

Advanced Algorithms Problems and Solutions

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Contents

1	Hogwarts	2
1.1	Solution 1: Preprocessing-then-Dijkstra	2
1.1.1	Pseudo-code	2
1.2	Solution 2: HogwartsDijkstra	3
1.3	Solution 3: BFS-like traversal	3
2	Paletta	4
2.1	Solution 1: Split and count-inversions	4
3	Range updates	6
3.1	Solution 1: Fenwick lazy a-b sums	6
4	Depth of a node in a random search tree	9
4.1	Recursive balanced proof	9
4.2	Upper bound	10
5	Hashing sets	11
5.1	$k \in S$	11
5.2	$ S $	11
5.3	Set operations	11

1 Hogwarts

The Hogwarts School¹ is modeled as a graph $G = (V, E)$ where V is the set of castle's rooms and $E \subseteq V \times V$ is the set of the stairs. Each stair is labelled with the time of appearance and disappearance, and can be walked in both directions, therefore the graph is undirected. The goal is to find, if possible, the minimum amount of time required to go from the first to the last room.

1.1 Solution 1: Preprocessing-then-Dijkstra

Dijkstra is able to find the shortest path in a graph with non-negative weights on its edges. Our main idea is to create a Dijkstra compatible graph through a NORMALIZE function, then apply Dijkstra to it in order to find the shortest path. The core of the preprocessing is the NORMALIZE function which computes traversal times between nodes at a given time *time*:

```
1: function NORMALIZE(from, to, time):
2:    $t \leftarrow \infty$ 
3:   if  $start[v'] \leq t < end[v']$  then                                ▷ No waiting time
4:      $t \leftarrow t + 1$ 
5:   else if  $t < start[v']$  then                                       ▷ Waiting time
6:      $t \leftarrow start[v'] + 1$ 
7:   else
8:      $t \leftarrow \infty$                                              ▷ Available time already expired
9:   return  $t$ 
```

The normalize function is then applied to a node traversal:

1.1.1 Pseudo-code

```
1: create vertex set  $Q$  of unvisited nodes
2: create vertexes set  $E'$  of edges weight
3:  $time \leftarrow 0$                                                     ▷ Initial time for traversal
4:  $edges \leftarrow STAIRS\_OF(0)$  ▷ Get incoming/outgoing edges of the source node
5: function PROCESS(node, time)
6:   if  $edge \in visited\_edges$  then
7:     return
8:    $traversal\_time \leftarrow \infty$ 
9:   for all  $neighbor \in neighbors\_of\_node$  do
10:     $traversal\_time \leftarrow TRAVERSAL\_TIME(node, neighbor, time)$ 
11:     $E'[0][node] \leftarrow traversal\_time$  ▷  $E'[i][j]$  holds the weight/traversal
12:                                         ▷ time for the stair between  $i$  and  $j$ 
13:    for all  $new\_neighbor \in neighbors\_of\_neighbor$  do
14:      NORMALIZE( $neighbor$ ,  $new\_neighbor$ ,  $traversal\_time$ )
15:   if DIJKSTRA( $V, E'$ ) =  $\infty$  then
```

¹http://didawiki.cli.di.unipi.it/lib/exe/fetch.php/magistraleinformatica/alg2/algo2_16/hogwarts.pdf

```

16:     return -1
17: else
18:     return t

```

Computational cost: $\Theta(n^2)$ if the vertex set in DIJKSTRA is implemented as an array. $O(|E| + |V| \log |V|)$ with Fibonacci heap.

1.2 Solution 2: HogwartsDijkstra

```

1: function HOGWARTSDIJKSTRA( $G$ ):
2:   create vertex set  $Q$  of unvisited nodes
3:   for all vertex  $v \in V$  do                                     ▷ initialization
4:      $time[v] \leftarrow \infty$                                    ▷ unknown time from source to v
5:     add  $v$  to  $Q$                                                ▷ all nodes initially in Q
6:    $time[0] \leftarrow 0$                                        ▷ time from source to source
7:   while  $Q \neq \emptyset$  do
8:      $u \leftarrow x \in Q$  with  $\min\{time[x]\}$ 
9:     remove  $u$  from  $Q$ 
10:    for all neighbor  $v$  of  $u$  do:
11:      if  $time[u] \leq appear[v]$  then
12:         $alt \leftarrow appear[v] + 1$                              ▷ wait the appearance of the stair
13:      else if  $time[u] < disappear[v]$  then
14:         $alt \leftarrow time[u] + 1$                                ▷ use the stair
15:      else
16:         $alt \leftarrow \infty$                                      ▷ the stair has already disappeared
17:      if  $alt < time[v]$  then
18:         $time[v] \leftarrow alt$                                    ▷ a quicker path to  $v$  has been found
19:   return  $time[|N| - 1]$ 

```

Computational cost. See the previous section.

