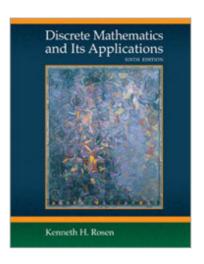
MA112: Discrete Mathematics

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Lectures follow Rosen, "Discrete Mathematics and Its Applications", 6th edition, McGraw-Hill:



Course Objectives

- Developing rigorous treatment.
- Developing mathematical foundations to CS.
- Building intuition.
- Linking to CS applications.

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Chapter 3

The Fundamentals: Algorithms

- This is a one-lecture introductory material on "Analysis of Algorithms".
- This introductory material is enough for a first course in "Data Structures" for sophomores.
- More "Analysis of Algorithms" is taught in "Algorithms course.
- Good references for analysis of algorithms are:
 - 1. Rosen (2007), which we follow in this chapter.
 - 2. Knuth (1997), an indispensable resource.
 - 3. Mahmoud (1992, 2000), for probabilistic analysis of sorting and random search trees.



al-Khwārizmi, in full Muhammad ibn Mūsā al-Khwārizmi (born c. 780, Baghdad, Iraq—died c. 850), Muslim mathematician and astronomer whose major works introduced Hindu-Arabic numerals and the concepts of algebra into European mathematics.

al-Khwārizmi's work on elementary algebra, al-Kitāb almukhtasar fi hisab al-jabr wa Í-muqābala ("The Compendious Book on Calculation by Completion and Balancing"), was translated into Latin in the 12th century, from which the title and term Algebra derives

numerals and their arithmetic to the West. It is preserved only in a Latin translation, Algoritmi de numero Indorum ("Al-Khwārizmi Concerning the Hindu Art of Reckoning"). From the name of the author, rendered in Latin as algoritmi, originated the term algorithm.¹

... a second work by al-Khwārizmi introduced Hindu-Arabic

¹"al-Khwarizmi". Encyclopedia Britannica Online. Retrieved 30 October, 2012, from http://www.britannica.com/EBchecked/topic/ 317171/al-Khwarizmi



Downloadable Graphics
 Downloadable Programs



Donald Ervin Knuth, (born Jan. 10, 1938, Milwaukee, Wis., U.S.), American mathematician and computer scientist.

A pioneer in computer science, he took time out during the 1970s from writing his highly acclaimed multi-volume *The Art of Computer Programming* in order to develop TeX, a document-preparation system.²

²"Donald Ervin Knuth". Encyclopedia Britannica Online. Retrieved 30 October, 2012, from http://www.britannica.com/EBchecked/topic/1380467/Donald-Ervin-Knuth

3.2 The Growth of Functions

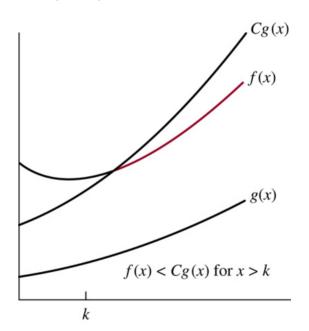
- Used extensively to analyze algorithms.
- How algorithms behave with large size input?
- Algorithm A takes $100n^2 + 17n + 4$ steps; Algorithm B takes n^3 ; which is faster?
- Big-*O* (big-oh) notation.
- Big-*O* was used by mathematicians Edmund Landau and Paul Bachmann then introduced to Computer Science by Knuth.

Big-O **Notation**

Definition 1 Let f and g be functions from the set of integers or the set of real numbers to the set of real numbers. We say that f(x) is O(g(x)) or f(x) = O(g(x)) (read as: "f(x) is big-oh of g(x)") if there are constants C and K such that

$$\left| f(x) \right| \le C \left| g(x) \right|, \ \forall x > k.$$

$$\frac{\left| f(x) \right|}{\left| g(x) \right|} \le C, \ \forall x > k.$$



You can think of f(x) and g(x) as the number of steps of two different sorting algorithms and x is the number of elements.

Then,
$$k = 1$$
 and $C = 4$.

