

Mathematics I

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- Introduction

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- Limit of a sequence

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- Introduction
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- Mappings

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- Functions of one real variable

Textbooks

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- Trench: Introduction to real analysis

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- Rudin: Principles of mathematical analysis

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- $A_1 \times \cdots \times A_m = \{[a_1, \dots, a_m]; a_1 \in A_1, \dots, a_m \in A_m\}$... a Cartesian product

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- \Leftrightarrow ... **equivalence**; “if and only if”

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- $\neg(A \ \& \ B) \Leftrightarrow (\neg A \vee \neg B)$
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- $(A \Rightarrow B) \Leftrightarrow (\neg B \Rightarrow \neg A)$
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- $(A \Leftrightarrow B) \Leftrightarrow ((A \Rightarrow B) \ \& \ (B \Rightarrow A))$
- $(A \Rightarrow B) \Leftrightarrow (\neg A \vee B)$

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$$V(x_1, \dots, x_n), x_1 \in M_1, \dots, x_n \in M_n$$

If $A(x)$, $x \in M$ is a predicate, then the statement “ $A(x)$ holds for every x from M .” is shortened to

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If $A(x)$, $x \in M$ and $B(x)$, $x \in M$ are predicates, then

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Methods of proofs

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- mathematical induction

Theorem 1 (de Morgan rules)

Let $S, A_\alpha, \alpha \in I$, where $I \neq \emptyset$, be sets. Then

$$S \setminus \bigcup_{\alpha \in I} A_\alpha = \bigcap_{\alpha \in I} (S \setminus A_\alpha) \quad \text{and} \quad S \setminus \bigcap_{\alpha \in I} A_\alpha = \bigcup_{\alpha \in I} (S \setminus A_\alpha).$$

Theorem 2 (Cauchy inequality)

Let $a_1, \dots, a_n, b_1, \dots, b_n$ be real numbers. Then

$$\left(\sum_{i=1}^n a_i b_i \right)^2 \leq \left(\sum_{i=1}^n a_i^2 \right) \left(\sum_{i=1}^n b_i^2 \right).$$

Example (irrationality of $\sqrt{2}$)

If a real number x solves the equation $x^2 = 2$, then x is not rational.

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- A set of rational numbers

$$\mathbb{Q} = \left\{ \frac{p}{q}; p \in \mathbb{Z}, q \in \mathbb{N} \right\},$$

where $\frac{p_1}{q_1} = \frac{p_2}{q_2}$ if and only if $p_1 \cdot q_2 = p_2 \cdot q_1$.

Real numbers

By a set of real numbers \mathbb{R} we will understand a set on which there are operations of **addition** and **multiplication** (denoted by $+$ and \cdot), and a relation of **ordering** (denoted by \leq), such that it has the following three groups of properties.

- I. The properties of addition and multiplication and their relationships.
- II. The relationships of the ordering and the operations of addition and multiplication.
- III. The infimum axiom.

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- $\forall x, y \in \mathbb{R}: x + y = y + x$ (**commutativity of addition**),
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- $\forall x, y, z \in \mathbb{R}: (x + y) \cdot z = x \cdot z + y \cdot z$ (**distributivity**).

The relationships of the ordering and the operations of addition and multiplication:

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- $\forall x, y \in \mathbb{R}: (0 \leq x \ \& \ 0 \leq y) \Rightarrow 0 \leq x \cdot y$.

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We say that the set $M \subset \mathbb{R}$ is **bounded from below** if there exists a number $a \in \mathbb{R}$ such that for each $x \in M$ we have $x \geq a$. Such a number a is called a **lower bound** of the set M . Analogously we define the notions of a **set bounded from above** and an **upper bound**. We say that a set $M \subset \mathbb{R}$ is **bounded** if it is bounded from above and below.

The infimum axiom:

Let M be a non-empty set bounded from below. Then there exists a unique number $g \in \mathbb{R}$ such that

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The number g is denoted by $\inf M$ and is called the **infimum** of the set M .

Remark

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- The real numbers exist and are uniquely determined by the properties I–III.

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- (v) $\forall x, y \in \mathbb{R}: (x > 0 \wedge y > 0) \Rightarrow xy > 0,$
- (vi) $\forall x \in \mathbb{R}, x \geq 0 \forall y \in \mathbb{R}, y \geq 0 \forall n \in \mathbb{N}: x < y \Leftrightarrow x^n < y^n.$

Let $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$, $a \leq b$. We denote:

- An **open interval** $(a, b) = \{x \in \mathbb{R}; a < x < b\}$,
- A **closed interval** $[a, b] = \{x \in \mathbb{R}; a \leq x \leq b\}$,
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Unbounded intervals:

$$(a, +\infty) = \{x \in \mathbb{R}; a < x\}, \quad (-\infty, a) = \{x \in \mathbb{R}; x < a\},$$

analogically $(-\infty, a]$, $[a, +\infty)$ and $(-\infty, +\infty)$.

We have $\mathbb{N} \subset \mathbb{Z} \subset \mathbb{Q} \subset \mathbb{R}$. If we transfer the addition and multiplication from \mathbb{R} to the above sets, we obtain the usual operations on these sets.

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A real number that is not rational is called **irrational**. The set $\mathbb{R} \setminus \mathbb{Q}$ is called the **set of irrational numbers**.

Complex numbers

By the set of **complex numbers** we mean the set of all expressions of the form $a + bi$, where $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$. The set of all complex numbers is denoted by \mathbb{C} . On \mathbb{C} there are operations of addition and multiplication satisfying the group of properties I and moreover $i \cdot i = -1$.

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Theorem (“fundamental theorem of algebra”)

Let $n \in \mathbb{N}$, $a_0, \dots, a_n \in \mathbb{C}$, $a_n \neq 0$. Then the equation

$$a_n z^n + a_{n-1} z^{n-1} + a_{n-2} z^{n-2} + \dots + a_1 z + a_0 = 0$$

has at least one solution $z \in \mathbb{C}$.

Consequences of the infimum axiom

Definition

Let $M \subset \mathbb{R}$. A number $G \in \mathbb{R}$ satisfying

(i) $\forall x \in M: x \leq G$,

(ii) $\forall G' \in \mathbb{R}, G' < G \exists x \in M: x > G'$,

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The following holds: $\sup M = -\inf(-M)$.

Definition

Let $M \subset \mathbb{R}$. We say that a is a **maximum** of the set M (denoted by $\max M$) if a is an upper bound of M and $a \in M$. Analogously we define a **minimum** of M , denoted by $\min M$.

Lemma 4 (“no holes”)

Let $M \subset \mathbb{R}$ and

$$\forall x, y \in M \forall z \in \mathbb{R}, x < z < y: z \in M.$$

Then M is an interval.

Theorem 5 (Archimedean property)

For every $x \in \mathbb{R}$ there exists $n \in \mathbb{N}$ satisfying $n > x$.

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Theorem 6 (existence of an integer part)

*For every $r \in \mathbb{R}$ there exists an **integer part** of r , i.e. a number $k \in \mathbb{Z}$ satisfying $k \leq r < k + 1$. The integer part of r is determined uniquely and it is denoted by $[r]$.*

Theorem 7 (*n*th root)

For every $x \in [0, +\infty)$ and every $n \in \mathbb{N}$ there exists a unique $y \in [0, +\infty)$ satisfying $y^n = x$.

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Theorem 8 (density of \mathbb{Q} and $\mathbb{R} \setminus \mathbb{Q}$)

Let $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$, $a < b$. Then there exist $r \in \mathbb{Q}$ satisfying $a < r < b$ and $s \in \mathbb{R} \setminus \mathbb{Q}$ satisfying $a < s < b$.

II. Limit of a sequence

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Suppose that to each natural number $n \in \mathbb{N}$ we assign a real number a_n . Then we say that $\{a_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$ is a **sequence** of real numbers.

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II. Limit of a sequence

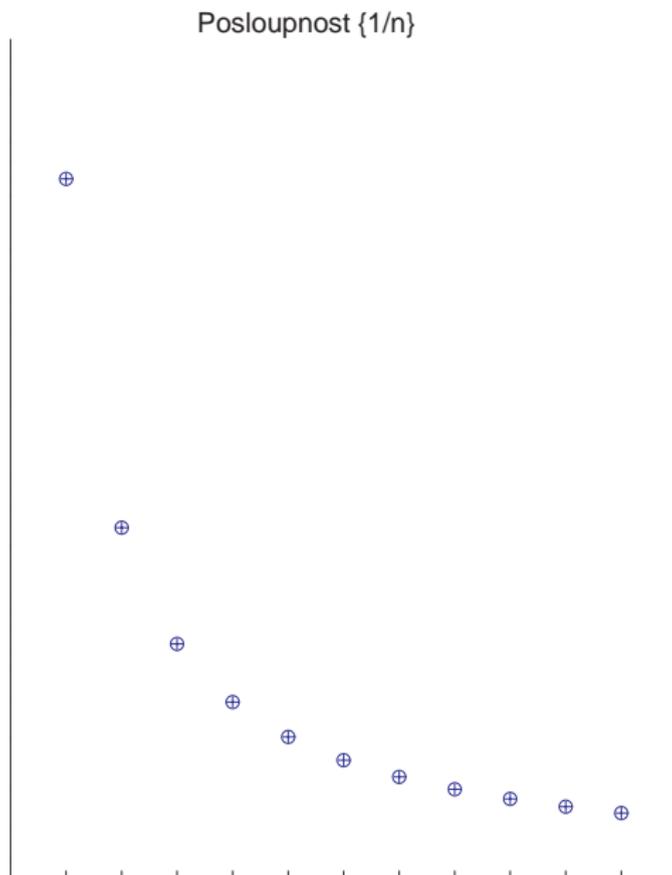
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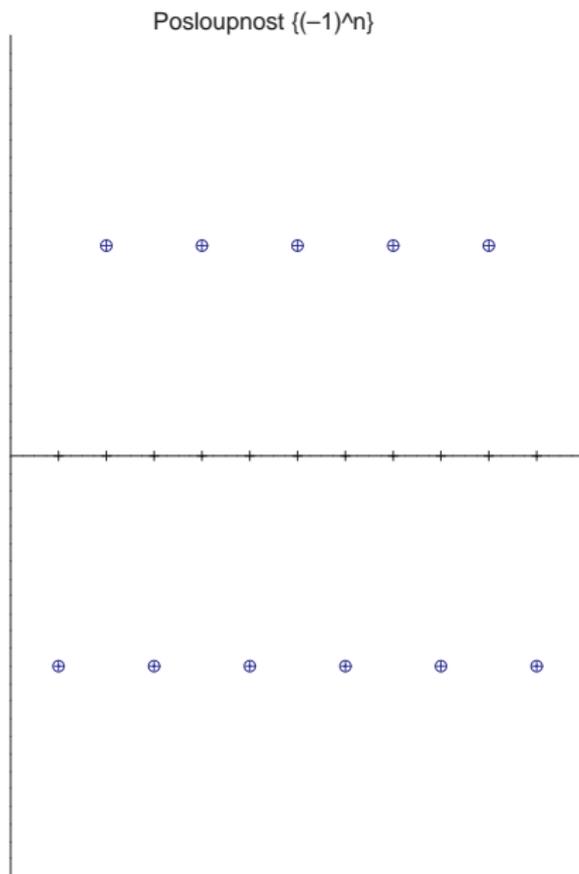
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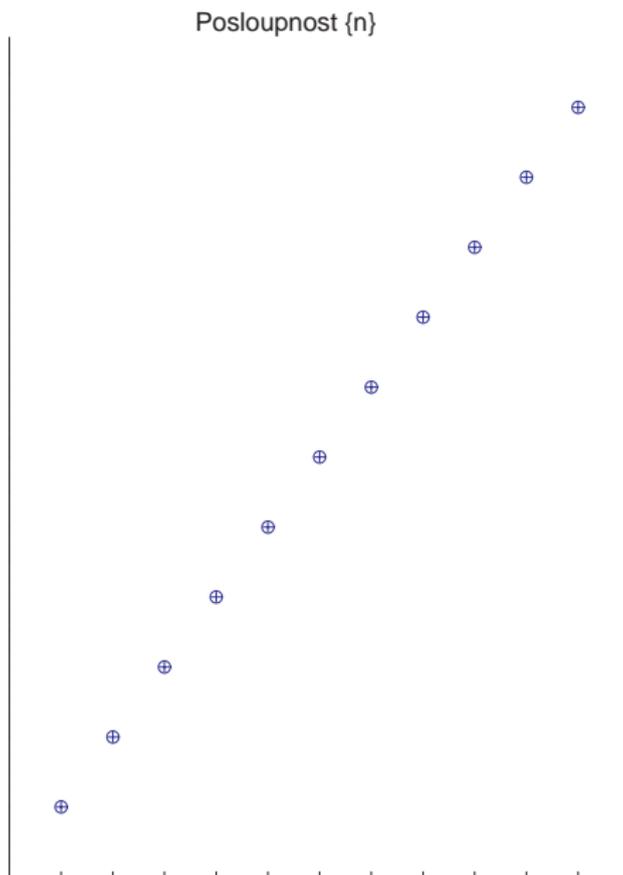
A sequence $\{a_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$ is equal to a sequence $\{b_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$ if $a_n = b_n$ holds for every $n \in \mathbb{N}$.

By the **set of all members of the sequence** $\{a_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$ we understand a set

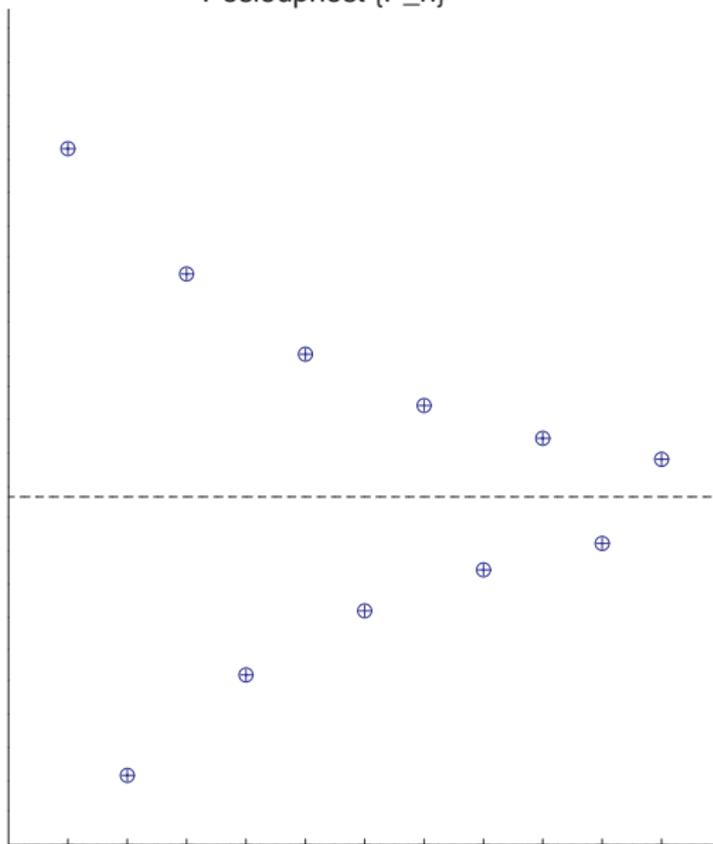
$$\{x \in \mathbb{R}; \exists n \in \mathbb{N}: a_n = x\}.$$







Posloupnost $\{P_n\}$



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A sequence $\{a_n\}$ is **monotone** if it satisfies one of the conditions above. A sequence $\{a_n\}$ is **strictly monotone** if it is increasing or decreasing.

Definition

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- By the **sum of sequences** $\{a_n\}$ and $\{b_n\}$ we understand a sequence $\{a_n + b_n\}$.

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- If $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}$, then by the λ -multiple of the sequence $\{a_n\}$ we understand a sequence $\{\lambda a_n\}$.

Definition

We say that a sequence $\{a_n\}$ has a **limit** which equals to a number $A \in \mathbb{R}$ if to every positive real number ε there exists a natural number n_0 such that for every index $n \geq n_0$ we have $|a_n - A| < \varepsilon$, i.e.

$$\forall \varepsilon \in \mathbb{R}, \varepsilon > 0 \exists n_0 \in \mathbb{N} \forall n \in \mathbb{N}, n \geq n_0: |a_n - A| < \varepsilon.$$

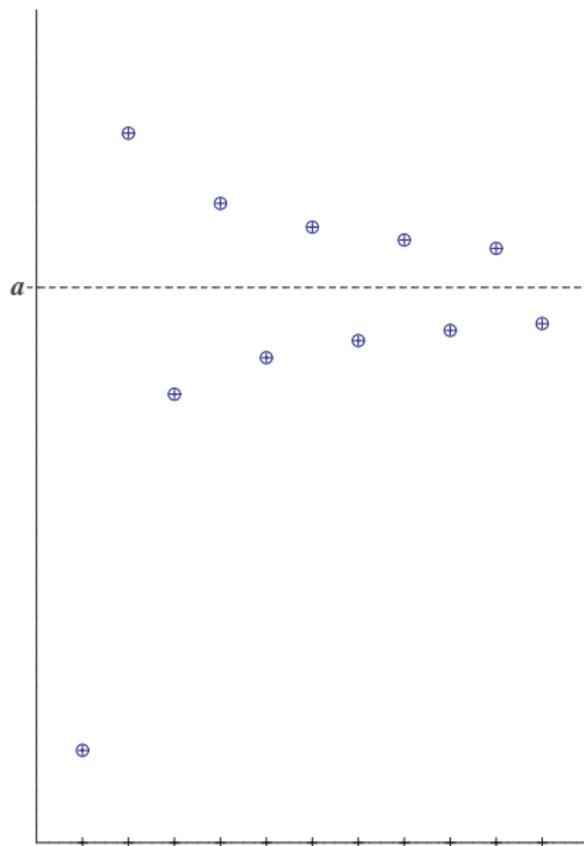
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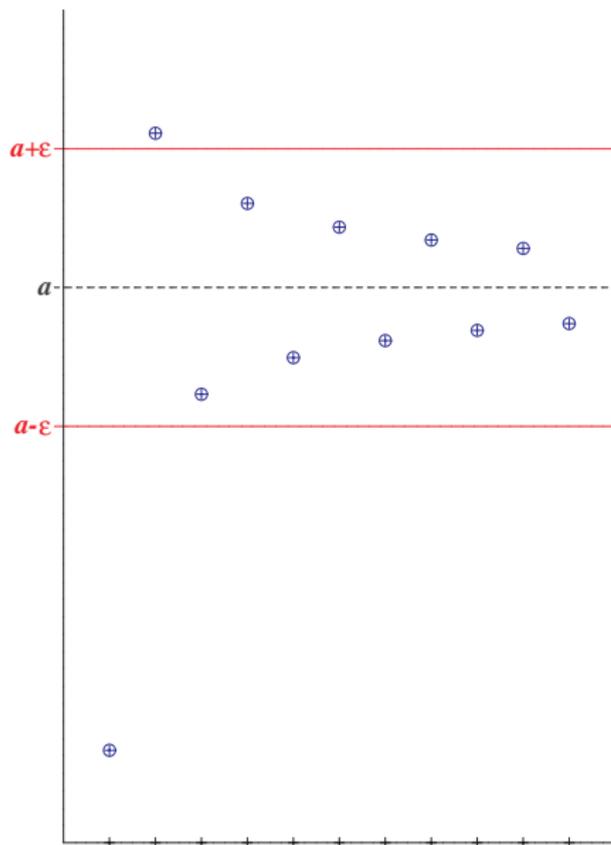
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We say that a sequence $\{a_n\}$ is **convergent** if there exists $A \in \mathbb{R}$ which is a limit of $\{a_n\}$.

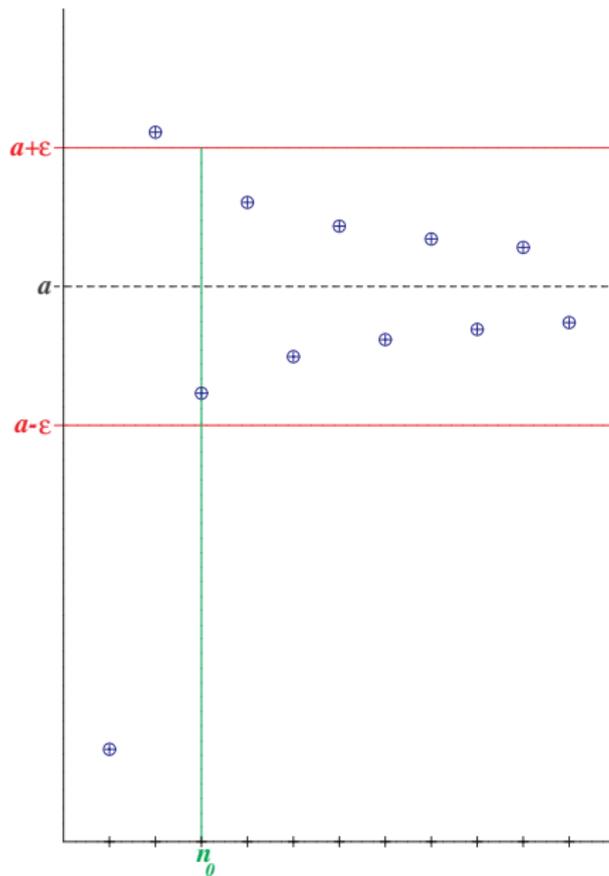
II.2. Convergence of sequences



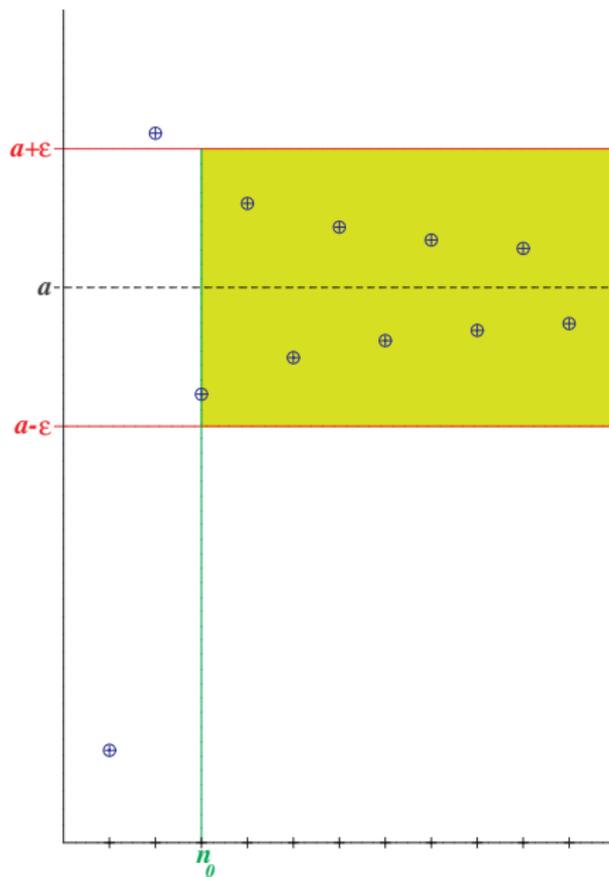
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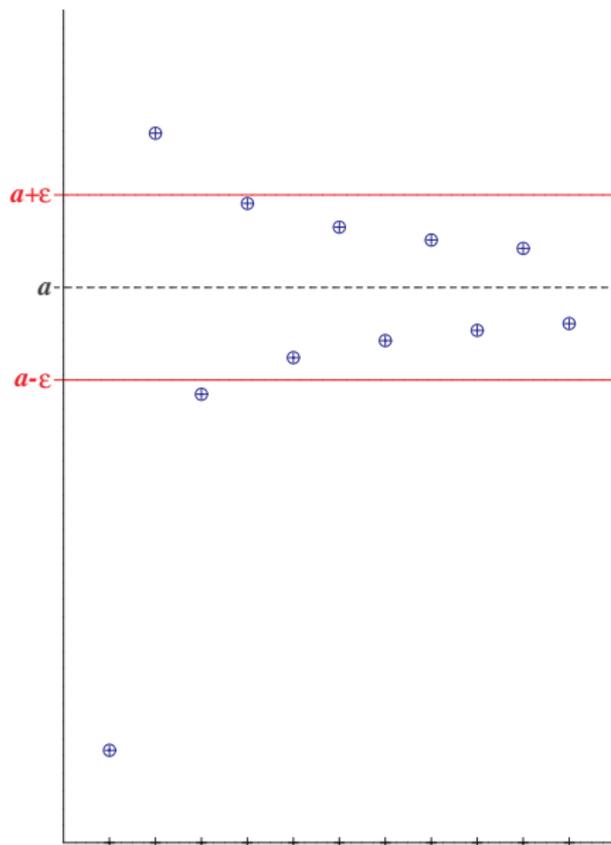
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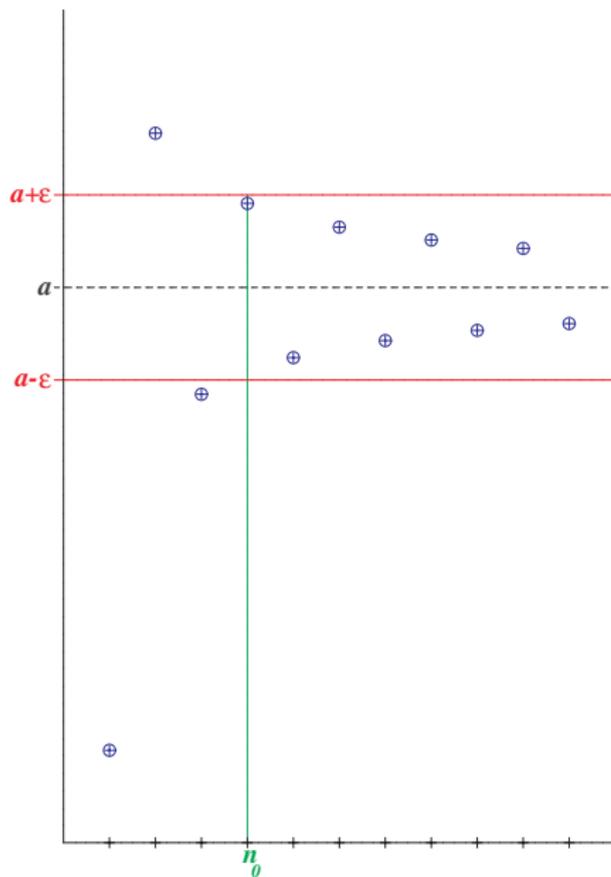
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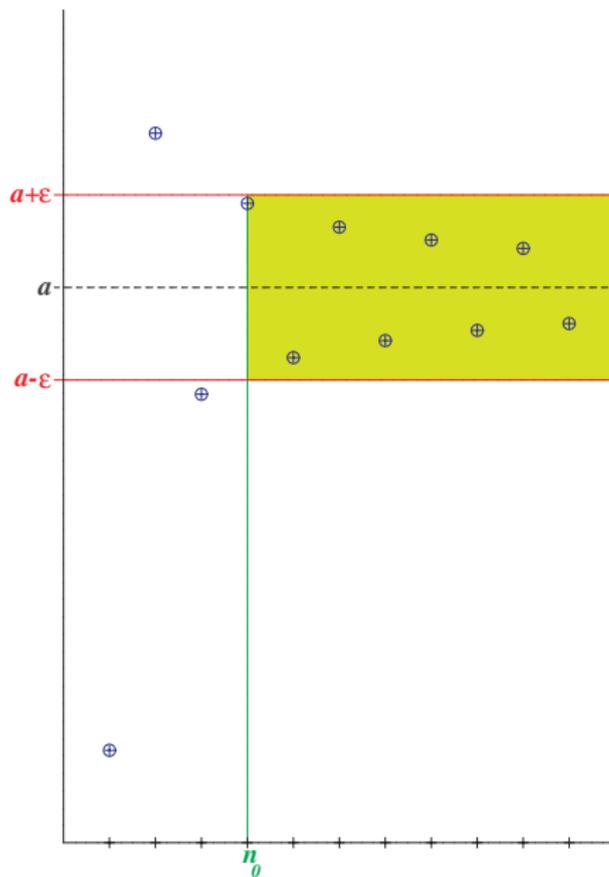
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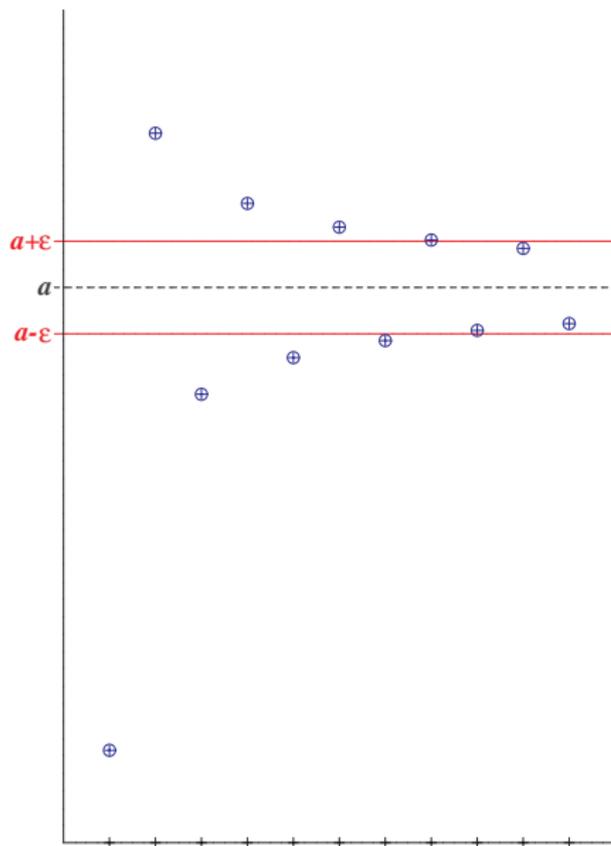
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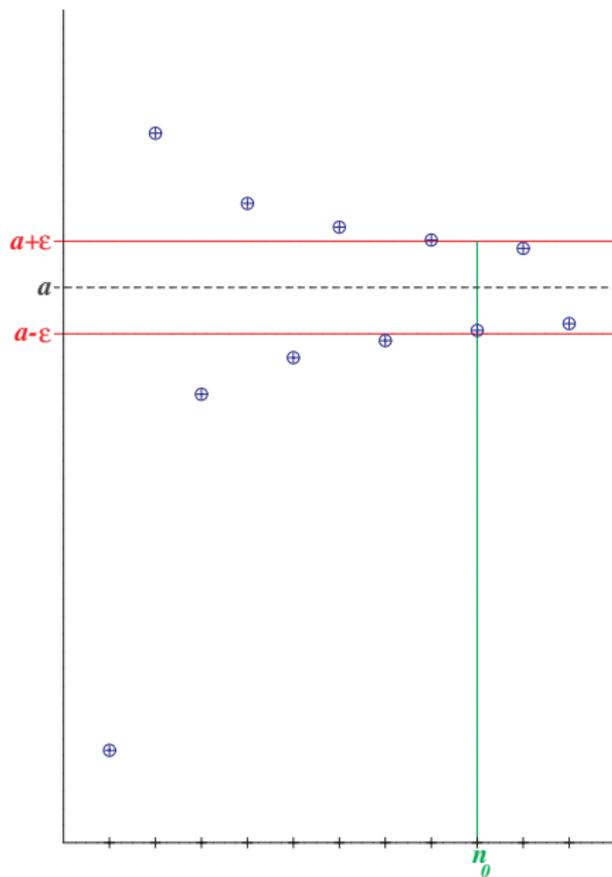
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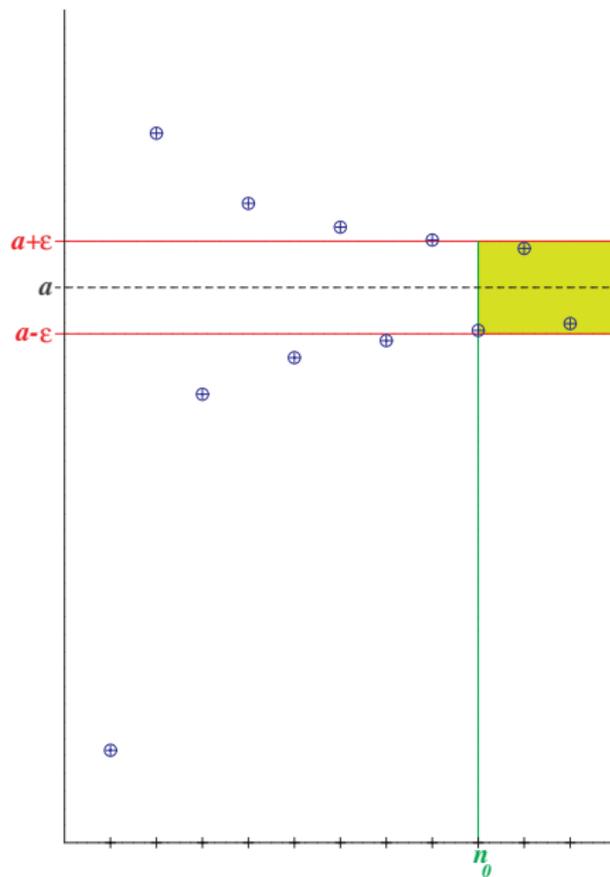
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Theorem 9 (uniqueness of a limit)

Every sequence has at most one limit.

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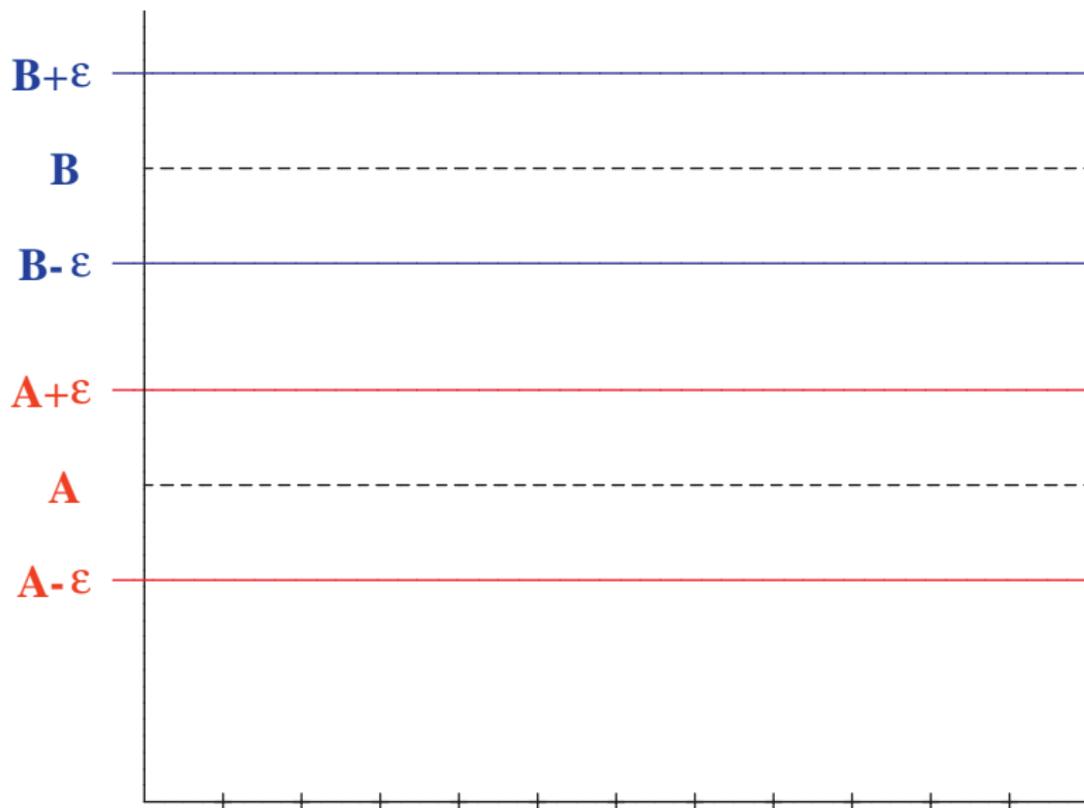
Every sequence has at most one limit.

We use the notation $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = A$ or simply $\lim a_n = A$.

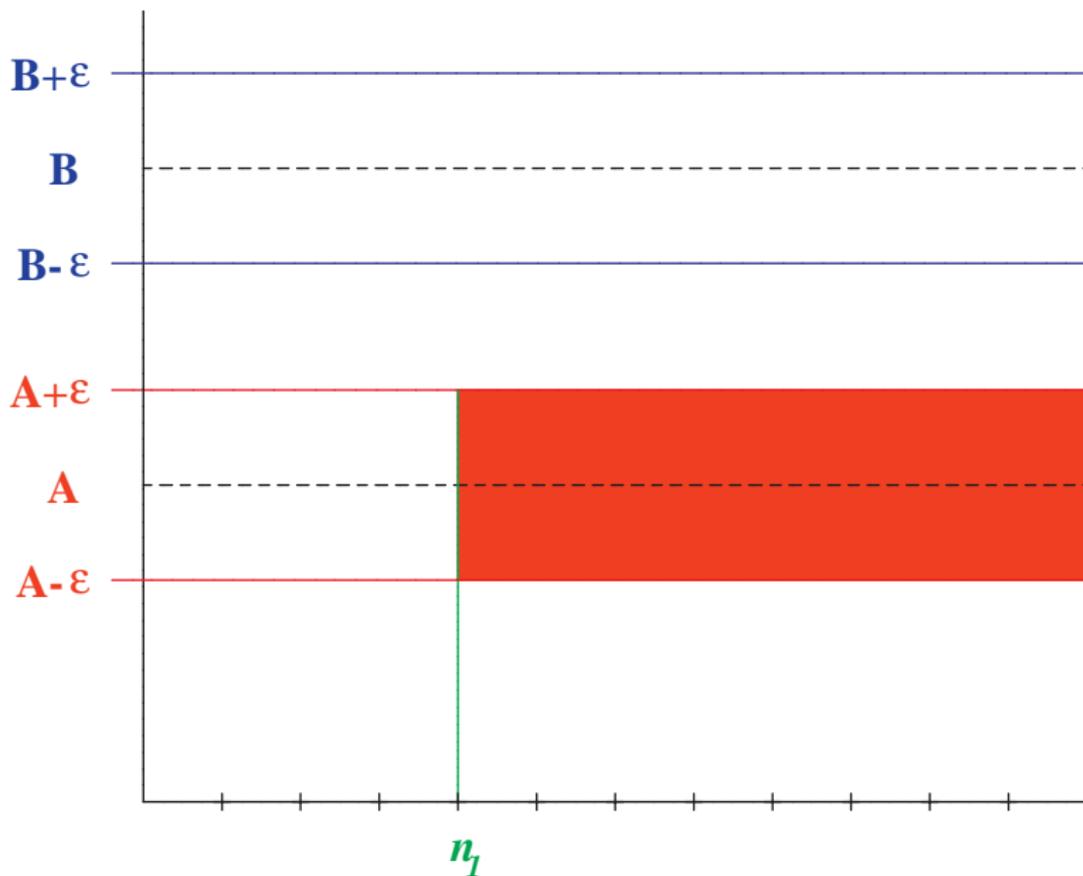
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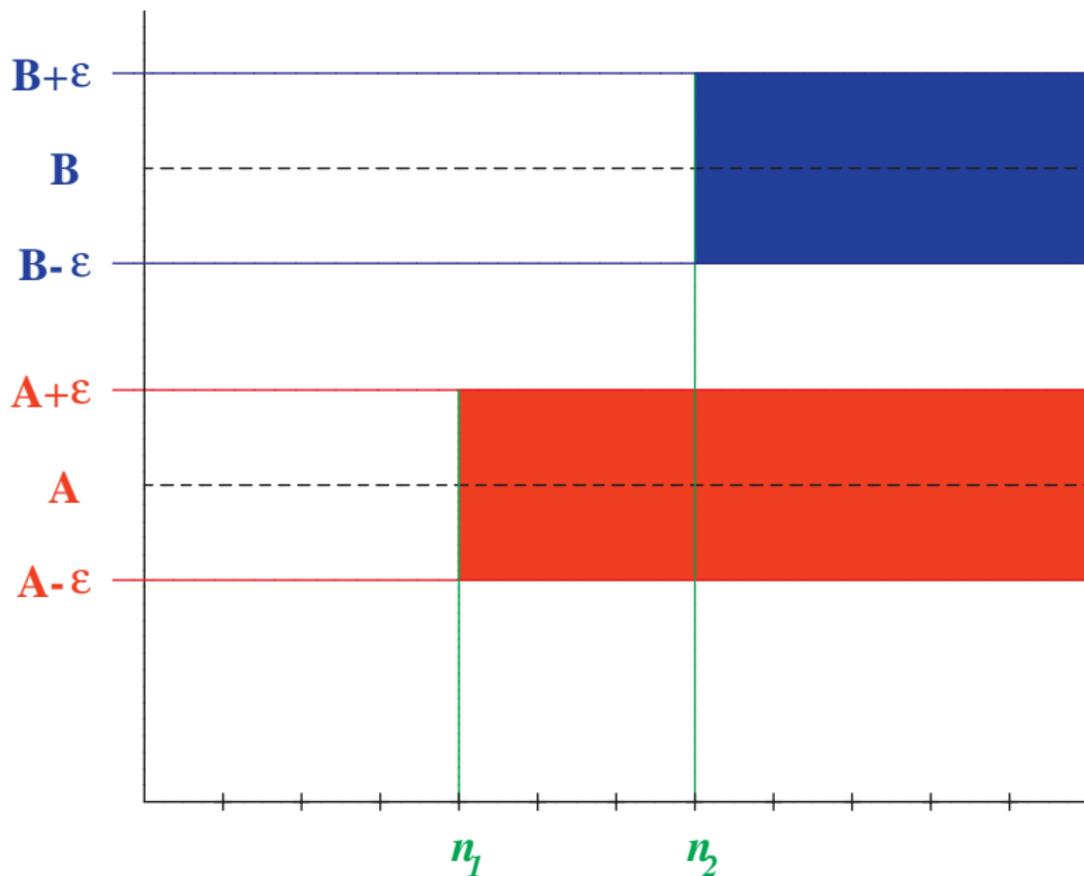
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Remark

Let $\{a_n\}$ be a sequence of real numbers and $A \in \mathbb{R}$. Then

$$\lim a_n = A \Leftrightarrow \lim(a_n - A) = 0 \Leftrightarrow \lim |a_n - A| = 0.$$

Remark

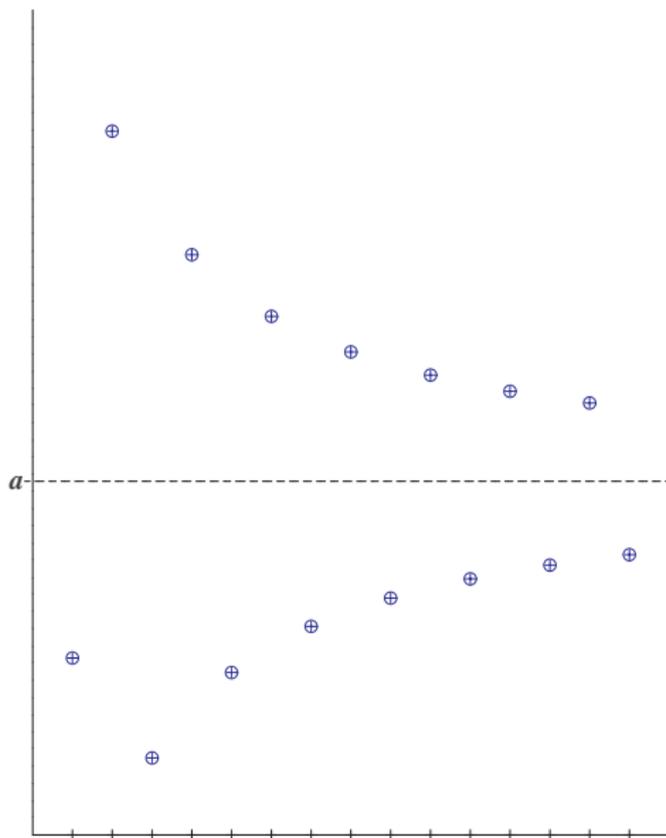
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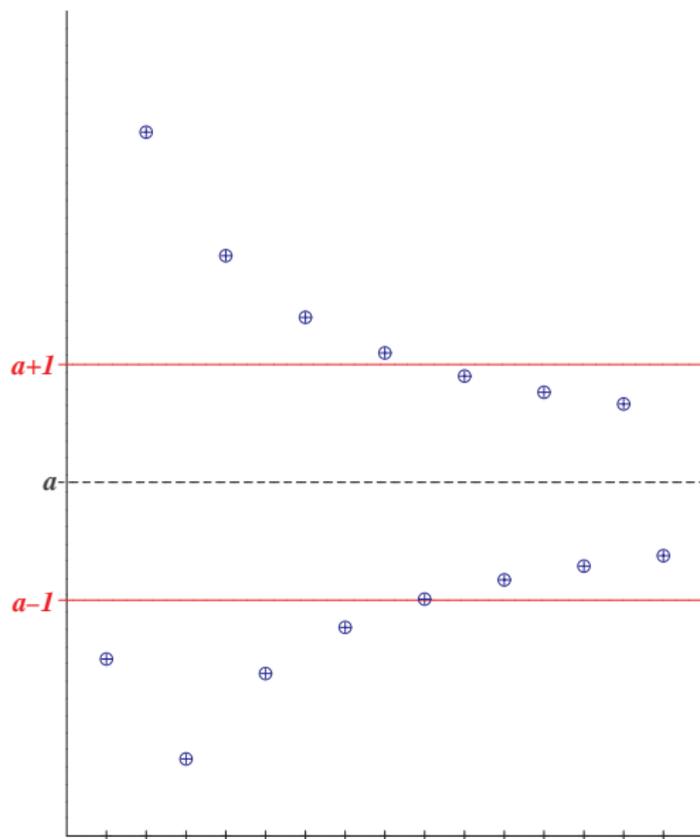
Theorem 10

Every convergent sequence is bounded.

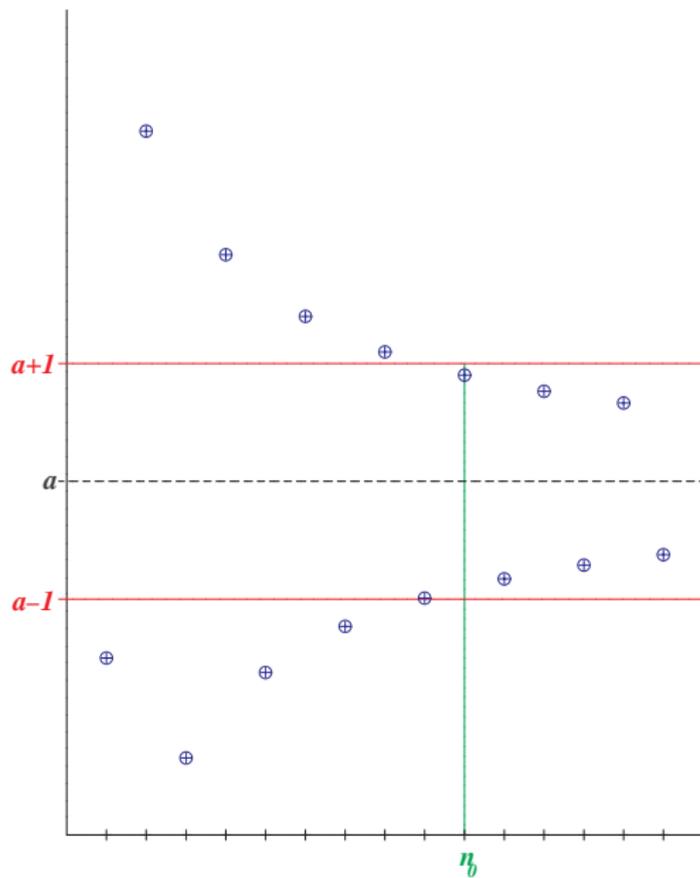
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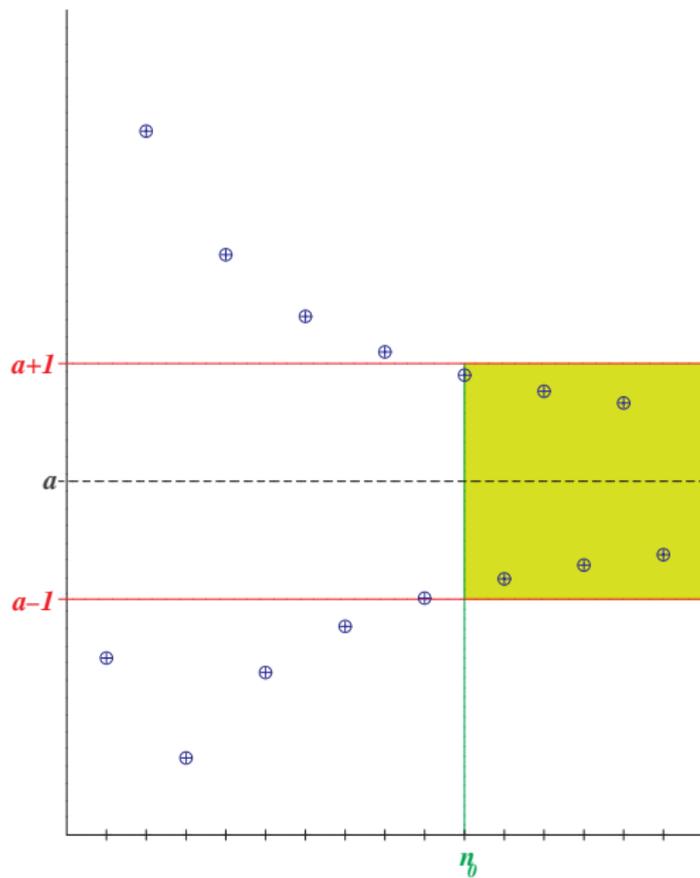
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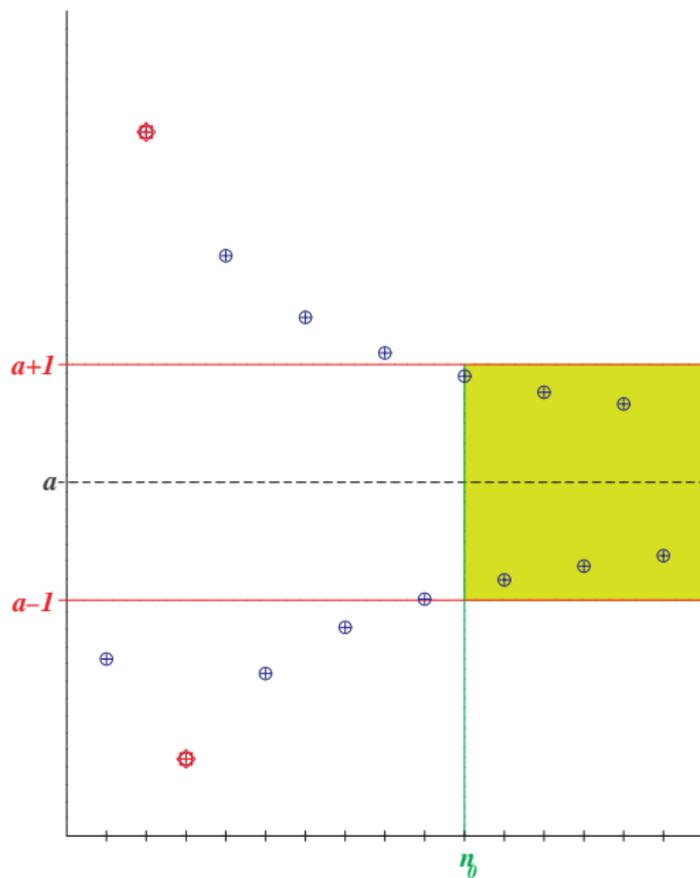
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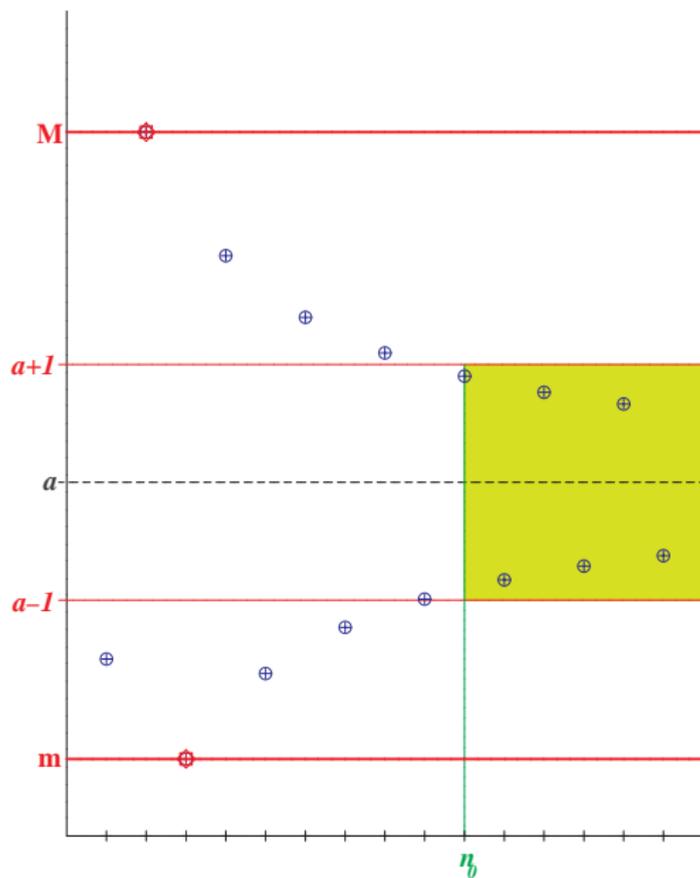
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Definition

Let $\{a_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$ be a sequence of real numbers. We say that a sequence $\{b_k\}_{k=1}^{\infty}$ is a **subsequence** of $\{a_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$ if there is an increasing sequence $\{n_k\}_{k=1}^{\infty}$ of natural numbers such that $b_k = a_{n_k}$ for every $k \in \mathbb{N}$.

