

Lecture 3

Subsequences

Definition 1. Let (x_n) be a sequence in \mathbb{R} . A *subsequence* of (x_n) is a sequence (y_k) in \mathbb{R} given by $y_k = x_{n_k}$, $k \in \mathbb{N}$, where (n_k) is a strictly increasing sequence in \mathbb{N} .

Example 1. $(x_n) = (2^n) = (2, 4, 8, \dots)$

Proposition 1. Let (x_n) be a sequence in \mathbb{R} that has a limit (in $\overline{\mathbb{R}}$). Then any subsequence (x_{n_k}) of (x_n) has the same limit, i.e., $\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} x_{n_k} = x$.

Remark 1. If a sequence has two subsequences that have different limits, then the sequence has no limit.

Theorem 1 (Bolzano-Weierstrass). A bounded sequence in \mathbb{R} has a convergent subsequence.

Remark 2. In fact, one can show that every sequence in \mathbb{R} has a monotone subsequence. This, together with the equivalence of convergence and boundedness for monotone sequences, yields the Bolzano-Weierstrass theorem.

Application: An analysis of insertion sort

Growth of functions

Definition 2. Let $f, g : \mathbb{N} \rightarrow [0, \infty)$. We say that f is *big-O* of g if there exist $c, n_0 \in \mathbb{N}$ such that

$$\forall n \in \mathbb{N}, n \geq n_0, f(n) \leq c g(n).$$

Notation: $f(n) = O(g(n))$.

Remark 3. (i) If $f(n) = O(g(n))$, then g is an asymptotic upper bound of f up to a constant. We can also say that f is asymptotically at most g .

(ii) $f(n) = O(f(n))$.

Example 2. (i) $f(n) = 3n^3 + 2n^2 + 5n + 7$, $n \in \mathbb{N}$.

(ii) $f(n) = \log_b n$, $b > 1$, $n \in \mathbb{N}$.

(iii) $f(n) = 3n \log_2 n + n \log_2(\log_2 n) + 1$, $n \in \mathbb{N}$, $n \geq 2$.

Proposition 2. Let $f : \mathbb{N} \rightarrow [0, \infty)$, $g : \mathbb{N} \rightarrow (0, \infty)$ and suppose $\exists L = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{f(n)}{g(n)} \in [0, \infty) \cup \{\infty\}$. Then $f(n) = O(g(n))$ if and only if $L \in [0, \infty)$.

Example 3. $f(n) = \frac{7n^4 + n^3 - n^2 + 1}{5n^2 - 4}$, $n \in \mathbb{N}$.

Definition 3. Let $f : \mathbb{N} \rightarrow [0, \infty)$ and $g : \mathbb{N} \rightarrow (0, \infty)$. We say that f is *little-o* of g if $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{f(n)}{g(n)} = 0$.
Notation: $f(n) = o(g(n))$.

Remark 4. (i) $f(n) = o(g(n)) \iff \forall c > 0, \exists n_0 \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $\forall n \in \mathbb{N}, n \geq n_0, f(n) < c g(n)$.
This condition says that f is asymptotically less than g .

(ii) $f(n) = o(g(n)) \implies f(n) = O(g(n))$.

(iii) $f(n) \neq o(f(n))$.

Example 4. (i) $n^2 = o(n^3)$.

(ii) $n^\alpha = o((1 + \beta)^n)$, $\alpha \in \mathbb{N}$, $\beta > 0$.

(iii) $\log_b n = o(n)$, $b > 1$.

Definition 4. Let $f, g : \mathbb{N} \rightarrow [0, \infty)$. We say that f is *big-Theta* of g if $f(n) = O(g(n))$ and $g(n) = O(f(n))$.

Notation: $f(n) = \Theta(g(n))$.

Remark 5. (i) This condition says that f and g have the same growth rate (or the same order).

(ii) $f(n) = \Theta(g(n)) \iff g(n) = \Theta(f(n))$.

Example 5. $\log_b n = \Theta(\log n)$, $b > 1$.

Proposition 3. Let $f, g : \mathbb{N} \rightarrow (0, \infty)$ and suppose $\exists L = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{f(n)}{g(n)} \in [0, \infty) \cup \{\infty\}$. Then:

(i) if $L = 0$, then $f(n) = o(g(n))$, hence $f(n) = O(g(n))$.

(ii) if $L \in (0, \infty)$, then $f(n) = \Theta(g(n))$.

(iii) if $L = \infty$, then $g(n) = o(f(n))$, hence $g(n) = O(f(n))$.

Example 3. (revisited) $f(n) = \frac{7n^4 + n^3 - n^2 + 1}{5n^2 - 4}$, $n \in \mathbb{N}$.

Insertion sort

Let A be an array containing n numbers ($n \in \mathbb{N}$): $A[1, \dots, n]$.

