# COMP40016 Calculus Imperial College London

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# Contents

1	Sequences 1.1 Convergence Tests for Sequences	<b>2</b> 4
2	Continuous Functions	5
3	Integration	7
4	Series 4.1 Convergence Tests for Series	<b>9</b> 10
5	Differentiation	11
6	Power Series	13
7	Numerical Methods	14
8	Metric Spaces	15
9	Deep Learning and Multivariate Chain Rule	18

SEQUENCES Page 2

## 1 Sequences

**Definition 1.1 (Sequence)** A sequence is a function  $f : \mathbb{N}^+ \to \mathbb{R}$  that maps positive natural numbers to real numbers, written as  $(a_n)_{n\geq 1}$  where  $a_n = f(n)$ .

**Definition 1.2 (Arithmetic Sequence)** An arithmetic sequence is the sequence  $f: \mathbb{N}^+ \to \mathbb{R}$  defined by

$$f: n \mapsto \begin{cases} a_1, & n=1\\ a_1+(n-1)d, & otherwise \end{cases}$$
 
$$S_n = \frac{n}{2}(a_1+a_n)$$

**Definition 1.3 (Geometric Sequence)** An geometric sequence is the sequence  $f: \mathbb{N}^+ \to \mathbb{R}$  defined by

$$f: n \mapsto ar^{n-1}$$
$$S_n = \frac{a(1-r^n)}{1-r}$$

**Definition 1.4 (Fibonacci Sequence)** An fibonacci sequence is the sequence  $f: \mathbb{N}^+ \to \mathbb{R}$  defined by

$$f: n \mapsto \begin{cases} 0, & n = 1\\ 1, & n = 2\\ f(n-1) + f(n-2) & n \ge 3 \end{cases}$$

**Definition 1.5 (Monotonic)** A sequence is increasing if  $a_{n+1} \ge a_n$  for  $n \ge 1$  and decreasing if  $a_{n+1} \le a_n$  for  $n \ge 1$ . A sequence is monotonic if it is either increasing or decreasing.

Theorem 1.6 (Triangle Inequality and Reverse)

$$|a+b| < |a| + |b|$$
 AND  $|a-b| > ||a| - |b||$ 

**Definition 1.7 (Cauchy Sequences)** A sequence is a Cauchy sequence iff for all  $\epsilon > 0$ , there exists  $N \in \mathbb{N}$  such that for all n, m > N we have  $|a_n - a_m| < \epsilon$ .

• Every sequence that converges to a real number is a Cauchy sequence.

**Definition 1.8 (Completeness)** A subset  $A \subseteq \mathbb{R}$  is complete iff any Cauchy sequence in A converges to a limit in A.

•  $\mathbb{Q}$  is not complete but  $\mathbb{R}$  is complete.

1 SEQUENCES Page 3

**Definition 1.9 (Subsequence)** If  $f : \mathbb{N} \to \mathbb{R}$  is a sequence  $(a_n)_{n \geq 1}$  and M is an infinite subset of  $\mathbb{N}$ , then  $g : M \to \mathbb{R}$  is a subsequence  $(a_{n_i})_{i \geq 1}$  of f.

- Any subsequence converges to the limit of the sequence.
- Any sequence of real numbers has a monotonic subsequence.

### **Theorem 1.10 (Order Theory)** Let $X \subseteq \mathbb{R}$ and l, u, s and $i \in \mathbb{R}$

- 1. u is an **upper bound** of X if  $x \le u$  for all  $x \in X$
- 2. l is an **lower bound** of X if  $l \le x$  for all  $x \in X$
- 3. s is the **supremum** (least upper bound) of X if  $s \leq u$  for all u of X
- 4. i is the **infimum** (greatest lower bound) of X if  $l \leq i$  for all l of X
- 5. X is bounded above if X has an upper bound
- 6. X is bounded below if X has a lower bound
- 7. X is bounded if X has an upper and lower bound

**Theorem 1.11 (Dedekind-completeness of**  $\mathbb{R}$ ) *Every nonempty subset of*  $\mathbb{R}$  *that is bounded above has a supremum (least upper bound).* 

### Theorem 1.12 (Fundamental Theorem of Analysis)

If  $(a_n)_{n\geq 1}$  is increasing and bounded above, then  $s=\sup\{a_n|n\geq 1\}$  exists and is the limit of  $(a_n)_{n\geq 1}$ .

If  $(a_n)_{n\geq 1}$  is decreasing and bounded below, then  $i=\inf\{a_n|n\geq 1\}$  exists and is the limit of  $(a_n)_{n\geq 1}$ .

Theorem 1.13 (Bolzano-Weierstrass Theorem) Every bounded sequence in  $\mathbb{R}$  has a convergent subsequence.

1 SEQUENCES Page 4

### 1.1 Convergence Tests for Sequences

**Definition 1.14 (Convergence to a limit)** Let  $(a_n)_{n\geq 1}$  be a sequence which

**converges to a limit** l **in**  $\mathbb{R}$  iff for all  $\epsilon > 0$ , there exists an  $N \in \mathbb{N}$  such that for all n > N we have  $|a_n - l| < \epsilon$ , for any  $\epsilon > 0$ .

