

# MA 101 (Mathematics - I)

## Tutorial Problems 5: (Differentiation 3,4,5a)

1. Find the following by using L'Hôpital's Rules, whenever needed. Do not forget to check the conditions needed for using L'Hôpital's Rules.

$$(i) \lim_{x \rightarrow 0+} \left( \frac{1}{x} - \frac{1}{\operatorname{Arctan} x} \right) \quad (ii) \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{x + \ln x}{x \ln x} \quad (iii) \lim_{x \rightarrow 0+} (1 + 3/x)^x \quad (iv) \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} x^{1/x}$$

**Solution:**

$$(i) \lim_{x \rightarrow 0+} \left( \frac{1}{x} - \frac{1}{\tan^{-1} x} \right) = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0+} \frac{\tan^{-1} x - x}{x \tan^{-1} x} \left( \frac{0}{0} \right) = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0+} \frac{\frac{1}{1+x^2} - 1}{\tan^{-1} x + \frac{x}{1+x^2}} = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0+} \frac{-x^2}{(1+x^2) \tan^{-1} x + x},$$

by LR1, if the last limit exists. The last limit is in the form  $\left( \frac{0}{0} \right)$ , and therefore equals

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0+} \frac{-2x}{(1+x^2) \frac{1}{1+x^2} + 2x \tan^{-1} x + 1} = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0+} \frac{-2x}{2 + 2x \tan^{-1} x} = \frac{0}{2} = 0.$$

(ii)  $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{x + \ln x}{x \ln x} \left( \frac{\infty}{\infty} \right) = \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1 + \frac{1}{x}}{\ln x + 1}$ , by LR2, if the last limit exists. The last limit is 0, since for  $\epsilon > 0$  we have

$$\left| \frac{1 + \frac{1}{x}}{\ln x + 1} \right| < \frac{2}{\ln x} < \epsilon,$$

if  $x > \max\{1, e^{2/\epsilon}\} = M$ , say. Therefore the given limit is zero.

(iii) Suppose  $f(x) = (1 + 3/x)^x$  for  $x > 0$ . Then  $\ln f(x) = x \ln(1 + 3/x) = \frac{\ln(1+3/x)}{1/x}$ . Since  $\ln(1 + 3/x)$  and  $1/x$  are differentiable on  $(0, 1]$ , and  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0+} \ln(1 + 3/x) = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0+} 1/x = \infty$ , by LH2

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0+} \ln f(x) = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0+} \frac{\frac{1}{1+3/x} \cdot \frac{-3}{x^2}}{\frac{-1}{x^2}} = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0+} \frac{3x}{x+3} = 0.$$

Since Exp is continuous,  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} f(x) = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} e^{\ln f(x)} = e^{\left( \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \ln f(x) \right)} = e^0 = 1$ .

(iv) Similar to (iii). Ans. 1.

2. Let  $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  have second derivative at  $c \in \mathbb{R}$ . Prove that  $\lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(c+h) - 2f(c) + f(c-h)}{h^2} = f''(c)$ .

Give example of a function  $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  and a point  $c \in \mathbb{R}$  for which the above limit exists, but  $f''(c)$  does not exist.

**Solution:** Since  $f''(c)$  exists, there is an interval  $(c-r, c+r)$ ,  $r > 0$ , on which  $f$  is differentiable. For  $h \in (-r, r)$ , define  $g(h) = f(c+h) - 2f(c) + f(c-h)$ . Then,  $\lim_{h \rightarrow 0} g(h) = 0$ , and  $g'(h) = f'(c+h) - f'(c-h)$ .

By, LH1, the given limit is  $\lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{g'(h)}{2h} = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f'(c+h) - f'(c-h)}{2h}$ , if it exists. Now,

$$\lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f'(c+h) - f'(c-h)}{2h} = \frac{1}{2} \left[ \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f'(c+h) - f'(c)}{h} + \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f'(c-h) - f'(c)}{-h} \right] = \frac{1}{2} [f''(c) + f''(c)] = f''(c).$$

Hence the limit is  $f''(c)$ .

