Brief Descriptions of Facts

Completeness Axiom In IR, every set that is bounded above has a supremum; every set that is bounded below has an infimum.

Supremum Property Let S be a set that is bounded above. Then $\forall \epsilon>0$, $\exists x \in S$ such that $Sup S - E < x \le Sup S$.

Supremum Limit Theorem Let S be bounded above and c is an upper bound of S. Then

C= SupS ⇔ ∃xn∈S with limxn = C.

Intermediate Value Theorem Let f be continuous on [a,b] and w is between fla) and flb). Then f(t) = w

Monotone Function Theorem Let f be monotone on (a, b) Then ① $\forall x \in (a_1b)$, $f(x_0) = \lim_{x \to x_0^-} f(x)$, $f(x_0+) = \lim_{x \to x_0+} f(x)$

@ f has countably many discontinuities on (a,b)

Continuous Injection Theorem, Continuous Inverse Theorem

f continuous and injective $\Rightarrow f$ is strictly monotone on [a,b] $\Rightarrow f$ is continuous on f([a,b])

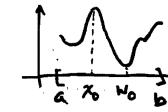
 $x_1 \leq x_2 \leq x_3 \leq \cdots \leq M \implies \lim_{n \to \infty} x_n = \sup \{x_1, x_2, x_3, \dots\}$

 $x_1 \ge x_2 \ge x_3 \ge \cdots \ge m \Rightarrow \lim_{n \to \infty} x_n = \inf \{x_1, x_2, x_3, \cdots \}$

Bolzano-Weierstrass Theorem

If x1, x2, x3, ··· € [a, b], then I subsequence Xn, Xnz, Xnz, ... having a limit in [a,6]. Cindices ni<nz<n3<...

Extreme Value Theorem Let f be continuous on [a, 6]. Then I xo, wo & [a,b] such that



 $f(x_0) = \sup \{f(x) : x \in [a,b] \}$ $= \max \min \text{ of } f(x) \text{ on } [a,b]$ $\frac{1}{a}$ $\frac{1}{b}$ $\frac{1}$

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Question How can we prove a sequence converges without identifying the limit? In the 19th century, Cauchy introduced the following Definition $\{x_n\}$ is a Cauchy sequence iff $\forall \varepsilon > 0$ $\exists \ K \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $n, m \ge K \Rightarrow |x_n - x_m| < \varepsilon$. Remarks This means the terms are as close as desired when the indices are sufficiently large.

Example Let $x_n = \frac{1}{n^2}$. Show $\{x_n\}$ is Cauchy.

Scratch Work Say $m \ge n$, $|x_n - x_m| = \frac{1}{n^2} - \frac{1}{m^2} < \frac{1}{n^2} < \epsilon$ $n > \sqrt{\epsilon}$ is enough.

Solution. $\forall \epsilon > 0$, by Archimedean principle, $\exists k \in \mathbb{N}$ Such that $k > \sqrt{\epsilon}$. Then $n, m \ge k \Rightarrow |x_n - x_m| = |\frac{1}{n^2} - \frac{1}{m^2}| < k^2 < \epsilon$.

Topics to be Covered @ Differentiation

- 1) Big-Oh and Small-Oh Notations Stolz' Theorem (L'Hopital's Rule for soguences)
- 2 Riemann Integration and Improper Integrals
- 3 Preview of
 Sequence and Series of Functions
 Limit Superior and Limit Inferior
 Pointwise and Uniform Convergence
- 1 Introduction to Metric Space Theory
 Open, Closed, Compact, Connected Sets
 OR
- (4) Introduction to Fourier Series



Chapter & Differentiation

Definitions Let S be an interval of positive length.

A function $f: S \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is differentiable at $x_0 \in S$ iff $f(x_0) = \lim_{x \to x_0} \frac{f(x) - f(x_0)}{x - x_0}$ exists in \mathbb{R} . Also, f is differentiable iff f is differentiable at every element of S.

Theorem If f: S-R is differentiable at x065, then it is continuous at x0.

Proof. Since $f(x) = \frac{f(x) - f(x_0)}{x - x_0}(x - x_0) + f(x_0)$, so $\lim_{x \to x_0} f(x) = f'(x_0) \cdot 0 + f(x_0) = f(x_0)$.

Theorem (Differentiation Formules)

If $f,g: S \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is differentiable at x_0 , then f+g, f-g, fg, fg (when $g(x_0) \neq 0$) are differentiable at x_0 .

In fact, $(f\pm g)'(x_0) = f(x_0) \pm g'(x_0)$ $(fg)'(x_0) = f(x_0)g(x_0) + f(x_0)g'(x_0)$ $(fg)'(x_0) = f(x_0)g(x_0) - f(x_0)g'(x_0)$ $g(x_0)^2$

