CS2040S: Data Structures and Algorithms

Discussion Group Problems for Week 10

For: March 24-March 28

Problem 1. DFS/BFS

Problem 1.a. Recall that when performing DFS or BFS, we may keep track of a parent pointer that indicates the very first time that a node was visited. Explain why these parent edges form a tree (i.e., why there are no cycles).

Solution: A total of n-1 new nodes will be discovered starting from the source node. With each discovery, the parent pointer can be thought of as an edge. The final structure will consist of n nodes and n-1 edges and will form one connected component. The resultant tree is sometimes known as a BFS/DFS-spanning tree.

Problem 1.b. Remember we learned about algorithms called DFS and BFS on trees? Trees are just a type of graph. How does DFS or BFS on a tree relate to DFS or BFS on a graph? Are they the same algorithm? Will the DFS/BFS algorithm we learned about for trees work on a graph? Will the DFS/BFS algorithm we learned about for graphs work on a tree? What happens if you run DFS/BFS on a tree but do not start at the root?

Solution: The version for graphs is a generalization of the version for trees. For trees, we did not keep track of which nodes were already visited? Why? Because it was a tree! Since there were no cycles, it was impossible to visit a node twice. So the version for graphs will work on trees, but the version for trees will NOT work on graphs.

If you run BFS/DFS on a tree starting from a non-root node, it works just fine. In fact, you can use a BFS or DFS from a non-root node on a tree to "re-root" the tree, specifying a new root for the tree (and updating which are the parent and child edges). You might go through an example of this, i.e., how to switch the root of a tree.

Problem 2. Graph components

(Relevant Kattis Problem: https://open.kattis.com/problems/countingstars/)

Given an undirected graph G = (V, E) as an adjacency list, give an algorithm to: (i) determine if the graph is connected; (ii) return the number of connected components (CC) in the graph.

Solution: (i) Determining if the graph is connected:

Let G = (V, E) be an undirected graph represented as an adjacency list. A graph is connected if and only if there exists a path between any pair of vertices in the graph. Algorithm:

- 1. Select any arbitrary vertex $s \in V$ as the starting point.
- 2. Perform a graph traversal (BFS or DFS) from vertex s.
- 3. During traversal, maintain a set Visited $\subseteq V$ to track vertices that have been reached.
- 4. After traversal completes, check if |Visited| = |V|.
- 5. If |Visited| = |V|, then the graph is connected. Otherwise, it is disconnected.

(ii) Counting Connected Components:

Algorithm:

- 1. Initialize component count c = 0.
- 2. Initialize a set Visited = \emptyset to track visited vertices.
- 3. For each vertex $v \in V$:
 - (a) If $v \notin V$ isited:
 - i. Increment c = c + 1.
 - ii. Perform BFS/DFS starting from v.
 - iii. Add all vertices encountered during traversal to Visited.
- 4. Return c as the number of connected components.

Correctness: A connected component is a maximal subset of vertices $C \subseteq V$ where there exists a path between any two vertices in C. When we perform BFS/DFS from an unvisited vertex v, we discover precisely all vertices that are reachable from v, which forms exactly one connected component. By repeating this process for each unvisited vertex, we identify all connected components in the graph.

Note that part (i) is a special case of part (ii): a graph is connected if and only if it has exactly one connected component.

Problem 3. Is it a tree?

(Relevant Kattis Problem: https://open.kattis.com/problems/flyingsafely/)

Assume you are given a connected graph with n nodes and m edges as an adjacency list. (You are given n but not m; assume each adjacency list is given as a linked list, so you do not have access to its size.)

Give an algorithm to determine whether or not this graph is a *tree*. Recall that a tree is a connected graph with no cycles. Your algorithm should run in O(n); particularly, it should be independent of m. Assume O(n+m) is too slow.

Solution: Any connected, undirected graph containing n nodes and > n-1 edges has a cycle. Thus, simply count edges in the graph, stopping when you find at least n edges. Notice, though, that since the graph is given as an adjacency list, each edge is represented twice: in the list of both the source and the destination. Thus, if you find > 2n-2 edges in the adjacency list, you know there is a cycle, and the graph is not a tree. Otherwise, since we are given that the graph is connected, and have verified that it has n-1 edges, it is a tree.

