Comp 250 Study guide

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November 10, 2017

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Part I

Mathematical Tools for Algorithm Analysis

1 Solving and Understanding Recurrences

How can we know the time it takes for a recursive algorithm to run?
Recurrence relations!!

1.1 Basic Idea

The idea behind these problems is to look at the algorithm at every step and put down the time it would take as an equation. We write the relation like this:

- $t(n)$ represents the time taken.
- Every operation has constant, unit-less time. Say, 1.
- Recursive calls are represented as $t(n')$ where n' is the input of the recursive call.

To find $t(n)$ as a constant expression, we use the method of back substitution, and try to see a pattern. Once the pattern is established, we can follow it down all the way until the base case.

Honestly the best way to understand this is to do lot's of examples.

1.2 Simple example

Problem 1. *How long does it take to reverse a list of* n *elements recursively?*

Solution. It seems like a big question, but lets break it down.

- Remove the first element
- Reverse the rest of the list recursively

So this will take time:

$$t(n) = 1 + t(n-1)$$

So, we can back-substitute like this:

$$t(n) = 1 + (1 + t(n-2))$$
$$t(n) = 1 + (1 + (1 + t(n-3)))$$

we can already notice a pattern developing, it will take n substitutions to get down to the base case, $t(1)$, so there will be n constant 1's. so we have:

$$t(n) = n + t(1)$$

In this course, we always assume t(1) is 1.

$$t(n) = n$$

So this takes time proportional to $O(n)$

The idea is always the same, we just get to more and more complicated examples.

1.3 Useful tools, identities and tips

Here are some useful tools and tricks you might need:

- In comp 250, we can always assume n is a power of 2. This makes certain identities easier to use.
- If the recursive call is $t(n/2)$, it will take $log_2(n)$ iterations to reach the base case. (This doesn't mean it will take $log_2(n)$ time!!)
- If you see something that looks like the sum of powers of a constant, use the geometric series:

$$\sum_{i=0}^{N-1} a^i = \frac{a^N - 1}{a - 1}$$

- Once you've gotten something with all constant terms, look at the largest term involving n to find O().
- $log_b(n) = log_a(n)log_b(a)$
- $a^{log_b(c)} = c^{log_b(a)}$
- The other, more common laws of logs may come in handy as well.
- Do lot's of practice, it's the only way to master this.

1.4 Important Examples: MergeSort + QuickSort

Recall the pseudocode for mergesort:

```
mergesort(List list){
   if {list.length==1}
      return list;
   else{
      mid = (list.size-1)/2
      list1 = list.getElements(0,mid);
      list2 = list.getElements(mid+1,list.size-1);
      list1 = mergesort(list1);
      list2 = mergesort(list2);
      return merge(list1,list2);
   }
}
```

We can see that we call mergesort twice, and we're calling it on a list that is now roughly $\frac{n}{2}$ long. So our recurrence relation will have a $2t(\frac{n}{2})$ term in it.

Notice also that we have a constant amount of work acting on n elements in order to merge them. So we will have a cn term. Where c is a constant.

So our relation is:

$$t(n) = cn + 2t(\frac{n}{2})$$

Back substituting:

$$t(n) = cn + 2(c\frac{n}{2} + 2t(\frac{n}{4}))$$

$$t(n) = cn + cn + 4t(\frac{n}{4})$$

$$t(n) = cn + cn + 4(c\frac{n}{4} + 2t(\frac{n}{8}))$$

We see a pattern begin to emerge:

It will take $log_2(n)$ iterations, so there wil be $log_2(n)cn$ terms, and a power of 2 multiplying the $t(1)$ term, and since n is always a power of 2, we have an n term.

$$t(n) = cnlog_2(n) + n$$

Which is $O(nlog_2(n))$

Prof. Langer makes a point in his notes to pay attention to the fact that if the base case is difficult to compute, we may use a simpler, slower algorithm (like bubblesort) to solve it, since this still takes a constant amount of time, and doesn't introduce an n^2 dependence (since bubble sort takes $O(n^2)$.

