# CS2040 Notes

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## 1 Definitions

## 1.1 Time and Space Complexity

- $\bullet$  Space Complexity =  $\mathbf{Total}$  space ever allocated
- Amortized cost T(n) if  $\forall k \in \mathbb{Z}$ , cost of operation is  $\leq kT(n)$

#### 1.1.1 Big O

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

- 1. There exists a constant c > 0
- 2. and a constant  $n_0 > 0$

such that for all  $n > n_0$ ,

$$T(n) \le cf(n)$$

ie) An upper bound above a certain size n; Always try to get the tightest bound

## 1.1.2 Big Omega

$$T(n) = \Omega(f(n))$$
 if:

- 1. There exists a constant c > 0
- 2. and a constant  $n_0 > 0$

such that for all  $n > n_0$ ,

$$T(n) \ge cf(n)$$

ie) A lower bound above a certain size n

#### 1.2 Pre and Post-conditions

**Precondition** Fact that is true when the function begins **Postcondition** Fact that is true when the function ends

#### 1.3 Invariants

Invariants Relationship between variables that is always true.

**Loop Invariants** Relationship between variables that is true at the beginning (or end) of each iteration of a loop.

### 1.4 Stability and In-Place sorting

When 2 of the same keys are sorted:

- If its value becomes out of order, Unstable
- Stability: Preserving order of repeated elements

General Rule-of-Thumb, if got swap here-swap there (ie NOT IN-PLACE), it is unstable

# 1.5 Probability and Expected Value

- $E[X] = e_1p_1 + e_2p_2 + \dots + e_kp_k$
- $\bullet \ E(A+B) = E(A) + E(B)$

# 1.6 Trees and Graphs

 $\begin{array}{c} {\bf Successor} \\ {\bf Height} \end{array}$ 

Next largest value in the tree. Number of edges on longest path from root to leaf.

- h(v) = 0 if v is a leaf
- h(v) = max(h(v.left), h(v.right)) + 1

Cut of a graph is a partition of vertices into 2 disjoint subsets An edge crosses a cut if it has one vertex in each of the 2 sets

# Common Time Complexities

Recurrence	Complexity	Remarks
T(n) = 2T(n/2) + O(n)	O(nlogn)	Height of logn, n each 'level'
T(n) = T(n/2) + O(1)	O(logn)	Height of logn, 1 each 'level'
T(n) = 2T(n/2) + O(1)	O(n)	1, 2, 4, n: Sum of GP
T(n) = T(n/2) + O(n)	O(n)	n, n/2, n/4 1: Sum of GP

# 2.1 AP GP Sums

For GP, 
$$S_n = \frac{a(r^n - 1)}{r - 1} = \frac{a(1 - r^n)}{1 - r}$$

- For AP,  $S_n = \frac{1}{2}n(a_1 + a_n)$  If AP is 1, 2,...n,  $S_n = \frac{n^2 + n}{2} = O(n^2)$ For GP,  $S_n = \frac{a(r^n 1)}{r 1} = \frac{a(1 r^n)}{1 r}$  Sum to  $\infty S_\infty = \frac{a}{1 r}$  If GP is 1, 2, 4...n, where a = n, r = 1/2,  $S_n = \frac{a}{1 r} = \frac{n}{1 0.5} = O(n)$

# 3 Binary Search

For a sorted array, take middle, compare to key: search LHS or RHS of mid.

```
int search(A, key, n)
  begin = 0
  end = n-1
  while begin < end do:
    mid = begin + (end-begin)/2;
    if key <= A[mid] then
        end = mid
    else begin = mid+1
  return (A[begin]==key) ? begin : -1</pre>
```

Functionality	<ul> <li>If element not in array, return index</li> <li>If element not in array, return -1</li> </ul>		
Precondition	<ul><li>Array is of size n</li><li>Array is sorted</li></ul>		
Postcondition	If element is in the array: $A[begin] = key$		
Invariant (Correctness)	$A[begin] \le key \le A[end]$ • The key is in the range of the Array		
Invariant (Speed)	$(end - begin) \le n/2^k$ in iteration k		

#### Not just for searching Arrays:

- 1. Assuming a complicated function,
  - Assume function is always increasing: complicatedFunction(i) < complicatedFunction(i+1)
  - :: Find minimum value j such that complicatedFunction(j) > 100
- 2. Peak Finding (1 or 2 Dimensions)
- 3. QuickSelect

# 3.1 Peak Finding

```
Want to find an index i such that arr[i] \geq arr[i-1] & arr[i] \leq arr[i+1]
```

```
FindPeak(A, n)
    //Recurse on right
    if A[n/2+1] > A[n/2] then
        FindPeak(A[n/2+1..n], n/2)

//Recurse on left
else if A[n/2{1] > A[n/2] then
        FindPeak(A[1..n/2-1], n/2)

else A[n/2] is a peak; return n/2
```

Functionality	On an unsorted array, find A peak: local minimum or maximum (not a specific key)		
Invariants (Correctness)	• There exists a peak in the range $[begin, end]$ Every peak in $[begin, end]$ is a peak in $[1, n]$ .		
Running Time	$T(n) = T(n/2) + \theta(1)$ Recurse for $log 2(n)$ times $\therefore O(log n)$		

## 3.2 Steep Peaks

Want to find a peak such that its left and right side are strictly lower than it.

Functionality	On an unsorted array, find A peak: local minimum or maximum (not a specific If both sides are the same as mid, recurse both sides		
Running Time	$T(n) = 2T(n/2) + \theta(1)$ = $16T(n/16) + 8 + 4 + 2 + 1$		
	$= nT(1) + n/2 + n/4 + + 1$ $= O(n) \text{ Sum of Geometric Progression}$		

## 3.3 QuickSelect

Find kth smallest element

Makes use of QuickSort's partition to ensure that the kth smallest element is before or after the randomly selected pivot

```
Select(A[1..n], n, k)
  if (n == 1) then return A[1];
  else Choose random pivot index pIndex.
    p = partition(A[1..n], n, pIndex)
    if (k == p) then return A[p];
    else if (k < p) then
        return Select(A[1..p{1], k)
    else if (k > p) then
        return Select(A[p+1], k { p)
```

Recurrence: T(n) = T(n/2) + O(n)

Time Complexity: O(n) (Sum of G.P.)

#### 3.3.1 Paranoid Select

```
Repeatedly partition until at least n/10 in each half of partition E[T(n)] \leq E[T(9n/10)] + E[numofpartitions](n) \\ \leq E[T(9n/10)] + 2n \\ \leq O(n)
```

# 4 Sorting

## 4.1 Bubble Sort

Iteratively swap largest values to the top.

```
\label{eq:bubbleSort(A, n)} \begin{tabular}{ll} \begin{tabular}{
```

Loop Invariant	At the end of iteration j, the biggest j items are correctly sorted in the <b>final j positions</b> of the array.	
Invariant (Correctnness)	Sorted after n iterations	
Running Time  Best Case  Average Case  Worst Case	O(n) [Already Sorted] $O(n^2)$ $O(n^2)$ [n iterations]	
Space Consumption	O(1)	
Stability	Stable, only swap elements that are different	

## 4.2 Selection Sort

Find minimum element and swap it directly with the front.

```
SelectionSort(A, n)
  for j <- 1 to n-1:
     find minimum element A[j] in A[j..n]
     swap(A[j], A[k])</pre>
```

Loop Invariant	At the end of iteration j: the smallest j items are correctly sorted in the <b>first j positions</b> of the array.		
Running Time	$n + (n-1) + (n-2) + \dots + 1$		
	$=\frac{n(n-1)}{n(n-1)}$ (Sum of A.P.)		
	$=O(n^2)$		
• Best Case	$O(n^2)$ [If already Sorted, will swap anyway]		
• Average Case	$O(n^2)$		
• Worst Case	$O(n^2)$ [n swaps]		
Space Consumption	O(1)		
Stability	Unstable, swap changes order		

