

# Calculus

Christopher K. Walsh

April 14, 2025

# Contents

<b>1</b>	<b>Sequences and Series</b>	<b>3</b>
1.1	Sequences . . . . .	3
1.2	Sequence Convergence . . . . .	4
1.2.1	Little-O Notation . . . . .	5
1.2.2	Monotonic Bounded Sequence Theorem . . . . .	7
<b>2</b>	<b>Introduction to Multivariable Functions</b>	<b>9</b>
2.1	Multivariable Functions . . . . .	9
2.2	Graphing Multivariable Functions . . . . .	9
2.3	Defining Partial Derivatives . . . . .	10

# Chapter 1

## Sequences and Series

### 1.1 Sequences

The concepts of sequences arise naturally and recur throughout mathematics (e.g. analysis).

*Definition* (Sequences):

A **sequence** of numbers is a (possibly infinite) list with ordered elements:

$$\{a_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty} = \{a_1, a_2, a_3, \dots\}$$

(We could start the sequence at  $x = 0$  if we prefer.)

Some examples include:

1.  $\{1, 2, 3, 4, \dots\}$   $a_n = n$   
This reproduces the natural numbers. We can also define this sequence recursively with:  $a_{n+1} = a_n + 1$  ( $a_1 = 1$ ).
2.  $\{1, 3, 6, 10, \dots\}$   $a_n = a_{n-1} + (n-1)$ ,  $a_1 = 1$   
These are the triangular numbers. A closed formula for them is  $a_n = \frac{1}{2}n(n+1)$ .
3.  $\{2, 4, 7, 11, 16, \dots\}$   $a_{n+1} = a_n + (n+1)$ ,  $a_1 = 2$
4.  $\{1, 1, 2, 3, 5, 8, 13, 21, \dots\}$   
This is the famous Fibonacci sequence.

*Aside:* The Fibonacci sequence is arguably the most famous sequence appearing in [a variety of contexts](#). Its closed formula is:

$$a_n = \frac{\phi^n - \psi^n}{\phi - \psi}$$

where  $\phi = \frac{1 + \sqrt{5}}{2}$  and  $\psi = \frac{1 - \sqrt{5}}{2}$ .

Numerically,  $\phi$  and  $\psi$  are roots of the polynomial  $x^2 - x - 1$ . Geometrically, they are related to the ratios of a regular pentagon:

In this chapter, we will build upon this definition into tools we can use to solve other problems.

## 1.2 Sequence Convergence

*Definition (Convergence):*

An infinite sequence  $a_n$  **converges** to a number  $L$  if  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n$  exists and equals  $L$ .

Meaning, for any  $\varepsilon > 0$ , there exists a number  $N$  such that  $|a_n - L| < \varepsilon$  whenever  $n > N$ . (This goes back to the definition of limits.)

We say  $a_n$  diverges to  $+\infty$  if  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = \infty$  and  $a_n$  diverges to  $-\infty$  if  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = -\infty$ . The sequence  $a_n$  'really diverges' otherwise.

*Example:*

Prove using the definition that  $\frac{1}{n}$  converges to 0.

Given any  $\varepsilon > 0$ , choose  $N = \lceil \frac{1}{\varepsilon} \rceil$ . Then,  $n > N = \lceil \frac{1}{\varepsilon} \rceil \implies |\frac{1}{n} - 0| < \varepsilon$  Therefore, by the definition,  $\frac{1}{n} \rightarrow 0$ .

From this definition, we can prove several properties of sequences identical to the Limit Laws. If  $a_n$  and  $b_n$  are convergent sequences and  $c$  is a constant, then:

$$\begin{aligned}\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (a_n \pm b_n) &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n \pm \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} b_n \\ \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} ca_n &= c \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n \\ \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} c &= c \\ \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (a_n b_n) &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n \cdot \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} b_n \\ \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{a_n}{b_n} &= \frac{\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n}{\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} b_n} \text{ if } \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} b_n \neq 0 \\ \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} [a_n]^p &= \left[ \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n \right]^p \text{ if } p > 0 \text{ and } a_n > 0\end{aligned}$$

*Example:*

Evaluate  $\left\{ \frac{3+5n^2}{n+n^2} \right\}$ .

