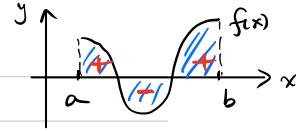


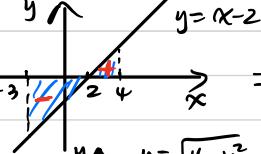
Review : Calculation of definite integral .

$\int_a^b f(x) dx$ geometric meaning sum of the signed areas between the graph of f and x -axis over $[a, b]$
= (sum of areas above the x -axis) - (sum of areas below the x -axis)



We have introduced 4 ways to calculate $\int_a^b f(x) dx$:

① We can directly calculate $\int_a^b f(x) dx$ if the area is Δ , \square or \bigcirc

Example : $\int_{-3}^4 (x-2) dx =$  = area of Δ^2 - area of \triangle^5 $= \frac{1}{2} \cdot 2 \cdot 2 - \frac{1}{2} \cdot 5 \cdot 5 = -\frac{21}{2}$.

Example : $\int_{-2}^2 \sqrt{4-x^2} dx =$  = area of \bigcirc^2 $= \frac{1}{2} \cdot (\pi \cdot 2^2) = 2\pi$.

② use the symmetry of $f(x)$:

If $f(x)$ is an odd function on $[-a, a]$, then $\int_{-a}^a f(x) dx = 0$ Example : $\int_{-2}^2 x^2 \sin x dx$ ^{odd function} $= 0$

If $f(x) = g(x) + h(x)$ and $g(x)$ is odd on $[-a, a]$, then $\int_{-a}^a f(x) dx = \int_{-a}^a g(x) dx + \int_{-a}^a h(x) dx = \int_{-a}^a h(x) dx$

Example : $\int_{-2}^2 (\sqrt{4-x^2} + x^2 \sin x) dx$ ^{odd function} $= \int_{-2}^2 \sqrt{4-x^2} dx = 2\pi$.

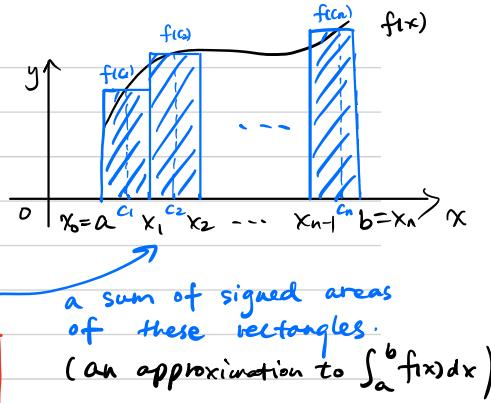
③ use the Riemann sum

step 1: Divide $[a, b]$ into n subintervals evenly:
 $[x_0, x_1], [x_1, x_2], \dots, [x_{n-1}, x_n]$

Step 2: Choose $c_1 \in [x_0, x_1], \dots, c_n \in [x_{n-1}, x_n]$.

\Rightarrow Riemann sum $\frac{b-a}{n} [f(c_1) + \dots + f(c_n)]$

Step 3: $\boxed{\lim_{n \rightarrow +\infty} \frac{b-a}{n} [f(c_1) + \dots + f(c_n)] = \int_a^b f(x) dx}$



④ use Fundamental Theorem of Calculus (FTC)

If $F(x)$ is an antiderivative of $f(x)$. then

$$\boxed{\int_a^b f(x) dx = F(b) - F(a)}$$

Step 1: Find $F(x)$. (Find $\int f(x) dx$)

We can use the Substitution Rule:
 $\int f(g(x)) g'(x) dx \stackrel{u=g(x)}{\uparrow} = \int f(u) du$.

Step 2: Calculate $F(b) - F(a)$

Two applications of definite integral

① define some new functions by using definite integral

Examples: $G(x) = \int_0^{x^4} e^{t^2} dt$ $G(x) = \int_{\sqrt{x}}^{3x+1} \ln(t^2+1) dt$ In general: $G(x) = \int_{h(x)}^{f(x)} g(t) dt$.

