

# Calculus and Differential Equations

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# 1 Integration Techniques

## 1.1 Table of Derivatives

Let  $f(x)$  be a function, and  $a \in \mathbb{R}$  be a constant.

$f$	$\frac{df}{dx}$	$f$	$\frac{df}{dx}$
$x^a$	$ax^{a-1}$	$a$	$0$
$\sqrt{x}$	$\frac{1}{2\sqrt{x}}$	$x$	$1$
$a^x$	$\ln(a)a^x$	$a_1u(x) \pm a_2v(x)$	$a_1\frac{du}{dx} \pm a_2\frac{dv}{dx}$
$e^x$	$e^x$	$u(x)v(x)$	$\frac{dx}{dv}v + u\frac{dx}{dv}$
$\log_a x, a \in \mathbb{R} \setminus \{0\}$	$\frac{1}{a \ln x}$	$\frac{u(x)}{v(x)}$	$\frac{\frac{dx}{du}v - u\frac{dx}{dv}}{v(x)^2}$
$\ln x$	$\frac{1}{x}$	$u(v(x))$	$\frac{du}{dv}\frac{dv}{dx}$

  

$f$	$\frac{df}{dx}$	$f$	$\frac{df}{dx}$
$\sin(ax)$	$a \cos(ax)$	$\sinh(ax)$	$a \cosh(ax)$
$\cos(ax)$	$-a \sin(ax)$	$\cosh(ax)$	$a \sinh(ax)$
$\tan(ax)$	$a \sec^2(ax)$	$\tanh(ax)$	$a \operatorname{sech}^2(ax)$
$\cot(ax)$	$-a \csc^2(ax)$	$\coth(ax)$	$-a \operatorname{csch}^2(ax)$
$\sec(ax)$	$a \sec(ax) \tan(ax)$	$\operatorname{sech}(ax)$	$-a \operatorname{sech}(ax) \tanh(ax)$
$\csc(ax)$	$-a \csc(ax) \cot(ax)$	$\operatorname{csch}(ax)$	$-a \operatorname{csch}(ax) \coth(ax)$
$\arcsin(ax)$	$\frac{a}{\sqrt{1-a^2x^2}}$	$\operatorname{arcsinh}(ax)$	$\frac{a}{\sqrt{1+a^2x^2}}$
$\arccos(ax)$	$-\frac{a}{\sqrt{1-a^2x^2}}$	$\operatorname{arccosh}(ax)$	$\frac{a}{\sqrt{1-a^2x^2}}$
$\arctan(ax)$	$\frac{a}{1+a^2x^2}$	$\operatorname{arctanh}(ax)$	$\frac{a}{1-a^2x^2}$
$\operatorname{arccot}(ax)$	$-\frac{a}{1+a^2x^2}$	$\operatorname{arccoth}(ax)$	$\frac{a}{1-a^2x^2}$
$\operatorname{arcsec}(ax)$	$\frac{1}{x\sqrt{a^2x^2-1}}$	$\operatorname{arcsech}(ax)$	$-\frac{1}{a(1+ax)\sqrt{\frac{1-ax}{1+ax}}}$
$\operatorname{arccsc}(ax)$	$-\frac{1}{x\sqrt{a^2x^2-1}}$	$\operatorname{arccsch}(ax)$	$-\frac{1}{ax^2\sqrt{1+\frac{1}{a^2x^2}}}$

Table 1: Derivatives of Elementary Functions

## 1.2 Trigonometric Identities

### 1.2.1 Pythagorean Identities

$$\sin^2(x) + \cos^2(x) = 1$$

Dividing by either the sine or cosine function gives:

$$\tan^2(x) + 1 = \sec^2(x)$$

$$1 + \cot^2(x) = \csc^2(x)$$

### 1.2.2 Double-Angle Identities

$$\begin{aligned} \sin(2x) &= 2 \sin(x) \cos(x) & \csc(2x) &= \frac{\sec(x) \csc(x)}{2} \\ \cos(2x) &= \cos^2(x) - \sin^2(x) & \sec(2x) &= \frac{\sec^2(x) \csc^2(x)}{\csc^2(x) - \sec^2(x)} \\ \tan(2x) &= \frac{2 \tan(x)}{1 - \tan^2(x)} & \cot(2x) &= \frac{\cot^2(x) - 1}{2 \cot(x)} \end{aligned}$$

