

# Algorithms & Data Structures II

Sebastian F. Taylor

November 27, 2025

## Dynamic Programming

### Weighted Interval Scheduling

*The idea:* Sort by finish time and select

$\text{OPT}(j) = \max(v[j]) + \text{OPT}(p[j])$ ,  $\text{OPT}(j-1)$ ). Either you take job  $j$ , and skip conflicts, or don't take it. The algorithm runs in  $O(n \log n)$  time, where  $n$  is the number of jobs.

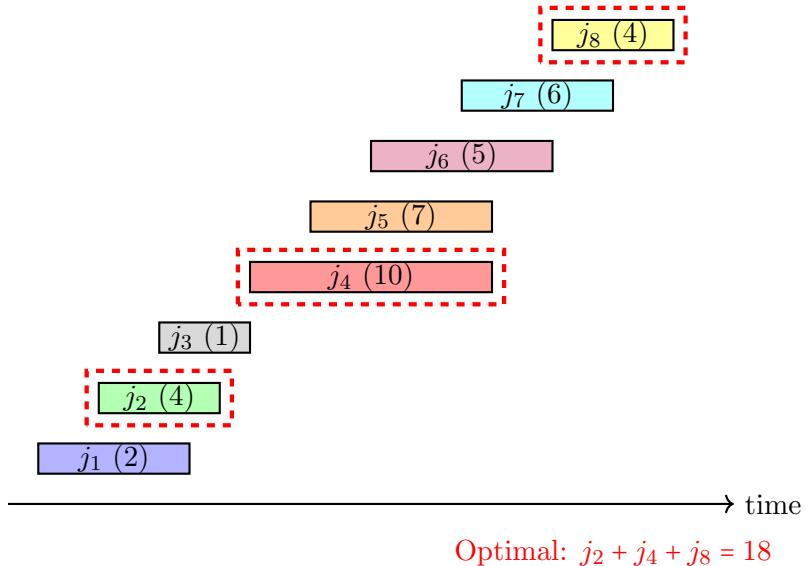


Figure 1: Weighted Interval Scheduling Example: Jobs are sorted by finish time. The optimal solution selects non-overlapping jobs with maximum total value.

## Knapsack

*The problem:* Fill a backpack with as many books as possible.

$\text{OPT}(i, w) = \max(\text{OPT}(i-1, w), v[i] + \text{OPT}(i-1, w-w[i]))$  The option is to take an item  $i$  or not and the algorithm runs in  $O(nW)$  time, where  $n$  is the number of items and  $W$  is knapsack capacity. The algorithm creates a 2D table consisting of  $n \times W$

## Sequence Alignment

*The problem:* Match characters, gap in  $X$ , or gap in  $Y$ . The running time of this algorithm is

## Max Flow & Min Cut

### Flow Algorithms

Name	Running Time	Explanation	Notes
Ford-Fulkerson	$O( f^* m)$	$ f^*  = \text{max flow value}$ $m = \# \text{ edges}$	Pseudopolynomial; can fail to terminate
Scaling	$O(m^2 \log C)$	$C = \text{max edge capacity}$	Weakly polynomial; assumes integer capacities
Edmonds-Karp	$O(m^2n)$	$n = \# \text{ vertices}$ $m = \# \text{ edges}$	Uses BFS; strongly polynomial

### Running the algorithms

When running the algorithms by hand, just use a basic approach—it's manageable when the graph is reasonably simple. For min-cut, find the saturated edges (at capacity) along the residual graph boundary between reachable and unreachable vertices from the source.

### Flow Problem Recipe

#### Build the Graph

- Vertices (source + sink)
- Edges (capacities + direction)

#### Describe the Algorithm

- Find max flow ( $m$ ) and INSERT ALGORITHM
- Return an answer

#### Analyse Runtime

- Build Parameters from question
- Remember the time it takes to build the graph

## Randomised Algorithms

### Expected Value

Expected value is the average outcome over many trials. For a discrete random variable  $X$ :

$$\mathbb{E}[X] = \sum_i x_i \cdot \mathbb{P}[X = x_i]$$

**Common trick:** Use indicator random variables. If  $X = X_1 + X_2 + \dots + X_n$  where each  $X_i$  is an indicator (0 or 1), then:

$$\mathbb{E}[X] = \sum_{i=1}^n \mathbb{E}[X_i] = \sum_{i=1}^n \mathbb{P}[X_i = 1]$$

**Geometric distribution:** If success probability is  $p$ , then expected number of trials until first success is  $\frac{1}{p}$ .