If we are not given that the graph is connected, the same approach can be used. After verifying that it has n-1 edges, simply modify it to run DFS to check whether all nodes can be reached and that there is no cycle.

Problem 4. Graph modeling

Here are a bunch of problems. How would you model them as a graph? (Do not worry about solving the actual problem. We have not studied these algorithms. Just think about how you would model it as a graph problem.) Invent some of your own problems that can be modeled as graph problems—the stranger, the better.

Problem 4.a. Imagine you have a population in which some people are infected with this weird virus. For any two patients, you want to decide whether the infection might have spread from one to the other.

- 1. First, you can assume that everyone who passes on the infection is symptomatic and via testing, you can tell that they were infected.
- 2. Now, what if the virus may be passed by some asymptomatic people (who do not test positive)? You can assume that the virus is not passed too often by such people, so any chain of infections will only include a few asymptomatic cases.

Solution: For both parts, we can model the people as nodes, and add edges between people if they are friends or close acquaintances. We can then color the sick nodes red and the healthy nodes blue. Then:

- 1. We can find a path connecting the 2 patients that contains only red nodes.
- 2. We can find a path connecting the 2 patients that does not contain too many blue nodes.

Problem 4.b. Imagine you have a population in which some few people are infected with this weird virus. You also have a list of locations that each of the sick people were in each of the last 14 days. Determine if any of the sick people ever met.

Solution: Model the people as nodes and every (location, day) pair as a node. This means that we will have 14 nodes per location, each representing the same location but on a different day. We can add edges between people and the (location, day) node they were in. This represents visiting that location on a specific day. Now look at any (location, day) node that has degree > 1—this would show the people that have met if they visited the same location on the same day.

Problem 4.c. You are given a set of jobs to schedule. Each job j starts at some time s_j an ends at some time t_j . Many of these jobs overlap. You want to efficiently find large collections of non-overlapping jobs so that you can assign each collection to a single server.

Solution: Each node is a job. Add an edge between two nodes if the respective jobs overlap. Now you need to find collections of nodes that are not neighbors. (This is referred to as an *independent set* and hence can be solved by algorithms for finding a maximal independent set. In fact, there are simple greedy solutions for the Interval Scheduling problem.)

Problem 4.d. An English professor complains that students in their class are cheating. The professor suspects that the cheating students are all copying their material from only a few different sources, but does not know where they are copying from. Students that are not cheating, on the other hand, all submit fairly different solutions. How should we catch the cheaters?

Solution: Each student's essay is a node. Add an edge between two nodes if the respective essays are similar. A cluster of nodes all connected to each other likely indicates cheating. (If they are all connected, this is about finding a clique. Otherwise, this is a clustering problem.)

Problem 4.e. There are n children and n presents, and each child has told you which presents they want. How do we assign presents to children?

Solution: Each child is a node. Each present is a node. Add an edge connecting a child to a present if that present is acceptable to that child. Now find a set of edges that do no share any endpoints. (This is called a matching.)

Problem 5. Word games

(Relevant Kattis problem: https://open.kattis.com/problems/sendmoremoney/)

Consider the following two puzzles:

• Puzzle 1:

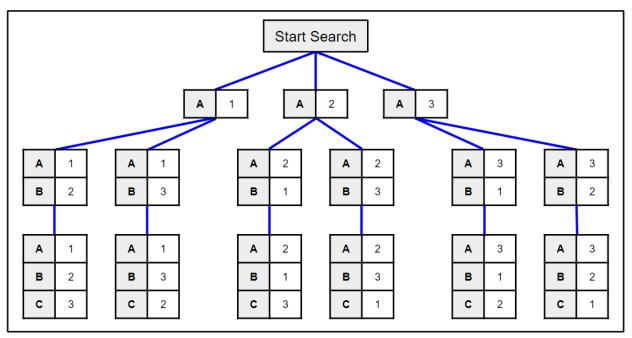
• Puzzle 2:

SIXTY

In each of these two puzzles, you can assign a digit (i.e., $\{0,1,2,3,4,5,6,7,8,9\}$) to each of the letters in the puzzle such that the given equation holds. (Each digit is only assigned to once letter.) The goal is to solve these puzzles. How should you model and solve these puzzles? What is the running time of your solution? Can you optimize your solution to find the answer more quickly, most of the time?

