

Continuity, Differentiation, and Integrals

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Continuity

- A function from metric space (X, d_X) to (Y, d_Y) is **continuous** at x_0 if

$$\forall \epsilon > 0, \exists \delta > 0 \text{ such that } d_X(x, x_0) < \delta \Rightarrow d_Y(f(x), f(x_0)) < \epsilon$$

- If f is continuous at all $x_0 \in X$, we say f is continuous on X .

Theorem

$f : X \mapsto Y$ is continuous at a point $x \in X$ if and only if

$f(x_n) \rightarrow f(x)$ for every sequence $(x_n)_{n \geq 1}$ in X such that $x_n \rightarrow x$

Thus, f is continuous if and only if $x_n \rightarrow x \Rightarrow f(x_n) \rightarrow f(x)$ for every $x \in X$ and every sequence $(x_n)_{n \geq 1}$.

Continuity

- A function from metric space (X, d_X) to (Y, d_Y) is **uniformly continuous** if for all $x_1, x_2 \in X$

$$\forall \epsilon > 0, \exists \delta > 0 \text{ such that } d_X(x_1, x_2) < \delta \Rightarrow d_Y(f(x_1), f(x_2)) < \epsilon$$

- Uniform continuity implies Cauchy continuity.
- Examples:
 - ▶ $x^2 : \mathbb{R} \mapsto \mathbb{R}$ is continuous but not uniformly continuous.
 - ▶ $1/x : \mathbb{R} \mapsto \mathbb{R}$ is continuous but not uniformly continuous.
 - ▶ $x^2 : [a, b] \mapsto \mathbb{R}$ is continuous and uniformly continuous.

Continuity

Theorem

For a function $f : X \mapsto Y$ the following are equivalent

- ① *f is continuous*
- ② *$f^{-1}(U)$ is open in X for every U open in Y*
- ③ *$f^{-1}(F)$ is closed in X for every F closed in Y*

Theorem

Let K be a compact subset of X and $f : K \mapsto Y$ a continuous function. Then, $f(K)$ is compact in Y and f is uniformly continuous.

- Observe what the theorem says: Every continuous function on a compact set is uniformly continuous

Continuity

Theorem

Weierstrass Extreme Value Theorem: *Let K, X and f be as in the above theorem and set $Y = \mathbb{R}$. Then f is bounded and attains its maximum and minimum on K . That is, $\exists M > 0$ and $x_1, x_2 \in K$ such that*

$$|f(x)| \leq M \text{ and } f(x_1) \leq f(x) \leq f(x_2), \forall x \in K$$

Continuity

Theorem

Intermediate Value Theorem: *Let $a < b$ be real numbers and let $f : [a, b] \mapsto \mathbb{R}$ be a continuous function. Then, if $f(a) < f(b)$ and c is a point in the interval $(f(a), f(b))$ there exists $x \in (a, b)$ such that $f(x) = c$. There is a similar result in case $f(b) < f(a)$*

Differentiation

Suppose $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ and $x_0, y_0 \in \mathbb{R}$. The **limit** of f , as x approaches x_0 , is y_0

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} f(x) = y_0 \text{ or } f(x) \rightarrow y_0 \text{ as } x \rightarrow x_0$$

if $\forall \epsilon > 0$, \exists a real $\delta > 0$, such that

$$\forall x, \text{ that } 0 < |x - x_0| < \delta, 0 < |f(x) - y_0| < \epsilon.$$

One can generalize the definition by letting $x_0 \rightarrow \pm\infty$ and/or $y_0 \rightarrow \pm\infty$

Differentiation

Let $f : [a, b] \mapsto \mathbb{R}$. For any $x \in [a, b]$ we define

$$\phi(t) = \frac{f(t) - f(x)}{t - x}$$

for $a < t < b, t \neq x$

$$f'(x) = \lim_{t \rightarrow x} \phi(t)$$

given that the limit exists.

Differentiation

- We call f' the derivative of f
- If f' is defined at every point $x \in [a, b]$ we say that f is differentiable
- If f' is defined at every point $x \in E \subseteq [a, b]$ we say that f is differentiable on E

Theorem

Let $f : [a, b] \mapsto \mathbb{R}$. If f is differentiable at $x \in [a, b]$ then f is continuous at x .

