Notes on MAT137 Video Playlist 3

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1 Video Playlist 3

1.1 Define Derivate As Slope

Definition Let $a \in \mathbb{R}$, and f(x) is defined on $(a-\delta, a+\delta)$, then the **derivative** of f(x) at a is,

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

Definition If function is **differentiable** at point x = a, if and only if, there exists,

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

Interpretation $f'(a)$ is the slope of tangent line a x = a.

1.2 Calculate f'(x) by definition

Example $f(x) = 4x - x^2$, find $f'(1)$:

$$\begin{aligned} f'(1) = \lim_{h \to 0} \frac{f(1+h) - f(1)}{h} &= \lim_{h \to 0} \frac{4(h+1) - (h+1)^2 - 3}{h} \\ = \lim_{h \to 0} \frac{4h + 4 - 3 - h^2 - 2h - 1}{h} &= \lim_{h \to 0} \frac{-h^2 + 2h}{h} \\ &= \lim_{h \to 0} -h + 2 = 2 \end{aligned}$$

1.3 Rate of Change

Definition Define derivative as rate of change. Let $x = f(t)$, then $f'(x)$ can be represented as,

$$\lim_{\Delta t \to 0} \frac{\Delta x}{\Delta t} = f'(t) = \frac{dx}{dt}$$

1.4 The Product Rule (Formal Version)

Let $a \in \mathbb{R}$, f and g are functions defined at $(a - \delta, a + \delta)$, let $h(x) = f(x)g(x)$. Then, if $f(x), g(x)$ are differentiable at a, we have,

$$h'(a) = f'(a)g(a) + f(a)g'(a)$$

1.5 Differentiable $\implies$ Continuous

Recall f(x) is **differentiable** at a:

$$\exists \lim_{x \to a} \frac{f(x) - f(a)}{x - a} \tag{1}$$

Recall f(x) is **continuous** at a:

$$\lim_{x\to a} f(x) = f(a) \tag{2}$$

Proof.

$$\begin{aligned}
&\text{Since f(x) is differentiable at a} \\
(1) \iff \exists &\lim_{x\to a} \frac{f(x)-f(a)}{x-a} \\
\text{And } &\lim_{x\to a}(x-a) = 0 \\
\implies &\lim_{x\to a} \frac{f(x)-f(a)}{x-a} \lim_{x\to a} x-a = 0 \\
\implies &\lim_{x\to a} \frac{f(x)-f(a)}{x-a} x-a = 0 \\
\implies &\lim_{x\to a} f(x)-f(a) = 0 \\
\implies &\lim_{x\to a} f(x) = f(a)
\end{aligned}$$

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1.6 Proof of product rule for derivative.

$(fg)' = f'g + fg'$, see above for a formal definition.

$$\begin{aligned}
&\text{Let } h = fg \\
h'(a) &= \lim_{x\to a} \frac{h(x)-h(a)}{x-a} \\
&= \lim_{x\to a} \frac{f(x)g(x)-f(a)g(a)}{x-a} \\
&= \lim_{x\to a} \frac{f(x)g(x)+f(a)g(x)-f(a)g(x)-f(a)g(a)}{x-a} \\
&= \lim_{x\to a} \frac{g(x)(f(x)-f(a))+f(a)(g(x)-g(a))}{x-a} \\
&= \lim_{x\to a} g(x)\frac{f(x)-f(a)}{x-a} + \lim_{x\to a} f(a)\frac{g(x)-g(a)}{x-a} \\
&= g(a)\lim_{x\to a} \frac{f(x)-f(a)}{x-a} + f(a)\lim_{x\to a} \frac{g(x)g(a)}{x-a} \\
&= g(a)f'(a) + f(a)g'(a)
\end{aligned}$$

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1.7 Partial proof of differentiation rule

WTS $\frac{d}{dx}x^c = cx^{c-1}$, $\forall c \in \mathbb{R}$

Here we only prove statements is true $\forall c \in \mathbb{Z}^+$

Proof.

$$\begin{aligned}
&\textbf{Base: c = 1}\\
f(x) &= x\\
f'(x) &= \lim_{x\to a}\frac{f(x)-f(a)}{x-a}\\
&= \lim_{x\to a} 1 = 1\\
&\textbf{Induction step}\\
\text{Assume } \frac{d}{dx}[x^k] &= kx^{k-1}|_{x=a}\\
\text{For } f(x) &= x^{k+1}\\
f'(x) &= \frac{d}{dx}[x * x^k]\\
&= x^k + xkx^{k-1}\\
&= (k+1)x^k
\end{aligned}$$

■

1.8 Higher Order Derivatives: Notations

Original function: $f(x)$

- **Lagrange** notation: $f^{(n)}$
- **Leibnitz** notation: $\frac{d^n f}{dx^n}$

1.9 Continuous But Not differentiable

Definition Function $f(x)$ is **non-differentiable** at a.

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

Example 1 **Corner/Kink** $f(x) = |x|$ at 0.

$$\begin{aligned}
\lim_{x\to 0^-}\frac{f(x)-f(0)}{x} &= \lim_{x\to 0^-}\frac{|x|}{x} = -1\\
\lim_{x\to 0^+}\frac{f(x)-f(0)}{x} &= \lim_{x\to 0^+}\frac{|x|}{x} = 1\\
\lim_{x\to 0^-} &\neq \lim_{x\to 0^+}\\
\implies \lim_{x\to 0}\frac{f(x)-f(0)}{x} &\textbf{ DNE}
\end{aligned}$$

Example 2 Vertical Tangent Line $g(x) = x^{\frac{1}{3}}$ at 0,

$$g'(0) = \lim_{x \to 0} \frac{x^{\frac{1}{3}}}{x} = \lim_{x \to 0} \frac{1}{x^{\frac{2}{3}}} = \infty \textbf{(DNE)}$$

Caution Difference between **vertical asymptote** and **vertical tangent line**

- Vertical asymptote: $f(a) = \infty$ (f(a) is not defined)
- Vertical tangent line: $f(a)$ is defined, $f'(a)$ is undefined.

