Lab0: Problem Set 0 Notes

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Problem (1)

Explain why this is horrific notation:

$$\int_0^x f(x)dx.$$

Try this out yourselves!

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Note: Look at each piece of the integral carefully – if you're having trouble finding the notational misstep, you have subconsciously identified and "autocorrected" it in your mind.

Problem (2)

Assume $\lambda > 0$ is a constant and compute

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We will be handling **Taylor series** in this problem.

Let $a\in\mathbb{C}$ and f be a function infinitely differentiable at a. The Taylor series expansion of f about a is given in general by

$$f(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{f^{(n)}(a)}{n!} (x - a)^n,$$

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$$f(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{f^{(n)}(0)}{n!} x^n.$$

In particular, we will be using the Taylor (Maclaurin) series for e^x :

$$e^{x} = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{\frac{d^{n} e^{x}(0)}{dx^{n}}}{n!} x^{n} = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{e^{0}}{n!} x^{n} = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{x^{n}}{n!}.$$

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$$= \lambda.$$

Let m = n - 1. Perform a change of variables:

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} n \frac{\lambda^n}{n!} e^{-\lambda} = \lambda \cdot e^{-\lambda} \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{\lambda^{n-1}}{(n-1)!}$$

$$= \lambda \cdot e^{-\lambda} \sum_{m=0}^{\infty} \frac{\lambda^m}{m!}$$

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$$= \lambda.$$

Therefore,

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} n \frac{\lambda^n}{n!} e^{-\lambda} = \lambda. \quad \Box$$

Problem (3)

Here is a very silly function:

$$h(x) = \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2}\frac{(x-\mu)^2}{\sigma^2}\right), \quad -\infty < x < \infty.$$

Treat $-\infty < \mu < \infty$ and $\sigma > 0$ as constants and compute the value(s) of x at which has h inflection points.

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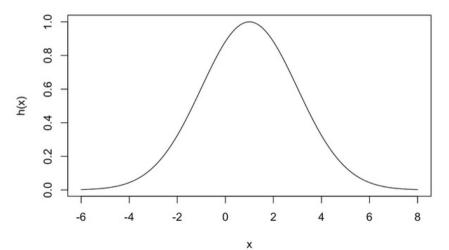
A solid foundation will be laid for this problem, after which the rest will be up to you!

Recall that the **concavity** of a function is a statement on how that function's graph opens or curves. If a function is concave up, the graph's curvature resembles \bigcup ; if a function is concave down, the graph's curvature resembles \bigcap .

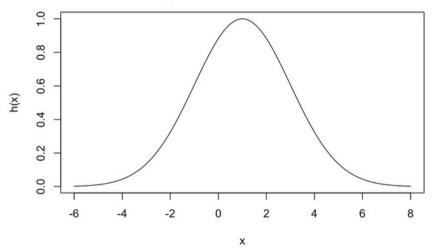
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While some functions, like quadratics ($f(x) = ax^2 + bx + c$), are completely concave up or down, other functions have changing concavity. An **inflection point** is a point at which this change occurs.

Consider the following graph of h(x) with $\mu=1$ and $\sigma=2$:

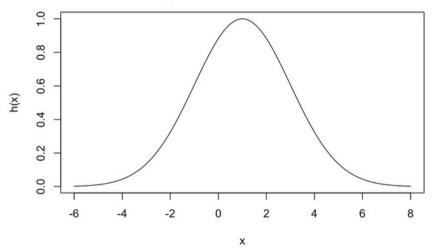


Consider the following graph of h(x) with $\mu = 1$ and $\sigma = 2$:



Observe that around x=-1, h seems to change from concave up to concave down.

Consider the following graph of h(x) with $\mu = 1$ and $\sigma = 2$:



In fact, these changes occur **precisely** at x = -1 and x = 3.

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Concavity changes when the sign of the second derivative changes; as such, for a nicely behaved function f, x_0 is an inflection point if $f''(x_0) = 0$.

Derivative Review

Derivative Properties and Rules

Let f and g be differentiable functions, and let a and c be constants.

Linearity: We have that

$$\frac{d}{dx}\left[a \cdot f(x) + c \cdot g(x)\right] = a \cdot f'(x) + c \cdot g'(x).$$

Chain Rule: We have that

$$\frac{d}{dx}[f(g(x))] = g'(x)f'(g(x)).$$

Or Product Rule: We have that

$$\frac{d}{dx}[f(x)g(x)] = f'(x)g(x) + f(x)g'(x).$$

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$$= \frac{d}{dx} \left[-\frac{1}{2} \frac{(x-\mu)^2}{\sigma^2}\right] \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2} \frac{(x-\mu)^2}{\sigma^2}\right)$$
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$$\begin{split} h(x) &= \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2}\frac{(x-\mu)^2}{\sigma^2}\right) \\ \Rightarrow h'(x) &= \frac{d}{dx}\left[\exp\left(-\frac{1}{2}\frac{(x-\mu)^2}{\sigma^2}\right)\right] \\ &= \frac{d}{dx}\left[-\frac{1}{2}\frac{(x-\mu)^2}{\sigma^2}\right]\exp\left(-\frac{1}{2}\frac{(x-\mu)^2}{\sigma^2}\right) \qquad \text{(chain rule)} \\ &= -\frac{1}{2\sigma^2}\frac{d}{dx}\left[(x-\mu)^2\right]\exp\left(-\frac{1}{2}\frac{(x-\mu)^2}{\sigma^2}\right) \qquad \text{(linearity)} \end{split}$$

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We work through the first derivative together.

$$h(x) = \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2}\frac{(x-\mu)^2}{\sigma^2}\right)$$

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You do the rest! The properties and rules (click here) may be of use.

