

**Discrete Structures & Algorithms**

**Asymptotic complexity  
and some sequences & summations**

**EECE 320 // UBC**

# Asymptotic complexity

- Running time of an algorithm as a function of input size  $n$  **for large  $n$** .
- Expressed using only the **highest-order term** in the expression for the exact running time.
  - Instead of exact running time, say  $\Theta(n^2)$ .
- Describes behavior of function in the limit.
- Written using ***asymptotic notation***.

# Asymptotic notation

- $\Theta$ ,  $O$ ,  $\Omega$ ,  $o$ ,  $\omega$
- Defined for functions over the natural numbers.
  - Example:  $f(n) = \Theta(n^2)$ .
  - Describes how  $f(n)$  grows in comparison to  $n^2$ .
- Define a **set** of functions; in practice used to compare two function sizes.
- The notations describe different rate-of-growth relations between the defining function and the defined set of functions.

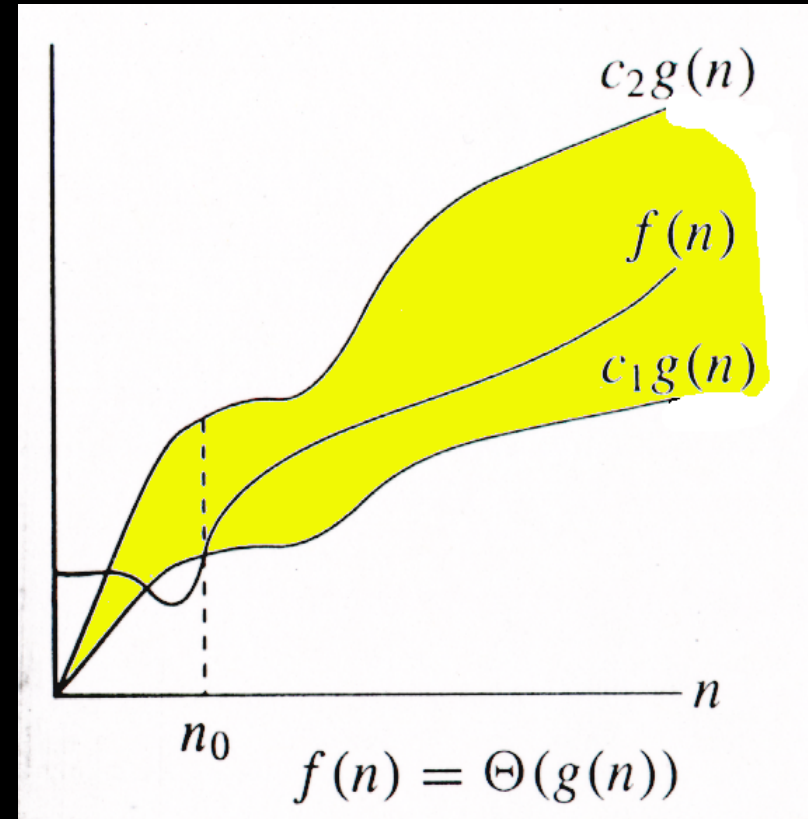
# $\Theta$ -notation

For function  $g(n)$ , we define  $\Theta(g(n))$ , big-Theta of  $n$ , as the set:

$\Theta(g(n)) = \{f(n) :$   
 $\exists$  positive constants  $c_1, c_2$ , and  $n_0$ ,  
such that  $\forall n \geq n_0$ ,  
we have  $0 \leq c_1g(n) \leq f(n) \leq c_2g(n)$   
 $\}$

Intuitively: Set of all functions that have the same *rate of growth* as  $g(n)$ .

$g(n)$  is an **asymptotically tight bound** for  $f(n)$ .

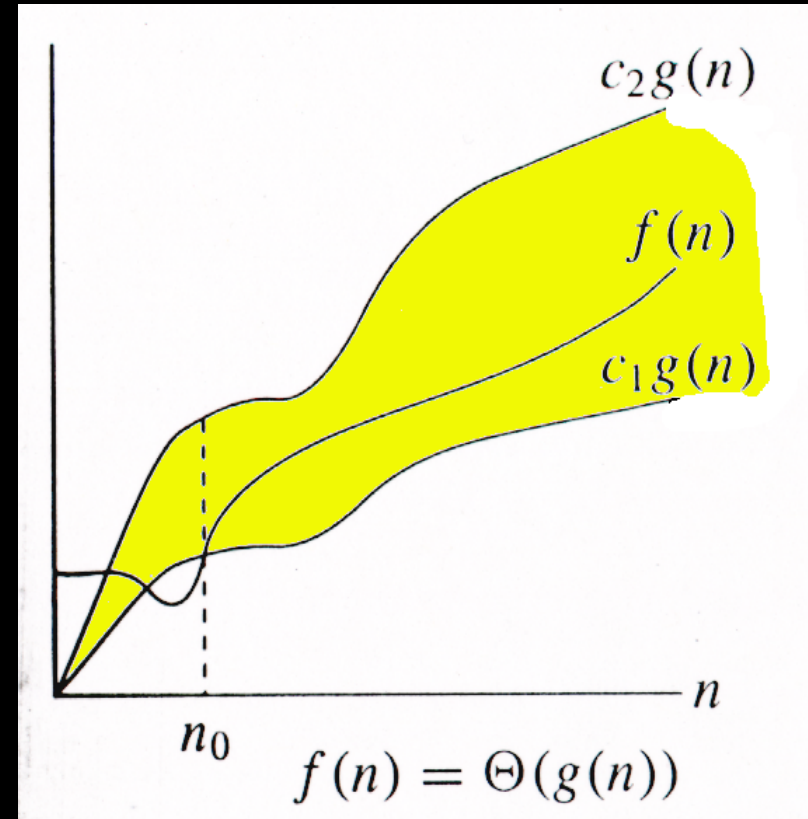


# $\Theta$ -notation

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 $\}$

Technically,  $f(n) \in \Theta(g(n))$ .  
Older usage,  $f(n) = \Theta(g(n))$ .  
I'll accept either...