#### 4.3 Insertion Sort

Iteratively swaps the current element into its rightful place in the sorted left side of the array.

```
InsertionSort(A, n)
  for j <- 2 to n
    key <- A[j]
    i <- j-1
    while (i > 0) and (A[i] >key)
        A[i+1] <- A[i]
        i <- i-1
        A[i+1] <- key</pre>
```

Loop Invariant	At the end of iteration j: the <b>first j items</b> in the array are in sorted order.
Running Time	$1 + 2 + 3 + \dots + n$ = $\frac{n(n-1)}{2}$ (Sum of A.P.) = $O(n^2)$
<ul><li>Best Case</li><li>Average Case</li><li>Worst Case</li></ul>	O(n) [Already Sorted] $O(n^2)$ $O(n^2)$ [Inverse Sorted]
Space Consumption	O(1)
Stability	Stable, swap doesn't change order, as long as implemented properly $(A[i] > key)$

Insertion Sort can be fast(er than MergeSort!) if List is mostly sorted

#### 4.4 MergeSort

Divide-and-Conquer, sort two halves, merge two sorted halves

```
Running Time
Running Time of Merge
                          Given A and B of sizes n/2, O(n) to move each element back into list
                          T(n) = O(1) \text{ (if } n = 1)
                          =2T(n/2)+cn \text{ (if } n>1)
                          \therefore Height of recursion tree h = logn, every level cn operations
                          T(n) = cnlogn, O(n) = nlogn
• Best Case
                          O(nlogn)
• Average Case
                          O(nlogn)
• Worst Case
                          O(nlogn)
Space Consumption
                          O(n) [Using 1 temporary array, Switch the order of A and B at every recursive call.]
                          Stable
Stability
```

MergeSort can be slower for Smaller number of items to sort

### 4.5 QuickSort

Separate larger and smaller than a chosen **pivot** (Partitioning), recursively sort both sub-arrays.

```
QuickSort(A[1..n], n)
    if (n==1) then return;
    else
        Choose pivot index pIndex
        p = partition(A[1..n], n, pIndex)
        x = QuickSort(A[1..p-1], p-1)
        y = QuickSort(A[p+1..n], n-p)
//Returns the index of the pivot
partition(A[1..n], n, pIndex)
                                    // Assume no duplicates, n>1
   pivot = A[pIndex];
                                    // pIndex is the index of pivot
    swap(A[1], A[pIndex]);
                                    // store pivot in A[1]
    low = 2;
                                    // start after pivot in A[1]
   high = n+1;
                                    // Define: A[n+1] = Infinity
    while (low < high)
        while (A[low] < pivot) and (low < high) do low++;
        while (A[high] > pivot) and (low < high) do high{ { ;</pre>
        if (low < high) then swap(A[low], A[high]);
    swap(A[1], A[low{1]);
    return low{1;
```

Invariants	• For every $i \ge high : A[i] > pivot$
	• For every $1 < j < low : A[j] < pivot$
Running Time	
Running Time of Partition	O(n)
• Best Case	O(nlogn)
• Average Case	O(nlogn)
• Worst Case	$O(n^2)$ [eg All elements duplicates]
Space Consumption	O(1)
	Extra Memory allows QuickSort to be stable
Stability	Unstable

## 4.6 QuickSort Optimisations

#### 4.6.1 Base Case?

- Unoptimized: Recurse to single-element arrays
- Switch to Insertion Sort for small arrays (Relies on fact that InsertionSort is fast for small arrays)
- Halt Recursion early, leaving small arrays unsorted. Then perform InsertionSort on entire array

#### 4.6.2 3-Way Partitioning

Deal with duplicates in arrays

#### Option 1 2-pass Partitioning

- 1. Regular Partition
- 2. Pack Duplicates (of pivot) together

#### Option 2 1-pass Partitioning

- Standard Solution
- Mantain Four Regions of Array (See Fig 1)

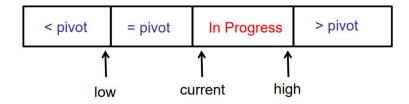


Figure 1: 1-pass Partitioning

If bmA[current] < pivot low++

Swap A[current], A[low]

 $\operatorname{current}++$ 

If bmA[current] == pivot current++

 $\textbf{If } bmA[current] > pivot \qquad \text{Swap } A[current], \ A[high]$ 

high-

#### 4.6.3 Choice of Pivot

In the worst case(s),

 $\begin{array}{ll} \textbf{First Element} & A[1] \\ \textbf{Last Element} & A[n] \\ \textbf{Middle Element} & A[n/2] \\ \end{array}$ 

Median of first, last and middle Median of the above 3

are equally bad, if **n** executions of partition, sorting 1 element each:

$$T(n) = T(n-1) + T(1) + n$$
(From Quielgant of n.1 element

(From Quicksort of n-1 elements + QuickSort on 1 element + Cost of partition on n elements)  $\therefore O(n^2)$  time.

If can choose Median: Good Performance O(nlogn)

If could split array (1:10): (9:10): Good Performance O(nlogn)

 $\therefore$  A pivot is **good** if divides array into 2 pieces, each of which is size at least n/10

## Choose pivot at random: PARANOID QUICKSORT

Repeat partition until p > (1/10)n and p < (9/10)n,

Expected number of times to choose a good pivot:  $10/8 \approx 2$ 

T(n) = T(n-1) + T(1) + 2n (Expected no. of iterations to repeat is 2)

Hence, worst-case expected time = O(nlogn)

#### **Sorting Summary** 5

Name	Best Case	Average Case	Worst Case	Extra Memory	Stable
Bubble Sort	O(n)	$O(n^2)$	$O(n^2)$	O(1)	Yes
SelectionSort	$O(n^2)$	$O(n^2)$	$O(n^2)$	O(1)	No
Insertion Sort	O(n)	$O(n^2)$	$O(n^2)$	O(1)	Yes
Merge Sort	O(nlogn)	O(nlogn)	O(nlogn)	O(n)	Yes
Quick Sort	O(nlogn)	O(nlogn)	$O(n^2)$	O(1)	No

#### 5.1 Remarks

 $\bullet$  BubbleSort vs InsertionSort: InsertionSort faster for almost-sorted arrays

• Paranoid Quicksort Worstcase: O(nlogn)

• Any others?

## 5.2 Invariants

Name	Invariant	
Bubble Sort	At the end of iteration j, the biggest j items are correctly sorted	
	in the <b>final j positions</b> of the array.	
SelectionSort	At the end of iteration j: the smallest j items are correctly sorted	
	in the first <b>j</b> positions of the array.	
Insertion Sort	At the end of iteration j: the <b>first j items</b> in the array	
	are in sorted order.	
Merge Sort	idk lmfao probably something about at the end of iteration j of merge	
	every $2^j$ group of items are in sorted order, where $2^j < n$ (????)	
	just pulling something out of my ass:)	
Quick Sort	• For every $i \ge high: A[i] > pivot$	
	• For every $1 < j < low : A[j] < pivot$	

Recurrence	Complexity	Remarks
T(n) = 2T(n/2) + O(n)	O(nlogn)	Height of logn, n each 'level'
T(n) = T(n/2) + O(1)	O(logn)	Height of logn, 1 each 'level'
T(n) = 2T(n/2) + O(1)	O(n)	1, 2, 4, n: Sum of GP
T(n) = T(n/2) + O(n)	O(n)	n, n/2, n/4 1: Sum of GP

# 5.3 AP GP Sums

For AP,  $S_n = \frac{1}{2}n(a_1 + a_n)$ • If AP is 1, 2,...n,  $S_n = \frac{n^2 + n}{2} = O(n^2)$ For GP,  $S_n = \frac{a(r^n - 1)}{r - 1} = \frac{a(1 - r^n)}{1 - r}$ • Sum to  $\infty S_\infty = \frac{a}{1 - r}$ • If GP is 1, 2, 4...n, where a = n, r = 1/2,  $S_n = \frac{a}{1 - r} = \frac{n}{1 - 0.5} = O(n)$ 

## 6 Trees

Data Structure: Implementing a Dictionary, for eg

## 6.1 Binary (Search) Trees

- Binary Tree is either: 1) Empty, 2) A node pointing to 2 binary trees.
- Binary Search Trees: All in left sub-tree < key < All in right sub-tree
- Binary Tree is height balanced if every node in the tree is height-balanced.
- A height-balanced tree with n nodes has height h < 2log(n),  $\therefore O(logn)$ .

