Introduction and Asymptotic Analysis
- CS240 Overview
- Algorithm Design
- Analysis of Algorithms I
- Asymptotic Notation
- Analysis of Algorithms II
- Example: Analysis of MergeSort
- Helpful Formulas
Outline

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Course Objectives: What is this course about?

- When first learning to program, we emphasize **correctness**: does your program output the expected results?

- Starting with this course, we will also be concerned with **efficiency**: is your program using the computer’s resources (typically processor time) efficiently?

- We will study efficient methods of **storing**, **accessing**, and **organizing** large collections of data.

- Typical operations include: **inserting** new data items, **deleting** data items, **searching** for specific data items, **sorting**.

- **Motivating examples**: Digital Music Collection, English Dictionary
Course Objectives: What is this course about?

- We will consider various **abstract data types** (ADTs) and how to implement them efficiently using appropriate **data structures**.
- There is a strong emphasis on mathematical analysis in the course.
- Algorithms are presented using pseudo-code and analyzed using order notation (big-Oh, etc.).
Course Topics

- big-Oh analysis
- priority queues and heaps
- sorting, selection
- binary search trees, AVL trees, B-trees
- skip lists
- hashing
- quadtrees, kd-trees
- range search
- tries
- string matching
- data compression
CS Background

Topics covered in previous courses with relevant sections in [Sedgewick]:

- arrays, linked lists (Sec. 3.2–3.4)
- strings (Sec. 3.6)
- stacks, queues (Sec. 4.2–4.6)
- abstract data types (Sec. 4-intro, 4.1, 4.8–4.9)
- recursive algorithms (5.1)
- binary trees (5.4–5.7)
- sorting (6.1–6.4)
- binary search (12.4)
- binary search trees (12.5)
- probability and expectations (Goodrich & Tamassia, Section 1.3.4)
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Problems (terminology)

First, we must introduce terminology so that we can precisely characterize what we mean by efficiency.

**Problem**: Given a problem instance, carry out a particular computational task.

**Problem Instance**: *Input* for the specified problem.

**Problem Solution**: *Output* (correct answer) for the specified problem instance.

**Size of a problem instance**: $\text{Size}(I)$ is a positive integer which is a measure of the size of the instance $I$.

**Example**: Sorting problem
Algorithms and Programs

**Algorithm:** An algorithm is a *step-by-step process* (e.g., described in pseudo-code) for carrying out a series of computations, given an arbitrary problem instance $I$.

**Solving a problem:** An Algorithm $A$ *solves* a problem $\Pi$ if, for every instance $I$ of $\Pi$, $A$ finds (computes) a valid solution for the instance $I$ in finite time.

**Program:** A program is an *implementation* of an algorithm using a specified computer language.

In this course, our emphasis is on algorithms (as opposed to programs or programming).
Pseudo-code: a method of communicating an algorithm to another person.

In contrast, a program is a method of communicating an algorithm to a computer.

Pseudo-code
- omits obvious details, e.g. variable declarations,
- has limited if any error detection,
- sometimes uses English descriptions,
- sometimes uses mathematical notation.
Algorithms and Programs

For a problem $\Pi$, we can have several algorithms.

For an algorithm $\mathcal{A}$ solving $\Pi$, we can have several programs (implementations).

Algorithms in practice: Given a problem $\Pi$

1. Design an algorithm $\mathcal{A}$ that solves $\Pi$. $\rightarrow$ Algorithm Design
2. Assess correctness and efficiency of $\mathcal{A}$. $\rightarrow$ Algorithm Analysis
3. If acceptable (correct and efficient), implement $\mathcal{A}$. 

Biedl, Schost, Veksler (SCS, UW)  
CS240 – Module 1  
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Efficiency of Algorithms/Programs

- How do we decide which algorithm or program is the most efficient solution to a given problem?

- In this course, we are primarily concerned with the amount of time a program takes to run. → Running Time

- We also may be interested in the amount of additional memory the program requires. → Auxiliary space

- The amount of time and/or memory required by a program will depend on \textit{Size}(I), the size of the given problem instance \textit{I}. 
Running Time of Algorithms/Programs

First option: *experimental studies*

- Write a program implementing the algorithm.
- Run the program with inputs of varying size and composition.
- Use a method like `clock()` (from `time.h`) to get an accurate measure of the actual running time.
- Plot/compare the results.
Running Time of Algorithms/Programs

Shortcomings of experimental studies

- Implementation may be complicated/costly.
- Timings are affected by many factors: *hardware* (processor, memory), *software environment* (OS, compiler, programming language), and *human factors* (programmer).
- We cannot test all inputs; what are good *sample inputs*?

