

Noah's Guide to Calculus

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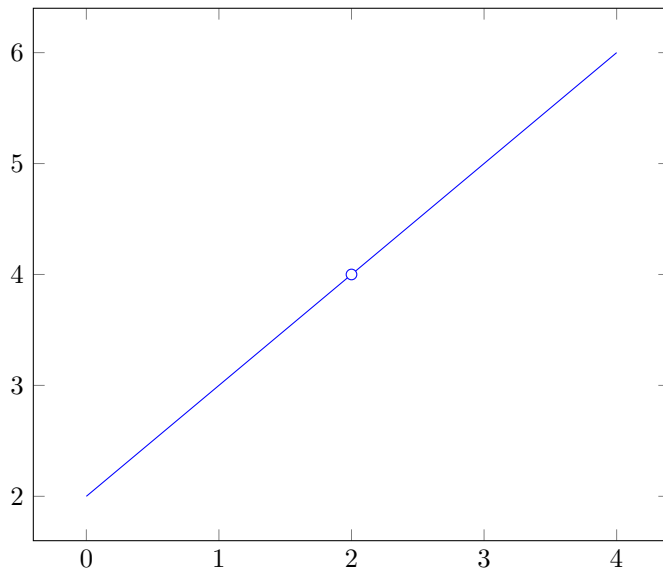


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1 Limits

Limits are a way of skirting the normal rules of math. Without the knowledge of limits, whenever a function divides by 0 or involves ∞ in any way, calculations become impossible. Limits take the rules of math a little less seriously and can be used to calculate what a value “should be”. A simple example of where limits come in handy is when there is a “hole” in a graph:



$$f(x) = \frac{x^2 - 4}{x - 2}$$

Because $f(x)$ divides by 0 when $x = 2$, there can be no answer here. However, we can tell that $f(2)$ should be 4 ignoring the division by zero. We can tell this because as x becomes greater and nearer to 2 (approaching $x = 2$ from the left), the value of $f(x)$ approaches 4. Similarly, when x decreases and becomes nearer to $x = 2$ (approaching $x = 2$ from the right), the value of $f(x)$ approaches 4. Therefore, as both sides of $x = 2$ become closer and closer, they converge upon a single point: $f(2) = 4$.

1.1 Types of Limits

Limits are just a way of finding what a graph should be. Looking at the previous example, we can trace the graph as it comes closer to $x = 2$ from the left to make an educated guess and say that $f(2)$ should be about 4. We can write this in special limit notation:

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 2^-} f(x) = 4$$

In English, that means *the limit as x approaches 2 from the left is 4*. The - sign is appended to the 2 to show that we are using how the graph is to the

left of $x = 2$ to approximate $x = 2$. If we were using the graph to the right to approximate $x = 2$, we would write:

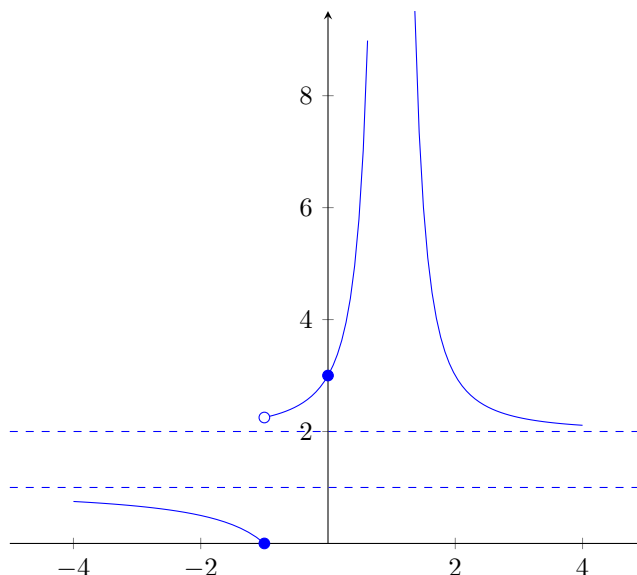
$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 2^+} f(x) = 4$$

These are called **one-sided limits**. The one-sided limits from both sides of the graph do not necessarily need to be the same.

The Limit We define $\lim_{x \rightarrow c}$ (the value that the graph approaches) to be:

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow c} f(x) = \lim_{x \rightarrow c^+} f(x) = \lim_{x \rightarrow c^-} f(x)$$

which should be read as: *the limit of $f(x)$ as x approaches c is equal to the limit of $f(x)$ as x approaches c from the right side and equal to the limit of $f(x)$ as x approaches c from the left side.* The limit from the left side is simply the value that the graph of $f(x)$ approaches as x increases to the limit point. The same is true for the right side: the limit is what the graph approaches as x becomes smaller towards the the limit point. If $\lim_{x \rightarrow c^+} f(x) \neq \lim_{x \rightarrow c^-} f(x)$, we say that the limit of $f(x)$ at c must not exist.



