1 Big-O notation

Consider 2 functions $f, g: \mathbb{N} \to \mathbb{R}^{>0}$

The following are definitions of existing notations:

Def 1.1.1.
$$f = \Theta(g)$$
 $\exists N > 0, C_1 > 0, C_2 > 0 : \forall n \ge N, C_1 \cdot g(n) \le f(n) \le C_2 \cdot g(n)$

Def 1.1.2.
$$f = \mathcal{O}(g)$$
 $\exists N > 0, C > 0 : \forall n \ge N, f(n) \le C \cdot g(n)$

Def 1.1.3.
$$f = \Omega(g)$$
 $\exists N > 0, C > 0 : \forall n \ge N, f(n) \ge C \cdot g(n)$

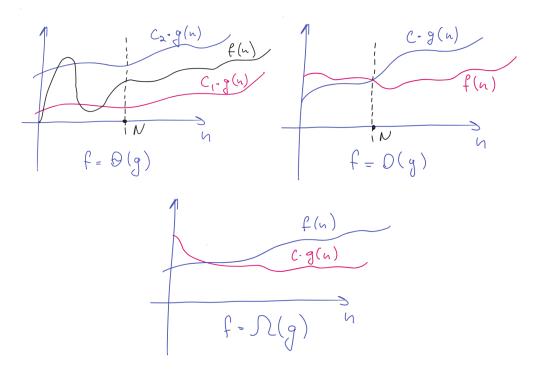
Def 1.1.4.
$$f = o(g)$$
 $\forall C > 0 \ \exists N > 0 : \forall n \geqslant N, f(n) \leqslant C \cdot g(n)$

Def 1.1.5.
$$f = \omega(g)$$
 $\forall C > 0 \ \exists N > 0 : \forall n \geqslant N, f(n) \geqslant C \cdot g(n)$

Mnemonics:

- 1. Θ : "equal up to a constant", "asymptotically equal".
- 2. O: " \leq up to a constant", "asymptotically \leq ".
- 3. o: "asymptotically <", "for any constant \leq ", "whatever constant you take there will be a moment where f(n) becomes $\leq C \cdot g(n)$."

Here are graphical representations for some Big-O notations:



You may interpret the Big-O notations in the following manner:

Θ	0	Ω	0	ω
=	≤	≥	<	>

Some remarks:

- 1. $f = \Theta(g) \Leftrightarrow g = \Theta(f)$.
- 2. f = O(g) and $g = O(f) \Leftrightarrow f = \Theta(g)$.
- 3. $f = \Omega(g) \Leftrightarrow g = O(f)$
- 4. $f = \omega(g) \Leftrightarrow g = o(f)$

5. $\forall C > 0 : C \cdot f = \Theta(f)$

Common asymptotics:

- 1. Linear: O(n)
- 2. Quadratic: $O(n^2)$
- 3. Polynomial: $\exists k > 0 : O(n^k)$
- 4. Polylogarithmic: $\exists k > 0$: $O(\log^k n)$

(logarithm's base does not matter since logarithms with difference bases differ only in a constant).

5. Exponential: $\exists c > 0$: $O(2^{c \cdot n})$

Important: $\forall a, b > 0, c > 1$: $\exists N : \forall n > N : \log^a n < n^b < z^c$

1.1 Big-O for Polynomial of degree k

Lemma 1
$$n^k = o(n^{k+1})$$

Proof. Consider any $C \in \mathbb{R}^{>0}$ and take such N, so that $N \ge C$ holds. Now $\forall n \ge N : n^{k+1} = n^k \cdot n \ge n^k \cdot N \ge n^k \cdot C \implies n^k \le \frac{1}{C} \cdot n^{k+1}$ by definition of o we have achieved $n^k = n^k \cdot n \ge n^k \cdot N$ (n^{k+1})

