

# Math Camp

Justin Grimmer

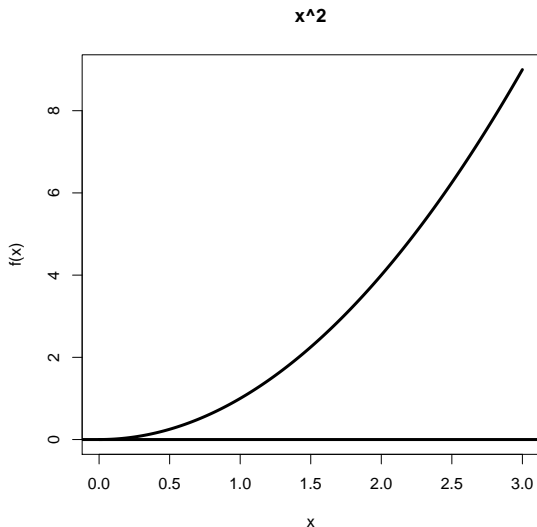
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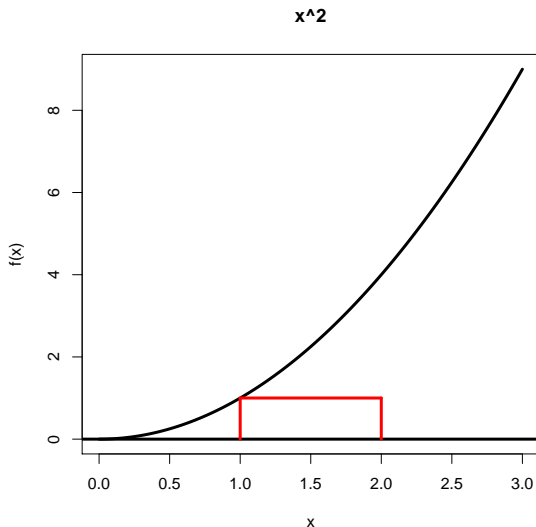
# Integration

- **Derivatives**  $\rightsquigarrow$  rates of change
- **Integrals**  $\rightsquigarrow$  area under a curve
- **Connection**: fundamental theorem of calculus
- Some **antiderivative** formulas
- Algebra of Integrals
- Improper Integrals
- Monte Carlo principle
- **Integrate a lot in probability theory**, we'll review more then
- Infinite Series

# Area Under a Curve

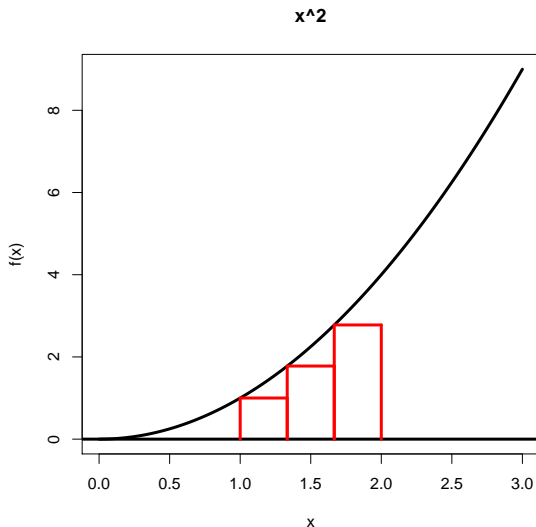


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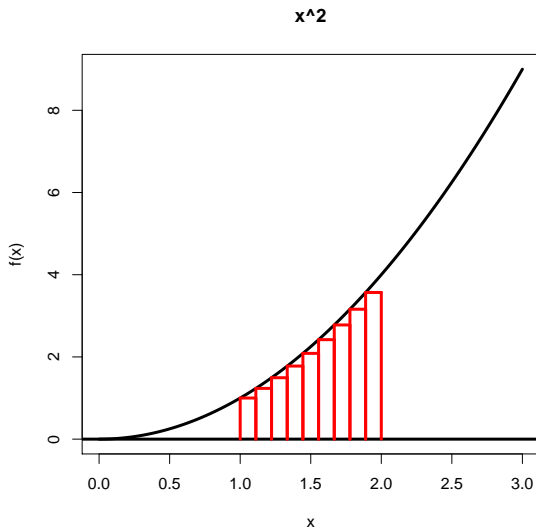
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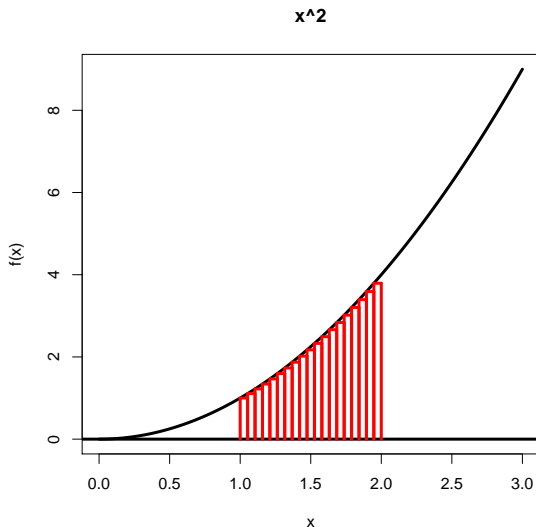
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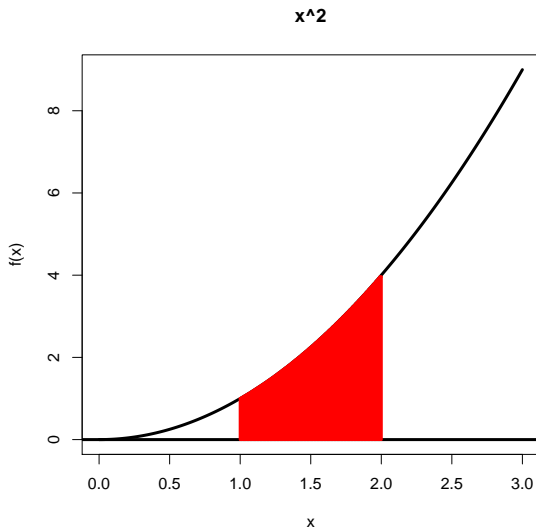
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- As partitions become more refined, they improve
- $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{i=1}^n f(x_{i-1})(x_i - x_{i-1}) \rightsquigarrow$  **Riemann Integral**



## Definition

Suppose  $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ . We will define the Riemann Integral as  $\int_a^b f(x)dx$ . If this exists then we say  $f$  is *integrable* on  $[a, b]$  and call  $\int_a^b f(x)dx$  the *integral* of  $f$ .

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# Some Counterexamples

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Not integrable, because every interval will contain a discontinuous jump

# Fundamental Theorem of Calculus



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Theorem

***Fundamental Theorem of Calculus** Suppose  $f : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  and that  $f$  is differentiable on  $[a, b]$  and that its derivative,  $f'$ , is integrable. Then,*

$$\int_a^b f'(x) dx = f(b) - f(a)$$

# Recipe for Definite Integration

$$\int_a^b f'(x) dx = f(b) - f(a)$$

- Calculate **antiderivative**
- Evaluate at  $b$
- Evaluate at  $a$

# Some Classic Antiderivative Formulas

antiderivative = indefinite integral

$$\int 1 dx = x + c$$

$$\int k dx = kx + c$$

$$\int x^n dx = \frac{x^{n+1}}{n+1} + c$$

$$\int \frac{1}{x} dx = \log x + c$$

$$\int e^x dx = e^x + c$$

$$\int a^x dx = \frac{a^x}{\log a} + c$$

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We will call  $f(x) = 1$  the **uniform distribution**.

