

# Differential and Integral Calculus

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## **2 Required Reading**

Protter and Morrey: *A first Course in Real Analysis*, UTM Series, Springer-Verlag, 1991

## **3 Additional Reading**

Thomas and Finney, *Calculus and Analytic Geometry*, 9th edition, Addison-Wesley, 1996

## Part I

# Sequences and Series

## 1 Sequences

**Definition 1** (Sequence). A sequence of real numbers is a set of numbers which are written in some order. There are infinitely many terms in a sequence. It is denoted by  $\{a_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$  or  $\{a_n\}$ .

**Example 1.**  $1, \frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{3}, \dots$  is called the harmonic sequence.

$$a_n = \frac{1}{n}$$

**Example 2.**  $1, -\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{3}, \dots$  is called the alternating harmonic sequence.

$$a_n = (-1)^{n+1} \frac{1}{n}$$

**Example 3.**  $\frac{1}{2}, \frac{2}{3}, \frac{3}{4}, \dots$

$$a_n = \frac{n}{n+1}$$

**Example 4.**  $\frac{2}{3}, \frac{3}{9}, \frac{4}{27}, \dots$

$$a_n = \frac{n+1}{3^n}$$

**Example 5.** The Fibonacci sequence is given by

$$f_n = \begin{cases} 1 & ; \quad n = 1, 2 \\ f_{n-1} + f_{n-2} & ; \quad n \geq 3 \end{cases}$$

**Example 6.** A geometric sequence is given by

$$a_n = a_1 q^{n-1}$$

where  $q$  is called the common ratio.

**Example 7.** A geometric sequence is given by

$$a_n = a_1 + d(n - 1)$$

where  $d$  is called the common difference.

**Definition 2** (Equal sequences). Two sequences  $\{a_n\}$  and  $\{b_n\}$  are said to be equal if  $a_n = b_n, \forall n \in \mathbb{N}$ .

**Definition 3** (Sequences bounded from above).  $\{a_n\}$  is said to be bounded from above if  $\exists M \in \mathbb{R}$ , s.t.  $a_n \leq M, \forall n \in \mathbb{N}$ . Each such  $M$  is called an upper bound of  $\{a_n\}$ .

**Definition 4** (Sequences bounded from below).  $\{a_n\}$  is said to be bounded from below if  $\exists m \in \mathbb{R}$ , s.t.  $a_n \geq m, \forall n \in \mathbb{N}$ . Each such  $m$  is called a lower bound of  $\{a_n\}$ .

**Definition 5.**  $\{a_n\}$  is said to be bounded if it is bounded from below and bounded from above.

**Example 8.** The sequence  $a_n = n^2 + 2$  is not bounded from above but is bounded from below, by all  $m \leq 3$ .

**Example 9.**  $\left\{ \frac{2n-1}{3n} \right\}$  is bounded.

$$m = 0 \leq \frac{2n-1}{3n} \leq \frac{2n}{3n} = \frac{2}{3} = M$$

**Definition 6** (Monotonic increasing sequence). A sequence  $\{a_n\}$  is called monotonic increasing if  $\exists n_0 \in \mathbb{N}$ , s.t.  $a_n \leq a_{n+1}, \forall n \geq n_0$ .

**Definition 7** (Monotonic decreasing sequence). A sequence  $\{a_n\}$  is called monotonic decreasing if  $\exists n_0 \in \mathbb{N}$ , s.t.  $a_n \geq a_{n+1}, \forall n \geq n_0$ .

**Definition 8** (Strongly increasing sequence). A sequence  $\{a_n\}$  is called monotonic increasing if  $\exists n_0 \in \mathbb{N}$ , s.t.  $a_n < a_{n+1}, \forall n \geq n_0$ .

**Definition 9** (Strongly decreasing sequence). A sequence  $\{a_n\}$  is called monotonic decreasing if  $\exists n_0 \in \mathbb{N}$ , s.t.  $a_n > a_{n+1}, \forall n \geq n_0$ .

**Example 10.** The sequence  $\left\{\frac{n^2}{2^n}\right\}$  is strongly decreasing. However, this is not evident by observing the first few terms.  $\frac{1}{2}, 1, \frac{9}{8}, 1, \frac{25}{32}, \dots$

$$\begin{aligned}
 & a_n > a_{n+1} \\
 \iff & \frac{n^2}{2^n} > \frac{(n+1)^2}{2^{n+1}} \\
 \iff & 2n^2 > (n+1)^2 \\
 \iff & \sqrt{2}n > n+1 \\
 \iff & n(\sqrt{2}-1) > 1 \\
 \iff & n > \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}-1} \\
 \iff & n > 3
 \end{aligned}$$

**Exercise 1.**

Is  $a_n = (-1)^n$  monotonic?