Problem (4)

Here is another inordinately silly function:

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Prove that $\Gamma(x+1) = x\Gamma(x)$.

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Prove that $\Gamma(x+1) = x\Gamma(x)$.

In order to work through this, we will review **integration by parts** and **improper integration**.

Consider the definite integral $\int_a^b f(x)dx$. We have that a and b are the *lower* and *upper limits of integration*, respectively, x is the *variable of integration*, and f(x) is the integrand (i.e., the function that is to be integrated).

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Unfortunately, not every integrand has a nice, closed-form antiderivate; in Fundamental Theorem of Calculus terms, this means that there does not necessarily exist an ${\cal F}$ such that

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However, in certain circumstances, we can still work with unwieldy-looking integrands.

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The general integration by parts framework is typically given with the following notation:

$$\int udv = uv - \int vdu.$$

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We want to identify u and dv (thereby identifying v); if the integrand of interest is the product of a power and an exponential, it will generally helpful to identify the power as u and the exponential as dv. So, we have the following:

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$$u = y^{x} du = xy^{x-1}dy$$
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Suppose you want to evaluate an integral $\int_a^b f(x)dx$, but $a=-\infty$, $b=\infty$, or f is discontinuous at some point between a and b, inclusive. This means the integral is *improper*.

Suppose you want to evaluate an integral $\int_a^b f(x)dx$, but $a=-\infty$, $b=\infty$, or f is discontinuous at some point between a and b, inclusive. This means the integral is improper.

Consider the case where the integral is of the form $\int_a^\infty f(x)dx$, with $-\infty < a < \infty$. To evaluate the integral, you take the following limit:

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If f has an antiderivative F, this is equivalent to

$$\int_{a}^{\infty} f(x)dx = \lim_{b \to \infty} \int_{a}^{b} f(x)dx = \lim_{b \to \infty} F(x)|_{a}^{b} = \lim_{b \to \infty} F(b) - F(a).$$

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Consider the $-y^xe^{-y}\big|_0^\infty=-\frac{y^x}{e^y}\Big|_0^\infty$ term, recalling that x>0 is a constant. Evaluating at 0 is simple enough:

$$-\frac{y^x}{e^y}\Big|_{y=0} = -\frac{0^x}{e^0} = -\frac{0}{1} = 0.$$

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Since both the numerator and denominator are going to $(\pm)\infty$, we cannot evaluate the limit in this form. However, intuitively, the exponential function e^y with blow up to ∞ much faster than a power function like y^x . So,

$$\lim_{y \to \infty} -y^x e^{-y} = 0.$$

A discussion of L'Hôpital's Rule (click here) is forthcoming, as is the more mathematically rigorous evaluation of this limit (click here).

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Take the final step to prove the original statement!

Problem (5)

Let f be any function with the following properties:

- ullet f is twice continuously differentiable in a neighborhood of 0;
- f(0) = 0;
- f'(0) = 0;
- f''(0) = 1.

Assume t is a constant and compute

$$\lim_{x \to \infty} x f\left(\frac{t}{\sqrt{x}}\right).$$

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Assume t is a constant and compute

$$\lim_{x \to \infty} x f\left(\frac{t}{\sqrt{x}}\right).$$

To work through this, we will review **continuity**, **differentiability**, and **L'Hôpital's Rule**.

Recall that a function f is continuous at a point x_0 if

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f is differentiable at x_0 if $f'\left(x_0\right)$ is well-defined.

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Recall that a function that is differentiable on an interval is also continuous on that interval.

$$\lim_{x \to \infty} x f\left(\frac{t}{\sqrt{x}}\right) = \left(\lim_{x \to \infty} x\right) \left(\lim_{x \to \infty} f\left(\frac{t}{\sqrt{x}}\right)\right)$$
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We have that t is a constant and proceed as follows:

$$\lim_{x \to \infty} x f\left(\frac{t}{\sqrt{x}}\right) = \left(\lim_{x \to \infty} x\right) \left(\lim_{x \to \infty} f\left(\frac{t}{\sqrt{x}}\right)\right) \qquad \text{(product of limits)}$$

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$$= \infty \cdot 0.$$

 $\infty \cdot 0$ is a problematic (non-)answer. So, what do we do?

If you are taking the limit of a function and the limit looks like $\pm \frac{\infty}{\infty}, \frac{0}{0}, \infty \cdot 0$, or a few others, you have encountered an *indeterminate form*.

