

# Data Structures

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# Today's material

- Prerequisites
- Sliding Window
- Heap
- Union-Find
- Precomputations like prefix sums
- Square root decomposition
- Segment trees
- Sparse tables

# Prerequisites

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We assume you know how to implement the following data structures using only fixed size arrays and pointers/objects:

- Dynamically sized arrays (like vector in C++)
- Singly/doubly linked lists (like list in C++)
- Queue and stack using either of the above

We also assume you have experience using  
(unordered\_){map,set}

# Sliding Window

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# A Sum Problem

## Problem description

Write a program that, given an integer array of size  $N$ , finds the contiguous subarray of size  $K$  with the highest sum.

## Input description

Input consist of two lines. The first line contains two space separated integers  $N$ , the size of the array, where  $1 \leq N \leq 10^6$ , and  $K$ , the size of the subarrays to consider, where  $1 \leq K \leq N$ . Then second line contains  $N$  space separated integers, the values of the array. Each value in the array is between  $-10^9$  and  $10^9$ .

## Output description

Output one line, the sum of the highest valued contiguous subarray of size  $K$ .

# A Sum Problem

Sample input	Sample output
10 4 17 20 0 1 5 24 8 2 4 1	39

# Straightforward Solution

```
n, k = map(int, input().split())
arr = list(map(int, input().split()))
highest = float('-inf')
for start in range(n-k+1):
    end = start + k
    total = 0
    for i in range(start, end):
        total += arr[i]
    highest = max((highest, total))
print(highest)
```



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- This solution constructs all size  $K$  contiguous subarrays.

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- What is the time complexity?

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- There are  $N$  starting points, each construction takes  $K$  steps, so  $\mathcal{O}(NK)$ .

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- This solution constructs all size  $K$  contiguous subarrays.
- What is the time complexity?
- There are  $N$  starting points, each construction takes  $K$  steps, so  $\mathcal{O}(NK)$ .
- Too slow!

# Wasted Operations

- The subarray starting at index  $i$  has the sum  
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- What changes between starting at  $i$  vs. starting at  $i + 1$ ?
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- We add  $a_{i+k}$ .

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- We iterate over the indices  $i + 1, i + 2, \dots, i + k - 1$  twice.
- What changes between starting at  $i$  vs. starting at  $i + 1$ ?
- We subtract  $a_i$ .
- We add  $a_{i+k}$ .
- A shift from the subarray starting at  $i$  to the subarray starting at  $i + 1$  takes  $\mathcal{O}(1)$  time.

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- We iterate over the indices  $i + 1, i + 2, \dots, i + k - 1$  twice.
- What changes between starting at  $i$  vs. starting at  $i + 1$ ?
- We subtract  $a_i$ .
- We add  $a_{i+k}$ .
- A shift from the subarray starting at  $i$  to the subarray starting at  $i + 1$  takes  $\mathcal{O}(1)$  time.
- This is known as the sliding window technique, in this case with a fixed window size.

# Sliding Window Solution

```
n, k = map(int, input().split())
arr = list(map(int, input().split()))
total = 0
for i in range(k):
    total += arr[i]
highest = total
for i in range(n - k):
    total -= arr[i]
    total += arr[i+k]
    highest = max((highest, total))
print(highest)
```

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- What is the time complexity?

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- What is the time complexity?
- This solution constructs the first size  $K$  contiguous subarray.

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- What is the time complexity?
- This solution constructs the first size  $K$  contiguous subarray.
- Then,  $N - K$  times, an element is removed and another added.



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- This solution constructs the first size  $K$  contiguous subarray.
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- Subtracting and adding numbers is constant time so  $\mathcal{O}(N)$ .

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- What is the time complexity?
- This solution constructs the first size  $K$  contiguous subarray.
- Then,  $N - K$  times, an element is removed and another added.
- Subtracting and adding numbers is constant time so  $\mathcal{O}(N)$ .
- Fast enough!

# A Substring Problem

## Problem description

Write a program that, given a string of size  $N$ , finds the longest substring with  $K$  distinct elements.

## Input description

Input consists of two lines. The first line contains two space-separated integers  $N$ , the size of the string, where  $1 \leq N \leq 10^6$ , and  $K$ , the number of distinct elements the substring must have, where  $1 \leq K \leq 26$ . Then the second line contains a string of length  $N$  consisting of English lowercase characters.

## Output description

Output one line, the longest substring with  $K$  distinct elements. If no such string exists, output "DOES NOT EXIST", without quotations.

## A Substring Problem

Sample input	Sample output
14 3 bacdcbcabcabdb	cdcbc

# General Framework

```
from string import ascii_lowercase
n, k = map(int, input().split())
s = input()

best_ind, best_len = distinct_k(n, k, s)

if best_len == -1:
    print("DOES NOT EXIST")
else:
    print(s[best_ind:best_ind + best_len])
```

# Straightforward Solution

```
def distinct_k(n, k, s):
    best_ind, best_len = -1, -1
    for start in range(n):
        for end in range(start, n+1):
            substring = s[start:end]
            distinct = 0
            for symbol in ascii_lowercase:
                if symbol in substring:
                    distinct += 1
            cur_len = len(substring)
            if distinct == k and cur_len > best_len:
                best_ind = start
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    return best_ind, best_len
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- What is the time complexity?
- There are  $\mathcal{O}(N^2)$  substrings of the string



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- What is the time complexity?
- There are  $\mathcal{O}(N^2)$  substrings of the string
- Checking each one takes us  $\mathcal{O}(N)$  time, so  $\mathcal{O}(N^3)$  in total.
- Way too slow!

# Constant optimization

```
def distinct_k(n, k, s):
    best_ind, best_len = -1, -1
    for start in range(n):
        for end in range(start, n+1):
            substring = s[start:end]
            present = [False for _ in range(26)]
            for symbol in substring:
                present[ord(symbol) - ord('a')] = True
            distinct = sum(present)
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- This is a little faster, by a factor of 26 approximately.

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- Time complexity is the same.

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- Note that counts barely differs between adjacent values of end

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- This is a little faster, by a factor of 26 approximately.
- Time complexity is the same.
- Note that counts barely differs between adjacent values of end
- Build it as the substring grows.

# Incremental

```
def distinct_k(n, k, s):
    best_ind, best_len = -1, -1
    for start in range(n):
        present = [False for _ in range(26)]
        for end in range(start, n):
            present[ord(s[end]) - ord('a')] = True
            distinct = sum(present)
            cur_len = end - start + 1
            if distinct == k and cur_len > best_len:
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- Now each substring is processed in constant time.

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- Now each substring is processed in constant time.
- Time complexity is  $\mathcal{O}(N^2)$

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- Now each substring is processed in constant time.
- Time complexity is  $\mathcal{O}(N^2)$
- For a given value of ind, adjacent start values have similar values of counts.

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- Now each substring is processed in constant time.
- Time complexity is  $\mathcal{O}(N^2)$
- For a given value of `ind`, adjacent start values have similar values of counts.
- Note that adding characters will never decrease `distinct`.

# Incremental

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def distinct_k(n, k, s):
    best_ind, best_len = -1, -1
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    return best_ind, best_len
```

- Now each substring is processed in constant time.
- Time complexity is  $\mathcal{O}(N^2)$
- For a given value of `ind`, adjacent start values have similar values of counts.
- Note that adding characters will never decrease `distinct`.
- However, removing elements from the front may reduce `distinct`.

# Sliding Window

```
def distinct_k(n, k, s):
    best_ind, best_len = -1, -1
    start, end, distinct = 0, 0, 0
    count = [0 for _ in range(26)]
    while start < n:
        while end < n:
            c = ord(s[end]) - ord('a')
            if distinct == k and count[c] == 0:
                break
            count[c] += 1
            end += 1
            distinct = sum(x > 0 for x in count)
        cur_len = end - start
        if distinct == k and cur_len > best_len:
            best_ind = start
            best_len = cur_len
        count[ord(s[start]) - ord('a')] -= 1
        start += 1
        distinct = sum(x > 0 for x in count)
    return best_ind, best_len
```

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- What is the time complexity?

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- What is the time complexity?
- It may seem quadratic at first



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```

- What is the time complexity?
- It may seem quadratic at first
- Each element gets added and removed once, so  $\mathcal{O}(N)$ .

# Sliding Window

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- What is the time complexity?
- It may seem quadratic at first
- Each element gets added and removed once, so  $\mathcal{O}(N)$ .
- Lets introduce  $C$ , the number of different symbols possible.

# Sliding Window

```
def distinct_k(n, k, s):
    best_ind, best_len = -1, -1
    start, end, distinct = 0, 0, 0
    count = [0 for _ in range(26)]
    while start < n:
        while end < n:
            c = ord(s[end]) - ord('a')
            if distinct == k and count[c] == 0:
                break
            count[c] += 1
            end += 1
            distinct = sum(x > 0 for x in count)
        cur_len = end - start
        if distinct == k and cur_len > best_len:
            best_ind = start
            best_len = cur_len
        count[ord(s[start]) - ord('a')] -= 1
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- Now adding/removing an element is  $\mathcal{O}(1)$ .
- The time complexity is now  $\mathcal{O}(N + C)$ .

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- The data has to be contiguous, or in other words, no gaps between selected elements.
- Usually you want the maximal or the minimal window fulfilling a certain condition.

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- Step 3: Perform `remove` and go to step 1.
- Time complexity is  $\mathcal{O}(N \cdot (X + Y))$  where  $X$  and  $Y$  are the cost of `add` and `remove`, respectively.



# Heap

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- Heaps are implemented in most standard libraries in the forms of priority queues.
- A heap is nothing but a binary tree satisfying *the heap condition*.
- The heap condition (for a min heap) says that the value of any given node is not greater than that of its children.

# Heaps

- Since arrays are linear, we want to smush this binary tree into an array for the implementation.

# Heaps

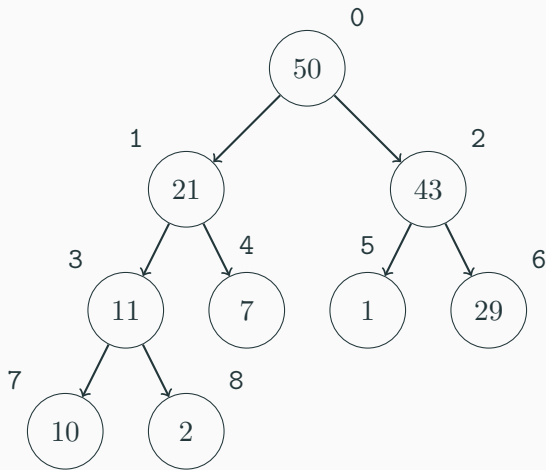
- Since arrays are linear, we want to smush this binary tree into an array for the implementation.
- We can do this by putting the root at index 1. Then the children of item at index  $i$  are simply at  $2i$  and  $2i + 1$ . The parent of any item  $i > 1$  is then  $\lfloor \frac{i}{2} \rfloor$ .

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- We could do this using raw arrays (then index 0 can be used to store its size), but the examples will be given in C++ using vectors.



# Heaps



ARRAY: [SIZE, 50, 21, 43, 11, 7, 1, 29, 10, 2]

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- Items can be deleted by replacing the smallest value with a leaf and then fixing the heap condition downwards.
- Let us see how this would look in C++.

# C++ implementation (min-heap)