The derivatives of these functions are easy to find:

Example: $G(x) = \int_0^{x^4} e^{t^2} dt$ $F(x)$ is an antiderivative of e^{x^2} .

key idea consider $G(x)$ as a composite function of $F(x)$ and x^4 : $G(x) = F(x^4) - F(0)$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{d}{dx} G(x) = \frac{d}{dx} F(x^4) - \underbrace{\frac{d}{dx} F(0)}_{=0 \text{ (because } F(0) \text{ is a constant)}} = \frac{d}{dx} F(x^4) \stackrel{\substack{\text{chain} \\ \text{rule}}}{=} \frac{d}{du} F(u) \cdot \frac{du}{dx} = e^{u^2} \cdot 4x^3 = e^{x^8} \cdot 4x^3$$

② calculate the limit of a sum of real numbers. a sum of $2n$ real numbers.

Example: $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{k=1}^{2n} \frac{1}{n+k} = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left(\frac{1}{n+1} + \frac{1}{n+2} + \dots + \frac{1}{n+2n} \right) = \ln 3$

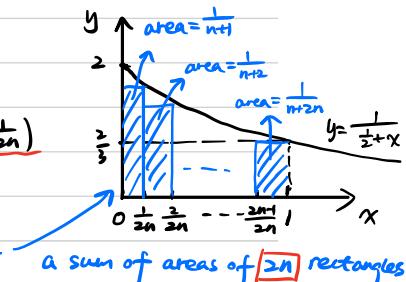
key idea consider $\frac{1}{n+1} + \frac{1}{n+2} + \dots + \frac{1}{n+2n}$ as a Riemann sum

Let's take $[a, b] = [0, 1]$ and divide $[0, 1]$ into $2n$ subintervals evenly (width = $\frac{1}{2n}$)

Let each $C_k = \frac{k}{2n}$: $C_1 = \frac{1}{2n}, C_2 = \frac{2}{2n}, C_3 = \frac{3}{2n}, \dots, C_{2n} = \frac{2n}{2n}$. Let $f(x) = \frac{1}{x+1}$.

Then $\frac{1}{n+k} = \frac{1}{2n} \cdot \frac{1}{\frac{1}{2n} + \frac{k}{2n}} = \frac{b-a}{2n} \cdot \frac{1}{\frac{1}{2} + C_k} = \frac{b-a}{2n} f(C_k) \Rightarrow \sum_{k=1}^{2n} \frac{1}{n+k} = \sum_{k=1}^{2n} \frac{b-a}{2n} f(C_k)$

$$\Rightarrow \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{k=1}^{2n} \frac{1}{n+k} = \int_0^1 \frac{1}{x+\frac{1}{2}} dx \stackrel{\substack{\text{FTC} \\ F(x) = \ln(x+\frac{1}{2})}}{=} F(1) - F(0) = \ln(\frac{3}{2}) - \ln(\frac{1}{2}) = \ln 3.$$



Overview of Functions : $y = f(x)$ y is uniquely determined by x.

1. definition: A function $y = f(x)$ is a rule assigning a unique number y to a number x .

2. domain of f : the set of numbers where f is well-defined.

range of f : the set of numbers to which f maps.

$$\rightarrow \text{Note: } x^2 - 2x - 3 = (x-3)(x+1)$$

Example: $y = \ln(x^2 - 2x - 3)$. domain: $\underline{x^2 - 2x - 3 > 0} \Rightarrow (x-3)(x+1) > 0$
 $\Rightarrow (-\infty, -1) \cup (3, +\infty)$

3. $y = f(x)$ is a one-to-one function if $\begin{cases} y \text{ is uniquely determined by } x \\ x \text{ is also uniquely determined by } y \end{cases}$

We can define the inverse function for a one-to-one function.

$$x \xrightleftharpoons[g]{f} y \quad f(x) = y \Leftrightarrow g(y) = x.$$

domain of f = range of g , range of f = domain of g

Example: Find inverse function of $y = f(x) = \sqrt{x+1}$

Step 1: express x in terms of y

$$y = \sqrt{x+1} \Rightarrow y^2 = x+1 \Rightarrow x = y^2 - 1$$

Step 2: interchange x and y : $y = x^2 - 1$.

$\Rightarrow g(x) = x^2 - 1$ is the inverse function of $f(x) = \sqrt{x+1}$



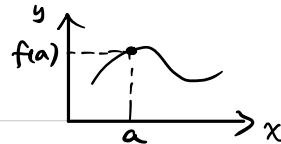
check:

$$f(1) = \sqrt{2}, \quad g(\sqrt{2}) = 1.$$

$$f(2) = \sqrt{3}, \quad g(\sqrt{3}) = 2.$$

$$f(3) = \sqrt{4}, \quad g(\sqrt{4}) = 3.$$

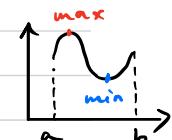
4. $y = f(x)$ is continuous at a if $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = f(a)$.



