

# Calculus and Probability Theory

## Lecture Notes

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April 16, 2018

### General Information

- Teachers
  - Perry Groot
- Grading
  - Exam: 5. April, 12:30 - 15:30, HG00.304, HG00.062
  - Condition: at least five sufficient homework assignments
  - Final mark: the result of the written exam

### Lecture I

- Foundations
- Limits and continuous functions
- Derivatives

#### Foundations

*Definition: Functions (domain, codomain, range)*

A **real function**  $f : D \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ , for  $D \subseteq \mathbb{R}$ , is a rule which assigns to each  $x \in D$  precisely one  $f(x) \in \mathbb{R}$ .

- In this situation the subset  $D \subseteq \mathbb{R}$  is called the **domain** of  $f$ . Sometimes we write  $D(f)$  for  $D$ .
- $\mathbb{R}$  is the **codomain** of  $f$ , and the subset  $R(f) = \{f(x) | x \in D\} \subseteq \mathbb{R}$  is called the **range** of  $f$ .

*Definition: injective, surjective, bijective, isomorphism*

A function  $f : D \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is **injective** or **one-to-one** if  $f(x) = f(y)$  implies  $x = y$ , for all  $x, y \in D$

A function  $f : D \rightarrow R(\subseteq \mathbb{R})$  is **surjective** or **onto** if its range is equal to its codomain

- This means: for any  $y \in R$  there is an  $x \in D$  such that  $f(x) = y$ . Symbolically:  $\forall y \in R \exists x \in D f(x) = y$ .

A function  $f : D \rightarrow R$  is **bijective** if it is both injective and surjective. Then it is an **isomorphism**  
 $f : D \xrightarrow{\cong} R$

*Definition: Graph of a real function*

For a function  $f : D \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ , the **graph**  $G(f) \subseteq D \times \mathbb{R}$  of  $f$  contains all pairs  $(x, f(x))$ . So, we write:  
 $G(f) = \{(x, f(x)) | x \in D\}$ .

*Definition: Inverse and composition*

If a function  $f : D \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ , is **injective**, we can define an **inverse** function  $f^{-1} : R(f) \rightarrow D \subseteq \mathbb{R}$ , namely:

- for  $y \in R(f)$ , say  $y = f(x)$ , define  $f^{-1}(y) = x$
- this  $x$  is uniquely determined: if  $f(x) = y = f(x')$ , then  $x = x'$ , since  $f$  is **injective**
- by construction:  $f(f^{-1}(y)) = y$  and also  $f^{-1}(f(x)) = x$ .

The **composition** of  $f : X \rightarrow Y$  and  $g : Y \rightarrow Z$  is  $h = g \circ f : X \rightarrow Z$ , for which  $h(x) = g(f(x))$ , for each  $x \in X$ .

*Definition: Parity of a function*

A function  $f : (-a, a) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is **even** if  $f(-x) = f(x)$ , for all  $x \in (-a, a)$ , and **odd** if  $f(-x) = -f(x)$ , for all  $x \in (-a, a)$ .

## Limits and continuous functions

*Definition: Approach to limit*

A function  $f$  approaches the limit  $b$  at an input  $a$ , if we can make  $f(x)$  as close as we like to  $b$  by requiring that  $x$  be sufficiently close, but not equal to  $a$ .

*Definition: Limit*

A function  $f : D \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  has **limit**  $b$  for  $x \rightarrow a$  if:

$$\forall \epsilon > 0 \exists \delta > 0 \forall x \in D \quad 0 < |x - a| < \delta \Rightarrow |f(x) - b| < \epsilon$$

In that case we write  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = b$ . *the limit of  $f$  of  $x$  as  $x$  approaches  $a$  equals  $b$* . Note.  $a$  does not have to be in  $D$ .

Example:

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 3} \frac{x^2 - 9}{x - 3} = \lim_{x \rightarrow 3} \frac{(x - 3)(x + 3)}{x - 3} = \lim_{x \rightarrow 3} (x + 3) = 6$$
$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 1} \frac{-1}{x - 1} \text{ is undefined}$$

*Computation of Limits*

Let  $c$  be a constant,  $a$  a real number, and assume that  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x)$  and  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} g(x)$  both exist and are equal to  $L_1$  and  $L_2$

