

# ECON2125/8013

## Lecture 4

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# Announcements and Reminders

- No lecture tomorrow
- First tutorial tomorrow
- Extra tutorial on the way (11am Fridays?)
- Small study groups?
- Extra reading?

# Optimization and Computers

Some optimization problems are pretty easy

- All functions are differentiable
- Few choice variables (low dimensional)
- Concave (for max) or convex (for min)
- First order / tangency conditions relatively simple

Textbook examples often chosen to have this structure

In reality many problems don't have this structure

- Can't take derivatives
- Many choice variables (high dimensional)
- Neither concave nor convex — local maxima and minima

Moreover, even if we can use derivative conditions they can be useless

- For  $N$  choice variables, FOCs are a nonlinear system in  $\mathbb{R}^N$

# Can Computers Save Us?

For any function we can always try brute force optimization

Here's an example for the following function

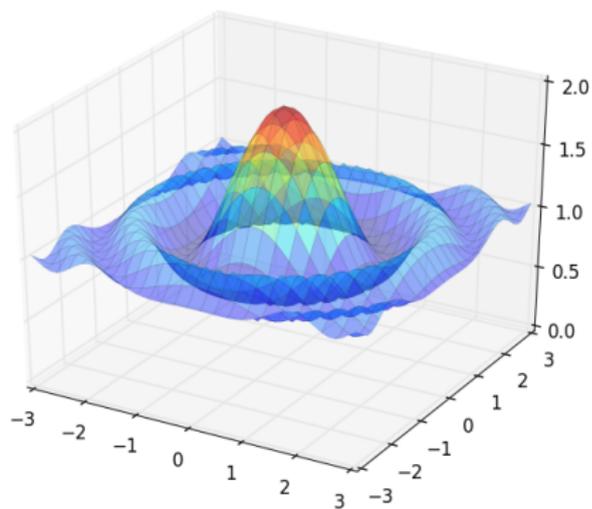


Figure : The function to maximize

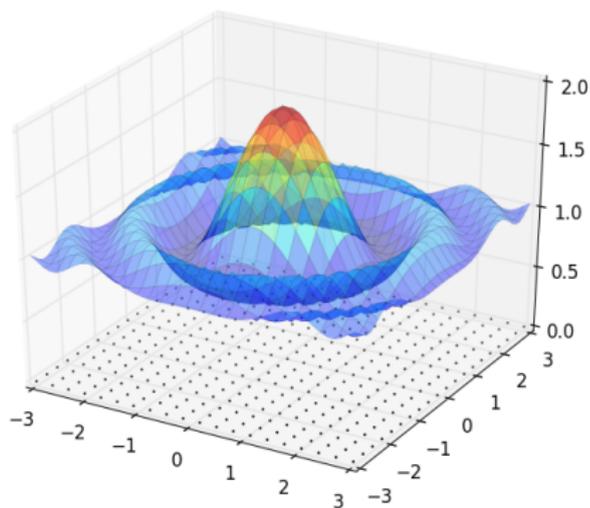


Figure : Grid of points to evaluate the function at

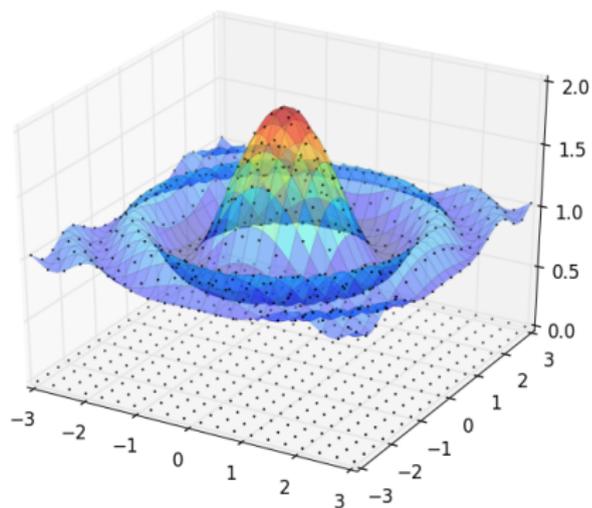


Figure : Evaluations

Grid size =  $20 \times 20 = 400$

Outcomes

- Number of function evaluations = 400
- Time taken = almost zero
- Maximal value recorded = 1.951
- True maximum = 2