Differentiation

Theorem

Let $f : [a, b] \mapsto \mathbb{R}$ and $g : [a, b] \mapsto \mathbb{R}$ both differentiable at $x \in [a, b]$. Then, $f + g$, f/g , and fg are all differentiable at x with

- $(f + g)'(x) = f'(x) + g'(x)$
- $(fg)'(x) = f'(x)g(x) + f(x)g'(x)$
- $(f/g)'(x) = (g(x)f'(x) - g'(x)f(x))/g^2(x)$

- Also, $(x^n)' = nx^{n-1}$
- Also, $(e^x)' = e^x$
- Also, $(\ln(x))' = 1/x$

Differentiation

Theorem

Suppose $f : [a, b] \mapsto \mathbb{R}$ is continuous, $f'(x)$ exists at some $x \in [a, b]$ and g is defined on an interval I which contains the range of f , and g is differentiable at $f(x)$. If $h(t) = g(f(t))$, then h is differentiable at x and

$$h'(x) = g'(f(x))f'(x)$$

Differentiation

- Let f be a real function defined on (X, d) . We say that f has a local **maximum** at $p \in X$ if there exists $\delta > 0$ such that $f(q) \leq f(p)$ for all $q \in X$ with $d(p, q) < \delta$
- The other local **extremum**, the local **minimum** is defined likewise

Theorem

Let $f : [a, b] \mapsto \mathbb{R}$. If f has a local maximum at a point $x \in (a, b)$ and if $f'(x)$ exists, then $f'(x) = 0$.

Differentiation

Theorem

Mean Value Theorem: *Let $f : [a, b] \mapsto \mathbb{R}$ be continuous and differentiable on (a, b) . Then there exists $x \in (a, b)$ such that*

$$f(b) - f(a) = (b - a)f'(x)$$

Corollary

Let $f : [a, b] \mapsto \mathbb{R}$ and $g : [a, b] \mapsto \mathbb{R}$ both be continuous and differentiable on (a, b) . Then there exists $x \in (a, b)$ such that

$$[f(b) - f(a)]g'(x) = [g(b) - g(a)]f'(x)$$

Differentiation

Theorem

Let f be differentiable on (a, b) . Then,

- *If $f'(x) \geq 0$ for all $x \in (a, b)$, then f is monotonically increasing*
- *If $f'(x) = 0$ for all $x \in (a, b)$, then f is a constant*
- *If $f'(x) \leq 0$ for all $x \in (a, b)$, then f is monotonically decreasing*

Differentiation

Theorem

Suppose f is a real differentiable function on $[a, b]$ and suppose $f'(a) < \lambda < f'(b)$. Then there exists $x \in (a, b)$ such that $f'(x) = \lambda$

Differentiation

Theorem

Suppose f and g are real and differentiable on (a, b) and $g'(x) \neq 0$ for all $x \in (a, b)$, where $-\infty \leq a < b \leq \infty$. Suppose

$$\frac{f'(x)}{g'(x)} \rightarrow A \text{ as } x \rightarrow a$$

If $f(x) \rightarrow 0$ and $g(x) \rightarrow 0$ as $x \rightarrow a$ or if $g(x) \rightarrow \infty$ as $x \rightarrow a$, then

$$\frac{f(x)}{g(x)} \rightarrow A \text{ as } x \rightarrow a$$

- We also have a similar statement when $x \rightarrow b$ or if $g(x) \rightarrow -\infty$
- This is known as L'Hopital's rule and is very useful when computing limits

Differentiation

- Example: Let $U(c) = \frac{c^{1-\sigma}-1}{1-\sigma}$. The limit of $U(c)$ as σ goes to 1 is $\ln(c)$
- Example: Let $U(c) = \frac{c^{1-\sigma}}{1-\sigma}$. The limit of $U(c)$ as σ goes to 1 is ∞

Differentiation

- Suppose f' exists and is continuous. Then, we say that f is continuously differentiable

Theorem

Let f be continuously differentiable on (a, b) . Then, if $f'(x) \neq 0$ for all $x \in (a, b)$

- *f is invertible on (a, b)*
- *$g = f^{-1}$ is continuously differentiable on $f((a, b))$*
- *For all z in the domain of g*

$$g'(z) = \frac{1}{f'(g(z))}$$

Differentiation

- We can similarly define higher order derivatives
- Suppose that f is differentiable. Then, suppose that f' is differentiable with derivative f'' . That is,

$$f''(x) = (f'(x))'$$

- **Definition:** A function is said to be of class C^k if the first k derivatives all exist and are continuous.
 - ▶ e^x is C^∞ , $|x|$ is C^0 , and $x^{\frac{5}{3}}$ is C^1

