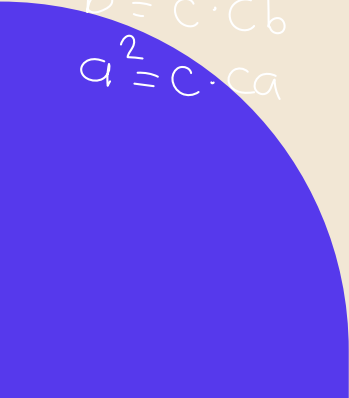

$$S_3 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

# MATH 100: Differential Calculus Final Exam Review

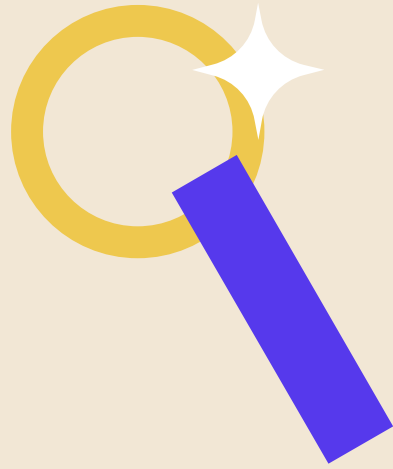

$$b^2 = c \cdot cb$$
$$a^2 = c \cdot ca$$
$$\pi = 3.141592$$
$$\alpha x = -\frac{\alpha x}{2x}$$

**Rajveer, Sanjith, and Josh**



# Week 1

Introduction to limits, graphical limits



# Limits

## Definition 2.1.1: Informal Definition of Limits

Let  $f(x)$  be a function that exists at all points in some open interval containing a real value  $a$  except possibly at  $a$  itself. We say that the **limit** of  $f(x)$  as  $x$  approaches  $a$  is equal to a real number  $L$  if the function values  $f(x)$  become arbitrarily close to  $L$  for all  $x$  sufficiently close to  $a$ . This is denoted,

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = L \quad \text{or} \quad f(x) \rightarrow L \text{ as } x \rightarrow a$$

If the values of  $f$  do **not** become arbitrarily close to any real number  $L$  as  $x$  becomes arbitrarily close to  $a$ , we say that the limit of  $f$  as  $x$  approaches  $a$  **does not exist** and we write,

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = DNE.$$

## Definition 2.2.1: Left & Right Hand Limits

Let  $f : D \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  be a function that exists at all points in some open interval containing a real value  $a$  except possibly at  $a$  itself. We say that the **left hand limit of  $f(x)$  as  $x$  approaches  $a$**  is equal to some real value  $L_1$  if the values of  $f(x)$  become arbitrarily close to  $L_1$  for all  $x$  sufficiently close to  $a$  with  $x < a$ . This is denoted by,

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow a^-} f(x) = L_1 \quad \text{or} \quad f(x) \rightarrow L_1 \text{ as } x \rightarrow a^-$$

Similarly, the **right hand limit of  $f(x)$  as  $x$  approaches  $a$**  is equal to  $L_2$  if the values of  $f(x)$  become arbitrarily close to  $L_2$  for all  $x$  sufficiently close to  $a$  with  $x > a$ . This is denoted by,

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow a^+} f(x) = L_2 \quad \text{or} \quad f(x) \rightarrow L_2 \text{ as } x \rightarrow a^+$$

# Limits

## Definition 2.2.2: (Slightly More) Formal Limit

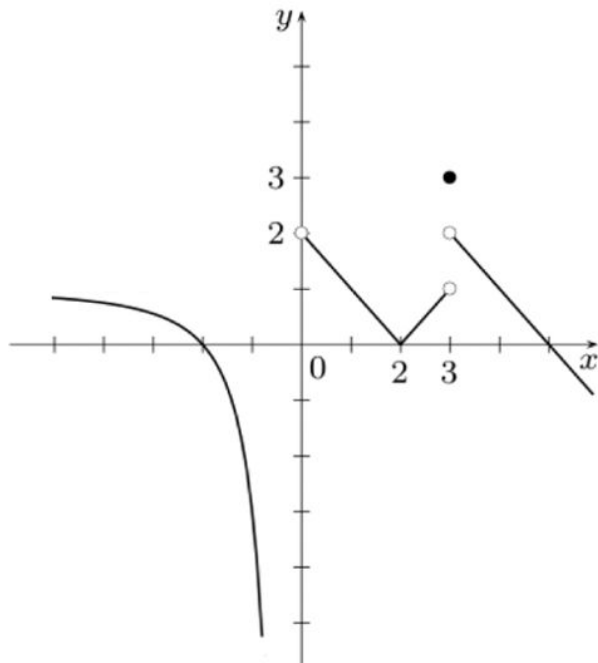
Let  $f : D \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  be a function and let  $a \in \mathbb{R}$  be a real number. Suppose that the left and right hand limits of  $f$  at  $x = a$  exist and that  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a^-} f(x) = \lim_{x \rightarrow a^+} f(x) = L$ . Then, we define **the limit of  $f(x)$  as  $x$  approaches  $a$**  to be  $L$  as well and we write

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = L \quad \text{or} \quad f(x) \rightarrow L \text{ as } x \rightarrow a$$

If  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a^-} f(x) \neq \lim_{x \rightarrow a^+} f(x)$ , then  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = DNE$ .

# Example

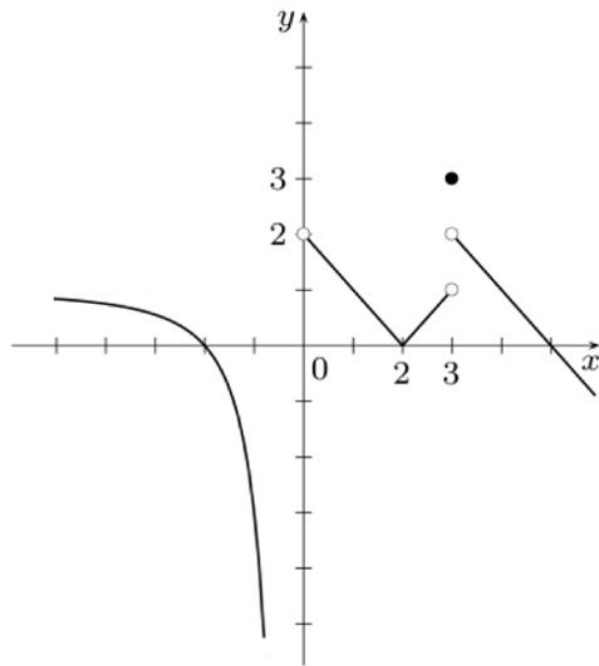
Use the graph of the function  $f(x)$  to answer each question.  
Use  $\infty$ ,  $-\infty$  or  $DNE$  where appropriate.



- (a)  $f(2) =$
- (b)  $f(0) =$
- (c)  $f(3) =$
- (d)  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0^-} f(x) =$
- (e)  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0^+} f(x) =$
- (f)  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} f(x) =$
- (g)  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 2} f(x) =$
- (h)  $\lim_{x \rightarrow -5^-} f(x) =$

Use the graph of the function  $f(x)$  to answer each question.

Use  $\infty$ ,  $-\infty$  or  $DNE$  where appropriate.



