# Math Camp

Justin Grimmer

Associate Professor Department of Political Science University of Chicago

August 28th, 2017

< Course >

Social Science: systematic analysis of society

Social Science: systematic analysis of society (Political Science: who gets what, when, and how).

Social Science: systematic analysis of society (Political Science: who gets what, when, and how).

Methodology: Develop and disseminate tools to make inferences about society

Social Science: systematic analysis of society (Political Science: who gets what, when, and how).

Methodology: Develop and disseminate tools to make inferences about society

- Mathematical models of social world

Social Science: systematic analysis of society (Political Science: who gets what, when, and how).

Methodology: Develop and disseminate tools to make inferences about society

- Mathematical models of social world
- Probability and Statistics used across sciences

Social Science: systematic analysis of society (Political Science: who gets what, when, and how).

Methodology: Develop and disseminate tools to make inferences about society

- Mathematical models of social world
- Probability and Statistics used across sciences

This class (introduction):

Social Science: systematic analysis of society (Political Science: who gets what, when, and how).

Methodology: Develop and disseminate tools to make inferences about society

- Mathematical models of social world
- Probability and Statistics used across sciences

This class (introduction):

- Math Camp: Develop Tools for Analysis

Social Science: systematic analysis of society (Political Science: who gets what, when, and how).

Methodology: Develop and disseminate tools to make inferences about society

- Mathematical models of social world
- Probability and Statistics used across sciences

This class (introduction):

- Math Camp: Develop Tools for Analysis
- Probability theory: systematic model of randomness

First stop in methodology sequence

First stop in methodology sequence

Big Goal: prepare you to make discoveries about social world

First stop in methodology sequence

Big Goal: prepare you to make discoveries about social world

Proximate Goals

First stop in methodology sequence

Big Goal: prepare you to make discoveries about social world

Proximate Goals

- 1) Mathematical tools to comprehend and use statistical methods
- 2) Foundation in probability theory/analytic reasoning

First stop in methodology sequence

Big Goal: prepare you to make discoveries about social world Proximate Goals

- 1) Mathematical tools to comprehend and use statistical methods
- 2) Foundation in probability theory/analytic reasoning
- 3) Practical Computing Tools: R

Me: Justin Grimmer

Me: Justin Grimmer

- Office: Pick Hall 423

Me: Justin Grimmer

- Office: Pick Hall 423

- Email: grimmer@uchicago.edu

Me: Justin Grimmer

- Office: Pick Hall 423

- Email: grimmer@uchicago.edu

- Cell: 617-710-6803

Me: Justin Grimmer

- Office: Pick Hall 423

- Email: grimmer@uchicago.edu

- Cell: 617-710-6803

- Office Hours: I'm generally here all the time (9am to 5pm), just stop by [but if you need to see me with 100% probability, schedule a visit]

Me: Justin Grimmer

- Office: Pick Hall 423

- Email: grimmer@uchicago.edu

- Cell: 617-710-6803

- Office Hours: I'm generally here all the time (9am to 5pm), just stop by [but if you need to see me with 100% probability, schedule a visit]

#### TA Info

- Joshua MausolfRyan Hughes
- We will hold twice weekly labs, that will occur in this room from 130-300pm (or so)
- Github for class: github/justingrimmer/MathCamp

# No Formal Prerequisites BUT

- Successful students will know differential and integral calculus

- Successful students will know differential and integral calculus
  - 1) Limits (intuitive)

## No Formal Prerequisites

#### BUT

- Successful students will know differential and integral calculus
  - 1) Limits (intuitive)
  - 2) Derivatives (tangent lines, differentiation rules)

### No Formal Prerequisites

#### BUT

- Successful students will know differential and integral calculus
  - 1) Limits (intuitive)
  - 2) Derivatives (tangent lines, differentiation rules)
  - 3) Integrals (fundamental theorem of calculus/antidifferentiation rules

- Successful students will know differential and integral calculus
  - 1) Limits (intuitive)
  - 2) Derivatives (tangent lines, differentiation rules)
  - 3) Integrals (fundamental theorem of calculus/antidifferentiation rules
- We are here to help

- Successful students will know differential and integral calculus
  - 1) Limits (intuitive)
  - 2) Derivatives (tangent lines, differentiation rules)
  - 3) Integrals (fundamental theorem of calculus/antidifferentiation rules
- We are here to help
  - No mystery to learning math: just hard work

- Successful students will know differential and integral calculus
  - 1) Limits (intuitive)
  - 2) Derivatives (tangent lines, differentiation rules)
  - 3) Integrals (fundamental theorem of calculus/antidifferentiation rules
- We are here to help
  - No mystery to learning math: just hard work
  - Political science increasingly requires math

- Successful students will know differential and integral calculus
  - 1) Limits (intuitive)
  - 2) Derivatives (tangent lines, differentiation rules)
  - 3) Integrals (fundamental theorem of calculus/antidifferentiation rules
- We are here to help
  - No mystery to learning math: just hard work
  - Political science increasingly requires math
  - Empirical: calculus and linear algebra

- Successful students will know differential and integral calculus
  - 1) Limits (intuitive)
  - 2) Derivatives (tangent lines, differentiation rules)
  - 3) Integrals (fundamental theorem of calculus/antidifferentiation rules
- We are here to help
  - No mystery to learning math: just hard work
  - Political science increasingly requires math
  - Empirical: calculus and linear algebra
  - Quantitative Methodologist: Real Analysis and Grad level statistics

- Successful students will know differential and integral calculus
  - 1) Limits (intuitive)
  - 2) Derivatives (tangent lines, differentiation rules)
  - 3) Integrals (fundamental theorem of calculus/antidifferentiation rules
- We are here to help
  - No mystery to learning math: just hard work
  - Political science increasingly requires math
  - Empirical: calculus and linear algebra
  - Quantitative Methodologist: Real Analysis and Grad level statistics
  - Formal Theory: Real Analysis (through measure theory), Topology

### **Evaluation**

You're not taking this class for a grade

#### **Evaluation**

You're not taking this class for a grade → that shouldn't matter:

You're not taking this class for a grade → that shouldn't matter:

- Math Camp Exam

You're not taking this class for a grade → that shouldn't matter:

- Math Camp Exam

Grad School Irony

You're not taking this class for a grade → that shouldn't matter:

- Math Camp Exam

Grad School Irony Or: How I Learned to Stop Worrying and Love C's

You're not taking this class for a grade  $\rightsquigarrow$  that shouldn't matter:

- Math Camp Exam

Grad School Irony Or: How I Learned to Stop Worrying and Love C's

- Grades no longer matter

You're not taking this class for a grade → that shouldn't matter:

- Math Camp Exam

Grad School Irony Or: How I Learned to Stop Worrying and Love C's

- Grades no longer matter
- Learn as much material as possible

You're not taking this class for a grade  $\rightsquigarrow$  that shouldn't matter:

- Math Camp Exam

Grad School Irony Or: How I Learned to Stop Worrying and Love C's

- Grades no longer matter
- Learn as much material as possible
- If you truly only care about learning material, you'll get amazing grades

#### Homework

Math camp: assigned daily  $\leadsto$  Mechanics of solving problems Lab Assignment: Twice weekly assignments, help you develop computational and mathematical skills.