Recall the pseudocode for Quicksort:

```
quicksort(List list){
   if (list.length <=1){
      return list;
   }else{
      pivot = list.removeFirst(); //or some other element
      list1 = list.getElementsLessThan(pivot);
      list2=list.getElementsNotLessThan(pivot);
      list1 = quicksort(list1);
      list2 = quicksort(list2);
      return concatenate(list1,pivot,list2)
   }
}
```

Recall that depending on our choice of pivot, this algorithm can be very quick, or very slow. In the best case, it divides the list in two almost evenly, in which case it behaves much like mergesort. In the worst case, the pivot is the max or min value of the list, and divides the list into itself, and the rest of the list.

If this bad split happens at every level of the recursion, it takes time $O(n^2)$.

Note that the bad split causes the lists to be of size 1 and $n-1$.

Also note that comparing the pivot to each element in the list takes n operations.

Proof that worst case is $O(n^2)$:

$$t(n) = cn + t(n-1)$$

$$t(n) = cn + c(n-1) + t(n-2)$$
$$t(n) = cn + c(n-1) + c(n-2) + t(n-3)$$
$$t(n) = cn + c(n-1) + c(n-2) + c(n-3) + t(n-4)$$
$$\dots$$
$$t(n) = c\frac{n(n+1)}{2} + t(1)$$

Which is $O(n^2)$

So why is quicksort "quick"?

- Choose the pivot by taking elements first, mid, last, and finding the median. This makes the worst case extremely improbable.
- It can be done "in-place", takes up MUCH less memory than mergesort.

2 Big O, Big Ω, and Big θ

2.1 Semi-formal Definition

For two functions, $t(n)$, $g(n)$ we say that $t(n)$ is $O(g(n))$ if there exists an n_0 such that for all $n \geq n_0$, $g(n) \geq t(n)$

This basically means that beyond a certain point, n_0, then the function $g(n)$ is "bigger" than $t(n)$

Problem 2. *Prove that* $5n + 70$ *is asymptotically boudned above by* $6n$

Solution. We have:

$$5n + 70 \leq 6n \text{ for suffiently large n.}$$

$$\Leftrightarrow 70 \leq n$$

So, for $n \geq 70$, $5n + 70 \leq 6n$, simple right?

2.2 Formal Definition of Big O

Let $t(n)$ and $g(n)$ be functions and $n \geq 0$. Then we say $t(n)$ is $O(g(n))$ if there exist two positive constants n_0 and c such that:

$$t(n) \leq cg(n) \text{ for } n \geq n_0$$

Problem 3. *Prove that* $5n + 70$ *is* $O(n)$

Solution. The idea here is to come up with something that is larger than $5n + 70$

$$5n + 70 \leq ?$$

Well we can see that $5n + 70n$ is always larger, for $n \geq 1$.

$$5n + 70 \leq 5n + 70n \text{ for n} \geq 1$$

$$\Leftrightarrow 5n + 70 \leq 75n \text{ for n} \geq 1$$

so we can take $c = 75$, $n_0 = 1$ and the definition of Big O is satisfied.

Note that there is nothing special about these particular values, other than they satisfy the inequality and definition. Any value of c and n_0 that works is valid.

2.3 Tips and extra notes on Big O proofs.

- $O(1)$ just means that it takes a constant amount of time.
- Be sure to be clear which statement implies which, and that your proof is 100
- Start by looking for some expression that will make the inequality true. Try to make it so that it only includes the type of term you want (n^2, $nlog_2(n)$, etc).
- Like the recurrences, the only way to get better is to practice.

2.4 Big O properties

Constant rule

If $f(n)$ is $O(g(n))$ then $af(n)$ is $O(g(n))$, for some constant a.

Proof

Take the definition of Big O, and multiply it through by a:

There exists a c such that
$$f(n) \leq cg(n)$$
for all $n \geq n_0$, and so
$$af(n) \leq acg(n)$$
for all $n \geq n_0$.

Now c is ac.

Sum Rule

If $f_1(n)$ is $O(g(n))$ and $f_2(n)$ is $O(g(n)$, then $f_1(n) + f_2(n)$ is $O(g(n))$.

Proof

We just extend the definition of Big O to now have two of each constant, and two functions f.

There exists constants c_1, c_2, n_0, n_1 such that
$$f_1(n) \leq c_1 g(n)$$
for all $n \geq n_0$, and
$$f_2(n) \leq c_2 g(n)$$
for all $n \geq n_1$.

Thus,
$$f_1(n) + f_2(n) \leq c_1 g(n) + c_2 g(n)$$

for all $n \geq max(n_0, n_1)$. So we can take $c_1 + c_2$ and $max(n_0, n_1)$ as our two constants.

