

Master Theorem:

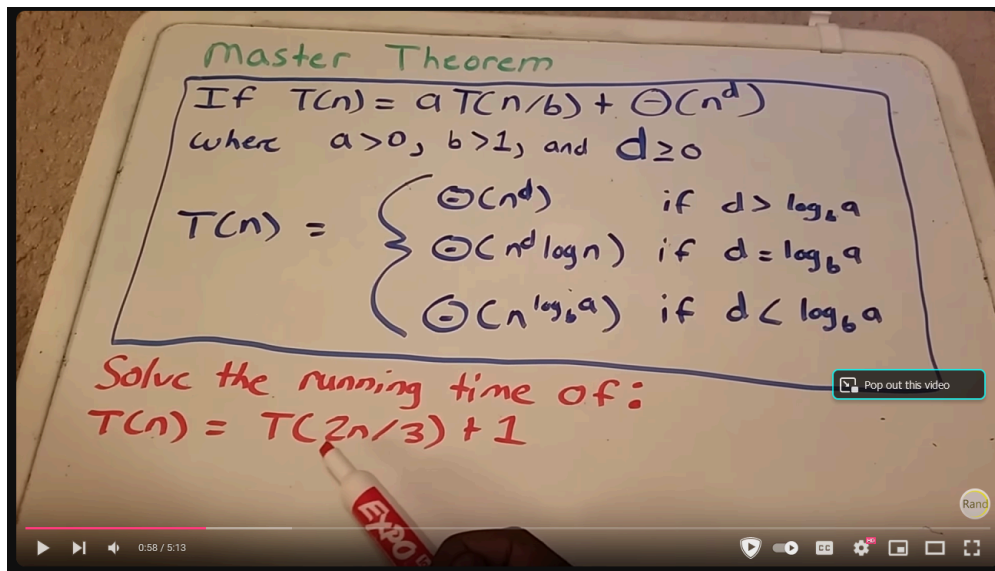
Master theorem for “decreasing” functions

For the recurrence relation

$$T(N) = aT(N/b) + f(n)$$

where

- $a, b > 0$, $f(n) = O(N^k)$ and $k \geq 0$, and
- 1. If $a < 1$ then $T(n) = O(n^k)$ or $O(f(n))$
- 2. If $a = 1$ then $T(n) = O(n^{k+1})$ or $O(n * f(n))$
- 3. if $a > 1$ then $T(n) = O(n^k a^{n/b})$



Functions to Recurrence Relation:

- $T(n)$ = name of function such as **someFunc(n)**
- **C1, c2, etc.** = simple lines of code like print, comparison, etc.
- $T(n-1)$, $T(n/2)$, $T(n/4)$ = recursive calls in code like **someFunc(n-1)**, **someFunc(n/2)**, **someFunc(n/4)**
- $(n+1)$ = for loops definition
- **N** = statements inside for loops since it's linear

Sorting Algorithms:

Average Time Complexities:

- Insertion Sort - $O(n^2)$

- Merge Sort - $O(n \log n)$
- Quick Sort - $O(n \log n)$
- Heap Sort - $O(n \log n)$

Insertion Sort:

Pseudocode:

```

INSERTION-SORT( $A, n$ )
1  for  $i = 1$  to  $n$ 
2       $key = A[i]$ 
3      // Insert  $A[i]$  into the sorted subarray  $A[1 : i - 1]$ .
4       $j = i - 1$ 
5      while  $j \geq 0$  and  $A[j] > key$ 
6           $A[j + 1] = A[j]$ 
7           $j = j - 1$ 
8       $A[j + 1] = key$ 

```

Time/Space Complexity:

Time: $O(n^2)$

Space: $O(1)$

Mergesort:

Pseudocode:

Mergesort: The Algorithm

```
mergeSort(arr[], l, r)
```

If $l < r$:

```
mid = (l + r) / 2
```

Break array in half

```
mergeSort(arr, l, mid)
```

mergeSort left half

```
mergeSort(arr, mid + 1, r)
```

mergeSort right half

```
merge(arr, l, mid, r)
```

Merge results

The Merge operation

Now we can talk about pseudocode

```
Merge (A, B, m, n) {  
    i, j, k = 0  
    while (i <= m && j <= n) {  
        if (A[i] < B[j]) { C[k++] = A[i++] }  
        else { C[k++] = B[j++] }  
    }... [continued]
```

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Time/Space Complexity:
 Time: $\Theta(n \log n)$ for best, average, worst
 Space: $\Theta(N)$ which is $m+n$ elements (can be thought of as $m=n=N$)

sort:
 Pseudocode:

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sort:
 Pseudocode:

Quicksort:
Pseudocode:

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Pseudocode:

Quicksort: The Algorithm

```
quickSort(arr[], l, r)
    if l < r:
        pivot = partition(A, l, r)
        quickSort(arr l, pivot_index - 1)
        quickSort(arr, pivot_index + 1, r)
```

Break array in half
quickSort left half
quickSort right half
[No need to *Merge* results]

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The Partition operation

```
partition(A, l, r)
```

```
    pivot = A[r], i = l - 1
```

Set pivot as rightmost elem

```
    for j from l to r - 1:
```

Scan from left to right

```
        if A[j] <= pivot:
```

Compare and swap
values

```
            i = i + 1
```

```
            swap A[i] with A[j]
```

```
swap A[i + 1] with A[r]
```

Swap pivot to its proper
position.

```
return i + 1
```

Time/Space Complexity:

Time: $\Theta(n \log n)$ - best, $\Theta(n \log n)$ - average, $\Theta(n^2)$ - worst

Space: $\Theta(1)$ - worst

Things to know:

- Quicksort is UNSTABLE

Heap sort:

Time/Space Complexity:

Time: $\Theta(n \log n)$ -> $\Theta(n)$ for buildHeap, $\Theta(\log n)$ for delete

Space: $\Theta(1)$ -> in-place algorithm

Things to know:

- It's an in-place algorithm (doesn't need extra space like mergesort)
- It's UNSTABLE (equivalent elements may be swapped)
- Slower than quicksort in practice

Counting Sort:

Time/Space Complexity:

Time: $\Theta(n + k)$

Space: $\Theta(n + k)$

Radix Sort:

Time/Space Complexity:

Time: $\Theta(n \cdot d)$

Space: $\Theta(n + k)$

Bucket Sort:

Time/Space Complexity:

Time: $\Theta(n^2)$

Space: $\Theta(n + k)$

Hashmaps:

Hash Collisions:

- Linear probing
 - Traverse linearly, put element in next empty space
 - Let's say C also hashes to index 2
 - It will put element into next empty space
- Quadratic Probing
 - Quadratic Probing is similar, but we increment faster if we keep running into collisions.
 - If the slot $\text{hash}(x)$ is full, then we try $\text{hash}(x) + 1^2$
 - If $\text{hash}(x) + 1^2$ is also full, then we try $\text{hash}(x) + 2^2$
 - If $\text{hash}(x) + 2^2$ is also full, then we try $\text{hash}(x) + 3^2$
 - Rinse and repeat until you find an empty spot
- Separate Chaining
 - Uses additional data structures to allow for multiple values at the same index. E.g. linked lists
- Double Hashing
 - Uses a second hash function to reduce the chance of a collision happening

Time/Space Complexity:

Time: $\Theta(1)$ for inserting, deleting, and referencing

Space: $\Theta(N)$

Trees:

Binary Search Trees:

Time/Space Complexity:

Operation	Best	Average	Worst
Search	$\Theta(1)$	$\Theta(\log n)$	$\Theta(n)$
Insert	$\Theta(1)$	$\Theta(\log n)$	$\Theta(n)$
Delete	$\Theta(1)$	$\Theta(\log n)$	$\Theta(n)$

Worst case happen in skewed BSTs

Red-Black Trees:

Properties:

- Every node is either red or black
- Root is black
- NIL nodes are black
- Red node doesn't have red child
- Every path from given node to any of its descendant NIL nodes goes through same number of black nodes

Applications:

- Completely fair scheduler - process scheduler for linux kernel
- Handling hash collisions in Java (separate chaining)
- Speeding up other algorithms

Time/Space Complexity:

Time: $\Theta(\log n)$ worst case for all operations

Graph Algorithms:

Graph Representation:

Adjacency Matrices:

- Use more memory $\Theta(n^2)$
- Fast lookup and checks for presence of edges $O(1)$
- Slow to iterate over all edges
- Slow to add/delete a node $O(n^2)$
- Fast to add a new edge $O(1)$

Adjacency List:

- Memory usage depends more on number of edges, not nodes
- Helps when graph is **sparse**
- Slow lookup and checks for presence of edges $O(k)$ (k = num of neighbor nodes)
- Faster to iterate all over edges
- Also fast to add/delete a node
- Fast to add new edge $O(1)$

When to use what:

- Use adjacency lists when expecting a sparse graph, or when you need fast lookup for neighbors of a vertex. Most real life situations will generate sparse graphs
- Use adjacency matrices when expecting a dense graph, or when you need fast lookup for edges
- Rule of thumb: If density (edges/nodes²) goes over 1/64 (for 32-bit computers), use adjacency matrix

BFS/DFS:

Data structures:

- BFS uses queue
- DFS uses stack

Pseudocode (BFS):