Time Complexity of search(key) in BST: Height of tree

- O(logn) if balanced
- Else, worst-case O(n)

#### 6.2 Tree Traversal

```
In-Order: Visit left sub-tree, then SELF, then right sub-tree
Pre-Order: Visit SELF, then left sub-tree, then right sub-tree
Post-Order: Visit left sub-tree, then right sub-tree, then SELF
Level-Order Visit EVERY node at that height, then go lower level
O(n) Time Complexity (∵ Visit each node once)
```

### 6.3 Successor Finding

• O(height) Time Complexity

# 6.4 Insertion/Deletion

#### Insertion trivial:

If less than node, node.left == null, insert at left else recurse left.

If more than node, node.right == null, insert at right, else recurse right.

3 Cases for delete(v):	
No Children	Remove v
1 Child	Remove v, connect child(v) to parent(v)
2 Children	1. x = successor(v)
	2. delete(x) (which may cause more calls of delete)
	3. remove(v)
	4. connect x to $left(v)$ , $right(v)$ , $parent(v)$

- NOTE: Successor of deleted node has at most 1 child! (A right node)
- ullet O(height) Time Complexity (BOTH insertion and deletion)

#### 6.5 Balance

A BST is balanced if  $h = O(\log n)$ 

#### How to get a Balanced Tree:

1. Define good property of tree

2. Show that if property holds, tree is balanced.

3. Every insertion/deletion, make sure good property still holds: -If not, fix it

[AUGMENT]

[DEFINE BALANCE CONDITION]

[INVARIANT]

[MAINTAIN BALANCE]

## 6.6 AVL Trees

- Every node, store height h = max(left.height, right.height) + 1
- On insert & delete, update height
- node v is height-balanced if  $|v.left.height v.right.height| \leq 1$
- Maintains balance using Tree-Rotations
- Max height  $h < 2log n, n > 2^{h/2}$

#### 6.6.1 Rotations

- A is LEFT-heavy if left.height > right.height
- A is RIGHT-heavy if right.height > left.height.

Assuming node v is Left-Heavy	
• v.left is balanced:	right-rotate(v)
• v.left is left-heavy:	right-rotate(v)
• v.left is right-heavy:	1. left-rotate(v.left)
	2. $right-rotate(v)$
If v is <b>Right-Heavy:</b>	Symmetric 3 cases

Size of tree doesn't matter, O(1) time.

#### 6.6.2 Insertion

- 1. Insert tree in BST
- 2. Walk up tree:
- At every step, check for balance:
- If out-of-balance, use rotations to rebalance

Only need 2 Rotations (Since in all cases, only need to reduce height of sub-tree by 1)

#### 6.6.3 Deletion

0a. If v has no child, just delete

0b. If v has 1 child, connect child to parent

- 1. If v has 2 children, swap it with its successor.
- 2. Delete node v from binary tree (and reconnect children)
- Since successor has at most 1 (right) child, will only have to reconnect 1 node
- 3. For every ancestor of the deleted node:
- Check if it is height-balanced
- If not, perform a rotation
- Continue to the root

(Deletion may take up to O(logn) rotations)

# 6.6.4 Graphical Interpretation

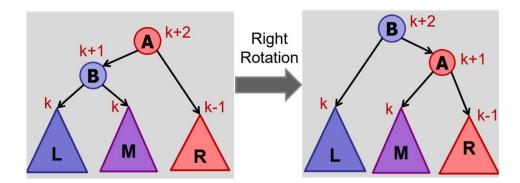


Figure 2: v.left balanced: right-rotate(v)

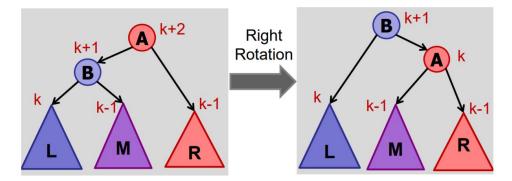


Figure 3: v.left left-heavy: right-rotate(v)  $\,$ 

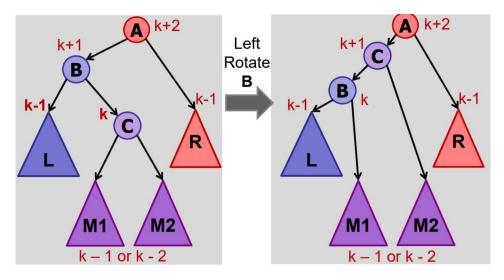


Figure 4: v.left right-heavy: First left-rotate(v.left)

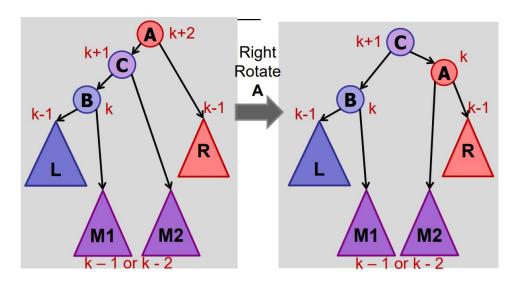


Figure 5: v.left right-heavy: then right-rotate(v)

# 7 Other (Augmented) Trees

#### 7.1 Tries

Store each letter of a String as a node, using a special flag to represent the end of a word. Cost to search a string of length L: O(L)

Trie tends to be faster compared to normal BST with strings

- Does not depend on size of total text
- Does not depend on number of strings (Esp if string not in trie)

Trie uses more space (in terms of more nodes)

#### 7.2 Order Statistics

- To know the order of the node (ie rank of the key in the data structure)
- Store size of sub-tree in every node
- select(k): finds node with rank k
- rank(v): Computes rank at node v
- During insertion, maintain weight during rotation

```
select(k)
    rank = left.weight + 1;
    if (k == rank) then
        return v;
    else if (k < rank) then
        return left.select(k);
    else if (k > rank) then
        return right.select(k minus rank);
rank(node)
    rank = node.left.weight + 1;
    while (node != null) do
        if node is left child then
            do nothing
        else if node is right child then
            rank += node.parent.left.weight + 1;
        node = node.parent;
    return rank;
```

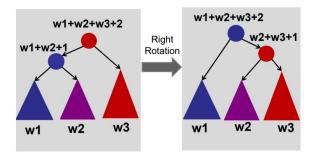


Figure 6: Update weights during insertion

## 7.3 Interval Trees

Find an interval containing a value

- Each node is an interval, sorted by left endpoint
- Each node contains the maximum endpoint in subtree
- Running time of search simply O(log n)

```
//Find interval containing x
interval-search(x)
    c = root;
    while (c != null and x is not in c.interval) do
        if (c.left == null) then
            c = c.right;
        else if (x > c.left.max) then
            c = c.right;
        else c = c.left;
    return c.interval;
```

Search find an overlapping interval, if it exists.