```
template<typename T> struct Heap {
    vector<T> h; Heap() : h(1) { }
    constexpr size_t size() { return h.size() - 1; }
    constexpr T peek() { return h[1]; }
    void swim(size_t i) {
        while(i != 1 && h[i] < h[i / 2]) {
            swap(h[i], h[i / 2]);
            i /= 2; } }
    void sink(size_t i) {
        while(true) {
            size_t mn = i;
            if(2 * i + 1 < h.size() && h[mn] > h[2 * i + 1]) mn = 2 * i + 1;
            if(2 * i < h.size() && h[mn] > h[2 * i]) mn = 2 * i;
            if(mn != i) swap(h[i], h[mn]), i = mn;
            else break; } }
    void pop() {
        h[1] = h.back();
        h.pop_back(); sink(1); }
    void push(T x) {
        h.push_back(x);
        swim(h.size() - 1); } };
```

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- We provide it for demonstration of representing binary trees with an array.



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- Operation `find(x)` finds the representative of the set  $x$  is in
- Operation `union(x, y)` unions the sets of which  $x$  and  $y$  are members.



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- At any given point  $\text{find}(x)$  returns some value in the same set as  $x$ .
- The important bit is that  $\text{find}(x)$  returns the same value for all elements of the same set, the representative.



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- To get the representative of  $x$  we go to the parent of our current item (starting at  $x$ ) until the item has no parent.
- Then to unite  $x, y$  we simply make the representative of  $x$  the parent of the representative of  $y$ .

## Naïve Union-Find implementation

```
struct union_find {  
    vector<int> parent;  
    union_find(int n) {  
        parent = vector<int>(n);  
        for(int i = 0; i < n; i++) {  
            parent[i] = i;  
        }  
    }  
    int find(int x) {  
        return parent[x] == x ? x : find(parent[x]);  
    }  
    void unite(int x, int y) {  
        parent[find(x)] = find(y);  
    }  
};
```

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- We can also do this by flattening the chain each time we query `find`, so the amortized complexity becomes good.
- Here the worst case is still  $\mathcal{O}(n)$  but the amortized complexity is  $\mathcal{O}(\alpha(n))$  which may as well be a constant, as it is  $< 5$  for  $n$  equal to the number of atoms in the observable universe.

## Path compressed Union-Find implementation

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struct union_find {  
    vector<int> parent;  
    union_find(int n) {  
        parent = vector<int>(n);  
        for (int i = 0; i < n; i++) {  
            parent[i] = i;  
        }  
    }  
    int find(int x) {  
        if(parent[x] == x) return x;  
        return parent[x] = find(parent[x]);  
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## Union-Find applications

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- When tracking size you can use it to always perform small-to-large merges for  $\mathcal{O}(\log n)$  time complexity.

## Example problem: Skolavslutningen

- <https://open.kattis.com/problems/skolavslutningen>

# Range Queries

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- Sometimes we also want to update elements.

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- Simplification: only support queries of the form  $\text{sum}(0, j)$
- Notice that  $\text{sum}(i, j) = \text{sum}(0, j) - \text{sum}(0, i - 1)$

## Range sum on a static array

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- So we're only interested in prefix sums
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1	1					

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1	1	8				



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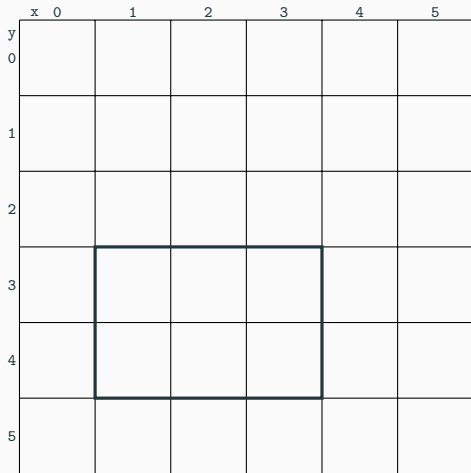
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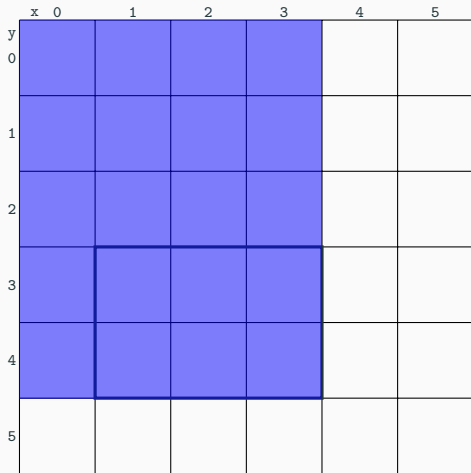
$$\begin{aligned}\text{sum}(x_i, x_j, y_i, y_j) &= \text{sum}(0, x_j, 0, y_j) \\ &\quad - \text{sum}(0, x_{i-1}, 0, y_j) \\ &\quad - \text{sum}(0, x_j, 0, y_{i-1}) \\ &\quad + \text{sum}(0, x_{i-1}, 0, y_{i-1})\end{aligned}$$

## 2D sum



`query(1, 3, 3, 4)`

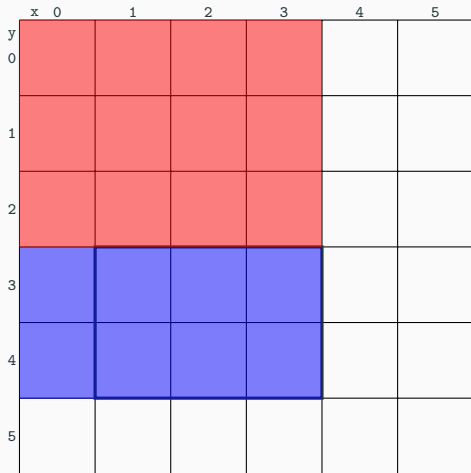
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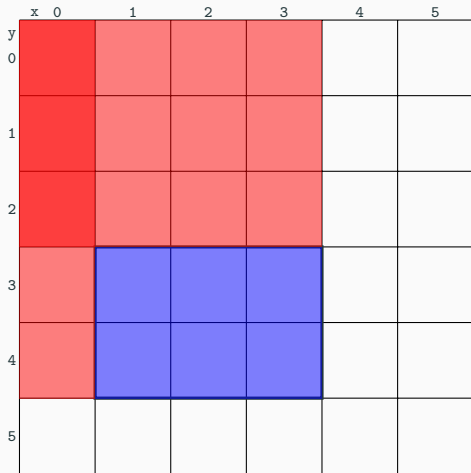
query(1, 3, 3, 4)

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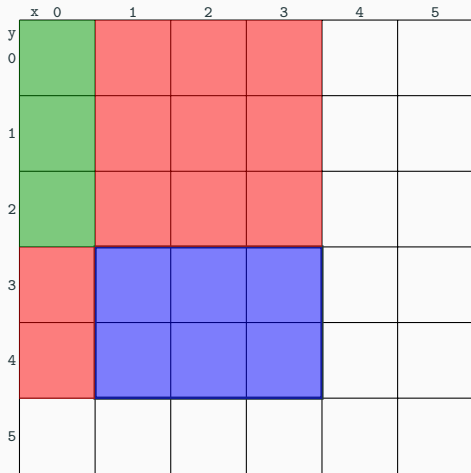
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- Also known as square root decomposition, and is a very powerful technique

## Example problem: Supercomputer

- <https://open.kattis.com/problems/supercomputer>

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- Now we know how to do these queries in  $O(\sqrt{n})$
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- Can we do better?



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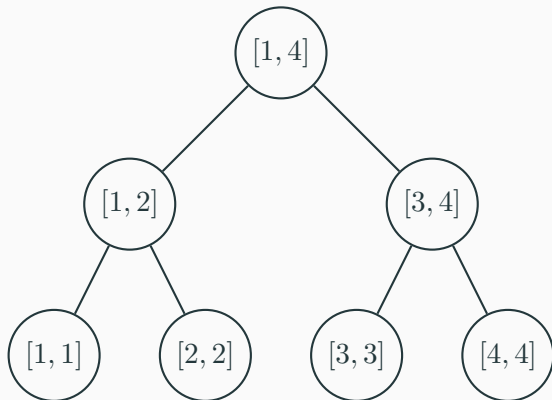
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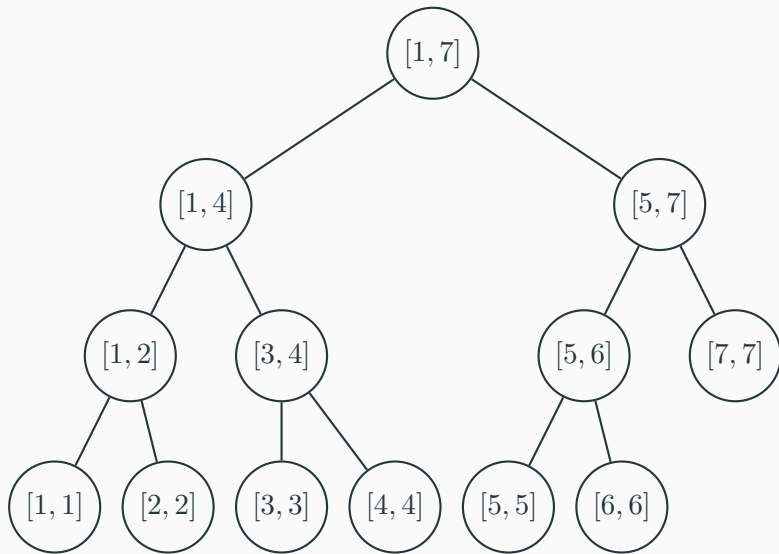
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- We travel down the tree looking for the left and right endpoints, adding intervals that are completely inside our query range.
- When we update a value we only need to update the parents of that node up to the root, at most  $\mathcal{O}(\log(n))$  nodes.

## Drawn Segment Tree, $n = 4$



## Drawn Segment Tree, $n = 7$



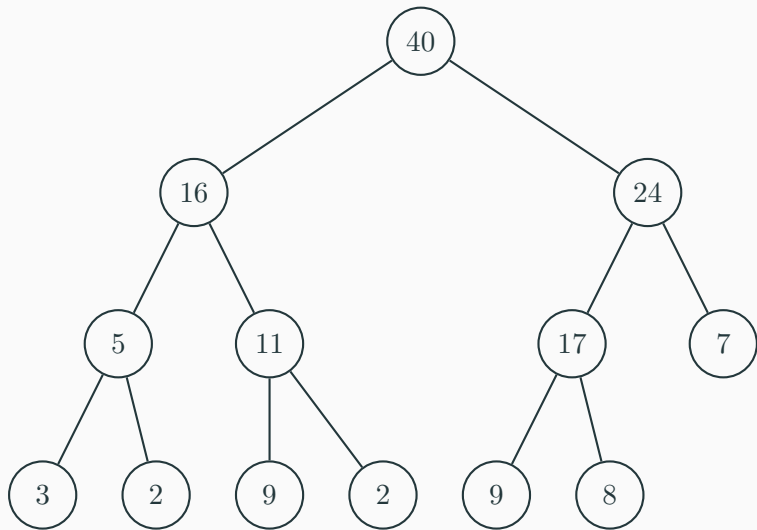
# Segment Tree - Code

