

# Math Camp

Justin Grimmer

Associate Professor  
Department of Political Science  
University of Chicago

August 29th, 2017

Lab this afternoon!

130-300pm

# Convergence

Big idea today is **convergence**

# Convergence

Big idea today is **convergence**

- **Sequence**  $\rightarrow$  converge on some number

# Convergence

Big idea today is **convergence**

- **Sequence**  $\rightarrow$  converge on some number
- **Function**  $\rightarrow$  **limit** (use to calculate derivatives)

# Convergence

Big idea today is **convergence**

- **Sequence** → converge on some number
- **Function** → **limit** (use to calculate derivatives)
- **Continuity** → a function doesn't jump (converge on itself)

# Convergence

Big idea today is **convergence**

- **Sequence** → converge on some number
- **Function** → **limit** (use to calculate derivatives)
- **Continuity** → a function doesn't jump (converge on itself)
- **Derivatives** → limits that measure a function's properties

# Sequence: Definition + Examples

## Definition

A *sequence* is a function whose domain is the set of positive integers

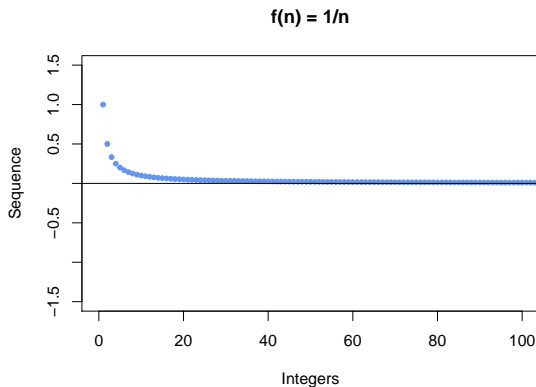
We'll write a sequence as,

$$\{a_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty} = (a_1, a_2, \dots, a_N, \dots)$$



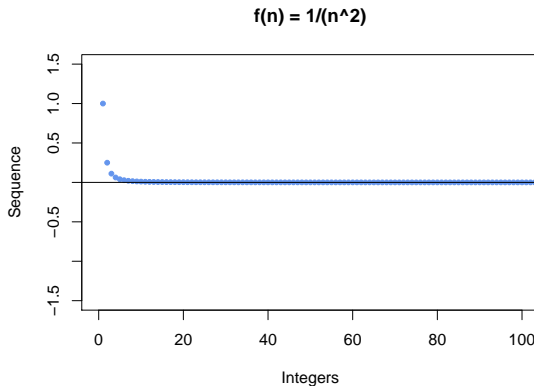
# Sequence: Definition + Examples

$$\left\{ \frac{1}{n} \right\} = (1, 1/2, 1/3, 1/4, \dots, 1/N, \dots)$$



# Sequence: Definition + Examples

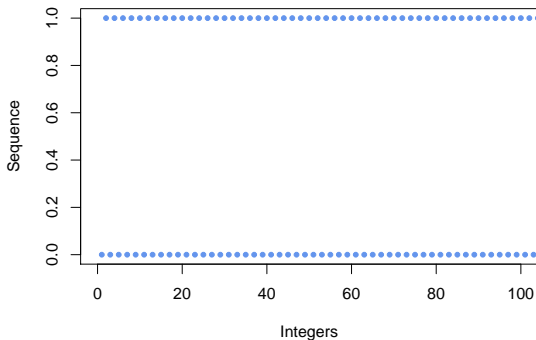
$$\left\{ \frac{1}{n^2} \right\} = (1, 1/4, 1/9, 1/16, \dots, 1/N^2, \dots)$$



# Sequence: Definition + Examples

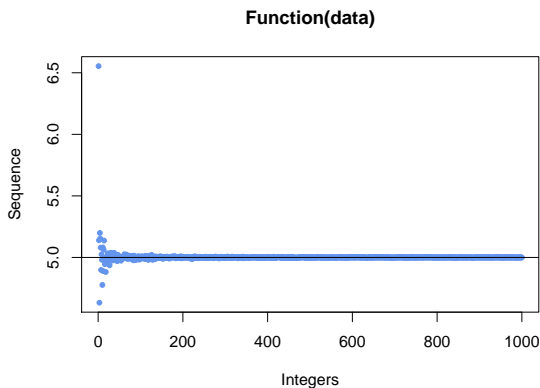
$$\left\{ \frac{1 + (-1)^n}{2} \right\} = (0, 1, 0, 1, \dots, 0, 1, 0, 1, \dots)$$

$$f(n) = (1 + (-1)^n)/2$$



# Sequence: Definition + Examples

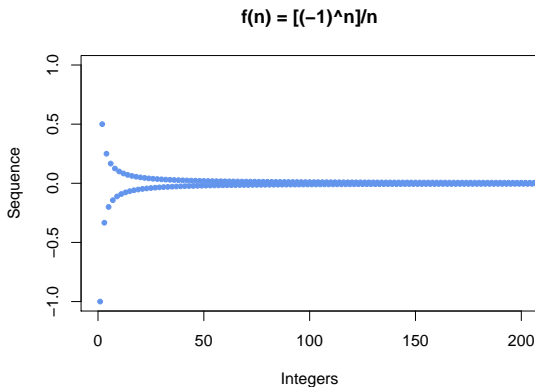
$$\{\theta\}_{n=1}^{\infty} = (\theta_1, \theta_2, \dots, \theta_n, \dots)$$
$$\theta_n = f(\text{n responses (vote choice)})$$



# Sequence: Convergence

Consider the sequence

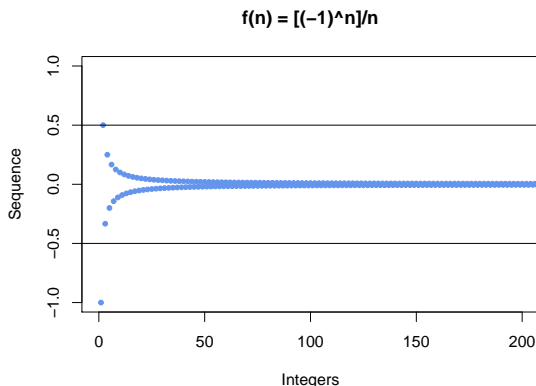
$$\left\{ \frac{(-1)^n}{n} \right\} = \left( -1, \frac{1}{2}, \frac{-1}{3}, \frac{1}{4}, \frac{-1}{5}, \frac{1}{6}, \frac{-1}{7}, \frac{1}{8}, \dots \right)$$



# Sequence: Convergence

Consider the sequence

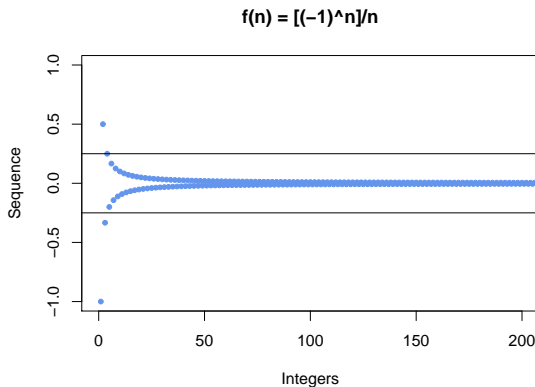
$$\left\{ \frac{(-1)^n}{n} \right\} = \left( -1, \frac{1}{2}, \frac{-1}{3}, \frac{1}{4}, \frac{-1}{5}, \frac{1}{6}, \frac{-1}{7}, \frac{1}{8}, \dots \right)$$



# Sequence: Convergence

Consider the sequence

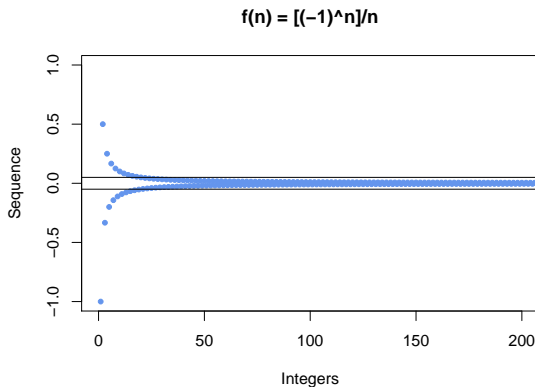
$$\left\{ \frac{(-1)^n}{n} \right\} = \left( -1, \frac{1}{2}, \frac{-1}{3}, \frac{1}{4}, \frac{-1}{5}, \frac{1}{6}, \frac{-1}{7}, \frac{1}{8}, \dots \right)$$



# Sequence: Convergence

Consider the sequence

$$\left\{ \frac{(-1)^n}{n} \right\} = \left( -1, \frac{1}{2}, \frac{-1}{3}, \frac{1}{4}, \frac{-1}{5}, \frac{1}{6}, \frac{-1}{7}, \frac{1}{8}, \dots \right)$$

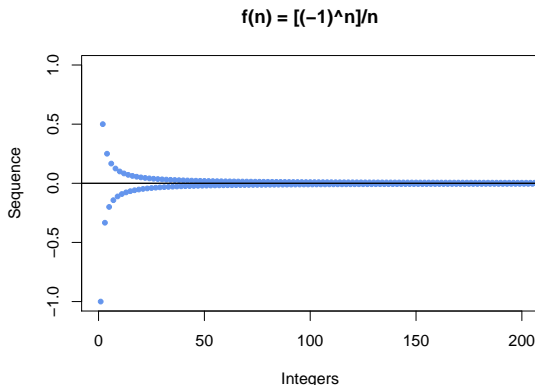




# Sequence: Convergence

Consider the sequence

$$\left\{ \frac{(-1)^n}{n} \right\} = \left( -1, \frac{1}{2}, \frac{-1}{3}, \frac{1}{4}, \frac{-1}{5}, \frac{1}{6}, \frac{-1}{7}, \frac{1}{8}, \dots \right)$$



# Sequence: Convergence definition

## Definition

*A sequence  $\{a_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$  converges to a real number  $A$  if for each  $\epsilon > 0$  there is a positive integer  $N$  such that for all  $n \geq N$  we have  $|a_n - A| < \epsilon$*

# Sequence: Convergence definition

## Definition

*A sequence  $\{a_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$  converges to a real number  $A$  if for each  $\epsilon > 0$  there is a positive integer  $N$  such that for all  $n \geq N$  we have  $|a_n - A| < \epsilon$*

- 1) If a sequence converges, it converges to **one** number. We call that **A**

# Sequence: Convergence definition

## Definition

*A sequence  $\{a_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$  converges to a real number  $A$  if for each  $\epsilon > 0$  there is a positive integer  $N$  such that for all  $n \geq N$  we have  $|a_n - A| < \epsilon$*

- 1) If a sequence converges, it converges to **one** number. We call that **A**
- 2)  $\epsilon > 0$  is some **arbitrary** real-valued number.

# Sequence: Convergence definition

## Definition

*A sequence  $\{a_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$  converges to a real number  $A$  if for each  $\epsilon > 0$  there is a positive integer  $N$  such that for all  $n \geq N$  we have  $|a_n - A| < \epsilon$*

- 1) If a sequence converges, it converges to **one** number. We call that **A**
- 2)  $\epsilon > 0$  is some **arbitrary** real-valued number. Think about this as our **error** tolerance. Notice  $\epsilon > 0$ .