**converges to**  $+\infty$  iff for all r in  $\mathbb{R}$  there exists an  $N \in \mathbb{N}$  such that for all  $n \geq N$  we have  $a_n > r$ 

**converges to**  $-\infty$  iff for all r in  $\mathbb{R}$  there exists an  $N \in \mathbb{N}$  such that for all  $n \geq N$  we have  $a_n < r$ 

written as  $\lim_{n\to\infty} a_n = x$  or  $(a_n)_{n\geq 1}\to x$ , where x is the unique limit

**diverges** if it does not converge to a real number,  $\infty$  or  $-\infty$ 

### Corollary 1.15 (Common convergent sequences)

$$(\frac{1}{n^c})_{n\geq 1} \to 0, \ when \ c > 0$$
 
$$(\frac{1}{c^n})_{n\geq 1} \to 0, \ when \ |c| > 1 \ OR \ (c^n)_{n\geq 1} \to 0, \ when \ |c| < 1$$
 
$$(\frac{1}{n!})_{n\geq 1} \to 0$$
 
$$(\frac{1}{\log n})_{n\geq 1} \to 0$$

### Theorem 1.16 (Limits of combination of sequences)

Given  $(a_n)_{n\geq 1} \to a$  and  $(b_n)_{n\geq 1} \to b$  with a real constant  $\lambda$ 

$$(\lambda a_n)_{n\geq 1} \to \lambda a$$

$$(a_n + b_n)_{n\geq 1} \to a + b$$

$$(a_n b_n)_{n\geq 1} \to ab$$

$$(\frac{a_n}{b_n})_{n\geq 1} \to \frac{a}{b} \text{ provided } b \neq 0$$

**Theorem 1.17 (Sandwich Theorem)** Let  $(l_n)_{n\geq 1} \to l$  and  $(u_n)_{n\geq 1} \to l$  for some real number l. If for  $(a_n)_{n\geq 1}$  we have some  $N \in \mathbb{N}$  such that  $l_n \leq a_n \leq u_n$  for all  $n \geq N$ , then  $(a_n)_{n\geq 1} \to l$  as well.

**Theorem 1.18 (Ratio Test for Sequences)** Let  $c \in \mathbb{R}$  such that  $0 \le c \le 1$ . If there exists  $N \in \mathbb{N}$  such that for all  $n \ge N$  we have  $\left|\frac{a_{n+1}}{a_n}\right| \le c$ , then  $(a_n)_{n\ge 1}\to 0$ .

Theorem 1.19 (Limit Ratio Test for Sequences) If  $\left|\frac{a_{n+1}}{a_n}\right| \to r$  and r < 1, then  $(a_n)_{n \geq 1} \to 0$ .

## 2 Continuous Functions

**Definition 2.1 (Neighbourhood)** A set  $A \subseteq \mathbb{R}$  is called a neighbourhood of a if there exists an open interval I where  $a \in I \subseteq A$ 

• An open interval is a neighbourhood of each of its points

**Definition 2.2 (Accumulation Point)** A real number  $\xi$  is an accumulation point of a set  $A \subseteq R$  if every neighbourhood of  $\xi$  contains an infinite number of members of A.

**Definition 2.3 (Limit of a Function)**  $f: A \to \mathbb{R}, A \subseteq \mathbb{R}, has a limit <math>l \in \mathbb{R}$ 

- at the accumulation point  $x_0$  of **A** if for all  $\epsilon > 0$  there exists  $\delta > 0$  such that if  $x \in A$  and  $|x x_0| < \delta$ , then  $|f(x) l| < \epsilon$
- as x approaches  $+\infty$  if for all  $\epsilon > 0$  there exists c such that if x > c then  $|f(x) l| < \epsilon$
- as x approaches  $-\infty$  if for all  $\epsilon > 0$  there exists c such that if x < c then  $|f(x) l| < \epsilon$

written as  $\lim_{x\to x_0} f(x) = l$  or  $f(x) \to l$  as  $x \to x_0$ , where l is the unique limit

• Let  $f: I \to \mathbb{R}$  where  $I \subseteq \mathbb{R}$  is an open interval and  $x_0$  is an accumulation point of I, then  $\lim_{x \to x_0} f(x) = l \in \overline{\mathbb{R}}$  iff for all sequences of points of I with  $(y_n)_{n \ge 1} \to x_0$  we have  $\lim_{n \to \infty} f(y_n) = l$ 

### Theorem 2.4 (Limits of combination of sequences)

Given  $f, g: A \to \mathbb{R}$  have limits  $k, l \in \mathbb{R}$  at accumulation point  $x_0$  of A,

 $f \pm g$  has limit  $k \pm l$  at  $x_0$ 

fg has limit kl at  $x_0$ 

$$\frac{f}{a}$$
 has limit  $\frac{k}{l}$  at  $x_0$  if  $l \neq 0$ 

**Lemma 2.5 (Axoim of Choice)** For any collection  $\chi$  of nonempty sets, there exists a choice function f that maps each set of  $\chi$  to an element of that set.

**Lemma 2.6 (Axoim of Countable Choice)** Let  $(S_n)_{n\in\mathbb{N}}$  be a sequence of nonempty sets, then there exists a sequence  $(x_n)_{n\in\mathbb{N}}$  such that  $x_n\in S_n$  for all  $n\in\mathbb{N}$ .

**Definition 2.7 (Continuity of functions)**  $f:[a,b] \to \mathbb{R}$ , where  $x \in \mathbb{R}$ , is

**continuous at**  $x_0 \in [\mathbf{A}, \mathbf{B}]$  iff  $\lim_{x \to x_0} f(x) = f(x_0)$  OR for every  $\epsilon > 0$  there exists  $\delta > 0$  such that for all x, if  $|x - x_0| < \delta$  then  $|f(x) - f(x_0)| < \epsilon$ .

continuous in [A, B] iff f is continuous at all  $x_0 \in [A, B]$ 

### Theorem 2.8 (Combination of continuous functions)

Given  $f, g: A \to \mathbb{R}$  are continuous at  $x_0$ ,

 $f \pm g$  is continuous at  $x_0$ 

fg is continuous at  $x_0$ 

 $\frac{f}{g}$  is continuous at  $x_0$  if  $g(x_0) \neq 0$ 

**Theorem 2.9 (Composition of continuous functions)** If g is continuous at  $x_0$  and f is continuous at  $g(x_0)$ , then  $f \circ g$  is continuous at  $x_0$ . Note that f need not be continuous at  $x_0$ .

