

How to Find the Exit from a 3-Dimensional Maze*

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Abstract

We present several experimental algorithms for fast computation of variadic polynomials over non-negative integers.

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1 Introduction and Motivation

Imagine a three-dimensional cubic maze structure called the *Cube*. Each side of the *Cube* spans 26 rooms and there are $26 \times 26 \times 26 = 17576$ rooms in total. Except for the rooms on the edges or faces of the *Cube*, each room has 6 neighbors: up, down, left, right, front, and back. Each room is identified by its coordinates x , y , and z , ranging from 0 to 25. Moreover, each room has a label written on its floor, determined by an unknown ternary function $f: \mathbb{N} \times \mathbb{N} \times \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$ over natural numbers. The parameters of the function f are the coordinates of the room. The only information you have about the function f is that it is increasing in each coordinate, i.e., that the following relations hold

$$f(x, y, z) < f(x + 1, y, z), \quad f(x, y, z) < f(x, y + 1, z), \quad f(x, y, z) < f(x, y, z + 1)$$

for each coordinate (x, y, z) . You do not know the labels of the rooms upfront, but discover them by visiting the rooms on your path to the exit. Labels are not unique: two different rooms can have the same label. You can pass from one room to another if there exists a door between them. Each pair of neighboring rooms share a door, which means that there is a door between any two rooms sharing a face. Except for the rooms on the edges and outer faces of the *Cube*, from a given room you can pass to a neighbor room up, down, left, right, front, or back. Formally speaking, from a room with coordinates (x, y, z) you can pass to one of the rooms with coordinates

$$(x + 1, y, z), \quad (x, y + 1, z), \quad (x, y, z + 1), \quad (x - 1, y, z), \quad (x, y - 1, z), \quad (x, y, z - 1),$$

when $0 < x, y, z < 25$. Contrary to the movie, there are no deadly traps in the rooms. Nevertheless, you are not allowed to pass between rooms freely. You cannot return back to a previously visited room unless you have flagged it. If you are not sure which choice to make, you can flag the current room, so that you can return to it later. If you decide in a certain moment that you arrived at a dead-end, you can ask to be teleported back to the last flagged room. You can return to each flagged room only once, i.e., you have two choices to move from a flagged room to another room, allowing you a limited backtrack, contrary to unflagged rooms where you have only one choice. You have 29 flags available, i.e., you have the possibility to return to 29 branchings. Once a room is flagged, you cannot remove it any more. The coordinates of the flagged rooms are maintained in a stack. You can return only to the room whose flag is on top of the stack. Once you return to a flagged room, its coordinates

* Inspired by the horror movie *Cube*.



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are popped from the stack. The exit room is labeled by 131350013988347832235. Your starting position is the room with coordinates $(0, 0, 25)$ labeled by 162981450557708740234375. Are you able to find the exit? What is the minimal number of rooms you must pass through from your starting position to the exit?¹

2 Analysis

Before passing to the three- and more-dimensional case, let us analyze the problem in lower dimensions.

2.1 Linear Board

In one dimension, the analysis is quite easy. We have a linear board of length n with coordinates $0, \dots, n-1$, an unknown unary function $f: \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$, a starting position s , and an exit label B . For two different positions $a, b \in \{0, \dots, n-1\}$ on board we know that $a < b$ implies $f(a) < f(b)$. Hence the exit label B can occur only once on a linear board. The starting point s is one of the extremities of the board: either $s = 0$ or $s = n-1$.

The search algorithm proceeds as follows. First, we set $x \leftarrow s$ and compute the value $f(x)$. If $f(x) = B$ holds, then we are already at the exit room. If $f(x) > B$ we must decrease x , else if $f(x) < B$ we must increase x . Set $x \leftarrow x-1$ or $x \leftarrow x+1$, respectively, and repeat the loop. No flags are necessary to reach the exit, since there is no necessity to make choices.

In the worst case, the starting point is at one extremity of the board (say 0), and the exit at the other ($n-1$). Hence the path to the exit must contain n rooms in the worst case. On average, each position from $0, \dots, n-1$ is equally likely to contain the exit. The probability p_i that a position i contains the exit is $p = 1/n$. We denote by X the random variable equal to the length of the path from 0 to the exit and set $\Pr[X = i] = p_{i-1} = 1/n$. If the starting point is one of the extremities ($s = 0$ or $s = n-1$, but these two cases are mirror images of each other), the expected length of the path to the exit is

$$E[X|s=0] = E[X|s=n-1] = \sum_{i=1}^n i \cdot \Pr[X=i] = \sum_{i=1}^n \left(i \cdot \frac{1}{n}\right) = (n+1)/2.$$

Not really a surprise, this position is near the middle of the linear board.

