# Cascade Schemes for Calculus Exercises

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#### Introduction

This document collects cascade schemes for exercises, techniques, and fundamental concepts in calculus, organized by chapter. Each scheme follows a hierarchical and synthetic model to facilitate quick consultation and memorization.

#### Integrals 1

In this section we will explore some types of exercises that can be asked in a typical calculus exam. Specifically we will explore two categories:

- Integral function exercises
- Improper integral exercises

#### 1.1 Integral function exercises

#### Computing the derivative of a composition of the integral function

**Key Question:** How can we compute the derivative of a function that is the composition of the integral function with another function?

- Remember the derivative formula for composite functions
  - $(f \circ g)'(x) = f'(g(x)) \cdot g'(x)$
- Consider Torricelli's Theorem
  - $F(x) = \int_a^x f(t)dt$
  - F'(x) = f(x)
- Example
  - $G(x) = \int_{a}^{m(x)} f(t) dt = F(m(x))$
  - $G'(x) = F'(m(x)) \cdot m'(x) = f(m(x)) \cdot m'(x)$

#### Computing the derivative of an integral with variable limits

**Key Question:** How can we compute the derivative of a function defined by an integral where both limits depend on x, i.e.,  $G(x) = \int_{n(x)}^{m(x)} f(t)dt$ ?

1. Split the integral using a constant lower limit

- - Use the property of definite integrals:  $\int_a^b f(t)dt = \int_c^b f(t)dt \int_c^a f(t)dt$ .
  - Apply this to G(x): Choose an arbitrary constant a (often 0 or 1) in the domain of f.

$$G(x) = \int_{n(x)}^{m(x)} f(t)dt = \int_{a}^{m(x)} f(t)dt - \int_{a}^{n(x)} f(t)dt$$

- 2. Define an auxiliary function using Torricelli's Theorem
  - Let  $F(x) = \int_a^x f(t)dt$ .
  - By the Fundamental Theorem of Calculus (Part 1 / Torricelli's Theorem), F'(x) =
  - Rewrite G(x) using F: G(x) = F(m(x)) F(n(x)).
- 3. Differentiate using the Chain Rule

• Apply the chain rule to differentiate F(m(x)) and F(n(x)):

$$(F(h(x)))' = F'(h(x)) \cdot h'(x) = f(h(x)) \cdot h'(x)$$

• Therefore, the derivative of G(x) is:

$$G'(x) = \frac{d}{dx}[F(m(x))] - \frac{d}{dx}[F(n(x))]$$

$$G'(x) = F'(m(x)) \cdot m'(x) - F'(n(x)) \cdot n'(x)$$

$$G'(x) = f(m(x)) \cdot m'(x) - f(n(x)) \cdot n'(x)$$

#### 4. Example

- Compute the derivative of  $G(x) = \int_x^{2x} \frac{\sin t}{t} dt$ .
- Here,  $f(t) = \frac{\sin t}{t}$ , m(x) = 2x, and n(x) = x.
- Choose a = 1 (any constant works). Let  $F(x) = \int_1^x \frac{\sin t}{t} dt$ .
- Then G(x) = F(2x) F(x).
- The derivatives are m'(x) = 2 and n'(x) = 1.
- Applying the formula:

$$G'(x) = f(m(x)) \cdot m'(x) - f(n(x)) \cdot n'(x)$$

$$G'(x) = f(2x) \cdot 2 - f(x) \cdot 1$$

$$G'(x) = \frac{\sin(2x)}{2x} \cdot 2 - \frac{\sin x}{x} \cdot 1$$

$$G'(x) = \frac{\sin(2x)}{x} - \frac{\sin x}{x} = \frac{\sin(2x) - \sin x}{x}$$

#### Computing limits involving integrals and indeterminate forms

**Key Question:** How to compute the limit:

$$\lim_{x \to 0} \frac{x - \int_0^x (e^{-t^2} + \sin^2 t) dt}{x(x^2 - \sin^2 x)}$$

- Initial Check: Identify Indeterminate Form
  - Substitute x = 0 into the numerator:  $0 \int_0^0 (e^{-t^2} + \sin^2 t) dt = 0 0 = 0$ .
  - Substitute x = 0 into the denominator:  $0 \cdot (0^2 \sin^2 0) = 0 \cdot (0 0) = 0$ .
  - The limit presents the indeterminate form  $\begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ \overline{0} \end{bmatrix}$ .
- Apply L'Hôpital's Rule
  - Differentiate the numerator with respect to x. Requires the Fundamental Theorem of Calculus (Torricelli-Barrow) for the integral part:

$$\frac{d}{dx}\left(x - \int_0^x (e^{-t^2} + \sin^2 t)dt\right) = 1 - (e^{-x^2} + \sin^2 x)$$