**Theorem 2.10 (Maxima and Minima)** If  $f : [a,b] \to \mathbb{R}$  with  $a,b \in \mathbb{R}$ , then there exists  $r,s \in [a,b]$  such that  $f(r) = \sup_{x \in [a,b]} f(x)$  and  $f(s) = \inf_{x \in [a,b]} f(x)$ .

• A continuous function on a closed bounded interval is bounded and attains their supremum and infimum

**Theorem 2.11 (Intermediate Value Theorem)** If  $f : [a, b] \to \mathbb{R}$  is continuous with  $s \in \mathbb{R}$  such that f(a) < s < f(b), then there exists  $c \in (a, b)$  such that f(c) = s.

**Definition 2.12 (Uniform Continuity)**  $f: A \to \mathbb{R}$  is uniformly continuous if for all  $\epsilon > 0$  there exists  $\delta > 0$  such that for all  $x, x_0 \in A$  we have  $|f(x) - f(x_0)| < \epsilon$  if  $|x - x_0| < \delta$ . In other words,  $\delta$  is independent of  $x_0$  and only dependent on  $\epsilon$ .

**Theorem 2.13** If  $f : [a, b] \to \mathbb{R}$ , for  $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$ , is continuous then it is uniformly continuous on [a, b].

3 INTEGRATION Page 7

# 3 Integration

**Definition 3.1 (Partition)** A partition P of [a,b] is given by the finite set

$$P = \{r_i : 0 \le i \le n - 1, a = r_0, b = r_n, r_i < r_{i+1}\}\$$

**subinterval** of P is a closed interval  $[r_i, r_{i+1}]$  for  $0 \le i \le n-1$ 

**norm** of P is the largest length of the subintervals in P, or  $||P|| = max\{r_{i+1} - r_1 : 0 \le i \le n - 1\}$ 

 $P_2$  refines  $P_1$  if  $P_1 \subset P_2$ 

**Definition 3.2 (Sums)** Given  $f : [a,b] \to \mathbb{R}$  and a partition P of [a,b], the **Lower Sum** L(f,P) and **Upper Sum** U(f,P) are defined as

$$L(f,P) = \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} (r_{i+1} - r_i) \times \inf_{x \in [r_i, r_{i+1}]} f(x), \ U(f,P) = \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} (r_{i+1} - r_i) \times \sup_{x \in [r_i, r_{i+1}]} f(x)$$

**Riemann Sum** for P for any choice of  $s_i \in [r_i, r_{i+1}]$  for  $0 \le i \le n-1$  is

$$S(f, P, (s_i)_{0 \le i \le n-1}) = \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} (r_{i+1} - r_i) \times f(s_i)$$

- $L(f, P) \le S(f, P, (s_i)_{0 \le i \le n-1}) \le U(f, P)$
- If  $P_1 \subset P_2$ , then  $L(f, P_1) < L(f, P_2) < U(f, P_2) < U(f, P_1)$

**Definition 3.3 (Integrals)** Lower and Upper integrals of  $f : [a, b] \to \mathbb{R}$  are

$$\int_a^b f(x) \, dx = \sup_P L(f, P), \ \overline{\int_a^b} f(x) \, dx = \inf_P U(f, P)$$

**Riemann Integral**  $\int_a^b f(x) dx$  exists if  $\underline{\int_a^b} f(x) dx = \overline{\int_a^b} f(x) dx$ .

 $f:[a,b]\to\mathbb{R}$  is Riemann integrable with Riemann integral  $c\in\mathbb{R}$  iff

- for each  $\epsilon > 0$  there exists a partition P of [a,b] with  $c L(f,P) < \epsilon$  and  $U(f,P) c < \epsilon$
- for each  $\epsilon > 0$  there exists a  $\delta > 0$  such that for all partitions P of [a,b] with  $||P|| < \delta$  we have  $|S(f,P,(s_i)_{0 < i < n-1})| < \epsilon$

**Theorem 3.4** A bounded function  $f : [a, b] \to \mathbb{R}$  with a countable set of discontinuities on [a, b] is Riemann integrable.

• If f is continuous on [a,b] then the Riemann integral  $\int_a^b f(x) dx$  exists

3 INTEGRATION Page 8

Theorem 3.5 (Properties of Riemann Integrals)

$$\int_{a}^{b} sf(x) + tg(x) dx = s \int_{a}^{b} f(x) dx + t \int_{a}^{b} g(x) dx, \text{ if } f \text{ and } g \text{ are integrable}$$

$$\int_{a}^{b} c dx = c(b - a), \text{ where } c \in \mathbb{R}$$

$$\int_{a}^{c} f(x) dx = \int_{a}^{b} f(x) dx + \int_{b}^{c} f(x) dx, \text{ if the integrals exists for } a < b < c$$

$$If f(x) \ge 0 \text{ for } x \in [a, b], \text{ then } \int_{a}^{b} f(x) dx \ge 0 \text{ if the integral exists}$$

$$\left| \int_{a}^{b} f(x) dx \right| \le \int_{a}^{b} |f(x)| dx \text{ if the integral exists}$$

**Definition 3.6 (Improper Riemann Integral)**  $f:[a,b)\to\mathbb{R}$  has improper Riemann integral (integral converges) if  $\lim_{x\to b}\int_a^x f(x)\,dx\in\mathbb{R}$  exists. If the limit does not exists or is  $\pm\infty$ , the integral diverges.

4 SERIES Page 9

### 4 Series

**Definition 4.1 (Series)** Series are formal infinite sums of real numbers  $\sum_{i=1}^{\infty} a_i$ .

**Remark 4.1.1** We can associate  $\sum_{i=1}^{\infty} a_i$  to  $(S_n)_{n\geq 1}$  where for each  $n\geq 1$ ,  $S_n$  is defined as the partial sum  $\sum_{i=1}^{n} a_i$ .