 $\frac{\operatorname{Proof.} (f \pm q)(x) - (f \pm q)(x_0)}{x - x_0} \pm \frac{g(x) - g(x_0)}{x - x_0} \pm \frac{g(x) - g(x_0)}{x - x_0}$ Take limit as x-> xo on both sides, (ftg)66) = f66) tg66). $\frac{(fg)(x)-(fg)(x_0)}{x-x_0}=\frac{f(x)g(x)-f(x_0)g(x)+f(x_0)g(x)-f(x_0)g(x_0)}{x-x_0}$ $=\frac{f(x)-f(x_0)}{x-x_0}g(x)+f(x_0)\frac{g(x)-g(x_0)}{x-x_0}.$ Take limit as $x\to x_0$, $(fg)'(x_0)=f(x_0)g(x_0)+f(x_0)g'(x_0)$. $\frac{(f_9)(x) - (f_9)(x_0)}{x - x_0} = \frac{1}{x - x_0} \left[\frac{f(x)g(x_0) - f(x_0)g(x_0)}{g(x)g(x_0)} \right]$ = (1/9(x0) [f(x)9(x0) - f(x0)9(x0) + f(x0)9(x0) - f(x0)9(x)] $=\frac{1}{9(x)9(x_0)}\left[\frac{f(x)-f(x_0)}{x-x_0}g(x_0)-f(x_0)\frac{g(x)-g(x_0)}{x-x_0}\right]$ Take limit as $x \rightarrow x_0$, $(\frac{f}{q})'(x_0) = f(x_0)g(x_0) - f(x_0)g'(x_0)$

Theorem (Chain Rule)

If f: S > R is differentiable at xo, f(S) \(\sigma \) and

9: S' > R is differentiable at f(xo), then gof is

differentiable at xo and (gof)'(xo) = g'(f(xo)) f(xo).

Proof. Define $h: S' \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ by $\mathcal{L}(y) = \begin{cases} \frac{q(y) - q(f(x_0))}{y - f(x_0)}, \frac{q(y) + q(f(x_0))}{y - f(x_0)}, \frac{q(y) + q(f(x_0))}{y - q(f(x_0))} = q'(f(x_0)) = \mathcal{R}(f(x_0)) = \mathcal{R}(f(x_0)).$ Now $q(y) - q(f(x_0)) = \mathcal{R}(y)(y - f(x_0))$ if $y \neq f(x_0)$ and also if $y = f(x_0)$. So it is true for all $y \in S'$. $\lim_{X \rightarrow X_0} \frac{(g \circ f)(x_0) - (g \circ f)(x_0)}{X - X_0} = \lim_{X \rightarrow X_0} \frac{\mathcal{R}(f(x_0))(f(x_0) - f(x_0))}{X - X_0} = \mathcal{R}(f(x_0)) f(x_0) = q'(f(x_0)) f(x_0).$ Remarks $f(x_0) = \lim_{X \rightarrow X_0} \frac{\mathcal{R}(f(x_0))(f(x_0) - f(x_0))}{X - X_0} = \mathcal{R}(f(x_0)) f(x_0) = q'(f(x_0)) f(x_0).$

Remarks f differentiable at xo does not imply f'is continuous at xo. Here is an example.

Let $f: \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$ be defined by $f(x) = \begin{cases} x^2 \sin \frac{1}{x} & \text{if } x \neq 0 \\ 0 & \text{if } x = 0. \end{cases}$ As $x \to 0$, $|f(x)| \le |x^2 \sin \frac{1}{x}| \le x^2 \to 0 \implies |\sin f(x)| = 0$

by sandwish theorem. So f is continuous.

For $x \neq 0$, $f(x) = (x^2 \sin \frac{1}{x})' = 2x \sin \frac{1}{x} + x^2 \cos(\frac{1}{x})(-\frac{1}{x^2})$ = $2x \sin \frac{1}{x} - \cos(\frac{1}{x})$.

For x=0, $f(x) = \lim_{x \to 0} \frac{f(x) - f(0)}{x - (0)} = \lim_{x \to 0} \frac{f(x) - f(0)}{x - (0)} = \lim_{x \to 0} \frac{f(x) - f(0)}{x - (0)} = \lim_{x \to 0} \frac{f(x) - f(0)}{x - (0)} = \lim_{x \to 0} \frac{f(x) - f(x)}{x - (0)} = \lim_{x \to 0} \frac{f(x) - f(x)}{x - (0)} = \lim_{x \to 0} \frac{f(x) - f(x)}{x - (0)} = \lim_{x \to 0} \frac{f(x) - f(x)}{x - (0)} = \lim_{x \to 0} \frac{f(x) - f(0)}{x - (0)} = \lim_{x \to 0}$

Exercise 9(x)= { x² sin x² if x ≠ 0 is differentiable,

but 9(x) is not continuous at 0 and 9(x) is unbounded on every open interval containing 0.

Example If $k(x) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } x \neq 0 \\ x & \text{if } x = 0 \end{cases}$ is $k(x) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } x \neq 0 \\ 1 & \text{if } x = 0 \end{cases}$

The answer is no! h(x)=0 for all x. So h(x)=0 for all x. In particular, $h(0)=0 \neq 1$.

Notations Let S be an interval of positive length. $C^{o}(S) = C(S)$ is the set of all continuous functions on S. $\forall n \in \mathbb{N}$, $C^{n}(S)$ is the set of all functions $f: S \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ such that the n-th derivative $f^{(n)}$ is continuous on S. $C^{oo}(S)$ is the set of all functions having nth derivatives for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$. Functions in $C^{i}(S)$ are said to be continuously differentiable on S.

Inverse function theorem If f is continuous and injective on (a,b) and $f(ko) \neq 0$ for some $x_0 \in (a,b)$, then f^{-1} is differentiable at $y_0 = f(k_0)$ and $(f^{-1})'(y_0) = \frac{1}{f'(k_0)}$.

