

Calculus I.

Note Book #3.

IDEAS FLY WORKSTYLE

For work or life, always can feel free and happy through writing.



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Inverse Trig Functions.

No.

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①: inverse sine function

Restricted $\sin(x)$ has:

Domain $[-\frac{\pi}{2}, \frac{\pi}{2}]$.

Range $[-1, 1]$.

~~and~~ $\arcsin(x)$ has

Domain $[-1, 1]$

Range: $[-\frac{\pi}{2}, \frac{\pi}{2}]$.

②: Inverse Cosine Function:

Restricted $\cos(x)$ has

Domain $[0, \pi]$.

Range $[-1, 1]$.

$\arccos(x)$ has:

Domain $[-1, 1]$.

Range $[0, \pi]$.

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Inverse tangent function.

⇒ Restricted $\tan(x)$ has.

Domain $(-\frac{\pi}{2}, \frac{\pi}{2})$.

Range $(-\infty, \infty)$.

$\arctan(x)$ has.

Domain $(-\infty, \infty)$.

Range: $(-\frac{\pi}{2}, \frac{\pi}{2})$.

Derivative of Inverse Trig functions.

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Because : $y = \sin^{-1}(x)$ means y is the angle whose sine is x .

Then ~~$x = \sin(y)$~~ is roughly the same.
all we need to do is restrict the range.

$$\text{So : } \frac{d}{dx} \sin^{-1}(x).$$

$$x = \sin(y).$$

$$\frac{d}{dx} x = \frac{d}{dx} \sin(y),$$

$$1 = \cos(y) \cdot \frac{d}{dx} x.$$

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{1}{\cos(y)}.$$

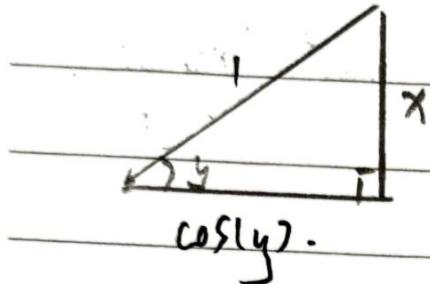
$$\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{1}{\cos(\sin^{-1}(x))}.$$

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Method ②:

If we look at a right triangle.



$$\sin y = x.$$

$$\cos(y).$$

use pythagorean theorem: $\sqrt{1-x^2} = \cos(y)$.

if we substitute $\cos(y) = \sqrt{1-x^2}$

to the result from method ①:

we get: $\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{1}{\cos(y)}$ (recall).

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

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

for $\cos^{-1}(x)$:

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

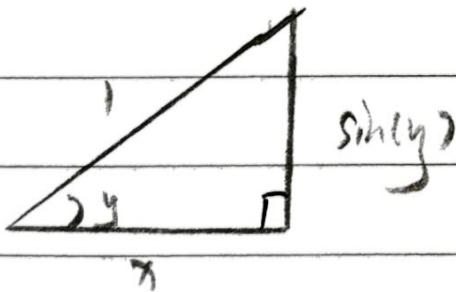
$$\cos(y) = x.$$

$$\frac{d}{dx} \cos y = \frac{d}{dx} x$$

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

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

from right triangle and pythagorean theorem:



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

substitute in: $\frac{dy}{dx} = -\frac{1}{\sin(y)}$ (recall).

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

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

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For $\tan^{-1}(x)$:

$$y = \tan^{-1}(x).$$

$$x = \frac{\sin y}{\cos y}.$$

$$\frac{dx}{dy} = \frac{1}{\cos^2(y)} \cdot \left(\cos(y) \cdot \frac{d}{dy}(\sin(y)) - \sin(y) \cdot \frac{d}{dy}(\cos(y)) \right).$$

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

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

$$= \frac{dy}{dx} \cdot \left(1 + \tan^2(y) \right),$$

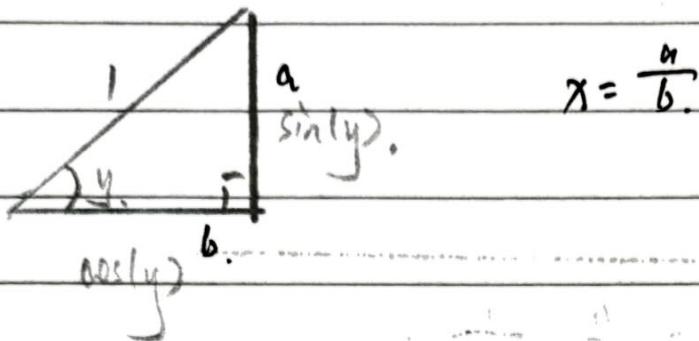
$$\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{1}{1 + \tan^2(y)}.$$

use pythagorean identities:

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{1}{\sec^2(y)}.$$

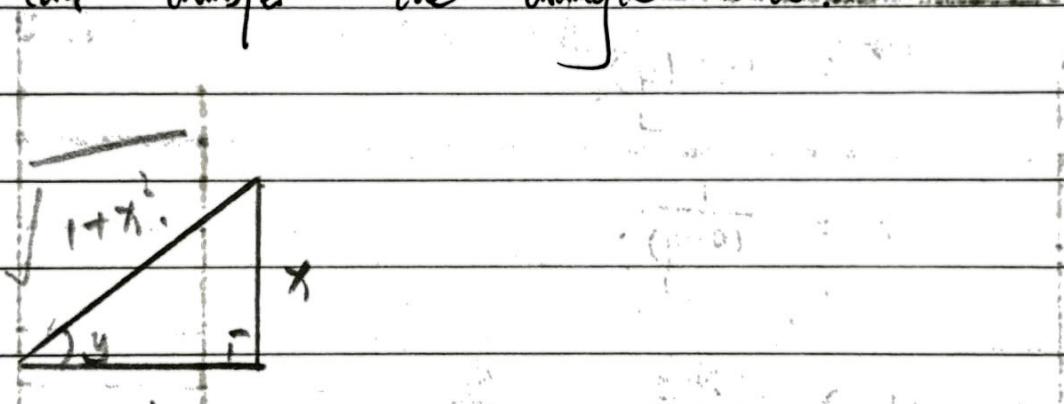
$$= \frac{1}{\cos^2(y)}.$$

from right triangle :



$$x = \frac{a}{b}$$

we can transfer the triangle into



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

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

substitute in :

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

$$\frac{d}{dx} \tan^{-1}(x) = \frac{1}{1+x^2}$$

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Using the reciprocal rule:

we can know the expression for \sec^{-1} , \csc^{-1} and \cot^{-1} .

$$\text{Q: } \frac{d}{dx} \sec^{-1}(x).$$

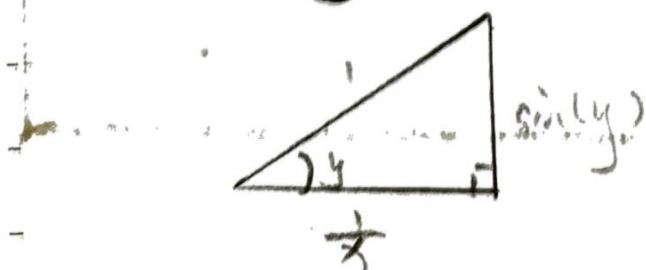
$$y = \sec^{-1}(x).$$

$$x = \sec(y).$$

$$\frac{1}{\cos(y)} = x.$$

$$\cos(y) = \frac{1}{x}.$$

$$\cos(y) = \frac{1}{x}.$$



$$\text{because } \cos^2 \theta + \sin^2 \theta = 1$$

$$\therefore \sin^2(y) = 1 - \cos^2(y).$$

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

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

negative is not considered

$$y = \sec^{-1}(x).$$

$$x = \sec(y).$$

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{\cos^2(y)}{\sin(y)}.$$

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = \left(\frac{1}{x}\right)^2 \div \sqrt{1 - \frac{1}{x^2}}$$

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

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

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

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

Q: $\frac{d}{dx} \csc^{-1}(x)$.

$$y = \csc^{-1}(x). \quad \text{because } \cos^2 \theta + \sin^2 \theta = 1$$

$$\therefore \cos^2(y) = 1 - \sin^2 y$$

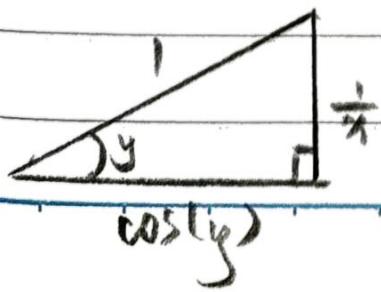
$$x = \csc(y).$$

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

$$\frac{1}{\sin(y)} = x.$$

$$x \sin(y) = 1$$

$$\sin(y) = \frac{1}{x}.$$



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

negative result is not considered.

$$\begin{cases} \sin(y) = \frac{1}{x} \\ \cos(y) = \sqrt{1 - \frac{1}{x^2}} \end{cases}$$

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$$y = \csc^{-1}(x).$$

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{d}{dx} \frac{1}{\sin(y)} \cdot \frac{dy}{dx}.$$

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

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

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

③: $\cot^{-1}(x)$.

$$\frac{d}{dx} \cot^{-1}(x) = -\tan^{-1}(x)$$

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

As conclusion :

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

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

$$\frac{d}{dx} \sec^{-1}(x) = \frac{1}{|x|\sqrt{x^2-1}}$$

$$\frac{d}{dx} \csc^{-1}(x) = -\frac{d}{dx} \sec^{-1}(x) = -\frac{1}{|x|\sqrt{x^2-1}}$$

$$\frac{d}{dx} \tan^{-1}(x) = \frac{1}{1+x^2}$$

$$\frac{d}{dx} \cot^{-1}(x) = -\frac{d}{dx} \tan^{-1}(x) = -\frac{1}{1+x^2}$$

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E.g. Find the derivative for $y = \tan^{-1} \left(\frac{a+x}{a-x} \right)$.

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = 1 \div \left[1 + \left(\frac{a+x}{a-x} \right)^2 \right] \cdot \frac{a-x+a+x}{(a-x)^2}$$

$$= 1 \div \left[1 + \left(\frac{a+x}{a-x} \right)^2 \right] \cdot \frac{2a}{(a-x)^2}$$

$$= \frac{2a}{1 + \frac{(a+x)^2}{(a-x)^2} \cdot \tan^2 x}$$

$$= \frac{2a}{a^2 - 2ax + x^2 + 2ax + a^2}$$

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

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

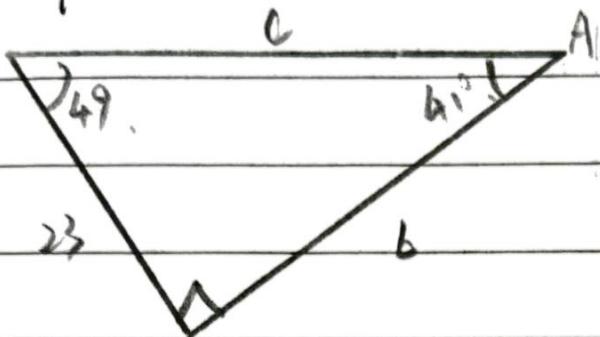
Solving Right triangles.

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Solve for $\angle A$, b , c .



$$\tan(49^\circ) = \frac{b}{23}$$

$$b = 23 \cdot \tan 49^\circ,$$

$$b = 26.45847.$$

$$\cos(41) \cdot c = b.$$

$$\angle A + 49 + 90^\circ = 180^\circ$$

$$\angle A = 41^\circ.$$

$$\cos(41) = \frac{b}{c}.$$

$$c = \frac{(\tan 49) \cdot 23}{\cos(41)}.$$

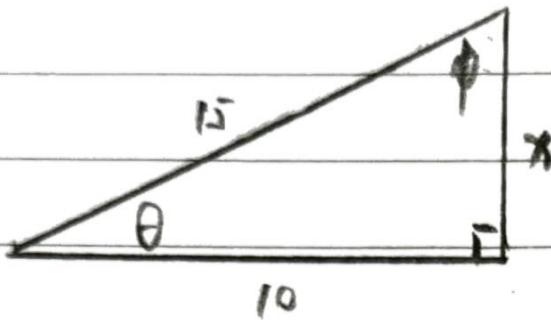
$$c = 35.05782.$$

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E.g.



$$\cos \theta \cdot 15 = 10.$$

$$\cos \theta = \frac{2}{3}$$

$$\theta = 48.1896851$$

$$\phi + \theta + 90^\circ = 180.$$

$$\phi = 90^\circ - \theta$$

$$\phi = 90^\circ - \cos^{-1}\left(\frac{2}{3}\right),$$

$$\phi = 41.810315^\circ.$$

$$\sin \theta \cdot 15 = x.$$

$$x = 15 \cdot \sin \cos^{-1}\left(\frac{2}{3}\right).$$

$$x = 11.1803399.$$

Maximum and Minimum Values

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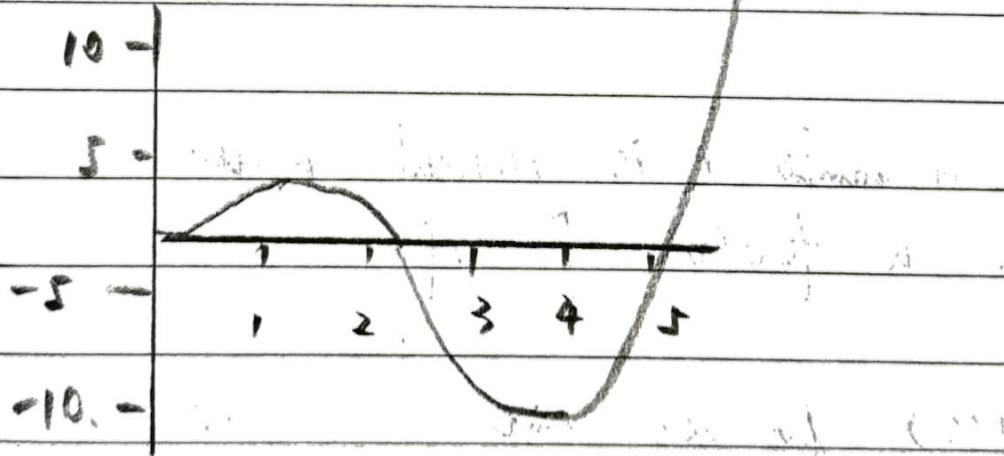
definition: A function $f(x)$ has an absolute maximum at $x=c$ if $f(c) \geq f(x)$ for all x in the domain of f .

and vice versa.

The point $(c, f(c))$ is called an absolute maximum
 $f(c)$ is called the absolute maximum value.

and vice versa...

E.g.



This graph has a abs. min minimum value of -8

it has a abs. min at $(3, 5, f(2.2))$.

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Definition: Absolute Max and Min can also be called global max, global min.

Definition: A function $f(x)$ has a local maximum at $x=c$ if $f(c) \geq f(x)$ for all points near c .
and vice versa.

For a function $f(x)$ to have a min or max at $x=a$ only if $f(a)$ is defined.

Definition: A number c is critical number for a function f , if

$f(c)$ does not exist or
 $f'(c) = 0$.

Note if f has a local max or min at c , then c must be a critical number

But! A critical number may not be a local min or max. (e.g. x^3)

First Derivative and Second Derivative test.

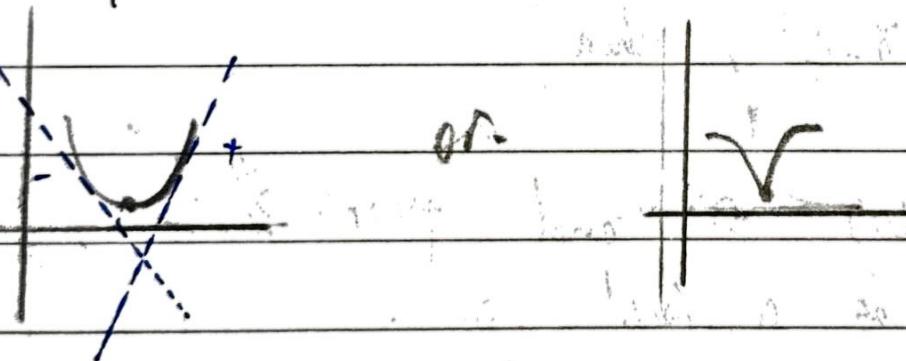
Recall:

$f(x)$ has a local max at $x=c$ if $f(c) \geq f(x)$ near c .

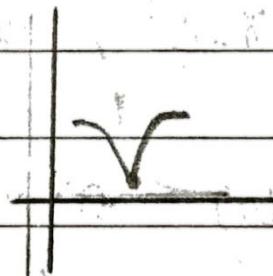
first Derivative test:

if f is a continuous function near $x=c$ and c is a critical number then.

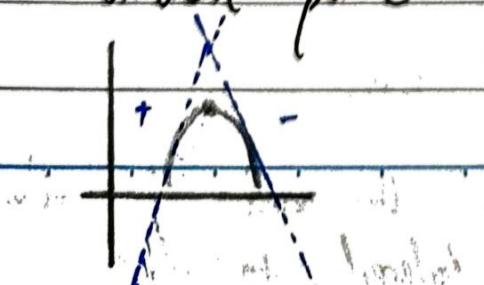
if $f'(x)$ for $x < c$ is negative or $f'(x)$ for $x > c$ is positive, the critical point is a local min.



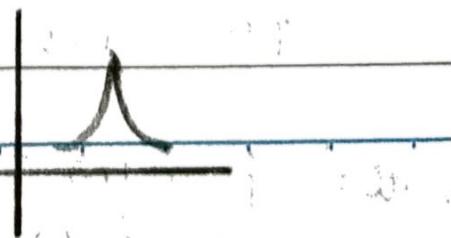
or.



if $f'(x)$ for $x < c$ is positive and $f'(x)$ for $x > c$ is negative, the critical point is a local max.



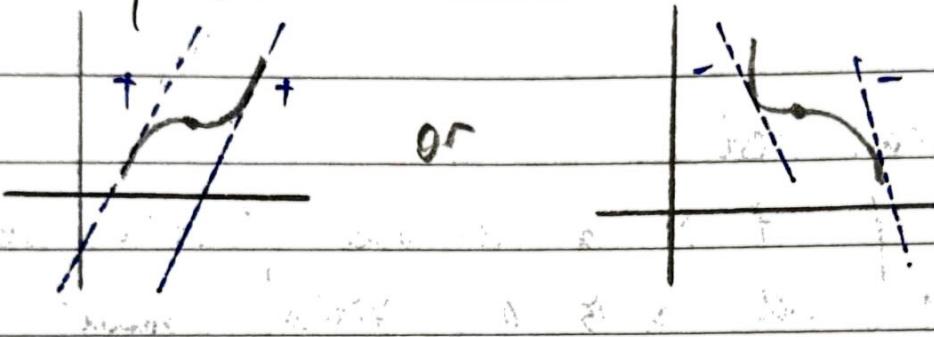
or.



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if $f'(x) > 0$ for $x > c$ and $f'(x) < 0$ for $x < c$
is both pos. or neg., then the
critical point is not a local min or max.



Second derivative test:

if f is a continuous function near $x=c$, then

if $f'(c) = 0$ and $f''(c) > 0$, then
 $f(c)$ is a local min.

if $f'(c) = 0$, and $f''(c) < 0$, then

$f(c)$ is a local max

Note: if $f''(c) = 0$, the the result of the second derivative is inconclusive.

Extreme Value example.

E.g. Find the absolute maximum and minimum values for $g(x) = \frac{x+1}{x^2+x+2}$ on interval $[0, 4]$.

$$g'(x) = \frac{1}{(x^2+x+2)^2} \cdot [(x^2+x+2) \cdot 1 - (x-1) \cdot (2x+1+0)].$$

$$g'(x) = \frac{1}{(x^2+x+2)^2} \cdot [(x^2+x+2) - (2x^2-x-1)].$$

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

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

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

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} x=3 \\ x=-1 \end{array} \right. \text{ (not in the interval.)}$$

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critical points: $x=3$, $x=1$.

for $g'(x) \mid_{x=3}$.

$$g'(x) \mid_{x=2.9} = -2.2014 \times 10^{-3}$$

< 0 .

$$g'(x) \mid_{x=3.1} = 1.894 \times 10^{-3}$$

> 0 .

so: $x=3$ is a local min.

E.g. $f(x) = |x| - x^2$.

$$f'(x) = (\sqrt{x^2})' - (x^2)'$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} \cdot x^{-1} \cdot 2x - 2x$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{2}{x} - 2x$$

$$= 1 - 2x$$

$$1 - 2x = 0$$

$$2x = 1$$

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

$$f'(x) \Big|_{x=\frac{1}{2}+0.1} = -\frac{1}{5}$$

<0

$$f'(x) \Big|_{x=\frac{1}{2}-0.1} = \frac{1}{5}$$

so $f(\frac{1}{2})$ is a local max.

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The Mean Value Theorem.

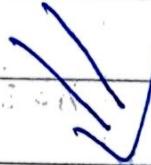
The Mean Value Theorem:

let $f(x)$ be a function defined on $[a, b]$
such that

- ①. $f(x)$ is continuous on $[a, b]$.
- ②. $f(x)$ is differentiable on (a, b) .

then there must be a number c in $[a, b]$
such that

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



the derivative of

f at c .

the average rate

of change of f

on $[a, b]$.

In other words:

for a function $f(x)$, assuming there is a secant line intersecting the graph, at point $(a, f(a)), (b, f(b))$. Then there must be a tangent line at $(c, f(c))$ (where c is a value on $[a, b]$) that has the same slope with the secant line.

E.g. Verify the mean value theorem for $f(x) = 2x^3 - 8x + 1$ on interval $[1, 3]$.

To Verify:

Find c in $[1, 3]$ such that

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

$$\begin{aligned} f'(x) &= 6x^2 - 8 + 0. \\ &= 6x^2 - 8. \end{aligned}$$

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solve equation:

$$\therefore 6x^2 - 8 = \frac{f(3) - f(1)}{3 - 1}$$

$$6x^2 - 8 = 18$$

$$6x^2 = 24$$

$$x^2 = 4$$

$$x = \pm 2. \quad (\text{negative } 2 \text{ not on } [1, 3])$$

$$x = 2.$$

E.g. If f is a differentiable function and $f(1) = 7$ and $-3 \leq f'(x) \leq -2$ on ~~[1, 6]~~ $[1, 6]$

What is the biggest and smallest values that are possible for $f(6)$.

smallest:

$$-3 = \frac{f(6) - f(1)}{6 - 1}$$

$$-3 = \frac{f(6) - 7}{5}$$

$$f(6) = -15 + 7$$

$$f(6) = -8$$

biggest:

$$-2 = \frac{f(b) - f(a)}{b-a}$$

$$-2 = \frac{f(b) - 7}{5}$$

$$f(b) = -10 + 7$$

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

Ans : $-8 \leq f(b) \leq -3.$

Rolle's Theorem: If $f(x)$ is a function defined on $[a, b]$ and

①: $f(x)$ is continuous on $[a, b]$.

②: $f(x)$ is differentiable on (a, b) .

③. $f(a) = f(b).$

then there is a number c in (a, b) .
such that

$$f'(c) = 0.$$

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Derivatives and the Shape of a Graph Concepts.

The function $f(x)$ is increasing if:

$$f(x_1) < f(x_2) \text{ whenever } x_1 < x_2.$$

The function $f(x)$ is decreasing if:

$$f(x_1) > f(x_2) \text{ whenever } x_1 < x_2.$$

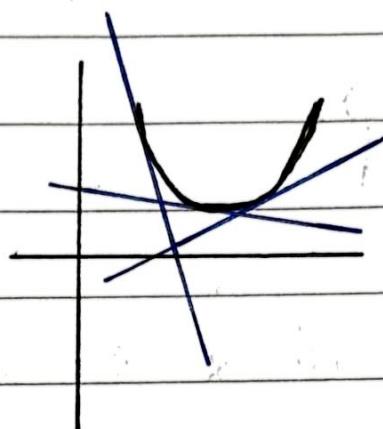
Increasing / Decreasing test:

If $f'(x) > 0$ for all x on an interval, then
 f is a increasing function.

If $f'(x) < 0$ for all x on the interval,
then f is a decreasing function.

$f(x)$ is concave up on an interval (a, b) if the tangent lines lie below the graph of the function.

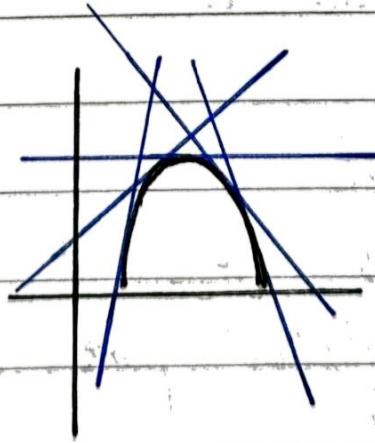
E.g.



the tangent line are below the graph draw in black.

$f(x)$ is concave down on an interval (a, b) if the tangent line lie above the graph of the function.

E.g.



the tangent line are above the graph.

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The concavity test:

If $f''(x) > 0$ for all x in an interval, then

f is concave up.

If $f''(x) < 0$ for all x in an interval, then

f is concave down.

$f(x)$ has an inflection point at $x=c$ if:

$f(x)$ is continuous at c and it changes its concavity at c .

Inflection point test:

If $f''(x)$ changes sign at $x=c$, then f has an inflection point at $x=c$.

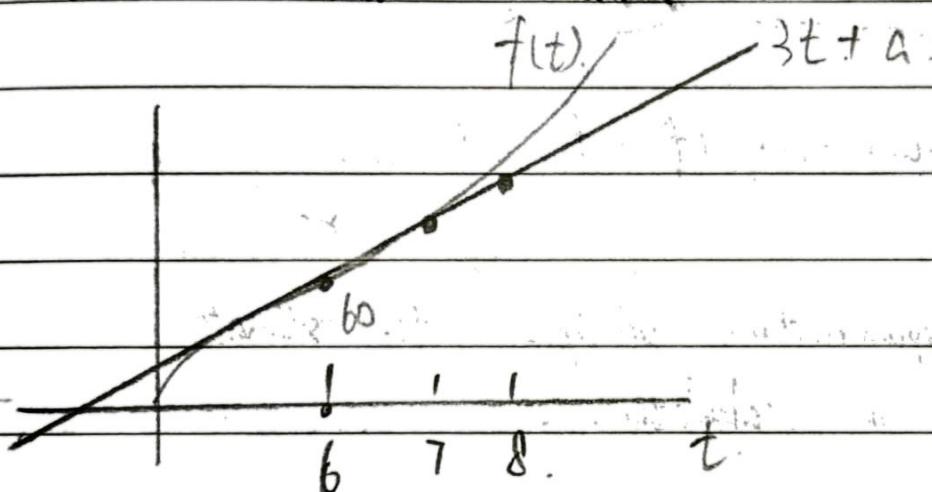
Linear Approximation.

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e.g. Suppose $f(t)$ is the temperature in degrees Fahrenheit at time t (measured in hours), where $t = 0$ represents midnight. Suppose that $f(6) = 60^\circ$ and $f'(6) = \cancel{h} = 3^\circ/\text{hr}$. What is your best estimate for the temperature at 7:00 and 8:00 a.m.



$$3t + a = 60 \quad (\text{where } t = 6).$$

$$a = 42.$$

$$\begin{aligned} 7:00 : \quad 3t + a &\approx 21 + 42 \\ &= 63^\circ. \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} 8:00 : \quad 3t + a &= 24 + 42 \\ &= 66^\circ. \end{aligned}$$

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Linear Approximation Principle:

$$f(a + \Delta x) \approx f(a) + f'(a) \Delta x.$$

Δx is a number close to a.

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

Linerization of f at a.

E.g. Use the approximation principle to estimate $\sqrt{59}$ with a calculator.

let $f(x)$ be \sqrt{x} .

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

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

$$= \frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{1}{\sqrt{x}}$$

$$= \frac{1}{2\sqrt{x}}$$

$$f'(x) \Big|_{x=64} = \frac{1}{16}$$

$$\sqrt{69} \approx \sqrt{64} + \frac{1}{16} \cdot (-5)$$

$$\approx 8 - \frac{5}{16}$$

$$\approx 7\frac{11}{16}$$

E.g. Use a linearization of $y = \sin(x)$ to estimate $\sin(33^\circ)$ without a calculator.

$$\sin(33) \approx \sin\left(\frac{\pi}{6}\right) + \cos\left(\frac{\pi}{6}\right) \frac{1}{180} \cdot \frac{\pi}{180}$$

$$\approx \frac{1}{2} + \frac{\sqrt{3}}{2} \cdot \frac{\pi}{180}$$

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The Differential.

Recall:

$$f(a + \Delta x) \approx f(a) + f'(a) \cdot \Delta x.$$

subtract $f(a)$ on both sides:

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

Definition:

The differential $dx = \Delta x$.

The differential $df = f'(x) \Delta x$

$$(dy + df) = df.$$

The change in f : $\Delta f = f(x + \Delta x) - f(x)$.

The linearization of $f(x + \Delta x)$ can be rewritten
into:

$$\Delta f \approx df$$

$$\Delta y \approx dy.$$

e.g. For $f(x) = x/\ln x$, find:

1) df

$$\begin{aligned} df &= f'(x) \cdot dx \\ &= (\ln x + 1) dx \\ &= (\ln x + 1) dx. \end{aligned}$$

2): df when $x = 2$ and $dx = -0.3$.

$$\begin{aligned} df &= (\ln x + 1) dx. \\ &= -(\ln 2 + 1) \cdot 0.3 \\ &= -0.3 (\ln 2 + 1). \end{aligned}$$

3): Δf when $x = 2$, $dx = -0.3$.

$$\begin{aligned} \Delta f &= f(x+dx) - f(x) \\ &= 1.7/\ln(1.7) - 2/\ln 2. \end{aligned}$$

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E.g. Suppose that the radius of a sphere is measured as 8 cm, with a possible error of 0.5 cm. Use the differential to estimate the result error in computing the volume.

$$\text{let } f(x) = 4\pi x^3.$$

$$\Delta f = f(x+\Delta x) - f(x).$$

$$= 289\pi - 256\pi$$

$$= 33\pi.$$

L'Hospital's Rule.

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Definition: A limit of form $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)}$ is called $\frac{0}{0}$ indeterminate form if:

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = 0$$

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow a} g(x) = 0.$$

Definition: A limit of form $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)}$ is called $\frac{\infty}{\infty}$ indeterminate form if:

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

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow a} g(x) = \pm\infty$$

Theorem. L'Hospital's Rule Suppose f and g are differentiable and $g'(x) \neq 0$ in an open interval around a (except possibly at a). If $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)}$ is a $\frac{0}{0}$ or $\frac{\infty}{\infty}$ indeterminate form, then.

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

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E.g. $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{x}{3^x}$

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{x}{3^x} = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{\frac{d}{dx}(3^x)}$$

$$= 0.$$

E.g. $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\sin(x) - x}{(\sin x)^3}$

$$= \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} (\cos(x) - 1) \div (3\sin^2(x) \cdot \cos(x)).$$

$$= \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{3\sin^2(x)} \cdot \frac{\cos(x) - 1}{\cos(x)}$$

$$= \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{3\sin^2(x)} \cdot \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\cos(x) - 1}{\cos(x)}.$$

$$= \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{3\sin^2(x)}.$$

$$= \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{0}{3 \cdot 2 \cos(x)}.$$

$$= \frac{0}{6}$$

$$= 0.$$

L'Hospital's Rule : Additional Indeterminate Forms

e.g. $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0^+} \sin x / \ln x$.

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0^+} \frac{\ln x}{(\sin x)}.$$

$$= \lim_{x \rightarrow 0^+} \frac{\left(\frac{1}{x}\right)}{-\frac{\cos(x)}{(\sin x)^2}}.$$

$$= \lim_{x \rightarrow 0^+} \frac{\frac{1}{x}}{-\cot(x)} \cdot \frac{1}{\frac{1}{\sin x}}$$

$$= \lim_{x \rightarrow 0^+} \frac{1}{x} \cdot \frac{\sin x}{-\cot(x)}.$$

$$= \lim_{x \rightarrow 0^+} \frac{1}{x} \cdot \frac{\sin^2(x)}{-\cos(x)}$$

$$= \lim_{x \rightarrow 0^+} -\frac{\sin^2(x)}{x \cos(x)}$$

$$= \lim_{x \rightarrow 0^+} -\frac{\sin^2(x)}{x}$$

$$= \lim_{x \rightarrow 0^+} \frac{(\cos(x) \cdot 2\sin(x))}{1}$$

$$= 0.$$

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E.g. $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} (1 + \frac{1}{x})^x$

$$= \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} e^{x \cdot \ln(1 + \frac{1}{x})}$$

$$= \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\ln(1 + \frac{1}{x})}{\frac{1}{x}}$$

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

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

$$= \frac{1}{e}$$

$$= e.$$

Summary:

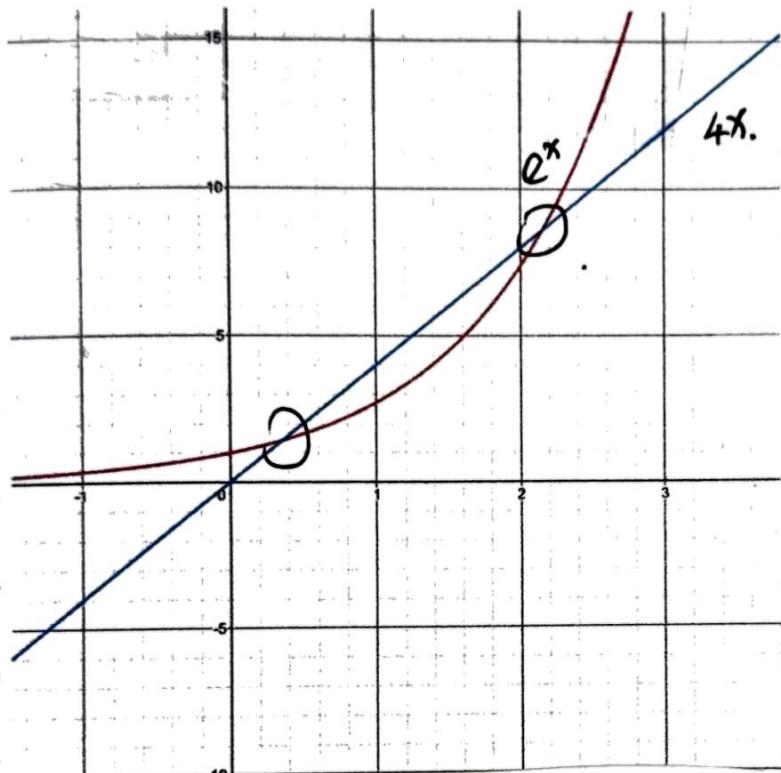
$$1^\infty \Rightarrow \infty/n \quad 1^\infty \Rightarrow \infty \cdot 0$$

$$\infty^0 \Rightarrow 0/n \quad \infty^0 \Rightarrow \infty \cdot 0$$

$$0^0 \Rightarrow 0/n \quad 0^0 \Rightarrow 0 \cdot (-\infty)$$

Newton's Method.

E.g. Find the solution to equation $e^x = 4x$.



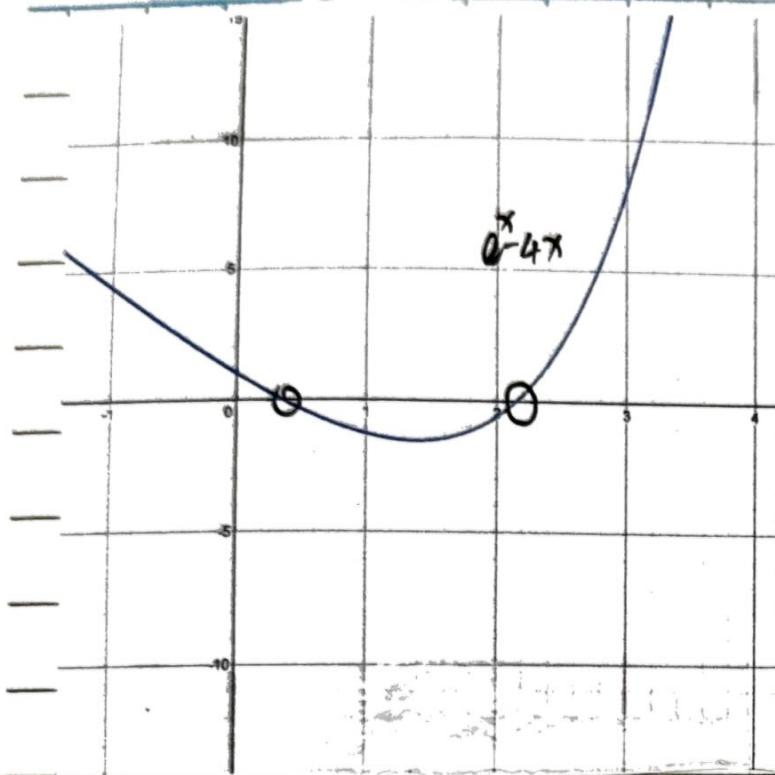
we can transform the equation into:

$$e^x - 4x = 0$$

then our problem becomes finding zeros.
of the graph $y = e^x - 4x$

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let $f(x) = e^x - 4x$.

Just watch 3B1B's video for Newton's Method

$$\cancel{x_0} = x_1 = x_0 - \frac{f(x_0)}{f'(x_0)} = x_0 - x_0$$

$$x_2 = x_1 - \frac{f(x_1)}{f'(x_1)}$$

$$x_3 = x_2 - \frac{f(x_2)}{f'(x_2)}$$

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

the equation for Newton's Method.

Back to the E.g.

$$f(x) = e^x - 4x.$$

$$x_1 = x - \frac{e^x - 4x}{e^x - 4}$$

let x_0 be 2.

$$x_1 = 2.180269634$$

$$x_2 = 2.153950513$$

$$x_3 = 2.153292768$$

$$x_4 = 2.153292364$$

$$x_5 = 2.153292364$$

let x_0 be 0.4.

$$x_1 = 0.3568709164$$

$$x_2 = 0.3574028775$$

$$x_3 = 0.3574029563$$

$$x_4 = 0.3574029562$$

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seen in conclusion

$$x = 2.153292364$$

$$x = 0.3574029562$$

Summary:

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

Antiderivative

E.g. If $g'(x) = 3x^2$, what could $g(x)$ be.

$$g(x) = x^3 + c.$$

definition: A function $F(x)$ is called an antiderivative of $f(x)$ on an interval (a, b) if

$$F'(x) = f(x) \text{ on } (a, b).$$

E.g. $x^3 + c$ is an antiderivative of $3x^2$.

If $F(x)$ is an antiderivative for $f(x)$, then all other antiderivatives for $f(x)$ can be written in the form $F(x) + C$.

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Function $f(x)$	Antiderivative $F(x)$	Function $f(x)$	Antiderivative $F(x)$
1	x	$\sec^2(x)$	$\tan(x).$
x	$\frac{1}{2}x^2$	$\sec(x)\tan(x)$	$\sec(x).$
$x^n (n \neq -1)$	$\frac{1}{n+1}x^{n+1}$	$\frac{1}{1+x^2}$	$\tan^{-1}(x).$
x^{-1}	$\ln(x).$	$\frac{1}{\sqrt{1-x^2}}$	$\sin^{-1}(x).$
e^x	e^x	$c \cdot x^n$	$c \cdot \frac{1}{n+1}x^{n+1}$
$\sin(x)$	$-\sin(x).$	$c \cdot f(x)$	$c \cdot F(x).$
$\cos(x)$	$\sin(x).$	$f(x) + g(x)$	$F(x) + G(x).$

E.g. find the general antiderivative for ~~$\frac{1}{1+x^2}$~~

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

$$f(x) = 5 \cdot \frac{1}{1+x^2} - \frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{1}{\sqrt{x}}$$

$$= 5 \cdot \frac{1}{1+x^2} - \frac{1}{2} \cdot x^{\frac{1}{2}}$$

$$f(x) = 5 \cdot \tan^{-1}(x) - \frac{1}{2} \cdot 2x^{\frac{1}{2}} + C$$

$$= 5\tan^{-1}(x) + \sqrt{x} + C$$

Finding antiderivative Using Initial Conditions.

E.g. If $g'(x) = e^x - 3\sin(x)$, and $g(2\pi) = 5$, find $g(x)$.

$$g(x) = e^x + 3\cos(x) + C.$$

$$g(2\pi) = 2\pi e^{2\pi} + 3 + C$$

$$5 = e^{2\pi} + 3$$

$$C = 2 - e^{2\pi}.$$

$$g(x) = e^x + 3\sin(x) + 2 - e^{2\pi}$$

E.g. If $f''(x) = \sqrt{x}(x - \frac{1}{x})$, find a equation for $f(x)$, if $f(1) = 0$ and $f(2) = 0$.

$$\begin{aligned} f''(x) &= \sqrt{x} \cdot x - \sqrt{x} \cdot \frac{1}{x} \\ &= x^{\frac{1}{2}} + 1 - x^{\frac{1}{2}} + (-1) \end{aligned}$$

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

$$f'(x) = \frac{2}{5}x^{\frac{5}{2}} - 2x^{\frac{1}{2}} + C$$

$$\begin{aligned} f(x) &= \frac{2}{5} \cdot \frac{2}{7}x^{\frac{7}{2}} - 2 \cdot \frac{2}{3}x^{\frac{3}{2}} + Cx + D \\ &= \frac{4}{35}x^{\frac{7}{2}} - \frac{4}{3}x^{\frac{3}{2}} + Cx + D. \end{aligned}$$

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$$f(1) = \frac{4}{35} - \frac{4}{3} + C + D.$$

$$= -\frac{128}{105} + C + D.$$

$$C+D = \frac{128}{105}.$$

$$f(2) = \frac{4}{35} \times 2^{\frac{7}{2}} - \frac{4}{3} \times 2^{\frac{3}{2}} + 2C + D.$$

$$2C + D = \frac{4}{35} \times 2^{\frac{7}{2}} - \frac{4}{3} \times 2^{\frac{3}{2}}$$

$$2C + D = -2.478240909.$$

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} C+D = \frac{128}{105} \\ 2C + D = -2.478240909 \end{array} \right.$$

$$\left. \begin{array}{l} \\ 2C + D = -\left(\frac{4}{35} \times 2^{\frac{7}{2}} - \frac{4}{3} \times 2^{\frac{3}{2}} \right) \end{array} \right.$$

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} C = 1.25919329 \\ \end{array} \right.$$

$$\left. \begin{array}{l} \\ D = -0.4014567121 \end{array} \right.$$

$$f(x) = \frac{4}{75}x^{\frac{3}{2}} - \frac{3}{4}x^{\frac{3}{2}} + 1.25919329x - 0.401456712$$

E.g. You are standing on the edge of a cliff at a height of 30 meters. You ~~should~~ throw a tomato straight up in the air at a speed of 20 meters per second. How long does it take the tomato to reach the ground. What is the velocity at impact.

$$a(t) = -9.8 \text{ m/s}^2$$

$$v_0 = 20 \text{ m/s}$$

$$s_0 = 30 \text{ m.}$$

$$s'(0) = 20.$$

$$s''(0) = 30.$$

$$s'(t) = -9.8t + C_1$$

$$s'(0) = -9.8 \cdot 0 + C_1 = 20.$$

$$C_1 = 20.$$

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$$S'(t) = 9.8t + 20.$$

$$S(t) = -9.8 \cdot \frac{1}{2}t^2 + 20t + C_2,$$

$$S(0) = 30.$$

$$C_2 = 30.$$

$$S(t) = 0.$$

$$-\frac{49}{10}t^2 + 20t + 30 = 0.$$

$$\frac{49}{10}t^2 - 20t = -30.$$

$$t = \pm \sqrt{\frac{200}{49}} = \pm 2.48210948.$$



$$S(0.248210948) = -31.43246729.$$

Proof that Two Antiderivative differ by a constant.

If $g'(x)$ on the interval (a, b) , then $g(x) = C$.

Proof: by mean value theorem.

$$g'(x) = \frac{g(b) - g(a)}{b-a}$$

$$0 = \frac{g(b) - g(a)}{b-a}$$

$$g(b) = g(a).$$

$$g(x) = c \text{ for some constant } c.$$

If $g_1(x)$ and $g_2(x)$ are two functions defined on $[a, b]$.
and $g_1'(x) = g_2'(x)$ on (a, b) .

Proof: by the mean value theorem and previous statement.

$$g_1'(x) = g_2'(x).$$

$$g_1'(x) - g_2'(x) = 0.$$

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$$(g_1'(x) - g_2'(x))' = 0.$$

$$g_1(x) - g_2(x) = C.$$

$$g_1(x) = g_2(x) + C \text{ for some constant } C.$$

Summation Notation

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E.g. $\sum_{i=1}^5 2^i$

could be expressed:

$$= 2^1 + 2^2 + 2^3 + 2^4 + 2^5$$

$$\text{sum} = 0.$$

$$= 2 + 4 + 8 + 16 + 32.$$

for i in range $[1, 6]$:

$$= 62.$$

$$\text{sum} += 2^i$$

E.g. Write in \sum notation: $6 + 9 + 12 + 15 + 18$.

$$\sum_{i=2}^6 3i$$

E.g. Write in \sum notation: $\frac{3}{4} + \frac{7}{8} + \frac{15}{16} + \frac{31}{32}$.

$$\sum_{n=2}^5 \frac{2^n - 1}{2^n}$$

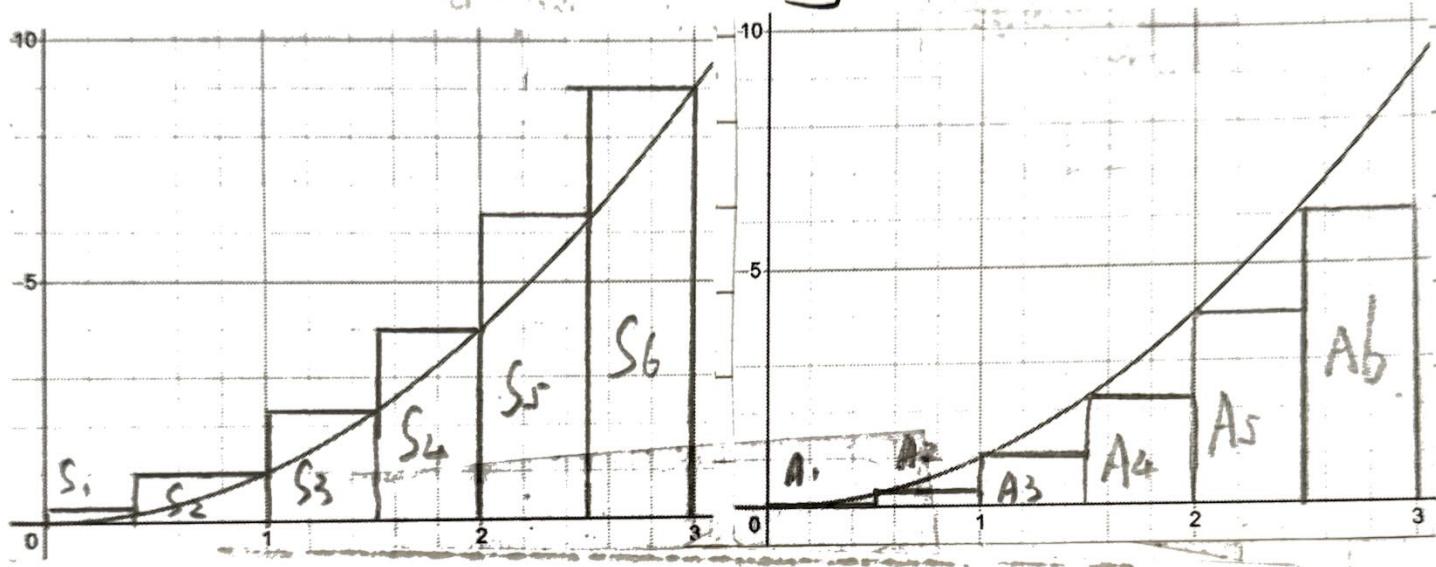
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Approximating Areas

E.g. Estimate the area under the curve $y = x^2$ between $x=0$ and $x=3$ by approximating it with 6 rectangles.



$$S = \frac{b}{3} \cdot \left(\frac{3}{6}n\right)^2$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} \cdot \left(\frac{1}{2}n\right)^2$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{1}{4}n^2$$

$$= \frac{1}{8}n^2$$

$$S_1 + S_2 + S_3 + \dots + S_6 = \sum_{n=1}^6 \frac{1}{8}n^2$$

$$= \frac{91}{8}. \quad (11.375)$$

$$A = \frac{b}{3} \cdot \left(\frac{3}{6}(n-1)\right)^2$$

$$= \frac{1}{3} \cdot \left(\frac{3}{6}n - \frac{3}{6}\right)^2$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} \cdot \left(\frac{1}{4}n^2 - \frac{1}{2}n + \frac{1}{4}\right)$$

$$= \frac{1}{8}n^2 - \frac{1}{4}n + \frac{1}{8}$$

$$A_1 + A_2 + \dots + A_6 = \sum_{n=1}^6 \frac{1}{8}n^2 - \frac{1}{4}n + \frac{1}{8} = \frac{55}{8} (6.875)$$

$$\text{Average: } \frac{11.375 + 6.875}{2} = 9.125.$$

Ex. Estimate the area under the curve $y=x^2$ between $x=0$ and $x=3$. by approximating it with 12 rectangles

$$S = \frac{3}{12} \left(x - \frac{3}{12} \right)^2.$$

$$= \frac{1}{4} \cdot \frac{1}{16} x^2.$$

$$= \frac{1}{64} x^2.$$

$$S_1 + S_2 + \dots + S_{12} = \sum_{x=1}^{12} \frac{1}{64} x^2.$$

$$= \frac{325}{32} (10.15625).$$

$$\frac{\frac{247}{256} + \frac{325}{32}}{2} = \frac{5047}{512}$$

$$(9.857421857).$$

$$A = \frac{3}{12} \left(\frac{3}{12} \left(x - \frac{3}{12} \right) \right)^2.$$

$$= \frac{3}{4} \left(\frac{1}{4} x - \frac{1}{16} \right)^2.$$

$$= \frac{1}{4} \left(\frac{1}{16} x^2 - \frac{1}{128} x + \frac{1}{256} \right).$$

$$= \frac{1}{64} x^2 - \frac{1}{128} x + \frac{1}{1024}.$$

$$A_1 + A_2 + A_3 + \dots + A_4 + A_5 + A_6 + \dots + A_{12} = \sum_{x=1}^{12} \frac{1}{64} x^2 - \frac{1}{128} x + \frac{1}{1024}.$$

$$= \frac{247}{256} (9.55859375).$$

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Use 100 rectangles:

$$S = \frac{3}{100} \left(\frac{3}{100} x \right)^2.$$

$$A = \frac{3}{100} \left(\frac{3}{100} (x-1) \right)^2.$$

$$S_1 + S_2 + \dots + S_{100} = \sum_{x=1}^{100} \frac{3}{100} \left(\frac{3}{100} x \right)^2 \\ = \frac{82709}{20000} (9.00045).$$

$$A_1 + A_2 + A_3 + \dots + A_{100} = \sum_{x=1}^{100} \\ = 8.86545.$$

$$\frac{\left(\frac{82709}{20000} + 8.86545 \right)}{2} = 9.00045$$

Use n rectangles:

$$S = \frac{3}{n} \left(\frac{3}{n} x^2 \right)^2,$$

~~$\frac{3}{n}$~~

$$A = \frac{3}{n} \left(\frac{3}{n} (x-1) \right)^2.$$

$$S_1 + S_2 + \dots + S_n = \sum_{x=1}^{*n} \frac{3}{n} \left(\frac{3}{n} x \right)^2.$$

$$A_1 + A_2 + \dots + A_n = \sum_{x=1}^n \frac{3}{n} \left(\frac{3}{n} (x-1) \right)^2.$$

The exact area is given by the limit:

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{x=1}^n \frac{3}{n} \left(\frac{3}{n} x \right)^2$$

or

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{x=1}^n \frac{3}{n} \left(\frac{3}{n} (x-1) \right)^2.$$

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Compute the exact area under the curve $y = x^2$
between $x=0$ and $x=3$.

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{x=1}^n \frac{3}{n} \left(\frac{3}{n} x \right)^2.$$

$$= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{3}{n} \sum_{x=1}^n \left(\frac{3}{n} x \right)^2.$$

$$= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{3}{n} \cdot \sum_{x=1}^n \frac{9}{n^2} x^2,$$

$$= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{3}{n} \cdot \frac{9}{n^2} \sum_{x=1}^n x^2.$$

$$= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{9}{n^3} \cdot \frac{n(n+1)(2n+1)}{6}$$

$$= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{9}{2} \cdot \frac{n(n+1)(2n+1)}{n^3},$$

$$= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{9}{2} \cdot \frac{(n+1)(2n+1)}{n^2}.$$

$$= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{9}{2} \cdot \frac{2n^2 + 3n + 1}{n^2},$$

$$= \frac{9}{2} \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{4n^2 + 3n + 1}{2n^2},$$

$$= \frac{9}{2} \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{4}{2}.$$

$$= \frac{9}{2} - 2.$$

$$= 9.$$

Riemann

Definition: A Riemann is normally expressed as below:

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{x=a}^b \frac{b}{n} f\left(\frac{b}{n} x\right).$$

or

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{x=a}^b \frac{b}{n} f\left(\frac{b}{n}(x-1)\right)$$

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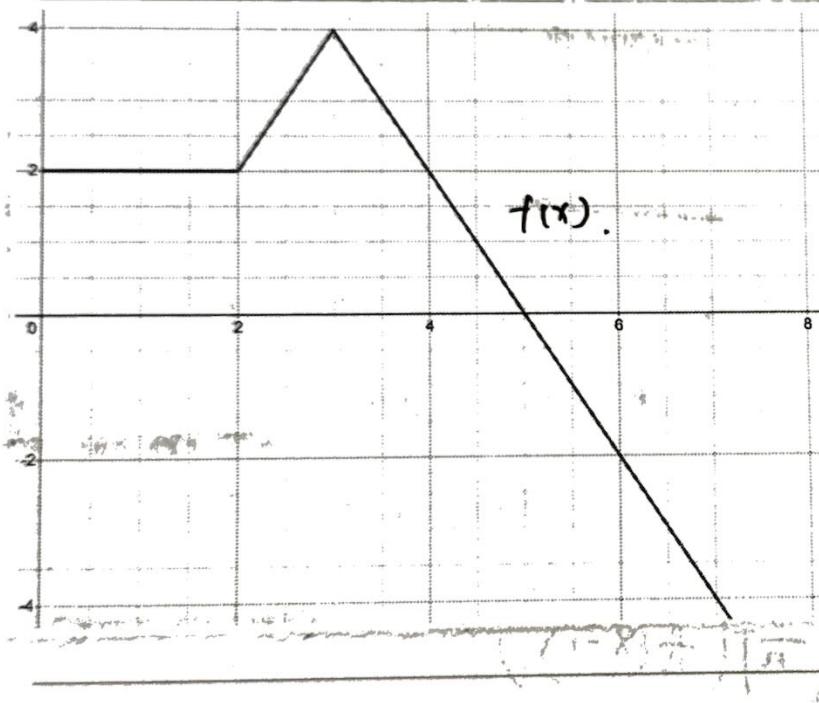
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The Fundamental Theorem of Calculus,

Part ①

E.g. Suppose $f(x)$ has a the graph shown, and let $g(x)$ be

$$g(x) = \int_0^x f(t) dt.$$



$$\begin{aligned} \text{Find } g(1) &= \int_0^1 f(x) dx \\ &= 2. \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} g(2) &= \int_0^2 f(x) dx \\ &= 4. \end{aligned}$$

$$g(3) = g(2) + \frac{1}{2} \cdot 1 \cdot (4+3)$$

$$= 4 + \frac{1}{2} \cdot 6$$

$$= 7$$

$$g(4) = g(2) + 2(g(3) - g(2))$$

$$= 4 + 6$$

$$= 10$$

$$g(5) = g(4) + \frac{1}{2} \cdot 2 \cdot 1$$

$$= 10 + 1$$

$$= 11$$

$$g(6) = g(4)$$

$$= 10$$

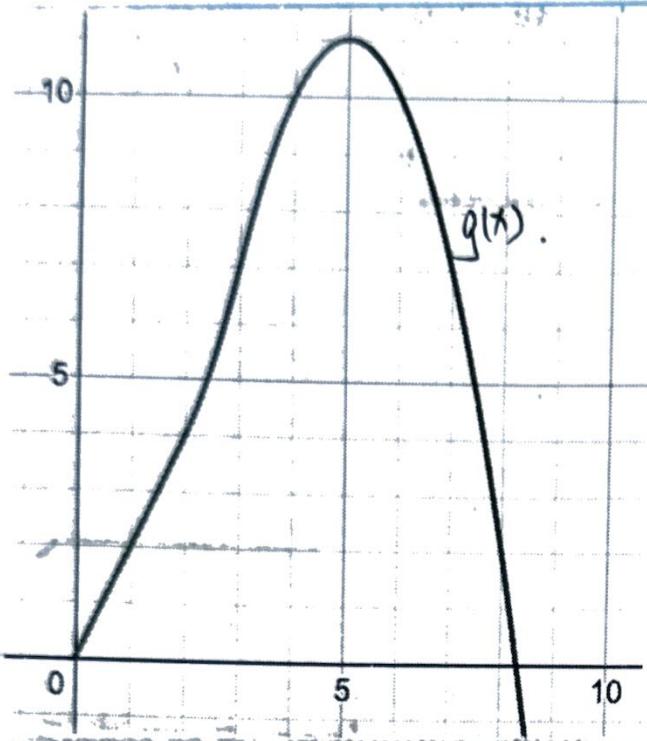
$$g(7) = g(3)$$

$$= 7$$

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$g'(x) > 0$ when $f(x) > 0$.

$g'(x) < 0$ when $f(x) < 0$.

$g'(x) = 0$ where $f(x) = 0$.

In fact:

$$g'(x) = f(x).$$

Theorem . (Fundamental Theorem of Calculus , Part I):

If $f(x)$ is continuous on $[a, b]$ then for
 $a \leq x \leq b$ the function

$$g(x) = \int_a^x f(t) dt$$

is continuous on $[a, b]$ and differentiable
on (a, b) and

$$g'(x) = f(x).$$



E.g. Find:

$$\frac{d}{dx} \int_3^x \sqrt{t^2+3} dt = \boxed{\sqrt{x^2+3}}$$

$$\frac{d}{dx} \int_4^x \sqrt{t^2+3} dt = \boxed{\sqrt{x^2+3}}$$

$$\begin{aligned} & \frac{d}{dx} \int_x^4 \sqrt{t^2+3} dt \\ &= \frac{d}{dx} - \int_4^x \sqrt{t^2+3} dt \\ &= \boxed{-\sqrt{x^2+3}} \end{aligned}$$

$$\frac{d}{dx} \int_4^{\sin(x)}$$

$$g(\sin x) = \frac{d}{dx} \int_4^{\sin(x)} \sqrt{t^2+3} dt.$$

$$g(\sin(x))' = g'(\sin(x)) \cdot \cos(x).$$

$$f(x) = \sqrt{\sin^2(x)+3} \cdot \cos(x).$$

$$\boxed{\frac{d}{dx} \int_4^{\sin(x)} \sqrt{t^2+3} dt = \sqrt{\sin^2(x)+3} \cdot \cos(x).}$$

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Theorem Summary:

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

A function is called

process of differentiation is called

function of derivative is called

(Process of differentiation is called differentiation.)

The Fundamental Theorem of Calculus, Part 2.

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Theorem: If f is continuous on $[a, b]$, then

$$\int_a^b f(x) dx$$

$$= F(b) - F(a).$$

Proof: from part 1:

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

↓

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

$$\frac{d}{dx} \int_x^b f(t) dt = - \frac{d}{dx} \int_b^x f(t) dt$$

↓

$$\int_x^b f(t) dt = -F(x)$$

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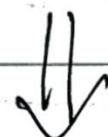
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In conclusion: - - - - -

$$\int_a^b f(t) dt = F(b)$$

$$\int_a^a f(t) dt = -F(a)$$

(where a is any Real number).



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

E.g. Find $\int_{-1}^{-5} 3x^2 - \frac{4}{x} dx$.

$$= \int_{-1}^{-5} \left(3x^2 - 4 \cdot \frac{1}{x} \right) dx.$$

$$= 3 \cdot \frac{1}{3}x^3 + 4 \cdot \ln(x) \Big|_{-1}^{-5}$$

$$= x^3 + 4\ln|x| \Big|_{-1}^{-5}$$

$$= (-5)^3 + 4\ln(5) - (-1)^3 + 4\ln(1).$$

$$= -125 + 4\ln(5) + 1 + 0$$

$$= -124 + 4\ln(5)$$

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E.g. Find $\int_1^4 \frac{y^2 - y + 1}{\sqrt{y}} dy$

$$= \int_1^4 (y^2 - y + 1) \cdot y^{-\frac{1}{2}} dy$$

$$= \int_1^4 y^{\frac{3}{2}} - y^{\frac{1}{2}} + y^{-\frac{1}{2}} dy$$

$$= \left[\frac{2}{5}y^{\frac{5}{2}} - \frac{2}{3}y^{\frac{3}{2}} + 2y^{\frac{1}{2}} \right]_1^4$$

$$= \frac{14b}{15}$$

Theorem Summary :

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

The Substitution Method.

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E.g. Find $\int 2x \sin(x^2) dx$.

Let u be (x^2) , du be $(2x dx)$.

$$\begin{aligned} & \int 2x \sin(x^2) dx \\ &= \int du \sin(u), \\ &= \int \sin(u) du, \\ &= -\cos(u) + C \\ &= -\cos(x^2) + C. \end{aligned}$$

E.g. Find $\int \frac{x}{1+3x^2} dx$

Let u be $(1+3x^2)$, du be $(6x dx)$

$$\begin{aligned} & \int \frac{x}{1+3x^2} dx \\ &= \int \frac{x}{u} du \\ &= \int \frac{1}{6} \cdot \frac{1}{u} \cdot du \\ &= \frac{1}{6} \ln|1+3x^2| + C \end{aligned}$$

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E.g. $\int e^{7x} dx$.

let $u = 7x$ du be $(7+c)$.

$$\int e^{7x} dx$$
$$= \int e^u du.$$

$$= \frac{1}{7} \int e^u du$$
$$= \frac{1}{7} e^{7x}$$

E.g. $\int e^x \frac{\ln(x)}{x} dx$.

let $u = \ln(x)$ du be $\frac{1}{x} dx$

$$\int e^x \frac{\ln(x)}{x} dx$$
$$= \int e^x u \cdot du$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} u^2 \Big|_e^{e^2}$$
$$= \frac{1}{2} \ln^2(\pi) \Big|_e^{e^2}$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} \cdot 2^2 - \frac{1}{2} \cdot 1^2$$

$$= \frac{3}{2} - \frac{1}{2}$$

Why U-substitution Works.

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Proof of U-substitution:

from chain Rule:

$$\frac{d}{dx}(F(g(x))) = F'(g(x)) \cdot g'(x).$$

$$F'(g(x)) \cdot g'(x) = \frac{d}{dx} F(g(x)).$$

$$\int F'(g(x)) \cdot g'(x) dx = \int \frac{d}{dx} F(g(x)) dx.$$

$$\int F'(g(x)) \cdot g'(x) dx = F(g(x)) + c.$$

$$\text{let } u = g(x), \quad du = g'(x) dx.$$

from that,

$$\int F'(g(x)) g'(x) dx = \int F'(u) du. \quad \textcircled{1}$$

solve for \textcircled{1}, we get,

$$\int F'(u) du = F(u) + c.$$

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plug in $u = g(x)$.

we get $\int f'(u) du$.

$$= F(u) + C$$

$$= F(g(x)) + C$$

which is exactly $\int P'(g(x)) g'(x) dx$,

the integral we want to solve at
the beginning.

Average Value of a Function.

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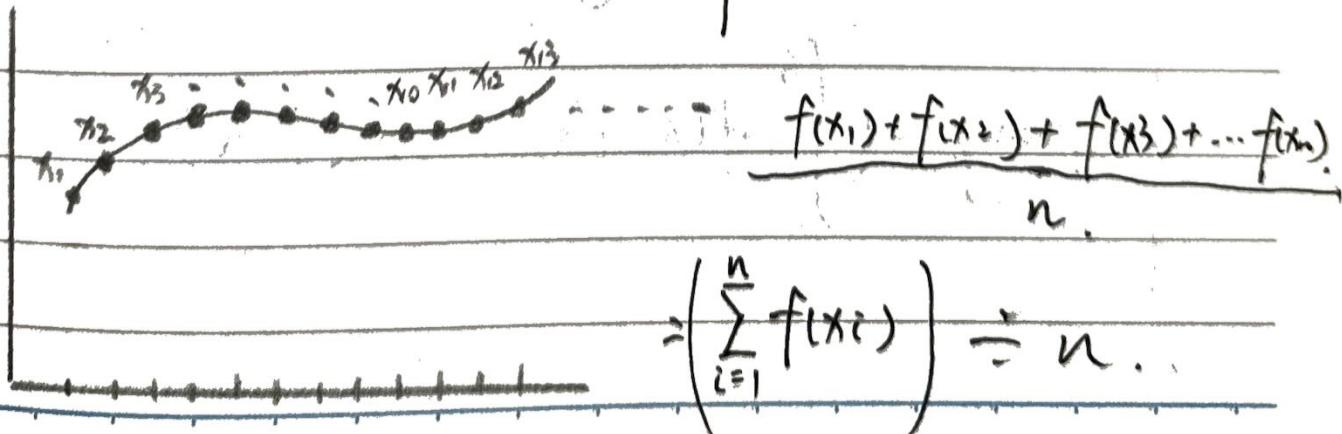
The average of a number list $q_1, q_2, q_3, q_4, q_5, \dots, q_n$.

we simply add up all the elements and divide the sum by the number of elements in a list.

If we express it in Σ notation, we get.

$$\text{Average} = \left(\sum_{a=1}^n q_a \right) \div n.$$

for a continuous function $f(x)$ on an interval $[a, b]$, we could estimate the average value of the function by sampling it at a bunch of x -values.



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The approximation gets better as the number of sample points gets larger, so we can define.

$$\text{average} = \left(\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{i=1}^n f(x_i) \right) \div n.$$

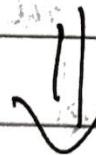
If we write the average in form of Riemann sum.

$$\text{average} = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left(\sum_{i=1}^n f(x_i) \right) \div n \cdot \frac{\Delta x}{\Delta x}$$

$$\text{since: } n \cdot \Delta x = b-a$$

$$\text{average} = \lim_{\Delta x \rightarrow 0} \left(\sum_{i=1}^n f(x_i) \Delta x \right) \div (b-a).$$

~~so~~



$$\boxed{\text{average} = \left(\int_a^b f(x) dx \right) \div (b-a)}.$$

e.g. Find the average value of function $g(x) = \frac{1}{1-5x}$ on the interval $[2, 5]$.

Question: Is there a number $f(c)$ in the interval $[2, 5]$ for which $g(c)$ is the average of $g(x)$ on interval $[2, 5]$.

Ans:

Yes there is that number c according to intermediate value theorem.

$$f(c) = \left(\int_2^5 g(x) dx \right) \div (5-2).$$

$$= \left(\int_2^5 \frac{1}{1-5x} dx \right) \div 3.$$

$$\text{Let } u = 1-5x, \quad du = -5 dx.$$

$$f(c) = \left(\int_2^5 -\frac{1}{4} \cdot \frac{1}{u} du \right) \div 3.$$

$$= \left(-\frac{1}{4} \ln|u| \Big|_2^5 \right) \div 3.$$

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$$= -\frac{1}{5} \ln(5x-1) \Big|_2^5 \div 3.$$

$$f(c) = -\frac{1}{15} \ln(24) + \frac{1}{15} \ln(9).$$

$$\frac{1}{1-5c} = -\frac{1}{15} \ln(24) + \frac{1}{15} \ln(9).$$

$$\frac{1}{1-5c} = \frac{1}{15} \ln\left(\frac{3}{8}\right).$$

$$1 = \frac{1}{15} \ln\left(\frac{3}{8}\right) - \frac{1}{3} \ln\left(\frac{3}{8}\right) c.$$

$$c = \frac{\frac{3}{8}}{\ln\left(\frac{3}{8}\right)} + \frac{1}{5}$$

$$\approx 3.2586364347.$$

Theorem : Mean Value Theorem for Integral.

$$f_{\text{average}} = \frac{\int_a^b f(x) dx}{b-a}$$

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Proof of the Mean Value Theorem for Integral.

mean value theorem for integral stated
that:

$$f_{\text{average}} = \frac{\int_a^b f(x) dx}{b-a}$$

Proof:

The intermediate value theorem stated:

For continuous function $f(x)$ defined
on $[x_1, x_2]$ if L between $f(x_1)$
and $f(x_2)$ then for some value c
between x_1, x_2 , $f(c) = L$.

If $f(x)$ is constant on $[a, b]$, then
 $\text{f average} = f(c)$ for all c values

Suppose f is not constant on $[a, b]$,
then f has a min value " m "
and a max value " M ".

$$m \leq \text{f average} \leq M$$

because $m \leq f(x) \leq M$.

$$\frac{\int_a^b m dx}{b-a} \leq \frac{\int_a^b f(x) dx}{b-a} \leq \frac{\int_a^b M dx}{b-a}.$$

$$\frac{m(b-a)}{b-a} \leq \text{f average} \leq \frac{M(b-a)}{b-a}.$$

$$m \leq \text{f average} \leq M.$$

By Intermediate value theorem:

$$\text{f average} = f(c) \text{ for some } c \text{ in } [a, b].$$