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Adapted From Virginia Williams' lecture notes. Additional credits: J. Su, W. Yang, Gregory Valiant, Mary Wootters, Aviad Rubinstein, Sami Alsheikh.

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## Asymptotics and Worst-Case Analysis

### 1 Asymptotic Notation

To talk about the running time of algorithms, we will use the following notation.  $T(n)$  denotes the runtime of an algorithm on input of size  $n$ .

#### 1.1 “Big-Oh” Notation:

Intuitively, Big-Oh notation gives an upper bound on a function. We say  $T(n)$  is  $O(f(n))$  when as  $n$  gets big,  $f(n)$  grows at least as quickly as  $T(n)$ . Formally, we say

$$T(n) = O(f(n)) \iff \exists c, n_0 > 0 \text{ s.t. } \forall n \geq n_0, 0 \leq T(n) \leq c \cdot f(n)$$

#### 1.2 “Big-Omega” Notation:

Intuitively, Big-Omega notation gives a lower bound on a function. We say  $T(n)$  is  $\Omega(f(n))$  when as  $n$  gets big,  $f(n)$  grows at least as slowly as  $T(n)$ . Formally, we say

$$T(n) = \Omega(f(n)) \iff \exists c, n_0 > 0 \text{ s.t. } \forall n \geq n_0, 0 \leq c \cdot f(n) \leq T(n)$$

#### 1.3 “Big-Theta” Notation:

Intuitively, Big-Theta notation gives both a lower and upper bound on a function. We say  $T(n)$  is  $\Theta(f(n))$  if and only if  $T(n) = O(f(n))$  and  $T(n) = \Omega(f(n))$ .

$$T(n) = \Theta(f(n)) \iff \exists c_1, c_2, n_0 > 0 \text{ s.t. } \forall n \geq n_0, 0 \leq c_1 f(n) \leq T(n) \leq c_2 f(n)$$

We can see that these notations really do capture exactly the behavior that we want - namely, to focus on the rate of growth of a function as the inputs get large, ignoring constant factors and lower order terms. As a sanity check, consider the following example and non-example.

**Claim 1.** All degree- $k$  polynomials<sup>1</sup> are  $O(n^k)$ . *Proof.* Suppose  $T(n)$  is a degree- $k$  polynomial. That is,  $T(n) = a_k n^k + \dots + a_1 n + a_0$  for some choice of  $a_i$ 's where  $a_k \neq 0$ . To show

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<sup>1</sup>To be more precise, all degree- $k$  polynomials  $T$  such that  $T(n) \geq 0$  for all  $n \geq 1$ . How would you adapt this proof to be true for all degree- $k$  polynomials  $T$  with positive leading coefficients?

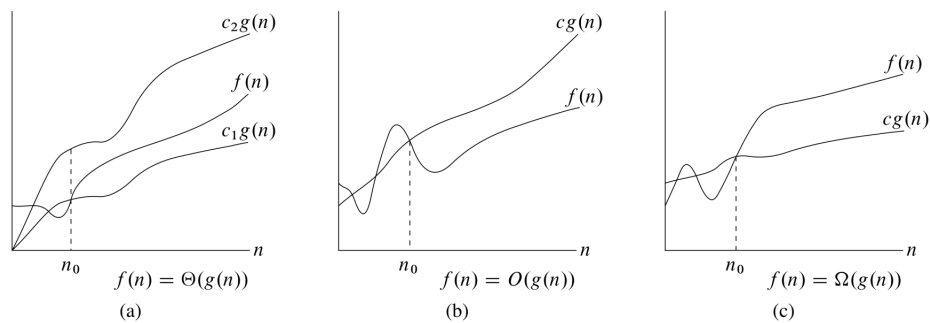


Figure 1: Figure 3.1 from CLRS - Examples of Asymptotic Bounds. (Note: In these examples,  $f(n)$  corresponds to our  $T(n)$  and  $g(n)$  to our  $f(n)$ ).

that  $T(n)$  is  $O(n^k)$  we must find a  $c$  and  $n_0$  such that for all  $n \geq n_0$ ,  $T(n) \leq c \cdot n^k$ . (Since  $T(n)$  represents the running time of an algorithm, we assume it is positive.) Let  $n_0 = 1$  and let  $a^* = \max_i |a_i|$ . We can bound  $T(n)$  as follows:

$$\begin{aligned}
 T(n) &= a_k n^k + \dots + a_1 n + a_0 \\
 &\leq a^* n^k + \dots + a^* n + a^* \\
 &\leq a^* n^k + \dots + a^* n^k + a^* n^k \\
 &= (k + 1)a^* \cdot n^k
 \end{aligned}$$

Let  $c = (k + 1)a^*$  which is constant, independent of  $n$ . Thus, we've exhibited  $c, n_0$  which satisfy the Big-Oh definition, so  $T(n) = O(n^k)$ .

**Claim 2.** For any  $k \geq 1$ ,  $n^k$  is not  $O(n^{k-1})$ . *Proof.* By contradiction. Assume  $n^k = O(n^{k-1})$ . Then there is some choice of  $c$  and  $n_0$  such that  $n^k \leq c \cdot n^{k-1}$  for all  $n \geq n_0$ . But this in turn means that  $n \leq c$  for all  $n \geq n_0$ , which contradicts the fact that  $c$  is a constant, independent of  $n$ . Thus, our original assumption was false and  $n^k$  is not  $O(n^{k-1})$ .

## 2 MergeSort

Recall the *Divide-and-conquer* paradigm from the second lecture. In this paradigm, we use the following strategy:

- Break the problem into sub-problems.
- Solve the sub-problems (often recursively)
- Combine the results of the sub-problems to solve the big problem.

At some point, the sub-problems become small enough that they are easy to solve, and then we can stop recursing.

With this approach in mind, MergeSort is a very natural algorithm to solve the sorting problem.

The pseudocode is below:

```
MergeSort(A):
    n = len(A)
    if n <= 1:
        return A
    L = MergeSort( A[:n/2] )
    R = MergeSort( A[n/2:] )
    return Merge(L, R)
```

Above, we are using Python notation, so  $A[:n/2] = [A[0], A[1], \dots, A[n/2 - 1]]$  and  $A[n/2:] = [A[n/2], \dots, A[n - 1]]$ . Additionally, we're using integer division, so  $n/2$  means  $\lfloor n/2 \rfloor$ .

How do we do the Merge procedure? We need to take two sorted arrays,  $L$  and  $R$ , and merge them into a sorted array that contains both of their elements. See the slides for a walkthrough of this procedure.

```
Merge(L, R):
    m = len(L) + len(R)
    S = [ ]
    for k in range(m):
        if L[i] < R[j]:
            S.append( L[i] )
            i += 1
        else:
            S.append( R[j] )
            j += 1
    return S
```

**Note:** This pseudocode is incomplete! What happens if we get to the end of  $L$  or  $R$ ? Try to adapt the pseudocode above to fix this.

As before, we need to ask: Does it work? And does it have good performance?