2.2 Matrix Board

A $m \times n$ matrix A , whose elements $A[x, y]$ are equal to a binary function $f(x, y): \mathbb{N} \times \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$, satisfying the relations $f(x, y) < f(x+1, y)$ and $f(x, y) < f(x, y+1)$, is a full Young tableau over natural numbers [2, Problem 6-3, page 143]. The starting position s is usually $(0, 0)$, but for simplification reasons we will consider the coordinate $(0, n-1)$ as the starting point. Just consider the matrix horizontally flipped. For two different positions $a = (a_1, a_2)$ and $b = (b_1, b_2)$ there exist two positions $c = (c_1, c_2)$ and $d = (d_1, d_2)$, such that $c_i = \min\{a_i, b_i\}$ and $d_i = \max\{a_i, b_i\}$, satisfying the relations

$$f(c_1, c_2) \leq f(a_1, a_2), f(c_1, c_2) \leq f(b_1, b_2), f(a_1, a_2) \leq f(d_1, d_2), \text{ and } f(b_1, b_2) \leq f(d_1, d_2).$$

¹ Just for your information, the exit is located in the room with coordinates $(14, 15, 16)$ and the minimal number of visited rooms is therefore 39, including the starting room and the exit.

■ Algorithm 1 Search in a 2D Maze

Input: Function $f: \mathbb{N} \times \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$ satisfying $f(x, y) < f(x + 1, y)$ and $f(x, y) < f(x, y + 1)$, and a value $B \in \mathbb{N}$.

Output: Coordinates (x, y) for which $f(x, y) = B$ or \perp if such coordinates do not exist.

```

1: function 2D_SEARCH( $f, B$ )
2:    $x \leftarrow 0$ 
3:    $y \leftarrow n - 1$ 
4:   while  $x \leq m - 1$  &  $y \geq 0$  do
5:     if  $f(x, y) = B$  then
6:       return  $(x, y)$ 
7:     else if  $f(x, y) < B$  then
8:        $x \leftarrow x + 1$ 
9:     else if  $f(x, y) > B$  then
10:       $y \leftarrow y - 1$ 
11:    end if
12:  end while
13:  return  $\perp$ 
14: end function

```

All four relations are strict if the positions a and b do not share the same row or column. Hence, the exit label B can occur only once in each row and only once in each column.

Algorithm 1 proceeds as follows. The starting position is the room s with coordinates $(0, n - 1)$, therefore we set $x \leftarrow 0$ and $y \leftarrow n - 1$. While $f(x, y) > B$ holds, decrease the second coordinate: $y \leftarrow y - 1$. When we arrive at a position where $f(x, y) < B$, we increase the first coordinate: $x \leftarrow x + 1$. We repeat this loop until we find a room labeled by B . No flags are necessary to reach the exit, since there is no necessity to make choices.

The correctness of Algorithm 1 is easily proved. If $f(x, y) > B$ holds, then we have $f(x', y) > B$ for each $x' > x$. Hence the exit room labeled by B cannot be located at any position (x', y') for $x' \geq x$ and $y' \geq y$. Therefore there is no need to increase the first coordinate if the $f(x, y) > B$ holds. Only the second coordinate can be decreased to move towards the exit room. If $f(x, y) < B$ holds, then we have $f(x, y') < B$ for each position $y' < y$. Hence the exit room labeled by B cannot be located at any position (x', y') for $x' \leq x$ and $y' \leq y$. Therefore there is no need to decrease the second coordinate. Only the first coordinate can be increased to move towards the exit room.

In the worst case, the starting point is at the south-east extremity $(0, n - 1)$ of the maze and the exit at the north-western extremity $(m - 1, 0)$. Algorithm 1 proceeds by a zig-zag, which never returns back. Neither the coordinate y (columns) is increased, nor the coordinate x (rows) is decreased. There are m rooms in each row and n rooms in each column. Therefore the path to the exit must contain $m + n$ rooms in the worst case. This is a considerable improvement against a brute force algorithm going through all $m \cdot n$ rooms.

3 The *Cube* and Beyond

Let us extend the previous ideas to a cubic maze. We have $\ell \times m \times n$ cube A , whose elements $A[x, y, z]$ are equal to a ternary function $f(x, y, z): \mathbb{N} \times \mathbb{N} \times \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$, satisfying the inequalities $f(x, y, z) < f(x + 1, y, z)$, $f(x, y, z) < f(x, y + 1, z)$, and $f(x, y, z) < f(x, y, z + 1)$. The starting position is, once again, $(0, 0, n - 1)$. If you wish to start at the origin $(0, 0, 0)$, you can just flip the cube and arrange the subsequent computation according to this flip.