1.3 Solution 3: BFS-like traversal

```

1: function REACH( $N, M, A[], B[], appear[], disappear[]$ )
2:   for  $i = 0$  to  $M - 1$  do
3:      $edges\_A[i].push\_back(make\_pair(i, B[i]))$ 
4:      $edges\_B[i].push\_back(make\_pair(i, A[i]))$ 
5:   for  $i = 0$  to  $N - 1$  do
6:      $done\_i[i] \leftarrow false$ 
7:      $distance\_i[i] \leftarrow \infty$ 
8:    $reached\_0[0].push\_back(0)$ 
9:    $distance\_0[0] \leftarrow 0$ 

```

```

10:   for  $t = 0$  to  $MAX\_TIME$  do
11:       for all  $v \in reached\_t$  do
12:           if not  $done\_v$  then
13:               for all  $edge \in edges\_v$  do
14:                    $staircase \leftarrow edge.first$ 
15:                    $neighbor \leftarrow edge.second$ 
16:                    $time \leftarrow \max(distance\_v, appear[staircase]) + 1$ 
17:                   if not  $done\_neighbor$ 
18:                       and  $distance\_v < disappear[staircase]$ 
19:                       and  $time < distance\_neighbor$  then
20:                            $distance\_neighbor \leftarrow time$ 
21:                            $reached\_time.push\_back(neighbor)$ 
22:                    $done\_v \leftarrow true$ 
23:   return  $(distance\_N - 1 = \infty)? - 1 : distance\_N - 1$ 

```

Computational cost: $O(m + MAX_TIME)$.

2 Paletta

Paletta ordering² is a peculiar ordering technique: given a 3-tuple of elements, paletta takes the central element as pivot and swaps the two elements right before and next to it. To make an example:

$$(3, 2, 1) \xrightarrow{paletta} (1, 2, 3)$$

We now want to develop an algorithm to order any array through paletta ordering with the minimal number of swaps. You should see as not every array can be ordered (e.g. $[1, 3, 2]$).

2.1 Solution 1: Split and count-inversions

We should note that the following properties hold:

1. Every element can be a pivot, but the first and the last one, as they have respectively no elements before and after them.
2. Every element can be swapped as many times as necessary, but only with elements of the same 2-remainder (numbers in even positions can only be swapped with numbers in even positions, the same holds for odd indexes). More formally, if n is the size of the array A we want to sort, $i, j \in [1, n-2]$, $A[i]$ can be swapped with $A[j]$ if and only if $i \equiv j \pmod{2}$.

²http://didawiki.cli.di.unipi.it/lib/exe/fetch.php/magistraleinformatica/alg2/algo2_16/paletta.pdf

3. The least number of swaps does not backtrack any element. Formally, let k be the minimal number of swaps applied to an array, backtracks included. By hypothesis, k is minimal, but at least m , $m > 0$ backtrack swaps have been operated, therefore we found a $k' = k - m : k' < k$, a new minimal number of swaps: contradiction.