**Example - QuickSort:** Let  $X_{ij}$  be an indicator that equals 1 if elements  $i$  and  $j$  are compared, 0 otherwise. Total comparisons:

$$X = \sum_{i < j} X_{ij} \implies \mathbb{E}[X] = \sum_{i < j} \mathbb{E}[X_{ij}] = \sum_{i < j} \mathbb{P}[i \text{ and } j \text{ compared}]$$

Elements  $i$  and  $j$  are compared if one is chosen as pivot before any element between them, so  $\mathbb{P}[i \text{ and } j \text{ compared}] = \frac{2}{j-i+1}$ . Summing gives  $\mathbb{E}[X] = O(n \log n)$ .

## Useful Sums

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} x^n = \frac{1}{1-x}, \quad |x| < 1$$

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} n \cdot x^n = \frac{x}{(1-x)^2}, \quad |x| < 1$$

$$\sum_{k=1}^n \frac{1}{k} = H(n), \quad \ln(n) < H(n) < \ln(n) + 1$$

$$\mathbb{P}[\text{first success in round } j] = (1-p)^{j-1} p$$

$$\mathbb{E}[X] = \sum x_i \cdot \mathbb{P}[X = x_i] \quad \text{where } x_i \in \text{possible outcomes}$$

$$\mathbb{E}[X + Y] = \mathbb{E}[X] + \mathbb{E}[Y]$$

$$\text{if } \mathbb{P}[\text{success}] = p \text{ then } \mathbb{E}[\#\text{ tries to success}] = \frac{1}{p}$$

## Hashing

### Chained Hashing

Store elements in array of linked lists. Each element  $x$  goes to list at  $A[h(x)]$ . Operations take  $O(|A[h(x)]| + 1)$  time. With universal hashing, expected  $O(1)$  time per operation.

### Linear Probing

Store elements directly in array. If  $A[h(x)]$  is occupied, place  $x$  in next empty slot (wrapping around). Forms clusters of consecutive elements. Operations take  $O(C(h(x)) + 1)$  time where  $C(i)$  is cluster size. Cache-efficient but DELETE is  $O(n^2)$ .

### Hash Functions

**Universal hashing:** Family  $H$  is universal if for any  $x \neq y$ ,  $\Pr[h(x) = h(y)] \leq \frac{1}{m}$  for random  $h \in H$ .

**Dot product hashing:** For  $x = (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_r)$  in base  $m$  (prime), define

$$h_a(x) = (a_1 x_1 + a_2 x_2 + \dots + a_r x_r) \bmod m$$

where  $a = (a_1, \dots, a_r)$  chosen randomly. This family is universal.

## Performance Comparison

Data Structure	SEARCH	INSERT	DELETE	Space
Linked List	$O(n)$	$O(n)$	$O(n)$	$O(n)$
BBST	$O(\log n)$	$O(\log n)$	$O(\log n)$	$O(n)$
Direct Addressing	$O(1)$	$O(1)$	$O(1)$	$O( U )$
Chained Hashing (universal)	$O(1)^*$	$O(1)^*$	$O(1)^*$	$O(n)$
Linear Probing	$O(C(h(x)) + 1)$	$O(C(h(x)) + 1)$	$O(n^2)$	$O(n)$

\* Expected time (when using universal hash function)

## Amortised Analysis

### Aggregate Method

The idea: Analyze the total cost  $T(m)$  of a worst-case sequence of  $m$  operations, then compute the amortized cost as  $T(m)/m$  per operation.

### Accounting Method

Assign a *cost*  $\hat{c}_i$  to each operation. When  $\hat{c}_i > c_i$ , store the difference as credits. When  $\hat{c}_i < c_i$ , use stored credits to pay. Ensure  $\sum_{i=1}^m \hat{c}_i \geq \sum_{i=1}^m c_i$  always holds.

