

MAT137

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1 Limit and Continuity

Let $a, L \in \mathbb{R}$.

Let f be a function defined at least on an interval centered at a , except maybe at a .

Theorem 1 ($\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = L$)

$$\forall \varepsilon > 0, \exists \delta > 0 \text{ s.t.} \\ 0 < |x - a| < \delta \implies |f(x) - L| < \varepsilon$$

Theorem 2 ($\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) \neq L$)

$$\exists \varepsilon > 0 \text{ s.t. } \forall \delta > 0 \\ \exists x \in \mathbb{R} \text{ s.t. } 0 < |x - a| < \delta \wedge |f(x) - L| \geq \varepsilon$$

Theorem 3 ($\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x)$ DNE)

$$\forall L \in \mathbb{R}, \exists \varepsilon > 0 \text{ s.t. } \forall \delta > 0 \\ \exists x \in \mathbb{R} \text{ s.t. } 0 < |x - a| < \delta \wedge |f(x) - L| \geq \varepsilon$$

The formal definitions can be transferred to imply infinity, by removing absolute values.

1.1 Laws and Theorems

Let $a, L \in \mathbb{R}$.

Let f, g, h be functions defined at least on an interval centered at a , except maybe at a .

Theorem 4 (Limit Laws)

$$\begin{aligned} \text{IF } \lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = L \wedge \lim_{x \rightarrow a} g(x) = M \\ \text{THEN } \lim_{x \rightarrow a} [f(x) + g(x)] = L + M \\ \lim_{x \rightarrow a} [f(x)g(x)] = LM \\ \lim_{x \rightarrow a} \left[\frac{f(x)}{g(x)} \right] = \frac{L}{M} \quad (M \neq 0) \end{aligned}$$

WARNING: Limit Laws only apply if the initial limits exist.

Theorem 5 (A New Theorem about Product)

$$\begin{aligned} \text{IF } \lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = 0 \\ \exists M > 0 \text{ s.t. } \forall x \neq a, |g(x)| \leq M \text{ (} g \text{ is bounded)} \\ \text{THEN } \lim_{x \rightarrow a} [f(x)g(x)] = 0 \end{aligned}$$

Theorem 6 (The Squeeze Theorem)

$$\begin{aligned} \text{IF } \exists p > 0 \text{ s.t. } 0 < |x - a| < p \implies f(x) \leq h(x) \leq g(x) \\ \text{AND } \lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = L \wedge \lim_{x \rightarrow a} g(x) = L \\ \text{THEN } \lim_{x \rightarrow a} h(x) = L \end{aligned}$$

Theorem 7 (The New Squeeze Theorem)

$$\begin{aligned} \text{IF } \exists p > 0 \text{ s.t. } 0 < |x - a| < p \implies f(x) \leq g(x) \\ \lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = \infty \\ \text{THEN } \lim_{x \rightarrow a} g(x) = \infty \end{aligned}$$

1.2 Continuity

Let $a, L \in \mathbb{R}$.

Let f be a function defined at least on an interval centered at a , except maybe at a .

WARNING: If the function oscillates near a , then it is NOT continuous at a .

Theorem 8 (Continuity)

We say f is continuous at a when

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

This means:

1. $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x)$ exists and is a number
2. $f(a)$ is defined
3. The limit and the value is equal

Theorem 9 (Alternative Definition of Continuity)

We say f is continuous at a when

$$\forall \varepsilon > 0, \exists \delta > 0 \text{ s.t.} \\ |x - a| < \delta \implies |f(x) - f(a)| < \varepsilon$$

$\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = L$ means that:

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} x \text{ close to } a \\ x \neq a \end{array} \right\} \implies f(x) \text{ close to } L$$

f is continuous at a means that:

$$\{ x \text{ close to } a \} \implies f(x) \text{ close to } f(a)$$

f is continuous on the interval $[a, b]$ means that:

1. $\forall c \in (a, b)$, f is continuous at c
2. $\lim_{x \rightarrow a^+} f(x) = f(a)$
3. $\lim_{x \rightarrow b^-} f(x) = f(b)$

Theorem 10 (The Main Continuity Theorem)

Any function we can construct with sum, product, quotient, and **composition** of polynomials, roots, trigonometric functions, exponentials, logarithms, and absolute values is continuous **on its domain**.