 $(\forall x \ge 1)$

$$x^2 < x^2 + 2x + 1, \ \forall x > 0.$$

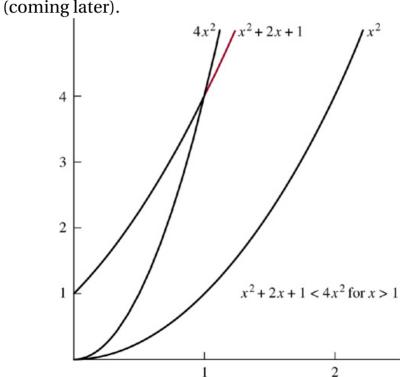
Notice, it is also true that

Then, $x^2 = O(x^2 + 2x + 1)$; which said to have same order (coming later).

Example 2 Show that $f(x) = x^2 + 2x + 1$ is $O(x^2)$.

 $0 \le x^2 + 2x + 1 \le x^2 + 2x^2 + x^2$

 $= 4 r^2$



Corollary 3 If f(x) = O(g(x)) and h(x) > g(x) for sufficiently large x', it follows that f(x) = O(h(x))

Proof. Since f(x) = O(g(x)), then there exist C and k such that

$$|f(x)| \le C |g(x)|, \forall x > k,$$

$$\le C |h(x)|, \forall x > \max(k, x')$$

$$= C |h(x)|, \forall x > k'$$

$$f(x) = O(h(x)).$$

Notes:

- $x^2 + 2x + 1 = O(x^2)$; also it is $O(x^3)$.
- All functions used in the sequel are positive; hence we can drop $|\cdot|$.
- Shortly, *x* and *f* (*x*) will denote problem size and algorithm complexity.

Example 4 Show that n^2 is not O(n).

Suppose that $n^2 = O(n)$, then there exist n' and C such that

$$n^2 < Cn, \ \forall n > n',$$

which means

$$n < C$$
, $\forall n > n'$,

which is a contradiction.

Some Important Big-O Results

Theorem 5 Let $f(x) = \sum_{i=0}^{n} a_i x^i = a_0 + a_1 x + a_2 x^2 + \cdots + a_n x^n$, where a_i are real numbers. Then $f(x) = O(x^n)$.

Proof. We consider x > 1, then

$$|f(x)| = |a_0 + a_1 x + \dots + a_n x^n|$$

$$\leq |a_0| + |a_1 x| + \dots + |a_n x^n| \quad \text{(triangle inequality)}$$

$$= |a_0| + |a_1| x + \dots + |a_n| x^n$$

$$= x^n (|a_0|/x^n + |a_1|/x^{n-1} + \dots + |a_n|)$$

$$\leq x^n (|a_0| + |a_1| + \dots + |a_n|)$$

$$= Cx^n.$$

Example 6 Big-O can be used, even, to approximate mathematical expressions.

$$S_n = 1 + 2 + \dots + n$$

$$\leq n + n + \dots + n$$

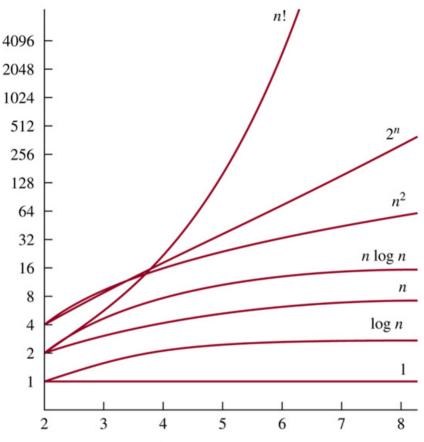
$$= n^2$$

$$S_n = O(n^2).$$

However, no guarantee that this is the lower bound!

Let's proof the following trends:

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Notice that this is a log-scale.

We know that

$$\binom{n}{0} + \binom{n}{1} + \dots + \binom{n}{n} = (1+1)^n = 2^n$$
$$n < 2^n$$
$$\log n < n$$

(base 2)

Particularly, for n > 2

$$1 < \log n < n$$
$$n < n \log n < n^2$$

For $n \ge 4$,

$$2 \cdot 2 \cdot \dots \cdot 2 < 1 \cdot 2 \cdot \dots \cdot n < n \cdot n \cdot \dots \cdot n$$
$$2^{n} < n! < n^{n}$$
$$n < \log n! < n \log n.$$

All the above are O relationships with C = 1. What is very interesting is that we can show that (at the end) $n \log n \le 2 \log n!$, as well. Therefore, they are of the same order:

$$\log n! = O(n \log n),$$

$$n \log n = O(\log n!).$$

Proof of $n \log n = O(\log n!)$.

