
Complexity and Advanced Algorithms

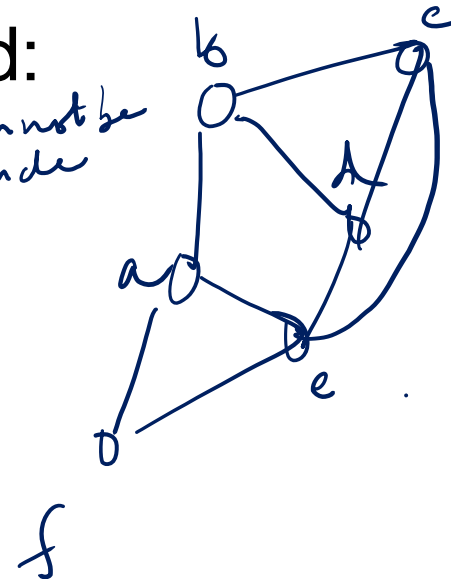
Spring 2020

Fractional Independent Set (FIS)

- Let $G = (V, E)$ be an undirected graph.
- We say that a set $S \subseteq V$ is an independent set if no two vertices of S are mutual neighbors in G .
- The notion of an independent set is very popular in graph theory.
- Several variants are also studied:
 - Maximal Independent Set (MIS)
 - Maximum Independent Set
 - Fractional Independent Set

$$S = \{a, d\}$$

S cannot be expanded



Fractional Independent Set

- We now define an FIS.
- Let $G = (V, E)$ be an undirected graph. A set $S \subseteq V$ is called a (c, d) -fractional independent set of G if it satisfies:

- S is an independent set ←
- For every vertex v in S , degree(v) is at most d . ←
- $|S|$ is at least $|V|/c$.

$$|S| \geq |V| \cdot \frac{1}{c}$$

$c > 1$

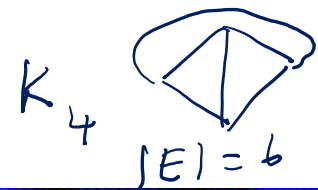
↑ fraction

Fractional Independent Set

- We now define an FIS.
- Let $G = (V, E)$ be an undirected graph. A set $S \subseteq V$ is called a (c,d) -fractional independent set of G if it satisfies:
 - S is an independent set
 - For every vertex v in S , $\text{degree}(v)$ is at most d .
 - $|S|$ is at least $|V|/c$.
- Not every graph may have an FIS.
- Planar graphs have an FIS.
 - We will see that today, along with a way to construct such an FIS.

Planar Graphs

$$|V_d| \geq \frac{|V|}{c}$$



- Recall the theorem of Euler concerning planar graphs.
- Theorem (Euler): If $G = (V, E)$ is planar with $|V|$ at least 3, then $|E|$ is at most $3|V| - 6$.
- Using the above theorem, can show that in a planar graph G , there are lots of vertices of a degree at most d .
- Theorem: Let $G = (V, E)$ be a planar graph and d be an integer at least 6. Let V_d be the set of vertices of degree at most d . Then, $|V_d|$ is at least $|V|/c$ for some constant c .

$$|V| = 4$$

$$6 = 3 \times 4 - 6$$

$$d \geq 6$$

$$\sum \deg(v) = 2|E|$$

$$|V_d| \times d \leq 2|E|$$

Planar Graphs

- Theorem: Let $G = (V, E)$ be a planar graph and d be an integer at least 6. Let V_d be the set of vertices of degree at most d . Then, $|V_d|$ is at least $|V|/c$ for some constant c .
- Proof: Let V_h be the complement of V_d . $V \setminus V_d = V_h$
- We will estimate an upper bound on the size of V_h as follows.
- Consider $\sum_v \text{degree}(v) \geq \sum_{v \in V_h} \text{degree}(v) \geq$
 $(d+1)|V_h|$ $\sum_{v \in V_h} \text{degree}(v)$ \uparrow

Planar Graphs

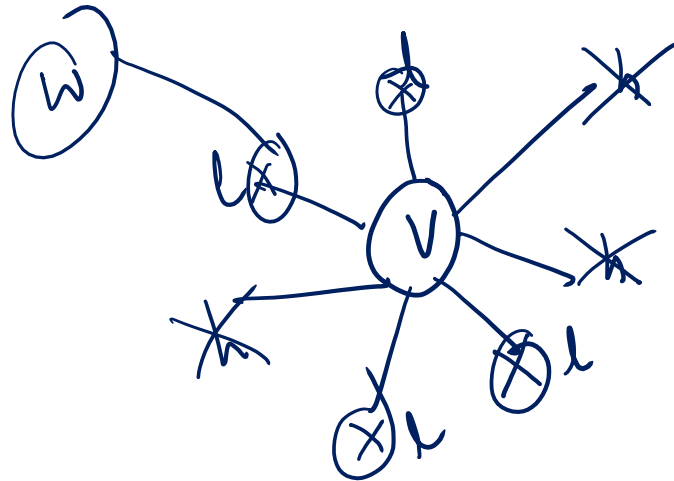
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- We will estimate an upper bound on the size of V_h as follows.
- Consider $\sum_v \text{degree}(v) \geq \sum_{v \in V_h} \text{degree}(v) \geq (d+1)|V_h|$.
- Using Euler's theorem, we get that $(d+1)|V_h| \leq 2|E|$
 $2(3|V| - 6)$.

Planar Graphs

- Theorem: Let $G = (V, E)$ be a planar graph and d be an integer at least 6. Let V_d be the set of vertices of degree at most d . Then, $|V_d|$ is at least $|V|/c$ for some constant c .
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- Consider $\sum_v \text{degree}(v) \geq \sum_{v \in V_h} \text{degree}(v) \geq (d+1)|V_h|$.
- Using Euler's theorem, we get that $(d+1)|V_h| \leq 2(3|V| - 6)$.
- So, $|V_d| \geq |V| - |V_h| \geq |V| \cdot \frac{(d-5)}{(d+1)}$.
offline d fixed $f(d) = c$

Planar Graphs

- Theorem: Let $G = (V, E)$ be a planar graph and d be an integer at least 6. Let V_d be the set of vertices of degree at most d . Then, $|V_d|$ is at least $|V|/c$ for some constant c .
- With $d = 6$, we get that $|V_6|$ is at least $|V|/7$.



$V \in S$
at most 6
other vertices
are eliminated

Planar Graphs

$$|V_d| \geq |V| \cdot \frac{d-5}{d+1}$$

- Theorem: Let $G = (V, E)$ be a planar graph and d be an integer at least 6. Let V_d be the set of vertices of degree at most d . Then, $|V_d|$ is at least $|V|/c$ for some constant c .
- With $d = 6$, we get that $|V_6|$ is at least $|V|/7$.
- Can be used to show that in a sequential setting, an FIS for a planar graph can be found.

- Start with any vertex v .
 - If v has a degree at most 6, add v to the set S .
 - Remove all the neighbors of v .
 - Continue until there are more vertices.
- Can show that $|S|$ is at least $|V_6|/7$.

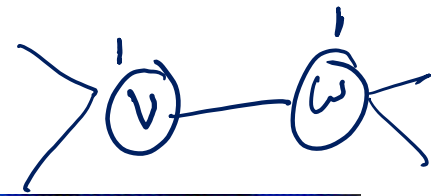
S is a $(49, 6)$ -FIS

$$|V_6| \geq \frac{|V|}{7}$$

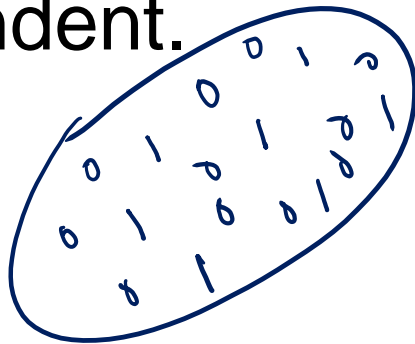
FIS

- The sequential algorithm is not efficient in parallel.
- Need a better approach where multiple nodes decide to join the FIS or not on their own.

Parallel FIS on Planar Graphs



- Consider each vertex of degree at most 6.
- For each such vertex, set $\text{label}(v) = 1$ with probability $\frac{1}{2}$ and set $\text{label}(v) = 0$ with probability $\frac{1}{2}$.
- Note that several vertices and their neighbors may choose their label as 1.
- So, the set of vertices with label set to 1 is not independent.



$$\text{Label}(v) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{with prob } \frac{1}{2} \\ 0 & \text{''} \end{cases}$$

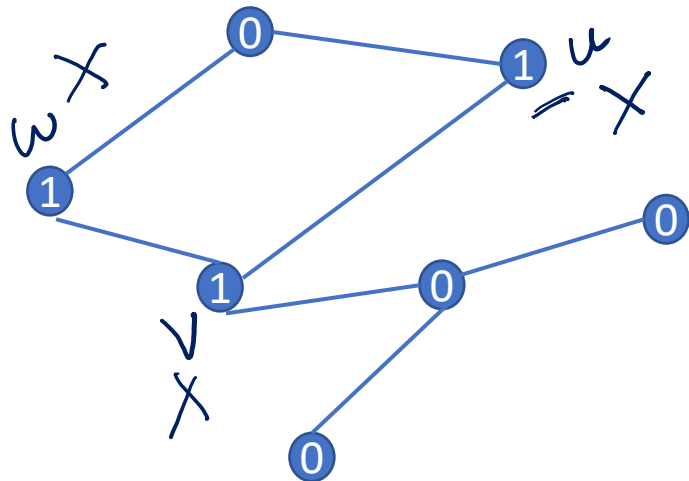
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Parallel FIS on Planar Graphs

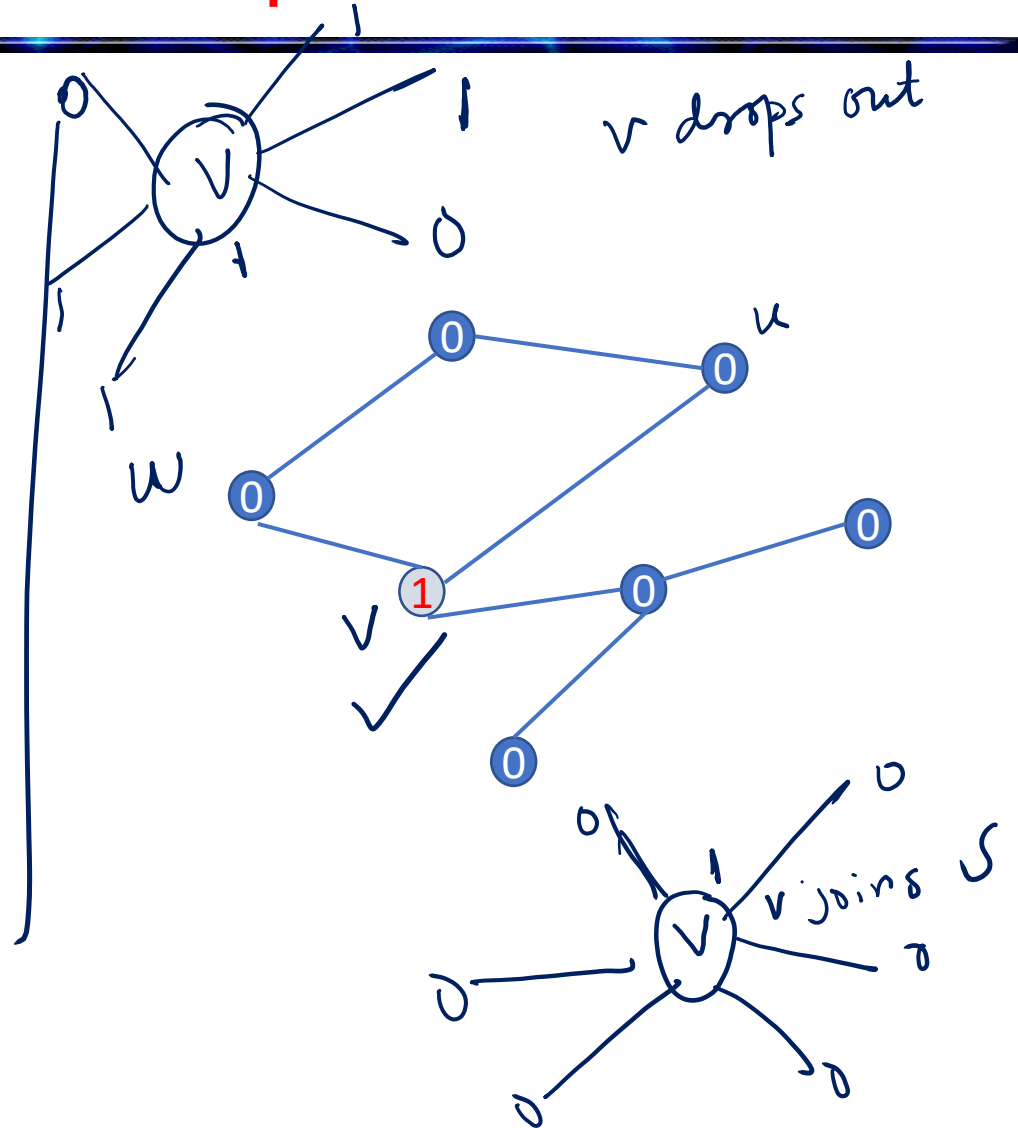
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- Note that several vertices and their neighbors may choose their label as 1.
- So, the set of vertices with label set to 1 is not independent.
- To make this set independent, we proceed as follows.

Parallel FIS on Planar Graphs



$$V \setminus \deg(v) = 6$$

$$pr(v \in S) = \frac{1}{2}$$



Parallel FIS on Planar Graphs

- Consider each vertex of degree at most 6.
- For each such vertex, set $\text{label}(v) = 1$ with probability $\frac{1}{2}$ and set $\text{label}(v) = 0$ with probability 0.
- Note that several vertices and their neighbors may choose their label as 1.
- So, the set of vertices with label set to 1 is not independent.
- To make this set independent, we proceed as follows.
- If a node v of degree at most 6 has $\text{label}(v) = 1$ and all its neighbors have label 0, then v enters a set S .
- Otherwise, v drops out.