$f(n)$  and  $g(n)$  are nonnegative, for large  $n$ .

# Example

$\Theta(g(n)) = \{f(n) : \exists \text{ positive constants } c_1, c_2, \text{ and } n_0, \text{ such that } \forall n \geq n_0, 0 \leq c_1g(n) \leq f(n) \leq c_2g(n)\}$

- $10n^2 - 3n = \Theta(n^2)$
- What constants for  $n_0$ ,  $c_1$ , and  $c_2$  will work?
- Make  $c_1$  a little smaller than the leading coefficient, and  $c_2$  a little bigger.
- **To compare orders of growth, look at the leading term.**
- Exercise: Prove that  $n^2/2 - 3n = \Theta(n^2)$

# Example

$\Theta(g(n)) = \{f(n) : \exists \text{ positive constants } c_1, c_2, \text{ and } n_0, \text{ such that } \forall n \geq n_0, 0 \leq c_1g(n) \leq f(n) \leq c_2g(n)\}$

- Is  $3n^3 \in \Theta(n^4)$ ?
- How about  $2^{2n} \in \Theta(2^n)$ ?

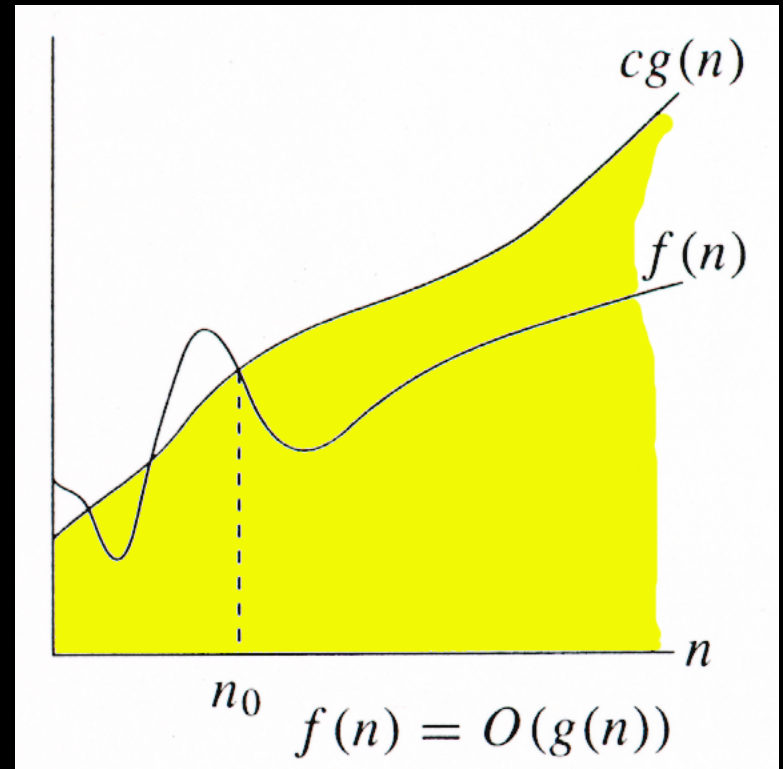
# O-notation

For function  $g(n)$ , we define  $O(g(n))$ , big-O of  $n$ , as the set:

$O(g(n)) = \{f(n):$   
 $\exists$  positive constants  $c$  and  $n_0$ , such  
that  $\forall n \geq n_0$ ,  
we have  $0 \leq f(n) \leq cg(n)\}$

Intuitively: Set of all functions whose *rate of growth* is the same as or lower than that of  $g(n)$ .

$$f(n) = \Theta(g(n)) \Rightarrow f(n) = O(g(n)).$$
$$\Theta(g(n)) \subset O(g(n)).$$



$g(n)$  is an **asymptotic upper bound** for  $f(n)$ .



# Examples

$O(g(n)) = \{f(n) : \exists \text{ positive constants } c \text{ and } n_0, \text{ such that } \forall n \geq n_0, \text{ we have } 0 \leq f(n) \leq cg(n) \}$

- Any linear *function*  $an + b$  is in  $O(n^2)$ . **How?**
- Show that  $3n^3 = O(n^4)$  for appropriate  $c$  and  $n_0$ .

# $\Omega$ -notation

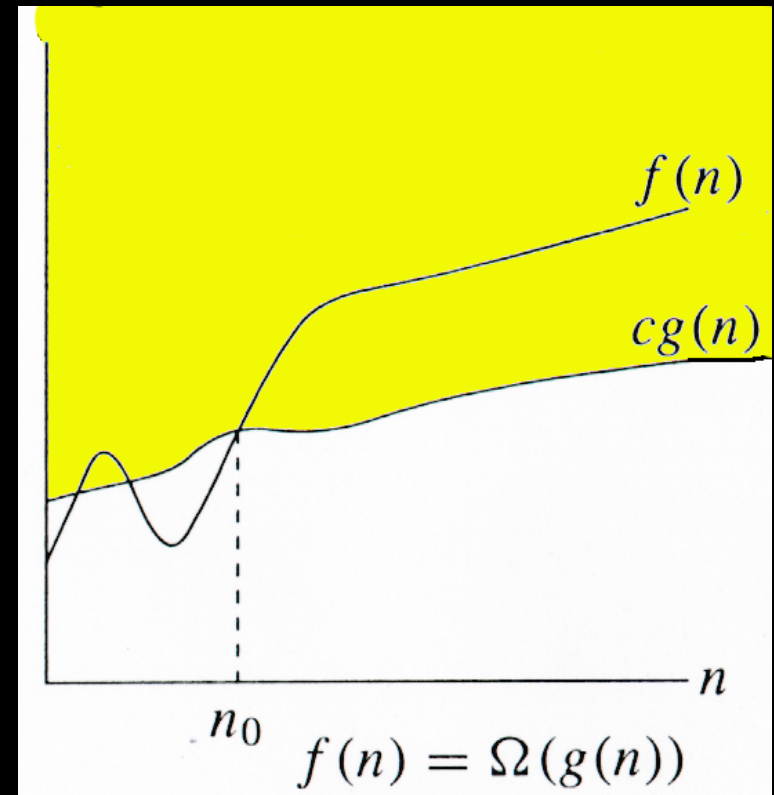
For function  $g(n)$ , we define  $\Omega(g(n))$ , big-Omega of  $n$ , as the set:

$\Omega(g(n)) = \{f(n) :$   
 $\exists$  positive constants  $c$  and  $n_0$ , such  
that  $\forall n \geq n_0$ ,  
we have  $0 \leq cg(n) \leq f(n)\}$

Intuitively: Set of all functions whose *rate of growth* is the same as or higher than that of  $g(n)$ .

**$g(n)$  is an asymptotic lower bound for  $f(n)$ .**

$$f(n) = \Theta(g(n)) \Rightarrow f(n) = \Omega(g(n)).$$
$$\Theta(g(n)) \subset \Omega(g(n)).$$

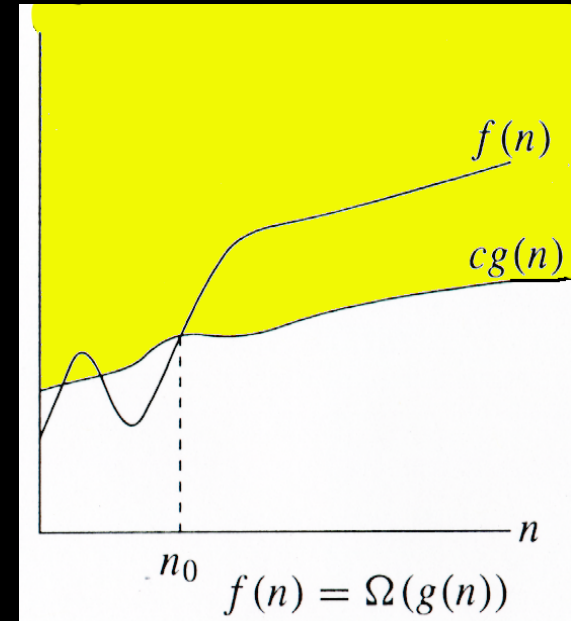
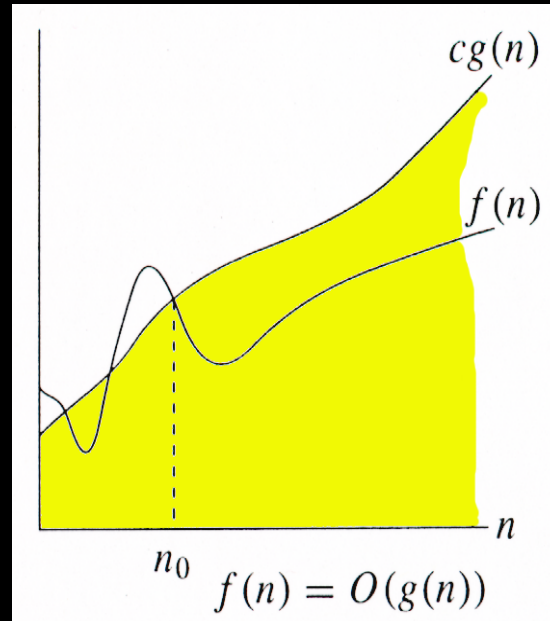
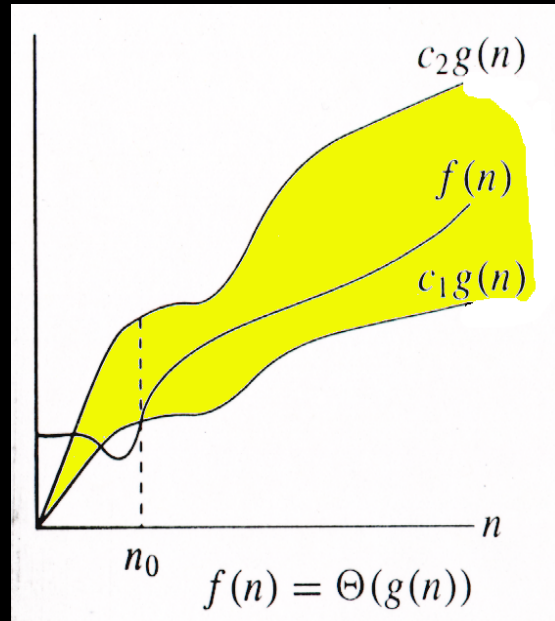


# Example

$\Omega(g(n)) = \{f(n) : \exists \text{ positive constants } c \text{ and } n_0, \text{ such that } \forall n \geq n_0, \text{ we have } 0 \leq cg(n) \leq f(n)\}$

- $\sqrt{n} = \Omega(\lg n)$ . Choose  $c$  and  $n_0$ .

# Relations between $\Theta$ , $O$ , $\Omega$



# Relations between $\Theta$ , $\Omega$ , $O$

**Theorem:** For any two functions  $g(n)$  and  $f(n)$ ,  
 $f(n) = \Theta(g(n))$  iff  
 $f(n) = O(g(n))$  and  $f(n) = \Omega(g(n))$ .

- $\Theta(g(n)) = O(g(n)) \cap \Omega(g(n))$
- In practice, asymptotically tight bounds are obtained from asymptotic upper and lower bounds.