$$n! = n \cdot (n-1) \cdot \dots \cdot 1$$

$$= 1 \cdot 2 \cdot \dots \cdot n$$

$$(n!)^{2} = (n \cdot 1) ((n-1) \cdot 2) \cdot \dots \cdot (1 \cdot n)$$

$$= \prod_{i=0}^{n-1} (n-i) (i+1).$$

$$\geq \prod_{i=0}^{n-1} n \qquad \text{(easy to show)}$$

$$= n^{n}$$

 $2\log n! \ge n\log n.$

$$n \le (n-i)(i+1) \qquad \equiv \\ n \le ni + n - i^2 - i \qquad \equiv \\ 0 \le (n-i-1)i \qquad \Longrightarrow$$

Proof of $n^2 < 2^n$ **. base:** for n = 5, $5^2 < 2^5$. **induction:** Suppose the statement is true for some $n \ge 5$; i.e.,

$$n^{2} < 2^{n}$$
,
 $(n+1)^{2} = n^{2} + 2n + 1$
 $< n^{2} + n^{2}$ $(n^{2} > 2n + 1 \ \forall n \ge 3)$
 $= 2n^{2}$
 $< 2 \cdot 2^{n}$
 $= 2^{(n+1)}$.

Hence, it is true for all $n \ge 5$.

A more general proof for n^m is given next:

 $n^m < 2^n \ \forall n > n_0$. Let's see Mathematica Notebook. **base:** We need to get a base value n_0 , such that $n_0^m < 2^{n_0}$.

Proof of $n^m < 2^n$. We show that $\forall m, \exists n_0(m)$ such that

Take $n_0 = 2^m$; indeed $(2^m)^m = 2^{m^2} < 2^{2^m}$,

if
$$m^2 < 2^m$$
; which was proven for $m \ge 5$.

induction: Suppose it is true for some $n \ge 5$.

$$n^{m} < 2^{n}, n_{0} \le n.$$

$$(n+1)^{m} = n^{m} + \binom{m}{1} n^{m-1} + \dots + \binom{m}{m}$$

$$= n^{m} + n^{m-1} \left(\binom{m}{1} + \binom{m}{2} / n \dots + \binom{m}{m} / n^{m-1} \right)$$

$$< n^{m} + n^{m-1} \left(\binom{m}{0} + \binom{m}{1} + \binom{m}{2} \dots + \binom{m}{m} \right)$$

$$= n^{m} + n^{m-1} 2^{m}$$

$$\le n^{m} + n^{m-1} n \qquad (2^{m} = n_{0} \le n \text{ is used})$$

$$= 2n^{m}$$

$$< 2 \cdot 2^{n}$$

$$= 2^{n+1}.$$

Hence, for $m \ge 5$, we proved that $n^m < 2^n \ \forall n \ge 2^m$; and since, $\forall n > 1$, $n^{m_1} < n^{m_2}$ when $m_1 < m_2$, then the statement is true for every m.

The Growth of Combinations of Functions

Theorem 7 Suppose
$$f_1(x) = O(g_1(x))$$
 and $f_2(x) = O(g_2(x))$.
Then $(f_1 + f_2)(x) = O(\max(|g_1(x)|, |g_2(x)|))$.

Proof.

$$|f_{1}(x)| \leq C_{1} |g_{1}(x)|, \forall x > k_{1}$$

$$|f_{2}(x)| \leq C_{2} |g_{2}(x)|, \forall x > k_{2}$$

$$|f_{1}(x) + f_{2}(x)| \leq |f_{1}(x)| + |f_{2}(x)| \qquad \text{(triangle inequality)}$$

and

$$\leq C_1 |g_1(x)| + C_2 |g_2(x)|, \forall x > \max(k_1, k_2).$$

$$\leq (C_1 + C_2) \max(|g_1(x)|, |g_2(x)|), \forall x > k$$

$$\leq (C_1 + C_2) \max(|g_1(x)|, |g_2(x)|), \forall x > k$$

= $C \max(|g_1(x)|, |g_2(x)|), \forall x > k.$

Theorem 8 Suppose that $f_1(x) = O(g_1(x))$ $f_2(x) = O(g_2(x))$. Then $(f_1f_2)(x) = O(g_1(x)g_2(x))$.

