

YZM2031

Data Structures and Algorithms

Week 5: Algorithm Analysis and Trees

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Recap - Week 4

What We Covered

- Queue variations (Ring Buffer, Multi-Level Queue)
- Characters and C-strings
- C++ string class and operations
- String algorithms (reverse, palindrome, tokenization)
- Pattern matching and word manipulation

Today's Focus

Part 1: Algorithm Analysis

- Why algorithm analysis matters
- Time and space complexity
- Big-Oh notation and asymptotic analysis
- How to analyze code
- Comparing algorithms

Part 2: Trees Introduction

- Introduction to hierarchical data structures
- Tree terminology (root, leaf, height, depth)
- Tree properties and characteristics

Why Do We Need Algorithm Analysis?

You have two programs that solve the same problem. Which one is better?

```
// Program A
int sumArray1(int arr[], int n) {
    int sum = 0;
    for (int i = 0; i < n; i++) {
        sum += arr[i];
    }
    return sum;
}

// Program B
int sumArray2(int arr[], int n) {
    if (n == 0) return 0;
    return arr[n-1] + sumArray2(arr, n-1);
}
```

How do we compare?



Intuitive Approaches

Approach 1 - Run time on local computer

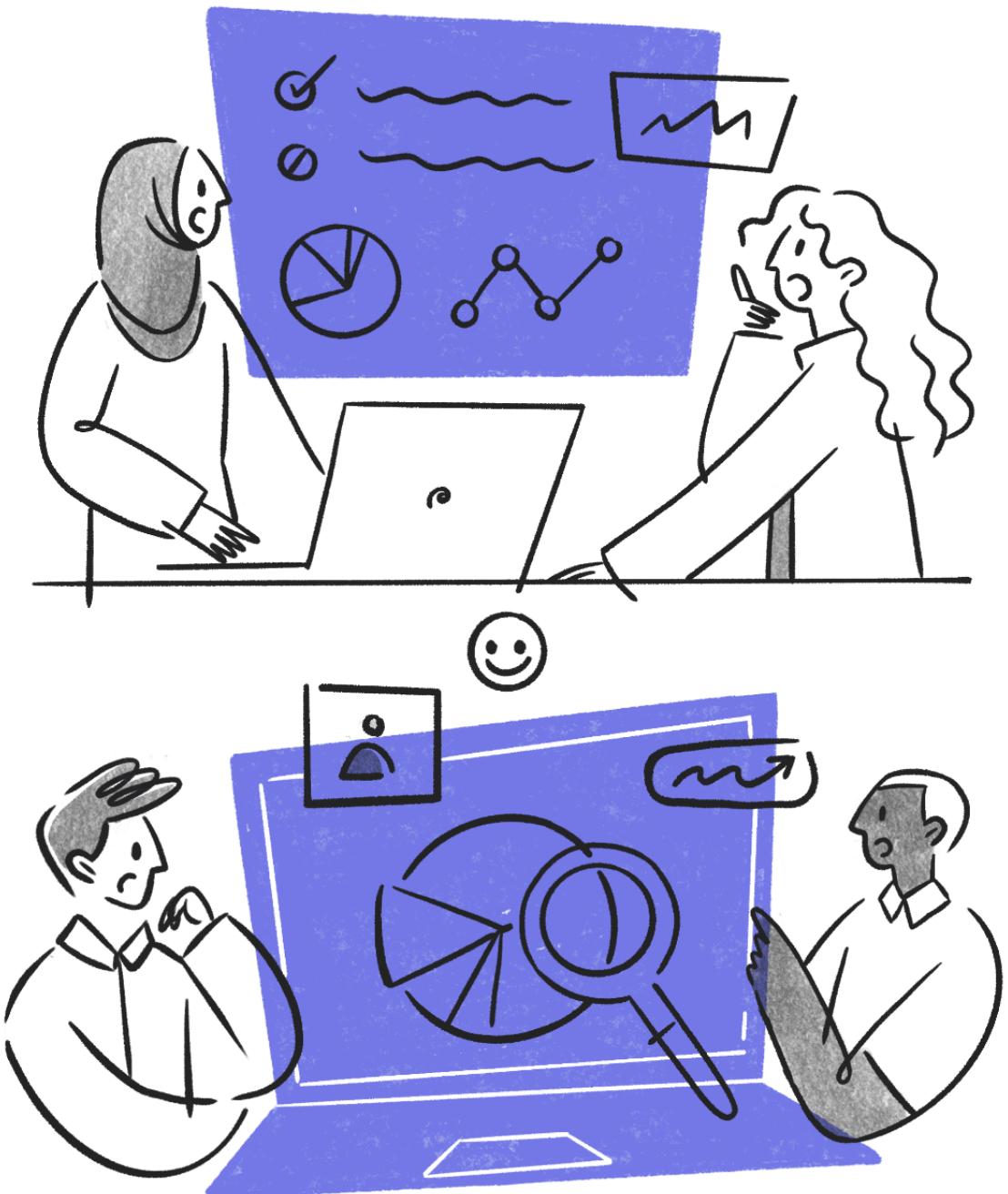
Problems:

- Different computers have different speeds
- Same computer may perform differently at different times
- Results not reproducible or comparable

Approach 2 - Count instructions

Problems:

- Different programming languages
- Different compiler optimizations
- Too implementation-specific



What We Need - Mathematical Analysis

Analyze algorithm **independent** of:

- Specific implementations
- Computers
- Data
- Programming language



The RAM Model

Random Access Machine

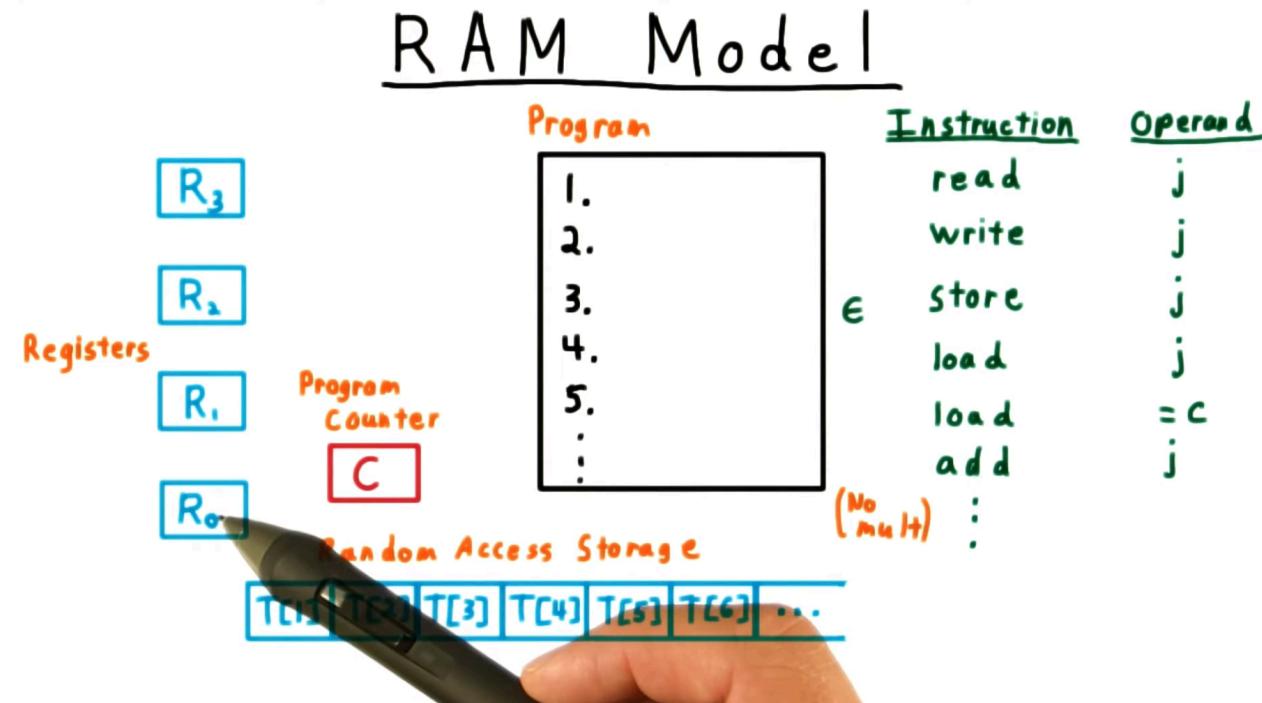
How do we analyze algorithms mathematically?

We use a theoretical model called RAM (Random Access Machine)

Key Assumptions:

- Each basic operation takes **unit time** (constant time)
- Memory access is **direct** - accessing any memory cell takes the same time
- Instructions execute **one after another** (no parallel execution)
- Infinite memory available

This is a simplification, but it works well in practice



What Are Basic Operations?

Operations That Take Constant Time

In the RAM model, these are considered **basic operations** ($O(1)$):

- Evaluating an expression (`x + y`, `a * b`)
- Assigning a value to a variable (`x = 5`)
- Indexing into an array (`arr[i]`)
- Calling a method (the call itself, not what it does inside)
- Returning from a method
- Comparing two values (`x < y`, `a == b`)

Key Point: We count these as 1 operation regardless of the actual CPU cycles

Question - RAM Model Complexity

How many operations in the function below?

```
int sum(int n) {  
    int partialSum = 0;  
    for (int i = 1; i <= n; i++) {  
        partialSum += i * i * i;  
    }  
  
    return partialSum;  
}
```

Answer - RAM Model Complexity

How many operations in the function below?

```
int sum(int n) {  
    int partialSum = 0; -----> 1  
    for (int i = 1; i <= n; i++) { -----> 2n + 2  
        partialSum += i * i * i; -----> 4n  
    }  
  
    return partialSum; -----> 1  
}
```

Total = $6n+4$

$n = 1 \rightarrow 10$

$n = 100 \rightarrow 604$

$n = 10000 \rightarrow 60004$

Algorithm Complexity

What Do We Measure?

Time Complexity: How execution time grows with input size

Space Complexity: How memory usage grows with input size

Important!

We don't care about **exact** time or memory

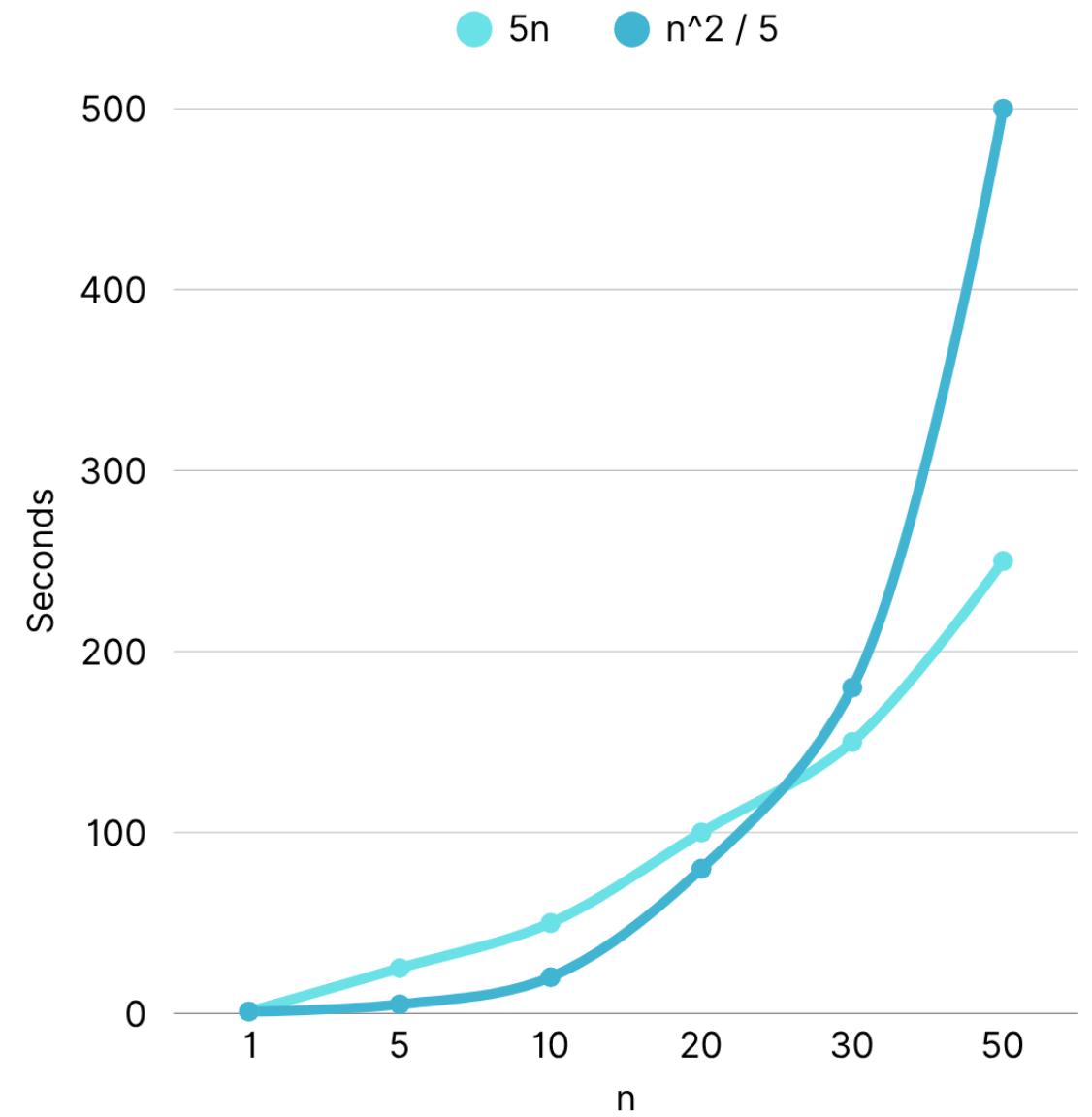
We care about **growth rate** as input size increases

Example:

- Algorithm A: $5n$ operations
- Algorithm B: $n^2 / 5$ operations

For small n , B might be faster.