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Suppose  $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ , with

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# Integration Facts

## Theorem

If  $f_1, f_2 : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  and  $f_1, f_2$  are integrable on  $[a, b]$ , then

i) Consider the interval  $[a, b]$  and  $c \in [a, b]$ . Then,

$$\begin{aligned}\int_c^c f_1'(x) dx &= f_1(c) - f_1(c) = 0 \\ \int_a^b f_1'(x) dx &= \int_a^c f_1'(x) dx + \int_c^b f_1'(x) dx \\ &= (f_1(c) - f_1(a)) + (f_1(b) - f_1(c)) \\ &= f_1(b) - f_1(a)\end{aligned}$$

## Theorem

If  $f_1', f_2' : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  and  $f_1', f_2'$  are integrable on  $[a, b]$  and  $f_1'$  has antiderivative  $f_1$  and  $f_2'$  has antiderivative  $f_2$ , then

ii) For  $c_1, c_2 \in \mathbb{R}$  then

$$\int_a^b (c_1 f_1'(x) + c_2 f_2'(x)) dx = c_1 \int_a^b f_1'(x) dx + c_2 \int_a^b f_2'(x) dx$$

# Challenge Problems

$$\int_0^1 x dx$$

$$\int_0^1 (x^2 + x + 1) dx$$

$$\int_1^2 \left(\frac{1}{x} + e^x\right)$$

# Let's Prove Taylor Theorem (And Come Up With Intuition Too!)

## Theorem

**Taylor's Theorem** Suppose  $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ ,  $f(x)$  is infinitely differentiable function. Then, the taylor expansion of  $f(x)$  around  $a$  is given by

$$f(x) = f(a) + \frac{f'(a)}{1!}(x-a) + \frac{f''(a)}{2!}(x-a)^2 + \frac{f'''(a)}{3!}(x-a)^3 + \dots$$

$$f(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{f^n(a)}{n!}(x-a)^n$$

# Zero Order Approximation

$$f(x) = f(a) + \int_a^x f'(t_1) dt_1$$

First order approximation:

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Flip bounds on the remainder term and you realize it contains  $R_k$  and that the additional term cancels out the new  $f^{k+1}$  term.

Can obtain error bounds with computation of remainder. Because expansion around each point is necessarily finite as  $k \rightarrow \infty$  remainder goes to zero.

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## Theorem

*Suppose  $f' : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is integrable on  $[a, b]$  and suppose that its antiderivative is  $f(x)$ . Define  $F(t) = \int_a^t f'(x) dx$  for  $a \leq t \leq b$ . Then,  $F'(x_0)$  is  $f'(x_0)$ .*

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$$\frac{\partial}{\partial t} F(t) = \frac{\partial}{\partial t} (f(t) - f(a))$$



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**intuition**  $F(t) = \int_a^t f'(x)dx = f(t) - f(a)$ .

Now, we want to take the derivative of  $F(t)$  and evaluate at  $x_0$  and the derivative of  $f(t) - f(a)$  and evaluate at  $x_0$

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{\partial}{\partial t} F(t) &= \frac{\partial}{\partial t} (f(t) - f(a)) \\ F'(t)|_{x_0} &= f'(t)|_{x_0}\end{aligned}$$



# More Fundamental Theorem of Calculus

## Theorem

Suppose  $f' : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is integrable on  $[a, b]$  and suppose that its antiderivative is  $f(x)$ . Define  $F(t) = \int_a^t f'(x)dx$  for  $a \leq t \leq b$ . Then,  $F'(x_0)$  is  $f'(x_0)$ .