**Definition 4.2 (Convergence)** The series  $\sum_{i=1}^{\infty} a_i$ 

converges to  $l \in \mathbb{R}$  iff  $(S_n)_{n \geq 1}$  has limit  $l \in \mathbb{R}$   $OR \sum_{i=N}^{\infty} a_i$  converges for any  $N \in \mathbb{N}$ 

**diverges** if it does not converges to some  $l \in \mathbb{R}$ 

**Theorem 4.3 (Increasing and bounded above)** When  $a_i \geq 0$  for all  $i \geq 1$ ,  $(S_n)_{n\geq 1}$  is increasing. If  $(S_n)_{n\geq 1}$  is also bounded above, by the Fundamental Theorem of Analysis,  $\sum_{i=1}^{\infty} a_i$  converges to a limit.

**Definition 4.4 (Permutation)** A permutation  $\pi$  over the natural numbers  $\mathbb{N}$  is a function  $\pi : \mathbb{N} \to \mathbb{N}$  that has an inverse (injective & surjective).

**Definition 4.5 (Unconditional Convergence)** A series  $\sum_{i=1}^{\infty} a_i$  is unconditionally convergent iff it converges and the permuted series  $\sum_{i=1}^{\infty} a_{\pi(i)}$  converges to the same limit for all permutations  $\pi$ .

**Definition 4.6 (Absolute Convergence)** A series  $\sum_{i=1}^{\infty} a_i$  is absolutely convergent iff the corresponding series  $\sum_{i=1}^{\infty} |a_i|$  converges. Absolute convergence implies unconditional convergence.

**Definition 4.7 (Limit Superior)** The limit superior of  $(a_n)_{n\geq 1}$  is the limit of  $(b_n)_{n\geq 1} \in \overline{\mathbb{R}}$ , where  $b_n = \sup\{a_m | m \geq n\}$ , denoted  $\limsup_{n\to\infty} a_n$ 

**Definition 4.8 (Limit Inferior)** The limit inferior of  $(a_n)_{n\geq 1}$  is the limit of  $(c_n)_{n\geq 1}\in \mathbb{R}$  ,where  $c_n=\inf\{a_m|m\geq n\}$ , denoted  $\liminf_{n\to\infty}a_n$ 

Lemma 4.9 (Known Divergent & Convergent Series)

Geometric series  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} x^n \to \frac{x}{1-x}$  for all  $x \in \mathbb{R}$  with |x| < 1

Inverse squares series  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^2} \to \frac{\pi^2}{6}$ 

 $\frac{1}{n^c}$  series  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty}\frac{1}{n^c}$  converges for all  $c\in\mathbb{R}$  with c>1

Harmonic series  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n}$  diverges

Harmonic primes  $\sum_{p:prime}^{\infty} \frac{1}{p}$  diverges

Geometric series  $S = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} x^n$  diverges for  $|x| \ge 1$ 

SERIES Page 10

#### 4.1 Convergence Tests for Series

**Theorem 4.10** If  $\lim_{n\to\infty} a_n \neq 0$ ,  $\sum_{i=1}^{\infty} a_i$  diverges.

### Theorem 4.11 (Comparison Test) Let $\lambda > 0$ and $N \in \mathbb{N}$ .

If  $a_i \leq \lambda c_i$  for all i > N for some convergent series  $\sum_{i=1}^{\infty} c_i$ ,  $\sum_{i=1}^{\infty} a_i$  converges. If  $a_i \geq \lambda d_i$  for all i > N for some divergent series  $\sum_{i=1}^{\infty} d_i$ ,  $\sum_{i=1}^{\infty} a_i$  diverges.

### Theorem 4.12 (Limit Comparison Test)

If  $\lim_{i\to\infty} \frac{a_i}{c_i} \in \mathbb{R}$  exists for some convergent series  $\sum_{i=1}^{\infty} c_i$ ,  $\sum_{i=1}^{\infty} a_i$  converges. If  $\lim_{i\to\infty} \frac{d_i}{a_i} \in \mathbb{R}$  exists for some divergent series  $\sum_{i=1}^{\infty} d_i$ ,  $\sum_{i=1}^{\infty} a_i$  diverges.

**Theorem 4.13 (D'Alembert's Ratio Test)** Let  $N \in \mathbb{N}$  If there exists  $k \in \mathbb{R}$  with k < 1 such that  $\frac{a_{i+1}}{a_i} \leq k$  for all  $i \geq N$ , then  $\sum_{i=1}^{\infty} a_i$ 

If  $\frac{a_{i+1}}{a_i} \geq 1$  for all  $i \geq N$ , then  $\sum_{i=1}^{\infty} a_i$  diverges.

## Theorem 4.14 (D'Alembert's Limit Ratio Test) If $\lim_{i\to\infty} \frac{a_{i+1}}{a_i}$ exists,

if  $\lim_{i\to\infty} \frac{a_{i+1}}{a_i} < 1$ , then  $\sum_{i=1}^{\infty} a_i$  converges. if  $\lim_{i\to\infty} \frac{a_{i+1}}{a_i} > 1$ , then  $\sum_{i=1}^{\infty} a_i$  diverges. else  $\lim_{i\to\infty} \frac{a_{i+1}}{a_i} = 1$ , the test is inconclusive.

**Theorem 4.15 (Integral Test)** Let  $f: \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}^+$  be continuous, decreasing and positive on  $[N, \infty)$ , where  $N \in \mathbb{Z}$ , with  $a_n = f(n)$  for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ . If  $\int_N^\infty f(x) dx$  converges, then  $\sum_{i=1}^\infty a_i$  converges. If  $\int_N^\infty f(x) dx$  diverges, then  $\sum_{i=1}^\infty a_i$  diverges.