If y = f(x), then x = f'(y) and so $\frac{dx}{dy} = \frac{1}{dx} \frac{dy}{dx}$ at $x = \frac{1}{dx} \frac{dy}{dx}$



Proof. Define $g(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{x-x_0}{f(x)-f(x_0)} & \text{if } x+x_0 \end{cases}$ then $g(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{x-x_0}{f(x_0)} & \text{if } x=x_0 \end{cases}$

Continuous at to because $\lim_{x\to\infty} g(x) = \lim_{x\to\infty} \frac{x-x_0}{x+x_0} = \frac{1}{f(x_0)} = \frac{1}{f(x_0)}$

Since f is continuous and injective on (a,6), by the

Continuous inverse theorem, f-1 is continuous.

So $\lim_{y \to y_0} f^{-1}(y) = f^{-1}(y_0) = x_0$. For $y \neq y_0$, $g(f(y)) = \frac{f(y) - f(y_0)}{y - y_0}$

 $f'(y_0) = \lim_{y \to y_0} \frac{f'(y_0) - f'(y_0)}{y - y_0} = \lim_{y \to y_0} g(f'(y)) = g(f'(y_0))$ $= g(x_0) - \frac{1}{2} (x_0)$

 $=g(x_0)=\frac{1}{f(x_0)}.$

Examples If $y = f(x) = \sin x$ on $(-\frac{\pi}{2}, \frac{\pi}{2})$, then f is differentiable and injective on $(-\frac{\pi}{2}, \frac{\pi}{2})$.

 $y=\sin x$ We have $x=f^{-1}(y)=\sin^{-1}y=Arcsin y$ for $y\in(-1,1)$ and

dy(Aresiny) = dy(smy) = dx = 1/dy = 1/cosx = 1/1-42

 $y = f(x) = tan \times on (-\frac{\pi}{2}, \frac{\pi}{2}) \text{ is differentiable}$ and injective on $(-\frac{\pi}{2}, \frac{\pi}{2})$. $x = f'(y) = tan' y = Arctan y \text{ for } y \in (-\infty, \infty)$

\(\frac{d}{dy} (Arctany) = \frac{d}{dy} (tan y) = \frac{dx}{dy} = \frac{1}{dx} = \frac{1}{dx} = \frac{1}{14} \frac{1}{14} = \frac{1}{14

Local Extremum Theorem

Let f: (a,6) -> R be differentiable. If f(xo)= min f(x) or x6(a,6) $f(x_0) = \max_{x \in (a,b)} f(x_0) = 0$.

Proof. If f(xo) = min f(x), then xe(a,b) $0 \le \lim_{x \to x_0^+} \frac{f(x) - f(x_0)}{x - x_0} = f(x_0) = \lim_{x \to x_0^-} \frac{f(x) - f(x_0)}{x - x_0} \le 0$ -. f(xo)=0. The case f(xo)= max f(x) is similar.

Remark The theorem is false in general for closed interval, for example, f(x)=x on [-1,1].

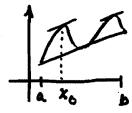
 $f(1) = \max_{x \in G_{1,1}} f(x)$, but $f(1) = 1 \neq 0$.

Rolle's Theorem Let f be continuous on [a, b] and differentiable on (a, b). If f(a) = f(b), then there

is (at least one) zoe (a, b) such that 1/\/\ f(z0)=0.

1 Proof. If fis a constant function, then f'(x)=0 for any $x \in (a,b)$. Otherwise, by the extreme value theorem, 3 xo, wo E[a,b] such that $f(x_0) = \max_{x \in [a,b]} f(x) > \min_{x \in [a,b]} f(x_0) = f(w_0)$

then either f(xo) + f(a) or f(ub) + f(a). Then xo or W. E(a,b). By last theorem, fixos=0 or flus=0.



Mean-Value Theorem

If f is Continuous on [a,b] and differentiable on (a,b), then $\exists x_0 \in (a,b)$ such that $f(b)-f(a)=f(x_0)(b-a)$.

Proof. Define $F(x) = f(x) - (\frac{f(b) - f(a)}{b - a}(x - a) + f(a))$. Then F(a) = 0 = F(b). Clinear function
through (a, f(a)), (b, f(b))By Rolle's Theorem, 3 xof(a, b) such that Fixo)=0. Since $F'(x) = f(x) - \frac{f(6) - f(0)}{b-a}$, we get $f(x_0) = \frac{f(6) - f(6)}{b-a}$. Examples. 1) Va, bER, prove | sinb-sinal ≤ 16-a1. Solution. The case a= b is clear. If a < b, then by meanvalue theorem, for fix)=sinx, Ixo (a, b) such that (Sinb-sina) = 1 cos (xo) (b-a) | ≤ 16-a1. The case bea is similar.

