

1. Algorithms

Algorithms are sequences of instructions to solve problems.

Runtime analysis for $T(n)$ is usually done for worst-case (maximum time for any input) or average-case (expected time over all inputs)

Correctness Proofs

Iterative Algorithms:

- Loop Invariant: define I for every call or loop.
- Initialization: show I holds before first iteration.
- Maintenance: assuming I true at start, show I holds true at start of next iteration.
- Termination: show when the loop exits, I together with the exit condition implies correctness.

Recursive Algorithms:

- Base Case: show algorithm is correct for base cases
- Inductive Step: assuming correctness for input smaller than n , show algorithm is correct for any input of size n

Mathematical Properties

Logarithm Rules:

- $a = b^{\log_b a}$ (Inverse)
- $\log(ab) = \log a + \log b$ (Product)
- $\log(\frac{a}{b}) = \log a - \log b$, $\log(\frac{1}{a}) = -\log a$ (Quotient)
- $\log_b a = \frac{\log_c a}{\log_c b}$, $\log_b a = \frac{1}{\log_a b}$ (Change of Base)
- $\log(a^k) = k \log a$ (Power)

Exponential Rules:

- $a^m a^n = a^{m+n}$ (Product)
- $\frac{a^m}{a^n} = a^{m-n}$ (Quotient)
- $(a^m)^n = a^{mn} = (a^n)^m$ (Power)

2. Asymptotic Analysis

Asymptotic bounds for functions $f(n), g(n)$:

- $f(n) \in O(g(n)) \iff f(n) \leq cg(n)$,
where $\exists c, n_0, \forall n \geq n_0$ (Upper)
- $f(n) \in \Omega(g(n)) \iff f(n) \geq cg(n)$,
where $\exists c, n_0, \forall n \geq n_0$ (Lower)
- $f(n) \in \Theta(g(n)) \iff c_1 g(n) \leq f(n) \leq c_2 g(n)$,
where $\exists c_1, c_2, n_0, \forall n \geq n_0$ (Tight)
- $f(n) \in o(g(n)) \iff f(n) < cg(n)$,
where $\forall c > 0, \exists n_0, \forall n \geq n_0$ (Strict Upper)
- $f(n) \in \omega(g(n)) \iff f(n) > cg(n)$,
where $\forall c > 0, \exists n_0, \forall n \geq n_0$ (Strict Lower)

Limits assuming $f(n), g(n) > 0$:

- $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{f(n)}{g(n)} < \infty \implies f(n) \in O(g(n))$
- $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{f(n)}{g(n)} > 0 \implies f(n) \in \Omega(g(n))$
- $0 < \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{f(n)}{g(n)} < \infty \implies f(n) \in \Theta(g(n))$
- $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{f(n)}{g(n)} = 0 \implies f(n) \in o(g(n))$
- $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{f(n)}{g(n)} = \infty \implies f(n) \in \omega(g(n))$

Properties:

- Transitivity - for $O, \Omega, \Theta, o, \omega$:
• $f(n) = O(g(n)) \wedge g(n) = O(h(n)) \implies f(n) = O(h(n))$
- Reflexivity - for O, Ω, Θ :
• $f(n) = O(f(n))$
- Symmetry - for Θ :
• $f(n) = \Theta(g(n)) \iff g(n) = \Theta(f(n))$
- Complementarity - for O, Ω, o, ω :
• $f(n) = O(g(n)) \iff g(n) = \Omega(f(n))$
• $f(n) = o(g(n)) \iff g(n) = \omega(f(n))$

Order of growth is:

$$O(1) < O(\frac{1}{k}^n) < O(\log \log n) < O(\log n) < O(\log^k n) < O(n^{\frac{1}{k}}) < O(n) < O(n \log n) < O(n^k) < O(k^n) < O(n!)$$

3. Divide & Conquer

Divide & Conquer involves:

- Divide: split problem into smaller subproblems
- Conquer: solve subproblems recursively
- Combine: merge subresults to form a total solution

Problems

MergeSort divides the array into halves, recursively sorts each half, and merges the sorted halves.

- Locally sorted prefix in power of 2
- $T(n) = 2T(n/2) + \Theta(n) = \Theta(n \log n)$
- Out-of-place and stable

Exponentiation by squaring computes x^n .

If n even: compute $(x^{n/2})^2$; if n odd: return $x \cdot (x^{\lfloor n/2 \rfloor})^2$.

- $T(n) = T(\lfloor n/2 \rfloor) + \Theta(1) = \Theta(\log n)$.