1.10 Chain Rule

Derivation

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

Attention: we could only apply the operation above if $f(x) \neq f(a)$ during the process of $x \to a$. This holds for majority of functions we operate in calculus.

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

■

Formal Theorem of Chain Rule Let $a \in \mathbb{R}$, let f and g be functions. If f is differentiable at a and g is differentiable at $f(a)$, then, $(g \circ f)$ is differentiable at a,

$$(g \circ f)'(a) = g'(f(a)) \cdot f'(a)$$

1.11 Derivatives of Trig Functions

Basic 6 results

1. $\frac{d}{dx} sin(x) = cos(x)$
2. $\frac{d}{dx} cos(x) = -sin(x)$
3. $\frac{d}{dx} tan(x) = sec^2(x)$
4. $\frac{d}{dx} cot(x) = -csc^2(x)$
5. $\frac{d}{dx} sec(x) = sec(x)tan(x)$
6. $\frac{d}{dx} csc(x) = -csc(x)cot(x)$

Proof. Prove (i) and (ii) and use (i), (ii) and quotient rule to derive (iii), (iv), (v) and (vi).

Proof. (i) **WTS** $f(x) = sin(x)$, then $f'(x) = cos(x)$

$$\begin{aligned} f'(x) &= \lim_{h\to 0} \frac{sin(x+h) - sin(x)}{h} \\ &= \lim_{h\to 0} \frac{sin(x)cos(h) + cos(x)sin(h) - sin(x)}{h} \\ &= \lim_{h\to 0} \frac{sin(x)(cos(h)-1) + cos(x)sin(x)}{h} \\ &= \lim_{h\to 0} cos(x)\frac{sin(h)}{h} \\ &= cos(x) \end{aligned}$$

■ (3)

Proof. (ii) **WTS** $f(x) = cos(x)$, then $f'(x) = -sin(x)$

$$\begin{aligned} f'(x) &= \lim_{h\to 0} \frac{cos(x+h) - cos(x)}{h} \\ &= \lim_{h\to 0} \frac{cos(x)cos(h) - sin(h)sin(x) - cos(x)}{h} \\ &= \lim_{h\to 0} \frac{(cos(h)-1)cos(x) - sin(h)sin(x)}{h} \\ &= \lim_{h\to 0} -\frac{sin(h)}{h}sin(x) \\ &= -sin(x) \end{aligned}$$

■ (4)

Recall Compound angle formula:

1. $sin(\alpha+\beta) = sin(\alpha)cos(\beta) + sin(\beta)cos(\alpha)$
2. $sin(\alpha-\beta) = sin(\alpha)cos(\beta) - sin(\beta)cos(\alpha)$
3. $cos(\alpha+\beta) = cos(\alpha)cos(\beta) - sin(\alpha)sin(\beta)$
4. $cos(\alpha-\beta) = cos(\alpha)cos(\beta) + sin(\alpha)sin(\beta)$

1.12 Implicit Differentiation

Key Use chain rule.

1.13 Derivative of Exponential Functions

Let $f(x) = a^x$ $(a > 0)$, find $f'(x)$, by definition,

$$\begin{aligned} f'(x) &= \lim_{h\to 0} \frac{f(x+h) - f(x)}{h} \\ &= \lim_{h\to 0} \frac{a^{x+h} - a^x}{h} \\ &= \lim_{h\to 0} \frac{a^x a^h - a^x}{h} \\ &= \lim_{h\to 0} \frac{(a^n - 1)a^x}{h} \end{aligned}$$

By property of limit, h is the only variable, so that a^x is a constant

$$= a^x \lim_{h\to 0} \frac{a^h - 1}{h} \tag{5}$$

Equivalently, $\frac{d}{dx}a^x = L_a a^x$

Definition e is the only positive number, such that,

$$\lim_{h\to 0} \frac{e^h - 1}{h} = 1$$

So that, $\frac{d}{dx}e^x = e^x$

1.14 Properties of logarithms

Definition Let $a > 0, a \neq 1, x > 0, y \in \mathbb{R}$,

$$\log_a x = y \iff a^y = x$$

Properties

1. $\log_a 1 = 0$
2. $\log_a a = 1$
3. $\log_a x = \frac{\log_b x}{\log ba}$
4. $\log_a xy = \log_a x + \log_a y$
5. $\log_a \frac{x}{y} = \log_a x - \log_a y$
6. $\log_a x^r = r \log_a x$

Proof. **(i)** let $a > 0, a \neq 1, letx, y > 0$, **WTS** $\log_a xy = \log_a x + \log_a y$

$$\begin{aligned}
\text{Let } p = \log_a x &\iff a^p = x \\
\text{Let } q = \log_a y &\iff a^q = y \\
\text{We have } a^p a^q &= xy \\
\iff a^{p+q} &= xy \\
\iff \log_a xy = p + q &= \log_a x + \log_a y
\end{aligned}$$