```
struct segment_tree {
    segment_tree *left, *right;
    int from, to, value;
    segment_tree(int from, int to)
        : from(from), to(to), left(NULL), right(NULL), value(0) { }
};
```

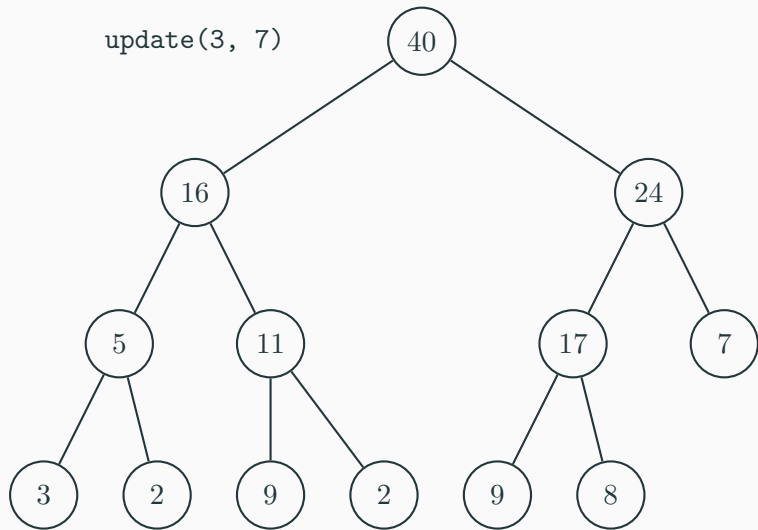
```
segment_tree* build(const vector<int> &arr, int l, int r) {
    if (l > r) return NULL;
    segment_tree *res = new segment_tree(l, r);
    if (l == r) {
        res->value = arr[l];
    } else {
        int m = (l + r) / 2;
        res->left = build(arr, l, m);
        res->right = build(arr, m + 1, r);
        if (res->left != NULL) res->value += res->left->value;
        if (res->right != NULL) res->value += res->right->value;
    }
    return res;
}
```



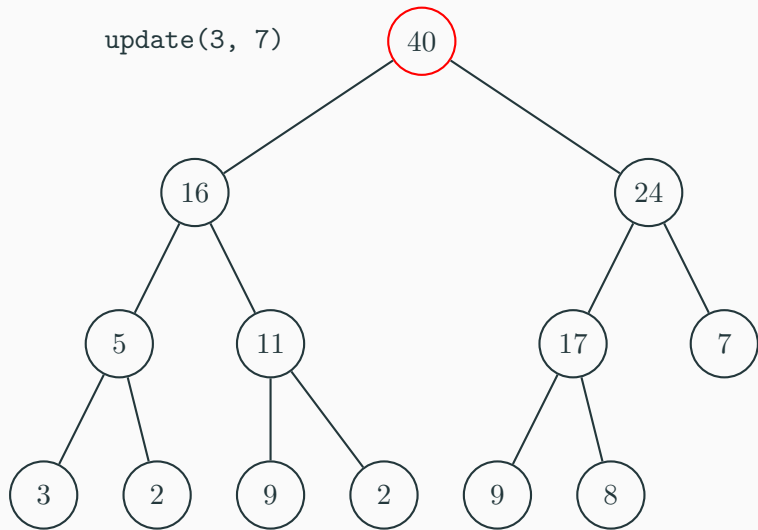
# Updates



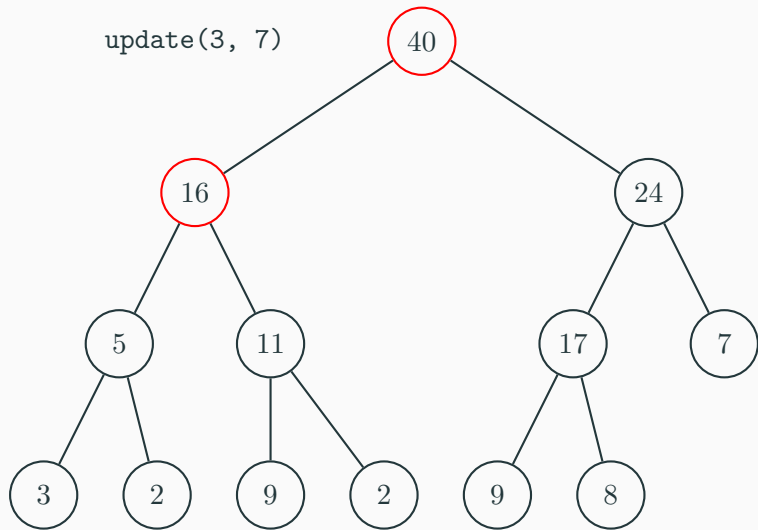
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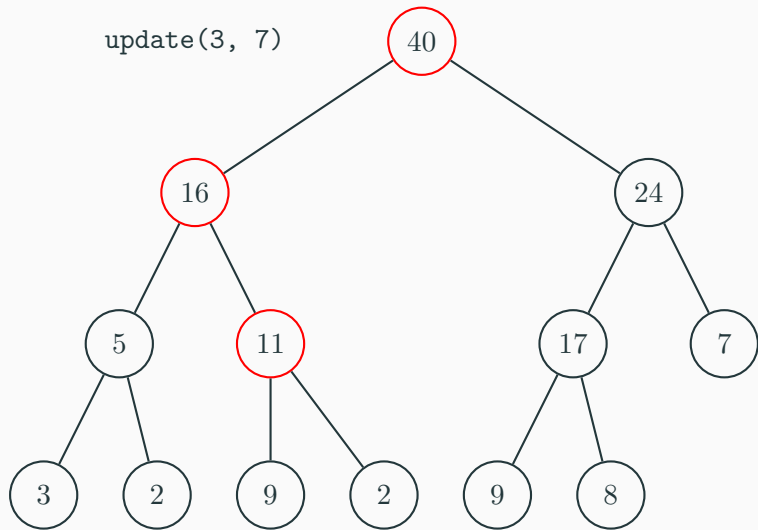
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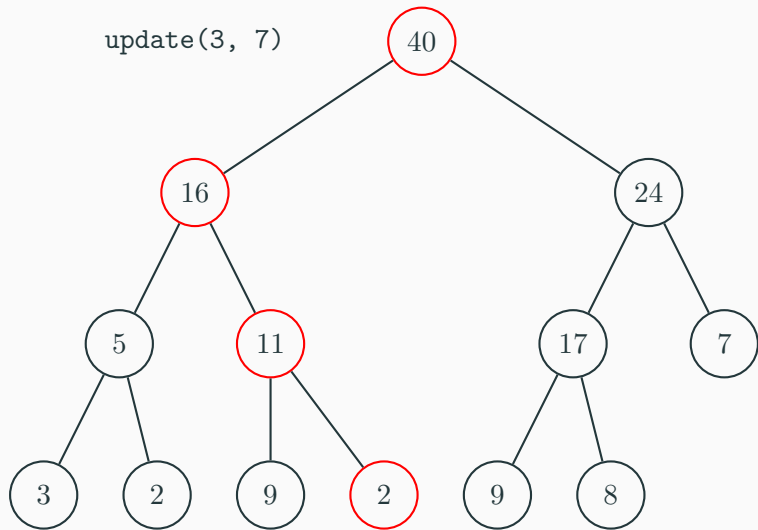