Not bad and we can easily do better

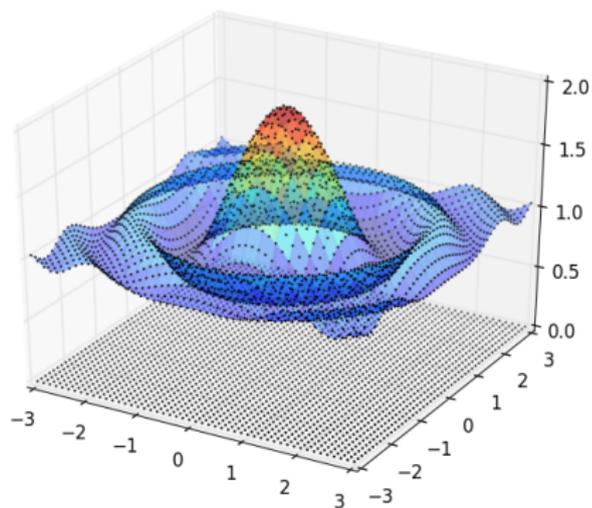


Figure :  $50^2 = 2500$  evaluations

- Number of function evaluations =  $50^2$
- Time taken = 101 microseconds
- Maximal value recorded = 1.992
- True maximum = 2

So why even study optimization?

The problem is mainly with larger numbers of choice variables

- 3 vars:  $\max_{x_1, x_2, x_3} f(x_1, x_2, x_3)$
- 4 vars:  $\max_{x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4} f(x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4)$
- ...

If we have 50 grid points per variable and

- 2 variables then evaluations =  $50^2 = 2500$
- 3 variables then evaluations =  $50^3 = 125,000$
- 4 variables then evaluations =  $50^4 = 6,250,000$
- 5 variables then evaluations =  $50^5 = 312,500,000$
- ...

**Example.** Recent study: Optimal placement of drinks across vending machines in Tokyo

Approximate dimensions of problem:

- Number of choices for each variable = 2
- Number of choice variables = 1000

Hence number of possibilities =  $2^{1000}$

How big is that?

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```
In [10]: 2**1000
```

```
Out [10]:
```

```
107150860718626732094842504906000181056140481170  
553360744375038837035105112493612249319837881569  
585812759467291755314682518714528569231404359845  
775746985748039345677748242309854210746050623711  
418779541821530464749835819412673987675591655439  
460770629145711964776865421676604298316526243868  
37205668069376
```

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Let's say my machine can evaluate about 1 billion possibilities per second

How long would that take?

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```
In [16]: (2**1000 / 10**9) / 31556926 # In years
```

```
Out[16]:
```

```
339547840365144349278007955863635707280678989995  
899349462539661933596146571733926965255861364854  
060286985707326991591901311029244639453805988092  
045933072657455119924381235072941549332310199388  
301571394569707026437986448403352049168514244509  
939816790601568621661265174170019913588941596
```

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What about high performance computing?

- more powerful hardware
- faster CPUs
- GPUs
- vector processors
- cloud computing
- massively parallel supercomputers
- ...

Let's say speed up is  $10^{12}$  (wildly optimistic)

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```
In [19]: (2**1000 / 10**(9 + 12)) / 31556926
```

```
Out [19]:
```

```
3395478403651443492780079558636357072806789899958  
9934946253966193359614657173392696525586136485406  
0286985707326991591901311029244639453805988092045  
9330726574551199243812350729415493323101993883015  
7139456970702643798644840335204916851424450993981  
6790601568621661265174170019
```

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For comparison:

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```
In [20]: 5 * 10**9 # Expected lifespan of sun
```

```
Out [20]: 5000000000
```

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Message: There are serious limits to computation

What's required is clever analysis

Exploit what information we have

- without information (oracle) we're stuck
- with information / structure we can do clever things

Examples later on...

## New Topic

# ELEMENTS OF SET THEORY

# Elements of Set Theory

We now turn to more formal / foundational ideas

- sets
- functions
- logic
- proofs

Mainly review of key ideas

# Common Symbols

- $P \implies Q$  means “ $P$  implies  $Q$ ”
- $P \iff Q$  means “ $P \implies Q$  and  $Q \implies P$ ”
- $\exists$  means “there exists”
- $\forall$  means “for all”
- s.t. means “such that”
- $\because$  means “because”
- $\therefore$  means “therefore”
- $a := 1$  means “ $a$  is defined to be equal to 1”
- $\mathbb{R}$  means all real numbers
- $\mathbb{N}$  means the natural numbers  $\{1, 2, \dots\}$

# Logic

Let  $P$  and  $Q$  be statements, such as

- $x$  is a negative integer
- $x$  is an odd number
- the area of any circle in the plane is  $-17$