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102 The basic idea of the algorithm remains the same. We set $x \leftarrow 0$, $y \leftarrow 0$, and $z \leftarrow n - 1$ at
103 the beginning. While $f(x, y, z) > B$ holds, we decrease the last coordinate: $z \leftarrow z - 1$. This
104 is correct, because we have $f(x', y', z) > B$ for any $x' \geq x$ and $y' \geq y$ when $f(x, y, z) > B$
105 holds. This implies that the value B cannot be in the cube slice with the fixed z . When
106 we reach a coordinate z with $f(x, y, z) < B$, then we have $f(x', y', z') < B$ for any position
107 with $x' \leq x$, $y' \leq y$, and $z' \leq z$. However, we now have the choice to increase either x or y ,
108 contrary to the two-dimensional case, where we were forced to increase only one variable.
109 Here, we have the choice to continue either to the room $(x + 1, y, z)$ or $(x, y + 1, z)$. This is
110 the point where the flags must be applied, i.e., where we must apply some limited backtrack.
111 The other strategy is to proceed in a chosen direction without a possibility to return to the
112 choice position.

113 Let us analyze four possible strategies. We will do it for the general case with k coordinates,
114 where $k \geq 3$. We will place the continuations onto a stack or into a queue, then proceed
115 further. Those strategies, with the possibility to return to a remembered room, face another
116 problem. In the two-dimensional case, the path from the starting point to the exit was
117 exactly determined and there were no two or more paths possible to any room in the maze.
118 However, with the possibility to return to a choice room, we have the possibility to reach
119 another choice room by two or more different paths. Therefore we must memorize the choice
120 rooms in which we have been before. This does not count for teleportation returns, but
121 simple arrivals by a path from another room. If we arrive in a choice room r the second
122 time by a different path, we can stop the search and ask to be teleported back to a previous
123 choice room r' , since all possible path from the room r must have been already explored, i.e.,
124 all choices for a continuation from the room r have been already placed on the stack or into
125 the queue. When we are in dimension k for $k \geq 3$, there are $k - 1$ possible continuations
126 from a choice room. Therefore we must allow to return by teleportation to a choice room
127 $(k - 2)$ -times. This is compatible with the situation in Section 1, where we allow only one
128 teleportation return to a choice room.

129 A k -dimensional maze has the shape of a $n_1 \times \dots \times n_k$ hypercube A , whose elements
130 $A[x_1, \dots, x_k]$ are equal to the values of a function $f: \mathbb{N}^k \rightarrow \mathbb{N}_+$, satisfying the inequality
131 $f(x_1, \dots, x_{i-1}, x_i, x_{i+1}, \dots, x_k) < f(x_1, \dots, x_{i-1}, x_i + 1, x_{i+1}, \dots, x_k)$ for each $i = 1, \dots, k$.
132 The starting point will be $(0, \dots, 0, n_k - 1)$.

133 The first strategy will be completely *sequential*, presented in Algorithm 2. In each
134 choice room r with coordinates (x_1, \dots, x_k) it will put on stack all possible continuations
135 $(x_1, \dots, x_{i-1}, \dots, x_i + 1, x_{i+1}, \dots, x_k)$ from $i = 1$ to $i = k - 1$. This implies, that the
136 continuation $(x_1, \dots, x_{k-2}, x_{k-1} + 1, x_k)$ will be popped first. However, only the continuation
137 rooms will be put on stack, which have not been visited yet. Of course, if $k = 2$ then only one
138 continuation room will be put on stack, but it will be popped and considered immediately
139 during the next turn of the outer while-loop on Line 6. Hence, Algorithm 2 is compatible with
140 Algorithm 1. Moreover, the use of visited rooms is superfluous for $k = 2$, but introducing
141 another if-statement would just unnecessarily complicate the algorithm. A successful path
142 to the exit contains in the worst case at most $N = \sum_{i=1}^k n_i$ rooms, without counting the
143 possible backtracks.

144 This version of our algorithm does not use the concept of flags, or allows to use an
145 unbounded number of flags. The version using flags would require Algorithm 2 to be called
146 with the parameters (f, B, F) on Line 1, where F is the number of allowed flags, followed by
147 an extension of the condition on Line 18 to " $r'[i] < n_i$ & $r' \notin m$ & $F > 0$ ", an introduction
148 of the statement " $F \leftarrow F - 1$ " between Lines 18 and 19, plus inserting a test "**else if** $F = 0$ "
149 with a subsequent failure command after Line 20.

Algorithm 2 Sequential Search in a k -Dimensional Maze

Input: Function $f: \mathbb{N}^k \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$ satisfying $f(\dots, x_i, \dots) < f(\dots, x_i + 1, \dots)$ for each $i = 1, \dots, k$, and a value $B \in \mathbb{N}$.