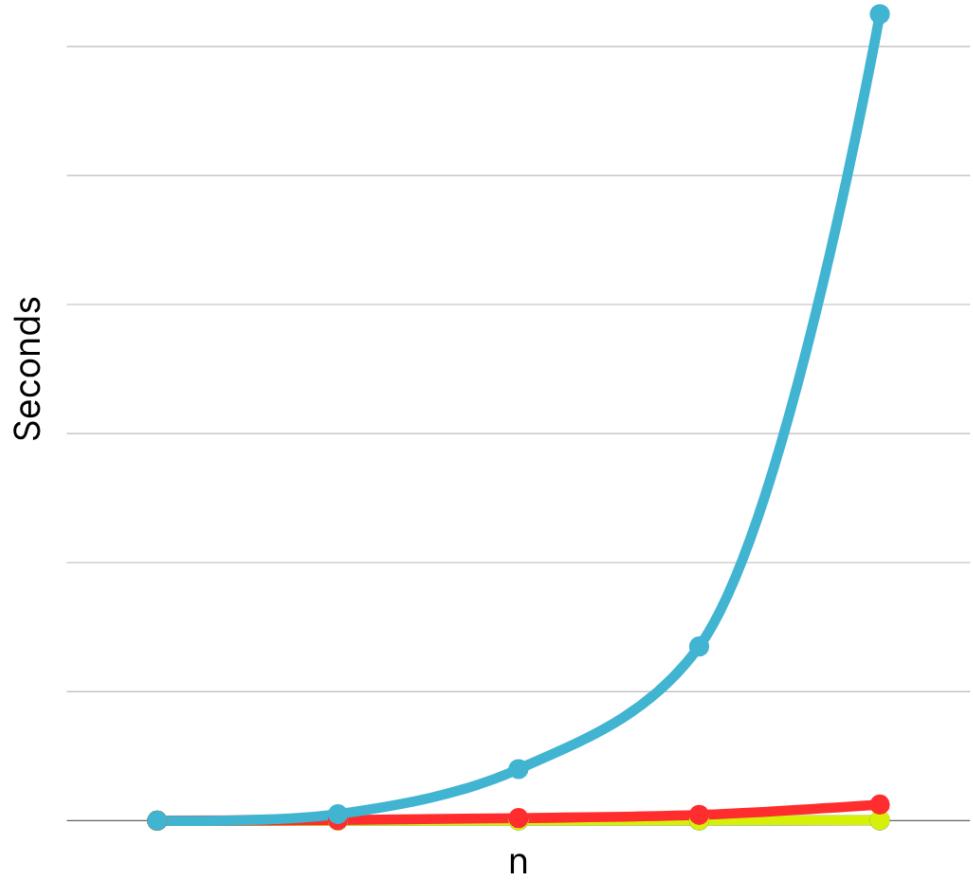
For large n , A is **much** faster



● Linear ● $O(N \log N)$ ● Quadratic
● Cubic

Typical Growth Rates

| Function | Name | Category |
|------------|-------------|------------|
| c | Constant | Sublinear |
| $\log N$ | Logarithmic | Sublinear |
| $\log^2 N$ | Log-squared | Sublinear |
| N | Linear | Polynomial |
| $N \log N$ | | Polynomial |
| N^2 | Quadratic | Polynomial |
| N^3 | Cubic | Polynomial |
| c^N | Exponential | |



Asymptotic Growth

What is Asymptotic Behavior?

Use functions to model the "approximate" and "asymptotic" (running time) behavior of algorithms.

Asymptotic growth: The rate of growth of a function

- $T(n)$: Time of running input size of n

Goal: Establish a relative order among the growth rate of functions

Given a particular function $f(n)$, all other functions fall into three classes:

- $T(n)$ growing with the **same rate** as $f(n)$
- $T(n)$ growing **faster** than $f(n)$
- $T(n)$ growing **slower** than $f(n)$

Big-Oh Notation

Big-Oh describes the **upper bound** of growth rate.

Notation: $T(n) = O(f(n))$

Informal Meaning:

- Function $T(n)$ grows **no faster** than $f(n)$ (ignoring constants)
- Big-Oh tells us the **worst-case** behavior as input size approaches infinity



Big-Oh Notation - Mathematical Definition

If there are positive constants c and n_0 such that:

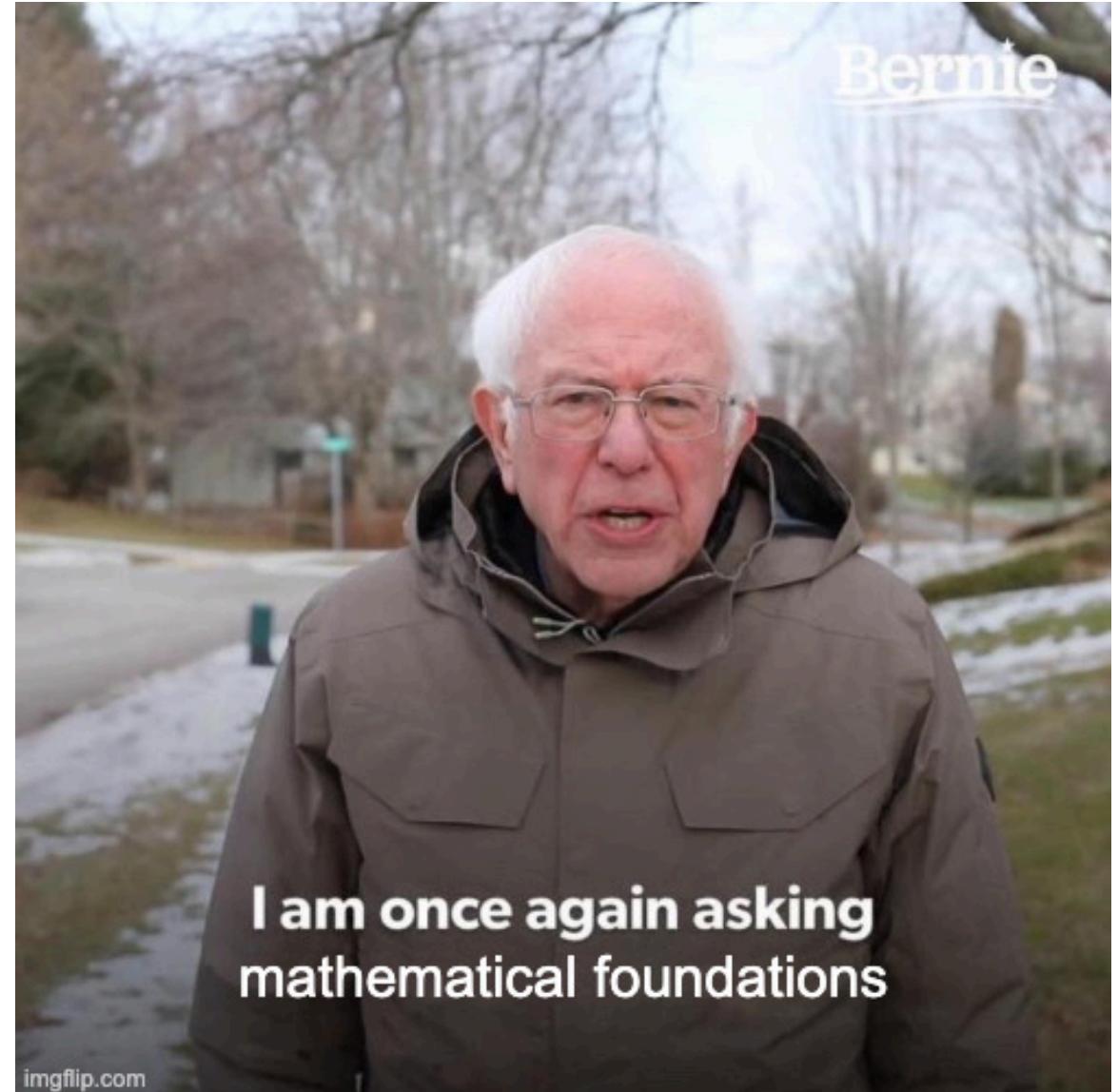
$$T(N) \leq c * f(N) \text{ for all } N \geq n_0$$

then $T(N) = O(f(N))$

(read as "order of $f(N)$ " or "big-oh of $f(N)$ ")

What does this mean?

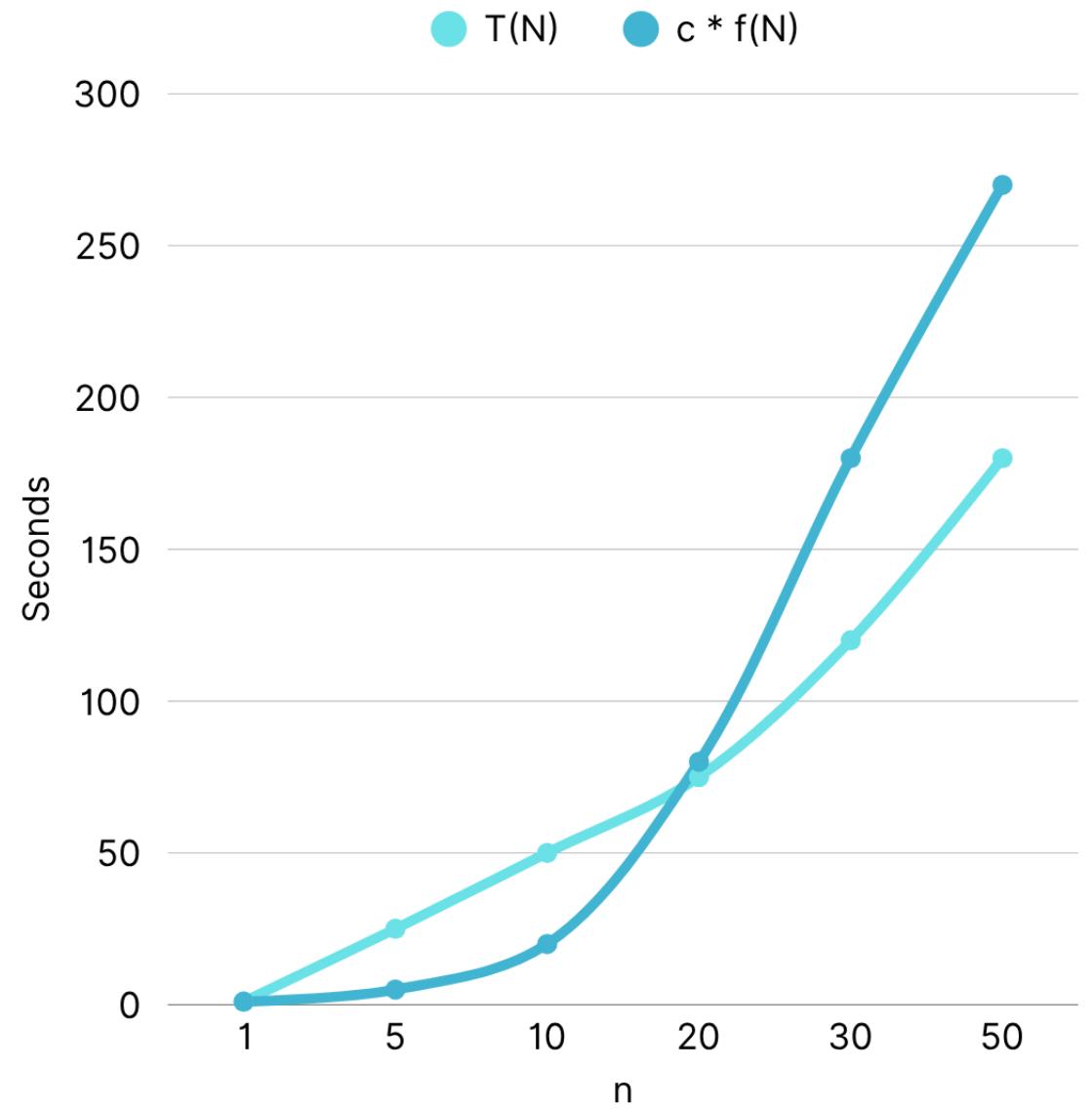
- We can find some constant c that, when multiplied by $f(N)$, will always be $\geq T(N)$
- This must be true for all inputs beyond some threshold n_0
- $T(N)$ is bounded above by $c \cdot f(N)$ for large N



Big-Oh Visual Representation

$T(N)$ is bounded by $c * f(N)$

After n_0 , $T(N)$ is always below $c * f(N)$



Example

Prove: $2n + 10$ is $O(n)$

We need to find positive constants c and n_0 such that:

$$2n + 10 \leq c * n \text{ for all } n \geq n_0$$

Let's find them:

$$\begin{aligned} 2n + 10 &\leq c * n \\ (c - 2)n &\geq 10 && \text{(rearrange)} \\ n &\geq 10/(c - 2) && \text{(solve for } n\text{)} \end{aligned}$$

Choose $c = 3$:

- $n \geq 10/(3 - 2) = 10/1 = 10$
- So $n_0 = 10$ and $c = 3$

Verification: For $n = 10$: $2(10) + 10 = 30$, and $3(10) = 30$

Counterexample - What is not Big-Oh

Question: Is $n^2 = O(n)$?

Let's try to satisfy the definition: $n^2 \leq c * n$ for all $n \geq n_0$

Attempt to find constants:

$$\begin{aligned}n^2 &\leq c * n \\n^2 / n &\leq c \\n &\leq c\end{aligned}$$

Problem:

- For the inequality to hold for **all** $n \geq n_0$, we need $n \leq c$
- But c must be a **constant**
- n can grow arbitrarily large
- No constant c can be \geq all values of n

Conclusion: n^2 is NOT $O(n)$

Practice - Find Constants

Prove: $3n^2 + 2n + 5$ is $O(n^2)$

Task: Find positive constants c and n_0 such that:

$$3n^2 + 2n + 5 \leq c * n^2 \text{ for all } n \geq n_0$$

Practice - Answer

Prove: $3n^2 + 2n + 5$ is $O(n^2)$

Solution with $c = 5$:

$$\begin{aligned} 3n^2 + 2n + 5 &\leq 5n^2 \\ 2n + 5 &\leq 2n^2 \quad (\text{subtract } 3n^2 \text{ from both sides}) \end{aligned}$$

For $n \geq 1$:

- $2n \leq 2n^2$ (since $n \geq 1$ means $n^2 \geq n$)
- $5 \leq 2n^2$ (since $n \geq 2$ means $n^2 \geq 2.5$)

Therefore: $c = 5$, $n_0 = 2$

Verification for $n = 2$:

- $3(4) + 2(2) + 5 = 12 + 4 + 5 = 21$
- $5(4) = 20$ --- doesn't work Need $n_0 = 3$

Big-Omega - $\Omega(f(N))$

Lower Bound

If there are positive constants c and n_0 such that:

$$T(N) \geq c * f(N) \text{ for all } N \geq n_0$$

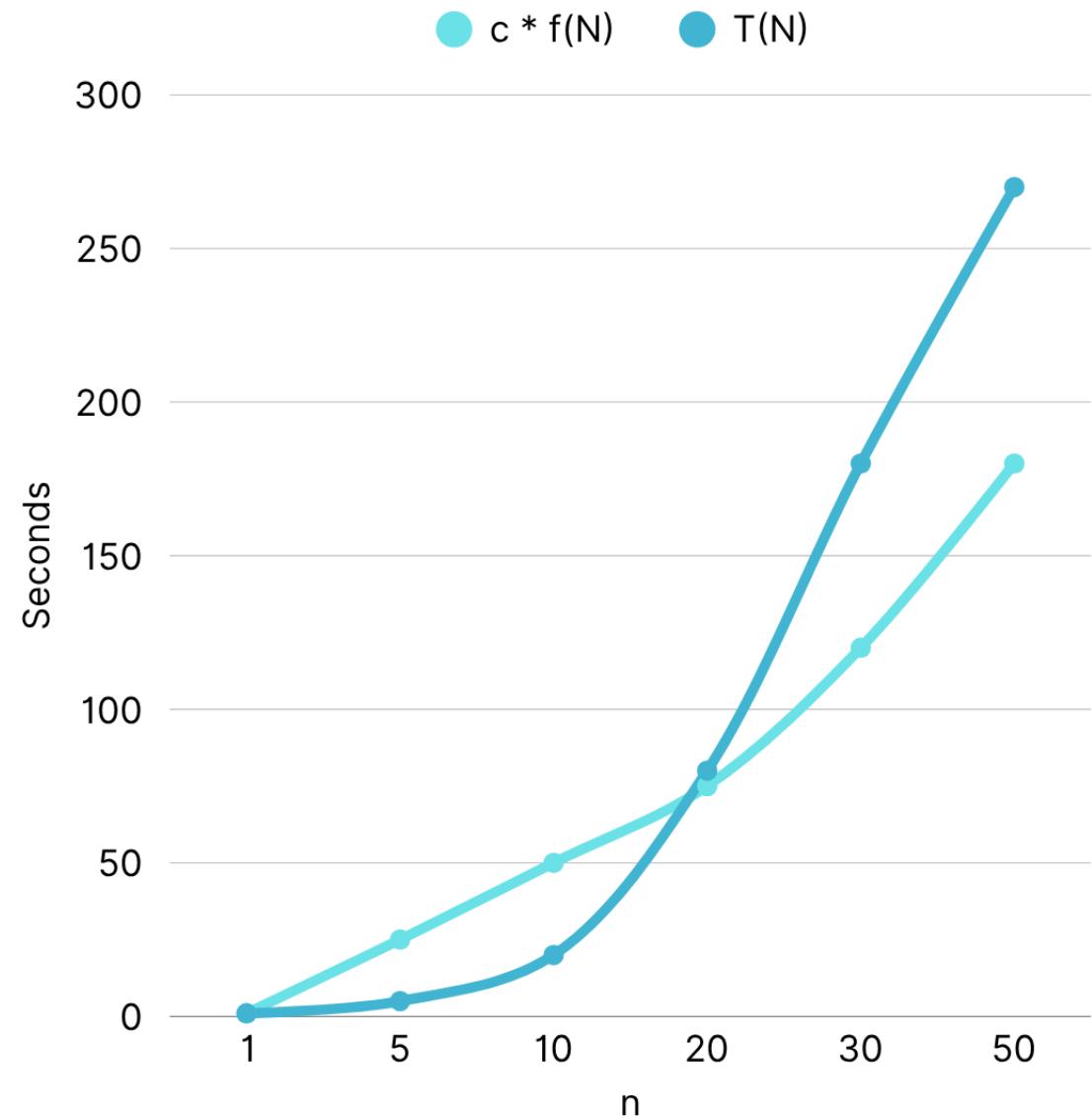
then $T(N) = \Omega(f(N))$ (read as "omega of f(N)")

What does this mean?

