

Real functions of one variable

1 The sets of real numbers

1.1 Common sets of numbers

We recall the following notations for subsets of \mathbb{R} .

- $\mathbb{N} = \{0, 1, 2, 3, \dots\}$ is the set of natural numbers.
- $\mathbb{Z} = \{\dots, -3, -2, -1, 0, 1, 2, 3, \dots\}$ is the set of integers numbers.
- $\mathbb{D} = \left\{\frac{a}{10^n}; a \in \mathbb{Z}, n \in \mathbb{N}\right\}$ is the set of decimal numbers.
- $\mathbb{Q} = \left\{\frac{p}{q}; p \in \mathbb{Z}, q \in \mathbb{Z}^*\right\}$ is the set of rational numbers.
- \mathbb{R} represents the set of real numbers and we have the following inclusions:

$$\mathbb{N} \subset \mathbb{Z} \subset \mathbb{D} \subset \mathbb{Q} \subset \mathbb{R}.$$

- For each of these sets, the addition of the sign $*$ means that we exclude 0 from the sets:
 $\mathbb{N}^*, \mathbb{Z}^*, \mathbb{R}^*, \dots$

Example 1

1. Is it $\sqrt{10} \in \mathbb{Q}$? No
2. The set of natural numbers \mathbb{N} is
 - Infinite set.
 - Countable set.
 - Finite and uncountable set.
 - infinite and countable set. ✓

1.2 Intervals of \mathbb{R}

Definition 1 An interval can be defined as a set of real numbers that contains all real numbers lying within any two specific numbers of the set \mathbb{R} .

We can write the intervals as subsets of a set of real numbers and these intervals can be written as open and closed intervals.

Suppose that a and b are two real numbers ($a, b \in \mathbb{R}$), such that $a < b$. Then,

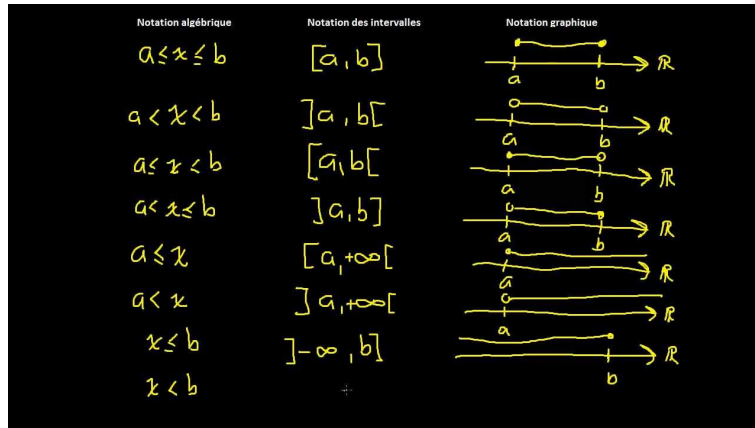


Figure 1: *The intervals of the real line.*

Notations:

- $\mathbb{R}^* =]-\infty, 0[\cup]0, +\infty[$.
- $\mathbb{R}_+ = \{x \in \mathbb{R} / x \geq 0\} =]0, +\infty[$.
- $\mathbb{R}_- = \{x \in \mathbb{R} / x \leq 0\} =]-\infty, 0[$.
- $\overline{\mathbb{R}} = \mathbb{R} \cup \{-\infty, +\infty\} = [-\infty, +\infty]$.

1.3 Real functions of one variable

Definition 2 A function f of a real variable is a rule which assigns to each $x \in D \subset \mathbb{R}$ exactly one $y \in \mathbb{R}$. We have:

$$\forall x \in D, \exists ! y \in \mathbb{R} : y = f(x).$$

- The variable x is called independent variable and y is called dependent.
- The set D is called the domain of the function f and denoted $D(f)$ or D_f defined by:

$$D(f) = D_f = D = \{y = f(x) / x \in D(f)\}.$$

We write:

$$\begin{aligned} f : D &\rightarrow f(D) \\ x &\mapsto y = f(x), \end{aligned}$$

where $f(D)$ is called the image of D by the function f .