# Running times

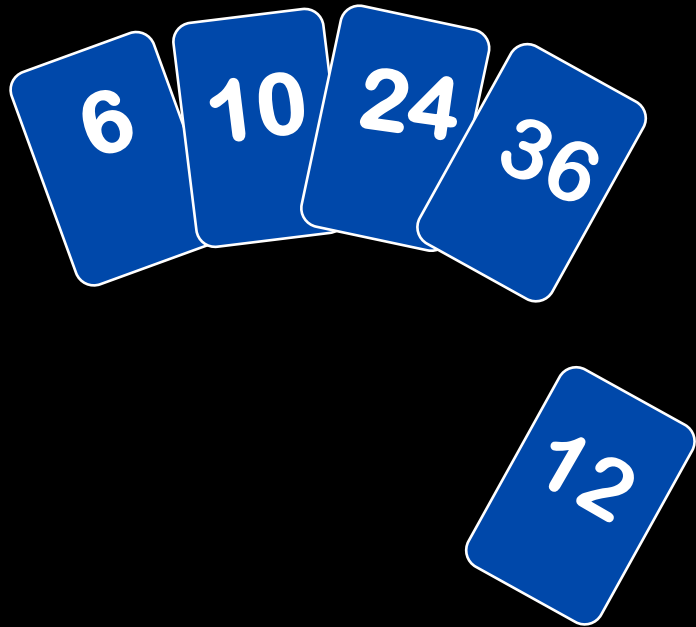
- “Running time is  $O(f(n))$ ”  $\Rightarrow$  Worst case is  $O(f(n))$
- $O(f(n))$  bound on the worst-case running time  $\Rightarrow$   $O(f(n))$  bound on the running time of every input.
- $\Theta(f(n))$  bound on the worst-case running time  $\not\Rightarrow$   $\Theta(f(n))$  bound on the running time of every input.
- “Running time is  $\Omega(f(n))$ ”  $\Rightarrow$  Best case is  $\Omega(f(n))$
- Can still say “Worst-case running time is  $\Omega(f(n))$ ”
  - Means worst-case running time is given by some unspecified function  $g(n) \in \Omega(f(n))$ .

# Example

- **Insertion sort** takes  $\Theta(n^2)$  in the worst case, so sorting (as a *problem*) is  $O(n^2)$ . **Why?**
- Any sort algorithm must look at each item, so sorting is  $\Omega(n)$ .
- In fact, using (e.g.) merge sort, sorting is  $\Theta(n \lg n)$  in the worst case.
  - No comparison sort to do better in the worst case. [We may not see a proof of this result in this course.]

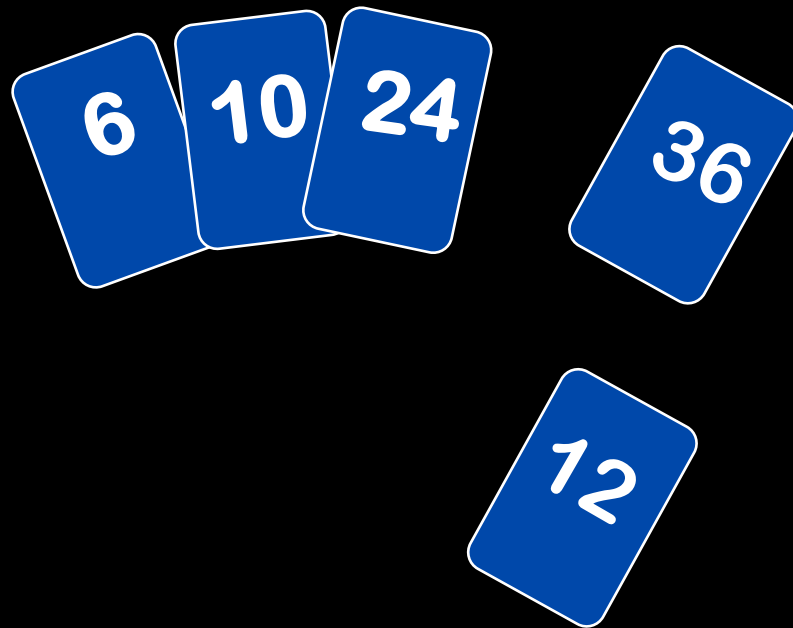
# Insertion sort

To insert 12, we need to make room for it by moving first 36 and then 24.

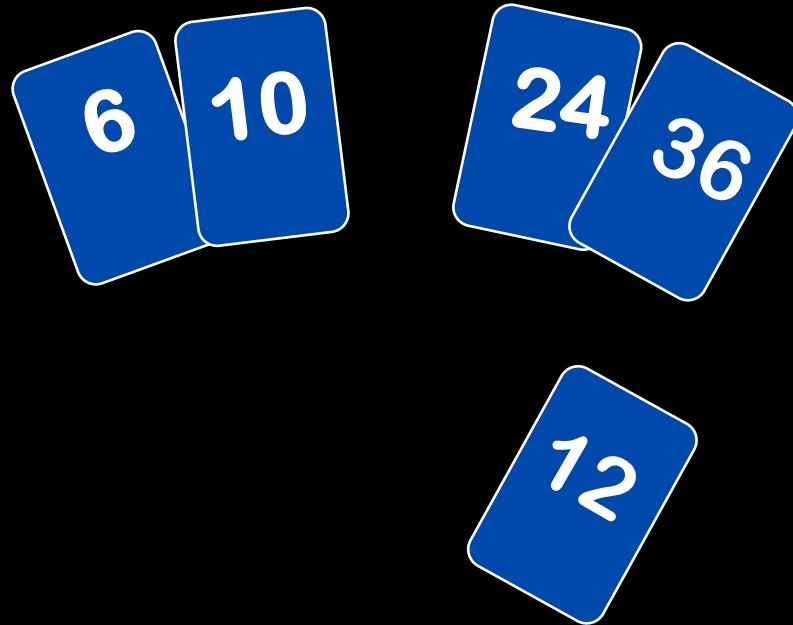




# Insertion sort



# Insertion sort



# Insertion sort

input array

5 2 4 6 1 3

At each iteration, the array is divided in two sub-arrays:

left sub-array

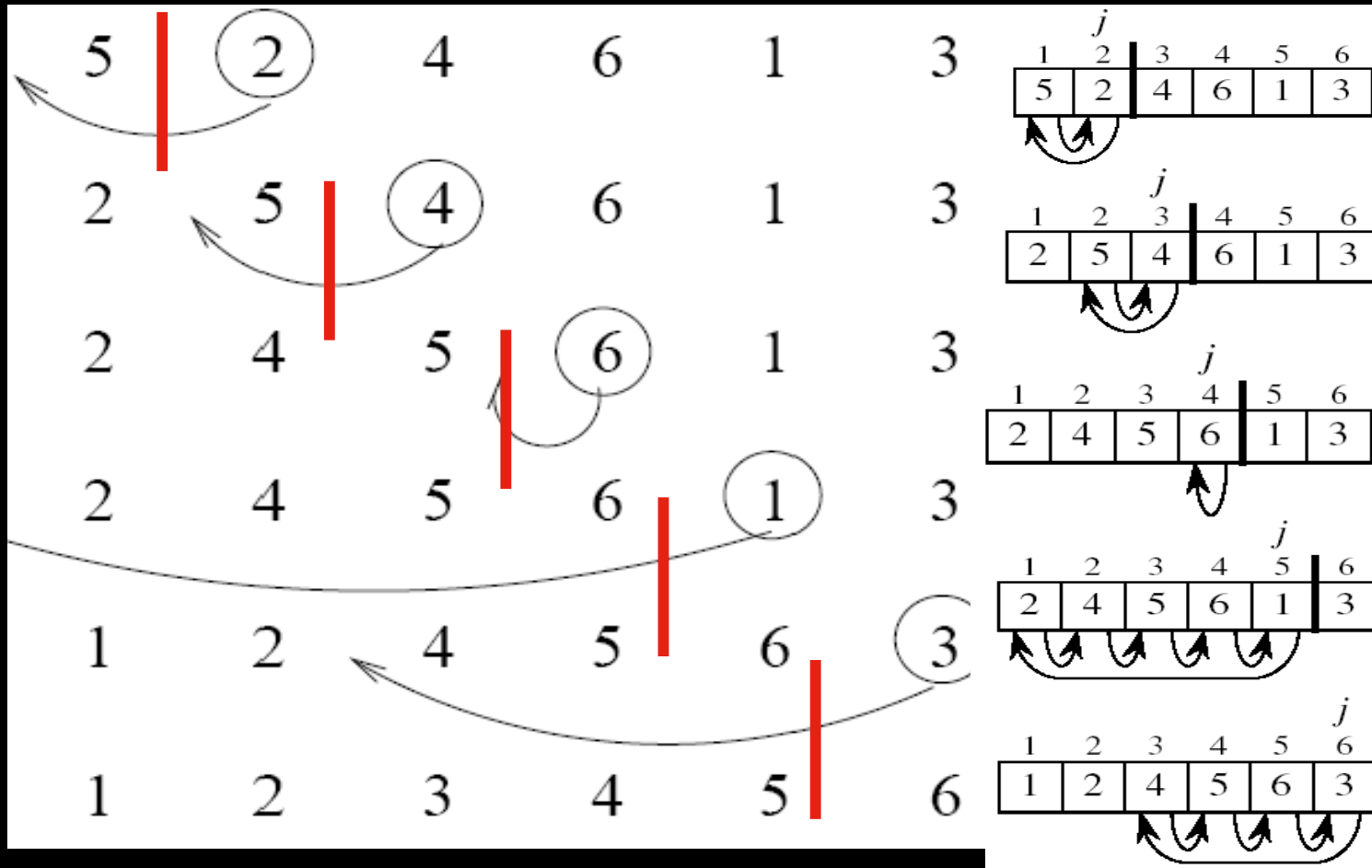
right sub-array



sorted

unsorted

# Insertion Sort



# Insertion sort

**Algorithm:** INSERTION-SORT( $A$ )

for  $j \leftarrow 2$  to  $n$

do  $\text{key} \leftarrow A[j]$

*Comment: Insert  $A[j]$  into the sorted sequence  $A[1 \dots j-1]$*

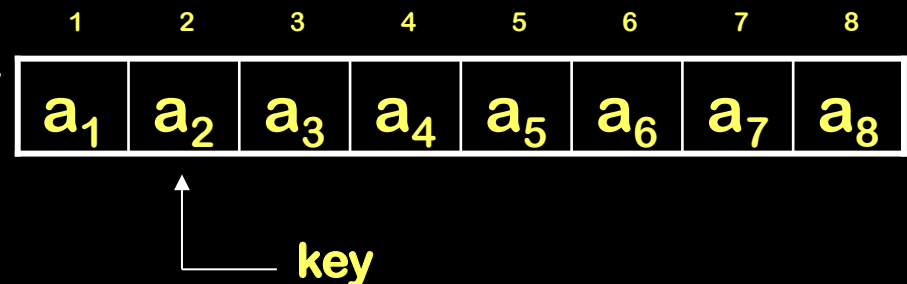
$i \leftarrow j - 1$

while  $i > 0$  and  $A[i] > \text{key}$

do  $A[i + 1] \leftarrow A[i]$

$i \leftarrow i - 1$

$A[i + 1] \leftarrow \text{key}$



# Asymptotic notation in equations

- Can use asymptotic notation in equations to replace expressions containing lower-order terms.

- For example,

$$4n^3 + 3n^2 + 2n + 1 = 4n^3 + 3n^2 + \Theta(n)$$

$$= 4n^3 + \Theta(n^2) = \Theta(n^3). \text{ **How do we interpret this?**}$$

- In equations,  $\Theta(f(n))$  always stands for an **anonymous function**  $g(n) \in \Theta(f(n))$ 
  - In the example above,  $\Theta(n^2)$  stands for  $3n^2 + 2n + 1$ .