**Solution 1.**

The sequence  $-1, 1, -1, 1, \dots$  is not monotonic.

## 1.1 Limit of a Sequence

**Definition 10.** Let  $\{a_n\}$  be a given sequence. A number  $L$  is said to be the limit of the sequence if  $\forall \varepsilon > 0, \exists n_0 \in \mathbb{N}$ , s.t.  $|a_n - L| < \varepsilon, \forall n \geq n_0$ . That is, there are infinitely many terms inside the interval and a finite number of terms outside it.

**Example 11.** The sequence  $\left\{\frac{1}{n}\right\}$  tends to 0, i.e. for any open interval  $(-\varepsilon, \varepsilon)$ , there are finite number of terms of the sequence outside the interval, and therefore there are infinitely many terms inside the interval.

**Exercise 2.**

Prove

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{n+2}{2n-1} = \frac{1}{2}$$

**Solution 2.**

$\forall \varepsilon > 0, \exists n_0 \in \mathbb{N}$

**Exercise 3.**

Prove that 2 is not a limit of  $\left\{ \frac{3n+1}{n} \right\}$ .

**Solution 3.**

If possible, let

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{3n+1}{n} = 2$$

Then,  $\forall \varepsilon > 0, \exists n_0 \in \mathbb{N}$ , s.t.  $\left| \frac{3n+1}{n} - 2 \right| < \varepsilon, \forall n \geq n_0$ . However,

$$\left| \frac{3n+1}{n} - 2 \right| = 1 + \frac{1}{n} > 1$$

This is a contradiction for  $\varepsilon = \frac{1}{2}$ . Therefore, 2 is not a limit.

**Theorem 1.** *If a sequence  $\{a_n\}$  has a limit  $L$  then the limit is unique.*

*Proof.* If possible let there exist two limits  $L_1$  and  $L_2$ . Therefore,  $\forall \varepsilon > 0$ , there exist a finite number of terms in the interval  $(L_1 - \varepsilon, L_1 + \varepsilon)$ . Therefore, there exist a finite number of terms in the interval  $(L_2 - \varepsilon, L_2 + \varepsilon)$ . This contradicts the definition of a limit. Therefore, the limit is unique.  $\square$

**Theorem 2.** *If a sequence  $\{a_n\}$  has limit  $L$ , then the sequence is bounded.*

**Theorem 3.** *Let*

$$\begin{aligned} \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n &= a \\ \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} b_n &= b \end{aligned}$$

*and let  $c$  be a constant. Then,*

$$\begin{aligned} \lim c &= c \\ \lim(ca_n) &= c \lim a_n \\ \lim(a_n \pm b_n) &= \lim a_n \pm \lim b_n \\ \lim(a_n b_n) &= \lim a_n \lim b_n \\ \lim\left(\frac{a_n}{b_n}\right) &= \frac{\lim a_n}{\lim b_n} \quad (\text{if } \lim b_n \neq 0) \end{aligned}$$

**Theorem 4.** Let  $\{b_n\}$  be bounded and let  $\lim a_n = 0$ . Then,

$$\lim(a_nb_n) = 0$$

**Theorem 5** (Sandwich Theorem). Let  $\{a_n\}$ ,  $\{b_n\}$ ,  $\{c_n\}$  be three sequences. If

$$\lim a_n = \lim b_n = L$$

and  $\exists n_0 \in \mathbb{N}$ , s.t.  $\forall n \geq n_0$ ,  $a_n \leq b_n \leq c_n$ . Then,

$$\lim b_n = L$$

**Exercise 4.**

Calculate  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sqrt[n]{2^n + 3^n}$

**Solution 4.**

$$\begin{aligned} \sqrt[n]{3^n} &\leq \sqrt[n]{2^n + 3^n} \leq \sqrt[n]{3^n + 3^n} = \sqrt[n]{2 \cdot 3^n} \\ \therefore 3 &\leq \sqrt[n]{2^n + 3^n} \leq 3 \sqrt[n]{2} \end{aligned}$$

Therefore, by the Sandwich Theorem,  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sqrt[n]{2^n + 3^n} = 3$ .

