Lecture 11:

Recall examples that are cts. at 0 but not diffible. at 0.

Theorem 1 (p. 109): If f is diffible at x, then f is cts at x. Proof:

$$\lim_{h \to 0} f(x+h) - f(x) = \lim_{h \to 0} \left(\frac{f(x+h) - f(x)}{h}\right)h = f'(x)0 = 0.$$

This is equivalent to saying  $\lim_{h\to 0} f(x+h) = f(x)$  which is equivalent to continuity of f at x:

Compare with  $\lim_{x \to x_0} f(x) = f(x_0) \square$ 

Continuity means the graph is unbroken.

Differentiability means the graph is smooth.

Right and left handed derivatives:

Defn:  $f'_{\pm}(x) = \lim_{h \to 0^{\pm}} \frac{f(x+h) - f(x)}{h}$ Fact: f is diffible. at x iff  $f'_{+}(x) = f'_{-}(x)$  (exist as a real number).

Defn: If a is an endpoint (say left endpoint) of an interval in the domain of f, we define  $f'(x) = f'_+(x)$ 

Differentiability Rules: Let f and g be diffible. at x. Constants: f(x) = c, f'(x) = 0. (already done) Identity: f(x) = x, f'(x) = 1. (already done) Sum/Difference:  $(f \pm g)'(x) = f'(x) \pm g'(x)$ Product Rule: (fg)'(x) = f'(x)g(x) + f(x)g'(x). Proof: f(x + b)g(x + b) = f(x)g(x)

$$\lim_{h \to 0} \frac{f(x+h)g(x+h) - f(x)g(x)}{h}$$

$$= \lim_{h \to 0} \frac{f(x+h)g(x+h) - f(x)g(x+h) + f(x)g(x+h) + f(x)g(x)}{h}$$
  
=  $lim_{h \to 0} \frac{f(x+h) - f(x)}{h}g(x+h) + lim_{h \to 0}f(x)\frac{g(x+h) - g(x)}{h}g(x+h) + f(x)lim_{h \to 0}g(x+h) - g(x)}{h}$   
=  $lim_{h \to 0} \frac{f(x+h) - f(x)}{h}lim_{h \to 0}g(x+h) + f(x)lim_{h \to 0}\frac{g(x+h) - g(x)}{h}$   
=  $f'(x)g(x) + f(x)g'(x)$ 

(since diffble  $\Rightarrow$  cts)  $\square$ 

Power Rule: Let  $f(x) = x^n$  where n is a positive integer. Then  $f'(x) = nx^{n-1}$ .

Proof: by induction on n. True for n = 0 by derivative of constant.

Assume true for *n*. Then  $(x^n)' = nx^{n-1}$ .

By induction hypoth,  $(x^{n+1})'=(x^nx)'=(nx^{n-1})x+(x^n)\mathbf{1}=(n+1)x^n.$   $\Box$ 

You can also start the induction off with n = 1.

Note: we will later prove power rule for all real n. Reciprocal rule: If  $f(x) \neq 0$ , then  $(\frac{1}{f(x)})' = \frac{-f'(x)}{f(x)^2}$ . Proof:

$$(\frac{1}{f(x)})' = \lim_{h \to 0} \frac{\frac{1}{f(x+h)} - \frac{1}{f(x)}}{h}$$
$$= \lim_{h \to 0} \frac{-1}{f(x+h)f(x)} \frac{f(x+h) - f(x)}{h}$$
$$= (\frac{-1}{(f(x))^2})f'(x)$$

(again since diffble  $\Rightarrow$  cts)  $\Box$ 

Corollary: For a positive integer n, hen  $(x^{-n})' = -nx^{-n-1}$ .

(so,  $(x^n)' = nx^{n-1}$  holds for all integers, positive, negative and zero).