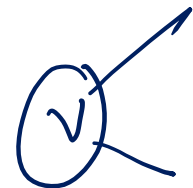
Parallel FIS on Planar Graphs

- We want to claim that S is a $(\underline{c}, 6)$ —FIS for some constant \underline{c} .
 - Only for planar graphs of course.
- S is indeed an independent set. \leftarrow
- Moreover, the degree of any vertex in S is at most 6.
- So, we only have to find a suitable value for \underline{c} .

$$|S| \geq |V| \cdot \frac{1}{c}$$

$$\deg(v) \leq 6$$

$$\Pr(v \in S) \geq \frac{1}{2}$$



Are X_v 's independent?

Parallel FIS on Planar Graphs

$$X_v = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } v \in S \\ 0 & \text{o/w} \end{cases}$$

- For a vertex v with degree at most 6, note that $\Pr(v \text{ has label 1 and } v \text{ is in } S)$ is at least $1/2^7$.

$$1/2^7 \cdot |V|$$

For the event to occur, v has to pick 1 as its label, and the neighbors of v (of degree at most 6) have to pick 0 as their label.

- Let us use $1/128$ as the actual probability of the above event going forward.

$$|S| = \sum_v X_v, \mathbb{E}|S| \geq \frac{|V|}{7} \times \frac{1}{128}$$

- Now, we can note that since $|V_6|$ is at least $|V|/7$, on expectation, the number of vertices in S is at least $|V|/(7 \times 128)$.

$$\mathbb{E} X_v = 1 \times \frac{1}{128} = \frac{1}{128}$$

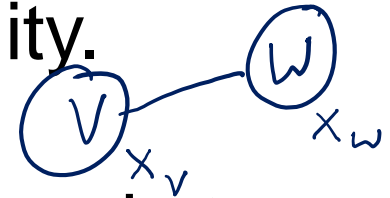
$$V_6 = \{u_1, u_2, u_3, \dots, u_6\}$$

$$X_v = \sum_{v=1}^6 X_{u_v}, \mathbb{E} X_v = \frac{|V_6|}{128}$$

Parallel FIS on Planar Graphs

$$v \in S \Rightarrow w \notin S?$$

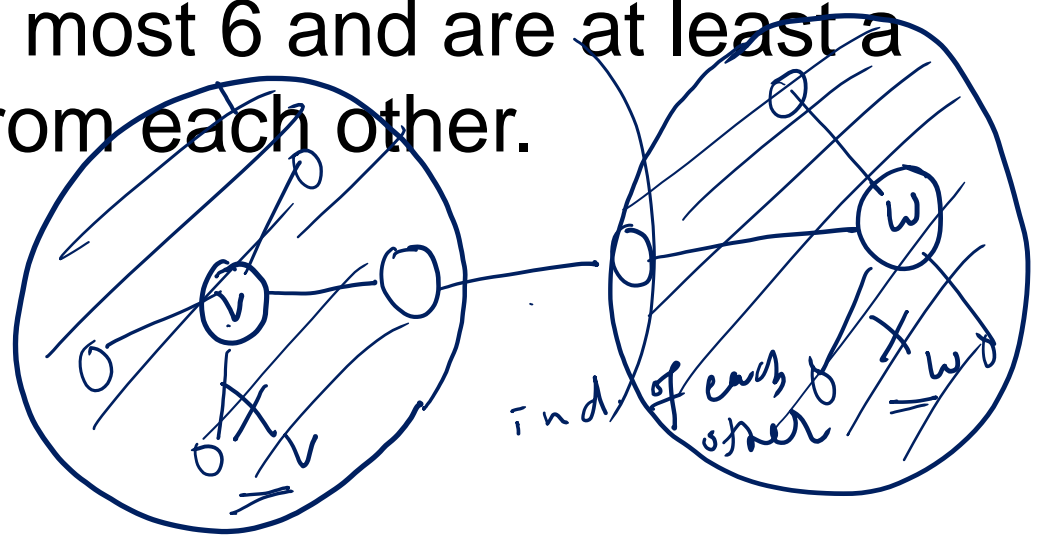
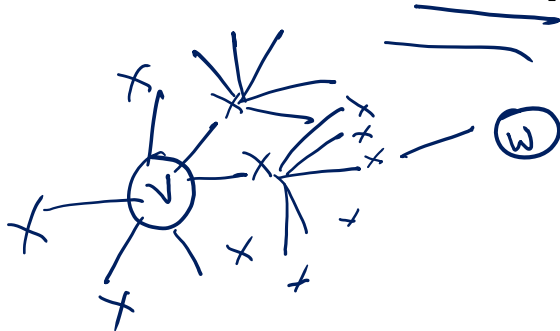
- We wish that S has a large size not just in expectation, but also with high probability.
- We have $E|S|$ is at least $|V|/(7 \times 128)$.
- It appears that we can use Chernoff bounds to show that the size of S is close to its expectation.
- But, the random variables that we use are not independent.
- In particular, for two neighbors v and w of small degree, if v is in S then w cannot be in S .
- The events v in S , and w in S are therefore not always independent.



$$x_v = 1 \Rightarrow x_w = 0$$

Parallel FIS in Planar Graphs

- There are several ways to deal with this lack of independence.
- One such way is to consider only a subset of random variables that are then independent of each other.
- In the present case, we will consider only vertices of degree at most 6 and are at least a distance of 3 apart from each other.



Parallel FIS in Planar Graphs

- There are several ways to deal with this lack of independence.
- One such way is to consider only a subset of random variables that are then independent of each other.
- In the present case, we will consider only vertices of degree at most 6 and are at least a distance of 3 apart from each other.
- The random variables corresponding to such vertices are independent.

Parallel FIS in Planar Graphs

$$X = \sum_{v \in V'} x_v \quad \underline{EX}$$

- Let V' be the set of vertices of degree at most 6 .
- We observe that $|V'|$ is at least $|V|/36$.
- Now, define an indicator random variable for each v in V' so that this RV takes value 1 if v is in S .

$$x_v = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } v \in S \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$
are independent.
- Define X as the sum of these random variables.
- Note that EX is at least $|V'|/(7 \times 128)$, that is now at least $|V|/(36 \times 7 \times 128)$.

$$\approx |V|/36000 \quad c = \frac{1}{72000}$$
- Use Chernoff bounds to show that $\Pr(X \leq EX/2)$ is at most $\exp\{-EX/12\}$ which is polynomially small.

$$\Rightarrow \{X \geq \frac{EX}{2}\} \text{ whp}$$

Advanced Optimal Solutions

1 → 8 → 5 → 11 → 2 → 6 → 10 → 4 → 3 → 7 → 12 → 9

- General technique suggests that we solve a smaller problem and extend the solution to the larger problem.
- To apply our technique we should use the pointer jumping based solution on a sub-list of size $n/\log n$.
- How to identify such a sublist?

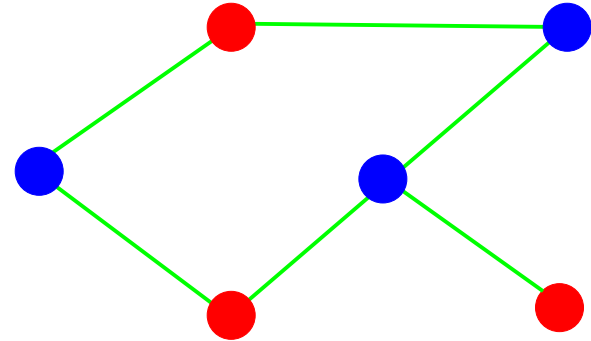
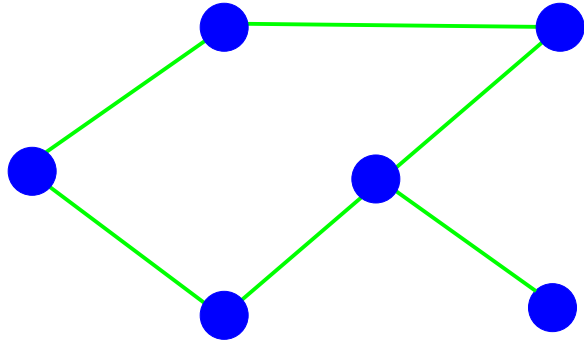
Advanced Solutions

1 → 8 → 5 → 11 → 2 → 6 → 10 → 4 → 3 → 7 → 12 → 9

1 → 5 → 11 → 6 → 4 → 3 → 12 → 9

- .Cannot pick equidistant as earlier.
- .However, can pick independent nodes.
 - Removing independent nodes is easy!
 - Formally, an independent set of nodes.
 - Can extend the solution easily in such a case.

Advanced Solutions

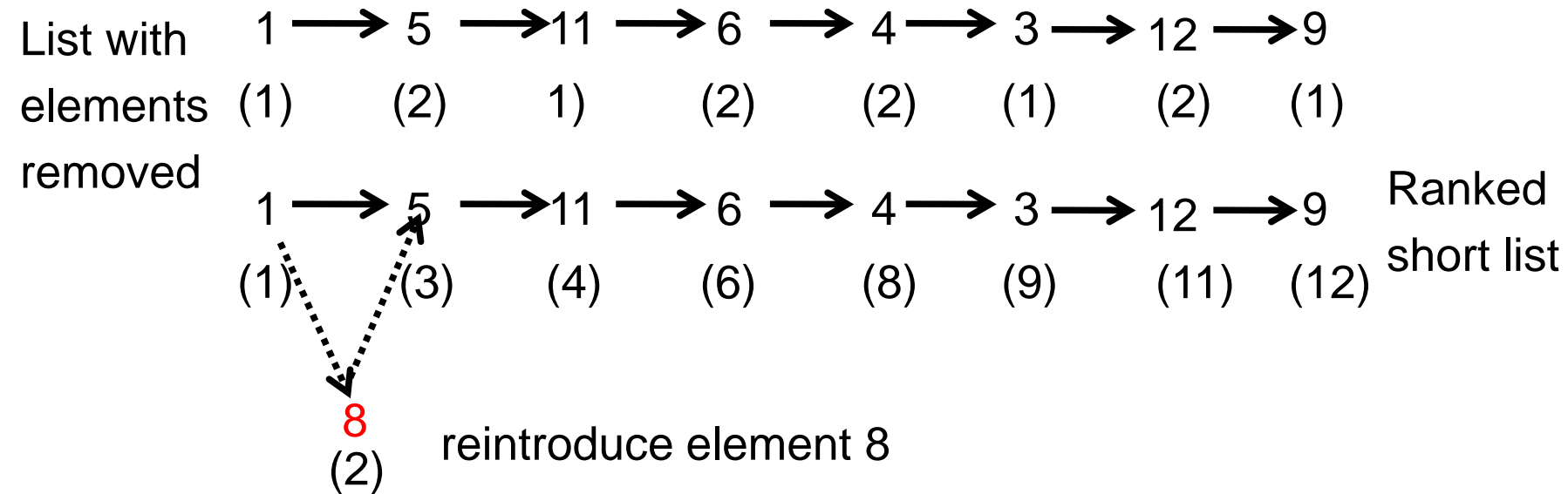


•Formally, in a graph $G = (V, E)$, a subset of nodes $U \subseteq V$ is called an **independent set** if for every pair of vertices u, v in U , $(u, v) \notin E$.

•Linked lists (viewed as a graph) have the property that they have large independent sets.

Advanced Solutions

1 → 8 → 5 → 11 → 2 → 6 → 10 → 4 → 3 → 7 → 12 → 9



- Transfer current rank along with successor during removal.

Advanced Optimal Solutions

1 → 8 → 5 → 11 → 2 → 6 → 10 → 4 → 3 → 7 → 12 → 9

1 → 5 → 11 → 6 → 4 → 3 → 12 → 9

- Algorithm outline:
 - Remove an independent set of nodes in the linked list.
 - Rank the remaining list, and then
 - Rank the removed elements.
- Several algorithms use this technique with variations:
Anderson-Miller, Hellman-JaJa, Reid-Miller,...

Advanced Solutions

- Issue 1: How to find a large independent set of nodes in parallel?
- Issue 2: How many iterations needed to reduce the size of the list?
- Issue 3: How to rank the removed elements?

Advanced Solutions

- Issue 1:

- Use techniques from parallel symmetry breaking or fractional independent sets.
- Can obtain an independent set of size $\geq n/c$.

- Issue 2:

- The naïve algorithm is slightly non-optimal (by a factor of $O(\log n)$)
- Hence, reduce the size of the list from n to $n/\log n$.

- Issue 3:

- Bookkeep enough details during removal
- Reintroduce in the reverse order.

Advanced Solutions

.Our algorithm outline:

Algorithm Rank(L)

$L_1 = L$;

For r iterations do

 Pick a fractional independent set U_i of nodes of size $\geq n/c$

$L_i = \text{Remove nodes in } U_i \text{ from } L_{i-1}$;

End-for

Rank the list L_r using pointer jumping.

For $i = r$ down to 1 do

 Reinsert the nodes in U_i into L_i

End-for

End.

.Question: How many iterations required?

Back to List Ranking

- Each iteration of coloring the list can give an FIS of size at least n/c .
- We require that only $n/\log n$ nodes remain at the end.
- Hence, $O(\log \log n)$ iterations are required.
 - $(n/c)^r = n/\log n$ at $r = O(\log \log n)$.

Back to List Ranking

.Time taken:

- To shrink the list: Each iteration is $O(1)$. At $O(\log \log n)$ iterations, this takes $O(\log \log n)$ time.
- To rank the remaining list using pointer jumping: $O(\log n)$ time
- To reintroduce the removed elements: Over $r = O(\log \log n)$ iterations, $O(\log \log n)$ time.
- Total = $O(\log n)$.

.Work: $O(n \log \log n)$

- Dominated by the work done in reintroducing the removed elements

Back to List Ranking

•A different way:

- Reintroducing can be slowed down to make it optimal.
- Use only $n/\log n$ processors, with each iteration taking $O(\log n)$ time.
- Total time = $O(\log n)$.
- Total work = $O(n)$.
- Randomized algorithm since finding an FIS is randomized in nature.
- Deterministic variants exist too.

