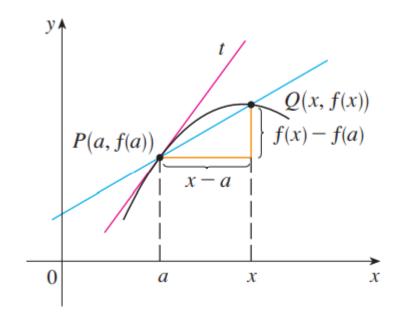
# Fundamental math

Calculus

# Derivative

# Slope and polynomial



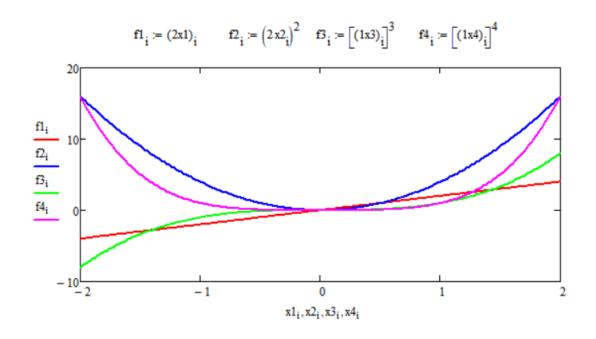
#### FIGURE 6

The secant line PQ

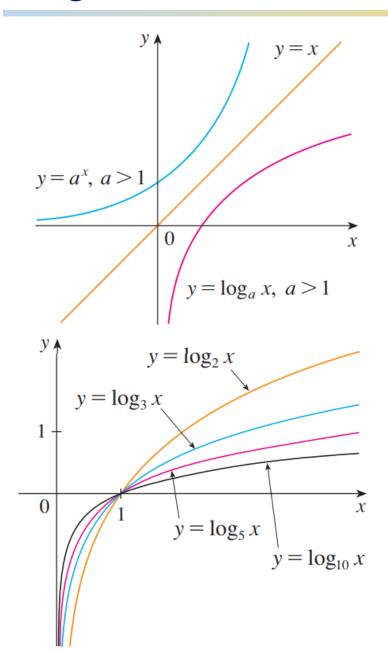
$$m_{PQ} = \frac{f(x) - f(a)}{x - a}$$

$$m=\lim_{Q\to P}\,m_{PQ}$$

$$m = \lim_{x \to a} \frac{f(x) - f(a)}{x - a}$$



# Logarithms



$$\log_a (a^x) = x \text{ for every } x \in R$$
$$a^{\log_a x} = x \text{ for every } x > 0$$

Laws of Logarithms
$$\log_a (xy) = \log_a x + \log_a y$$

$$\log_a \left(\frac{x}{y}\right) = \log_a x - \log_a y$$

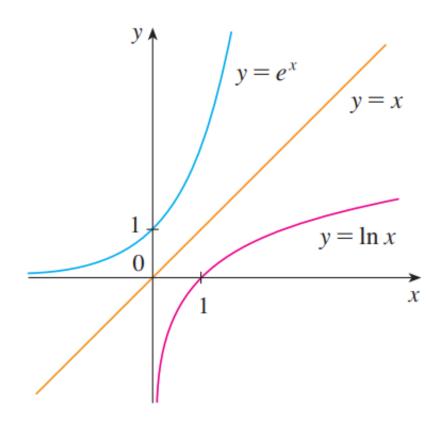
$$\log_a (x^r) = r \log_a x$$

# Example

**EXAMPLE 6** Use the laws of logarithms to evaluate  $\log_2 80 - \log_2 5$ .

SOLUTION 
$$\log_2 80 - \log_2 5 = \log_2 \left(\frac{80}{5}\right) = \log_2 16 = 4$$

# Natural logarithms



$$\log_e x = \ln x$$

$$\ln x = y \iff e^y = x$$

$$\ln (e^x) = x \ x \in R$$

$$e^{\ln x} = x \ x > 0$$

$$\ln e = 1$$

Solve the equation  $e^{5-3x} = 10$ .

## SOLUTION

$$\ln(e^{5-3x}) = \ln 10$$

$$5 - 3x = \ln 10$$

$$3x = 5 - \ln 10$$

$$x = \frac{1}{3}(5 - \ln 10)$$

Express  $\ln a + \frac{1}{2} \ln b$  as a single logarithm.

## SOLUTION

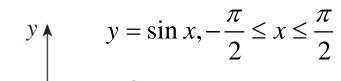
$$\ln a + \frac{1}{2} \ln b = \ln a + \ln b^{1/2}$$

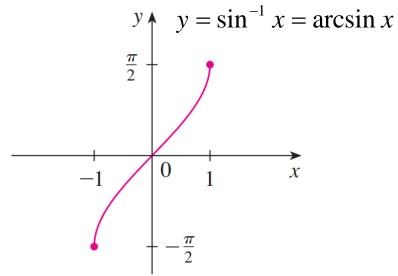
$$= \ln a + \ln \sqrt{b}$$

$$= \ln(a\sqrt{b})$$

# Inverse function

$$\sin^{-1} x = y \Leftrightarrow \sin y = x \text{ and } -\frac{\pi}{2} \le y \le \frac{\pi}{2}$$

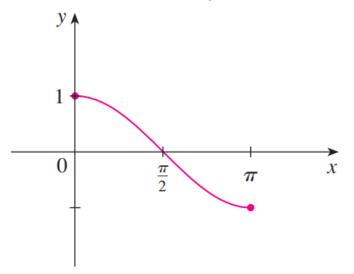


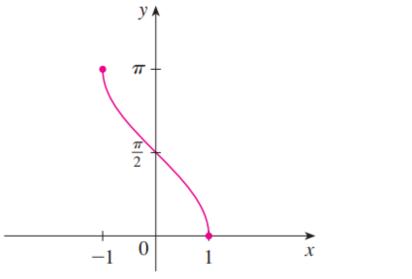


$$\cos^{-1} x = y \Leftrightarrow \cos y = x \text{ and } 0 \le y \le \pi$$

$$y = \cos x, 0 \le x \le \pi$$

$$y = \cos^{-1} x = \arccos x$$

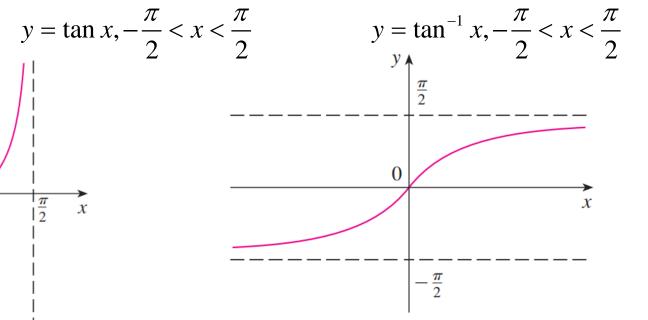




# Inverse function

$$\tan^{-1} x = y \Leftrightarrow \tan y = x \text{ and } -\frac{\pi}{2} < y < \frac{\pi}{2}$$

$$\begin{array}{c|c}
y - \tan x \\
\hline
-\frac{\pi}{2} & 0 & \frac{\pi}{2} & x \\
\hline
\end{array}$$



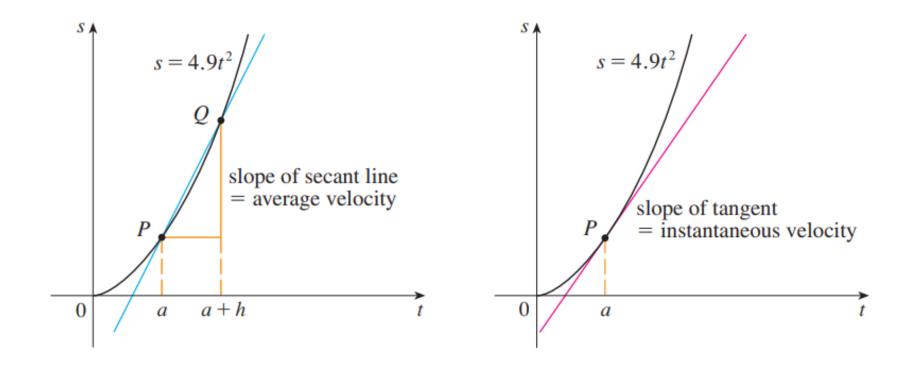
# Rarely used And summary here

$$y = \csc^{-1} x (|x| \ge 1) \Leftrightarrow \csc y = x \text{ and } y \in \left[0, \frac{\pi}{2}\right] \cup \left[\pi, \frac{3\pi}{2}\right]$$

$$y = \sec^{-1} x (|x| \ge 1) \Leftrightarrow \sec y = x \text{ and } y \in \left[0, \frac{\pi}{2}\right] \cup \left[\pi, \frac{3\pi}{2}\right]$$

$$y = \cot^{-1} x (x \in R) \Leftrightarrow \cot y = x \text{ and } y \in \left[0, \pi\right]$$

# Average and instantaneous



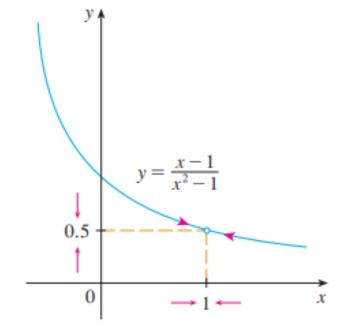
Guess the value of  $\lim_{x\to 1} \frac{x-1}{x^2-1}$ .

