Math for Data Analytics I

QBS 103: Foundations of Data Science

August 20, 2024

Lesson Objectives

At the end of this lecture you should be able to:

- 1. Read and interpret mathematical notation
- 2. Write and plot mathematical functions in R
- 3. Write logarithmic and trigonometric functions in R

Resources

LaTeX Cheat Sheet for Set Notation: https://www.overleaf.com/learn/latex/List_of_Greek_letters_and_math_symbols

Good Explanation of Mathematical Notation: https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=kaJuXx6uYR0

 $\label{latex2} \mbox{LaTeX in R Plots Using } \mbox{$latex2exp$: https://cran.r-project.org/web/packages/latex2exp/vignettes/using-latex2exp.html}$

Mathematical Notation

Mathematical equations and proofs often rely on set notation to efficiently state information. This is a quick overview (not a comprehensive list) of some mathematical notation you might encounter as you move forward in statistics.

For example, we can define

$$A = \{x, y, z\}$$

which means that A is a set that contains elements x, y, and z. We can refer to elements of the set using \in , such that we can say

$$x \in A$$

Similarly, we can use the element symbol dashed through like this \notin to indicate something isn't an element of that set, such that

$$s \notin A$$

One special set that you might see is \mathbb{R} which indicates the set of all real numbers.

We can also define a set as

$${x|x > 0}$$

rather than listing out individual values which would indicate the set of x in which x is greater than 0.

We also use \forall to indicate "for all" such that we can say

$$\forall x \in A, x > 0$$

Reading across this just says, "for all x elements of A, x is greater than zero" or, more simply, all the elements of A are greater than zero.

We can also use the \exists symbol to indicate "exists" such that we can say $\forall \in A \exists$ such that x > 0 Reading across this means that there exists an element in A that is greater than zero. Similarly to \notin we also have \nexists which indicates "there does not exist".

Simple Mathematical Functions in R

In this course already, we have been using functions, simulating data, making plots, and even using some linear algebra - all of which are foundational to calculus!

For instance, supposed we are interested in the following mathematical function:

$$f(x) = mx + b$$

To create this function in R, we represent this function as:

```
myFunction <- function(m,x,b){
  m*x+b
}</pre>
```

And then if we were to solve this function for m = 1, x = 2, and b = 3 we could:

$$f(2) = 1(2) + 3 = 5$$

or, use our function:

```
myFunction(m = 1, x = 2, b = 3)
```

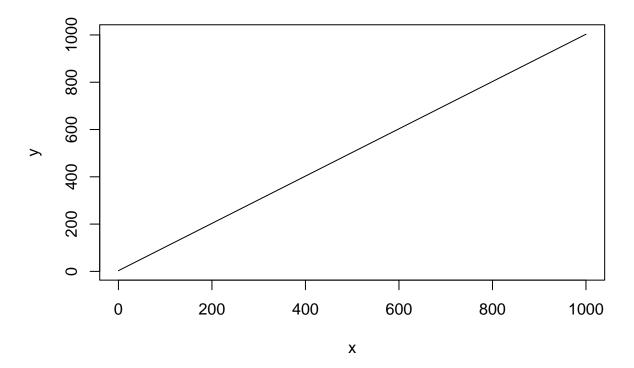
```
## [1] 5
```

It is then also super easy to evaluate this function over a range of x values. For instance, we may want to know the solution of f(x) over the domain $\{x \in \mathbb{N} | 0 \le x \le 1000\}$. You could solve this by hand, or you could generate values of x over your domain and solve like so:

```
# Set the domain for our function
x <- seq(from = 0, to = 1000, by = 1)
# Calculate all values of f(x) within the domain defined above
y <- myFunction(m = 1, x = x, b = 3)
# Look at some values of y
head(cbind(x,y))</pre>
```

And you can see that we then have each solution for every value of x! Now we can easily plot these values.

```
# Using base R
plot(x,y,type = '1')
```