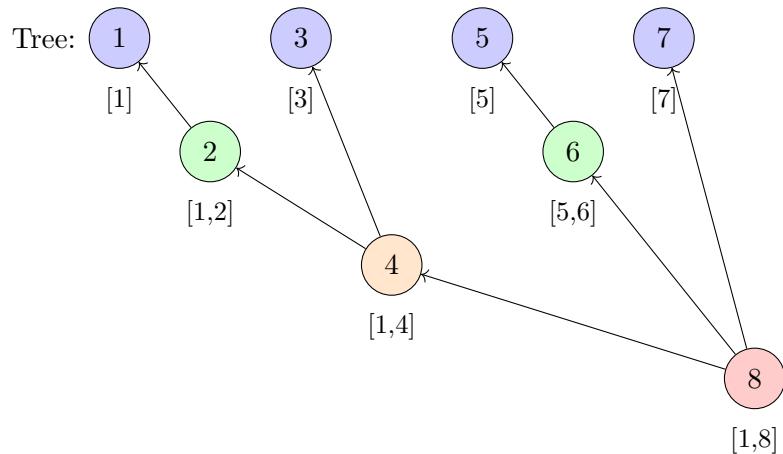
### Potential Method

Define a potential function  $\Phi(D)$  that maps the data structure state to a real value. Set amortized cost  $\hat{c}_i = c_i + \Phi(D_i) - \Phi(D_{i-1})$ . Require  $\Phi(D_i) \geq 0$  for all  $i$  and  $\Phi(D_0) = 0$ .

## Partial Sums & Dynamic Arrays

### Partial Sums (Fenwick Trees)

A fenwick tree is effectively binary tree consisting of only the right child. This allows for an in-place data structure to compute the partial sum.



## Example

here is an example on how to calculate a fenwick tree.

Index:	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
Value:	3	2	5	1	4	6	2	3

Index:	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
BIT:	3	2	5	1	4	6	2	3

Index:	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
BIT:	3	2	5	1	4	6	2	3

Index:	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
BIT:	3	5	5	1	4	6	2	3

Index:	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
BIT:	3	5	5	1	4	6	2	3

Index:	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
BIT:	3	5	5	11	4	6	2	3

Index:	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
BIT:	3	5	5	11	4	6	2	3

Index:	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
BIT:	3	5	5	11	4	10	2	3

Index:	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
BIT:	3	5	5	11	4	10	2	3

Index:	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
BIT:	3	5	5	11	4	10	2	26

Final Fenwick Tree:

Index: 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8  
BIT: 3 5 5 11 4 10 2 26  
Range: [1] [1,2] [3] [1,4] [5] [5,6] [7] [1,8]