- (a)  $f(2) = 0$
- (b)  $f(0) = DNE$
- (c)  $f(3) = 3$
- (d)  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0^-} f(x) = -\infty$
- (e)  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0^+} f(x) = 2$
- (f)  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} f(x) = DNE$
- (g)  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 2} f(x) = 0$
- (h)  $\lim_{x \rightarrow -5^-} f(x) = DNE$

# Week 2

Vertical Asymptotes, Algebraic Techniques for  
Limits



# Vertical Asymptote

## Definition 2.3.2: Vertical Asymptotes

The vertical line  $x = a$  is a **vertical asymptote** for a function  $f$  if *at least one* of the following are true,

$$\begin{aligned} \lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = \infty, \quad \lim_{x \rightarrow a^-} f(x) = \infty, \quad \lim_{x \rightarrow a^+} f(x) = \infty, \\ \lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = -\infty, \quad \lim_{x \rightarrow a^-} f(x) = -\infty, \quad \lim_{x \rightarrow a^+} f(x) = -\infty. \end{aligned}$$



# Algebraic Technique for Limits

## Theorem 2.5.1: Limit Laws

Let  $f$  and  $g$  be functions, let  $a \in \mathbb{R}$  be a real number, and let  $c$  be a constant. Suppose that  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x)$  and  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} g(x)$  both exist and are not infinite. Then, all of the following equations hold.

1. **Sum Law.**  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} [f(x) \pm g(x)] = \lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) \pm \lim_{x \rightarrow a} g(x)$

2. **Constant Law.**  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} cf(x) = c \cdot \lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x)$

3. **Product Law.**  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x)g(x) = \left(\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x)\right) \left(\lim_{x \rightarrow a} g(x)\right)$

4. **Quotient Law.**  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} = \frac{\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x)}{\lim_{x \rightarrow a} g(x)}$  provided that  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} g(x) \neq 0$

5. **Power Law.**  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f^n(x) = \lim_{x \rightarrow a} [f(x)]^n = \left[\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x)\right]^n$  for all positive integers  $n$

6. **Root Law.**  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} \sqrt[n]{f(x)} = \lim_{x \rightarrow a} [(f(x))^{1/n}] = \left[\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x)\right]^{1/n} = \sqrt[n]{\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x)}$  for all positive integers  $n$ . If  $n$  is even, then we assume  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) > 0$

Moreover, all of these laws hold for left and right hand limits as well.

# Calculating HA

## Solution Strategy 5: Calculating Infinite Limit

If  $p(x)$  and  $q(x)$  are polynomials and you need to calculate  $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{p(x)}{q(x)}$  or  $\lim_{x \rightarrow -\infty} \frac{p(x)}{q(x)}$ , do the following.

1. Identify which of  $p(x)$  or  $q(x)$  have smaller degrees; denote the smaller degree by  $m$ .
2. Multiply both top and bottom by  $\frac{1}{x^m}$ .
3. All terms other than the leading two on the top and bottom then become negligible as  $x \rightarrow \pm\infty$ , so the limit of the new function becomes the limit of the ratio of the leading terms. Heuristically, the values of these limits can be remembered as follows:
  - i If the degree of  $p$  and  $q$  are equal, then the limit of  $\frac{p(x)}{q(x)}$  as  $x \rightarrow \pm\infty$  is the ratio of the leading coefficients of each.
  - ii If the degree of  $q$  is larger than the degree of  $p$ , then  $\frac{p(x)}{q(x)} \rightarrow 0$  as  $x \rightarrow \pm\infty$ .
  - iii If the degree of  $p$  is larger than the degree of  $q$ , then  $\frac{p(x)}{q(x)}$  approaches a signed infinite as  $x \rightarrow \pm\infty$ , the sign of which can be determined by looking at the ratio of the leading terms and the degree of the polynomial.

# Examples


1)  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 1} \frac{x^3 + 3x^2 + 5}{4 - 7x}$

---

2)  $\lim_{x \rightarrow -3} \frac{\frac{1}{x+2} + 1}{x+3}$

---

3)  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 9} \frac{x-9}{\sqrt{x}-3}$



# Examples

1)  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 1} \frac{x^3 + 3x^2 + 5}{4 - 7x}$

Plug in the value  $x = 1$

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 1} \left( \frac{x^3 + 3x^2 + 5}{4 - 7x} \right) = \frac{1^3 + 3 \cdot 1^2 + 5}{4 - 7 \cdot 1} = -3$$

2)  $\lim_{x \rightarrow -3} \frac{\frac{1}{x+2} + 1}{x+3}$

Simplify  $\frac{\frac{1}{x+2} + 1}{x+3}$ :  $\frac{1}{x+2}$

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow -3} \left( \frac{\frac{1}{x+2} + 1}{x+3} \right) = \lim_{x \rightarrow -3} \left( \frac{1}{x+2} \right) = \frac{1}{-3+2} = -1$$

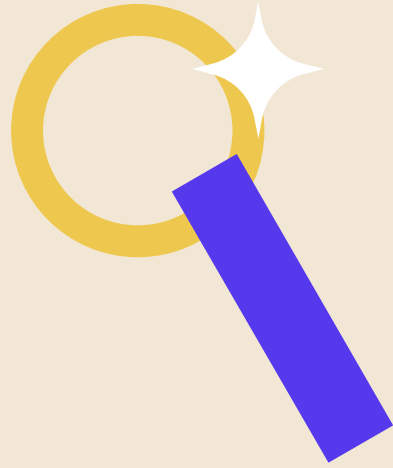
3)  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 9} \frac{x-9}{\sqrt{x}-3}$

Rationalize denominator  $\frac{x-9}{\sqrt{x}-3}$ :  $\sqrt{x} + 3$

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 9} \left( \frac{x-9}{\sqrt{x}-3} \right) = \lim_{x \rightarrow 9} (\sqrt{x} + 3) = \sqrt{9} + 3 = 6$$

# Week 3

Limits at Infinity, continuity, IVT



# Limits at Infinity

## Definition 2.7.1: Limits at Infinity & Horizontal Asymptotes

Let  $f$  be a function defined on an interval  $(a, \infty)$  where  $a \in \mathbb{R}$ . The expression

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} f(x) = L \quad \text{or} \quad f(x) \rightarrow L \text{ as } x \rightarrow \infty$$

means that values of  $f(x)$  can be made arbitrarily close to  $L$  for all  $x$  sufficiently large in the positive direction. Similarly, the expression

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow -\infty} f(x) = L \quad \text{or} \quad f(x) \rightarrow L \text{ as } x \rightarrow -\infty$$

means that values of  $f(x)$  can be made arbitrarily close to  $L$  for all  $x$  sufficiently large in the negative direction.

If  $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} f(x) = L$ , then the horizontal line  $y = L$  is called a **horizontal asymptote** at  $\infty$ . If  $\lim_{x \rightarrow -\infty} f(x) = L$ , then  $y = L$  is called a **horizontal asymptote** at  $-\infty$ .

If  $f(x)$  is getting arbitrarily large in the positive or negative direction as  $x$  gets arbitrarily large in the positive or negative direction, we write,

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

Let  $r > 0$  be a rational number. Then,

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{x^r} = 0.$$

# Example

Find all vertical and horizontal asymptotes of the function.

$$g(x) = \frac{2x^2 + x - 1}{x^2 + 4x + 3}$$

V.A : non-zero  
zero

$$x^2 + 4x + 3 = 0$$

$$(x+3)(x+1) = 0$$

$$x = -3 \quad x = -1$$

Substituting  $x = -3$  in  $g(x) : g(x) = \frac{14}{0}$

" "  $x = -1$  in  $g(x) : g(x) = \frac{0}{0}$

$\therefore$  V.A :  $x = -3$



$$g(x) = \frac{2x^2 + x - 1}{x^2 + 4x + 3} \quad \begin{array}{l} \deg = 2 \\ \deg = 2 \end{array}$$

$$g(x) = \frac{\frac{2x^2 + x - 1}{x^2}}{\frac{x^2 + 4x + 3}{x^2}}$$

(Dividing numerator and denominator by  $x^2$ )

$$g(x) = \frac{2 + \frac{1}{x} - \frac{1}{x^2}}{1 + \frac{4}{x} + \frac{3}{x^2}}$$