- If search goes right: No overlap in left-subtree
- ∴ key is in right subtree or it is not in tree
- If search goes left and no overlap, then key < every interval in right sub-tree.
- : Either finds key in left subtree or it is not in the tree

## 7.4 Range Trees/Orthogonal Range Searching

#### Find everyone between a certain range

- Stores all points in the **leaves** (Internal nodes store copies)
- Internal node v stores max(v.left)
- First find the 'split node': Is node between specified range?
- ... Do both Left and Right traversal at split node to get all nodes within range

```
FindSplit(low, high)
    v = root;
    done = false;
    while !done {
        if (high <= v.key) then v=v.left;</pre>
        else if (low > v.key) then v=v.right;
        else (done = true);
    }
    return v;
RightTraversal(v, low, high)
    if (v.key <= high) {</pre>
                                          //Still within range
        all-leaf-traversal(v.left);
        RightTraversal(v.right, low, high);
    } else {
                                         //Left max larger than range, just go left
        RightTraversal(v.left, low, high);
LeftTraversal(v, low, high)
    if (low \le v.key) {
                                          //Still within range
        all-leaf-traversal(v.right);
        LeftTraversal(v.left, low, high);
    } else {
                                          //Left max smaller than range, just go right
        LeftTraversal(v.right, low, high);
    }
```

- Finding split node: O(log n)
- $\bullet$  Traversals recurse at most O(logn) times,

outputting all (all-leaf-traversal()) is O(k), where k is number of items found.

- : Query time complexity = O(log n + k)
- Preprocessing (buildtree) time complexity: O(nlogn)

(Split into left and right, take highest value of left and put as key

If numofelements==1, then set as leaf)

- Space Complexity: O(n)
- If just want to know the count: keep count of num of nodes in each sub-tree, and retreive that instead of all-leaf-traversal.

Related: kd-trees (k-dimension)

# 8 Hashing

Standard symbol table supports:

- void insert(key, value)
- value search(key)
- void delete(key)
- bool contains(key)
- int size()

Costs of Search and Insert/Delete, and other functions required: See specifications

- AVL Tree: O(logn) each
- Symbol Table: O(1) each, but extra functionality, eg Sorting  $(O(nlogn) \text{ vs } O(n^2)$
- Symbol Table also no prede/successor queries Since Symbol Tables are not comparison-based

### 8.1 Hash Functions & Collisions

Direct Access Tables take too much space (Number of possible keys very large)

#### Map keys to buckets using Hash Functions

Assume m buckets, n entries, and h is the hash function,

- 2 distinct keys **collide** if:  $h(k_1) = h(k_2)$ )
- Collisions unavoidable by Pigeonhole Principle (Table Size < Universe Size)

## 8.2 Collision Handling: Chaining

Put both items in same bucket, using linked List of items.

Total Space:	O(m+n)
Insertion:	Find hash value, add to head of linked list $\therefore O(1 + cost(h))$
Search:	Find hash value, search through linked list Worst case all values go to same bucket (emphasizing importance of good hash function) $\therefore O(n + cost(h))$

## 8.2.1 Simple Uniform Hashing Assumption

Assume "random" mapping:

- Every key is equally likely to map to every bucket
- Keys mapped independently
- : As long as enough buckets, won't get too many keys in one bucket

If X(i,j) = 1 if item i is put in bucket j, and 0 otherwise,

- P(X(i,j) == 1) = 1/m
- E(X(i,j)) = 1/m
- Thus, expected number of items per bucket  $= E(\Sigma_i X(i,b)) \\ = \Sigma_i E(X(i,b)) \\ = \Sigma_i 1/m \\ = n/m$
- : load(hashtable) = average number of items per bucket = n/m

Therefore, for a Hashtable with chaining under SUHA assumption:

Search time:     Expected     Worst-case	1 + n/m (Hash function + linked list traversal) $O(1)$ (Assuming $m = \Omega(n)$ buckets, eg $m = 2n$ ) O(n)
Worst-Case Insertion:	O(1) if allow duplicates, preventing duplicate requires searching
Expected max linked-list length/cost	$O(logn)$ or $\Theta(logn/loglogn)$

## 8.3 Collision Handling: Open-Addressing

- All data directly stored in the table, one item per slot.
- On collision, probe sequence of buckets until empty one found
- When m == n, table is full, cannot insert any more items; cannot search efficiently
- Redefined Hash Function: h(key, i), where i = number of collisions
- Linear Probing: Keep checking the next bucket,  $h(k, 1) + (i \mod m)$

```
hash-insert(key, data)
int i = 1;
while (i \le m):
                                         // Try every bucket
    int bucket = h(key, i);
    if (T[bucket] == null):
                                        // Found an empty bucket
        T[bucket] = {key, data};
                                        // Insert key/data
                                        // Return
        return success;
throw new TableFullException();
                                        // bucket full
hash-search(key)
    int i = 1;
    while (i <= m):
        int bucket = h(key, i);
        if (T[bucket] == null) return key-not-found;
                                                             // Empty bucket!
        if (T[bucket].key == key) return T[bucket].data;
                                                             // Full bucket
        i++:
    return key-not-found;
                                                             // Exhausted entire table.
```

delete(key): Find key to delete, set bucket to DELETED (A tombstone value)

- Cannot set as NULL, since search may then fail to find a key after that bucket.
- When insert(key) comes to DELETED, overwrite deleted cell.

## 8.3.1 Properties of good Hash Functions

- 1. h(key, i) enumerates all possible buckets
- $\forall$  bucket  $j, \exists i : h(key, i) = j$
- The hash function is permutation of 1...m
- If not, may return table-full when still have space left

#### 2. Uniform Hashing Assumption

- Every key is equally likely to be mapped to every **permutation of buckets**, independent of every other key.
- Linear Probing does NOT fulfill this criteria: Clustering can reach  $\Theta(logn)$ , ruins constant time performance In practice though, linear probing is desirable due to caching
- Achieved through double hashing
- Using 2 hash functions g(k), f(k),  $h(k,i) = [f(k) + ig(k)] \mod m$  for some large m Specifically, if g(k) is relatively prime to m, then h(k, i) hits all buckets

#### 8.3.2 Performance of Open Addressing

Expected Cost = First Probe + P(collision on first probe) \* Expected Cost of remaining probes

- $\bullet = 1 + (n/m)(\dots)$
- = 1 + (n/m)(1 + [n 1/m 1][...])
- $\leq 1 + \alpha(1 + \alpha(...))$
- $\bullet \le 1 + \alpha + \alpha^2 + \alpha^3 + \dots$
- $\bullet \leq \frac{1}{1-\alpha}$

#### Advantages

- Saves space
- Rarely Allocate Memory
- Better Cache performance

### Disadvantages

- More sensitive to choice of hash functions
- More sensitive to load (as  $\alpha \to 1$ )

## 8.4 Resizing

#### Assume

- Hashing with Chaining
- SUHA

Expected Search Time: O(1 + n/m)

Optimal Size: m = O(n)

If m too big (> 10n), too much wasted space; if m too small (< 2n), too many collisions

To expand hashtable:, let  $m_1 and m_2$  be old and new hashtable size

- Scan old hash table:  $O(m_1)$ , Initialise new table:  $O(m_2)$
- Insert each element in new hashtable: O(1) \* n
- Total:  $O(m_1 + m_2 + n)$
- If double table size, (n == m), m = 2m: O(n) time

To shrink hashtable:, let  $m_1 and m_2$  be old and new hashtable size

- Cannot be same ratio as insert, cos there will be a point where deleting/inserting 1 shrinks/expands the table If insert doubles the table, then for delete:
- If (n < m/4), m = m/2

#### Costs of operations:

- Inserting k elements costs O(k)
- : Insert operation: Amortized O(1)
- Search operation: **Expected** O(1)

## 9 Sets

insert(Key k), contains(Key k), delete(Key k), intersect(Set;Key; s), union(Set;Key; s)

## 9.1 Implementation using Hashtable

Takes more space to keep the entire key (to resolve collisions) in the table.

## 9.2 Fingerprint Hashtable

Stores bits (0 and 1) instead of the key, 0 if not present, 1 if present. No key stored in the table.