- $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} c = c$
- $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} x = a$
- $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} [c \cdot f(x)] = c \cdot \lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = c \cdot L_1$
- $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} [f(x) \pm g(x)] = \lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) \pm \lim_{x \rightarrow a} g(x) = L_1 \pm L_2$
- $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} [f(x) \cdot g(x)] = \lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) \cdot \lim_{x \rightarrow a} g(x) = L_1 \cdot L_2$
- $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} = \frac{\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x)}{\lim_{x \rightarrow a} g(x)} = \frac{L_1}{L_2}$  (if  $L_2 \neq 0$ )

### Computation of Limits

Let  $p(x) = c_n x^n + c_{n-1} x^{n-1} + \dots + c_1 x + c_0$  be a polynomial,  $a$  a real number and  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} p(x)$  both exist and are equal to  $L_1$  and  $L_2$

- $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} p(x) = p(a)$
- $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} \sqrt[n]{f(x)} = \sqrt[n]{\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x)} = \sqrt[n]{L_1}$
- $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} \sin(x) = \sin(a)$
- $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} \cos(x) = \cos(a)$

Let  $f(x) \leq g(x) \leq h(x)$  for all  $x$  on some interval  $(c,d)$ , except maybe for  $a \in (c,d)$ . If

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

Then

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow a} g(x) = L$$

Example:

$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} [x^2 \cos(\frac{1}{x})] = 0$ , Since  $-1 \leq \cos(\frac{1}{x}) \leq 1$  we have  $-x^2 \leq x^2 \cos(\frac{1}{x}) \leq x^2$  and since  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} -x^2 = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} x^2 = 0$ . Note that the rule for products fails.

### Definition: Limits involving infinity

A function  $f : D \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  has **limit**  $b$  for  $x \rightarrow \infty$  if:

$$\forall \epsilon > 0 \exists n \in \mathbb{N} \forall x \in D \ x > n \Rightarrow |f(x) - b| < \epsilon$$

In that case we write  $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} f(x) = b$ . Formulate yourself what  $\lim_{x \rightarrow -\infty} f(x) = b$  means.

### Definition: Continuous functions

A function  $f : D \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is continuous in a point  $a \in D$  if  $f(x)$  is close to  $f(a)$  for each  $x$  that is close to  $a$ . More formally:  $f : D \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is **continuous in point**  $a \in D$  if:

$$\forall \epsilon > 0 \exists \delta > 0 \forall x \in D \ |x - a| < \delta \Rightarrow |f(x) - f(a)| < \epsilon$$

A function  $f : D \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is **continuous** if it is continuous in all  $a \in D$ .

## Derivatives

*Recall: Points and lines*

- Equation of a line
  - y-intercept (b), **slope** (m)
  - most convenient:  $y = mx + b$
  - can be determined from e.g., two points, or a point and the slope
- Distance of two points  $(x_1, y_1)$  and  $(x_2, y_2)$ 
  - by Pythagorean theorem
  - $\sqrt{(x_1 - x_2)^2 + (y_1 - y_2)^2}$
- Sample Questions
  - What is the intercept and the slope:  $3x - 4y = -8$ ?
  - Determine the distance of points  $(2, -3)$  and  $(-3, 9)$
  - Equation of the line? Slope:  $m = \frac{2}{5}$ , a point on it:  $(-1, 2)$

*Definition: Derivatives (differentiable, tangent line)*

A function  $f : D \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is **differentiable at a** if  $\lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \left( \frac{f(a+h) - f(a)}{h} \right)$  exists. In this case the limit is denoted  $f'(a)$  and is called the **derivative of f at a**.

$f$  is **differentiable** if  $f$  is differentiable at  $a$  for every  $a \in D$ .

We also define the **tangent line** to  $f$  at  $a$  to be the line through  $(a, f(a)) \in G(f)$  with slope  $f'(a)$ .

If  $f$  is a differentiable function then  $f'$  ("Lagrange notation") is sometimes written as  $\frac{df}{dx}$  ("Leibniz notation").

Example:

- (Geometric interpretation) Find a tangent line of a curve  $f(x) = \frac{1}{x}$  in  $a = 2$
- Check that  $f(x) = |x|$  is not differentiable in 0.