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{2 + \cancel{\frac{1}{x}} - \cancel{\frac{1}{x^2}}}{1 + \cancel{\frac{4}{x}} + \cancel{\frac{3}{x^2}}}$$

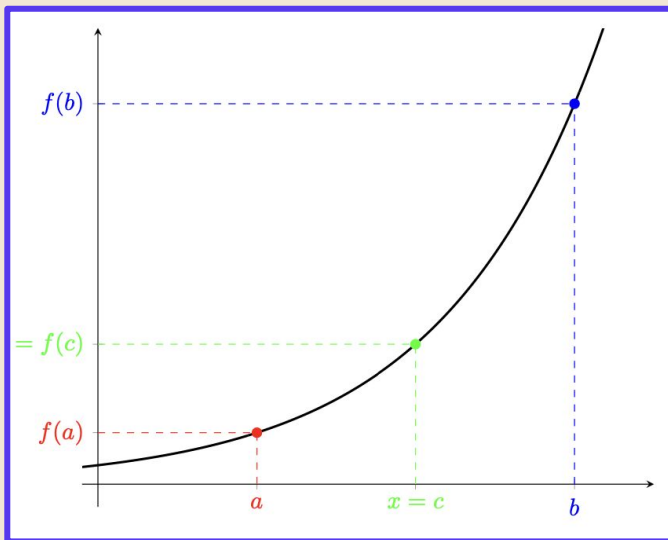
$$\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{2}{1} = 2$$

$$\boxed{y = 2}$$

# Intermediate Value Theorem

## Theorem 2.6.3: Intermediate Value Theorem

Let  $f(x)$  be a function continuous on a closed interval  $[a, b]$  where  $f(a) \neq f(b)$ . Let  $N \in (f(a), f(b))$ ; that is,  $N$  is a number between  $a$  and  $b$ . Then, there exists another number  $c \in (a, b)$  such that  $f(c) = N$ .



# Continuity

## Definition 2.6.1: Continuity

Let  $f : D \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  be a function and let  $a \in D$ .  $f$  is said to be **continuous** at  $x = a$  if,

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

If  $f$  is not continuous at  $x = a$ , then  $f$  is called **discontinuous at  $a$**  and  $a$  is called a **point of discontinuity**. If  $f$  is continuous at all points in some subset  $A$  of its domain, we say that  $f$  is continuous on  $A$ . In particular, if  $f$  is continuous on its entire domain, then we say that  $f$  is **continuous** on its domain.

## Definition 2.6.2: Types of Discontinuity

Let  $f(x)$  be a function and suppose that  $f(x)$  is discontinuous at  $x = a$ .

- i) If  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x)$  exists but  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) \neq f(a)$ , then  $x = a$  is called a **removable discontinuity** of  $f(x)$ .
- ii) If  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a^-} f(x) \neq \lim_{x \rightarrow a^+} f(x)$ , then  $x = a$  is called a **jump discontinuity**.
- iii) If  $f(x)$  has a vertical asymptote at  $x = a$ , then  $x = a$  is called an **infinite discontinuity** of  $f(x)$ .

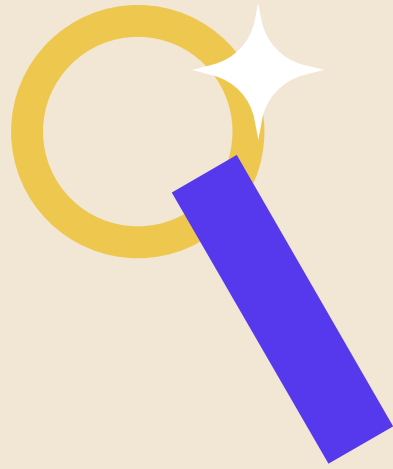
### Theorem 2.3.1: Continuity of Elementary Functions

All of the elementary functions are continuous on their domains. These include:

- **Polynomials:** continuous on all of  $\mathbb{R}$ .
- **Rational functions:** continuous at all  $x$ -values that are not roots of the denominator.
- **Root functions:** continuous at all  $x$ -values for which the roots are defined and for which the denominator does not become zero.
- **Exponential functions**  $a^x$ : continuous on all of  $\mathbb{R}$ .
- **Logarithmic functions**  $\log_a(x)$ : continuous on all  $x > 0$ .
- **Trigonometric functions:**
  - $\sin(x)$  and  $\cos(x)$ : continuous on  $\mathbb{R}$ .

# Week 4

Tangent Line, definition of derivative



# Derivatives and Tangent

## Definition 3.1.4: Derivatives

Let  $f(x)$  be a function that is defined on some open interval that contains the value  $x = a$ . Then, the **derivative** of  $f(x)$  at  $x = a$  is equal to the slope of the tangent line to  $f(x)$  at  $x = a$ ; this is given by,

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

If the limit defining  $f'(a)$  exists as a finite number, then  $f(x)$  is called **differentiable** at  $x = a$ .

Using the **limit definition** of a derivative, calculate  $f'(2)$  for  $f(x) = 2 - x^2$

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

$$f'(2) = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(2+h) - f(2)}{h}$$

$$f'(2) = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{-2 - h^2 - 4h - (-2)}{h}$$

$$= \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{-h^2 - 4h}{h}$$

$$= \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{\cancel{h}(-h-4)}{\cancel{h}}$$

$$= \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} -h - 4$$

$$= 0 - 4 = \underline{\underline{-4}}$$

$$f'(2) = -4$$

$$a = 2$$

$$f(x) = 2 - x^2$$

$$\begin{aligned} f(2+h) &= 2 - (2+h)^2 \\ &= 2 - (4 + h^2 + 4h) \\ &= 2 - 4 - h^2 - 4h \\ &= -2 - h^2 - 4h \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} f(2) &= 2 - (2)^2 \\ &= 2 - 4 \\ &= -2 \end{aligned}$$



# Week 5

Derivatives of polynomials, exponential functions, power and product rules

***Psst:***

- *I have more practice questions in my SL session slides! You can access them from [here](#).*
- *Some questions ahead adapted from [Paul's Online Notes](#). Great Resource btw!*



# Linearity Rules of Differentiation

## Constant Rule:

If  $f(x) = c \cdot g(x)$ , where  $g(x)$  is differentiable,  
Then  $f'(x) = c \cdot g'(x)$

## Sum and Difference Rule:

If  $f(x) = g(x) + h(x)$ ,  
Then  $f'(x) = g'(x) + h'(x)$

Similarly,

If  $f(x) = g(x) - h(x)$ ,  
Then  $f'(x) = g'(x) - h'(x)$

*(Assuming that  $g(x)$  and  $h(x)$  are both differentiable)*

## Power Rule

If  $f(x) = x^n$ , where  $n$  is a constant,

Then  $f'(x) = n \cdot x^{n-1}$

This works for  $n = \text{any constant}$  - positive, negative, zero, or fractional.

Examples:

**Q:** Find the differentiation of  $f(x) = 3x^{27} + 40.5x^2 + 81$ .

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbf{A:} \quad f'(x) &= 3 \cdot 27 \cdot x^{27-1} + 40.5 \cdot 2 \cdot x^{2-1} + 81 \cdot 0 \cdot x^{0-1} \\ &= 81x^{26} + 81x + 0 \\ &= 81x^{26} + 81x \\ &= 81x(x^{25} + 1)\end{aligned}$$

**Q:** Find the differentiation of  $f(x) = x^2 - 4/x$ .

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbf{A:} \quad f(x) &= x^2 - 4x^{-1} \\ \text{So } f'(x) &= 2 \cdot x^{2-1} - 4 \cdot (-1) \cdot x^{-1-1} \\ &= 2x - (-4x^{-2}) \\ &= 2x + 4/x^2\end{aligned}$$

# Exponential Functions

Exponential Functions are those where the power is a function of  $x$ .