Greatest scientific discovery of 20th Century:

Greatest scientific discovery of 20th Century: Powerful personal computer (standardize science)

Greatest scientific discovery of 20th Century:

Powerful personal computer (standardize science)

1956: \$10,000 megabyte

Greatest scientific discovery of 20th Century:

Powerful personal computer (standardize science)

1956: \$10,000 megabyte

2015: <<< \$ 0.0001 per megabyte

Greatest scientific discovery of 20th Century:

Powerful personal computer (standardize science)

1956: \$10,000 megabyte

2015: <<< \$ 0.0001 per megabyte

Greatest scientific discovery of 20th Century:

Powerful personal computer (standardize science)

1956: \$10,000 megabyte

2015: <<< \$ 0.0001 per megabyte

Statistical Computing: R

- R: Scripting language

Greatest scientific discovery of 20th Century:

Powerful personal computer (standardize science)

1956: \$10,000 megabyte

2015: <<< \$ 0.0001 per megabyte

- R: Scripting language
- Flexible

Greatest scientific discovery of 20th Century:

Powerful personal computer (standardize science)

1956: \$10,000 megabyte

2015: <<< \$ 0.0001 per megabyte

- R: Scripting language
- Flexible, Cutting Edge Software

Greatest scientific discovery of 20th Century:

Powerful personal computer (standardize science)

1956: \$10,000 megabyte

2015: <<< \$ 0.0001 per megabyte

- R: Scripting language
- Flexible, Cutting Edge Software, great visualization tools

Greatest scientific discovery of 20th Century:

Powerful personal computer (standardize science)

1956: \$10,000 megabyte

2015: <<< \$ 0.0001 per megabyte

- R: Scripting language
- Flexible, Cutting Edge Software, great visualization tools and makes learning other programs easier

Greatest scientific discovery of 20th Century:

Powerful personal computer (standardize science)

1956: \$10,000 megabyte

2015: <<< \$ 0.0001 per megabyte

- R: Scripting language
- Flexible, Cutting Edge Software, great visualization tools and makes learning other programs easier
- More start up costs than STATA, but more payoff

Greatest scientific discovery of 20th Century:

Powerful personal computer (standardize science)

1956: \$10,000 megabyte

2015: <<< \$ 0.0001 per megabyte

Statistical Computing: R

- R: Scripting language
- Flexible, Cutting Edge Software, great visualization tools and makes learning other programs easier
- More start up costs than STATA, but more payoff

Paper writeup: LATEX

Greatest scientific discovery of 20th Century:

Powerful personal computer (standardize science)

1956: \$10,000 megabyte

2015: <<< \$ 0.0001 per megabyte

Statistical Computing: R

- R: Scripting language
- Flexible, Cutting Edge Software, great visualization tools and makes learning other programs easier
- More start up costs than STATA, but more payoff

Paper writeup: LATEX

- Hard to write equations in Word:

Greatest scientific discovery of 20th Century:

Powerful personal computer (standardize science)

1956: \$10,000 megabyte

2015: <<< \$ 0.0001 per megabyte

Statistical Computing: R

- R: Scripting language
- Flexible, Cutting Edge Software, great visualization tools and makes learning other programs easier
- More start up costs than STATA, but more payoff

Paper writeup: LATEX

- Hard to write equations in Word:
- Relatively easy in LATEX

Greatest scientific discovery of 20th Century:

Powerful personal computer (standardize science)

1956: \$10,000 megabyte

2015: <<< \$ 0.0001 per megabyte

Statistical Computing: R

- R: Scripting language
- Flexible, Cutting Edge Software, great visualization tools and makes learning other programs easier
- More start up costs than STATA, but more payoff

Paper writeup: LATEX

- Hard to write equations in Word:
- Relatively easy in LATEX

$$f(x) = \frac{\exp(-\frac{(x-\mu)^2}{2\sigma^2})}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma^2}}$$

Greatest scientific discovery of 20th Century:

Powerful personal computer (standardize science)

1956: \$10,000 megabyte

2015: <<< \$ 0.0001 per megabyte

Statistical Computing: R

- R: Scripting language
- Flexible, Cutting Edge Software, great visualization tools and makes learning other programs easier
- More start up costs than STATA, but more payoff

Paper writeup: LATEX

- Hard to write equations in Word:
- Relatively easy in LATEX

$$f(x) = \frac{\exp(-\frac{(x-\mu)^2}{2\sigma^2})}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma^2}}$$

- Tables/Figures/General type/Nice Presentations setting: easier in LATEX



Greatest scientific discovery of 20th Century:

Powerful personal computer (standardize science)

1956: \$10,000 megabyte

2015: <<< \$ 0.0001 per megabyte

Statistical Computing: R

- R: Scripting language
- Flexible, Cutting Edge Software, great visualization tools and makes learning other programs easier
- More start up costs than STATA, but more payoff

Paper writeup: LATEX

- Hard to write equations in Word:
- Relatively easy in LATEX

$$f(x) = \frac{\exp(-\frac{(x-\mu)^2}{2\sigma^2})}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma^2}}$$

- Tables/Figures/General type/Nice Presentations setting: easier in  $\LaTeX$ 

- If you use start using LATEX, you'll soon love it

#### Course Books

- 1) Simon, Carl and Blume, Lawrence (SB). Mathematics for Economists.
- 2) Bertsekas, Dimitri P. and Tsitsiklis, John (BT) Introduction to Probability Theory (second edition)

Three part mixture:

#### Three part mixture:



George Strait

#### Three part mixture:



George Strait

Kanye West

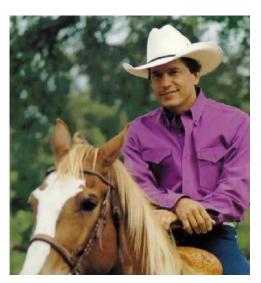
#### Three part mixture:



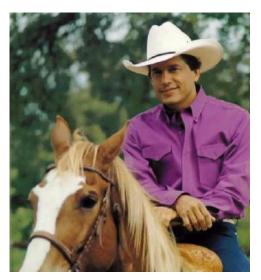
Kanye West

Steve Prefontaine





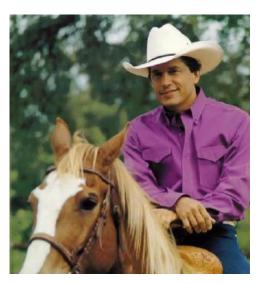
 Amarillo By Morning [Terry Stafford 1973, George Strait 1982]



- Amarillo By Morning [Terry Stafford 1973, George Strait 1982]
- Ostensibly: song about rodeo cowboys



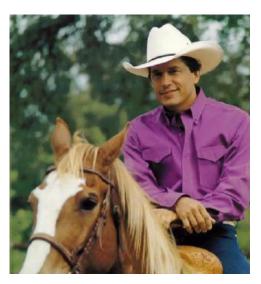
- Amarillo By Morning [Terry Stafford 1973, George Strait 1982]
- Ostensibly: song about rodeo cowboys
- Really: song about being academic



- Amarillo By Morning [Terry Stafford 1973, George Strait 1982]
- Ostensibly: song about rodeo cowboys
- Really: song about being academic
- "I ain't got a dime/but what I got is mine/I ain't rich/ but lord I'm free"

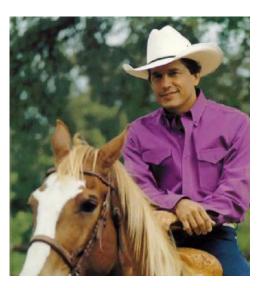


- Amarillo By Morning [Terry Stafford 1973, George Strait 1982]
- Ostensibly: song about rodeo cowboys
- Really: song about being academic
- "I ain't got a dime/but what I got is mine/I ain't rich/ but lord I'm free"
- Academics ain't rich (counterfactually)



- Amarillo By Morning [Terry Stafford 1973, George Strait 1982]
- Ostensibly: song about rodeo cowboys
- Really: song about being academic
- "I ain't got a dime/but what I got is mine/I ain't rich/ but lord I'm free"
- Academics ain't rich (counterfactually)
- But (lord) we're free

# $\frac{1}{3}$ George Strait



- Amarillo By Morning [Terry Stafford 1973, George Strait 1982]
- Ostensibly: song about rodeo cowboys
- Really: song about being academic
- "I ain't got a dime/but what I got is mine/I ain't rich/ but lord I'm free"
- Academics ain't rich (counterfactually)
- But (lord) we're free





 Deal with explicit criticism (part of Hip/Hop culture)



- Deal with explicit criticism (part of Hip/Hop culture)
- On masterpiece album My Beautiful Dark Twisted Fantasy



- Deal with explicit criticism (part of Hip/Hop culture)
- On masterpiece album My Beautiful Dark Twisted Fantasy
- "Screams from the haters, got a nice ring to it/I guess every superhero needs his theme music"