SOLUTION Notice that the function  $f(x) = (x - 1)/(x^2 - 1)$  is not defined when x = 1, but that doesn't matter because the definition of  $\lim_{x\to a} f(x)$  says that we consider values of x that are close to a but not equal to a.

<i>x</i> < 1	f(x)
0.5	0.666667 0.526316
0.99 0.999 0.9999	0.502513 0.500250 0.500025

x > 1	f(x)
1.5 1.1 1.01 1.001	0.400000 0.476190 0.497512 0.499750
1.0001	0.499975

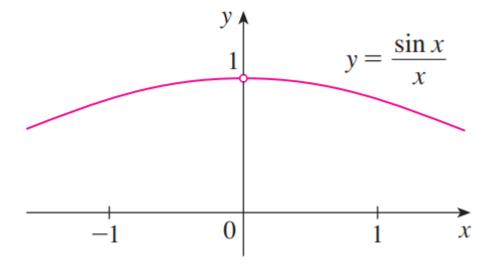
According to Table:  $\lim_{x \to 1} \frac{x-1}{x^2 - 1} = 0.5$ 



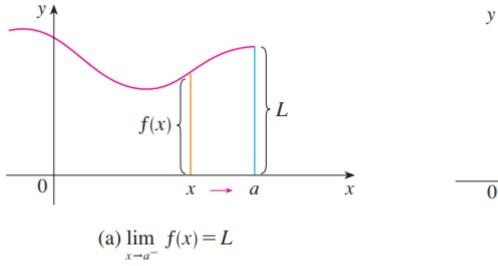
Guess the value of  $\lim_{x\to 0} \frac{\sin x}{x}$ .

x	$\frac{\sin x}{x}$
±1.0	0.84147098
±0.5	0.95885108
±0.4	0.97354586
±0.3	0.98506736
±0.2	0.99334665
±0.1	0.99833417
±0.05	0.99958339
±0.01	0.99998333
±0.005	0.99999583
±0.001	0.99999983

$$\lim_{x \to 0} \frac{\sin x}{x} = 1$$



# Left hand limit and Right hand limit



$$L \begin{cases} f(x) \\ \hline 0 \\ \hline a \leftarrow x \\ \end{cases}$$

$$(b) \lim_{x \to a^{+}} f(x) = L$$

$$\lim_{x \to a} f(x) = L \text{ if and only if } \lim_{x \to a^{-}} f(x) = L \text{ and } \lim_{x \to a^{+}} f(x) = L$$

**EXAMPLE 7** The graph of a function g is shown in Figure 10. Use it to state the values (if they exist) of the following:

(a) 
$$\lim_{x \to 2^{-}} g(x)$$

(b) 
$$\lim_{x \to 2^+} g(x)$$

(c) 
$$\lim_{x\to 2} g(x)$$

(d) 
$$\lim_{x\to 5^-} g(x)$$

(e) 
$$\lim_{x \to 5^+} g(x)$$

(f) 
$$\lim_{x\to 5} g(x)$$

## SOLUTION

(a) 
$$\lim_{x \to 2^{-}} g(x) = 3$$

and

(b) 
$$\lim_{x \to 2^+} g(x) = 1$$

(d) 
$$\lim_{x \to 5^{-}} g(x) = 2$$

and

(e) 
$$\lim_{x \to 5^+} g(x) = 2$$

$$\lim_{x\to 5}g(x)=2$$

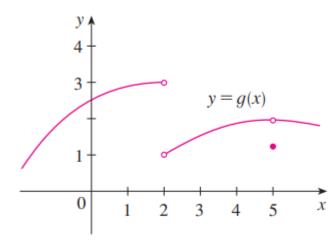


FIGURE 10

## The limit law

Suppose that c is a constant and the limits

$$\lim_{x \to a} f(x)$$
 and  $\lim_{x \to a} g(x)$  exist. Then

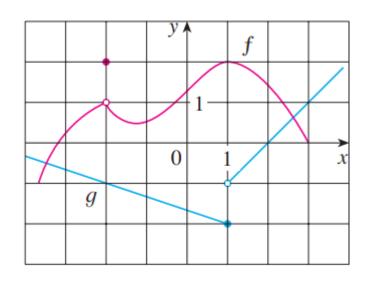
1. 
$$\lim_{x \to a} \left[ f(x) + g(x) \right] = \lim_{x \to a} f(x) + \lim_{x \to a} g(x)$$

2. 
$$\lim_{x \to a} \left[ f(x) - g(x) \right] = \lim_{x \to a} f(x) - \lim_{x \to a} g(x)$$

$$3.\lim_{x\to a} \left[ cf(x) \right] = c\lim_{x\to a} f(x)$$

$$4.\lim_{x\to a} \left[ f(x)g(x) \right] = \lim_{x\to a} f(x) \cdot \lim_{x\to a} g(x)$$

$$5.\lim_{x\to a} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} = \frac{\lim_{x\to a} f(x)}{\lim_{x\to a} g(x)} if \lim_{x\to a} g(x) \neq 0$$



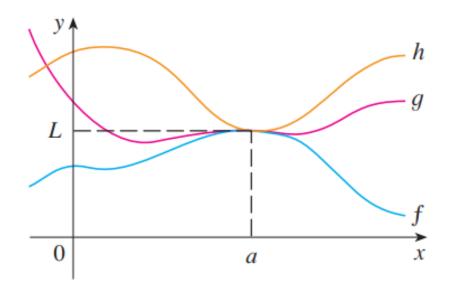
#### SOLUTION

$$\lim_{x \to -2} \left[ f(x) + 5g(x) \right]$$

$$\lim_{x \to -2} f(x) = 1$$
 and  $\lim_{x \to -2} g(x) = -1$ 

$$\lim_{x \to -2} [f(x) + 5g(x)] = \lim_{x \to -2} f(x) + \lim_{x \to -2} [5g(x)]$$
 (by Law 1)
$$= \lim_{x \to -2} f(x) + 5 \lim_{x \to -2} g(x)$$
 (by Law 3)
$$= 1 + 5(-1) = -4$$

# The squeeze theorem(Sandwich Theorem)



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

when x is near a (except possibly at a) and

$$\lim_{x \to a} f(x) = \lim_{x \to a} h(x) = L$$
$$\lim_{x \to a} g(x) = L$$

## SOLUTION

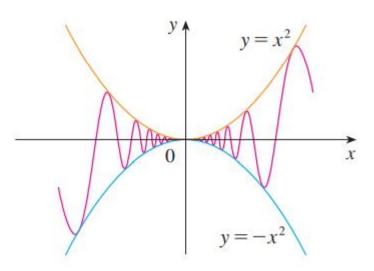


FIGURE 8  $y = x^2 \sin(1/x)$ 

# Show that $\lim_{x\to 0} x^2 \sin \frac{1}{x} = 0$ .

We cannot use: 
$$\lim_{x\to 0} x^2 \sin \frac{1}{x} = \lim_{x\to 0} x^2 \cdot \lim_{x\to 0} \sin \frac{1}{x}$$

but 
$$-1 \le \sin \frac{1}{x} \le 1 \Rightarrow -x^2 \le x^2 \sin \frac{1}{x} \le x^2$$