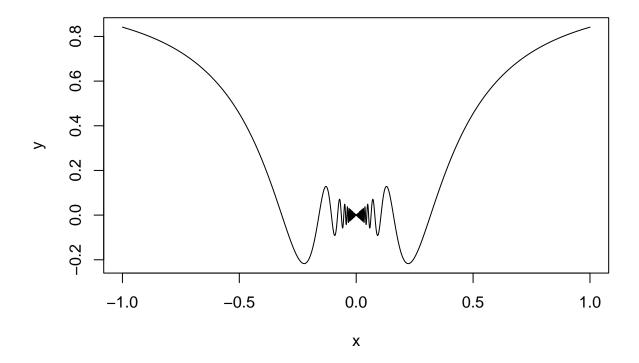
Representing functions this way becomes increasingly useful with increasingly complex functions. For instance, suppose we have the following function:

$$f(x) = x\sin\left(\frac{1}{x}\right)$$

and we want to solve it over the domain $\{x \in \mathbb{R} | -1 \le x \le 1\}$. You could solve this by hand over many possibilities of x, or:

```
# Define function
myFunction <- function(x) {
    return(x*sin(1/x))
}
# Set the domain
x <- seq(from = -1, to = 1, length.out = 10000)
# Calculate f(x) over the domain of x
y <- myFunction(x)

# Plot the function
plot(x,y,type = "l")</pre>
```



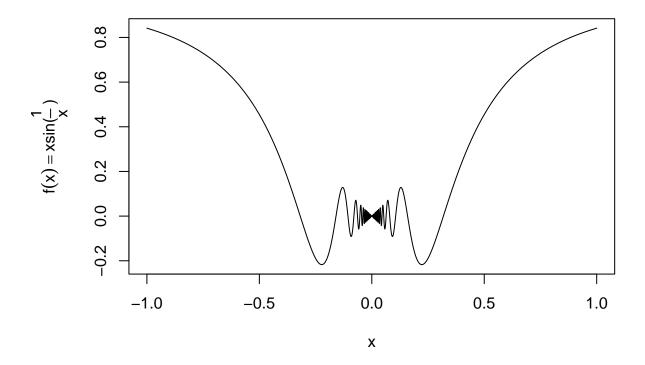
Sometimes, you might want to use LaTeX within your plots. To do so, we'll use the latex2exp library. Additional information and examples are linked at the start of the lecture under resources.

```
# Load package
#install.packages('latex2exp')
library(latex2exp)
```

Warning: package 'latex2exp' was built under R version 4.1.2

```
# Increase margin size for function
# Syntax here is: par(mar = c(bottom, left, top, right)
par(mar = c(5, 5, 4, 2) + 0.1)

# Define y axis label
axis <- TeX(r'($f(x)=x$sin($\frac{1}{x}$)$)')
# Generate plot
plot(x,y,type = "l",ylab = axis)</pre>
```



Exponents and Logarithms in R

In R, log(x) calculates the natural log of x (i.e. base-e). If you type in ?log you'll see that you have the ability to customize the base within the log function as well.

```
# Define a range of x
x <- 1:10

# Calculate log x
log(x)</pre>
```

```
## [1] 0.0000000 0.6931472 1.0986123 1.3862944 1.6094379 1.7917595 1.9459101
## [8] 2.0794415 2.1972246 2.3025851
```

Given that log_2 and log_10 are both commonly used logarithms, there are separate functions for these as well.

```
# Calculate log2
log(x,base=2)
```

```
## [1] 0.000000 1.000000 1.584963 2.000000 2.321928 2.584963 2.807355 3.000000 ## [9] 3.169925 3.321928
```

```
log2(x) # same as above
   [1] 0.000000 1.000000 1.584963 2.000000 2.321928 2.584963 2.807355 3.000000
   [9] 3.169925 3.321928
# Calculate log10
log(x,base=10)
   [1] 0.0000000 0.3010300 0.4771213 0.6020600 0.6989700 0.7781513 0.8450980
  [8] 0.9030900 0.9542425 1.0000000
log10(x) # same as above
  [1] 0.0000000 0.3010300 0.4771213 0.6020600 0.6989700 0.7781513 0.8450980
##
  [8] 0.9030900 0.9542425 1.0000000
We've already gotten very used to using the ^ symbol for creating exponents. When we want to raise
something to the power of e we use the exp() function in R.
# Calculate e using exp() function
exp(1)
## [1] 2.718282
# Confirm the same
log(x)
   [1] 0.0000000 0.6931472 1.0986123 1.3862944 1.6094379 1.7917595 1.9459101
   [8] 2.0794415 2.1972246 2.3025851
log(x,base = exp(1))
## [1] 0.0000000 0.6931472 1.0986123 1.3862944 1.6094379 1.7917595 1.9459101
## [8] 2.0794415 2.1972246 2.3025851
```

You'll recall that there are special rules for using math with logarithms. You'll want to remember these before you dive back into statistics and calculus. We can also confirm these in R pretty easily. They include:

$$log_{10}(ab) = log_{10}(a) + log_{10}(b)$$

```
# Define our variables a and b
a <- 2
b <- 4
# Confirm law
log10(a * b)</pre>
```

