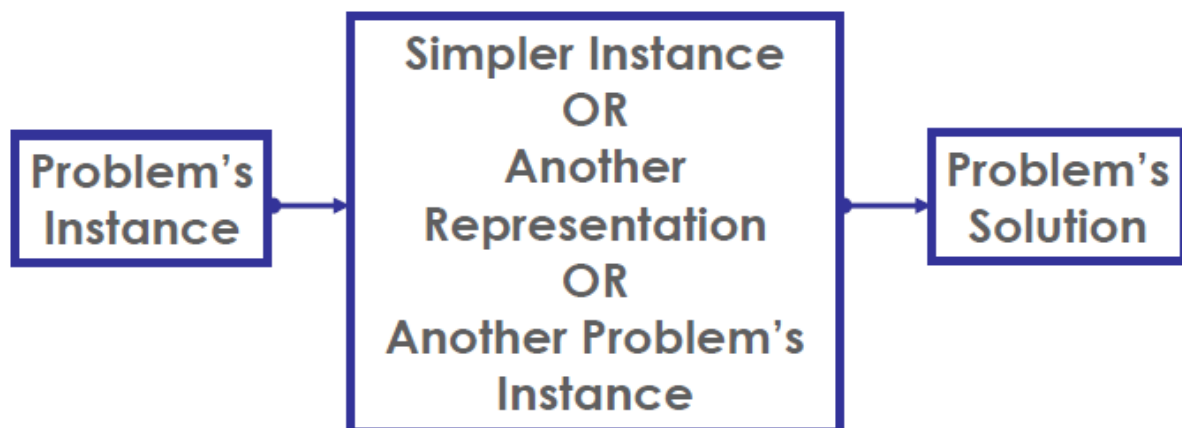


- Transform and Conquer
 - Instance Simplification
 - Presorting
 - Representation Change
 - Trees
 - Heapsort
 - Calculating Polynomials
 - Brute Force Polynomial
 - Horner's Rule
 - Binary Exponentiation
 - Problem Reduction
 - Lowest Common Multiple
 - Reduction to Graph Problems
- Strengths and Weaknesses of Transform & Conquer

Transform and Conquer

■ The secret of life is to replace one worry with another

👉 Charles M. Schultz



Different types of transformations:

1. **Instance simplification** = a more convenient instance of the same problem
 - Presorting
 - Gaussian elimination
2. **Representation Change** = a different representation of the same instance
 - Balanced search trees
 - Heaps and heapsort
 - Polynomial evaluation by Horner's rule
 - Binary exponentiation
3. **Problem reduction** = a different problem altogether
 - Lowest Common Multiple
 - Reduction to Graph Problems

Instance Simplification

Presorting

- Solve instance of problem by preprocessing the problem to transform it into another simpler/easier instance of the same problem
- Many problems involving lists are easier when list is sorted
 - Searching
 - Computing the median (selection problem)
 - Finding repeated elements
 - Convex hull & Closest Pair
- Efficiency
 - Introduce the overhead of an $\Theta(n \log n)$ preprocess
 - But the sorted problem often improves by at least one base efficiency class over the unsorted problem (e.g.: $\Theta(n^2)$ -> $\Theta(n)$)

Example sorting is $\Theta(n \log n)$ so transformation to sorting is only worthwhile if other algorithms are less efficient

- Checking uniqueness
 - Brute force is $\Theta(n^2)$ so sorting is more efficient
- Finding the mode
 - Brute force is $\Theta(n^2)$ so sorting is more effective
- Searching an array
 - Brute force is $\Theta(n)$ so sorting is not better

Example Finding Repeated Elements

- Presorting algorithm for finding duplicated elements in a list
 - Use mergesort $\Theta(n \log n)$
 - Scan to find repeated element: $\Theta(n)$
- Brute force algorithm
 - Compare each element to every other: $\Theta(n^2)$
- Conclusion: presorting yields **significant** improvement