We know that 
$$\lim_{x\to 0} x^2 = 0$$
 and  $\lim_{x\to 0} -x^2 = 0$ 

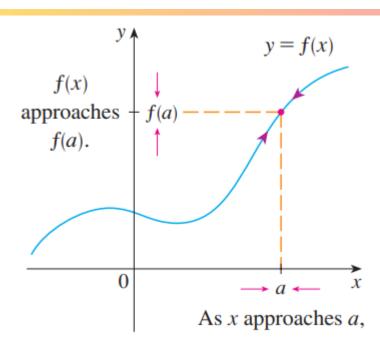
Taking 
$$f(x) = -x^2$$
,  $g(x) = x^2 \sin \frac{1}{x}$ ,  $h(x) = x^2$  then

$$\lim_{x \to 0} x^2 \sin \frac{1}{x} = 0$$

# Continuity

A function f is **continuous at a number** a if

$$\lim_{x \to a} f(x) = f(a)$$



Notice that Definition 1 implicitly requires three things if f is continuous at a:

- **I.** f(a) is defined (that is, a is in the domain of f)
- 2.  $\lim_{x \to a} f(x)$  exists
- **3.**  $\lim_{x \to a} f(x) = f(a)$

**EXAMPLE 1** Figure 2 shows the graph of a function f. At which numbers is f discontinuous? Why?

## SOLUTION

f(1) is not defined.

f(3) is defined, but  $\lim_{x\to 3} f(x)$  does not exist

f(5) is defined and  $\lim_{x\to 5} f(x)$  exists

$$\lim_{x \to 5} f(x) \neq f(5)$$

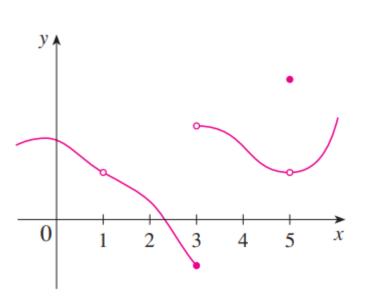


FIGURE 2

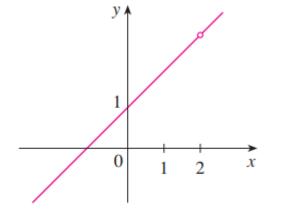
Where are each of the following functions discontinuous?

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

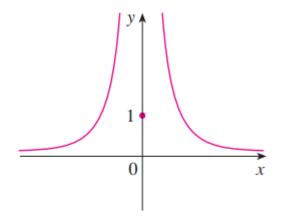
(b) 
$$f(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{x^2} & \text{if } x \neq 0\\ 1 & \text{if } x = 0 \end{cases}$$

(a) 
$$f(x) = \frac{x^2 - x - 2}{x - 2}$$
 (b)  $f(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{x^2} & \text{if } x \neq 0 \\ 1 & \text{if } x = 0 \end{cases}$  (c)  $f(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{x^2 - x - 2}{x - 2} & \text{if } x \neq 2 \\ 1 & \text{if } x = 2 \end{cases}$  (d)  $f(x) = [x]$ 

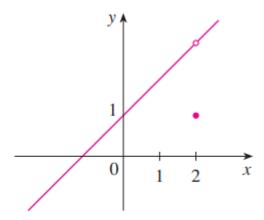
(d) 
$$f(x) = [x]$$



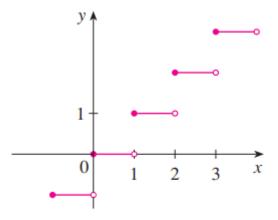
(a) 
$$f(x) = \frac{x^2 - x - 2}{x - 2}$$



(b) 
$$f(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{x^2} & \text{if } x \neq 0\\ 1 & \text{if } x = 0 \end{cases}$$



(c) 
$$f(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{x^2 - x - 2}{x - 2} & \text{if } x \neq 2\\ 1 & \text{if } x = 2 \end{cases}$$



(d) 
$$f(x) = [x]$$

# Types of functions are continuous

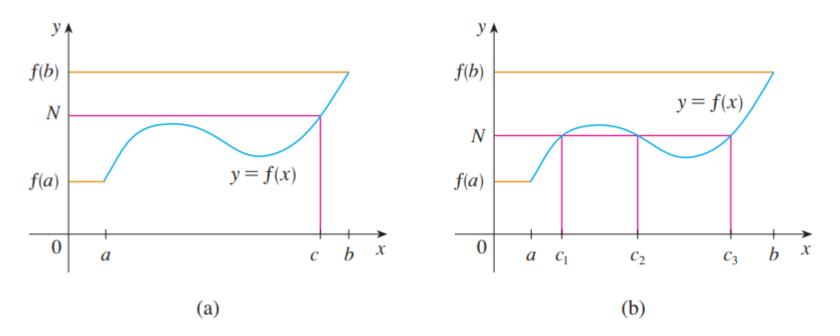
polynomials rational functions root functions

trigonometric functions inverse trigonometric functions

exponential functions logarithmic functions

## THE INTERMEDIATE VALUE THEOREM

**THE INTERMEDIATE VALUE THEOREM** Suppose that f is continuous on the closed interval [a, b] and let N be any number between f(a) and f(b), where  $f(a) \neq f(b)$ . Then there exists a number c in (a, b) such that f(c) = N.



The intermediate value theorem is not true in general for discontinuous functions

**EXAMPLE 10** Show that there is a root of the equation

$$4x^3 - 6x^2 + 3x - 2 = 0$$

between 1 and 2.

$$f(1) = 4 - 6 + 3 - 2 = -1 < 0$$

$$f(2) = 32 - 24 + 6 - 2 = 12 > 0$$

In fact, we can locate a root more precisely by using the Intermediate Value Theorem again. Since

$$f(1.2) = -0.128 < 0$$
 and  $f(1.3) = 0.548 > 0$ 

a root must lie between 1.2 and 1.3. A calculator gives, by trial and error,

$$f(1.22) = -0.007008 < 0$$
 and  $f(1.23) = 0.056068 > 0$ 

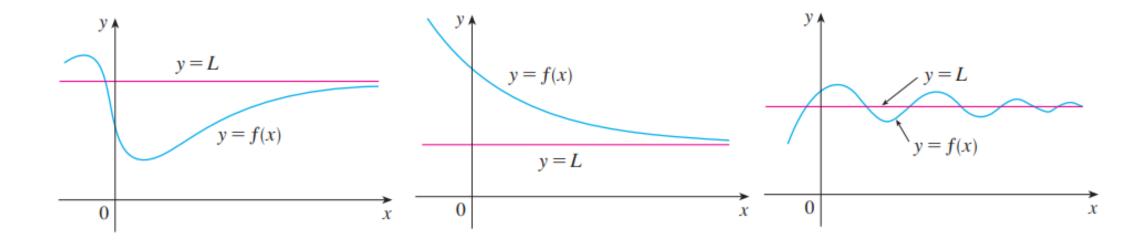
so a root lies in the interval (1.22, 1.23).

## LIMITS AT INFINITY

**I DEFINITION** Let f be a function defined on some interval  $(a, \infty)$ . Then

$$\lim_{x \to \infty} f(x) = L$$

means that the values of f(x) can be made arbitrarily close to L by taking x sufficiently large.

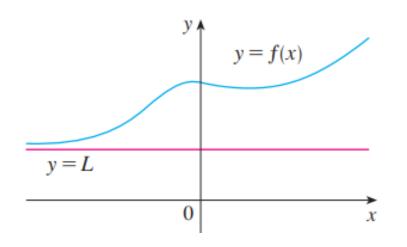


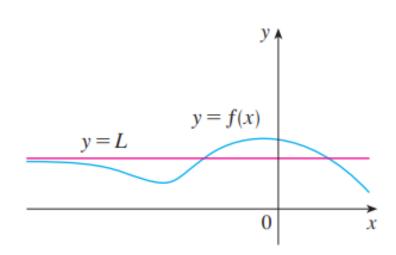
# LIMITS AT INFINITY

**DEFINITION** Let f be a function defined on some interval  $(-\infty, a)$ . Then

$$\lim_{x \to -\infty} f(x) = L$$

means that the values of f(x) can be made arbitrarily close to L by taking x sufficiently large negative.





Find the horizontal and vertical asymptotes of the graph of the function

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

#### SOLUTION

$$\lim_{x \to \infty} \frac{\sqrt{2x^2 + 1}}{3x - 5} = \lim_{x \to \infty} \frac{\sqrt{2 + \frac{1}{x^2}}}{3 - \frac{5}{x}} \qquad (\text{since } \sqrt{x^2} = x \text{ for } x > 0)$$

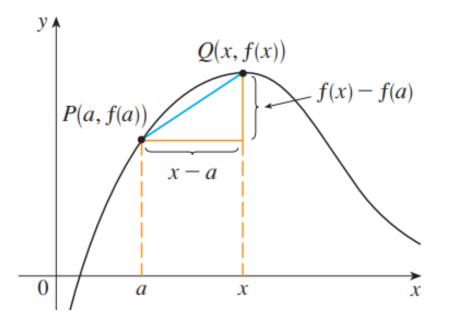
$$= \frac{\lim_{x \to \infty} \sqrt{2 + \frac{1}{x^2}}}{\lim_{x \to \infty} \left(3 - \frac{5}{x}\right)} = \frac{\sqrt{\lim_{x \to \infty} 2 + \lim_{x \to \infty} \frac{1}{x^2}}}{\lim_{x \to \infty} 3 - 5 \lim_{x \to \infty} \frac{1}{x}} = \frac{\sqrt{2 + 0}}{3 - 5 \cdot 0} = \frac{\sqrt{2}}{3}$$

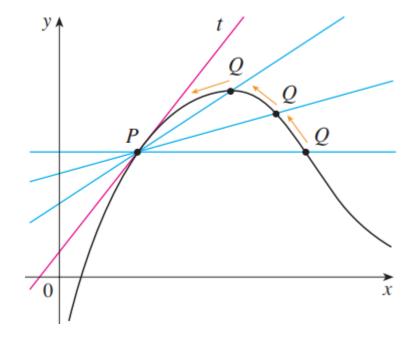
# **TANGENTS**

**DEFINITION** The **tangent line** to the curve y = f(x) at the point P(a, f(a)) is the line through P with slope

$$m = \lim_{x \to a} \frac{f(x) - f(a)}{x - a}$$

provided that this limit exists.





**EXAMPLE** 1 Find an equation of the tangent line to the parabola  $y = x^2$  at the point P(1, 1).

### SOLUTION

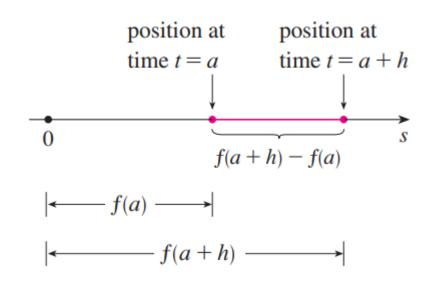
Here we have a = 1 and  $f(x) = x^2$ , so the slope is

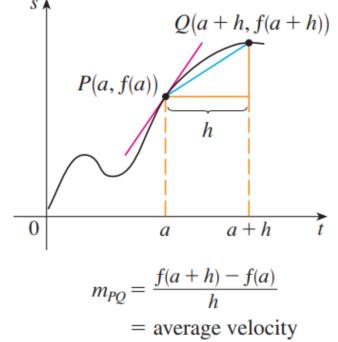
$$m = \lim_{x \to 1} \frac{f(x) - f(1)}{x - 1} = \lim_{x \to 1} \frac{x^2 - 1}{x - 1}$$
$$= \lim_{x \to 1} \frac{(x - 1)(x + 1)}{x - 1}$$
$$= \lim_{x \to 1} (x + 1) = 1 + 1 = 2$$

## **VELOCITIES**

Average velocity = 
$$\frac{displacement}{time} = \frac{f(a+h) - f(a)}{h}$$

Instantaneous velocity:
$$v(a) = \lim_{h \to 0} \frac{f(a+h) - f(a)}{h}$$





■ EXAMPLE 3 Suppose that a ball is dropped from the upper observation deck of the CN Tower, 450 m above the ground.

- (a) What is the velocity of the ball after 5 seconds?
- (b) How fast is the ball traveling when it hits the ground?

SOLUTION 
$$v(a) = \lim_{h \to 0} \frac{f(a+h) - f(a)}{h} = \lim_{h \to 0} \frac{4.9(a+h)^2 - 4.9a^2}{h}$$
$$= \lim_{h \to 0} \frac{4.9(a^2 + 2ah + h^2 - a^2)}{h} = \lim_{h \to 0} \frac{4.9(2ah + h^2)}{h}$$
$$= \lim_{h \to 0} 4.9(2a+h) = 9.8a$$

- (a) The velocity after 5 s is v(5) = (9.8)(5) = 49 m/s.
- (b) Since the observation deck is 450 m above the ground, the ball will hit the ground at the time  $t_1$  when  $s(t_1) = 450$ , that is,

$$4.9t_1^2 = 450 \implies t_1 = \sqrt{\frac{450}{4.9}} \approx 9.6 \text{ s}$$
  $v(t_1) = 9.8t_1 = 9.8 \sqrt{\frac{450}{4.9}} \approx 94 \text{ m/s}$ 

## **DERIVATIVES**

**4 DEFINITION** The **derivative of a function** f **at a number** a, denoted by f'(a), is

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

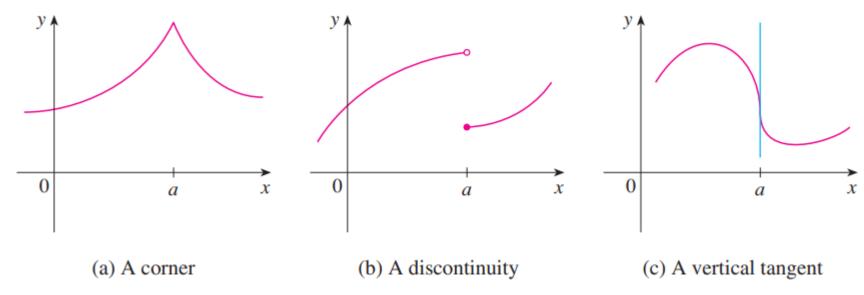
if this limit exists.

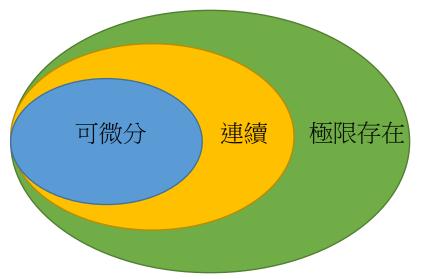
Find the derivative of the function  $f(x) = x^2 - 8x + 9$  at the number a.

## SOLUTION

$$f(x)'|_a = (x^2 - 8x + 9)'|_a = 2x - 8|_a = 2a - 8$$

## HOW CAN A FUNCTION FAIL TO BE DIFFERENTIABLE?





## DIFFERENTIATION RULES

$$\frac{d}{dx}(c) = 0$$

$$\frac{d}{dx}(x) = 1$$

$$\frac{d}{dx}(x^n) = nx^{n-1}$$

$$\frac{d}{dx}(e^x) = e^x$$

$$\frac{d}{dx}[f(x)g(x)] = f(x)\frac{d}{dx}[g(x)] + g(x)\frac{d}{dx}[f(x)] \text{ (Product rule)}$$

$$\frac{d}{dx}\left[\frac{f(x)}{g(x)}\right] = \frac{g(x)\frac{d}{dx}[f(x)] - f(x)\frac{d}{dx}[g(x)]}{[g(x)]^2} \text{ (Quotient rule)}$$

**Hint:** 
$$\frac{d}{dx}(x^n) = nx^{n-1}$$

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

(b) 
$$y = \sqrt[3]{x^2}$$

## Hint:

$$\frac{d}{dx}(e^x) = e^x$$

$$y = ae^v + \frac{b}{v} + \frac{c}{v^2}$$

# THE PRODUCT RULE/THE QUOTIENT RULE

**THE PRODUCT RULE** If f and g are both differentiable, then

$$\frac{d}{dx}[f(x)g(x)] = f(x)\frac{d}{dx}[g(x)] + g(x)\frac{d}{dx}[f(x)]$$

(a) If 
$$f(x) = xe^x$$
, find  $f'(x)$ .

THE QUOTIENT RULE If f and g are differentiable, then

$$\frac{d}{dx} \left[ \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} \right] = \frac{g(x) \frac{d}{dx} [f(x)] - f(x) \frac{d}{dx} [g(x)]}{[g(x)]^2}$$

Let 
$$y = \frac{x^2 + x - 2}{x^3 + 6}$$
 then  $y' = ?$ 

Let's try to confirm our guess that if  $f(x) = \sin x$ , then  $f'(x) = \cos x$ . From the definition of a derivative, we have

$$f'(x) = \sin(x)$$

$$f'(x) = \lim_{h \to 0} \frac{f(x+h) - f(x)}{h} = \lim_{h \to 0} \frac{\sin(x+h) - \sin(x)}{h}$$

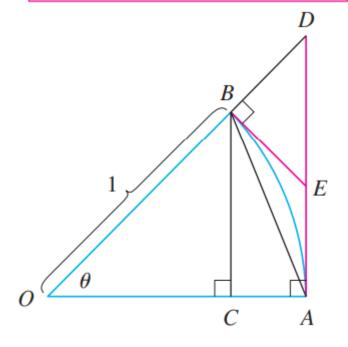
$$= \lim_{h \to 0} \left[ \frac{\sin x \cos(h) - \sin x}{h} + \frac{\cos(x) \sin(h)}{h} \right]$$

$$= \lim_{h \to 0} \left[ \sin x \left( \frac{\cos(h) - 1}{h} \right) + \cos x \left( \frac{\sin(h)}{h} \right) \right]$$

$$= \lim_{h \to 0} \sin x \cdot \lim_{h \to 0} \frac{\cos(h) - 1}{h} + \lim_{h \to 0} \cos x \cdot \lim_{h \to 0} \frac{\sin(h)}{h}$$

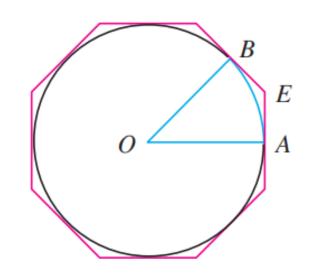
$$= \lim_{h \to 0} \sin x \cdot \frac{\sin(h) - 1}{h}$$

$$\lim_{\theta \to 0} \frac{\sin \, \theta}{\theta} = 1$$



$$|BC| < |AB| < \operatorname{arc} AB$$

$$\sin \theta < \theta$$
 so  $\frac{\sin \theta}{\theta} < 1$ 



Expression 
$$\theta < \frac{\sin \theta}{\cos \theta}$$

$$\cos \theta < \frac{\sin \theta}{\theta} < 1$$

We know that  $\lim_{\theta\to 0} 1 = 1$  and  $\lim_{\theta\to 0} \cos\theta = 1$ , so by the Squeeze Theorem

$$\lim_{\theta \to 0^+} \frac{\sin \theta}{\theta} = 1 \qquad \text{Even function} \qquad \lim_{\theta \to 0} \frac{\sin \theta}{\theta} = 1$$

$$\theta = \operatorname{arc} AB < |AE| + |EB|$$

$$< |AE| + |ED|$$

$$= |AD| = |OA| \tan \theta$$

$$= \tan \theta$$

$$\lim_{\theta \to 0} \frac{\cos \theta - 1}{\theta}$$

$$\lim_{\theta \to 0} \frac{\cos \theta - 1}{\theta} = \lim_{\theta \to 0} \left( \frac{\cos \theta - 1}{\theta} \cdot \frac{\cos \theta + 1}{\cos \theta + 1} \right) = \lim_{\theta \to 0} \frac{\cos^2 \theta - 1}{\theta (\cos \theta + 1)}$$

$$= \lim_{\theta \to 0} \frac{-\sin^2 \theta}{\theta (\cos \theta + 1)} = -\lim_{\theta \to 0} \left( \frac{\sin \theta}{\theta} \cdot \frac{\sin \theta}{\cos \theta + 1} \right)$$

$$= -\lim_{\theta \to 0} \frac{\sin \theta}{\theta} \cdot \lim_{\theta \to 0} \frac{\sin \theta}{\cos \theta + 1}$$

$$= -1 \cdot \left( \frac{0}{1+1} \right) = 0$$

$$f'(x) = \lim_{h \to 0} \sin x \cdot \lim_{h \to 0} \frac{\cos h - 1}{h} + \lim_{h \to 0} \cos x \cdot \lim_{h \to 0} \frac{\sin h}{h}$$
$$= (\sin x) \cdot 0 + (\cos x) \cdot 1 = \cos x$$

### **EXAMPLE**

Differentiate  $y = x^2 \sin x$ .

**Hint:** Product Rule

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = x^2 \frac{d}{dx} (\sin x) + \sin x \frac{d}{dx} (x^2)$$
$$= x^2 \cos x + 2x \sin x$$

## **DERIVATIVES OF TRIGONOMETRIC FUNCTIONS**

$$\frac{d}{dx}(\sin x) = \cos x \qquad \qquad \frac{d}{dx}(\csc x) = -\csc x \cot x$$

$$\frac{d}{dx}(\cos x) = -\sin x \qquad \qquad \frac{d}{dx}(\sec x) = \sec x \tan x$$

$$\frac{d}{dx}(\tan x) = \sec^2 x \qquad \qquad \frac{d}{dx}(\cot x) = -\csc^2 x$$

## EXAMPLE

Differentiate  $f(x) = \frac{\sec x}{1 + \tan x}$ . For what values of x does the graph of f have a horizontal tangent?

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

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

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

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

# THE CHAIN RULE

**THE CHAIN RULE** If g is differentiable at x and f is differentiable at g(x), then the composite function  $F = f \circ g$  defined by F(x) = f(g(x)) is differentiable at x and F' is given by the product

$$F'(x) = f'(g(x)) \cdot g'(x)$$

In Leibniz notation, if y = f(u) and u = g(x) are both differentiable functions, then

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{dy}{du} \frac{du}{dx}$$

### **EXAMPLE**

Find 
$$F'(x)$$
 if  $F(x) = \sqrt{x^2 + 1}$ .

## THE POWER RULE COMBINED WITH THE CHAIN RULE

4 THE POWER RULE COMBINED WITH THE CHAIN RULE If n is any real number and u = g(x) is differentiable, then

$$\frac{d}{dx}\left(u^{n}\right) = nu^{n-1}\frac{du}{dx}$$

Alternatively,

$$\frac{d}{dx} [g(x)]^n = n[g(x)]^{n-1} \cdot g'(x)$$

## **EXAMPLE**

Differentiate  $y = (x^3 - 1)^{100}$ .

# EXAMPLE

## **Proof:**

$$\frac{d}{dx}\left(a^{x}\right) = a^{x} \ln a$$

$$a^x = (e^{\ln a})^x = e^{(\ln a)x}$$

$$\frac{d}{dx}(a^x) = \frac{d}{dx}(e^{(\ln a)x}) = e^{(\ln a)x}\frac{d}{dx}(\ln a)x$$
$$= e^{(\ln a)x} \cdot \ln a = a^x \ln a$$

### **DERIVATIVES OF INVERSE TRIGONOMETRIC FUNCTIONS**

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

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

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

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

Recall the definition of the arcsine function:

$$y = \sin^{-1} x$$
 means  $\sin y = x$  and  $-\frac{\pi}{2} \le y \le \frac{\pi}{2}$ 

Differentiating  $\sin y = x$  implicitly with respect to x, we obtain

$$\cos y \frac{dy}{dx} = 1$$
 or  $\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{1}{\cos y}$ 

Now  $\cos y \ge 0$ , since  $-\pi/2 \le y \le \pi/2$ , so

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

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

# DERIVATIVES OF LOGARITHMIC FUNCTIONS

$$\frac{d}{dx}\left(\log_a x\right) = \frac{1}{x \ln a}$$

## **EXAMPLE**

Differentiate  $y = \ln(x^3 + 1)$ .

Let 
$$y = \log_a x$$
. Then  $a^y = x$ 

Differentiating this equation implicitly with respect to x,

$$a^{y}(\ln a) \frac{dy}{dx} = 1$$
  $\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{1}{a^{y} \ln a} = \frac{1}{x \ln a}$ 

$$\frac{d}{dx}(\ln x) = \frac{1}{x}$$

# THE NUMBER e AS A LIMIT

$$e = \lim_{x \to 0} (1 + x)^{1/x}$$



$$n = 1/x$$

$$e = \lim_{n \to \infty} \left( 1 + \frac{1}{n} \right)^n$$

$$f'(1) = \lim_{h \to 0} \frac{f(1+h) - f(1)}{h} = \lim_{x \to 0} \frac{f(1+x) - f(1)}{x}$$

$$= \lim_{x \to 0} \frac{\ln(1+x) - \ln 1}{x} = \lim_{x \to 0} \frac{1}{x} \ln(1+x)$$

$$= \lim_{x \to 0} \ln(1 + x)^{1/x}$$

$$e \approx 2.7182818$$

# RADIOACTIVE DECAY

If m(t) is the mass remaining from an initial mass  $m_0$  of the substance after time t, then the relative decay rate

$$-\frac{1}{m}\frac{dm}{dt}$$

the relative decay rate has been found experimentally to be constant

$$\frac{dm}{dt} = km \qquad m(t) = m_0 e^{kt}$$

### **EXAMPLE**

The half-life of radium-226 is 1590 years.

(a) A sample of radium-226 has a mass of 100 mg. Find a formula for the mass of the sample that remains after years.

$$m(t) = m(0)e^{kt} = 100e^{kt}$$
  
 $100e^{1590k} = 50$  so  $e^{1590k} = \frac{1}{2}$   
 $1590k = \ln \frac{1}{2} = -\ln 2$   
 $k = -\frac{\ln 2}{1590}$ 

$$m(t) = 100e^{-(\ln 2)t/1590}$$

# HYPERBOLIC FUNCTIONS

#### **DEFINITION OF THE HYPERBOLIC FUNCTIONS**

$$\sinh x = \frac{e^x - e^{-x}}{2} \qquad \qquad \operatorname{csch} x = \frac{1}{\sinh x}$$

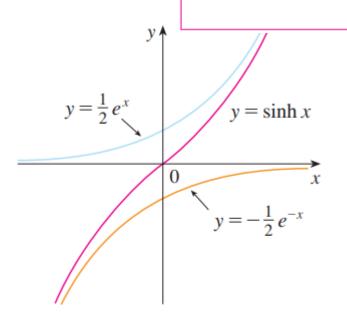
$$\operatorname{csch} x = \frac{1}{\sinh x}$$

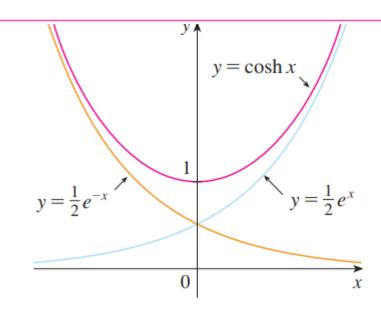
$$\cosh x = \frac{e^x + e^{-x}}{2} \qquad \qquad \operatorname{sech} x = \frac{1}{\cosh x}$$

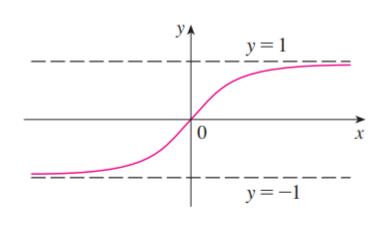
$$\operatorname{sech} x = \frac{1}{\cosh x}$$

$$\tanh x = \frac{\sinh x}{\cosh x}$$

$$\coth x = \frac{\cosh x}{\sinh x}$$







## FIGURE I

$$y = \sinh x = \frac{1}{2}e^x - \frac{1}{2}e^{-x}$$

## FIGURE 2

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

### FIGURE 3

$$y = \tanh x$$

# HYPERBOLIC FUNCTIONS

### HYPERBOLIC IDENTITIES

$$\sinh(-x) = -\sinh x \qquad \cosh(-x) = \cosh x$$

$$\cosh^2 x - \sinh^2 x = 1 \qquad 1 - \tanh^2 x = \operatorname{sech}^2 x$$

$$\sinh(x + y) = \sinh x \cosh y + \cosh x \sinh y$$

$$\cosh(x + y) = \cosh x \cosh y + \sinh x \sinh y$$

### **EXAMPLE**

Prove (a)  $\cosh^2 x - \sinh^2 x = 1$ 

$$\cosh^{2}x - \sinh^{2}x = \left(\frac{e^{x} + e^{-x}}{2}\right)^{2} - \left(\frac{e^{x} - e^{-x}}{2}\right)^{2}$$

$$= \frac{e^{2x} + 2 + e^{-2x}}{4} - \frac{e^{2x} - 2 + e^{-2x}}{4} = \frac{4}{4} = 1$$

# DERIVATIVES OF HYPERBOLIC FUNCTIONS

## I DERIVATIVES OF HYPERBOLIC FUNCTIONS

$$\frac{d}{dx} (\sinh x) = \cosh x \qquad \qquad \frac{d}{dx} (\cosh x) = -\operatorname{csch} x \coth x$$

$$\frac{d}{dx} (\cosh x) = \sinh x \qquad \qquad \frac{d}{dx} (\operatorname{sech} x) = -\operatorname{sech} x \tanh x$$

$$\frac{d}{dx} (\tanh x) = \operatorname{sech}^2 x \qquad \qquad \frac{d}{dx} (\coth x) = -\operatorname{csch}^2 x$$

## **EXAMPLE**

$$\frac{d}{dx}\left(\cosh\sqrt{x}\right) \implies \sinh\sqrt{x} \cdot \frac{d}{dx}\sqrt{x} = \frac{\sinh\sqrt{x}}{2\sqrt{x}}$$

## INDETERMINATE FORMS AND L'HOSPITAL'S RULE

**L'HOSPITAL'S RULE** Suppose f and g are differentiable and  $g'(x) \neq 0$  on an open interval I that contains a (except possibly at a). Suppose that

$$\lim_{x \to a} f(x) = 0 \qquad \text{and} \qquad \lim_{x \to a} g(x) = 0$$

or that

$$\lim_{x \to a} f(x) = \pm \infty$$
 and  $\lim_{x \to a} g(x) = \pm \infty$ 

(In other words, we have an indeterminate form of type  $\frac{0}{0}$  or  $\infty/\infty$ .) Then

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

if the limit on the right side exists (or is  $\infty$  or  $-\infty$ ).

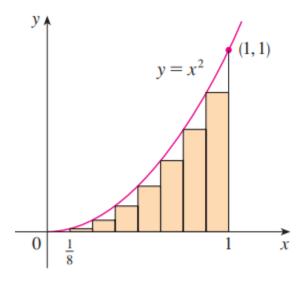
### **EXAMPLE**

Find 
$$\lim_{x \to 1} \frac{\ln x}{x - 1}$$
 (indeterminate forms  $\frac{0}{0}$  or  $\frac{\infty}{\infty}$ )

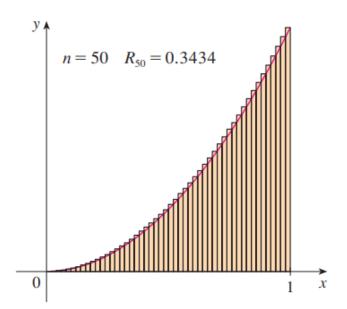
$$\lim_{x \to 1} \frac{\ln x}{x - 1} = \lim_{x \to 1} \frac{\frac{d}{dx} (\ln x)}{\frac{d}{dx} (x - 1)} = \lim_{x \to 1} \frac{1/x}{1} = \lim_{x \to 1} \frac{1}{x} = 1$$

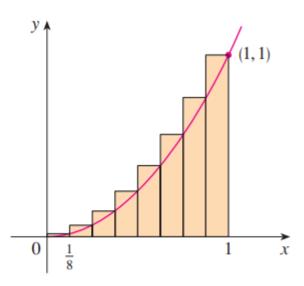


# Riemann sum

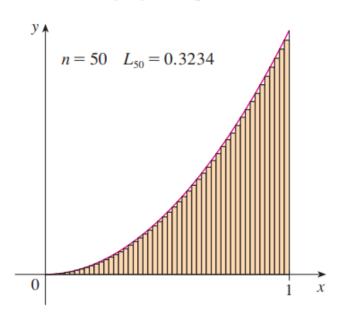


(a) Using left endpoints





(b) Using right endpoints

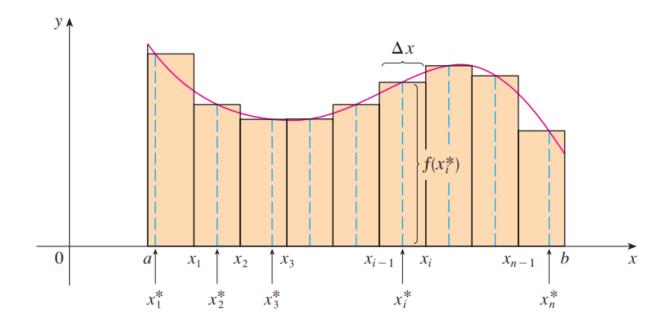


# THE DEFINITE INTEGRAL

**2 DEFINITION OF A DEFINITE INTEGRAL** If f is a function defined for  $a \le x \le b$ , we divide the interval [a, b] into n subintervals of equal width  $\Delta x = (b - a)/n$ . We let  $x_0 (= a), x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_n (= b)$  be the endpoints of these subintervals and we let  $x_1^*, x_2^*, \ldots, x_n^*$  be any **sample points** in these subintervals, so  $x_i^*$  lies in the ith subinterval  $[x_{i-1}, x_i]$ . Then the **definite integral of** f **from** a **to** b is

$$\int_a^b f(x) \, dx = \lim_{n \to \infty} \sum_{i=1}^n f(x_i^*) \, \Delta x$$

provided that this limit exists. If it does exist, we say that f is **integrable** on [a, b].



# EXAMPLE

**4 THEOREM** If f is integrable on [a, b], then

$$\int_a^b f(x) \, dx = \lim_{n \to \infty} \sum_{i=1}^n f(x_i) \, \Delta x$$

where

$$\Delta x = \frac{b-a}{n}$$
 and  $x_i = a + i \Delta x$ 

- (a) Evaluate the Riemann sum for  $f(x) = x^3 6x$  taking the sample points to be right endpoints and a = 0, b = 3, and n = 6.
- (b) Evaluate  $\int_0^3 (x^3 6x) dx$ .

(a) 
$$\Delta x = \frac{b-a}{n} = \frac{3-0}{6} = \frac{1}{2}$$

$$R_6 = \sum_{i=1}^6 f(x_i) \, \Delta x$$

$$= f(0.5) \Delta x + f(1.0) \Delta x + f(1.5) \Delta x + f(2.0) \Delta x + f(2.5) \Delta x + f(3.0) \Delta x$$

$$= \frac{1}{2}(-2.875 - 5 - 5.625 - 4 + 0.625 + 9)$$

$$= -3.9375$$

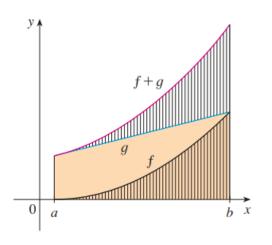
# PROPERTIES OF THE DEFINITE INTEGRAL

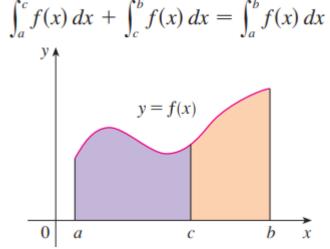
$$\int_{b}^{a} f(x) dx = -\int_{a}^{b} f(x) dx$$

$$\int_{a}^{a} f(x) \, dx = 0$$

### PROPERTIES OF THE INTEGRAL

- 1.  $\int_a^b c \, dx = c(b-a)$ , where c is any constant
- **2.**  $\int_a^b [f(x) + g(x)] dx = \int_a^b f(x) dx + \int_a^b g(x) dx$
- 3.  $\int_a^b cf(x) dx = c \int_a^b f(x) dx$ , where c is any constant
- **4.**  $\int_a^b [f(x) g(x)] dx = \int_a^b f(x) dx \int_a^b g(x) dx$



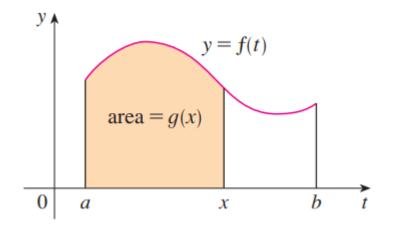


### FIGURE 14

$$\int_{a}^{b} [f(x) + g(x)] dx =$$

$$\int_{a}^{b} f(x) dx + \int_{a}^{b} g(x) dx$$

# THE FUNDAMENTAL THEOREM



THE FUNDAMENTAL THEOREM OF CALCULUS, PART I If f is continuous on [a, b], then the function g defined by

$$g(x) = \int_{a}^{x} f(t) dt$$
  $a \le x \le b$ 

is continuous on [a, b] and differentiable on (a, b), and g'(x) = f(x).

THE FUNDAMENTAL THEOREM OF CALCULUS, PART 2 If f is continuous on [a, b], then

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

where F is any antiderivative of f, that is, a function such that F' = f.

THE FUNDAMENTAL THEOREM OF CALCULUS Suppose f is continuous on [a, b].

- I. If  $g(x) = \int_a^x f(t) dt$ , then g'(x) = f(x).
- 2.  $\int_a^b f(x) dx = F(b) F(a)$ , where F is any antiderivative of f, that is, F' = f.

# INDEFINITE INTEGRALS

$$\int f(x) dx = F(x) \qquad \text{means} \qquad F'(x) = f(x)$$

You should distinguish carefully between definite and indefinite integrals. A definite integral  $\int_a^b f(x)dx$  is a number, whereas an indefinite integral  $\int f(x)dx$  is a function (or family of functions)

### **EXAMPLE**

Find the general indefinite integral

$$\int (10x^4 - 2\sec^2 x) \, dx$$

$$\int (10x^4 - 2\sec^2 x) \, dx = 10 \int x^4 \, dx - 2 \int \sec^2 x \, dx$$
$$= 10 \frac{x^5}{5} - 2 \tan x + C = 2x^5 - 2 \tan x + C$$

# INTEGRATION BY PARTS

$$\frac{d}{dx} [f(x)g(x)] = f(x)g'(x) + g(x)f'(x)$$

$$\int [f(x)g'(x) + g(x)f'(x)] dx = f(x)g(x)$$

$$\int f(x)g'(x) dx + \int g(x)f'(x) dx = f(x)g(x)$$

$$\int f(x)g'(x) dx = f(x)g(x) - \int g(x)f'(x) dx$$



$$\int u\,dv = uv - \int v\,du$$

# **EXAMPLE**

Find 
$$\int x \sin x \, dx$$
.

## SOLUTION

$$\int x \sin x \, dx = f(x)g(x) - \int g(x)f'(x) \, dx$$
$$= x(-\cos x) - \int (-\cos x) \, dx$$
$$= -x \cos x + \int \cos x \, dx$$
$$= -x \cos x + \sin x + C$$

## 速解

微分 積分 + 
$$x$$
  $\sin x$  -  $\cos x$  +  $0$   $\rightarrow$   $-\sin x$ 

# **EXAMPLE**

Evaluate  $\int e^x \sin x \, dx$ .

$$\int e^x \sin x \, dx = -e^x \cos x + \int e^x \cos x \, dx$$

$$\int e^x \cos x \, dx = e^x \sin x - \int e^x \sin x \, dx$$

$$\int e^x \sin x \, dx = -e^x \cos x + e^x \sin x - \int e^x \sin x \, dx$$

# TRIGONOMETRIC INTEGRALS

# Strategy for evaluating $\int \sin^m x \cos^m x dx$

(a) If the power of cosine is odd (n = 2k + 1), save one cosine factor and use  $\cos^2 x = 1 - \sin^2 x$  to express the remaining factors in terms of sine:

$$\int \sin^m x \cos^{2k+1} x \, dx = \int \sin^m x \, (\cos^2 x)^k \cos x \, dx$$
$$= \int \sin^m x \, (1 - \sin^2 x)^k \cos x \, dx$$

(b) If the power of sine is odd (m = 2k + 1), save one sine factor and use  $\sin^2 x = 1 - \cos^2 x$  to express the remaining factors in terms of cosine:

$$\int \sin^{2k+1} x \cos^n x \, dx = \int (\sin^2 x)^k \cos^n x \, \sin x \, dx$$
$$= \int (1 - \cos^2 x)^k \cos^n x \, \sin x \, dx$$

(c) If the powers of both sine and cosine are even, use the half-angle identities  $\sin^2 x = \frac{1}{2}(1 - \cos 2x)$   $\cos^2 x = \frac{1}{2}(1 + \cos 2x)$ 

It is sometimes helpful to use the identity  $\sin x \cos x = \frac{1}{2} \sin 2x$ 

# **EXAMPLE**

Find  $\int \sin^5 x \cos^2 x \, dx$ .