Dividing the numerator and denominator by  $\frac{1}{n^2}$ , we can use the Limit Laws.

$$\begin{aligned}\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{3+5n^2}{n+n^2} &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{3+5n^2}{n+n^2} \cdot \frac{\frac{1}{n^2}}{\frac{1}{n^2}} \\ &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\frac{3}{n^2} + 5}{\frac{1}{n} + 1} \\ &= \frac{\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{3}{n^2} + \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} 5}{\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{n} + \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} 1} \\ &= \frac{0 + 5}{0 + 1} = 5\end{aligned}$$

Note: To show a sequence  $\{a_j\}$  diverges, given any  $R > 0$  find  $N$  such that  $n > N$  implies  $a_n > R$ .

*Example:*

Show  $\{\ln n\} \rightarrow \infty$ .

For a general  $R$ , choose  $N = e^R$ . Then  $n > e^R \implies \ln n > \ln e^R = R$ . Therefore  $\{\ln n\} \rightarrow \infty$ .

When a sequence has an indeterminate form, it is useful to rewrite the expression in another way to determine its convergence or divergence. As shown before, we can rewrite polynomial expressions. Another tool we can use is the following theorems (taken from Stewart). The first theorem allows us to compare sequences with discrete variables to functions of continuous variables when limits approach infinity.

**Theorem 1.** *If  $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} f(x) = L$  and  $f(n) = a_n$  when  $n \in \mathbb{Z}$ , then  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} f(n) = L$ .*

The second theorem says that if we apply a continuous function to terms of a convergent sequence, the result is also convergent.

**Theorem 2.** *If  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = L$  and the function  $f$  is continuous at  $L$ , then  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} f(a_n) = f(L)$ .*

*Example:*

Find  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (1 + \frac{1}{n})^n$ .

We can apply Thm 1 and Thm 2 using  $f(x) = e^x$ . Then,  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (1 + \frac{1}{n})^n = \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} (1 + \frac{1}{x})^x$ . Now,

$$\left(1 + \frac{1}{x}\right)^x = e^{\ln(1 + \frac{1}{x})^x} = e^{x \ln(1 + \frac{1}{x})}$$

So,

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \left(1 + \frac{1}{x}\right)^x = e^{\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} x \ln(1 + \frac{1}{x})}$$

However,

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} x \ln \left(1 + \frac{1}{x}\right) = \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\ln(1 + \frac{1}{x})}{\frac{1}{x}} \rightarrow \frac{0}{0}$$

Since this is an indeterminate form, applying L'Hopital's Rule,

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\ln(1 + \frac{1}{x})}{\frac{1}{x}} = \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\frac{1}{1 + \frac{1}{x}} \cdot \frac{-1}{x^2}}{\frac{-1}{x^2}} = \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{1 + \frac{1}{x}} = 1$$

Thus, we conclude  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (1 + \frac{1}{n})^n = e^1 = e$ .

### 1.2.1 Little-O Notation

It is useful to describe how quickly a sequence converges compared to some other sequence. The relative "speed" can be compared with Little-Oh notation.

*Definition* (Little-Oh Notation):

Let  $a_n$  and  $b_n$  be sequences. We say  $a_n$  is **little-oh** of  $b_n$  and write  $a_n = o(b_n)$  if  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{a_n}{b_n} = 0$ .

We also say  $b_n$  is much faster than  $a_n$  and write  $a_n \ll b_n$  for  $n \gg 0$ .

In computer programming, we want algorithms that require less space and time to process inputs. We can compare algorithms with similar notation.

*Example:*

Compare  $n$  and  $\frac{1}{2}n$ .

