

Asymptotic Notation

- O -, Ω -, and Θ - notation
- Recursion tree
- Master method

O-notation (upper bounds):

We write

$$f(n) = O(g(n))$$

if there exist constants $c > 0$, $n_0 > 0$ such that

$$0 \leq f(n) \leq cg(n)$$

for all $n \geq n_0$

EXAMPLE: $2n^2 = O(n^3)$ ($c = 1, n_0 = 2$)

*functions,
not values*

*funny, “one-way”
equality*

Set definition of O-notation

$O(g(n)) = \{ f(n) : \text{there exist constants } c > 0, n_0 > 0 \text{ such that}$

$$0 \leq f(n) \leq cg(n)$$

for all $n \geq n_0 \}$

Convention: A set in a formula represents an anonymous function in the set.

EXAMPLE: $n^2 + O(n) = O(n^2)$

means

for any $f(n) \in O(n)$:

$$n^2 + f(n) = h(n)$$

for some $h(n) \in O(n^2)$.

Ω -notation (lower bounds)

O -notation is an upper-bound notation. It makes no sense to say $f(n)$ is at least $O(n^2)$.

$\Omega(g(n)) = \{ f(n) : \text{there exist constants } c > 0, n_0 > 0 \text{ such that}$

$$0 \leq cg(n) \leq f(n)$$

for all $n \geq n_0 \}$

EXAMPLE: $\sqrt{n} = \Omega(\lg n)$ ($c = 1, n_0 = 16$)

Θ -notation (tight bounds)

$$\Theta(g(n)) = O(g(n)) \cap \Omega(g(n))$$

$\Theta(g(n)) = \{f(n) : \text{there exist positive constants } c_1, c_2, \text{ and } n_0 \text{ such that}$

$$0 \leq c_1 g(n) \leq f(n) \leq c_2 g(n) \quad \text{for all } n \geq n_0$$

EXAMPLE: $\frac{1}{2}n^2 - 2n = \Theta(n^2)$

o -notation and ω -notation

O -notation and Ω -notation are like \leq and \geq .

o -notation and ω -notation are like $<$ and $>$.

$o(g(n)) = \{ f(n) : \text{for any constant } c > 0, n_0 > 0 \text{ such that } 0 \leq f(n) < cg(n) \text{ for all } n \geq n_0 \}$

EXAMPLE: $2n^2 = o(n^3) \quad (n_0 = 2/c)$

$\omega(g(n)) = \{ f(n) : \text{for any constant } c > 0, n_0 > 0$
such that $0 \leq cg(n) < f(n)$ for all $n \geq n_0 \}$

EXAMPLE: $\sqrt{n} = \omega(\lg n)$ ($n_0 = 1 + 1/c$)

