

# Math Module 3A Cheat Sheet

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## Contents

<b>1</b>	<b>Definitions</b>	<b>2</b>
1.1	Corollary . . . . .	2
1.2	Lagrange's mean value theorem (MVT) . . . . .	2
1.3	Rolle's theorem . . . . .	2
1.4	Cauchy's mean value theorem . . . . .	3
1.5	Indeterminate forms . . . . .	3
1.6	L'Hôpital's Rule . . . . .	4
1.7	Convexity . . . . .	6
1.8	Concavity . . . . .	7
1.9	Inflection point . . . . .	8
1.10	Second derivative . . . . .	9
1.11	Higher order derivatives . . . . .	9
1.12	Vertical asymptote . . . . .	10
1.13	Horizontal asymptote . . . . .	11
1.14	Oblique asymptote . . . . .	12
<b>2</b>	<b>Relationship between the derivative and monotonicity</b>	<b>12</b>
<b>3</b>	<b>Standard limits</b>	<b>13</b>
<b>4</b>	<b>Second derivative and concavity</b>	<b>13</b>
<b>5</b>	<b>Second derivative and extreme points</b>	<b>13</b>

## 1 Definitions

### 1.1 Corollary

A corollary is a proposition that is inferred immediately from a proved proposition with little or no additional proof.

### 1.2 Lagrange's mean value theorem (MVT)

Suppose that:

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

Then there is a point  $c \in (a, b)$  such that:

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

For an illustration of this theorem, go to this link.

#### 1.2.1 Corollaries

- If  $f'(x) = 0$  on an interval, then  $f$  is constant on the interval.
- If  $f' = g'$  on an interval, then  $f = g + C$ , where  $C$  is some constant.

### 1.3 Rolle's theorem

Suppose that:

1.  $f$  is continuous on a closed interval  $[a, b]$
2.  $f$  is differentiable on the open interval  $(a, b)$
3.  $f(a) = f(b)$

Then there exists a point  $c \in (a, b)$  such that  $f'(c) = 0$ .

## 1.4 Cauchy's mean value theorem

1.  $f$  and  $g$  are continuous on a closed interval  $[a, b]$ .
2.  $f$  and  $g$  are differentiable on the open interval  $(a, b)$ .

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

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

With  $g'(c) \neq 0$ ,  $g(b) - g(a) \neq 0$ , we get:

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

With  $g(x) = x$ , we get Lagrange's mean value theorem.

## 1.5 Indeterminate forms

If  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = \lim_{x \rightarrow a} g(x) = 0$ , the limit  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)}$  is called an **indeterminate form of type  $\left[\frac{0}{0}\right]$** .

Likewise, if  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a \pm} f(x) = \pm\infty$ ,  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a \pm} g(x) = \pm\infty$ , the limit  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)}$  is called an **indeterminate form of type  $\left[\frac{\infty}{\infty}\right]$** .

### 1.5.1 More examples

1.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} x \cdot \ln x$  produces the indeterminate form  $[\infty \cdot 0]$ .
2.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} (\sqrt{n^2 + 2n} - n)$  produces the indeterminate form  $[\infty - \infty]$ .
3.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow +\infty} \left(1 + \frac{1}{x}\right)^x$  produces the indeterminate form  $[1^\infty]$ .

## 1.6 L'Hôpital's Rule

If there exists  $\delta > 0$  such that:

1.  $f(x)$  and  $g(x)$  are differentiable on  $(a - \delta, a) \cup (a, a + \delta)$
2.  $g'(x) \neq 0$  on  $(a - \delta, a) \cup (a, a + \delta)$

And also if:

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = \lim_{x \rightarrow a} g(x) = 0$$

Then:

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

This only applies if the right-hand limit exists.

### 1.6.1 The conditions, simplified

1.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)}$  is of type  $\left[\frac{0}{0}\right]$
2.  $\frac{f'(x)}{g'(x)}$  makes sense for  $x$  close to  $a$ , and has a limit as  $x \rightarrow a$ .