# Sequence: Convergence definition

## Definition

*A sequence  $\{a_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$  converges to a real number  $A$  if for each  $\epsilon > 0$  there is a positive integer  $N$  such that for all  $n \geq N$  we have  $|a_n - A| < \epsilon$*

- 1) If a sequence converges, it converges to **one** number. We call that **A**
- 2)  $\epsilon > 0$  is some **arbitrary** real-valued number. Think about this as our **error** tolerance. Notice  $\epsilon > 0$ .
- 3) As we will see the  $N$  will depend upon  $\epsilon$

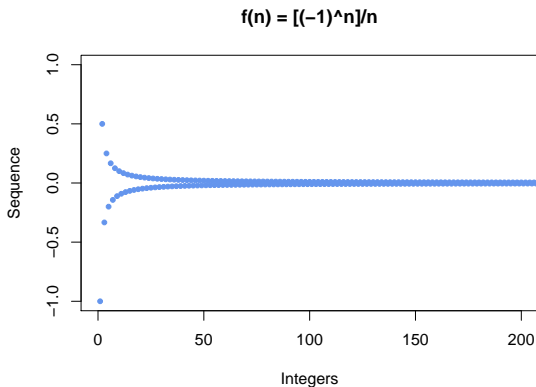
# Sequence: Convergence definition

## Definition

*A sequence  $\{a_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$  converges to a real number  $A$  if for each  $\epsilon > 0$  there is a positive integer  $N$  such that for all  $n \geq N$  we have  $|a_n - A| < \epsilon$*

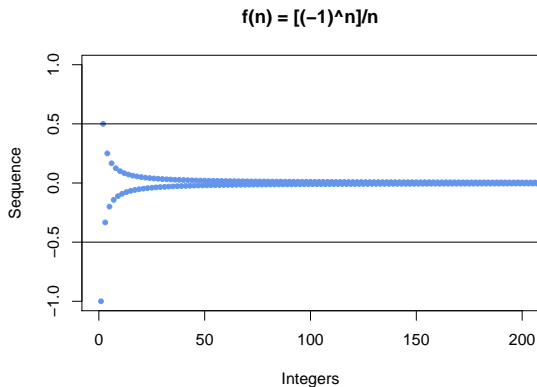
- 1) If a sequence converges, it converges to **one** number. We call that **A**
- 2)  $\epsilon > 0$  is some **arbitrary** real-valued number. Think about this as our **error** tolerance. Notice  $\epsilon > 0$ .
- 3) As we will see the  $N$  will depend upon  $\epsilon$
- 4) Implies the sequence never gets further than  $\epsilon$  away from  $A$

# Sequence: Convergence definition

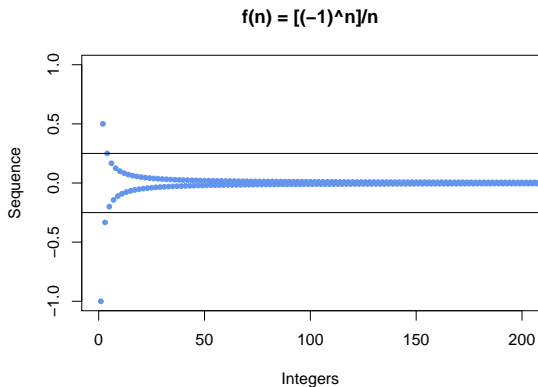




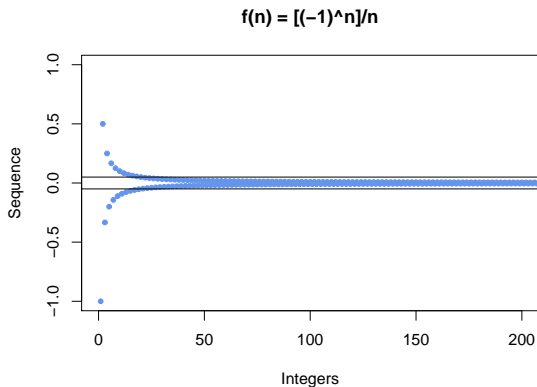
# Sequence: Convergence definition



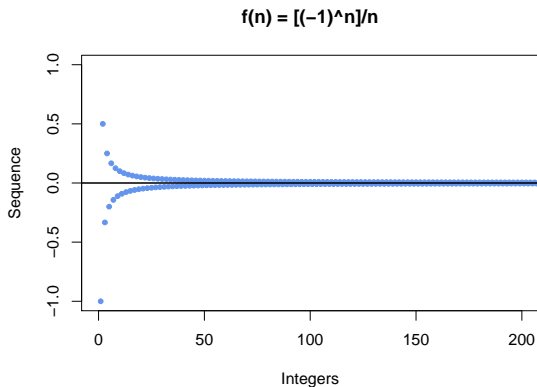
# Sequence: Convergence definition



# Sequence: Convergence definition



# Sequence: Convergence definition



# Sequence: Proof of Convergence

## Theorem

$\left\{\frac{1}{n}\right\}$  converges to 0

## Proof.

We need to show that for  $\epsilon$  there is some  $N_\epsilon$  such that, for all  $n \geq N_\epsilon$   $\left|\frac{1}{n} - 0\right| < \epsilon$ . **Without loss of generality** (WLOG) select an  $\epsilon$ . Then,

$$\begin{aligned} \left|\frac{1}{N_\epsilon} - 0\right| &< \epsilon \\ \frac{1}{N_\epsilon} &< \epsilon \\ \frac{1}{\epsilon} &< N_\epsilon \end{aligned}$$

For each epsilon, then, any  $N_\epsilon > \frac{1}{\epsilon}$  will suffice. □

# Sequence: Divergence + Bounded

## Definition

*If a sequence,  $\{a_n\}$  converges we'll call it **convergent**. If it doesn't we'll call it **divergent**. If there is some number  $M$  such that, for all  $n$   $|a_n| < M$ , then we'll call it bounded*

# Sequence: Divergence + Bounded

## Definition

*If a sequence,  $\{a_n\}$  converges we'll call it **convergent**. If it doesn't we'll call it **divergent**. If there is some number  $M$  such that, for all  $n$   $|a_n| < M$ , then we'll call it bounded*

- An unbounded sequence

# Sequence: Divergence + Bounded

## Definition

*If a sequence,  $\{a_n\}$  converges we'll call it **convergent**. If it doesn't we'll call it **divergent**. If there is some number  $M$  such that, for all  $n$   $|a_n| < M$ , then we'll call it bounded*

- An unbounded sequence

$$\{n\} = (1, 2, 3, 4, \dots, N, \dots)$$



# Sequence: Divergence + Bounded

## Definition

*If a sequence,  $\{a_n\}$  converges we'll call it **convergent**. If it doesn't we'll call it **divergent**. If there is some number  $M$  such that, for all  $n$   $|a_n| < M$ , then we'll call it bounded*

- An unbounded sequence

$$\{n\} = (1, 2, 3, 4, \dots, N, \dots)$$

- A bounded sequence that doesn't converge

# Sequence: Divergence + Bounded

## Definition

*If a sequence,  $\{a_n\}$  converges we'll call it **convergent**. If it doesn't we'll call it **divergent**. If there is some number  $M$  such that, for all  $n$   $|a_n| < M$ , then we'll call it bounded*

- An unbounded sequence

$$\{n\} = (1, 2, 3, 4, \dots, N, \dots)$$

- A bounded sequence that doesn't converge

$$\left\{ \frac{1 + (-1)^n}{2} \right\} = (0, 1, 0, 1, \dots, 0, 1, 0, 1, \dots)$$

# Sequence: Divergence + Bounded

## Definition

*If a sequence,  $\{a_n\}$  converges we'll call it **convergent**. If it doesn't we'll call it **divergent**. If there is some number  $M$  such that, for all  $n$   $|a_n| < M$ , then we'll call it bounded*

- An unbounded sequence

$$\{n\} = (1, 2, 3, 4, \dots, N, \dots)$$

- A bounded sequence that doesn't converge

$$\left\{ \frac{1 + (-1)^n}{2} \right\} = (0, 1, 0, 1, \dots, 0, 1, 0, 1, \dots)$$

- All convergent sequences are bounded

# Sequence: Divergence + Bounded

## Definition

*If a sequence,  $\{a_n\}$  converges we'll call it **convergent**. If it doesn't we'll call it **divergent**. If there is some number  $M$  such that, for all  $n$   $|a_n| < M$ , then we'll call it bounded*

- An unbounded sequence

$$\{n\} = (1, 2, 3, 4, \dots, N, \dots)$$

- A bounded sequence that doesn't converge

$$\left\{ \frac{1 + (-1)^n}{2} \right\} = (0, 1, 0, 1, \dots, 0, 1, 0, 1, \dots)$$

- All convergent sequences are bounded
- If a sequence is **constant**,  $\{C\}$  it converges to  $C$ . **proof?**

# Algebra of Sequences

How do we add, multiply, and divide sequences?

## Theorem

*Suppose  $\{a_n\}$  converges to  $A$  and  $\{b_n\}$  converges to  $B$ . Then,*

- $\{a_n + b_n\}$  converges to  $A + B$*
- $\{a_n b_n\}$  converges to  $A \times B$ .*
- Suppose  $b_n \neq 0 \forall n$  and  $B \neq 0$ . Then  $\left\{\frac{a_n}{b_n}\right\}$  converges to  $\frac{A}{B}$ .*

# Working Together

- Consider the sequence  $\left\{\frac{1}{n}\right\}$ —what does it converge to?
- Consider the sequence  $\left\{\frac{1}{2n}\right\}$  what does it converge to?

# Challenge Questions

- What does  $\left\{3 + \frac{1}{n}\right\}$  converge to?
- What about  $\left\{\left(3 + \frac{1}{n}\right)\left(100 + \frac{1}{n^4}\right)\right\}$ ?
- Finally,  $\left\{\frac{300 + \frac{1}{n}}{100 + \frac{1}{n^4}}\right\}$ ?

Work smarter, not harder

Divide into teams, let's reconvene in about 10 minutes.

# Sequences $\rightsquigarrow$ Limits of Functions

**Calculus/Real Analysis:** study of functions on the **real line**.

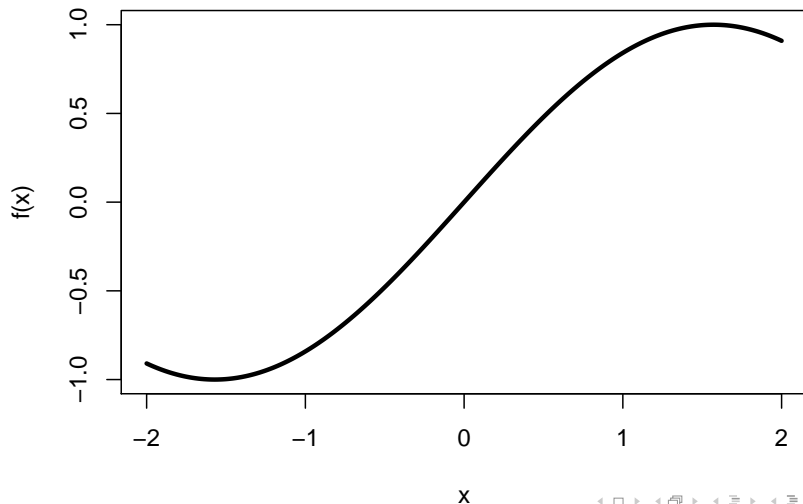
**Limit of a function:** how does a function behave as it gets close to a particular point?