Solving recurrences

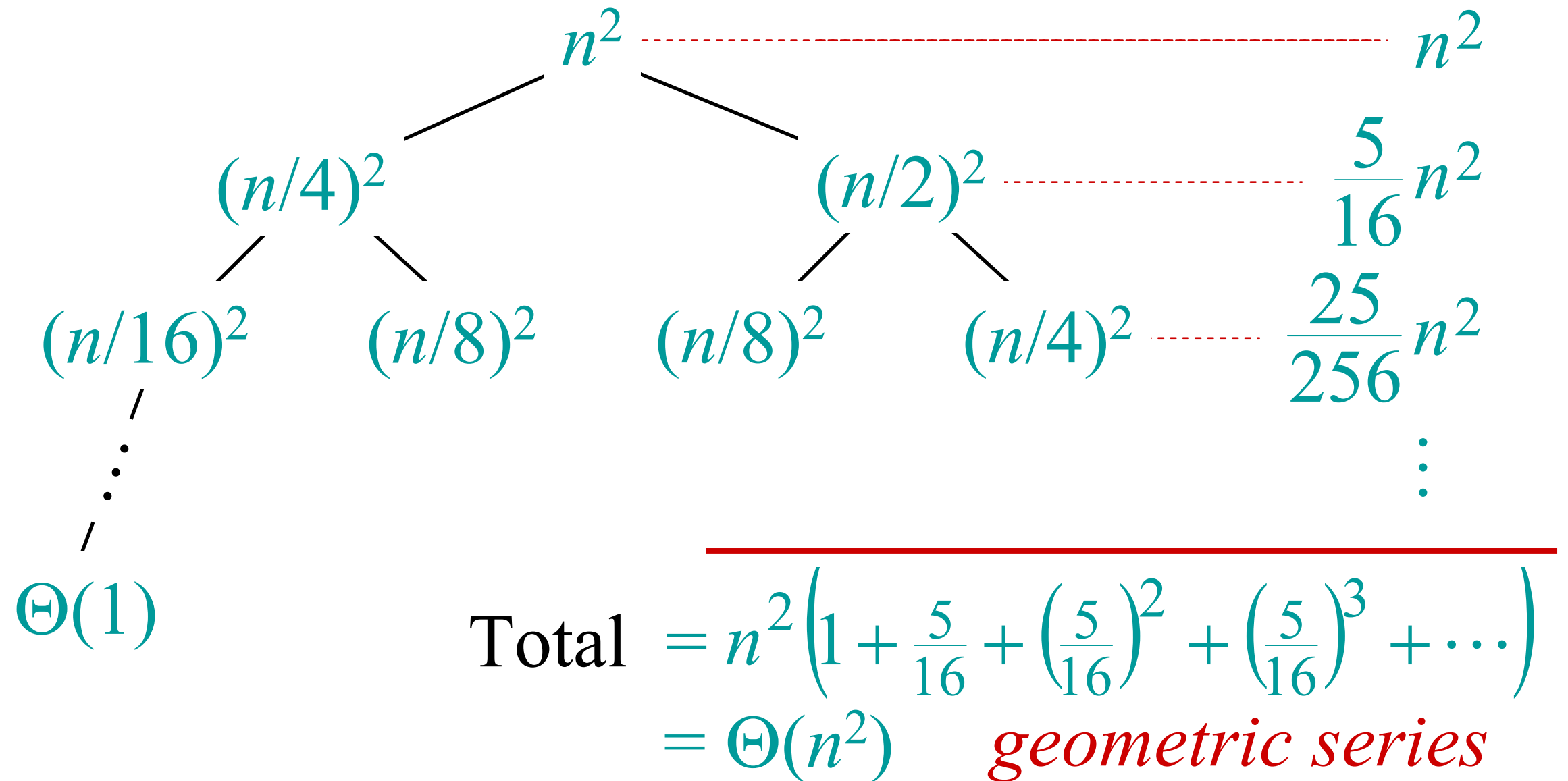
- The analysis of merge sort required us to solve a recurrence.
- Recurrences are like solving integrals, differential equations, etc. Need to learn a few techniques.
- Applications of recurrences to divide-and-conquer algorithms.

Recursion-tree method

- A recursion tree models the costs (time) of a recursive execution of an algorithm.
- The recursion-tree method can be unreliable, just like any method that uses ellipses (... in a sentence).
- The recursion-tree method promotes intuition, however.
- The recursion tree method is good for generating guesses for the substitution method.

Example of recursion tree

Solve $T(n) = T(n/4) + T(n/2) + n^2$:



The master method

The master method applies to recurrences of the form

$$T(n) = a T(n/b) + f(n) ,$$

where $a \geq 1$, $b > 1$, and f is asymptotically positive.

Three typical cases

Compare $f(n)$ with $n^{\log_b a}$:

1. $f(n) = O(n^{\log_b a - \varepsilon})$ for some constant $\varepsilon > 0$.

- $f(n)$ grows polynomially slower than $n^{\log_b a}$ (by an n^ε factor).

Solution: $T(n) = \Theta(n^{\log_b a})$.

2. $f(n) = \Theta(n^{\log_b a} \lg^k n)$ for some constant $k \geq 0$.

- $f(n)$ and $n^{\log_b a}$ grow at similar rates.

Solution: $T(n) = \Theta(n^{\log_b a} \lg^{k+1} n)$.

$$T(n) = 2 T(n/2) + n \lg(n)$$

$$a=2, b=2$$

$$\text{Log}_b(a) = \lg(2) = 1$$

is $f(n) = \Theta(n \lg^k(n))$?

$$f(n) = n \lg(n)$$

yes with $k=1$

3. $f(n) = \Omega(n^{\log_b a + \varepsilon})$ for some constant $\varepsilon > 0$.