- Deal with explicit criticism (part of Hip/Hop culture)
- On masterpiece album My Beautiful Dark Twisted Fantasy
- "Screams from the haters, got a nice ring to it/I guess every superhero needs his theme music"
- Kid Cudi: "These motherf\*\*kers can't fathom the wizadry"



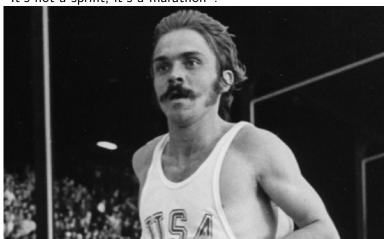
- Deal with explicit criticism (part of Hip/Hop culture)
- On masterpiece album My Beautiful Dark Twisted Fantasy
- "Screams from the haters, got a nice ring to it/I guess every superhero needs his theme music"
- Kid Cudi: "These motherf\*\*kers can't fathom the wizadry"
- Academics: intense criticism of ideas



- Deal with explicit criticism (part of Hip/Hop culture)
- On masterpiece album My Beautiful Dark Twisted Fantasy
- "Screams from the haters, got a nice ring to it/I guess every superhero needs his theme music"
- Kid Cudi: "These motherf\*\*kers can't fathom the wizadry"
- Academics: intense criticism of ideas
- Very rarely will you be told you're doing a great job



- Deal with explicit criticism (part of Hip/Hop culture)
- On masterpiece album My Beautiful Dark Twisted Fantasy
- "Screams from the haters, got a nice ring to it/I guess every superhero needs his theme music"
- Kid Cudi: "These motherf\*\*kers can't fathom the wizadry"
- Academics: intense criticism of ideas
- Very rarely will you be told you're doing a great job
- Self confidence: believe in work



"It's not a sprint, it's a marathon".

- World class distance running: it is hard

- World class distance running: it is hard
- But not for the obvious reasons

- World class distance running: it is hard
- But not for the obvious reasons
- Marathon: 4:40 minute mile, for 26.2 miles.

- World class distance running: it is hard
- But not for the obvious reasons
- Marathon: 4:40 minute mile, for 26.2 miles.
- How to train?

- World class distance running: it is hard
- But not for the obvious reasons
- Marathon: 4:40 minute mile, for 26.2 miles.
- How to train?
  - Old way: get in shape (run far) rely on adrenaline in race

- World class distance running: it is hard
- But not for the obvious reasons
- Marathon: 4:40 minute mile, for 26.2 miles.
- How to train?
  - Old way: get in shape (run far) rely on adrenaline in race
  - Now: races more tactical and agonizing

- World class distance running: it is hard
- But not for the obvious reasons
- Marathon: 4:40 minute mile, for 26.2 miles.
- How to train?
  - Old way: get in shape (run far) rely on adrenaline in race
  - Now: races more tactical and agonizing
  - Need to prepare for agony

- World class distance running: it is hard
- But not for the obvious reasons
- Marathon: 4:40 minute mile, for 26.2 miles.
- How to train?
  - Old way: get in shape (run far) rely on adrenaline in race
  - Now: races more tactical and agonizing
  - Need to prepare for agony
- Mantra: sustained agony

- World class distance running: it is hard
- But not for the obvious reasons
- Marathon: 4:40 minute mile, for 26.2 miles.
- How to train?
  - Old way: get in shape (run far) rely on adrenaline in race
  - Now: races more tactical and agonizing
  - Need to prepare for agony
- Mantra: sustained agony
- Graduate School/Academics: Sustained Agony

- World class distance running: it is hard
- But not for the obvious reasons
- Marathon: 4:40 minute mile, for 26.2 miles.
- How to train?
  - Old way: get in shape (run far) rely on adrenaline in race
  - Now: races more tactical and agonizing
  - Need to prepare for agony
- Mantra: sustained agony
- Graduate School/Academics: Sustained Agony

Not crazy to work 40 hours on methods alone

- Methods → skills use for rest of career

- Methods → skills use for rest of career
- Methods → often takes deep thinking, practice

- Methods → skills use for rest of career
- Methods → often takes deep thinking, practice

### TAKE BREAKS!

- Methods → skills use for rest of career
- Methods → often takes deep thinking, practice

### TAKE BREAKS!

- Regular physical activity → improve focus

- Methods → skills use for rest of career
- Methods → often takes deep thinking, practice

### TAKE BREAKS!

- Regular physical activity → improve focus
- Time away from lab  $\leadsto$  more productive when back

Why work so hard?

- You are all smart

Why work so hard?

- You are all smart Really Smart

Why work so hard?

- You are all smart Really Smart Mother-in-law brags about you smart

- You are all smart Really Smart Mother-in-law brags about you smart
- Everyone entering graduate school at top programs this fall

- You are all smart Really Smart Mother-in-law brags about you smart
- Everyone entering graduate school at top programs this fall
- Success: work

- You are all smart Really Smart Mother-in-law brags about you smart
- Everyone entering graduate school at top programs this fall
- Success: work
- Treat grad school like a job

- You are all smart Really Smart Mother-in-law brags about you smart
- Everyone entering graduate school at top programs this fall
- Success: work
- Treat grad school like a job
- Who gets ahead? who gets the most work done on the smartest ideas

#### **Preliminaries**

What can you learn in a math camp?

What can you learn in a math camp?

1) Introduction to more sophisticated mathematics (notation)

What can you learn in a math camp?

- 1) Introduction to more sophisticated mathematics (notation)
- 2) Getting acquainted with proof techniques and proofs

What can you learn in a math camp?

- 1) Introduction to more sophisticated mathematics (notation)
- 2) Getting acquainted with proof techniques and proofs
- 3) I'm going to introduce ideas/example problems common in research that will help with your seminar

What can you learn in a math camp?

- 1) Introduction to more sophisticated mathematics (notation)
- 2) Getting acquainted with proof techniques and proofs
- 3) I'm going to introduce ideas/example problems common in research that will help with your seminar
- 4) This will not substitute for a richer math background and we won't expect it to

What can you learn in a math camp?

- 1) Introduction to more sophisticated mathematics (notation)
- 2) Getting acquainted with proof techniques and proofs
- 3) I'm going to introduce ideas/example problems common in research that will help with your seminar
- 4) This will not substitute for a richer math background and we won't expect it to

Do not let yourself get lost.

What can you learn in a math camp?

- 1) Introduction to more sophisticated mathematics (notation)
- 2) Getting acquainted with proof techniques and proofs
- 3) I'm going to introduce ideas/example problems common in research that will help with your seminar
- 4) This will not substitute for a richer math background and we won't expect it to

Do not let yourself get lost.

If at.

What can you learn in a math camp?

- 1) Introduction to more sophisticated mathematics (notation)
- 2) Getting acquainted with proof techniques and proofs
- 3) I'm going to introduce ideas/example problems common in research that will help with your seminar
- 4) This will not substitute for a richer math background and we won't expect it to

Do not let yourself get lost.

If at. any.

What can you learn in a math camp?

- 1) Introduction to more sophisticated mathematics (notation)
- 2) Getting acquainted with proof techniques and proofs
- 3) I'm going to introduce ideas/example problems common in research that will help with your seminar
- 4) This will not substitute for a richer math background and we won't expect it to

Do not let yourself get lost.

If at. any. point.

What can you learn in a math camp?

- 1) Introduction to more sophisticated mathematics (notation)
- 2) Getting acquainted with proof techniques and proofs
- 3) I'm going to introduce ideas/example problems common in research that will help with your seminar
- 4) This will not substitute for a richer math background and we won't expect it to

Do not let yourself get lost.

If at. any. point. you have a question

What can you learn in a math camp?

- 1) Introduction to more sophisticated mathematics (notation)
- 2) Getting acquainted with proof techniques and proofs
- 3) I'm going to introduce ideas/example problems common in research that will help with your seminar
- 4) This will not substitute for a richer math background and we won't expect it to

Do not let yourself get lost.

If at. any. point. you have a question please ask!

What can you learn in a math camp?

- 1) Introduction to more sophisticated mathematics (notation)
- 2) Getting acquainted with proof techniques and proofs
- 3) I'm going to introduce ideas/example problems common in research that will help with your seminar
- 4) This will not substitute for a richer math background and we won't expect it to

Do not let yourself get lost.

