# 1 Defining average and instantaneous rates of change at a point

### 1.1 Derivative as a concept:

Derivative is defined as the instantaneous rate of change at a point, or the slope of a tangent line at that point. which is defined as the  $\lim_{x\to 0} \frac{dy}{dx} = f'(x)$ .

### 1.2 Secant lines and average rate of change:

the average rate of change between two points in an interval [a, b] of a curve is defined as the slope of the secant line that connects these points.

example:

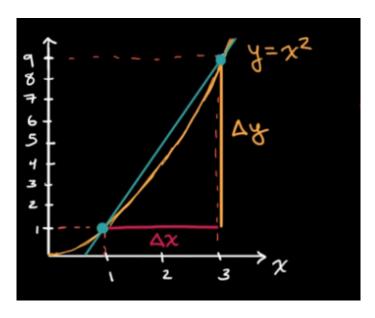


Figure 1: secant line

# 2 Defining the derivative of a function and using derivative notation

#### 2.1 Formal definition of the derivative as a limit:

h represent some distance more than x. the derivative of a point  $x_0$  formally defined as

$$f'(x_0) = \lim_{h \to 0} \frac{f(x_0 + h) - f(x_0)}{h}$$

#### 2.2 Alternate form of the derivative:

the derivative of a point  $x_0$  in alternate form is written as

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

## 3 Connecting differentiability and continuity

## 3.1 Differentiability and continuity

- if f(x) is differentiable at x = c, then f(x) is continuous at x = c
- if f(x) is not continuous at x = c, then f(x) is not differentiable at x = c
- if f(x) is not differentiable at a point, then f(x) may or may not be continuous at that point.

#### 4 Power rule

let the function  $f(x) = x^n, n \neq 0$ , the derivative of f(x) is given according to the power rule as

$$f'(x) = nx^{n-1}$$

# 5 Derivative rules: constant, sum, difference and constant multiple

#### 5.1 Basic rules

• let A be a constant then  $\frac{d}{dx}[A] = 0$ .

• let f(x) be a defined function then:

$$\frac{d}{dx}[Af(x)] = A\frac{d}{dx}[f(x)] = Af'(x)$$

 $\bullet$  let g(x) be a defined function then:

$$\frac{d}{dx}[f(x) + g(x)] = \frac{d}{dx}[f(x)] + \frac{d}{dx}[g(x)] = f'(x) + g'(x)$$

- 6 Derivatives of cos(x), sin(x),  $e^x$  and ln(x)
- **6.1** Derivatives of sin(x) and cos(x)
  - $\frac{d}{dx}[sin(x)] = cos(x)$
  - $\frac{d}{dx}[cos(x)] = -sin(x)$
- 6.2 Derivative of  $e^x$

$$\frac{d}{dx}[e^x] = e^x$$

**6.3** Derivative of ln(x)

$$\frac{d}{dx}[\ln(x)] = \frac{1}{x}$$

7 The product rule

$$\frac{d}{dx}[f(x)g(x)] = f'(x)g(x) + f(x)g'(x)$$

8 The Quotient rule

$$\frac{d}{dx} \left[ \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} \right] = \frac{\frac{d}{dx} [f(x)] \cdot g(x) - f(x) \cdot \frac{d}{dx} [g(x)]}{[g(x)]^2}$$

## **9** Derivatives of tan(x) and cot(x)

tan(x):

$$\frac{d}{dx}[tan(x)] = \frac{d}{dx}\left[\frac{sin(x)}{cos(x)}\right] = \frac{cos(x)\cdot cos(x) + sin(x)\cdot sin(x)}{cos(x)^2} = \frac{1}{cos(x)^2} = sec(x)^2$$

 $\cot(x)$ :

$$\frac{d}{dx}[\cot(x)] = \frac{d}{dx} \left[ \frac{\cos(x)}{\sin(x)} \right] = \frac{-\sin(x) \cdot \sin(x) - \cos(x) \cdot \cos(x)}{\sin(x)^2} = -\frac{1}{\sin(x)^2} = -\csc(x)^2$$

## 10 Chain rule

$$\frac{d}{dx}[f(g(x))] = f'(g(x)) \cdot g'(x)$$

## 11 The chain rule: further practice

## 11.1 Derivative of $a^x$ (for any positive base a)

let  $a = e^{\ln a}$  then:

$$\frac{d}{dx}[a^x] = \frac{d}{dx} \left[ \left( e^{\ln a} \right)^x \right] = e^{(\ln a) \cdot x} \cdot \ln a = (\ln a) \cdot a^x$$

