# Mathematics/Statistics Bootcamp Part I: Calculus

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### Overview

### Limit and Continuity

#### Derivative

Definition and Differentiation Rules Application of Derivatives

### Integrals

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Sequences and Series

Multivariate Calculus

# Limit and Continuity

### Limit

Suppose  $-\infty < a, L < +\infty$  and  $f(x): X \to Y$  is a real-valued function, then

$$\lim_{x\to a}f(x)=L$$

if for any  $\epsilon > 0$ , there exists  $\delta > 0$  such that

$$|f(x) - L| < \epsilon$$
 whenever  $0 < |x - a| < \delta$ .

(The value of f(x) approaches L when x approaches a.)

**Left-hand limit**:  $\lim_{x\to a^-} f(x) = L$  if for any  $\epsilon > 0$ , there exists  $\delta > 0$  such that  $|f(x) - L| < \epsilon$  whenever  $a - \delta < x < a$ .

**Right-hand limit**:  $\lim_{x\to a^+} f(x) = L$  if for any  $\epsilon > 0$ , there exists  $\delta > 0$  such that  $|f(x) - L| < \epsilon$  whenever  $a < x < a + \delta$ .

# Limit: An Example

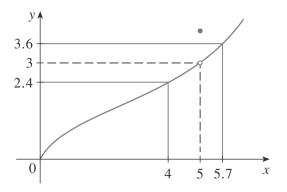


Figure: Plot of y = f(x).

- ▶ What is  $\lim_{x\to 5^-} f(x)$  ?
- ▶ What is  $\lim_{x\to 5^+} f(x)$  ?
- ▶ What is  $\lim_{x\to 5} f(x)$ ?



# Infinite Limit/Limit at Infinity

▶ How to define  $\lim_{x\to a} f(x) = \infty$  for  $-\infty < a < +\infty$  ?

▶ How to define  $\lim_{x\to\infty} f(x) = a$  for  $-\infty < a < +\infty$  ?

# Infinite Limit/Limit at Infinity

▶ How to define  $\lim_{x\to a} f(x) = \infty$  for  $-\infty < a < +\infty$  ? For any M>0, there exists  $\delta>0$  such that

$$f(x) > M$$
 whenever  $0 < |x - a| < \delta$ .

(The value of f(x) approaches  $\infty$  when x approaches a.)

▶ How to define  $\lim_{x\to\infty} f(x) = a$  for  $-\infty < a < +\infty$  ? For any  $\epsilon > 0$ , there exists a M > 0 such that

$$|f(x) - a| < \epsilon$$
 whenever  $x > M$ .

(The value of f(x) approaches a when x approaches  $\infty$ .)

# Continuity

A function f is continuous at a number a if

$$\lim_{x\to a} f(x) = f(a).$$

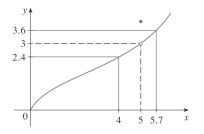
It implies 3 things:

- 1. f(a) is defined  $(a \in X)$ ;
- 2.  $\lim_{x\to a} f(x)$  exists;
- 3.  $\lim_{x\to a} f(x) = f(a)$ .

**Right continuous**:  $\lim_{x\to a^-} f(x) = f(a)$ .

**Left continuous**:  $\lim_{x\to a^+} f(x) = f(a)$ .

# Continuity: Examples



This function is discontinuous at x = 5.

This function is discontinuous (but right continuous) at any integer x.

# Derivative

### Definition of Derivative

The derivative of function f at  $a \in X$ , denoted by f'(a) is

$$f'(a) = \lim_{h \to 0} \frac{f(a+h) - f(a)}{h}$$

if this limit exists ("differentiable").

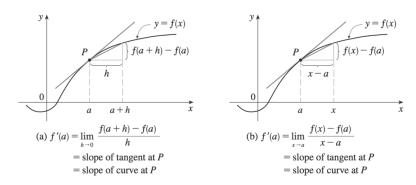


Figure: Geometric interpretations of the derivative.

### Differentiation Rules

Derivatives of some common functions:

- f(x) = const, then f'(x) = 0;
- $f(x) = x^{\alpha}, \alpha \neq 0$ , then  $f'(x) = \alpha x^{\alpha-1}$ ;
- $(e^x)' = e^x$ ,  $(\ln x)' = 1/x (x > 0)$ ;
- $(\sin x)' = \cos x$ ,  $(\cos x)' = -\sin x$ ,  $(\tan x)' = 1/\cos^2 x$ ;
- $(\sin^{-1} x)' = 1/\sqrt{1-x^2}, (\cos^{-1} x)' = -1/\sqrt{1-x^2}, (\tan^{-1} x)' = 1/1+x^2.$

If both f(x) and g(x) are differentiable:

- (cf(x))' = cf'(x), (f(x) + g(x))' = f'(x) + g'(x);
- (f(x)g(x))' = f'(x)g(x) + f(x)g'(x);
- ▶ The **chain rule**: if  $F = f \circ g$ , then F'(x) = f'(g(x))g'(x).

