COMP 252: Summary

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This is a condensed scribing of the lectures given by Luc Devroye in the Winter semester of 2018 for the Honours Data Structures and Algorithms class (COMP 252, McGill University). Subjects covered: Divide-and-Conquer algorithm examples, Dynamic Programming, various Abstract Data Types and implementations.

Definitions & Theorems

Introduction

Definition 1. An **algorithm** is a finite set of instructions which takes in a finite number of inputs, performs a task exactly, produces a finite output and exits. (c.f. Church-Turing Thesis.)

Definition 2. We examine two **cost models**:

- 1. *Uniform cost model:* every operation takes 1 time unit.
- 2. *Bitwise (logarithmic) cost model:* every *bit* operation takes 1 time unit (i.e. basic operations like reading, shifting, etc.).

Complexity

Definition 3. An **oracle** is a black-box type device capable of solving some computational problem in a single time unit: takes in input(s) x_1, \dots, x_n and provides output(s) y_1, \dots, y_k .

Definition 4. *O* **- Big O**: upper bound. We say that $a_n = O(b_n)$ if $\exists c > 0$, $n_0 > 0$ such that $a_n \le cb_n$, $\forall n \ge n_0$.

Definition 5. Ω **- Big Omega**: lower bound. We say that $a_n = \Omega(b_n)$ if $\exists c > 0, n_0 > 0$ such that $a_n \geq cb_n$, $\forall n \geq n_0$.

Definition 6. Θ **- Big Theta**: precise asymptotic behaviour. We say that $a_n = \Theta(b_n)$ if $a_n = O(b_n) = \Omega(b_n)$.

Recurrences

Theorem 7 (Master Theorem). Given a recurrence $T_n = aT_{\lfloor n/b \rfloor} + f(n)$,

(a)
$$n^{\log_b a}/f(n) > n^{\epsilon} \ \forall n \geq n_0 \implies T_n = O(n^{\log_b a})$$
.

(b)
$$f(n)/n^{\log_b a} > n^{\epsilon} \ \forall n \geq n_0 \implies T_n = O(f(n)).$$
²

(c)
$$f(n) = \Theta(n^{\log_b a}) \implies T_n = \Theta(n^{\log_b a} \cdot \log_b n).$$

Lower Bounds chapter: if the lower bound for solving a problem with input of size n is f_n , it implies that \forall algorithms (most efficient), \exists an input x_1, \dots, x_n (worst-case) s.t. $T(\text{algorithm}, x_1, \dots, x_n) \geq f_n$.

$$\lim_{n\to\infty} \left(\frac{f(n)}{a \cdot f(n/b)} \right) > 1.$$

¹ If $n^{\log_b a}/f(n) = \Theta(n^c) \ \forall n \ge n_0$, then $T_n = \Theta(n^{\log_b a})$ instead.

² This case holds under the technical assumption

Definition 8. An algorithm's **recursion tree** is an a-ary tree used to visualize its recurrence given as $T_n = a \cdot T_{n/b} + f(n)$. Calling T_n costs f(n) units of "work" and results in a new problem with worst-case time $T_{n/b}$ being called "a" times. Each node in the tree represents an algorithm call, with the root node referring to the first call on a problem of size n. Given the recursion tree for some algorithm, the **time complexity** of the algorithm is the sum of the required work over all of its nodes.

Lower Bounds

c.f. Devroye's printed notes for theory.

Data Structures

Definition 9. An **endogenous** data structure stores values in the structure, while an **exogenous** data structure maintains pointers to externally stored values.

The node representing a problem of time n is denoted by



where f(n) is the work required, and each of the "a" lines lead to a problem of size n/b.

Divide-and-Conquer

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Example 1.1. Fast Exponentiation: compute x^n efficiently.

$$\begin{bmatrix} x_n \\ x_{n-1} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_{n-1} \\ x_{n-2} \end{bmatrix} = M^2 \begin{bmatrix} x_{n-2} \\ x_{n-3} \end{bmatrix} = \dots = M^{n-1} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_0 \end{bmatrix}$$

TIME COMPLEXITY:

RAM model: Bit model:
$$T_n = T_{\frac{n}{2}} + 1 \qquad T_n = T_{\frac{n}{2}} + n^2$$

$$\Rightarrow T_n = \Theta(\log_2 n) \qquad \Rightarrow T_n = \Theta(n^2)$$

LECTURE 01/11³

Example 1.2. Chip Testing: determine state (G/B) of all chips, where tester oracle has two chips evaluate each other, i.e. 3 possible outputs: GG (both from \mathscr{G} or both from \mathscr{B}), GB and BB (at least one from \mathscr{B}).⁴

Algorithm(n)

- 1 GOOD = FINDGOODCHIP(n)
- do n-1 tests against GOOD to determine state of all chips.

