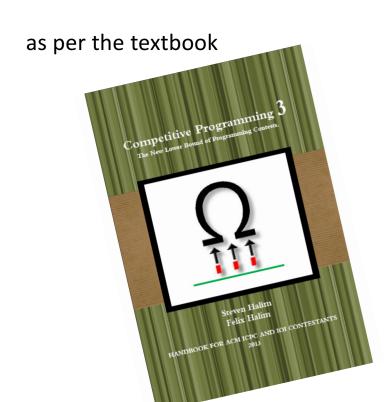


Advanced Algorithms 13341

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Course Chapters



- 1. Introduction
- Data Structures and Libraries
- 3. Problem Solving Paradigms
- 4. Graph
- 5. Mathematics
- 6. String Processing
- 7. Computational Geometry

Problem Solving Paradigms Chapter 3

Chapter Outline

Complete Search = Brute Force

- a. Iterative Complete Search
- b. Recursive Complete Search
- c. Tips

Divide and Conquer

- a. Interesting Usages of Binary Search
- 3. Greedy
 - a. Examples

4. Dynamic Programming

- a. DP Illustration
- b. Classical Examples
- c. Non-Classical Examples

Overview and Motivation

Let us focus on Divide & Conquer

- 1. Find largest & smallest element
 - $\circ \rightarrow O(n)$ Complete Search
- 2. Find kth smallest element
 - find smallest and replace with big number
 - repeat k times
 - o if k = n/2 $\rightarrow O(n \times n/2) \sim O(n^2)$
 - o better sort then choose kth $\rightarrow O(nlogn) \rightarrow$ Divide and Conquer
 - o better $O(n) \rightarrow$ also Divide and Conquer
- \square 3. Find largest gap g / x, y \subseteq A & g = |x y|
 - \circ consider every pair $\rightarrow O(n^2)$
 - largest smallest $\rightarrow O(n) \rightarrow$ Greedy
- 4. Find longest increasing subsequence
 - o try all $O(2^n)$ possible subsequences
 - o not feasible for all $n \le 10K$
 - $\circ \rightarrow O(n^2)$ DP
 - $\circ \rightarrow O(nlogn)$ Greedy

Divide & Conquer

Introduction

- Based on recursion.
- ☐ How it works?
 - Recursively break down a problem into two or more sub problems of the same type, until they become simple enough to be solved directly.
 - The solutions to the sub problems are then combined to give a solution to the original problem.

Strategy?

- ☐ The D & C strategy solves a problem by:
- 1. <u>Divide</u>: Breaking the problem into sub problems that are themselves smaller instances of the same type of problem.
- 2. Recursion: Recursively solving these sub problems.
- 3. **Conquer**: Appropriately combining their answers.

Does Divide and Conquer Always Work?

- □ NO !!
- □ For all problems it is not possible to find the subproblems which are the same size and *D* & C is not a choice for all problems.

Visualization

- \square Assume that n is the size of the original problem.
- \square Divide the problem into b sub problems with each of size n/b (for some constant b).
- □ Solve the sub problems recursively and combine their solutions to get the solution for the original problem.

Visualization

```
DivideandConquer(P){
          if(small(P))
                      // P is very small so that a solution is obvious
                      return solution(P);
          Divide P into b subproblems: P<sub>1</sub>, P<sub>2</sub>, ... P<sub>b</sub>
          return (
                      combine(
                                 DivideandConquer(P<sub>1</sub>),
                                 DivideandConquer(P<sub>2</sub>),
                                 DivideandConquer(P<sub>b</sub>)
```

Examples

■ We have already solved many problems based on D & C strategy: like Binary Search, Merge Sort, Quick Sort, etc....

- □ Looking for a name in a phone book: We have a phone book with names in alphabetical order. Given a name, how do we find whether that name is there in the phone book or not?
- ☐ Finding our car in a parking lot.
- **...**

Advantages of Divide and Conquer

□ **Solving difficult problems:** *D* & *C* is a powerful method for solving difficult problems: Tower of Hanoi problem.

□ **Parallelism:** Since *D* & *C* allows us to solve the subproblems independently.

Disadvantages of Divide and Conquer

Recursion is slow.
 Overhead of the repeated subproblem calls.
 Stack for storing the calls.

□ Sometimes more complicated than an iterative approach. Example: add *n* numbers, a simple loop to add them up in sequence is much easier than a *D* & *C* approach that breaks the set of numbers into two halves, adds them recursively, and then adds the sums.