### 1.2.3 Power Reducing Identities

$$\begin{aligned} \sin^2(x) &= \frac{1 - \cos(2x)}{2} & \csc^2(x) &= \frac{2}{1 - \cos(2x)} \\ \cos^2(x) &= \frac{1 + \cos(2x)}{2} & \sec^2(x) &= \frac{2}{1 + \cos(2x)} \\ \tan^2(x) &= \frac{1 - \cos(2x)}{1 + \cos(2x)} & \cot^2(x) &= \frac{1 + \cos(2x)}{1 - \cos(2x)} \end{aligned}$$

## 1.3 Partial Fractions

**Definition 1.3.1** (Partial Fraction Decomposition). **Partial fraction decomposition** is a method where a rational function  $\frac{P(x)}{Q(x)}$  is rewritten as a sum of fraction.

Factor in denominator	Term in partial fraction decomposition
$ax + b$	$\frac{A}{ax + b}$
$(ax + b)^k, k \in \mathbb{N}$	$\frac{A_1}{ax + b} + \frac{A_2}{(ax + b)^2} + \dots + \frac{A_k}{(ax + b)^k}$
$ax^2 + bx + c$	$\frac{A}{ax^2 + bx + c}$
$(ax^2 + bx + c)^k, k \in \mathbb{N}$	$\frac{A_1x + B_1}{ax^2 + bx + c} + \frac{A_2}{(ax + b)^2} + \dots + \frac{A_k}{(ax + b)^k}$

Table 2: Partial Fraction Forms

## 1.4 Integration by Parts

**Theorem 1.4.1.**

$$\int u \, dv = uv - \int v \, du$$

## 1.5 Integration by Substitution

**Theorem 1.5.1.**

$$\int f(g(x)) \frac{dg(x)}{dx} dx = \int f(u) du, \text{ where } u = g(x)$$

## 1.6 Trigonometric Substitutions

Form	Substitution	Result	Domain
$(a^2 - b^2 x^2)^n$	$x = \frac{a}{b} \sin(\theta)$	$a^2 \cos^2(\theta)$	$\theta \in [-\frac{\pi}{2}, \frac{\pi}{2}]$
$(a^2 + b^2 x^2)^n$	$x = \frac{a}{b} \tan(\theta)$	$a^2 \sec^2(\theta)$	$\theta \in (-\frac{\pi}{2}, \frac{\pi}{2})$
$(b^2 x^2 - a^2)^n$	$x = \frac{a}{b} \sec(\theta)$	$a^2 \tan^2(\theta)$	$\theta \in [0, \frac{\pi}{2}) \cup (\frac{\pi}{2}, \pi]$

Table 3: Trigonometric substitutions for various forms.

## 2 Limits, Continuity and Differentiability

### 2.1 Limits

**Theorem 2.1.1** (Limits).  $\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} f(x)$  exists if and only if  $\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0^+} f(x)$  and  $\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0^-} f(x)$  exist and are equal.

**Definition 2.1.1** (Finite limits using the  $\varepsilon$ - $\delta$  definition).

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} f(x) = L \iff \forall \varepsilon > 0 : \exists \delta > 0 : \forall x \in I : 0 < |x - x_0| < \delta \implies |f(x) - L| < \varepsilon$$

**Theorem 2.1.2** (L'Hôpital's Rule). For two differentiable functions  $f(x)$  and  $g(x)$ . If  $\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} f(x) = \lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} g(x) = 0$ , or  $\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} f(x) = \lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} g(x) = \pm\infty$ , then  $\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} = \lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} \frac{f'(x)}{g'(x)}$ .

### 2.2 Continuity

**Theorem 2.2.1** (Continuity at a Point).  $f(x)$  is continuous at  $c$  iff  $\lim_{x \rightarrow c} f(x) = f(c)$ .

**Theorem 2.2.2** (Continuity over an Interval).  $f(x)$  is continuous on  $I$  if  $f(x)$  is continuous for all  $x \in I$ .

