# Landau Symbols (Complexity Classes) Theoretical Computer Science 

Dipl.-Ing. Hubert Schölnast, BSc
September 20, 2021

## Table of Contents

1 Landau Symbols (Big O notation) ..... 3
2 Big O ("big oh" or "big omicron") ..... 3
2.1 Example 1 ..... 4
2.2 Example 2: ..... 5
2.3 Counter example: ..... 5
2.4 Conclusion: ..... 5
3 Big 0 ("big theta") .....  6
$4 \operatorname{Big} \Omega$ ("big omega") ..... 6
5 Small symbols ..... 6
6 Some important defining functions in big $\mathbf{O}$ notation ..... 7

## 1 Landau Symbols (Big O notation)

Laundau symbols are used to group functions together and give these groups individual names. Functions that grow at similar rates as their argument gets larger and larger are grouped together.
$O(f(x)), \Omega(f(x)), \mathcal{O}(f(x)), \Theta(f(x)), o(f(x)), \sigma(f(x))$ and $\omega(f(x))$ are different sets of functions, which will be explained in detail later. Each of these sets is a container, and inside these containers are functions. For each container there is a function $f(x)$, which defines as a kind of role model which other functions are contained in this set.
$f(x) \in \mathcal{O}(g(x))$ means that the function $f(x)$ is one of the functions in the set $\mathcal{O}(g(x))$ defined by the function $g(x)$.

When using Landau Symbols, you very often will also see this notation:
$f(x)=\mathcal{O}(g(x))$
Technically this is a wrong notation, because it would mean, that the function $f(x)$ is equal to a set of functions, which makes no sense. Nevertheless, it is a commonly used notation that everyone understands as a synonym for $f(x) \in \mathcal{O}(g(x))$.

You say: " $f$ of $x$ is of (the) order $g$ of $x$ ".
Various symbols are used ( $O, \Omega, \mathcal{O}, \Theta$, etc.). Some of them are simply different letters that have the same meaning, but some other symbols have different meanings.

## 2 Big O ("big oh" or "big omicron")

Equivalent notations (they all mean the same):

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
f(x) \in \mathcal{O}(g(x)) & f(x) \in O(g(x)) \\
f(x)=\mathcal{O}(g(x)) & f(x)=O(g(x))
\end{array}
$$

Formal definition

$$
\exists k>0 \exists x_{0}>0 \forall x>x_{0}:|f(x)| \leq k \cdot g(x)
$$

How to read this definition:

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
\exists k>0 & \text { For at least one (constant) value for } k \text { that is greater than } 0 \\
& \text { and } \\
\exists x_{0}>0 & \text { for at least one value for } x_{0} \text { that is greater than } 0 \\
\forall x>x_{0} & \text { it is always true for all values of } x \text { that are greater than } x_{0} \\
: & \text { that } \\
|f(x)| \leq k \cdot g(x) & \text { the magnitude (the absolute value) of } f(x) \text { is less than the product } \\
& \text { of } k \text { and } g(x) .
\end{array}
$$

Or in other words:
When $x$ is greater than a certain limit (which is $x_{0}$ ), then the quotient $\frac{|f(x)|}{g(x)}$ will always be less than a certain constant value (which is $k$ ).

### 2.1 Example 1:

$f(x)=5 x^{2}+23 x+144 \quad g(x)=x^{2}$

| $x$ | $f(x)$ | $g(x)$ | $\frac{\|f(x)\|}{g(x)}$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 1 | 172 | 1 | 172.00 |
| 2 | 210 | 4 | 52.50 |
| 3 | 258 | 9 | 28.67 |
| 4 | 316 | 16 | 19.75 |
| 5 | 384 | 25 | 15.36 |
| 6 | 462 | 36 | 12.83 |
| 7 | 550 | 49 | 11.22 |
| 8 | 648 | 64 | 10.13 |
| 9 | 756 | 81 | 9.33 |
| 10 | 874 | 100 | 8.74 |
| 11 | 1002 | 121 | 8.28 |
| 12 | 1140 | 144 | 7.92 |
| 13 | 1288 | 169 | 7.62 |
| 14 | 1446 | 196 | 7.38 |
| 15 | 1614 | 225 | 7.17 |
| 16 | 1792 | 256 | 7.00 |
| 17 | 1980 | 289 | 6.85 |
| 18 | 2178 | 324 | 6.72 |
| 19 | 2386 | 361 | 6.61 |
| 20 | 2604 | 400 | 6.51 |
|  |  |  |  |