- $T(N)$ is **bounded below** by $c * f(N)$ for large N
- $T(N)$ grows **at least as fast** as $f(N)$
- Opposite of Big-O (which is upper bound)

Visual: $T(N)$ stays above $cf(N)$ after n_0

Example: If an algorithm takes at least n^2 operations, then $T(N) = \Omega(n^2)$



Theta - $\Theta(f(N))$

Tight Bound (Exact Growth Rate)

If $T(N) = O(f(N))$ AND $T(N) = \Omega(f(N))$

then $T(N) = \Theta(f(N))$ (read as "theta of f(N)")

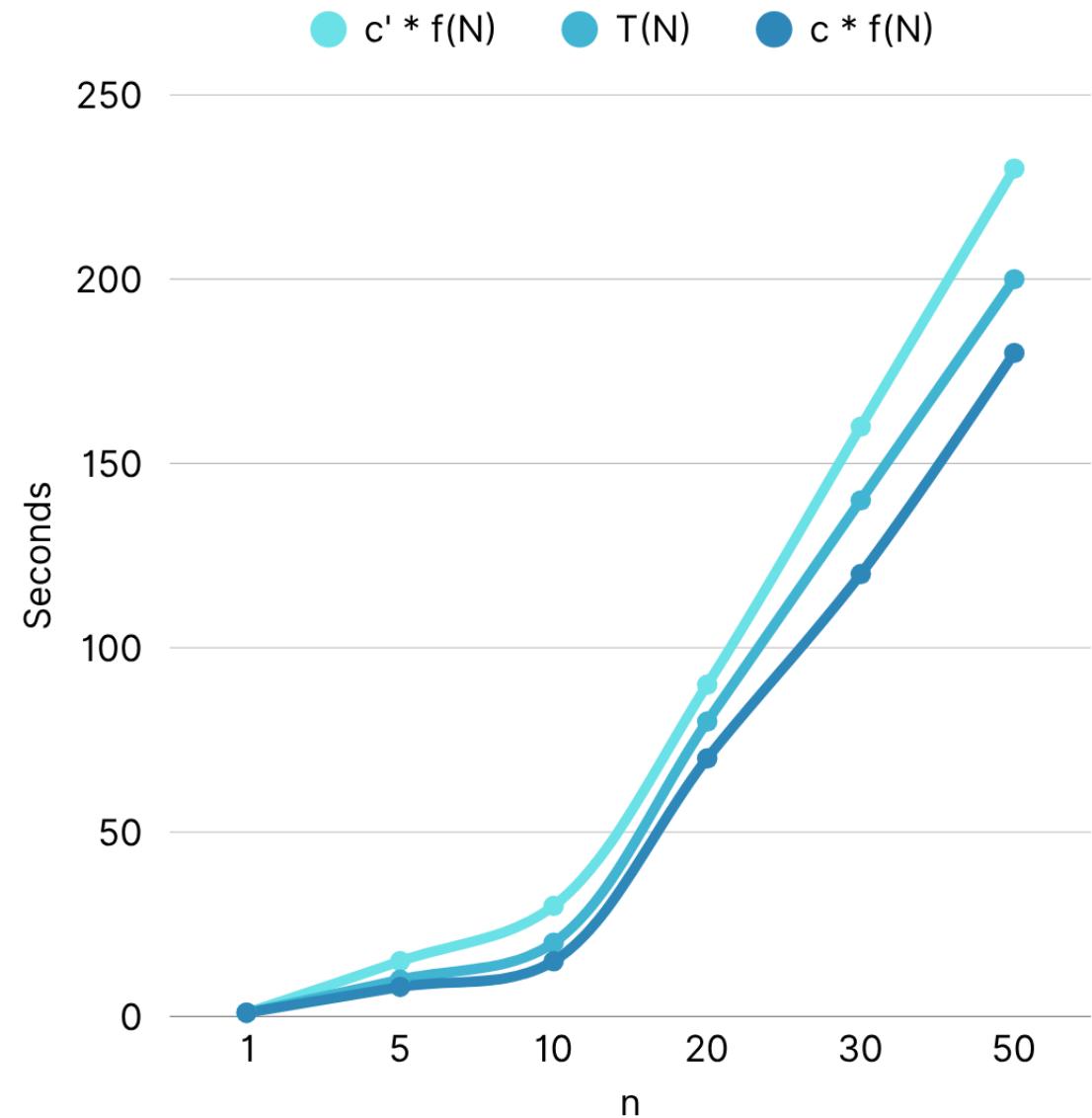
What does this mean?

- $T(N)$ grows at the **same rate** as $f(N)$
- $T(N)$ is sandwiched between $c \cdot f(N)$ and $c' \cdot f(N)$
- Most precise notation

Mathematical definition:

- There exist constants c, c', n_0, n_0' such that:
- $c \cdot f(N) \leq T(N) \leq c' \cdot f(N)$ for all $N \geq \max(n_0, n_0')$

Example: $3n^2 + 2n + 5 = \Theta(n^2)$



Theta - Formal Definition

Same Rate of Growth

$T(N)$ and $f(N)$ have same rate of growth if:

$$\lim(T(N) / f(N)) = c, \text{ where } 0 < c < \infty, \text{ as } N \rightarrow \infty$$

What this means:

- The ratio $T(N)/f(N)$ approaches a positive constant
- Neither function dominates the other
- They grow proportionally

Example: Compare $3n^2 + 2n$ and n^2

$$\begin{aligned} & \lim(n \rightarrow \infty) (3n^2 + 2n) / n^2 \\ &= \lim(n \rightarrow \infty) (3 + 2/n) \\ &= 3 \text{ (constant!)} \end{aligned}$$

Therefore: $3n^2 + 2n = \Theta(n^2)$

Little-oh - $o(f(N))$

Strictly Less Than (Not Equal)

If $T(N) = O(f(N))$ and $T(N) \neq \Theta(f(N))$

then $T(N) = o(f(N))$ (read as "little-o of $f(N)$ ")

Mathematical definition:

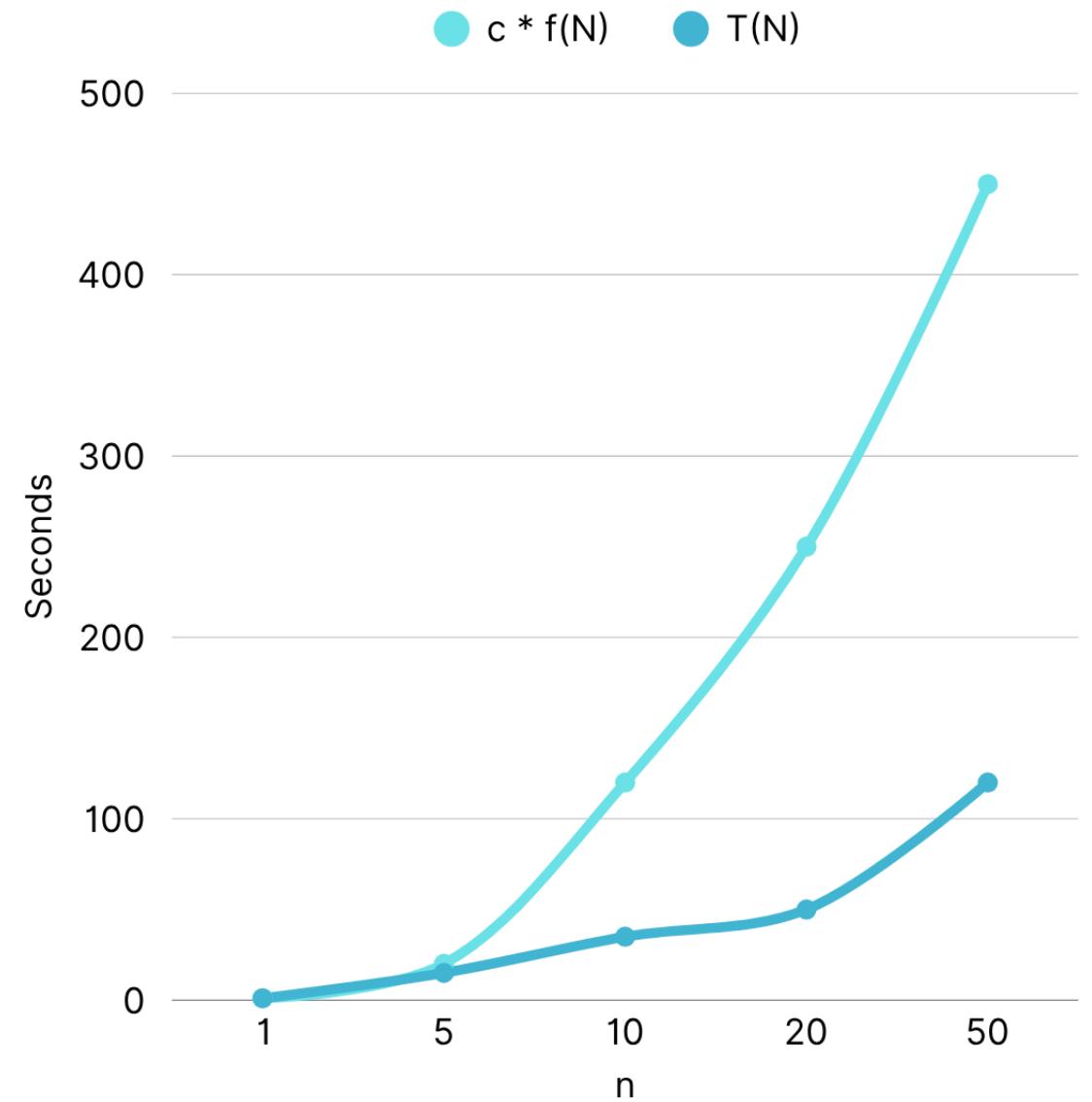
$$\lim(T(N) / f(N)) = 0 \text{ as } N \rightarrow \infty$$

What does this mean?

- $T(N)$ grows **strictly slower** than $f(N)$
- $f(N)$ grows **strictly faster** than $T(N)$
- $T(N)$ becomes negligible compared to $f(N)$

Examples:

- $n = o(n^2)$ (linear is strictly less than quadratic)
- n^2 is NOT $o(n^2)$ (same growth rate, use Θ instead)



Little-oh Example

Comparing n and n^2

Question: Is $n = o(n^2)$?

Check the limit:

$$\begin{aligned} \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} n / n^2 \\ = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} 1/n \\ = 0 \end{aligned}$$

Yes! $n = o(n^2)$

Intuition:

- As n grows, n^2 grows much faster
- The ratio $n/n^2 = 1/n$ approaches 0
- n becomes insignificant compared to n^2

Practical meaning: An $O(n)$ algorithm is **significantly better** than $O(n^2)$

Little-Omega - $\omega(f(N))$

Strictly Greater Than (Not Equal)

If $T(N) = \Omega(f(N))$ and $T(N) \neq \Theta(f(N))$

then $T(N) = \omega(f(N))$ (read as "little-omega of $f(N)$ ")

Mathematical definition:

$$\lim(T(N) / f(N)) = \infty \text{ as } N \rightarrow \infty$$

What does this mean?

- $T(N)$ grows **strictly faster** than $f(N)$
- $f(N)$ grows **strictly slower** than $T(N)$
- Opposite of little-oh

Examples:

- $n^2 = \omega(n)$ (quadratic is strictly greater than linear)
- n^2 is NOT $\omega(n^2)$ (same growth rate, use Θ instead)

Comparing Little-oh and Little-omega

Little-oh (T grows slower):

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{n}{n^2} = 0$$
$$\rightarrow n = o(n^2)$$

Little-omega (T grows faster):

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{n^2}{n} = \infty$$
$$\rightarrow n^2 = \omega(n)$$

Key Insight:

- If $T(N) = o(f(N))$, then $f(N) = \omega(T(N))$
- These are inverse relationships

Summary - All Asymptotic Notations

Complete Picture

| Notation | Meaning | Condition | Limit Test |
|----------------|------------------|--------------------------|------------------------------|
| $O(f(N))$ | Upper bound | $T(N) \leq c \cdot f(N)$ | $T / f \leq \text{constant}$ |
| $\Omega(f(N))$ | Lower bound | $T(N) \geq c \cdot f(N)$ | $T / f \geq \text{constant}$ |
| $\Theta(f(N))$ | Tight bound | Both O and Ω | $T / f = \text{constant}$ |
| $o(f(N))$ | Strictly less | T grows slower | $T / f \rightarrow 0$ |
| $\omega(f(N))$ | Strictly greater | T grows faster | $T / f \rightarrow \infty$ |

Most commonly used: Big-Oh (worst case) and Theta (exact)

Notation Relationships

Same rate of growth: $T(N) = \Theta(f(N))$

Different rate of growth:

- Either: $T(N) = o(f(N))$
 - $T(N)$ grows slower than $f(N)$
 - Example: $n = o(n^2)$
- Or: $T(N) = \omega(f(N))$
 - $T(N)$ grows faster than $f(N)$
 - Example: $n^2 = \omega(n)$

In Practice:

- Use **Big-Oh** for worst-case analysis (most common)
- Use **Theta** when you know exact growth rate
- Use **Omega** for best-case or lower bounds
- Little-oh and Little-omega are less common



Big-Oh Classes

Similar to the growth rates

| Function | Name | Example |
|----------------------|--------------|---------------------------|
| $O(1)$ or $O(c)$ | Constant | Array access, arithmetic |
| $O(\log n)$ | Logarithmic | Binary search |
| $O(\log^2 n)$ | Log-squared | Some divide & conquer |
| $O(n)$ | Linear | Linear search, array sum |
| $O(n \log n)$ | Linearithmic | Merge sort, quick sort |
| $O(n^2)$ | Quadratic | Nested loops, bubble sort |
| $O(n^3)$ | Cubic | Triple nested loops |
| $O(c^n)$ or $O(2^n)$ | Exponential | Recursive Fibonacci |
| $O(n!)$ | Factorial | Generating permutations |

Rule of Thumb: Anything worse than $O(n^2)$ is usually impractical for large inputs

Question - Big-Oh Ordering

Order these complexities from Fastest to Slowest

- A. $O(n^2)$
- B. $O(1)$
- C. $O(n \log n)$
- D. $O(\log n)$
- E. $O(n)$

Answer

Correct Order (Fastest to Slowest):

B → D → E → C → A

1. O(1) - Constant (B)
2. O(log n) - Logarithmic (D)
3. O(n) - Linear (E)
4. O(n log n) - Linearithmic (C)
5. O(n²) - Quadratic (A)

Remember: When comparing, the dominant term always wins

Visualizing Growth Rates

How fast do they grow?