**Theorem 6.** Any monotonically increasing sequence which is bounded from above converges. Similarly, any monotonically decreasing sequence which is bounded from below converges.

**Exercise 5.**

Prove that there exists a limit for  $a_n = \underbrace{\sqrt{2 + \sqrt{2 + \sqrt{2 + \dots}}}}_{n \text{ times}}$  and find it.

**Solution 5.**

$$a_1 = \sqrt{2} < \sqrt{2 + \sqrt{2}} = a_2$$

If possible, let

$$\begin{aligned} a_{n-1} &< a_n \\ \therefore \sqrt{2 + a_{n-1}} &< \sqrt{2 + a_n} \\ \therefore a_n &< a_{n+1} \end{aligned}$$

Hence, by induction,  $\{a_n\}$  is monotonically increasing.

$$a_1 = \sqrt{2} \leq 2$$

If possible, let

$$\begin{aligned} a_n &\leq 2 \therefore \sqrt{2 + a_n} && \leq \sqrt{2 + 2} \\ \therefore a_{n+1} &\leq 2 \end{aligned}$$

Hence, by induction,  $\{a_n\}$  is bounded from above by 2. Therefore, by ,  $\{a_n\}$  converges.

**Definition 11** (Limit in a wide sense). The sequence  $\{a_n\}$  is said to converge to  $+\infty$  if  $\forall M \in \mathbb{R}, \exists n_0 \in \mathbb{N}$ , s.t.  $\forall n \geq n_0, a_n > M$ .

The sequence  $\{a_n\}$  is said to converge to  $-\infty$  if  $\forall M \in \mathbb{R}, \exists n_0 \in \mathbb{N}$ , s.t.  $\forall n \geq n_0, a_n < M$ .

## 1.2 Sub-sequences

**Definition 12** (Sub-sequence). Let  $\{a_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$  be a sequence. Let  $\{n_k\}_{k=1}^{\infty}$  be a strongly increasing sequence of natural numbers. Let  $\{b_k\}_{k=1}^{\infty}$  be a sequence such that  $b_k = a_{n_k}$ . Then  $\{b_k\}_{k=1}^{\infty}$  is called a sub-sequence of  $\{a_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$ .

**Example 12.**

$$a_n = \frac{1}{n}$$

If we choose  $n_k = k^2$ ,

$$b_k = a_{n_k} = a_{k^2} = \frac{1}{k^2}$$

Therefore,

$$\{b_k\} = 1, \frac{1}{4}, \frac{1}{9}, \dots$$

**Theorem 7.** *If the sequence  $\{a_n\}$  converges to  $L$  in a wide sense, i.e.  $L$  can be infinite, then any sub-sequence of  $\{a_n\}$  converges to the same limit  $L$ .*

**Definition 13** (Partial limit). A real number  $a$ , which may be infinite, is called a partial limit of the sequence  $\{a_n\}$  if there exists a sub-sequence of  $\{a_n\}$  which converges to  $a$ .



**Example 13.** Let

$$a_n = (-1)^n$$

Therefore,  $\nexists \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n$ . Let

$$b_k = a_{n_k} = a_{2k-1}$$

Therefore,

$$\begin{aligned} \{b_k\} &= -1, -1, -1, \dots \\ \therefore \lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} b_k &= -1 \end{aligned}$$

Therefore,  $-1$  is a partial limit of  $\{a_n\}$ .

**Theorem 8** (Bolzano-Weierstrass Theorem). *For any bounded sequence there exists a subsequence which is convergent, s.t. there exists at least one partial limit.*

**Definition 14** (Upper partial limit). The largest partial limit of a sequence is called the upper partial limit. It is denoted by  $\overline{\lim} a_n$  or  $\limsup a_n$ .

**Definition 15** (Lower partial limit). The smallest partial limit of a sequence is called the lower partial limit. It is denoted by  $\underline{\lim} a_n$  or  $\liminf a_n$ .

**Theorem 9.** *If the sequence  $\{a_n\}$  is bounded and*

$$\overline{\lim} a_n = \underline{\lim} a_n = a$$

*then*

$$\exists \lim a_n = a$$

### 1.3 Cauchy Characterisation of Convergence

**Definition 16.** A sequence  $\{a_n\}$  is called a Cauchy sequence if  $\forall \varepsilon > 0$ ,  $\exists n_0 \in \mathbb{N}$ , s.t.  $\forall m, n \geq n_0$ ,  $|a_n - a_m| < \varepsilon$ .