$f(x) \in \mathcal{O}(g(x))$ is true, because:
$k \quad x_{0}$
When you choose $\quad k=7$ then $|f(x)| \leq k \cdot g(x)$ for all $x>16$ or
when you choose $\quad k=200$ then $|f(x)| \leq k \cdot g(x)$ for all $x>1 \quad$ or
when you choose $\quad k=5.1$ then $|f(x)| \leq k \cdot g(x)$ for all $x>237$ or $\ldots$

It doesn't matter which pair of $k$ and $x_{0}$ can be used to make this relation become true. If there is at least one such pair, this already is enough.

So: $5 x^{2}+23 x+144 \in \mathcal{O}\left(x^{2}\right)$

### 2.2 Example 2:

$f(x)=5 x^{2}+23 x+144 \quad g(x)=x^{3}$
Now $g(x)$ grows much faster than in example 1, and therefore it is much easier for the term $k \cdot g(x)$ to be greater than $|f(x)|$

This means, that also this is true: $5 x^{2}+23 x+144 \in \mathcal{O}\left(x^{3}\right)$

### 2.3 Counter example:

$f(x)=x^{3}+5 x^{2}+23 x+144$
$g(x)=x^{2}$

| $x$ | $f(x)$ | $g(x)$ | $\frac{\|f(x)\|}{g(x)}$ |
| ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: |
| 1 | 173 | 1 | 173.000 |
| 2 | 218 | 4 | 54.500 |
| 3 | 285 | 9 | 31.667 |
| 4 | 380 | 16 | 23.750 |
| 5 | 509 | 25 | 20.360 |
| 6 | 678 | 36 | 18.833 |
| 7 | 893 | 49 | 18.224 |
| 7.75 | 1088 | 60 | 18.115 |
| 8 | 1160 | 64 | 18.125 |
| 9 | 1485 | 81 | 18.333 |
| 10 | 1874 | 100 | 18.740 |
| 20 | 10604 | 400 | 26.510 |
| 50 | 138794 | 2500 | 55.518 |
| 100 | 1052444 | 10000 | 105.244 |
| 200 | 8204744 | 40000 | 205.119 |
| 500 | 126261644 | 250000 | 505.047 |
| 1000 | 1005023144 | 1000000 | 1005.023 |
| 2000 | 8020046144 | 4000000 | 2005.012 |
| 5000 | $1.25125 \mathrm{E}+11$ | 25000000 | 5005.005 |
| 10000 | $1.0005 \mathrm{E}+12$ | 100000000 | 10005.002 |

$\frac{|f(x)|}{g(x)}$ decreases at the beginning, but then reaches a minimum somewhere near 7.75 and then increases and grows forever.

So, no matter how big you choose $k$, there never will be any $x_{0}$ for which it is true, that for every $x>x_{0}$ the relation $|f(x)| \leq k \cdot g(x)$ will be true.

And therefor:
$x^{3}+5 x^{2}+23 x+144 \notin \mathcal{O}\left(x^{2}\right)$

### 2.4 Conclusion:

$f(x) \in \mathcal{O}(g(x))$ means, that the rate of growth of function $f(x)$ is less or equal than the rate of growth of $g(x)$. Or in other words: $g(x)$ is growing as fast or even faster than $f(x)$.

## 3 Big © ("big theta")

Equivalent notations (they all mean the same):

$$
\begin{aligned}
& f(x) \in \Theta(g(x)) \\
& f(x)=\Theta(g(x))
\end{aligned}
$$

Formal definition

$$
\exists k_{1}>0 \exists k_{2}>0 \exists x_{0}>0 \forall x>x_{0}: k_{1} \cdot g(x) \leq|f(x)| \leq k_{2} \cdot g(x)
$$

While in big O there was only an upper limit (which here became $k_{2} \cdot g(x)$ ), now, in big theta we also have a lower limit $k_{1} \cdot g(x)$, and both limits are constant multiples of the same function $g(x)$.

