

Quick Review of Long Cal I

△ Function: $f(x) = |x| = \begin{cases} x & x \geq 0 \\ -x & x < 0 \end{cases}$ Domain: $\mathbb{R} (-\infty, \infty)$

$$g(x) = \sqrt{x+1} \quad x \geq -1, \quad h(x) = \ln x \quad x > 0$$

◦ Odd, Even, Increasing/Decreasing/Monotone

• Composition $f \circ g(x) = |\sqrt{x+1}| = \sqrt{x+1}$

• 1-1, onto, Inverse function

◦ { Trigonometric $\sin \cos \tan \cot \sec \csc$
Exponential/Logarithmic $e^x a^x \ln x \log_a x$

△ Limit: $f(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{x^2-9}{x-3} & x \neq 3 \\ 5 & x = 3 \end{cases} \Rightarrow \begin{cases} f(3) = 5 \\ \lim_{x \rightarrow 3} f(x) = 6 \end{cases}$

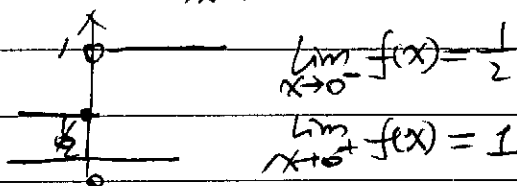
◦ Factorization

◦ Conjugate $\lim_{x \rightarrow 1} \frac{x+x-2}{\sqrt{x}-1} = \lim_{x \rightarrow 1} \frac{(x-1)(x+2)(\sqrt{x}+1)}{(x-1)} = 6$

◦ L'Hospital, $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\sin x}{x} = 1, \quad \lim_{x \rightarrow \frac{\pi}{2}} \tan^{-1} x = \frac{\pi}{2}$

Squeeze THM.

◦ Left/Right Limit:



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

◦ slope of tangent line at a

◦ position function' = velocity function

velocity function' = acceleration function

◦ Notation $y = f(x), y', f'(x), \frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{d}{dx}(y)$

◦ $(c)' = 0, (e^x)' = e^x, (\sin x)' = \cos x$
 $(x^n)' = nx^{n-1}, (\ln x)' = \frac{1}{x}$

◦ Technique.

• Product Rule: $(fg)' = f'g + fg'$ $((f+g)' = f' + g')$

• Quotient Rule: $\left(\frac{f}{g}\right)' = \frac{f'g - fg'}{g^2}$

• Chain Rule: $(f \circ g(x))' = f'(g(x)) \cdot g'(x)$

Ex: $(\sin(\sin(\sin(x))))' = ?$

$(e^{x^2})' = e^{x^2} \cdot 2x = 2xe^{x^2}$

• Implicit.

$x^2 + y^2 = 25 \quad \frac{dy}{dx} = ?$

$\frac{d}{dx}(x^2 + y^2) = \frac{d}{dx}(25) = 0$

$2x + 2y \frac{dy}{dx} = 0 \Rightarrow \frac{dy}{dx} = -\frac{x}{y}$

△ Trigonometric, P214. $(\arctan x)' = \frac{1}{1+x^2}$

3.8 Exponential Growth/Decay.

Key: "Rate of change is proportional to the size"

$$\frac{dy}{dt} = ky \quad \begin{cases} k > 0 & \text{law of natural growth} \\ k < 0 & \text{decay} \end{cases}$$

THM. $y(t) = y(0)e^{kt}$

△ Population Growth: $P(t) = y(t)$

World Population Year

2560 M ~~2560~~ 1950 $t=0$

3040 M 1960 $t=10$

[Q]. $k=?$ Year 2014 ($t=64$) $P=?$

Solution. $P(t) = P(0)e^{kt} = 2560e^{kt}$

$$3040 = P(10) = 2560e^{k \cdot 10} \Rightarrow k = \frac{1}{10} \ln \frac{3040}{2560} \approx 0.017185$$

$$P(64) = 7689.45$$

△ Radioactive Decay.

° Notation. mass of remaining radioactive substances $m(t)$

$$m(t) = m_0 e^{kt} \quad (k < 0)$$

° Half-life: The time require for half of any given quantity to decay.

$$m \xrightarrow[t]{\text{half-life}} \frac{1}{2}m$$

Ex. The half-life of radium-226 is 1590 years

(*) A sample has 100 mg radium-226. Find the formula of the sample that remains after t years.

(=) Find the mass after 1000 years.

Solution.

(2)

$$m(t) = m_0 e^{kt} = 100 e^{kt}$$

$$\Rightarrow m(1590) = \frac{1}{2}(100) = 50 = 100 e^{k \cdot 1590} \Rightarrow \frac{1}{2} = e^{k \cdot 1590} \quad \left| \ln = m = m_0 e^{k \cdot 1590} \right|$$

$$\Rightarrow k = -\frac{\ln 2}{1590} \quad k = -\frac{\ln 2}{\text{half-life}}$$

$$\therefore m(t) = 100 e^{-(\ln 2)t/1590}$$

$$\Rightarrow m(1000) = 100 e^{-(\ln 2)1000/1590} = 65 \text{ mg}$$

△ Newton's Law of Cooling.

T_s : temperature of the surroundings.

$$\boxed{\frac{dy}{dt} = ky} \quad \Leftrightarrow \quad \frac{dT}{dt} = k(T - T_s)$$

Define $y(t) = T(t) - T_s$ $\frac{dy}{dt} = ky$

$$y(t) = \frac{(T(0) - T_s)}{y(0)} e^{kt}$$

$$T(t) = (T(0) - T_s) e^{kt} + T_s$$

Ex. object: a bottle of soda (Coke)

Temperatures: } room 72°F

fridge 44°F

After 30 mins, the soda becomes 61°F

[Q]: What is the temperature after ANOTHER 30 mins?

Solution. $61 = T(30) = (72 - 44) e^{k \cdot 30} + 44$

$$\Rightarrow k = \ln\left(\frac{17}{28}\right)/30 \approx -0.01663$$

$$T(60) = (72 - 44) e^{k \cdot 60} + 44 = 54.3$$

①

§3.9 Related Rates

Ex. Air is being pumped into a spherical balloon so that the volume increases at a rate of $100 \text{ cm}^3/\text{s}$. How fast is the radius increasing when the diameter is 50 cm ?

Solution Notation: $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{Volume: } V \\ \text{Time: } t \\ \text{Radius: } r \\ \text{Diameter: } d = 2r \end{array} \right.$

Formula: $V(r) = \frac{4}{3}\pi r^3$

Given: $\frac{dV}{dt} = 100 \text{ cm}^3/\text{s}$

Unknown: $\frac{dr}{dt}$ when $r = 25 \Leftrightarrow d = 50$

Chain Rule: $f(g(x))' = f'(g(x)) \cdot g'(x)$

If let $u = g(x)$, $[f(g(x))]' = f'(u) \cdot g'(x) = f'(u) \cdot u'(x)$

$$\boxed{\frac{df}{dx} = \frac{df}{du} \cdot \frac{du}{dx}}$$

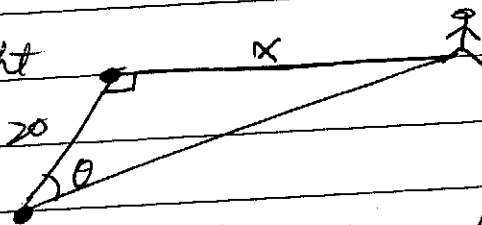
$$\boxed{\frac{dV}{dt} = \frac{dV}{dr} \cdot \frac{dr}{dt} = 4\pi r^2 \frac{dr}{dt}}$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{dr}{dt} = \frac{1}{4\pi r^2} \cdot 100$$

$$\text{When } r = 25, \frac{dr}{dt} = \frac{1}{25\pi}$$

Ex: A man walks along a straight path at speed of 4 ft/s . A searchlight is located 20 ft from

the path and is kept focused on him. At what rate is the searchlight rotating when the man is 15 ft from the point on the path closest to the searchlight?



(2)

Notation:

{ Distance x
Angle θ
Time t

Given ~~$x = 15$~~ $\frac{dx}{dt} = 4$

Unknown $\frac{d\theta}{dt}$ when $x = 15$.

Formula: $\tan \theta = \frac{x}{20}$ $x = 20 \tan \theta$

Chain Rule: $\frac{dx}{dt} = \frac{dx}{d\theta} \cdot \frac{d\theta}{dt}$
 $\downarrow \quad \quad \downarrow$
 $4 \quad \quad 20 \sec^2 \theta$
 $\Rightarrow \frac{d\theta}{dt} = \frac{1}{5} \cos^2 \theta$

$x = 15 \Rightarrow \cos \theta = \frac{4}{5} \Rightarrow \frac{d\theta}{dt} = \frac{16}{125}$

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§3.10 Linear Approximation & Differentials.

DEF.