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Theorem 11 (limit of a subsequence)

Let $\{b_k\}_{k=1}^{\infty}$ be a subsequence of $\{a_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$. If $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = A \in \mathbb{R}$, then also $\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} b_k = A$.

Remark

Let $\{a_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$ be a sequence of real numbers, $A \in \mathbb{R}$, $K \in \mathbb{R}$, $K > 0$. If

$$\forall \varepsilon \in \mathbb{R}, \varepsilon > 0 \exists n_0 \in \mathbb{N} \forall n \in \mathbb{N}, n \geq n_0: |a_n - A| < K\varepsilon,$$

then $\lim a_n = A$.

Theorem 12 (arithmetics of limits)

Suppose that $\lim a_n = A \in \mathbb{R}$ and $\lim b_n = B \in \mathbb{R}$. Then

(i) $\lim(a_n + b_n) = A + B,$

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Theorem 13

Suppose that $\lim a_n = 0$ and the sequence $\{b_n\}$ is bounded. Then $\lim a_n b_n = 0$.

Theorem 14 (limits and ordering)

Let $\lim a_n = A \in \mathbb{R}$ and $\lim b_n = B \in \mathbb{R}$.

- (i) Suppose that there is $n_0 \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $a_n \geq b_n$ for every $n \geq n_0$. Then $A \geq B$.

Theorem 14 (limits and ordering)

Let $\lim a_n = A \in \mathbb{R}$ and $\lim b_n = B \in \mathbb{R}$.

- (i) Suppose that there is $n_0 \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $a_n \geq b_n$ for every $n \geq n_0$. Then $A \geq B$.
- (ii) Suppose that $A < B$. Then there is $n_0 \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $a_n < b_n$ for every $n \geq n_0$.

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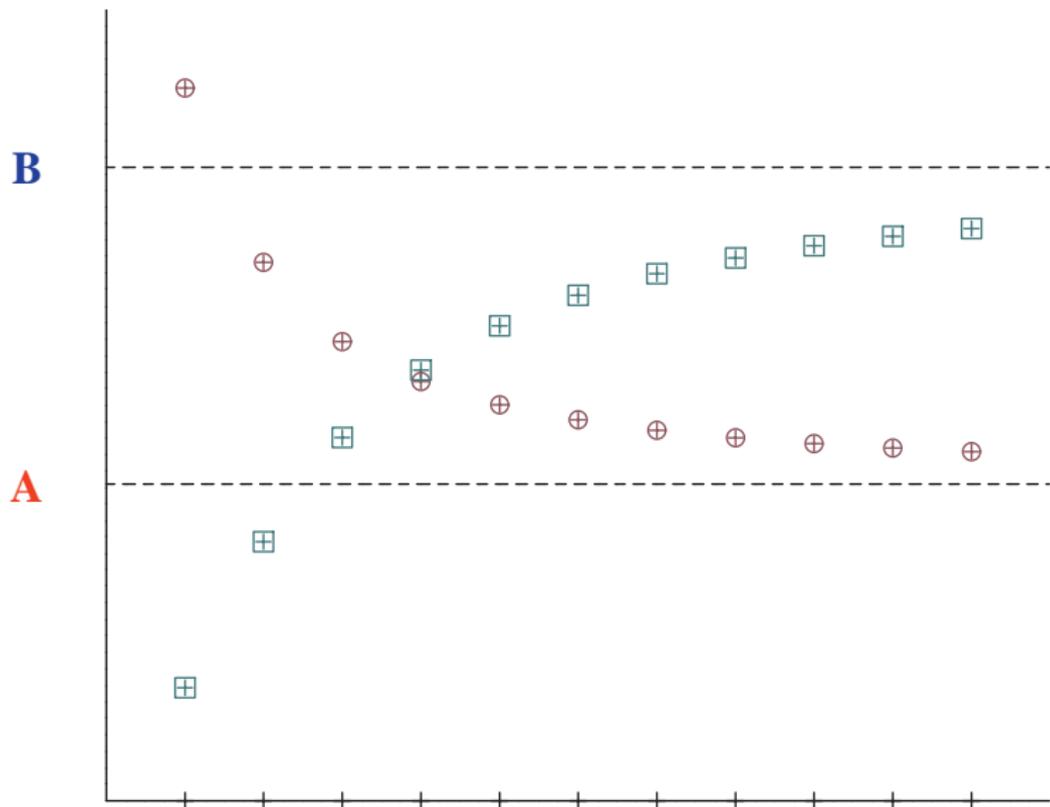
Theorem 15 (two policemen/sandwich theorem)

Let $\{a_n\}$, $\{b_n\}$ be convergent sequences and let $\{c_n\}$ be a sequence such that

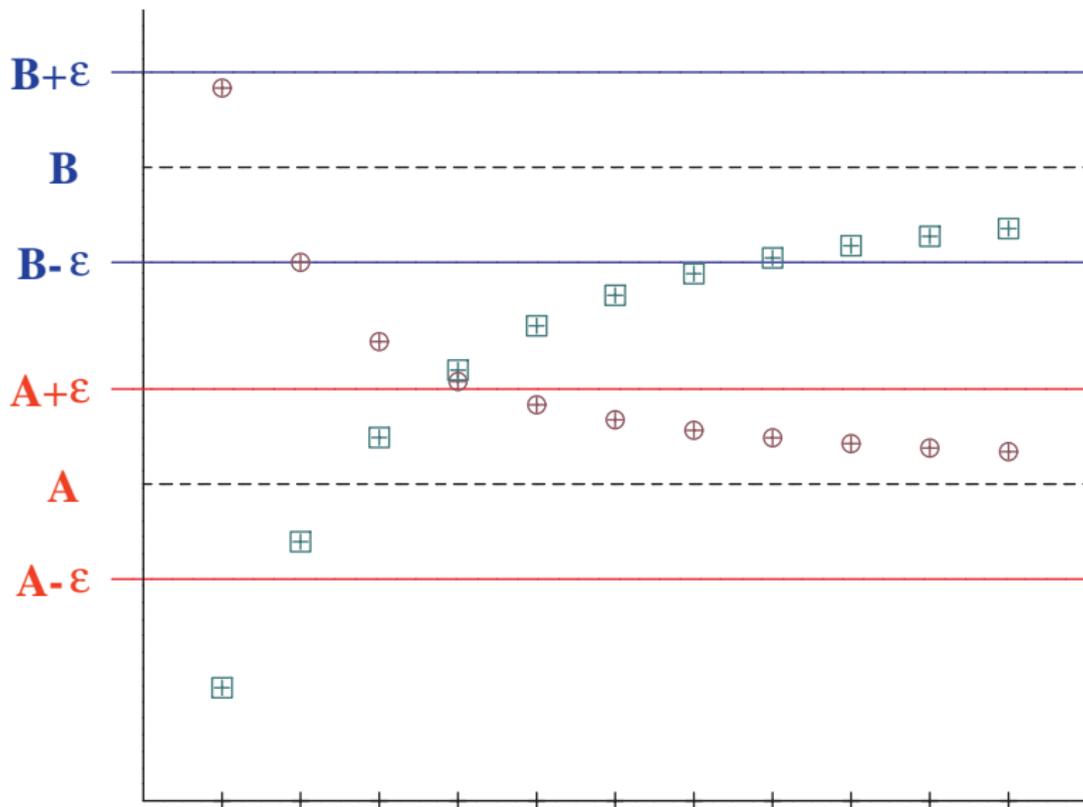
- (i) $\exists n_0 \in \mathbb{N} \forall n \in \mathbb{N}, n \geq n_0: a_n \leq c_n \leq b_n$,
- (ii) $\lim a_n = \lim b_n$.

Then $\lim c_n$ exists and $\lim c_n = \lim a_n$.

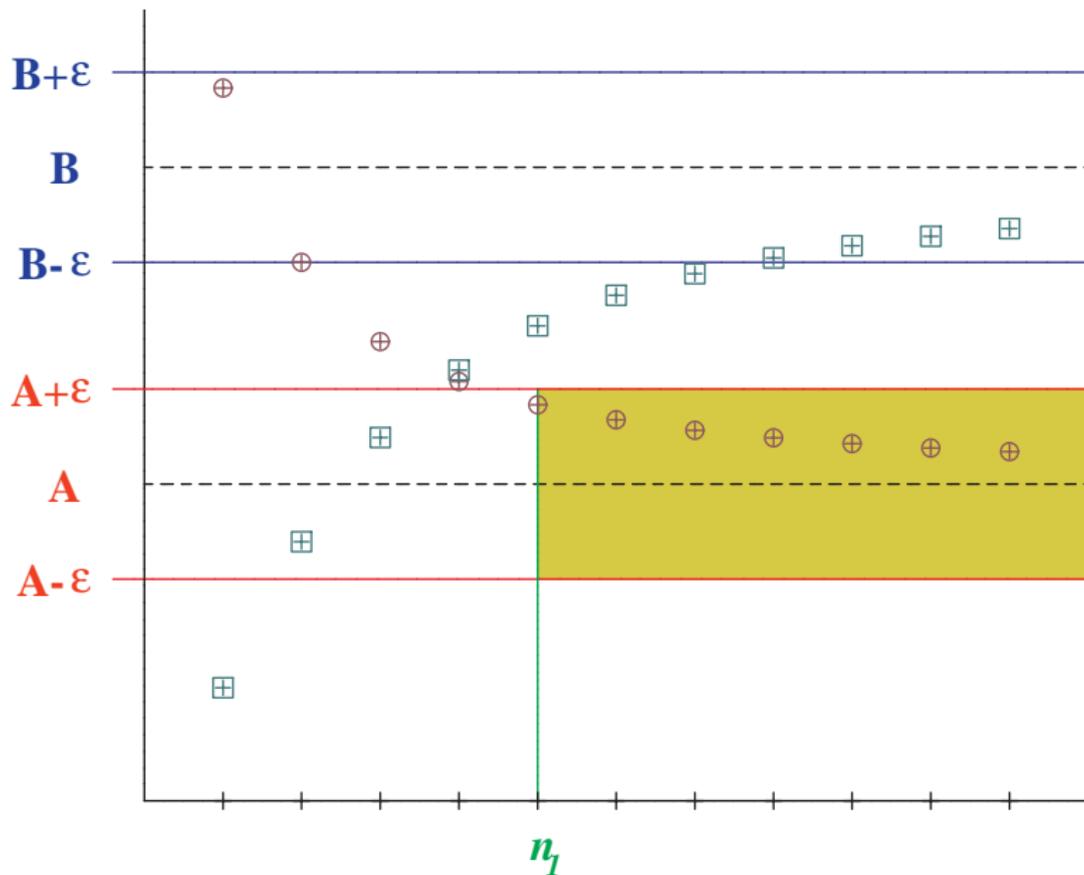
II.2. Convergence of sequences



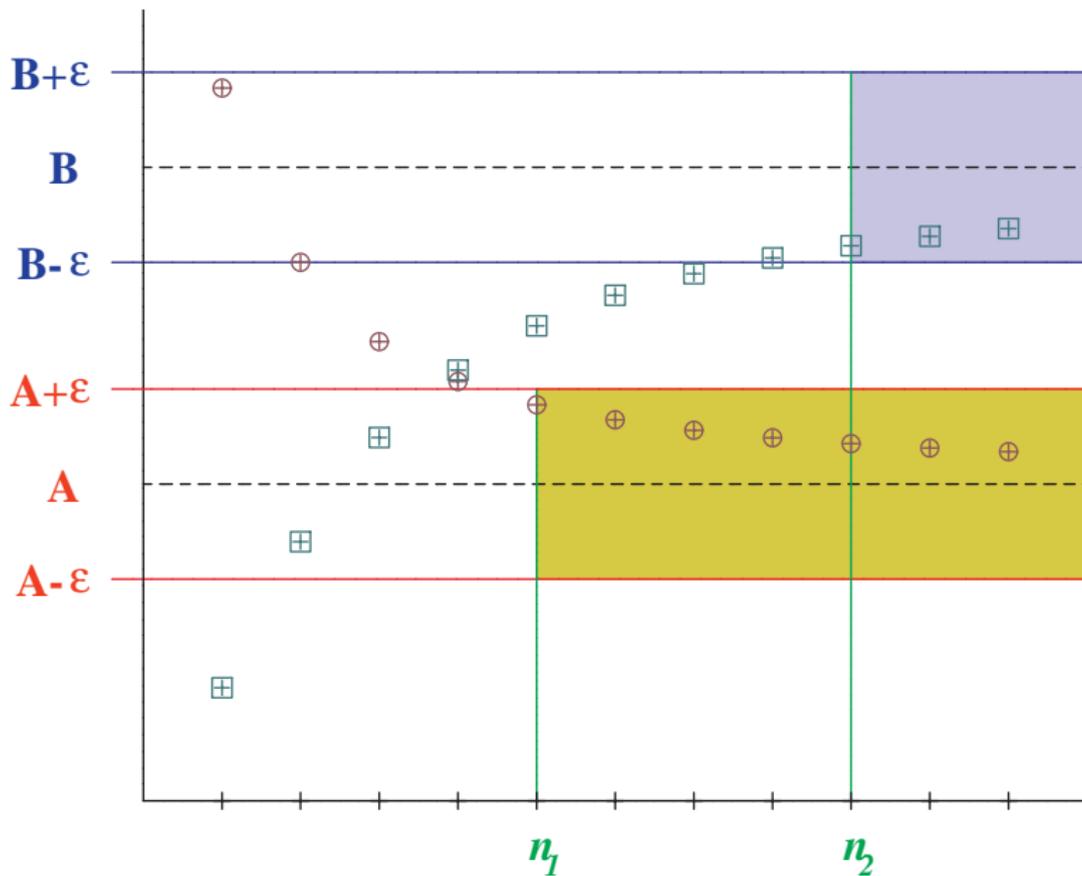
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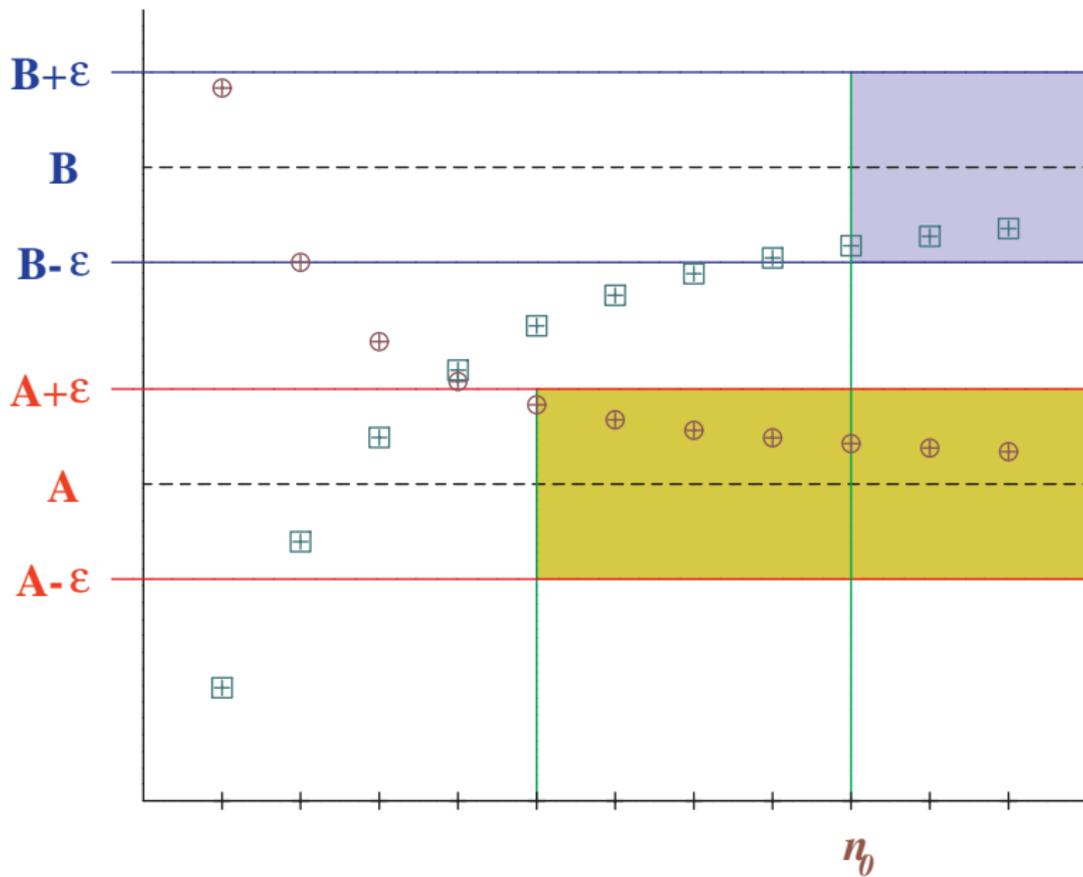
II.2. Convergence of sequences



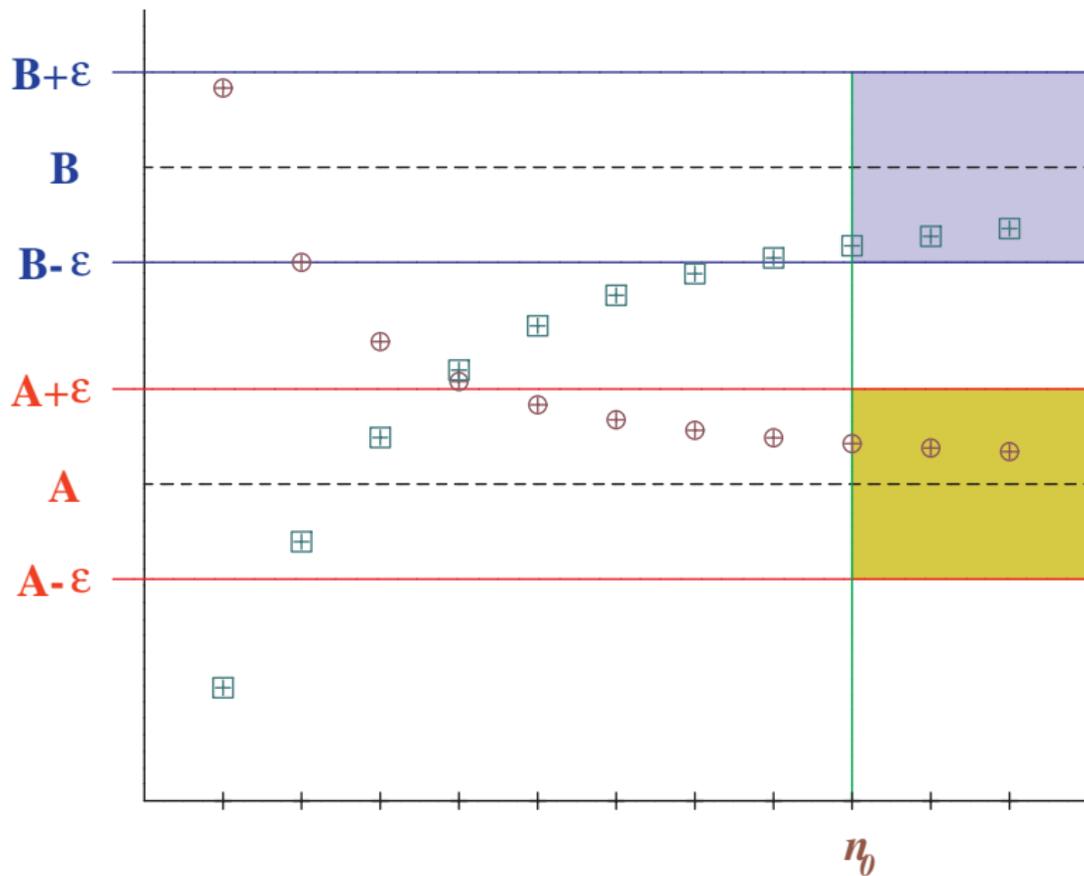
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Definition

We say that a sequence $\{a_n\}$ has a limit $+\infty$ (**plus infinity**) if

$$\forall L \in \mathbb{R} \exists n_0 \in \mathbb{N} \forall n \in \mathbb{N}, n \geq n_0: a_n > L.$$

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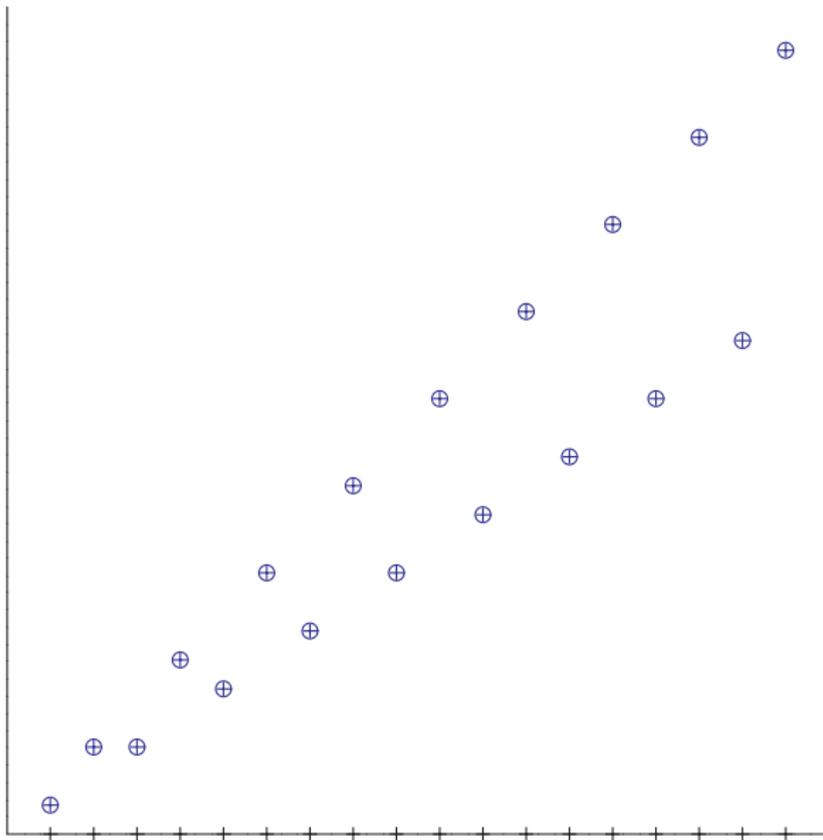
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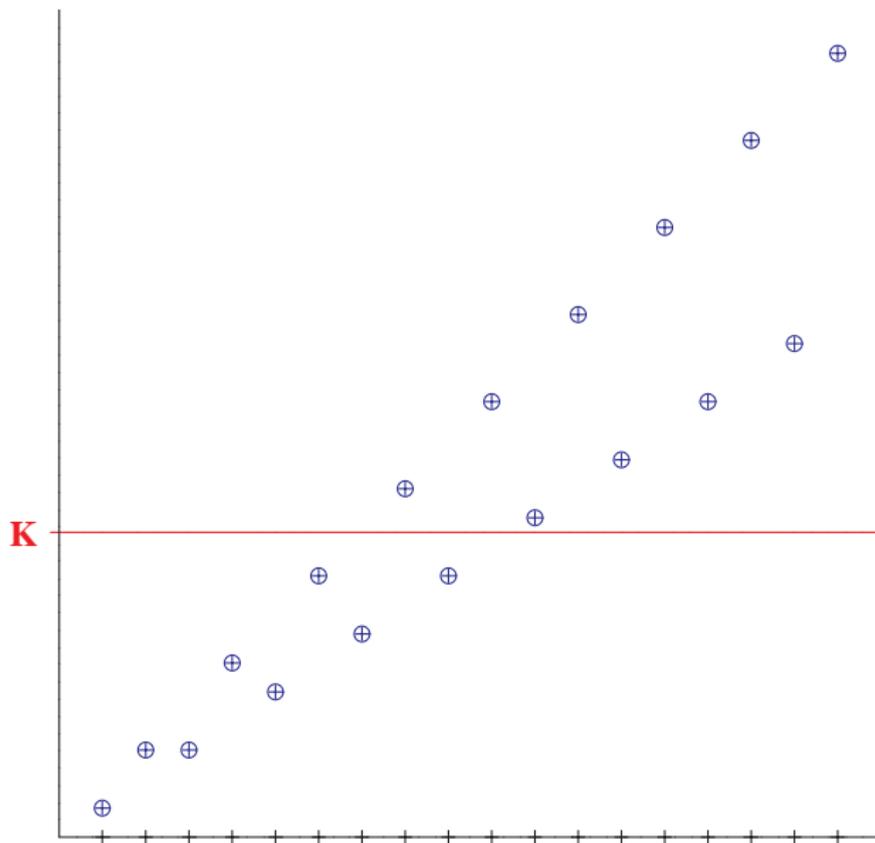
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Theorem 9 on the uniqueness of a limit holds also for the limits $+\infty$ and $-\infty$. If $\lim a_n = +\infty$, then we say that the sequence $\{a_n\}$ **diverges** to $+\infty$, similarly for $-\infty$. If $\lim a_n \in \mathbb{R}$, then we say that the limit is **finite**, if $\lim a_n = +\infty$ or $\lim a_n = -\infty$, then we say that the limit is **infinite**.

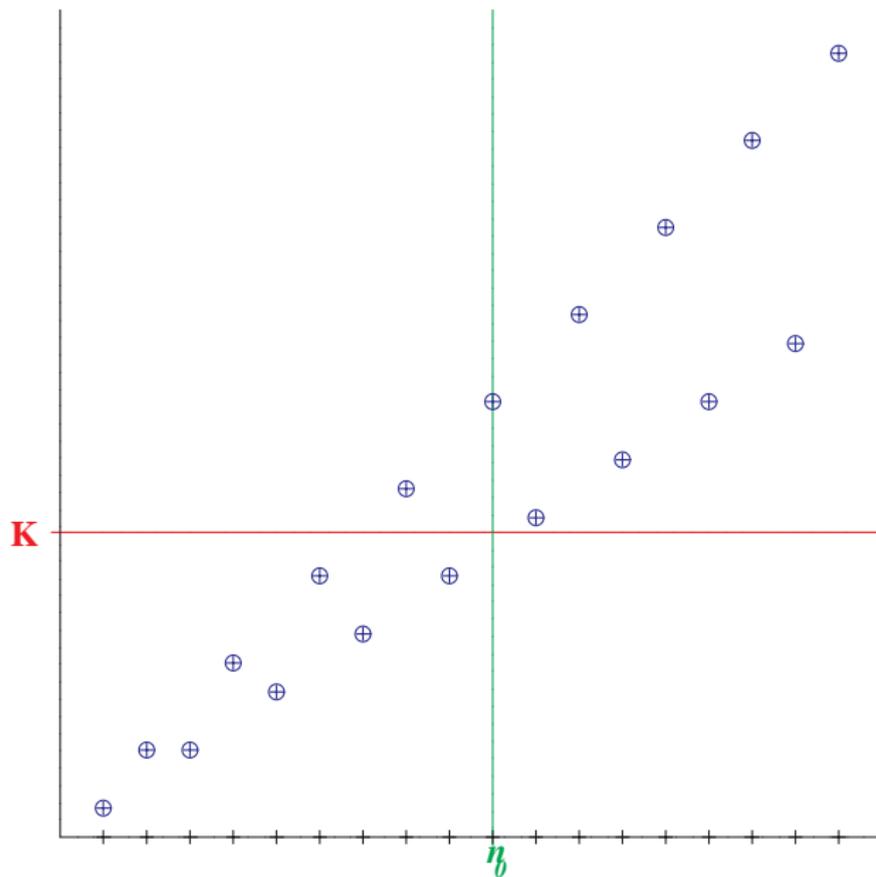
II.3. Infinite limits of sequences



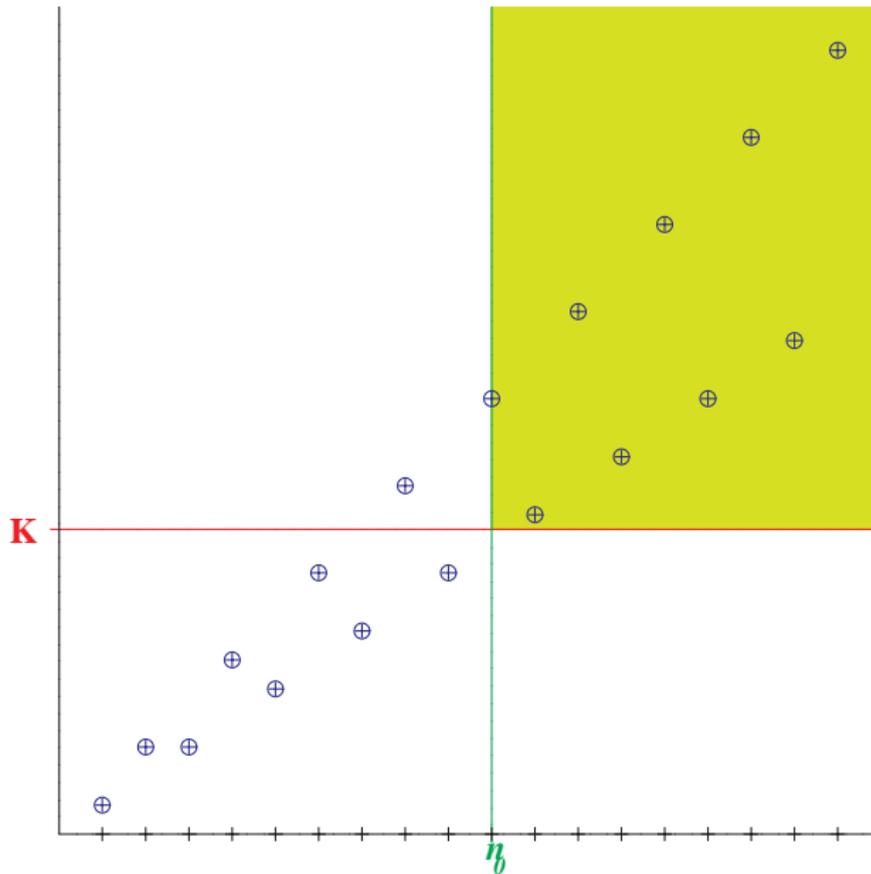
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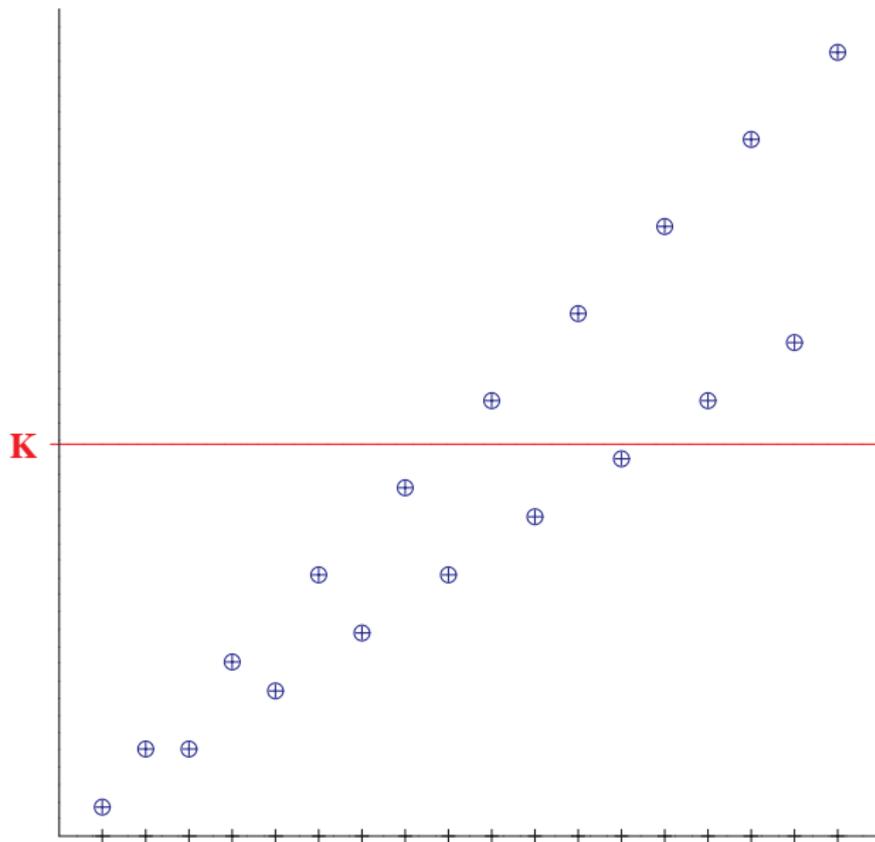
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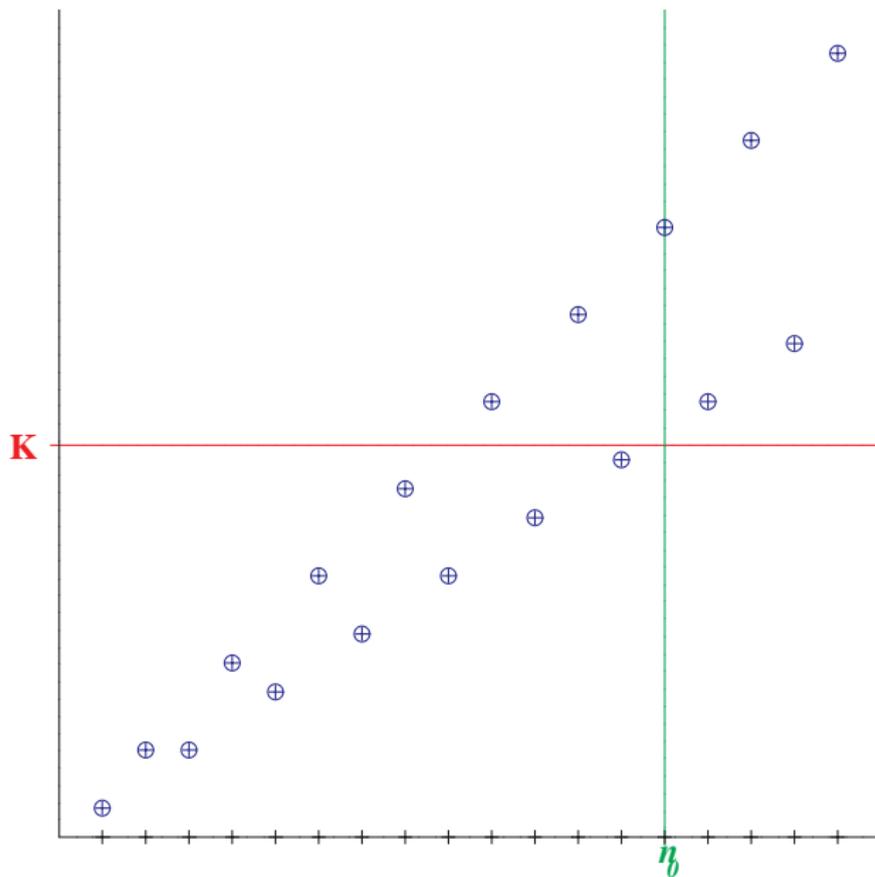
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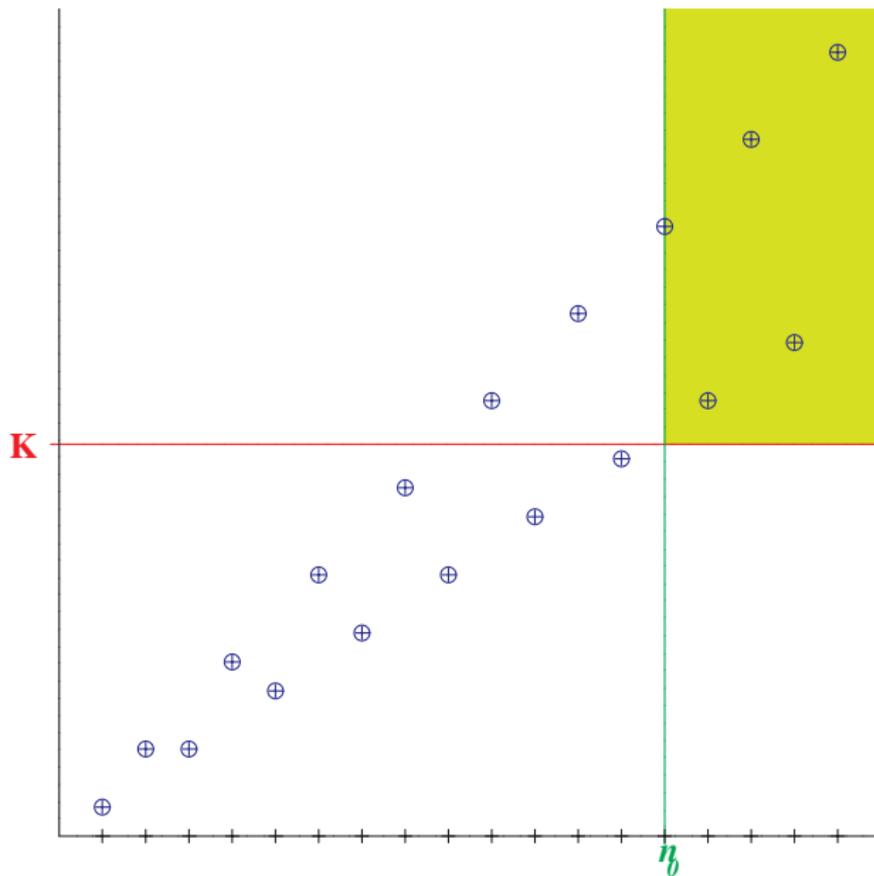
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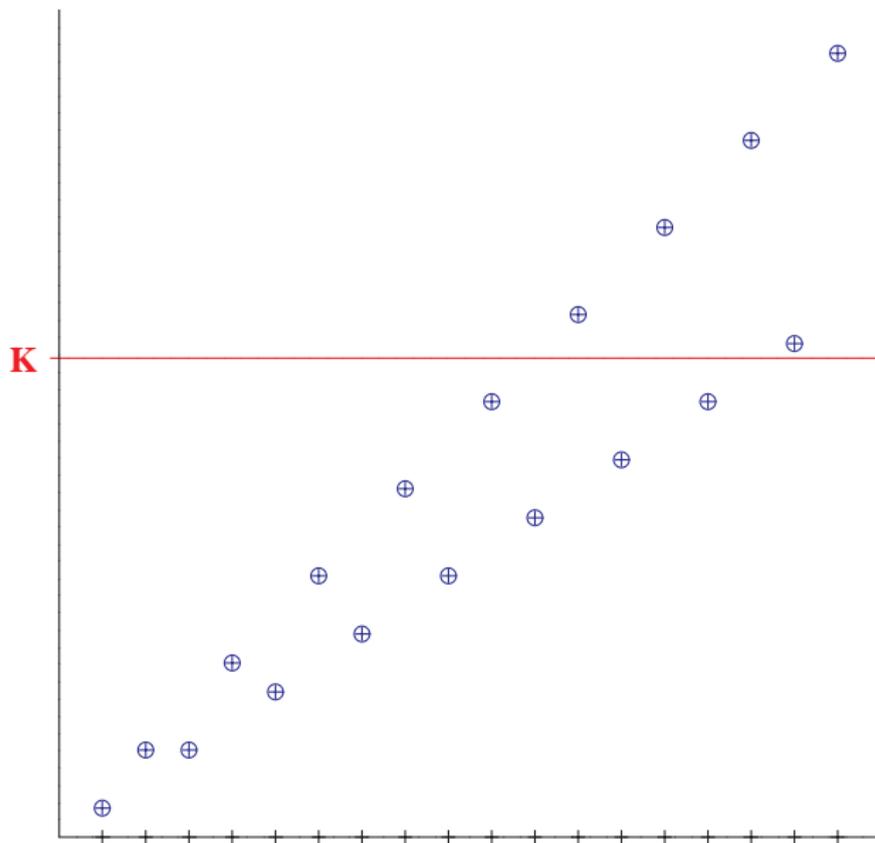
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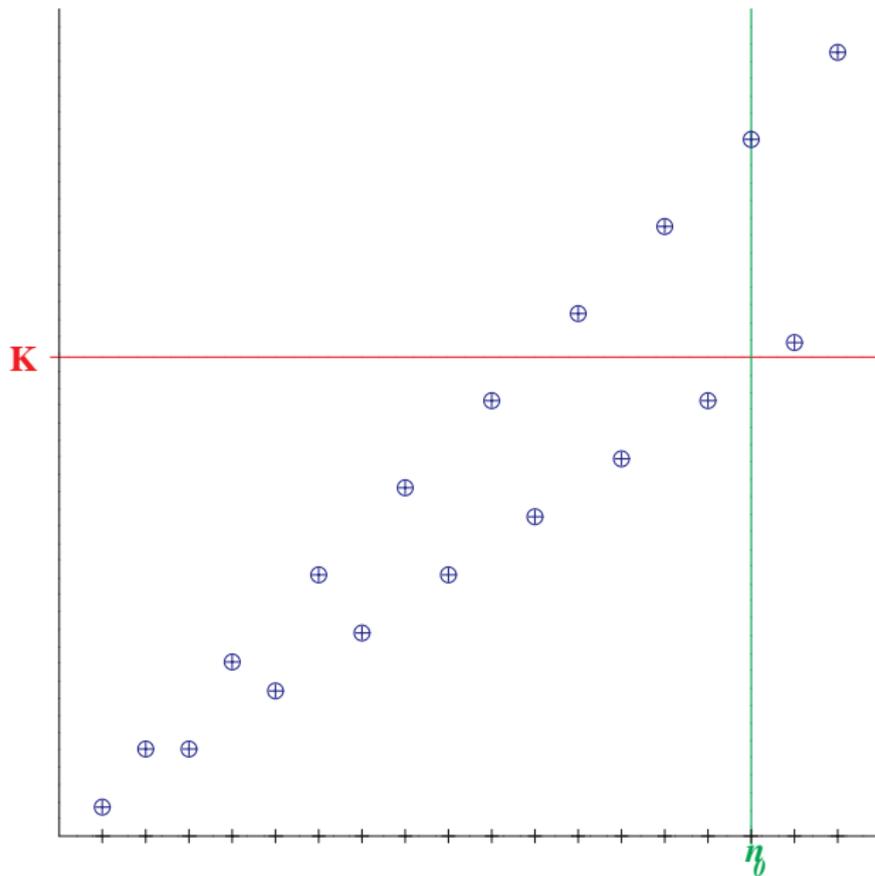
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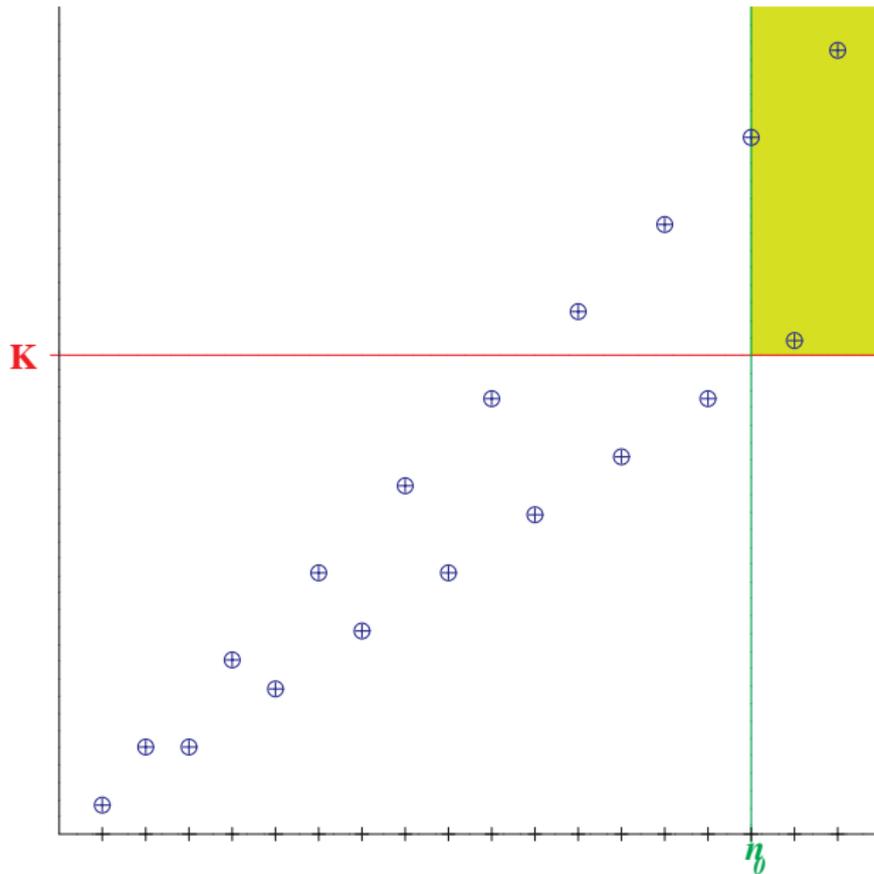
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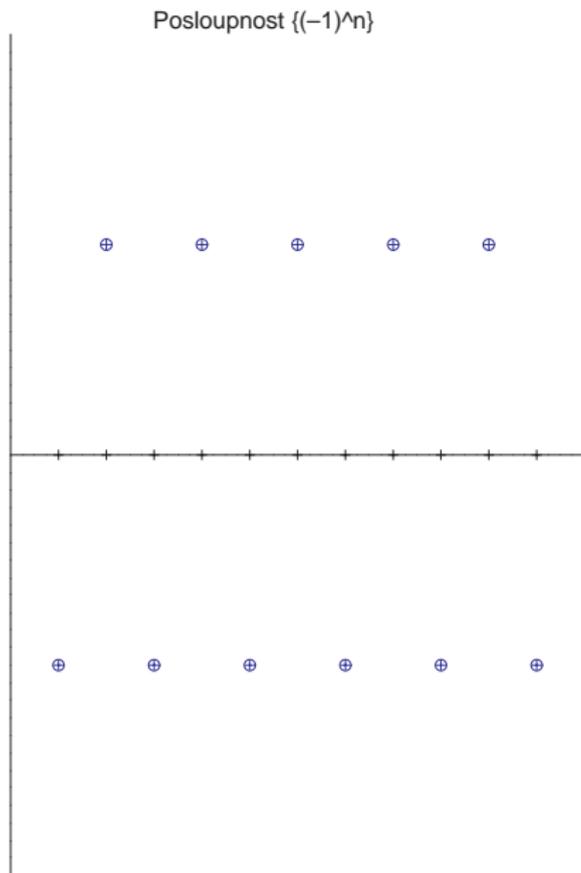
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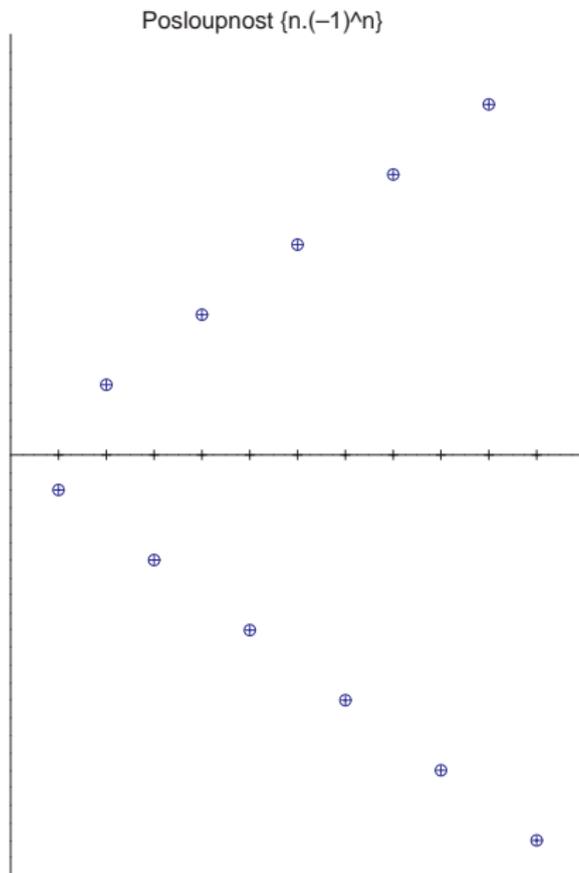
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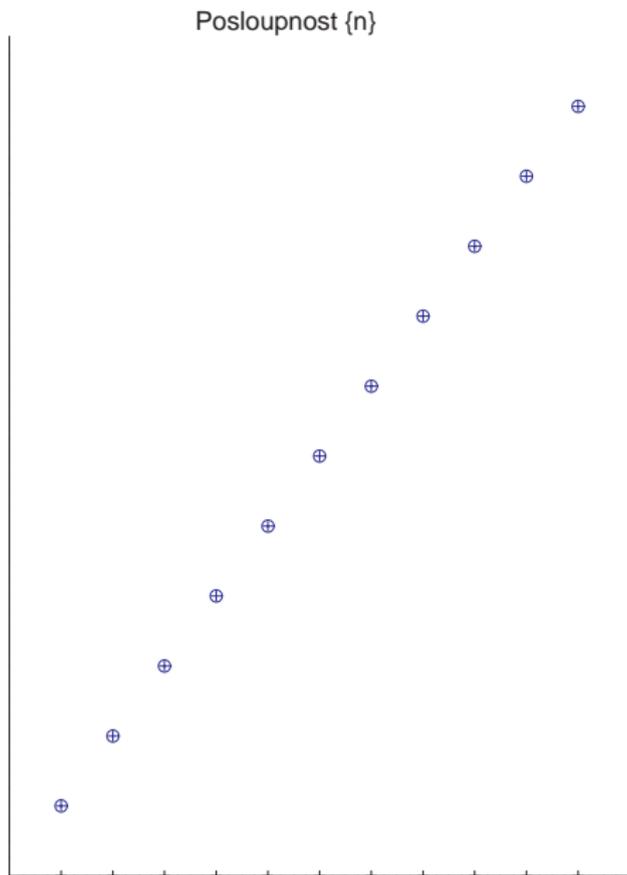
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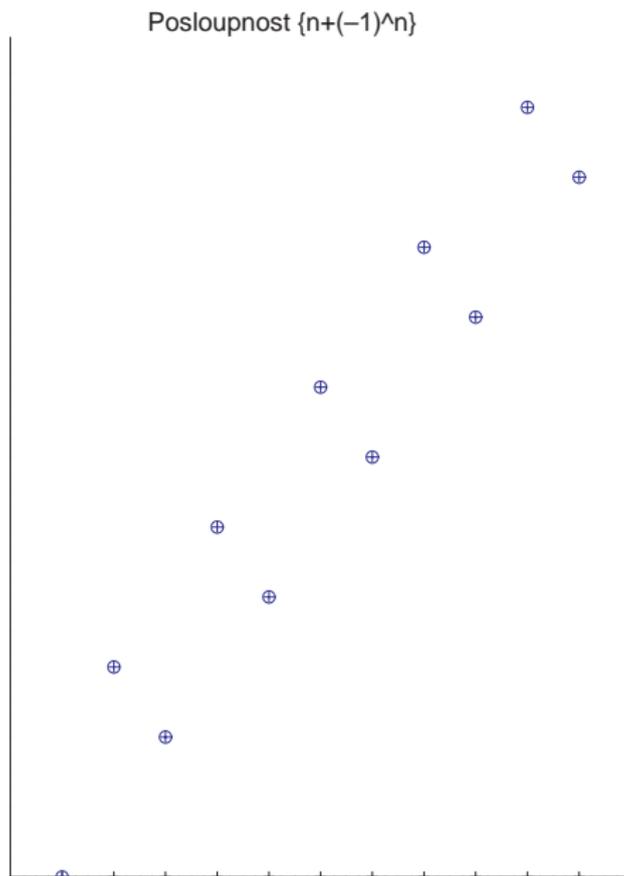
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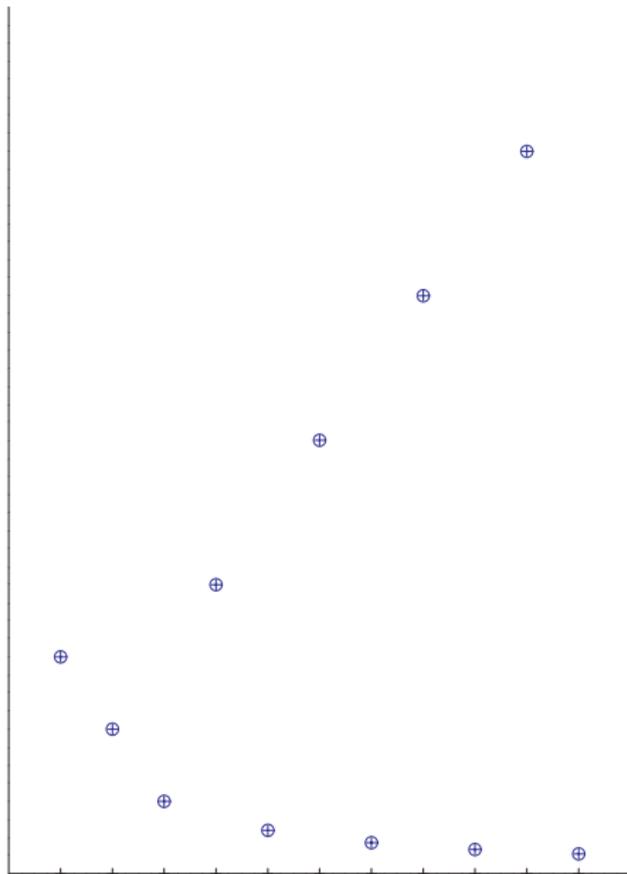
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Theorem 10 does not hold for infinite limits. But:

Theorem 10'

- *Suppose that $\lim a_n = +\infty$. Then the sequence $\{a_n\}$ is not bounded from above, but is bounded from below.*
- *Suppose that $\lim a_n = -\infty$. Then the sequence $\{a_n\}$ is not bounded from below, but is bounded from above.*

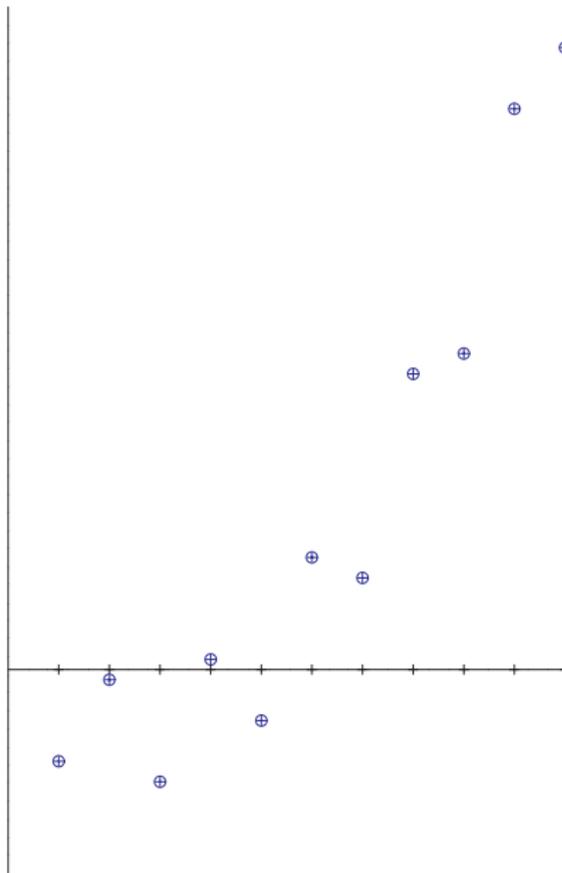
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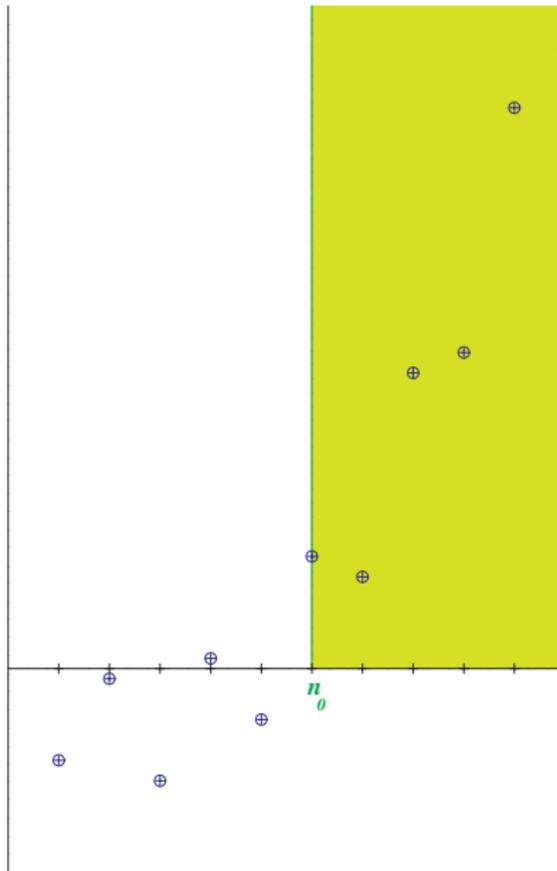
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Theorem 11 (limit of a subsequence) holds also for infinite limits.