FINDGOODCHIP(n)

```
if n = 1 return the one chip.
    if n even
          pair all chips and test (n/2 pairs).
 3
          eliminate all non-GG pairs.
 4
          eliminate the second chip of each GG pair.
 5
          FINDGOODCHIP(remaining chips)
 6
    else if n odd
 7
 8
          take a random chip x and test against all other chips.
          take a majority vote:
 9
         if \geq \frac{n-1}{2} G votes: x \in \mathcal{G}
10
               return x
11
          else x \in \mathcal{B}
12
               eliminate x
13
               FINDGOODCHIP(remaining chips with n even)
14
```

TIME COMPLEXITY of FINDGOODCHIP(n):

$$\begin{cases} T_n \leq \frac{3n}{2} + T_{\lfloor \frac{n}{2} \rfloor} \\ T_1 = 0, \ T_2 = 0 \end{cases} \Rightarrow T_n = \Theta(n)$$

Compute M^n , where $M = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$:

MATRIX(n)1 **if** n = 0 **return** $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$ 2 if n = 1 return Mif *n* even return MATRIX $(\frac{n}{2})$ if *n* odd return MATRIX $(\frac{n-1}{2}) \cdot M$

3 Scribed: 2018.

⁴ Given $|\mathcal{G}| > |\mathcal{B}|$ where: \mathcal{G} : set of good chips; B: set of bad chips

Example 1.3. Karatsuba Multiplication: multiply two n-bit numbers a_n and b_n efficiently.

$$a_n \times b_n = \alpha_1 \beta_1 + \alpha_2 \beta_2 + (\alpha_1 \beta_2 + \alpha_2 \beta_1) \times 2^{n/2}$$

where
$$\alpha_1 \beta_2 + \alpha_2 \beta_1 = (\alpha_1 - \alpha_2)(\beta_1 - \beta_2) + \alpha_1 \beta_1 + \alpha_2 \beta_2$$
.

 $Multiply(a_n, b_n)$

1 ONE = MULTIPLY(
$$\alpha_1, \beta_1$$
)

2 Two = Multiply(
$$\alpha_2, \beta_2$$
)

3 THREE = MULTIPLY(
$$\alpha_1 - \alpha_2, \beta_1 - \beta_2$$
)

4 **return** ONE + TWO + (ONE + TWO + THREE)
$$\times 2^{n/2}$$
 (shifting)

TIME COMPLEXITY:

$$T_n = 3T_{\frac{n}{2}} + 2n + 10n \quad \Rightarrow \ T_n = \Theta(n^{\log_2 3})$$

Example 1.4. Convex Hull: find C.H. in order given n points in \mathbb{R}^2 .

FINDUPPERHULL $(1 \cdots n)$

- 1 FINDUPPERHULL $(1, ..., \frac{n}{2})$.
- 2 FINDUPPERHULL($\frac{n}{2} + 1, ..., n$).
- 3 Merge

progress by *x*-coordinate from left to right, eliminate points with angle $< 180^{\circ}$.

TIME COMPLEXITY:

$$T_n = 2T_{\frac{n}{2}} + n \quad \Rightarrow \ T_n = \Theta(n \log n)$$

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Example 1.5. Strassen Matrix Multiplication: matrix multiply two $n \times n$ matrices A and B.

$$A \times B = \begin{bmatrix} A_1 & A_2 \\ A_3 & A_4 \end{bmatrix} \times \begin{bmatrix} B_1 & B_2 \\ B_3 & B_4 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} A_1B_1 + A_2B_2 & A_1B_2 + A_2B_4 \\ A_3B_1 + A_4B_3 & A_3B_2 + A_4B_4 \end{bmatrix}$$

Use algebraic trick to reduce the 8 multiplications to 7, yielding: TIME COMPLEXITY:

$$T_n = n^2 + 7T_{n/2} \Rightarrow T_n = \Theta(n^{\log_2 7}) \approx \Theta(n^{2.807})$$

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Example 1.6. Selection Problem: finding the kth smallest number in a set $S = \{x_1, \dots, x_n\}$.

$$\begin{cases} a_n = (\underbrace{[010...]}_{\alpha_2} \underbrace{[...001]}_{\alpha_1}) = \alpha_1 + \alpha_2 \times 2^{n/2} \\ b_n = (\underbrace{[000...]}_{\beta_2} \underbrace{[...110]}_{\beta_1}) = \beta_1 + \beta_2 \times 2^{n/2} \end{cases}$$

TOOM-COOK OPTIMIZATION:

$$T_n = 5T_{n/3} + o(n) = \Theta(n^{\log_3 5})$$



Figure 1: Diagram of the merging step. The blue and black lines are the two upper hulls.