- Derivatives
- Asymptotics
- Game Theory

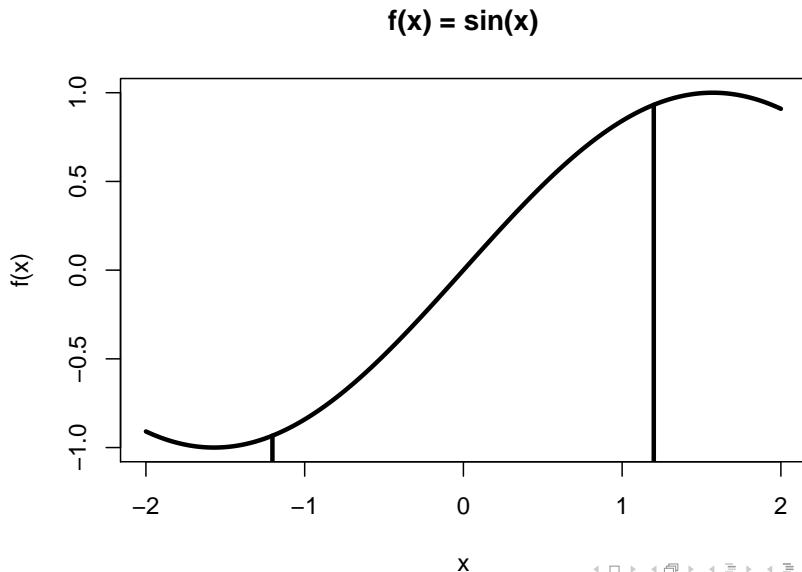


# Limits of Functions

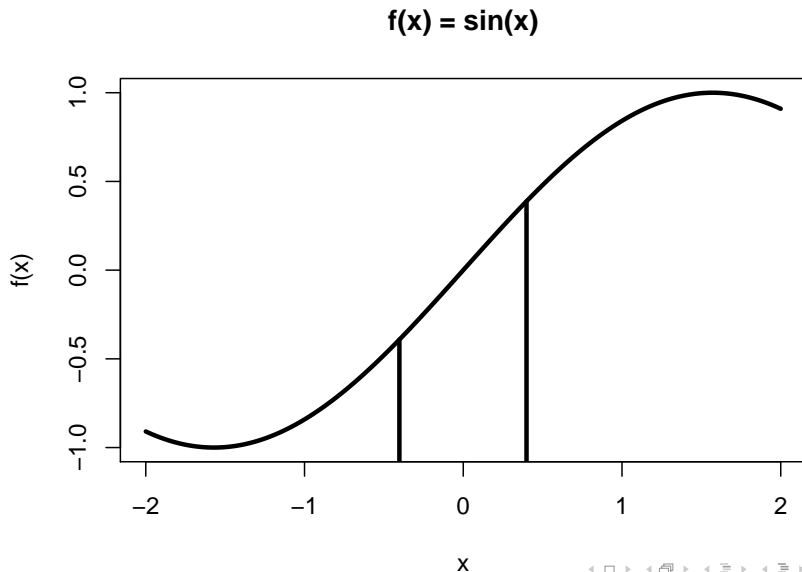
$$f(x) = \sin(x)$$



# Limits of Functions

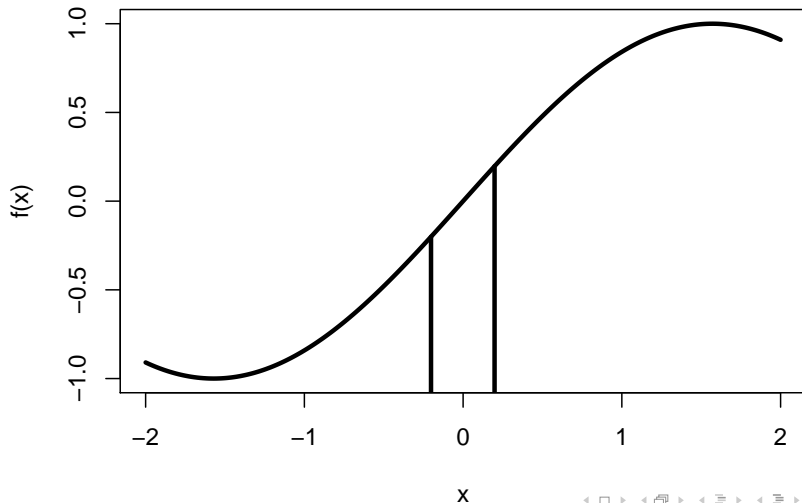


# Limits of Functions



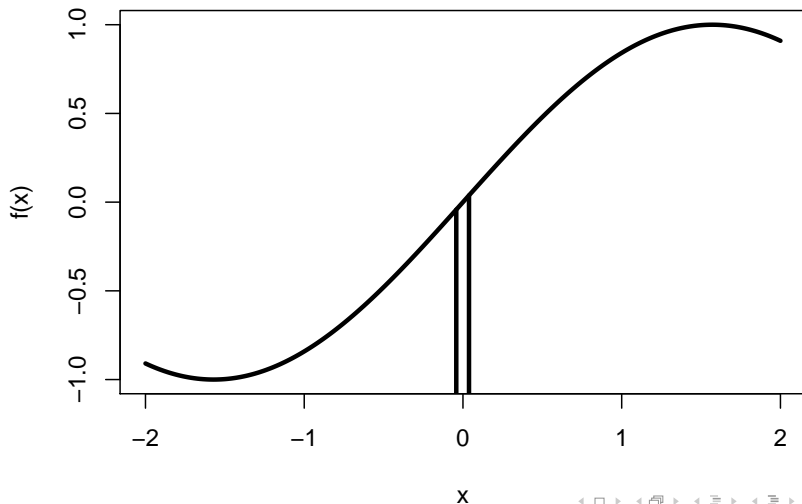
# Limits of Functions

$$f(x) = \sin(x)$$



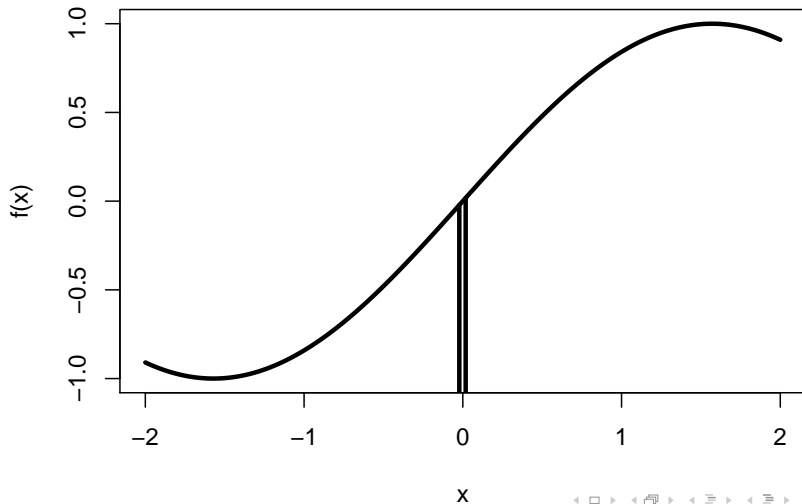
# Limits of Functions

$$f(x) = \sin(x)$$



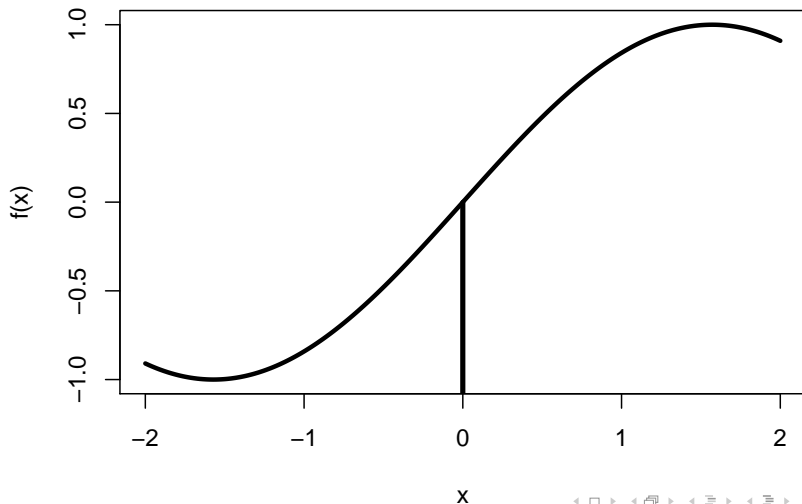
# Limits of Functions

$$f(x) = \sin(x)$$



# Limits of Functions

$$f(x) = \sin(x)$$



# Precise Definition of Limits of Functions

## Definition

*Suppose  $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ . We say that  $f$  has a limit  $L$  at  $x_0$  if, for each  $\epsilon > 0$ , there is a  $\delta > 0$  such that  $|x - x_0| < \delta$  implies that  $|f(x) - L| < \epsilon$ .*

- Limits are about the behavior of functions at **points**. Here  $x_0$ .
- As with sequences, we let  $\epsilon$  define an **error rate**
- $\delta$  defines an area around  $x_0$  where  $f(x)$  is going to be within our error rate



# Precise Definition of Limit: Example

## Theorem

*The function  $f(x) = x + 1$  has a limit of 1 at  $x_0 = 0$ .*

## Proof.

WLOG choose  $\epsilon > 0$ . We want to show that there is  $\delta_\epsilon$  such that,  
 $|x - x_0| < \delta_\epsilon$  implies  $|f(x) - 1| < \epsilon$ . In other words,

$$|x| < \delta_\epsilon \quad \text{implies} \quad |(x + 1) - 1| < \epsilon$$

$$|x| < \delta_\epsilon \quad \text{implies} \quad |x| < \epsilon$$

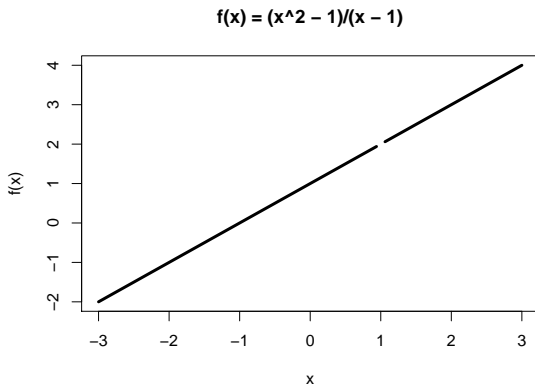
But if  $\delta_\epsilon = \epsilon$  then this holds, we are done. □

# Precise Definition of Limit: Example

A function can have a limit of  $L$  at  $x_0$  even if  $f(x_0) \neq L(!)$

## Theorem

*The function  $f(x) = \frac{x^2-1}{x-1}$  has a limit of 2 at  $x_0 = 1$ .*



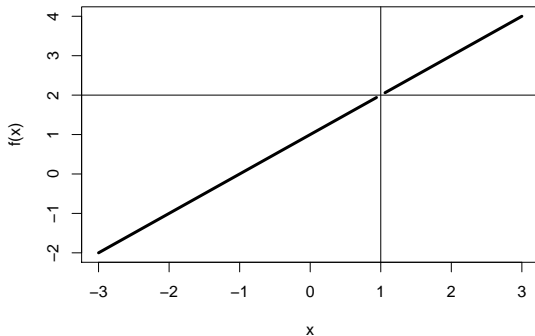
# Precise Definition of Limit: Example

A function can have a limit of  $L$  at  $x_0$  even if  $f(x_0) \neq L(!)$

## Theorem

*The function  $f(x) = \frac{x^2-1}{x-1}$  has a limit of 2 at  $x_0 = 1$ .*

$$f(x) = (x^2 - 1)/(x - 1)$$



# Precise Definition of Limit: Example

Proof.

For all  $x \neq 1$ ,

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{x^2 - 1}{x - 1} &= \frac{(x + 1)(x - 1)}{x - 1} \\ &= x + 1\end{aligned}$$

Choose  $\epsilon > 0$  and set  $x_0 = 1$ . Then, we're looking for  $\delta_\epsilon$  such that

$$|x - 1| < \delta_\epsilon \quad \text{implies} \quad |(x + 1) - 2| < \epsilon$$

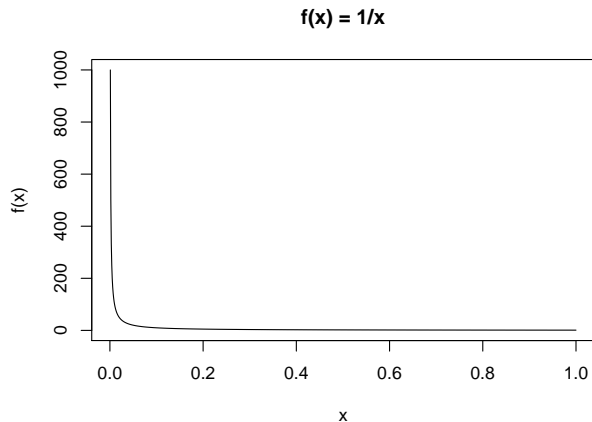
Again, if  $\delta_\epsilon = \epsilon$ , then this is satisfied.