• Differentiate the denominator with respect to x using the product rule:

$$\frac{d}{dx}(x(x^2 - \sin^2 x)) = (x^2 - \sin^2 x) + (2x^2 - x\sin(2x))$$

• The limit becomes (applying L'Hôpital's Rule):

$$L \stackrel{H}{=} \lim_{x \to 0} \frac{1 - e^{-x^2} - \sin^2 x}{(x^2 - \sin^2 x) + (2x^2 - x\sin(2x))}$$

- Evaluate the New Limit (Using Taylor Series Approximation)
  - The limit is still in the form  $\begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$ . Further application of L'Hôpital's Rule is possible, but Taylor expansions are often more efficient.
  - Approximate numerator and denominator for  $x \to 0$ :
    - $1 e^{-x^2} \sin^2 x = \frac{5}{6}x^4 + o(x^4)$
    - $(x^2 \sin^2 x) + (2x^2 x\sin(2x)) = \frac{5}{3}x^4 + o(x^4)$

(Note: These approximations are taken from the image provided).

• Substitute the approximations back into the limit:

$$L = \lim_{x \to 0} \frac{\frac{5}{6}x^4 + o(x^4)}{\frac{5}{3}x^4 + o(x^4)} = \frac{5/6}{5/3} = \frac{5}{6} \cdot \frac{3}{5} = \frac{1}{2}$$

• **Result:** The limit exists and its value is  $\frac{1}{2}$ .

#### Computing Maclaurin Polynomials for Composite Functions with Integrals

**Key Question:** How to determine the Maclaurin polynomial for  $F(x) = \sin\left(\int_0^x e^{-t^2} dt\right)$ ?

- Define Auxiliary Function for the Integral
  - Let  $G(x) = \int_0^x e^{-t^2} dt$ .
  - The original function becomes  $F(x) = \sin(G(x))$ .
- Find the Maclaurin Series for the Auxiliary Function G(x)
  - Calculate derivatives of G(x) and evaluate at x=0:
    - $G(0) = \int_0^0 e^{-t^2} dt = 0$
    - $G'(x) = e^{-x^2}$  (by Fundamental Theorem of Calculus)  $\to G'(0) = e^0 = 1$
    - $G''(x) = -2xe^{-x^2} \to G''(0) = 0$
    - $G'''(x) = -2e^{-x^2} + 4x^2e^{-x^2} \to G'''(0) = -2$
  - Construct the Maclaurin series for G(x) using  $G(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{G^{(n)}(0)}{n!} x^n$ :

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$$G(x) = G(0) + G'(0)x + \frac{G''(0)}{2!}x^2 + \frac{G'''(0)}{3!}x^3 + o(x^3)$$

$$G(x) = 0 + 1 \cdot x + \frac{0}{2}x^2 + \frac{-2}{6}x^3 + o(x^3) = x - \frac{1}{3}x^3 + o(x^3)$$

• Use the Known Maclaurin Series for the Outer Function (sin)

• Recall the Maclaurin series for  $\sin(z)$ :

$$\sin(z) = z - \frac{z^3}{6} + o(z^3)$$

- Substitute the Series for G(x) into the Series for  $\sin(z)$ 
  - Replace z with  $G(x) = x \frac{1}{3}x^3 + o(x^3)$ :

$$F(x) = \sin(G(x)) = \left(x - \frac{1}{3}x^3 + o(x^3)\right) - \frac{1}{6}\left(x - \frac{1}{3}x^3 + o(x^3)\right)^3 + o\left((G(x))^3\right)$$

- Since  $G(x) \approx x$  for  $x \to 0$ , we have  $o((G(x))^3) = o(x^3)$ .
- Expand and keep terms up to  $x^3$ :

$$\left(x - \frac{1}{3}x^3 + o(x^3)\right)^3 = (x + o(x))^3 = x^3 + o(x^3)$$

• Substitute back:

$$F(x) = \left(x - \frac{1}{3}x^3\right) - \frac{1}{6}(x^3) + o(x^3)$$

$$F(x) = x - \left(\frac{1}{3} + \frac{1}{6}\right)x^3 + o(x^3) = x - \frac{2+1}{6}x^3 + o(x^3) = x - \frac{3}{6}x^3 + o(x^3)$$

$$F(x) = x - \frac{1}{2}x^3 + o(x^3)$$

- Result: Maclaurin Polynomial
  - The Maclaurin polynomial of order 3 for F(x) is  $P_3(x) = x \frac{1}{2}x^3$ .