For $n = 100$:

- $O(1)$: 1 operation
- $O(\log n)$: ~7 operations
- $O(n)$: 100 operations
- $O(n \log n)$: ~700 operations
- $O(n^2)$: 10,000 operations
- $O(2^n)$: 1,267,650,600,228,229,401,496,703,205,376 operations 

Key Takeaway: Growth rate matters more than anything else for large inputs

O(1) - Constant Time

Operations that Don't Depend on Input Size

```
// Array access - O(1)
int getFirst(int arr[]) {
    return arr[0]; // Direct memory access
}

// Arithmetic operations - O(1)
int add(int a, int b) {
    return a + b; // Single operation
}

// Linked list operations (if we have pointer) - O(1)
void insertAtFront(Node*& head, int value) {
    Node* newNode = new Node(value);
    newNode->next = head;
    head = newNode;
}
```

Key: Number of operations stays the same regardless of n

O(log n) - Logarithmic Time

Dividing the Problem in Half Each Time

```
// Binary search - O(log n)
int binarySearch(int arr[], int n, int target) {
    int left = 0;
    int right = n - 1;

    while (left <= right) {
        int mid = left + (right - left) / 2;

        if (arr[mid] == target) {
            return mid;
        }

        if (arr[mid] < target) {
            left = mid + 1; // Search right half
        } else {
            right = mid - 1; // Search left half
        }
    }

    return -1;
}
```

Why $\log n$? Each iteration cuts problem size in half

Practice - Identify Complexity

What is the time complexity of these functions?

```
// Function 1
void printFirst(int arr[], int n) {
    cout << arr[0] << endl;
}

// Function 2
void printAll(int arr[], int n) {
    for (int i = 0; i < n; i++) {
        cout << arr[i] << endl;
    }
}

// Function 3
void printPairs(int arr[], int n) {
    for (int i = 0; i < n; i++) {
        for (int j = 0; j < n; j++) {
            cout << arr[i] << "," << arr[j] << endl;
        }
    }
}
```

Practice - Answer

```
// Function 1: O(1) - Constant
void printFirst(int arr[], int n) {
    cout << arr[0] << endl; // Always 1 operation
}

// Function 2: O(n) - Linear
void printAll(int arr[], int n) {
    for (int i = 0; i < n; i++) { // n operations
        cout << arr[i] << endl;
    }
}

// Function 3: O(n2) - Quadratic
void printPairs(int arr[], int n) {
    for (int i = 0; i < n; i++) { // n times
        for (int j = 0; j < n; j++) { // n times each
            cout << arr[i] << "," << arr[j] << endl;
        }
    } // Total: n x n = n2
}
```

Understanding Logarithms

Question: How many times can we divide n by 2 until we reach 1?

Answer: $\log_2(n)$ times

Example with $n = 16$:

```
16 -> 8 -> 4 -> 2 -> 1
```

That's 4 steps, and $\log_2(16) = 4$

Another Example:

- In a phone book with 1 million names
- Binary search needs only ~20 comparisons
- Linear search needs up to 1 million comparisons

Bottom Line: $O(\log n)$ scales extremely well

O(n) - Linear Time

Processing Each Element Once

```
// Sum array - O(n)
int sum(int arr[], int n) {
    int total = 0;
    for (int i = 0; i < n; i++) {
        total += arr[i]; // Visit each element once
    }
    return total;
}

// Find maximum - O(n)
int findMax(int arr[], int n) {
    int maxVal = arr[0];
    for (int i = 1; i < n; i++) {
        if (arr[i] > maxVal) {
            maxVal = arr[i];
        }
    }
    return maxVal;
}
```

Key: One pass through the data = $O(n)$

O(n log n) - Linearithmic Time

Efficient Sorting Algorithms

```
// Merge sort pseudocode - O(n log n)
void mergeSort(int arr[], int left, int right) {
    if (left >= right) return;

    int mid = (left + right) / 2;

    // Divide: O(log n) levels
    mergeSort(arr, left, mid);
    mergeSort(arr, mid + 1, right);

    // Conquer: O(n) work per level
    merge(arr, left, mid, right);
}
```

Why $n \log n$?

- $O(\log n)$ levels of recursion (dividing in half)
- $O(n)$ work at each level (merging)
- Total: $O(n) \times O(\log n) = O(n \log n)$

$O(n^2)$ - Quadratic Time

Nested Loops Over the Same Data

```
// Bubble sort - O(n2)
void bubbleSort(int arr[], int n) {
    for (int i = 0; i < n; i++) {                // n times
        for (int j = 0; j < n - i - 1; j++) {      // n times
            if (arr[j] > arr[j + 1]) {
                // Swap
                int temp = arr[j];
                arr[j] = arr[j + 1];
                arr[j + 1] = temp;
            }
        }
    }
}

// Check for duplicates - O(n2)
bool hasDuplicates(int arr[], int n) {
    for (int i = 0; i < n; i++) {
        for (int j = i + 1; j < n; j++) {
            if (arr[i] == arr[j]) return true;
        }
    }
    return false;
}
```

Activity - Count Operations

How many comparisons for hasDuplicates with n = 5?

```
bool hasDuplicates(int arr[], int n) {  
    for (int i = 0; i < n; i++) {  
        for (int j = i + 1; j < n; j++) {  
            if (arr[i] == arr[j]) return true;  
        }  
    }  
    return false;  
}
```

Task: Manually count how many times `arr[i] == arr[j]` is executed and find Big-Oh notation

Activity - Answer

Counting comparisons for $n = 5$:

| | | |
|------|-----------|-----------------|
| i=0: | j=1,2,3,4 | → 4 comparisons |
| i=1: | j=2,3,4 | → 3 comparisons |
| i=2: | j=3,4 | → 2 comparisons |
| i=3: | j=4 | → 1 comparison |
| i=4: | (none) | → 0 comparisons |

Total: $4 + 3 + 2 + 1 = 10$ comparisons

Formula: For n elements: $n(n - 1) / 2$ comparisons

- For $n=5$: $5 \times 4 / 2 = 10$
- For $n=10$: $10 \times 9 / 2 = 45$
- For $n=100$: $100 \times 99 / 2 = 4,950$

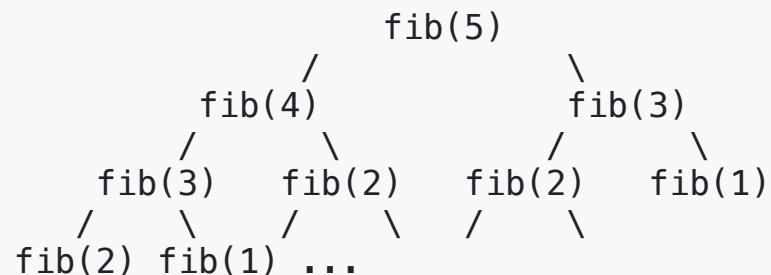
Big-Oh: Drop constants and lower terms → $O(n^2)$

$O(2^n)$ - Exponential Time

Trying All Possible Combinations

```
// Naive recursive Fibonacci - O(2n)
int fibonacci(int n) {
    if (n <= 1) return n;
    return fibonacci(n - 1) + fibonacci(n - 2);
}
```

Why 2^n ?



Each call spawns 2 more calls, tree grows exponentially

Warning: Even `fib(50)` takes forever

Practice - Calculate Complexity

```
void mysteryFunction(int arr[], int n) {  
    for (int i = 0; i < n; i++) {  
        for (int j = i; j < n; j++) {  
            cout << arr[i] + arr[j] << endl;  
        }  
    }  
}
```

Questions:

1. How many times does the inner loop run for each `i` ?
2. What is the total number of operations?
3. What is the Big-Oh complexity?

Answer

```
void mysteryFunction(int arr[], int n) {
    for (int i = 0; i < n; i++) {
        for (int j = i; j < n; j++) {
            cout << arr[i] + arr[j] << endl;
        }
    }
}
```

Analysis:

- When $i = 0$: inner loop runs n times
- When $i = 1$: inner loop runs $n - 1$ times
- When $i = 2$: inner loop runs $n - 2$ times
- ...
- When $i = n-1$: inner loop runs 1 time

Total: $n + (n-1) + (n-2) + \dots + 1 = n(n+1)/2 = (n^2 + n)/2$

Big-Oh: Drop constants and lower terms $\rightarrow O(n^2)$

Best, Average, and Worst Case

Same Algorithm, Different Scenarios

```
// Linear search
int search(int arr[], int n, int target) {
    for (int i = 0; i < n; i++) {
        if (arr[i] == target) {
            return i;
        }
    }
    return -1;
}
```

Best Case: $O(1)$ - Target is first element

Average Case: $O(n/2) = O(n)$ - Target is in middle

Worst Case: $O(n)$ - Target is last or not found

Why Focus on Worst Case?

Three Reasons

1. Easier to analyze

- No need to guess about "typical" inputs
- Clear, unambiguous definition

2. Safety Critical

- Medical devices, aviation systems
- Need guaranteed response time
- Can't afford "usually fast"

3. Conservative estimate

- If worst case is acceptable, we're safe
- Average case is bonus

Rules for Calculating Big-Oh

1. Drop constants: $O(2n) = O(n)$, $O(n/2) = O(n)$
2. Drop lower-order terms: $O(n^2 + n) = O(n^2)$, $O(n^2 + \log n) = O(n^2)$
3. Different variables for different inputs:

```
void process(int arr1[], int n, int arr2[], int m) {  
    for (int i = 0; i < n; i++) { /* ... */ } // O(n)  
    for (int i = 0; i < m; i++) { /* ... */ } // O(m)  
}  
// Total: O(n + m), NOT O(n)!
```

4. Sequential = Add, Nested = Multiply:

- Sequential loops: $O(n) + O(n) = O(n)$
- Nested loops: $O(n) \times O(n) = O(n^2)$



Practice - Apply the Rules

Simplify these to Big-Oh notation:

1. $3n + 5$
2. $2n^2 + 100n + 50$
3. $n \log n + n$
4. $5n^2 + 3n^3 + 2$
5. $\log n + n + n^2$

Practice - Answers

Simplified Big-Oh:

1. $3n + 5 \rightarrow O(n)$ (drop constants)
2. $2n^2 + 100n + 50 \rightarrow O(n^2)$ (drop lower terms n and constants)
3. $n \log n + n \rightarrow O(n \log n)$ ($n \log n$ dominates n)
4. $5n^2 + 3n^3 + 2 \rightarrow O(n^3)$ (n^3 dominates)
5. $\log n + n + n^2 \rightarrow O(n^2)$ (n^2 dominates everything)

Key Rule: Always keep only the fastest-growing term

Question - Complex Analysis

What is the complexity?

```
void process(int arr[], int n) {
    // Part 1
    int max = arr[0];
    for (int i = 1; i < n; i++) {
        if (arr[i] > max) max = arr[i];
    }

    // Part 2
    for (int i = 0; i < max; i++) {
        cout << i << endl;
    }

    // Part 3
    for (int i = 0; i < n; i++) {
        for (int j = 0; j < n; j++) {
            cout << arr[i] * arr[j] << endl;
        }
    }
}
```

Answer

```
void process(int arr[], int n) {
    // Part 1: O(n) – one loop through array
    int max = arr[0];
    for (int i = 1; i < n; i++) {
        if (arr[i] > max) max = arr[i];
    }

    // Part 2: O(max) – depends on max value, not n!
    // Could be O(1) if max is small, or O(n) if max ≈ n
    // Worst case: max could be very large!
    for (int i = 0; i < max; i++) {
        cout << i << endl;
    }

    // Part 3: O(n2) – nested loops
    for (int i = 0; i < n; i++) {
        for (int j = 0; j < n; j++) {
            cout << arr[i] * arr[j] << endl;
        }
    }
}
```

Total: $O(n) + O(\max) + O(n^2) = O(n^2 + \max)$

Question - Complexity

What's the time complexity?

```
void mystery(int n) {
    int sum = 0;
    for (int i = 0; i < n; i++) {
        sum += i;
    }

    for (int i = 0; i < n; i++) {
        for (int j = 0; j < 100; j++) {
            sum += j;
        }
    }
}
```

- A) $O(n)$
- B) $O(n^2)$
- C) $O(n + 100)$
- D) $O(100n)$

Answer

```
void mystery(int n) {  
    int sum = 0;  
    for (int i = 0; i < n; i++) {           // O(n)  
        sum += i;  
    }  
  
    for (int i = 0; i < n; i++) {           // O(n)  
        for (int j = 0; j < 100; j++) {    // O(100) = O(1) constant!  
            sum += j;  
        }  
    }  
}
```

Analysis:

- First loop: $O(n)$
- Second loop: $O(n) \times O(100) = O(100n) = O(n)$
- Total: $O(n) + O(n) = O(n)$

Answer: A) $O(n)$

Key Point: Inner loop with constant bound (100) is just a constant

Trees

From Linear to Hierarchical

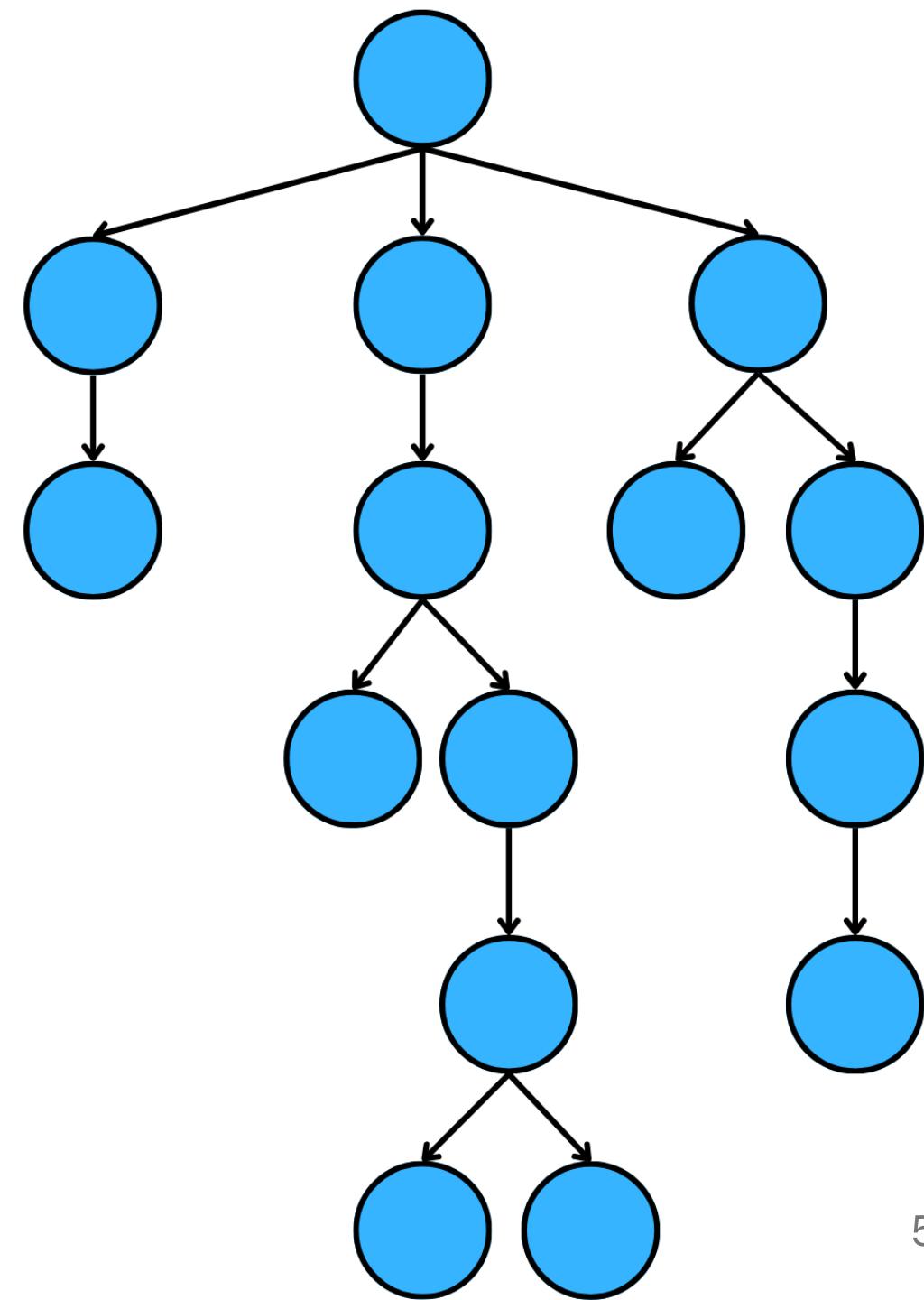
So Far We've Seen Linear Structures

- Arrays - sequential access
- Linked Lists - sequential traversal
- Stacks - LIFO access
- Queues - FIFO access

Problem: These are all linear structures!