© Prove $(1+x)^{\alpha} \ge 1+\alpha x$ for $x \ge -1$ and $\alpha \ge 1$. Solution. Let flx = (1+x) = 1-ax. Therf(0)=0. Case 1: x>0 (1+x)-1-d(x)=f(x)-f(0)=f(x0)(x-0) $\exists x \in (0,x)$ such $= \alpha((1+x_0)^{d-1} \mid) \times \geq 0$ Case 2: -1<x<0 $\exists x_0 \in (x,0)$ such that $(1+x)^{4} - 1 - dx = f(x) - f(x) = f(x_0)(x_0)$ $= d(x_1 - x_0)^{4} - 1 = d(x_1 - x_0)^{4} = d(x_1 -$ = x((1+x0)x-1) x 20

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3) Prove that $\ln x \leq x-1$ for x>0. Solution. Let $f(x) = \ln x - x + 1$, then f(1) = 0. If x>1, then $\exists x_0 \in (1,x)$ such that $\ln x - x + 1 = f(x) = f(x) - f(1) = f(x_0)(x-1)$ $= (\frac{1}{x_0} - 1)(x-1) \leq 0$ The case 0 < x < 1 is similar.

(a) Approximate $\sqrt{16.1}$. Let $f(x)=\sqrt{x}$. Then f(16.1)-f(16)=f(c)(16.1-16)for some $c \in (16,16.1)$. Now $c \approx 16$. So $f(16.1)-f(16) \approx f(16)(16.1-16) = \frac{1}{2\sqrt{16}}(0.1) = 0.0125$. $-1.\sqrt{16.1}-4\approx 0.0125$, $\sqrt{16.1}\approx 4.0125$.

Theorem (for Curve Tracing) $f' \ge 0 \\
f' > 0 \\
f' \le 0 \\
f' \le 0$ everywhere, then f is $\begin{cases}
\text{increasing} \\
\text{strictly increasing} \\
\text{decreasing} \\
\text{strictly decreasing} \\
\text{injective} \\
\text{Constant}
\end{cases}$ $f' = 0 \\
f' = 0$

Proof. If x,y \(\xi\)(a,6), x<y, then by mean value theorem,

Remarks For differentiable function f. if f is ${ strictly increasing }$, then ${ f'>0 }$ everywhere injective may be false! Examples f(x)=x3 is strictly increasing and injective, but f'(0) = 0. $f(x) = -x^3$ is strictly decreasing, but f(0) = 0. For differentiable function $f:(a,b)\rightarrow R$, if f is $\begin{cases} increasing \\ decreasing \\ constant \end{cases}$, then $\begin{cases} f' \ge 0 \\ f' \le 0 \end{cases}$ everywhere $f' = 0 \end{cases}$ on (a, b)Proof. For x, x . \((a, b), f is fincreasing for decreasing for constant s

Local Tracing Theorem

If $f: [a,b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is continuous and f(c) > 0 for Some $c \in [a,b]$, then $\exists c_0, c_i \in \mathbb{R}$ such that $c_0 < c < c_i$ and $f(x) < f(c) < f(y) \ \forall \ x,y \in [a,b]$ and $c_0 < x < c_i$ $c_0 < c_1 < c_1 < c_2 < c_1$

A similar result for the case f(c) < 0 is true and the inequality becomes f(x) > f(c) > f(y).

Proof. Let f(c) > 0. Assume there is no such co. Then $\forall n = 1,2,3,..., \exists x_n \in [a,b]$ and $C-\frac{1}{n} < x_n < c$ satisfying $f(x_n) \ge f(c)$. This will lead to

 $f(c) = \lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{f(x_n) - f(c)}{x_n - c} \le 0$, Contradiction.

The other parts are similar.

Remarks If we only know f(c) ≥0, we do not have a similar result. For example, let

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} x^2 \sin \frac{1}{x} & \text{if } x \neq 0 \\ 0 & \text{if } x = 0. \end{cases}$$
We have $f'(0) = 0$, but
on every open interval $(c_0, 0)$ or $(0, c_1)$,

f(x) takes both positive and negative values.

Generalized Mean-Value Theorem

If f, g are continuous on [a,b] and are differentiable on (a,b), then $\exists x_0 \in (a,b)$ such that

 $g'(x_0)(f(b)-f(a)) = f(x_0)(g(b)-g(a)).$ $P(x_0) = f(x_0)(f(b)-f(a)) - f(x_0)(g(b)-g(a)).$ Then F(a) = g(a)f(b) - f(a)g(b) = F(b). By Polle's Theory, $\exists x_0 \in (a,b) \text{ such that } F(x_0) = 0.$ So we get (x_0) .

Remark If $g(b) \neq g(a)$, then (*) (an be put as $\frac{f(b)-f(a)}{g(b)-g(a)} = \frac{f(x_0)}{g'(x_0)}$.

(of form of L'Hôpital's Rule)

OLet fig be differentiable on (a,6)

@g(x), g'(x) # 0 \xe(a,6)

 $\Im \lim_{x \to a^+} f(x) = 0 = \lim_{x \to a^+} g(x)$

Plim f(x) = L, where LER or L=-00 or L=+00.

Then $\lim_{x\to a^+} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} = \lim_{x\to a^+} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)}$. The case $x\to b^-$ is similar.

