

# Asymptotics

Notation	Meaning	Family members
Big Theta $\Theta(N^2)$	Order of growth is EQUAL TO. Usually qualified by on average, worst case, etc.	$\frac{1}{2}N^2$ $2N^2$ $N^2 + 50N$ } most precise
Big O $O(N^2)$	Order of growth is LESS THAN OR EQUAL to.	$5N^2$ $\log(N)$ } upper bound only
Big Omega $\Omega(N^2)$	Order of growth is GREATER THAN OR EQUAL to.	$2N^2$ $N^3$ $2^n$ } lower bound only
Tilde $f(n) \sim g(n)$	$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{f(n)}{g(n)} = 1$	$42N \log(N) + 50N$ $42N \log(N)$ } both upper & lower bound

## Analysis Tips

We analyze performance for LARGE  $N$  & ignore lower and constant multiplicative terms.

For Loops Sequence usually takes form  $\Theta(N)$  or  $\Theta(\log(N))$

Nested For Loops Series usually takes form  $\Theta(N)$  or  $\Theta(N^2)$

Arithmetic series:  $1 + 2 + 3 + 4 \dots = \frac{n(n+1)}{2} = \Theta(N^2)$

Geometric series:  $1 + 2 + 4 + 8 \dots = 2n - 1 = \Theta(N)$

Recursion Draw out recursion tree.

Calculate work done at each level.

Substitute in the height of the tree.

Ex return  $S(n/2) + S(n/2)$

$1 + 2 + 4 \dots + 2^{\log_2 N} = N$

Ex return  $S(n/2) + g(n) + S(n/2)$

Each level:  $N$  Height:  $\log_2 N = N \log N$

Ex return  $S(n/3) + g(n) + S(n/3)$

Each level:  $(\frac{N}{3})^L$  Height:  $\log_3 N = N$

Ex return  $S(n-1) + S(n-2)$

Each level:  $2^L$   $L = N = 2^N$

## Empirical Analysis

Assume  $R(N) \sim aN^b$

N	time
500	0.08s
1000	1.22s
4000	5.15s
8000	43.60s

$$\frac{R(8000)}{R(4000)} = \frac{a 8000^b}{a 4000^b}$$

$$\frac{43.65}{5.15} = \left(\frac{8000}{4000}\right)^b$$

$$8.47 = 2^b$$

$$b = \log_2 8.47 = 3.08$$

$$R(N) \sim 4.14 \times 10^{-11} N^{3.08}$$

## Reminders

$\log_x N \in \Theta(\log_y N)$

$2^{\log_2 N} \in \Theta(N)$

$2^{2N} = (2^2)^N = 4^N$

array construction is  $\Theta(N)$

$$\log_a b = \frac{\log b}{\log a}$$

## Pseudocode

```

public boolean isConnected {
    return find(p) == find(q)
}

private find(int p, int q) {
    while (p != parent[p]) {
        p = parent[p];
    }
    return p;
}
    
```

```

public class WeightedQuickUnion {
    public WeightedQuickUnion(int N) {
        parent = new int[N];
        size = new int[N];
        for (int i = 0; i < N; i++) {
            parent[i] = i;
            size[i] = 1;
        }
    }
}
    
```

```

public void connect(int p, int q) {
    int rootP = find(p);
    int rootQ = find(q);
    if (size[rootP] < size[rootQ]) {
        parent[rootP] = rootQ;
        size[rootQ] += size[rootP];
    } else {
        parent[rootQ] = rootP;
        size[rootP] += size[rootQ];
    }
}
    
```

## Amortized Cost Example (Inserting into Arraylist)

Insert #:	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
Total Cost:	1	3	5	1	9	1	1	1	17
Amortized Cost:	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5
Change in Potential:	4	2	0	4	-4	4	4	4	-12
Potential:	0	4	6	6	10	6	10	14	6

Choose  $\alpha_i$  as low as possible to keep potential  $> 0$ . Since potential  $> 0$ , amortized analysis guarantees the operation is at most  $\alpha_i$ .

## Disjoint Sets

Methods connect(int p, int q)  
isConnected(int p, int q)

Uses Discover if a path exists between things quickly & efficiently

## Implementations (from worst to best)

Quickfind uses an array  $id[]$  of length  $N$  to store the set each object belongs to. To connect  $p$  and  $q$ , we set every object in  $p$ 's set to be in  $q$ 's set.

- connect  $\Theta(N)$

- isConnected  $\Theta(1)$

NOT Possible:  $\begin{matrix} 0 & 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 & 5 & 6 & 7 & 8 \\ 3 & 1 & 4 & 4 & 4 & 4 & 3 & 4 & 4 \end{matrix}$   
(3 must've been updated. All other 3's would've updated too)

QuickUnion uses an array  $id[]$  of length  $N$  to store parent of object  $i$ . A  $find()$  method climbs ladder of parents until it reaches an object whose parent is itself ( $i == id[i]$ ). To connect  $p$  and  $q$ , we set parent of  $p$  to the parent of  $q$ .

- connect  $\Theta(N)$  in worst case

- isConnected  $\Theta(1)$  in worst case

Height best: 1  
Height worst:  $N-1$

Weighted QuickUnion Same as QuickUnion, but connect( $p, q$ ) changes the parent of the smaller tree (by # of nodes, not height) to the parent of the larger tree. Requires a new  $size[]$  array that's updated every connection. Tree heights are at most  $\log N$ .

- connect  $\Theta(\log N)$  in worst case

- isConnected  $\Theta(\log N)$  in worst case

## Weighted QuickUnion with Path Compression

When find is called, every node along the way is set to the parent index.