If at. any. point. you have a question please ask! Smartest people ask the most questions!

# Let's get to work

# Sets

A set is a collection of objects.

$$A = \{1, 2, 3\}$$
 $B = \{4, 5, 6\}$ 
 $C = \{First year cohort\}$ 
 $D = \{U \text{ of Chicago Faculty}\}$ 

If A is a set, we say that x is an element of A by writing,  $x \in A$ . If x is not an element of A then, we write  $x \notin A$ .

 $-1 \in \{1, 2, 3\}$ 

- $-1 \in \{1, 2, 3\}$
- $4 \in \{4, 5, 6\}$

- $-1 \in \{1, 2, 3\}$
- $-4 \in \{4,5,6\}$
- Will ∉ {First year cohort}

- $-1 \in \{1, 2, 3\}$
- $4 \in \{4, 5, 6\}$
- Will ∉ {First year cohort}
- Justin ∈ {U Chicago Faculty}

If A is a set, we say that x is an element of A by writing,  $x \in A$ . If x is not an element of A then, we write  $x \notin A$ .

- $-1 \in \{1, 2, 3\}$
- $-4 \in \{4,5,6\}$
- Will ∉ {First year cohort}
- Justin  $\in \{U \text{ Chicago Faculty}\}\$

Why Care?

If A is a set, we say that x is an element of A by writing,  $x \in A$ . If x is not an element of A then, we write  $x \notin A$ .

- $-1 \in \{1, 2, 3\}$
- $-4 \in \{4,5,6\}$
- Will ∉ {First year cohort}
- Justin  $\in \{U \text{ Chicago Faculty}\}\$

# Why Care?

- Sets are necessary for probability theory

If A is a set, we say that x is an element of A by writing,  $x \in A$ . If x is not an element of A then, we write  $x \notin A$ .

- $-1 \in \{1, 2, 3\}$
- $-4 \in \{4,5,6\}$
- Will ∉ {First year cohort}
- Justin  $\in \{U \text{ Chicago Faculty}\}\$

# Why Care?

- Sets are necessary for probability theory
- Defining set is equivalent ot choosing population of interest (usually)

If A and B are sets, then we say that A = B if, for all  $x \in A$  then  $x \in B$  and for all  $y \in B$  then  $y \in A$ .

If A and B are sets, then we say that A = B if, for all  $x \in A$  then  $x \in B$  and for all  $y \in B$  then  $y \in A$ .

- Test to determine equality:

If A and B are sets, then we say that A = B if, for all  $x \in A$  then  $x \in B$  and for all  $y \in B$  then  $y \in A$ .

- Test to determine equality:
  - Take all elements of A, see if in B

If A and B are sets, then we say that A = B if, for all  $x \in A$  then  $x \in B$  and for all  $y \in B$  then  $y \in A$ .

- Test to determine equality:
  - Take all elements of A, see if in B
  - Take all elements of B, see if in A

If A and B are sets, then we say that A = B if, for all  $x \in A$  then  $x \in B$  and for all  $y \in B$  then  $y \in A$ .

- Test to determine equality:
  - Take all elements of A, see if in B
  - Take all elements of B, see if in A

#### Definition

If A and B are sets, then we say that  $A \subset B$  is, for all  $x \in A$ , then  $x \in B$ .

If A and B are sets, then we say that A = B if, for all  $x \in A$  then  $x \in B$  and for all  $y \in B$  then  $y \in A$ .

- Test to determine equality:
  - Take all elements of A, see if in B
  - Take all elements of B, see if in A

## Definition

If A and B are sets, then we say that  $A \subset B$  is, for all  $x \in A$ , then  $x \in B$ .

Difference between definitions?

Let A and B be sets. If A = B then  $A \subset B$  and  $B \subset A$ 

Let A and B be sets. If A = B then  $A \subset B$  and  $B \subset A$ 

Proof.

Suppose A = B. By definition, if  $x \in A$  then  $x \in B$ . So  $A \subset B$ . Again, by definition, if  $y \in B$  then  $y \in A$ . So  $B \subset A$ .

Let A and B be sets. If A = B then  $A \subset B$  and  $B \subset A$ 

# Proof.

Suppose A = B. By definition, if  $x \in A$  then  $x \in B$ . So  $A \subset B$ . Again, by definition, if  $y \in B$  then  $y \in A$ . So  $B \subset A$ .

## Theorem

Let A and B be sets. If  $A \subset B$  and  $B \subset A$  then A = B

Let A and B be sets. If A = B then  $A \subset B$  and  $B \subset A$ 

# Proof.

Suppose A = B. By definition, if  $x \in A$  then  $x \in B$ . So  $A \subset B$ . Again, by definition, if  $y \in B$  then  $y \in A$ . So  $B \subset A$ .

## Theorem

Let A and B be sets. If  $A \subset B$  and  $B \subset A$  then A = B

# Proof.

Suppose  $A \subset B$  and that  $B \subset A$ . For all  $x \in A$ , then  $x \in B$ . And for all  $y \in B$ ,  $y \in A$ . Or, every element in A is in B and each element of B is in A. A = B.

Let A and B be sets. Then A = B if and only if  $A \subset B$  and  $B \subset A$ .

Let A and B be sets. Then A = B if and only if  $A \subset B$  and  $B \subset A$ .

## Proof.

 $\Rightarrow$  Suppose A=B. By definition, if  $x\in A$ ,  $x\in B$ . So  $A\subset B$ . Again, by definition, if  $y\in B$  then  $y\in A$ . So  $B\subset A$ .

Let A and B be sets. Then A = B if and only if  $A \subset B$  and  $B \subset A$ .

# Proof.

- $\Rightarrow$  Suppose A=B. By definition, if  $x\in A$ ,  $x\in B$ . So  $A\subset B$ . Again, by definition, if  $y\in B$  then  $y\in A$ . So  $B\subset A$ .
- $\Leftarrow$  Suppose  $A \subset B$  and that  $B \subset A$ . For all  $x \in A$ , then  $x \in B$ . And for all  $y \in B$ ,  $y \in A$ . Or, every element in A is in B and each element of B is in A. A = B.

Let A and B be sets. Then A = B if and only if  $A \subset B$  and  $B \subset A$ .

# Proof.

- $\Rightarrow$  Suppose A=B. By definition, if  $x\in A$ ,  $x\in B$ . So  $A\subset B$ . Again, by definition, if  $y\in B$  then  $y\in A$ . So  $B\subset A$ .
- $\Leftarrow$  Suppose  $A \subset B$  and that  $B \subset A$ . For all  $x \in A$ , then  $x \in B$ . And for all  $y \in B$ ,  $y \in A$ . Or, every element in A is in B and each element of B is in A. A = B.

When a proof says if and only if it is showing two things.

Let A and B be sets. Then A = B if and only if  $A \subset B$  and  $B \subset A$ .

# Proof.

- $\Rightarrow$  Suppose A=B. By definition, if  $x\in A$ ,  $x\in B$ . So  $A\subset B$ . Again, by definition, if  $y\in B$  then  $y\in A$ . So  $B\subset A$ .
- $\Leftarrow$  Suppose  $A \subset B$  and that  $B \subset A$ . For all  $x \in A$ , then  $x \in B$ . And for all  $y \in B$ ,  $y \in A$ . Or, every element in A is in B and each element of B is in A. A = B.

When a proof says if and only if it is showing two things.

- If or that a condition is sufficient

Let A and B be sets. Then A = B if and only if  $A \subset B$  and  $B \subset A$ .

# Proof.

- $\Rightarrow$  Suppose A=B. By definition, if  $x\in A$ ,  $x\in B$ . So  $A\subset B$ . Again, by definition, if  $y\in B$  then  $y\in A$ . So  $B\subset A$ .
- $\Leftarrow$  Suppose  $A \subset B$  and that  $B \subset A$ . For all  $x \in A$ , then  $x \in B$ . And for all  $y \in B$ ,  $y \in A$ . Or, every element in A is in B and each element of B is in A. A = B.