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for  $i = 1$  to  $n - 1$  do
     $key \leftarrow A[i + 1]$            // insert  $A[i + 1]$  into the ordered array  $A[1, \dots, i]$ 
     $j \leftarrow i$ 
    while  $j > 0$  and  $A[j] > key$  do
         $A[j + 1] \leftarrow A[j]$ 
         $j \leftarrow j - 1$ 
    end
     $A[j + 1] \leftarrow key$ 
end
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Example 6. $A = \langle 5, 2, 4, 6, 1, 3 \rangle$.

Proposition 4. *The average number of comparisons $C_I(n)$ done by insertion sort is $\Theta(n^2)$.*

Proof. Let $i \in \{1, \dots, n - 1\}$ and suppose that $A[1, \dots, i]$ is ordered and we insert $A[i + 1]$. There are $i + 1$ possible positions where $A[i + 1]$ can be placed. The probability that $A[i + 1]$ will be placed in any given position is $1/(i + 1)$ assuming that all positions are equally likely.

Depending on the position where $A[i + 1]$ must be placed, we distinguish the following cases:

- (i) on the first position:
- (ii) on the second position (i.e., between $A[1]$ and $A[2]$):
in general, on the j -th position (i.e., between $A[j - 1]$ and $A[j]$), where $j \in \{2, \dots, i\}$:
- (iii) on the $(i + 1)$ -th position (i.e., at the end of the array):

□

Remark 6. Consider the sequence (γ_n) defined by $\gamma_n = 1 + \frac{1}{2} + \dots + \frac{1}{n} - \ln n$, $n \in \mathbb{N}$. The above reasoning shows that (γ_n) is bounded below by 0 and strictly decreasing. Hence, it is convergent. Its limit is called Euler's constant and is denoted by $\gamma \simeq 0.577$.

Exercise 1. Compute the number of needed comparisons in the worse case (i.e., when the array is ordered in a decreasing way).

Series of real numbers

Definition 5. Let (x_n) be a sequence in \mathbb{R} . We attach to (x_n) the sequence (s_n) given by

$$s_n = x_1 + x_2 + \dots + x_n, \quad n \in \mathbb{N}.$$

The pair $((x_n), (s_n))$ is called the *series* with terms x_n .

Notation: $\sum_{n \geq 1} x_n$ or $\sum x_n$.

For $n \in \mathbb{N}$, the number s_n is called the n^{th} *partial sum* of the series. If the sequence (s_n) of partial sums converges (diverges), we say that the series $\sum_{n \geq 1} x_n$ is *convergent* (*divergent*). If (s_n) has a limit, we say that the series $\sum_{n \geq 1} x_n$ *has a sum*. In this case we call $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} s_n \in \overline{\mathbb{R}}$ the *sum* of the series $\sum_{n \geq 1} x_n$ and we denote it by $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} x_n = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} s_n$.

Remark 7. We also consider series of the form $\sum_{n \geq m} x_n$ generated by a sequence $(x_n)_{n \geq m}$, where $m \in \mathbb{Z}$. Note that for any $k \in \mathbb{N}$, $\sum_{n \geq m} x_n$ has a sum if and only if $\sum_{n \geq m+k} x_n$ has a sum. In this case we have

$$\sum_{n=m}^{\infty} x_n = x_m + x_{m+1} + \dots + x_{m+k-1} + \sum_{n=m+k}^{\infty} x_n.$$

Proposition 5. Let $\sum_{n \geq 1} x_n$ and $\sum_{n \geq 1} y_n$ be convergent series and let $c \in \mathbb{R}$. Then

(i) $\sum_{n \geq 1} (x_n + y_n)$ is convergent and

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (x_n + y_n) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} x_n + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} y_n.$$

(ii) $\sum_{n \geq 1} (c x_n)$ is convergent and

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (c x_n) = c \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} x_n.$$

Example 7. (i) *The geometric series:* Let $q \in \mathbb{R}$. By convention, we set $q^0 = 1$ even for $q = 0$.

$$\sum_{n \geq 0} q^n = \begin{cases} \text{divergent with no sum,} & \text{if } q \leq -1, \\ \text{convergent with sum } 1/(1-q), & \text{if } q \in (-1, 1), \\ \text{divergent with sum } \infty, & \text{if } q \geq 1. \end{cases}$$

(ii) *Telescoping series:* Let (x_n) be a sequence in \mathbb{R} . The series $\sum_{n \geq 1} (x_n - x_{n+1})$ is called a *telescoping series*. This series is convergent if and only if (x_n) is convergent. In this case,

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (x_n - x_{n+1}) = x_1 - \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} x_n.$$

E.g., $\sum_{n \geq 1} \frac{1}{n(n+1)}$ is a telescoping series.