## Mathematics 555 Homework

## 1. The derivative.

## 1.1. The derivative at a point.

**Definition 1.** Let  $(\alpha, \beta)$  be an open interval,  $f: (\alpha, \beta) \to \mathbb{R}$  a function, and  $a \in (\alpha, \beta)$ . Then f is **differentiable** at if and only if the limit

$$\lim_{x \to a} \frac{f(x) - f(a)}{x - a}$$

exists. When this limit exists it is the **derivative** of f at a and is denoted by f'(a).

The limit defining f'(a) can be rewritten in several ways. For example if we do the change of variable x = a + h in the limit it becomes

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

which is the way it is often presented in calculus books. And sometimes, especially in older books, h is replaced by  $\Delta x$  and the limit is written as

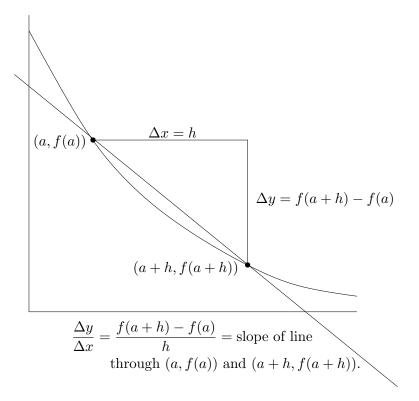
$$f'(a) = \lim_{\Delta x \to 0} \frac{f(a + \Delta x) - f(a)}{\Delta x}.$$

And finally  $f(a + \Delta x) - f(a)$  can be abbreviated as  $\Delta y = f(a + \Delta x) - f(a)$  and then the limit becoves

$$f'(a) = \lim_{\Delta x \to 0} \frac{\Delta y}{\Delta x}$$

a notation meshes well with the Leibniz notation  $\frac{dy}{dx}$  for the derivative.

I am now obligated to draw the standard picture that shows that the **difference quotient** (f(a+h)-f(a))/h is the slope through the points (a, f(a)) and (a+h, f(a+h)) and therefore taking the limit as  $h \to 0$  of this difference quotient is a reasonable definition of the slope of the tangent line to the graph of y = f(x) at the point (a, f(a)).



We now do some examples of derivatives that you no doubt already know from calculus.

Let f(x) = mx + b where m and b are constants. Then for any  $a \in \mathbb{R}$ 

$$f'(a) = \lim_{x \to a} \frac{f(x) - f(a)}{x - a} = \lim_{x \to a} \frac{m(x - a)}{x - a} = m.$$

For a slightly more complicated example consider  $f(x)=x^2$  we have , using that  $x^2-a^2=(x-a)(x+a)$ :

$$f'(a) = \lim_{x \to a} \frac{f(x) - f(a)}{x - a}$$
$$= \lim_{x \to a} \frac{x^2 - a^2}{x - a}$$
$$= \lim_{x \to a} (x + a)$$
$$= 2a.$$

**Problem** 1. Use the identities  $x^3 - a^3 = (x - a)(x^2 + ax + a^2)$  and  $x^4 - a^4 = (x - a)(x^3 + ax^2 + a^2x + a^3)$  to prove that the functions  $f(x) = x^3$  and  $g(x) = x^4$  have the derivatives

$$f'(a) = 3a^2$$
$$g'(a) = 4a^3.$$

The classic example of a function that does not have a derivative at a point is the absolute value function f(x) = |x| which does not have a derivative at x = 0. Here are some other examples

**Problem** 2. Let  $f: \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$  be the function

$$f(x) = \max\{x, 2 - x\}.$$

Graph y = f(x) and show that it is differentiable at every point other than x = 1. What is f'(a) when  $a \neq 1$ ?

**Problem** 3. Let  $f: \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$  be the function

$$f(x) = \min\{x^2, 1\}$$

Find the points where f is not differentiable and prove your result.

We now start proving the basic rules for derivatives you know from calculus.

**Proposition 2** (Sum rule for derivatives). Let  $f_1$  and  $f_2$  be defined on an interval containing the point a and assume that  $f_1$  and  $f_2$  are both differentiable at a. Let  $c_1$  and  $c_2$  be constants. Then the function  $g = c_1 f_1 + c_2 f_2$  is differentiable at a and

$$g'(a) = c_1 f_1'(a) + c_2 f_2'(a).$$

**Problem** 4. Prove this.

We extend this to sums with more terms:

**Proposition 3.** Let  $f_1, f_2, \ldots, f_n$  be functions defined on an interval containing a and with each  $f_j$  differentiable at a. Let  $c_1, c_2, \ldots, c_n$  be constants. Then  $g = c_1 f_1 + c_2 f_2 + \cdots + c_n f_n$  is differentiable at a and

$$g'(a) = c_1 f'_1(a) + c_2 f'_2(a) + \dots + c_n f'_n(a).$$

*Proof.* This is an easy induction proof.

**Proposition 4.** Let f be defined on an interval containing a and assume that f is differentiable at a. Then f is continuous at a.

