

# Analysis 1

13 December 2023

**Warm-up:** Activity in hallway  
with  $\dots \rightarrow f \rightarrow f' \rightarrow \dots$  papers.



Today's

## L'Hospital's Rule

- If  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = 0$  and  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} g(x) = 0$  then  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} \frac{f}{g} = \lim_{x \rightarrow a} \frac{f'}{g'}$ .
- There are similar statements for  $\pm \frac{\infty}{\infty}$ , and for  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a^\pm}$ , and for  $\lim_{x \rightarrow \pm\infty}$ .

## Taylor polynomials / Taylor series

- $P(x) = \sum_{k=0}^n \frac{f^{(k)}(a)}{k!} (x - a)^k$  guarantees that  $P(a) = f(a)$   
and  $P'(a) = f'(a)$  and ... up to  $P^{(N)}(a) = f^{(N)}(a)$ .
- Series:  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{f^{(n)}(a)}{n!} (x - a)^n$



Task 1: Find the degree 3 Taylor polynomial of

$$f(x) = \cos(\ln(x))$$

around  $x = 1$ .

$$P(x) = \sum_{k=0}^3 \frac{f^{(k)}(1)}{k!} (x-1)^k$$

$$= \frac{f(1)}{0!} + \frac{f'(1)}{1!} (x-1) + \frac{f''(1)}{2!} (x-1)^2 + \frac{f'''(1)}{3!} (x-1)^3$$

$$= \frac{1}{1} + \frac{0}{1} (x-1) + \frac{-1}{2} (x-1)^2 + \frac{3}{6} (x-1)^3$$

$$= 1 - \frac{1}{2}(x-1)^2 + \frac{1}{2}(x-1)^3$$

$$f(x) = \cos(\ln(x)) \leftarrow \text{also } f^{(0)}$$

$$f'(x) = \frac{-\sin(\ln(x))}{x} \leftarrow \text{also } f^{(1)}$$

$$f''(x) = \frac{-\cos(\ln(x)) + \sin(\ln(x))}{x^2}$$

$$f^{(3)}(x) = \frac{3\cos(\ln(x)) - \sin(\ln(x))}{x^3}$$

Note:  $f^{(0)}$  means  $f$ ,  
and  $0!$  is 1.



Task 1: Find the degree 3 Taylor polynomial of

$$f(x) = \cos(\ln(x))$$

around  $x = 1$ .

$$P(x) = 1 - \frac{1}{2}(x-1)^2 + \frac{1}{2}(x-1)^3$$

Task 2: Use this polynomial to approximate the number  $\cos(\ln(1.2))$ .

$$\begin{aligned} P(1.2) &= 1 - \frac{1}{2}(1.2-1)^2 + \frac{1}{2}(1.2-1)^3 \\ &= 1 - \frac{0.04}{2} + \frac{0.008}{2} = \boxed{0.948} \end{aligned}$$

The exact value  $f(1.2) = 0.983425\dots$ , so 0.948 is a good approximation. Some calculators actually use Taylor polynomials (with very high degree) when asked for "cos" and "ln" values.



*(This whole slide is not required for this class. It's just a neat application.)*

Taylor series also appear as “generating functions” when studying sequences.

Example: Fibonacci 1, 1, 2, 3, 5, 8, 13, 21, 34, 55, ... has  $a_n = a_{n-1} + a_{n-2}$ .

By working with

$$f(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n x^n = x + x^2 + 2x^3 + 3x^4 + 5x^5 + 8x^6 + 13x^7 + \dots$$

it is possible to show  $f(x) = \frac{-x}{x^2 + x - 1}$  and then use that to prove

$$a_n = \frac{1}{\sqrt{5}} \left( \left( \frac{1 + \sqrt{5}}{2} \right)^n - \left( \frac{1 - \sqrt{5}}{2} \right)^n \right).$$

Note  $\frac{1 \pm \sqrt{5}}{2}$  are the roots of  $x^2 + x - 1$ .



# Anti-derivative

An **anti-derivative** of  $f$  is a function whose derivative is  $f$ .