Product Rule

If $f_1(n)$ is $O(g_1(n))$ and $f_2(n)$ is $O(g_2(n)$, then $f_1(n)f_2(n)$ is $O(g_1(n)g_2(n))$.

Proof We can use similar constants as in the sum rule, except that now we have two g functions. So, there exists constants c_1, c_2, n_0, n_1 such that

$$f_1(n) \leq c_1 g_1(n)$$

for all $n \geq n_0$, and

$$f_2(n) \leq c_2 g_2(n)$$

for all $n \geq n_1$. Thus,

$$f_1(n)f_2(n) \leq c_1 g_1(n) c_2 g_2(n)$$

for all $n \geq max(n_0, n_1)$. So we can take $c_1 c_2$ and $max(n_0, n_1)$ as our two constants.

Transitivity Rule If $f(n)$ is $O(g(n))$ and $g(n)$ is $O(h(n))$, then $f(n)$ is $O(h(n))$.

Proof

Similar idea as before:

There exists constants c_1, c_2, n_0, n_1 such that

$$f(n) \leq c_1 g(n)$$

for all $n \geq n_0$, and

$$g(n) \leq c_2 h(n)$$

for all $n \geq n_1$. Plugging $g(n)$ from the second inequality into $g(n)$ in the first inequality gives that

$$f(n) \leq c_1 c_2 h(n)$$

for all $n \geq max(n_0, n_1)$.

- The main idea behind all these proofs is just applying the definition of Big O to several functions at once.
- We've been using these properties unknowingly, and now we can justify saying something is $O()$ by looking at the "largest" term.
- We can now say that if, say, $f(n)$ is $O(n^2)$ that $f(n) \in O(n^2)$
- $O(1) \subset O(log_x(n)) \subset O(n) \subset O(nlog_x(n)) \subset O(n^2)... \subset O(2^n) \subset O(n!)$

2.5 Formal definition of Big Ω (Omega)

In a way, this is the opposite of Big O. Instead of saying $f(n)$ is bounded **above**, we saying $f(n)$ is bounded **below** by $g(n)$

The definition follows the same idea:

Let $t(n)$, $g(n)$ be functions, and $n \geq 0$. Then we say $t(n)$ is $O(g(n))$ if there exists a c and n_0 such that for all $n \geq n_0$:

$$t(n) \geq cg(n)$$

Problem 4. *Prove that* $\frac{n(n-1)}{2}$ *is* $\Omega(n^2)$

Solution. We start in a similar way than the problems for Big O. We write down the definition, and look for a relation that is true, and contains only terms of n^2. We'll try different values of c.

$$\frac{n(n-1)}{2} \geq ?$$

Try $c = \frac{1}{4}$

$$\frac{n(n-1)}{2} \geq \frac{n^2}{4} \text{for sufficiently large n}$$

$$\Leftrightarrow 2n(n-1) \geq n^2$$
$$\Leftrightarrow 2n^2 - 2n \geq n^2$$
$$\Leftrightarrow n^2 \geq 2n$$
$$\Leftrightarrow n \geq 2$$

We can see that this holds for $n \geq 2$, $c = \frac{1}{4}$

2.6 Tips and extra notes on big Ω proofs

- These are the same as Big O proofs, but with a flipped inequality.
- Be sure to specify what implies what.
- Do not assume what you're trying to prove!
- Some creativity, pattern matching and testing is involved, so practice!

2.7 Formal Definition of Big θ

We say that $t(n)$ is $\theta(g(n))$ if $t(n)$ is both $O(g(n))$ and $\Omega(g(n))$ for some $g(n)$.

An equivalent definition is that there exists three positive constants n_0 and c_1 and c_2 such that, for all $n \geq n_0$,

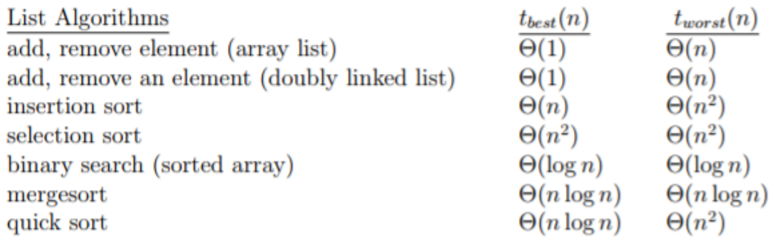
$$c_1 g(n) \leq t(n) \leq c_2 g(n)$$

. Obviously, we would need $c_1 \leq c_2$ for this to be possible.