Lemma 2
$$g = o(f) \rightarrow f \pm g = \Theta(f)$$

Proof.
$$g = o(f): C := \frac{1}{2} \exists N : \forall n \ge N : g(n) \le \frac{1}{2} \cdot f(n) \to \frac{1}{2} f(n) \le f(n) \pm g(n) \le \frac{3}{2} f(n)$$

Statement: Big-O for P(x)Given a polynomial $P(x) = a_0 + a_1 \cdot x^1 + a_2 \cdot x^2 + ... + a_k \cdot x^k$, then $P = \Theta(x^{\text{deg}P})$

Proof. We have shown in the **lemma 1** above that $n^k = o(n^{k+1})$, thus $\forall i = 1...l - 1$: $a_i \cdot x^i = o(x^k)$.

Thus, $P(x) = a_0 + a_1 \cdot x_1 + ... + a_{k-1} \cdot x^{k-1} + a_k \cdot x^k = o(x^k) + x^k$.

Now use the **lemma 2** we achieve: $P(x) = o(x^k) + x^k = \Theta(x^k)$

2 Basic data structures, beginning

We are going to discuss some data structures in terms of some operations and their **time complexity**.

Def: time complexity is measurement that describes the amount of operations it takes to execute an algorithm.

For instance, an algorithm that traverses all elements in an array has the time complexity of O(n) where *n* is a number of elements (i.e. an input parameter).

The operations and their time complexities that we are interesting in:

- 1. get(i) get element by index i.
- 2. set(i,x) assign to the element with index i a value x.
- 3. find(x) find index of an element x (or return -1 if not found).
- 4. $add_begin(x)$, $add_end(x)$ add element x to the beginning/end.
- 5. remove_begin(), remove_end() remove element from the beginning/end.

2.1 Plain array

Definition of a fixed-size array in C++:

```
int main() {
    const int N = 10;
    int arr[N] = {0}; // See: list initialization

for (int i = 0; i < N; ++i) {
        arr[i] = i + 1;
    }

    // See: range-based for-loop
    for (int val : arr) {
        std::cout << val << "\n";
    }

    return 0;
}</pre>
```

In the above example the array arr is allocated on stack, thus its size N must be a constant. In order to have an array of an arbitrary size you should allocate it on heap:

```
int n; cin >> n;
int* arr = new int[n];
delete[] arr;
```

Notice the *delete*[] operator: it deallocates the memory occupied for the array.

Arrays in C++ have fixed size, thus operations such as **add_begin/remove_begin** will require to allocate a new array and copy all the elements adding/removing the 1st one accordingly, which is O(n).

The **remove_end** could be done easily: just start to assume that the size of the array now is N-1. **find(x)** will require to traverse all the element of the array and compare them to x, thus O(n).

Here is the time complexities of the operations:

get(i)	set(i,x)	find(x)	$add_begin(x)$	remove_begin()
			$add_end(x)$	$remove_end()$
O(1)	O(1)	O(n)	O(n), O(n)	O(n), O(1)

2.2 Never use plain arrays

Why? Because there is a much better data structure **std::vector** which is a dynamically re-sizable array. It has greater capabilities over plain arrays and it is greatly optimized.

Most likely you will never encounter a problem where you would benefit using plain arrays rather than **std::vector** in competitive programming.

2.3 Doubly Linked List

Let's start with the implementation:

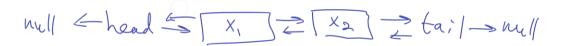
```
struct Node {
    Node* prev;
    Node* next;
    int x;
};
struct List {
```

```
Node* head;
Node* tail;
};

Node* find(int x, List l) {
    for (Node* node = l.head->next; node != l.tail; node = node->next) {
        if (node->x == x) {
            return node;
        }
    }
    return nullptr;
}

Node* remove(Node* node) {
    node->next->prev = node->prev;
    node->prev->next = node->next;
}
```

Here **head** and **tail** serve as illusory nodes that are not considered as nodes with values, but used as starting and terminating nodes:



In order to find an element x we traverse from **head** up to **tail** comparing current node's value.