## Dynamic Arrays

### Rotated Array

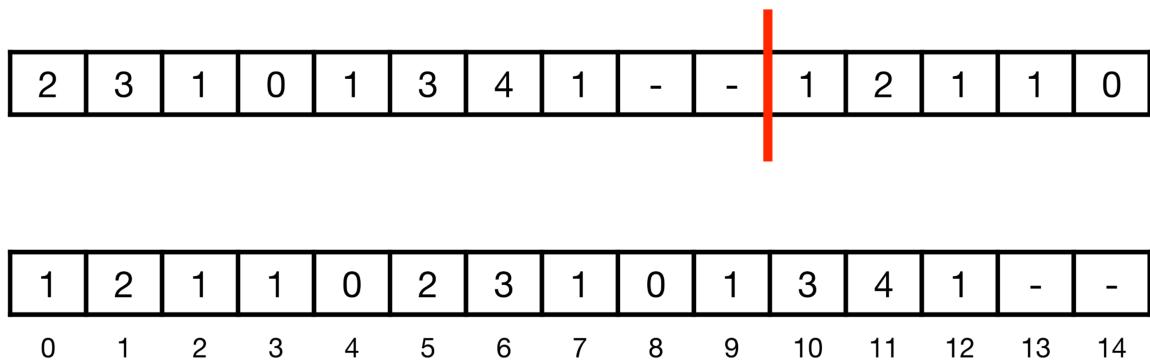


Figure 2: 1 level rotated array

**Key idea:** Store offset to mark the start of the array.

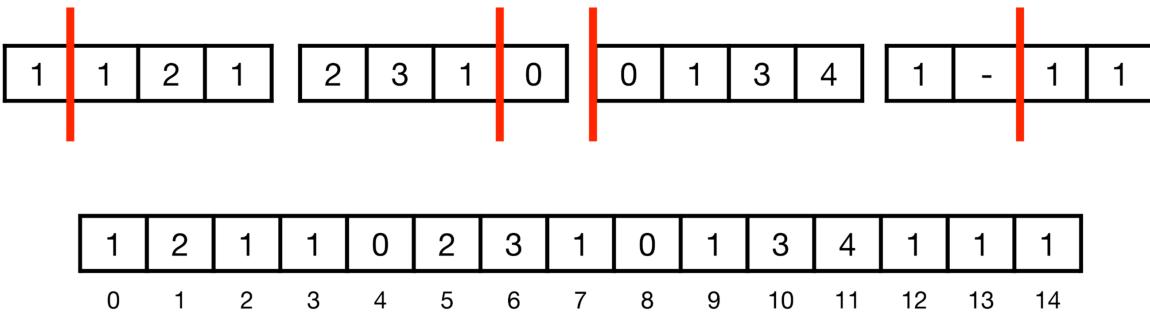


Figure 3: 2 level rotated array

**Key idea:** Split into  $\sqrt{n}$  rotated buckets of size  $\sqrt{n}$ . When inserting/deleting, rebuild one bucket in  $O(\sqrt{n})$  time, then propagate overflow/underflow.

Data Structure	Access	Insert	Delete	space
1 level rotated array	$O(1)$	$O(\sqrt{n})$	$O(\sqrt{n})$	$O(n)$
2 level rotated array	$O(1)$	$O(n^\varepsilon)$	$O(n^\varepsilon)$	$O(n)$

In a  $k$ -level rotated array,  $\varepsilon = \frac{1}{k}$  determines that you partition  $n$  elements into  $\sqrt[k]{n}$  buckets of size  $\sqrt[k]{n}$  each, giving  $O(n^{1/k}) = O(n^\varepsilon)$  time for INSERT/DELETE operations.

## NP Completeness

Boils down to if a problem is solvable in polynomial time or non-deterministic polynomial time. The mindset I have for this is best describes via exercise 2 from week *NP Completeness*.

### Example - Customer Uniqueness (KT 8.2)

A store trying to analyse the behavior of its customers will often main a two-dimensional array  $A$ , where the rows correspond to its customers and the columns correspond to the products it sells. The entry  $A[i, j]$  specifies the quantity of project  $j$  that has been purchased by customer  $i$ .

Here's a tiny example of such an array  $A$

	liquid detergent	beer	diapers	cat litter
Raj	0	6	0	3
Alanis	2	0	0	7
Chelsea	0	0	0	7

One thing that a store might want to do with this data is the following. Let us say that a subset  $S$  off the customers is *diverse* if no two of the customers in  $S$  have ever bought the same product (i.e., for each product, at most one of the customers in  $s$  has ever bought it). A diverse set of customers can be useful, for example, as a target pool for market research.

We can now define the Diverse Subset Problem as follows: Given an  $m \times n$  array  $A$  as defined above, and a number  $k \leq m$ , is there a subset of at least  $k$  of customers that is *diverse*?

Show that Diverse subset in NP-complete.

### Solution

We show that  $IS \leq_p DS$ , where  $IS$  is Independent Set and  $DS$  is Diverse Subset.

Given a graph  $G = (V, E)$  with  $|V| = m$  vertices and  $|E| = n$  edges, construct an  $m \times n$  matrix  $A$  where vertices are customers (rows) and edges are products (columns). For each edge  $(u, v) \in E$ , set  $A[u, (u, v)] = 1$  and  $A[v, (u, v)] = 1$  (all other entries are 0).

Now  $G$  has an independent set of size  $k$  if and only if  $A$  has a diverse subset of size  $k$ . Since the construction takes polynomial time,  $DS$  is NP-complete.

