### WS 2022/23

## **Efficient Algorithms**

Harald Räcke

Fakultät für Informatik TU München

https://www.moodle.tum.de/course/view.php?id=80009

Winter Term 2022/23

# **Organizational Matters**



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## **Organizational Matters**

Modul: IN2003

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- Modul: IN2003
- Name: "Efficient Algorithms and Data Structures" "Effiziente Algorithmen und Datenstrukturen"

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- ECTS: 8 Credit points

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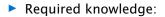
- Modul: IN2003
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- Lectures:
  - 4 SWS

Mon 10:00-12:00 (Room Interim2) Fri 10:00-12:00 (Room Interim2)

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IN0001, IN0003
 "Introduction to Informatics 1/2"
 "Einführung in die Informatik 1/2"



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"Grundlagen: Algorithmen und Datenstrukturen" (GAD)



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#### "Discrete Structures"

"Diskrete Strukturen" (DS)

IN0018

#### "Discrete Probability Theory"

"Diskrete Wahrscheinlichkeitstheorie" (DWT)



### **The Lecturer**

- Harald Räcke
- Email: raecke@in.tum.de
- Room: 03.09.044
- Office hours: (by appointment)



### **Tutorials**

- Omar AbdelWanis
- omar.abdelwanis@in.tum.de
- Room: 03.09.042
- Office hours: (by appointment)



### **Tutorials**

#### One centralized tutorial session.

Wednesday, 14:00-16:00

https://tum-conf.zoom.us/j/63875503821

Meeting ID: 638 7550 3821

Passcode: 719434



- Machine models
- Efficiency measures
- Asymptotic notation
- Recursion



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- Higher Data Structures
  - Search trees
  - Hashing
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- Matchings



## 2 Literatur

- Alfred V. Aho, John E. Hopcroft, Jeffrey D. Ullman: *The design and analysis of computer algorithms*, Addison-Wesley Publishing Company: Reading (MA), 1974
- Thomas H. Cormen, Charles E. Leiserson, Ron L. Rivest, Clifford Stein:

Introduction to algorithms,

McGraw-Hill, 1990

Michael T. Goodrich, Roberto Tamassia: *Algorithm design: Foundations, analysis, and internet examples,* John Wiley & Sons, 2002



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Ronald L. Graham, Donald E. Knuth, Oren Patashnik: *Concrete Mathematics*,

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Volker Heun:

Grundlegende Algorithmen: Einführung in den Entwurf und die Analyse effizienter Algorithmen,

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- Jon Kleinberg, Eva Tardos:
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Donald E. Knuth:

*The art of computer programming. Vol. 1: Fundamental Algorithms,* 

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- Christos H. Papadimitriou, Kenneth Steiglitz: Combinatorial Optimization: Algorithms and Complexity, Prentice Hall, 1982
- Uwe Schöning:

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Spektrum Akademischer Verlag, 2001

Steven S. Skiena:

The Algorithm Design Manual,

Springer, 1998



## **Foundations**



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## 3 Goals

Gain knowledge about efficient algorithms for important problems, i.e., learn how to solve certain types of problems efficiently.



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- Learn how to analyze and judge the efficiency of algorithms.
- Learn how to design efficient algorithms.



#### What do you measure?

Memory requirement



- Memory requirement
- Running time



- Memory requirement
- Running time
- Number of comparisons



- Memory requirement
- Running time
- Number of comparisons
- Number of multiplications



- Memory requirement
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How do you measure?



4 Modelling Issues

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#### How do you measure?

- Implementing and testing on representative inputs
  - How do you choose your inputs?
  - May be very time-consuming.
  - Very reliable results if done correctly.
  - Results only hold for a specific machine and for a specific set of inputs.



#### How do you measure?

- Implementing and testing on representative inputs
  - How do you choose your inputs?
  - May be very time-consuming.
  - Very reliable results if done correctly.
  - Results only hold for a specific machine and for a specific set of inputs.
- Theoretical analysis in a specific model of computation.
  - Gives asymptotic bounds like "this algorithm always runs in time  $\mathcal{O}(n^2)$ ".
  - Typically focuses on the worst case.
  - Can give lower bounds like "any comparison-based sorting algorithm needs at least Ω(n log n) comparisons in the worst case".



#### Input length

The theoretical bounds are usually given by a function  $f : \mathbb{N} \to \mathbb{N}$  that maps the input length to the running time (or storage space, comparisons, multiplications, program size etc.).



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The input length may e.g. be

- the size of the input (number of bits)
- the number of arguments

#### Example 1

Suppose *n* numbers from the interval  $\{1, ..., N\}$  have to be sorted. In this case we usually say that the input length is *n* instead of e.g.  $n \log N$ , which would be the number of bits required to encode the input.



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 Calculate running time and storage space etc. on a simplified, idealized model of computation, e.g. Random Access Machine (RAM), Turing Machine (TM), ...



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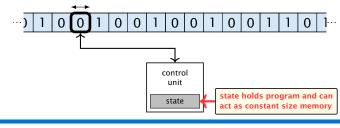
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Version 2. is often easier, but focusing on one type of operation makes it more difficult to obtain meaningful results.



Very simple model of computation.

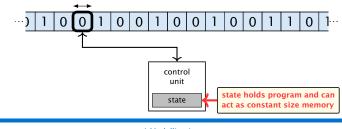




4 Modelling Issues

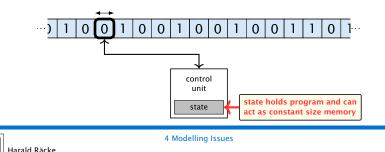
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- Only the "current" memory location can be altered.

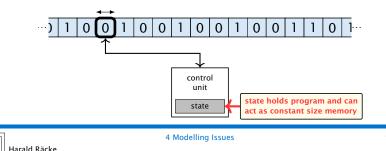




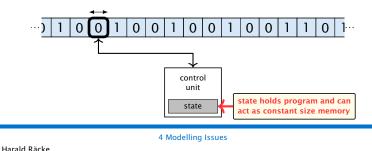
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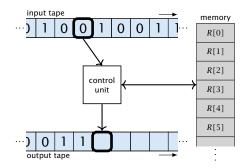
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- Some simple problems like recognizing whether input is of the form xx, where x is a string, have quadratic lower bound.
- $\Rightarrow$  Not a good model for developing efficient algorithms.

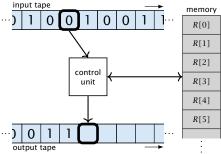


Input tape and output tape (sequences of zeros and ones; unbounded length).





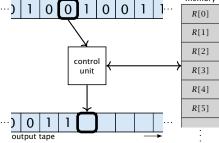
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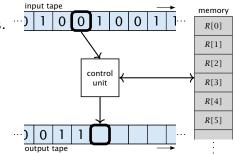




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- Indirect addressing.





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loads the content of the R[i]-th register into the *j*-th register



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arithmetic instructions: +, -, ×, /
     \triangleright R[i] := R[j] + R[k];
```

```
R[i] := -R[k];
```



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 Every operation takes time 1.



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The cost depends on the content of memory cells:

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**Bounded word RAM model:** cost is uniform but the largest value stored in a register may not exceed  $2^w$ , where usually  $w = \log_2 n$ .



#### Example 2

Algorithm 1 RepeatedSquaring(n)1:  $r \leftarrow 2$ ;2: for  $i = 1 \rightarrow n$  do3:  $r \leftarrow r^2$ 4: return r



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 $2 + 3 + 5 + \dots + (1 + 2^n) = 2^{n+1} - 1 + n = \Theta(2^n)$ 



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more general: probability measure  $\mu$ 

$$C_{\text{avg}}(n) := \sum_{x \in I_n} \mu(x) \cdot C(x)$$



amortized complexity:

The average cost of data structure operations over a worst case sequence of operations.



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The average cost of data structure operations over a worst case sequence of operations.

randomized complexity:

The algorithm may use random bits. Expected running time (over all possible choices of random bits) for a fixed input x. Then take the worst-case over all x with |x| = n.





We are usually not interested in exact running times, but only in an asymptotic classification of the running time, that ignores constant factors and constant additive offsets.

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- Running time should be expressed by simple functions.



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•  $\mathcal{O}(f) = \{g \mid \exists c > 0 \ \exists n_0 \in \mathbb{N}_0 \ \forall n \ge n_0 : [g(n) \le c \cdot f(n)]\}$ (set of functions that asymptotically grow not faster than f)



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- $\blacktriangleright \ \Theta(f) = \Omega(f) \cap \mathcal{O}(f)$

(functions that asymptotically have the same growth as f)



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- ▶  $\mathcal{O}(f) = \{g \mid \exists c > 0 \ \exists n_0 \in \mathbb{N}_0 \ \forall n \ge n_0 : [g(n) \le c \cdot f(n)]\}$ (set of functions that asymptotically grow not faster than f)
- $\Omega(f) = \{g \mid \exists c > 0 \ \exists n_0 \in \mathbb{N}_0 \ \forall n \ge n_0 \colon [g(n) \ge c \cdot f(n)]\}$ (set of functions that asymptotically grow not slower than f)
- $\Theta(f) = \Omega(f) \cap \mathcal{O}(f)$ (functions that asymptotically have the same growth as f)
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- **4.** People write  $\mathcal{O}(f(n)) = \mathcal{O}(g(n))$ , when they mean  $\mathcal{O}(f(n)) \subseteq \mathcal{O}(g(n))$ . Again this is not an equality.

How do we interpret an expression like:

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Note that  $\Theta(n)$  is on the right hand side, otw. this interpretation is wrong.



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Regardless of how we choose the anonymous function  $f(n) \in \mathcal{O}(n)$  there is an anonymous function  $g(n) \in \Theta(n^2)$  that makes the expression true.



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```
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```

### **Careful!**

"It is understood" that every occurence of an  $\mathcal{O}$ -symbol (or  $\Theta, \Omega, o, \omega$ ) on the left represents one anonymous function.

Hence, the left side is not equal to

 $\Theta(1) + \Theta(2) + \cdots + \Theta(n-1) + \Theta(n)$ 



We can view an expression containing asymptotic notation as generating a set:

 $n^2 \cdot \mathcal{O}(n) + \mathcal{O}(\log n)$ 

represents

$$\left\{ f : \mathbb{N} \to \mathbb{R}^+ \mid f(n) = n^2 \cdot g(n) + h(n)$$
  
with  $g(n) \in \mathcal{O}(n)$  and  $h(n) \in \mathcal{O}(\log n) \right\}$ 



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Then an asymptotic equation can be interpreted as containement btw. two sets:

 $n^2 \cdot \mathcal{O}(n) + \mathcal{O}(\log n) = \Theta(n^2)$ 

represents

$$n^2 \cdot \mathcal{O}(n) + \mathcal{O}(\log n) \subseteq \Theta(n^2)$$



**5** Asymptotic Notation

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#### Lemma 3

Let f, g be functions with the property  $\exists n_0 > 0 \ \forall n \ge n_0 : f(n) > 0$  (the same for g). Then

•  $c \cdot f(n) \in \Theta(f(n))$  for any constant c



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The expressions also hold for  $\Omega$ . Note that this means that  $f(n) + g(n) \in \Theta(\max\{f(n), g(n)\})$ .



### Comments

Do not use asymptotic notation within induction proofs.



### Comments

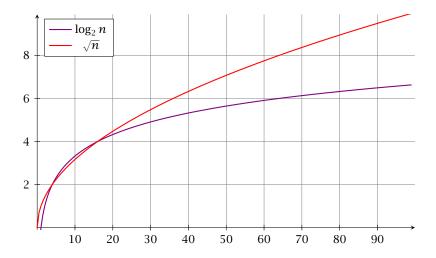
- Do not use asymptotic notation within induction proofs.
- For any constants *a*, *b* we have log<sub>a</sub> n = Θ(log<sub>b</sub> n). Therefore, we will usually ignore the base of a logarithm within asymptotic notation.



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- Do not use asymptotic notation within induction proofs.
- For any constants *a*, *b* we have log<sub>a</sub> n = Θ(log<sub>b</sub> n). Therefore, we will usually ignore the base of a logarithm within asymptotic notation.
- ► In general  $\log n = \log_2 n$ , i.e., we use 2 as the default base for the logarithm.

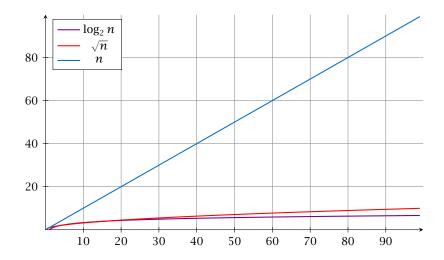






**5** Asymptotic Notation

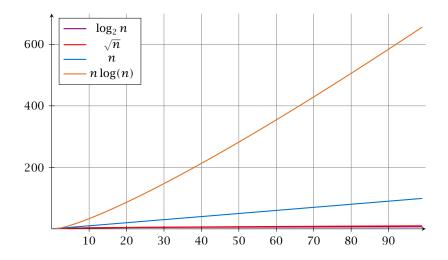
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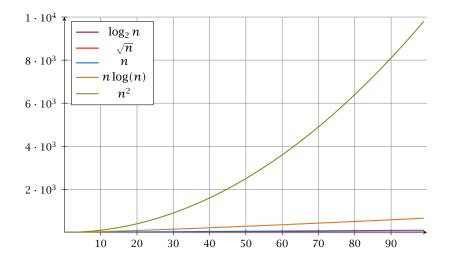
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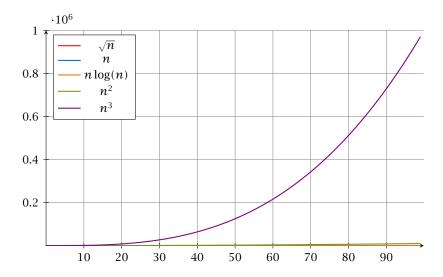
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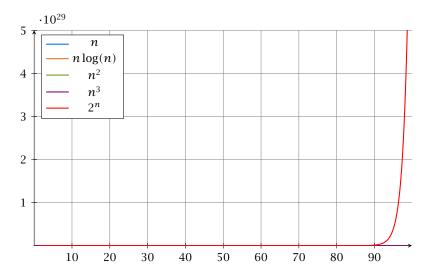
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**5** Asymptotic Notation

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**5** Asymptotic Notation

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# Laufzeiten

Funktion	Eingabelänge n							
f(n)	10	<b>10</b> <sup>2</sup>	10 <sup>3</sup>	<b>10</b> <sup>4</sup>	10 <sup>5</sup>	$10^{6}$	107	108
$\log n$	33 <b>ns</b>	66 <b>ns</b>	0.1µs	0.1µs	0.2µs	0.2µs	0.2µs	0.3µs
$\sqrt{n}$	32 <b>ns</b>	0.1µs	0.3µs	1µs	3.1µs	10 <b>µs</b>	31µs	0.1 ms
п	100 ns	1µs	10µs	0.1 ms	1ms	10 <b>ms</b>	0.1s	1 <b>s</b>
$n\log n$	0.3µs	6.6µs	0.1ms	1.3ms	16 <b>ms</b>	0.2s	2.3s	27s
$n^{3/2}$	0.3µs	10 <b>µs</b>	0.3 <b>ms</b>	10 ms	0.3s	10 <b>s</b>	5.2min	2.7h
$n^2$	1µs	0.1 ms	10 <b>ms</b>	1s	1.7min	2.8h	11 <b>d</b>	3.2y
$n^3$	10µs	10 ms	10 <b>s</b>	2.8h	115 <b>d</b>	317y	$3.2 \cdot 10^5$ y	
$1.1^{n}$	26 <b>ns</b>	0.1ms	$7.8 \cdot 10^{25}$ y					
2 <sup>n</sup>	10µs	$4\cdot 10^{14} \mathrm{y}$						
n!	36 <b>ms</b>	$3 \cdot 10^{142}$ y						1001411

1 Operation = 10ns; 100MHz

Alter des Universums: ca.  $13.8 \cdot 10^9$ y

In general asymptotic classification of running times is a good measure for comparing algorithms:

If the running time analysis is tight and actually occurs in practise (i.e., the asymptotic bound is not a purely theoretical worst-case bound), then the algorithm that has better asymptotic running time will always outperform a weaker algorithm for large enough values of n.



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Clearly f = o(g). However, as long as  $\log n \le 1000$ Algorithm B will be more efficient.



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(set of functions that asymptotically grow not faster than f)



### **Example 4**

•  $f: \mathbb{N} \to \mathbb{R}^+_0$ , f(n,m) = 1 und  $g: \mathbb{N} \to \mathbb{R}^+_0$ , g(n,m) = n-1



### Example 4

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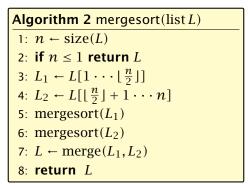
#### **6** Recurrences

#### Algorithm 2 mergesort(list *L*) 1: $n \leftarrow \text{size}(L)$ 2: if $n \le 1$ return *L* 3: $L_1 \leftarrow L[1 \cdots \lfloor \frac{n}{2} \rfloor]$ 4: $L_2 \leftarrow L[\lfloor \frac{n}{2} \rfloor + 1 \cdots n]$ 5: mergesort( $L_1$ ) 6: mergesort( $L_2$ ) 7: $L \leftarrow \text{merge}(L_1, L_2)$ 8: return *L*



6 Recurrences

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This algorithm requires

 $T(n) = T\left(\left\lceil \frac{n}{2} \right\rceil\right) + T\left(\left\lfloor \frac{n}{2} \right\rfloor\right) + \mathcal{O}(n) \le 2T\left(\left\lceil \frac{n}{2} \right\rceil\right) + \mathcal{O}(n)$ 

comparisons when n > 1 and 0 comparisons when  $n \le 1$ .



6 Recurrences



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For this we need to solve the recurrence.



**6** Recurrences

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# **Methods for Solving Recurrences**

#### 1. Guessing+Induction

Guess the right solution and prove that it is correct via induction. It needs experience to make the right guess.

#### 2. Master Theorem

For a lot of recurrences that appear in the analysis of algorithms this theorem can be used to obtain tight asymptotic bounds. It does not provide exact solutions.

#### 3. Characteristic Polynomial

Linear homogenous recurrences can be solved via this method.



# **Methods for Solving Recurrences**

#### 4. Generating Functions

A more general technique that allows to solve certain types of linear inhomogenous relations and also sometimes non-linear recurrence relations.

#### 5. Transformation of the Recurrence

Sometimes one can transform the given recurrence relations so that it e.g. becomes linear and can therefore be solved with one of the other techniques.



First we need to get rid of the  $\mathcal{O}$ -notation in our recurrence:

$$T(n) \leq \begin{cases} 2T(\left\lceil \frac{n}{2} \right\rceil) + cn & n \ge 2\\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Informal way:



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One way of solving such a recurrence is to guess a solution, and check that it is correct by plugging it in.



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$$\le 2\left(d\frac{n}{2}\log\frac{n}{2}\right) + cn$$
$$= dn(\log n - 1) + cn$$
$$= dn\log n + (c - d)n$$
$$\le dn\log n$$

if we choose  $d \ge c$ .



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if we choose  $d \ge c$ .

Formally, this is not correct if n is not a power of 2. Also even in this case one would need to do an induction proof.



$$T(n) \leq \begin{cases} 2T(\frac{n}{2}) + cn & n \ge 16\\ b & \text{otw.} \end{cases}$$

**Guess:**  $T(n) \leq dn \log n$ .

$$T(n) \leq \begin{cases} 2T(\frac{n}{2}) + cn & n \ge 16\\ b & \text{otw.} \end{cases}$$

**Guess:**  $T(n) \le dn \log n$ . **Proof.** (by induction)

$$T(n) \leq \begin{cases} 2T(\frac{n}{2}) + cn & n \ge 16\\ b & \text{otw.} \end{cases}$$

**Guess:**  $T(n) \le dn \log n$ . **Proof.** (by induction)

▶ **base case** (2 ≤ *n* < 16):

$$T(n) \leq \begin{cases} 2T(\frac{n}{2}) + cn & n \ge 16 \\ b & \text{otw.} \end{cases}$$

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**Guess:**  $T(n) \le dn \log n$ . **Proof.** (by induction)

**base case**  $(2 \le n < 16)$ : true if we choose  $d \ge b$ .

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**Guess:**  $T(n) \le dn \log n$ . **Proof.** (by induction)

- **base case**  $(2 \le n < 16)$ : true if we choose  $d \ge b$ .
- induction step  $n/2 \rightarrow n$ :

$$T(n) \leq \begin{cases} 2T(\frac{n}{2}) + cn & n \ge 16\\ b & \text{otw.} \end{cases}$$

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Let  $n = 2^k \ge 16$ . Suppose statem. is true for n' = n/2. We prove it for n:

 $T(n) \le 2T\left(\frac{n}{2}\right) + cn$ 

$$T(n) \leq \begin{cases} 2T(\frac{n}{2}) + cn & n \ge 16\\ b & \text{otw.} \end{cases}$$

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$$T(n) \leq \begin{cases} 2T(\frac{n}{2}) + cn & n \ge 16\\ b & \text{otw.} \end{cases}$$

**Guess:**  $T(n) \le dn \log n$ . **Proof.** (by induction)

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$$= dn(\log n - 1) + cn$$

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**Guess:**  $T(n) \le dn \log n$ . **Proof.** (by induction)

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**Guess:**  $T(n) \le dn \log n$ . **Proof.** (by induction)

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$$T(n) \le 2T\left(\frac{n}{2}\right) + cn$$
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$$\le dn\log n$$

Hence, statement is true if we choose  $d \ge c$ .

How do we get a result for all values of *n*?



How do we get a result for all values of *n*?

We consider the following recurrence instead of the original one:

$$T(n) \leq \begin{cases} 2T(\left\lceil \frac{n}{2} \right\rceil) + cn & n \ge 16\\ b & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$



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How do we get a result for all values of *n*?

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$$T(n) \leq \begin{cases} 2T(\left\lceil \frac{n}{2} \right\rceil) + cn & n \ge 16\\ b & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Note that we can do this as for constant-sized inputs the running time is always some constant (*b* in the above case).



We also make a guess of  $T(n) \leq dn \log n$  and get

T(n)



$$T(n) \le 2T\left(\left\lceil \frac{n}{2} \right\rceil\right) + cn$$



$$\begin{split} T(n) &\leq 2T \left( \left\lceil \frac{n}{2} \right\rceil \right) + cn \\ &\leq 2 \left( d \left\lceil \frac{n}{2} \right\rceil \log \left\lceil \frac{n}{2} \right\rceil \right) + cn \end{split}$$



$$T(n) \le 2T\left(\left\lceil \frac{n}{2} \right\rceil\right) + cn$$
$$\le 2\left(d\left\lceil \frac{n}{2} \right\rceil \log\left\lceil \frac{n}{2} \right\rceil\right) + cn$$
$$\left\lceil \frac{n}{2} \right\rceil \le \frac{n}{2} + 1$$



$$T(n) \le 2T\left(\left\lceil \frac{n}{2} \right\rceil\right) + cn$$
$$\le 2\left(d\left\lceil \frac{n}{2} \right\rceil \log\left\lceil \frac{n}{2} \right\rceil\right) + cn$$
$$\boxed{\left\lceil \frac{n}{2} \right\rceil \le \frac{n}{2} + 1} \le 2\left(d(n/2 + 1)\log(n/2 + 1)\right) + cn$$



$$T(n) \leq 2T\left(\left\lceil \frac{n}{2} \right\rceil\right) + cn$$
  
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$$\boxed{\left\lceil \frac{n}{2} \right\rceil \leq \frac{n}{2} + 1} \leq 2\left(d(n/2 + 1)\log(n/2 + 1)\right) + cn$$
  
$$\boxed{\frac{n}{2} + 1 \leq \frac{9}{16}n}$$



$$T(n) \le 2T\left(\left\lceil \frac{n}{2} \right\rceil\right) + cn$$
  
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We also make a guess of  $T(n) \leq dn \log n$  and get

$$T(n) \le 2T\left(\left\lceil \frac{n}{2} \right\rceil\right) + cn$$
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$$\left[\frac{n}{2} \le \frac{n}{2} + 1\right] \le 2\left(d(n/2 + 1)\log(n/2 + 1)\right) + cn$$
$$\frac{n}{2} + 1 \le \frac{9}{16}n \le dn\log\left(\frac{9}{16}n\right) + 2d\log n + cn$$

 $\log \frac{9}{16}n = \log n + (\log 9 - 4)$ 



$$T(n) \leq 2T\left(\left\lceil \frac{n}{2} \right\rceil\right) + cn$$

$$\leq 2\left(d\left\lceil \frac{n}{2} \right\rceil \log\left\lceil \frac{n}{2} \right\rceil\right) + cn$$

$$\boxed{\left\lceil \frac{n}{2} \right\rceil \leq \frac{n}{2} + 1} \leq 2\left(d(n/2 + 1)\log(n/2 + 1)\right) + cn$$

$$\boxed{\frac{n}{2} + 1 \leq \frac{9}{16}n} \leq dn\log\left(\frac{9}{16}n\right) + 2d\log n + cn$$

$$\boxed{\log \frac{9}{16}n = \log n + (\log 9 - 4)} = dn\log n + (\log 9 - 4)dn + 2d\log n + cn$$



$$T(n) \leq 2T\left(\left\lceil\frac{n}{2}\right\rceil\right) + cn$$

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$$\left\lceil\frac{n}{2}\right\rceil \leq \frac{n}{2} + 1\right\rceil \leq 2\left(d(n/2 + 1)\log(n/2 + 1)\right) + cn$$

$$\frac{n}{2} + 1 \leq \frac{9}{16}n \leq dn\log\left(\frac{9}{16}n\right) + 2d\log n + cn$$

$$\log\frac{9}{16}n = \log n + (\log 9 - 4)$$

$$= dn\log n + (\log 9 - 4)dn + 2d\log n + cn$$



$$T(n) \leq 2T\left(\left\lceil\frac{n}{2}\right\rceil\right) + cn$$

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$$\left\lceil\frac{n}{2}\right\rceil \leq \frac{n}{2} + 1\right\rceil \leq 2\left(d(n/2+1)\log(n/2+1)\right) + cn$$

$$\left\lceil\frac{n}{2}+1 \leq \frac{9}{16}n\right\rceil \leq dn\log\left(\frac{9}{16}n\right) + 2d\log n + cn$$

$$\log\frac{9}{16}n = \log n + (\log 9 - 4) = dn\log n + (\log 9 - 4)dn + 2d\log n + cn$$

$$\log n \leq \frac{n}{4} \leq dn\log n + (\log 9 - 3.5)dn + cn$$



$$T(n) \leq 2T\left(\left\lceil \frac{n}{2} \right\rceil\right) + cn$$

$$\leq 2\left(d\left\lceil \frac{n}{2} \right\rceil \log\left\lceil \frac{n}{2} \right\rceil\right) + cn$$

$$\left\lceil \frac{n}{2} \right\rceil \leq \frac{n}{2} + 1 \leq 2\left(d(n/2+1)\log(n/2+1)\right) + cn$$

$$\frac{n}{2} + 1 \leq \frac{9}{16}n \leq dn \log\left(\frac{9}{16}n\right) + 2d \log n + cn$$

$$\log \frac{9}{16}n = \log n + (\log 9 - 4) = dn \log n + (\log 9 - 4)dn + 2d \log n + cn$$

$$\log n \leq \frac{n}{4} \leq dn \log n + (\log 9 - 3.5)dn + cn$$

$$\leq dn \log n - 0.33dn + cn$$



We also make a guess of  $T(n) \leq dn \log n$  and get

$$T(n) \leq 2T\left(\left\lceil \frac{n}{2} \right\rceil\right) + cn$$

$$\leq 2\left(d\left\lceil \frac{n}{2} \right\rceil \log\left\lceil \frac{n}{2} \right\rceil\right) + cn$$

$$\left\lceil \frac{n}{2} \right\rceil \leq \frac{n}{2} + 1 \leq 2\left(d(n/2 + 1)\log(n/2 + 1)\right) + cn$$

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$$\log n \leq \frac{n}{4} \leq dn \log n + (\log 9 - 3.5)dn + cn$$

$$\leq dn \log n - 0.33dn + cn$$

$$\leq dn \log n$$

for a suitable choice of d.



# 6.2 Master Theorem

#### Lemma 5

Let  $a \ge 1, b \ge 1$  and  $\epsilon > 0$  denote constants. Consider the recurrence

$$T(n) = aT\left(\frac{n}{b}\right) + f(n) \; .$$

Case 1. If  $f(n) = O(n^{\log_b(a) - \epsilon})$  then  $T(n) = O(n^{\log_b a})$ .

Case 2.

If  $f(n) = \Theta(n^{\log_b(a)} \log^k n)$  then  $T(n) = \Theta(n^{\log_b a} \log^{k+1} n)$ ,  $k \ge 0$ .

*Case 3. If*  $f(n) = \Omega(n^{\log_b(a)+\epsilon})$  and for sufficiently large n $af(\frac{n}{b}) \le cf(n)$  for some constant c < 1 then  $T(n) = \Theta(f(n))$ .



We prove the Master Theorem for the case that n is of the form  $b^{\ell}$ , and we assume that the non-recursive case occurs for problem size 1 and incurs cost 1.



The running time of a recursive algorithm can be visualized by a recursion tree:

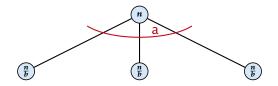


The running time of a recursive algorithm can be visualized by a recursion tree:

n

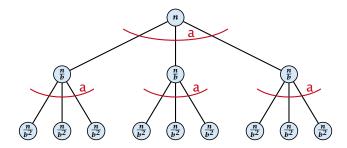


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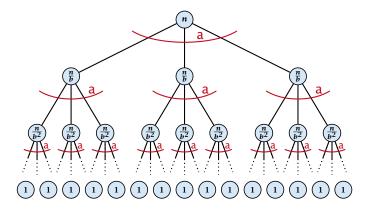
The running time of a recursive algorithm can be visualized by a recursion tree:





6.2 Master Theorem

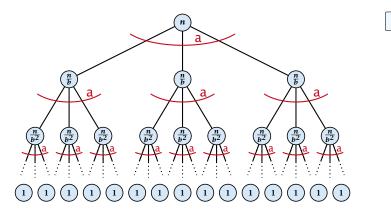
The running time of a recursive algorithm can be visualized by a recursion tree:





6.2 Master Theorem

The running time of a recursive algorithm can be visualized by a recursion tree:

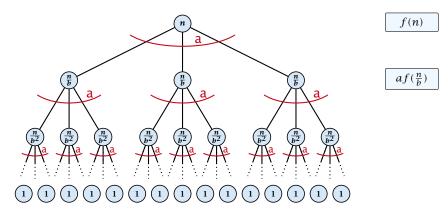


f(n)



6.2 Master Theorem

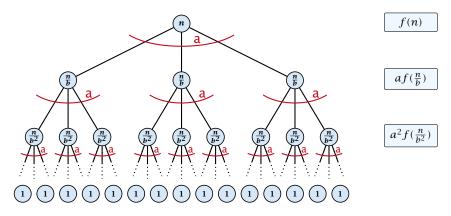
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6.2 Master Theorem

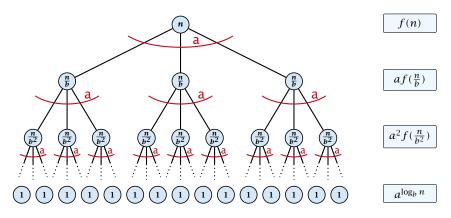
The running time of a recursive algorithm can be visualized by a recursion tree:





6.2 Master Theorem

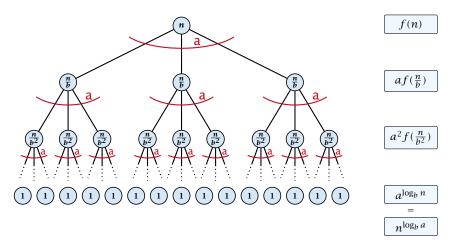
The running time of a recursive algorithm can be visualized by a recursion tree:





6.2 Master Theorem

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6.2 Master Theorem

## 6.2 Master Theorem

This gives

$$T(n) = n^{\log_b a} + \sum_{i=0}^{\log_b n-1} a^i f\left(\frac{n}{b^i}\right) \ .$$





 $T(n) - n^{\log_b a}$ 



$$T(n) - n^{\log_b a} = \sum_{i=0}^{\log_b n-1} a^i f\left(\frac{n}{b^i}\right)$$



$$T(n) - n^{\log_b a} = \sum_{i=0}^{\log_b n-1} a^i f\left(\frac{n}{b^i}\right)$$
$$\leq c \sum_{i=0}^{\log_b n-1} a^i \left(\frac{n}{b^i}\right)^{\log_b a-\epsilon}$$



$$T(n) - n^{\log_b a} = \sum_{i=0}^{\log_b n-1} a^i f\left(\frac{n}{b^i}\right)$$
$$\leq c \sum_{i=0}^{\log_b n-1} a^i \left(\frac{n}{b^i}\right)^{\log_b a-\epsilon}$$

 $b^{-i(\log_b a - \epsilon)} = b^{\epsilon i} (b^{\log_b a})^{-i} = b^{\epsilon i} a^{-i}$ 



$$T(n) - n^{\log_b a} = \sum_{i=0}^{\log_b n-1} a^i f\left(\frac{n}{b^i}\right)$$
$$\leq c \sum_{i=0}^{\log_b n-1} a^i \left(\frac{n}{b^i}\right)^{\log_b a-\epsilon}$$
$$\underbrace{b^{-i(\log_b a-\epsilon)} = b^{\epsilon i}(b^{\log_b a})^{-i} = b^{\epsilon i}a^{-i}}_{i=0} = c n^{\log_b a-\epsilon} \sum_{i=0}^{\log_b n-1} (b^{\epsilon})^i$$



$$T(n) - n^{\log_b a} = \sum_{i=0}^{\log_b n-1} a^i f\left(\frac{n}{b^i}\right)$$
$$\leq c \sum_{i=0}^{\log_b n-1} a^i \left(\frac{n}{b^i}\right)^{\log_b a-\epsilon}$$
$$\frac{b^{-i(\log_b a-\epsilon)} = b^{\epsilon i}(b^{\log_b a})^{-i} = b^{\epsilon i}a^{-i}}{\sum_{i=0}^{k-i} a^{i} \left(\frac{1}{b^i}\right)^{k-1}} = c n^{\log_b a-\epsilon} \sum_{i=0}^{\log_b n-1} (b^{\epsilon})^i$$

$$\sum_{i=0}^{k} q^{i} = \frac{q^{k+1}-1}{q-1}$$

$$T(n) - n^{\log_b a} = \sum_{i=0}^{\log_b n-1} a^i f\left(\frac{n}{b^i}\right)$$
$$\leq c \sum_{i=0}^{\log_b n-1} a^i \left(\frac{n}{b^i}\right)^{\log_b a-\epsilon}$$
$$\frac{b^{-i(\log_b a-\epsilon)} = b^{\epsilon i}(b^{\log_b a})^{-i} = b^{\epsilon i}a^{-i}}{\sum_{i=0}^{k-1} c n^{\log_b a-\epsilon}} = c n^{\log_b a-\epsilon} \sum_{i=0}^{\log_b n-1} (b^{\epsilon})^i$$
$$\frac{\sum_{i=0}^k q^i = \frac{q^{k+1}-1}{q-1}}{\sum_{i=0}^k c n^{\log_b a-\epsilon} (b^{\epsilon \log_b n} - 1)/(b^{\epsilon} - 1)}$$



$$T(n) - n^{\log_b a} = \sum_{i=0}^{\log_b n-1} a^i f\left(\frac{n}{b^i}\right)$$
$$\leq c \sum_{i=0}^{\log_b n-1} a^i \left(\frac{n}{b^i}\right)^{\log_b a-\epsilon}$$
$$\frac{b^{-i(\log_b a-\epsilon)} = b^{\epsilon i}(b^{\log_b a})^{-i} = b^{\epsilon i}a^{-i}}{\sum_{i=0}^{k-1} a^{-i}} = c n^{\log_b a-\epsilon} \sum_{i=0}^{\log_b n-1} (b^{\epsilon})^i$$
$$\frac{\sum_{i=0}^k q^i = \frac{q^{k+1}-1}{q-1}}{\sum_{i=0}^k a^{-\epsilon}} = c n^{\log_b a-\epsilon} (b^{\epsilon \log_b n} - 1)/(b^{\epsilon} - 1)$$
$$= c n^{\log_b a-\epsilon} (n^{\epsilon} - 1)/(b^{\epsilon} - 1)$$



6.2 Master Theorem

$$T(n) - n^{\log_b a} = \sum_{i=0}^{\log_b n-1} a^i f\left(\frac{n}{b^i}\right)$$
$$\leq c \sum_{i=0}^{\log_b n-1} a^i \left(\frac{n}{b^i}\right)^{\log_b a-\epsilon}$$
$$\frac{b^{-i(\log_b a-\epsilon)} = b^{\epsilon i} (b^{\log_b a})^{-i} = b^{\epsilon i} a^{-i}}{\sum_{i=0}^{k-1} a^{-i}} = c n^{\log_b a-\epsilon} \sum_{i=0}^{\log_b n-1} (b^{\epsilon})^i$$
$$\frac{\sum_{i=0}^{k} q^i = \frac{q^{k+1}-1}{q-1}}{\sum_{i=0}^{k-1} a^{-i}} = c n^{\log_b a-\epsilon} (b^{\epsilon \log_b n} - 1)/(b^{\epsilon} - 1)$$
$$= c n^{\log_b a-\epsilon} (n^{\epsilon} - 1)/(b^{\epsilon} - 1)$$
$$= \frac{c}{b^{\epsilon} - 1} n^{\log_b a} (n^{\epsilon} - 1)/(n^{\epsilon})$$



Case 1. Now suppose that  $f(n) \leq c n^{\log_b a - \epsilon}$ .

$$T(n) - n^{\log_{b} a} = \sum_{i=0}^{\log_{b} n-1} a^{i} f\left(\frac{n}{b^{i}}\right)$$

$$\leq c \sum_{i=0}^{\log_{b} n-1} a^{i} \left(\frac{n}{b^{i}}\right)^{\log_{b} a-\epsilon}$$

$$\frac{b^{-i(\log_{b} a-\epsilon)} = b^{\epsilon i}(b^{\log_{b} a})^{-i} = b^{\epsilon i}a^{-i}}{\sum_{i=0}^{k-1} e^{i} c n^{\log_{b} a-\epsilon}} \sum_{i=0}^{\log_{b} n-1} (b^{\epsilon})^{i}$$

$$\frac{\sum_{i=0}^{k} q^{i} = \frac{q^{k+1}-1}{q-1}}{e^{n}} = c n^{\log_{b} a-\epsilon} (b^{\epsilon \log_{b} n} - 1)/(b^{\epsilon} - 1)$$

$$= c n^{\log_{b} a-\epsilon} (n^{\epsilon} - 1)/(b^{\epsilon} - 1)$$

$$= \frac{c}{b^{\epsilon} - 1} n^{\log_{b} a} (n^{\epsilon} - 1)/(n^{\epsilon})$$

Hence,

$$T(n) \leq \left(\frac{c}{b^{\epsilon}-1}+1\right) n^{\log_b(a)}$$



9. Jan. 2023 **59/662**  Case 1. Now suppose that  $f(n) \leq c n^{\log_b a - \epsilon}$ .

$$T(n) - n^{\log_{b} a} = \sum_{i=0}^{\log_{b} n-1} a^{i} f\left(\frac{n}{b^{i}}\right)$$

$$\leq c \sum_{i=0}^{\log_{b} n-1} a^{i} \left(\frac{n}{b^{i}}\right)^{\log_{b} a-\epsilon}$$

$$\frac{b^{-i(\log_{b} a-\epsilon)} = b^{\epsilon i} (b^{\log_{b} a})^{-i} = b^{\epsilon i} a^{-i}}{\sum_{i=0}^{k-1}} = c n^{\log_{b} a-\epsilon} \sum_{i=0}^{\log_{b} n-1} (b^{\epsilon})^{i}$$

$$\frac{\sum_{i=0}^{k} q^{i} = \frac{q^{k+1}-1}{q-1}}{\sum_{i=0}^{k} a^{-\epsilon}} = c n^{\log_{b} a-\epsilon} (b^{\epsilon} \log_{b} n - 1)/(b^{\epsilon} - 1)$$

$$= c n^{\log_{b} a-\epsilon} (n^{\epsilon} - 1)/(b^{\epsilon} - 1)$$

$$= \frac{c}{b^{\epsilon} - 1} n^{\log_{b} a} (n^{\epsilon} - 1)/(n^{\epsilon})$$

Hence,

$$T(n) \leq \left(\frac{c}{b^{\epsilon}-1}+1\right) n^{\log_b(a)} \qquad \qquad \Rightarrow T(n) = \mathcal{O}(n^{\log_b a}).$$





 $T(n) - n^{\log_b a}$ 



$$T(n) - n^{\log_b a} = \sum_{i=0}^{\log_b n-1} a^i f\left(\frac{n}{b^i}\right)$$



$$T(n) - n^{\log_b a} = \sum_{i=0}^{\log_b n-1} a^i f\left(\frac{n}{b^i}\right)$$
$$\leq c \sum_{i=0}^{\log_b n-1} a^i \left(\frac{n}{b^i}\right)^{\log_b a}$$



$$T(n) - n^{\log_b a} = \sum_{i=0}^{\log_b n-1} a^i f\left(\frac{n}{b^i}\right)$$
$$\leq c \sum_{i=0}^{\log_b n-1} a^i \left(\frac{n}{b^i}\right)^{\log_b a}$$
$$= c n^{\log_b a} \sum_{i=0}^{\log_b n-1} 1$$



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Hence,

 $T(n) = \mathcal{O}(n^{\log_b a} \log_b n)$ 



$$T(n) - n^{\log_b a} = \sum_{i=0}^{\log_b n-1} a^i f\left(\frac{n}{b^i}\right)$$
$$\leq c \sum_{i=0}^{\log_b n-1} a^i \left(\frac{n}{b^i}\right)^{\log_b a}$$
$$= c n^{\log_b a} \sum_{i=0}^{\log_b n-1} 1$$
$$= c n^{\log_b a} \log_b n$$

Hence,

 $T(n) = \mathcal{O}(n^{\log_b a} \log_b n) \qquad \Rightarrow T(n)$ 

$$\Rightarrow T(n) = \mathcal{O}(n^{\log_b a} \log n).$$





 $T(n) - n^{\log_b a}$ 



$$T(n) - n^{\log_b a} = \sum_{i=0}^{\log_b n-1} a^i f\left(\frac{n}{b^i}\right)$$



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Hence,

 $T(n) = \mathbf{\Omega}(n^{\log_b a} \log_b n)$ 



$$T(n) - n^{\log_b a} = \sum_{i=0}^{\log_b n-1} a^i f\left(\frac{n}{b^i}\right)$$
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Hence,

 $T(n) = \mathbf{\Omega}(n^{\log_b a} \log_b n)$ 

$$\Rightarrow T(n) = \mathbf{\Omega}(n^{\log_b a} \log n).$$





 $T(n) - n^{\log_b a}$ 



$$T(n) - n^{\log_b a} = \sum_{i=0}^{\log_b n-1} a^i f\left(\frac{n}{b^i}\right)$$



$$T(n) - n^{\log_b a} = \sum_{i=0}^{\log_b n-1} a^i f\left(\frac{n}{b^i}\right)$$
$$\leq c \sum_{i=0}^{\log_b n-1} a^i \left(\frac{n}{b^i}\right)^{\log_b a} \cdot \left(\log_b \left(\frac{n}{b^i}\right)\right)^k$$



$$T(n) - n^{\log_b a} = \sum_{i=0}^{\log_b n-1} a^i f\left(\frac{n}{b^i}\right)$$
$$\leq c \sum_{i=0}^{\log_b n-1} a^i \left(\frac{n}{b^i}\right)^{\log_b a} \cdot \left(\log_b\left(\frac{n}{b^i}\right)\right)^k$$

$$n=b^\ell \Rightarrow \ell = \log_b n$$



$$T(n) - n^{\log_b a} = \sum_{i=0}^{\log_b n-1} a^i f\left(\frac{n}{b^i}\right)$$
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$$\boxed{n = b^\ell \Rightarrow \ell = \log_b n} = c n^{\log_b a} \sum_{i=0}^{\ell-1} \left(\log_b \left(\frac{b^\ell}{b^i}\right)\right)^k$$



$$T(n) - n^{\log_b a} = \sum_{i=0}^{\log_b n-1} a^i f\left(\frac{n}{b^i}\right)$$
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$$= c n^{\log_b a} \sum_{i=0}^{\ell-1} (\ell - i)^k$$



$$T(n) - n^{\log_{b} a} = \sum_{i=0}^{\log_{b} n-1} a^{i} f\left(\frac{n}{b^{i}}\right)$$

$$\leq c \sum_{i=0}^{\log_{b} n-1} a^{i} \left(\frac{n}{b^{i}}\right)^{\log_{b} a} \cdot \left(\log_{b} \left(\frac{n}{b^{i}}\right)\right)^{k}$$

$$\overline{n = b^{\ell} \Rightarrow \ell = \log_{b} n} = c n^{\log_{b} a} \sum_{i=0}^{\ell-1} \left(\log_{b} \left(\frac{b^{\ell}}{b^{i}}\right)\right)^{k}$$

$$= c n^{\log_{b} a} \sum_{i=0}^{\ell-1} (\ell - i)^{k}$$

$$= c n^{\log_{b} a} \sum_{i=1}^{\ell} i^{k}$$



$$T(n) - n^{\log_{b} a} = \sum_{i=0}^{\log_{b} n-1} a^{i} f\left(\frac{n}{b^{i}}\right)$$

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$$= c n^{\log_{b} a} \sum_{i=0}^{\ell-1} (\ell - i)^{k}$$

$$= c n^{\log_{b} a} \sum_{i=1}^{\ell} i^{k} \approx \frac{1}{k} \ell^{k+1}$$



$$T(n) - n^{\log_{b} a} = \sum_{i=0}^{\log_{b} n-1} a^{i} f\left(\frac{n}{b^{i}}\right)$$

$$\leq c \sum_{i=0}^{\log_{b} n-1} a^{i} \left(\frac{n}{b^{i}}\right)^{\log_{b} a} \cdot \left(\log_{b} \left(\frac{n}{b^{i}}\right)\right)^{k}$$

$$\overline{n = b^{\ell} \Rightarrow \ell = \log_{b} n} = c n^{\log_{b} a} \sum_{i=0}^{\ell-1} \left(\log_{b} \left(\frac{b^{\ell}}{b^{i}}\right)\right)^{k}$$

$$= c n^{\log_{b} a} \sum_{i=0}^{\ell-1} (\ell - i)^{k}$$

$$= c n^{\log_{b} a} \sum_{i=1}^{\ell} i^{k}$$

$$\approx \frac{c}{k} n^{\log_{b} a} \ell^{k+1}$$



$$T(n) - n^{\log_{b} a} = \sum_{i=0}^{\log_{b} n-1} a^{i} f\left(\frac{n}{b^{i}}\right)$$

$$\leq c \sum_{i=0}^{\log_{b} n-1} a^{i} \left(\frac{n}{b^{i}}\right)^{\log_{b} a} \cdot \left(\log_{b} \left(\frac{n}{b^{i}}\right)\right)^{k}$$

$$\overline{n = b^{\ell} \Rightarrow \ell = \log_{b} n} = c n^{\log_{b} a} \sum_{i=0}^{\ell-1} \left(\log_{b} \left(\frac{b^{\ell}}{b^{i}}\right)\right)^{k}$$

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$$= c n^{\log_{b} a} \sum_{i=1}^{\ell} i^{k}$$

$$\approx \frac{c}{k} n^{\log_{b} a} \ell^{k+1} \qquad \Rightarrow T(n) = \mathcal{O}(n^{\log_{b} a} \log^{k+1} n)$$







$$T(n) - n^{\log_b a} = \sum_{i=0}^{\log_b n-1} a^i f\left(\frac{n}{b^i}\right)$$



$$T(n) - n^{\log_b a} = \sum_{i=0}^{\log_b n-1} a^i f\left(\frac{n}{b^i}\right)$$
$$\leq \sum_{i=0}^{\log_b n-1} c^i f(n) + \mathcal{O}(n^{\log_b a})$$



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$$q < 1: \sum_{i=0}^{n} q^{i} = \frac{1-q^{n+1}}{1-q} \le \frac{1}{1-q}$$



$$T(n) - n^{\log_{b} a} = \sum_{i=0}^{\log_{b} n-1} a^{i} f\left(\frac{n}{b^{i}}\right)$$
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From this we get  $a^i f(n/b^i) \le c^i f(n)$ , where we assume that  $n/b^{i-1} \ge n_0$  is still sufficiently large.

$$T(n) - n^{\log_b a} = \sum_{i=0}^{\log_b n-1} a^i f\left(\frac{n}{b^i}\right)$$
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Hence,

 $T(n) \leq \mathcal{O}(f(n))$ 



**Case 3.** Now suppose that  $f(n) \ge dn^{\log_b a + \epsilon}$ , and that for sufficiently large n:  $af(n/b) \le cf(n)$ , for c < 1.

From this we get  $a^i f(n/b^i) \le c^i f(n)$ , where we assume that  $n/b^{i-1} \ge n_0$  is still sufficiently large.

$$T(n) - n^{\log_{b} a} = \sum_{i=0}^{\log_{b} n-1} a^{i} f\left(\frac{n}{b^{i}}\right)$$
$$\leq \sum_{i=0}^{\log_{b} n-1} c^{i} f(n) + \mathcal{O}(n^{\log_{b} a})$$
$$< 1: \sum_{i=0}^{n} q^{i} = \frac{1-q^{n+1}}{1-q} \leq \frac{1}{1-q} \le \frac{1}{1-c} f(n) + \mathcal{O}(n^{\log_{b} a})$$

Hence,

q

 $T(n) \leq \mathcal{O}(f(n))$ 

$$\Rightarrow T(n) = \Theta(f(n)).$$



Suppose we want to multiply two n-bit Integers, but our registers can only perform operations on integers of constant size.



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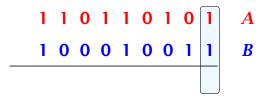
For this we first need to be able to add two integers **A** and **B**:

# 1 1 0 1 0 1 0 1 A 1 0 0 0 1 0 0 1 1 B



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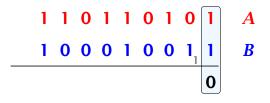






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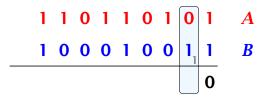






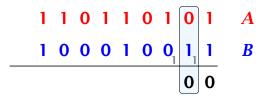
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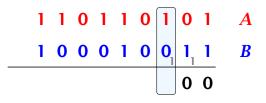
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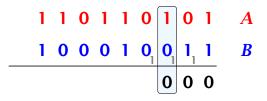
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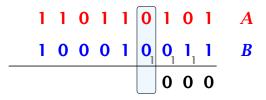


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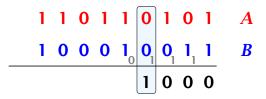


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6.2 Master Theorem

9. Jan. 2023 64/662

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This gives that two *n*-bit integers can be added in time O(n).





Suppose that we want to multiply an *n*-bit integer A and an *m*-bit integer B ( $m \le n$ ).

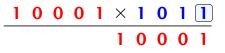
 $| 0 0 0 1 \times | 0 1 1$ 



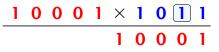
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 $1 \ 0 \ 0 \ 0 \ 1 \ \times \ 1 \ 0 \ 1 \ \boxed{1}$ 

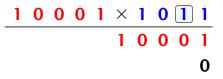














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1	0	0	0	1	Х	1	0	1	1
					1	0	0	0	1
				1	0	0	0	1	0
			0	0	0	0	0	0	0
		1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0



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9. Jan. 2023 65/662

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**Time requirement:** 



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1	0	0	0	1	×	1	0	1	1
					1	0	0	0	1
				1	0	0	0	1	0
			0	0	0	0	0	0	0
		1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0
		1	0	1	1	1	0	1	1

**Time requirement:** 

• Computing intermediate results: O(nm).



Suppose that we want to multiply an *n*-bit integer A and an *m*-bit integer B ( $m \le n$ ).

1	0	0	0	1	×	1	0	1	1
					1	0	0	0	1
				1	0	0	0	1	0
			0	0	0	0	0	0	0
		1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0
		1	0	1	1	1	0	1	1

**Time requirement:** 

• Computing intermediate results: O(nm).

Adding *m* numbers of length  $\leq 2n$ :  $\mathcal{O}((m+n)m) = \mathcal{O}(nm)$ .



#### A recursive approach:

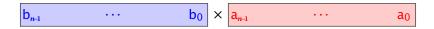


#### A recursive approach:





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$$\begin{array}{|c|c|c|c|c|c|} \hline B_1 & B_0 & \times & A_1 & A_0 \\ \hline \end{array}$$



#### A recursive approach:

Suppose that integers **A** and **B** are of length  $n = 2^k$ , for some k.

$$\begin{array}{|c|c|c|c|c|c|} B_1 & B_0 & \times & A_1 & A_0 \\ \hline \end{array}$$

Then it holds that

$$A = A_1 \cdot 2^{\frac{n}{2}} + A_0$$
 and  $B = B_1 \cdot 2^{\frac{n}{2}} + B_0$ 



#### A recursive approach:

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$$A = A_1 \cdot 2^{\frac{n}{2}} + A_0$$
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Hence,

$$A \cdot B = A_1 B_1 \cdot 2^n + (A_1 B_0 + A_0 B_1) \cdot 2^{\frac{n}{2}} + A_0 B_0$$



 Algorithm 3 mult(A, B)

 1: if |A| = |B| = 1 then

 2: return  $a_0 \cdot b_0$  

 3: split A into  $A_0$  and  $A_1$  

 4: split B into  $B_0$  and  $B_1$  

 5:  $Z_2 \leftarrow mult(A_1, B_1)$  

 6:  $Z_1 \leftarrow mult(A_1, B_0) + mult(A_0, B_1)$  

 7:  $Z_0 \leftarrow mult(A_0, B_0)$  

 8: return  $Z_2 \cdot 2^n + Z_1 \cdot 2^{\frac{n}{2}} + Z_0$ 



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 8: return  $Z_2 \cdot 2^n + Z_1 \cdot 2^{\frac{n}{2}} + Z_0$ 



Algorithm 3 mult(A, B)	
1: if $ A  =  B  = 1$ then	$\mathcal{O}(1)$
2: return $a_0 \cdot b_0$	$\mathcal{O}(1)$
3: split A into $A_0$ and $A_1$	$\mathcal{O}(n)$
4: split <i>B</i> into $B_0$ and $B_1$	
5: $Z_2 \leftarrow \operatorname{mult}(A_1, B_1)$	
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1: if $ A  =  B  = 1$ then	$\mathcal{O}(1)$
2: <b>return</b> $a_0 \cdot b_0$	$\mathcal{O}(1)$
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8: return $Z_2 \cdot 2^n + Z_1 \cdot 2^{\frac{n}{2}} + Z_0$	$\mathcal{O}(n)$

We get the following recurrence:

$$T(n) = 4T\left(\frac{n}{2}\right) + \mathcal{O}(n)$$
.



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**Master Theorem:** Recurrence:  $T[n] = aT(\frac{n}{b}) + f(n)$ .

- Case 1:  $f(n) = O(n^{\log_b a \epsilon})$   $T(n) = O(n^{\log_b a})$
- Case 2:  $f(n) = \Theta(n^{\log_b a} \log^k n)$   $T(n) = \Theta(n^{\log_b a} \log^{k+1} n)$
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**Master Theorem:** Recurrence:  $T[n] = aT(\frac{n}{b}) + f(n)$ .

• Case 1: 
$$f(n) = O(n^{\log_b a - \epsilon})$$
  $T(n) = O(n^{\log_b a})$ 

• Case 2:  $f(n) = \Theta(n^{\log_b a} \log^k n)$   $T(n) = \Theta(n^{\log_b a} \log^{k+1} n)$ 

• Case 3:  $f(n) = \Omega(n^{\log_b a + \epsilon})$   $T(n) = \Theta(f(n))$ 

In our case a = 4, b = 2, and  $f(n) = \Theta(n)$ . Hence, we are in Case 1, since  $n = O(n^{2-\epsilon}) = O(n^{\log_b a - \epsilon})$ .



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We get a running time of  $\mathcal{O}(n^2)$  for our algorithm.



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We get a running time of  $\mathcal{O}(n^2)$  for our algorithm.

 $\Rightarrow$  Not better then the "school method".



We can use the following identity to compute  $Z_1$ :



6.2 Master Theorem

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We can use the following identity to compute  $Z_1$ :

 $Z_1 = A_1 B_0 + A_0 B_1$ =  $(A_0 + A_1) \cdot (B_0 + B_1) - A_1 B_1 - A_0 B_0$ 



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$$Z_1 = A_1 B_0 + A_0 B_1 = Z_2 = Z_0$$
  
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Hence,

Algorithm 4 mult(A,B)			
1: if $ A  =  B  = 1$ then			
2: <b>return</b> $a_0 \cdot b_0$			
3: split $A$ into $A_0$ and $A_1$			
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5: $Z_2 \leftarrow \operatorname{mult}(A_1, B_1)$			
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8: return $Z_2 \cdot 2^n + Z_1 \cdot 2^{\frac{n}{2}} + Z_0$			



We can use the following identity to compute  $Z_1$ :

$$Z_1 = A_1 B_0 + A_0 B_1 = Z_2 = Z_0$$
  
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Hence,

 Algorithm 4 mult(A, B)
 0 

 1: if |A| = |B| = 1 then
 0 

 2: return  $a_0 \cdot b_0$  a 

 3: split A into  $A_0$  and  $A_1$  a 

 4: split B into  $B_0$  and  $B_1$  a 

 5:  $Z_2 \leftarrow mult(A_1, B_1)$  a 

 6:  $Z_0 \leftarrow mult(A_0, B_0)$   $Z_1 \leftarrow mult(A_0 + A_1, B_0 + B_1) - Z_2 - Z_0$  

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6.2 Master Theorem

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$$Z_1 = A_1 B_0 + A_0 B_1 = Z_2 = Z_0$$
  
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Hence,

 Algorithm 4 mult(A, B)
 0(1)

 1: if |A| = |B| = 1 then
 0(1)

 2: return  $a_0 \cdot b_0$  0(1)

 3: split A into  $A_0$  and  $A_1$  0(1)

 4: split B into  $B_0$  and  $B_1$  5:

 5:  $Z_2 \leftarrow mult(A_1, B_1)$  6:  $Z_0 \leftarrow mult(A_0, B_0)$  

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Hence,

 Algorithm 4 mult(A, B)
 0(1)

 1: if |A| = |B| = 1 then
 0(1)

 2: return  $a_0 \cdot b_0$  0(1)

 3: split A into  $A_0$  and  $A_1$  0(n)

 4: split B into  $B_0$  and  $B_1$  0(n)

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 4: split B into  $B_0$  and  $B_1$  0(n)

 5:  $Z_2 \leftarrow mult(A_1, B_1)$  0(n)

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Algorithm 4 mult(A,B)	
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3: split $A$ into $A_0$ and $A_1$	$\mathcal{O}(n$
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5: $Z_2 \leftarrow \operatorname{mult}(A_1, B_1)$	$T(\frac{n}{2})$
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We get the following recurrence:

$$T(n) = 3T\left(\frac{n}{2}\right) + \mathcal{O}(n) \ .$$



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- Case 1:  $f(n) = O(n^{\log_b a \epsilon})$   $T(n) = \Theta(n^{\log_b a})$
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Again we are in Case 1. We get a running time of  $\Theta(n^{\log_2 3}) \approx \Theta(n^{1.59})$ .



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Again we are in Case 1. We get a running time of  $\Theta(n^{\log_2 3}) \approx \Theta(n^{1.59})$ .

#### A huge improvement over the "school method".



Consider the recurrence relation:

 $c_0T(n) + c_1T(n-1) + c_2T(n-2) + \cdots + c_kT(n-k) = f(n)$ 



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T(n) only depends on the k preceding values. This means the recurrence relation is of order k.



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- ▶ The recurrence is linear as there are no products of *T*[*n*]'s.



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- The recurrence is linear as there are no products of T[n]'s.
- If f(n) = 0 then the recurrence relation becomes a linear, homogenous recurrence relation of order k.



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- The recurrence is linear as there are no products of T[n]'s.
- ▶ If f(n) = 0 then the recurrence relation becomes a linear, homogenous recurrence relation of order *k*.

Note that we ignore boundary conditions for the moment.



**Observations:** 



6.3 The Characteristic Polynomial

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#### **Observations:**

The solution T[1], T[2], T[3],... is completely determined by a set of boundary conditions that specify values for T[1],...,T[k].



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Approach:



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- The solution T[1], T[2], T[3],... is completely determined by a set of boundary conditions that specify values for T[1],...,T[k].
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- k non-concecutive values might not be an appropriate set of boundary conditions (depends on the problem).

#### Approach:

First determine all solutions that satisfy recurrence relation.



### **Observations:**

- The solution T[1], T[2], T[3],... is completely determined by a set of boundary conditions that specify values for T[1],...,T[k].
- In fact, any k consecutive values completely determine the solution.
- k non-concecutive values might not be an appropriate set of boundary conditions (depends on the problem).

### Approach:

- First determine all solutions that satisfy recurrence relation.
- Then pick the right one by analyzing boundary conditions.



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### Approach:

- First determine all solutions that satisfy recurrence relation.
- Then pick the right one by analyzing boundary conditions.
- First consider the homogenous case.



The solution space

 $S = \left\{ \mathcal{T} = T[1], T[2], T[3], \dots \mid \mathcal{T} \text{ fulfills recurrence relation} \right\}$ 

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We guess that the solution is of the form  $\lambda^n$ ,  $\lambda \neq 0$ , and see what happens.



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#### How do we find a non-trivial solution?

We guess that the solution is of the form  $\lambda^n$ ,  $\lambda \neq 0$ , and see what happens. In order for this guess to fulfill the recurrence we need

$$c_0\lambda^n + c_1\lambda^{n-1} + c_2 \cdot \lambda^{n-2} + \dots + c_k \cdot \lambda^{n-k} = 0$$

for all  $n \ge k$ .



Dividing by  $\lambda^{n-k}$  gives that all these constraints are identical to

 $c_0\lambda^k + c_1\lambda^{k-1} + c_2 \cdot \lambda^{k-2} + \dots + c_k = 0$ 



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This means that if  $\lambda_i$  is a root (Nullstelle) of  $P[\lambda]$  then  $T[n] = \lambda_i^n$  is a solution to the recurrence relation.

Let  $\lambda_1, ..., \lambda_k$  be the k (complex) roots of  $P[\lambda]$ . Then, because of the vector space property

$$\alpha_1\lambda_1^n + \alpha_2\lambda_2^n + \cdots + \alpha_k\lambda_k^n$$

is a solution for arbitrary values  $\alpha_i$ .



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Lemma 6

Assume that the characteristic polynomial has k distinct roots  $\lambda_1, \ldots, \lambda_k$ . Then all solutions to the recurrence relation are of the form

$$\alpha_1\lambda_1^n + \alpha_2\lambda_2^n + \cdots + \alpha_k\lambda_k^n$$
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Lemma 6

Assume that the characteristic polynomial has k distinct roots  $\lambda_1, \ldots, \lambda_k$ . Then all solutions to the recurrence relation are of the form

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#### Proof.

There is one solution for every possible choice of boundary conditions for  $T[1], \ldots, T[k]$ .



Lemma 6

Assume that the characteristic polynomial has k distinct roots  $\lambda_1, \ldots, \lambda_k$ . Then all solutions to the recurrence relation are of the form

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There is one solution for every possible choice of boundary conditions for  $T[1], \ldots, T[k]$ .

We show that the above set of solutions contains one solution for every choice of boundary conditions.



#### Proof (cont.).



#### Proof (cont.).

Suppose I am given boundary conditions T[i] and I want to see whether I can choose the  $\alpha'_i s$  such that these conditions are met:

 $\alpha_1 \cdot \lambda_1 + \alpha_2 \cdot \lambda_2 + \cdots + \alpha_k \cdot \lambda_k = T[1]$ 



#### Proof (cont.).

$$\alpha_1 \cdot \lambda_1 + \alpha_2 \cdot \lambda_2 + \cdots + \alpha_k \cdot \lambda_k = T[1]$$
  
$$\alpha_1 \cdot \lambda_1^2 + \alpha_2 \cdot \lambda_2^2 + \cdots + \alpha_k \cdot \lambda_k^2 = T[2]$$



#### Proof (cont.).

$$\alpha_1 \cdot \lambda_1 + \alpha_2 \cdot \lambda_2 + \cdots + \alpha_k \cdot \lambda_k = T[1] \alpha_1 \cdot \lambda_1^2 + \alpha_2 \cdot \lambda_2^2 + \cdots + \alpha_k \cdot \lambda_k^2 = T[2] \vdots$$



#### Proof (cont.).

$$\begin{aligned} \alpha_1 \cdot \lambda_1 &+ \alpha_2 \cdot \lambda_2 &+ \cdots &+ \alpha_k \cdot \lambda_k &= T[1] \\ \alpha_1 \cdot \lambda_1^2 &+ \alpha_2 \cdot \lambda_2^2 &+ \cdots &+ \alpha_k \cdot \lambda_k^2 &= T[2] \\ & & \vdots \\ \alpha_1 \cdot \lambda_1^k &+ \alpha_2 \cdot \lambda_2^k &+ \cdots &+ \alpha_k \cdot \lambda_k^k &= T[k] \end{aligned}$$



#### Proof (cont.).

Suppose I am given boundary conditions T[i] and I want to see whether I can choose the  $\alpha'_i$ s such that these conditions are met:

$$\begin{pmatrix} \lambda_1 & \lambda_2 & \cdots & \lambda_k \\ \lambda_1^2 & \lambda_2^2 & \cdots & \lambda_k^2 \\ & \vdots & & \\ \lambda_1^k & \lambda_2^k & \cdots & \lambda_k^k \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \alpha_1 \\ \alpha_2 \\ \vdots \\ \alpha_k \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} T[1] \\ T[2] \\ \vdots \\ T[k] \end{pmatrix}$$



6.3 The Characteristic Polynomial

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#### Proof (cont.).

Suppose I am given boundary conditions T[i] and I want to see whether I can choose the  $\alpha'_i s$  such that these conditions are met:

$$\begin{pmatrix} \lambda_1 & \lambda_2 & \cdots & \lambda_k \\ \lambda_1^2 & \lambda_2^2 & \cdots & \lambda_k^2 \\ & \vdots & & \\ \lambda_1^k & \lambda_2^k & \cdots & \lambda_k^k \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \alpha_1 \\ \alpha_2 \\ \vdots \\ \alpha_k \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} T[1] \\ T[2] \\ \vdots \\ T[k] \end{pmatrix}$$

We show that the column vectors are linearly independent. Then the above equation has a solution.



$$\begin{vmatrix} \lambda_1 & \lambda_2 & \cdots & \lambda_{k-1} & \lambda_k \\ \lambda_1^2 & \lambda_2^2 & \cdots & \lambda_{k-1}^2 & \lambda_k^2 \\ \vdots & \vdots & & \vdots & \vdots \\ \lambda_1^k & \lambda_2^k & \cdots & \lambda_{k-1}^k & \lambda_k^k \end{vmatrix} =$$



$$\begin{vmatrix} \lambda_1 & \lambda_2 & \cdots & \lambda_{k-1} & \lambda_k \\ \lambda_1^2 & \lambda_2^2 & \cdots & \lambda_{k-1}^2 & \lambda_k^2 \\ \vdots & \vdots & & \vdots & \vdots \\ \lambda_1^k & \lambda_2^k & \cdots & \lambda_{k-1}^k & \lambda_k^k \end{vmatrix} = \prod_{i=1}^k \lambda_i \cdot \begin{vmatrix} 1 & 1 & \cdots & 1 & 1 \\ \lambda_1 & \lambda_2 & \cdots & \lambda_{k-1} & \lambda_k \\ \vdots & \vdots & & \vdots & \vdots \\ \lambda_1^{k-1} & \lambda_2^{k-1} & \cdots & \lambda_{k-1}^{k-1} & \lambda_k^{k-1} \end{vmatrix}$$



6.3 The Characteristic Polynomial

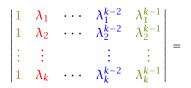
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$$\begin{vmatrix} \lambda_{1} & \lambda_{2} & \cdots & \lambda_{k-1} & \lambda_{k} \\ \lambda_{1}^{2} & \lambda_{2}^{2} & \cdots & \lambda_{k-1}^{2} & \lambda_{k}^{2} \\ \vdots & \vdots & & \vdots & \vdots \\ \lambda_{1}^{k} & \lambda_{2}^{k} & \cdots & \lambda_{k-1}^{k} & \lambda_{k}^{k} \end{vmatrix} = \prod_{i=1}^{k} \lambda_{i} \cdot \begin{vmatrix} 1 & 1 & \cdots & 1 & 1 \\ \lambda_{1} & \lambda_{2} & \cdots & \lambda_{k-1} & \lambda_{k} \\ \vdots & \vdots & & \vdots & \vdots \\ \lambda_{1}^{k-1} & \lambda_{2}^{k-1} & \cdots & \lambda_{k-1}^{k-1} & \lambda_{k}^{k-1} \end{vmatrix}$$
$$= \prod_{i=1}^{k} \lambda_{i} \cdot \begin{vmatrix} 1 & \lambda_{1} & \cdots & \lambda_{1}^{k-2} & \lambda_{i-1}^{k-1} \\ \lambda_{1}^{k-1} & \lambda_{2}^{k-1} & \cdots & \lambda_{k-1}^{k-2} & \lambda_{k}^{k-1} \\ 1 & \lambda_{2} & \cdots & \lambda_{k-2}^{k-2} & \lambda_{k}^{k-1} \\ \vdots & \vdots & & \vdots & \vdots \\ 1 & \lambda_{k} & \cdots & \lambda_{k}^{k-2} & \lambda_{k}^{k-1} \end{vmatrix}$$



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6.3 The Characteristic Polynomial

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$$\begin{vmatrix} \lambda_{1} & \cdots & \lambda_{1}^{k-2} & \lambda_{1}^{k-1} \\ 1 & \lambda_{2} & \cdots & \lambda_{2}^{k-2} & \lambda_{2}^{k-1} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ 1 & \lambda_{k} & \cdots & \lambda_{k}^{k-2} & \lambda_{k}^{k-1} \end{vmatrix} = \\ \begin{vmatrix} 1 & \lambda_{1} - \lambda_{1} \cdot 1 & \cdots & \lambda_{1}^{k-2} - \lambda_{1} \cdot \lambda_{1}^{k-3} & \lambda_{1}^{k-1} - \lambda_{1} \cdot \lambda_{1}^{k-2} \\ 1 & \lambda_{2} - \lambda_{1} \cdot 1 & \cdots & \lambda_{2}^{k-2} - \lambda_{1} \cdot \lambda_{2}^{k-3} & \lambda_{2}^{k-1} - \lambda_{1} \cdot \lambda_{2}^{k-2} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ 1 & \lambda_{k} - \lambda_{1} \cdot 1 & \cdots & \lambda_{k}^{k-2} - \lambda_{1} \cdot \lambda_{k}^{k-3} & \lambda_{k}^{k-1} - \lambda_{1} \cdot \lambda_{k}^{k-2} \end{vmatrix}$$



6.3 The Characteristic Polynomial

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$$\begin{vmatrix} 1 & \lambda_1 - \lambda_1 \cdot 1 & \cdots & \lambda_1^{k-2} - \lambda_1 \cdot \lambda_1^{k-3} & \lambda_1^{k-1} - \lambda_1 \cdot \lambda_1^{k-2} \\ 1 & \lambda_2 - \lambda_1 \cdot 1 & \cdots & \lambda_2^{k-2} - \lambda_1 \cdot \lambda_2^{k-3} & \lambda_2^{k-1} - \lambda_1 \cdot \lambda_2^{k-2} \\ \vdots & \vdots & & \vdots \\ 1 & \lambda_k - \lambda_1 \cdot 1 & \cdots & \lambda_k^{k-2} - \lambda_1 \cdot \lambda_k^{k-3} & \lambda_k^{k-1} - \lambda_1 \cdot \lambda_k^{k-2} \end{vmatrix} =$$



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$$\begin{vmatrix} 1 & 0 & \cdots & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & (\lambda_2 - \lambda_1) \cdot \mathbf{1} & \cdots & (\lambda_2 - \lambda_1) \cdot \lambda_2^{k-3} & (\lambda_2 - \lambda_1) \cdot \lambda_2^{k-2} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ 1 & (\lambda_k - \lambda_1) \cdot \mathbf{1} & \cdots & (\lambda_k - \lambda_1) \cdot \lambda_k^{k-3} & (\lambda_k - \lambda_1) \cdot \lambda_k^{k-2} \end{vmatrix} =$$



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Repeating the above steps gives:

$$\begin{vmatrix} \lambda_1 & \lambda_2 & \cdots & \lambda_{k-1} & \lambda_k \\ \lambda_1^2 & \lambda_2^2 & \cdots & \lambda_{k-1}^2 & \lambda_k^2 \\ \vdots & \vdots & & \vdots & \vdots \\ \lambda_1^k & \lambda_2^k & \cdots & \lambda_{k-1}^k & \lambda_k^k \end{vmatrix} = \prod_{i=1}^k \lambda_i \cdot \prod_{i>\ell} (\lambda_i - \lambda_\ell)$$

Hence, if all  $\lambda_i$ 's are different, then the determinant is non-zero.



What happens if the roots are not all distinct?



#### What happens if the roots are not all distinct?

Suppose we have a root  $\lambda_i$  with multiplicity (Vielfachheit) at least 2. Then not only is  $\lambda_i^n$  a solution to the recurrence but also  $n\lambda_i^n$ .



#### What happens if the roots are not all distinct?

Suppose we have a root  $\lambda_i$  with multiplicity (Vielfachheit) at least 2. Then not only is  $\lambda_i^n$  a solution to the recurrence but also  $n\lambda_i^n$ . To see this consider the polynomial

$$P[\lambda] \cdot \lambda^{n-k} = c_0 \lambda^n + c_1 \lambda^{n-1} + c_2 \lambda^{n-2} + \dots + c_k \lambda^{n-k}$$



#### What happens if the roots are not all distinct?

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$$P[\lambda] \cdot \lambda^{n-k} = c_0 \lambda^n + c_1 \lambda^{n-1} + c_2 \lambda^{n-2} + \dots + c_k \lambda^{n-k}$$

Since  $\lambda_i$  is a root we can write this as  $Q[\lambda] \cdot (\lambda - \lambda_i)^2$ . Calculating the derivative gives a polynomial that still has root  $\lambda_i$ .



#### This means

$$c_0 n \lambda_i^{n-1} + c_1 (n-1) \lambda_i^{n-2} + \dots + c_k (n-k) \lambda_i^{n-k-1} = 0$$



#### This means

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#### Hence,

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#### Hence,

$$c_0 \underbrace{n\lambda_i^n}_{T[n]} + c_1 \underbrace{(n-1)\lambda_i^{n-1}}_{T[n-1]} + \cdots + c_k \underbrace{(n-k)\lambda_i^{n-k}}_{T[n-k]} = 0$$



6.3 The Characteristic Polynomial

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Suppose  $\lambda_i$  has multiplicity j.



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(after taking the derivative; multiplying with  $\lambda$ ; plugging in  $\lambda_i$ )



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Doing this again gives

$$c_0 n^2 \lambda_i^n + c_1 (n-1)^2 \lambda_i^{n-1} + \dots + c_k (n-k)^2 \lambda_i^{n-k} = 0$$



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We can continue j-1 times.

Hence,  $n^{\ell}\lambda_i^n$  is a solution for  $\ell \in 0, ..., j-1$ .



**Lemma 7** *Let*  $P[\lambda]$  *denote the characteristic polynomial to the recurrence* 

 $c_0T[n] + c_1T[n-1] + \cdots + c_kT[n-k] = 0$ 

Let  $\lambda_i$ , i = 1, ..., m be the (complex) roots of  $P[\lambda]$  with multiplicities  $\ell_i$ . Then the general solution to the recurrence is given by

$$T[n] = \sum_{i=1}^{m} \sum_{j=0}^{\ell_i - 1} \alpha_{ij} \cdot (n^j \lambda_i^n) .$$

The full proof is omitted. We have only shown that any choice of  $\alpha_{ij}$ 's is a solution to the recurrence.



T[0] = 0 T[1] = 1T[n] = T[n-1] + T[n-2] for  $n \ge 2$ 



$$T[0] = 0$$
  
 $T[1] = 1$   
 $T[n] = T[n-1] + T[n-2]$  for  $n \ge 2$ 

The characteristic polynomial is

 $\lambda^2-\lambda-1$ 



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The characteristic polynomial is

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Finding the roots, gives

$$\lambda_{1/2} = \frac{1}{2} \pm \sqrt{\frac{1}{4} + 1} = \frac{1}{2} \left( 1 \pm \sqrt{5} \right)$$



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Hence, the solution is of the form

$$\alpha \left(\frac{1+\sqrt{5}}{2}\right)^n + \beta \left(\frac{1-\sqrt{5}}{2}\right)^n$$



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T[0] = 0 gives  $\alpha + \beta = 0$ .



6.3 The Characteristic Polynomial

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Hence, the solution is of the form

$$\alpha \left(\frac{1+\sqrt{5}}{2}\right)^n + \beta \left(\frac{1-\sqrt{5}}{2}\right)^n$$

T[0] = 0 gives  $\alpha + \beta = 0$ .

T[1] = 1 gives

$$\alpha\left(\frac{1+\sqrt{5}}{2}\right) + \beta\left(\frac{1-\sqrt{5}}{2}\right) = 1$$



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## **Example: Fibonacci Sequence**

Hence, the solution is of the form

$$\alpha \left(\frac{1+\sqrt{5}}{2}\right)^n + \beta \left(\frac{1-\sqrt{5}}{2}\right)^n$$

T[0] = 0 gives  $\alpha + \beta = 0$ .

T[1] = 1 gives

$$\alpha\left(\frac{1+\sqrt{5}}{2}\right)+\beta\left(\frac{1-\sqrt{5}}{2}\right)=1 \Longrightarrow \alpha-\beta=\frac{2}{\sqrt{5}}$$



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## **Example: Fibonacci Sequence**

Hence, the solution is

$$\frac{1}{\sqrt{5}} \left[ \left( \frac{1+\sqrt{5}}{2} \right)^n - \left( \frac{1-\sqrt{5}}{2} \right)^n \right]$$



6.3 The Characteristic Polynomial

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Consider the recurrence relation:

 $c_0 T(n) + c_1 T(n-1) + c_2 T(n-2) + \dots + c_k T(n-k) = f(n)$ with  $f(n) \neq 0$ .

While we have a fairly general technique for solving homogeneous, linear recurrence relations the inhomogeneous case is different.



The general solution of the recurrence relation is

 $T(n) = T_h(n) + T_p(n) ,$ 

where  $T_h$  is any solution to the homogeneous equation, and  $T_p$  is one particular solution to the inhomogeneous equation.



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 $T(n) = T_h(n) + T_p(n) ,$ 

where  $T_h$  is any solution to the homogeneous equation, and  $T_p$  is one particular solution to the inhomogeneous equation.

There is no general method to find a particular solution.



Example:

T[n] = T[n-1] + 1 T[0] = 1



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Subtracting the first from the second equation gives,

$$T[n] - T[n-1] = T[n-1] - T[n-2] \qquad (n \ge 2)$$



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Subtracting the first from the second equation gives,

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or

$$T[n] = 2T[n-1] - T[n-2] \qquad (n \ge 2)$$

I get a completely determined recurrence if I add T[0] = 1 and T[1] = 2.



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Example: Characteristic polynomial:

 $\lambda^2 - 2\lambda + 1 = 0$ 



Example: Characteristic polynomial:

$$\underbrace{\lambda^2 - 2\lambda + 1}_{(\lambda - 1)^2} = 0$$



Example: Characteristic polynomial:

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Then the solution is of the form

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6.3 The Characteristic Polynomial

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T[1] = 2 gives  $1 + \beta = 2 \Longrightarrow \beta = 1$ .



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and so on...

#### **Definition 8 (Generating Function)**

Let  $(a_n)_{n\geq 0}$  be a sequence. The corresponding

generating function (Erzeugendenfunktion) is

$$F(z) := \sum_{n \ge 0} a_n z^n ;$$



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 exponential generating function (exponentielle Erzeugendenfunktion) is

$$F(z) := \sum_{n \ge 0} \frac{a_n}{n!} z^n$$



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#### Example 9

**1.** The generating function of the sequence  $(1, 0, 0, \ldots)$  is

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### **2.** The generating function of the sequence (1, 1, 1, ...) is

$$F(z)=\frac{1}{1-z}.$$



6.4 Generating Functions

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There are two different views:



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There are no convergence issues here.



The arithmetic view:



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We view a power series as a function  $f : \mathbb{C} \to \mathbb{C}$ .



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Then, it is important to think about convergence/convergence radius etc.



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It means that the power series 1 - z and the power series  $\sum_{n \ge 0} z^n$  are invers, i.e.,

$$(1-z)\cdot \left(\sum_{n\geq 0}^{\infty}z^n\right)=1$$
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6.4 Generating Functions

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This is well-defined.



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Hence, the generating function of the sequence  $a_n = n + 1$  is  $1/(1-z)^2$ .



We can repeat this



6.4 Generating Functions

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$$\sum_{n\geq 0} (n+1)z^n = \frac{1}{(1-z)^2} \; .$$



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$$\sum_{n\geq 0} (n+1)z^n = \frac{1}{(1-z)^2} \; .$$

Derivative:  

$$\sum_{\substack{n \ge 1 \\ \sum_{n > 0} (n+1)(n+2)z^n}} n(n+1)z^{n-1} = \frac{2}{(1-z)^3}$$

Hence, the generating function of the sequence  $a_n = (n+1)(n+2)$  is  $\frac{2}{(1-z)^3}$ .



Computing the *k*-th derivative of  $\sum z^n$ .



6.4 Generating Functions

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Computing the *k*-th derivative of  $\sum z^n$ .

$$\sum_{n \ge k} n(n-1) \cdot \ldots \cdot (n-k+1) z^{n-k} = \sum_{n \ge 0} (n+k) \cdot \ldots \cdot (n+1) z^n$$
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6.4 Generating Functions

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Hence:

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The generating function of the sequence  $a_n = \binom{n+k}{k}$  is  $\frac{1}{(1-z)^{k+1}}$ .



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6.4 Generating Functions

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6.4 Generating Functions

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The generating function of the sequence  $a_n = n$  is  $\frac{z}{(1-z)^2}$ .



6.4 Generating Functions

We know

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$$\sum_{n\geq 0} \mathcal{Y}^n = \frac{1}{1-\mathcal{Y}}$$

Hence,

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The generating function of the sequence  $f_n = a^n$  is  $\frac{1}{1-az}$ .



Suppose we have the recurrence  $a_n = a_{n-1} + 1$  for  $n \ge 1$  and  $a_0 = 1$ .

A(z)



$$A(z) = \sum_{n \ge 0} a_n z^n$$



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=  $1 + z \sum_{n \ge 1} a_{n-1} z^{n-1} + \sum_{n \ge 1} z^n$ 



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Hence,  $a_n = n + 1$ .



n-th sequence element	generating function



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1	$\frac{1}{1-z}$



n-th sequence element	generating function
1	$\frac{1}{1-z}$
n+1	$\frac{1}{(1-z)^2}$



n-th sequence element	generating function
1	$\frac{1}{1-z}$
n+1	$\frac{1}{(1-z)^2}$
$\binom{n+k}{k}$	$\frac{1}{(1-z)^{k+1}}$



n-th sequence element	generating function
1	$\frac{1}{1-z}$
n+1	$\frac{1}{(1-z)^2}$
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n	$rac{Z}{(1-Z)^2}$



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$\frac{1}{n!}$	e <sup>z</sup>



n-th sequence element	generating function



n-th sequence element	generating function
$cf_n$	cF



generating function
cF
F + G



n-th sequence element	generating function
$cf_n$	cF
$f_n + g_n$	F + G
$\sum_{i=0}^{n} f_i g_{n-i}$	$F \cdot G$



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$\sum_{i=0}^{n} f_i \mathcal{G}_{n-i}$	$F \cdot G$
$f_{n-k}$ $(n \ge k); 0$ otw.	$z^kF$



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$\sum_{i=0}^{n} f_i$	$\frac{F(z)}{1-z}$



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**1.** Set  $A(z) = \sum_{n \ge 0} a_n z^n$ .



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- **1.** Set  $A(z) = \sum_{n \ge 0} a_n z^n$ .
- 2. Transform the right hand side so that boundary condition and recurrence relation can be plugged in.



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- **6.** The coefficients of the resulting power series are the  $a_n$ .



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2. Plug in:

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$$A(z) = 1 + \sum_{n \ge 1} (2a_{n-1})z^n$$
$$= 1 + 2z \sum_{n \ge 1} a_{n-1}z^{n-1}$$



$$A(z) = 1 + \sum_{n \ge 1} (2a_{n-1})z^n$$
  
= 1 + 2z  $\sum_{n \ge 1} a_{n-1}z^{n-1}$   
= 1 + 2z  $\sum_{n \ge 0} a_n z^n$ 



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= 1 + 2z  $\cdot A(z)$ 



**3.** Transform right hand side so that infinite sums can be replaced by A(z) or by simple function.

$$A(z) = 1 + \sum_{n \ge 1} (2a_{n-1})z^n$$
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**4.** Solve for A(z).



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$$A(z) = \frac{1}{1 - 2z}$$



6.4 Generating Functions

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**5.** Rewrite f(z) as a power series:

$$A(z) = \frac{1}{1 - 2z}$$



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1. Set up generating function:



1. Set up generating function:

$$A(z) = \sum_{n \ge 0} a_n z^n$$



2./3. Transform right hand side:



6.4 Generating Functions

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$$A(z) = \sum_{n \ge 0} a_n z^n$$



$$A(z) = \sum_{n \ge 0} a_n z^n$$
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$$A(z) = \sum_{n \ge 0} a_n z^n$$
  
=  $a_0 + \sum_{n \ge 1} a_n z^n$   
=  $1 + \sum_{n \ge 1} (3a_{n-1} + n) z^n$ 



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=  $a_0 + \sum_{n \ge 1} a_n z^n$   
=  $1 + \sum_{n \ge 1} (3a_{n-1} + n) z^n$   
=  $1 + 3z \sum_{n \ge 1} a_{n-1} z^{n-1} + \sum_{n \ge 1} n z^n$ 



2./3. Transform right hand side:

$$A(z) = \sum_{n \ge 0} a_n z^n$$
  
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=  $1 + 3z \sum_{n \ge 0} a_n z^n + \sum_{n \ge 0} n z^n$ 



6.4 Generating Functions

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2./3. Transform right hand side:

$$A(z) = \sum_{n \ge 0} a_n z^n$$
  
=  $a_0 + \sum_{n \ge 1} a_n z^n$   
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=  $1 + 3z \sum_{n \ge 1} a_{n-1} z^{n-1} + \sum_{n \ge 1} n z^n$   
=  $1 + 3z \sum_{n \ge 0} a_n z^n + \sum_{n \ge 0} n z^n$   
=  $1 + 3z A(z) + \frac{z}{(1-z)^2}$ 



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**4.** Solve for A(z):



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gives

$$A(z) = \frac{(1-z)^2 + z}{(1-3z)(1-z)^2}$$



**4.** Solve for A(z):

$$A(z) = 1 + 3zA(z) + \frac{z}{(1-z)^2}$$

gives

$$A(z) = \frac{(1-z)^2 + z}{(1-3z)(1-z)^2} = \frac{z^2 - z + 1}{(1-3z)(1-z)^2}$$



6.4 Generating Functions

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**5.** Write f(z) as a formal power series:

We use partial fraction decomposition:



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$$\frac{z^2 - z + 1}{(1 - 3z)(1 - z)^2} \stackrel{!}{=} \frac{A}{1 - 3z} + \frac{B}{1 - z} + \frac{C}{(1 - z)^2}$$



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This gives

$$z^{2} - z + 1 = A(1 - z)^{2} + B(1 - 3z)(1 - z) + C(1 - 3z)$$



6.4 Generating Functions

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This gives

$$z^{2} - z + 1 = A(1 - z)^{2} + B(1 - 3z)(1 - z) + C(1 - 3z)$$
$$= A(1 - 2z + z^{2}) + B(1 - 4z + 3z^{2}) + C(1 - 3z)$$



6.4 Generating Functions

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#### This gives

$$z^{2} - z + 1 = A(1 - z)^{2} + B(1 - 3z)(1 - z) + C(1 - 3z)$$
$$= A(1 - 2z + z^{2}) + B(1 - 4z + 3z^{2}) + C(1 - 3z)$$
$$= (A + 3B)z^{2} + (-2A - 4B - 3C)z + (A + B + C)$$



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**5.** Write f(z) as a formal power series:

This leads to the following conditions:

A + B + C = 12A + 4B + 3C = 1A + 3B = 1



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A + B + C = 12A + 4B + 3C = 1A + 3B = 1

which gives

$$A = \frac{7}{4}$$
  $B = -\frac{1}{4}$   $C = -\frac{1}{2}$ 



6.4 Generating Functions

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**5.** Write f(z) as a formal power series:



**5.** Write f(z) as a formal power series:

$$A(z) = \frac{7}{4} \cdot \frac{1}{1 - 3z} - \frac{1}{4} \cdot \frac{1}{1 - z} - \frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{1}{(1 - z)^2}$$



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**5.** Write f(z) as a formal power series:

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$$= \frac{7}{4} \cdot \sum_{n \ge 0} 3^n z^n - \frac{1}{4} \cdot \sum_{n \ge 0} z^n - \frac{1}{2} \cdot \sum_{n \ge 0} (n + 1) z^n$$



### Example: $a_n = 3a_{n-1} + n$ , $a_0 = 1$

**5.** Write f(z) as a formal power series:

$$\begin{aligned} A(z) &= \frac{7}{4} \cdot \frac{1}{1 - 3z} - \frac{1}{4} \cdot \frac{1}{1 - z} - \frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{1}{(1 - z)^2} \\ &= \frac{7}{4} \cdot \sum_{n \ge 0} 3^n z^n - \frac{1}{4} \cdot \sum_{n \ge 0} z^n - \frac{1}{2} \cdot \sum_{n \ge 0} (n + 1) z^n \\ &= \sum_{n \ge 0} \left( \frac{7}{4} \cdot 3^n - \frac{1}{4} - \frac{1}{2} (n + 1) \right) z^n \end{aligned}$$



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=  $\frac{7}{4} \cdot \sum_{n \ge 0} 3^n z^n - \frac{1}{4} \cdot \sum_{n \ge 0} z^n - \frac{1}{2} \cdot \sum_{n \ge 0} (n + 1) z^n$   
=  $\sum_{n \ge 0} \left(\frac{7}{4} \cdot 3^n - \frac{1}{4} - \frac{1}{2}(n + 1)\right) z^n$   
=  $\sum_{n \ge 0} \left(\frac{7}{4} \cdot 3^n - \frac{1}{2}n - \frac{3}{4}\right) z^n$ 



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### Example: $a_n = 3a_{n-1} + n$ , $a_0 = 1$

**5.** Write f(z) as a formal power series:

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6. This means  $a_n = \frac{7}{4}3^n - \frac{1}{2}n - \frac{3}{4}$ .



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#### Example 10

$$\begin{split} f_0 &= 1 \\ f_1 &= 2 \\ f_n &= f_{n-1} \cdot f_{n-2} \text{ for } n \geq 2 \;. \end{split}$$



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#### Define

 $g_n := \log f_n$ .



6.5 Transformation of the Recurrence

#### Example 10

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#### Define

 $g_n := \log f_n$ .

Then

$$g_n = g_{n-1} + g_{n-2}$$
 for  $n \ge 2$ 



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#### Example 10

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$$g_n = g_{n-1} + g_{n-2} \text{ for } n \ge 2$$
  

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$$g_n = F_n \text{ (n-th Fibonacci number)}$$



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Then

$$g_n = g_{n-1} + g_{n-2}$$
 for  $n \ge 2$   
 $g_1 = \log 2 = 1$ (for  $\log = \log_2$ ),  $g_0 = 0$   
 $g_n = F_n$  (*n*-th Fibonacci number)  
 $f_n = 2^{F_n}$ 



### Example 11

$$f_1=1$$
  
 $f_n=3f_{rac{n}{2}}+n; ext{ for } n=2^k, \ k\geq 1 \ ;$ 



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6.5 Transformation of the Recurrence

### Example 11

$$f_1=1$$
  
 $f_n=3f_{rac{n}{2}}+n; ext{ for } n=2^k, \ k\geq 1 \ ;$ 

#### Define

 $g_k \coloneqq f_{2^k}$  .

#### Then:

$$g_0 = 1$$



6.5 Transformation of the Recurrence

### Example 11

$$f_1=1$$
  
 $f_n=3f_{rac{n}{2}}+n; ext{ for } n=2^k, \ k\geq 1 \ ;$ 

#### Define

$$g_k := f_{2^k}$$
 .

#### Then:

$$g_0 = 1$$
  
 $g_k = 3g_{k-1} + 2^k, \ k \ge 1$ 



6.5 Transformation of the Recurrence

We get

$$g_k = 3\left[g_{k-1}\right] + 2^k$$



6.5 Transformation of the Recurrence

We get

$$g_k = 3 [g_{k-1}] + 2^k$$
  
= 3 [3g\_{k-2} + 2^{k-1}] + 2^k



6.5 Transformation of the Recurrence

We get

$$g_{k} = 3 [g_{k-1}] + 2^{k}$$
  
= 3 [3g\_{k-2} + 2^{k-1}] + 2^{k}  
= 3^{2} [g\_{k-2}] + 32^{k-1} + 2^{k}



6.5 Transformation of the Recurrence

We get

$$g_{k} = 3 [g_{k-1}] + 2^{k}$$
  
= 3 [3g\_{k-2} + 2^{k-1}] + 2^{k}  
= 3^{2} [g\_{k-2}] + 32^{k-1} + 2^{k}  
= 3^{2} [3g\_{k-3} + 2^{k-2}] + 32^{k-1} + 2^{k}



6.5 Transformation of the Recurrence

We get

$$g_{k} = 3 [g_{k-1}] + 2^{k}$$
  
= 3 [3g\_{k-2} + 2^{k-1}] + 2^{k}  
= 3^{2} [g\_{k-2}] + 32^{k-1} + 2^{k}  
= 3^{2} [3g\_{k-3} + 2^{k-2}] + 32^{k-1} + 2^{k}  
= 3^{3}g\_{k-3} + 3^{2}2^{k-2} + 32^{k-1} + 2^{k}



6.5 Transformation of the Recurrence

We get

$$g_{k} = 3 [g_{k-1}] + 2^{k}$$

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$$= 3^{2} [3g_{k-3} + 2^{k-2}] + 32^{k-1} + 2^{k}$$

$$= 3^{3}g_{k-3} + 3^{2}2^{k-2} + 32^{k-1} + 2^{k}$$

$$= 2^{k} \cdot \sum_{i=0}^{k} \left(\frac{3}{2}\right)^{i}$$



6.5 Transformation of the Recurrence

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$$= 3^{3}g_{k-3} + 3^{2}2^{k-2} + 32^{k-1} + 2^{k}$$

$$= 2^{k} \cdot \sum_{i=0}^{k} \left(\frac{3}{2}\right)^{i}$$

$$= 2^{k} \cdot \frac{\left(\frac{3}{2}\right)^{k+1} - 1}{\frac{1}{2}}$$



We get

$$g_{k} = 3 [g_{k-1}] + 2^{k}$$

$$= 3 [3g_{k-2} + 2^{k-1}] + 2^{k}$$

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$$= 3^{3}g_{k-3} + 3^{2}2^{k-2} + 32^{k-1} + 2^{k}$$

$$= 2^{k} \cdot \sum_{i=0}^{k} \left(\frac{3}{2}\right)^{i}$$

$$= 2^{k} \cdot \frac{\left(\frac{3}{2}\right)^{k+1} - 1}{\frac{1}{2}} = 3^{k+1} - 2^{k+1}$$



6.5 Transformation of the Recurrence

Let  $n = 2^k$ :

$$g_k = 3^{k+1} - 2^{k+1}$$
, hence  
 $f_n = 3 \cdot 3^k - 2 \cdot 2^k$ 



6.5 Transformation of the Recurrence

Let  $n = 2^k$ :

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 $= 3(2^{\log 3})^k - 2 \cdot 2^k$ 



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Let  $n = 2^k$ :

$$g_k = 3^{k+1} - 2^{k+1}, \text{ hence}$$
  

$$f_n = 3 \cdot 3^k - 2 \cdot 2^k$$
  

$$= 3(2^{\log 3})^k - 2 \cdot 2^k$$
  

$$= 3(2^k)^{\log 3} - 2 \cdot 2^k$$



6.5 Transformation of the Recurrence

Let  $n = 2^k$ :

$$g_k = 3^{k+1} - 2^{k+1}, \text{ hence}$$
  

$$f_n = 3 \cdot 3^k - 2 \cdot 2^k$$
  

$$= 3(2^{\log 3})^k - 2 \cdot 2^k$$
  

$$= 3(2^k)^{\log 3} - 2 \cdot 2^k$$
  

$$= 3n^{\log 3} - 2n .$$



6.5 Transformation of the Recurrence

# Part III

# **Data Structures**



# **Abstract Data Type**

An abstract data type (ADT) is defined by an interface of operations or methods that can be performed and that have a defined behavior.

The data types in this lecture all operate on objects that are represented by a [key, value] pair.

- The key comes from a totally ordered set, and we assume that there is an efficient comparison function.
- The value can be anything; it usually carries satellite information important for the application that uses the ADT.



S. search(k): Returns pointer to object x from S with key[x] = k or null.



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- S. minimum(): Return pointer to object with smallest key-value in S.



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- S. maximum(): Return pointer to object with largest key-value in S.



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- S. insert(x): Inserts object x into set S. key[x] must not currently exist in the data-structure.
- S. delete(x): Given pointer to object x from S, delete x from the set.
- S. minimum(): Return pointer to object with smallest key-value in S.
- S. maximum(): Return pointer to object with largest key-value in S.
- S. successor(x): Return pointer to the next larger element in S or null if x is maximum.



- S. search(k): Returns pointer to object x from S with key[x] = k or null.
- S. insert(x): Inserts object x into set S. key[x] must not currently exist in the data-structure.
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- S. minimum(): Return pointer to object with smallest key-value in S.
- S. maximum(): Return pointer to object with largest key-value in S.
- S. successor(x): Return pointer to the next larger element in S or null if x is maximum.
- S. predecessor(x): Return pointer to the next smaller element in S or null if x is minimum.



S. union(S'): Sets  $S := S \cup S'$ . The set S' is destroyed.



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- S. merge(S'): Sets  $S := S \cup S'$ . Requires  $S \cap S' = \emptyset$ .



### **Dynamic Set Operations**

- S. union(S'): Sets  $S := S \cup S'$ . The set S' is destroyed.
- S. merge(S'): Sets  $S := S \cup S'$ . Requires  $S \cap S' = \emptyset$ .
- ► S. split(k, S'):  $S := \{x \in S \mid \text{key}[x] \le k\}, S' := \{x \in S \mid \text{key}[x] > k\}.$



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- S. concatenate(S'): S := S ∪ S'.
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- S. concatenate(S'): S := S ∪ S'.
   Requires key[S. maximum()] ≤ key[S'.minimum()].
- S. decrease-key(x, k): Replace key[x] by  $k \le key[x]$ .



# **Examples of ADTs**

Stack:

- S. push(x): Insert an element.
- S. pop(): Return the element from S that was inserted most recently; delete it from S.
- **S. empty()**: Tell if S contains any object.

# **Examples of ADTs**

### Stack:

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### Queue:

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# **Examples of ADTs**

### Stack:

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### Queue:

- S. enqueue(x): Insert an element.
- S. dequeue(): Return the element that is longest in the structure; delete it from S.
- S. empty(): Tell if S contains any object.

### Priority-Queue:

- S. insert(x): Insert an element.
- S. delete-min(): Return the element with lowest key-value; delete it from S.

# 7 Dictionary

### Dictionary:

- S. insert(x): Insert an element x.
- ► *S*. delete(*x*): Delete the element pointed to by *x*.
- S. search(k): Return a pointer to an element e with key[e] = k in S if it exists; otherwise return null.



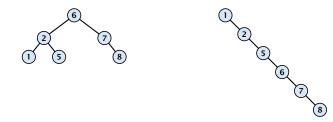
7 Dictionary

## 7.1 Binary Search Trees

An (internal) binary search tree stores the elements in a binary tree. Each tree-node corresponds to an element. All elements in the left sub-tree of a node v have a smaller key-value than key[v] and elements in the right sub-tree have a larger-key value. We assume that all key-values are different.

(External Search Trees store objects only at leaf-vertices)

Examples:





7.1 Binary Search Trees

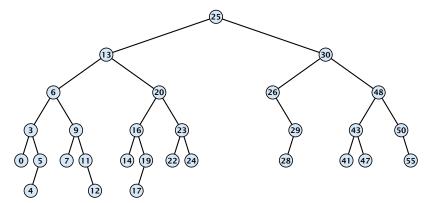
## 7.1 Binary Search Trees

We consider the following operations on binary search trees. Note that this is a super-set of the dictionary-operations.

- T. insert(x)
- ► T. delete(x)
- ► T. search(k)
- T. successor(x)
- ► T. predecessor(x)
- ► T. minimum()
- T. maximum()



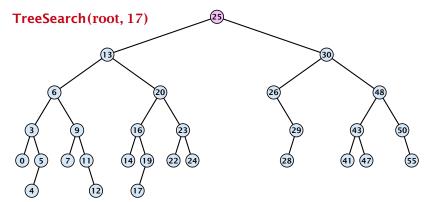
# **Binary Search Trees: Searching**



- 1: if x = null or k = key[x] return x
- 2: **if** *k* < key[*x*] **return** TreeSearch(left[*x*], *k*)
- 3: **else return** TreeSearch(right[*x*], *k*)



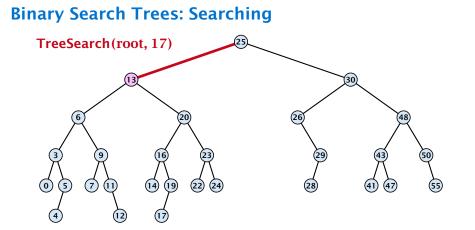
# **Binary Search Trees: Searching**



#### Algorithm 1 TreeSearch(x, k)

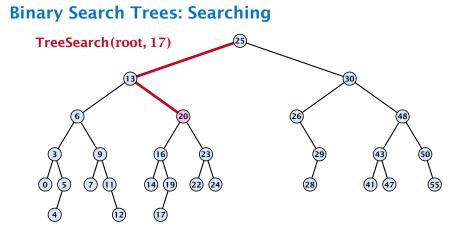
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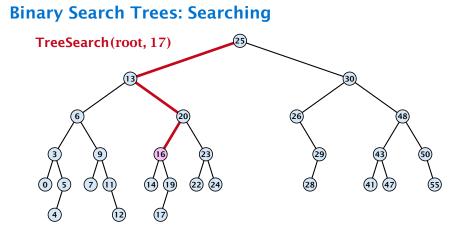
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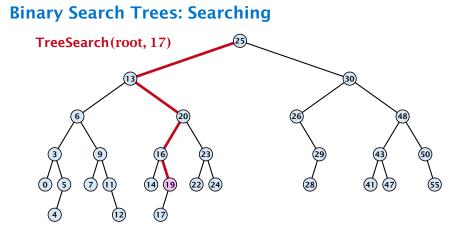
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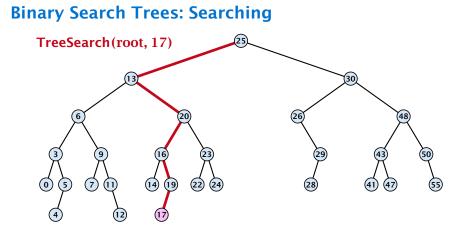
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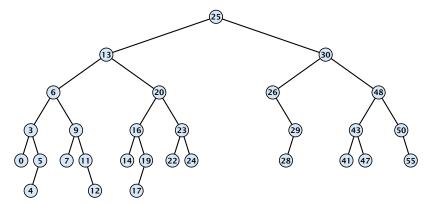




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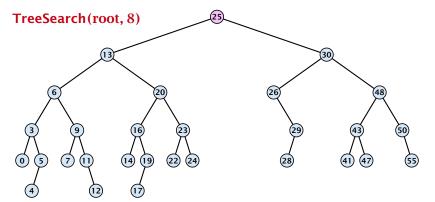


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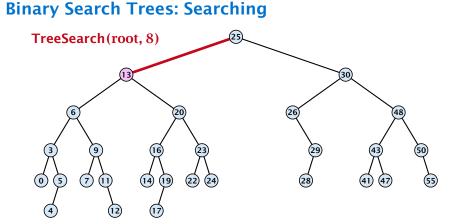


# **Binary Search Trees: Searching**



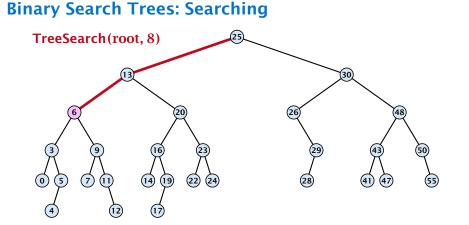
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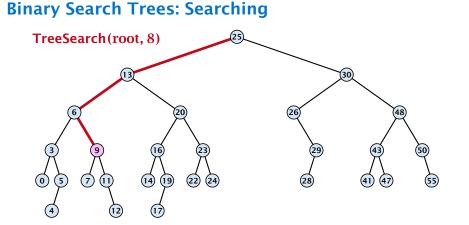
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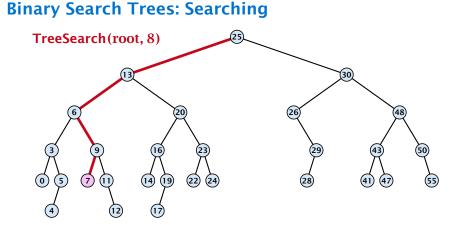
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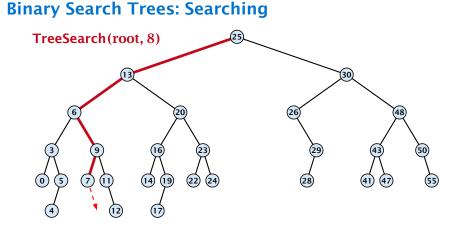
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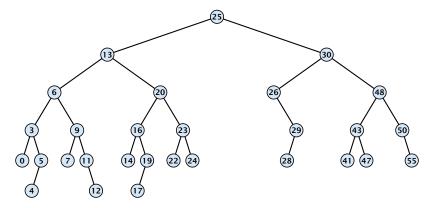
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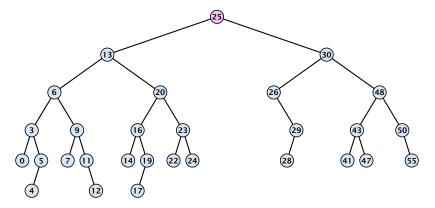


#### **Algorithm 2** TreeMin(*x*)

- 1: if x = null or left[x] = null return x
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7.1 Binary Search Trees

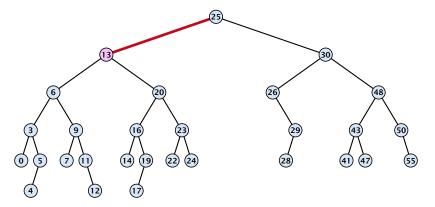


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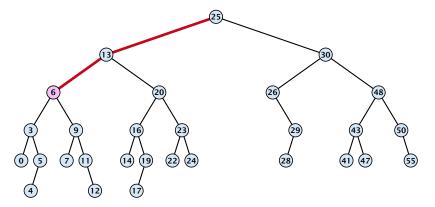


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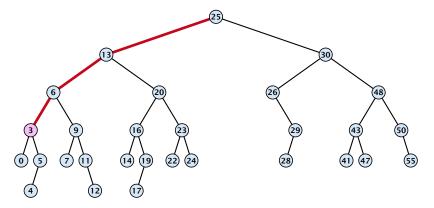


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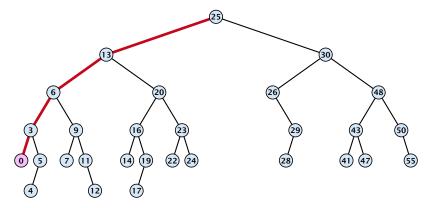


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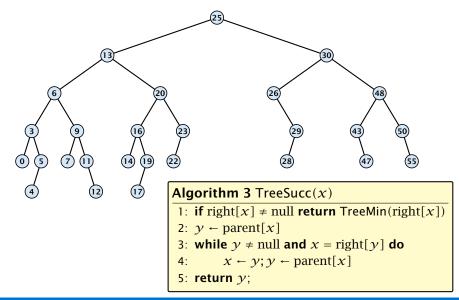


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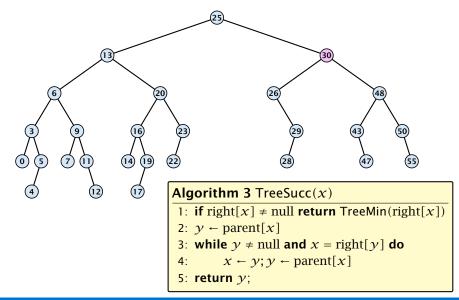


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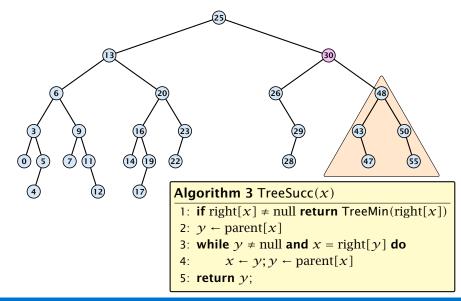


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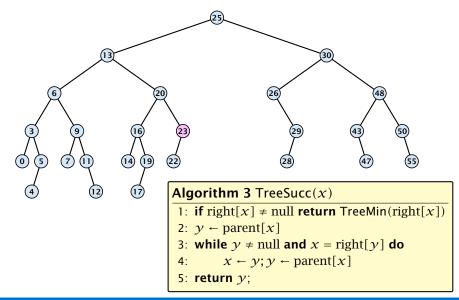


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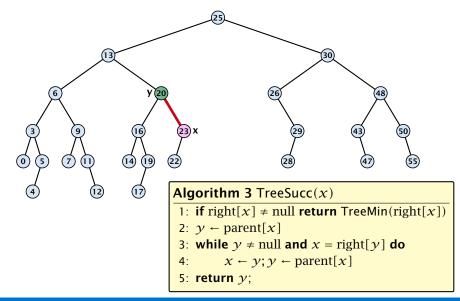


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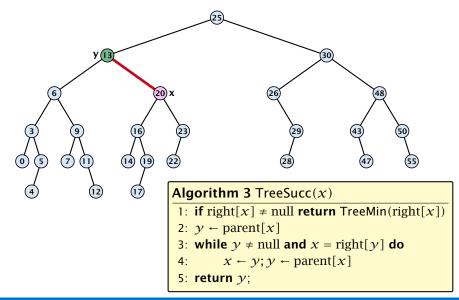


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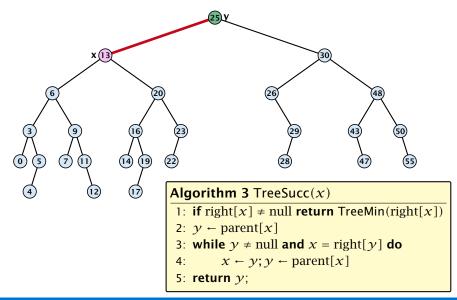


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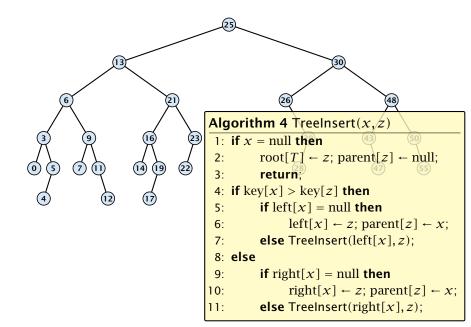
7.1 Binary Search Trees





7.1 Binary Search Trees

## **Binary Search Trees: Insert**



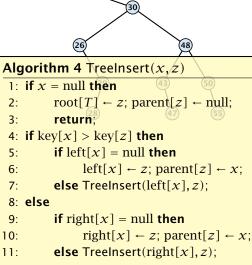
#### **Binary Search Trees: Insert** Insert element **not** in the tree. 13 30 26 48 Algorithm 4 TreeInsert(x,z)23 1: if x =null then 2: $root[T] \leftarrow z; parent[z] \leftarrow null;$ $\bigcirc$ 5 $\overline{7}$ îî (14) (19) 22 3: return 4: if key[x] > key[z] then 5: if left[x] = null then left[x] $\leftarrow z$ ; parent[z] $\leftarrow x$ ; 6: 7: else Treelnsert(left[x], z); 8: else **if** right[x] = null **then** 9: 10: right[x] $\leftarrow$ z; parent[z] $\leftarrow$ x; **else** Treelnsert(right[x], z); 11:

# Binary Search Trees: Insert Insert element not in the tree.

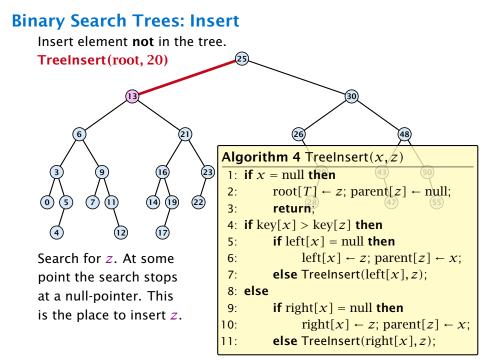
Search for *z*. At some point the search stops at a null-pointer. This is the place to insert *z*.

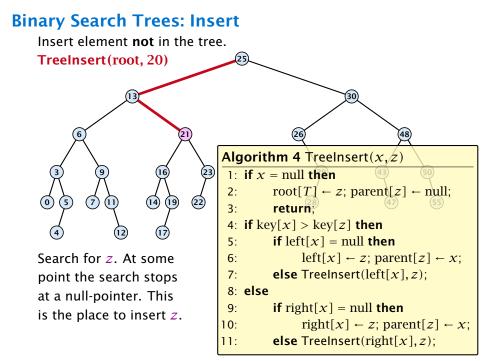
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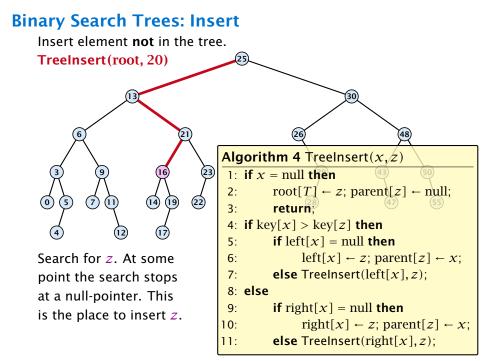
 $\bigcirc$   $\bigcirc$   $\bigcirc$   $\bigcirc$   $\bigcirc$ 

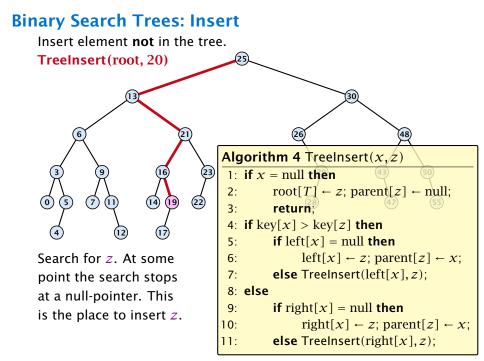


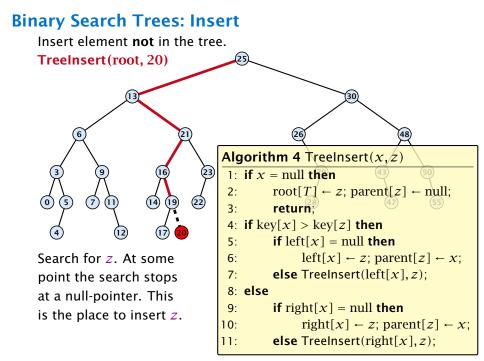
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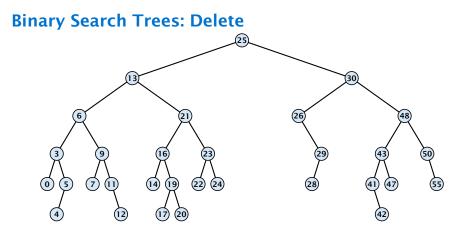


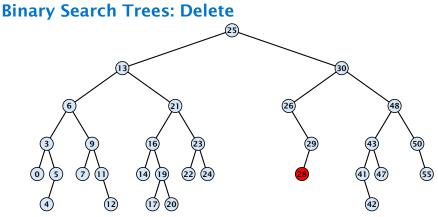








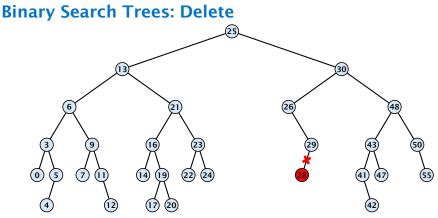




## Case 1:

Element does not have any children

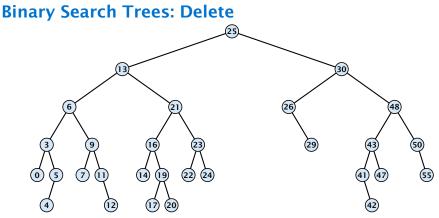
Simply go to the parent and set the corresponding pointer to null.



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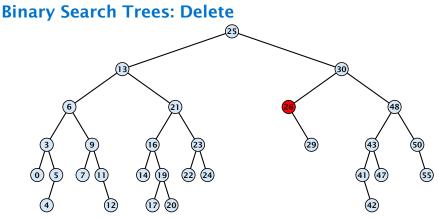
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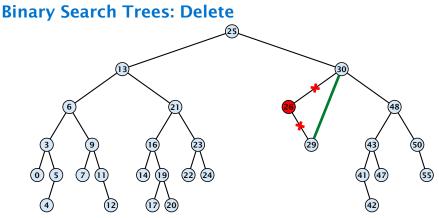
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#### Case 2:

Element has exactly one child

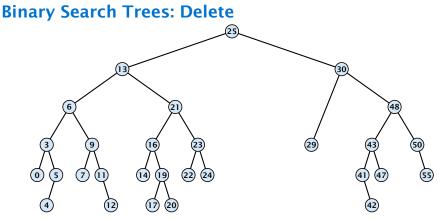
Splice the element out of the tree by connecting its parent to its successor.



#### Case 2:

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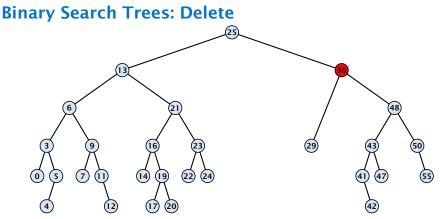
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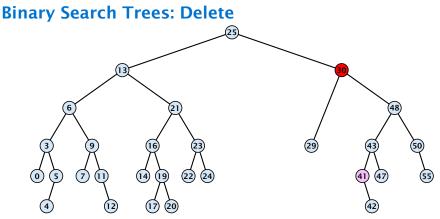
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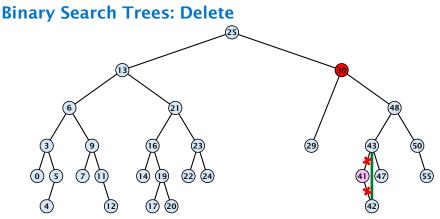
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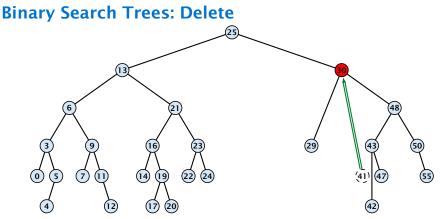
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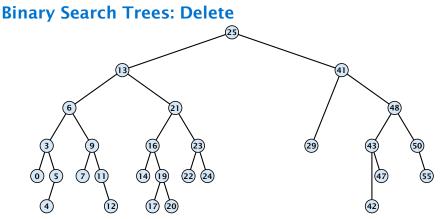
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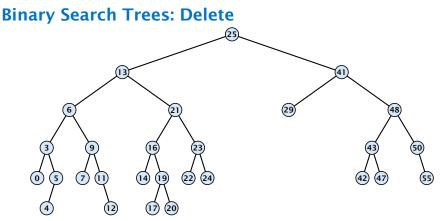
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## **Binary Search Trees: Delete**