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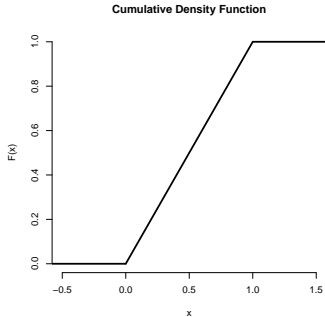
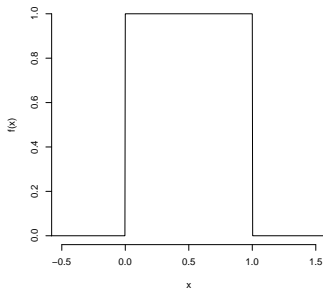
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# Uniform Cumulative Density Function

Suppose that  $f' \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ ,  $f'(x) = 1$  for  $x \in [0, 1]$  and  $f'(x) = 0$  otherwise. Define,

$$\begin{aligned} F(t) &= \int_0^t f'(x) dx \\ &= \int_0^t 1 dx = x \Big|_0^t \\ &= t \end{aligned}$$



# Improper Integrals

Discount rates: valuing the future.

We'll do discrete time with infinite series, we can do them in continuous time with integrals

$$V = \int_0^{\infty} e^{-\delta t} dt$$

- How do we evaluate this integral?
- Improper integrals
- Continuous infinite series

# Definition

## Definition

Consider  $f : [a, \infty) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ . If the limit

$$\lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} \int_a^t f(x) dx$$

exists then we will say  $\int_a^\infty f(x) dx$  **converges** to  $L$ . Otherwise, we say it **diverges**.

Also apply definition for

- $\int_{-\infty}^a f(x) dx = \lim_{t \rightarrow -\infty} \int_t^a f(x) dx$
- $\int_{-\infty}^\infty f(x) dx = \lim_{t \rightarrow -\infty} \lim_{y \rightarrow \infty} \int_t^y f(x) dx$ .

# When do Integrals Converge?

Example 1

$$f(x) = 1/x.$$

$$\begin{aligned}\int_1^{\infty} \frac{1}{x} dx &= \lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} \int_1^t \frac{1}{x} dx \\ &= \lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} (\log x) \Big|_1^t \\ &= \lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} (\log t) - \lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} (\log 1)\end{aligned}$$

Does not converge

# When do Integrals Converge?

## Example 2

$$f(x) = \frac{1}{x^2}$$

$$\begin{aligned}\int_1^{\infty} \frac{1}{x^2} dx &= \lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} \int_1^t \frac{1}{x^2} dx \\ &= \lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} -\frac{1}{x} \Big|_1^t \\ &= \lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} -\frac{1}{t} + \frac{1}{1} \\ &= 0 + 1\end{aligned}$$



# Substitution (slides borrowed from math.hmc.edu)

Sometimes, antidifferentiating is **hard**

$$\int (x^2 - 1)^4 2x dx$$

But we can use substitution to simplify. Suspend disbelief and set:

$$u = x^2 - 1$$

$$du = 2x dx$$

Rewriting the original,

$$\begin{aligned}\int (x^2 - 1)^4 (2x dx) &= u^4 du \\ &= \frac{u^5}{5} + c \\ &= \frac{(x^2 - 1)^5}{5} + c\end{aligned}$$

# Substitution Rule (slides borrowed from math.hmc.edu)

Just chain rule in reverse. We know that the antiderivative of

$$\int f(g(x))g'(x)dx = F(g(x))$$

So, with substitution rule, we look for ways to set up chain rule

# Substitution Rule (slides borrowed from math.hmc.edu)

$$\int -e^{-x} dx$$

$$u = -x$$

$$du = -dx$$

$$\int e^u du = e^u + c$$

$$= e^{-x} + c$$

# Substitution Rule (slides borrowed from math.hmc.edu)

We can also multiply by 1 (creatively) to set up substitution rule

$$\begin{aligned}\int e^{-2x} dx &= -\frac{1}{2} \int -2e^{-2x} dx \\ u &= -2x \\ du &= -2dx \\ -\frac{1}{2} \int e^u du &= -\frac{1}{2} e^u + c \\ &= -\frac{1}{2} e^{-2x} + c\end{aligned}$$

# Example: Exponential Distribution

Suppose  $f : [0, \infty) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ , with  $f(x) = e^{-x}$ . Evaluate

$$\begin{aligned}\int_0^\infty e^{-x} dx &= \lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} \int_0^t e^{-x} dx \\ &= \lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} -e^{-x} \Big|_0^t \\ &= \lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} -e^{-t} + 1 \\ &= 0 + 1\end{aligned}$$

We will call  $f(x) = e^{-x}$  the **exponential** distribution

# Integration by Parts

Consider:

$$\int x \cos(x) dx$$

That is hard to integrate.