Output: Coordinates (x_1, \dots, x_k) for which $f(x_1, \dots, x_k) = B$ or \perp if such coordinates do not exist.

```

1: function SEQ_kD_SEARCH( $f, B$ )
2:    $s \leftarrow \emptyset$                                 ▷ Initialize stack  $s$ 
3:    $m \leftarrow \emptyset$                             ▷ Initialize memory  $m$  of visited rooms
4:    $r \leftarrow (0, \dots, 0, n_k - 1)$               ▷ Initialize room  $r$ 
5:    $s.\text{push}(r)$                                     ▷ Put room  $r$  on stack  $s$ 
6:   while  $s \neq \emptyset$  do                        ▷ While stack  $s$  is nonempty
7:      $r \leftarrow \text{top}(s)$                           ▷ Get room from top of stack  $s$ 
8:      $\text{pop}(s)$                                        ▷ Pop stack  $s$ 
9:     while  $r[j] < n_j$  for  $j = 1, \dots, k - 1$  &  $r[k] \geq 0$  do
10:      if  $f(r) = B$  then
11:        return  $r$ 
12:      else if  $f(r) > B$  then
13:         $r[k] \leftarrow r[k] - 1$ 
14:      else if  $f(r) < B$  then
15:        for  $i \leftarrow 1$  to  $k - 1$  do              ▷ For each potential continuation coordinate
16:           $r' \leftarrow r$                             ▷ Copy room coordinates
17:           $r'[i] \leftarrow r'[i] + 1$                   ▷ Go to a neighboring room
18:          if  $r'[i] < n_i$  &  $r' \notin m$  then          ▷ If room within limits and not visited
19:             $s.\text{push}(r')$                             ▷ Put continuation room  $r'$  on stack  $s$ 
20:             $m.\text{insert}(r')$                           ▷ Label room  $r'$  as visited
21:          end if
22:        end for
23:      end if
24:    end while
25:  end while
26:  return  $\perp$ 
27: end function

```

150 The second strategy is based on a greedy heuristic to always choose first the continuation
 151 room nearest to the exit. For this, a priority queue is maintained to include the coordinates
 152 of the continuation room together with their “distance” to the exit. Since we do not know
 153 the coordinates of an exit room — which we are supposed to find — we use the difference
 154 between the label $f(x_1, \dots, x_k)$ of a continuation room r and the label B of an exit room
 155 as the priority key. This priority strategy is presented in Algorithm 3. We assume that the
 156 priority queue is implemented by a heap, therefore no code concerning an implementation of
 157 the priority queue is presented. An interested reader can find more information on priority
 158 queues and their implementation by a heap for instance in [6].

159 This version of our algorithm is similar to Dijkstra’s shortest path algorithm [6, Section 4.4]
 160 in a graph. Dijkstra’s algorithm applied directly on regular multidimensional Cartesian
 161 grids, where each cell represents a node and each pair of neighboring cells is connected by an
 162 edge of length 1, would potentially place each cell into the priority queue of explored nodes.
 163 Algorithm 3 places a room into the priority queue only if it matters, namely when it is a

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■ Algorithm 3 Priority Search in a k -Dimensional Maze

Input: Function $f: \mathbb{N}^k \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$ satisfying $f(\dots, x_i, \dots) < f(\dots, x_i + 1, \dots)$ for each $i = 1, \dots, k$, and a value $B \in \mathbb{N}$.

Output: Coordinates (x_1, \dots, x_k) for which $f(x_1, \dots, x_k) = B$ or \perp if such coordinates do not exist.

```

1: function PRIORITY_kD_SEARCH( $f, B$ )
2:    $q \leftarrow \emptyset$                                 ▷ Initialize priority queue  $q$ 
3:    $m \leftarrow \emptyset$                             ▷ Initialize memory  $m$  of visited rooms
4:    $r \leftarrow (0, \dots, 0, n_k - 1)$               ▷ Initialize room  $r$ 
5:    $s.\text{insert}((r, 0))$                             ▷ Insert room  $r$  into queue  $q$  with dummy key 0
6:   while  $q \neq \emptyset$  do                        ▷ While queue  $q$  is nonempty
7:      $r \leftarrow \text{front}(q).\text{first}$                 ▷ Get room coordinates from front of queue  $q$ 
8:      $\text{pop}(q)$                                        ▷ Pop queue  $q$ 
9:     while  $r[j] < n_j$  for  $j = 1, \dots, k - 1$  &  $r[k] \geq 0$  do
10:      if  $f(r) = B$  then
11:        return  $r$ 
12:      else if  $f(r) > B$  then
13:         $r[k] \leftarrow r[k] - 1$ 
14:      else if  $f(r) < B$  then
15:        for  $i \leftarrow 1$  to  $k - 1$  do              ▷ For each potential continuation coordinate
16:           $r' \leftarrow r$                           ▷ Copy room coordinates
17:           $r'[i] \leftarrow r'[i] + 1$                 ▷ Go to a neighboring room
18:          if  $r'[i] < n_i$  &  $r' \notin m$  then          ▷ If room within limits and not visited
19:             $c \leftarrow |f(r') - B|$                 ▷ Compute key  $c$ 
20:             $q.\text{insert}((r', c))$                   ▷ Insert room  $r'$  with key  $c$  into queue  $q$ 
21:             $m.\text{insert}(r')$                         ▷ Label room  $r'$  as visited
22:          end if
23:        end for
24:      end if
25:    end while
26:  end while
27:  return  $\perp$ 
28: end function