#### Proving Existence and Uniqueness of Solutions Involving Integral Functions

**Key Question:** How to prove that the equation f(x) = 1 - x, where  $f(x) = \int_0^x e^{-t^2} dt$ , has a unique solution?

- Reformulate the Problem
  - Define a new function g(x) = f(x) (1 x) = f(x) + x 1.
  - The original problem is equivalent to proving that g(x) = 0 has exactly one solution (a unique zero).
- Prove Existence of a Zero (Intermediate Value Theorem)
  - Continuity: f(x) is continuous because it's an integral function of a continuous integrand  $(e^{-t^2})$ . The term x-1 is also continuous. Therefore, g(x) is continuous on  $\mathbb{R}$ .
  - Find points with opposite signs:
    - Evaluate g(0):  $g(0) = f(0) + 0 1 = \int_0^0 e^{-t^2} dt 1 = 0 1 = -1$ . So, g(0) < 0.
    - Evaluate the limit as  $x \to +\infty$ :

$$\lim_{x \to +\infty} g(x) = \lim_{x \to +\infty} \left( \int_0^x e^{-t^2} dt + x - 1 \right)$$

The integral  $\int_0^\infty e^{-t^2} dt$  converges to a finite value  $(\frac{\sqrt{\pi}}{2})$ . The term x goes to  $+\infty$ .

$$\lim_{x\to +\infty}g(x)=\left(\lim_{x\to +\infty}\int_0^x e^{-t^2}dt\right)+\left(\lim_{x\to +\infty}x\right)-1=\frac{\sqrt{\pi}}{2}+\infty-1=+\infty$$

- Since the limit is  $+\infty$ , there must exist some value  $\bar{x}$  such that for all  $x > \bar{x}$ , g(x) > 0. Let's pick one such value  $\bar{x}$ .
- Apply IVT: Since g(x) is continuous on  $[0, \bar{x}]$ , g(0) < 0, and  $g(\bar{x}) > 0$ , the Intermediate Value Theorem guarantees that there exists at least one  $x_0 \in (0, \bar{x})$  such that  $g(x_0) = 0$ .
- Prove Uniqueness of the Zero (Monotonicity)
  - Calculate the derivative g'(x):

$$g'(x) = \frac{d}{dx}(f(x) + x - 1) = f'(x) + 1$$

• Apply the Fundamental Theorem of Calculus to find f'(x):

$$f'(x) = \frac{d}{dx} \left( \int_0^x e^{-t^2} dt \right) = e^{-x^2}$$

• Substitute back into g'(x):

$$g'(x) = e^{-x^2} + 1$$

- Analyze the sign of g'(x): Since  $e^{-x^2} > 0$  for all real x, we have  $g'(x) = e^{-x^2} + 1 > 0 + 1 = 1$ .
- Since g'(x) > 0 for all  $x \in \mathbb{R}$ , the function g(x) is strictly increasing on its entire domain.

#### Conclusion

- We have shown that g(x) = 0 has at least one solution (by IVT).
- We have shown that g(x) is strictly increasing, which means it can cross the x-axis (equal zero) at most once.
- Therefore, the equation g(x) = 0 has exactly one unique solution. This implies the original equation f(x) = 1 x also has a unique solution.

# Finding Order and Principal Part for Functions with Integrals (Derivative Method)

**Key Question:** Determine the order and principal part of  $G(x) = x - \int_0^x e^{-(t+x)^2} dt$  as  $x \to 0$ .

- Strategy: Analyze the Derivative G'(x)
  - It's often easier to find the Maclaurin expansion (order/principal part) of the derivative first, and then integrate.
  - Simplify the integral (Optional Variable Change): Let z = t + x, dz = dt.