Theorem 4.16 (Absolute Value Comparison Test) Let  $(b_n)_{n\geq 1}$  be a nonnegative sequence such that  $\sum_{i=1}^{\infty} b_i$  converges, and  $(a_n)_{n\geq 1}$  be a sequence such that  $|a_i| \leq b_i$  for all  $i \geq 1$ . Then  $\sum_{i=1}^{\infty} a_i$  converges.

### Theorem 4.17 (Limit Absolute Value Ratio Test)

Let  $\sum_{i=1}^{\infty} a_i$  with  $a_i \neq 0$  for  $i \geq 1$ , if  $\lim_{i\to\infty}\left|\frac{a_{i+1}}{a_i}\right|<1$ , then  $\sum_{i=1}^{\infty}a_i$  converges and absolutely converges. if  $\lim_{i\to\infty}\left|\frac{a_{i+1}}{a_i}\right|>1$ , then  $\sum_{i=1}^{\infty}a_i$  diverges.

else  $\lim_{i\to\infty}\left|\frac{a_{i+1}}{a_i}\right|=1$ , the test is inconslusive.

# Theorem 4.18 ( $n^{th}$ Root Test) Consider $\sum_{i=1}^{\infty} a_i$ ,

if  $\limsup_{n\to\infty} |a_n|^{\frac{1}{n}} < 1$ ,  $\sum_{i=1}^{\infty} a_i$  converges and absolutely converges. if  $\limsup_{n\to\infty} |a_n|^{\frac{1}{n}} > 1$ ,  $\sum_{i=1}^{\infty} a_i$  diverges.

else  $\limsup_{n\to\infty} |a_n|^{\frac{1}{n}} = 1$ , the test is inconclusive.

### 5 Differentiation

**Definition 5.1** Let  $f : \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$ ,  $x \in \mathbb{R}$  and h > 0.

Newton's Difference Quotient at x for f is given by

$$\frac{\Delta f(x)}{\Delta(x)} = \frac{f(x+h) - f(x)}{(x+h) - x} = \frac{f(x+h) - f(x)}{h}$$

**f is differentiable at x** iff  $\lim_{h\to 0} \frac{f(x+h)-f(x)}{h}$  exists as a real number and has the same value for all ways where  $h\to 0$ 

**derivative of f at x** equals to this limit if it exists, denoted as f'(x) or  $\frac{dy}{dx}$ 

### Theorem 5.2 (Properties of derivatives)

Given  $f, g:(a,b) \to \mathbb{R}$  be two functions,

- 1. Polynomials have derivatives at all points
- 2. If f is differentiable at x, f is continuous at x
- 3. If f is differentiable in (a,b),  $f'(x_0) = 0$  for any point  $x_0$  where f is maximum or minimum
- 4. If f and g are differentiable at x,  $f \cdot g$  is differentiable under **product rule**

$$(f \cdot g)'(x) = f'(x) \cdot g(x) + f(x) \cdot g'(x)$$

5. If f and g are differentiable at g(x) and x respectively,  $f \circ g$  is differentiable under **product rule** 

$$(f \circ g)'(x) = f'(g(x)) \cdot g'(x)$$

6. Differentiation is a **linear function**, where for all f and g differentiable at x and for all  $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$ 

$$(a \cdot f + b \cdot g)'(x) = a \cdot f'(x) + b \cdot g'(x)$$

**Theorem 5.3 (Rolle's Theorem)** If  $f : [a,b] \to \mathbb{R}$  is continuous and  $f : (a,b) \to \mathbb{R}$  is differentiable with f(a) = f(b), there exists  $c \in (a,b)$  such that f'(c) = 0.

**Theorem 5.4 (Mean Value Theorem)** If  $f:[a,b] \to \mathbb{R}$  is continuous and  $f:(a,b) \to \mathbb{R}$  is differentiable, there exists  $c \in (a,b)$  such that  $\frac{f(b)-f(a)}{b-a} = f'(c)$ .

• If x is close to  $x_0$ ,  $f(x) = f(x_0) + f'(x_0)(x - x_0) + E$ , where E is small

**Theorem 5.5 (Taylor's Theorem)** If f is n times differentiable in (a, b) with  $x_0 \in (a, b)$ , then for any  $x \in (a, b)$  we have

$$f(x) = f(x_0) + \frac{1}{1!}(x - x_0)f'(x_0) + \dots + \frac{1}{n!}(x - x_0)^n f^{(n)}(x_0) + E_n$$

where  $E_n = \frac{f^{(n+1)}(x^*)}{(n+1)!}(x-x_0)^{n+1}$  is the **Lagrange error term** with  $x^*$  between x and  $x_0$ .

**Theorem 5.6 (L'Hospital's Rule)** Suppose  $f, g : (a, b) \to \mathbb{R}$  have derivatives  $f', g' : (a, b) \to \mathbb{R}$  that are continuous in (a, b).

• If f(c) = g(c) = 0 for some  $c \in (a,b)$  and  $g'(c) \neq 0$ ,

$$\lim_{x \to c} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} = \frac{f'(c)}{g'(c)} = \lim_{x \to c} \frac{f'(x)}{g'(x)}$$

• If  $\lim_{x\to c} |f(x)| = \lim_{x\to c} |g(x)| = \infty$  for some  $c \in (a,b)$ 

$$\lim_{x \to c} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} = \lim_{x \to c} \frac{\frac{1}{g(x)}}{\frac{1}{f(x)}}$$

• It can be extended to  $x \to \infty$  by restricting  $f, g : [0, \infty) \to [0, \infty)$ 

$$\lim_{x \to \infty} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} = \lim_{y \to 0} \frac{f(\frac{1}{y})}{g(\frac{1}{y})}$$

**Theorem 5.7 (Fundamental Theorem of Calculus)** If  $f:[a,b] \to \mathbb{R}$  is continuous and  $F:[a,b] \to \mathbb{R}$  is defined by  $F(x) = \int_a^x f(t) dt$ , then F is uniformly continuous on [a,b] and F'(x) = f(x) for  $x \in (a,b)$ .