Proof.

$$\left| f_1(x) \right| \le C_1 \left| g_1(x) \right|, \ \forall x > k_1$$

$$|f_2(x)| \le C_2 |g_2(x)|, \ \forall x > k_2$$

 $|f_1(x) f_2(x)| = |f_1(x)| |f_2(x)|$

$$||f(x)||_{L^{2}(X)} = ||f(x)||_{L^{2}(X)}$$

$$\leq C_{1} ||g_{1}(x)||C_{2}||g_{2}(x)||, \forall x > \max(k_{1}, k_{2})|$$

$$= C ||g_{1}(x)||g_{2}(x)||, \forall x > k.$$

Motivation:

- E.g., One program is composed of two sequential algorithms.
 - Estimates using *O*, frequently is easier than exact calculations.

Example 9 A program has two sequential pieces of code, one is $3n \log(n!)$ steps followed by $(n^2 + 3) \log n$ steps. Approximately, what is the order of number of steps of the whole program.?

$$f(n) = \underline{3n}\log(n!) + \underline{(n^2 + 3)}\log n \qquad \text{("=" = "equal")}$$

$$= \underline{O(n)}O(n\log n) + \underline{O(n^2)}O(\log n) \qquad \text{("=" = "is")}$$

$$= O(n^2\log n) + O(n^2\log n)$$

$$= O(n^2\log n).$$

Example 10

$$f(x) = (x+1)\log(x^{2}+1) + 3x^{2}$$

$$\leq (x+1)\log(2x^{2}) + 3x^{2} \qquad (\forall x \geq 1)$$

$$= (x+1)(\log 2 + 2\log x) + 3x^{2}$$

$$= O(x\log x) + O(x^{2})$$

$$= O(x^{2}).$$

Notation

Big- Ω (Big-Omega) and Big- Θ (Big-Theta)

and Θ gives both. • This is a remedy for abusing O; e.g., $x = O(x^{10})$ of

• If O gives an upper bound, Ω gives a lower bound,

course:)

Definition 11 Let f and g be functions from $\mathbb{N} \to \mathbb{R}$ or

$$\mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$$
. We say that $f(x) = \Omega(g(x))$ if $\exists C, k$ such that $|f(x)| \ge C|g(x)|, \forall x > k$.

Corollary 12 Let
$$f$$
 and g be functions from $\mathbb{N} \to \mathbb{R}$ or $\mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$.
 Then, $f(x) = \Omega(g(x))$ if and only if $g(x) = O(f(x))$.

Proof. The proof is trivial

$$|f(x)| \ge C|g(x)|, \ \forall x > k \iff |g(x)| \le \frac{1}{C}|f(x)|, \ \forall x > k$$

$$f(x) = \Omega(g(x)) \iff g(x) = O(f(x))$$

Definition 13 Let
$$f$$
 and g be functions from $\mathbb{N} \to \mathbb{R}$ or $\mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$ We say that $f(x) = \Theta(g(x))$ (or, $f(x)$ is of order $g(x)$) if $f(x) = O(g(x))$ and $f(x) = \Omega(g(x))$.

Notice that (using the corollary above):
$$f(x) = \Theta(g(x)) \equiv f(x) = O(g(x)) \& f(x) = \Omega(g(x))$$

 $\equiv g(x) = \Theta(f(x))$

 $f(x) = \Theta(g(x)) \equiv f(x) = O(g(x)) \& f(x) = \Omega(g(x))$

 \iff $g(x) = \Omega(f(x)) \& g(x) = O(f(x))$

 $\iff f(x) = O(g(x)) \& g(x) = O(f(x))$

Example 14 We showed above that $S_n (= 1 + 2 + \cdots + n) = O(n^2)$. Is this bound exaggerated? What is its lower bound? What is its exact order?

 $S_n \ge \lceil n/2 \rceil + (\lceil n/2 \rceil + 1) + \dots + n$

 $= (n - \lceil n/2 \rceil + 1) \lceil n/2 \rceil$

 $> [n/2] + [n/2] + \cdots + [n/2]$

$$\geq (n/2) (n/2)$$

$$= n^2/4$$

$$= \Omega(n^2).$$
This proves that $S_n = \Theta(n^2)$. Compare to the exact for-

This proves that $S_n = \Theta(n^2)$. Compare to the exact formula:

$$S_n = \frac{1}{2}n(n+1).$$

 a_0 , i.e., a polynomial of degree n, where $a_i \neq 0$. Then $f(x) = \Theta(x^n).$

Theorem 15 Suppose $f(x) = a_n x^n + a_{n-1} x^{n-1} + \cdots + a_1 x + a_n x^{n-1} + \cdots + a_n x^{n-1} +$

