VECTOR CALCULUS, Week 2

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2.1 Derivatives and Rates of Change

Def: Suppose f is defined near a, including at a itself.

• We say f is differentiable at a with derivative f'(a) if the following limit exists (is a finite number):

$$f'(a) = \frac{d}{dx}f(x)\Big|_{x=a} = \lim_{x \to a} \frac{f(x) - f(a)}{x - a}.$$

The notation f'(a) is pronounced f prime of a.

• If f is differentiable at a, then we say the line through (a, f(a)) with slope f'(a) is the **tangent line of** f at a:

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

Ex: Definition of the derivative.

- 1. For $f(x) = x^2$, compute f'(a) for all a.
- 2. f(x) = |x| is not differentiable at a = 0.

2.2 The Derivative as a Function

Def: Suppose f is differentiable at each $x \in (a, b)$

- We say f is differentiable over (a, b).
- The function $f'(x) = \lim_{h\to 0} \frac{f(x+h)-f(x)}{h}$ for $x \in (a,b)$ is called the first derivative of f.
- $\frac{d}{dx}f(x)$ means to find the first derivative of f.
- If f' is continuous over (a, b), then we say f is continuously differentiable over (a, b).
- If f' is also differentiable over (a, b), then $f''(x) = \frac{d}{dx}f'(x)$ denotes the **second derivative of** f. The notation f''(a) is pronounced f **double prime of** a. $\frac{d^2}{dx^2}f(x)$ means to find the second derivative of f.

We make similar definitions over $(a, \infty), (-\infty, b), (-\infty, \infty)$.

Ex: For $f(x) = x^2$, we already showed that $f'(x) = \frac{d}{dx}x^2 = 2x$. This means that f is continuously differentiable over $(-\infty, \infty)$.

2.3 Basic Differentiation Formulas

Thm (Table of Basic Derivatives):

- $\frac{d}{dx}c = 0$ for all x.
- $\frac{d}{dx}x^r = rx^{r-1}$ for any real number r, for all x near where x^r is defined.
- trigonometric functions

$$\Rightarrow \frac{d}{dx}\cos x = -\sin x$$
 for all x .

$$\Rightarrow \frac{d}{d}\sin x = \cos x \text{ for all } x.$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{d}{dx} \tan x = \sec^2 x \text{ for } x \in (-\frac{\pi}{2}, \frac{\pi}{2}).$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{d}{dx} \arctan x = \frac{1}{1+x^2}$$
 for all x .

- $\frac{d}{dx}e^x = e^x$ for all x.
- $\frac{d}{dx} \ln x = \frac{1}{x}$ for x > 0.

2.4 The Product and Quotient Rules

Thm (Basic Derivative Rules): Suppose f, g are differentiable at a.

Simplification Rule: If f(x) = g(x) for all x near a, then f'(a) = g'(a).

Addition Rule: $\frac{d}{dx}(f(x) + g(x))|_{x=a} = f'(a) + g'(a)$.

Product Rule: $\frac{d}{dx}(f(x)g(x))|_{x=a} = f'(a)g(a) + f(a)g'(a)$.

 $\Rightarrow \frac{d}{dx}cf(x)|_{x=a} = c\frac{d}{dx}f(x)|_{x=a}$ for any $c \in \mathbf{R}$.

Quotient Rule: If $g(a) \neq 0$, then $\frac{d}{dx} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} \Big|_{x=a} = \frac{f'(a)g(a) - f(a)g'(a)}{g(a)^2}$.

Ex: Compute the following derivatives.

- $1. \ \frac{d}{dx}x^2$
- 2. $\frac{d}{dx} \frac{x(x+1)+1}{e^x+1} \Big|_{x=0}$

2.5 The Chain Rule

Chain Rule: Suppose g(x) is differentiable at x = a and f(u) is differentiable at u = g(a), then f(g(x)) is differentiable at x = a with derivative

$$\frac{d}{dx}f(g(x))\Big|_{x=a} = \frac{d}{du}f(u)\Big|_{u=g(a)} \cdot \frac{d}{dx}g(x)\Big|_{x=a} = f'(g(a))g'(a).$$

Ex: Compute $\frac{d}{dx}\sqrt{x+\sqrt{x+\sqrt{x}}}$ for x>0.

2.8 Linear Approximation and Differentials

Thm: Suppose f is differentiable at a, then the tangent line y = f'(a)(x - a) + f(a) of f at a is a good approximation for f near a.

Ex: Estimate the value of the following quantities.

1.
$$\sqrt{\frac{1}{100} + \cos(\frac{1}{100})}$$

$$2. \ \sqrt{1.02 + \sin(\frac{1}{100})}$$

Fact: Suppose f is differentiable at a. The tangent line of f at a is horizontal if and only if f'(a) = 0.

3.1 Maximum And Minimum Values

Def: An **interval** is any subset of **R** of the form

$$(a,b), (a,b], [b,a), [a,b], (-\infty,a), (-\infty,a], (a,\infty), [a,\infty), (-\infty,\infty)$$

where $a, b \in \mathbf{R}$.

Def: Suppose I is an interval, and suppose f is defined for all $x \in I$.

- If $c \in I$ and $f(c) \ge f(x)$ for each $x \in I$, then we say c is an absolute maximum point of f over I and f(c) is an absolute maximum value of f over I.
- If $c \in I$ and $f(x) \le f(c)$ for each $x \in I$, then we say c is an absolute minimum point of f over I and f(c) is an absolute minimum value of f over I.
- If $c \in I$ is an absolute maximum or minimum point of f over I, then we say c is an absolute extremum point of f over I and f(c) is an absolute extremum value of f over I.

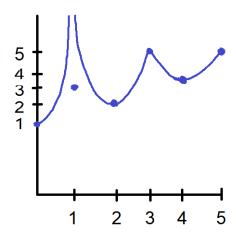
Suppose $c \in \mathbf{R}$, and suppose f is defined near c.

- If $f(c) \ge f(x)$ for all x near c, then we say
 - c is a local maximum point of f and f(c) is a local maximum value of f.
- If $f(c) \le f(x)$ for all x near c, then we say c is a **local minimum point of** f and
- If c is either a local maximum or a local minimum point of f, then we say c
 - c is a local extremum point of f and f(c) is a local extremum value of f.

f(c) is a local minimum value of f.

• If f'(c) = 0 or f'(c) does not exist, then we say c is a **criticial point of** f.

Ex: Consider the function f defined over [0, 5], given by the following graph.



- 1. Find the absolute extremum points and values of f over [2, 5].
- 2. Find the absolute extremum points and values of f over [0,5].
- 3. Find the local extremum points and values of f.
- 4. Find the critical points of f.

Thm: Finding local and absolute extremum points.

- If c is a local extremum point of f, then c is a critical point of f.
- Suppose f is continuous over [a, b].
 - There are $c_{max}, c_{min} \in [a, b]$ so that c_{max} is an absolute maximum point and c_{min} is an absolute minimum point of f over [a, b].
 - If c is an absolute extremum point of f over [a, b], then either c = a, b or c is a critical point of f.

Ex: Find the absolute extremum points and values of $f(x) = 3x^2 - 2x + 1$ over [0, 2].

5.8 Indeterminant Forms and L'Hospital's Rule

Def: Suppose $L, M \in \mathbf{R}$. We define the following extended arithmetic rules, or **determined forms**:

$$L + M$$
, LM , and $\frac{L}{M}$ if $M \neq 0$.

$$L + \infty = \infty + L = \infty$$
 and $L - \infty = -\infty + L = -\infty$.

$$\infty + \infty = \infty$$
 and $-\infty - \infty = -\infty$.

$$\frac{L}{\infty} = \frac{L}{-\infty} = 0.$$

If L > 0, then

$$L\cdot \infty = \infty \cdot L = \frac{\infty}{L} = \infty \text{ and } L\cdot -\infty = -\infty \cdot L = \frac{-\infty}{L} = -\infty.$$

If L < 0, then

$$L \cdot \infty = \infty \cdot L = \frac{\infty}{L} = -\infty \text{ and } L \cdot -\infty = -\infty \cdot L = \frac{-\infty}{L} = \infty.$$

$$\infty \cdot \infty = -\infty \cdot -\infty = \infty$$
 and $\infty \cdot -\infty = -\infty \cdot \infty = -\infty$.

The following are **indeterminant forms**, and are undefined:

$$\begin{array}{ccc}
\infty - \infty & 0 \cdot \pm \infty \\
-\infty + \infty & \pm \infty \cdot 0
\end{array}, \quad \begin{array}{c}
\text{anything} \\
0
\end{array}, \quad \begin{array}{c}
\pm \infty \\
\pm \infty
\end{array}$$

Extended Basic Limit Rules: Let $\lim_{x\to\#}$ denote any kind of a limit:

$$\lim_{x \to a}, \lim_{x \to a^{-}}, \lim_{x \to a^{+}} \text{ for } a \in \mathbf{R}, \text{ or } \lim_{x \to \infty}, \lim_{x \to -\infty}.$$

- 1. Simplification Rule: If f(x) = g(x) for all x "near #," but perhaps not "at #," and $\lim_{x\to\#} f(x)$ exists in the extended sense, then $\lim_{x\to\#} g(x)$ exists in the extended sense and is equal to $\lim_{x\to\#} f(x)$.
- 2. Suppose $\lim_{x\to\#} f(x)$ and $\lim_{x\to\#} g(x)$ exist in the extended sense.

Addition Rule:

If
$$\lim_{x \to \#} f(x) + \lim_{x \to \#} g(x)$$
 is not
$$\begin{cases} \infty - \infty \\ -\infty + \infty \end{cases}$$
, then $\lim_{x \to \#} (f(x) + g(x)) = \lim_{x \to \#} f(x) + \lim_{x \to \#} g(x)$.

Multiplication Rule:

If
$$\lim_{x \to \#} f(x) \cdot \lim_{x \to \#} g(x)$$
 is not $\begin{cases} 0 \cdot \pm \infty \\ \pm \infty \cdot 0 \end{cases}$, then $\lim_{x \to \#} (f(x) \cdot g(x)) = \lim_{x \to \#} f(x) \cdot \lim_{x \to \#} g(x)$.

Division Rule:

$$\begin{split} &\text{If } \frac{\lim_{x \to \#} f(x)}{\lim_{x \to \#} g(x)} \text{ is not } \frac{\text{anything}}{0} \text{ or } \frac{\pm \infty}{\pm \infty}, \\ &\text{then } \lim_{x \to \#} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} = \frac{\lim_{x \to \#} f(x)}{\lim_{x \to \#} g(x)}. \end{split}$$

3. *u*-Substitution Rule: Suppose

$$\lim_{x \to \#} g(x)$$
 and $\lim_{u \to \lim_{x \to \#} g(x)} f(u)$

both exist in the extended sense, then

$$\lim_{x \to \#} f(g(x)) = \lim_{u \to \lim_{x \to \#} g(x)} f(u).$$

Ex: Compute $\lim_{x\to\infty}(x^2-x)$.

Fact: We need strategies to compute limits of the form $\lim_{x\to\#} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)}$ where $\lim_{x\to\#} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)}$ is an indeterminant form of type $\frac{0}{0}, \frac{\pm\infty}{\pm\infty}$. To compute limits

$$\lim_{x \to \#} (f(x) + g(x)) \text{ and } \lim_{x \to \#} (f(x)g(x))$$

where the Addition or Multiplication Rules cannot be used, the first step is to simplify to get a limit of the form $\lim_{x\to\#} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)}$.

Degree Analysis Rule: Suppose p(x), q(x) are sums, products, and compositions of constants and basic power functions.

- To compute $\lim_{x\to 0,0^{\pm}} \frac{p(x)}{q(x)}$, factor out the **smallest** power of x from p(x) and q(x).
- To compute $\lim_{x\to\pm\infty} \frac{p(x)}{q(x)}$, factor out the **largest** power of x from p(x) and q(x).

Ex: Compute the following limits.

- 1. $\lim_{x\to 0^+} \frac{\sqrt{x^7+x^5}+x^2}{x^4-3x^3}$.
- 2. $\lim_{x\to-\infty} \frac{\sqrt{x^2+1}+(1-x)^{1/4}}{\sqrt[3]{x}+1}$, set u=-x.

Fact: To compute $\lim_{x\to 0^-} f(x)$ or $\lim_{x\to -\infty} f(x)$, set u=-x.

Easy L'Hospital's Rule: Suppose f, g are differentiable at a with f(a) = g(a) = 0 and $g'(a) \neq 0$, then $\lim_{x \to a} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} = \frac{f'(a)}{g'(a)}$.

Ex: Compute $\lim_{x\to 2} \frac{e^{(x-2)}-1}{\arctan x-\arctan 2}$.

L'Hospital's Rule: Let $\lim_{x\to\#}$ denote any kind of limit. Suppose

- $\frac{\lim_{x \to \#} f(x)}{\lim_{x \to \#} g(x)}$ is an indeterminant form of the type $\frac{0}{0}, \frac{\pm \infty}{\pm \infty}$.
- $\lim_{x\to\#} \frac{f'(x)}{g'(x)}$ exists in the extended sense.

Then $\lim_{x\to\#} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} = \lim_{x\to\#} \frac{f'(x)}{g'(x)}$.

Non-Ex: Define the functions

$$f(x) = x\sin(x^{-4})e^{-1/x^2}$$
 and $g(x) = e^{-1/x^2}$.

Then $\lim_{x\to 0} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} = 0$ but $\lim_{x\to 0} \frac{f'(x)}{g'(x)}$ does not exist.

Ex: Compute the following limits.

- 1. $\lim_{x\to 0^+} x \ln x$
- 2. $\lim_{x\to\infty} \frac{e^x}{x^2}$
- 3. $\lim_{x\to\infty} \frac{e^x + 2x^2 + \sqrt{x^4 + x + 1}}{x^2 + \sqrt{x + 4x^{1/3}}}$

The Squeeze Theorem

Squeeze Thm: Suppose f,g,h are defined near a, but perhaps not a itself. If

$$f(x) \le g(x) \le h(x)$$

for all x near a with $x \neq a$, and if $\lim_{x\to a} f(x) = \lim_{x\to a} h(x) = L$, then $\lim_{x\to a} g(x) = L$. Similar is true for all types of limits, in the extended sense.

Ex: Use the Squeeze Thm to show the following.

- 1. $\lim_{x\to 0} \frac{x^4}{x^2 + x^4} = 0$
- 2. $\lim_{x\to 0} x^2 \sin(1/x) = 0$