So “ $F(x)$  is an anti-derivative of  $f(x)$ ” means that  $F'(x) = f(x)$ .

Example: Each of the following is an anti-derivative of  $2x$ :

- $x^2$
- $x^2 + 1$
- $x^2 - 28$
- $x^2 + \sqrt{51}$
- $x^2 - 0.387$



Describe *all* anti-derivatives of  $10x^4$ .

- That is, describe *all* functions  $F(x)$  that have  $F'(x) = 10x^4$ .

$2x^5 + \text{any constant}$

It's common to write this as  $2x^5 + C$ .



# Notation (how to write math)

	Newton	Leibniz	Euler / Lagrange
Derivative of $f$	$\dot{f}$	$\frac{df}{dx}$	$f'$ or $f^{(1)}$
Anti-derivative of $f$	$\overset{ }{f}$ or $\boxed{f}$	$\int f dx$	$f^{(-1)}$

All the ways of writing derivatives are still common today.

Only  $\int f dx$  is common for anti-derivatives. We will talk more about this notation later.



Give a formula for an anti-derivative of

•  $10x^4 \longrightarrow 2x^5$

•  $x^{22}$

•  $x^{-15}$

•  $x^{-1}$

•  $e^x$

☆  $\ln(x)$  Answer:  $x \ln(x) - x$ . But this is too hard for now.

•  $\sin(x)$

•  $\cos(x)$

☆  $\cos(x^2)$  Literally impossible (for anyone, forever).

Back of paper from warm-up:

Name / ID

Pick ONE of these  
and write an  
anti-derivative.




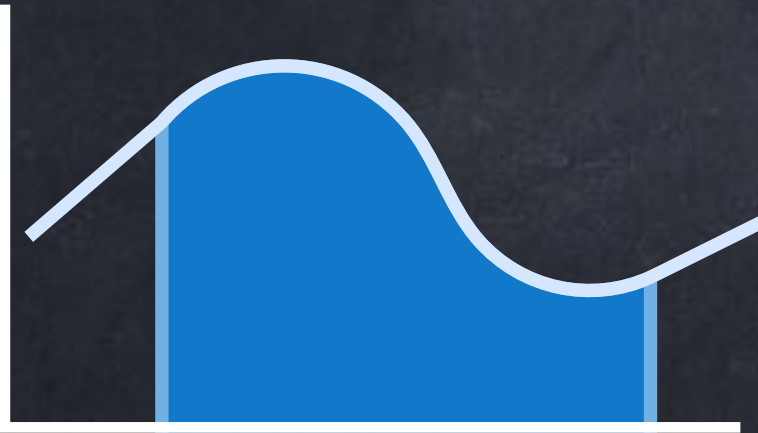
# Area

The area of a rectangle is length times width.

What about other shapes?

It is often important to calculate the area “under  $y = f(x)$ ”.