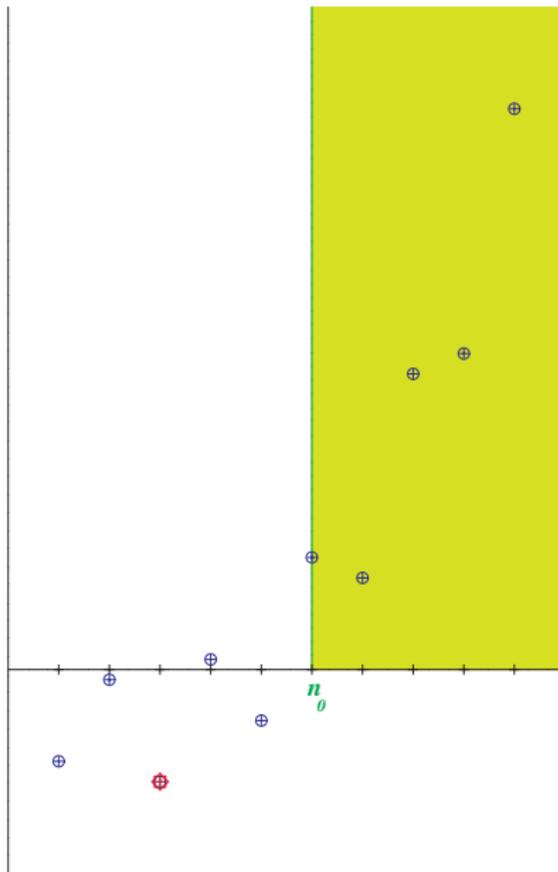
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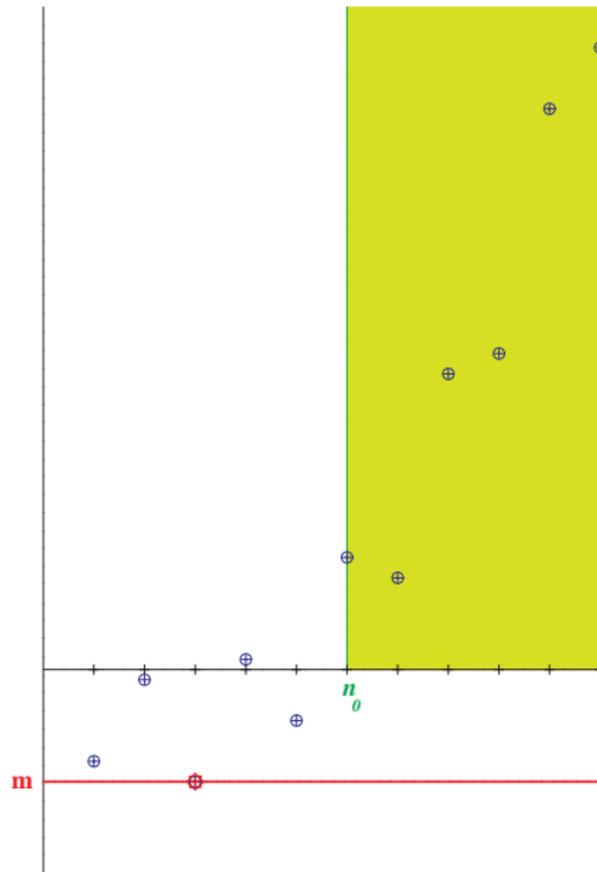
II.3. Infinite limits of sequences



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Definition

We define the **extended real line** by setting

$\mathbb{R}^* = \mathbb{R} \cup \{+\infty, -\infty\}$ with the following extension of operations and ordering from \mathbb{R} :

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- $\frac{a}{\pm\infty} = 0$ pro $a \in \mathbb{R}$.

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- $(+\infty) \cdot 0$, $0 \cdot (+\infty)$, $(-\infty) \cdot 0$, $0 \cdot (-\infty)$,
- $\frac{+\infty}{+\infty}$, $\frac{+\infty}{-\infty}$, $\frac{-\infty}{-\infty}$, $\frac{-\infty}{+\infty}$, $\frac{a}{0}$ for $a \in \mathbb{R}^*$.

Theorem 12' (arithmetics of limits)

Suppose that $\lim a_n = A \in \mathbb{R}^$ and $\lim b_n = B \in \mathbb{R}^*$. Then*

(i) $\lim(a_n \pm b_n) = A \pm B$ if the right-hand side is defined,

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Theorem 16

Suppose that $\lim a_n = A \in \mathbb{R}^$, $A > 0$, $\lim b_n = 0$ and there is $n_0 \in \mathbb{N}$ such that we have $b_n > 0$ for every $n \in \mathbb{N}$, $n \geq n_0$. Then $\lim a_n/b_n = +\infty$.*

Theorem 14 (limits and ordering) and Theorem 15 (sandwich theorem) hold also for infinite limits. Even the following modification holds:

Theorem 15' (one policeman)

Let $\{a_n\}$ and $\{b_n\}$ be two sequences.

- If $\lim a_n = +\infty$ and there is $n_0 \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $b_n \geq a_n$ for every $n \in \mathbb{N}$, $n \geq n_0$, then $\lim b_n = +\infty$.
- If $\lim a_n = -\infty$ and there is $n_0 \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $b_n \leq a_n$ for every $n \in \mathbb{N}$, $n \geq n_0$, then $\lim b_n = -\infty$.

Definition

Let $A \subset \mathbb{R}$ be non-empty. If A is not bounded from above, then we define $\sup A = +\infty$. If A is not bounded from below, then we define $\inf A = -\infty$.

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Lemma 17

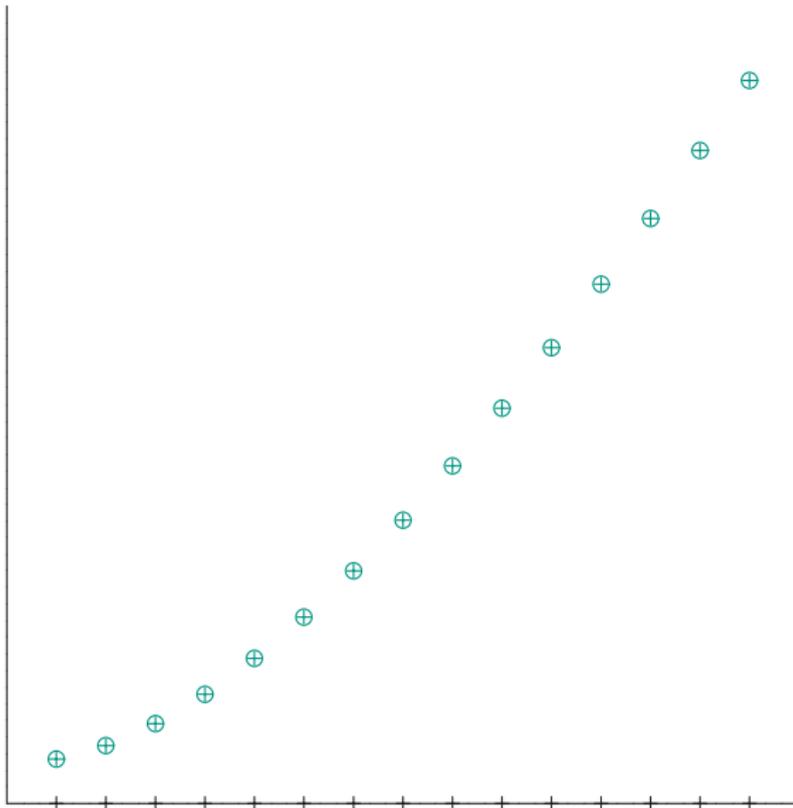
Let $M \subset \mathbb{R}$ be non-empty and $G \in \mathbb{R}^$. Then the following statements are equivalent:*

- (i) $G = \sup M$.
- (ii) *The number G is an upper bound of M and there exists a sequence $\{x_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$ of members of M such that $\lim x_n = G$.*

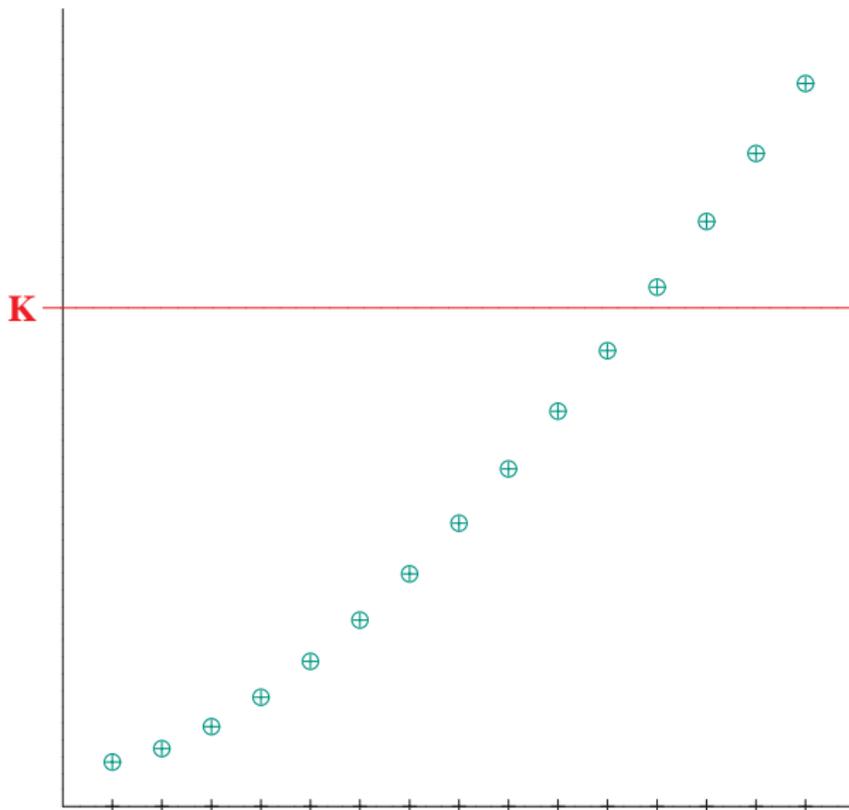
Theorem 18 (limit of a monotone sequence)

Every monotone sequence has a limit. If $\{a_n\}$ is non-decreasing, then $\lim a_n = \sup\{a_n; n \in \mathbb{N}\}$. If $\{a_n\}$ is non-increasing, then $\lim a_n = \inf\{a_n; n \in \mathbb{N}\}$.

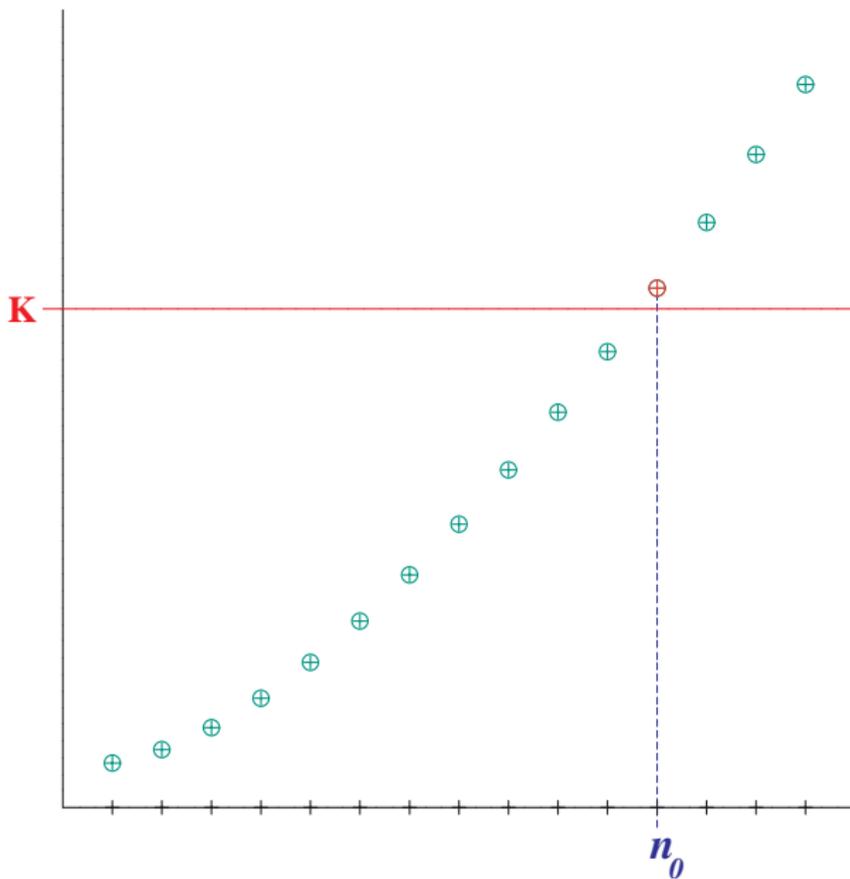
II.4. Deeper theorems on limits of sequences



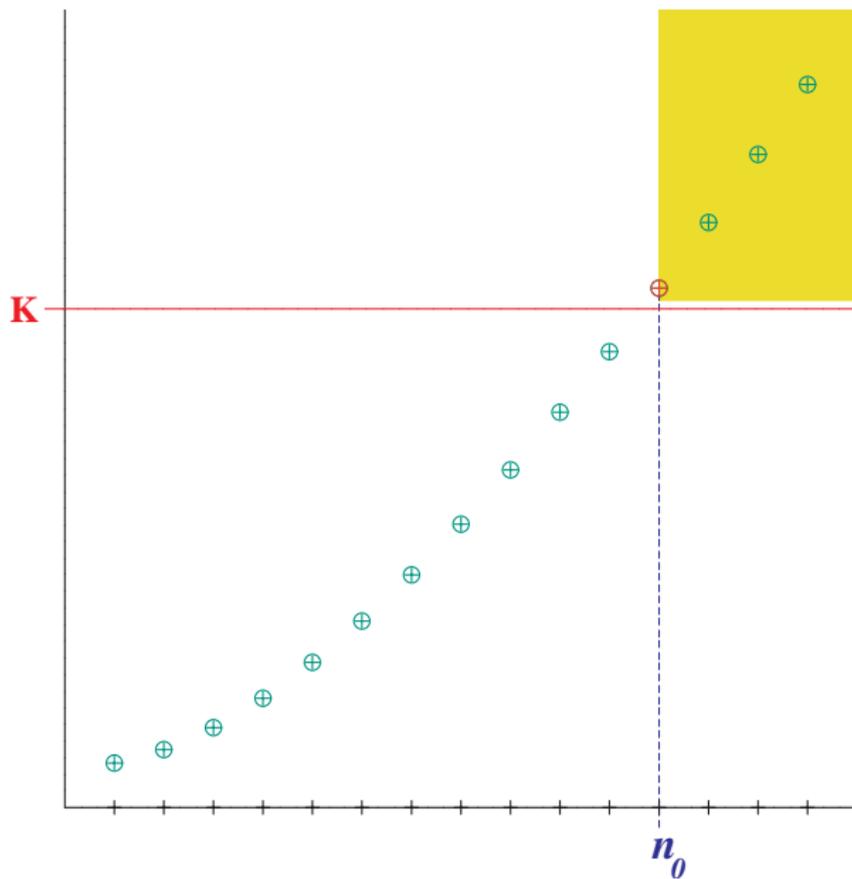
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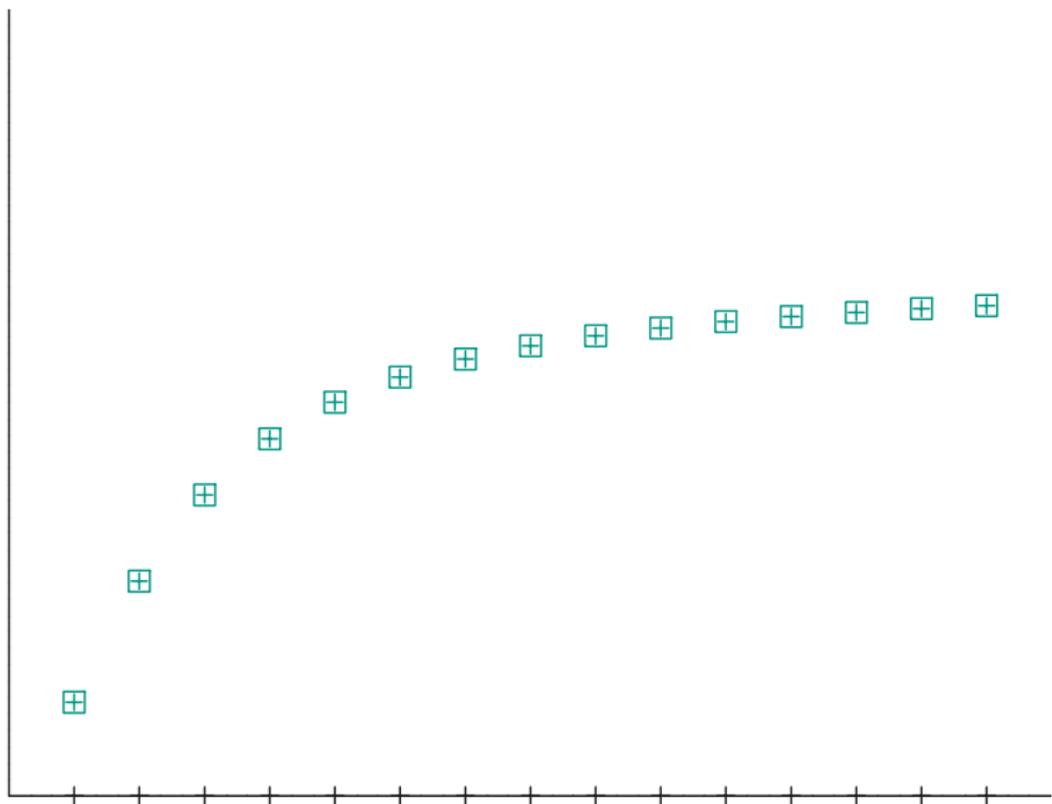
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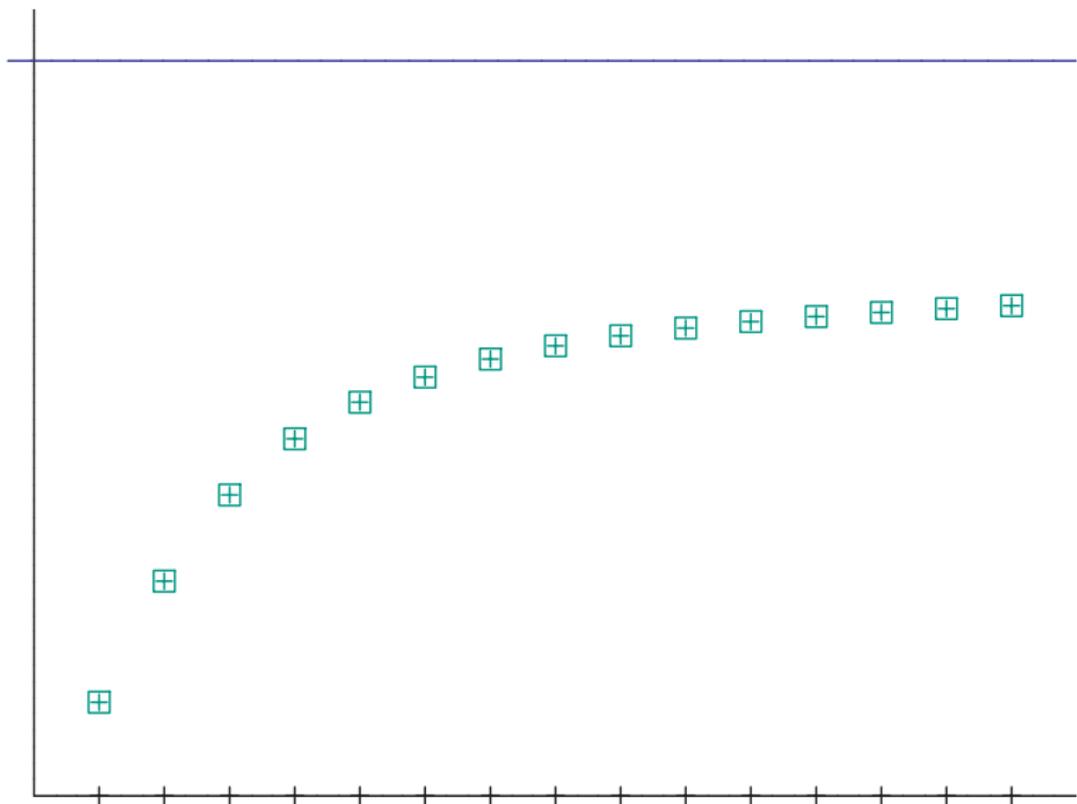
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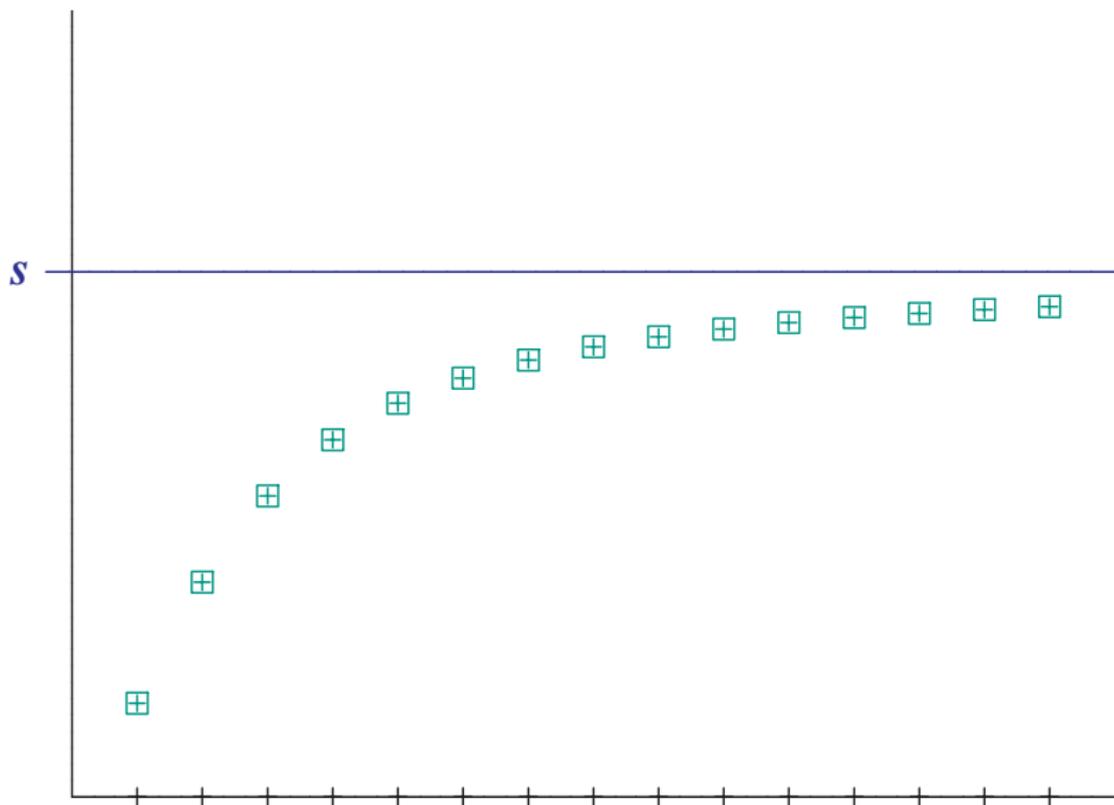
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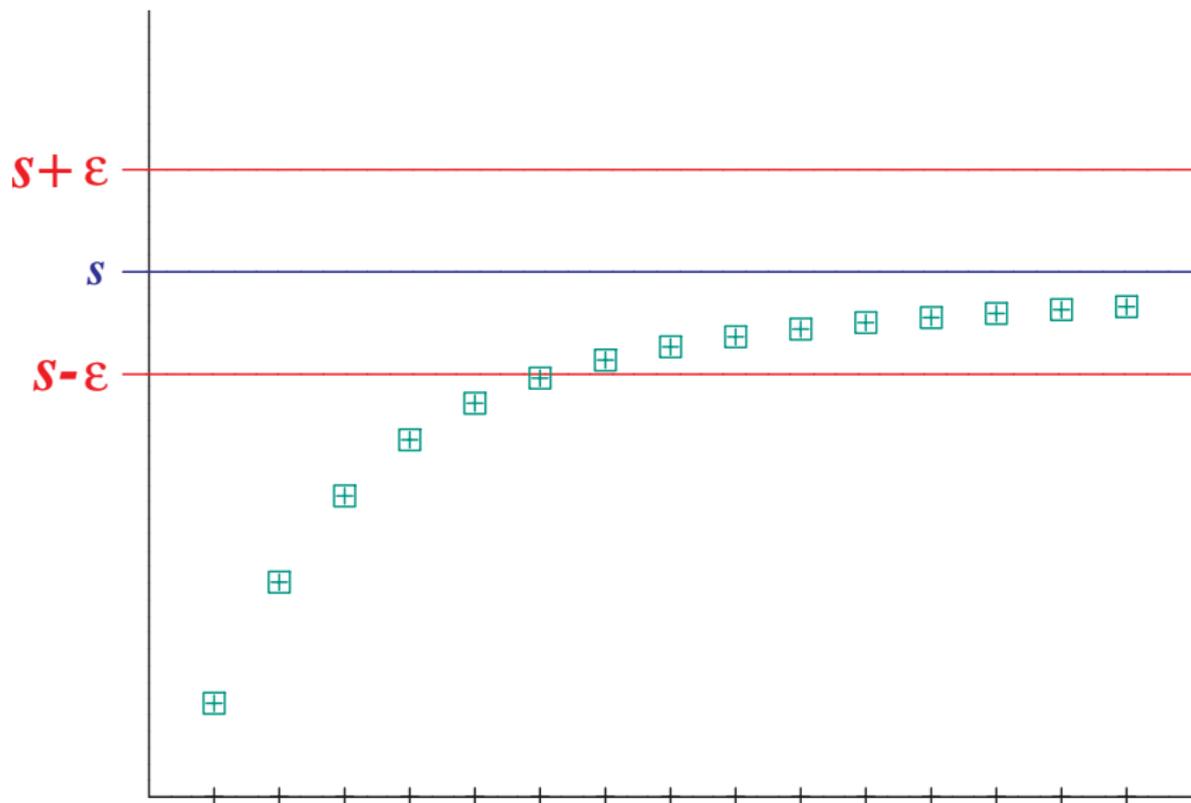
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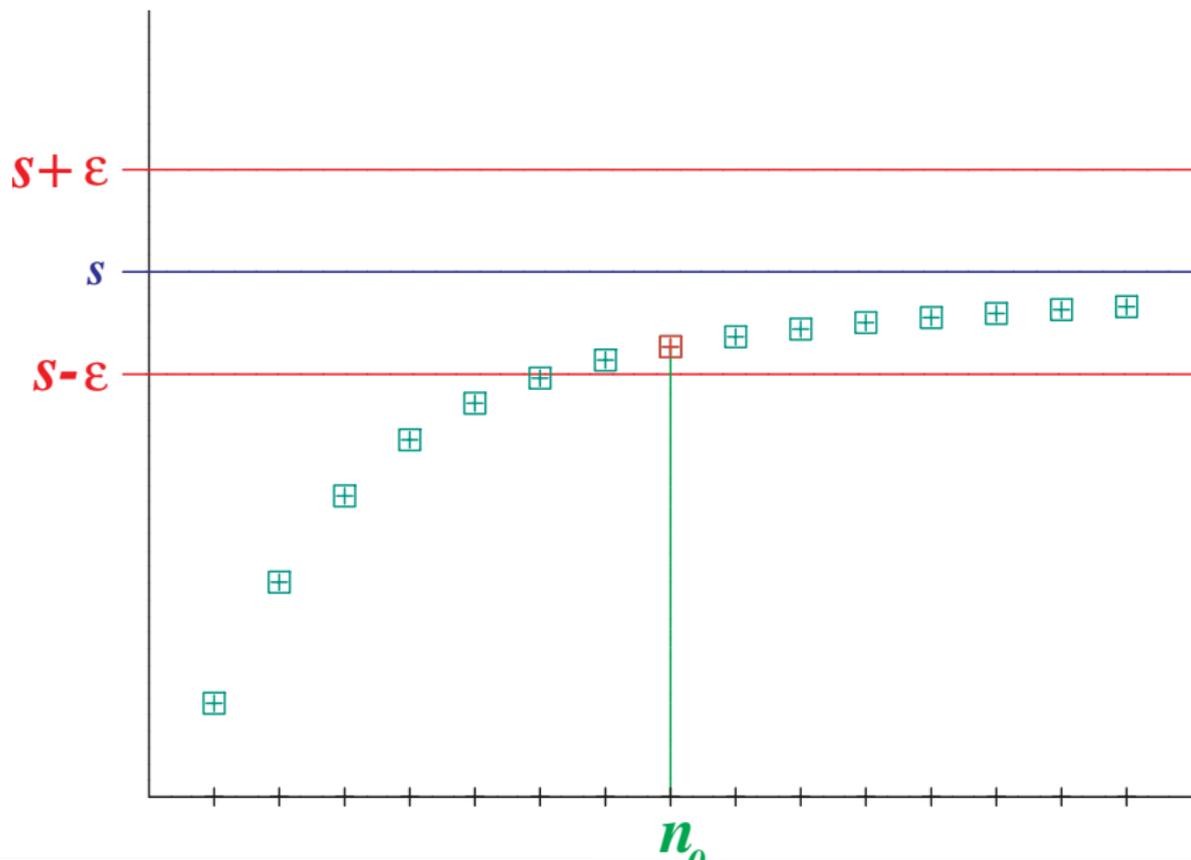
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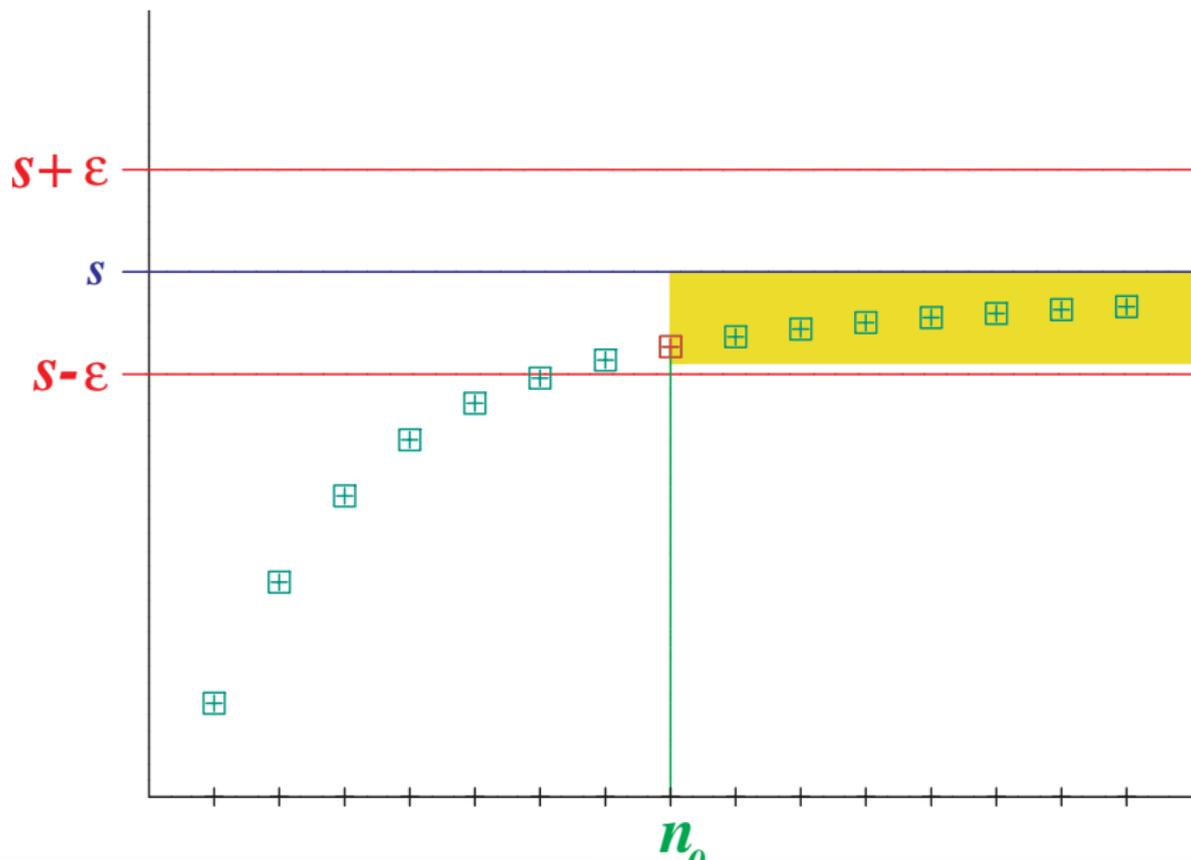
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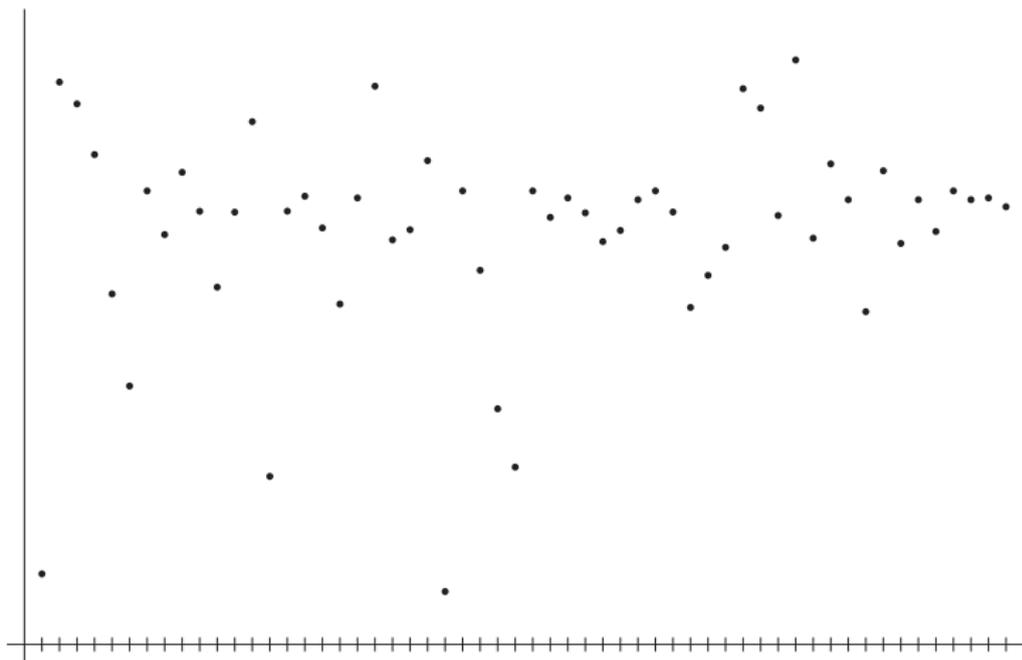
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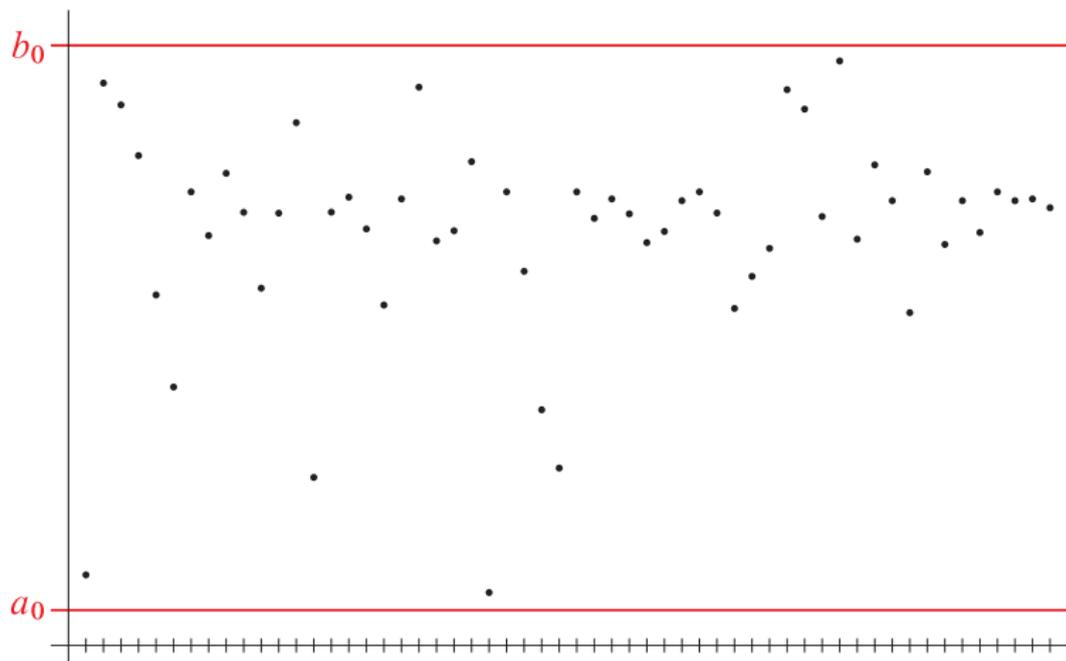
Theorem 19 (Bolzano-Weierstraß)

Every bounded sequence contains a convergent subsequence.