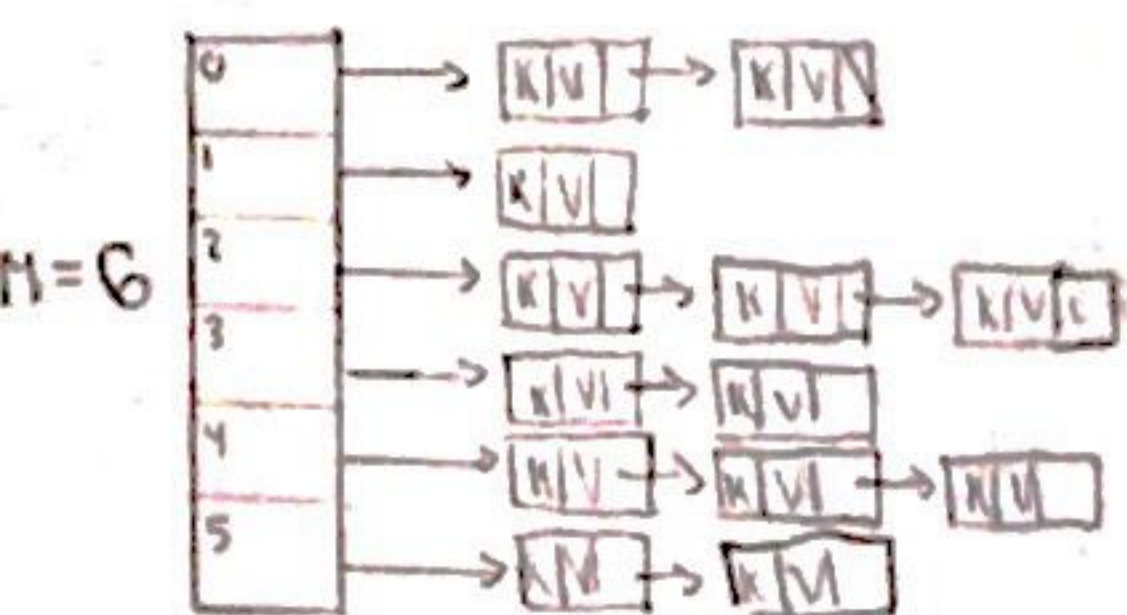
- connect  $\Theta(\log^* N)$  in worst case

- isConnected  $\Theta(\log^* N)$  in worst case

max 5 for any reasonable  $N$



## Hash Sets / Hash Tables



Contains and insert operations are  $O(L)$ , where  $L$  is the load factor  $= N/M$ .  
With external chaining with resizing,  $L \in O(1)$  amortized. Thus contains and insert are amortized constant time.  
(not guaranteed! assuming good spread)

## Hash Functions

Must always return same hash for same objects, and should have infrequent collisions. Should override this method whenever equals is overridden.

### Hashing collections:

```
int hash = 1;
for (Object item: collection) {
    hash = hash * 31; ← some odd #, not power of 2
    hash += item.hashCode();
}
```

### Hashing Recursive Structure:

```
if (this == null) return 0;
return this.value.hashCode() +
    31 * this.left.hashCode() +
    31 * 31 * this.right.hashCode();
```

Index into array usually computed as follows:

```
int index = (hashCode() & 0x7FFFFFFF) % M
            ↑ set sign bit to 0
```

Note that the multiplier shouldn't equal  $M$ . This is because the index will be dependent on the least significant entry; in the case of Java's String `hashCode()`, this is the last character in the string.

Uses Good for memoization. Can be used to solve 3Sum in  $O(N^2)$  time. Insert all elements into a hashmap. For each  $i$  and  $j$  (nested for loops), check if hashmap contains  $x - (A[i] + A[j])$

## Min/Max Heaps

A tree that obeys:

- Min/Max Heap Property: Every node is  $\leq / \geq$  (for min/max respectively) to its children.

- Complete: Missing items (if any) at bottom level and as far left as possible.

\* We index the nodes level-order.

Insert: Add to end of heap. Swim up hierarchy, swapping values until reaching correct place.

Delete min/max: Put last item into the root. Swim down hierarchy, swapping values w/ smaller (if min)/larger (if max) of 2 children.

Implemented as an array of keys, offset by 1, because of completeness.

- add  $O(\log N)$
- getSmallest  $O(1)$
- removeSmallest  $O(\log N)$

uses 1/3 as much memory as BST, and allows duplicates.

\* Any BST can be represented as an array of length  $2^n$

\* To delete any node, same procedure. Just swim up and sink.

## Priority Queue API

```
public interface MinPQ <Item> {
    public void add (Item x);
    public Item getSmallest();
    public Item removeSmallest();
    public int size();
}
```

Best implemented with a binary heap.

## Tree Traversals

### Depth First Traversals $O(N)$

Pre-order: Action, L, R

In-order: L, Action, R

Post-order: L, R, Action

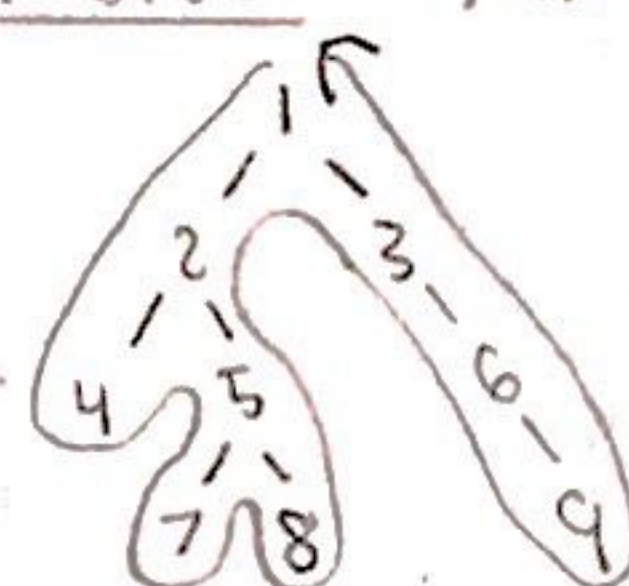
Walk from top of graph, going counterclockwise

Shout when we pass left

Shout when we pass both

Shout when we pass right

good for file size finding  
(not a BST)