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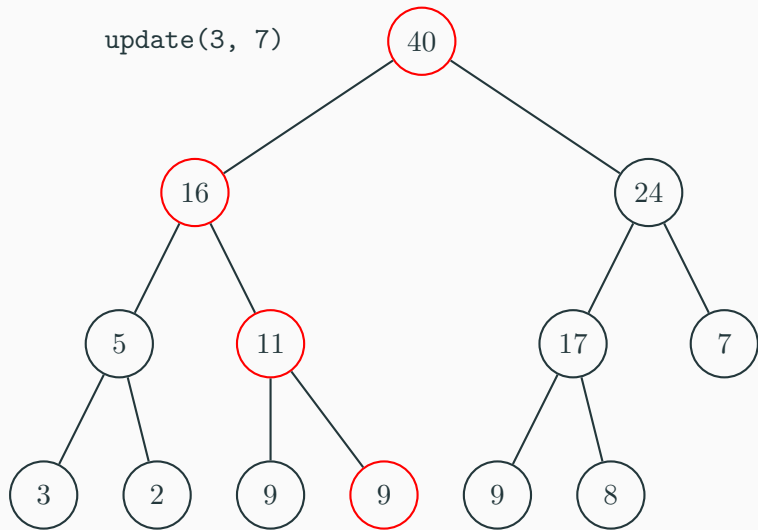
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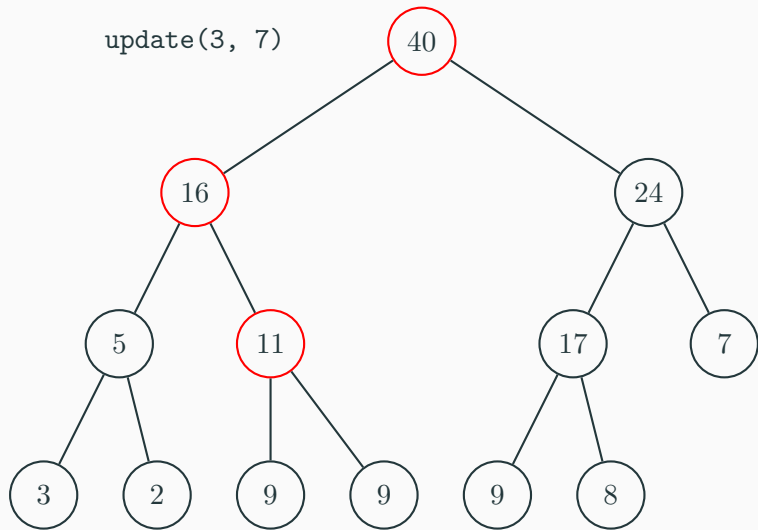
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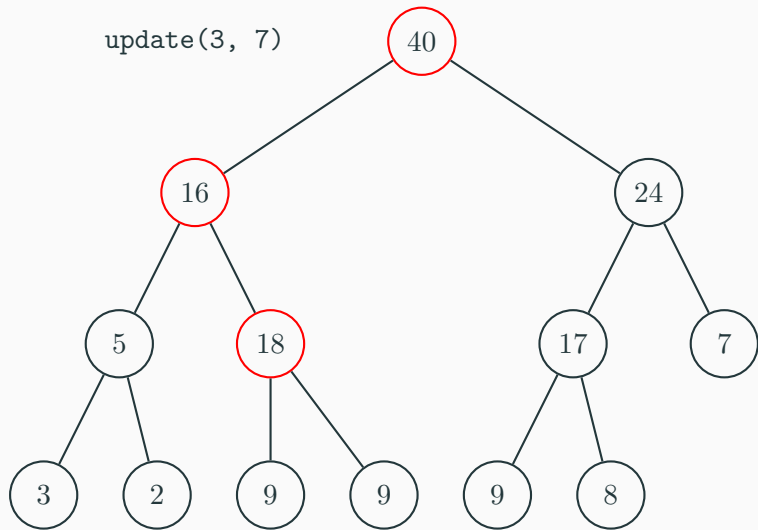


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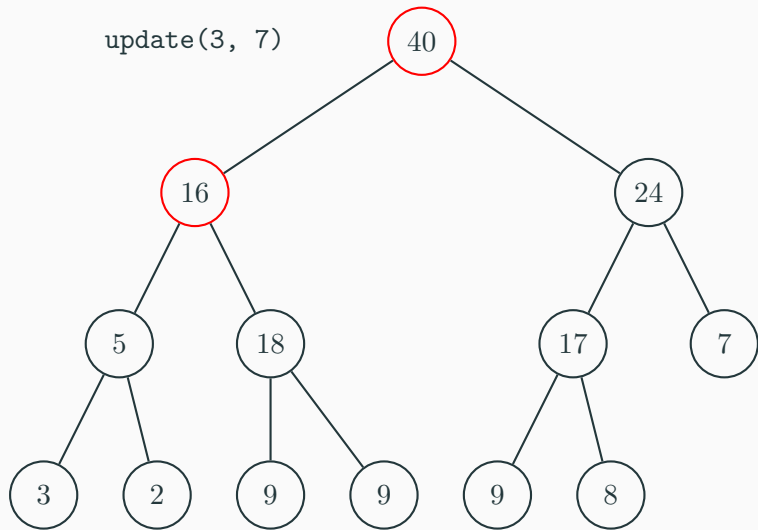




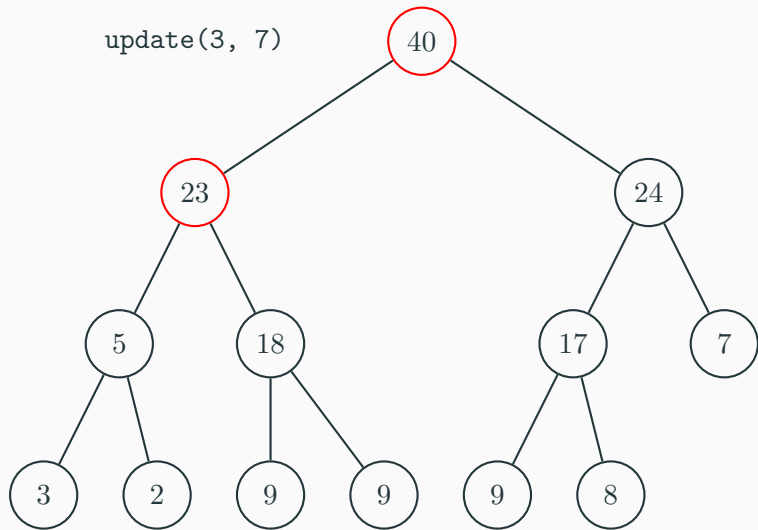
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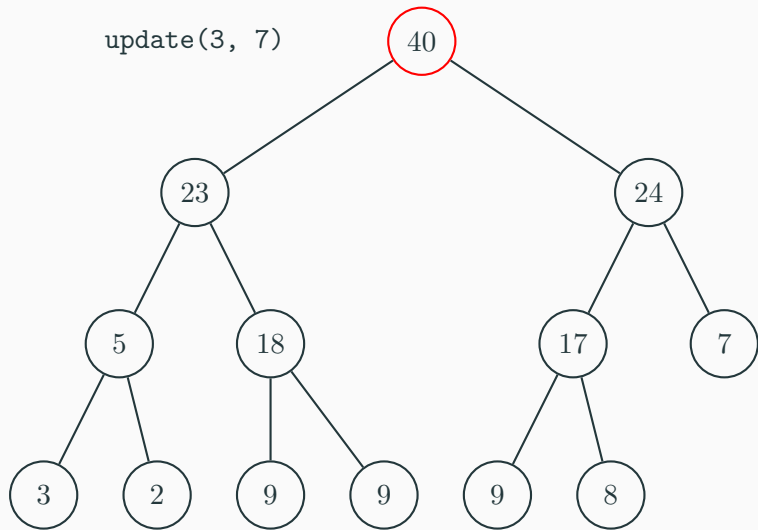
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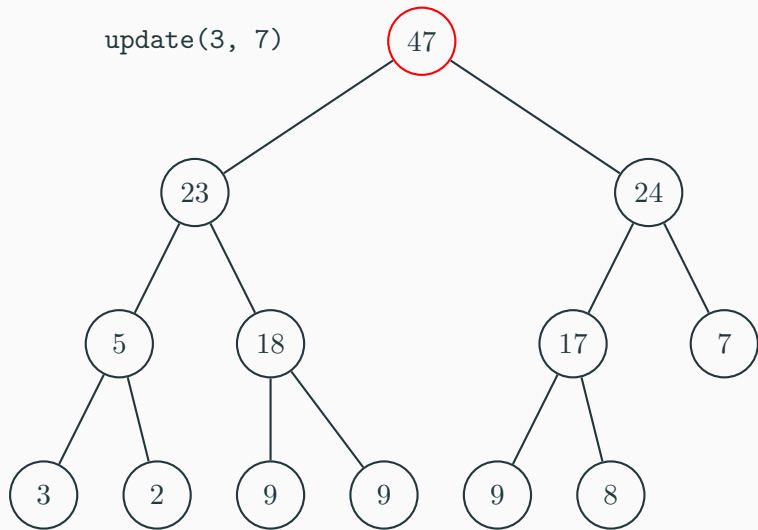
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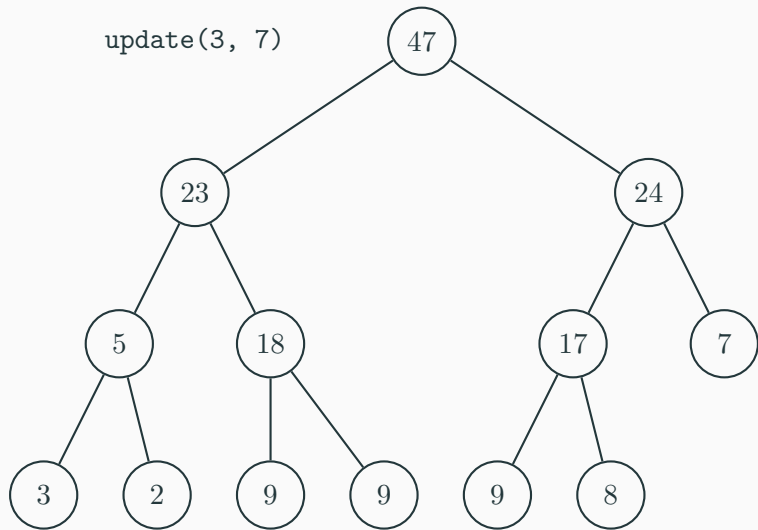
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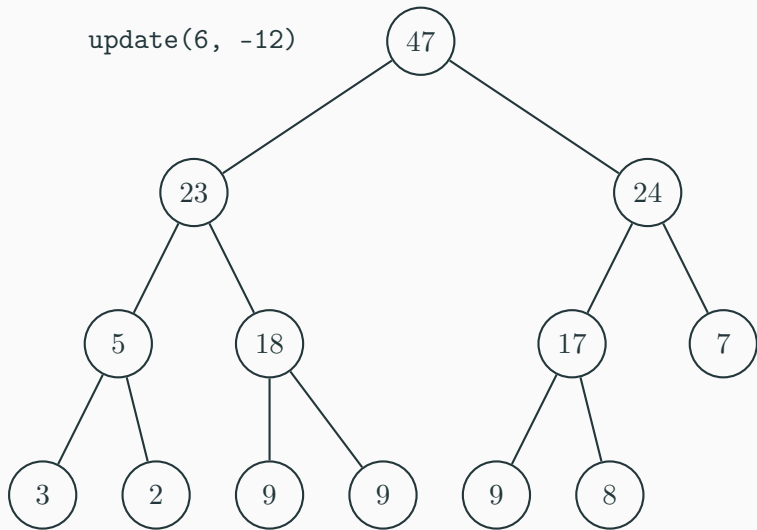
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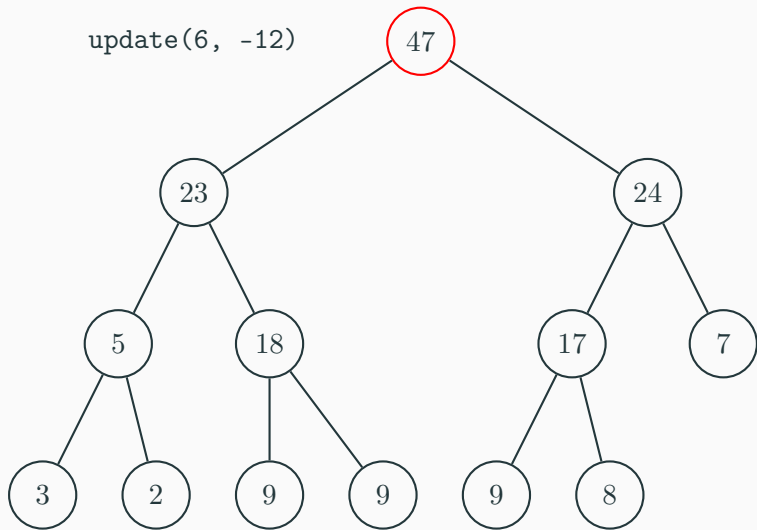
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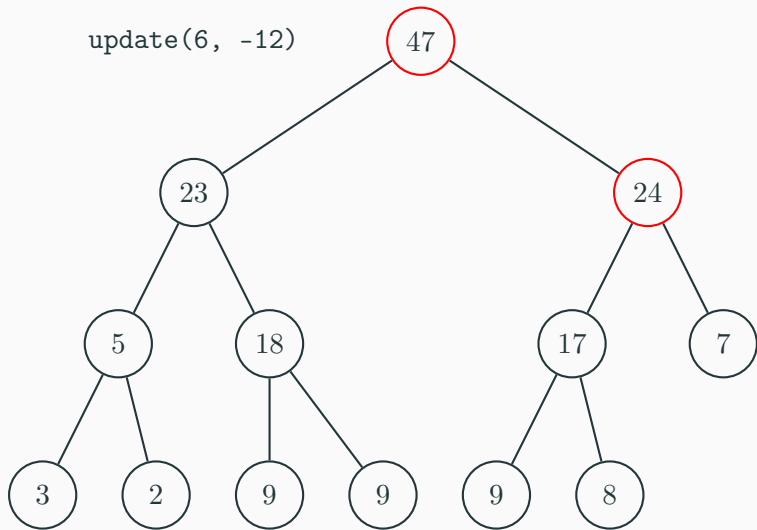


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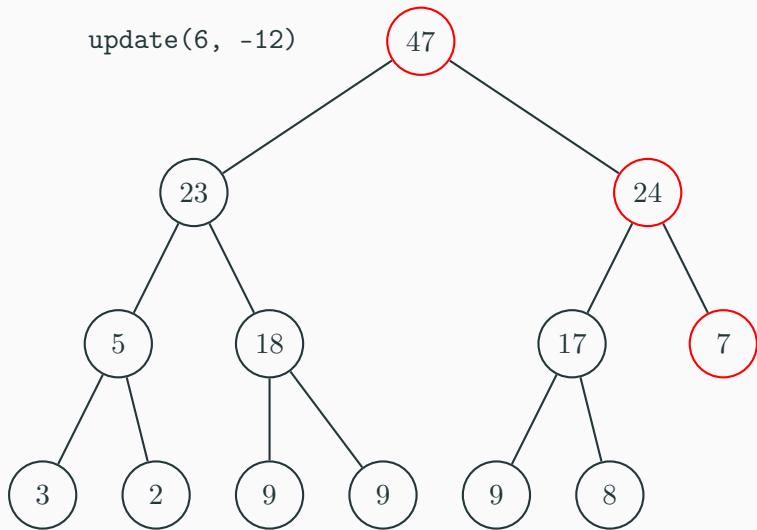




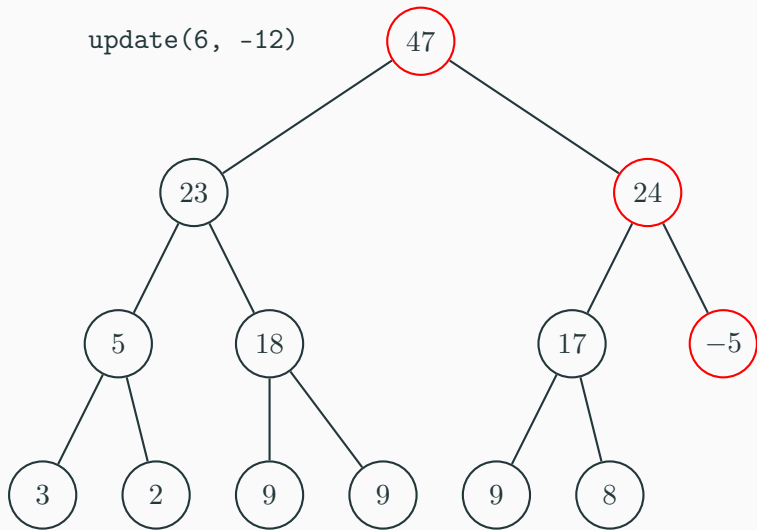
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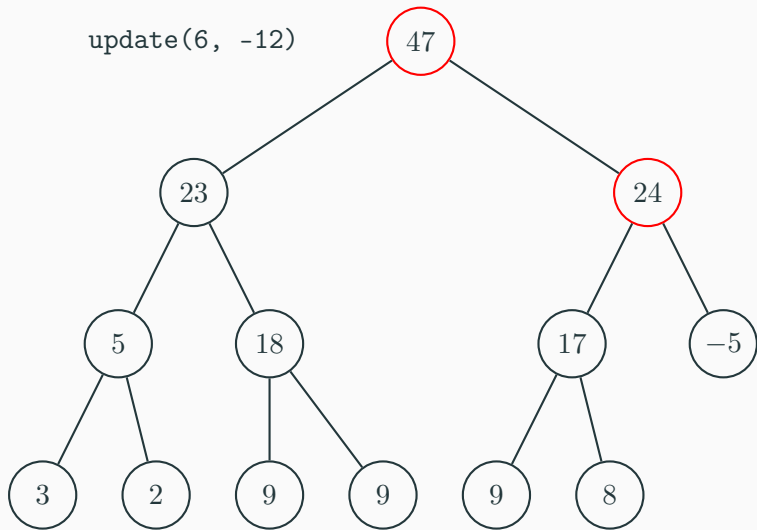
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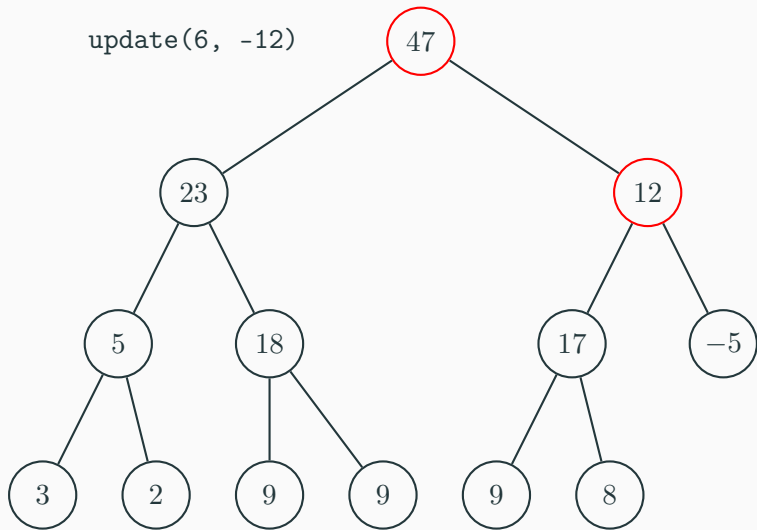
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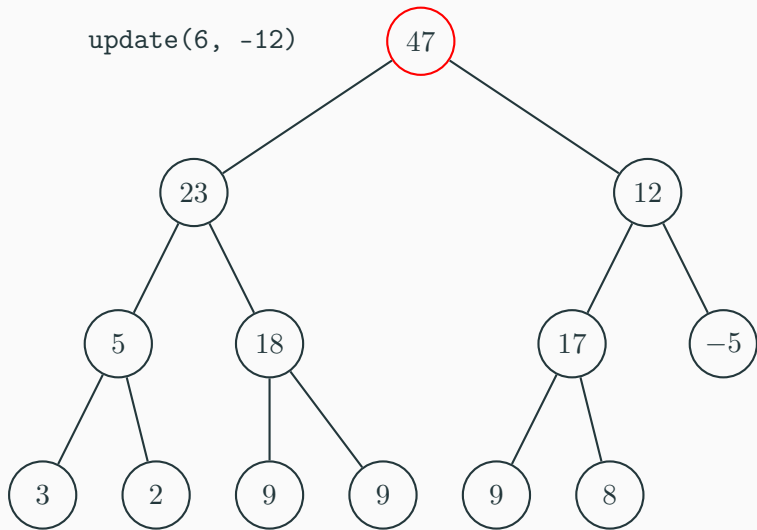
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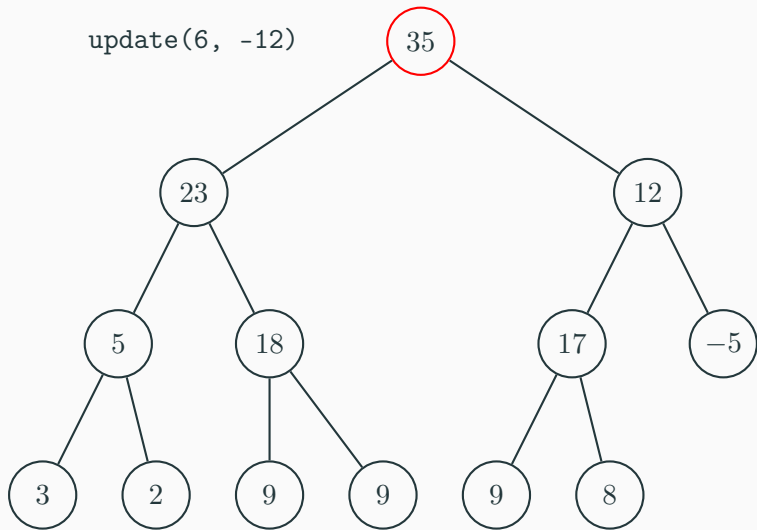
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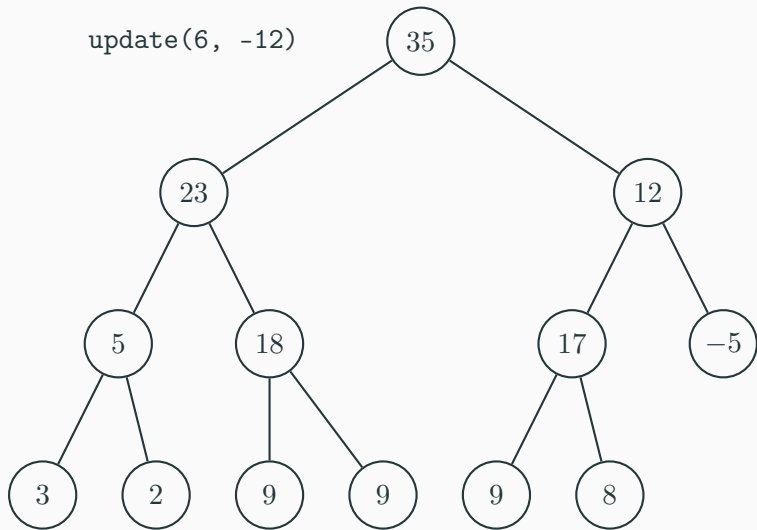
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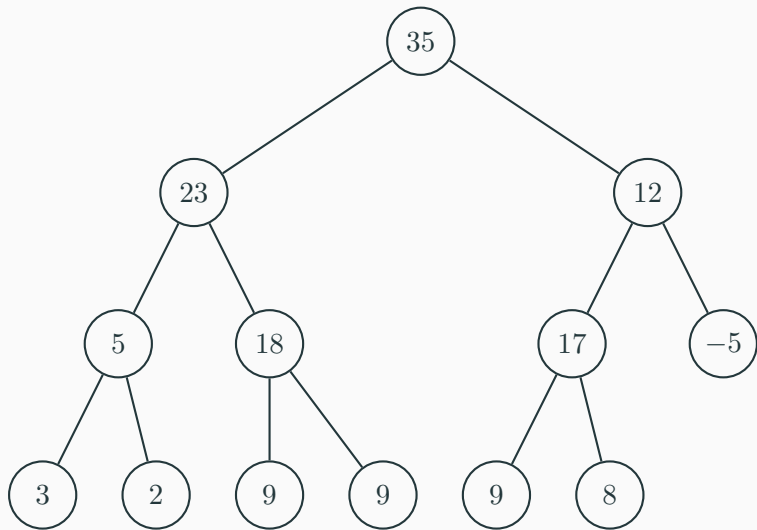


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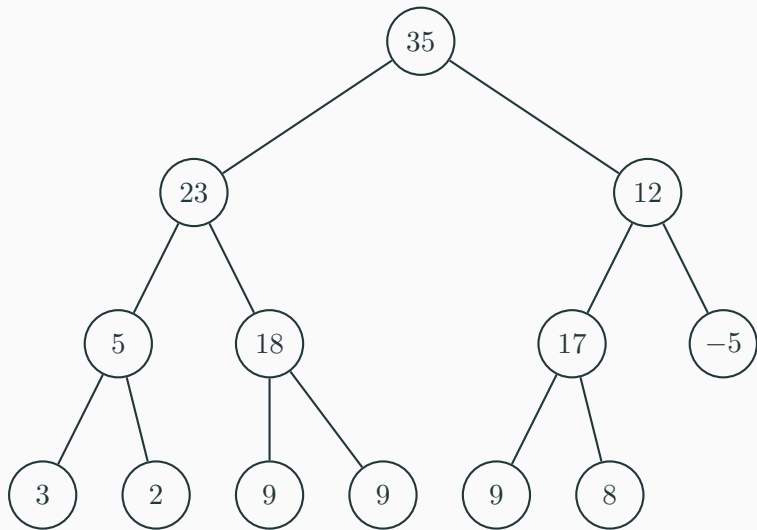
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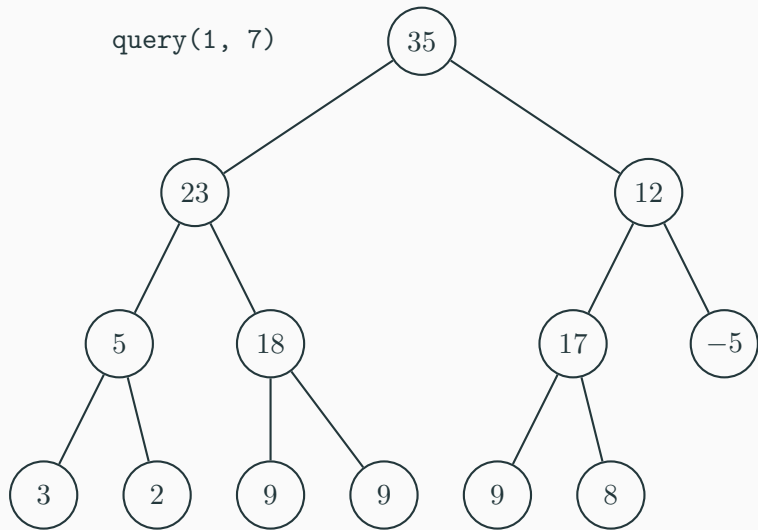
# Updating a Segment Tree - Code

```
int update(segment_tree *tree, int i, int val) {
    if (tree == NULL) return 0;
    if (tree->to < i) return tree->value;
    if (i < tree->from) return tree->value;
    if (tree->from == tree->to && tree->from == i) {
        tree->value = val;
    } else {
        tree->value = update(tree->left, i, val) + update(tree->right, i, val);
    }
    return tree->value;
}
```

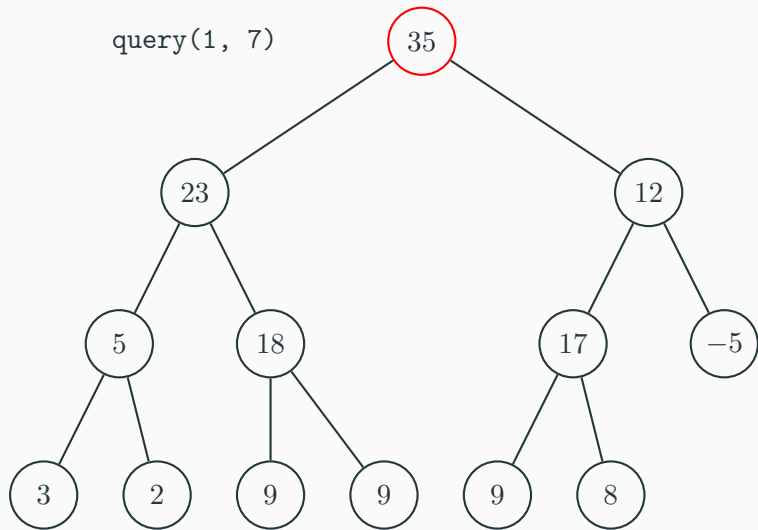
## Querying



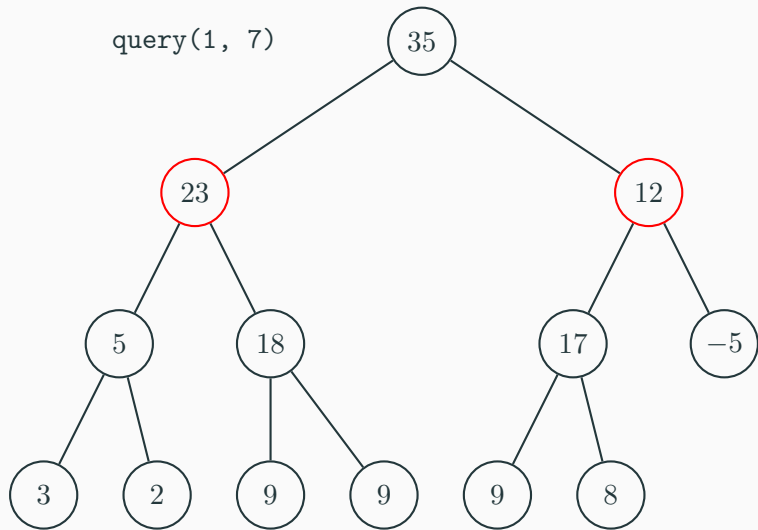
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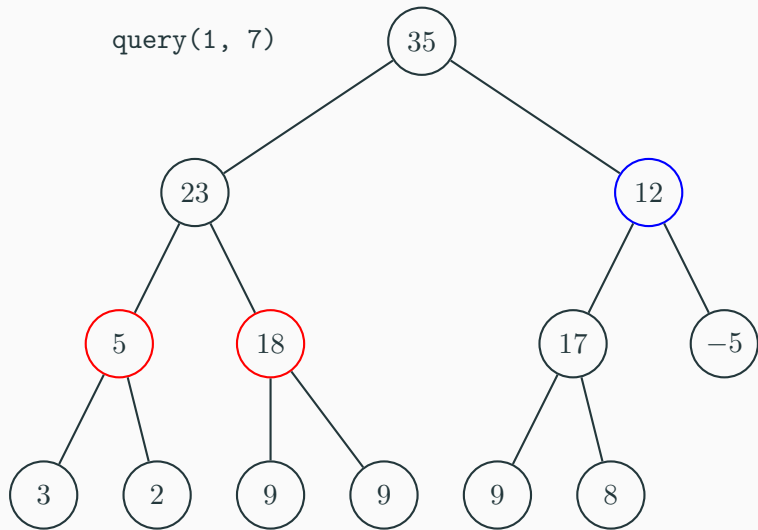
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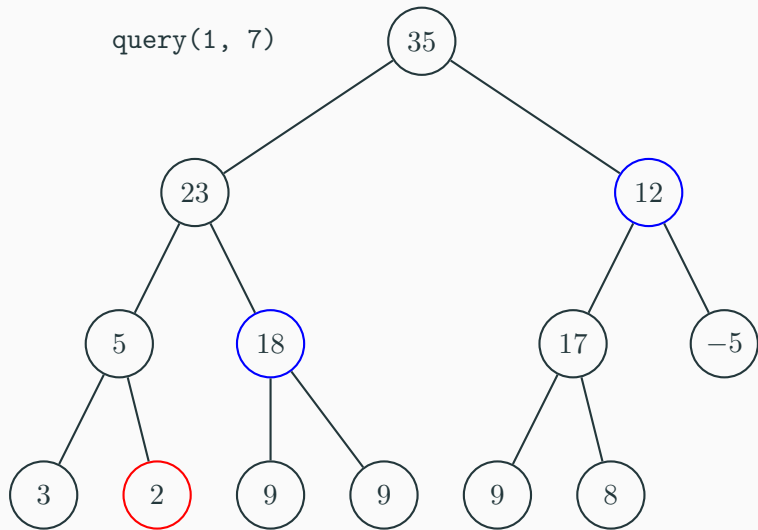
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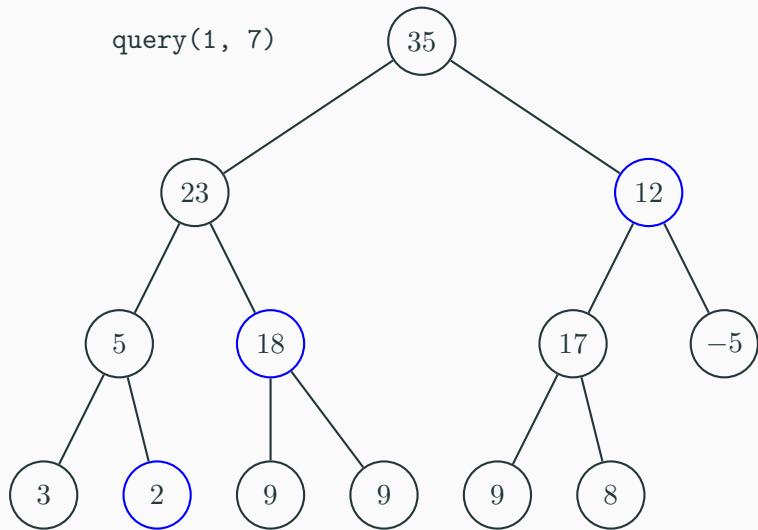


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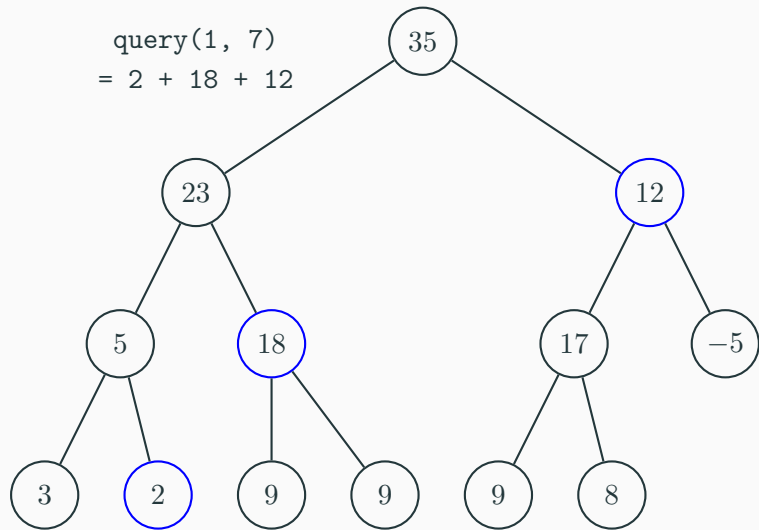