Divide and Conquer Applications

- Binary Search
- Merge Sort and Quick Sort
- Median Finding
- Min and Max Finding
- Matrix Multiplication
- Closest Pair problem

Binary Search: The Ordinary Usage

- As the size of search space is halved (in a binary fashion) after each check, the complexity of this algorithm is *O(log n)*.
- □ There are built-in library routines for this algorithm, e.g.

```
o the C++ STL algorithm::lower_bound /
algorithm::upper_bound
```

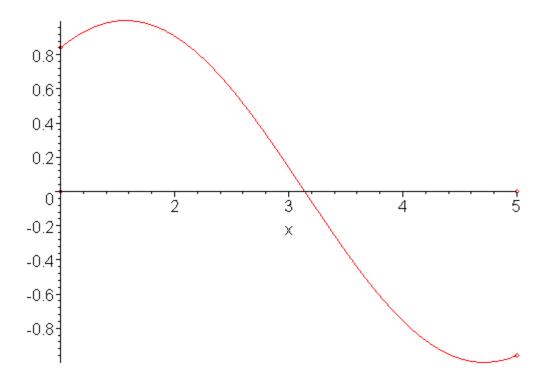
o the Java Collections.binarySearch

Binary Search: The Ordinary Usage

```
#include <iostream>
                        // std::cout
                      // std::lower bound,
#include <algorithm>
std::upper bound, std::sort
#include <vector>
                        // std::vector
int main () {
  int myints[] = \{10, 20, 30, 30, 20, 10, 10, 20\};
  std::vector<int> v(myints,myints+8);
  std::sort (v.begin(), v.end());
  std::vector<int>::iterator low,up;
  low=std::lower bound (v.begin(), v.end(), 20);
  up= std::upper bound (v.begin(), v.end(), 20);
  std::cout << "lower bound at position "</pre>
            << (low- v.begin()) << '\n';
  std::cout << "upper bound at position "</pre>
            << (up - v.begin()) << '\n';
  return 0;
              Output:
              lower_bound at position 3
              upper_bound at position 6
```

```
import java.util.List;
import java.util.ArrayList;
import java.util.Collections;
public class GFG
    public static void main(String[] args)
       List al = new ArrayList();
        al.add(10);
        al.add(20);
        al.add(1);
        al.add(2);
        al.add(3);
       Collections.sort(al);
        int index = Collections.binarySearch(al, 10);
        System.out.println(index);
        // 13 is not present. 13 would have been inserted
        // at position 4. So the function returns (-4-1)
        // which is -5.
        index = Collections.binarySearch(al, 13);
        System.out.println(index);
                                        Output:
                                        3
                                        -5
```

☐ Find the root of a function that may be difficult to compute directly.



Bisection Method - Example

- You buy a car with loan and now want to pay the loan in monthly installments of d dollars for m months.
- □ Suppose the value of the car is originally *v* dollars and the bank charges an interest rate of *i*% for any unpaid loan at the end of each month. What is the amount of money d that you must pay per month (to 2 digits after the decimal point)?

Bisection Method - Example

- □ Suppose d = 576.19, m = 2, v = 1000, and i = 10%.
 - \circ After one month, your debt becomes $1000 \times (1.1) 576.19 = 523.81$.
 - o After two months, your debt becomes $523.81 \times (1.1) 576.19 \approx 0$.

Now let's reverse the process:

□ If we are only given m = 2, v = 1000, and i = 10%, how would we determine that d = 576.19? In other words, find the root d such that the debt payment function $f(d,m,v,i) \approx 0$.

Bisection Method - Example

□ Pick a reasonable range [a..b] as starting points.

For the bisection method to work, we must ensure that the function values of the two extreme points in the initial Real range [a..b], i.e. f(a) and f(b) have opposite signs

Fix d within the range [a..b] where a = 0.01 as we have to pay at least one cent and $b = (1+i\%) \times v$ as the earliest we can complete the payment is m = 1 if we pay exactly $(1 + i\%) \times v$ dollars after one month. In this example, $b = (1+0.1) \times 1000 = 1100.00$ dollars.

a	b	$d=\frac{a+b}{2}$	Status: $f(d,m.v.i)$	action	
0.01	1100.00	550.005	Undershoot by 54.9895	↑ d	
550.005	1100.00	825.0025	Overshoot by 522.50525	↓ d	
550.005	825.0025	687.50375	Overshoot by 233.757875	5 ↓ d	
550.005	687.50375	618.754375	Overshoot by 89.384187	↓ d	
550.005	618.754375	584.379688	Overshoot by 17.197344	↓ d	
550.005	584.379688	567.192344	Undershoot by 18.896078	3 ↑ d	
567.192344	584.379688	575.786016	Undershoot by 0.849366	↑ d	
•••	•••	Aft	er few iterations	•••	
•••		576.190476 stop;	error is now less than ε as	nswer = 576.19	

^{(1.1)*1000 - 550.005 = 549.995} (1.1)*549.995 - 550.005 = 54.9895

- \square It requires $O\left(log_2\left(\frac{b-a}{\varepsilon}\right)\right)$ iterations to get an answer
- lacksquare In this example, bisection method only takes $log_2\left(rac{1099.99}{arepsilon}
 ight)$ tries.
 - Using a small = 1e-9, this yields only \approx 40 iterations.
 - Even if we use a smaller = 1e-15, we will still only need ≈ 60 tries.
 - Notice that the number of tries is small.
 - The bisection method is much more efficient compared to exhaustively evaluating each possible value of $d = [0.01..1100.00]/\varepsilon$.
- □ Note: The bisection method can be written with a loop that tries the values of $d \approx 40$ to 60 times using 'binary search' technique.

