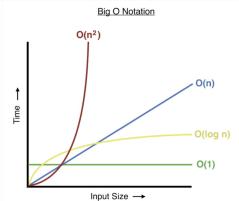
algorithm: a well-defined computational procedure designed to 7. - Mark neighbors as visited. solve a problem. It consists of a sequence of precise steps that take some inputs, process them systematically, and produce corresponding outputs. data structure: is a way to organize and manage data, allowing us to write more efficient code in terms of both time and

0.1 Big O Notation

Definition: Describes asymptotic behavior of algorithms as input size n grows. Common Classes:

- O(1): Constant Runtime independent of n.
- $O(\log n)$: Logarithmic Doubling n adds constant time.
- $O(\sqrt{n})$: sub-linear time complexity.
- O(n): Linear Doubling n doubles time.
- $O(n \log n)$: Linearithmic Roughly O(n) when n doubles.
- $O(n^2)$: Quadratic Doubling n multiplies time by 4.
- $O(n^k)$: Polynomial Time multiplied by 2^k .
- $O(2^n)$: Exponential Doubling n multiplies time by 2^k .



0.2 Hash Tables

Properties: Keys must be hashable (immutable). Operations:

O(1) insert, delete, lookup (average).

Hash Function: Deterministic: same input \rightarrow same output. Collisions: Handled by chaining (list per bucket). Python Dict:

- Keys must be **hashable**.
- Values can be any type.
- Lists cannot be keys (mutable).

0.3 Graphs

For some graphs, DFS is equivalent to BFS.

Represent a **2D image** having M rows and N columns using a graph

Space Complexity is MN^2 in Adjacency Matrix

Space Complexity is MN in Adjacency List **Definition**: G = (V, E) where V = vertices, E = edges. **Types**:

• Undirected: edges have no direction (e.g., Twitter followers). • Directed: edges bidirectional (e.g., Facebook friends).

Weighted: edges have numerical values.

• Unweighted: edges represent presence/absence only.

Adjacency List: Array of lists: Adj[u] is a list of neighbors of u.

• Space: O(V+E).

• Good for sparse graphs $(E \ll V^2)$.

• Lookup time: O(V) worst case.

Adjacency Matrix: A matrix where A[i][j] = 1 if edge exists.

• Space: $O(V^2)$.

• Lookup time: O(1).

Good for dense graphs.

0.4 Breadth-First Search (BFS)

Purpose: Explores neighbors before going deeper. Finds shortest paths in unweighted graphs. Data Structure: Uses Queue (FIFO). Complexity: O(V+E). Implementation:

- 1. Initialize stack with start node.
- 2. Mark start as visited.
- 3. While stack not empty:
- 4. Pop node. #stack.pop(0) in Queue
- 5. Process node.
- Enqueue unvisited neighbors.

```
# --- Option 1: Built-in BFS traversal ---
print("BFS traversal using networkx.bfs_tree:")
bfs_tree = nx.bfs_tree(G, source='A')
print(list(bfs_tree.nodes())) # nodes in BFS order
# OR equivalently:
print("\nUsing networkx.bfs_edges:")
bfs_edges = list(nx.bfs_edges(G, source='A'))
print("BFS edges:", bfs_edges)
  --- Option 2: Custom BFS implementation ---
def bfs_custom(G, start):
   visited = set()
   queue = deque([start])
   while queue:
       node = queue.popleft()
       if node not in visited:
           print(node, end=" ")
          visited.add(node)
          for neighbor in G.neighbors(node):
              if neighbor not in visited:
                  queue.append(neighbor)
   return visited
```

0.5 Depth-First Search (DFS)

Purpose: Explores as deep as possible before backtracking. Data Structure: Uses Stack (LIFO). Complexity: O(V + E). Implementation:

- 1. Initialize stack with start node.
- Mark start as **visited**.
- While stack not empty:
- Pop node. #stack.pop() in Queue
- Process node.
- Push unvisited neighbors.
- 7. Mark neighbors as **visited**.

```
--- Option 2: Custom DFS using recursion ---
def dfs_recursive(G, node, visited=None):
   if visited is None:
       visited = set()
   visited.add(node)
   print(node, end=" ")
   for neighbor in G.neighbors(node):
       if neighbor not in visited:
          dfs_recursive(G, neighbor, visited)
   return visited
print("\nCustom DFS (recursive):")
dfs_recursive(G, 'A')
  --- Option 3: Iterative DFS using a stack ---
def dfs_iterative(G, start):
   visited = set()
   stack = [start]
   while stack:
       node = stack.pop()
       if node not in visited:
          print(node, end=" ")
          visited.add(node)
          # Add neighbors to stack
          stack.extend(reversed(list(G.neighbors(node))))
```

0.6 Sparse Matrix format (Scipy)

This is "Compressed Sparse Row" format.

It means we store an adjacency list per row.

Sparse matrices come up a lot in practice, beyond just adjacency matrices in graphs. For example:

Word counts: We might represent a document by the words in it, but only a small fraction of all words would appear in a given

Ratings: We might represent an Amazon item by the user ratings, but only a small fraction of all users have rated a given item.

0.7 Sparse Matrix Formats

Compressed Sparse Row (CSR) vs. Column (CSC)

Feature	CSR	CSC	•
Storage Arrays	Values, Column In- dices, Row Pointers	Values, Row Indices, Column Pointers	
Optimized For Access Pattern Use Cases	Row operations Fast row slicing Matrix-vector multiplication, row-wise operations	Column operations Fast column slicing Column- wise computations, matrix factorization	CSR and CSC are
efficient ways to store matrices with mostly zero entries, saving			

ero entries, saving memory and speeding up relevant operations.

```
x = scipy.sparse.random(5, 5, density=0.2, format="csr",
     random_state=321)
```

0.8 Trees

Trees are vital for organizing data hierarchically (parent-child relationships). Modeling Real-World Systems:

- File Systems (folders/subfolders).
- Organization Charts (manager-employee).
- XML/HTML Documents (nested tags). Efficiency & Algorithms:
- Binary Search Trees (BSTs): Fast $O(\log n)$ average time for lookup/insertion/deletion.
- Balanced Trees (AVL/Red-Black): Consistently fast perfor-
- Heaps: Used for Priority Queues and heapsort.
- Advanced Structures & Applications:
- Tries: Autocomplete, spell checking.
- Syntax Trees: Compilers/interpreters. • B-Trees / B+ Trees: Database indexing, file systems.
- Decision Trees: Machine learning models (random forests).

0.9 Tree Terminology Node: Fundamental part, stores data. Root: The first node in a

tree (no parent). Edge: A link connecting two nodes. Parent: Immediate predecessor (a node has only one parent). Child: Immediate successor (a node can have ≥ 0 children). Leaf Node: A node with zero children. **Height**: Maximum number of edges from the root to a leaf node. Subtree: A portion of a tree

starting from any node and including all its descendants. Balanced Tree: A tree where the height of the left and right subtrees of any node are nearly equal.

0.10 NetworkX Code Examples Create Graphs:

- G = nx.Graph() (undirected)
- G = nx.DiGraph() (directed) Add Nodes & Edges:
- G.add_node("A")
- G.add_edge("A", "B") • G.add_edges_from([("A", "B"), ("B", "C"), ("B", "D")])

0.11 Time Measurement

- Code Profiling: • timeit: Python magic for timing small code snippets.
- line_profiler: Per-line timing.

Memory Profiling:

- sys.getsizeof(): Object size.
- df.memory_usage(): Pandas DataFrame memory.
- np.sum(array.nbytes): NumPy arrays memory.

0.12 Tips & Best Practices Visualization:

• nx.draw(G, with_labels=True)

General Tips:

- Use **set** for membership lookup.
- Use dict for fast key-value lookups.
- Prioritize coherent data structure operations based on needs.
- Consider space-time tradeoffs.
- BFS is better for optimizing **shortest paths** in unweighted graphs.
- Hash table operations are O(1) avg., not worst-case.
- Prefer sparse matrices for graphs with E

 V2.