In order to remove a node we update links of its **prev** and **next** nodes to point to each other, thus removing current node.

Our operations could be implementing either using those defined above or in a similar manner.

get(i)	set(i,x)	find(x)	$add_begin(x)$	remove_begin()
			$add_end(x)$	remove_end()
O(i)	O(i)	O(n)	O(1), O(1)	O(1), O(1)

2.4 Singly Linked List

Idea is the same but we keep only references to the next node, i.e. having no information about who is pointing to us.

```
struct Node {
    Node* next;
    int x;
};

Node* head = new Node();

void add_begin(Node* &head, int x) {
    // head is reference to a pointer
    Node* node = new Node();
    node->next = head;
    node->x = x;
    head = node;
```

}

The difference now is that we cannot add/remove elements from the tail for O(1) because we have to **tail** pointer. In order to add/remove to the end we need to traverse all the way to the end and apply modification.

Why would we need it if we have a doubly linked list? Singly linked list stores almost twice less memory and its operations have time complexities with less constants.

get(i)	set(i,x)	find(x)	$add_begin(x)$	remove_begin()
			$add_end(x)$	remove_end()
O(i)	O(i)	O(n)	O(1), O(n)	O(1), O(n)

2.5 std::vector (expanding array)

A regular array is not convenient because its size is fixed in advance and limited.

The idea of improvement: we allocate *size* of memory cells in advance, when the real size of the array **n** becomes larger than **size**, we double the size and reallocate the memory.

```
int size = 1;
int n = 0;
int* arr = new int[size];

void push_back(int x) {
    if (n == size) {
        int* newArr = new int[2 * size];
        copy(arr, arr + n, newArr);

        arr = newArr;
        size *= 2;
    }
    arr[n++] = x;
}
```

get(i)	set(i,x)	find(x)	$add_begin(x)$	remove_begin()
			$push_back(x)$	$pop_back()$
O(1)	O(1)	O(n)	$O(n), \Theta(1)$	O(n), O(1)

Notice that time complexity of $push_back(x)$ is $\Theta(1)$, i.e. **average time**.

```
Statement: Time complexity of push_back push\_back(x) \ works \ in \ \Theta(1).
```

Proof. Notice that the operation takes O(n) when a new buffer is allocated. **How often does it happen?** Before the next increase of size $n \to 2n$ there will be n push_backs that took O(1) of time, and **exactly** 1 push_back that took O(n), thus the average time is:

$$T = \frac{O(1) \cdot n + O(n) \cdot 1}{n+1} = \frac{O(n)}{n+1} = \Theta(1)$$

Now how to use the **std::vector**:

```
int main() {
   int n; cin >> n;
   int x = 0;
```

```
// create vector of size n filled with x
std::vector<int> vec(n, x);

for (int i = 0; i < n; ++i) {
    vec[i] = vec[i] * 2;
    std::cout << vec[i] << "\n";
}

vec.push_back(10);
std::cout << vec.back() << "\n";
vec.pop_back(1);
}</pre>
```

3 Practice

3.1 Prefix sums: query for O(1)

Task Prefix sums

You are given an array **a** of size n, and q queries sum(l,r), i.e. the sum of elements from index l (inclusive) up to index r (exclusive). Each query must be answered in O(1) of time.

Solution

The trivial approach is to sum all the elements in the provided range [l, r) on each request which is O(r-l) = O(n) time.

Let's define the following function:

```
sum(i) = a_0 + a_1 + ... + a_{i-1} - sum of first i elements of the array.
```

Then the query of sum(l,r) is:

$$sum(l,r) = sum(r) - sum(l) =$$

$$= (a_0 + ... + a_l + ... + a_{r-1}) - (a_0 + ... + a_{l-1}) = a_l + a_{l+1} + ... + a_{r-1}$$

Now, we only need to pre-calculate the function sum(i) to give the answer in O(1):

- 1. **Base case:** sum(0) = 0 i.e. sum of first zero elements is zero.
- 2. **Transition:** $\forall i = 1..n$: $sum(i) = sum(i-1) + a_{i-1}$ sum of first i elements is the sum of (i-1) elements and current i-th element placed under the index (i-1).