This means:

$$
\text { but } \quad \begin{aligned}
5 x^{2}+23 x+144 & \in \mathcal{O}\left(x^{3}\right) \\
5 x^{2}+23 x+144 & \Theta\left(x^{3}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

You will see big O and big theta quite often, because they are the most important symbols, but there are also some others which are less often used:

## 4 Big $\boldsymbol{\Omega}$ ("big omega")

Equivalent notations (they all mean the same):

$$
\begin{aligned}
& f(x) \in \Omega(g(x)) \\
& f(x)=\Omega(g(x))
\end{aligned}
$$

Formal definition

$$
\exists k>0 \exists x_{0}>0 \forall x>x_{0}:|f(x)| \geq k \cdot g(x)
$$

So, big omega defines a lower boundary. It is very rarely used in complexity theory.

## 5 Small symbols

There are also the symbols small o and small $\omega$ ("small omega"). They are defined similar to their big cousins but are more restrict.

So, the arrows in

$$
\begin{aligned}
& f(x) \in \sigma(g(x)) \Rightarrow f(x) \in \mathcal{O}(g(x)) \\
& f(x) \in \omega(g(x)) \Rightarrow f(x) \in \Omega(g(x))
\end{aligned}
$$

only point from left to right, not in the other direction.
The small symbols are not used in complexity theory.

## 6 Some important defining functions in big O notation

| $f(n) \in \mathcal{O}(1)$ | "constant" <br> $f(x)$ is limited to a constant value. No matter how big $n$ grows, $f(n)$ will never become greater than this constant value. <br> When the time complexity of an algorithm is constant, it means, that the algorithm always terminates within a constant time, no matter how big it's input was. <br> Example: Test, if a given decimal number of any length is a multiple of 5 . |
| :---: | :---: |
| $f(n) \in \mathcal{O}(\log n)$ | "logarithmic" <br> $f(n)$ grows by roughly a constant amount if $n$ will be doubled. <br> Example: Perform a binary search in a sorted list of $n$ elements. |
| $f(n) \in \mathcal{O}(\sqrt{n})$ | $O\left(n^{\frac{1}{2}}\right)$ "square root" <br> $f(n)$ doubles if $n$ will be multiplied by 4 . <br> Example: Number of divisions when performing a naïve primality test for the number $n$. |
| $\text { r) } \in \mathcal{O}\left(n^{c}\right),$ | $0<c<1$ "fractional power" Generalized version of square root |
| $f(n) \in \mathcal{O}(n)$ | "linear" <br> $f(n)$ doubles if you double $n$. <br> Example: Search an element in an unsorted list of $n$ elements. |
| $f(n) \in \mathcal{O}(n \log$ | $n$ ) "superlinear", "loglinear", " $n \log n$ " $f(n)$ grows faster than $\mathcal{O}(n)$, but slower than $\mathcal{O}\left(n^{c}\right)$ for any $c>1$ Example: Perform a merge sort on a list of $n$ elements. |
| $f(n) \in \mathcal{O}\left(n^{2}\right)$ | "quadratic" <br> $f(n)$ multiplies by 4 if you double $n$. <br> Example: Perform a bubble sort on a list of $n$ elements. |
| $f(n) \in \mathcal{O}\left(n^{c}\right)$ | 1 "polynomial", "algebraic" <br> Generalized version of quadratic. Note, that $c$ don't have to be an integer. Also $f(n) \in \mathcal{O}\left(n^{1.0001}\right)$ is polynomial (and slower than $f(n) \in \mathcal{O}(n \log n)$ ). A problem that can be solved with an algorithm who's time complexity is $\mathcal{O}\left(n^{c}\right)$ is often called a "simple" problem. |
| $f(n) \in \mathcal{O}\left(2^{n}\right)$ | $\mathcal{O}\left(c^{n}\right)$ "exponential" <br> $f(n)$ doubles (multiplies by a constant factor) if you increase $n$ by 1 . <br> A problem whose fastest solving algorithm has a time complexity of $\Omega\left(e^{n}\right)$ is often called a "hard" problem. |