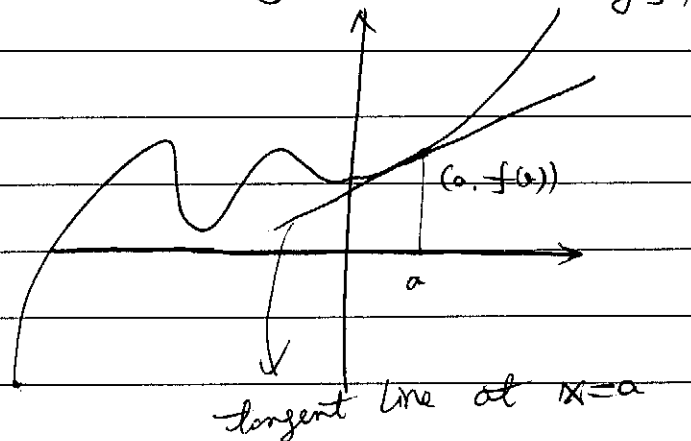
$$y - f(a) = f'(a)(x - a)$$

$$y = \underbrace{f'(a)(x - a) + f(a)}$$

$$L(x) = f(a) + \underbrace{f'(a)(x - a)}_{\uparrow}$$

Linear Approximation

Tangent Line Approximation



Ex. $f(x) = \sqrt{x+3}$ $a=1$ $f(a) = f(1) = 2$

$$f'(x) = \frac{1}{2\sqrt{x+3}} \Rightarrow f'(a) = f'(1) = \frac{1}{4}$$

$$L(x) = f(a) + f'(a)(x-a) = 2 + \frac{1}{4}(x-1) = \frac{x}{4} + \frac{7}{4}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{(-)} \quad \sqrt{3.98} &= f(0.98) = 1.99499373 \dots \\ L(0.98) &= \frac{0.98}{4} + \frac{7}{4} = 1.995 \end{aligned} \quad \left. \vphantom{\begin{aligned} \sqrt{3.98} &= f(0.98) = 1.99499373 \dots \\ L(0.98) &= \frac{0.98}{4} + \frac{7}{4} = 1.995 \end{aligned}} \right\} \text{Error} = 0.0000062$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{(=)} \quad \sqrt{4.05} &= f(1.05) = 2.01246117 \dots \\ L(1.05) &= 2.0125 \end{aligned} \quad \left. \vphantom{\begin{aligned} \sqrt{4.05} &= f(1.05) = 2.01246117 \dots \\ L(1.05) &= 2.0125 \end{aligned}} \right\} \text{Error} = 0.0003 \dots$$

Differentials, dy , dx

$$dy = f'(x)dx \quad \text{if } y = f(x)$$

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = f'(x)$$

$$\begin{cases} \Delta y = f(x+\Delta x) - f(x) \\ dy = f'(x)dx \end{cases}$$

Ex. $f(x) = x^3$ $x=2$ $\overset{dx}{\Delta x} = 0.01$, $f'(x) = 3x^2$

$$\Delta y = f(2.01) - f(2) = 2.01^3 - 2^3 =$$

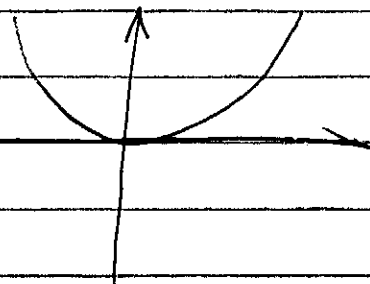
$$dy = f'(2) \cdot 0.01 = 0.12$$

§4.3 Derivatives Affect the Shape of a Graph

△ f' Affects f .

Ex. $f(x) = x^2$

$$f'(x) = 2x \begin{cases} \geq 0 & x \geq 0 \\ \leq 0 & x < 0 \end{cases}$$



THM. [Increasing/Decreasing Test]

(a) If $f'(x) > 0$ on an interval, then f is increasing on it

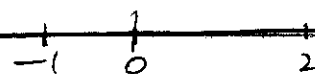
(b) $f'(x) < 0$ decreasing

Ex. $f(x) = 3x^4 - 4x^3 - 12x^2 + 5$

$$f'(x) = 12x^3 - 12x^2 - 24x = 12x(x^2 - x - 2) = 12(x+1)x(x-2)$$

Interval $(-\infty, -1)$, $(-1, 0)$, $(0, 2)$, $(2, \infty)$

f'	-	+	-	+
f	↘	↗	↘	↗



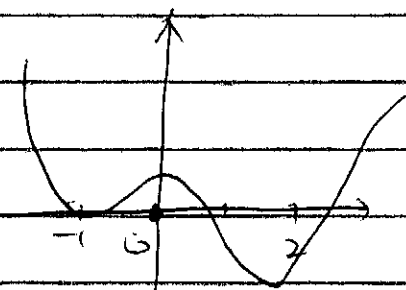
THM. [The 1st Derivative Test]

Suppose c is a critical number of a continuous function f

(a) If f' changes from $+$ to $-$, then f has a local maximum at c

(b) f' changes from $-$ to $+$ minimum

(c) If f' does not change sign at c , NOTHING



Ex. $f(x) = 3x^4 - 4x^3 - 12x^2 + 5$, $f'(x) = 12(x+1)x(x-2)$

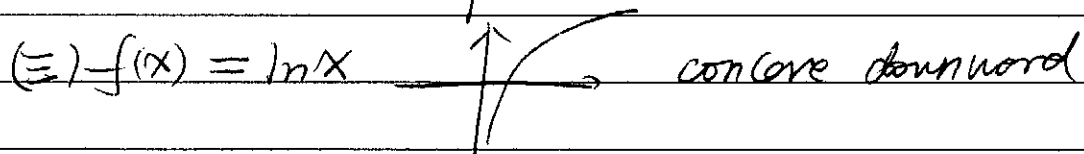
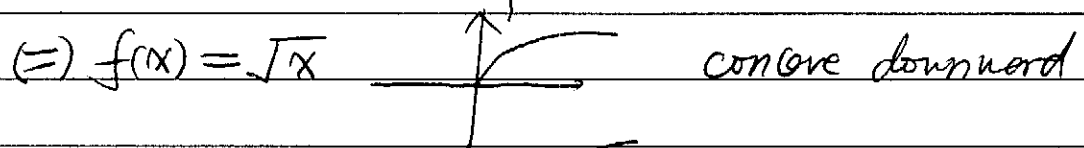
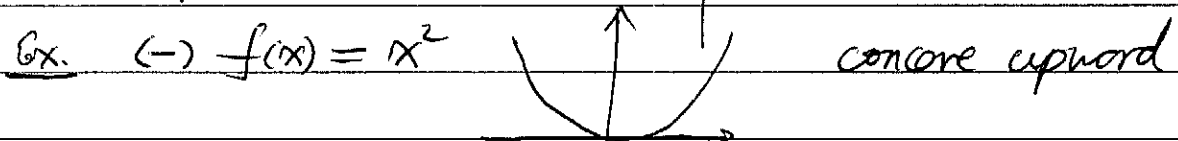
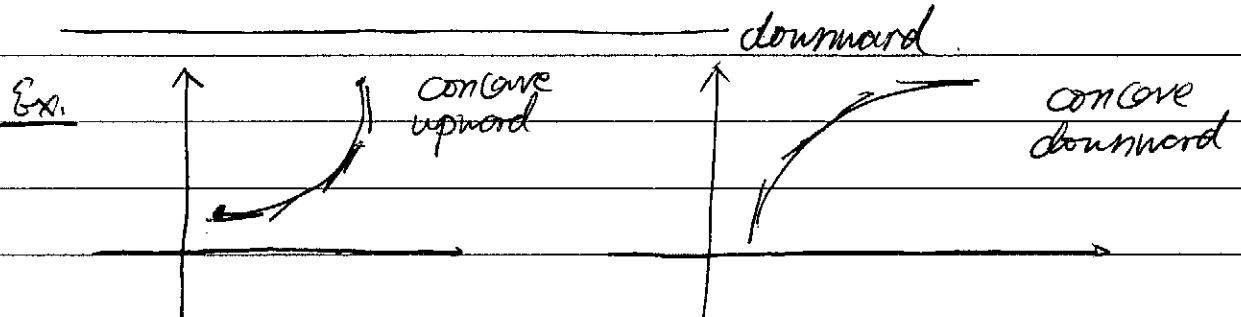
critical numbers: $-1, 0, 2$

Ex. $f(x) = x^3$, $f'(x) = 3x^2$, critical number $x = 0$
 $f'(x) \geq 0$

(2)

 $\Delta f''$ Affects f DEF.(a) If the graph of f lies above all its tangents on an interval I , then it is called concave upward

(b) ————— below —————

THM. [Concavity Test](a) If $f''(x) > 0$ for all x in I , then it is concave upward on I (b) ————— < 0 ————— downward —————

Ex. (i) $f(x) = x^2$, $f'(x) = 2x$, $f''(x) = 2 > 0$

(ii) $f(x) = \sqrt{x} = x^{\frac{1}{2}}$, $f'(x) = \frac{1}{2} x^{\frac{1}{2}-1} = \frac{1}{2} x^{-\frac{1}{2}}$

$$f''(x) = \frac{1}{2} - \left(-\frac{1}{2}\right) x^{-\frac{3}{2}} = -\frac{1}{4} x^{-\frac{3}{2}}$$

$$= \frac{-1}{4\sqrt{x^3}} < 0$$

(iii) $f(x) = \ln x$, $f'(x) = \frac{1}{x}$, $f''(x) = -\frac{1}{x^2} < 0$

(3)

Recall.

f'	+	-	0	change signs at c
	↗	↘	critical number	local maximum/minimum
f''	+	-		change signs at c
	CU	CD		<u>inflection point</u>

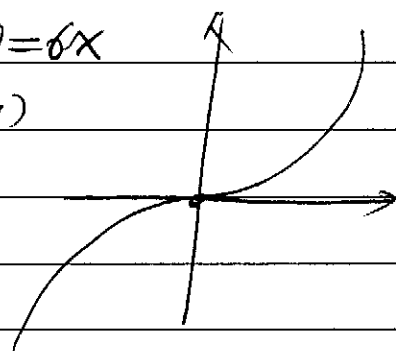
DEF. [Inflection Point],Points where f is continuous at and also changes concavity at.

Ex. $f(x) = x^3$, $f'(x) = 3x^2$, $f''(x) = 6x$

Interval $(-\infty, 0)$ $(0, +\infty)$

f'' - +

0 is an inflection point

THM. [The 2nd Derivative Test](a) If $f'(c) = 0$ and $f''(c) > 0$, then f has a local minimum at c .(b) $f''(c) < 0$ maximum.