Limits change from  $t \in [0, x]$  to  $z \in [x, 2x]$ .

$$G(x) = x - \int_x^{2x} e^{-z^2} dz$$

• Rewrite using a fixed lower limit: Let  $H(x) = \int_0^x e^{-t^2} dt$ . Then  $\int_x^{2x} e^{-z^2} dz = H(2x) - H(x)$ .

$$G(x) = x - (H(2x) - H(x)) = x - H(2x) + H(x)$$

- Compute the Derivative G'(x)
  - Apply differentiation rules, including the Fundamental Theorem of Calculus and Chain Rule:

$$G'(x) = \frac{d}{dx}(x) - \frac{d}{dx}(H(2x)) + \frac{d}{dx}(H(x))$$
$$G'(x) = 1 - (H'(2x) \cdot 2) + H'(x)$$

Since  $H'(x) = e^{-x^2}$ :

$$G'(x) = 1 - (e^{-(2x)^2} \cdot 2) + e^{-x^2} = 1 - 2e^{-4x^2} + e^{-x^2}$$

- Find Maclaurin Expansion of G'(x)
  - Use the known expansion  $e^u = 1 + u + o(u)$  for  $u \to 0$ .
  - $e^{-4x^2} = 1 4x^2 + o(x^2)$
  - $e^{-x^2} = 1 x^2 + o(x^2)$
  - Substitute into G'(x):

$$G'(x) = 1 - 2(1 - 4x^{2} + o(x^{2})) + (1 - x^{2} + o(x^{2}))$$

$$G'(x) = 1 - 2 + 8x^{2} + o(x^{2}) + 1 - x^{2} + o(x^{2})$$

$$G'(x) = (1 - 2 + 1) + (8x^{2} - x^{2}) + o(x^{2}) = 7x^{2} + o(x^{2})$$

- The principal part of G'(x) is  $7x^2$ , and its order is 2.
- Determine Order and Principal Part of G(x)
  - Since  $G'(x) \sim 7x^2$  as  $x \to 0$ , and  $G(0) = 0 \int_0^0 \dots = 0$ , we can integrate the principal part of G'(x) to find the principal part of G(x):

$$G(x) \approx \int_0^x 7t^2 dt = 7 \left[ \frac{t^3}{3} \right]_0^x = \frac{7}{3} x^3$$

- The principal part of G(x) is  $\frac{7}{3}x^3$ .
- The order of G(x) is 3.
- Thus,  $G(x) = \frac{7}{3}x^3 + o(x^3)$  for  $x \to 0$ .
- Verification (Using L'Hôpital's Rule on the Remainder)
  - To confirm  $G(x) = \frac{7}{3}x^3 + o(x^3)$ , we must show  $\lim_{x\to 0} \frac{G(x) \frac{7}{3}x^3}{x^3} = 0$ .

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• Apply L'Hôpital's Rule (since form is  $\frac{0}{0}$ ):

$$\lim_{x \to 0} \frac{G'(x) - \frac{d}{dx} (\frac{7}{3}x^3)}{\frac{d}{dx}(x^3)} = \lim_{x \to 0} \frac{G'(x) - 7x^2}{3x^2}$$

• Substitute the expansion of G'(x):

$$\lim_{x \to 0} \frac{(7x^2 + o(x^2)) - 7x^2}{3x^2} = \lim_{x \to 0} \frac{o(x^2)}{3x^2} = 0$$

• The limit is 0, confirming the order and principal part.

#### Qualitative Graph Sketching of Integral Functions near x

**Key Question:** How to draw a qualitative graph of  $f(x) = \int_0^x \frac{e^t}{2t^2+1} dt$  in a neighborhood of x = 0?

- Strategy: Analyze Local Behavior using Derivatives at x=0
  - The behavior of a function near a point (like x = 0) is determined by its value and the values of its derivatives at that point. This is the foundation of Taylor series approximations.
- Calculate f(0)
  - Substitute x = 0 into the integral definition:

$$f(0) = \int_0^0 \frac{e^t}{2t^2 + 1} dt = 0$$

- The function passes through the origin (0,0).
- Calculate f'(x) and f'(0)
  - Apply the Fundamental Theorem of Calculus (Part 1):

$$f'(x) = \frac{d}{dx} \left( \int_0^x \frac{e^t}{2t^2 + 1} dt \right) = \frac{e^x}{2x^2 + 1}$$

• Evaluate at x = 0:

$$f'(0) = \frac{e^0}{2(0)^2 + 1} = \frac{1}{1} = 1$$

- The slope of the tangent line at the origin is 1. The function is increasing at x = 0.
- Calculate f''(x) and f''(0)
  - Differentiate f'(x) using the quotient rule  $\left(\frac{u}{v}\right)' = \frac{u'v uv'}{v^2}$ :

$$v = 2x^{2} + 1v' = 4x$$

$$(2x^{2} + 1) - (e^{x})(4x) - e^{x}(2x^{2} - 4x + 4x)$$

$$f''(x) = \frac{(e^x)(2x^2 + 1) - (e^x)(4x)}{(2x^2 + 1)^2} = \frac{e^x(2x^2 - 4x + 1)}{(2x^2 + 1)^2}$$