Clearly  $\frac{1}{2}n < n$ , so  $\frac{1}{2}n < n$ . However,

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\frac{1}{2}n}{n} = \frac{1}{2} \neq 0$$

It is not slow enough.

*Example:*

Show  $\ln(\ln n) = o(\ln n)$ .

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\ln(\ln n)}{\ln n} \rightarrow \frac{\infty}{\infty}$$

An indeterminate form.

By Thm 1,

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\ln(\ln n)}{\ln n} = \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\ln(\ln x)}{\ln x}$$

.

Using L'Hopital's Rule,

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\ln(\ln x)}{\ln x} = \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\frac{1}{x \ln x}}{\frac{1}{x}} = \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{\ln x} = 0$$

We conclude  $\ln(\ln n) = o(\ln n)$ .

*Example:*

Compare  $n!$  and  $e^n$ .

Claim:  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{e^n}{n!} = 0$

Now, consider the first several terms:

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{e^n}{n!} &= \frac{e \cdot e \cdot \dots \cdot e}{1 \cdot 2 \cdot 3 \cdot \dots \cdot n} \rightarrow \\ \frac{e}{1}, \frac{e \cdot e}{1 \cdot 2}, \frac{e \cdot e \cdot e}{1 \cdot 2 \cdot 3}, \frac{e \cdot e \cdot e \cdot e}{1 \cdot 2 \cdot 3 \cdot 4}, \dots \\ &> \frac{e}{3} \cdot \frac{e^2}{2} > \frac{e^2}{12} \cdot \frac{e^2}{2} \end{aligned}$$

We see starting with the third term, they look similar to a geometric series since  $e < 3$ . (Note  $\frac{e}{3} < 1$  and  $\frac{e}{4} < 1$ .) Then,

$$0 < \frac{e^n}{n!} < \frac{e^2}{2} \cdot \frac{e}{n} = \frac{e^3}{2} \left( \frac{1}{n} \right)$$

By the Squeeze Theorem,  $\frac{e^n}{n!} \rightarrow 0$ .

### 1.2.2 Monotonic Bounded Sequence Theorem

When dealing with recursive sequences, the Monotonic Bounded Sequence Thm (MST) is very helpful in determining convergence.

**Theorem 3** (Monotonic Bounded Sequence Theorem). *Every monotonic, bounded sequence is convergent.*

We would simply need to show the sequence is bounded and monotonic. If it converges, then the limit is a fixed point where  $a_{n+1} = a_n$ .

*Example:*

Consider  $a_1 = \sqrt{2}$ ,  $a_n = \sqrt{2 + a_n}$ .

Step 1: Find the fixed point. (Finding it first makes showing it bounded easier.)

$$\begin{aligned}\sqrt{2 + a_n} &= a_n \\ 2 + a_n &= a_n^2 \\ a_n^2 - a_n - 2 &= 0 \\ (a_n - 2)(a_n + 1) &= 0 \\ \therefore a_n &= 2, -1\end{aligned}$$

If  $\{a_n\}$  converges,  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = 2$  (since  $a_1 > 0$  and  $a_n$  is increasing).

Step 2: Show it is bounded. Use a fixed point if possible.

Lower bound: -1 (all terms are greater than 0)

Upper bound: 2 ...

Now,  $a_1 = \sqrt{2} < 2$  If  $a_n < 2$ , then  $a_{n+1} = \sqrt{2 + a_n} < \sqrt{2 + 2} = 2$ , so  $a_n < 2 \implies a_{n+1} < 2$ . Therefore, by the principle of induction,  $a_n < 2$  for all  $n$ , and we have shown  $a_n$  is bounded.

✓

Step 3: Show it is increasing i.e.  $a_{n+1} > a_n$  for all  $n$ . Now, this is equivalent to  $a_{n+1}^2 > a_n^2$ . Rearranging and applying  $a_{n+1} = \sqrt{2 + a_n}$ , we see that  $2 + a_n - a_n^2 > 0$ . This expression holds since  $-1 < a_n < 2$  for all  $n$ , so  $\{a_n\}$  is increasing.