*Differentiation rules*

Let  $f, g : D \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  be differentiable functions in  $a \in D$

- For a **constant function**  $f(x) = c, c \in \mathbb{R}$ , we have  $f'(x) = 0$
- $f(x) = x$ , then  $f'(x) = 1$
- **sum/subtraction rule**  $(f \pm g)'(a) = f'(a) \pm g'(a)$
- **scalar rule**  $(c \cdot f)'(a) = c \cdot f'(a)$
- **product rule**  $(f \cdot g)'(a) = f'(a) \cdot g(a) + f(a) \cdot g'(a)$
- **division rule**  $\left(\frac{f}{g}\right)'(a) = \frac{f'(a)g(a) - f(a)g'(a)}{g^2(a)}$
- **chain/composition rule**  $(g \circ f)'(a) = g'(f(a)) \cdot f'(a)$
- if  $f$  has an inverse  $f^{-1}$ , then  $(f^{-1})'(a) = \frac{1}{f'(f^{-1}(a))}$

*Lemma: Derivatives of powers*

- For  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  and  $f(x) = x^n$  we have  $f'(x) = nx^{n-1}$ . This can be shown by induction on  $n$
- In fact, for  $n \in \mathbb{Z}$  and  $f(x) = x^n$  we have  $f'(x) = nx^{n-1}$ . This follows from the previous point, using the division rule.
- It can be shown that  $(x^a)' = ax^{a-1}$ , for any  $a \in \mathbb{R}$

*Recall: exponential and logarithm*

**Exponential**, for  $a \geq 0$

- $a^0 = 1, a^{x+y} = a^x \cdot a^y$
- $a^1 = a, a^{x \cdot y} = (a^x)^y$
- $a^{-x} = \frac{1}{a^x}$ , and thus  $a^{x-y} = \frac{a^x}{a^y}$

The logarithm is defined as inverse of power:  $x = \log_a(y) \iff a^x = y$ , for  $y > 0$

**Logarithm**

- $\log_a(a^x) = x$  and  $a^{\log_a x} = x$
- $\log_a(x \cdot y) = \log_a(x) + \log_a(y)$ , and  $\log_a(x^y) = y \cdot \log_a(x)$
- $\log_a(\frac{x}{y}) = \log_a(x) - \log_a(y)$
- $\frac{\log_a x}{\log_a b} = \log_b x$

*Euler's number  $e$*

Consider  $f_a(x) = a^x$ . Then:

$$\begin{aligned} f'_a(x) &= (a^x)' = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{a^{x+h} - a^x}{h} = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{a^x(a^h - 1)}{h} \\ &= a^x \cdot \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{a^{0+h} - a^0}{h} = a^x \cdot \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{f_a(0+h) - f_a(0)}{h} \\ &= a^x \cdot f'_a(0) \end{aligned}$$

- We have  $f'_a(0) = 1$  for  $a = e = 2.71828\dots$
- and thus  $(e^x)' = e^x$
- The **natural logarithm**  $\ln$  uses base  $e$ ; notation:  $\ln \equiv \log_e$

*Important derivatives with logarithms*

- $(a^x)' = a^x \cdot \ln(a)$
- $(\ln(y))' = \frac{1}{y}$
- We have  $(e^{f(x)})' = e^{f(x)} \cdot f'(x)$  by the chain rule
- Thus:  $(a^x)' = a^x \cdot \ln(a)$ , since  
 $(a^x)' = ((e^{\ln(a)})^x)' = (e^{\ln(a) \cdot x})' = e^{\ln(a) \cdot x} \cdot \ln(a) = a^x \cdot \ln(a)$
- For  $f(x) = e^x$  we have  $f'(x) = e^x$  and  $f^{-1}(y) = \ln y$
- We use the inverse function law  $(f^{-1})'(y) = \frac{1}{f'(f^{-1}(y))}$
- Thus  $\ln'(y) = \frac{1}{f'(\ln y)} = \frac{1}{e^{\ln y}} = \frac{1}{y}$

*Definition: Logarithmic differentiation*

According to the chain rule:

$$(\ln f(x))' = \ln'(f(x)) \cdot f'(x) = \frac{1}{f(x)} \cdot f'(x) = \frac{f'(x)}{f(x)}$$

Briefly:  $(\ln f)' = \frac{f'}{f}$ . This is called the **logarithmic derivative of f** and this law is called **logarithmic differentiation**.