Back to List Ranking

.Yet another way:

- Use an optimal approach to finding an independent set.
- Takes $O(\log n)$ time and $O(n)$ work.

.Overall time and work:

- Time = $O(\log n \log \log n)$
- Work = $O(n)$
- Optimal!

Back to List Ranking

.In general, if one can spend $O(t)$ time and $O(n)$ work in each iteration of removing nodes, then

- Time = $O(t \log \log n + \log n)$
- Work = $O(n)$.

.Have to lower t to get $O(\log n)$ optimal list ranking.

.There are such algorithms.

- Anderson-Miller is one such example.

.Further reading

- Anderson Miller described in JaJa's book
- Hellman-JaJa is another popular approach
 - Used by most practical papers in recent times.

After a long break, welcome again.

Have to make up two lectures and one exam.

Lectures: What if we continue our classes till 4 PM for the next 6 lectures? With a small break after 1 hour.

Exam: Will hold it some day after possibly 2 weeks from now. May be one hour exam, with only 15% weightage.

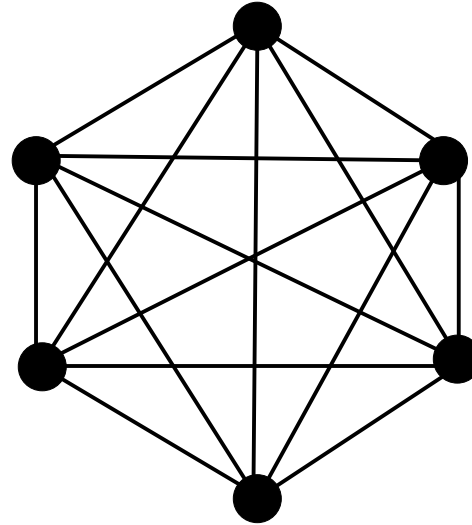
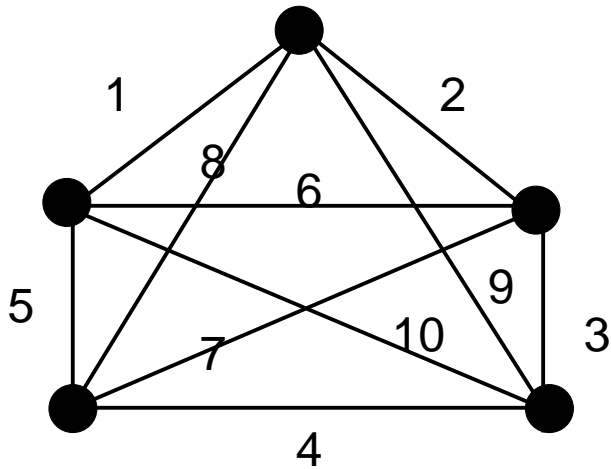
Tree Processing

.Now that we know how to process linked lists, let us consider tree algorithms.

.Problems we will consider:

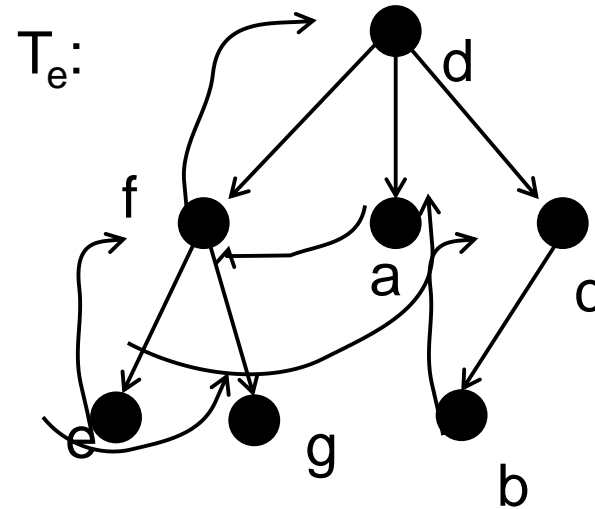
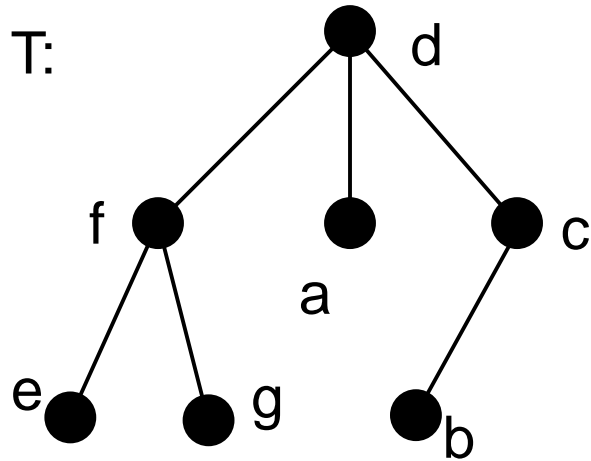
- Traversal
- Expression evaluation
- Least common ancestor, range minima

Traversal via Euler Tour



- Given a tree $T = (V, E)$, we use an Euler tour as a primitive for tree traversal algorithms.
- Euler tour: Given a graph, an Euler tour is a cycle that includes every edge exactly once.
 - A directed graph G has an Euler tour if and only if for every vertex, its in-degree equals its out-degree.

Euler Tour of a Tree



• For a tree $T = (V, E)$ to define an Euler tour, we make it a directed tree:

- Define $T_e = (V_e, E_e)$ with $V_e = V$.
- For each edge uv in E , add two directed edges (u, v) and (v, u) to E_e .
- T_e has an Euler tour.

Defining an Euler Tour on a Tree

- Just have to define a successor. Here, successor for an edge.
- For a node u in T_e order its neighbors v_1, v_2, \dots, v_d .
 - Can be done independently at each node.
 - For $e = (v_i, u)$, set $s(e) = e'$ where $e' = (u, v_{i+1})$.
 - Compute indices modulo the degree of u .

Euler Tour on a Tree

.Claim: The above definition of $s: E \rightarrow E$ is a tour.

.Proof: By induction. Let $n = 1$. Obviously true.

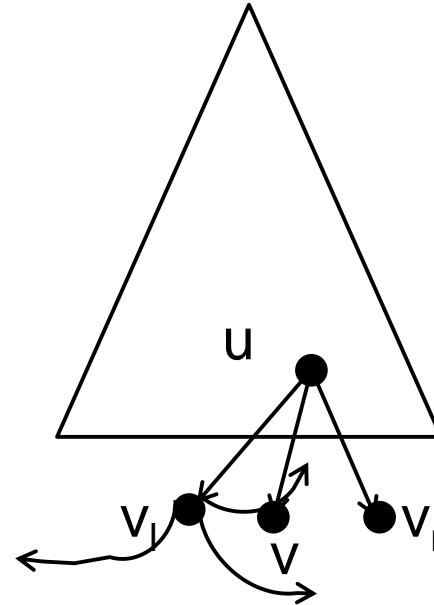
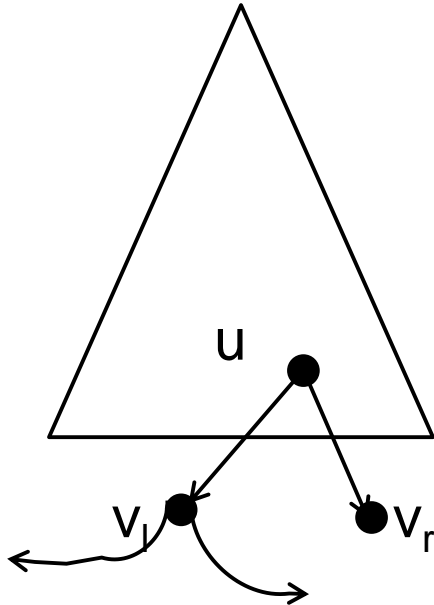
.For $n = 2$, at most one edge present. The tour is well defined according to $s()$.

.Let the tour be well defined for $n = k$.

.Step: $n = k+1$.

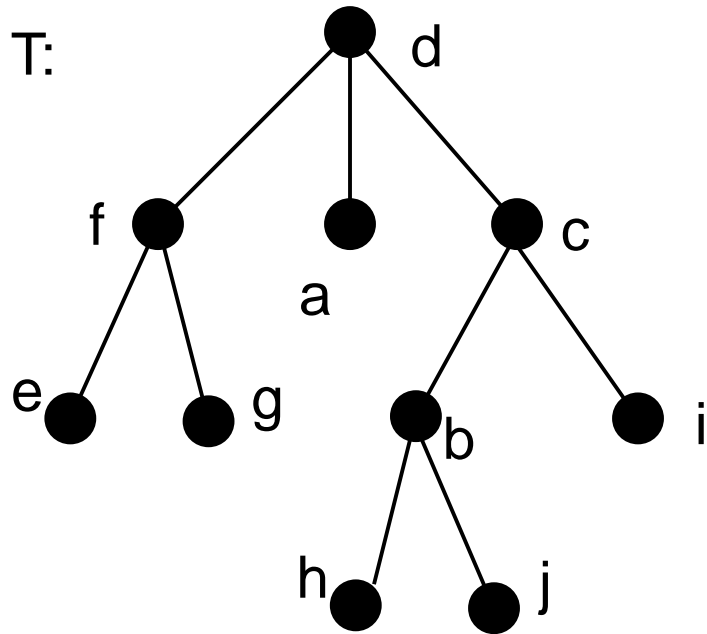
- Every tree has at least one leaf, say v .
- $T' = T \setminus \{v\}$ has an Euler tour defined by $s': E(T') \rightarrow E(T')$ as $|V(T')| = k$.
- We now extend this definition of s' to define a function $s: E(T) \rightarrow E(T)$.

Euler Tour on a Tree



- Let u be the neighbor of v in T .
 - Let $N(u) = \{v_0, \dots, v_{i-1}, v_i=v, v_{i+1}, \dots, v_d\}$.
- Set $s(u, v) := (v, u)$. Set $s(v_{i-1}, u) := (u, v)$.
- At all other edges $e \in T$, $s(e) := s'(e)$.

Example



a \longrightarrow d
b \longrightarrow j \longrightarrow h \longrightarrow c
c \longrightarrow i \longrightarrow d \longrightarrow b
d \longrightarrow c \longrightarrow a \longrightarrow f
e \longrightarrow f
f \longrightarrow g \longrightarrow d
g \longrightarrow f
h \longrightarrow b
i \longrightarrow c
j \longrightarrow b

Example

$a \longrightarrow d$
 $b \longrightarrow j \longrightarrow h \longrightarrow c$
 $c \longrightarrow i \longrightarrow d \longrightarrow b$
 $d \longrightarrow c \longrightarrow a \longrightarrow f$
 $e \longrightarrow f$
 $f \longrightarrow g \longrightarrow d$
 $g \longrightarrow f$
 $h \longrightarrow b$
 $i \longrightarrow c$
 $j \longrightarrow b$

$$s(b,c) = (c,i)$$

$$s(c,i) = (i,c)$$

$$s(i,c) = (c,d)$$

$$s(c,d) = (d,a)$$

$$s(d,a) = (a,d)$$

$$s(a,d) = (d,f)$$

$$s(d,f) = (f,g)$$

$$s(f,g) = (g,f)$$

$$s(g,f) = (f,d)$$

$$s(f,d) = (d,c)$$

$$s(d,c) = (c,b)$$

$$s(c,b) = (b,j)$$

$$s(b,j) = (j,b)$$

$$s(j,b) = (b,h)$$

$$s(b,h) = (h,b)$$

$$s(h,b) = (b,c)$$

$$s(b,c) = (c,i)$$

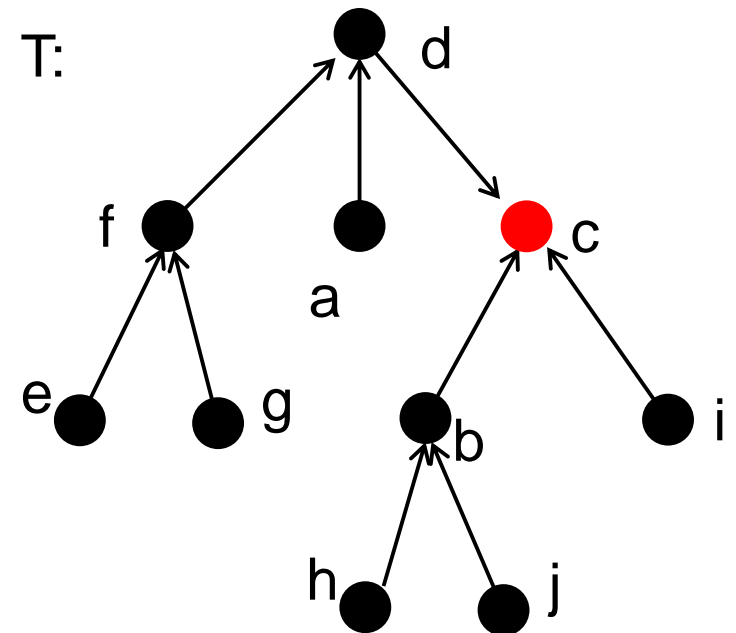
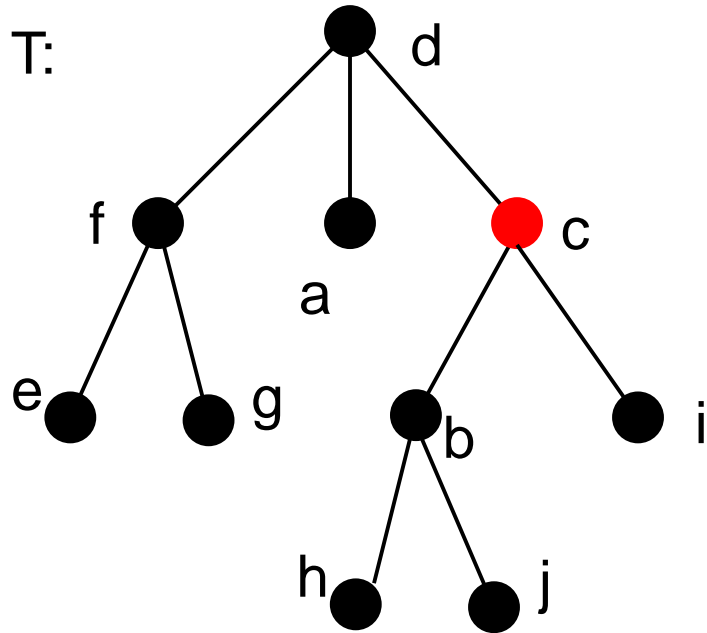
Euler Tour:

$(b,c) \rightarrow (c,i) \rightarrow (i,c) \rightarrow (c,d) \rightarrow (d,a) \rightarrow (a,d) \rightarrow (d,f) \rightarrow (f,g) \rightarrow (g,f) \rightarrow (f,d) \rightarrow (d,c)$

Applications of Euler Tour to Traversal

- .We now show why the Euler tour is an important construct for trees.
- .Operations on a tree such as rooting, preorder and postorder traversal can be converted to routines on an Euler tour.