```

split room from where we have more than one possibility to continue. All other rooms r where $f(r) > B$ do not need to be inserted into the priority queue for the same reason as it was already mentioned in an aforementioned discussion on Algorithm 2. Moreover, we know the goal node in Dijkstra's algorithm, whereas in Algorithm 3 the exit room is unknown and must be discovered. Hence, we cannot minimize the path leading to the exit room. Therefore the distance $|f(r') - B|$ from a continuation room r' to the exit is the only value which we can minimize. This is the reason for which Algorithm 3 does not preclude backtracks, even if they are reduced to the minimum. Although in principle it is only a pseudo-problem, the use of a priority queue implies uncontrolled jumps around a maze.

The third strategy is similar to the first strategy, but instead of pushing the continuations on stack in a fixed predefined way, it randomly permutes the sequence of continuations before placing them on stack. For this reason we call this strategy *randomized*. The strategy is implemented by a Las Vegas algorithm, therefore it always produces a correct answer.

177 However, produced results may vary, provided that there is more than one solution, depending
 178 on the random permutation of the continuation sequence. Nevertheless, even if there is only
 179 one solution, depending on different random permutations of the continuation sequences
 180 subsequently pushed on the stack, the algorithm can follow different paths, potentially with
 181 some backtracks, to find the exit.

■ **Algorithm 4** Randomized Search in a k -Dimensional Maze

Input: Function $f: \mathbb{N}^k \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$ satisfying $f(\dots, x_i, \dots) < f(\dots, x_i + 1, \dots)$ for each $i = 1, \dots, k$, and a value $B \in \mathbb{N}$.

Output: Coordinates (x_1, \dots, x_k) for which $f(x_1, \dots, x_k) = B$ or \perp if such coordinates do not exist.

```

1: function RAND_kD_SEARCH( $f, B$ )
2:    $s \leftarrow \emptyset$                                 ▷ Initialize stack  $s$ 
3:    $m \leftarrow \emptyset$                             ▷ Initialize memory  $m$  of visited rooms
4:    $r \leftarrow (0, \dots, 0, n_k - 1)$               ▷ Initialize room  $r$ 
5:    $s.\text{push}(r)$                                     ▷ Put room  $r$  on stack  $s$ 
6:   while  $s \neq \emptyset$  do                          ▷ While stack  $s$  is nonempty
7:      $r \leftarrow \text{top}(s)$                             ▷ Get room from top of stack  $s$ 
8:      $\text{pop}(s)$                                         ▷ Pop stack  $s$ 
9:     while  $r[j] < n_j$  for  $j = 1, \dots, k - 1$  &  $r[k] \geq 0$  do
10:      if  $f(r) = B$  then
11:        return  $r$ 
12:      else if  $f(r) > B$  then
13:         $r[k] \leftarrow r[k] - 1$ 
14:      else if  $f(r) < B$  then
15:         $v \leftarrow \emptyset$                                 ▷ Initialize auxiliary vector  $v$ 
16:        for  $i \leftarrow 1$  to  $k - 1$  do                ▷ For each potential continuation coordinate
17:           $r' \leftarrow r$                                 ▷ Copy room coordinates
18:           $r'[i] \leftarrow r'[i] + 1$                     ▷ Go to a neighboring room
19:          if  $r'[i] < n_i$  &  $r' \notin m$  then            ▷ If room within limits and not visited
20:             $v.\text{push}(r')$                                 ▷ Put continuation room  $r'$  in vector  $v$ 
21:             $m.\text{insert}(r')$                             ▷ Label room  $r'$  as visited
22:          end if
23:        end for
24:         $\text{permute}(v)$                                     ▷ Permute vector  $v$  uniformly at random
25:        for all  $r' \in v$  do                            ▷ For the permuted sequence of continuation rooms
26:           $s.\text{push}(r')$                                 ▷ Put each continuation room  $r'$  in  $v$  on stack  $s$ 
27:        end for
28:      end if
29:    end while
30:  end while
31:  return  $\perp$ 
32: end function

```

182 The fourth and last strategy is purely *probabilistic*. It does not store the potential
 183 continuation rooms in a structure — a stack, a queue, or others — but it makes a probabilistic
 184 choice among possible continuations to advance, without the possibility to return back when a
 185 dead end is subsequently discovered. For this reason, this strategy is a Monte Carlo algorithm,

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which can produce a failure answer \perp even if there exists a solution. The probability p to find an exit is equal to $E/(k-1)^S$, where S is the number of splits and E the number of exits in the maze. Potentially any room on the path from the start s to the exit can be a splitting room, therefore the (very coarse) lower bound to find an exit is equal to $E/(k-1)^N$, where $N = \sum_{k=1}^k n_i$ is the sum of all bounds. Recall that in the two-dimensional case ($k = 2$) there is only one exit ($E = 1$) and no splits ($S = 0$), therefore the probabilistic algorithm applied to the two-dimensional case becomes totally deterministic with the probability $p = 1$ to find the exit. This probabilistic strategy is presented in Algorithm 5.