⁵ Scribed: 2018, Adam.

⁶ Scribed: 2018, Olivia

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Example 1.7. Mergesort. Prove inductively that $T_n = \Theta(n \log n)$. $T_n = n - 1 + T_{\left\lceil \frac{n}{2} \right\rceil} + T_{\left\lceil \frac{n}{2} \right\rceil}$, where n: number of comparisons.

Proof. Hypothesis P(n): $\exists c > 0$ s.t. $T_n \le cn \log_2 n$.

- Base Case n = 0: OK.
- **Inductive Step**: Assume P(k) true up to n-1.

 $T_n \le n - 1 + 2c\left(\frac{n}{2}\right)\log_2\left(\frac{n}{2}\right) \qquad T_n \le n - 1 + c\left(\frac{n+1}{2}\right)\log_2\left(\frac{n+1}{2}\right) + c\left(\frac{n-1}{2}\right)\log_2\left(\frac{n-1}{2}\right)$ $= n - 1 + cn\log_2 n - cn$ $\leq c n \log_2 n \qquad \text{for all } c \geq 1 \qquad = n - 1 + c \frac{n}{2} \log_2 \left(\frac{n^2 - 1}{4} \right) + \frac{1}{2} c \log_2 \left(\frac{n + 1}{n - 1} \right)$ $\leq n - 1 + c \frac{n}{2} \log_2 \left(\frac{n^2}{4} \right) + \frac{1}{2} c \log_2(2)$ $= n - 1 + c\frac{n}{2}(2\log_2 n - 2) + \frac{1}{2}c$ $= n - 1 - c(n - \frac{1}{2}) + cn\log_2 n$ $\leq c n \log_2 n$ for all c > 0

Example 1.8. Selection Problem Take II. Finding the k^{th} smallest element in a set of size n.

Dynamic Programming

Example 2.1. Binomial Coefficient.

Example 2.2. Travelling Salesman Problem.

Example 2.3. LCS.

Example 2.4. Knapsack Problem.

Example 2.5. Optimal Binary Search Tree

- Context: Static trees are simpler versions of normal dynamic search trees: no adding, removing, etc. They are used for example in CPU for parsing programs (reading key words). The cost of the tree is defined as: $C = \sum_{i=1}^{n} w_i l_i$ where w_i are is weights of each key and l_i its level (distance from the root)
- Goal: Given a static set of *n* ordered keys with weights assigned to each, find the minimizing tree (minimize *C*).

Algorithm to find C[1, n]:

$$C[i,j] = \text{minimal optimal cost for problem with items } i \cdots j.$$

$$\implies \text{Will need } W[i,j] = \sum_{k=1}^{j} w_k = \text{weights of } i \cdots j.^8$$

 8 This can be done in $\Theta(n^2)$ time:

Weights (w_i)

Dynamic Program

Initialization

Initialization

Initialization

If or
$$i = 1$$
 to n

Initialization

Ini

 \Longrightarrow The complexity of this algorithm is $O(n^3)$ since we have $\sum_{k=2}^{n} \sum_{m=1}^{n} size$ computations/runs through the loop.⁹

 9 Knuth reduced this to n^{2} : look up and add info.

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Example 2.6. Matching Problem.

Example 2.7. Job Scheduling.

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¹⁰ c.f. Devroye's printed notes.

3 Data Structures

LECTURE 02/06

3.1 Lists

LECTURE 02/08

3.2 Trees

types of trees

traversals & transforming btw storing representations lung diagram

LECTURE 02/13

dictionaries

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11 Scribed: 2018, Akshal

3.4 Augmenting Data Structures

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12 c.f. CLRS

Example 3.1. RB tree + Linked List.

Example 3.2. Order Statistic Tree.

Example 3.3. Interval Tree.

Example 3.4. Level Linked RB Tree (for fast browsing).

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3.5 Cartesian Trees

Definition 10. A **cartesian tree** on n nodes (Figure 3.5) is a binary tree storing n tuples (x_i, y_i) : (key, timestamp): we build a BST by inserting the nodes by increasing timestamps. The cartesian tree is therefore a *binary search tree* with respect to keys x_i , and a *heap* with respect to timestamps y_i .