We want a framework that:

- Does not require implementing the algorithm.
- Is independent of the hardware/software environment.
- Takes into account all input instances.

We need some *simplifications*.
We will develop several aspects of algorithm analysis in the next slides. To overcome dependency on hardware/software:

- Algorithms are presented in structured high-level pseudo-code which is language-independent.
- Analysis of algorithms is based on an idealized computer model.
- Instead of time, count the number of primitive operations.
- The efficiency of an algorithm (with respect to time) is measured in terms of its growth rate.
Random Access Machine

Random Access Machine (RAM) model:

- A set of memory cells, each of which stores one item (word) of data. Implicit assumption: memory cells are big enough to hold the items that we store.
- Any access to a memory location takes constant time.
- Any primitive operation takes constant time. Implicit assumption: primitive operations have fairly similar, though different, running time on different systems.
- The running time of a program is proportional to the number of memory accesses plus the number of primitive operations.

This is an idealized model, so these assumptions may not be valid for a “real” computer.
Running Time Simplifications

We will simplify our analysis by considering the behaviour of algorithms for large inputs sizes.

- **Example 1:** What is larger, $100n$ or $10n^2$?
- **Example 2:** What is larger, $1000000n + 2000000000000000$ or $0.01n^2$?

- To simplify comparisons, use **order notation**
- Informally: ignore constants and lower order terms
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Order Notation

**$O$-notation:** $f(n) \in O(g(n))$ if there exist constants $c > 0$ and $n_0 > 0$ such that $|f(n)| \leq c |g(n)|$ for all $n \geq n_0$.

Example: $f(n) = 75n + 500$ and $g(n) = 5n^2$ (e.g. $c = 1$, $n_0 = 20$)

**Note:** The absolute value signs in the definition are irrelevant for analysis of run-time or space, but are useful in other applications of asymptotic notation.
Example of Order Notation

In order to prove that \(2n^2 + 3n + 11 \in O(n^2)\) from first principles, we need to find \(c\) and \(n_0\) such that the following condition is satisfied:

\[
0 \leq 2n^2 + 3n + 11 \leq c n^2 \text{ for all } n \geq n_0.
\]

Note that not all choices of \(c\) and \(n_0\) will work.
Aymptotic Lower Bound

- We have $2n^2 + 3n + 11 \in O(n^2)$.
- But we also have $2n^2 + 3n + 11 \in O(n^{10})$.
- We want a tight asymptotic bound.

Ω-notation: $f(n) \in \Omega(g(n))$ if there exist constants $c > 0$ and $n_0 > 0$ such that $c |g(n)| \leq |f(n)|$ for all $n \geq n_0$.

Θ-notation: $f(n) \in \Theta(g(n))$ if there exist constants $c_1, c_2 > 0$ and $n_0 > 0$ such that $c_1 |g(n)| \leq |f(n)| \leq c_2 |g(n)|$ for all $n \geq n_0$.

$$f(n) \in \Theta(g(n)) \Leftrightarrow f(n) \in O(g(n)) \text{ and } f(n) \in \Omega(g(n))$$
Example of Order Notation

Prove that $f(n) = 2n^2 + 3n + 11 \in \Omega(n^2)$ from first principles.

Prove that $\frac{1}{2}n^2 - 5n \in \Omega(n^2)$ from first principles.

Prove that $\log_b(n) \in \Theta(\log n)$ for all $b > 1$ from first principles.
Strictly smaller/larger asymptotic bounds

- We have $f(n) = 2n^2 + 3n + 11 \in \Theta(n^2)$.
- How to express that $f(n)$ is *asymptotically strictly smaller* than $n^3$?

**\(\mathcal{O}\)-notation:** $f(n) \in o(g(n))$ if for all constants $c > 0$, there exists a constant $n_0 > 0$ such that $|f(n)| \leq c |g(n)|$ for all $n \geq n_0$.