# Not all Functions have Limits!

## Theorem

Consider  $f : (0, 1) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ ,  $f(x) = 1/x$ .  $f(x)$  does not have a limit at  $x_0 = 0$



Proof.

Choose  $\epsilon > 0$ . We need to show that there **does not** exist  $\delta$  such that

$$|x| < \delta \quad \text{implies} \quad \left| \frac{1}{x} - L \right| < \epsilon$$

But, there is a problem. Because

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{1}{x} - L &< \epsilon \\ \frac{1}{x} &< \epsilon + L \\ x &> \frac{1}{L + \epsilon} \end{aligned}$$

This implies that there **can't** be a  $\delta$ , because  $x$  has to be bigger than  $\frac{1}{L + \epsilon}$ .

□

# Intuitive Definition of Limit

## Definition

*If a function  $f$  tends to  $L$  at point  $x_0$  we say it has a limit  $L$  at  $x_0$  we commonly write,*

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} f(x) = L$$

## Definition

*If a function  $f$  tends to  $L$  at point  $x_0$  as we approach from the right, then we write*

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0^+} f(x) = L$$

*and call this a **right hand limit***

*If a function  $f$  tends to  $L$  at point  $x_0$  as we approach from the left, then we write*

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0^-} f(x) = L$$

*and call this a **left-hand limit***

**Regression discontinuity designs**



# Left-hand, Right-hand, and Limits

## Theorem

*The  $\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} f(x)$  exists if and only if  $\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0^-} f(x) = \lim_{x \rightarrow x_0^+} f(x)$*

# Left-hand, Right-hand, and Limits

## Theorem

*The  $\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} f(x)$  exists if and only if  $\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0^-} f(x) = \lim_{x \rightarrow x_0^+} f(x)$*

- Intuition that  $\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0^-} f(x) = \lim_{x \rightarrow x_0^+} f(x) \Rightarrow \lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} f(x)$ . If they are equal we can take the smallest  $\delta$  and we can guarantee proof.

# Left-hand, Right-hand, and Limits

## Theorem

*The  $\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} f(x)$  exists if and only if  $\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0^-} f(x) = \lim_{x \rightarrow x_0^+} f(x)$*

- Intuition that  $\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0^-} f(x) = \lim_{x \rightarrow x_0^+} f(x) \Rightarrow \lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} f(x)$ . If they are equal we can take the smallest  $\delta$  and we can guarantee proof.
- Intuition that  $\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} f(x) \Rightarrow \lim_{x \rightarrow x_0^-} f(x) = \lim_{x \rightarrow x_0^+} f(x)$ .

Absolute value is symmetric—so we must be converging from each side. (contradiction could work too!)

# Left-hand, Right-hand, and Limits

## Theorem

*The  $\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} f(x)$  exists if and only if  $\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0^-} f(x) = \lim_{x \rightarrow x_0^+} f(x)$*

- Intuition that  $\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0^-} f(x) = \lim_{x \rightarrow x_0^+} f(x) \Rightarrow \lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} f(x)$ . If they are equal we can take the smallest  $\delta$  and we can guarantee proof.
- Intuition that  $\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} f(x) \Rightarrow \lim_{x \rightarrow x_0^-} f(x) = \lim_{x \rightarrow x_0^+} f(x)$ .  
Absolute value is symmetric—so we must be converging from each side. (contradiction could work too!)
- We can also appeal to **sequences** to prove this stuff

# Left-hand, Right-hand, and Limits

## Theorem

*The  $\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} f(x)$  exists if and only if  $\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0^-} f(x) = \lim_{x \rightarrow x_0^+} f(x)$*

- Intuition that  $\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0^-} f(x) = \lim_{x \rightarrow x_0^+} f(x) \Rightarrow \lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} f(x)$ . If they are equal we can take the smallest  $\delta$  and we can guarantee proof.
- Intuition that  $\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} f(x) \Rightarrow \lim_{x \rightarrow x_0^-} f(x) = \lim_{x \rightarrow x_0^+} f(x)$ .  
Absolute value is symmetric—so we must be converging from each side. (contradiction could work too!)
- We can also appeal to **sequences** to prove this stuff

**Trick:** we'll show limits don't exist by showing

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0^-} f(x) \neq \lim_{x \rightarrow x_0^+} f(x)$$

# Finding Limits

# Finding Limits

Student: Justin. what the hell with the  $\delta$ 's and  $\epsilon$ 's? What the hell am I going to use this for?

# Finding Limits

Student: Justin. what the hell with the  $\delta$ 's and  $\epsilon$ 's? What the hell am I going to use this for?

Justin: Limits are used constantly in political science. And getting comfortable with this notation (by seeing it many times) is important



# Finding Limits

Student: Justin. what the hell with the  $\delta$ 's and  $\epsilon$ 's? What the hell am I going to use this for?

Justin: Limits are used constantly in political science. And getting comfortable with this notation (by seeing it many times) is important

Student: fine. How am I going to find the limit? I can't do a  $\delta - \epsilon$  proof yet.

# Finding Limits

Student: Justin. what the hell with the  $\delta$ 's and  $\epsilon$ 's? What the hell am I going to use this for?

Justin: Limits are used constantly in political science. And getting comfortable with this notation (by seeing it many times) is important

Student: fine. How am I going to find the limit? I can't do a  $\delta - \epsilon$  proof yet.

Justin: yes, those take time. For this class, **graphing** will be critical.

# Algebra of Limits

## Theorem

Suppose  $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  and  $g : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  with limits  $A$  and  $B$  at  $x_0$ . Then,

$$i.) \lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} (f(x) + g(x)) = \lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} f(x) + \lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} g(x) = A + B$$

$$ii.) \lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} f(x)g(x) = \lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} f(x) \lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} g(x) = AB$$

Suppose  $g(x) \neq 0$  for all  $x \in \mathbb{R}$  and  $B \neq 0$  then  $\frac{f(x)}{g(x)}$  has a limit at  $x_0$  and

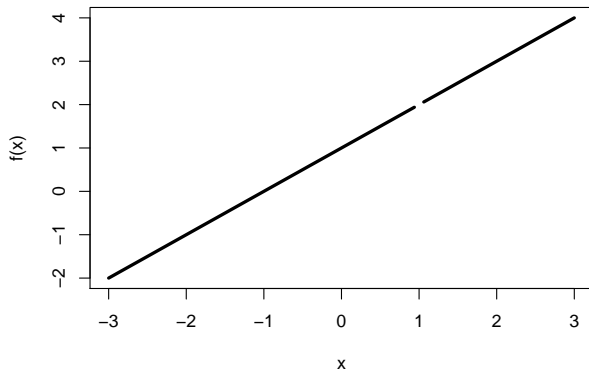
$$\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} = \frac{\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} f(x)}{\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} g(x)} = \frac{A}{B}$$

# Challenge Problems

Suppose  $\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} f(x) = a$ . Find  $\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} \frac{f(x)^3 + f(x)^2}{f(x)}$

# Continuity

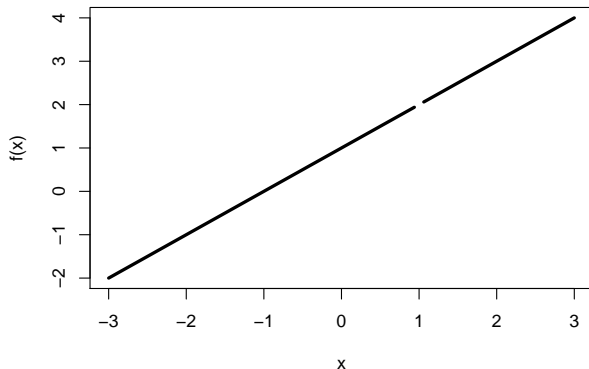
$$f(x) = (x^2 - 1)/(x - 1)$$



- Limit exists at 1

# Continuity

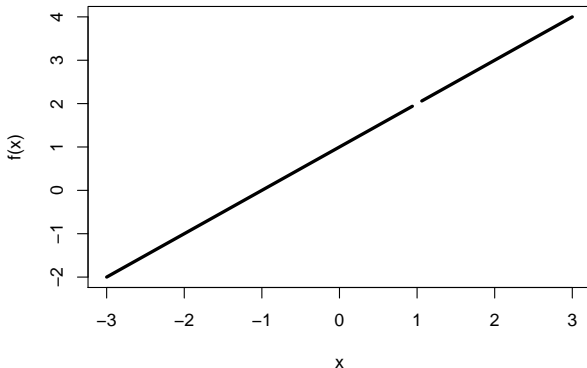
$$f(x) = (x^2 - 1)/(x - 1)$$



- Limit exists at 1
- But hole in function

# Continuity

$$f(x) = (x^2 - 1)/(x - 1)$$



- Limit exists at 1
- But hole in function
- Fails the **pencil** test,  
**discontinuous** at 1

# Continuity, Rigorous Definition

## Definition

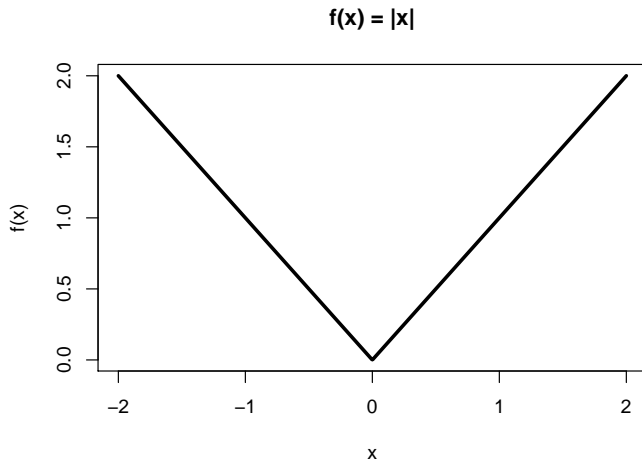
*Suppose  $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  and consider  $x_0 \in \mathbb{R}$ . We will say  $f$  is continuous at  $x_0$  if for each  $\epsilon > 0$  there is a  $\delta > 0$  such that if,*

$$\begin{aligned} |x - x_0| &< \delta \text{ for all } x \in \mathbb{R} \text{ then} \\ |f(x) - f(x_0)| &< \epsilon \end{aligned}$$

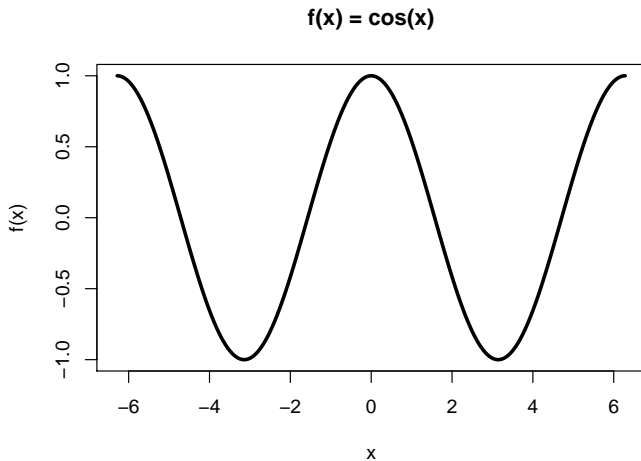
- Previously  $f(x_0)$  was replaced with  $L$ .
- Now:  $f(x)$  has to converge on itself at  $x_0$ .
- Continuity is more restrictive than limit