**Problem** 5. Prove this. *Hint*: To show that f is continuous at a we need to show  $\lim_{x\to a} f(x) = f(a)$ . As f is differentiable we know that

$$f'(a) = \lim_{x \to a} \frac{f(x) - f(a)}{x - a}$$

exists. To use this write f(x) as

$$f(x) = f(a) + \frac{f(x) - f(a)}{x - a}(x - a).$$

Now you can use standard results about limits (no  $\varepsilon$ ,  $\delta$  needed).

**Proposition 5** (Product rule). Let f and g be defined in an interval containing a and assume they are both differentiable at a. Then the product p(x) = f(x)g(x) is differentiable at a and

$$p'(a) = f'(a)g(a) + f(a)g'(a).$$

**Problem** 6. Prove this. *Hint:* One what is to do some adding and subtracting in the difference quotient for p:

$$\frac{p(x) - p(a)}{x - a} = \frac{f(x)g(x) - f(a)g(a)}{x - a}$$

$$= \frac{f(x)g(x) - f(x)g(a) + f(x)g(a) - f(a)g(a)}{x - a}$$

$$= f(x)\frac{g(x) - g(a)}{x - a} + \frac{f(x) - f(a)}{x - a}g(a)$$

As f is continuous at a (why?) we have  $\lim_{x\to a} f(x) = f(a)$ . Finishing now should be easy.

**Proposition 6.** Let g be defined in an interval containing a and assume g is differentiable at a and  $g(a) \neq 0$ . Then h(x) = 1/g is differentiable at a and

$$h'(a) = \frac{-g'(a)}{g(a)^2}.$$

**Problem** 7. Prove this. *Hint:* Write the difference quotient for h as

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{h(x) - h(a)}{x - a} &= \frac{1}{x - a} \left( \frac{1}{g(x)} - \frac{1}{g(a)} \right) \\ &= \frac{1}{x - a} \frac{g(a) - g(x)}{g(x)g(a)} \\ &= \frac{-1}{g(x)g(a)} \frac{g(x) - g(a)}{x - a} \end{aligned}$$

and now it should be easy to take the limit defining h'(a).

**Proposition 7** (Quotient rule). Let f and g be defined on an interval containing a and with f and g differentiable at a. Also assume  $g(a) \neq 0$ . Then the quotient q(x) = f(x)/g(x) is differentiable at a and

$$q'(a) = \frac{f'(a)g(a) - f(a)g'(a)}{g(a)^2}.$$

**Problem** 8. Prove this. *Hint:* We have already done most of the work for this. Write q as a product

$$q(x) = f(x) \left(\frac{1}{g(x)}\right)$$

and use Proposition 6 and the product rule.

**Proposition 8** (The power rule for positive powers). Let f be defined on an interval containing a and assume that f is differentiable at a. Then for any positive integer n the function  $p(x) = f(x)^n$  is differentiable at a and

$$p'(x) = nf(a)^{n-1}f'(a).$$

In particular letting f(x) = x yields that the when  $p(x) = x^n$ , then  $p'(a) = na^{n-1}$ .

**Problem** 9. Prove this. *Hint:* Induction.

## Proposition 9.

$$f(x) = a_n x^n + a_{n-1} x^{n-1} + \dots + a_1 x + a_0$$

is a polynomial (thus  $a_0, a_1, \ldots, a_n$  are constants) then f is differentiable at all points a and

$$f'(a) = na_n x^{n-1} + (n-1)a_{n-1}x^{n-2} + \dots + 2a_2x + a_1.$$

*Proof.* This follows by combining Propositions 2 and 8.

The next result makes precise that the graph y = f(x) of a function has a tangent line at the point (a, f(a)) if and only if the derivative f'(a) exists.

**Theorem 10.** Let f be a real valued function defined in a neighborhood of a. Then the following are equivalent.

- (a) f'(a) exists.
- (b) There is a constant m such that

$$f(x) = f(a) + m(x - a) + \rho(x; a)$$

where  $\rho(x;a)$  satisfies

(1) 
$$\lim_{x \to a} \frac{\rho(x; a)}{x - a} = 0.$$

Before going on with the proof, let us think a bit about what condition (b) of the theorem says. Rewrite (1) as

$$f(x) = f(a) + \left(m + \frac{\rho(x;a)}{x-a}\right)(x-a).$$

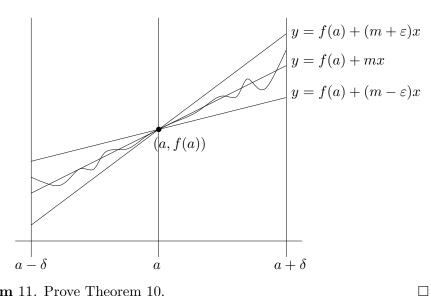
As  $\lim_{x\to a} \rho(x;a)/(x-a) = 0$  for any  $\varepsilon > 0$  there is a  $\delta > 0$  such that

$$0 < |x - a| < \delta$$
 implies  $\frac{|\rho(x; a)|}{|x - a|} < \varepsilon$ .