Example 2 Determine the set D for each function f :

$$1. f(x) = \frac{1}{x}. \quad D = \mathbb{R}^*.$$

2. $f(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{x}} \cdot \quad D = \mathbb{R}_+^*.$

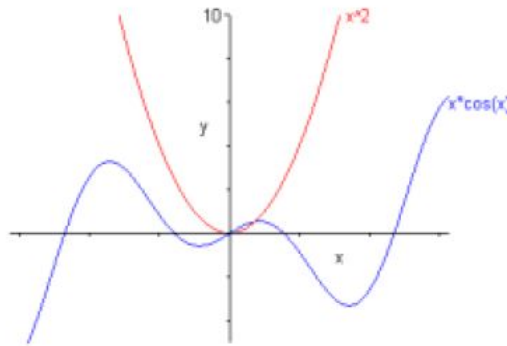
3. $f(x) = \sqrt{x^2 + 1}. \quad D = \mathbb{R}.$

1.4 Graph (Curve) of a function

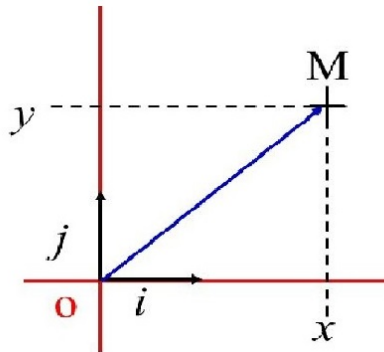
Definition 3 The graph of a function f is the set of all points in the plane of the form $(x, f(x))$. We could also define the graph of f to be the graph of the equation $y = f(x)$.

Given a function $f : D \rightarrow f(D)$. The graph of the function f is the set:

$$G(f) = \{(x, f(x)) : x \in D\}.$$

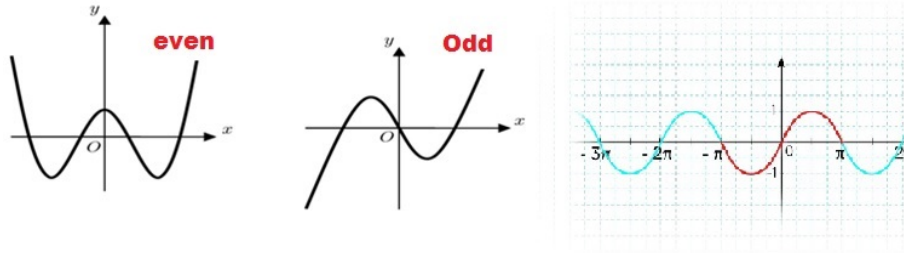


Definition 4 The graph of f (or representation curve) is the set of points (x, y) . On a cartesian plane (O, \vec{i}, \vec{j}) , each couple of points is associated with a unique point M of (x, y) , such that: $\vec{OM} = x \vec{i} + y \vec{j}$.



Proposition 1 Let $f : D \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be a function and we assume that for all $x \in D$, $-x \in D$. We say that,

- f is even on D if $\forall x \in D, -x \in D : f(-x) = f(x)$. In this case the curve of f is symmetric with respect to OY .
- f is odd on D if $\forall x \in D, -x \in D : f(-x) = -f(x)$. In this case the curve of f is symmetric with respect to the origine $O(0,0)$.
- f is periodic on D with a period T if T is the smallest positive real number, such that $\forall x \in D, f(x+T) = f(x)$.



Definition 5 (Monotonic functions) Let $f : D \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be a function. We say that

- f is increasing (resp. strictly increasing) if $\forall x_1, x_2 \in D : x_1 < x_2 \implies f(x_1) \leq f(x_2)$ (resp. $x_1 < x_2 \implies f(x_1) < f(x_2)$).
- f is decreasing (resp. strictly decreasing) if $\forall x_1, x_2 \in D : x_1 < x_2 \implies f(x_1) \geq f(x_2)$ (resp. $x_1 < x_2 \implies f(x_1) > f(x_2)$).
- f is monotonic on D if it is increasing or decreasing on D .

1.5 Composition functions

Definition 6 Let $f : D_f \subseteq \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ and $g : D_g \subseteq \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, such that $\forall x \in D_f : f(x) \in D_g$ ($f(D_f) \subseteq D_g$). Then, $g \circ f$ is a function defined on D_f by:

$$(g \circ f)(x) := g(f(x)), \quad \forall x \in D_f.$$

Noting:

$$x \xrightarrow{f} f(x) \xrightarrow{g} g(f(x)) = (g \circ f)(x).$$

Remark 1 If the function $g \circ f$ exists, then the composition function $f \circ g$ doesn't always exist, and when $f \circ g$ exists then, in general: $g \circ f \neq f \circ g$.