# 11.2 Derivative of $\log_a x$ (for any positive base $a \neq 1$ )

let  $\frac{d}{dx}[\ln x] = \frac{1}{x}$  and  $\log_a b = \frac{\log_c b}{\log_c a}$  then:

$$\frac{d}{dx}[\log_a x] = \frac{d}{dx} \left[ \frac{1}{\ln a} \cdot \ln x \right] = \frac{1}{\ln a} \cdot \frac{d}{dx} [\ln x] = \frac{1}{(\ln a)x}$$

## 11.3 Proving the chain rule

- u(x) continuous at x=c implies that  $\Delta u \to 0$  as  $\Delta x \to 0$
- u(x) is continuous  $\iff \lim_{x\to c} u(x) = u(c) \equiv \lim_{x\to c} (u(x) u(c)) = 0$

we have:

$$\bullet \ \Delta u = u(x) - u(c)$$

- $\Delta x = x c$
- $\lim_{\Delta x \to 0} \Delta u = 0$

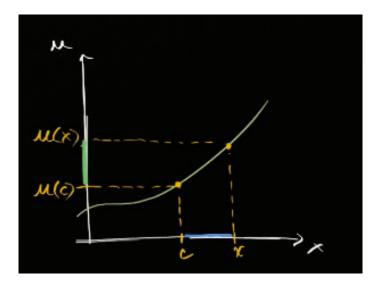


Figure 2: if function u is continuous at x, then  $\Delta u \to 0$  as  $\Delta x \to 0$ 

chain rule prove:

assume y, u differentiable at x.

$$\begin{split} \frac{d}{dx}[y(u(x))] &= \frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{dy}{dy} \cdot \frac{dy}{dx} \\ \frac{dx}{dy} &= \lim_{\Delta x \to 0} \frac{\Delta y}{\Delta x} = \lim_{\Delta x \to 0} \frac{\Delta y}{\Delta u} \cdot \frac{\Delta u}{\Delta x} = \left(\lim_{\Delta x \to 0} \frac{\Delta y}{\Delta u}\right) \cdot \left(\lim_{\Delta x \to 0} \frac{\Delta u}{\Delta x}\right) \\ &= \left(\lim_{\Delta u \to 0} \frac{\Delta y}{\Delta u}\right) \cdot \frac{du}{dx} = \frac{dy}{dy} \cdot \frac{du}{dx} \end{split}$$

### 11.4 Implicit differentiation

In implicit differentiation, we differentiate each side of an equation with two variables, by treating one of the variables as function of the other. this calls for using chain rule.

example differentiating  $x^2 + y^2 = 1$ :

we treat y as an implicit function of x

$$x^2 + y^2 = 1$$

$$\frac{d}{dx}(x^2 + y^2) = \frac{d}{dx}(1)$$
$$\frac{d}{dx}(x^2) + \frac{d}{dx}(y^2) = 0$$
$$2x + 2y \cdot \frac{dy}{dx} = 0$$
$$2y \cdot \frac{dy}{dx} = -2x$$
$$\frac{dy}{dx} = -\frac{x}{y}$$

### 11.5 Differentiating inverse functions

let f(x) a defined function let g(x) be  $g(x) = f^{-1}(x)$  then g(f(x)) = x and

$$\frac{d}{dx}[g(f(x))] = \frac{d}{dx}[x]$$
$$g'(f(x)) \cdot f'(x) = 1$$
$$f'(x) = \frac{1}{g'(f(x))}$$

## 11.6 Differentiating inverse trigonometric functions

let

$$\sin^2 y + \cos^2 y = 1$$

Inverse sine: let  $x = \sin y$ 

$$y = \sin^{-1} x$$

$$\frac{d}{dx}[\sin y] = \frac{d}{dx}[x]$$

$$\cos y \cdot \frac{dy}{dx} = 1$$

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{1}{\cos y}$$

$$= \frac{1}{\sqrt{1 - (\sin y)^2}}$$

$$\frac{d}{dx}[\sin^{-1}(x)] = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1-x^2}}$$

