Recurrence Relations with Full History: By the end of today you should know everything for Section 3.

Simplist form:

\[ T(n) = C + \sum_{i=1}^{n} T(i). \]

Then \( T(n+1) - T(n) = T(n) \). Thus \( T(n+1) = 2T(n) \) which implies \( T(n+1) = 2^n T(1) \).

But say if \( T(1) = 1 \) and \( C = 5 \). Then \( T(2) = 6 \neq 2T(1) \). The base case is \( T(1) = T(1) = C \neq T(1) \).

Thus \( T(2) = T(1) + C \) (by definition) and \( T(n+1) = 2T(n) \) for \( n > 2 \). Hence \( T(n+1) = (T(1) + C)^n \).

Note that \( C \) did not appear in the formula which was strange. Solution: always try for more base cases to avoid these cases.

The next one is not so simple useful for quicksort that we discuss soon.

\[ T(n) = n-1 + \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} T(i), \quad \text{for } n > 2, \quad T(1) = 0 \implies nT(n) = n(n-1) + 2 \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} T(i) \quad \tag{*} \]

\[ T(n+1) = (n+1)-1 + \sum_{i=1}^{n} T(i) \implies (n+1)T(n+1) = (n+1)n + 2 \sum_{i=1}^{n} T(i) \quad \tag{**} \]

\((**)-(*) = (n+1)T(n+1) - nT(n) = n(n+1) - n(n-1) + 2T(n) \implies T(n+1) = \frac{n^2 + T(n)}{n+1} + \frac{2n}{n+1} \quad \text{for } n > 2\]

To get a close approximation replace \( \frac{2n}{n+1} \) by 2.

\[ T(n) \leq 2 + \frac{n+2}{n+1} T(n) \leq 2 + \frac{n+2}{n+1} \left( 2 + \frac{n+1}{n} \left( 2 + \frac{n-1}{n-2} \left( 2 + \frac{n-2}{n-3} \left( \ldots + \frac{n-2}{n-2} \left( 2 + \frac{n-2}{n-2} \left( \cdots + 1 \right) \right) \right) \right) \right) \]

\[ = 2 \left[ 1 + \frac{n+2}{n+1} + \frac{n+2}{n+1} \frac{n+1}{n} + \frac{n+2}{n+1} \frac{n+1}{n} + \cdots + \frac{n+2}{n+1} \frac{n+1}{n} \right] \]

\[ = 2 \left[ 1 + \frac{n+2}{n+1} + \frac{n+2}{n+1} + \frac{n+2}{n+1} + \cdots + \frac{n+2}{n+1} \right] = 2 \left( n+2 \right) \left( \frac{1}{n+1} + \frac{1}{n+1} + \cdots + 1 \right) = 2 \left( n+2 \right) H(n) \]

where \( H(n) = 1 + \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{3} + \cdots + \frac{1}{n} = \ln(n) + \gamma + O(\frac{1}{n}) \) where \( \gamma \approx 0.577 \ldots \) Thus \( H(n) = O(\ln n) \) and \( T(n) \leq 2 \left( n+2 \right) H(n) \) and \( T(n) = O(n \log n) \)

Useful formulas: Arithmetic series \( 1 + 2 + \ldots + n = \frac{n(n+1)}{2} \) if \( a_n = a_{n-1} + C, a_1 + a_2 + \ldots + a_n = \frac{n(n+1)}{2} + \frac{n(n+1)}{2} \)

Geometric series: \( 1 + 2 + \ldots + 2^n = 2^{n+1} - 1 \) if \( a_n = C \left( \frac{1}{2} \right)^{n-1} \), \( a_1 + a_2 + \ldots + a_n = \frac{C}{1 - \frac{1}{2}} \left( \frac{1}{2} \right)^{n-1} \)

Harmonic series \( H_n = \sum_{k=1}^{n} \frac{1}{k} = \ln n + \gamma + O\left( \frac{1}{n} \right) \) where \( \gamma \approx 0.577 \ldots \) is Euler's constant.

Sum of squares: \( \sum_{i=1}^{n} i^2 = \frac{n(n+1)(2n+1)}{6} \) if \( \log a = \frac{1}{\log b}, \log b = \log x, \log x = \log b \)

Harmonic series \( H_n = \sum_{k=1}^{n} \frac{1}{k} = \ln n + \gamma + O\left( \frac{1}{n} \right) \)

Summation by integral: \( \sum_{i=1}^{n} f(i) \leq \int f(x) dx \) for \( f \) monotone increasing continuous function.