Segment Tree Range Minimum Query (RMQ) problem

Segment Tree Range Minimum Query (RMQ) problem

- □ Data structure which can efficiently answer *dynamic* range queries.
- □ One such range query is the problem of finding the index of the minimum element in an array within range [i...j].
- ☐ This is more commonly known as the Range Minimum Query (RMQ) problem.

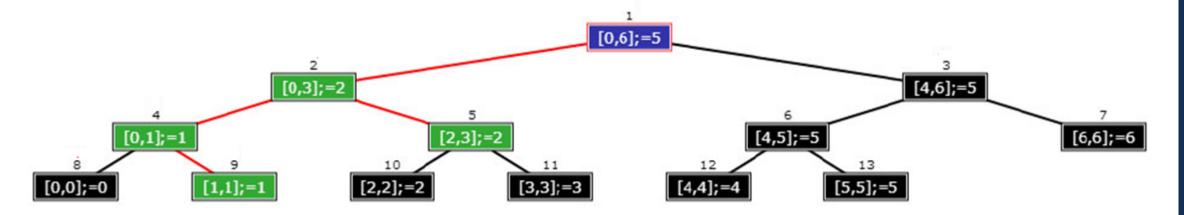
Example

Array	Values	18	17	13	19	15	11	20
A	Indices	0	1	2	3	4	5	6

- \square Given an array A of size n = 7,
- \square RMQ(1, 3) = 2, as the index 2 contains the minimum element among A[1], A[2], and A[3].
- \square RMQ(3, 4) = 4, RMQ(0, 0) = 0, RMQ(0, 1) = 1, and RMQ(0, 6) = 5.

□ There are several ways to implement the RMQ. One trivial algorithm is to simply iterate the array from index i to j and report the index with the minimum value, but this will run in O(n) time per query. When n is large and there are many queries, such an algorithm may be infeasible.

- Segment tree like binary heap using static implementation.
 - We call the array st.
 - o Index 1 (skipping index 0) is the root and the left and right children of index p are index $2 \times p$ and $(2 \times p) + 1$ respectively.
 - \circ The value of st[p] is the RMQ value of the segment associated with index p.



- □ The root of segment tree represents segment [0, n-1].
- □ For each segment [L, R] stored in index p where L != R, the segment will be split into [L, (L+R)/2] and [(L+R)/2+1, R] in a left and right vertices.
- □ The left sub-segment and right sub-segment will be stored in index 2×p and (2×p)+1 respectively.
- □ When L = R, it is clear that st[p] = L (or R). Otherwise, we will recursively build the segment tree, comparing the minimum value of the left and the right sub-segments and updating the st[p] of the segment.

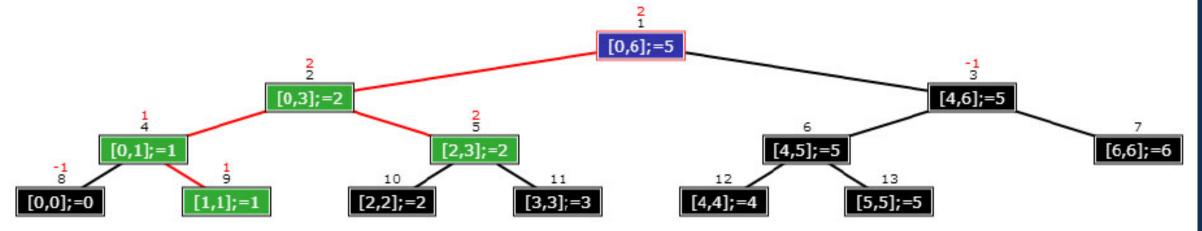
```
typedef vector<int> vi;
class SegmentTree {
   private: vi st, A;
   vector<int> vi;
   int n;
   int left (int p) { return p << 1; }
   int right(int p) { return (p << 1) + 1; }
   void build(int p, int L, int R) {
      if (L == R) st[p] = L;
      else {
         build(left(p) , L, (L + R) / 2);
         build(right(p), (L + R) / 2 + 1, R);
         int p1 = st[left(p)], p2 = st[right(p)];
         st[p] = (A[p1] <= A[p2]) ? p1 : p2;
    }
   }
}</pre>
```

```
class SegmentTree {
   private int[] st, A;
   private int n;
   private int left (int p) { return p << 1; }
   private int right(int p) { return (p << 1) + 1; }

   private void build(int p, int L, int R) {
     if (L == R) st[p] = L;
     else {
        build(left(p) , L, (L + R) / 2);
        build(right(p), (L + R) / 2 + 1, R);
        int p1 = st[left(p)], p2 = st[right(p)];
        st[p] = (A[p1] <= A[p2]) ? p1 : p2;
     }
}</pre>
```