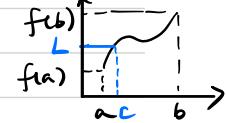
$y = f(x)$ is continuous on I if f is continuous at each $x \in I$.

Two basic facts about a continuous function $f(x)$ on $[a, b]$:

(1) The Extreme Value Theorem: $f(x)$ must attain an absolute maximum and an absolute minimum on $[a, b]$.



(2) The Intermediate Value Theorem: For any number L between $f(a)$ and $f(b)$, we can find $c \in [a, b]$ such that $f(c) = L$.



A very important application: Suppose that $f(x)$ is continuous on $[a, b]$.

If $f(a)$ and $f(b)$ have opposite signs, then $f(x) = 0$ has a root $x_0 \in [a, b]$.

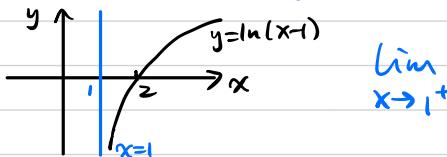
Example: Show that $f(x) = 2^x - 4x^2$ has a root x_0 between 0 and 1.

$$\begin{aligned} f(0) &= 2^0 - 0 = 1 > 0 \\ f(1) &= 2^1 - 4 = -2 < 0 \end{aligned} \quad \left\{ \Rightarrow f(x)=0 \text{ has a root } x_0 \text{ between 0 and 1.} \right.$$

5. vertical asymptotes and horizontal asymptotes of $y = f(x)$.

$x=a$ is a vertical asymptote if $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = \pm\infty$ or $\lim_{x \rightarrow a^\pm} f(x) = \pm\infty$.

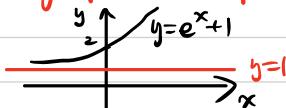
Example: $y = \ln(x-1)$



$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 1^+} \ln(x-1) = -\infty.$$

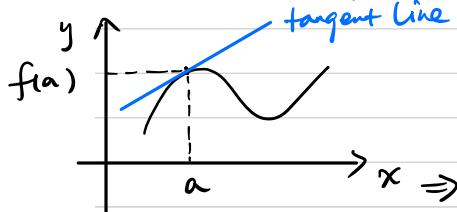
$y=L$ is a horizontal asymptote if $\lim_{x \rightarrow +\infty} f(x) = L$ or $\lim_{x \rightarrow -\infty} f(x) = L$.

Example: $y = e^x + 1$.



$$\lim_{x \rightarrow -\infty} (e^x + 1) = 1.$$

6. How to find the tangent line of f at $(a, f(a))$?



$$f'(a) = \left. \frac{dy}{dx} \right|_{x=a} = \text{slope of the tangent line at } (a, f(a))$$

The point-slope form of the tangent line at $(a, f(a))$:

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

Problem of finding the tangent line \Rightarrow Problem of finding $f'(a) = \left. \frac{dy}{dx} \right|_{x=a}$.

7. How to find the intervals where f is increasing and decreasing?

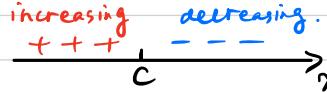
$f'(x) > 0 \Rightarrow f(x)$ is increasing

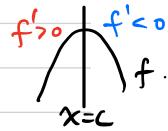
$f'(x) < 0 \Rightarrow f(x)$ is decreasing

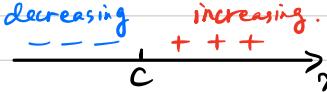
8. How to find the local maximum and local minimum of f ?

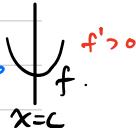
Step 1: Find all critical numbers. \rightarrow c is a critical number if $f'(c)=0$ or $f'(c)$ does not exist.

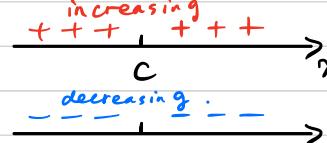
Step 2: Calculate the sign of $f'(x)$

① Sign of $f'(x)$:  $\Rightarrow f(c)$ is a local maximum.



② Sign of $f'(x)$:  $\Rightarrow f(c)$ is a local minimum.



③ Sign of $f'(x)$:  } $\Rightarrow f(c)$ is neither a local maximum nor a local minimum.