Differentiation

Theorem

Suppose that f is a real function on $[a, b]$ and n is a positive integer, $f^{(n-1)}$ is continuous on $[a, b]$, $f^{(n)}$ exists for every $t \in (a, b)$. Let α, β be distinct points on $[a, b]$ and define

$$P(t) = \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} \frac{f^{(k)}(\alpha)}{k!} (t - \alpha)^k$$

Then there exists $x \in (\alpha, \beta)$ such that

$$f(\beta) = P(\beta) + \frac{f^{(n)}(x)}{n!} (\beta - \alpha)^n$$

Differentiation

- This is Taylor's Theorem and is very useful for approximating functions
- We usually write

$$f(x) \approx \sum_{k=0}^n \frac{f^{(k)}(\bar{x})}{k!} (x - \bar{x})^k$$

- We call this the n —th order Taylor Polynomial (or expansion) of $f(x)$ around \bar{x}

Differentiation

- We saw how to find local maxima and minima, but we would like to know how to find global ones
- We call x a critical point of f if $f'(x) = 0$ or $f'(x)$ is not defined

Theorem

If $f(a)$ is a local maximum or minimum of f , then a is a critical point of f .

Theorem

- *If $f'(a) = 0$ and $f''(a) < 0$, then a is a local max of f*
- *If $f'(a) = 0$ and $f''(a) > 0$, then a is a local min of f*

Differentiation

Theorem

Suppose that f is defined on an interval $I \subseteq \mathbb{R}$, $f(x_0)$ is a local maximum of f , and $f(x_0)$ is the only critical point of f . Then, x_0 is the global maximum of f .

Theorem

Suppose that f' is continuously differentiable and the domain of f is an interval $I \subseteq \mathbb{R}$. If f'' is never 0 on I , then f has at most one critical point on I . Furthermore, this critical point is a global minimum if $f'' > 0$ and global maximum if $f'' < 0$.

Integrals

- Let $[a, b]$ be a bounded closed interval and $f : [a, b] \mapsto \mathbb{R}$ be a bounded function.
- We call $P = (t_i)_{i=0}^n$ a finite subdivision of $[a, b]$ if $a = t_0 < t_1 < \cdots < t_n = b$
- For every subdivision we associate two numbers
 - ▶ $U(P, f) := \sum_{i=1}^n M_i(P, f)(t_i - t_{i-1})$, where $M_i(P, f) := \sup_{t_{i-1} \leq x \leq t_i} f(x)$ for $i = 1, \dots, n$.
 - ▶ $L(P, f) := \sum_{i=1}^n m_i(P, f)(t_i - t_{i-1})$, where $m_i(P, f) := \inf_{t_{i-1} \leq x \leq t_i} f(x)$ for $i = 1, \dots, n$.
- We call these the upper/lower Riemann sums
- We call $R(P, f) := \sum_{i=1}^n f(x_i)(t_i - t_{i-1})$, where $x_i \in [t_{i-1}, t_i]$ for $i = 1, \dots, n$, a Riemann sum

Integrals

- Assuming that $m \leq f \leq M$ we have

$$m(b-a) \leq L(P, f) \leq R(P, f) \leq U(P, f) \leq M(b-a)$$

- We say that P_1 is finer than P , denoted as $P \subseteq P_1$ if for every division point in P there is also a division point in P_1 . Furthermore, if $P = (t_i)_{i=0}^n$ then $|P| := \max_{1 \leq i \leq n} |t_i - t_{i-1}|$ is called a mesh of P .
- Clearly $P \subseteq P_1 \Rightarrow |P_1| \leq |P|$
- If $P_1 \subseteq P_2$, then $U(P_1, f) \geq U(P_2, f)$ and $L(P_2, f) \geq L(P_1, f)$

Integrals

- Let $[a, b]$ be a bounded interval. A function $f : [a, b] \mapsto \mathbb{R}$ is said to be Riemann integrable if

$$f \text{ is bounded and } \inf_P U(P, f) = \sup_P L(P, f)$$

- In that case the Riemann integral of f over $[a, b]$ is denoted by

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

- We write
 $R([a, b]) = \{f : [a, b] \mapsto \mathbb{R} \mid f \text{ is Riemann integrable over } [a, b]\}$

Integrals

Theorem

If $f : [a, b] \mapsto \mathbb{R}$ is bounded, then $f \in R([a, b])$ if and only if

$$\forall \epsilon > 0, \exists P : U(P, f) - L(P, f) < \epsilon$$

Corollary

For every $f \in R([a, b])$, we also have $|f|$ and $f^+ \in R([a, b])$.