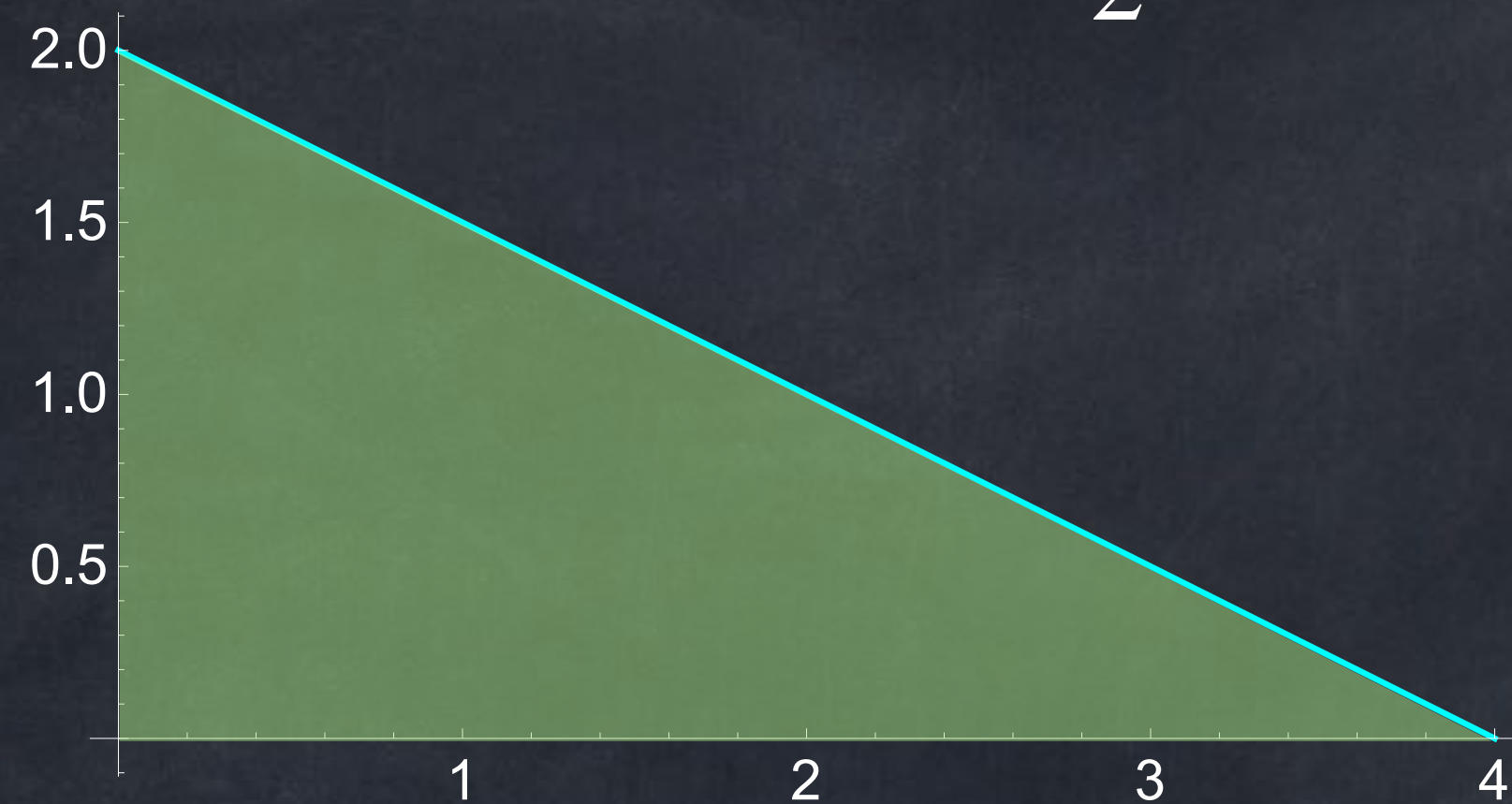
What does this mean?

- Often this looks like  or like  ( $a \leq x \leq b$ ).

- However, the standard meaning of “area under  $y = f(x)$ ” is that **when  $f(x) < 0$**  we count this as “**negative area**”.