```
Algorithm 9 TreeDelete(z)
 1: if left[z] = null or right[z] = null
          then \gamma \leftarrow z else \gamma \leftarrow TreeSucc(z); select \gamma to splice out
 2:
 3: if left[\gamma] \neq null
 4:
          then x \leftarrow \text{left}[y] else x \leftarrow \text{right}[y]; x is child of y (or null)
 5: if x \neq null then parent[x] \leftarrow parent[y]; parent[x] is correct
 6: if parent[\gamma] = null then
 7: \operatorname{root}[T] \leftarrow x
 8: else
 9: if \gamma = \text{left}[\text{parent}[\gamma]] then
                                                                    fix pointer to x
10:
                 left[parent[\gamma]] \leftarrow x
    else
11:
12.
        right[parent[\gamma]] \leftarrow x
13: if \gamma \neq z then copy \gamma-data to z
```





7.1 Binary Search Trees

9. Jan. 2023 1**39/662** 

All operations on a binary search tree can be performed in time  $\mathcal{O}(h)$ , where h denotes the height of the tree.



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With each insert- and delete-operation perform local adjustments to guarantee a height of  $O(\log n)$ .



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## **Balanced Binary Search Trees**

With each insert- and delete-operation perform local adjustments to guarantee a height of  $O(\log n)$ .

AVL-trees, Red-black trees, Scapegoat trees, 2-3 trees, B-trees, AA trees, Treaps

similar: SPLAY trees.



## **Definition 12**



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A red black tree is a balanced binary search tree in which each internal node has two children. Each internal node has a color, such that

1. The root is black.



## **Definition 12**

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- 1. The root is black.
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- **3.** For each node, all paths to descendant leaves contain the same number of black nodes.
- 4. If a node is red then both its children are black.



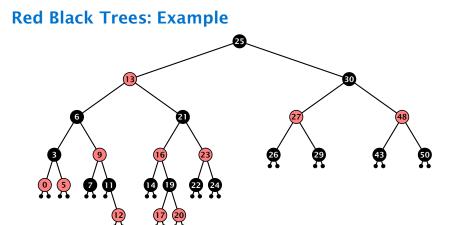
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A red black tree is a balanced binary search tree in which each internal node has two children. Each internal node has a color, such that

- 1. The root is black.
- 2. All leaf nodes are black.
- **3.** For each node, all paths to descendant leaves contain the same number of black nodes.
- 4. If a node is red then both its children are black.

The null-pointers in a binary search tree are replaced by pointers to special null-vertices, that do not carry any object-data







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Lemma 13

A red-black tree with n internal nodes has height at most  $O(\log n)$ .



#### Lemma 13

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#### **Definition 14**

The black height bh(v) of a node v in a red black tree is the number of black nodes on a path from v to a leaf vertex (not counting v).



### Lemma 13

A red-black tree with n internal nodes has height at most  $\mathcal{O}(\log n)$ .

### **Definition 14**

The black height bh(v) of a node v in a red black tree is the number of black nodes on a path from v to a leaf vertex (not counting v).

We first show:

#### Lemma 15

A sub-tree of black height bh(v) in a red black tree contains at least  $2^{bh(v)} - 1$  internal vertices.



Proof of Lemma 15.



7.2 Red Black Trees

Proof of Lemma 15.

Induction on the height of *v*.



7.2 Red Black Trees

### Proof of Lemma 15.

Induction on the height of *v*.

**base case (height**(v) = 0)

If height(v) (maximum distance btw. v and a node in the sub-tree rooted at v) is 0 then v is a leaf.



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Induction on the height of v.

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Induction on the height of v.

**base case (height**(v) = 0)

- If height(v) (maximum distance btw. v and a node in the sub-tree rooted at v) is 0 then v is a leaf.
- The black height of v is 0.
- ► The sub-tree rooted at v contains 0 = 2<sup>bh(v)</sup> 1 inner vertices.



Proof (cont.)



7.2 Red Black Trees

### Proof (cont.)

#### induction step

Supose v is a node with height(v) > 0.



### Proof (cont.)

- Supose v is a node with height(v) > 0.
- $\triangleright$  v has two children with strictly smaller height.



### Proof (cont.)

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- ► These children (c<sub>1</sub>, c<sub>2</sub>) either have bh(c<sub>i</sub>) = bh(v) or bh(c<sub>i</sub>) = bh(v) 1.



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- **b** By induction hypothesis both sub-trees contain at least  $2^{bh(v)-1} 1$  internal vertices.



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- **b** By induction hypothesis both sub-trees contain at least  $2^{bh(v)-1} 1$  internal vertices.
- ► Then  $T_v$  contains at least  $2(2^{bh(v)-1} 1) + 1 \ge 2^{bh(v)} 1$  vertices.



Proof of Lemma 13.



7.2 Red Black Trees

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Let h denote the height of the red-black tree, and let P denote a path from the root to the furthest leaf.



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Hence, the black height of the root is at least h/2.



### Proof of Lemma 13.

Let h denote the height of the red-black tree, and let P denote a path from the root to the furthest leaf.

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The tree contains at least  $2^{h/2} - 1$  internal vertices. Hence,  $2^{h/2} - 1 \le n$ .



### Proof of Lemma 13.

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The tree contains at least  $2^{h/2} - 1$  internal vertices. Hence,  $2^{h/2} - 1 \le n$ .

Hence,  $h \le 2\log(n+1) = \mathcal{O}(\log n)$ .



### **Definition 1**

A red black tree is a balanced binary search tree in which each internal node has two children. Each internal node has a color, such that

- 1. The root is black.
- 2. All leaf nodes are black.
- **3.** For each node, all paths to descendant leaves contain the same number of black nodes.
- 4. If a node is red then both its children are black.

The null-pointers in a binary search tree are replaced by pointers to special null-vertices, that do not carry any object-data.

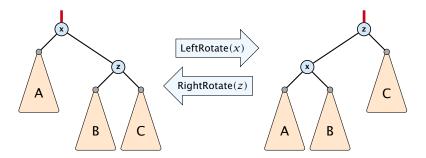


We need to adapt the insert and delete operations so that the red black properties are maintained.



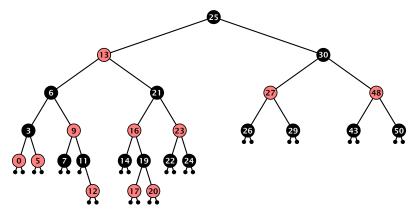
### **Rotations**

The properties will be maintained through rotations:





7.2 Red Black Trees

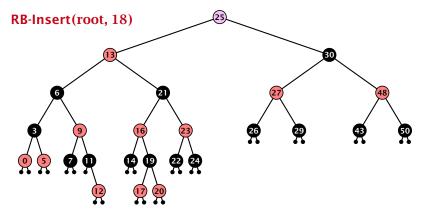


#### Insert:

- first make a normal insert into a binary search tree
- then fix red-black properties



7.2 Red Black Trees

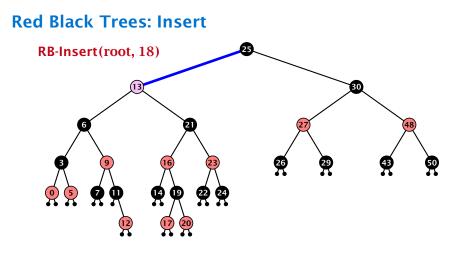


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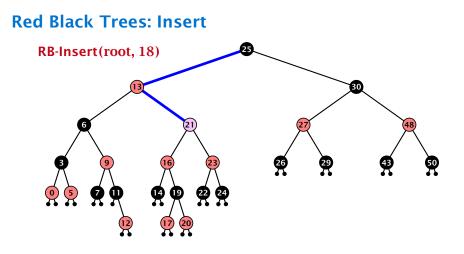
7.2 Red Black Trees



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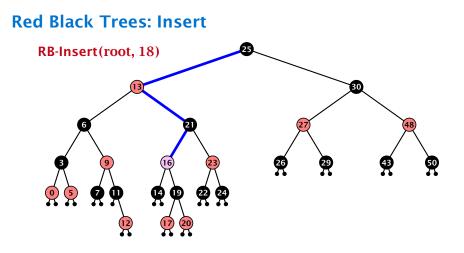
7.2 Red Black Trees



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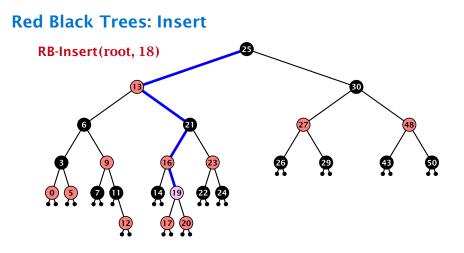
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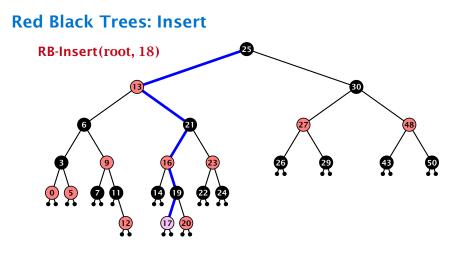
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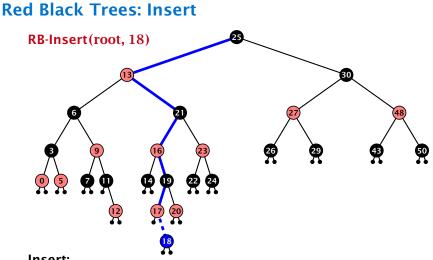
7.2 Red Black Trees



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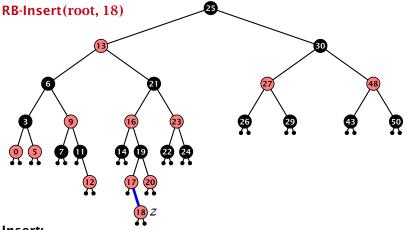
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7.2 Red Black Trees



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7.2 Red Black Trees

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z is a red node



7.2 Red Black Trees

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- z is a red node
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- the only violation of red-black properties occurs at z and parent[z]
  - either both of them are red (most important case)
  - or the parent does not exist (violation since root must be black)

If z has a parent but no grand-parent we could simply color the parent/root black; however this case never happens.



Alg	Algorithm 10 InsertFix $(z)$		
1:	while $parent[z] \neq null and col[parent[z]] = red do$		
2:	if $parent[z] = left[gp[z]]$ then		
3:	$uncle \leftarrow right[grandparent[z]]$		
4:	<pre>if col[uncle] = red then</pre>		
5:	$col[p[z]] \leftarrow black; col[u] \leftarrow black;$		
6:	$col[gp[z]] \leftarrow red; z \leftarrow grandparent[z];$		
7:	else		
8:	if $z = right[parent[z]]$ then		
9:	$z \leftarrow p[z]$ ; LeftRotate(z);		
10:	$col[p[z]] \leftarrow black; col[gp[z]] \leftarrow red;$		
11:	RightRotate $(gp[z]);$		
12:	else same as then-clause but right and left exchanged		
13:	$col(root[T]) \leftarrow black;$		



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2:	<b>if</b> $parent[z] = left[gp[z]]$ <b>then</b> z in left subtree of grandparent				
3:	$uncle \leftarrow right[grandparent[z]]$				
4:	<pre>if col[uncle] = red then</pre>				
5:	$col[p[z]] \leftarrow black; col[u] \leftarrow black;$				
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7:	else Case 2: uncle black		
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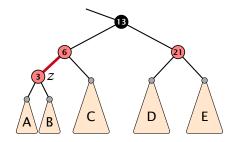


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7:	else		
8:	if $z = right[parent[z]]$ then 2a: $z$ right child		
9:	$z \leftarrow p[z]$ ; LeftRotate(z);		
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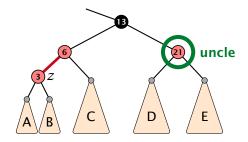
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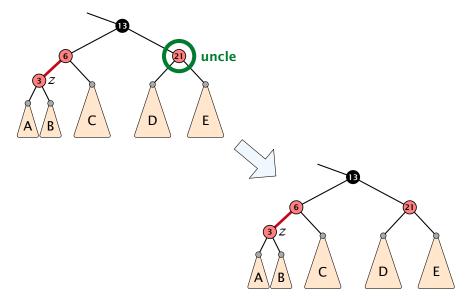


7.2 Red Black Trees



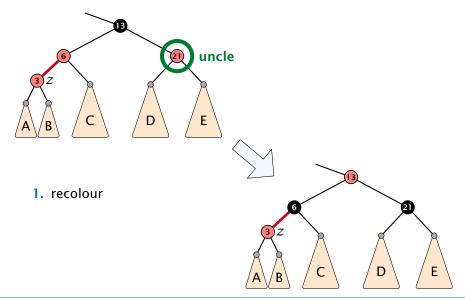


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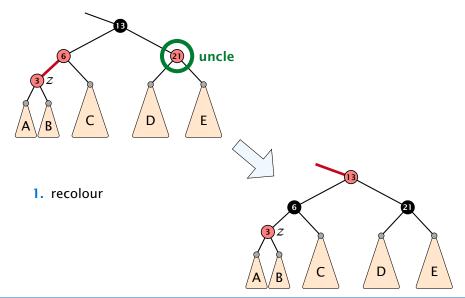


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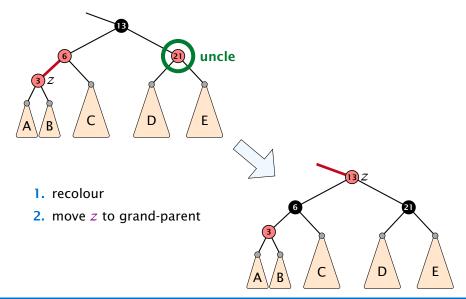


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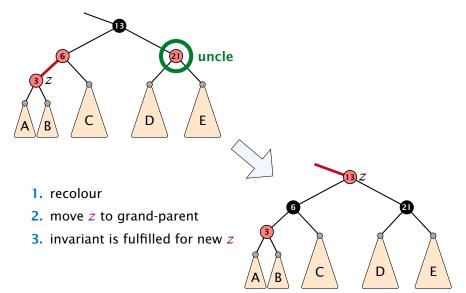


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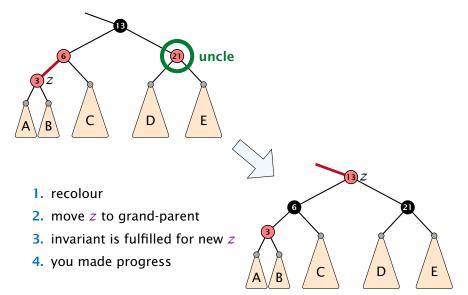


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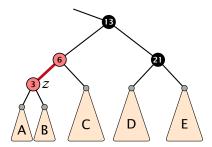


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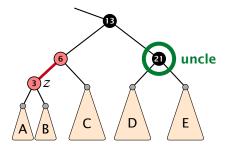


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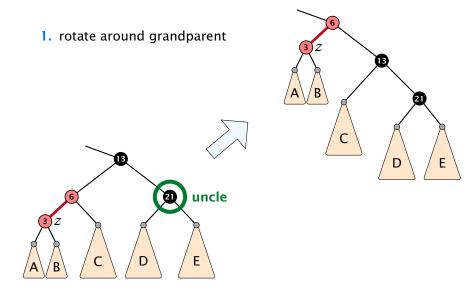


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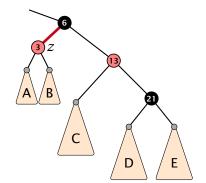
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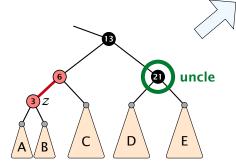




7.2 Red Black Trees

- 1. rotate around grandparent
- re-colour to ensure that black height property holds

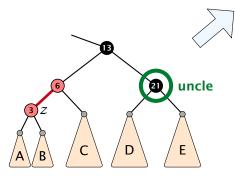


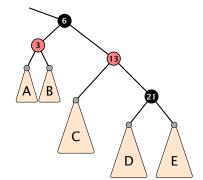




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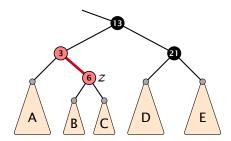
- 1. rotate around grandparent
- 2. re-colour to ensure that black height property holds
- 3. you have a red black tree





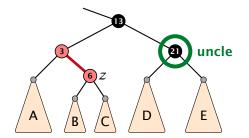


7.2 Red Black Trees



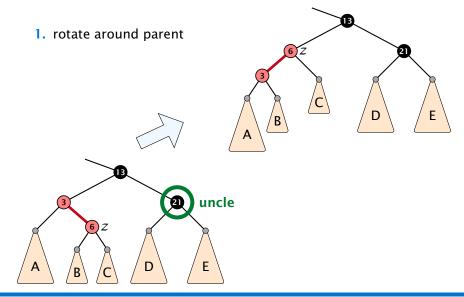


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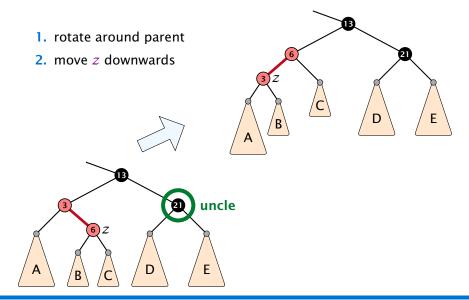


7.2 Red Black Trees



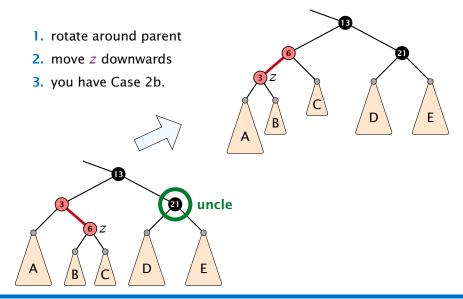


7.2 Red Black Trees





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#### **Running time:**

Only Case 1 may repeat; but only h/2 many steps, where h is the height of the tree.



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#### **Running time:**

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- Case 2a → Case 2b → red-black tree
- Case 2b → red-black tree

Performing Case 1 at most  $O(\log n)$  times and every other case at most once, we get a red-black tree. Hence  $O(\log n)$  re-colorings and at most 2 rotations.





7.2 Red Black Trees

First do a standard delete.



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- Parent and child of x were red; two adjacent red vertices.
- If you delete the root, the root may now be red.



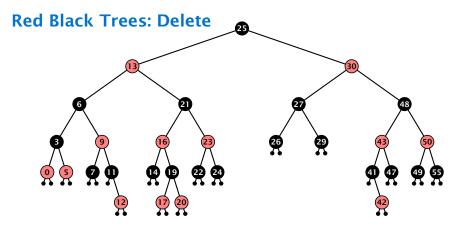
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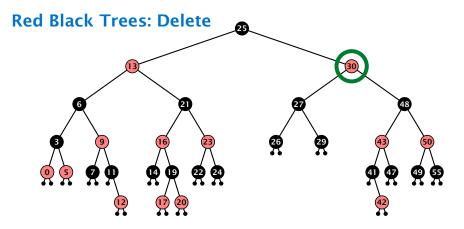
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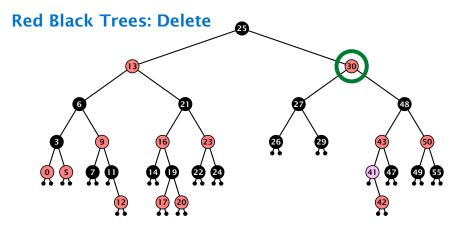
- Parent and child of x were red; two adjacent red vertices.
- If you delete the root, the root may now be red.
- Every path from an ancestor of x to a descendant leaf of x changes the number of black nodes. Black height property might be violated.



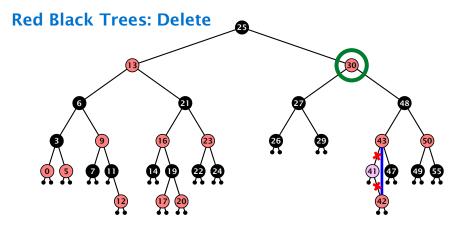




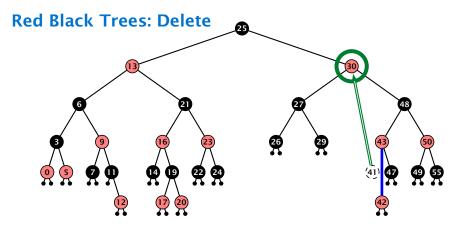
- do normal delete
- when replacing content by content of successor, don't change color of node



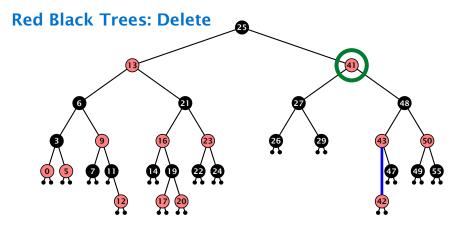
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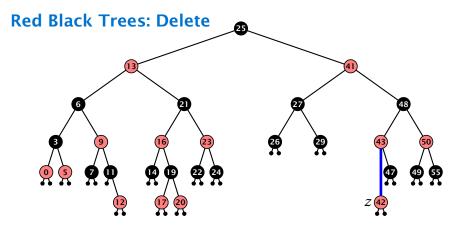
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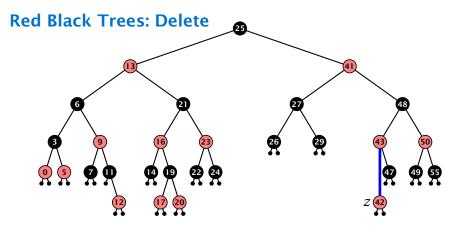


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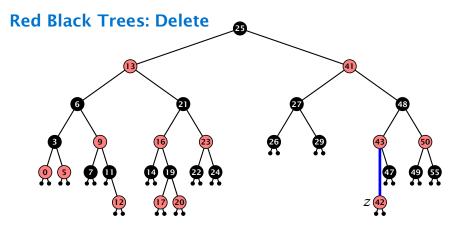
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deleting black node messes up black-height property



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#### Delete:

- deleting black node messes up black-height property
- ▶ if *z* is red, we can simply color it black and everything is fine
- the problem is if z is black (e.g. a dummy-leaf); we call a fix-up procedure to fix the problem.

## **Red Black Trees: Delete**

### Invariant of the fix-up algorithm

the node z is black



## **Red Black Trees: Delete**

#### Invariant of the fix-up algorithm

- the node z is black
- if we "assign" a fake black unit to the edge from z to its parent then the black-height property is fulfilled



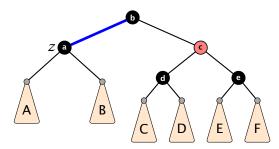
### **Red Black Trees: Delete**

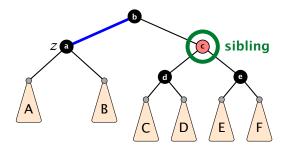
#### Invariant of the fix-up algorithm

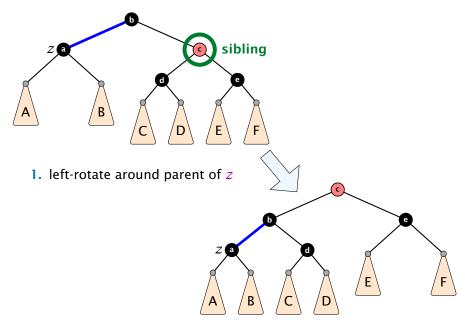
- the node z is black
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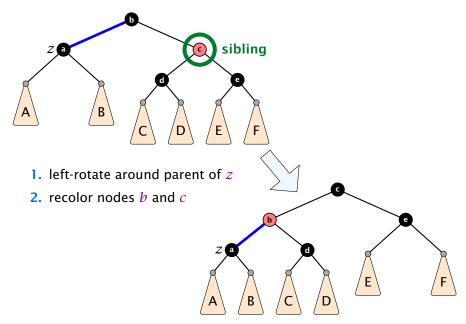
**Goal:** make rotations in such a way that you at some point can remove the fake black unit from the edge.

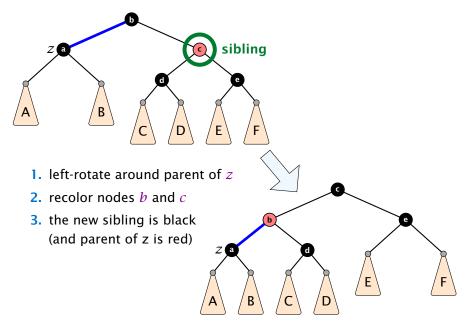


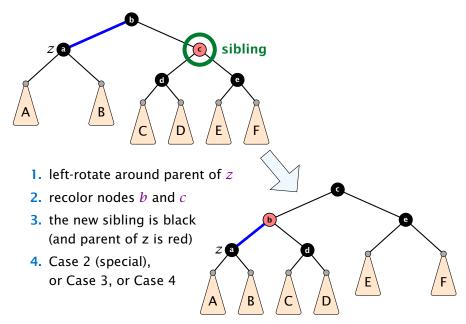


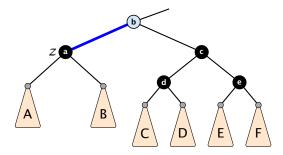


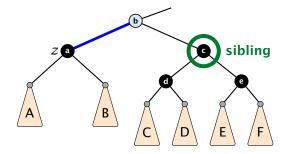


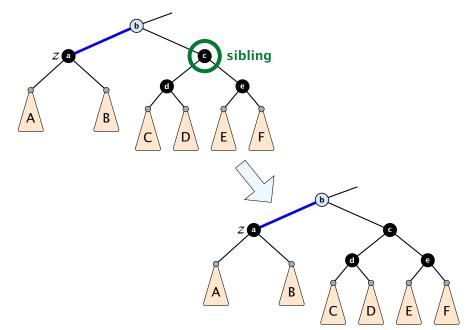


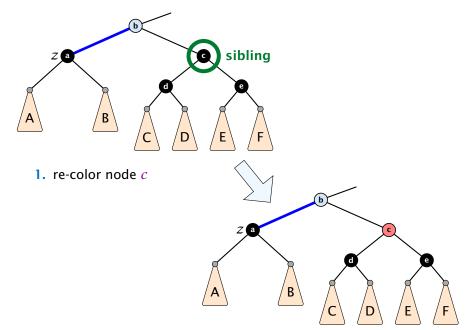


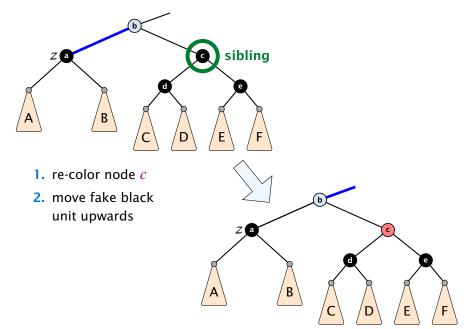


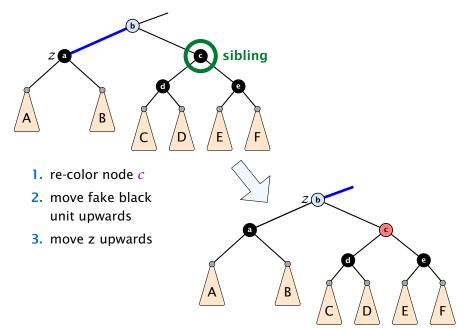


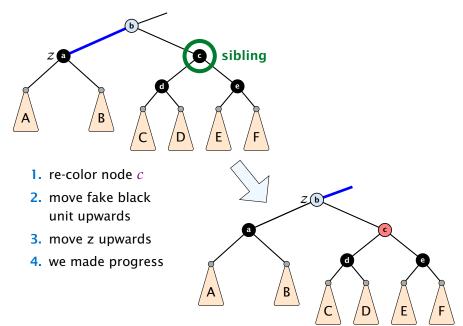


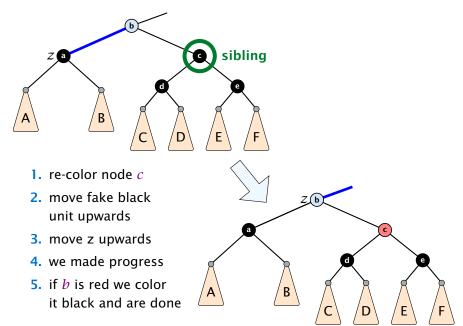


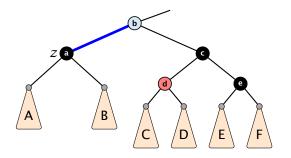


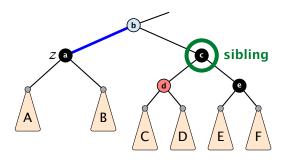


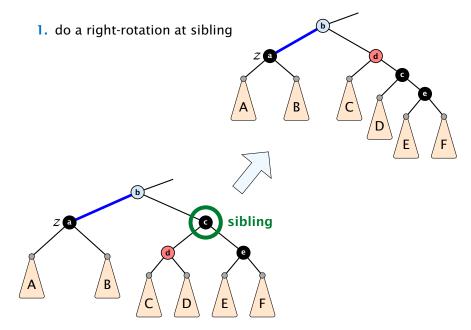


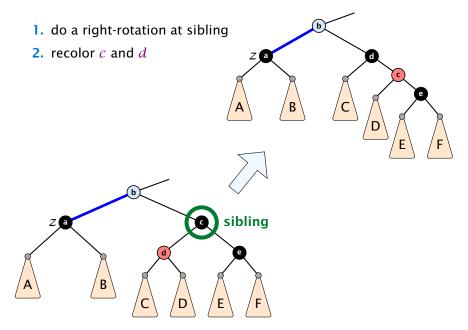




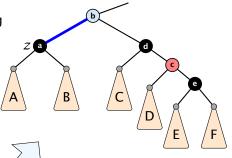


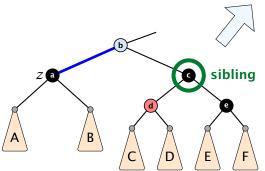


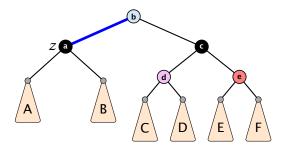


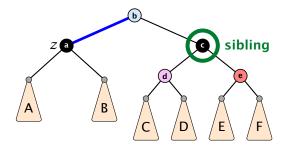


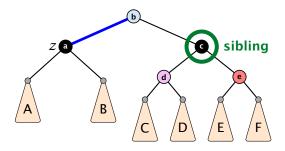
- 1. do a right-rotation at sibling
- **2.** recolor *c* and *d*
- 3. new sibling is black with red right child (Case 4)



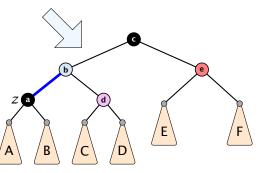


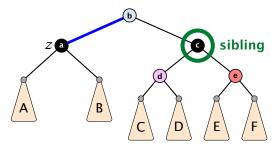




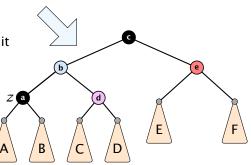


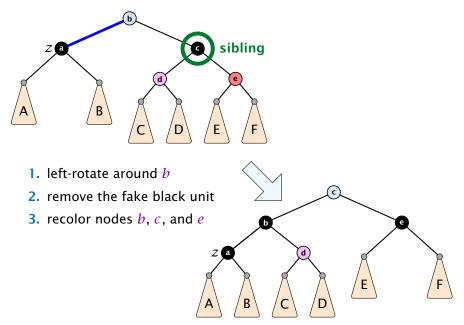
1. left-rotate around *b* 



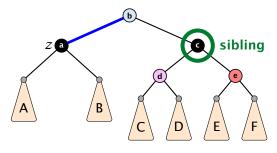


- 1. left-rotate around *b*
- 2. remove the fake black unit

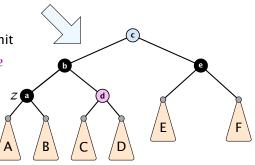




## Case 4: Sibling is black with red right child



- 1. left-rotate around *b*
- 2. remove the fake black unit
- **3.** recolor nodes *b*, *c*, and *e*
- you have a valid red black tree



only Case 2 can repeat; but only h many steps, where h is the height of the tree



only Case 2 can repeat; but only h many steps, where h is the height of the tree

Case 1 → Case 2 (special) → red black tree
 Case 1 → Case 3 → Case 4 → red black tree
 Case 1 → Case 4 → red black tree



- only Case 2 can repeat; but only *h* many steps, where *h* is the height of the tree
- Case 1 → Case 2 (special) → red black tree
   Case 1 → Case 3 → Case 4 → red black tree
   Case 1 → Case 4 → red black tree
- Case 3 → Case 4 → red black tree



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- Case 4 → red black tree



- only Case 2 can repeat; but only h many steps, where h is the height of the tree
- Case 1 → Case 2 (special) → red black tree
   Case 1 → Case 3 → Case 4 → red black tree
   Case 1 → Case 4 → red black tree
- Case  $3 \rightarrow$  Case  $4 \rightarrow$  red black tree
- Case 4 → red black tree

Performing Case 2 at most  $O(\log n)$  times and every other step at most once, we get a red black tree. Hence,  $O(\log n)$  re-colorings and at most 3 rotations.



Disadvantage of balanced search trees:



7.3 Splay Trees

#### Disadvantage of balanced search trees:

- worst case; no advantage for easy inputs



7.3 Splay Trees

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Splay Trees:



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after access, an element is moved to the root; splay(x)
 repeated accesses are faster



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### Splay Trees:

- after access, an element is moved to the root; splay(x)
   repeated accesses are faster
- only amortized guarantee
- read-operations change the tree



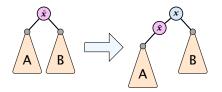
### find(x)

- search for x according to a search tree
- let  $\bar{x}$  be last element on search-path
- splay( $\bar{x}$ )



### insert(x)

- search for x; x̄ is last visited element during search (successer or predecessor of x)
- splay( $\bar{x}$ ) moves  $\bar{x}$  to the root
- insert x as new root

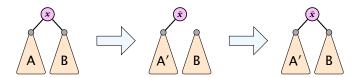




7.3 Splay Trees

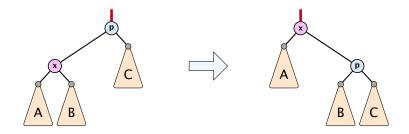
### delete(x)

- search for x; splay(x); remove x
- search largest element  $\bar{x}$  in A
- splay( $\bar{x}$ ) (on subtree A)
- connect root of *B* as right child of  $\bar{x}$





### **Move to Root**



#### How to bring element to root?

- one (bad) option: moveToRoot(x)
- iteratively do rotation around parent of x until x is root
- ▶ if *x* is left child do right rotation otw. left rotation



## Splay: Zig Case



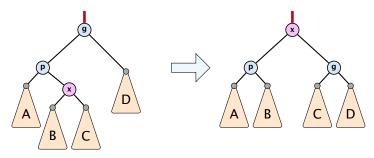
#### better option splay(x):

zig case: if x is child of root do left rotation or right rotation around parent



7.3 Splay Trees

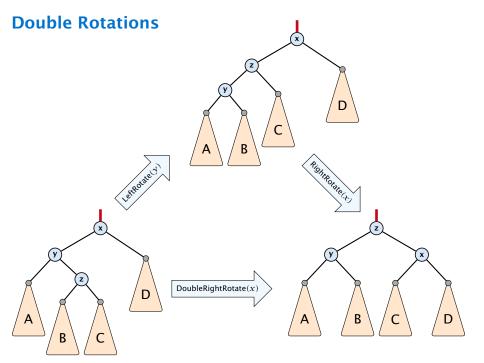
## Splay: Zigzag Case

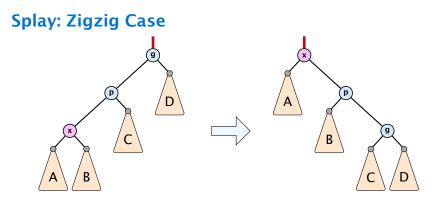


#### better option splay(x):

- zigzag case: if x is right child and parent of x is left child (or x left child parent of x right child)
- do double right rotation around grand-parent (resp. double left rotation)



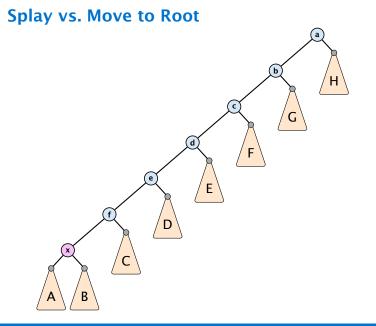




#### better option splay(x):

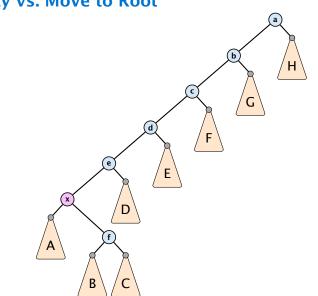
- zigzig case: if x is left child and parent of x is left child (or x right child, parent of x right child)
- do right roation around grand-parent followed by right rotation around parent (resp. left rotations)







7.3 Splay Trees





7.3 Splay Trees

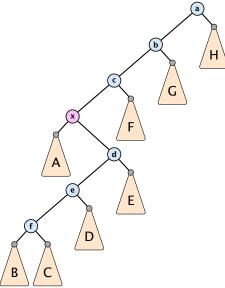
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### Splay vs. Move to Root

# Splay vs. Move to Root а b Н G d F x Ε e A D В С

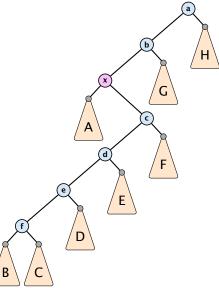


7.3 Splay Trees



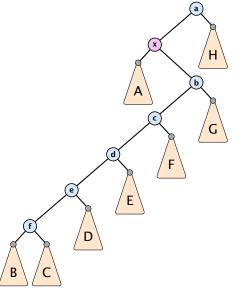


7.3 Splay Trees



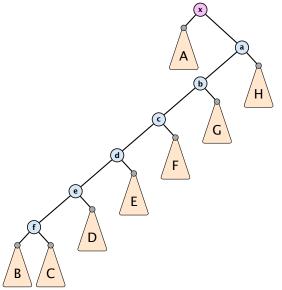


7.3 Splay Trees



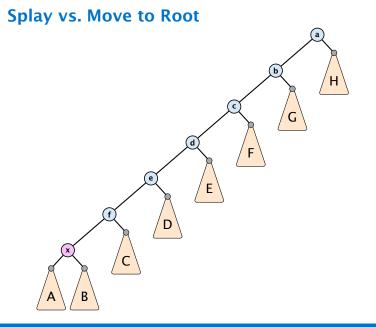


7.3 Splay Trees





7.3 Splay Trees



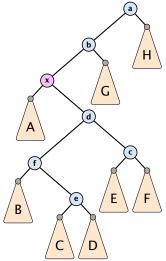


7.3 Splay Trees

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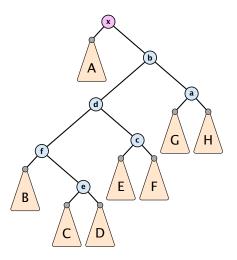


7.3 Splay Trees





7.3 Splay Trees





7.3 Splay Trees

## **Static Optimality**

Suppose we have a sequence of m find-operations. find(x) appears  $h_x$  times in this sequence.

The cost of a **static** search tree *T* is:

$$cost(T) = m + \sum_{x} h_x \operatorname{depth}_T(x)$$

The total cost for processing the sequence on a splay-tree is  $O(cost(T_{min}))$ , where  $T_{min}$  is an optimal static search tree.



## **Dynamic Optimality**

Let S be a sequence with m find-operations.

Let *A* be a data-structure based on a search tree:

- the cost for accessing element x is 1 + depth(x);
- after accessing x the tree may be re-arranged through rotations;

### **Conjecture:**

A splay tree that only contains elements from *S* has cost O(cost(A, S)), for processing *S*.



#### Lemma 16

Splay Trees have an amortized running time of  $O(\log n)$  for all operations.



## **Amortized Analysis**

#### **Definition 17**

A data structure with operations  $op_1(), \ldots, op_k()$  has amortized running times  $t_1, \ldots, t_k$  for these operations if the following holds.

Suppose you are given a sequence of operations (starting with an empty data-structure) that operate on at most n elements, and let  $k_i$  denote the number of occurences of  $op_i()$  within this sequence. Then the actual running time must be at most  $\sum_i k_i \cdot t_i(n)$ .



Introduce a potential for the data structure.



7.3 Splay Trees

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$$\sum_{i=1}^{\kappa} c_i$$

1.



7.3 Splay Trees

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 $\hat{c}_i = c_i + \Phi(D_i) - \Phi(D_{i-1})$  .

Show that  $\Phi(D_i) \ge \Phi(D_0)$ .

Then

$$\sum_{i=1}^k c_i \leq \sum_{i=1}^k c_i + \Phi(D_k) - \Phi(D_0)$$



7.3 Splay Trees

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 $\hat{c}_i = c_i + \Phi(D_i) - \Phi(D_{i-1}) \ . \label{eq:ci}$ 

Show that  $\Phi(D_i) \ge \Phi(D_0)$ .

Then

$$\sum_{i=1}^{k} c_i \le \sum_{i=1}^{k} c_i + \Phi(D_k) - \Phi(D_0) = \sum_{i=1}^{k} \hat{c}_i$$

This means the amortized costs can be used to derive a bound on the total cost.



7.3 Splay Trees

#### Stack

- ► S. push()
- ► S. pop()
- S. multipop(k): removes k items from the stack. If the stack currently contains less than k items it empties the stack.
- The user has to ensure that pop and multipop do not generate an underflow.



#### Stack

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- ► S. pop()
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- The user has to ensure that pop and multipop do not generate an underflow.

#### Actual cost:

- ► *S*. push(): cost 1.
- ► S. pop(): cost 1.
- S. multipop(k): cost min{size, k} = k.



Use potential function  $\Phi(S)$  = number of elements on the stack.



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#### Amortized cost:

S.push(): cost

 $\hat{C}_{\text{push}} = C_{\text{push}} + \Delta \Phi = 1 + 1 \le 2$ .



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.

S. pop(): cost

$$\hat{C}_{\text{pop}} = C_{\text{pop}} + \Delta \Phi = 1 - 1 \le 0$$
 .



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$$\hat{C}_{\text{pop}} = C_{\text{pop}} + \Delta \Phi = 1 - 1 \le 0$$
 .

#### S. multipop(k): cost

 $\hat{C}_{\rm mp} = C_{\rm mp} + \Delta \Phi = \min\{\text{size}, k\} - \min\{\text{size}, k\} \le 0$ .



#### Incrementing a binary counter:

Consider a computational model where each bit-operation costs one time-unit.



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#### Actual cost:

- Changing bit from 0 to 1: cost 1.
- Changing bit from 1 to 0: cost 1.
- Increment: cost is k + 1, where k is the number of consecutive ones in the least significant bit-positions (e.g, 001101 has k = 1).



Choose potential function  $\Phi(x) = k$ , where k denotes the number of ones in the binary representation of x.

Amortized cost:

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#### Amortized cost:

• Changing bit from 0 to 1:

$$\hat{C}_{0\to 1} = C_{0\to 1} + \Delta \Phi = 1 + 1 \le 2$$
.

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Changing bit from 0 to 1:

$$\hat{C}_{0\to 1} = C_{0\to 1} + \Delta \Phi = 1 + 1 \le 2$$
.

• Changing bit from 1 to 0:

$$\hat{C}_{1\to 0} = C_{1\to 0} + \Delta \Phi = 1 - 1 \le 0 \ .$$

Choose potential function  $\Phi(x) = k$ , where k denotes the number of ones in the binary representation of x.

#### Amortized cost:

Changing bit from 0 to 1:

$$\hat{C}_{0\to 1} = C_{0\to 1} + \Delta \Phi = 1 + 1 \le 2$$
.

• Changing bit from 1 to 0:

$$\hat{C}_{1\to 0} = C_{1\to 0} + \Delta \Phi = 1 - 1 \le 0$$
.

Increment: Let k denotes the number of consecutive ones in the least significant bit-positions. An increment involves k (1 → 0)-operations, and one (0 → 1)-operation.

Hence, the amortized cost is  $k\hat{C}_{1\rightarrow 0} + \hat{C}_{0\rightarrow 1} \le 2$ .

# **Splay Trees**

#### potential function for splay trees:

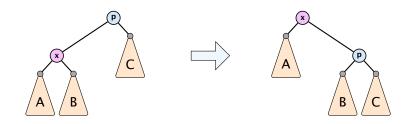
- size  $\mathbf{s}(\mathbf{x}) = |T_{\mathbf{x}}|$
- rank  $r(x) = \log_2(s(x))$
- $\blacktriangleright \Phi(T) = \sum_{v \in T} r(v)$

amortized cost = real cost + potential change

The cost is essentially the cost of the splay-operation, which is 1 plus the number of rotations.







 $\Delta \Phi =$ 



7.3 Splay Trees



$$\Delta \Phi = r'(x) + r'(p) - r(x) - r(p)$$



7.3 Splay Trees



$$\Delta \Phi = \mathbf{r}'(\mathbf{x}) + \mathbf{r}'(p) - \mathbf{r}(\mathbf{x}) - \mathbf{r}(p)$$
$$= \mathbf{r}'(p) - \mathbf{r}(\mathbf{x})$$



7.3 Splay Trees



$$\Delta \Phi = r'(x) + r'(p) - r(x) - r(p)$$
$$= r'(p) - r(x)$$
$$\leq r'(x) - r(x)$$



7.3 Splay Trees

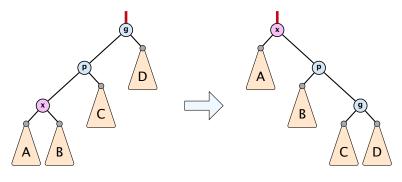


$$\Delta \Phi = r'(x) + r'(p) - r(x) - r(p)$$
$$= r'(p) - r(x)$$
$$\leq r'(x) - r(x)$$

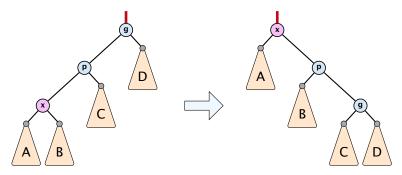
 $\operatorname{cost}_{\operatorname{zig}} \le 1 + 3(r'(x) - r(x))$ 



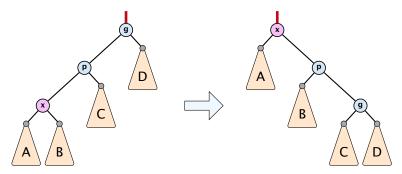
7.3 Splay Trees



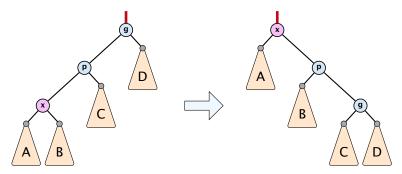
$$\Delta \Phi =$$



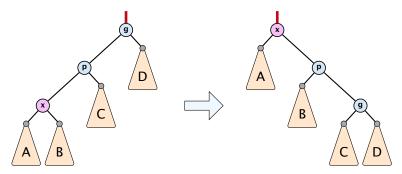
 $\Delta \Phi = r'(x) + r'(p) + r'(g) - r(x) - r(p) - r(g)$ 



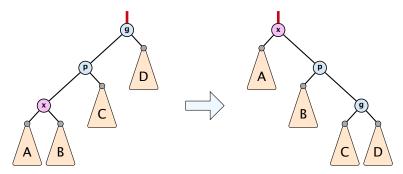
 $\Delta \Phi = \mathbf{r}'(\mathbf{x}) + \mathbf{r}'(p) + \mathbf{r}'(g) - \mathbf{r}(\mathbf{x}) - \mathbf{r}(p) - \mathbf{r}(g)$ =  $\mathbf{r}'(p) + \mathbf{r}'(g) - \mathbf{r}(\mathbf{x}) - \mathbf{r}(p)$ 



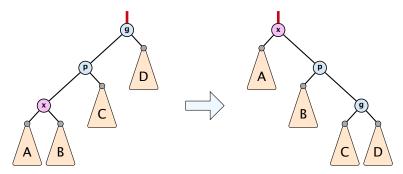
 $\Delta \Phi = r'(x) + r'(p) + r'(g) - r(x) - r(p) - r(g)$ = r'(p) + r'(g) - r(x) - r(p) $\leq r'(x) + r'(g) - r(x) - r(x)$ 



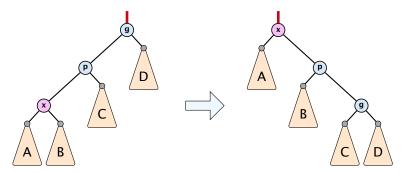
$$\begin{aligned} \Delta \Phi &= r'(x) + r'(p) + r'(g) - r(x) - r(p) - r(g) \\ &= r'(p) + r'(g) - r(x) - r(p) \\ &\leq r'(x) + r'(g) - r(x) - r(x) \\ &= r'(x) + r'(g) + r(x) - 3r'(x) + 3r'(x) - r(x) - 2r(x) \end{aligned}$$



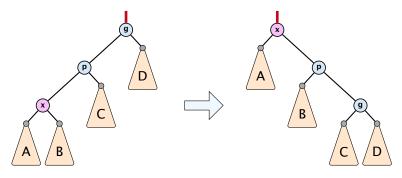
$$\begin{split} \Delta \Phi &= r'(x) + r'(p) + r'(g) - r(x) - r(p) - r(g) \\ &= r'(p) + r'(g) - r(x) - r(p) \\ &\leq r'(x) + r'(g) - r(x) - r(x) \\ &= r'(x) + r'(g) + r(x) - 3r'(x) + 3r'(x) - r(x) - 2r(x) \\ &= -2r'(x) + r'(g) + r(x) + 3(r'(x) - r(x)) \end{split}$$



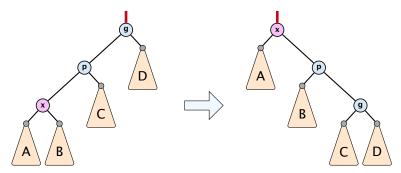
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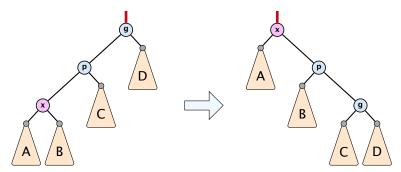
$$\begin{aligned} \Delta \Phi &= r'(x) + r'(p) + r'(g) - r(x) - r(p) - r(g) \\ &= r'(p) + r'(g) - r(x) - r(p) \\ &\leq r'(x) + r'(g) - r(x) - r(x) \\ &= r'(x) + r'(g) + r(x) - 3r'(x) + 3r'(x) - r(x) - 2r(x) \\ &= -2r'(x) + r'(g) + r(x) + 3(r'(x) - r(x)) \\ &\leq -2 + 3(r'(x) - r(x)) \Rightarrow \operatorname{cost_{zigzig}} \leq 3(r'(x) - r(x)) \end{aligned}$$



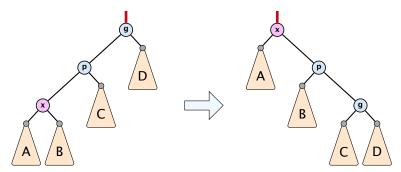
$$\frac{1}{2}(r(x)+r'(g)-2r'(x))$$



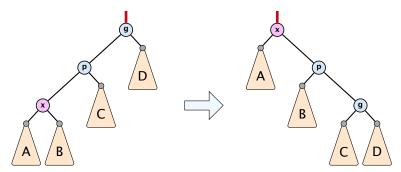
$$\frac{1}{2} (r(x) + r'(g) - 2r'(x))$$
  
=  $\frac{1}{2} (\log(s(x)) + \log(s'(g)) - 2\log(s'(x)))$ 



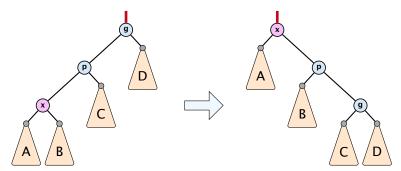
$$\frac{1}{2} \left( r(x) + r'(g) - 2r'(x) \right)$$
  
=  $\frac{1}{2} \left( \log(s(x)) + \log(s'(g)) - 2\log(s'(x)) \right)$   
=  $\frac{1}{2} \log\left(\frac{s(x)}{s'(x)}\right) + \frac{1}{2} \log\left(\frac{s'(g)}{s'(x)}\right)$ 



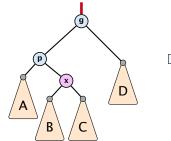
$$\begin{aligned} \frac{1}{2} \Big( r(x) + r'(g) - 2r'(x) \Big) \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \Big( \log(s(x)) + \log(s'(g)) - 2\log(s'(x)) \Big) \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \log\Big( \frac{s(x)}{s'(x)} \Big) + \frac{1}{2} \log\Big( \frac{s'(g)}{s'(x)} \Big) \\ &\le \log\Big( \frac{1}{2} \frac{s(x)}{s'(x)} + \frac{1}{2} \frac{s'(g)}{s'(x)} \Big) \end{aligned}$$

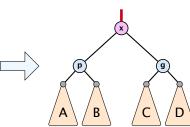


$$\begin{aligned} \frac{1}{2} \Big( r(x) + r'(g) - 2r'(x) \Big) \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \Big( \log(s(x)) + \log(s'(g)) - 2\log(s'(x)) \Big) \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \log\Big(\frac{s(x)}{s'(x)}\Big) + \frac{1}{2} \log\Big(\frac{s'(g)}{s'(x)}\Big) \\ &\le \log\Big(\frac{1}{2} \frac{s(x)}{s'(x)} + \frac{1}{2} \frac{s'(g)}{s'(x)}\Big) \le \log\Big(\frac{1}{2}\Big) \end{aligned}$$



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 $\leq \log \left( \frac{1}{2} \frac{s(x)}{s'(x)} + \frac{1}{2} \frac{s'(g)}{s'(x)} \right) \leq \log \left( \frac{1}{2} \right) = -1$ 

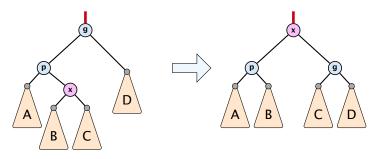




 $\Delta \Phi =$ 



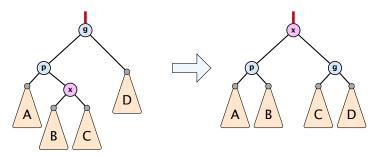
7.3 Splay Trees



$$\Delta \Phi = r'(x) + r'(p) + r'(g) - r(x) - r(p) - r(g)$$



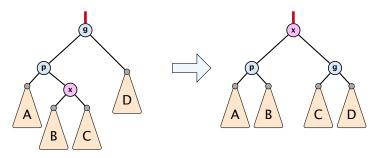
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$$\Delta \Phi = \mathbf{r}'(\mathbf{x}) + \mathbf{r}'(p) + \mathbf{r}'(g) - \mathbf{r}(\mathbf{x}) - \mathbf{r}(p) - \mathbf{r}(g)$$
  
=  $\mathbf{r}'(p) + \mathbf{r}'(g) - \mathbf{r}(\mathbf{x}) - \mathbf{r}(p)$ 



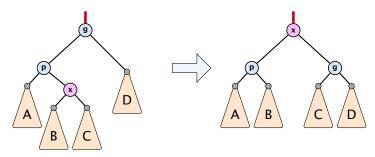
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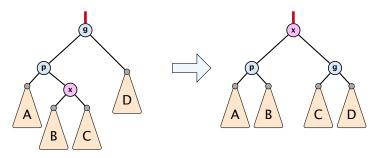
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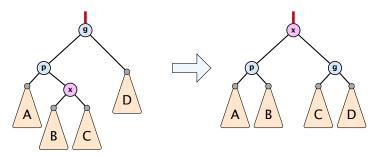


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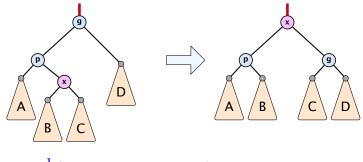
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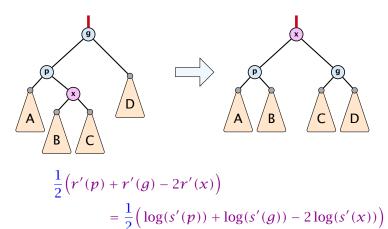




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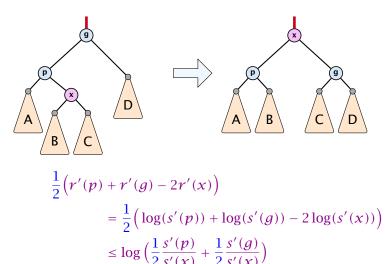


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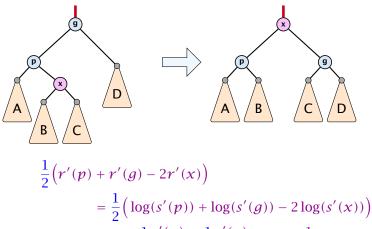




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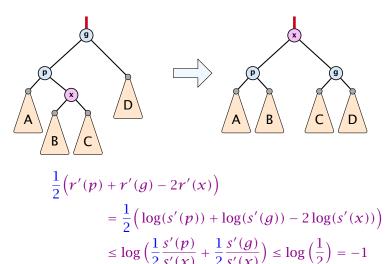
7.3 Splay Trees



 $\leq \log\left(\frac{1}{2}\frac{s'(p)}{s'(x)} + \frac{1}{2}\frac{s'(g)}{s'(x)}\right) \leq \log\left(\frac{1}{2}\right)$ 



7.3 Splay Trees





Amortized cost of the whole splay operation:

$$\leq 1 + 1 + \sum_{\text{steps } t} 3(r_t(x) - r_{t-1}(x))$$
$$= 2 + 3(r(\text{root}) - r_0(x))$$
$$\leq \mathcal{O}(\log n)$$



Suppose you want to develop a data structure with:

- Insert(x): insert element x.
- Search(*k*): search for element with key *k*.
- Delete(x): delete element referenced by pointer x.
- ▶ find-by-rank( $\ell$ ): return the  $\ell$ -th element; return "error" if the data-structure contains less than  $\ell$  elements.



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# Augment an existing data-structure instead of developing a new one.



#### How to augment a data-structure

1. choose an underlying data-structure



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- 2. determine additional information to be stored in the underlying structure



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- verify/show how the additional information can be maintained for the basic modifying operations on the underlying structure.



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- 1. choose an underlying data-structure
- 2. determine additional information to be stored in the underlying structure
- verify/show how the additional information can be maintained for the basic modifying operations on the underlying structure.
- 4. develop the new operations



## Goal: Design a data-structure that supports insert, delete, search, and find-by-rank in time $O(\log n)$ .

1. We choose a red-black tree as the underlying data-structure.



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- 1. We choose a red-black tree as the underlying data-structure.
- **2.** We store in each node v the size of the sub-tree rooted at v.
- 3. We need to be able to update the size-field in each node without asymptotically affecting the running time of insert, delete, and search. We come back to this step later...



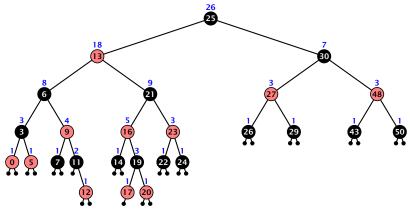
Goal: Design a data-structure that supports insert, delete, search, and find-by-rank in time  $O(\log n)$ .