Instead we'll use **Integration by parts**

# Integration by Parts

Define:

$$g(x) = u(x)v(x)$$

# Integration by Parts

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Let's differentiate  $g(x)$



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$$\begin{aligned}\int g'(x)dx &= \int u'(x)v(x)dx + \int u(x)v'(x)dx \\ u(x)v(x) + c - \int u'(x)v(x)dx &= \int u(x)v'(x)dx\end{aligned}$$

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# Integration by Parts

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$$\int x \cos(x) dx$$

# Integration by Parts

$$u = x \quad \int x \cos(x) dx$$



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# Integration by Parts

$$\int x \cos(x) dx$$
$$u = x$$
$$du = 1$$
$$dv = \cos(x)$$
$$v = \sin(x)$$

$$\begin{aligned}\int x \cos(x) dx &= x \sin(x) - \int \sin(x) 1 dx \\ &= x \sin(x) + \cos(x)\end{aligned}$$

# Integration by Parts

Challenge:

$$\int \exp(x) \cos(x) dx$$

$$\int \log(x) dx$$

$$\int \arctan(x) dx$$

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Wolfram Alpha (briefly)

# Monte Carlo and Integration (via Jackman)

Suppose that we want to compute some integral  $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} xf(x)dx$ , but  $f(x)$  is complicated.



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

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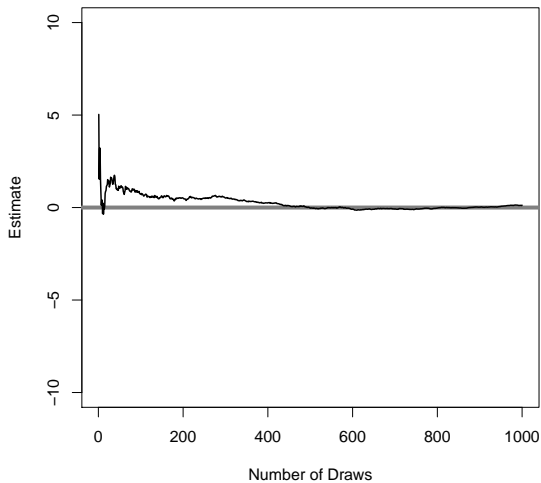
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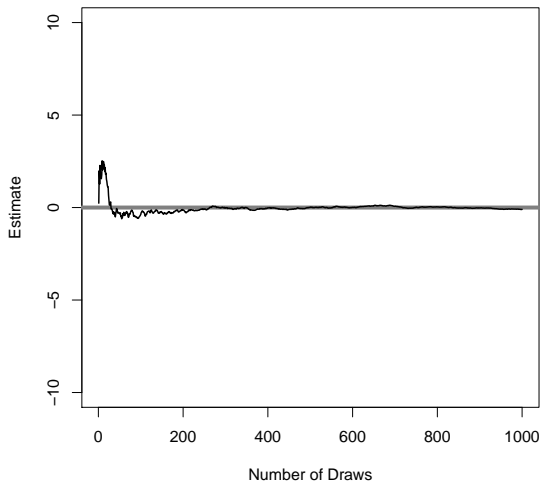
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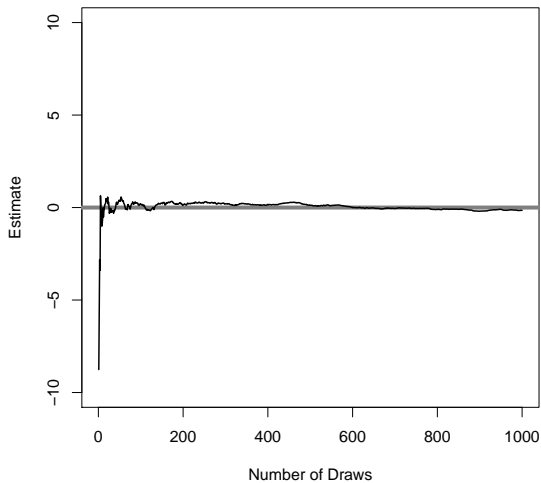
$$\text{Expected Value} = \frac{1}{T} \sum_{i=1}^T d_i$$