- $f(n)$ grows polynomially faster than $n^{\log_b a}$ (by an n^ε factor),

and $f(n)$ satisfies the **regularity condition** that $a f(n/b) \leq c f(n)$ for some constant $c < 1$.

Solution: $T(n) = \Theta(f(n))$.

Examples

Ex. $T(n) = 4T(n/2) + n$
 $a = 4, b = 2 \Rightarrow n^{\log_b a} = n^2; f(n) = n.$
CASE 1: $f(n) = O(n^{2-\varepsilon})$ for $\varepsilon = 1$.
 $\therefore T(n) = \Theta(n^2).$

Ex. $T(n) = 4T(n/2) + n^2$
 $a = 4, b = 2 \Rightarrow n^{\log_b a} = n^2; f(n) = n^2.$
CASE 2: $f(n) = \Theta(n^2 \lg^0 n)$, that is, $k = 0$.
 $\therefore T(n) = \Theta(n^2 \lg n).$

Ex. $T(n) = 4T(n/2) + n^3$
 $a = 4, b = 2 \Rightarrow n^{\log_b a} = n^2; f(n) = n^3.$
CASE 3: $f(n) = \Omega(n^{2+\varepsilon})$ for $\varepsilon = 1$
and $4(n/2)^3 \leq cn^3$ (reg. cond.) for $c = 1/2$.
 $\therefore T(n) = \Theta(n^3).$

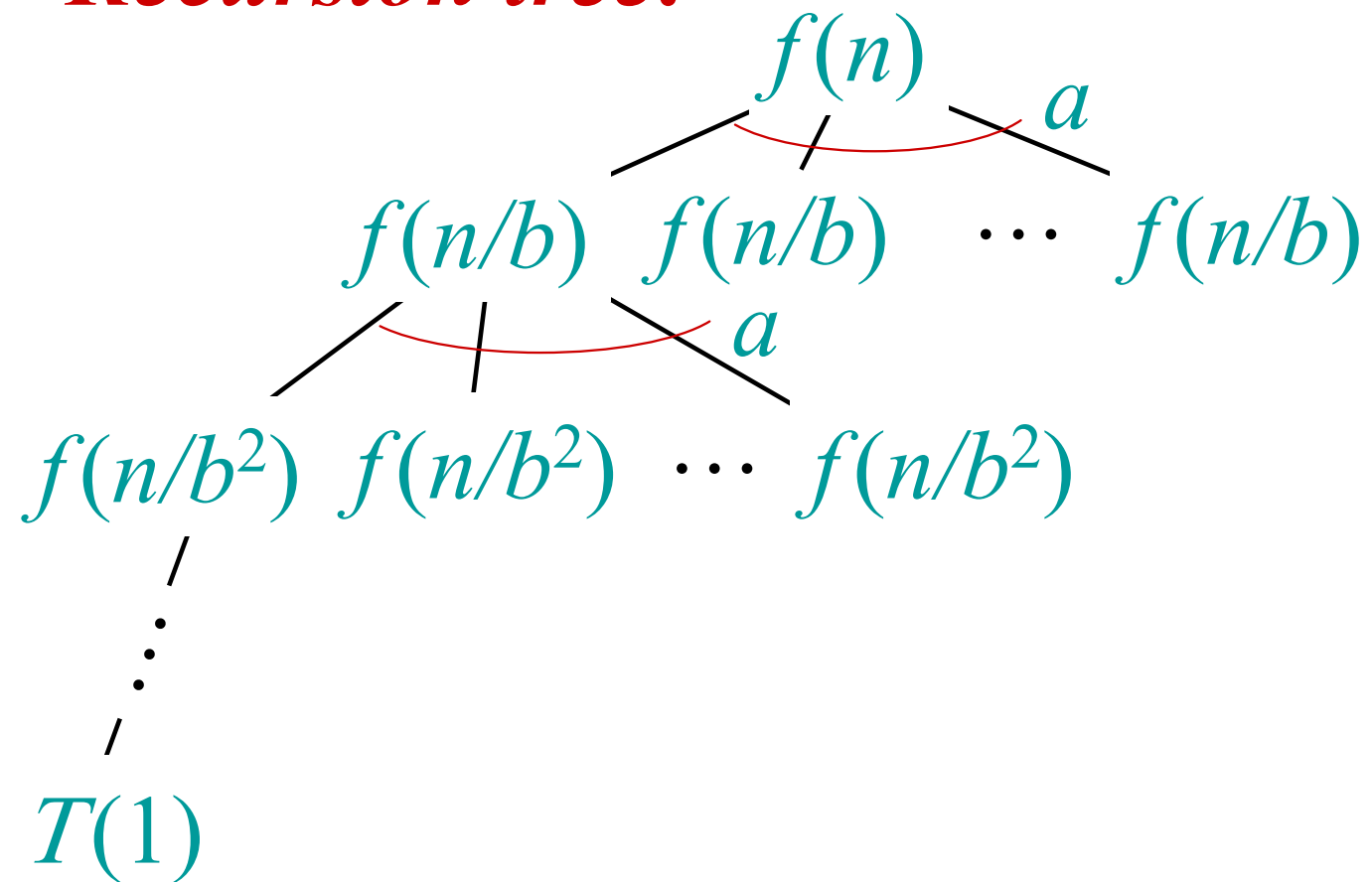
Ex. $T(n) = 4T(n/2) + n^2/\lg n$
 $a = 4, b = 2 \Rightarrow n^{\log_b a} = n^2; f(n) = n^2/\lg n.$