Rooting a Tree

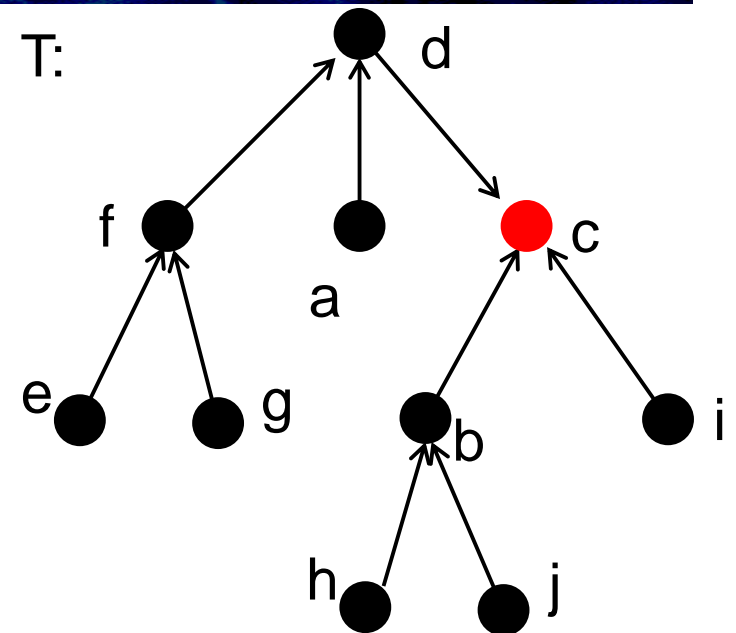
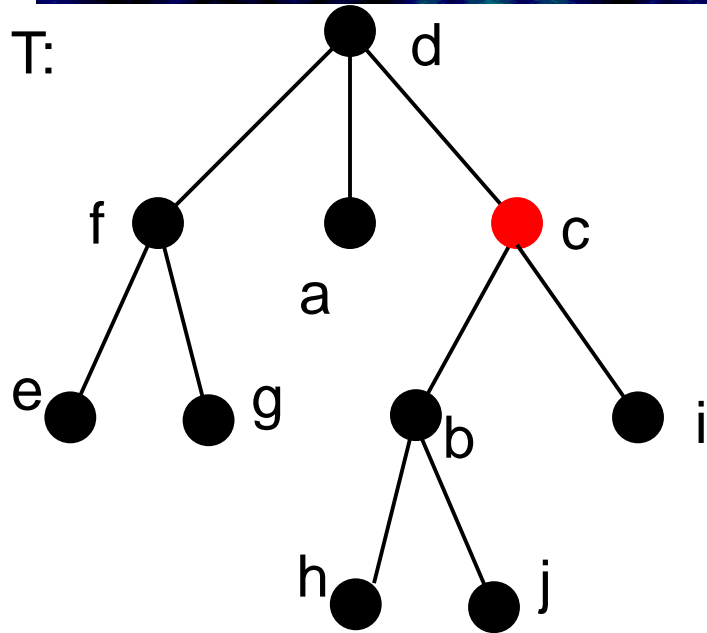


Euler Tour:

(b,c) ? (c,i) ? (i,c) ? (c,d) ? (d,a) ? (a,d) ? (d,f) ? (f,g) ? (g,f) ? (f,d) ? (d,

- Designate a node in a tree as the root.
- All edges are directed towards the root.

Rooting a Tree



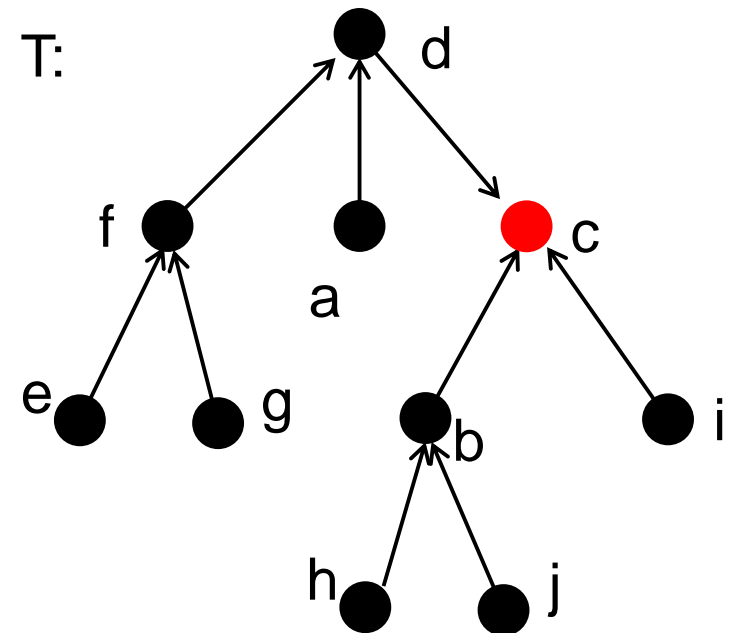
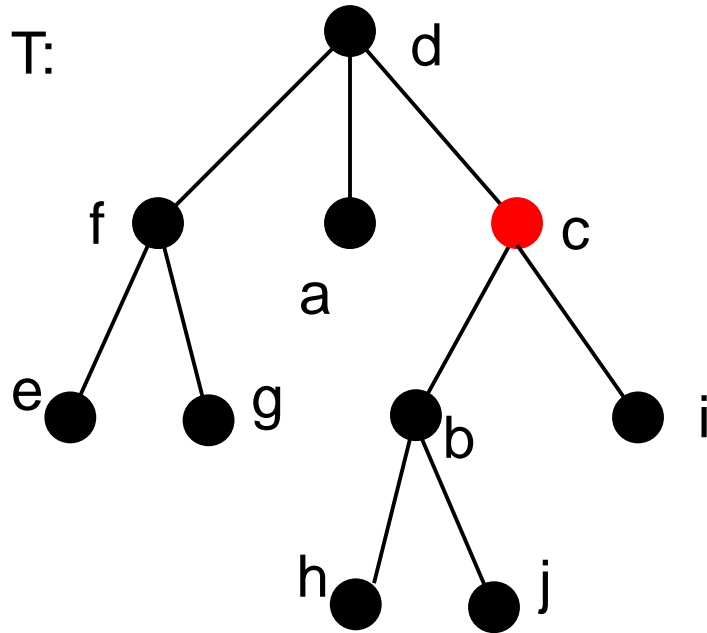
Euler Tour:

$(b,c) \rightarrow (c,i) \rightarrow (i,c) \rightarrow (c,d) \rightarrow (d,a) \rightarrow (a,d) \rightarrow (d,f) \rightarrow (f,g) \rightarrow (g,f) \rightarrow (f,d) \rightarrow (d,$

• Let (v_1, v_2, \dots, v_d) be the neighbors of the root node r . In this case, say (i, d, b)

• Set $s(e) = \text{NULL}$ for $e = (v_d, r)$. In this case, $s((b,c))$.

Rooting a Tree



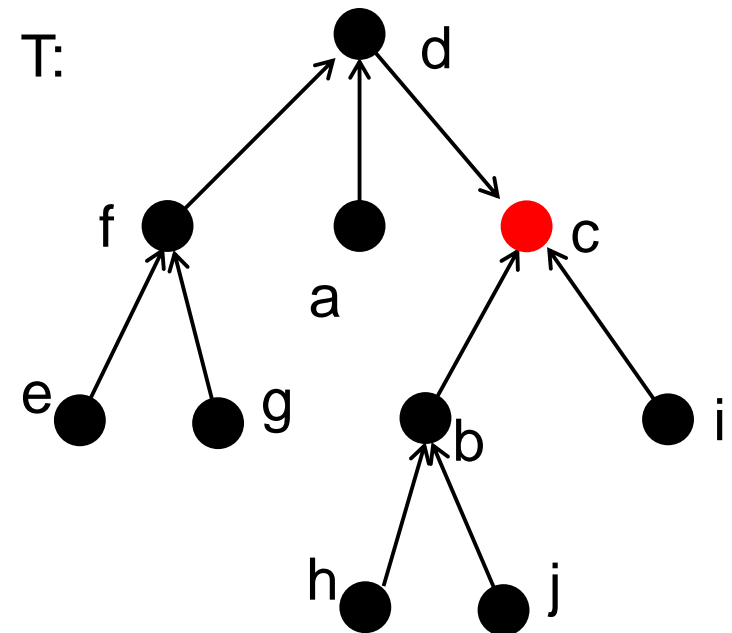
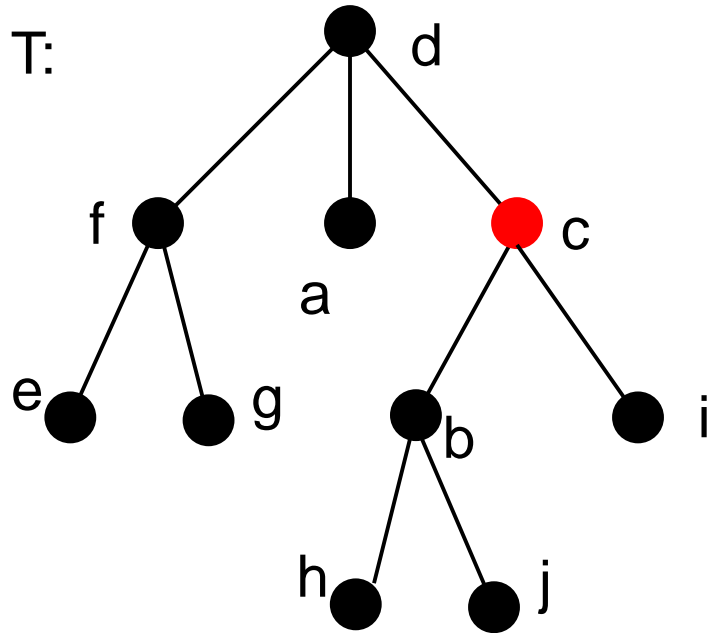
Euler Tour:

(c,i) ? (i,c) ? (c,d) ? (d,a) ? (a,d) ? (d,f) ? (f,g) ? (g,f) ? (f,d) ? (d,c) ? (c,i)

.The edge (r, v_i) appears before (v_i, r) .

.So, if u precedes v , then $u = p(v)$. Orient the edge uv from v to u .

Rooting a Tree

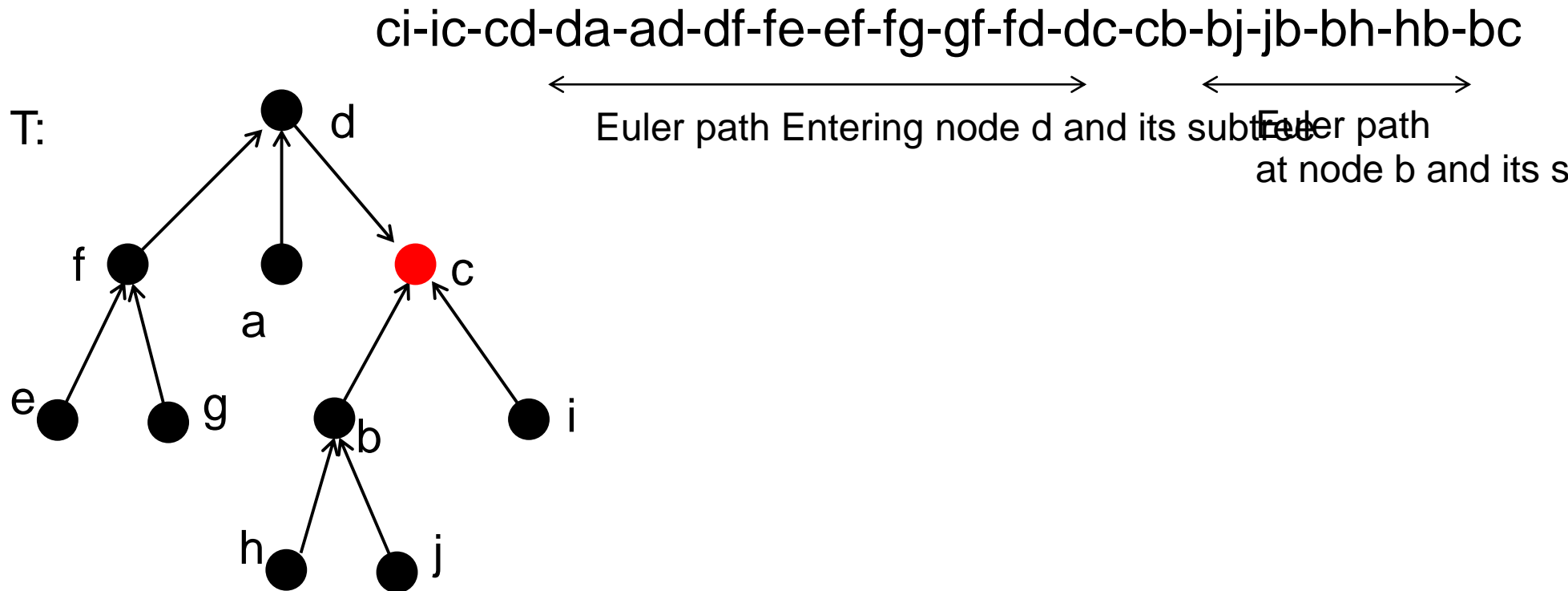


Euler Tour:

(c,i) ? (i,c) ? (c,d) ? (d,a) ? (a,d) ? (d,f) ? (f,g) ? (g,f) ? (f,d) ? (d,c) ? (c,b)

- So, if u precedes v , then $u = p(v)$. Orient the edge uv from v to u .
- To know the above, use list ranking on the Euler path.