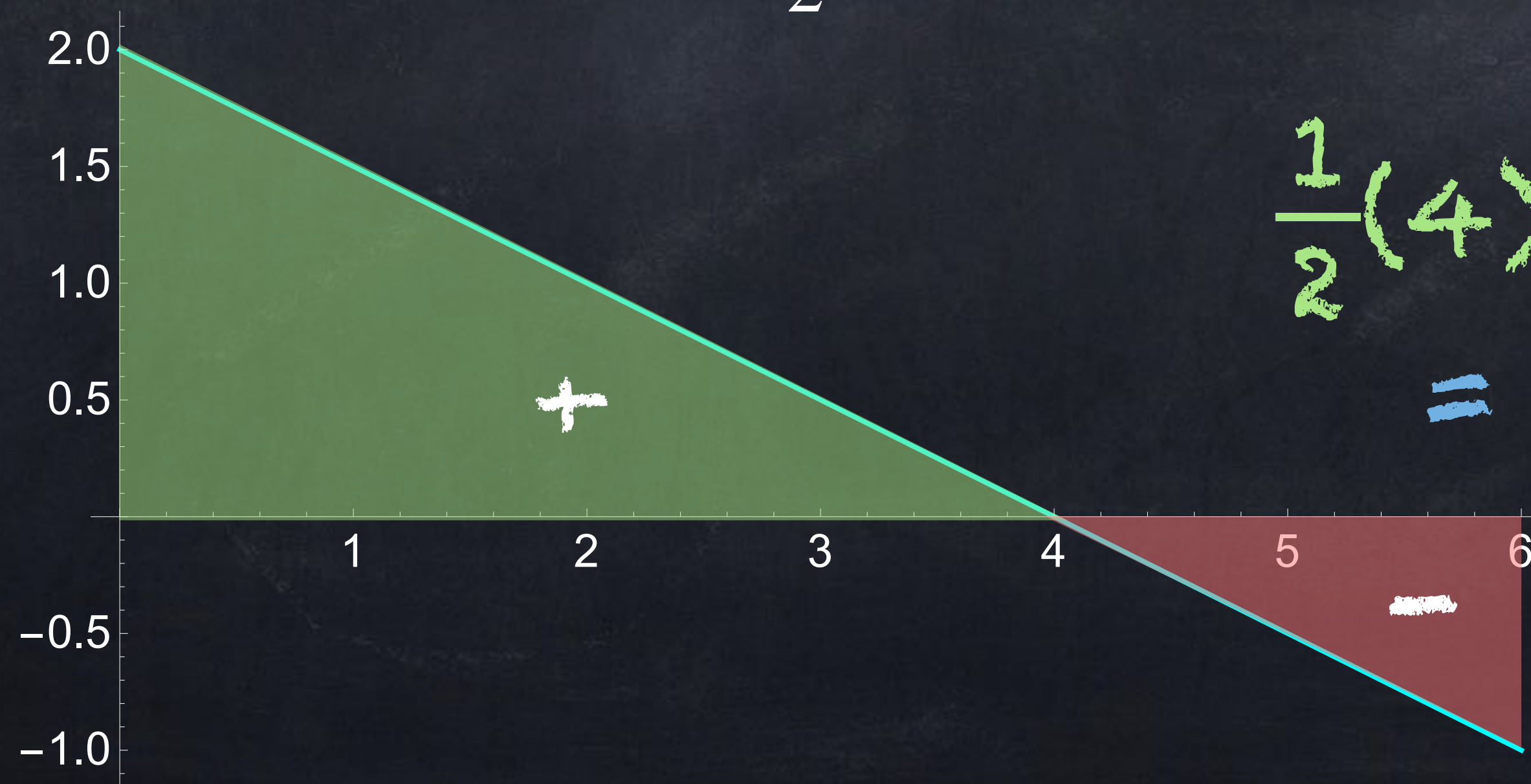


Example: The “area under  $y = 2 - \frac{1}{2}x$  from  $x = 0$  to  $x = 4$ ” is



$$\frac{1}{2}(\text{height})(\text{base})$$
$$= \frac{1}{2}(4)(2) = 4$$

Example: The “area under  $y = 2 - \frac{1}{2}x$  from  $x = 0$  to  $x = 6$ ” is



