

# Course outline

## ① Fundamentals

- ▶ Notation
- ▶ Functions
- ▶ Approximation

## ② Series

- ▶ Summation
- ▶ Taylor series

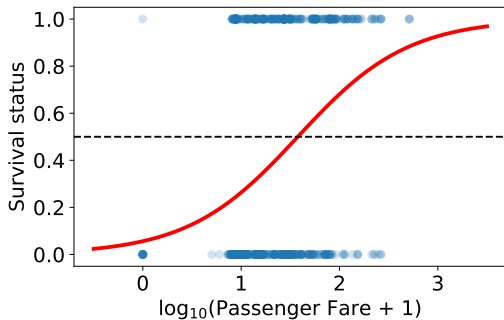
## ③ Linear algebra

- ▶ Representing big, complex, data
- ▶ Systems of equations
- ▶ Dimension reduction

## ④ Probability

- ▶ Discrete random variables
- ▶ Continuous random variables & integration

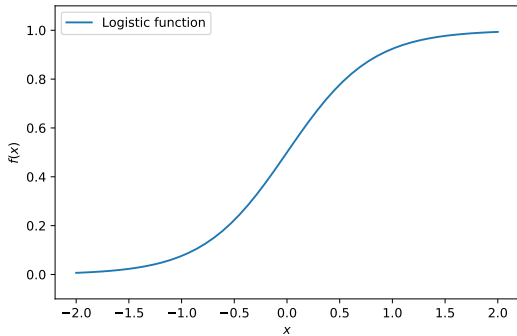
## ⑤ Optimisation



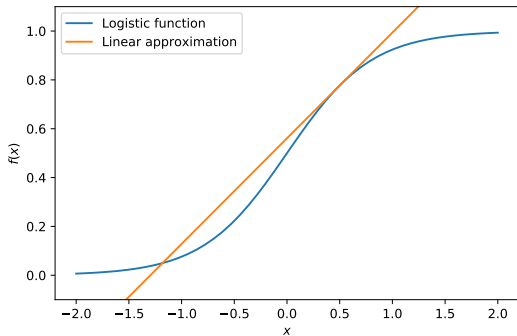
How does a computer represent a logistic (or any non-trivial) function?

$$y = f(x) = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-(ax+b)}} = \frac{e^{ax+b}}{1 + e^{ax+b}}.$$

# Linear approximation



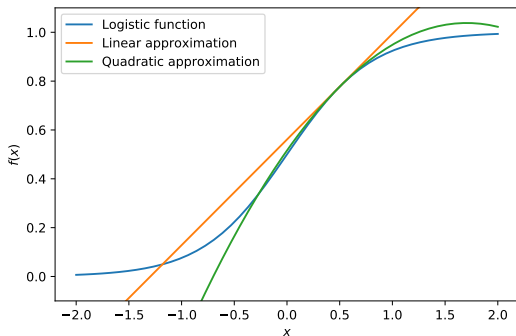
# Linear approximation



Orange line is the tangent line at  $x_0 = 0.5$ :

$$P_1(x) = f(x_0) + f'(x_0)(x - x_0)$$

# Quadratic approximation



Green line is a quadratic function:

$$P_2(x) = f(x_0) + f'(x_0)(x - x_0) + \frac{f''(x_0)}{2}(x - x_0)^2$$

# Taylor polynomials

It turns out we can keep going!

$$P_n(x) = f(x_0) + f'(x_0)(x - x_0) + \frac{f''(x_0)}{2!}(x - x_0)^2 \\ + \frac{f'''(x_0)}{3!}(x - x_0)^3 + \cdots + \frac{f^{(n)}(x_0)}{n!}(x - x_0)^n$$

And these sums can be made exact if we add an *infinite* number of terms.

## Summation notation

If  $a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n$  are real numbers, the sum of  $a_1, \dots, a_n$  is written

$$\begin{aligned} a_1 + a_2 + \cdots + a_n &= \sum_{i=1}^n a_i \\ &= \sum_{k=1}^n a_k \\ &= \sum_{q=1}^n a_q \\ &= \sum_{x=8}^{n+7} a_{x-7} \\ &= \sum_{1 \leq k \leq n} a_k. \end{aligned}$$

# Summation notation

## Example

①  $\sum_{i=1}^4 i^2$

②  $\sum_{i=3}^6 i$

③  $\sum_{j=0}^3 2^j$

④  $\sum_{i=1}^4 2$



# Summation notation

## Example

What is  $2^3 + 3^3 + \cdots + n^3$  in sigma notation?