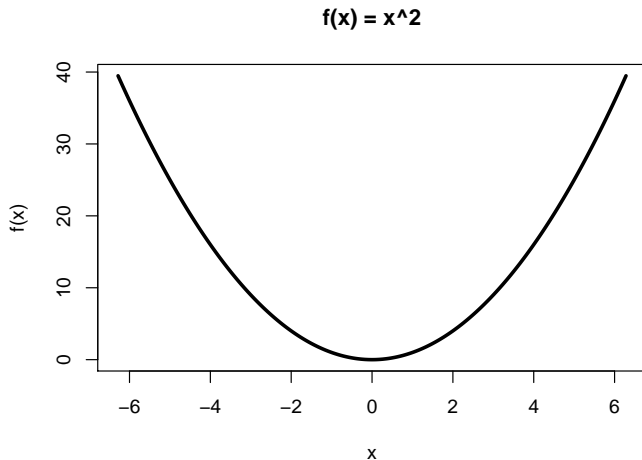
# Examples



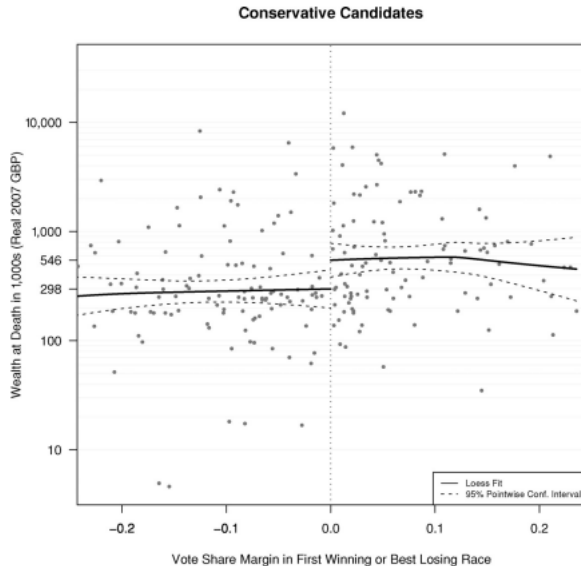
# Examples



# Examples



# Examples



# Continuity and Limits

## Theorem

*Let  $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  with  $x_0 \in \mathbb{R}$ . Then  $f$  is continuous at  $x_0$  if and only if  $f$  has a limit at  $x_0$  and that  $\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} f(x) = f(x_0)$ .*

## Proof.

( $\Rightarrow$ ). Suppose  $f$  is continuous at  $x_0$ . This implies that for each  $\epsilon > 0$  there is  $\delta > 0$  such that  $|x - x_0| < \delta$  implies  $|f(x) - f(x_0)| < \epsilon$ . This is the definition of a limit, with  $L = f(x_0)$ .

( $\Leftarrow$ ). Suppose  $f$  has a limit at  $x_0$  and that limit is  $f(x_0)$ . This implies that for each  $\epsilon > 0$  there is  $\delta > 0$  such that  $|x - x_0| < \delta$  implies  $|f(x) - f(x_0)| < \epsilon$ . But this is the definition of continuity. □

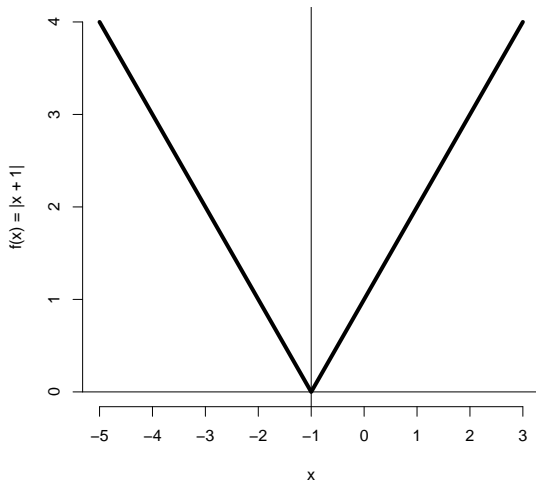
# Algebra of Continuous Functions

## Theorem

*Suppose  $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  and  $g : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  are continuous at  $x_0$ . Then,*

- i.)  $f(x) + g(x)$  is continuous at  $x_0$*
- ii.)  $f(x)g(x)$  is continuous at  $x_0$*
- iii. if  $g(x_0) \neq 0$ , then  $\frac{f(x)}{g(x)}$  is continuous at  $x_0$*

Use theorem about limits to prove continuous theorems.

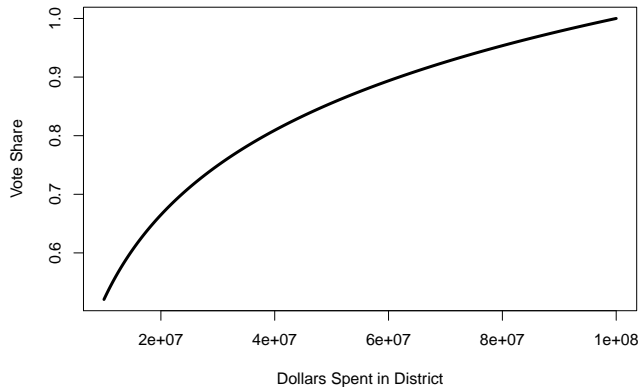


# How Functions Change

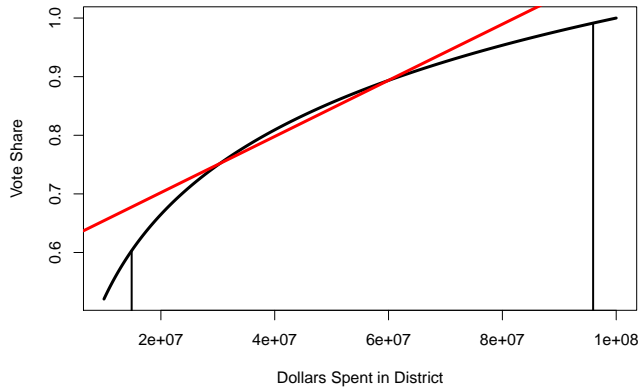
- **Derivatives**—Rates of change in functions
- Foundational across a lot of work in Poli Sci.
- A special **limit**
- Cover three broad ideas
  - Geometric interpretation/intuition
  - Formulas/Algebra derivatives
  - Famous theorems



