

# 1 Recursion Complexity

| Substitution             | Recursion-Tree   |
|--------------------------|--|
| Guess Asymptotic         | Delete floors and ceils and suppose $n$ of a good form.  |
| Show Answer by Induction | Draw a tree, rooted with added term and recursive calls. |

**Theorem 1.0.1** (Master Theorem). *If we have recurrence equation  $T(n) = aT(n/b) + f(n)$  where  $a \geq 1, b > 1$  are integers,  $f(n)$  is asymptotically positive. Let  $r = \log_b a$ , we have :*

1. *If  $f(n) = \mathcal{O}(n^{r-\varepsilon})$  for some  $\varepsilon > 0$ , then  $T(n) = \Theta(n^r)$*
2. *If  $f(n) = \Theta(n^r)$  then  $T(n) = \Theta(n^r \log n)$*
3. *If  $f(n) = \Omega(n^{r+\varepsilon})$  for some  $\varepsilon > 0$ , and  $af(n/b) \leq cf(n)$  for some constant  $c < 1$  and all sufficiently large  $n$  (regularity condition) then  $T(n) = \Theta(f(n))$ .*

Applications to FFT : recursively evaluate polynomials on roots of unity.

## 2 Hashing

**Theorem 2.0.1** (Simple Uniform Hashing Assumption). *Assuming SUHA : "h equally distributes the keys into the table slots", and assuming  $h(x)$  can be computed in  $\mathcal{O}(1)$ ,  $E[T_{search}(n)] = \mathcal{O}(1 + \frac{n}{m})$ , and same for deletion time. Formally, SUHA is :*

$$\forall y \in [1, |T|] \mathbb{P}(h(x) = y) = \frac{1}{|T|}$$

$$\forall y_1, y_2 \in [1, |T|]^2 \mathbb{P}(h(x_1) = y_1, h(x_2) = y_2) = \frac{1}{|T|^2}$$

$H = \{h : U \rightarrow [0, |T| - 1]\}$  is Universal if :

$$\forall k_1 \neq k_2 \in U, |\{h \in H \mid h(k_1) = h(k_2)\}| \leq \frac{|H|}{m}$$

**Theorem 2.0.2.** *If  $h$  is a hash function chosen uniformly at random from a universal family of hash functions. Suppose that  $h(k)$  can be computed in constant time and there are at most  $n$  keys. Then the expected search time is  $\mathcal{O}(1 + \frac{n}{|T|})$*

**Theorem 2.0.3.** *Let  $p \in \mathcal{P}$  such that  $U \subseteq [0, p - 1]$ . Then*

$$H = \{h_{a,b}(k) = ((ak + b) \mod p) \mod |T| \mid a \in \mathbb{Z}_p^*, b \in \mathbb{Z}_p\}$$

*is a universal family.*

**Theorem 2.0.4.** *Cuckoo Hashing inserts in constant time, searches in constant time, only for static keys.*

## 3 Integer Sets

**Proposition 3.0.1** (RBTrees). *Red black tree use  $\mathcal{O}(n)$  space,  $\mathcal{O}(\log n)$  in time for insertion and deletion in the worst case.*

**Proposition 3.0.2** (Treaps). • *Time for a successful search :  $\mathcal{O}(\text{depth}(v))$  where  $\text{key}(v) = k$ .*

- *Time for an unsuccessful search :  $\mathcal{O}(\max(\text{depth}(v^-), \text{depth}(v^+)))$  where  $\text{key}(v^-)$  is the predecessor of the searched key.*

- *Insertion Time* :  $\mathcal{O}(\max(\text{depth}(v^-), \text{depth}(v^+)))$  where  $\text{key}(v^-)$  is the predecessor of the searched key.
- *Deletion Time* :  $\mathcal{O}(\text{tree depth})$
- *Split/Merge Time* : same as insertion / deletion

**Definition 3.0.1.** A decision tree for a sorting algorithm is a binary tree that shows the possible executions of an algorithm on a set.

**Proposition 3.0.3** (Van Emde Boas Trees). They maintain successor queries in  $\mathcal{O}(\log \log u)$ , updates in  $\mathcal{O}(\log u)$  in  $\Theta(u)$  space.

**Proposition 3.0.4** (y-fast trees). Predecessor queries are in  $\mathcal{O}(\log \log u)$  time, updates in  $\mathcal{O}(\log \log u)$  expected amortised time, since insertion into the x-fast trie happens only once per  $\Theta(\log u)$  new elements.

## 4 String Algorithms

**Proposition 4.0.1** (KMP). Suppose that we have computed  $B[1], \dots, B[k-1]$ . We will now compute  $B[k]$ .

By property 3, if  $P[k] = P[B[k-1] + 1]$ , then  $B[k] = B[k-1] + 1$ .

Else, if  $P[k] \neq P[B[k-1] + 1]$ , consider  $B^2[k-1] = B[B[k-1]]$ . If  $P[k] = P[B^2[k-1] + 1]$ , set  $B[k] = B^2[k-1] + 1$ , else consider  $B^3[k-1]$ , and so on.

This algorithm is correct and in  $\mathcal{O}(m)$ .