Pre: 1 2 4 5 7 8 3 6 9  
In: 4 2 7 5 8 1 3 6 9  
Post: 4 7 8 5 2 9 6 3 1

### Level Order Traversal $O(N)$ full tree, $O(N^2)$ spindly tree

```
public void levelOrder (Tree T, Action do) {
    for (int i = 0; i < T.height(); i++) {
        visitLevel (T, i, do);
    }
}

public void visitLevel (Tree T, int level, Action do) {
    if (T == null) return;
    if (level == 0) do.visit(T.key);
    else {
        visitLevel (T.left(), level - 1);
        visitLevel (T.right(), level - 1);
    }
}
```

Iterative Deepening

```
public class MinPQ <Key implements Comparable> {
    private Key[] pq;
    private int N;

    public MinPQ (int size) {
        pq = (Key[]) new Object[size];
        N = 0;
    }
```

```
    public Key min () {
        return pq[1];
    }
```

```
    public void insert (Key x) {
        N++;
        pq[N] = x;
        swim(N);
    }
```

```
    public Key removeMin () {
        swap(1, N);
        Key min = pq[N--];
        sink(1);
        pq[N+1] = null;
        return min;
    }
```

```
    private void swim (int k) {
        while (k > 1 && pq[k/2].compareTo(pq[k]) > 0) {
            swap(k, k/2);
            k = k/2;
        }
    }
```

```
    private void sink (int k) {
        while (2*k <= N) {
            int j = 2*k;
            if (pq[j] > pq[j+1]) j++;
            if (pq[k] < pq[j]) break;
            swap(k, j);
            k = j;
        }
    }
```



## Binary Search Tree

Uses Can be used to implement an ordered map/set.

When balanced, max/min are  $\Theta(\log N)$ , range

queries are  $\Theta(\log N + Q)$ , and iteration is simple.

Also decent as a priority queue. Best height:  $(\text{int}) \log_2 N$

Worst height:  $N-1$

### BST property

For every node  $X$  in the tree, every key in the left subtree is less than  $X$ 's key and every

key in the right subtree is greater than

$X$ 's key. No duplicates allowed w/o modification.

### Insertion (for a BST set)

```
public BST insert(BST T, Key k) {  
    if (T == null) return new BST(k);  
    else if (k < T.entry()) T.left = insert(T.left, k);  
    else if (k > T.entry()) T.right = insert(T.right, k);  
    return T;  
}
```

### Deletion

Case 1 (No children): Delete node

Case 2 (1 child): Move child up

Case 3 (2 children): Find leftmost node (min)

worst case  $\Theta(n+1)$  or rightmost value (max) in right or left subtree, respectively. Replace node with this found node. Then delete the found min or max.

On random data, insertion & deletion is  $\Theta(\log N)$

On sorted data, insertion & deletion is  $\Theta(N)$

### B Trees (specifically 2-3 Trees)

A B tree of order  $M=3$  consists of nodes with at most  $M-1$  data elements and at most  $M$  children.

They are perfectly balanced, with height between  $\log_M(N)$  and  $\log_2(N)$ . Thus insertion & deletion is  $\Theta(\log N)$ .

$T$  is a 2-3 tree iff the following holds:

$T$  is a node with left subtree  $L$ , middle subtree  $M$ , and right subtree  $R$ , and data elements  $a$  and  $b$ .

-  $L, M, R$  are equal height

-  $a >$  each element in  $L$  and  $\leq$  each element in  $M$

-  $b >$  each element in  $M$  and  $\leq$  each element in  $R$ .

Downsides: Difficult implementation, conversion of node types necessary

### 2-3 Tree Insertion Example (1, 5, 3, 6, 2, 4, 0)

Insert 1 & 5: [1] [5]

Insert 3: [1] [3] [5]  $\rightarrow$  [3] [1] [5]

Insert 6: [3] [1] [5] [6]  $\rightarrow$  [3] [1] [5] [6]

Insert 4: [3] [1] [5] [6] [4]  $\rightarrow$  [3] [5] [1] [2] [4] [6]

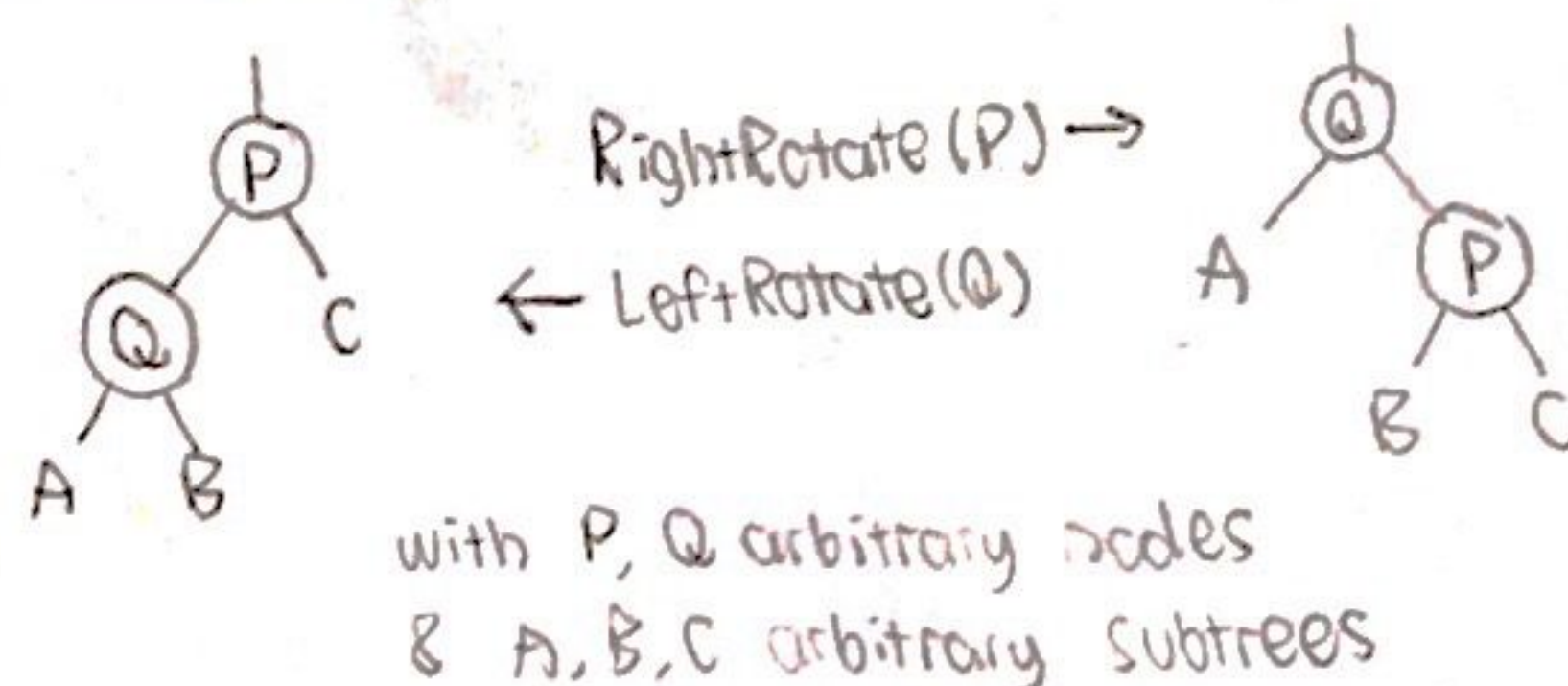
Insert 0: [3] [5] [1] [2] [4] [6] [0]  $\rightarrow$  [3] [5] [1] [2] [4] [6] [0]