# Properties of $\Sigma$

1

$$\sum_{i=m}^n ca_i = c \sum_{i=m}^n a_i \quad \text{for } c \text{ a constant}$$

2

$$\sum_{i=m}^n (a_i + b_i) = \sum_{i=m}^n a_i + \sum_{i=m}^n b_i$$

3

$$\sum_{i=m}^n (a_i - b_i) = \sum_{i=m}^n a_i - \sum_{i=m}^n b_i$$

4 But!

$$\sum_{i=m}^n (a_i \times b_i) \neq \left( \sum_{i=m}^n a_i \right) \times \left( \sum_{i=m}^n b_i \right)$$

5

$$\sum_{i=m}^n \frac{a_i}{b_i} \neq \frac{\sum_{i=m}^n a_i}{\sum_{i=m}^n b_i}$$

# An important concept!

1

$$\sum_{i=m}^n ca_i = c \sum_{i=m}^n a_i \quad \text{for } c \text{ a constant}$$

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mean that summation is a *linear operator*:

## Definition (Linear operator)

An operator  $L$  is *linear* if for all functions  $f$  and  $g$ , and every scalar  $c \in \mathbb{R}$ ,

$$L(cf) = cL(f)$$

$$L(f + g) = L(f) + L(g)$$

We will encounter many linear operators in this course!

## Some important sums

1

$$\sum_{i=1}^n 1 = \underbrace{1 + \cdots + 1}_n = n$$

2

Geometric sum:

$$\sum_{j=0}^n ar^j = a + ar + ar^2 + \cdots + ar^n = a \frac{1 - r^{n+1}}{1 - r}$$

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$$\sum_{i=1}^n i = 1 + 2 + 3 + \cdots + n = \frac{n(n+1)}{2}$$

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4

$$\sum_{i=1}^n i^2 = \frac{n^3}{3} + \frac{n^2}{2} + \frac{n}{6} = \frac{n}{6}(2n^2 + 3n + 1) = \frac{n}{6}(2n+1)(n+1)$$

## Example

$$\sum_{i=3}^{10} (i + 2)^2$$



# Proof by Induction

How else to prove statements about sums?

One (non-constructive) way is the

## Principle of Mathematical Induction

Consider a statement  $P(n)$  to be proved.

- 1 Basis step: show that  $P(a)$  is true.
- 2 Inductive step: assume  $P(k)$  is true, use this to prove  $P(k + 1)$ .

Then  $P(n)$  is true for all integers  $n \geq a$ .

# Proof by Induction

## Example

Prove that:

1

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

2

$$\sum_{j=1}^n 2^{j-1} = 2^n - 1$$

Induction can be used to prove more results than just about sums, but it's particularly applicable here.

## Multiple sums

We might see something like

$$\sum_{1 \leq (j,k) \leq 3} a_j b_k = \sum_{j=1}^3 \left( \sum_{k=1}^3 a_j b_k \right)$$

# Multiple sums

## Definition (Generalised associativity & distributivity)

1

$$\sum_{j \in J} \sum_{k \in K} a_{j,k} = \sum_{k \in K} \sum_{j \in J} a_{j,k}$$

2

$$\sum_{j \in J, k \in K} a_j b_k = \left( \sum_{j \in J} a_j \right) \left( \sum_{k \in K} b_k \right)$$

Note: these are specific to *finite* sums!

## Example

Compute

$$\sum_{i=1}^3 \sum_{j=1}^2 (i - j)$$

## Example

On which line(s) does the following derivation go wrong?

$$\left( \sum_{j=1}^n a_j \right) \left( \sum_{k=1}^n a_k \right) = \sum_{j=1}^n \sum_{k=1}^n \frac{a_j}{a_k} \quad (1)$$

$$= \sum_{k=1}^n \sum_{k=1}^n \frac{a_k}{a_k} \quad (2)$$

$$= \sum_{k=1}^n n \quad (3)$$

$$= n^2 \quad (4)$$

# Infinite series

An infinite series is an expression of the form

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n = a_1 + a_2 + \cdots + a_i + \cdots$$

where the  $a_i$  are real numbers.

# Infinite series

The  $N$ th partial sum  $S_N$  is the sum of the first  $N$  terms

$$S_N = a_1 + a_2 + \cdots + a_N$$

We say the infinite series  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$  is *convergent* with *sum*  $S$  provided

$$S = \lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} S_N.$$

If  $\lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} S_N$  does not exist we say that the series *diverges*.

## Definition (Infinite series)

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n = \lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{n=1}^N a_n$$

(provided the limit exists.)



Side note: some infinite limits to know

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{n} = 0$$

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} e^{-x} = 0$$

### Example

The  **$p$ -series**  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^p}$  is convergent if  $p > 1$  and divergent if  $p \leq 1$ .

### Example

The series  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (-1)^n$  diverges.

# The geometric series

## Definition (Geometric series)

The series

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} x^n = 1 + x + x^2 + \dots$$

diverges if  $|x| > 1$  and converges to  $1/(1 - x)$  if  $|x| < 1$ .

How to tell if an infinite series converges or not?

# The ratio test

Consider a series  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n$ , with each  $a_n \neq 0$ , such that

$$r = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{a_{n+1}}{a_n} \right|$$

either exists or is infinite.

Then

- if  $r < 1$  the series converges,
- if  $r > 1$  the series diverges,
- if  $r = 1$  the ratio test is inconclusive.

# The ratio test

## Example

Prove that  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^n n}{2^n}$  converges.

# The ratio test

## Example

Find if  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{2^n}{n^2}$  converges or diverges.