E.g.,  $f(x) = 2^x$ ,  $g(x) = e^x$

Differential of exponential functions  $f(x) = a^x$ :

$$f'(x) = \ln(a) \cdot a^x$$

Where  $\ln(a)$  is the log of  $a$  with base  $e$ .

$Y = e^x$  is also called *THE* Exponential Function.

Note:  $\ln(e) = 1$ , so  $f'(e^x) = e^x$ !

Example:

**Q:** Find the differentiation of  $f(x) = x^2 + 3e^x + e^2 5^x$ .

**A:**  $f'(x) = 2x + 3e^x + e^2 \ln(5) \cdot 5^x$

## Product Rule

If  $f(x) = g(x) \cdot h(x)$ , where  $g(x)$  and  $h(x)$  are both differentiable,  
Then  $f'(x) = g'(x) \cdot h(x) + g(x) \cdot h'(x)$

Examples:

**Q:** Find the differentiation of  $f(x) = x^5 e^x$ .

**A:** If  $g(x) = x^5$  and  $h(x) = e^x$ , then  $f(x) = g(x) \cdot h(x)$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{So } f'(x) &= g'(x) \cdot h(x) + g(x) \cdot h'(x) \\ &= 5x^4 \cdot e^x + x^5 \cdot e^x \\ &= e^x(5x^4 + x^5) \end{aligned}$$

**Q:** Find the differentiation of  $f(x) = (x^{1/3} - 7x)(x^{1/2} + 3x^4)$

**A:** If  $g(x) = (x^{1/3} - 7x)$  and  $h(x) = (x^{1/2} + 3x^4)$ , then  **$f(x) = g(x) \cdot h(x)$**

$$\begin{aligned} \text{So } f'(x) &= g'(x) \cdot h(x) + g(x) \cdot h'(x) \\ &= (x^{-2/3}/3 - 7)(x^{1/2} + 3x^4) + (x^{1/3} - 7x)(x^{-1/2}/2 + 12x^3) \end{aligned}$$

# Week 6

Quotient rule, Trigonometric derivatives, Chain rule



# Quotient Rule

If  $f(x) = g(x)/h(x)$ , where  $g(x)$  and  $h(x)$  are differentiable,  
Then  $f'(x) = [g'(x) \cdot h(x) - g(x) \cdot h'(x)] / h(x)^2$

Examples:

**Q:** Find the differentiation of  $f(x) = (x^2 - x + 2)/(x^3 + 4x)$ .

**A:** If  $g(x) = (x^2 - x + 2)$  and  $h(x) = (x^3 + 4x)$ , then  $f(x) = g(x)/h(x)$   
So  $f'(x) = [g'(x) \cdot h(x) - g(x) \cdot h'(x)] / h(x)^2$   
$$= \frac{\mathbf{d/dx}(x^2 - x + 2) \cdot (x^3 + 4x) - (x^2 - x + 2) \cdot \mathbf{d/dx}(x^3 + 4x)}{(x^3 + 4x)^2}$$
$$= \frac{-x^4 + 2x^3 - 2x^2 - 8}{(x^3 + 4x)^2}$$

**Q:** What is the slope of the tangent line on  $y = [9x^2 + 14x + 4]/x^3$  at  $x = 5$ ?

**A:** To find the slope of the tangent line at  $x = 5$ , we need to find the derivative of the function and plug in  $x = 5$ .  
If  $g(x) = (9x^2 + 14x + 4)$  and  $h(x) = x^3$ , then  **$f(x) = g(x)/h(x)$** , so  $f'(x) = [g'(x) \cdot h(x) - g(x) \cdot h'(x)] / h(x)^2$   
$$f'(x) = \frac{(18x + 14)(x^3) - (9x^2 + 14x + 4)(3x^2)}{x^6}$$

So, the slope at  $x = 5$  is  $f'(5) = -377/625$

# Trigonometric Derivative Rules

- $f(x) = \sin(x)$        $f'(x) = \cos(x)$
- $f(x) = \cos(x)$        $f'(x) = -\sin(x)$
- $f(x) = \tan(x)$        $f'(x) = \sec^2(x)$
- $f(x) = \sec(x)$        $f'(x) = \sec(x)\tan(x)$
- $f(x) = \cot(x)$        $f'(x) = -\operatorname{cosec}^2(x)$
- $f(x) = \operatorname{cosec}(x)$        $f'(x) = -\cot(x)\operatorname{cosec}(x)$

*Pattern: if the trig function starts with "c", its differential will be negative!*

Example:

**Q:** Find the differentiation of  $f(x) = 7\tan(x) + 5\sin(x)\cos(x)$

**A:** If  $g(x) = \tan(x)$  and  $h(x) = \sin(x)\cos(x)$ , then  $f(x) = 7g(x) + 5h(x)$ .

$g'(x) = \sec^2(x)$  and  $h'(x) = \cos^2(x) - \sin^2(x)$  [by product rule]

So  $f'(x) = 7\sec^2(x) + 5(\cos^2(x) - \sin^2(x))$

# Chain Rule

The chain rule can be applied to **composite functions** - those functions where the output of a function  $h(x)$  is taken as the input of another function  $g(x)$ . I.e.,  $f(x) = g(h(x)) = g \circ h(x)$

According to chain rule, if  $f(x) = g(h(x))$ , where  $g(x)$  and  $h(x)$  are both differentiable, Then  $f'(x) = g'(h(x)) \cdot h'(x)$

Example:

**Q:** Find the differentiation of  $f(x) = e^{2x} + \tan^2(x + 1)$ .

**A:** If  $g(x) = e^{2x}$  and  $h(x) = \tan^2(x)$ , then  **$f(x) = g(x) + h(x)$** .

If  $g_1(x) = 2x$  and  $g_2(x) = e^x$ , then  $g(x) = g_1(g_2(x))$

If  $h_1(x) = x^2$ ,  $h_2(x) = \tan(x)$ , and  $h_3(x) = x + 1$ , then  $h(x) = h_1(h_2(h_3(x)))$

[composite function]

[composite function]

Therefore,  $f'(x) = g'(x) + h'(x)$

$$\begin{aligned} g'(x) &= \frac{d}{dx}(e^{2x}) * \frac{d}{dx}(2x) = e^{2x} * 2 \\ &= 2e^{2x} \end{aligned}$$

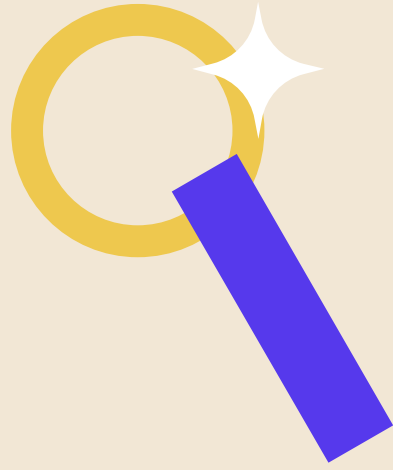
$$\begin{aligned} h'(x) &= \frac{d}{dx}(\tan^2(x + 1)) * \frac{d}{dx}(\tan(x + 1)) * \frac{d}{dx}(x + 1) \\ &= 2\tan(x + 1) * \sec^2(x + 1) * (1 + 0) = 2\tan(x+1)\sec^2(x+1) \end{aligned}$$

$$\text{So } f'(x) = 2e^{2x} + 2\tan(x+1)\sec^2(x+1)$$



# Week 7

Logarithmic differentiation, implicit differentiation,  
derivatives of inverse trigonometric functions, L'Hôpital's rule



# Differentiation of Inverse Trigonometric Functions

Inverse trigonometric functions are the opposite of trigonometric functions. For example, if  $\tan(45^\circ)$  gives 1, then  $\arctan(1)$  gives  $45^\circ$ .