Example 3.5. BST: inserting x_1, \dots, x_n in sequence, i.e. a cartesian tree for $(x_1, 1), (x_2, 2), \dots, (x_n, n)$.

Example 3.6. RBST: randomly permuting all elements before adding them, i.e. a cartesian tree for $(x_1, \tau_1), (x_2, \tau_2), \cdots, (x_n, \tau_n)$ where (τ_1, \cdots, τ_n) is a random permutation of $(1, \cdots, n)$.

Example 3.7. Treap: same concept as RBST, i.e. a cartesian tree for $(x_1, u_1), (x_2, u_2), \dots, (x_n, u_n)$ where $u_i \in [0, 1] \in \mathbb{R}$ random.

ATOMIC OPERATIONS ON CARTESIAN TREES:

i.e. FIX-ing operations: the input is (v, t), a Cartesian tree t in which only one node, v, does not satisfy the heap property.

FIX-UP(node)

```
    while node ≠ root && node.y < node.parent.y</li>
    if node == node.parent.right then
    node.parent.right = node.left
    node.left = node.parent
    node.parent.left = node.right
    node.right = node.parent
```

13 Scribed: 2017 notes.

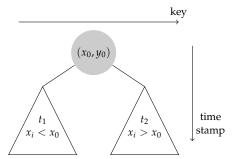


Figure 2: Diagram of a cartesian tree: (BST) keys are increasing when sweeping from left to right, and (heap) timestamps are increasing on any path from a root to a leaf.

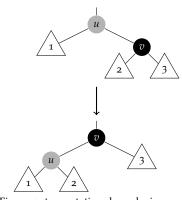


Figure 3: tree rotation done during FIX-UP and FIX-DOWN. In FIX-UP, the black node v is misplaced, it should be above the gray node u. In FIX-DOWN, the gray node is misplaced, it should be below the black one (only difference is which we are pointing to).

FIX-DOWN(node)

```
while node is not leaf && (node.y > node.left.y | | node.y > node.right.y)
if node.right.y > node.left.y then
node.left = node.left.right
node.left.right = node
node.right = node.right.left
node.right.left = node
```

OTHER OPERATIONS ON CARTESIAN TREES:

- 1. INSERT(t,(x,y)): Inputs are a Cartesian tree t and a node (x,y) to be added to the tree. First, insert the node (x,∞) just as you would do it in a binary search tree, implying the node will be a leaf since the heap property must be satisfied. Second, change the node to (x,y) and use FIX-UP to fix the Cartesian tree.
- 2. DELETE(t, node): Inputs are a Cartesian tree t and a pointer node to a node that will be removed. First, change node.y to ∞ and use FIX-DOWN to move the node down the tree. It will end up as a leaf so the second step is just to remove the node.
- 3. JOIN(t_1,t_2): Inputs are two Cartesian trees t_1 and t_2 that need to be joined into a single tree, given that all keys in t_1 are smaller than all keys in t_2 . First, create a temporary node $(k, -\infty)$ such that $MAX_X(t_1) < k < MIN_X(t_2)$ and let its left child be the root of t_1 while its right child is the root of t_2 . Second, delete the node and the tree will fix itself up.
- 4. SPLIT(t,k): Inputs are a Cartesian tree t and a value k that will split the tree into two trees that have x coordinates smaller than k and bigger than k, respectively. First, insert a temporary node $(k, -\infty)$ (it will end up as a root) and after the procedure, the left subtree and right subtree of the node are the trees we are looking for.

EXPECTED VALUE ANALYSIS FOR TREAPS:

Define D_k to be the depth of the node with rank k, namely (k, T_k) . Since the depth of a node is equivalent to the number of ancestors it has, let

$$D_k = \sum_{j \neq k} X_{jk}$$
 where $X_{jk} = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{if } j \text{ ancestor of } k \\ 0, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$

Exercise 3.8. Study how to do these (recursively) without using FIX-UP and FIX-DOWN.