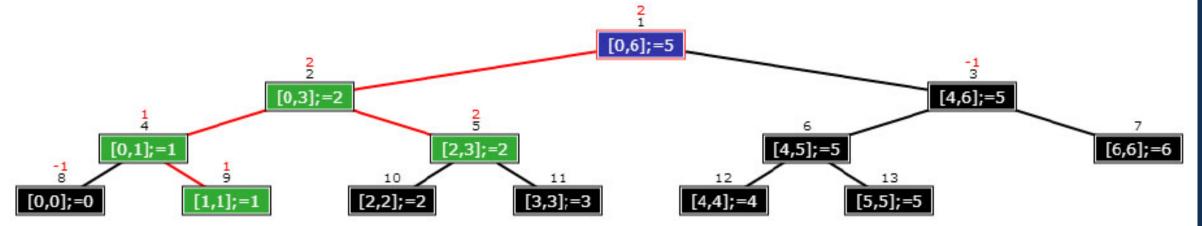
- \square With the segment tree ready, answering an RMQ can be done in $O(\log n)$.
- □ The answer for RMQ(i, i) is trivial—simply return i itself.
- □ However, for the general case RMQ(i, j), further checks are needed.

```
Let p1=RMQ(i,(i+j)/2) and p2=RMQ((i+j)/2+1, j). Then RMQ(i,j) is p1 if A[p1] \leq A[p2] or p2 otherwise.
```



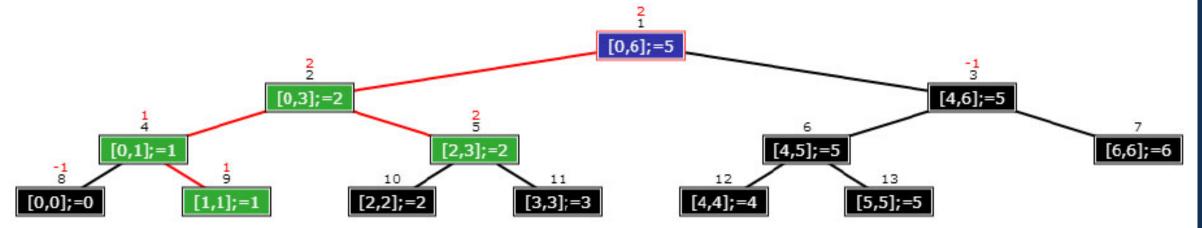
□ RMQ(1, 3):

- Start from the root (index 1) which represents segment [0, 6]. We cannot use the stored minimum value of segment [0, 6].
- From the root, we only have to go to the left subtree as the root of the right subtree represents segment [4, 6] which is outside the desired range in RMQ(1, 3).



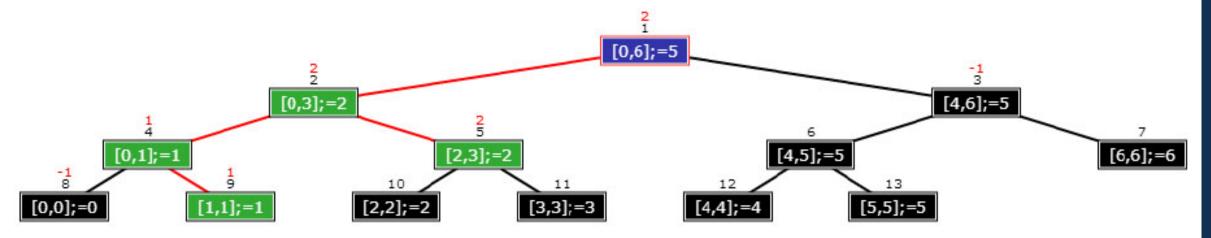
□ RMQ(1, 3):

- We are now at the root of the left subtree (index 2) that represents segment [0, 3]. This segment [0, 3] is still larger than the desired RMQ(1, 3).
- RMQ(1, 3) intersects both the left sub-segment [0, 1] (index 4) and the right sub-segment [2, 3] (index 5) of segment [0, 3], so we have to explore both subtrees (sub-segments).



□ RMQ(1, 3):

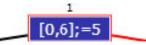
- The left segment [0, 1] (index 4) of [0, 3] (index 2) is not yet inside the RMQ(1, 3). From segment [0, 1] (index 4), we move right to segment [1, 1] (index 9), which is now inside [1, 3].
- At this point, we know that RMQ(1, 1) = st[9] = 1 and we can return this value to the caller. The right segment [2, 3] (index 5) of [0, 3] (index 2) is inside the required [1, 3]. From the stored value inside this vertex, we know that RMQ(2, 3) = st[5] = 2. We do not need to traverse further down.



□ RMQ(1, 3):

o Now, back in the call to segment [0, 3] (index 2), we now have p1 = RMQ(1, 1) = 1 and p2 = RMQ(2, 3) = 2. Because A[p1] > A[p2] since A[1] = 17 and A[2] = 13, we now have RMQ(1, 3) = p2 = 2. This is the final answer.