In the above graph, $\lim_{x \rightarrow -1} f(x)$ doesn't exist because $\lim_{x \rightarrow -1^-} f(x) = \sqrt{2} + 1$ and $\lim_{x \rightarrow -1^+} f(x) = 0$. The graph doesn't need to have a hole in it to have a limit. In fact, **any continuous part of a graph has a limit**. For example, the limit as x approaches 0 exists. The limit is equal to 2. Limits can also be infinite. Because $\lim_{x \rightarrow 1^+} f(x)$ and $\lim_{x \rightarrow 1^-} f(x)$ are both equal to ∞ , $\lim_{x \rightarrow 1} f(x) = \infty$. Similarly, we

can take the limit at infinity. Because they are asymptotes. $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} f(x) = 2$ and $\lim_{x \rightarrow -\infty} f(x) = 1$. Because we can only approach limits at infinity from one side, we omit the + and - following the value as they are implied. However, this means that **all asymptotes are limits taken at infinity**.

1.2 Directly Calculating Limits

Unfortunately, there's no simple and easy way to calculate limits. The simplest way is just to "plug in" to the function but at some points like holes in the graph or ∞ , we don't have that luxury. Instead, we can reduce or rewrite equations and also apply some general common sense. For example, $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{x}$ must be 0 because as x gets larger, $\frac{1}{x}$ gets smaller to some point at which it must be 0. Using reduction and logic, we may progress on to more complex ideas involving limits where direct substitution fails.

Rules There are simple rules for limits:

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow c} f(x) * g(x) = \lim_{x \rightarrow c} f(x) * \lim_{x \rightarrow c} g(x)$$

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

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow c} f(x)^n = (\lim_{x \rightarrow c} f(x))^n$$

The same is true for function addition, subtraction, etc.

"Plugging In" In the end, all limit problems will need to have their value inserted at some time. For example, the limit $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} x^2 + 1 = 1$. No tricks here, plugging in 0 does return 1. We do not have to deal with any division by zero or infinities, so there is no need to manipulate the problem.

Reduction Reduction is relatively simple. If we go back to our example of

$$f(x) = \frac{x^2 - 4}{x - 2}$$

we can see that this problem can factor into

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

which cancels and gives us

$$f(x) = x + 2$$

We now see that there does exist a limit at $x = 2$, $f(2) = 2 + 2 = 4$. Previously, directly plugging in 2 would not return a real value.

Sense at ∞ ∞ is a hard concept to grasp and work with in mathematics. Limits can make this easier because while we cannot *directly compute* ∞ , we can approximate it exactly. For example, in the case of $f(x) = \frac{1}{x^2}$, we see that the limit at ∞ must be zero. As x increases, $f(x)$ drops ever closer to 0:

$$f(10) = 0.01$$

$$f(100) = 0.0001$$

$$f(1000) = 0.000001$$

etc.

Similarly, as x approaches ∞ ,

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

approaches $\frac{3}{4}$:

$$g(10) = \frac{30}{41}$$

$$g(100) = \frac{300}{401}$$

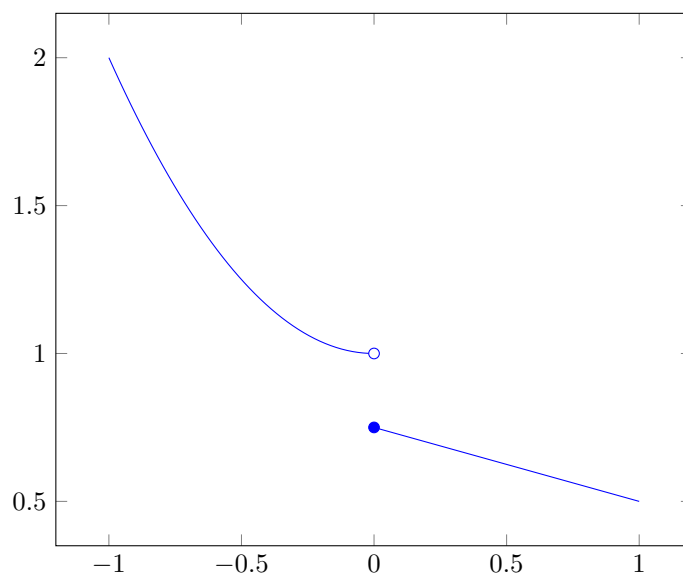
$$g(1000) = \frac{3000}{4001}$$

etc.