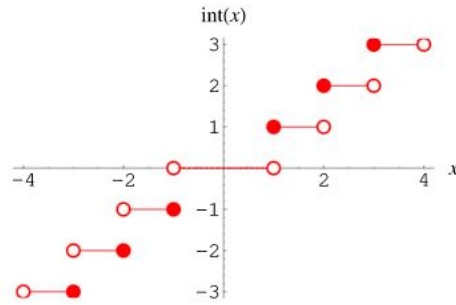
Example 3 Let $f(x) = \sqrt{x}$, where $D_f = \mathbb{R}_+$ and $g(x) = \frac{1+x}{1-x}$, where $D_g = \mathbb{R} - \{1\}$. Then, we have

$$(g \circ f)(x) = \frac{1 + \sqrt{x}}{1 + \sqrt{x}} \quad \text{and} \quad (f \circ g)(x) = \sqrt{\frac{1+x}{1-x}}.$$

1.6 Integer part of a real number

Definition 7 The integer part of a real number x is the greatest integer less than or equal to x . To be more precise, for $x \in \mathbb{R}$, there exists a unique integer $p \in \mathbb{Z}$, such that $p \leq x < p+1$. The integer p is called the integer part of x and we write $E(x)$ or $[x]$. The function $E(x)$ is defined by:

$$\begin{aligned} E : \mathbb{R} &\rightarrow \mathbb{Z} \\ x &\mapsto E(x). \end{aligned}$$



Example 4 $E(\pi) = 3$, $E(-\frac{3}{2}) = -2$, $E(\sqrt{2}) = 1$.

Proposition 2

1. $\forall x \in \mathbb{Z} \iff E(x) = x$.
2. $\forall x \in \mathbb{R}, E(x) \leq x < E(x) + 1$.
3. $\forall x \in \mathbb{R}, E(x + n) = E(x) + n$, for $n \in \mathbb{N}$.
4. $\forall x, y \in \mathbb{R}, E(x) + E(y) \leq E(x + y) \leq E(x) + E(y) + 1$.
5. The function $E(x)$ is increasing over \mathbb{R} , i.e.,

$$\forall x_1, x_2 \in \mathbb{R}, x_1 \leq x_2 \implies E(x_1) \leq E(x_2).$$

Exercise 1 Demonstrate the following properties:

(a) For all $x \in \mathbb{R}, n \in \mathbb{N}$, $E(x + n) = E(x) + n$.

Indeed, we have

$$E(x) \leq x < E(x) + 1 \iff E(x) + n \leq x + n < E(x) + n + 1.$$

Then, $E(x + n) = E(x) + n$.

(b) For all $x \in \mathbb{R}$, $x - 1 < E(x) \leq E(x) + 1$.

Indeed, We have $E(x) \leq x < E(x) + 1$. Then,

$$E(x) \leq x \quad \text{and} \quad x < E(x) + 1 \implies x - 1 < E(x).$$

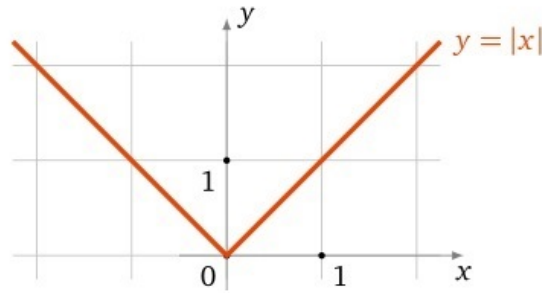
Therefore, $x - 1 < E(x) \leq E(x) + 1$.

1.7 Absolute value function

Definition 8 Let $x \in \mathbb{R}$, we denote by $|x|$ the absolute value of x defined by

$$\begin{aligned} |\cdot| : \mathbb{R} &\rightarrow \mathbb{R}_+ \\ x &\mapsto |x| = \begin{cases} x, & x \geq 0 \\ -x, & x < 0. \end{cases} \end{aligned}$$

It is also defined by: $|x| = \max(-x, x)$.