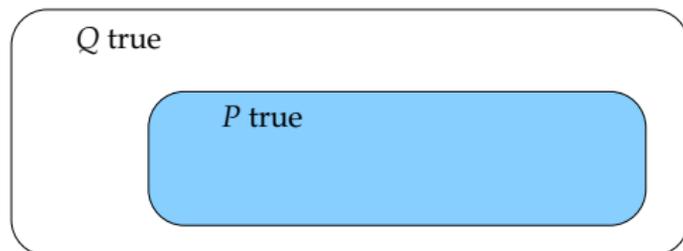
Law of the excluded middle: Every mathematical statement is either true or false

Statement " $P \implies Q$ " means " $P$  implies  $Q$ "

**Example.**  $k$  is even  $\implies k = 2n$  for some integer  $n$

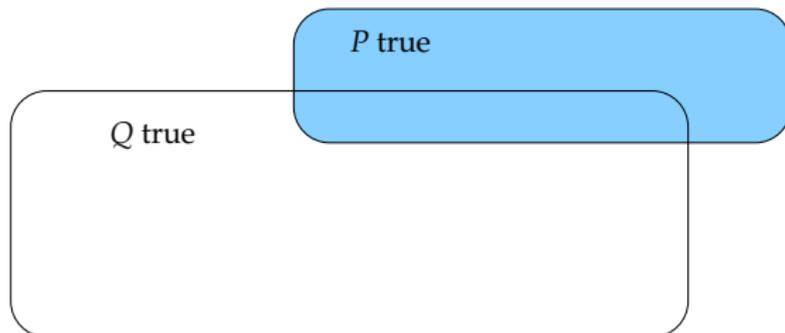
Equivalent forms of  $P \implies Q$ :

1. If  $P$  is true then  $Q$  is true
2.  $P$  is a sufficient condition for  $Q$
3.  $Q$  is a necessary condition for  $P$
4. If  $Q$  fails then  $P$  fails



Equivalent ways of saying  $P \implies Q$  is not true:

1.  $P$  does not imply  $Q$
2.  $P$  is not sufficient for  $Q$
3.  $Q$  is not necessary for  $P$
4. Even if  $Q$  fails,  $P$  can still hold



## Example

Let

- $P := "n \in \mathbb{N} \text{ and even}"$
- $Q := "n \text{ even}"$

Then

1.  $P \implies Q$
2.  $P$  is sufficient for  $Q$
3.  $Q$  is necessary for  $P$
4. If  $Q$  fails then  $P$  fails

## Example

Let

- $P :=$  “ $R$  is a rectangle”
- $Q :=$  “ $R$  is a square”

Then

1.  $P \not\Rightarrow Q$
2.  $P$  is not sufficient for  $Q$
3.  $Q$  is not necessary for  $P$
4. Just because  $Q$  fails does not mean that  $P$  fails

## Proof by Contradiction

Suppose we wish to prove a statement such as  $P \implies Q$

A proof by contradiction starts by assuming

1.  $P$  holds
2. and yet  $Q$  fails

We then show that this scenario leads to a contradiction

Examples.

- $1 < 0$
- 10 is an odd number

We conclude that  $P \implies Q$  is valid after all

**Example.** Suppose that island X is populated only by pirates and knights

- pirates always lie
- knights always tell the truth

Claim to prove: If person Y says “I’m a pirate” then person Y is not a native of island X

Strategy for the proof:

1. Suppose person Y is a native of the island
2. Show that this leads to a contradiction
3. Conclude that Y is not a native of island X, as claimed

Proof:

Suppose to the contrary that person Y is a native of island X

Then Y is either a pirate or a knight

Suppose first that Y is knight

- Y is a knight who claims to be a pirate

This is impossible, since knights always tell the truth

Suppose next that Y is pirate

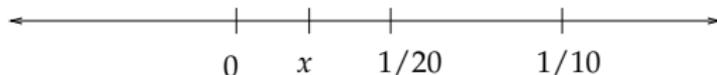
- Y is a pirate who claims to be a pirate

Since pirates always lie, they would not make such a statement

Either way we get a contradiction

**Example.** There is no  $x \in \mathbb{R}$  such that  $0 < x < 1/n, \forall n \in \mathbb{N}$

Proof: Suppose to the contrary that such an  $x$  exists



Since  $x > 0$  the number  $1/x$  exists, is finite

Let  $N$  be the smallest integer such that  $N \geq 1/x$

- If  $x = 0.3$  then  $1/x = 3.333 \dots$  so set  $N = 4$

Since  $N \geq 1/x$  we also have  $1/N \leq x$

On the other hand, since  $N \in \mathbb{N}$ , we have  $x < 1/N$

But then  $1/N < 1/N$ , which is impossible — a contradiction

**Example.** Let  $n \in \mathbb{N}$

Claim:  $n^2$  odd  $\implies n$  odd

Proof: Suppose to the contrary that

1.  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  and  $n^2$  is odd
2. but  $n$  is even