Fibonacci finds $F(n)$ uses $F(2k) = F(k)(2F(k+1) - F(k))$ and $F(2k+1) = F(k+1)^2 + F(k)^2$:

- $T(n) = T(\lfloor n/2 \rfloor) + \Theta(1) = \Theta(\log n)$
- Naïve: $T(n) = T(n-1) + T(n-2) + \Theta(1) = \Theta(\varphi^n)$
- Stair Climbing: $G(n) = F(n+1)$

Matrix Multiplication partitions input A, B into quadrants of size $n/2$ and recombine via 8 submatrix products and 4 additions into C :

- $T(n) = 8T(n/2) + \Theta(n^2) = \Theta(n^3)$
- Pad non-square input matrices with zeroes

Strassen's Algorithm computes 7 block products of input A, B and recombines via linear combinations to form C :

- $T(n) = 7T(n/2) + \Theta(n^2) = \Theta(n^{\log 7}) \approx \Theta(n^{2.807})$.

4. Recurrences

Common recurrences:

- i. $T(n) = T(n/2) + O(1) = O(\log n)$
- ii. $T(n) = T(n/2) + O(n) = O(n)$
- iii. $T(n) = 2T(n/2) + O(1) = O(n)$
- iv. $T(n) = 2T(n/2) + O(n) = O(n \log n)$
- v. $T(n) = T(n-1) + O(1) = O(n)$
- vi. $T(n) = T(n-1) + O(n) = O(n^2)$
- vii. $T(n) = 2T(n-1) + O(1) = O(2^n)$

Telescoping Method

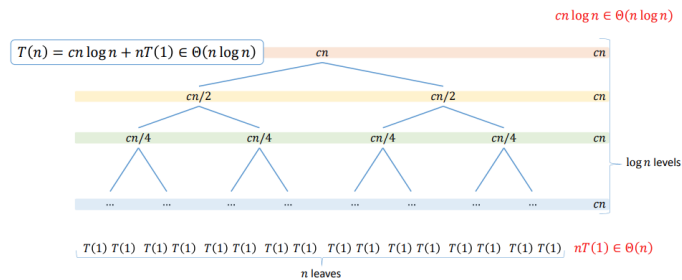
Given recurrence $T(n) = aT(\frac{n}{b}) + f(n)$, divide expression to get $\frac{T(n)}{g(n)} = \frac{T(n/b)}{g(n/b)} + \frac{f(n)}{g(n)}$

- i. Cancel out common terms to solve for $T(n)$

Recursion Tree

Given recurrence, draw recurrence tree:

- i. Total = depth \times work done per level



Master Theorem

Dividing function $T(n) = aT(n/b) + f(n)$ where $a > 1, b > 1$ has cases:

- i. $f(n) \in O(n^{d-\varepsilon}) \implies T(n) = \Theta(n^{\log_b a})$
- ii. $f(n) \in \Theta(n^d \log^p n)$
 - $\wedge p > -1 \implies T(n) = \Theta(n^k \log^{p+1} n)$
 - $\wedge p = -1 \implies T(n) = \Theta(n^k \log \log n)$
 - $\wedge p < -1 \implies T(n) = \Theta(n^k)$
- iii. $f(n) \in \Omega(n^{d+\varepsilon}) \wedge af(n/b) \leq cf(n)$, for $c < 1$
 $\implies T(n) = \Theta(f(n))$

Decreasing function $T(n) = aT(n - b) + f(n)$ where $a > 0, b > 0$ has cases:

- i. $a < 1 \implies T(n) = O(f(n))$
- ii. $a = 1 \implies T(n) = O(n \cdot f(n))$
- iii. $a > 1 \implies T(n) = O(a^{n/b} \cdot f(n))$

Substitution Method

Guess $T(n) = O(f(n))$ and verify by induction:

- i. Choose values of $c > 0, n_0$ from recurrence
- ii. Base case: verify $T(n_0) \leq cf(n)$
- iii. Inductive step: assuming $T(k) \leq cf(k)$ for $n > k \geq n_0$, prove $T(n) \leq cf(n)$ by subbing $T(k)$

Example

Prove $T(n) = 4T(n/2) + n \in O(n^2)$:

1. Induction hypothesis: $T(n) \leq (c+1)n^2 - n$
2. Base case: If $n = 1, T(n) = c \leq (c+1)n^2 - n$
3. Inductive step:
 - 3.1. By strong induction, assume
 $T(k) \leq (c+1)k^2 - k$ for all $n > k \geq 1$
 - 3.2. $T(n) = 4T(n/2) + n$
 - 3.3. $\leq 4(c+1)(n/2)^2 - 4(n/2) + n$
 - 3.4. $= (c+1)n^2 - n$
4. $\therefore T(n) \in O(n^2)$

5. Probabilistic Analysis

Average-case runtime $A(n)$ is the expected running time over the distribution of possible inputs (uniformly over $n!$ permutations for a uniform random permutation).