Example of a functions for which the limit exists, but  $f''(c)$  does not exist:

$$(1) \text{ Define } f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R} \text{ by } f(x) = \begin{cases} 1, & x > 0, \\ 0, & x = 0, \\ -1 & x < 0. \end{cases}$$

The corresponding limit with  $c = 0$  is 0, since  $f(h) - 2f(0) + f(-h) = 0$ . The function is not even

continuous at 0.

(2) Define  $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  by  $f(x) = x^2$ , if  $x \geq 0$ , and  $f(x) = -x^2$ , if  $x < 0$ . Then  $f$  has continuous derivative. Moreover, for any  $h \in \mathbb{R}$ ,  $f(-h) = -f(h)$  and therefore  $f(h) - 2f(0) + f(-h) = 0$ . However,  $f''(0)$  does not exist.

3. For  $x > 0$  show that  $|(1+x)^{1/3} - (1 + \frac{1}{3}x - \frac{1}{9}x^2)| < (5/81)x^3$ . Use this inequality to approximate  $\sqrt[3]{1.2}$  and  $\sqrt[3]{2}$ , and find the bounds for errors in the estimations.

**Solution:** For  $x > -1$ , consider  $f(x) = (1+x)^{1/3}$ . Then  $f$  has derivatives of all orders. We have

$$f'(x) = \frac{1}{3}(1+x)^{-2/3}, \quad f''(x) = \frac{-2}{9}(1+x)^{-5/3}, \quad f^{(3)}(x) = \frac{10}{27}(1+x)^{-8/3}.$$

Therefore, for  $x > 0$ , by Taylor's theorem, there is  $c \in (0, x)$  such that

$$f(x) = f(0) + f'(0)x + \frac{f''(0)}{2!}x^2 + \frac{f^{(3)}(c)}{3!}x^3 = 1 + \frac{1}{3}x - \frac{1}{9}x^2 + \frac{5}{81}(1+c)^{-8/3}x^3.$$

Therefore,  $|(1+x)^{1/3} - (1 + \frac{1}{3}x - \frac{1}{9}x^2)| < (5/81)x^3$ , since  $(1+c)^{-8/3} < 1$ .

$$\sqrt[3]{1.2} = f(1/5) = 1 + 1/15 - 1/225 = 239/225 \approx 1.06222, \text{ Error} < \frac{1}{25 \cdot 81} < 0.0005.$$

$$\sqrt[3]{2} = f(1) = 1 + \frac{1}{3} - \frac{1}{9} = 11/9, \text{ Error} < 5/81.$$

4. Find the Taylor series of  $\sin x \cos 3x$  about 0. What is the domain of convergence (the set in which  $f$  is given by the Taylor series)?

**Solution:** We have  $f(x) = \sin x \cos 3x = \frac{1}{2}(\sin 4x - \sin 2x)$ , and

$$f^{(n)}(x) = \frac{1}{2} \left[ \frac{d^n}{dx^n} \sin 4x - \frac{d^n}{dx^n} \sin 2x \right].$$

Therefore

$$f^{(n)}(0) = \begin{cases} 0, & \text{if } n \text{ is even,} \\ \frac{1}{2}(4^n - 2^n) & \text{if } n = 4k + 1, k \geq 0, \\ -\frac{1}{2}(4^n - 2^n) & \text{if } n = 4k + 3, k \geq 0. \end{cases}$$

Thus, the Taylor series for  $f$  is

$$T(f, 0) = \frac{4-2}{2}x - \frac{4^3-2^3}{2 \cdot 3!}x^3 + \frac{4^5-2^5}{2 \cdot 5!}x^5 - \frac{4^7-2^7}{2 \cdot 7!}x^7 + \dots$$

Moreover,  $|f^{(n)}(x)| < \frac{1}{2}(4^n + 2^n) < 4^n$ . Therefore, for  $x \in \mathbb{R}$ ,  $|R_n| = \frac{|f^{(n+1)}(c)|}{(n+1)!}|x|^{n+1} \leq \frac{(4|x|)^{n+1}}{(n+1)!} \rightarrow 0$  (Use ratio test.) Thus, the domain of convergence of the Taylor series is  $\mathbb{R}$ .

