Limit, Derivative, Extrema of a Function

Hayk Aprikyan, Hayk Tarkhanyan

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In real life where you sell more goods rather than apples, the situation looks more complicated. For example, your profits look like

$$f(x, y, z, t) = 3xy^{2} - y \log t - (1 - y) \log(1 - t) + \frac{z^{3}}{t}$$

with real-time values x = 4, y = 0.4, z = 0.8, t = 55, and you should decide whether to increase or decrease each of x, y, z, t (and how much).

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Example

- 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, ...
- \bullet 1, -1, 1, -1, 1, ...
- 0, 0.2, 0.4, 0.6, 0.8, ...
- 6, 6, 6, 6, 6, ...

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We usually fix a letter, say a, and denote the first term by a_1 , the second term by a_2 , and so on. In general, for the n^{th} term we write a_n , and to denote the whole sequence we use $\{a_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$.

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We usually fix a letter, say a, and denote the first term by a_1 , the second term by a_2 , and so on. In general, for the n^{th} term we write a_n , and to denote the whole sequence we use $\{a_n\}$ or $\{a_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$.

Sometimes it also comes in handy to give the formula of the general n^{th} term, e.g. $a_n = n^2$ or $\{a_n\} = \{n^2\}$, which means:

$$a_1 = 1,$$
 $a_2 = 4,$ $a_3 = 9,$...

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There are many interesting examples of sequences. Take, for example, the sequence $a_n = \frac{1}{n}$:

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Question

Does the sequence become equal to 0 at some point?

Interestingly, it does not: The numbers come arbitrarily close to 0 but they never actually become 0. This shows that the sequence may or may not eventually equal to its limit.

Definition

We say that $\{a_n\}$ converges to the number L (or that the number L is its **limit**), denoted as

$$\lim_{n\to\infty} a_n = L \qquad (\text{or } a_n \to L)$$

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and then whatever number you say (e.g. "not further than 0.002"), we can point out some number N (say, N=1000) such that after the $N^{\rm th}$ term, all others are close to L by 0.002, i.e.

$$|a_N - L| < 0.002, \quad |a_{N+1} - L| < 0.002, \quad |a_{N+2} - L| < 0.002, \quad \ldots$$

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So more technically, $\lim_{n\to\infty} a_n = L$ means that

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If $\{a_n\}$ has a *finite* limit, we say that it is **convergent**, otherwise it is **divergent**.

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- ullet $c^n o +\infty$ if c>1, but $c^n o 0$ if |c|<1
- If a sequence consists of the same number (or if it becomes constant starting from some point), the limit is that number.

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More examples (we will not go further into details):

Example

Consider the sequence $\{\frac{1}{n}\}$. We claim that $\lim_{n\to\infty}\frac{1}{n}=0$.

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Proof: For any $\varepsilon > 0$, choose N such that $\frac{1}{N} < \varepsilon$. Then, for all $n \ge N$, we have

$$\left|\frac{1}{n}-0\right|=\frac{1}{n}<\frac{1}{N}<\varepsilon.$$

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Example

Consider the sequence $\{0.3n\}$. $\lim_{n\to\infty} 0.3n = \infty$ (it is divergent).

Properties

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} (a_n + b_n) = L + M$$

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} (a_n - b_n) = L - M$$

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} (a_n \cdot b_n) = L \cdot M$$

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{a_n}{b_n} = \frac{L}{M} \qquad (\text{if } M \neq 0)$$

Properties^b

• If $\lim_{n\to\infty} a_n = L$ and $\lim_{n\to\infty} b_n = M$, then

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$$\lim_{n\to\infty}(c\cdot a_n)=c\cdot L.$$

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3 If $a_n \le b_n \le c_n$ for all n and $\lim_{n \to \infty} a_n = \lim_{n \to \infty} c_n = L$, then $\lim_{n \to \infty} b_n = L$.

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Now that we have the notion of

$$\lim_{n\to\infty} \left(2+\frac{1}{n}\right)^3$$

what do you think the expression

$$\lim_{x\to 0} (2+x)^3$$

would mean?

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Similarly to sequences, we can define the limit of the above expression, i.e. of the function

$$f(x)=(2+x)^3,$$

as x approaches 0.

How do we do that?

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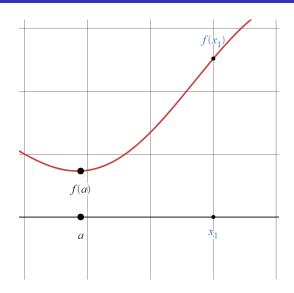
would mean?