$$\frac{1}{2}(4)(2) + \frac{1}{2}(-1)(2)$$
$$= 4 - 1 = 3$$



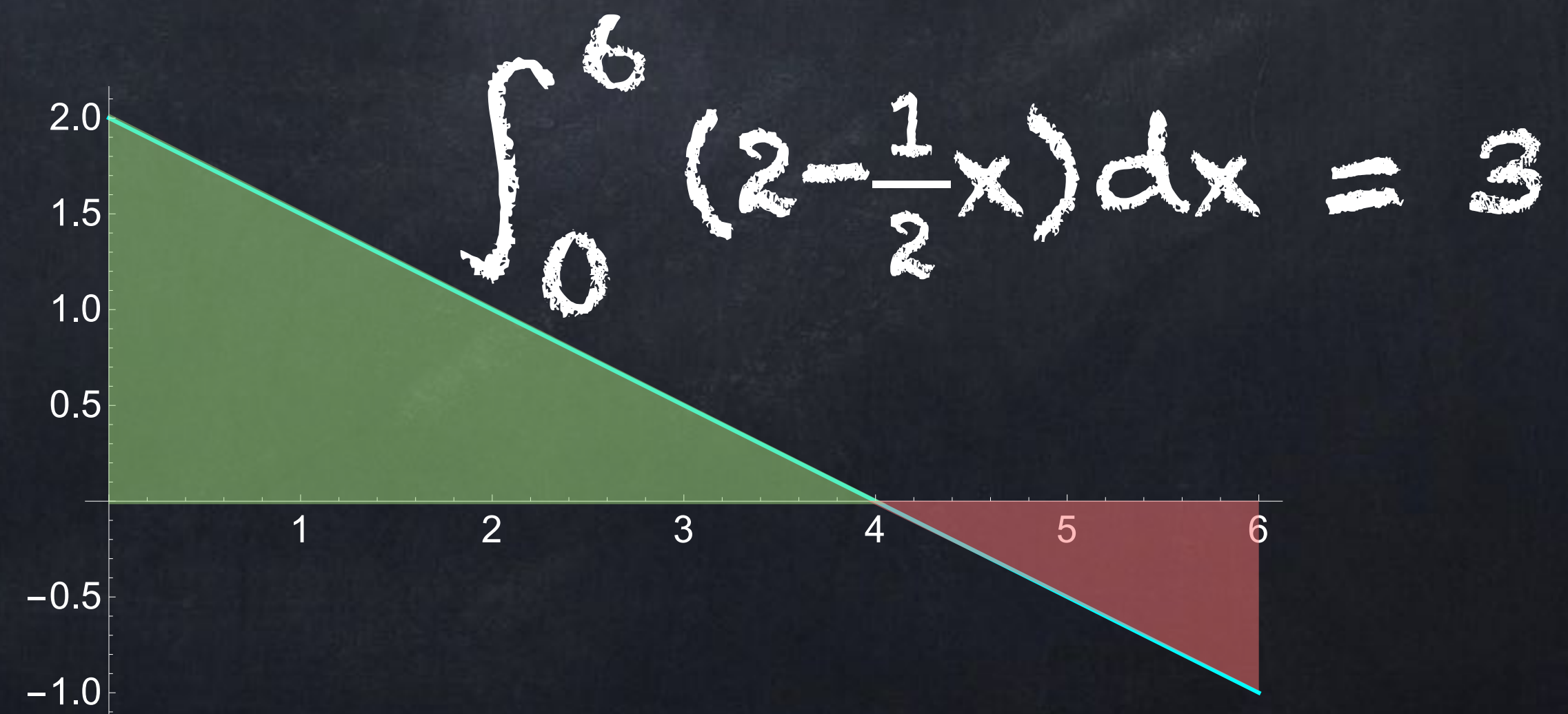