Example Presorted selection

- Finding the k^{th} smallest element in $A[1], \dots, A[n]$
- Special cases
 - Min: $k = 1$
 - Max: $k = n$
 - Median: $k = n/2$
- Presorting-based algorithm
 - Sort list
 - return $A[k]$
- Partition-based algorithm (Variable Decrease & Conquer)

```
pivot/split A[s] using Partitioning algorithm from Quicksort
if s == k:
    return A[s]
```

```

    return A[s]
else if s < k:
    repeat with sublist A[s+1], ..., A[n]
else if s > k repeat with sublist A[1], ..., A[s-1]

```

IF we look at this algorithm:

- the presorting based one is $\Theta(n \log n) + \Theta(1) = \Theta(n \log n)$
- The partitioning based algorithm (which is variable size decrease & conquer)
 - Worst case $T(n) = T(n-1) + (n+1) \in \Theta(n^2)$
 - Best case: $\Theta(n)$
 - Average case: $T(n) = T(n/2) + (n+1) \in \Theta(n)$
 - Also identifies the k smallest elements (not just the k^{th})
- Simpler linear (brute force) algorithm is better in the case of max & min
- Conclusion
 - Presorting does not help in this case

Representation Change

Trees

- Searching, insertion and deletion in a Binary Search Tree:
 - Balanced = $\Theta(\log n)$
 - Unbalanced = $\Theta(n)$
- Instance Simplification
 - AVL & Red-black trees constrain imbalances by restructuring trees using rotations
- Representation Change
 - B+ Trees attain perfect balance by allowing more than one element in a node

Heapsort

- A heap is binary tree with conditions
 - It is essentially complete
 - The key at each node is \geq keys at its children
 - The root has the largest key
 - The subtree rooted at any node of a heap is also a heap
- Heapsort algorithm
 1. Build heap
 2. Remove root - exchange with last (rightmost) leaf
 3. Fix up heap (excluding last leaf)
 4. Repeat 2,3 until heap contains just one node
- Efficiency
 - $\Theta(n) + \Theta(n \log n)$ in both worst and average cases
 - Unlike mergesort it is in place

Calculating Polynomials

Here is an example of a polynomial ($p(x)$), and the associated calculation for $p(3)$

$$p(x) = 2x^4 - x^3 + 3x^2 + x - 5$$

- Evaluate for $x = 3$

The traditional, obvious, brute force way: $p(3) = 2(3)^4 - (3)^3 + 3(3)^2 + (3) - 5$

Brute Force Polynomial

- For a polynomial of size n , just the first term $a_n x^n$ requires n multiplications using brute force
- We can improve on this by efficiently calculating x^n
- But Horner's rule does even better for large polynomials and it's dead easy

Horner's Rule

Factor x out as much as possible - so using the same equation as above we can factor out x as follows:

$$p(x) = 2x^4 - x^3 + 3x^2 + x - 5 = (2x^3 - x^2 + 3x + 1)x - 5 = ((2x^2 - x + 3)x + 1)x - 5 = (((2x - 1)x + 3)x + 1)x - 5$$

Here is another example: $p(x) = 2x^3 - x^2 - 6x + 5 = (2x^2 - x - 6)x + 5 = ((2x - 1)x - 6)x + 5$

Find $p(x)$ at $x = 3$ $2x^3 - x^2 - 6x + 5$ c[]: 2 -1 -6 +5 p: $2 \cdot 2^3 + (-1) = 5$ $5 \cdot 3 + (-6) = 9$ $9 \cdot 3 + 5 = 32$

```
double horner(coefficients[0 .. n],x){
    p = coefficients[n]
    for i = n-1 to 0:
        p = x*p + coefficients[i]
    return p
}
```