Ex. (i) $f(x) = x^3$, $f'(x) = 3x^2$, $f'(0) = 0$, $f''(0) = 2$
 $f''(x) = 2$

(ii) $f(x) = 3x^4 - 4x^3 - 12x^2 + 5$

$f'(x) = 12x(x+1)(x-2) = 12x^3 - 12x^2 - 24x$

$f''(x) = 36x^2 - 24x - 24$

$$\begin{cases} f'(-1) = 0 & f''(-1) = 36 > 0 \\ f'(0) = 0 & f''(0) = -24 < 0 \\ f'(2) = 0 & f''(2) = 72 > 0 \end{cases}$$

§4.5 Summary of Curve Sketching

STEPS.

A. Domain

B. Intercepts, $\begin{cases} f(0) & y\text{-intercept} \\ f(x)=0 & x\text{-intercepts} \end{cases}$ C. Symmetry, $\begin{cases} \text{Even, } f(-x)=f(x) & x^2 \\ \text{Odd, } f(-x)=-f(x) & x^3 \end{cases}$ Periodic $f(x+p)=f(x)$ $\sin x, p=2\pi$

D. Asymptotes.

(i) Horizontal, $\lim_{x \rightarrow \pm\infty} f(x)=L$ or $\lim_{x \rightarrow \pm\infty} f(x)=L \tan^{-1} x$ (ii) Vertical: $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x)=\pm\infty$ $\frac{1}{x}$ (iii) Slant* $\lim_{x \rightarrow \pm\infty} [f(x) - (mx+b)] = 0$ $\hookrightarrow y=mx+b$ slant asymptoteE. Intervals of Increase/Decrease f'

F. Local Maximum/Minimum

G. Concavity and Inflection Points f''

H. Sketch

Ex. $f(x) = x + \frac{1}{x}$ A. Domain $= \{x \neq 0\} = (-\infty, 0) \cup (0, \infty)$ B. $\int 0$ not in domain \Rightarrow no y -intercept $f(x) = x + \frac{1}{x} = 0 \Rightarrow x^2 + 1 = 0$, no solution \Rightarrow no x -interceptC. $f(-x) = -x + \frac{1}{-x} = -f(x)$ oddD. $\lim_{x \rightarrow \pm\infty} f(x) = \pm\infty$, $\lim_{x \rightarrow \pm\infty} f(x) = -\infty$ no horizontal asymptote $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0^+} f(x) = +\infty$, $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0^-} f(x) = -\infty$ *: $\lim_{x \rightarrow \pm\infty} [f(x) - x] = 0 = \lim_{x \rightarrow \pm\infty} [f(x) - x]$

(3)

Ex. $f(x) = \frac{1}{2}(e^x + e^{-x})$

A. Domain = $(-\infty, +\infty)$

B. $f(0) = \frac{1}{2}(1+1) = 1 \Rightarrow y\text{-intercept is } (0, 1)$

$f(x) > 0 \Rightarrow f(x) = 0$ has no solution \Rightarrow no x -intercept

C. $f(-x) = \frac{1}{2}(e^{-x} + e^x) = f(x) \Rightarrow$ Even

D. Every point x , $f(x)$ is well defined, so no vertical asymptote exists. Also

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow \pm\infty} f(x) = +\infty = \lim_{x \rightarrow \pm\infty} f(x)$$

shows no horizontal asymptote exists

E. $f'(x) = \frac{1}{2}(e^x + e^{-x} \cdot (-1)) = \frac{1}{2}(e^x - e^{-x})$

$f'(x) = 0 \Rightarrow e^x - e^{-x} = 0 \Leftrightarrow e^{2x} - 1 = 0 \Leftrightarrow 2x = 0 \Leftrightarrow x = 0$

$(-\infty, 0) \quad (0, +\infty)$

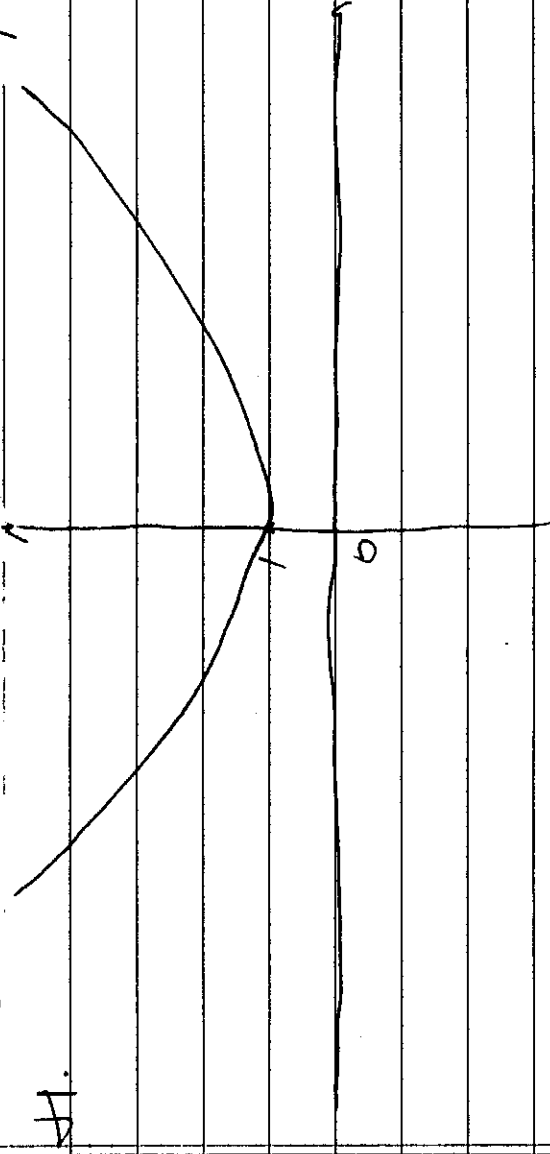
$f' \quad < 0 \quad > 0$

$f \quad \searrow \quad \nearrow$

F. Since the only critical number is 0, we only need to see this point. From E, f' changes from $-$ to $+$, then $f(0) = 1$ is a local min.

G. $f''(x) = \frac{1}{2}(e^x + e^{-x}) > 0 \Rightarrow f$ is always concave upward.

H.



(4)

Ex. $y = f(x) = x^3 - 12x^2 + 36x$.

A. Domain = $(-\infty, +\infty)$

B. $f(0) = 0 \Rightarrow y$ -intercept $(0, 0)$

$f(x) = 0 \Leftrightarrow x(x-6)^2 = 0 \Leftrightarrow x = 0, 6 \Rightarrow x$ -intercepts $(0, 0), (6, 0)$

C. $f(-x) = (-x)^3 - 12(-x)^2 + 36(-x) = -x^3 - 12x^2 - 36x \neq \begin{cases} f(x) \\ -f(x) \end{cases}$

No symmetry.

D. No vertical asymptote exists since $f(x)$ is defined on $(-\infty, +\infty)$

$\lim_{x \rightarrow \pm\infty} f(x) = \pm\infty, \lim_{x \rightarrow \pm\infty} f(x) = -\infty \Rightarrow$ No Horizontal Asymptote.

E. $f'(x) = 3x^2 - 24x + 36 = 3(x^2 - 8x + 12) = 3(x-2)(x-6)$

$f'(x) = 0 \Leftrightarrow x = 2, 6 \Rightarrow$ critical numbers are 2, 6

$(-\infty, 2) \quad (2, 6) \quad (6, +\infty)$

$f' \quad + \quad - \quad +$

$f \quad \nearrow \quad \searrow \quad \nearrow$

F. f' changes from $+$ to $-$ at 2 \Rightarrow local max $f(2) = 32$

f' changes from $-$ to $+$ at 6 \Rightarrow local min $f(6) = 0$

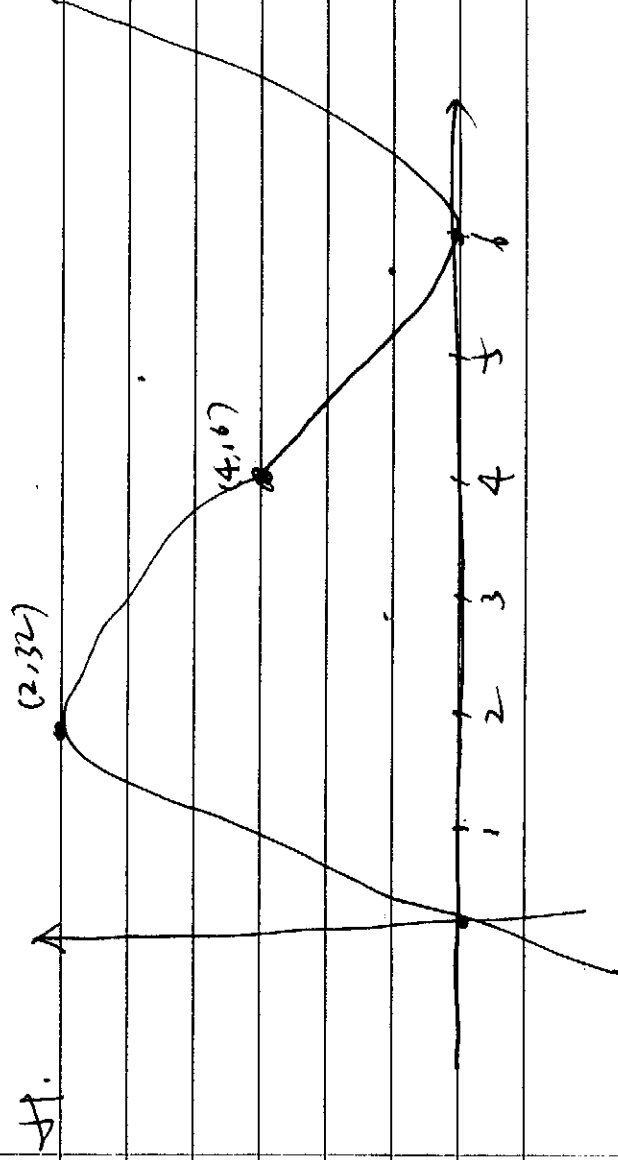
G. $f''(x) = 6x - 24 = 6(x-4)$

$f''(x) = 0 \Leftrightarrow x = 4$ inflection point $(4, f(4)) = (4, 16)$

$(-\infty, 4) \quad (4, +\infty)$

$f'' \quad < 0 \quad > 0$

$f \quad$ downward \quad upward



(1)

§ 4.4 Indeterminate Forms & L'Hospital's Rule.