Proof. Define f(a) = 0 and g(b) = 0. $\forall x \in (a,b)$, f,g are continuous on Eq. xI and differentiable on (a,x). By generalized mean value theorem, $\exists x \in (a,x)$ such that

$$\frac{f(x)}{g(x)} = \frac{f(x) - f(a)}{g(x) - g(a)} = \frac{f'(x_0)}{g'(x_0)} \quad \text{As } x \to a^+, x_0 \to a$$

$$\frac{f(x)}{g(x)} = \frac{f'(x_0)}{g'(x_0)} \to 1$$



(form of L'Hôpital's Rule)

1) Let f, g be differentiable on (a, b)

② q(x), q'(x) ≠0 ∀x∈(a,b)

3 lim g(x) = 00 (No need lim f(x) exists!)

A lim + f(x) = L, where LER or L=-co or L=+se

Then $\lim_{x\to a^+} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} = \lim_{x\to a^+} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)}$. The case $x\to b^-$ is similar.

Proof. We do the case LER first. By (4), I interval $I = (a, a+b_0)$ such that $t \in I \Rightarrow \left| \frac{f(t)}{g'(t)} - L \right| < \frac{5}{2}$.

Let y ∈ I. Yx ∈ I, by goneralized mean-value theorem,

 $\exists t \in I \text{ such that } \frac{f(x) - f(y)}{g(x) - g(y)} = \frac{f(t)}{g'(t)}$

Multiply by $\frac{g(x)-g(y)}{g(x)}$, add $\frac{f(y)}{g(x)}$, then subtract $\frac{f(x)}{g'(x)}$ on

both sides. Get $\frac{f(x)}{g(x)} - \frac{f(t)}{g'(t)} = -\frac{g(y)}{g(x)} \frac{f(t)}{g'(t)} + \frac{f(y)}{g(x)}$

So $\left|\frac{f(x)}{g(x)} - \frac{f(t)}{g(t)}\right| \leq \left|\frac{g(y)}{g(x)}\right| \left(|L| + \frac{\varepsilon}{\varepsilon}\right) + \left|\frac{f(y)}{g(x)}\right| \cdot x \to a^{\frac{1}{2}}$

By 3), the right side has limit 0. So 3 internal J=(a, ota)

so that $\forall x \in \mathcal{I}$, the right side is at most %.

Then $\forall x \in In J = (a, a + min \{ \delta_0, \delta_1 \})$

 $|f(x)| - L| \le |f(x)| - f'(x)| + |f(x)| - L| < \frac{x}{2} + \frac{x}{2} = x.$

The cases L= ± 00 follow by making simple modifications.

Examples () Let $f(x) = x^2 \sin \frac{1}{x}$ and $g(x) = \sin x$ on $(0, \frac{\pi}{2})$

 $\lim_{x\to 0^+} \frac{f(x)}{g'(x)} = \lim_{x\to 0^+} \frac{2x\sin x - \cos x}{\cos x} \quad \text{doesn't exist}$ $\lim_{x\to 0^+} \frac{f(x)}{g'(x)} = \lim_{x\to 0^+} \frac{2x\sin x - \cos x}{\cos x} \quad \text{doesn't exist}$

 $\lim_{x\to 0^+} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} = \lim_{x\to 0^+} \frac{x}{\sin x} (x \sin \frac{1}{x}) = (.0 = 0 \neq \lim_{x\to 0^+} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)})$

3 $\forall r \in \mathbb{R}$, $\lim_{x \to +\infty} \frac{x^r}{e^x} = 0$. (To see this, choose n>1rl. Then $x^r \in x^n$ on [1,00). So $0 \le \frac{x^r}{e^x} \le \frac{x^n}{e^x}$ on [1,00). Since $\frac{d^n}{dx^n} x^n = n!$ and $\lim_{x \to +\infty} \frac{n!}{e^x} = 0$, applying L'Hopital's tule n-times, we see $\lim_{x\to\infty} \frac{x^n}{e^x} = 0$. $\lim_{x\to\infty} \frac{x^v}{e^x} = 0$.

3 Let f: (a,+00) -> R be differentiable. Then $\lim_{x\to+\infty} (f(x)+f(x))=0 \implies \lim_{x\to+\infty} f(x)=0 = \lim_{x\to+\infty} f(x).$

To see this, we apply (益)-form of L'Hôpital's rule As follow: $\lim_{x\to\infty} f(x) = \lim_{x\to+\infty} \frac{f(x)e^x}{e^x} = \lim_{x\to+\infty} \frac{f(x)e^x + f(x)e^x}{e^x}$ $= \lim_{x\to+\infty} f(x) + f(x) = 0$

and $\lim_{x\to+\infty} f(x) = \lim_{x\to+\infty} (f(x)+f(x))-f(x)) = 0-0=0.$

Remarks In O.D.E., if lim g(x) = 0, then every solution y=f(x) of $\frac{dy}{dx} + y = g(x)$ satisfies $\lim_{x \to \infty} f(x) = 0$ by the reason above.

(4) Let $f(x)=2x+\sin x$ and $g(x)=2x-\sin x$ on $(-\infty,+\infty)$. As $x\to+\infty$, $f(x),g(x)\to+\infty$.