Preorder Traversal



- Euler tour can be used to get a preorder number for every node.
- Associate meaning to the Euler tour.

Preorder Traversal

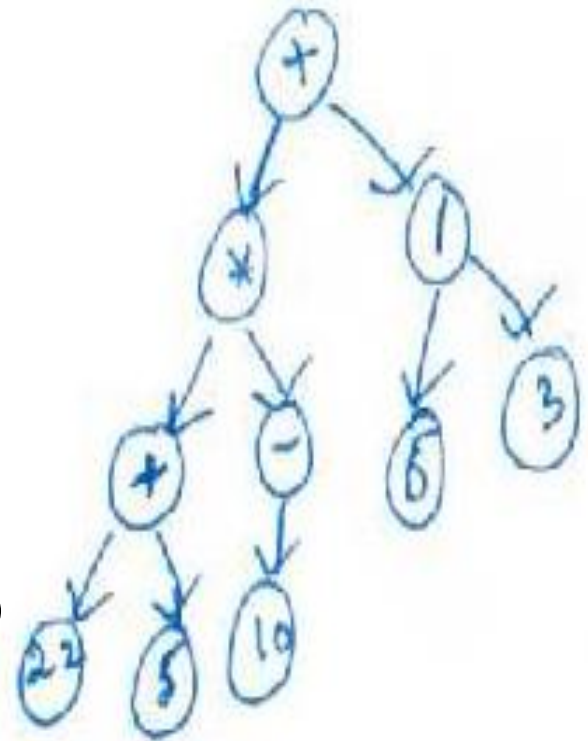
- In preorder traversal, a node is listed before any of the nodes in its subtree.
- In an Euler tour, nodes in a subtree are visited by entering those subtrees, and finally exiting to the parent.
- If we can therefore track the first occurrence of a node in the Euler path, then we can get the preorder traversal of the tree.

Postorder Traversal

- .Similar rules can be designed for also postorder and inorder traversals.
- .Inorder for binary trees only makes sense.
- .Next we see how to process expression trees.

Expression Trees

- Expression trees are trees with operands at the leaf nodes, and operators at the internal nodes.
- Our interest is to evaluate the result of an expression represented by its expression tree.
- We would limit ourselves to binary operators.
 - Can also convert non-binary cases to the case of binary operators.
- However, the expression tree need not be balanced, or height in $O(\log n)$.



Expression Tree Evaluation

- Cannot directly apply the standard technique of
 - All the penultimate level nodes, then the next level etc.
 - ❑ Tree may not be balanced, and could have very few nodes at the penultimate level.
 - All leaves first cannot be processed at once
 - ❑ At an internal node, both operands may not be evaluated yet.

Two Steps

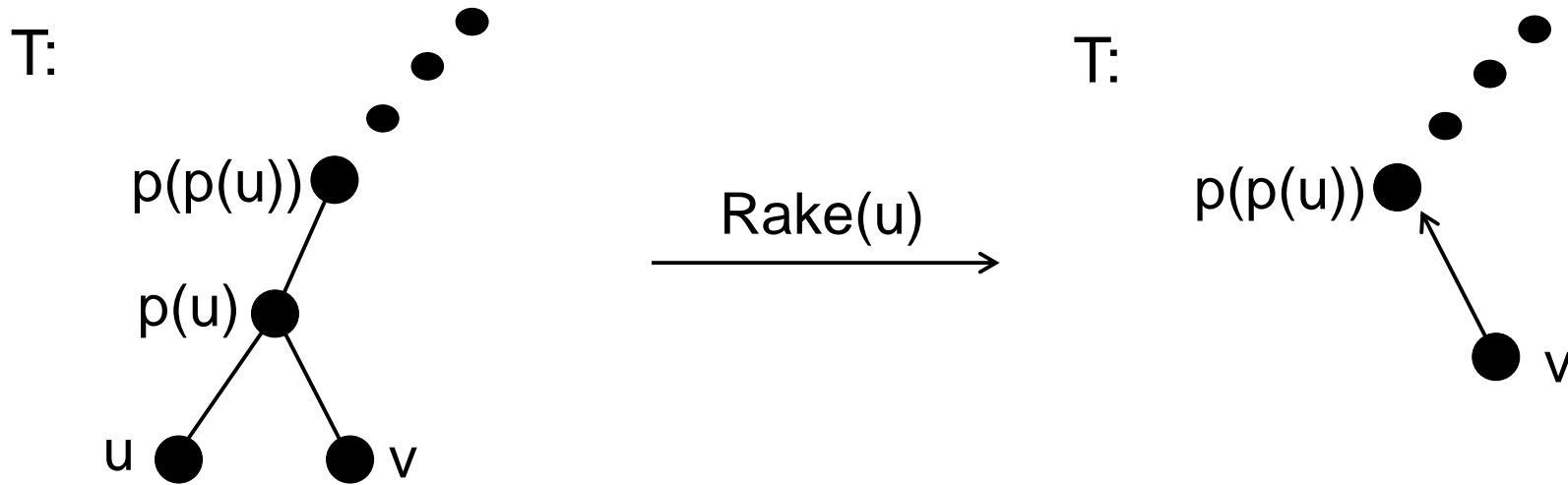
•A RAKE technique that contracts a tree

- rake: 1.an agricultural implement with teeth or tines for gathering cut grass, hay, or the like or for smoothing the surface of the ground.

2. any of various implements having a similar form, as a croupier's implement for gathering in money on a gaming table.

•Applying the rake technique to evaluate subexpressions.

The Rake Technique



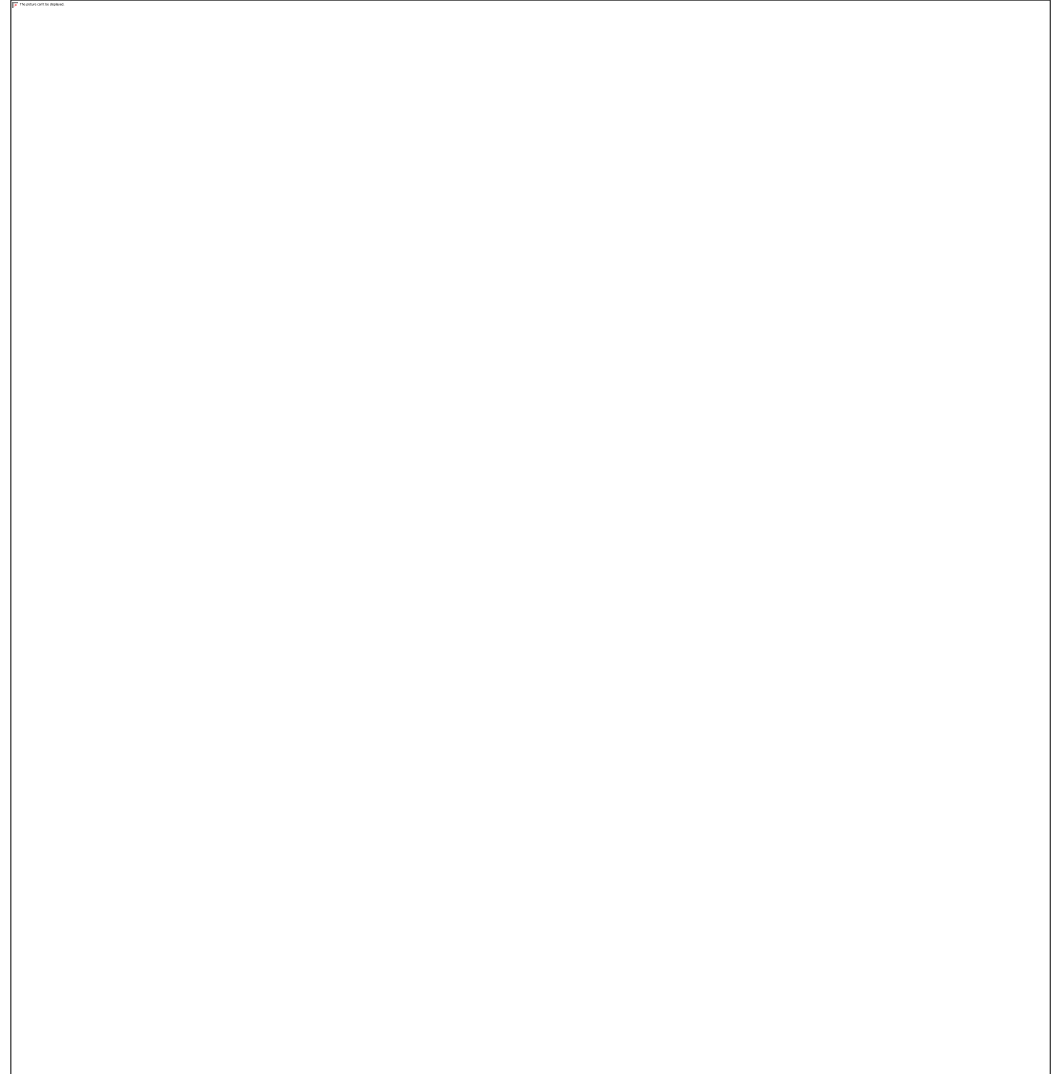
. $T = (V, E)$ be a rooted tree with r as the root and $p()$ be the parent function

. One step of the rake operation at a leaf u with $p(u) \neq r$ involves:

- Remove nodes u and $p(u)$ from the tree.
- Make the sibling of v as the child of $p(p(u))$.

The Rake Technique

- .Why is this good?
- .Can be applied simultaneously at several leaf nodes in parallel.
- .Which ones?
 - All leaves which do not share the same parent, essentially non-siblings.



The Rake Technique

Algorithm ShrinkTree(T)

Step 1. Compute labels for the leaf nodes consecutively, excluding the leftmost and the rightmost

Step 2. for k iterations do

 2.1 Apply the rake operation to all the odd numbered leaves that are left of A

 2.2 Apply the rake operation to all the odd

 2.3 Update A to be the remaining (even) leaf nodes.

end-for

End Algorithm.

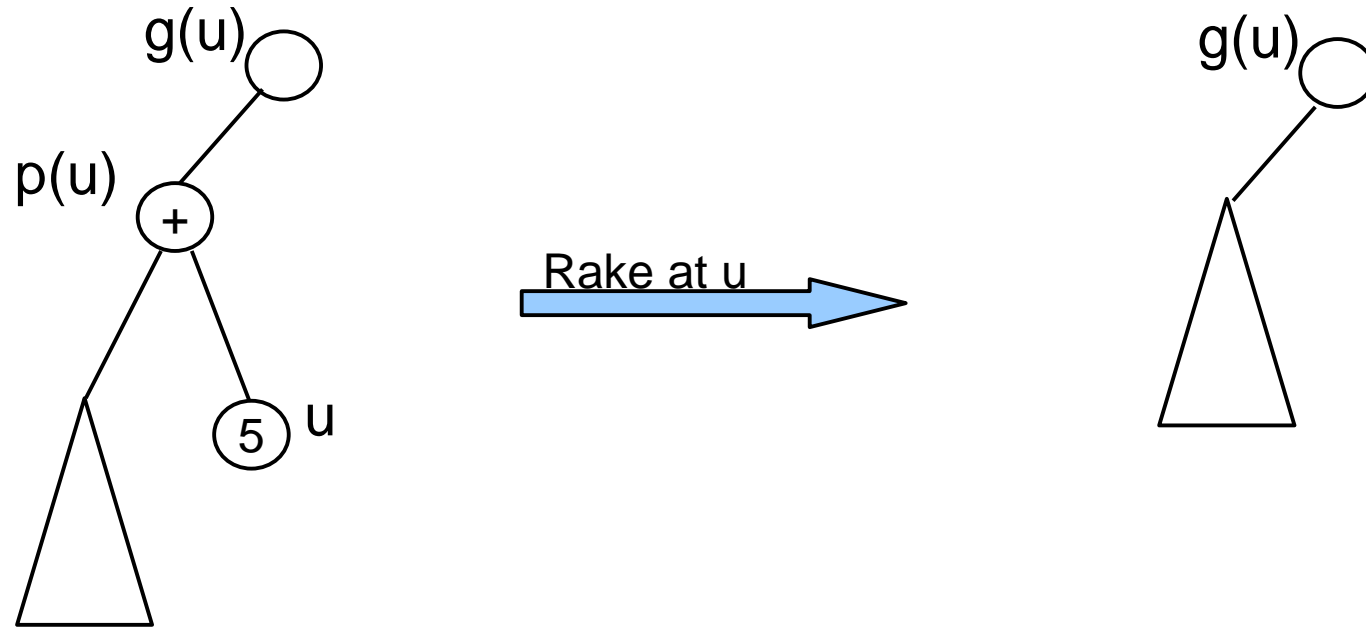
.So, we apply the Rake technique on all non-adjacent sibling nodes.

.The algorithm is as shown.

Time Analysis

- .Observation: Each application of the rake at all the leaves as given in the algorithm reduces the number of leaves by a half.
- .Each application of Rake at a leaf node is an $O(1)$ operation.
- .So the total time is $O(\log n)$.
- .The number of operations is $O(n)$.
 - Similar observations hold.

Applying Rake to Expression Evaluation



•Applying Rake means that we can process more than one leaf node at the same time.