Therefore

$$0 < |x - a| < \delta$$
 implies  $m - \varepsilon < m + \frac{\rho(x : a)}{x - a} < m + \varepsilon$ .

**Problem** 10. Show that these inequalities imply that on the interval  $(a - \delta, a + \delta)$  that the graph of y = f(x) stays between the graphs of the lines  $y = f(a) + (m+\varepsilon)(x-a)$  and  $y = f(a) + (m-\varepsilon)(x-a)$  as in the figure below. Therefore by making  $\varepsilon$  small we have that near x = a the graph y = f(x) is sandwiched between two line that have slope very close to m.



**Problem** 11. Prove Theorem 10.

**Lemma 11.** Let g be differentiable at a. Then there is a  $\delta > 0$  such that

$$|x - a| < \delta$$
 implies  $|g(x) - g(a)| \le (|g'(a)| + 1)|x - a|$ .

**Theorem 12** (The chain rule). Let g be defined on an interval containing a and f defined and on an interval containing g(a). Assume that g is differentiable at a and f is differentiable at g(a). Then the composition  $h = f \circ g$ is differentiable at a and

$$h'(a) = (f \circ g)'(a) = f'(g(a))g'(a).$$

*Proof.* As g is differentiable at a, by Theorem 10, we have

$$g(x) - g(a) = g'(a)(x - a) + \rho_1(x; a)$$

where

$$\lim_{x \to a} \frac{\rho_1(x; a)}{x - a} = 0.$$

Likewise as f is differentiable at g(a) we have

$$f(y) - f(g(a)) = f'(g(a))(y - g(a))(x - a) + \rho_2(y; g(a))$$

where

$$\lim_{y \to g(a)} \frac{\rho_2(y; g(a))}{y - g(a)} = 0.$$

Therefore we have

$$f(g(x)) - f(g(a)) = f'(g(a))(g(x) - g(a)) + \rho_2(g(x); g(a))$$
  
=  $f'(g(a)) (g'(a)(x - a) + \rho_1(x; a)) + \rho_2(g(x); g(a))$   
=  $f'(g(a))g'(a)(x - a) + \rho_2(g(x); g(a))$ 

where

$$\rho(x; a) = f'(g(a))g'(a)\rho_1(x; a) + \rho_2(g(x); g(a)).$$

Therefore, by Theorem 10, to finish the proof it is enough to show

$$\lim_{x \to a} \frac{\rho(x:a)}{x-a} = 0.$$

The first term in the definition of is easy to deal with:

$$\lim_{x \to a} \frac{f'(g(a))g'(a)\rho_1(x;a)}{x - a} = f'(g(a))g'(a)\lim_{x \to a} \frac{\rho_1(x;a)}{x - a}$$
$$= f'(g(a))g'(a)0$$
$$= 0$$

The second term takes a bit more work. Let  $\varepsilon > 0$ 

$$\lim_{y \to g(a)} \frac{\rho_2(y; g(a))}{y - g(a)} = 0$$

there is a  $\delta_1 > 0$  such that

$$0 < |y - g(a)| < \delta$$
 implies  $\left| \frac{\rho_2(y; g(a))}{y - g(a)} \right| < \frac{\varepsilon}{1 + |g'(a)|}$ 

and therefore

$$|y - g(a)| < \delta$$
 implies  $|\rho_2(y; g(a))| \le \frac{\varepsilon |y - g(a)|}{1 + |g'(a)|}$ .

**Problem** 12. If g is differentiable at x show that there is a  $\delta_2 > 0$  such that

$$|x - a| < \delta_2$$
 implies  $|g(x) - g(a)| \le (|g'(a)| + 1)|x - a|$ 

Getting back to the proof of the chain rule, there is a if  $|g(x) - g(a)| < \delta_1$  and  $|x - a| < \delta_2$  then

$$|\rho_2(y;g(a))| \le \frac{\varepsilon |y - g(a)|}{1 + |g'(a)|} \le \frac{\varepsilon (1 + |g'(a)|)|x - a|}{1 + |g'(a)|} = \varepsilon |x - a|.$$

and therefore

$$\left| \frac{\rho_2(g(x); g(a))}{x - a} \right| \le \varepsilon$$

Finally, as g is continuous at a, there is  $\delta_3 > 0$  such that

$$|x-a| < \delta_1$$
 implies  $|g(x) - g(a)| < \delta_1$ .

Whence if  $\delta = \min\{\delta_2, \delta_2\},\$ 

$$0 < |x - a| < \delta$$
 implies  $\left| \frac{\rho_2(g(x); g(a))}{x - a} \right| \le \varepsilon$ 

and therefore

$$\lim_{x \to a} \frac{\rho_2(g(x); g(a))}{x - a} = 0$$

which completes the proof.