- Create queue
- Mark vertex as visited and put into queue
- While queue is not empty
 - Remove u (front) of queue
 - Mark and enqueue neighbors of u

Pseudocode (DFS):

- Create stack
- Push vertex v into stack
- Mark vertex v as visited
- While stack is not empty
 - Pop vertex v stack
 - For all neighbors of v
 - If neighbor u is not visited
 - Mark u as visited
 - Push u into stack

Time/Space Complexity:

Time: **$O(V+E)$** for best, average, worst case for both

Space: **$O(V)$** for both

Topological Sort (Khan's Algorithm):

Pseudocode:

- Add all nodes with in-degree 0 to queue
- While queue is not empty:
 - Remove node from queue
 - For each outgoing edge from node, decrement in-degree of the destination node by 1
 - If the in-degree of a destination node becomes 0, add it to the queue

Other things to know:

- Only works on DAG
- Topological sort can be implemented using DFS and BFS
- Intuition for both:
 - Traverse graph to find two types of nodes:
 - Nodes with no outgoing edges go last

- Nodes with no incoming edges go first

Time/Space Complexity:

Time: $O(V+E)$

Space: $O(V)$ for queue/stack

MST Algorithms:

Prim's Algorithm:

How to run:

- Add starting vertex v to visited list
- Examine all neighbors of v
- Pick cheapest cost that connects to an unvisited node
- Add that node to visited list
- From visited node(s), repeat step 3-5

Pseudocode:

- Pick starting vertex
- Create queue
- Create visited boolean array
- While queue is not empty
 - Explore neighboring vertices
 - Pick cheapest cost and mark as visited
 - Repeat as long as it doesn't create a cycle

Time/Space Complexity:

Time: $O(V^2)$ for adj. matrix, $O(V \log V + E \log V)$ for adj. list

Kruskal's Algorithm:

How to run:

- Pick smallest edge
- Repeatedly look for smallest edge that doesn't create a cycle

Pseudocode:

- Create empty set to store mst
- Create priority queue and add starting vertex with key 0
- While PQ is not empty:
 - Extract vertex u with minimum key from PQ.
 - Add u to set.
 - For each neighbor v of u :
 - If v is not in S and $\text{weight}(u, v) < \text{key}(v)$:
 - Update $\text{key}(v)$ with $\text{weight}(u, v)$.
 - Update $\text{parent}(v)$ with u .
- Return set.

Time/Space Complexity:
Time: $O(E \log E)$

Other notes:

Data Structures:

- Prim's uses **lists and heaps**
- Kruskal's uses **disjoint sets**
 - A list of disjoint sets
 - Uses union-find

Applications:

- Constructing trees for broadcasting in computer networks
 - On ethernet networks: spanning tree protocol
- Curvilinear feature extraction in computer vision
- Cluster analysis:
 - Clustering points in the plane (K means)
 - Graph-theoretic clustering (social networks)
 - Clustering gene expression data

Shortest Path Algorithms:

Intuition:

- 3 algorithms to find shortest path and what they work on
 - **BFS** - designed for unweighted graphs, can be modified (use heap instead of queue)
 - **DFS** - may take longer to complete in case of cycles
 - **Topological Sort** - only works on DAGs

Dijkstra's Algorithm:

Pseudocode:

- For each vertex in graph
 - Set distance to infinity
 - Set previous to undefined
- Set distance of starting vertex to 0
- While queue is not empty
 - Remove vertex u with smallest distance
 - For each neighbor v of u
 - Relax edges

Time/Space Complexity:

Time: $\Theta(V^2)$ for array implementation (Improves to $\Theta(E + V \log V)$ if we use fibonacci heap which is fastest sssp algorithm known today)
Space: $O(V)$ in both cases

Other things to know:

- Doing updates is unnecessary work. We can make more intelligent choices by comparing edges in terms of (edge weight + shortest distance to get to that edge) instead of just edge weight.
- Dijkstra's will fail if there is a negative weight! Fix for this is actually a simple modification!

Bellman-Ford:

Pseudocode:

```
BELLMAN-FORD( $G, w, s$ )  
1 INITIALIZE-SINGLE-SOURCE( $G, s$ )  
2 for  $i = 1$  to  $|G.V| - 1$   
3   for each edge  $(u, v) \in G.E$   
4     RELAX( $u, v, w$ )  
5 for each edge  $(u, v) \in G.E$   
6   if  $v.d > u.d + w(u, v)$   
7     return FALSE  
8 return TRUE
```

- Initialize graph like dijkstra
- For $i = 1$ to $v-1$
 - Relax edges
- Check for negative cycles

Time/Space Complexity:

Time: **$O(E)$** - Best, **$O(V \cdot E)$** - average, worst

Space: **$O(V)$**

What it is:

- Essentially Dijkstra's algorithm but is fixed for negative weights
- Basic idea is that the longest path in a graph is $V-1$ length
- If you are looking at a path length of V or more, during iteration, some cycle is present in your graph
- All we need to do is systematically look through our graph $V-q$ times and update the shortest path that many times.