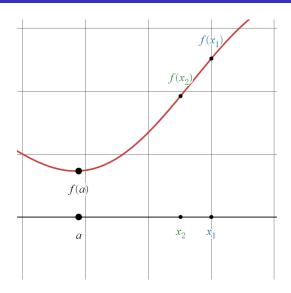
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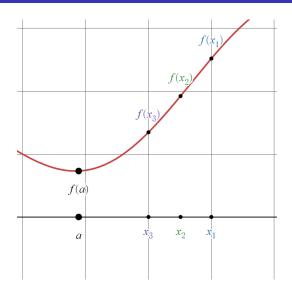
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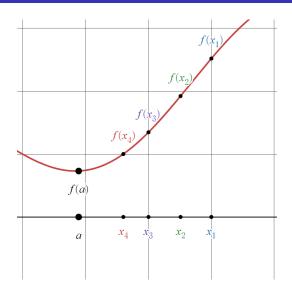
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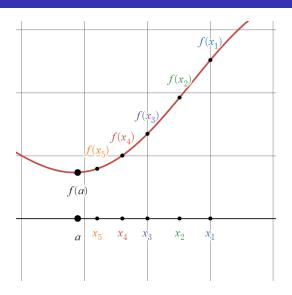
How do we do that? We can say: take any sequence x_n that converges to a, calculate the values of f(x) at x_1, x_2, \ldots , and see what happens.

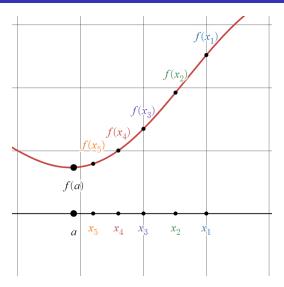






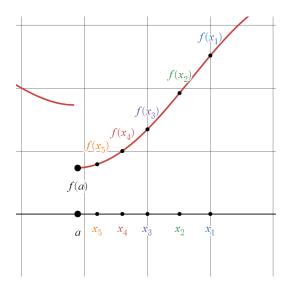






If numbers $f(x_1)$, $f(x_2)$, ... approach some limit L, then $\lim_{x \to \infty} f(x) = L$

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It may happen that if $x_n \to a$ from the other side, we get another "limit"

In the second case, we say that the limit does not exist and the function is **discontinuous** at that point.

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Definition

If for **all** sequences $x_n \to a$ (no matter from left or right), the sequence

$$f(x_1), f(x_2), f(x_3), \ldots, f(x_n), \ldots$$

converges to a certain number L, then we say

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

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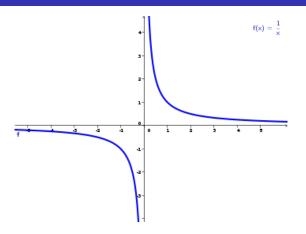
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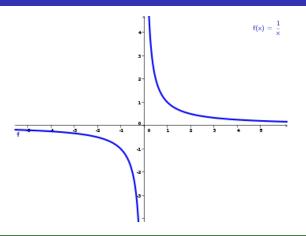
In other words, if the value of f(x) always approaches L, as its input approaches a.

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Example

$$\lim_{x \to 3} \frac{1}{x} = \frac{1}{3}$$

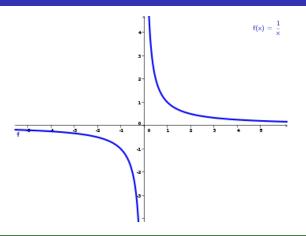


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A function f(x) is said to be **continuous** at the point c if it is defined at c and

- 1 $\lim_{x \to c} f(x)$ exists, 2 $\lim_{x \to c} f(x) = f(c)$ (i.e. limit = value).

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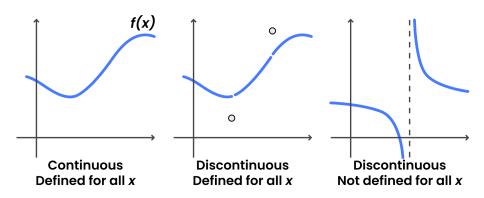
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- $\lim_{x \to c} f(x) \text{ exists,}$
- $\lim_{x\to c} f(x) = f(c) \text{ (i.e. limit} = \text{value)}.$

If a function is continuous at all points, it is called a **continuous function**.