Proposition 3 Let $x, y \in \mathbb{R}$. We have

1. $|x| \geq 0$.
2. $|x| = 0 \iff x = 0$.
3. $|x| = |-x|$.
4. $x \leq |x|$ and $-x \leq |x|$.
5. $\forall \alpha \in \mathbb{R}_+ : |x| \leq \alpha \iff -\alpha \leq x \leq \alpha$.
6. $\forall \alpha \in \mathbb{R}_+ : |x| \geq \alpha \iff \alpha \leq x \text{ or } \alpha \geq -x$.
7. $\left| \frac{x}{y} \right| \leq \frac{|x|}{|y|}$, if $y \neq 0$.
8. $|xy| = |x||y|$.
9. **Triangle inequality:** $\forall x \in \mathbb{R}, |x + y| \leq |x| + |y|$.
Indeed, We have

$$\begin{aligned} |x + y|^2 &= (x + y)^2 \\ &= x^2 + 2xy + y^2 \\ &= |x|^2 + 2xy + |y|^2. \end{aligned}$$

Since that: $2xy \leq 2|xy| = 2|x||y|$, then

$$\begin{aligned} |x + y|^2 &\leq |x|^2 + 2|x||y| + |y|^2, \\ &= (|x| + |y|)^2. \end{aligned}$$

Therefore, $|x + y| \leq |x| + |y|$.

$$10. \quad ||x| - |y|| \leq |x + y| \leq |x| + |y| \leq |x + y| + |x - y|.$$

1.8 Limits at a point

Definition 9 For a function $f : D \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, a real number L is said to be a limit of f at x_0 if

$$\forall \varepsilon > 0, \exists \delta > 0, \forall x \in D, 0 < |x - x_0| < \delta \Rightarrow |f(x) - L| < \varepsilon.$$

If L is a limit of f at x_0 , then we also say that f converges to L at x_0 (or $f(x)$ approaches L as x approaches x_0). We often write

$$L = \lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} f \quad \text{or} \quad L = \lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} f(x).$$

Proposition 4 If the function f has a limit L at a point x_0 , then this limit is unique.

1.8.1 Right-hand limit and left-hand limit

Definition 10 Let $f : D \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ and $x_0 \in \mathbb{R}$. We say that

(i) f has a right-hand limit at x_0 if

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0^+} f(x) = \lim_{x \nearrow x_0} f(x) = L \iff \forall \varepsilon > 0, \exists \delta > 0, \forall x \in D, x_0 < x < x_0 + \delta \Rightarrow |f(x) - L| < \varepsilon.$$

(ii) f has a left-hand limit at x_0 if

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0^-} f(x) = \lim_{x \searrow x_0} f(x) = L \iff \forall \varepsilon > 0, \exists \delta > 0, \forall x \in D, x_0 - \delta < x < x_0 \Rightarrow |f(x) - L| < \varepsilon.$$

Definition 11 Let $f : D \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ and $x_0 \in \mathbb{R}$. We have

- * $\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} f(x) = +\infty \iff \forall M > 0, \exists \delta > 0 : 0 < |x - x_0| < \delta \implies f(x) > M.$
- * $\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} f(x) = -\infty \iff \forall M > 0, \exists \delta > 0 : 0 < |x - x_0| < \delta \implies f(x) < -M.$
- * $\lim_{x \rightarrow +\infty} f(x) = +\infty \iff \forall M > 0, \exists K > 0 : x > K \implies f(x) > M.$
- * $\lim_{x \rightarrow -\infty} f(x) = +\infty \iff \forall M > 0, \exists K > 0 : x < -K \implies f(x) > M.$
- * $\lim_{x \rightarrow +\infty} f(x) = -\infty \iff \forall M > 0, \exists K > 0 : x > K \implies f(x) < -M.$
- * $\lim_{x \rightarrow -\infty} f(x) = -\infty \iff \forall M > 0, \exists K > 0 : x < -K \implies f(x) < -M.$

1.8.2 Operations on limits

Proposition 5 Let $f, g : D \subseteq \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be two functions and $x_0 \in \mathbb{R}$, such that

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} f(x) = L \quad \text{and} \quad \lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} g(x) = L'.$$