Proof. We proved
$$f(x) = O(x^n)$$
. Let's show $f(x) = \Omega(x)$.

$$\left|f(x)\right| = \left|\sum_{i=1}^{n} a_i x^i\right|,$$

OLOG, $a_n > 0$; otherwise $\left| -\sum_{i=1}^n -a_i x^i \right| = \left| \sum_{i=1}^n -a_i x^i \right|$.

$$|f(x)| = \left| \sum_{a_i > 0} a_i x^i - \sum_{a_i < 0} |a_i| x^i \right|$$

$$\ge \sum_{a_i > 0} a_i x^i - \sum_{a_i < 0} |a_i| x^i$$

$$\ge a_n x^n - \sum_{a_i < 0} |a_i| x^{n-1} \qquad (\forall x > 1)$$

 $(a_n - c) x^n > sx^{n-1}$

 $(c < a_n)$

$$=a_nx^n-sx^{n-1}.$$

We can say $a_n x^n - s x^{n-1} > c x^n$ iff

$$x > \frac{s}{a_n - c}$$

$$|f(x)| > cx^n \ \forall 0 < c < a - x > \frac{s}{a_n - c}$$

$$|f(x)| > cx^n \ \forall 0 < c < a_n, \ x > \frac{s}{a_n - c}$$
$$|f(x)| = \Omega(x^n).$$

Example 16 Show that $H_n = O(\log n)$, where H_n is the n^{th} harmonic number

$$H_n = 1 + \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{3} + \dots + \frac{1}{n}.$$

By drawing the curve y = 1/x, $x \ge 1$, we observe that

$$\sum_{j=2}^{n} \frac{1}{j} < \int_{1}^{n} \frac{1}{x} dx.$$

$$\sum_{j=2}^{\infty} \frac{1}{j} < \int_{1}^{\infty} \frac{-dx}{x}.$$

$$=1+\sum_{i=0}^{n}\frac{1}{i}$$

$$H_n = 1 + \sum_{i=2}^{n} \frac{1}{i}$$

$$=1+\sum_{j=2}^{n}\frac{1}{j}$$

$$=1+\sum_{j=2}^{n}\frac{1}{j}$$

 $H_n = O(\log n)$.

$$=1+\sum_{j=2}^{1}\frac{1}{j}$$

$$\int_{j=2}^{n} j$$

$$<1+\int_{1}^{n}\frac{1}{x}dx$$

$$J_1 \quad X = 1 + \ln n$$

$$\begin{array}{ccc}
J_1 & x \\
1 + \ln n & & \\
& & \end{array}$$

$$= 1 + \ln n$$

$$< 2 \ln n = \left(\frac{2}{\log e}\right) \log n$$

($\ln \text{ for base } e$.)

3.3 Complexity of Algorithms (Analysis of Algorithms)

- Time complexity: time required for solving the problem.
- Space complexity: memory required for solving the problem.

Let's stick now to the Analysis of Algorithms concerning Time Complexity.

Time Complexity

Definition 17 (Time Complexity) of an algorithm is expressed in terms of the number of basic operations used by the algorithm when the input has a particular size.

Very Important Comments:

- We defined *Time Complexity* in number of steps, not absolute time, not to be machine dependent.
- Not all operations are *basic*; e.g.,

```
- x = MatrixMultiplcation(A, B);
- x = 0:
```

• Not all basic operations take same execution time.

```
-x = 3 * 4;
```

$$- x = 3 + 4;$$

• Therefore, we have to **define step(s)**.

General Framework of Analysis of Algorithms:

- The best is to obtain an exact expression for complexity *T* (number of steps) as a function of *n* (problem size): *T* = *T* (*n*).
- $T = \Theta(f(n))$ or T = O(f(n)).
- Sometimes *T* is a r.v. (not deterministic)
 - Worst-case complexity: max(T).
 - Best-case complexity: min(*T*).
 - Average-case complexity: E[T]

Example 18 (a max. of a list): xmax = list[0]; for(i=1; i < n; i++)

if (list[i]>xmax) xmax = list[i];

What is the step(s)?

• If a step is **any** comparison: then we have 2(n-1) for both i < n, list [i] > xmax, and another 1 for i < n when exiting the loop.

$$T_1 = 2(n-1) + 1 = 2n - 1.$$

= $\Theta(n)$.

