Mathematical Background

It will be useful to review these topics:

- Set concepts and notation
- Recursion
- Proof techniques:
 - □ Induction
 - □ Contradiction
- Logarithms
- Summations
- Recurrence relations

Mathematics Review

Sets

- ☐ A **set** is a collection of distinguishable *members* (aka *elements*)
- ☐ Elements are typically drawn from a large population called a *base type*
- ☐ Each member is a *primitive element* or also a set
- ☐ There is no duplication of elements
- ☐ Example:
 - o R contains elements 3, 4, and 5
 - o Members are 3, 4, and 5
 - Base type is integer
 - Notation: $R = \{3, 4, 5\}$

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- Set Notation
 - ☐ Set membership:
 - $\circ x \in A$: "x is an element of A"
 - $\circ x \ni A$: "x is not an element of A"
 - \square \varnothing denotes null set or empty set
 - $\square \mid A \mid$ denotes set cardinality
 - ☐ Relationships and operations:
 - \circ $A \subseteq B$: "A is a subset of B" or "A is included in B"
 - \circ $B \supseteq A$: "B is a superset of A"
 - \circ $A \cup B$: A union B
 - \circ $A \cap B$: A intersect B
 - \circ A-B: all elements of A but not in B

Mathematics Review

- Types of sets
 - ☐ **Linear order**: a set with the following properties:
 - 1. For any elements a, b in set S, exactly one of a < b, a = b, or a > b is true
 - 2. For all elements $a, b, c \in S$, if a < b and b < c, then a < c (transitivity property)
 - ☐ **Finite Sequence**: similar to a set but order is imposed
 - \square A finite sequence of length n is a function f whose domain is the set $0,1,\ldots,n-1$
 - o Elements of a sequence have an order
 - A sequence may contain duplicates that are distinct members of the sequence

Exponents

$$X^A X^B = X^{A+B}$$
 [E-1]

$$\frac{X^A}{X^B} = X^{A-B}$$
 [E-2]

$$(X^A)^B = X^{AB}$$
 [E-3]

$$X^{N} + X^{N} = 2X^{N} \neq X^{2N}$$
 [E-4]

$$2^N + 2^N = 2^{N+1}$$
 [E-5]

Mathematics Review

In computer science, always assume $\log x$ means $\log_2 x$ unless otherwise stated.

• Logarithms:

$$\log nm = \log n + \log m \qquad [L-1]$$

$$\log \frac{n}{m} = \log n - \log m \qquad [L-2]$$

$$\log n^r = r \log n$$
 [L-3]

$$\log_a n = \frac{\log_b n}{\log_b a}$$
 [L-4]

- Modular Arithmetic
 - \square English: A is congruent to B modulo N
 - \square Mathematically: $A \equiv B \pmod{N}$
 - \square Meaning "N divides A B"
 - ☐ Alternatively:
 - \circ Compute the remainder R_A from dividing N by A
 - \circ Compute the remainder R_B from dividing N by B
 - \circ then $R_A = R_B$ if $A \equiv B \pmod{N}$
 - ☐ Example:
 - \circ 81 \equiv 61 \equiv 1 (mod 10)
 - \square Relations: If $A \equiv B \pmod{N}$, then
 - $\circ A + C \equiv B + C \pmod{N}$
 - $\circ \ AD \equiv BD \ (\mathsf{mod}\ N)$

Mathematics Review

- Proofs
 - □ By induction
 - Example: the sum of the first n positive integers is $\frac{n(n+1)}{2}$
 - ☐ By counterexample
 - Example: If F_k is the kth Fibonacci number, then $F_k \le k^2$ is false
 - ☐ By contradiction
 - Example: "There is no largest integer."

Recursion

An algorithm is *recursive* if it calls itself to do part of its work.

Recursive Functions

```
\square Example (Fig. 1.2):
  int f(int x) {
     if(x == 0)
                             // 1
                              // 2
      return 0;
    else
      return 2*f(x-1) + x*x; // 3
  }
\square Example (Fig. 1.3):
  int bad(int n) {
     if(n == 0)
                                // 1
                                // 2
      return 0;
    else
      return bad(n/3+1) + n-1; // 3
  }
```

Recursion

- Recurrence Relations
 - ☐ Most mathematical functions are simple formulas
 - ☐ *Recursive*: a function defined in terms of itself
 - \square Properties of a recursive function:
 - Function calls itself
 - Each recursive call solves a smaller problem
 - There is a base case
 - The problem size "diminishing" makes progress toward base case
 - ☐ Some good design rules to follow:
 - Base case
 - Recursive calls make progress toward base
 - Assume all recursive calls work
 - Never duplicate work in separate calls

Mathematical Series

$$\sum_{i=0}^{n} i = \frac{n(n+1)}{2}$$
 [S-1]

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} i^2 = \frac{2n^3 + 3n^2 + n}{6}$$
 [S-2]

$$\sum_{i=1}^{\log n} n = n \log n$$
 [S-3]

$$\sum_{i=0}^{\infty} a^i = \frac{1}{1-a} \text{ for } 0 < a < 1$$
 [S-4]

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{i}{2^{i}} = 2 - \frac{n+2}{2^{n}}$$
 [S-5]

Mathematics Review

• Mathematical Series (cont.)

$$\sum_{i=0}^{n} a^{i} = \frac{a^{n+1} - 1}{a - 1} \text{ for } a > 1$$
 [S-6]

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{1}{2^i} = 1 - \frac{1}{2^n}$$
 [S-7]

$$\sum_{i=0}^{n} 2^{i} = 2^{n+1} - 1$$
 [S-8]

$$\sum_{i=0}^{\log n} 2^i = 2^{\log(n+1)} - 1 = 2n - 1$$
 [S-9]

$$H_n = \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{1}{i}; \log_e n < H_n < 1 + \log_e n$$
 [S-10]

C++ Review

You are expected to understand the following C++ concepts:

- C++ Classes
 - ☐ Basic class syntax
 - ☐ Extra constructor syntax and accessors
 - \square Separation of interface and implementation
 - □ Vector and string
- C++ Details
 - □ Pointers
 - ☐ Parameter passing
 - ☐ Return passing
 - ☐ Reference variables
 - ☐ Destructor, copy constructor, operator=
 - ☐ C-style constructs

C++ Review

- Templates
 - ☐ Function templates
 - ☐ Class templates
- Using matrices
 - ☐ Data members, constructor, and basic accessors
 - ☐ Operator[]
 - ☐ Destructor, copy assignment, copy constructor

Methods to Define Generic Routines

- The typedef statement is a simple mechanism allowing a new type name to become a synonym for an old one
- Example: typedef double real;
- Typedef can allow generic routines to be built.
- Example: simple swap routine.

```
typedef double Stype;
void Swap(Stype & lhs, Stype & rhs) {
  Stype tmp = lhs;
  lhs = rhs;
  rhs = tmp;
}
```

- What are the disadvantages to this approach?
- What is desirable?

Templates

Templates are similar in some ways to typedef

- A template is a design for an object, as opposed to an actual object.
- Templates allow *polymorphism* through multiple separate *instantiations* of a defined template.
- Two major kinds of templates:
 - ☐ Template functions
 - ☐ Template classes
- A template function is a pattern for an actual function.
- Multiple instantiations are possible by declaring it using different types.

Use of Template Functions

• Example: templated swap function and main that calls it:

```
template <class Stype>
void swap (Stype & lhs, Stype & rhs) {
 etype tmp = lhs;
 lhs = rhs;
 rhs = tmp;
main() {
 int x = 5:
 int y = 7;
 double a = 21;
 double b = 34;
 swap(x, y);
                   // Instantiate swap w/int.
 swap(x, y);
                   // Uses prior instance
 swap(a, b);
                     // Instantiate swap w/double
// swap(x, b); // This is illegal.
```

Template Classes

- A template class allows multiple object instantiations.
- The compiler automatically creates code for any necessary versions of template classes.
- Syntax is more involved than that of template functions.
- Example: a non-templated memory cell class.

```
// MemoryCell class
// int Read() -> returns the stored value
// void Write(int X) -> X is stored

class MemoryCell {
  private:
    int StoredValue;
  public:
    int Read() { return StoredValue; }
    void Write(int X) { StoredValue = X; }
}
```

Template Classes (cont.)

• Example: Using the MemoryCell class in main

```
main() {
   MemoryCell M;

   M.Write(5);
   cout << "Cell contents are ";
   cout << M.Read() << endl;
}</pre>
```

 How can we declare MemoryCell objects of other types?

Template Classes (cont.)

• Example: a float MemoryCell

```
// MemoryCell2 class
// float Read() -> returns the stored value
// void Write(float X) -> X is stored

class MemoryCell2 {
  private:
    float fStoredValue;
  public:
    float Read() { return fStoredValue; }
    void Write(float X) { fStoredValue = X; }
}

main() {
  MemoryCell2 M2;

M.Write(5.3);
  cout << "Cell contents are ";
  cout << M2.Read() << endl;
}</pre>
```

Templated MemoryCell Class

• Note the use of the template keyword:

```
// MemoryCell class
// Stype Read() -> returns the stored value
// void Write(Stype X) -> X is stored

template <Class Stype>
class MemoryCell {
   private:
      Stype StoredValue;
   public:
      const Stype & Read() const {
      return StoredValue;
   }
   void Write(const Stype & X) {
      StoredValue = X;
   }
}
```

Templated MemoryCell Class (cont.)

• Note how MemoryCells of different types are declared below:

```
main() {
    MemoryCell<int> Mi;
    MemoryCell<float> Mf;

Mi.Write(5);
    Mf.Write(5.34);

cout << "int contents: ";
    cout << Mi.Read() << endl;
    cout << "float contents: ";
    cout << Mf.Read() << endl;
}</pre>
```

Friends

The *friend* declaration allows you to grant access to private class members.

- Motivation:
 - □ sometimes functions/classes are used in conjunction with other classes
 - ☐ Can reduce overhead (runtime)
- Types of friends:
 - ☐ Friend functions: friend keyword precedes function prototype in class definition

Example:

- class A {
 friend void globFunc(A* objPtr);
 friend int B::elFunc(const A& objRef);
 };
- ☐ Friend operators (these are really functions, also)
- ☐ Friend classes

Friend Functions

Example:

```
class Euro {
  private:
    long data;
  public:
    Euro operator/(double x) {
      return (*this * (1.0/x));
    friend Euro operator+ (const Euro& e1,
                           const Euro& e2);
    friend Euro operator- (const Euro& e1,
                           const Euro& e2);
    friend Euro operator* (const Euro& e, double x) {
      Euro temp( ((double)e.data/100.0) * x);
        return temp;
    friend Euro operator* (double x, const Euro& e) {
      return e * x;
    }
};
```

Friend Classes

- All methods in the friend class become friend functions in the class containing the friend declaration
- The class containing the friend declaration decides who its friends are
- Example:

• You will see more examples of this in the book and course notes