Thus,

1. $\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} (f + g)(x) = L + L'.$
2. $\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} (f \times g)(x) = L \times L'.$
3. $\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} \left(\frac{f}{g} \right)(x) = \frac{L}{L'}, \quad L' \neq 0.$
4. $\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} \alpha f(x) = \alpha L, \quad \alpha \in \mathbb{R}.$
5. $f(x) \leq g(x) \implies L \leq L'.$

Remark 2 The indeterminate forms of limits are:

$$\frac{0}{0}, \frac{\infty}{\infty}, 0, -\infty + \infty, 1^\infty, 0^0, 0^\infty, \infty^\infty.$$

2 Continuous functions

Definition 12 The function f is continuous at some point $x_0 \in D_f$ if the limit of $f(x)$, as x approach x_0 through the domain of f , exists and is equal to $f(x_0)$. In mathematical notation:

$$\forall x \in D_f : \quad \lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} f(x) = f(x_0).$$

Example 5 The function $f(x) = \frac{1}{x-1}$ is not continuous on \mathbb{R} , but it is continuous on $]1, +\infty[$ or $] - \infty, 1[$.

Proposition 6 The function f is continuous at $x_0 \in D_f \iff \lim_{x \nearrow x_0} f(x) = f(x_0) = \lim_{x \searrow x_0} f(x).$

Definition 13 A function f is continuous on D_f if it is continuous at every point $x_0 \in D_f$, i.e. $\lim_{x \searrow x_0} f(x) = \lim_{x \nearrow x_0} f(x) = f(x_0).$

Proposition 7 Let $I \subset \mathbb{R}$ and $f, g : I \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ are continuous functions at $x_0 \in I$, then the functions λf ($\lambda \in \mathbb{R}$), $f + g$, fg , $\frac{f}{g}$ ($g \neq 0$) and $|f|$ are continuous at x_0 .

3 Derivable functions

Definition 14 Let $x_0 \in D$, assume that there exists $r > 0$, such that $]x_0 - r, x_0 + r[\subset D$. We say that $f : D \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is derivable at x_0 if the limit $\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} \frac{f(x) - f(x_0)}{x - x_0}$ exists and finite and we have:

$$f'(x_0) = \lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} \frac{f(x) - f(x_0)}{x - x_0}.$$

Example 6 Prove that the function $f(x) = \sqrt{x}$ is derivable at every point $x_0 > 0$ and $f'(x_0) = \frac{1}{2\sqrt{x_0}}$.
We have,

$$\begin{aligned} \lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} \frac{f(x) - f(x_0)}{x - x_0} &= \lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} \frac{\sqrt{x} - \sqrt{x_0}}{x - x_0} \\ &= \lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} \frac{x - x_0}{(x - x_0)(\sqrt{x} + \sqrt{x_0})} \\ &= \frac{1}{2\sqrt{x_0}}. \end{aligned}$$

Then, the limit exists and it is unique, thus f is differentiable at $x_0 > 0$ and we have $f'(x_0) = \frac{1}{2\sqrt{x_0}}$.

Proposition 8 Let $f : I \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be a function, such that I is an open interval of \mathbb{R} and $x_0 \in I$.

- If f is derivable at x_0 (or on I), then f is continuous at x_0 (or on I). The reciprocal is false.

Example 7 We know that the function $f(x) = |x|$ is continuous at $x_0 = 0$ ($\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} f(x) = 0 = f(0)$).
On the other hand,

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} \frac{f(x) - f(0)}{x - 0} = \lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} \frac{|x|}{x} = \begin{cases} 1, & x \leq 0 \\ -1, & x < 0. \end{cases}$$

Then,

$$\lim_{x \nearrow x_0} \frac{f(x) - f(0)}{x} \neq \lim_{x \searrow x_0} \frac{f(x) - f(0)}{x}.$$

Therefore, f is not derivable at x_0 .

- We say that f is right-derivable (resp. left-derivable) at x_0 if $\lim_{x \searrow x_0} \frac{f(x) - f(x_0)}{x - x_0}$ (resp. $\lim_{x \nearrow x_0} \frac{f(x) - f(x_0)}{x - x_0}$) exists and finite.