Task Find Duplicate

You are given an array **arr** of size N with numbers $0 \le a_i \le 10^6$. Return any element that occurs in the array **at least twice**, otherwise return -1. You are allowed to use only data structures that are already learnt so far.

Required space/time: O(n)

Notice: look at the constraints of a_i .

Solution

Notice that $0 \le a_i \le 10^6$, then let's create an array *occurrences* with the following semantics: $occurrences[a_i]$ - number of times an element a_i occurred in **arr**.

Then the answer is such a_i whose $occurrences[a_i] \ge 2$.

```
int findDuplicate(const vector<int>& arr) {
    int M = 1e6 + 1;
    std::vector<int> occurrences(M, 0);

for (int v : arr)
    occurrences[v] += 1;

for (int v = 0; v < M; ++v)
    if (occurrences[v] >= 2)
        return v;

return -1;
}
```

Task k-th occurrences

Given an array **arr** of size **n**, integer **x**, and an array **ks** of size **m** $(m \le n)$ that is **sorted in ascending order**. For each element in ks return an index in arr of ks[i]'s occurrence of x. If x does not occur ks[i] times in arr, then return -1.

```
Time: O(n+m)
Space: O(1)
```

The fact that **ks** is already sorted gives us an opportunity to solve this problem using **2 pointers technique**.

Let j denote current index of ks, and k := ks[j]. Let cnt be the number of occurrences of x we have encountered in a prefix of arr up to i-th element (inclusive).

Now, if cnt < k then it means that we need iterate over arr starting from i and increment cnt once x encountered until cnt = k or i = n.

Once the iteration is stopped, we check whether cnt = k, if so, then the (i-1) is the answer for k, otherwise print -1.

Now we need to proof that the time and space complexities are indeed those required.

Proof:

Time: j will iterate over ks, thus it is O(m); the inner **while-loop** can never be executed more the n times because on each iteration i is incremented, thus it is O(n) operations $\implies O(n) + O(m) = O(n+m)$ in total.

Space: we use only constant number of variables, thus it is O(1) of space.

1 Basic data structures, continuation

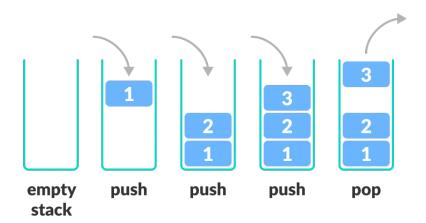
Here we will learn stack, queue, and deque. It is important to understand that all 3 are interfaces that could be implemented using data structures such as vector.

1.1 Stack

The stack's interface has 2 main operations:

- 1. $push_back(x)$ or push(x) place an element x on top of a stack, O(1) in time.
- 2. $pop_back()$ or pop() remove element from the top, O(1) in time.

Notice that first inserted element will be removed the last. This strategy is called **FILO** (**First In Last Out**).



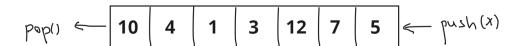
1.2 Queue

The queue's interface has 2 main operations:

- 1. $push_back(x)$ push an element x into the back of a queue, O(1) in time.
- 2. $pop_front()$ remove and element x from the front of a queue, O(1) in time.

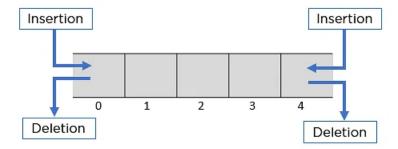
The queue interface conforms to the **FIFO** strategy (**First In First Out**).

If you have ever been in a real queue (e.g. queue in front of a concert entrance) then you are already familiar with this data structure.



1.3 Deque

Deque interface supports insertion (push_back, push_front)/removal (pop_back(), pop_front()) from both sides where all operations are in O(1) of time.

