MATH 409 Advanced Calculus I

Lecture 21: Review for Test 2.

# **Topics for Test 2**

- Derivative of a function
- Differentiability theorems
- Derivative of the inverse function
- The mean value theorem
- Taylor's formula
- l'Hôpital's rule
- Darboux sums, Riemann sums, the Riemann integral
- Properties of integrals
- The fundamental theorem of calculus
- Integration by parts
- Change of the variable in an integral

Wade's book: 4.1-4.5, 5.1-5.3

#### **Differentiability theorems**

**Theorem** If functions f and g are differentiable at a point  $a \in \mathbb{R}$ , then their sum f + g, difference f - g, and product  $f \cdot g$  are also differentiable at a. Moreover,

$$(f+g)'(a) = f'(a) + g'(a),$$
  
 $(f-g)'(a) = f'(a) - g'(a),$   
 $(f \cdot g)'(a) = f'(a)g(a) + f(a)g'(a)$ 

If, additionally,  $g(a) \neq 0$  then the quotient f/g is also differentiable at a and

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

**Theorem** If a function f is differentiable at a point  $a \in \mathbb{R}$  and a function g is differentiable at f(a), then the composition  $g \circ f$  is differentiable at a. Moreover,

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

#### More theorems to know

**Theorem** If a function f is differentiable at a point c, then it is continuous at c.

**Rolle's Theorem** If a function f is continuous on a closed interval [a, b], differentiable on the open interval (a, b), and if f(a) = f(b), then f'(c) = 0 for some  $c \in (a, b)$ .

**Mean Value Theorem** If a function f is continuous on [a, b] and differentiable on (a, b), then there exists  $c \in (a, b)$  such that f(b) - f(a) = f'(c) (b - a).

**Theorem** Suppose that a function f is continuous on [a, b] and differentiable on (a, b). Then the following hold.

(i) f is increasing on [a, b] if and only if  $f' \ge 0$  on (a, b). (ii) f is decreasing on [a, b] if and only if  $f' \le 0$  on (a, b). (iii) f is constant on [a, b] if and only if f' = 0 on (a, b).

# **Properties of integrals**

**Theorem** If functions f, g are integrable on an interval [a, b], then the sum f + g is also integrable on [a, b] and

$$\int_a^b (f(x)+g(x))\,dx=\int_a^b f(x)\,dx+\int_a^b g(x)\,dx.$$

**Theorem** If a function f is integrable on [a, b], then for each  $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}$  the scalar multiple  $\alpha f$  is also integrable on [a, b] and

$$\int_a^b \alpha f(x) \, dx = \alpha \int_a^b f(x) \, dx.$$

#### **Properties of integrals**

**Theorem** If a function f is integrable on [a, b] then for any  $c \in (a, b)$ ,

$$\int_a^b f(x) \, dx = \int_a^c f(x) \, dx + \int_c^b f(x) \, dx.$$

**Theorem** If functions f, g are integrable on [a, b]and  $f(x) \le g(x)$  for all  $x \in [a, b]$ , then  $\int_{a}^{b} f(x) dx \le \int_{a}^{b} g(x) dx.$ 

#### Fundamental theorem of calculus

**Theorem** If a function f is continuous on an interval [a, b], then the function

$$F(x) = \int_a^x f(t) dt, \ x \in [a, b],$$

is continuously differentiable on [a, b]. Moreover, F'(x) = f(x) for all  $x \in [a, b]$ .

**Theorem** If a function F is differentiable on [a, b]and the derivative F' is integrable on [a, b], then

$$\int_a F'(t) dt = F(x) - F(a) \quad \text{for all} \quad x \in [a, b].$$

**Problem 1 (20 pts.)** Prove the Chain Rule: if a function f is differentiable at a point c and a function g is differentiable at f(c), then the composition  $g \circ f$  is differentiable at c and  $(g \circ f)'(c) = g'(f(c)) \cdot f'(c)$ .

**Problem 2 (25 pts.)** Find the following limits of functions:

(i) 
$$\lim_{x\to 0} (1+x)^{1/x}$$
, (ii)  $\lim_{x\to +\infty} (1+x)^{1/x}$ ,  
(iii)  $\lim_{x\to 0+} x^x$ .