# ***o*-notation**

For a given function  $g(n)$ , the set little-*o*:

$$o(g(n)) = \{f(n) : \forall c > 0, \exists n_0 > 0 \text{ such that} \\ \forall n \geq n_0, \text{ we have } 0 \leq f(n) < cg(n)\}.$$

$f(n)$  becomes insignificant relative to  $g(n)$  as  $n$  approaches infinity:

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} [f(n) / g(n)] = 0.$$

$g(n)$  is an **upper bound** for  $f(n)$  that is not asymptotically tight.

Observe the difference in this definition from previous ones. **Why?**

## $\omega$ -notation

For a given function  $g(n)$ , the set little-omega:

$$\Omega(g(n)) = \{f(n) : \forall c > 0, \exists n_0 > 0 \text{ such that} \\ \forall n \geq n_0, \text{ we have } 0 \leq cg(n) < f(n)\}.$$

$f(n)$  becomes arbitrarily large relative to  $g(n)$  as  $n$  approaches infinity:

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} [f(n) / g(n)] = \infty.$$

$g(n)$  is a **lower bound** for  $f(n)$  that is not asymptotically tight.



# Limits

- $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} [f(n) / g(n)] = 0 \Rightarrow f(n) \in o(g(n))$
- $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} [f(n) / g(n)] < \infty \Rightarrow f(n) \in O(g(n))$
- $0 < \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} [f(n) / g(n)] < \infty \Rightarrow f(n) \in \Theta(g(n))$
- $0 < \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} [f(n) / g(n)] \Rightarrow f(n) \in \Omega(g(n))$
- $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} [f(n) / g(n)] = \infty \Rightarrow f(n) \in \omega(g(n))$
- $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} [f(n) / g(n)]$  undefined  $\Rightarrow$  can not say

# Properties

- **Transitivity**

- $f(n) = \Theta(g(n)) \ \& \ g(n) = \Theta(h(n)) \Rightarrow f(n) = \Theta(h(n))$
- $f(n) = O(g(n)) \ \& \ g(n) = O(h(n)) \Rightarrow f(n) = O(h(n))$
- $f(n) = \Omega(g(n)) \ \& \ g(n) = \Omega(h(n)) \Rightarrow f(n) = \Omega(h(n))$
- $f(n) = o(g(n)) \ \& \ g(n) = o(h(n)) \Rightarrow f(n) = o(h(n))$
- $f(n) = \omega(g(n)) \ \& \ g(n) = \omega(h(n)) \Rightarrow f(n) = \omega(h(n))$

- **Reflexivity**

- $f(n) = \Theta(f(n))$
- $f(n) = O(f(n))$
- $f(n) = \Omega(f(n))$

# Properties

- **Symmetry**

$$f(n) = \Theta(g(n)) \text{ iff } g(n) = \Theta(f(n))$$

- **Complementarity**

$$f(n) = O(g(n)) \text{ iff } g(n) = \Omega(f(n))$$

$$f(n) = o(g(n)) \text{ iff } g(n) = \omega(f(n))$$

# Common functions

# Monotonicity

- $f(n)$  is
  - **monotonically increasing** if  $m \leq n \Rightarrow f(m) \leq f(n)$ .
  - **monotonically decreasing** if  $m \geq n \Rightarrow f(m) \geq f(n)$ .
  - **strictly increasing** if  $m < n \Rightarrow f(m) < f(n)$ .
  - **strictly decreasing** if  $m > n \Rightarrow f(m) > f(n)$ .

# Exponentials

- **Useful (and elementary) Identities:**

$$a^{-1} = \frac{1}{a}$$

$$(a^m)^n = a^{mn}$$

$$a^m a^n = a^{m+n}$$

- **Exponentials and polynomials**

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{n^b}{a^n} = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow n^b = o(a^n)$$

# Logarithms

$x = \log_b a$  is the  
exponent for  $a = b^x$ .

Natural log:  $\ln a = \log_e a$

Binary log:  $\lg a = \log_2 a$

$\lg^2 a = (\lg a)^2$

$\lg \lg a = \lg (\lg a)$

$$a = b^{\log_b a}$$

$$\log_c (ab) = \log_c a + \log_c b$$

$$\log_b a^n = n \log_b a$$

$$\log_b a = \frac{\log_c a}{\log_c b}$$

$$\log_b (1/a) = -\log_b a$$

$$\log_b a = \frac{1}{\log_a b}$$

$$a^{\log_b c} = c^{\log_b a}$$

# Logarithms and exponentials – Bases

- If the base of a logarithm is changed from one constant to another, the value is altered by a constant factor.
  - **Example:**  $\log_{10} n * \log_2 10 = \log_2 n$ .
  - Base of logarithm is not an issue in asymptotic notation.
- Exponentials with different bases differ by an exponential factor (not a constant factor).
  - **Example:**  $2^n = (2/3)^n * 3^n$ .



# Polylogarithms

- **For  $a \geq 0$ ,  $b > 0$** ,  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (\lg^a n / n^b) = 0$ ,  
so  $\lg^a n = o(n^b)$ , and  $n^b = \omega(\lg^a n)$ 
  - Prove using L'Hospital's rule repeatedly
- $\lg(n!) = \Theta(n \lg n)$ 
  - Prove using Stirling's approximation (in the text) for  $\lg(n!)$ .

# Exercise

Express functions in A in asymptotic notation using functions in B.