 $u = e^x u' = e^x$ 

• Evaluate at x = 0:

$$f''(0) = \frac{e^0(2(0)^2 - 4(0) + 1)}{(2(0)^2 + 1)^2} = \frac{1(1)}{(1)^2} = 1$$

- Since f''(0) > 0, the function is concave up at x = 0.
- Sketching the Graph near x=0
  - The graph passes through (0,0).
  - The tangent line at (0,0) has a slope of 1 (like the line y=x).
  - The graph is concave up at (0,0), meaning it lies above its tangent line near the point of tangency.
  - Combining these: Start at the origin, draw a curve that is initially tangent to y = x and curves upwards (concave up).

#### Limit Computation using Integral Inequalities and Squeeze Theorem

**Key Question:** Calculate the limit  $L = \lim_{x\to 0^+} x \int_{x-x^2}^x \frac{dt}{\sin^3 t}$ , if it exists.

- Step 1: Analyze Integrand and Integration Interval
  - The integration variable is t, and the interval is  $[x x^2, x]$ .
  - As  $x \to 0^+$ , both x and  $x x^2 = x(1 x)$  approach  $0^+$ . Thus,  $t \to 0^+$ .
  - For  $t \in (0, \pi/2)$ , sin t is positive and strictly increasing.
  - Consequently,  $\sin^3 t$  is also positive and strictly increasing for  $t \in (0, \pi/2)$ .
  - Therefore, the integrand  $g(t) = \frac{1}{\sin^3 t}$  is positive and strictly decreasing for t in the interval  $(0, \pi/2)$ .
- Step 2: Establish Inequalities for the Integrand
  - Since  $t \in [x-x^2, x]$  and  $g(t) = \frac{1}{\sin^3 t}$  is decreasing on this interval (for sufficiently small positive x), the minimum value of g(t) occurs at t = x and the maximum value occurs at  $t = x x^2$ .
  - For  $t \in [x x^2, x]$ , we have:

$$\frac{1}{\sin^3 x} \le \frac{1}{\sin^3 t} \le \frac{1}{\sin^3 (x - x^2)}$$

- Step 3: Integrate the Inequalities
  - Integrate all parts of the inequality over the interval  $[x-x^2, x]$ . Since the bounds  $\frac{1}{\sin^3 x}$  and  $\frac{1}{\sin^3 (x-x^2)}$  are constant with respect to t, we get:

$$\int_{x-x^2}^x \frac{1}{\sin^3 x} dt \le \int_{x-x^2}^x \frac{1}{\sin^3 t} dt \le \int_{x-x^2}^x \frac{1}{\sin^3 (x-x^2)} dt$$

• The length of the integration interval is  $x - (x - x^2) = x^2$ .

$$\frac{1}{\sin^3 x} \cdot x^2 \le \int_{x-x^2}^x \frac{1}{\sin^3 t} dt \le \frac{1}{\sin^3 (x-x^2)} \cdot x^2$$

$$\frac{x^2}{\sin^3 x} \le \int_{x-x^2}^x \frac{1}{\sin^3 t} dt \le \frac{x^2}{\sin^3 (x-x^2)}$$

- Step 4: Incorporate the External Factor and Compute Limits
  - Multiply the inequality by x (note x > 0 as  $x \to 0^+$ ):

$$\frac{x^3}{\sin^3 x} \le x \int_{x-x^2}^x \frac{1}{\sin^3 t} dt \le \frac{x^3}{\sin^3 (x-x^2)}$$

• Compute the limit of the lower bound as  $x \to 0^+$ :

$$\lim_{x \to 0^+} \frac{x^3}{\sin^3 x} = \lim_{x \to 0^+} \left(\frac{x}{\sin x}\right)^3 = (1)^3 = 1$$

(using the standard limit  $\lim_{u\to 0} \frac{\sin u}{u} = 1$ )

• Compute the limit of the upper bound as  $x \to 0^+$ :

$$\lim_{x \to 0^+} \frac{x^3}{\sin^3(x - x^2)} = \lim_{x \to 0^+} \left(\frac{x}{\sin(x - x^2)}\right)^3$$

We use  $\sin(x-x^2) \sim x - x^2$  as  $x \to 0$ .