■ Algorithm 5 Probabilistic Search in a k -Dimensional Maze

Input: Function $f: \mathbb{N}^k \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$ satisfying $f(\dots, x_i, \dots) < f(\dots, x_i + 1, \dots)$ for each $i = 1, \dots, k$, and a value $B \in \mathbb{N}$.

Output: Coordinates (x_1, \dots, x_k) for which $f(x_1, \dots, x_k) = B$ or \perp if such coordinates do not exist.

```

1: function PROBA_kD_SEARCH( $f, B$ )
2:    $r \leftarrow (0, \dots, 0, n_k - 1)$  ▷ Initialize room  $r$ 
3:   while  $r[j] < n_j$  for  $j = 1, \dots, k - 1$  &  $r[k] \geq 0$  do
4:     if  $f(r) = B$  then
5:       return  $r$ 
6:     else if  $f(r) > B$  then
7:        $r[k] \leftarrow r[k] - 1$ 
8:     else if  $f(r) < B$  then
9:        $i \leftarrow \text{choose}(1, \dots, k - 1)$  ▷ Choose a coordinate uniformly at random
10:       $r[i] \leftarrow r[i] + 1$  ▷ Go to a neighboring room
11:    end if
12:  end while
13:  return  $\perp$ 
14: end function

```

194 4 Applications

A well-suited possibility to implement the function $f: \mathbb{N}^k \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$ is to use variadic polynomials over natural numbers. A variadic polynomial $p(x_1, \dots, x_k) \in \mathbb{N}[x_1, \dots, x_k]$ ensures the inequality

$$p(x_1, \dots, x_i, \dots, x_k) < p(x_1, \dots, x_i + 1, \dots, x_k) \quad \text{for each } i = 1, \dots, k,$$

since all coefficients of p are natural numbers. The bound will be $b_i = \lceil \sqrt[d_i]{B/a_i} \rceil$ for each variable x_i , where d_i is the minimum exponent of x_i and a_i is the coefficient of the monomial where the variable x_i occurs with this exponent in the polynomial p . The bounds b_i can be further reduced along the edges of the hypercube. More precisely, for each $i = 1, \dots, k$, the bound b_i can be still reduced if $p(0, \dots, 0, b_i, 0, \dots, 0) > B$ holds.

For the two-dimensional case, we can for instance use the polynomial $f(x, y) = x^3 + y^3$. In fact, this polynomial is the basis for *Taxicab numbers* [10] $\text{Ta}(t)$ for $t = 1, 2, 3, \dots$. If we set the value B to one of Taxicab numbers $\text{Ta}(t)$, the bounds to $m = n = \lceil \sqrt[3]{B} \rceil$, and the starting point to $(0, \lceil \sqrt[3]{B} \rceil)$, Algorithm 1 finds a pair of values x and y whose sum of cubes is equal to $\text{Ta}(t)$. An easy modification of Algorithm 1 produces *all* solutions for a Taxicab number $\text{Ta}(t)$: extend the while-loop condition on Line 4 to “ $x \leq m - 1$ & $y \geq 0$ & $x \leq y$ ”, replace Line 6 by “**print** (x, y) ”, add the instruction “ $y \leftarrow y - 1$ ” between Lines 6 and 7, and

finally delete Line 13. In the same way, we can solve other problems mentioned by Silverman in [10], like the problem $x^4 + y^4 = 635318657$ solved by Euler.

For the three-dimensional case, we can use for instance the polynomial $x^3 + y^3 + z^3 = B$ with the bound $\lceil \sqrt[3]{B} \rceil$ for each variable. This problem was considered by Heath-Brown in [3], not only over natural numbers \mathbb{N} , but over integers \mathbb{Z} .

Another interesting case comes from Gauss' theorem, showing that any natural number can be written as a sum of three triangle numbers, which is equivalent to the statement that any natural number of the form $8n + 3$ can be written as a sum of squares of three odd natural numbers. This is expressed formally by $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = 8n + 3$ for any $n \in \mathbb{N}$, where the bound for each variable is $\lceil \sqrt{8n + 3} \rceil$. Hirschhorn and Sellers studied in [5] the number of *all* solutions for this problem.