As $x \to + \infty$, f(x), $g(x) \to + \infty$. $\lim_{X \to + \infty} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} = \lim_{X \to + \infty} \frac{2 + \cos x}{2 - \cos x} \text{ doesn't exist}$ $\lim_{X \to + \infty} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} = \lim_{X \to + \infty} \frac{2x + \sin x}{x + \cos 2x - \sin x} = \lim_{X \to + \infty} \frac{2x + \sin x}{x + \cos 2x - \sin x} = \lim_{X \to + \infty} \frac{2x + \sin x}{x + \cos 2x - \sin x} = \lim_{X \to + \infty} \frac{2x + \sin x}{x + \cos 2x - \sin x} = \lim_{X \to + \infty} \frac{2x + \sin x}{x + \cos 2x - \sin x} = \lim_{X \to + \infty} \frac{2x + \sin x}{x + \cos 2x - \sin x} = \lim_{X \to + \infty} \frac{2x + \sin x}{x + \cos 2x - \sin x} = \lim_{X \to + \infty} \frac{2x + \sin x}{x + \cos 2x - \sin x} = \lim_{X \to + \infty} \frac{2x + \sin x}{x + \cos 2x - \sin x} = \lim_{X \to + \infty} \frac{2x + \sin x}{x + \cos 2x - \sin x} = \lim_{X \to + \infty} \frac{2x + \sin x}{x + \cos 2x - \sin x} = \lim_{X \to + \infty} \frac{2x + \sin x}{x + \cos 2x - \sin x} = \lim_{X \to + \infty} \frac{2x + \sin x}{x + \cos 2x - \sin x} = \lim_{X \to + \infty} \frac{2x + \sin x}{x + \cos 2x - \sin x} = \lim_{X \to + \infty} \frac{2x + \sin x}{x + \cos 2x - \sin x} = \lim_{X \to + \infty} \frac{2x + \sin x}{x + \cos 2x - \sin x} = \lim_{X \to + \infty} \frac{2x + \sin x}{x + \cos 2x - \sin x} = \lim_{X \to + \infty} \frac{2x + \sin x}{x + \cos 2x - \sin x} = \lim_{X \to + \infty} \frac{2x + \sin x}{x + \cos 2x - \sin x} = \lim_{X \to + \infty} \frac{2x + \sin x}{x + \cos 2x - \sin x} = \lim_{X \to + \infty} \frac{2x + \sin x}{x + \cos 2x - \sin x} = \lim_{X \to + \infty} \frac{2x + \sin x}{x + \cos 2x - \sin x} = \lim_{X \to + \infty} \frac{2x + \sin x}{x + \cos 2x - \sin x} = \lim_{X \to + \infty} \frac{2x + \sin x}{x + \cos 2x - \sin x} = \lim_{X \to + \infty} \frac{2x + \sin x}{x + \cos 2x - \sin x} = \lim_{X \to + \infty} \frac{2x + \sin x}{x + \cos 2x - \sin x} = \lim_{X \to + \infty} \frac{2x + \cos x}{x + \cos x} = \lim_$

Taylor's Theorem Let f: (a,6) -> IR be n-times differentiable

Vx,c∈(6,6), ∃xo between x and c such that

 $f(x) = f(c) + \frac{f(c)}{(1!)}(x-c) + \frac{f''(c)}{2!}(x-c)^2 + \dots + \frac{f''(n-1)}{(n-1)!}(x-c)^n + \frac{f''(n-1)}{n!}(x-c)^n$

(nth Taylor expansion of faboutc) $R_{N}(x)$ Lagrange froat. Let I be the closed interval with x and c as endpoints. For teI, define $g(t)=(n-1)!\frac{h^{-1}}{k=0}\frac{f^{(k)}(t)}{k!}(x-t)^{k}$, where $f^{(k)}=f$ and define $p(t)=-\frac{(x-t)^{n}}{n}$. We have $g'(t)=f^{(n)}(t)(x-t)^{n-1}$ and $p'(t)=(x-t)^{n-1}$.

By generalized mean value theorem, $\exists x_0$ between x and c such that $g'(x_0) (p(x) - p(c)) = p'(x_0) (g(x) - g(c))$ $f''(x_0)(x-x_0)^{n-1} (x-c)^n/n (x-x_0)^{n-1} (n-1)!f(x)$

 $\Rightarrow \ \, \text{ter}) = \frac{(\nu-i)_i}{\delta(c)} + \frac{\nu_i}{t_{(\nu)}(x^0)}(x^-c)_{\nu} = \sum_{\nu=i}^{k_0} \frac{\kappa_i}{t_{(\kappa)}}(x^-c) + \frac{\nu_i}{t_{(\nu)}}(x^-c)_{\nu}$

Taylor Expansions of Common Functions at C=0 $e^{x} = (+x + \frac{x^{2}}{2!} + \dots + \frac{x^{n}}{n!} + R_{n+1}(x) = \sum_{k=0}^{n} \frac{x^{k}}{k!} + R_{n+1}(x)$ $(65 \times = (-\frac{\chi^2}{2!} + \frac{\chi^4}{4!} - \dots + \frac{(-1)^2 \chi^{ev}}{(2n)!} + R_{2n+2}(\chi)$ $\sin x = x - \frac{x^3}{3!} + \frac{x^5}{5!} - \dots + \frac{(-1)^n x^{2n+1}}{(2n+1)!} + R_{2n+3}(x)$ $(1+x)^{a} = 1 + \sum_{k=1}^{n} \frac{a(a-1)\cdots(a-k+1)}{k!} x^{k} + R_{n+1}(x)$ $= \binom{a}{k} = \binom{a}{k}$ $l_{N}(1+x) = \chi - \frac{\chi^{2}}{2} + \frac{\chi^{3}}{3} - \dots + \frac{(-1)^{n} \chi^{n}}{n} + R_{n+1}(x)$ Arctan $x = x - \frac{x^3}{3} + \frac{x^5}{5} - \dots + \frac{(-1)^n x^{2n+1}}{2n+1} + R_{2n+3}(x)$ Arcson $x = x + \sum_{k=1}^{n} \frac{(-3.5...(2k-1))}{24.6...(2k)} \frac{x^{2k+1}}{2k+1} + R_{2n+3}^{(x)}$ Notation: = (2k-1)!! $m!! = \begin{cases} 1.3.5...m & \text{if m is odd} \\ 2.4.6...m & \text{if m is even} \end{cases}$