When a proof says if and only if it is showing two things.

- If or that a condition is sufficient
- Only If or that a condition is necessary

Let A and B be sets. Then A = B if and only if  $A \subset B$  and  $B \subset A$ .

# Proof.

- $\Rightarrow$  Suppose A=B. By definition, if  $x\in A$ ,  $x\in B$ . So  $A\subset B$ . Again, by definition, if  $y\in B$  then  $y\in A$ . So  $B\subset A$ .
- $\Leftarrow$  Suppose  $A \subset B$  and that  $B \subset A$ . For all  $x \in A$ , then  $x \in B$ . And for all  $y \in B$ ,  $y \in A$ . Or, every element in A is in B and each element of B is in A. A = B.

When a proof says if and only if it is showing two things.

- If or that a condition is sufficient
- Only If or that a condition is necessary

Example of sufficient, but not necessary

Let A and B be sets. Then A = B if and only if  $A \subset B$  and  $B \subset A$ .

# Proof.

- $\Rightarrow$  Suppose A=B. By definition, if  $x\in A$ ,  $x\in B$ . So  $A\subset B$ . Again, by definition, if  $y\in B$  then  $y\in A$ . So  $B\subset A$ .
- $\Leftarrow$  Suppose  $A \subset B$  and that  $B \subset A$ . For all  $x \in A$ , then  $x \in B$ . And for all  $y \in B$ ,  $y \in A$ . Or, every element in A is in B and each element of B is in A. A = B.

When a proof says if and only if it is showing two things.

- If or that a condition is sufficient
- Only If or that a condition is necessary

Example of sufficient, but not necessary

- If candidate wins the electoral college, then president (can be president through vote of House too)

Let A and B be sets. Then A = B if and only if  $A \subset B$  and  $B \subset A$ .

# Proof.

- $\Rightarrow$  Suppose A=B. By definition, if  $x\in A$ ,  $x\in B$ . So  $A\subset B$ . Again, by definition, if  $y\in B$  then  $y\in A$ . So  $B\subset A$ .
- $\Leftarrow$  Suppose  $A \subset B$  and that  $B \subset A$ . For all  $x \in A$ , then  $x \in B$ . And for all  $y \in B$ ,  $y \in A$ . Or, every element in A is in B and each element of B is in A. A = B.

When a proof says if and only if it is showing two things.

- If or that a condition is sufficient
- Only If or that a condition is necessary

Example of sufficient, but not necessary

 If candidate wins the electoral college, then president (can be president through vote of House too)

Example of necessary, but not sufficient

Let A and B be sets. Then A = B if and only if  $A \subset B$  and  $B \subset A$ .

# Proof.

- $\Rightarrow$  Suppose A=B. By definition, if  $x\in A$ ,  $x\in B$ . So  $A\subset B$ . Again, by definition, if  $y\in B$  then  $y\in A$ . So  $B\subset A$ .
- $\Leftarrow$  Suppose  $A \subset B$  and that  $B \subset A$ . For all  $x \in A$ , then  $x \in B$ . And for all  $y \in B$ ,  $y \in A$ . Or, every element in A is in B and each element of B is in A. A = B.

When a proof says if and only if it is showing two things.

- If or that a condition is sufficient
- Only If or that a condition is necessary

Example of sufficient, but not necessary

 If candidate wins the electoral college, then president (can be president through vote of House too)

Example of necessary, but not sufficient

- Only if a candidate is older than 35 can s/he be president (but clearly not sufficient)

Let A and B be sets. Then A = B if and only if  $A \subset B$  and  $B \subset A$ .

# Proof.

- $\Rightarrow$  Suppose A=B. By definition, if  $x\in A$ ,  $x\in B$ . So  $A\subset B$ . Again, by definition, if  $y\in B$  then  $y\in A$ . So  $B\subset A$ .
- $\Leftarrow$  Suppose  $A \subset B$  and that  $B \subset A$ . For all  $x \in A$ , then  $x \in B$ . And for all  $y \in B$ ,  $y \in A$ . Or, every element in A is in B and each element of B is in A. A = B.

When a proof says if and only if it is showing two things.

- If or that a condition is sufficient
- Only If or that a condition is necessary

Example of sufficient, but not necessary

 If candidate wins the electoral college, then president (can be president through vote of House too)

Example of necessary, but not sufficient

- Only if a candidate is older than 35 can s/he be president (but clearly not sufficient)

- Many ways to prove the same theorem.

- Many ways to prove the same theorem.
- Contradiction: assume theorem is false, show that this leads to logical contradiction

- Many ways to prove the same theorem.
- Contradiction: assume theorem is false, show that this leads to logical contradiction
- Indirect proof: setting up proof hardest part

- Many ways to prove the same theorem.
- Contradiction: assume theorem is false, show that this leads to logical contradiction
- Indirect proof: setting up proof hardest part

### Theorem

Let A and B be sets. Then A = B if and only if  $A \subset B$  and  $B \subset A$ .

- Many ways to prove the same theorem.
- Contradiction: assume theorem is false, show that this leads to logical contradiction
- Indirect proof: setting up proof hardest part

#### Theorem

Let A and B be sets. Then A = B if and only if  $A \subset B$  and  $B \subset A$ .

### Proof.

 $\Rightarrow$  Suppose A=B. By definition, if  $x\in A$ ,  $x\in B$ . So  $A\subset B$ . Again, by definition, if  $y\in B$  then  $y\in A$ . So  $B\subset A$ .

- Many ways to prove the same theorem.
- Contradiction: assume theorem is false, show that this leads to logical contradiction
- Indirect proof: setting up proof hardest part

### Theorem

Let A and B be sets. Then A = B if and only if  $A \subset B$  and  $B \subset A$ .

### Proof.

- $\Rightarrow$  Suppose A=B. By definition, if  $x\in A$ ,  $x\in B$ . So  $A\subset B$ . Again, by definition, if  $y\in B$  then  $y\in A$ . So  $B\subset A$ .
- $\Leftarrow$  Suppose  $A \subset B$  and that  $B \subset A$ . Now, by way of contradiction, suppose that  $A \neq B$ .  $A \neq B$  only if there is  $x \in A$  and  $x \notin B$  or if  $y \in B$  and  $y \notin A$ . But then, either  $A \not\subset B$  or  $B \not\subset A$ , contradicting our initial assumption.

Methodology I

# Set Builder Notation

- Some famous sets

```
- J = \{1, 2, 3, ...\}
- Z = \{..., -2, -1, 0, 1, 2, ...,\}
```

- $\Re$  = real numbers (more to come about this)
- Use set builder notation to identify subsets

- 
$$[a, b] = \{x : x \in \Re \text{ and } a \le x \le b\}$$

- 
$$(a, b] = \{x : x \in \Re \text{ and } a < x \le b\}$$

- 
$$[a, b) = \{x : x \in \Re \text{ and } a \le x < b\}$$

$$(a,b) = \{x : x \in \Re \text{ and } a \le x < b\}$$

$$(a,b) = \{x : x \in \Re \text{ and } a < x < b\}$$

$$(a, b) = \{x : x \in \mathcal{H} \text{ and } a < x < b\}$$

- Ø

We can build new sets with set operations.

We can build new sets with set operations.

### Definition

Suppose A and B are sets. Define the Union of sets A and B as the new set that contains all elements in set A or in set B. In notation,

$$C = A \cup B$$
$$= \{x : x \in A \text{ or } x \in B\}$$

We can build new sets with set operations.

### Definition

Suppose A and B are sets. Define the Union of sets A and B as the new set that contains all elements in set A or in set B. In notation,

$$C = A \cup B$$
$$= \{x : x \in A \text{ or } x \in B\}$$

- 
$$A = \{1, 2, 3\}, B = \{3, 4, 5\}, \text{ then } C = A \cup B = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5\}$$

We can build new sets with set operations.