### Derivative: Exercises

- 1. Find the derivatives of the following functions
  - $ightharpoonup f(x) = xe^x;$
  - ▶  $f(x) = 1 \cos^2 x$ ;
  - $f(x) = \frac{\ln x}{x}.$

2. Find  $\lim_{x\to 0} (1+x)^{1/x}$ .

### Solution to Exercise 2

Let  $f(x) = \ln x$ , then

$$f'(1) = \lim_{x \to 0} \frac{\ln(1+x) - \ln 1}{x}$$
$$= \lim_{x \to 0} \frac{1}{x} \ln(1+x)$$
$$= \lim_{x \to 0} \ln(1+x)^{1/x}.$$

Since 
$$f'(1) = 1$$
,  $\lim_{x\to 0} (1+x)^{1/x} = e^1 = e$ .

### Minimum and Maximum

### Theorem (Fermat's Theorem)

If f has a local minimum or maximum at c and f'(c) exists, then f'(c) = 0.

Note: the converse is not true.

### Theorem (The Second Derivative Test)

If f has second derivative on  $(c - \epsilon_0, c + \epsilon_0)$  for a certain  $\epsilon_0 > 0$ , then

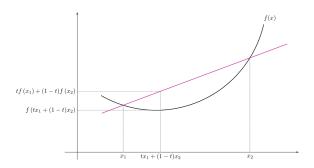
- if f'(c) = 0 and f'(c) > 0, f has a local minimum at c;
- if f'(c) = 0 and f'(c) < 0, f has a local maximum at c.

### Convexity

A function defined on a convex set X,  $f:X\to\mathbb{R}$  is convex if for any  $x,y\in X$  and  $t\in [0,1]$ ,

$$f(tx + (1-t)y) \le tf(x) + (1-t)f(y).$$

Visually, a convex function has a "curve up" shape:



# Convexity and Derivatives

Suppose f(x) is twice differentiable on interval I, then

- ▶ f is convex on I if and only if f'(x) is monotonically non-decreasing on I;
- ▶ f is convex on I if and only if  $f''(x) \ge 0$  for  $x \in I$  (often used to test for convexity).

A nice property of convexity:

Any local minimum of a convex function is also a global minimum; a strictly convex function has at most one global minimum. (Therefore convexity is much desired in optimization.)

# Review Exercises: Morning Session

- 1. Calculate  $\lim_{x\to 0} \frac{\sin x}{x}$  and  $\lim_{x\to 0} \frac{\tan x}{x}$ .
- 2. Which following functions are convex?

A 
$$f_1(x) = |x|, x \in [-1, 1];$$

B 
$$f_2(x) = \ln(x^2 + 1), x \in \mathbb{R};$$

C 
$$f_3(x) = e^{-x}, x \in \mathbb{R}$$
.

- 3. Let  $f(x) = \frac{1}{x}, x > 0$ . For every positive integer n, find  $f^{(n)}(x)$ .
- 4.  $f(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{\gamma}} \exp\left(-\frac{(x-\mu)^2}{\gamma^2}\right)$  where constants  $\gamma > 0$  and  $\mu \in \mathbb{R}$ , and  $x \in \mathbb{R}$ . Find all the global maximums of f(x).

# **Taylor Expansion**

**Taylor Series**, by 3Blue1Brown

# Challenge Exercises: Morning Session

# Integrals

# Properties of Definite Integrals

Let  $a \leq d \leq b \in \mathbb{R}$ :

- ▶ If  $c \in \mathbb{R}$  is a constant, then  $\int_a^b c dx = c(b-a)$ ;

- $\int_a^d f(x)dx + \int_d^b f(x)dx = \int_a^b f(x)dx;$
- ▶ If  $f(x) \ge g(x)$  for  $a \le x \le b$ , then  $\int_a^b f(x) dx \ge \int_a^b g(x) dx$ ;
- ▶ If  $m \le f(x) \le M$  for  $a \le x \le b$ , then  $m(b-a) \le \int_a^b f(x) dx \le M(b-a)$ .

### The Fundamental Theorem of Calculus

If f is continuous on [a, b], then:

- function  $g(x) = \int_a^x f(x) dx$ ,  $a \le x \le b$  is continuous on [a, b] and differentiable on (a, b), and g'(x) = f(x);
- ▶  $\int_a^b f(x)dx = F(b) F(a)$ , where F is any anti-derivative of f(F' = f).

A mini-exercise: find  $\frac{d}{dx} \int_1^x \sin x^4 dx$ .