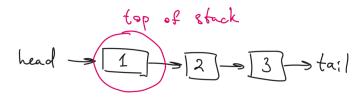


1.4 Implementation

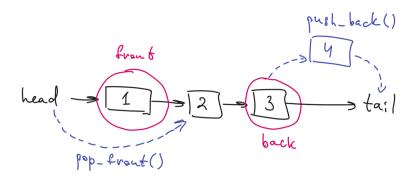
We already know everything required to implement our own stack, queue, deque interfaces using either linked lists or vector.

Implementation using linked lists:

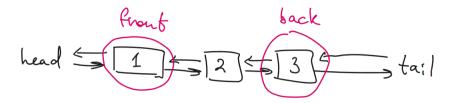
1. Stack: we need to use only singly linked list by inserting/removing the first node pointed by a head:



2. **Queue:** we also need to use only singly linked list by keeping track of the last element before the tail node to support **push_back** for O(1) in time; to support **pop_front** we remove the element pointed by a head node:



3. **Deque:** here we need to support insert/remove from front and back sides. In order to do that we need for every node to know previous and next elements, thus we can use doubly linked list here:



Implementation using vector:

1. **Stack:** notice that **std::vector** has $push_back()$ and $pop_back()$ operations which are O(1) in time complexity. Thus, a single vector will do the thing.

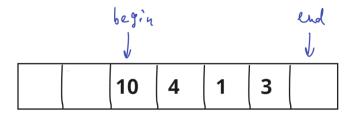
2. Queue and Deque via cyclic array:

Here we will implement deque and as a consequence we will get queue since its operations are a subset of deque.

We need to keep trace of the **begin** and **end** of the cyclic array where the elements will be placed in range [begin, end).

On $pop_front/push_front$ we move the **begin** pointer either forward modulo size of the cyclic array (i.e. $begin := (begin + 1) \ mod \ size$) or backward modulo size (i.e. $begin := (begin - 1 + size) \ mod \ size$).

The same strategy is applied to *end* pointer during pop_back/push_back operations:



```
struct deque { vector<int> a; int begin, end; };
int size() { return a.size(); }
int items_count() { return end - begin + (begin <= end ? 0 : size()); }</pre>
int get(i) { return a[(i + begin) % size()]; }
void push_front(x) {
    begin = (begin - 1 + size()) % size();
    a[begin] = x;
}
void pop_front() {
    a[begin] = empty;
    begin = (begin + 1) \% size();
}
void push_back(x) {
    a[end] = x;
    end = (end + 1) \% size();
}
```

Currently the implementation supports only fixed-size deque/queue. In order to support arbitrary size data structures we need to extend the size $n \to 2n$ of the cyclic array once begin == end after some push operation (i.e. if the cyclic array becomes full of elements).

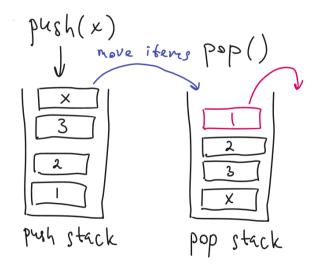
Practice: Implement queue/deque using stacks

2.1 Queue

Examine the following scenario: you have pushed elements 1, 2, 3, and x into queue. Want to pop one element: this element must be 1 since it was the one first inserted.

Imagine you have 2 stacks: 1st is used to push elements and the 2nd is used to pop elements. If the 2nd pop-stack is empty and pop() operation requested we need to move all the elements from the 1st push-stack into pop-stack by extracting elements from the top of push-stack and pushing them on top of pop-stack until the 1st stack becomes empty.

Such moving strategy will make the bottom element of push-stack to be the top element of pop-stack which will allow us to extract it to satisfy **pop()** operation request.