**\(\omega\)-notation:** $f(n) \in \omega(g(n))$ if $g(n) \in o(f(n))$.
- Rarely proved from first principles.
Algebra of Order Notations

Identity rule: $f(n) \in \Theta(f(n))$

Transitivity:

- If $f(n) \in O(g(n))$ and $g(n) \in O(h(n))$ then $f(n) \in O(h(n))$.
- If $f(n) \in \Omega(g(n))$ and $g(n) \in \Omega(h(n))$ then $f(n) \in \Omega(h(n))$.

Maximum rules: Suppose that $f(n) > 0$ and $g(n) > 0$ for all $n \geq n_0$. Then:

- $O(f(n) + g(n)) = O(\max\{f(n), g(n)\})$
- $\Omega(f(n) + g(n)) = \Omega(\max\{f(n), g(n)\})$
Techniques for Order Notation

Suppose that \( f(n) > 0 \) and \( g(n) > 0 \) for all \( n \geq n_0 \). Suppose that

\[
L = \lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{f(n)}{g(n)} \quad \text{(in particular, the limit exists)}.
\]

Then

\[
f(n) \in \begin{cases} 
  o(g(n)) & \text{if } L = 0 \\
  \Theta(g(n)) & \text{if } 0 < L < \infty \\
  \omega(g(n)) & \text{if } L = \infty.
\end{cases}
\]

The required limit can often be computed using \( l'Hôpital's \) rule. Note that this result gives \textit{sufficient} (but not necessary) conditions for the stated conclusions to hold.
Example 1
Let $f(n)$ be a polynomial of degree $d \geq 0$:

$$f(n) = c_d n^d + c_{d-1} n^{d-1} + \cdots + c_1 n + c_0$$

for some $c_d > 0$.

Then $f(n) \in \Theta(n^d)$:
Example 2

Prove that \( n(2 + \sin n\pi/2) \) is \( \Theta(n) \). Note that \( \lim_{n \to \infty} (2 + \sin n\pi/2) \) does not exist.
Relationships between Order Notations

- $f(n) \in \Theta(g(n)) \iff g(n) \in \Theta(f(n))$
- $f(n) \in O(g(n)) \iff g(n) \in \Omega(f(n))$
- $f(n) \in o(g(n)) \iff g(n) \in \omega(f(n))$

- $f(n) \in o(g(n)) \Rightarrow f(n) \in O(g(n))$
- $f(n) \in o(g(n)) \Rightarrow f(n) \not\in \Omega(g(n))$
- $f(n) \in \omega(g(n)) \Rightarrow f(n) \in \Omega(g(n))$
- $f(n) \in \omega(g(n)) \Rightarrow f(n) \not\in O(g(n))$
Growth Rates

- If $f(n) \in \Theta(g(n))$, then the growth rates of $f(n)$ and $g(n)$ are the same.
- If $f(n) \in o(g(n))$, then we say that the growth rate of $f(n)$ is less than the growth rate of $g(n)$.
- If $f(n) \in \omega(g(n))$, then we say that the growth rate of $f(n)$ is greater than the growth rate of $g(n)$.
- Typically, $f(n)$ may be “complicated” and $g(n)$ is chosen to be a very simple function.
Example 3

Compare the growth rates of \( \log n \) and \( n \).

Now compare the growth rates of \((\log n)^c\) and \(n^d\) (where \(c > 0\) and \(d > 0\) are arbitrary numbers).
Common Growth Rates

Commonly encountered growth rates in analysis of algorithms include the following (in increasing order of growth rate):

- $\Theta(1)$ (*constant complexity*),
- $\Theta(\log n)$ (*logarithmic complexity*),
- $\Theta(n)$ (*linear complexity*),
- $\Theta(n \log n)$ (*linearithmic*),
- $\Theta(n \log^k n)$, for some constant $k$ (*quasi-linear*),
- $\Theta(n^2)$ (*quadratic complexity*),
- $\Theta(n^3)$ (*cubic complexity*),
- $\Theta(2^n)$ (*exponential complexity*).
How Growth Rates Affect Running Time

It is interesting to see how the running time is affected when the size of the problem instance doubles (i.e., $n \rightarrow 2n$).