WARNING: There is NO limit laws for composition, but the composition of continuous functions is still continuous.

1.3 About Composition of Functions

Theorem 11 (RIGHT)

- IF (1) f is continuous at a
 (2) g is continuous at $f(a)$
 THEN (3) $g \circ f$ is continuous at a
- (1) means x close to $a \implies f(x)$ close to $f(a)$
 (2) means y close to $f(a) \implies g(y)$ close to $g(f(a))$

They can be concatenated.

Theorem 12 (WRONG)

- IF (1) $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = L$
 (2) $\lim_{y \rightarrow L} g(y) = M$
 THEN (3) $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} g(f(x)) = M$
- (1) means $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} x \text{ close to } a \\ x \neq a \end{array} \right\} \implies f(x) \text{ close to } L$
 (2) means $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} y \text{ close to } L \\ y \neq L \end{array} \right\} \implies g(y) \text{ close to } M$

They can NOT be concatenated, but can be fixed in two ways, either on f or g .

Theorem 13 (RIGHT)

- IF (1) $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = L$
 $\exists p > 0$ s.t. $0 < |x - a| < p \implies f(x) \neq L$
 (2) $\lim_{y \rightarrow L} g(y) = M$
 THEN (3) $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} g(f(x)) = M$

By adding a hypothesis on f , we ensure that g has the behavior of approaching.

Theorem 14 (RIGHT)

- IF (1) $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = L$
 (2) g is continuous at L
 THEN (3) $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} g(f(x)) = M$

By adding a hypothesis on g , we don't care if g has the behavior of approaching.

1.4 Discontinuity

Theorem 15 (Removable Discontinuity)

$\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x)$ exists, but is not equal to $f(a)$.

Intuitively, removable discontinuity looks like a hole and can be fixed.

Theorem 16 (Non-removable Discontinuity)

$\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x)$ does not exist.

1.5 EVT and IVT

Theorem 17 (Maximum)

$$\exists c \in I \text{ s.t. } \forall x \in I, f(x) \leq f(c)$$

Theorem 18 (The Extreme Value Theorem)

IF f is continuous on $[a, b]$
THEN f has a maximum and minimum on $[a, b]$

Theorem 19 (The Intermediate Value Theorem)

IF $f(a) < M < f(b)$
 f is continuous on $[a, b]$
THEN $\exists c \in (a, b)$ s.t. $f(c) = M$

This means that f takes all the values between $f(a)$ and $f(b)$.

2 Derivatives

Theorem 20 (Derivative)

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

f is differentiable at a when this limit exists.

Theorem 21 (Tangent Line)

1. through the point $(a, f(a))$
2. with slope $f'(a)$

$$y = f(a) + f'(a)(x - a)$$

Theorem 22

Given $f(x)$, we say $g(x)$ is a tangent line of $f(x)$ at $x = a$, when

$$\exists I \ni a \text{ s.t.}$$

$$\forall x \in I, f(x) = g(x) \implies x = a$$

Theorem 23 (Vertical Tangent Line)

f is continuous at a

$$f'(a) = \lim_{x \rightarrow a} \frac{f(x) - f(a)}{x - a} = \pm\infty$$

WARNING: The vertical tangent line is NOT vertical asymptote.