Delete 20  
[5] [7] [10] [20]  $\rightarrow$  [5] [7] [10] [15]  
remove node, combine children, move up

\* If root is leaf,

insert into second place. Else if element is less than first, insert (1, left). Else if element is between first & last, insert (1, middle). Else insert (1, right).

### Tree Rotation Invertible, $\Theta(1)$ operation



### Left-Leaning Red-Black Tree

A BST such that

- No node has 2 red links
- Every path from root to leaf has same number of black links
- Red links occur on the left

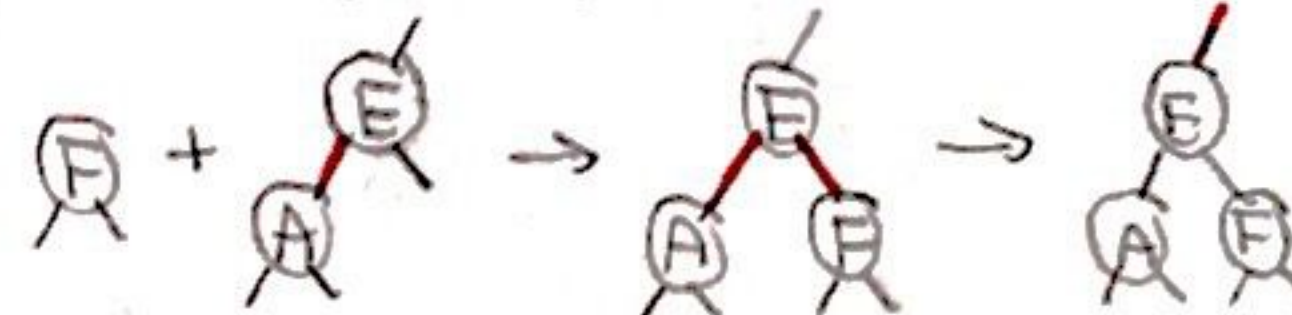
\* Guaranteed fastest for any data set

Max height  $\Theta(2 \log N)$   
To get worst case, stuff as many 3 nodes on the left

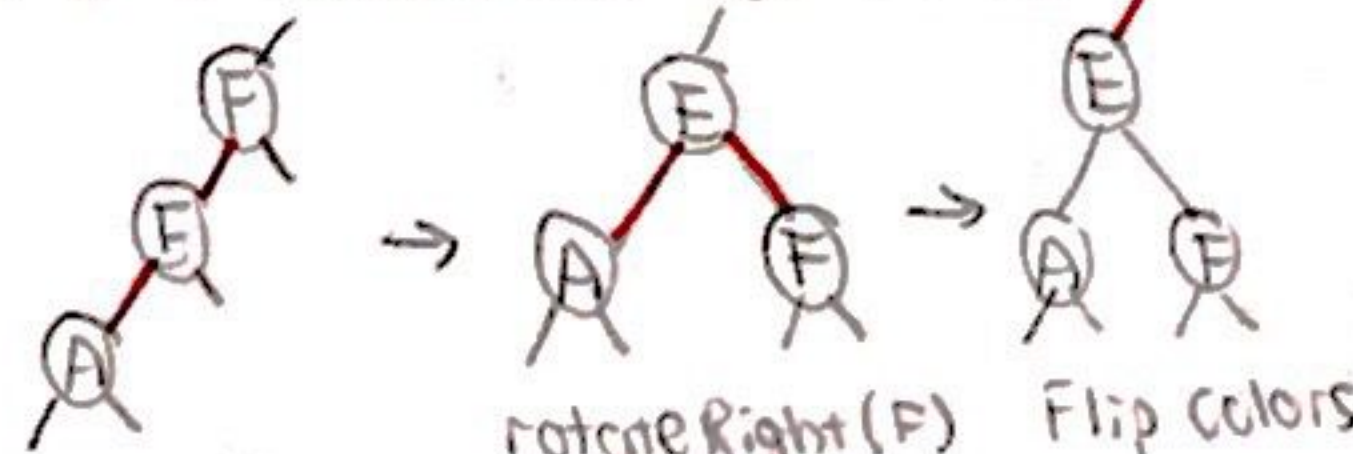
There exists an isometry between 2-3 trees & LLRB trees. They mimic 2-3 tree behavior using color flipping and tree rotation. Easier to implement & constant factor better than B-trees.

