

# MH1100 Midterm Revision Summary

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## 1 Functions

### Function

A function  $f$  is a rule that assigns each element  $x$  in a set  $D$  (domain) to exactly one element in  $R$ . Note different values of  $x_i \in D$  may map to the same value  $f(x_i)$  in  $R$ . Hence to check if a function is well defined, we can use a vertical line test.

### Domain

The domain of a function  $f$ , commonly referred to as  $D$  is the set of all possible values of  $x$  that the function accepts. The range, commonly referred to as  $R_f$  refers to the set of possible values of  $f(x)$  for all  $x \in D$ .

$$R_f = \{f(x) \in \mathbb{R} \mid x \in D_f\}$$

### Odd and Even Functions

A function is even  $\Leftrightarrow f(-x) = f(x)$  and odd  $\Leftrightarrow f(-x) = -f(x)$ .

### Theorem

Any function  $f(x)$  can be written as a sum of an odd and an even function.

### Proof

Let  $f(x) = E(x) + O(x)$  where  $E, O$  are the even and odd functions respectively.

$$f(x) = E(x) + O(x) \tag{1}$$

$$f(-x) = E(-x) + O(-x) \tag{2}$$

$$f(-x) = E(x) - O(x) \tag{3}$$

Solving, we get that

$$E(x) = \frac{f(x) + f(-x)}{2}, \quad O(x) = \frac{f(x) - f(-x)}{2}$$

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## 2 Limits

### 2.1 Limit Laws

If  $f, g$  are continuous at  $x = a$  (limit exists), then we have the following hold true:

1.  $\lim(f \pm g) = \lim f \pm \lim g$
2.  $\lim \frac{f}{g} = \frac{\lim f}{\lim g}$
3.  $\lim fg = \lim f \times \lim g$
4.  $\lim f \circ g = \lim f \circ \lim g$ . The implication here is that composition of continuous functions is continuous. Prove using epsilon delta (if it comes out just cry).

### 2.2 Squeeze Theorem

#### Theorem

If functions  $f, g, h$  are such that

$$f \leq g \leq h$$

Then we have that

$$\lim f \leq \lim g \leq \lim h$$

Specifically, if  $\lim f = \lim h$ , then  $\lim g = \lim f = \lim h$ .

### 2.3 Important Inequalities

1.  $||a| - |b|| \leq |a \pm b| \leq |a| + |b|$
2.  $x^n - a^n = (x - a)(a^{n-1} + a^{n-2}x + a^{n-3}x^2 + \dots + ax^{n-2} + x^{n-1})$

### 2.4 Epsilon-Delta Definition of a Limit

#### Definition

We say that  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = L$  if for every  $\epsilon > 0$ , there exists a  $\delta > 0$  such that

$$0 < |x - a| < \delta \Rightarrow |f(x) - L| < \epsilon.$$

#### Proof Strategy

To prove a limit using the  $\epsilon$ - $\delta$  definition:

1. Begin with  $|f(x) - L|$  and manipulate it into a form involving  $|x - a|$ .
2. If additional terms appear, bound them appropriately (often by restricting  $|x - a| < 1$ ).
3. Choose  $\delta$  in terms of  $\epsilon$  so the inequality is satisfied.

## 2.4.1 Basic Examples

## Example

**Example 1.**  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} x = a$ .

## Proof

We want  $|x - a| < \epsilon$ . Choosing  $\delta = \epsilon$  works:

$$|x - a| < \delta \Rightarrow |f(x) - a| = |x - a| < \epsilon.$$

## Example

**Example 2.**  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} x^2 = a^2$ .

## Proof

We compute

$$|x^2 - a^2| = |x - a||x + a|.$$

If  $|x - a| < 1$ , then  $|x + a| \leq |x - a| + 2|a| < 1 + 2|a|$ . Choose

$$\delta = \min\left(1, \frac{\epsilon}{1 + 2|a|}\right).$$

Then  $|x - a| < \delta \Rightarrow |x^2 - a^2| < \epsilon$ .