Appendix 1: Convex and Concave Functions

(a,f(a)) y = f(x) (ta+(a-t)b, tf(a)+(1-t)f(b))(ta+(1-t)b, f(ta+(1-t)b)) [a,b]={ta+(-t)b : 0 < t < 1}

Pefinitions OLet I be an interval and f: I > 1R. We say f is a convex function on I iff $\forall a,b \in I, 0 \le t \le 1, f(ta + (1-t)b) \le t f(a) + (1-t)f(b)$

@ f is a concave function on I iff

Ya, b∈I, o≤t≤1, f(ta+(1-t)b) ≥ tf(a)+(1-t)f(b)

Remarks OA function is convex on I iff every chard joining (a, f(a)) and (b, f(b)) with a, be I is always

above or on the curve y=f(x). A function is

Concave on I iff every chord is below or on the

② f is strictly convex iff f(tat(1-t)b) < tfah(1-t)fy)
Similarly for strictly concave. for c<t<1 Strictly convex functions are the ones whose chords are above the curve (except the endpoints are on the curve, of course). Similarly for strictly Concave functions.

3 f is conver -f is concave . f is strictly convex (=) -f is strictly concave.

(b,f(b)) (a,f(a)) (x,fw)

Theorem f is convex on I iff the slope of the chords always increase in the sense that

 $\forall a,x,b\in I$, $a < x < b \Rightarrow \frac{f(x)-f(b)}{x-a} \le \frac{f(b)-f(x)}{b-x}$.

Proof. Note x=ta+(1-t)bfor some $t \in [0,1]$ $\Leftrightarrow 0 \le t = \frac{b-x}{b-a} \le 1$.

 $\frac{f(x)-f(a)}{x-a} \le \frac{f(b)-f(x)}{b-x} \iff f(x) \le \frac{b-x}{b-a}f(a) + \frac{x-a}{b-a}f(b)$ f(ta+(1-t)b) ≤ t f(a) + (1-t) f(b).

Theorem For f differentiable on I, f is convex on I f' is increasing on I (←) f"≥0 on I for f twice differentiable on I). Throm curve tracing Proof (=) Va, be I with a < b, by last theorem, $f(a) = \lim_{x \to a^{+}} \frac{f(x) - f(a)}{x - a} \le \lim_{x \to a^{+}} \frac{f(b) - f(b)}{b - x} = \frac{f(b) - f(a)}{b - a}$

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

(€) Ya,x,b∈ I with a<x<b, by the mean-value theorem, 3r,s such that acrexises and $\frac{f(x)-f(a)}{x-a}=f(c)\leq f(s)=\frac{f(b)-f(x)}{b-x}.$

By last theorem, f is convex on I.

Theorem If f is convex on (a,b), then f is continuous on (a,b).

Proof. Yxo E(a,b), consider u,v,w E(a,b) such that u<xo<v<w>w. Then

 $f(x_0)-f(u) \leq f(v)-f(x_0) \leq f(w)-f(v)$.

Solving for f(r), we get

f(xo) - f(u) (v-xo)+f(xo) € f(v) € f(w)-f(v) (v-xo)+f(xo)

Take limit as $v \to xo^{\dagger}$, we get $f(x_0) \le f(x_0+) \le f(x_0)$. So $f(x_0+) = f(x_0)$. Similarly, $f(x_0-) = f(x_0)$ by taking $u \in v \in x_0 \in w$. Therefore, $f(x_0) \in x_0 \in w$.

Remark and Example The above theorem may not be true for [a,b]. For example,

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } 0 \leq x < 1 \\ 1 & \text{if } x = 1 \end{cases}$$

is convex on [0,1] by checking the definition or checking the slope of chords is increasing. However, f is not continuous at 1.

Example Prove that if $a,b \ge 0$ and 0 < r < 1, then $|a^r - b^r| \le |a - b|^r$.

In particular, | 17a - 176 | < 17a - 61 (*)

for n=2,3,4,...

Solution. We may assume a > 6, otherwise interchange them.

Define $f: [0,a] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ by $f(x) = x^{r} + (a-x)^{r}$. Since r - 1 < 0, so

$$f'(x) = r(r-1)(x^{r-2} + (a-x)^{r-2}) \le 0$$
.