- $f(x)$  is continuous on  $I : (a, b)$  if it is continuous for all  $x \in I$ .
- $f(x)$  is continuous on  $I : [a, b]$  if it is continuous for all  $x \in I$ , but only right continuous at  $a$  and left continuous at  $b$ .

If  $f(x)$  is continuous on  $(-\infty, \infty)$ ,  $f(x)$  is continuous everywhere.

**Theorem 2.2.3** (Intermediate Value Theorem). If  $f(x)$  is continuous on  $I : [a, b]$  and  $c$  is any number between  $f(a)$  and  $f(b)$ , inclusive, then there exists an  $x \in I$  such that  $f(x) = c$ .

### 2.3 Differentiability

**Theorem 2.3.1** (Differentiability).  $f(x)$  is differentiable at  $x = x_0$  iff

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

exists. When this limit exists, it defines the derivative

$$\left. \frac{df}{dx} \right|_{x=x_0} = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(x_0 + h) - f(x_0)}{h}$$

**Theorem 2.3.2.**  $f(x)$  is differentiable on  $I$  if  $f(x)$  is differentiable for all  $x_0 \in I$ .

**Theorem 2.3.3.** Differentiability implies continuity.

**Theorem 2.3.4** (Mean Value Theorem). If  $f(x)$  is continuous on  $I : [a, b]$  and differentiable on  $I$ , then there exists a point  $c \in I$  such that

$$\left. \frac{df}{dx} \right|_{x=c} = \frac{f(b) - f(a)}{b - a}$$

### 3 Definite Integrals

**Theorem 3.0.1.** *If  $f(x)$  is continuous on an interval  $I : [a, b]$ , then the net signed area  $A$  between the graph of  $f(x)$  and the interval  $I$  is*

$$A = \int_a^b f(x) \, dx$$

#### Properties of Definite Integrals

**Theorem 3.0.2.** *Suppose that  $f(x)$  and  $g(x)$  are continuous on the interval  $I$ , with  $a, b, c \in I$  and  $k \in \mathbb{R}$  then*

- a)  $\int_a^a f(x) \, dx = 0.$
- b)  $\int_a^b f(x) \, dx = - \int_b^a f(x) \, dx.$
- c)  $\int_a^b k f(x) \, dx = k \int_a^b f(x) \, dx.$
- d)  $\int_a^b (f(x) \pm g(x)) \, dx = \int_a^b f(x) \, dx \pm \int_a^b g(x) \, dx.$
- e)  $\int_a^b f(x) \, dx = \int_a^c f(x) \, dx + \int_c^b f(x) \, dx.$

#### 3.1 Riemann Sums

**Theorem 3.1.1.** *Let  $A$  be the area under  $f(x)$  on the interval  $[a, b]$ , then*

$$\int_a^b f(x) \, dx = \lim_{\max \Delta x_k \rightarrow 0} \sum_{k=1}^n f(x_k) \Delta x_k$$

where  $n$  is the number of rectangles,  $x_k$  is the centre of the rectangle  $k$ , and  $\Delta x_k$  is the width of the rectangle  $k$ . If every rectangle has the same width, then

$$\forall k : \Delta x_k = \frac{b-a}{n}$$

#### 3.2 Fundamental Theorem of Calculus

The fundamental theorem of calculus provides a logical connection between infinite series (definite integrals) and antiderivatives (indefinite integrals).

**Theorem 3.2.1** (The Fundamental Theorem of Calculus: Part 1). *If  $f(x)$  is continuous on  $[a, b]$  and  $F$  is any antiderivative of  $f$  on  $[a, b]$  then*