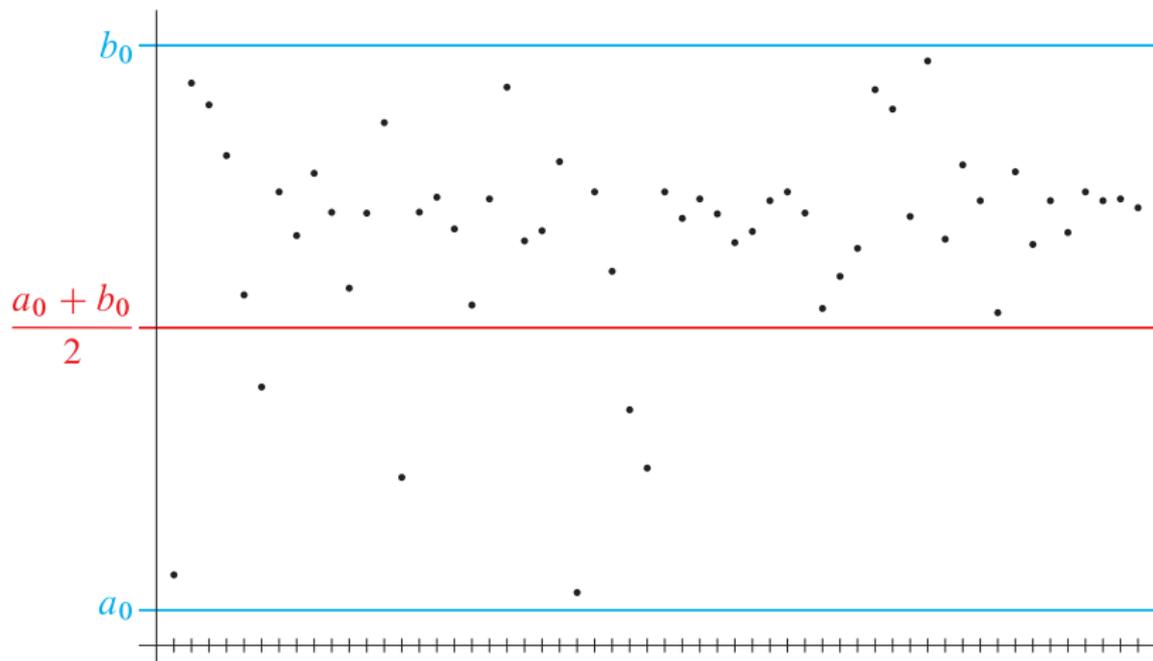
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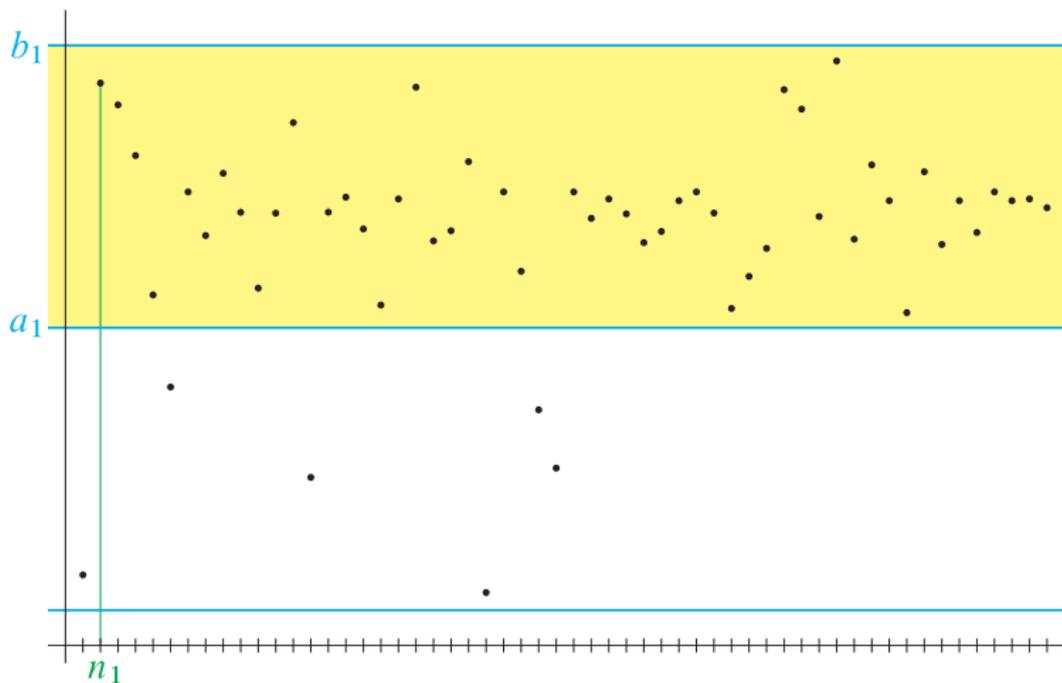
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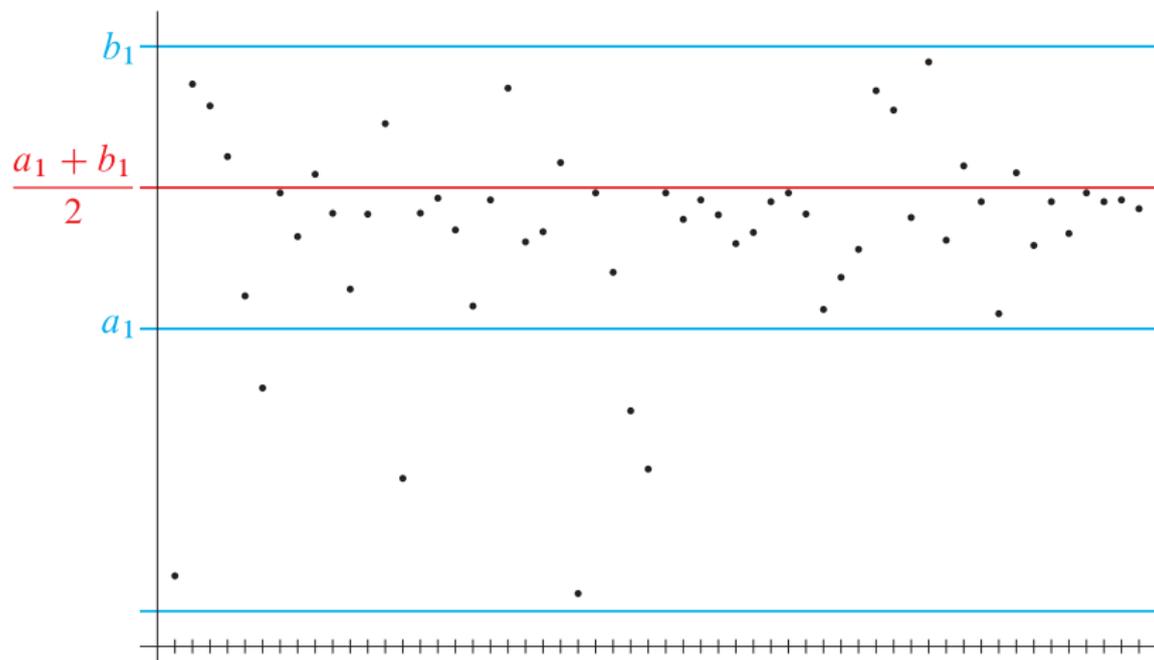
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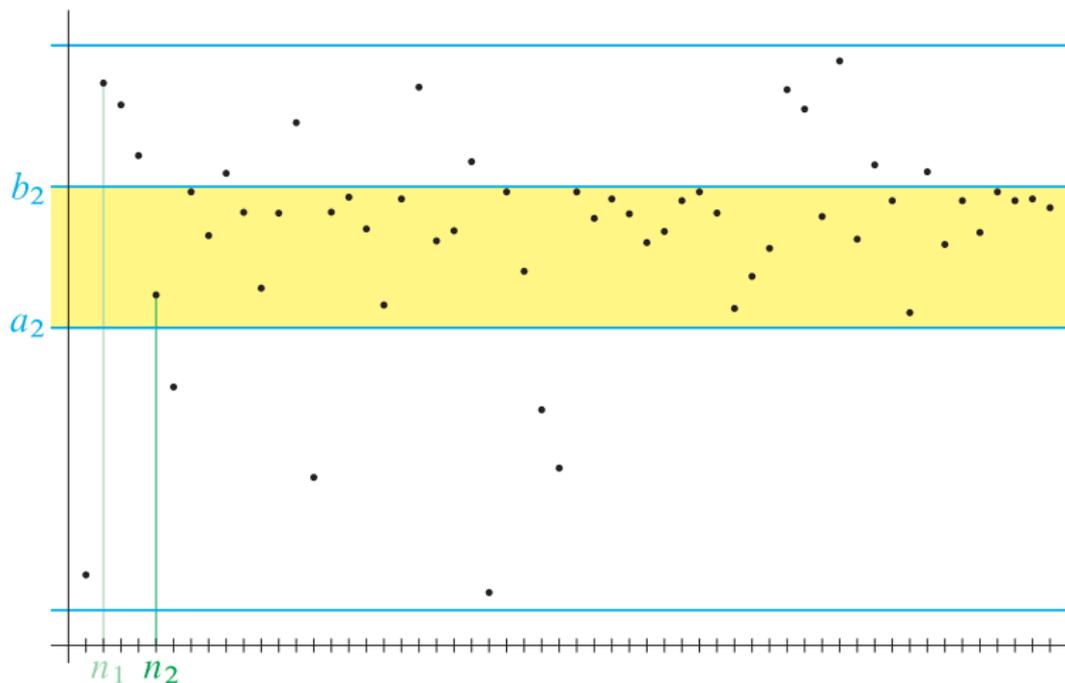
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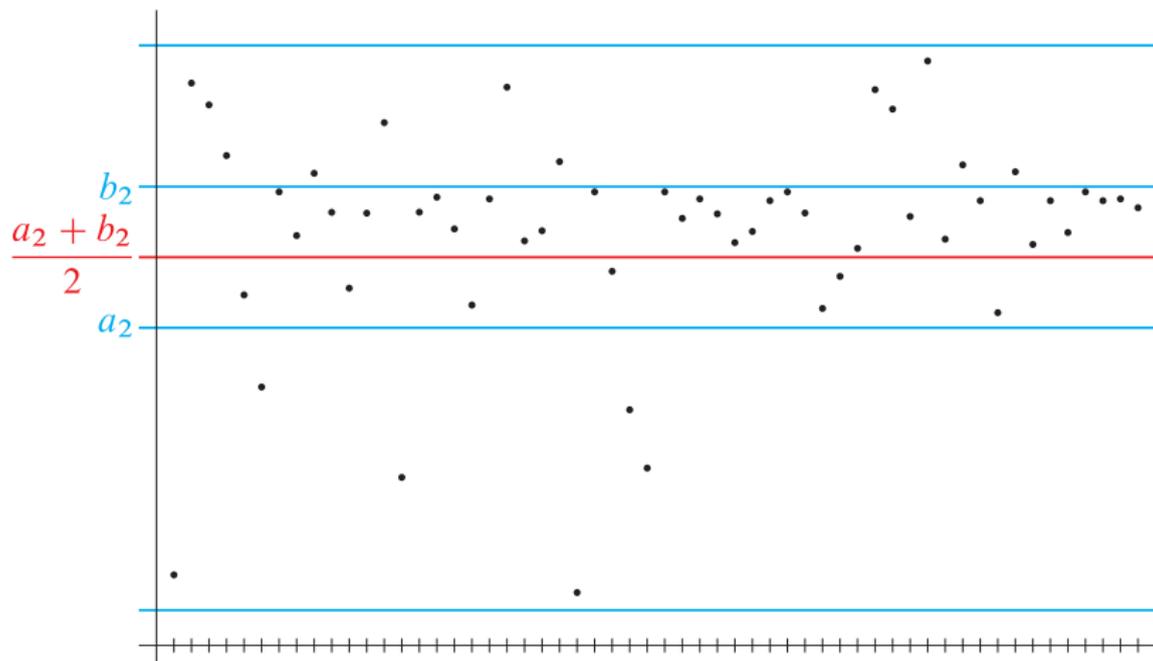
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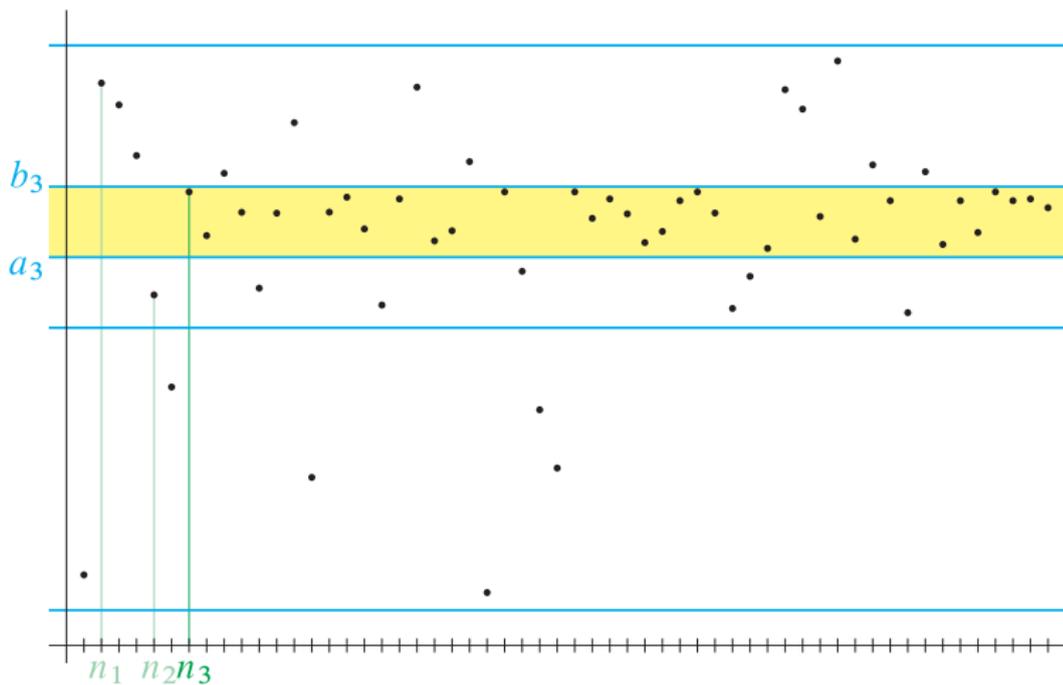
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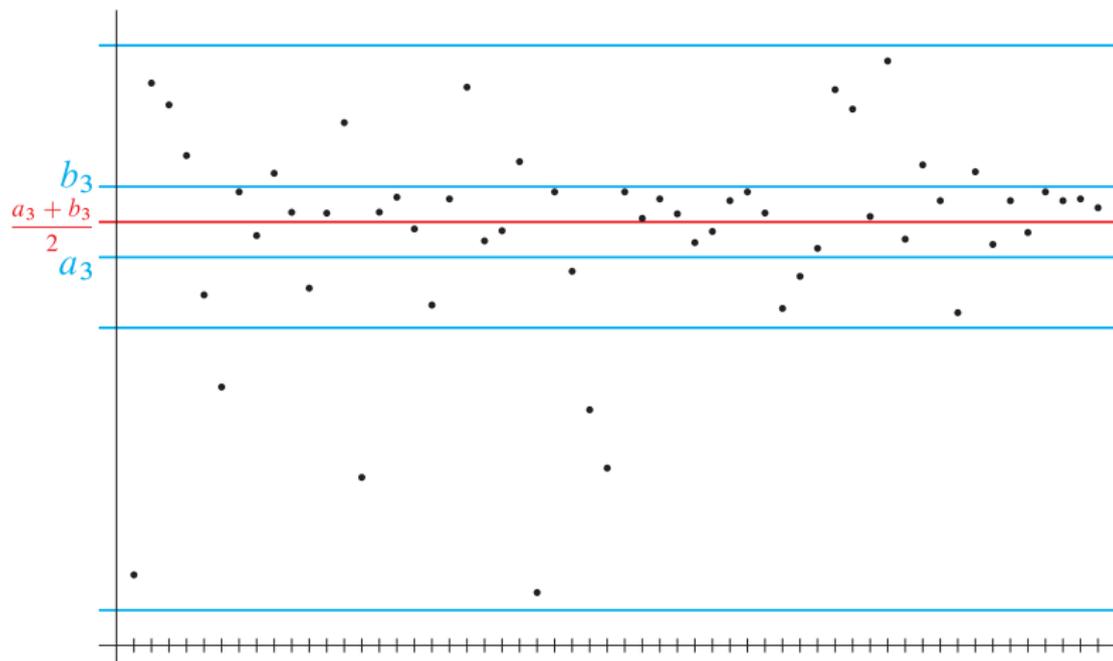
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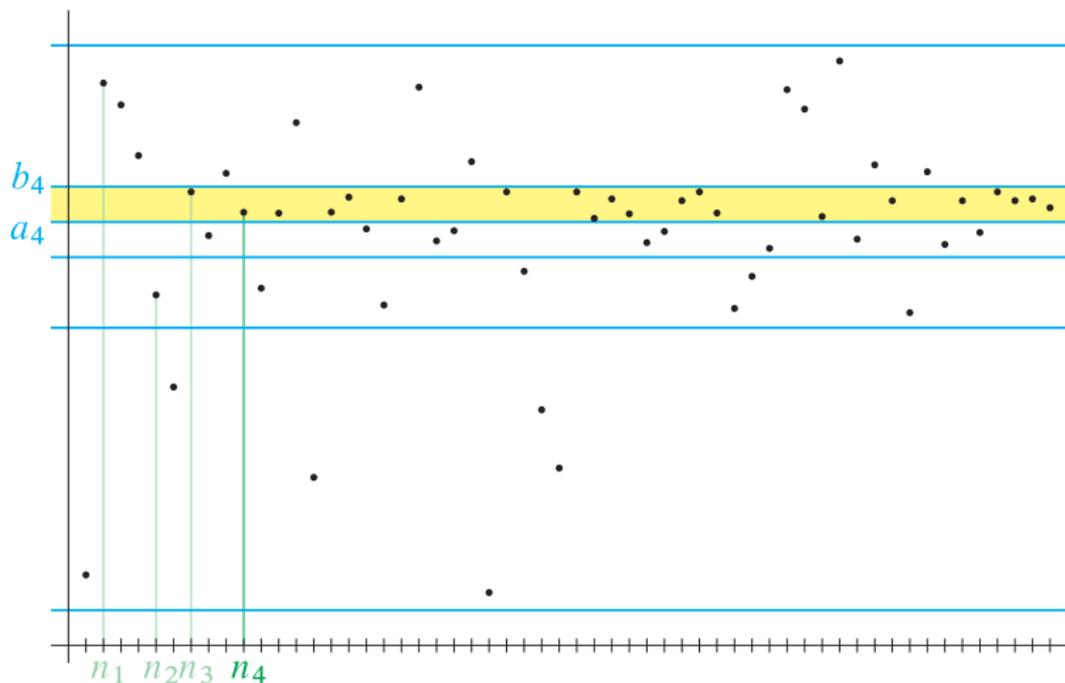
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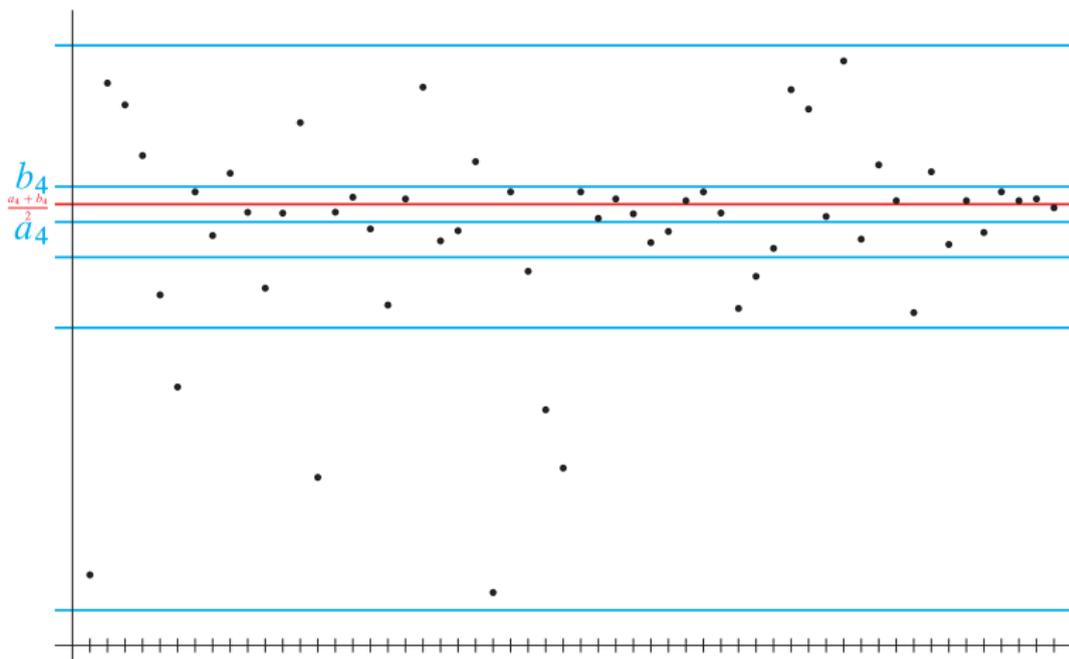
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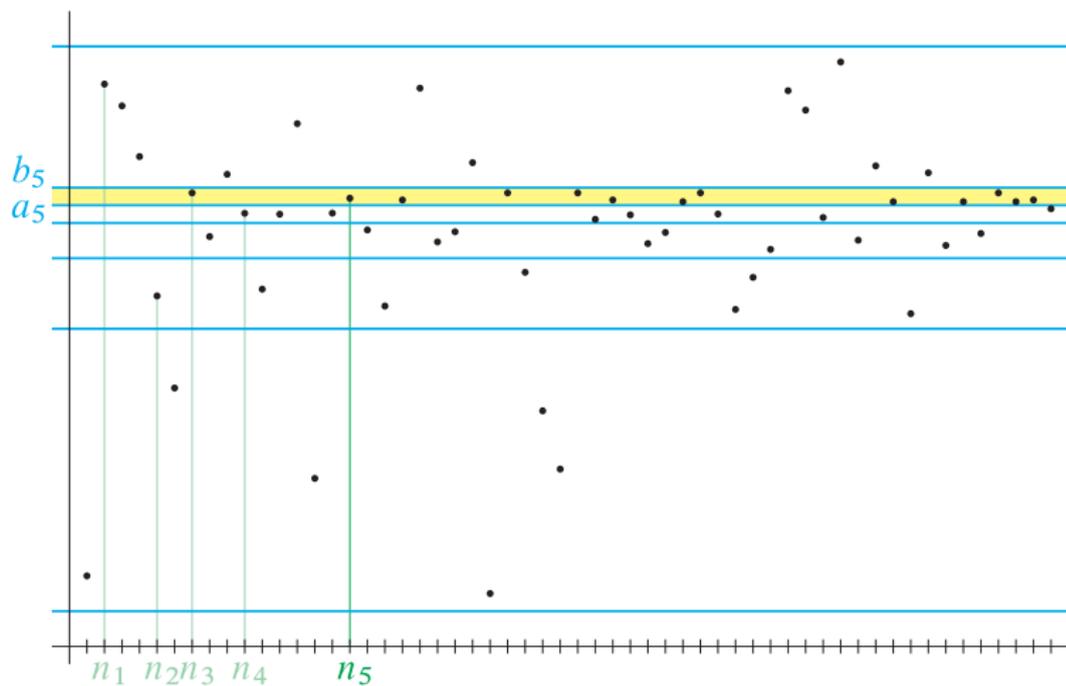
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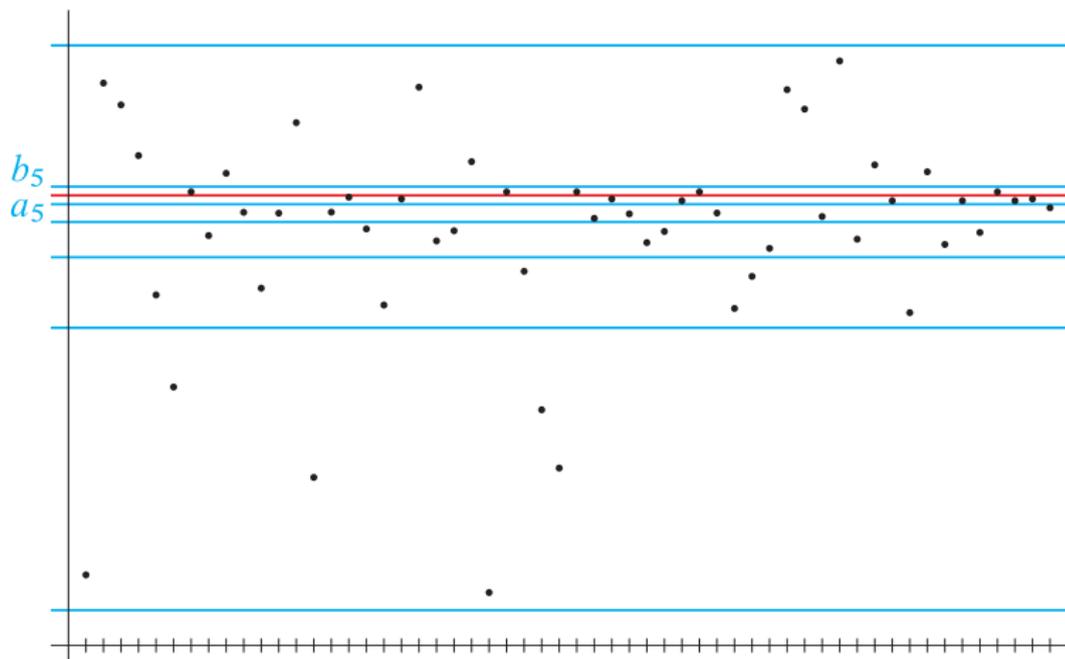
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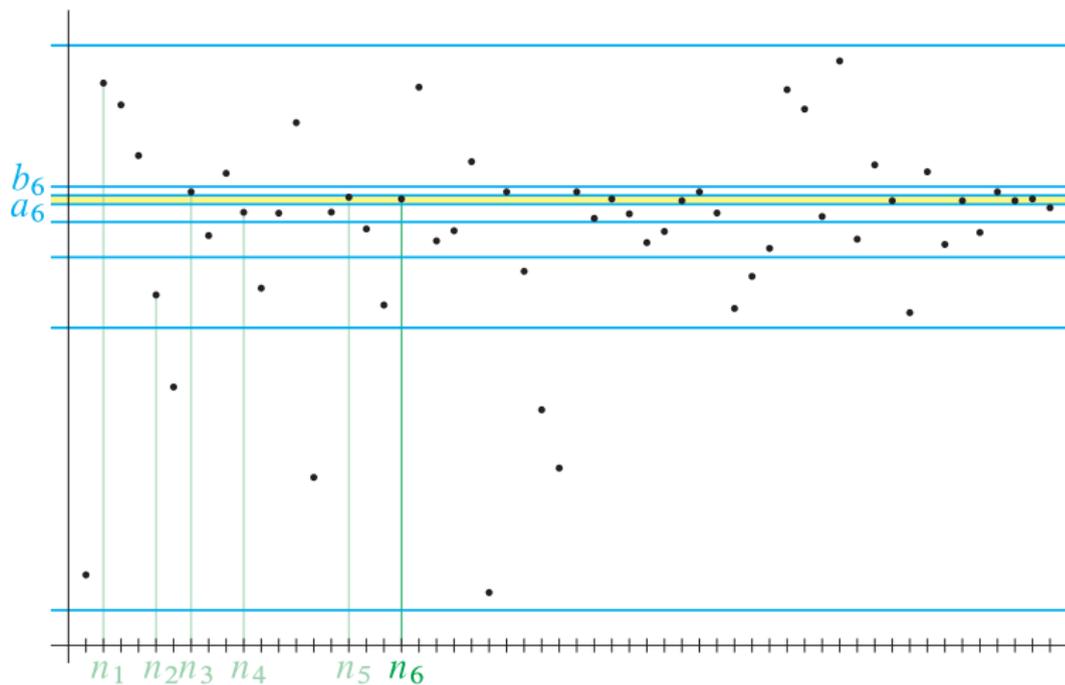
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- By $f: x \mapsto f(x)$ we denote the fact that the mapping f assigns $f(x)$ to an element x .
- The set A from the definition of the mapping f is called the **domain** of f and it is denoted by D_f .

Definition

Let $f: A \rightarrow B$ be a mapping.

- The subset $G_f = \{[x, y] \in A \times B; x \in A, y = f(x)\}$ of the Cartesian product $A \times B$ is called the **graph of the mapping f** .

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- The set $f(A)$ is called the **range** of the mapping f , it is denoted by R_f .
- The **pre-image** of the set $W \subset B$ under the mapping f is the set

$$f_{-1}(W) = \{x \in A; f(x) \in W\}.$$

Remark

Let $f: A \rightarrow B$, $X, Y \subset A$, $U, V \subset B$. Then

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- $f(X \cup Y) = f(X) \cup f(Y)$,
- $f(X \cap Y) \subset f(X) \cap f(Y)$.

Definition

Let A, B, C be sets, $C \subset A$ and $f: A \rightarrow B$. The mapping $\tilde{f}: C \rightarrow B$ given by the formula $\tilde{f}(x) = f(x)$ for each $x \in C$ is called the **restriction of the mapping f to the set C** . It is denoted by $f|_C$.

Definition

Let $f: A \rightarrow B$ and $g: B \rightarrow C$ be two mappings. The symbol $g \circ f$ denotes a mapping from A to C defined by

$$(g \circ f)(x) = g(f(x)).$$

This mapping is called a **compound mapping** or a **composition of the mapping f and the mapping g** .

Definition

We say that a mapping $f: A \rightarrow B$

- maps the set A **onto** the set B if $f(A) = B$, i.e. if to each $y \in B$ there exist $x \in A$ such that $f(x) = y$;

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$$\forall x_1, x_2 \in A: x_1 \neq x_2 \Rightarrow f(x_1) \neq f(x_2),$$

- is a **bijection of A onto B** (or a **bijective mapping**), if it is at the same time one-to-one and maps A onto B .

Definition

Let $f: A \rightarrow B$ be bijective (i.e. one-to-one and onto). An **inverse mapping** $f^{-1}: B \rightarrow A$ is a mapping that to each $y \in B$ assigns a (uniquely determined) element $x \in A$ satisfying $f(x) = y$.

IV. Functions of one real variable

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Definition

A **function f of one real variable** (or a **function** for short) is a mapping $f: M \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, where M is a subset of real numbers.

Definition

A function $f: J \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is **increasing** on an interval J , if for each pair $x_1, x_2 \in J$, $x_1 < x_2$ the inequality $f(x_1) < f(x_2)$ holds. Analogously we define a function **decreasing** (**non-decreasing**, **non-increasing**) on an interval J .

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Definition

A **monotone function** on an interval J is a function which is non-decreasing or non-increasing on J . A **strictly monotone function** on an interval J is a function which is increasing or decreasing on J .

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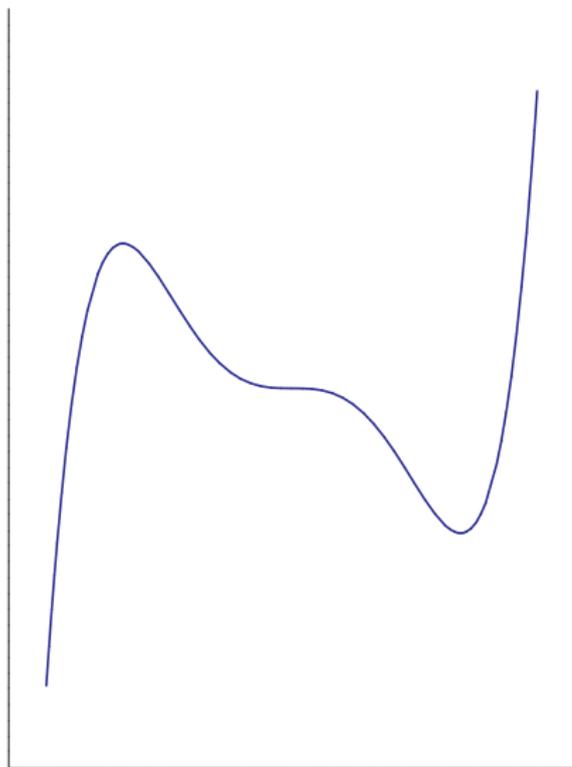
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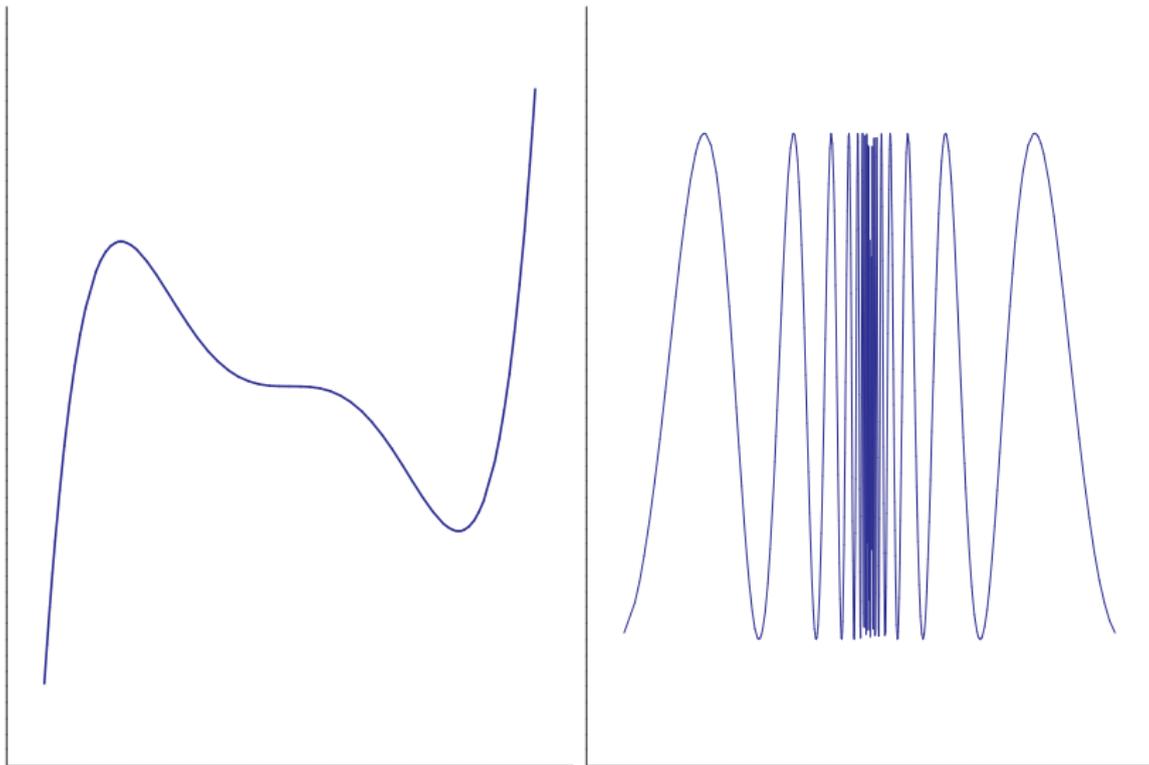
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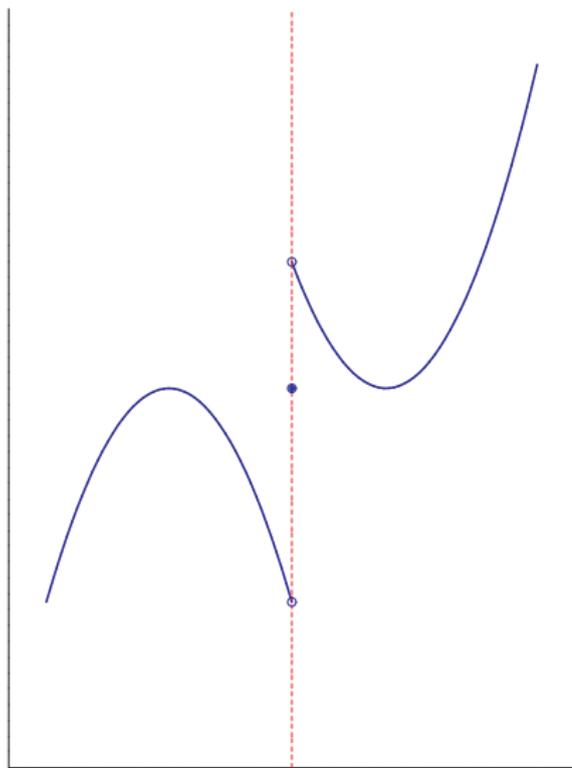
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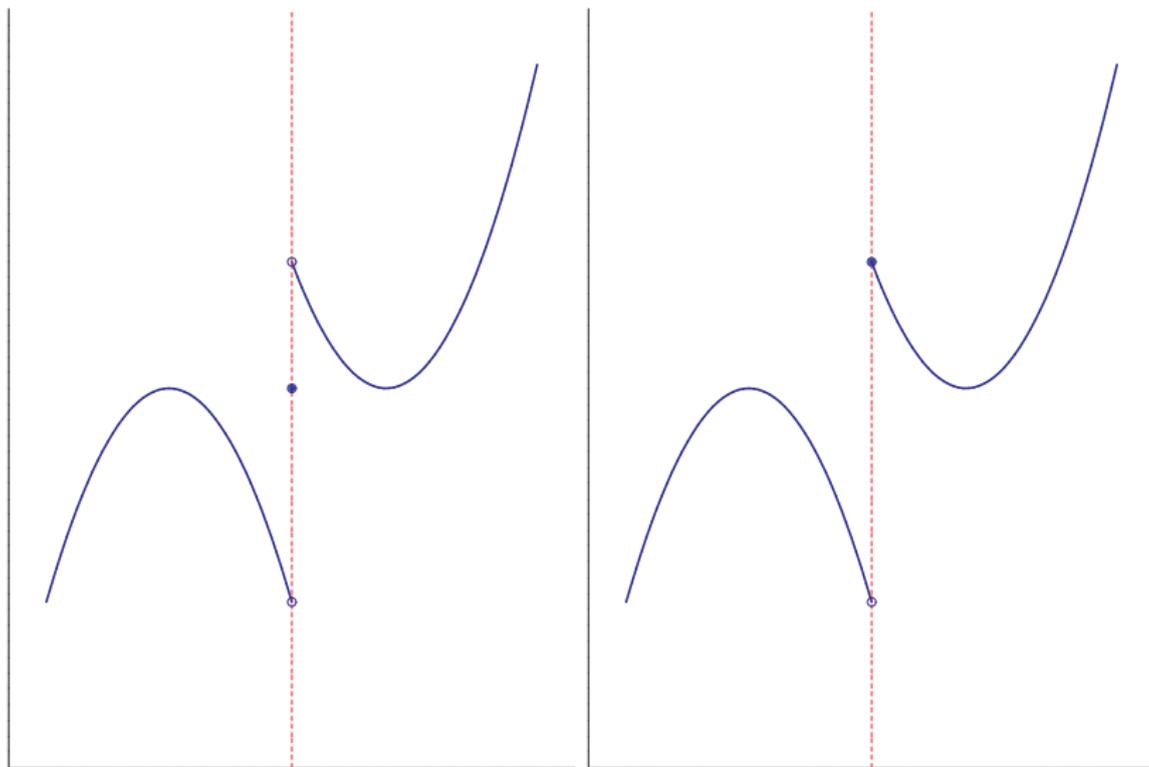
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- **periodic with a period a** , where $a \in \mathbb{R}$, $a > 0$, if for each $x \in D_f$ we have $x + a \in D_f$, $x - a \in D_f$ and $f(x + a) = f(x - a) = f(x)$.

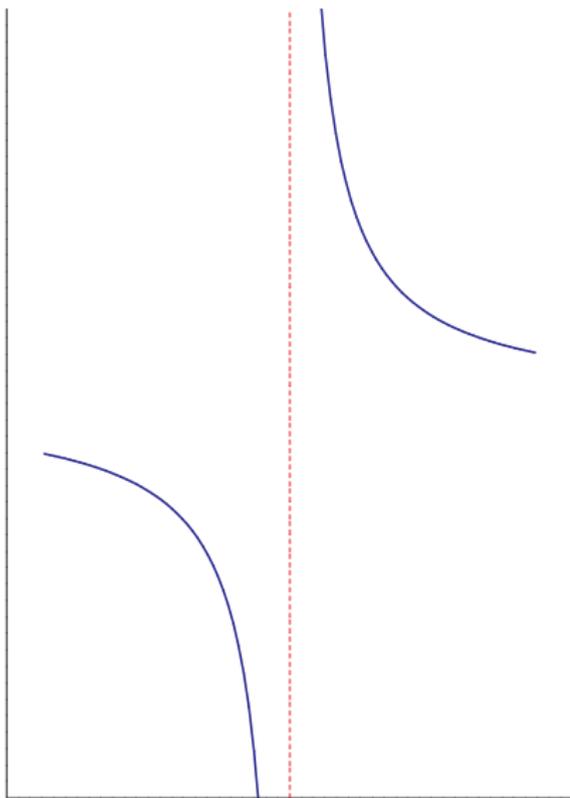




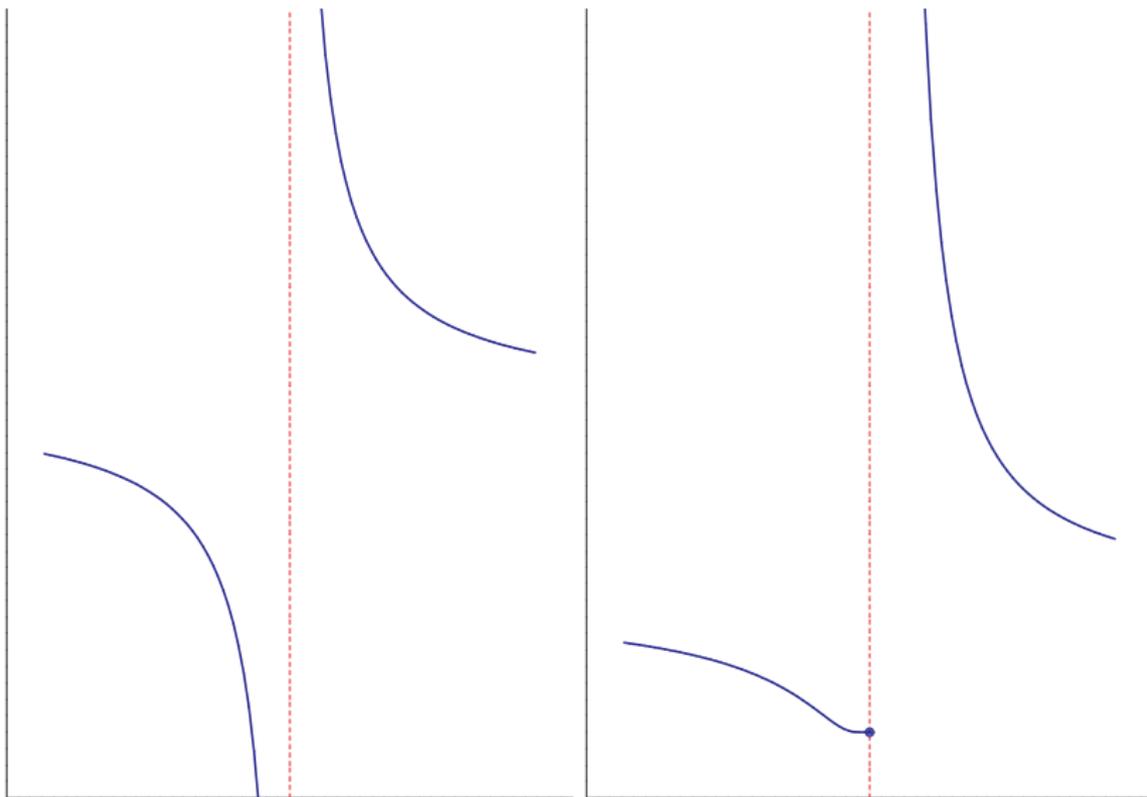


IV.1. Basic notions





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- a **neighbourhood of a point** c with radius ε by
 $B(c, \varepsilon) = (c - \varepsilon, c + \varepsilon)$,
- a **punctured neighbourhood of a point** c with radius ε
by $P(c, \varepsilon) = (c - \varepsilon, c + \varepsilon) \setminus \{c\}$.

Definition

We say that $A \in \mathbb{R}$ is a **limit of a function f at a point $c \in \mathbb{R}$** if

$$\forall \varepsilon \in \mathbb{R}, \varepsilon > 0 \exists \delta \in \mathbb{R}, \delta > 0 \forall x \in P(c, \delta): f(x) \in B(A, \varepsilon).$$

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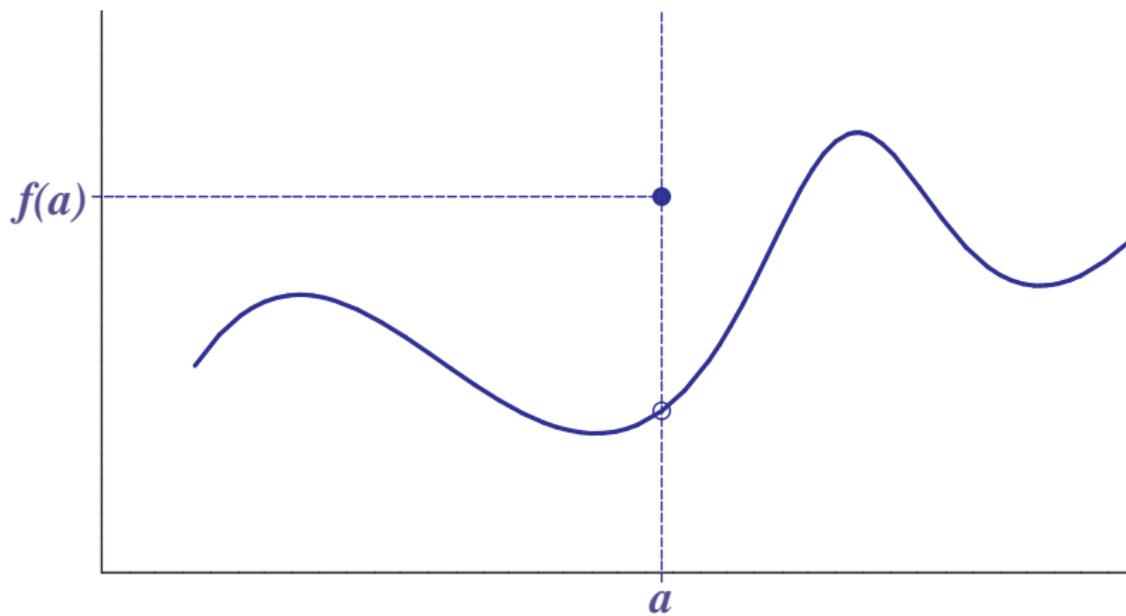
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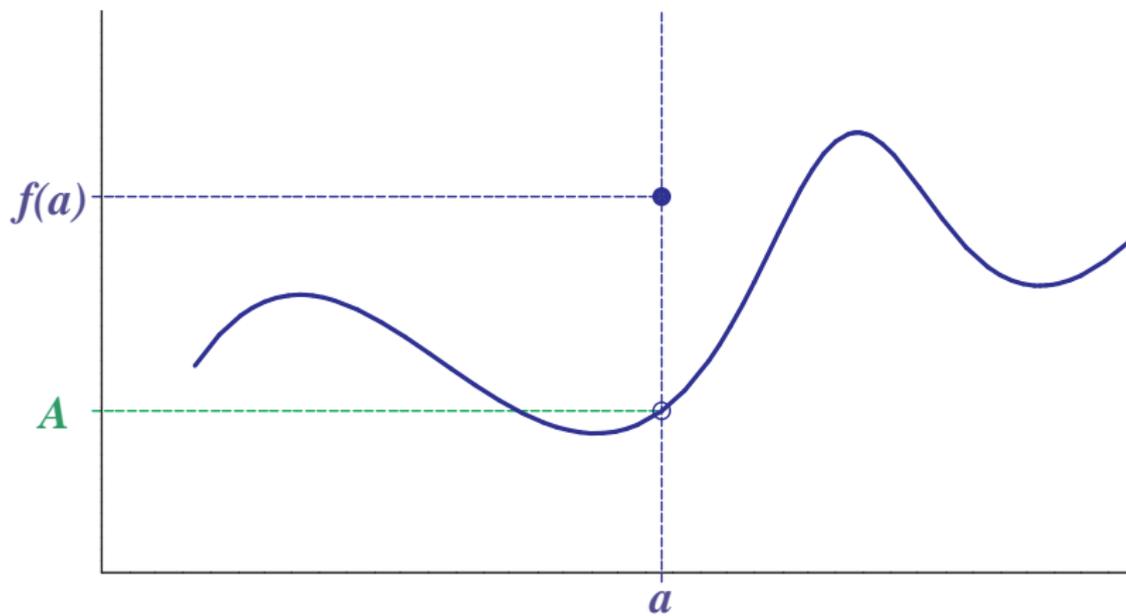
Let f be a function and $c \in \mathbb{R}$. Then f has a most one limit $A \in \mathbb{R}$ at c .

The fact that f has a limit $A \in \mathbb{R}$ at $c \in \mathbb{R}$ is denoted by $\lim_{x \rightarrow c} f(x) = A$.

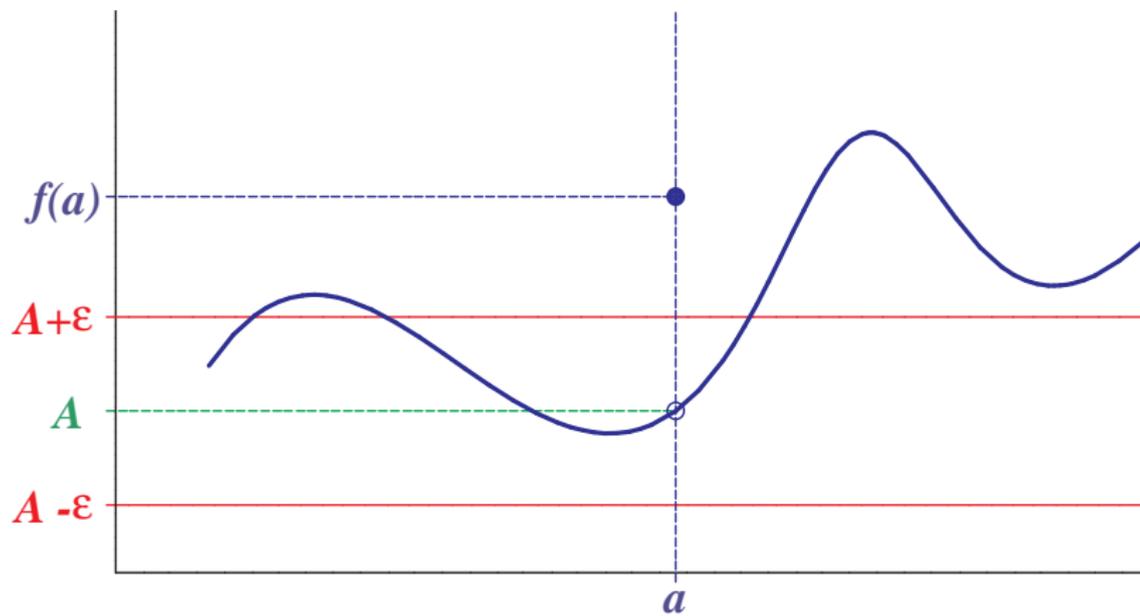
IV.2. Limit of a function



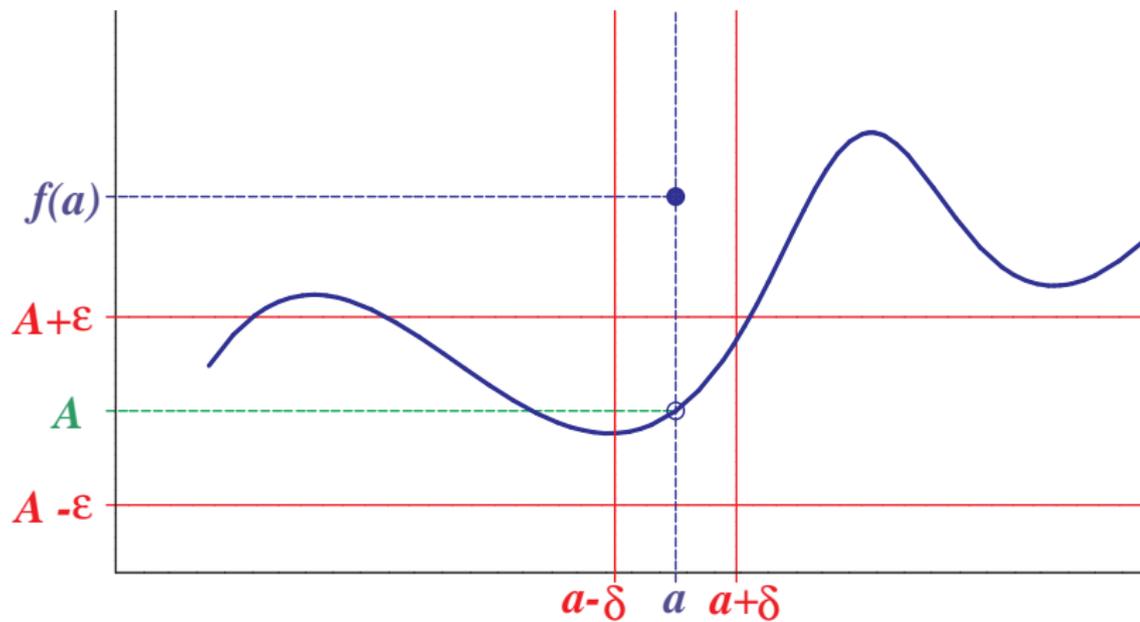
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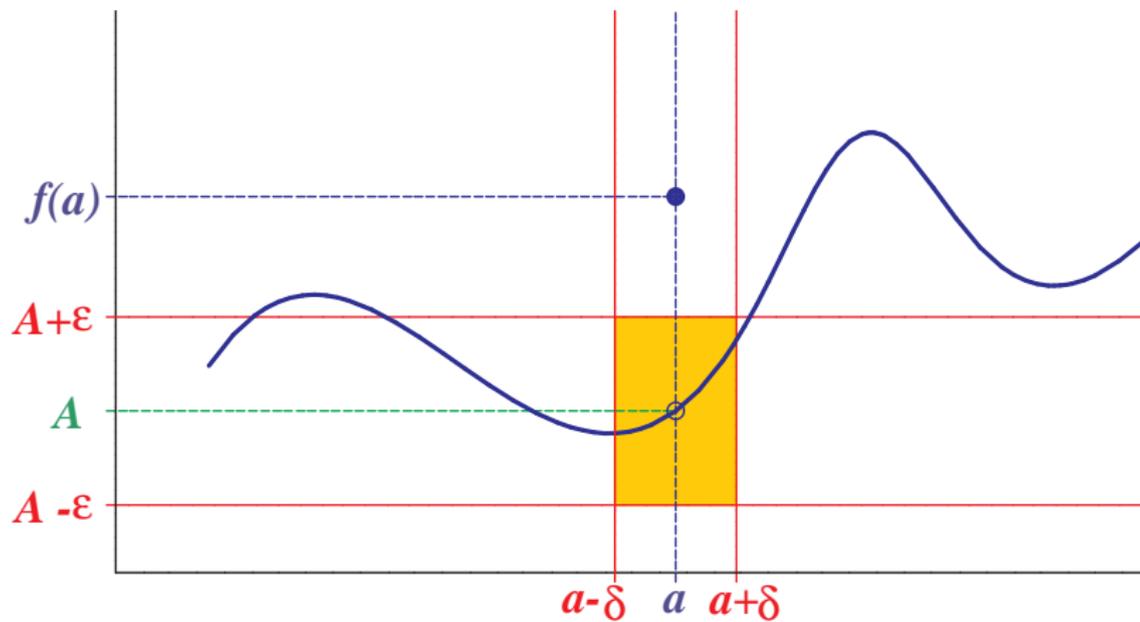
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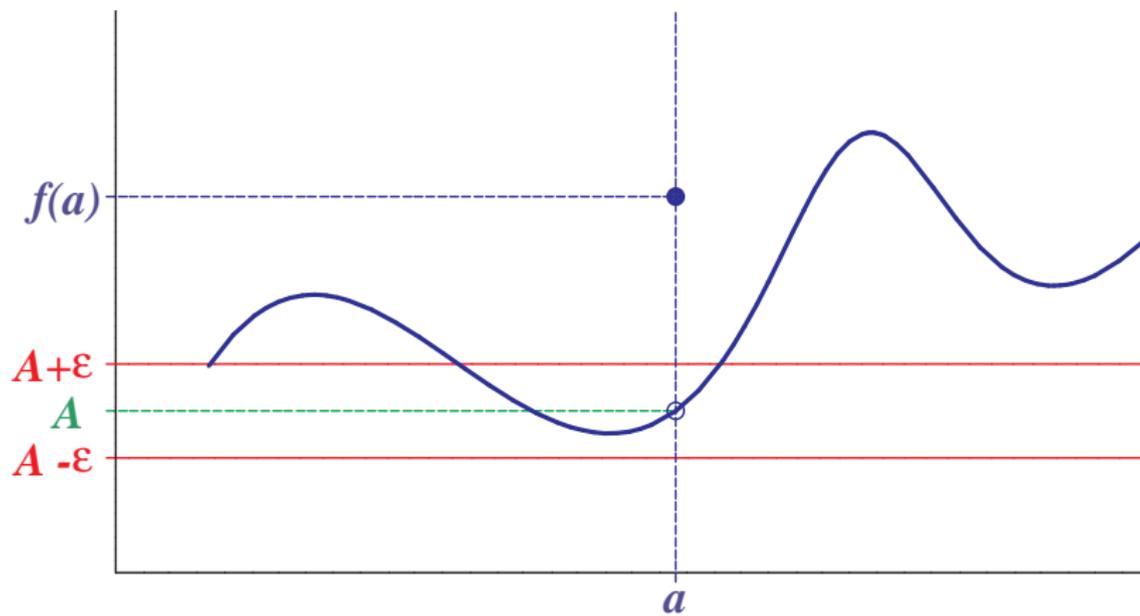
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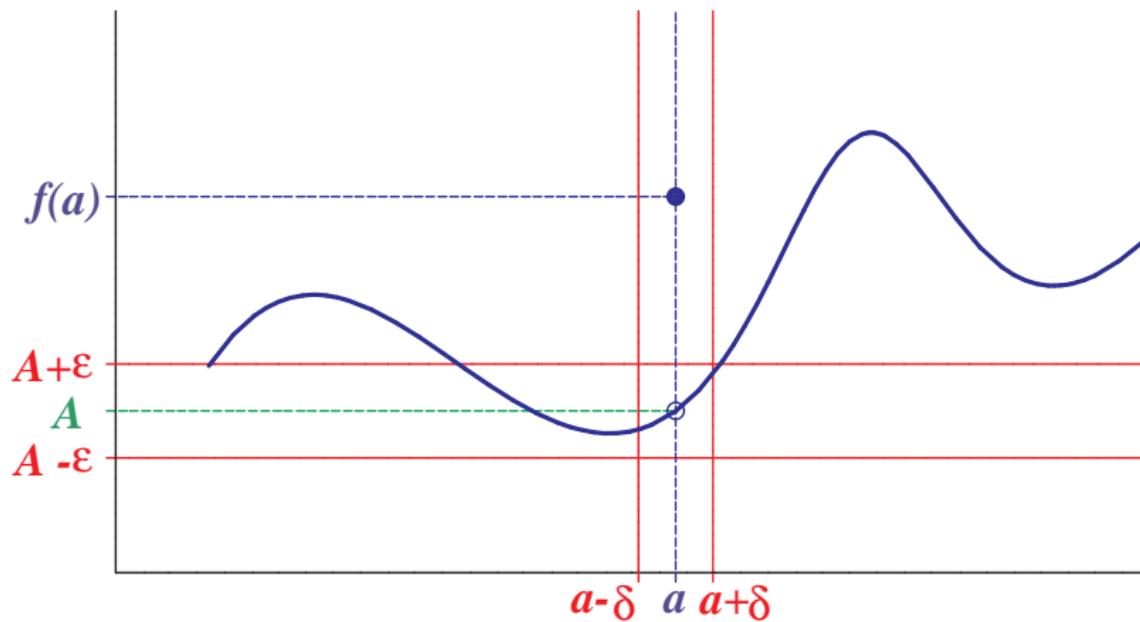
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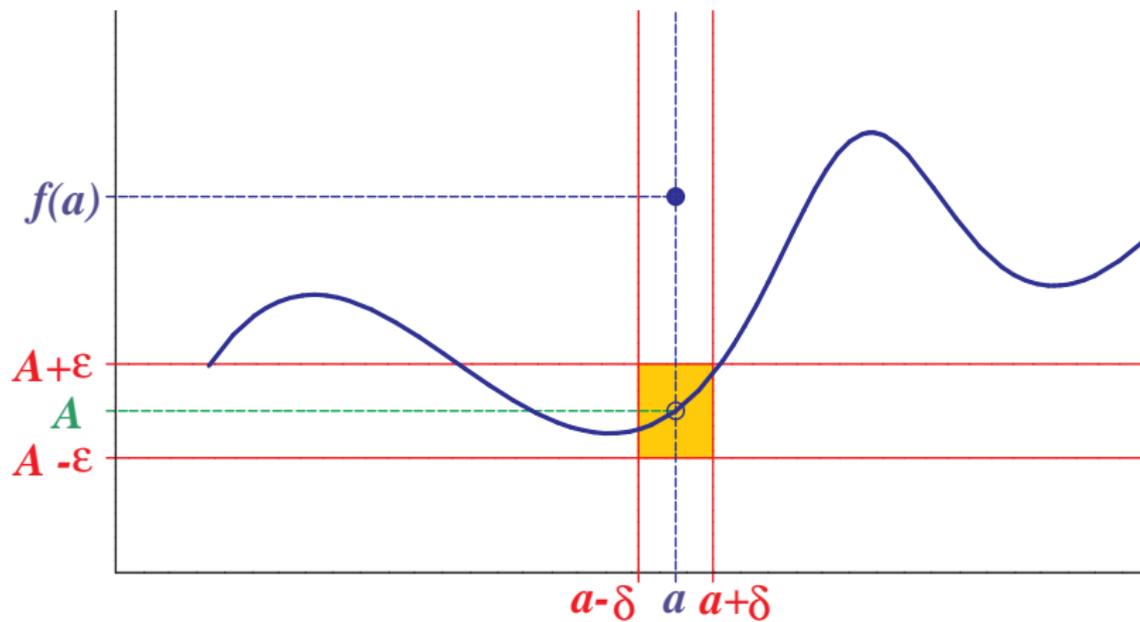
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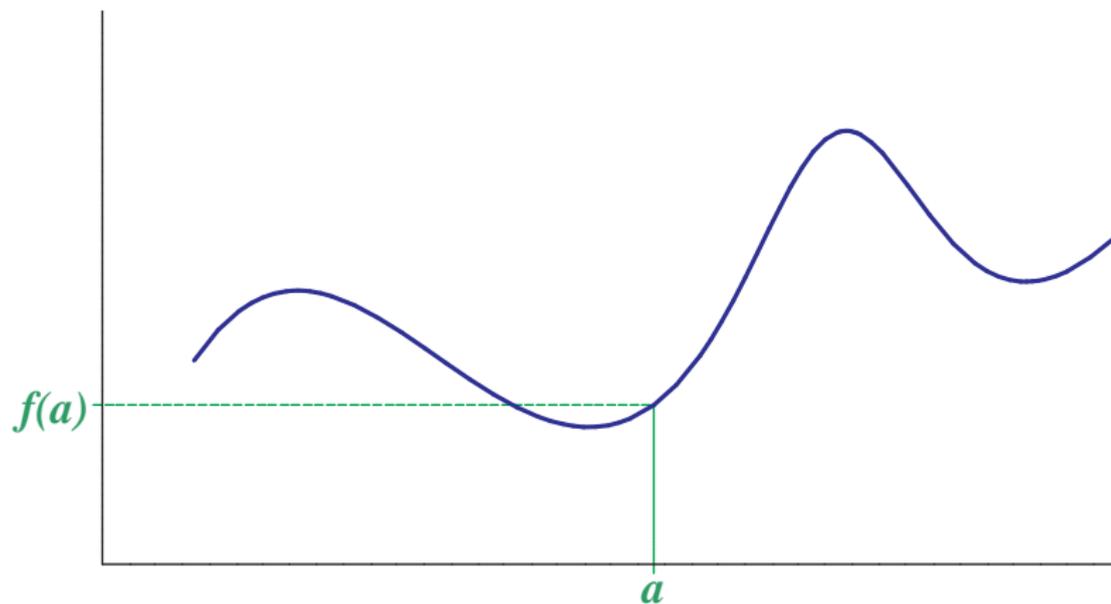
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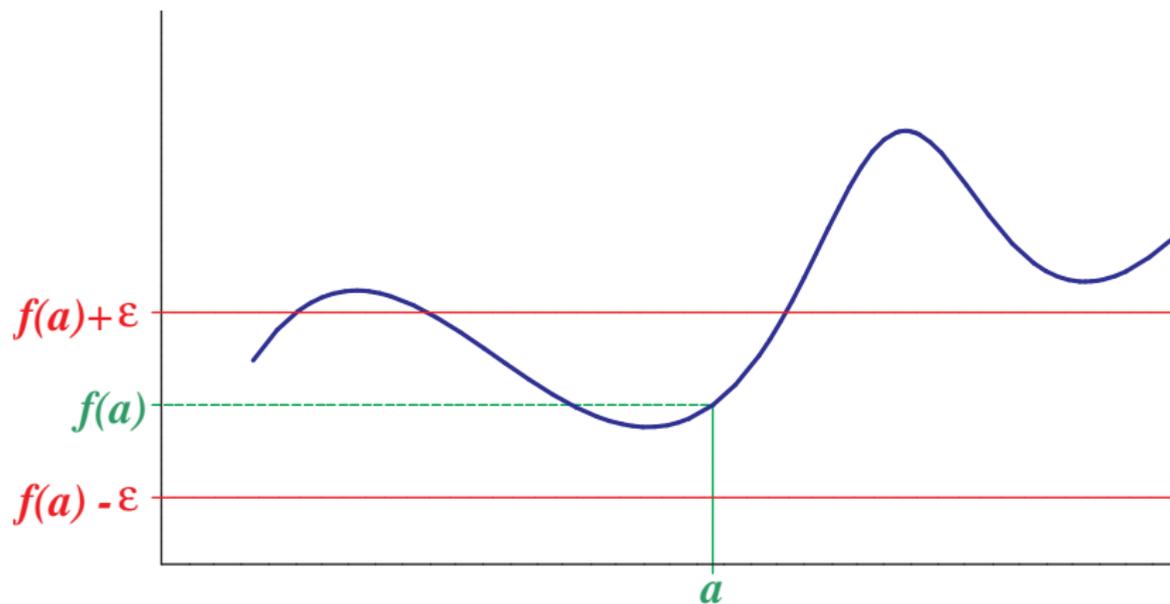
Remark

