

ECE 250 - Fall 2018

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## Week 1 Notes

### 1 Introduction

Key details given on Course Outline, Project submissions and Policy 71

### 2 Mathematical background

#### 2.1 Floor and Ceiling Functions

Floor: The *floor* function maps any real number  $x$  onto the greatest integer less than or equal to  $x$   
- Consider it to be rounding towards *negative infinity* Example:  $\text{floor}(0.5) == 0$ ,  $\text{floor}(3.2) == 3$

Ceiling: The *ceiling* function maps any real number  $x$  onto the least integer greater than or equal to  $x$   
- Consider it to be rounding towards *positive infinity* Example:  $\text{ceil}(0.5) == 1$ ,  $\text{ceil}(3.2) == 4$

```
// Both of these functions are implemented in the cmath library
# include <cmath>

double floor(double);
double ceil(double);

/*
They're double because double has a greater range (just under 2^1024)
over long which can represent upto (2^63-1)
*/
```

#### 2.2 L'Hôpital's rule

If you are trying to determine:  $\lim_{x \rightarrow c} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)}$  but both  $\lim_{x \rightarrow c} f(x) = \infty$  and  $\lim_{x \rightarrow c} g(x) = \infty$

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow c} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} = \lim_{x \rightarrow c} \frac{f'(x)}{g'(x)}$$

This rule can be repeated as necessary

## 2.3 Logarithms and Exponentials

- If  $n = e^m$ , we define  $m = \ln(n)$ . It is always true that  $e^{\ln(n)} = n$ ; however,  $\ln(e^n) = n$  requires that  $n$  is real
- Exponentials grow faster than any non-constant polynomial

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{e^n}{n^d} = \infty$$

for any  $d > 0$

- Logarithms grow slower than any polynomial

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\ln(n)}{n^d} = 0$$

for any  $d > 0$

- All logarithms are linear multiples of each other

$$\log_b(n) = \frac{\ln(n)}{\ln(b)}$$

- *// the base-2 logarithm  $\log_2(n)$  is written as  $\lg(n)$*

```
double log(double); //ln(n)
double log10(double); //log10(n)
```

- $m^{\log_b(n)} = n^{\log_b(m)}$

## 2.4 Series

### 2.4.1 Arithmetic Series

Each term in an arithmetic series is increased by a constant value (usually 1):

$$0 + 1 + \dots + n = \sum_{k=0}^n k = \frac{n(n+1)}{2}$$

$$0^2 + 1^2 + \dots + n^2 = \sum_{k=0}^n k^2 = \frac{n(n+1)(2n+1)}{6}$$

$$0^3 + 1^3 + \dots + n^3 = \sum_{k=0}^n k^3 = \left(\frac{n(n+1)}{2}\right)^2$$

To generalise:

$$\sum_{k=0}^n k^d \approx \int_0^n x^d dx = \frac{n^{d+1}}{d+1}$$

The relative error of approximation of the equation goes to zero as  $n$  tends to  $\infty$

### 2.4.2 Geometric Series

The next series we will look at is the geometric series with common ratio  $r$ :

$$\sum_{k=0}^n r^k = \frac{1 - r^{n+1}}{1 - r}$$

and if  $|r| < 1$  then it is also true that

$$\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} r^k = \frac{1}{1 - r}$$

## 2.5 Recurrence Relations

- A recurrence relationship is a means of defining a sequence based on previous values in the sequence.
- Such definitions of sequences are said to be *recursive*

Define an initial value: e.g.,  $x_1 = 1$

Defining  $x_n$  in terms of previous values: For example,

$$x_n = x_{n-1} + 2$$

$$x_n = 2x_{n-1} + n$$

$$x_n = x_{n-1} + x_{n-2}$$

–

## 2.6 Weighted Average

Given  $n$  objects  $x_1, x_2, x_3, \dots, x_n$ , the average is

$$\frac{x_1 + x_2 + x_3 \dots + x_n}{n}$$

Given a sequence of coefficients  $c_1, c_2, c_3, \dots, c_n$  where

$$c_1 + c_2 + \dots + c_n = 1$$

then we refer to:

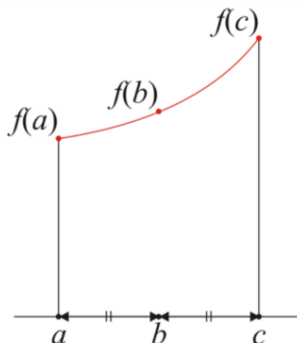
$$\frac{c_1x_1 + c_2x_2 + c_3x_3 \dots + c_nx_n}{n}$$

as a weighted average

For an average,  $c_1 = c_2 = \dots = c_n = 1$

Examples:

- Simpson's method approximates an integral by sampling the function at three points:  $f(a)$ ,  $f(b)$ ,  $f(c)$
- The average value of the function is approximated by



## 2.7 Combinations

Given  $n$  distinct items, in how many ways can you choose  $k$  of these? The number of ways such items can be chosen is written:

$${}^nC_k = \frac{n!}{(k!)(n-k)!}$$

This is also a recursive definition:  ${}^nC_k = {}^{n-1}C_k + {}^{n-1}C_{k-1}$

- These are also the co-efficients of Pascal's Triangle
- They are also the coefficients that we use to expand  $(x + y)^n$