Problem 5.a. Explain how to model the problem as a graph search problem. What are the nodes? How many nodes are there? What are the edges? Where do you start? What are you looking for?

Solution: There are many solutions, but the standard idea here is that each node in the graph contains some subset of the letters and some assignment of digits to letters. We might consider nodes that have increasing subsets of letters. For example, if the letters in the equation are A, B, C and the available digits are $\{1, 2, 3\}$, we might consider the following nodes:



Notice that here I have assumed that each digit can only be used once. The edges connect nodes where you can reach one from the other by assigning one more digit. For example, the node (A, 1) has two outgoing edges to (AB, 12) and (AB, 13). You also have a distinguished start node (that is empty) that connects to all the nodes where only one letter is fixed.

You may notice that this assignment actually yields a tree! That simplifies matters. If you instead represent each node as containing every possible subset of letters and every possible assignment, then you will get a graph (i.e., both (A, 1) and (B, 2) will be connected to (AB, 12)).

For each of the nodes where all the letters are fixed, you can determine whether it is a *valid* or an *invalid* node by determining if the equation holds. So why did we construct such a lengthy visual description instead of just assigning all colors and then checking, then making another assignment and then checking? Why are the inner nodes useful at all?

Problem 5.b. To solve this problem, should you use BFS or DFS? Why? How else can you make it run faster?

Solution: DFS is a better search algorithm, though there is no asymptotic difference. Especially for the graph representation above, BFS is equivalent to searching the entire graph. In that case, you might as well simply examine all the assignments. Using DFS, the idea will be to not search the entire graph.

In practice, for these types of exponential sized problems, you want to use various heuristics to decide which branches to explore first, and you want to rapidly trim bad directions.

For example, if you ever assign enough letters to check part of the equation, you should do so right away, and then stop exploring that path if it fails! (This is the obvious "pruning" strategy.) And you should direct your search to go visit nodes faster that you can prune. For example, if you have already assigned the letters R and T, the next letter you should assign is X so that you can verify whether or not the addition works (and prune it if not).

Problem 5.c. When does your search finish? Can you optimize the algorithm to minimize the amount of searching?

Solution: For every node, you can examine the partial assignment and decide whether it is already invalid—no possible further assignment can successfully solve the equation. For every column if the equation, if all the letters are assigned numbers, you can sum up the column (taking into account the potential carry) and determine whether it is possibly correct. If not, then abort the DFS, and do not continue exploring the sub-graph.

Problem 6. Good students, bad students

(Relevant Kattis problem: https://open.kattis.com/problems/amanda/)

There are good students and bad students¹. And at the end of every year, we have to divide the students into two piles: G, the good students who will get an A, and B, the bad students who will get an F. (We only give two grades in this class.)

To help with this process, your friendly tutors have each created a set of notecards. Each card contains the names of two students. One of the two names is a good student, and the other is a bad student. Unfortunately, they do not indicate which is which.

Since the notecards come from thirty eight different tutors, it is not immediately certain that the cards are consistent. Maybe one tutor thinks that Humperdink is a good student, while another tutor thinks that Humperdink is a bad student. (And Humperdink may appear on several different cards.) In addition, the tutors do not provide cards for every student.

Assume you can read the names on a card in O(1) time and that there are more good students than bad students.

Devise an algorithm to determine the answers for the following questions:

• Are the notecards consistent, i.e., is there *any* way that we can assign students to G and B that is consistent with the cards? Note that there must be more good students than bad students.

¹No, not really. This sort of binary distinction is silly.

- Are the notecards sufficient (to make *any* conclusion)? i.e., can we either deduce that the notecards are inconsistent (and so, there's **no** way to assign the students to the sets G and B) or can we find **exactly one** possible way to assign students to the sets?
- Assuming that the notecards are consistent and sufficient, determine which set each student belongs to.

Solution: (Note: Due to technical limitations, there are several solution labels. They do not correspond to each part, rather, refer to the italicized words "consistent" and "sufficient" to find the divisions)

To begin, let's understand the key definitions and conditions.

