

SC1007 Data Structures and Algorithms 0: A Quick Review of Mathematics for Algorithms

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0.1 Overview of Review Topics

- 1. Sets and Functions
- 2. Floor and Ceiling Functions
- 3. Power and Logarithm Functions
- 4. Series
- 5. Limits
- 6. Differentiation of Functions
- 7. Modular Arithmetic
- 8. Proof by Induction

0.2 Sets

Set theory is a branch of mathematical logic that studies sets. A set is a collection of objects, called its **members** or **elements**. In set theory, the objects are usually mathematical objects. If A is a set and a is its element, then we write $a \in A$. \emptyset denotes the empty set, that is the set containing no element. We can describe a set by using a Venn diagram as illustrated in Figure 0.1. We also can define a set by writing $A = \{1, 2, 3\}$. In this case, $1 \in A$ or 1 is a element of A. We also can define sets by their elements'

property. For example, we can define the set of even integer by $B = \{x | x \in \mathbb{Z} \text{ and } x/2 \text{ is an integer}\}$

0.2.1 Basic notation

 $A \subset B$: A is a subset of B

 $A \cap B$: The intersection of sets A and B or $\{x | x \in A \text{ and } x \in B\}$

 $A \cup B$: The union of sets A and B or $\{x | x \in A \text{ or } x \in B\}$

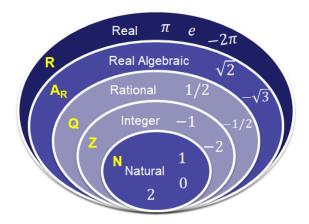


Figure 0.1: The number sets: $\mathbb{N} \subset \mathbb{Z} \subset \mathbb{Q} \subset \mathbb{A}_{\mathbb{R}} \subset \mathbb{R}$

0.3 Functions

Given that $f: \mathbf{D} \to \mathbf{R}, y = f(x)$

- Function f: A rule that assigns a unique element in a set R to each element in a set D.
- ullet Independent variables: The inputs of the function, x.
- Dependent variables: The corresponding outputs, y.
- Image: y is the image of x under f.
- Preimage or inverse image: x is the preimage of y under f.
- **Domain**: The domain of the function, **D**, is the input set of the function.
- Range: The range of the function, R, is the corresponding output set of the function.
- Codomain: The codomain of the function, C is the set within which the corresponding output values of the function lie. (The R is a subset of C, $f(D) = R \subset C$)

0.3.1 Mapping Functions

- One-to-one function or injective function: $f : \mathbf{D} \to \mathbf{R}$ is one-to-one function if it maps distinct elements in \mathbf{D} to distinct elements in \mathbf{R} . If $f(x_1) = f(x_2)$, then it must be $x_1 = x_2$.
- Onto function or surjective function: $f : \mathbf{D} \to \mathbf{R}$ is onto function if there always exists an element in \mathbf{D} is preimage of the element in \mathbf{R} for any $y \in \mathbf{R}$.
- One-to-one onto function or bijective function: $f : \mathbf{D} \to \mathbf{R}$ is one-to-one onto function if it is both injective and surjective. A function f is invertible iff $(if \ and \ only \ if) \ f$ is an one-to-one onto function.

• Many-to-one function: $f : \mathbf{D} \to \mathbf{R}$ is many-to-one function if any element in \mathbf{R} of f is the image of more than one element in the domain, \mathbf{D} of f.

0.4 Function Representations

1. Analytical Method

$$A(r) = \pi r^2$$

 $I(V) = I_S(\exp^{V/nV_T} -1)$
 $Z(x,y) = x^2 + y^2$

2. Venn Diagram Method

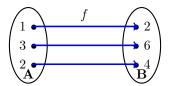


Figure 0.2: $f: A \to B$, f(x) = 2x

3. Graphical Method

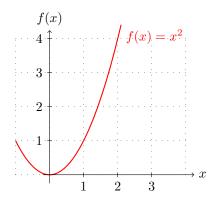


Figure 0.3: $f: \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$ $f(x) = x^2$