So f is concave on [0,a]. Since $f(0) = a^r = f(a)$, we get

$$\frac{d}{dt} = x^{2} + (a-x)^{2} \ge a^{2} \quad \forall x \in [0,a]$$
If $b \in [0,a]$ (i.e. $0 \le b \le a$),
then

 $f(b)=b^{r}+(a-b)^{r} \ge a^{r} \Rightarrow |a-b^{r}| = a^{r}-b^{r}$ \(\le (a-b)^{r}=|a-b|^{r}\)

Remark (*) is the case r= for n=2,3,4,...
(*) is useful in some exercises.

Extra Examples for the Chapter on Differentiation

D If {xn} is Cauchy, then prove {5Txn} is Cauchy.

Solution. Since {xn} is Cauchy, for every € >0,

3 KEN such that m, n≥K > 1xm-xn 1< €5.

Then | JXm - JXn | = J | Km-xn | < JE5 = E.

-. {Txn} is Cauchy.

2) f: R-> R is three-times differentiable. If f(-1)=0, f(1)=1 and f(6)=0, then prove

That $\sup\{f^{(3)}(x): -|\langle x < 1 \rangle \geq 3$.

Thoughts f(3), f', f suggest Taylor's theorem

C should be -1, 1 or 0, more likely C=0.

Solution By Taylor's theorem, using C = 0.

 $f(x) = f(0) + f(0)(x-0) + f'(0)(x-0) + \frac{1}{6}(x-0)$

 $=f(0)+f(0)x^2+f((0x)x^3)$

for some Ox between x and O. Setting x=1,-1,

 $1 = f(1) = f(0) + \frac{f''(0)}{2} + \frac{f'''(0)}{2}$ for some $\theta_1 \in (0,1)$

0 = f(-1) = f(0) + f''(0) - f''(0-1) for some $\theta_{-1} \in (-1,0)$.

Subtracting yields $f''(0_1) + f'''(0_{-1}) = 6$. Sup $\{f^{(3)}(x): -1(x<1)\} \ge \max\{f''(0_1), f'''(0_{-1})\} \ge 3$.

3 Let f be twice differentiable on [0,2].

Yx∈[0,2], If(x) (≤1, If "(x) (≤1.

Provethat Yxe[0,2], If & 1 \le 2.

Solution By Taylor's theorem, let x ∈ (0,2], a ∈ [0,2]

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

for some De between a and x. Setting a=0,2,

 $f(0) = f(x) - f(x) x + f''(\theta_0) x^2 \text{ for some } \theta_0 \in (0, x).$

 $f(z) = f(x) + f(x)(z-x) + f''(\theta z)(z-x)^2$ for some $\theta_z \in (x,z)$

Subtracting these, we get

 $f(z)-f(b) = 2f(x) + f''(\theta_2)(z-x)^2 - f(\theta_0)x^2$

Solving for f(x), we see

 $|f(x)| = \frac{1}{2} |f(z) - f(z)| + \frac{f''(0)}{2} x^2 - \frac{f''(0)}{2} (z - x)^2$

 $\leq \frac{1}{2}(1+1+\frac{1}{2}x^2+\frac{1}{2}(z-x^2))$

 $= \frac{1}{2}(x^2 - 2x + 4) \quad \begin{cases} x \in [0, 2] \\ \leq \frac{1}{2}((x - 1)^2 + 3) & \begin{cases} |x - 1| \leq 1 \end{cases} \end{cases}$

< 2((+3)=2

(4) Lat f: [1,2] be continuous and f be differentiable on (1,2). Prove there exists $\theta \in (1,2)$ such that $f(z) - f(1) = \frac{1}{2} \theta^2 f(0)$.

(Note mean value theorem only gives f(z)-f(i) = $f'(\theta_0)(2-1) = f'(\theta_0)$ for some $\theta_0 \in (1,2)$.)

Solution Write

 $\theta^2 f'(\theta) = \frac{f'(\theta)}{1/\theta^2} = \frac{f'(\theta)}{9'(\theta)}$, where $g(\theta) = -\frac{1}{\theta}$. By generalized mean value theorem,

 $\frac{f(z)-f(1)}{g(z)-g(1)} = \frac{f(0)}{g'(0)} \text{ for some } \theta \in (1,2).$

This is just

$$\frac{f(z)-f(1)}{-\frac{1}{2}-(-1)}=\frac{f(0)}{1/\theta^2}\iff f(z)-f(1)=\frac{1}{2}\theta^2f(0).$$

(5) Let 0<a<b and let f: [a,b] → R be continued with f differentiable on (a,b). Prove $\exists \theta \in (a,b)$ Such that $\int_{b-a}^{b} |f(a)| f(b)| = f(0) - \theta f(0)$.

Solution. Expanding the left side, we get $\frac{1}{b-a} \left| \frac{f(a)}{a} \frac{f(b)}{b-a} \right| = \frac{bf(a)-af(b)}{b-a} = \frac{f(a)/a-f(b)/b}{1/a-1/b}$ dividing by ab
in numerity + denominator.

This suggest we consider F(x)=f(x)x, G(x)=1/x By the generalized mean value theorem, $\frac{f(a)/a - f(b)/b}{1/a - 1/b} = \frac{F(a) - F(b)}{G(a) - G(b)} = \frac{F'(0)}{G'(0)} \text{ for some } \theta \in (Ab)$ $= \frac{\theta_5}{\theta_1(\theta) - \theta_2} / \left(-\frac{\theta_5}{\eta}\right)$

= f(0) - Of(0)The result follows.