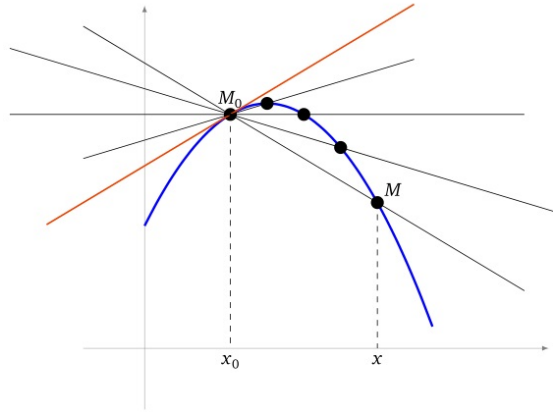
- f is derivable at x_0 if and only if $\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} \frac{f(x) - f(x_0)}{x - x_0}$ exists and finite.

Definition 15 We say that f is derivable on D if f is derivable at every point $x \in D$. The derivative function of f is denoted by: f' or $\frac{df}{dx}$.

3.1 Tangent to a curve

The line passing through the distinct points $(x_0, f(x_0))$ and $(x, f(x))$ has the slope $\frac{f(x) - f(x_0)}{x - x_0}$. Passing to the limits, we find that the slope is $f'(x_0)$. The tangent equation at a point $(x_0, f(x_0))$ is given by:

$$y = (x - x_0)f'(x_0) + f(x_0).$$



Definition 16 A tangent is a line that touches a curve at a single point and does not cross through it. The point where the curve and the tangent meet is called the point of tangency. We know that for a line $y = ax + b$ its slope is a .

Method: To trace the tangent, we need to determine two points of the tangent line using its equation and plot the line passing through those points.

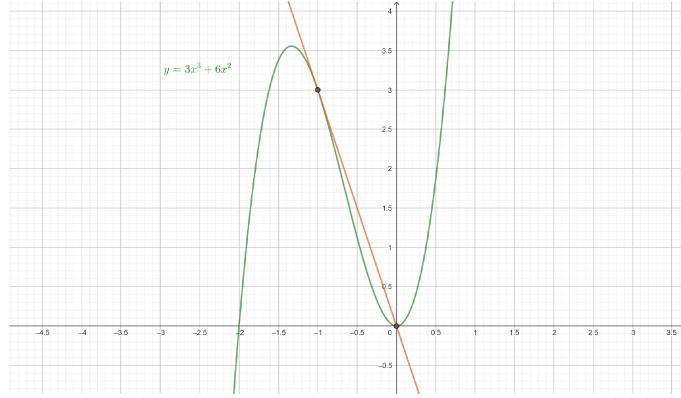
Example 8 Let $f(x) = 3x^3 + 6x^2$, we will prove how to trace the tangent of this function at $x = -1$.

To determine the point where the curve and the tangent touch, we can read that $f(-1) = 3$. Then, the curve and the tangent touch at the point $(-1, 3)$.

Now, we must determine the equation of the tangent. For that, we must determine the derivative function of f . We have: $f'(x) = 9x^2 + 12x$. Also, we determine the equation of the tangent as follows:

$$y = f'(-1)(x - x_0) + f(-1) = -3(x + 1) + 3 = -3x.$$

We can then determine another tangent point. When $x = 0$ and $y = 0$. so we can use the two points to draw the tangent line.



3.2 Derivative calculation

Proposition 9 Let $f, g : I \subset \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be two derivative functions on I . Then,, for all $x \in I$, we have:

- $(f + g)'(x) = f'(x) + g'(x)$.
- $(\lambda f)'(x) = \lambda f'(x)$, where λ is a fixed real number.
- $(f \times g)'(x) = f'(x)g(x) + f(x)g'(x)$.
- $\left(\frac{1}{f}\right)'(x) = -\left(\frac{f'(x)}{f^2(x)}\right)$, $(f(x) \neq 0)$.
- $\left(\frac{f}{g}\right)'(x) = \frac{f'(x)g(x) - f(x)g'(x)}{g^2(x)}$, $(g(x) \neq 0)$.

Remark 3 If you have to derivate a function with an exponent dependent on x , it is absolutely neccessary to convert it back to the exponential form. For example: if $f(x) = 2^x$, then firstable we write $f(x) = e^{x \ln 2}$, after that we calculate the derivative $f'(x) = \ln 2 e^{x \ln 2} = 2^x \ln 2$.