### Resolving Violations

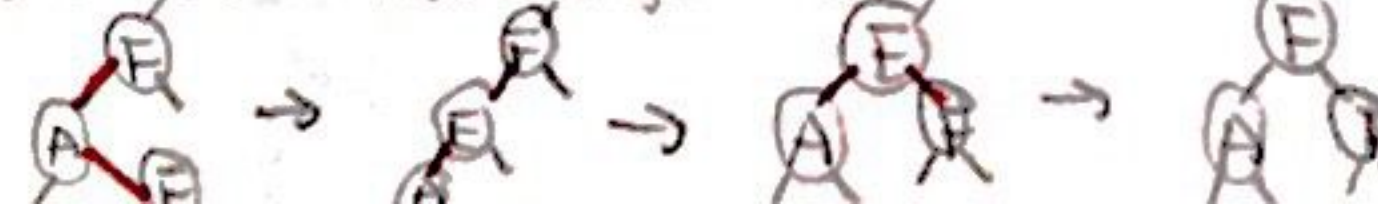
Case 1: 2 Red Children



Case 2: 2 Consecutive Red Links



Case 3: Left-Red-Right-Red



2-3 Equivalent



\* Red links represent connected nodes in 2-3 Tree.

Insertion & Deletion  $\Theta(\log N)$  guaranteed



## Clever Uses of Multiple Data Structures

### Level Order Traversal using queue

- 1) Create empty queue q
- 2) Node = root
- 3) while (node != null)
  - a) action on node.key
  - b) enqueue node's left then right child to q
  - c) dequeue a node from q and assign to node

### Median finder ADT using 2 heaps

Left = max heap

Right = min heap

Insert x into Left if  $x < \text{root of Left}$ , else insert right. If after inserting  $\text{Left.size}() > 1 + \text{Right.size}()$ , then  $\text{Right.add}(\text{Left.removeMax}())$ . Else if  $\text{Right.size}() > \text{Left.size}()$ , then  $\text{Left.add}(\text{Right.removeMin}())$ .

The median is the root of Left.

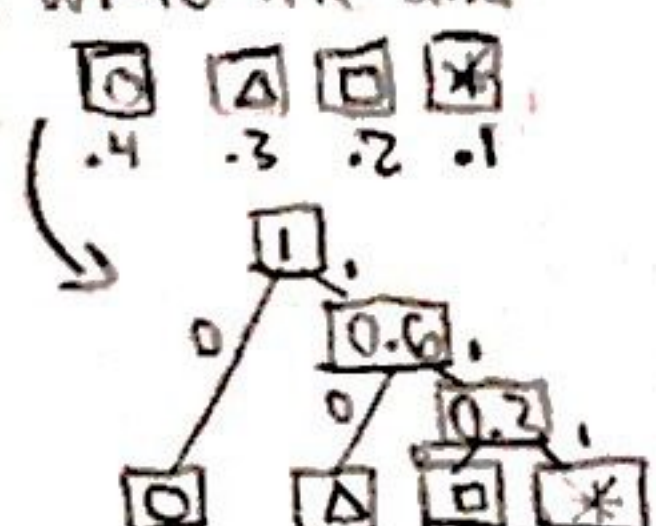
### Huffman Coding

Compress: 1) Calculate frequencies of all symbols in file.

- 2) Assign each symbol to a node. Take two nodes with smallest relative frequency and merge them into supernode. Repeat until everything in a binary tree. Write tree and codewords to compressed file.

Decompress: Read in binary tree.

Use `longestMatchingPrefix()` to walk through tree, outputting symbols when appropriate.



### Implement Max Heap with Min Heap (or vice-versa)

For every insert operation negate the number.

For any `removeMax()`/`removeMin()` operation, negate it again.

### Min() method to a Max Heap (or vice-versa)

Maintain index to min, updating every insert.

The index will still be correct after delete operations.

**QuickSelect**: Find  $k^{\text{th}}$  smallest element in array.

Not used in practice, but could theoretically guarantee  $\Theta(N \log N)$  for quicksort by picking median for pivot. Idea is to partition until pivot is in desired array location, discarding 1 half of each partition at a time.

Best:  $\Theta(N)$  Avg:  $\Theta(N)$  Worst:  $\Theta(N^2)$

### Sorting Lower Bound Need at least $\log(N!)$ to

sort N items with comparisons. Since

$\log(N!) \in \Theta(N \log N)$ , we can say best

possible comparison algorithm  $\in \Omega(N \log N)$

## Sorting Algorithm Summary

Algorithm	Stable?	Best	Avg	Worst	Space	Notes
Selection Sort	N	$\Theta(N^2)$	$\Theta(N^2)$	$\Theta(N^2)$	$\Theta(1)$	
Naive heapsort	N	$\Theta(N \log N)$	$\Theta(N \log N)$	$\Theta(N \log N)$	$\Theta(N)$	Bad caching performance
In-place heapsort	N	$\Theta(N \log N)$	$\Theta(N \log N)$	$\Theta(N \log N)$	$\Theta(1)$	
Mergesort	Y	$\Theta(N \log N)$	$\Theta(N \log N)$	$\Theta(N \log N)$	$\Theta(N)$	Fastest stable sort
Insertion Sort	Y	$\Theta(N)$ <small>sorted</small>	$\Theta(N^2)$	$\Theta(N^2)$ <small>reverse</small>	$\Theta(1)$	Best for small or sorted data; $\Theta(N+K)$ where K is # of inversions.
Quicksort	N*	$\Theta(N \log N)$	$\Theta(N \log N)$	$\Theta(N^2)$	$\Theta(\log N)$	Fastest sort
Non-comparison sorts						
Counting Sort	Y	$\Theta(N+k)$	$\Theta(N+k)$	$\Theta(N+k)$	$\Theta(N+k)$	k = size of alphabet Suitable for $N > k$
LSD Radix Sort	Y	$\Theta(W(N+k))$	$\Theta(W(N+k))$	$\Theta(W(N+k))$	$\Theta(N+k)$	W = length of longest key.
MSD Radix Sort	Y	$\Theta(N+k)$	$\Theta(W(N+k))$	$\Theta(W(N+k))$	$\Theta(N+Wk)$	W recursive levels

### Counting Sort

Let k be the range of input values. Create array of size k to store counts. Count occurrences of each item in array. Iterate through counts array to calculate starting indices of each item. Lastly put items into new array, checking and incrementing target index each time.