■ Build the segment tree of Array A = {18, 17, 13, 19, 15, 11, 20} and RMQ(4, 6)



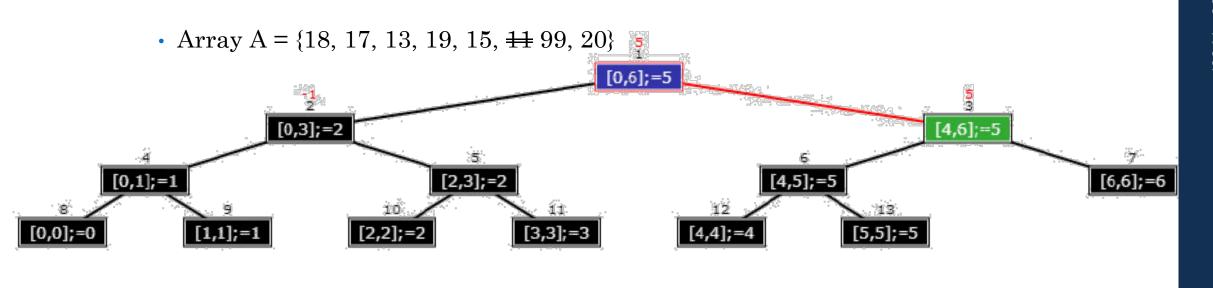
```
int rmq(int p, int L, int R, int i, int j) {
    if (i > R || j < L) return -1;
        // current segment outside query range
    if (L >= i && R <= j) return st[p];
        // inside query range

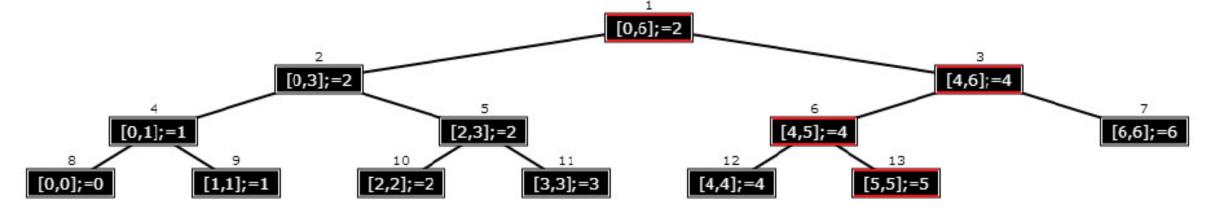
// compute the min position in the left and right
    int p1 = rmq(left(p) , L, (L+R) / 2, i, j);
    int p2 = rmq(right(p), (L+R) / 2 + 1, R, i, j);
    if (p1 == -1) return p2;
        // if we try to access segment outside query
    if (p2 == -1) return p1;
        // same as above
    return (A[p1] <= A[p2]) ? p1 : p2;
}</pre>
```

Usage

□ If the array A is static (i.e. unchanged after it is instantiated), then using a Segment Tree to solve the RMQ problem is OVERKILL as there exists a Dynamic Programming (DP) solution that requires O(n log n) one-time pre-processing and allows for O(1) per RMQ.

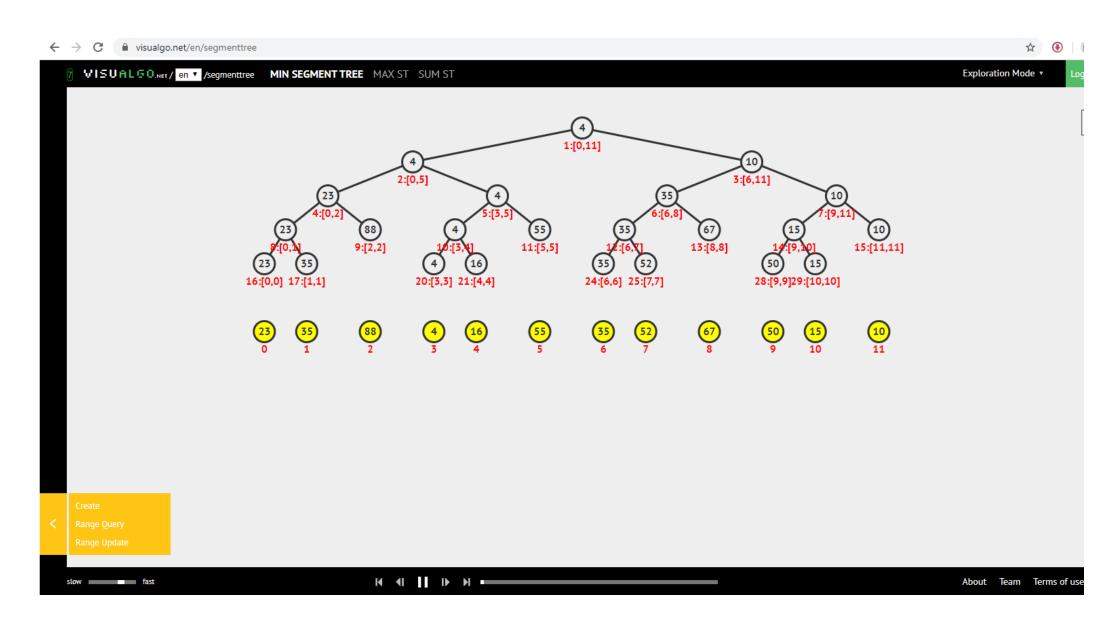
□ Segment Tree is useful if the underlying array is frequently updated (dynamic).





- \square We just need to update the vertices along the leaf to root path in $O(\log n)$.
- □ For comparison, the DP solution requires another O(n log n) preprocessing to update the structure and is ineffective for such dynamic updates.

https://visualgo.net/en/segmenttree



- □ The Fenwick Tree is a useful data structure for implementing dynamic cumulative frequency tables.
- Example
 - we have test scores of m = 11 students $f = \{2,4,5,5,6,6,6,7,7,8,9\}$ integer values ranging from [1..10].