A

$$5n^2 + 100n$$

$$A \in \Theta(n^2), n^2 \in \Theta(B) \Rightarrow A \in \Theta(B)$$

$$\log_3(n^2)$$

$$\log_b a = \log_c a / \log_c b; A = 2 \lg n / \lg 3, B = 3 \lg n, A/B = 2/(3 \lg 3)$$

$$n^{\lg 4}$$

$$3^{\lg n}$$

$$a^{\log b} = b^{\log a}; B = 3^{\lg n} = n^{\lg 3}; A/B = n^{\lg(4/3)} \rightarrow \infty \text{ as } n \rightarrow \infty$$

$$\lg^2 n$$

$$n^{1/2}$$

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (\lg^a n / n^b) = 0 \text{ (here } a = 2 \text{ and } b = 1/2) \Rightarrow A \in o(B)$$

B

$$3n^2 + 2$$

$$A \in \Theta(B)$$

$$\log_2(n^3)$$

$$A \in \Theta(B)$$

$$A \in \omega(B)$$

$$A \in o(B)$$

# Summations

# Sequences

- **Sequence: an ordered list of elements**
  - Like a set, but:
    - Elements can be duplicated.
    - Elements are ordered.

# Sequences

- A sequence is a function from a subset of  $\mathbb{Z}$  to a set  $S$ .
  - Usually from the positive or non-negative integers.
  - $a_n$  is the image of  $n$ .
- $a_n$  is a term in the sequence.
- $\{a_n\}$  means the entire sequence.
  - The same notation as sets!

# Example sequences

- $a_n = 3n$ 
  - The terms in the sequence are  $a_1, a_2, a_3, \dots$
  - The sequence  $\{a_n\}$  is  $\{3, 6, 9, 12, \dots\}$
- $b_n = 2^n$ 
  - The terms in the sequence are  $b_1, b_2, b_3, \dots$
  - The sequence  $\{b_n\}$  is  $\{2, 4, 8, 16, 32, \dots\}$
- **Note that these sequences are indexed from 1**
  - Not always, though! You need to pay attention to the start of a sequence.

# Summations

- Why do we need summation formulae?

**For computing the running times of iterative constructs** (is a simple explanation).

**Example: Maximum Subvector**

Given an array  $A[1..n]$  of numeric values (can be positive, zero, and negative) determine the subvector  $A[i..j]$  ( $1 \leq i \leq j \leq n$ ) whose sum of elements is maximum over all subvectors.

1	-2	2	2
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# Maximum Subvector

```
MaxSubvector(A, n)
  maxsum ← 0;
  for i ← 1 to n
    do for j = i to n
      sum ← 0
      for k ← i to j
        do sum += A[k]
      maxsum ← max(sum, maxsum)
  return maxsum
```

- $T(n) = \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=i}^n \sum_{k=i}^j 1$

- **NOTE:** This is not a simplified solution. What *is* the final answer?



# Summations

How do you know this is true?

$$\sum_{i=1}^k (ca_i + b_i) = c \sum_{i=1}^k a_i + \sum_{i=1}^k b_i$$

Use associativity to separate the *bs* from the *as*.

Use distributivity to factor the *cs*.

# Summations you should know

What is  $S = 1 + 2 + 3 + \dots + n$ ?

$$S = 1 + 2 + \dots + n$$

Write the sum.

$$S = n + n-1 + \dots + 1$$

Write it again.

---

$$2S = n+1 + n+1 + \dots + n+1$$

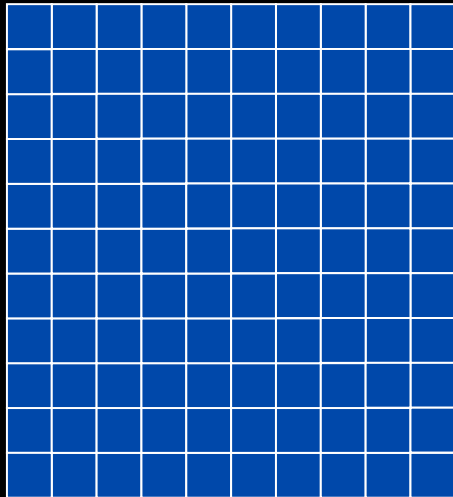
Add together.

You get  $n$  copies of  $(n+1)$ . But we've over added by a factor of 2. So just divide by 2.

$$\sum_{k=1}^n k = \frac{n(n+1)}{2}$$

## Summations example/picture

$$\sum_{i=1}^{10} i = 1 + 2 + 3 + \dots + 10$$



We now have a square 10 (n) by 11 (n+1) with area 110 units

We need half of that  $(10 \times 11) / 2$

$$\sum_{i=1}^n i = \frac{n(n+1)}{2}$$
$$\sum_{i=1}^{10} i = \frac{10 \times 11}{2} = 55$$
$$\sum_{i=1}^{100} i = \frac{100 \times 101}{2} = 5050$$

# Summations you should know

What is  $S = 1 + 3 + 5 + \dots + (2n - 1)$ ?

$$\sum_{k=1}^n (2k - 1) = 2 \sum_{k=1}^n k - \sum_{k=1}^n 1$$

Sum of first  $n$  odds.

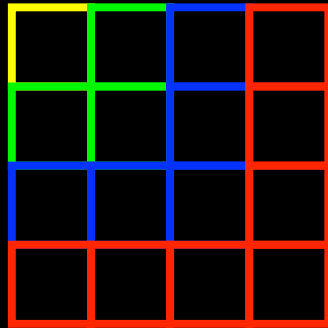
$$= 2 \left( \frac{n(n+1)}{2} \right) - n$$

$$= n^2$$

# Summations you should know

What is  $S = 1 + 3 + 5 + \dots + (2n - 1)$ ?

Sum of first  $n$  odds.



# Summations you should know

What is  $S = 1 + r + r^2 + \dots + r^n$

Geometric Series

$$\sum_{k=0}^n r^k = 1 + r + \dots + r^n$$

Multiply by r

$$r \sum_{k=0}^n r^k = r + r^2 + \dots + r^{n+1}$$

Subtract 2<sup>nd</sup> from 1<sup>st</sup>

$$\sum_{k=0}^n r^k - r \sum_{k=0}^n r^k = 1 - r^{n+1}$$

factor

$$(1 - r) \sum_{k=0}^n r^k = 1 - r^{n+1}$$

divide

$$\sum_{k=0}^n r^k = \frac{1 - r^{n+1}}{(1 - r)}$$

DONE!