## 2.4.2 Advanced Examples

## Example

**Example.**  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} x^{2019}(1 + \sin^2(2020x)) = 0$ .

## Proof

We bound

$$|x^{2019}(1 + \sin^2(2020x))| \leq 2|x|^{2019}.$$

Choose  $\delta = \sqrt[2019]{\epsilon/2}$  and the proof follows.

## Remark

Infinite limits can be defined analogously:  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = \infty$  means for every  $N > 0$ , there exists  $\delta > 0$  such that  $0 < |x - a| < \delta \Rightarrow f(x) > N$ .

## 2.5 Limit Laws with $\epsilon$ - $\delta$ Proofs

### 2.5.1 Sum Rule

#### Theorem

If  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = L$  and  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} g(x) = M$ , then

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow a} (f(x) + g(x)) = L + M.$$

#### Proof

Given  $\epsilon > 0$ , since  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = L$ , there exists  $\delta_1 > 0$  such that

$$0 < |x - a| < \delta_1 \Rightarrow |f(x) - L| < \frac{\epsilon}{2}.$$

Similarly, since  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} g(x) = M$ , there exists  $\delta_2 > 0$  such that

$$0 < |x - a| < \delta_2 \Rightarrow |g(x) - M| < \frac{\epsilon}{2}.$$

Let  $\delta = \min(\delta_1, \delta_2)$ . Then for  $0 < |x - a| < \delta$ ,

$$\begin{aligned} |f(x) + g(x) - (L + M)| &= |(f(x) - L) + (g(x) - M)| \\ &\leq |f(x) - L| + |g(x) - M| \\ &< \frac{\epsilon}{2} + \frac{\epsilon}{2} = \epsilon. \end{aligned}$$

Thus the result follows.

### 2.5.2 Product Rule

#### Theorem

If  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = L$  and  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} g(x) = M$ , then

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x)g(x) = LM.$$

#### Proof

We write

$$f(x)g(x) - LM = (f(x) - L)g(x) + L(g(x) - M).$$

Take  $\epsilon > 0$ .

Since  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} g(x) = M$ , there exists  $\delta_1 > 0$  such that

$$0 < |x - a| < \delta_1 \Rightarrow |g(x) - M| < 1.$$

This implies  $|g(x)| \leq |M| + 1$  when  $|x - a| < \delta_1$ .

Now, since  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = L$ , there exists  $\delta_2 > 0$  such that

$$0 < |x - a| < \delta_2 \Rightarrow |f(x) - L| < \frac{\epsilon}{2(|M| + 1)}.$$

Similarly, since  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} g(x) = M$ , there exists  $\delta_3 > 0$  such that

$$0 < |x - a| < \delta_3 \Rightarrow |g(x) - M| < \frac{\epsilon}{2(1 + |L|)}.$$

Let  $\delta = \min(\delta_1, \delta_2, \delta_3)$ . Then for  $0 < |x - a| < \delta$ ,

$$\begin{aligned} |f(x)g(x) - LM| &\leq |f(x) - L||g(x)| + |L||g(x) - M| \\ &< \frac{\epsilon}{2(|M| + 1)}(|M| + 1) + |L|\frac{\epsilon}{2(1 + |L|)} \\ &\leq \frac{\epsilon}{2} + \frac{\epsilon}{2} = \epsilon. \end{aligned}$$

Thus the product rule holds.

### 2.5.3 Quotient Rule

#### Theorem

If  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = L$ ,  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} g(x) = M$ , and  $M \neq 0$ , then

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow a} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} = \frac{L}{M}.$$

#### Proof

We want

$$\left| \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} - \frac{L}{M} \right| < \epsilon.$$

Rewrite:

$$\left| \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} - \frac{L}{M} \right| = \left| \frac{Mf(x) - Lg(x)}{Mg(x)} \right| = \frac{1}{|M||g(x)|} |M(f(x) - L) + L(M - g(x))|.$$

Since  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} g(x) = M$ , there exists  $\delta_1 > 0$  such that for  $|x - a| < \delta_1$ ,

$$|g(x) - M| < \frac{|M|}{2}.$$

Thus  $|g(x)| \geq |M| - |g(x) - M| > \frac{|M|}{2}$ , so  $\frac{1}{|g(x)|} \leq \frac{2}{|M|}$ .