Example:

For  $f(x) = \frac{6x}{\sqrt{x-1}}$  we can compute  $f'(x)$  via the fraction rule, but also first taking logarithms on both sides:

$$\ln(f(x)) = \ln\left(\frac{6x}{\sqrt{x-1}}\right) = \ln(6x) - \ln((x-1)^{\frac{1}{2}}) = \ln(6x) - \frac{1}{2} \ln(x-1)$$

Differentiating on both sides gives:

$$\frac{f'(x)}{f(x)} = \frac{6}{6x} - \frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{1}{x-1} = \frac{1}{x} - \frac{1}{2(x-1)} = \frac{2(x-1) - x}{2x(x-1)} = \frac{x-2}{2x(x-1)}$$

Hence:

$$f'(x) = f(x) \cdot \frac{x-2}{2x(x-1)} = \frac{6x}{\sqrt{x-1}} \cdot \frac{x-2}{2x(x-1)} = \frac{3(x-2)}{(x-1)^{\frac{3}{2}}}$$

*Recall: sine, cosine and tangent*

- Geometric interpretation with  $\sin(90^\circ) = \sin(\frac{\pi}{2}) = 1$
- $\sin^2(x) + \cos^2(x) = 1$
- Sum rules:
  - \*  $\sin(x+y) = \sin(x)\cos(y) + \cos(x)\sin(y)$
  - \*  $\cos(x+y) = \cos(x)\cos(y) - \sin(x)\sin(y)$
  - \*  $\sin(x-y) = \sin(x)\cos(y) - \cos(x)\sin(y)$
  - \*  $\cos(x-y) = \cos(x)\cos(y) + \sin(x)\sin(y)$
- $\sin'(x) = \cos(x)$  and  $\cos'(x) = -\sin(x)$
- $\tan(x) = \frac{\sin(x)}{\cos(x)}$ , with  $\tan'(x) = \frac{1}{\cos^2(x)}$

### Logarithmic differentiation Example

Logarithmic differentiation is useful for reducing products to sum, fractions to differences, and powers to products.

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

$$\ln f(x) = \ln((\sin x)^x) = x \cdot \ln(\sin(x))$$

Thus:

$$\frac{f'(x)}{f(x)} = \ln(\sin x) + x \cdot \frac{1}{\sin x} \cdot \cos x$$

And:

$$f'(x) = f(x) \cdot \left( \ln(\sin x) + \frac{x \cos x}{\sin x} \right) = (\sin x)^x \left( \ln(\sin x) + \frac{x \cos x}{\sin x} \right).$$

### Derivatives of special functions

- $f(x) = a^x$  then  $f'(x) = a^x \cdot \ln a$ . Special case  $(e^x)' = e^x$
- $(\log_a x)' = \frac{1}{x \cdot \ln a}$  with special case  $(\ln x)' = \frac{1}{x}$
- $(\sin x)' = \cos x$
- $(\cos x)' = -\sin x$
- $(\tan x)' = \frac{1}{\cos^2 x}$  where  $\tan x = \frac{\sin x}{\cos x}$
- $(\arcsin x)' = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1-x^2}}$  where  $\arcsin = \sin^{-1}$
- $(\arccos x)' = \frac{-1}{\sqrt{1-x^2}}$  where  $\arccos = \cos^{-1}$
- $(\arctan x)' = \frac{1}{1+x^2}$  where  $\arctan = \tan^{-1}$

### L'Hopitals rule

Let  $f, g : D \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  be functions that are differentiable and

- $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = \lim_{x \rightarrow a} g(x) = \pm\infty$  or  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = \lim_{x \rightarrow a} g(x) = 0$ , moreover
- $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} \frac{f'(x)}{g'(x)}$  exists with
- $g'(x) \neq 0$  (except for perhaps at  $a$ ), then
- $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} = \lim_{x \rightarrow a} \frac{f'(x)}{g'(x)}$

Example:

- $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\sin(x)}{x} = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\cos(x)}{1} = \cos(0) = 1$
- $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\ln(x)}{\sqrt{x}} = \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\frac{1}{x}}{\frac{1}{2\sqrt{x}}} = \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{2\sqrt{x}}{x} = \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{2}{\sqrt{x}} = 0$
- $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{1 - \cos(x)}{x^2} = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\sin(x)}{2x} = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\cos(x)}{2} = \frac{1}{2}$

### *Higher order derivatives*

Let  $f(x)$  be a real function.

- One writes  $f' = \frac{df}{dx}$
- The second derivative is written as:  $f'' = \frac{d}{dx}f' = \frac{d^2f}{dx^2}$
- The n-th derivative is:  $f^{(n)} = \frac{d}{dx}f^{(n-1)}$  with  $f^{(0)} = f$

Example: Let  $f(x) = x^n$ , find  $f^{(n)}(x)$