)$$

There are exactly  $n$  complex  $n$ th roots of unity:  $e^{2\pi i k/n}$  for  $k = 0, 1, \dots, n-1$

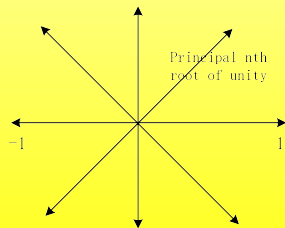
$$e^{iu} = \cos u + i \sin u \quad (6)$$

is called Euler's formula. And,  $\omega_n = e^{2\pi i/n}$  is called the principal  $n$ th root of unity.

# Additive Group

**Property 3:** The  $n$  complex  $n$ th roots of unity, form a group under multiplication, which is isomorphic to  $(\mathbb{Z}_n, +)$ .

**Example 1:** Consider the values of  $\omega_8^0, \omega_8^1, \dots, \omega_8^7$ , in the complex plane, where  $\omega_8 = e^{2\pi i/8}$  is the principal 8th root of unity.



## Properties of Complex Roots

**Lemma 1:** (Cancellation Lemma)  $\forall n, k, d \in \mathbb{N}$ , we have

$$\omega_{dn}^{dk} = \omega_n^k$$

**Corollary 1:** For any even integer  $n > 0$ , we have

$$\omega_n^{n/2} = \omega_2 = -1$$

**Lemma 2:** (Halving Lemma) If  $n > 0$  is even, then

$$(\omega_n^k)^2 = \omega_{n/2}^k, \quad \text{that is,} \quad (\omega_n^{k+n/2})^2 = (\omega_n^k)^2$$

**Lemma 3:** (Summation Lemma) For any integer  $n \geq 1$  and nonnegative integer  $k$  not divisible by  $n$ ,

$$\sum_{j=0}^{n-1} (\omega_n^k)^j = 0$$

# Discrete Fourier Transform

## Definition 5

Without loss of generality, assume that  $n$  is a power of 2, since a given degree-bound can always be raised. Given a polynomial  $a = (a_0, a_1, \dots, a_{n-1})$ , define

$$y_k = A(\omega_n^k) = \sum_{j=0}^{n-1} a_j \omega_n^{kj} \quad (7)$$

Note:  $A(x)$ 's values at the  $n$  complex  $n$ -th roots of unity.

The vector  $y = (y_0, y_1, \dots, y_{n-1})$  is the Discrete Fourier Transform (DFT) of  $a$ , denoted by  $y = \text{DFT}_n(a)$ .

# Fast Fourier Transform

**Aim:** To compute  $\text{DFT}_n(a)$  in time  $\theta(n \log n)$ , as opposed to the  $\theta(n^2)$  time of the straightforward method.

**Idea:** There are 3 steps:

1.  $A(x) = A''(x^2) + xA'(x^2)$ , where
$$\begin{cases} A''(x) = a_0 + a_2x + a_4x^2 + \dots + a_{n-2}x^{n/2-1} \\ A'(x) = a_1 + a_3x + a_5x^2 + \dots + a_{n-1}x^{n/2-1} \end{cases}$$

So that the problem of evaluating  $A(x)$  at  $\omega_n^0, \omega_n^1, \dots, \omega_n^{n-1}$  reduces to step 2.

2. Evaluate the degree-bound  $n/2$  polynomials  $A'$  and  $A''$  at points  $(\omega_n^0)^2, (\omega_n^1)^2, \dots, (\omega_n^{n-1})^2$ .
3. Combine the results according to step 1.

# Recursive FFT

## Recursive FFT

By Halving Lemma,

$\{(\omega_n^0)^2, (\omega_n^1)^2, \dots, (\omega_n^{n-1})^2\} = \{\omega_{n/2}^0, \omega_{n/2}^1, \dots, \omega_{n/2}^{n/2-1}\}$ . This decomposition is the basis for the following recursive FFT algorithm.

Recursive-FFT(a)

1:  $n = a.length$

2: if  $n == 1$  then

3:     return a

4:  $\omega_n = e^{2\pi i/n}$

5:  $\omega = 1$

6:  $\omega = 1$

7:  $a'' = (a_0, a_2, \dots, a_{n-2})$

8:  $a' = (a_1, a_3, \dots, a_{n-1})$

9:  $y'' = \text{Recursive-FFT}(a'')$

10:  $y' = \text{Recursive-FFT}(a')$

11: for  $k = 0$  to  $n/2 - 1$  do

12:      $y_k = y''_k + \omega y'_k$

13:      $y_{k+n/2} = y''_k - \omega y'_k$

14:      $\omega = \omega \omega_n$

15: return y

**Property 4:** By divide-and-conquer method, the time cost of

# Interpolation

By (3), DFT can be written by  $y = V_n a$ , or

$$\begin{pmatrix} y_0 \\ y_1 \\ y_2 \\ y_3 \\ \vdots \\ y_{n-1} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & \dots & 1 \\ 1 & \omega_n & \omega_n^2 & \omega_n^3 & \dots & \omega_n^{n-1} \\ 1 & \omega_n^2 & \omega_n^4 & \omega_n^6 & \dots & \omega_n^{2(n-1)} \\ 1 & \omega_n^3 & \omega_n^6 & \omega_n^9 & \dots & \omega_n^{3(n-1)} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 1 & \omega_n^{n-1} & \omega_n^{2(n-2)} & \omega_n^{3(n-1)} & \dots & \omega_n^{(n-1)(n-1)} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} a_0 \\ a_1 \\ a_2 \\ a_3 \\ \vdots \\ a_{n-1} \end{pmatrix}$$

where  $(k,j)$  entry of  $V_n$  is  $\omega_n^{kj}$  for  $j,k = 0,1,\dots,n-1$ . For



# Interpolation

## Theorem 3:

For  $j, k = 0, 1, \dots, n-1$ , the  $(j, k)$  entry of  $V_n^{-1}$  is  $\omega_n^{-kj}/n$ .