■

1.15 The derivatives of logarithm functions

For $\ln x$ $\quad \frac{d}{dx} \ln x = \frac{1}{x}$

$$\begin{aligned}
e^{\ln x} &= x \\
\frac{d}{dx} e^{\ln x} &= \frac{d}{dx} x \\
\frac{d}{d \ln x} e^{lnx} \cdot \frac{d}{dx} \ln x &= 1 \\
x \frac{d \ln x}{dx} &= 1 \\
\frac{d}{dx} \ln x &= \frac{1}{x}
\end{aligned}$$

■

1.16 Derivative of other exponentials

WTS $\quad \frac{d}{dx} a^x = \ln a \cdot a^x$,

$$\begin{aligned}
a^x = (e^{\ln a})^x &= e^{x \ln a} \\
\frac{d}{dx} a^x &= \frac{d}{dx} e^{x \ln a} \\
= \frac{d}{dx} e^{x \ln a} \cdot \frac{d}{dx} &\ln a \\
&= e^{x \ln a} \ln a \\
&= \ln a \cdot a^x
\end{aligned}$$

■

1.17 The power rule, complete proof

WTS $x^c = cx^{c-1}$

$$\begin{aligned} x^c = (e^{\ln x})^c &= e^{c\ln x} \\ \text{So that } \frac{d}{dx}x^c &= \frac{d}{dx}e^{c\ln x} \\ &= \frac{de^{c\ln x}}{d\ln xc}\cdot\frac{\ln xc}{d\ln x}\cdot\frac{d\ln x}{dx} \\ &= e^{c\ln x}\cdot c\cdot\frac{1}{x} \\ &= c\cdot x^c\cdot\frac{1}{x} \\ &= cx^{c-1} \\ &\blacksquare \end{aligned}$$

1.18 Logarithmic Differentiation

Example $f(x) = cos(x)^{sin(x)}(\star)$, find $f'(x)$

Step1. Take ln on both sides of $(\star)$

$$\ln f(x) = \ln cos(x)^{sin(x)} = sin(x)\ln cos(x)$$

Step2. Take derivative.

$$\frac{f'(x)}{f(x)} = cos(x)\ln cos(x) - sin^2(x)\frac{1}{cos(x)}$$

Step3. Solve for $f'(x)$

$$f'(x) = cos(x)^{sin(x)}(cos(x)\ln cos(x) - sin^2(x)\frac{1}{cos(x)})$$

2 Video Playlist 4

2.1 Functions

In calculus We assume the domain is the largest subset of $\mathbb{R}$ that makes sense. And assume the codomain is always $\mathbb{R}$.

Notations

Math	Computer Science
Domain	Domain
Codomain	Range
Range	Image

2.2 Inverse Functions

Definition Let $f : A \to B$ be a function. Function $f^{-1} : B \to A$ is the **inverse function** is and only if

$$\forall x \in A, \forall y \in B, x = f^{-1}(y) \iff y = f(x)$$

Properties

- $\forall x \in A, f^{-1}(f(x)) = x$
- $\forall y \in B, f(f^{-1}(y)) = y$

Pre-condition Function f has inverse function f^{-1} if and only if f is **injective/one-to-one** function.

2.3 Surjective Functions

Why function don't have an inverse: Part 1.

Definition Function $f(x)$ is **surjective/onto** if $codomain(f(x)) = range(f(x))$.

Problem If $f(x)$ is not surjective, then some points in codomain has no corresponding point in domain, then f^{-1} is not a function.

Solution **Shrink** the codomain to range.

Example Let $f(x) = e^x$, $g(x) = \ln x$, then we have,

- - $Domain(f(x)) = \mathbb{R}$
  - $Codomain(f(x)) = \mathbb{R}$
  - $Range(f(x)) = (0, \infty)$
- - $Domaing(x) = (0, \infty)$
  - $Codomaing(x) = \mathbb{R}$
  - $Rangeg(x) = \mathbb{R}$

Definition Definition of inverse in calculus (*simplified, we don't consider codomain here.*)

Let $f(x)$ be a function, and $f^{-1}(x)$ be the **inverse** of it. Then,

- $Domain(f^{-1}(x)) = Range(f(x))$
- $Range(f^{-1}(x)) = Domain(f(x))$

also,

$$\forall x \in Domain(f(x)), \forall y \in Range(f(x)), x = f^{-1}(y) \iff y = f(x)$$

and,

$$\forall x \in Domain(f(x)), f^{-1}(f(x)) = x$$
$$\forall y \in Range(f(x)), f(f^{-1}(y)) = y$$

2.4 Injective function

Definition Let $f(x)$ be a function, with $Domain(f(x)) = A$, we say $f(x)$ is **injective/one-to-one** when,

$$\forall x_1, x_2 \in A, x_1 \neq x_2 \implies f(x_1) \neq f(x_2)$$

equivalently (contrapositive)

$$f(x_1) = f(x_2) \implies x_1 = x_2$$

Theorem Function f has an inverse if and only if f is **injective**.

Example $f(x) = x^2$ has no inverse, but we could take it's inverse by shrinking the domain.

- Take domain $= [0, \infty)$, $f^{-1}(x) = \sqrt{x}$
- Take domain $= (-\infty, 0]$, $f^{-1}(x) = -\sqrt{x}$

2.5 Some theorems

Let $f(x)$ be a function with domain I.

Theorem 1 Function f has an inverse function f^{-1} if and only if f is injective.

Theorem 2 For function f, if

1. f is **continuous** (*This means, f is continuous on its domain.*).
2. I is an **interval**.

then, $f^{-1}(x)$ is continuous.

