

RAM Model

Memory

Infinite sequence of cells, contains w bits. Every cell has an address starting at 1

CPU

32 registers of width w bits. **Operations**

Set value to register (constant or from other register). Take two integers from other registers and store the result of; $a + b$, $a - b$, $a \cdot b$, a/b . Take two registers and compare them; $a < b$, $a = b$, $a > b$. Read and write from memory.

Definitions

An algorithm is a set of atomic operations. It's cost is the number of atomic operations. A word is a sequence of w bits

Definitions

Worst-case

Worst-case cost of an algorithm is the longest possible running time of input size n

Random

RANDOM(x , y) returns an integer between x and y chosen uniformly at random

Data Structure

Data Structure describes how data is stored in memory.

Dictionary Search

let n be register 1, and v be register 2

register $left \rightarrow 1$, $right \rightarrow 1$

while $left \leq right$

register $mid \rightarrow (left + right)/2$

if the memory cell at address $mid = v$ then

return yes

else if memory cell at address $mid > v$ then

$right = mid - 1$

else

$left = mid + 1$

return no

Worst-case time: $f_2(n) = 2 + 6 \log_2 n$

Function Comparison

Big-O

We say that $f(n)$ grows asymptotically no faster than $g(n)$ if there is a constant $c_1 > 0$ such that $f(n) \leq c_1 \cdot g(n)$ and holds for all n at least a constant c_2 . This is denoted by $f(n) = O(g(n))$.

$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{f(n)}{g(n)} = c$ for some constant c

Example

$1000 \log_2 n = O(n)$,

$n \neq O(10000 \log_2 n)$

$\log_{b_1} n = O(\log_{b_2} n)$ for any constants $b_1 > 1$ and $b_2 > 1$. Therefore

$f(n) = 2 + 6 \log_2 n$ can be represented; $f(n) = O(\log n)$

Big- Ω

If $g(n) = O(f(n))$, then $f(n) = \Omega(g(n))$ to indicate that $f(n)$ grows asymptotically no slower than $g(n)$. We say that $f(n)$ grows asymptotically no slower than $g(n)$ if $c_1 > 0$ such $f(n) \geq c_1 \cdot g(n)$ for $n > c_2$; denoted by $f(n) = \Omega(g(n))$

Big- Θ

If $f(n) = O(g(n))$ and $f(n) = \Omega(g(n))$, then $f(n) = \Theta(g(n))$ to indicate that $f(n)$ grows asymptotically as fast as $g(n)$

Sort**Merge Sort**

Divide the array into two parts, sort the individual arrays then combine the arrays together. $f(n) = O(n \log n)$.

This is the fastest sorting time possible (apart from $O(n \log \log n)$)

Counting Sort

A set S of n integers and every integer is in the range $[1, U]$. (all integers are distinct)

Step 1: Let A be the array storing S . Create array B of length U . Set B to zero.

Step 2: For $i \in [1, n]$; Set x to $A[i]$, Set $B[x] = 1$

Step 3: Clear A , For $x \in [1, U]$; If $B[x] = 0$ continue, otherwise append x to A

Analysis

Step 1 and 3 take $O(U)$ time, while Step 2 $O(n)$ time. Therefore running time is $O(n + U) = O(U)$.

Data**LinkedList**

Every node stores pointers to its succeeding and preceding nodes (if they exist). The first node is called the head and last called the tail. The space required for a linkedlist is $O(n)$ memory cells. Starting at the head node, the time to enumerate over all the integers is $O(n)$. Time for assertion and deletion is equal to $O(1)$

Stack

The stack has two operations; Push (Inserts a new element into the stack), Pop (Removes the most recently inserted element from the stack and returns it. Since a stack is just a linkedlist, push and pop use $O(1)$ time.

Queue

The queue has two operations; En-queue (Inserts a new element into the queue), De-queue (Removes the least recently used element from the queue and returns it). Since a queue is just a linkedlist, push and pop use $O(1)$ time.<Paste>

Dynamic Arrays**Naive Algorithm**

insert(e): Increase n by 1, initial an array A' of length n , copy all $n-1$ of A to A' , Set $A'[n]=e$, Destroy A .

This takes $O(n^2)$ time to do n insertions.

A Better Algorithm

insert(e): Append e to A and increase n by 1. If A is full; Create A' of length 2n, Copy A to A', Destroy A and replace with A'
This takes $O(n)$ time to do n insertions.

Hashing

The main idea of hashing is to divide the dataset S into a number m of disjoint subsets such that only one subset needs to be searched to answer any query.

Pre-processing

Create an array of linkedlist(L) from 1 to m and an array H of length m . Store the heads of L in H , for all $x \in S$; calculate hash value ($h(x)$), insert x into $L_{h(x)}$. We will always choose $m = O(n)$, so $O(n + m) = O(n)$

Querying

Query with value v , calculate the hash value $h(v)$, Look for v in $L_{h(v)}$. Query time: $O(|L_{h(v)}|)$

Hash Function

Pick a prime p ; $p \geq m, p \geq$ any integer k . Choose α and β uniformly random from $1, \dots, p-1$. Therefore: $h(k) = 1 + (((\alpha k + \beta) \bmod p) \bmod m)$

Any Possible Integer

The possible integers is finite under the RAM Model. Max: $2^w - 1$. Therefore p exists between $[2^w, w^{w+1}]$.