Given item 2, we can split our array in two, even and odd numbers, and order them counting the swaps. In our example we'll use *mergesort*, as it runs in $O(n \log n)$, does backtrack elements, and is very well-known. Clearly, given an array, a swap happens when an element is pushed back, pulling the one between its new position and the old one ahead: we can map this behaviour in the merge routine of mergesort: the array merged is able to push back elements from its right pointer to the new array, moving them back of $(m - i) + (j - m)$ positions, where m is the dimension of the current two sub-arrays to merge. Provided that our edited version of mergesort ran successfully on both the even-index and odd-index, we now need to verify if by merging them we obtain an ordered array. Intuitively, the merged array will start with the first element of the even-index arrays, followed by the first of the odd-index array, followed by the second of the even-index array, and so on. To check for these elements is pretty trivial and can be done in linear time. Follows the pseudo-code for the edited version and SNAKE_CHECK function:

```

1: function MERGE_WITH_PALETTA(left, right, k):
2:   ...                                     ▷ merge instructions
3:   if right > left then
4:     palette_count ← palette_count + 1
5:     ...
1: function SNAKE_CHECK
2:   even, odd ← 0
3:   for ;even, odd < N; even = even + 1, odd = odd + 1 do
4:     if a[even] > a[odd] then
5:       return -1
6:   return palette_count

```

<p>Computational cost: $\Theta(n \log n)$.</p>
--

3 Range updates

Consider an array C of n integers, initially all equal to zero. We want to support the following operations:

- **update(i, j, c):** where $0 \leq i \leq j \leq n - 1$ and c is an integer: it changes C such that $C[k] = C[k] + c$ for every $i \leq k \leq j$.
- **query(i)** where $0 \leq i \leq n - 1$: it returns the value of $C[i]$.
- **sum(i, j)** where $0 \leq i \leq j \leq n - 1$: it returns $\sum_{k=i}^j C[k]$.

Design a data structure that uses $O(n)$ space and implements each operation above in $O(\log(n))$ time. Note that $query(i) = sum(i, i)$ but it helps to reason. [Hint to further save space: use an implicit tree such as the Fenwick tree (see wikipedia).]

3.1 Solution 1: Fenwick lazy a-b sums

Let T be a segmented binary tree over a continuous interval $I : [0, N - 1]$ s.t. its leafs are the points in I , and the parent of two nodes comprises of their interval:

$$n' \cup n'' = n, n' \cap n'' = \emptyset \text{ s.t. } n \text{ is the parent of } n', n''$$

T will keep track of the prefix sums for every interval. We define a function

$$s' : [0, n - 1] \rightarrow \mathbb{N} \quad (1)$$

that given a node in T returns the value associated with I , namely the cumulative sum of that interval.

In order to reduce the computational cost, we introduce a lazy algorithm that doesn't propagate sums over T as they are streamed in the input, which means $s'(i)$ might not be accurate at a given time t for any of the requested operation.

We'll instead either compute over T or update T as necessary. Let us define a function to do so:

$$l : \mathbb{N} \rightarrow (\mathbb{N} \cup \{\epsilon\}, \mathbb{N}) \quad (2)$$

to keep track of our lazy sums:

$$s(n) = \begin{cases} \epsilon, - & \text{if no lazy prefix sum is in that interval} \\ k, m & \text{if a lazy sum of } k \text{ is to be propagated to } m \end{cases}$$