Ex. $\lim_{x \rightarrow 3} \frac{x^2 - 9}{x - 3} = \lim_{x \rightarrow 3} \frac{(x-3)(x+3)}{x-3} = \lim_{x \rightarrow 3} (x+3) = 6$

Fact. $\lim_{x \rightarrow 3} (x^2 - 9) = 0$, $\lim_{x \rightarrow 3} (x - 3) = 0$ " $\frac{0}{0}$ " Type.

Ex. $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{x+2}{2x-1} = \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1 + \frac{2}{x}}{2 - \frac{1}{x}} = \frac{1}{2}$

Fact $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} (x+2) = \infty = \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} (2x-1)$ " $\frac{\infty}{\infty}$ " Type

THM. [L'Hospital's Rule]

Suppose f and g are differentiable on an open interval I that contains a . When computing $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)}$ reaches either " $\frac{0}{0}$ " or " $\frac{\infty}{\infty}$ " type, then

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

if the RHS (right hand side) exists, or $\pm \infty$.

Ex. $\lim_{x \rightarrow 3} \frac{x^2 - 9}{x - 3} = \lim_{x \rightarrow 3} \frac{2x}{1} = 6$

$\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{x+2}{2x-1} = \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{2} = \frac{1}{2}$

Ex. $\lim_{x \rightarrow 1} \frac{\ln x}{x-1}$

$\lim_{x \rightarrow 1} \ln x = 0 = \lim_{x \rightarrow 1} (x-1)$ $\lim_{x \rightarrow 1} \frac{\ln x}{x-1} \stackrel{L'}{=} \lim_{x \rightarrow 1} \frac{(\ln x)'}{(x-1)'} = \lim_{x \rightarrow 1} \frac{\frac{1}{x}}{1} = 1$

Ex. $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\sin x}{x} \stackrel{L'}{=} \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{(\sin x)'}{(x)'} = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\cos x}{1} = 1$

Ex. $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{e^x}{x^2+x} \stackrel{L'}{=} \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{e^x}{2x+1} \stackrel{L'}{=} \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{e^x}{2} = \infty$

(2)

Ex. $\lim_{x \rightarrow 1} \frac{x^2 - x - 2}{x - 1}$

If use L'Hospital, $\lim_{x \rightarrow 1} \frac{x^2 - x - 2}{x - 1} = \lim_{x \rightarrow 1} \frac{2x - 1}{1} = 1$, which is wrong!

$\lim_{x \rightarrow 1} (x - 1) = 0 \neq -2 = \lim_{x \rightarrow 1} (x^2 - x - 2)$. This is not a " $\frac{0}{0}$ " type.

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 1} \frac{x^2 - x - 2}{x - 1} = \frac{-2}{0} = -\infty$$

Remark. Check the type before applying L'Hospital's Rule

• Indeterminate Product: " $0 \cdot \pm \infty$ " Type

Ex. $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0^+} x \ln x$, $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0^+} x = 0$, $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0^+} \ln x = -\infty$

Method I $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0^+} x \ln x = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0^+} \frac{\ln x}{(\frac{1}{x})} \stackrel{L'}{=} \lim_{x \rightarrow 0^+} \frac{\frac{1}{x}}{-\frac{1}{x^2}} = 0$

\uparrow " $\frac{\pm \infty}{\pm \infty}$ "

Method II? $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0^+} x \ln x = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0^+} \frac{x}{(\ln x)} \stackrel{L'}{=} \lim_{x \rightarrow 0^+} \frac{1}{\frac{1}{x \ln^2 x}}$

\uparrow " $\frac{0}{0}$ "

WRONG approach $= \lim_{x \rightarrow 0^+} -x \ln^2 x$ WORSE than before!

• Indeterminate Difference.

Ex. $\lim_{x \rightarrow \frac{\pi}{2}} (\sec x - \tan x)$ " $\infty - \infty$ "

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow \frac{\pi}{2}} \sec x = \infty = \lim_{x \rightarrow \frac{\pi}{2}} \tan x$$

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow \frac{\pi}{2}} (\sec x - \tan x) = \lim_{x \rightarrow \frac{\pi}{2}} \frac{1 - \sin x}{\cos x} \stackrel{L'}{=} \lim_{x \rightarrow \frac{\pi}{2}} \frac{-\cos x}{-\sin x} = 0$$

\uparrow " $\frac{0}{0}$ "

• Indeterminate Power: $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} [f(x)]^{g(x)}$

" 0^0 " " ∞^0 ", " 1^∞ "

KEY: Natural logarithmic: $\ln [f(x)]^{g(x)} = g(x) \cdot \ln [f(x)]$

$$\int \ln "0^0" = "0 \cdot \ln 0" = 0 \cdot (-\infty)$$

$$\int \ln \infty^0 = 0 \cdot \ln \infty = 0 \cdot \infty$$

$$\int \ln 1^\infty = \infty \cdot \ln 1 = \infty \cdot 0$$

Ex. $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} x^x = ?$
 \uparrow
 0^0

$$y = x^x \Rightarrow \ln y = x \ln x$$

$$\Rightarrow \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \ln y = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} x \ln x = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} y = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} e^{\ln y} = e^{\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \ln y} = e^0 = 1$$

Ex. $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0^+} (1 + \sin 4x)^{\cot x}$

" $\infty \cdot 0$ "
 \downarrow
 " 1^∞ ", $y = (1 + \sin 4x)^{\cot x} \Rightarrow \ln y = \cot x [\ln(1 + \sin 4x)]$
 $= \frac{\ln(1 + \sin 4x)}{\tan x}$

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0^+} \ln y \stackrel{L}{=} \lim_{x \rightarrow 0^+} \frac{\frac{4 \cos x}{1 + \sin 4x}}{\sec^2 x} = 4$$

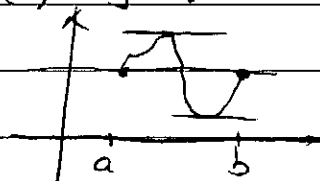
$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0^+} y = e^{\lim_{x \rightarrow 0^+} \ln y} = e^4$$

§4.2 The Mean Value Theorem.

THM. [Rolle's]

If $\begin{cases} (-) f \text{ is continuous on } [a, b] \\ (i) f' \text{ exists on } (a, b) \text{ (differentiable)} \\ (ii) f(a) = f(b) \end{cases}$, then there exists a number c in (a, b) such that $f'(c) = 0$

Remark

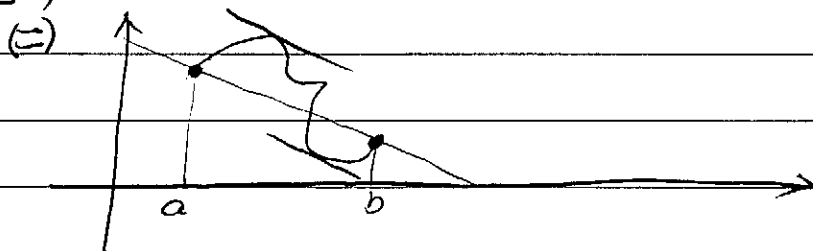


Ex. $(-)$ $f(x) = 2$ constant function $a = 0$, $b = 3 \Rightarrow$ Any c
 (i) $f'(x) = 0$ $a = -2$, $b = 2$, $c = 0$

THM. [Mean Value]

If $\begin{cases} (-) f \text{ is continuous on } [a, b], \\ (i) f' \text{ exists on } (a, b) \end{cases}$, then there exists a number c in (a, b) such that $f'(c) = \frac{f(b) - f(a)}{b - a}$

Remark $(-)$ When $f(a) = f(b) \Rightarrow f'(c) = 0 \Rightarrow$ Rolle's



THM. If $f'(x) = 0$ for all x in (a, b) , then $f(x)$ is constant on (a, b)

Corol. If $f'(x) = g'(x)$ for all x in (a, b) , then $f(x) - g(x)$ is constant on (a, b) , i.e. $f(x) = g(x) + c$ for some constant c .

Ex. $\tan^{-1}x + \cot^{-1}x = \frac{\pi}{2}$.

Let $f(x) = \tan^{-1}x + \cot^{-1}x$. Then $f'(x) = \frac{1}{1+x^2} - \frac{1}{1+x^2} = 0 \Rightarrow f(x) = c$
 $c = f(1) = \frac{\pi}{4} + \frac{\pi}{4} = \frac{\pi}{2}$

§ 4.7 Optimization Problems.