Inverse cosine:

let  $x = \cos y$ 

$$y = \cos^{-1} x$$

$$1 = (-\sin y) \frac{dy}{dx}$$

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = -\frac{1}{\sin y} = -\frac{1}{\sqrt{1 - (\cos y)^2}} = -\frac{1}{\sqrt{1 - x^2}}$$

$$\frac{d}{dx} [\cos^{-1} x] = -\frac{1}{\sqrt{1 - x^2}}$$

Inverse tangent:

let 
$$\frac{d}{dx}[\tan x] = \sec^2 x = \frac{1}{\cos^2 x}$$

$$y = \tan^{-1} x$$

$$\frac{d}{dx} [\tan y] = \frac{d}{dx}$$

$$\frac{1}{\cos^2 y} \cdot \frac{dy}{dx} = 1$$

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = \cos^2 y = \frac{\cos^2 y}{\cos^2 y + \sin^2 y} \cdot \frac{\frac{1}{\cos^2 y}}{\frac{1}{\cos^2 y}} = \frac{1}{1 + (\frac{\sin y}{\cos y})^2} = \frac{1}{1 + (\tan y)^2}$$

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

$$\frac{d}{dx} [\tan^{-1} x] = \frac{1}{1 + x^2}$$

### 11.7 Calculating higher-order derivatives

the second derivative of a function is the derivative of the function's derivative

let  $f(x) = x^3 + 2x^2$ . its first derivative is f'(x) = 3x + 4x, the second derivative of f(x) would be the differentiation of f'(x) which is:

$$f''(x) = 6x + 4$$

Notation for second derivatives:

leibniz's notation for second derivative is  $\frac{d^2y}{dx^2}$ 

ex: leibniz notation of  $x^3 + 2x^2$  is  $\frac{d^2}{dx^2}(x^3 + 2x^2)$ 

# 12 Approximating values of a function using local linearity and linearization

#### 12.1 Local linearity

let f(x) be a defined function.

let (a, b) a defined point on the graph of the function f(x). the approximation of the point  $x_0$ . is given as

$$f(x_0) = L(x_0) = f(a) + f'(a)(x_0 - a)$$

## 12.2 local linearity and differentiability

if f(x) is differentiable at  $x_0$ , then f(x) is locally linear at that point.

# 13 Using L'Hôpital's rule for finding limits of indeterminate forms

## 13.1 L'Hôpital's rule introduction

- case 1:  $\lim_{x\to c} f(x) = 0$  and  $\lim_{x\to c} g(x) = 0$  and  $\lim_{x\to c} \frac{f'(x)}{g'(x)} = L$  then  $\lim_{x\to c} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} = L$
- case 2:  $\lim_{x\to c} f(x) = \pm \infty$  and  $\lim_{x\to c} g(x) = \pm \infty$  and  $\lim_{x\to c} \frac{f'(x)}{g'(x)} = L$  then  $\lim_{x\to c} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} = L$

#### 13.2 Proof of special case of l'Hôpital's rule

if f(a) = 0, g(a) = 0 and f'(a), g'(a) exist. then

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

proof:

$$\frac{f'(a)}{g'(a)} = \frac{\lim_{x \to a} \frac{f(x) - f(a)}{x - a}}{\lim_{x \to a} \frac{g(x) - g(a)}{x - a}} = \lim_{x \to a} \frac{f(x) - f(a)}{g(x) - g(a)} = \lim_{x \to a} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)}$$

## 14 Using the mean value theorem

#### 14.1 mean value theorem

for a function f that's differentiable over an open interval from (a, b), and continuous over the closed interval [a, b] that there exists a number c on that interval such that f'(c) is equal to the function's average rate of change over the interval

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

graphically the tangent line at c is parallel to the secant line going through a and b.

# 15 Extreme value theorem, global vs local extrema, and critical points

#### 15.1 Extreme value theorem

f is continuous function over [a,b] then  $\exists$  an absolute maximum and absolute minimum over that interval.

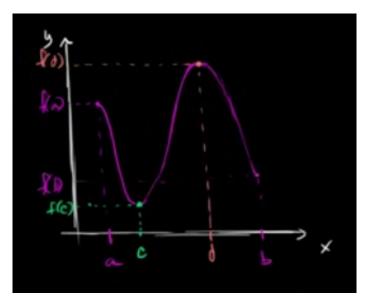


Figure 3: secant line

$$\exists c, d \in [a, b] : f(c) \le f(x) \le f(d) \ \forall \ x \in [a, b]$$

#### 15.2 Critical points introduction

let  $x_0$ ,  $x_1$ ,  $x_2$  be non endpoints maximum or minimum points of f(x), then the derivative of  $f'(x_0)$ ,  $f'(x_1)$ ,  $f'(x_2)$  is either going to be 0 or undefined.