Then  $n = 2k$  for some  $k \in \mathbb{N}$

Hence  $n^2 = (2k)^2$

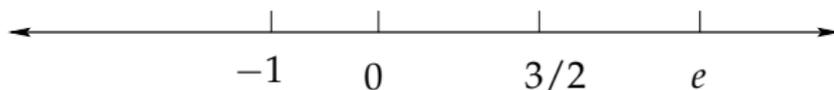
But then  $n^2 = 2m$  for  $m := 2k^2 \in \mathbb{N}$

Contradiction

# Sets

Will often refer to the **real numbers**,  $\mathbb{R}$

Understand it to contain “all of the numbers” on the “real line”



Contains both the rational and the irrational numbers

$\mathbb{R}$  is an example of a **set**

A set is a collection of objects viewed as a whole

(In case of  $\mathbb{R}$ , the objects are numbers)

Other examples of sets:

- set of all rectangles in the plane
- set of all prime numbers
- set of monkeys in Japan

## Notation:

- Sets:  $A, B, C$
- Elements:  $x, y, z$

## Important sets:

- $\mathbb{N} := \{1, 2, 3, \dots\}$
- $\mathbb{Z} := \{\dots, -2, -1, 0, 1, 2, \dots\}$
- $\mathbb{Q} := \{p/q : p, q \in \mathbb{Z}, q \neq 0\}$
- $\mathbb{R} := \mathbb{Q} \cup \{ \text{irrationals} \}$

## Intervals of $\mathbb{R}$

Common notation:

$$(a, b) := \{x \in \mathbb{R} : a < x < b\}$$

$$(a, b] := \{x \in \mathbb{R} : a < x \leq b\}$$

$$[a, b) := \{x \in \mathbb{R} : a \leq x < b\}$$

$$[a, b] := \{x \in \mathbb{R} : a \leq x \leq b\}$$

$$[a, \infty) := \{x \in \mathbb{R} : a \leq x\}$$

$$(-\infty, b) := \{x \in \mathbb{R} : x < b\}$$

Etc.

Let  $A$  and  $B$  be sets

Statement  $x \in A$  means that  $x$  is an element of  $A$

$A \subset B$  means that any element of  $A$  is also an element of  $B$

Examples.

- $\mathbb{N} \subset \mathbb{Z}$
- irrationals are a subset of  $\mathbb{R}$

$A = B$  means that  $A$  and  $B$  contain the same elements

- Equivalently,  $A \subset B$  and  $B \subset A$

Let  $S$  be a set and  $A$  and  $B$  be subsets of  $S$

**Union** of  $A$  and  $B$

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

**Intersection** of  $A$  and  $B$

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

## Set theoretic difference:

$$A \setminus B := \{x \in S : x \in A \text{ and } x \notin B\}$$

In other words, all points in  $A$  that are not points in  $B$

### Examples.

- $\mathbb{Z} \setminus \mathbb{N} = \{\dots, -2, -1, 0\}$
- $\mathbb{R} \setminus \mathbb{Q} =$  the set of irrational numbers
- $\mathbb{R} \setminus [0, \infty) = (-\infty, 0)$
- $\mathbb{R} \setminus (a, b) = (-\infty, a] \cup [b, \infty)$

**Complement** of  $A$  is all elements of  $S$  that are not in  $A$ :

$$A^c := S \setminus A := \{x \in S : x \notin A\}$$

Remarks:

- Need to know what  $S$  is before we can determine  $A^c$
- If not clear better write  $S \setminus A$

**Example.**  $(a, \infty)^c$  generally understood to be  $(-\infty, a]$

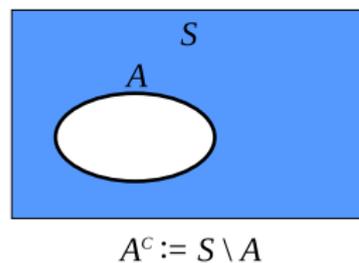
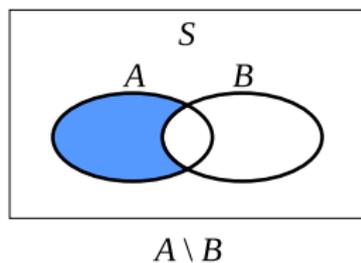
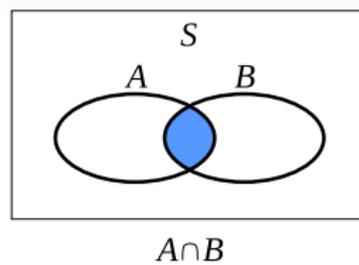
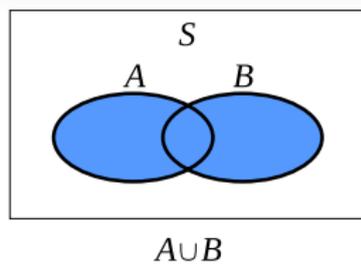