- **constant complexity**: $T(n) = c$ \implies T(2n) = c.
- **logarithmic complexity**: $T(n) = c \log n$ \implies T(2n) = T(n) + c.
- **linear complexity**: $T(n) = cn$ \implies T(2n) = 2T(n).
- **linearithmic $\Theta(n \log n)$**: $T(n) = cn \log n$ \implies T(2n) = 2T(n) + 2cn.
- **quadratic complexity**: $T(n) = cn^2$ \implies T(2n) = 4T(n).
- **cubic complexity**: $T(n) = cn^3$ \implies T(2n) = 8T(n).
- **exponential complexity**: $T(n) = c2^n$ \implies T(2n) = (T(n))^2 / c.
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Techniques for Algorithm Analysis

- Goal: Use asymptotic notation to simplify run-time analysis.
- Running time of an algorithm depends on the input size $n$.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Test1($n$)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. $\text{sum} \leftarrow 0$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. for $i \leftarrow 1$ to $n$ do</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. for $j \leftarrow i$ to $n$ do</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. $\text{sum} \leftarrow \text{sum} + (i - j)^2$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. return sum</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

- Identify primitive operations that require $\Theta(1)$ time.
- The complexity of a loop is expressed as the sum of the complexities of each iteration of the loop.
- Nested loops: start with the innermost loop and proceed outwards. This gives nested summations.
Techniques for Algorithm Analysis

Two general strategies are as follows.

**Strategy I:** Use $\Theta$-bounds *throughout the analysis* and obtain a $\Theta$-bound for the complexity of the algorithm.

**Strategy II:** Prove a $O$-bound and a matching $\Omega$-bound *separately*. Use upper bounds (for $O$-bounds) and lower bounds (for $\Omega$-bound) early and frequently. This may be easier because upper/lower bounds are easier to sum.

```plaintext
Test2(A, n)
1. max ← 0
2. for i ← 1 to n do
3.     for j ← i to n do
4.         sum ← 0
5.         for k ← i to j do
6.             sum ← A[k]
7.     return max
```
Complexity of Algorithms

- Algorithm can have different running times on two instances of the same size.

\[
\text{Test3}(A, n)
\]
\begin{align*}
A: \text{array of size } n \\
1. & \quad \text{for } i \leftarrow 1 \text{ to } n - 1 \text{ do} \\
2. & \quad j \leftarrow i \\
3. & \quad \text{while } j > 0 \text{ and } A[j] > A[j - 1] \text{ do} \\
4. & \quad \text{swap } A[j] \text{ and } A[j - 1] \\
5. & \quad j \leftarrow j - 1
\end{align*}

Let \( T_A(I) \) denote the running time of an algorithm \( A \) on instance \( I \).

**Worst-case complexity** of an algorithm: take the worst \( I \)

**Average-case complexity** of an algorithm: average over \( I \)
Complexity of Algorithms

**Worst-case complexity of an algorithm:** The worst-case running time of an algorithm $\mathcal{A}$ is a function $f : \mathbb{Z}^+ \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ mapping $n$ (the input size) to the longest running time for any input instance of size $n$:

$$T_{\mathcal{A}}(n) = \max\{T_{\mathcal{A}}(I) : \text{Size}(I) = n\}.$$ 

**Average-case complexity of an algorithm:** The average-case running time of an algorithm $\mathcal{A}$ is a function $f : \mathbb{Z}^+ \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ mapping $n$ (the input size) to the average running time of $\mathcal{A}$ over all instances of size $n$:

$$T_{\mathcal{A}}^{\text{avg}}(n) = \frac{1}{|\{I : \text{Size}(I) = n\}|} \sum_{\{I : \text{Size}(I) = n\}} T_{\mathcal{A}}(I).$$
O-notation and Complexity of Algorithms

- It is important not to try and make *comparisons* between algorithms using O-notation.

- For example, suppose algorithm $A_1$ and $A_2$ both solve the same problem, $A_1$ has worst-case run-time $O(n^3)$ and $A_2$ has worst-case run-time $O(n^2)$.

- Observe that we *cannot* conclude that $A_2$ is more efficient than $A_1$ for all input!
  
    1. The worst-case run-time may only be achieved on some instances.
    2. O-notation is an upper bound. $A_1$ may well have worst-case run-time $O(n)$. If we want to be able to compare algorithms, we should always use $\Theta$-notation.
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Design of MergeSort

Input: Array $A$ of $n$ integers

- **Step 1:** We split $A$ into two subarrays: $A_L$ consists of the first $\left\lfloor \frac{n}{2} \right\rfloor$ elements in $A$ and $A_R$ consists of the last $\left\lfloor \frac{n}{2} \right\rfloor$ elements in $A$.

- **Step 2:** *Recursively* run *MergeSort* on $A_L$ and $A_R$.