Theorem 3 If

1. f is **differentiable**.
2. $\forall x \in I, f'(x) \neq 0$ (*This ensures the inverse function does not have a vertical tangent line, which causes non-differentiability*).

then, $f^{-1}(x)$ is differentiable.

Theorem 4 $\forall x \in I$ with $y = f(x)$, we have

$$(f^{-1})'(y) = \frac{1}{f'(x)}$$

Proof.

$$f(f^{-1}(y)) = y$$
$$\frac{d}{dy} f(f^{-1}(y)) = \frac{d}{dy} y$$
$$\frac{d}{dy} f(f^{-1}(y)) = 1$$
$$f'(f^{-1}(y)) \cdot (f^{-1})'(y) = 1$$
$$f'(x) \cdot (f^{-1})'(y) = 1$$
$$(f^{-1})'(y) = \frac{1}{f'(x)}$$

■

2.6 ArcSin

Note $ArcSin$ is **NOT** the inverse of Sin. $y = sin(x)$ has $domain = \mathbb{R}$ and $range = [-1, 1]$, so that, it is **not injective**.

Definition $ArcSin$ is the inverse function to the **restriction** of sin to $[-\frac{\pi}{2}, \frac{\pi}{2}]$. So that, $Domain(ArcSin) = Range(Sin) = [-1, 1]$, and, $Range(ArcSin) = Domain(Sin) = [-\frac{\pi}{2}, \frac{\pi}{2}]$.

Meaning $ArcSin(\frac{1}{2}) = t$ means:

$$\begin{cases} sin(t) = \frac{1}{2} \\ -\frac{\pi}{2} \leq t \leq \frac{\pi}{2} \end{cases}$$

Composite

$$\forall x \in [-\frac{\pi}{2}, \frac{\pi}{2}], ArcSin(Sin(x)) = x$$
$$\forall y \in [-1, 1], Sin(ArcSin(y)) = y$$

2.7 Derivative of ArcSin

Result

$$\frac{dArcSin(x)}{dx} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1 - x^2}}$$

Derive.

$$\begin{aligned}
&\forall x \in [-1,1] \\
&Sin(ArcSin(x)) = x \\
\frac{d}{dx}&Sin(ArcSin(x)) = \frac{d}{dx}x \\
Cos(ArcSin(x)) \cdot &\frac{d}{dx}ArcSin(x) = 1 \\
\frac{d}{dx}&ArcSin(x) = \frac{1}{Cos(ArcSin(x))} \\
&\text{Let } \theta = ArcSin(x) \\
&Cos^2(\theta) = 1 - Sin^2(\theta) \\
&Cos(\theta) = \pm\sqrt(1-x^2) \\
&\text{Since } \forall\theta \in [-\frac{\pi}{2}, \frac{\pi}{2}], Sin(\theta) \geq 0 \\
&\implies Cos(\theta) = +\sqrt{1-x^2} \\
&\implies \frac{d}{dx}ArcSin(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1-x^2}}
\end{aligned}$$

■

2.8 Other inverse trig functions

2.8.1 $y = Cos(x)$

Definition $ArcCos$ is the inverse function to the restriction of $Cos(x)$ to $[0, \pi]$, and,

$$\forall x \in [-1,1], \forall y \in [0,\pi], x = ArcCos(y) \iff Cos(y) = x$$

Result

$$\frac{d}{dx}ArcCos(x) = -\frac{1}{\sqrt{1-x^2}}$$

2.8.2 $y = Tan(x)$

Definition $ArcTan(x)$ is the inverse function to the restriction of $Tan(x)$ to $[-\frac{\pi}{2}, \frac{\pi}{2}]$, and,

$$\forall y \in \mathbb{R}, \forall x \in [-\frac{\pi}{2}, \frac{\pi}{2}], x = ArcTan(y) \iff Tan(x) = y$$

3 Video Playlist 5

3.1 Usage of MVT

Theorem Let I be an open interval. Let f be a function defined on I. If $\forall x \in I, f'(x) = 0$ then f is a constant function.

If we want to prove this theorem, we need mean value theorem

3.2 Local Extreme Theorem

Definition Let f be a function with domain I, let $c \in I$.

- f takes **maximum** at c if $\forall x \in I, f(x) \leq f(c)$.
- f takes **local maximum** at c if $\exists \delta > 0, s.t. |x - c| < \delta \implies f(x) \leq f(c)$.

Definition Let f be a function with domain I, let $c \in I$.

- f takes **minimum** at c if $\forall x \in I, f(x) \geq f(c)$.
- f takes **local minimum** at c if $\exists \delta > 0, s.t. |x - c| < \delta \implies f(x) \geq f(c)$.

End-point cannot be a local extremum since the definition of local extremum requires a open interval at both left and right sides around point c.

Theorem (Local EVT) Let f be a function with domain I as an interval. Let $c \in I$, then if,

1. $f(c)$ is an extremum.
2. c is an interior point.

then, $f'(c) = 0$ or DNE.

Definition Point $c \in I$ for function f is a **critical point** if $f'(c) = 0$ or it does not exist.