1.2. Functions differentiable on an interval, the first derivative test, and the mean value theorem.

**Definition 13.** Let f be defined on an open set U containing  $x_0$ . Then f has a **local maximum** (respectively a **local minimum**) at  $x_0$  if and only if there is a  $\delta > 0$  such that

$$f(x) \le f(x_0)$$
 (respectively  $f(x) \ge f(x_0)$ ) for  $x$  with  $|x - x_0| < \delta$ 

In this case  $x_0$  is a **local maximizer** (respectively a **local minimizer**) of f. The point  $x_0$  is a **local extrema** if it is either a local maximizer or a local minimizer.

**Theorem 14** (First Derivative Test). If f is defined on an open U set containing the point  $x_0$  and

- f is differentiable at  $x_0$
- f has a local extrema at  $x_0$ .

then

$$f'(x_0) = 0.$$

**Lemma 15.** Let f be differentiable at  $x_0$  and let  $\langle x_n \rangle_{n=1}^{\infty}$  be a sequence with

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} x_n = x_0 \quad and \text{ for all } n \quad x_n \neq x_0.$$

Then

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{f(x_n) - f(x_0)}{x_n - x_0} = f'(x_0)$$

**Problem** 13. Prove this.

**Problem** 14. Prove Theorem 14. *Hint:* You do not have to follow this hint, but here is one way to start. Without loss of generality we can assume f has a local maximum at  $x_0$ . (If it has a local minimum, then replace f by -f.) Let

$$x_n = x_0 - \frac{1}{n}$$
 and  $y_n = x_0 + \frac{1}{n}$ .

Then show

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{f(x_n) - f(x_0)}{x_n - x_0} \ge 0 \quad \text{and} \quad \lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{f(x_n) - f(x_0)}{x_n - x_0} \le 0$$

and use the lemma.

**Theorem 16** (Rôlle's Theorem). Let f be a function that is continuous on [a,b] and differentiable at all points of (a,b). Assume

$$f(a) = f(b)$$
.

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

$$f'(\xi) = 0.$$

**Problem** 15. Prove this. *Hint*: Start by showing that either (or both) of the maximum or minimum of f occur in the open interval (a, b).

**Theorem 17** (Mean Value Theorem). Let f be a function that is continuous on [a,b] and differentiable at all points of (a,b). There there exists a point  $\xi \in (a,b)$  such that

$$f(b) - f(a) = f'(\xi)(b - a)$$

Problem 16. Prove this. Hint: One way to start is to show

$$g(x) = f(x) - \frac{f(b) - f(a)}{b - a}(x - a)$$

satisfies the hypothesis of Rôlle's Theorem.

**Definition 18.** Let  $x_1$ ,  $x_2$  and  $\xi$  be three real numbers. Then  $\xi$  is **between**  $x_1$  and  $x_2$  if and only if one of the following three cases holds:

$$x_1 < \xi < x_2$$

$$x_2 < \xi < x_1$$

$$x_1 = \xi = x_2.$$

Often we will use the Mean Value Theorem in the following slightly less general form:

**Theorem 19** (Mean Value Theorem). Let f be differentiable on the open interval (a,b) and let  $x_1, x_2 \in (a,b)$ . There there is  $\xi$  between  $x_1$  and  $x_2$  such that

$$f(x_2) - f(x_1) = f'(\xi)(x_2 - x_1).$$

Proof. If  $x_1 = x_2$ , then let  $\xi = x_1$  and we have  $f(x_2) - f(x_1) = f'(\xi)(x_2 - x_1) = 0$ . If  $x_1 \neq x_2$ , then by possibly changing the names of  $x_1$  and  $x_2$  we can assume that  $x_1 < x_2$ . Then f is continuous on  $[x_1, x_2]$  and differentiable on  $I(x_1, x_2)$ . Therefore we can use our first form of the Mean Value Theorem to conclude there is a  $\xi \in (x_1, x_2)$  with  $f(x_2) - f(x_1) = f'(\xi)(x_2 - x_1)$ .  $\square$ 

Before using the Mean Value Theorem to prove theorems let us note that it can be use to prove interesting results about concrete functions. Here are a couple of examples.

Example 20. Assume that we know that the derivative of  $\sin(x)$  is  $\cos(x)$ . Then for all  $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$  we have

$$|\sin(b) - \sin(a)| < |b - a|.$$

To see this let  $f(x) = \sin(x)$ . Then the Mean Value Theorem tells us there is a  $\xi$  between b and a such that

$$|\sin(b) - \sin(a)| = |f(b) - f(a)| = |f'(\xi)(b - a)| = |\cos(\xi)(b - a)| \le |b - a|$$
 where at the last step we used that  $|\cos(\xi)| \le 1$ .