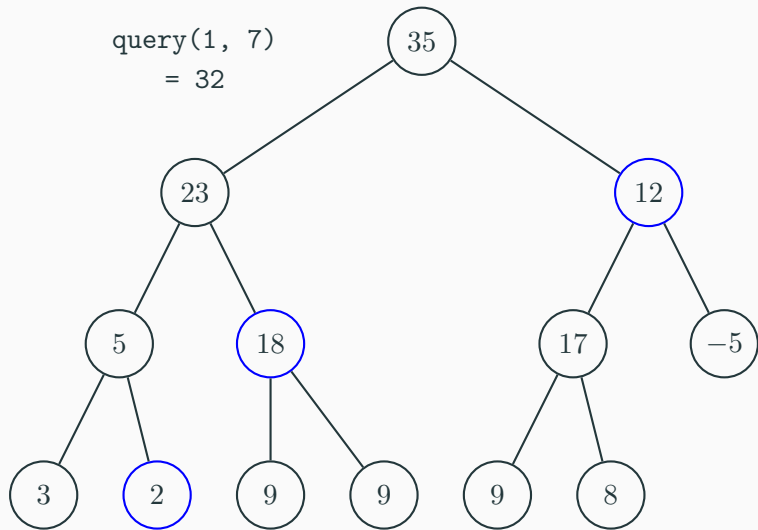
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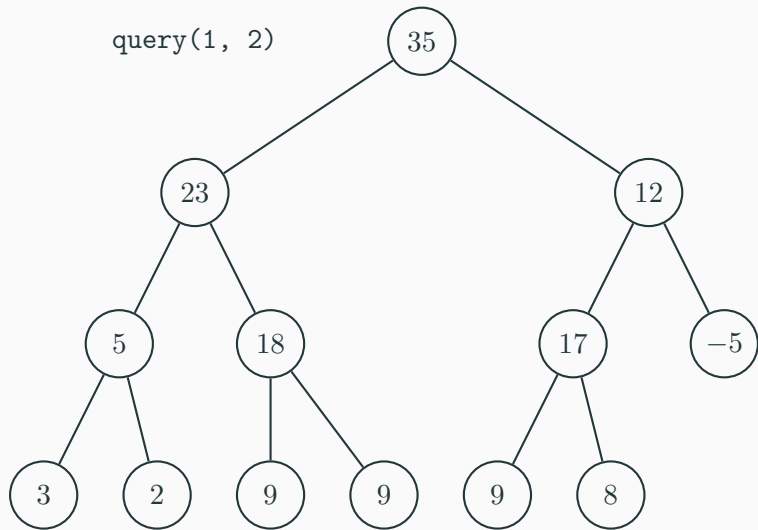
# Querying



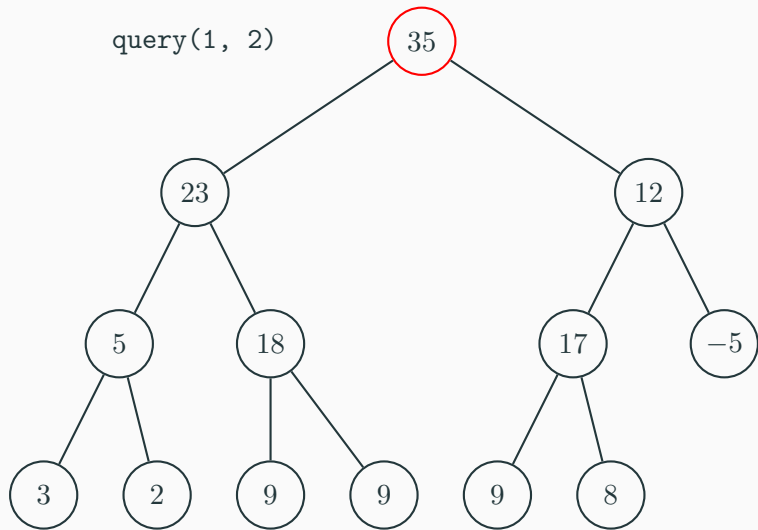
# Querying



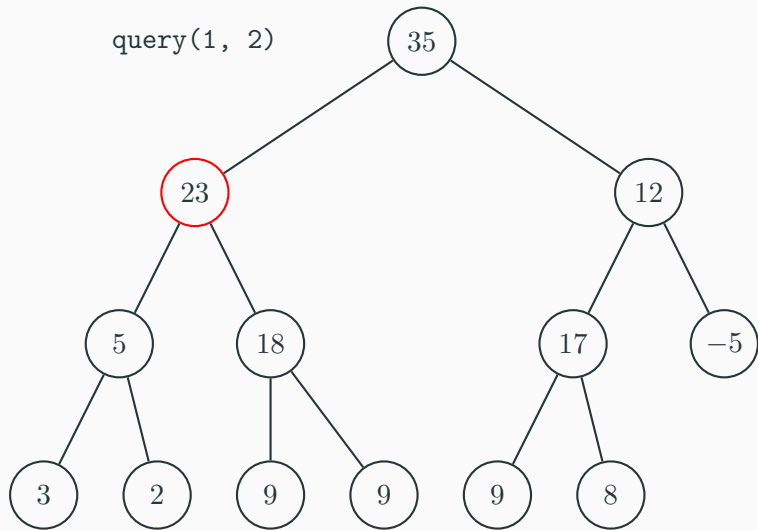
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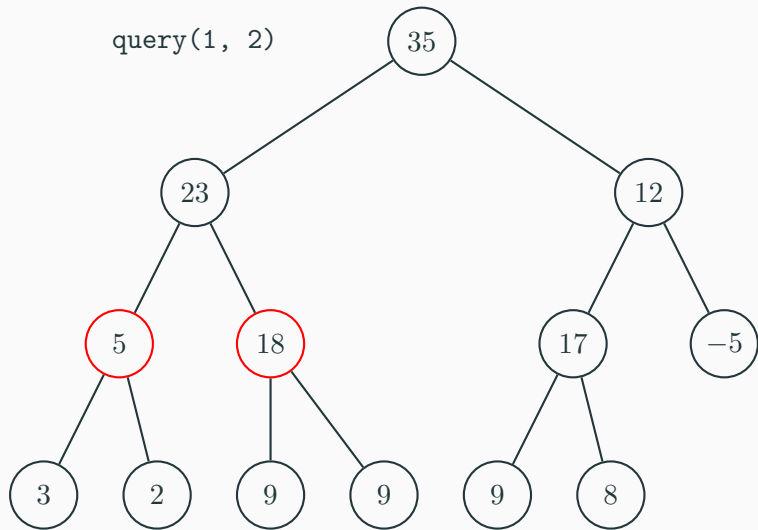
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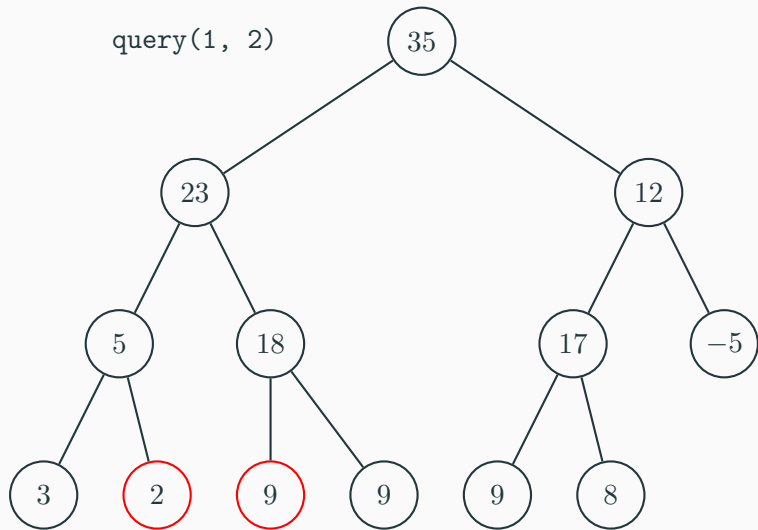
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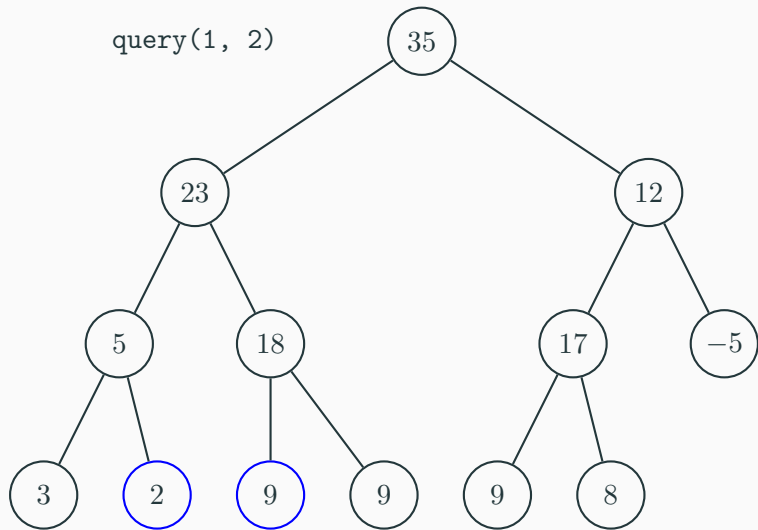


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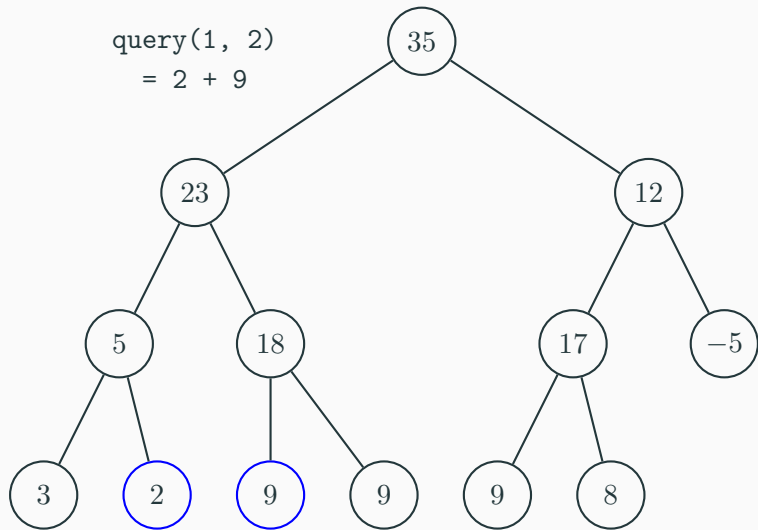




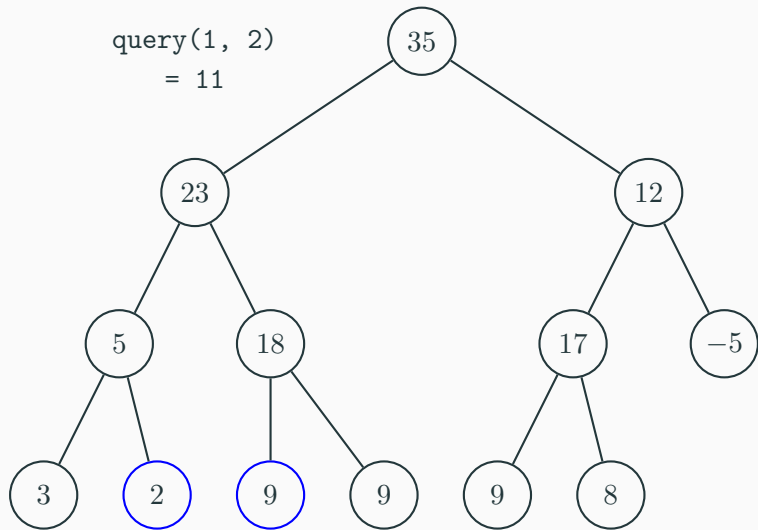
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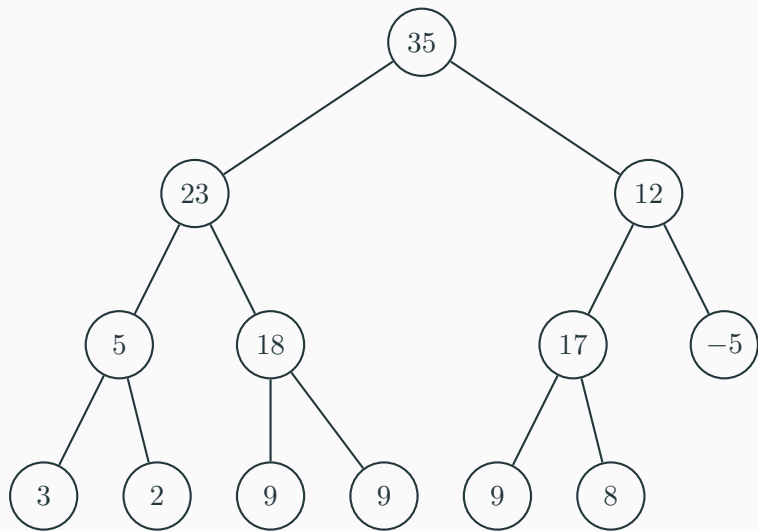
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# Querying



## Querying



# Querying a Segment Tree - Code