**Problem 3 (20 pts.)** Find the limit of a sequence  $x_n = \frac{1^k + 2^k + \dots + n^k}{n^{k+1}}, \quad n = 1, 2, \dots,$ 

where k is a natural number.

**Problem 4 (25 pts.)** Find indefinite integrals and evaluate definite integrals:

(i) 
$$\int \frac{x^2}{1-x} dx$$
, (ii)  $\int_0^{\pi} \sin^2(2x) dx$ ,  
(iii)  $\int \log^3 x dx$ , (iv)  $\int_0^{1/2} \frac{x}{\sqrt{1-x^2}} dx$ ,  
(v)  $\int_0^1 \frac{1}{\sqrt{4-x^2}} dx$ .

**Bonus Problem 5 (15 pts.)** Suppose that a function  $p : \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$  is locally a polynomial, which means that for every  $c \in \mathbb{R}$  there exists  $\varepsilon > 0$  such that p coincides with a polynomial on the interval  $(c - \varepsilon, c + \varepsilon)$ . Prove that p is a polynomial.

Bonus Problem 6 (15 pts.) Show that a function

$$f(x) = \left\{ egin{array}{c} \exp\left(-rac{1}{1-x^2}
ight) & ext{if} \quad |x| < 1, \ 0 \quad ext{if} \quad |x| \geq 1 \end{array} 
ight.$$

is infinitely differentiable on  $\mathbb{R}$ .

# **Problem 2** Find the following limits of functions: (i) $\lim_{x\to 0} (1+x)^{1/x}$ , (ii) $\lim_{x\to +\infty} (1+x)^{1/x}$ .

The function  $f(x) = (1+x)^{1/x}$  is well defined on  $(-1,0) \cup (0,\infty)$ . Since f(x) > 0 for all x > -1,  $x \neq 0$ , a function  $g(x) = \log f(x)$  is well defined on  $(-1,0) \cup (0,\infty)$ as well. For any x > -1,  $x \neq 0$ , we have  $g(x) = \log(1+x)^{1/x} = x^{-1}\log(1+x)$ . Hence  $g = h_1/h_2$ , where the functions  $h_1(x) = \log(1+x)$  and  $h_2(x) = x$  are continuously differentiable on  $(-1,\infty)$ . Since  $h_1(0) = h_2(0) = 0$ , it follows that  $\lim_{x\to 0} h_1(x) = \lim_{x\to 0} h_2(x) = 0$ . By l'Hôpital's Rule,

$$\lim_{x \to 0} \frac{h_1(x)}{h_2(x)} = \lim_{x \to 0} \frac{h'_1(x)}{h'_2(x)}$$

assuming the latter limit exists.

Since  $h'_1(0) = (1+x)^{-1}|_{x=0} = 1$  and  $h'_2(0) = 1$ , we obtain  $\lim_{x \to 0} \frac{h_1(x)}{h_2(x)} = \lim_{x \to 0} \frac{h'_1(x)}{h'_2(x)} = \frac{\lim_{x \to 0} h'_1(x)}{\lim_{x \to 0} h'_2(x)} = \frac{1}{1} = 1.$ 

Further,  $\lim_{x \to +\infty} h_1(x) = \lim_{x \to +\infty} h_2(x) = +\infty$ . At the same time,  $h'_1(x) = (1+x)^{-1} \to 0$  as  $x \to +\infty$  while  $h'_2$  is identically 1. Using l'Hôpital's Rule and a limit theorem, we obtain

$$\lim_{x \to +\infty} \frac{h_1(x)}{h_2(x)} = \lim_{x \to +\infty} \frac{h_1'(x)}{h_2'(x)} = \frac{\lim_{x \to +\infty} h_1'(x)}{\lim_{x \to +\infty} h_2'(x)} = \frac{0}{1} = 0.$$

Since  $f = e^g$ , a composition of g with a continuous function, it follows that

$$\lim_{x \to 0} f(x) = \lim_{x \to 0} e^{g(x)} = \exp\left(\lim_{x \to 0} g(x)\right) = e^1 = e,$$
  
 $\lim_{x \to +\infty} f(x) = \exp\left(\lim_{x \to +\infty} g(x)\right) = e^0 = 1.$ 

**Problem 3** Find the limit of a sequence

$$x_n = \frac{1^k + 2^k + \dots + n^k}{n^{k+1}}, \quad n = 1, 2, \dots,$$

where k is a natural number.