Corollary 5.8 (Change of variable) Let  $g:[a,b] \to [c,d]$  be a differentiable function with  $g':[a,b] \to \mathbb{R}$  and  $f:[c,d] \to \mathbb{R}$  be a continuous function with y=g(x).

$$\int_{a}^{b} f(g(x))g'(x) \, dx = \int_{g(a)}^{g(b)} f(y) \, dy$$

### 6 Power Series

**Definition 6.1** A power series is a series of the form  $\sum_{i=0}^{\infty} a_i \cdot (x-c)^i$  where x is a variable  $\in \mathbb{R}$ , c is a constant  $\in \mathbb{R}$  and  $(a_n)_{n\geq 0} \subseteq \mathbb{R}$ .

• Polynomials are power series where c = 0 and there exists N such that  $a_n = 0$  for all  $n \ge N$ . They converge for all  $x \in \mathbb{R}$ .

**Definition 6.2 (Radius of Convergence)** Let  $c \in \mathbb{R}$  and  $(a_n)_{n \geq 0} \subseteq \mathbb{R}$ .  $\sum_{i=o}^{\infty} a_i \cdot (x-c)^i$  has a radius of convergence  $r \in [0,\infty) \cup \{\infty\}$  such that:

- 1. If  $r \neq \infty$ , then  $\sum_{i=o}^{\infty} a_i \cdot (x-c)^i$  converges for all  $x \in \mathbb{R}$  when |x-c| < r and diverges for all  $x \in \mathbb{R}$  when |x-c| > r.
- 2. If  $r = \infty$ , then  $\sum_{i=0}^{\infty} a_i \cdot (x-c)^i$  converges for all  $x \in \mathbb{R}$

given by  $r^{-1} = \limsup_{n \to \infty} |a_n|^{\frac{1}{n}}$ .

**Theorem 6.3 (Ratio Test)** Suppose  $(\frac{|a_{n+1}|}{|a_n|})_{n\geq 1}$  has a limit  $l\in\mathbb{R}$ , then setting l<1 and rewriting to |x|< r gives the radius of convergence of any  $\sum_{i=o}^{\infty} a_i \cdot (x-c)^i$ .

**Definition 6.4 (Smoothness)**  $f : \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$  is smooth at  $x_0$  if for all  $k \ge 1$  the  $k^{th}$  derivative exists at  $x_0$ .

**Definition 6.5 (Analytical)** Given  $f : \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$ , if the power series has the same outputs as f within the radius of convergence, f is a real analytical function.

• Not every smooth real function is analytical.

**Definition 6.6 (Maclaurin Series)**  $\sum_{i=0}^{\infty} a_i \cdot (x-c)^i$  is called the Maclaurin Series when c=0, or  $f(x)=\sum_{i=0}^{\infty} a_i \cdot x^i$ .

$$f(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{f^{(n)}(0)}{n!} x^n, \text{ with } r^{-1} = \limsup_{n \to \infty} \left| \frac{f^{(n)}(0)}{n!} \right|^{\frac{1}{n}}$$

Definition 6.7 (Taylor Series)

$$f(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{f^{(n)}(c)}{n!} (x - c)^n$$

**Theorem 6.8** Within the radius of convergence,  $\sum_{i=0}^{\infty} a_i \cdot (x-c)^i$  is continuous and can be differentiated and integrated term by term.

## 7 Numerical Methods

Theorem 7.1 (Newton's Method) Approximates f(x) = 0

$$x_{n+1} = x_n - \frac{f(x_n)}{f'(x_n)}$$

The rate of convergence is at least quadratic if

- 1.  $f'(x) \neq 0$  for  $x \in I$  where  $I = [\alpha r, \alpha + r]$  for some  $r \geq |\alpha x_0|$
- 2. f''(x) is continuous in I
- 3.  $x_0$  is sufficiently close to  $\alpha$

Theorem 7.2 (Relaxed Newton's Method) For some  $0 < \gamma \le 1$ ,

$$x_{n+1} = x_n - \gamma \frac{f(x_n)}{f'(x_n)}$$

Theorem 7.3 (Secant Method) Reduces calculation of derivatives

$$x_{n+1} = x_n - f(x_n) \frac{x_n - x_{n-1}}{f(x_n) - f(x_{n-1})}$$

Theorem 7.4 (Gradient Descent) Minimises f(x) using a small enough  $\eta$ 

$$x_{n+1} = x_n - \eta f'(x_n)$$

**Theorem 7.5 (Euler's Method)** Approximates the solution to  $x = x_0 + h$ , where h is small, in differential equations. Given y' = f(x, y) and  $y(x_0) = y_0$ ,

$$x_{n+1} = x_0 + nh$$
,  $y_{n+1} = y_n + hf(x_n, y_n)$ , for  $n = 0, 1, ...$ 

**Theorem 7.6 (Heun's Method)** A predictor-corrector method to modify Euler's Method. First approximate  $y(x_{n+1})$  with  $y_{n+1}^* = y_n + hf(x_n, y_n)$ .

$$y_{n+1} = y_n + \frac{1}{2}h[f(x_n, y_n) + f(x_{n+1}, y_{n+1}^*)]$$

Theorem 7.7 (Runge-Kutta Method of Order Four) Uses Simpson's Rule

$$y_{n+1} = y_n + \frac{1}{6}(k_1 + 2k_2 + 2k_3 + k_4)$$

$$k_1 = hf(x_n, y_n),$$
  $k_2 = hf(x_n + \frac{h}{2}, y_n + \frac{k_1}{2}),$   $k_3 = hf(x_n + \frac{h}{2}, y_n + \frac{k_2}{2}),$   $k_4 = hf(x_{n+1}, y_n + k_3)$ 

# 8 Metric Spaces

**Definition 8.1 (Sequence of Functions)** Let  $I \subseteq \mathbb{R}$ . For each  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ ,  $f_n(x): I \to \mathbb{R}$ . Then  $(f_n)$  is a sequence of functions on I.