**Theorem 10** (Cauchy Characterisation of Convergence). *A sequence  $\{a_n\}$  converges if and only if it is a Cauchy sequence.*

*Proof.* Let

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = L$$

Then  $\forall \varepsilon > 0$ ,  $\exists n_0 \in \mathbb{N}$ , such that  $\forall n \geq n_0$ ,  $|a_n - L| < \frac{\varepsilon}{2}$ . Therefore if  $n \geq n_0$  and  $m \geq n_0$ , then

$$\begin{aligned} |a_n - a_m| &= |a_n - L + L - a_m| \\ &\leq |a_n - L| + |L - a_m| \\ &< \frac{\varepsilon}{2} + \frac{\varepsilon}{2} \\ \therefore |a_n - a_m| &= \varepsilon \end{aligned}$$

Similarly, the converse can be proved by Theorem 9. □

**Theorem 11** (Another Formulation of the Cauchy Characterisation Theorem). *The sequence  $\{a_n\}$  converges if and only if  $\forall \varepsilon > 0$ ,  $\exists n_0 \in \mathbb{N}$ , such that  $\forall n \geq n_0$  and  $\forall p \in \mathbb{N}$ ,  $|a_{n+p} - a_n| < \varepsilon$ .*

**Exercise 6.**

Prove that the sequence

$$a_n = \frac{1}{1^2} + \frac{1}{2^2} + \cdots + \frac{1}{n^2}$$

is convergent.

**Solution 6.**

$$\begin{aligned} |a_{n+p} - a_n| &= \left| \frac{1}{1^2} + \frac{1}{2^2} + \cdots + \frac{1}{(n+p)^2} - \left( \frac{1}{1^2} + \frac{1}{2^2} + \cdots + \frac{1}{n^2} \right) \right| \\ &= \frac{1}{(n+1)^2} + \frac{1}{(n+2)^2} + \cdots + \frac{1}{(n+p)^2} \\ \therefore |a_{n+p} - a_n| &< \frac{1}{n(n+1)} + \frac{1}{(n+1)(n+2)} + \cdots + \frac{1}{(n+p-1)(n+p)} \\ \therefore |a_{n+p} - a_n| &< \frac{1}{n} - \frac{1}{\cancel{n+1}} + \frac{1}{\cancel{n+1}} + \cdots + \frac{1}{\cancel{n+p-1}} - \frac{1}{n+p} \\ \therefore |a_{n+p} - a_n| &< \frac{1}{n} - \frac{1}{n+p} \\ \therefore |a_{n+p} - a_n| &< \frac{1}{n} \end{aligned}$$

Therefore,  $\forall \varepsilon > 0, \exists n_0 \in \mathbb{N}$ , s.t.  $\forall n \geq n_0$  and  $\forall p \in \mathbb{N}$ ,  $|a_{n+p} - a_n| < \varepsilon$ , where  $n_0 > \frac{1}{\varepsilon}$ .  $\square$

**Exercise 7.**

Prove that the sequence

$$a_n = \frac{1}{1} + \frac{1}{n} + \cdots + \frac{1}{n}$$

diverges.

**Solution 7.**

If possible, let the sequence converge. Then, by the Cauchy Characterisation of Convergence,  $\forall \varepsilon > 0, \exists n_0 \in \mathbb{N}$ , s.t.  $\forall n \geq n_0$  and  $\forall p \in \mathbb{N}$ ,  $|a_{n+p} - a_n| < \varepsilon$ . Therefore,

$$\begin{aligned} |a_{n+p} - a_n| &= \left| \frac{1}{1} + \frac{1}{2} + \cdots + \frac{1}{n} + \frac{1}{n+p} - \left( \frac{1}{n} + \cdots + \frac{1}{n} \right) \right| \\ &= \frac{1}{n+1} + \cdots + \frac{1}{n+p} \\ &\geq p \cdot \frac{1}{n+p} \\ \therefore |a_{n+p} - a_n| &> \frac{p}{n+p} \end{aligned}$$

If  $n = p$ ,

$$\frac{p}{n+p} = \frac{1}{2}$$

This contradicts the result obtained from the Cauchy Characterisation of Convergence, for  $\varepsilon = \frac{1}{4}$ .

Therefore, the sequence diverges.