```
4. How does find-by-rank work?Find-by-rank(k) = Select(root,k) with
```

```
Algorithm 1 Select(x, i)1: if x = null then return error2: if left[x] \neq null then r \leftarrow left[x]. size +1 else r \leftarrow 13: if i = r then return x4: if i < r then5: return Select(left[x], i)6: else7: return Select(right[x], i - r)
```



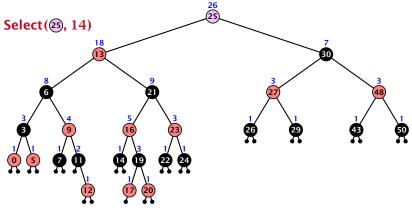
## Select(x, i)



- decide whether you have to proceed into the left or right sub-tree
- adjust the rank that you are searching for if you go right

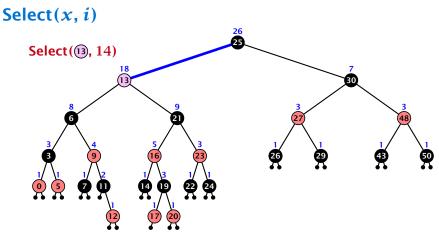


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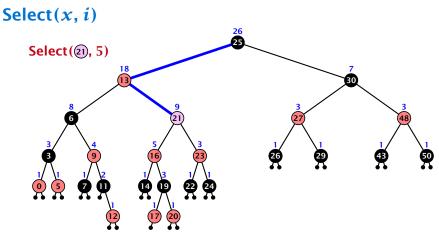
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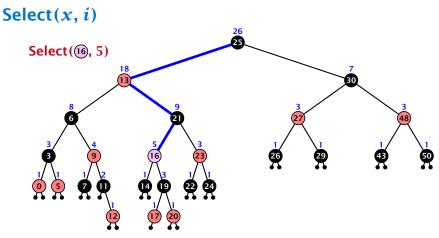
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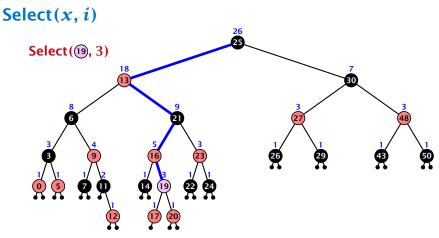
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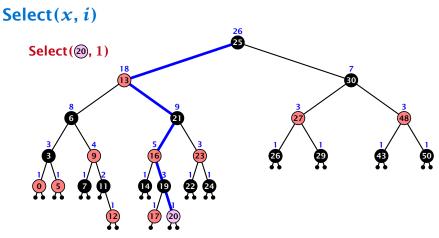
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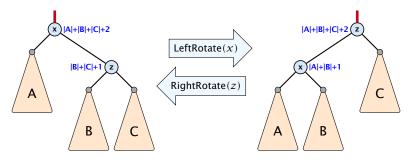
**Insert**(x): When going down the search path increase the size field for each visited node. Maintain the size field during rotations.

**Delete**(x): Directly after splicing out a node traverse the path from the spliced out node upwards, and decrease the size counter on every node on this path. Maintain the size field during rotations.



## Rotations

The only operation during the fix-up procedure that alters the tree and requires an update of the size-field:



The nodes x and z are the only nodes changing their size-fields.

The new size-fields can be computed locally from the size-fields of the children.



Why do we not use a list for implementing the ADT Dynamic Set?



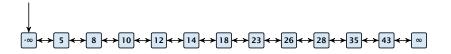
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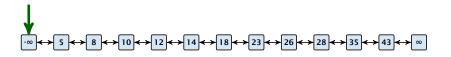
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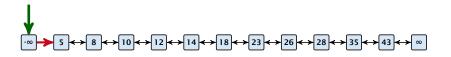




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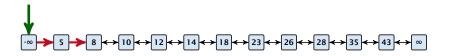




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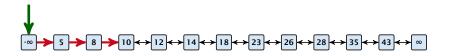




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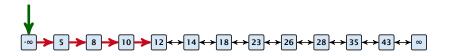




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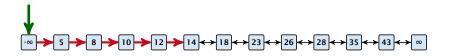




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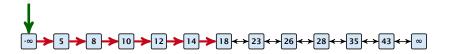




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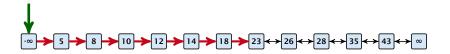




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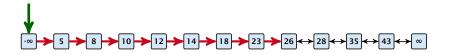




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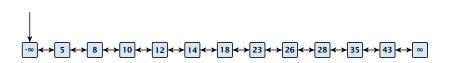


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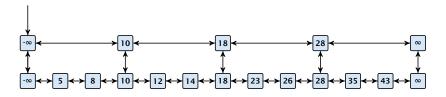
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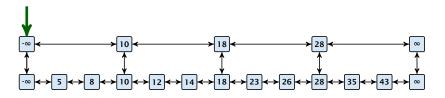
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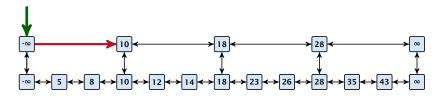
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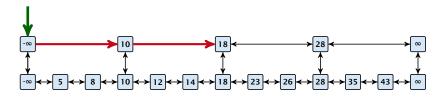
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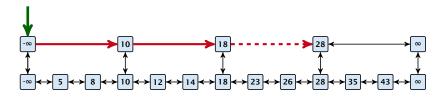
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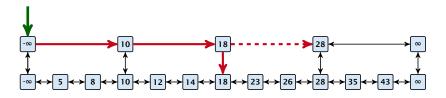
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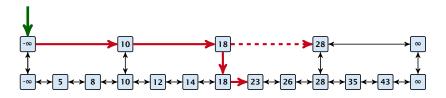
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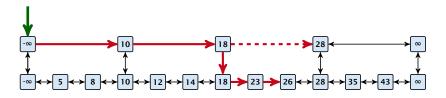
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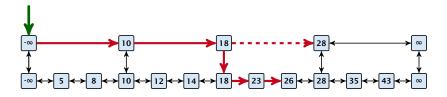


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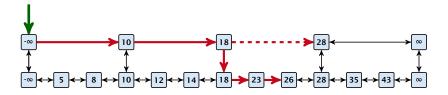
#### Add an express lane:



Let  $|L_1|$  denote the number of elements in the "express lane", and  $|L_0| = n$  the number of all elements (ignoring dummy elements).

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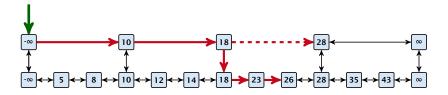


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Choose  $|L_1| = \sqrt{n}$ . Then search time  $\Theta(\sqrt{n})$ .

Add more express lanes. Lane  $L_i$  contains roughly every  $\frac{L_{i-1}}{L_i}$ -th item from list  $L_{i-1}$ .



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• At most 
$$|L_k| + \sum_{i=1}^k \frac{L_{i-1}}{L_i} + 3(k+1)$$
 steps.



Choose ratios between list-lengths evenly, i.e.,  $\frac{|L_{i-1}|}{|L_i|} = r$ , and, hence,  $L_k \approx r^{-k}n$ .



7.5 Skip Lists

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Choosing  $k = \Theta(\log n)$  gives a logarithmic running time.





How to do insert and delete?



7.5 Skip Lists

#### How to do insert and delete?

If we want that in L<sub>i</sub> we always skip over roughly the same number of elements in L<sub>i-1</sub> an insert or delete may require a lot of re-organisation.



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If we want that in L<sub>i</sub> we always skip over roughly the same number of elements in L<sub>i-1</sub> an insert or delete may require a lot of re-organisation.

Use randomization instead!



Insert:



7.5 Skip Lists

#### Insert:

A search operation gives you the insert position for element x in every list.



#### Insert:

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- ► Flip a coin until it shows head, and record the number t ∈ {1,2,...} of trials needed.



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#### Delete:



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> You get all predecessors via backward pointers.



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#### Delete:

- > You get all predecessors via backward pointers.
- Delete x in all lists it actually appears in.



#### Insert:

- A search operation gives you the insert position for element x in every list.
- Flip a coin until it shows head, and record the number  $t \in \{1, 2, ...\}$  of trials needed.
- lnsert x into lists  $L_0, \ldots, L_{t-1}$ .

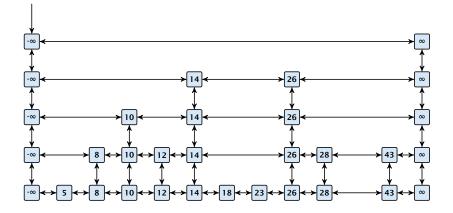
#### Delete:

- > You get all predecessors via backward pointers.
- Delete x in all lists it actually appears in.

# The time for both operations is dominated by the search time.



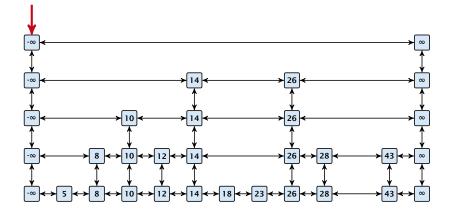
#### Insert (35):





7.5 Skip Lists

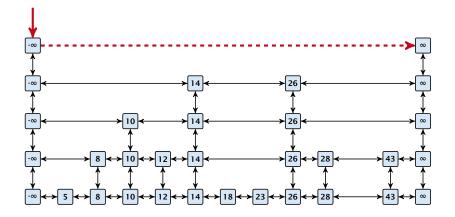
Insert (35):





7.5 Skip Lists

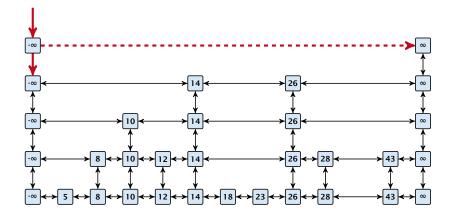
Insert (35):





7.5 Skip Lists

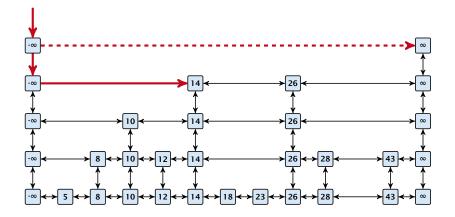
Insert (35):





7.5 Skip Lists

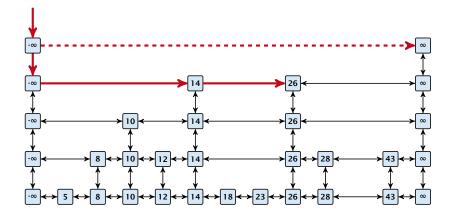
Insert (35):





7.5 Skip Lists

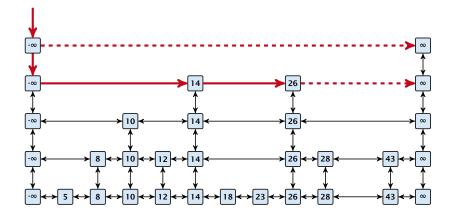
Insert (35):





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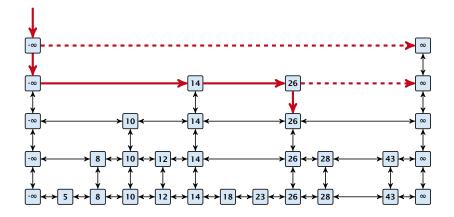
Insert (35):





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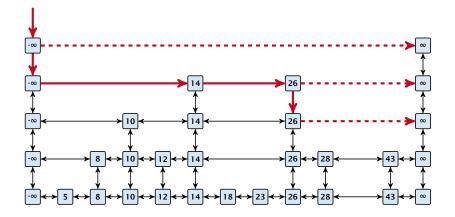
Insert (35):





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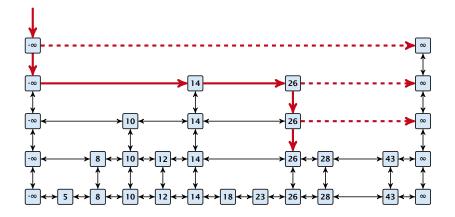
Insert (35):





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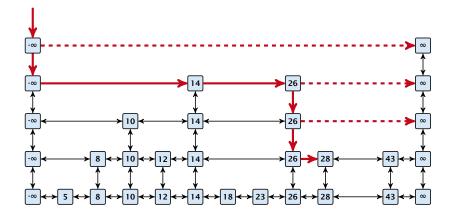
Insert (35):





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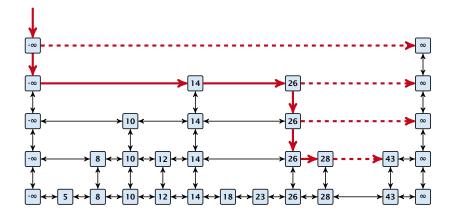
Insert (35):





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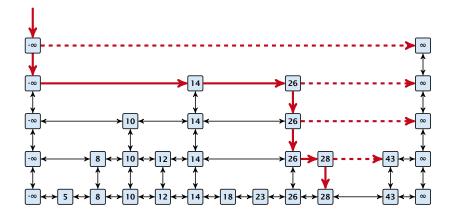
Insert (35):





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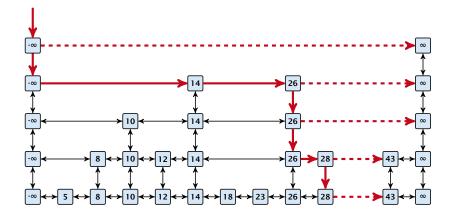
Insert (35):





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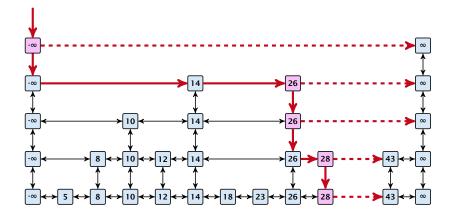
Insert (35):





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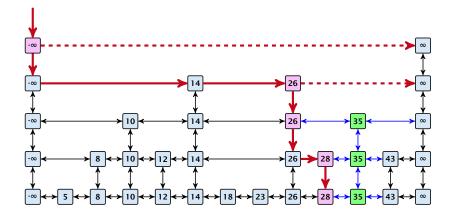
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#### **Definition 18 (High Probability)**

We say a **randomized** algorithm has running time  $O(\log n)$  with high probability if for any constant  $\alpha$  the running time is at most  $O(\log n)$  with probability at least  $1 - \frac{1}{n^{\alpha}}$ .



#### Definition 18 (High Probability)

We say a **randomized** algorithm has running time  $O(\log n)$  with high probability if for any constant  $\alpha$  the running time is at most  $O(\log n)$  with probability at least  $1 - \frac{1}{n^{\alpha}}$ .

Here the O-notation hides a constant that may depend on  $\alpha$ .



Suppose there are polynomially many events  $E_1, E_2, \ldots, E_\ell$ ,  $\ell = n^c$  each holding with high probability (e.g.  $E_i$  may be the event that the *i*-th search in a skip list takes time at most  $O(\log n)$ ).



Suppose there are polynomially many events  $E_1, E_2, \ldots, E_\ell$ ,  $\ell = n^c$  each holding with high probability (e.g.  $E_i$  may be the event that the *i*-th search in a skip list takes time at most  $O(\log n)$ ).

Then the probability that all  $E_i$  hold is at least

 $\Pr[E_1 \wedge \cdots \wedge E_\ell]$ 



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$$\geq 1 - n^c \cdot n^{-\alpha}$$
  
$$= 1 - n^{c-\alpha} .$$

This means  $\Pr[E_1 \land \cdots \land E_\ell]$  holds with high probability.



#### Lemma 19

A search (and, hence, also insert and delete) in a skip list with n elements takes time O(logn) with high probability (w. h. p.).



**Backward analysis:** 





7.5 Skip Lists

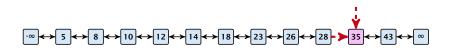
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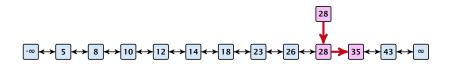
#### **Backward analysis:**





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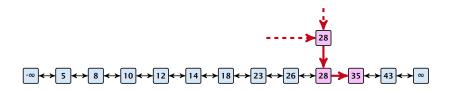
#### **Backward analysis:**





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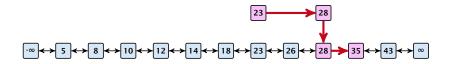
#### **Backward analysis:**





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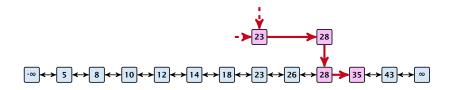
#### **Backward analysis:**





7.5 Skip Lists

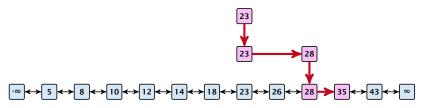
#### **Backward analysis:**





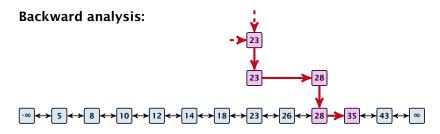
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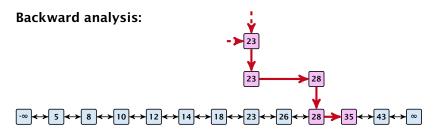


7.5 Skip Lists





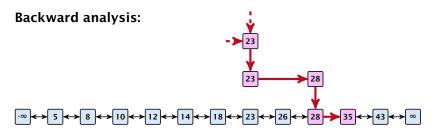
7.5 Skip Lists



At each point the path goes up with probability  $1\!/\!2$  and left with probability  $1\!/\!2$ .



7.5 Skip Lists

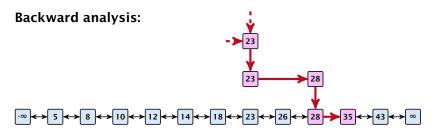


At each point the path goes up with probability 1/2 and left with probability 1/2.

We show that w.h.p:

A "long" search path must also go very high.





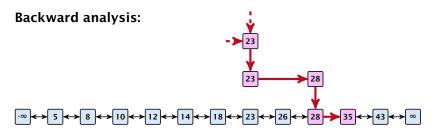
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7.5 Skip Lists



At each point the path goes up with probability 1/2 and left with probability 1/2.

We show that w.h.p:

- A "long" search path must also go very high.
- There are no elements in high lists.

From this it follows that w.h.p. there are no long paths.



$$\left(\frac{n}{k}\right)^k \le \binom{n}{k} \le \left(\frac{en}{k}\right)^k$$

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$$\binom{n}{k} = \frac{n!}{k! \cdot (n-k)!}$$

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$$\binom{n}{k} = \frac{n!}{k! \cdot (n-k)!} = \frac{n \cdot \ldots \cdot (n-k+1)}{k \cdot \ldots \cdot 1}$$

$$\left(\frac{n}{k}\right)^k \le \binom{n}{k} \le \left(\frac{en}{k}\right)^k$$

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$$\left(\frac{n}{k}\right)^{k} \le {\binom{n}{k}} \le \left(\frac{en}{k}\right)^{k}$$
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$$\binom{k}{k} = \frac{k!}{k!} \leq \frac{k!}{k!} = \frac{k!}{k! \cdot k!}$$

$$\left(\frac{n}{k}\right)^k \le \binom{n}{k} \le \left(\frac{en}{k}\right)^k$$

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$$\binom{n}{k} = \frac{n \cdot \ldots \cdot (n-k+1)}{k!} \le \frac{n^k}{k!} = \frac{n^k \cdot k^k}{k^k \cdot k!}$$
$$(n)^k \quad k^k \quad (n)^k \quad \sum k^i$$

$$= \left(\frac{n}{k}\right)^{\kappa} \cdot \frac{k^{\kappa}}{k!} \le \left(\frac{n}{k}\right)^{\kappa} \cdot \sum_{i \ge 0} \frac{k^{i}}{i!}$$

$$\left(\frac{n}{k}\right)^k \le \binom{n}{k} \le \left(\frac{en}{k}\right)^k$$

$$\binom{n}{k} = \frac{n!}{k! \cdot (n-k)!} = \frac{n \cdot \ldots \cdot (n-k+1)}{k \cdot \ldots \cdot 1} \ge \left(\frac{n}{k}\right)^k$$

$$\binom{n}{k} = \frac{n \cdot \ldots \cdot (n-k+1)}{k!} \le \frac{n^k}{k!} = \frac{n^k \cdot k^k}{k^k \cdot k!}$$

$$= \left(\frac{n}{k}\right)^k \cdot \frac{k^k}{k!} \le \left(\frac{n}{k}\right)^k \cdot \sum_{i \ge 0} \frac{k^i}{i!} = \left(\frac{en}{k}\right)^k$$



7.5 Skip Lists

9. Jan. 2023 209/662 Let  $E_{z,k}$  denote the event that a search path is of length z (number of edges) but does not visit a list above  $L_k$ .



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In particular, this means that during the construction in the backward analysis we see at most k heads (i.e., coin flips that tell you to go up) in z trials.



#### $\Pr[E_{z,k}]$



7.5 Skip Lists

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 $\Pr[E_{z,k}] \le \Pr[\text{at most } k \text{ heads in } z \text{ trials}]$ 



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for  $\alpha \geq 1$ .



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 $\Pr[\text{search requires } z \text{ steps}] \leq \Pr[E_{z,k}] + \Pr[A_{k+1}]$ 

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 $\begin{aligned} &\Pr[\text{search requires } z \text{ steps}] \leq \Pr[E_{z,k}] + \Pr[A_{k+1}] \\ &\leq n^{-\alpha} + n^{-(\gamma-1)} \end{aligned}$ 

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For the search to take at least  $z = 7\alpha \gamma \log n$  steps either the event  $E_{z,k}$  or the event  $A_{k+1}$  must hold. Hence,

 $\Pr[\text{search requires } z \text{ steps}] \le \Pr[E_{z,k}] + \Pr[A_{k+1}]$  $\le n^{-\alpha} + n^{-(\gamma-1)}$ 

This means, the search requires at most *z* steps, w. h. p.

## 7.6 van Emde Boas Trees

#### **Dynamic Set Data Structure** *S*:

- $\blacktriangleright$  S.insert(x)
- ► S.delete(x)
- $\blacktriangleright$  S.search(x)
- ► *S*.min()
- ► *S*.max()
- $\blacktriangleright$  S. succ(x)
- $\blacktriangleright$  S.pred(x)



## 7.6 van Emde Boas Trees

For this chapter we ignore the problem of storing satellite data:

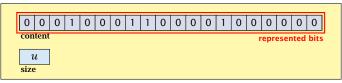
- S. insert(x): Inserts x into S.
- S. delete(x): Deletes x from S. Usually assumes that  $x \in S$ .
- S. member(x): Returns 1 if  $x \in S$  and 0 otw.
- **S. min():** Returns the value of the minimum element in *S*.
- **S. max():** Returns the value of the maximum element in *S*.
- S. succ(x): Returns successor of x in S. Returns null if x is maximum or larger than any element in S. Note that x needs not to be in S.
- S. pred(x): Returns the predecessor of x in S. Returns null if x is minimum or smaller than any element in S. Note that x needs not to be in S.



Can we improve the existing algorithms when the keys are from a restricted set?

In the following we assume that the keys are from  $\{0, 1, \ldots, u-1\}$ , where u denotes the size of the universe.





one array of u bits

Use an array that encodes the indicator function of the dynamic set.



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**Algorithm 1** array.insert(x)

1: content[x]  $\leftarrow$  1;

**Algorithm 2** array.delete(*x*)

1: content[x]  $\leftarrow$  0;

**Algorithm 3** array.member(*x*)

1: **return** content[*x*];

- Note that we assume that x is valid, i.e., it falls within the array boundaries.
- Obviously(?) the running time is constant.



#### **Algorithm 4** array.max()

- 1: for  $(i = \text{size} 1; i \ge 0; i--)$  do 2: if content[i] = 1 then return i;
- 3: return null;



#### **Algorithm 4** array.max()

- 1: for  $(i = \text{size} 1; i \ge 0; i -)$  do 2: if content[i] = 1 then return i;
- 3: return null:

#### **Algorithm 5** array.min()

- 1: for (i = 0; i < size; i++) do
- 2: **if** content[i] = 1 **then return** *i*;
- 3: return null;



#### Algorithm 4 array.max()

- 1: for  $(i = \text{size} 1; i \ge 0; i -)$  do 2: if content[i] = 1 then return i;
- 3: return null;

#### **Algorithm 5** array.min()

- for (*i* = 0; *i* < size; *i*++) do
   if content[*i*] = 1 then return *i*;
- 3: return null:

#### Running time is $\mathcal{O}(u)$ in the worst case.



#### **Algorithm 6** array.succ(*x*)

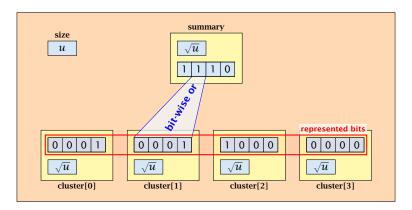
- for (i = x + 1; i < size; i++) do</li>
   if content[i] = 1 then return i;
   return null;

**Algorithm 7** array.pred(x)

- 1: for  $(i = x 1; i \ge 0; i )$  do 2: if content[i] = 1 then return i;
- 3: return null:
- Running time is  $\mathcal{O}(u)$  in the worst case.



# **Implementation 2: Summary Array**



- $\sqrt{u}$  cluster-arrays of  $\sqrt{u}$  bits.
- One summary-array of  $\sqrt{u}$  bits. The *i*-th bit in the summary array stores the bit-wise or of the bits in the *i*-th cluster.



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The bit for a key x is contained in cluster number  $\left\lfloor \frac{x}{\sqrt{u}} \right\rfloor$ .



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Within the cluster-array the bit is at position  $x \mod \sqrt{u}$ .

For simplicity we assume that  $u = 2^{2k}$  for some  $k \ge 1$ . Then we can compute the cluster-number for an entry x as high(x) (the upper half of the dual representation of x) and the position of x within its cluster as low(x) (the lower half of the dual representation).



**Algorithm 8** member(*x*)

1: **return** cluster[high(*x*)].member(low(*x*));



Algorithm 8 member(*x*)

1: **return** cluster[high(*x*)]. member(low(*x*));

Algorithm 9 insert(x)

- 1: cluster[high(x)].insert(low(x));
- 2: summary.insert(high(x));



Algorithm 8 member(*x*)

1: **return** cluster[high(*x*)].member(low(*x*));

Algorithm 9 insert(x)

1: cluster[high(x)].insert(low(x));

2: summary.insert(high(x));

The running times are constant, because the corresponding array-functions have constant running times.



#### Algorithm 10 delete(x)

- 1: cluster[high(x)].delete(low(x));
- 2: **if** cluster[high(x)].min() = null **then**
- 3: summary.delete(high(x));



#### Algorithm 10 delete(x)

- 1: cluster[high(x)].delete(low(x));
- 2: **if** cluster[high(x)].min() = null **then**
- 3: summary.delete(high(x));
- The running time is dominated by the cost of a minimum computation on an array of size  $\sqrt{u}$ . Hence,  $\mathcal{O}(\sqrt{u})$ .



#### Algorithm 11 max()

- maxcluster ← summary.max();
   if maxcluster = null return null;
   offs ← cluster[maxcluster].max()
   return maxcluster ∘ offs;



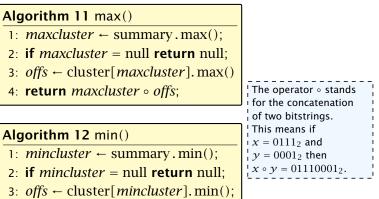
Algorithm 11 max()

- 1: *maxcluster* ← summary.max();
- 2: **if** *maxcluster* = null **return** null;
- 3: offs ← cluster[maxcluster].max()
  4: return maxcluster ∘ offs;

#### Algorithm 12 min()

- 1: *mincluster* ← summary.min();
- 2: **if** *mincluster* = null **return** null;
- 3: offs ← cluster[mincluster].min();
  4: return mincluster ∘ offs;





- 4: return mincluster  $\circ$  offs;
- Running time is roughly  $2\sqrt{u} = \mathcal{O}(\sqrt{u})$  in the worst case.



#### Algorithm 13 succ(x)

- 1:  $m \leftarrow \text{cluster}[\text{high}(x)]. \operatorname{succ}(\operatorname{low}(x))$
- 2: if  $m \neq$  null then return high $(x) \circ m$ ;
- 3: *succluster*  $\leftarrow$  summary.succ(high(x));
- 4: **if** *succeluster* ≠ null **then**
- 5:  $offs \leftarrow cluster[succeluster].min();$
- 6: **return** *succeluster offs*;
- 7: return null;



#### Algorithm 13 succ(x)

- 1:  $m \leftarrow \text{cluster}[\text{high}(x)]. \operatorname{succ}(\operatorname{low}(x))$
- 2: if  $m \neq$  null then return high $(x) \circ m$ ;
- 3: *succluster*  $\leftarrow$  summary.succ(high(x));
- 4: **if** *succeluster* ≠ null **then**
- 5: *offs* ← cluster[*succeluster*].min();
- 6: **return** *succeluster offs*;

7: return null;

• Running time is roughly  $3\sqrt{u} = O(\sqrt{u})$  in the worst case.



#### Algorithm 14 pred(x)

- 1:  $m \leftarrow \text{cluster[high(x)].pred(low(x))}$
- 2: if  $m \neq$  null then return high $(x) \circ m$ ;
- 3: *predcluster*  $\leftarrow$  summary.pred(high(x));
- 4: **if** *predcluster* ≠ null **then**
- 5:  $offs \leftarrow cluster[predcluster].max();$
- 6: **return** *predcluster offs*;

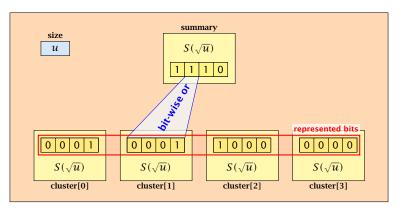
7: return null;

• Running time is roughly  $3\sqrt{u} = O(\sqrt{u})$  in the worst case.



Instead of using sub-arrays, we build a recursive data-structure.

S(u) is a dynamic set data-structure representing u bits:





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We assume that  $u = 2^{2^k}$  for some k.

The data-structure S(2) is defined as an array of 2-bits (end of the recursion).





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The code from Implementation 2 can be used unchanged. We only need to redo the analysis of the running time.



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Note that in the code we do not need to specifically address the non-recursive case. This is achieved by the fact that an S(4) will contain S(2)'s as sub-datastructures, which are arrays. Hence, a call like cluster[1].min() from within the data-structure S(4) is not a recursive call as it will call the function array.min().



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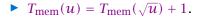
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This means that the non-recursive case is been dealt with while initializing the data-structure.



#### Algorithm 15 member(*x*)

1: **return** cluster[high(*x*)].member(low(*x*));





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#### Algorithm 16 insert(x)

- 1: cluster[high(x)].insert(low(x));
- 2: summary.insert(high(x));

• 
$$T_{ins}(u) = 2T_{ins}(\sqrt{u}) + 1.$$



Algorithm 17 delete(x)

- 1: cluster[high(x)].delete(low(x));
- 2: **if** cluster[high(x)].min() = null **then**
- 3: summary.delete(high(x));

$$T_{\text{del}}(u) = 2T_{\text{del}}(\sqrt{u}) + T_{\min}(\sqrt{u}) + 1.$$



#### Algorithm 18 min()

- 1: *mincluster* ← summary.min();
- 2: **if** *mincluster* = null **return** null;
- 3: *offs* ← cluster[*mincluster*].min();
- 4: **return** *mincluster offs*;

• 
$$T_{\min}(u) = 2T_{\min}(\sqrt{u}) + 1.$$



#### Algorithm 19 succ(x)

- 1:  $m \leftarrow \text{cluster}[\text{high}(x)]. \operatorname{succ}(\operatorname{low}(x))$
- 2: if  $m \neq$  null then return high $(x) \circ m$ ;
- 3: *succluster*  $\leftarrow$  summary.succ(high(*x*));
- 4: **if** *succeluster* ≠ null **then**
- 5: *offs* ← cluster[*succluster*].min();
- 6: **return** *succeluster offs*;

7: return null;

$$T_{\text{succ}}(u) = 2T_{\text{succ}}(\sqrt{u}) + T_{\min}(\sqrt{u}) + 1.$$



 $T_{\text{mem}}(u) = T_{\text{mem}}(\sqrt{u}) + 1$ :



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 $T_{\rm mem}(u) = T_{\rm mem}(\sqrt{u}) + 1:$ 

Set  $\ell := \log u$  and  $X(\ell) := T_{\text{mem}}(2^{\ell})$ .



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 $T_{\rm mem}(u) = T_{\rm mem}(\sqrt{u}) + 1:$ 

Set  $\ell := \log u$  and  $X(\ell) := T_{\text{mem}}(2^{\ell})$ . Then

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$$X(\ell) = T_{\text{mem}}(2^{\ell}) = T_{\text{mem}}(u) = T_{\text{mem}}(\sqrt{u}) + 1$$
  
=  $T_{\text{mem}}(2^{\frac{\ell}{2}}) + 1$ 



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Set  $\ell := \log u$  and  $X(\ell) := T_{\text{mem}}(2^{\ell})$ . Then

$$X(\ell) = T_{\text{mem}}(2^{\ell}) = T_{\text{mem}}(u) = T_{\text{mem}}(\sqrt{u}) + 1$$
$$= T_{\text{mem}}(2^{\frac{\ell}{2}}) + 1 = X(\frac{\ell}{2}) + 1 .$$



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Using Master theorem gives  $X(\ell) = \mathcal{O}(\ell)$ , and hence  $T_{\text{ins}}(u) = \mathcal{O}(\log u)$ .



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The same holds for  $T_{\max}(u)$  and  $T_{\min}(u)$ .



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 $T_{\rm del}(u) = 2T_{\rm del}(\sqrt{u}) + T_{\rm min}(\sqrt{u}) + 1 \le 2T_{\rm del}(\sqrt{u}) + \frac{c}{\log(u)}.$ 

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Using Master theorem gives  $X(\ell) = \Theta(\ell \log \ell)$ , and hence  $T_{del}(u) = O(\log u \log \log u)$ .



 $T_{\text{del}}(u) = 2T_{\text{del}}(\sqrt{u}) + T_{\min}(\sqrt{u}) + 1 \leq 2T_{\text{del}}(\sqrt{u}) + \frac{c}{\log(u)}.$ 

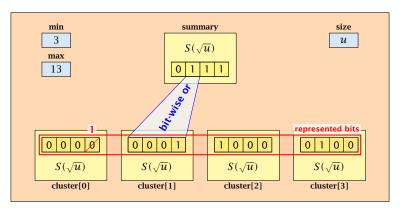
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The same holds for  $T_{\text{pred}}(u)$  and  $T_{\text{succ}}(u)$ .





- The bit referenced by min is not set within sub-datastructures.
- The bit referenced by max is set within sub-datastructures (if max ≠ min).



Advantages of having max/min pointers:



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#### Advantages of having max/min pointers:

Recursive calls for min and max are constant time.



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- Recursive calls for min and max are constant time.
- min = null means that the data-structure is empty.
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- We can insert into an empty datastructure in constant time by only setting min = max = x.
- We can delete from a data-structure that just contains one element in constant time by setting min = max = null.



Algorithm 20 max()

1: return max;

Algorithm 21 min()

1: return min;

Constant time.



#### **Algorithm 22** member(*x*)

- 1: **if**  $x = \min$  **then return** 1; // TRUE
- 2: return cluster[high(x)].member(low(x));

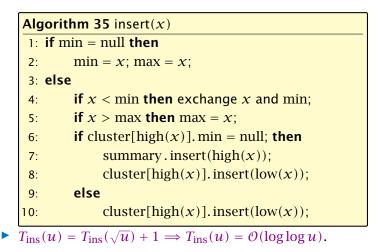
$$T_{\text{mem}}(u) = T_{\text{mem}}(\sqrt{u}) + 1 \Longrightarrow T(u) = \mathcal{O}(\log \log u).$$



```
Algorithm 23 succ(x)
 1: if min \neq null \land x < min then return min:
 2: maxincluster \leftarrow cluster[high(x)].max();
 3: if maxincluster \neq null \land low(x) < maxincluster then
         offs \leftarrow cluster[high(x)]. succ(low(x));
4:
         return high(x) \circ offs;
 5:
6: else
         succluster \leftarrow summary.succ(high(x));
7:
8:
         if succluster = null then return null:
9:
         offs \leftarrow cluster[succluster].min();
         return succeluster • offs;
10:
```

 $T_{\text{succ}}(u) = T_{\text{succ}}(\sqrt{u}) + 1 \Longrightarrow T_{\text{succ}}(u) = \mathcal{O}(\log \log u).$ 







Note that the recusive call in Line 7 takes constant time as the if-condition in Line 5 ensures that we are inserting in an empty sub-tree.

The only non-constant recursive calls are the call in Line 6 and in Line 9. These are mutually exclusive, i.e., only one of these calls will actually occur.

From this we get that  $T_{ins}(u) = T_{ins}(\sqrt{u}) + 1$ .



Assumes that x is contained in the structure.