The QUERY function is then trivial:

```

1: function QUERY( $I, i, sum$ ):
2:   if  $I.size = 1$  then                                ▷ Return found value
3:     return  $I.sum$ 
4:   if lazy( $I$ ),  $i \in I.left, i \notin I.right$  then        ▷ Lazy on left child
5:     lazy( $I$ )  $\leftarrow False$ 
```

```

6:     QUERY(I.left, i, sum + I.sum)
7:     if lazy(I), i ∈ I.right, i ∉ I.left then                                ▷ Lazy on right child
8:         lazy(I) ← False
9:         QUERY(I.right, i, sum + I.sum)
10:    if lazy(I), i ∈ I.right, i ∈ I.left then                                ▷ Lazy on both
11:        lazy(I) ← False
12:        QUERY(I.right, i, j, sum + I.sum) + QUERY(I.left, i, j, sum +
    I.sum)
13:    if !lazy(I), i ∈ I.left then                                            ▷ Not lazy on left child
14:        QUERY(I.left, i, sum)
15:    if !lazy(I), i ∈ I.right then                                            ▷ Not lazy on right child
16:        QUERY(I.right, i, sum)
17:    if !lazy(I), i ∈ I.right, i ∈ I.left then                                ▷ Not lazy on both
18:        SUM(I.right, i, sum)
1: function SUM(I, i, j, sum):
2:     if I.size = 1 then                                                        ▷ Return found value
3:         return I.sum + sum
4:     if lazy(I), i ∈ I.left, i ∉ I.right then                                ▷ Lazy on left child
5:         lazy(I) ← False
6:         SUM(I.left, i, j, sum + I.sum)
7:     if lazy(I), i ∈ I.right, i ∉ I.left then                                ▷ Lazy on right child
8:         lazy(I) ← False
9:         SUM(I.right, i, j, sum + I.sum)
10:    if lazy(I), i ∈ I.right, i ∈ I.left then                                ▷ Lazy on both
11:        lazy(I) ← False
12:        SUM(I.right, i, j, sum + I.sum) + SUM(I.left, i, j, sum + I.sum)
13:    if !lazy(I), i ∈ I.left then                                            ▷ Not lazy on left child
14:        SUM(I.left, i, sum)
15:    if !lazy(I), i ∈ I.right then                                            ▷ Not lazy on right child
16:        SUM(I.right, i, sum)
17:    if !lazy(I), i ∈ I.right, i ∈ I.left then                                ▷ Not lazy on both
18:        SUM(I.right, i, sum)
1: function UPDATE(I, i, j, k):
2:     if I.size = 1 then                                                        ▷ Return found value
3:         return I.val ← I.val + update
4:     if lazy(I), i ∈ I.left, i ∉ I.right then                                ▷ Lazy on left child
5:         lazy(I.left) ← True
6:         I.left.val ← k
7:     if lazy(I), i ∈ I.right, i ∉ I.left then                                ▷ Lazy on right child
8:         lazy(I.right) ← True
9:         I.right.val ← k
10:    if lazy(I), i ∈ I.right, i ∈ I.left then                                ▷ Lazy on both

```

```

11:      lazy(I) ← True
12:      I.val ← k
13:      if !lazy(I), i ∈ I.left then                                ▷ Not lazy on left child
14:          UPDATE(I.left, i, update)
15:      if !lazy(I), i ∈ I.right then                                ▷ Not lazy on right child
16:          UPDATE(I.right, i, update)
17:
18:      if !lazy(I), i ∈ I.right, i ∈ I.left then                    ▷ Not lazy on both
19:          UPDATE(I.right, i, update)

```


4 Depth of a node in a random search tree

A random search tree for a set S can be defined as follows: if S is empty, then the null tree is a random search tree; otherwise, choose uniformly at random a key $k \in S$: the random search tree is obtained by picking k as root, and the random search trees on $L = \{x \in S : x < k\}$ and $R = \{x \in S : x > k\}$ become, respectively, the left and right subtree of the root k . Consider the randomized QuickSort discussed in class and analyzed with indicator variables CLRS 7.3, and observe that the random selection of the pivots follows the above process, thus producing a random search tree of n nodes. Using a variation of the analysis with indicator variables, prove that the expected depth of a node (i.e. the random variable representing the distance of the node from the root) is nearly $2 \log_2(n)$. Prove that the probability that the expected depth of a node exceeds $2 \log_2(n)$ is small for any given constant $c > 1$. [Note: the latter point can be solved after we see Chernoff's bounds.]

4.1 Recursive balanced proof

Let n be the number of nodes in the input list l , $h = \log_2(n)$ the height of a balanced tree over l , $T(p)$ the tree built over the permutation p of pivots, $d(m)$ be the positional distance of a value m of a partition from the median value of the said partition. Then the following holds:

- $height(T) = h \iff |T.left| = |T.right| \pm 1$ Trivially, let r be the root of a 3-nodes partition: then, if the partition is unbalanced, the lesser one will comprise of 0 nodes, while the greater one of 2, which implies that $height(T.right) = 2$.
- $P = \text{pivot}, d(m) = \pm k \implies height(T.left) = height(T.right) \pm k$. Recursively from the previous statement, a partition unbalanced of one element generates subtrees whose levels differ on a factor of 1. By iterating recursively, their subtrees, if unbalanced by 1, will yield one more level difference. Over k unbalanced pivots on a single subtree, at most k levels will be added to h .
- By the previous statement, it follows that $\nexists T, T' : height(T) >= height(T')$, T balanced, T' unbalanced. As stated, let T', T be the unbalanced/balanced tree respectively; let us cheat with T and switch the root pivot with the first element in its subtree. Now, let us prove by contradiction that T can't stay balanced and that its height will increase. By shifting the tree to the left we have deprived $T.right$ of either 0 levels (in case $T.right$ is able to switch every pivot in its tree with its right subtree root, ending with the rightmost leaf in its subtree) or 1, in case no rightmost leaf is present. Therefore $height(T) <= height(T')$.
- The completely unbalanced tree is the tree with the most levels. By taking partitions of size 0 we constantly force, at each level, one subtree to

disappear. Therefore, its level(s) has to be necessarily transferred to its brother. We then have exactly one node per level, therefore n levels.