5. (a) Show that for  $n \geq 0$ ,  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{e^{-1/x^2}}{x^n} = 0$ .

(b) Use induction to prove Leibniz's rule for the  $n$ -th derivative of a product:

$$(fg)^{(n)}(x) = \sum_{k=0}^n \binom{n}{k} f^{(n-k)}(x)g^{(k)}(x).$$

(c) Define  $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  by

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} e^{-1/x^2}, & \text{if } x \neq 0, \\ 0, & \text{if } x = 0. \end{cases}$$

Show that  $f$  is infinitely differentiable on  $\mathbb{R}$  and find  $f^{(n)}(0)$  for  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ .

(d) What is the Taylor series of  $f$  about 0, and on what interval is it defined?

(e) Does the remainder term for  $f$  at 0 in Taylor's theorem converge to zero as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ ?

(f) On what set does the Taylor series converge to  $f$ ?

**Solution:**

(a) Put  $t = 1/x$ . As  $x \rightarrow 0+$ ,  $t \rightarrow \infty$ . Also  $\frac{e^{-1/x^2}}{x^n} = \frac{t^n}{e^{t^2}}$ , and  $\lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} \frac{t^n}{e^{t^2}}$  is of  $(\infty/\infty)$  form. BY LH2,

$$\lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} \frac{t^n}{e^{t^2}} = \lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} \frac{nt^{n-1}}{2te^{t^2}} = \frac{n}{2} \lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} \frac{t^{n-2}}{e^{t^2}}.$$

Since  $\lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{e^{t^2}} = 0$  and  $\lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} \frac{t}{e^{t^2}} = 0$  (because  $e^{t^2} > t^2$ ), by repeated application of the above, we get

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0+} \frac{e^{-1/x^2}}{x^n} = \lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} \frac{t^n}{e^{t^2}} = 0.$$

We also have  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0-} \frac{e^{-1/x^2}}{x^n} = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0+} \frac{e^{-1/x^2}}{(-x)^n} = 0$ .

(b) (Note: here  $f^{(0)}$  means  $f$ .) We have  $(fg)' = f'g + fg'$ , that is, the statement is true for  $n = 1$ . Assume

$$(fg)^{(n)} = \sum_{k=0}^n \binom{n}{k} f^{(n-k)} g^{(k)}.$$

Then

$$\begin{aligned} (fg)^{(n+1)} &= \sum_{k=0}^n \binom{n}{k} \left[ f^{(n-k+1)} g^{(k)} + f^{(n-k)} g^{(k+1)} \right] \\ &= \sum_{k=0}^n \binom{n}{k} f^{(n-k+1)} g^{(k)} + \sum_{k=0}^n \binom{n}{k} f^{(n-k)} g^{(k+1)} \\ &= f^{(n+1)} g^{(0)} + \sum_{k=1}^n \binom{n}{k} f^{(n-k+1)} g^{(k)} + \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} \binom{n}{k} f^{(n-k)} g^{(k+1)} + f^{(0)} g^{(n+1)} \\ &= f^{(n+1)} g^{(0)} + \sum_{k=1}^n \binom{n}{k} f^{(n-k+1)} g^{(k)} + \sum_{k=1}^n \binom{n}{k-1} f^{(n-(k-1))} g^{(k)} + f^{(0)} g^{(n+1)} \\ &= f^{(n+1)} g^{(0)} + \sum_{k=1}^n \left[ \binom{n}{k} + \binom{n}{k-1} \right] f^{(n+1-k)} g^{(k)} + f^{(0)} g^{(n+1)} \\ &= f^{(n+1)} g^{(0)} + \sum_{k=1}^n \binom{n+1}{k} f^{(n+1-k)} g^{(k)} + f^{(0)} g^{(n+1)} \\ &= \sum_{k=0}^{n+1} \binom{n+1}{k} f^{(n+1-k)} g^{(k)}, \end{aligned}$$

that is, the statement is true for  $n + 1$ . By induction, the result follows.