- Consistent: The notecards are consistent if there is at least one valid way to assign students to G (good) and B (bad) such that every notecard contains one student from G and one from B, and |G| > |B|.
- **Sufficient:** The notecards are sufficient if there is *at most one* valid assignment. That is, you can conclude either:
 - There is no valid assignment (inconsistent), or
 - There is exactly one valid assignment.

This problem is about determining whether a graph is bipartite. The first step is to model the problem as a graph: each student is a node, and connect two students with an edge if they appear on the same notecard (on opposite sides). If the notecards are consistent, then you should be able to color the graph with two colors (G)reen (for good) and (B)lue (for bad) in a way that is bipartite, i.e., no edges connect green and blue nodes. Whichever color has more nodes will be the good students!

How do we determine if it is *sufficient*?

There is one case where the graph is bipartite, but you may not be able to decide an assignment: if the graph is not connected. Imagine you have two connected components. It may be possible to color the nodes properly with two colors, but not possible to figure out which color is good and which color is bad. (The only information we have to distinguish good from bad is that there are more good than bad students. Imagine we have two components, one that has four color A and seven color B; the other has four color C and six color D. How do you know whether (B, D) or (B, C) are the good students?)

Note that you may still be able to decide if there is only one way to assign the students. Imagine we have two components, one that has five color A and one color B; the other has five color C and one color D. (A, C) must be the good students!

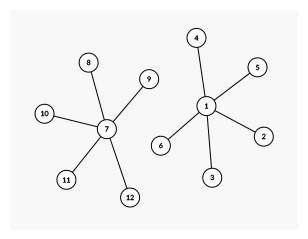


Figure 1: Notice how there is only one possible coloring here because the number of good students must be greater than the number of bad students!

Solution: One simple way of solving this problem is as follows: choose any student, and begin performing a BFS; for each node, the first time it is visited in the BFS, label it with its level (i.e., the root is level 0, its neighbors are level 1, its neighbors neighbors are level 2, etc.). If BFS completes and there are still unvisited nodes, we can run BFS again on any unvisited node if we still desire to find some pairing.

If all nodes are visited during the first run of BFS, then the data must be sufficient. If multiple runs of BFS are necessary, the data may not be sufficient. For every connected component, it is associated with m nodes of one color and n nodes of another color. We want to fix our choice of colors such that the sum of m > 1 the sum of m > 1 the sum of m > 1 to checking for sum of m > 1 the sum of m > 1 the sum of m > 1 to be the greater color and m > 1 as the smaller color, then each connected component will contribute to a positive difference of m > 1. If the sum of differences, m > 1, is m > 1, then there is no way since we assumed that there are more good students than bad students. If m > 1, then there is more than one way of assigning the students if and only if m > 1 where m > 1 is the difference of the connected component with the smallest m > 1. The following is provably correct.

- 1. If there is 1 connected component only, then it is always sufficient.
- 2. If there are 2 connected components, it is sufficient if and only if the difference associated with both components are equal (and if the difference is zero, we can conclude that there is no valid assignment).
- 3. If there are 3 or more connected components, it is sufficient if and only if the difference associated with each component is equal to 0 (since we have sufficient information to conclude that there is no valid assignment).

Solution: Proof:

Notice if there exists a connected component whose associated difference is 0, the number of possible assignments must be even. Then, the number of assignments is double the number of assignments excluding that connected component. This is because you can color the extra connected component 2 different ways without affecting the overall balance of good and bad students. Hence, it is sufficient if and only if there are 0 assignments.

If there exists exactly 2 connected components whose associated differences are non-zero and different, say (A, B), (C, D) with A - B > C - D > 0, then A, C and A, D are both possible assignments for good students.

If there exists at least 3 connected components whose associated differences are all nonzero, say (A,B),(C,D),(E,F) with $A-B \geq C-D \geq E-F > 0$, then A,C,E and A,C,F are both possible assignments for good students. If there are more connected components, simply assign the larger components to good students.

How do we determine if it is *consistent*?