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L'Hôpital's Rule

Let f and g be two functions defined on an open interval containing at point c and differentiable on that interval (except, perhaps, at c). If $\lim_{x\to c} f(x) = \lim_{x\to c} g(x) = \pm \infty$ or 0, g is non-zero in that open interval (expect, perhaps, at c), and $\lim_{x\to c} \frac{f'(x)}{g'(x)}$ exists, then

$$\lim_{x \to c} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} = \lim_{x \to c} \frac{f'(x)}{g'(x)}$$

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Essentially, if you encounter an indeterminate form and can rewrite the function whose limit you're trying to find as a quotient of two functions, use L'Hôpital's Rule!

$$\lim_{x \to \infty} x f\left(\frac{t}{\sqrt{x}}\right) = \lim_{x \to \infty} \frac{f\left(tx^{-1/2}\right)}{x^{-1}} \qquad \left(x = \frac{1}{1/x} = \frac{1}{x^{-1}}\right)$$

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$$= \lim_{x \to \infty} \frac{\frac{d}{dx} \left[f\left(tx^{-1/2}\right)\right]}{\frac{d}{dx} \left[x^{-1}\right]} \qquad \text{(L'Hôpital's rule)}$$

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We have the following:

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$$\left(x = \frac{1}{1/x} = \frac{1}{x^{-1}}\right)$$

(L'Hôpital's rule)

We have the following:

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$$\left(x = \frac{1}{1/x} = \frac{1}{x^{-1}}\right)$$
(L'Hôpital's rule)

(chain rule)

Complete the rest of the problem!

Problem (6)

Consider this integral:

$$\int_{2}^{\infty} \frac{1}{x(\ln x)^{p}} dx.$$

- Use a computer to create a single plot with many lines, each graphing the integrand for a different value of p. Consider p equal to -2, -1.5, -1, 0, 1, and 5, and make the x-axis of your plot run from 2 to 15.
- **Show** that $\lim_{x \to \infty} \frac{1}{x(\ln x)^p} = 0$ for all values of $-\infty .$
- ullet For what values of p does the integral converge? When it does converge, what is its value?
- lacktriangledown Consult the picture you created in part (a), and write a few sentences explaining conceptually why the integral converges for some values of p but not others.

Problem (6) Advice

Try this out yourselves! Here are some helpful reminders/tips:

- Remember that, in the integral $\int_a^b f(x)dx$, f(x) is the integrand.
- For part (a), use any software you would like (R, Excel, online graphing calculators, etc.) – just make sure a screenshot or image makes its way into your final PDF submission.
- ullet For part (b), case work may be useful. A proof for some values of p may not work so well for other values of p.

Addendum: Problem (4) L'Hôpital's Rule

We consider two cases. First, suppose $x \in \mathbb{N}$; that is, $x \in \{1, 2, 3, \dots\}$. Applying L'Hôpital's Rule x times yields the following:

$$\lim_{y \to \infty} -\frac{y^x}{e^y} = \lim_{y \to \infty} -\frac{\frac{d^x}{dy^x} [y^x]}{\frac{d^x}{dy^x} [e^y]}$$

$$= \lim_{y \to \infty} -\frac{x(x-1)\cdots 2\cdot 1\cdot y^0}{e^y}$$

$$= \lim_{y \to \infty} -\frac{x(x-1)\cdots 2\cdot 1\cdot 1}{e^y}$$

$$= -x(x-1)\cdots 2\lim_{y \to \infty} \frac{1}{e^y}$$

$$= -x(x-1)\cdots 2\cdot 0$$

$$= 0.$$

Addendum: Problem (4) L'Hôpital's Rule

Now suppose $x \notin \mathbb{N}$ and recall that $\lfloor x \rfloor$ rounds x down to the nearest integer. There is some 0 < c < 1 such that $x = \lfloor x \rfloor + c$. Applying L'Hôpital's Rule $\lfloor x \rfloor + 1$ times yields:

$$\lim_{y \to \infty} -\frac{y^x}{e^y} = \lim_{y \to \infty} -\frac{\frac{d^{\lfloor x \rfloor + 1}}{dy^{\lfloor x \rfloor + 1}} \left[y^x \right]}{\frac{d^{\lfloor x \rfloor + 1}}{dy^{\lfloor x \rfloor + 1}} \left[e^y \right]}$$

$$= \lim_{y \to \infty} -\frac{x(x-1) \cdots (x - \lfloor x \rfloor) \cdot y^{x - (\lfloor x \rfloor + 1)}}{e^y}$$

$$= \lim_{y \to \infty} -\frac{x(x-1) \cdots (c) \cdot y^{c-1}}{e^y}$$

$$= \lim_{y \to \infty} -\frac{x(x-1) \cdots (c)}{y^{1-c} e^y}$$

$$= -x(x-1) \cdots (c) \lim_{y \to \infty} \frac{1}{y^{1-c} e^y}$$

$$= 0.$$