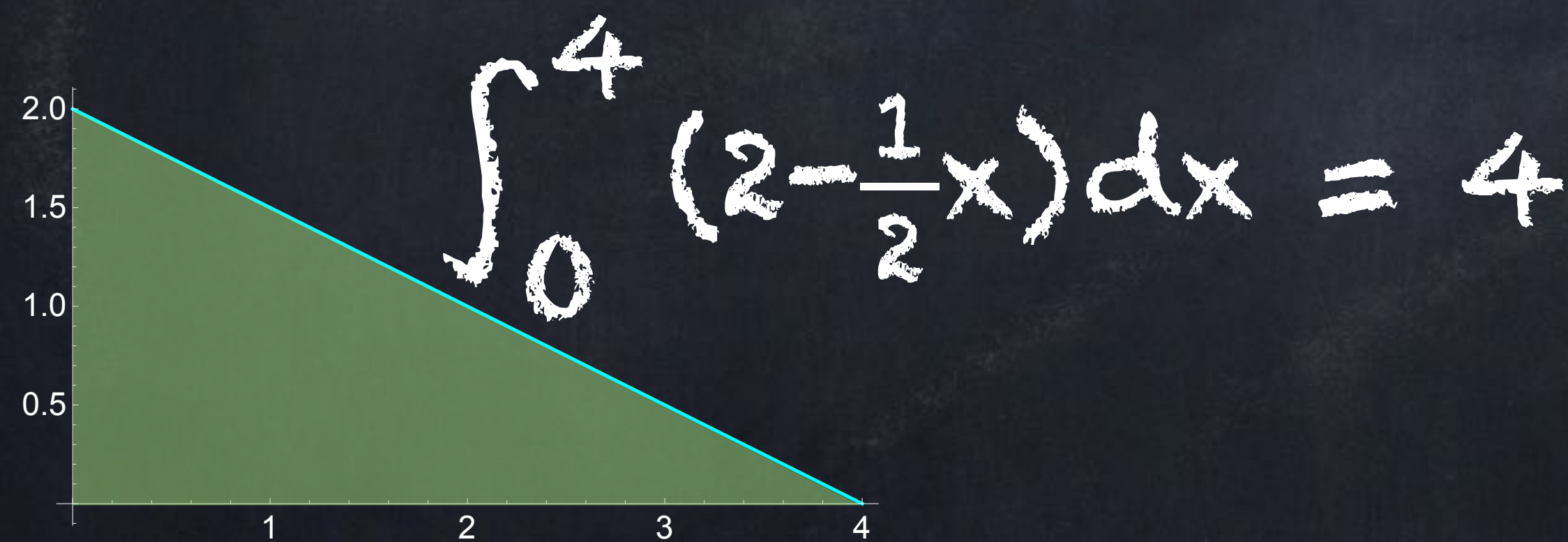
# Definite Integrals