What About Hierarchical Relationships?

- File systems (folders contain folders)
- Organization charts (managers and employees)
- Family trees (parents and children)
- Decision processes (choices leading to more choices)



Where Trees?

File Systems:

- Directories contain subdirectories
- Hierarchical organization

Compilers:

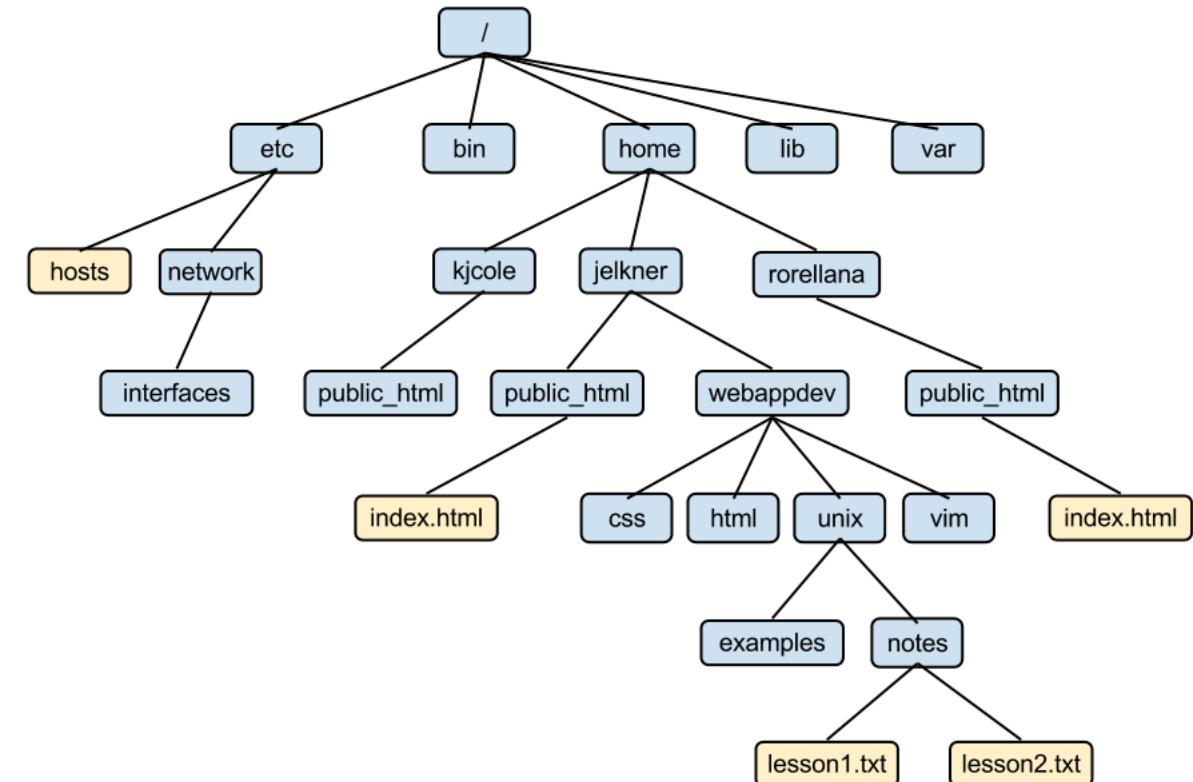
- Abstract Syntax Trees (AST)
- Expression evaluation

AI/Games:

- Decision trees
- Game state exploration

Networks:

- Routing protocols
- DNS hierarchy



What is a Tree?

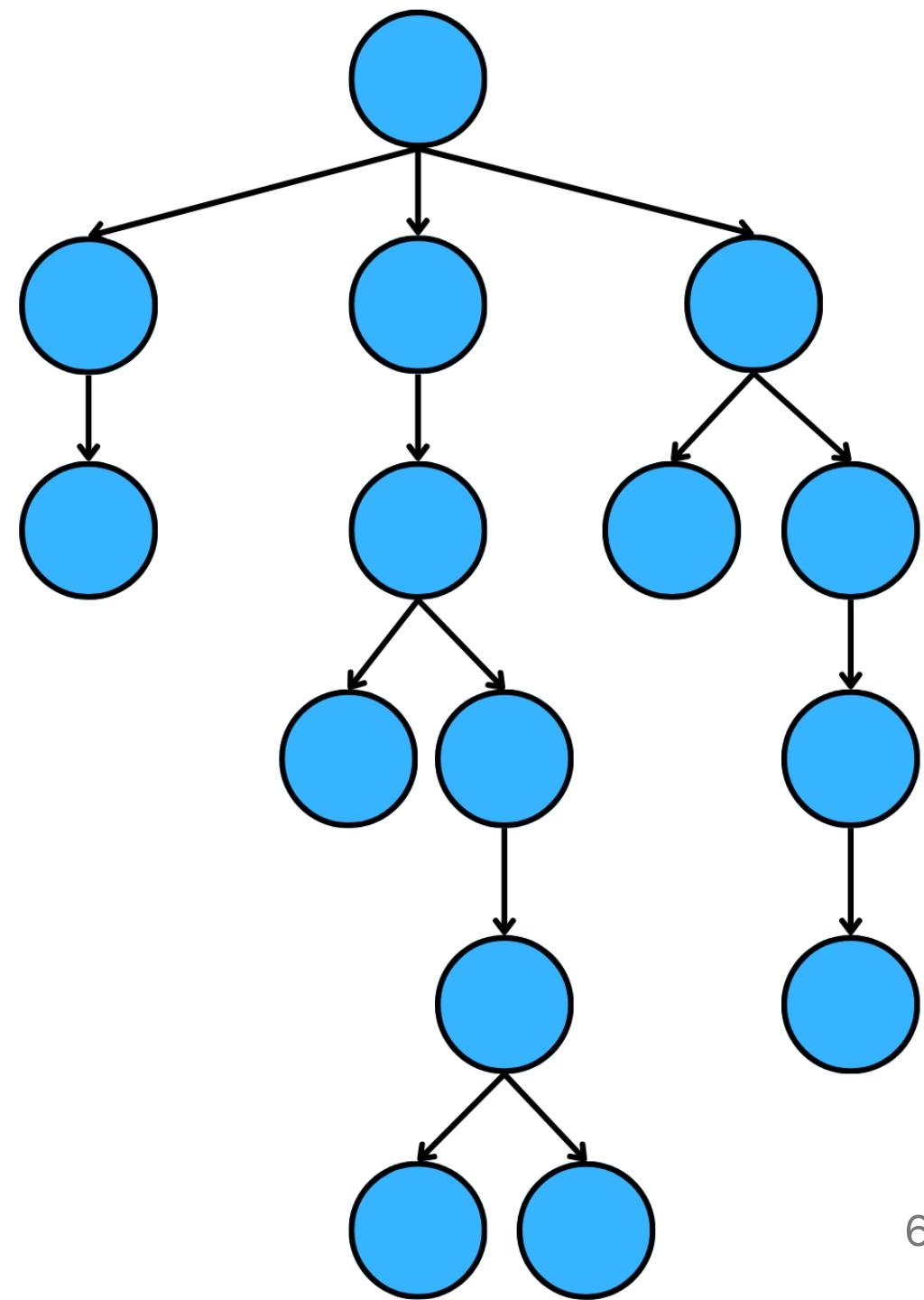
A **tree** is a hierarchical data structure consisting of nodes connected by edges.

Key Characteristics

- One **root node** - the topmost node
- **Parent-child relationships** - each node (except root) has exactly one parent
- **No cycles** - there's exactly one path between any two nodes
- **Connected** - all nodes are reachable from the root

Tree vs Graph

- Trees are special cases of graphs
- Trees have no cycles
- Trees have $n-1$ edges for n nodes