Example 21. If  $a, b \geq 2$ , then

$$\left| \frac{a-1}{a+1} - \frac{b-1}{b+1} \right| \le \frac{2}{9} |b-a|.$$

To see this let

$$f(x) = \frac{x-1}{x+1}.$$

Then if  $\xi \geq 2$  we have

$$f'(\xi) = \frac{2}{(\xi+1)^2} \le \frac{2}{(2+1)^2} = \frac{2}{9}.$$

Thus if  $a, b \ge 2$  the Mean Value Theorem gives us a  $\xi$  between a and b (and therefore  $\xi \geq 2$  such that

$$\left| \frac{a-1}{a+1} - \frac{b-1}{b+1} \right| = |f(b) - f(a)| = |f'(\xi)(b-a)| = \frac{2}{(\xi+1)^2} |b-a| \le \frac{2}{9} |b-a|$$

**Problem 17.** Use the ideas above to show the following

(a) For all  $x, y \in \mathbb{R}$  the inequality

$$|\cos(4y) - \cos(4x)| \le 4|y - x|.$$

(b) If a, b > 1 then

$$|\sqrt{b^2 - 1} - \sqrt{a^2 - 1}| \ge |b - a|.$$

(c) If x > 0 then

$$e^x - 1 > x$$
.

If 
$$x > 0$$
 then 
$$e^x - 1 > x.$$
 Hint:  $e^x - 1 = e^x - e^0$ .

**Theorem 22.** Let f be differentiable on the open interval (a,b) and assume

$$f'(x) = 0$$
 for all  $x \in (a, b)$ .

Then f is constant.

**Problem** 18. Use the Mean Value Theorem to prove this. 

**Definition 23.** If f is a function defined on an interval I, then f is *in***creasing** if and only if for all  $x_1, x_2 \in I$ 

$$x_1 < x_2 \implies f(x_1) < f(x_2).$$

**Theorem 24.** Let f be a function on the open interval and assume that f' exists on all of (a,b) and that f'(x) > 0 for all  $x \in (a,b)$ . Then f is increasing on (a, b).

**Problem** 19. Use the Mean Value Theorem to prove this.

**Problem** 20. Show that  $f'(x_0)$  exists if and only if the limit

$$\lim_{h \to 0} \frac{f(x_0) - f(x_0 - h)}{h}$$

exists. When this limit exists what is its value?

**Problem 21.** Show that if  $f'(x_0)$  exists, then so does the limit

$$\lim_{h \to 0} \frac{f(x_0 + h) - f(x_0 - h)}{2h}$$

and its value is  $f'(x_0)$ .

**Problem** 22. Let  $\alpha$  be a positive real number and set

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} |x|^{\alpha} \cos(1/x), & x \neq 0; \\ 0, & x = 0. \end{cases}$$

For what values of  $\alpha$  does f'(0) exist. When it doses exist what is its value?

**Proposition 25.** The function  $f(x) = \sqrt{x}$  is differentiable on  $(0, \infty)$  and

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

**Problem** 23. Prove this. *Hint:* The calculation

$$f(x+h) - f(x) = \sqrt{x+h} - \sqrt{x}$$

$$= \frac{(\sqrt{x+h} - \sqrt{x})(\sqrt{x+h} + \sqrt{x})}{\sqrt{x+h} + \sqrt{x}}$$

$$= \frac{(x+h) - x}{\sqrt{x+h} + \sqrt{x}}$$

$$= \frac{h}{\sqrt{x+h} + \sqrt{x}}$$

might be useful.

**Theorem 26** (Cauchy Mean Value Theorem). Let f and g be functions that are differentiable on the open interval (a,b) and continuous on the closed interval [a,b]. Then there is a  $\xi \in (a,b)$  such that

$$g'(\xi)(f(b) - f(a)) = f'(\xi)(g(b) - g(a)).$$

(Note when g is the function g(x) = x this reduces to the usual mean value theorem.

**Problem** 24. Prove this. *Hint:* Let

$$h(x) = (g(b) - g(a))(f(x) - f(a)) - (f(b) - f(a))(g(x) - g(a))$$
 and show  $h(a) = h(b) = 0$ .

We now wish to look at one of the other standard topics in differential calculus, l'hôpital's rule. Recall this involves evaluating limits of the type

$$\lim_{x \to x_0} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)}$$

where  $f(x_0) = g(x_0) = 0$  which leads to

$$\lim_{x \to x_0} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} = \frac{0}{0}$$

which, at least formally, does not make sense. Here is the basic result.

**Theorem 27** (L'hôpital's rule). Let f and g be differentiable in a neighborhood of  $x_0$  with  $g'(x) \neq 0$  for  $x \neq x_0$ . Assume that  $f(x_0) = g(x_0) = 0$  and that

$$\lim_{x \to x_0} \frac{f'(x)}{g'(x)} = L$$

exists. Then  $\lim_{x\to x_0} f(x)/g(x)$  exists and is given by

$$\lim_{x \to x_0} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} = L$$

This is usually stated informally as that if  $f(x_0) = g(x_0) = 0$  then

$$\lim_{x \to x_0} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} = \lim_{x \to x_0} \frac{f'(x)}{g'(x)}.$$

The important part is that the existence of the limit  $\lim_{x\to x_0} \frac{f'(x)}{g'(x)}$  implies the existence of the limit  $\lim_{x\to x_0} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)}$ .