Proof. (Local EVT) Proof is in two parts: (1) f has maximum at c, (2) f has minimum at c.

$$\begin{aligned}
&\text{Part1: } f(c) \text{ is a maximum}\\
&\text{Take left and right side limits}\\
&\text{As} x \to c^+, x - c > 0\\
&\text{As} x \to c^-, x - c < 0\\
&\text{By definition of maximum} f(x) - f(c) \leq 0\\
&\text{Left limit}\\
&x - c < 0 \wedge f(x) - f(c) \leq 0\\
&\implies \lim x \to c^- \frac{f(x) - f(c)}{x - c} \geq 0\\
&\text{Right limit}\\
&x - c > 0 \wedge f(x) - f(c) \leq 0\\
&\implies \lim x \to c^+ \frac{f(x) - f(c)}{x - c} \leq 0\\
&\text{For limit to exist}\\
\lim x \to c^+ \frac{f(x) - f(c)}{x - c} \leq 0 \wedge &\lim x \to c^- \frac{f(x) - f(c)}{x - c} \geq 0\\
&\implies \lim_{x \to c} \frac{f(x) - f(c)}{x - c} = 0\\
&\iff f'(c) = 0\\
&\text{Part2: } f(c) \text{ is a minimum}\\
&\text{Take left and right side limits}\\
&\text{As} x \to c^+, x - c > 0\\
&\text{As} x \to c^-, x - c < 0\\
&\text{By definition of maximum} f(x) - f(c) \geq 0\\
&\text{Left limit}\\
&x - c < 0 \wedge f(x) - f(c) \geq 0\\
&\implies \lim x \to c^- \frac{f(x) - f(c)}{x - c} \leq 0\\
&\text{Right limit}\\
&x - c > 0 \wedge f(x) - f(c) \geq 0\\
&\implies \lim x \to c^+ \frac{f(x) - f(c)}{x - c} \geq 0\\
&\text{For limit to exist}\\
\lim x \to c^+ \frac{f(x) - f(c)}{x - c} \geq 0 \wedge &\lim x \to c^- \frac{f(x) - f(c)}{x - c} \leq 0\\
&\implies \lim_{x \to c} \frac{f(x) - f(c)}{x - c} = 0\\
&\iff f'(c) = 0
\end{aligned}$$

■

3.3 Find Extremum

Example find extremum of function $f(x) = x^3 - 3x^2 - 9x + 3$ for $I = [-4, 4]$

Steps

1. Ensure existence of extremum. f is polynomial and therefore continuous, and $[-4, 4]$ is a compact set. By EVT, extremum exist.
2. Find all *critical points* and *end-points.*
3. Compare values at candidate points.

3.4 Rolle's Theorem

Theorem let $a < b$, let f be a function defined on a closed interval $[a, b]$ (Compact set). Then, if,

1. $f(x)$ is continuous on $[a, b]$.
2. $(\wedge)$ $f(x)$ is differentiable on (a, b).
3. $(\wedge)$ $f(a) = f(b)$.

then,

$$\exists c \in (a, b) s.t. f'(c) = 0$$

Proof.

$$\begin{aligned}
&\text{By EVT, } f(x) \text{ has extremum in } [a, b]. \\
&\textbf{Case1}\text{Interior Extremum Point.}(c \in (a, b)) \\
&\text{By Local EVT, } f'(c) = 0 \vee f'(c) DNE \\
&\text{By (ii)} f'(c) = 0 \\
&\textbf{Case2}\text{End-point Extremum} \\
&\text{Since (iii)} f(a) = f(b) \\
&\forall x \in (a, b) \\
&f(x) \leq max(f(a), f(b)) \\
&f(x) \geq min(f(a), f(b)) \\
&\implies f(x) \text{ is constant.} \\
&\implies \forall c \in (a, b), f(c) = 0
\end{aligned}$$

■

3.5 Application of Rolle's Theorem

Application How many zeros does a function have.

Step 1 Use IVT to prove it has *at least* n zeros.

Step 2 Use Rolle's theorem to prove it has *at most* n zeros.

Example

$$g(x) = x^6 + x^2 + x - 2$$

IVT Applied

$$\begin{aligned} g(-2) &= 64 \\ g(0) &= -2 \\ g(1) &= 1 \end{aligned}$$

So that, $g(x)$ has at least 2 zeros.

Rolle's theorem applied Assume $f(x_1) = f(x_2) = 0$, by Rolle's theorem, there must exits a $a \in (x_1, x_2)$ such that $f'(a) = 0$

Conclusion 1 Between any two zeros of f there must be *at least* one zero of f'.

Conclusion 2 $\sharp$ of zeros of $f' \geq \sharp$ of zeros of f - 1

Conclusion 2' $\sharp$ of zeros of f $\leq \sharp$ of zeros of f' + 1

$$\begin{aligned} g'(x) &= 6x^5 + 2x + 1 \\ g''(x) &= 30x^4 + 2 \\ g''(x) &\text{ has no zeros} \end{aligned}$$

3.6 (Lagrange)Mean Value Theorem

Theorem Let $a < b$, let f be a function defined on $[a, b]$, if,

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

then,

$$\exists c \in (a, b) s.t. f'(c) = \frac{f(b) - f(a)}{b - a}$$

3.7 Proof. of MVT

$$
\begin{aligned}
\text{Let } m &= \frac{f(b)-f(a)}{b-a} \\
\text{Let } g(x) &= f(x)-f(a)-m(x-a) \\
\text{Satisfies } g(a) &= f(a)-f(a)-m(a-a)=0 \\
\wedge g(b) &= f(b)-f(a)-m(b-a)=0 \\
&\text{By Rolle's Theorem} \\
g(a) &= g(b)=0 \\
\exists c \in (a,b) s.t. g'(c) &= 0 \\
\implies \frac{d}{x}[f(x)-f(a)-m(x-a)] &= 0 \\
\implies f'(c) &= \frac{f(b)-f(a)}{b-a}
\end{aligned}
$$

■

3.8 Zero-derivative implies constant

Theorem Let $a<b$. Let f be a function defined on $[a,b]$, then,

$$\forall x \in (a,b), f'(x)=0 \wedge \ f \text{ is continuous on } [a,b] \implies f \text{ is constant on [a,b].}$$

proof.

$$
\begin{aligned}
\text{Let } x_1, x_2 &\in [a,b] \wedge x_1 < x_2 \\
\text{By MVT, } \exists c &\in (x_1,x_2), s.t. \\
f'(c) &= \frac{f(x_2)-f(x_1)}{x_2-x_1} \\
\because f'(c) &= 0 \\
\therefore f(x_1) &= f(x_2)
\end{aligned}
$$

3.9 Monotonicity of functions

Definition Let f be a function defined on an interval I.