A function f is continuous at a point c if and only if

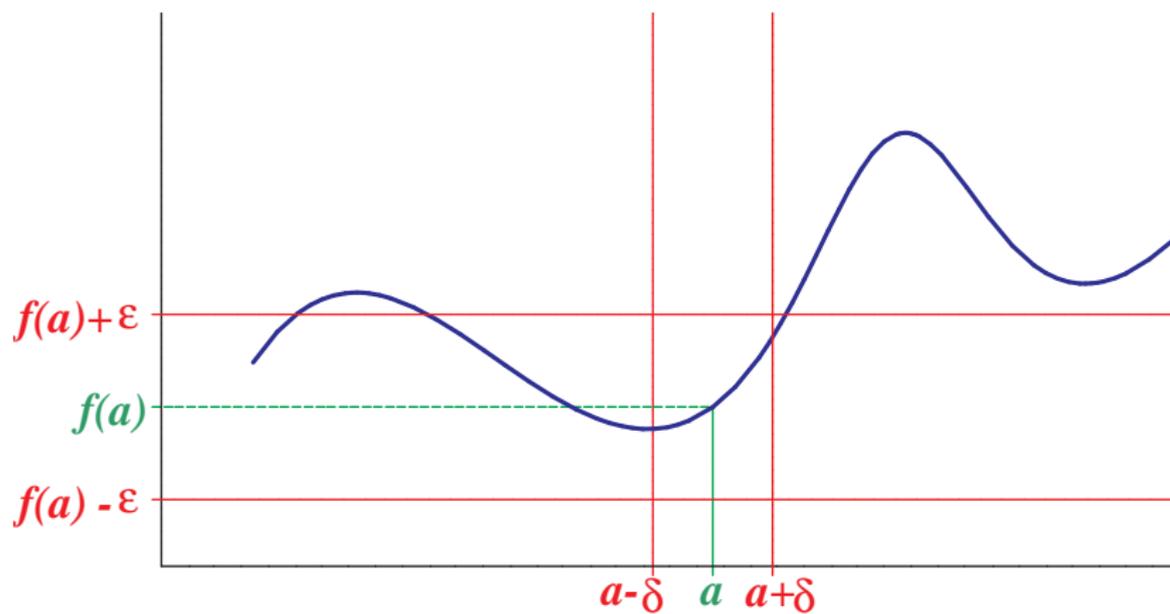
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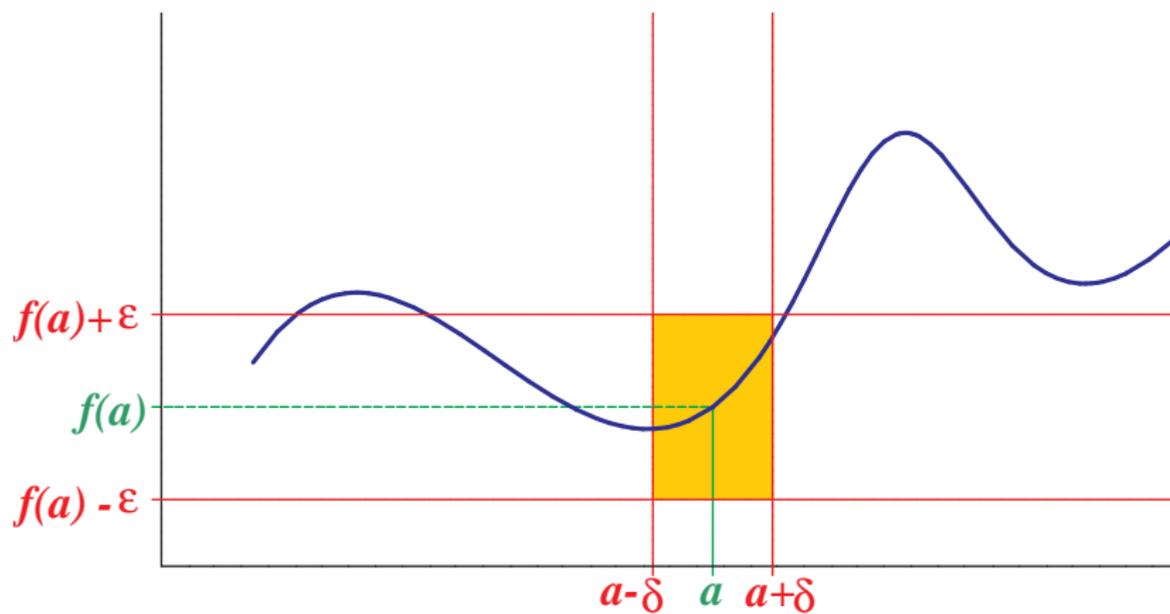
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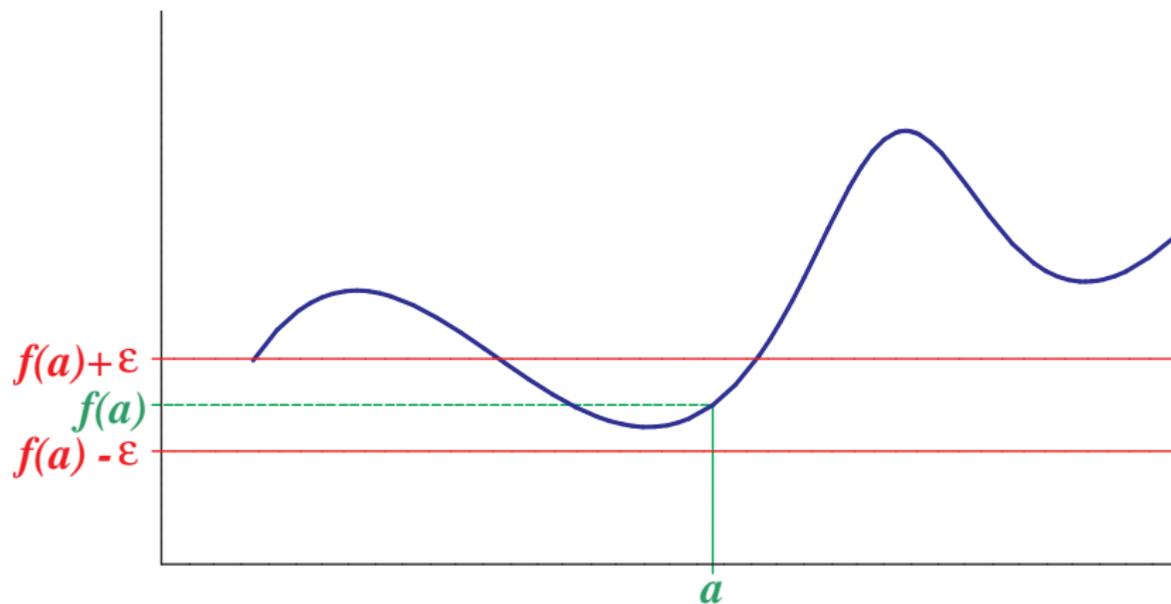


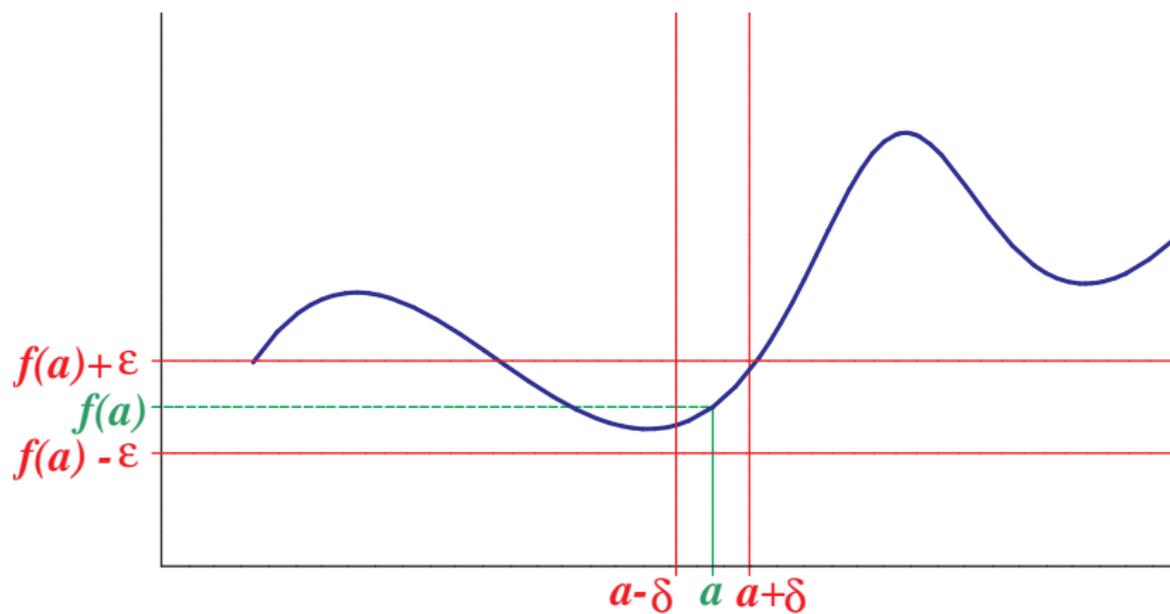
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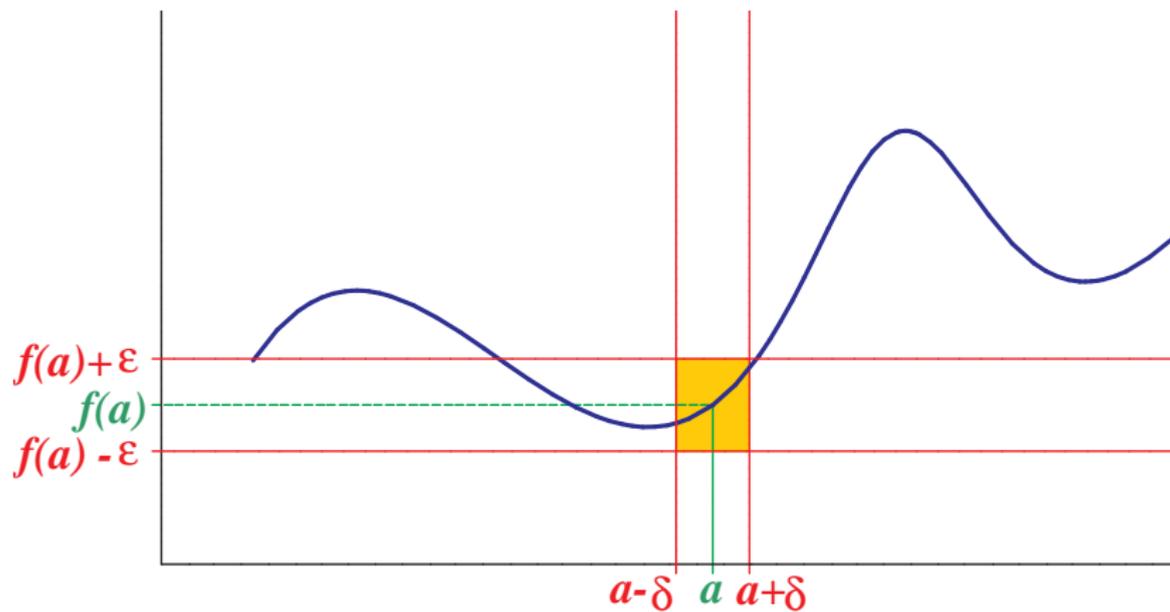
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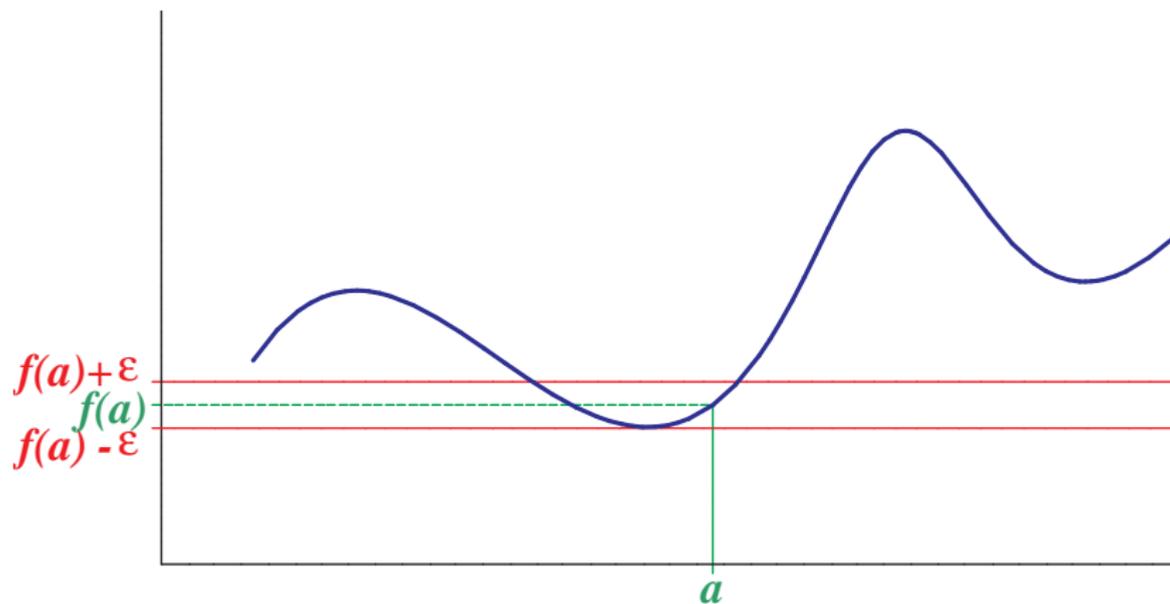




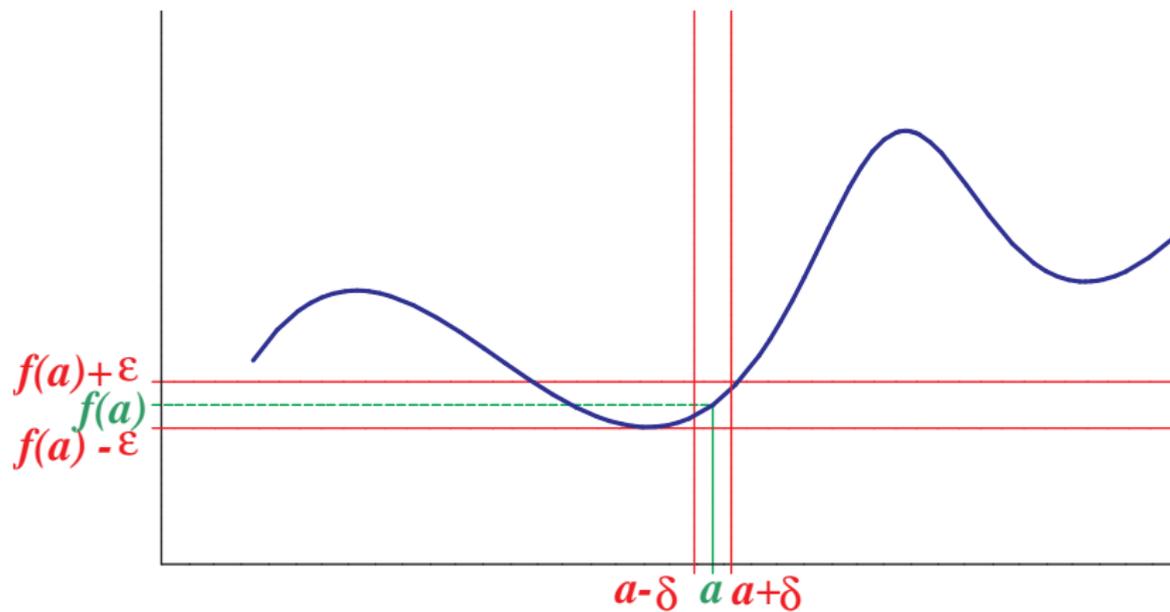


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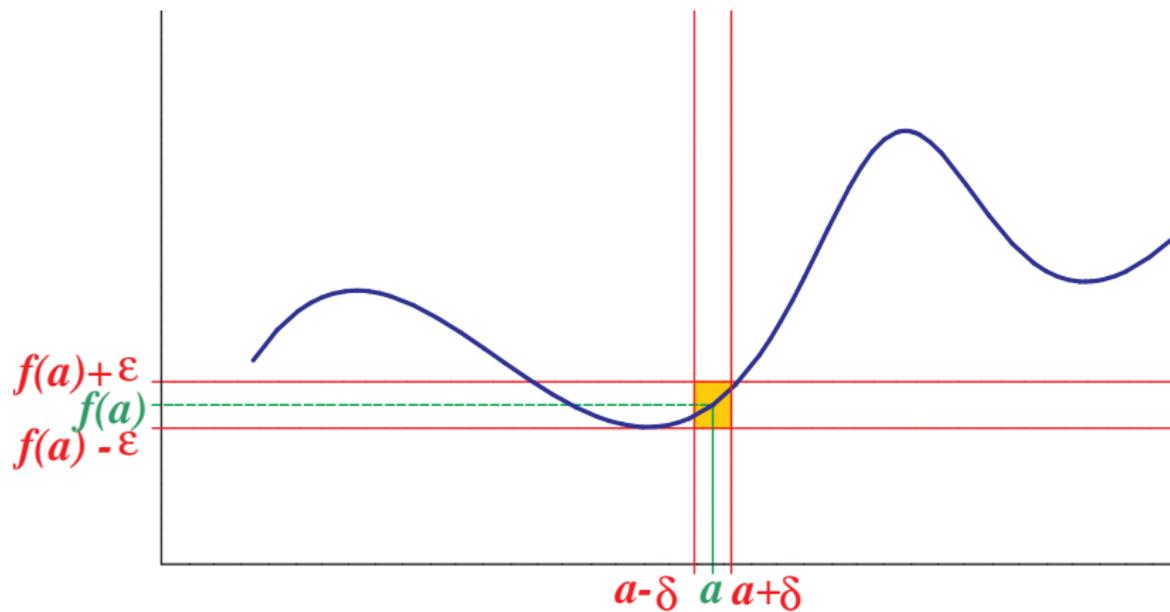




IV.2. Limit of a function



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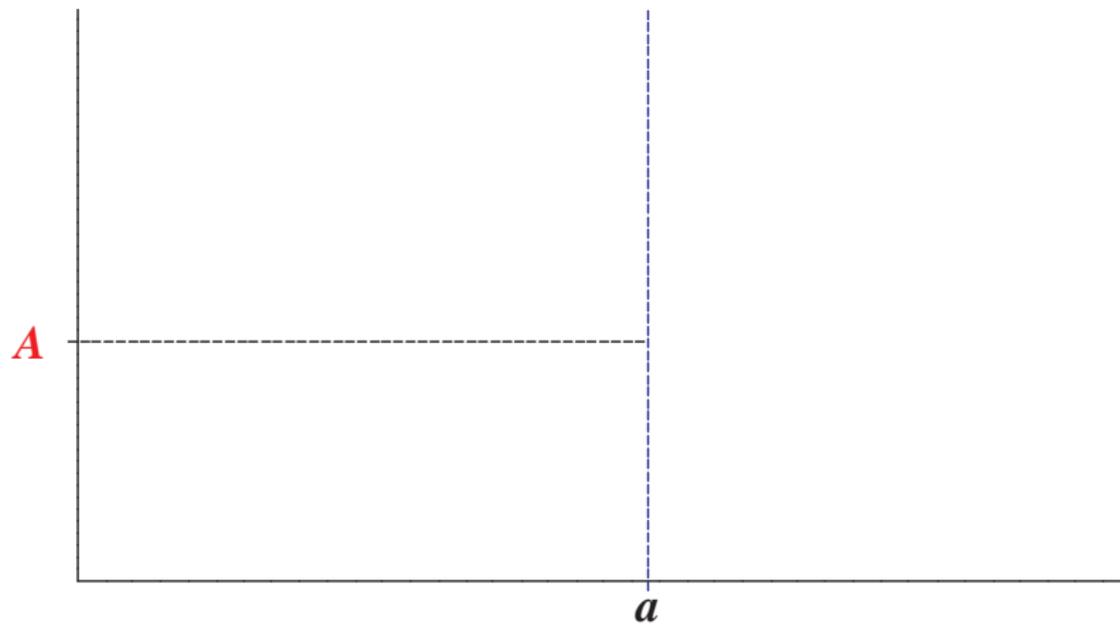
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Definition

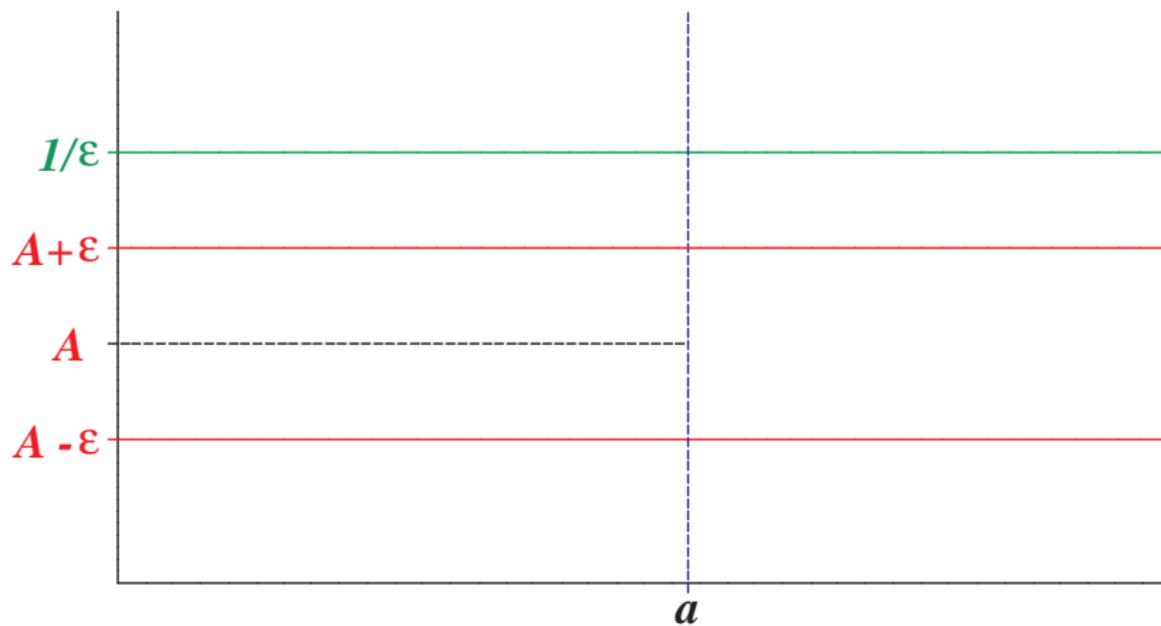
We say that $A \in \mathbb{R}^*$ is a **limit of a function f at $c \in \mathbb{R}^*$** if

$$\forall \varepsilon \in \mathbb{R}, \varepsilon > 0 \exists \delta \in \mathbb{R}, \delta > 0 \forall x \in P(c, \delta): f(x) \in B(A, \varepsilon).$$

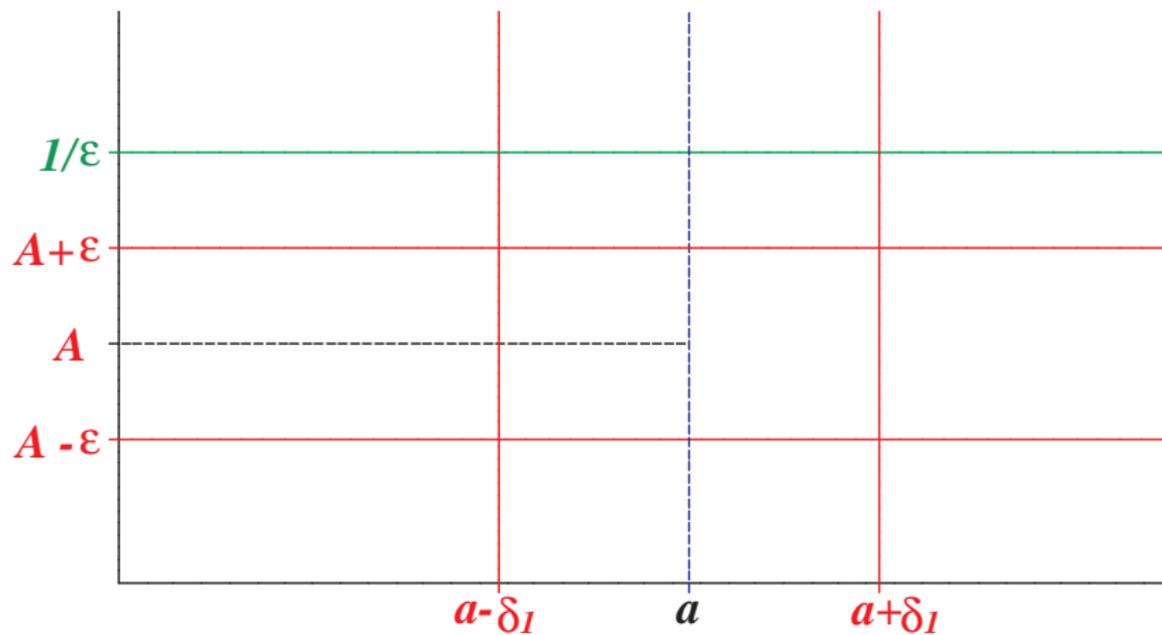
Theorem 20 holds also for $c \in \mathbb{R}^*$, $A \in \mathbb{R}^*$, so we can again use the notation $\lim_{x \rightarrow c} f(x) = A$.



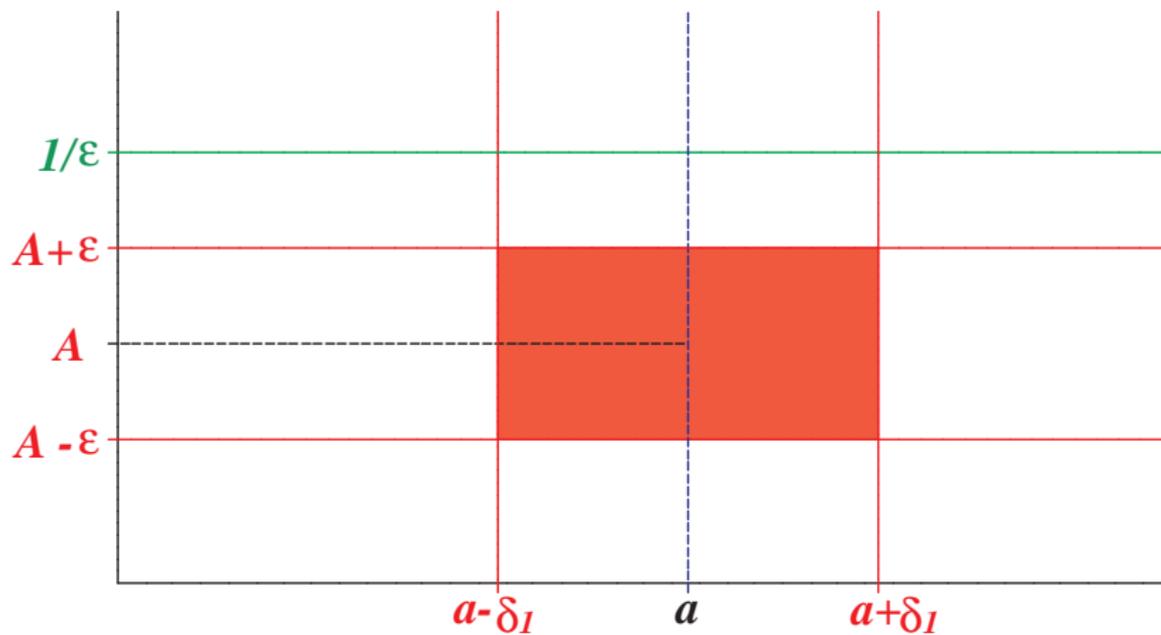
IV.2. Limit of a function



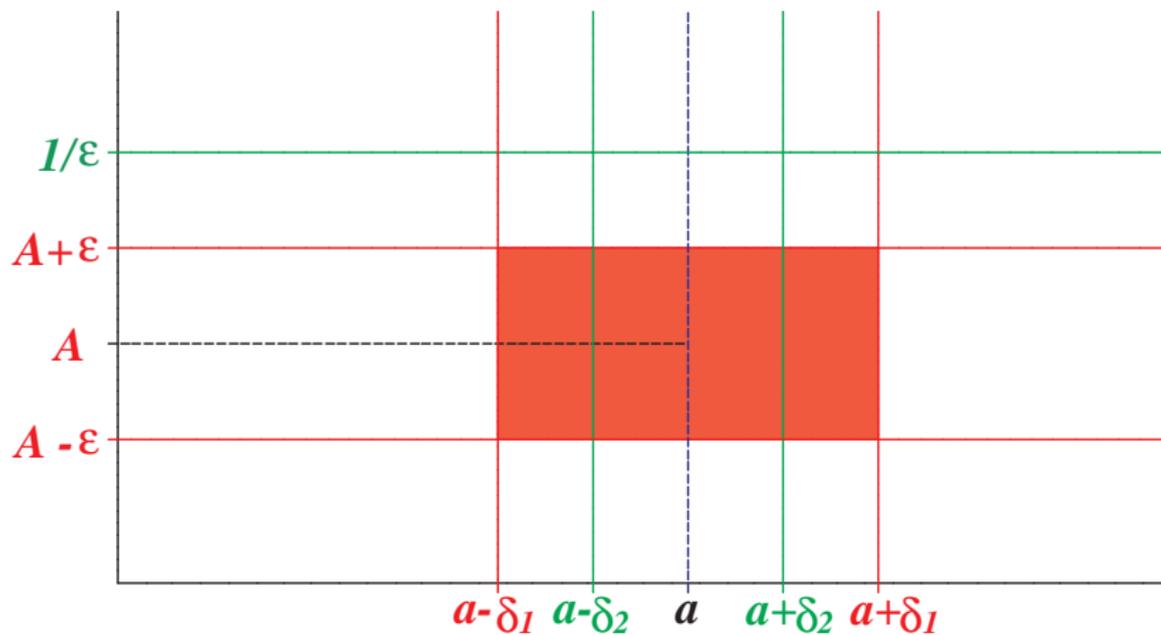
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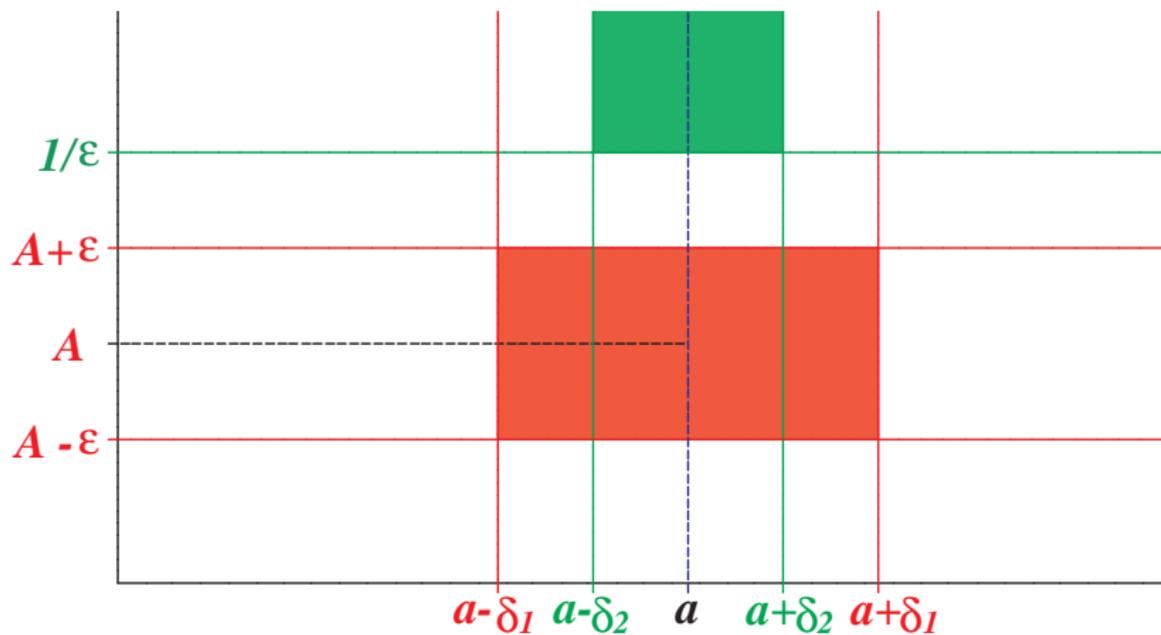
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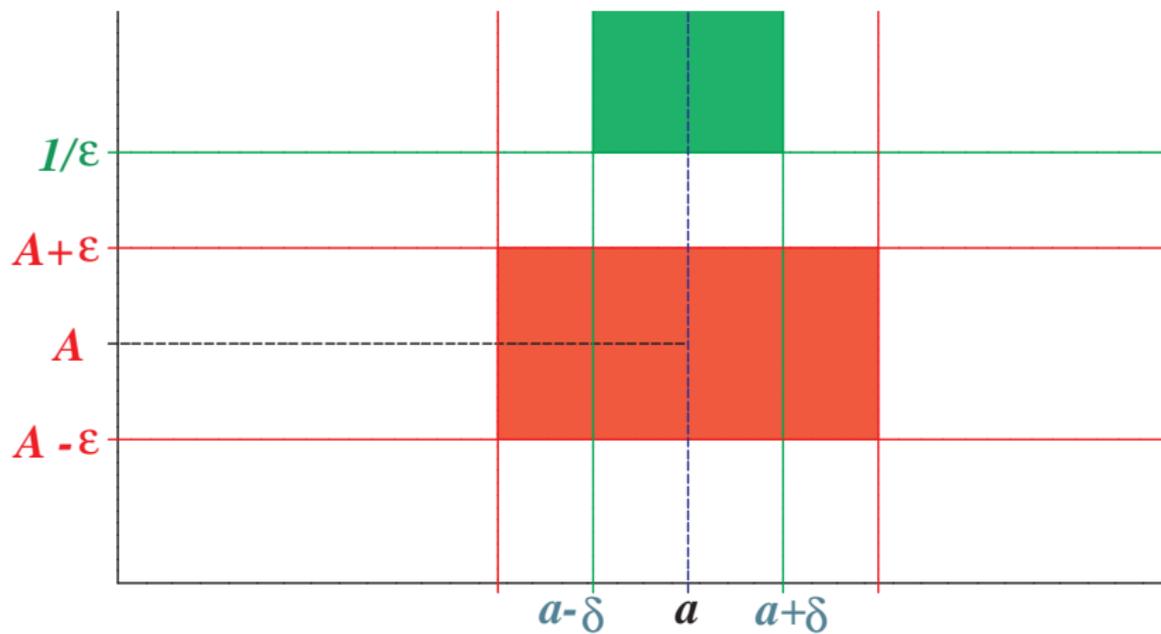
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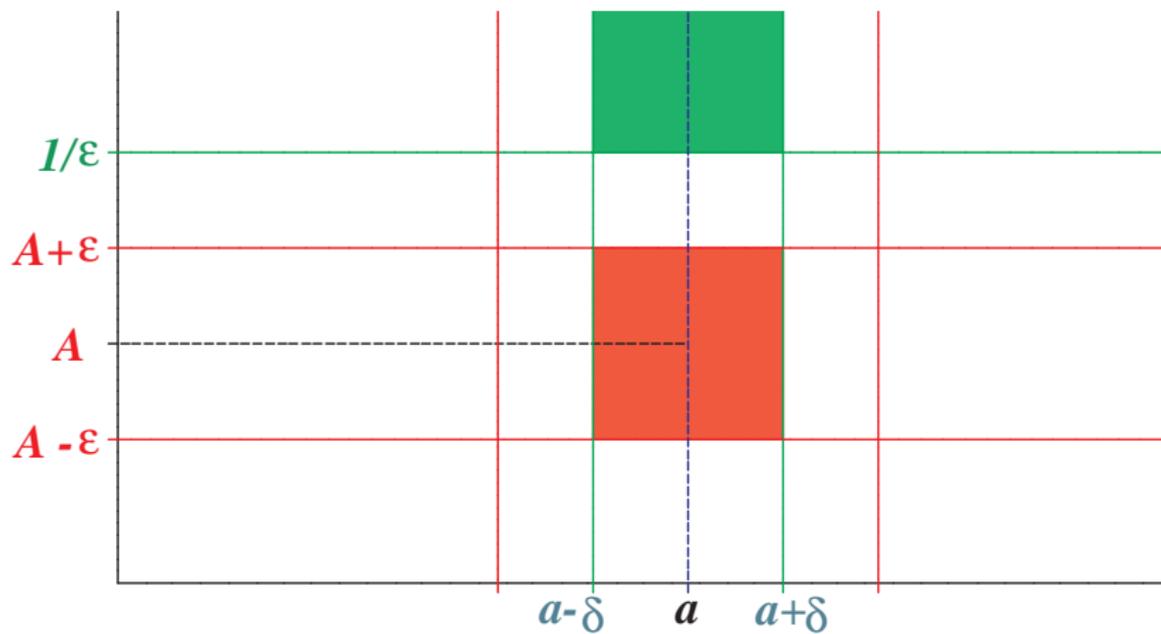
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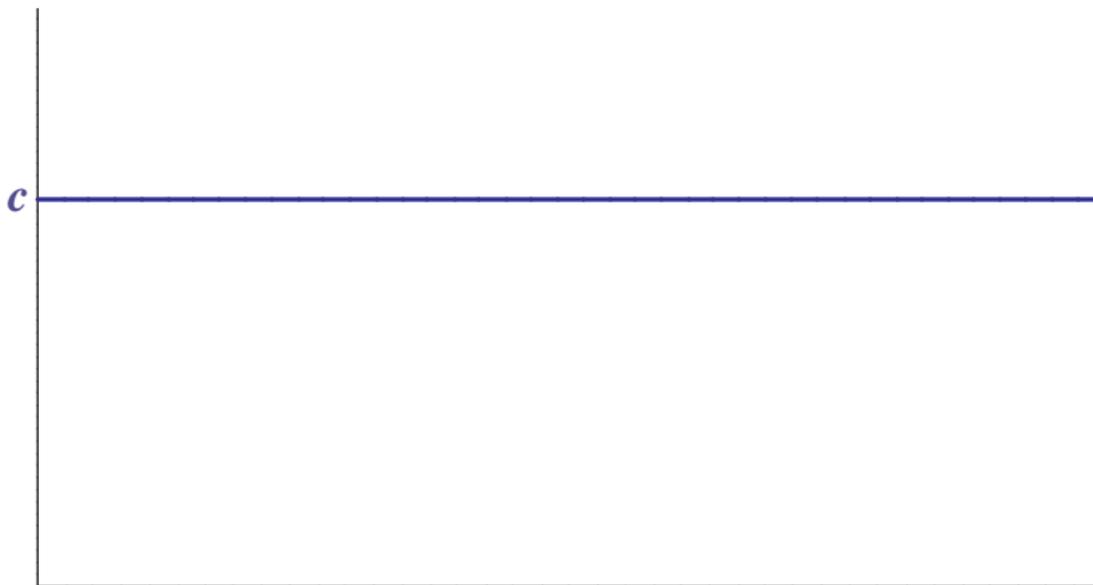


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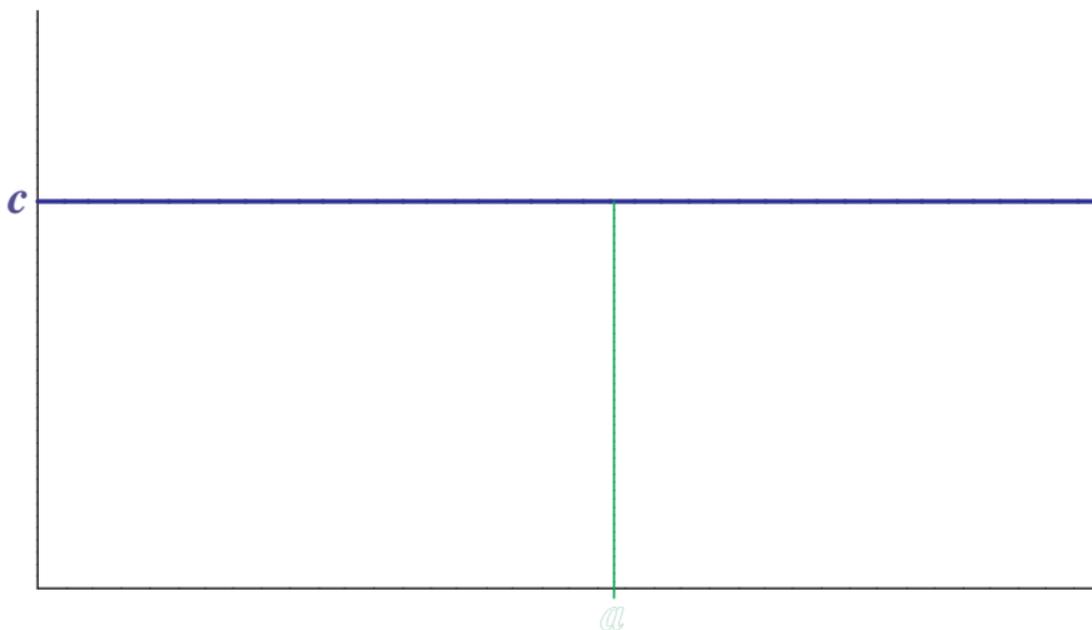


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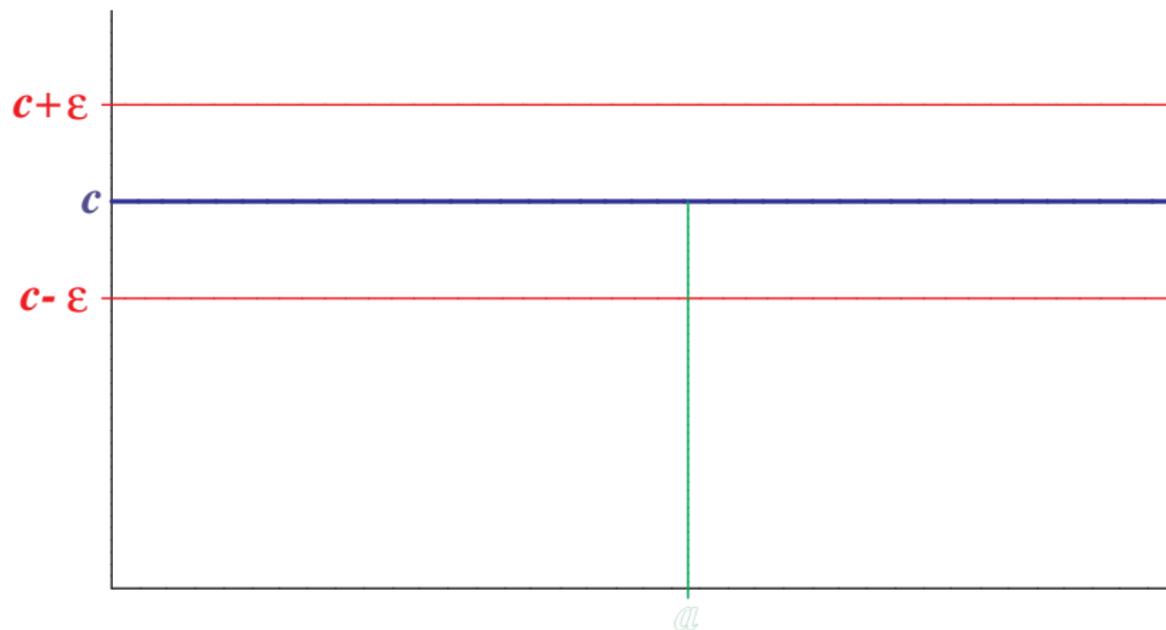




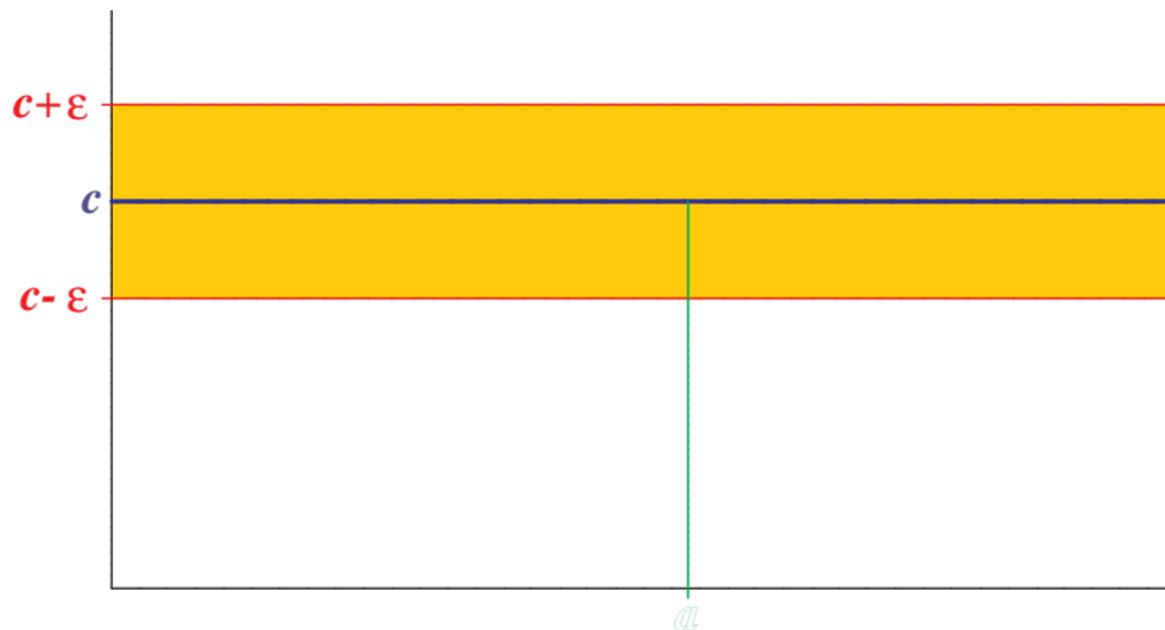
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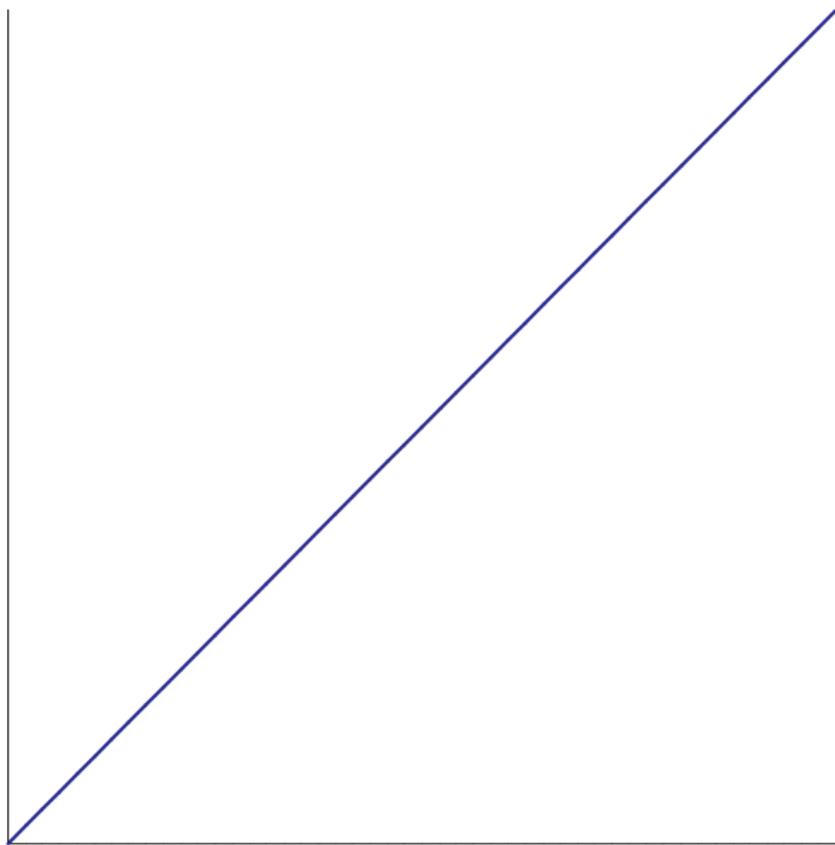


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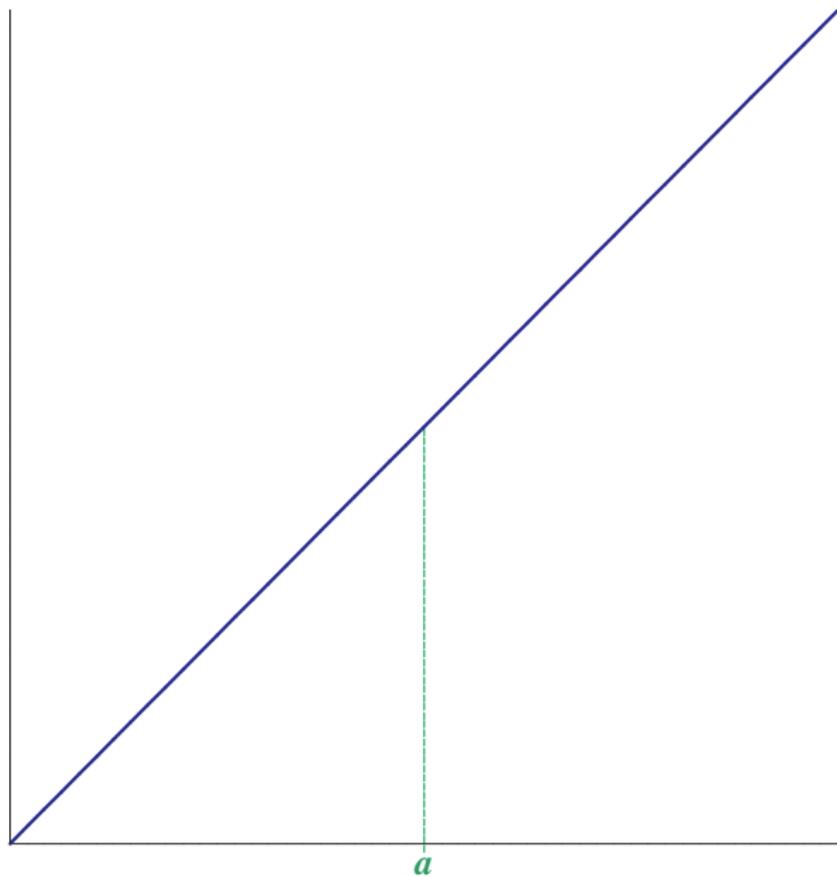