### Definition

Suppose A and B are sets. Define the Union of sets A and B as the new set that contains all elements in set A or in set B. In notation,

$$C = A \cup B$$
$$= \{x : x \in A \text{ or } x \in B\}$$

- $A = \{1, 2, 3\}, B = \{3, 4, 5\}, \text{ then } C = A \cup B = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5\}$
- $D = \{ First \ Year \ Cohort \}, E = \{ Me \}, \ then$  $F = D \cup E = \{ First \ Year \ Cohort, \ ME \}$

### Definition

Suppose A and B are sets. Define the Intersection of sets A and B as the new that contains all elements in set A and set B. In notation,

$$C = A \cap B$$
$$= \{x : x \in A \text{ and } x \in B\}$$

### Definition

Suppose A and B are sets. Define the Intersection of sets A and B as the new that contains all elements in set A and set B. In notation,

$$C = A \cap B$$
$$= \{x : x \in A \text{ and } x \in B\}$$

- 
$$A = \{1, 2, 3\}, B = \{3, 4, 5\}, \text{ then, } C = A \cap B = \{3\}$$

### Definition

Suppose A and B are sets. Define the Intersection of sets A and B as the new that contains all elements in set A and set B. In notation,

$$C = A \cap B$$
$$= \{x : x \in A \text{ and } x \in B\}$$

- $A = \{1, 2, 3\}, B = \{3, 4, 5\}, \text{ then, } C = A \cap B = \{3\}$
- $D = \{ \mathsf{First} \; \mathsf{Year} \; \mathsf{Cohort} \}, E = \{ \mathsf{Me} \}, \; \mathsf{then} \; F = D \cap E = \emptyset$

1) 
$$A \cap B = B \cap A$$

1) 
$$A \cap B = B \cap A$$

### Proof.

This fact (theorem) says that the set  $A \cap B$  is equal to the set  $B \cap A$ . We can use the definition of equal sets to test this. Suppose  $x \in A \cap B$ . Then  $x \in A$  and  $x \in B$ . By definition, then,  $x \in B \cap A$ . Now, suppose  $y \in B \cap A$ . Then  $y \in B$  and  $y \in A$ . So, by definition of intersection  $y \in A \cap B$ . This implies  $A \cap B = B \cap A$ 

1) 
$$A \cap B = B \cap A$$

5) 
$$A \cap (B \cup C) = (A \cap B) \cup (A \cap C)$$

1) 
$$A \cap B = B \cap A$$

5) 
$$A \cap (B \cup C) = (A \cap B) \cup (A \cap C)$$

# Proof.

Suppose  $x \in A \cap (B \cup C)$ . Then  $x \in B$  or  $x \in C$  and  $x \in A$ . This implies that  $x \in (A \cap B)$  or  $x \in (A \cap C)$ . Or,  $x \in (A \cap B) \cup (A \cap C)$ . Now, suppose  $y \in (A \cap B) \cup (A \cap C)$ . Then,  $y \in A$  and  $y \in B$  or  $y \in C$ . Well, this implies  $y \in A \cap (B \cup C)$ . And we have established equality

- 1)  $A \cap B = B \cap A$
- 2)  $A \cup B = B \cup A$
- 3)  $(A \cap B) \cap C = A \cap (B \cap C)$
- 4)  $(A \cup B) \cup C = A \cup (B \cup C)$
- 5)  $A \cap (B \cup C) = (A \cap B) \cup (A \cap C)$
- 6)  $A \cup (B \cap C) = (A \cup B) \cap (A \cup C)$

Break into groups, derive for the remaining facts

# Ordered Pair

You've seen an ordered pair before,

### Definition

Suppose we have two sets, A and B. Define the Cartesian product of A and B,  $A \times B$  as the set of all ordered pairs (a, b), where  $a \in A$  and  $b \in B$ . In other words,

$$A \times B = \{(a, b) : a \in A \text{ and } b \in B\}$$

# Example:

$$A = \{1, 2\}$$
 and  $B = \{3, 4\}$ , then,  
 $A \times B = \{(1, 3); (1, 4); (2, 3); (2, 4)\}$ 



Start with general and move to specific— (abstract just takes time to get acquainted)

Start with general and move to specific— (abstract just takes time to get acquainted)

### Definition

A relation is a set of ordered pairs. A function F is a relation such that,

$$(x,y) \in F$$
 ;  $(x,z) \in F \Rightarrow y = z$ 

We will commonly write a function as F(x), where  $x \in Domain \ F$  and  $F(x) \in Codomain \ F$ . It is common to see people write,

$$F: A \rightarrow B$$

where A is domain and B is codomain

Start with general and move to specific— (abstract just takes time to get acquainted)

### Definition

A relation is a set of ordered pairs. A function F is a relation such that,

$$(x,y) \in F$$
 ;  $(x,z) \in F \Rightarrow y = z$ 

We will commonly write a function as F(x), where  $x \in Domain \ F$  and  $F(x) \in Codomain \ F$ . It is common to see people write,

$$F:A\rightarrow B$$

where A is domain and B is codomain

Start with general and move to specific— (abstract just takes time to get acquainted)

### Definition

A relation is a set of ordered pairs. A function F is a relation such that,

$$(x,y) \in F$$
 ;  $(x,z) \in F \Rightarrow y = z$ 

We will commonly write a function as F(x), where  $x \in Domain \ F$  and  $F(x) \in Codomain \ F$ . It is common to see people write,

$$F:A\rightarrow B$$

where A is domain and B is codomain

$$- F(x) = x$$

Start with general and move to specific— (abstract just takes time to get acquainted)

### Definition

A relation is a set of ordered pairs. A function F is a relation such that,

$$(x,y) \in F$$
 ;  $(x,z) \in F \Rightarrow y = z$ 

We will commonly write a function as F(x), where  $x \in Domain \ F$  and  $F(x) \in Codomain \ F$ . It is common to see people write,

$$F:A\rightarrow B$$

where A is domain and B is codomain

- -F(x)=x
- $F(x) = x^2$

Start with general and move to specific— (abstract just takes time to get acquainted)

### Definition

A relation is a set of ordered pairs. A function F is a relation such that,

$$(x,y) \in F$$
 ;  $(x,z) \in F \Rightarrow y = z$ 

We will commonly write a function as F(x), where  $x \in Domain \ F$  and  $F(x) \in Codomain \ F$ . It is common to see people write,

$$F: A \rightarrow B$$

where A is domain and B is codomain

- F(x) = x
- $F(x) = x^2$
- $F(x) = \sqrt{x}$



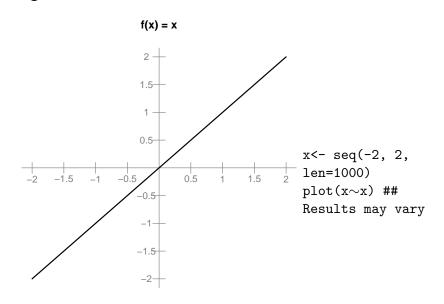
# R Computing Language

- We're going to use R throughout the course

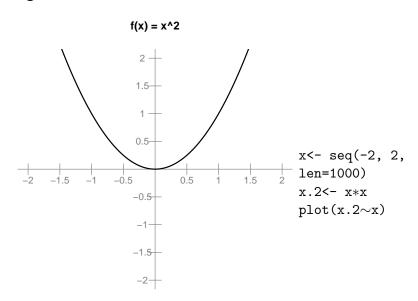
```
- R as calculator:
      > 1 + 1
      [1] 2
      > 'Hello World'
      [1] ''Hello World"
- object<- 2 ## assign numbers to objects
- R has functions defined, we can define them to objects as well
      first.func<- function(x) {
      out < -2*x
      return(out) }
 first.func(2)
```

