

# Algorithms and Data Structures

3rd Semester Software Technology Engineering

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# 1 Introduction

Algorithms are formal, deterministic procedures transforming input to output through a finite sequence of well-defined steps. They encode computation as logic, not as syntax. What differentiates a good algorithm is not correctness alone but asymptotic efficiency under resource constraints: time, space, and often communication cost. In modern software systems, the majority of practical engineering failures originate not from correctness errors but from asymptotic ignorance. Understanding runtime growth is predictive power — it allows engineering before scaling breaks.

Data structures are engineered spatial encodings that give certain classes of algorithms structural leverage. Their entire purpose is to reduce entropy in access patterns: accelerating lookup, minimizing recomputation, avoiding redundancy, reducing cache misses, exploiting sparsity, and transforming unstructured data into shape. Lists, trees, heaps, graphs, hash tables, tries — these are not vocabulary items but complexity tradeoff mechanisms. Every structural choice rewrites the computational geometry of a problem.

The field is therefore not a set of memorized templates but a combinatorial design discipline. First principles create the ability to compute systematically: modeling problems as state machines, reducing problems to known primitives, selecting structure to match access semantics, and then proving bounds analytically.

## 2 Basics

### 2.1 Pseudocode conventions

- **Indentation** indicates block structure
- **Loops:** counter typically start at **1**
- $A[i : j]$  contains  $A[i], A[i + 1], \dots, A[j]$
- Pass parameters to a procedure **by value**: the procedure receives its own copy of the parameters
- Return multiple values at once without bundling them into an object

#### 2.1.1 Example:

```
SUM-ARRAY(A, n)
// this is a comment
1. sum = 0
2. for i = 1 to n
3.     sum = sum + A[i]
4. return sum
```

### 3 Time Complexity

#### 3.1 Notations

Notation	Name	Meaning
$O$	Big O	Upper bound on growth rate
$\Omega$	Big Omega	Lower bound on growth rate
$\Theta$	Big Theta	Tight bound on growth rate
$o$	Little o	Strict upper bound on growth rate
$\omega$	Little omega	Strict lower bound on growth rate

#### 3.2 Definitions

$f(n) = O(g(n))$  if there exist positive constants  $c$  and  $n_0$  such that  $0 \leq f(n) \leq c \cdot g(n)$  for all  $n \geq n_0$

$f(n) = \Omega(g(n))$  if there exist positive constants  $c$  and  $n_0$  such that  $0 \leq c \cdot g(n) \leq f(n)$  for all  $n \geq n_0$

$f(n) = \Theta(g(n))$  if and only if  $f(n) = O(g(n))$  and  $f(n) = \Omega(g(n))$

$f(n) = o(g(n))$  if for any positive constant  $c > 0$ , there exists a constant  $n_0$  such that  $0 \leq f(n) < c \cdot g(n)$  for all  $n \geq n_0$

$f(n) = \omega(g(n))$  if for any positive constant  $c > 0$ , there exists a constant  $n_0$  such that  $0 \leq c \cdot g(n) < f(n)$  for all  $n \geq n_0$

## 4 Binary Search

### 4.1 Pseudocode

```
BINARY-SEARCH(A, n, target)
1. low = 1
2. high = n
3. while low <= high
4.     mid = (low + high) / 2
5.     if A[mid] == target
6.         return mid
7.     else if A[mid] < target
8.         low = mid + 1
9.     else
10.        high = mid - 1
11. return NOT-FOUND
```

### 4.2 Time complexity analysis

#### 4.2.1 Average Case

- Each iteration halves the search space
- Number of iterations:  $\log_2 n$
- Each iteration takes constant time  $O(1)$
- Total time complexity:  $O(\log n)$

#### 4.2.2 Worst Case

- Target not found
- Number of iterations:  $\log_2 n$
- Each iteration takes constant time  $O(1)$
- Total time complexity:  $O(\log n)$

#### 4.2.3 Best Case

- Target found at the middle index
- Number of iterations: 1
- Each iteration takes constant time  $O(1)$
- Total time complexity:  $O(1)$

## 5 Recursion

### 5.1 Example: Factorial

FACTORIAL(*n*)

```
1. if n == 0
2.     return 1
3. else
4.     return n * FACTORIAL(n - 1)
```

### 5.2 Time complexity analysis

- Each call to FACTORIAL makes one recursive call with  $n - 1$
- Number of calls:  $n + 1$  (from  $n$  down to 0)
- Each call takes constant time  $O(1)$
- Total time complexity:  $O(n)$

### 5.3 Space complexity analysis\*

- Each call to FACTORIAL adds a new frame to the call stack
- Maximum depth of recursion:  $n + 1$
- Each frame takes constant space  $O(1)$
- Total space complexity:  $O(n)$

## 6 Linked Lists



## 7 Stacks and Queues

## 8 Sets and Maps

## 9 Hashing and Hash Tables

## 10 Trees

### 10.1 Binary Trees

### 10.2 Binary Search Trees

### 10.3 Red-Black Trees

### 10.4 AVL Trees\*

### 10.5 Huffman Encoding

## 11 Sorting Algorithms

11.1 Selection Sort

11.2 Insertion Sort

11.3 Merge Sort

11.4 Quick Sort\*

11.5 Bubble Sort\*

## 12 Divide and Conquer Algorithms

## 13 Master Theorem

### 13.1 Recurrence equation

$$T(n) = aT\left(\frac{n}{b}\right) + f(n)$$

Where:

- $a > 0$
- $b > 1$

### 13.2 Benchmark table

Benchmark	Name	Function
Non-recursive work	Driving function	$f(n) = n^d(\log(n))^k$
Recursive work	Watershed function	$n^{\log_b(a)}, w = \log_b(a)$

### 13.3 Master theorem idea

- Which term dominates time complexity of the recurrence?
- Is there a polynomial gap between:

Type	Meaning
Non-recursive work	divide, combine
Recursive work	conquer

### 13.4 Definitions

Driving function:  $f(n) = n^d(\log(n))^k$

Watershed exponent:  $w = \log_b(a)$

### 13.5 Master theorem cases

Case no	Condition	Who dominates	Result for T(n)
1	$w > d$	Recursive - Driving function is smaller than watershed function by polynomial gap	$\Theta(n^w)$
2	$w = d$	Tie - Driving function and watershed function are asymptotically equal	$\Theta(n^d \log^{k+1} n)$
3	$w < d$	Non-recursive - Watershed function is smaller than driving function by polynomial gap	$\Theta(f(n))$

### 13.6 Procedure

1. Identify  $a, b, f(n)$
2. Compute watershed exponent  $w$
3. Rewrite driving function  $f(n)$
4. Compare  $w$  and  $d$
5. Conclude  $\rightarrow$  time complexity of recurrence equation