An excellent example for an application is the famous Lagrange's theorem [7], showing that any natural number can be written as a sum of four squares. Formally, this can be expressed as $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 + w^2 = B$ for each $B \in \mathbb{N}$, with the bound $\lceil \sqrt{B} \rceil$ for each variable. We should mention here, that our method of generalized Young tableaux is *not* the best algorithm to compute the four squares in Lagrange's sum. More efficient algorithms exist, namely three randomized algorithms of Rabin and Shallit [9] the fastest of which has the running time $O(\log^2 B)$ provided that the Extended Riemann Hypothesis holds, their modification by Pollack and Treviño [8] with running time $O(\log^2 B / \log \log B)$, or that of Bumby [1]. It is just an interesting application for a more general setting. We can also play with Hilbert–Waring theorem [4], which says that for each natural number d there exists an associated natural number $q(d)$ such that every natural number B can be expressed as a sum of at most $q(d)$ natural numbers raised to the power d .

The coordinates of the exit in the puzzle from Section 1 are the solution of the equation $3x^{14} + 5y^{15} + 7z^{16} = 131350013988347832235$. There is only one solution to this equation.

5 Implementation and Benchmarks

All five *Generalized Young Tableaux* algorithms (respective seven if we count the modifications producing all solutions) have been implemented in C++. All implementations have a variant with the GNU Multiple Precision Arithmetic Library (GMP) which allows to treat numbers B of any precision. These implementations, together with data files, can be found at the `github` repository `github.com/miki-hermann/gyt`. This directory contains the individual C++ sources, as well as an xz-compressed tar-file and a zip-file, both with the same content. There are two directories. The first one, entitled `gyt-dir`, contains the C++ sources and a `Makefile` which allows to compile the sources without typing the whole compiler command. The correspondence between the algorithms presented in this paper and their implementations is described in Table 1. The second directory, entitled `data`, contains the data files for the implemented algorithms. All implemented algorithms expect the input from `STDIN`, either typed from the keyboard after being prompted, or being piped from a file, for instance by a command like `gyt < ../data/lagrange01.data`.

The C++ sources have been compiled by the `g++`, version 10.2.1, with the optimization option `“-O4”`. The software has been run with the benchmarks on a Dell computer with an Intel® Core™ i7-9700 CPU @ 3.00GHz × 8 processor, with 16GB RAM, running under Fedora 33. The performance of the software is quite surprising. For instance, `young2d-gmp` computing the first solution of the 7th taxicab number (data file `taxi7.data`) takes only 31.83 seconds and `young2d-all-gmp` computing *all* solutions of the same takes only 1607.15 seconds, i.e., not even 27 minutes.

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Algorithm 1 (2-dimensional)	young2d.cpp	young2d-gmp.cpp
Algorithm 1 all solutions	young2d-all.cpp	young2d-all-gmp.cpp
Algorithm 2 (sequential)	gyt.cpp	gyt-gmp.cpp
Algorithm 2 all solutions	gyt-all.cpp	gyt-all-gmp.cpp
Algorithm 3 (priority)	gyt-pq.cpp	gyt-pq-gmp.cpp
Algorithm 4 (randomized)	gyt-rand.cpp	gyt-rand-gmp.cpp
Algorithm 5 (probabilistic)	gyt-proba.cpp	gyt-proba-gmp.cpp

■ **Table 1** Correspondence between algorithms and C++ implementation sources

257 The performance of the individual algorithms is measured in terms of a maximal stack or
258 queue size, number of splits or choices, number of backtracks, and number of continuation
259 rooms double reached. For the randomized and probabilistic versions, the most advantageous
260 outcome out of 20 runs is presented. Table 2 summarizes the performance of the most
261 interesting data sets. Measuring the execution time would not give a clear picture in this case,
262 since all of them except `lagrange07.data` execute very fast. For instance, the sequential
263 algorithm needs only 4.91 seconds on `ex01.data`, which is quite an involved data set, whereas
264 the priority algorithm needs only 0.57 seconds to execute it, and the randomized algorithm
265 squeezes it down even to 0.25 seconds in the best case.

266 6 Concluding Remarks

267 When we look at Table 2, we cannot decide which of the four algorithms is the clear winner.
268 As a rule of thumb, the priority algorithm almost always outperforms the sequential algorithm.
269 Notable exceptions are the data sets `ex01.txt` and `ex04.txt`, where the sequential algorithm
270 pushes only 10628 or 329 rooms on stack, whereas the priority driven algorithm inserts 72910
271 or 213064 rooms into the queue, which indicates that the algorithm “dances” around the
272 search space. Of course, the sequential algorithm makes in the first case more splits and
273 backtracks, as well as it encounters more doubles. However, except for the backtracks, the
274 priority algorithm loses in any category against the sequential version in the second case.

275 The priority algorithm is a clear winner for `lagrange07.data`. Both the sequential and
276 randomized algorithms terminate with a timeout due to memory exhaustion. The priority
277 algorithm found a solutions without backtracks and only with 16214 splits, beating even
278 the probabilistic algorithm which does not memorize continuation rooms, but needed an
279 incredible number of 19636633 choices. The search space must be densely populated by
280 exits in this case, since the probabilistic algorithm almost always returns a positive answer for
281 this data set. However, the priority algorithm loses against everybody, even against the
282 sequential algorithm, for `ex04.data`.