I.e., which angle should we plug into the  $\tan()$  function to so that we get an answer of 1?

- $f(x) = \arcsin(x)$        $f'(x) = 1/\sqrt{1-x^2}$
- $f(x) = \arccos(x)$        $f'(x) = -1/\sqrt{1-x^2}$
- $f(x) = \arctan(x)$        $f'(x) = 1/(1+x^2)$
- $f(x) = \text{arccot}(x)$        $f'(x) = -1/(1+x^2)$

Examples:

**Q:** Find the differentiation of  $f(w) = \sin(w) + w^2 \tan^{-1}(w)$ .

$$\mathbf{A:} f'(w) = \cos(w) + 2w \cdot \tan^{-1}(w) + \frac{w^2}{1+w^2}$$

**Q:** Find the differentiation of  $h(x) = \frac{\sin^{-1}(1) \cdot \sin^{-1}(x)}{x+1}$

$$\mathbf{A:} \sin^{-1}(1) = \pi/2. \text{ So } h(x) = \frac{(\pi/2) \cdot \sin^{-1}(x)}{x+1}$$

$$\frac{h'(x) = (\pi/2) \cdot \left[ \frac{1+x}{\sqrt{1-x^2}} - \sin^{-1}(x) \right]}{(x+1)^2}$$

# Logarithmic Differentiation

- Differentiation of  $a^x = \ln(a) \cdot a^x$
- Differentiation of  $e^x = e^x$
- Differentiation of  $\ln(x) = 1/x$
- Differentiation of  $\log_a(x) = 1/[\ln(a) \cdot x]$

## Examples:

**Q:** Find the differentiation of  $f(x) = x^x$ .

**A:** Since we cannot apply any traditional diff. rules, let's start by rewriting  $f(x) = x^x$  as  $e^{\ln(x^x)} = e^{x \ln(x)}$ .

Differentiating now,  $f'(x) = e^{x \ln(x)} \cdot \frac{d}{dx}(x \ln(x))$

[ chain rule ]

$$f'(x) = e^{x \ln(x)} [1 \cdot \ln(x) + x/x] = e^{x \ln(x)} [\ln(x) + 1] = x^x [\ln(x) + 1]$$

$$[e^{x \ln(x)} = x^x]$$

**Q:** Differentiate  $f(x) = (2x - e^{8x})^{\sin(2x)}$ .

**A:** Rewriting  $f(x)$  as  $e^{\ln[(2x - e^{8x})^{\sin(2x)}]} = e^{\sin(2x) \cdot \ln(2x - e^{8x})}$ . Let  $y = \sin(2x) \cdot \ln(2x - e^{8x})$ .

$$\text{So } f'(x) = e^y \cdot y' = (2x - e^{8x})^{\sin(2x)} \cdot \left[ 2\cos(2x) \cdot \ln(2x - e^{8x}) + \frac{\sin(2x) \cdot (2 - 8e^{8x})}{2x - e^{8x}} \right]$$

$$[e^y = f(x)]$$

**Try:** Find the differentiation of  $y = \sin(3z + z^2)/(6 - z^4)^3$ .

Can you solve this using (a) logarithmic differentiation and (b) quotient rule?

# **Implicit Differentiation**

*It's the same as regular differentiation, just that we don't have a "y" variable isolated on the left side of the equation.*

Just remember that if you're differentiating a **function of x** such as y with respect to (w.r.t) x, you will end up with  $y' = dy/dx$  (duh).

If you are differentiating a **function of y** such as  $y^2$  w.r.t x, **you will have to apply the chain rule** and will end up with something like  $2y*y' = 2y*dy/dx$ .

At the end of the question, make sure to isolate the required variable (most likely y').

## Examples:

**Q:** Find the differentiation of the implicit function  $x^2 + y^3 = 4$ .

**A:** Differentiation gives  $2x + 3y^2*y' = 0$

So  $y' = -2x/3y^2$

**Q:** Assume  $x = x(t)$ ,  $y = y(t)$ ,  $z = z(t)$  and differentiate  $x^2*\cos(y) = \sin(y^3 + 4z)$  with respect to t.

**A:** Differentiation gives  $2xx'*\cos(y) - x^2*\sin(y)y' = (3y^2y' + 4z')*\cos(y^3 + 4z)$

Note that the question does not ask for a particular derivative or variable so we can leave it as is.

# L'Hôpital's Rule

*Let's get back to solving limits.*

Basically, we can use L'Hôpital's Rule to solve limit functions when direct substitution gives a division-based indeterminate form.

In that case, the rule says we can individually replace the numerator and denominator with their derivatives and find the limit of the new function. The answer would be the same.

**Indeterminate forms:**  $0/0$ ,  $\infty/\infty$ ,  $0^0$ ,  $\infty^0$ ,  $\infty^\infty$ ,  $1^\infty$ ,  $\infty - \infty$ , etc.

L'Hôpital's Rule only works with the first two forms.

There may be times when you need to convert a different type of indeterminate limit into a division format.

- For power-based limits: use  $f(x) = e^{\ln(f(x))}$ . Find limit of  $\ln(f(x))$  and plug in its answer at the end as power of  $e$  to get the answer to the question.
- For multiplication-based limits: use  $f(x) \cdot g(x) = f(x) / [1/g(x)]$  [ e.g.  $xe^x = e^x / (1/x) = x / (1/e^x)$  ]

Examples:

**Q:** Evaluate:  $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} e^x / x^2$

**A:** Direct Sub. gives  $\infty/\infty$ . So we apply L'Hôpital's Rule to get  $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} e^x / 2x$ . But this is still indeterminate, so we apply the rule **again**. We get  $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} e^x / 2$ . This is not indeterminate. The limit value is  $\infty/2 = \infty$ .

**Q:** Find  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0^+} (1 - \sin(2x))^{1/x}$ .

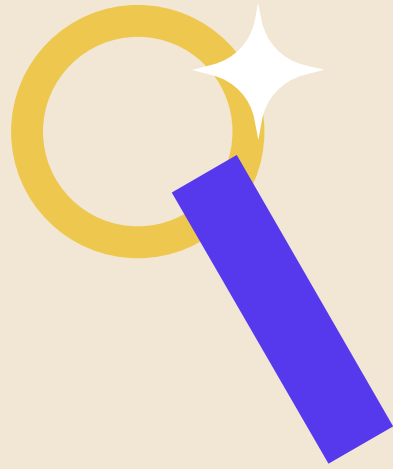
Attempting direct substitution results in the indeterminate form  $1^\infty$ . We rewrite the function as an exponential:

$$(1 - \sin(2x))^{1/x} = e^{(1/x) \ln(1 - \sin(2x))}$$

Using L'Hôpital's Rule, we find  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0^+} \frac{\ln(1 - \sin(2x))}{x} = -2$ . Therefore, the limit is  $e^{-2}$ .  $\square$

# Week 8

Related rates problems, linear approximations  
and differentials



## Linearization

- We know that differentiation of  $f(x)$  at  $x=a$  = slope of tangent line to  $f(x)$  at  $x=a$ .
- The equation of the tangent line would be  $y - f(a) = f'(a)(x - a)$
- So we have a linear line that touches/goes near the actual value of the function at  $x=a$ .
- Let's use this line to find approximations of the  $f(x)$  value near  $x=a$  and call the tangent line equation  **$L(a) = f'(a)(x - a) + f(a)$** .
- That's it.