Therefore, by MST,  $\{a_n\}$  converges, so  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = 2$ .

Now, consider this example of a continued fraction:

$$1 + \frac{1}{1 + \frac{1}{1 + \frac{1}{1 + \dots}}}$$

This generates the following sequence:

$$\left\{ 1 + 1, 1 + \frac{1}{1+1}, 1 + \frac{1}{1+\frac{1}{1+1}}, \dots \right\}$$

or equivalently:

$$\left\{ 2, \frac{3}{2}, \frac{5}{3}, \frac{8}{5}, \frac{13}{8}, \dots \right\}$$

The sequence is certainly bounded between 1 and 2, but it is not monotonic. However, we can still use Thm 3.

Both  $\{a_{2n}\}$  and  $\{a_{2n+1}\}$  are monotonic and approach the same limit (which is the Golden Mean  $\phi$ ).

Consider an infinite sum of terms defined as the following:

*Definition* (Infinite Series):

An ***infinite series*** is an expression:

$$S = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_k = a_1 + a_2 + a_3 + \dots$$

We write the  $n$ th partial sum  $S_n = \sum_{k=1}^n a_k = a_1 + a_2 + \dots + a_n$

From this infinite sum, we can generate a sequence of the  $n$ th partial sums. We say that  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_k$  converges if  $\{S_n\}$ ,  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_k$  diverges to  $\pm\infty$  if  $\{S_n\}$  diverges to  $\pm\infty$ , and  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_k$  "really" diverges if  $\{S_n\}$  really diverges.



# Chapter 2

## Introduction to Multivariable Functions

### 2.1 Multivariable Functions

These functions are maps from higher Euclidean dimensions to the real numbers, i.e.  $\mathbb{R}^n$  to  $\mathbb{R}$ .

We describe the domain of these functions as all allowable inputs for each variable, the codomain as simply  $\mathbb{R}$  and the range as all values or outputs.

*Example:*

Compute and sketch the domain and range of  $f(x, y) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{x^2 - y^2}}$ .

We require  $x^2 - y^2 > 0$  to stay in the real numbers. Thus,  $x^2 > y^2$ .

$$x > \pm y \text{ if } x > 0$$

$$-x > \pm y \text{ if } x < 0$$

Range: Get all  $\frac{1}{\sqrt{x^2}} = \frac{1}{|x|} \therefore (0, \infty)$

*More Examples:*

$$f(x, y, z) = \ln(16 - 4x^2 - 4y^2 - z^2) \downarrow 16 - 4x^2 - 4y^2 - z^2 > 0$$

Thus, the domain is a ellipsoid and the range is  $(-\infty, \ln 16)$ .

### 2.2 Graphing Multivariable Functions

For a multivariable function in the form of To graph multivariable functions, we need a way to convey the higher dimensions.

An easy way to do this is using a

## 2.3 Defining Partial Derivatives

*Definition (Partial Derivative):*

The **partial derivative of**  $f(x, y)$  **with respect to**  $x$  is the usual  $x$ -derivative, but with  $y$  held constant, written as  $\frac{\partial f}{\partial x}$  or  $f_x$ .

Similarly,  $\frac{\partial f}{\partial y}$  or  $f_y$  is the usual  $y$ -derivative, but with  $x$  held constant.

We can interpret  $\frac{\partial f}{\partial x}(p_0)$  as the rate of change (r.o.c.) of  $f$  at  $p_0$  in the  $+x$ -direction and  $\frac{\partial f}{\partial y}(p_0)$  as the r.o.c. of  $f$  at  $p_0$  in the  $+y$ -direction.

The limit definition of the partial derivative is a more rigorous statement of the first definition. However, this can help extend the partial derivative to functions of more variables in an obvious way.

$$f_x(a, b) = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(a + h, b) - f(a, b)}{h}$$

$$f_y(a, b) = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(a, b + h) - f(a, b)}{h}$$