Master method does not apply. In particular, for every constant $\varepsilon > 0$, we have $n^\varepsilon = \omega(\lg n)$.

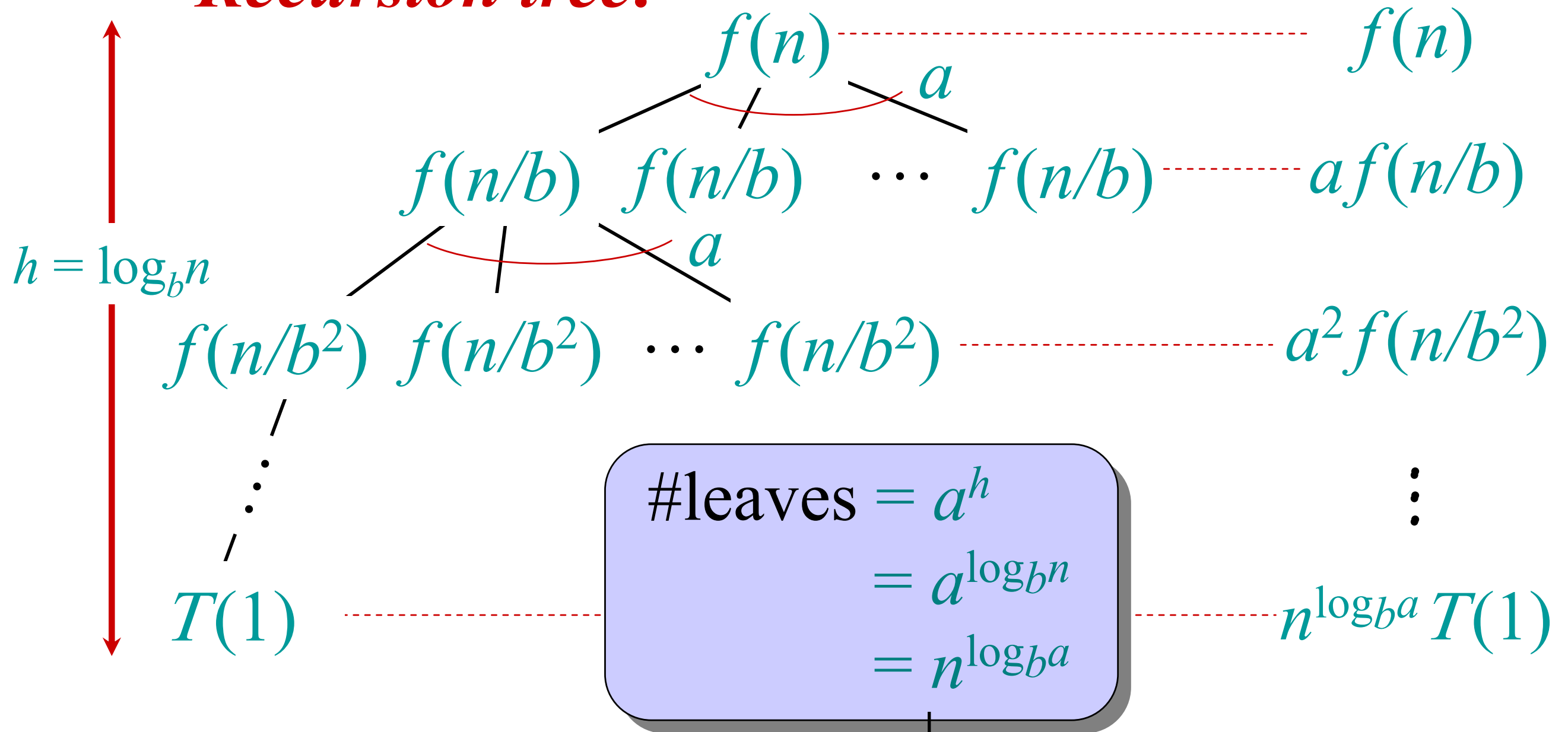
