CS 240 – Data Structures and Data Management

Module 1: Introduction and Asymptotic Analysis

T. Biedl  M. Petrick  O. Veksler
Based on lecture notes by many previous cs240 instructors

David R. Cheriton School of Computer Science, University of Waterloo

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References: Goodrich & Tamassia 1.1, 1.2, 1.3
Sedgewick 8.2, 8.3
Outline

1 Introduction and Asymptotic Analysis
   - CS240 Overview
   - Algorithm Design
   - Analysis of Algorithms I
   - Asymptotic Notation
   - Analysis of Algorithms II
   - Example: Analysis of MergeSort
   - Helpful Formulas
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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 performing operations on 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 pseudocode 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
Algorithm: An algorithm is a step-by-step process (e.g., described in pseudocode) for carrying out a series of computations, given an arbitrary problem instance $I$.

Algorithm 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).
Algorithms and Programs

**Pseudocode**: a method of communicating an algorithm to another person.

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

Pseudocode

- 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 $A$ solving $\Pi$, we can have several programs (implementations).

Algorithms in practice: Given a problem $\Pi$

1. Design an algorithm $A$ that solves $\Pi$. $\rightarrow$ **Algorithm Design**

2. Assess *correctness* and *efficiency* of $A$. $\rightarrow$ **Algorithm Analysis**

3. If acceptable (correct and efficient), implement $A$. 
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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 memory the program requires. → Space
- The amount of time and/or memory required by a program will depend on Size(I), the size of the given problem instance 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 cannot easily compare two algorithms/programs.

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.
Overview of Algorithm Analysis

We will develop several aspects of algorithm analysis in the next slides.

- Algorithms are presented in structured high-level \textit{pseudocode} which is language-independent.
- Analysis of algorithms is based on an \textit{idealized computer model}.
- The efficiency of an algorithm (with respect to time) is measured in terms of its \textit{growth rate} (this is called the \textit{complexity} of the algorithm).
Running Time Simplifications

**Overcome dependency on hardware/software**

- Express algorithms using *pseudo-code*
- Instead of time, count the number of *primitive operations*
- Implicit assumption: primitive operations have fairly similar, though different, running time on different systems

**Random Access Machine (RAM) Model:**

- The *random access machine* has a set of memory cells, each of which stores one item (word) of data.
- Any *access to a memory location* takes constant time.
- Any *primitive operation* takes constant time.
- The *running time* of a program can be computed to be 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

Simplify Comparisons

- Example: Compare $100n$ with $10n^2$
- Idea: Use order notation
- Informally: ignore constants and lower order terms

We will simplify our analysis by considering the behaviour of algorithms for large inputs sizes.
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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. $c = 1$, $n_0 = 20$)

![Graph showing linear and quadratic growth]

**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:

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

Note that not all choices of $c$ and $n_0$ will work.
Asymptotic 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 $n \geq n_0$.

$$f(n) \in \Theta(g(n)) \iff f(n) \in O(g(n)) \text{ and } f(n) \in \Omega(g(n))$$
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.
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 $n^3$?

**$o$-notation:** $f(n) \in o(g(n))$ if for all constants $c > 0$, there exists a constant $n_0 > 0$ such that $|f(n)| < c |g(n)|$ 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.
Relationships between Order Notations

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

- \( f(n) \in o(g(n)) \Rightarrow f(n) \in O(g(n)) \)
- \( f(n) \in o(g(n)) \Rightarrow f(n) \not\in \Omega(g(n)) \)
- \( f(n) \in \omega(g(n)) \Rightarrow f(n) \in \Omega(g(n)) \)
- \( f(n) \in \omega(g(n)) \Rightarrow f(n) \not\in O(g(n)) \)
Algebra of Order Notations

“Identity” rule: \( f(n) \in \Theta(f(n)) \)

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

- \( O(f(n) + g(n)) = O(\max\{f(n), g(n)\}) \)
- \( \Omega(f(n) + g(n)) = \Omega(\max\{f(n), g(n)\}) \)

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 \( f(n) \in \Omega(h(n)) \).
Techniques for Order Notation

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

$$L = \lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{f(n)}{g(n)}$$

(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 \textit{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.
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* \( n \).

\[
\text{Test1}(n)
\begin{align*}
1. & \quad \text{sum} \leftarrow 0 \\
2. & \quad \text{for } i \leftarrow 1 \text{ to } n \text{ do} \\
3. & \quad \quad \text{for } j \leftarrow i \text{ to } n \text{ do} \\
4. & \quad \quad \quad \text{sum} \leftarrow \text{sum} + (i - j)^2 \\
5. & \quad \text{return } \text{sum}
\end{align*}
\]

- Identify *elementary 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.

