

Differential and Integral Methods: Compendium

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Contents

1 Functions	1
1.1 Hyperbolic Functions	1
1.1.1 Identities of Hyperbolic Functions	2
1.2 Trigonometric Identities	2
2 Limits	2
2.1 Useful Limits	2
3 Derivatives	2
4 Taylor's Formula	3
4.1 Common Derivatives	3
5 Full Investigation of Functions	3
6 Integration	4
6.1 Common Integrals	5
6.2 Length of a Curve	5
6.3 Volume of Solids of Rotation	5
6.4 Improper Integrals	6
6.4.1 Direct Comparison Tests	6
7 Multi-variable Functions	6
7.1 Lagrange Multipliers	7
8 Double Integrals	7
9 Triple Integrals	7
10 Line Integrals of Scalar Functions	8
11 Line Integrals of Vector Functions	8

1 Functions

Definition 1 (Even function).

$$f(-x) = f(x)$$

Definition 2 (Odd function).

$$f(-x) = -f(x)$$

1.1 Hyperbolic Functions

Definition 3 (Hyperbolic functions).

$$\sinh x = \frac{e^x - e^{-x}}{2}$$

$$I(\sinh x) = \mathbb{R}$$

$$\cosh x = \frac{e^x + e^{-x}}{2}$$

$$I(\cosh x) = [1, \infty)$$

$$\tanh x = \frac{\sinh x}{\cosh x} = \frac{e^x - e^{-x}}{e^x + e^{-x}}$$

$$I(\tanh x) = (-1, 1)$$

Surface	Equation	Traces $xy (z=0)$ $xz (y=0)$ $yz (x=0)$	Typical Graph
Hyperboloid of One Sheet	$\frac{x^2}{a^2} + \frac{y^2}{b^2} - \frac{z^2}{c^2} = 1$	ellipse hyperbola hyperbola	
Hyperboloid of Two Sheets	$-\frac{x^2}{a^2} - \frac{y^2}{b^2} + \frac{z^2}{c^2} = 1$	none hyperbola hyperbola	
Elliptic Cone	$z^2 = \frac{x^2}{a^2} + \frac{y^2}{b^2}$	(0, 0, 0) 2 intersecting lines 2 intersecting lines	
Elliptic Paraboloid	$z = \frac{x^2}{a^2} + \frac{y^2}{b^2}$	(0, 0, 0) parabola upward parabola upward	
Surface	Equation	Traces $xy (z=0)$ $xz (y=0)$ $yz (x=0)$	Typical Graph
Hyperbolic Paraboloid	$z = \frac{y^2}{b^2} - \frac{x^2}{a^2}$	2 intersecting lines parabola downward parabola upward	
Parabolic Cylinder	$x^2 = 4ay$	parabola z-axis z-axis	
Elliptic Cylinder	$\frac{x^2}{a^2} + \frac{y^2}{b^2} = 1$	ellipse 2 parallel lines 2 parallel lines	
Ellipsoid	$\frac{x^2}{a^2} + \frac{y^2}{b^2} + \frac{z^2}{c^2} = 1$	ellipse ellipse ellipse	

1.1.1 Identities of Hyperbolic Functions

$$\begin{aligned}\sinh(2x) &= 2 \sinh x \cosh x \\ \cosh^2 x + \sinh^2 x &= \cosh(2x) \\ \cosh^2 x - \sinh^2 x &= 1 \\ \frac{\cosh(2x) - 1}{2} &= \sinh^2 x \\ \frac{\cosh(2x) + 1}{2} &= \cosh^2 x\end{aligned}$$

1.2 Trigonometric Identities

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

$$\begin{aligned}\sin x \sin y &= \frac{1}{2} (\cos(x - y) - \cos(x + y)) \\ \cos x \cos y &= \frac{1}{2} (\cos(x - y) + \cos(x + y)) \\ \sin x \cos y &= \frac{1}{2} (\sin(x + y) + \sin(x - y)) \\ \cos x \sin y &= \frac{1}{2} (\sin(x + y) - \sin(x - y)) \\ \sin x + \sin y &= 2 \sin\left(\frac{x+y}{2}\right) \cos\left(\frac{x-y}{2}\right) \\ \sin x - \sin y &= 2 \cos\left(\frac{x+y}{2}\right) \sin\left(\frac{x-y}{2}\right) \\ \cos x + \cos y &= 2 \cos\left(\frac{x+y}{2}\right) \cos\left(\frac{x-y}{2}\right) \\ \cos x - \cos y &= -2 \sin\left(\frac{x+y}{2}\right) \sin\left(\frac{x-y}{2}\right)\end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}\sin \frac{x}{2} &= \pm \sqrt{\frac{1 - \cos x}{2}} \\ \cos \frac{x}{2} &= \pm \sqrt{\frac{1 + \cos x}{2}} \\ \tan \frac{x}{2} &= \pm \sqrt{\frac{1 - \cos x}{1 + \cos x}}\end{aligned}$$

2 Limits

Definition 4 (Cauchy's definition of a limit of a function).
 $\forall \epsilon > 0 \exists \delta > 0 : 0 < |x - a| < \delta \Rightarrow |f(x) - L| < \epsilon$

Definition 5 (Removable discontinuity point).

$$\begin{aligned}\exists \lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x), \text{ but either } \lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) \neq f(a) \text{ or } \nexists f(a) \\ \textbf{Definition 6} \text{ (Discontinuity of first kind).} \\ \exists \lim_{x \rightarrow a^-} f(x), \exists \lim_{x \rightarrow a^+} f(x), \text{ but } \lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) \neq \lim_{x \rightarrow a^+} f(x)\end{aligned}$$

Definition 7 (Discontinuity of second kind). At least one of the two one-sided limits of f does not exist. (Limits are defined as finite numbers only.)

Theorem 1 (Sandwich Theorem). Let $f(x), g(x), h(x)$ be defined on an open interval about a , except possibly at a itself. Assume that $\forall x \neq a$ from the interval, it is satisfied that $f(x) \leq g(x) \leq h(x)$ and $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = \lim_{x \rightarrow a} h(x) = L$. Then,

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

Theorem 2. If $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = 0$ and $g(x)$ is bounded in an open interval about a , except possibly at a itself, then,

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

2.1 Useful Limits

If $\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} g(x) = 0$,

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} (1 + g(x))^{\frac{1}{g(x)}} = e$$

$$\begin{aligned}\lim_{x \rightarrow +\infty} \left(1 + \frac{1}{x}\right)^x &= e \\ \lim_{x \rightarrow -\infty} \left(1 + \frac{1}{x}\right)^x &= e \\ \lim_{\theta \rightarrow 0} \frac{\sin \theta}{\theta} &= 1\end{aligned}$$

3 Derivatives

Definition 8 (Derivative of a function).

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = \lim_{\Delta x \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(x_0 + \Delta x) - f(x_0)}{\Delta x} = L$$

Theorem 3 (Derivative of inverse functions).

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

Theorem 4 (Chain rule).

$$\frac{df(g(x))}{dx} = \frac{df(g(x))}{dg(x)} \cdot \frac{dg(x)}{dx}$$

Theorem 5 (Rolle's Theorem). Let $f(x)$ be defined on $[a, b]$, s.t.

Therefore,

The domain is of the first kind.

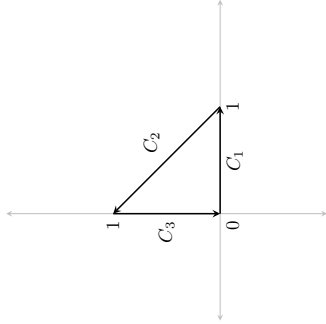
$$\begin{aligned} \int_C P \, dx + Q \, dy &= \int_C P \, dx + Q \, dy + \int_{C_1} P \, dx + Q \, dy \\ &\quad - \int_{C_1} P \, dx + Q \, dy \\ &= \int_{C \cup C_1} P \, dx + Q \, dy - \int_{C_1} P \, dx + Q \, dy \\ &= \iint_D (Q_x - P_y) \, dA - \int_{C_1} P \, dx + Q \, dy \end{aligned}$$

Example 11. Find the work done by the force

$$\vec{F}(x, y) = (x^4, xy)$$

over the path

$$C = C_1 \cup C_2 \cup C_3$$



Solution. By Green's Theorem,

$$\begin{aligned} W &= \int_C P dx + Q dy \\ &= \iint_D (Q_x - P_y) dA \\ &= \iint_D (y - 0) dA \\ &= \int_0^1 \int_0^{1-x} y dy dx \\ &= \frac{1}{6} \end{aligned}$$

Example 12. Calculate $\int_C \vec{F} \cdot \vec{T} ds$ when

$$\vec{F} = \left(-\frac{y}{x^2 + y^2}, \frac{x}{x^2 + y^2} \right)$$

and C is a simple, closed, piecewise smooth curve with positive orientation which does not pass through $(0, 0)$.

Solution.

$$P = \frac{y}{x^2 + y^2}$$

$$Q = \frac{x}{x^2 + y^2}$$

Therefore,

$$\begin{aligned} P_y &= -\frac{(x^2 + y^2) - y \cdot 2y}{(x^2 + y^2)^2} \\ &= \frac{y^2 - x^2}{(x^2 + y^2)^2} \end{aligned}$$

$$Q_x = \frac{(x^2 + y^2) - x \cdot 2x}{(x^2 + y^2)^2}$$

If $(0, 0) \notin D$, Green's Theorem is applicable.

Therefore,

$$\begin{aligned} \int_C \vec{F} \cdot \vec{T} ds &= \iint_D (Q_x - P_y) dA \\ &= 0 \end{aligned}$$

If $(0, 0) \in D$, Green's Theorem is not applicable as P_y and Q_x are not continuous in D .

Let C_1 be a circle of radius a , with the same orientation as C . Let $\tilde{C} = C \cup (-C_1)$. Green's Theorem can be applied on the domain $D \setminus D_1$ which is enclosed by \tilde{C} .

$$\begin{aligned} \int_{C \cup (-C_1)} P dx + Q dy &= \iint_{D \setminus D_1} (Q_x - P_y) dA \\ &= 0 \end{aligned}$$

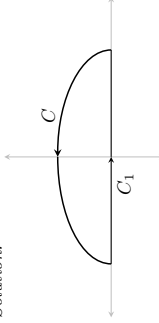
$$\int_C P dx + Q dy + \int_{-C_1} P dx + Q dy = 0$$

Therefore,

$$\begin{aligned} \int_C P dx + Q dy &= \int_{C_1} P dx + Q dy \\ &= \int_0^{2\pi} \int_0^a P(x(t), y(t)) x'(t) dt \\ &\quad + \int_0^2 \int_0^2 Q(x(t), y(t)) dt \\ &= \int_0^{2\pi} \int_0^a (\sin^2 t + \cos^2 t) dt \\ &= 2\pi \end{aligned}$$

Example 13. Calculate $\int_C -2e^{2x-y} \cos y dx + (e^{2x-y}(\sin y + \cos y) + 2xy) dy$ when C is the half ellipse $\left\{ \frac{x^2}{4} + y^2 = 1, y \geq 0 \right\}$ oriented from the point $(2, 0)$ to the point $(-2, 0)$.

Solution.



Let C_1 be the line segment as shown.

$$P = -2e^{2x-y} \cos y$$

$$Q = e^{2x-y}(\sin y + \cos y) + 2xy$$

5 Full Investigation of Functions

1. Domain of definition of f
2. Points of intersection of $y = f(x)$ with x -axis and y -axis
3. Symmetry and periodicity
4. Extrema points
5. Monotonicity
6. Convexity
7. Inflection points
8. Asymptotes (vertical and oblique)
9. Graph

Definition 9 (Vertical asymptote). Let $f(x)$ be defined on $(a - \delta)$ or $(a, a + \delta)$ or $(a - \delta, a + \delta) - \{a\}$ for $\delta > 0$. If at least one of $\lim_{x \rightarrow a^-} f(x)$ and $\lim_{x \rightarrow a^+} f(x)$ is equal to $\pm\infty$, then the straight line $x = a$ is said to be a vertical asymptote of $f(x)$.

Definition 10 (Oblique asymptote). The straight line $y = ax + b$ is called an oblique asymptote of a function $y = f(x)$ at $+\infty$ (or $-\infty$), if

$$\begin{aligned} \lim_{x \rightarrow +\infty} (f(x) - (ax + b)) &= 0 \\ \left(\text{or } \lim_{x \rightarrow -\infty} (f(x) - (ax + b)) = 0 \right) \end{aligned}$$

Example 1. Investigate

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

Solution.

$$D(f) = \mathbb{R} - \{-1\}$$

$$y = 0 \implies x = 1$$

$$x = 0 \implies y = -1$$

The function is not periodic.

$$\begin{aligned} f(-x) &\neq f(x) \\ &\neq -f(x) \end{aligned}$$

Therefore, the function is not symmetric.

$$f'(x) = \frac{(x-1)^2(x+5)}{(x+1)^3}$$

Therefore, $x = -5$ is a local maximum point.

The function is monotonically increasing in $(-\infty, -5) \cup (-1, +\infty)$ and is monotonically decreasing in $(-5, -1)$.

$$f''(x) = \frac{24(x-1)}{(x+1)^4}$$

Therefore, the function is convex upwards in $(-\infty, -1) \cup (-1, 1)$ and convex downwards in $(1, \infty)$.

$$\begin{aligned}\lim_{x \rightarrow -1^-} \frac{(x-1)^3}{(x+1)^2} &= \frac{-8}{+0} \\ &= -\infty \\ \lim_{x \rightarrow -1^+} \frac{(x-1)^3}{(x+1)^2} &= \frac{-8}{+0} \\ &= -\infty\end{aligned}$$

Therefore, $x = -1$ is a vertical asymptote of $f(x)$.

$$\begin{aligned}a_1 &= \lim_{x \rightarrow +\infty} \frac{f(x)}{x} = 1 \\ b_1 &= \lim_{x \rightarrow +\infty} (f(x) - a_1x) = -5 \\ a_2 &= \lim_{x \rightarrow -\infty} \frac{f(x)}{x} = 1 \\ b_2 &= \lim_{x \rightarrow -\infty} (f(x) - a_1x) = -5\end{aligned}$$

Therefore, $y = x - 5$ is an oblique asymptote of the function, at $+\infty$ and $-\infty$.

6 Integration

Definition 11 (Basic rational functions). A simple rational function of one of the following forms is called a basic rational function.

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{A}{x-\alpha} &; A, \alpha \in \mathbb{R} \\ \frac{A}{(x-\alpha)^n} &; A, \alpha \in \mathbb{R}, n \in \mathbb{N} - \{1\} \\ \frac{Ax+B}{x^2+px+q} &; A, B, p, q \in \mathbb{R}, p^2-4q < 0 \\ \frac{Ax+B}{x^2+px+q^n} &; A, B, p, q \in \mathbb{R}, p^2-4q < 0, n \in \mathbb{N} - \{1\} \\ A &= 1 \\ B &= 1 \\ C &= -1\end{aligned}$$

Example 2. Solve $\int \frac{-x+2}{x(x-1)^2} dx$.

Solution.

$$\begin{aligned}\int \frac{-x+2}{x(x-1)^2} dx &= \int \left(\frac{A_1}{x} + \frac{B_1}{x-1} + \frac{B_2}{(x-1)^2} \right) dx \\ \frac{-x+2}{x(x-1)^2} &= \frac{A_1(x-1)^2 + B_1(x-1) + B_2x}{x(x-1)^2} \\ &= \frac{x^2(A_1+B_1) + x(-2A_1-B_1+B_2) + A_1}{x(x-1)^2}\end{aligned}$$

Therefore,

$$\begin{aligned}A_1 + B_1 &= 0 \\ -2A_1 - B_1 + B_2 &= -1 \\ A_1 &= 2\end{aligned}$$

Therefore,

$$\begin{aligned}A_1 &= 2 \\ B_1 &= -2 \\ B_2 &= 1\end{aligned}$$

Therefore,

$$\begin{aligned}\int \frac{-x+2}{x(x-1)^2} dx &= \int \left(\frac{2}{x} + \frac{-2}{x-1} + \frac{1}{(x-1)^2} \right) dx \\ &= 2 \ln|x| - 2 \ln|x-1| - \frac{1}{x-1} + c\end{aligned}$$

$$= 2 \ln \left| \frac{x}{x-1} \right| - \frac{1}{x-1} + x$$

Example 3. Solve $\int \frac{2x^2-x+4}{x^3+4x} dx$.

Solution.

$$\begin{aligned}\int \frac{2x^2-x+4}{x^3+4x} dx &= \int \frac{2x^2-x+4}{x(x^2+4)} dx \\ &= \int \left(\frac{A}{x} + \frac{Bx+C}{x^2+4} \right) dx \\ \frac{2x^2-x+4}{x^3+4x} &= \frac{A(x^2+4) + (Bx+C)x}{x(x^2+4)} \\ &= \frac{x^2(A+B) + x(C) + 4A}{x(x^2+4)}\end{aligned}$$

Therefore,

$$\begin{aligned}A + B &= 2 \\ C &= -1 \\ 4A &= 4\end{aligned}$$

Therefore,

$$\begin{aligned}A &= 1 \\ B &= 1 \\ C &= -1\end{aligned}$$

Therefore,

$$\begin{aligned}\int \frac{2x^2-x+4}{x(x^2+4)} dx &= \int \left(\frac{1}{x} + \frac{x-1}{x^2+4} \right) dx \\ &= \ln|x| + \int \frac{x}{x^2+4} dx - \int \frac{1}{x^2+4} dx + d \\ &= \ln|x| + \frac{1}{2} \ln(x^2+4) - \frac{1}{2} \arctan\left(\frac{x}{2}\right) + d\end{aligned}$$

Theorem 8 (Integration by Parts).

$$\int uv \, dx = u \int v \, dx - \int u' \left(\int v \, dx \right) dx$$

Theorem 21 (The Fundamental Theorem of Line Integrals). Let C be a smooth curve in \mathbb{R}^2 or \mathbb{R}^3 given parametrically by $\vec{r}(t)$, $t: a \rightarrow b$. Let f be a continuous function of (x, y) or (x, y, z) respectively, on C and ∇f be a continuous vector function in a connected domain D which contains C . Then

$$\begin{aligned}W &= \int_C \nabla f \cdot \vec{T} \, ds \\ &= f(\vec{r}(b)) - f(\vec{r}(a)) \\ &= f(B) - f(A)\end{aligned}$$

Definition 19 (Simple curve). A curve C is called a simple curve if it does not intersect itself.

Definition 20 (Domain). A domain $D \subset \mathbb{R}^2$ is called connected if for any two points from D , there is a path C which connects the points and remains in D .

Definition 21 (Simple connected domain). A connected domain $D \subset \mathbb{R}^2$ is called simple connected if any simple closed curve from D contains inside itself only points in D .

Theorem 22. If

$$\vec{F}(x, y) = (P(x, y), Q(x, y)) = \nabla f(x, y)$$

is the conservative vector field in a connected domain D , where there exist first order partial derivatives of P and Q continuous in D , then

$$P_y(x, y) = Q_x(x, y) \quad \forall (x, y) \in D$$

Theorem 23. Let

$$\vec{F}(x, y) = (P(x, y), Q(x, y))$$

be a vector field in an open, simple connected domain D . If there exist first order partial derivatives of P and Q which are continuous in D , and

$$P_y(x, y) = Q_x(x, y) \quad \forall (x, y) \in D$$

Then, $\exists f(x, y)$ s.t.

$$\vec{F}(x, y) = \nabla f(x, y)$$

i.e. \vec{F} is a conservative vector field.

Example 10. If

$$\vec{F}(x, y) = (3 + 2xy, x^2 - 3y^2)$$

a conservative vector field? If yes, find $f(x, y)$, s.t.

$$\vec{F}(x, y) = \nabla f(x, y)$$

and find the work done by the force $\vec{F}(x, y)$ over the curve

$$\vec{r}(t) = (e^t \sin t, e^t \cos t) \quad t: 0 \rightarrow \pi$$

Solution.

$$\begin{aligned}P(x, y) &= 3 + 2xy \\ \therefore P_y &= 2x \\ Q(x, y) &= x^2 - 3y^2 \\ \therefore Q_x &= 2x \\ \therefore P_y &= Q_x\end{aligned}$$

Therefore, $\vec{F}(x, y)$ is a conservative vector field.

$$f_x = P$$

$$= 3 + 2xy$$

$$\therefore f = 3x + x^2y + c(y)$$

$$\therefore f_y = x^2 + c'(y)$$

Comparing with $f_y = Q$,

$$c'(y) = -3y^3$$

$$\therefore c(y) = -y^3 + c$$

$$\therefore f(x, y) = 3x + x^2y - y^3 + c$$

By the definition of work,

$$\begin{aligned}W &= \int_C \vec{F} \cdot \vec{T} \, ds \\ &= \int_a^b (P(\vec{r}(t))x'(t) + Q(\vec{r}(t))y'(t)) \, dt\end{aligned}$$

Alternatively, using The Fundamental Theorem of Line Integrals,

$$\begin{aligned}W &= \int_C \vec{F} \cdot \vec{T} \, ds \\ &= \int_C \nabla f \cdot \vec{T} \, ds \\ &= f(\vec{r}(\pi)) - f(\vec{r}(0)) \\ &= f(0, -e^\pi) - f(0, 1) \\ &= -(-e^\pi)^3 - (-1)^3 \\ &= e^{3\pi} + 1\end{aligned}$$

Theorem 24 (Green's Theorem). Let C be a piecewise smooth, simple, and closed curve in \mathbb{R}^2 with positive orientation. Let D be a domain bounded by C . If there exist continuous first order partial derivatives of $P(x, y)$ and $Q(x, y)$ in an open domain which contains D , then

$$W = \int_C \vec{F} \cdot \vec{T} \, ds = \int_C P \, dx + Q \, dy = \iint_D (Q_x - P_y) \, dA$$

Remark 1. Green's Theorem is also true for domains with holes.

Therefore,

$$\iiint_E x^2 + y^2 + z^2 \, dV = \int_0^a \int_0^{a-x} \int_0^{a-x-y} x^2 + y^2 + z^2 \, dz \, dy \, dx \quad \text{Definition 18 (Line integral of vector function).}$$

$$W = \int_C \vec{F} \cdot \hat{T} \, ds$$

Example 6. Calculate $\iiint_E x e^z \, dV$ where E is bounded by $z = x^2 + y^2$ and $z = 8 - x^2 - y^2$.

Solution. The two boundaries intersect at $x^2 + y^2 = 4$. Therefore the projection of the volume is the circle. Therefore,

$$\iiint_E x e^z \, dV = \int_{-2}^2 \int_{-\sqrt{4-x^2}}^{\sqrt{4-x^2}} \int_{x^2+y^2}^{8-x^2-y^2} x e^z \, dz \, dy \, dx$$

$$W = \int_C \vec{F} \cdot \hat{T} \, ds$$

10 Line Integrals of Scalar Functions

Definition 17 (Smooth curve). Let C be given parametrically as

$$\vec{r}(t) = (x(t), y(t)) \quad t : a \rightarrow b$$

The curve is said to be smooth if

$$\vec{r}'(t) = (x'(t), y'(t))$$

is a continuous function on $[a, b]$, $\vec{r}'(t) \neq \vec{0}$ on (a, b) and $\vec{r}'(t)$ is also continuous on (a, b) .

Theorem 20. If $f(x, y)$ is continuous and C is smooth, then

$$\int_C f(x, y) \, ds = \int_a^b \int f(x(t), y(t)) \sqrt{(x'(t))^2 + (y'(t))^2} \, dt$$

Example 7. Calculate $\int_C x^2 + y^2 \, ds$ where C is a circle of radius 2.

Solution.

$$\int_C x^2 + y^2 \, ds = \int_0^{2\pi} ((2 \cos t)^2 + (2 \sin t)^2) \cdot 2 \, dt = 16\pi$$

11 Line Integrals of Vector Functions

6.3 Volume of Solids of Rotation

Theorem 9 (Fundamental Theorem of Calculus, Part 1). Let $f(x)$ be continuous on (a, b) and let $c \in (a, b)$.

Then, the function $F(x) = \int_c^x f(t) \, dt$ is an anti-derivative function of $f(x)$ on (a, b) , i.e.

$$F'(x) = f(x) \quad ; \quad \forall x \in (a, b)$$

Theorem 10 (Fundamental Theorem of Calculus, Part 2). Let $f(x)$ be continuous on $[a, b]$ and let $G(x)$ be an arbitrary anti-derivative function of $f(x)$. Then,

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

6.1 Common Integrals

$$\int k \, dx = kx + c$$

$$\int x^n \, dx = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{n+1} x^{n+1} + c & ; \quad n \neq -1 \\ \ln|x| + c & ; \quad n = -1 \end{cases}$$

$$\int \frac{1}{ax+b} \, dx = \frac{1}{a} \ln|ax+b| + c$$

$$\int \ln x \, dx = x \ln x - x + c$$

$$\int e^x \, dx = e^x + c$$

$$\int \cos x \, dx = \sin x + c$$

$$\int \sin x \, dx = -\cos x + c$$

$$\int \sec^2 x \, dx = \tan x + c$$

$$\int \csc^2 x \, dx = -\cot x + c$$

$$\int \sec x \tan x \, dx = \sec x + c$$

$$\int \csc x \cot x \, dx = -\csc x + c$$

$$\int \tan x \, dx = \ln|\sec x| + c$$

$$\int \sec x \, dx = \ln|\sec x + \tan x| + c$$

$$\int \frac{1}{a^2 + x^2} \, dx = \frac{1}{a} \tan^{-1} \frac{x}{a} + c$$

$$\int \frac{1}{\sqrt{a^2 - x^2}} \, dx = \sin^{-1} \frac{x}{a} + c$$

6.2 Length of a Curve

$$l = \int_a^b \sqrt{1 + (f'(x))^2} \, dx$$

1. if $\int_a^{+\infty} f(x) dx$ converges, then $\int_a^{+\infty} g(x) dx$ converges.
2. if $\int_a^{+\infty} g(x) dx$ diverges, then $\int_a^{+\infty} f(x) dx$ diverges.

Theorem 12 (Second comparison test). Assume $f(x) \geq g(x) \geq 0, \forall x \in (a, b)$. Assume that f, g are not bounded in a neighbourhood of b but integrable on intervals of the type $[a, t]$ for $a < t < b$. Assume that

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow b^-} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} = l > 0$$

Then,

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

and

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

converge or diverge simultaneously.

7 Multi-variable Functions

Theorem 13 (Existence of limits). Let $\exists g(r, \theta)$, s.t. $f(x, y) = g(r, \theta)$. Then, if it exists,

$$\lim_{(x,y) \rightarrow (a,0)} f(x, y) = \lim_{r \rightarrow 0} g(r, \theta)$$

Definition 12 (Critical point). If both of $f_x(a, b)$ and $f_y(a, b)$ are zero, or if at least one of them does not exist, then (a, b) is said to be a critical point.

Theorem 14 (A necessary condition for local extrema existence). If the function $z = f(x, y)$ has a local extrema at the point (a, b) and $\exists f_x(a, b)$ and $\exists f_y(a, b)$ then $f_x(a, b) = f_y(a, b) = 0$

Theorem 15 (A sufficient condition for local extrema point). Assume that there exist second order partial derivatives of $z = f(x, y)$, they are continuous on some open neighbourhood of (a, b) and $f_x(a, b) = f_y(a, b) = 0$. Denote

$$D(a, b) = f_{xx}(a, b)f_{yy}(a, b) - (f_{xy}(a, b))^2$$

1. If $D(a, b) > 0$ and $f_{xx} < 0$ then (a, b) is a local maximum point.
2. If $D(a, b) > 0$ and $f_{xx} > 0$ then (a, b) is a local minimum point.
3. If $D(a, b) < 0$ then (a, b) is called a saddle point.