### Example:

**Q:** Find the linearization of  $f(x) = x^2 - 5x$  at  $x = 1$  and use it to approximate the value of  $f(1.1)$ .

**A:**  $f(1) = 1^2 - 5(1) = 1 - 5 = -4$

$$f'(x) = 2x - 5$$

$$\text{So } f'(a) = 2(1) - 5 = 2 - 5 = -3$$

$$\text{So } L(1) = -3(x - 1) - 4. \text{ (That's the linearization of } f(x) \text{ at } x = 1)$$

$$\text{Therefore } f(1.1) \approx L(1.1)$$

$$= -3(1.1 - 1) - 4 = -3(0.1) - 4 = -0.3 - 4 = -4.3$$

$$[\text{Actual value: } f(1.1) = -4.29]$$

# Differentials

Differentials can be considered the change in linear approximation of the function going from  $x$  to  $(x + \Delta x)$ . You can also write this as  $dy$ .

- Finding differentials numerically is literally just as easy as differentiating a function and multiplying both sides by  **$dx$**  to get an isolated  **$dy$**  on the left hand side of the equation.

## Examples:

**Q:** Write the differential of  $f(s) = s^2 - \sec(s)$ .

**A:**  $dy/ds = f'(s) = 2s - \sec(s)\tan(s)$

So, differential  $dy = (2s - \sec(s)\tan(s)) * ds$

**Q:** Compute  $dy$  and  $\Delta y$  for  $y = e^{x^2}$  as  $x$  changes from 3 to 3.01.

**A:** First, actual change  $\Delta y = e^{3.01^2} - e^{3^2} = 501.927$

Now,  $dy = 2xe^{x^2} * dx$

$\Delta x = 3.01 - 3 = 0.01 \approx dx$

Then,  $dy = 2(3)e^{3^2} * (0.01) = 486.185$



# Related Rates

## Important Topic!

We can take relevant information out of word problems, and use quantity<sub>1</sub>, quantity<sub>2</sub>, with rate of change<sub>1</sub> to find rate of change<sub>2</sub>.

### **Steps:**

1. Draw a diagram and label it with all given values (with units!)
2. Find the variable whos rate of change we need
3. Write the formula for that variable using the given quantities
4. Differentiate both sides of the formula with respect to time (to get rate of change function)
5. Plug in all known values
6. Isolate the required rate of change
7. Et voila!

## Related Rates - Examples

**Q:** The length of a rectangle is increasing at a rate of 8cm/s and its width is increasing at a rate of 3cm/s. When the length is 20cm and the width is 10cm, how fast is the area increasing?

**A:**



$$\frac{dl}{dt} = 8 \quad \frac{dw}{dt} = 3$$

$$A = lw \Rightarrow \frac{dA}{dt} = \frac{dl}{dt} \cdot w + l \cdot \frac{dw}{dt}$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{dA}{dt} = 8 \cdot 10 + 20 \cdot 3$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{dA}{dt} = 80 + 60 = \boxed{140 \text{ cm}^2/\text{s}}$$

**Q:** Suppose that we have two resistors connected in parallel with resistances  $R_1$  and  $R_2$  measured in ohms ( $\Omega$ ). The total resistance,  $R$ , is then given by  $1/R = 1/R_1 + 1/R_2$ . Suppose that  $R_1$  is increasing at a rate of  $0.4 \Omega/\text{min}$  and  $R_2$  is decreasing at a rate of  $0.7 \Omega/\text{min}$ . At what rate is  $R$  changing when  $R_1 = 80 \Omega$  and  $R_2 = 105 \Omega$ ?

**A:**

First, let's note that we're looking for  $R'$  and that we know  $R'_1 = 0.4$  and  $R'_2 = -0.7$ . Be careful with the signs here.

Also, since we'll eventually need it let's determine  $R$  at the time we're interested in.

$$\frac{1}{R} = \frac{1}{80} + \frac{1}{105} = \frac{37}{1680} \quad \Rightarrow \quad R = \frac{1680}{37} = 45.4054 \Omega$$

Next, we need to differentiate the equation given in the problem statement.

$$-\frac{1}{R^2} R' = -\frac{1}{(R_1)^2} R'_1 - \frac{1}{(R_2)^2} R'_2$$

$$R' = R^2 \left( \frac{1}{(R_1)^2} R'_1 + \frac{1}{(R_2)^2} R'_2 \right)$$

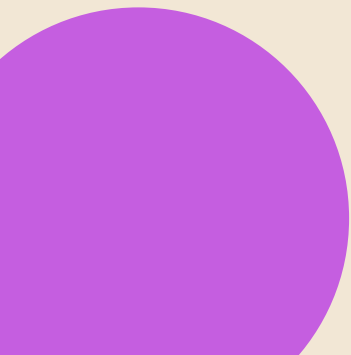
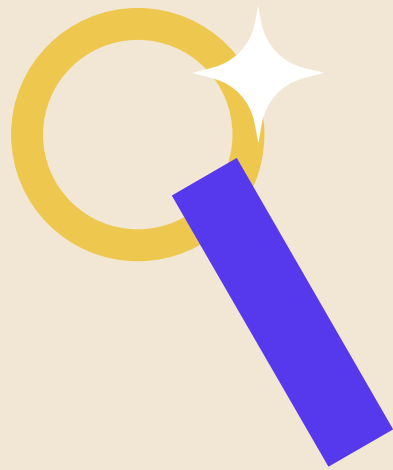
Finally, all we need to do is plug into this and do some quick computations.

$$R' = (45.4054)^2 \left( \frac{1}{80^2} (0.4) + \frac{1}{105^2} (-0.7) \right)$$

So, it looks like  $R$  is decreasing at a rate of  $0.002045 \Omega/\text{min}$ .

# Week 9

Local/global extrema, Fermat's theorem,  
Intervals increase/decrease, First Derivative Test



# Local/Global Extremes

What is a local extreme?  
How is it different from a global extreme?

Is there anything a local extreme needs that a global extreme doesn't?

Is it possible to have a global extreme but no local extremes?

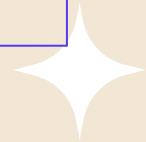
Here are some key questions you can use to double check your understanding!



Try writing a definition that makes sense to you! Then we'll show you and explain ours.



## Fermat's Theorem



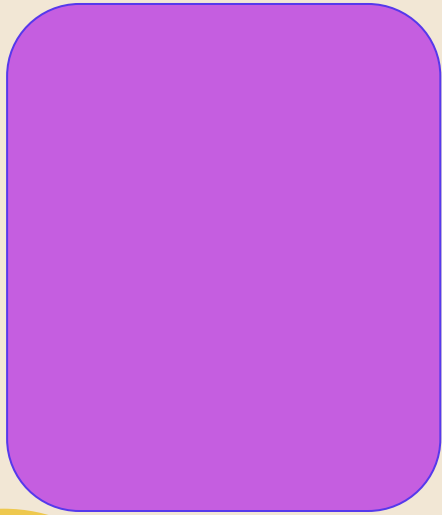
# First Derivative Test

Build yourself a list of steps or a checklist for how to approach the first derivative test!