Ex. Find the area of the largest rectangle that can be inscribed in a semicircle of radius r .

$$A = 2xy$$

$$x^2 + y^2 = r^2 \Rightarrow y = \sqrt{r^2 - x^2}$$

$$\Rightarrow A(x) = 2x\sqrt{r^2 - x^2}$$

[Q] Find the max of $A(x)$ on $[0, r]$

$$A'(x) = 2\sqrt{r^2 - x^2} + 2x \cdot \frac{-2x}{2\sqrt{r^2 - x^2}}$$

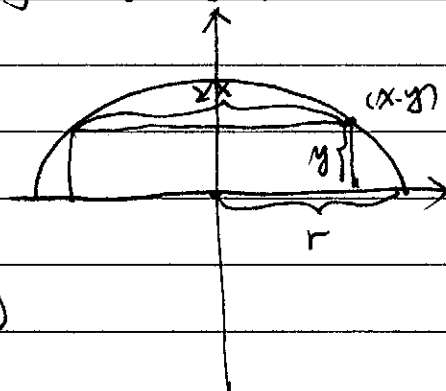
$$= 2\sqrt{r^2 - x^2} - \frac{2x^2}{\sqrt{r^2 - x^2}}$$

$$= \frac{2(r^2 - 2x^2)}{\sqrt{r^2 - x^2}}$$

$$A'(x) = 0 \Leftrightarrow r^2 - 2x^2 = 0 \Leftrightarrow x = \frac{r}{\sqrt{2}} \leftarrow \text{this is the only critical number, must be max.}$$

$$A''(x) = \frac{-6r^2x + 4x^3}{(r^2 - x^2)^{3/2}}, \quad A''\left(\frac{r}{\sqrt{2}}\right) = -\frac{8r}{\sqrt{2}} < 0$$

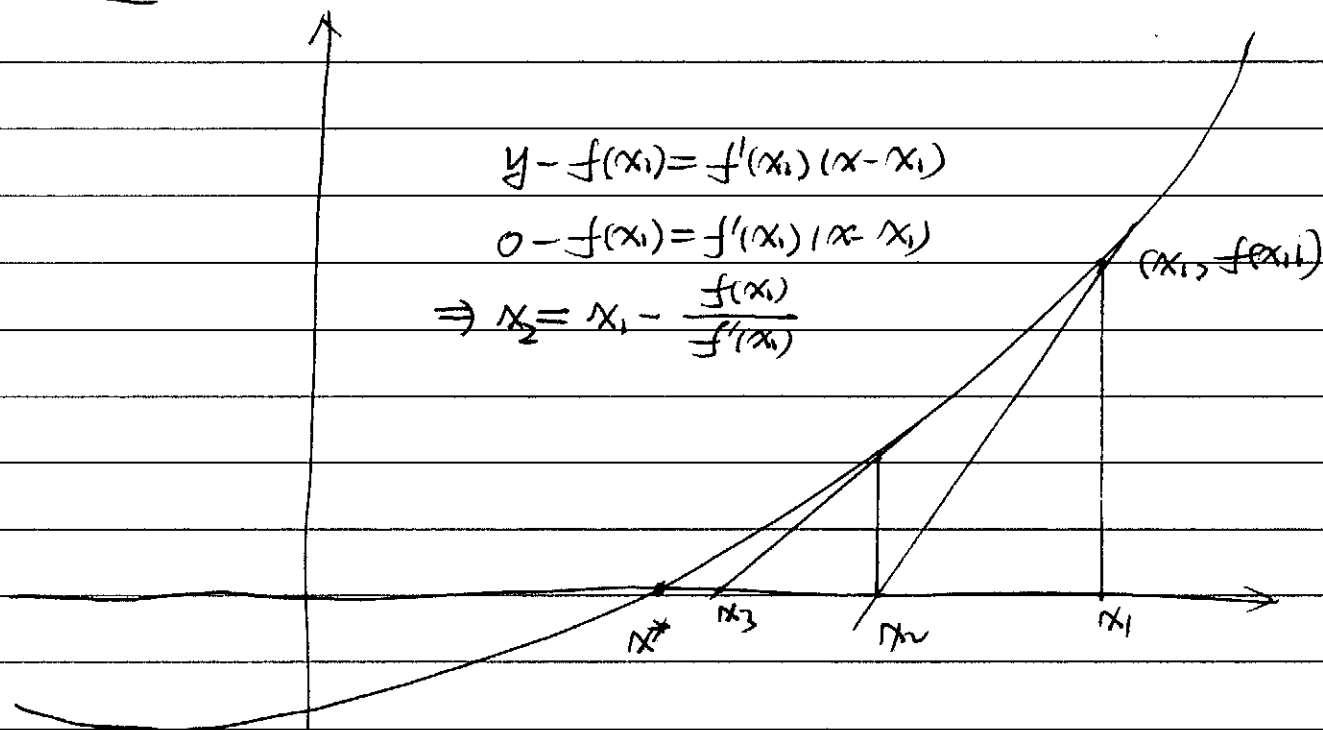
$$A\left(\frac{r}{\sqrt{2}}\right) = 2 \cdot \frac{r}{\sqrt{2}} \cdot \sqrt{r^2 - \frac{r^2}{2}} = r^2$$



§4.8 Newton's Method

Aim: Find the zero/root of a function $f(x)$,
i.e. solve $f(x) = 0$.

Ex $48x(1+x)^{60} - (1+x)^{60} + 1 = 0$



Use linearization / tangent approximation.

$$x_{n+1} = x_n - \frac{f(x_n)}{f'(x_n)}$$

Pick x_1 , recurrence $\Rightarrow x^* = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} x_n$

Ex. $\sqrt[6]{2} = 2^{\frac{1}{6}} = ?$

$$x^6 = 2, \quad \underbrace{x^6 - 2}_{f(x)}, \quad f'(x) = 6x^5 \quad \Rightarrow x_{n+1} = x_n - \frac{x_n^6 - 2}{6x_n^5}$$

$$x_1 = 1, \quad x_2 = 1 - \frac{1-2}{6} = \frac{7}{6} = 1.166667$$

$$x_3 = \frac{7}{6} - \frac{(\frac{7}{6})^6 - 2}{f'(\frac{7}{6})} = 1.2644318$$

$$x_4 \approx 1.2246205$$

§4.9 Antiderivatives.

DEF. A function F is called an antiderivative of f on an interval I if $F'(x) = f(x)$ for all x in I .

Ex. $f(x) = 3x^2$

$$F_1(x) = x^3, F_2(x) = x^3 + 1, F_3(x) = x^3 + 2014$$

THM. If F is an antiderivative of f on an interval I , so is $F(x) + C$, where C is an arbitrary constant.

Terminology. Most General Antiderivative

$$\underline{F(x) + C}$$

Ex. (i) $f(x) = \sin x$

$$(\cos x)' = -\sin x \Rightarrow (-\cos x)' = \sin x$$

$$F(x) = -\cos x + C.$$

(ii) $f(x) = \frac{1}{x}$

$$(\ln x)' = \frac{1}{x} \quad x > 0 \quad (\ln |x|)' = \frac{1}{x}$$

$$(\ln(-x))' = \frac{-1}{-x} = \frac{1}{x} \quad x < 0$$

$$F(x) = \ln |x| + C$$

P345. Table

Ex. Find all function g such that

$$g'(x) = 4 \sin x + \frac{2x^5 - \sqrt{x}}{x}$$

$$g'(x) = 4 \sin x + 2x^4 - x^{-\frac{1}{2}}$$

$$\sin x \rightarrow -\cos x, \quad 4 \sin x \rightarrow -4 \cos x$$

$$x^4 \rightarrow \frac{x^5}{5}, \quad 2x^4 \rightarrow \frac{2x^5}{5}$$

$$x^{-\frac{1}{2}} \rightarrow \frac{x^{\frac{1}{2}}}{\frac{1}{2}} = 2\sqrt{x}$$

$$g(x) = -4 \cos x + \frac{2}{5} x^5 - 2\sqrt{x} + C.$$

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

$$f(x) = x^n \quad n \neq -1$$

$$F(x) = \frac{x^{n+1}}{n+1} + C$$

DEF. [Indefinite Integrals], $\int f(x) dx = F(x) + C$

②

$$\int x^2 dx = \frac{x^3}{3} + C$$

$$\int \frac{1}{x} dx = \ln|x| + C$$

$$\int \sin x dx = -\cos x + C$$

$$\int e^x dx = e^x + C$$

Ex. [1st Order Differential Equation].

Find $f(x)$ such that $f'(x) = e^x + 20(1+x^2)^{-1}$ and $f(0) = -2$

$$f(x) = \int f'(x) dx$$

$$= \int \left[e^x + \frac{20}{1+x^2} \right] dx$$

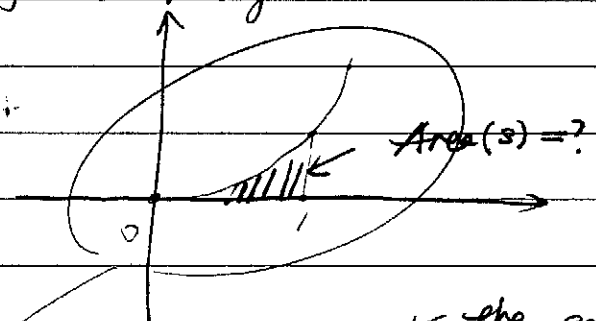
$$= e^x + 20 \arctan x + C \Rightarrow f'(x) = e^x + \frac{20}{1+x^2}$$