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

*Equivalently*

$$\int_a^b \frac{d}{dx} F(x) \, dx = F(b) - F(a) \equiv F(x) \Big|_a^b$$

**Theorem 3.2.2** (The Fundamental Theorem of Calculus: Part 2). *If  $f(x)$  is continuous on  $I$  then it has an antiderivative on  $I$ . In particular, if  $a \in I$ , then the function  $F$  defined by*

$$F(x) = \int_a^x f(t) \, dt$$

*is an antiderivative of  $f(x)$ . That is,*

$$\frac{d}{dx} F(x) = f(x) \equiv \frac{d}{dx} \int_a^x f(t) \, dt = f(x)$$

**Theorem 3.2.3.** *Differentiation and integration are inverse operations.*



### 3.3 Taylor and Maclaurin Polynomials

**Theorem 3.3.1** (Taylor Polynomials). *If  $f(x)$  is a  $n$  differentiable function at  $x_0$ , then the  $n$ th degree Taylor polynomial for  $f(x)$  near  $x_0$ , is given by*

$$f(x) \approx p_n(x) = \sum_{k=0}^n \frac{f^{(k)}(x_0)}{k!} (x - x_0)^k$$

**Theorem 3.3.2** (Maclaurin Polynomials). *Evaluating a Taylor polynomial near 0, gives the  $n$ th degree Maclaurin polynomial for  $f(x)$*

$$f(x) \approx p_n(x) = \sum_{k=0}^n \frac{f^{(k)}(0)}{k!} x^k$$

**Theorem 3.3.3** (Error in Approximation). *Let  $R_n(x)$  denote the difference between  $f(x)$  and its  $n$ th Taylor polynomial, that is*

$$R_n(x) = f(x) - p_n(x) = f(x) - \sum_{k=0}^n \frac{f^{(k)}(x_0)}{k!} (x - x_0)^k = \frac{f^{(n+1)}(s)}{(n+1)!} (x - x_0)^{n+1}$$

where  $s$  is between  $x_0$  and  $x$ .

## 4 Taylor and Maclaurin Series

### 4.1 Infinite Series

**Definition 4.1.1** (Taylor Series). If  $f(x)$  has derivatives of all orders at  $x_0$ , then the Taylor series for  $f(x)$  about  $x = x_0$  is given by

$$f(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{f^{(n)}(x_0)}{n!} (x - x_0)^n$$

**Definition 4.1.2** (Maclaurin Series). If a Taylor series is centred on  $x_0 = 0$ , it is called a Maclaurin series, defined by

$$f(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{f^{(n)}(0)}{n!} x^n$$

**Definition 4.1.3** (Power Series). Both Taylor and Maclaurin series are examples of **power series**, which are defined as follows

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} c_n (x - x_0)^n$$

### 4.2 Convergence

**Theorem 4.2.1** (Convergence of a Taylor Series). *The equality*

$$f(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{f^{(n)}(x_0)}{n!} (x - x_0)^n$$

*holds at a point  $x$  iff*

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left[ f(x) - \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{f^{(n)}(x_0)}{n!} (x - x_0)^n \right] = 0$$

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} R_n(x) = 0$$

**Definition 4.2.1** (Interval of Convergence). The interval of convergence for a power series is the set of  $x$  values for which that series converges.

**Definition 4.2.2** (Radius of Convergence). The radius of convergence  $R$  is a nonnegative real number or  $\infty$  such that a power series converges if

$$|x - a| < R$$

and diverges if

$$|x - a| > R$$

The behaviour of the power series on the boundary, that is, where  $|x - a| = R$ , can be determined by substituting  $x = R + a$  for the upper boundary, and  $x = -R + a$  for the lower boundary.

### 4.3 Convergence Tests

For any power series of the form  $\sum_{i=i_0}^{\infty} a_i$ .

#### Alternating Series

**Conditions**  $a_i = (-1)^i b_i$  or  $a_i = (-1)^{i+1} b_i$ .  $b_i > 0$ .

$$\text{Is } b_{i+1} \leq b_i \text{ \& } \lim_{i \rightarrow \infty} b_i = 0? \begin{cases} \text{YES} & \sum a_i \text{ Converges} \\ \text{NO} & \text{Inconclusive} \end{cases}$$

#### Ratio Test

$$\text{Is } \lim_{i \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{a_{i+1}}{a_i} \right| < 1? \begin{cases} \text{YES} & \sum a_i \text{ Converges} \\ \text{NO} & \sum a_i \text{ Diverges} \end{cases}$$

The ratio test is inconclusive if  $\lim_{i \rightarrow \infty} \frac{a_{i+1}}{a_i} = 1$ .