Behaviour on random permutations Now let us analyse how the tree depth varies according to random pivot selection. We start by applying the 4.1k-distance to a tree T with $n = 3$ nodes. Trivially, $height(T)$ with balanced tree is equal to two. Now, let us pick either the lowest or the greatest pivot possible: the tree is unbalanced towards either the left or the right, but $height(T) = 2$ in both cases. As the reader can see from 4.1, the distance works in absolute value; it is then clear how, at every permutation for a pivot p , out of the n , there are 2 that generate a tree of the same height: $p = d(P) + k, p = d(P) - k$. Given that at every iteration a node x in a completely unbalanced tree T' has a probability of $\frac{1}{n-i}$, we can define the probability of x being a pivot at level l as:

$$P(x_k) = \frac{1}{n-l} \quad (3)$$

Now, in order for x not to be chosen as pivot in the previous $l - 1$ levels we have:

$$P(x_k) = \prod_{k=1}^{l-1} \left(\frac{1}{n-l+1} \right) \quad (4)$$

Given the height of T , the (harmonic) partial series converges to $\ln(n) + 1$. Let us now add a root r s.t. $T'.right = T, T'.left = T$. We now have to consider the mirror case $\ln(n') + \ln(n')$, given by the previous $n' = n/2$ in the logarithm, since the number of nodes doubled, the $+1$ removed for both, since now neither of $T'.left, T.right$ is the root, and a $+1$ added since a new level has been added.

4.2 Upper bound

By hypothesis,

$$E[d(x) > 2c \ln(n)] <<< 1 \quad (5)$$

By definition the ancestor of a node i are independent random variables, and we can apply the Chernoff bounds over the set $x : d(x) \geq 2 \ln(n)$ of random variables determining the expected distance of nodes.

$$P[X \geq cE[X]] < e^{-c \ln(\frac{c}{e})E[X]}$$

Let us consider $X = 1 \forall i == \ln(n)$, the expected depth of $\ln(n)$, then

$$P[X \geq c \ln(n)] < e^{-c \ln(\frac{c}{e}) \ln(n)}$$

5 Hashing sets

Your company has a database $S \subseteq U$ of keys. For this database, it uses a randomly chosen hash function h from a universal family H (as seen in class); it also keeps a bit vector B_S of m entries, initialized to zeroes, which are then set $B_S[h(k)] = 1 \forall k \in S$ (note that collisions may happen). Unfortunately, the database has been lost, thus only B_S and h are known, and the rest is no more accessible. Now, given $k \in U$, how can you establish if k was in S or not? What is the probability of error? (Optional: can you estimate the size $|S|$ of S looking at h and B_S and what is the probability of error?) Later, another database R has been found to be lost: it was using the same hash function h , and the bit vector B_R defined analogously as above. Using h, B_S, B_R , how can you establish if k was in $S \cap R$ (union), $S \cup R$ (intersection), or $S \setminus R$ (difference)? What is the probability of error?

5.1 $k \in S$

Since h is bijective, $h(k) \in [m] \iff k \in S$.

5.2 $|S|$

Since h is bijective, and we know h , we can identify a lower bound, but are not able to estimate correctly the exact number. Trivially, we count the insertions in B_S with a $\phi(B_S)$, and we'll have $|S| \geq \phi(B_S)$. Since we have no access to the collision list, we don't know how many collisions there are on every B_S entry to 1.

5.3 Set operations

- **Union** Trivially proven by 5.1 applied to R, S . If any of them $\in [m]$, then $k \in S \cup R$.
- **Intersection** Trivially proven by 5.1 applied to R, S . If both $\in [m]$, then $k \in S \cap R$.
- **Difference** Trivially proven by complement on union.