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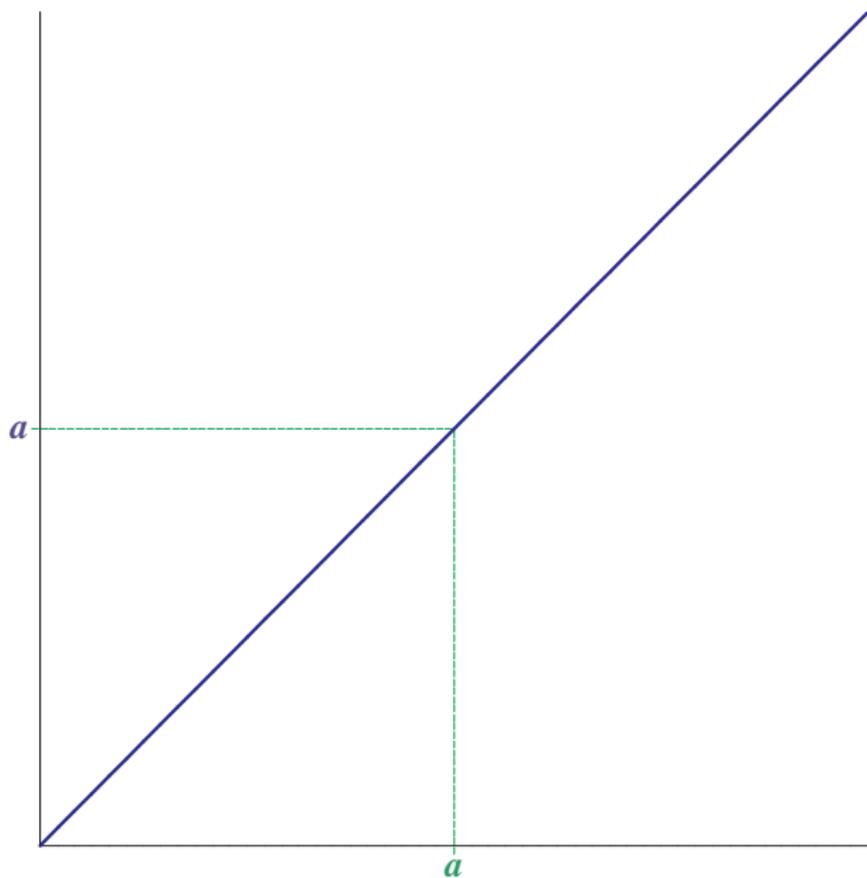




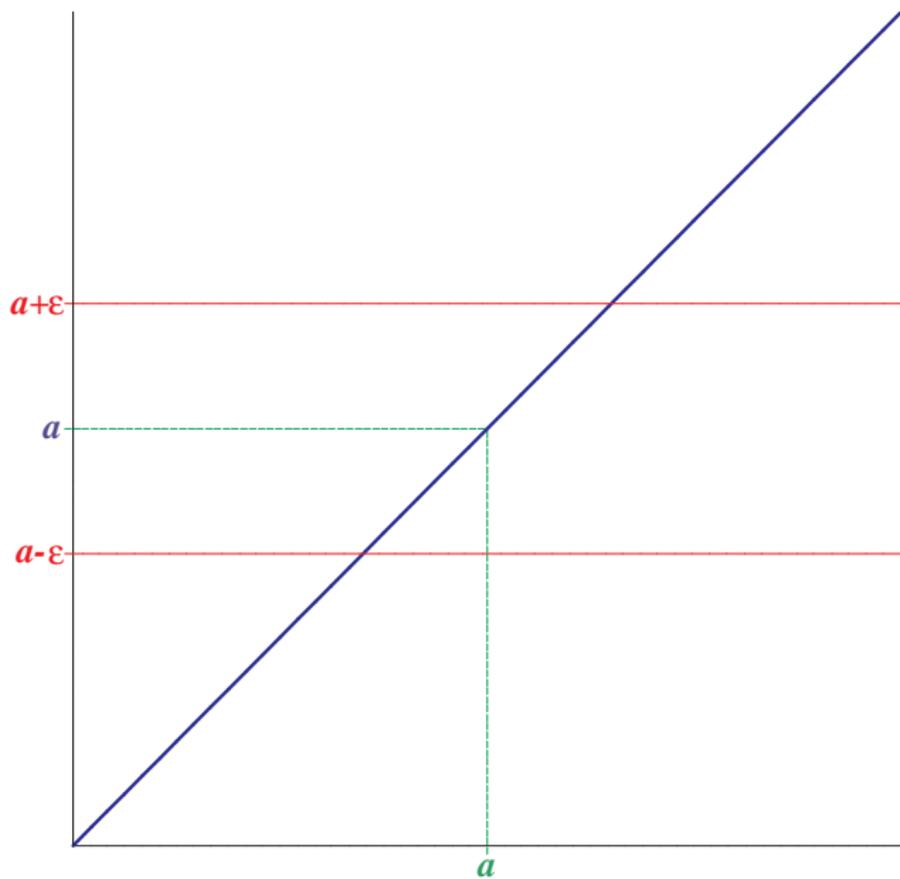
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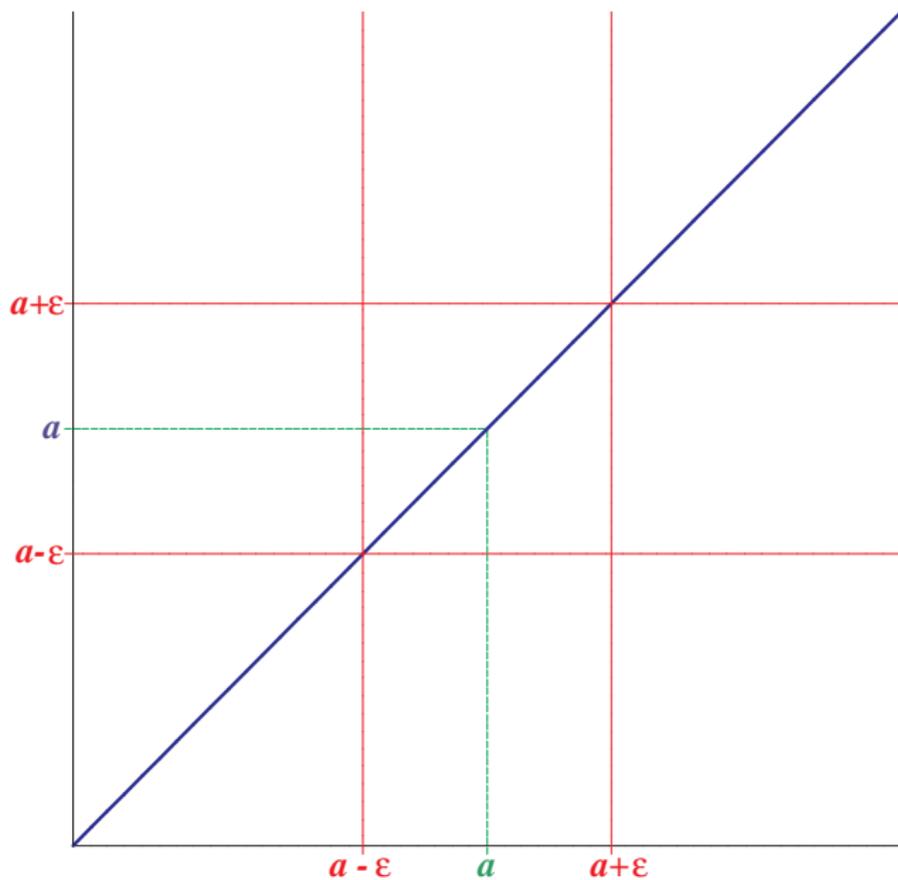
IV.2. Limit of a function



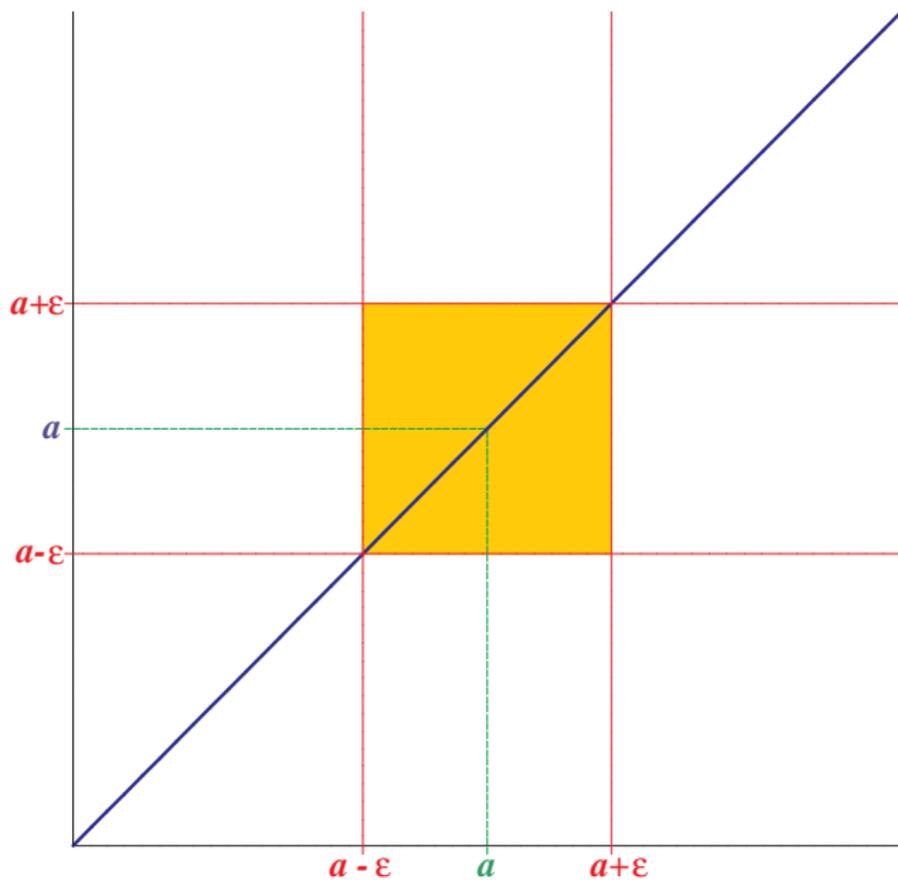
IV.2. Limit of a function



IV.2. Limit of a function



IV.2. Limit of a function



Definition

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- a **right neighbourhood** of c by $B^+(c, \varepsilon) = [c, c + \varepsilon)$,

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- a **left neighbourhood and left punctured neighbourhood** of $+\infty$ by $B^- (+\infty, \varepsilon) = P^- (+\infty, \varepsilon) = (1/\varepsilon, +\infty)$,

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- a **left punctured neighbourhood** of c by $P^-(c, \varepsilon) = (c - \varepsilon, c)$,
- a **left neighbourhood and left punctured neighbourhood** of $+\infty$ by $B^- (+\infty, \varepsilon) = P^- (+\infty, \varepsilon) = (1/\varepsilon, +\infty)$,
- a **right neighbourhood and right punctured neighbourhood** of $-\infty$ by $B^+ (-\infty, \varepsilon) = P^+ (-\infty, \varepsilon) = (-\infty, -1/\varepsilon)$.

Definition

Let $A \in \mathbb{R}^*$, $c \in \mathbb{R} \cup \{-\infty\}$. We say that a function f has a **limit from the right** at c equal to $A \in \mathbb{R}^*$ (denoted by

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow c^+} f(x) = A) \text{ if}$$

$$\forall \varepsilon \in \mathbb{R}, \varepsilon > 0 \exists \delta \in \mathbb{R}, \delta > 0 \forall x \in P^+(c, \delta): f(x) \in B(A, \varepsilon).$$

Analogously we define the notion of **limit from the left** at $c \in \mathbb{R} \cup \{+\infty\}$ and we use the notation $\lim_{x \rightarrow c^-} f(x)$.

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Remark

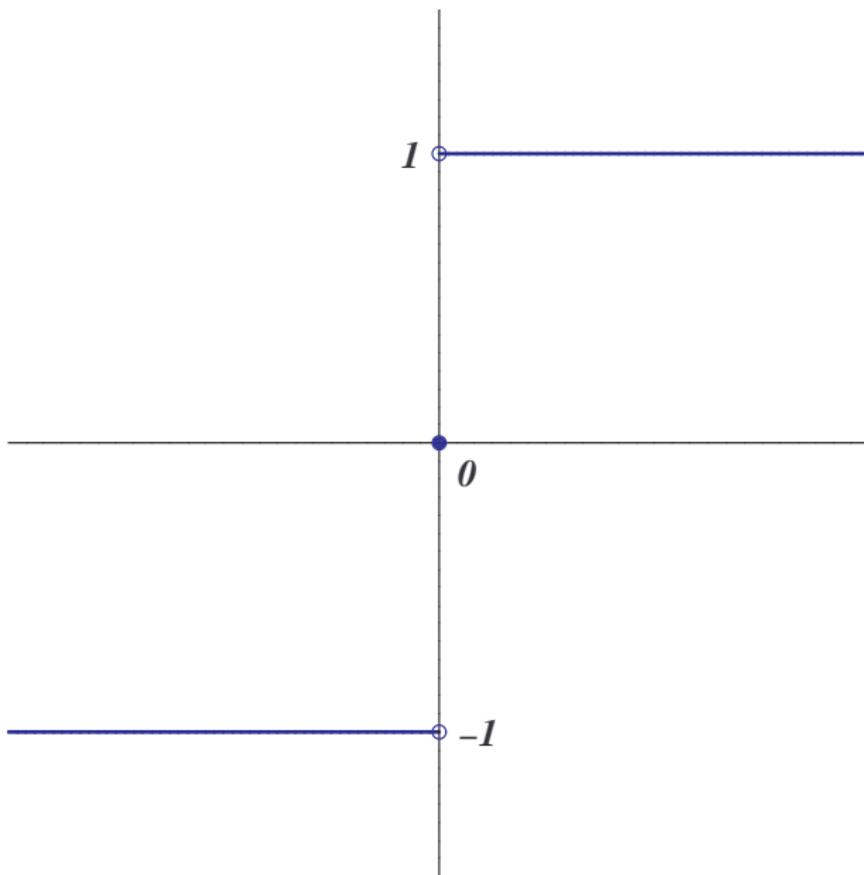
Let $c \in \mathbb{R}$, $A \in \mathbb{R}^*$. Then

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow c} f(x) = A \Leftrightarrow \left(\lim_{x \rightarrow c^+} f(x) = A \ \& \ \lim_{x \rightarrow c^-} f(x) = A \right).$$

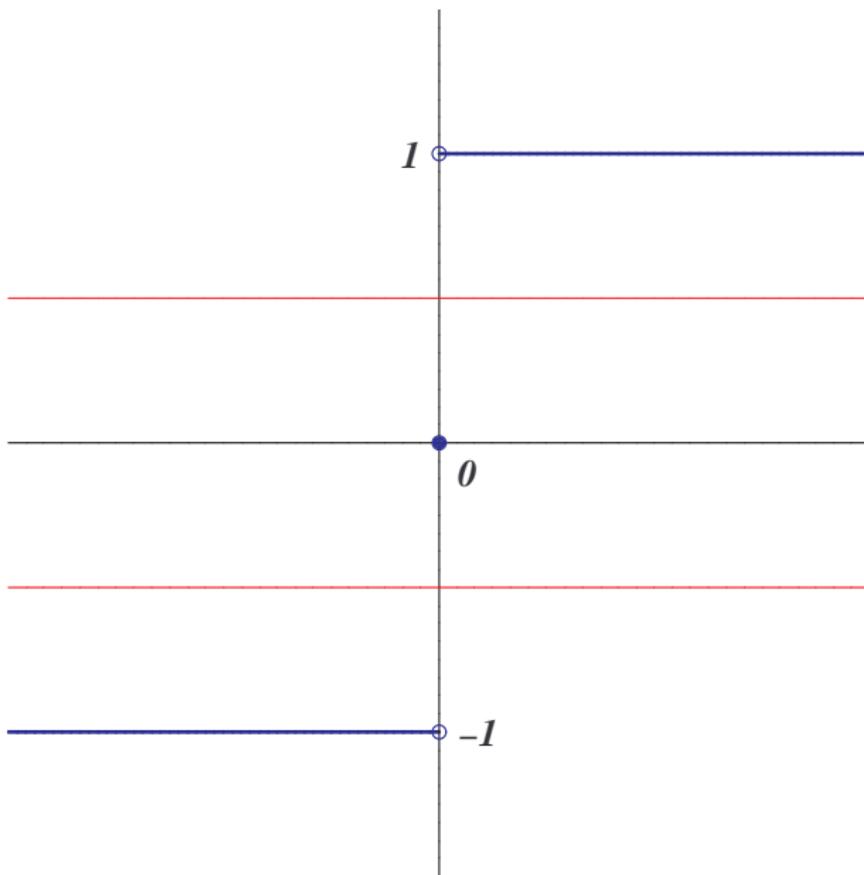
Definition

Let $c \in \mathbb{R}$. We say that a function f is **continuous at c from the right** (**from the left**, resp.) if $\lim_{x \rightarrow c^+} f(x) = f(c)$ ($\lim_{x \rightarrow c^-} f(x) = f(c)$, resp.).

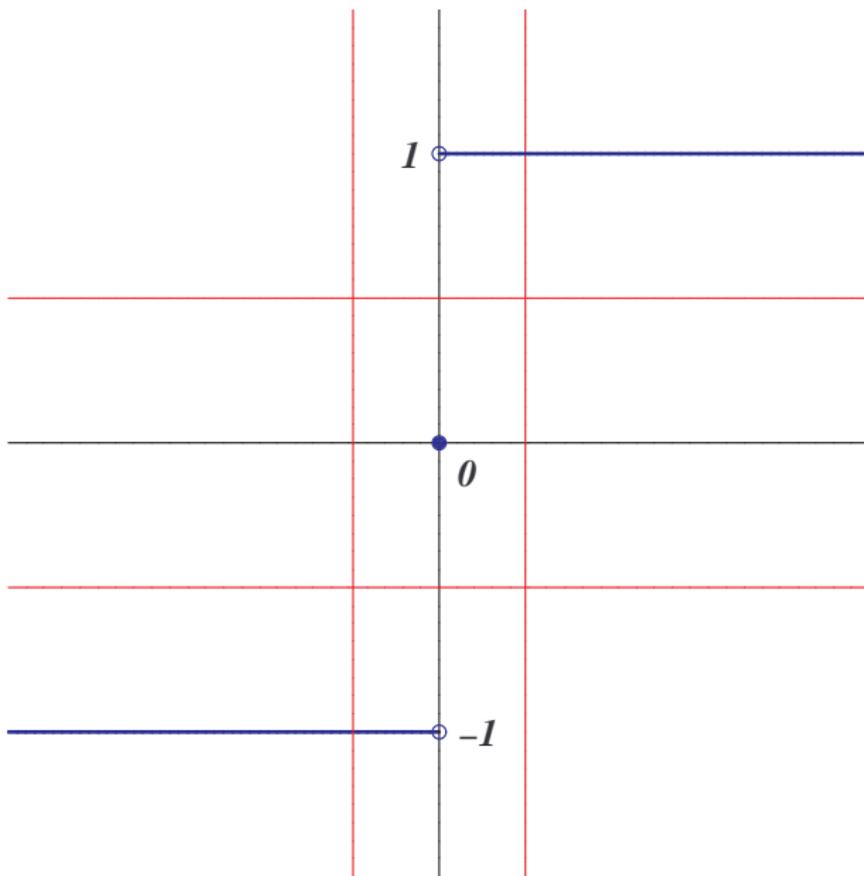
IV.2. Limit of a function



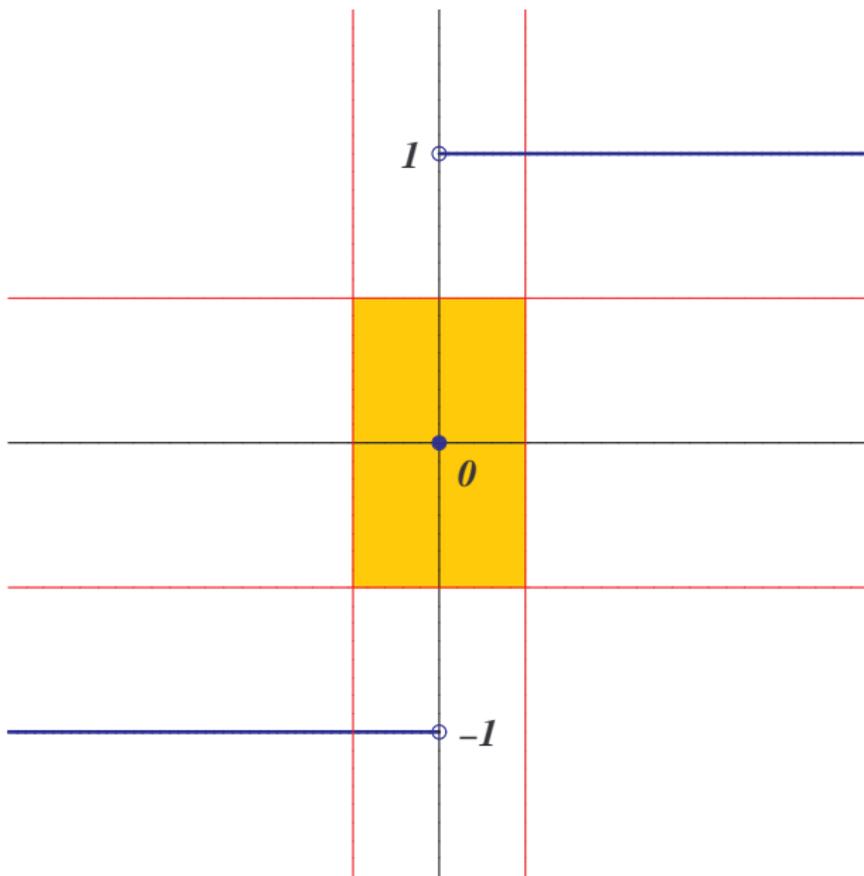
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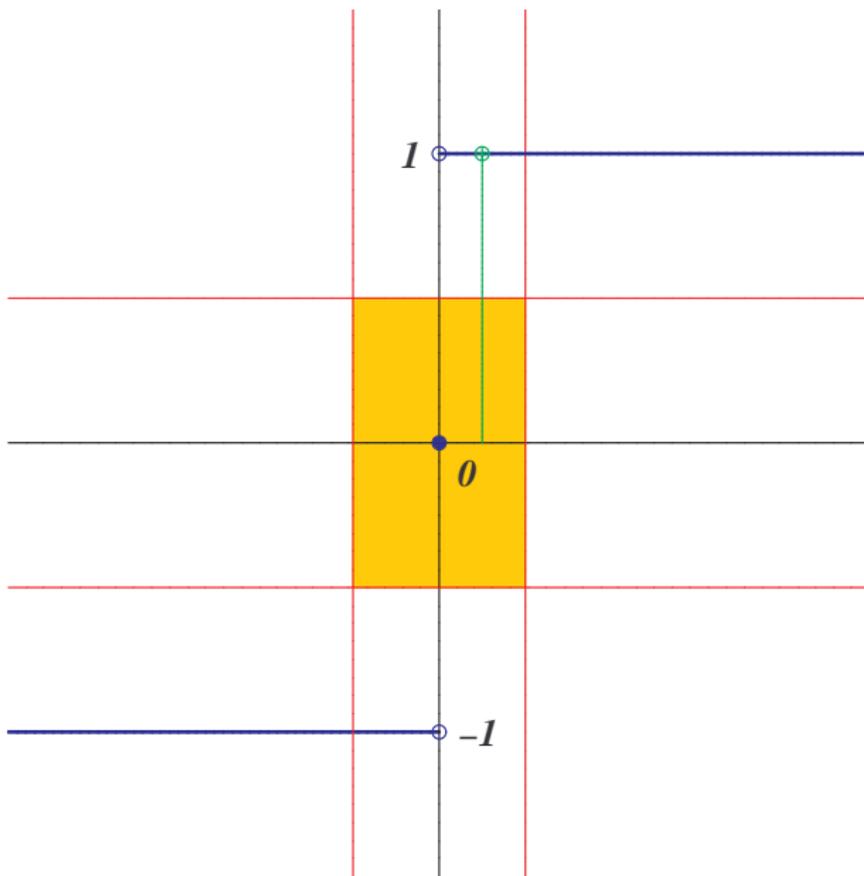
IV.2. Limit of a function



IV.2. Limit of a function



IV.2. Limit of a function



Theorem 21

Let f has a finite limit at $c \in \mathbb{R}^$. Then there exists $\delta > 0$ such that f is bounded on $P(c, \delta)$.*

Theorem 22 (arithmetics of limits)

Let $c \in \mathbb{R}^*$, $\lim_{x \rightarrow c} f(x) = A \in \mathbb{R}^*$ and $\lim_{x \rightarrow c} g(x) = B \in \mathbb{R}^*$. Then

- (i) $\lim_{x \rightarrow c} (f(x) + g(x)) = A + B$ if the expression $A + B$ is defined,
- (ii) $\lim_{x \rightarrow c} f(x)g(x) = AB$ if the expression AB is defined,
- (iii) $\lim_{x \rightarrow c} f(x)/g(x) = A/B$ if the expression A/B is defined.

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- (iii) $\lim_{x \rightarrow c} f(x)/g(x) = A/B$ if the expression A/B is defined.

Corollary

Suppose that the functions f and g are continuous at $c \in \mathbb{R}$. Then also the functions $f + g$ and fg are continuous at c . If moreover $g(c) \neq 0$, then also the function f/g is continuous at c .

Theorem 23

Let $c \in \mathbb{R}^$, $\lim_{x \rightarrow c} g(x) = 0$, $\lim_{x \rightarrow c} f(x) = A \in \mathbb{R}^*$ and $A > 0$. If there exists $\eta > 0$ such that the function g is positive on $P(c, \eta)$, then $\lim_{x \rightarrow c} (f(x)/g(x)) = +\infty$.*

Definition

A **polynomial** is a function P of the form

$$P(x) = a_0 + a_1x + \cdots + a_nx^n, \quad x \in \mathbb{R},$$

where $n \in \mathbb{N} \cup \{0\}$ and $a_0, a_1, \dots, a_n \in \mathbb{R}$. The numbers a_0, \dots, a_n are called the **coefficients of the polynomial** P .

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Remark

Let $n, m \in \mathbb{N} \cup \{0\}$ and

$$P(x) = a_0 + a_1x + \cdots + a_nx^n, \quad x \in \mathbb{R},$$

$$Q(x) = b_0 + b_1x + \cdots + b_mx^m, \quad x \in \mathbb{R},$$

where $a_0, a_1, \dots, a_n \in \mathbb{R}$, $a_n \neq 0$, $b_0, b_1, \dots, b_m \in \mathbb{R}$, $b_m \neq 0$. If the polynomials P and Q are equal (i.e.

$P(x) = Q(x)$ for each $x \in \mathbb{R}$), then $n = m$ and

$$a_0 = b_0, \dots, a_n = b_n.$$

Definition

Let P be a polynomial of the form

$$P(x) = a_0 + a_1x + \cdots + a_nx^n, \quad x \in \mathbb{R}.$$

We say that P is a polynomial of **degree n** if $a_n \neq 0$. The degree of a **zero polynomial** (i.e. a constant zero function defined on \mathbb{R}) is defined as -1 .

Theorem 24 (limits and inequalities)

Suppose that $c \in \mathbb{R}^$ and $\lim_{x \rightarrow c} f(x)$, $\lim_{x \rightarrow c} g(x)$ exist.*

(i) If $\lim_{x \rightarrow c} f(x) > \lim_{x \rightarrow c} g(x)$, then there exists $\delta > 0$ such that

$$\forall x \in P(c, \delta): f(x) > g(x).$$

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(ii) If there exists $\delta > 0$ such that

$\forall x \in P(c, \delta): f(x) \leq g(x)$, then

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow c} f(x) \leq \lim_{x \rightarrow c} g(x).$$

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(iii) (two policemen/sandwich theorem) Suppose that there exists $\eta > 0$ such that

$$\forall x \in P(c, \eta): f(x) \leq h(x) \leq g(x).$$

If moreover $\lim_{x \rightarrow c} f(x) = \lim_{x \rightarrow c} g(x) = A \in \mathbb{R}^*$, then the limit $\lim_{x \rightarrow c} h(x)$ also exists and equals A .

Corollary

Let $c \in \mathbb{R}^$, $\lim_{x \rightarrow c} f(x) = 0$ and suppose there exists $\eta > 0$ such that g is bounded on $P(c, \eta)$. Then $\lim_{x \rightarrow c} (f(x)g(x)) = 0$.*

Theorem 25 (limit of a composition)

Let $c, A, B \in \mathbb{R}^*$, $\lim_{x \rightarrow c} g(x) = A$, $\lim_{y \rightarrow A} f(y) = B$ and at least one of the following conditions is satisfied:

- (I) $\exists \eta \in \mathbb{R}, \eta > 0 \forall x \in P(c, \eta): g(x) \neq A$,
- (C) the function f is continuous at A .

Then

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow c} f(g(x)) = B.$$

Theorem 25 (limit of a composition)

Let $c, A, B \in \mathbb{R}^*$, $\lim_{x \rightarrow c} g(x) = A$, $\lim_{y \rightarrow A} f(y) = B$ and at least one of the following conditions is satisfied:

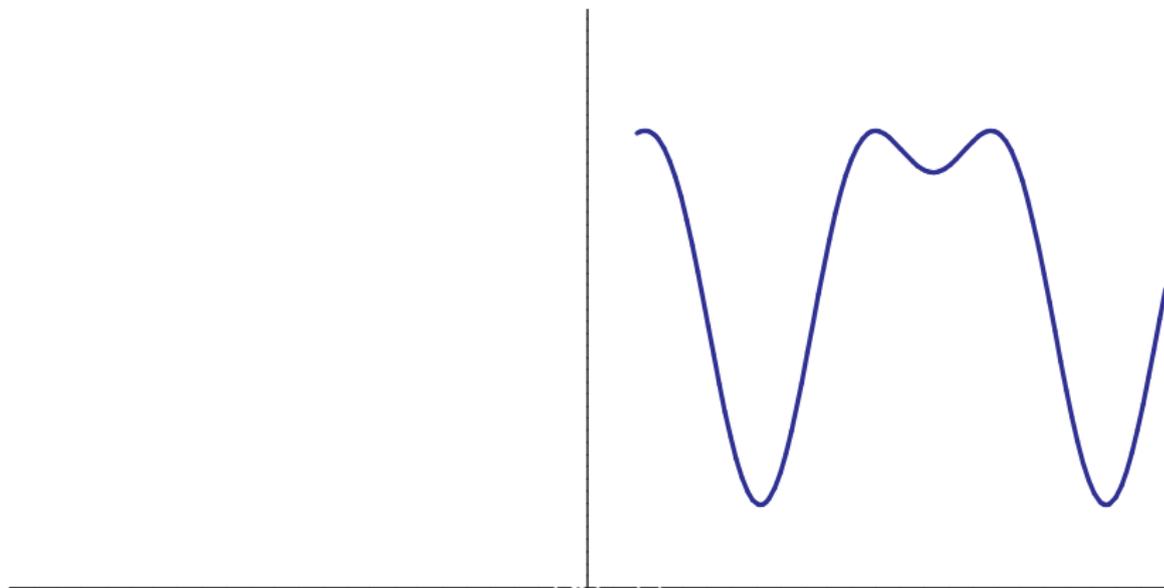
- (I) $\exists \eta \in \mathbb{R}, \eta > 0 \forall x \in P(c, \eta): g(x) \neq A$,
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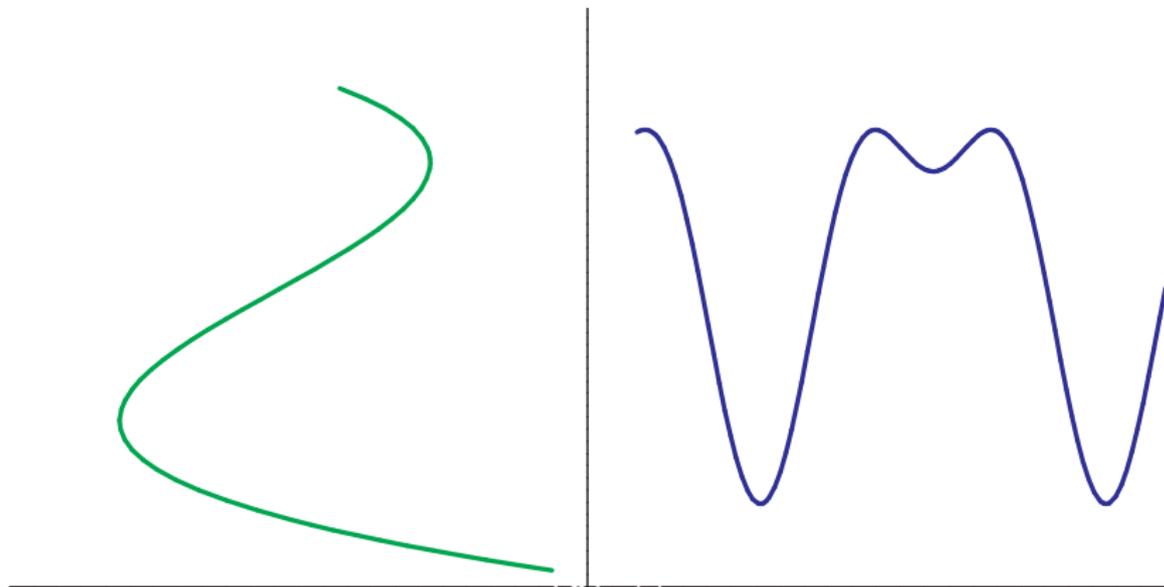
Then

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow c} f(g(x)) = B.$$

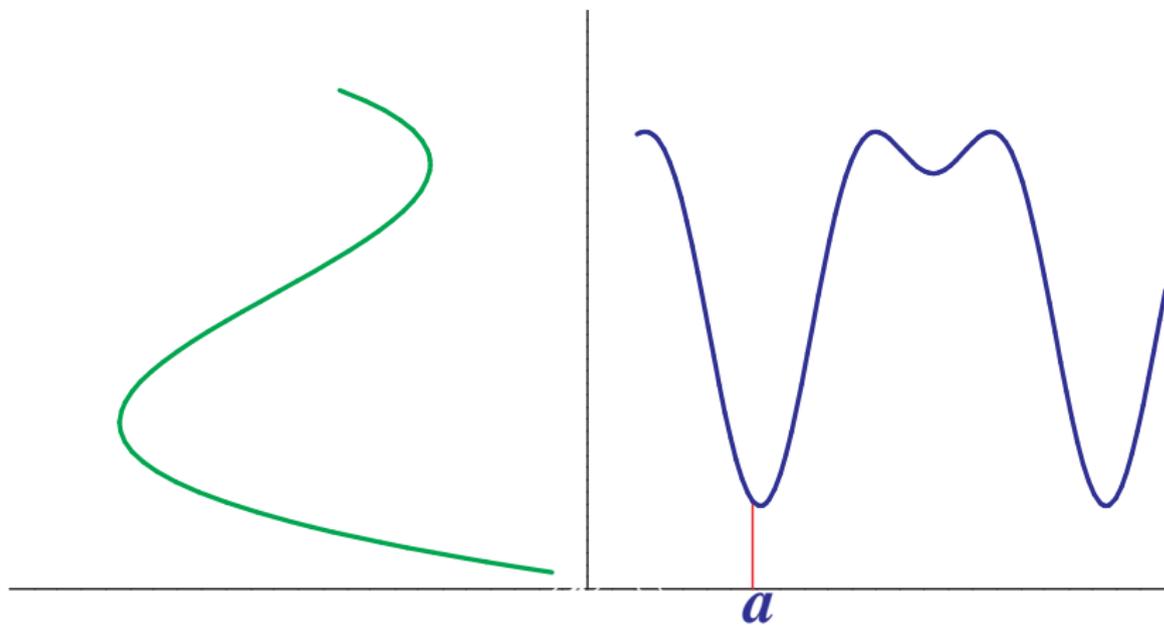
Corollary

Suppose that the function g is continuous at $c \in \mathbb{R}$ and the function f is continuous at $g(c)$. Then the function $f \circ g$ is continuous at c .

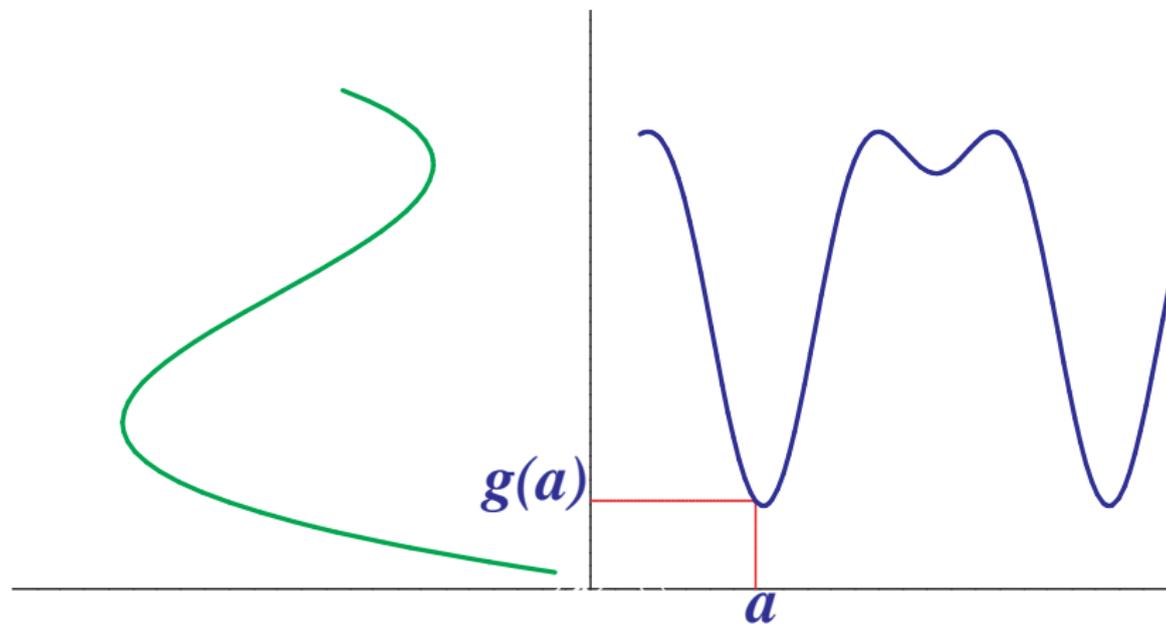




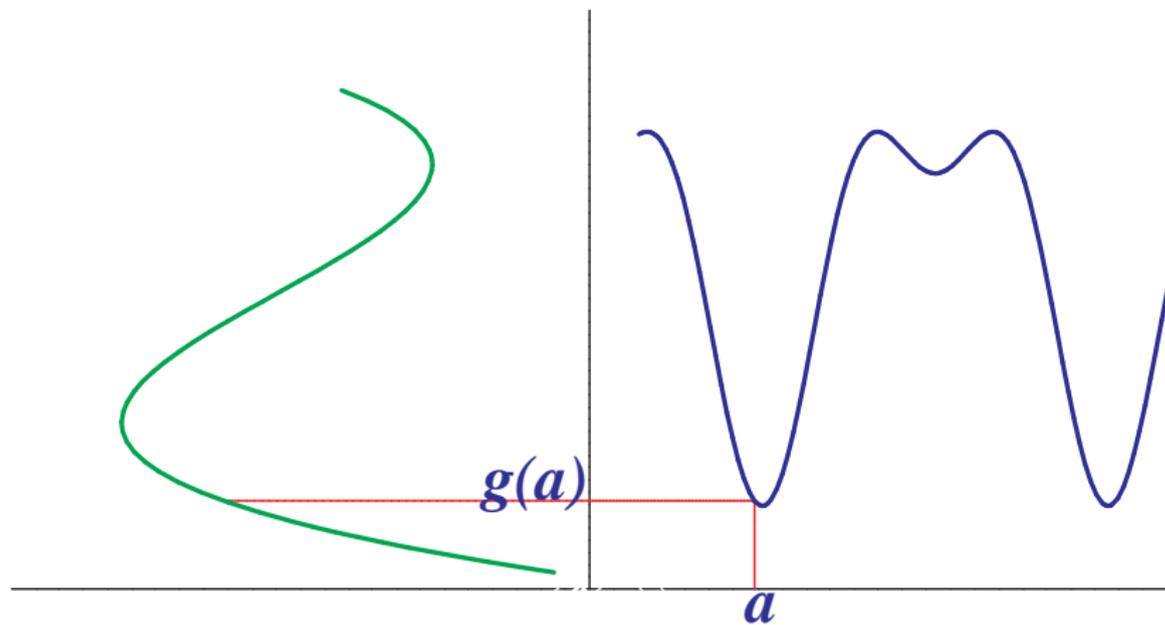
IV.2. Limit of a function



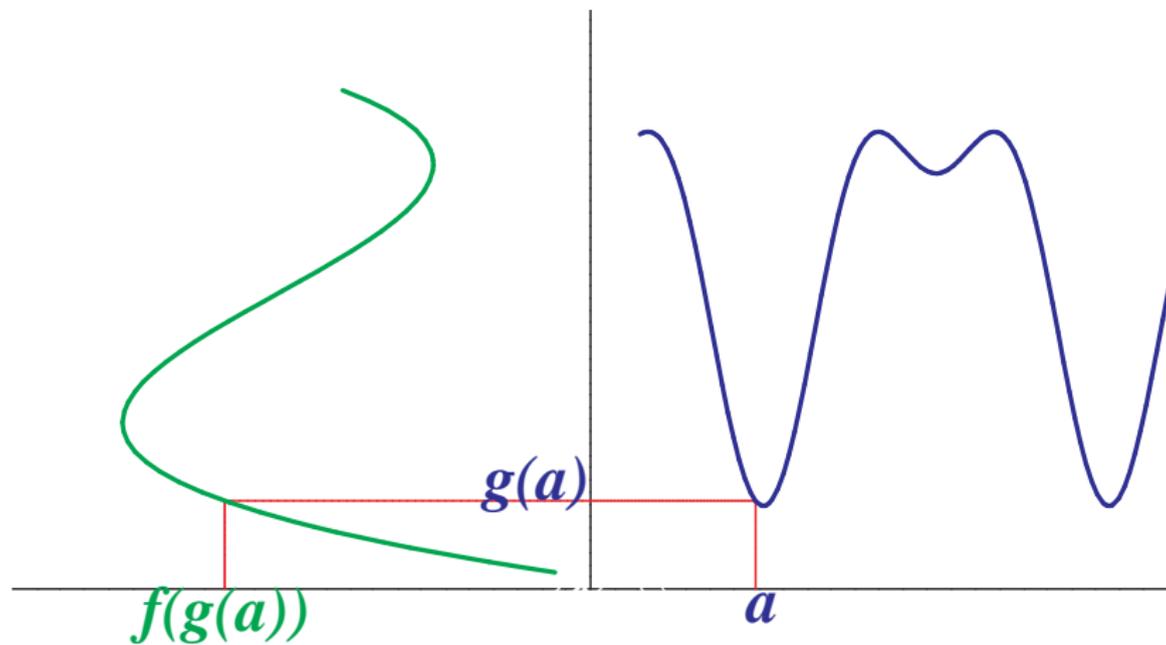
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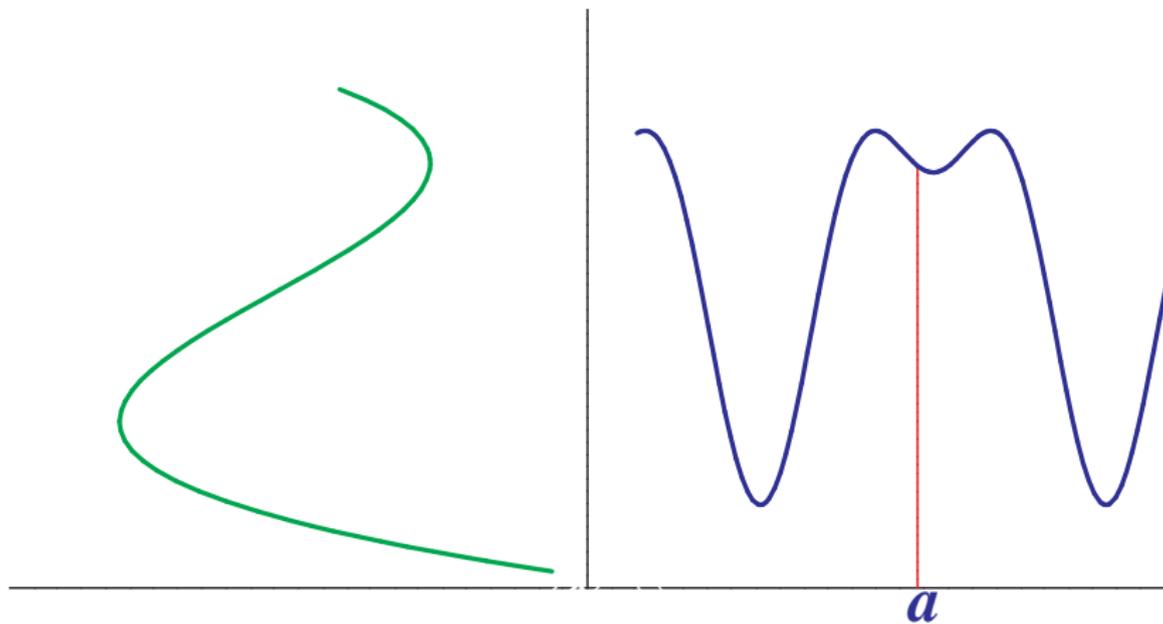
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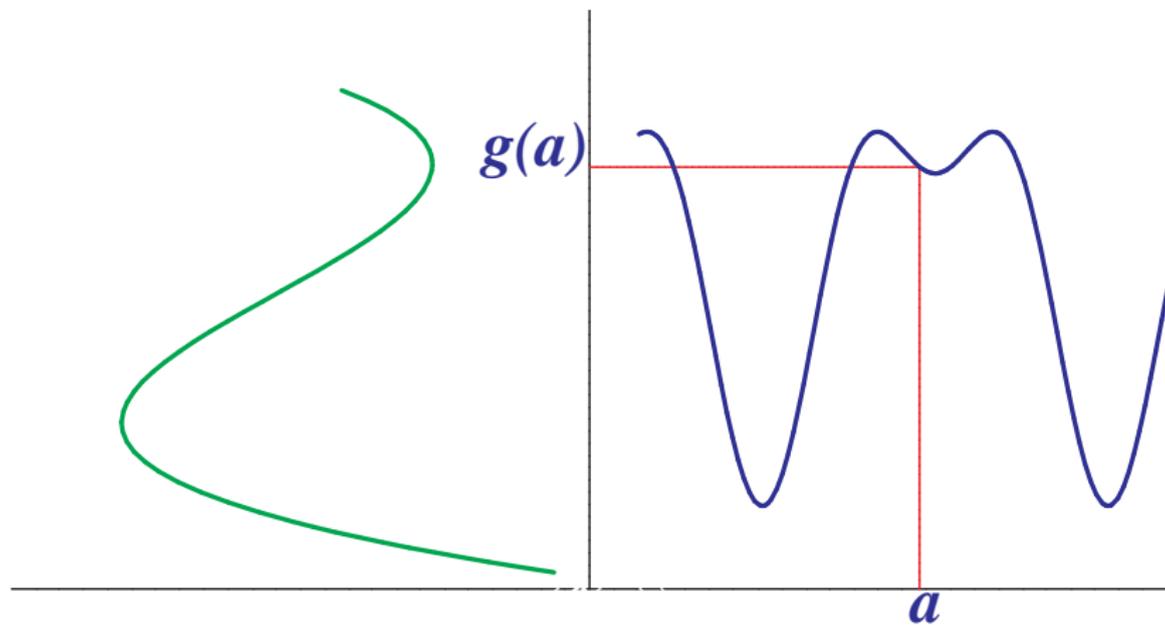


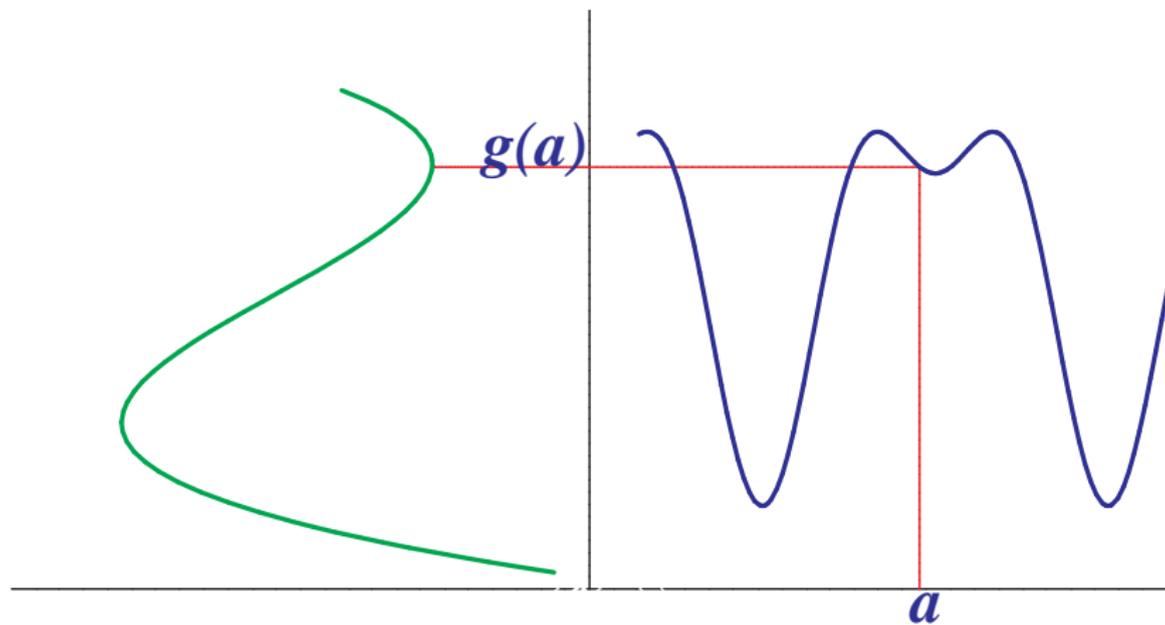
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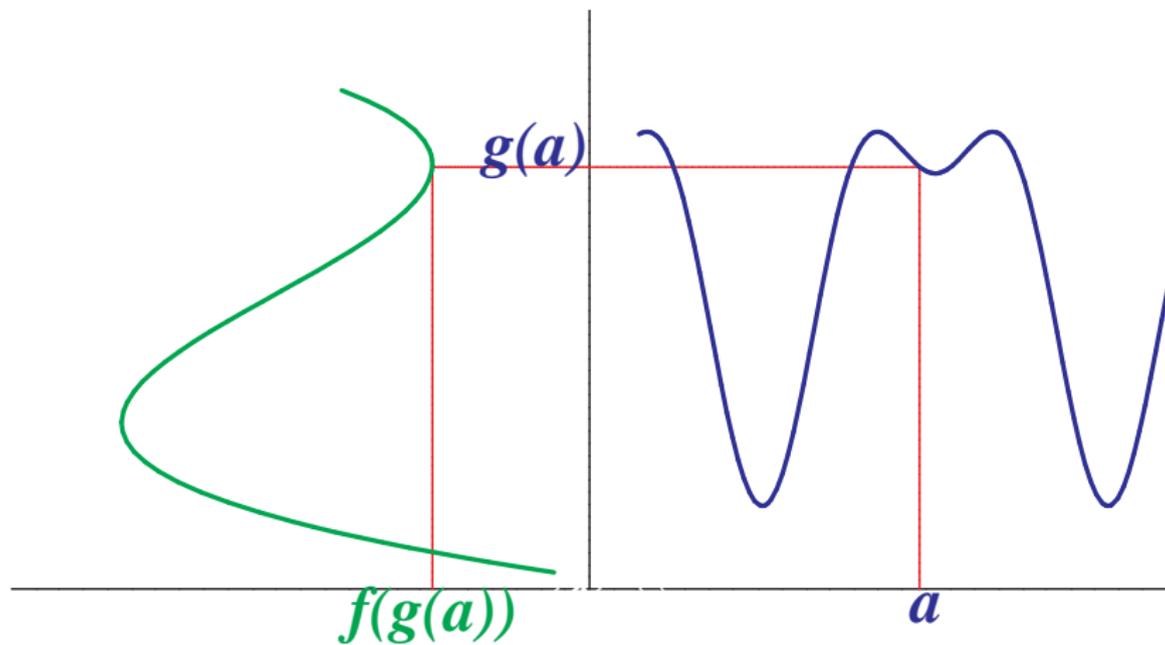