- **Step 3:** After $A_L$ and $A_R$ have been sorted, use a function *Merge* to merge them into a single sorted array.
MergeSort

\[
\text{MergeSort}(A, \ell \leftarrow 0, r \leftarrow n - 1, S \leftarrow \text{NIL})
\]

\(A\): array of size \(n\), \(0 \leq \ell \leq r \leq n - 1\)

1. \textbf{if} \(S\) is NIL \textbf{ then} initialize it as array \(S[0..n-1]\)
2. \textbf{if} \((r \leq \ell)\) \textbf{ then}
   3. return
4. \textbf{else}
   5. \(m = (r + \ell)/2\)
   6. \text{MergeSort}(A, \ell, m, S)
   7. \text{MergeSort}(A, m + 1, r, S)
   8. \text{Merge}(A, \ell, m, r, S)

Two tricks to reduce run-time and auxiliary space:

- The recursion uses parameters that indicate the range of the array that needs to be sorted.
- The array used for copying is passed along as parameter.
Merge

\textit{Merge}(A, \ell, m, r, S)

\begin{itemize}
  \item A[0..n − 1] is an array, A[\ell..m] is sorted, A[m + 1..r] is sorted
  \item S[0..n − 1] is an array
  \item copy A[\ell..r] into S[\ell..r]
  \item int i_L ← \ell; int i_R ← m + 1;
  \item for (k ← \ell; k ≤ r; k++) do
  \item \hspace{1em} if (i_L > m) A[k] ← S[i_R++]
  \item \hspace{1em} else if (i_R > r) A[k] ← S[i_L++]
  \item \hspace{1em} else if (S[i_L] ≤ S[i_R]) A[k] ← S[i_L++]
  \item \hspace{1em} else A[k] ← S[i_R++]
\end{itemize}

\textit{Merge} takes time \(\Theta(r − \ell + 1)\), i.e., \(\Theta(n)\) time for merging \(n\) elements.
Analysis of MergeSort

Let $T(n)$ denote the time to run MergeSort on an array of length $n$.

- creating $S$ takes time $\Theta(n)$
- recursive calls take time $T(\lceil \frac{n}{2} \rceil) + T(\lfloor \frac{n}{2} \rfloor)$
- merging takes time $\Theta(n)$

The recurrence relation for $T(n)$ is as follows:

$$T(n) = \begin{cases} 
T(\lceil \frac{n}{2} \rceil) + T(\lfloor \frac{n}{2} \rfloor) + \Theta(n) & \text{if } n > 1 \\
\Theta(1) & \text{if } n = 1.
\end{cases}$$

It suffices to consider the following exact recurrence, with constant factor $c$ replacing $\Theta$’s:

$$T(n) = \begin{cases} 
T(\lceil \frac{n}{2} \rceil) + T(\lfloor \frac{n}{2} \rfloor) + cn & \text{if } n > 1 \\
c & \text{if } n = 1.
\end{cases}$$
Analysis of MergeSort

- The following is the corresponding **sloppy recurrence** (it has floors and ceilings removed):
  \[
  T(n) = \begin{cases} 
  2T\left(\frac{n}{2}\right) + cn & \text{if } n > 1 \\
  c & \text{if } n = 1.
  \end{cases}
  \]

- The exact and sloppy recurrences are *identical* when \( n \) is a power of 2.
- The recurrence can easily be solved by various methods when \( n = 2^i \). The solution has growth rate \( T(n) \in \Theta(n \log n) \).
- It is possible to show that \( T(n) \in \Theta(n \log n) \) *for all* \( n \) by analyzing the exact recurrence.
### Some Recurrence Relations

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<thead>
<tr>
<th>Recursion</th>
<th>resolves to</th>
<th>example</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>$T(n) = T(n/2) + \Theta(1)$</td>
<td>$T(n) \in \Theta(\log n)$</td>
<td>Binary search</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$T(n) = 2T(n/2) + \Theta(n)$</td>
<td>$T(n) \in \Theta(n \log n)$</td>
<td>Mergesort</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$T(n) = 2T(n/2) + \Theta(\log n)$</td>
<td>$T(n) \in \Theta(n)$</td>
<td>Heapify ($\rightarrow$ later)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$T(n) = T(cn) + \Theta(n)$ for some $0 &lt; c &lt; 1$</td>
<td>$T(n) \in \Theta(n)$</td>
<td>Selection ($\rightarrow$ later)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$T(n) = 2T(n/4) + \Theta(1)$</td>
<td>$T(n) \in \Theta(\sqrt{n})$</td>
<td>Range Search ($\rightarrow$ later)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$T(n) = T(\sqrt{n}) + \Theta(1)$</td>
<td>$T(n) \in \Theta(\log \log n)$</td>
<td>Interpolation Search ($\rightarrow$ later)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