4. Tabulation Method

Period	1Q21	4Q20	3Q20	2Q20	1Q20	4Q19	 1Q16	4Q15	3Q15	2Q15	
Number of units	8100	6929	7047	2664	4269	4878	 2847	3199	4159	4104	

Table 0.1: The number of private residential unit transactions in the whole of Singapore

0.5 Floor and Ceiling Functions

- The floor and ceiling functions map a real number to the largest previous or the smallest following integer, respectively.
- |x| (floor of x) = $\max\{m \in \mathbb{Z} | m \le x\}$ the largest integer, m not greater than x.
- $\lceil x \rceil$ (ceiling of x) = $\min\{n \in \mathbb{Z} | n \ge x\}$ the smallest integer, n not less than x.
- $[x] \le x \le [x]$ e.g. [5.5] = 5, [5] = 5, [5.5] = 6

0.5.1 Equivalences of Floor Function

$$\lfloor x \rfloor = m \qquad m \in \mathbb{Z} \tag{0.1}$$

$$m \le x < m + 1 \tag{0.2}$$

$$x - 1 < m \le x \tag{0.3}$$

(0.4)

$$|x| + |y| \le |x+y| \le |x| + |y| + 1 \tag{0.5}$$

0.5.2 Equivalences of Ceiling Function

$$\lceil x \rceil = n \qquad n \in \mathbb{Z} \tag{0.6}$$

$$n - 1 < x \le n \tag{0.7}$$

$$x \le n < x + 1 \tag{0.8}$$

$$\lceil x \rceil + \lceil y \rceil - 1 \le \lceil x + y \rceil \le \lceil x \rceil + \lceil y \rceil \tag{0.9}$$

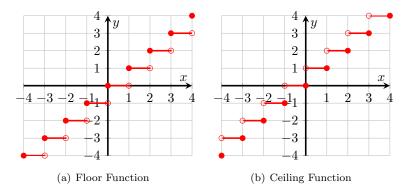


Figure 0.4: floor function and ceiling function

0.6 Power and Logarithm Functions

0.6.1 Exponentiation

Exponentiation is a mathematical operation, written as a^n , involving two numbers, the base b and the exponent (a.k.a. index or power) n. When n is a positive integer, exponentiation corresponds to repeated multiplication.

$$a^{-n} \equiv \frac{1}{a^n} \tag{0.10}$$

$$a^{\frac{1}{n}} \equiv \sqrt[n]{a} \tag{0.11}$$

$$a^n a^m \equiv a^{n+m} \tag{0.12}$$

$$\frac{a^n}{a^m} \equiv a^{n-m} \tag{0.13}$$

$$(a^n)^m \equiv a^{nm} \tag{0.14}$$

0.6.2 Logarithm

The logarithm of a number to the base b is the exponent by which the base b has to be raised to produce that number.

$$\log_a b = c \Leftrightarrow b = a^c \tag{0.15}$$

$$\log_a 1 = 0 \tag{0.16}$$

$$\log_a 0 = \text{undefined} \tag{0.17}$$

$$\log_a x + \log_a y = \log_a xy \tag{0.18}$$

$$\log_a x - \log_a y = \log_a \frac{x}{y} \tag{0.19}$$

$$\log_a x^y = y \log_a x \tag{0.20}$$

$$\log_a c = \frac{\log_b c}{\log_b a} \tag{0.21}$$

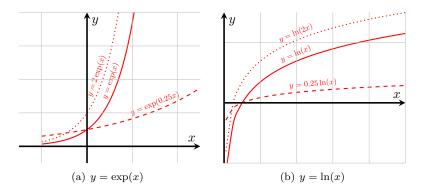


Figure 0.5: Logarithms and Exponential Functions

0.7 Series

0.7.1 Geometric Series

$$G_n = a + ar + ar^2 + \dots + ar^{n-1}$$

$$rG_n = ar + ar^2 + \dots + ar^{n-1} + ar^n$$

$$(1-r)G_n = a - ar^n$$

$$G_n = \frac{a(1-r^n)}{1-r}$$

$$G_{\infty} = \frac{a}{1-r} \qquad |r| < 1$$

0.7.2 Arithmetic Series

$$S_n = a + (a+d) + (a+2d) + \dots + [a+(n-1)d]$$

$$= \frac{n}{2}[2a + (n-1)d]$$

$$= \frac{n}{2}(a_0 + a_{n-1})$$

where the first term of the series, $a_0 = a$ and the last term of the series, $a_{n-1} = a + (n-1)d$.