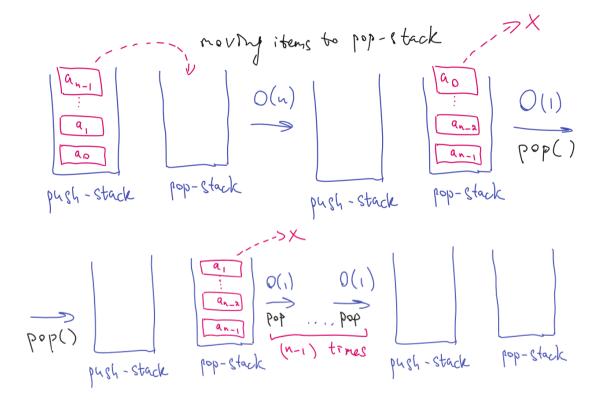
The question is: Why does it work in O(1) time complexity on average? Let's prove it:

1. Suppose we have executed n **push** operations which pushed elements $a_0, a_1, ..., a_{n-1}$ into push-stack

- (i.e. a_{n-1} will be on top of the push-stack, and a_0 in the bottom).
- 2. Now, **pop()** operation is requested: we need to move all the elements from push-stack into pop-stack which takes O(n) time. After that we extract the element a_0 which will be placed on top of the pop-stack.
- 3. Notice that the following (n-1) **pop()** operations will be executed in O(1) of time because pop-stack will contain some elements.

Thus, the average time of **pop()** operation is as follows (dividing total execution time by the number of **pop** operations):

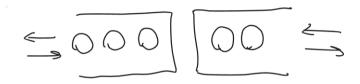
$$T = \frac{O(n) \cdot 1 + O(1) \cdot (n-1)}{n} = \frac{O(n) \cdot 1 + O(n)}{n} = \frac{O(n)}{n} = \Theta(1)$$



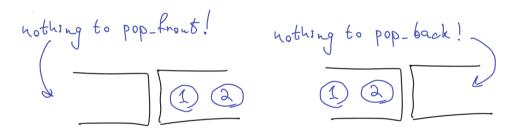
2.2 Deque

Now, let's try to implement deque using 3 stacks.

Notice, that deque could be split into 2 stacks where one is responsible for **front** side (push_front, pop_front) and the other for the **back** side (push_back, pop_back):



But there is an issue with this perception: What should we do once we have one of the following states and need to execute **pop_front/pop_back** respectively:



On the left picture we need somehow to remove the element 1 during **pop_front** operation, and on the right remove the element 2.

Remember the technique of moving all elements from the push-stack to the pop-stack in the queue implementation?

The idea will work but the solution will not be sufficient in terms of execution time, since every pop operation may start to work for O(n) (consequent **pop_front** and **pop_back** will trigger moving elements from one stack to another resulting in O(n) for each operation).

How to make both operations work in O(1) of time in average?

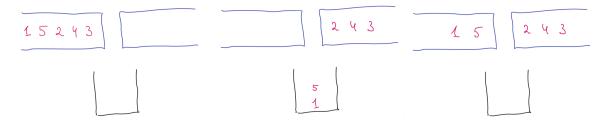
<u>Idea:</u> what if both front and back stack would contain $\frac{n}{2}$ elements: We will balance both stacks to contain $\frac{n}{2}$ elements once a pop operation encounters its stack to be empty.

We will show the correctness of this idea and then proof that the average time is O(1).

1. Correctness:

Assume that we are in a situation where back-stack is empty. We want to move $\frac{n}{2}$ elements from front-stack into back-stack preserving the correct order.

Let's move first half of elements into **3rd helper-stack**, then move the rest elements from front-stack into back-stack, and after return elements placed in helper-stack back to front-stack (pictures from left to right):



The order remains the same, thus the implementation is correct.