QuickSort rearranges the array by \leq and $>$ a chosen pivot in $\Theta(n)$, then recurses on both partitions.

- i. Elements before pivot are \leq , after pivot are $>$
- ii. $T(n) = T(j-1) + T(n-j) + \Theta(n)$,
where pivot is j^{th} smallest element.
- iii. Worst: $T(n) = T(0) + T(n-1) + cn = \Theta(n^2)$,
when $j = 1 \vee j = n$
- iv. Average: $A(n) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{j=1}^n [A(j-1) + A(n-j) + cn]$
 $= cn + \frac{2}{n} \sum_{j=0}^{n-1} A(j) = O(n \log n)$ (by telescoping)
- v. In-place but unstable

6. Randomized Algorithms

Randomized algorithms are dependent on random bits:

- i. Las Vegas: always correct, running time is random
- ii. Monte Carlo: may be wrong, running time is finite

Tools

Union Bound can upper bound probability that bad event $\varepsilon = \varepsilon_1 \cup \dots \cup \varepsilon_n$ occurs: $\Pr[\varepsilon] \leq \Pr[\varepsilon_1] + \dots + \Pr[\varepsilon_n]$

$$\text{i. } \therefore \Pr[\varepsilon_i] \leq \frac{f}{n}, \forall i \in [n] \implies \Pr[\varepsilon] \leq f$$

Markov Inequality can turn a Las Vegas into Monte Carlo:
 $X \geq 0 \wedge a > 0 \Rightarrow \Pr[X \geq a\mathbb{E}[X]] \leq \frac{1}{a}$

Indicator Random Variable $\mathbf{1}_\varepsilon$ is a binary RV for event ε :

- i. $\mathbb{E}[\mathbf{1}_\varepsilon] = \Pr(\varepsilon)$

Linearity of Expectation: $\mathbb{E}[A + B] = \mathbb{E}[A] + \mathbb{E}[B]$

Problems

Randomized QuickSort chooses a random pivot:

- Average: $A(n) = \mathbb{E}[T(n)] = O(n \log n)$ (LoE)

Approximate Median is a pivot selection algorithm. Pick a random pivot with probability $\geq \frac{1}{2}$ to be an approximate median of rank $[\frac{n}{4}, \frac{3n}{4}]$, repeating k times for boosting.

- $A(n) = O(n)$ (QuickSelect)
- Error Rate: 2^{-k} , less than $\frac{1}{n^2}$ if $k = 1 + 10 \log n$

Freivalds' Algorithm verifies if matrices $AB = C$ by picking random bit vector \vec{r} and check if $AB\vec{r} - C\vec{r} = \vec{0}$, repeating k times with accepting if all successes:

- $A(n) = O(kn^2)$ (3 matrix-vector multiplications)
- Error Rate: 2^{-k} when $AB \neq C$

```
FREIVALDS(A, B, C, k)
n = rows(A)
for i = 1 to k
    r = RANDOM-01-VECTOR(n)
    ABr = DOT(A, DOT(B, r))
    Cr = DOT(C, r)
    if ABr != Cr then
        return FALSE
return TRUE
```

Balls-and-Bins deals with placing m balls into n bins:

- For a fixed bin, $\Pr[\text{empty}] = (1 - \frac{1}{n})^m \leq e^{-m/n}$ (using $1 + x \leq e^x$)
- $\Pr[\exists \text{ empty bin}] \leq n e^{-m/n}$ (union bound)
- Taking $m \geq 2n \ln n$ makes $\Pr[\exists \text{ empty bin}] \leq \frac{1}{n}$. (so all bins nonempty with probability $\geq 1 - \frac{1}{n}$).

7. Dynamic Programming (DP)

Dynamic Programming involves:

- Divide: split problem into smaller overlapping subproblems
- Conquer: solve subproblems recursively with memoization/bottom-up approach
- Combine: merge subresults to form a total solution
- Optimal Substructure: optimal solution can be constructed from optimal solutions of subproblems
 - Cut-and-paste Proof: Suppose not, i.e. exists "optimal" solution S with suboptimal subsolution S' , if replacement by optimal subsolution S'_{opt} strictly improves solution to $S_{opt} \rightarrow$ contradicts optimality of S , justifying optimal substructure.