as  $T \rightarrow \infty$ , Expected value  $\rightarrow \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} xf(x)dx$









R code for quantiles! MonteCarlo.R

# Infinite Series

- Interactions are often **repeated**
  - **Countries**: Fight now or fight later
  - **Congress**: Caro, LBJ, and the Southern Strategy
  - **FDA**: Do I approve this drug?
  - **Bargain**: Do I make a deal now, or wait?
- General idea :
  - Actions have **continuation value**:
  - Value in the present time
  - Stream of benefits in the future
- **Infinite Series** to model

Formal definition  $\rightsquigarrow$  Heuristics  $\rightsquigarrow$  example problem (from JF)

# Infinite Series

## Definition

An infinite series is a pair  $(\{a_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}, \{S_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty})$  where  $\{a_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$  is a sequence and  $S_n = \sum_{k=1}^n a_k$ .

## Definition

The infinite series  $(\{a_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}, \{S_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty})$  **converges** if the **sequence**  $\{S_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$  converges to  $S$ . We'll write this as,

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n = S$$

# Infinite Series

## - Example 1

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- $a_n = \{0, 1, 0, 1, 0, 1, \dots, \}$

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$$\begin{aligned} S_m &= \sum_{i=1}^m a_i \\ &= \frac{1}{1 \times 2} + \frac{1}{2 \times 3} + \dots + \frac{1}{(m)(m+1)} \end{aligned}$$

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So  $S_m$  converges on 1. (the **sequence**  $S_m$  converges, just like we prove other sequence convergence)



# How Do We Assess Convergence?

## Theorem

*If  $\{S_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$  converges then  $\{a_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$  is converges to zero*

- Necessary!
- But not sufficient

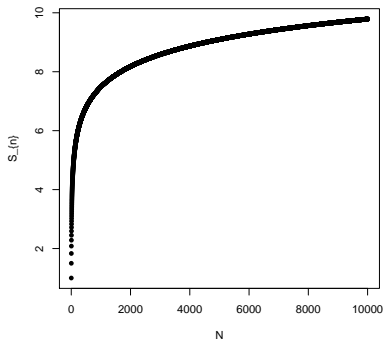
# Infinite Series Convergence

Example 1:

$$- a_n = \frac{1}{n}. S_n,$$

$$S_n = 1 + \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{3} + \frac{1}{4} + \dots$$

Does this converge?



# Infinite Series Convergence

Suppose  $n = 2^k$

# Infinite Series Convergence

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$$S_n = 1 + \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{3} + \frac{1}{4} + \dots + \frac{1}{2^k}$$

# Infinite Series Convergence

Suppose  $n = 2^k$

$$\begin{aligned} S_n &= 1 + \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{3} + \frac{1}{4} + \dots + \frac{1}{2^k} \\ &= 1 + \frac{1}{2} + \left( \frac{1}{3} + \frac{1}{4} \right) + \left( \frac{1}{5} + \frac{1}{6} + \frac{1}{7} + \frac{1}{8} \right) + \dots + \left( \frac{1}{2^{k-1} + 1} + \dots + \frac{1}{2^k} \right) \end{aligned}$$

# Infinite Series Convergence

Suppose  $n = 2^k$

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# Infinite Series Convergence

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We know that  $1 + \frac{k}{2}$  does not converge.