Proof: Let  $(x^{-n})' = (\frac{1}{x^n})' = (\frac{-1}{x^{2n}})(nx^{n-1}) = -nx^{-n-1}$ . Quotient rule: If  $g(x) \neq 0$ , then  $(\frac{f(x)}{g(x)})' = \frac{g(x)f'(x) - f(x)g'(x)}{g(x)^2}$ .

Proof: Write  $\frac{f(x)}{g(x)} = f(x)(\frac{1}{g(x)})$  and apply product rule.

$$\left(\frac{f(x)}{g(x)}\right)' = f'(x)\left(\frac{1}{g(x)}\right) = f(x)\left(\frac{-g'(x)}{(g(x))^2} + f'(x)\left(\frac{1}{g(x)}\right)\right)$$

Examples:

Leibniz notation: If you think of y = f(x), then can write f'(x), as a function in many ways:

 $f'(x) = \frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{d}{dx}f(x) = D_x f(x)$  and others.

For the derivative evaluated at a particular value of  $x = x_0$ , we write

$$f'(x_0) = \frac{dy}{dx}|_{x=x_0} = \frac{dy}{dx}|_{x_0}$$

Example:  $f(x) = x^2$ ; f'(x) = 2x; f'(3) = 6.

Differentiability on an interval means dibble. at each point of the interval (remember that diffible at an endpoint means as a one-sided derivative).

Chain Rule: If g is diffible at x, and f is diffible. at g(x), then  $f \circ g$  is diffible. at x and  $(f \circ g)'(x) = f'(g(x))g'(x)$ .

Example: Find the derivative of  $(x^2 + 1)^{10}$ .

This function is  $f \circ g(x)$  where  $g(x) = x^2 + 1$  and  $f(x) = x^{10}$ . So,  $((x^2 + 1)^{10})' = (f'(g(x)))g'(x) = (10(x^2 + 1)^9)(2x) = 20(x^2 + 1)^9x$  You could alternatively expand it out and differentiate term by term. So, chain rule is a labor-saving device. But there are other applications where there is no alternative. Lecture 12:

Chain Rule: If g is diffible at x, and f is diffible. at g(x), then  $f \circ g$  is diffible. at x and  $(f \circ g)'(x) = f'(g(x))g'(x)$ .

Proof of Chain rule: Fix x. Let k(h) = g(x+h) - g(x).

$$\begin{split} \lim_{h \to 0} \frac{f(g(x+h)) - f(g(x))}{h} \\ &= \lim_{h \to 0} \frac{f(g(x+h)) - f(g(x))}{g(x+h) - g(x)} \frac{g(x+h) - g(x)}{h} \\ &= \lim_{h \to 0} \frac{f(g(x) + k(h)) - f(g(x))}{k(h)} \frac{g(x+h) - g(x)}{h} \end{split}$$

Use the limit rule for products. Makes some sense since  $k(h) \to 0$  as  $h \to 0$ . Problem: k(h) may be zero.

Instead: fix u in domain of f.

Define  $E(k) := \frac{f(u+k)-f(u)}{k} - f'(u)$  if  $k \neq 0$  and E(0) = 0.

E(k) is the "error" in the approximation of f'(u) by the difference quotient.

Note: for all k, (including k = 0),

$$f(u+k) - f(u) = (f'(u) + E(k))k$$

Fix x and let u = g(x). Let k = k(h) = g(x+h) - g(x). We have

$$f(g(x+h)) - f(g(x)) = (f'(g(x)) + E(k(h)))(g(x+h) - g(x)).$$
  
Now, divide by h:

$$\frac{f(g(x+h)) - f(g(x))}{h} = (f'(g(x)) + E(k(h)))\frac{(g(x+h) - g(x))}{h}$$

Let  $h \to 0$ . Then,

$$(f \circ g)'(x) = (f'(g(x)) + \lim_{h \to 0} E(k(h)))g'(x)$$

So, it suffices to show:

$$\lim_{h \to 0} E(k(h)) = 0.$$

This follows from:

a) By continuity of g (which we have since g is diffible.),  $\lim_{h\to 0} k(h) = 0$ .

b) By diffible. of f,  $\lim_{k\to 0} E(k) = 0$ . Derivatives of Trig functions

Will compute derivatives of all trig functions.