Good for sorting large collections of items belonging to an alphabet  $\ll N$ .

**LSD Radix** Good for similar strings, integers

From right to left, run counting sort on each digit/character. This works because counting sort is stable. For unequal key lengths, we must pad. Inefficient for dissimilar string sorting of  $W \gg \text{avg length}$ .

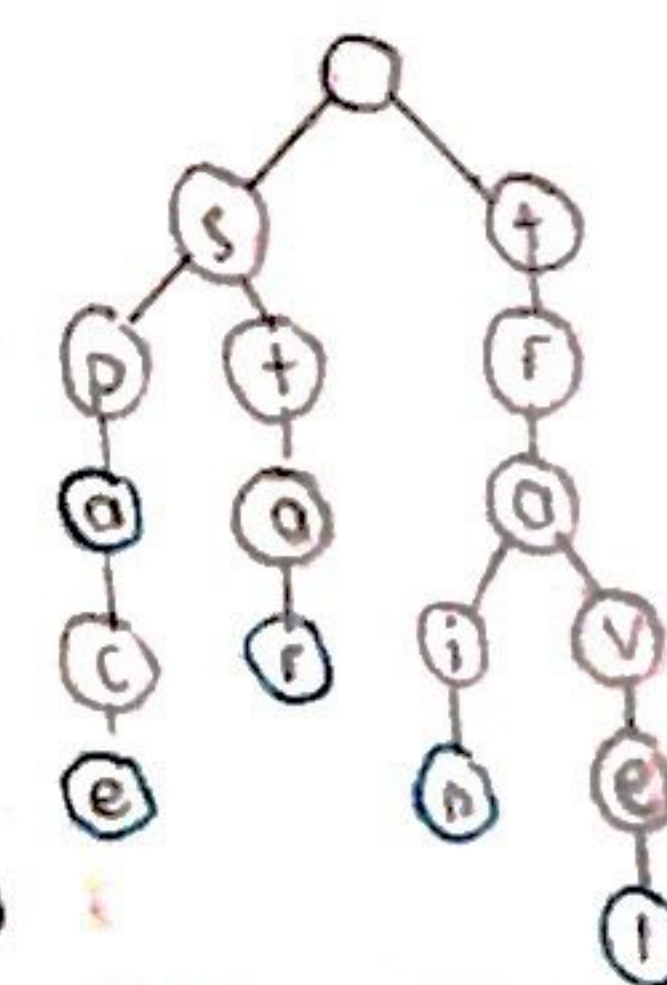
**MSD Radix** Good for strings

Run counting sort on leftmost digit/character. Recursively call MSD sort on each resulting partition at the next index.

### Trie

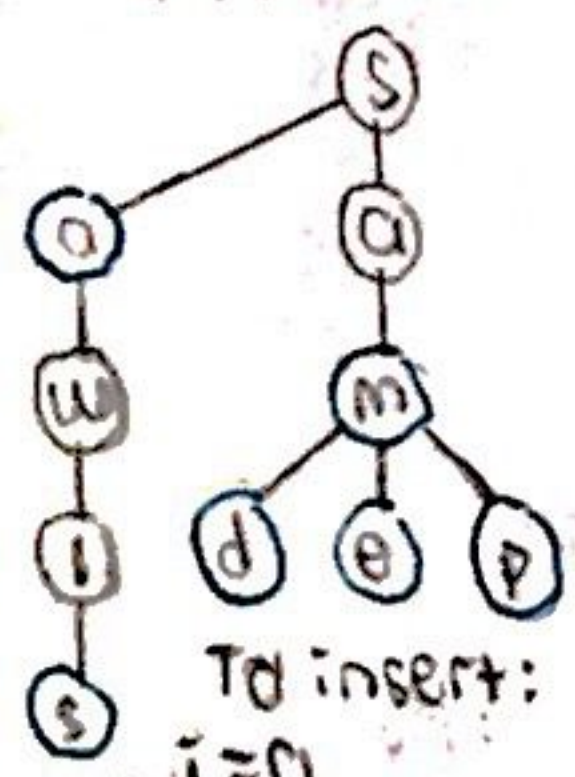
A set/map data structure implemented as a tree of (usually) string keys. Main use is to support character-based operations like prefix matching (by gathering all children that are words). Child links implemented implicitly; for optimal memory usage, should use a `Map<Char, Node>` rather than char-indexed array.

Insert "spa", "space", "star", "train", "travel"



### Ternary Search Trie

Insert "sam", "sad", "sap", "sane", "a", "awls"



To insert:

i = 0

if  $\text{key}[i] == \text{node}$ : go mid,  $i++$

else if  $\text{key}[i] < \text{node}$ : go left

if  $\text{key}[i] > \text{node}$ : go right

### Search Runtime summary

	Worst	Best	Space
Balanced BST	$\Theta(L \log N)$	$\Theta(L)$	$\Theta(NL)$
HashTable	$\Theta(L^*)$	$\Theta(L^*)$	$\Theta(NL)$
Trie (array)	$\Theta(L)$	$\Theta(1)$	$\Theta(NLK)$
Trie (HashMap)	$\Theta(L)$	$\Theta(1)$	$\Theta(NL)$
Trie (TreeMap)	$\Theta(L \log K)$	$\Theta(1)$	$\Theta(NL)$
TST	$\Theta(N)$	$\Theta(1)$	$\Theta(NL)$

log N on average

L = digits in key  
K = alphabet size

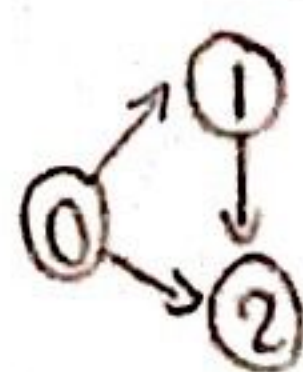
Other uses include spellchecking, longest prefix of