- (c) Let  $x \neq 0$ . Then  $f'(x) = e^{-1/x^2} \cdot 2x^{-3}$  and  $f''(x) = e^{-1/x^2} (-6x^{-4} + 4x^{-6})$ . Observe that for  $n = 1, 2$ ,  $f^{(n)}(x) = f(x)P_n(\frac{1}{x})$ , where  $P_n(t)$  is a polynomial. Suppose  $f^{(k)}(x) = f(x)P_k(\frac{1}{x})$  for some polynomial  $P_k(t)$ . Then

$$f^{(k+1)}(x) = f'(x)P_k(1/x) + f(x)P'_k(1/x) \cdot \frac{-1}{x^2} = f(x)P_{k+1}(1/x),$$

where  $P_{k+1}(t) = 2t^3P_k(t) - t^2P'_k(t)$ , a polynomial. Therefore, for  $n \geq 1$ ,  $f^{(n)}(x) = f(x)P_n(\frac{1}{x})$  for some polynomial  $P_n(t)$ .

Claim: for  $n \geq 1$ ,  $f^{(n)}(0) = 0$ . Clearly,  $f'(0) = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{e^{-1/x^2}}{x} = 0$ , by (a). Suppose  $f^{(n-1)}(0) = 0$ .

Now, for  $x \neq 0$ ,  $f^{(n-1)}(x) = f(x)(a_0 + \frac{a_1}{x} + \dots + \frac{a_m}{x^m})$  for some  $m \in \mathbb{N}$ ,  $a_0, \dots, a_m \in \mathbb{R}$ . Therefore,

$$f^{(n)}(0) = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{f^{(n-1)}(x)}{x} = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \left[ f(x) \left( \frac{a_0}{x} + \frac{a_1}{x^2} + \dots + \frac{a_m}{x^{m+1}} \right) \right] = 0, \text{ by (a).}$$

Hence,  $f$  is infinitely differentiable, and  $f^{(n)}(0) = 0$ , for all  $n$ .

- (d) The Taylor series for  $f$  about is  $T(f, 0) = \sum a_n x^n$ , where  $a_n = \frac{f^{(n)}(0)}{n!} = 0$ .
- (e) Since the Taylor polynomial  $T_n(f, 0)(x)$  is the zero polynomial, the remainder term of  $f$  at  $x \neq 0$  is  $R_n(x) = f(x) - T_n(f, 0)(x) = e^{-1/x^2}$ , which does not converge to 0 as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ .
- (f) The Taylor series converges to  $f$  only on the set  $\{0\}$ .

6. Suppose  $a_n \rightarrow a$ ,  $b_n \rightarrow b$ , and  $a < b$ . Suppose  $(c_n)$  is given by  $c_{2n-1} = a_n, c_{2n} = b_n$  for  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ . What can you say about  $\limsup c_n$  and  $\liminf c_n$ ? Justify your claim. (Note that  $b$  can be  $\infty$  and  $a$  can be  $-\infty$ .)

**Solution:** The sequence  $(c_n)$  is  $(a_1, b_1, a_2, b_2, \dots)$ . Let  $u = \limsup c_n$  and  $\ell = \liminf c_n$ . If  $b = \infty$ , then  $(c_n)$  is not bounded above, and so  $u = \infty = b$ .

Let  $b \in \mathbb{R}$ . Then  $(c_n)$  is bounded above. For  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ , let  $u_n = \text{lub} \{c_k : k \geq n\}$ . Let  $0 < \epsilon \leq \frac{b-a}{2}$  be given. Then there exists  $K \in \mathbb{N}$  such that  $a_n < b - \epsilon$  and  $b_n \in (b - \epsilon, b + \epsilon)$  for  $n \geq K$ . Then for  $n \geq 2K$ ,  $u_n \in [b - \epsilon, b + \epsilon]$ , i.e.,  $|u_n - b| \leq \epsilon$ . Thus,  $u_n \rightarrow b$ . Since  $u_n \rightarrow \limsup c_n$ , we have  $u = \limsup c_n$ .

Similarly, [or considering  $(-c_n)$ ] we can show  $\ell = a$ .