A critical point is a point where f' is equal to 0 or undefined.

A critical point is not necessarily an extreme point, the reverse is true.

# 16 Determining intervals on which a function is decreasing or increasing

#### 16.1 Increasing and decreasing intervals

The intervals where a function f(x) is increasing (or decreasing) correspond to the intervals where its derivative is positive (or negative) f'(x) < 0 or f'(x) > 0.

the derivative of function changes sign at each critical point.

# 17 Using the first derivative test to find relative (local) extrema

#### 17.1 first derivative test

If a is min/max value of f(x) at x = a then a is a critical point. If a is critical point and in the domain of definition of f. then a is a maximum point of f(x), if f'(x) switches sign from positive to negative as f'(x) cross x = a.

If a is a critical point and in the domain of definition of f. then a is a minimum point of f(x), if f'(x) switches sign from negative to positive as f'(x) cross x = a.

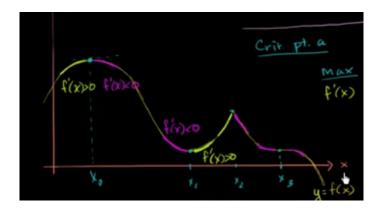


Figure 4: secant line

# 18 Using the candidates test to find absolute (global) extrema

#### 18.1 Absolute minima and maxima

let f(x) be defined function over the interval  $x \in [a, b]$ . let  $x_0, x_1, x_2$  be critical points and maximum points of f(x), where  $f'(x_0) = 0 \mid undefined, f'(x_1) = 0 \mid undefined, f'(x_2) = 0 \mid undefined$ .  $x_1$  is an absolute maximum of f(x) if and only if  $f(x_1) > f(x_0)$  and  $f(x_1) > f(x_2)$  and  $f(x_1) > f(a)$  and  $f(x_1) > f(b)$ . let  $x_0, x_1, x_2$  be critical points and minimum points of f(x), where  $f'(x_0) = 0 \mid undefined, f'(x_1) = 0 \mid undefined, f'(x_2) = 0 \mid undefined$ .  $x_1$  is an absolute minimum of f(x) if and only if  $f(x_1) < f(x_0)$  and  $f(x_1) < f(x_2)$  and  $f(x_1) < f(a)$  and  $f(x_1) < f(b)$ .

# 19 Determining concavity of intervals and finding points of inflection

#### 19.1 Concavity introduction

let f(x) be continuous and defined over the interval [a, b]. f(x) is concave downards on a sub interval of [a, b] and has maximum point at  $x_0$  where  $f'(x_0) = 0$  iff:

- slope is decreasing: f'(x) is decreasing
- the second derivative is negative: f''(x) < 0

f(x) is concave upwards on a sub interval of [a, b] and has minimumpoint at  $x_0$  where  $f'(x_0) = 0$  iff:

- slope is increasing: f'(x) is increasing
- the second derivative is positive: f''(x) > 0

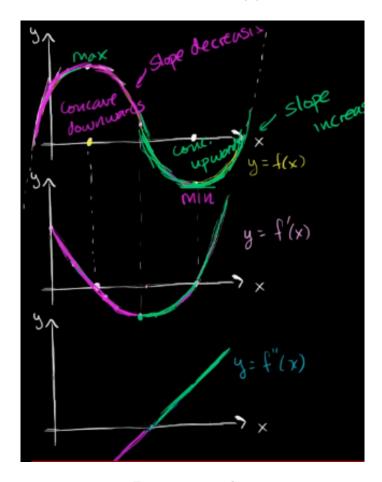


Figure 5: secant line

### 19.2 Inflectoin point introduction

Inflection points is a point where the second derivative switches signs  $x_1$  is an inflection point iff:

- for  $x < x_1$ : f''(x) < 0 and for  $x > x_1$ : f''(x) > 0
- or for  $x < x_1$ : f''(x) > 0 and for  $x > x_1$ : f''(x) < 0

## 20 Second derivative test

let f'(c) = 0, f' exists in neighborhoud around x = c let f''(c) exists then

- if f''(c) < 0 then f has relative maximum at x = c
- if f''(c) = 0 then x = c is inconclusive
- if f''(c) > 0 then f has relative minimum at x = c