In the following:

- \circ The frequency of each individual test score \in [1..10]
- The cumulative frequency of test scores ranging from [1..i] denoted by cf[i]—that is, the sum of the frequencies of test scores 1, 2, ..., i.

□ {2,4,5,5,6,6,6,7,7,8,9}

Index/	Frequency	Cumulative	Short Comment
Score	f	Frequency cf	
0	-	-	Index 0 is ignored (as the sentinel value).
1	0	0	cf[1] = f[1] = 0.
2	1	1	cf[2] = f[1] + f[2] = 0 + 1 = 1.
3	0	1	cf[3] = f[1] + f[2] + f[3] = 0 + 1 + 0 = 1.
4	1	2	cf[4] = cf[3] + f[4] = 1 + 1 = 2.
5	2	4	cf[5] = cf[4] + f[5] = 2 + 2 = 4.
6	3	7	cf[6] = cf[5] + f[6] = 4 + 3 = 7.
7	2	9	cf[7] = cf[6] + f[7] = 7 + 2 = 9.
8	1	10	cf[8] = cf[7] + f[8] = 9 + 1 = 10.
9	1	11	cf[9] = cf[8] + f[9] = 10 + 1 = 11.
10	0	11	cf[10] = cf[9] + f[10] = 11 + 0 = 11.

- The cumulative frequency table can also be used as a solution to the Range Sum Query (RSQ) problem. It stores RSQ(1, i) ∀ i ∈ [1..n] where n is the largest integer index/score.
 - In the example, we have n = 10,
 RSQ(1, 1)= 0, RSQ(1, 2) = 1, . . . ,
 RSQ(1, 6) = 7, . . . , RSQ(1, 8) = 10, . . .
 . , and RSQ(1, 10) = 11.
 - when i ≠ 1,
 RSQ(i, j) = RSQ(1, j) RSQ(1, i 1).
 Example:
 RSQ(4, 6) = RSQ(1, 6) RSQ(1, 3) = 7
 1 = 6.

Indox/	Erocuoneu	Cumulative
	Frequency	Cumulative
Score	f	Frequency cf
0	-	-
1	0	0
2	1	1
3	0	1
4	1	2
5	2	4
6	3	7
7	2	9
8	1	10
9	1	11
10	0	11

☐ Fenwick Tree operations are also extremely efficient as they use fast bit manipulation techniques.

- □ We will use the function LSOne(i) (which is actually (i & (-i))).
- □ The operation (i & (-i)) produces the first Least Significant One-bit in i.

LSOne(i)

□ To get the value of the least significant bit that is on (first from the right), use T = (i & (-i)).

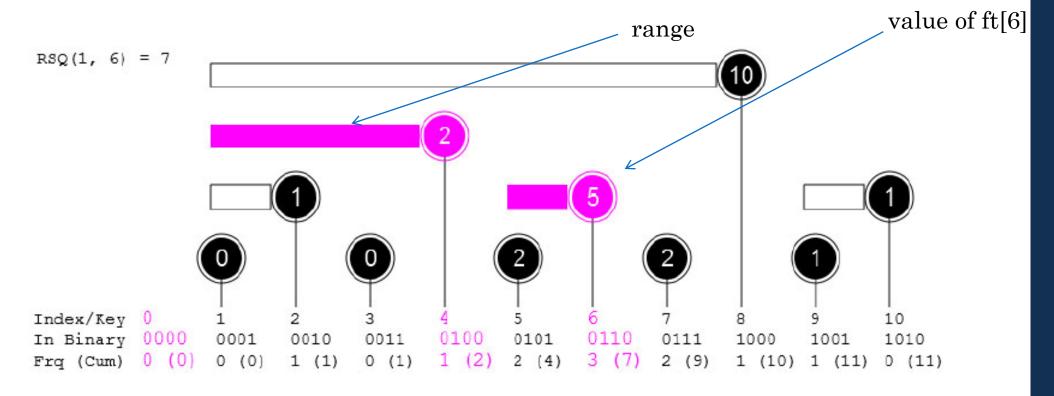
Example

```
    i = 40 (base 10) = 000...000101000 (32 bits, base 2)
    -i = -40 (base 10) = 111...111011000 (two's complement)
    T = 8 (base 10) = 000...000001000 (3rd bit from right is on)
```

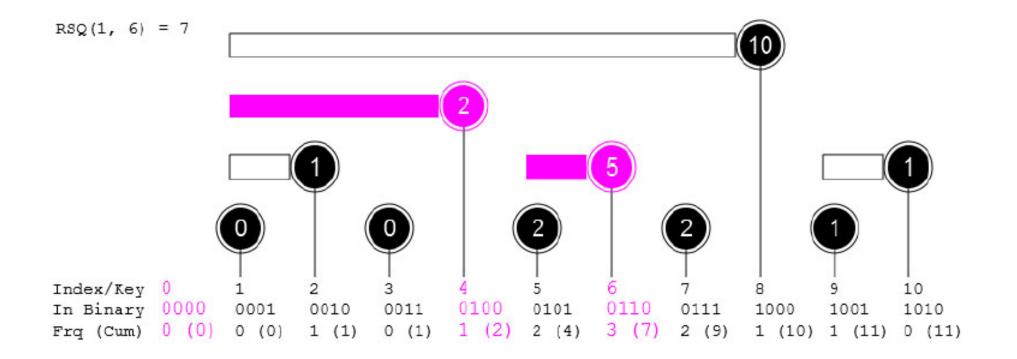
- ☐ The Fenwick Tree is typically implemented as an array (vector).
- □ The Fenwick Tree is a tree that is indexed by the *bits of its integer keys*.
- □ These integer keys fall within the fixed range [1..n]—skipping index 0.