1. Find  $f'(x)$
2. Find your critical values (  $f'(x) = 0$  )
3. Draw number line with critical points
4. Interval Test to find intervals of increase/decrease

# Examples!

Q: Find the intervals of  
increase/decrease of  $f(x) = x^3 - 12x + 5$



# Week 10



Intervals of concavity, inflection points, second  
derivative test, curve sketching

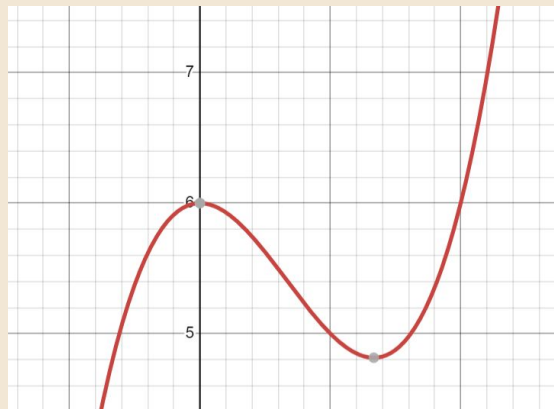
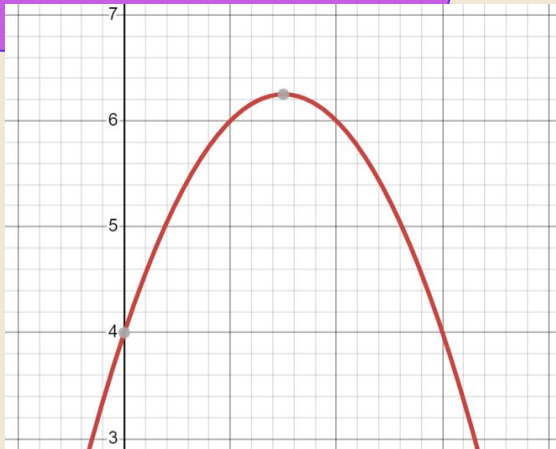




# Critical Points vs Inflection points

## Critical Points

These are for FIRST derivative test only. They show you where the graph changes from increasing/decreasing and vice versa



## Inflection Points

Only for SECOND derivative tests. Shows you where concavity changes.

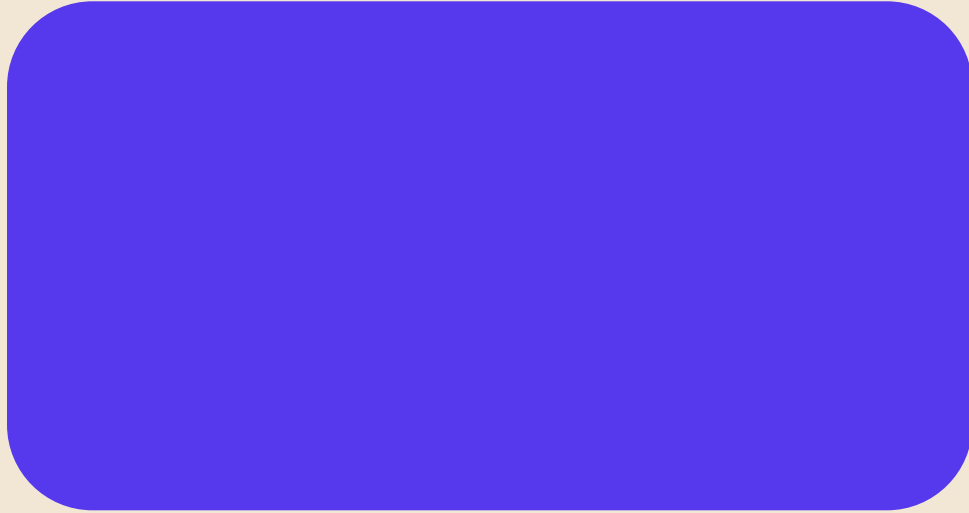
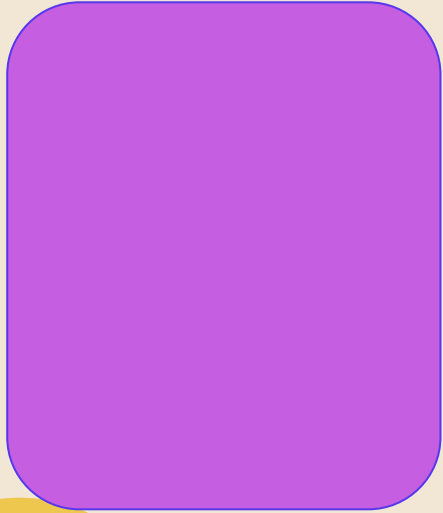
# Second Derivative Test

Build another checklist that works for you!

1. Find  $f''(x)$
2. Find your points of inflection (  $f''(x) = 0$  )
3. Draw number line with inflection points
4. Interval Test to find intervals of concave up/down

# Examples!

Q: Find the intervals of concavity of  
 $f(x) = x^3 - 12x + 5$



# Curve Sketching — Putting it all together

## 1. Check for intercepts

For both  $x$  and  $y$ , then label them on the graph

## 2. Find asymptotes

Make sure you know the difference between finding horizontal and vertical asymptotes!

## 3. First Derivative Test

Use the checklist you made earlier! Mark your critical points



## 4. Second Derivative Test

Again, use your checklist and label your inflection points

## 5. Draw your graph!

yay connect the dots



# Examples!

Q: sketch the graph of  $f(x) = \frac{x^2}{1+x^2}$

1. find intercepts

$$f(x) = \frac{x^2}{1+x^2} = 0$$

$$x^2 = 0$$

$$x = 0$$

x-int at  $x=0$

$$f(0) = \frac{0^2}{1+0^2} = \frac{0}{1} = 0$$

y-int and x-int at  $(0,0)$

# Examples!

2. Find asymptotes

$$f(x) = \frac{x^2}{1+x^2}$$

can  $1+x^2 = 0$ ?

No, so no V.A.'s

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

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

$\therefore$  H.A. @ 1

# Examples!

## 3. 1st Derivative Test

$$f(x) = \frac{x^2}{1+x^2}$$

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

$$= \frac{2x + 2x^3 - 2x^3}{(1+x^2)^2}$$

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

$$\frac{2x}{(1+x^2)^2} = 0$$

$$2x = 0$$

$$x = 0$$



# Examples!

4. 2<sup>nd</sup> Derivative Test

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

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

$$= \frac{(1+x^2)(2) - 8x^2}{(1+x^2)^3} = \frac{2+2x^2-8x^2}{(1+x^2)^3}$$

$$= \frac{2-6x^2}{(1+x^2)^3}$$

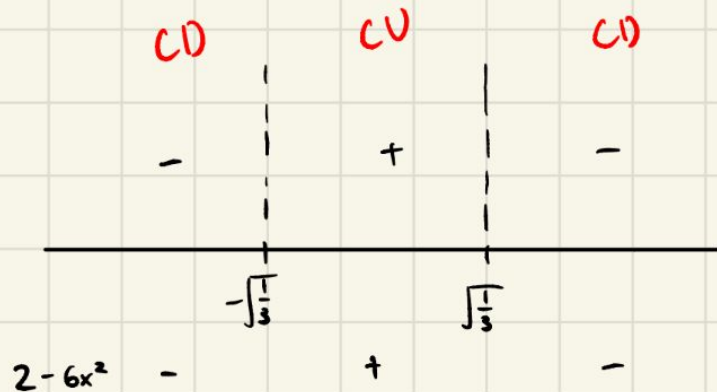
$$\frac{2-6x^2}{(1+x^2)^3} = 0$$

$$2-6x^2 = 0$$

$$6x^2 = 2$$

$$x^2 = \frac{2}{6} = \frac{1}{3}$$

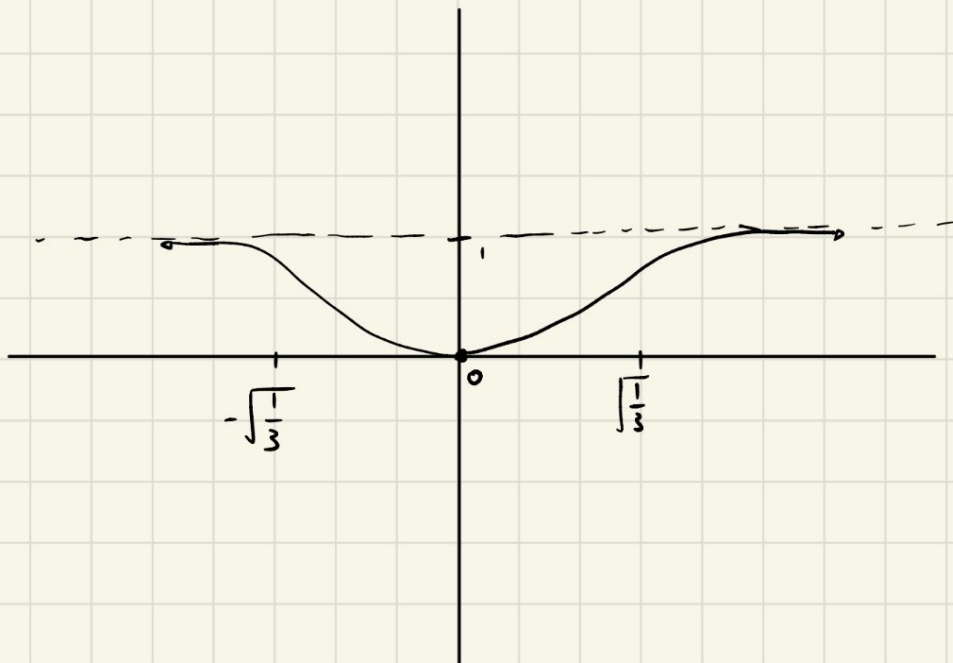
$$x = \pm \sqrt{\frac{1}{3}}$$





# Examples!

5. connect the dots!