2.1 Differentiation

If f, g are both differentiable:

Theorem 24 (Differentiation Rules)

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{d}{dx}[c] &= 0 & \frac{d}{dx}[x^c] &= cx^{c-1} \\ (f+g)' &= f' + g' & (cf)' &= cf' \\ (f \cdot g)' &= f'g + fg' & \left(\frac{f}{g}\right)' &= \frac{f'g - fg'}{g^2}\end{aligned}$$

PROOF (THE PRODUCT RULE)

$$h'(a) = \lim_{x \rightarrow a} \frac{h(x) - h(a)}{x - a} = \lim_{x \rightarrow a} \frac{f(x)g(x) - f(a)g(a)}{x - a} \quad (1)$$

$$= \lim_{x \rightarrow a} \frac{f(x)g(x) - f(a)g(x) + f(a)g(x) - f(a)g(a)}{x - a} \quad (2)$$

We can prove the Power Rule by induction.

Theorem 25 (Differentiable implies Continuous)

If f is differentiable at c , then f is continuous at c .

We can find functions that are continuous but not differentiable.

The $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} \frac{f(x) - f(a)}{x - a}$ may not exist (the function is not differentiable) for several reasons:

1. because the side limits are different (CORNER)
2. because the limit is $\pm\infty$ (VERTICAL TANGENT)

Theorem 26

If $f(x)$ is continuous at a

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f'(x) = \pm\infty \implies \lim_{x \rightarrow a} \frac{f(x) - f(a)}{x - a} = \pm\infty$$

WARNING: The first method is to use differentiation rules, while the second is to use the definition of derivative.

2.2 Higher-order Derivatives

Theorem 27 (Lagrange Notation)

The n -th derivative of f is

$$f^{(n)}$$

Theorem 28 (Leibnitz Notation)

The n -th derivative of y with respect to x is

$$\frac{d^n y}{dx^n}$$

2.3 The Chain Rule

Theorem 29

IF g is differentiable at a
 f is differentiable at $g(a)$
THEN $f \circ g$ is differentiable at a
 $(f \circ g)'(a) = f'(g(a))g'(a)$

PROOF (WRONG)

$$(f \circ g)'(a) = \lim_{x \rightarrow a} \frac{f(g(x)) - f(g(a))}{x - a} \quad (1)$$

$$= \lim_{x \rightarrow a} \left[\frac{f(g(x)) - f(g(a))}{g(x) - g(a)} \cdot \frac{g(x) - g(a)}{x - a} \right] \quad (2)$$

WARNING: For this to work, we must ensure that:

$$\exists p > 0 \text{ s.t. } 0 < |x - a| < p \implies g(x) \neq g(a)$$

PROOF (RIGHT) Define

$$u = g(x)$$

$$y = f(u) = f(g(x))$$

Then

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

can be written as

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{dy}{du} \cdot \frac{du}{dx}$$

2.4 Implicit Differentiation

Consider an equation involving two variables x, y that defines y implicitly:

$$F(x, y) = 0$$

To find the derivative of y with respect to x , denoted as $\frac{dy}{dx}$, we differentiate each side of the equation with respect to x , treating y as a function of x .

$$\frac{dF}{dx} = \left. \frac{dF}{dx} \right|_{\text{terms involving } x} + \frac{dF}{dy} \cdot \left. \frac{dy}{dx} \right|_{\text{terms involving } y} = 0$$

3 Inverse Function

3.1 Notation

A function f consists of:

Name: f .

Domain: set of inputs.

Codomain: set of **potential** outputs.

Range: set of **actual** outputs. Can be calculated from other information.

A rule that matches each input to exactly one output.

$$f : A \rightarrow B$$

f is the name, A is the domain, B is the codomain.

3.2 Convention

The domain is the largest subset of \mathbb{R} possible, the codomain is always \mathbb{R} .

3.3 Computer Science

The notation is not universal.

domain: domain

codomain: range

range: image

3.4 Inverse

Let $f : A \rightarrow B$ be a function.

The inverse of f is another function

$$f^{-1} : B \rightarrow A$$

defined by

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

3.5 Injective and Surjective

Let $f : A \rightarrow B$ be a function, f is surjective or onto when: $\text{Range } f = B$.

f is injective or one-to-one when:

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

Or, equivalently:

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

Theorem 30

f has an inverse $\iff f$ is surjective and injective.