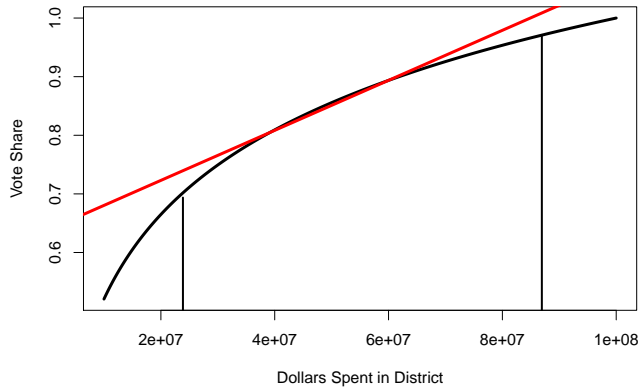
# Rates of Change in a Function



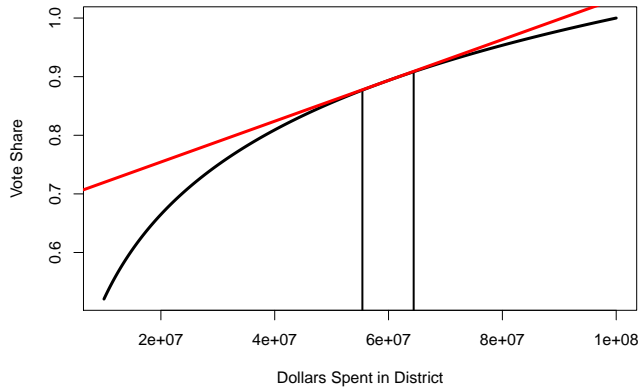
# Rates of Change in a Function



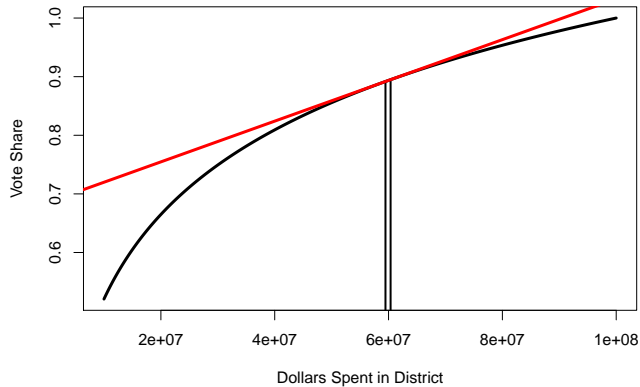
# Rates of Change in a Function



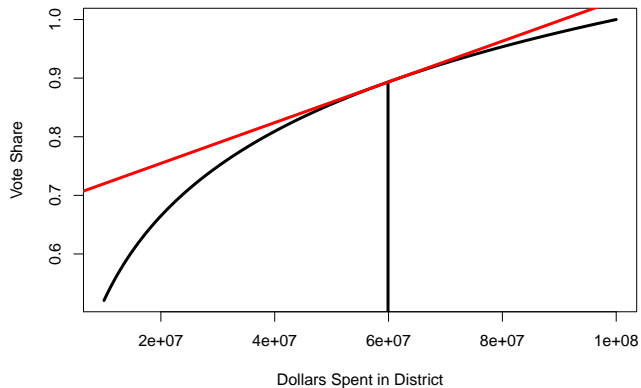
# Rates of Change in a Function



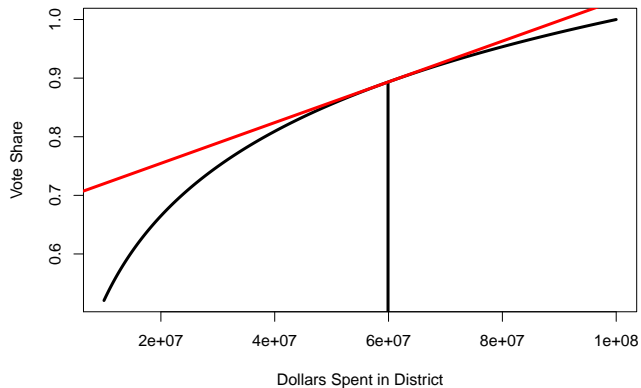
# Rates of Change in a Function



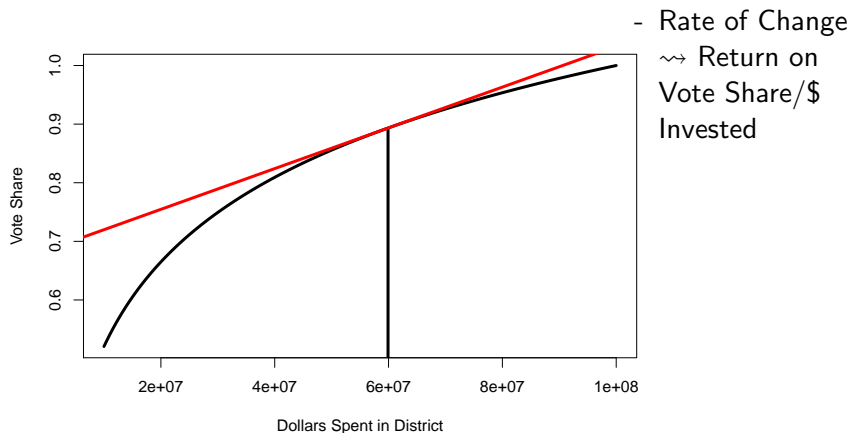
# Rates of Change in a Function



# Rates of Change in a Function

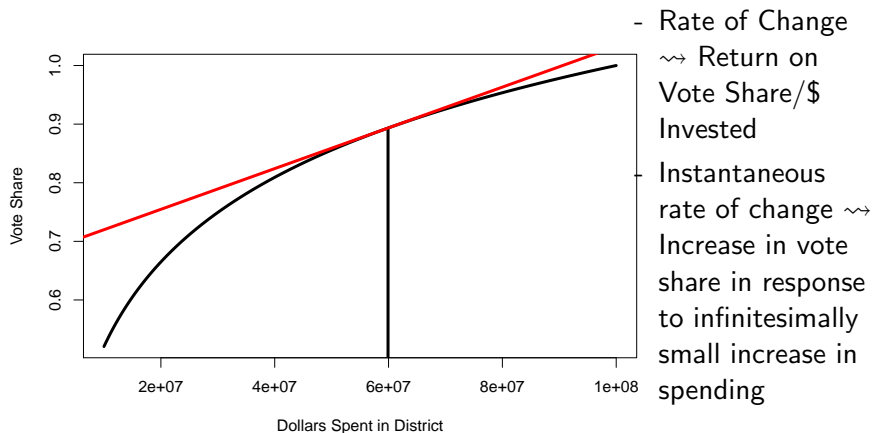


# Rates of Change in a Function

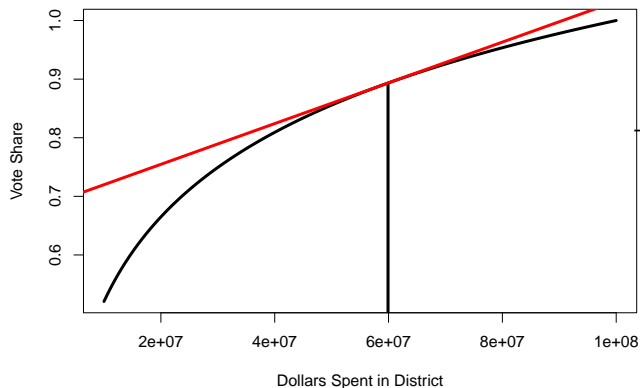




# Rates of Change in a Function



# Rates of Change in a Function



- Rate of Change  
     $\rightsquigarrow$  Return on  
    Vote Share/\$  
    Invested
- Instantaneous  
    rate of change  $\rightsquigarrow$   
    Increase in vote  
    share in response  
    to infinitesimally  
    small increase in  
    spending
- **Limit**

# Derivative Definition

Suppose  $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ .

Definition

# Derivative Definition

Suppose  $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ . Measure rate of change at a point  $x_0$  with a function  $R(x)$ ,

Definition

# Derivative Definition

Suppose  $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ . Measure rate of change at a point  $x_0$  with a function  $R(x)$ ,

$$R(x) = \frac{f(x) - f(x_0)}{x - x_0}$$

Definition

# Derivative Definition

Suppose  $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ . Measure rate of change at a point  $x_0$  with a function  $R(x)$ ,

$$R(x) = \frac{f(x) - f(x_0)}{x - x_0}$$

- $R(x)$  defines the rate of change.

Definition

# Derivative Definition

Suppose  $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ . Measure rate of change at a point  $x_0$  with a function  $R(x)$ ,

$$R(x) = \frac{f(x) - f(x_0)}{x - x_0}$$

- $R(x)$  defines the rate of change.
- A derivative will examine what happens with a small perturbation at  $x_0$

Definition

# Derivative Definition

Suppose  $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ . Measure rate of change at a point  $x_0$  with a function  $R(x)$ ,

$$R(x) = \frac{f(x) - f(x_0)}{x - x_0}$$

- $R(x)$  defines the rate of change.
- A derivative will examine what happens with a small perturbation at  $x_0$

## Definition

*Let  $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ . If the limit*



# Derivative Definition

Suppose  $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ . Measure rate of change at a point  $x_0$  with a function  $R(x)$ ,

$$R(x) = \frac{f(x) - f(x_0)}{x - x_0}$$

- $R(x)$  defines the rate of change.
- A derivative will examine what happens with a small perturbation at  $x_0$

## Definition

Let  $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ . If the limit

$$\begin{aligned} \lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} R(x) &= \frac{f(x) - f(x_0)}{x - x_0} \\ &= f'(x_0) \end{aligned}$$

# Derivative Definition

Suppose  $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ . Measure rate of change at a point  $x_0$  with a function  $R(x)$ ,

$$R(x) = \frac{f(x) - f(x_0)}{x - x_0}$$

- $R(x)$  defines the rate of change.
- A derivative will examine what happens with a small perturbation at  $x_0$

## Definition

Let  $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ . If the limit

$$\begin{aligned}\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} R(x) &= \frac{f(x) - f(x_0)}{x - x_0} \\ &= f'(x_0)\end{aligned}$$

exists then we say that  $f$  is **differentiable** at  $x_0$ . If  $f'(x_0)$  exists for all  $x \in \text{Domain}$ , then we say that  $f$  is differentiable.

# Derivative Examples

- Suppose  $f(x) = x^2$  and consider  $x_0 = 1$ . Then,

# Derivative Examples

- Suppose  $f(x) = x^2$  and consider  $x_0 = 1$ . Then,

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 1} R(x) = \lim_{x \rightarrow 1} \frac{x^2 - 1^2}{x - 1}$$

# Derivative Examples

- Suppose  $f(x) = x^2$  and consider  $x_0 = 1$ . Then,

$$\begin{aligned}\lim_{x \rightarrow 1} R(x) &= \lim_{x \rightarrow 1} \frac{x^2 - 1^2}{x - 1} \\ &= \lim_{x \rightarrow 1} \frac{(x - 1)(x + 1)}{x - 1}\end{aligned}$$

# Derivative Examples

- Suppose  $f(x) = x^2$  and consider  $x_0 = 1$ . Then,

$$\begin{aligned}\lim_{x \rightarrow 1} R(x) &= \lim_{x \rightarrow 1} \frac{x^2 - 1^2}{x - 1} \\ &= \lim_{x \rightarrow 1} \frac{(x - 1)(x + 1)}{x - 1} \\ &= \lim_{x \rightarrow 1} x + 1\end{aligned}$$

# Derivative Examples

- Suppose  $f(x) = x^2$  and consider  $x_0 = 1$ . Then,

$$\begin{aligned}\lim_{x \rightarrow 1} R(x) &= \lim_{x \rightarrow 1} \frac{x^2 - 1^2}{x - 1} \\ &= \lim_{x \rightarrow 1} \frac{(x - 1)(x + 1)}{x - 1} \\ &= \lim_{x \rightarrow 1} x + 1 \\ &= 2\end{aligned}$$

# Derivative Examples

- Suppose  $f(x) = x^2$  and consider  $x_0 = 1$ . Then,

$$\begin{aligned}\lim_{x \rightarrow 1} R(x) &= \lim_{x \rightarrow 1} \frac{x^2 - 1^2}{x - 1} \\ &= \lim_{x \rightarrow 1} \frac{(x - 1)(x + 1)}{x - 1} \\ &= \lim_{x \rightarrow 1} x + 1 \\ &= 2\end{aligned}$$

- Suppose  $f(x) = |x|$  and consider  $x_0 = 0$ . Then,



# Derivative Examples

- Suppose  $f(x) = x^2$  and consider  $x_0 = 1$ . Then,

$$\begin{aligned}\lim_{x \rightarrow 1} R(x) &= \lim_{x \rightarrow 1} \frac{x^2 - 1^2}{x - 1} \\ &= \lim_{x \rightarrow 1} \frac{(x - 1)(x + 1)}{x - 1} \\ &= \lim_{x \rightarrow 1} x + 1 \\ &= 2\end{aligned}$$

- Suppose  $f(x) = |x|$  and consider  $x_0 = 0$ . Then,

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} R(x) = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{|x|}{x}$$

# Derivative Examples

- Suppose  $f(x) = x^2$  and consider  $x_0 = 1$ . Then,

$$\begin{aligned}\lim_{x \rightarrow 1} R(x) &= \lim_{x \rightarrow 1} \frac{x^2 - 1^2}{x - 1} \\ &= \lim_{x \rightarrow 1} \frac{(x - 1)(x + 1)}{x - 1} \\ &= \lim_{x \rightarrow 1} x + 1 \\ &= 2\end{aligned}$$

- Suppose  $f(x) = |x|$  and consider  $x_0 = 0$ . Then,

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} R(x) = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{|x|}{x}$$

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0^-} R(x) = -1$$

# Derivative Examples

- Suppose  $f(x) = x^2$  and consider  $x_0 = 1$ . Then,

$$\begin{aligned}\lim_{x \rightarrow 1} R(x) &= \lim_{x \rightarrow 1} \frac{x^2 - 1^2}{x - 1} \\ &= \lim_{x \rightarrow 1} \frac{(x - 1)(x + 1)}{x - 1} \\ &= \lim_{x \rightarrow 1} x + 1 \\ &= 2\end{aligned}$$

- Suppose  $f(x) = |x|$  and consider  $x_0 = 0$ . Then,

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} R(x) = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{|x|}{x}$$

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0^-} R(x) = -1, \text{ but } \lim_{x \rightarrow 0^+} R(x) = 1.$$

# Derivative Examples

- Suppose  $f(x) = x^2$  and consider  $x_0 = 1$ . Then,

$$\begin{aligned}\lim_{x \rightarrow 1} R(x) &= \lim_{x \rightarrow 1} \frac{x^2 - 1^2}{x - 1} \\ &= \lim_{x \rightarrow 1} \frac{(x - 1)(x + 1)}{x - 1} \\ &= \lim_{x \rightarrow 1} x + 1 \\ &= 2\end{aligned}$$

- Suppose  $f(x) = |x|$  and consider  $x_0 = 0$ . Then,

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} R(x) = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{|x|}{x}$$

$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0^-} R(x) = -1$  , but  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0^+} R(x) = 1$ . So, not differentiable at 0.

# Continuity and Derivatives

- $f(x) = |x|$  is **continuous** but not differentiable. This is because the change is **too abrupt**.
- Suggests **differentiability is a stronger condition**

## Theorem

*Let  $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  be differentiable at  $x_0$ . Then  $f$  is continuous at  $x_0$ .*

# Continuity and Derivatives

## Theorem

*Let  $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  be differentiable at  $x_0$ . Then  $f$  is continuous at  $x_0$ .*

Proof.

# Continuity and Derivatives

## Theorem

*Let  $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  be differentiable at  $x_0$ . Then  $f$  is continuous at  $x_0$ .*

## Proof.

This proof is all in the setup. Realize that,

# Continuity and Derivatives

## Theorem

*Let  $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  be differentiable at  $x_0$ . Then  $f$  is continuous at  $x_0$ .*

Proof.

This proof is all in the setup. Realize that,

$$f(x) = \frac{f(x) - f(x_0)}{x - x_0}(x - x_0) + f(x_0)$$



# Continuity and Derivatives

## Theorem

*Let  $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  be differentiable at  $x_0$ . Then  $f$  is continuous at  $x_0$ .*

## Proof.

This proof is all in the setup. Realize that,

$$\begin{aligned} f(x) &= \frac{f(x) - f(x_0)}{x - x_0}(x - x_0) + f(x_0) \\ &= R(x)(x - x_0) + f(x_0) \end{aligned}$$

# Continuity and Derivatives

## Theorem

*Let  $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  be differentiable at  $x_0$ . Then  $f$  is continuous at  $x_0$ .*

## Proof.

This proof is all in the setup. Realize that,

$$\begin{aligned} f(x) &= \frac{f(x) - f(x_0)}{x - x_0}(x - x_0) + f(x_0) \\ &= R(x)(x - x_0) + f(x_0) \end{aligned}$$

If  $f(x)$  is continuous at  $x_0$  then,  $\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} f(x) = f(x_0)$ .

# Continuity and Derivatives

## Theorem

*Let  $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  be differentiable at  $x_0$ . Then  $f$  is continuous at  $x_0$ .*

## Proof.

This proof is all in the setup. Realize that,

$$\begin{aligned} f(x) &= \frac{f(x) - f(x_0)}{x - x_0}(x - x_0) + f(x_0) \\ &= R(x)(x - x_0) + f(x_0) \end{aligned}$$

If  $f(x)$  is continuous at  $x_0$  then,  $\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} f(x) = f(x_0)$ .

