

~ Mathematics 2 ~

Notes By

Gagneet Kaur

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Dated : _____
Page : _____

WEEK 2.

Limits & Continuity,

CONTINUITY OF A FUNCTION

- # The function f is said to be continuous if it is continuous at all points in its domain i.e. for all points ' a ' for which $f(a)$ is defined.

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = f(a) = \lim_{x \rightarrow a^-} f(x) = \lim_{x \rightarrow a^+} f(x)$$

- # Algebraically this means : if for a sequence of real numbers $\{a_n\}$ the limit $\lim a_n$ exists, then so does the limit $\lim f(a_n)$ and $\lim f(a_n) = f(\lim a_n)$

- # We can think of continuity of ' f ' as being able to draw the graph of ' f ' without lifting our pencil or equivalently that there are no jumps or breaks in the graph of the function.

EXAMPLES : Polynomials, rational functions with non-zero denominators, e^x , $\log(x); x > 0$, $\sin(x)$, $\cos(x)$, etc.

ALGEBRA OF CONTINUOUS FN.

Theorem 1 : Suppose f and g be two real functions continuous at a real no. c . Then,

1. $f + g$ is continuous at $x = c$
2. $f - g$ is continuous at $x = c$
3. $f \cdot g$ is continuous at $x = c$
3. f/g is continuous at $x = c$ [$g(c) \neq 0$]

Theorem 2 : Suppose f and g are real valued functions such that (fog) is defined at c . If ' g ' is continuous at c and if ' f ' is continuous at $g(c)$, then (fog) is continuous at c .

~ QUESTIONS ~

1. Examine whether the function f given by $f(x) = x^2$ is continuous at $x = 0$.

Solution : for a fn to be continuous it must satisfy the following :

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = f(a)$$

$$\therefore \text{LHS} = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} f(x) = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} x^2 = 0^2 = 0$$

$$\text{RHS} = f(0) = (0)^2 = 0$$

Thus, LHS = RHS

Hence, f is continuous at 0.

2. Discuss the continuity of the function f given by $f(x) = |x|$ (at $x=0$).

Solution: By definition $f(x) = \begin{cases} -x, & x < 0 \\ x, & x \geq 0 \end{cases}$

Clearly the function is defined at 0 and $f(0) = 0$.

Left Hand Limit of f at 0 is

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0^-} f(x) = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0^-} (-x) = 0$$

Right Hand Limit of f at 0 is

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0^+} f(x) = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0^+} x = 0$$

Thus, the LHL, RHL and the value at $f(0)$ coincide at $x=0$. Hence, f is continuous at 0!

3. Discuss the continuity of the function f given by $f(x) = x^3 + x^2 - 1$.

Solution: Clearly f is defined at every real number c and its value at c is $c^3 + (c^2 - 1)$.

We also know that,

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow c} f(x) = \lim_{x \rightarrow c} (x^3 + x^2 - 1) = c^3 + c^2 - 1$$

Thus, $f(c) = \lim_{x \rightarrow c} f(x)$ and hence f is continuous at every real number. This means f is a continuous fn.

~~Dat
September 15, 2021~~

Dated: _____
Page: _____

Differentiability

Derivatives \rightarrow slope of tangent / Rate of change

DEFINITION 1: suppose 'f' is a real valued function and 'a' is a point in its domain of definition. The derivative of f at a is defined by

$$\lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(a+h) - f(a)}{h}$$

provided this limit exists. Derivative of $f(x)$ at a is denoted by $f'(a)$

* Observe that $f'(a)$ quantifies the change in $f(x)$ at a with respect to x.

DEFINITION 2: First Principle of Derivative

Suppose f is a real valued function, the function defined by $\lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(x+h) - f(x)}{h}$ wherever the

limit exists is defined to be derivative of f at x and is denoted by $f'(x)$. It is also known as first principle of derivative.

The process of finding derivative of a function is called 'differentiation'.