□ In the previous table, the scores [1..10] are the integer keys in the corresponding array with size n = 10 and m = 11 data points.

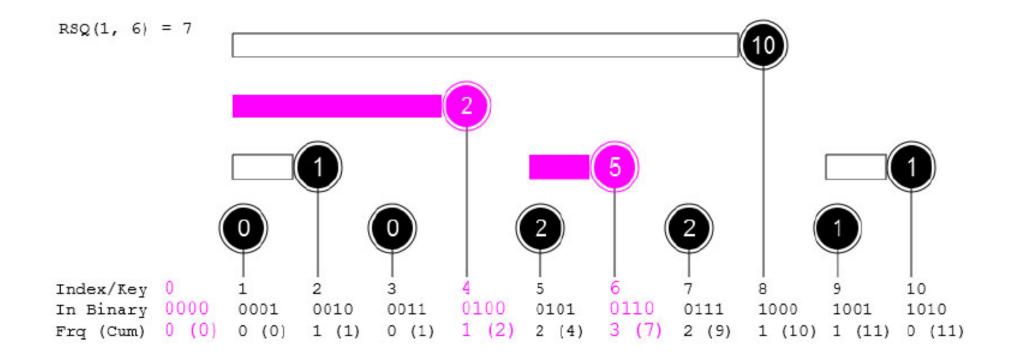
- Let the name of the Fenwick Tree array be ft:
 - \circ element at index *i* is responsible for elements in the range [i-LSOne(i)+1..i]
 - oft[i] stores the cf of $\{i-LSOne(i)+1,i-LSOne(i)+2,i-LSOne(i)+3,...,i\}$



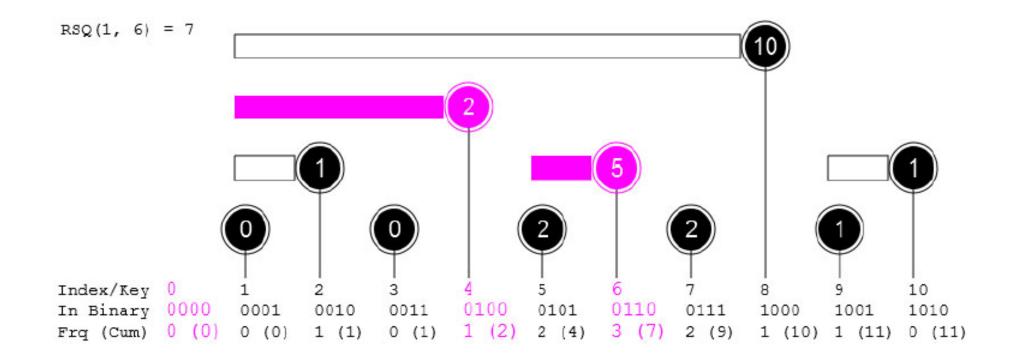
□ ft[4] = 2 is responsible for range [4-4+1..4] = [1..4] ft[6] = 5 is responsible for range [6-2+1..6] = [5..6] ft[7] = 2 is responsible for range [7-1+1..7] = [7..7] ft[8] = 10 is responsible for range [8-8+1..8] = [1..8]



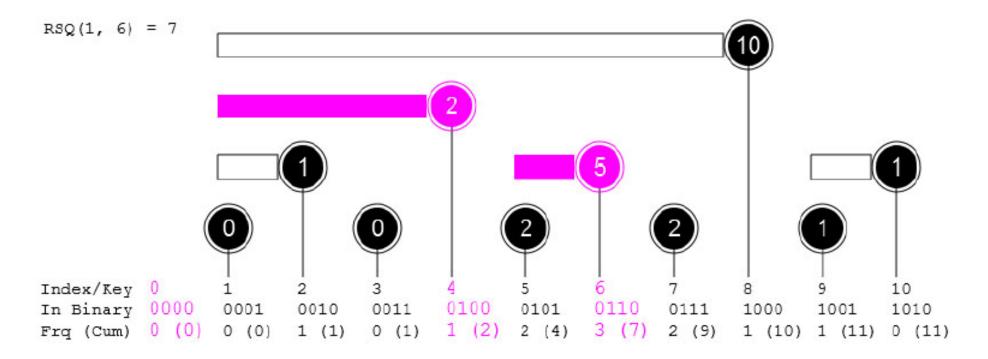
- □ To obtain the cf between [1..b], i.e. rsq(b), we simply add ft[b], ft[b'], ft[b''], . . . until index bⁱ is 0.
 - This sequence of indices is obtained via subtracting the Least Significant One-bit via the bit manipulation expression: b' = b - LSOne(b).