3.3 Derivative of elementary functions

The first table as a summary of the main formulas to know, where x is a variable. In the second table, u represent a function $x \mapsto u(x)$.

Function	Derivative
x^n	$nx^{n-1} \ (n \in \mathbb{Z})$
$\frac{1}{x}$	$-\frac{1}{x^2} \ (x \neq 0)$
\sqrt{x}	$\frac{1}{2\sqrt{x}}, (x > 0)$
x^α	$\alpha x^{\alpha-1} \ (\alpha < 1 \text{ et } x \neq 0) \vee (\alpha \geq 1)$
e^x	e^x
$\ln x$	$\frac{1}{x} \ (x \neq 0)$
$\cos x$	$-\sin x$
$\sin x$	$\cos x$
$\tan x$	$1 + \tan^2 x = \frac{1}{\cos^2 x}$

Function	Derivative
u^n	$nu' u^{n-1} \ (n \in \mathbb{Z})$
$\frac{1}{u}$	$\frac{-u'}{u^2}, (u \neq 0)$
\sqrt{u}	$\frac{u'}{2\sqrt{u}} \ (u \neq 0)$
u^α	$\alpha u' u^{\alpha-1}, (\alpha < 1 \text{ et } u \neq 0) \vee (\alpha \geq 1)$
e^u	$u' e^u$
$\ln u$	$\frac{u'}{u}$
$\cos u$	$-u' \sin u$
$\sin u$	$u' \cos u$
$\tan u$	$u' (1 + \tan^2 u) = \frac{u'}{\cos^2 u}$

3.4 Derivative of a composite function

Theorem 1 Let f be a function defined on $I \subseteq \mathbb{R}$, g be a function defined on $J \subseteq \mathbb{R}$, with $f(I) \subseteq J$ and $x_0 \in I$. If f is derivative at x_0 and g is derivative at $f(x_0)$, then $g \circ f$ is derivative at x_0 and we have:

$$(g \circ f)'(x_0) = g'(f(x_0)) = f'(x_0)g'(f(x_0)).$$

Example 9 Calculate the derivative of the function $H(x) = \ln(1 + x^2)$.

Put: $g(x) = \ln(x)$ with $g'(x) = \frac{1}{x}$ and $f(x) = 1 + x^2$ with $f'(x) = 2x$.

Then, $H(x) = (g \circ f)(x)$. Thus,

$$H'(x) = (g(f(x)))' = f'(x)g'(f(x)) = 2xg'(1 + x^2) = \frac{2x}{1 + x^2}.$$

3.5 Successive derivatives

Definition 17 Let $f : I \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$. We note $f^{(0)} = f$. Suppose that $f^{(n-1)}$ exists and it is derivable on I . So, we define the function $f^{(n)} = (f^{(n-1)})'$.

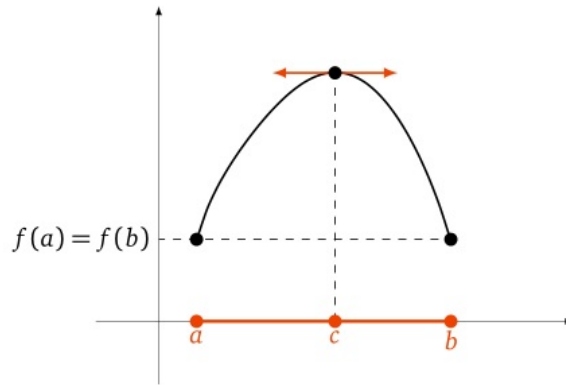
If the function $f^{(n)} : I \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ exists, then we say that f is n times derivable on I .

Proposition 10 Let $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}$, $m \in \mathbb{N}$, $f, g : I \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be two functions n times derivable on I . Then, $\forall n \leq m$:

- $f + g$ is n times derivable on I and $(f + g)^m = f^m + g^m$.
- λf is n times derivable on I and $(\lambda f)^m = \lambda f^m$.
- fg is n times derivable on I and $(fg)^m = \sum_{k=0}^m C_m^k f^{(k)} g^{(m-k)}$, where $C_m^k = \frac{m!}{k!(m-k)!}$. (Leibniz formulat).
- If $\forall x \in I$, $g(x) \neq 0$, then $\frac{f}{g}$ is n times derivable on I .