$$\lim_{x \to 0^+} \left( \frac{x}{x - x^2} \right)^3 = \lim_{x \to 0^+} \left( \frac{x}{x(1 - x)} \right)^3 = \lim_{x \to 0^+} \left( \frac{1}{1 - x} \right)^3 = \left( \frac{1}{1 - 0} \right)^3 = 1$$

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#### • Step 5: Apply the Squeeze Theorem

• We have shown:

$$\lim_{x \to 0^+} \frac{x^3}{\sin^3 x} = 1$$
 
$$\lim_{x \to 0^+} \frac{x^3}{\sin^3 (x - x^2)} = 1$$
 
$$\frac{x^3}{\sin^3 x} \le x \int_{x - x^2}^x \frac{1}{\sin^3 t} dt \le \frac{x^3}{\sin^3 (x - x^2)}$$

- By the Squeeze Theorem, the limit of the middle expression must also be 1.
- Therefore,  $L = \lim_{x \to 0^+} x \int_{x-x^2}^x \frac{dt}{\sin^3 t} = 1$ .

#### Limit Computation using Mean Value Theorem and Squeeze Theorem

**Key Question:** Calculate the limit  $L = \lim_{x \to +\infty} x^3 \int_{x^2}^{x^2 + x} \sin\left(\frac{1}{t^2}\right) dt$ .

- Step 1: Apply Mean Value Theorem for Integrals
  - Theorem Statement: If f is continuous on [a,b], there exists  $c \in [a,b]$  such that  $\int_a^b f(t)dt = f(c)(b-a)$ .
  - Application:
    - Let  $f(t) = \sin\left(\frac{1}{t^2}\right)$ . This function is continuous on  $[x^2, x^2 + x]$  for large x (since  $x^2 > 0$ ).
    - The interval length is  $(x^2 + x) x^2 = x$ .
    - By the MVT for Integrals, there exists  $z \in [x^2, x^2 + x]$  such that:

$$\int_{x^2}^{x^2+x} \sin\left(\frac{1}{t^2}\right) dt = \sin\left(\frac{1}{z^2}\right) \cdot x$$

• Rewrite the Limit: Substitute this result back into the limit expression:

$$L = \lim_{x \to +\infty} x^3 \left[ x \sin\left(\frac{1}{z^2}\right) \right] = \lim_{x \to +\infty} x^4 \sin\left(\frac{1}{z^2}\right)$$

where z depends on x and satisfies  $x^2 \le z \le x^2 + x$ .

- Step 2: Establish Bounds using  $z \in [x^2, x^2 + x]$ 
  - From  $x^2 \le z \le x^2 + x$ , we have:

$$\frac{1}{x^2 + x} \le \frac{1}{z} \le \frac{1}{x^2}$$

Squaring (all terms are positive for large x):

$$\frac{1}{(x^2+x)^2} \le \frac{1}{z^2} \le \frac{1}{x^4}$$

- As  $x \to +\infty$ , all terms in the inequality approach  $0^+$ .
- Since  $\sin u$  is an increasing function for u near  $0^+$ , we can apply  $\sin$  to the inequalities (for sufficiently large x):

$$\sin\left(\frac{1}{(x^2+x)^2}\right) \le \sin\left(\frac{1}{z^2}\right) \le \sin\left(\frac{1}{x^4}\right)$$

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#### • Step 3: Apply the Squeeze Theorem

• Multiply the inequality by  $x^4$  (which is positive):

$$x^4 \sin\left(\frac{1}{(x^2+x)^2}\right) \le x^4 \sin\left(\frac{1}{z^2}\right) \le x^4 \sin\left(\frac{1}{x^4}\right)$$

• Limit of the Upper Bound:

$$\lim_{x \to +\infty} x^4 \sin\left(\frac{1}{x^4}\right)$$

Use the standard limit  $\lim_{u\to 0} \frac{\sin u}{u} = 1$ . Let  $u = 1/x^4$ . As  $x \to +\infty$ ,  $u \to 0^+$ .

$$=\lim_{u\to 0^+} \frac{1}{u}\sin(u) = 1$$

• Limit of the Lower Bound:

Let  $v = 1/(x^2 + x)^2$ . As  $x \to +\infty$ ,  $v \to 0^+$ . Use  $\sin v \sim v$  for  $v \to 0$ .