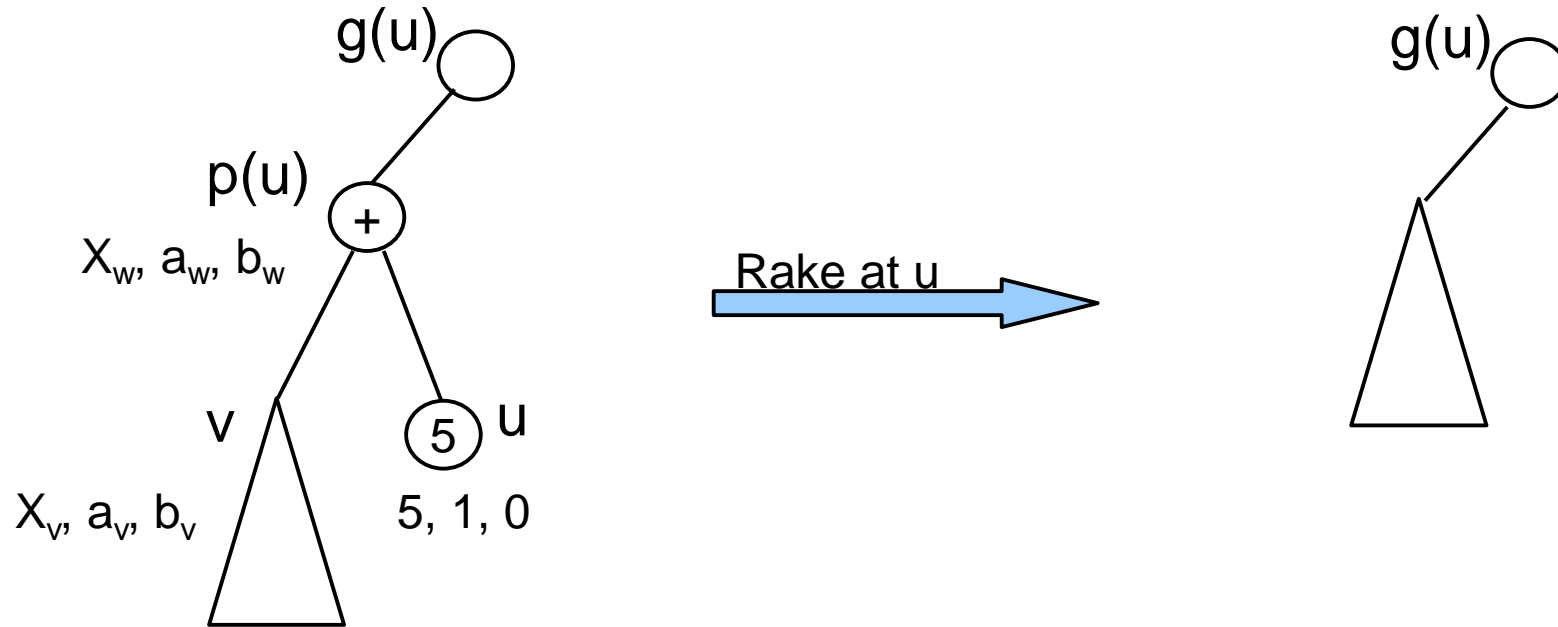
•For expression evaluation, this may mean that an internal node with only one operand evaluated, also needs to be deleted.

➤ Need to partially evaluate internal nodes.

Partial Evaluation

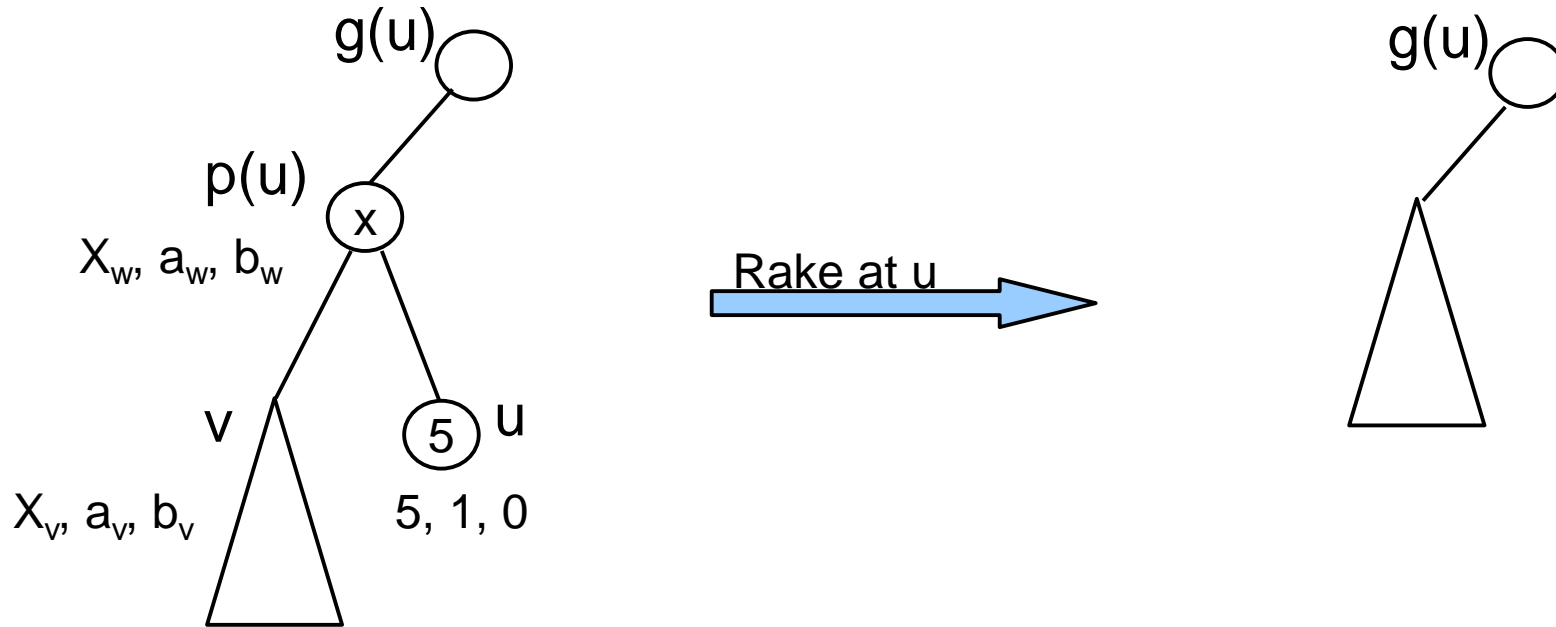
- Transfer the impact of applying the operator at $p(u)$ to the sibling of u .
- Associate with each node u labels a_u and b_u so that $R_u = a_u X_u + b_u$.
 - X_u is the result of the subexpression, possibly unknown, at node u .
- Adjust the labels a_u and b_u during any rake operation appropriately.
- Initially, at each leaf node u , X_u equals the operand, $a_u = 1$, and $b_u = 0$.

Adjusting Labels



- Prior to rake at u , contribution of $p(u)$ to $g(u)$ is $a_w X_w + b_w$.
- $X_w = (a_u X_u + b_u) + (a_v X_v + b_v) = a_v X_v + (a_u X_u + b_u + b_v)$
- Therefore, adjust a_v and b_v as $a_w a_v$ and $a_w(a_u X_u + b_u + b_v)$.

Adjusting Labels



• Prior to rake at u , contribution of $p(u)$ to $g(u)$ is $a_w X_w + b_w$.

$$\triangleright X_w = (a_u X_u + b_u) \times (a_v X_v + b_v)$$

• Therefore, adjust a_v and b_v as:

$$\triangleright a_v = a_w a_v (a_u X_u + b_u), \quad b_v = b_w + a_w b_v (a_u X_u + b_u).$$

Adjusting Labels

- .For other operators, proceed in a similar fashion.
- .HW Problem.

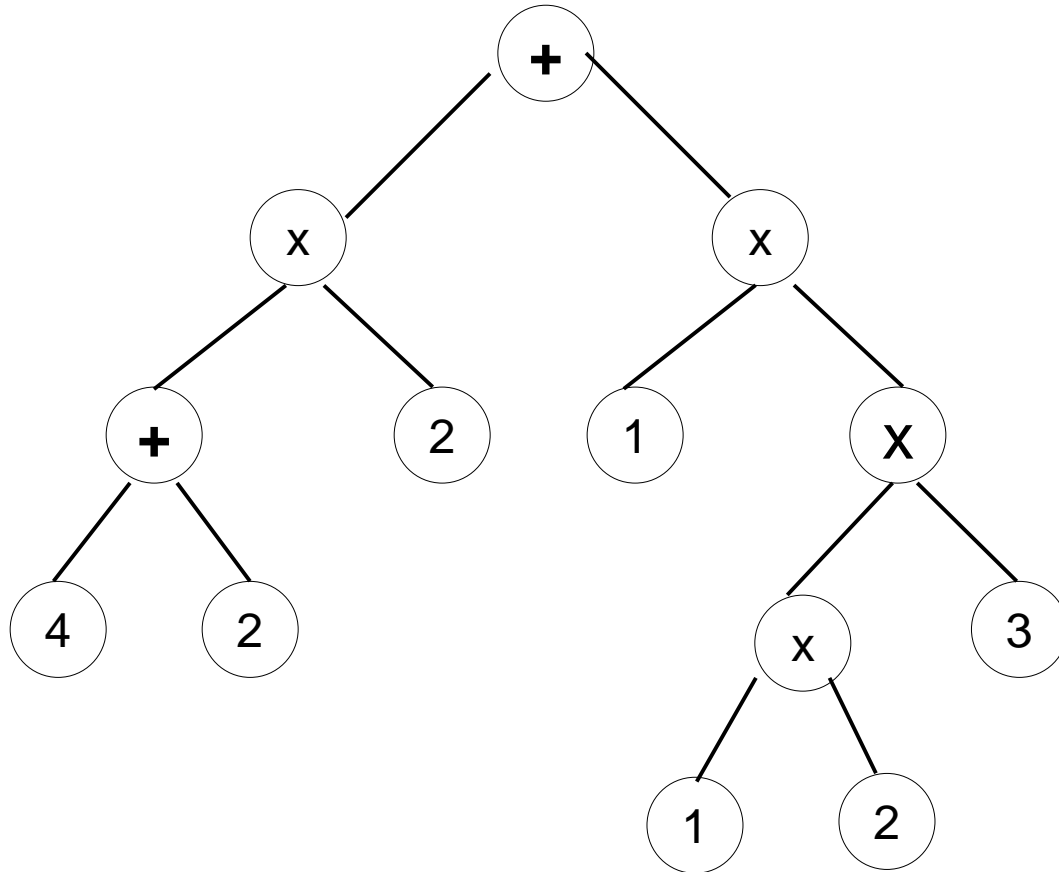
Expression Evaluation

.Parallel algorithm has the following main steps:

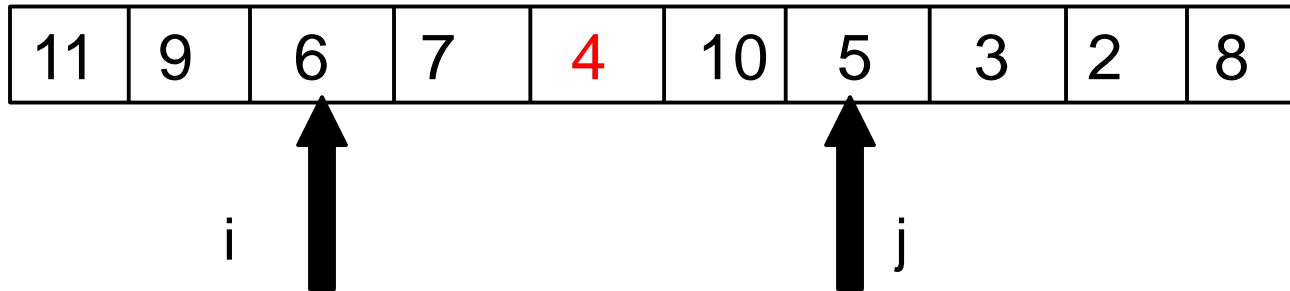
- Rake the expression tree
- Set up and adjust labels while raking
- Stop when the tree has only three nodes, one operator and two operands as children.
- Evaluate this three node tree.

.Theorem: Expression evaluation of an n -node expression tree can be done in parallel on an EREW PRAM using $O(\log n)$ time and $O(n)$ operations.

Example



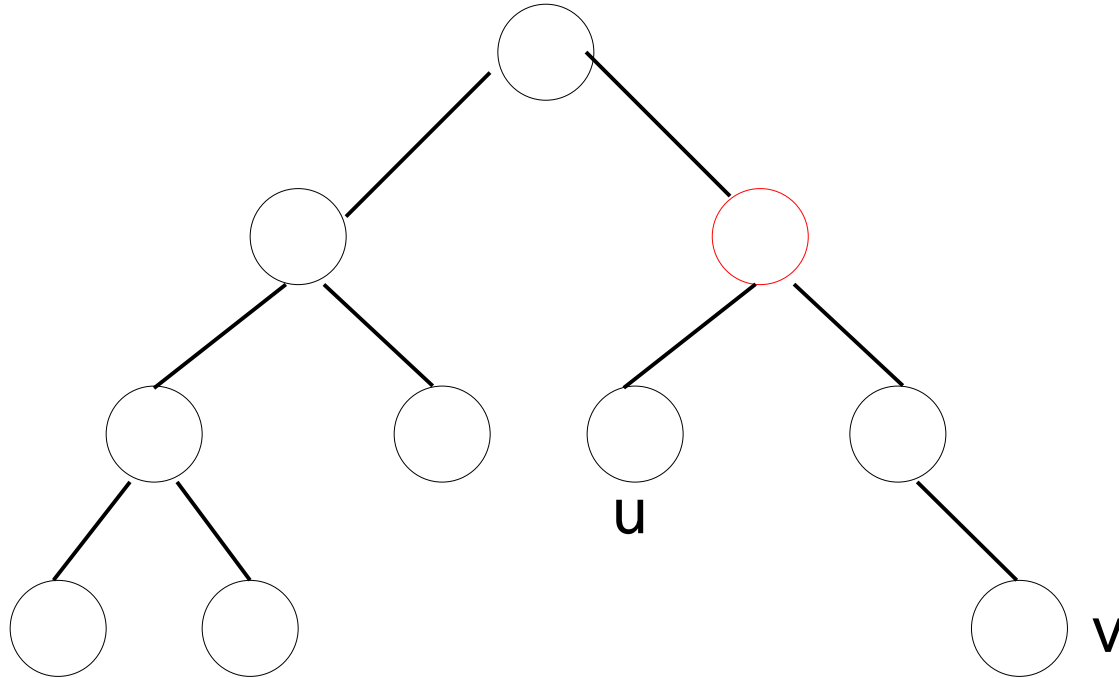
Range Minima



• Several geometric problems take the following flavor.