The general element of the sequence can be represented as

$$x_n = \frac{1^k + 2^k + \dots + n^k}{n^k} \cdot \frac{1}{n} = \left(\frac{1}{n}\right)^k \frac{1}{n} + \left(\frac{2}{n}\right)^k \frac{1}{n} + \dots + \left(\frac{n}{n}\right)^k \frac{1}{n},$$

which shows that  $x_n$  is a Riemann sum of the function  $f(x) = x^k$  on the interval [0,1] that corresponds to the partition  $P_n = \{0, 1/n, 2/n, \dots, (n-1)/n, 1\}$  and samples  $t_j = j/n, j = 1, 2, \dots, n$ . The norm of the partition is  $||P_n|| = 1/n$ . Since  $||P_n|| \to 0$  as  $n \to \infty$  and the function f is integrable on [0,1], the Riemann sums  $x_n$  converge to the integral:

$$\lim_{n\to\infty} x_n = \int_0^1 x^k \, dx = \frac{x^{k+1}}{k+1} \bigg|_{x=0}^1 = \frac{1}{k+1}.$$

(i) 
$$\int \frac{x^2}{1-x} \, dx.$$

To find the indefinite integral of this rational function, we expand it into the sum of a polynomial and a simple fraction:

$$\frac{x^2}{1-x} = \frac{x^2 - 1 + 1}{1-x} = \frac{x^2 - 1}{1-x} + \frac{1}{1-x} = -x - 1 - \frac{1}{x-1}.$$

Since the domain of the function is  $(-\infty, 1) \cup (1, \infty)$ , the indefinite integral has different representations on the intervals  $(-\infty, 1)$  and  $(1, \infty)$ :

$$\int \frac{x^2}{1-x} dx = \begin{cases} -x^2/2 - x - \log(1-x) + C_1, \ x < 1, \\ -x^2/2 - x - \log(x-1) + C_2, \ x > 1. \end{cases}$$

(ii) 
$$\int_0^\pi \sin^2(2x) \, dx.$$

To integrate this function, we use a trigonometric formula  $1 - \cos(2\alpha) = 2\sin^2 \alpha$  and a new variable u = 4x:

$$\int_0^\pi \sin^2(2x) \, dx = \int_0^\pi \frac{1 - \cos(4x)}{2} \, dx$$
$$= \int_0^\pi \frac{1 - \cos(4x)}{8} \, d(4x) = \int_0^{4\pi} \frac{1 - \cos u}{8} \, du$$
$$= \frac{u - \sin u}{8} \Big|_{u=0}^{4\pi} = \frac{\pi}{2}.$$

(iii) 
$$\int \log^3 x \, dx$$
.

To find this indefinite integral, we integrate by parts:

$$\int \log^3 x \, dx = x \log^3 x - \int x \, d(\log^3 x) = x \log^3 x - \int x (\log^3 x)' \, dx$$
  
=  $x \log^3 x - \int 3 \log^2 x \, dx = x \log^3 x - 3x \log^2 x + \int x \, d(3 \log^2 x)$   
=  $x \log^3 x - 3x \log^2 x + \int 6 \log x \, dx$   
=  $x \log^3 x - 3x \log^2 x + 6x \log x - \int x \, d(6 \log x)$   
=  $x \log^3 x - 3x \log^2 x + 6x \log x - \int 6 \, dx$   
=  $x \log^3 x - 3x \log^2 x + 6x \log x - \int 6 \, dx$ 