Tree Terminology

Basic Terms

Node: A single element in the tree containing data

Root: The topmost node

Edge: Connection between two nodes

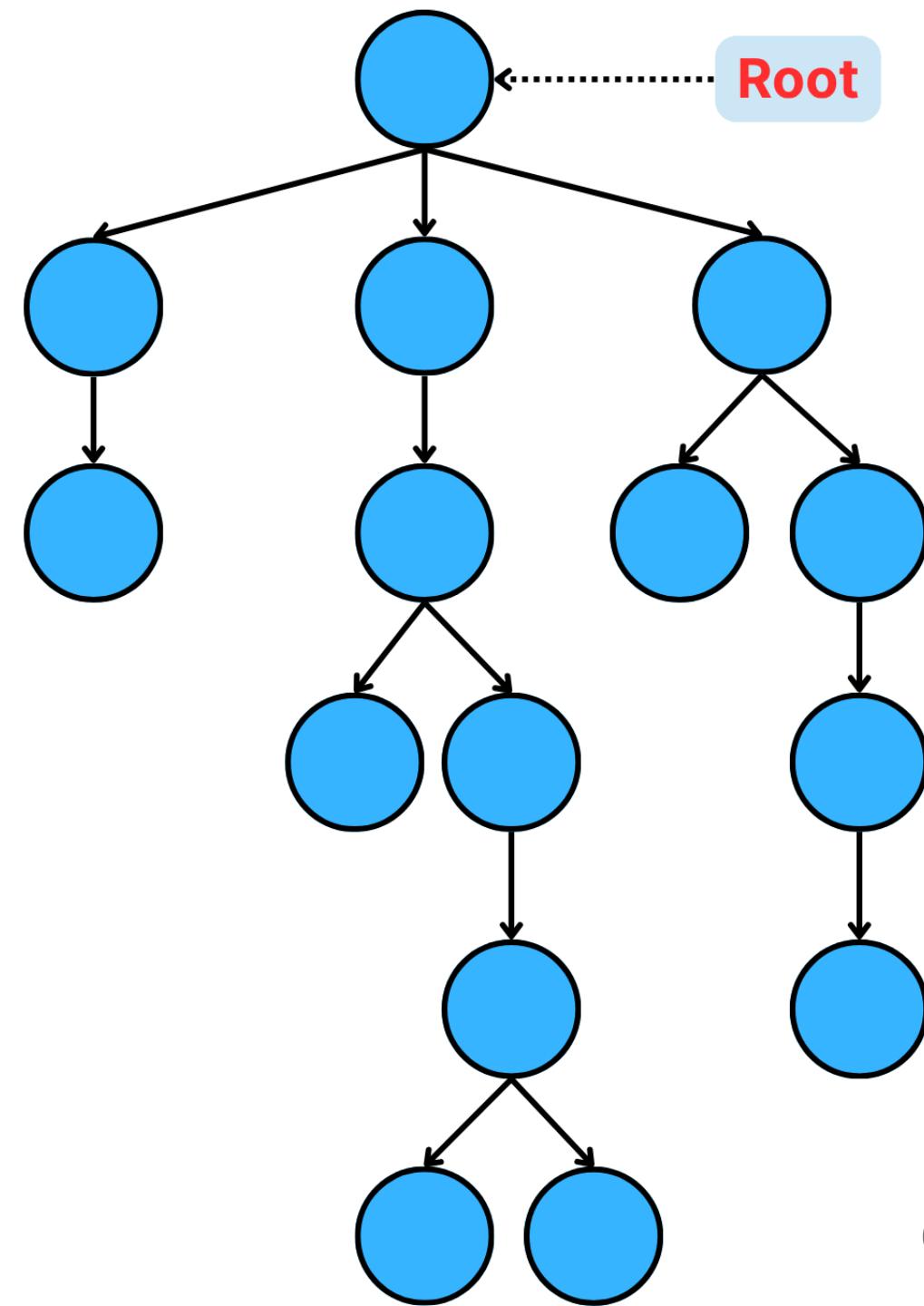
Parent: Node with children below it

Child: Node connected below another node

Siblings: Nodes with the same parent

Leaf: Node with no children

Subtrees: Individual trees within tree



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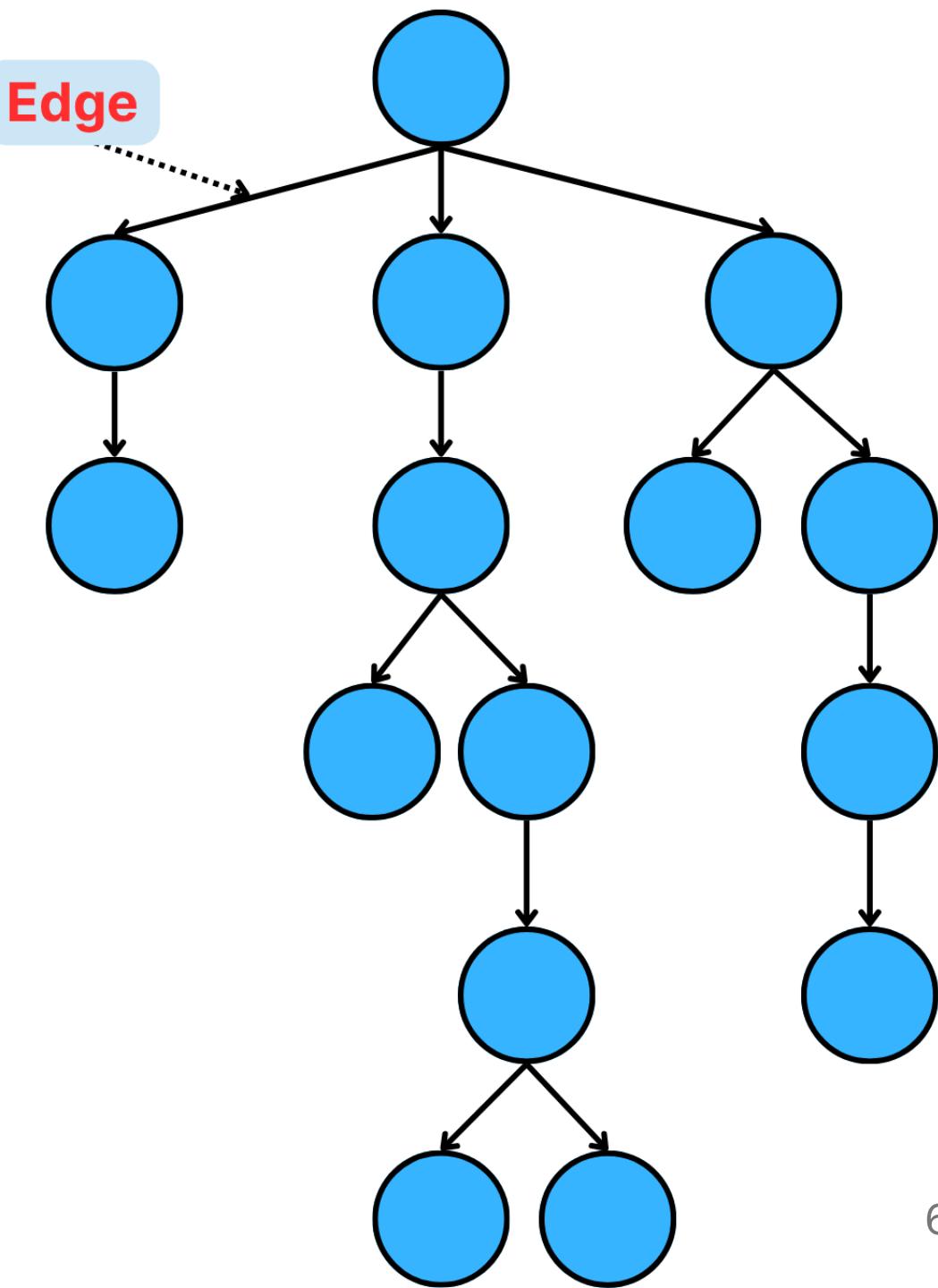
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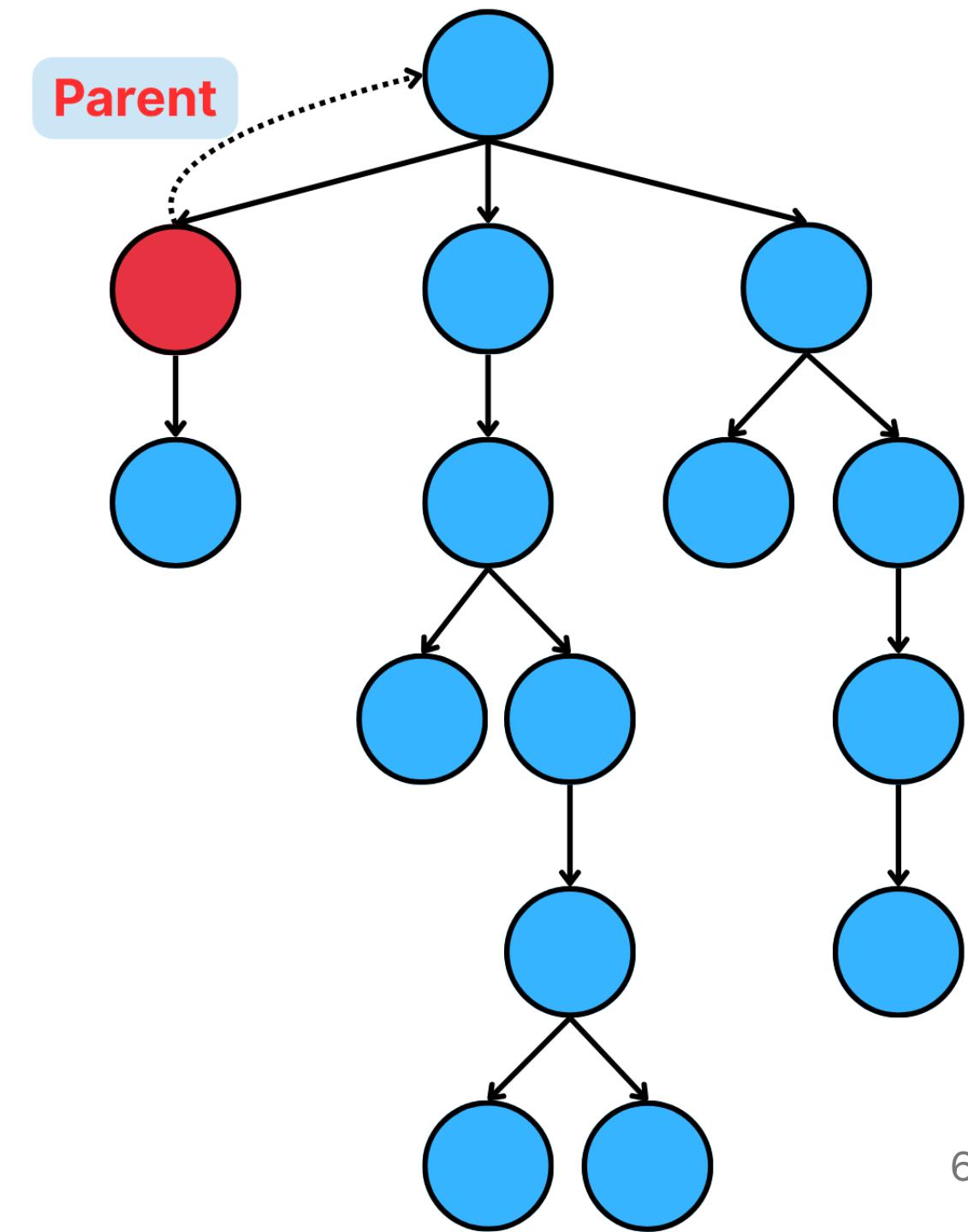
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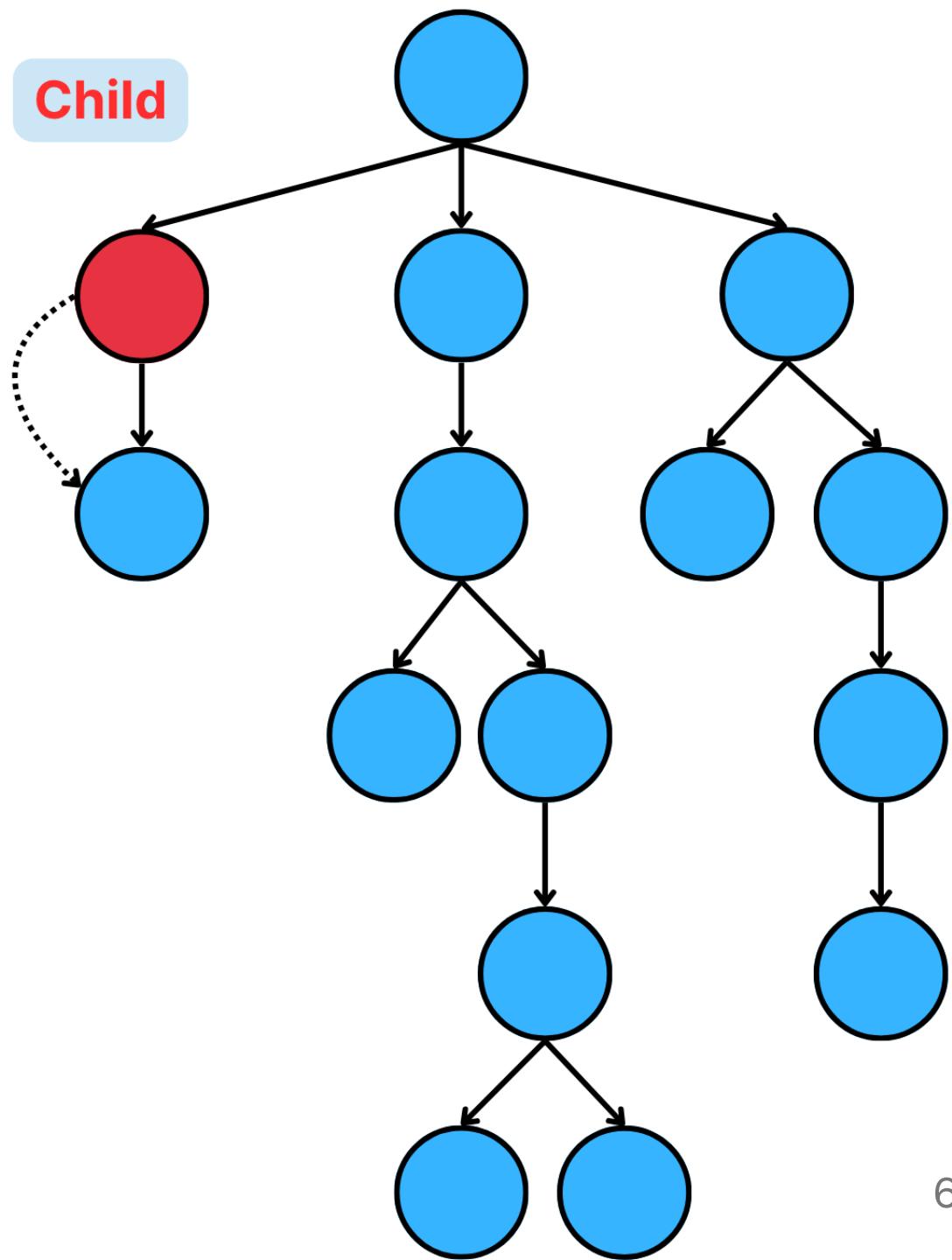
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Siblings

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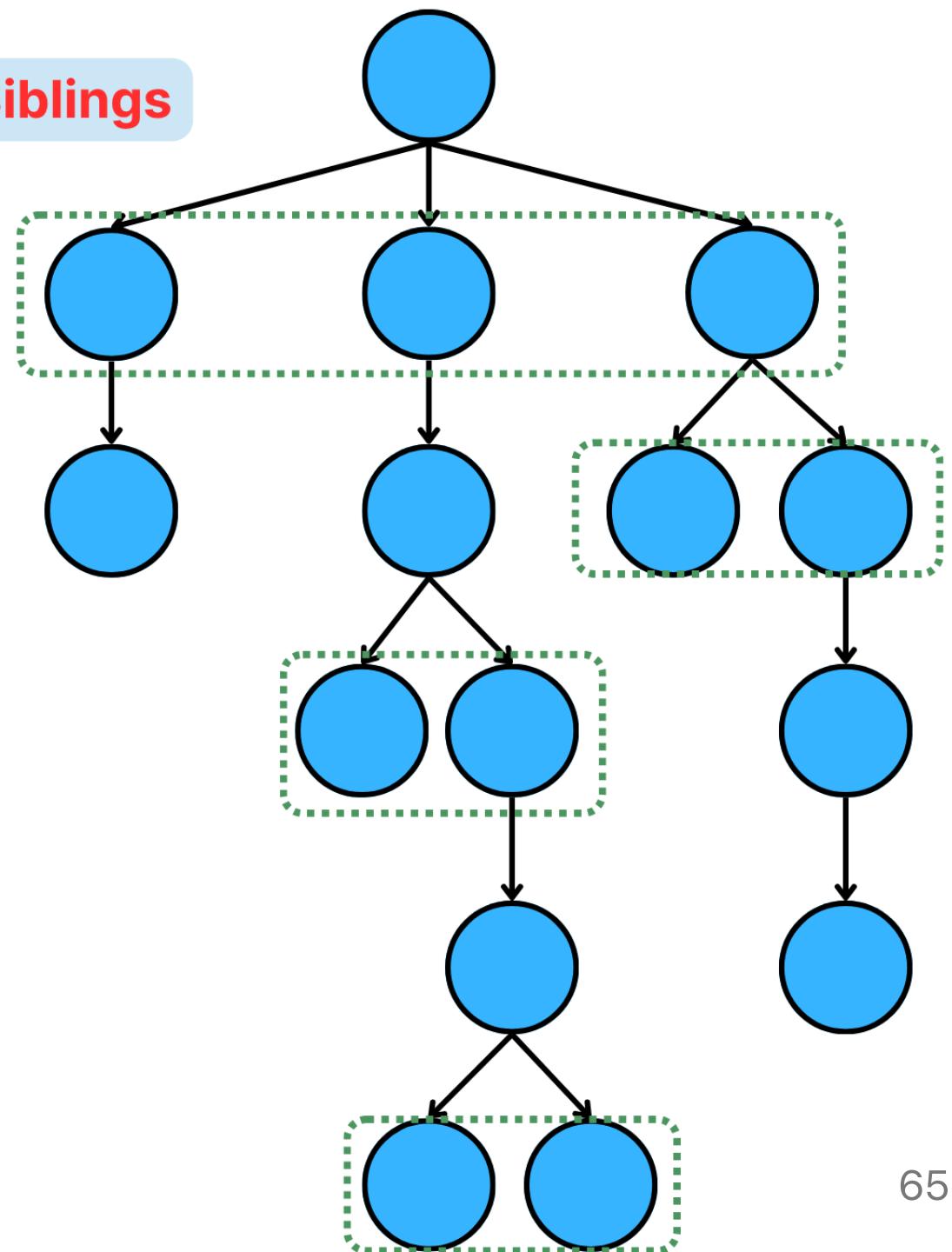
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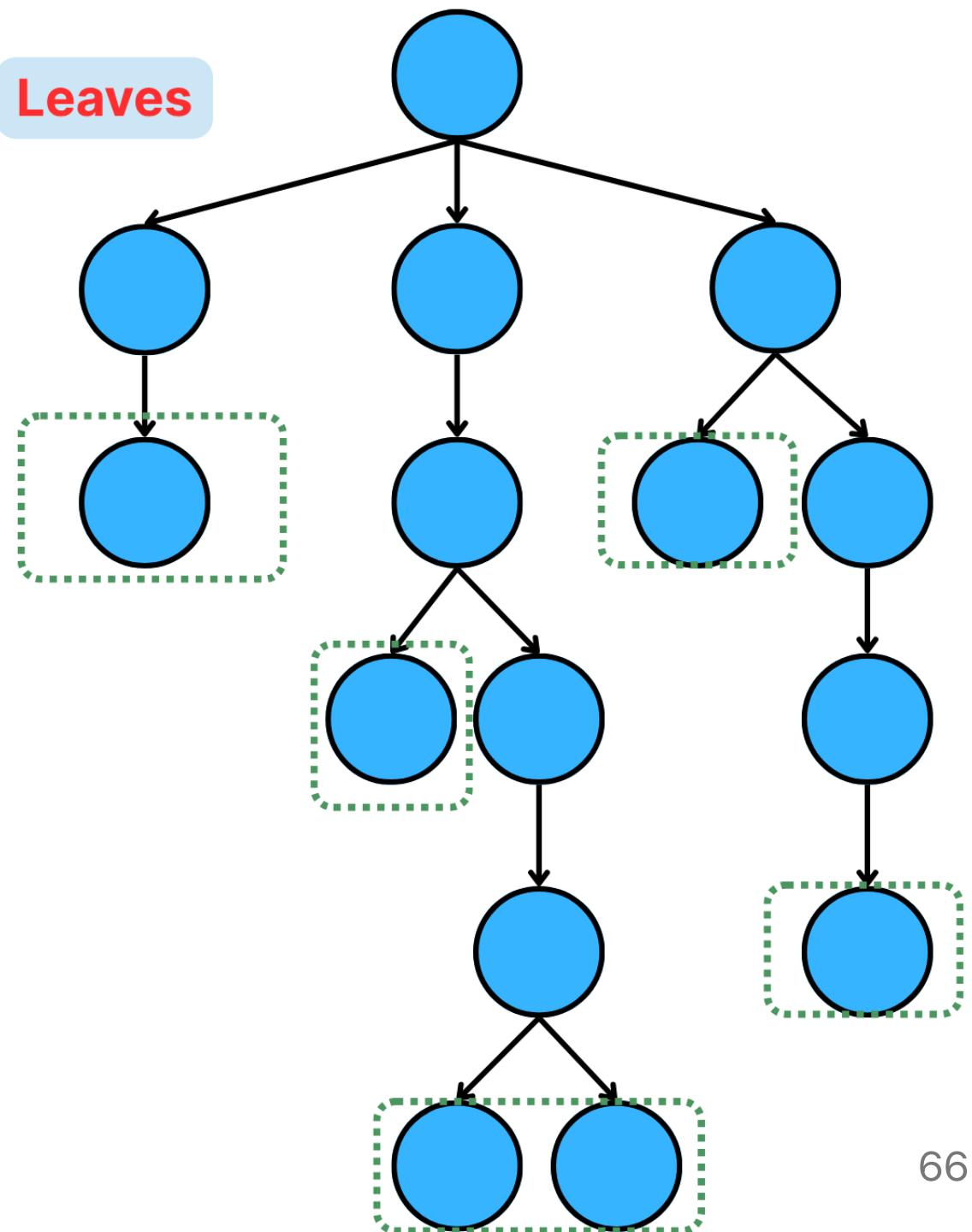
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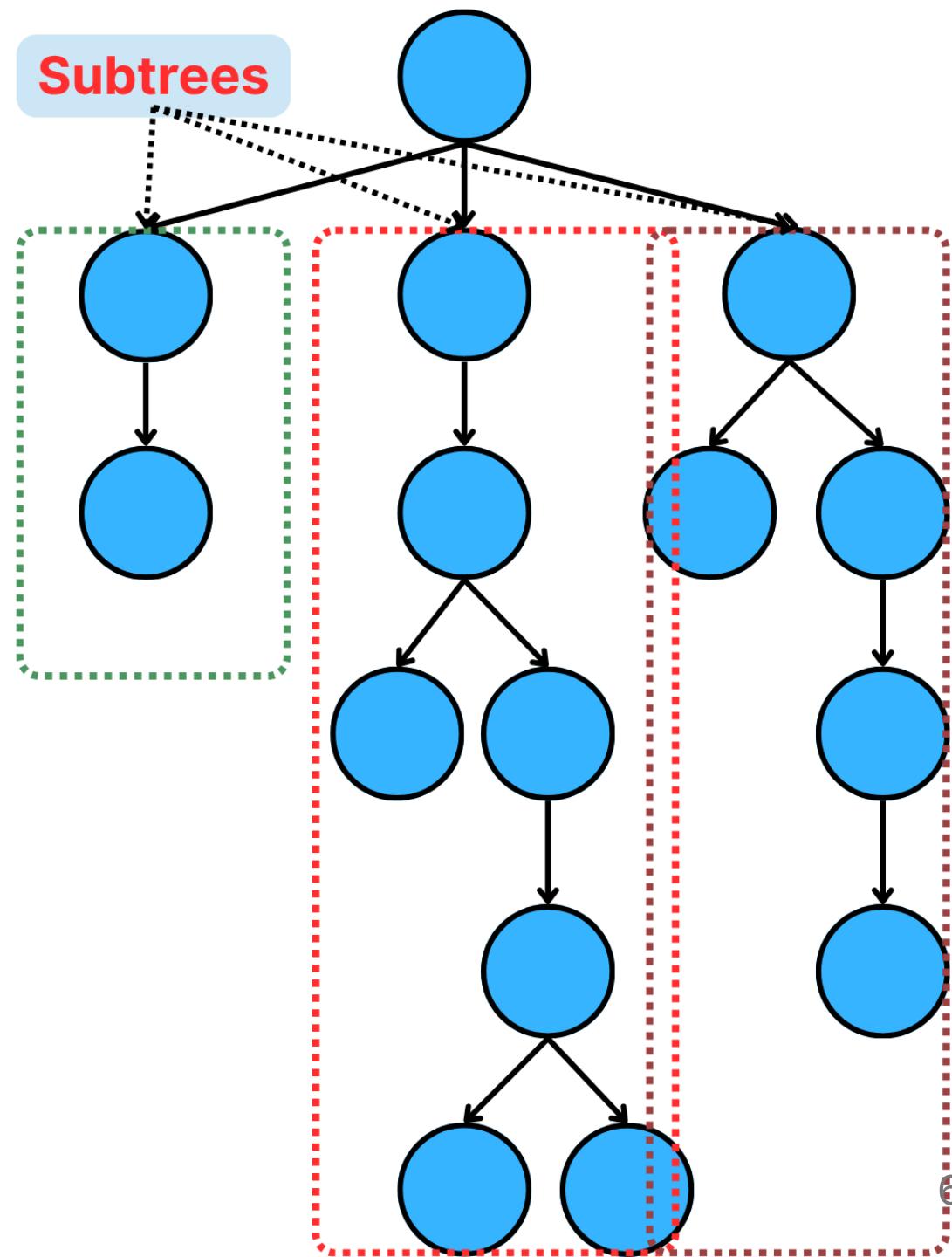
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Subtrees