- Horner's rule addresses the problem of evaluating a polynomial $p(x) = a_n x^n + a_{n-1} x^{n-1} + \dots + a_1 x + a_0$ at a given point $x = x_0$
- Re-invented by W. Horner in early 19th Century
- Approach
 - Convert $p(x)$
- Algorithm

```
p=P[n]
for i <- n-1 downto 0:
    p <- x * p + P[i]
return p
```

$$Q(x) = 2x^3 - x^2 - 6x + 5 \text{ at } x = 3$$

$$P[]: \quad 2 \quad \quad -1 \quad \quad \quad -6 \quad \quad \quad 5$$

$$p: \quad 2 \quad \quad 3 \cdot 2 + (-1) = 5 \quad 3 \cdot 5 + (-6) = 9 \quad 3 \cdot 9 + 5 = 32$$

The slides go into Horner's rule in a lot more depth [here](#)

Binary Exponentiation

To find a^n , represent n in binary as

$b_j b_{j-1} \dots b_1 b_0$

a^n can be computed as the product

$f_0 * f_1 * f_2 * \dots * f_{j-1} * f_j$

where $f_k = \exp(a, 2^k)$ if b_k is 1
or 1 if b_k is 0

$f = a$; // start at $\exp(a, 2^0)$;

if ($b_0 == 1$) ans = a else ans = 1; // bit 0 done

for ($k=1$; $k \leq j$; $k++$)

{ $f = f * f$; // next power of 2

if ($b_k == 1$) ans = ans * f }

Problem Reduction

- If you need to solve a problem reduce it to another problem that you know how to solve
- Used in Complexity Theory to classify problems
- Computing the Least Common Multiple
 - The LCM of two positive integers m and n is the smallest integer divisible by both m and n
 - Problem reduction is to say $\text{LCM}(m,n) = m * n / \text{GCD}(m,n)$
 - Example: $\text{LCM}(24,60) = 1440 / 12 = 120$
- Reduction of Optimisation Problems
 - Maximization problems seek to find a function's maximum. Conversely, minimization seeks to find the minimum
 - Can reduce between: $\min f(x) = -\max[-f(x)]$

Lowest Common Multiple

$\text{LCM}(24,60) = ?$

- $24 = 2 \times 2 \times 2 \times 3$

- $60 = 2 \times 2 \times 3 \times 5$
- $\text{LCM}(24,60) = 2 \times 2 \times 3 \times 2 \times 5$

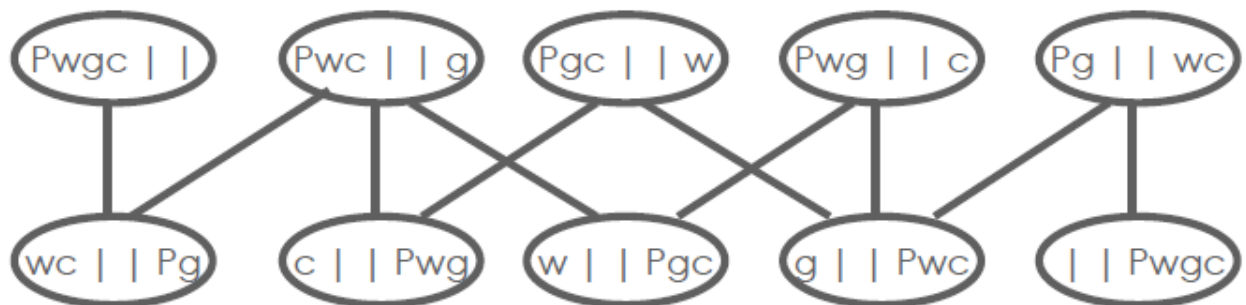
Better?

- $\text{LCM}(m,n) = (m \times n) / \text{GCD}(m,n)$

Reduction to Graph Problems

- State-Space graphs
 - Vertices represent states and edges represent valid transitions between states
 - Start and goal vertices
 - Widely used in AI
- Example

River Crossing Puzzle [**P**easant, **W**olf, **G**oat, **C**abbage]



Strengths and Weaknesses of Transform & Conquer

- Strengths
 - Allows powerful data structures to be applied
 - Effective in Complexity Theory
- Weaknesses
 - Can be difficult to derive (especially reduction)