1.3 When Limits Don't Exist

Limits don't exist when:

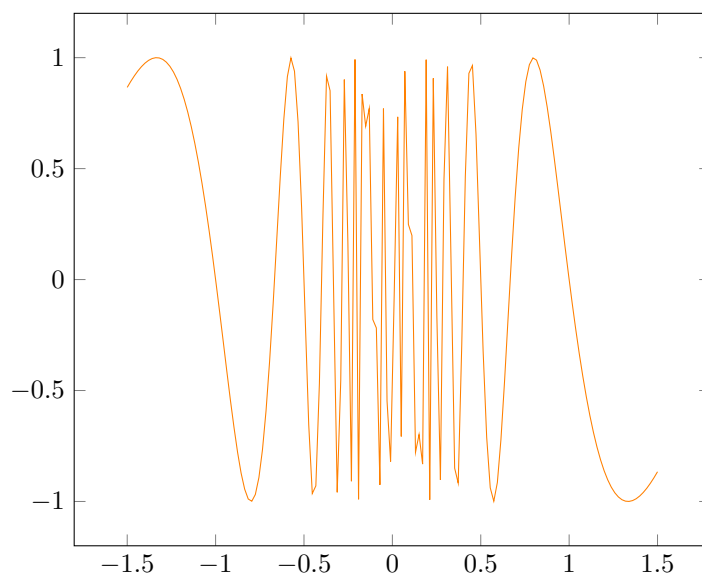
1. $\lim_{x \rightarrow c^+} \neq \lim_{x \rightarrow c^-}$



$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} f(x)$ Does Not Exist

The reason why the limit cannot exist at 0 here is that when $f(x)$ approaches 0 from the right side (0^-), the limit is 1. As $f(x)$ approaches 0 from the left side (0^+), the limit is 0.75. The limit is one point and because $0.75 \neq 1$, there is no solution.

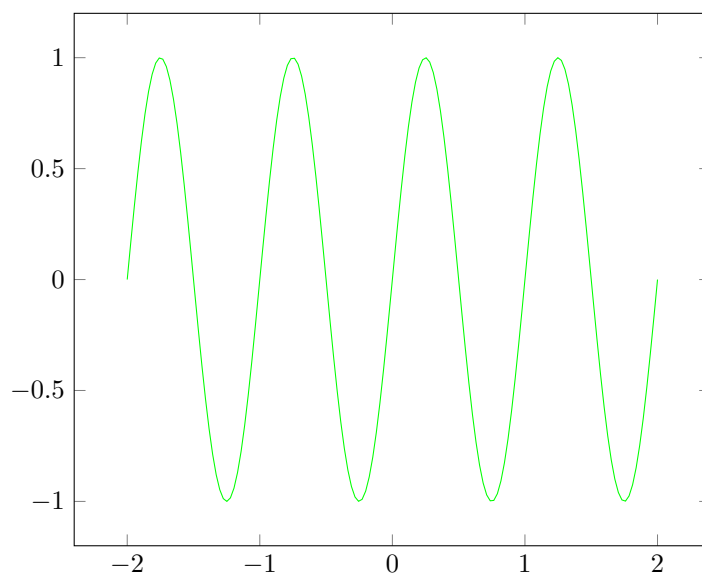
2. The graph oscillates uncontrollably:



$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \sin\left(\frac{1}{x}\right)$ Does Not Exist

The graphing utility doesn't even have any idea what's going on. We can't blame it because the graph starts oscillating faster and faster closer to 0. There is no point the graph can approach. Therefore, the limit must not exist here.

3. The graph oscillates at ∞



$\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \sin(x)$ Does Not Exist

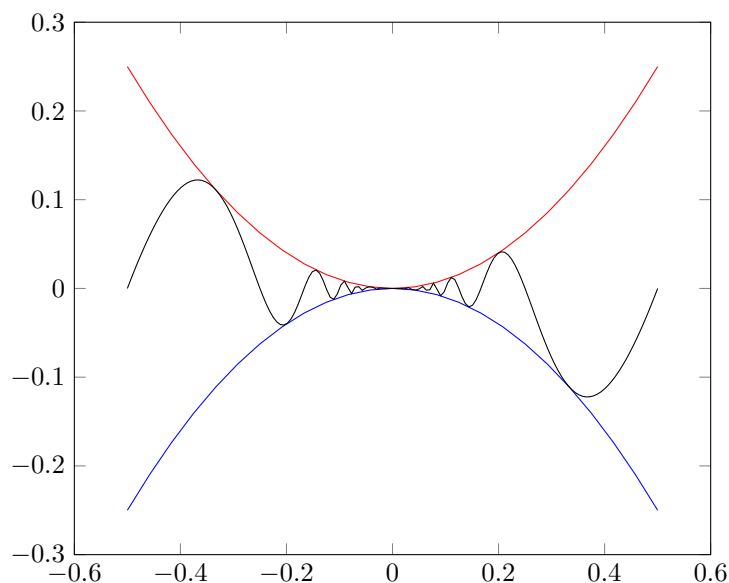
Is ∞ an integer? Or where does it fall exactly? If you define ∞ to be a value, something can always be added to that value. Therefore, there is no single value that this graph will approach. In fact, it will approach all numbers in the interval $[-1,1]$. For a periodic graph like $\sin(x)$, there can be no limit because the graph will never stop oscillating.