$$f(0) = 1 + 20 \cdot 0 + C = -2 \Rightarrow C = -3$$

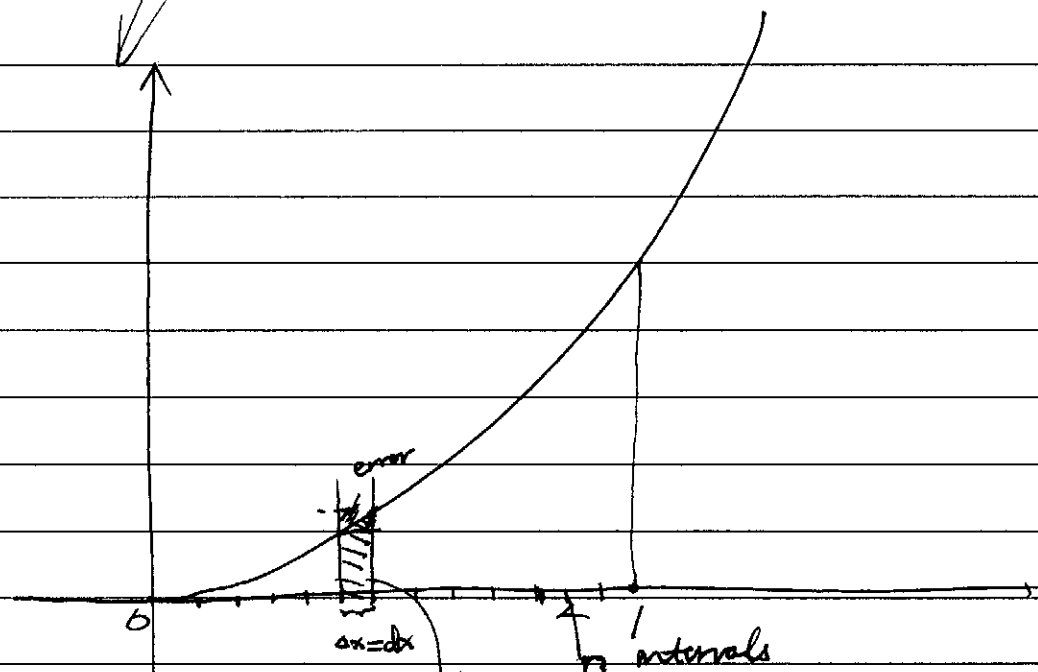
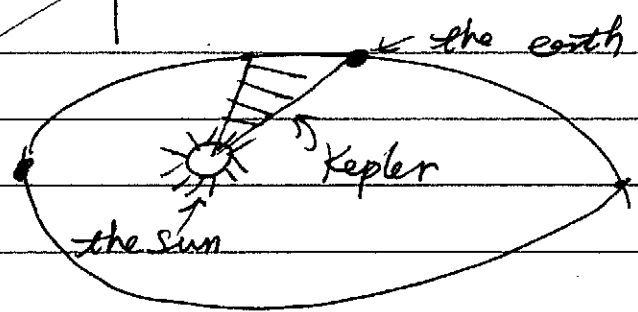
$$f(x) = e^x + 20 \arctan x - 3.$$

§ 5.1 ~ 5.2. Definite Integrals.

[Q]. $f(x) = x^2$



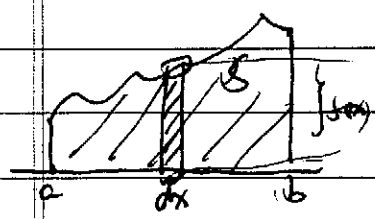
ASIDE :



$$Area(s) = \sum Area(s_i) \approx \sum A(Rectangle)$$

$$= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum A(Rectangle) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum A(Rectangle)$$

Notation



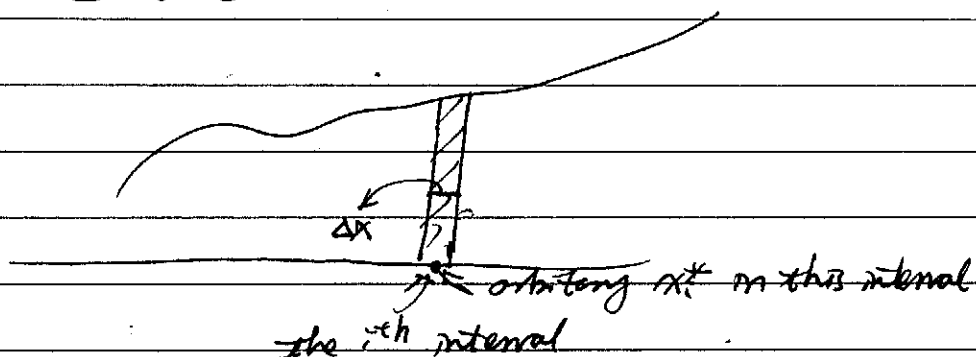
$$\lim \text{sum} = \lim \sum f(x_i) \Delta x$$

$$= \int_a^b f(x) dx = Area(s)$$

(2)

DEF. [Definite Integral]

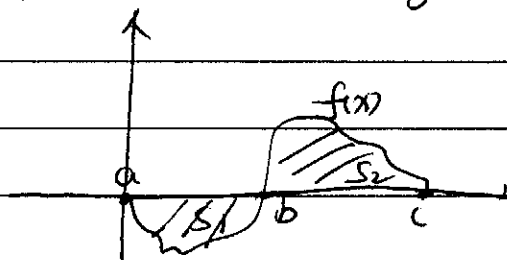
$$\text{Area}(S) = \int_a^b f(x) dx = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{i=1}^n f(x_i^*) \Delta x$$



THM. If f is continuous on $[a, b]$ (or has only a finite number of jump discontinuities), then f is integrable on $[a, b]$ i.e., $\int_a^b f(x) dx$ exists.

Remark. IMPORTANT:

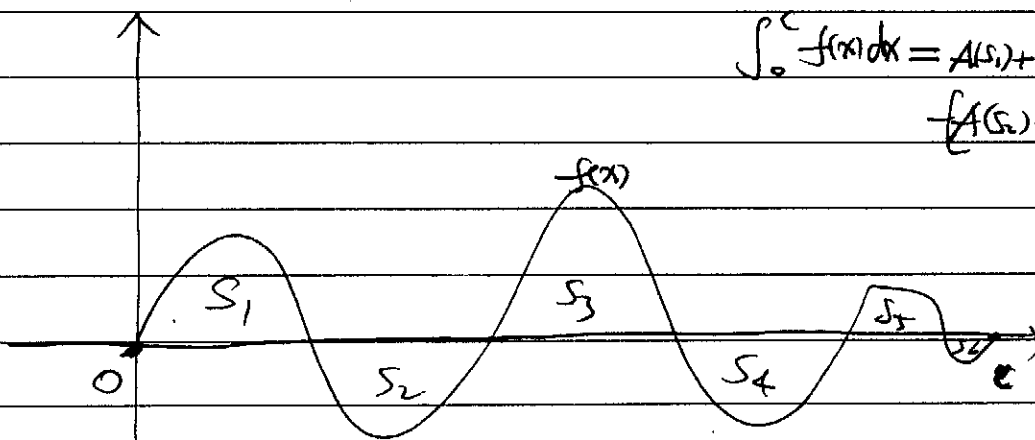
This area is a signed area.



$$\int_b^c f(x) dx = \text{Area}(S_2) > 0$$

$$\int_a^b f(x) dx = -\text{Area}(S_1) < 0$$

$$\int_a^c f(x) dx = \text{Area}(S_2) - \text{Area}(S_1)$$



$$\int_0^e f(x) dx = A(S_1) + A(S_2) + A(S_3) - [A(S_4) + A(S_5) + A(S_6)]$$

Properties:

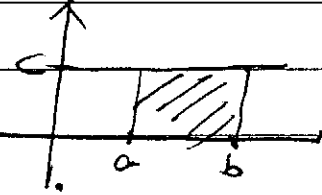
$$1. \int_a^b f(x) dx = - \int_b^a f(x) dx$$

When $b=a$ $\int_a^b f(x) dx = - \int_a^b f(x) dx \Rightarrow \int_a^b f(x) dx = 0$

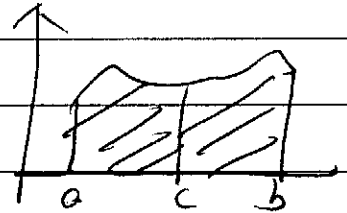
$$2. \int_a^b c dx = c(b-a)$$

↓
constant

$$3. \int_a^b [f(x) \pm g(x)] dx = \int_a^b f(x) dx \pm \int_a^b g(x) dx$$



$$4. \int_a^b c f(x) dx = c \int_a^b f(x) dx$$



$$5. \int_a^c f(x) dx + \int_c^b f(x) dx = \int_a^b f(x) dx$$

$$6. \text{ If } f(x) \geq 0 \text{ for } a \leq x \leq b, \text{ then } \int_a^b f(x) dx \geq 0$$

$$7. \text{ If } f(x) \geq g(x) \text{ for } a \leq x \leq b \text{ then } \int_a^b f(x) dx \geq \int_a^b g(x) dx$$

$$8. \text{ If } m \leq f(x) \leq M \text{ for } a \leq x \leq b, \text{ then}$$

$$m(b-a) \leq \int_a^b f(x) dx \leq M(b-a)$$

①

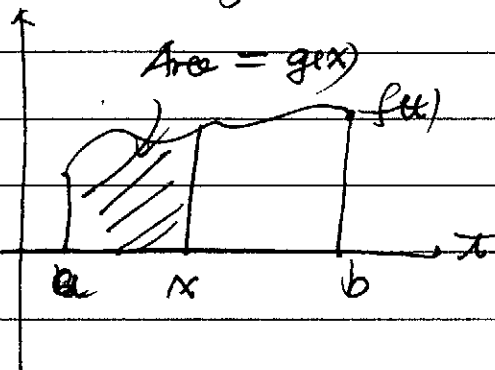
§ 5-3. Fundamental Theorem of Calculus.