Its possible for a function to not be Big θ of anything, but these examples are weird and don't show up often in practice.

2.8 Best and Worst Cases

The following is a table of examples of algorithms seen in the course, and their best and worst cases.



List Algorithms	$t_{best}(n)$	$t_{worst}(n)$
add, remove element (array list)	$\Theta(1)$	$\Theta(n)$
add, remove an element (doubly linked list)	$\Theta(1)$	$\Theta(n)$
insertion sort	$\Theta(n)$	$\Theta(n^2)$
selection sort	$\Theta(n^2)$	$\Theta(n^2)$
binary search (sorted array)	$\Theta(\log n)$	$\Theta(\log n)$
mergesort	$\Theta(n \log n)$	$\Theta(n \log n)$
quick sort	$\Theta(n \log n)$	$\Theta(n^2)$

Figure 1: Table by Prof. Michael Langer, 2017

2.9 Limits and Big O

There is a rule for determining whether $f(n)$ is $O(g(n))$.

$$\lim_{n\to\infty} \frac{f(n)}{g(n)} = 0 \Rightarrow f(n) \text{ is } O(g(n))$$

Note that this doesn't go the other way around.

Also note that this is weak, since we might get the result of, say $f(n)$ being $O(g(n^2))$ when it's really $O(g(n))$, which is a stronger statement.

Specifically, if we can say that this means it's *not* $\Omega(g(n))$ then this is a stronger statement.

We have the following rule:

$$\lim_{n\to\infty} \frac{f(n)}{g(n)} = \infty \Rightarrow f(n) \text{ is } \Omega(g(n))$$

$$\Rightarrow f(n) \text{ is not } O(g(n))$$

and similarly:

$$\lim_{n\to\infty} \frac{f(n)}{g(n)} = c\,, 0 < c < \infty \Rightarrow f(n) \text{ is } \theta(g(n))$$

Part II
Non-Linear Data Structures

3 Rooted Trees

3.1 Basic Idea

Trees are good for organizing hierarchal structures like directory listings and rankings. Trees are best explained through pictures and learning the key terminology, so see the lecture slides for pictures, I'll list the terminology here.

3.2 Tree Vocabulary

Node: The dots on the tree. Sometimes called the vertex.

Child: Each node (except those at the bottom) have child nodes that branch off of them.

Parent: The node that the child node directly comes from. (The parents parent is not the same parent)

Root: The node at the very top of the tree. It has no parent.(it's the only node without a parent). All other nodes originate from this root.

Siblings: The nodes that share the same parent.

Leaf: Nodes with no children.

Internal Node: Node with a child

Path: A sequence of nodes that are connected by edges (edges being a connection between two nodes)

Length of a path: How many edges are between the first node in the path and the last one.

Depth: The length of the path from the root to the node you're interested in finding the depth of.

Height: As you'd expect, the opposite of depth. The length of the path from the "lowest" leaf.

Ancestor: A node that's on the same path from the root as the node you're interested in finding the ancestor of.

Subtree: Take a node, call it the root of your new sub-tree, everything below this node is part of the sub-tree. Trees are subtrees of themselves.

3.3 Notes and Facts

- If a tree has n nodes, it will have $n-1$ edges. Since every node has an edge with its parent, except for the root.
- If you haven't already, go look at the slides. It's important to grasp the visuals here so you can picture what's happening.
- The length of a path is the number of nodes in the path minus 1.
- An easy algorithm for finding depth would be: If you don't have a parent, your depth is 0 (you are the root), return 0. If you do have a parent, return 1 + the depth of your parent (recursion).
- In a similar way, we find the height by: If you don't have a child, your depth is 0(you are a leaf), return 0. If you do have a child,(or more) for each of your children, take the maximum of their heights, return 1 + that.
- Non-rooted trees are when there's no clear root. Much more complex, more for COMP 251

4 Tree Traversal

4.1 Depth-First Traversal

As the name implies, this is when you go all the way to the bottom of your list, and work your way to the top. There are two ways to do this, pre-, and post- order traversal. Both are done recursively, and it's really elegant when you see how it works.