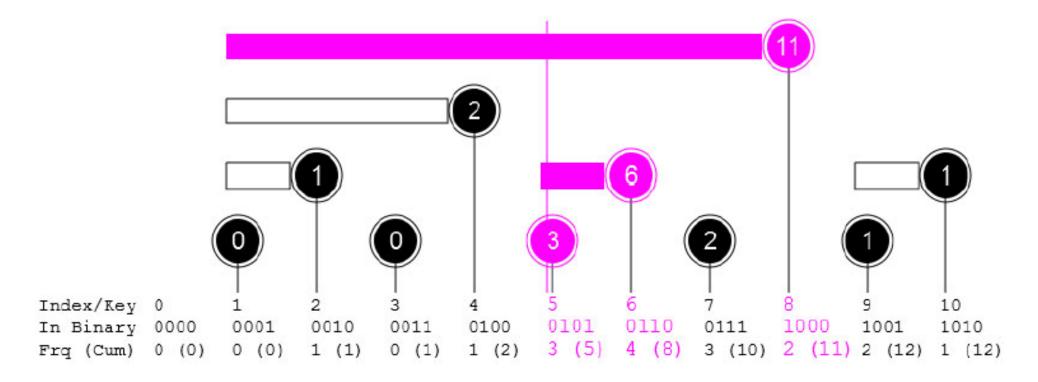
- Arr rsq(6) = ft[6] + ft[4] = 5 + 2 = 7. Notice that indices 4 and 6 are responsible for range [1..4] and [5..6], respectively.
 - The indices 6, 4, and 0 are related in their binary form: $b = 6_{10} = (110)_2$ can be transformed to $b' = 4_{10} = (100)_2$ and subsequently to $b'' = 0_{10} = (000)_2$.



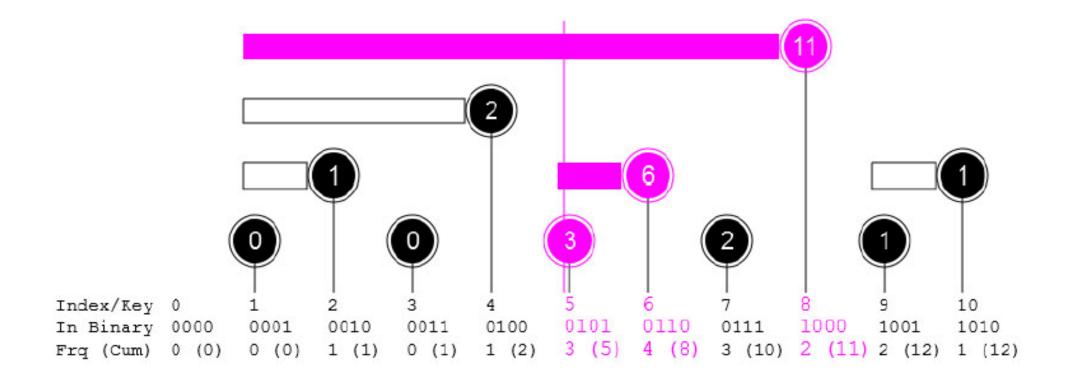
- \Box cf between [a..b] where a != 1 is simple, evaluate rsq(a, b) = rsq(b) rsq(a 1).
- Arr rsq(4, 6), we can simply return rsq(6) rsq(3) = (5+2) (0+1) = 7 1 = 6.



■ When updating the value of the element at index k by adjusting its value by v (note that v can be either positive or negative), i.e. calling adjust(k, v), we have to update ft[k], ft[k'], ft[k''], . . . until index kⁱ exceeds n. k' = k + LSOne(k).



□ adjust(5, 1) will affect (add +1 to) ft[k] at indices $k = 5_{10} = (101)_2$, $k' = (101)_2 + (001)_2 = (110)_2 = 6_{10}$, and $k'' = (110)_2 + (010)_2 = (1000)_2 = 8_{10}$ via the expression given above.



```
class FenwickTree {
 private Vector<Integer> ft;
 private int LSOne(int S) { return (S & (-S)); }
 public FenwickTree() {}
 // initialization: n + 1 zeroes, ignore index 0
 public FenwickTree(int n) {
   ft = new Vector<Integer>();
   for (int i = 0; i <= n; i++) ft.add(0);
 public int rsq(int b) {
                                                  // returns RSQ(1, b)
   int sum = 0; for (; b > 0; b \rightarrow LSOne(b)) sum += ft.get(b);
   return sum; }
 public int rsq(int a, int b) {
                                                  // returns RSQ(a, b)
   return rsq(b) - (a == 1 ? 0 : rsq(a - 1)); }
 // adjusts value of the k-th element by v (v can be +ve/inc or -ve/dec)
 for (; k < (int)ft.size(); k += LSOne(k)) ft.set(k, ft.get(k) + v); }</pre>
};
```

https://visualgo.net/en/fenwicktree