# Useful Rules for Integration

▶ **Substitution rule**: If u = g(x) is continuously differentiable on [a, b] and f is continuous on the range of u, then

$$\int_a^b f(g(x))g'(x)dx = \int_{g(a)}^{g(b)} f(u)du.$$

▶ **Integration by parts**: If functions *u* and *v* are both continuously differentiable on [*a*, *b*], then

$$\int_{a}^{b} u(x)v'(x)dx = [u(x)v(x)]|_{a}^{b} - \int_{a}^{b} v(x)u'(x)dx.$$



# Integration: Exercises

1. Calculate  $\int_1^e \frac{\ln x}{x} dx$ .

2. Calculate  $\int_0^1 x \cos x dx$ .

# Improper Integrals

1. Infinite intervals: if  $\int_a^t f(x)dx$  exists for every  $t \ge a$  then

$$\int_{a}^{\infty} f(x)dx = \lim_{t \to \infty} \int_{a}^{t} f(x)dx$$

provided that this limit exists (convergent); similarly, one may define  $\int_{-\infty}^a f(x) dx$ , and if both  $\int_a^\infty f(x) dx$  and  $\int_{-\infty}^a f(x) dx$  are convergent, then  $\int_{-\infty}^\infty f(x) dx = \int_{-\infty}^a f(x) dx + \int_a^\infty f(x) dx$ .

2. **Discontinuous integrand**: if f is continuous on [a, b) and is discontinuous at b, then

$$\int_{a}^{b} f(x)dx = \lim_{t \to b^{-}} \int_{a}^{t} f(x)dx$$

if this limit exists; similarly, if f is continuous on (a, b] and is discontinuous at a,  $\int_a^b f(x)dx = \lim_{t\to a^+} \int_t^b f(x)dx$ .

# Improper Integrals: Exercises

1. For what values of  $p \in \mathbb{R}$  is the integral

$$\int_{1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{x^{p}} dx$$

convergent?

2. Evaluate  $\int_2^5 \frac{1}{\sqrt{x-2}} dx$ .

# Sequences and Series

# **Basics of Sequences**

A **sequence** is a list of numbers written in a definite order. We often denote a sequence  $\{a_1, a_2, a_3, \ldots\}$  by  $\{a_n\}$  or  $\{a_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$ .

A sequence  $\{a_n\}$  has **limit** L (written as  $\lim_{n\to\infty} a_n = L$ , or  $a_n\to L$  as  $n\to\infty$ ) if for every  $\epsilon>0$  there is a corresponding integer N such that  $|a_n-L|<\epsilon$  whenever n>N.

If for every  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ ,  $a_n \leq a_{n+1}$  (increasing) or  $a_n \geq a_{n+1}$  (decreasing), then the sequence  $\{a_n\}$  is **monotonic**. If there exists a number M > 0 such that  $|a_n| \leq M$  for every n then the sequence  $\{a_n\}$  is **bounded**.

**Monotonic Sequence Theorem:** Every bounded, monotonic sequence is convergent (has a limit).



# Sequences: Exercises

1. Find the limit of the sequence  $a_n$  where  $a_n = \left(1 + \frac{1}{n}\right)^n$ ,  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ .

2. Let  $a_n = \frac{2^n}{n!}$ ,  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ . Is the sequence  $a_n$  convergent? If so, what is its limit?

### **Basics of Series**

A **series** can be thought of as the infinite sum of a sequence  $a_n$ , written as  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$  or  $\sum a_n$ . More formally, it can be defined by taking the limit of partial sums  $\{s_n\}$ , where  $s_n = \sum_{i=1}^n a_i$ : if  $\lim_{n \to \infty} s_n$  exists then the series  $\sum a_n$  is convergent, otherwise it is divergent.

If  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$  is convergent, then  $\lim_{n\to\infty} a_n = 0$ .

An important example - the geometric series:

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} ar^{n-1} = a + ar + ar^2 + \cdots$$

is convergent if |r| < 1 and its sum is  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} ar^{n-1} = \frac{a}{1-r}$ . If  $|r| \ge 1$ , the geometric series is divergent.



### Series: Exercises

1. Show that  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n(n+1)}$  is convergent and find its sum.

2. Find  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} x^n$  where |x| < 1.

### Convergence of Series

### Commonly used tests for convergence:

- 1. The comparison test: Suppose that  $\sum a_n$  and  $\sum b_n$  are series with positive terms.
  - (i) If  $\sum b_n$  is convergent and  $a_n \leq b_n$  for all n, then  $\sum a_n$  is also convergent;
  - (ii) If  $\sum b_n$  is divergent and  $a_n \ge b_n$  for all n, then  $\sum a_n$  is also divergent.
    - Video example: famous proof that the harmonic series diverges, by Khan Academy.
- 2. **The integral test** (by *Khan Academy*).
- 3. The alternating series test: If the alternating series  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (-1)^{n-1} b_n \ (b_n > 0)$  satisfies (i)  $b_{n+1} \leq b_n$  for all n, and (ii)  $\lim_{n \to \infty} b_n = 0$  then the series is convergent.