• Given a set of points S in a one dimensional space, preprocess S into a data structure $D(S)$ so that:

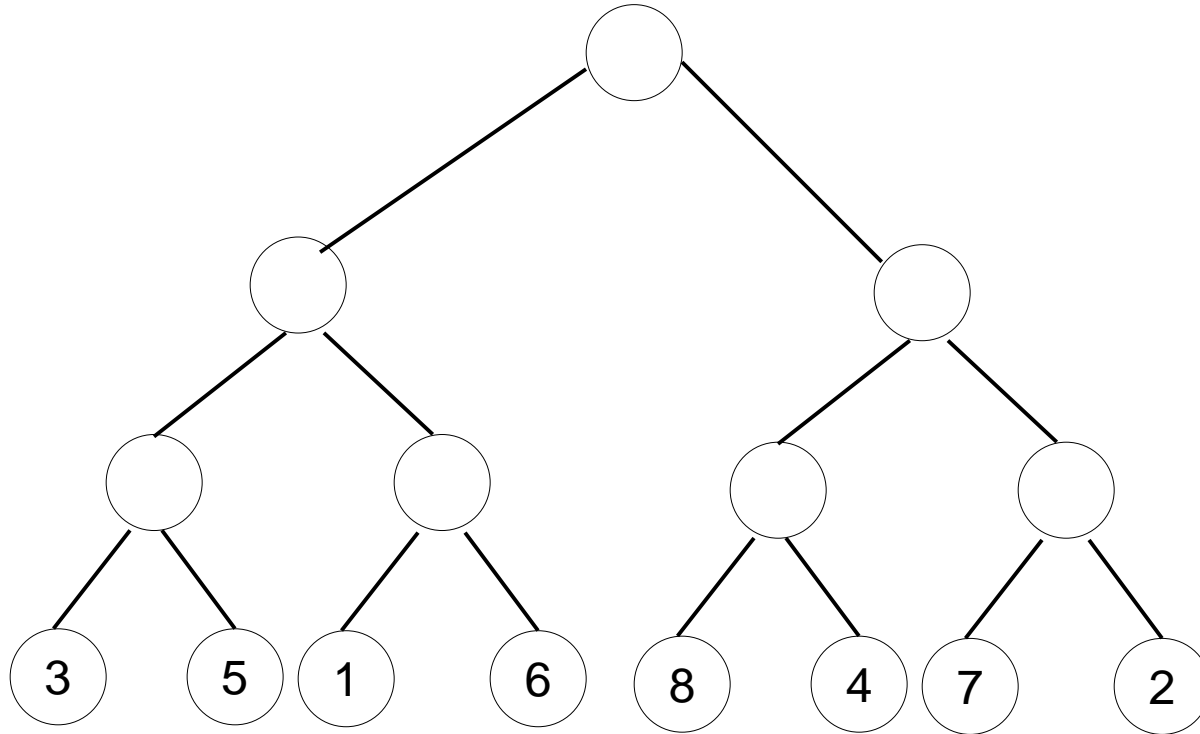
- Given a range of indices $[i, j]$, report the element of S of least value between indices i and j



- Range minima can be used to solve the problem of finding the least common ancestor of two nodes in a tree.

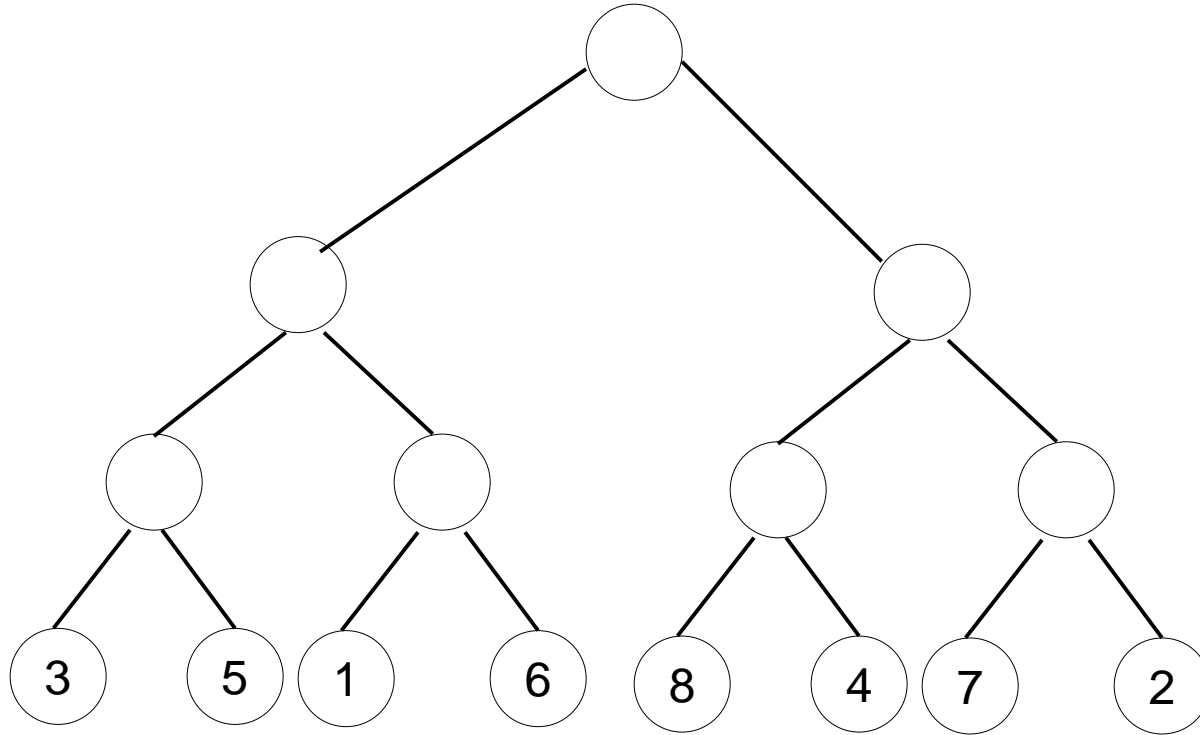
- Called as an LCA query, and is useful in several other settings.

Range Minima – Preprocessing



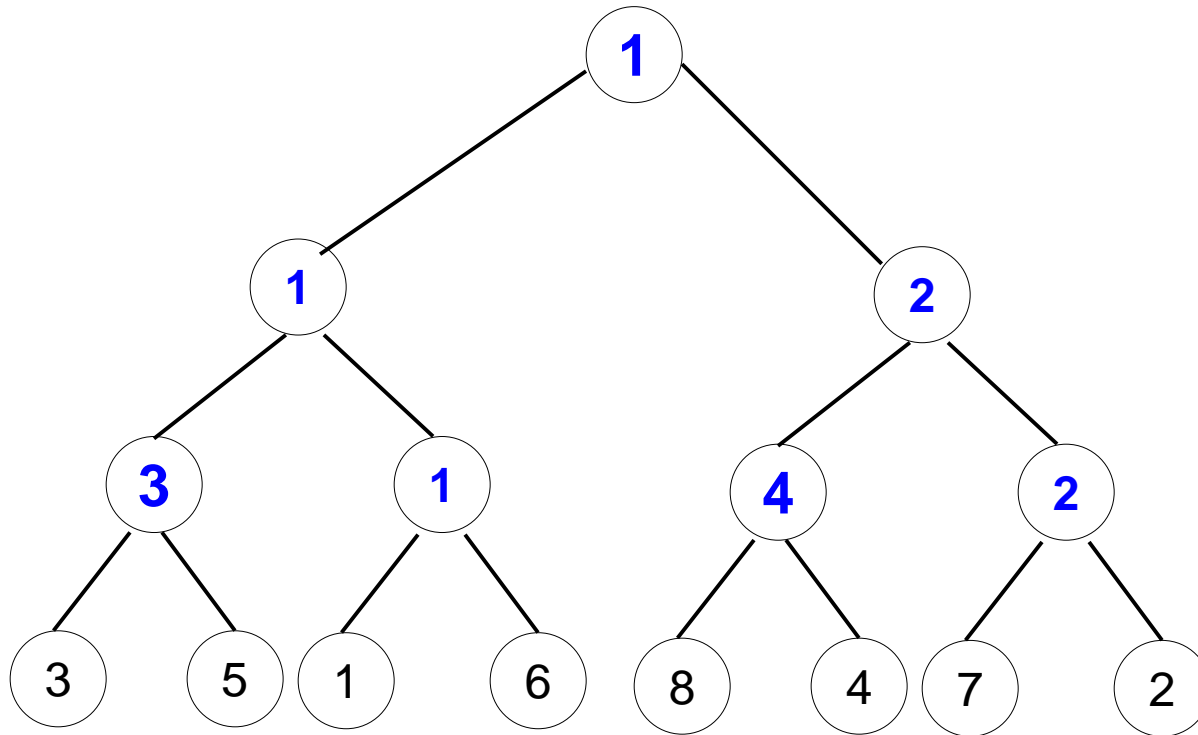
- Let n be the number of elements, and $n = 2^k$.
- Consider a full binary tree on the n elements.

Range Minima – Preprocessing



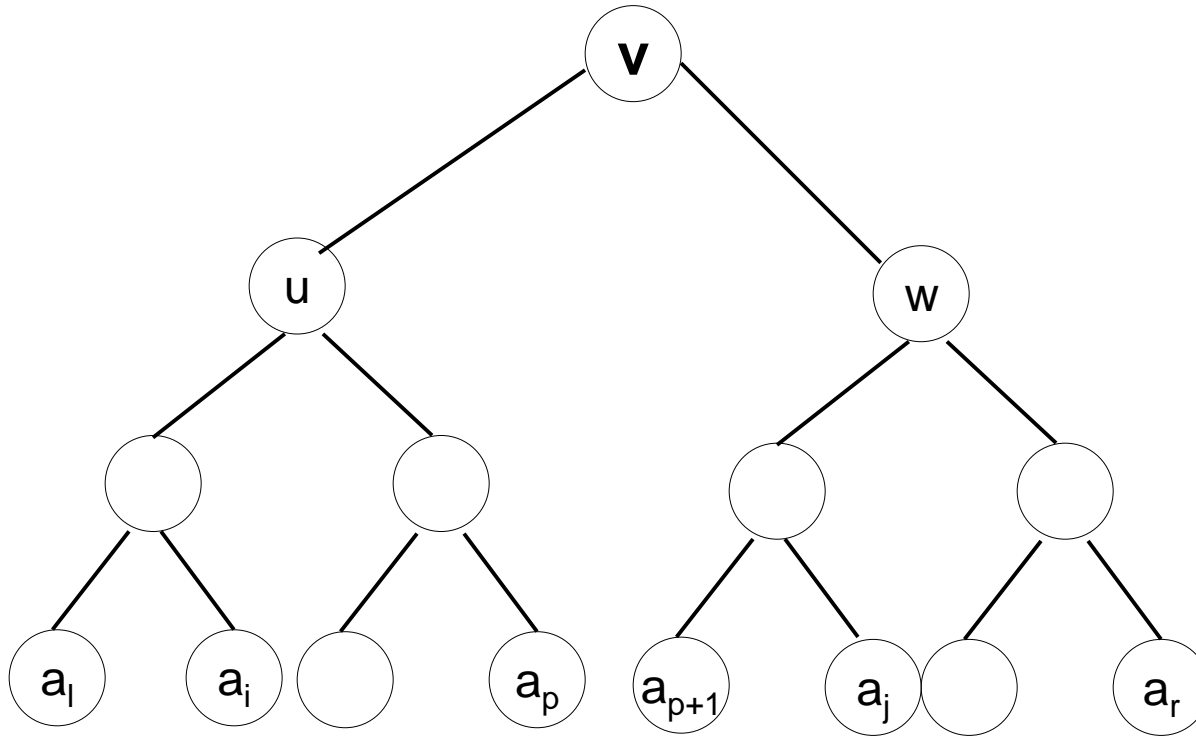
- Given two indices i and j , let v be the node in the tree that corresponds to the LCA of i and j .
 - No circular reasoning here. On a full binary tree, LCA is easy to find.

Range Minima – Preprocessing



•Does not suffice if at every internal node, we just store the minima of the elements in that subtree.