## Graphs

### Adjacency Matrix

	0	1	2
0	0	1	1
1	0	0	1
2	1	0	0



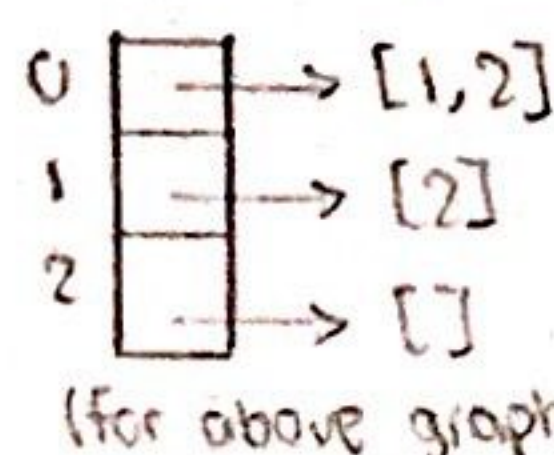
Matrix of ints/booleans indicating presence of edge between vertices.

Pro: fast edge lookup  $O(1)$

Con:  $O(V^2)$  memory (symmetric for undirected graphs) and  $O(V)$  for  $\text{adj}(v)$  lookup

### Adjacency List

Array of lists indexed by vertex (or held by node object)



Pro:  $O(E+V)$  memory, fast iteration, simple  
Con:  $\text{hasEdge}(s, t)$  slower  $O(\text{degree}(v))$

### DepthFirstPaths

Finds a path from  $s$  to every other reachable vertex, visiting each vertex at most once.

`boolean[] marked;`  
`int[] edgeTo;` ← (parent)

```

dfs(Graph G, int v) {
    marked[v] = true;
    for (int w: G.adj(v)) {
        if (!marked[w]) {
            edgeTo[w] = v;
            dfs(G, w);
        }
    }
}

```

$O(E+V)$  time  
 $O(V)$  space

\*  $\text{hasPathTo}(int v)$  return `marked[v]`;  
\* retrace edges to get path

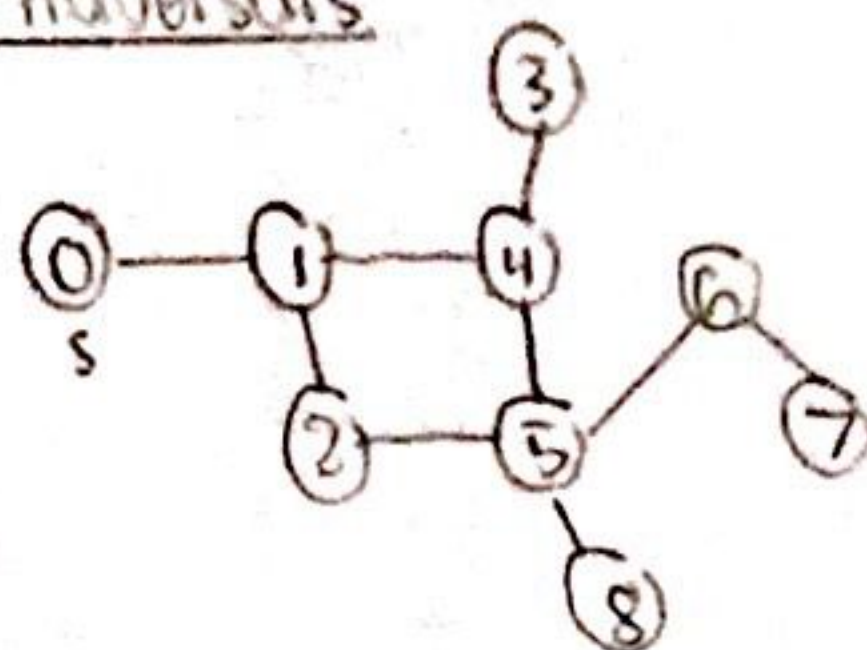
This illustrates the idea of depth first search, guaranteed to reach every vertex. Can be implemented iteratively using stack instead of queue, as in BFS. Must mark as visited after popping, however. (If marked, continue)

Applications:

- Connected Components: partition a graph into connected subgraphs. Run DFS on every vertex if not already marked by a previous DFS. By incrementing a counter each time DFS is run, can partition vertices into distinct subgraphs.

- Cycle detection: return true if during DFS, we encounter adjacent vertex already marked that is not the parent of the node. (For directed graph, use `onStack[]` array to model nodes on DFS call stack)

## Graph Traversals



DFS Preorder: order of DFS calls

0 1 2 5 4 3 6 7 8

DFS Postorder: order of returns from DFS calls

3 4 7 6 8 5 2 1 0

Level Order / BFS: visit all of node's children before visiting any child's children

Topological Sort Find an ordering of vertices consistent with directed edges. (only for DAGs)

- Perform DFS traversal from every vertex with indegree 0 (no edges coming in), NOT clearing markings in between traversals. A valid topological sort is given by the reverse of the concatenated DFS postorders.

$O(E+V)$  time,  $O(V)$  space

BreadthFirstPaths Finds shortest path from  $s$  to every reachable vertex.

`boolean[] marked;`  
`int[] edgeTo;`

\* forms a SPT

$O(E+V)$  time  
 $O(V)$  space

Applications:

- Test bipartiteness: Starting at any vertex, give 0 label to starting vertex, 1 to its neighbors, 0 to its neighbor's neighbors, etc. If at any point a vertex has neighbors with same label as itself, return false.