$$\lim_{x \to +\infty} x^4 \sin\left(\frac{1}{(x^2 + x)^2}\right)$$

$$= \lim_{x \to +\infty} x^4 \cdot \frac{1}{(x^2 + x)^2} = \lim_{x \to +\infty} \frac{x^4}{(x^2(1 + 1/x))^2} = \lim_{x \to +\infty} \frac{x^4}{x^4(1 + 1/x)^2} = 1$$

• Conclusion: Since the expression  $x^4 \sin(1/z^2)$  is squeezed between two functions that both tend to 1 as  $x \to +\infty$ , by the Squeeze Theorem (Teorema dei Carabinieri):

$$L = \lim_{x \to +\infty} x^4 \sin\left(\frac{1}{z^2}\right) = 1$$

- 1.2 Improper Integral exercises
- 1.2.1 Exercises using definition
- 1.2.2 Exercises using the comparison criterion
- 1.2.3 Exercises using the asymptotic comparison criterion

## 2 Multivariate Differential Calculus

Sample Cascade Scheme: Analyzing a Function of Two Variables

#### Analyzing a Function f(x)

**Key Question:** How do you analyze a function of two variables?

- Domain of definition
- Continuity and differentiability
- Compute gradients
- Find critical points
  - Solve  $\nabla f = 0$
- Classify critical points
  - Hessian matrix
  - Maximum, minimum, saddle points
- Constrained extrema (if present)
  - Lagrange multipliers method

## 3 Differential Equations

Sample Cascade Scheme: Solving a First-Order Linear Differential Equation

#### First-Order Linear Differential Equation

**Key Question:** How do you solve y' + p(x)y = q(x)?

- Find the integrating factor
  - $\mu(x) = e^{\int p(x)dx}$
- Multiply both sides by  $\mu(x)$
- Rewrite the left side as the derivative of a product
- Integrate both sides
- Isolate the general solution

## Appendix: Taylor/Maclaurin Polynomials and Standard Limits

#### Taylor and Maclaurin Polynomials

#### General Taylor and Maclaurin Formulas

Taylor Polynomial of order n for f(x) at x = a:

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

**Maclaurin Polynomial:** Taylor polynomial at a = 0:

$$T_n(x) = f(0) + f'(0)x + \frac{f''(0)}{2!}x^2 + \dots + \frac{f^{(n)}(0)}{n!}x^n$$

Remainder (Lagrange form):

$$R_n(x) = \frac{f^{(n+1)}(\xi)}{(n+1)!}(x-a)^{n+1}, \quad for some \xi between a and x$$

#### Maclaurin Series for Major Functions

Exponential:

$$e^x = 1 + x + \frac{x^2}{2!} + \frac{x^3}{3!} + \dots = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{x^n}{n!}$$

Sine:

$$\sin x = x - \frac{x^3}{3!} + \frac{x^5}{5!} - \frac{x^7}{7!} + \dots = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (-1)^n \frac{x^{2n+1}}{(2n+1)!}$$

Cosine:

$$\cos x = 1 - \frac{x^2}{2!} + \frac{x^4}{4!} - \frac{x^6}{6!} + \dots = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (-1)^n \frac{x^{2n}}{(2n)!}$$

Tangent (first terms):

$$\tan x = x + \frac{x^3}{3} + \frac{2x^5}{15} + \frac{17x^7}{315} + o(x^7)$$

**Arctangent:** 

$$\arctan x = x - \frac{x^3}{3} + \frac{x^5}{5} - \frac{x^7}{7} + \dots = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (-1)^n \frac{x^{2n+1}}{2n+1}$$

Natural Logarithm:

$$\ln(1+x) = x - \frac{x^2}{2} + \frac{x^3}{3} - \frac{x^4}{4} + \dots = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (-1)^{n+1} \frac{x^n}{n}, \quad |x| < 1$$

**Binomial Series:** For |x| < 1,  $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}$ ,

$$(1+x)^{\alpha} = 1 + \alpha x + \frac{\alpha(\alpha-1)}{2!}x^2 + \frac{\alpha(\alpha-1)(\alpha-2)}{3!}x^3 + \cdots$$

Inverse:

$$\frac{1}{1-x} = 1 + x + x^2 + x^3 + \dots = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} x^n, \quad |x| < 1$$

