

Asymptotic Notation and Mathematical Induction

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1 Asymptotic Notation

The following list of notations is used to simplify the specification of algorithm complexity.

Definition: 1.1 $O(g(n)) = \{f(n) | \exists c, n_0 > 0, \text{ such that } f(n) \leq c \cdot g(n) \forall n \geq n_0\}$ i.e. $g(n)$ sits above $f(n)$ when their graphs are drawn, after some point n_0 . Refer Figure (1).

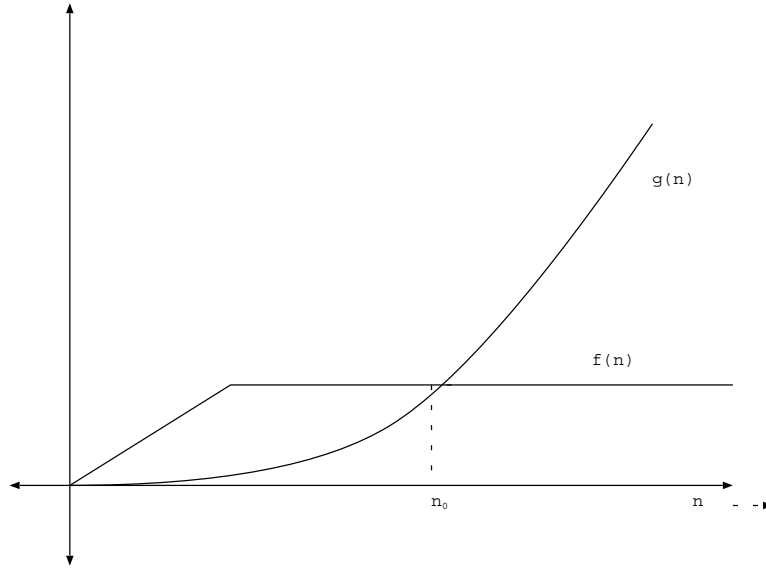


Figure 1: Growth of functions

Definition: 1.2 $\Omega(g(n)) = \{f(n) | \exists c, n_0 > 0, \text{ such that } f(n) \geq c \cdot g(n) \forall n \geq n_0\}$ i.e. $g(n)$ sits below $f(n)$ when their graphs are drawn, after some point n_0 .

Definition: 1.3 $\Theta(g(n)) = \{f(n) | \exists c_1, c_2, n_0 > 0, \text{ such that } c_1 \cdot g(n) \leq f(n) \leq c_2 \cdot g(n) \forall n \geq n_0\}$ i.e. $f(n)$ is sandwiched by $g(n)$ for appropriately chosen constants c_1 and c_2 , when their graphs are drawn, after some point n_0 .

Definition: 1.4 $o(g(n)) = \{f(n) | \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{f(n)}{g(n)} = 0\}$ i.e. $g(n)$ grows asymptotically faster than $f(n)$

Definition: 1.5 $\omega(g(n)) = \{f(n) | \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{g(n)}{f(n)} = 0\}$ i.e. $f(n)$ grows asymptotically faster than $g(n)$

Remark: 1.1 The asymptotic notation denotes a relationship and not a function i.e. the correct style is $f(n) \in O(g(n))$ and not $f(n) = O(g(n))$; however, over the years Computer Scientists have preferred the later notation scheme. But never forget that although we use equality it is actually a set inclusion symbol.

Lemma: 1.1 $f(n) = O(g(n))$ if and only if $g(n) = \Omega(f(n))$

Lemma: 1.2 $f(n) = o(g(n))$ if and only if $g(n) = \omega(f(n))$

Lemma: 1.3 $f(n) = \Theta(g(n))$ if and only if $f(n) = O(g(n))$ and $f(n) = \Omega(g(n))$.

1.1 How to compare two polynomial functions

First, we can always write a polynomial in the form

$$a_d \cdot n^d + a_{d-1} \cdot n^{d-1} + \dots a_0$$

as $\Theta(n^d)$. Note that a constant function is denoted by $O(1)$. Further, $O(1) \in O(n) \in O(n^2) \in O(n^3) \dots$; Likewise $\dots \in \Omega(n^d) \in \Omega(n^{d-1}) \in \dots \Omega(1)$.

2 Laws of exponents

For all real $a \neq 0, m$ and n , we have

$$a^0 = 1. \tag{1}$$

$$a^1 = a. \tag{2}$$

$$a^{-1} = 1/a. \tag{3}$$

$$(a^m)^n = a^{m \cdot n}. \tag{4}$$

$$(a^m)^n = (a^n)^m. \tag{5}$$

$$a^m \cdot a^n = a^{m+n}. \tag{6}$$

Remark: 2.1 Exponential functions grow at a much faster rate than any polynomial. Observe that, given $a > 1$ and b ,

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{n^b}{a^n} = 0, \tag{7}$$

by L'Hospital's rule. Hence, $n^b = o(a^n)$.