More Tree Terminology

Path: Sequence of nodes connected by edges

- There is exactly one path from root to each node

Depth/Level of a node: Number of edges from root to that node

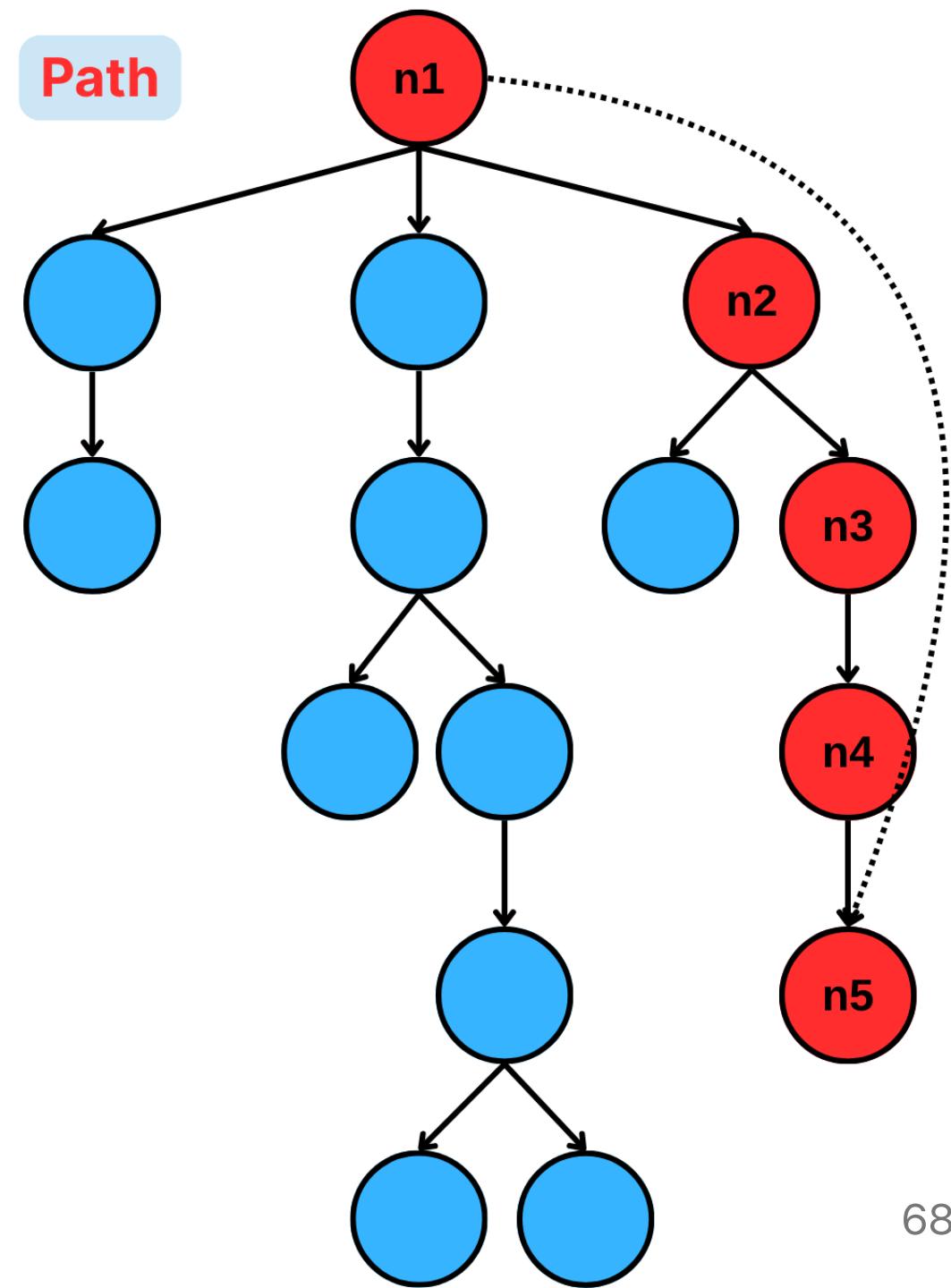
- Root has depth 0
 - Root's children have depth 1