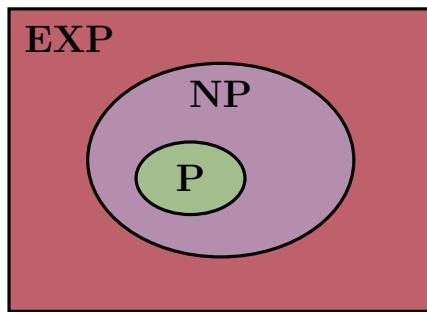
*Describe the argument a little better*

### List of NP-complete Problems

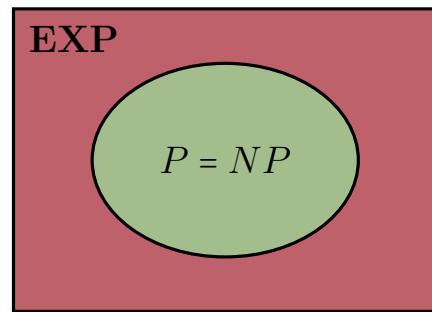
- Subset Sum
- Independent Set (Graph Algorithm)
- Vertex Cover (Graph Algorithm)
- Set Cover
- Longest Path (Graph Algorithm)
- Max Cut (Graph Algorithm)

- 3-Coloring (Graph Algorithm)
- Hamiltonian Cycle (Graph Algorithm)
- Travelling Salesperson (Graph Algorithm)

Is  $P = NP$ ?



If  $P \neq NP$



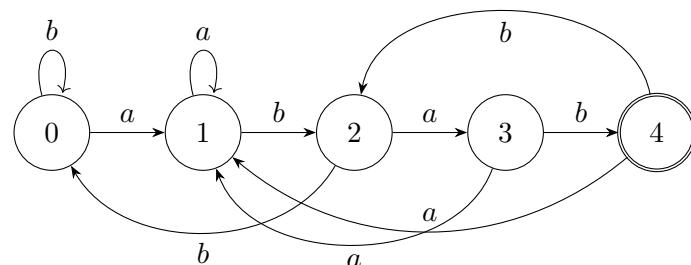
If  $P = NP$

## String Matching

### Finite Automata

This is a way to match strings (similar to FSM). When building the graph, just remember that each node needs a edge pointing out for each letter in the alphabet.

**Example:** Finite Automaton for pattern "abab". *Note:* if a character path you want to take isn't shown, go back to the beginning.



### Knuth–Morris–Pratt (KMP)

Given a prefix  $\pi$  for a string with length  $i$ , then build a graph from that pattern.

**Example:** KMP for pattern "abab"

The solid arrows show character transitions, while dashed red arrows show failure links ( $\pi$  values).

$i$	1	2	3	4
$\pi[i]$	0	0	1	2
P[i]	a	b	a	b

Figure 4: Prefix function table

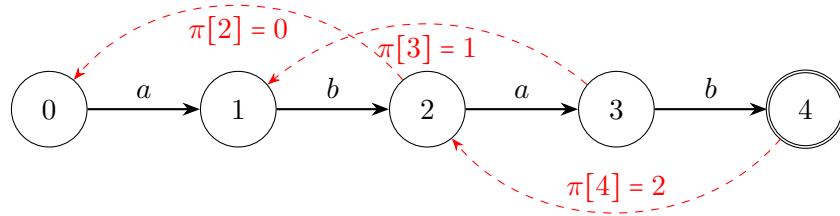


Figure 5: Automaton for KMP

## String Matching Overview

	Construction Time	Matching Time	Total Time	Explanation
Finite Automaton	$O(m \cdot  \Sigma )$	$O(n)$	$O(m \cdot  \Sigma  + n)$	$\Sigma$ is the size of the alphabet, $m$ is the size of the pattern
KMP	$O(m)$	$O(n)$	$O(n + m)$	$n$ is the size of the string, $m$ is the size of the pattern

## Tries

	Search	Prefix Search	Construction	Space	Explanation
Trie	$O(m)$	$O(m + occ)$	$O(n)$	$O(n)$	$m$ is query length, $occ$ is number of matches, $n$ is total length of all strings
Compact Trie	$O(m)$	$O(m + occ)$	$O(n)$	$O(s)$	Compressed version with edge labels, $s$ is number of strings