[1] 4

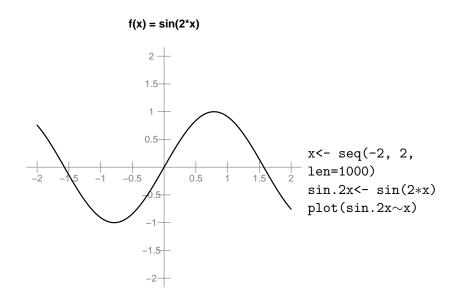
# Plotting Functions



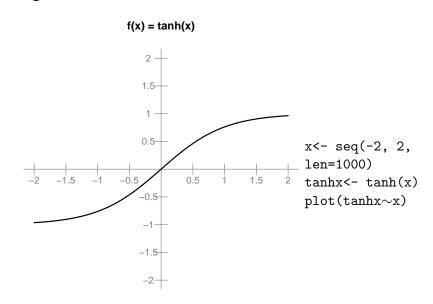
# Plotting Functions



### Plotting Functions



### Plotting Functions



$$f(x) = 2^x$$

$$f(x) = 2^x$$
$$g(x) = e^x$$

$$f(x) = 2^{x}$$
$$g(x) = e^{x}$$

$$f(x) = 2^{x}$$
$$g(x) = e^{x}$$

$$a^{x} \times a^{y} = a^{x+y}$$

$$f(x) = 2^x$$
$$g(x) = e^x$$

$$a^{x} \times a^{y} = a^{x+y}$$
  
 $(a^{x})^{y} = a^{x \times y}$ 

$$f(x) = 2^x$$
$$g(x) = e^x$$

$$a^{x} \times a^{y} = a^{x+y}$$
  
 $(a^{x})^{y} = a^{x \times y}$   
 $\frac{a^{x}}{a^{y}} = a^{x-y}$ 

$$f(x) = 2^x$$
$$g(x) = e^x$$

$$a^{x} \times a^{y} = a^{x+y}$$

$$(a^{x})^{y} = a^{x \times y}$$

$$\frac{a^{x}}{a^{y}} = a^{x-y}$$

$$\frac{1}{a^{x}} = a^{-x}$$

$$f(x) = 2^{x}$$
$$g(x) = e^{x}$$

$$a^{x} \times a^{y} = a^{x+y}$$

$$(a^{x})^{y} = a^{x \times y}$$

$$\frac{a^{x}}{a^{y}} = a^{x-y}$$

$$\frac{1}{a^{x}} = a^{-x}$$

$$a^{x} \times b^{x} = (a \times b)^{x}$$

$$f(x) = 2^x$$
  
$$g(x) = e^x$$

$$a^{x} \times a^{y} = a^{x+y}$$

$$(a^{x})^{y} = a^{x \times y}$$

$$\frac{a^{x}}{a^{y}} = a^{x-y}$$

$$\frac{1}{a^{x}} = a^{-x}$$

$$a^{x} \times b^{x} = (a \times b)^{x}$$

$$a^{0} = 1$$

$$f(x) = 2^x$$
  
$$g(x) = e^x$$

$$a^{x} \times a^{y} = a^{x+y}$$

$$(a^{x})^{y} = a^{x \times y}$$

$$\frac{a^{x}}{a^{y}} = a^{x-y}$$

$$\frac{1}{a^{x}} = a^{-x}$$

$$a^{x} \times b^{x} = (a \times b)^{x}$$

$$a^{0} = 1$$

$$a^{1} = a$$

$$f(x) = 2^x$$
  
$$g(x) = e^x$$

$$a^{x} \times a^{y} = a^{x+y}$$

$$(a^{x})^{y} = a^{x \times y}$$

$$\frac{a^{x}}{a^{y}} = a^{x-y}$$

$$\frac{1}{a^{x}} = a^{-x}$$

$$a^{x} \times b^{x} = (a \times b)^{x}$$

$$a^{0} = 1$$

$$a^{1} = a$$

$$1^{x} = 1$$

Logaritm log is a class of functions.

-  $\log_e z$  = what number x solves  $e^x = z$ .

- $\log_e z$  = what number x solves  $e^x = z$ .
- We'll call  $\log_e$  natural logarithm. And we'll assume  $\log_e = \log$

- $\log_e z$  = what number x solves  $e^x = z$ .
- We'll call  $log_e$  natural logarithm. And we'll assume  $log_e = log$
- $\log e = 1$  (because  $e^1 = e$ )

- $\log_e z$  = what number x solves  $e^x = z$ .
- We'll call  $\log_e$  natural logarithm. And we'll assume  $\log_e = \log$
- $\log e = 1$  (because  $e^1 = e$ )
- $\log_{10} 1000 = 3$  (because  $10^3 = 1000$ )

Logaritm log is a class of functions.

- $\log_e z$  = what number x solves  $e^x = z$ .
- We'll call  $\log_e$  natural logarithm. And we'll assume  $\log_e = \log$
- $\log e = 1$  (because  $e^1 = e$ )
- $\log_{10} 1000 = 3$  (because  $10^3 = 1000$ )

Logaritm log is a class of functions.

- $\log_e z$  = what number x solves  $e^x = z$ .
- We'll call  $\log_e$  natural logarithm. And we'll assume  $\log_e = \log$
- $\log e = 1$  (because  $e^1 = e$ )
- $\log_{10} 1000 = 3$  (because  $10^3 = 1000$ )

$$- \log(a \times b) = \log(a) + \log(b) \text{ (!!!!!!)}$$

Logaritm log is a class of functions.

- $\log_e z$  = what number x solves  $e^x = z$ .
- We'll call  $\log_e$  natural logarithm. And we'll assume  $\log_e = \log$
- $\log e = 1$  (because  $e^1 = e$ )
- $\log_{10} 1000 = 3$  (because  $10^3 = 1000$ )

- $\log(a \times b) = \log(a) + \log(b) \text{ (!!!!!!)}$
- $\log(\frac{a}{b}) = \log(a) \log(b)$

Logaritm log is a class of functions.

- $\log_e z$  = what number x solves  $e^x = z$ .
- We'll call  $\log_e$  natural logarithm. And we'll assume  $\log_e = \log$
- $\log e = 1$  (because  $e^1 = e$ )
- $\log_{10} 1000 = 3$  (because  $10^3 = 1000$ )

- $\log(a \times b) = \log(a) + \log(b) \text{ (!!!!!!)}$
- $\log(\frac{a}{b}) = \log(a) \log(b)$
- $-\log(a^b) = b\log(a)$

Logaritm log is a class of functions.

- $\log_e z$  = what number x solves  $e^x = z$ .
- We'll call  $\log_e$  natural logarithm. And we'll assume  $\log_e = \log$
- $\log e = 1$  (because  $e^1 = e$ )
- $\log_{10} 1000 = 3$  (because  $10^3 = 1000$ )

- $\log(a \times b) = \log(a) + \log(b) \text{ (!!!!!!)}$
- $-\log(\frac{a}{b}) = \log(a) \log(b)$
- $-\log(a^b) = b\log(a)$
- $-\log(1) = 0$

Logaritm log is a class of functions.

- $\log_e z$  = what number x solves  $e^x = z$ .
- We'll call  $\log_e$  natural logarithm. And we'll assume  $\log_e = \log$
- $\log e = 1$  (because  $e^1 = e$ )
- $\log_{10} 1000 = 3$  (because  $10^3 = 1000$ )

$$- \log(a \times b) = \log(a) + \log(b) \text{ (!!!!!!)}$$

$$- \log(\frac{a}{b}) = \log(a) - \log(b)$$

$$-\log(a^b) = b\log(a)$$

$$-\log(1) = 0$$

$$-\log(e) = 1$$

Two important properties of functions

Two important properties of functions

#### Definition

A function  $f: A \to B$  is 1-1 (one-to-one, or injective) if for all  $y \in A$  and  $z \in A$  in Domain, f(y) = f(z) implies y = z. In other words, preserves distinctiveness.

Two important properties of functions

### Definition

A function  $f: A \to B$  is 1-1 (one-to-one, or injective) if for all  $y \in A$  and  $z \in A$  in Domain, f(y) = f(z) implies y = z. In other words, preserves distinctiveness.

$$- f(x) = x$$

Two important properties of functions

### Definition

A function  $f: A \to B$  is 1-1 (one-to-one, or injective) if for all  $y \in A$  and  $z \in A$  in Domain, f(y) = f(z) implies y = z. In other words, preserves distinctiveness.

- f(x) = x
- $f(x) = x^2$

Two important properties of functions

### Definition

A function  $f: A \to B$  is 1-1 (one-to-one, or injective) if for all  $y \in A$  and  $z \in A$  in Domain, f(y) = f(z) implies y = z. In other words, preserves distinctiveness.