Corollary

For every continuous and every monotone function is Riemann integrable.

Integrals

Theorem

For all $f_1, f_2, f_3 \in R([a, b])$ and $c \in \mathbb{R}$ we have $f_1 + f_2, cf_1 \in R([a, b])$ and

$$\int_a^b (f_1(x) + f_2(x))dx = \int_a^b f_1(x)dx + \int_a^b f_2(x)dx$$

and

$$\int_a^b cf_1(x)dx = c \int_a^b f_1(x)dx$$

Integrals

Theorem

For all $f_1, f_2 \in R([a, b])$ such that $f_1 \leq f_2$ it is true that

$$\int_a^b f_1(x) dx \leq \int_a^b f_2(x) dx$$

In particular, for any non-negative function

$$0 \leq \int_a^b f(x) dx$$

and

$$\left| \int_a^b f(x) dx \right| \leq \sup_{a \leq x \leq b} |f(x)| (b - a)$$

Integrals

Theorem

For all $c \in [a, b]$ such that $f \in R([a, c])$ and $f \in R([c, b])$ we have that

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

Theorem

Let $f \in R([a, b])$ be given and suppose $m \leq f \leq M$. Then, $h(f) \in R([a, b])$ for every continuous function $h : [m, M] \mapsto \mathbb{R}$

Corollary

$fg \in R([a, b])$ for all $f, g \in R([a, b])$ and

$$f \in R([a, b]) \Rightarrow |f| \in R([a, b]) \text{ and } \left| \int_a^b f(x) dx \right| \leq \int_a^b |f(x)| dx$$

Integrals

Theorem

For every $f \in R([a, b])$ the integral function

$$F : x \mapsto \int_a^x f(t) dt \text{ for } x \in [a, b]$$

is continuous. If f is continuous, then F is differentiable on $[a, b]$ with $F' = f$

Theorem

First Fundamental Theorem of Calculus: *If $f : [a, b] \mapsto \mathbb{R}$ is differentiable and $f' \in R([a, b])$, then*

$$\int_a^b f'(t) dt = f(b) - f(a)$$

Integrals

Theorem

Integration by Parts: Let $f, g : [a, b] \mapsto \mathbb{R}$ be differentiable and assume that $f', g' \in R([a, b])$. Then,

$$\int_a^b f(t)g'(t)dt = f(b)g(b) - f(a)g(a) - \int_a^b g(t)f'(t)dt$$

Theorem

Leibniz Integral Rule:

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial t} \left(\int_{a(t)}^{b(t)} f(x, t) dx \right) = \int_{a(t)}^{b(t)} \frac{\partial f}{\partial t} dx + f(b(t), t)b'(t) - f(a(t), t)a'(t)$$

Integrals

Theorem

Let $\phi : [a, b] \mapsto \mathbb{R}$ be increasing and differentiable such that $\phi' \in R([a, b])$. Then for every $f : [\phi(a), \phi(b)] \mapsto \mathbb{R}$ we have

$$f(\phi) \in R([a, b]) \Rightarrow f \in R([\phi(a), \phi(b)])$$

and

$$\int_a^b f(\phi(t))\phi'(t)dt = \int_{\phi(a)}^{\phi(b)} f(x)dx$$

- We usually write

$$\int_a^b f(\phi(t))d\phi(t)$$

instead of

$$\int_a^b f(\phi(t))\phi'(t)dt$$

Integrals

- A function is usually Riemann integrable over many different intervals
- We write

$$f(x) = \int f'(x) dx$$

- We refer to this as the “indefinite integral” of f'

Integrals

$$\int x^n = \frac{x^{n+1}}{n+1} + C \text{ for } n \neq -1$$

$$\int x^{-1} = \ln x + C$$

$$\int e^x dx = e^x + C$$