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

- 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.

\begin{verbatim}
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
\end{verbatim}
Complexity of Algorithms

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

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

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 \( A \) 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 \( n \):

\[
T_A(n) = \max\{ T_A(I) : \text{Size}(I) = n \}.
\]

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

\[
T_A^{\text{avg}}(n) = \frac{1}{|\{I : \text{Size}(I) = n\}|} \sum_{\{I : \text{Size}(I) = n\}} T_A(I).
\]
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 $\lceil \frac{n}{2} \rceil$ elements in $A$ and $A_R$ consists of the last $\lfloor \frac{n}{2} \rfloor$ 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

To avoid copying sub-arrays, the recursion uses parameters that indicate the range of the array that needs to be sorted.

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

\begin{enumerate}
\item \textbf{if} \((r \leq \ell)\) \textbf{then}
\item \hspace{1cm} return
\item \textbf{else}
\item \hspace{1cm} \(m = (r + \ell)/2\)
\item \hspace{1cm} \text{MergeSort}(A, \ell, m)
\item \hspace{1cm} \text{MergeSort}(A, m + 1, r)
\item \hspace{1cm} \text{Merge}(A, \ell, m, r)
\end{enumerate}
Merge

\[
Merge(A, \ell, m, r)
\]
\[A[0..n-1] \text{ is an array, } A[\ell..m] \text{ is sorted, } A[m+1..r] \text{ is sorted}
\]
1. initialize auxiliary array \(S[0..n-1]\)
2. copy \(A[\ell..r]\) into \(S[\ell..r]\)
3. \(\text{int } i_L \leftarrow \ell; \text{int } i_R \leftarrow m + 1;\)
4. \(\text{for } (k \leftarrow \ell; k \leq r; k++) \text{ do}\)
5. \(\text{if } (i_L > m) \ A[k] \leftarrow S[i_R++]\)
6. \(\text{elseif } (i_R > r) \ A[k] \leftarrow S[i_L++]\)
7. \(\text{elseif } (S[i_L] \leq S[i_R]) \ A[k] \leftarrow S[i_L++]\)
8. \(\text{else } A[k] \leftarrow S[i_R++]\)

Sedgewick’s code is slightly more complicated to avoid having to check whether \(i_R\) and \(i_L\) are out-of-boundary.

\(Merge\) takes time \(\Theta(r - l + 1)\), 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 $n$.

- Step 1 takes time $\Theta(n)$
- Step 2 takes time $T(\lceil \frac{n}{2} \rceil) + T(\lfloor \frac{n}{2} \rfloor)$
- Step 3 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):

\[ T(n) = \begin{cases} 
2 \frac{T(n)}{2} + cn & \text{if } n > 1 \\
\ c & \text{if } n = 1.
\end{cases} \]

- The exact and sloppy recurrences are identical when \( n \) is a power of 2.
- The recurrence can easily be solved by various methods when \( n = 2^j \).
  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

<table>
<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 (→ 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 (→ later)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$T(n) = 2T(n/4) + \Theta(1)$</td>
<td>$T(n) \in \Theta(\sqrt{n})$</td>
<td>Range Search (→ 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 (→ 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 $|f(n)| \leq c |g(n)|$ for all $n \geq n_0$.

**$\Omega$-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 $n \geq n_0$.

**$\Theta$-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 $n \geq n_0$.

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

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

**Arithmetic sequence:**

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

**Geometric sequence:**

\[ \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} 2^i = ??? \]
\[ \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} a r^i = \begin{cases} 
    a \frac{r^n - 1}{r - 1} & \in \Theta(r^{n-1}) \text{ if } r > 1 \\
    na & \in \Theta(n) \text{ if } r = 1 \\
    a \frac{1 - r^n}{1 - r} & \in \Theta(1) \text{ if } 0 < r < 1.
\end{cases} \]

**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:**

\[ \sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{1}{i^2} = ??? \]
\[ \sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{1}{i^2} = \frac{\pi^2}{6} \in \Theta(1) \]
\[ \sum_{i=1}^{n} i^k = ??? \]
\[ \sum_{i=1}^{n} i^k \in \Theta(n^{k+1}) \text{ for } k \geq 0 \]
Useful Math Facts

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

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

Probability and moments: