Syllabus

Syllabus: CS 3305.HON Syllabus (Spring 2021)

Textbook: Mathematics for Computer Science

Meeting times: T/Th 11:30am-12:45pm

Last day of lecture: Thursday, May 6

Grading Criteria:

Note: Honorlock will be used for all exams, 24 hour window available.

Midterm 1: 20%
Midterm 2: 20%
Final exam: 20%
Homework: 25%
Paper review: 10%

6. Class participation: 5%

See syllabus (linked above) for more information.

Day 1: 1/19

Why Discrete?

Rigorous understanding of algorithms: Proving the correctness of algorithms and verify that their performance is as expected.

Time complexity and space complexity: space complexity is also important because RAM can only hold so much information before slowing down (due to accessing hard drive for swapping)

Asymptotic Bound

1. **Big-O**: Upper bound of complexity

2. Big-Omega: Lower bound

3. Big-Theta: Tight bound, set intersection of Big-O and Big-Theta

Modular Arithmetic

$$a \equiv b \pmod{m} \iff a \mod m = b \mod m \iff (a - b) \equiv 0 \pmod{m}$$

Representation of Numbers

• **Decimal**: 0, 1, 2, ..., 9

• **Binary**: 0, 1

• Hexadecimal: 0, 1, 2, ..., 9, A, B, C, D, E, F

Binary multiplying by power of 2

$$5_{10} = 101_2 \Longrightarrow 10_{10} = 1010_2 \Longrightarrow 20_{10} = 10100_2$$

Bit shift left for multiplying by 2, bit shift right for dividing (truncate) by 2.

Prime and Composite Numbers

Prime: only 2 factors, 1 and itself

Composite: more than 2 factors

Sieve of Eratosthenes

Discard multiples of prime numbers to *sieve* through set of all numbers less than n.

Induction and Recursion

- **Recursion**: express problem as smaller instances
- Induction: used to prove recursion solutions
- Strong Induction: induction based on all previous steps rather than just the one previous step

Day 2: 1/21

Counting

Counting is a classic problem in discrete mathematics. Some counting problems are difficult at first, but we can map the original problem P into another problem P', count for P', then map back to P.

Pigeonhole Principle: if we have n pigeons and m pigeonholes, given n > m, there must be at least one pigeonhole with more than one pigeon.

Permutation and Combinations

Permutation: arrange k elements from a set of n elements (order matters) = $\frac{n!}{(n-k)!}$

Combination: number of ways to select k out of n: $\binom{n}{k} = \frac{n!}{(n-k)\cdot !k!}$

Binomial Theorem: $(x+a)^n = \sum_{k=0}^n \binom{n}{k} x^k a^{n-k}$

Fun fact: $(1+1)^n = 1 + \binom{n}{1} + \binom{n}{2} + \ldots + \binom{n}{n}$, which means that the row sum of the n-th row of the Pascal's Triangle is 2^n .

Another fun fact: $\binom{n}{k} = \binom{n}{n-k}$, which can be used to simplify calculations. The intuition is that we can select the people to *not* select, which is the same result as the original problem (mapping idea from above).

Fibonacci numbers

Recurrence relation: $n_i = n_{i-1} + n_{i-2}$, with $n_0 = 1$, $n_1 = 1$

Note that the ratio between two consecutive recurrence relations approaches ϕ .

Stairs Problem

Problem: You have a flight of n stairs, and you can take 1 or 2 steps at a time. How many ways are there to climb the n steps?

Let f(n) be the number of ways to climb n steps. Then f(n) = f(n-1) + f(n-2) because you can either take one step and have to take n-1 more steps, or take two steps and have to take n-2 more steps. This leads to two smaller problems that can be further reduced. One thing to note that this is the same as the Fibonacci sequence.

Relations

• Reflective: aRa

• Symmetric: aRb implies bRa, example is "sibling of"

• Transitive: aRb, bRc, then aRc, example is "less than"

• Equivalence Relation: reflective, symmetric, and transitive

Example

 $a \equiv b \pmod{m}$

This yields m equivalence classes where each class is equal modulo m. For example, if m=5, then $1,6,11,16,11,\ldots$ are all part of the same equivalence class where $a\equiv 1 \pmod m$.

Graphs

Graphs consist of a set of **vertices** and a set of **edges** connecting pairs of vertices. **Directed graphs** have edges that point in one direction, while **undirected graphs** have edges that do not have directions (goes both ways, equivalent to two opposite directed edges).

There are many examples of graphs, such as highway networks, the internet, or social networks. One example of a **Directed Acyclic Graph** (DAG) is a prerequisite graph, where vertices are courses and edges point from a prerequisite of a course to the course itself.

In a prerequisite graph, the longest chain is smallest number of semesters required for the student to graduate. Thus, the student should choose to postpone other courses that are *not* on this **critical path** so that they do not delay graduation.

Another example is the internet, where the web servers must find the shortest path to get information (web pages, videos, images) to your browser. This would minimize the amount of delay between sending the request and receiving the information.

There are many examples of how graphs can be used, such as social network or the Bacon number. The key takeaway is that because there are so many applications, designing efficient (both time and space) algorithms is very important to solving problems that would otherwise be very time-consuming.

Representing Graphs

Adjacency Matrix

 $n \cdot n$ matrix M where M[i,j] = 1 means there is an edge between vertex i and j. Note: M^2 represents connection between vertices separated by length 2.

Trees

Definition: Graph with no cycles.

Examples of trees include computer file systems, tournament brackets, dictionary search trees, etc.

Tournament Example

Problem: In an elimination tournament bracket, how many games are played before the winner emerges?

Answer: There must be n-1 games because each game eliminates one team, and the last team can not be eliminated (it is the winner).

Note: this is the easier way to solve the problem, you can also solve the problem using geometric series or by noticing that a tree has n-1 edges.