2. Average Time Complexity is O(1):

All operations are executed in O(1) when both front-stack and back-stack contain some elements. Thus, we only need to examine the scenario when one of the stacks becomes empty (assume that back-stack is empty as in the pictures above):

- 1) Notice that each element from front-stack is touched **not more than twice**: once when moved into either helper-stack of back-stack, and some of the elements are touched 2nd time during returning back from helper-stack into front-stack. Thus, the operation requires O(n) in time.
- 2) But now both front-stack and back-stack contain $\frac{n}{2}$ elements, thus **at least** $\frac{n}{2}$ of the following **pop_front/pop_back** operations will be executed in O(1), thus the average time is:

$$T \le \frac{O(n) \cdot 1 + \frac{n}{2} \cdot O(1)}{\frac{n}{2}} = \frac{O(n)}{\frac{n}{2}} = \Theta(1)$$

3 Practice: min stack, min queue

Task Min stack

Design a stack that supports push(), pop(), and retrieveMin() in constant time, i.e. O(1).

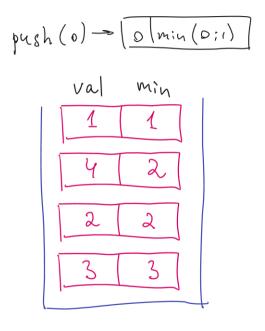
Solution

Suppose that we know the minimum among the already added elements, and we receive a **push(x)** operation: **What is the minimum now?**

Current minimum becomes min(x, prevMin).

<u>Idea:</u> For every added element a_i let's keep minimum among all elements that are under a_i , i.e. i-th entry of a stack is a pair $< a_i$, $min(a_i, a_{i-1}, a_{i-2}, ..., a_0) >$ where $\forall j : j < i : a_j$ are elements under a_i .

In order to implement this idea upon every **push(x)** operation we need to insert a new pair into the stack which will be: **<x, min(x, prevMin)>** where **prevMin** is a min value stored on top of the stack.



```
struct MinStack {
    vector<pair<int, int>> items;
};
void push(int x) {
    int prevVal, prevMin;
    std::tie(prevVal, prevMin) = min_stack.items.back();
    min_stack.items.push_back(std::make_pair(x, std::min(x, prevMin)));
}
void pop() {
    min_stack.items.pop_back();
}
int get_min() {
    int val, min;
    std::tie(val, min) = min_stack.items.back();
    return min;
}
```

Task Min queue

Design a queue that supports $push_back()$, $pop_front()$, and retrieveMin() operations in O(1) of time.

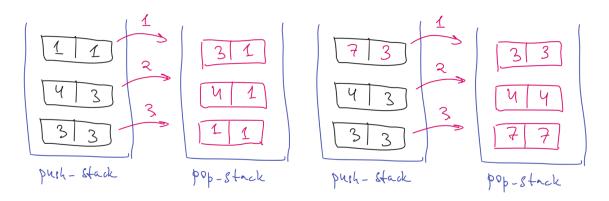
Solution

Remember the implementation of a queue using 2 stacks?

Let's use that implementation and for both push-stack (s1) and pop-stack (s2) we will keep a minimum as in the solution of a **min stack** problem above.

Now, the minimum in a queue is the minimum among both minimums from push-stack and pop-stack: $min(s_1.top().min,\ s_2.top().min)$

The process of moving elements from push-stack into pop-stack should be altered slightly: We need to relax the minimum of each extracted pair $\langle x, m \rangle$ from push-stack by a minimum of x and x are pair into x and x and x are pair into x are pair into x and x are pair into x are pair into x and x are pair into x and x are pair into x are pair into x are pair into x and x are pair into x are pair into x are pair into x are pair into x and x are pair into x are pair into x and x ar



```
// Note: checks for emptiness omitted
struct MinQueue {
    vector<pair<int, int>> s1; // push-stack
    vector<pair<int, int>> s2; // pop-stack
};
void push(int x) {
    pair < int, int > p = \{ x, std :: min(x, s1.top().second) \};
    s1.push_back(p);
}
void pop() {
    if (s2.empty()) {
        while(!s1.empty()) {
            int val, min;
            std::tie(val, min) = s1.back(); s1.pop_back();
            s2.push_back({ val, std::min(val, s2.back().second) });
        }
    }
    s2.pop_back();
}
void get_min() {
    return std::min(s1.back().second, s2.back().second);
}
```