Idea of master theorem

$$T(n) = a T(n/b) + f(n) ,$$

Recursion tree:



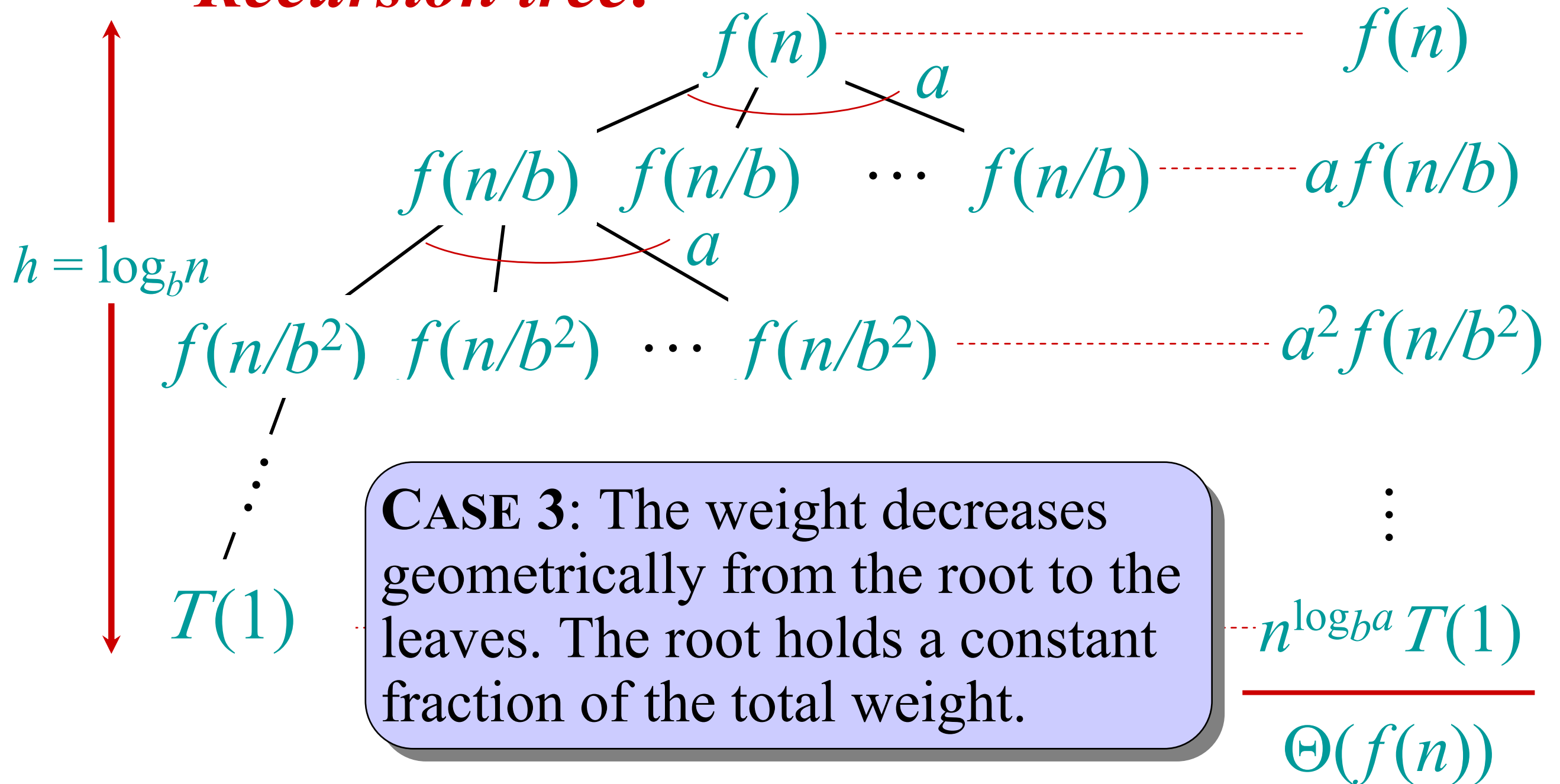
Recursion tree:



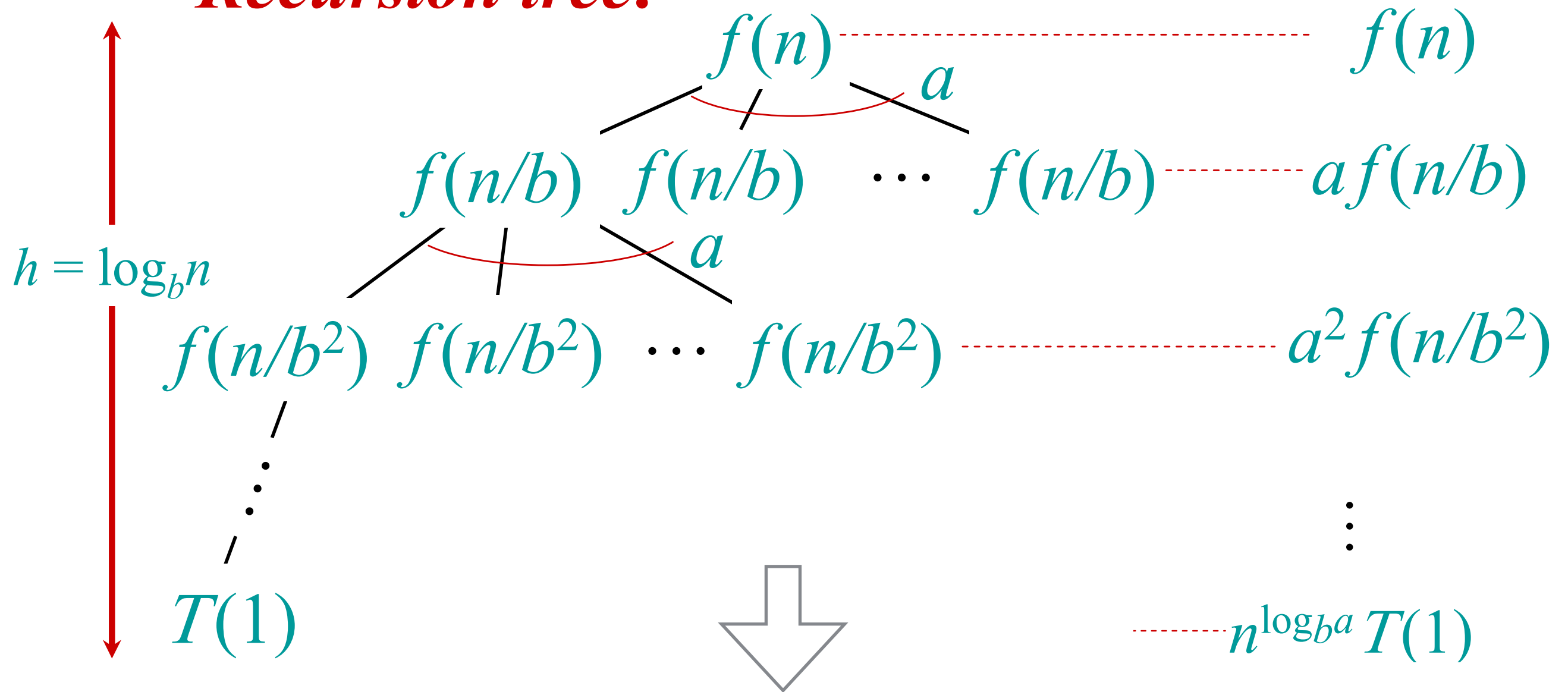
reminder: $\log_b(x) = \frac{\ln(x)}{\ln(b)}$