Now, since  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = L$  and  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} g(x) = M$ , there exist  $\delta_2, \delta_3 > 0$  such that

$$|f(x) - L| < \frac{\epsilon|M|}{4(|M| + |L|)}, \quad |g(x) - M| < \frac{\epsilon|M|}{4(|M| + |L|)}.$$

Let  $\delta = \min(\delta_1, \delta_2, \delta_3)$ . Then for  $0 < |x - a| < \delta$ ,

$$\begin{aligned} \left| \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} - \frac{L}{M} \right| &\leq \frac{2}{|M|^2} \left( |M||f(x) - L| + |L||g(x) - M| \right) \\ &< \frac{2}{|M|^2} \left( |M| \cdot \frac{\epsilon|M|}{4(|M| + |L|)} + |L| \cdot \frac{\epsilon|M|}{4(|M| + |L|)} \right) \\ &= \frac{2}{|M|^2} \cdot \frac{\epsilon|M|(|M| + |L|)}{4(|M| + |L|)} \\ &= \frac{\epsilon}{2} < \epsilon. \end{aligned}$$

Thus the quotient rule holds.

### 2.5.4 Composition Rule

#### Theorem

If  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = L$  and  $g$  is continuous at  $L$ , then

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

#### Proof

Given  $\epsilon > 0$ , since  $g$  is continuous at  $L$ , there exists  $\eta > 0$  such that

$$|y - L| < \eta \Rightarrow |g(y) - g(L)| < \epsilon.$$

Since  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = L$ , there exists  $\delta > 0$  such that

$$0 < |x - a| < \delta \Rightarrow |f(x) - L| < \eta.$$

Then

$$|g(f(x)) - g(L)| < \epsilon$$

for all  $0 < |x - a| < \delta$ . Hence the composition rule holds.

### 2.6 L'Hôpital's Rule

#### Remark

**Important:** Before applying the rule, you must first *prove differentiability* of the functions involved on an open interval containing the point of interest (except possibly at the point itself).

Suppose  $f$  and  $g$  are real-valued functions defined on an open interval  $I$  containing  $a$ , with  $f$  and  $g$  differentiable on  $I \setminus \{a\}$ , and with  $g'(x) \neq 0$  for all  $x \in I \setminus \{a\}$ . If

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = \lim_{x \rightarrow a} g(x) = 0 \quad \text{or} \quad \lim_{x \rightarrow a} |f(x)| = \lim_{x \rightarrow a} |g(x)| = \infty,$$

and if the limit  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} \frac{f'(x)}{g'(x)}$  exists (finite or infinite), then

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow a} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} = \lim_{x \rightarrow a} \frac{f'(x)}{g'(x)}.$$

#### Checking Differentiability Before Applying L'Hôpital

To justify using L'Hôpital's Rule:

- Confirm that  $f$  and  $g$  are differentiable on an open interval around  $a$  (except possibly at  $a$  itself).
- Verify that  $g'(x) \neq 0$  in this interval.
- Establish the indeterminate form  $\frac{0}{0}$  or  $\frac{\infty}{\infty}$  directly from the limits of  $f$  and  $g$ .

**Example**

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0^+} \frac{\ln x}{x}.$$

First, note that  $\ln x$  and  $x$  are differentiable on  $(0, \infty)$ , and  $x > 0$  ensures  $g'(x) = 1 \neq 0$ . Since  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0^+} \ln x = -\infty$  and  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0^+} x = 0$ , this is an  $\frac{-\infty}{0^+}$  form. Applying L'Hôpital's Rule:

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0^+} \frac{\ln x}{x} = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0^+} \frac{\frac{d}{dx}(\ln x)}{\frac{d}{dx}(x)} = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0^+} \frac{\frac{1}{x}}{1} = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0^+} \frac{1}{x} = +\infty.$$

**3 Continuity****Continuity**

A function is continuous at a point  $x = a \Leftrightarrow$

1.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x)$  exists
2. The limit is equal to  $f(a)$

**3.1 Intermediate Value Theorem****Theorem**

If a function  $f(x)$  is continuous in an interval  $[a, b]$ , then there exists  $f(c)$  where  $c \in (a, b)$  where  $f(c)$  is between  $f(a)$  and  $f(b)$ .