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Properties

•
$$f + g$$

Properties

- f + g
- f − g

Properties

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If f and g are continuous at some point a, then

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In fact, most "good" functions are continuous (in their domains!):

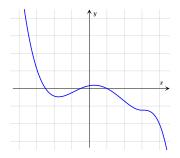
- Polynomials (e.g. $x^2 + 7x 1$, $xy y^4 + z$)
- Root functions (e.g. \sqrt{x} , $\sqrt[5]{x}$)
- Exponential and logarithmic functions (e.g. 2^x , e^{3x} , $\ln x$)
- Trigonometric functions and their inverses (e.g. cos(3x), arcsin x)

Derivative

Continuous functions are better and more preferable to work with (continuous $= \heartsuit$), and many processes in the world are actually described by continuous functions.

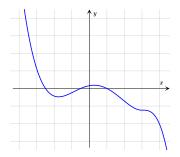
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Now assume we want to maximize or minimize this function.

Continuous functions are better and more preferable to work with (continuous $= \heartsuit$), and many processes in the world are actually described by continuous functions.



Now assume we want to maximize or minimize this function. Notice how at some points it changes "faster" than at the others. How can we measure that?

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Note that f'(x) is a **function** itself and not a fixed number!

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If a function is differentiable at some point, then it is also continuous, but the reverse is not always true.

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The function f(x) = |x| is continuous but it is not differentiable at point x = 0.

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Similarly, we can compute the derivative of f'(x) itself (it will show the speed of the speed of f(x), i.e. its *acceleration*).

We denote the derivative of f'(x) by f''(x), that of f''(x) by f'''(x), and so on. The derivative taken of f(x) n times is also denoted by $f^{(n)}(x)$.

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• For any constant n, the derivative of $f(x) = x^n$ is:

$$(x^n)' = nx^{n-1}$$

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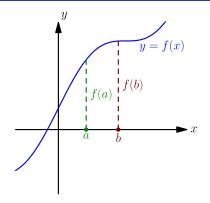
$$(\cos x)' = -\sin x$$

These formulas might seem to much, but you do not have to memorize them—after using them for a while, one begins to "feel" how fast or slow a given function is.

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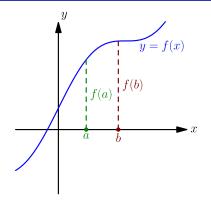
Derivatives tell about amazingly many interesting properties of the function.

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We say that a function f(x) is **increasing** at the point a if

$$f(c) < f(a) < f(b)$$
 when $c < a < b$

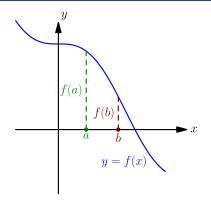


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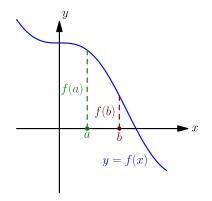
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Question

What if f'(a) = 0?

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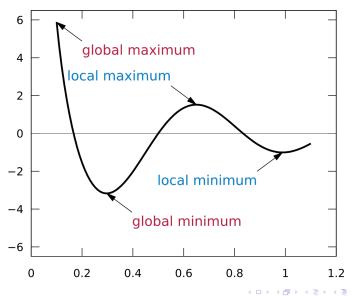
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Theorem

Every continuous function f has both a global maximum and a global minimum on any **closed** interval [a, b].



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Example

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$$f_1'(x) = 2x, \qquad f_1'(0) = 0$$

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Hence, the condition f'(x) = 0 is necessary but not sufficient.

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How can we tell if a critical point is a local minimum/maximum point?

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Theorem 1 (f'' at one point)

If $f'(x_0) = 0$ and there exists finite $f''(x_0)$, then

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Theorem 2 (f' at multiple points)

If for some $\delta > 0$, f is differentiable in the intervals $(x_0 - \delta, x_0)$ and $(x_0, x_0 + \delta)$ and continuous at x_0 , then

- If f'(x) > 0 for $x \in (x_0 \delta, x_0)$ and f'(x) < 0 for $x \in (x_0, x_0 + \delta)$, then x_0 is a local maximum point.
- ② If f'(x) < 0 for $x \in (x_0 \delta, x_0)$ and f'(x) > 0 for $x \in (x_0, x_0 + \delta)$, then x_0 is a local minimum point.
- **3** If f'(x) doesn't change its sign, then x_0 is not an extremum point.

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Wrapping up, how can we use our knowledge to find the local extrema of a given function f(x)?

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- Step 3: a) If there exists finite $f''(x_0) \neq 0$, use Theorem 1. b) If you find the sign of f'(x) on left and right "sides" of x_0 , use Theorem 2.