# Infinite Series Convergence

Suppose  $n = 2^k$

$$\begin{aligned} S_n &= 1 + \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{3} + \frac{1}{4} + \dots + \frac{1}{2^k} \\ &= 1 + \frac{1}{2} + \left(\frac{1}{3} + \frac{1}{4}\right) + \left(\frac{1}{5} + \frac{1}{6} + \frac{1}{7} + \frac{1}{8}\right) + \dots + \left(\frac{1}{2^{k-1}+1} + \dots + \frac{1}{2^k}\right) \\ &> 1 + \frac{1}{2} + 2\left(\frac{1}{4}\right) + 4\left(\frac{1}{8}\right) + \dots + 2^{k-1}\left(\frac{1}{2^k}\right) = 1 + \frac{k}{2} \end{aligned}$$

We know that  $1 + \frac{k}{2}$  does not converge.

And we know that  $S_n > 1 + \frac{k}{2} \rightsquigarrow$  **does not converge** (!!)



# Infinite Series Convergence

Suppose  $n = 2^k$

$$\begin{aligned} S_n &= 1 + \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{3} + \frac{1}{4} + \dots + \frac{1}{2^k} \\ &= 1 + \frac{1}{2} + \left(\frac{1}{3} + \frac{1}{4}\right) + \left(\frac{1}{5} + \frac{1}{6} + \frac{1}{7} + \frac{1}{8}\right) + \dots + \left(\frac{1}{2^{k-1}+1} + \dots + \frac{1}{2^k}\right) \\ &> 1 + \frac{1}{2} + 2\left(\frac{1}{4}\right) + 4\left(\frac{1}{8}\right) + \dots + 2^{k-1}\left(\frac{1}{2^k}\right) = 1 + \frac{k}{2} \end{aligned}$$

We know that  $1 + \frac{k}{2}$  does not converge.

And we know that  $S_n > 1 + \frac{k}{2} \rightsquigarrow$  **does not converge** (!!)

## Theorem

$\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{k^p}$  converges **if and only if**  $p > 1$ .

# Geometric Series and Discount Rates

## Definition

*A geometric series is an infinite series such that  $a_n = cr^n$  and that*  
$$S_n = \sum_{k=0}^n cr^k = c + cr + cr^2 + cr^3 + \dots cr^n$$

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$$\begin{aligned}
 S_n &= c \left( \frac{1 - r^{n+1}}{1 - r} \right) \\
 &= c \left( \frac{1}{1 - r} \right) - c \left( \frac{r^{n+1}}{1 - r} \right)
 \end{aligned}$$

$c \left( \frac{r^{n+1}}{1-r} \right)$  converges **if and only if**  $|r| < 1$ .

## Discount Rates and IR (Fearon, Part 2)

Suppose states are choosing between **attacking** another country to obtain a short time gain, or **cooperating** for peace

	C	D
C	20,20	10,25
D	25,10	15,15

**Grim-trigger**: cooperate, until defect. Then defect forever

Suppose states **discount** future  $\delta \in [0, 1]$ .

$$\begin{aligned}V(C) &= 20 + \delta 20 + \delta^2 20 + \delta^3 20 + \dots \\&= \frac{20}{1 - \delta} \\V(D) &= 25 + \delta 15 + \delta^2 15 + \delta^3 15 \\&= 25 + \delta \frac{15}{1 - \delta}\end{aligned}$$

# When Will States Cooperate? (Fearon, Part 2)

$$V(C) > V(D)$$

$$\frac{20}{1-\delta} > 25 + \delta \frac{15}{1-\delta}$$

$$\frac{1}{1-\delta}(20 - \delta 15) > 25$$

$$(20 - \delta 15) > 25(1 - \delta)$$

$$10\delta > 5$$

$$\delta > \frac{1}{2}$$

# Linear Algebra Tuesday!