- f(x) = x
- $f(x) = x^2$

### Definition

A function  $f: A \to B$  is onto (surjective) if for all  $b \in B$  there exists  $(\exists)$   $a \in A$  such that f(a) = b.

Two important properties of functions

### Definition

A function  $f: A \to B$  is 1-1 (one-to-one, or injective) if for all  $y \in A$  and  $z \in A$  in Domain, f(y) = f(z) implies y = z. In other words, preserves distinctiveness.

- f(x) = x
- $f(x) = x^2$

### Definition

A function  $f: A \to B$  is onto (surjective) if for all  $b \in B$  there exists  $(\exists)$   $a \in A$  such that f(a) = b.

-  $f: \{\ldots, -2, -1, 0, 1, 2, \ldots\} \to \{0, 1, 2, \ldots\}$  and f(x) = |x|. onto, but not 1-1.

Two important properties of functions

### Definition

A function  $f: A \to B$  is 1-1 (one-to-one, or injective) if for all  $y \in A$  and  $z \in A$  in Domain, f(y) = f(z) implies y = z. In other words, preserves distinctiveness.

- f(x) = x
- $f(x) = x^2$

#### Definition

A function  $f: A \to B$  is onto (surjective) if for all  $b \in B$  there exists  $(\exists)$   $a \in A$  such that f(a) = b.

- $f: \{\ldots, -2, -1, 0, 1, 2, \ldots\} \to \{0, 1, 2, \ldots\}$  and f(x) = |x|. onto, but not 1-1.
- $f: R \to R$  f(x) = x. Onto and 1-1, bijective

# Composite Functions

#### Definition

Suppose  $f: A \rightarrow B$  and  $g: B \rightarrow C$ . Then, define,

$$g \circ f = g(f(x))$$

- f(x) = x,  $g(x) = x^2$ . Then  $g \circ f = x^2$ .
- $f(x) = \sqrt{x}$ ,  $g(x) = e^x$ . Then  $g \circ f = e^{\sqrt{x}}$ .
- $f(x) = \sin(x)$ , g(x) = |x|. Then  $g \circ f = |\sin(x)|$ .

### Inverse Function

### Definition

Suppose a function f is 1-1. Then we'll define  $f^{-1}$  as its inverse if,

$$f^{-1}(f(x)) = x$$

Why do we need 1-1?



#### Induction

Well Ordering Principle Every non-empty set J has a smallest number

### Induction

### Well Ordering Principle Every non-empty set J has a smallest number

#### Theorem

If P(n) is a statement containing the variable n such that

- i. P(1) is a true statement, and
- ii. for each  $k \in 1, 2, 3, 4, ..., n, ...$  if P(k) is true then P(k+1) is true then P(n) is true for all  $n \in 1, 2, 3, 4, ..., n, ...$

We'll use contradiction and well ordering to prove that induction works.

We'll use contradiction and well ordering to prove that induction works.

Proof.

Suppose P(n) is some statement about the variable n and that

We'll use contradiction and well ordering to prove that induction works.

Proof.

Suppose P(n) is some statement about the variable n and that

i. P(1) is true

We'll use contradiction and well ordering to prove that induction works.

### Proof.

Suppose P(n) is some statement about the variable n and that

- i. P(1) is true
- ii. If P(k) is true then P(k+1) is true.

We'll use contradiction and well ordering to prove that induction works.

#### Proof.

Suppose P(n) is some statement about the variable n and that

- i. P(1) is true
- ii. If P(k) is true then P(k+1) is true.

Now suppose, by way of contradiction that there exists N such that P(N) is false. This implies that

We'll use contradiction and well ordering to prove that induction works.

#### Proof.

Suppose P(n) is some statement about the variable n and that

- i. P(1) is true
- ii. If P(k) is true then P(k+1) is true.

Now suppose, by way of contradiction that there exists N such that P(N) is false. This implies that

$$S = \{x : P(x) \text{ is not true } \}$$

We'll use contradiction and well ordering to prove that induction works.

#### Proof.

Suppose P(n) is some statement about the variable n and that

- i. P(1) is true
- ii. If P(k) is true then P(k+1) is true.

Now suppose, by way of contradiction that there exists N such that P(N) is false. This implies that

$$S = \{x : P(x) \text{ is not true } \}$$

By well ordering principle, there is smallest member of S, call it  $n_0$ .

We'll use contradiction and well ordering to prove that induction works.

#### Proof.

Suppose P(n) is some statement about the variable n and that

- i. P(1) is true
- ii. If P(k) is true then P(k+1) is true.

Now suppose, by way of contradiction that there exists N such that P(N) is false. This implies that

$$S = \{x : P(x) \text{ is not true } \}$$

By well ordering principle, there is smallest member of S, call it  $n_0$ . By i. we know that  $n_0 > 1$ . Further, because  $n_0$  is smallest member of S, then  $P(n_0)$  is false, but  $P(n_0 - 1)$  is true.

We'll use contradiction and well ordering to prove that induction works.

#### Proof.

Suppose P(n) is some statement about the variable n and that

- i. P(1) is true
- ii. If P(k) is true then P(k+1) is true.

Now suppose, by way of contradiction that there exists N such that P(N)is false. This implies that

$$S = \{x : P(x) \text{ is not true } \}$$

By well ordering principle, there is smallest member of S, call it  $n_0$ . By i. we know that  $n_0 > 1$ . Further, because  $n_0$  is smallest member of S, then  $P(n_0)$  is false, but  $P(n_0-1)$  is true. But now we have a problem, because if  $P(n_0 - 1)$  is true, then  $P(n_0)$  is also true.

We'll use contradiction and well ordering to prove that induction works.

#### Proof.

Suppose P(n) is some statement about the variable n and that

- i. P(1) is true
- ii. If P(k) is true then P(k+1) is true.

Now suppose, by way of contradiction that there exists N such that P(N) is false. This implies that

$$S = \{x : P(x) \text{ is not true } \}$$

By well ordering principle, there is smallest member of S, call it  $n_0$ . By i. we know that  $n_0 > 1$ . Further, because  $n_0$  is smallest member of S, then  $P(n_0)$  is false, but  $P(n_0 - 1)$  is true. But now we have a problem, because if  $P(n_0 - 1)$  is true, then  $P(n_0)$  is also true. This implies that there is no smallest element of S. CONTRADICTION

40 / 46

# Summing N numbers

Induction is a useful proof technique.

### Theorem

$$\sum_{i=1}^{N} i = 1 + 2 + 3 + 4 + \ldots + N = \frac{N(N+1)}{2}$$

Two conditions to show:

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

# Summing N numbers

ii. Suppose true N. Then, for N+1 we have,

$$\sum_{i=1}^{N+1} i = \sum_{i=1}^{N} i + (N+1)$$

$$= \frac{N(N+1)}{2} + \frac{2(N+1)}{2}$$

$$= \frac{(N+1)(N+2)}{2}$$

$$= \frac{(N+1)((N+1)+1)}{2}$$

Conditions of induction met. Therefore, proof complete

Very Simple R Code

## Finite, Countable, and Uncountable

#### Three sizes of sets

- 1) A set, X is finite if there is a bijective function from  $\{1, 2, 3, \ldots, n\}$  to X.
- 2) A set X is countably infinite if there is a bijective function from  $\{1, 2, 3, 4, \dots, \}$  to X.
- 3) A set X is uncountably infinite if it is not countable

The Real numbers are uncountably infinite

We've covered a lot.

We've covered a lot.

PLEASE don't worry—we're here to help!

We've covered a lot.

PLEASE don't worry—we're here to help!

 $1) \ \mathsf{Sets} + \mathsf{Operations}$ 

We've covered a lot.

PLEASE don't worry—we're here to help!

- 1) Sets + Operations
- 2) Functions

#### We've covered a lot.

PLEASE don't worry—we're here to help!

- 1) Sets + Operations
- 2) Functions
- 3) Contradiction, Induction, and direct proofs

#### Tomorrow:

- Convergence of sequences
- Limits
- Continuity
- Derivatives