Height of a node: Number of edges on the longest path from that node to a leaf

- Leaf has height 0

Height of a tree: Height of the root node

Degree of a node: Number of children it has



More Tree Terminology

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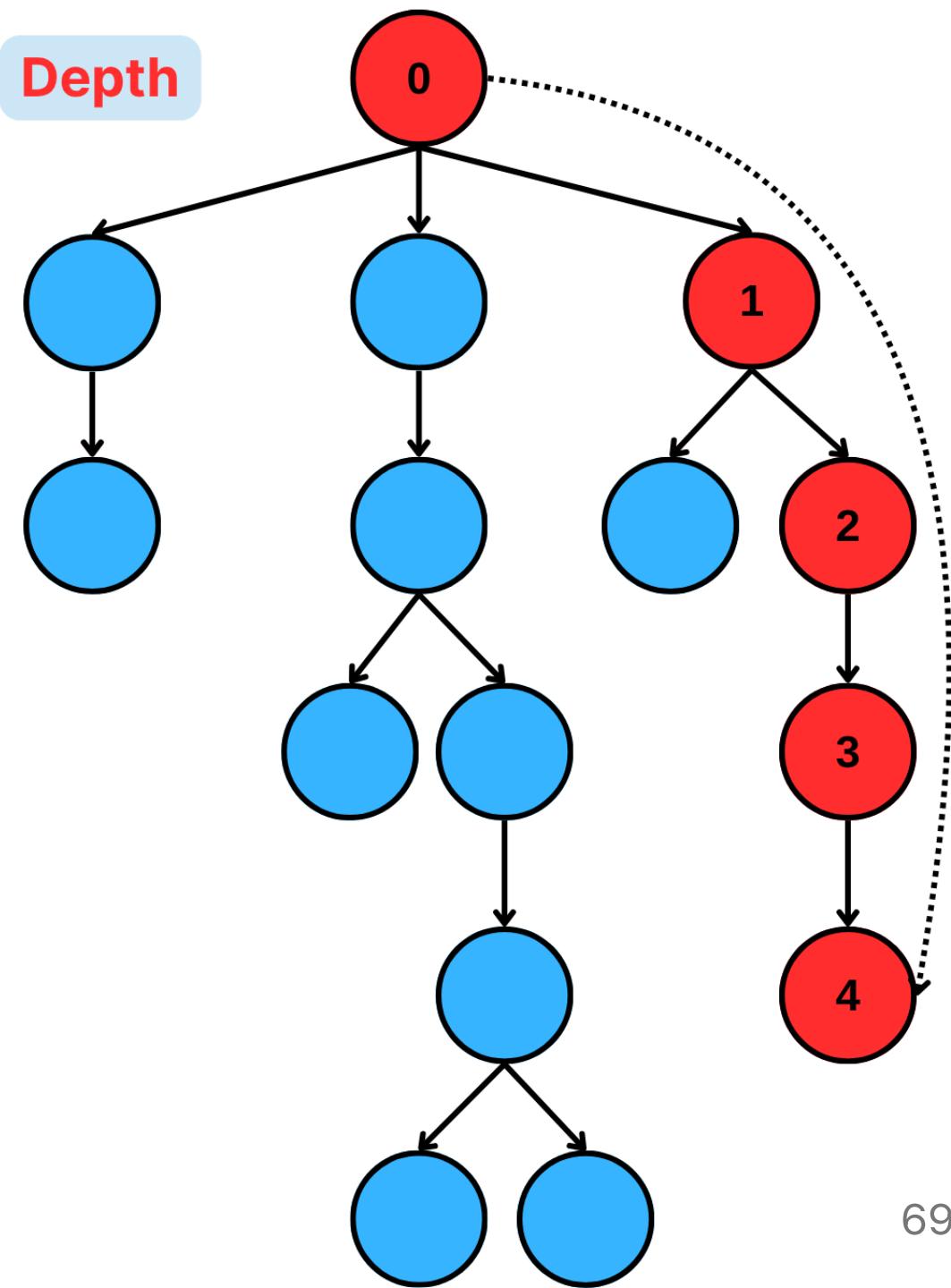
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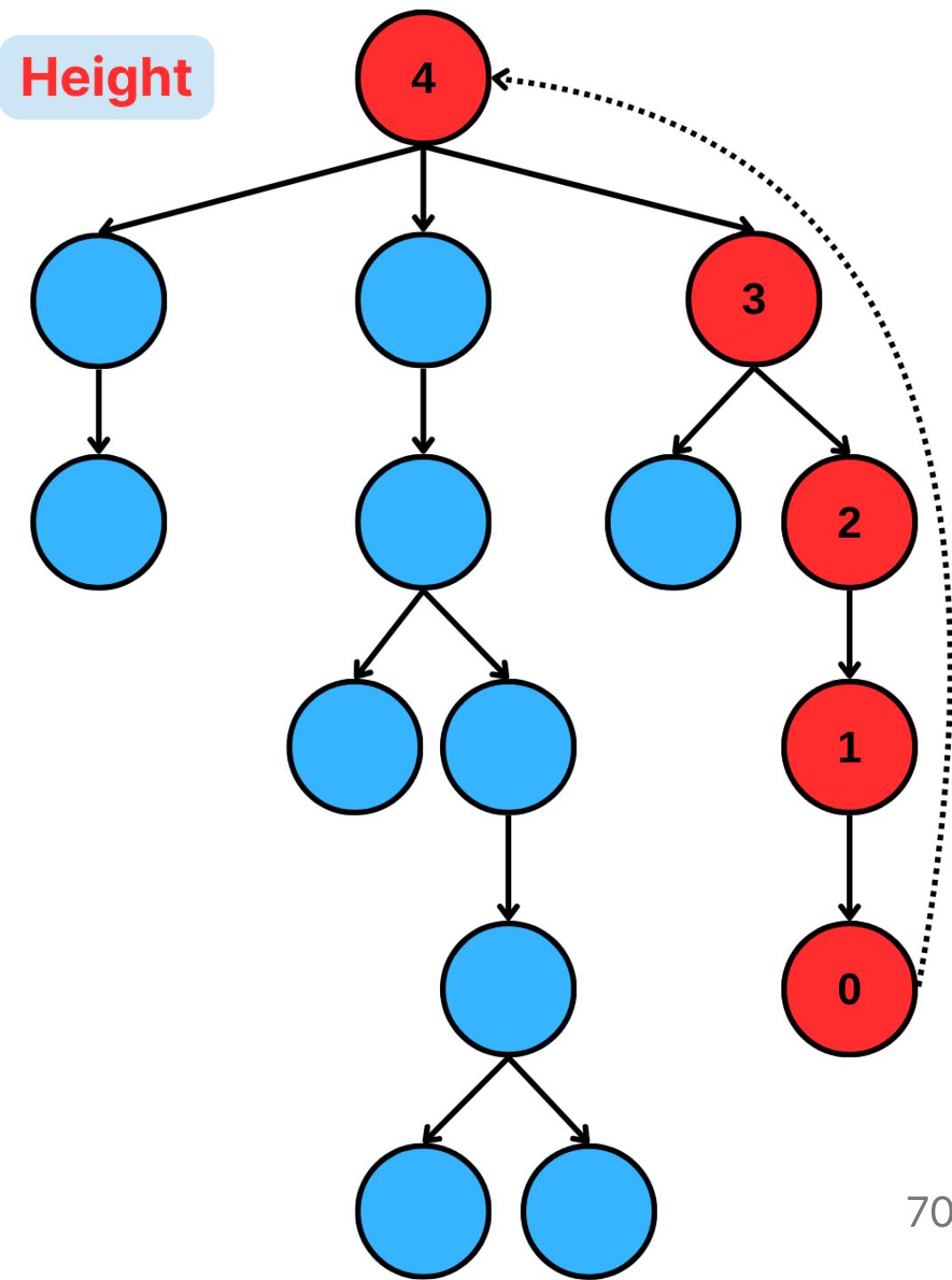
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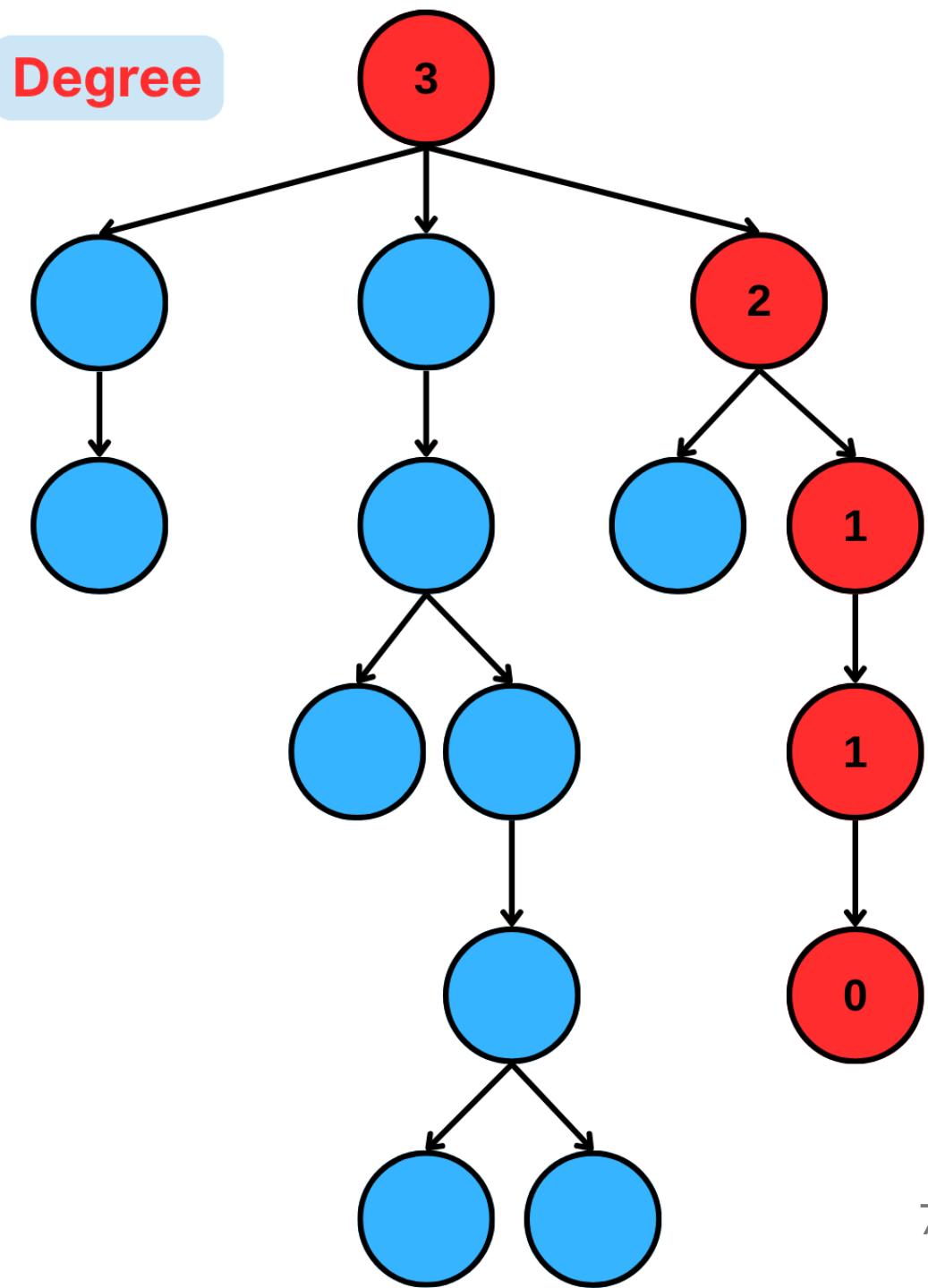
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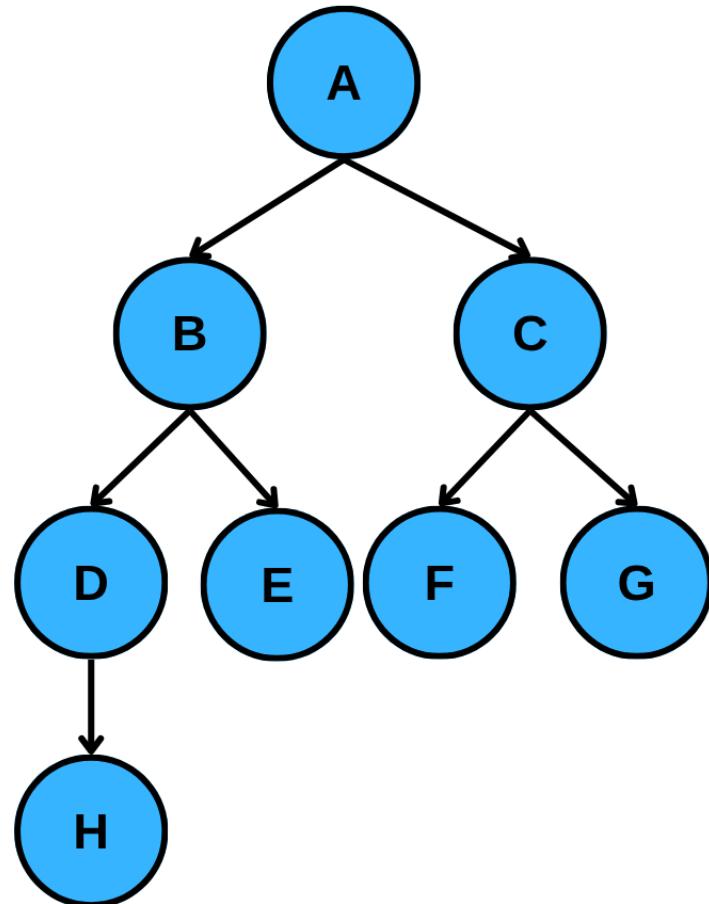
Degree of a node: Number of children it has



Tree Terminology - Practice

Identify:

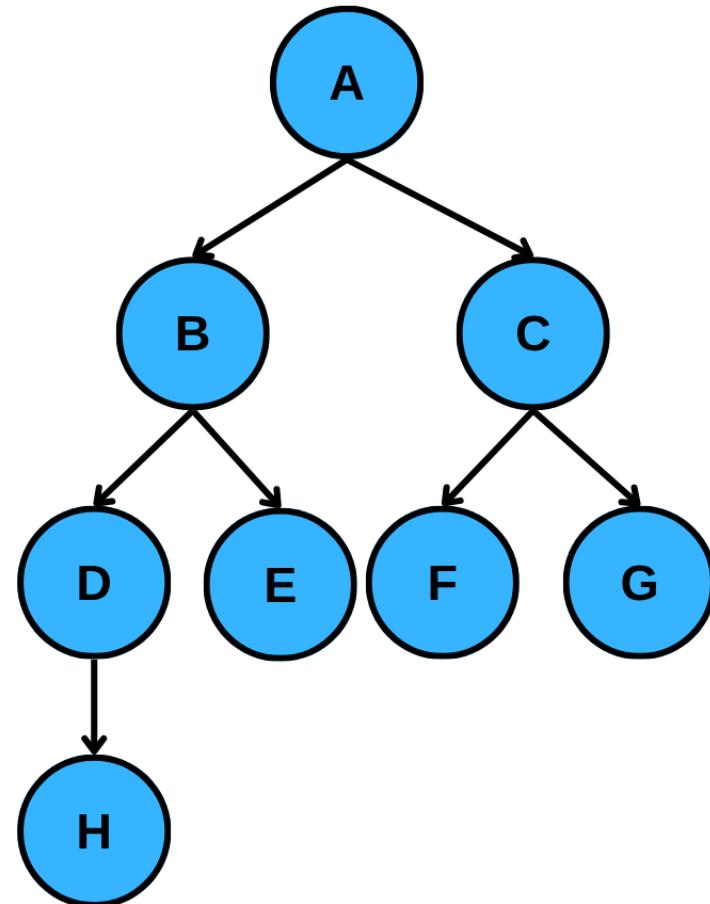
- Root:
- Leaves:
- Internal nodes:
- Parent of D:
- Children of C:
- Siblings of B:
- Degree of B:
- Depth of D:
- Height of B:
- Height of tree:



Tree Terminology - Answer

Identify:

- Root: A
- Leaves: E, F, G, H
- Internal nodes: A, B, C, D
- Parent of D: B
- Children of C: F, G
- Siblings of B: C
- Degree of B: 2
- Depth of D: 2
- Height of B: 2
- Height of tree: 3



Tree Properties

Important Properties

1. Number of Edges

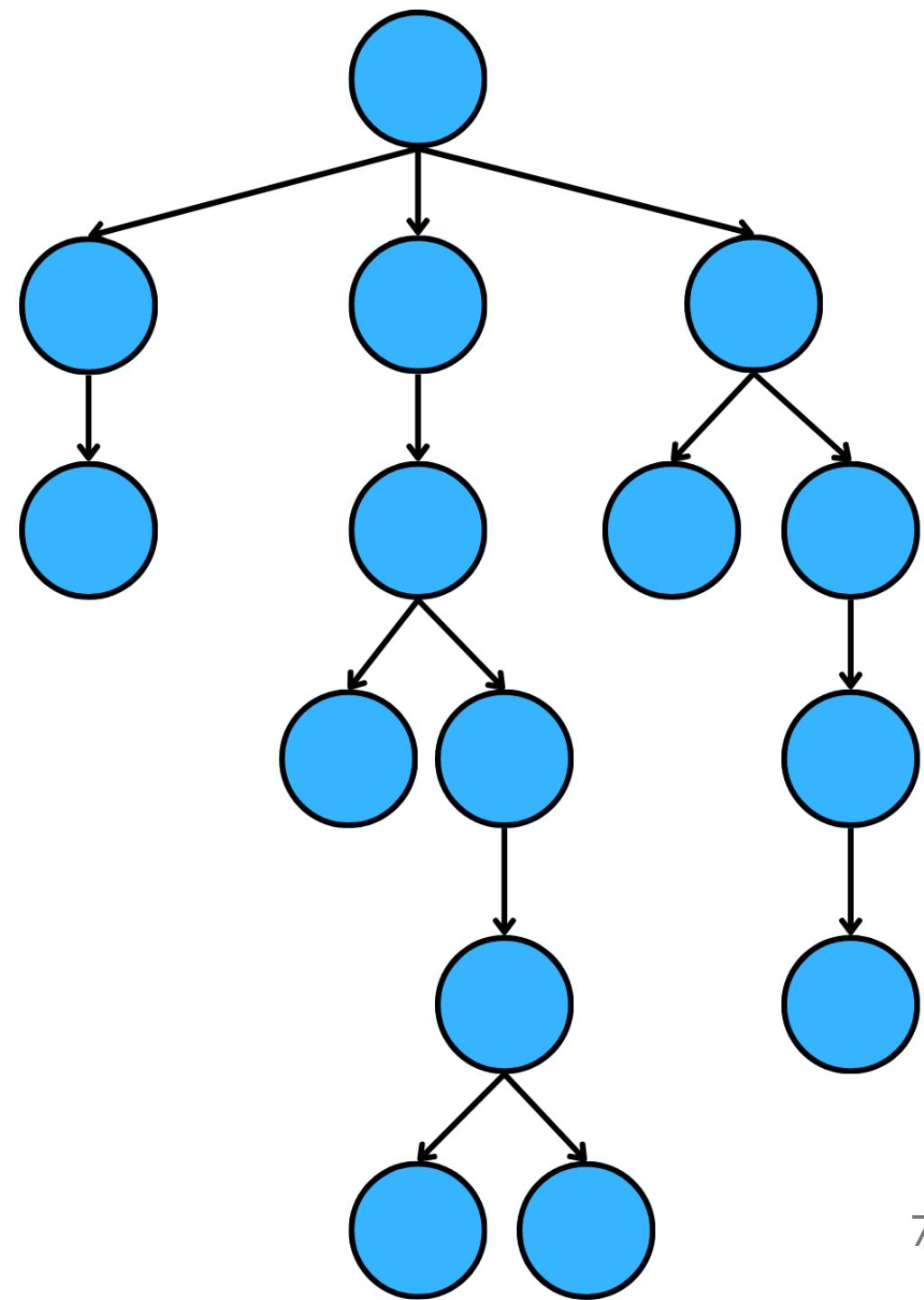
- A tree with n nodes has exactly $n-1$ edges
- Example: 10 nodes \rightarrow 9 edges

2. Maximum Nodes at Level

- Maximum nodes at level $i = 2^i$
- Level 0: 1 node (root)
- Level 1: 2 nodes
- Level 2: 4 nodes
- Level 3: 8 nodes

3. Path Uniqueness

- Between any two nodes, there is exactly **one path**



Summary - Key Takeaways

Part 1: Algorithm Analysis

Big-Oh Notation:

- Describes growth rate of algorithms
- Focus on worst case, ignore constants
- Essential for comparing algorithms

Common Complexities:

- $O(1) < O(\log n) < O(n) < O(n \log n) < O(n^2) < O(2^n) < O(n!)$

Analysis Skills:

- Count loops and operations
- Add for sequential, multiply for nested
- Consider both time and space

Summary - Key Takeaways

Part 2: Trees Introduction

Tree Fundamentals:

- Hierarchical data structure with nodes and edges
- One root, parent-child relationships, no cycles
- n nodes $\rightarrow n-1$ edges

Tree Terminology:

- Node, root, parent, child, siblings, leaf
- Path, depth/level, height
- Degree and subtrees

Tree Properties:

- Maximum nodes at level $i = 2^i$
- Exactly one path between any two nodes
- Foundation for advanced structures

Thank You!

Contact Information

- Email: ekrem.cetinkaya@yildiz.edu.tr
- Office Hours: Tuesday 14:00-16:00 - Room F-B21
- Book a slot before coming to the office hours: [Booking Link](#)
- Course Repository: [GitHub Link](#)

Next Class

- Date: 12.11.2025
- Topic: Trees (cont.) and Binary Search Tree
- Reading: Weiss Ch.4.1-4.2-4.3

Practice Resources:

- Visualize algorithms: <https://visualgo.net>
- Big-Oh cheat sheet: <https://www.bigocheatsheet.com>