# Week 11



Closed interval method, extreme value theorem,  
optimization



Basically, you want to find all the critical values between a closed interval  $[a, b]$

Then you plug in your crit. values and interval endpoints into the original function

You wanna find global max/min so just pick your smallest and biggest values!

## Closed Interval Method

# Examples

Find the absolute max/min values of  $f(x) = (x^2 - 3)(e^x)$  on  $[-2, 2]$

$$\begin{aligned}f(x) &= (x^2 - 3)(e^x) \\f'(x) &= (x^2 - 3)(e^x) + (e^x)(2x) \\&= x^2e^x - 3e^x + 2xe^x \\&= e^x(x^2 + 2x - 3) \\&= e^x(x + 3)(x - 1) = 0 \\x &= -3, 1\end{aligned}$$


$$\begin{aligned}f(-3) &= (9 - 3)(e^3) = 6e^3 \\f(1) &= (1 - 3)(e^1) = -2e \\f(-2) &= (4 - 3)(e^{-2}) = 1/e^2 \\f(2) &= (4 - 3)(e^2) = e^2\end{aligned}$$

$6e^3$  is our biggest, and  $-2e$  is our smallest, so...



Absolute max at  $(-3, 6e^3)$   
Absolute min at  $(1, -2e)$



# Extreme Value Theorem



If " $f$ " is continuous on a closed interval, then it HAS to have an absolute max/min in that interval at either the crit. points or at the interval endpoints.



# Optimization Tips!

Optimization  
basically has 3 main  
steps:

## 1. List given values and DRAW

Typically given just one  
number. Make sure to draw a  
diagram!

## 2. Build your equations

You usually end up with 2  
equations. One of them ends  
up differentiated. The other is  
used to sub in values for the  
first equation.

## 3. Solve your equations/closed interval test

Depending if the question  
wants max/min, look for the  
biggest/smallest y-value like  
in closed interval.

# Examples

Q: A farmer wants to enclose a rectangular field against a straight river bank. They have a total of 500m of fencing. What are the dimensions of the biggest possible enclosure?

The diagram shows a rectangular field with its left side adjacent to a river bank, represented by blue wavy lines. The top and bottom horizontal sides are each marked with a tick and labeled  $x$ . The right vertical side is marked with a tick and labeled  $y$ . Above the rectangle, the text  $P = 500m$  indicates the total perimeter of the field.

let length =  $y$   
let width =  $x$

$$A = xy$$
$$A(x) = x(500 - 2x)$$
$$= 500x - 2x^2$$
$$P = 2x + y$$
$$500 = 2x + y$$
$$y = 500 - 2x$$

A blue arrow points from the expression  $500 - 2x$  in the equation  $y = 500 - 2x$  to the term  $(500 - 2x)$  in the area function  $A(x) = x(500 - 2x)$ .

# Examples

$$A(x) = 500x - 2x^2$$

$$A'(x) = 500 - 4x = 0$$

$$4x = 500$$

$$x = \frac{500}{4}$$

$$x = 125$$

$$y = 500 - 2x$$

$$= 500 - 2(125)$$

$$= 500 - 250$$

$$y = 250$$



# Examples

$$A(0) = 500(0) - 2(0)^2 = 0$$

$$A(125) = 250$$

$$A(250) = 500(250) - 2(250)^2 = 0$$

$A(125)$  gives biggest value of 250,

so maximum dimensions are length 250  
and width 125.

# Week 12



Rolle's Theorem, Mean Value Theorem



# Rolle's Theorem

Rolle's theorem  
has 3  
conditions:

As long as these conditions are satisfied, Rolle's theorem says that there will be a value "c" where  $f'(c) = 0$

1.  $f(x)$  must be  
continuous on  $[a, b]$

2.  $f(x)$  must be  
differentiable on  $(a, b)$

3.  $f(a) = f(b)$

# Examples

Find all values of “c” that satisfy Rolle’s theorem for  $f(x) = x^2 - 5x + 3$  on  $[0, 5]$

1.  $f(x)$  is a polynomial,  
so continuous  
everywhere

$$\begin{aligned}f(0) &= 0 - 5(0) + 3 = 3 \\f(5) &= 25 - 25 + 3 = 3 \\f(0) &= f(5)\end{aligned}$$

To find values of “c”, we need to find the crit. values of  $f(x)$ .

2.  $f(x)$  is differentiable  
on  $(0, 5)$

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

$$f'(x) = 2x - 5 = 0$$

3.  $f(0) = f(5)$

$$2x = 5$$

$$x = 5/2$$

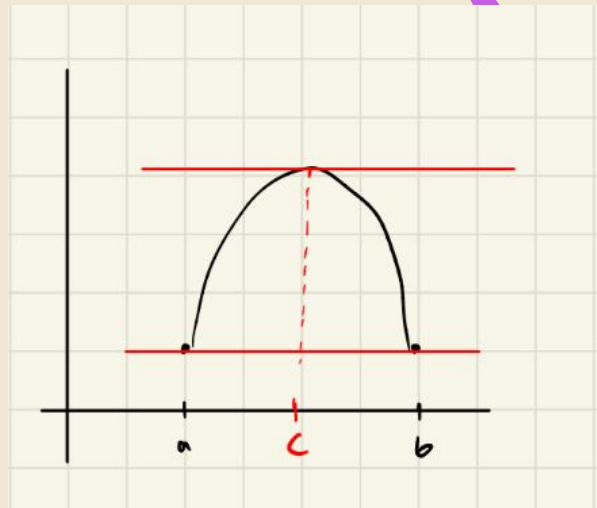
Here,  $5/2$  is the only crit. value and is within  $[0, 5]$ , so here  $c = 5/2$

MVT has almost the same conditions as Rolle's theorem except for the third one:

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

In MVT, you draw a line between the two ends of the function and then draw a tangent line that's parallel to it

The point where the tangent line = 0 is where "c" is gonna be



## Mean Value Theorem

# Examples!

Find all values of “c” that satisfy MVT for  $f(x) = x^2 - 4x + 1$  on  $[1, 5]$

- |   |  |
|---|--|
| 1. $f(x)$ is a polynomial, so continuous everywhere | 3. $f(x) = x^2 - 4x + 1$<br>$f'(x) = 2x - 4 = f(5) - f(1)/5 - 1$<br>$2x - 4 = (6 + 2)/4$<br>$2x - 4 = 8/4$ |
| 2. $f(x)$ is differentiable on $(1, 5)$             | $2x - 4 = 2$<br>$2x = 6$<br>$x = 3$  |

Here,  $x = 3$  is well within the interval of  $[1, 5]$  and all the conditions for MVT are satisfied, so  $c = 3$



**All The Best!**