- f is **increasing on I** when

$$\forall x_1, x_2 \in I, x_1 < x_2 \implies f(x_1) < f(x_2)$$

- f is **non-decreasing on I** when

$$\forall x_1, x_2 \in I, x_1 < x_2 \implies f(x_1) \le f(x_2)$$

Theorem Let $a < b$. Let f be a function defined on (a, b). Then,

$$\forall x \in (a, b), f'(x) > 0 \implies f \text{ is increasing on (a,b)}$$

Theorem Let $a < b$. Let f be a function defined on $[a, b]$. Then,

$$\forall x \in (a, b), f'(x) > 0 \wedge f \text{ is continuous on } [a, b] \implies f \text{ is increasing on } [a, b]$$

Short summary On an open interval

- $f' = 0 \implies f$ constant.
- $f' > 0 \implies f$ increasing.
- $f' < 0 \implies f$ decreasing.

4 Video Playlist 7

4.1 Integral

Integral Let $a < b$, let f be a positive function, then *integral of f from a to b* is denoted as:

$$\int_a^b f(x)\ dx$$

this is represented as the area of region under function f from $x = a$ to $x = b$.

4.2 Sigma Notation

Sigma Notation The sigma notation, with **index** i, could be represented in the following form:

$$\sum_{i=1}^{N} a_i = a_1 + a_2 + \cdots + a_N$$

4.3 Supremum and Infimum

Definitions Let $A \subseteq \mathbb{R}$, let $a \in \mathbb{R}$:

- **Upper bound**: a is a upper bound of A means $\forall x \in A,\ x \leq a$.
- **Least upper bound(l.u.b) / Supremum**: a is the least upper bound or supremum(sup) of A iff a is an upper bound of A and $\forall b \in \{\text{upper bound of A}\},\ a \leq b$.
- **Maximum**: if supremum of $A \in A$, it's maximum of A.
- **Bounded above**: A is bounded above if A has (at least) one upper bound.

Definitions (counter-part) Let $A \subseteq \mathbb{R}$, let $a \in \mathbb{R}$:

- **Lower bound**: a is a lower bound of A means $\forall x \in A,\ x \geq a$.
- **Greatest lower bound(g.l.b) / Infimum**: a is the greatest lower bound (g.l.b) or infimum(inf) of A iff a is a lower bound of A and $\forall b \in \{\text{Lower bound of A}\},\ a \geq b$.
- **Minimum**: if infimum of $A \in A$, it's the minimum of A.
- **Bounded below**: A is bounded below if A has (at least) one lower bound.

Theorem: The l.u.b. principle Let $A \subseteq \mathbb{R}$, if A is bounded above and $A \neq \emptyset$, then, A has a least upper bound(supremum).

Theorem: The g.l.b principle Let $A \subseteq \mathbb{R}$, if A is bounded below and $A \neq \emptyset$, then, A has a greatest lower bound(infimum).

4.4 Supremum and Infimum of a function

Definition Supremum of a function f on a domain I is defined as:

$$\sup_{x \in I} f(x) = \sup\{f(x) \mid x \in I\}$$

Theorem Let f be a function defined on domain $I \neq \emptyset$, if f is bounded above, then $\exists \sup_{x \in I} f(x)$. Similarly, if f is bounded below, then $\exists \inf_{x \in I} f(x)$.

Theorem(EVT) Let $a < b$, let f defined on $[a, b]$, if f is continuous on $[a, b]$, then f has a maximum and a minimum on $[a, b]$.

4.5 Definition of Integral (i)

Definition A **partition** of the interval $[a, b]$ is a finite set P, s.t. $\{a, b\} \subseteq P$.

Notation $P = \{x_0, x_1, \ldots x_N\}$ on $[a, b]$. Implicitly, x_i are ordered, such that, $a = x_0 < x_1 < \cdots < x_N = b$.

Let f be bounded on $[a, b]$, let $P = \{x_0, x_1, \ldots, x_N\}$, let $m_i = \inf_{x \in [x_{i-1}, x_i]} f(x)$, and $M_i = \sup_{x \in [x_{i-1}, x_i]} f(x)$, and $\Delta x_i = x_i - x_{i-1}$.

Definition P-Lower sum of f is defined as:

$$L_P(f) = \sum_{i=1}^{N} (m_i \Delta x_i)$$

Definition P-Upper sum of f is defined as:

$$U_P(f) = \sum_{i=1}^{N} (M_i \Delta x_i)$$

Property For all partition P on interval $[a, b]$, the lower sum and upper sum satisfy the following inequality,

$$L_P(f) \leq \int_a^b f(x)\ dx \leq U_P(f)$$

4.6 Definition of Integral (ii): Properties of $U_P(f)$ and $L_P(f)$

Let f be a bounded function on $[a, b]$, let P and Q be partitions of $[a, b]$, the lower sums and upper sums have the following properties.