0.7.3 Arithmetico-geometric Series

$$1 \cdot r^0 + 2 \cdot r^1 + 3 \cdot r^2 + \dots + k \cdot r^{k-1}$$

For example, r=2

$$\sum_{t=1}^{k} t 2^{t-1} = 1 \cdot 1 + 2 \cdot 2 + 3 \cdot 4 + 4 \cdot 8 + \dots + k \cdot 2^{k-1}$$

$$2 \sum_{t=1}^{k} t 2^{t-1} = 1 \cdot 2 + 2 \cdot 4 + 3 \cdot 8 + \dots + (k-1) \cdot 2^{k-1} + k \cdot 2^{k}$$

$$(2-1) \sum_{t=1}^{k} t 2^{t-1} = -1 \cdot 1 - 1 \cdot 2 - 1 \cdot 4 - 1 \cdot 8 - \dots - 1 \cdot 2^{k-1} + k \cdot 2^{k} \quad \triangleright \text{ eq. } 2 - \text{ eq. } 1$$

$$\sum_{t=1}^{k} t 2^{t-1} = -2^{k} + 1 + k \cdot 2^{k} \quad \triangleright \text{ geometric series}$$

$$= 2^{k} (k-1) + 1$$

0.7.4 Faulhaber's formula

The sum of the p^{th} powers of the first n positive integers:

$$\sum_{k=1}^{n} k^{2} = \frac{n(n+1)(2n+1)}{6}$$
$$\sum_{k=1}^{n} k^{3} = \frac{n^{2}(n+1)^{2}}{4}$$

0.7.4.1 The Sum of The Squares of The First n Positive Integers

The binomial expansion of $(k-1)^3$:

$$(k-1)^3 = k^3 - 3k^2 + 3k - 1$$

We can rearrange the terms:

$$k^3 - (k-1)^3 = 3k^2 - 3k + 1$$

Thus, we have k equations from k = 1 to n,

$$1^{3} - 0^{3} = 3(1^{2}) - 3(1) + 1$$

$$2^{3} - 1^{3} = 3(2^{2}) - 3(2) + 1$$

$$\cdots = \cdots$$

$$(n-1)^{3} - (n-2)^{3} = 3((n-1)^{2}) - 3(n-1) + 1$$

$$n^{3} - (n-1)^{3} = 3(n^{2}) - 3(n) + 1$$

Summing these equations,

$$n^{3} = 3\left(\sum_{k=1}^{n} k^{2}\right) - 3\left(\sum_{k=1}^{n} k\right) + \left(\sum_{k=1}^{n} 1\right)$$

$$n^{3} = 3\left(\sum_{k=1}^{n} k^{2}\right) - 3\left(\frac{n(n+1)}{2}\right) + n$$

$$3\left(\sum_{k=1}^{n} k^{2}\right) = n^{3} + 3\left(\frac{n(n+1)}{2}\right) - n$$

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

0.8 Limits

Informal definition, limit is the value that a function or sequence "approaches" as the input or index approaches some value.

Let
$$\lim_{x\to c} f(x) = L$$
, $\lim_{x\to c} g(x) = M$, then

- 1. Constant Rule: $\lim_{x\to c} k = k$
- 2. Sum and Difference Rule:

$$\lim_{x \to c} [f(x) \pm g(x)] = L \pm M$$

- 3. Constant Multiple Rule: $\lim_{x\to c} kf(x) = kL$
- 4. Product Rule:

$$\lim_{x \to c} [f(x) \cdot g(x)] = L \cdot M$$

5. Quotient Rule:

$$\lim_{x \to c} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} = \frac{L}{M} \qquad M \neq 0$$