```
Algorithm 36 delete(x)
1: if min = max then
       \min = \max = \operatorname{null};
 2:
 3: else
4:
        if x = \min then
             firstcluster ← summary.min():
 5:
6:
             offs \leftarrow cluster[firstcluster].min();
        x \leftarrow firstcluster \circ offs;
 7:
 8:
         min \leftarrow x;
         cluster[high(x)]. delete(low(x));
 9:
                          continued...
```



Assumes that x is contained in the structure. Algorithm 36 delete(x) 1: if min = max then 2:  $\min = \max = \operatorname{null};$ 3: else 4: if  $x = \min$  then find new minimum *firstcluster*  $\leftarrow$  summary.min(); 5: offs ← cluster[firstcluster].min(); 6:  $x \leftarrow$  firstcluster  $\circ$  offs; 7: 8:  $\min \leftarrow x$ cluster[high(x)]. delete(low(x)); 9: continued...



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Algorithm 36 delete(x)		
	continued	
10:	<b>if</b> cluster[high( $x$ )].min() = null <b>then</b>	
11:	summary.delete(high( $x$ ));	
12:	if $x = \max$ then	
13:	$summax \leftarrow summary.max();$	
14:	<b>if</b> <i>summax</i> = null <b>then</b> max ← min;	
15:	else	
16:	offs $\leftarrow$ cluster[summax].max();	
17:	$\max \leftarrow summax \circ offs$	
18:	else	
19:	if $x = \max$ then	
20:	offs $\leftarrow$ cluster[high(x)].max();	
21:	$\max \leftarrow \operatorname{high}(x) \circ offs;$	



Algorithm 36 delete(x)			
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11:	summary.delete(high( $x$ ));		
12:	if $x = \max$ then		
13:	$summax \leftarrow summary.max();$		
14:	if $summax = \text{null then } \max \leftarrow \min;$		
15:	else		
16:	offs $\leftarrow$ cluster[summax].max();		
17:	$\max \leftarrow summax \circ offs$		
18:	else		
19:	if $x = \max$ then		
20:	offs $\leftarrow$ cluster[high(x)].max();		
21:	$\max \leftarrow \operatorname{high}(x) \circ offs;$		



Note that only one of the possible recusive calls in Line 9 and Line 11 in the deletion-algorithm may take non-constant time.

To see this observe that the call in Line 11 only occurs if the cluster where x was deleted is now empty. But this means that the call in Line 9 deleted the last element in cluster[high(x)]. Such a call only takes constant time.

Hence, we get a recurrence of the form

 $T_{\text{del}}(u) = T_{\text{del}}(\sqrt{u}) + c$ .

This gives  $T_{del}(u) = O(\log \log u)$ .



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#### 7.6 van Emde Boas Trees

#### Space requirements:

The space requirement fulfills the recurrence

$$S(u) = (\sqrt{u} + 1)S(\sqrt{u}) + \mathcal{O}(\sqrt{u}) .$$

- Note that we cannot solve this recurrence by the Master theorem as the branching factor is not constant.
- One can show by induction that the space requirement is S(u) = O(u). Exercise.



Let the "real" recurrence relation be

$$S(k^2) = (k+1)S(k) + c_1 \cdot k; S(4) = c_2$$

• Replacing S(k) by  $R(k) := S(k)/c_2$  gives the recurrence

 $R(k^2) = (k+1)R(k) + ck; R(4) = 1$ 

where  $c = c_1/c_2 < 1$ .

Now, we show  $R(k^2) \le k^2 - 2$  for  $k^2 \ge 4$ .

- Obviously, this holds for  $k^2 = 4$ .
- For *k*<sup>2</sup> > 4 we have

$$\begin{split} R(k^2) &= (1+k)R(k) + ck \\ &\leq (1+k)(k-2) + k \leq k^2 - 2 \end{split}$$

This shows that R(k) and, hence, S(k) grows linearly.

#### Dictionary:

- S. insert(x): Insert an element x.
- ► *S*. delete(*x*): Delete the element pointed to by *x*.
- S. search(k): Return a pointer to an element e with key[e] = k in S if it exists; otherwise return null.



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Hashing tries to directly compute the memory location from the given key. The goal is to have constant search time.



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• Universe U of keys, e.g.,  $U \subseteq \mathbb{N}_0$ . U very large.



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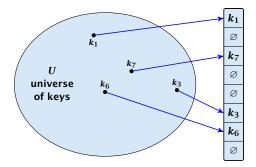
#### The hash-function *h* should fulfill:

- Fast to evaluate.
- Small storage requirement.
- Good distribution of elements over the whole table.



# **Direct Addressing**

Ideally the hash function maps all keys to different memory locations.

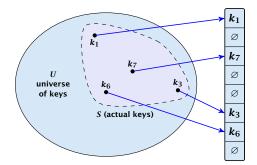


This special case is known as Direct Addressing. It is usually very unrealistic as the universe of keys typically is quite large, and in particular larger than the available memory.



### **Perfect Hashing**

Suppose that we know the set S of actual keys (no insert/no delete). Then we may want to design a simple hash-function that maps all these keys to different memory locations.



Such a hash function *h* is called a perfect hash function for set *S*.



7.7 Hashing

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If we do not know the keys in advance, the best we can hope for is that the hash function distributes keys evenly across the table.



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#### **Problem: Collisions**

Usually the universe U is much larger than the table-size n.

Hence, there may be two elements  $k_1, k_2$  from the set *S* that map to the same memory location (i.e.,  $h(k_1) = h(k_2)$ ). This is called a collision.



Typically, collisions do not appear once the size of the set *S* of actual keys gets close to *n*, but already when  $|S| \ge \omega(\sqrt{n})$ .



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#### Lemma 20

The probability of having a collision when hashing m elements into a table of size n under uniform hashing is at least

$$1 - e^{-\frac{m(m-1)}{2n}} \approx 1 - e^{-\frac{m^2}{2n}}$$
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#### Uniform hashing:

Choose a hash function uniformly at random from all functions  $f: U \rightarrow [0, ..., n-1]$ .



Proof.

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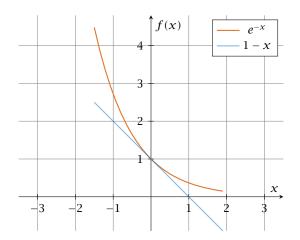
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Here the first equality follows since the  $\ell$ -th element that is hashed has a probability of  $\frac{n-\ell+1}{n}$  to not generate a collision under the condition that the previous elements did not induce collisions.





The inequality  $1 - x \le e^{-x}$  is derived by stopping the Taylor-expansion of  $e^{-x}$  after the second term.



# **Resolving Collisions**

The methods for dealing with collisions can be classified into the two main types

- open addressing, aka. closed hashing
- hashing with chaining, aka. closed addressing, open hashing.



# **Resolving Collisions**

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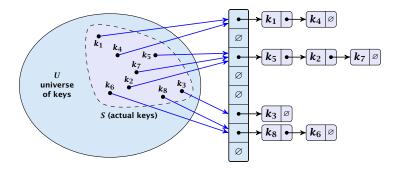
- open addressing, aka. closed hashing
- hashing with chaining, aka. closed addressing, open hashing.

There are applications e.g. computer chess where you do not resolve collisions at all.



Arrange elements that map to the same position in a linear list.

- Access: compute h(x) and search list for key[x].
- Insert: insert at the front of the list.





7.7 Hashing

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 $A^- = 1 + \alpha \ .$ 



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Let for two keys  $k_i$  and  $k_j$ ,  $X_{ij}$  denote the indicator variable for the event that  $k_i$  and  $k_j$  hash to the same position. Clearly,  $\Pr[X_{ij} = 1] = 1/n$  for uniform hashing.



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7.7 Hashing

$$E\left[\frac{1}{m}\sum_{i=1}^{m}\left(1+\sum_{j=i+1}^{m}X_{ij}\right)\right] = \frac{1}{m}\sum_{i=1}^{m}\left(1+\sum_{j=i+1}^{m}E\left[X_{ij}\right]\right)$$



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Hence, the expected cost for a successful search is  $A^+ \leq 1 + \frac{\alpha}{2}$ .



#### Disadvantages:

- pointers increase memory requirements
- pointers may lead to bad cache efficiency

#### Advantages:

- no à priori limit on the number of elements
- deletion can be implemented efficiently
- by using balanced trees instead of linked list one can also obtain worst-case guarantees.





7.7 Hashing

All objects are stored in the table itself.



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Define a function h(k, j) that determines the table-position to be examined in the *j*-th step. The values  $h(k, 0), \ldots, h(k, n-1)$  must form a permutation of  $0, \ldots, n-1$ .



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**Search**(*k*): Try position h(k, 0); if it is empty your search fails; otw. continue with h(k, 1), h(k, 2), ....



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**Search**(*k*): Try position h(k, 0); if it is empty your search fails; otw. continue with h(k, 1), h(k, 2), ....

**Insert**(x): Search until you find an empty slot; insert your element there. If your search reaches h(k, n - 1), and this slot is non-empty then your table is full.



Choices for h(k, j):

Linear probing:
 h(k, i) = h(k) + i mod n
 (sometimes: h(k, i) = h(k) + ci mod n).



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#### • Double hashing: $h(k, i) = h_1(k) + ih_2(k) \mod n.$

For quadratic probing and double hashing one has to ensure that the search covers all positions in the table (i.e., for double hashing  $h_2(k)$  must be relatively prime to n (teilerfremd); for quadratic probing  $c_1$  and  $c_2$  have to be chosen carefully).



### **Linear Probing**

Advantage: Cache-efficiency. The new probe position is very likely to be in the cache.



# **Linear Probing**

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#### Lemma 21

Let *L* be the method of linear probing for resolving collisions:

$$L^{+} \approx \frac{1}{2} \left( 1 + \frac{1}{1 - \alpha} \right)$$
$$L^{-} \approx \frac{1}{2} \left( 1 + \frac{1}{(1 - \alpha)^{2}} \right)$$



7.7 Hashing

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# **Quadratic Probing**

- Not as cache-efficient as Linear Probing.
- Secondary clustering: caused by the fact that all keys mapped to the same position have the same probe sequence.



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#### Lemma 22

Let Q be the method of quadratic probing for resolving collisions:

$$Q^{+} \approx 1 + \ln\left(\frac{1}{1-\alpha}\right) - \frac{\alpha}{2}$$
$$Q^{-} \approx \frac{1}{1-\alpha} + \ln\left(\frac{1}{1-\alpha}\right) - \alpha$$



7.7 Hashing

#### **Double Hashing**

Any probe into the hash-table usually creates a cache-miss.



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#### Lemma 23

Let D be the method of double hashing for resolving collisions:

$$D^+ \approx \frac{1}{\alpha} \ln\left(\frac{1}{1-\alpha}\right)$$
  
 $D^- \approx \frac{1}{1-\alpha}$ 



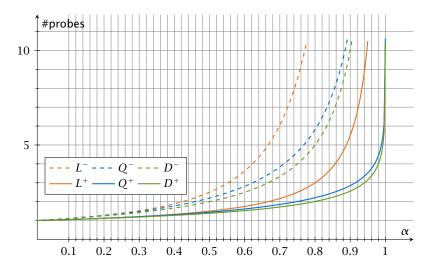
#### **Open Addressing**

#### Some values:

α	Linear Probing		Quadratic Probing		Double Hashing	
	$L^+$	$L^{-}$	$Q^+$	$Q^-$	$D^+$	$D^-$
0.5	1.5	2.5	1.44	2.19	1.39	2
0.9	5.5	50.5	2.85	11.40	2.55	10
0.95	10.5	200.5	3.52	22.05	3.15	20



## **Open Addressing**





7.7 Hashing

We analyze the time for a search in a very idealized Open Addressing scheme.

► The probe sequence h(k, 0), h(k, 1), h(k, 2),... is equally likely to be any permutation of (0, 1,..., n − 1).





7.7 Hashing

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7.7 Hashing

 $\mathbb{E}[X]$ 



7.7 Hashing

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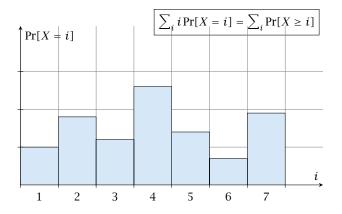
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$$\frac{1}{1-\alpha} = 1 + \alpha + \alpha^2 + \alpha^3 + \dots$$

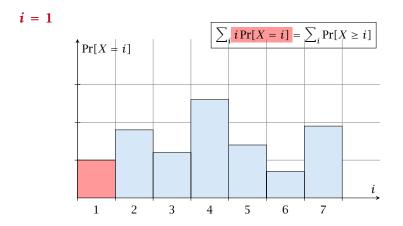


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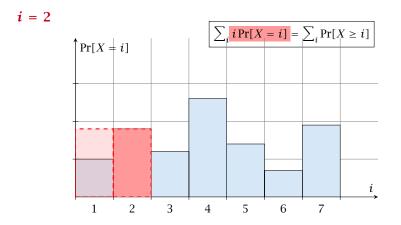


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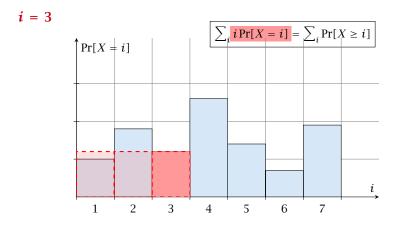


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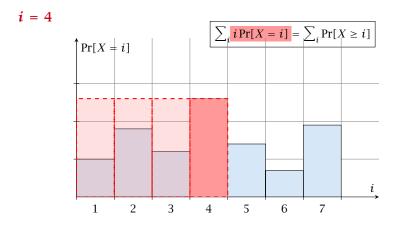


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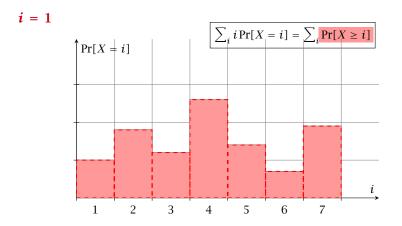


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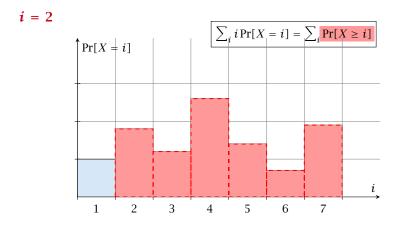


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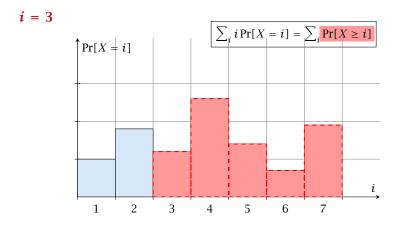


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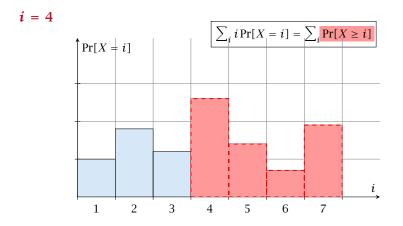


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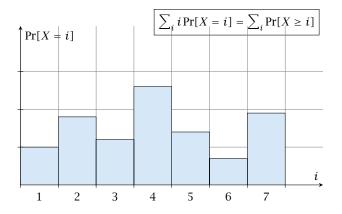


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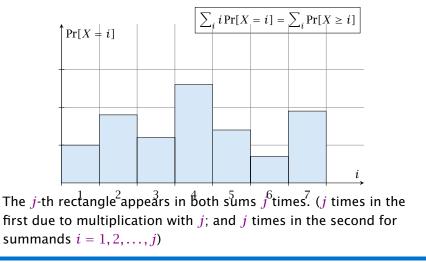


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$$\leq \frac{1}{\alpha} \int_{n-m}^{n} \frac{1}{x} dx = \frac{1}{\alpha} \ln \frac{n}{n-m}$$



7.7 Hashing

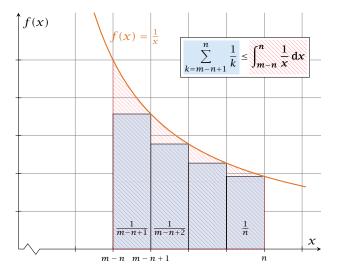
The number of probes in a successful search for k is equal to the number of probes made in an unsuccessful search for k at the time that k is inserted.

Let k be the i + 1-st element. The expected time for a search for k is at most  $\frac{1}{1-i/n} = \frac{n}{n-i}$ .

$$\frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=0}^{m-1} \frac{n}{n-i} = \frac{n}{m} \sum_{i=0}^{m-1} \frac{1}{n-i} = \frac{1}{\alpha} \sum_{k=n-m+1}^{n} \frac{1}{k}$$
$$\leq \frac{1}{\alpha} \int_{n-m}^{n} \frac{1}{x} dx = \frac{1}{\alpha} \ln \frac{n}{n-m} = \frac{1}{\alpha} \ln \frac{1}{1-\alpha} .$$



7.7 Hashing





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- For open addressing this is difficult.



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  - During an insertion if a deleted-marker is encountered an element can be inserted there.
  - During a search a deleted-marker must not be used to terminate the probe sequence.
- The table could fill up with deleted-markers leading to bad performance.
- If a table contains many deleted-markers (linear fraction of the keys) one can rehash the whole table and amortize the cost for this rehash against the cost for the deletions.

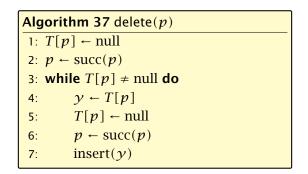


 For Linear Probing one can delete elements without using deletion-markers.



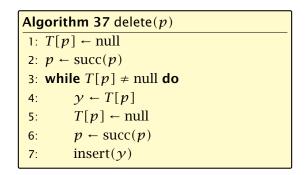
- For Linear Probing one can delete elements without using deletion-markers.
- Upon a deletion elements that are further down in the probe-sequence may be moved to guarantee that they are still found during a search.





 $\ensuremath{\textit{p}}$  is the index into the table-cell that contains the object to be deleted.





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Pointers into the hash-table become invalid.





7.7 Hashing

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However, the assumption of uniform hashing that h is chosen randomly from all functions  $f: U \rightarrow [0, ..., n-1]$  is clearly unrealistic as there are  $n^{|U|}$  such functions. Even writing down such a function would take  $|U| \log n$  bits.



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Universal hashing tries to define a set  $\mathcal{H}$  of functions that is much smaller but still leads to good average case behaviour when selecting a hash-function uniformly at random from  $\mathcal{H}$ .



#### **Definition 24**

A class  $\mathcal{H}$  of hash-functions from the universe U into the set  $\{0, \ldots, n-1\}$  is called universal if for all  $u_1, u_2 \in U$  with  $u_1 \neq u_2$ 

$$\Pr[h(u_1) = h(u_2)] \le \frac{1}{n}$$
,

where the probability is w.r.t. the choice of a random hash-function from set  $\mathcal{H}$ .



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where the probability is w.r.t. the choice of a random hash-function from set  $\mathcal{H}.$ 

Note that this means that the probability of a collision between two arbitrary elements is at most  $\frac{1}{n}$ .



#### **Definition 25**

A class  $\mathcal{H}$  of hash-functions from the universe U into the set  $\{0, \ldots, n-1\}$  is called 2-independent (pairwise independent) if the following two conditions hold

- For any key  $u \in U$ , and  $t \in \{0, ..., n-1\} \Pr[h(u) = t] = \frac{1}{n}$ , i.e., a key is distributed uniformly within the hash-table.
- For all u<sub>1</sub>, u<sub>2</sub> ∈ U with u<sub>1</sub> ≠ u<sub>2</sub>, and for any two hash-positions t<sub>1</sub>, t<sub>2</sub>:

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$$\Pr[h(u_1) = t_1 \wedge h(u_2) = t_2] \le \frac{1}{n^2} .$$

#### This requirement clearly implies a universal hash-function.



#### **Definition 26**

A class  $\mathcal{H}$  of hash-functions from the universe U into the set  $\{0, \ldots, n-1\}$  is called *k*-independent if for any choice of  $\ell \leq k$  distinct keys  $u_1, \ldots, u_\ell \in U$ , and for any set of  $\ell$  not necessarily distinct hash-positions  $t_1, \ldots, t_\ell$ :

$$\Pr[h(u_1) = t_1 \wedge \cdots \wedge h(u_\ell) = t_\ell] \leq \frac{1}{n^\ell} ,$$

where the probability is w.r.t. the choice of a random hash-function from set  $\mathcal{H}$ .



#### **Definition 27**

A class  $\mathcal{H}$  of hash-functions from the universe U into the set  $\{0, \ldots, n-1\}$  is called  $(\mu, k)$ -independent if for any choice of  $\ell \leq k$  distinct keys  $u_1, \ldots, u_\ell \in U$ , and for any set of  $\ell$  not necessarily distinct hash-positions  $t_1, \ldots, t_\ell$ :

$$\Pr[h(u_1) = t_1 \wedge \cdots \wedge h(u_\ell) = t_\ell] \leq \frac{\mu}{n^\ell} ,$$

where the probability is w.r.t. the choice of a random hash-function from set  $\mathcal{H}$ .





7.7 Hashing

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Let  $U := \{0, ..., p-1\}$  for a prime p. Let  $\mathbb{Z}_p := \{0, ..., p-1\}$ , and let  $\mathbb{Z}_p^* := \{1, ..., p-1\}$  denote the set of invertible elements in  $\mathbb{Z}_p$ .



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Define

 $h_{a,b}(x) := (ax + b \mod p) \mod n$ 



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#### Lemma 28

The class

$$\mathcal{H} = \{h_{a,b} \mid a \in \mathbb{Z}_p^*, b \in \mathbb{Z}_p\}$$

is a universal class of hash-functions from U to  $\{0, ..., n-1\}$ .





7.7 Hashing

Proof.

Let  $x, y \in U$  be two distinct keys. We have to show that the probability of a collision is only 1/n.



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Multiplying with  $a \not\equiv 0 \pmod{p}$  gives

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where we use that  $\mathbb{Z}_p$  is a field (Körper) and, hence, has no zero divisors (nullteilerfrei).



The hash-function does not generate collisions before the (mod *n*)-operation. Furthermore, every choice (*a*, *b*) is mapped to a different pair (*t<sub>x</sub>*, *t<sub>y</sub>*) with *t<sub>x</sub>* := *ax* + *b* and *t<sub>y</sub>* := *ay* + *b*.

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- $t_{x} \equiv ax + b \qquad (\mod p)$  $t_{y} \equiv ay + b \qquad (\mod p)$
- $t_{x} t_{y} \equiv a(x y) \qquad (\text{mod } p)$  $t_{y} \equiv ay + b \qquad (\text{mod } p)$

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- $t_{x} t_{y} \equiv a(x y) \qquad (\text{mod } p)$  $t_{y} \equiv ay + b \qquad (\text{mod } p)$ 
  - $a \equiv (t_x t_y)(x y)^{-1} \pmod{p}$  $b \equiv t_y - ay \pmod{p}$



7.7 Hashing

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There is a one-to-one correspondence between hash-functions (pairs (a, b),  $a \neq 0$ ) and pairs  $(t_x, t_y)$ ,  $t_x \neq t_y$ .



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Fix a value  $t_{\chi}$ . There are p - 1 possible values for choosing  $t_{\chi}$ .



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What happens when we do the mod n operation?

Fix a value  $t_{\chi}$ . There are p - 1 possible values for choosing  $t_{\chi}$ .

From the range 0, ..., p - 1 the values  $t_x, t_x + n, t_x + 2n, ...$  map to  $t_x$  after the modulo-operation. These are at most  $\lceil p/n \rceil$  values.





7.7 Hashing

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As  $t_{\mathcal{Y}} \neq t_{\mathcal{X}}$  there are

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possibilities for choosing  $t_{\mathcal{Y}}$  such that the final hash-value creates a collision.



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This happens with probability at most  $\frac{1}{n}$ .





7.7 Hashing

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It is also possible to show that  $\mathcal H$  is an (almost) pairwise independent class of hash-functions.

$$\Pr_{t_{x} \neq t_{y} \in \mathbb{Z}_{p}^{2}} \begin{bmatrix} t_{x} \mod n = h_{1} \\ \uparrow \\ t_{y} \mod n = h_{2} \end{bmatrix}$$



It is also possible to show that  $\mathcal H$  is an (almost) pairwise independent class of hash-functions.

$$\frac{\left\lfloor \frac{p}{n} \right\rfloor^2}{p(p-1)} \le \Pr_{t_x \neq t_y \in \mathbb{Z}_p^2} \left[ \begin{array}{c} t_x \mod n = h_1 \\ t_y \mod n = h_2 \end{array} \right] \le \frac{\left\lceil \frac{p}{n} \right\rceil^2}{p(p-1)}$$



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Note that the middle is the probability that  $h(x) = h_1$  and  $h(y) = h_2$ . The total number of choices for  $(t_x, t_y)$  is p(p-1). The number of choices for  $t_x$   $(t_y)$  such that  $t_x \mod n = h_1$  $(t_y \mod n = h_2)$  lies between  $\lfloor \frac{p}{n} \rfloor$  and  $\lceil \frac{p}{n} \rceil$ .



#### **Definition 29**

Let  $d \in \mathbb{N}$ ;  $q \ge (d+1)n$  be a prime; and let  $\bar{a} \in \{0, \dots, q-1\}^{d+1}$ . Define for  $x \in \{0, \dots, q-1\}$ 

$$h_{\bar{a}}(x) := \left(\sum_{i=0}^{d} a_i x^i \mod q\right) \mod n \; .$$

Let  $\mathcal{H}_n^d := \{h_{\bar{a}} \mid \bar{a} \in \{0, \dots, q-1\}^{d+1}\}$ . The class  $\mathcal{H}_n^d$  is (e, d+1)-independent.

Note that in the previous case we had d = 1 and chose  $a_d \neq 0$ .





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For the coefficients  $\bar{a} \in \{0, \dots, q-1\}^{d+1}$  let  $f_{\bar{a}}$  denote the polynomial

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The polynomial is defined by d + 1 distinct points.



Fix  $\ell \le d + 1$ ; let  $x_1, \ldots, x_\ell \in \{0, \ldots, q - 1\}$  be keys, and let  $t_1, \ldots, t_\ell$  denote the corresponding hash-function values.

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 $h_{\tilde{a}} \in A^{\ell} \Leftrightarrow h_{\tilde{a}} = f_{\tilde{a}} \bmod n$  and

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In order to obtain the cardinality of  $A^{\ell}$  we choose our polynomial by fixing d + 1 points.

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We first fix the values for inputs  $x_1, \ldots, x_\ell$ . We have

 $|B_1| \cdot \ldots \cdot |B_\ell|$ 

possibilities to do this (so that  $h_{\bar{a}}(x_i) = t_i$ ).

Now, we choose  $d - \ell + 1$  other inputs and choose their value arbitrarily. We have  $q^{d-\ell+1}$  possibilities to do this.



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Therefore we have

$$|B_1| \cdot \ldots \cdot |B_\ell| \cdot q^{d-\ell+1} \leq \lceil \frac{q}{n} \rceil^\ell \cdot q^{d-\ell+1}$$

possibilities to choose  $\bar{a}$  such that  $h_{\bar{a}} \in A_{\ell}$ .



Therefore the probability of choosing  $h_{\tilde{a}}$  from  $A_{\ell}$  is only

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$$\frac{\lceil \frac{q}{n} \rceil^{\ell} \cdot q^{d-\ell+1}}{q^{d+1}} \leq \frac{(\frac{q+n}{n})^{\ell}}{q^{\ell}} \leq \left(\frac{q+n}{q}\right)^{\ell} \cdot \frac{1}{n^{\ell}}$$



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$$\frac{\lceil \frac{q}{n} \rceil^{\ell} \cdot q^{d-\ell+1}}{q^{d+1}} \le \frac{\left(\frac{q+n}{n}\right)^{\ell}}{q^{\ell}} \le \left(\frac{q+n}{q}\right)^{\ell} \cdot \frac{1}{n^{\ell}}$$
$$\le \left(1 + \frac{1}{\ell}\right)^{\ell} \cdot \frac{1}{n^{\ell}}$$



Therefore the probability of choosing  $h_{\tilde{a}}$  from  $A_{\ell}$  is only

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\lceil \frac{q}{n} \rceil^{\ell} \cdot q^{d-\ell+1}}{q^{d+1}} &\leq \frac{\left(\frac{q+n}{n}\right)^{\ell}}{q^{\ell}} \leq \left(\frac{q+n}{q}\right)^{\ell} \cdot \frac{1}{n^{\ell}} \\ &\leq \left(1 + \frac{1}{\ell}\right)^{\ell} \cdot \frac{1}{n^{\ell}} \leq \frac{e}{n^{\ell}} \end{aligned}$$



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This shows that the  $\mathcal{H}$  is (e, d + 1)-universal.

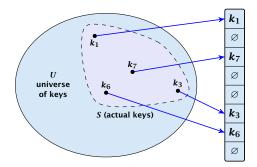
The last step followed from  $q \ge (d+1)n$ , and  $\ell \le d+1$ .



7.7 Hashing

9. Jan. 2023 296/662

Suppose that we **know** the set *S* of actual keys (no insert/no delete). Then we may want to design a **simple** hash-function that maps all these keys to different memory locations.





7.7 Hashing

9. Jan. 2023 297/662



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9. Jan. 2023 298/662

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The probability of having 1 or more collisions can be at most  $\frac{1}{2}$  as otherwise the expectation would be larger than  $\frac{1}{2}$ .





7.7 Hashing

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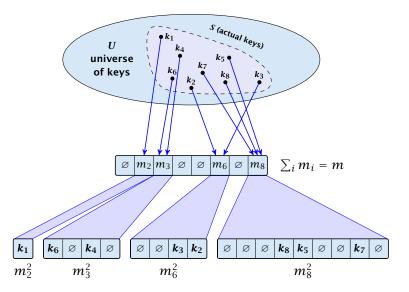
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Let  $m_j$  denote the number of items that are hashed to the *j*-th bucket. For each bucket we choose a second hash-function that maps the elements of the bucket into a table of size  $m_j^2$ . The second function can be chosen such that all elements are mapped to different locations.









7.7 Hashing

9. Jan. 2023 301/662

The total memory that is required by all hash-tables is  $\mathcal{O}(\sum_j m_j^2)$ . Note that  $m_j$  is a random variable.

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$$= 2\binom{m}{2}\frac{1}{m} + m = 2m - 1 \quad .$$



7.7 Hashing

9. Jan. 2023 301/662

We need only  $\mathcal{O}(m)$  time to construct a hash-function h with  $\sum_j m_j^2 = \mathcal{O}(4m)$ , because with probability at least 1/2 a random function from a universal family will have this property.

Then we construct a hash-table  $h_j$  for every bucket. This takes expected time  $\mathcal{O}(m_j)$  for every bucket. A random function  $h_j$  is collision-free with probability at least 1/2. We need  $\mathcal{O}(m_j)$  to test this.

We only need that the hash-functions are chosen from a universal family!!!





7.7 Hashing

9. Jan. 2023 303/662

#### Goal:

Try to generate a hash-table with constant worst-case search time in a dynamic scenario.



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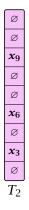
Try to generate a hash-table with constant worst-case search time in a dynamic scenario.

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- An object x is either stored at location  $T_1[h_1(x)]$  or  $T_2[h_2(x)]$ .
- A search clearly takes constant time if the above constraint is met.



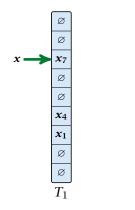
#### Insert:

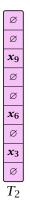






Insert:



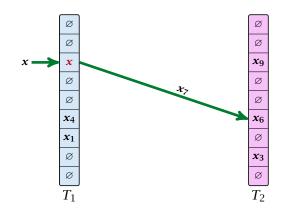




7.7 Hashing

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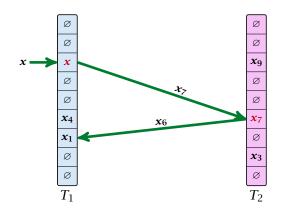
Insert:





7.7 Hashing

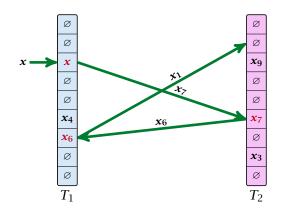
Insert:





7.7 Hashing

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7.7 Hashing

```
Algorithm 38 Cuckoo-Insert(x)
1: if T_1[h_1(x)] = x \lor T_2[h_2(x)] = x then return
 2: steps \leftarrow 1
 3: while steps \leq maxsteps do
4:
    exchange x and T_1[h_1(x)]
 5: if x = null then return
6: exchange x and T_2[h_2(x)]
7: if x = null then return
 8:
     steps \leftarrow steps +1
 9: rehash() // change hash-functions; rehash everything
10: Cuckoo-Insert(x)
```



We call one iteration through the while-loop a step of the algorithm.



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- We call a sequence of iterations through the while-loop without the termination condition becoming true a phase of the algorithm.
- We say a phase is successful if it is not terminated by the maxstep-condition, but the while loop is left because x = null.





7.7 Hashing

#### What is the expected time for an insert-operation?



7.7 Hashing

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We first analyze the probability that we end-up in an infinite loop (that is then terminated after maxsteps steps).



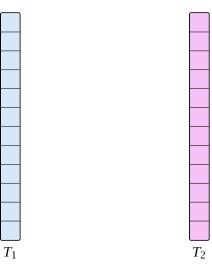
7.7 Hashing

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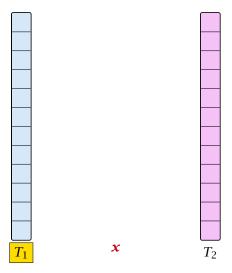
Formally what is the probability to enter an infinite loop that touches *s* different keys?





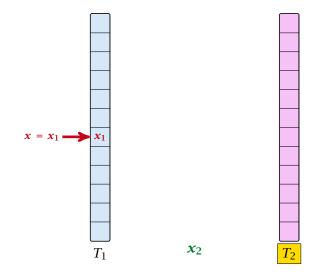


7.7 Hashing



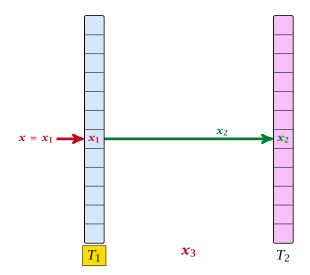


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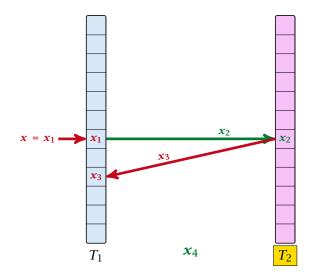


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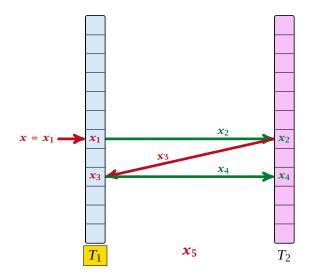


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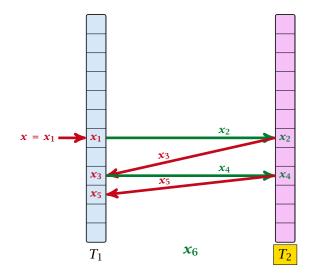


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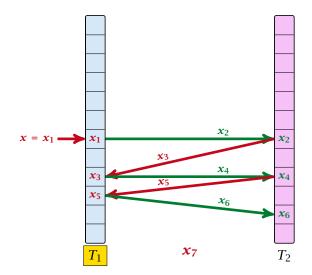


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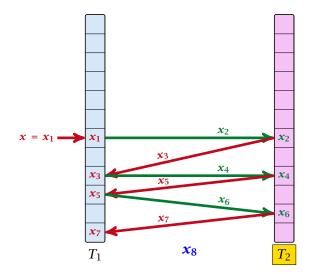


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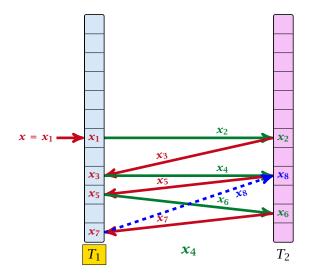


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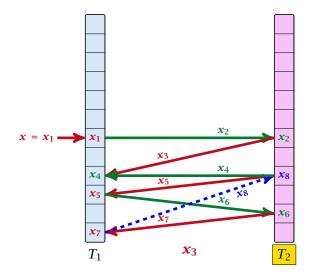


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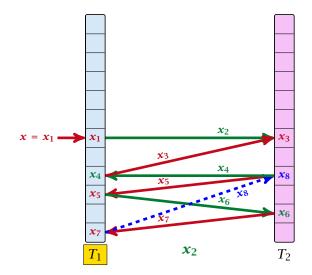


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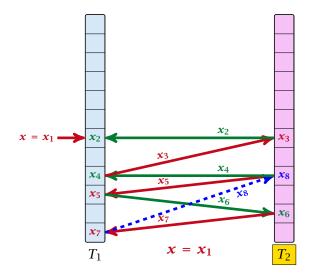


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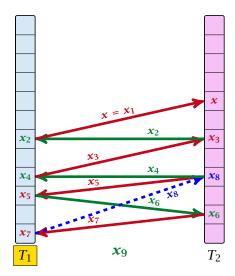


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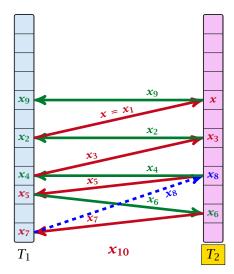


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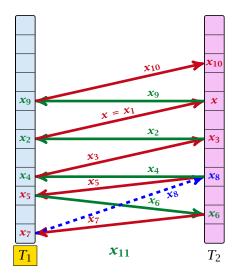


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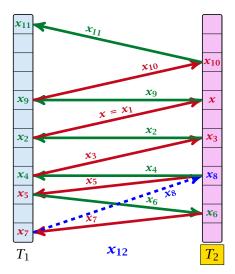


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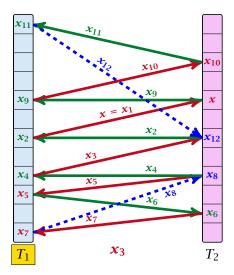


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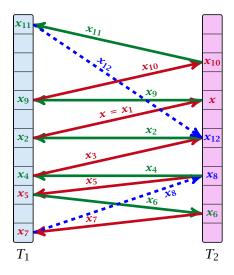


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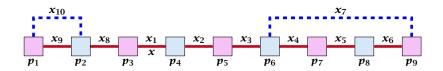


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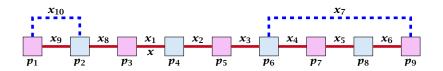
7.7 Hashing



A cycle-structure of size *s* is defined by



7.7 Hashing

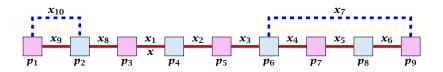


A cycle-structure of size *s* is defined by

▶ s - 1 different cells (alternating btw. cells from  $T_1$  and  $T_2$ ).



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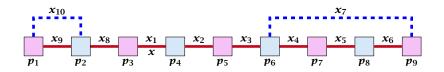


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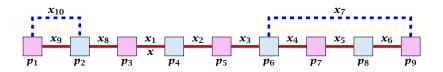
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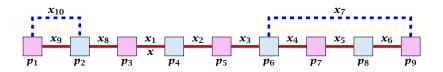




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- The leftmost cell is "linked forward" to some cell on the right.
- The rightmost cell is "linked backward" to a cell on the left.
- One link represents key *x*; this is where the counting starts.



A cycle-structure is active if for every key  $x_{\ell}$  (linking a cell  $p_i$  from  $T_1$  and a cell  $p_j$  from  $T_2$ ) we have

$$h_1(x_{\ell}) = p_i$$
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#### **Observation:**

If during a phase the insert-procedure runs into a cycle there must exist an active cycle structure of size  $s \ge 3$ .



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These events are independent.



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# The probability that a given cycle-structure of size *s* is active is at most $\frac{\mu^2}{n^{2s}}$ .

What is the probability that there exists an active cycle structure of size *s*?



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- There are  $n^{s-1}$  possibilities to choose the cells.



The probability that there exists an active cycle-structure is therefore at most

$$\sum_{s=3}^{\infty} s^3 \cdot n^{s-1} \cdot m^{s-1} \cdot \frac{\mu^2}{n^{2s}}$$



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Here we used the fact that  $(1 + \epsilon)m \le n$ .



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Hence,

$$\Pr[\mathsf{cycle}] = \mathcal{O}\left(\frac{1}{m^2}\right)$$
.

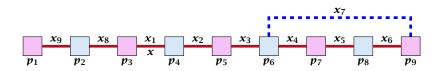


7.7 Hashing

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Now, we analyze the probability that a phase is not successful without running into a closed cycle.





Sequence of visited keys:

 $x = x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4, x_5, x_6, x_7, x_3, x_2, x_1 = x, x_8, x_9, \dots$ 



Consider the sequence of not necessarily distinct keys starting with x in the order that they are visited during the phase.



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**Lemma 30** If the sequence is of length p then there exists a sub-sequence of at least  $\frac{p+2}{3}$  keys starting with x of distinct keys.



#### Proof.

Let i be the number of keys (including x) that we see before the first repeated key. Let j denote the total number of distinct keys.

The sequence is of the form:

 $x = x_1 \rightarrow x_2 \rightarrow \cdots \rightarrow x_i \rightarrow x_r \rightarrow x_{r-1} \rightarrow \cdots \rightarrow x_1 \rightarrow x_{i+1} \rightarrow \cdots \rightarrow x_j$ 

As  $r \leq i - 1$  the length p of the sequence is

 $p=i+r+(j-i)\leq i+j-1\ .$ 



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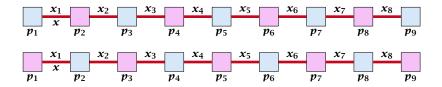
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Either sub-sequence  $x_1 \rightarrow x_2 \rightarrow \cdots \rightarrow x_i$  or sub-sequence  $x_1 \rightarrow x_{i+1} \rightarrow \cdots \rightarrow x_j$  has at least  $\frac{p+2}{3}$  elements.



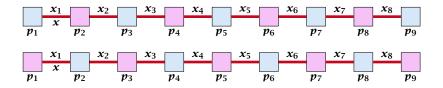


A path-structure of size *s* is defined by



7.7 Hashing

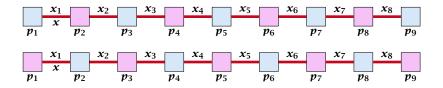
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A path-structure of size *s* is defined by

▶ s + 1 different cells (alternating btw. cells from  $T_1$  and  $T_2$ ).

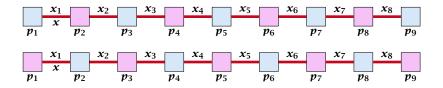




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- ▶ s + 1 different cells (alternating btw. cells from  $T_1$  and  $T_2$ ).
- ▶ *s* distinct keys  $x = x_1, x_2, ..., x_s$ , linking the cells.
- The leftmost cell is either from  $T_1$  or  $T_2$ .



A path-structure is active if for every key  $x_{\ell}$  (linking a cell  $p_i$  from  $T_1$  and a cell  $p_j$  from  $T_2$ ) we have

$$h_1(x_{\ell}) = p_i$$
 and  $h_2(x_{\ell}) = p_j$ 

#### **Observation:**

If a phase takes at least t steps without running into a cycle there must exist an active path-structure of size (2t + 2)/3.



The probability that a given path-structure of size s is active is at most  $\frac{\mu^2}{n^{2s}}$ .



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7.7 Hashing

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by choosing  $\ell \geq \log\left(\frac{1}{2\mu^2m^2}\right)/\log\left(\frac{1}{1+\epsilon}\right) = \log\left(2\mu^2m^2\right)/\log\left(1+\epsilon\right)$ 



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This gives maxsteps =  $\Theta(\log m)$ .



So far we estimated

$$\Pr[\mathsf{cycle}] \le \mathcal{O}\Big(rac{1}{m^2}\Big)$$

and

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7.7 Hashing

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This means the expected cost for a successful phase is constant (even after accounting for the cost of the incomplete step that finishes the phase).





7.7 Hashing

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Therefore the expected cost for re-hashes is  $\mathcal{O}(m) \cdot \mathcal{O}(p) = \mathcal{O}(1)$ .



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# $\mathbf{E}\left[\sum_{i}\sum_{s}Z_{i}X_{i}^{s}\right]$



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Note that  $Z_i$  is independent of  $X_j^s$ ,  $j \ge i$  (however, it is not independent of  $X_j^s$ , j < i). Hence,

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$$E\left[\sum_{i}\sum_{s}Z_{i}X_{s}^{i}\right] = \sum_{i}\sum_{s}E[Z_{i}] \cdot E[X_{s}^{i}]$$
  
 
$$\leq \mathcal{O}(m) \cdot \sum_{i}p^{i}$$
  
 
$$\leq \mathcal{O}(m) \cdot \frac{p}{1-p}$$



 $\mathbf{E}\left[\sum_{i}\sum_{s}Z_{i}X_{i}^{s}\right]$ 

Note that  $Z_i$  is independent of  $X_j^s$ ,  $j \ge i$  (however, it is not independent of  $X_j^s$ , j < i). Hence,

$$E\left[\sum_{i}\sum_{s}Z_{i}X_{s}^{i}\right] = \sum_{i}\sum_{s}E[Z_{i}] \cdot E[X_{s}^{i}]$$

$$\leq \mathcal{O}(m) \cdot \sum_{i}p^{i}$$

$$\leq \mathcal{O}(m) \cdot \frac{p}{1-p}$$

$$= \mathcal{O}(1) .$$



#### What kind of hash-functions do we need?



7.7 Hashing

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#### What kind of hash-functions do we need?

Since maxsteps is  $\Theta(\log m)$  the largest size of a path-structure or cycle-structure contains just  $\Theta(\log m)$  different keys.



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Since maxsteps is  $\Theta(\log m)$  the largest size of a path-structure or cycle-structure contains just  $\Theta(\log m)$  different keys.

Therefore, it is sufficient to have  $(\mu, \Theta(\log m))$ -independent hash-functions.



#### How do we make sure that $n \ge (1 + \epsilon)m$ ?

```
• Let \alpha := 1/(1 + \epsilon).
```



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- Note that right after a change in table-size we have  $m = \alpha n/2$ . In order for a table-expand to occur at least  $\alpha n/2$  insertions are required. Similar, for a table-shrink at least  $\alpha n/4$  deletions must occur.



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- Therefore we can amortize the rehash cost after a change in table-size against the cost for insertions and deletions.



#### Lemma 31

*Cuckoo Hashing has an expected constant insert-time and a worst-case constant search-time.* 



#### Lemma 31

*Cuckoo Hashing has an expected constant insert-time and a worst-case constant search-time.* 

Note that the above lemma only holds if the fill-factor (number of keys/total number of hash-table slots) is at most  $\frac{1}{2(1+\epsilon)}$ .



A Priority Queue *S* is a dynamic set data structure that supports the following operations:



**8 Priority Queues** 

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A Priority Queue *S* is a dynamic set data structure that supports the following operations:

S. build(x<sub>1</sub>,..., x<sub>n</sub>): Creates a data-structure that contains just the elements x<sub>1</sub>,..., x<sub>n</sub>.



- S. build(x<sub>1</sub>,..., x<sub>n</sub>): Creates a data-structure that contains just the elements x<sub>1</sub>,..., x<sub>n</sub>.
- S. insert(x): Adds element x to the data-structure.



- S. build  $(x_1, \ldots, x_n)$ : Creates a data-structure that contains just the elements  $x_1, \ldots, x_n$ .
- S. insert(x): Adds element x to the data-structure.
- element *S*. minimum(): Returns an element  $x \in S$  with minimum key-value key[x].



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- element S. delete-min(): Deletes the element with minimum key-value from S and returns it.



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A Priority Queue *S* is a dynamic set data structure that supports the following operations:

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- element *S*. minimum(): Returns an element  $x \in S$  with minimum key-value key[x].
- element S. delete-min(): Deletes the element with minimum key-value from S and returns it.
- boolean S. is-empty(): Returns true if the data-structure is empty and false otherwise.

Sometimes we also have

• S. merge(S'):  $S := S \cup S'$ ;  $S' := \emptyset$ .



An addressable Priority Queue also supports:



8 Priority Queues

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An addressable Priority Queue also supports:

handle S. insert(x): Adds element x to the data-structure, and returns a handle to the object for future reference.



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An addressable Priority Queue also supports:

- handle S. insert(x): Adds element x to the data-structure, and returns a handle to the object for future reference.
- **S. delete(***h***):** Deletes element specified through handle *h*.
- S. decrease-key(h, k): Decreases the key of the element specified by handle h to k. Assumes that the key is at least k before the operation.



# Dijkstra's Shortest Path Algorithm

```
Algorithm 39 Shortest-Path(G = (V, E, d), s \in V)
 1: Input: weighted graph G = (V, E, d); start vertex s;
 2: Output: key-field of every node contains distance from s;
 3: S.build(); // build empty priority queue
4: for all v \in V \setminus \{s\} do
5: v \cdot \ker - \infty;
6: h_v \leftarrow S.insert(v);
7: s.key \leftarrow 0; S.insert(s);
8: while S.is-empty() = false do
9:
    v \leftarrow S.delete-min():
10: for all x \in V s.t. (v, x) \in E do
11:
               if x. key > v. key + d(v, x) then
12:
                    S.decrease-key(h_x, v.key+d(v, x));
13:
                    x.key \leftarrow v.key + d(v, x):
```



8 Priority Queues

# Prim's Minimum Spanning Tree Algorithm

```
Algorithm 40 Prim-MST(G = (V, E, d), s \in V)
1: Input: weighted graph G = (V, E, d); start vertex s;
 2: Output: pred-fields encode MST;
 3: S.build(); // build empty priority queue
4: for all v \in V \setminus \{s\} do
5: v \cdot \ker \infty;
6: h_v \leftarrow S.insert(v);
 7: s.key \leftarrow 0; S.insert(s);
8: while S.is-empty() = false do
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      v \leftarrow S.delete-min();
10: for all x \in V s.t. \{v, x\} \in E do
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               if x. key > d(v, x) then
12:
                     S.decrease-key(h_x, d(v, x));
                     x.key \leftarrow d(v, x);
13:
14:
                     x.pred \leftarrow v;
```



# Analysis of Dijkstra and Prim

Both algorithms require:

- 1 build() operation
- |V| insert() operations
- ▶ |V| delete-min() operations
- ▶ |V| is-empty() operations
- |E| decrease-key() operations



# Analysis of Dijkstra and Prim

Both algorithms require:

- 1 build() operation
- ▶ |V| insert() operations
- ▶ |V| delete-min() operations
- |V| is-empty() operations
- |E| decrease-key() operations

How good a running time can we obtain?



Operation	Binary Heap	BST	Binomial Heap	Fibonacci Heap <sup>*</sup>
build	п	$n\log n$	$n\log n$	п
minimum	1	$\log n$	$\log n$	1
is-empty	1	1	1	1
insert	$\log n$	$\log n$	$\log n$	1
delete	$\log n^{**}$	$\log n$	$\log n$	$\log n$
delete-min	$\log n$	$\log n$	$\log n$	$\log n$
decrease-key	$\log n$	$\log n$	$\log n$	1
merge	n	$n\log n$	$\log n$	1

Operation	Binary Heap	BST	Binomial Heap	Fibonacci Heap <sup>*</sup>
build	n	$n\log n$	$n\log n$	п
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Note that most applications use  $\mathbf{build}()$  only to create an empty heap which then costs time 1.

Operation	Binary Heap	BST	Binomial Heap	Fibonacci Heap*
build	п	$n\log n$	$n\log n$	п
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Note that most applications use **build()** only to create an empty heap which then costs time 1.

The standard version of binary heaps is not addressable, and hence does not support a delete operation.

Operation	Binary Heap	BST	Binomial Heap	Fibonacci Heap*
build	п	$n\log n$	$n\log n$	п
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Note that most applications use **build()** only to create an empty heap which then costs time 1.

The standard version of binary heaps is not addressable, and hence does not support a delete operation.

Fibonacci heaps only give an amortized guarantee.

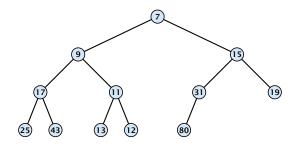
# Using Binary Heaps, Prim and Dijkstra run in time $\mathcal{O}((|V| + |E|) \log |V|).$

# Using Fibonacci Heaps, Prim and Dijkstra run in time $\mathcal{O}(|V| \log |V| + |E|)$ .



**8 Priority Queues** 

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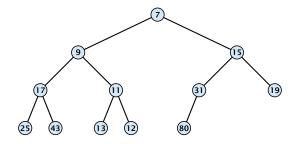




8.1 Binary Heaps

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Nearly complete binary tree; only the last level is not full, and this one is filled from left to right.

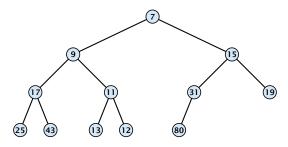




8.1 Binary Heaps

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- Nearly complete binary tree; only the last level is not full, and this one is filled from left to right.
- Heap property: A node's key is not larger than the key of one of its children.





8.1 Binary Heaps

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**Operations:** 



**Operations:** 

• **minimum()**: return the root-element. Time  $\mathcal{O}(1)$ .

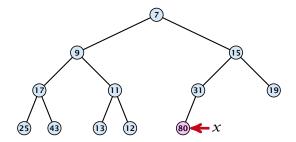


#### **Operations:**

- **minimum()**: return the root-element. Time  $\mathcal{O}(1)$ .
- **is-empty():** check whether root-pointer is null. Time  $\mathcal{O}(1)$ .



Maintain a pointer to the last element *x*.

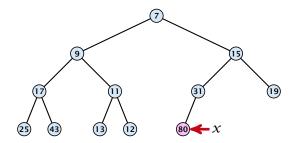




8.1 Binary Heaps

Maintain a pointer to the last element *x*.

We can compute the predecessor of x (last element when x is deleted) in time O(log n).



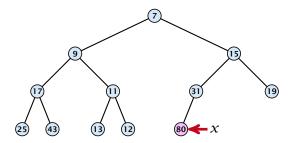


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We can compute the predecessor of x (last element when x is deleted) in time O(log n).

go up until the last edge used was a right edge. go left; go right until you reach a leaf





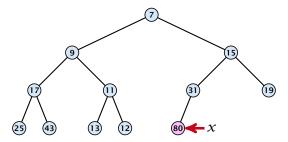
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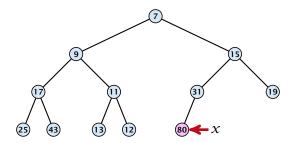
if you hit the root on the way up, go to the rightmost element





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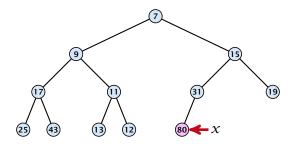




8.1 Binary Heaps

Maintain a pointer to the last element *x*.

We can compute the successor of x (last element when an element is inserted) in time O(log n).



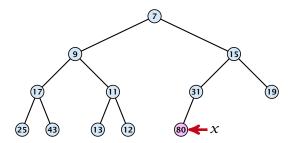


8.1 Binary Heaps

Maintain a pointer to the last element *x*.

We can compute the successor of x (last element when an element is inserted) in time O(log n).

go up until the last edge used was a left edge. go right; go left until you reach a null-pointer.





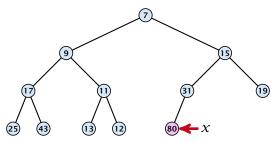
8.1 Binary Heaps

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We can compute the successor of x (last element when an element is inserted) in time O(log n).

go up until the last edge used was a left edge. go right; go left until you reach a null-pointer.

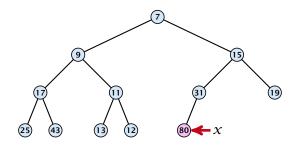
if you hit the root on the way up, go to the leftmost element; insert a new element as a left child;





8.1 Binary Heaps

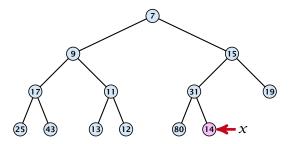
**1.** Insert element at successor of *x*.





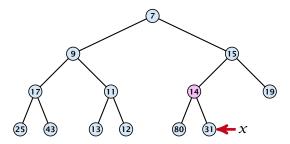
8.1 Binary Heaps

- **1.** Insert element at successor of *x*.
- 2. Exchange with parent until heap property is fulfilled.



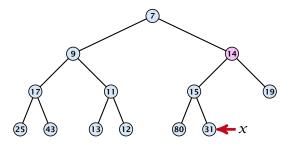


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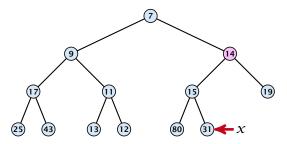


- **1.** Insert element at successor of *x*.
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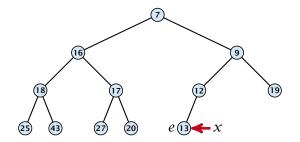
- 1. Insert element at successor of *x*.
- 2. Exchange with parent until heap property is fulfilled.



Note that an exchange can either be done by moving the data or by changing pointers. The latter method leads to an addressable priority queue.



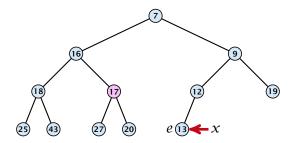
1. Exchange the element to be deleted with the element *e* pointed to by *x*.





8.1 Binary Heaps

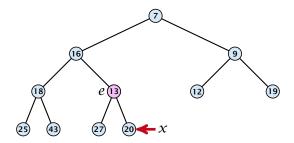
- 1. Exchange the element to be deleted with the element *e* pointed to by *x*.
- **2.** Restore the heap-property for the element *e*.





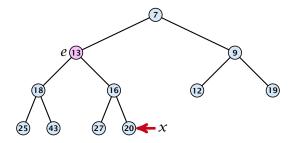
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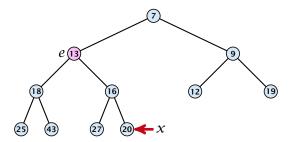


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- **2.** Restore the heap-property for the element *e*.



At its new position e may either travel up or down in the tree (but not both directions).



#### **Operations:**

- **minimum()**: return the root-element. Time  $\mathcal{O}(1)$ .
- **is-empty():** check whether root-pointer is null. Time  $\mathcal{O}(1)$ .
- insert(k): insert at successor of x and bubble up. Time O(log n).
- delete(h): swap with x and bubble up or sift-down. Time O(log n).



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- **minimum():** Return the root-element. Time  $\mathcal{O}(1)$ .
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- **insert**(*k*): Insert at *x* and bubble up. Time  $O(\log n)$ .
- delete(*h*): Swap with x and bubble up or sift-down. Time  $O(\log n)$ .
- build(x<sub>1</sub>,..., x<sub>n</sub>): Insert elements arbitrarily; then do sift-down operations starting with the lowest layer in the tree. Time O(n).





The standard implementation of binary heaps is via arrays. Let A[0, ..., n-1] be an array

- The parent of *i*-th element is at position  $\lfloor \frac{i-1}{2} \rfloor$ .
- The left child of *i*-th element is at position 2i + 1.
- The right child of *i*-th element is at position 2i + 2.



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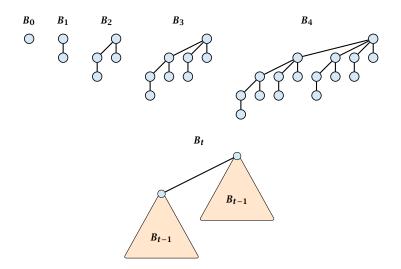
Finding the successor of x is much easier than in the description on the previous slide. Simply increase or decrease x.

The resulting binary heap is not addressable. The elements don't maintain their positions and therefore there are no stable handles.



Operation	Binary Heap	BST	Binomial Heap	Fibonacci Heap*
build	п	$n\log n$	$n\log n$	п
minimum	1	$\log n$	$\log n$	1
is-empty	1	1	1	1
insert	$\log n$	$\log n$	$\log n$	1
delete	$\log n^{**}$	$\log n$	$\log n$	$\log n$
delete-min	$\log n$	$\log n$	$\log n$	$\log n$
decrease-key	$\log n$	$\log n$	$\log n$	1
merge	n	$n\log n$	log n	1







#### **Properties of Binomial Trees**

▶  $B_k$  has  $2^k$  nodes.



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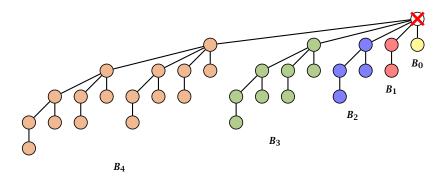


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- $B_k$  has  $\binom{k}{\ell}$  nodes on level  $\ell$ .



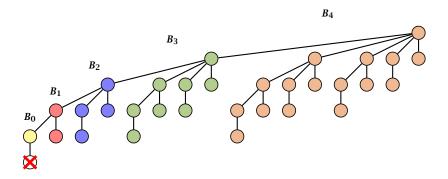
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- The root of  $B_k$  has degree k.
- $B_k$  has  $\binom{k}{\ell}$  nodes on level  $\ell$ .
- Deleting the root of  $B_k$  gives trees  $B_0, B_1, \ldots, B_{k-1}$ .





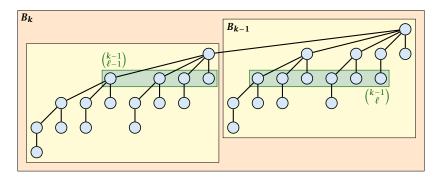
Deleting the root of  $B_5$  leaves sub-trees  $B_4$ ,  $B_3$ ,  $B_2$ ,  $B_1$ , and  $B_0$ .





Deleting the leaf furthest from the root (in  $B_5$ ) leaves a path that connects the roots of sub-trees  $B_4$ ,  $B_3$ ,  $B_2$ ,  $B_1$ , and  $B_0$ .

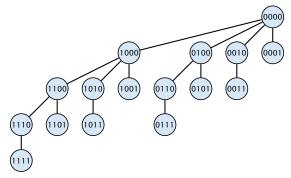




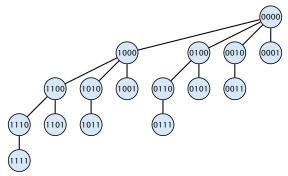
The number of nodes on level  $\ell$  in tree  $B_k$  is therefore

$$\binom{k-1}{\ell-1} + \binom{k-1}{\ell} = \binom{k}{\ell}$$



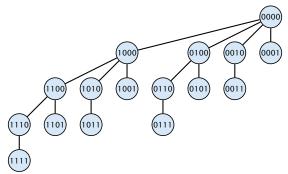






The binomial tree  $B_k$  is a sub-graph of the hypercube  $H_k$ .

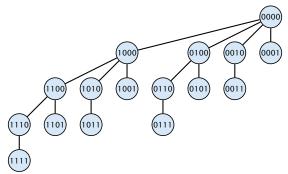




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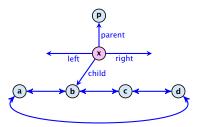
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The  $\ell$ -th level contains nodes that have  $\ell$  1's in their label.



#### How do we implement trees with non-constant degree?

The children of a node are arranged in a circular linked list.

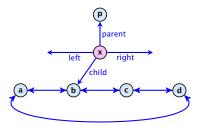




8.2 Binomial Heaps

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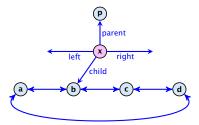




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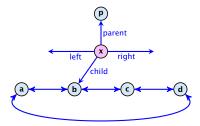




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- A parent-pointer points to the parent node.
- Pointers x.left and x.right point to the left and right sibling of x (if x does not have siblings then x.left = x.right = x).

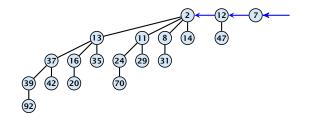




8.2 Binomial Heaps

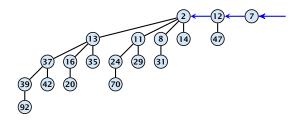
- Given a pointer to a node x we can splice out the sub-tree rooted at x in constant time.
- We can add a child-tree T to a node x in constant time if we are given a pointer to x and a pointer to the root of T.





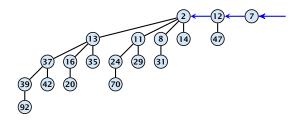


8.2 Binomial Heaps



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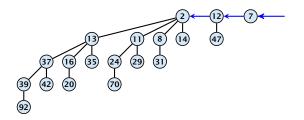




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Every tree fulfills the heap-property

There is at most one tree for every dimension/order. For example the above heap contains trees  $B_0$ ,  $B_1$ , and  $B_4$ .





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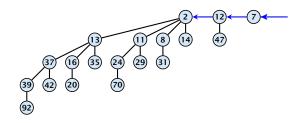
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Then  $n = \sum_i 2^{k_i}$  must hold. But since the  $k_i$  are all distinct this means that the  $k_i$  define the non-zero bit-positions in the binary representation of n.



Properties of a heap with *n* keys:

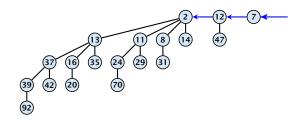




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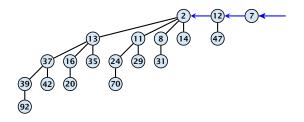




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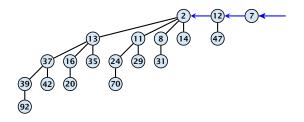




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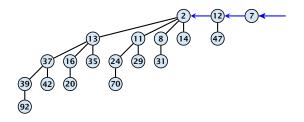
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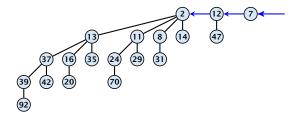
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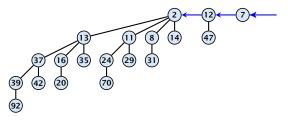
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- The trees are stored in a single-linked list; ordered by dimension/size.





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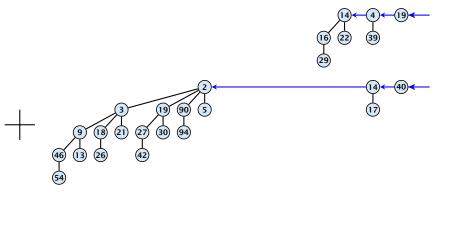
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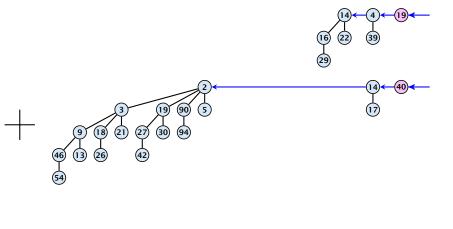
For more trees the technique is analogous to binary addition.



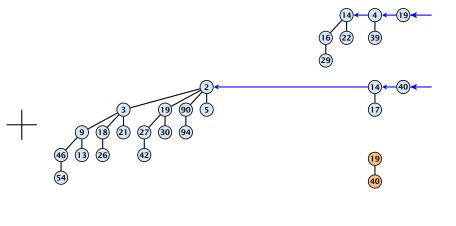




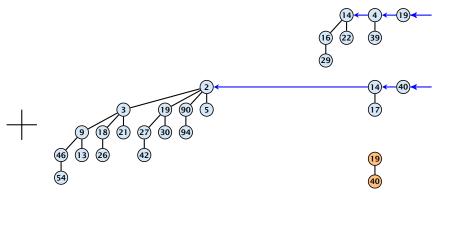
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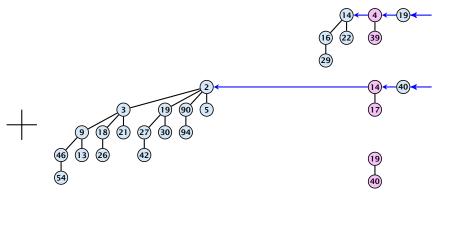
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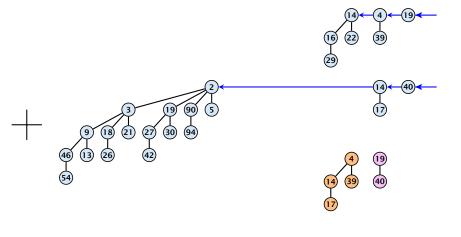
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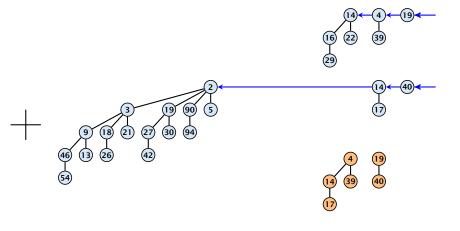




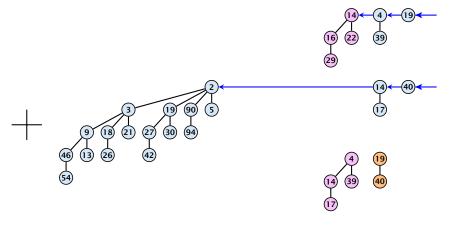




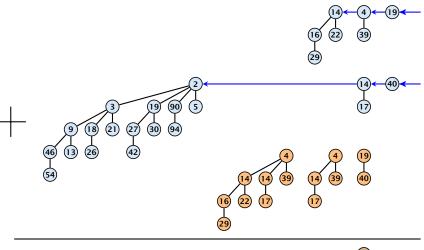




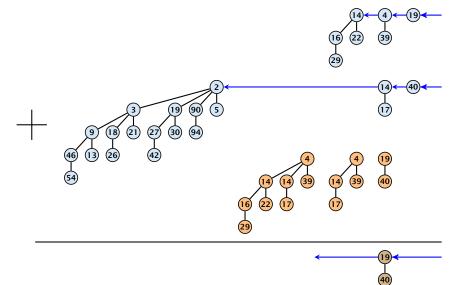


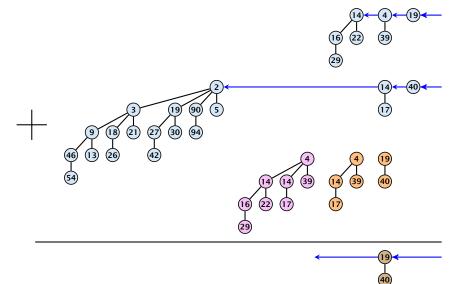


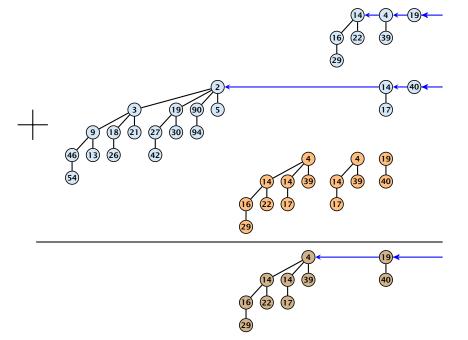


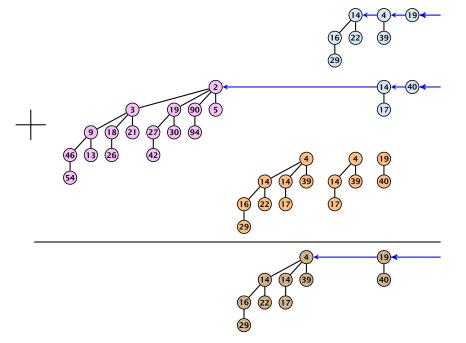


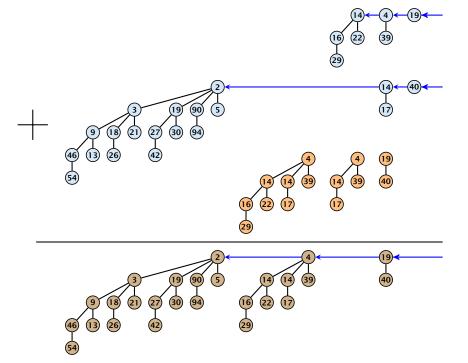


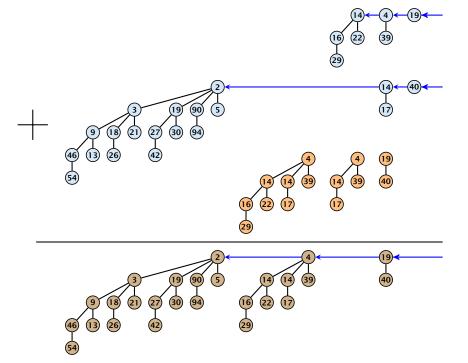












- $S_1$ . merge( $S_2$ ):
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## 8.2 Binomial Heaps

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## 8.2 Binomial Heaps

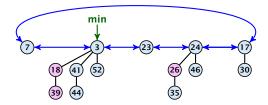
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Collection of trees that fulfill the heap property.

Structure is much more relaxed than binomial heaps.





8.3 Fibonacci Heaps

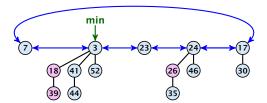
#### Additional implementation details:

- Every node x stores its degree in a field x. degree. Note that this can be updated in constant time when adding a child to x.
- Every node stores a boolean value x.marked that specifies whether x is marked or not.



#### The potential function:

- t(S) denotes the number of trees in the heap.
- m(S) denotes the number of marked nodes.
- We use the potential function  $\Phi(S) = t(S) + 2m(S)$ .



The potential is  $\Phi(S) = 5 + 2 \cdot 3 = 11$ .



We assume that one unit of potential can pay for a constant amount of work, where the constant is chosen "big enough" (to take care of the constants that occur).

To make this more explicit we use *c* to denote the amount of work that a unit of potential can pay for.

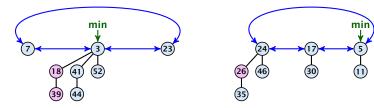


#### S. minimum()

- Access through the min-pointer.
- Actual cost  $\mathcal{O}(1)$ .
- No change in potential.
- Amortized cost  $\mathcal{O}(1)$ .

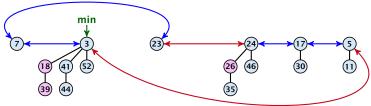


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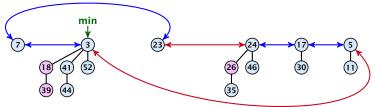


#### **Running time:**

Actual cost  $\mathcal{O}(1)$ .



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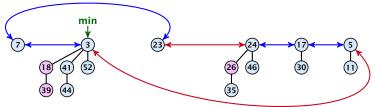


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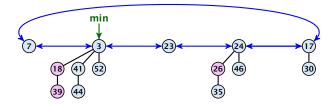


#### **Running time:**

- Actual cost  $\mathcal{O}(1)$ .
- No change in potential.
- Hence, amortized cost is  $\mathcal{O}(1)$ .

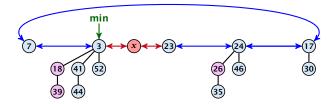


- S. insert(x)
  - Create a new tree containing x.
  - Insert x into the root-list.
  - Update min-pointer, if necessary.



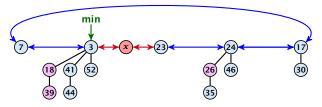


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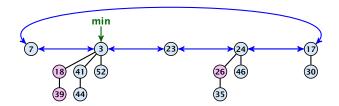


#### **Running time:**

- Actual cost  $\mathcal{O}(1)$ .
- Change in potential is +1.
- Amortized cost is c + O(1) = O(1).



S. delete-min(x)

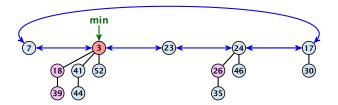




8.3 Fibonacci Heaps

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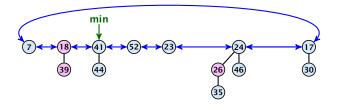
► Delete minimum; add child-trees to heap; time: D(min) · O(1).





8.3 Fibonacci Heaps

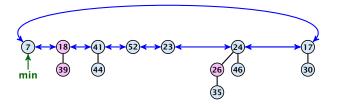
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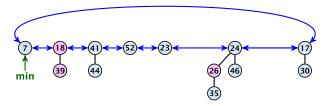
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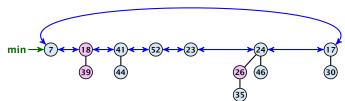


Consolidate root-list so that no roots have the same degree. Time  $t \cdot O(1)$  (see next slide).



**Consolidate:** 



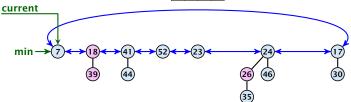




8.3 Fibonacci Heaps

**Consolidate:** 

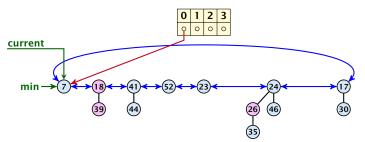






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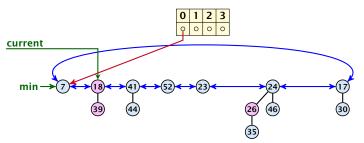
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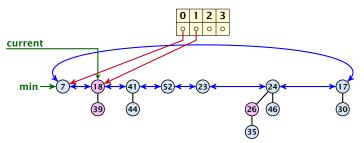
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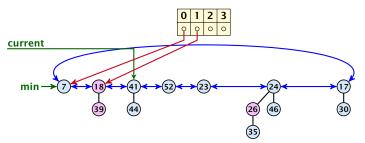
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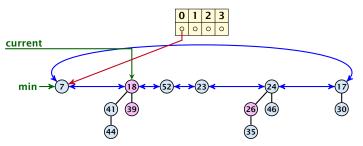
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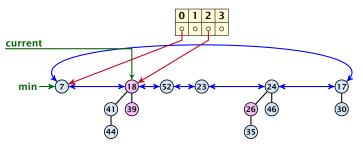
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8.3 Fibonacci Heaps

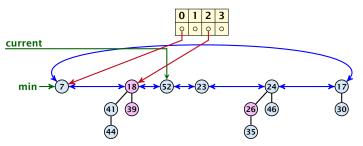
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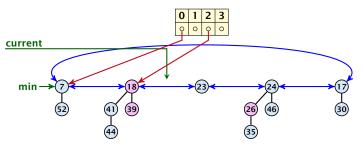
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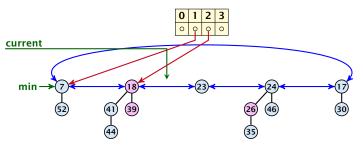
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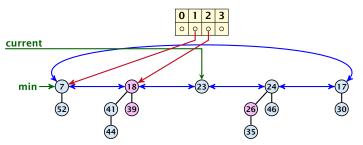
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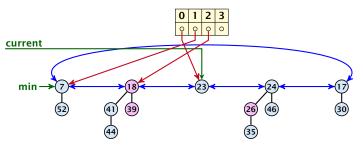
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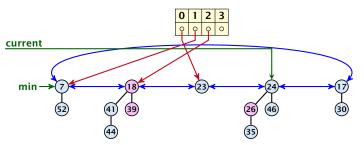
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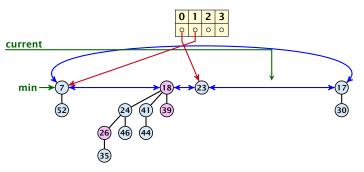
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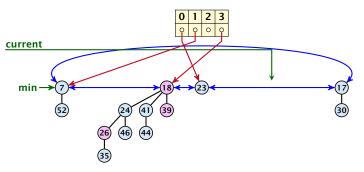
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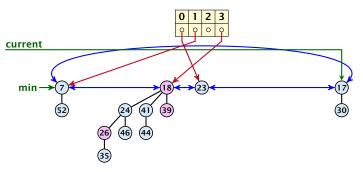
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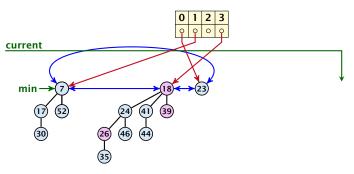
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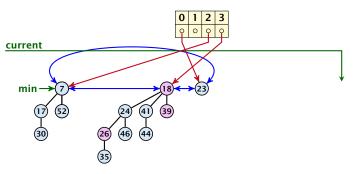
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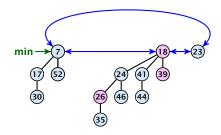
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8.3 Fibonacci Heaps

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8.3 Fibonacci Heaps

Actual cost for delete-min()

At most  $D_n + t$  elements in root-list before consolidate.



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for  $\textbf{\textit{c}} \geq \textbf{\textit{c}}_1$  .



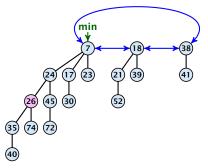
If the input trees of the consolidation procedure are binomial trees (for example only singleton vertices) then the output will be a set of distinct binomial trees, and, hence, the Fibonacci heap will be (more or less) a Binomial heap right after the consolidation.



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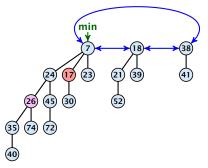
If we do not have delete or decrease-key operations then  $D_n \leq \log n$ .





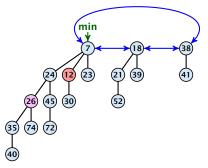
#### Case 1: decrease-key does not violate heap-property





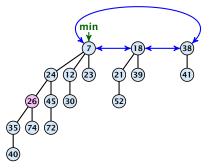
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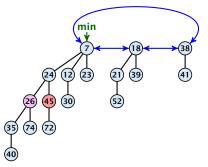
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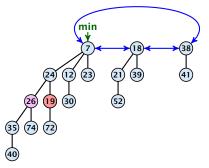
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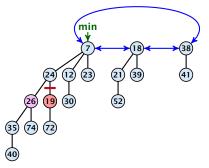
- Decrease key-value of element x reference by h.
- If the heap-property is violated, cut the parent edge of x, and make x into a root.
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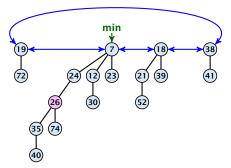
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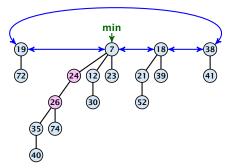
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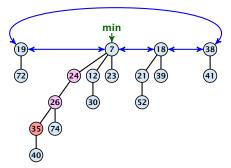
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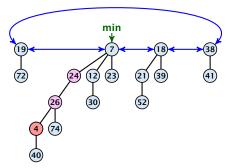
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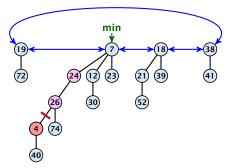
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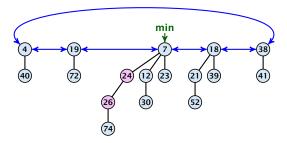
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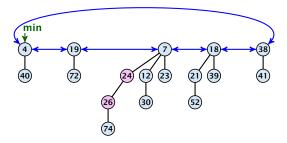
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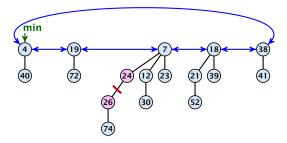
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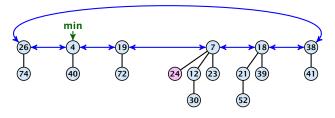
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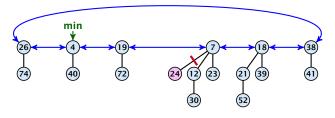
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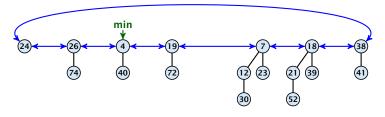
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- Adjust min-pointers, if necessary.
- Execute the following:

```
p \leftarrow parent[x];

while (p is marked)

pp \leftarrow parent[p];

cut of p; make it into a root; unmark it;

p \leftarrow pp;

if p is unmarked and not a root mark it;
```



Actual cost:



8.3 Fibonacci Heaps

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 $c_2(\ell+1) + c(4-\ell) \le (c_2-c)\ell + 4c + c_2 = \mathcal{O}(1),$ 

if  $c \ge c_2$ .



### **Delete node**

### *H*.delete(*x*):

- decrease value of x to  $-\infty$ .
- delete-min.

### Amortized cost: $\mathcal{O}(D_n)$

- $\mathcal{O}(1)$  for decrease-key.
- $\mathcal{O}(D_n)$  for delete-min.



#### Lemma 32

Let x be a node with degree k and let  $y_1, ..., y_k$  denote the children of x in the order that they were linked to x. Then

degree
$$(\gamma_i) \ge \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } i = 1\\ i - 2 & \text{if } i > 1 \end{cases}$$



#### Proof

When y<sub>i</sub> was linked to x, at least y<sub>1</sub>,..., y<sub>i-1</sub> were already linked to x.



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- Therefore, degree( $y_i$ )  $\ge i 2$ .



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Let x be a degree k node of size  $s_k$  and let  $y_1, \ldots, y_k$  be its children.

$$s_k = 2 + \sum_{i=2}^k \operatorname{size}(\gamma_i)$$



- Let s<sub>k</sub> be the minimum possible size of a sub-tree rooted at a node of degree k that can occur in a Fibonacci heap.
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- ▶  $s_0 = 1$  and  $s_1 = 2$ .

Let x be a degree k node of size  $s_k$  and let  $y_1, \ldots, y_k$  be its children.

$$s_k = 2 + \sum_{i=2}^k \operatorname{size}(y_i)$$
$$\geq 2 + \sum_{i=2}^k s_{i-2}$$



8.3 Fibonacci Heaps

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8.3 Fibonacci Heaps

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### **Definition 33**

Consider the following non-standard Fibonacci type sequence:

$$F_{k} = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } k = 0\\ 2 & \text{if } k = 1\\ F_{k-1} + F_{k-2} & \text{if } k \ge 2 \end{cases}$$

#### Facts:

1.  $F_k \ge \phi^k$ . 2. For  $k \ge 2$ :  $F_k = 2 + \sum_{i=0}^{k-2} F_i$ .

The above facts can be easily proved by induction. From this it follows that  $s_k \ge F_k \ge \phi^k$ , which gives that the maximum degree in a Fibonacci heap is logarithmic.



k=0:  

$$l = F_0 \ge \Phi^0 = 1$$
  
k=1:  
 $2 = F_1 \ge \Phi^1 \approx 1.61$   
 $F_k = F_{k-1} + F_{k-2} \ge \Phi^{k-1} + \Phi^{k-2} = \Phi^{k-2}(\Phi+1) = \Phi^k$ 

k=2: 
$$3 = F_2 = 2 + 1 = 2 + F_0$$
  
k-1  $\rightarrow$  k:  $F_k = F_{k-1} + F_{k-2} = 2 + \sum_{i=0}^{k-3} F_i + F_{k-2} = 2 + \sum_{i=0}^{k-2} F_i$ 



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Union Find Data Structure  $\mathcal{P}$ : Maintains a partition of disjoint sets over elements.



9 Union Find

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P. makeset(x): Given an element x, adds x to the data-structure and creates a singleton set that contains only this element. Returns a locator/handle for x in the data-structure.



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- P. makeset(x): Given an element x, adds x to the data-structure and creates a singleton set that contains only this element. Returns a locator/handle for x in the data-structure.
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- P. find(x): Given a handle for an element x; find the set that contains x. Returns a representative/identifier for this set.
- $\mathcal{P}$ . union(x, y): Given two elements x, and y that are currently in sets  $S_x$  and  $S_y$ , respectively, the function replaces  $S_x$  and  $S_y$  by  $S_x \cup S_y$  and returns an identifier for the new set.



#### **Applications:**

Keep track of the connected components of a dynamic graph that changes due to insertion of nodes and edges.



9 Union Find

#### **Applications:**

- Keep track of the connected components of a dynamic graph that changes due to insertion of nodes and edges.
- Kruskals Minimum Spanning Tree Algorithm



9 Union Find

Algorithm 1 Kruskal-MST(G = (V, E), w)1:  $A \leftarrow \emptyset$ ;2: for all  $v \in V$  do3:  $v.set \leftarrow \mathcal{P}.makeset(v.label)$ 4: sort edges in non-decreasing order of weight w5: for all  $(u, v) \in E$  in non-decreasing order do6: if  $\mathcal{P}.find(u.set) \neq \mathcal{P}.find(v.set)$  then7:  $A \leftarrow A \cup \{(u, v)\}$ 8:  $\mathcal{P}.union(u.set, v.set)$ 

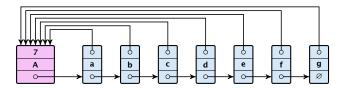


The elements of a set are stored in a list; each node has a backward pointer to the head.



9 Union Find

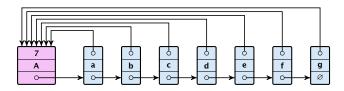
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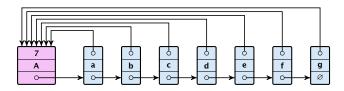
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- makeset(x) can be performed in constant time.
- ▶ find(*x*) can be performed in constant time.



#### union(x, y)

• Determine sets  $S_x$  and  $S_y$ .



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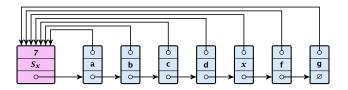


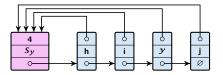
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- Adjust the size-field of list  $S_{\chi}$ .
- Time:  $\min\{|S_x|, |S_y|\}$ .

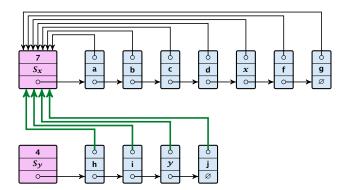






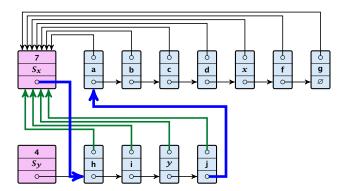


9 Union Find



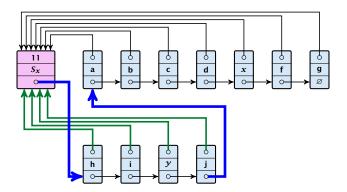


9 Union Find





9 Union Find





9 Union Find

#### **Running times:**

- ▶ find(x): constant
- makeset(x): constant
- ► union(x, y): O(n), where n denotes the number of elements contained in the set system.



#### Lemma 34

The list implementation for the ADT union find fulfills the following amortized time bounds:

- ▶ find(x):  $\mathcal{O}(1)$ .
- makeset(x):  $\mathcal{O}(\log n)$ .
- union(x, y):  $\mathcal{O}(1)$ .



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- If we can find a charging scheme that guarantees that balances always stay positive the amortized time bounds are proven.



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- We inflate the amortized cost of the makeset-operation to Θ(log n), i.e., at this point we fill the bank account of the element to Θ(log n).
- Later operations charge the account but the balance never drops below zero.



**makeset**(x): The actual cost is O(1). Due to the cost inflation the amortized cost is  $O(\log n)$ .



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- Assume wlog. that S<sub>x</sub> is the smaller set; let c denote the hidden constant, i.e., the actual cost is at most c · |S<sub>x</sub>|.



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- Charge *c* to every element in set  $S_{\chi}$ .



#### Lemma 35

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#### Proof.

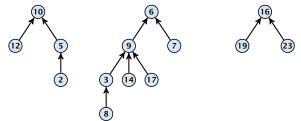
Whenever an element x is charged the number of elements in x's set doubles. This can happen at most  $\lfloor \log n \rfloor$  times.



- Maintain nodes of a set in a tree.
- The root of the tree is the label of the set.
- Only pointer to parent exists; we cannot list all elements of a given set.



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- The root of the tree is the label of the set.
- Only pointer to parent exists; we cannot list all elements of a given set.
- Example:



Set system {2, 5, 10, 12}, {3, 6, 7, 8, 9, 14, 17}, {16, 19, 23}.



9 Union Find

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makeset(x)

Create a singleton tree. Return pointer to the root.



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find(x)

- Start at element x in the tree. Go upwards until you reach the root.
- Time: O(level(x)), where level(x) is the distance of element x to the root in its tree. Not constant.



To support union we store the size of a tree in its root.



9 Union Find

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union(x, y)

▶ Perform  $a \leftarrow \operatorname{find}(x)$ ;  $b \leftarrow \operatorname{find}(y)$ . Then:  $\operatorname{link}(a, b)$ .



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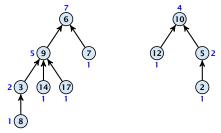
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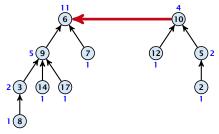


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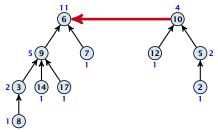
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9. Jan. 2023 402/662

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Time: constant for link(a, b) plus two find-operations.



9 Union Find

9. Jan. 2023 402/662

Lemma 36

The running time (non-amortized!!!) for find(x) is  $O(\log n)$ .



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find(x):

• Go upward until you find the root.



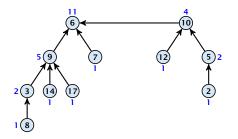
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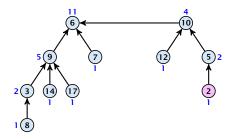


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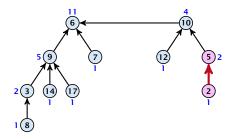


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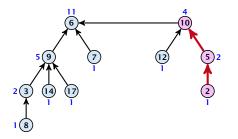


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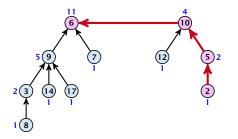


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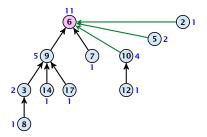
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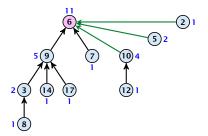




9 Union Find

find(x):

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Note that the size-fields now only give an upper bound on the size of a sub-tree.



9 Union Find

9. Jan. 2023 404/662 Asymptotically the cost for a find-operation does not increase due to the path compression heuristic.



Asymptotically the cost for a find-operation does not increase due to the path compression heuristic.

However, for a worst-case analysis there is no improvement on the running time. It can still happen that a find-operation takes time  $O(\log n)$ .



**Definitions:** 



9 Union Find

#### **Definitions:**

size(v) = the number of nodes that were in the sub-tree rooted at v when v became the child of another node (or the number of nodes if v is the root).

Note that this is the same as the size of v's subtree in the case that there are no find-operations.



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- ► rank(v) =  $\lfloor \log(size(v)) \rfloor$ .
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#### Lemma 37

The rank of a parent must be strictly larger than the rank of a child.



**Lemma 38** *There are at most*  $n/2^s$  *nodes of rank s*.



9 Union Find

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#### Lemma 38

There are at most  $n/2^s$  nodes of rank s.

Proof.

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- A node v sees at most one node of rank s during the running time of the algorithm.
- This holds because the rank-sequence of the roots of the different trees that contain v during the running time of the algorithm is a strictly increasing sequence.
- Hence, every node sees at most one rank s node, but every rank s node is seen by at least 2<sup>s</sup> different nodes.



We define

$$\operatorname{tow}(i) := \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } i = 0\\ 2^{\operatorname{tow}(i-1)} & \text{otw.} \end{cases}$$



9 Union Find

We define

tow(*i*) := 
$$\begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } i = 0 \\ 2^{\text{tow}(i-1)} & \text{otw.} \end{cases}$$
 tow(*i*) =  $2^{2^{2^{2^{2^{2}}}}} i$  times



9 Union Find

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$$\operatorname{tow}(i) := \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } i = 0\\ 2^{\operatorname{tow}(i-1)} & \text{otw.} \end{cases} \quad \operatorname{tow}(i) = 2^{2^{2^{2^{2^{2}}}}} i \text{ times}$$

and

$$\log^*(n) := \min\{i \mid \text{tow}(i) \ge n\} .$$

#### Theorem 39

Union find with path compression fulfills the following amortized running times:

- makeset(x) :  $\mathcal{O}(\log^*(n))$
- find(x) :  $\mathcal{O}(\log^*(n))$
- union(x, y) :  $\mathcal{O}(\log^*(n))$



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rank-group:

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- ▶ The maximum non-empty rank group is  $\log^*(\lfloor \log n \rfloor) \le \log^*(n) 1$  (which holds for  $n \ge 2$ ).



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- The rank-group g = 0 contains only nodes with rank 0 or rank 1.
- A rank group  $g \ge 1$  contains ranks  $tow(g-1) + 1, \dots, tow(g)$ .
- The maximum non-empty rank group is  $\log^*(\lfloor \log n \rfloor) \le \log^*(n) 1$  (which holds for  $n \ge 2$ ).
- Hence, the total number of rank-groups is at most  $\log^* n$ .





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#### **Accounting Scheme:**

create an account for every find-operation



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- create an account for every find-operation
- create an account for every node v



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If parent[v] is the root we charge the cost to the find-account.



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- If parent[v] is the root we charge the cost to the find-account.
- If the group-number of rank(v) is the same as that of rank(parent[v]) (before starting path compression) we charge the cost to the node-account of v.



#### **Accounting Scheme:**

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- If the group-number of rank(v) is the same as that of rank(parent[v]) (before starting path compression) we charge the cost to the node-account of v.
- Otherwise we charge the cost to the find-account.



**Observations:** 



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#### **Observations:**

► A find-account is charged at most log\*(n) times (once for the root and at most log\*(n) - 1 times when increasing the rank-group).



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#### **Observations:**

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- After some charges to v the parent will be in a larger rank-group. ⇒ v will never be charged again.



#### **Observations:**

- ► A find-account is charged at most log\*(n) times (once for the root and at most log\*(n) - 1 times when increasing the rank-group).
- After a node v is charged its parent-edge is re-assigned. The rank of the parent strictly increases.
- ► After some charges to v the parent will be in a larger rank-group. ⇒ v will never be charged again.
- The total charge made to a node in rank-group g is at most tow(g) - tow(g − 1) − 1 ≤ tow(g).



What is the total charge made to nodes?



#### What is the total charge made to nodes?

The total charge is at most

 $\sum_{g} n(g) \cdot \operatorname{tow}(g)$  ,

where n(g) is the number of nodes in group g.



For  $g \ge 1$  we have

n(g)



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$$n(g) \leq \sum_{s=\text{tow}(g-1)+1}^{\text{tow}(g)} \frac{n}{2^s}$$



For  $g \ge 1$  we have

$$n(g) \leq \sum_{s=\mathrm{tow}(g-1)+1}^{\mathrm{tow}(g)} \frac{n}{2^s} \leq \sum_{s=\mathrm{tow}(g-1)+1}^{\infty} \frac{n}{2^s}$$



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$$n(g) \le \sum_{s=\text{tow}(g-1)+1}^{\text{tow}(g)} \frac{n}{2^s} \le \sum_{s=\text{tow}(g-1)+1}^{\infty} \frac{n}{2^s} = \frac{n}{2^{\text{tow}(g-1)+1}} \sum_{s=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{2^s}$$



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$$= \frac{n}{2^{\text{tow}(g-1)}}$$



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Hence,

$$\sum_{g} n(g) \operatorname{tow}(g)$$



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For  $g \ge 1$  we have

$$n(g) \le \sum_{s=\text{tow}(g-1)+1}^{\text{tow}(g)} \frac{n}{2^s} \le \sum_{s=\text{tow}(g-1)+1}^{\infty} \frac{n}{2^s}$$
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Hence,

$$\sum_{g} n(g) \operatorname{tow}(g) \le n(0) \operatorname{tow}(0) + \sum_{g \ge 1} n(g) \operatorname{tow}(g)$$



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For  $g \ge 1$  we have

$$n(g) \le \sum_{s=\text{tow}(g-1)+1}^{\text{tow}(g)} \frac{n}{2^s} \le \sum_{s=\text{tow}(g-1)+1}^{\infty} \frac{n}{2^s}$$
$$= \frac{n}{2^{\text{tow}(g-1)+1}} \sum_{s=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{2^s} = \frac{n}{2^{\text{tow}(g-1)+1}} \cdot 2$$
$$= \frac{n}{2^{\text{tow}(g-1)}} = \frac{n}{\text{tow}(g)} .$$

Hence,

$$\sum_{g} n(g) \operatorname{tow}(g) \le n(0) \operatorname{tow}(0) + \sum_{g \ge 1} n(g) \operatorname{tow}(g) \le n \log^*(n)$$



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# Without loss of generality we can assume that all makeset-operations occur at the start.



Without loss of generality we can assume that all makeset-operations occur at the start.

This means if we inflate the cost of makeset to  $\log^* n$  and add this to the node account of v then the balances of all node accounts will sum up to a positive value (this is sufficient to obtain an amortized bound).





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The analysis is not tight. In fact it has been shown that the amortized time for the union-find data structure with path compression is  $\mathcal{O}(\alpha(m, n))$ , where  $\alpha(m, n)$  is the inverse Ackermann function which grows a lot lot slower than  $\log^* n$ . (Here, we consider the average running time of m operations on at most n elements).



The analysis is not tight. In fact it has been shown that the amortized time for the union-find data structure with path compression is  $\mathcal{O}(\alpha(m,n))$ , where  $\alpha(m,n)$  is the inverse Ackermann function which grows a lot lot slower than  $\log^* n$ . (Here, we consider the average running time of m operations on at most n elements).

There is also a lower bound of  $\Omega(\alpha(m, n))$ .



### **Amortized Analysis**

$$A(x, y) = \begin{cases} y+1 & \text{if } x = 0\\ A(x-1, 1) & \text{if } y = 0\\ A(x-1, A(x, y-1)) & \text{otw.} \end{cases}$$

 $\alpha(m,n) = \min\{i \ge 1 : A(i,\lfloor m/n \rfloor) \ge \log n\}$ 



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### **Amortized Analysis**

$$A(x, y) = \begin{cases} y+1 & \text{if } x = 0\\ A(x-1, 1) & \text{if } y = 0\\ A(x-1, A(x, y-1)) & \text{otw.} \end{cases}$$

 $\alpha(m, n) = \min\{i \ge 1 : A(i, \lfloor m/n \rfloor) \ge \log n\}$ 

• 
$$A(0, y) = y + 1$$
  
•  $A(1, y) = y + 2$   
•  $A(2, y) = 2y + 3$   
•  $A(3, y) = 2^{y+3} - 3$   
•  $A(4, y) = \frac{2^{2^{2^2}}}{2^{2^2}} - 3$ 



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### 10 van Emde Boas Trees

#### **Dynamic Set Data Structure** *S*:

- $\blacktriangleright$  S.insert(x)
- ► S.delete(x)
- $\blacktriangleright$  S.search(x)
- ► *S*.min()
- ► *S*.max()
- $\blacktriangleright$  S. succ(x)
- $\blacktriangleright$  S.pred(x)



### 10 van Emde Boas Trees

For this chapter we ignore the problem of storing satellite data:

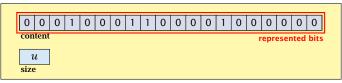
- S. insert(x): Inserts x into S.
- S. delete(x): Deletes x from S. Usually assumes that  $x \in S$ .
- S. member(x): Returns 1 if  $x \in S$  and 0 otw.
- **S. min():** Returns the value of the minimum element in *S*.
- **S. max():** Returns the value of the maximum element in *S*.
- S. succ(x): Returns successor of x in S. Returns null if x is maximum or larger than any element in S. Note that x needs not to be in S.
- S. pred(x): Returns the predecessor of x in S. Returns null if x is minimum or smaller than any element in S. Note that x needs not to be in S.



Can we improve the existing algorithms when the keys are from a restricted set?

In the following we assume that the keys are from  $\{0, 1, \ldots, u-1\}$ , where u denotes the size of the universe.





one array of u bits

Use an array that encodes the indicator function of the dynamic set.



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**Algorithm 1** array.insert(x)

1: content[x]  $\leftarrow$  1;

**Algorithm 2** array.delete(*x*)

1: content[x]  $\leftarrow$  0;

**Algorithm 3** array.member(*x*)

1: **return** content[*x*];

- Note that we assume that x is valid, i.e., it falls within the array boundaries.
- Obviously(?) the running time is constant.



#### Algorithm 4 array.max()

- 1: for  $(i = \text{size} 1; i \ge 0; i -)$  do 2: if content[i] = 1 then return i;
- 3: return null;



### **Algorithm 4** array.max()

- 1: for  $(i = \text{size} 1; i \ge 0; i -)$  do 2: if content[i] = 1 then return i;
- 3: return null:

### **Algorithm 5** array.min()

- 1: **for** (i = 0; i < size; i++) **do**
- 2: **if** content[i] = 1 **then return** *i*;
- 3: return null;



### Algorithm 4 array.max()

- 1: for  $(i = \text{size} 1; i \ge 0; i -)$  do 2: if content[i] = 1 then return i;
- 3: return null;

#### **Algorithm 5** array.min()

- for (*i* = 0; *i* < size; *i*++) do
   if content[*i*] = 1 then return *i*;
- 3: return null:

### Running time is $\mathcal{O}(u)$ in the worst case.



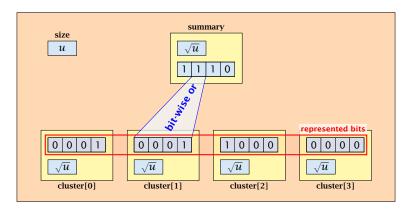
### **Algorithm 6** array.succ(*x*)

- for (i = x + 1; i < size; i++) do</li>
   if content[i] = 1 then return i;
   return null;

**Algorithm 7** array.pred(x)

- 1: for  $(i = x 1; i \ge 0; i )$  do 2: if content[i] = 1 then return i;
- 3: return null:
- Running time is  $\mathcal{O}(u)$  in the worst case.





- $\sqrt{u}$  cluster-arrays of  $\sqrt{u}$  bits.
- One summary-array of  $\sqrt{u}$  bits. The *i*-th bit in the summary array stores the bit-wise or of the bits in the *i*-th cluster.



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The bit for a key x is contained in cluster number  $\left\lfloor \frac{x}{\sqrt{u}} \right\rfloor$ .



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Within the cluster-array the bit is at position  $x \mod \sqrt{u}$ .



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Within the cluster-array the bit is at position  $x \mod \sqrt{u}$ .

For simplicity we assume that  $u = 2^{2k}$  for some  $k \ge 1$ . Then we can compute the cluster-number for an entry x as high(x) (the upper half of the dual representation of x) and the position of x within its cluster as low(x) (the lower half of the dual representation).



**Algorithm 8** member(*x*)

1: **return** cluster[high(*x*)].member(low(*x*));



Algorithm 8 member(*x*)

1: **return** cluster[high(*x*)]. member(low(*x*));

**Algorithm 9** insert(x)

- 1: cluster[high(x)].insert(low(x));
- 2: summary.insert(high(x));



Algorithm 8 member(*x*)

1: **return** cluster[high(*x*)].member(low(*x*));

Algorithm 9 insert(x)

1: cluster[high(x)].insert(low(x));

2: summary.insert(high(x));

The running times are constant, because the corresponding array-functions have constant running times.



#### Algorithm 10 delete(x)

- 1: cluster[high(x)].delete(low(x));
- 2: **if** cluster[high(x)].min() = null **then**
- 3: summary.delete(high(x));



### Algorithm 10 delete(x)

- 1: cluster[high(x)].delete(low(x));
- 2: **if** cluster[high(x)].min() = null **then**
- 3: summary.delete(high(x));
- ► The running time is dominated by the cost of a minimum computation on an array of size  $\sqrt{u}$ . Hence,  $O(\sqrt{u})$ .



### Algorithm 11 max()

- maxcluster ← summary.max();
   if maxcluster = null return null;
   offs ← cluster[maxcluster].max()
   return maxcluster ∘ offs;



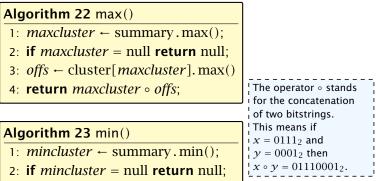
Algorithm 11 max()

- 1: *maxcluster* ← summary.max();
- 2: **if** *maxcluster* = null **return** null;
- 3: offs ← cluster[maxcluster].max()
  4: return maxcluster ∘ offs;

### Algorithm 23 min()

- 1: *mincluster* ← summary.min();
- 2: **if** *mincluster* = null **return** null;
- 3: *offs* ← cluster[*mincluster*].min();
- 4: **return** *mincluster offs*;





- 3: *offs* ← cluster[*mincluster*].min();
- 4: return mincluster offs;

Running time is roughly  $2\sqrt{u} = \mathcal{O}(\sqrt{u})$  in the worst case.



### Algorithm 24 succ(x)

- 1:  $m \leftarrow \text{cluster}[\text{high}(x)]. \operatorname{succ}(\operatorname{low}(x))$
- 2: if  $m \neq$  null then return high $(x) \circ m$ ;
- 3: *succluster*  $\leftarrow$  summary.succ(high(x));
- 4: **if** *succeluster* ≠ null **then**
- 5: *offs* ← cluster[*succeluster*].min();
- 6: **return** *succeluster offs*;

7: return null;



#### Algorithm 24 succ(x)

- 1:  $m \leftarrow \text{cluster}[\text{high}(x)]. \operatorname{succ}(\operatorname{low}(x))$
- 2: if  $m \neq$  null then return high $(x) \circ m$ ;
- 3: *succluster*  $\leftarrow$  summary.succ(high(x));
- 4: **if** *succeluster* ≠ null **then**
- 5: *offs* ← cluster[*succeluster*].min();
- 6: **return** *succeluster offs*;

7: return null;

• Running time is roughly  $3\sqrt{u} = O(\sqrt{u})$  in the worst case.



### Algorithm 25 pred(x)

- 1:  $m \leftarrow \text{cluster}[\text{high}(x)]. \text{pred}(\text{low}(x))$
- 2: if  $m \neq$  null then return high $(x) \circ m$ ;
- 3: *predcluster*  $\leftarrow$  summary.pred(high(x));
- 4: **if** *predcluster* ≠ null **then**
- 5:  $offs \leftarrow cluster[predcluster].max();$
- 6: **return** *predcluster offs*;

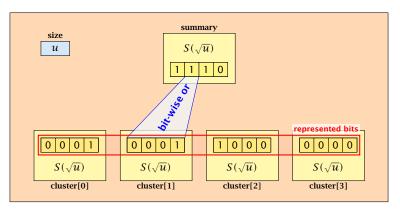
7: return null;

• Running time is roughly  $3\sqrt{u} = O(\sqrt{u})$  in the worst case.



Instead of using sub-arrays, we build a recursive data-structure.

S(u) is a dynamic set data-structure representing u bits:





We assume that  $u = 2^{2^k}$  for some k.

The data-structure S(2) is defined as an array of 2-bits (end of the recursion).





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The code from Implementation 2 can be used unchanged. We only need to redo the analysis of the running time.



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Note that in the code we do not need to specifically address the non-recursive case. This is achieved by the fact that an S(4) will contain S(2)'s as sub-datastructures, which are arrays. Hence, a call like cluster[1].min() from within the data-structure S(4) is not a recursive call as it will call the function array.min().



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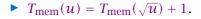
Note that in the code we do not need to specifically address the non-recursive case. This is achieved by the fact that an S(4) will contain S(2)'s as sub-datastructures, which are arrays. Hence, a call like cluster[1].min() from within the data-structure S(4) is not a recursive call as it will call the function array.min().

This means that the non-recursive case is been dealt with while initializing the data-structure.



### Algorithm 26 member(*x*)

1: **return** cluster[high(*x*)].member(low(*x*));





### Algorithm 27 insert(x)

- 1: cluster[high(x)].insert(low(x));
- 2: summary.insert(high(x));

• 
$$T_{ins}(u) = 2T_{ins}(\sqrt{u}) + 1.$$



### Algorithm 28 delete(x)

- 1: cluster[high(x)].delete(low(x));
- 2: **if** cluster[high(x)].min() = null **then**
- 3: summary.delete(high(x));

$$T_{\text{del}}(u) = 2T_{\text{del}}(\sqrt{u}) + T_{\min}(\sqrt{u}) + 1.$$



#### Algorithm 29 min()

- 1: *mincluster* ← summary.min();
- 2: **if** *mincluster* = null **return** null;
- 3: *offs* ← cluster[*mincluster*].min();
- 4: **return** *mincluster offs*;

• 
$$T_{\min}(u) = 2T_{\min}(\sqrt{u}) + 1.$$



#### Algorithm 30 succ(x)

- 1:  $m \leftarrow \text{cluster}[\text{high}(x)]. \operatorname{succ}(\operatorname{low}(x))$
- 2: if  $m \neq$  null then return high $(x) \circ m$ ;
- 3: *succluster*  $\leftarrow$  summary.succ(high(x));
- 4: **if** *succeluster* ≠ null **then**
- 5: *offs* ← cluster[*succluster*].min();
- 6: **return** *succeluster offs*;

7: return null;

$$T_{\text{succ}}(u) = 2T_{\text{succ}}(\sqrt{u}) + T_{\min}(\sqrt{u}) + 1.$$



 $T_{\text{mem}}(u) = T_{\text{mem}}(\sqrt{u}) + 1$ :



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 $T_{\rm mem}(u) = T_{\rm mem}(\sqrt{u}) + 1:$ 

Set  $\ell := \log u$  and  $X(\ell) := T_{\text{mem}}(2^{\ell})$ .



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 $T_{\rm mem}(u) = T_{\rm mem}(\sqrt{u}) + 1:$ 

Set  $\ell := \log u$  and  $X(\ell) := T_{\text{mem}}(2^{\ell})$ . Then

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Set  $\ell := \log u$  and  $X(\ell) := T_{\text{mem}}(2^{\ell})$ . Then

$$X(\ell) = T_{\text{mem}}(2^{\ell}) = T_{\text{mem}}(u) = T_{\text{mem}}(\sqrt{u}) + 1$$
$$= T_{\text{mem}}(2^{\frac{\ell}{2}}) + 1$$



 $T_{\text{mem}}(u) = T_{\text{mem}}(\sqrt{u}) + 1:$ 

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 $T_{\rm mem}(u) = T_{\rm mem}(\sqrt{u}) + 1:$ 

Set  $\ell := \log u$  and  $X(\ell) := T_{\text{mem}}(2^{\ell})$ . Then

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$$= T_{\text{mem}}(2^{\frac{\ell}{2}}) + 1 = X(\frac{\ell}{2}) + 1 .$$

Using Master theorem gives  $X(\ell) = O(\log \ell)$ , and hence  $T_{\text{mem}}(u) = O(\log \log u)$ .



$$T_{\rm ins}(u) = 2T_{\rm ins}(\sqrt{u}) + 1.$$



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Set  $\ell := \log u$  and  $X(\ell) := T_{ins}(2^{\ell})$ .



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Set  $\ell := \log u$  and  $X(\ell) := T_{ins}(2^{\ell})$ . Then



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$$T_{\rm ins}(u) = 2T_{\rm ins}(\sqrt{u}) + 1.$$

# Set $\ell := \log u$ and $X(\ell) := T_{ins}(2^{\ell})$ . Then $X(\ell)$



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Set  $\ell := \log u$  and  $X(\ell) := T_{ins}(2^{\ell})$ . Then

 $X(\ell) = T_{\rm ins}(2^{\ell}) = T_{\rm ins}(u)$ 



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Set  $\ell := \log u$  and  $X(\ell) := T_{ins}(2^{\ell})$ . Then

$$\begin{aligned} X(\ell) &= T_{\text{ins}}(2^{\ell}) = T_{\text{ins}}(u) = 2T_{\text{ins}}(\sqrt{u}) + 1 \\ &= 2T_{\text{ins}}(2^{\frac{\ell}{2}}) + 1 = 2X(\frac{\ell}{2}) + 1 \end{aligned}$$



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Set  $\ell := \log u$  and  $X(\ell) := T_{ins}(2^{\ell})$ . Then

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$$= 2T_{\text{ins}}(2^{\frac{\ell}{2}}) + 1 = 2X(\frac{\ell}{2}) + 1$$

Using Master theorem gives  $X(\ell) = O(\ell)$ , and hence  $T_{ins}(u) = O(\log u)$ .



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Using Master theorem gives  $X(\ell) = O(\ell)$ , and hence  $T_{ins}(u) = O(\log u)$ .

The same holds for  $T_{\max}(u)$  and  $T_{\min}(u)$ .



 $T_{\text{del}}(u) = 2T_{\text{del}}(\sqrt{u}) + T_{\min}(\sqrt{u}) + 1 \le 2T_{\text{del}}(\sqrt{u}) + \frac{c}{\log(u)}.$ 



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Set  $\ell := \log u$  and  $X(\ell) := T_{del}(2^{\ell})$ .



 $T_{\text{del}}(u) = 2T_{\text{del}}(\sqrt{u}) + T_{\min}(\sqrt{u}) + 1 \le 2T_{\text{del}}(\sqrt{u}) + c \log(u).$ 

Set  $\ell := \log u$  and  $X(\ell) := T_{del}(2^{\ell})$ . Then



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 $T_{del}(u) = 2T_{del}(\sqrt{u}) + T_{min}(\sqrt{u}) + 1 \le 2T_{del}(\sqrt{u}) + c \log(u).$ Set  $\ell := \log u$  and  $X(\ell) := T_{del}(2^{\ell})$ . Then  $X(\ell)$ 



 $T_{\text{del}}(u) = 2T_{\text{del}}(\sqrt{u}) + T_{\min}(\sqrt{u}) + 1 \le 2T_{\text{del}}(\sqrt{u}) + c \log(u).$ 

Set  $\ell := \log u$  and  $X(\ell) := T_{del}(2^{\ell})$ . Then

 $X(\ell) = T_{\text{del}}(2^{\ell})$ 



 $T_{\text{del}}(u) = 2T_{\text{del}}(\sqrt{u}) + T_{\min}(\sqrt{u}) + 1 \le 2T_{\text{del}}(\sqrt{u}) + c \log(u).$ 

Set  $\ell := \log u$  and  $X(\ell) := T_{del}(2^{\ell})$ . Then

 $X(\ell) = T_{\text{del}}(2^{\ell}) = T_{\text{del}}(u)$ 



 $T_{\rm del}(u) = 2T_{\rm del}(\sqrt{u}) + T_{\rm min}(\sqrt{u}) + 1 \le 2T_{\rm del}(\sqrt{u}) + c\log(u).$ 

Set  $\ell := \log u$  and  $X(\ell) := T_{del}(2^{\ell})$ . Then

 $X(\ell) = T_{del}(2^{\ell}) = T_{del}(u) = 2T_{del}(\sqrt{u}) + c \log u$ 



 $T_{del}(u) = 2T_{del}(\sqrt{u}) + T_{\min}(\sqrt{u}) + 1 \le 2T_{del}(\sqrt{u}) + c \log(u).$ Set  $\ell := \log u$  and  $X(\ell) := T_{del}(2^{\ell})$ . Then  $X(\ell) = T_{del}(2^{\ell}) = T_{del}(u) = 2T_{del}(\sqrt{u}) + c \log u$  $= 2T_{del}(2^{\frac{\ell}{2}}) + c\ell$ 



 $T_{\rm del}(u) = 2T_{\rm del}(\sqrt{u}) + T_{\rm min}(\sqrt{u}) + 1 \le 2T_{\rm del}(\sqrt{u}) + c \log(u).$ Set  $\ell := \log u$  and  $X(\ell) := T_{del}(2^{\ell})$ . Then  $X(\ell) = T_{del}(2^{\ell}) = T_{del}(u) = 2T_{del}(\sqrt{u}) + c1$ 

$$\ell = T_{del}(2^{\ell}) = T_{del}(u) = 2T_{del}(\sqrt{u}) + c \log u$$
$$= 2T_{del}(2^{\frac{\ell}{2}}) + c\ell = 2X(\frac{\ell}{2}) + c\ell$$



 $T_{\rm del}(u) = 2T_{\rm del}(\sqrt{u}) + T_{\rm min}(\sqrt{u}) + 1 \le 2T_{\rm del}(\sqrt{u}) + \frac{c}{\log(u)}.$ 

Set  $\ell := \log u$  and  $X(\ell) := T_{del}(2^{\ell})$ . Then

$$\begin{aligned} X(\ell) &= T_{\rm del}(2^{\ell}) = T_{\rm del}(u) = 2T_{\rm del}(\sqrt{u}) + c \log u \\ &= 2T_{\rm del}(2^{\frac{\ell}{2}}) + c\ell = 2X(\frac{\ell}{2}) + c\ell \end{aligned}$$

Using Master theorem gives  $X(\ell) = \Theta(\ell \log \ell)$ , and hence  $T_{del}(u) = O(\log u \log \log u)$ .



 $T_{\text{del}}(u) = 2T_{\text{del}}(\sqrt{u}) + T_{\min}(\sqrt{u}) + 1 \leq 2T_{\text{del}}(\sqrt{u}) + \frac{c}{\log(u)}.$ 

Set  $\ell := \log u$  and  $X(\ell) := T_{del}(2^{\ell})$ . Then

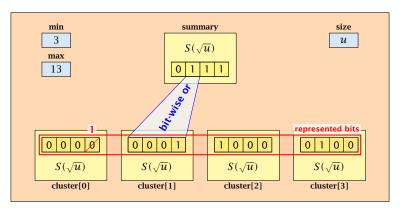
$$\begin{aligned} X(\ell) &= T_{\rm del}(2^{\ell}) = T_{\rm del}(u) = 2T_{\rm del}(\sqrt{u}) + c \log u \\ &= 2T_{\rm del}(2^{\frac{\ell}{2}}) + c\ell = 2X(\frac{\ell}{2}) + c\ell \end{aligned}$$

Using Master theorem gives  $X(\ell) = \Theta(\ell \log \ell)$ , and hence  $T_{del}(u) = O(\log u \log \log u)$ .

The same holds for  $T_{\text{pred}}(u)$  and  $T_{\text{succ}}(u)$ .



# **Implementation 4: van Emde Boas Trees**



- The bit referenced by min is not set within sub-datastructures.
- The bit referenced by max is set within sub-datastructures (if max ≠ min).



#### **Implementation 4: van Emde Boas Trees**

Advantages of having max/min pointers:



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#### Advantages of having max/min pointers:

Recursive calls for min and max are constant time.



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- min = null means that the data-structure is empty.



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- min = max ≠ null means that the data-structure contains exactly one element.



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- We can insert into an empty datastructure in constant time by only setting min = max = x.



- Recursive calls for min and max are constant time.
- min = null means that the data-structure is empty.
- min = max ≠ null means that the data-structure contains exactly one element.
- We can insert into an empty datastructure in constant time by only setting min = max = x.
- We can delete from a data-structure that just contains one element in constant time by setting min = max = null.



Algorithm 31 max()

1: return max;

Algorithm 32 min()

1: return min;

Constant time.



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#### **Algorithm 33** member(*x*)

- 1: **if**  $x = \min$  **then return** 1; // TRUE
- 2: return cluster[high(x)].member(low(x));

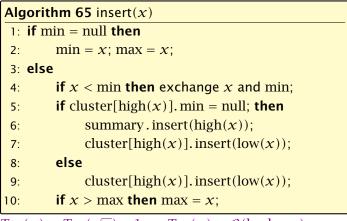
$$T_{\text{mem}}(u) = T_{\text{mem}}(\sqrt{u}) + 1 \Longrightarrow T(u) = \mathcal{O}(\log \log u).$$



```
Algorithm 34 succ(x)
 1: if min \neq null \land x < min then return min:
 2: maxincluster \leftarrow cluster[high(x)].max();
 3: if maxincluster \neq null \land low(x) < maxincluster then
         offs \leftarrow cluster[high(x)]. succ(low(x));
4:
         return high(x) \circ offs;
 5:
6: else
         succluster \leftarrow summary.succ(high(x));
7:
8:
         if succluster = null then return null:
9:
         offs \leftarrow cluster[succluster].min();
         return succeluster • offs;
10:
```

 $T_{\text{succ}}(u) = T_{\text{succ}}(\sqrt{u}) + 1 \Longrightarrow T_{\text{succ}}(u) = \mathcal{O}(\log \log u).$ 





 $T_{\text{ins}}(u) = T_{\text{ins}}(\sqrt{u}) + 1 \Longrightarrow T_{\text{ins}}(u) = \mathcal{O}(\log \log u).$ 



Note that the recusive call in Line 7 takes constant time as the if-condition in Line 5 ensures that we are inserting in an empty sub-tree.

The only non-constant recursive calls are the call in Line 6 and in Line 9. These are mutually exclusive, i.e., only one of these calls will actually occur.

From this we get that  $T_{ins}(u) = T_{ins}(\sqrt{u}) + 1$ .

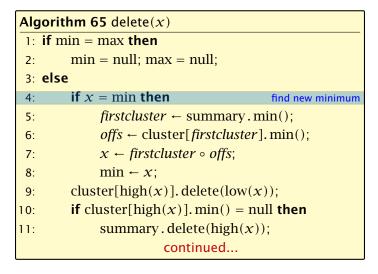


Assumes that x is contained in the structure.

```
Algorithm 65 delete(x)
 1: if min = max then
 2:
         min = null; max = null;
 3: else
        if x = \min then
 4:
 5:
             firstcluster \leftarrow summary.min();
              offs ← cluster[firstcluster].min();
6:
 7:
              x \leftarrow firstcluster \circ offs;
 8:
              min \leftarrow x;
         cluster[high(x)]. delete(low(x));
9:
10:
         if cluster [high(x)]. min() = null then
              summary.delete(high(x));
11:
                         continued...
```



Assumes that x is contained in the structure.





Assumes that x is contained in the structure.

```
Algorithm 65 delete(x)
 1: if min = max then
 2:
         min = null; max = null;
 3: else
        if x = \min then
 4:
 5:
             firstcluster \leftarrow summary.min();
              offs ← cluster[firstcluster].min();
6:
 7:
              x \leftarrow firstcluster \circ offs;
 8:
              min \leftarrow x;
         cluster[high(x)]. delete(low(x));
 9:
                                                        delete
10:
         if cluster [high(x)]. min() = null then
              summary.delete(high(x));
11:
                          continued...
```



Algorithm 65 delete(x)		
	continued	
10:	if $x = \max$ then	
11:	$summax \leftarrow summary.max();$	
12:	<b>if</b> <i>summax</i> = null <b>then</b> max ← min;	
13:	else	
14:	offs $\leftarrow$ cluster[summax].max();	
15:	$\max \leftarrow summax \circ offs$	



Algorithm 65 delete(x)			
	continued	fix maximum	
10:	if $x = \max$ then		
11:	$summax \leftarrow summary.max();$		
12:	<b>if</b> <i>summax</i> = null <b>then</b> max ← min;		
13:	else		
14:	offs ← cluster[summax].n	nax();	
15:	$\max \leftarrow summax \circ offs$		



10 van Emde Boas Trees

Note that only one of the possible recusive calls in Line 9 and Line 11 in the deletion-algorithm may take non-constant time.

To see this observe that the call in Line 11 only occurs if the cluster where x was deleted is now empty. But this means that the call in Line 9 deleted the last element in cluster[high(x)]. Such a call only takes constant time.

Hence, we get a recurrence of the form

 $T_{\text{del}}(u) = T_{\text{del}}(\sqrt{u}) + c$ .

This gives  $T_{del}(u) = O(\log \log u)$ .



## 10 van Emde Boas Trees

#### Space requirements:

The space requirement fulfills the recurrence

$$S(u) = (\sqrt{u} + 1)S(\sqrt{u}) + \mathcal{O}(\sqrt{u}) .$$

- Note that we cannot solve this recurrence by the Master theorem as the branching factor is not constant.
- One can show by induction that the space requirement is S(u) = O(u). Exercise.



Let the "real" recurrence relation be

$$S(k^2) = (k+1)S(k) + c_1 \cdot k; S(4) = c_2$$

• Replacing S(k) by  $R(k) := S(k)/c_2$  gives the recurrence

$$R(k^2) = (k+1)R(k) + ck; R(4) = 1$$

where  $c = c_1/c_2 < 1$ .

Now, we show  $R(k) \le k - 2$  for squares  $k \ge 4$ .

• Obviously, this holds for k = 4.

For  $k = \ell^2 > 4$  with  $\ell$  integral we have

$$\begin{split} R(k) &= (1+\ell)R(\ell) + c\ell \\ &\leq (1+\ell)(\ell-2) + \ell \leq k-2 \end{split}$$

This shows that R(k) and, hence, S(k) grows linearly.

# Part IV

# **Flows and Cuts**

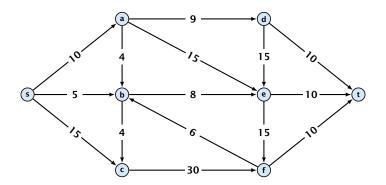


The following slides are partially based on slides by Kevin Wayne.



#### **Flow Network**

• directed graph G = (V, E); edge capacities c(e)

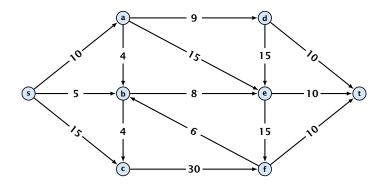




11 Introduction

#### **Flow Network**

- directed graph G = (V, E); edge capacities c(e)
- two special nodes: source s; target t;

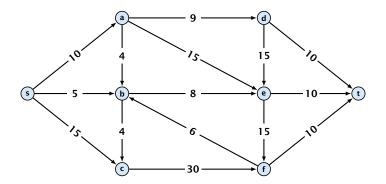




11 Introduction

#### **Flow Network**

- directed graph G = (V, E); edge capacities c(e)
- two special nodes: source s; target t;
- no edges entering s or leaving t;

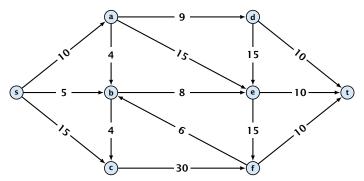




11 Introduction

#### **Flow Network**

- directed graph G = (V, E); edge capacities c(e)
- two special nodes: source s; target t;
- no edges entering s or leaving t;
- at least for now: no parallel edges;





11 Introduction

#### **Definition 40**

An (s, t)-cut in the graph G is given by a set  $A \subset V$  with  $s \in A$  and  $t \in V \setminus A$ .



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**Definition 41** The capacity of a cut *A* is defined as

$$\operatorname{cap}(A, V \setminus A) := \sum_{e \in \operatorname{out}(A)} c(e)$$
,

where out(A) denotes the set of edges of the form  $A \times V \setminus A$ (i.e. edges leaving A).



#### **Definition 40**

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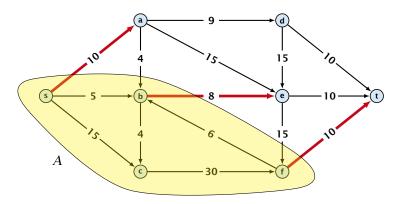
$$\operatorname{cap}(A, V \setminus A) := \sum_{e \in \operatorname{out}(A)} c(e) ,$$

where out(A) denotes the set of edges of the form  $A \times V \setminus A$ (i.e. edges leaving A).

**Minimum Cut Problem:** Find an (s, t)-cut with minimum capacity.



#### Example 42



The capacity of the cut is  $cap(A, V \setminus A) = 28$ .



**11 Introduction** 

#### **Definition 43**

An (s, t)-flow is a function  $f : E \mapsto \mathbb{R}^+$  that satisfies

1. For each edge *e* 

 $0 \leq f(e) \leq c(e)$  .

(capacity constraints)



#### **Definition 43**

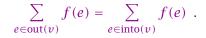
An (s, t)-flow is a function  $f : E \mapsto \mathbb{R}^+$  that satisfies

1. For each edge *e* 

 $0 \leq f(e) \leq c(e)$  .

(capacity constraints)

**2.** For each  $v \in V \setminus \{s, t\}$ 



(flow conservation constraints)



#### **Definition 44**

The value of an (s, t)-flow f is defined as

$$\operatorname{val}(f) = \sum_{e \in \operatorname{out}(s)} f(e)$$
.



## **Definition 44** The value of an (s, t)-flow f is defined as

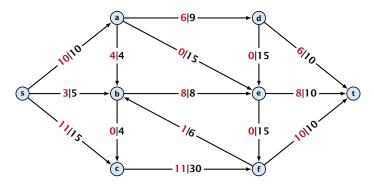
$$\operatorname{val}(f) = \sum_{e \in \operatorname{out}(s)} f(e)$$
.

# **Maximum Flow Problem:** Find an (s, t)-flow with maximum value.



11 Introduction

#### Example 45



The value of the flow is val(f) = 24.



11 Introduction

#### Lemma 46 (Flow value lemma)

Let f be a flow, and let  $A \subseteq V$  be an (s,t)-cut. Then the net-flow across the cut is equal to the amount of flow leaving s, i.e.,

$$\operatorname{val}(f) = \sum_{e \in \operatorname{out}(A)} f(e) - \sum_{e \in \operatorname{into}(A)} f(e)$$
.



#### Proof.

## $\operatorname{val}(f)$



#### Proof.

$$\operatorname{val}(f) = \sum_{e \in \operatorname{out}(s)} f(e)$$



$$\operatorname{val}(f) = \sum_{e \in \operatorname{out}(s)} f(e)$$
$$= \sum_{e \in \operatorname{out}(s)} f(e) + \sum_{v \in A \setminus \{s\}} \left( \sum_{e \in \operatorname{out}(v)} f(e) - \sum_{e \in \operatorname{in}(v)} f(e) \right)$$



$$\operatorname{val}(f) = \sum_{e \in \operatorname{out}(s)} f(e) = \mathbf{0}$$
$$= \sum_{e \in \operatorname{out}(s)} f(e) + \sum_{v \in A \setminus \{s\}} \left( \sum_{e \in \operatorname{out}(v)} f(e) - \sum_{e \in \operatorname{in}(v)} f(e) \right)$$



$$\operatorname{val}(f) = \sum_{e \in \operatorname{out}(s)} f(e)$$
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$$= \sum_{e \in \operatorname{out}(A)} f(e) - \sum_{e \in \operatorname{into}(A)} f(e)$$

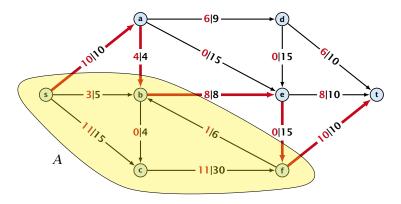


$$\operatorname{val}(f) = \sum_{e \in \operatorname{out}(s)} f(e)$$
$$= \sum_{e \in \operatorname{out}(s)} f(e) + \sum_{v \in A \setminus \{s\}} \left( \sum_{e \in \operatorname{out}(v)} f(e) - \sum_{e \in \operatorname{in}(v)} f(e) \right)$$
$$= \sum_{e \in \operatorname{out}(A)} f(e) - \sum_{e \in \operatorname{into}(A)} f(e)$$

The last equality holds since every edge with both end-points in A contributes negatively as well as positively to the sum in Line 2. The only edges whose contribution doesn't cancel out are edges leaving or entering A.



#### Example 47



The net-flow across the cut is val(f) = 24.



**11 Introduction** 

Let f be an (s, t)-flow and let A be an (s, t)-cut, such that

 $\operatorname{val}(f) = \operatorname{cap}(A, V \setminus A).$ 

Then f is a maximum flow.



Let f be an (s, t)-flow and let A be an (s, t)-cut, such that

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Then f is a maximum flow.

Proof.

Suppose that there is a flow f' with larger value. Then



Let f be an (s,t)-flow and let A be an (s,t)-cut, such that

 $\operatorname{val}(f) = \operatorname{cap}(A, V \setminus A).$ 

Then f is a maximum flow.

#### **Proof.**

Suppose that there is a flow f' with larger value. Then

 $\operatorname{cap}(A, V \setminus A) < \operatorname{val}(f')$ 





Let f be an (s,t)-flow and let A be an (s,t)-cut, such that

 $\operatorname{val}(f) = \operatorname{cap}(A, V \setminus A).$ 

Then f is a maximum flow.

#### **Proof.**

Suppose that there is a flow f' with larger value. Then

$$\operatorname{cap}(A, V \setminus A) < \operatorname{val}(f')$$
$$= \sum_{e \in \operatorname{out}(A)} f'(e) - \sum_{e \in \operatorname{into}(A)} f'(e)$$



11 Introduction

Let f be an (s,t)-flow and let A be an (s,t)-cut, such that

 $\operatorname{val}(f) = \operatorname{cap}(A, V \setminus A).$ 

Then f is a maximum flow.

1

#### **Proof.**

Suppose that there is a flow f' with larger value. Then

$$\operatorname{cap}(A, V \setminus A) < \operatorname{val}(f')$$
  
=  $\sum_{e \in \operatorname{out}(A)} f'(e) - \sum_{e \in \operatorname{into}(A)} f'(e)$   
 $\leq \sum_{e \in \operatorname{out}(A)} f'(e)$ 



Let f be an (s,t)-flow and let A be an (s,t)-cut, such that

 $\operatorname{val}(f) = \operatorname{cap}(A, V \setminus A).$ 

Then f is a maximum flow.

1

#### **Proof.**

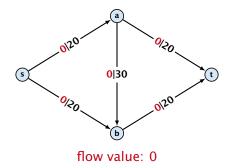
Suppose that there is a flow f' with larger value. Then

$$\begin{aligned} \operatorname{cap}(A, V \setminus A) &< \operatorname{val}(f') \\ &= \sum_{e \in \operatorname{out}(A)} f'(e) - \sum_{e \in \operatorname{into}(A)} f'(e) \\ &\leq \sum_{e \in \operatorname{out}(A)} f'(e) \\ &\leq \operatorname{cap}(A, V \setminus A) \end{aligned}$$



### Greedy-algorithm:

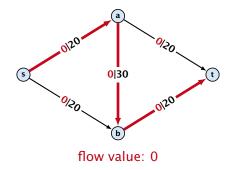
- start with f(e) = 0 everywhere
- ▶ find an *s*-*t* path with *f*(*e*) < *c*(*e*) on every edge
- augment flow along the path
- repeat as long as possible





### Greedy-algorithm:

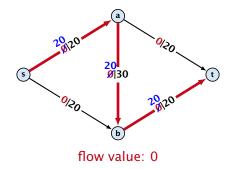
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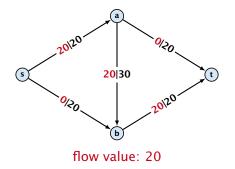
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- start with f(e) = 0 everywhere
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- repeat as long as possible





12.1 The Generic Augmenting Path Algorithm

From the graph G = (V, E, c) and the current flow f we construct an auxiliary graph  $G_f = (V, E_f, c_f)$  (the residual graph):



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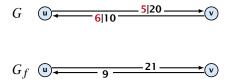
From the graph G = (V, E, c) and the current flow f we construct an auxiliary graph  $G_f = (V, E_f, c_f)$  (the residual graph):

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- $G_f$  has edge  $e'_1$  with capacity  $\max\{0, c(e_1) f(e_1) + f(e_2)\}$ and  $e'_2$  with with capacity  $\max\{0, c(e_2) - f(e_2) + f(e_1)\}$ .



From the graph G = (V, E, c) and the current flow f we construct an auxiliary graph  $G_f = (V, E_f, c_f)$  (the residual graph):

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#### **Definition 49**

An augmenting path with respect to flow f, is a path from s to t in the auxiliary graph  $G_f$  that contains only edges with non-zero capacity.

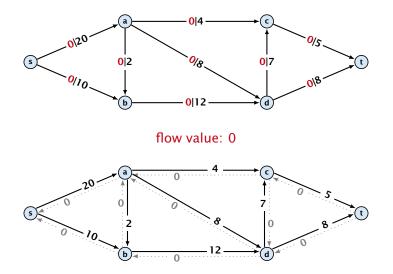


### **Definition 49**

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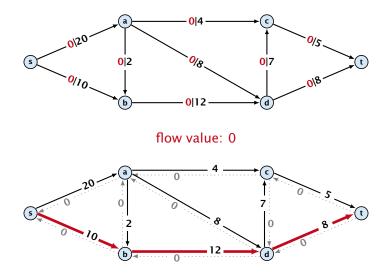
Algorithm 1 FordFulkerson(G = (V, E, c))1: Initialize  $f(e) \leftarrow 0$  for all edges.2: while  $\exists$  augmenting path p in  $G_f$  do3: augment as much flow along p as possible.





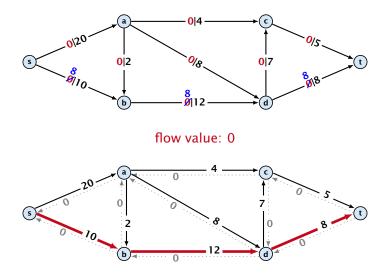


12.1 The Generic Augmenting Path Algorithm



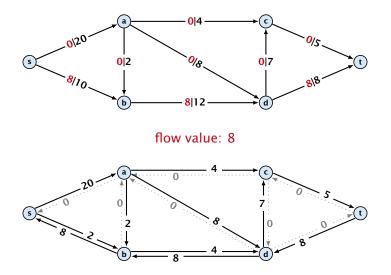


12.1 The Generic Augmenting Path Algorithm



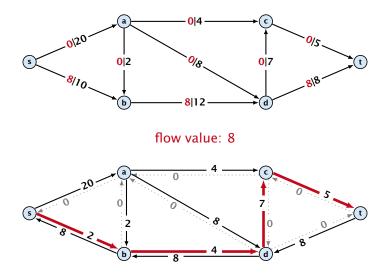


12.1 The Generic Augmenting Path Algorithm



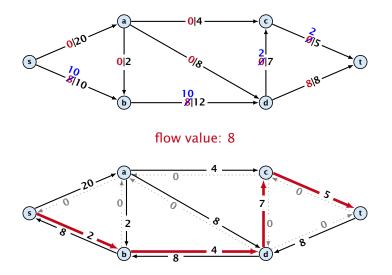


12.1 The Generic Augmenting Path Algorithm



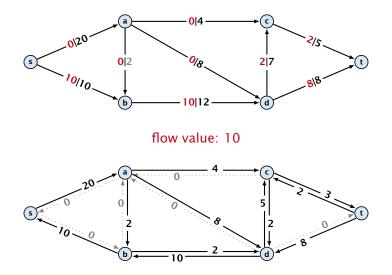


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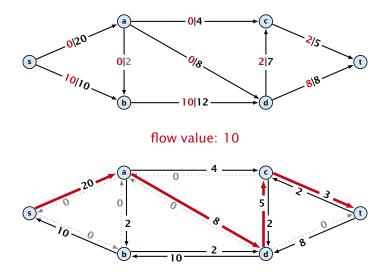


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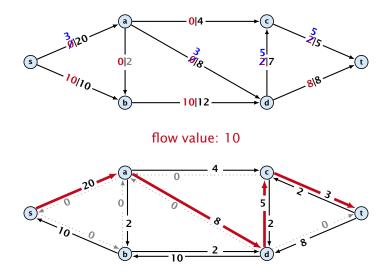


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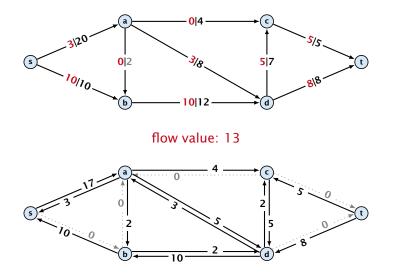


12.1 The Generic Augmenting Path Algorithm





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9. Jan. 2023 470/662

**Theorem 50** 

A flow f is a maximum flow **iff** there are no augmenting paths.



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### Proof.

Let f be a flow. The following are equivalent:

**1.** There exists a cut A such that  $val(f) = cap(A, V \setminus A)$ .



Theorem 50

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### Proof.

Let f be a flow. The following are equivalent:

- **1.** There exists a cut *A* such that  $val(f) = cap(A, V \setminus A)$ .
- **2.** Flow f is a maximum flow.



### Theorem 50

A flow f is a maximum flow **iff** there are no augmenting paths.

### Theorem 51

The value of a maximum flow is equal to the value of a minimum cut.

### Proof.

Let f be a flow. The following are equivalent:

- **1.** There exists a cut *A* such that  $val(f) = cap(A, V \setminus A)$ .
- **2.** Flow f is a maximum flow.
- 3. There is no augmenting path w.r.t. f.





12.1 The Generic Augmenting Path Algorithm

 $1. \Rightarrow 2.$ 

This we already showed.



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 $2. \Rightarrow 3.$ 

If there were an augmenting path, we could improve the flow. Contradiction.



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If there were an augmenting path, we could improve the flow. Contradiction.

 $3. \Rightarrow 1.$ 

Let *f* be a flow with no augmenting paths.



 $1. \Rightarrow 2.$ 

This we already showed.

 $2. \Rightarrow 3.$ 

If there were an augmenting path, we could improve the flow. Contradiction.

 $3. \Rightarrow 1.$ 

- Let f be a flow with no augmenting paths.
- Let A be the set of vertices reachable from s in the residual graph along non-zero capacity edges.



 $1. \Rightarrow 2.$ 

This we already showed.

 $2. \Rightarrow 3.$ 

If there were an augmenting path, we could improve the flow. Contradiction.

 $3. \Rightarrow 1.$ 

- Let f be a flow with no augmenting paths.
- Let A be the set of vertices reachable from s in the residual graph along non-zero capacity edges.
- Since there is no augmenting path we have  $s \in A$  and  $t \notin A$ .



 $\operatorname{val}(f)$ 



12.1 The Generic Augmenting Path Algorithm

$$\operatorname{val}(f) = \sum_{e \in \operatorname{out}(A)} f(e) - \sum_{e \in \operatorname{into}(A)} f(e)$$



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12.1 The Generic Augmenting Path Algorithm

$$\operatorname{val}(f) = \sum_{e \in \operatorname{out}(A)} f(e) - \sum_{e \in \operatorname{into}(A)} f(e)$$
$$= \sum_{e \in \operatorname{out}(A)} c(e)$$
$$= \operatorname{cap}(A, V \setminus A)$$

This finishes the proof.

Here the first equality uses the flow value lemma, and the second exploits the fact that the flow along incoming edges must be 0 as the residual graph does not have edges leaving A.



### Analysis

### Assumption:

All capacities are integers between 1 and C.



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All capacities are integers between 1 and C.

#### Invariant:

Every flow value f(e) and every residual capacity  $c_f(e)$  remains integral troughout the algorithm.



#### Lemma 52

The algorithm terminates in at most  $val(f^*) \le nC$  iterations, where  $f^*$  denotes the maximum flow. Each iteration can be implemented in time O(m). This gives a total running time of O(nmC).



#### Lemma 52

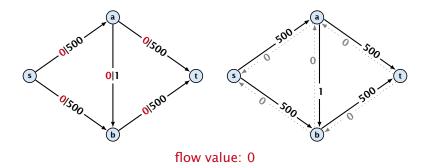
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#### Theorem 53

If all capacities are integers, then there exists a maximum flow for which every flow value f(e) is integral.



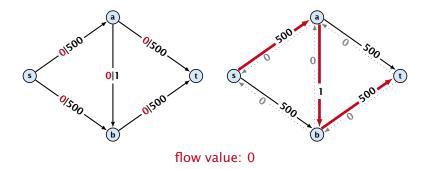
#### Problem: The running time may not be polynomial





12.1 The Generic Augmenting Path Algorithm

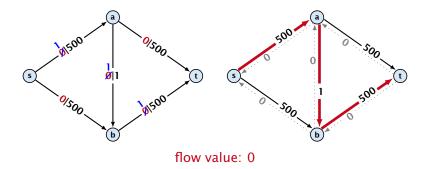
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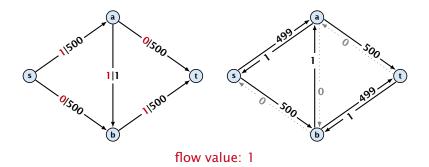
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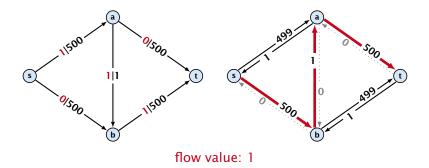
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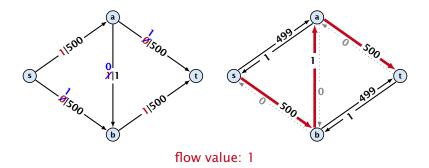
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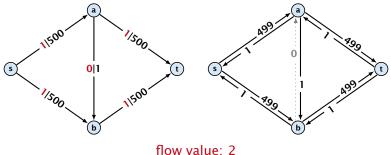
#### Problem: The running time may not be polynomial





12.1 The Generic Augmenting Path Algorithm

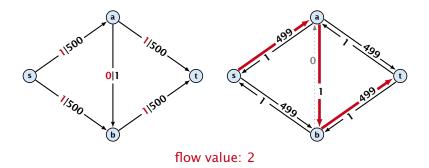
#### Problem: The running time may not be polynomial





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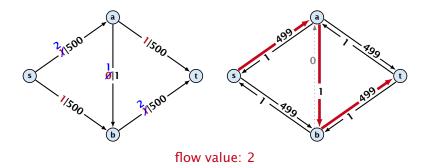
#### Problem: The running time may not be polynomial





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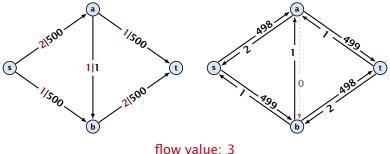
#### Problem: The running time may not be polynomial





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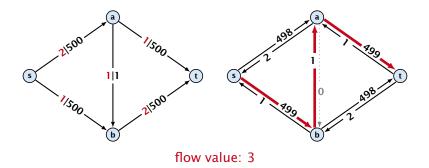
#### Problem: The running time may not be polynomial





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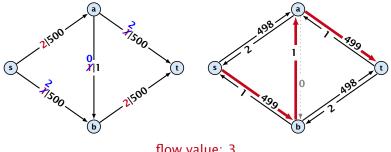
#### Problem: The running time may not be polynomial





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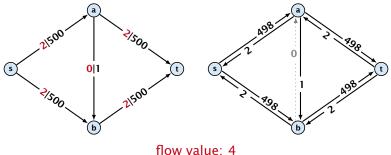






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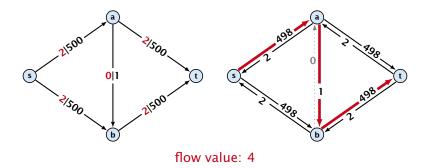
#### Problem: The running time may not be polynomial





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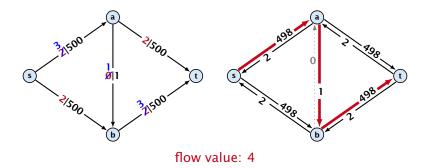
#### Problem: The running time may not be polynomial





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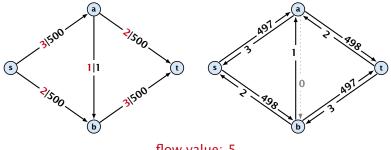
#### Problem: The running time may not be polynomial





12.1 The Generic Augmenting Path Algorithm

#### Problem: The running time may not be polynomial

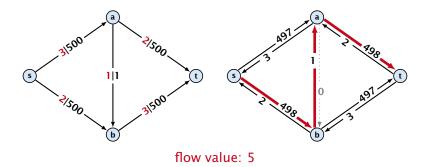


flow value: 5



12.1 The Generic Augmenting Path Algorithm

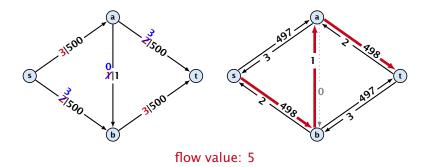
#### Problem: The running time may not be polynomial





12.1 The Generic Augmenting Path Algorithm

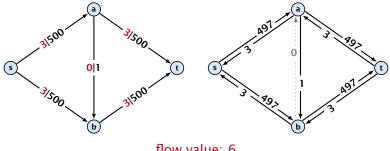
#### Problem: The running time may not be polynomial





12.1 The Generic Augmenting Path Algorithm

#### Problem: The running time may not be polynomial



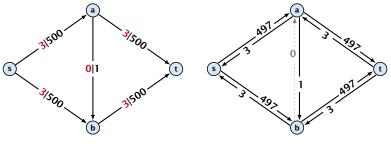
flow value: 6



12.1 The Generic Augmenting Path Algorithm

# A Bad Input

Problem: The running time may not be polynomial



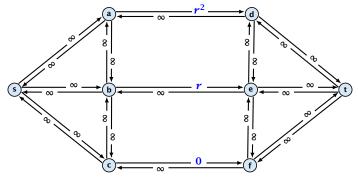
flow value: 6

## **Question:**

Can we tweak the algorithm so that the running time is polynomial in the input length?



Let 
$$r = \frac{1}{2}(\sqrt{5} - 1)$$
. Then  $r^{n+2} = r^n - r^{n+1}$ 



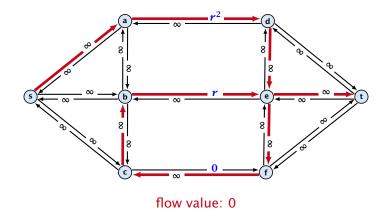
.

flow value: 0



12.1 The Generic Augmenting Path Algorithm

Let 
$$r = \frac{1}{2}(\sqrt{5} - 1)$$
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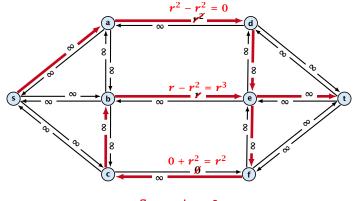


.



12.1 The Generic Augmenting Path Algorithm

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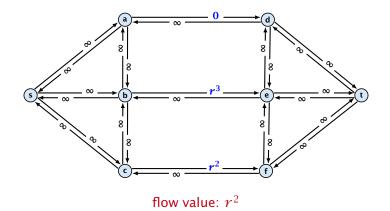


flow value: 0



12.1 The Generic Augmenting Path Algorithm

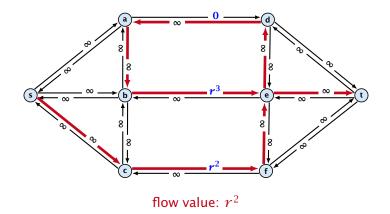
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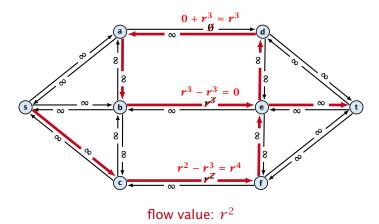


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12.1 The Generic Augmenting Path Algorithm

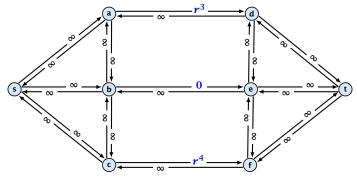
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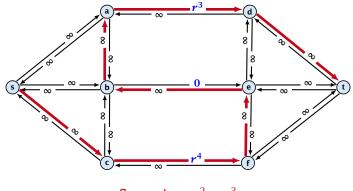


flow value:  $r^2 + r^3$ 



12.1 The Generic Augmenting Path Algorithm

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$$r = \frac{1}{2}(\sqrt{5} - 1)$$
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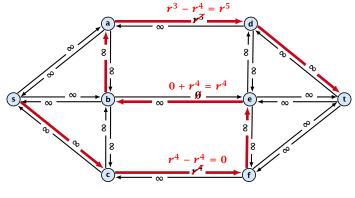


flow value:  $r^2 + r^3$ 



12.1 The Generic Augmenting Path Algorithm

Let  $r = \frac{1}{2}(\sqrt{5} - 1)$ . Then  $r^{n+2} = r^n - r^{n+1}$ .

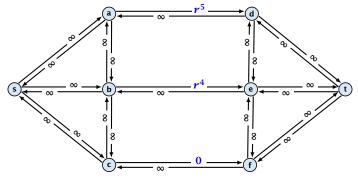


flow value:  $r^2 + r^3$ 



12.1 The Generic Augmenting Path Algorithm

Let 
$$r = \frac{1}{2}(\sqrt{5} - 1)$$
. Then  $r^{n+2} = r^n - r^{n+1}$ 



.

flow value:  $r^2 + r^3 + r^4$ 

Running time may be infinite!!!



12.1 The Generic Augmenting Path Algorithm



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12.1 The Generic Augmenting Path Algorithm

We need to find paths efficiently.



- We need to find paths efficiently.
- We want to guarantee a small number of iterations.



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Choose path with maximum bottleneck capacity.



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- We need to find paths efficiently.
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## Several possibilities:

- Choose path with maximum bottleneck capacity.
- Choose path with sufficiently large bottleneck capacity.
- Choose the shortest augmenting path.





12.2 Shortest Augmenting Paths

Lemma 54

The length of the shortest augmenting path never decreases.



## **Lemma 54** *The length of the shortest augmenting path never decreases.*

# **Lemma 55** After at most $\mathcal{O}(m)$ augmentations, the length of the shortest augmenting path strictly increases.



These two lemmas give the following theorem:



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## Theorem 56

The shortest augmenting path algorithm performs at most O(mn) augmentations. This gives a running time of  $O(m^2n)$ .



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### Proof.

► We can find the shortest augmenting paths in time O(m) via BFS.



These two lemmas give the following theorem:

## Theorem 56

The shortest augmenting path algorithm performs at most O(mn) augmentations. This gives a running time of  $O(m^2n)$ .

### Proof.

- ► We can find the shortest augmenting paths in time O(m) via BFS.
- $\mathcal{O}(m)$  augmentations for paths of exactly k < n edges.



Define the level  $\ell(v)$  of a node as the length of the shortest *s*-v path in  $G_f$  (along non-zero edges).



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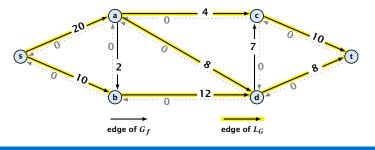
Let  $L_G$  denote the subgraph of the residual graph  $G_f$  that contains only those edges (u, v) with  $\ell(v) = \ell(u) + 1$ .



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Let  $L_G$  denote the subgraph of the residual graph  $G_f$  that contains only those edges (u, v) with  $\ell(v) = \ell(u) + 1$ .

A path *P* is a shortest *s*-*u* path in  $G_f$  iff it is an *s*-*u* path in  $L_G$ .

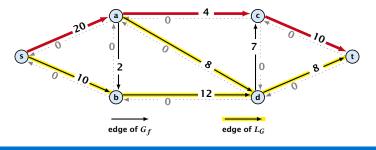




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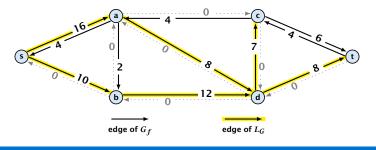


12.2 Shortest Augmenting Paths

Define the level  $\ell(v)$  of a node as the length of the shortest *s*-*v* path in  $G_f$  (along non-zero edges).

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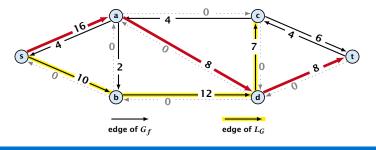




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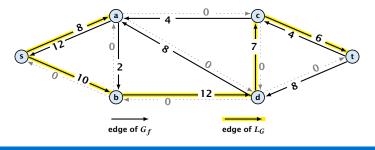


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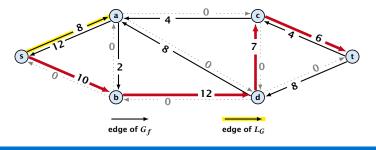




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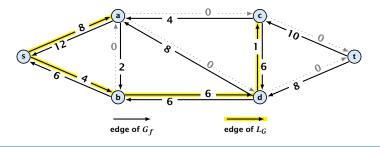




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In the following we assume that the residual graph  $G_f$  does not contain zero capacity edges.

This means, we construct it in the usual sense and then delete edges of zero capacity.



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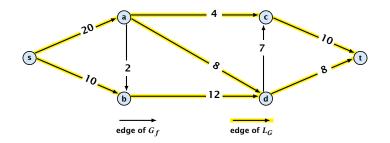
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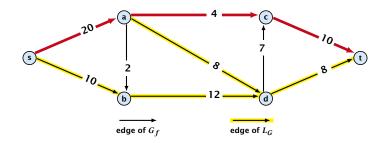


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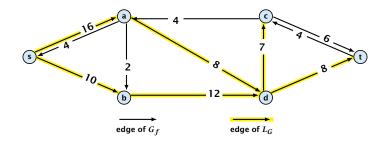


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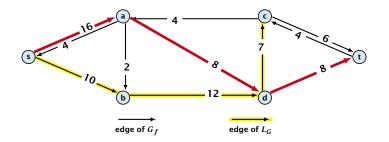


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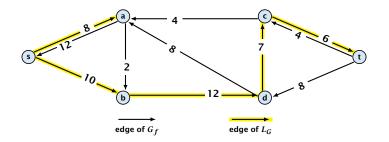


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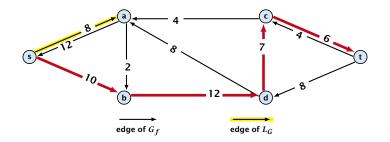


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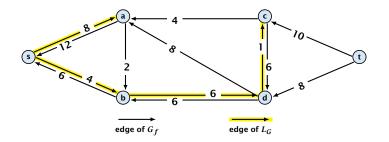


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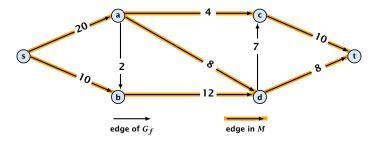
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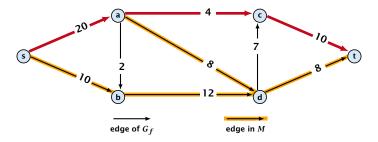
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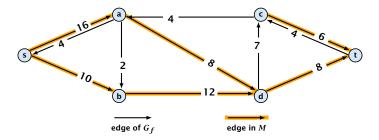
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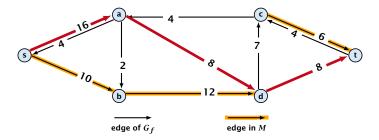
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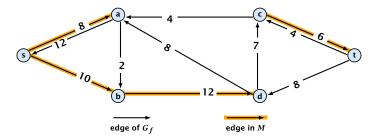
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12.2 Shortest Augmenting Paths

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#### Theorem 57

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#### Note:

There always exists a set of m augmentations that gives a maximum flow (why?).



When sticking to shortest augmenting paths we cannot improve (asymptotically) on the number of augmentations.



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However, we can improve the running time to  $\mathcal{O}(mn^2)$  by improving the running time for finding an augmenting path (currently we assume  $\mathcal{O}(m)$  per augmentation for this).



We maintain a subset M of the edges of  $G_f$  with the guarantee that a shortest *s*-*t* path using only edges from M is a shortest augmenting path.



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With each augmentation some edges are deleted from M.

When M does not contain an s-t path anymore the distance between s and t strictly increases.

Note that M is not the set of edges of the level graph but a subset of level-graph edges.





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Either you find t after at most n steps, or you end at a node v that does not have any outgoing edges.

You can delete incoming edges of v from M.



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There are at most *n* phases. Hence, total cost is  $O(mn^2)$ .

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- Choose path with maximum bottleneck capacity.
- Choose path with sufficiently large bottleneck capacity.
- Choose the shortest augmenting path.





### Intuition:

Choosing a path with the highest bottleneck increases the flow as much as possible in a single step.



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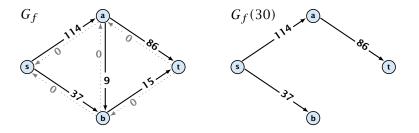
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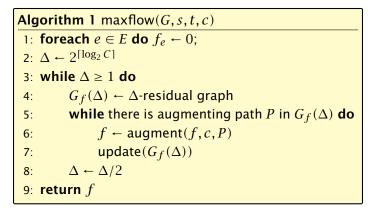
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- this means we have a maximum flow.





**Lemma 59** *There are*  $\lceil \log C \rceil + 1$  *iterations over*  $\Delta$ *.* **Proof:** obvious.



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Let f be the flow at the end of a  $\Delta$ -phase. Then the maximum flow is smaller than  $val(f) + m\Delta$ .

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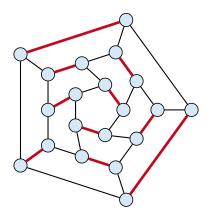
#### Theorem 62

We need  $\mathcal{O}(m \log C)$  augmentations. The algorithm can be implemented in time  $\mathcal{O}(m^2 \log C)$ .



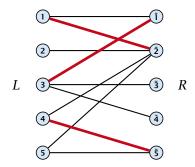
## Matching

- Input: undirected graph G = (V, E).
- $M \subseteq E$  is a matching if each node appears in at most one edge in M.
- Maximum Matching: find a matching of maximum cardinality



### **Bipartite Matching**

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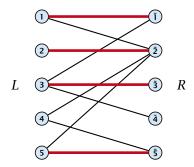


13.1 Matching

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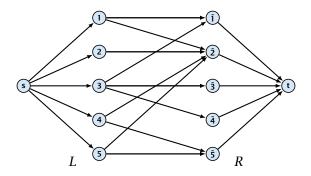


13.1 Matching

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### **Maxflow Formulation**

- ▶ Input: undirected, bipartite graph  $G = (L \uplus R \uplus \{s, t\}, E')$ .
- Direct all edges from L to R.
- Add source s and connect it to all nodes on the left.
- Add *t* and connect all nodes on the right to *t*.
- All edges have unit capacity.

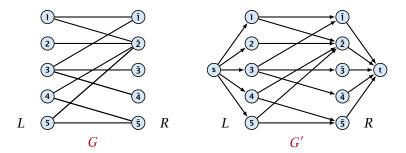




13.1 Matching

### Max cardinality matching in $G \leq$ value of maxflow in G'

- Given a maximum matching *M* of cardinality *k*.
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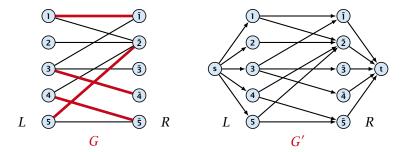




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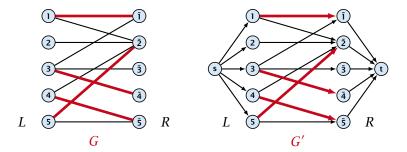




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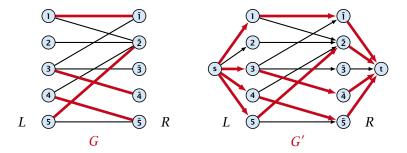




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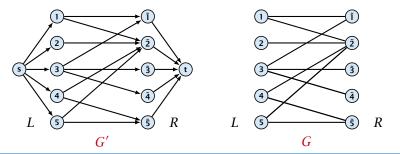




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- Consider M= set of edges from L to R with f(e) = 1.
- Each node in *L* and *R* participates in at most one edge in *M*.
- ▶ |M| = k, as the flow must use at least k middle edges.



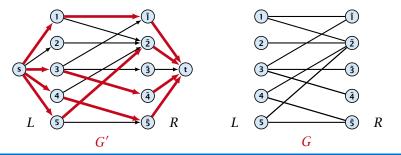


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- Each node in *L* and *R* participates in at most one edge in *M*.
- ▶ |M| = k, as the flow must use at least k middle edges.

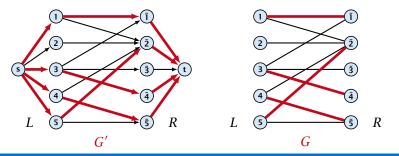




13.1 Matching

### Max cardinality matching in $G \ge$ value of maxflow in G'

- Let f be a maxflow in G' of value k
- Integrality theorem  $\Rightarrow k$  integral; we can assume f is 0/1.
- Consider M= set of edges from L to R with f(e) = 1.
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13.1 Matching

## 13.1 Matching

### Which flow algorithm to use?

- Generic augmenting path:  $\mathcal{O}(m \operatorname{val}(f^*)) = \mathcal{O}(mn)$ .
- Capacity scaling:  $\mathcal{O}(m^2 \log C) = \mathcal{O}(m^2)$ .
- Shortest augmenting path:  $\mathcal{O}(mn^2)$ .

For unit capacity simple graphs shortest augmenting path can be implemented in time  $\mathcal{O}(m\sqrt{n})$ .



team	wins	losses	remaining games			
i	$w_i$	$\ell_i$	Atl	Phi	NY	Mon
Atlanta	83	71	_	1	6	1
Philadelphia	80	79	1	-	0	2
New York	78	78	6	0	—	0
Montreal	77	82	1	2	0	-

#### Which team can end the season with most wins?

- Montreal is eliminated, since even after winning all remaining games there are only 80 wins.
- But also Philadelphia is eliminated. Why?

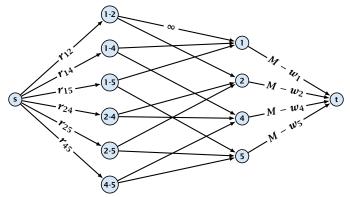


### Formal definition of the problem:

- Given a set *S* of teams, and one specific team  $z \in S$ .
- Team x has already won  $w_x$  games.
- Team x still has to play team y,  $r_{xy}$  times.
- Does team z still have a chance to finish with the most number of wins.



Flow network for z = 3. *M* is number of wins Team 3 can still obtain.



**Idea.** Distribute the results of remaining games in such a way that no team gets too many wins.



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## **Certificate of Elimination**

Let  $T \subseteq S$  be a subset of teams. Define

$$w(T) := \sum_{i \in T} w_i, \qquad r(T) := \sum_{i,j \in T, i < j} r_{ij}$$
  
wins of  
teams in T remaining games  
among teams in T

If  $\frac{w(T)+r(T)}{|T|} > M$  then one of the teams in T will have more than M wins in the end. A team that can win at most M games is therefore eliminated.



A team z is eliminated if and only if the flow network for z does not allow a flow of value  $\sum_{ij \in S \setminus \{z\}, i < j} \gamma_{ij}$ .

A team z is eliminated if and only if the flow network for z does not allow a flow of value  $\sum_{ij \in S \setminus \{z\}, i < j} r_{ij}$ .

Proof (⇐)

Consider the mincut A in the flow network. Let T be the set of team-nodes in A.

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 $r(S \setminus \{z\})$ 

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 $r(S \setminus \{z\}) > \operatorname{cap}(A, V \setminus A)$  $\geq \sum_{i < j: i \notin T \lor j \notin T} r_{ij} + \sum_{i \in T} (M - w_i)$ 

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► This gives M < (w(T) + r(T))/|T|, i.e., z is eliminated.

Proof (⇒)

Suppose we have a flow that saturates all source edges.



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- This is less than  $M w_{\chi}$  because of capacity constraints.
- Hence, we found a set of results for the remaining games, such that no team obtains more than M wins in total.
- Hence, team z is not eliminated.



### Project selection problem:

Set P of possible projects. Project v has an associated profit p<sub>v</sub> (can be positive or negative).



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### **Project selection problem:**

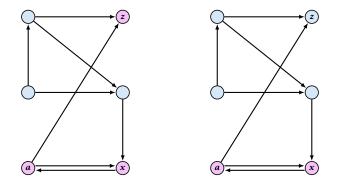
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- A subset A of projects is feasible if the prerequisites of every project in A also belong to A.

**Goal:** Find a feasible set of projects that maximizes the profit.



### The prerequisite graph:

- $\{x, a, z\}$  is a feasible subset.
- $\{x, a\}$  is infeasible.



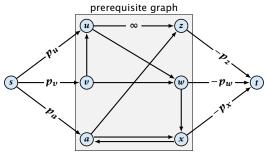


13.3 Project Selection

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### Mincut formulation:

- Edges in the prerequisite graph get infinite capacity.
- Add edge (s, v) with capacity p<sub>v</sub> for nodes v with positive profit.
- Create edge (v, t) with capacity -pv for nodes v with negative profit.





13.3 Project Selection

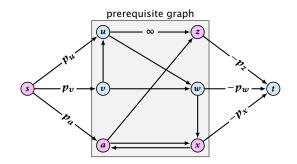
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A is a mincut if  $A \setminus \{s\}$  is the optimal set of projects.

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Proof.

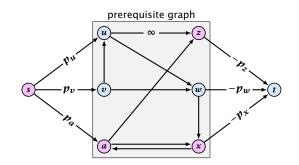
► *A* is feasible because of capacity infinity edges.



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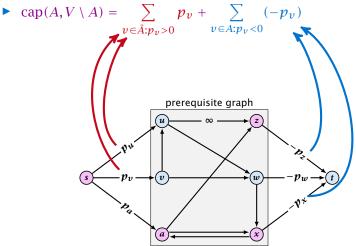
- ► *A* is feasible because of capacity infinity edges.
- cap $(A, V \setminus A)$



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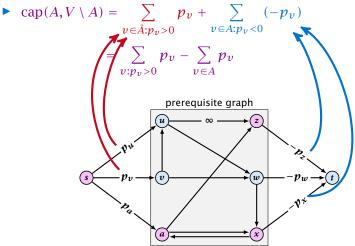
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### Proof.

A is feasible because of capacity infinity edges.





## **Definition 65**

An (s, t)-preflow is a function  $f : E \mapsto \mathbb{R}^+$  that satisfies

1. For each edge *e* 

 $0 \leq f(e) \leq c(e)$  .

(capacity constraints)



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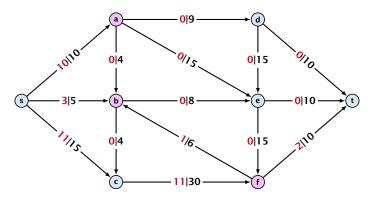
(capacity constraints)

**2.** For each  $v \in V \setminus \{s, t\}$ 

$$\sum_{e \in \text{out}(v)} f(e) \le \sum_{e \in \text{into}(v)} f(e) \ .$$



Example 66

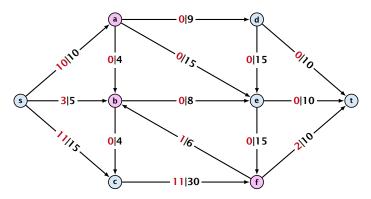




14.1 Generic Push Relabel

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Example 66



A node that has  $\sum_{e \in \text{out}(v)} f(e) < \sum_{e \in \text{into}(v)} f(e)$  is called an active node.



14.1 Generic Push Relabel

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## Definition:

A labelling is a function  $\ell: V \to \mathbb{N}$ . It is valid for preflow f if

 ℓ(u) ≤ ℓ(v) + 1 for all edges (u, v) in the residual graph G<sub>f</sub> (only non-zero capacity edges!!!)



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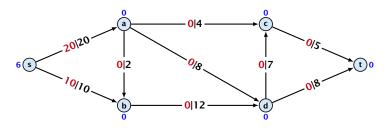
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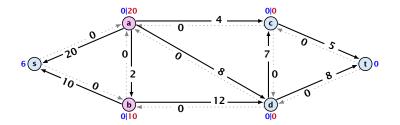
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#### Intuition:

The labelling can be viewed as a height function. Whenever the height from node u to node v decreases by more than 1 (i.e., it goes very steep downhill from u to v), the corresponding edge must be saturated.



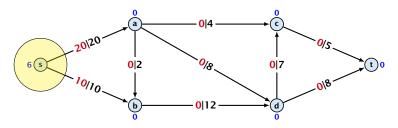


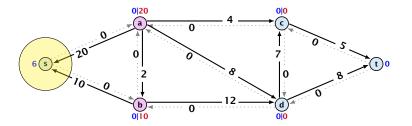




14.1 Generic Push Relabel

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### Lemma 67

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- ► There must exist a label d ∈ {0,..., n} such that none of the nodes carries this label.
- Let  $A = \{v \in V \mid \ell(v) > d\}$  and  $B = \{v \in V \mid \ell(v) < d\}$ .



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## Lemma 68

A flow that has a valid labelling is a maximum flow.





14.1 Generic Push Relabel

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Idea:

start with some preflow and some valid labelling



## Idea:

- start with some preflow and some valid labelling
- successively change the preflow while maintaining a valid labelling



## Idea:

- start with some preflow and some valid labelling
- successively change the preflow while maintaining a valid labelling
- stop when you have a flow (i.e., no more active nodes)



An arc (u, v) with  $c_f(u, v) > 0$  in the residual graph is admissible if  $\ell(u) = \ell(v) + 1$  (i.e., it goes downwards w.r.t. labelling  $\ell$ ).

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#### The push operation

Consider an active node u with excess flow

 $f(u) = \sum_{e \in into(u)} f(e) - \sum_{e \in out(u)} f(e)$  and suppose e = (u, v) is an admissible arc with residual capacity  $c_f(e)$ .

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We can send flow  $\min\{c_f(e), f(u)\}$  along e and obtain a new preflow. The old labelling is still valid (!!!).

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We can send flow  $\min\{c_f(e), f(u)\}$  along e and obtain a new preflow. The old labelling is still valid (!!!).

- saturating push: min{f(u), c<sub>f</sub>(e)} = c<sub>f</sub>(e) the arc e is deleted from the residual graph
- deactivating push: min{f(u), c<sub>f</sub>(e)} = f(u) the node u becomes inactive



14.1 Generic Push Relabel

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#### The relabel operation

# Consider an active node u that does not have an outgoing admissible arc.



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#### The relabel operation

Consider an active node u that does not have an outgoing admissible arc.

Increasing the label of u by 1 results in a valid labelling.

- Edges (w, u) incoming to u still fulfill their constraint  $\ell(w) \le \ell(u) + 1$ .
- An outgoing edge (u, w) had ℓ(u) < ℓ(w) + 1 before since it was not admissible. Now: ℓ(u) ≤ ℓ(w) + 1.



#### Intuition:

We want to send flow downwards, since the source has a height/label of n and the target a height/label of 0. If we see an active node u with an admissible arc we push the flow at u towards the other end-point that has a lower height/label. If we do not have an admissible arc but excess flow into u it should roughly mean that the level/height/label of u should rise. (If we consider the flow to be water then this would be natural.)

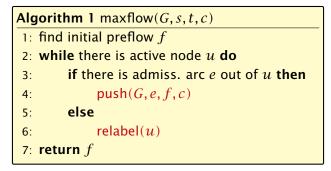
Note that the above intuition is very incorrect as the labels are integral, i.e., they cannot really be seen as the height of a node.



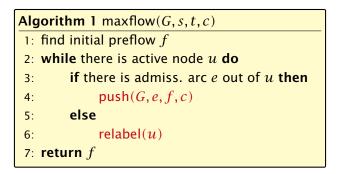
# Reminder

- In a preflow nodes may not fulfill conservation constraints; a node may have more incoming flow than outgoing flow.
- Such a node is called active.
- A labelling is valid if for every edge (u, v) in the residual graph  $\ell(u) \le \ell(v) + 1$ .
- An arc (u, v) in residual graph is admissible if  $\ell(u) = \ell(v) + 1$ .
- A saturating push along *e* pushes an amount of *c*(*e*) flow along the edge, thereby saturating the edge (and making it dissappear from the residual graph).
- A deactivating push along e = (u, v) pushes a flow of f(u), where f(u) is the excess flow of u. This makes u inactive.



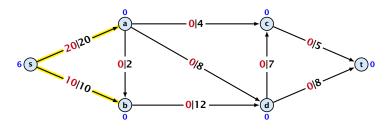


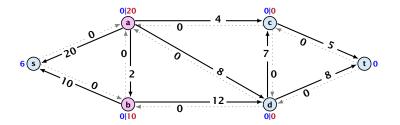




In the following example we always stick to the same active node u until it becomes inactive but this is not required.

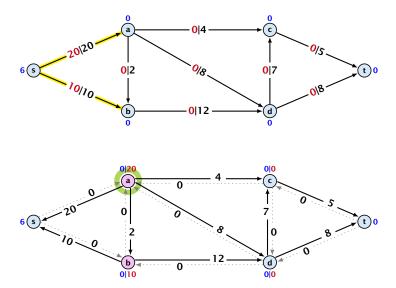






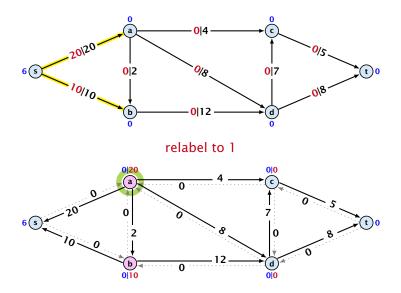


14.1 Generic Push Relabel



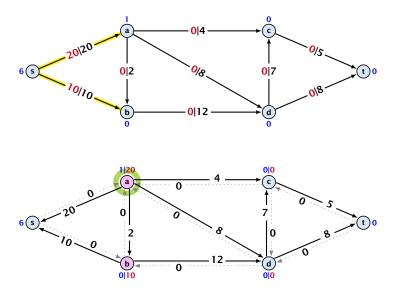


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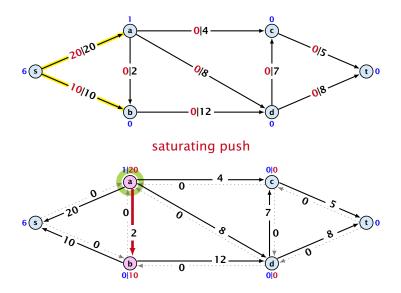


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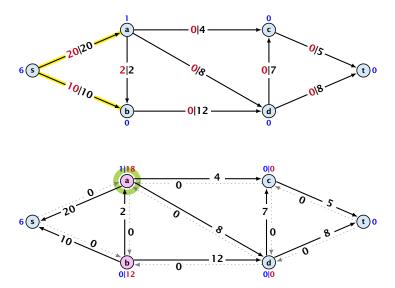


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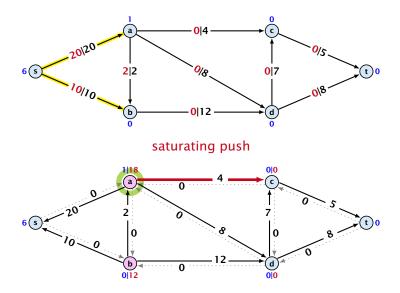


14.1 Generic Push Relabel



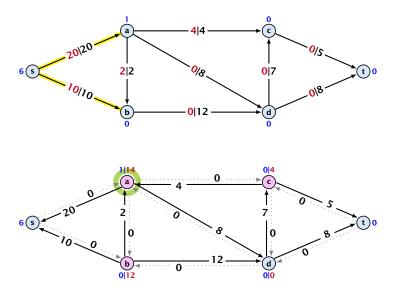


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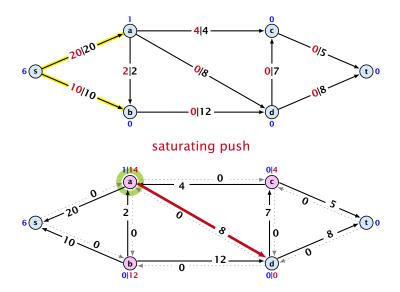


14.1 Generic Push Relabel



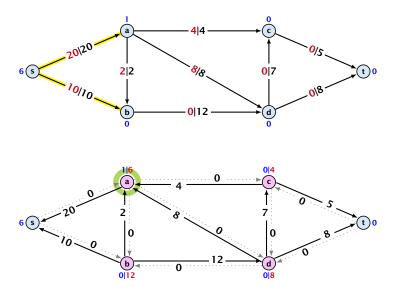


14.1 Generic Push Relabel



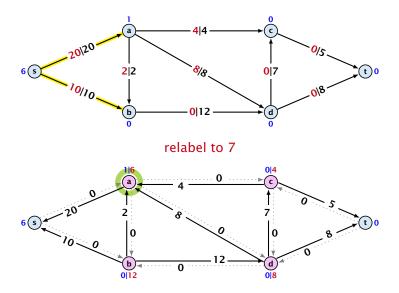


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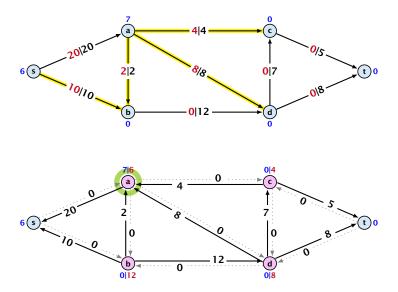


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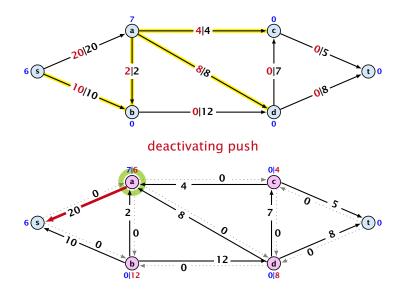


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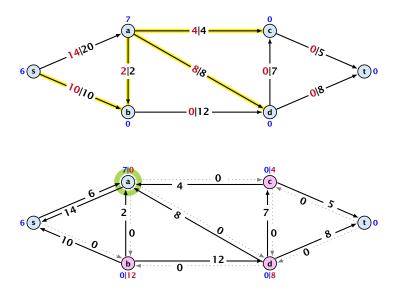


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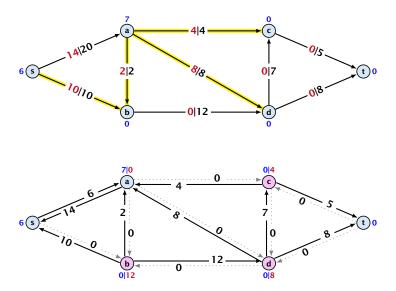


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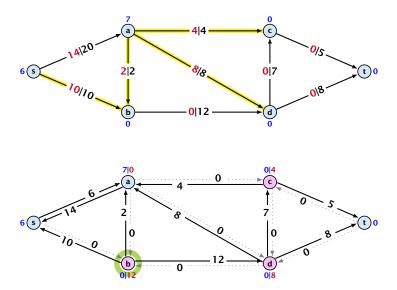


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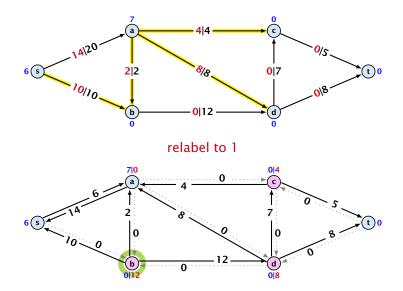


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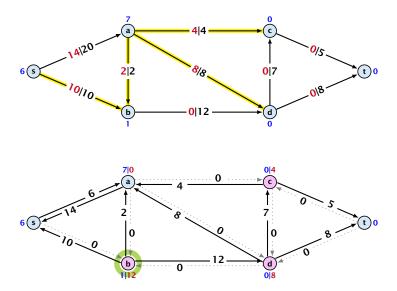


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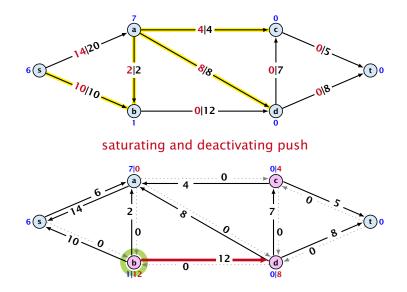


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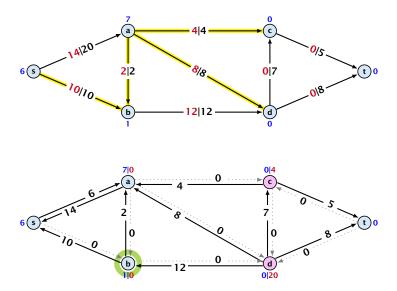


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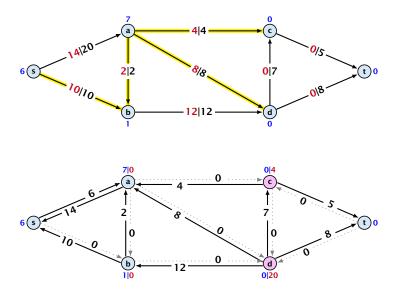


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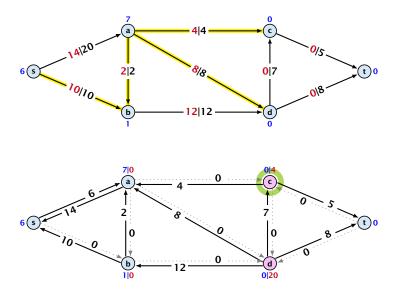


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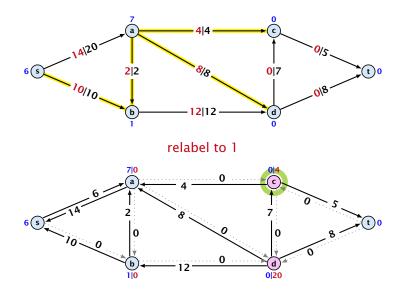


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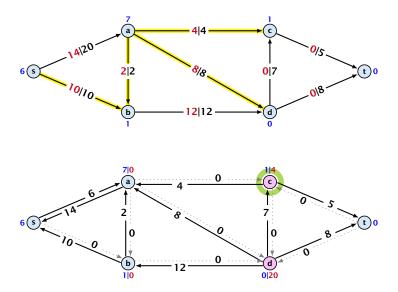


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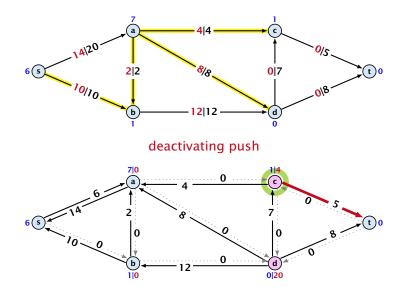


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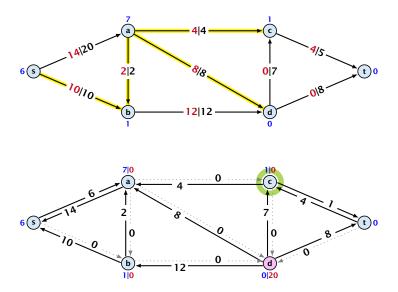


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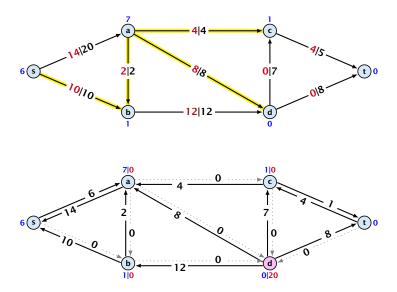


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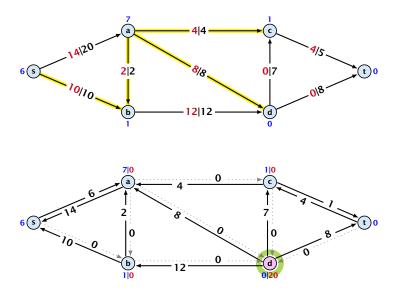


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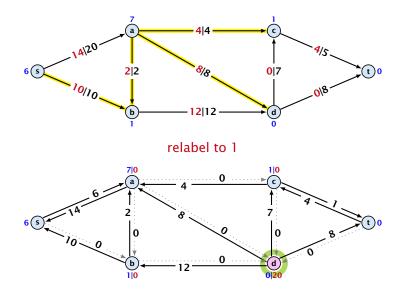


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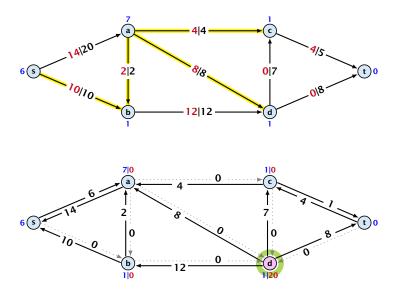


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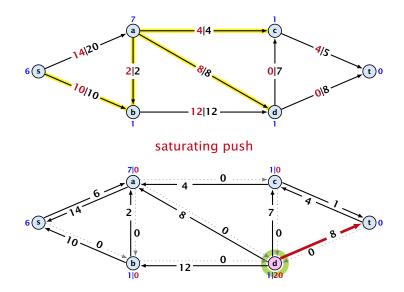


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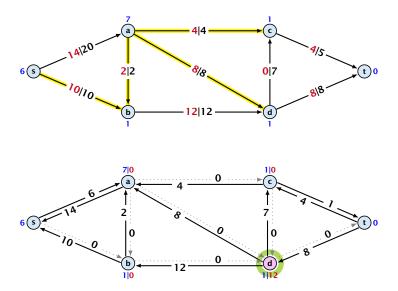


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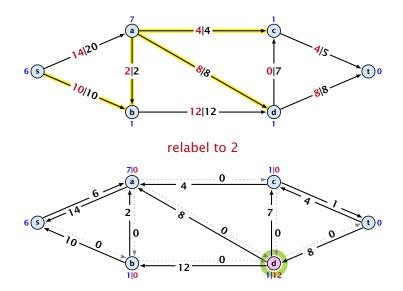


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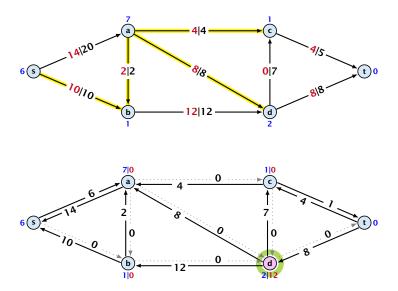


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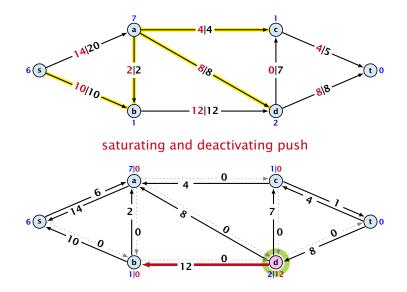


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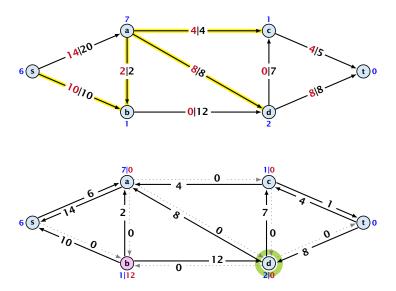


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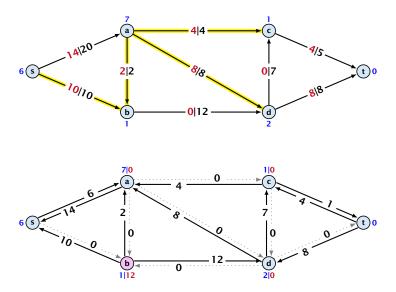


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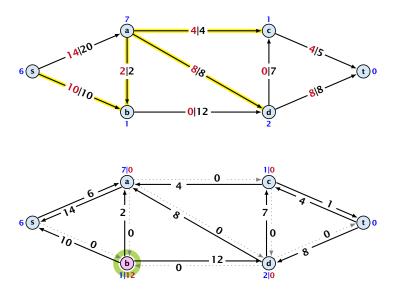


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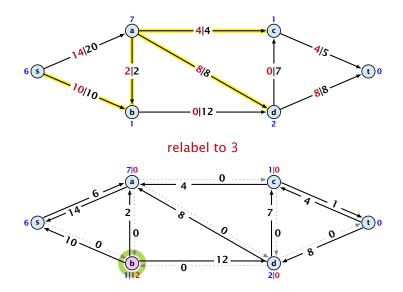


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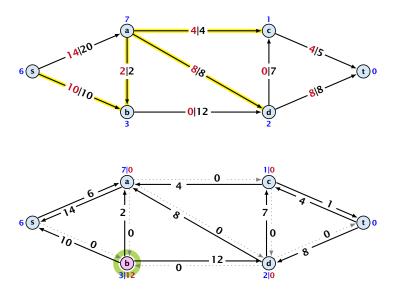


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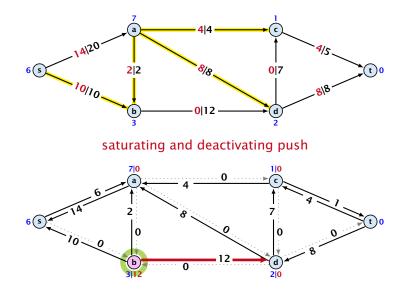


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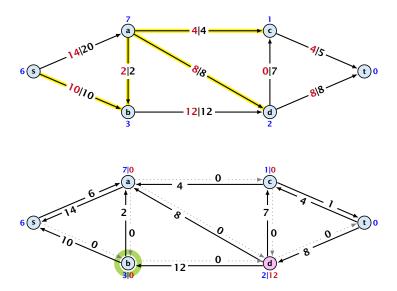


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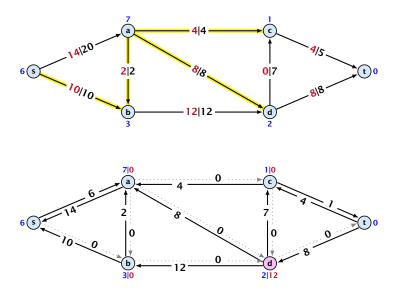


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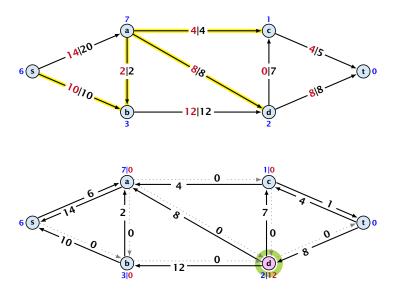


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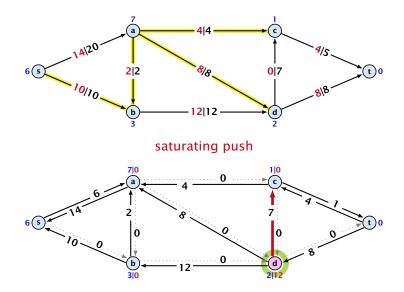


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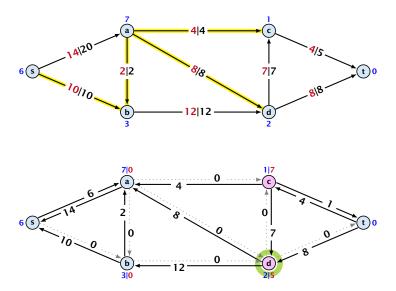


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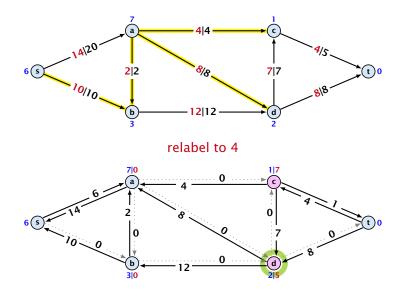


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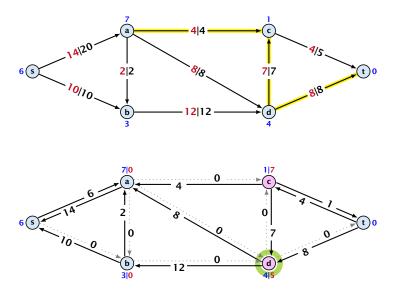


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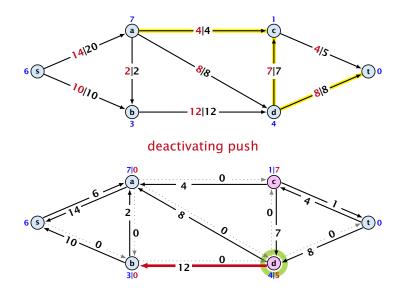


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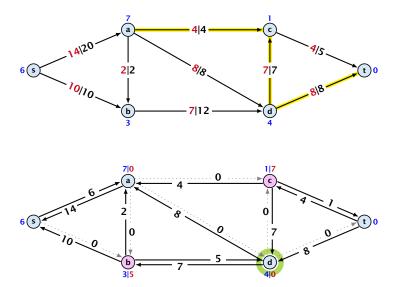


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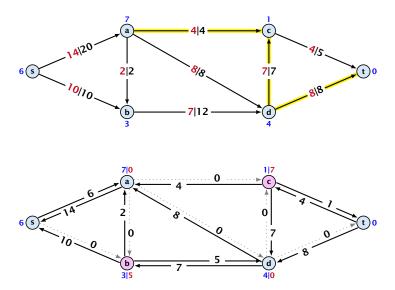


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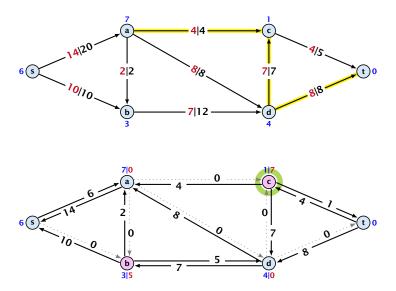


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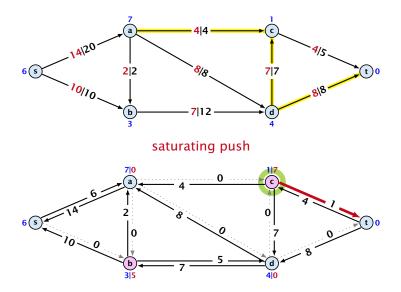


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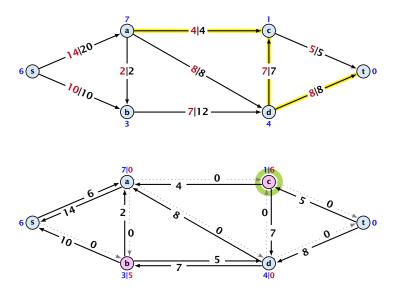


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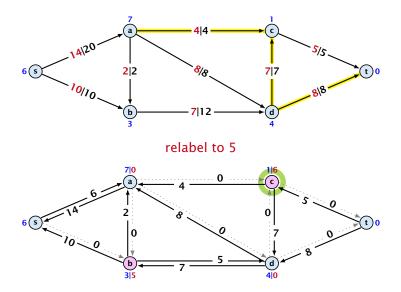


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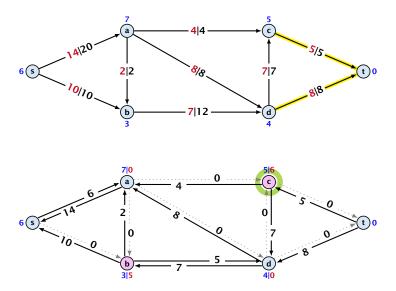


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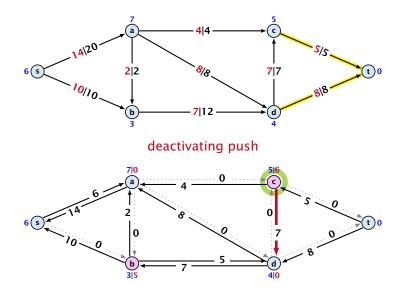


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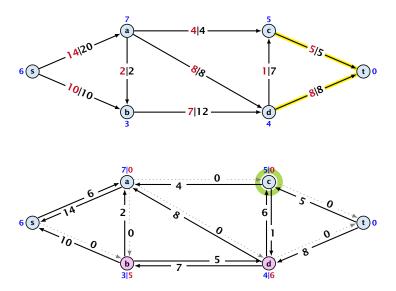


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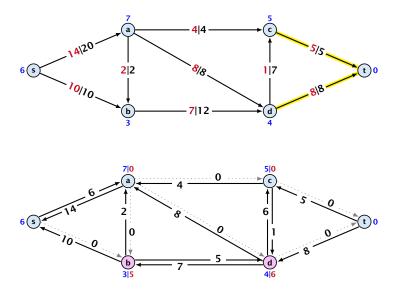


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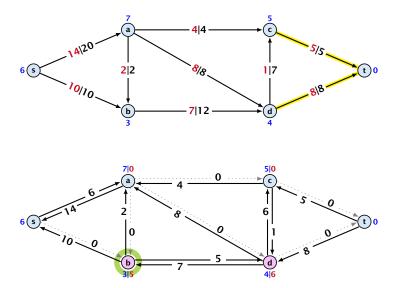


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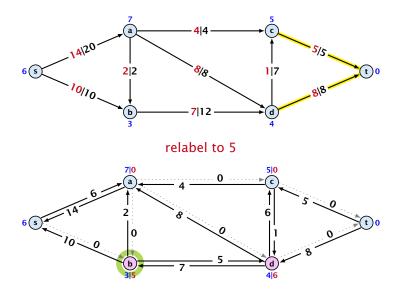


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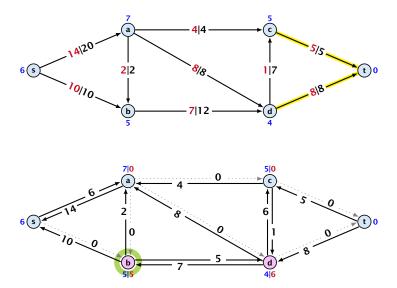


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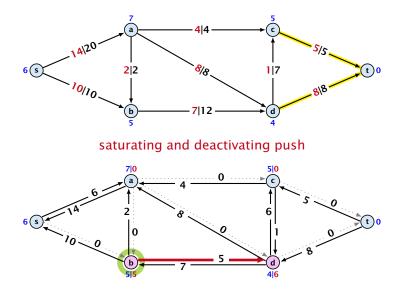


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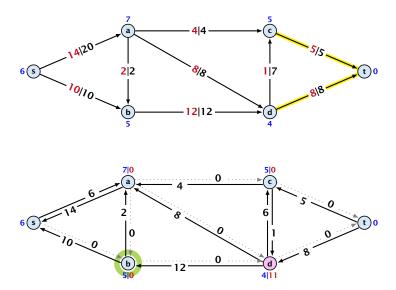


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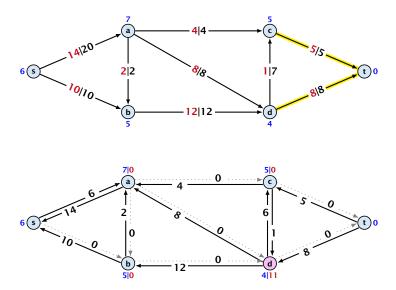


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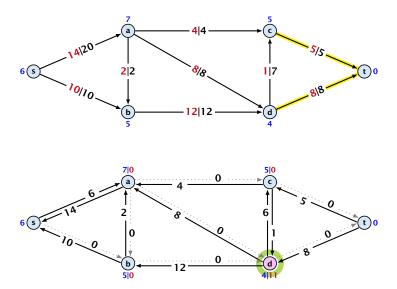


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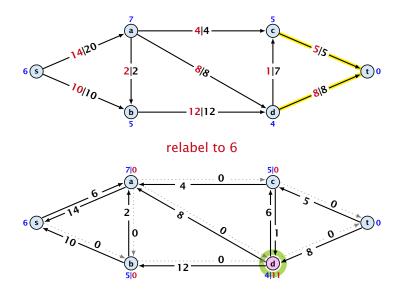


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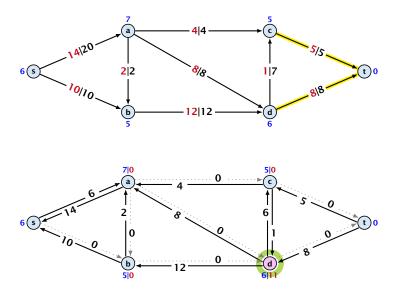


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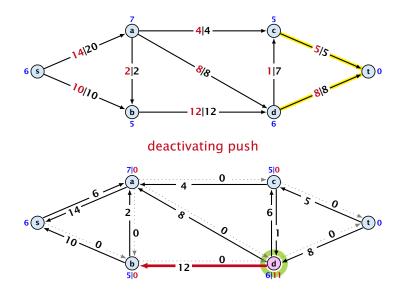


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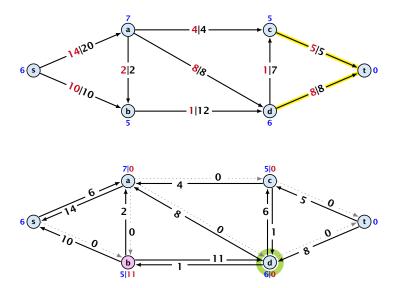


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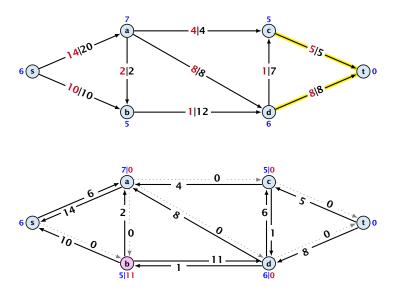


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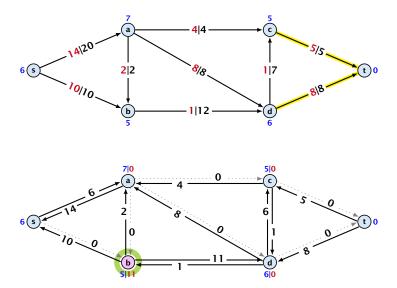


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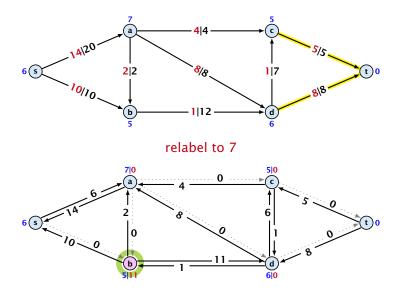


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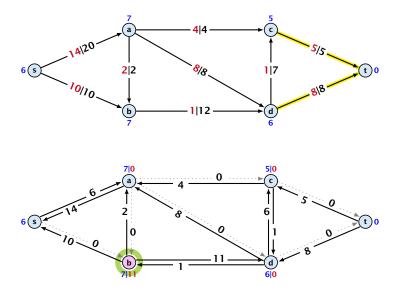


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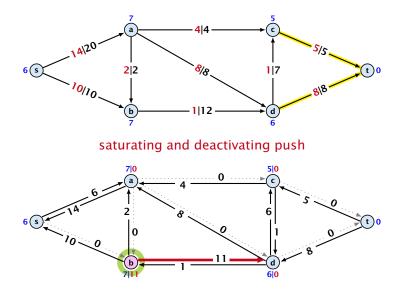


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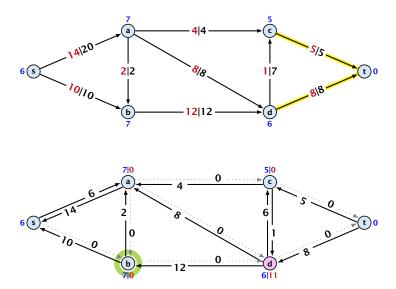


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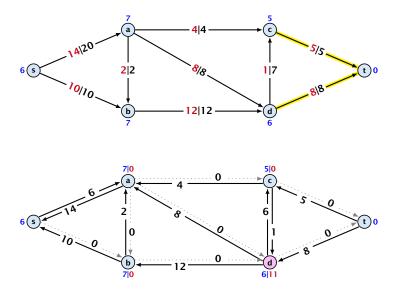


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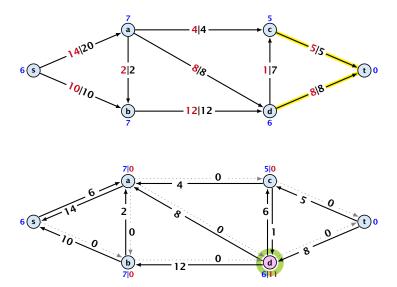


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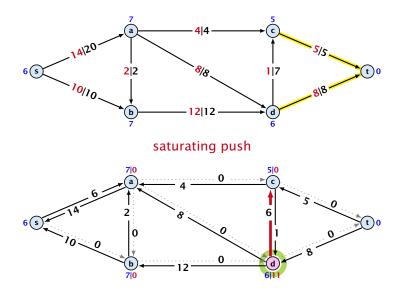


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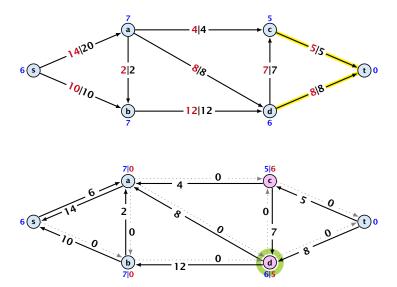


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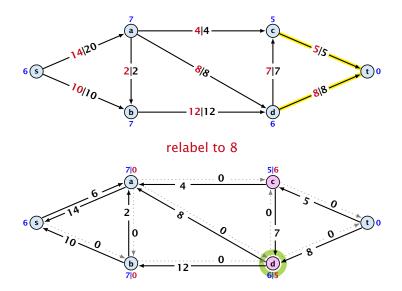


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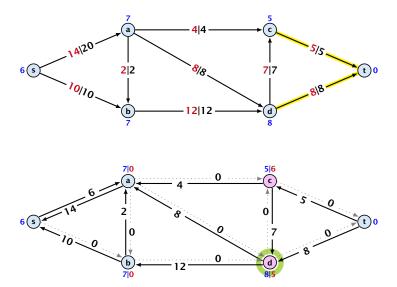


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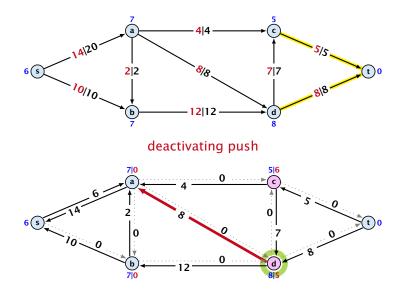


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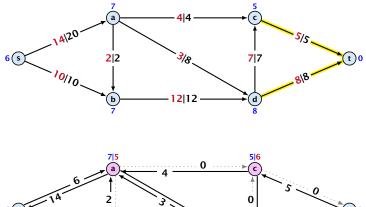


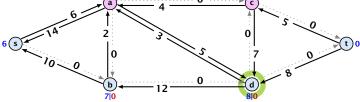
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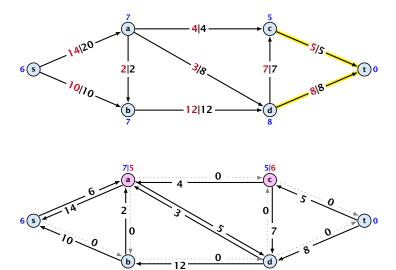
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14.1 Generic Push Relabel

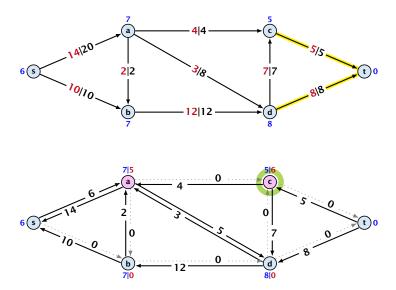




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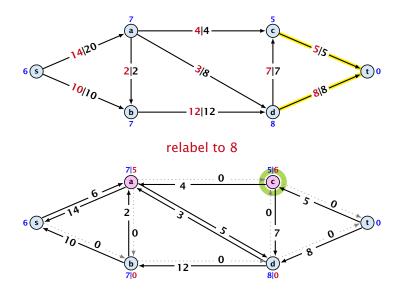
80

70



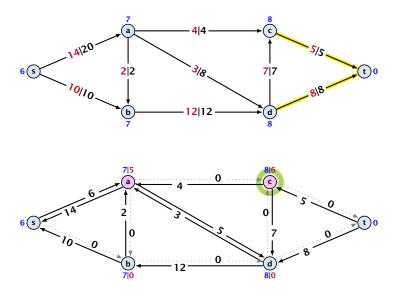


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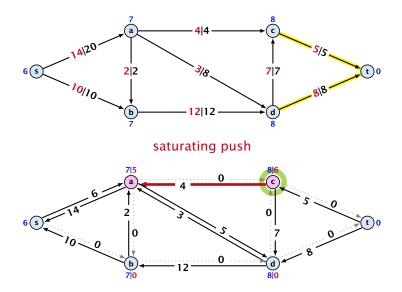


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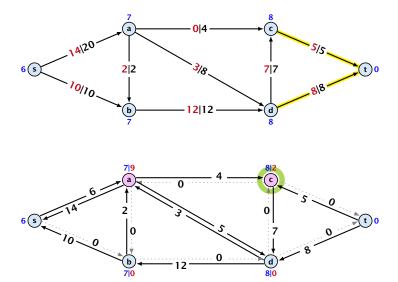


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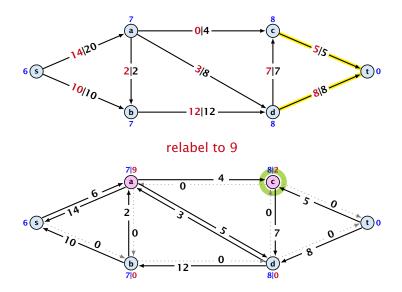


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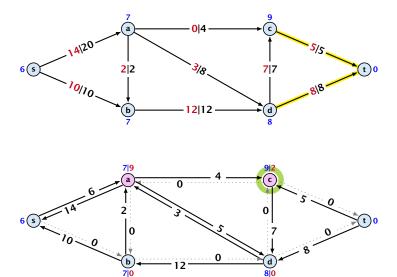


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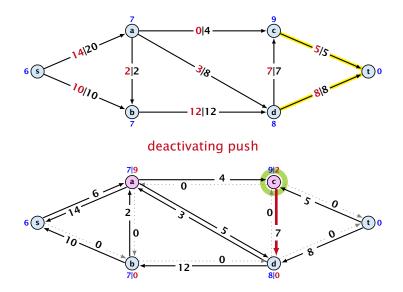


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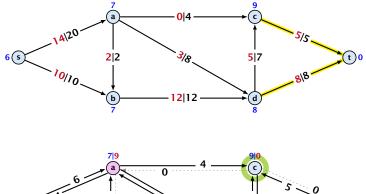


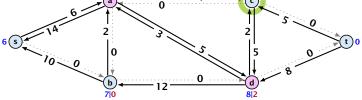
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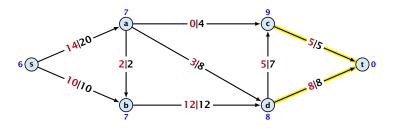
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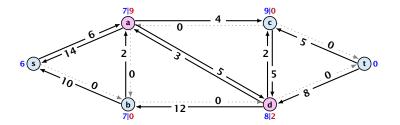






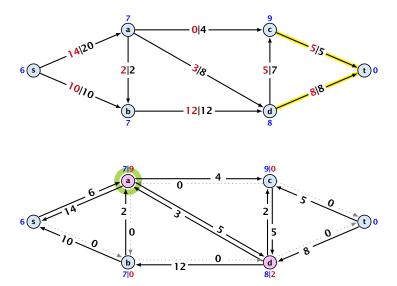
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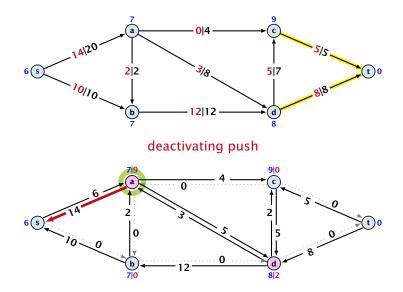


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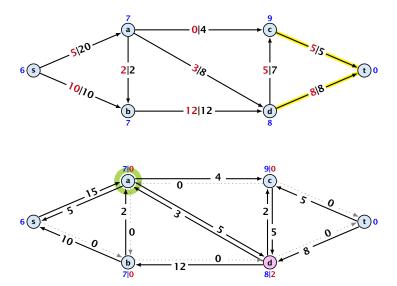


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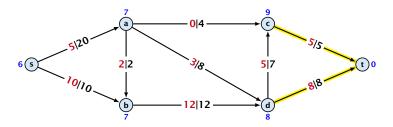


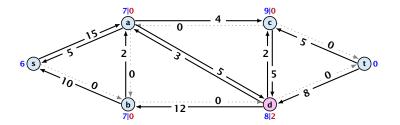
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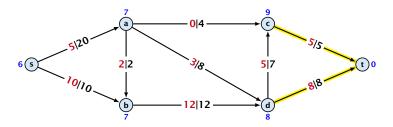
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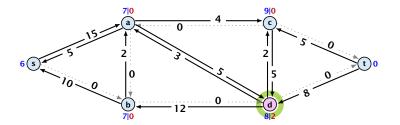






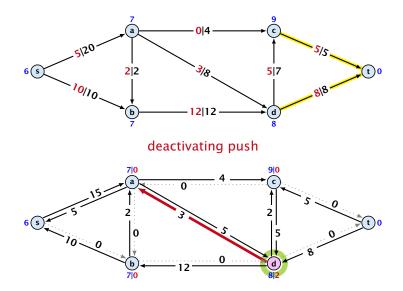
14.1 Generic Push Relabel





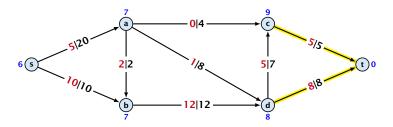


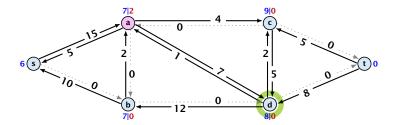
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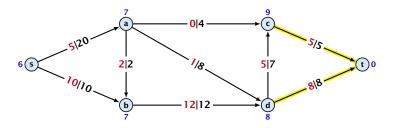
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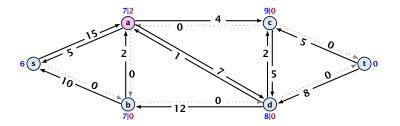






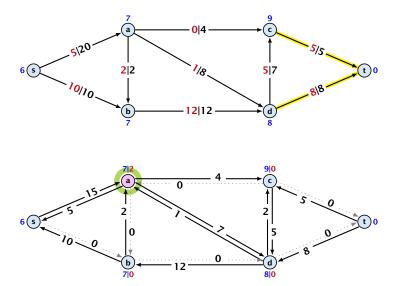
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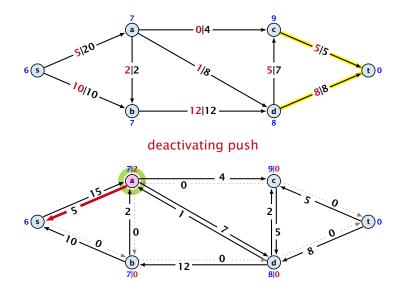


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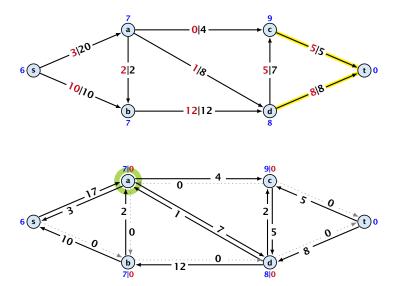


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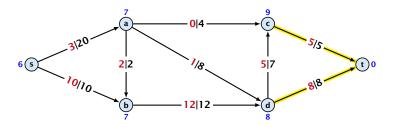


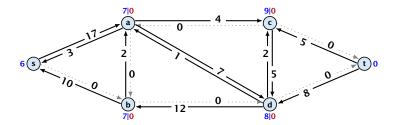
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Lemma 69

#### An active node has a path to *s* in the residual graph.



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#### Proof.

Let A denote the set of nodes that can reach s, and let B denote the remaining nodes. Note that s ∈ A.



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#### Lemma 69

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- Let A denote the set of nodes that can reach s, and let B denote the remaining nodes. Note that  $s \in A$ .
- ▶ In the following we show that a node  $b \in B$  has excess flow f(b) = 0 which gives the lemma.
- In the residual graph there are no edges into A, and, hence, no edges leaving A/entering B can carry any flow.
- Let  $f(B) = \sum_{v \in B} f(v)$  be the excess flow of all nodes in *B*.



$$f(x, y) = \begin{cases} 0 & (x, y) \notin E \\ f((x, y)) & (x, y) \in E \end{cases}$$



Let  $f : E \to \mathbb{R}_0^+$  be a preflow. We introduce the notation  $f(x, y) = \begin{cases} 0 & (x, y) \notin E \\ f((x, y)) & (x, y) \in E \end{cases}$ 

We have

f(B)



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We have

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We have

$$\begin{split} f(B) &= \sum_{b \in B} f(b) \\ &= \sum_{b \in B} \left( \sum_{v \in V} f(v, b) - \sum_{v \in V} f(b, v) \right) \end{split}$$



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14.1 Generic Push Relabel

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Hence, the excess flow f(b) must be 0 for every node  $b \in B$ .



**Lemma 70** The label of a node cannot become larger than 2n - 1.



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The label of a node cannot become larger than 2n - 1.

#### Proof.

▶ When increasing the label at a node *u* there exists a path from *u* to *s* of length at most *n* − 1. Along each edge of the path the height/label can at most drop by 1, and the label of the source is *n*.



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**Lemma 71** There are only  $O(n^2)$  relabel operations.



#### Lemma 72

The number of saturating pushes performed is at most O(mn).

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- For a push from v to u the edge (v, u) must become admissible. The label of v must increase by at least 2.
- Since the label of v is at most 2n − 1, there are at most n pushes along (u, v).

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# The number of deactivating pushes performed is at most $O(n^2m)$ .

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- A saturating push increases Φ by ≤ 2n (when the target node becomes active it may contribute at most 2n to the sum).

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- A relabel increases  $\Phi$  by at most 1.

The number of deactivating pushes performed is at most  $O(n^2m)$ .

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- Define a potential function  $\Phi(f) = \sum_{\text{active nodes } v} \ell(v)$
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### Proof.

- Define a potential function  $\Phi(f) = \sum_{\text{active nodes } v} \ell(v)$
- A saturating push increases ⊕ by ≤ 2n (when the target node becomes active it may contribute at most 2n to the sum).
- A relabel increases  $\Phi$  by at most 1.
- Hence,

#deactivating\_pushes  $\leq$  #relabels +  $2n \cdot$  #saturating\_pushes  $\leq O(n^2m)$ .

#### **Theorem 74**

There is an implementation of the generic push relabel algorithm with running time  $O(n^2m)$ .



**Proof:** 



Proof:

For every node maintain a list of admissible edges starting at that node. Further maintain a list of active nodes.



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A push along an edge (u, v) can be performed in constant time

• check whether edge (v, u) needs to be added to  $G_f$ 



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A push along an edge (u, v) can be performed in constant time

- check whether edge (v, u) needs to be added to G<sub>f</sub>
- check whether (u, v) needs to be deleted (saturating push)



Proof:

For every node maintain a list of admissible edges starting at that node. Further maintain a list of active nodes.

A push along an edge (u, v) can be performed in constant time

- check whether edge (v, u) needs to be added to G<sub>f</sub>
- check whether (u, v) needs to be deleted (saturating push)
- check whether u becomes inactive and has to be deleted from the set of active nodes



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A relabel at a node u can be performed in time O(n)

check for all outgoing edges if they become admissible



Proof:

For every node maintain a list of admissible edges starting at that node. Further maintain a list of active nodes.

A push along an edge (u, v) can be performed in constant time

- check whether edge (v, u) needs to be added to  $G_f$
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- check whether u becomes inactive and has to be deleted from the set of active nodes

A relabel at a node u can be performed in time O(n)

- check for all outgoing edges if they become admissible
- check for all incoming edges if they become non-admissible



For special variants of push relabel algorithms we organize the neighbours of a node into a linked list (possible neighbours in the residual graph  $G_f$ ). Then we use the discharge-operation:

Algorithm 2 discharge( <i>u</i> )
1: <b>while</b> <i>u</i> is active <b>do</b>
2: $v \leftarrow u.current-neighbour$
3: <b>if</b> $v = $ null <b>then</b>
4: relabel( <i>u</i> )
5: $u.current-neighbour \leftarrow u.neighbour-list-head$
6: else
7: <b>if</b> $(u, v)$ admissible <b>then</b> push $(u, v)$
8: <b>else</b> <i>u.current-neighbour</i> $\leftarrow$ <i>v.next-in-list</i>

Note that *u.current-neighbour* is a global variable. It is only changed within the discharge routine, but keeps its value between consecutive calls to discharge.

# **Lemma 75** If v = null in Line 3, then there is no outgoing admissible edge from u.

### Proof.

- While pushing from u the current-neighbour pointer is only advanced if the current edge is not admissible.
- The only thing that could make the edge admissible again would be a relabel at u.
- If we reach the end of the list (v = null) all edges are not admissible.

This shows that discharge(u) is correct, and that we can perform a relabel in Line 4.



# 14.2 Relabel to Front

```
Algorithm 1 relabel-to-front(G, s, t)
1: initialize preflow
2: initialize node list L containing V \setminus \{s, t\} in any order
3: foreach u \in V \setminus \{s, t\} do
        u.current-neighbour \leftarrow u.neighbour-list-head
4:
5: u \leftarrow L.head
6: while \mu \neq null do
         old-height \leftarrow \ell(u)
7:
         discharge(u)
8:
         if \ell(u) > old-height then // relabel happened
9:
10:
               move u to the front of L
11:
         u \leftarrow u.next
```



### 14.2 Relabel to Front

#### Lemma 76 (Invariant)

*In Line 6 of the relabel-to-front algorithm the following invariant holds.* 

- 1. The sequence L is topologically sorted w.r.t. the set of admissible edges; this means for an admissible edge (x, y) the node x appears before y in sequence L.
- **2.** No node before u in the list L is active.



### Proof:

- Initialization:
  - 1. In the beginning *s* has label  $n \ge 2$ , and all other nodes have label 0. Hence, no edge is admissible, which means that any ordering *L* is permitted.
  - 2. We start with *u* being the head of the list; hence no node before *u* can be active
- Maintenance:
  - Pushes do no create any new admissible edges. Therefore, if discharge() does not relabel *u*, *L* is still topologically sorted.
    - After relabeling, u cannot have admissible incoming edges as such an edge (x, u) would have had a difference  $\ell(x) \ell(u) \ge 2$  before the re-labeling (such edges do not exist in the residual graph).

Hence, moving u to the front does not violate the sorting property for any edge; however it fixes this property for all admissible edges leaving u that were generated by the relabeling.

# 14.2 Relabel to Front

### Proof:

- Maintenance:
  - If we do a relabel there is nothing to prove because the only node before u' (u in the next iteration) will be the current u; the discharge(u) operation only terminates when u is not active anymore.

For the case that we do not relabel, observe that the only way a predecessor could be active is that we push flow to it via an admissible arc. However, all admissible arc point to successors of u.

Note that the invariant means that for u = null we have a preflow with a valid labelling that does not have active nodes. This means we have a maximum flow.



### 14.2 Relabel to Front

#### Lemma 77

There are at most  $\mathcal{O}(n^3)$  calls to discharge(u).

Every discharge operation without a relabel advances u (the current node within list L). Hence, if we have n discharge operations without a relabel we have u = null and the algorithm terminates.

Therefore, the number of calls to discharge is at most  $n(\#relabels + 1) = O(n^3)$ .



The cost for all relabel-operations is only  $\mathcal{O}(n^2)$ .

A relabel-operation at a node is constant time (increasing the label and resetting *u.current-neighbour*). In total we have  $O(n^2)$  relabel-operations.



### 14.2 Relabel to Front

Recall that a saturating push operation  $(\min\{c_f(e), f(u)\} = c_f(e))$  can also be a deactivating push operation  $(\min\{c_f(e), f(u)\} = f(u))$ .

#### Lemma 79

The cost for all saturating push-operations that are **not** deactivating is only O(mn).

Note that such a push-operation leaves the node u active but makes the edge e disappear from the residual graph. Therefore the push-operation is immediately followed by an increase of the pointer u.current-neighbour.

This pointer can traverse the neighbour-list at most O(n) times (upper bound on number of relabels) and the neighbour-list has only degree(u) + 1 many entries (+1 for null-entry).



### 14.2 Relabel to Front

#### Lemma 80

The cost for all deactivating push-operations is only  $\mathcal{O}(n^3)$ .

A deactivating push-operation takes constant time and ends the current call to discharge(). Hence, there are only  $\mathcal{O}(n^3)$  such operations.

#### Theorem 81

The push-relabel algorithm with the rule relabel-to-front takes time  $\mathcal{O}(n^3)$ .



#### **Algorithm 1** highest-label(*G*, *s*, *t*)

- 1: initialize preflow
- 2: foreach  $u \in V \setminus \{s, t\}$  do
- 3: *u.current-neighbour* ← *u.neighbour-list-head*

#### 4: while $\exists$ active node u do

- 5: select active node *u* with highest label
- 6: discharge(u)



#### Lemma 82

When using highest label the number of deactivating pushes is only  $\mathcal{O}(n^3)$ .

A push from a node on level  $\ell$  can only "activate" nodes on levels strictly less than  $\ell.$ 

This means, after a deactivating push from u a relabel is required to make u active again.

Hence, after n deactivating pushes without an intermediate relabel there are no active nodes left.

Therefore, the number of deactivating pushes is at most  $n(\#relabels + 1) = O(n^3)$ .

Since a discharge-operation is terminated by a deactivating push this gives an upper bound of  $\mathcal{O}(n^3)$  on the number of discharge-operations.

The cost for relabels and saturating pushes can be estimated in exactly the same way as in the case of the generic push-relabel algorithm.

#### Question:

How do we find the next node for a discharge operation?



Maintain lists  $L_i$ ,  $i \in \{0, ..., 2n\}$ , where list  $L_i$  contains active nodes with label i (maintaining these lists induces only constant additional cost for every push-operation and for every relabel-operation).

After a discharge operation terminated for a node u with label k, traverse the lists  $L_k, L_{k-1}, \ldots, L_0$ , (in that order) until you find a non-empty list.

Unless the last (deactivating) push was to s or t the list k - 1 must be non-empty (i.e., the search takes constant time).



Hence, the total time required for searching for active nodes is at most

 $\mathcal{O}(n^3) + n(\# deactivating-pushes-to-s-or-t)$ 

#### Lemma 83

The number of deactivating pushes to s or t is at most  $O(n^2)$ .

With this lemma we get

#### Theorem 84

The push-relabel algorithm with the rule highest-label takes time  $\mathcal{O}(n^3)$ .



#### Proof of the Lemma.

- ► We only show that the number of pushes to the source is at most O(n<sup>2</sup>). A similar argument holds for the target.
- After a node v (which must have ℓ(v) = n + 1) made a deactivating push to the source there needs to be another node whose label is increased from ≤ n + 1 to n + 2 before v can become active again.
- This happens for every push that v makes to the source. Since, every node can pass the threshold n + 2 at most once, v can make at most n pushes to the source.
- As this holds for every node the total number of pushes to the source is at most  $O(n^2)$ .



#### **Problem Definition:**

min  $\sum_{e} c(e) f(e)$ s.t.  $\forall e \in E: 0 \le f(e) \le u(e)$  $\forall v \in V: f(v) = b(v)$ 



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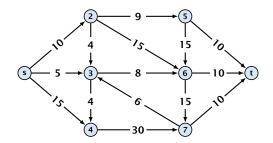
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- G = (V, E) is a directed graph.
- $u: E \to \mathbb{R}^+_0 \cup \{\infty\}$  is the capacity function.
- $c: E \to \mathbb{R}$  is the cost function (note that c(e) may be negative).
- ▶  $b: V \to \mathbb{R}$ ,  $\sum_{v \in V} b(v) = 0$  is a demand function.



### Solve Maxflow Using Mincost Flow

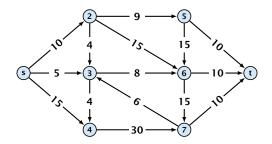




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### Solve Maxflow Using Mincost Flow



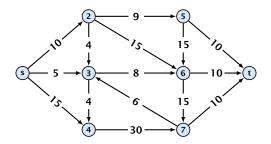
Given a flow network for a standard maxflow problem.



15 Mincost Flow

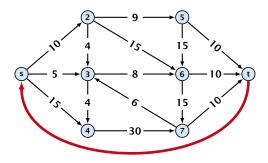
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### Solve Maxflow Using Mincost Flow



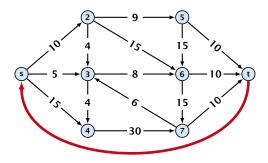
- Given a flow network for a standard maxflow problem.
- Set b(v) = 0 for every node. Keep the capacity function u for all edges. Set the cost c(e) for every edge to 0.





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- Add an edge from t to s with infinite capacity and cost -1.





- Given a flow network for a standard maxflow problem.
- Set b(v) = 0 for every node. Keep the capacity function u for all edges. Set the cost c(e) for every edge to 0.
- Add an edge from t to s with infinite capacity and cost -1.
- Then,  $val(f^*) = -cost(f_{min})$ , where  $f^*$  is a maxflow, and  $f_{min}$  is a mincost-flow.



15 Mincost Flow

#### Solve decision version of maxflow:

Given a flow network for a standard maxflow problem, and a value k.



#### Solve decision version of maxflow:

- Given a flow network for a standard maxflow problem, and a value k.
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#### Solve decision version of maxflow:

- Given a flow network for a standard maxflow problem, and a value k.
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- Set edge-costs to zero, and keep the capacities.
- There exists a maxflow of value at least k if and only if the mincost-flow problem is feasible.



### Generalization

Our model:

$$\begin{array}{ll} \min & \sum_{e} c(e) f(e) \\ \text{s.t.} & \forall e \in E : \ 0 \le f(e) \le u(e) \\ & \forall v \in V : \ f(v) = b(v) \end{array}$$

where  $b: V \to \mathbb{R}$ ,  $\sum_{v} b(v) = 0$ ;  $u: E \to \mathbb{R}_0^+ \cup \{\infty\}$ ;  $c: E \to \mathbb{R}$ ;



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#### A more general model?

$$\begin{array}{ll} \min & \sum_{e} c(e) f(e) \\ \text{s.t.} & \forall e \in E : \ \ell(e) \leq f(e) \leq u(e) \\ & \forall v \in V : \ a(v) \leq f(v) \leq b(v) \end{array} \end{array}$$
where  $a: V \to \mathbb{R}, b: V \to \mathbb{R}; \ \ell: E \to \mathbb{R} \cup \{-\infty\}, u: E \to \mathbb{R} \cup \{\infty\}$ 
 $c: E \to \mathbb{R};$ 



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### Generalization

#### Differences

- Flow along an edge e may have non-zero lower bound  $\ell(e)$ .
- Flow along e may have negative upper bound u(e).
- The demand at a node v may have lower bound a(v) and upper bound b(v) instead of just lower bound = upper bound = b(v).



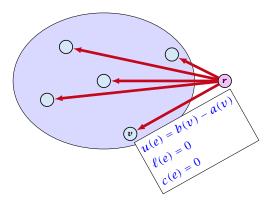
min  $\sum_{e} c(e) f(e)$ s.t.  $\forall e \in E : \ell(e) \le f(e) \le u(e)$  $\forall v \in V : a(v) \le f(v) \le b(v)$ 

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We can assume that a(v) = b(v):

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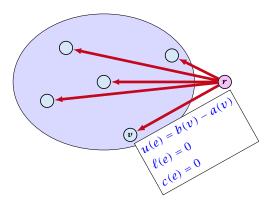
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Add new node r.

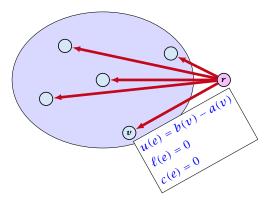


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Add edge (r, v) for all  $v \in V$ .



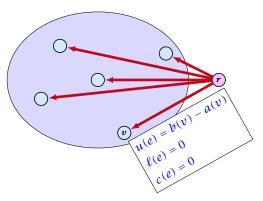
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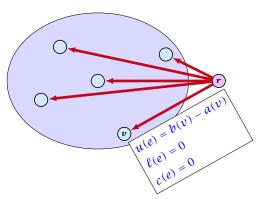
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Set u(e) = b(v) - a(v) for edge (r, v).



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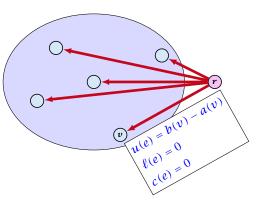
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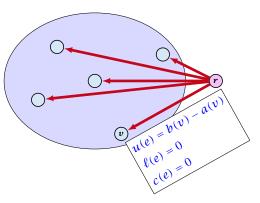
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Set a(v) = b(v) for all  $v \in V$ .

Set  $b(r) = -\sum_{v \in V} b(v)$ .



min 
$$\sum_{e} c(e) f(e)$$
  
s.t.  $\forall e \in E : \ell(e) \le f(e) \le u(e)$   
 $\forall v \in V : a(v) \le f(v) \le b(v)$ 

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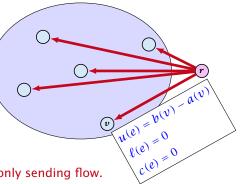
Set  $\ell(e) = c(e) = 0$  for these edges.

Set u(e) = b(v) - a(v) for edge (r, v).

Set a(v) = b(v) for all  $v \in V$ .

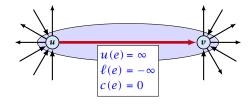
Set  $b(r) = -\sum_{v \in V} b(v)$ .

 $-\sum_{v} b(v)$  is negative; hence r is only sending flow.



$$\begin{array}{ll} \min & \sum_{e} c(e) f(e) \\ \text{s.t.} & \forall e \in E : \ \ell(e) \le f(e) \le u(e) \\ & \forall v \in V : \ f(v) = b(v) \end{array}$$

We can assume that either  $\ell(e) \neq -\infty$  or  $u(e) \neq \infty$ :



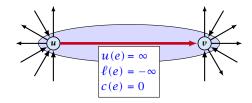


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$$\begin{array}{ll} \min & \sum_{e} c(e) f(e) \\ \text{s.t.} & \forall e \in E : \ \ell(e) \le f(e) \le u(e) \\ & \forall v \in V : \ f(v) = b(v) \end{array}$$

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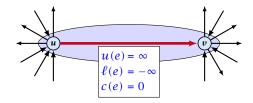


If c(e) = 0 we can contract the edge/identify nodes u and v.



$$\begin{array}{ll} \min & \sum_{e} c(e) f(e) \\ \text{s.t.} & \forall e \in E : \ \ell(e) \le f(e) \le u(e) \\ & \forall v \in V : \ f(v) = b(v) \end{array}$$

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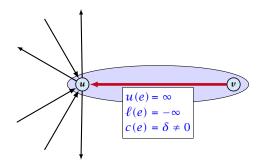
If c(e) = 0 we can contract the edge/identify nodes u and v.

If  $c(e) \neq 0$  we can transform the graph so that c(e) = 0.



**15 Mincost Flow** 

We can transform any network so that a particular edge has cost c(e) = 0:

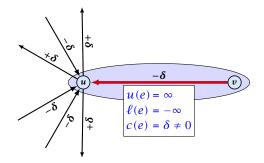




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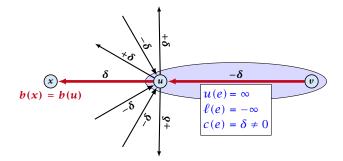




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We can transform any network so that a particular edge has cost c(e) = 0:



Additionally we set b(u) = 0.

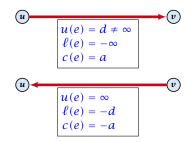


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$$\begin{array}{ll} \min & \sum_{e} c(e) f(e) \\ \text{s.t.} & \forall e \in E : \ \ell(e) \leq f(e) \leq u(e) \\ & \forall v \in V : \ f(v) = b(v) \end{array}$$

We can assume that  $\ell(e) \neq -\infty$ :



Replace the edge by an edge in opposite direction.

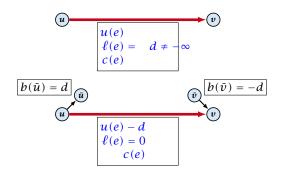


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min 
$$\sum_{e} c(e) f(e)$$
  
s.t.  $\forall e \in E : \ell(e) \le f(e) \le u(e)$   
 $\forall v \in V : f(v) = b(v)$ 

We can assume that  $\ell(e) = 0$ :



The added edges have infinite capacity and cost c(e)/2.



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#### **Caterer Problem**

She needs to supply  $r_i$  napkins on N successive days.



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- She needs to supply  $r_i$  napkins on N successive days.
- She can buy new napkins at *p* cents each.



- She needs to supply  $r_i$  napkins on N successive days.
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- She can buy new napkins at *p* cents each.
- She can launder them at a fast laundry that takes m days and cost f cents a napkin.
- She can use a slow laundry that takes k > m days and costs s cents each.

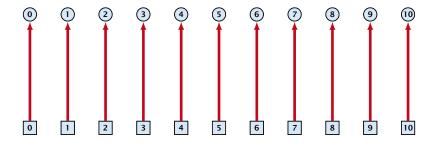


- She needs to supply  $r_i$  napkins on N successive days.
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- At the end of each day she should determine how many to send to each laundry and how many to buy in order to fulfill demand.

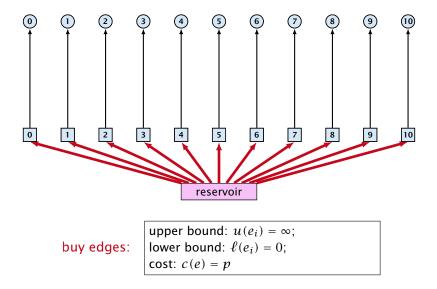


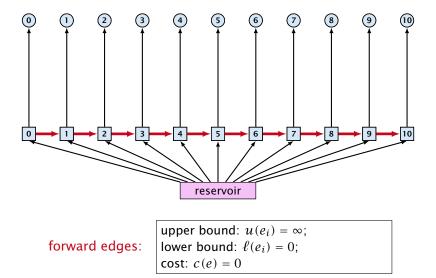
- She needs to supply  $r_i$  napkins on N successive days.
- She can buy new napkins at *p* cents each.
- She can launder them at a fast laundry that takes m days and cost f cents a napkin.
- She can use a slow laundry that takes k > m days and costs s cents each.
- At the end of each day she should determine how many to send to each laundry and how many to buy in order to fulfill demand.
- Minimize cost.

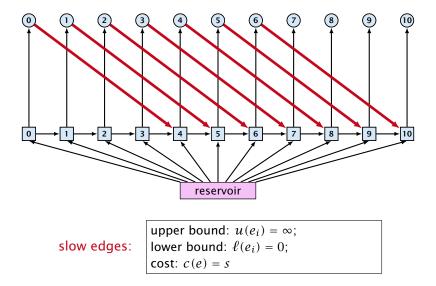


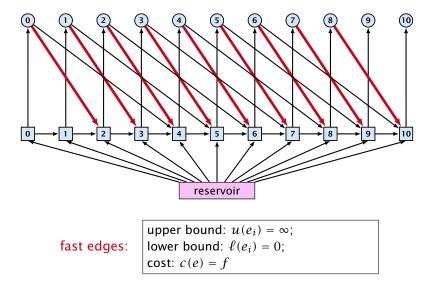


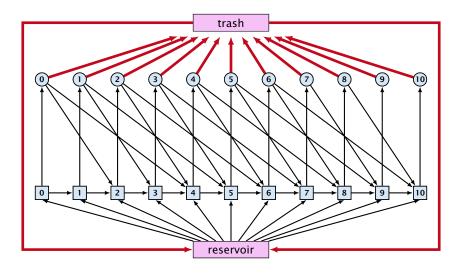
day edges: upper bound:  $u(e_i) = \infty$ ; lower bound:  $\ell(e_i) = r_i$ ; cost: c(e) = 0





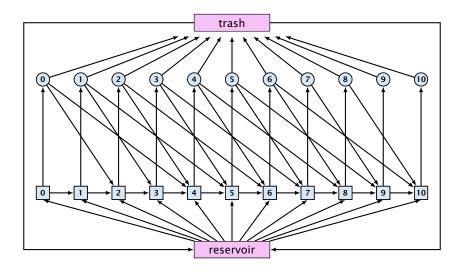






trash edges:

upper bound:  $u(e_i) = \infty$ ; lower bound:  $\ell(e_i) = 0$ ; cost: c(e) = 0



# **Residual Graph**

#### Version A:

The residual graph G' for a mincost flow is just a copy of the graph G.

If we send f(e) along an edge, the corresponding edge e' in the residual graph has its lower and upper bound changed to  $\ell(e') = \ell(e) - f(e)$  and u(e') = u(e) - f(e).



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#### Version B:

The residual graph for a mincost flow is exactly defined as the residual graph for standard flows, with the only exception that one needs to define a cost for the residual edge.

For a flow of z from u to v the residual edge (v, u) has capacity z and a cost of -c((u, v)).



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A circulation is feasible if it fulfills capacity constraints, i.e.,  $f(e) \le u(e)$  for every edge of *G*.



A given flow is a mincost-flow if and only if the corresponding residual graph  $G_f$  does not have a feasible circulation of negative cost.

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Clearly  $f^* - f$  is a circulation of negative cost. One can also easily see that it is feasible for the residual graph. (after sending -f in the residual graph (pushing all flow back) we arrive at the original graph; for this  $f^*$  is clearly feasible)

### Lemma 86

A graph (without zero-capacity edges) has a feasible circulation of negative cost if and only if it has a negative cycle w.r.t. edge-weights  $c : E \to \mathbb{R}$ .



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Proof.

Suppose that we have a negative cost circulation.



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- Find directed cycle only using edges that have non-zero flow.



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- Otherwise send flow in opposite direction along the cycle until the bottleneck edge(s) does not carry any flow.
- You still have a circulation with negative cost.
- Repeat.



**Algorithm 72** CycleCanceling(G = (V, E), c, u, b)

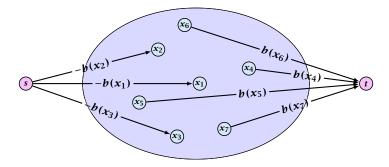
- 1: establish a feasible flow f in G
- 2: while  $G_f$  contains negative cycle do
- 3: use Bellman-Ford to find a negative circuit Z

4: 
$$\delta \leftarrow \min\{u_f(e) \mid e \in Z\}$$

5: augment  $\delta$  units along Z and update  $G_f$ 

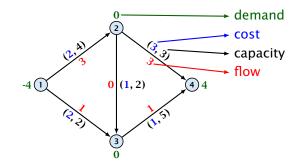


## How do we find the initial feasible flow?



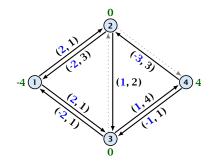
- Connect new node s to all nodes with negative b(v)-value.
- Connect nodes with positive b(v)-value to a new node t.
- There exist a feasible flow in the original graph iff in the resulting graph there exists an *s*-*t* flow of value

$$\sum_{v:b(v)<0} (-b(v)) = \sum_{v:b(v)>0} b(v) \; .$$



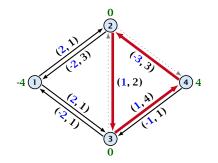


15 Mincost Flow



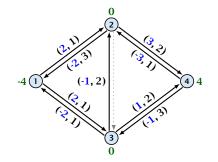


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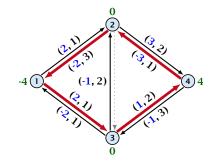


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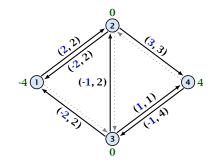


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### Lemma 87

The improving cycle algorithm runs in time  $O(nm^2CU)$ , for integer capacities and costs, when for all edges e,  $|c(e)| \le C$  and  $|u(e)| \le U$ .

- Running time of Bellman-Ford is  $\mathcal{O}(mn)$ .
- Pushing flow along the cycle can be done in time O(n).
- Each iteration decreases the total cost by at least 1.
- The true optimum cost must lie in the interval [-mCU, ..., +mCU].

Note that this lemma is weak since it does not allow for edges with infinite capacity.



A general mincost flow problem is of the following form:

min 
$$\sum_{e} c(e) f(e)$$
  
s.t.  $\forall e \in E : \ell(e) \le f(e) \le u(e)$   
 $\forall v \in V : a(v) \le f(v) \le b(v)$ 

where  $a: V \to \mathbb{R}$ ,  $b: V \to \mathbb{R}$ ;  $\ell: E \to \mathbb{R} \cup \{-\infty\}$ ,  $u: E \to \mathbb{R} \cup \{\infty\}$  $c: E \to \mathbb{R}$ ;

#### Lemma 88 (without proof)

A general mincost flow problem can be solved in polynomial time.



# 16 Gomory Hu Trees

Given an undirected, weighted graph G = (V, E, c) a cut-tree T = (V, F, w) is a tree with edge-set F and capacities w that fulfills the following properties.

- **1. Equivalent Flow Tree:** For any pair of vertices  $s, t \in V$ , f(s, t) in G is equal to  $f_T(s, t)$ .
- **2.** Cut Property: A minimum *s*-*t* cut in *T* is also a minimum cut in *G*.

Here, f(s,t) is the value of a maximum *s*-*t* flow in *G*, and  $f_T(s,t)$  is the corresponding value in *T*.



The algorithm maintains a partition of V, (sets  $S_1, ..., S_t$ ), and a spanning tree T on the vertex set  $\{S_1, ..., S_t\}$ .



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▶ In each such split-operation it chooses a set  $S_i$  with  $|S_i| \ge 2$  and splits this set into two non-empty parts X and Y.



#### **Overview of the Algorithm**

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In the end this gives a tree on the vertex set V.



Select S<sub>i</sub> that contains at least two nodes a and b.



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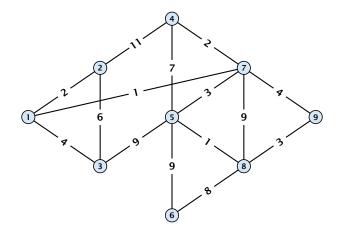


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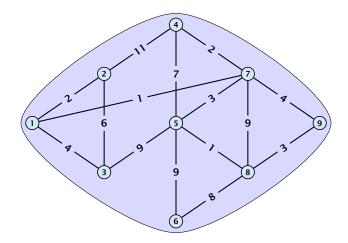
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- ▶ Replace an edge  $\{S_i, S_x\}$  by  $\{S_i^a, S_x\}$  if  $S_x \subset A$  and by  $\{S_i^b, S_x\}$  if  $S_x \subset B$ .





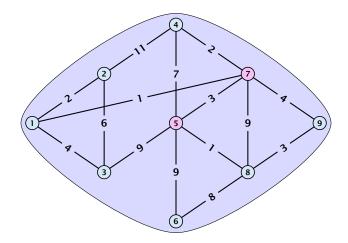


16 Gomory Hu Trees



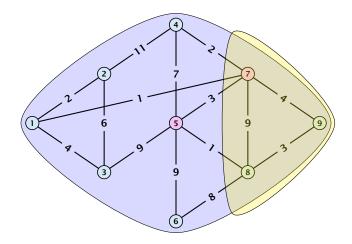


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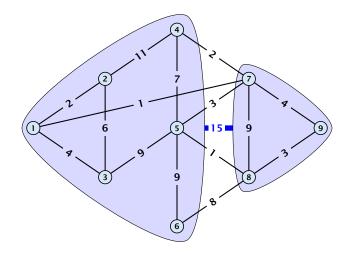


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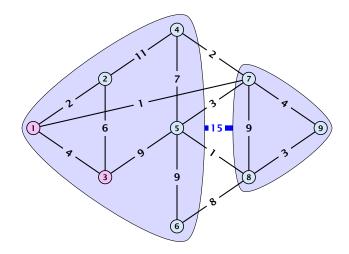


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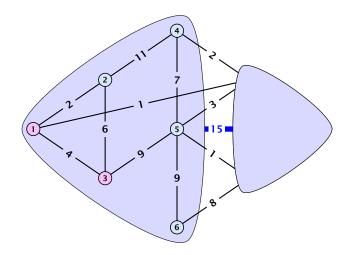


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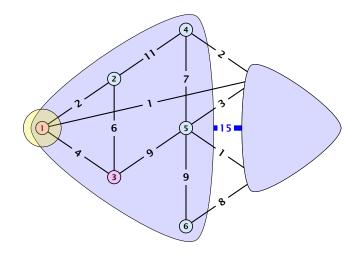


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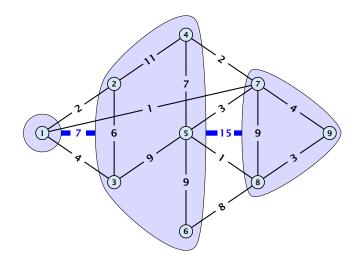


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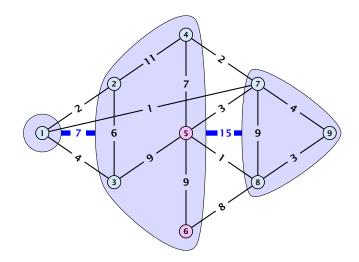


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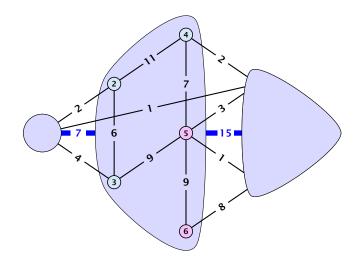


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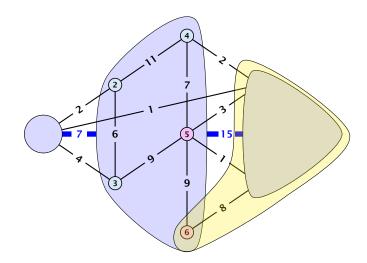


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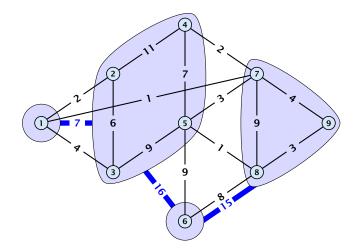


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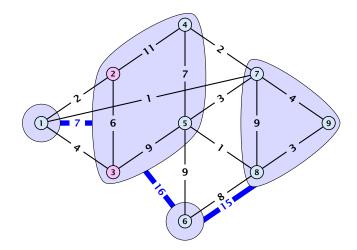


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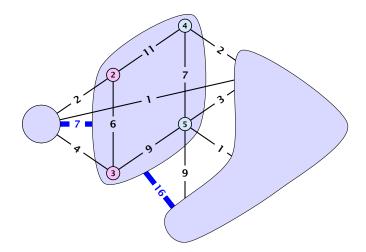


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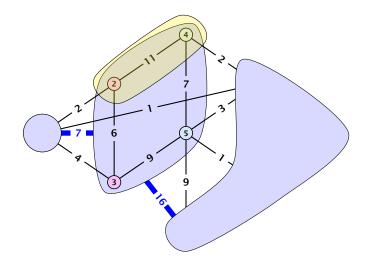


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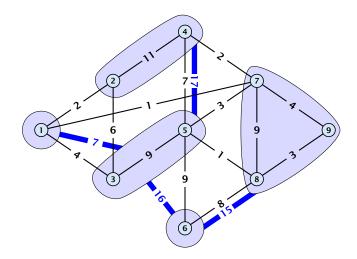


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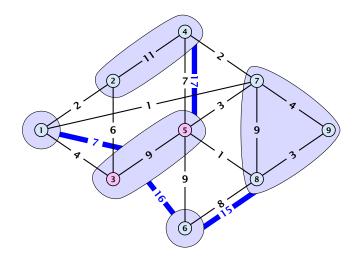


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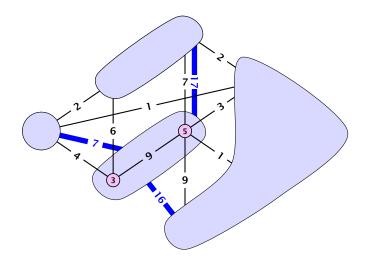


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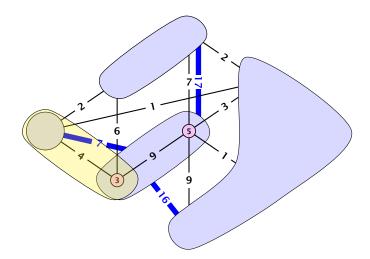


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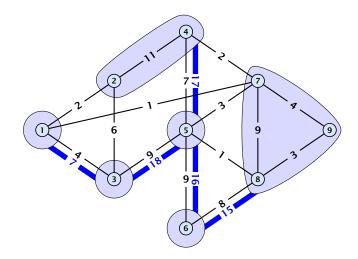


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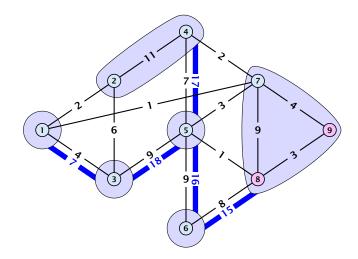


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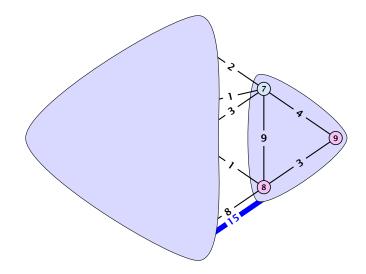


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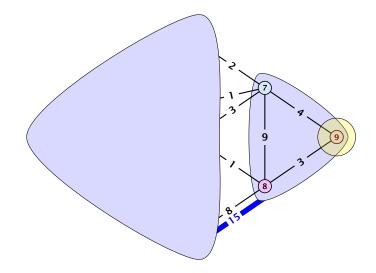


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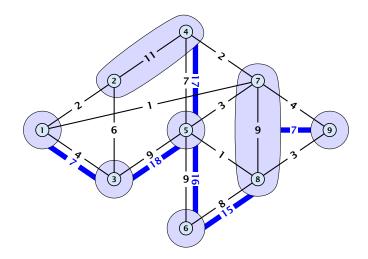


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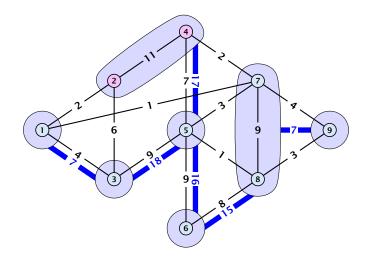


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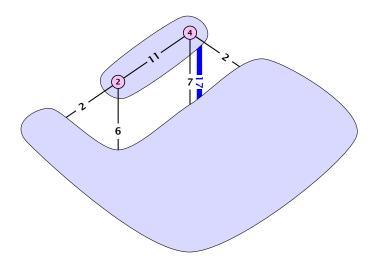


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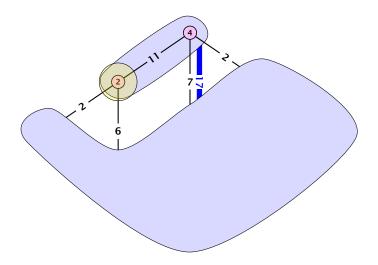




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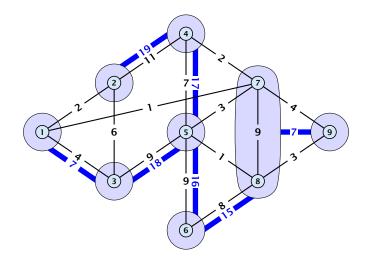






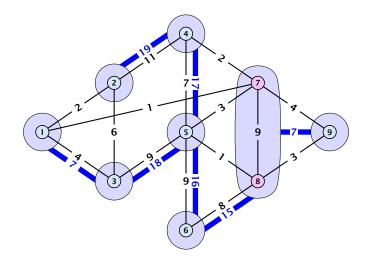


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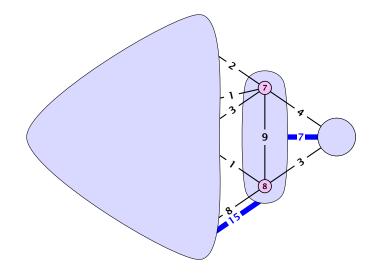


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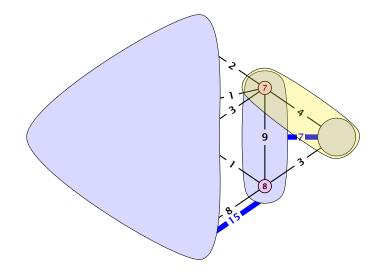


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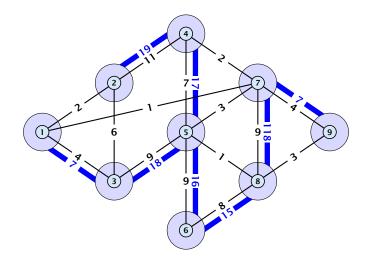


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### Analysis

### Lemma 89

For nodes  $s, t, x \in V$  we have  $f(s, t) \ge \min\{f(s, x), f(x, t)\}$ 



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Lemma 90 For nodes  $s, t, x_1, ..., x_k \in V$  we have  $f(s,t) \ge \min\{f(s,x_1), f(x_1,x_2), ..., f(x_{k-1},x_k), f(x_k,t)\}$ 



Let *S* be some minimum *r*-*s* cut for some nodes  $r, s \in V$  ( $s \in S$ ), and let  $v, w \in S$ . Then there is a minimum v-w-cut *T* with  $T \subset S$ .

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**Proof:** Let *X* be a minimum  $v \cdot w$  cut with  $X \cap S \neq \emptyset$  and  $X \cap (V \setminus S) \neq \emptyset$ .

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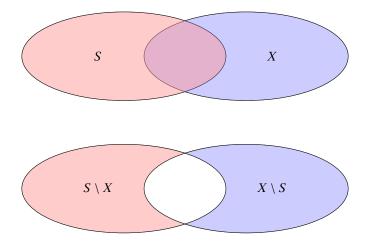
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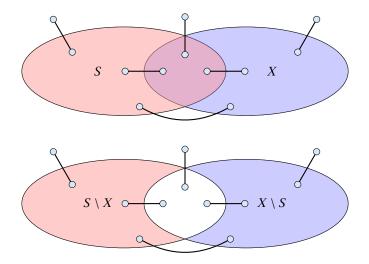
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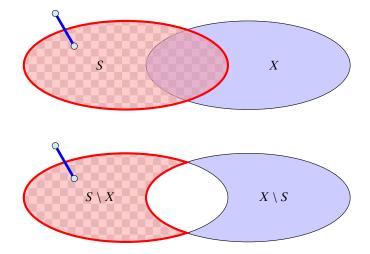


16 Gomory Hu Trees



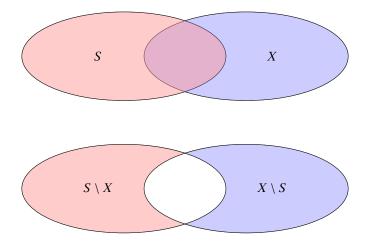


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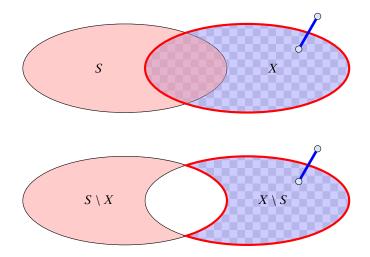


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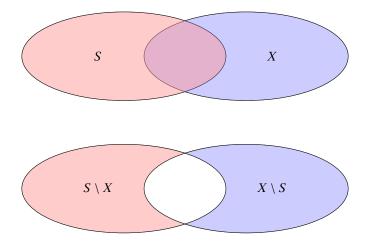


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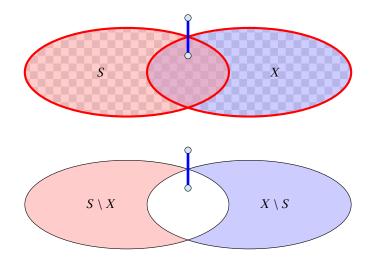


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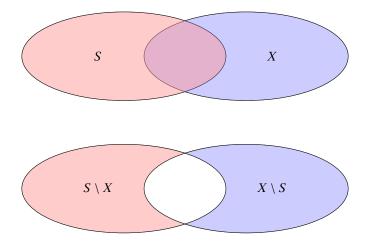


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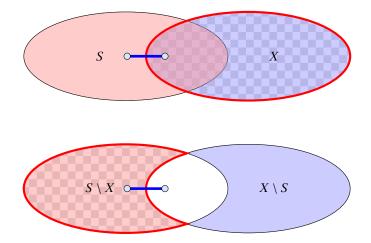


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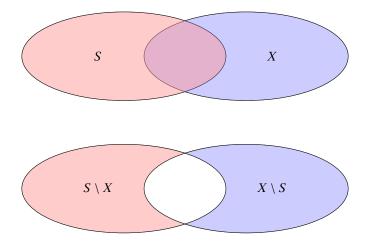


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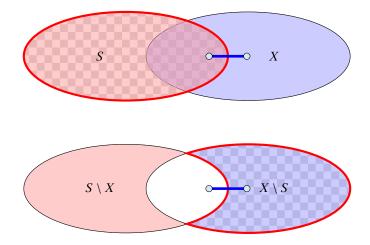


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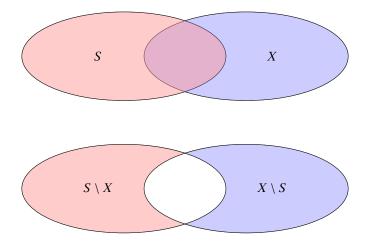


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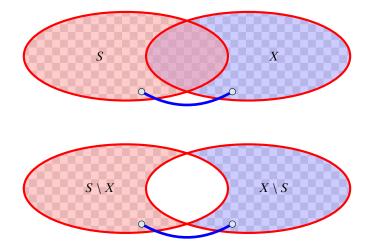


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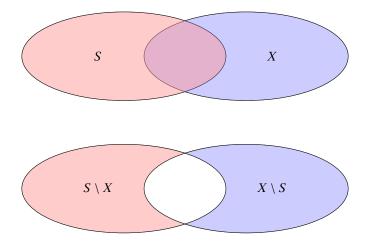


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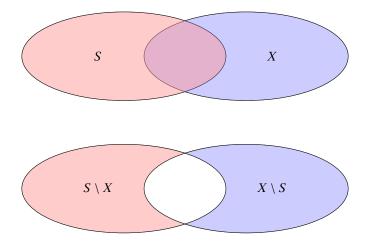


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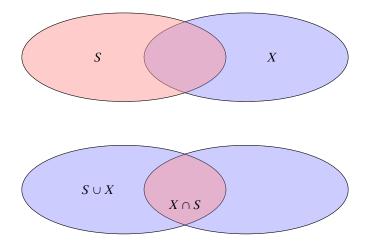
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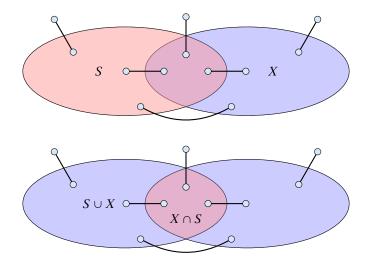


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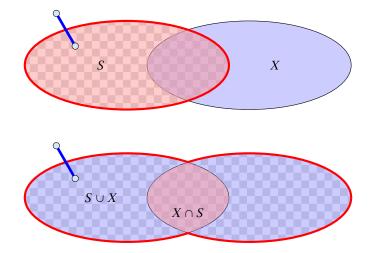
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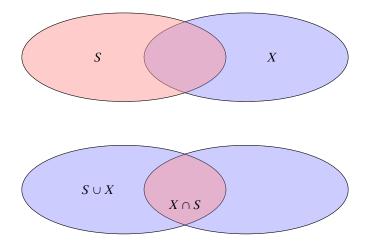




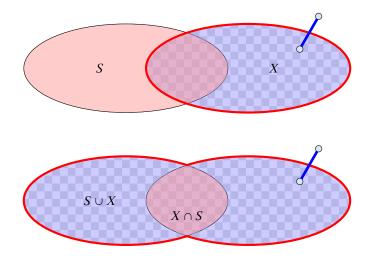




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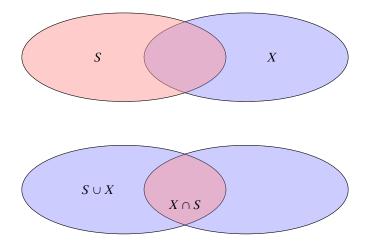




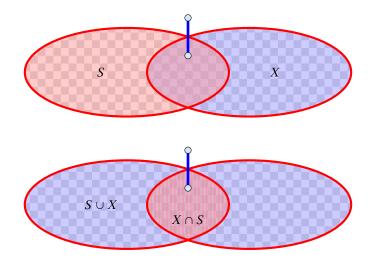




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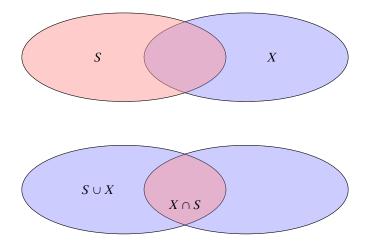




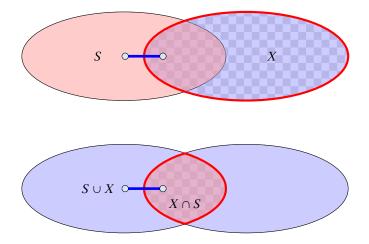




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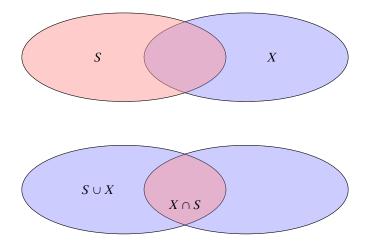




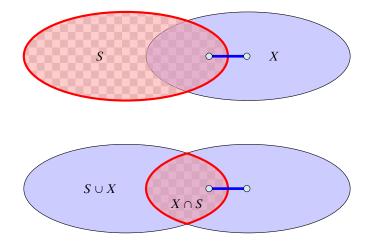




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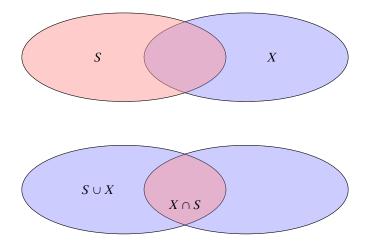




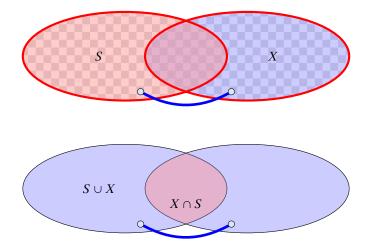




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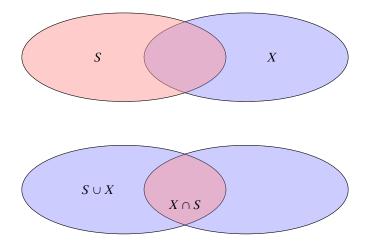




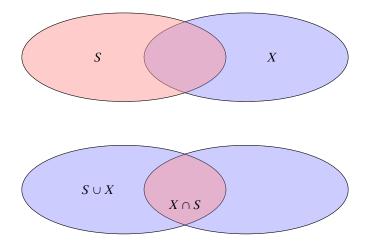




16 Gomory Hu Trees









Lemma 91 tells us that if we have a graph G = (V, E) and we contract a subset  $X \subset V$  that corresponds to some mincut, then the value of f(s, t) does not change for two nodes  $s, t \notin X$ .

We will show (later) that the connected components that we contract during a split-operation each correspond to some mincut and, hence,  $f_H(s,t) = f(s,t)$ , where  $f_H(s,t)$  is the value of a minimum *s*-*t* mincut in graph *H*.



#### Invariant [existence of representatives]:

For any edge  $\{S_i, S_j\}$  in T, there are vertices  $a \in S_i$  and  $b \in S_j$ such that  $w(S_i, S_j) = f(a, b)$  and the cut defined by edge  $\{S_i, S_j\}$ is a minimum a-b cut in G.



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$$\begin{split} f_T(s,t) &= \min_{i \in \{0,\dots,k-1\}} \{ w(x_i,x_{i+1}) \} \\ &= \min_{i \in \{0,\dots,k-1\}} \{ f(x_i,x_{i+1}) \} \le f(s,t) \end{split}$$

- Let  $\{x_j, x_{j+1}\}$  be the edge with minimum weight on the path.
- Since by the invariant this edge induces an *s*-*t* cut with capacity *f*(*x<sub>j</sub>*, *x<sub>j+1</sub>) we get f*(*s*, *t*) ≤ *f*(*x<sub>j</sub>*, *x<sub>j+1</sub>) = f<sub>T</sub>(s, <i>t*).



#### • Hence, $f_T(s,t) = f(s,t)$ (flow equivalence).



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- Since, we can send a flow of value f(x<sub>j</sub>, x<sub>j+1</sub>) btw. s and t, this is an s-t mincut (cut property).





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9. Jan. 2023 582/662

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After the split we have to choose representatives for all edges. For the new edge  $\{S_i^a, S_i^b\}$  with capacity  $w(S_i^a, S_i^b) = f_H(a, b)$  we can simply choose a and b as representatives.





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9. Jan. 2023 583/662

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If  $s \in S_i^a$  we can keep x and s as representatives.

Otherwise, we choose x and a as representatives. We need to show that f(x, a) = f(x, s).





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Because the invariant was true before the split we know that the edge  $\{X, S_i\}$  induces a cut in *G* of capacity f(x, s). Since, *x* and *a* are on opposite sides of this cut, we know that  $f(x, a) \le f(x, s)$ .



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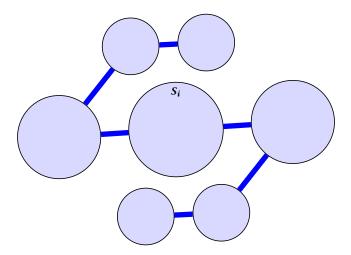
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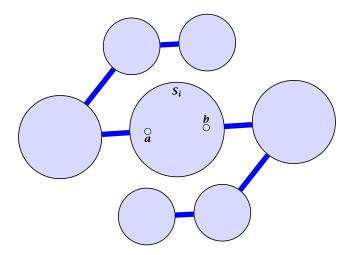
Also,  $f'(a, v_B) \ge f(a, b) \ge f(x, s)$  since the *a*-*b* cut that splits  $S_i$  into  $S_i^a$  and  $S_i^b$  also separates *s* and *x*.





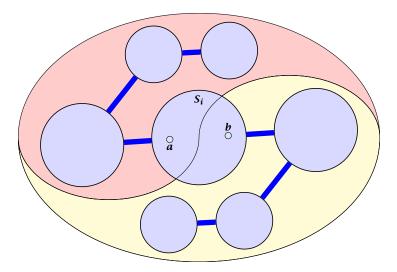


16 Gomory Hu Trees



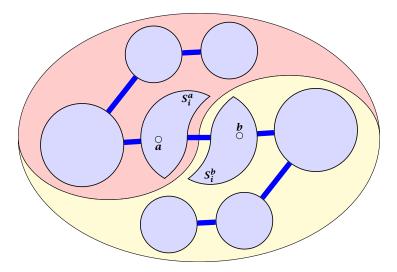


16 Gomory Hu Trees



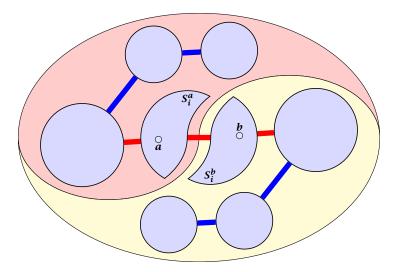


16 Gomory Hu Trees



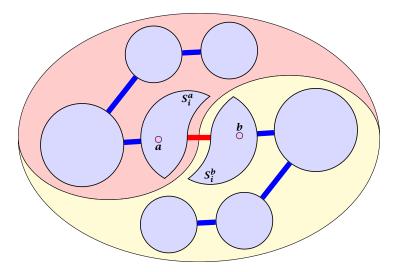


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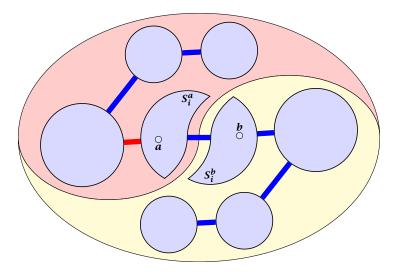


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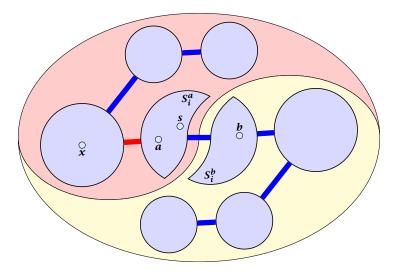


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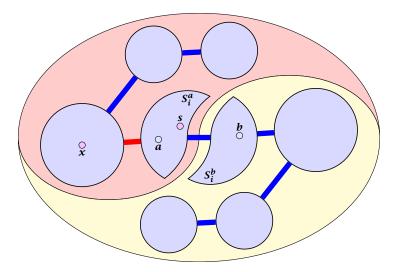


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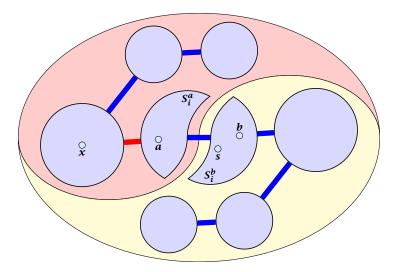


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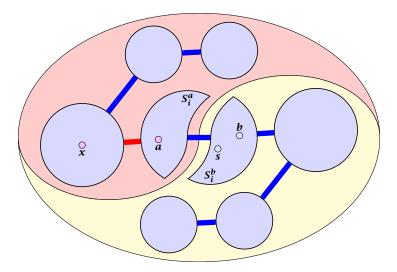


16 Gomory Hu Trees





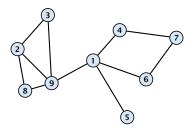
16 Gomory Hu Trees





16 Gomory Hu Trees

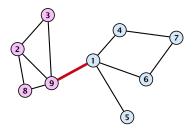
Given an undirected, capacitated graph G = (V, E, c) find a partition of V into two non-empty sets  $S, V \setminus S$  s.t. the capacity of edges between both sets is minimized.





17 Global Mincut

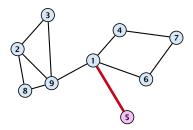
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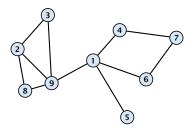
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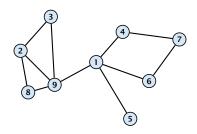
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17 Global Mincut

#### We can solve this problem using standard maxflow/mincut.

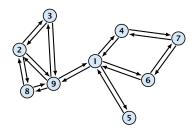




17 Global Mincut

#### We can solve this problem using standard maxflow/mincut.

Construct a directed graph G' = (V, E') that has edges (u, v) and (v, u) for every edge {u, v} ∈ E.

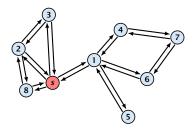




17 Global Mincut

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- Construct a directed graph G' = (V, E') that has edges (u, v) and (v, u) for every edge {u, v} ∈ E.
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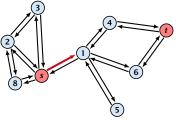




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- Let (S, V \ S) be a minimum global mincut. The above algorithm will output a cut of capacity cap(S, V \ S) whenever |{s, t} ∩ S| = 1.





17 Global Mincut



• Given a graph G = (V, E) and an edge  $e = \{u, v\}$ .



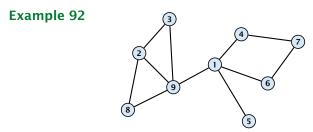
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- Resulting parallel edges are replaced by a single edge, whose capacity equals the sum of capacities of the parallel edges.



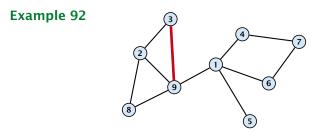
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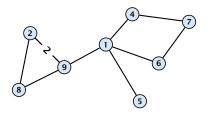
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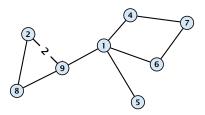
#### Example 92





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Example 92



Edge-contractions do not decrease the size of the mincut.



17 Global Mincut

#### **Edge Contractions**

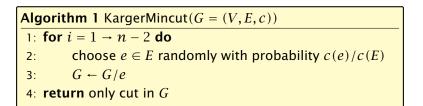
We can perform an edge-contraction in time  $\mathcal{O}(n)$ .



17 Global Mincut

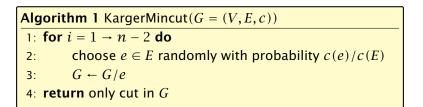
Algorithm 1 KargerMincut(G = (V, E, c))1: for  $i = 1 \rightarrow n - 2$  do2: choose  $e \in E$  randomly with probability c(e)/c(E)3:  $G \leftarrow G/e$ 4: return only cut in G





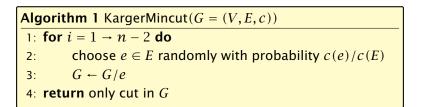
Let  $G_t$  denote the graph after the (n - t)-th iteration, when t nodes are left.





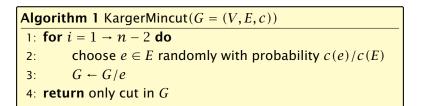
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- ▶ Note that the final graph *G*<sup>2</sup> only contains a single edge.





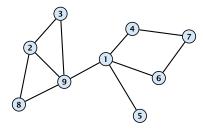
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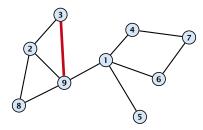
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- What is the probability that this algorithm returns a mincut?





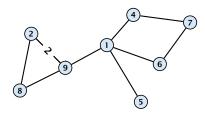


17 Global Mincut



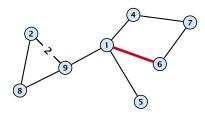


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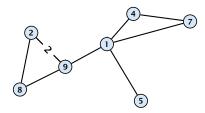


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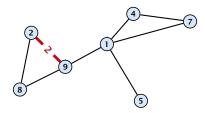


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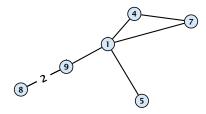


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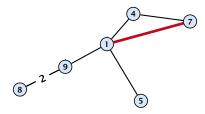


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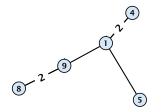


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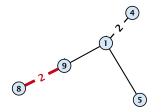


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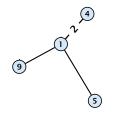


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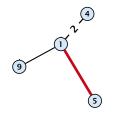


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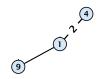


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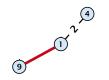




17 Global Mincut









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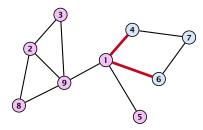


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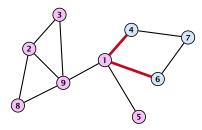


17 Global Mincut





17 Global Mincut



What is the probability that this algorithm returns a mincut?



17 Global Mincut

# What is the probability that a given mincut A is still possible after round *i*?

It is still possible to obtain cut A in the end if so far no edge in (A, V \ A) has been contracted.





# What is the probability that we select an edge from A in iteration *i*?

Let  $\min = \operatorname{cap}(A, V \setminus A)$  denote the capacity of a mincut.



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- Summing cap(v) over all edges gives

$$2c(E) = 2\sum_{e \in E} c(e) = \sum_{v \in V} \operatorname{cap}(v) \ge (n - i + 1) \cdot \min$$



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► Hence, the probability of choosing an edge from the cut is at most  $\min / c(E) \le 2/(n - i + 1)$ .



The probability that we do not choose an edge from the cut in iteration i is

$$1 - \frac{2}{n-i+1} = \frac{n-i-1}{n-i+1}$$
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The probability that the cut is alive after iteration n - t (after which t nodes are left) is at most

$$\prod_{i=1}^{n-t} \frac{n-i-1}{n-i+1} = \frac{t(t-1)}{n(n-1)} \; .$$



17 Global Mincut

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Choosing t = 2 gives that with probability  $1/\binom{n}{2}$  the algorithm computes a mincut.



Repeating the algorithm  $c \ln n \binom{n}{2}$  times



17 Global Mincut

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#### Theorem 93

The randomized mincut algorithm computes an optimal cut with high probability. The total running time is  $O(n^4 \log n)$ .



#### **Improved Algorithm**

Algorithm 2 RecursiveMincut(G = (V, E, c)) 1: for  $i = 1 \rightarrow n - n/\sqrt{2}$  do 2: choose  $e \in E$  randomly with probability c(e)/c(E)3:  $G \leftarrow G/e$ 4: if |V| = 2 return cut-value; 5: cuta  $\leftarrow$  RecursiveMincut(G); 6: cutb  $\leftarrow$  RecursiveMincut(G); 7: return min{cuta, cutb}



#### **Improved Algorithm**

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#### **Running time:**

$$T(n) = 2T\left(\frac{n}{\sqrt{2}}\right) + \mathcal{O}(n^2)$$



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• This gives 
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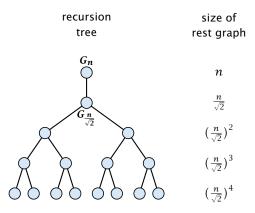


The probability of not contracting an edge from the mincut during one iteration through the for-loop is at least

$$\frac{t(t-1)}{n(n-1)} \ge \frac{t^2}{n^2} = \frac{1}{2}$$
,

as  $t = \frac{n}{\sqrt{2}}$ .

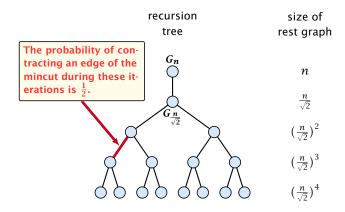






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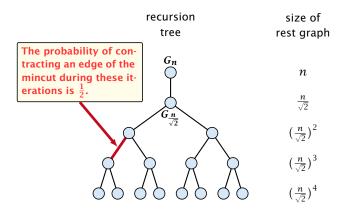
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We can estimate the success probability by using the following game on the recursion tree. Delete every edge with probability  $\frac{1}{2}$ . If in the end you have a path from the root to at least one leaf node you are successful.



Let for an edge e in the recursion tree, h(e) denote the height (distance to leaf level) of the parent-node of e (end-point that is higher up in the tree). Let h denote the height of the root node.



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#### Lemma 94

The probability that an edge e is alive is at least  $\frac{1}{h(e)+1}$ .



Proof.

► An edge *e* with *h*(*e*) = 1 is alive if and only if it is not deleted. Hence, it is alive with proability at least <sup>1</sup>/<sub>2</sub>.



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- Let p<sub>d</sub> be the probability that an edge e with h(e) = d is alive. For d > 1 this happens for edge e = {c, p} if it is not deleted and if one of the child-edges connecting to c is alive.



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$$p_d = \frac{1}{2} \left( 2p_{d-1} - p_{d-1}^2 \right) \left[ \Pr[A \lor B] = \Pr[A] + \Pr[B] - \Pr[A \land B] \right]$$



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 $x - x^2/2$  is monotonically increasing for  $x \in [0, 1]$ 



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$$x - x^{2}/2 \text{ is monotonically}$$
$$\geq \frac{1}{d} - \frac{1}{2d^{2}}$$



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х

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#### **17 Global Mincut**

#### Lemma 95

One run of the algorithm can be performed in time  $\mathcal{O}(n^2 \log n)$ and has a success probability of  $\Omega(\frac{1}{\log n})$ .



#### **17 Global Mincut**

#### Lemma 95

One run of the algorithm can be performed in time  $\mathcal{O}(n^2 \log n)$ and has a success probability of  $\Omega(\frac{1}{\log n})$ .

Doing  $\Theta(\log^2 n)$  runs gives that the algorithm succeeds with high probability. The total running time is  $\mathcal{O}(n^2 \log^3 n)$ .



# Part V

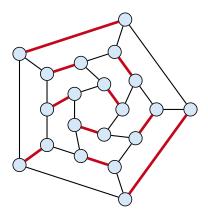
# Matchings



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# Matching

- lnput: undirected graph G = (V, E).
- $M \subseteq E$  is a matching if each node appears in at most one edge in M.
- Maximum Matching: find a matching of maximum cardinality



#### **19 Bipartite Matching via Flows**

#### Which flow algorithm to use?

- Generic augmenting path:  $\mathcal{O}(m \operatorname{val}(f^*)) = \mathcal{O}(mn)$ .
- Capacity scaling:  $\mathcal{O}(m^2 \log C) = \mathcal{O}(m^2)$ .
- Shortest augmenting path:  $\mathcal{O}(mn^2)$ .

For unit capacity simple graphs shortest augmenting path can be implemented in time  $\mathcal{O}(m\sqrt{n})$ .



#### Definitions.

Given a matching *M* in a graph *G*, a vertex that is not incident to any edge of *M* is called a free vertex w.r..t. *M*.



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#### Definitions.

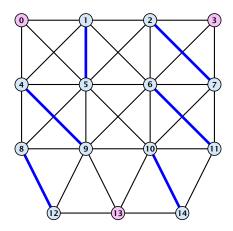
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- An alternating path is called an augmenting path for matching *M* if it ends at distinct free vertices.

#### Theorem 96

A matching M is a maximum matching if and only if there is no augmenting path w. r. t. M.



#### **Augmenting Paths in Action**

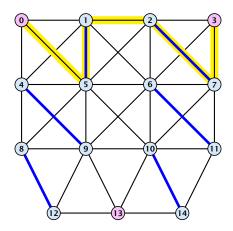




20 Augmenting Paths for Matchings

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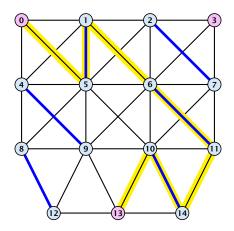
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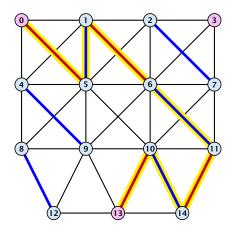
20 Augmenting Paths for Matchings

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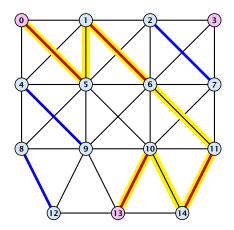


20 Augmenting Paths for Matchings



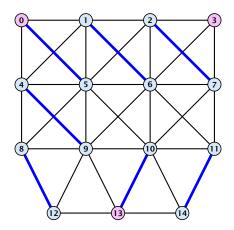


20 Augmenting Paths for Matchings





20 Augmenting Paths for Matchings





20 Augmenting Paths for Matchings

#### Proof.

⇒ If *M* is maximum there is no augmenting path *P*, because we could switch matching and non-matching edges along *P*. This gives matching  $M' = M \oplus P$  with larger cardinality.



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   This gives matching M' = M ⊕ P with larger cardinality.
- $\leftarrow Suppose there is a matching M' with larger cardinality. Consider the graph H with edge-set M' \oplus M (i.e., only edges that are in either M or M' but not in both).$



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Each vertex can be incident to at most two edges (one from M and one from M'). Hence, the connected components are alternating cycles or alternating path.



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Each vertex can be incident to at most two edges (one from M and one from M'). Hence, the connected components are alternating cycles or alternating path.

As |M'| > |M| there is one connected component that is a path P for which both endpoints are incident to edges from M'. P is an alternating path.



#### Algorithmic idea:

As long as you find an augmenting path augment your matching using this path. When you arrive at a matching for which no augmenting path exists you have a maximum matching.



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#### Theorem 97

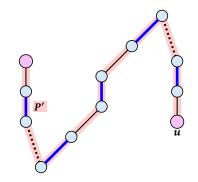
Let G be a graph, M a matching in G, and let u be a free vertex w.r.t. M. Further let P denote an augmenting path w.r.t. M and let  $M' = M \oplus P$  denote the matching resulting from augmenting M with P. If there was no augmenting path starting at u in M then there is no augmenting path starting at u in M'.





#### Proof

Assume there is an augmenting path P' w.r.t. M' starting at u.

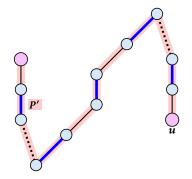




20 Augmenting Paths for Matchings

#### Proof

- Assume there is an augmenting path P' w.r.t. M' starting at u.
- If P' and P are node-disjoint, P' is also augmenting path w.r.t. M (£).

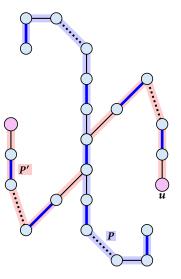




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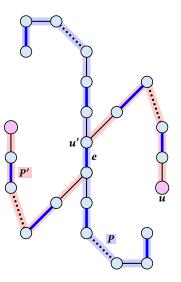
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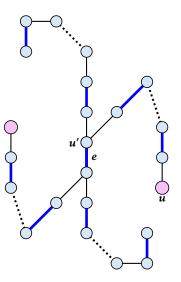
20 Augmenting Paths for Matchings

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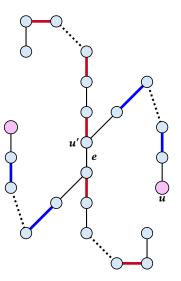


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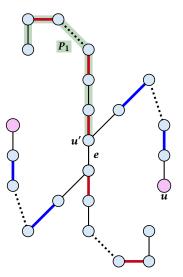
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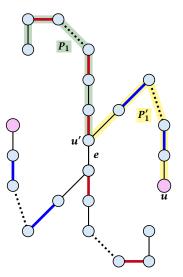
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- u' splits P into two parts one of which does not contain e. Call this part P<sub>1</sub>. Denote the sub-path of P' from u to u' with P'<sub>1</sub>.





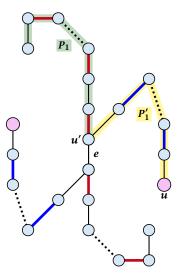
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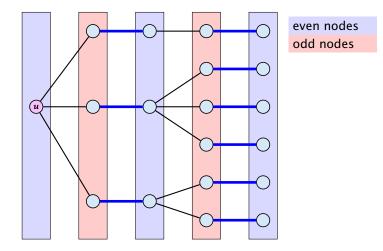


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- u' splits P into two parts one of which does not contain e. Call this part P<sub>1</sub>. Denote the sub-path of P' from u to u' with P'<sub>1</sub>.
- $P_1 \circ P'_1$  is augmenting path in M (2).





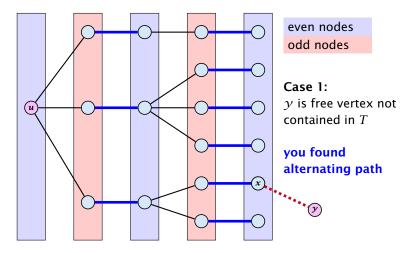
#### Construct an alternating tree.





20 Augmenting Paths for Matchings

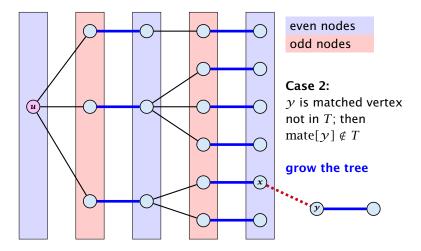
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20 Augmenting Paths for Matchings

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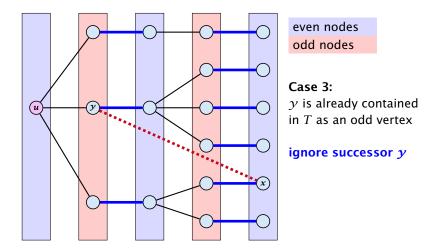




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#### Construct an alternating tree.

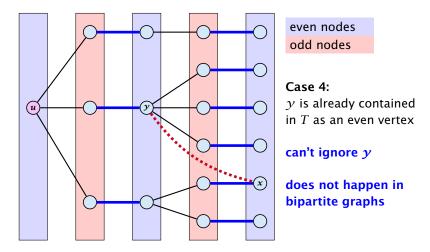




20 Augmenting Paths for Matchings

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#### Construct an alternating tree.





20 Augmenting Paths for Matchings

9. Jan. 2023 613/662 **Algorithm 75** BiMatch(*G*, *match*)