3 Laws of Logarithms

For all $a > 0, b > 0, c > 0$ and n

$$a = b^{\log_b a} \tag{8}$$

$$\log(ab) = \log a + \log b \tag{9}$$

$$\log a^n = n \cdot \log a \tag{10}$$

$$\log_b a = \frac{1}{\log_a b} = \frac{\log_c a}{\log_c b} \quad (11)$$

$$a^{\log_b n} = n^{\log_b a} \quad (12)$$

3.1 Abbreviations

- $\lg n = \log_2 n$
- $\ln n = \log_e n$
- $\log^k n = (\log n)^k$
- $\log \log n = \log(\log n)$
- Iterated log:

$$\begin{aligned} \log^i n &= n, \text{ if } i = 0, \\ &= \log(\log^{(i-1)} n), \text{ if } i > 0 \text{ and } \log^{(i-1)} n > 0. \end{aligned} \quad (13)$$

$$(14)$$

Then, we define

$$\log^* n = \min\{i \geq 0 : \log^{(i)} n \leq 1\}, \quad (15)$$

as the iterated log function. In other words, $\log^* n$ is the smallest integer i , such that after applying the log function i times repeatedly, the resultant quantity sinks below 1. The iterated log function has the smallest growth rate other than a constant function (remember that the constant function $f(n) = c$ does not grow at all!). When $n = 2^{65536}$, $\log^* n = 5!!$

Remark: 3.1 Substitute $\lg n$ for n and 2^a for a in Equation (7), we get

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\lg^b n}{2^{a \cdot \lg n}} = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\lg^b n}{n^a} = 0 \quad (16)$$

Thus, we have

$$\lg^b n = o(n^a),$$

for any $a > 0$ i.e. the log function does not grow as fast as polynomial functions. (Make sure that you can derive this equality).

You now have the machinery to compare function growth rates.

4 Mathematical Induction

Mathematical induction is a general purpose tool of testing out a hypothesis. The drawback of this technique is that the hypothesis must be supplied!

For example, let us say that we want a closed form representation of the sum

$$S_n = 1 + 2 + \dots + n = \sum_{i=1}^n i \quad (17)$$

Further assume that some good samaritan gave us the hypothesis that the closed form function is $\frac{n \cdot (n+1)}{2}$. We need to check that the samaritan is not deceiving us.

So our Proposition is :

$$P(n) : S_n = \frac{n \cdot (n+1)}{2}, \forall n = 1, 2, \dots$$

Induction proceeds by two steps:

1. Step 1: The base case. Is $P(1)$ true? The Left Hand Side (LHS) is $S_1 = 1$ and the RHS is $\frac{1 \cdot (1+1)}{2}$, which is 1. Thus, LHS = RHS and $P(1)$ is true. Thus, the samaritan is correct at least when $n = 1$. This step is called *base confirmation*.
2. Step 2: The Inductive step: Here we assume that the samaritan is correct when $n = k$ i.e $P(k)$ is true and show that the formula must also hold for $n = k + 1$ i.e. $P(k + 1)$. Thus, we want to show that

$$P(k) \Rightarrow P(k + 1)$$

In our case, assuming that $P(k)$ is true gives $S_k = \frac{k \cdot (k+1)}{2}$. What is $P(k + 1)$? On the LHS it is

$$\begin{aligned} S_{k+1} &= 1 + 2 + \dots k + (k + 1) \\ \Rightarrow S_{k+1} &= (1 + 2 + \dots k) + (k + 1) \\ \Rightarrow S_{k+1} &= S_k + (k + 1) \end{aligned}$$

Since $P(k)$ is true by assumption, we can set $S_k = \frac{k \cdot (k+1)}{2}$

$$\begin{aligned} \Rightarrow S_{k+1} &= \frac{k \cdot (k + 1)}{2} + (k + 1) \\ \Rightarrow S_{k+1} &= \frac{(k + 1) \cdot (k + 2)}{2} \end{aligned}$$

which is exactly what we would obtain by substituting $(k + 1)$ in the samaritan's formula (= RHS). Thus we have,

$$P(k) \Rightarrow P(k + 1).$$

Since $P(1)$ is true, we can then conclude that $P(2)$ is true and hence $P(3)$ is true and $P(n)$ is true for all n . Thus the samaritan was good after all.

Remark: 4.1 Show that

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