Dated: _____
Page: _____

Thus,

$$f'(x) = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(x+h) - f(x)}{h}$$

→ Domain of definition of $f'(x)$ is wherever the above limit exists.

→ Different notations used = $f'(x)$, $\frac{d}{dx}(f(x))$,

if $f(x) = y \Rightarrow \frac{dy}{dx}$, $D(f(x))$.

→ Derivative of f at $x=a$ is denoted by :

$$\left. \frac{d}{dx} f(x) \right|_a ; \left. \frac{df}{dx} \right|_a ; \left(\frac{df}{dx} \right)_{x=a}$$

ALGEBRA OF DERIVATIVE OF F

$$(1) \quad \frac{d}{dx} [f(x) + g(x)] = \frac{d}{dx} f(x) + \frac{d}{dx} g(x)$$

$$(2) \quad \frac{d}{dx} [f(x) - g(x)] = \frac{d}{dx} f(x) - \frac{d}{dx} g(x)$$

Product Rule (3) $\frac{d}{dx} [f(x) \cdot g(x)] = \frac{d}{dx} f(x) \cdot g(x) + f(x) \cdot \frac{d}{dx} g(x)$

Quotient Rule (4) $\frac{d}{dx} \left[\frac{f(x)}{g(x)} \right] = \frac{\frac{d}{dx} f(x) \cdot g(x) - \frac{d}{dx} g(x) \cdot f(x)}{[g(x)]^2}$

Geometrically, $f(x)$ is said to be derivable at $x=a$ if unique tangent of finite slope will exist at $x=a$.

Dated: _____
Page: _____

Differentiability implies Continuity

→ If a function f is differentiable at a point c , then it is also continuous at that point.

PROOF: since f is differentiable at c , we have

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow c} \frac{f(x) - f(c)}{x - c} = f'(c)$$

But for $x \neq c$, we have

$$f(x) - f(c) = \frac{f(x) - f(c)}{x - c} \cdot (x - c)$$

$$\therefore \lim_{x \rightarrow c} [f(x) - f(c)] = \lim_{x \rightarrow c} \left[\frac{f(x) - f(c)}{x - c} \cdot (x - c) \right]$$

$$\Rightarrow \lim_{x \rightarrow c} [f(x)] - \lim_{x \rightarrow c} [f(c)] = \lim_{x \rightarrow c} \left[\frac{f(x) - f(c)}{x - c} \right] \cdot \lim_{x \rightarrow c} [(x - c)] \\ = f'(c) \times 0 = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \lim_{x \rightarrow c} f(x) = \lim_{x \rightarrow c} f(c)$$

$$\Rightarrow \lim_{x \rightarrow c} f(x) = f(c) \quad \text{Hence, } f \text{ is continuous at } x=c.$$

Some Useful Rules

(1) Product Rule : $(u \cdot v)' = u'v + v'u$

(2) Quotient Rule : $\left(\frac{u}{v}\right)' = \frac{u'v - v'u}{v^2}$

(3) Chain Rule : Let f be a real valued function that is a composition of two functions, i.e., u and v . So, $f = v \circ u$

$$\therefore \frac{df}{dx} = \frac{du}{dx} \cdot \frac{dv}{du}$$

first derivative of complete function

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

then derivative of inner fⁿ.

Some Standard Derivatives

1. $(x^n)' = nx^{n-1}$ 5. $\tan x \sin^2 x = \sin 2x$

2. $(\sin x)' = \cos x$ 6. $(e^x)' = e^x$

3. $(\cos x)' = -\sin x$ 7. $[\ln(x)]' = \frac{1}{x}$

4. $(\tan x)' = \sec^2 x$

Indeterminate limits

Let $f(x)$ and $g(x)$ be functions and suppose $f(x)$ and $g(x)$ are defined on an interval around the point c .