- Collisions possible
- Lookup operation: If key is in, will always report true (No False Negatives)
- Due to collisions, even in key not in set, may sometimes report true (False Positives)

Thus choosing what to store is important, based on objectives

### 9.2.1 Table Size vs P(False Positives)

On a lookup of n elements of table of size m,

- P(No false positive) =  $(1 1/m)^n \approx (1/e)^{n/m}$
- P(False positive) =  $1 (1/e)^{n/m}$

Assuming we want P(false positive) at most p:

s •  $n/m \leq log(\frac{1}{1-n})$ 

So we reduced space to 1 bit per slot, but need a bigger table to avoid collisions

#### 9.3 Bloom Filter

Fingerprint Hashtable, but 2 hash function to store 1 in 2 different slots.

- Lookup: Check if both slots are 1
- Still, No False Negatives and possible False Positives

Requires 2 collisions to be a false positive, but each item take more space.

Assuming we want P(false positive) at most p:

•  $n/m \le \frac{1}{2}log(\frac{1}{1-p^{1/2}})$ 

Deleting elements? Consider a counter instead of 1 bit in each slot:

- On insert, counter++
- On delete, counter-

If counter gets too big, no space saving: Thus need to make collisions rare

Implementing Set functions:

- Insert, delete, query: O(k)
- $\bullet\,$  Intersection, Bitwise AND 2 bloom filters: O(m)

tabitem Union, Bitwise OR 2 bloom filters: O(m)

## 10 Other Data Structures

## 10.1 (a, b)-trees and B-trees

## a, b refer to min and $(\max + 1)$ no. of children in node, where $2 \le a \le (b+1)/2$

Non-leaf node must have one more child than its number of keys, its key range:

- Keys in sorted order,  $v_1, v_2, ... v_k$
- First child has key range  $\leq v_1$
- Final child has key range  $> v_k$
- All other children  $c_i$ , where  $i \in [2, k]$  have key range  $(v_{i-1}, v_i]$

All leaf nodes must be same depth

**Insert:** split node if contain b-1 keys (Node too big)

**Delete:** if deleting make node too small, merge siblings y,z if have total nodes  $\leq b-1$ , else share by merging and splitting

**B-trees** are (a, b)-trees such that a = B, b = 2B

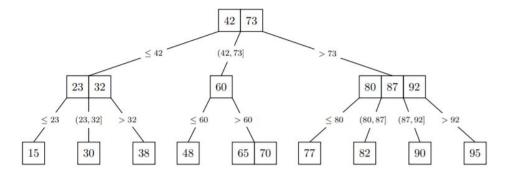


Figure 7: B-tree, where B = 2

## 10.2 Skip Lists

## 10.3 Merkle Trees

# 11 Graphs

Consists of at least 1 node, and unique edges that connect 2 nodes

**Hypergraph**: Each unique edge connect  $\geq 2$  nodes **Multigraph**: Each node connected by more than 1 edge

Degree of node: Number of adjacent edges Degree of graph: max(degree of nodes)

Diameter: Max distance between 2 nodes, following shortest path **Bipartite graph**: Nodes divided to 2 sets, no edges between same set

### 11.1 Adjacency list

Nodes stored in an array, Edges stored as linked list per node

Memory Usage: O(V + E), since of array V and size of linked lists E

Are v and w neighbours? **Fast query** Find any neighbour of v: **Slow query** Enumerate all neighbours: **Slow query** 

## 11.2 Adjacency Matrix

Edges seen as pairs of nodes. For a graph with n nodes, nxn array: At A[i][j], 1 if i and j are directly connected  $A^n$ : Length of n paths

Memory Usage:  $O(V^2)$ 

Are v and w neighbours? Slow query Find any neighbour of v: Fast query Enumerate all neighbours: Fast query

Generally, if graph is dense, use an adjacency matrix, if not then adjacency list

# 12 Graph Traversal

Start at vertex s, ends at vertex t, or visit all nodes in the graph. (Assume adjacency list)

#### 12.1 Breadth-First Search

- Finds shortest path
- Skip already visited nodes, calculate level[i] from level[i-1]

```
//Or can use a QUEUE to pop the earlier ones first
BFS(Node[] nodeList) {
    boolean[] visited = new boolean[nodeList.length];
    Arrays.fill(visited, false);
    int[] parent = new int[nodelist.length];
    Arrays.fill(parent, -1);
    // To make sure you visit all components
    for (int start = 0; start < nodeList.length; start++) {</pre>
        if (!visited[start]){
            Bag<Integer> frontier = new Bag<Integer>;
            frontier.add(startId);
            // Main code
            while (!frontier.isEmpty()){
                Collection<Integer> nextFrontier = new ...;
                for (Integer v : frontier) {
                    for (Integer w : nodeList[v].nbrList) {
                        if (!visited[w]) {
                            visited[w] = true;
                            parent[w] = v;
                            nextFrontier.add(w);
                        }
                    }
                frontier = nextFrontier;
       }
   }
}
```

#### Running Time: O(V + E)

- Every vertex v = start once, and added to nextFrontier once (After visited, never re-added: O(V))
- Each v.nbrList enumerated once: O(E)

Shortest path is a tree - Parent pointers store shortest path

Does NOT explore every path in the graph!!!

## 12.2 Depth-first search

• Follow path until end, backtrack until find new edge, recursively explore • Skip already visited nodes

```
// Iterative method would be to use a STACK
DFS(Node[] nodeList){
    boolean[] visited = new boolean[nodeList.length];
    Arrays.fill(visited, false);
    for (start = i; start<nodeList.length; start++) {</pre>
        if (!visited[start]){
            visited[start] = true;
            DFS-visit(nodeList, visited, start);
    }
}
DFS-visit(Node[] nodeList, boolean[] visited, int startId){
    for (Integer v : nodeList[startId].nbrList) {
        if (!visited[v]){
            visited[v] = true;
            DFS-visit(nodeList, visited, v);
        }
    }
}
```

## Running Time: O(V + E)

- Each node is visited only once: O(V)
- For every node, each neighbour is enumerated: O(E)

Running time for adjacency matrix:  $O(V^2)$ , calls once per node at O(V), enumerates neighbours at O(V)

#### 12.3 Problems with BFS and DFS

- Do not visit every path in the graph
- Too expensive for graphs with exponential number of paths

## 12.4 Directed Graphs

**In-degree**: Number of incoming edges **Out-degree**: Number of outgoing edges

Memory Usage in Adjacency List: O(V + E), where ll stores outgoing edges Memory Usage in Adjacency Matrix:  $O(V^2)$ , where A[v, w] represent edge from v to w

Are v and w neighbours? Slow query Find any neighbour of v: Fast query Enumerate all neighbours: Fast query

## 12.5 Topological Ordering

Time Complexity: O(V + E)

}

Sequential total ordering of all nodes, edges only point forward. Use **post-order** DFS: Process node when it is last visited Topological Ordering is NOT unique

```
DFS(Node[] nodeList){
   boolean[] visited = new boolean[nodeList.length];
   Arrays.fill(visited, false);
   for (start = i; start<nodeList.length; start++) {
      if (!visited[start]){
          visited[start] = true;
          DFS-visit(nodeList, visited, start);
          schedule.prepend(v);
   }</pre>
```

 ${\bf Alternatively, \, Kahn's \,\, Algorithm}$ 

Repeat:

}

- S = nodes in G that have no incoming edges.
- Add nodes in S to the topo-order
- Remove all edges adjacent to nodes in S
- Remove nodes in S from the graph

Time Complexity: O(V + E), or O(EloqV) using a PQ

## 12.6 Shortest Path in a Directed Acyclic Graph

Relax the edges in the right-order: Relax each edge once, O(E) cost for relaxation step DFS post-order, find in topological order

Running time of Shortest Path on a DAG: O(E)

Longest Path: Shorted path in negated graph or Modify relax function

Longest path in a general cyclic graph is NP hard

# 12.7 Shortest path in a tree

From source to destination, only 1 possible path. From source to all?  ${f BFS}$  or  ${f DFS}$  order

Running time: O(V), assuming weighted undirected tree : there are only O(V) edges in the tree.