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} f(x) = \lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} [R(x)(x - x_0) + f(x_0)]$$

# Continuity and Derivatives

## Theorem

*Let  $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  be differentiable at  $x_0$ . Then  $f$  is continuous at  $x_0$ .*

## Proof.

This proof is all in the setup. Realize that,

$$\begin{aligned} f(x) &= \frac{f(x) - f(x_0)}{x - x_0}(x - x_0) + f(x_0) \\ &= R(x)(x - x_0) + f(x_0) \end{aligned}$$

If  $f(x)$  is continuous at  $x_0$  then,  $\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} f(x) = f(x_0)$ .

$$\begin{aligned} \lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} f(x) &= \lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} [R(x)(x - x_0) + f(x_0)] \\ &= \left( \lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} R(x) \right) \left( \lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} (x - x_0) \right) + \lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} f(x_0) \end{aligned}$$

# Continuity and Derivatives

## Theorem

*Let  $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  be differentiable at  $x_0$ . Then  $f$  is continuous at  $x_0$ .*

## Proof.

This proof is all in the setup. Realize that,

$$\begin{aligned} f(x) &= \frac{f(x) - f(x_0)}{x - x_0}(x - x_0) + f(x_0) \\ &= R(x)(x - x_0) + f(x_0) \end{aligned}$$

If  $f(x)$  is continuous at  $x_0$  then,  $\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} f(x) = f(x_0)$ .

$$\begin{aligned} \lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} f(x) &= \lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} [R(x)(x - x_0) + f(x_0)] \\ &= \left( \lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} R(x) \right) \left( \lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} (x - x_0) \right) + \lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} f(x_0) \\ &= f'(x_0)0 + f(x_0) = f(x_0) \end{aligned}$$

# What goes wrong?

Consider the following piecewise function:

$$\begin{aligned}f(x) &= x^2 \text{ for all } x \in \mathbb{R} \setminus 0 \\f(x) &= 1000 \text{ for } x = 0\end{aligned}$$

Consider derivative at 0. Then,

$$\begin{aligned}\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} R(x) &= \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(x) - 1000}{x - 0} \\&= \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{x^2}{x} - \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{1000}{x}\end{aligned}$$

$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{1000}{x}$  diverges, so the limit doesn't exist.

# Calculating Derivatives

- **Rarely** will we take limit to calculate derivative.
- Rather, rely on **rules** and properties of derivatives
- **Important**: do not forget core intuition

## Strategy:

- Algebra theorems
- Some specific derivatives
- Work on problems

# Some Derivative Rules

Suppose  $a$  is some constant,  $f(x)$  and  $g(x)$  are functions



# Some Derivative Rules

Suppose  $a$  is some constant,  $f(x)$  and  $g(x)$  are functions

$$f(x) = x \quad ; \quad f'(x) = 1$$

# Some Derivative Rules

Suppose  $a$  is some constant,  $f(x)$  and  $g(x)$  are functions

$$f(x) = x \quad ; \quad f'(x) = 1$$

$$f(x) = ax^k \quad ; \quad f'(x) = (a)(k)x^{k-1}$$

# Some Derivative Rules

Suppose  $a$  is some constant,  $f(x)$  and  $g(x)$  are functions

$$f(x) = x \quad ; \quad f'(x) = 1$$

$$f(x) = ax^k \quad ; \quad f'(x) = (a)(k)x^{k-1}$$

$$f(x) = e^x \quad ; \quad f'(x) = e^x$$

# Some Derivative Rules

Suppose  $a$  is some constant,  $f(x)$  and  $g(x)$  are functions

$$f(x) = x \quad ; \quad f'(x) = 1$$

$$f(x) = ax^k \quad ; \quad f'(x) = (a)(k)x^{k-1}$$

$$f(x) = e^x \quad ; \quad f'(x) = e^x$$

$$f(x) = \sin(x) \quad ; \quad f'(x) = \cos(x)$$

# Some Derivative Rules

Suppose  $a$  is some constant,  $f(x)$  and  $g(x)$  are functions

$$f(x) = x \quad ; \quad f'(x) = 1$$

$$f(x) = ax^k \quad ; \quad f'(x) = (a)(k)x^{k-1}$$

$$f(x) = e^x \quad ; \quad f'(x) = e^x$$

$$f(x) = \sin(x) \quad ; \quad f'(x) = \cos(x)$$

$$f(x) = \cos(x) \quad ; \quad f'(x) = -\sin(x)$$

# Algebra of Derivatives

## Theorem

*Suppose  $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  and  $g : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  and both are differentiable at  $x_0 \in \mathbb{R}$ .  
Then,*

# Algebra of Derivatives

## Theorem

*Suppose  $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  and  $g : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  and both are differentiable at  $x_0 \in \mathbb{R}$ .  
Then,*

*i)  $h(x) = f(x) + g(x)$  is differentiable at  $x_0$  and*

# Algebra of Derivatives

## Theorem

*Suppose  $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  and  $g : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  and both are differentiable at  $x_0 \in \mathbb{R}$ .  
Then,*

*i)  $h(x) = f(x) + g(x)$  is differentiable at  $x_0$  and*

$$h'(x_0) = f'(x_0) + g'(x_0)$$



# Algebra of Derivatives

## Theorem

*Suppose  $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  and  $g : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  and both are differentiable at  $x_0 \in \mathbb{R}$ . Then,*

i)  *$h(x) = f(x) + g(x)$  is differentiable at  $x_0$  and*

$$h'(x_0) = f'(x_0) + g'(x_0)$$

ii)  *$h(x) = f(x)g(x)$  is differentiable at  $x_0$  and*

# Algebra of Derivatives

## Theorem

*Suppose  $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  and  $g : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  and both are differentiable at  $x_0 \in \mathbb{R}$ . Then,*

i)  *$h(x) = f(x) + g(x)$  is differentiable at  $x_0$  and*

$$h'(x_0) = f'(x_0) + g'(x_0)$$

ii)  *$h(x) = f(x)g(x)$  is differentiable at  $x_0$  and*

$$h'(x_0) = f'(x_0)g(x_0) + g'(x_0)f(x_0)$$

# Algebra of Derivatives

## Theorem

*Suppose  $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  and  $g : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  and both are differentiable at  $x_0 \in \mathbb{R}$ . Then,*

*i)  $h(x) = f(x) + g(x)$  is differentiable at  $x_0$  and*

$$h'(x_0) = f'(x_0) + g'(x_0)$$

*ii)  $h(x) = f(x)g(x)$  is differentiable at  $x_0$  and*

$$h'(x_0) = f'(x_0)g(x_0) + g'(x_0)f(x_0)$$

*iii)  $h(x) = \frac{f(x)}{g(x)}$  with  $g(x) \neq 0$  then,*

# Algebra of Derivatives

## Theorem

*Suppose  $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  and  $g : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  and both are differentiable at  $x_0 \in \mathbb{R}$ . Then,*

i)  $h(x) = f(x) + g(x)$  is differentiable at  $x_0$  and

$$h'(x_0) = f'(x_0) + g'(x_0)$$

ii)  $h(x) = f(x)g(x)$  is differentiable at  $x_0$  and

$$h'(x_0) = f'(x_0)g(x_0) + g'(x_0)f(x_0)$$

iii)  $h(x) = \frac{f(x)}{g(x)}$  with  $g(x) \neq 0$  then,

$$h'(x_0) = \frac{f'(x_0)g(x_0) - g'(x_0)f(x_0)}{g(x_0)^2}$$

# Challenge Problems

Differentiate the following functions and evaluate at the specified value

1)  $f(x) = x^3 + 5x^2 + 4x$ , at  $x_0 = 2$

2)  $f(x) = \sin(x)x^3$  at  $x_0 = y$

3)  $f(x) = \frac{e^x}{x^3}$  at  $x = 2$

4)  $g(x) = \log(x)x^3$  at  $x = x_0$

5) Suppose  $f(x) = x^2$  and  $g(x) = x^3$ . Find all  $x$  such that  $f'(x) > g'(x)$ .

# Proving Property of Derivatives

## Theorem

*Suppose  $f(x) = x^k$  and  $k$  is a positive integer. If  $k = 0$  then  $f'(x) = 0$ . If  $k > 0$ , then,  $f'(x) = kx^{k-1}$ .*

Proof.

# Proving Property of Derivatives

## Theorem

*Suppose  $f(x) = x^k$  and  $k$  is a positive integer. If  $k = 0$  then  $f'(x) = 0$ . If  $k > 0$ , then,  $f'(x) = kx^{k-1}$ .*

## Proof.

If  $k = 0$  then,  $x^k = 1$ . The  $\lim_{x \rightarrow \tilde{x}} \frac{1-1}{x-\tilde{x}} = 0$ .

# Proving Property of Derivatives

## Theorem

*Suppose  $f(x) = x^k$  and  $k$  is a positive integer. If  $k = 0$  then  $f'(x) = 0$ . If  $k > 0$ , then,  $f'(x) = kx^{k-1}$ .*

## Proof.

If  $k = 0$  then,  $x^k = 1$ . The  $\lim_{x \rightarrow \tilde{x}} \frac{1-1}{x-\tilde{x}} = 0$ .

Suppose  $k > 0$ . We will proceed by induction. Suppose  $k = 1$ ,  $f(x) = x$



# Proving Property of Derivatives

## Theorem

*Suppose  $f(x) = x^k$  and  $k$  is a positive integer. If  $k = 0$  then  $f'(x) = 0$ . If  $k > 0$ , then,  $f'(x) = kx^{k-1}$ .*

## Proof.

If  $k = 0$  then,  $x^k = 1$ . The  $\lim_{x \rightarrow \tilde{x}} \frac{1-1}{x-\tilde{x}} = 0$ .

Suppose  $k > 0$ . We will proceed by induction. Suppose  $k = 1$ ,  $f(x) = x$

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

# Proving Property of Derivatives

## Theorem

*Suppose  $f(x) = x^k$  and  $k$  is a positive integer. If  $k = 0$  then  $f'(x) = 0$ . If  $k > 0$ , then,  $f'(x) = kx^{k-1}$ .*

## Proof.

If  $k = 0$  then,  $x^k = 1$ . The  $\lim_{x \rightarrow \tilde{x}} \frac{1-1}{x-\tilde{x}} = 0$ .

Suppose  $k > 0$ . We will proceed by induction. Suppose  $k = 1$ ,  $f(x) = x$

$$\begin{aligned} f'(\tilde{x}) &= \lim_{x \rightarrow \tilde{x}} \frac{x - \tilde{x}}{x - \tilde{x}} \\ &= 1 = 1x^0 \end{aligned}$$

# Proving Property of Derivatives

## Theorem

*Suppose  $f(x) = x^k$  and  $k$  is a positive integer. If  $k = 0$  then  $f'(x) = 0$ . If  $k > 0$ , then,  $f'(x) = kx^{k-1}$ .*

## Proof.

If  $k = 0$  then,  $x^k = 1$ . The  $\lim_{x \rightarrow \tilde{x}} \frac{1-1}{x-\tilde{x}} = 0$ .

Suppose  $k > 0$ . We will proceed by induction. Suppose  $k = 1$ ,  $f(x) = x$

$$\begin{aligned} f'(\tilde{x}) &= \lim_{x \rightarrow \tilde{x}} \frac{x - \tilde{x}}{x - \tilde{x}} \\ &= 1 = 1x^0 \end{aligned}$$

Suppose theorem holds for  $k = r$ ,  $f(x) = x^r$ . Consider  $g(x) = x^{r+1}$ . We know that  $g(x) = f(x)x$ . By product rule,

# Proving Property of Derivatives

## Theorem

Suppose  $f(x) = x^k$  and  $k$  is a positive integer. If  $k = 0$  then  $f'(x) = 0$ . If  $k > 0$ , then,  $f'(x) = kx^{k-1}$ .

## Proof.

If  $k = 0$  then,  $x^k = 1$ . The  $\lim_{x \rightarrow \tilde{x}} \frac{1-1}{x-\tilde{x}} = 0$ .