Need some Lemmas:

Theorem 7:  $\sin(x)$  and  $\cos(x)$  are cts.

Proof: Exercise 62 of section 2.5.

Theorem 8:  $\lim_{\theta \to 0} \frac{\sin(\theta)}{\theta} = 1.$ 

Note: this follows from LHopital's Rule once you know  $(\sin(x)' = \cos(x))$ . But we haven't prove that yet.

Proof of Theorem 8: Let  $\theta > 0$ , measured in radians.

 $Area(\Delta OAP) < Area (sector OAP) < Area(\Delta OAT)$ 

Thus,

$$\frac{\sin(\theta)}{2} < \theta/2 < \frac{\tan(\theta)}{2} = \frac{\sin(\theta)}{2\cos(\theta)}$$
$$1 < \frac{\theta}{\sin(\theta)} < \frac{1}{\cos(\theta)}$$
$$1 > \frac{\sin(\theta)}{\theta} > \cos(\theta)$$

Apply Squeeze Theorem.  $\Box$ Example 1, p. 122:  $\lim_{h\to 0} \frac{\cos(h)-1}{h} = 0$ . Proof: Use half-angle formula:  $\cos(h) = 1 - 2\sin^2(h/2)$ . Then

$$\lim_{h \to 0} \frac{\cos(h) - 1}{h} = -\lim_{h \to 0} \frac{\sin^2 h/2}{h/2}$$
$$= -\lim_{h \to 0} \left(\frac{\sin h/2}{h/2}\right) \lim_{h \to 0} \sin(h/2) = -1 \cdot 0 = 0,.$$

Lecture 13:

Inputs to trig functions are measured in radians, not degrees. Theorem 9: Let  $f(x) = \sin(x)$ . Then  $f'(x) = \cos(x)$ . Proof: Use trig addition formula:

$$\sin(x+h) = \sin(x)\cos(h) + \cos(x)\sin(h)$$
$$f'(x) = \lim_{h \to 0} \frac{\sin(x+h) - \sin(x)}{h}$$
$$= \lim_{h \to 0} \frac{\sin(x)\cos(h) + \cos(x)\sin(h) - \sin(x)}{h}$$
$$= \lim_{h \to 0} \frac{\sin(x)(\cos(h) - 1) + \cos(x)\sin(h)}{h}$$
$$\sin(x)\lim_{h \to 0} \frac{\cos(h) - 1}{h} + \cos(x)\lim_{h \to 0} \frac{\sin(h)}{h}$$
$$= \cos(x)$$

Theorem 10 (p. 123):  $\frac{d}{dx}\cos(x) = -\sin(x)$ .

Proof:

Use fact:  $\cos(x) = \sin(\pi/2 - x)$  and  $\sin(x) = \cos(\pi/2 - x)$ .

Reason: say for an acute angle x; look at a right triangle, with angles  $x, \pi/2 - x, \pi$ . Then "opposite" for x is adjacent for  $\pi/2 - x$  and vice versa.

Now apply chain rule:

$$\frac{d}{dx}\cos(x) = \frac{d}{dx}\sin(\pi/2 - x) = -\cos(\pi/2 - x) = -\sin(x).$$

Examples using chain rule:

1. Let  $f(x) = (\sin(x))^{10}$ .

$$f'(x) = 10(\sin(x))^9 \cos(x).$$

2. Let  $f(x) = \sin(\cos(x))$ . Then,

$$f'(x) = \cos(\cos(x))(-\sin(x)) = -\cos(\cos(x))(\sin(x))$$

Derivatives of other trig functions are given on top of p. 125. For instance,

$$\frac{d}{dx}\tan(x) = \sec^2(x)$$

Proof: Apply quotient rule:

$$\frac{d}{dx}\tan(x) = \frac{d}{dx}(\frac{\sin(x)}{\cos(x)}) = \frac{\cos(x)\cos(x) - ((\sin(x))(-\sin(x))}{\cos^2(x)} = \frac{1}{\cos^2(x)} = \sec^2(x).$$

Higher order derivatives

A diffible. function f(x) gives rise to a new function f'(x). So, why not differentiate again?