**Definition 8.2 (Pointwise Convergence)**  $(f_n)$  converges pointwise to f iff  $\lim_{n\to\infty} f_n(x) = f(x)$  for every  $x \in I$ , written as  $\lim_{n\to\infty} f_n = f$  pointwise.

**Definition 8.3 (Uniform Convergence)**  $(f_n)$  converges uniformly to f iff  $\lim_{n\to\infty} \sup\{|f_n(x)-f(x)| | x\in I\} = 0$ , written as  $\lim_{n\to\infty} f_n = f$  uniformly.

- Every uniformly convergent sequence is pointwise convergent to the same limiting function.
- The pointwise limit of a sequence of continuous functions may be a discontinuous function but only if the sequence is not uniformly convergent.

**Definition 8.4 (Ring)** A ring is a set R equipped with 2 binary operators + (addition) and  $\cdot$  (multiplication) satisfying the ring axioms.

- 1. R is an abelian group under addition, meaning for all  $a \in R$ 
  - (a) + is associative
  - (b) + is commutative
  - (c) There exists  $0 \in R$  which is the additive identity (a + 0 = a)
  - (d) -a is the additive inverse of a (a + (-a) = 0)
- 2. R is a monoid under multiplication, meaning for all  $a \in R$ 
  - (a) · is associative
  - (b) There exists  $1 \in R$  which is the multiplicative identity  $(a \cdot 1 = 1 \cdot a = a)$
- 3. Multiplication is **distributive** to addition, meaning for all  $a, b, c \in R$ 
  - (a)  $a \cdot (b+c) = (a \cdot b) + (a \cdot c)$  (left associative)
  - (b)  $(b+c) \cdot a = (b \cdot a) + (c \cdot a)$  (right associative)

**Definition 8.5 (Fields)** Fields are commutative rings with identity  $(1 \neq 0)$  in which every nonzero element has a multiplicative inverse.

**Definition 8.6 (Distance)**  $d: X \times X \to \mathbb{R}$  is a distance function or metric on the underlying set X if

- 1. d(x,y) = 0 iff x = y (identity of indiscernibles)
- 2. d(x,y) = d(y,x) (symmetry)
- 3.  $d(x,z) \le d(x,y) + d(y,z)$  (subadditivity or triangle inequality)

**Definition 8.7 (Metric Space)** An ordered pair (X, d) consisting of a nonempty set X and distance function d on X is a metric space

• If (X,d) is a metric space and  $S \subset X$ , (S,d) is a metric subspace of (X,d)

**Definition 8.8 (Limit)** Let (X,d) be a metric space and  $(x_n)_{n\geq 1}$  be a sequence of points in X, a point  $x \in X$  is the limit of  $(x_n)_{n\geq 1}$  if  $\lim_{n\to\infty} d(x,x_n) = 0$ 

**Definition 8.9 (Open Ball)** Let (X,d) be a metric space,  $a \in X$  and  $\delta > 0$ . The subset of X containing all points  $x \in X$  such that  $d(a,x) < \delta$  is called the open ball about a of radius delta, denoted by  $B(a;\delta)$ .

**Definition 8.10 (Neighbourhood)** Let (X,d) be a metric space and  $a \in X$ . A subset N of X is a neighbourhood of a if there exists  $\delta > 0$  such that  $B(a; \delta) \subseteq N$ . The **complete system of neighbourhoods** of the point  $a N_a$  is the collection of all neighbourhoods of a. For all a and any neighbourhood N of a,

- 1. there exists at least one neighbourhood of a
- $2. \ a \in N$
- 3. if  $N' \supseteq N$ , then N' is a neighbourhood of a
- 4. if M is another neighbourhood of a,  $N \cap M$  is also a neighbourhood of a
- 5. there exists a neighbourhood O of a such that  $O \subseteq N$  such that O is a neighbourhood of each of its points

**Lemma 8.11 (First Axiom of Countability)** Let (X,d) be a metric space. For every  $a \in X$ , there is a sequence of neighbourhoods of a  $(O_n)_{n\geq 1}$  such that N contains at least one neighbourhood of this sequence.

**Lemma 8.12 (Hausdorff Axiom)** For every pair of distinct points x,y of (X,d), there is a neighbourhood M of X and N of Y such that  $M \cap N = \emptyset$ .

**Theorem 8.13** Let (X,d) be a metric space and  $a \in X$ . For each  $\delta > 0$ , the open ball  $B(a;\delta)$  is a neighbourhood of each of its points.

**Definition 8.14 (Open Set)** A subset O of a metric space (X,d) is open if O is a neighbourhood of each of its points.

- O is an open set iff it is a union of open balls
- 1.  $\varnothing$  and X is open
- 2. The union and intersection of open sets is open

**Definition 8.15 (Function Composition)** Let (X,d), (Y,d') and (Z,d'') be metric spaces. Also let  $f: X \to Y$  be continuous at  $a \in X$  and  $g: Y \to Z$  be continuous at  $f(a) \in Y$ . Then  $g \circ f: X \to Z$  is continuous at  $a \in X$ .

**Definition 8.16 (Topology)** An ordered pair  $(X, \tau)$  consisting of a set X and a collection  $\tau$  of subsets of X satisfying the following axioms:

- 1.  $\varnothing$  and X belongs to  $\tau$
- 2. any arbitrary union of members of  $\tau$  belong to  $\tau$
- 3. the intersection of any finite members of  $\tau$  belongs to  $\tau$

with the elements of  $\tau$  called **open sets** and  $\tau$  is called a topology on X. A subset  $C \subseteq X$  is said to be closed in  $(X, \tau)$  iff its complement  $X \setminus C$  is open.