- ⇒ Further, suppose $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = \lim_{x \rightarrow a} g(x) = 0$ or both limits diverge to ∞ or both limits diverge to $-\infty$.
- ⇒ Suppose we are interested in computing $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)}$.

Then we cannot use the quotient rule to compute it since the quotient rule yields an indeterminate form (i.e., $\frac{0}{0}, \frac{\infty}{\infty}, -\frac{\infty}{\infty}$)

In the situation, we can try and use L'Hôpital's rule.

~ L'Hospital's Rule ~

- * In this situation of the indeterminate form, suppose the following conditions hold:

- (1) $f'(x)$ and $g'(x)$ exist on this interval.
- (2) $g'(x) \neq 0$ on this interval
- (3) $L = \lim_{x \rightarrow a} \frac{f'(x)}{g'(x)}$

Then, $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} = L = \lim_{x \rightarrow a} \frac{f'(x)}{g'(x)}$

For Example,

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\log_e(1+x)}{x} \quad \left[\text{Its of the form } \frac{0}{0} \right]$$

$$= \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\frac{1}{1+x}}{1} = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{1+x} = \frac{1}{1+0} = 1$$

More Examples

(1) $\lim_{x \rightarrow 2} \frac{x^2 - 5x + 6}{x-2}$

Sol: Its of the form $\frac{0}{0}$.

We will apply L'Hospital's Rule.

$$\therefore \lim_{x \rightarrow 2} \frac{2x-5}{1-0} = \frac{2(2)-5}{1} = 4-5 = -1$$

(2) $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\sin(x)}{x}$

$$= \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\cos x}{1}$$

$$= 1$$

(3) $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{a+be^x}{c+de^x}$

$$= \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{be^x}{de^x}$$

$$= \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{b}{d}$$

$$= \frac{b}{d}$$

$$(b)'e^x + (ex)^b$$

Date: September 6, 2021

Dated: _____
Page: _____

Derivatives & Tangents

- # Let f be a function defined on an open interval around a . Then f is differentiable at a if $\lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(a+h) - f(a)}{h}$ exists.

$$f'(a) = \frac{df(x)}{dx} = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(a+h) - f(a)}{h}$$

- # A tangent to $f(x)$ at a is a line which represents the instantaneous direction in which the graph $\Gamma(f)$ moves at $(a, f(a))$.

Traditionally, the tangent to $f(x)$ at a is thought of as a line which just touches $\Gamma(f)$ at $(a, f(a))$.

Tangents as limits of secants

Recall the notion of a tangent to the function f at a point a (i.e. a tangent to the graph $\Gamma(f)$ at $(a, f(a))$).

If it exists, we can think of a tangent as a 'limit' of secants joining $(a, f(a))$ and nearby points $(a+h, f(a+h))$!

$$\text{Eqn of a Secant: } y - f(a) = \frac{f(a+h) - f(a)}{a+h - a} (x - a)$$

What happens to the limit of this eqn?

Tangents and Derivatives

Let f be a function differentiable at point a . Then the tangent to f at ' a ' exists and is given by

$$y = f'(a)(x-a) + f(a)$$

Converse Suppose the tangent to f at ' a ' exists and is not vertical (i.e. is not a line $x=a$). Then, f is differentiable at a and the eqn of the tangent is