**Problem 25.** Prove Theorem 27 as follows. Let  $\varepsilon > 0$  then as  $\lim_{x \to x_0} \frac{f'(x)}{g'(x)} = L$  there is a  $\delta > 0$  such that

$$0 < |x - x_0| < \delta \implies \left| \frac{f'(x)}{g'(x)} - L \right| < \varepsilon.$$

Let x be so that  $0 < |x - x_0| < \delta$ . Then, by the Cauchy Mean Value Theorem, there is a  $\xi$  between x and  $x_0$  such that

$$\frac{f(x)}{g(x)} = \frac{f(x) - 0}{g(x) - 0} = \frac{f(x) - f(x_0)}{g(x) - g(x_0)} = \frac{f'(\xi)}{g'(\xi)}.$$

Use this to show

$$0 < |x - x_0| < \delta \implies \left| \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} - L \right| < \varepsilon$$

and thus  $\lim_{x\to x_0} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} = L$ . (A main point is that  $0 < |\xi - x_0| < \delta$ , so be sure to explain why this holds.)

Here is a standard application of l'hôpital's rule:

$$\lim_{x \to 0} \frac{\sin(2x)}{3x} = \lim_{x \to 0} \frac{\sin(2x)'}{(3x)'} = \lim_{x \to 0} \frac{2\cos(2x)}{3} = \frac{2\cos(0)}{3} = \frac{2}{3}.$$

It can also be applied several times in a row:

$$\lim_{x \to 0} \frac{1 - \cos(x)}{x^2} = \lim_{x \to 0} \frac{\sin(x)}{2x} \qquad \text{(take } \frac{d}{dx} \text{ of top and bottom)}$$

$$= \lim_{x \to 0} \frac{\cos(x)}{2} \qquad \text{(take } \frac{d}{dx} \text{ of top and bottom)}$$

$$= \frac{\cos(0)}{2}$$

$$= \frac{1}{2}.$$

So we have shown  $\lim_{x\to 0}\frac{1-\cos(x)}{x^2}=\frac{1}{2}$ . Note that in terms of showing this limit exists, this should be read from the bottom up. That is l'hôpital's rule shows that  $\lim_{x\to 0}\frac{\sin(x)}{2x}$  exists as  $\lim_{x\to 0}=\frac{\sin(x)'}{(2x)'}=\lim_{x\to 0}\frac{\cos(0)}{2}=\frac{1}{2}$  exists. Then anther application of l'hôpital's rule shows that  $\lim_{x\to 0} \frac{1-\cos(x)}{x^2} =$  $\lim_{x\to 0} \frac{(1-\cos(x))'}{(x^2)'} = \lim_{x\to 0} \frac{\sin(x)}{2x}$  exists.

**Problem** 26. Here are some problems to practice the use of l'hôpital's rule. Compute the following

(a) 
$$\lim_{x \to 0} \frac{\sin(x) - x}{x^3}$$

(b) 
$$\lim_{x \to 0} \frac{e^x - e^{-x}}{x}$$

(a) 
$$\lim_{x \to 0} \frac{\sin(x) - x}{x^3}$$
(b) 
$$\lim_{x \to 0} \frac{e^x - e^{-x}}{x}$$
(c) 
$$\lim_{\theta \to \pi} \frac{\sin^3(x)}{x(\cos(x) + 1)}$$

Now back to Rôlle's theorem. First a definition.

**Definition 28.** Let f be defined on an open integral I. Then f is twice **differentiable** on I if f' exsits at all points of I and the function f' is differentiable on I. We denote the derivative of f' as f'' or  $f^{(2)}$  and it is called the **second derivative** of f. If f'' exists at all points of I and f''is differentiable on I its derivative is denoted by f''' or  $f^{(3)}$  and is called the third derivative of f and f is said to be three times differentiable. Continuing recursively, if we have defined what it means for f to be n times differentiable on I and the n-th derivative,  $f^{(n)}$ , is differentiable on I then the derivative of  $f^{(n)}$  is denoted by  $f^{(n+1)}$  and f is (n+1) times differentiable on I.

Remark 29. For consistency's sake we set  $f^{(0)} = f$  and  $f^{(1)} = f'$ 

**Problem** 27. Show that the function f on  $\mathbb{R}$  defined by

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} x^2, & x \ge 0; \\ -x^2, & x < 0. \end{cases}$$

is differentiable on  $\mathbb{R}$  but not twice differentiable. Hint: Show f'(x) = 2|x|. You may have to use the limit definition to compute f'(0).

**Problem** 28. Find a function that is twice differentiable on  $\mathbb{R}$  but not three times differentiable. More generally can you give an example of a function that is n times differentiable, but not n+1 times differentiable.