3.6 Rolle's theorem

Theorem 2 Let $f : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be a continuous function on $[a, b]$, derivable on $]a, b[$, such that $f(a) = f(b)$. Then, there exists $c \in]a, b[$, such that $f'(c) = 0$.



Geometric Interpretation: geometrically, the theorem states that there is at least one point $c \in]a, b[$, distinct from a and b , for which the tangent to the curve at this point is horizontal.

Example 10 Let f be a function defined by:

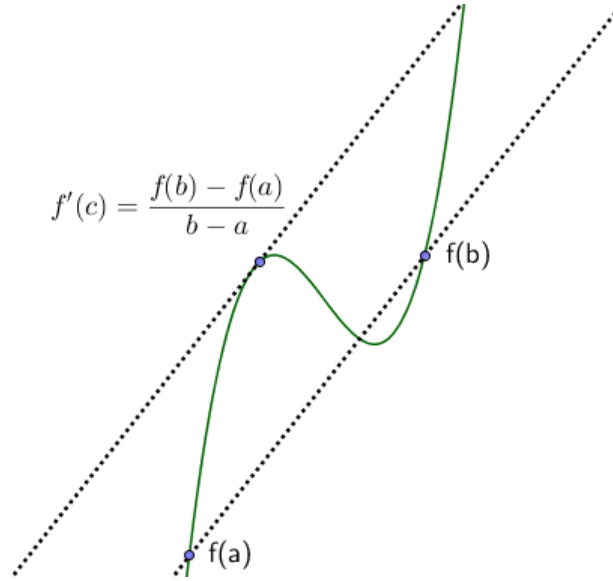
$$f(x) = 3x^4 - 11x^3 + 12x^2 - 4x + 2.$$

Prove that $f'(x) = 0$ at least once on $]0, 1[$. We have the function f is continuous on $[0, 1]$ and differentiable on $]0, 1[$, such that $f(0) = f(1) = 2$. Then, from Rolle's theorem there exists $x \in]0, 1[$, such that $f'(x) = 0$.

Theorem 3 (Mean value Theorem) Let $f : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be a continuous function on $[a, b]$ and derivable on $]a, b[$. Then, there exists $c \in]a, b[$, such that

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

Note that $\frac{f(b) - f(a)}{b - a}$ is the direction coefficient of the line connecting $(a, f(a))$ to $(b, f(b))$ (which we call a chord between two of the curve of f) while $f'(c)$ is the direction coefficient of the tangent at c .



4 The Hospital Rule

Theorem 4 Let $f, g : I \subseteq \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be two derivables functions and let $x_0 \in I$. Suppose that $f(x_0) = g(x_0) = 0$ and $g'(x) \neq 0$ for all $x \in I - \{x_0\}$.

$$\text{If } \lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} \frac{f'(x)}{g'(x)} = l \quad \text{then} \quad \lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} = l \in \mathbb{R}.$$

Remark 4

- The Hopital's rule removes indeterminations of the form $\frac{0}{0}$ and $\frac{\infty}{\infty}$.
- On the other words, it can be used to determine $\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)}$, if when x tends to x_0 , $f(x)$ and $g(x)$ tends to 0 or ∞ .
- According to this rule, if $\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} \frac{f'(x)}{g'(x)}$ exists, then $\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} = \lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} \frac{f'(x)}{g'(x)}$.

Example:

$$\bullet \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\sin x}{x} = \frac{0}{0} = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\cos x}{1} = 1.$$

$$\bullet \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\ln(x+1)}{x} = \frac{0}{0} = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\frac{1}{1+x}}{1} = 1.$$

- It is possible to apply the Hospital rule several times successively when calculating the limit to remove the case of $\frac{0}{0}$.

Example:

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{e^x - e^{-x} - 2x}{x - \sin x} = \frac{0}{0} = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{e^x + e^{-x} - 2}{1 - \cos x} = \frac{0}{0} = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{e^x - e^{-x}}{\sin x} = \frac{0}{0} = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{e^x + e^{-x}}{\cos x} = 2.$$

Note: The Hospital rule is used to confirm the calculation of limits.

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