Let f be a one-to-one function. Let $\text{Domain } f = A$, $\text{Range } f = C$.
The inverse f^{-1} is another function satisfying: $\text{Domain } f^{-1} = C$, $\text{Range } f^{-1} = A$.

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

$$\forall y \in C, f(f^{-1}(y)) = y$$

3.6 Derivative of Inverse

Theorem 31

Let f be a function defined on an interval I .

IF f has an inverse
 f is differentiable
 $\forall x \in I, f'(x) \neq 0$
 THEN f^{-1} is differentiable

Assume that f, f^{-1} are differentiable.

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

3.7 Exponentials

$$f(x) = a^x$$

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

Call $L_a = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{a^h - 1}{h}$, then $\frac{d}{dx} a^x = L_a a^x$.

Theorem 32

Define e is the only number such that $L_e = 1$.

$$\frac{d}{dx} e^x = e^x$$

Theorem 33

$$a^c = e^{c \ln a}$$

3.8 Definition

Theorem 34

Define $E(x) = e^x$ as the only function that satisfies

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} E'(x) = E(x) \\ E(0) = 1 \end{array} \right\}$$

Theorem 35

Define $\ln x = \int_1^x \frac{1}{t} dt$

3.9 Derivative of Logarithm

$$\forall x > 0, e^{\ln x} = x$$

$$\frac{d}{dx} e^{\ln x} = \frac{d}{dx} x$$

$$x \cdot \frac{d}{dx} \ln x = 1$$

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

3.10 Derivative of Exponential

$$a^x = e^{x \ln a}$$

$$\frac{d}{dx} a^x = \frac{d}{dx} e^{x \ln a} = e^{x \ln a} \cdot \frac{d}{dx} x \ln a = a^x \cdot \ln a$$

3.11 Change Base

$$a^x = b^{x \log_b a}$$

$$\log_a x = \frac{\log_b x}{\log_b a}$$

3.12 Natural Logarithm

$$e^x = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left(1 + \frac{x}{n}\right)^n$$

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{e^x - 1}{x} = 1$$

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 1} \frac{\ln x}{x - 1} = 1$$

4 Inverse of Trigonometry

Theorem 36

\arcsin is the inverse function of the restriction of \sin to $[-\pi/2, \pi/2]$.

$$x = \arcsin y \iff y = \sin x$$
$$\text{for } -\frac{\pi}{2} \leq x \leq \frac{\pi}{2}, -1 \leq y \leq 1$$

Theorem 37

\arctan is the inverse function of the restriction of \tan to $[-\pi/2, \pi/2]$.

$$x = \arctan y \iff y = \tan x$$
$$\text{for } -\frac{\pi}{2} < x < \frac{\pi}{2}, y \in \mathbb{R}$$

Theorem 38

\arccos is the inverse function of the restriction of \cos to $[0, \pi]$.

$$x = \arccos y \iff y = \cos x$$
$$\text{for } 0 \leq x \leq \pi, -1 \leq y \leq 1$$

Theorem 39

$$\frac{d}{dx} [\sin(\arcsin x)] = \frac{d}{dx} [x]$$
$$\frac{d}{dx} \arcsin x = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1-x^2}}$$
$$\frac{d}{dx} \arccos x = \frac{-1}{\sqrt{1-x^2}}$$
$$\frac{d}{dx} \arctan x = \frac{1}{1+x^2}$$

5 Notes

Theorem 40

Let f be a function with domain D , we say f is injective when

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

Or

$$\forall x_1, x_2 \in D, f(x_1) = f(x_2) \implies x_1 = x_2$$

Theorem 41

We defined the floor of x , denoted by $\lfloor x \rfloor$, as the largest integer smaller than or equal to x .

$$\sqrt{x^2} = |x|$$

If f is differentiable everywhere, then either its derivative is continuous, or the derivative has Oscillation Discontinuity Point.

Derivative is continuous \implies Differentiable \implies Continuous

To prove a claim is not true from definition, write down the negation of the definition first.