- Once you know the result, it is (usually) easy to prove by induction.
- Many more recursions, and some methods to find the result, in cs341.
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**Order Notation Summary**

**O-notation:** \( f(n) \in O(g(n)) \) if there exist constants \( c > 0 \) and \( n_0 > 0 \) such that \( |f(n)| \leq c \cdot |g(n)| \) for all \( n \geq n_0 \).

**Ω-notation:** \( f(n) \in \Omega(g(n)) \) if there exist constants \( c > 0 \) and \( n_0 > 0 \) such that \( c \cdot |g(n)| \leq |f(n)| \) for all \( n \geq n_0 \).

**Θ-notation:** \( f(n) \in \Theta(g(n)) \) if there exist constants \( c_1, c_2 > 0 \) and \( n_0 > 0 \) such that \( c_1 \cdot |g(n)| \leq |f(n)| \leq c_2 \cdot |g(n)| \) for all \( n \geq n_0 \).

**o-notation:** \( f(n) \in o(g(n)) \) if for all constants \( c > 0 \), there exists a constant \( n_0 > 0 \) such that \( |f(n)| \leq c \cdot |g(n)| \) for all \( n \geq n_0 \).

**ω-notation:** \( f(n) \in \omega(g(n)) \) if for all constants \( c > 0 \), there exists a constant \( n_0 > 0 \) such that \( c \cdot |g(n)| \leq |f(n)| \) for all \( n \geq n_0 \).
Useful Sums

**Arithmetic sequence:**

\[ \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} i = ??? \]

\[ \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} (a + di) = na + \frac{dn(n-1)}{2} \in \Theta(n^2) \quad \text{if} \ d \neq 0. \]

**Geometric sequence:**

\[ \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} 2^i = ??? \]

\[ \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} a r^i = \begin{cases} 
    a \frac{r^n - 1}{r - 1} & \in \Theta(r^{n-1}) \quad \text{if} \ r > 1 \\
    na & \in \Theta(n) \quad \text{if} \ r = 1 \\
    a \frac{1 - r^n}{1 - r} & \in \Theta(1) \quad \text{if} \ 0 < r < 1.
\end{cases} \]

**Harmonic sequence:**

\[ \sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{1}{i} = ??? \]

\[ H_n := \sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{1}{i} = \ln n + \gamma + o(1) \in \Theta(\log n) \]

**A few more:**

\[ \sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{1}{i^2} = ??? \]

\[ \sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{1}{i^2} = \frac{\pi^2}{6} \in \Theta(1) \]

\[ \sum_{i=1}^{n} i^k = ??? \]

\[ \sum_{i=1}^{n} i^k \in \Theta(n^{k+1}) \quad \text{for} \ k \geq 0 \]
Useful Math Facts

Logarithms:
- \( c = \log_b(a) \) means \( b^c = a \). E.g. \( n = 2^{\log n} \).
- \( \log(a) \) (in this course) means \( \log_2(a) \)
- \( \log(a \cdot c) = \log(a) + \log(c) \), \( \log(a^c) = c \log(a) \)
- \( \log_b(a) = \frac{\log_c a}{\log_c b} = \frac{1}{\log_a(b)} \), \( a^{\log_b c} = c^{\log_b a} \)
- \( \ln(x) = \text{natural log} = \log_e(x) \), \( \frac{d}{dx} \ln x = \frac{1}{x} \)
- concavity: \( \alpha \log x + (1-\alpha) \log y \leq \log(\alpha x + (1-\alpha) y) \) for \( 0 \leq \alpha \leq 1 \)

Factorial:
- \( n! := n(n-1)(n-2) \cdots 2 \cdot 1 \) = \( \# \) ways to permute \( n \) elements
- \( \log(n!) = \log n + \log(n-1) + \cdots + \log 2 + \log 1 \in \Theta(n \log n) \)

Probability and moments:
- \( E[aX] = aE[X] \), \( E[X + Y] = E[X] + E[Y] \) (linearity of expectation)