Here's the pseudocode:

```
depthfirst(root){
  if (root is not empty){
     visit root;
     for each child{
       depthfirst(child);
     }
  }
}
```

The most confusing part about this is the meaning of root. At first its the actual root, but then its actually the root of the sub-tree that's created by looking at the children.

This one is called a "pre-order" tree traversal, since we're looking at the what's in the nodes before moving on to the next one. (Note that "looking" is a loose term, you can actually do anything you want at this stage, like change values, etc.)

It really helps to look at the numbering of the nodes from the slides, and make sure you could do it yourself if asked.

Now we'll look at "post-order" it's exactly the same except that you visit the nodes AFTER the recursive call.

```
depthfirst(root){
  if (root is not empty){
     for each child{
       depthfirst(child);
     }
     visit root;
  }
}
```

The effect this has, is that you'll plunge to the very bottom of the list before visiting your first node, and the root will be the last one visited.

4.2 Iterative Depth First Traversal

Remember how recursion works using a call-stack? Well, seems like maybe we could use a stack then! Turns out you can!

```
stackTraverse(root){
  stack.push(root);
  while(stack not empty){
   current = stack.pop();
   visit current;
   for each child{
      stack.push(child)
     }
  }
}
```

So you can see its really the same as with recursion, since the call-stack IS a stack.

4.3 Notes on Depth-First

- You can't do a post-order traversal with a stack (try it)
- Using a stack has a slightly different order than with recursion
- Recursion goes left to right, while stack goes right to left.

- This might be something to keep in mind in situations where you want to specifically traverse in a particular order. (Post or pre? Stack or recursion?)

4.4 Breath-First Traversal

This is when you read the tree left to right, level by level (like a book). You can do this by using a queue instead of a stack! Check it out:

```
breadthfirst(root){
  queue.enqueue(root);
  while(queue not empty){
    current = queue.dequeue;
    visit current;
    for each child of current{
      queue.enqueue(child)
    }
  }
}
```

Notice this is the exact same as with the stack, but using a queue instead. This simply changes the order of what's being visited! I really recommend going through step by step with the slides and seeing how this happens.

It's also useful when looking at the order of what get's visited, to write out what the queue looks like at each step.

What about if the visit was after the for loop? Well, same as with the stack, nothing changes, since current is still the only thing dequeued.

5 Binary Trees

5.1 Basic Idea

Basically, as the name implies, a binary tree is a tree where each node has at most two children. It might have 0, 1, but at most 2.

How many nodes in a binary tree? Spell it out!

Level	Max Nodes
0	1
1	2
2	4
3	8
4	16

You can see now that we have the powers of 2 emerging!

$$\sum_{i=0}^{n} 2^i, \text{ where n is the number of levels}$$

This is a geometric series, and if you haven't memorized it already, DO IT. Seriously, it comes up over and over.

$$= \frac{2^{n+1}-1}{2-1}$$
$$= 2^{n+1}-1$$

This result makes sense, since we should have an odd number of nodes (because of the root).

Note that we also have a lower bound, since the height (if you remember from last section) is the number of nodes in the longest path -1. So the number of nodes in the longest path is the height +1. The least number of nodes we can have in a tree of height n is $n+1$, since each node must have exactly 1 child, since if it has 2 it's not the minimum, and if it has 0 then the height will be determined by that node.

If you're ever asked to find the height from the number of nodes, just rearrange this inequality:

$$n+1 \leq Nodes \leq 2^{n+1}-1$$

to

$$log_2(Nodes+1) \leq n \leq Nodes-1$$

5.2 Binary Tree Traversal

Tree traversal in binary trees is exactly the same as with general trees, but it's even simpler, since we know exactly how many children we might have. So we can do pre and post order as before, but with an added, third option.

Here's the old pre-and-post-order:

```
preorderBin(root){
  if root not null{
    visit root;
    preorderBin(leftChild);
    preorderBin(rightChild);
  }
}

postorderBin(root){
  if root not null{
    postorderBin(leftChild);
    postorderBin(rightChild);
    visit root;
  }
}
```

Now, the new, third option, since we know exactly how many children there are, is "in-order" traversal:

```
inOrder(root){
  if root not null{
    inOrder(leftChild);
    visit root;
    inOrder(rightChild);
  }
}
```

5.3 Expression Trees