**Roots finding**

Given  $f(a) = -4$ ,  $f(b) = 5$ , there exists  $x \in (a, b)$  such that  $f(x) = 0$  by IVT.

## 4 Differentiation

Differentiable  $\Rightarrow$  Continuity  $\Rightarrow$  Limit exists.

Proof

$$f'(x_0) = \lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} \frac{f(x) - f(x_0)}{x - x_0}$$

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} f(x) - f(x_0) = \lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} \frac{f(x) - f(x_0)}{x - x_0} (x - x_0) = f'(x_0) \cdot 0 = 0$$

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

Formal Definition

$$f'(x) = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(x+h) - f(x)}{h}$$

Example

Prove that  $\frac{x}{x+1} < \ln(x+1) < x$

Proof

First consider  $f(x) = \ln(x+1) - x$ , note that

$$1. \quad f(0) = 0$$

$$2. \quad f'(x) = \frac{1}{x+1} - 1 = \begin{cases} > 0 & x < 0 \\ < 0 & x > 0 \end{cases}$$

Hence we prove that  $\ln(x+1) < x$ . A similar method is used for the other half of the inequality and is left as an exercise for the reader.

## 4.1 Linear Approximation

Before applying linear (or tangent line) approximation, it is essential to verify that  $f$  is differentiable at the point of approximation.

### Theorem

If  $f$  is differentiable at  $a$ , then for  $x$  near  $a$  we may approximate

$$f(x) \approx f(a) + f'(a)(x - a).$$

### Remarks

- Differentiability at  $a$  implies continuity at  $a$ , so no separate continuity check is needed.
- The quality of the approximation depends on the size of  $(x - a)$  and higher-order derivatives of  $f$ .

### Example

For  $f(x) = \sqrt{x}$  at  $a = 4$ ,

$$f(4) = 2, \quad f'(x) = \frac{1}{2\sqrt{x}}, \quad f'(4) = \frac{1}{4}.$$

Thus,

$$\sqrt{x} \approx 2 + \frac{1}{4}(x - 4).$$

## 4.2 Extreme Value Theorem

### Theorem

If  $f$  is continuous on a closed interval  $[a, b]$ , then  $f$  attains both an absolute maximum value  $f(c)$  and an absolute minimum value  $f(d)$  for some  $c, d \in [a, b]$ .

### Conditions to Check

- Verify that  $f$  is continuous on the entire closed interval  $[a, b]$ .
- Discontinuities or open intervals invalidate the theorem.

### Example

$f(x) = x^2$  on  $[-1, 2]$  is continuous.

$$f(-1) = 1, \quad f(2) = 4, \quad f(0) = 0.$$

Hence,  $\min f = 0$  at  $x = 0$ ,  $\max f = 4$  at  $x = 2$ .

### 4.3 Mean Value Theorem

#### Theorem

Let  $f$  be a function such that:

1.  $f$  is continuous on  $[a, b]$ ,
2.  $f$  is differentiable on  $(a, b)$ .

Then there exists  $c \in (a, b)$  such that

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

#### Conditions to Check

- Continuity on  $[a, b]$ .
- Differentiability on  $(a, b)$ .

#### Example

For  $f(x) = x^2$  on  $[1, 3]$ ,

$$\frac{f(3) - f(1)}{3 - 1} = \frac{9 - 1}{2} = 4.$$

Since  $f'(x) = 2x$ , we need  $2c = 4$ , so  $c = 2$  satisfies the theorem.