We scan the graph: If any node with an even level has a neighbor with an even level, then the data is inconsistent. To get more intuition, think about it from a coloring perspective. Good students are, let's say, green, and bad blue. Each edge, as specified by the notecard, should be placing an edge between a blue and a green node right? Now consider the BFS Tree that is formed after the BFS. Say that all nodes of odd level is green and all nodes at even level is blue. Now if an edge exists between two nodes whose levels have same parity (ie both even or both odd), then we are essentially placing an edge between two nodes of same color, ie, the notecard representing the edge has both students of same type, hence this is not possible.

After obtaining a successful coloring, the graph may still be inconsistent. This happens if and only if the difference d associated with every connected component is equal to 0. This is because, no matter what you do, there will be an equal number of students in G and G. Then, there is no way of assigning them so that there are more students in G than in G.

How do we determine the assignment if it is *consistent* and *sufficient*?

If the data is both consistent and sufficient, then it follows that one of the following holds:

- 1. There is 1 connected component only with the colors A and B with only 1 valid combination of assignments of colors to G or B.
- 2. There are 2 connected components with the colors (A, B) and the colors (C, D) with only 1 valid combination of assignments of colors to G or B. WLOG, A > B and C > D, then $A B = C D \neq 0$. This means that the students in A, C are good and the students in B, D are bad.

All students will have been visited, and we simply need to consider every component independently. We will obtain a coloring of it, since it is consistent. We can assign the students with the majority color to be in G and the students with the minority color to be in G. Since it is sufficient, this is the only valid assignment. Hence, we can determine which set each student belongs to.

Problem 7. Gone viral (Optional, more challenging)

There are n students in the National University of Singapore. Among them, there are n-1 friendships. Note that friendship is a symmetric relation, but it is not necessarily transitive.

Any two people in the National University of Singapore are either directly or indirectly friends. Formally, between any two different people x and y, either x is friends with y or there exists a sequence q_1, q_2, \ldots, q_k such that x is friends with q_1, q_i is friends with q_{i+1} for all i < k and q_k is friends with y.

It was discovered today that **two** people were found to have the flu in the National University of Singapore.

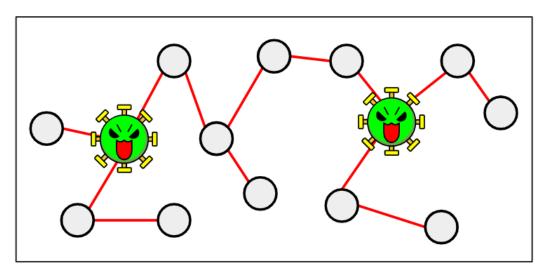


Figure 2: Gone Viral. (Matthew Ng Zhen Rui)

Every day, every person can meet with **at most one friend.** When these two people meet, if exactly one of them has the flu, it will be transmitted to the other.

Give an $O(n \log^2 n)$ algorithm to determine the minimum possible number of days before it is possible that *everyone* has the flu.

Hint: First, solve the case where there is only a single person was infected at the start in $O(n \log n)$

Solution: Since the graph is connected and contains n vertices and n-1 edges, it is a tree.

For the one infected student case, the solution is straightforward—consider the tree rooted at the infected student and define f(x) as the minimum number of days needed for all students in the subtree of x to be infected assuming the xth student is infected.

For leaf nodes f(x) = 0. For internal nodes, we have $f(x) = \max(f(c_1) + 1, f(c_2) + 2, \dots, f(c_k) + k)$ where c_1, c_2, \dots, c_k are the children infected in this order. Since we want to minimize f, we should sort these $f(c_i)$'s so that +1 gets assigned to the maximum $f(c_1)$, +2 to the second-maximum and so on.

This can be done in $O(k \log k)$ for an internal node with k children. Overall it is $O(n \log n)$.

For the two infected students case, suppose the two infected students are x and y and consider the unique path from x to y. It is unique because we have a tree. Call this path $x, q_1, q_2, \ldots, q_t, y$. In the optimal solution, there exists some $0 \le k \le t$ such that such that x, q_1, \ldots, q_k are infected by students originally infected by x and q_{k+1}, \ldots, q_t, y are infected by students originally infected by y. In other words, we can cut some edge along this path and compute the answers for the two trees (using the solution for the one infected person case). Suppose the tree containing x needs x and otherwise y. By binary searching on this path, we have an x and otherwise y solution.