Timing

Space: $O(n)$, Preprocessing time: $O(n)$, Query time: $O(1)$ in expectation

Week 3 - Extra

When using 'Direction 1: Constant Finding' setting c_1 , always set it to match the coefficient on the LHS so that you can cancel.

When trying to get a contradiction, try and isolate an $x \cdot c_1$ on the RHS, where $x \in Z$, such that an expression that contains n is $\leq x \cdot c_1$

Make judicious use of the \max function when adding functions together If $f_1(n) + f_2(n) \leq c_1 \cdot g_1(n) + c'_1 \cdot g_2(n) \leq \max\{c_1, c'_1\} \cdot (g_1(n) + g_2(n))$, for all $n \geq \max\{c_2, c'_2\}$.

The Master Theorem

Theorem 1

$$n + \frac{n}{c} + \frac{n}{c^2} + \dots + \frac{n}{c^h} = O(n)$$

Theorem 2

Let $f(n)$ be a function that returns a positive value for every integer $n > 0$.

We know:

$$f(1) \leq c_1$$

$$f(n) \leq \alpha \cdot f(\lceil n/\beta \rceil) + c_2 \cdot n^\gamma \text{ for } n \geq 2$$

where $\alpha, \beta, \gamma, c_1$ and c_2 are positive constants. Then:

- If $\log_b \alpha < \gamma$ then $f(n) = O(n^\gamma)$
- If $\log_b \alpha = \gamma$ then $f(n) = O(n^\gamma \cdot \log(n))$
- If $\log_b \alpha > \gamma$ then $f(n) = O(n^{\log_b(\alpha)})$

Hierarchy

$$O(1) \leq O(\log(n)) \leq O(n^c)$$

$$\leq O(n) \leq O(n^2)$$

$$\leq O(n^c) \leq O(c^n)$$

Trees

Undirected Graphs

An undirected graph is a pair of (V, E) where:

- V is a set of elements, each of which called a node.
- E is a set of pairs (u, v) such that:
 - u and v are distinct nodes;
 - If (u, v) is in E , then (v, u) is also in E – we say that there is an edge between u and v .

A node may also be called a vertex. We will refer to V as the vertex set or the node set of the graph, and E the edge set.

Paths and Cycles

Let $G = (V, E)$ be an undirected graph. A path in G is a sequence of nodes (v_1, v_2, \dots, v_k) such that

- For every $i \in [1, k - 1]$, there is an edge between v_i and v_{i+1} .

A cycle in G is a path (v_1, v_2, \dots, v_k) such that; $k \geq 4$, $v_1 = v_k$, v_1, v_2, \dots, v_{k-1} are distinct

Connected Graphs

An undirected graph $G = (V, E)$ is connected if, for any two distinct vertices u and v , G has a path from u to v .

Trees

A tree is a connected undirected graph contains no cycles.

Rooting a Tree

Given any tree T and an arbitrary node r , we can allocate a level to each node as follows:

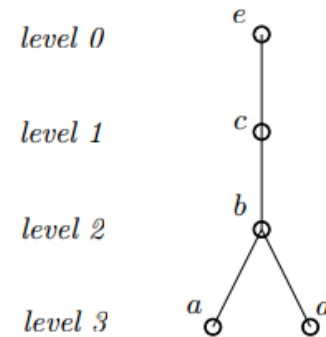
- r is the root of T – this is level 0 of the tree.
- All the nodes that are 1 edge away from r constitute level 1 of the tree.
- All the nodes that are 2 edges away from r constitute level 2 of the tree.
- And so on.

The number of levels is called the height of the tree. We say that T has been rooted once a root has been designated.

Ancestors and Descendants

Let u and v be two nodes in T . u is an ancestor of v if one of the following holds: $u = v$, u is the parent of v , u is the parent of an ancestor of v .

Accordingly, we say that v is a descendant of u . In particular, if $u \neq v$, we say that u is a proper ancestor of v , and likewise, v is a proper descendant of u .



Node b is an ancestor of b , a and d .
 Node c is an ancestor of c , b , a and d .
 Node c is a proper ancestor of b , a , d .

Subtrees

The subtree of u is the part of T that is “at or below” u .

Internal and Leaf Nodes

In a rooted tree, a node is a leaf node if it has no children; otherwise, it is an internal node.

k-Ary and Binary

A k-Ary tree is a rooted tree where every internal node has at most k child nodes. A 2-ary tree is called a binary tree.

Full Level

Consider a binary tree with height h . Its Level l ($0 \leq l \leq h - 1$) is full if it contains 2^l nodes.

Complete Binary Tree

A binary tree of height h is complete if:

- Levels 0, 1, ... $h-2$ are all full
- At Level $h-1$, the leaf nodes are “as far left as possible”.
This means that if you were to add a leaf node v at Level $h-1$, v would need to be on the right of all the existing leaf nodes.