Example 4. Find all critical points of $z = f(x, y) = x^4 + y^4 - 4xy + 1$ and classify them.

Solution.

$$f_x(x, y) = 4x^3 - 4y$$

$$f_y(x, y) = 4y^3 - 4x$$

For critical points,

$$f_x(x, y) = 0$$

$$f_y(x, y) = 0$$

Solving, $(0, 0)$, $(1, 1)$, $(-1, -1)$ are critical points.

$$f_{xx}(x, y) = 12x^2$$

$$f_{xy}(x, y) = -4$$

$$f_{yy}(x, y) = 12y^2$$

$$\therefore D(x, y) = 144x^2y^2 - 16$$

For $(0, 0)$,

$$D = -16$$

Therefore, $(0, 0)$ is a saddle point.

For $(1, 1)$,

$$D = 144 - 16$$

Therefore, $(1, 1)$ is a local minimum point.

For $(-1, -1)$,

$$D = 144 - 16$$

Therefore, $(-1, -1)$ is a local minimum point.

Definition 13 (Gradient).

$$\nabla f(x, y, z) = (f_x(x, y, z), f_y(x, y, z), f_z(x, y, z)) \neq 0$$

Theorem 16. If $F(x, y, z)$ is differentiable at some point $P_0(x_0, y_0, z_0)$ on the surface, then the tangent plane α to the surface at the point can be calculated by the formula

$$F_x(P_0)(x - x_0) + F_y(P_0)(y - y_0) + F_z(P_0)(z - z_0) = 0$$

7.1 Lagrange Multipliers

To find the extrema of $f(x, y, z)$ subject to the constraint $g(x, y, z) = k$, solve

$$\nabla f(x, y, z) = \lambda \nabla g(x, y, z)$$

$$g(x, y, z) = k$$

8 Double Integrals

Theorem 17 (Area of a surface). If $f_x(x, y)$ and $f_y(x, y)$ are continuous in D , then the area of the surface $\sigma : z = f(x, y)$ above D is equal to

$$S(\sigma) = \iint_D \sqrt{1 + (f_x(x, y))^2 + (f_y(x, y))^2} dA$$

Definition 14 (Centre of mass). If $\rho(x, y)$ is the density function of a thin body,

$$m = \iint_D \rho(x, y) dA$$

$$(x_{\text{COM}}, y_{\text{COM}}) = \left(\frac{M_y}{m}, \frac{M_x}{m} \right)$$

where

$$M_x = \iint_D y\rho(x, y) dA$$

$$M_y = \iint_D x\rho(x, y) dA$$

Definition 15 (Domain of the first kind). A domain D is said to be the domain of the first kind if there exist continuous functions $f_1(x)$ and $f_2(x)$, s.t.

$$D_1 = \{(x, y) | a \leq x \leq b, f_1(x) \leq y \leq f_2(x)\}$$

Theorem 18. If $f(x, y)$ is continuous in D_1 , then

$$\iint_R f(x, y) dA = \int_a^b \int_{f_1(x)}^{f_2(x)} f(x, y) dy dx$$

Definition 16 (Domain of the second kind). A domain D is said to be the domain of the second kind if there exist continuous functions $g_1(y)$ and $g_2(y)$, s.t.

$$D_{II} = \{(x, y) | c \leq y \leq d, g_1(y) \leq x \leq g_2(y)\}$$

Theorem 19. If $f(x, y)$ is continuous in D_{II} , then

$$\iint_R f(x, y) dA = \int_c^d \int_{g_1(y)}^{g_2(y)} f(x, y) dx dy$$

9 Triple Integrals

Example 5. Find $\iiint_E x^2 + y^2 + z^2 dV$ where E is bounded by $x = 0, y = 0, z = 0$ and $x + y + z = a, a > 0$.

Solution.