## SOLUTION

$$\sin^5 x \cos^2 x = (\sin^2 x)^2 \cos^2 x \sin x = (1 - \cos^2 x)^2 \cos^2 x \sin x$$

Substituting  $u = \cos x$ , we have  $du = -\sin x \, dx$  and so

$$\int \sin^5 x \cos^2 x \, dx = \int (\sin^2 x)^2 \cos^2 x \sin x \, dx$$

$$= \int (1 - \cos^2 x)^2 \cos^2 x \sin x \, dx$$

$$= \int (1 - u^2)^2 u^2 (-du) = -\int (u^2 - 2u^4 + u^6) \, du$$

$$= -\left(\frac{u^3}{3} - 2\frac{u^5}{5} + \frac{u^7}{7}\right) + C$$

$$= -\frac{1}{3}\cos^3 x + \frac{2}{5}\cos^5 x - \frac{1}{7}\cos^7 x + C$$

## INTEGRATION OF RATIONAL FUNCTIONS BY PARTIAL FRACT

## The denominator Q(x) is a product of distinct linear factors.

Evaluate 
$$\int \frac{x^2 + 2x - 1}{2x^3 + 3x^2 - 2x} dx$$
.

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

$$\frac{x^2 + 2x - 1}{x(2x - 1)(x + 2)} = \frac{A}{x} + \frac{B}{2x - 1} + \frac{C}{x + 2}$$

$$x^{2} + 2x - 1 = A(2x - 1)(x + 2) + Bx(x + 2) + Cx(2x - 1) = \frac{1}{2}\ln|x| + \frac{1}{10}\ln|2x - 1| - \frac{1}{10}\ln|x + 2| + K$$
$$= (2A + B + 2C)x^{2} + (3A + 2B - C)x - 2A$$

$$\begin{cases} 2A + B + 2C = 1 \\ 3A + B - C = 2 \\ -2A = -1 \end{cases}$$

$$A = \frac{1}{2}; B = \frac{1}{5}; C = -\frac{1}{10}$$

$$\int \frac{x^2 + 2x - 1}{2x^3 + 3x^2 - 2x} dx = \int \left(\frac{1}{2} \frac{1}{x} + \frac{1}{5} \frac{1}{2x - 1} - \frac{1}{10} \frac{1}{x + 2}\right) dx$$

$$\binom{1}{2} = \frac{1}{2} \ln|x| + \frac{1}{10} \ln|2x - 1| - \frac{1}{10} \ln|x + 2| + K$$

## INTEGRATION OF RATIONAL FUNCTIONS BY PARTIAL FRACTIONS

**CASE II** Q(x) is a product of linear factors, some of which are repeated.

Find 
$$\int \frac{x^4 - 2x^2 + 4x + 1}{x^3 - x^2 - x + 1} dx.$$

$$\begin{cases} A + C = 0 \\ B - 2C = 4 \\ -A + B + C = 0 \end{cases}$$

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

$$A = 1; B = 2; C = -1$$

$$A = 1; B = 2; C = -1$$

$$\frac{4x}{(x-1)^{2}(x+1)} = \frac{A}{x-1} + \frac{B}{(x-1)^{2}} + \frac{C}{x+1}$$

$$\int \frac{x^4 - 2x^2 + 4x + 1}{x^3 - x^2 - x + 1} dx = \int \left[ x + 1 + \frac{1}{x - 1} + \frac{2}{(x - 1)^2} - \frac{1}{x + 1} \right] dx$$

$$4x = A(x-1)(x+1) + B(x+1) + C(x-1)^{2}$$
$$= (A+C)x^{2} + (B-2C)x + (-A+B+C)$$

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

## INTEGRATION OF RATIONAL FUNCTIONS BY PARTIAL FRACTIONS

## **CASE III** $\blacksquare$ Q(x) contains irreducible quadratic factors, none of which is repeated.

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

## SOLUTION

$$\frac{2x^2 - x + 4}{x^3 + 4x} = \frac{A}{x} + \frac{Bx + C}{x^2 + 4}$$

$$2x^{2} - x + 4 = A(x^{2} + 4) + (Bx + C)x$$
$$= (A + B)x^{2} + Cx + 4A$$

$$A = 1; B = 1; C = -1$$

$$\int \frac{2x^2 - x + 4}{x^3 + 4x} dx = \int \left(\frac{1}{x} + \frac{x - 1}{x^2 + 4}\right) dx$$

$$= \int \frac{1}{x} dx + \int \frac{x}{x^2 + 4} - \int \frac{1}{x^2 + 4} dx$$

$$= \ln|x| + \frac{1}{2}\ln(x^2 + 4) - \frac{1}{2}\tan^{-1}\left(\frac{x}{2}\right) + K$$

## Hint:

$$\int \frac{dx}{x^2 + a^2} = \frac{1}{a} \tan^{-1} \left(\frac{x}{a}\right) + C$$

## INTEGRATION OF RATIONAL FUNCTIONS BY PARTIAL FRACTIONS

**CASE IV**  $\blacksquare$  Q(x) contains a repeated irreducible quadratic factor.

Write out the form of the partial fraction decomposition of the function

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

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

$$= \frac{A}{x} + \frac{B}{x-1} + \frac{Cx+D}{x^2 + x + 1} + \frac{Ex+F}{x^2 + 1} + \frac{Gx+H}{(x^2 + 1)^2} + \frac{Ix+J}{(x^2 + 1)^3}$$

# TABLE OF INTEGRATION FORMULAS

1. 
$$\int x^n dx = \frac{x^{n+1}}{n+1}$$
  $(n \neq -1)$  2.  $\int \frac{1}{x} dx = \ln|x|$ 

$$3. \int e^x dx = e^x$$

$$5. \int \sin x \, dx = -\cos x$$

7. 
$$\int \sec^2 x \, dx = \tan x$$

9. 
$$\int \sec x \tan x \, dx = \sec x$$

11. 
$$\int \sec x \, dx = \ln|\sec x + \tan x|$$
 12. 
$$\int \csc x \, dx = \ln|\csc x - \cot x|$$

$$2. \int \frac{1}{x} dx = \ln|x|$$

$$4. \int a^x dx = \frac{a^x}{\ln a}$$

$$\mathbf{6.} \int \cos x \, dx = \sin x$$

$$8. \int \csc^2 x \, dx = -\cot x$$

$$\mathbf{10.} \int \csc x \cot x \, dx = -\csc x$$

$$12. \int \csc x \, dx = \ln|\csc x - \cot x|$$

# E OF INTEGRATION FORMULAS

$$13. \int \tan x \, dx = \ln|\sec x|$$

$$15. \int \sinh x \, dx = \cosh x$$

17. 
$$\int \frac{dx}{x^2 + a^2} = \frac{1}{a} \tan^{-1} \left( \frac{x}{a} \right)$$
 18.  $\int \frac{dx}{\sqrt{a^2 - x^2}} = \sin^{-1} \left( \frac{x}{a} \right)$ 

\*19. 
$$\int \frac{dx}{x^2 - a^2} = \frac{1}{2a} \ln \left| \frac{x - a}{x + a} \right|$$

$$14. \int \cot x \, dx = \ln|\sin x|$$

$$\mathbf{16.} \int \cosh x \, dx = \sinh x$$

$$18. \int \frac{dx}{\sqrt{a^2 - x^2}} = \sin^{-1}\left(\frac{x}{a}\right)$$

\*19. 
$$\int \frac{dx}{x^2 - a^2} = \frac{1}{2a} \ln \left| \frac{x - a}{x + a} \right|$$
 \*20.  $\int \frac{dx}{\sqrt{x^2 \pm a^2}} = \ln \left| x + \sqrt{x^2 \pm a^2} \right|$