$$y = f'(a)(x-a) + f(a)$$

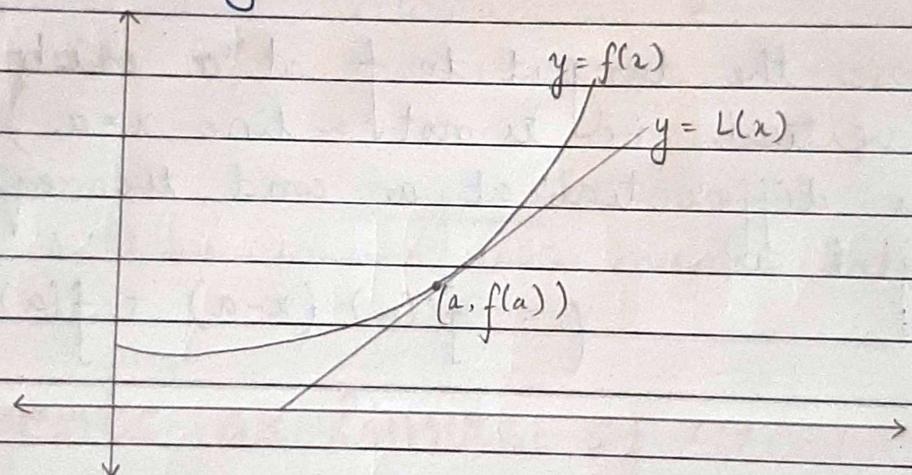
Linear Approximation

Application of Tangent Line to a Function

Given a function, $f(x)$, we can find its tangent at $x = a$. The equation of the tangent line is

$$L(x) = f(a) + f'(a)(x - a)$$

Take a look at the following graph of a function and its tangent line.



From this graph we can see that near $x = a$ the tangent line and the function have nearly the same graph. On occasion we will use the tangent line, $L(x)$, as an approximation to the fn, $f(x)$, near a .

In these cases we call the tangent line the linear approximation to the fn $x = a$.

Why would we do this?

- Linear approximations do a very good job of approximating values of $f(x)$ as long as we stay 'near' $x=a$. However, the farther away from $x=a$ we get, the worse the approximation is liable to be.

QUESTIONS

(1) Using the linear approximation of $f(x) = \sqrt{x}$ at $x=4$, find the approximate value of $\sqrt{4.4}$.

Sol. We know, $L(x) = f(a) + f'(a)(x-a)$

$$\text{Here, } f(a) = \sqrt{a} \quad f'(a) = \frac{1}{2\sqrt{a}} \quad a = 4.4$$

$$\therefore L(x) = f(4) + f'(4)(x-4)$$

$$\Rightarrow L(x) = \sqrt{4} + \frac{1}{2\sqrt{4}}(x-4)$$

$$\Rightarrow L(x) = 2 + \frac{1}{4}(x-4) \Rightarrow L(x) = 2 + \frac{x}{4} - 1$$

$$\Rightarrow L(x) = 1 + \frac{x}{4}$$

$$\therefore L(4.4) = 1 + \frac{4.4}{4} = \frac{4+4.4}{4} = \frac{8.4}{4} = 2.1$$

$$\Rightarrow \sqrt{4.4} = 2.1 \quad \text{Ans}$$

(2) If $L_p(t) = e^t(At + B) + Ce^5$ denotes the best linear approximation of the function $g(t)$ at the point $t=3$, then find the value of $A + B + C$.

Solution: $g(t) = \frac{e^{t+2} - e^4}{t-2}$, if $t > 2$

$$\Rightarrow g(3) = \frac{e^5 - e^4}{1} = e^5 - e^4$$

$$\text{Now, } g'(t) = \frac{(t+2)e^{t+2} - (e^{t+2} - e^4)}{(t-2)^2}$$

$$g'(3) = e^4$$

\therefore The best linear approximation $L_g(t)$ of the function $g(t)$ at the point $t=3$ is

$$\begin{aligned} L_g(t) &= g(3) + g'(3)(t-3) \\ &= e^5 - e^4 + e^4(t-3) \\ &= e^5 - e^4 + te^4 - 3e^4 \\ &= e^5 + te^4 - 4e^4 \end{aligned}$$

$$L_g(t) = e^5 + e^4(t-4) \quad - \textcircled{1}$$

\therefore Comparing $\textcircled{1}$ with $e^t(At + B) + Ce^5$

$$A=1, B=-4, C=1$$

$$\Rightarrow A+B+C = 1+1-4 = -2 \quad \text{Ans}$$