## 12.8 Single-Source Shortest Paths of Weighted directed Graphs

Cannot use BFS: BFS finds minimum hops from node to node, not minimum distance (of weighted edges) Triangle Inequality:  $\delta(S, C) \leq \delta(S, A) + \delta(A, C)$ 

Mantain estimate for each distance, reduce estimate if a lower value is found by relaxing edges.

Invariant: estimate  $\leq$  distance

#### 12.8.1 Bellman-Ford

Simple, general way to find SSSP

```
int[] dist = new int[V.length];
Arrays.fill(dist, INFTY);
dist[start] = 0;
// Bellman-Ford:
// Relax every edge |V| times, stop when converges
n = V.length;
for (i=0; i<n; i++)
    for (Edge e : graph)
        relax(e)
// Not stated here, but can terminate early
// once an entire sequence of E relax operations have no effect
// (ie when one inner for-loop doesn't change anything)
relax(int u, int v){
    if (dist[v] > dist[u] + weight(u,v))
        dist[v] = dist[u] + weight(u,v);
}
```

Running Time: O(EV): Outer for-loop is O(V), inner is O(E)

Negative Weight: Possibility of Negative Weight Cycles

• To detect: Run Bellman-Ford for |V| + 1 iterations

If all edges have same weight: Use regular BFS (Distance no different from hops)

#### 12.8.2 Dijkstra

Faster, only non-negative weights, takes edge from vertex closest to source.

- 1) Maintain distance estimate for every node.
- 2) Begin with empty shortest-path-tree
- 3) Repeat:
- Consider vertex with minimum estimate
- Add vertex to shortest-path-tree
- Relax all outgoing edges

Use of Priority Queue via AVL Tree

Every finished vertex has a good estimate; Initially, only start is finished This does NOT hold with negative edge weights

```
public Dijkstra{
    private Graph G;
    private IPriorityQueue pq = new PriQueue();
    private double[] distTo;
    searchPath(int start) {
        pq.insert(start, 0.0);
        distTo = new double[G.size()];
        Arrays.fill(distTo, INFTY);
        distTo[start] = 0;
        while (!pq.isEmpty()) {
            int w = pq.deleteMin();
            for (Edge e : G[w].nbrList)
                relax(e);
        }
    }
    // Relax now decreases key in priority queue if needed
    relax(Edge e) {
        int v = e.from();
        int w = e.to();
        double weight = e.weight();
        if (distTo[w] > distTo[v] + weight) {
            distTo[w] = distTo[v] + weight;
            parent[w] = v;
            if (pq.contains(w)) pq.decreaseKey(w, distTo[w]);
            else pq.insert(w, distTo[w]);
        }
    }
}
```

Assuming AVL Tree priority queue:

- insert/push, deleteMin/pop, decreaseKey: O(n)
- contains: O(1)

insert/deleteMin: |V| times each, since each node added to PQ only once relax/decreaseKey: |E| times, since each edge is relaxed once

```
... Running time: O((V+E)logV) = O(ElogV)
(Running time with array and heap: O(V^2) and O(ElogV))
```

## Source-to-Destination Djisktra:

Can choose to terminate once destination is dequeued, since it is a good estimate

## 13 Heaps

Maintain set of prioritized object

- used for stuff like PQ: insert, extractMax, increase/decreaseKey, delete
- Unlike AVL, no rotations

#### 2 Properties:

- **Heap Ordering**: priority[parent]  $\geq$  priority[child]
- Complete Binary Tree, nodes as far left as possible

Biggest items stored at root, smallest at leaves Maximum Height: floor(logn) = O(logn)

## 13.1 PQ Operations

insert insert priority p as leaf, bubble up by swapping with parent until parent's priority larger than p.

Update priority, bubbleUp until parent's priority larger than new priority

Update priority, bubbleDown (leftwards)

• Swap node with last() (most right value rooted at node)

• remove last()

• bubbledown original last() from prev node's position.

extractMax

Heap Operations are O(logn)

```
bubbleUp(Node v) {
    while (v != null) {
    if (priority(v) > priority(parent(v)))
        swap(v, parent(v));
    else return;
    v = parent(v);
    }
}
bubbleDown(Node v) {}
    while (!leaf(v)) {
        leftP = priority(left(v));
        rightP = priority(right(v));
        maxP = max(leftP, rightP, priority(v));
        if (leftP == max) {
            swap(v, left(v));
            v = left(v);
        }
        else if (rightP == max) {
            swap(v, right(v));
            v = right(v);
        else return;
    }
}
insert(Priority p, Key k) {
    Node v = completeTree.insert(p,k);
    bubbleUp(v);
}
```

### 13.2 Store heap as array

Map each node in complete binary tree into a slot in an array, breadth-first.

```
insert Append to end of the array left(x) arr[2x + 1] right(x) arr[2x + 2] parent(x) floor((x - 1)/2)
```

#### 13.2.1 HeapSort: Heap array to Sorted List

extractMax() n times, everything shifted to the front of the array, append max to end.

Time Complexity: O(nlogn)

```
// int[] A = array stored as a heap
for (int i=(n-1); i>=0; i--) {
   int value = extractMax(A); // O(log n)
   A[i] = value;
}
```

#### 13.2.2 Unsorted list to heap

Recurse from leaves up: Left and right childs are heaps, bubble up accordingly if not.

```
// int[] A = array of unsorted integers
for (int i=(n-1); i>=0; i--) {
   bubbleDown(i, A); // O(height) = O(log n)
}
```

```
Note that \operatorname{ceil}(n/2) nodes are height =0, \operatorname{ceil}(n/4) height =1,\ldots,1 root : Total cost of building heap =\sum_0^{\log n} \frac{n}{2^h} O(h), where 2^h is upper bound of nodes at level h, O(h) cost of bubbling down node at level h, \leq cn(\frac{0.5}{(1-0.5)^2}) \leq 2O(n)
```

#### 13.2.3 HeapSort summary

```
Unsorted List \rightarrow Heap array in O(n) \rightarrow Sorted list in O(nlogn) O(nlogn) worst-case In-place; n space needed Always completes in O(nlogn)
```

# 14 Union Find

Given set(s) of objects,

- Union Connect two sets
- Find Are two objects in the same set?

Transivity: If p connected to q and q connected to r, p connected to r

## 14.1 Quick-find

Keep array of componentIDs

Find: 2 objects are connected if they have the same component identifier, O(1) time

• If objects not integers, can use hashtable + open addressing to map items to integers instead.

Union: Replace one of the IDs with the other ID, O(n) time

### 14.2 Quick-Union

Keep array of direct 'parent' of node

Find: 2 objects are connected if they are part of the same tree, O(n) time

• If objects not integers, can use hashtable + open addressing to map items to integers instead.