Figure : Unions, intersections and complements

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```
In [1]: set_1 = {'green', 'eggs', 'ham'}
```

```
In [2]: set_2 = {'red', 'green'}
```

```
In [3]: set_1.intersection(set_2)
```

```
Out[3]: {'green'}
```

```
In [4]: set_1.difference(set_2)
```

```
Out[4]: {'eggs', 'ham'}
```

```
In [5]: set_1.union(set_2)
```

```
Out[5]: {'eggs', 'green', 'ham', 'red'}
```

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Set operations:

If  $A$  and  $B$  subsets of  $S$ , then

1.  $A \cup B = B \cup A$  and  $A \cap B = B \cap A$
2.  $(A \cup B)^c = B^c \cap A^c$  and  $(A \cap B)^c = B^c \cup A^c$
3.  $A \setminus B = A \cap B^c$
4.  $(A^c)^c = A$

The **empty set**  $\emptyset$  is the set containing no elements

If  $A \cap B = \emptyset$ , then  $A$  and  $B$  said to be **disjoint**

# Infinite Unions and Intersections

Given a family of sets  $K_\lambda \subset S$  with  $\lambda \in \Lambda$ ,

$$\bigcap_{\lambda \in \Lambda} K_\lambda := \{x \in S : x \in K_\lambda \text{ for all } \lambda \in \Lambda\}$$

$$\bigcup_{\lambda \in \Lambda} K_\lambda := \{x \in S : \text{there exists an } \lambda \in \Lambda \text{ such that } x \in K_\lambda\}$$

- “there exists” means “there exists at least one”

**Example.** Let  $A := \bigcap_{n \in \mathbb{N}} (0, 1/n)$

Claim:  $A = \emptyset$

Proof: We need to show that  $A$  contains no elements

Suppose to the contrary that  $x \in A = \bigcap_{n \in \mathbb{N}} (0, 1/n)$

Then  $x$  is a number satisfying  $0 < x < 1/n$  for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$

No such  $x$  exists

Contradiction

**Example.** For any  $a < b$  we have  $\cup_{\epsilon > 0} [a + \epsilon, b) = (a, b)$

Proof: Pick any  $a < b$

Suppose first that  $x \in \cup_{\epsilon > 0} [a + \epsilon, b)$

This means there exists  $\epsilon > 0$  such that  $a + \epsilon \leq x < b$

Clearly  $a < x < b$ , and hence  $x \in (a, b)$

Conversely, if  $a < x < b$ , then  $\exists \epsilon > 0$  s.t.  $a + \epsilon \leq x < b$

Hence  $x \in \cup_{\epsilon > 0} [a + \epsilon, b)$

**Ex.** Show that  $\cup_{n \in \mathbb{N}} (-n, n) = \mathbb{R}$

Let  $S$  be any set

Let  $K_\lambda \subset S$  for all  $\lambda \in \Lambda$

**de Morgan's laws** state that:

$$\left[ \bigcup_{\lambda \in \Lambda} K_\lambda \right]^c = \bigcap_{\lambda \in \Lambda} K_\lambda^c \quad \text{and} \quad \left[ \bigcap_{\lambda \in \Lambda} K_\lambda \right]^c = \bigcup_{\lambda \in \Lambda} K_\lambda^c$$

Let's prove that  $A := (\cup_{\lambda \in \Lambda} K_\lambda)^c = \cap_{\lambda \in \Lambda} K_\lambda^c =: B$

Suffices to show that  $A \subset B$  and  $B \subset A$

Let's just do  $A \subset B$

Must show that every  $x \in A$  is also in  $B$

Fix  $x \in A$

Since  $x \in A$ , it must be that  $x$  is not in  $\cup_{\lambda \in \Lambda} K_\lambda$

$\therefore x$  is not in any  $K_\lambda$

$\therefore x \in K_\lambda^c$  for each  $\lambda \in \Lambda$

$\therefore x \in \cap_{\lambda \in \Lambda} K_\lambda^c =: B$