**Proposition 30.** Let I be an open interval and assume f is twice differentiable on I. Let  $x_0, x_1 \in I$  with  $x_0 \neq x_1$ . Assume  $f(x_0) = f'(x_0) = 0$  and  $f(x_1) = 0$ . Then there is a point  $\xi$  between  $x_0$  and  $x_1$  with  $f''(\xi) = 0$ .

*Proof.* As  $f(x_0) = f(x_1) = 0$  by Rôlle's Theorem there is a  $\xi_1$  between  $x_0$  and  $x_1$  with  $f'(\xi_1) = 0$ . But the function f' is differentiable on I and

 $f'(x_0) = f'(\xi_1) = 0$  and thus anther application of Rôlle's Theorem gives us a  $\xi$  between  $x_0$  and  $\xi_1$  with  $f''(\xi) = (f')'(\xi) = 0$ . As  $\xi_1$  is between  $x_0$  and  $x_1$  and  $\xi$  is between  $x_0$  and  $\xi_1$  we have that  $\xi$  is between  $x_0$  and  $x_1$ .

This generalizes

**Theorem 31.** Let f be n+1 times differentiable on the open interval I. Let  $x_0, x_1 \in I$  with  $x_0 \neq x_1$ . Assume that

- $f(x_0) = f'(x_0) = \dots = f^{(n)}(x_0) = 0$ ,
- $f(x_1) = 0$ .

Then there is a point  $\xi$  between  $x_0$  and  $x_1$  with

$$f^{(n+1)}(\xi) = 0.$$

**Problem** 29. Prove this. *Hint:* There are several ways to do this. One is to look at the proof of Proposition 30 and meditate upon induction.  $\Box$ 

**Proposition 32.** Let f be twice differentiable on the open interval I and let  $a, b \in I$  with  $a \neq b$ . Then there is a  $\xi$  between a and b with

$$f(b) = f(a) + f'(a)(b - a) + \frac{f''(\xi)}{2}(b - a)^{2}.$$

*Proof.* Let h be defined on I by

$$h(x) = f(x) - f(a) - f'(a)(x - a) - c(x - a)^{2}$$

where c is a constant to be chosen shortly. Note

$$h(a) = 0$$

and

$$h'(x) = f'(x) - f'(a) - 2c(x - a),$$

and thus

$$h'(a) = 0.$$

With applying Proposition 30 in mind, we choose c so that h(b) = 0. That is

$$h(b) = f(b) - f(a) - f'(a)(b - a) - c(b - a)^{2} = 0$$

which leads to

$$c = \frac{f(b) - f(a) - f'(a)(b - a)}{(b - a)^2}.$$

With this choice of c we have h(a) = h'(a) = h(b) = 0 and thus by Proposition 32 there is a  $\xi$  between a and b with

$$h''(\xi) = 0.$$

By direct calculation

$$h''(x) = f''(x) - 2c.$$

Then  $h''(\xi) = 0$  yields

$$f''(\xi) - 2c = 0.$$

But using the formula for c above we find

$$f''(\xi) - 2\left(\frac{f(b) - f(a) - f'(a)(b - a)}{(b - a)^2}\right) = 0$$

which can be rearranged to give

$$f(b) = f(a) + f'(a)(b - a) + \frac{f''(\xi)}{2}(b - a)^2$$

as required.

As this was a more or less direct consequence of Proposition 30 it makes sense to look for a generalization that depends on Theorem 31. To make life a little easier on ourselves we first do the case of n = 4.

**Lemma 33.** Let f be a function that is four times differentiable on an open interval I and let  $a \in I$ . Let T(x) be the polynomial (2)

$$T(x) = f(a) + f'(a)(x-a) + \frac{f''(a)}{2}(x-a)^2 + \frac{f^{(3)}(a)}{3!}(x-a)^3 + \frac{f^{(4)}(a)}{4!}(x-a)^4,$$

and set

$$g(x) = f(x) - T(x).$$

Then

$$g(a) = g'(a) = g''(a) = g^{(3)}(a) = g^{(4)}(a) = 0.$$

**Problem** 30. Prove this.

**Theorem 34.** Let f be five times differentiable on the open interval I and  $a, b \in I$  with  $a \neq b$ . Then there is a  $\xi$  between a and b such that

$$f(b) = f(a) + f'(a)(b-a) + \frac{f''(a)}{2}(b-a)^2 + \frac{f^{(3)}(a)}{3!}(b-a)^3 + \frac{f^{(4)}(a)}{4!}(b-a)^4 + \frac{f^{(5)}(\xi)}{5!}(b-a)^5.$$

Or in different notation let T(x) be the polynomial (2), then this is

$$f(b) = T(b) + \frac{f^{(5)}(\xi)}{5!}(b-a)^5.$$

Problem 31. Prove this. Hint: Let

$$h(x) = f(x) - T(x) - c(x - a)^5$$

where we choose c so that

$$h(b) = 0.$$

Show  $h(a) = h'(a) = h''(a) = h^{(3)}(a) = h^{(4)}(a) = 0$ . Now use Theorem 31 and now proceed as in the proof of Proposition 32.