Problems

Longest Common Subsequence (LCS) of $A[i:j]$ and $B[j:]$:

- $LCS(i, j) = \begin{cases} 0, & i = 0 \vee j = 0 \\ LCS(i-1, j-1) + 1, & A[i] = B[j] \\ \max\{LCS(i-1, j), LCS(i, j-1)\}, & A[i] \neq B[j] \end{cases}$
- $T(n) = \Theta(nm)$
- Longest Palindromic Subsequence (LPS) in $A[i:j]$ is just LCS of A and $B = \text{reversed}(A)$

```
LCS(A, B)
m = |A|
n = |B|
alloc 2D array L[0..m][0..n] = 0
for i = 1 to m
    for j = 1 to n
        if A[i] = B[j] then
            L[i][j] = L[i-1][j-1] + 1
        else
            L[i][j] = max(L[i-1][j], L[i][j-1])
return L[m][n]
```

Knapsack finds maximum value v achievable given items $[i]$ with (v_i, w_i) and maximum weight W :

- $dp(i, j) = \begin{cases} 0, & i = 0 \vee j = 0 \\ \max\{dp(i-1, j), dp(i-1, j-w_i) + v_i\}, & w_i \leq j \\ dp(i-1, j), & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$
- $T(n) = \Theta(nW)$
- If item counts are unbounded, loop through items $dp(j) = \max_{i: w_i \leq j} \{dp(j - w_i) + v_i\}$

```
KNAPSACK-01(v, w, W)
n = |v|
alloc table DP[0..n][0..W] = 0
for i = 1 to n
    for j = 0 to W
        if w[i] <= j then
            DP[i][j] = max(DP[i-1][j],
                           DP[i-1][j-w[i]] + v[i])
        else
            DP[i][j] = DP[i-1][j]
return DP[n][W]
```

Coin Change finds fewest coins to make n using k coins d_i :

- $dp(n) = \begin{cases} 0, & n = 0 \\ 1 + \min_{i \in [k]} \{dp(j - d_i)\} \end{cases}$
- $T(n) = O(nk)$

```
COIN-CHANGE(D, N)
alloc array C[0..N] = INFINITY
C[0] = 0
for v = 1 to N
    for coin in D
        if coin <= v
            C[v] = min(C[v], C[v-coin] + 1)
return C[N]
```

8. Greedy Algorithms

Greedy algorithms solve only one subproblem at each step, a locally optimal choice hoping it's globally optimal. It outperforms DP, and D&C when it works. It involves:

- Optimal Substructure
- Greedy Choice Property: a locally optimal choice must be globally optimal
 - Exchange Argument: Suppose exists optimal solution S , if exchange of local choice before reduction with greedy choice does not hurt optimality, new solution S_{opt} stays optimal, justifying greedy choice.

Problems

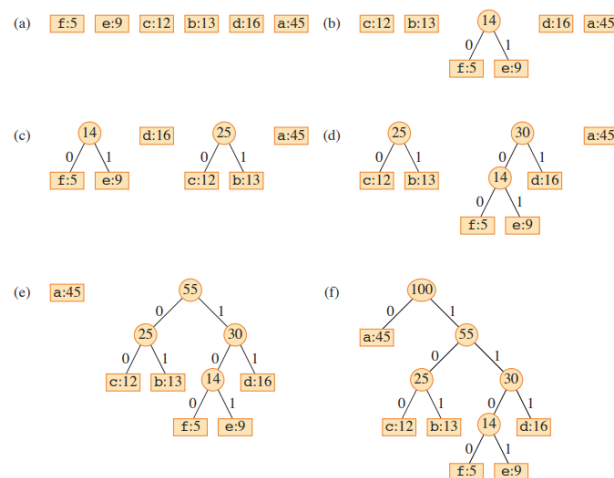
Fractional Knapsack allows taking fractions of a item:

- Greedy by sorted maximum value/kg v_i, w_i , fill capacity, then take next item
- $T(n) = O(n \log n)$
- Greedy Choice Property: if j^* is item with maximum value/kg v_j/w_j , there exists optimal knapsack containing $\min\{w_h, W\}$ kg of item h^*

```

FRACTIONAL-KNAPSACK(I, W)
    sort I by (v_i / w_i) descending
    totalValue = 0
    for each (v, w) in I
        if W = 0
            return totalValue
        take = min(w, W)
        totalValue += take * (v / w)
        W -= take
    return totalValue
    
```