### 1.6.2 Variations

1.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a+} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} = \lim_{x \rightarrow a+} \frac{f'(x)}{g'(x)}$  if the right-hand side makes sense
2.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a-} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} = \lim_{x \rightarrow a-} \frac{f'(x)}{g'(x)}$  if the right-hand side makes sense
3.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow \pm\infty} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} = \lim_{x \rightarrow \pm\infty} \frac{f'(x)}{g'(x)}$  if the right-hand side makes sense

These rules **only apply** if the left-hand limit is an indeterminate form of the type  $\left[\frac{0}{0}\right]$  or  $\left[\frac{\infty}{\infty}\right]$

### 1.6.3 Example 1

$$\begin{aligned} \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{e^x}{\sin x} &= \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{e^x}{\cos x} \\ &= \frac{1}{1} \\ &= 1 \end{aligned}$$

#### 1.6.4 Example 2

$$\begin{aligned}\lim_{x \rightarrow +\infty} x^2 e^{-3x} &= \lim_{x \rightarrow +\infty} \frac{x^2}{e^{3x}} \\ &= \lim_{x \rightarrow +\infty} \frac{2x}{3e^{3x}} \\ &= \lim_{x \rightarrow +\infty} \frac{2}{9e^{3x}} \\ &= 0\end{aligned}$$

#### 1.6.5 Example 3

$$\begin{aligned}\lim_{x \rightarrow +\infty} \left(1 + \frac{1}{x}\right)^x &= \lim_{x \rightarrow +\infty} e^{x \cdot \ln\left(1 + \frac{1}{x}\right)} \\ &= e^{\lim_{x \rightarrow +\infty} x \cdot \ln\left(1 + \frac{1}{x}\right)}\end{aligned}$$

Finding the limit  $\lim_{x \rightarrow +\infty} x \cdot \ln\left(1 + \frac{1}{x}\right)$ :

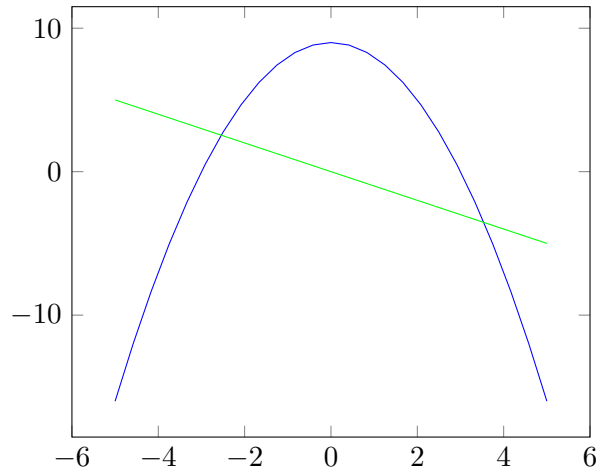
$$\begin{aligned}\lim_{x \rightarrow +\infty} x \cdot \ln\left(1 + \frac{1}{x}\right) &= \lim_{x \rightarrow +\infty} \frac{\ln\left(1 + \frac{1}{x}\right)}{\frac{1}{x}} \\ &= \lim_{x \rightarrow +\infty} \frac{\frac{1}{1 + \frac{1}{x}} \cdot \left(-\frac{1}{x^2}\right)}{\frac{-1}{x^2}} \\ &= \lim_{x \rightarrow +\infty} \frac{1}{1 + \frac{1}{x}} \\ &= \frac{1}{1 + 0} \\ &= 1\end{aligned}$$

Hence:

$$\begin{aligned}\lim_{x \rightarrow +\infty} \left(1 + \frac{1}{x}\right)^x &= e^1 \\ &= e\end{aligned}$$

## 1.7 Convexity

A function  $f(x)$  is called **convex** (or it is said to **concave upward**) on an interval  $I$  if for all  $a, b \in I$ , the line segment joining the points  $(a, f(a))$ ,  $(b, f(b))$  lies above the graph of  $f(x)$ .

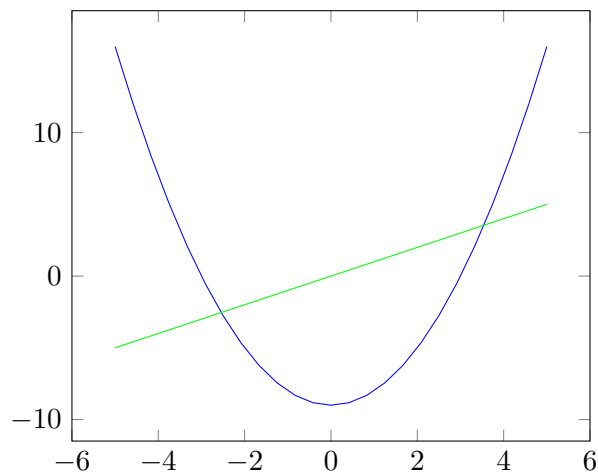


A function  $f(x)$  is **convex** (or it is said to **concave upward**) on the interval  $I$  if and only if for any  $a < x < b$  in  $I$  we have:

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

## 1.8 Concavity

A function  $f(x)$  is called **concave** (or it is said to **concave downward**) on an interval  $I$  if for all  $a, b \in I$ , the line segment joining the points  $(a, f(a)), (b, f(b))$  lies above the graph of  $f(x)$ .