$$\begin{aligned} a^h &= a^{\log_b n} = a^{\frac{\ln n}{\ln b}} = a^{\frac{\ln a}{\ln a} \frac{\ln n}{\ln b}} = \\ &= a^{\log_a n \log_b a} = \left(\underset{\uparrow n}{a^{\log_a n}} \right)^{\log_b a} = n^{\log_b a} \end{aligned}$$

Recursion tree:



Recursion tree:



Three cases:

- (1) If $f(n) = O(n^{\log_b a - \varepsilon})$ for some constant $\varepsilon > 0$, then $T(n) = O(n^{\log_b a})$.
- (2) If $f(n) = \Theta(n^{\log_b a})$, then $T(n) = \Theta(n^{\log_b a} \log n)$.
- (3) If $f(n) = \Omega(n^{\log_b a + \varepsilon})$ for some constant $\varepsilon > 0$, and if f satisfies the smoothness condition $af(n/b) \leq cf(n)$ for some constant $c < 1$, then $T(n) = \Theta(f(n))$.

Proof of case (1):

If $f(n) = O(n^{\log_b a - \varepsilon})$ for some constant $\varepsilon > 0$, then $T(n) = O(n^{\log_b a})$

Given that we want to prove that $T(n)$ is upper bounded by some quantity, we may take advantage of inequalities.

We know from the analysis of the tree that
$$T(n) = \sum_{i=0}^{\log_b n} a^i f(n/b^i) + O(n^{\log_b a})$$

Thus, for case (1) we may write:

$$T(n) = \sum_{i=0}^{\log_b n} a^i f(n/b^i) + O(n^{\log_b a}) \leq \sum_{i=0}^{\log_b n} a^i (n/b^i)^{\log_b a - \varepsilon} + O(n^{\log_b a})$$

because for this case we have $f(n) = O(n^{\log_b a - \varepsilon})$, i.e. for some $\varepsilon > 0$

For n sufficiently large and for some constant c we have

$$f(n/b^i) \leq c (n/b^i)^{\log_b a - \varepsilon}$$

Thus by substitution in the sum we find (we don't need to write the constant in front)

$$\begin{aligned}
 \sum_{i=0}^{\log_b n} a^i (n/b^i)^{\log_b a - \varepsilon} &= n^{\log_b a - \varepsilon} \sum_{i=0}^{\log_b n} a^i \overset{a^{-i}}{\underbrace{b^{-i \log_b a}}_{n^{\varepsilon} b^{\varepsilon}}} b^{i\varepsilon} = n^{\log_b a - \varepsilon} \sum_{i=0}^{\log_b n} a^i a^{-i} b^{i\varepsilon} \\
 &= n^{\log_b a - \varepsilon} \sum_{i=0}^{\log_b n} b^{\varepsilon i} = n^{\log_b a - \varepsilon} \frac{\overset{n^{\varepsilon} b^{\varepsilon}}{b^{\varepsilon(\log_b n + 1)}} - 1}{b^{\varepsilon} - 1} \\
 &= n^{\log_b a - \varepsilon} \frac{n^{\varepsilon} b^{\varepsilon} - 1}{b^{\varepsilon} - 1} \leq n^{\log_b a - \varepsilon} \frac{n^{\varepsilon} b^{\varepsilon}}{b^{\varepsilon} - 1} = n^{\log_b a} \frac{b^{\varepsilon}}{b^{\varepsilon} - 1} \\
 &= O(n^{\log_b a}).
 \end{aligned}$$

This results, together with $T(n) = \sum_{i=0}^{\log_b n} a^i f(n/b^i) + O(n^{\log_b a})$ gives

$$T(n) = O(n^{\log_b a})$$

□

Little Remark: $O(f(n)) + O(f(n))$ is still $O(f(n))$

Proofs of case-2 and case-3 are similar. I leave them to you if you are interested (not required for the exam).