The 2nd derivative of f(x) is defined:

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

Other notation:

$$f''(x) = \frac{d^2}{dx^2}f(x)$$

Can consider 3rd derivative

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

Other notation:

$$f^{\prime\prime\prime}(x) = \frac{d^3}{dx^3} f(x)$$

For even higher derivatives, the "prime" notation gets too cumbersome. The n-th derivative is denoted:

$$f^{(n)}(x) = \frac{d^n}{dx^n} f(x) = \frac{d^n y}{dx^n}$$

the latter if y is understood as f(x).

Major motivation: if f(t) represents distance of a moving particle as a function of time t, then f'(t) represents the (instantaneous) velocity of the particle.

And f''(t) denotes acceleration. Example:  $f(x) = 3x^5 - 7x + 13$ .  $f'(x) = 15x^4 - 7$ .  $f^{(5)}(x) = (3)(5!) = 360$  and for all m > 5,  $f^{(m)}(x) = 0$ . In general, for a polynomial of degree n,  $f^{(m)}(x) = 0$  for all m > n.

Note that the domain of  $f^{(n)}(x)$  may depend on n: Example:

$$f(x) = \begin{array}{cc} x^2 & x \ge 0 \\ -x^2 & x < 0 \end{array}$$

Then f'(x) = 2|x|. So, the domain of both f and f' is all of  $\mathbb{R}$ . But f' is not diffible. at x = 0 and so f'' does not exist at x = 0.

Example (special case of Example 5, p. 129): Let  $f(x) = \sin(x)$ . What is  $f^{(n)}(x)$ ?

Claim: For *n* even,  $f^{(n)}(x) = (-1)^{n/2} \sin(x)$ . For *n* odd,  $f^{(n)}(x) = (-1)^{(n-1)/2} \cos(x)$ .

Proof: by induction.

For n = 1,  $f^{(n)}(x) = f'(x) = (-1)^{(n-1)/2} \cos(x)$ .

Assume true for n even. Then n + 1 is odd.

 $f^{(n+1)}(x) = (-1)^{n/2} \cos(x) = (-1)^{((n+1)-1)/2} \cos(x)$  and so the result holds for n+1.

Assume true for n odd. Then n + 1 is even.

 $f^{(n+1)}(x) = (-1)^{(n-1)/2+1} \sin(x) = (-1)^{(n+1)/2+1} \sin(x)$  and so the result holds for n+1.  $\Box$ 

Lecture 14:

Angles are in radians!

MVT: Given a function f(x) and a < b such that f continuous on [a, b] and f differentiable on (a, b), there exists c such that a < c < b and

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

You are travelling on a toll road, which has a maximum speed limit of 120km/hour. The time and location that you entered the road are recorded on your toll ticket. A policeman stops you and asks to see your toll ticket, which shows that you entered the road 2 hours earlier. The policeman notes that you are exactly 242 km from where you entered. He then gives you a traffic ticket. You protest because you know that in the last several minutes you were driving well under the speed limit. The policeman replies: "Your average speed was 121 km/hour. Therefore by the Mean Value Theorem, at some point in your trip you were traveling at 121 km/hour."

- MVT does not tell you an exact value of c.

– There may be more than one c that works.

What hypotheses are needed?

MVT hypotheses:

Give pictorial examples why these hypotheses are needed:

- discts at endpoint

– discts at interior point

- not diffible at interior point:  $f(x) = x^{2/3}$  on [-1, 1].

Proof of MVT postponed.