A function  $f(x)$  is **concave** (or it is said to **concave downward**) on the interval  $I$  if and only if for any  $a < x < b$  in  $I$  we have:

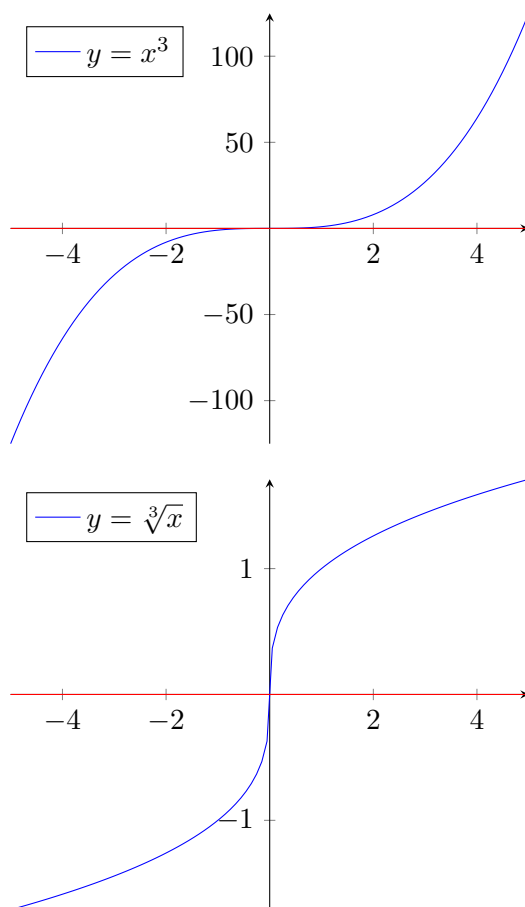
$$\frac{f(x) - f(a)}{x - a} > \frac{f(b) - f(a)}{b - a}$$

## 1.9 Inflection point

A point where the graph of a function has a tangent line and where the concavity changes, is called a **point of inflection** or an **inflection point**.

### 1.9.1 Example

Both  $f(x) = x^3$  and  $f(x) = \sqrt[3]{x}$  have a point of inflection at  $x = 0$ .





### 1.10 Second derivative

Given a function  $f(x)$ , its **second derivative** is the derivative of  $f'(x)$ .

### 1.11 Higher order derivatives

Given a function  $f(x)$ , its  $n$ -th derivative is:

$$\underbrace{((f')' \cdots)'}_{n \text{ differentiations}}$$

#### 1.11.1 Standard notation

- $f''$  for the second derivative
- $f'''$  for the third derivative
- $f^{iv}$  for the fourth derivative
- $f^{(n)}$  for the  $n$ -th derivative
- $C^n(A) = \{f : f^{(n)} \text{ exists and is continuous on } A\}$

Note that:

$$C(A) \subset C'(A) \subset C''(a) \subset \dots \subset C^\infty A$$

## 1.12 Vertical asymptote

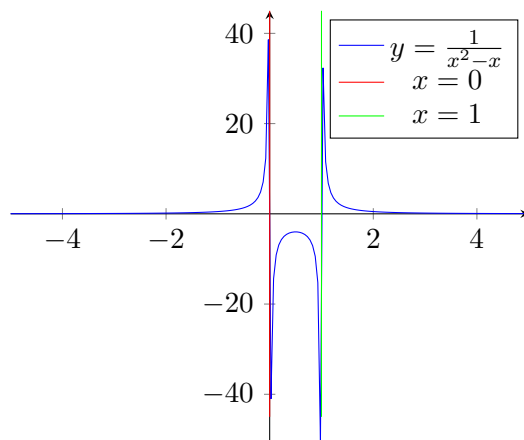
The graph of  $y = f(x)$  has a **vertical asymptote** at  $x = a$  if:

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow a^-} f(x) = \pm\infty \quad \text{or} \quad \lim_{x \rightarrow a^+} f(x) = \pm\infty$$

### 1.12.1 Example

$$f(x) = \frac{1}{x^2 - x}$$

The graph of  $f(x)$  has vertical asymptotes at  $x = 0$  and  $x = 1$ .