Suppose  $k > 0$ . We will proceed by induction. Suppose  $k = 1$ ,  $f(x) = x$

$$\begin{aligned} f'(\tilde{x}) &= \lim_{x \rightarrow \tilde{x}} \frac{x - \tilde{x}}{x - \tilde{x}} \\ &= 1 = 1x^0 \end{aligned}$$

Suppose theorem holds for  $k = r$ ,  $f(x) = x^r$ . Consider  $g(x) = x^{r+1}$ . We know that  $g(x) = f(x)x$ . By product rule,

$$g'(x) = f(x)x' + f'(x)x = x^r 1 + rx^{r-1}x$$

# Proving Property of Derivatives

## Theorem

Suppose  $f(x) = x^k$  and  $k$  is a positive integer. If  $k = 0$  then  $f'(x) = 0$ . If  $k > 0$ , then,  $f'(x) = kx^{k-1}$ .

## Proof.

If  $k = 0$  then,  $x^k = 1$ . The  $\lim_{x \rightarrow \tilde{x}} \frac{1-1}{x-\tilde{x}} = 0$ .

Suppose  $k > 0$ . We will proceed by induction. Suppose  $k = 1$ ,  $f(x) = x$

$$\begin{aligned} f'(\tilde{x}) &= \lim_{x \rightarrow \tilde{x}} \frac{x - \tilde{x}}{x - \tilde{x}} \\ &= 1 = 1x^0 \end{aligned}$$

Suppose theorem holds for  $k = r$ ,  $f(x) = x^r$ . Consider  $g(x) = x^{r+1}$ . We know that  $g(x) = f(x)x$ . By product rule,

$$\begin{aligned} g'(x) = f(x)x' + f'(x)x &= x^r 1 + rx^{r-1}x \\ &= x^r + rx^r = (r+1)x^r \end{aligned}$$

# Chain Rule

Common to have functions in functions

$$\begin{aligned} f(x) &= \frac{e^{-\frac{(x-\mu)^2}{2\sigma^2}}}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \\ &= \frac{f(g(x))}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \end{aligned}$$

To deal with this, we use the **chain rule**

## Theorem

*Suppose  $g : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  and  $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ . Suppose both  $f(x)$  and  $g(x)$  are differentiable at  $x_0$ . Define  $h(x) = g(f(x))$ . Then,*

$$h'(x_0) = g'(f(x_0))f'(x_0)$$

# Examples of Chain Rule in Action

- $h(x) = e^{2x}$ .  $g(x) = e^x$ .  $f(x) = 2x$ . So  
 $h(x) = g(f(x)) = g(2x) = e^{2x}$ . Taking derivatives, we have

$$h'(x) = g'(f(x))f'(x) = e^{2x}2$$

- $h(x) = \log(\cos(x))$ .  $g(x) = \log(x)$ .  $f(x) = \cos(x)$ .  
 $h(x) = g(f(x)) = g(\cos(x)) = \log(\cos(x))$

$$h'(x) = g'(f(x))f'(x) = \frac{-1}{\cos(x)} \sin(x) = -\tan(x)$$

# Derivatives and Properties of Functions

Derivatives reveal an **immense** amount about functions

- Often use to **optimize** a function (tomorrow)
- But also reveal **average rates of change**
- Or crucial properties of functions

Goal: introduce ideas. Hopefully make them less shocking when you see them in work



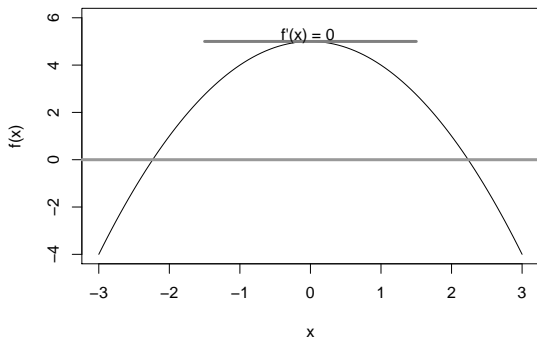
# Relative Maxima, Minima and Derivatives

## Theorem

Suppose  $f : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ . Suppose  $f$  has a relative maxima or minima on  $(a, b)$  and call that  $c \in (a, b)$ . Then  $f'(c) = 0$ .

Intuition:

Rolle's Theorem



# Relative Maxima, Minima and Derivatives

## Theorem

**Rolle's Theorem** Suppose  $f : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  and  $f$  is continuous on  $[a, b]$  and differentiable on  $(a, b)$ . Then if  $f(a) = f(b) = 0$ , there is  $c \in (a, b)$  such that  $f'(c) = 0$ .

Proof **Intuition** Consider (WLOG) a relative maximum  $c$ . Consider the left-hand and right-hand limits

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow c^-} \frac{f(x) - f(c)}{x - c} \geq 0$$
$$\lim_{x \rightarrow c^+} \frac{f(x) - f(c)}{x - c} \leq 0$$

## Theorem

**Rolle's Theorem** Suppose  $f : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  and  $f$  is continuous on  $[a, b]$  and differentiable on  $(a, b)$ . Then if  $f(a) = f(b) = 0$ , there is  $c \in (a, b)$  such that  $f'(c) = 0$ .

But we also know that

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

The only way, then, that

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow c^-} \frac{f(x) - f(c)}{x - c} = \lim_{x \rightarrow c^+} \frac{f(x) - f(c)}{x - c} \text{ is if } f'(c) = 0.$$

# What Goes Up Must Come Down

## Theorem

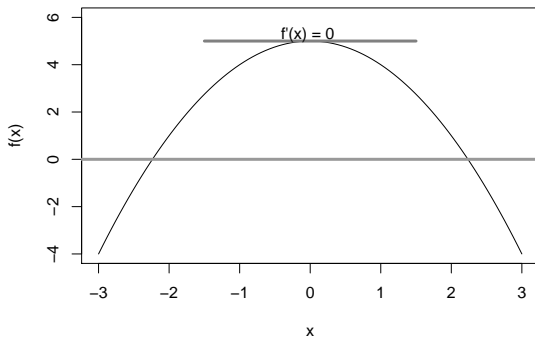
***Rolle's Theorem** Suppose  $f : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  and  $f$  is continuous on  $[a, b]$  and differentiable on  $(a, b)$ . Then if  $f(a) = f(b) = 0$ , there is  $c \in (a, b)$  such that  $f'(c) = 0$ .*

# What Goes Up Must Come Down

## Theorem

**Rolle's Theorem** Suppose  $f : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  and  $f$  is continuous on  $[a, b]$  and differentiable on  $(a, b)$ . Then if  $f(a) = f(b) = 0$ , there is  $c \in (a, b)$  such that  $f'(c) = 0$ .

Rolle's Theorem



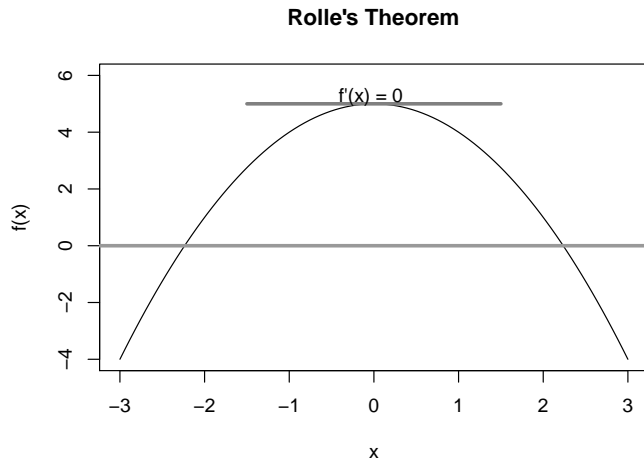
# Mean Value Theorem

## Theorem

*If  $f : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is continuous on  $[a, b]$  and differentiable on  $(a, b)$ , then there is a  $c \in (a, b)$  such that*

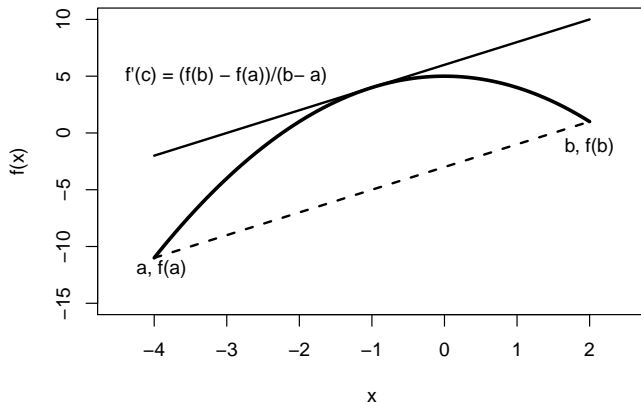
$$f'(c) = \frac{f(b) - f(a)}{b - a}$$

## Rolle's Theorem, Rotated



# Rolle's Theorem, Rotated

## Mean Value Theorem





# Why You Should Care

- 1) This will come up in a formal theory article. You'll at least know where to look
- 2) It allows us to say lots of powerful stuff about functions

# Powerful Applications of Mean Value Theorem

## Theorem

*Suppose that  $f : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is continuous on  $[a, b]$  and differentiable on  $(a, b)$ . Then,*

- i) If  $f'(x) \neq 0$  for all  $x \in (a, b)$  then  $f$  is 1-1*
- ii) If  $f'(x) = 0$  then  $f(x)$  is constant*
- iii) If  $f'(x) > 0$  for all  $x \in (a, b)$  then  $f$  is strictly increasing*
- iv) If  $f'(x) < 0$  for all  $x \in (a, b)$  then  $f$  is strictly decreasing*

Let's prove these in turn

- Why—because they are just about applying ideas

If  $f'(x) \neq 0$  for all  $x \in (a, b)$  then  $f$  is 1-1

By way of contradiction, suppose that  $f$  is not 1-1. Then there is  $x, y \in (a, b)$  such that  $f(x) = f(y)$ . Then,

$$f'(c) = \frac{f(x) - f(y)}{x - y} = \frac{0}{x - y} = 0$$

If  $f'(x) \neq 0$  for all  $x \in (a, b)$  then  $f$  is 1-1



If  $f'(x) \neq 0$  for all  $x \in (a, b)$  then  $f$  is 1-1



$f' \neq 0$  for all  $x$ !

If  $f'(x) = 0$  then  $f(x)$  is constant

By way of contradiction, suppose that there is  $x, y \in (a, b)$  such that  $f(x) \neq f(y)$ . But then,

$$f'(c) = \frac{f(x) - f(y)}{x - y} \neq 0$$

contradiction

If  $f'(x) > 0$  for all  $x \in (a, b)$  then  $f$  is strictly increasing

By way of contradiction, suppose that there is  $x, y \in (a, b)$  with  $y < x$  but  $f(y) > f(x)$ . But then,

$$f'(c) = \frac{f(x) - f(y)}{x - y} < 0$$

contradiction

Bonus: proof for strictly decreasing

# Approximating functions and second order conditions

## Theorem

**Taylor's Theorem** Suppose  $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ ,  $f(x)$  is infinitely differentiable function. Then, the Taylor expansion of  $f(x)$  around  $a$  is given by

$$f(x) = f(a) + \frac{f'(a)}{1!}(x-a) + \frac{f''(a)}{2!}(x-a)^2 + \frac{f'''(a)}{3!}(x-a)^3 + \dots$$

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



# Example Function

Suppose  $a = 0$  and  $f(x) = e^x$ . Then,

$$f'(x) = e^x$$

$$f''(x) = e^x$$

$$\vdots \quad \vdots \quad \vdots$$

$$f^n(x) = e^x$$

This implies

$$e^x = 1 + x + \frac{x^2}{2!} + \frac{x^3}{3!} \dots + \frac{x^n}{n!} + \dots$$

# Wrap up

Lots of territory.

What are your questions?

This Week

Lab Tonight!