# Summations you should know

What about:

$$\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} r^k = 1 + r + \dots + r^n + \dots$$

If  $r \geq 1$  this  
blows up.

If  $r < 1$  we can say something.

$$\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} r^k = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{k=0}^n r^k$$

$$= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1 - r^{n+1}}{(1 - r)}$$

$$= \frac{1}{(1 - r)}$$

# In-class exercise

- Find an expression for the following summation.
  - $S = (1 \times 2) + (2 \times 3) + (3 \times 4) + \dots + n(n+1) = ?$
  - Hint: Consider  $(n+1)^3 - n^3$ .



# In-class exercise

$$S = 1 \cdot \binom{n}{0} + 2 \cdot \binom{n}{1} + 3 \cdot \binom{n}{2} + \dots + (n+1) \binom{n}{n} = ?$$

Consider the binomial series expansion, and ponder what happens when you differentiate both sides...

$$(1+x)^n = \sum_{i=0}^n \binom{n}{i} x^i$$

# Important summations and techniques

- **Constant Series:** For integers  $a$  and  $b$ ,  $a \leq b$ ,

$$\sum_{i=a}^b 1 = b - a + 1$$

- **Linear Series (Arithmetic Series):** For  $n \geq 0$ ,

$$\sum_{i=1}^n i = 1 + 2 + \cdots + n = \frac{n(n+1)}{2}$$

- **Quadratic Series:** For  $n \geq 0$ ,

$$\sum_{i=1}^n i^2 = 1^2 + 2^2 + \cdots + n^2 = \frac{n(n+1)(2n+1)}{6}$$

# Important summations and techniques

- **Cubic Series:** For  $n \geq 0$ ,

$$\sum_{i=1}^n i^3 = 1^3 + 2^3 + \cdots + n^3 = \frac{n^2(n+1)^2}{4}$$

- **Geometric Series:** For real  $x \neq 1$ ,

$$\sum_{k=0}^n x^k = 1 + x + x^2 + \cdots + x^n = \frac{x^{n+1} - 1}{x - 1}$$

For  $|x| < 1$ ,

$$\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} x^k = \frac{1}{1-x}$$

# Important summations and techniques

- **Linear-Geometric Series:** For  $n \geq 0$ , real  $c \neq 1$ ,

$$\sum_{i=1}^n ic^i = c + 2c^2 + \cdots + nc^n = \frac{-(n+1)c^{n+1} + nc^{n+2} + c}{(c-1)^2}$$

- **Harmonic Series:**  $n^{\text{th}}$  harmonic number,  $n \in \mathbb{I}^+$ ,

$$H_n = 1 + \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{3} + \cdots + \frac{1}{n}$$

$$= \sum_{k=1}^n \frac{1}{k} = \ln(n) + O(1)$$

# Important summations and techniques

- **Telescoping Series:**

$$\sum_{k=1}^n a_k - a_{k-1} = a_n - a_0$$

- **Differentiating Series:** For  $|x| < 1$ ,

$$\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} kx^k = \frac{x}{(1-x)^2}$$

# Important summations and techniques

- **Approximation by integrals:**
  - For monotonically increasing  $f(n)$

$$\int_{m-1}^n f(x)dx \leq \sum_{k=m}^n f(k) \leq \int_m^{n+1} f(x)dx$$

- For monotonically decreasing  $f(n)$

$$\int_m^{n+1} f(x)dx \leq \sum_{k=m}^n f(k) \leq \int_{m-1}^n f(x)dx$$

- **How?**

# Important summations and techniques

- **$n$ th harmonic number**

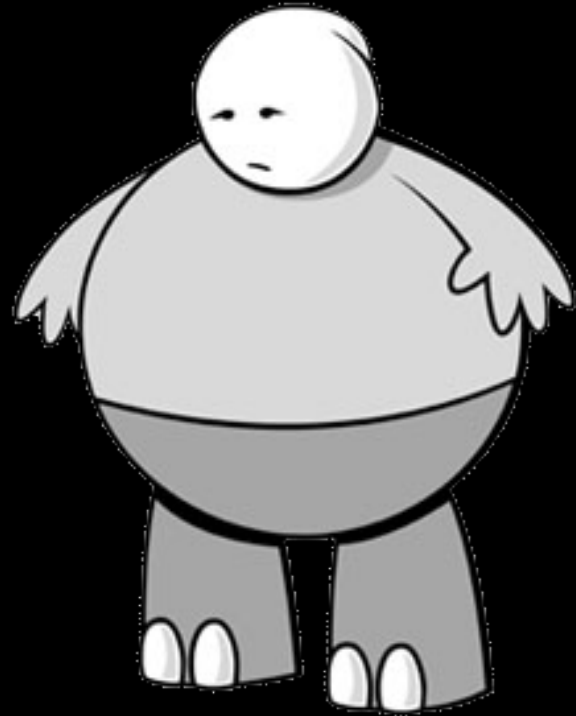
$$\sum_{k=1}^n \frac{1}{k} \geq \int_1^{n+1} \frac{dx}{x} = \ln(n+1)$$

$$\sum_{k=2}^n \frac{1}{k} \leq \int_1^n \frac{dx}{x} = \ln n$$

$$\Rightarrow \sum_{k=1}^n \frac{1}{k} \leq \ln n + 1$$

# Wrap-up

- What are the different asymptotic bounds on functions?
- How are the asymptotic bounds related?
- Asymptotic bounds and algorithmic efficiency
- Summations
  - Basic summations (formulae)
  - Tricks for certain series
    - Telescoping
    - Differentiation
    - ...





You should never forget  
the definitions for the  $\Theta$ ,  
 $O$ ,  $\Omega$ ,  $o$ ,  $\omega$  notations. They  
help us analyze  
algorithms.