We write

$$\int_a^b f(x) dx$$

“the integral of  
f from a to b”

for the area under  $y = f(x)$  between  $x = a$  and  $x = b$ .





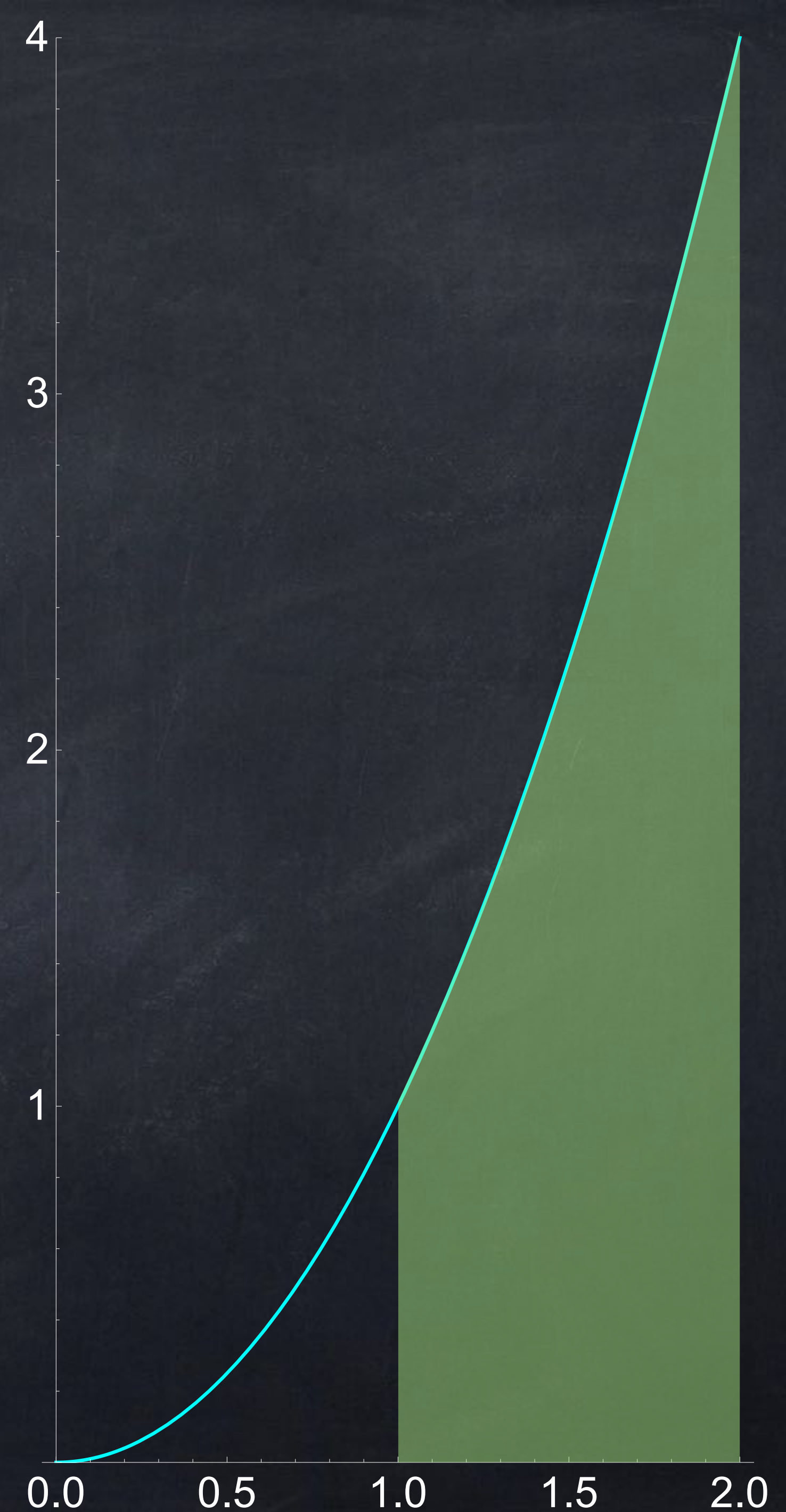
The area under  $y = 3$  or  $y = x$  or  $y = 2 - \frac{1}{2}x$  can be calculated using rectangles and triangles.

The area under  $y = x^2$  from  $x = 1$  to  $x = 2$  is

$$\int_1^2 x^2 dx,$$

but what is this number?

For more complicated functions, we can approximate the area under  $y = f(x)$  with rectangles.





The area  $\int_1^2 x^2 dx$  is *approximately*  $\sum_{k=1}^{10} \frac{1}{10} \left(1 + \frac{k}{10}\right)^2$  and