Union: Attach root of one tree to the other tree, O(n) time

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

union(int p, int q)
   while (parent[p] != p) p = parent[p];
   while (parent[q] != q) q= parent[q];
   parent[p] = q;
```

#### 14.3 Weighted-Union

Connect the smaller tree to the bigger tree; Maximum depth of tree: O(logn)

Everytime a tree T of size t is linked to a tree of size t+1, total size ; 2size(T)

Whenever this happens, depth of nodes in T increases by 1, since root of T linked to root of larger tree.

Max number of times size can double is up till size =  $n = 2^{logn}$ ; Size doubles logn times

Hence largest depth possible for a node in T is log(n)

:Running time of Find and Union: O(logn)

```
union(int p, int q)
  while (parent[p] !=p) p = parent[p];
  while (parent[q] !=q) q = parent[q];

if (size[p] > size[q] {
    parent[q] = p; // Link q to p
    size[p] = size[p] + size[q];
} else {
    parent[p] = q; // Link p to q
    size[q] = size[p] + size[q];
}
```

#### 14.4 Path Compression

After finding the root: Set the parent of each traversed node as the root itself.

Time Complexity:

- Weighted Union with Path Compression:
- Sequence of m union/find on n objects:  $O(n + m\alpha(m, n))$
- 1 Find/Union operation  $\alpha(m, n)$
- Path Compression: Find/Union O(logn)

```
// PREVIOUS root finding
findRoot(int p):
    root = p;
    while (parent[root] != root) root = parent[root];
    return root;
// Root finding with Path Compression
findRoot(int p)
    root = p;
    while (parent[root] != root) root = parent[root];
    while (parent[p] != p):
        temp = parent[p];
        parent[p] = root;
        p = temp;
    return root;
// Alternative: Make every OTHER node in path point to its GRANDparent
findRoot(int p):
    root = p;
    while (parent[root] != root):
        parent[root] = parent[parent[root]];
        root = parent[root];
    return root;
```

# 15 Minimum Spanning Trees

Acyclic subset of edges containing all nodes with minimum weight

- MST != Shortest paths
- Assume edge weight distinct

### 3 Basic Properties:

- 1. No cycles
- 2. If you cut an MST, 2 pieces are MSTs
- 3.1. Cycle Property: For every cycle in the graph, MAXIMUM weight edge is NOT in the MST
- **3.2.** False Cycle Property: Minimum weight edge in a cycle may or may not be in a MST
- 4. Cut Property: For every partition of nodes, MINIMUM weight edge IS in the MST Implies for every vertex, minimum outgoing edge IS in the MST

### 15.1 Generic MST algorithm

```
Red Rule If C is a cycle with no red edges, color C's max-weight edge red Blue Rule If D is a cut with no blue edges, color D's min-weight edge blue

// Greedy Algorithm
Repeat:
    Apply red or blue rule to an arbitrary edge until no more edges can be coloured

// On termination, (all) blue edges are an MST
// Every cycle has a red edge, no blue cycles
// Every edge is coloured
```

# 15.2 Prim's Algorithm

```
S = set of nodes connected by blue edges Initially: S = A Repeat: Identify Cut S, V-S, find minimum weight edge of cut, add new node to S Use of PQ to find lightest edge on cut
```

Each edge added is lightest on some cut.

∴ By blue rule, each edge added to S is in the MST

#### Assuming use of Binary Heap, running time = O(ElogV)

- : Each vertex added/removed to/from PQ: O(V log V)
- Each edge: one decrease Key, O(E log V), and E is at most  $V^2$

```
// Initialize priority queue
PriorityQueue pq = new PriorityQueue();
for (Node v : G.V()) pq.insert(v, INFTY);
pq.decreaseKey(start, 0);
// Initialize set S
HashSet<Node> S = new HashSet<Node>();
S.put(start);
// Initialize parent hash table
HashMap<Node,Node> parent = new HashMap<Node,Node>();
parent.put(start, null);
while (!pq.isEmpty()):
    Node v = pq.deleteMin();
                                                // Pop node
    S.put(v);
                                                // Add node to MST
    for each (Edge e : v.edgeList()):
                                                // Iterate through its edges
        Node w = e.otherNode(v);
        if (!S.get(w)):
            // Assume decreaseKey here does nothing if newWeight > prevWeight
            pq.decreaseKey(w, e.getWeight());
            parent.put(w, v);
                                                 // Keep parent to check the edge
```

# 15.3 Kruskal's Algorithm

Sort all edges by weight

Consider edges in ascending order:

- If both endpoints are in blue tree, colour edge red, heaviest edge in cycle
- Else, colour edge blue

Use of Union-find DS (Connect two nodes if in same blue=tree)

Each added edge crosses a cut. Since sorted, edge is lightest across the cut All other lighter cuts have already been considered

#### Running time = O(ElogV)

- : Sorting:  $O(E \log E) = O(E \log V)$  since E is at most  $V^2$
- Union Find operations are O(log V) or  $O(\alpha(n))$  for E edges

```
// Sort edges and initialize
Edge[] sortedEdges = sort(G.E());
ArrayList<Edge> mstEdges = new ArrayList<Edge>();
UnionFind uf = new UnionFind(G.V());
// Iterate through all the edges, in order
for (int i=0; i<sortedEdges.length; i++):</pre>
    Edge e = sortedEdges[i];
                                             // get edge
   Node v = e.one();
                                             // get node endpoints
   Node w = e.two();
    if (!uf.find(v,w)):
                                             // Not in the same tree?
        mstEdges.add(e);
                                             // save edge
        uf.union(v,w);
                                             // combine trees
```

# 15.4 Boruvka's Algorithm

For each node in the graph, create connected component, each node stores component identifier (O(V))

Repeat Boruvka Step: O(V+E)

- 1. For each connected component, search and add minimum-weight outgoing edge
- DFS or BFS (O(V+E)), check if edge connects two components, remember minimum cost edge of component.
- 2. Merge selected components
- Compute and update new component ids (O(V)), mark added edges

#### For k connected components, at least k/2 edges added:

- At least k/2 components merged
- $\therefore$  At most k/2 connected components remain
- $\bullet$   $\therefore$  At most  $O(\log V)$  Boruvka steps

From the above, logV steps take O(V+E) each.

Running time = O((E+V)logV) = O(ElogV)

Advantage: Each connected component can perform a Boruvka step mostly independently, except merging

#### 15.5 MST Variations

#### 15.5.1 Edges with same weight

DFS/BFS, Edge in spanning tree = V-1 = Edges in MST.

: Any spanning tree found with BFS/DFS is an MST

#### 15.5.2 All edges have a known range

#### Kruskal Variation: $O(\alpha E)$ time

Counting Sort using an array of size(range)

- Put edges in array of linked lists O(E)
- Iterate over all edges in ascending order O(E)
- For each edge: Check whether to add an edge  $O(\alpha)$  and union two components if needed  $O(\alpha)$

**Prim Variation:** O(V+E) = O(E) time

Use an array of size 10 as PQ, A[j] holds linked lists of nodes of weight j

Insertion/removal of nodes: O(V)

decreaseKey: Move node to new linked list in O(E)

#### 15.5.3 Directed Acyclic Graphs

Much harder problem to solve. For special case: DAG with **Single possible route**:

- For every node except the root, add min-weight incoming edge.
- : Every node has at least one incoming edge in the MST, each edge chosen only once, V-1 edges
- O(E) time

#### 15.5.4 Maximum Spanning Tree, adding k to edge weights

MST algorithms only care about relative edge weights; nothing changes if multiply edges by k, where k > 0, or add/subtra MST with negative weights? Doesn't matter, only relative edge weights matter.

Maximum Spanning Tree: Negate edge weights, run MST algo, or run Kruskal's/Prim's in reverse

#### 15.5.5 Steiner Tree problem

Find MST of a subset of the vertices (required nodes), but can use other (Steiner) nodes.

**NP-Hard problem**: 2-approx algorithm exits, T < 2 \* Optimal(G)

- 1. For every pair of required vertices, calculate shortest path: Djisktra V times, or any All-Pairs-Shortest-Paths
- 2. Construct new graph G on required nodes using edge weights found.
- 3. Run MST algo on G; MST found.
- 4. Map edges back to original graph.

# 16 Dynamic Programming

**Optimal Sub-structure:** Optimal soln can be constructed from optimal solns to smaller sub-problems **Overlapping Subproblems** 

• Use of **memoization** and a 'table' to remember the data

#### 16.1 Longest increasing subsequence