Thm. Suppose f is continuous on $[a, b]$

$$1. \text{ If } g(x) = \int_a^x f(t) dt, \text{ then } g'(x) = f(x)$$

↑
Antiderivative

$$2. \int_a^b f(x) dx = F(b) - F(a), \text{ where } F \text{ is any antiderivative.}$$



Ex $f(t) = t^2, \quad g(x) = \int_0^x t^2 dt \Rightarrow g'(x) = f(x) = x^2$

$$g(x) = F(x) - F(0) = \left(\frac{x^3}{3} + C\right) - \left(\frac{0^3}{3} + C\right) = \frac{x^3}{3}$$

Ex $\hookrightarrow g(x) = \int_0^x \sqrt{1+t^2} dt \quad f(t) = \sqrt{1+t^2}$

$$g'(x) = f(x) = \sqrt{1+x^2}$$

$$(=) \frac{d}{dx} \left(\int_1^{x^4} \sec t dt \right)$$

$$g(x) = \int_1^{x^4} \sec t dt \quad g'(x) = ?$$

$$u(x) = x^4 \quad g(u) = \int_1^u \sec t dt$$

$$\frac{dg}{dx} = \frac{dg}{du} \cdot \frac{du}{dx} \quad \leftarrow \text{Chain Rule}$$

$$= \sec u \cdot 4x^3$$

$$= 4x^3 \sec(x^4)$$

Chain Rule

$$\Rightarrow g(x) = \int_a^{u(x)} f(t) dt$$

$$g'(x) = f(u(x)) \cdot u'(x)$$

$$(三)^* \frac{d}{dx} \left(\int_x^{x^2} \cos t \, dt \right)$$

(2)

$$g(x) = \int_x^{x^2} \cos t \, dt = \int_x^0 \cos t \, dt + \int_0^{x^2} \cos t \, dt$$

$$= - \int_0^x \cos t \, dt + \int_0^{x^2} \cos t \, dt$$

$$g'(x) = \frac{d}{dx} \left(- \int_0^x \cos t \, dt \right) + \frac{d}{dx} \left(\int_0^{x^2} \cos t \, dt \right)$$

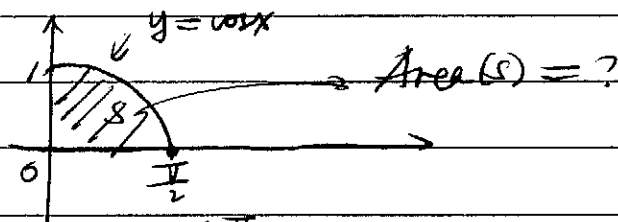
$$= - \cos x + \cos x^2 \cdot 2x = 2x \cos(x^2) - \cos x$$

Remark $g(x) = \int_x^{x^2} \cos t \, dt$ $\int \cos t \, dt = \underline{\sin t} + C$

$$= \sin(x^2) - \sin(x)$$

$$g'(x) = \cos(x^2) \cdot 2x - \cos x$$

Ex.



$$\int \cos x \, dx = \underline{\sin x} + C$$

$$\text{Area}(S) = \int_0^{\frac{\pi}{2}} \cos x \, dx = \sin x \Big|_{x=0}^{x=\frac{\pi}{2}}$$

$$= \sin \frac{\pi}{2} - \sin 0 = 1$$

Ex. (-) $\int_1^3 e^x \, dx = e^x \Big|_{x=1}^{x=3} = e^3 - e^1$ $\int e^x \, dx = e^x + C$

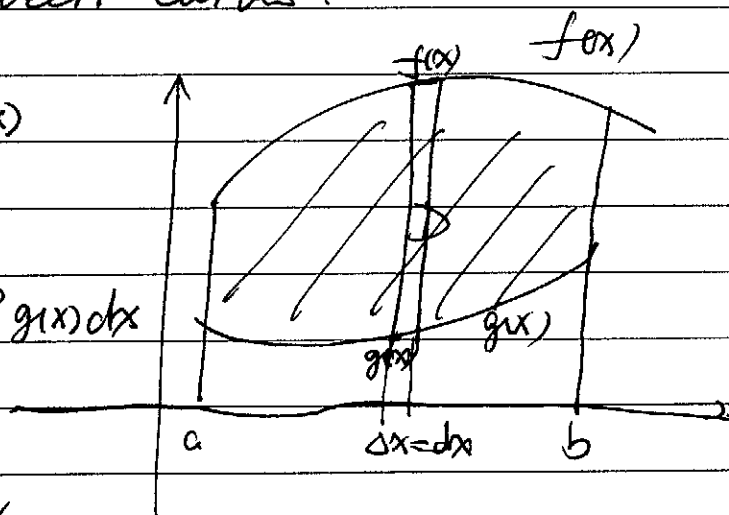
$$= e^3 - e$$

§6.1 Areas Between Curves.

①

Easy Case: $f(x) \geq g(x)$
 $a \leq x \leq b$

$$\text{Area}(D) = \int_a^b f(x) dx - \int_a^b g(x) dx$$



$$\text{Area}(D) = \int_a^b \underbrace{[f(x) - g(x)]}_{\text{one side}} dx$$

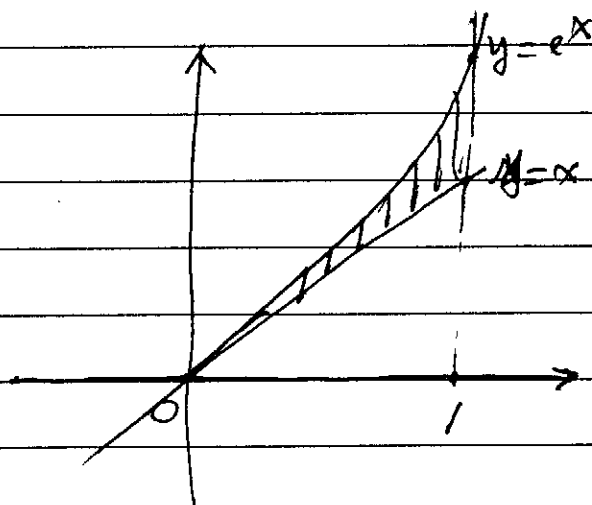
Ex. Find the area of the region bounded by
 $y = e^x$, $y = x$ $x = 0$, $x = 1$

$$\text{Area} = \int_0^1 (e^x - x) dx$$

$$= \int_0^1 e^x dx - \int_0^1 x dx$$

$$= e^x \Big|_{x=0}^{x=1} - \frac{x^2}{2} \Big|_{x=0}^{x=1}$$

$$= e - 1 - \frac{1}{2} = e - 1.5$$



Ex. Find the area of the region bounded by $y = x^2$ & $y = 2x - x^2$
IMPORTANT STEP.

Find the intersection points.

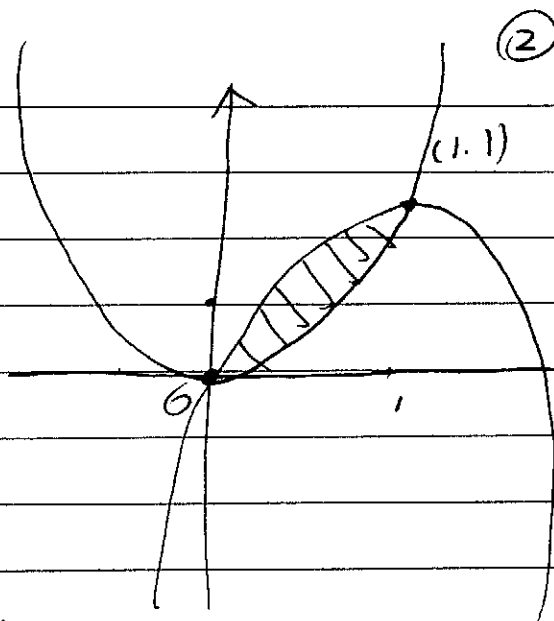
$$\begin{cases} y = x^2 \\ y = 2x - x^2 \end{cases} \Rightarrow x^2 = 2x - x^2 \Rightarrow x^2 = 2x \Rightarrow x(x-1) = 0 \Rightarrow \begin{cases} (0, 0) \\ (1, 1) \end{cases}$$

$$\text{Area} = \int_0^1 [(2x - x^2) - x^2] dx$$

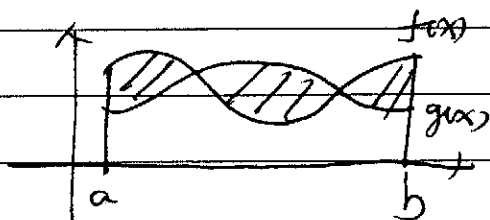
$$= \int_0^1 2(x - x^2) dx$$

$$= 2 \cdot \left(\frac{x^2}{2} - \frac{x^3}{3} \right) \Big|_0^1 = \frac{2}{3}$$

Normal Case



Hard Case



$$\text{Area} = \int_a^b |f(x) - g(x)| dx$$

Ex. $y = \sin x$, $y = \cos x$, $x = 0$, $x = \frac{\pi}{2}$

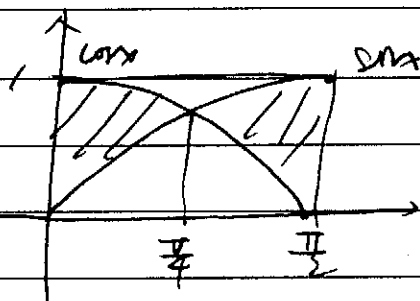
$$A = \int_0^{\frac{\pi}{2}} |\sin x - \cos x| dx$$

$$= \int_0^{\frac{\pi}{4}} |\sin x - \cos x| dx + \int_{\frac{\pi}{4}}^{\frac{\pi}{2}} |\sin x - \cos x| dx$$

$$= \int_0^{\frac{\pi}{4}} (\cos x - \sin x) dx + \int_{\frac{\pi}{4}}^{\frac{\pi}{2}} (\sin x - \cos x) dx$$

$$= (\sin x + \cos x) \Big|_{x=0}^{\frac{\pi}{4}} + (-\cos x - \sin x) \Big|_{x=\frac{\pi}{4}}^{x=\frac{\pi}{2}}$$