### 1.13 Horizontal asymptote

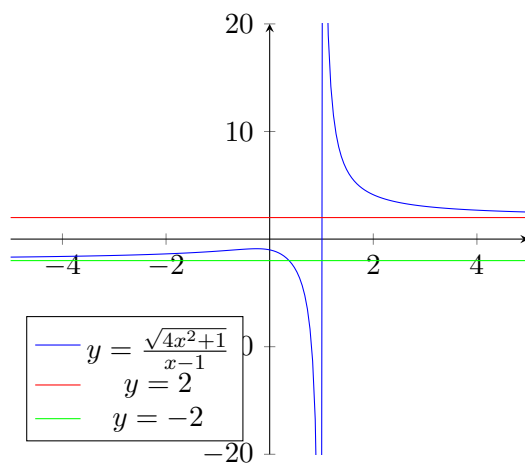
The graph of  $y = f(x)$  has a **horizontal asymptote**  $y = L$  if:

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow -\infty} f(x) = L \quad \text{or} \quad \lim_{x \rightarrow +\infty} f(x) = L$$

#### 1.13.1 Example

$$f(x) = \frac{\sqrt{4x^2 + 1}}{x - 1}$$

The graph of  $f(x)$  has a horizontal asymptote  $y = 2$  and another horizontal asymptote  $y = -2$ .



### 1.14 Oblique asymptote

The straight line  $y = ax + b$ , ( $a \neq 0$ ), is an **oblique asymptote** of the graph of  $y = f(x)$  if:

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow -\infty} (f(x) - (ax + b)) = 0 \quad \text{or} \quad \lim_{x \rightarrow +\infty} (f(x) - (ax + b)) = 0$$

#### 1.14.1 Example

Find the oblique asymptote of:

$$f(x) = \frac{x^3}{x^2 + x + 1}$$

Long divide  $x^3$  by  $x - 1$ :

$$f(x) = \frac{x^3}{x^2 + x + 1} = x - 1 + \frac{1}{x^2 + x + 1}$$

So:

$$f(x) - (x - 1) = \frac{1}{x^2 + x + 1} \rightarrow 0 \text{ as } x \rightarrow \pm\infty$$

Hence,  $y = x - 1$  is an oblique asymptote for  $f(x)$ .

## 2 Relationship between the derivative and monotonicity

Suppose  $f(x)$  is continuous on  $[a, b]$  and differentiable on  $(a, b)$ . Then:

- If  $f'(x) > 0$  on  $(a, b)$ , then  $f$  is strictly increasing on  $[a, b]$ .
- If  $f'(x) \geq 0$  on  $(a, b)$ , then  $f$  is increasing on  $[a, b]$ .
- If  $f'(x) < 0$  on  $(a, b)$ , then  $f$  is strictly decreasing on  $[a, b]$ .
- If  $f'(x) \leq 0$  on  $(a, b)$ , then  $f$  is decreasing on  $[a, b]$ .

### 3 Standard limits

The following equations hold for any numbers  $p > 0$  and  $\varepsilon > 0$ :

1.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow +\infty} \frac{x^p}{e^{\varepsilon x}}$
2.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow +\infty} \frac{(\ln x)^p}{x^\varepsilon}$

Rule of thumb:

- Exponentials beat powers
- Powers beat logarithms

### 4 Second derivative and concavity

1. If  $f''(x) > 0$  on an interval  $I$ , then  $f$  is **convex** (or is said to **concave upward**) on  $I$  (positive means happy face).
2. If  $f''(x) < 0$  on an interval  $I$ , then  $f$  is **concave** (or is said to **concave downward**) on  $I$  (negative means sad face).
3. If  $a$  is an inflection point for  $f$ , then either  $f''(a)$  does not exist, or  $f''(a) = 0$ .

### 5 Second derivative and extreme points

Suppose  $f \in C^2(I)$ , where  $I$  is some open interval containing  $a$ , and suppose  $f'(a) = 0$ . We have:

1. If  $f''(a) > 0$ , then  $a$  is a point of local minimum.
2. If  $f''(a) < 0$ , then  $a$  is a point of local maximum.

Note that if  $f''(a) = 0$ , we get no information.  $x = a$  might be a local maximum or minimum or neither.