6. Power Rule:

$$\lim_{x \to c} [f(x)]^n = L^n$$

7. Root Rule:

$$\lim_{x \to c} \sqrt[n]{f(x)} = \sqrt[n]{L} \quad L > 0 \text{ for even } n$$

0.8.1 L'Hôpital's Rule

If

- 1. $\lim_{x\to a} f(x) = \lim_{x\to a} g(x) = 0$
- 2. f and g are differentiable at the interval and $g'(x) \neq 0$
- 3. $\lim_{x\to a} \frac{f'(x)}{g'(x)}$ exists

,then

$$\lim_{x \to a} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} = \lim_{x \to a} \frac{f'(x)}{g'(x)}$$

Example 1:

$$\lim_{x \to 2} \frac{x^2 - 4}{x^2 + x - 6} = \lim_{x \to 2} \frac{2x}{2x + 1}$$
$$= \frac{4}{5}$$

Example 2:

$$\lim_{x \to \infty} \frac{x^n}{e^x} = \lim_{x \to \infty} \frac{nx^{n-1}}{e^x}$$

$$\dots$$

$$= \lim_{x \to \infty} \frac{n!}{e^x} = 0$$

0.8.1.1 Exercise

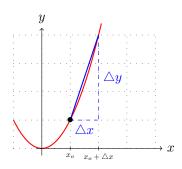
1.
$$\lim_{x\to 0} \frac{x-\sin x}{x^3}$$

2.
$$\lim_{x\to\infty} \frac{\ln x}{x}$$

3.
$$\lim_{x\to 0} x \ln x$$

Answer: 1.
$$\frac{1}{6}$$
, 2. 0, 3. 0

0.9 Differentiation



- The instantaneous rate of change of the dependent variable with respect to the independent variable, $\frac{dy}{dx}$
- The **gradient** of the curve at the point.
- The process of finding a derivative is called **differentiation**

•
$$m = \frac{dy}{dx} = \lim_{\Delta x \to 0} \frac{\Delta y}{\Delta x} = \frac{f(x_o + \Delta x) - f(x_o)}{\Delta x}$$

• f'(a) exists iff the limit of $\frac{f(a+\triangle x)-f(a)}{\triangle x}$ exists.

0.9.1 Differentiation Properties

$$\frac{d}{dx}(kf(x)) = k\frac{df(x)}{dx}$$

$$\frac{d}{dx}(f(x) + g(x)) = \frac{df(x)}{dx} + \frac{dg(x)}{dx}$$

$$\frac{d}{dx}(f(x) - g(x)) = \frac{df(x)}{dx} - \frac{dg(x)}{dx}$$

Example 1:

$$\frac{d}{dx}(x^n) = nx^{n-1}$$

$$\frac{d}{dx} \left[\sum_{n=0}^{N} a_n x^n \right] = \sum_{n=0}^{N} \frac{d}{dx} \left[a_n x^n \right]$$

$$= \sum_{n=0}^{N} a_n \frac{d}{dx} \left[x^n \right]$$

$$= \sum_{n=1}^{N} a_n n \left[x^{n-1} \right]$$

0.9.2 Rules of Differentiation

1. Product Rule: $\frac{d}{dx}(f(x)g(x)) = f(x)\frac{dg(x)}{dx} + g(x)\frac{df(x)}{dx}$

2. Quotient Rule: $\frac{d}{dx}\big(\frac{f(x)}{g(x)}\big) = \frac{g(x)\frac{df(x)}{dx} - f(x)\frac{dg(x)}{dx}}{g^2(x)}$

3. Chain Rule: $\frac{dy}{dx}=\frac{dy}{du}\frac{du}{dx}$ or $(f\circ g)'(x)=f'(g(x))g'(x)$

Example 1:

 $\frac{x^2 + 2x + 2}{2x^3 + x - 1}$

Answer:

$$\frac{-2x^4-8x^3-11x^2-2x-4}{(2x^3+x-1)^2}$$

0.9.3 Some Common Use Formula

- $\frac{d}{dx}c = 0$
- $\frac{d}{dx}x = 1$
- $\bullet \ \frac{d}{dx}e^x = e^x$
- $\frac{d}{dx} \ln x = \frac{1}{x}$
- $\frac{d}{dx}e^{f(x)} = e^{f(x)}f'(x)$
- $\frac{d}{dx}\ln(f(x)) = \frac{1}{f(x)}f'(x)$
- $\bullet \ \frac{d}{dx}2^{f(x)} = 2^{f(x)}f'(x)\ln 2$
- $\frac{d}{dx}a^{f(x)} = a^{f(x)}f'(x)\ln a$
- $\frac{d}{dx}\log_b x = \frac{1}{x\ln b}$
- $\frac{d}{dx} \log_b f(x) = \frac{1}{f(x) \ln b} f'(x)$

0.10 Modular Arithmetic

Given two integers, a and n, we can write a division of a by n as the following

$$\frac{a}{n} = Q$$
 remainder R

where

- \bullet a is the dividend
- \bullet *n* is the divisor
- Q is the quotient
- \bullet R is the remainder

In modular arithmetic, we are interested at the remainder R. We can rewrite the expression in

$$a \bmod n = R$$

We would say that a modulo n is equal to R. n is referred to as the modulus and n > 0. R = [0, n - 1].

Example 1: $a \mod 3 = R$

a	 -4	-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3	4	
R	 2	0	1	2	0	1	2	0	1	

With regard to the modulo n arithmetic operations, the following equalities are easily shown to be true:

$$((a \bmod n) + (b \bmod n)) \bmod n = (a+b) \bmod n$$

$$((a \bmod n) - (b \bmod n)) \bmod n = (a-b) \bmod n$$

$$((a \bmod n) \times (b \bmod n)) \bmod n = (a \times b) \bmod n$$

0.11 Mathematical Induction

- 1. Base case is correct. It is noted that n_1 is not necessary equal 1.
- 2. **Induction step**: if the statement holds for n, then statement holds for n+1

Example 1:

Proof that:

$$S_n = \sum_{m=0}^{n-1} ar^m = \frac{a(1-r^n)}{1-r}$$

1.
$$n = 1, m = 0, S_1 = ar^0 = \frac{a(1-r^1)}{1-r}$$

2. If $S_n = \sum_{m=0}^{n-1} ar^m = \frac{a(1-r^n)}{1-r}$ is correct, then

$$S_{n+1} = \frac{a(1-r^n)}{1-r} + ar^n$$

$$= \frac{a(1-r^n) + ar^n(1-r)}{1-r}$$

$$= \frac{a - ar^n + ar^n - ar^{n+1}}{1-r}$$

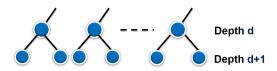
$$= \frac{a - ar^{n+1}}{1-r}$$

By the Method of Induction, the Geometric Series formula holds for any $n \in \mathbb{N}$

Example 2:

Prove that: there are at most 2^d nodes at depth d of a binary tree.

- 1. By definition of a binary tree, each node has at most 2 children. Let d denote the depth of the tree.
- 2. Base case: At d=0, there is at most 1 root node, i.e. 2^0 node.
- 3. Induction Step: We assume that the tree has, for any depth d, at most 2^d nodes at that depth. Prove that at depth d+1, there are at most $2^{(d+1)}$ nodes.
 - By assumption, at depth d, there are at most 2^d nodes.
 - Each of the node at depth d can have at most 2 children, hence there are at most $2*2d = 2^{d+1}$ nodes. Thus the result is true for depth d+1



By the Method of Induction, the result is true for all depths of a binary tree.

0.11.1 Exercise

Using mathematic induction to prove the following equations and statement:

1.
$$1 + r + r^2 + r^3 + \ldots + r^n = \frac{1 - r^{n+1}}{1 - r}$$

2.
$$1^2 + 2^2 + 3^2 + \ldots + n^2 = \frac{1}{6}n(n+1)(2n+1)$$

3.
$$x + y$$
 is a factor of $x^{2n} - y^{2n}$ for $n \in \mathbb{N}$