- Counting degrees of separation

```

bfs(Graph G, int v) {
    Queue<Integer> q = new Queue();
    q.enqueue(v);
    marked[v] = true;
    while (!q.isEmpty()) {
        int v = q.dequeue();
        for (int w: G.adj(v)) {
            if (!marked[w]) {
                q.enqueue(w);
                marked[w] = true;
                edgeTo[w] = v;
            }
        }
    }
}

```

\* Note: fails for negative edge weights

### Shortest Path-Finding with Weighted Edges

For a given start vertex, the shortest paths tree contains  $V-1$  vertices

Dijkstra's Algorithm shortest path from  $s$  to every vertex (w/ weighted edges)  
Idea is to visit vertices in order of best-known distance from source, relaxing (adding to SPT if better than current `distTo`) each edge from visited vertex.

1) Initialize `edgeTo[]` and `distTo[]` arrays, with `distTo[i] = ∞` for all  $i \neq s$ .

\* but we could use `marked[]` array instead, enqueue during relaxation

2) Insert all vertices into Priority Queue, ordered by `distTo`

3) while (`!pq.isEmpty()`)

$v = \text{pq.delMin}()$

for each edge  $e$  in  $G.\text{adj}(v)$ :

Runtime  
 $O(V \log V + V \log V + E \log V)$   
 $= O(E \log V)$   
 $O(V)$  space

if `distTo[dest] > distTo[v] + e.weight`:

`distTo[dest] = distTo[v] + e.weight`

`edgeTo[dest] = v`

`updatePriority(dest, distTo[dest])` if on `pq`

\* once a node has been dequeued, the path to that node is guaranteed shortest (but others may change)



A\*

Special case of Dijkstra's algorithm for when there is a single target in mind. Essentially the same implementation, except PQ is ordered by  $\text{distTo}[v] + h(v, \text{dest})$  where  $h$  is a heuristic (ie. Euclidean distance). Guaranteed correct as long as heuristic does not overestimate distance. Terminates when goal node is reached for first time. For large graphs, better to have a  $\text{HashMap} < \text{Node}, \text{priority} >$  than inserting everything into PQ. Simply check that node is not in map OR priority is less than currently best known one. (Instead of updating priorities on proj3, I just inserted the new, improved node lol)

### Minimum Spanning Trees

A subgraph of an undirected graph that is connected, acyclic (thus a tree), and includes all vertices of minimum total weight. May or may not be the same as SPT of a vertex in the graph. If each edge has a distinct weight, there is a unique MST.

Note: adding constants to edge weights does not affect MST

#### → Prim's Algorithm $O(E \log V)$

Starting from any arbitrary vertex, repeatedly add the shortest edge that connects a vertex in the current tree to an outside vertex. Essentially same logic as Dijkstra's algorithm, but  $\text{distTo}[]$  is set to edge weight (dist from tree) rather than edge weight + distance from source.

#### → Kruskal's Algorithm $O(E \log V)$ w/ sorted edges, $O(E \log E)$ w/ pq

Consider each edge from least to greatest weight. If adding the edge does not result in a cycle, add it to the MST.

while (!pq.isEmpty())

Edge e = pq.dequeue()

if (!uf.connected(sourceV, destV))

uf.union(sourceV, destV)

mst.add(e)

Note: These algorithms fail on directed graphs (unlike Dijkstra's).

Cut Property: Let  $S$  &  $T$  be two disjoint sets formed by arbitrarily partitioning the vertices of the graph. The minimum crossing edge for any partition is part of the MST.

Cycle Property: Given any cycle in an edge-weighted graph, the edge of maximum weight in the cycle does not belong to the MST.

Note: Since SPT is a spanning tree, the total weight of the MST is always  $\leq$  any SPT.

DAGSPT Slight improvement over Dijkstra's algorithm for graphs that are DAGs. Simply find a topological ordering of vertices, and then relax the edges in that order. Runtime is  $O(E + V)$  and works for negative weights.

### DAG Longest Paths Tree

When relaxing an edge, flip sign of inequality.

Equivalently, negate the edge weights. Then do DAGSPT

### Dynamic Programming LIS example

int[] Q = new int[N]

Q[0] = 1, Q[k] = -∞

\*equivalent to finding most edges path in a DAG

for (k = 1; k < N; k++)

for (j = 0; j < k - 1; j++)

$O(N^2)$  if (item j < item k and Q[j] + 1 > Q[k])

Q[k] = Q[j] + 1

### Sorting

#### Selection Sort

Starting at index 0, repeatedly swap element at current index with the minimum element from current index to  $N-1$ , inclusive.

#### Naive Heapsort

Same as selection sort, but use heap-based PQ.

Insert all items into max heap and fill array in reverse.

#### In-Place Heapsort

1) Bottom-up heapify: Treat array as max heap. Delemax (sink) in reverse level order (i.e. reverse iteration),

$O(N) \rightarrow$  Note: Parent is  $\text{floor}(\frac{i-1}{2})$  since no empty index 0

Works because after sinking, tree rooted at k guaranteed heap

2) Delete max, swapping with last item in the active heap. Sink node down. Size of

$O(N \log N)$  active heap decreases from  $N$  to 0 elements as size of sorted list grows from 0 to  $N$ .

#### Mergesort

If  $hi \leq lo$  return. Else, mergesort two roughly equal halves. Then merge the arrays by initializing indices at the starts and incrementing indices when we take the smaller of the two.

#### Insertion Sort

Initialize  $i = 1$ . Invariant: elements to left of  $i$  are sorted. Swap element  $i$  left one-by-one until in its proper place, incrementing  $i$  each iteration.

#### Quicksort

Choose a pivot to partition on. Hoare Partitioning: Pivot at  $lo$ . Initialize  $l = \text{pivot} + 1$ ,  $r = hi$ . Increment  $l$  until  $a[l] \geq \text{pivot}$ . Decrement  $r$  until  $a[r] < \text{pivot}$ . Swap these elements, and increment/decrement  $l/r$ . Repeat until  $l \geq r$ . Swap pivot with  $r$ . Recursively partition new subarrays.

Note that worst case (extremely rare) is caused by pivot being least or greatest entry, in which case partition only decreases by 1. Avg case can be achieved by selecting random pivot or shuffling array. In practice, it's the fastest sorting algorithm.