```
int query(segment_tree *tree, int l, int r) {  
    if (tree == NULL) return 0;  
    if (l <= tree->from && tree->to <= r) return tree->value;  
    if (tree->to < l) return 0;  
    if (r < tree->from) return 0;  
    return query(tree->left, l, r) + query(tree->right, l, r);  
}
```

# Segment Tree

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- Any associative operator will work.
- So any operator  $f$  such that  $f(a, f(b, c)) = f(f(a, b), c)$  for all  $a, b, c$ .
- Also possible to update a range of values in  $O(\log n)$ , which will be covered in bonus slides.

## Example problem: Movie Collection

- <https://open.kattis.com/problems/moviecollection>

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- Lazy people tend to find efficient ways of doing all that **needs** to be done, but no more.
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- Idea: Be lazy and procrastinate changes until they are needed!

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- Reset the lazy value.
- Traverse to child nodes if needed.



## Code example

See implementation example, for example [here](#).

# Sparse Table

---

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- This is what is known as a sparse table.



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- Querying takes  $\mathcal{O}(\log(n))$ , however updating is slow and difficult.
- Why would we then ever use this instead of segment trees?

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- Suppose we have some function  $f$  that rearranges the values  $\{0, 1, \dots, n - 1\}$  and we get  $q$  queries asking what happens to  $x$  if we apply  $f$  exactly  $m$  times to  $x$ .

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- The naïve solution is to calculate it every time, giving a time complexity of  $\mathcal{O}(qm\mathcal{O}(f))$ .
- How might we use sparse tables to do better?

## Binary lifting ctd.

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- For each  $i$  we store  $f^{[2^j]}(i)$  as a sparse table
- Then we can compute these in increasing order of  $j$ ,  
calculating  $j = 1$  using  $f$  itself and then for larger  $j$  letting
$$f^{[2^j]}(x) = f^{[2^{j-1}]}(f^{[2^{j-1}]}(x))$$

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- For each  $i$  we store  $f^{[2^j]}(i)$  as a sparse table
- Then we can compute these in increasing order of  $j$ , calculating  $j = 1$  using  $f$  itself and then for larger  $j$  letting  $f^{[2^j]}(x) = f^{[2^{j-1}]}(f^{[2^{j-1}]}(x))$
- Thus we can precompute the table in  $\mathcal{O}(n(\mathcal{O}(f) + \log(n)))$  and each query takes  $\mathcal{O}(\log(m))$ , a much better time complexity

## Sparse table example

7	1	6	4	8	0	9	2	2	7	1	6
---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---

$j = 0$

## Sparse table example

7	1	6	4	8	0	9	2	2	7	1	6

$j = 1$

$j = 0$

## Sparse table example

8											
7	1	6	4	8	0	9	2	2	7	1	6

$j = 1$

$j = 0$



## Sparse table example

8	7										
7	1	6	4	8	0	9	2	2	7	1	6

$j = 1$

$j = 0$

## Sparse table example

8	7	10									
7	1	6	4	8	0	9	2	2	7	1	6

$j = 1$

$j = 0$

## Sparse table example

8	7	10	12								
7	1	6	4	8	0	9	2	2	7	1	6

$j = 1$

$j = 0$

## Sparse table example

8	7	10	12	8							
7	1	6	4	8	0	9	2	2	7	1	6

$j = 1$

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## Sparse table example

8	7	10	12	8	9						
7	1	6	4	8	0	9	2	2	7	1	6

$j = 1$

$j = 0$

## Sparse table example

8	7	10	12	8	9	11					
7	1	6	4	8	0	9	2	2	7	1	6

$j = 1$

$j = 0$

## Sparse table example

8	7	10	12	8	9	11	4				
7	1	6	4	8	0	9	2	2	7	1	6

$j = 1$

$j = 0$

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8	7	10	12	8	9	11	4	9			
7	1	6	4	8	0	9	2	2	7	1	6

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$j = 0$



## Sparse table example

8	7	10	12	8	9	11	4	9	8		
7	1	6	4	8	0	9	2	2	7	1	6

$j = 1$

$j = 0$

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8	7	10	12	8	9	11	4	9	8	7	
7	1	6	4	8	0	9	2	2	7	1	6

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8	7	10	12	8	9	11	4	9	8	7	6
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$j = 1$

$j = 0$

## Sparse table example

18	19	18	21	19	13	20	12	16	14	7	6
↑	↑	↑	↑	↑	↑	↑	↑	↑	↑	↑	↑
8	7	10	12	8	9	11	4	9	8	7	6
7	1	6	4	8	0	9	2	2	7	1	6

$j = 2$

$j = 1$

$j = 0$

## Sparse table example

37	32	38	33	35	27	27	18	16	14	7	6
↑	↑	↑	↑	↑	↑	↑	↑	↑	↑	↑	↑
18	19	18	21	19	13	20	12	16	14	7	6
8	7	10	12	8	9	11	4	9	8	7	6
7	1	6	4	8	0	9	2	2	7	1	6

$j = 3$

$j = 2$

$j = 1$

$j = 0$

## Sparse table example

$$\text{query}(1, 8) = 19 + 9 + 2$$

37	32	38	33	35	27	27	18	16	14	7	6	$j = 3$
18	19	18	21	19	13	20	12	16	14	7	6	$j = 2$
8	7	10	12	8	9	11	4	9	8	7	6	$j = 1$
7	1	6	4	8	0	9	2	2	7	1	6	$j = 0$

## Sparse table example

$$\text{query}(0, 9) = 37 + 9$$

37	32	38	33	35	27	27	18	16	14	7	6	$j = 3$
18	19	18	21	19	13	20	12	16	14	7	6	$j = 2$
8	7	10	12	8	9	11	4	9	8	7	6	$j = 1$
7	1	6	4	8	0	9	2	2	7	1	6	$j = 0$

## Example problem: Stikl

- <https://open.kattis.com/problems/stikl>