**Proposition 4.0.2** (Aho-Corasick). Aho-Corasick solves multiple pattern matching with space complexity  $\mathcal{O}(m)$  and time complexity  $\mathcal{O}(m + n)$  if no pattern is a substring of another else in  $\mathcal{O}(n + m + \#occ)$ .

**Proposition 4.0.3.** A suffix tree for a string of length  $n$  has  $n$  leaves, and at most  $2n - 1$  nodes and  $2n - 2$  edges. Storing the labels on the edges can take  $\Theta(|T|^2)$ . To save space we represent each label as two numbers, the left and the right endpoints in  $T$ .

**Theorem 4.0.1.** Pattern Matching queries are answered in  $\mathcal{O}(m + occ)$  using suffix trees that can be build in linear time.

## 5 Disjoint-Set

**Theorem 5.0.1.** Using linked-lists and the weighted-union strategy, doing  $m$  `make_set`, `union_set` and `find_set`,  $n$  of which are `union_set` takes  $\mathcal{O}(m + n \log n)$

**Theorem 5.0.2.** A sequence of  $m$  `make_set`, `union_set`, `find_set`, out of which  $n$  are `make_set` takes  $\mathcal{O}(m \alpha(n))$  time. In other words, one operation takes  $\mathcal{O}(\alpha(n))$  amortised time.

## 6 Graphs

**Theorem 6.0.1** (White-path Theorem). In a DFS forest of a digraph, a vertex  $v$  is a descendant of a vertex  $u$  if and only if at time  $u.d$ , there is a  $(u, v)$ -path made of undiscovered vertices.

**Proposition 6.0.1.**  $G^{SCC}$  is a DAG and is computed by Kosaraju's two pass algoritim in linear time.

**Proposition 6.0.2** (Cut and Paste Technic). Let  $G = (V, E)$  and let  $T$  be a spanning tree of  $G$ . Let  $uv \in E(G) - T$  and let  $T_{uv}$  be the unique path linking  $u$  and  $v$  in  $T$ . Then for every edge  $xy$  of  $T_{uv}$   $T \setminus \{xy\} \cup \{uv\}$  is a spanning tree of  $T$ .

**Theorem 6.0.2.** *Kruskal returns the MST in  $\mathcal{O}(m \log n)$ . Prim returns the MST in  $\mathcal{O}(m+n \log n)$  with Fibo Heap and  $\mathcal{O}(m \log n)$  with a min-heap.*

**Theorem 6.0.3** (Rado-Edmonds). *The greedy algorithm for a problem is optimal for any weight function if and only if  $(E, \mathcal{I})$  is a matroid.*

## 7 Parametrized Complexity

**Definition 7.0.1.** *A parametrized algorithmic problem is a problem where a certain parameter  $k$  is given in addition to the input. The complexity is studied as a function of  $n$  and  $k$ .*

**Definition 7.0.2.** • *A parametrized problem is Fixed-Parameter Tractable if there is an algorithm deciding  $\mathcal{P}$  in time  $f(k)n^c$  where  $f$  is computable and  $c$  is constant.*

- *A parametrized problem  $\mathcal{P}$  is XP if there is an algorithm deciding  $\mathcal{P}$  in time  $n^{f(k)}$  for some computable  $f$  and constant  $c$ .*

**Definition 7.0.3.** *The main idea of the branching method is to reduce the problem to solving a bounded number of problems with parameter  $k' < k$ .*

**Definition 7.0.4.** *Let  $\mathcal{P}$  be a parametrized problem and  $f$  a computable function. A kernel of size  $f(k)$  is an algorithm that, given  $(x, k)$ , runs in polynomial-time in  $|x| + k$  and outputs an instance  $x', k'$  such that :*

- $x, k \in \mathcal{P} \Leftrightarrow x', k' \in \mathcal{P}$
- $|x'| \leq f(k)$  and  $k' \leq k$ .

*We say the kernel is polynomial if  $f$  is polynomial.*

**Theorem 7.0.1.** *A parametrized problem is FPT if and only if it is decidable and has a kernel.*

## 8 Approximation Algorithm

**Definition 8.0.1.** *An algorithm has an approximation ratio of  $\rho(n)$  if for any input of size  $n$  the cost  $ALG$  of the solution produced by the algorithm is with a factor of  $\rho(n)$  of the cost  $OPT$  of an optimal solution :*

$$1 \leq \max \left( \frac{OPT}{ALG}, \frac{ALG}{OPT} \right) \leq \rho(n)$$

## 9 Linear Programming

**Definition 9.0.1.** *A linear program is made of  $n$  decision variables  $x_1, \dots, x_n \in \mathbb{R}$ ,  $m$  linear constraints*

$$\sum_{j=1}^n a_{ij} \star b_i$$

*where  $\star \in \{\leq, \geq, =\}$ ; and a function we want to maximise.*

The set of points  $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$  at which a constraint holds with equality is a hyperplane. Thus, each constraint is satisfied by a closed half-space of  $\mathbb{R}^n$ , and the set of feasible solution is the intersection of  $m$  closed half-spaces, that is, a convex polyhedron  $P$ . A linear program can have no optimal solution :

- if the set of feasible solution is empty
- if for every integer  $M$ , there exists a feasible point  $x$  such that  $c \cdot x \geq M$ . In this case the set of feasible solution is unbounded.