### Review Exercises: Afternoon Session

- 1. Evaluate the following definite integrals:
  - $\qquad \qquad \int_0^4 \frac{x}{\sqrt{x^2+9}} dx;$
- 2. If f is continuous on  $\mathbb{R}$ , show that

$$\int_{a}^{b} f(x+c)dx = \int_{a+c}^{b+c} f(x)dx.$$

- 3. Do the following series converge? Calculate the value of the infinite sum for each convergent series.
- (a)  $\sum_{n=2}^{\infty} 5^{n-1} \left(\frac{9}{10}\right)^n$ ;
- (b)  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \left(\frac{3}{2}\right)^n \frac{1}{9^{n+2}}$ .
- 4. True or false?
  - ▶ If  $x_n \to 0$  as  $n \to \infty$ , then  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} x_n$  is convergent;
  - $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} x^n e^{-nx} \text{ is }$  convergent for any x > 0;
  - $ightharpoonup \sum_{n=2}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n \ln n}$  is convergent.

# Multivariate Calculus

### Partial Derivatives

If u is a function of n variables,  $u = f(x_1, x_2, ..., x_n)$ , its partial derivative with respect to the ith variable  $x_i$  is

$$\frac{\partial u}{\partial x_i} = \lim_{h \to 0} \frac{f(x_1, \dots, x_{i-1}, x_i + h, x_{i+1}, \dots, x_n) - f(x_1, \dots, x_i, \dots, x_n)}{h}.$$

(Strategy: treat all the other variables as constants and take the derivative with respect to the variable of interest.)

Suppose  $u=f(x_1,x_2,\ldots,x_n)$  is defined on  $\mathbb{R}^n$ . If  $\frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial x_i \partial x_j}$  and  $\frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial x_j \partial x_i}$  are both continuous on  $\mathbb{R}^n$ , then  $\frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial x_i \partial x_j} = \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial x_j \partial x_i}$ .

### The Gradient Vector and Hessian Matrix

Suppose  $f(x_1, x_2, ..., x_n)$  is a function of n variables such that all the partial derivatives exist, then the gradient vector of f is

$$\nabla f = \left(\frac{\partial f}{\partial x_1}, \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_2}, \dots, \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_n}\right).$$

If all the second-order partial derivatives of f also exist, the Hessian matrix of f is

$$H = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_1^2} & \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_1 \partial x_2} & \cdots & \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_1 \partial x_n} \\ \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_2 \partial x_1} & \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_2^2} & \cdots & \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_2 \partial x_n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_n \partial x_1} & \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_n \partial x_2} & \cdots & \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_n^2} \end{bmatrix}.$$

# Change of Variables

Take the two-variable case as an example:

Suppose z = f(x, y) is function of x, y and x = u(s, t), y = v(s, t) with respect two other variables s, t, then z = g(s, t) as a function of s, t, where

$$g(s,t)=f(u(s,t),v(s,t))|J|.$$

Here *J* is the **Jacobian** of the transformation x = u(s, t), y = v(s, t):

$$J = \begin{vmatrix} \frac{\partial x}{\partial s} & \frac{\partial x}{\partial t} \\ \frac{\partial y}{\partial s} & \frac{\partial y}{\partial t} \end{vmatrix} = \frac{\partial x}{\partial s} \frac{\partial y}{\partial t} - \frac{\partial x}{\partial t} \frac{\partial y}{\partial s}.$$

Suppose that we want to integrate f(x, y) over a region R. Under the transformation x = u(s, t), y = v(s, t) the regions becomes S and the integral becomes:

$$\iint_{R} f(x,y)dxdy = \iint_{S} f(u(s,t),v(s,t))|J|dsdt.$$

### Multivariate Calculus Review Exercises

1. Let  $f(x, y, z) = ye^x \ln z + z \tan z$   $(z \in (0, \frac{\pi}{2}))$  and  $g(x, y, z) = x^3y + y^3z + z^5 + \sqrt{xy}z$ . Compute  $\frac{\partial f}{\partial y}$ ,  $\frac{\partial f}{\partial z}$ ,  $\frac{\partial g}{\partial x}$ , and  $\frac{\partial g}{\partial y}$ .

2.  $f(x,y)=\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi y^2}}e^{-\frac{(x-s)^2}{2y^2}}$ , where  $s\in\mathbb{R}$  is a constant. Obtain the gradient vector and Hessian matrix of f.

3. Evaluate the double integral  $\int_1^3 \int_0^2 (xy + x^2y^3) dy dx$ .



# Challenge Exercises: Afternoon Session