**Definition 35.** Let f be n times differentiable on a neighborhood of a. Then the **degree** n **Taylor polynomial** of f at x is

$$T_n(x) := \sum_{k=0}^n f^{(k)}(a) \frac{(x-a)^k}{k!}.$$

**Problem** 32. Show that if f is n times differentiable on an open interval I and  $T_n$  is its degree n Taylor polynomial at a, then for  $0 \le k \le n$ 

$$T_n^{(k)}(a) = f^{(k)}(a).$$

That is the k-th derivatives of  $T_n$  and f agree at a for  $0 \le k \le n$ .

**Theorem 36** (Taylor's Theorem with Lagrange's form of the remainder). Let f be (n+1) times differentiable on the open interval I and let  $a, b \in I$  with  $a \neq b$ . Let  $T_n$  be the degree n Taylor polynomial of f at a. Then there is a  $\xi$  between a and b such that

$$f(b) = T_n(b) + f^{(n+1)}(\xi) \frac{(b-a)^{n+1}}{(n+1)!}.$$

(The term  $E_n(b) = f^{(n+1)}(\xi) \frac{(b-a)^{n+1}}{(n+1)!} = f(b) - T_n(b)$  is the **error term** or **remainder term** when approximating f by its Taylor polynomial  $T_n$ .)

We restate this with slightly different notation (just replacing a and b with  $x_0$  and x.)

**Theorem 37** (Taylor's Theorem with Lagrange's form of the remainder, form 2). Let f be (n+1) times differentiable on the open interval I and let  $x, x_0 \in I$  with  $x \neq x_0$ . There there is a  $\xi$  between x and  $x_0$  such that

$$f(x) = \sum_{k=0}^{n} f^{(k)}(x_0) \frac{(x-x_0)^k}{k!} + f^{(n+1)}(\xi) \frac{(x-x_0)^{n+1}}{(n+1)!}.$$

Remark 38. In the case that n=0 this becomes

$$f(x) = f(x_0) + f'(\xi)(x - x_0),$$

which can be rewritten as  $f(x) - f(x_0) = f'(\xi)(x - x_0)$ . That is for n = 0 we just get the mean value theorem.

One last restatement of Taylor's theorem. If we let  $x = x_0 + h$  we get

$$f(x_0 + h) = \sum_{k=0}^{n} f^{(k)}(x_0) \frac{h^k}{k!} + f^{(n+1)}(\xi) \frac{h^{n+1}}{(n+1)!}$$

where  $\xi$  is between  $x_0$  and  $x_0 + h$ .

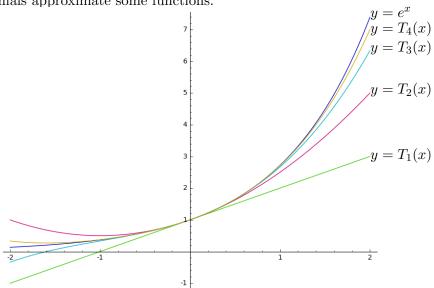
As an examples of Taylor's theorem we have

$$e^x = 1 + x + \frac{x^2}{2!} + \frac{x^3}{3!} + \frac{e^{\xi}x^4}{4!}$$
 (Used  $n = 3$ .)

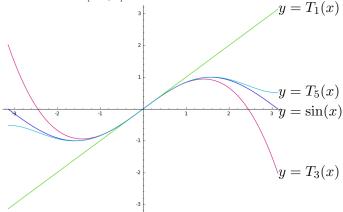
$$\cos(x) = 1 - \frac{x^2}{2!} + \frac{x^4}{4!} - \frac{\cos(\xi)x^6}{6!}$$
 (Used  $n = 5$ .)

$$\cos(x) = 1 - \frac{x^2}{2!} + \frac{x^4}{4!} - \frac{\cos(\xi)x^6}{6!}$$
 (Used  $n = 5$ .)  
 
$$\sin(x) = x - \frac{x^3}{3!} + \frac{x^5}{5!} - \frac{\cos(\xi)x^7}{7!}$$
 (Used  $n = 6$ .)

where  $\xi$  is between x and 0 (and of course the value of  $\xi$  is different in each of the three equations). Here are some graphs that show how closely Taylor polynomials approximate some functions.



Graphs of  $y = e^x$  and the Taylor polynomials  $y = T_n(x)$  for k =1, 2, 3, 4 on the interval [-2, 2]



Graphs of  $y = \sin(x)$  and the Taylor polynomials  $y = T_1(x)$ , y = $T_2(x) = T_3(x)$ , and  $y = T_4(x) = T_5(x)$ . on the interval  $[-\pi, \pi]$ . (If  $f(x) = \sin(x)$ , then for odd positive integers n we have  $f^n(0) = 0$ . Therefore  $T_{2k}(x) = T_{2k+1}(x)$ .)