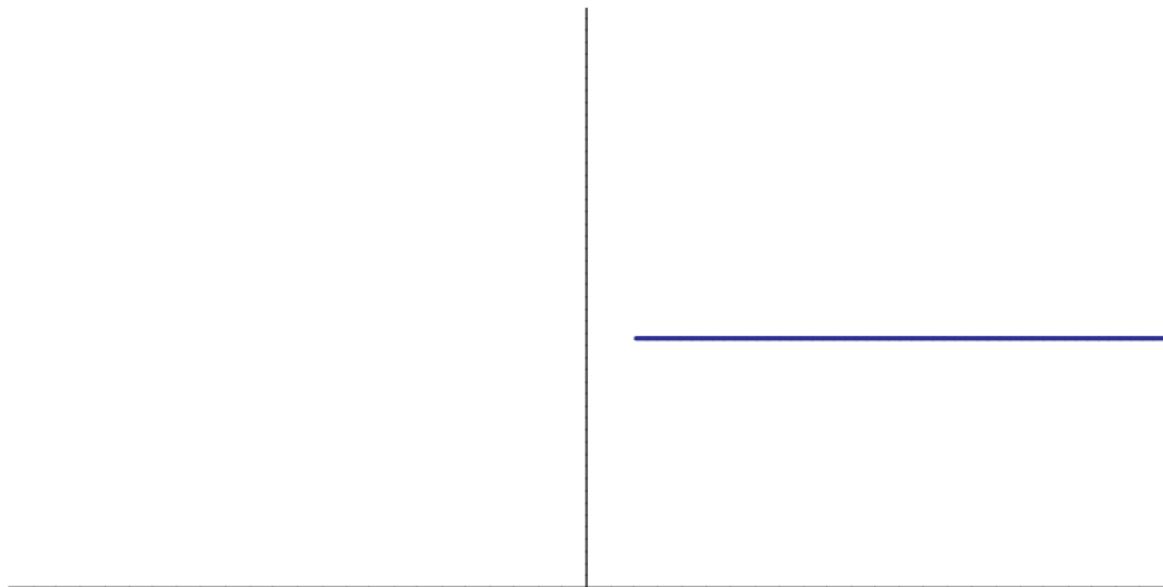
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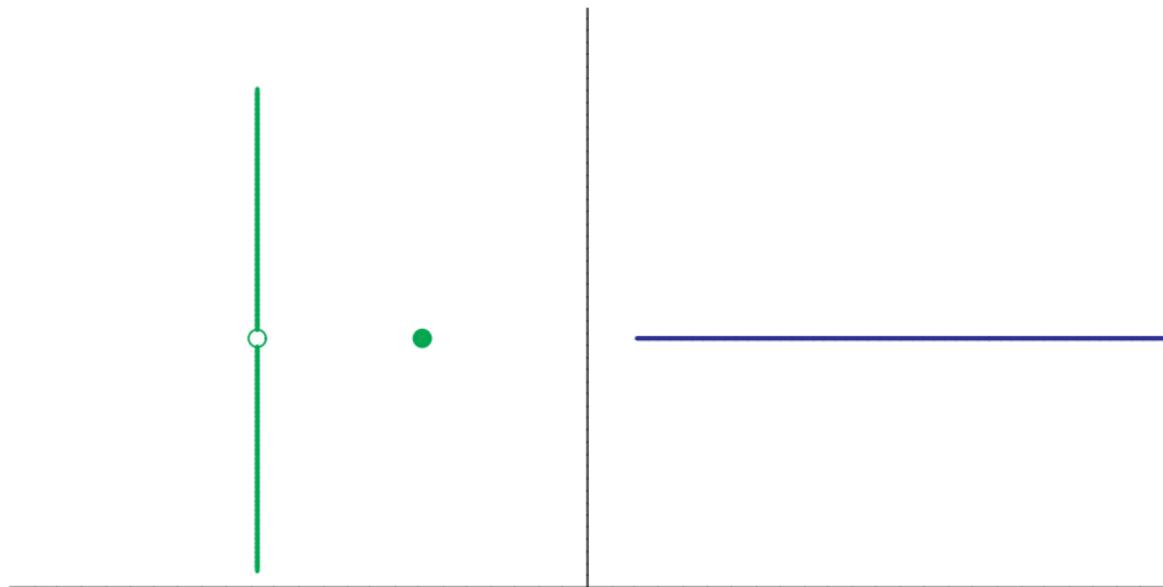




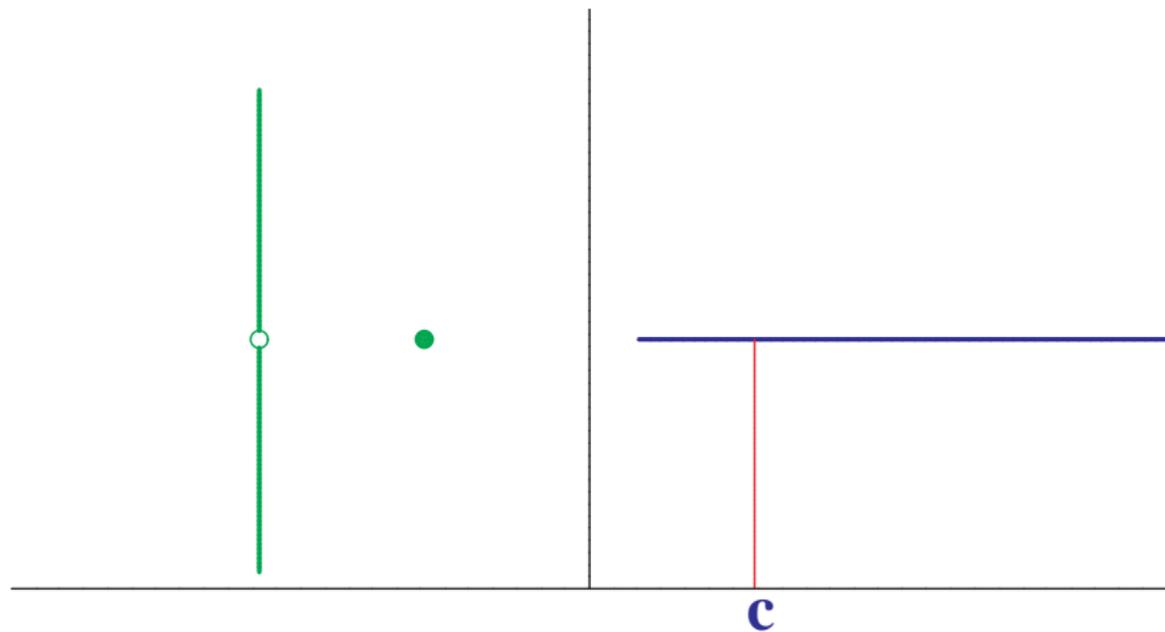




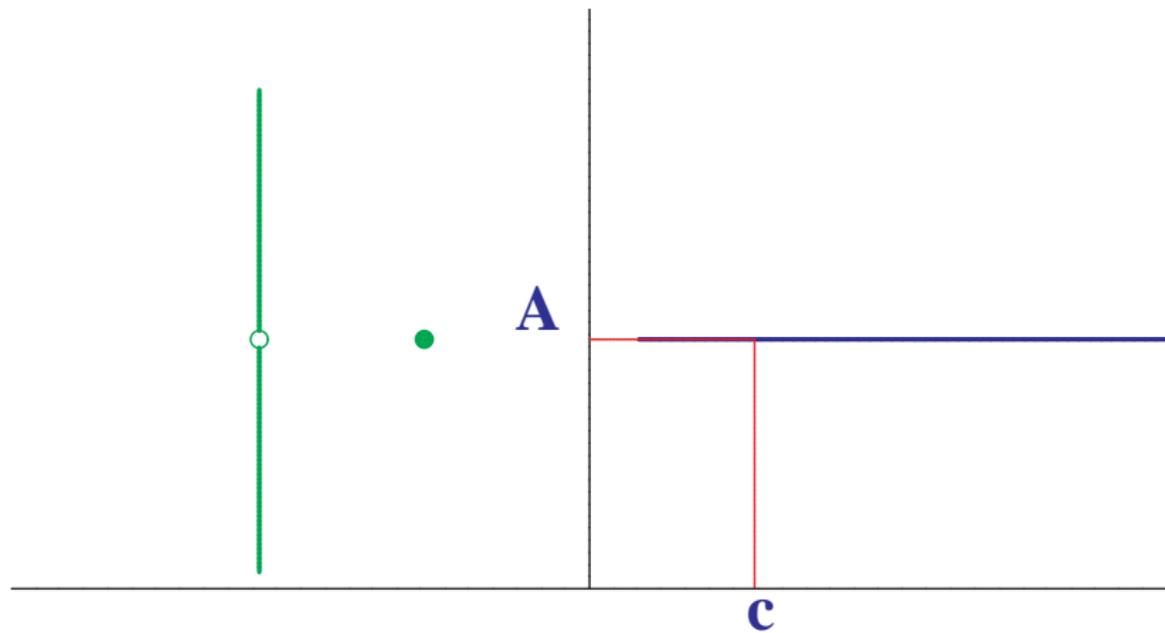
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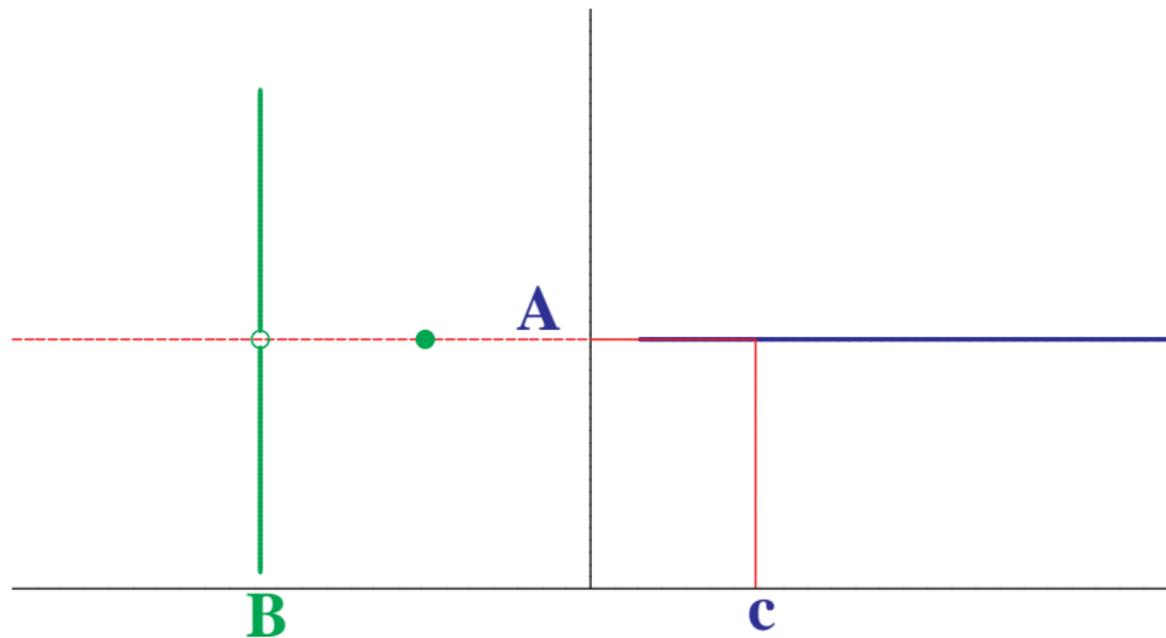
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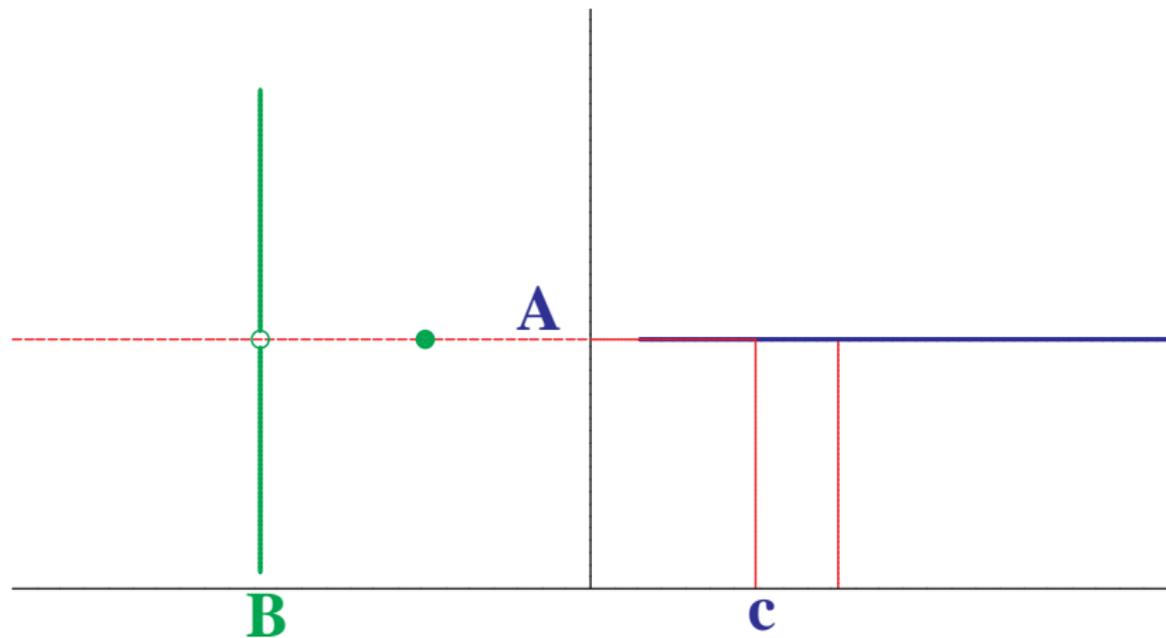
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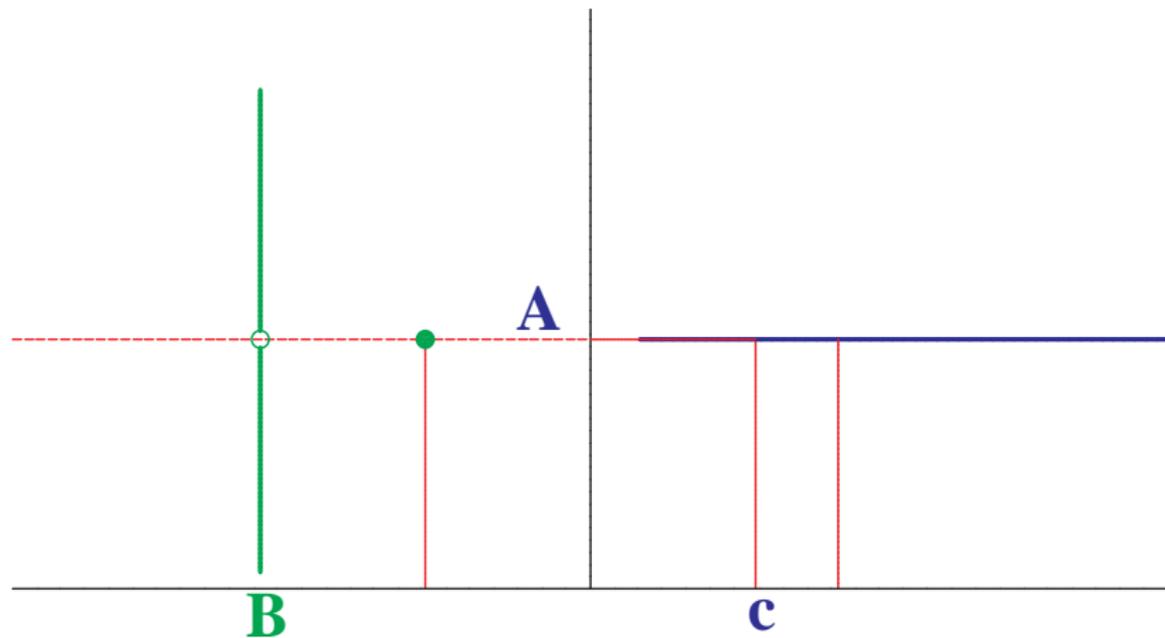
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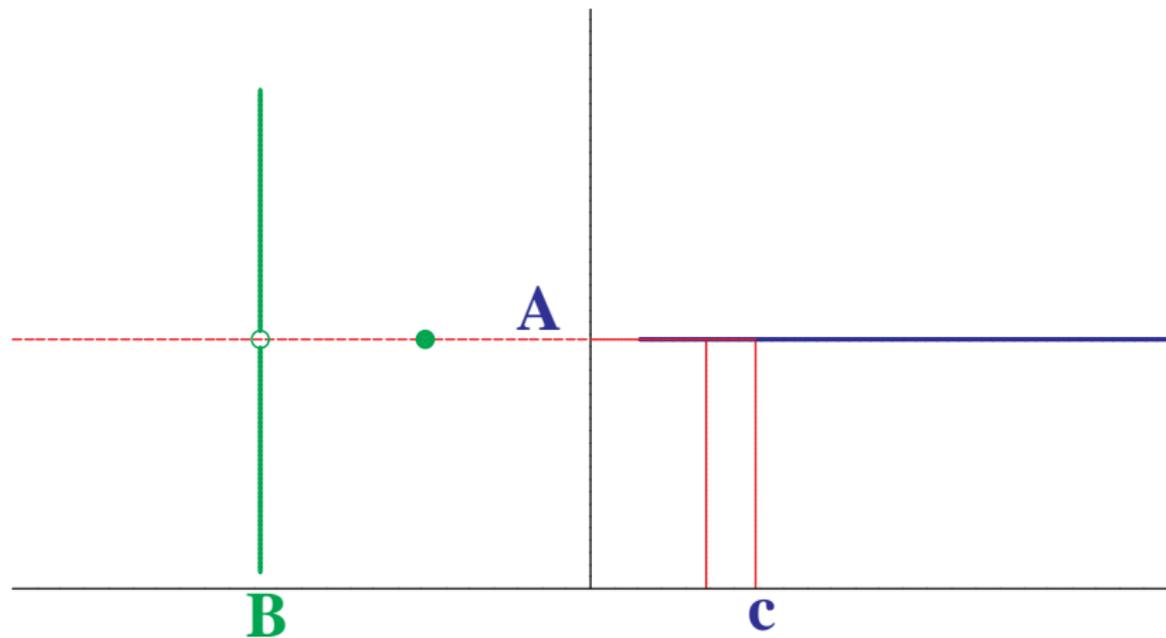
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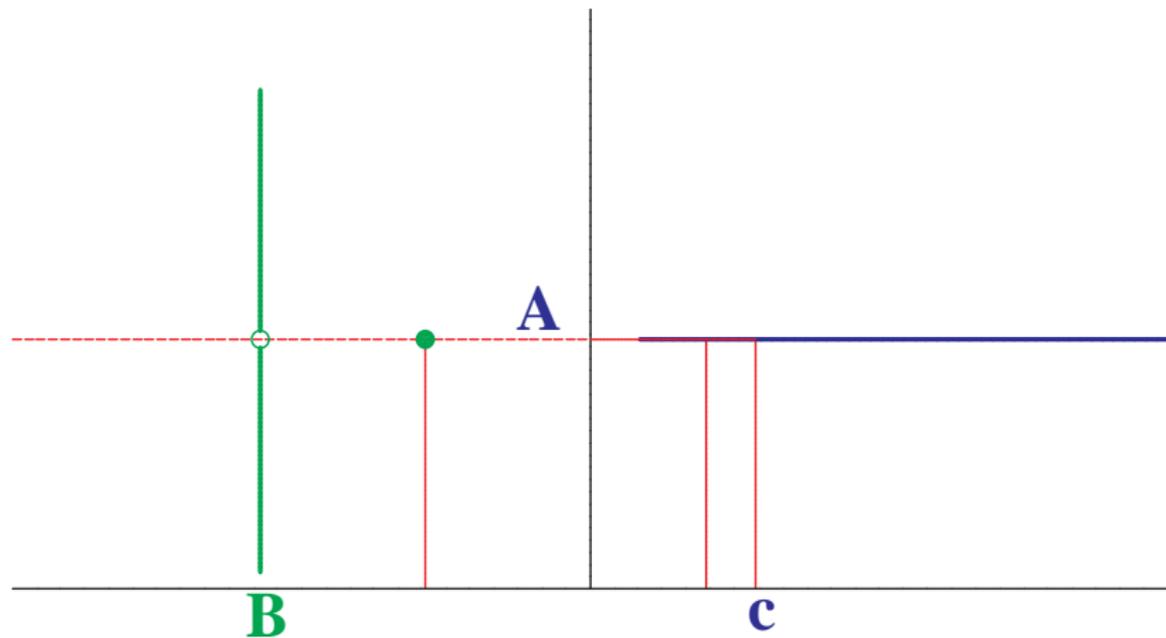
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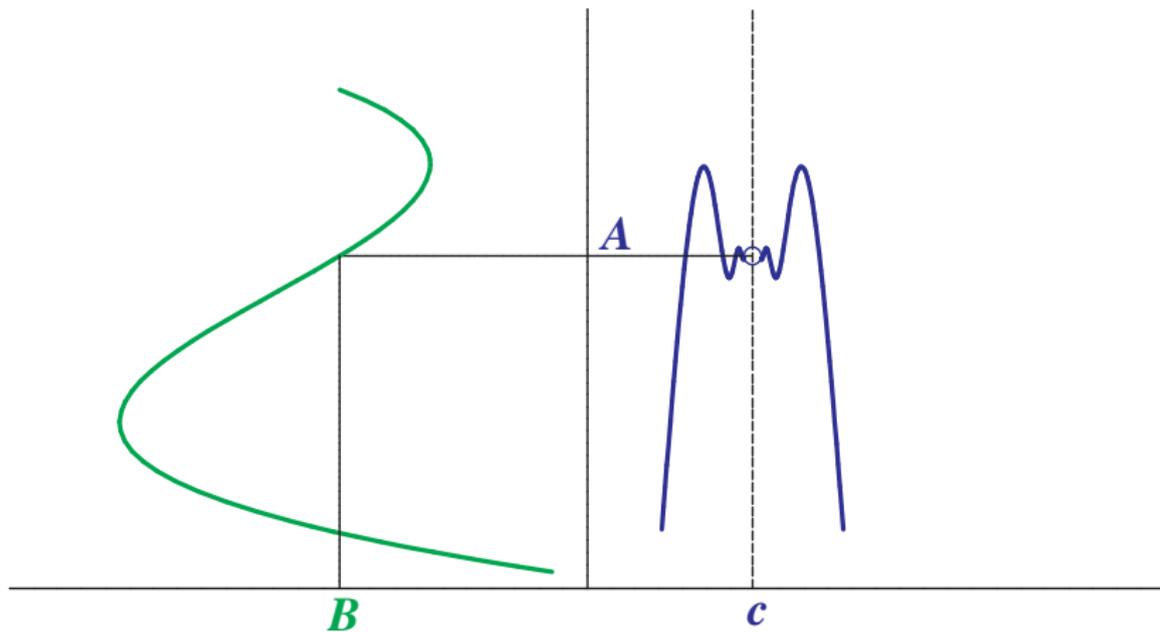
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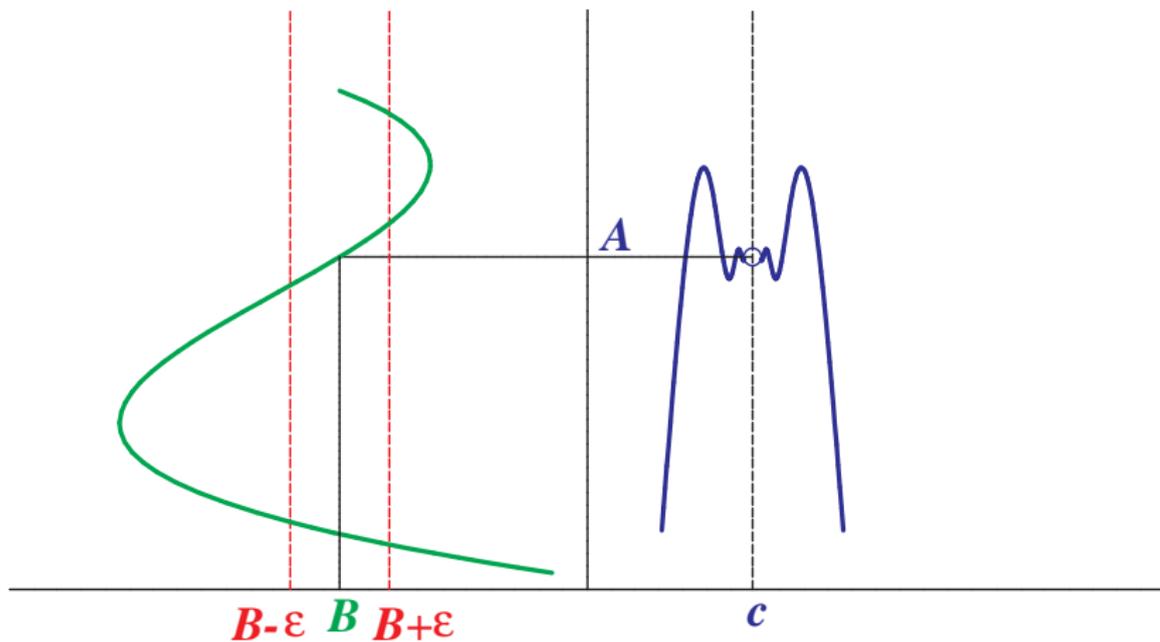
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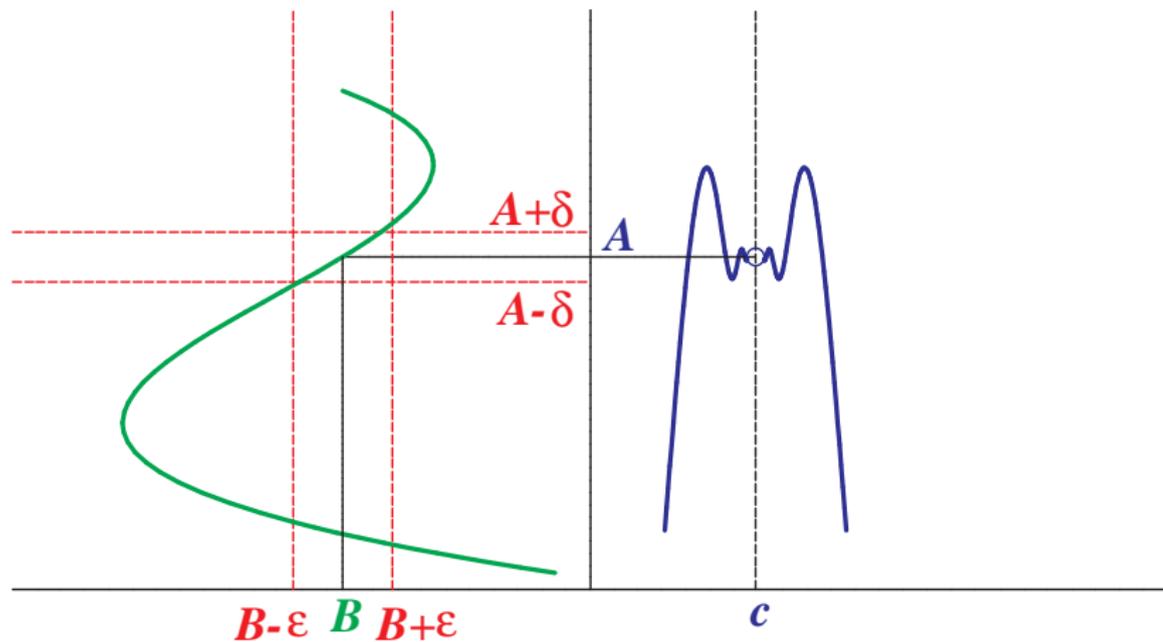
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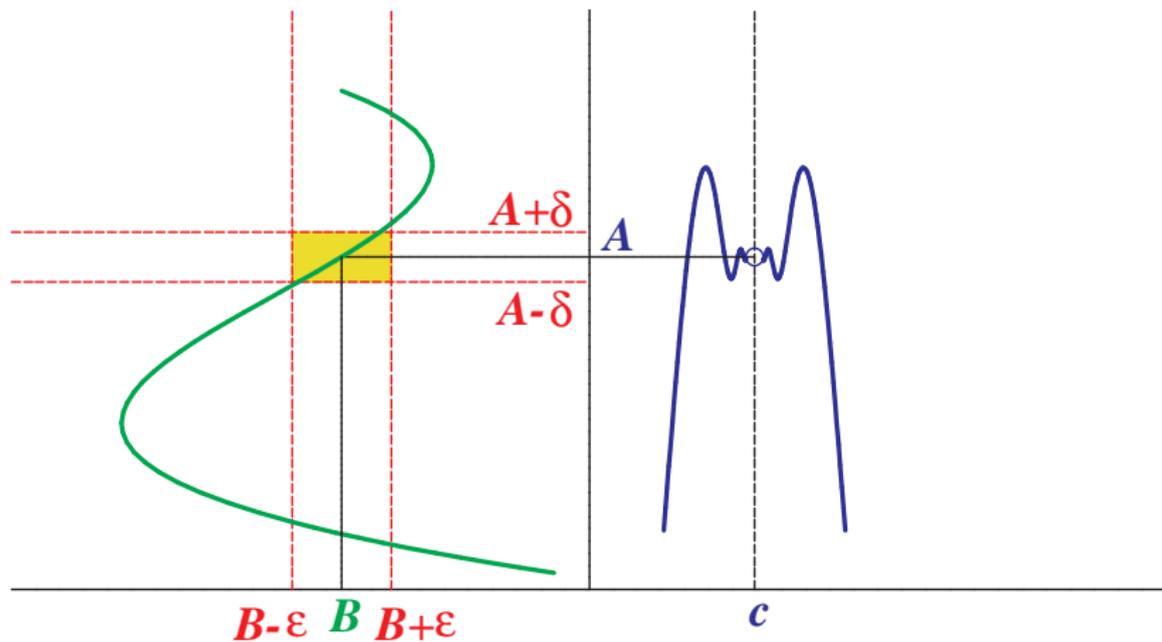
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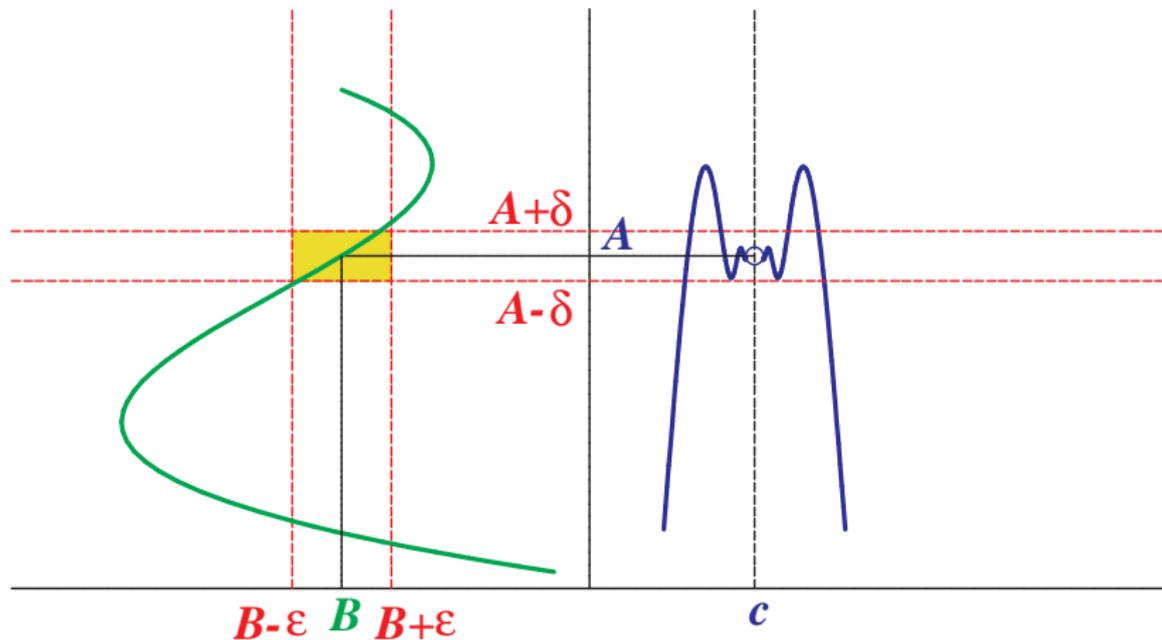
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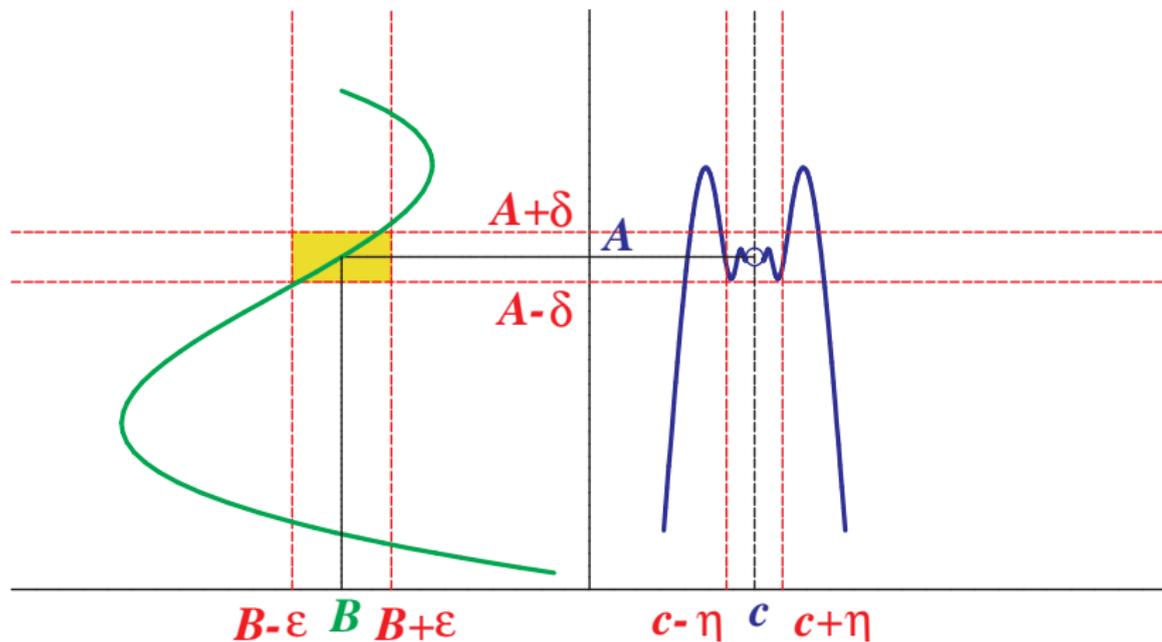
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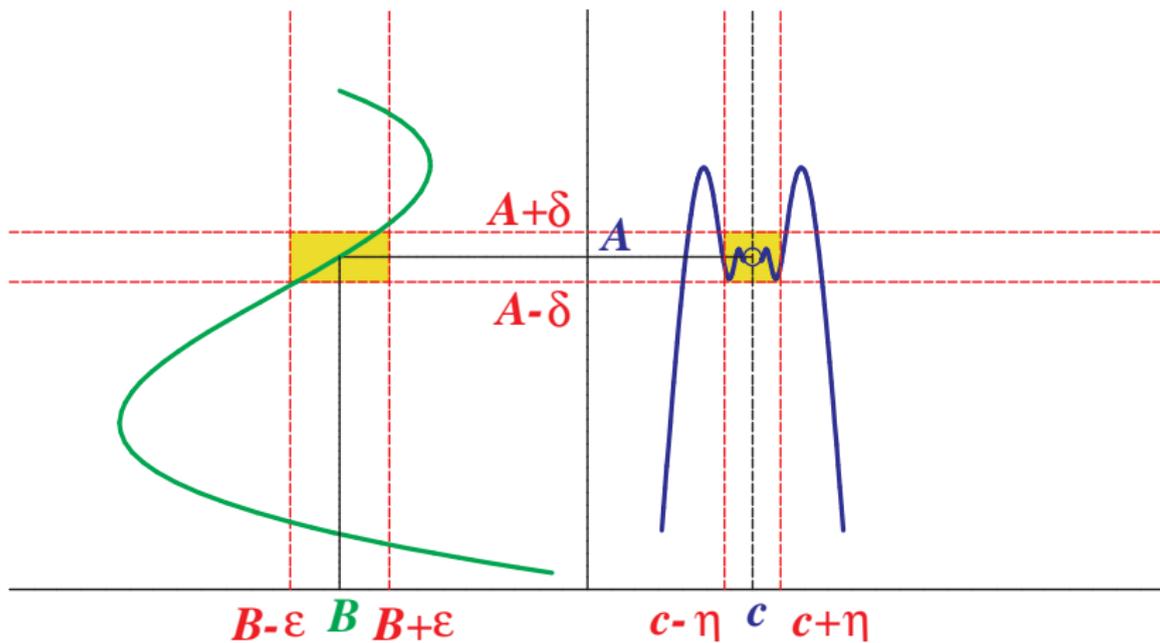
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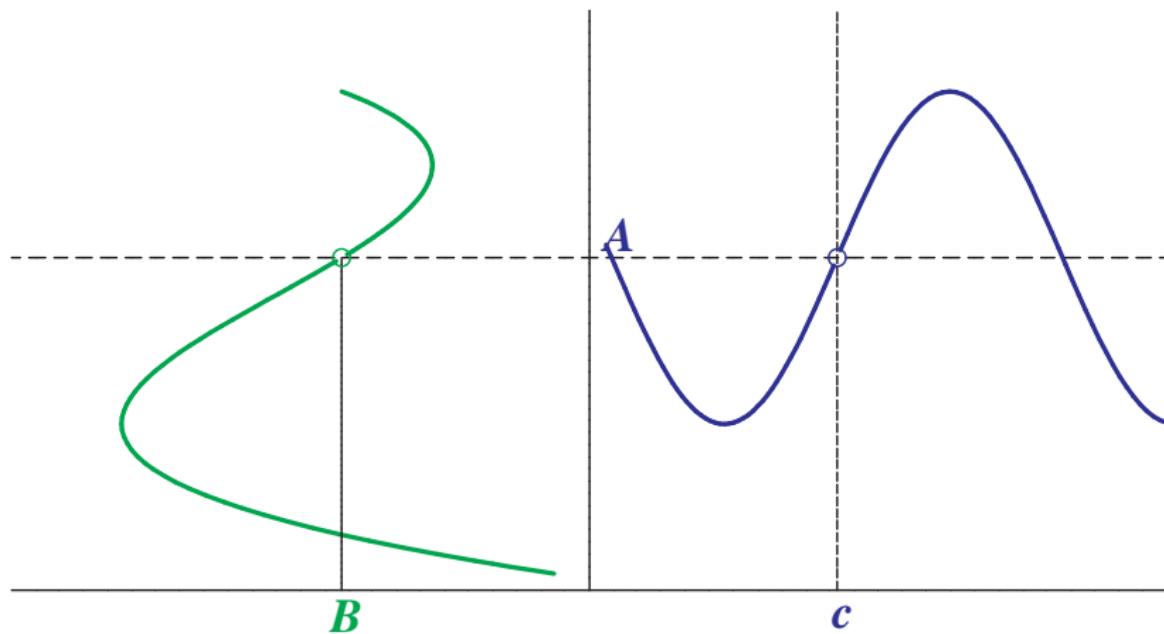
IV.2. Limit of a function



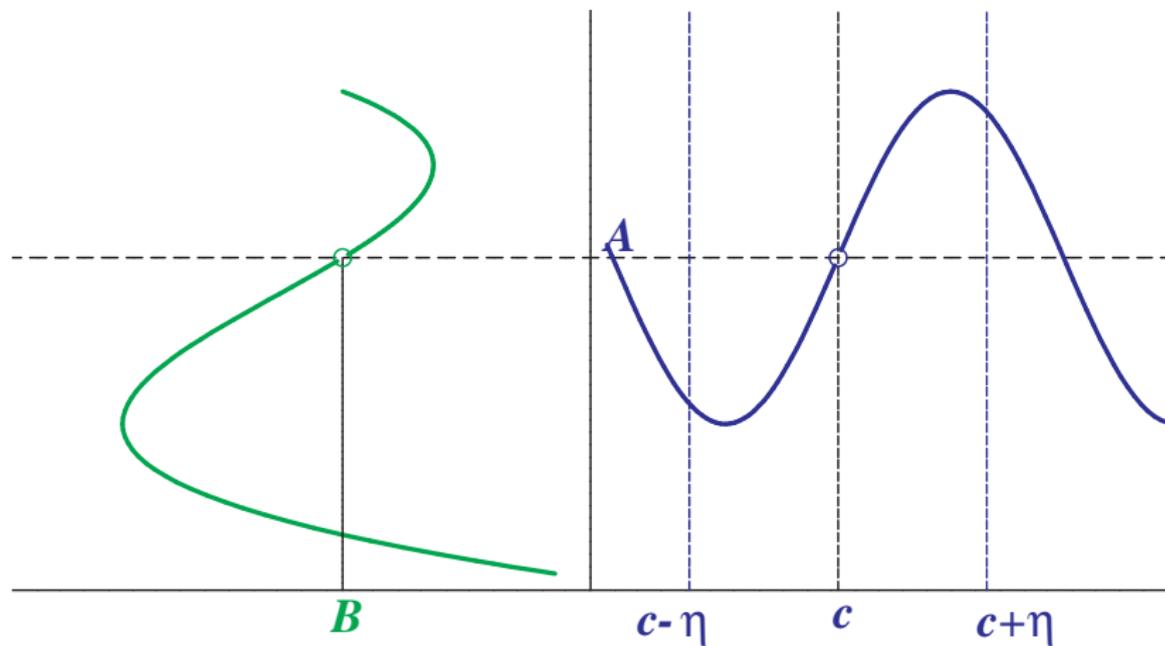
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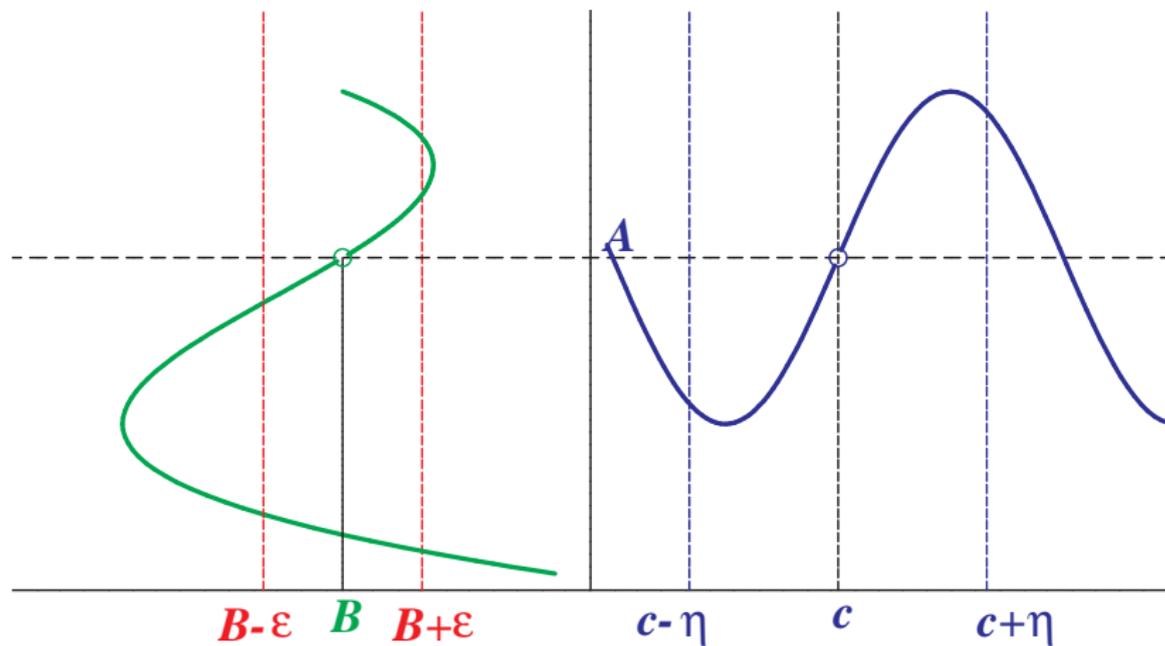
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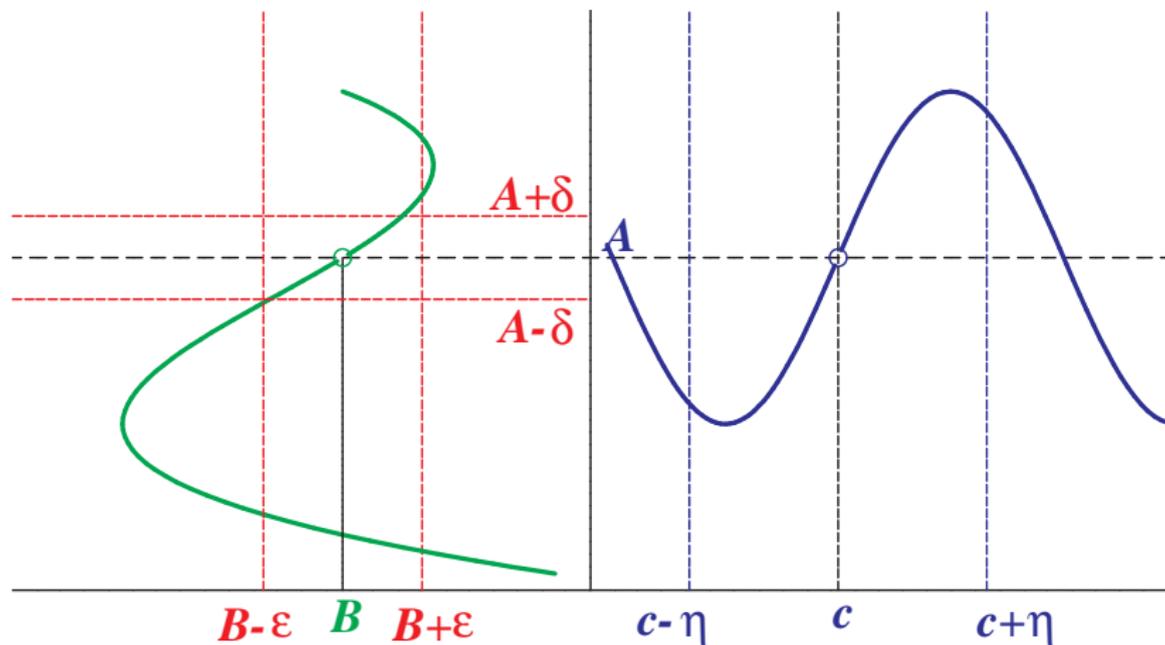
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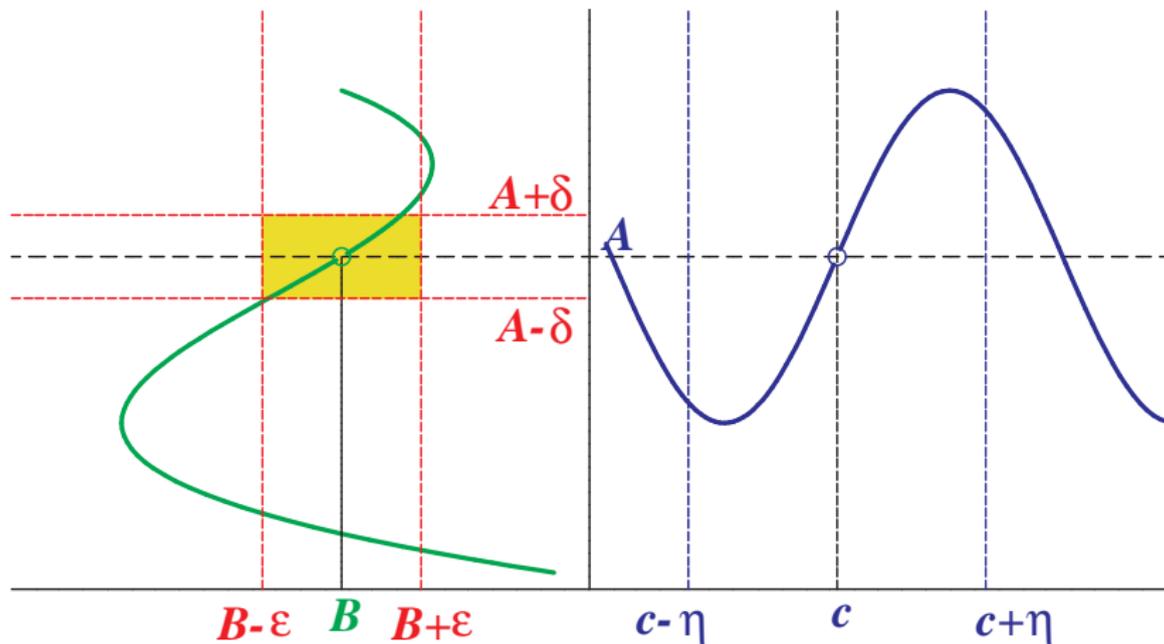
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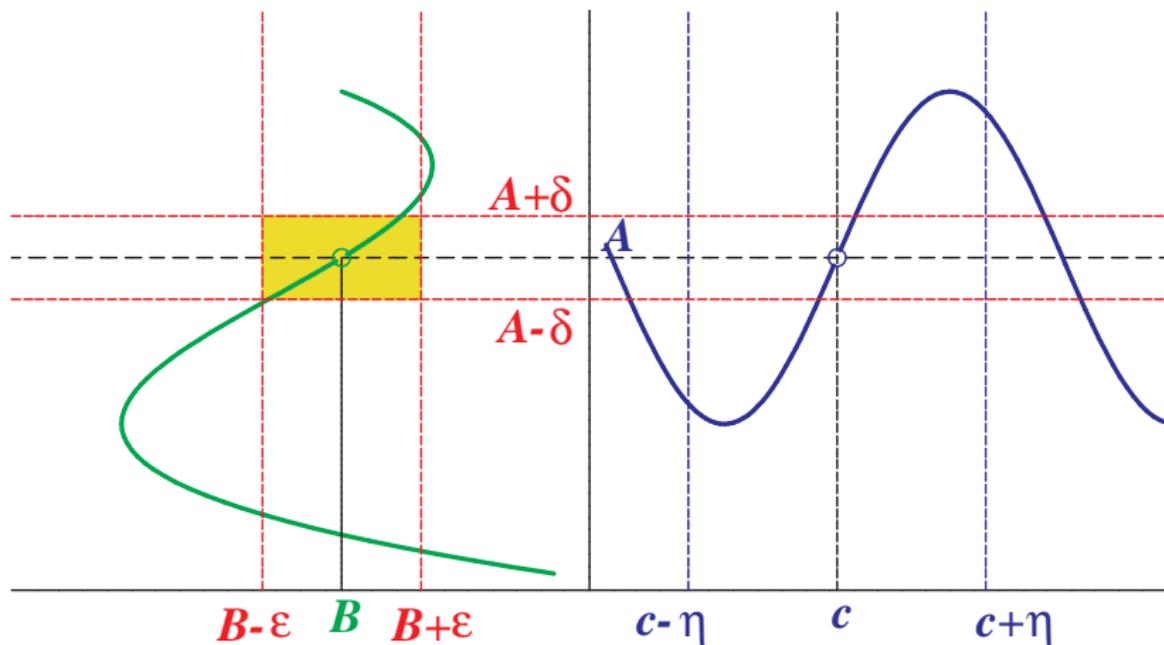
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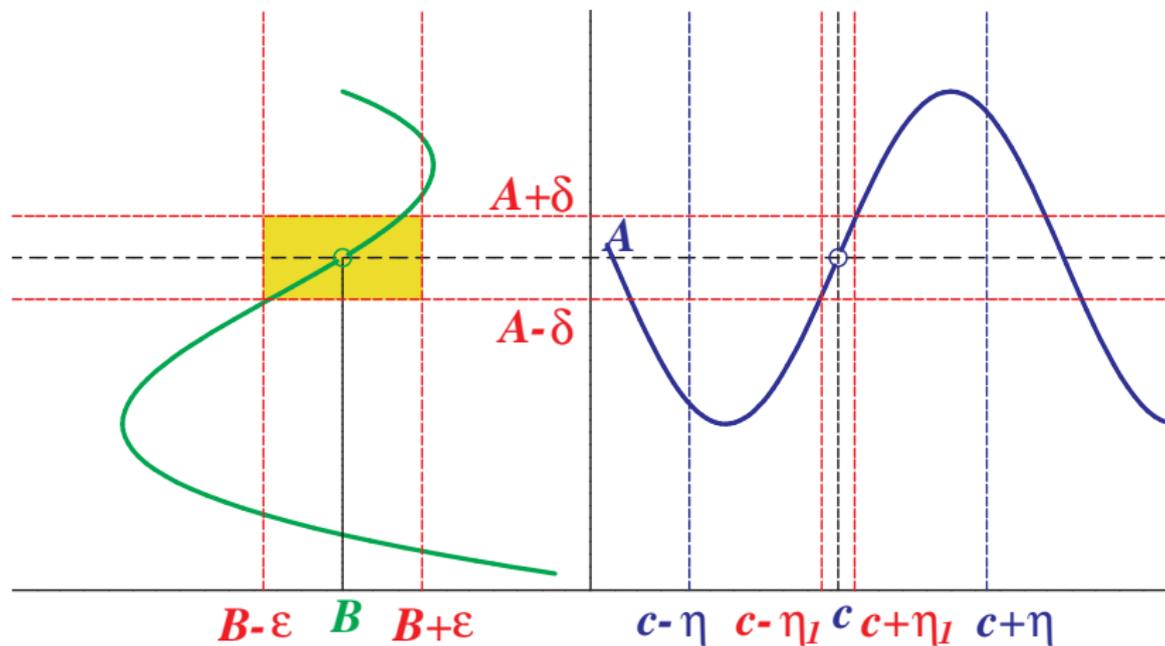
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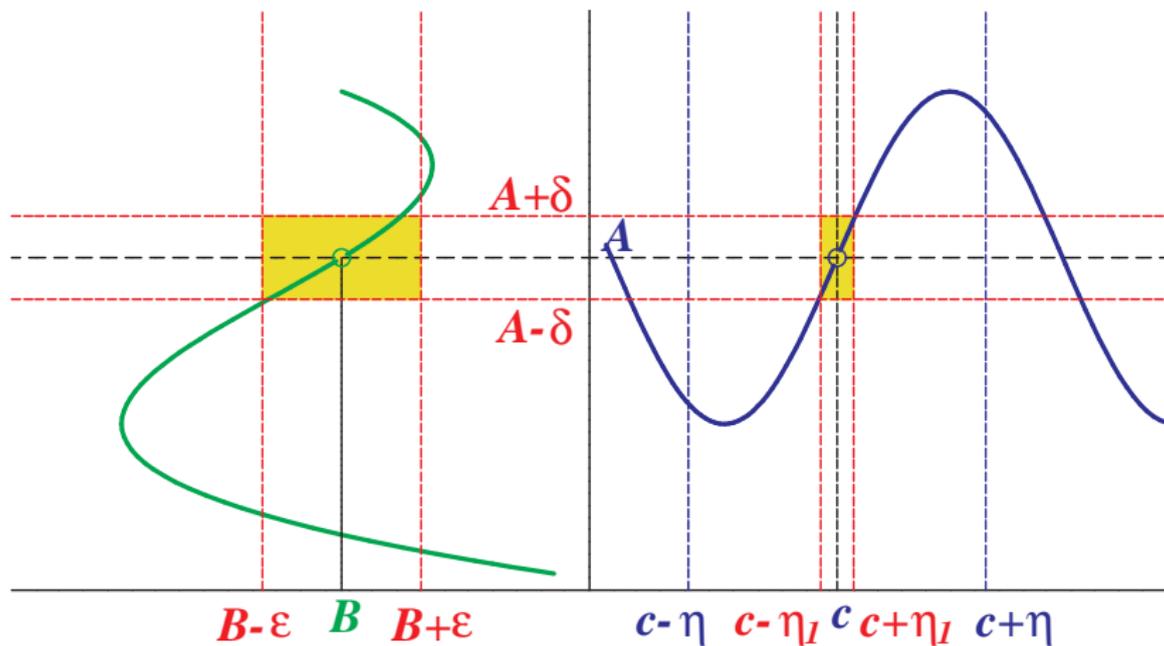
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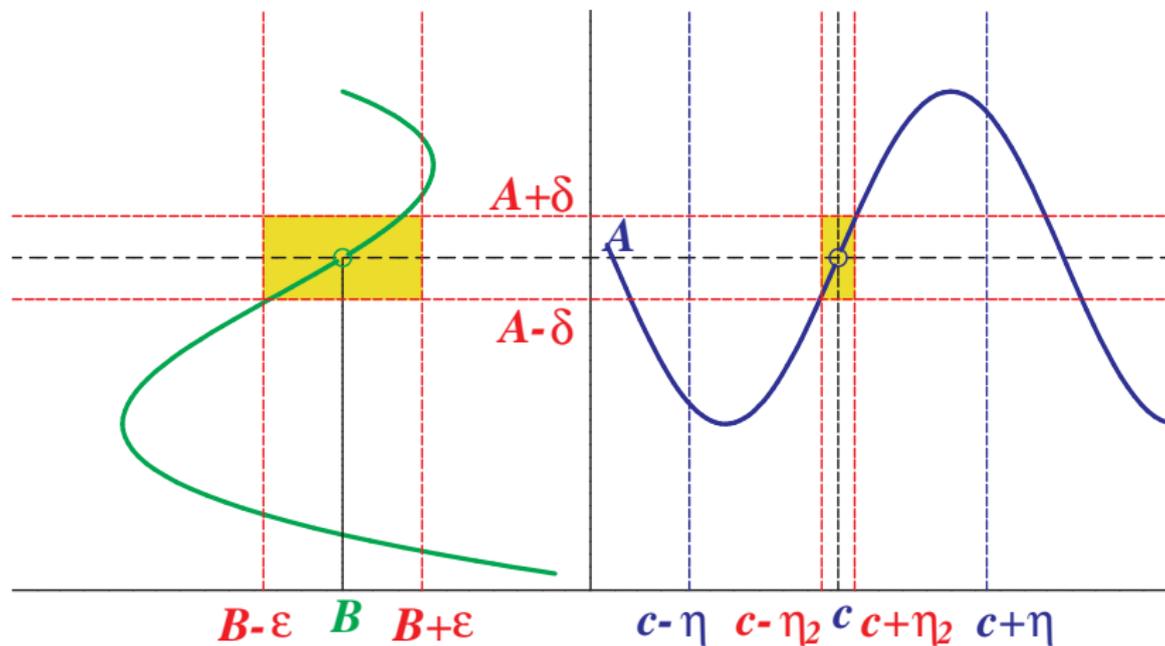
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Theorem 26 (Heine)

Let $c \in \mathbb{R}^$, $A \in \mathbb{R}^*$ and the function f satisfies $\lim_{x \rightarrow c} f(x) = A$. If the sequence $\{x_n\}$ satisfies $x_n \in D_f$, $x_n \neq c$ for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$ and $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} x_n = c$, then $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} f(x_n) = A$.*

Theorem 27 (limit of a monotone function)

Let $a, b \in \mathbb{R}^*$, $a < b$. Suppose that f is a function monotone on an interval (a, b) . Then the limits $\lim_{x \rightarrow a^+} f(x)$ and $\lim_{x \rightarrow b^-} f(x)$ exist. Moreover,

- if f is non-decreasing on (a, b) , then $\lim_{x \rightarrow a^+} f(x) = \inf f((a, b))$ and $\lim_{x \rightarrow b^-} f(x) = \sup f((a, b))$;
- if f is non-increasing on (a, b) , then $\lim_{x \rightarrow a^+} f(x) = \sup f((a, b))$ and $\lim_{x \rightarrow b^-} f(x) = \inf f((a, b))$.