Example of MVT: Show that the MVT holds for  $f(x) = \sqrt{x}$  and any  $0 \le a < b$ . so differentiability at an endpoint is *not* needed.
Proof:

$$\frac{f(b) - f(a)}{b - a} = \frac{\sqrt{b} - \sqrt{a}}{b - a} = \frac{(\sqrt{b} - \sqrt{a})(\sqrt{b} + \sqrt{a})}{(b - a)(\sqrt{b} + \sqrt{a})}$$
$$= \frac{1}{\sqrt{b} + \sqrt{a}}$$
$$f'(x) = \frac{1}{2\sqrt{x}}$$

So, for the MVT to hold with intermediate point c, we would have

$$\frac{1}{2\sqrt{c}} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{b} + \sqrt{a}}$$

equivalently,

$$\sqrt{c} = \frac{\sqrt{b} + \sqrt{a}}{2}$$

So, define c as

$$c = (\frac{\sqrt{b} + \sqrt{a}}{2})^2.$$

It remains to check that a < c < b:

$$a = (\frac{\sqrt{a} + \sqrt{a}}{2})^2 < (\frac{\sqrt{b} + \sqrt{a}}{2})^2 < (\frac{\sqrt{b} + \sqrt{b}}{2})^2 = b.$$

– Note: In this example, we get an explicit value of c and it is unique.

- Note: When a = 0, c = b/4.

Application of MVT: sin(x) < x for all x > 0.

Draw graph.

Proof: For  $x > 2\pi$ , this clearly holds.

So assume  $0 < x \leq 2\pi$ .

$$\frac{\sin(x)}{x} = \frac{\sin(x) - \sin(0)}{x - 0} = \frac{d}{dx}|_{x = c}\sin(x) = \cos(c)$$

for some  $0 < c < x \le 2\pi$  and so  $\cos(c) < 1$ .

So,  $\frac{\sin(x)}{x} < 1$ .  $\Box$ 

In fact, one can show in the same way that:  $-\sin(x) < x$  for all x > 0 and so

$$|\sin(x)| < x \text{ for all } x > 0.$$

Corollary: For all  $x \neq 0$ ,  $\cos(x) > 1 - x^2/2$ .

Draw graph.

Proof: Since  $\cos(x)$  and  $x^2$  are even functions, it suffices to prove then when x > 0.

From  $|\sin(x)| < x$ , we get

$$\sin^2(x/2) < x^2/4$$

But by double angle formula,

$$\sin^2(x/2) = \frac{1 - \cos(x)}{2}$$

Thus,

$$\frac{1-\cos(x)}{2} < x^2/4$$

which is equivalent to the claim of the corollary.  $\Box$ .

In Math 121, you will study infinite series and derive the formulas: for all x,

$$\sin(x) = x - \frac{x^3}{(3!)} + \frac{x^5}{(5!)} - \frac{x^7}{(7!)} + \dots$$

$$\cos(x) = 1 - \frac{x^2}{2} + \frac{x^4}{(4!)} - \frac{x^6}{(6!)} + \dots$$

The preceding results are consistent with this.

Defn: Let f be defined on an interval I.

f is increasing (or strictly increasing) if whenever  $x_1, x_2 \in I$  and  $x_2 > x_1$ , then  $f(x_2) > f(x_1)$ .

– Note: I could be  $\mathbb{R}$ .

Another application of MVT:

Theorem 12, p. 140:

If f is cts. on [a, b] and diffible. on (a, b) and f'(x) > 0 for all  $x \in (a, b)$ , then f is increasing on [a, b].

Proof: Let  $a \leq x_1 < x_2 \leq b$ . By MVT, there exists c s.t.  $x_1 < c < x_2$  and

$$\frac{f(x_2) - f(x_1)}{x_2 - x_1} = f'(c) > 0.$$

Since  $x_2 - x_1 > 0$ , we have  $f(x_2) - f(x_1) > 0$ .  $\Box$ 

Q: If f is differentiable and (strictly) increasing on an interval, is f'(x) > 0 for all x in the interval?