1. (Always) $L_P(f) \leq U_P(f)$.
2. If $P \subseteq Q$ (Q is a *finer* partition), then $L_P(f) \leq L_Q(f) \wedge U_P(f) \geq U_Q(f)$.
3. (Always) $L_P(f) \leq U_Q(f)$

Proof

$$\begin{gathered} \text{Let } R = P \cup Q, \\ \text{so that, } P \subseteq R \wedge Q \subseteq R. \ \textit{(R is finer than both P and Q)} \\ L_P(f) \leq L_R(f) \leq U_R(f) \leq U_Q(f) \\ \implies L_P(f) \leq U_Q(f) \end{gathered}$$

■

4.7 Definition of Integral (iii): Upper Integral and Lower Integral

Definition Let f be a bounded function on $[a, b]$, then, lower integral of f from a to b is defined as,

$$\underline{I_a^b(f)} = \sup\{\text{lower sums of } f\}$$

and the upper integral of f from a to b is defined as,

$$\overline{I_a^b(f)} = \inf\{\text{upper sums of } f\}$$

Then if $\underline{I_a^b(f)} < \overline{I_a^b(f)}$, then f is **non-integrable** on $[a, b]$.

4.8 An example of integrable function

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} 1 \text{ if } x = 0 \\ 0 \text{ if } x \neq 0 \end{cases} \quad \text{on } [-1, 1]$$

4.9 An example of non-integrable function

$$g(x) = \begin{cases} 1 \text{ if } x \in \mathbb{Q} \\ 0 \text{ if } x \notin \mathbb{Q} \end{cases} \quad \text{on } [-1, 1]$$

4.10 Integrals as limits

Definition Let $P = \{x_0, x_1, \dots, x_N\}$ be a partition of $[a, b]$, the **norm** of P is defined as:

$$\|P\| = \max\{\Delta x_1, \Delta x_2, \dots, \Delta x_N\}$$

Theorem - Lower Integrals For lower integrals, we have,

$$\underline{I_a^b(f)} = \lim_{\|P\| \to 0} L_P(f) = \sup\{\text{lower sums of } f\}$$

alternatively, using $\delta - \epsilon$ expression,

$$\forall \epsilon > 0, \exists \delta > 0 \text{ s.t. } \forall P \text{ over } [a, b], \|P\| < \delta \implies |L_P(f) - \underline{I_a^b(f)}| < \epsilon$$

theorem - Upper Integrals For upper integrals, we have,

$$\overline{I_a^b(f)} = \lim_{\|P\| \to 0} U_P(f)$$

4.11 Riemann Sums

Definition Fix a partition P on $[a, b]$, $m_i = \inf_{x \in [x_{i-1}, x_i]} f(x)$, $M_i = \sup_{x \in [x_{i-1}, x_i]} f(x)$, pick $x_i^\star \in [x_{i-1}, x_i]$, so that,

$$\begin{aligned} m_i \leq f(x_i^\star) \leq M_i \\ \implies m_i \Delta x_i \leq f(x_i^\star) \Delta x_i \leq M_i \Delta x_i \\ \implies L_P(f) = \sum_{i=1}^{N} (m_i \Delta x_i) \leq \sum_{i=1}^{N} (f(x_i^\star) * \Delta x_i) \leq \sum_{i=1}^{N} (M_i \Delta x_i) = U_P(f) \end{aligned}$$

where the term $\sum_{i=1}^{N} (f(x_i^\star) \Delta x_i)$ is called a **Riemann sum**.

Definition Let f be a <u>bounded</u> function on $[a, b]$, let $P = \{x_0, x_1, \dots, x_N\}$ be a partition on $[a, b]$, for each i, pick **any** point $x_i^\star \in [x_{i-1}, x_i]$. then,

$$S_P^\star(f) = \sum_{i=1}^{N} (f(x_i^\star) * \Delta x_i)$$

is <u>a</u> **Riemann sum** for f and P. *(There are infinitely many Riemann sum).*

In general, we have,

$$L_P(f) \leq S_P^\star(f) \leq U_P(f)$$

and also,

$$\lim_{\|P\|\to 0} L_P(f) = \underline{I_a^b(f)}$$

$$\lim_{\|P\|\to 0} U_P(f) = \overline{I_a^b(f)}$$

and if f is **integrable**, then

$$\lim_{\|P\|\to 0} L_P(f) = \lim_{\|P\|\to 0} U_P(f) = \int_a^b f(x)\ dx$$

By <u>Squeeze Theorem</u>,

$$\lim_{\|P\|\to 0} S_P^\star(f) = \int_a^b f(x)\ dx$$

4.12 Properties of the integral

Property 1

$$\int_a^b [f(x) + g(x)]\ dx = \int_a^b f(x)\ dx + \int_a^b g(x)\ dx$$

Property 2

$$\int_a^b [cf(x)]\ dx = c\int_a^b f(x)\ dx$$

Property 3 If f is bounded on $[a, c]$, and f is integrable on $[a, b]$ and integrable on $[b, c]$, then,

$$\int_a^c f(x)\ dx = \int_a^b f(x)\ dx + \int_b^c f(x)\ dx$$

Property 4: Backward Integrals

$$\int_b^a f(x)\ dx = -\int_a^b f(x)\ dx$$

Negative function f Integral for negative function is the negative area.

$$\int_a^b f(x)\ dx$$

5 Video Playlist 8

5.1 Anti-dervatives

Notations

- **Definite integral** $\int_a^b f(x)\ dx$
- **Indefinite integral** $\int f(x)\ dx$

Definition Let f be a function defined on an interval, *an* **anti-dervative** of f is any function F that

$$F' = f$$

Note As a consequence of MVT, if two functions have same dervative on an interval, then they differ by a constant.