**Definition 8.17 (Homeomorphism)**  $(X,\tau)$  and  $(X',\tau')$  are homeomorphic if there exists mutually inverse continuous functions  $f: X \to X'$  and  $g: X' \to X$ . f and g then define a homeomorphism between  $(X,\tau)$  and  $(X',\tau')$ .

• Homeomorphisms form an equivalence relation on the class of topological spaces. The resulting equivalence classes are homeomorphism classes.

**Definition 8.18 (Embedding)** A map f between  $(X, \tau)$  and  $(X', \tau')$  is a topological embedding if f yields a homeomorphism between X and f(X), where f(X) carries the relative topology inherited from X', denoted by  $X \hookrightarrow X'$ .

• X can be treated as a subspace of X'

**Definition 8.19 (Compactness)**  $(X, \tau)$  is compact if each of its open covers has a finite subcover, that is for any collection C of open subsets of X such that  $X = \bigcup_{x \in C} x$  there exists a finite subset  $F \subseteq C$  such that  $X = \bigcup_{x \in F} x$ .

**Theorem 8.20 (Heine-Borel Theorem)** For any subset A of a Euclidean space, A is compact iff A is closed and bounded.

• Closed intervals are compact

### Definition 8.21 (Continuity)

(Metric Spaces)  $f:(X,d)\to (Y,d')$  is continuous at  $a\in X$  if

- (Epsilon-Delta) for any  $\epsilon > 0$ , there exists  $\delta > 0$  such that
  - $-d'(f(x), f(a)) < \epsilon \text{ whenever } x \in X \text{ and } d(x, a) < \delta$
  - $-f(B(a;\delta)) \subseteq B(f(a);\epsilon) \ OR \ B(a;\delta) \subseteq f^{-1}(B(f(a);\epsilon))$
- (Neighbourhood) for any neighbourhood M of f(a)
  - there exists a corresponding neighbourhood N of a such that  $f(N) \subseteq M$  OR  $N \subseteq f^{-1}(M)$
  - $-f^{-1}(M)$  is a neighbourhood of a
- (Open Set) for any open set O of Y, the subset f<sup>-1</sup>(O) is an open subset of X

(Topology)  $f:(X,\tau)\to (X',\tau')$  is continuous at  $x\in X$  if for any neighbourhood G of f(x), where  $G\in \tau'$ ,  $f^{-1}(G)$  is a neighbourhood of x.

# 9 Deep Learning and Multivariate Chain Rule

**Definition 9.1 (Perceptron)** The function  $f: x \mapsto \sigma(w^{\tau}x + b)$  where w is the vector of weights, b the scalar bias (offset), and the activation function  $\sigma$  is the Heaviside step function.

$$\sigma(v) = \begin{cases} 0, & v < 0 \\ 1, & v \ge 0 \end{cases}$$

function	$w_1$	$w_2$	b
	-1		0
٨	0.5	0.5	-1
V	1	1	-1

**Definition 9.2 (Loss Function)** Let  $\hat{y}$  be the output of  $\sigma(\mathbf{w}^{\tau}\mathbf{x} + b)$  and y the true value (target). The **zero-one loss function** is defined as

$$l_{0-1}(y,\hat{y}) = \begin{cases} 0, & \hat{y} \neq y \\ 1, & \hat{y} = y \end{cases}$$

which is a piecewise constant function of the weights and bias. Hence we use the surrogate loss function

$$l_{SE}(y, \hat{y}) = \frac{1}{2}(y - \hat{y})^2$$

Theorem 9.3 (Gradient Descent)

$$\mathbf{w}_{n+1} = \mathbf{w}_n - \gamma \frac{\partial l_{SE}}{\partial \mathbf{w}} = \mathbf{w}_n - \gamma (\hat{y} - y) \mathbf{x}$$
$$b_{n+1} = b_n - \gamma \frac{\partial l_{SE}}{\partial b} = b_n - \gamma (\hat{y} - y)$$

Definition 9.4 (Multilayer Perceptron) or feedforward network

$$\hat{\boldsymbol{Y}}(\boldsymbol{X}) \coloneqq \boldsymbol{F}_{\boldsymbol{W},\boldsymbol{b}}(\boldsymbol{X}) = \left(\boldsymbol{f}_{\boldsymbol{W}^{(L)},\boldsymbol{b}^{(L)}}^{(L)} \circ ... \circ \boldsymbol{f}_{\boldsymbol{W}^{(1)},\boldsymbol{b}^{(1)}}^{(1)}\right)(\boldsymbol{X})$$

• If we take  $\sigma$  to be the identity function in each layer, the MLP becomes a linear regression

Theorem 9.5 (Chain Rule)

$$(f \circ g)' = (f' \circ g) \cdot g'$$
, in Lagrange's notation 
$$\frac{dz}{dx} = \frac{dz}{dy} \cdot \frac{dy}{dx}$$
, in Leibniz's notation

Theorem 9.6 (Multivariate Chain Rule) Let  $g : \mathbb{R}^p \to \mathbb{R}^n$  and  $f : \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}^m$ , with  $\mathbf{b} = g(\mathbf{a})$  and  $\mathbf{c} = f(\mathbf{b})$  where  $\mathbf{a} \in \mathbb{R}^p$ ,  $\mathbf{b} \in \mathbb{R}^n$  and  $\mathbf{c} \in \mathbb{R}^m$ .

$$\frac{\partial c_i}{\partial a_j} = \sum_{k=1}^n \frac{\partial c_i}{\partial b_k} \cdot \frac{\partial b_k}{\partial a_j}$$