### 4.4 Table of Maclaurin Series

Function	Series	Interval of Convergence
$e^x$	$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{x^n}{n!}$	$-\infty < x < \infty$
$\sin(x)$	$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^n}{(2n+1)!} x^{2n+1}$	$-\infty < x < \infty$
$\cos(x)$	$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^n}{(2n)!} x^{2n}$	$-\infty < x < \infty$
$\frac{1}{1-x}$	$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} x^n$	$-1 < x < 1$

Table 4: Maclaurin Series of Common Functions

## 5 Multivariable Calculus

### 5.1 Multivariable Functions

**Definition 5.1.1.** A function is multivariable if its domain consists of several variables. In the reals, these functions are defined

$$f : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$$

### 5.2 Level Curves

**Definition 5.2.1.** Level curves or *contour curves* of a function of two variables is a curve along which the function has constant value.

$$L_c(f) = \{(x, y) : f(x, y) = c\}$$

The level curves of a function can be determined by substituting  $z = c$ , and solving for  $y$ .

### 5.3 Limits and Continuity

**Definition 5.3.1** (Finite Limit of Multivariable Functions using the  $\varepsilon$ - $\delta$  Definition).

$$\begin{aligned} \lim_{(x_1, \dots, x_n) \rightarrow (c_1, \dots, c_n)} f(x_1, \dots, x_n) &= L \\ \iff \forall \varepsilon > 0 : \exists \delta > 0 : \forall (x_1, \dots, x_n) \in I : \\ 0 < |x_1 - c_1, \dots, x_n - c_n| < \delta &\implies |f(x_1, \dots, x_n) - L| < \varepsilon \end{aligned}$$

**Theorem 5.3.1** (Limits along Smooth Curves). *If  $f(x, y) \rightarrow L$  as  $(x, y) \rightarrow (x_0, y_0)$ , then  $\lim_{(x, y) \rightarrow (x_0, y_0)} f(x, y) = L$  along any smooth curve.*

**Theorem 5.3.2** (Existence of a Limit). *If the limit of  $f(x, y)$  changes along different smooth curves, then  $\lim_{(x, y) \rightarrow (x_0, y_0)} f(x, y)$  does not exist.*

**Theorem 5.3.3** (Continuity of Multivariable Functions). *A function  $f(x_1, \dots, x_n)$  is continuous at  $(c_1, \dots, c_n)$  iff*

$$\lim_{(x_1, \dots, x_n) \rightarrow (c_1, \dots, c_n)} f(x_1, \dots, x_n) = f(c_1, \dots, c_n)$$

Recognising continuous functions:

- A sum, difference or product of continuous functions is continuous.
- A quotient of continuous functions is continuous except where the denominator is zero.
- A composition of continuous functions is continuous.

### 5.4 Partial Derivatives

**Definition 5.4.1** (Partial Differentiation). The partial derivative of a multivariable function is its derivative with respect to one of those variables, while the others are held constant.

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial x_i} = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(x_1, \dots, x_{i-1}, x_i + h, x_{i+1}, \dots, x_n) - f(x_1, \dots, x_n)}{h}$$

## 5.5 The Gradient Vector

**Definition 5.5.1.** Let  $\nabla$ , pronounced “del”, denote the vector differential operator defined as follows

$$\nabla = \begin{bmatrix} \partial_{x_1} \\ \partial_{x_2} \\ \vdots \\ \partial_{x_n} \end{bmatrix}$$

## 5.6 Multivariable Chain Rule

**Theorem 5.6.1** (Multivariable Chain Rule). *Let  $f = f(\mathbf{x}(t_1, \dots, t_n))$  be the composition of  $f$  with  $\mathbf{x} = [x_1 \ \cdots \ x_m]$ , then the partial derivative of  $f$  with respect to  $t_i$  is given by*

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial t_i} = \nabla f \cdot \partial_{t_i} \mathbf{x}$$

## 6 Double and Triple Integrals

## 7 Vector-Valued Functions

## 8 First-Order Differential Equations



## 9 Second-Order Differential Equations