5.2 Functions Defined as Integrals

Consider integrable function f, define function F as the definite integral from a, a fixed point in domain of f, to another point x in domain of f, that's,

$$F(x) = \int_a^x f(t)\ dt$$

Methodology Let I be an interval, let $a \in I$ and let f be a function integrable on I, then for each $x \in I$, compute $F(x) = \int_a^x f(t)\ dt$ as a number.

5.3 The Fundamental Theorem of Calculus: Part 1

This provides connections between definite integrals and anti-dervatives

Theorem: FTC(part 1)

- Let I be an interval,
- Let $a \in I$,
- Let f be a function on I.

Define $F(x)$ as

$$F(x) = \int_a^x f(t)\ dt$$

If f is continuous, then F is differentiable and $F' = f$, that's,

$$F'(x) = f(x) \quad \forall x \in I$$

5.4 A Proof of Part 1 of the FTC

Proof.

$$\text{Let(fix) } x \in I$$
$$\text{WTS. } F'(x) = f(x)$$
$$F'(x) = \lim_{h\to 0} \frac{F(x+h) - F(x)}{h}$$
$$= \lim_{h\to 0}[\frac{1}{h}(F(x+h) - F(x))]$$
$$= \lim_{h\to 0}[\frac{1}{h}(\int_a^{x+h} f(t)\ dt - \int_a^x f(t)\ dt)]$$
$$= \lim_{h\to 0}[\frac{1}{h}\int_x^{x+h} f(t)\ dt]$$

Consider $h > 0$ (for negative h, the proof would be similar)

$$\text{Let } M_h = \sup_{[x,x+h]}(f)$$
$$\text{Let } m_h = \inf_{[x,x+h]}(f)$$

Then we have, by definition of infimum and supremum,

$$m_h \leq \frac{1}{h}\int_x^{x+h} f(t)\ dt \leq M_h$$

Since f is continuous on $[x, x+h]$, by EVT, it has maximum and minimum on this interval.

$$\exists c_h \in [x, x+h]\ s.t.\ M_h = f(c_h)$$
$$\exists d_h \in [x, x+h]\ s.t.\ m_h = f(d_h)$$
$$\because \lim_{h\to 0} c_h = x \wedge \lim_{h\to 0} d_h = x$$
$$\therefore \lim_{h\to 0} M_h = \lim_{h\to 0, c_h\to x} f(c_h) = f(x) \text{ (since } f \text{ is continuous.)}$$
$$\text{Similarly, } \lim_{h\to 0} m_h = \lim_{h\to 0, d_h\to x} f(d_h) = f(x)$$
$$\text{By Squeeze Theorem, } \lim_{h\to 0}[\frac{1}{h}\int_x^{x+h} f(t)\ dt] = f(x)$$
$$\therefore F'(x) = f(x)\ \forall x \in I$$

■

5.5 The Fundamental Theorem of Calculus: Part 2

This provides a quick way to compute definite integrals.

Theorem: FTC(part 2)

- Let $a < b \in \mathbb{R}$,
- let f be continuous on $[a, b]$,

then,

$$\int_a^b f(x)\ dx = G(b) - G(a)$$

where G is any anti-dervative of f.

Notation

$$G(b) - G(a) = G(x)|_{x=a}^{x=b} = G(x)|_a^b$$

5.6 A Proof of Part 2 of the FTC

Proof.

$$\begin{gathered}
\text{We know that, from the first part of FTC, } G' = f, \\
\text{WTS. } \int_a^b f(x) = G(b) - G(a) \\
\text{Define } F(x) = \int_a^x f(t)\ dt \\
\text{WTS. } F(b) = G(b) - G(a) \\
\text{Since } f \text{ is continuous,} F' = f \\
\text{By the consequence of MVT,} \\
F' = G' \implies \exists C \in \mathbb{R} s.t. F - G = C \forall x \in [a, b] \\
\text{at } x = a, F(a) = 0 \implies C = -G(a) \\
\implies \forall x \in [a, b] F(x) = G(x) - G(a) \\
\text{at } x = b, F(b) = G(b) - G(a)
\end{gathered}$$

■

5.7 Summary: Definite and indefinite integrals, notation, definitions and theorems.

5.7.1 Definite Integral.

$$\int_a^b f(x)\ dx$$

Theorem (Formal definite) if $\overline{I_a^b}(f) = \underline{I_a^b}(f)$ then $\int_a^b f(x)\ dx = \overline{I_a^b}(f) = \underline{I_a^b}(f)$.

Theorem (FTC: part 2) Choose one anti-dervative $G(x)$ of $f(x)$, then compute the definite integral as $\int_a^b f(x)\ dx = G(b) - G(a)$.

5.7.2 Indefinite Integral

$$\int f(x)\ dx \text{ A collection of functions.}$$

Find indefinite integral Find $G(x)$ as one anti-dervative, by the consequence of MVT, then the indefinite integral of f could be constructed as,

$$F(x) = \{G(x) + C \mid C \in \mathbb{R}\}$$

5.7.3 Function Defined by an Integral.

$$F(x) = \int_a^x f(t)\ dt \text{ This is one function with fixed value of } a.$$

Theorem (FTC: part 1) if f is continuous, then $F'(x) = f(x)$