Huffman Code is an optimal variable length prefix coding, where no prefix $\gamma(x)$ is prefix of $\gamma(y)$, and average bit length $ABL(\gamma) = \sum_{x \in A} freq(x) |\gamma(x)|$ is minimised:



- Using a min-heap, repeatedly extract two least frequent a, b , create parent z with weight $freq(a) + freq(b)$, and reinsert z . Final tree is an optimal code, where left branch adds 0, and right branch adds 1 to the code.
- $T(n) = O(n \log n)$ (using heap)
- Greedy Choice Property: any merge not using two smallest nodes increases cost no less than merging the two smallest at every step

```

HUFFMAN(C)
    n = |C|
    Q = C
    for i = 1 to n - 1
        allocate a new node z
        x = EXTRACT-MIN(Q)
        y = EXTRACT-MIN(Q)
        z.left = x
        z.right = y
        z.freq = x.freq + y.freq
        INSERT(Q, z)
    return EXTRACT-MIN(Q)
    
```

9. Amortized Analysis

Amortized analysis is used over sequence of operations to show that average cost per operation is small, even if some operations are expensive.

- Guarantee average cost over k operations $\leq kT(n)$ in the worst-case

Methods:

- Aggregate: $\frac{1}{k} \sum_{i=1}^k t(i)$; sum of costs divided by k
- Accounting: Overcharge cheap operations to "pay" for expensive operations later
- Potential: pick $\phi(0) = 0, \phi(i) \geq 0$;
am. cost = $t(i) + \phi(i) - \phi(i-1)$ such that
 $\sum \text{am. cost of op } i \geq \text{actual cost of } n \text{ ops} = \sum t(i)$

Problems

Increment k -bit Binary Counter, counting bit flips:

- Aggregate: bit j flips $\frac{n}{2^j} \Rightarrow T(n) < 2n \Rightarrow \text{am. } O(1)$
- Accounting: charge \$2 per $0 \rightarrow 1$, use saved \$1 per $1 \rightarrow 0$ reset; banked = no. of 1s $\geq 0 \Rightarrow \text{am. } O(1)$
- Potential: let $\phi(i) = \#$ of 1s after op i ;
am. cost = $(\ell_i + 1) + (-\ell_i + 1) = 2 = O(1)$

Dynamic Table, when full, alloc size $2n$ and copy n items:

- Aggregate: $T(n) \leq n + \sum_{j=0}^{\log(n-1)} 2^j \leq 3n \Rightarrow \text{am. } O(1)$
- Accounting: charge \$2/insert, use saved \$1/copy per item; bank never negative $\Rightarrow \text{am. } O(1)$
- Potential: let $\phi(i) = 2i - \text{size}(T)$;
full case am. = $i + (3 - i) = 3 = O(1)$;
not-full case am. = $1 + 2 = 3 = O(1)$

10. Problem Reduction

Problem A reduces to problem B if we can:

1. convert an instance α of A to an instance β of B , where an instance denotes input
2. solve β with B to obtain solution $B(\beta)$,
3. convert $B(\beta)$ back into a solution $A(\alpha)$ for α .

$p(n)$ -time Reduction

Polynomial-time reduction from A to B , $A \leq_P B$, exists if:

- i. Converting $\alpha \rightarrow \beta$, $B(\beta) \rightarrow A(\alpha)$ take $\leq p(n)$ time, and new β takes $\leq p(n)$ size, where $p(n) \in O(n^c)$
- ii. Consequence:
 - B is easy ($p(n)$ -time) $\implies A$ is easy
 - A is hard (no $p(n)$ -time) $\implies B$ is hard
- iii. Length encoding: $n = |\alpha|$ is measured in length of bits, e.g. $\ell = \lceil \log n \rceil$ bits for numeric inputs.
- iv. Pseudo-polynomial time: if running time is $p(n)$ in numeric value (e.g. $O(n)$ iFib, $O(nW)$ knapsack) but exponential in the bit-length (e.g. $O(2^\ell)$).

Running-time Composition:

- i. If $A \leq_P B$ and B can be solved in $T(n)$ time, then A can be solved in $(T(p(n)) + O(p(n)))$ time.