(iv) 
$$\int_0^{1/2} \frac{x}{\sqrt{1-x^2}} \, dx.$$

To integrate this function, we introduce a new variable  $u = 1 - x^2$ :

$$\int_{0}^{1/2} \frac{x}{\sqrt{1-x^{2}}} dx = -\frac{1}{2} \int_{0}^{1/2} \frac{(1-x^{2})'}{\sqrt{1-x^{2}}} dx$$
$$= -\frac{1}{2} \int_{0}^{1/2} \frac{1}{\sqrt{1-x^{2}}} d(1-x^{2}) = -\frac{1}{2} \int_{1}^{3/4} \frac{1}{\sqrt{u}} du$$
$$= \int_{3/4}^{1} \frac{1}{2\sqrt{u}} du = \sqrt{u} \Big|_{u=3/4}^{1} = 1 - \frac{\sqrt{3}}{2}.$$

(v) 
$$\int_0^1 \frac{1}{\sqrt{4-x^2}} \, dx.$$

To integrate this function, we use a substitution  $x = 2 \sin t$  (observe that x changes from 0 to 1 when t changes from 0 to  $\pi/6$ ):

$$\int_0^1 \frac{1}{\sqrt{4 - x^2}} \, dx = \int_0^{\pi/6} \frac{1}{\sqrt{4 - (2\sin t)^2}} \, d(2\sin t)$$
$$= \int_0^{\pi/6} \frac{(2\sin t)'}{\sqrt{4 - 4\sin^2 t}} \, dt = \int_0^{\pi/6} \frac{2\cos t}{\sqrt{4\cos^2 t}} \, dt$$
$$= \int_0^{\pi/6} \frac{2\cos t}{2\cos t} \, dt = \int_0^{\pi/6} 1 \, dx = \frac{\pi}{6}.$$

**Bonus Problem 5** Suppose that a function  $p : \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$  is locally a polynomial, which means that for every  $c \in \mathbb{R}$  there exists  $\varepsilon > 0$  such that p coincides with a polynomial on the interval  $(c - \varepsilon, c + \varepsilon)$ . Prove that p is a polynomial.

For any  $c \in \mathbb{R}$  let  $p_c$  denote a polynomial and  $\varepsilon_c$  denote a positive number such that  $p(x) = p_c(x)$  for all  $x \in (c - \varepsilon_c, c + \varepsilon_c)$ . Consider two sets

 $E_+ = \{x > 0 \mid p(x) \neq p_0(x)\}$  and  $E_- = \{x < 0 \mid p(x) \neq p_0(x)\}.$ 

We are going to show that  $E_+ = E_- = \emptyset$ . This would imply that  $p = p_0$  on the entire real line.

Assume that the set  $E_+$  is not empty. Clearly,  $E_+$  is bounded below. Hence  $d = \inf E_+$  is a well-defined real number. Note that  $E_+ \subset [\varepsilon_0, \infty)$ . Therefore  $d \ge \varepsilon_0 > 0$ .

Observe that  $p(x) = p_0(x)$  for  $x \in (0, d)$  and  $p(x) = p_d(x)$  for  $x \in (d - \varepsilon_d, d + \varepsilon_d)$ . The interval (0, d) overlaps with the interval  $(d - \varepsilon_d, d + \varepsilon_d)$ . Hence  $p_d$  coincides with  $p_0$  on the intersection  $(0, d) \cap (d - \varepsilon_d, d + \varepsilon_d)$ . Equivalently, the difference  $p_d - p_0$  is zero on  $(0, d) \cap (d - \varepsilon_d, d + \varepsilon_d)$ . Since  $p_d - p_0$  is a polynomial and any nonzero polynomial has only finitely many roots, we conclude that  $p_d - p_0$  is identically 0. Then the polynomials  $p_d$  and  $p_0$  are the same. It follows that  $p(x) = p_0(x)$  for  $x \in (0, d + \varepsilon_d)$  so that  $d \neq \inf E_+$ , a contradiction. Thus  $E_{+} = \emptyset$ . Similarly, we prove that the set  $E_{-}$  is empty as well. Since  $E_{+} = E_{-} = \emptyset$ , the function p coincides with the polynomial  $p_0$ .