#### Examples: Maclaurin Polynomials (Order 3 or 4)

• 
$$e^x = 1 + x + \frac{x^2}{2} + \frac{x^3}{6} + o(x^3)$$

• 
$$\sin x = x - \frac{x^3}{6} + o(x^3)$$

• 
$$\cos x = 1 - \frac{x^2}{2} + \frac{x^4}{24} + o(x^4)$$

• 
$$\tan x = x + \frac{x^3}{3} + o(x^3)$$

• 
$$\arctan x = x - \frac{x^3}{3} + o(x^3)$$

• 
$$\ln(1+x) = x - \frac{x^2}{2} + \frac{x^3}{3} + o(x^3)$$

• 
$$(1+x)^{\alpha} = 1 + \alpha x + \frac{\alpha(\alpha-1)}{2}x^2 + \frac{\alpha(\alpha-1)(\alpha-2)}{6}x^3 + o(x^3)$$

#### **Standard Limits**

## Standard Limits as $x \to 0$

$$\bullet \quad \lim_{x \to 0} \frac{\sin x}{x} = 1$$

$$\bullet \quad \lim_{x \to 0} \frac{\tan x}{x} = 1$$

$$\bullet \quad \lim_{x \to 0} \frac{1 - \cos x}{x^2} = \frac{1}{2}$$

• 
$$\lim_{x \to 0} \frac{\arcsin x}{x} = 1$$

• 
$$\lim_{x \to 0} \frac{\arctan x}{x} = 1$$

$$\bullet \quad \lim_{x \to 0} \frac{\ln(1+x)}{x} = 1$$

$$\bullet \quad \lim_{x \to 0} \frac{e^x - 1}{x} = 1$$

• 
$$\lim_{x \to 0} \frac{a^x - 1}{x} = \ln a \ (a > 0)$$

• 
$$\lim_{x \to 0} \frac{(1+x)^{\alpha} - 1}{x} = \alpha \ (\alpha \in \mathbb{R})$$

$$\bullet \quad \lim_{x \to 0} \frac{\ln(1+x)}{x} = 1$$

$$\bullet \quad \lim_{x \to 0} \frac{x}{\ln(1+x)} = 1$$

$$\bullet \lim_{x \to 0} \frac{\sin(ax)}{x} = a$$

• 
$$\lim_{x \to 0} \frac{\arctan(ax)}{x} = a$$

• 
$$\lim_{x \to 0} \frac{\ln(1 + \sin x)}{x} = 1$$

$$\bullet \quad \lim_{x \to 0} \frac{e^{ax} - 1}{x} = a$$

• 
$$\lim_{x \to 0} \frac{(1+x)^n - 1}{x} = n \ (n \in \mathbb{N})$$

#### Standard Limits as $x \to \infty$

• 
$$\lim_{x \to \infty} \frac{\ln x}{x} = 0$$

• 
$$\lim_{x \to \infty} \frac{x^a}{e^x} = 0$$
 for any  $a > 0$ 

$$\begin{array}{l}
\bullet \quad \lim_{\substack{x \to \infty \\ \infty a > 0}} \frac{e^{ax}}{x^b} = \{ 0 \ a < 0 \} \\
\end{array}$$

• 
$$\lim_{x \to \infty} \left( 1 + \frac{a}{x} \right)^x = e^a$$

• 
$$\lim_{x \to \infty} x^{1/x} = 1$$

• 
$$\lim_{x \to \infty} \frac{\ln x}{x^a} = 0$$
 for  $a > 0$ 

• 
$$\lim_{x \to \infty} \frac{x^a}{\ln x} = \infty$$
 for  $a > 0$ 

• 
$$\lim_{\substack{x \to \infty \\ 1a = b}} \frac{x^a}{x^b} = \{ 0 \ a < b \}$$

$$\infty a > b$$

• 
$$\lim_{x \to \infty} \arctan x = \frac{\pi}{2}$$

• 
$$\lim_{x \to \infty} \frac{a^x}{b^x} = 0 \text{ if } 0 < a < b$$

#### Other Useful Limits

• 
$$\lim_{x \to 0} (1+x)^{1/x} = e$$

• 
$$\lim_{n \to \infty} \left( 1 + \frac{1}{n} \right)^n = e$$

$$\bullet \quad \lim_{x \to 0} \frac{\ln(1+x)}{x} = 1$$

$$\bullet \quad \lim_{x \to 0} \frac{a^x - 1}{x} = \ln a$$

• 
$$\lim_{x \to 0} \frac{\ln(1 + \sin x)}{x} = 1$$

• 
$$\lim_{x \to 0} \frac{\arctan x}{x} = 1$$

$$\bullet \quad \lim_{x \to 0} \frac{\tan x}{x} = 1$$

These formulas and limits are fundamental tools for solving calculus problems, especially for evaluating limits, approximating functions, and analyzing local behavior.