A*:

What it is:

- The general case of Dijkstra's algorithm
- Basic idea is instead of just looking at edge weights, we add a heuristic function value to each edge weight
- Algorithm is essentially:
 - Calculate/approximate the heuristic

- Do Dijkstra's with heuristics applied to weights

Heuristic:

- Heuristic is like hash functions, it could be anything
- Examples:
 - Euclidean distance
 - Manhattan distance
 - Arbitrary coin flip
 - Traffic on a road
- They are expensive to compute/store for large graphs, so we approximate for A*
- Quality of heuristic defines how quickly you descend on the right results

Applications:

- Dijkstra and A* is what Google Maps uses
- They are used in:
 - All of graph-based ML
 - Quant trading
 - Social network analysis
 - Pathfinding in video games
 - City planning
 - And many more!

Floyd-Warshall Algorithm:

Pseudocode:

Floyd-Warshall Algorithm Pseudocode

dist is a $|V| \times |V|$ array of minimum distances initialized to ∞ or nil

```

1. for each edge (u, v) do
2.   dist[u][v] ← w(u, v) // The weight of the edge (u, v)
3. for each vertex v do
4.   dist[v][v] ← 0
5. for k from 1 to |V|
6.   for i from 1 to |V|
7.     for j from 1 to |V|
8.       if dist[i][j] > dist[i][k] + dist[k][j]
9.         dist[i][j] ← dist[i][k] + dist[k][j]

```

The "heart" of the algorithm

- N = num of vertices
- A = matrix
- For k = 1 to n
 - For i = 1 to n
 - For j = 1 to n
 - Distance[i][j] = min(distance[i][j], distance[i][k] + distance[k][j])

Time/Space Complexity:

Time: $\Theta(n^3)$

Space: $O(V^2)$

Other notes:

- Algorithm is best suited for dense graphs
- Exhaustive search

Johnson's Algorithm:

What it is:

- Makes use of Dijkstra's and Bellman-Ford
 - Run Bellman-Ford on graph and do a transformation to remove negative edges
 - Run Dijkstra's for every vertex on the resultant graph
- Faster than Floyd-Warshall for sparse graphs

Dynamic Programming:

Intuition:

- Fibonacci normally implemented using recursion time complexity is $O(2^n)$ and space complexity is $O(1)$
- We can improve time complexity by using space to store previously known results which is a tradeoff (but is worth it)
- Now it would be $O(n)$ time and $O(n)$ space complexity
- Not an algorithm, but a paradigm (way of thinking)
- Basic idea is that the problem can be divided into subproblems but unlike divide and conquer, the problems overlap
- Overlapping subproblems is the first property that hints that we can use dynamic programming to solve a particular problem.
- When in doubt, always think about whether we are repeating unnecessary work, to determine whether we can use DP for a problem.

Memoization:

- Memoization makes subsequent runs of the function/algorithm much, much faster.
 - If we know $\text{fib}(4)$, then $\text{fib}(4)$ or $\text{fib}(3)$ becomes an $O(1)$ lookup since we already computed it in a previous run
- Another cool thing about memoization is that it's guaranteed to use just enough memory to get to the required result
 - We didn't calculate $\text{fib}(6)$ because we didn't need to, for $\text{fib}(4)$

Tabulation:

- More work to do since we may end up doing more work than needed to arrive at the optimal solution
- But the hope is that if we solve each subproblem optimally, we arrive at an optimal solution
- Optimal substructure is actually the 2nd property we need to do problems in DP (also helps with greedy algorithms)
- Ideally, we should always use memoization but sometimes tabulation can't be avoided.

P and NP:

Every problem (sorting, searching, tree traversal, topological sort, MST, etc.) we've looked at so far has been solvable algorithmically, in polynomial time. This is formally called **P** or **P-class** problems/algorithms

Sudoku 3x3 is easy to brute force/solve, 9x9 takes longer, and so on.

Verifying the correctness of these is always fast. These problems are called NP (nondeterministic-polynomial)

If $P = NP$, then every problem can pretty much be solved

If $P \neq NP$, then we will know for sure that some problems are hard to solve

"Algorithmica" - $P = NP$, every problem has a nice algorithm

"Heuristica" - $P \neq NP$, but most hard problems are tractable

"Cryptomania" - $P \neq NP$, most problems are too hard