$$= 2\sqrt{2} - 2$$



Special Case

$$A = \int_c^d |f(y) - g(y)| dy$$

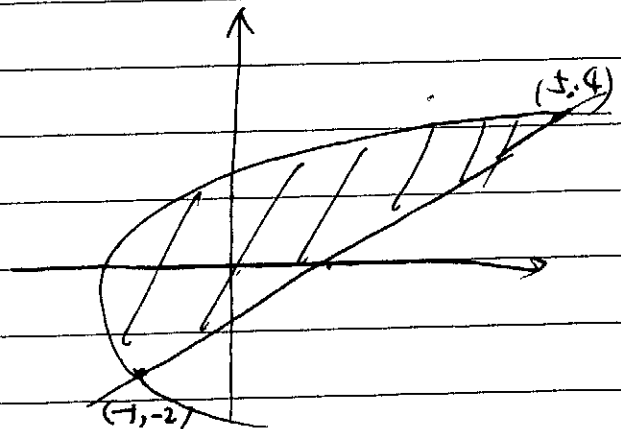
Ex. $y = x - 1$ $y^2 = 2x + 6$

$$x = y + 1 \quad x = \frac{1}{2}(y^2 - 6)$$

③

$$\begin{cases} y = x - 1 \\ y^2 = 2x + 6 \end{cases} \quad \begin{aligned} (x-1)^2 &= 2x+6 \\ x^2 - 4x - 5 &= 0 \\ (x-5)(x+1) &= 0 \end{aligned}$$

$$\Rightarrow (-1, -2), (5, 4)$$



$$A = \int_{-2}^4 \left[(y+1) - \frac{1}{2}(y^2-6) \right] dy$$

$$= \int_{-2}^4 \left(-\frac{1}{2}y^2 + y + 4 \right) dy$$

$$= \left(-\frac{1}{6}y^3 + \frac{y^2}{2} + 4y \right) \bigg|_{y=-2}^{y=4} = 18$$

§6.2 Volumes.

①

Question, Find the volume of the solid obtained
by rotating R
about L .

Ex. R : The region bounded by $y = \sqrt{1-x^2}$ and x -axis
 L : x -axis.

(i) $V = \frac{4}{3} \pi r^3 = \frac{4}{3} \pi$

(ii) Thickness $= \Delta x = dx$

Base: disk, Radius = Distance from the
outermost point (slice)
to L

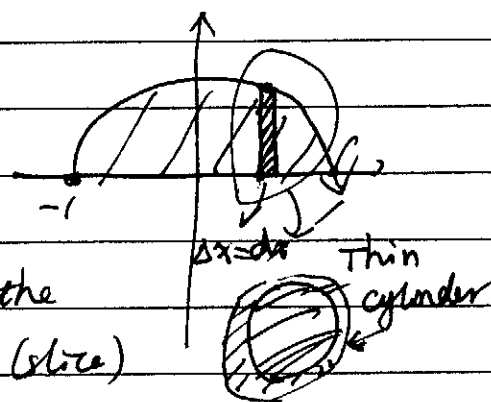
Radius $r = y = \sqrt{1-x^2}$

Area of Base $= \pi r^2 = \pi(1-x^2)$

Volume of small cylinder $= \pi(1-x^2) \cdot dx$

Sum + Limit $= \int$

$$V = \int_{-1}^1 \pi(1-x^2) dx = \pi \left(x - \frac{x^3}{3} \right) \Big|_{x=-1}^{x=1} = \frac{4}{3} \pi$$

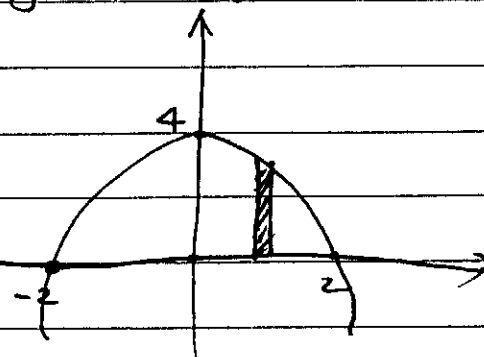


Ex. R : The region bounded by $y = 4-x^2$ and x -axis
 L : x -axis

Thickness $= dx$

Radius $= y = 4-x^2$

$$V = \int_{-2}^2 \pi y^2 dx = \int_{-2}^2 \pi (4-x^2)^2 dx = \frac{512\pi}{15}$$



Ex. R: $y = 4 - x^2$, $y = -1$

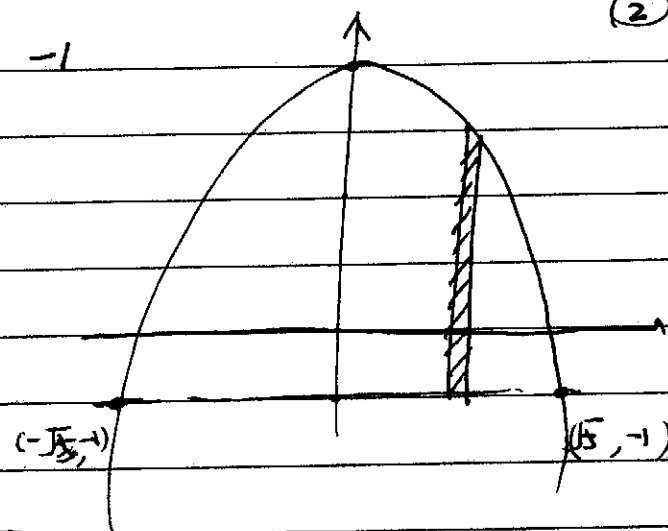
L: $y = -1$

$$V = \int_{-5}^5 A \cdot dx$$

$$= \int_{-5}^5 \pi r^2 dx$$

$$= \int_{-5}^5 \pi (y+1)^2 dx$$

$$= \int_{-5}^5 \pi (4-x^2+1)^2 dx = \frac{80\pi}{3}$$



Ex. R: $y = 4 - x^2$, $y = 1$

L: $y = -1$

Thickness = dx

$$A = \pi (\text{outer radius})^2 - \pi (\text{inner radius})^2$$

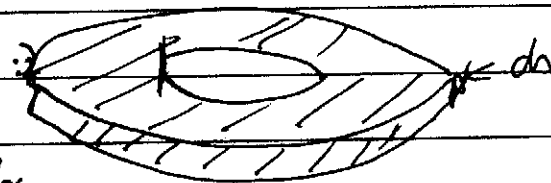
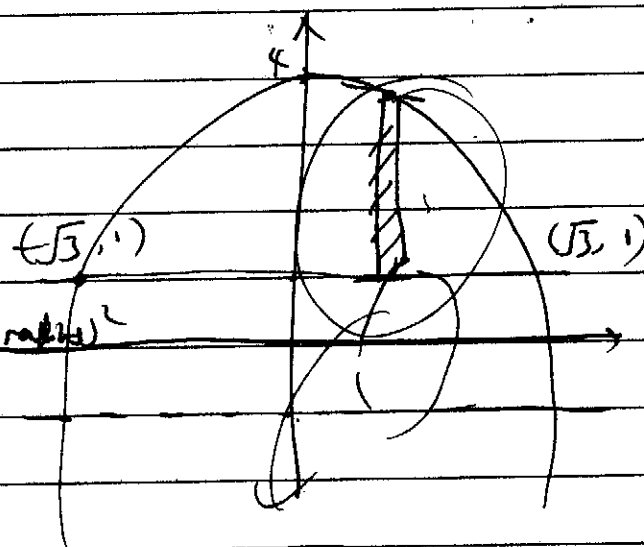
$$= \pi (y+1)^2 - \pi (2)^2$$

$$= \pi (y^2 + 2y - 3)$$

$$V = \int_{-5}^5 A dx = \int_{-5}^5 \pi (y^2 + 2y - 3) dx$$

$$= \int_{-5}^5 \pi [(4-x^2)^2 + 2(4-x^2) - 3] dx$$

$$= \frac{128\sqrt{3}}{5} \pi$$

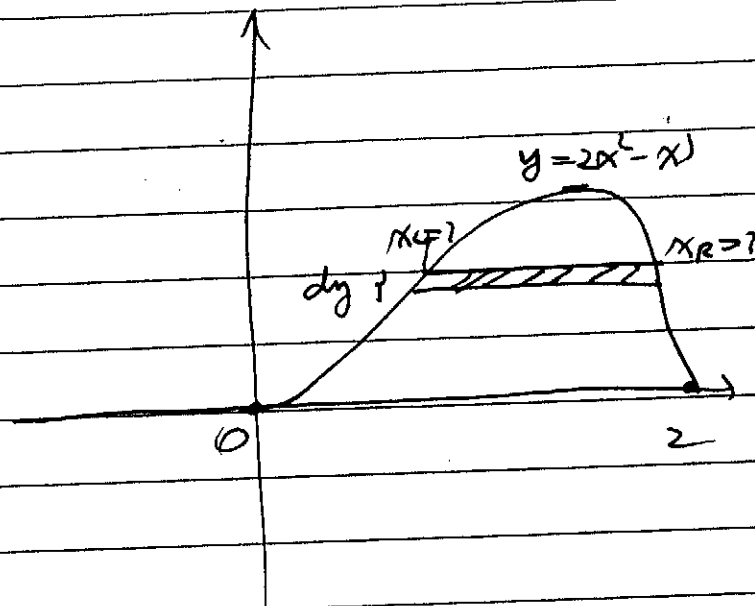


§6.3 Volumes by Cylindrical shells

Ex. R: $y = 2x^2 - x^3$ $[x=0, x=2]$

L: y -axis.

$$V = \int (\pi x_R^2 - \pi x_L^2) dy$$



$$V = \lim \sum [\text{circumference}] [\text{height}] [\text{thickness}]$$

$$= \int_0^2 2\pi x \cdot y \, dx$$

$$= \int_0^2 2\pi x (2x^2 - x^3) \, dx$$

$$= \frac{16}{5} \pi$$