283 The randomized and probabilistic algorithms should in principle make the same number of
284 splits, respective choices. This is true many times, but there are cases like `lagrange09.data`,
285 where the search space is small and populated with many solutions (there are actually
286 1260), but the probabilistic algorithm was not able to reach the minimum achieved by the
287 randomized version. Note, that the priority algorithm beats everybody in this case. Neither
288 doubles are encountered, nor backtracks are triggered.

289 If we do not count the probabilistic algorithm, when we wish always to receive a correct
290 answer, the randomized algorithm beats all others in most cases. However, this is mainly due
291 to the best performance among those 20 runs. Even if the randomized algorithm outperforms
292 the priority one, the advantage is measured only in terms of a constant, provided we do

not count the doubles. For these two algorithms, the ratio of maximal stack/queue size ranges within an interval from 1.0 to 3.6, with three notable exceptions, two in favor of the randomized algorithm (`ex01.data` and `ex04.data`) and the other in favor of the priority algorithm (`langrange02.data`). In the same spirit, the ratio of splits ranges within an interval from 0.51 to 4.8. Nevertheless, in the case of `ex04.data`, the randomized algorithm massively surpasses the priority version.

The probabilistic version works well only when the search spaces is populated with many exits. If there is only a small number of exits, namely 1 or 46, respectively, and the search space is huge, as in `ex01.data` and `ex04.data`, the probabilistic algorithm fails to find the exit. The respective randomized algorithm needed 74513 splits for the first one, but only 386 in the second. Given that there are 4 or 5 variables, respectively, in that problem, which means the correct continuation room is chosen with probability $1/3$ or $1/4$, respectively, exactly 74513 or even only 386 times, the chances to find the exit by a probabilistic algorithm are practically equal to 0.

The performance of the algorithms essentially depends on the bounds. The data set `maze06.data` has a horribly big exit label B , but actually its calculated bound is relatively small: the maximal bound for `maze06.data` is 26. However, the bounds for `langrange07.data` are all equal to 288897081.

Interested readers are invited to write their own examples and try it out with this software.

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Data set	measure	Algorithm			
		2:seq	3:priority	4:random	5:proba
gauss-triangle4.data $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 =$ 2446610011	max stack/queue	49465	1858	1555	—
	splits/choices	51118	1857	1554	1554
	backtracks	1659	0	0	—
	doubles	2180	95152	0	—
gauss-triangle6.data $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 =$ 70039266307	max stack/queue	264651	48777	16661	—
	splits/choices	269208	49399	16660	13024
	backtracks	4563	623	0	—
	doubles	6462	1521415	0	—
lagrange02.data $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 + w^2 =$ 123456789	max stack/queue	22256	315	173	—
	splits/choices	11143	218	86	86
	backtracks	32	0	0	—
	doubles	0	146	0	—
lagrange07.data $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 + w^2 =$ 83461523083775142	max stack/queue	timeout	32383	timeout	—
	splits/choices	timeout	16214	timeout	19636633
	backtracks	timeout	0	timeout	—
	doubles	timeout	46	timeout	—
lagrange09.data $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 + w^2 =$ 2021	max stack/queue	92	23	45	—
	splits/choices	46	11	22	25
	backtracks	2	0	0	—
	doubles	0	0	0	—
ex01.data $2x^3y^2 + 3y^3z^2 + 5z^3w^2 =$ 84662255	max stack/queue	10628	72910	254	—
	splits/choices	2058405	99665	74513	failure
	backtracks	2138825	50299	101210	—
	doubles	7078935	129088	331188	—
ex02.data $2x^3y^2 + 3y^3z^2 + 5z^3w^2 =$ 10	max stack/queue	6	9	7	—
	splits/choices	5	5	3	3
	backtracks	5	2	0	—
	doubles	0	0	0	—
ex04.data $2x^4 + 3y^4 + 5z^4 + 7w^4 + 13u^4 =$ 253930575	max stack/queue	329	213064	731	—
	splits/choices	6262	180091	386	failure
	backtracks	14179	0	395	—
	doubles	29559	3658440	524	—
maze01.data $x^{10} + y^{10} + z^{10} =$ 413575475547	max stack/queue	16	51	27	—
	splits/choices	39	51	26	26
	backtracks	26	11	0	—
	doubles	24	22	0	—
maze05.data $3x^3y^2 + 5y^3z^2 + 7x^2z^3 =$ 29177953	max stack/queue	3120	130	36	—
	splits/choices	3555	168	35	35
	backtracks	3537	44	0	—
	doubles	6875	184	0	—
maze06.data (using GMP) $3x^{14} + 5y^{15} + 7z^{16} =$ 131350013988347832235	max stack/queue	21	30	30	—
	splits/choices	60	29	29	29
	backtracks	45	0	0	—
	doubles	102	0	0	—

■ **Table 2** Performance of algorithms on chosen data sets