[1] 0.90309

```
log10(a) + log10(b)
## [1] 0.90309
                                      ln(\frac{a}{b}) = ln(a) - ln(b)
log(a/b)
## [1] -0.6931472
log(a) - log(b)
## [1] -0.6931472
                                         ln(1/x) = -ln(x)
\# Define x and y
x <- 5
y <- 8
log(1/x)
## [1] -1.609438
-\log(x)
## [1] -1.609438
                                        log_2(x^y) = ylog_2(x)
log2(x^y)
## [1] 18.57542
y*log2(x)
## [1] 18.57542
```

ln(e) = 1

[1] 1

log(exp(1))

ln(1) = 0

log(1)

[1] 0

Similarly, there are a variety of exponent laws worth reviewing:

$$e^a e^b = e^{a+b}$$

exp(a)*exp(b)

[1] 403.4288

exp(a+b)

[1] 403.4288

$$e^{ln(xy)} = xy$$

exp(log(x*y))

[1] 40

x*y

[1] 40

$$2^{\log_2(xy)} = xy$$

2^(log2(x*y))

[1] 40

x*y

[1] 40

$$\frac{e^a}{e^b} = e^{a-b}$$

exp(a)/exp(b)

[1] 0.1353353

exp(a-b)

[1] 0.1353353

 $(e^a)^b = e^{ab}$

exp(a)^b

[1] 2980.958

exp(a*b)

[1] 2980.958

 $(xy)^a = x^a y^a$

(x*y)^a

[1] 1600

x^a * y^a

[1] 1600

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

x^(-a)

[1] 0.04

1/(x^a)

[1] 0.04

 $x^{\frac{a}{b}} = \sqrt[b]{x^a}$

x^(a/b)

[1] 2.236068

```
(x^a)^(1/b)
```

[1] 2.236068

Trigonometry

You'll often need to use trigonometry in Statistics and Calculus, so naturally our trig functions are built into R as well. Above, we used the sin() function in a plot but there are also functions for cos() and tan() as well as arcsin, arcos, and arctan, all shown below.

```
# Define values for x
x <- c(-1,0,1)

# Functions named exactly
sin(x)

## [1] -0.841471 0.000000 0.841471

cos(x)

## [1] 0.5403023 1.0000000 0.5403023

tan(x)

## [1] -1.557408 0.000000 1.557408

# Functions named slightly differently
asin(x)

## [1] -1.570796 0.000000 1.570796

acos(x)

## [1] 3.141593 1.570796 0.000000

atan(x)
```

You'll reall that there are also a variety of trig identities you can use to make solving functions with trigonometry easier! A complete cheat sheet can be found here: https://sciencenotes.org/trig-identities-study-sheet/but below are some useful ones you'll frequently use:

[1] -0.7853982 0.0000000 0.7853982

$$\tan \theta = \frac{\sin \theta}{\cos \theta}$$

```
# Define theta
theta <- pi/7
tan(theta)
## [1] 0.4815746
sin(theta)/cos(theta)
## [1] 0.4815746
                                            \sin^2\theta + \cos^2\theta = 1
sin(theta)^2 + cos(theta)^2
## [1] 1
                                          \sin(2\theta) = 2\sin\theta\cos\theta
sin(2*theta)
## [1] 0.7818315
2*sin(theta)*cos(theta)
## [1] 0.7818315
                                  \cos(2\theta) = \cos^2\theta - \sin^2\theta = 2\cos^2\theta - 1
cos(2*theta)
## [1] 0.6234898
cos(theta)^2 - sin(theta)^2
## [1] 0.6234898
2*cos(theta)^2 - 1
## [1] 0.6234898
```

```
sin(-theta)
```

[1] -0.4338837

```
-sin(theta)
```

```
## [1] -0.4338837
```

You may be wondering why we are reviewing so much of this in the context of R, and one very great reason is because R will be a useful tool in checking your work when you are required to use these laws to manually simplify functions. Consider for instance:

$$f(\theta) = \frac{1 + \sin \theta}{\cos \theta} + \frac{\cos \gamma}{1 - \sin \gamma}$$

And you simplify to:

$$f(\theta) = \frac{2\sin\theta - 2\sin\gamma}{\sin(\theta - \gamma) + \cos\theta - \cos\gamma}$$

We can test this in R:

```
theta <- 2
gamma <- 5

# Calculate original function
(1+sin(theta))/cos(theta)+cos(gamma)/(1-sin(gamma))</pre>
```

[1] -4.443233

```
# Calculate simplified function
(2*sin(theta)-2*sin(gamma))/(sin(theta-gamma)+cos(theta)-cos(gamma))
```

[1] -4.443233