Problems

Longest Palindromic Subsequence \leq_P LCS:

- i. $LPS(\alpha) = LCS(\alpha, reversed(\alpha))$
- ii. Reverse and call LCS in $O(|\alpha|) \implies$ polynomial

Matrix Square \leq_P Matrix Multiplication:

- i. $MAT-SQR(C) = MAT-MULTI(C, C)$
- ii. Copying C in $O(n^2)$ + one mult \implies polynomial

Matrix Multiplication \leq_P Matrix Square:

- i. $MAT-MULTI(A, B) = MAT-SQR(\begin{bmatrix} 0 & A \\ B & 0 \end{bmatrix})_{1,1}$
- ii. Build M and find result in $O(n^2) \implies$ polynomial.

11. NP-Completeness

Decision problems map an instance space I into the solution set $\{\text{YES}, \text{NO}\}$.

- i. Given decision problems $A \leq_P B$, α is YES-instance for $A \iff \beta$ is YES-instance for B

Complexity classes for decision problems in a deterministic Turing Machine:

- i. P: solvable in $p(n)$ time; $P \subseteq NP$
- ii. NP: certificate verifiable in $p(n)$ time
 - Proof: give $p(n)$ -time verifier
- iii. NP-Hard: if for every problem $X \in NP$, $X \leq_P A$
 - Proof: can show $p(n)$ -time reduction to known NP-Complete problem
- iv. NP-Complete: in NP and NP-Hard
 - Proof: prove both NP and NP-Hard

NP-Complete Problems

CSAT checks if DAG with AND, OR, NOT gate nodes and n binary inputs can output 1.

- i NP: evaluate certificate with DAG in $O(n)$
- ii NP-Hard: any $p(n)$ -time NP verifier Q can be built into circuit C in $\Theta(p(n)^2)$ and solved by CSAT, hence all NP problems \leq_P CSAT

CNF-SAT checks satisfiability of CNF (product-of-sums):

- i NP-Hard: convert each gate of circuit C to a new var + $O(1)$ clauses. Hence, $CSAT \leq_P$ CNF-SAT

3-SAT checks satisfiability of CNF with 3 literals/clause:

- i NP-Hard: for any unrestricted CNF formula ϕ , split every clause with > 3 literals into a chain of 3-literal clauses with auxiliary variables in $O(n)$. Hence, $CNF-SAT \leq_P$ 3-SAT

Independent Set (IS) checks if $\leq k$ nodes in graph $G = (V, E)$ can share no edges:

- i. $IS(G, k) = VC(G, |V| - k) \implies IS \leq_P VC$
- ii. NP: reject if any edge has both ends in X in $O(|E|)$
- iii. NP-Hard: given a 3-SAT formula, create a graph

with one node per literal, connecting pairs in the same clause and pairs of complementary literals. Hence, $3-SAT \leq_P IS$

Vertex Cover (VC) checks if $\leq k$ nodes in graph $G = (V, E)$ can cover every edge:

- i. NP: ensure all edges are adjacent to X in $\Theta(|E|)$
- ii. NP-Hard: $VC(G, k) = IS(G, |V| - k) \implies VC \leq_P IS$

Hitting-Set (HS) checks if set H of $\leq k$ elements can have non-empty intersection with all S_i in $S = \{S_1, \dots, S_n\}$:

- i NP: $\forall S_i$ ensure $H \cap S_i \neq \emptyset$ in $\Theta(\sum_i |S_i|)$.
- ii NP-Hard: $VC(G, k) = HS(S = \{\{e\} : e \in E\}, k)$, where reduction is $\Theta(n)$. Hence, $VC \leq_P HS$.

CLIQUE checks if $\geq k$ nodes in $G = (V, E)$ can form clique:

- i. NP: check all nodes are adjacent in $\Theta(k^2)$
- ii. NP-Hard: $CLIQUE(G, k) = IS(\overline{G}, k)$, where reduction is $\Theta(|E|)$. Hence, $CLIQUE \leq_P IS$

Additional Information

Stirling Approximation: $n! \sim \sqrt{2\pi n} \left(\frac{n}{e}\right)^n$

Arithmetic Series:

- i. $a_n = a_1 + (n - 1)d$
- ii. $S_n = \frac{n}{2}(2a_1 + (n - 1)d) = \frac{n \times (a_1 + a_n)}{2} \in \Theta(n^2)$

Geometric Series:

- i. $g_n = g_1 \times r^{n-1}$
- ii. $S_n = \frac{a(1-r^n)}{1-r}$
- iii. $S_\infty = \frac{a}{1-r}$ when $|x| < 1$

Harmonic Series:

- i. $H_n = 1 + \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{3} + \dots + \frac{1}{n} = \ln n + O(1)$