So next we wish to calculate the expected value for D_k .

$$\begin{split} \mathbb{E}[D_k] &= \sum_{j \neq k} \mathbb{P}((j, T_j) \text{ is an ancestor of } (i, T_i)) \\ &= \sum_{j \neq k} \mathbb{P}(T_j \text{ is the smallest of } T_j, T_{j+1}, \cdots, T_k) \\ &= \sum_{j < k} \frac{1}{k - j + 1} + \sum_{j > k} \frac{1}{j - k + 1} \\ &= \left(\frac{1}{2} + \cdots + \frac{1}{k}\right) + \left(\frac{1}{2} + \cdots + \frac{1}{n - k}\right) \\ &= (H_k - 1) + (H_{n - k + 1} - 1) \\ &\leq 2 \ln(n) \simeq 1.39 \log_2(n). \end{split}$$

We will denote H_k to be the harmonic number, $\sum_{n=1}^k \frac{1}{n} = 1 + \frac{1}{2} + \cdots + \frac{1}{k}$. It can be approximated by $\int_i^k \frac{1}{x} dx \approx \ln(k)$ but more importantly, it can be bounded as $H_k \in [\ln(k+1), \ln(k) + 1]$.

Example 3.9. Quicksort Tree: the QUICKSORT procedure is equivalent to building a Treap (or RBST): same number of comparisons needed.

Quicksort(list, low, high)

- i = random index between low and high
- 2 a = list[i]
- 3 **if** high > low **then**
- Partition list[low...high] so elements before index j are smaller than a and elements after index j are greater than a
- 5 Quicksort(list, low, j 1)
- 6 QUICKSORT(list, j + 1, high)

EXPECTED COMPLEXITIES FOR QUICKSORT:

1. Let $C_n = \#$ of comparisons $= \sum_{i=1}^n D_i$.

$$\mathbb{E}[C_n] = \sum_{i=1}^n E[D_i] = \sum_{i=1}^n (H_i + H_{n-i+1} - 2) = 2 \sum_{i=1}^n (H_i - 1)$$

$$= 2 \sum_{i=1}^n H_i - 2n = 2 \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^i \frac{1}{j} - 2n = 2 \sum_{j=1}^n \frac{1}{j} \sum_{i=j}^n 1 - 2n$$

$$= 2 \sum_{j=1}^n \frac{1}{j} (n - j + 1) - 2n = 2(n + 1)H_n - 4n$$

$$\approx 2n \ln(n) = 1.386294 \dots n \log_2(n)$$

2. Operations Insert, Delete, Join and Split are all $O(\log n)$.

3.6 Priority Queues

Definition 11. A **priority queue** is an abstract data structure storing items with keys, supporting operations INSERT, DELETEMIN,

DELETE, DECREASEKEY and sometimes SEARCH. Implementation possibilities are red-black trees, standard heaps or **tournament trees**. It can be applied to (1) sorting, (2) operating systems, and (3) Discrete Event Simulation (DES).

Definition 12. A **tournament tree** is a complete binary tree where all items are leaves (n) and all internal nodes represent matches between two items, where they store pointers to winners of the match (n-1). It is implemented as an array.¹⁴

14 insert figures

- 4 Strings
- 4.1 Information Theory

LECTURE 03/13

4.2 Data Structures

LECTURE 03/16

Items 1. - 3. are used for strings $x_1, ..., x_n$ where $x_i = (x_{i1} \ x_{i2} \ ...)$ s.t. $x_{ij} \in A$ (alphabet); and items 4. - 6. are used for text $T = (t_1 \ ... \ t_n)$ where $t_i \in A$.

- 1. TRIE: a tree-based data structure for storing strings, where each string is a path in the *k*-ary tree (each edge is a letter from the *k*-alphabet). The leaf stores the string's index.
- 2. PATRICIA TRIE: a compact trie, where all the nodes with one child are collapsed.
- 3. DIGITAL SEARCH TREE (DST): a k-ary tree where one inserts x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_n in turn, and each string occupies the first available slot in a method like a binary search tree.
- 4. SUFFIX TRIE: a trie containing the n suffixes of the given text T.
- 5. SUFFIX TREE: a PATRICIA version of the suffix trie.
- 6. SUFFIX ARRAY: a sorted array containing a lexicographical ordering of the suffixes, i.e. with leaf numbers in the suffix trie seen in preorder. One can then locate strings by binary search $O(\log n)$.

4.3 String Matching

Algorithm by Knuth, Morris and Pratt given a text T of length n and pattern P of length m where $m \ll n$ which runs in time O(m+n) = O(n) as opposed to the naive O(mn).

Data structures used for a trie:

- (a) array of children (time efficient)
- (b) linked list of children (space efficient)

Show that for a k-ary PATRICIA, the number of nodes is less than 2n - 1

$$T = T[1] \dots T[n] = x_1$$

 $T[2] \dots T[n] = x_2$
 \dots
 $T[n] = x_n$

KMP Algorithm(T, P)

- 1 preprocess P in time O(m)
- 2 actual string matching with T in time O(n)