```
For Array A[1..n], find longest increasing (not necessarily consecutive) sequence of numbers
Define sub-problems: S[i] = LIS(A[i..n]) starting at A[i]
Solve using subproblems: S[n] = 0 and S[i] = (max_{(i,j) \in E}S[j]) + 1 (Maximum of traversed nodes)
       LIS(V): // Assume graph is already topo-sorted
           int[] S = new int[V.length];
                                                               // Create memo array
           for (i=0; i<V.length; i++) S[i] = 0;
                                                               // Initialize array to zero
           S[n-1] = 1;
                                                               // Base case: node V[n-1]
           for (int v = A.length-2; v>=0; v--):
                int max = 0;
                                                               // Find maximum S for any outgoing edge
                for (Node w : v.nbrList()):
                                                               // Examine each possible outgoing edge
                    if (S[w] > max) max = S[w];
                                                               // Check S[w], which we already calculated
           S[v] = max + 1;
                                                               // Calculate S[v] from max of outgoing edge
```

Alternate, similar definition: sub-problem being S[i] = LIS(A[1..i]) ending at A[i] Both definitions:  $O(n^2)$  total time (n subproblems, subproblem i takes O(i)) O(nlogn) using Binary Search to solve faster

### 16.2 (Lazy) Prize Collecting

Graph with negative and positive edge weights; Find path to get as high amount as possible. Limit k: What is the maximum prize collected by crossing at MOST k edges in the graph?

#### 1. Define Sub-problem:

- P[v, k] = maximum prize that you can collect starting at v and taking EXACTLY k steps.
- P[v, 0] = 0
- 2. Use sub-problems to solve P[v,k]:
- P[v, k] = MAX P[w1, k-1] + w(v, w1), P[w2, k-1] + w(v, w2), ...
- At every P[v, k] subproblem, save result in a table of v by k.

```
int LazyPrizeCollecting(V, E, kMax) {
                                                                 // create memo table P
    int[][] P = new int[V.length][kMax+1];
    // initialize P to zero
    for (int i=0; i<V.length; i++) for (int j=0; j<kMax+1; j++) P[i][j] = 0;
    for (int k=1; k<kMax+1; k++) {</pre>
                                                                 // Solve for every value of k
        for (int v = 0; v < V.length; v + +) {
                                                                 // For every node...
            int max = -INFTY;
            for (int w : V[v].nbrList()) {
                                                                 // ...find max prize in next ste
                if (P[w,k-1] + E[v,w] > max)
                \max = P[w,k-1] + E[v,w];
            P[v, k] = max;
        }
    }
    return maxEntry(P); // returns largest entry in P
}
```

- Looks like a O(kVE) problem, but loose bound; don't have to go through all edges.
- $O(kV^2)$  if you take kV subproblems, each costing |v.nbrList| which is maximum V.
- O(kE) from table: k rows, O(E) cost to solve each row! (Since you look at each edge once per row)

#### 16.3 Vertex Cover

Given undirected, unweighted graph G, find set of nodes C where every edge is adjacent to at least one node in C.

• NP-complete, easy **2-approximation** 

**Special Case:** Given an undirected, unweighted **tree** and its root r, find size of vertex cover of this tree **Subproblem?** For subtree rooted at v,

- 1. S[v, 0]: Size of vertex cover in subtree rooted at v, if v is NOT covered
- $S[v, 0] = S[w1, 1] + S[w2, 1] + S[w3, 1] + \dots$
- Since children HAVE to be already covered
- 2. S[v, 1]: Size of vertex cover in subtree rooted at v, if v IS covered
- $S[v, 1] = 1 + \min(S[w1, 0], S[w1, 1]) + \min(S[w2, 0], S[w2, 1])$
- Since doesnt matter whether children are covered or not

```
int treeVertexCover(V){//Assume tree is ordered from root-to-leaf
    int[][] S = new int[V.length][2]; // create memo table S
    for (int v=V.length-1; v>=0; v--){ //From the leaf to the root
        if (v.childList().size()==0) { // If v is a leaf...
            S[v][0] = 0;
            S[v][1] = 1;
        } else{ // Calculate S from v's children.
            int S[v][0] = 0;
            int S[v][1] = 1;
            for (int w : V[v].childList()) {
                S[v][0] += S[w][1];
                S[v][1] += Math.min(S[w][0], S[w][1]);
            }
        }
    }
    return Math.min(S[0][0], S[0][1]); // returns min at root
}
```

- Looks like  $O(V^2)$ , since 2V sub-problems, O(V) time per
- O(V) time to solve all subproblems, since each of the (V-1) edges is only explored once

#### 16.4 All-Pairs Shortest Paths

Given directed, connected weighted graph G, answer queries: Preprocess graph, and answer min-dist(v, w)

Simple Soln: Dijkstra on first query from source v, save all min-dists from v to all other nodes

- 0 Preprocessing, O(V E logV) to respond to q queries (Max need run Dijkstra V times)
- If run APSP during preprocessing, responding to q queries: O(q) ]tabitem In a sparse graph,  $O(V^2logV)$
- in an unweighted graph, use BFS for O(V(E+V)):  $O(V^3)$  for dense graphs,  $O(V^2)$  for sparse

#### 16.4.1 Floyd-Warshall

**Optimal Substructure:** If P is shortest path from u to v to w, then P contains shortest paths from u to v and v to w. **Subproblem:** S[v,w,P] = Shortest path from v to w that only uses intermediate nodes in set P

• Base case:  $S[v, w, \emptyset] = E[v,w]$  (Direct edge from v to w)  $S[v,w,P8] = \min(S[v,w,P7], S[v,8,P7] + S[8,w,P7])$ , where set P8 adds node 8 to set P7

```
int[][] APSP(E){ // Adjacency matrix E
   int[][] S = new int[V.length][V.length]; //create memo table S

// Initialize every pair of nodes
for (int v=0; v<V.length; v++)
        for (int w=0; w<V.length; w++)
            S[v][w] = E[v][w];

// For sets PO, P1, P2, P3, ..., for every pair (v,w)
for (int k=0; k<V.length; k++)
        for (int v=0; v<V.length; v++)
            for (int w=0; w<V.length; w++)
            S[v][w] = min(S[v][w], S[v][k]+S[k][w]);
    return S;
}</pre>
```

Running time:  $O(V^3)$ 

# 17 Data Structures Summary

# 17.1 Trees

Name	Search	Insert	Delete	Remarks
BST	O(height)	O(height)	O(height)	h < 2log(n)
AVL	O(logn)	O(logn)+ 2 rotations	O(logn) + logn rotations	If v is left-heavy, - v.left is balanced/left-heavy: right-rotate(v) - v.left is right-heavy: left- rotate(v.left), right-rotate(v)
Trie	O(length)	O(length)	O(length)	
(a,b)-trees B-trees	O(logn)	O(logn)	igg O(logn)	Insert: split Delete: Merge, or Share (merge + split)

# 17.2 Augmented Trees

Assuming augmented from AVL, search(), insert() and delete() are  $O(\log n)$ 

Order Statistics	Find order/rank of nodes  • Store size of sub-tree in every node  • During insertion, maintain weight during rotation
Interval Tree	Nodes sorted by left endpoint Nodes contain max endpoint in tree rooted at node
Orthogonal Range Searching (kd-trees)	Find everything within certain range  • Points stored in leaves  • internal node stores $\max(\text{node.left})$ • kd-trees: Alterate splitting between dimensions:  • Query: $O(\sqrt{n} + k)$ , Space: $O(n)$ , Build: $O(nlogn)$
Range Tree	Build x-tree using only x-coords, x-node contains y-tree (etc)  • Query: $O(log^2n + k)$ , Space: $O(nlogn)$ , Build: $O(nlogn)$

# 17.3 Hashing

Assuming m is number of buckets, n is number of keys, h is cost of hash function,

Name	Search	Insert	Space	Remarks
Chaining		O(h+1)	O(m+n)	• Simple Uniform Hashing Assumption • load = $n/m$
Open-Addressing		1/(1-load)	O(n)	<ul> <li>Uniform Hashing Assumption</li> <li>Redefine hash function: Linear Probing or otherwise</li> <li>Double-hashing:</li> <li>h(k,i) = [f(k) + ig(k)] mod m</li> <li>Tombstone value for deleted items</li> <li>Performance degrades as load = n/m tends to 1</li> </ul>