Definition

Let $J \subset \mathbb{R}$ be a non-degenerate interval (i.e. it contains infinitely many points). A function $f: J \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is **continuous on the interval J** if

- f is continuous at every inner point J ,
- f is continuous from the right at the left endpoint of J if this point belongs to J ,
- f is continuous from the left at the right endpoint of J if this point belongs to J .

Theorem 28 (continuity of the compound function on an interval)

Let I and J be intervals, $g: I \rightarrow J$, $f: J \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, let g be continuous on I and let f be continuous on J . Then the function $f \circ g$ is continuous on I .

Theorem 29 (Bolzano, intermediate value theorem)

Let f be a function continuous on an interval $[a, b]$ and suppose that $f(a) < f(b)$. Then for each $C \in (f(a), f(b))$ there exists $\xi \in (a, b)$ satisfying $f(\xi) = C$.

Theorem 30 (an image of an interval under a continuous function)

Let J be an interval and let $f: J \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be a function continuous on J . Then $f(J)$ is an interval.

Definition

Let $M \subset \mathbb{R}$, $x \in M$ and a function f is defined at least on M (i.e. $M \subset D_f$). We say that f attains its **maximum** (resp. **minimum**) **on M** at $x \in M$ if

$$\forall y \in M: f(y) \leq f(x) \quad (\text{resp. } \forall y \in M: f(y) \geq f(x)).$$

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Definition

Let $M \subset \mathbb{R}$, $x \in M$ and a function f is defined at least on M (i.e. $M \subset D_f$). We say that the function f has at x

- a **local maximum with respect to M** if there exists $\delta > 0$ such that $\forall y \in B(x, \delta) \cap M: f(y) \leq f(x)$,

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The points of local maxima or minima are collectively called the points of **local extrema**.

Theorem 31 (Heine theorem for continuity on an interval)

Let f be a function continuous on an interval J and $c \in J$. Then $\lim f(x_n) = f(c)$ for each sequence $\{x_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$ of points in the interval J satisfying $\lim x_n = c$.

Theorem 32 (extrema of continuous functions)

Let f be a function continuous on an interval $[a, b]$. Then f attains its maximum and minimum on $[a, b]$.

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Corollary 33 (boundedness of a continuous function)

Let f be a function continuous on an interval $[a, b]$. Then f is bounded on $[a, b]$.

Theorem 34 (continuity of an inverse function)

Let f be a continuous function that is increasing (resp. decreasing) on an interval J . Then the function f^{-1} is continuous and increasing (resp. decreasing) on the interval $f(J)$.

Theorem 35 (logarithm)

There exist a unique function (denoted by \log and called the *natural logarithm*) with the following properties:

(L1) $D_{\log} = (0, +\infty)$,

(L2) *the function \log is increasing on $(0, +\infty)$,*

(L3) $\forall x, y \in (0, +\infty): \log xy = \log x + \log y$,

(L4) $\lim_{x \rightarrow 1} \frac{\log x}{x-1} = 1$.

Properties of the logarithm

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- $R_{\log} = \mathbb{R}$,
- there exists a unique number $e \in (0, +\infty)$ satisfying $\log e = 1$.

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The **exponential function** (denoted by \exp) is defined as an inverse function to the function \log .

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- $\forall r \in \mathbb{Q}: \exp r = e^r.$

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Definition

Let $a, b \in (0, +\infty)$, $a \neq 1$. The **general logarithm** to base a is defined by

$$\log_a b = \frac{\log b}{\log a}.$$

Theorem 36 (the sine and the number π)

There exists a unique positive real number (denoted by π) and a unique function **sine** (denoted by \sin) with the following properties:

(S1) $D_{\sin} = \mathbb{R}$,

(S2) \sin is increasing on $[-\pi/2, \pi/2]$,

(S3) $\sin 0 = 0$,

(S4) $\forall x, y \in \mathbb{R}: \sin(x + y) = \sin x \cdot \sin(\frac{\pi}{2} - y) + \sin(\frac{\pi}{2} - x) \cdot \sin y$,

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Definition

The function **cosine** is defined by $\cos x = \sin(\frac{\pi}{2} - x)$, $x \in \mathbb{R}$.

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- The functions \sin and \cos are continuous on \mathbb{R} .
- $R_{\sin} = R_{\cos} = [-1, 1]$

Properties of the sine and cosine

- The function \cos is decreasing on $[0, \pi]$.
- $\cos \frac{\pi}{2} = 0$, $\cos 0 = \sin \frac{\pi}{2} = 1$, $\sin \pi = 0$,
 $\cos \pi = \sin(-\frac{\pi}{2}) = -1$, $\sin \frac{\pi}{4} = \cos \frac{\pi}{4} = \frac{\sqrt{2}}{2}$
- $\forall x \in \mathbb{R}: \sin(x + \pi) = -\sin x$
- The function \cos is even, the function \sin is odd.
- The functions \sin and \cos are 2π -periodic.
- $\forall x \in \mathbb{R}: \sin^2 x + \cos^2 x = 1$
- $\forall x \in \mathbb{R}: |\sin x| \leq 1, |\cos x| \leq 1$
- $\forall x, y \in \mathbb{R}: \sin x - \sin y = 2 \sin\left(\frac{x-y}{2}\right) \cos\left(\frac{x+y}{2}\right)$
- The functions \sin and \cos are continuous on \mathbb{R} .
- $R_{\sin} = R_{\cos} = [-1, 1]$
- The function \sin is equal to zero exactly at the points of the set $\{k\pi; k \in \mathbb{Z}\}$, the function \cos is equal to zero exactly at the points of the set $\{\frac{\pi}{2} + k\pi; k \in \mathbb{Z}\}$.

Definition

The function **tangent** is denoted by tg and defined by

$$\operatorname{tg} x = \frac{\sin x}{\cos x}$$

for every $x \in \mathbb{R}$ for which the fraction is defined, i.e.

$$D_{\operatorname{tg}} = \{x \in \mathbb{R}; x \neq \pi/2 + k\pi, k \in \mathbb{Z}\}.$$

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The function **cotangent** is denoted by cotg and defined on a set $D_{\operatorname{cotg}} = \{x \in \mathbb{R}; x \neq k\pi, k \in \mathbb{Z}\}$ by

$$\operatorname{cotg} x = \frac{\cos x}{\sin x}.$$

Properties of the tangent and cotangent

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- $\operatorname{tg} \frac{\pi}{4} = \operatorname{cotg} \frac{\pi}{4} = 1$

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- The function tg is increasing on $(-\pi/2, \pi/2)$, the function cotg is decreasing on $(0, \pi)$.
- $\lim_{x \rightarrow \frac{\pi}{2}-} \operatorname{tg} x = +\infty, \quad \lim_{x \rightarrow -\frac{\pi}{2}+} \operatorname{tg} x = -\infty,$
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- $R_{\operatorname{tg}} = R_{\operatorname{cotg}} = \mathbb{R}$

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- The function **arcsine** (denoted by \arcsin) is an inverse function to the function \sin $|_{[-\frac{\pi}{2}, \frac{\pi}{2}]}$.

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Properties of inverse trigonometric functions

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- $\forall x \in [-1, 1]: \arcsin x + \arccos x = \frac{\pi}{2}$,
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- $\lim_{x \rightarrow +\infty} \operatorname{arctg} x = \frac{\pi}{2}$, $\lim_{x \rightarrow -\infty} \operatorname{arctg} x = -\frac{\pi}{2}$
 $\lim_{x \rightarrow +\infty} \operatorname{arccotg} x = 0$, $\lim_{x \rightarrow -\infty} \operatorname{arccotg} x = \pi$

Definition

Let f be a function and $a \in \mathbb{R}$. Then

- the **derivative of the function f at the point a** is defined by

$$f'(a) = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(a+h) - f(a)}{h},$$

- the **derivative of f at a from the right** is defined by

$$f'_+(a) = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0^+} \frac{f(a+h) - f(a)}{h},$$

- the **derivative of f at a from the left** is defined by

$$f'_-(a) = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0^-} \frac{f(a+h) - f(a)}{h},$$

Definition

Suppose that the function f has a finite derivative at a point $a \in \mathbb{R}$. The line

$$T_a = \{[x, y] \in \mathbb{R}^2; y = f(a) + f'(a)(x - a)\}.$$

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is called the **tangent to the graph of f at the point $[a, f(a)]$** .

Theorem 37

Suppose that the function f has a finite derivative at a point $a \in \mathbb{R}$. Then f is continuous at a .

Theorem 38 (arithmetics of derivatives)

Suppose that the functions f and g have finite derivatives at $a \in \mathbb{R}$ and let $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}$. Then

(i) $(f + g)'(a) = f'(a) + g'(a),$

Theorem 38 (arithmetics of derivatives)

Suppose that the functions f and g have finite derivatives at $a \in \mathbb{R}$ and let $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}$. Then

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- (ii) $(\alpha f)'(a) = \alpha \cdot f'(a)$,
- (iii) $(fg)'(a) = f'(a)g(a) + f(a)g'(a)$,
- (iv) if $g(a) \neq 0$, then

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

Theorem 39 (derivative of a compound function)

Suppose that the function f has a finite derivative at $y_0 \in \mathbb{R}$, the function g has a finite derivative at $x_0 \in \mathbb{R}$, and $y_0 = g(x_0)$. Then

$$(f \circ g)'(x_0) = f'(y_0) \cdot g'(x_0).$$

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Theorem 40 (derivative of an inverse function)

Let f be a function continuous and strictly monotone on an interval (a, b) and suppose that it has a finite and non-zero derivative $f'(x_0)$ at $x_0 \in (a, b)$. Then the function f^{-1} has a derivative at $y_0 = f(x_0)$ and

$$(f^{-1})'(y_0) = \frac{1}{f'(x_0)} = \frac{1}{f'(f^{-1}(y_0))}.$$

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Theorem 41 (necessary condition for a local extremum)

Suppose that a function f has a local extremum at $x_0 \in \mathbb{R}$. If $f'(x_0)$ exists, then $f'(x_0) = 0$.

Theorem 42 (Rolle)

Suppose that $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$, $a < b$, and a function f has the following properties:

- (i) it is continuous on the interval $[a, b]$,*
- (ii) it has a derivative (finite or infinite) at every point of the open interval (a, b) ,*
- (iii) $f(a) = f(b)$.*

Then there exists $\xi \in (a, b)$ satisfying $f'(\xi) = 0$.

Theorem 42 (Rolle)

Suppose that $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$, $a < b$, and a function f has the following properties:

- (i) it is continuous on the interval $[a, b]$,
- (ii) it has a derivative (finite or infinite) at every point of the open interval (a, b) ,
- (iii) $f(a) = f(b)$.

Then there exists $\xi \in (a, b)$ satisfying $f'(\xi) = 0$.

Theorem 43 (Lagrange, mean value theorem)

Suppose that $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$, $a < b$, a function f is continuous on an interval $[a, b]$ and has a derivative (finite or infinite) at every point of the interval (a, b) . Then there is $\xi \in (a, b)$ satisfying

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

Theorem 44 (sign of the derivative and monotonicity)

Let $J \subset \mathbb{R}$ be a non-degenerate interval. Suppose that a function f is continuous on J and it has a derivative at every inner point of J (the set of all inner points of J is denoted by $\text{Int } J$).

- (i) *If $f'(x) > 0$ for all $x \in \text{Int } J$, then f is increasing on J .*

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- (iv) If $f'(x) \leq 0$ for all $x \in \text{Int } J$, then f is non-increasing on J .*

Theorem 45 (computation of a one-sided derivative)

Suppose that a function f is continuous from the right at $a \in \mathbb{R}$ and the limit $\lim_{x \rightarrow a^+} f'(x)$ exists. Then the derivative $f'_+(a)$ exists and

$$f'_+(a) = \lim_{x \rightarrow a^+} f'(x).$$

Theorem 46 (l'Hospital's rule)

Suppose that functions f and g have finite derivatives on some punctured neighbourhood of $a \in \mathbb{R}^$ and the limit $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} \frac{f'(x)}{g'(x)}$ exist. Suppose further that one of the following conditions hold:*

(i) $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = \lim_{x \rightarrow a} g(x) = 0,$

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- (ii) $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} |g(x)| = +\infty.$

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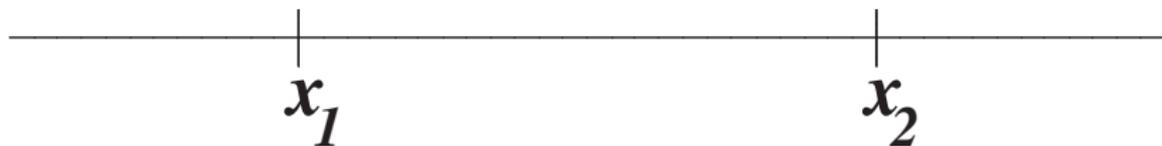
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Then the limit $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)}$ exists and

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow a} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} = \lim_{x \rightarrow a} \frac{f'(x)}{g'(x)}.$$

Convex combination



Convex combination



$$1 \cdot x_1 + 0 \cdot x_2 = x_1 + 0 \cdot (x_2 - x_1) = x_1$$

Convex combination



$$0 \cdot x_1 + 1 \cdot x_2 = x_1 + 1 \cdot (x_2 - x_1) = x_2$$

Convex combination



$$\frac{1}{2}x_1 + \frac{1}{2}x_2 = x_1 + \frac{1}{2}(x_2 - x_1)$$

Convex combination



$$\frac{3}{4}x_1 + \frac{1}{4}x_2 = x_1 + \frac{1}{4}(x_2 - x_1)$$

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$$\frac{1}{4}x_1 + \frac{3}{4}x_2 = x_1 + \frac{3}{4}(x_2 - x_1)$$

Convex combination



$$\lambda x_1 + (1 - \lambda)x_2 = x_1 + (1 - \lambda)(x_2 - x_1), \quad \lambda \in [0, 1]$$

Definition

We say that a function f is

- **convex** on an interval I if

$$f(\lambda x_1 + (1 - \lambda)x_2) \leq \lambda f(x_1) + (1 - \lambda)f(x_2),$$

for each $x_1, x_2 \in I$ and each $\lambda \in [0, 1]$;

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- **concave** on an interval I if

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- **strictly convex** on an interval I if

$$f(\lambda x_1 + (1 - \lambda)x_2) < \lambda f(x_1) + (1 - \lambda)f(x_2),$$

for each $x_1, x_2 \in I$, $x_1 \neq x_2$ and each $\lambda \in (0, 1)$;

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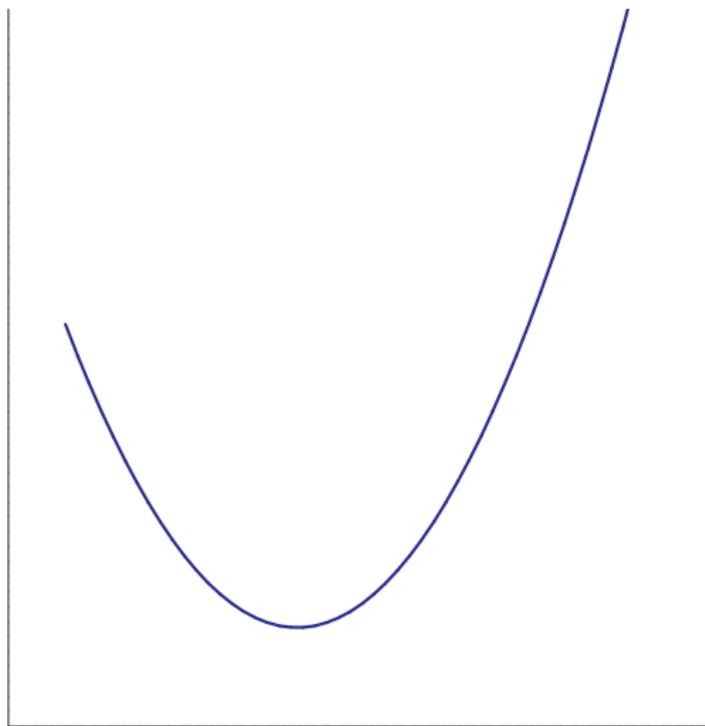
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- **strictly concave** on an interval I if

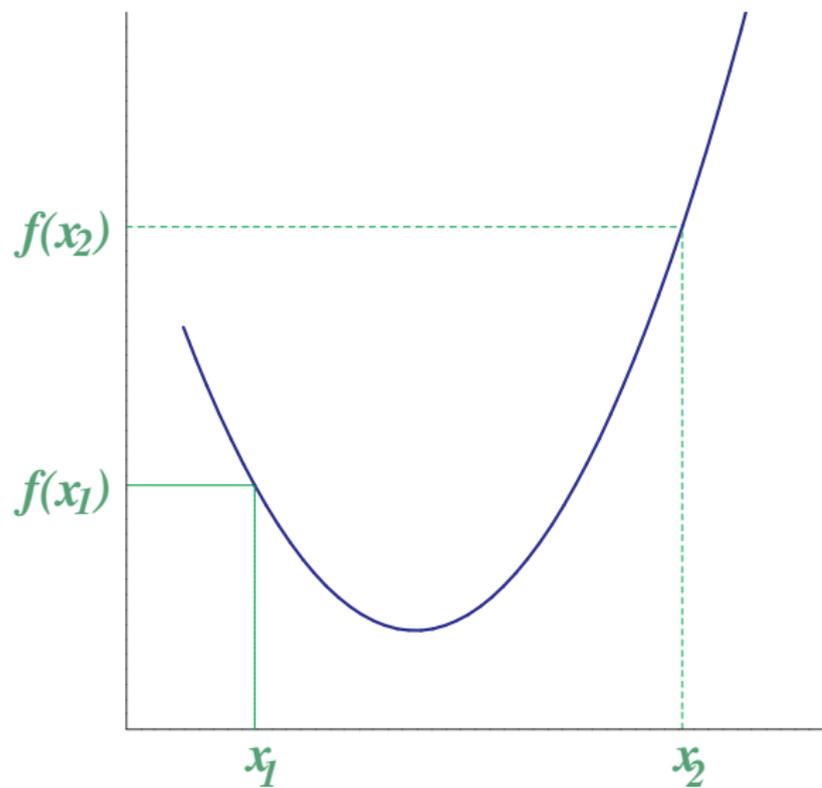
$$f(\lambda x_1 + (1 - \lambda)x_2) > \lambda f(x_1) + (1 - \lambda)f(x_2).$$

for each $x_1, x_2 \in I$, $x_1 \neq x_2$ and each $\lambda \in (0, 1)$.

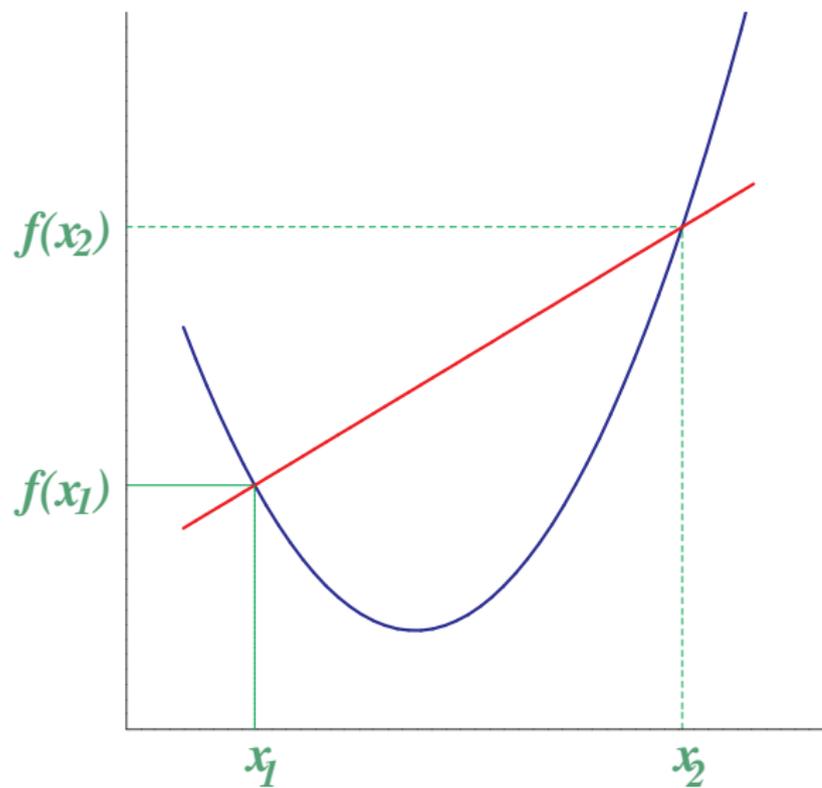
IV.7. Convex and concave functions



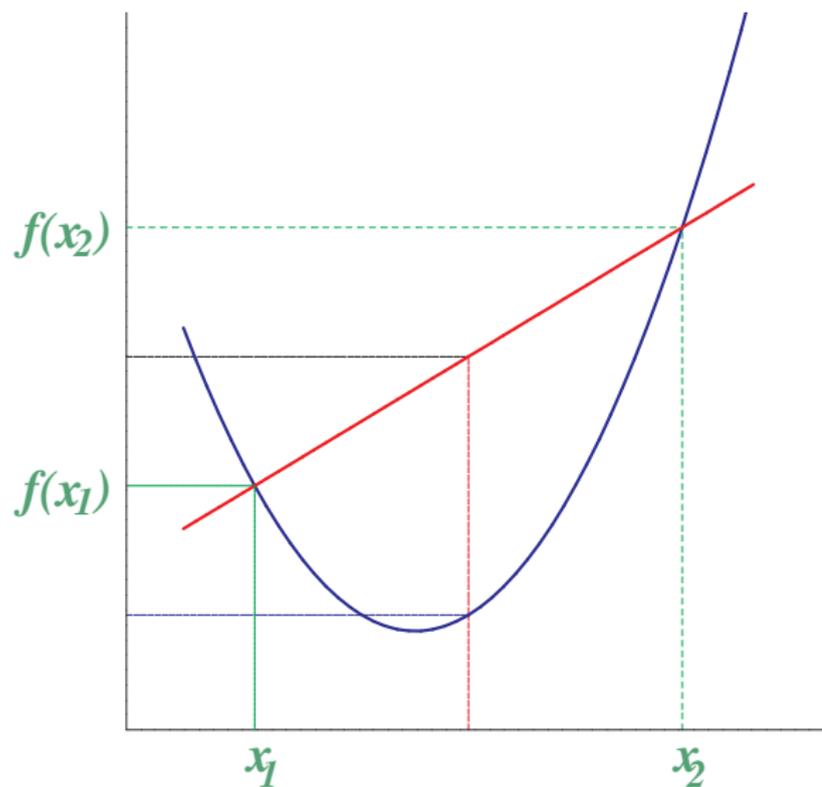
IV.7. Convex and concave functions



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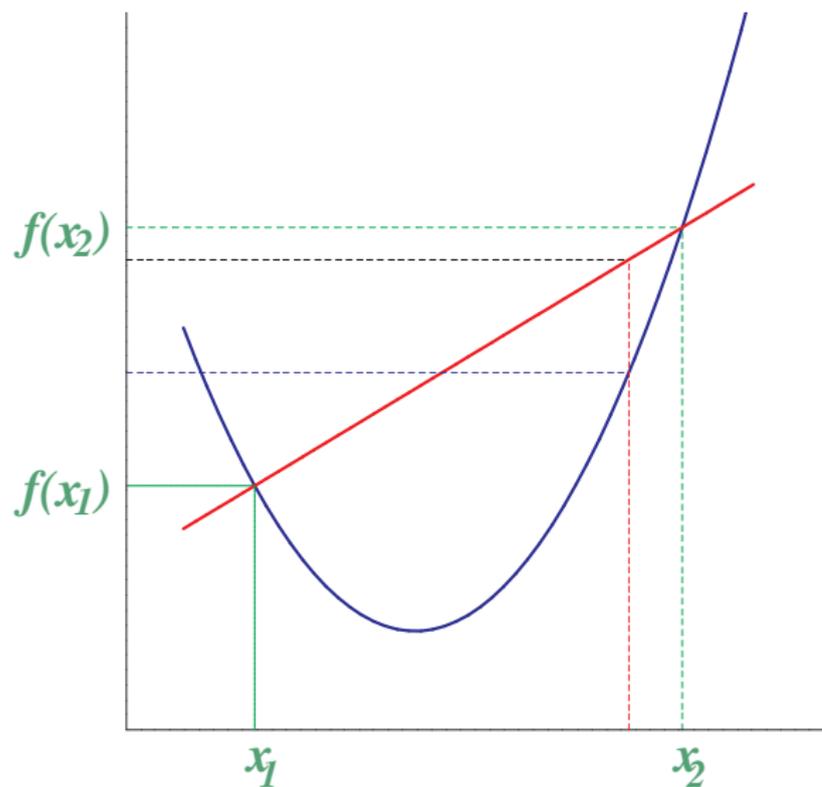


$$\lambda x_1 + (1 - \lambda)x_2$$

$$f(\lambda x_1 + (1 - \lambda)x_2)$$

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$$\lambda x_1 + (1 - \lambda)x_2$$

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Lemma 47

A function f is convex on an interval I if and only if

$$\frac{f(x_2) - f(x_1)}{x_2 - x_1} \leq \frac{f(x_3) - f(x_2)}{x_3 - x_2}$$

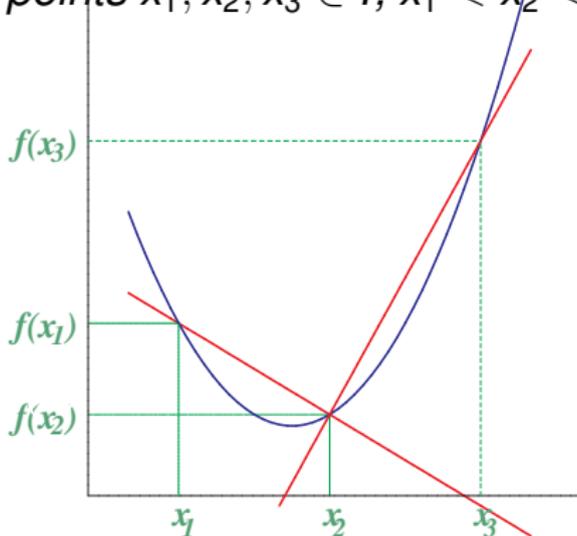
for each three points $x_1, x_2, x_3 \in I, x_1 < x_2 < x_3$.

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Definition

Suppose that a function f has a finite derivative on some neighbourhood of $a \in \mathbb{R}$. The **second derivative** of f at a is defined by

$$f''(a) = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f'(a+h) - f'(a)}{h}$$

if the limit exists.

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Let $n \in \mathbb{N}$ and suppose that f has a finite n th derivative (denoted by $f^{(n)}$) on some neighbourhood of $a \in \mathbb{R}$. Then the **$(n+1)$ th derivative** of f at a is defined by

$$f^{(n+1)}(a) = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f^{(n)}(a+h) - f^{(n)}(a)}{h}$$

if the limit exists.

Theorem 48 (second derivative and convexity)

Let $a, b \in \mathbb{R}^$, $a < b$, and suppose that a function f has a finite second derivative on the interval (a, b) .*

- (i) If $f''(x) > 0$ for each $x \in (a, b)$, then f is strictly convex on (a, b) .*

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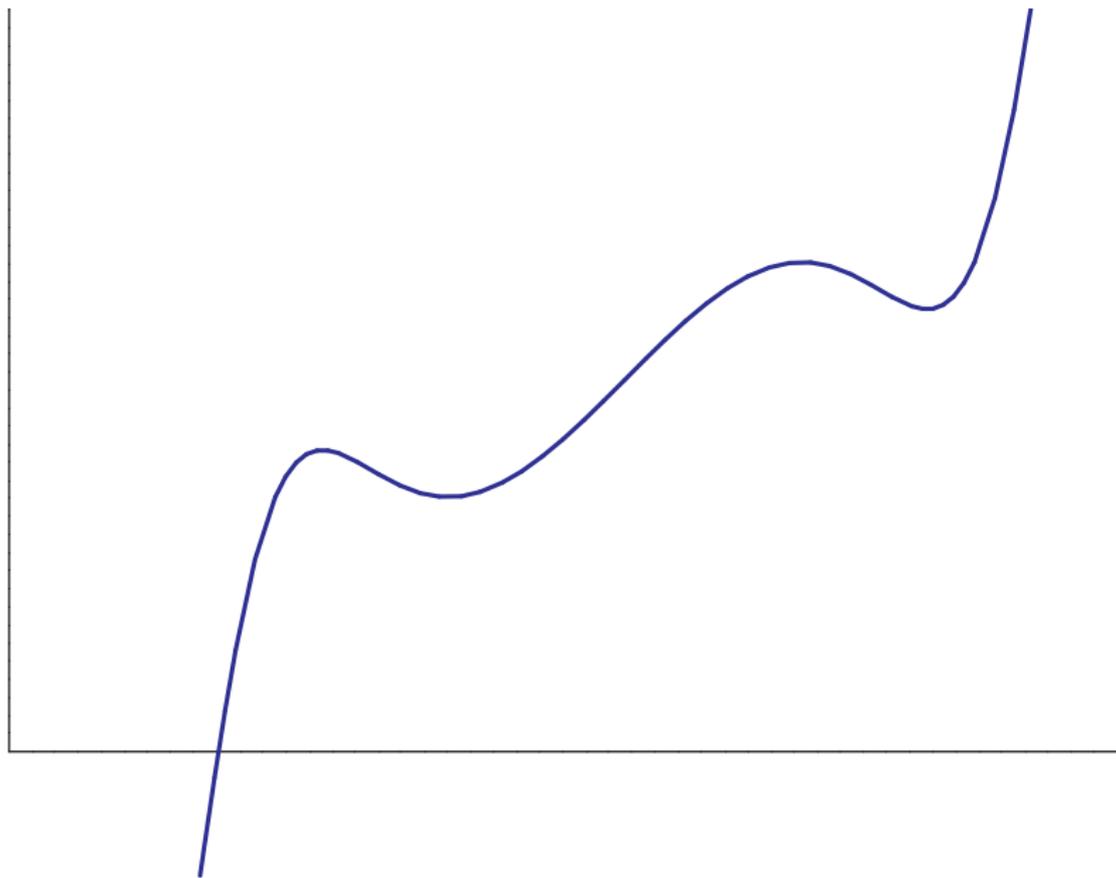
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Theorem 48 (second derivative and convexity)

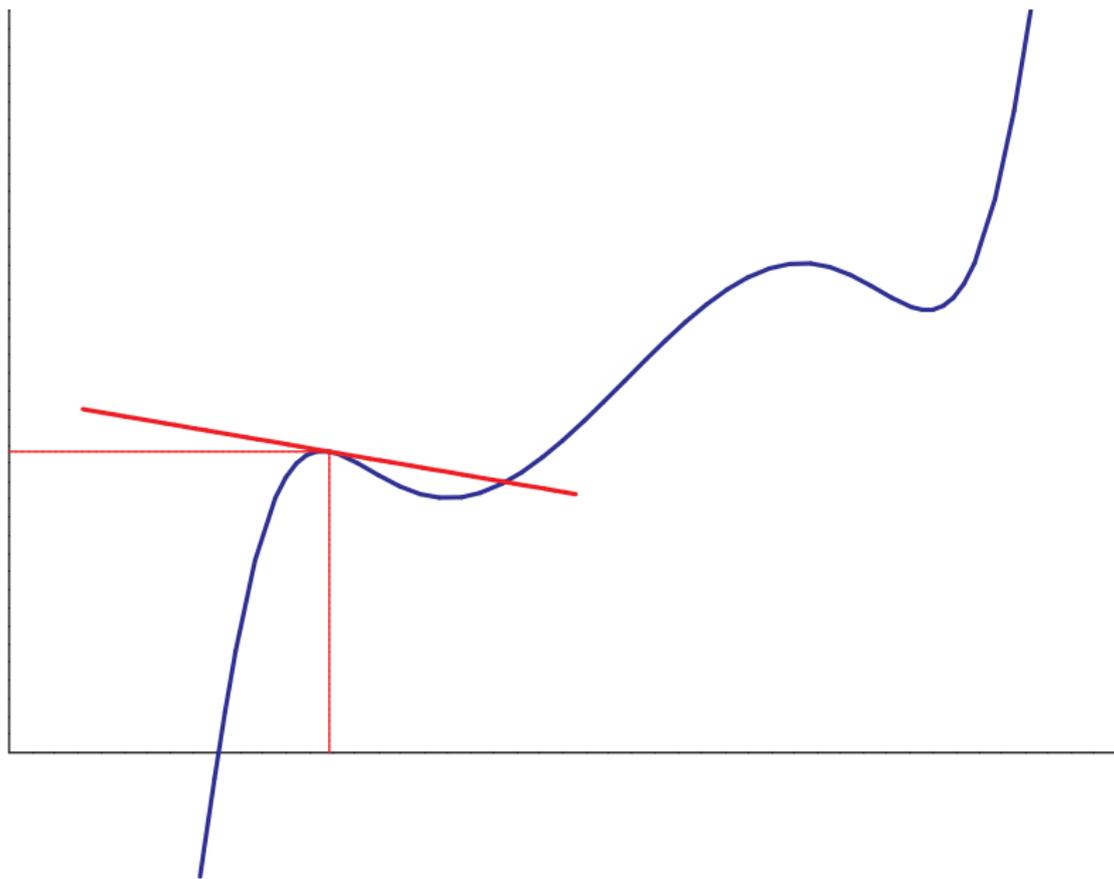
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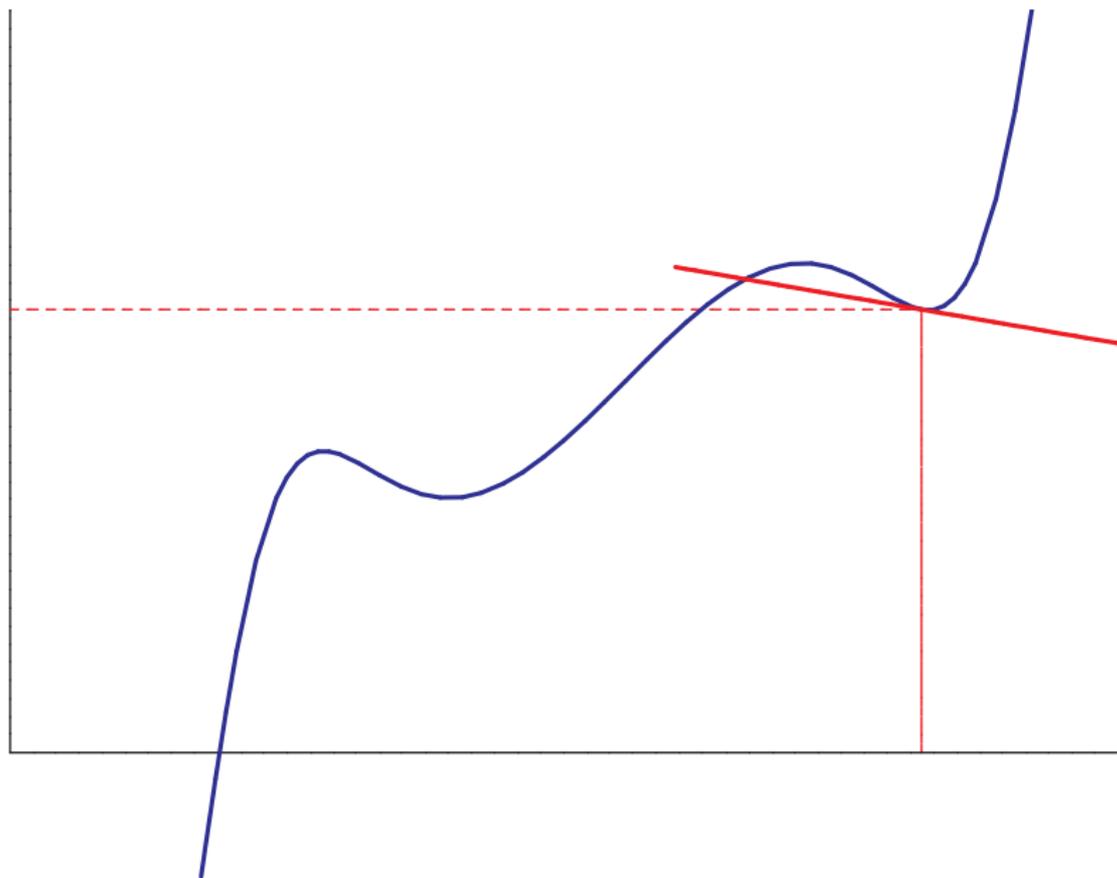
IV.7. Convex and concave functions



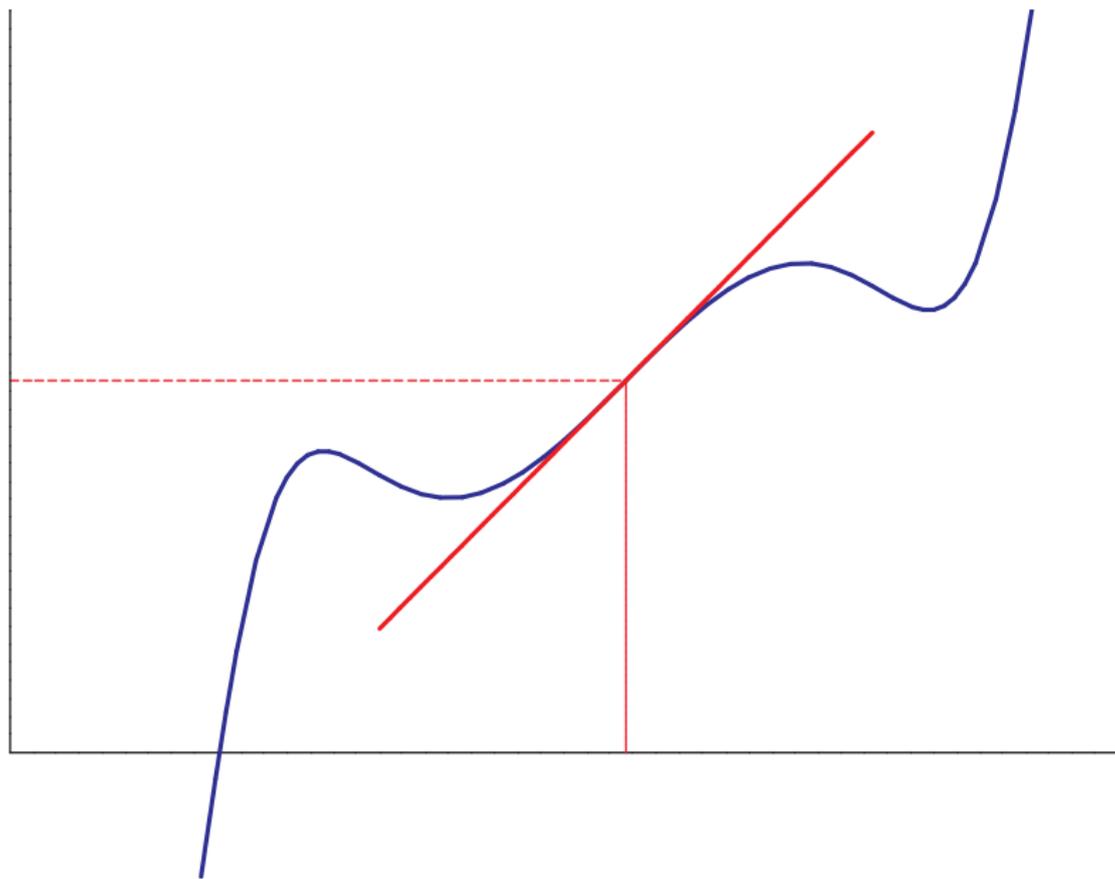
IV.7. Convex and concave functions



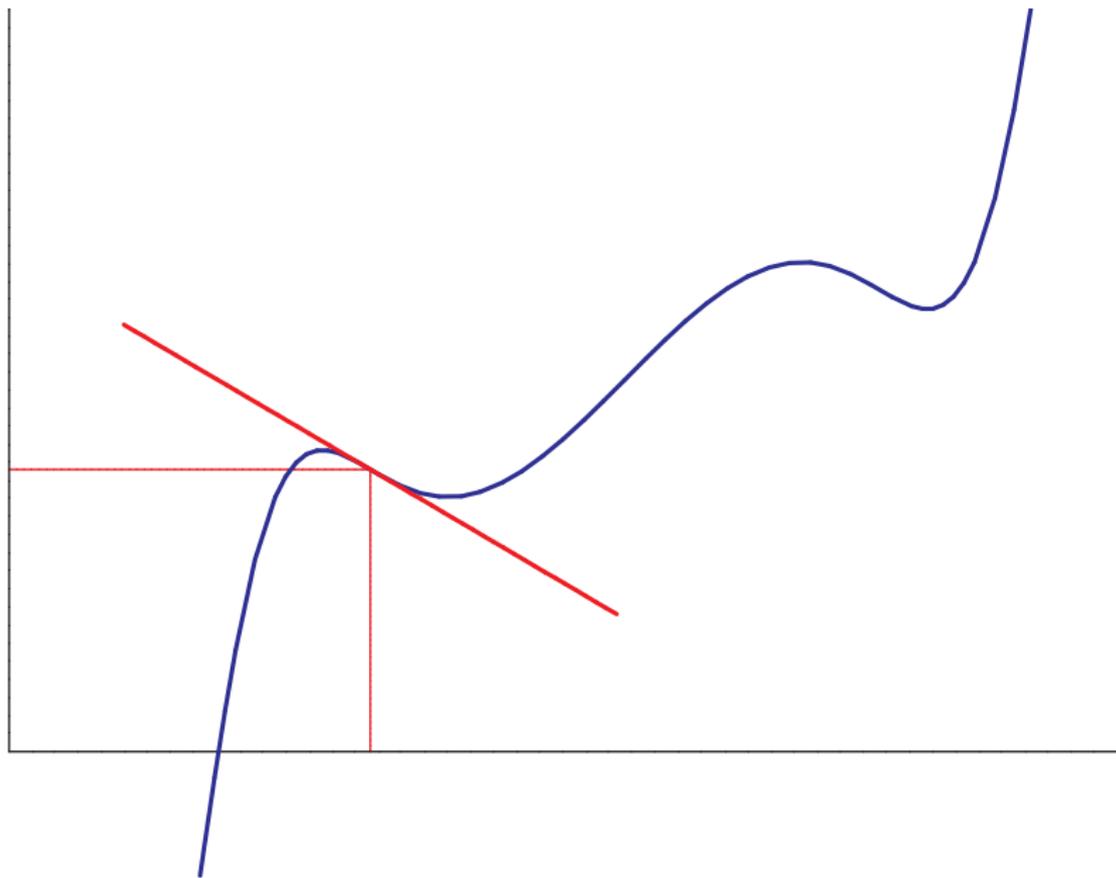
IV.7. Convex and concave functions



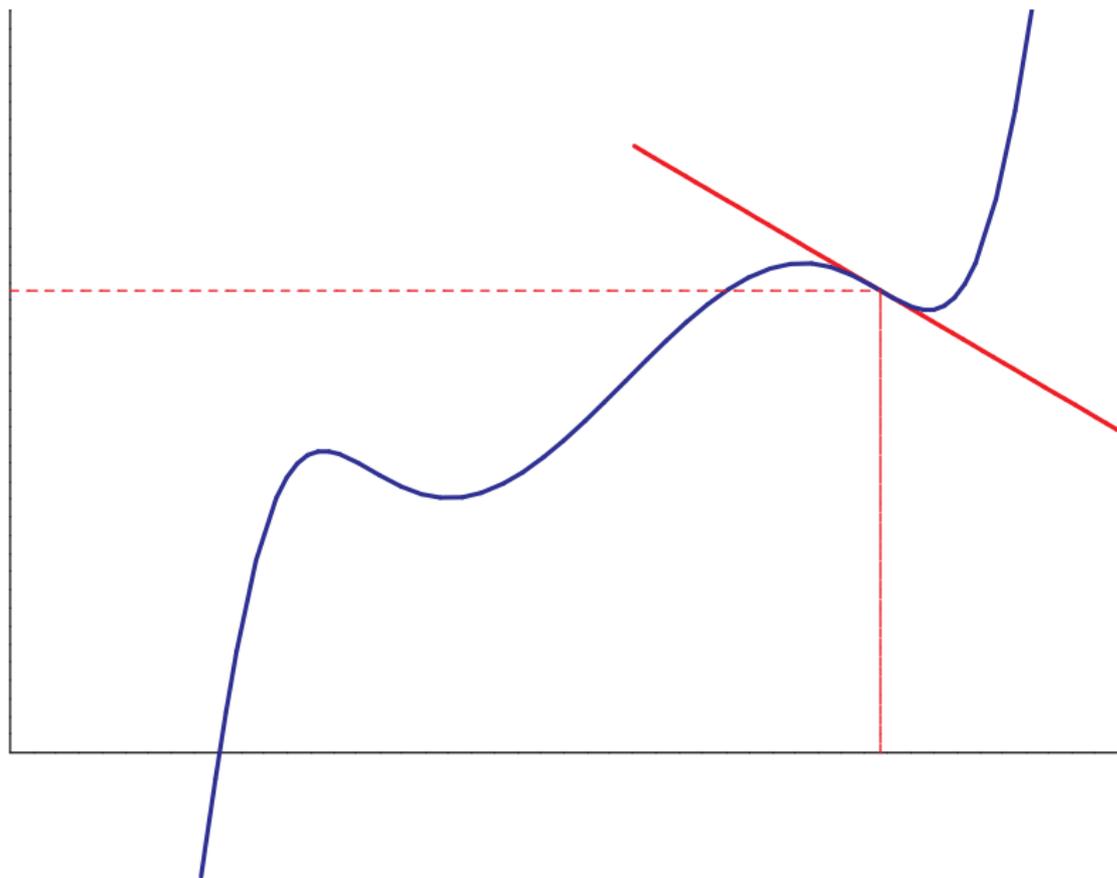
IV.7. Convex and concave functions



IV.7. Convex and concave functions



IV.7. Convex and concave functions



Definition

Suppose that a function f has a finite derivative at $a \in \mathbb{R}$ and let T_a denote the tangent to the graph of f at $[a, f(a)]$. We say that the point $[x, f(x)]$ **lies below the tangent** T_a if

$$f(x) < f(a) + f'(a) \cdot (x - a).$$

We say that the point $[x, f(x)]$ **lies above the tangent** T_a if the opposite inequality holds.

Definition

Suppose that a function f has a finite derivative at $a \in \mathbb{R}$ and let T_a denote the tangent to the graph of f at $[a, f(a)]$. We say that a is an **inflection point** of f if there is $\Delta > 0$ such that

- (i) $\forall x \in (a - \Delta, a)$: $[x, f(x)]$ lies below the tangent T_a ,
- (ii) $\forall x \in (a, a + \Delta)$: $[x, f(x)]$ lies above the tangent T_a ,

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- (ii) $\forall x \in (a, a + \Delta)$: $[x, f(x)]$ lies below the tangent T_a .

Theorem 49 (necessary condition for inflection)

Let $a \in \mathbb{R}$ be an inflection point of a function f . Then $f''(a)$ either does not exist or equals zero.

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Theorem 50 (sufficient condition for inflection)

Suppose that a function f has a continuous first derivative on an interval (a, b) and $z \in (a, b)$. Suppose further that

- $\forall x \in (a, z): f''(x) > 0,$
- $\forall x \in (z, b): f''(x) < 0.$

Then z is an inflection point of f .

Definition

The line which is a graph of an affine function $x \mapsto kx + q$, $k, q \in \mathbb{R}$, is called an **asymptote** of the function f at $+\infty$ (resp. $-\infty$) if

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow +\infty} (f(x) - kx - q) = 0, \quad (\text{resp. } \lim_{x \rightarrow -\infty} (f(x) - kx - q) = 0).$$

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Proposition 51

A function f has an asymptote at $+\infty$ given by the affine function $x \mapsto kx + q$ if and only if

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow +\infty} \frac{f(x)}{x} = k \in \mathbb{R} \quad \text{and} \quad \lim_{x \rightarrow +\infty} (f(x) - kx) = q \in \mathbb{R}.$$

Investigation of a function

1. Determine the domain and discuss the continuity of the function.

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5. Find the second derivative and determine the intervals where the function is concave or convex. Find the inflection points.
6. Find the asymptotes of the function.
7. Draw the graph of the function.