• If a step is an **element** comparison

$$T_2 = n - 1$$
$$= \Theta(n).$$

For both definitions, the worst-, best-, and average-case are the same since the algorithm is deterministic. All are $\Theta(n)$.

Example 19 (linear search) : **for** $(i=1; i \le n; i++)$

a step is an **element** comparison

$$T = i, \ 1 \le i \le n.$$

$$i, 1 \le l \le ll.$$

$$\leq n$$

$$= O(n)$$

$$\min T = 1 = \Theta(1).$$

$$= n = \Theta(n).$$

$$\max T = n = \Theta(n).$$

$$= n - O(n).$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^{n} i \Pr(i)$$

$$E[T] = \sum_{i=1}^{n} i \Pr(i)$$

$$=\sum_{i=1}^{n}i\Pr\left(i\right)$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^{n} i \Pr(i)$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^{n} i \operatorname{Pr}(i)$$
$$-\sum_{i=1}^{n} i \frac{1}{i}$$

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} i \frac{1}{n}$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^{n} i \frac{1}{n}$$

$$=\sum_{i=1}^{n}i\frac{1}{n}$$

 $=\frac{1}{n}\frac{1}{2}n\left(n+1\right)$

 $=\frac{1}{2}(n+1)=\Theta\left(n\right) .$

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 $=\frac{1}{n}\sum_{i=1}^{n}i$

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} i \frac{1}{n}$$

(only for
$$i \sim Uniform(1, n)$$
)

What about if the element exists with, e.g., a linear pmf

 $\Pr(i) = \frac{2}{n(n+1)}i, \ 1 \le i \le n.$

$$E[T] = \sum_{i=1}^{n} i \Pr(i)$$

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

$$= \frac{2}{3} n + \frac{1}{3} \qquad \text{(homework)}$$

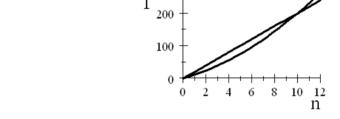
$$> \frac{1}{2} (n+1) \ \forall n > 1.$$

Notice: This is a field by itself: "Probabilistic Analysis of Algorithms"

Understanding the Complexity of Algorithms

- To compare two algorithms you must use the same *step* definition.
- Absolute vs. asymptotic complexity; e.g., which is better, A1 and A2:

$$T_1(n) = n^2 + 10n$$
 $= \Theta(n^2)$
 $T_2(n) = 20n$ $= \Theta(n)$.



• The following algorithm is the best:

- Do not Use O where it is Θ
- If $max(T) = O(n^b)$, the problem is called **tractable.**
- However, $\max(T) = O(n^{100})$, will take unrealistic time
- If $\max(T) \neq O(n^b)$, the problem is called **intractable.**

TABLE 1 Commonly Used Terminology for the Complexity of Algorithms.

Complexity	Terminology
Θ(1)	Constant complexity
$\Theta(\log n)$	Logarithmic complexity
$\Theta(n)$	Linear complexity
$\Theta(n \log n)$	$n \log n$ complexity
$\Theta(n^b)$	Polynomial complexity
$\Theta(b^n)$, where $b > 1$	Exponential complexity
$\Theta(n!)$	Factorial complexity

Problem Size Bit Operations Used n^2 $n \log n$ 2" n!n $\log n$ n 10^{-7} s $3 \times 10^{-9} \text{ s}$ 10^{-8} s $3 \times 10^{-8} \text{ s}$ 10^{-6} s $3 \times 10^{-3} \text{ s}$ 10 $4 \times 10^{13} \text{ yr}$ $7 \times 10^{-9} \text{ s}$ 10^{-7} s $7 \times 10^{-7} \text{ s}$ 10^{-5} s 10^{2} 10^{-6} s $1 \times 10^{-5} \text{ s}$ 10^{3} $1(0 \times 10^{-8} \text{ s})$ 10^{-3} s $1(3 \times 10^{-8} \text{ s})$ 10^{-5} s $1 \times 10^{-4} \text{ s}$ 10^{4} $10^{-1} s$ $1(7 \times 10^{-8} \text{ s})$ $2 \times 10^{-3} \text{ s}$ 10^{-4} s 10^{5} 10 s $2 \times 10^{-8} \text{ s}$ 10^{-3} s $2 \times 10^{-2} \text{ s}$ 10^{6} 17 min

FABLE 2 The Computer Time Used by Algorithms.

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