Stirling's approximation: \( n! = \sqrt{2\pi n} \left( \frac{n}{e} \right)^n \left( 1 + O(\frac{1}{n}) \right) \) thus \( \log_2 (n!) = \Theta(n \log n) \).
Feb 21, 2011

A Brief Intro to Data structures.

Data structures are the building blocks of computer algorithms. Here we consider abstract data types (ADTs) that do not specify the data types like integers, reals, characters. It is more convenient and more general to design the algorithms for these operations without specifying the data type of the items.

Modern object-oriented languages such as C++ or Java support a form of abstract data. When a class is used as a type, it is an abstract type that refers to hidden representation. An ADT is typically implemented as a class and each instance of the ADT is an object of that class.

Elementary Data structures:

Elements: It is a generic name for an unspecified data type. An element can be an integer, a set of integers, a file of text, or another data structure. We use this term whenever the discussion is independent of the type of data. For example, in sorting we only care about comparisons between elements which can be integers, names (strings of characters), etc. Usually, we assume we can compare elements for equality and some time “less than” and we can copy them. And each of these operations are counted one unit of time.

Array: An array is a row of elements of the same type. The size of an array is the number of elements in that array. The size of the array should be fixed and allocated in memory in advance. The elements can be bytes, integers, strings or more generally any elements.

Arrays are very efficient and very common data structures and each element of it can be accessed in constant time. Arrays are good except they store elements of the same type and their size is fixed. We represent them as a[1..n] and access them with a[i], or we can have two dimensions a[1..n, 1..m] and access them with a[i,j].
Records: Records are similar to arrays, except that we do not assume all elements are of the same type. A record thus a list of elements of different types. However, like arrays, the exact combination of types and thus the storage size is known. Each element in a record can be accessed in constant time. Example: it is possible to compute the location of each element in a record example, begin

Int i: integer;
Arr: array [1..20] of integers;
Name: array [1..10] of characters;
end.

Structures in C and classes in C++ (indeed more general) can be used to implement records.

Linked lists: There are many applications in which the number of elements is changing dynamically as the algorithm progresses. We can have large arrays to satisfy this, but it is often not a good solution. Also due to consecutive representation of arrays, doing some operations like insertion and deletions in the middle of an array, is very inefficient. Linked list are simplest form of dynamic data structures. Here each element is represented separately and all elements are connected through the use of pointers.

A pointer is simply a variable that holds as its value the address of another object and it exists in C, C++, but not explicitly in Java (but can be simulated).

A linked list is a list of pairs, say in a record, each containing an element and a pointer, such that each pointer contains the address of the next pair. It is not possible to access each element directly in a linked list, instead you need to scan it by following the addresses in the pointers, called a linear scan. Example:  

Two drawbacks: 1- requires more space (one additional pointer per element) [not a huge problem]
2- We need to do linear scan to find say 30th element.

Advantages: With only two operations we can insert an element in middle, and with one change, we can delete an element.
Stacks: a dynamic data structure in which we delete (Pop) an element most recently inserted (Push). A Stack implements a last-in-first-out (LIFO) policy. We have also an operation Top which gives the element at the top of the stack. We can implement it with both arrays (if we know the maximum size) or the linked list (otherwise). See below:

```
Top(S)
if t = 0 then return -1
else return S[t]
```

```
Push(S, x)
  t ← t + 1
  S[t] ← x
```

Each of Push, Pop and Top takes O(1) time. As an exercise you can implement it with linked lists.

Queues: a dynamic data structure in which the element deleted (Dequeue) is always the one that has been inserted (Enqueue) for the longest time. The queue implements a first-in-first-out (FIFO) policy like in the registrar's office. The queue has a head and a tail (insert at the tail, delete from the head). Again it can be implemented by array or linked lists (like stacks). By array we implement it as a circular way:

```
Enqueue(Q, x)
  Q[tail] ← x
  if tail = length Queue then tail ← 1
  else tail ← tail + 1
```

```
Dequeue(Q)
  x ← Q[head]
  if head = length Queue then head ← 1
  else head ← head + 1
  return x
```

Again each operation takes O(1) time. Implement it by linked list as an exercise.