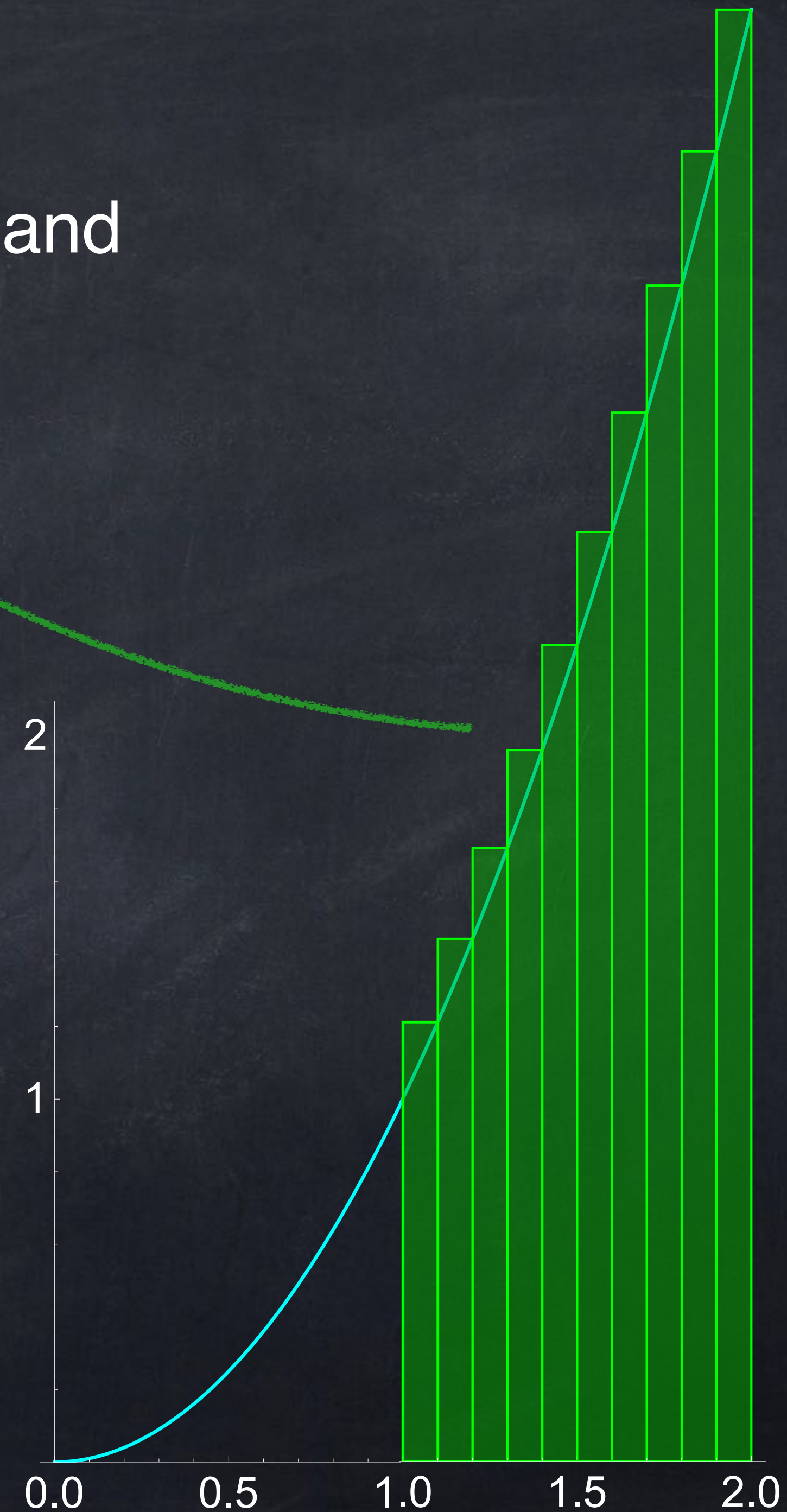
is *exactly*  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{k=1}^n \frac{1}{n} \left(1 + \frac{k}{n}\right)^2$ .

- With some work is possible to show that

$$\sum_{k=1}^n \frac{1}{n} \left(1 + \frac{k}{n}\right)^2 = \frac{14n^2 + 9n + 1}{6n^2}$$

so the area is  $\frac{14}{6} = \frac{7}{3}$ .

- But there is a much easier way!





# Area from anti-derivatives

Instead of using a limit of a sum, there is a very nice way to compute area under a curve using an anti-derivative:

## The Fundamental Theorem of Calculus

If  $f$  is continuous, then  $\int_a^b f(x) dx = F(b) - F(a)$ ,  
where  $F(x)$  is any function for which  $F'(x) = f(x)$ .

Name means  
"Important  
Fact about  
Analysis"

Because integrals "undo" derivatives, they appear in many places in science and engineering.

$$\begin{aligned} \text{voltage} &= \int E dx \\ \text{work} &= \int F dx \\ \text{impulse} &= \int F dt \end{aligned}$$



To calculate  $\int_1^2 x^2 dx$  exactly, we need a function whose derivative is  $x^2$ .

- The fact that  $\frac{d}{dx}(x^2) = 2x$  does not matter. We need the opposite idea.

$$F(x) = \frac{1}{3}x^3 \text{ satisfies } F' = x^2$$

$$F(2) - F(1) = \frac{1}{3}(2)^3 - \frac{1}{3}(1)^3 = \frac{7}{3}$$

$$\int_a^b f(x) dx = F(b) - F(a)$$

with  $F' = f$