```
1: for x \in V do mate[x] \leftarrow 0:
2: r \leftarrow 0; free \leftarrow n;
3: while free \geq 1 and r < n do
4: r \leftarrow r + 1
5: if mate[r] = 0 then
6:
           for i = 1 to n do parent[i'] \leftarrow 0
7:
    O \leftarrow \emptyset; O. append(r); aug \leftarrow false;
           while aug = false and Q \neq \emptyset do
8:
9:
               x \leftarrow O. dequeue();
10:
               for \gamma \in A_{\chi} do
                   if mate[\gamma] = 0 then
11:
12:
                       augm(mate, parent, \gamma);
13:
                       aug \leftarrow true;
14:
                       free \leftarrow free -1;
15:
                   else
16:
                       if parent[\gamma] = 0 then
17.
                           parent[y] \leftarrow x;
                           Q. enqueue(mate[\gamma]);
18:
```

graph  $G = (S \cup S', E)$   $S = \{1, ..., n\}$  $S' = \{1', ..., n'\}$ 

```
Algorithm 75 BiMatch(G. match)
1: for x \in V do mate[x] \leftarrow 0:
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                          parent[y] \leftarrow x;
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start with an empty matching

```
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*free*: number of unmatched nodes in *S* 

r: root of current tree

Algorithm 75 BiMatch(G, match)		
1: for $x \in V$ do mate[x] $\leftarrow 0$ ;		
2: $r \leftarrow 0$ ; free $\leftarrow n$ ;		
3: while $free \ge 1$ and $r < n$ do		
4: $r \leftarrow r + 1$		
5: <b>if</b> $mate[r] = 0$ <b>then</b>		
6: <b>for</b> $i = 1$ <b>to</b> $n$ <b>do</b> $parent[i'] \leftarrow 0$		
7: $Q \leftarrow \emptyset$ ; $Q$ . append $(r)$ ; $aug \leftarrow$ false;		
8: while $aug = false and Q \neq \emptyset$ do		
9: $x \leftarrow Q$ . dequeue();		
10: for $y \in A_x$ do		
11: <b>if</b> $mate[y] = 0$ <b>then</b>		
12: $augm(mate, parent, y);$		
13: $aug \leftarrow true;$		
14: $free \leftarrow free - 1;$		
15: <b>else</b>		
16: <b>if</b> $parent[y] = 0$ <b>then</b>		
17: $parent[y] \leftarrow x;$		
18: $Q. enqueue(mate[y]);$		

as long as there are unmatched nodes and we did not yet try to grow from all nodes we continue

Algorithm 75 BiMatch(G, match)		
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7:	$Q \leftarrow \emptyset$ ; Q. append(r); aug \leftarrow false;	
8:	while $aug = false$ and $Q \neq \emptyset$ do	
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10:	for $y \in A_x$ do	
11:	if $mate[y] = 0$ then	
12:	augm( <i>mate</i> , <i>parent</i> , <i>y</i> );	
13:	<i>aug</i> ← true;	
14:	<i>free</i> $\leftarrow$ <i>free</i> $-1$ ;	
15:	else	
16:	<b>if</b> $parent[y] = 0$ <b>then</b>	
17:	$parent[y] \leftarrow x;$	
18:	<i>Q</i> .enqueue( <i>mate</i> [ <i>y</i> ]);	

*r* is the new node that we grow from.

Algorithm 75 BiMatch(G, match)		
1:	<b>for</b> $x \in V$ <b>do</b> <i>mate</i> [ $x$ ] $\leftarrow 0$ ;	
2:	$r \leftarrow 0$ ; free $\leftarrow n$ ;	
3:	while $free \ge 1$ and $r < n$ do	
4:	$\gamma \leftarrow \gamma + 1$	
5:	<b>if</b> $mate[r] = 0$ <b>then</b>	
6:	<b>for</b> $i = 1$ <b>to</b> $n$ <b>do</b> $parent[i'] \leftarrow 0$	
7:	$Q \leftarrow \emptyset$ ; $Q$ . append $(r)$ ; $aug \leftarrow$ false;	
8:	while $aug = false$ and $Q \neq \emptyset$ do	
9:	$x \leftarrow Q.$ dequeue();	
10:	for $y \in A_x$ do	
11:	if $mate[y] = 0$ then	
12:	augm( <i>mate</i> , <i>parent</i> , <i>y</i> );	
13:	<i>aug</i> ← true;	
14:	<i>free</i> $\leftarrow$ <i>free</i> $-1$ ;	
15:	else	
16:	<b>if</b> $parent[y] = 0$ <b>then</b>	
17:	$parent[y] \leftarrow x;$	
18:	$Q$ .enqueue( <i>mate</i> [ $\gamma$ ]);	

If *r* is free start tree construction

**Algorithm 75** BiMatch(*G. match*) 1: for  $x \in V$  do mate[x]  $\leftarrow$  0: 2:  $r \leftarrow 0$ ; free  $\leftarrow n$ ; 3: while *free*  $\geq 1$  and *r* < *n* do 4:  $r \leftarrow r + 1$ 5: if mate[r] = 0 then **for** i = 1 **to** n **do**  $parent[i'] \leftarrow 0$ 6: 7:  $Q \leftarrow \emptyset$ ; Q. append(r); aug \leftarrow false; while aug = false and  $Q \neq \emptyset$  do 8:  $x \leftarrow Q.$  dequeue(); 9: 10: for  $\gamma \in A_{\chi}$  do if mate[ $\gamma$ ] = 0 then 11: 12:  $augm(mate, parent, \gamma)$ ; 13:  $aug \leftarrow true;$ 14: free  $\leftarrow$  free -1; else 15: if  $parent[\gamma] = 0$  then 16: 17.  $parent[y] \leftarrow x;$ Q. enqueue(*mate*[ $\gamma$ ]); 18:

Initialize an empty tree. Note that only nodes i' have parent pointers. **Algorithm 75** BiMatch(*G. match*) 1: for  $x \in V$  do mate[x]  $\leftarrow$  0: 2:  $r \leftarrow 0$ ; free  $\leftarrow n$ ; 3: while *free*  $\geq 1$  and *r* < *n* do 4:  $r \leftarrow r+1$ 5: if mate[r] = 0 then for i = 1 to n do  $parent[i'] \leftarrow 0$ 6: 7:  $Q \leftarrow \emptyset$ ; Q. append(r); aug \leftarrow false; while aug = false and  $Q \neq \emptyset$  do 8:  $x \leftarrow Q.$  dequeue(); 9: 10: for  $\gamma \in A_{\chi}$  do if mate[ $\gamma$ ] = 0 then 11: 12:  $augm(mate, parent, \gamma)$ ; 13:  $aug \leftarrow true;$ 14: free  $\leftarrow$  free -1; else 15: if  $parent[\gamma] = 0$  then 16: 17.  $parent[y] \leftarrow x;$ Q. enqueue(*mate*[ $\gamma$ ]); 18:

Q is a queue (BFS!!!).

aug is a Boolean that stores whether we already found an augmenting path. **Algorithm 75** BiMatch(*G*, *match*)

```
1: for x \in V do mate[x] \leftarrow 0:
 2: r \leftarrow 0; free \leftarrow n;
 3: while free \geq 1 and r < n do
4: r \leftarrow r + 1
 5: if mate[r] = 0 then
6:
           for i = 1 to n do parent[i'] \leftarrow 0
 7:
       Q \leftarrow \emptyset; Q. append(r); aug \leftarrow false;
8:
           while aug = false and Q \neq \emptyset do
9:
               x \leftarrow O. dequeue();
10:
               for \gamma \in A_{\chi} do
11:
                   if mate[\gamma] = 0 then
12:
                       augm(mate, parent, \gamma);
13:
                       aug \leftarrow true;
14:
                       free \leftarrow free -1;
                   else
15:
                       if parent[\gamma] = 0 then
16:
17.
                           parent[y] \leftarrow x;
                           Q. enqueue(mate[\gamma]);
18:
```

as long as we did not augment and there are still unexamined leaves continue... **Algorithm 75** BiMatch(*G. match*) 1: for  $x \in V$  do mate[x]  $\leftarrow$  0: 2:  $r \leftarrow 0$ ; free  $\leftarrow n$ ; 3: while *free*  $\geq 1$  and *r* < *n* do 4:  $r \leftarrow r + 1$ 5: if mate[r] = 0 then 6: for i = 1 to n do  $parent[i'] \leftarrow 0$ 7:  $O \leftarrow \emptyset; O. append(r); aug \leftarrow false;$ while aug = false and  $Q \neq \emptyset$  do 8: 9:  $x \leftarrow O.$  dequeue(); 10: for  $\gamma \in A_{\chi}$  do if mate[ $\gamma$ ] = 0 then 11: 12:  $augm(mate, parent, \gamma)$ ; 13:  $aug \leftarrow true;$ 14: free  $\leftarrow$  free -1; else 15: 16: if parent[ $\gamma$ ] = 0 then 17.  $parent[y] \leftarrow x;$ Q. enqueue(*mate*[ $\gamma$ ]); 18:

take next unexamined leaf **Algorithm 75** BiMatch(*G*, *match*)

```
1: for x \in V do mate[x] \leftarrow 0:
 2: r \leftarrow 0; free \leftarrow n;
 3: while free \geq 1 and r < n do
 4: r \leftarrow r+1
 5: if mate[r] = 0 then
6:
           for i = 1 to n do parent[i'] \leftarrow 0
 7:
     Q \leftarrow \emptyset; Q. append(r); aug \leftarrow false;
           while aug = false and Q \neq \emptyset do
 8:
               x \leftarrow Q. dequeue();
 9:
10:
               for \gamma \in A_{\chi} do
11:
                   if mate [v] = 0 then
12:
                       augm(mate, parent, v);
13:
                       aug \leftarrow true;
14:
                       free \leftarrow free -1;
                   else
15:
16:
                       if parent[\gamma] = 0 then
17.
                           parent[y] \leftarrow x;
                           Q. enqueue(mate[\gamma]);
18:
```

if x has unmatched neighbour we found an augmenting path (note that  $y \neq r$  because we are in a bipartite graph) **Algorithm 75** BiMatch(*G*, *match*) 1: for  $x \in V$  do mate[x]  $\leftarrow$  0: 2:  $r \leftarrow 0$ ; free  $\leftarrow n$ ; 3: while *free*  $\geq 1$  and *r* < *n* do 4:  $r \leftarrow r + 1$ 5: if mate[r] = 0 then 6: for i = 1 to n do  $parent[i'] \leftarrow 0$ 7:  $O \leftarrow \emptyset; O. append(r); aug \leftarrow false;$ while aug = false and  $Q \neq \emptyset$  do 8:  $x \leftarrow Q.$  dequeue(); 9: 10: for  $\gamma \in A_{\chi}$  do if mate[ $\gamma$ ] = 0 then 11: 12: augm(mate, parent, y);13:  $aug \leftarrow true;$ 14: free  $\leftarrow$  free -1; 15: else 16: if parent[ $\gamma$ ] = 0 then 17.  $parent[y] \leftarrow x;$ Q. enqueue(*mate*[ $\gamma$ ]); 18:

#### do an augmentation...

**Algorithm 75** BiMatch(*G*, *match*)

```
1: for x \in V do mate[x] \leftarrow 0:
 2: r \leftarrow 0; free \leftarrow n;
 3: while free \geq 1 and r < n do
4: r \leftarrow r + 1
 5: if mate[r] = 0 then
6:
           for i = 1 to n do parent[i'] \leftarrow 0
7:
    O \leftarrow \emptyset; O. append(r); aug \leftarrow false;
           while aug = false and Q \neq \emptyset do
8:
               x \leftarrow Q. dequeue();
9:
10:
                for \gamma \in A_{\chi} do
                    if mate[\gamma] = 0 then
11:
12:
                        augm(mate, parent, \gamma);
13:
                        aug \leftarrow true;
14:
                       free \leftarrow free -1;
                    else
15:
16:
                       if parent[\gamma] = 0 then
17:
                           parent[y] \leftarrow x;
                           Q. enqueue(mate[\gamma]);
18:
```

setting *aug* = true ensures that the tree construction will not continue Algorithm 75 BiMatch(G, match)1: for  $x \in V$  do  $mate[x] \leftarrow 0$ ;2:  $r \leftarrow 0$ ; free  $\leftarrow n$ ;3: while free  $\geq 1$  and r < n do4:  $r \leftarrow r + 1$ 5: if mate[r] = 0 then6: for i = 1 to n do  $parent[i'] \leftarrow 0$ 7:  $Q \leftarrow \varnothing$ ; Q. append(r);  $aug \leftarrow$  false;8: while aug = false and  $Q \neq \varnothing$  do9:  $x \leftarrow Q$ . dequeue();

```
10: for y \in A_x do
11: if mate[y] =
```

```
if mate[y] = 0 then
```

```
12: augm(mate, parent, y);
```

```
aug ← true;
```

```
free \leftarrow free -1;
```

#### else

13:

14: 15:

16:

17.

- if parent[y] = 0 then
  - $parent[y] \leftarrow x;$
- 18: Q. enqueue(mate[y]);

#### reduce number of free nodes

**Algorithm 75** BiMatch(*G*, *match*) 1: for  $x \in V$  do mate[x]  $\leftarrow$  0: 2:  $r \leftarrow 0$ ; free  $\leftarrow n$ ; 3: while *free*  $\geq 1$  and *r* < *n* do 4:  $r \leftarrow r + 1$ 5: if mate[r] = 0 then 6: for i = 1 to n do  $parent[i'] \leftarrow 0$ 7:  $Q \leftarrow \emptyset; Q$ . append $(r); aug \leftarrow false;$ while aug = false and  $Q \neq \emptyset$  do 8:  $x \leftarrow Q.$  dequeue(); 9: 10: for  $\gamma \in A_{\chi}$  do if mate[ $\gamma$ ] = 0 then 11: 12:  $augm(mate, parent, \gamma)$ ; 13:  $aug \leftarrow true;$ 14: free  $\leftarrow$  free -1; 15: else 16: if parent  $[\gamma] = 0$  then 17.  $parent[y] \leftarrow x;$ Q. enqueue(*mate*[ $\gamma$ ]); 18:

#### if $\boldsymbol{\mathcal{Y}}$ is not in the tree yet

**Algorithm 75** BiMatch(*G*, *match*) 1: for  $x \in V$  do mate[x]  $\leftarrow$  0: 2:  $r \leftarrow 0$ ; free  $\leftarrow n$ ; 3: while *free*  $\geq 1$  and *r* < *n* do 4:  $r \leftarrow r + 1$ 5: if mate[r] = 0 then 6: for i = 1 to n do  $parent[i'] \leftarrow 0$ 7:  $O \leftarrow \emptyset; O. append(r); aug \leftarrow false;$ while aug = false and  $Q \neq \emptyset$  do 8:  $x \leftarrow Q.$  dequeue(); 9: 10: for  $\gamma \in A_{\chi}$  do if mate[ $\gamma$ ] = 0 then 11: 12:  $augm(mate, parent, \gamma)$ ; 13:  $aug \leftarrow true;$ 14: free  $\leftarrow$  free -1; 15: else 16: if parent[y] = 0 then 17:  $parent[y] \leftarrow x;$ *Q*.enqueue(*mate*[ $\gamma$ ]); 18:

#### ...put it into the tree

Algorithm 75 BiMatch(*G*, *match*)

```
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2: r \leftarrow 0; free \leftarrow n;
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15:
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16:
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17.
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18:
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```

add its buddy to the set of unexamined leaves

#### Weighted Bipartite Matching/Assignment

- lnput: undirected, bipartite graph  $G = L \cup R, E$ .
- an edge  $e = (\ell, r)$  has weight  $w_e \ge 0$
- find a matching of maximum weight, where the weight of a matching is the sum of the weights of its edges

#### Simplifying Assumptions (wlog [why?]):

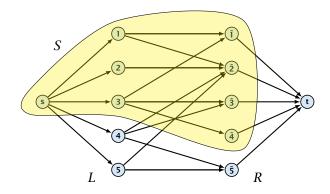
- assume that |L| = |R| = n
- ► assume that there is an edge between every pair of nodes  $(\ell, r) \in V \times V$
- can assume goal is to construct maximum weight perfect matching



#### Theorem 98 (Halls Theorem)

A bipartite graph  $G = (L \cup R, E)$  has a perfect matching if and only if for all sets  $S \subseteq L$ ,  $|\Gamma(S)| \ge |S|$ , where  $\Gamma(S)$  denotes the set of nodes in R that have a neighbour in S.





#### Proof:

 Of course, the condition is necessary as otherwise not all nodes in S could be matched to different neighbours.



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  - This gives  $R_S \ge |\Gamma(L_S)|$ .
  - The size of the cut is  $|L| |L_S| + |R_S|$ .
  - Using the fact that  $|\Gamma(L_S)| \ge L_S$  gives that this is at least |L|.



Idea:

We introduce a node weighting  $\vec{x}$ . Let for a node  $v \in V$ ,  $x_v \in \mathbb{R}$  denote the weight of node v.



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- Try to compute a perfect matching in the subgraph  $H(\vec{x})$ . If you are successful you found an optimal matching.



#### **Reason:**

▶ The weight of your matching *M*<sup>\*</sup> is

$$\sum_{(u,v)\in M^*} w_{(u,v)} = \sum_{(u,v)\in M^*} (x_u + x_v) = \sum_v x_v .$$

Any other perfect matching M (in G, not necessarily in  $H(\vec{x})$ ) has

$$\sum_{(u,v)\in M} w_{(u,v)} \leq \sum_{(u,v)\in M} (x_u + x_v) = \sum_v x_v .$$



#### What if you don't find a perfect matching?

Then, Halls theorem guarantees you that there is a set  $S \subseteq L$ , with  $|\Gamma(S)| < |S|$ , where  $\Gamma$  denotes the neighbourhood w.r.t. the subgraph  $H(\vec{x})$ .



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Idea: reweight such that:

- the total weight assigned to nodes decreases
- the weight function still dominates the edge-weights



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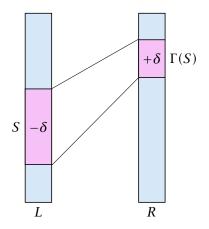
Idea: reweight such that:

- the total weight assigned to nodes decreases
- the weight function still dominates the edge-weights

If we can do this we have an algorithm that terminates with an optimal solution (we analyze the running time later).



Increase node-weights in  $\Gamma(S)$  by  $+\delta$ , and decrease the node-weights in S by  $-\delta$ .

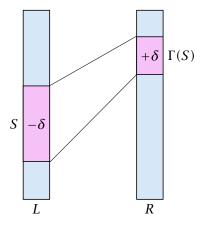




21 Weighted Bipartite Matching

Increase node-weights in  $\Gamma(S)$  by  $+\delta$ , and decrease the node-weights in S by  $-\delta$ .

Total node-weight decreases.

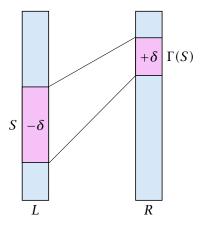




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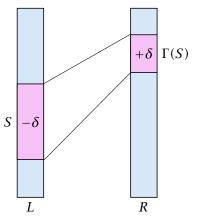
- Total node-weight decreases.
- Only edges from S to R Γ(S) decrease in their weight.





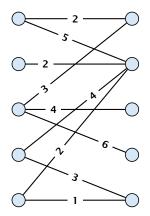
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- Total node-weight decreases.
- Only edges from S to R Γ(S) decrease in their weight.
- Since, none of these edges is tight (otw. the edge would be contained in *H*(*x*), and hence would go between *S* and Γ(*S*)) we can do this decrement for small enough δ > 0 until a new edge gets tight.





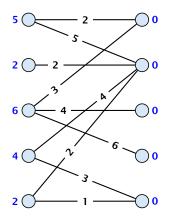
Edges not drawn have weight 0.





21 Weighted Bipartite Matching

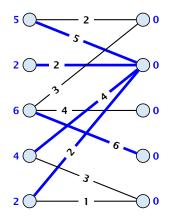
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21 Weighted Bipartite Matching

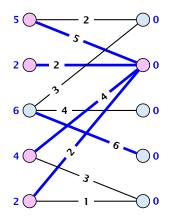
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21 Weighted Bipartite Matching

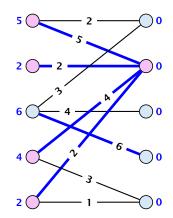
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21 Weighted Bipartite Matching

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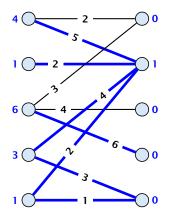


 $\delta = 1$ 



21 Weighted Bipartite Matching

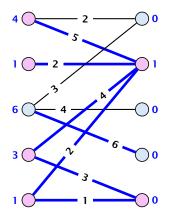
Edges not drawn have weight 0.





21 Weighted Bipartite Matching

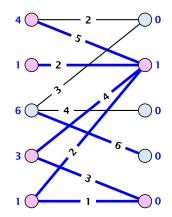
Edges not drawn have weight 0.





21 Weighted Bipartite Matching

Edges not drawn have weight 0.



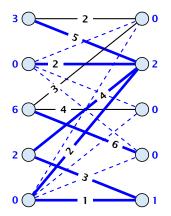
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21 Weighted Bipartite Matching

# Weighted Bipartite Matching

Edges not drawn have weight 0.



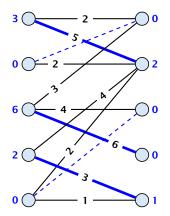


21 Weighted Bipartite Matching

9. Jan. 2023 623/662

# Weighted Bipartite Matching

Edges not drawn have weight 0.



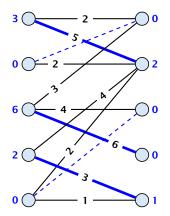


21 Weighted Bipartite Matching

9. Jan. 2023 623/662

# Weighted Bipartite Matching

Edges not drawn have weight 0.





21 Weighted Bipartite Matching

9. Jan. 2023 623/662

### How many iterations do we need?

One reweighting step increases the number of edges out of S by at least one.



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- Assume that we have a maximum matching that saturates the set  $\Gamma(S)$ , in the sense that every node in  $\Gamma(S)$  is matched to a node in *S* (we will show that we can always find *S* and a matching such that this holds).
- This matching is still contained in the new graph, because all its edges either go between  $\Gamma(S)$  and S or between L S and  $R \Gamma(S)$ .



### How many iterations do we need?

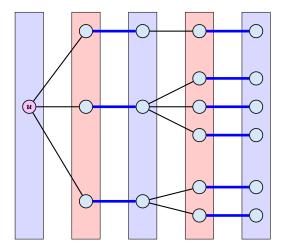
- One reweighting step increases the number of edges out of S by at least one.
- Assume that we have a maximum matching that saturates the set  $\Gamma(S)$ , in the sense that every node in  $\Gamma(S)$  is matched to a node in *S* (we will show that we can always find *S* and a matching such that this holds).
- This matching is still contained in the new graph, because all its edges either go between  $\Gamma(S)$  and S or between L S and  $R \Gamma(S)$ .
- Hence, reweighting does not decrease the size of a maximum matching in the tight sub-graph.



- We will show that after at most n reweighting steps the size of the maximum matching can be increased by finding an augmenting path.
- This gives a polynomial running time.



#### Construct an alternating tree.

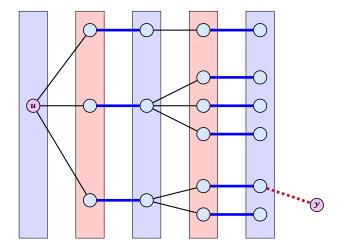




21 Weighted Bipartite Matching

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21 Weighted Bipartite Matching

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- The set of even vertices is on the left and the set of odd vertices is on the right and contains all neighbours of even nodes.
- All odd vertices are matched to even vertices. Furthermore, the even vertices additionally contain the free vertex *u*.
   Hence, |V<sub>odd</sub>| = |Γ(V<sub>even</sub>)| < |V<sub>even</sub>|, and all odd vertices are saturated in the current matching.



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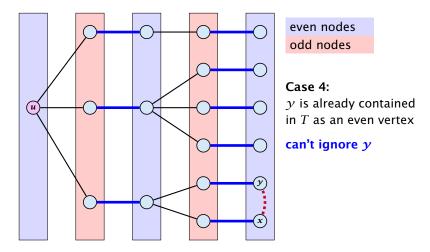
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- A more careful implementation of the algorithm obtains a running time of  $\mathcal{O}(n^3)$ .



Construct an alternating tree.

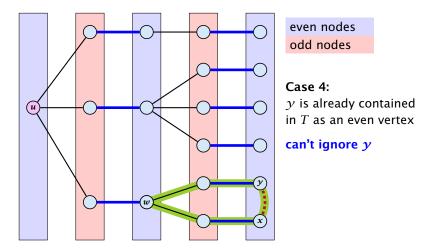




22 Maximum Matching in General Graphs

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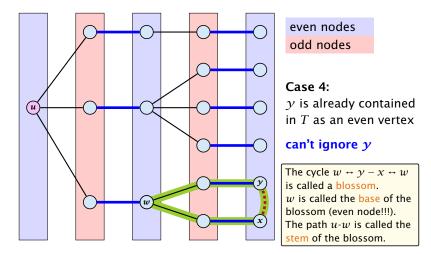
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#### **Definition 99**

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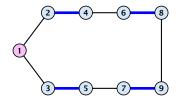


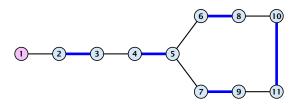
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A flower in a graph G = (V, E) w.r.t. a matching M and a (free) root node r, is a subgraph with two components:

- A stem is an even length alternating path that starts at the root node r and terminates at some node w. We permit the possibility that r = w (empty stem).
- A blossom is an odd length alternating cycle that starts and terminates at the terminal node w of a stem and has no other node in common with the stem. w is called the base of the blossom.









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#### **Properties:**

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- 3. The base of a blossom is an even node (if the stem is part of an alternating tree starting at *r*).



#### **Properties:**

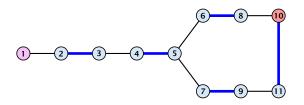
4. Every node x in the blossom (except its base) is reachable from the root (or from the base of the blossom) through two distinct alternating paths; one with even and one with odd length.



#### **Properties:**

- 4. Every node x in the blossom (except its base) is reachable from the root (or from the base of the blossom) through two distinct alternating paths; one with even and one with odd length.
- 5. The even alternating path to x terminates with a matched edge and the odd path with an unmatched edge.







22 Maximum Matching in General Graphs

9. Jan. 2023 634/662 When during the alternating tree construction we discover a blossom *B* we replace the graph *G* by G' = G/B, which is obtained from *G* by contracting the blossom *B*.



# **Shrinking Blossoms**

When during the alternating tree construction we discover a blossom *B* we replace the graph *G* by G' = G/B, which is obtained from *G* by contracting the blossom *B*.

▶ Delete all vertices in *B* (and its incident edges) from *G*.



# **Shrinking Blossoms**

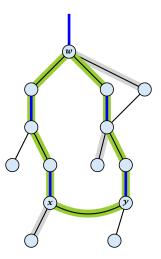
When during the alternating tree construction we discover a blossom B we replace the graph G by G' = G/B, which is obtained from G by contracting the blossom B.

- Delete all vertices in B (and its incident edges) from G.
- Add a new (pseudo-)vertex b. The new vertex b is connected to all vertices in V \ B that had at least one edge to a vertex from B.



# **Shrinking Blossoms**

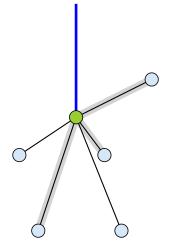
- Edges of T that connect a node u not in B to a node in B become tree edges in T' connecting u to b.
- Matching edges (there is at most one) that connect a node u not in B to a node in B become matching edges in M'.
- Nodes that are connected in G to at least one node in B become connected to b in G'.



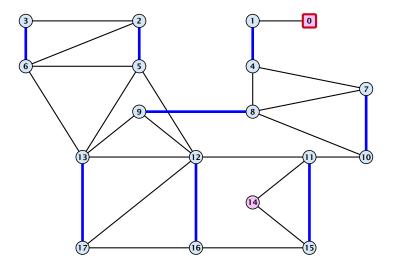


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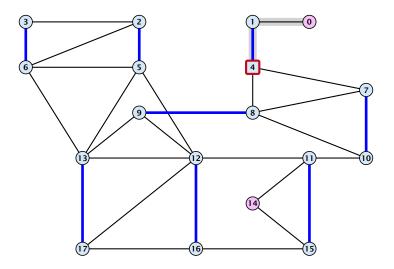






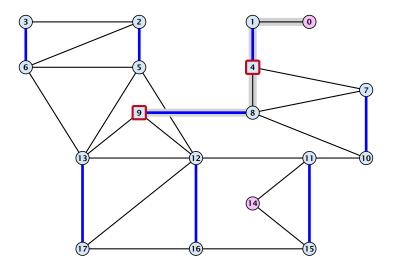


22 Maximum Matching in General Graphs



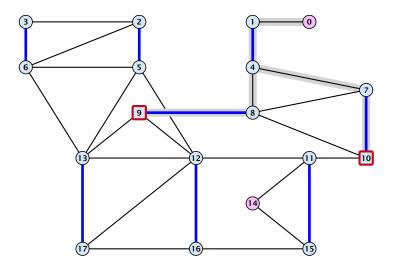


22 Maximum Matching in General Graphs



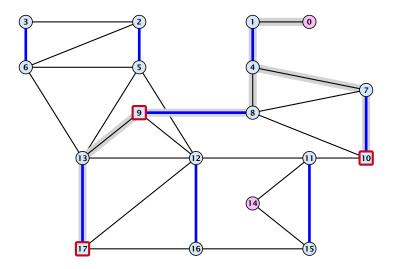


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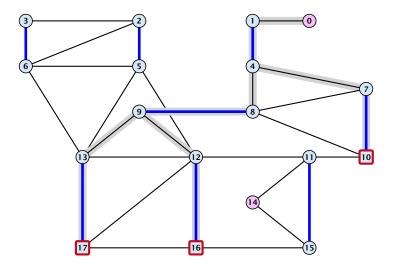


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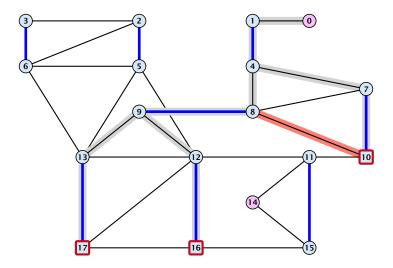


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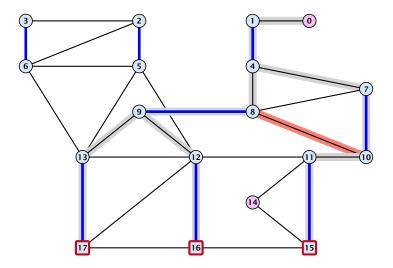


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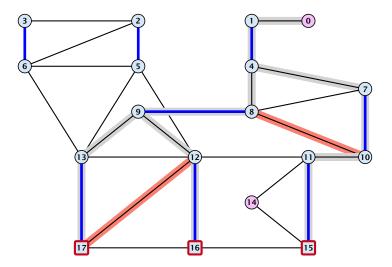


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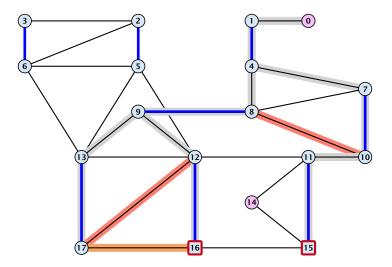


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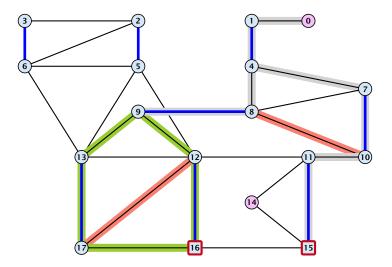


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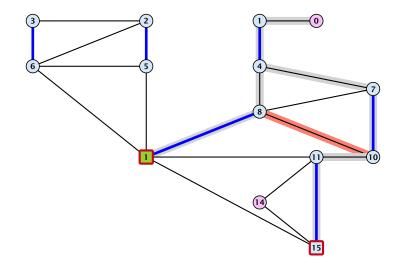


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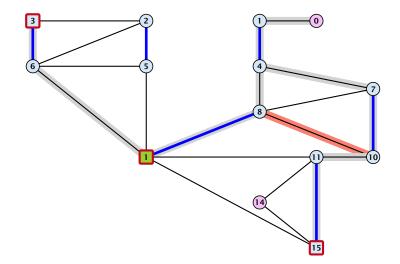


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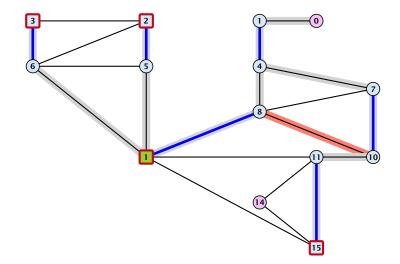


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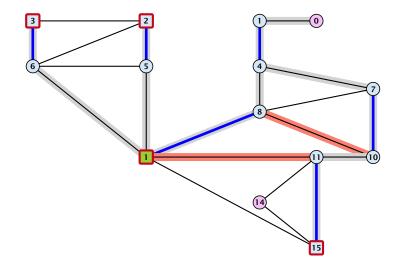


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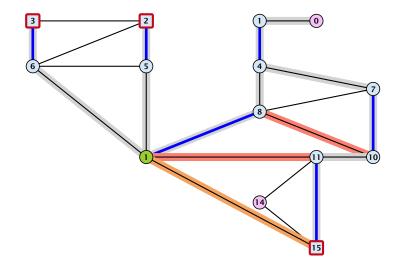


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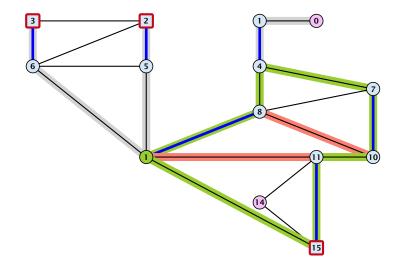


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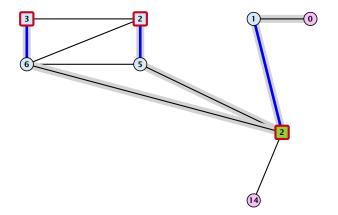


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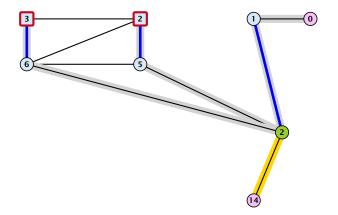


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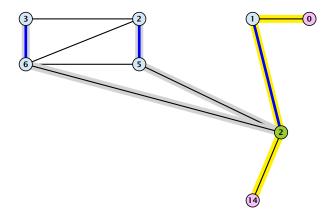


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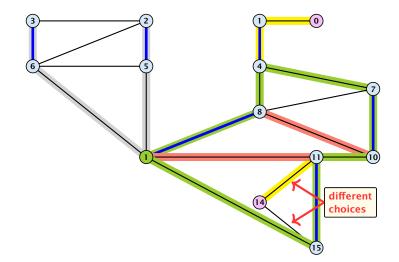


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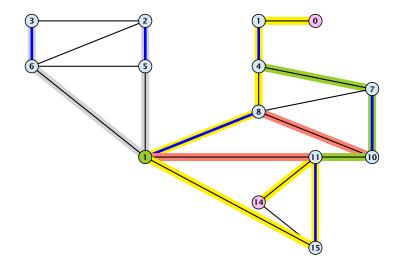


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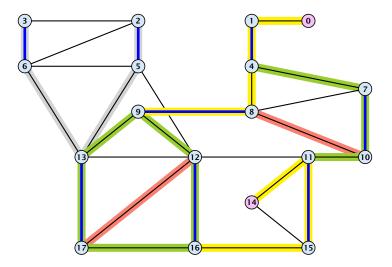


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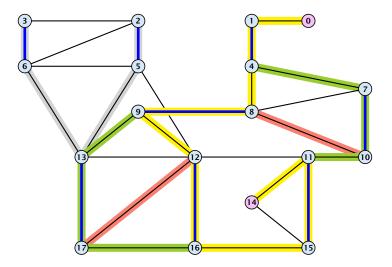


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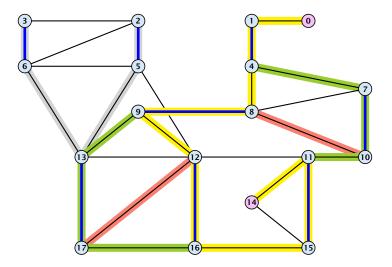


22 Maximum Matching in General Graphs





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22 Maximum Matching in General Graphs

Assume that in *G* we have a flower w.r.t. matching *M*. Let *r* be the root, *B* the blossom, and *w* the base. Let graph G' = G/B with pseudonode *b*. Let *M'* be the matching in the contracted graph.



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#### Lemma 100

If G' contains an augmenting path P' starting at r (or the pseudo-node containing r) w.r.t. the matching M' then G contains an augmenting path starting at r w.r.t. matching M.



Proof.

If P' does not contain b it is also an augmenting path in G.



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$$(r) \cdots (i - b) \cdots (i - p_3) (q)$$



22 Maximum Matching in General Graphs

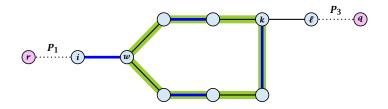
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22 Maximum Matching in General Graphs

- ► After the expansion ℓ must be incident to some node in the blossom. Let this node be k.
- If  $k \neq w$  there is an alternating path  $P_2$  from w to k that ends in a matching edge.
- ▶  $P_1 \circ (i, w) \circ P_2 \circ (k, \ell) \circ P_3$  is an alternating path.
- ▶ If k = w then  $P_1 \circ (i, w) \circ (w, \ell) \circ P_3$  is an alternating path.



#### Proof.

#### Case 2: empty stem

If the stem is empty then after expanding the blossom,

w = r.

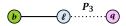


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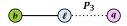


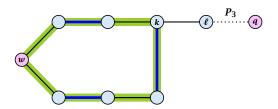
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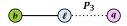


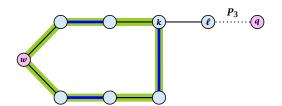
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#### Lemma 101

If G contains an augmenting path P from r to q w.r.t. matching M then G' contains an augmenting path from r (or the pseudo-node containing r) to q w.r.t. M'.



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Let *i* be the last node on the path *P* that is part of the blossom. *P* is of the form  $P_1 \circ (i, j) \circ P_2$ , for some node *j* and (i, j) is unmatched.



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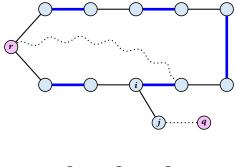
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P is of the form  $P_1 \circ (i, j) \circ P_2$ , for some node j and (i, j) is unmatched.

 $(b, j) \circ P_2$  is an augmenting path in the contracted network.



Illustration for Case 1:







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Case 2: non-empty stem

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G' has an augmenting path w.r.t.  $M'_+$ . It must also have an augmenting path w.r.t. M', as both matchings have the same cardinality.

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This path must go between w and q as these are the only unmatched vertices w.r.t.  $M_+$ .

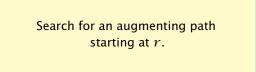
For  $M'_+$  the blossom has an empty stem. Case 1 applies.

G' has an augmenting path w.r.t.  $M'_+$ . It must also have an augmenting path w.r.t. M', as both matchings have the same cardinality.

This path must go between r and q.

## Algorithm 76 search(*r*, *found*)

- 1: set  $\bar{A}(i) \leftarrow A(i)$  for all nodes i
- 2: *found* ← false
- 3: unlabel all nodes;
- 4: give an even label to r and initialize *list*  $\leftarrow$  {r}
- 5: while  $list \neq \emptyset$  do
- 6: delete a node *i* from *list*
- 7: examine(*i*, *found*)
- 8: **if** *found* = true **then return**



**Algorithm 76** search(*r*, *found*)

- 1: set  $\overline{A}(i) \leftarrow A(i)$  for all nodes i
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- 6: delete a node *i* from *list*
- 7: examine(*i*, *found*)
- 8: **if** *found* = true **then return**

A(i) contains neighbours of node i.

We create a copy  $\bar{A}(i)$  so that we later can shrink blossoms.

```
Algorithm 76 search(r, found)
```

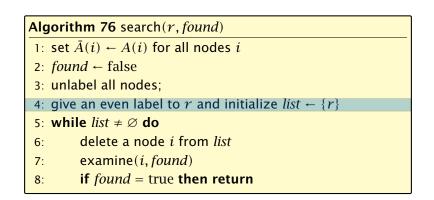
- 1: set  $\bar{A}(i) \leftarrow A(i)$  for all nodes i
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- 7: examine(*i*, *found*)
- 8: **if** *found* = true **then return**

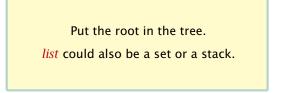
*found* is just a Boolean that allows to abort the search process...

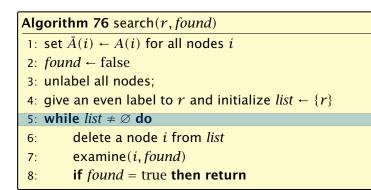
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- 6: delete a node *i* from *list*
- 7: examine(*i*, *found*)
- 8: **if** *found* = true **then return**

In the beginning no node is in the tree.







As long as there are nodes with unexamined neighbours...

## **Algorithm 76** search(*r*, *found*)

- 1: set  $\bar{A}(i) \leftarrow A(i)$  for all nodes i
- 2: *found*  $\leftarrow$  false
- 3: unlabel all nodes;
- 4: give an even label to r and initialize *list*  $\leftarrow$  {r}
- 5: while  $list \neq \emptyset$  do
- 6: delete a node *i* from *list*
- 7: examine(*i*, *found*)
- 8: **if** *found* = true **then return**

# ...examine the next one

### Algorithm 76 search(*r*, *found*)

- 1: set  $\bar{A}(i) \leftarrow A(i)$  for all nodes i
- 2: *found*  $\leftarrow$  false
- 3: unlabel all nodes;
- 4: give an even label to r and initialize *list*  $\leftarrow$  {r}
- 5: while  $list \neq \emptyset$  do
- 6: delete a node *i* from *list*
- 7: examine(*i*, *found*)
- 8: **if** *found* = true **then return**

If you found augmenting path abort and start from next root.

#### Algorithm 77 examine(*i*, *found*)

```
1: for all j \in \overline{A}(i) do
```

- 2: **if** j is even **then** contract(i, j) and **return**
- 3: **if** j is unmatched **then**

4: 
$$q \leftarrow j;$$

5:  $\operatorname{pred}(q) \leftarrow i;$ 

6: *found* 
$$\leftarrow$$
 true;

## return

7:

8: **if** *j* is matched and unlabeled **then** 

9: 
$$\operatorname{pred}(j) \leftarrow i;$$

10: 
$$\operatorname{pred}(\operatorname{mate}(j)) \leftarrow j;$$

```
11: add mate(j) to list
```

Examine the neighbours of a node i

Algorithm 77 examine( <i>i</i> , <i>found</i> )	
1: <b>for</b> all $j \in \overline{A}(i)$	do
2: <b>if</b> <i>j</i> is even	<b>then</b> contract( <i>i</i> , <i>j</i> ) and <b>return</b>
3: if <i>j</i> is unma	atched <b>then</b>
4: $q \leftarrow j;$	
5: pred( <i>q</i>	$) \leftarrow i;$
6: found	– true;
7: return	
8: <b>if</b> <i>j</i> is matc	hed and unlabeled <b>then</b>
9: pred( <i>j</i>	$) \leftarrow i;$
10: pred(m	$\operatorname{hate}(j)) \leftarrow j;$
11: add ma	te(j) to $list$

For all neighbours *j* do...

Algorithm 77 examine( <i>i</i> , <i>found</i> )	
1: for all $j \in \overline{A}(i)$ do	
2:	if $j$ is even then contract $(i, j)$ and return
3:	if <i>j</i> is unmatched <b>then</b>
4:	$q \leftarrow j;$
5:	$\operatorname{pred}(q) \leftarrow i;$
6:	found $\leftarrow$ true;
7:	return
8:	if $j$ is matched and unlabeled then
9:	$\operatorname{pred}(j) \leftarrow i;$
10:	$pred(mate(j)) \leftarrow j;$
11:	add mate(j) to <i>list</i>

You have found a blossom...

Algorithm 77 examine( <i>i</i> , <i>found</i> )	
1: for all $j \in \overline{A}(i)$ do	
2:	if $j$ is even then contract $(i, j)$ and return
3:	<b>if</b> <i>j</i> is unmatched <b>then</b>
4:	$q \leftarrow j;$
5:	$\operatorname{pred}(q) \leftarrow i;$
6:	<i>found</i> $\leftarrow$ true;
7:	return
8:	<b>if</b> <i>j</i> is matched and unlabeled <b>then</b>
9:	$\operatorname{pred}(j) \leftarrow i;$
10:	$pred(mate(j)) \leftarrow j;$
11:	add mate(j) to list

You have found a free node which gives you an augmenting path.

Algorithm 77 examine( <i>i</i> , <i>found</i> )		
1:	for all $j \in \overline{A}(i)$ do	
2:	if $j$ is even then contract $(i, j)$ and return	
3:	if <i>j</i> is unmatched <b>then</b>	
4:	$q \leftarrow j;$	
5:	$\operatorname{pred}(q) \leftarrow i;$	
6:	<i>found</i> $\leftarrow$ true;	
7:	return	
8:	if <i>j</i> is matched and unlabeled <b>then</b>	
9:	$\operatorname{pred}(j) \leftarrow i;$	
10:	$pred(mate(j)) \leftarrow j;$	
11:	add mate(j) to <i>list</i>	

If you find a matched node that is not in the tree you grow... Algorithm 77 examine(*i*, *found*) 1: for all  $j \in \overline{A}(i)$  do if *j* is even then contract(i, j) and return 2: if *j* is unmatched then 3: 4:  $q \leftarrow i$ ;  $\operatorname{pred}(q) \leftarrow i;$ 5: *found* – true: 6: 7: return if *j* is matched and unlabeled **then** 8: 9:  $pred(i) \leftarrow i$ ;  $pred(mate(j)) \leftarrow j;$ 10: add mate(*j*) to *list* 11:

mate(j) is a new node from which you can grow further.

- 1: trace pred-indices of i and j to identify a blossom B
- 2: create new node *b* and set  $\bar{A}(b) \leftarrow \bigcup_{x \in B} \bar{A}(x)$
- 3: label *b* even and add to *list*
- 4: update  $\bar{A}(j) \leftarrow \bar{A}(j) \cup \{b\}$  for each  $j \in \bar{A}(b)$
- 5: form a circular double linked list of nodes in B
- 6: delete nodes in *B* from the graph

Contract blossom identified by nodes i and j



1: trace pred-indices of i and j to identify a blossom B

- 2: create new node b and set  $\bar{A}(b) \leftarrow \bigcup_{x \in B} \bar{A}(x)$
- 3: label *b* even and add to *list*
- 4: update  $\bar{A}(j) \leftarrow \bar{A}(j) \cup \{b\}$  for each  $j \in \bar{A}(b)$
- 5: form a circular double linked list of nodes in B
- 6: delete nodes in *B* from the graph

Get all nodes of the blossom.

Time:  $\mathcal{O}(m)$ 



- 1: trace pred-indices of i and j to identify a blossom B
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- 5: form a circular double linked list of nodes in B
- 6: delete nodes in *B* from the graph

Identify all neighbours of **b**.

Time:  $\mathcal{O}(m)$  (how?)



- 1: trace pred-indices of i and j to identify a blossom B
- 2: create new node b and set  $\bar{A}(b) \leftarrow \bigcup_{x \in B} \bar{A}(x)$
- 3: label *b* even and add to *list*
- 4: update  $\bar{A}(j) \leftarrow \bar{A}(j) \cup \{b\}$  for each  $j \in \bar{A}(b)$
- 5: form a circular double linked list of nodes in B
- 6: delete nodes in *B* from the graph

*b* will be an even node, and it has unexamined neighbours.



#### Algorithm 78 contract(*i*, *j*)

- 1: trace pred-indices of i and j to identify a blossom B
- 2: create new node b and set  $\bar{A}(b) \leftarrow \bigcup_{x \in B} \bar{A}(x)$
- 3: label *b* even and add to *list*
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- 5: form a circular double linked list of nodes in B
- 6: delete nodes in *B* from the graph

Every node that was adjacent to a node in *B* is now adjacent to *b* 



#### Algorithm 78 contract(*i*, *j*)

- 1: trace pred-indices of i and j to identify a blossom B
- 2: create new node b and set  $\bar{A}(b) \leftarrow \bigcup_{x \in B} \bar{A}(x)$
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- 5: form a circular double linked list of nodes in B
- 6: delete nodes in *B* from the graph

Only for making a blossom expansion easier.



#### Algorithm 78 contract(*i*, *j*)

- 1: trace pred-indices of i and j to identify a blossom B
- 2: create new node *b* and set  $\bar{A}(b) \leftarrow \bigcup_{x \in B} \bar{A}(x)$
- 3: label *b* even and add to *list*
- 4: update  $\bar{A}(j) \leftarrow \bar{A}(j) \cup \{b\}$  for each  $j \in \bar{A}(b)$
- 5: form a circular double linked list of nodes in B

6: delete nodes in *B* from the graph

Only delete links from nodes not in *B* to *B*.

When expanding the blossom again we can recreate these links in time  $\mathcal{O}(m)$ .



A contraction operation can be performed in time O(m).
 Note, that any graph created will have at most m edges.



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- The time between two contraction-operation is basically a BFS/DFS on a graph. Hence takes time O(m).



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- The expansion can trivially be done in the same time as needed for all contractions.



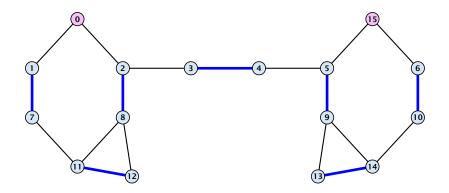
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- The time between two contraction-operation is basically a BFS/DFS on a graph. Hence takes time O(m).
- There are at most n contractions as each contraction reduces the number of vertices.
- The expansion can trivially be done in the same time as needed for all contractions.
- An augmentation requires time  $\mathcal{O}(n)$ . There are at most n of them.
- In total the running time is at most

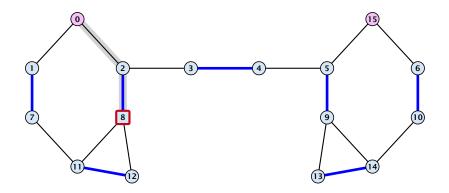
```
n \cdot (\mathcal{O}(mn) + \mathcal{O}(n)) = \mathcal{O}(mn^2).
```





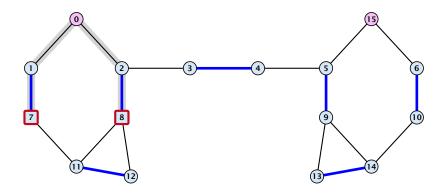


22 Maximum Matching in General Graphs



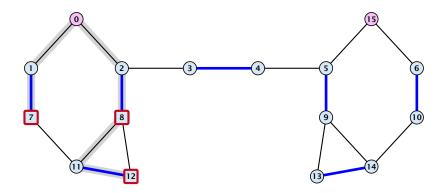


22 Maximum Matching in General Graphs



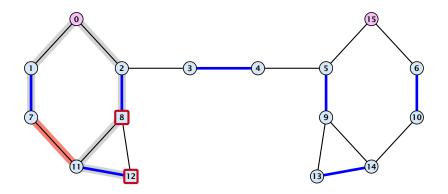


22 Maximum Matching in General Graphs



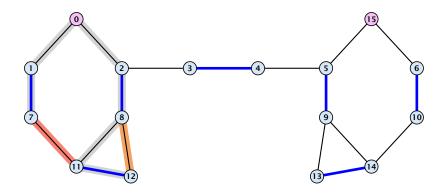


22 Maximum Matching in General Graphs



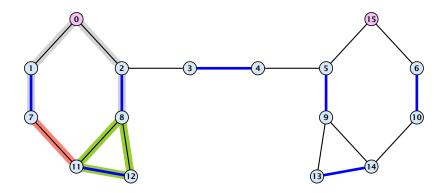


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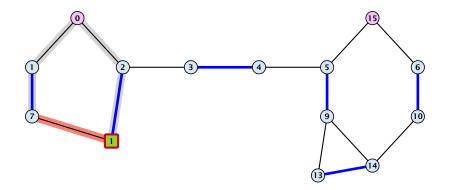


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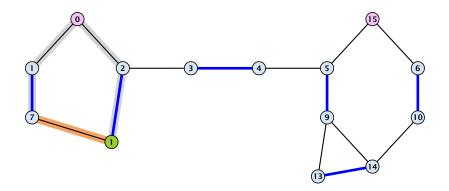


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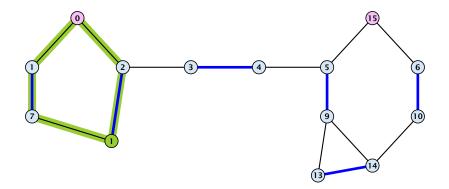


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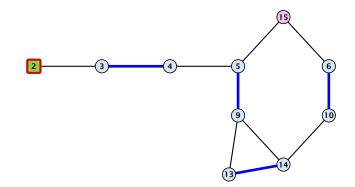


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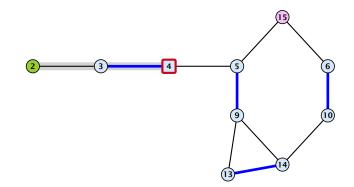


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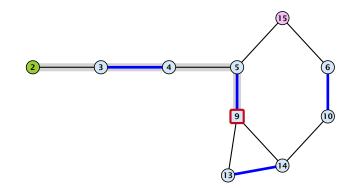


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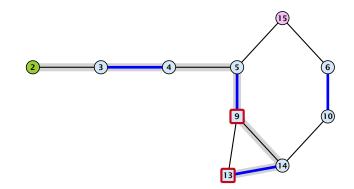


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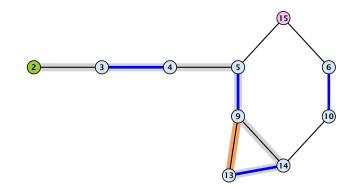


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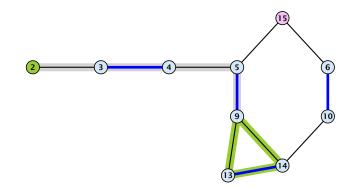


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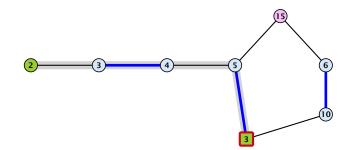


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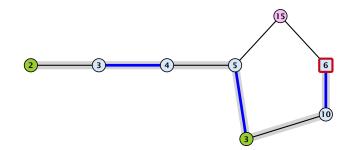


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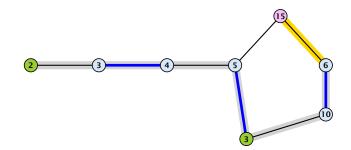


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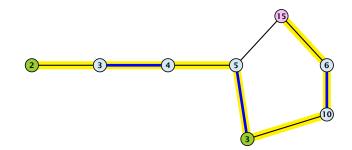


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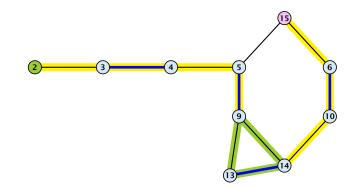


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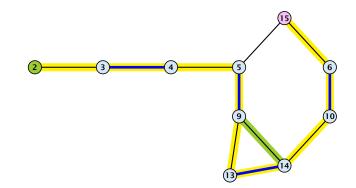


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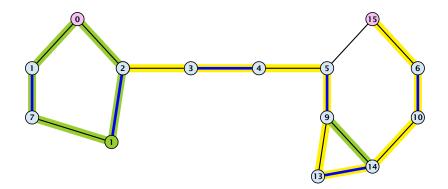


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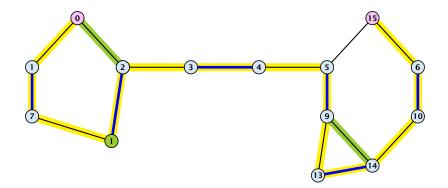


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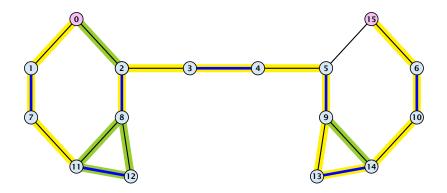


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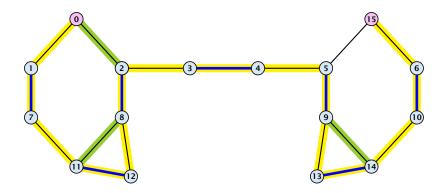


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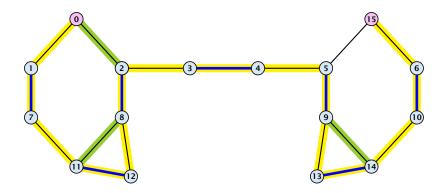


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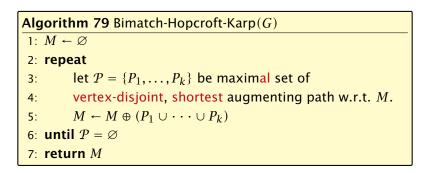
22 Maximum Matching in General Graphs





22 Maximum Matching in General Graphs

# A Fast Matching Algorithm



We call one iteration of the repeat-loop a phase of the algorithm.



Lemma 102

Given a matching M and a matching  $M^*$  with  $|M^*| - |M| \ge 0$ . There exist  $|M^*| - |M|$  vertex-disjoint augmenting path w.r.t. M.



#### Lemma 102

Given a matching M and a matching  $M^*$  with  $|M^*| - |M| \ge 0$ . There exist  $|M^*| - |M|$  vertex-disjoint augmenting path w.r.t. M.

### Proof:

Similar to the proof that a matching is optimal iff it does not contain an augmenting path.



#### Lemma 102

Given a matching M and a matching  $M^*$  with  $|M^*| - |M| \ge 0$ . There exist  $|M^*| - |M|$  vertex-disjoint augmenting path w.r.t. M.

- Similar to the proof that a matching is optimal iff it does not contain an augmenting path.
- Consider the graph  $G = (V, M \oplus M^*)$ , and mark edges in this graph blue if they are in M and red if they are in  $M^*$ .



#### Lemma 102

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- The connected components of *G* are cycles and paths.



#### Lemma 102

Given a matching M and a matching  $M^*$  with  $|M^*| - |M| \ge 0$ . There exist  $|M^*| - |M|$  vertex-disjoint augmenting path w.r.t. M.

- Similar to the proof that a matching is optimal iff it does not contain an augmenting path.
- Consider the graph  $G = (V, M \oplus M^*)$ , and mark edges in this graph blue if they are in M and red if they are in  $M^*$ .
- ► The connected components of *G* are cycles and paths.
- ► The graph contains k ≝ |M\*| |M| more red edges than blue edges.



#### Lemma 102

Given a matching M and a matching  $M^*$  with  $|M^*| - |M| \ge 0$ . There exist  $|M^*| - |M|$  vertex-disjoint augmenting path w.r.t. M.

- Similar to the proof that a matching is optimal iff it does not contain an augmenting path.
- Consider the graph  $G = (V, M \oplus M^*)$ , and mark edges in this graph blue if they are in M and red if they are in  $M^*$ .
- The connected components of *G* are cycles and paths.
- ► The graph contains  $k \leq |M^*| |M|$  more red edges than blue edges.
- Hence, there are at least k components that form a path starting and ending with a red edge. These are augmenting paths w.r.t. M.



Let  $P_1, \ldots, P_k$  be a maximal collection of vertex-disjoint, shortest augmenting paths w.r.t. *M* (let  $\ell = |P_i|$ ).



- Let  $P_1, \ldots, P_k$  be a maximal collection of vertex-disjoint, shortest augmenting paths w.r.t. M (let  $\ell = |P_i|$ ).
- $\blacktriangleright M' \stackrel{\text{\tiny def}}{=} M \oplus (P_1 \cup \cdots \cup P_k) = M \oplus P_1 \oplus \cdots \oplus P_k.$



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- Let P be an augmenting path in M'.

#### Lemma 103

The set  $A \cong M \oplus (M' \oplus P) = (P_1 \cup \cdots \cup P_k) \oplus P$  contains at least  $(k+1)\ell$  edges.



#### Proof.

The set describes exactly the symmetric difference between matchings M and  $M' \oplus P$ .



- The set describes exactly the symmetric difference between matchings M and  $M' \oplus P$ .
- ► Hence, the set contains at least k + 1 vertex-disjoint augmenting paths w.r.t. M as |M'| = |M| + k + 1.



- The set describes exactly the symmetric difference between matchings M and  $M' \oplus P$ .
- ► Hence, the set contains at least k + 1 vertex-disjoint augmenting paths w.r.t. M as |M'| = |M| + k + 1.
- Each of these paths is of length at least  $\ell$ .



Lemma 104

*P* is of length at least  $\ell + 1$ . This shows that the length of a shortest augmenting path increases between two phases of the Hopcroft-Karp algorithm.



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### Proof.

If P does not intersect any of the P<sub>1</sub>,..., P<sub>k</sub>, this follows from the maximality of the set {P<sub>1</sub>,..., P<sub>k</sub>}.



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- This edge is not contained in *A*.
- Hence,  $|A| \le k\ell + |P| 1$ .
- ► The lower bound on |A| gives  $(k+1)\ell \le |A| \le k\ell + |P| 1$ , and hence  $|P| \ge \ell + 1$ .



If the shortest augmenting path w.r.t. a matching M has  $\ell$  edges then the cardinality of the maximum matching is of size at most  $|M| + \frac{|V|}{\ell+1}$ .



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### Proof.

The symmetric difference between M and  $M^*$  contains  $|M^*| - |M|$  vertex-disjoint augmenting paths. Each of these paths contains at least  $\ell + 1$  vertices. Hence, there can be at most  $\frac{|V|}{\ell+1}$  of them.



#### Lemma 105

The Hopcroft-Karp algorithm requires at most  $2\sqrt{|V|}$  phases.



#### Lemma 105

The Hopcroft-Karp algorithm requires at most  $2\sqrt{|V|}$  phases.

- ▶ After iteration  $\lfloor \sqrt{|V|} \rfloor$  the length of a shortest augmenting path must be at least  $\lfloor \sqrt{|V|} \rfloor + 1 \ge \sqrt{|V|}$ .
- ► Hence, there can be at most  $|V|/(\sqrt{|V|} + 1) \le \sqrt{|V|}$  additional augmentations.



#### Lemma 106

One phase of the Hopcroft-Karp algorithm can be implemented in time O(m).

construct a "level graph" G':

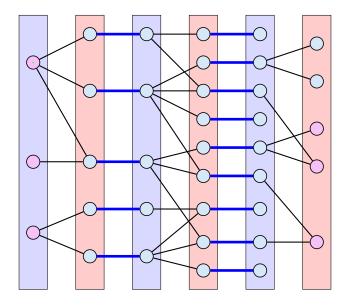
- construct Level 0 that includes all free vertices on left side L
- construct Level 1 containing all neighbors of Level 0
- construct Level 2 containing matching neighbors of Level 1
- construct Level 3 containing all neighbors of Level 2
- ...

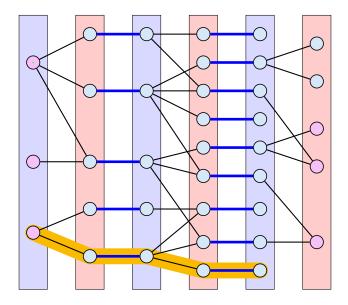
stop when a level (apart from Level 0) contains a free vertex can be done in time O(m) by a modified BFS

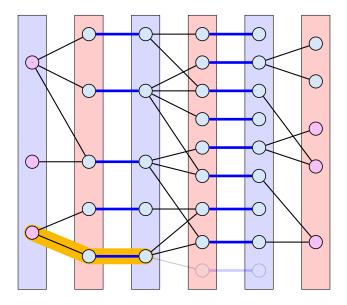


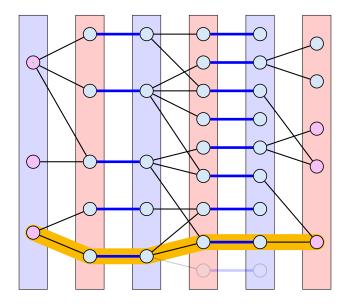
- a shortest augmenting path must go from Level 0 to the last layer constructed
- it can only use edges between layers
- construct a maximal set of vertex disjoint augmenting path connecting the layers
- for this, go forward until you either reach a free vertex or you reach a "dead end" v
- if you reach a free vertex delete the augmenting path and all incident edges from the graph
- if you reach a dead end backtrack and delete v together with its incident edges

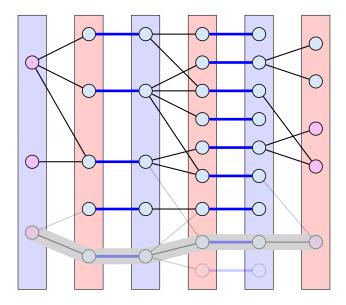


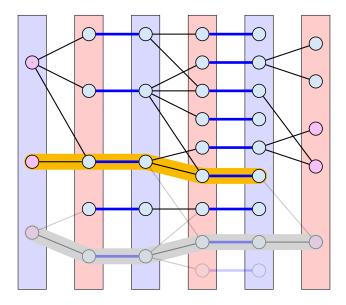


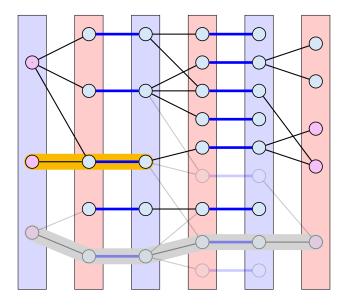


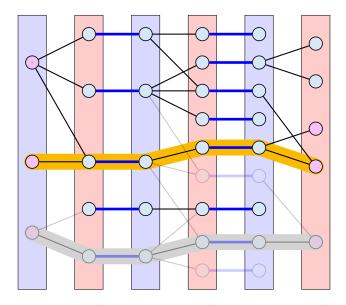


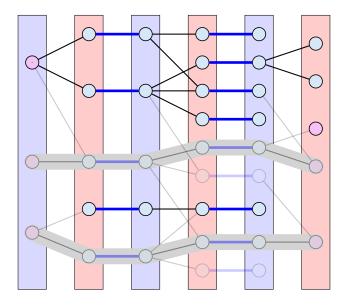


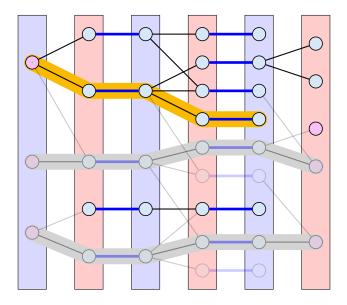


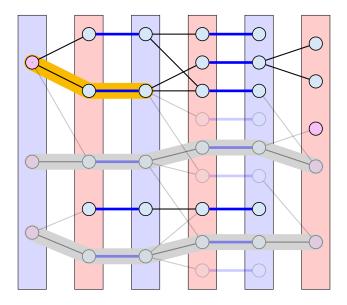


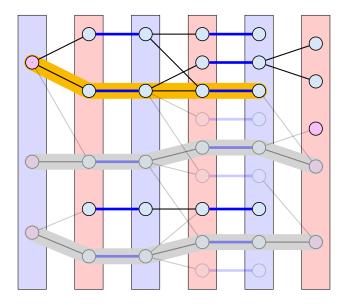


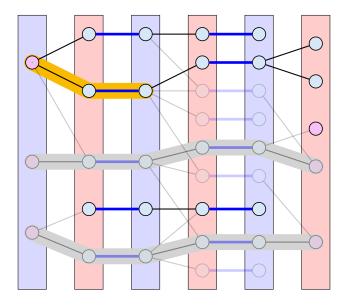


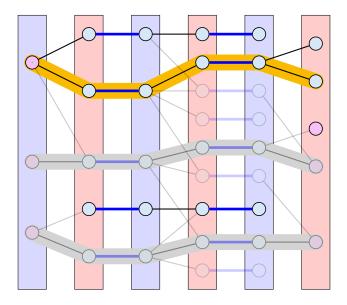


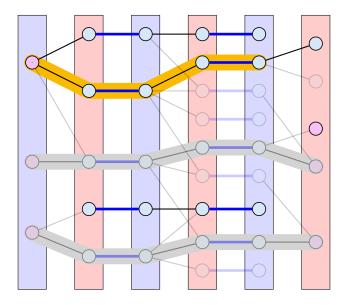


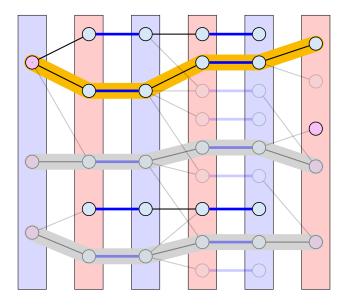


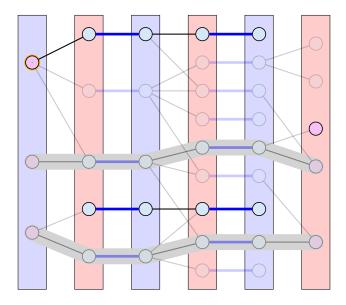


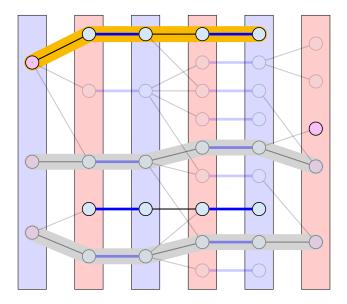


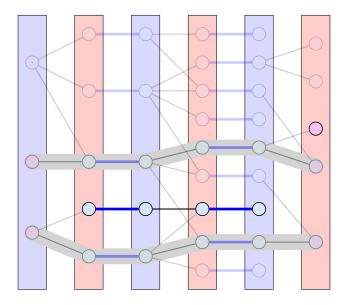


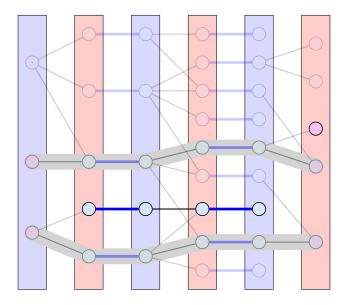












#### **Analysis: Shortest Augmenting Path for Flows**

#### cost for searches during a phase is $\mathcal{O}(mn)$

- a search (successful or unsuccessful) takes time  $\mathcal{O}(n)$
- a search deletes at least one edge from the level graph

#### there are at most *n* phases

Time:  $\mathcal{O}(mn^2)$ .



#### Analysis for Unit-capacity Simple Networks

#### cost for searches during a phase is $\mathcal{O}(m)$

an edge/vertex is traversed at most twice

#### need at most $\mathcal{O}(\sqrt{n})$ phases

- after  $\sqrt{n}$  phases there is a cut of size at most  $\sqrt{n}$  in the residual graph
- hence at most  $\sqrt{n}$  additional augmentations required

Time:  $\mathcal{O}(m\sqrt{n})$ .