Range Minima – Preprocessing

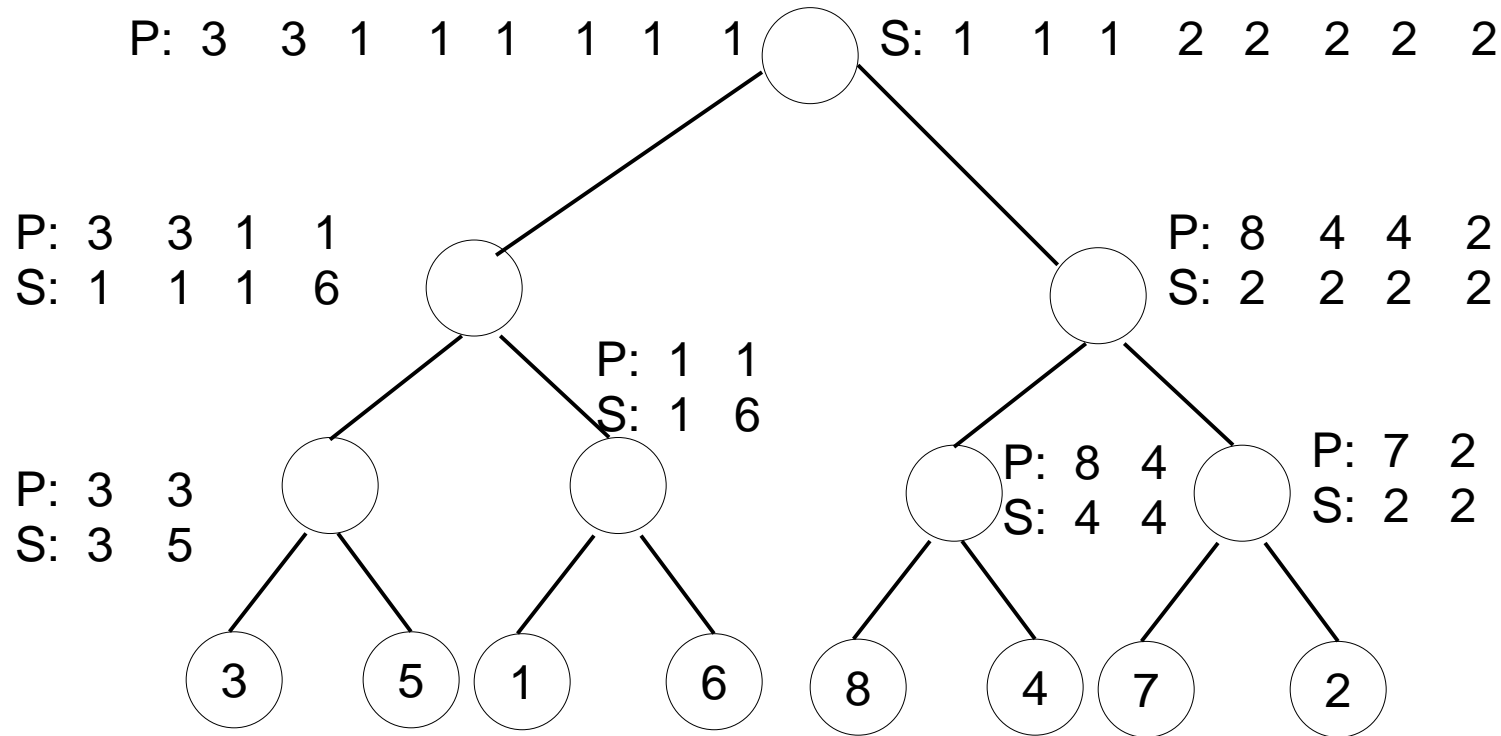


• Let u and w be the left and right child of v .

➤ Also, let $A_v = (a_l, a_{l+1}, \dots, a_i, a_{i+1}, \dots, a_j, a_{j+1}, \dots, a_r)$.

• The required minima is the minimum of $\min\{a_i, a_{i+1}, \dots, a_p\}$ and $\min\{a_{p+1}, a_{p+2}, \dots, a_j\}$.

Range Minima – Preprocessing



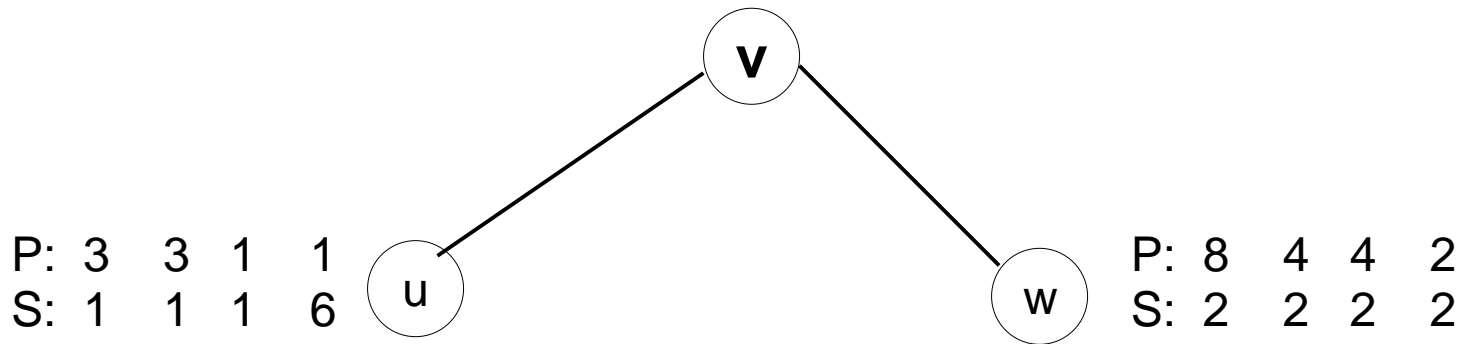
• For each node u , suppose we store the suffix and prefix minima of nodes in A_u .

• The required answer can be computed quickly.

Range Minima – Preprocessing

.For each node u , let P_u and S_u be the prefix and suffix minima arrays of elements in the subtree at node u .

Range Minima – Preprocessing



• Given a node v with children u and w , can actually compute P_v and S_v from P_u , P_w , and S_u , S_w respectively quickly.

- How?

Range Minima – Preprocessing

.Given a node v with children u and w , can actually compute P_v and S_v from P_u , P_w , and S_u , S_w respectively quickly.

- Let P_v be the concatenation of P_u and P_w .
- The P_w part of P_v may change depending on the last element in P_u .
- Similar rules apply for $S_v = S_u \circ S_w$

Range Minima – Preprocessing

.Theorem: Given n elements in an array A , the array can be preprocessed in $O(\log n)$ parallel time and $O(n \log n)$ operations so that range minima queries can be answered in $O(1)$ time.

- Requires CREW model.
 - Where do we require concurrent read?
- Can be made to use $O(n)$ operations. Use standard technique 1.
- On the CRCW model, can actually reduce the parallel time to $O(\log \log n)$ in $O(n)$ operations.

From Range Minima to LCA

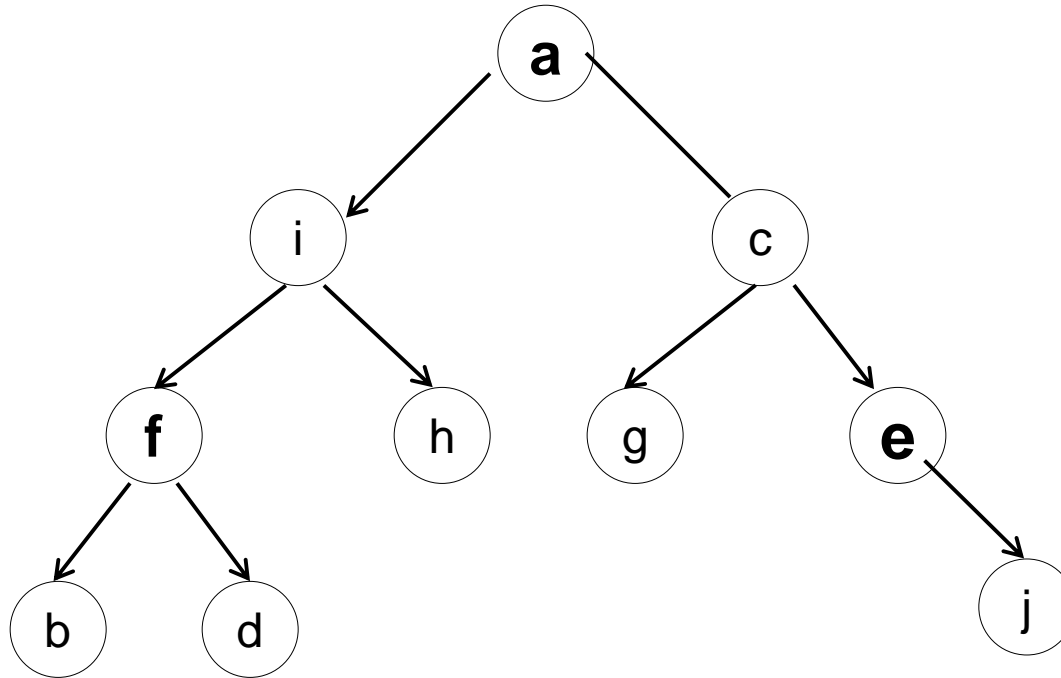
- For a tree T rooted at r , let P be its Euler path with the edge (u,v) replaced by v .
- Compute the level of every node in the tree, with root at level 0.
 - Call this as the array $\text{Level}[]$.
- Compute the leftmost and the rightmost occurrence of each node in P .
 - Call them as $L(v)$ and $R(v)$ for a node v .

From Range Minima to LCA

.Theorem: Let u and v be two vertices in T and L and R are given. Then,

- $L(u) < L(v) < R(u)$ if and only if u is an ancestor of v .
- u and v do not share an ancestor-descendant relationship iff $R(u) < L(v)$ or $R(v) < L(u)$.
- If $R(u) < L(v)$ then the vertex with the minimum **Level** in the range $[R(u), L(v)]$ is the LCA of u and v .
 - ☐ Therefore preprocess the Level array for range minima.

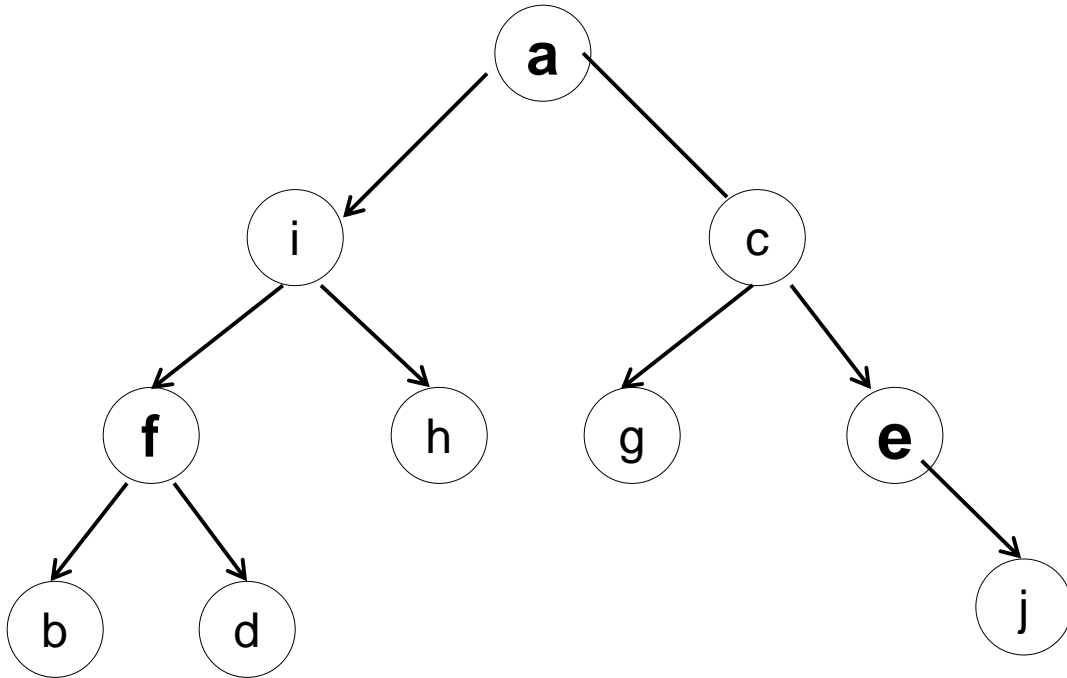
Example



$(a,i) \rightarrow (i,f) \rightarrow (f,b) \rightarrow (b,f) \rightarrow (f,d) \rightarrow (d,f) \rightarrow (f,i) \rightarrow (i,h) \rightarrow (h,i) \rightarrow (i,a) \rightarrow (a,c) \rightarrow (c,g) \rightarrow (g,c) \rightarrow (c,e) \rightarrow (e,j) \rightarrow (j,e) \rightarrow (e,c) \rightarrow (c,a)$

P: $i \rightarrow f \rightarrow b \rightarrow f \rightarrow d \rightarrow f \rightarrow i \rightarrow h \rightarrow i \rightarrow a \rightarrow c \rightarrow g \rightarrow c \rightarrow e \rightarrow j \rightarrow e \rightarrow c \rightarrow a$

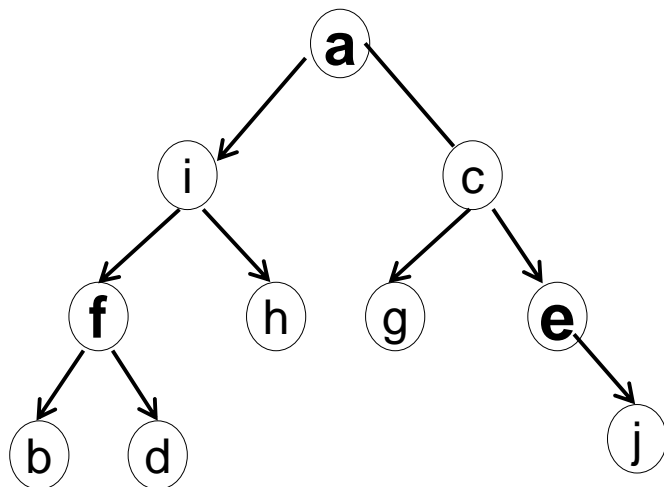
Example



P: a → i → f → b → f → d → f → i → h → i → a → c → g → c → e → j → e → c → a

Level 0 1 2 3 2 3 2 1 2 1 0 1 2 1 2 3 2 1 0

Example



LCA of nodes g and j : $R(g) = 12$, $L(j) = 15$, $RM_{12,15}(\text{Level}) = 1$, $LCA(g,j) = c$

P: a → i → f → b → f → d → f → i → h → i → a → c → g → c → e → j → e → c → a

Level 0 1 2 3 2 3 2 1 2 1 0 1 2 1 2 3 2 1 0

Graph Algorithms