## Proof :

Consider the  $(j, j')$  entry of  $V_n^{-1}V_n$ :

$$\begin{aligned}[V_n^{-1}V_n]_{jj'} &= \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} (\omega_n^{-kj}/n)(\omega_n^{kj'}) \\ &= \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} \omega_n^{k(j'-j)}/n\end{aligned}$$

If  $j' = j$ , then  $[V_n^{-1}V_n]_{jj'} = 1$ , otherwise it is 0 by Summation Lemma.

# Inverse DFT

Corollary 2 :

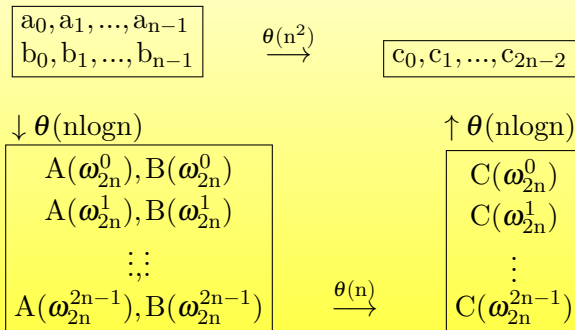
$a = \text{DFT}_n^{-1}(y)$  is given by

$$a_j = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} y_k \omega_n^{-kj} \quad (8)$$

$\text{DFT}_n$  vs  $\text{DFT}_n^{-1}$ :

$\text{DFT}_n$	$\text{DFT}_n^{-1}$
$y_k = A(\omega_n^k)$ $= \sum_{j=0}^{n-1} a_j \omega_n^{kj}$	$a_j = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} y_k \omega_n^{-kj}$

## Recall: Basic Idea of Multiplication



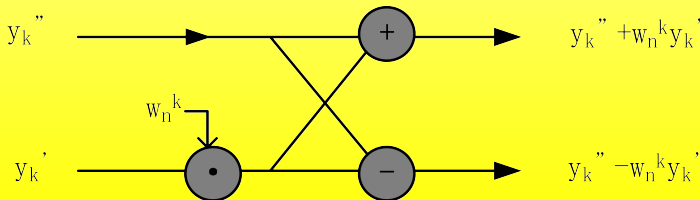
### Theorem 2

The product of two polynomials of degree-bound  $n$  can be computed in time  $\theta(n \log n)$ , with both input and output representations in coefficient form.

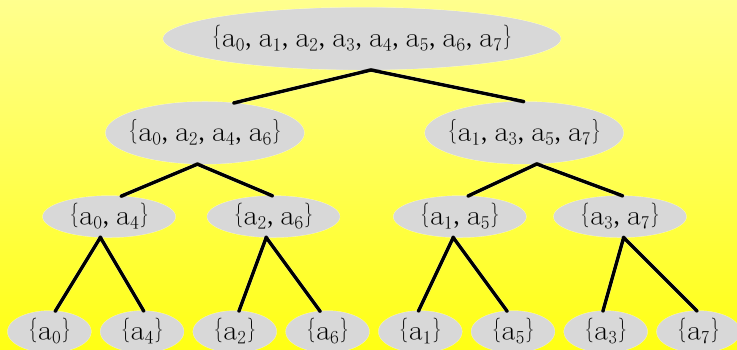
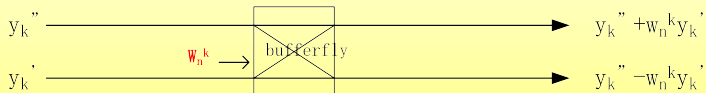
# Efficient FFT Implementation

Common subexpression in compiler terminology

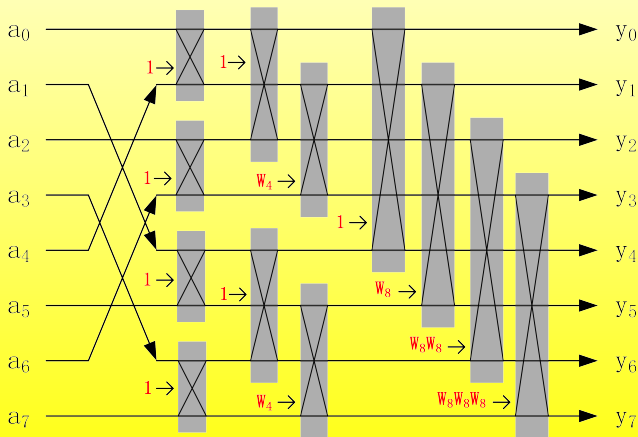
Original	Improvement
for $k = 0$ to $n/2 - 1$ do $y_k = y_k'' + \omega y_k'$ $y_{k+n/2} = y_k'' - \omega y_k'$ $\omega = \omega \omega_n$	for $k = 0$ to $n/2 - 1$ do $t = \omega y_k'$ $y_k = y_k'' + t$ $y_{k+n/2} = y_k'' - t$ $\omega = \omega \omega_n$



# Butterfly Operation



# Recursive FFT



# Conclusions

- ▶ Fourier analysis is not limited to 1-dimensional data. It is widely used in image processing to analyze data in 2 or more dimensions.
- ▶ The history of FFT is traced as far back as C. F. Gauss in 1805.
- ▶ J. W. Cooley and J. W. Tukey are widely credited with devising the FFT in 1965.