1.4 The Squeeze Theorem

Sometimes none of the aforementioned ways for calculating limits works. One way to calculate possibly impossible limits is the squeeze theorem:

On an interval containing a point c , if $f(x) \leq g(x) \leq h(x)$ for all of the interval, and $\lim_{x \rightarrow c} f(x) = \lim_{x \rightarrow c} h(x) = a$, then $\lim_{x \rightarrow c} g(x) = a$.

The easiest way to see this is a graph:



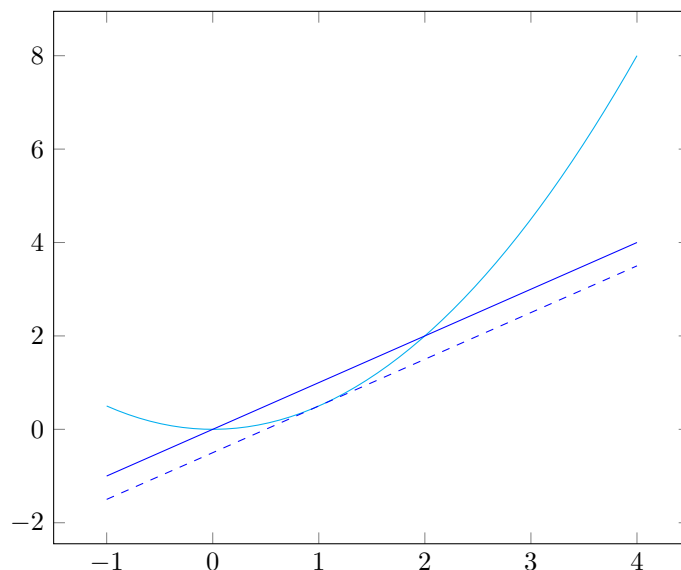
Here we can see the graph $g(x) = x^2 * \sin(\frac{4}{x})$ being squeezed between $f(x) = x^2$ and $h(x) = -x^2$. $g(x)$ has no limit we can compute directly at 0 because $\frac{1}{x}$ has no real limit. However, it is a simple proof to show that $f(x) \leq g(x) \leq h(x)$ and $f(x)$ and $h(x)$ both have the same, real limit for $x = 0$, so

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

1.5 Relative Magnitudes

2 Derivatives

Slopes It is useful and easy to find the rate of change for any point on a line. It is difficult to approximate how a curved function changes, however. Functions that aren't lines don't have defined slopes and we have to use a tangent line to find the slope at a point. It is difficult to find the tangent line at a point, so we must resort to finding secant approximations for the tangent line.



The secant line $y = x$ approximates the dashed line tangent to the graph $f(x) = \frac{1}{2}x^2$ for the point $x = 1$.

2.1 Difference Quotient

The Slope of a Secant Line The slope of a secant line through a point x and another point h units away will be the rise (Δy) divided by the run (Δx). Plugging in for the points $(x, f(x))$ and $(x + h, f(x + h))$, we get

$$\frac{f(x + h) - f(x)}{x + h - x}$$

which solves to

$$\frac{f(x + h) - f(x)}{h}$$

2.2 The Derivative

The derivative is a tool that can find the slope of a tangent line at (almost) any point on a graph. While we can't find the slope between one point and itself because there is no difference, we can find the slope between some point and another that is **really** close to that point. We can minimize the difference between these two points by using a limit! We will find the difference between a point and a point whose position is almost zero units away:

$$\lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(x + h) - f(x)}{h}$$

This is the derivative! If you were to plug in 0 for h immediately, you would divide by zero. Therefore, you must use the reduction technique for solving

equations of this type. The derivative is often abbreviated $\frac{d}{dt}f(t)$ with respect to some variable t and some function f ; or simply $f'(x)$. If you take n more derivatives of the same function past the first one, we call it the n^{th} order derivative. Derivatives beyond the first order are labeled $\frac{d^2}{dt^2}f(t)$ or $f''(t)$ for the second order; $\frac{d^3}{dt^3}f(t)$ or $f'''(t)$ for the third order; etc. We say the derivative is taken “with respect to” something else. In a pretty standard Calculus case, the objective is to find the change in y *with respect to* x . We use the notation to describe this relationship as $\frac{dy}{dx}$. Extending this, the second order derivative of y *with respect to* x is denoted $\frac{d^2y}{dx^2}$. When the derivative of a variable is taken with respect to itself, i.e. $\frac{dx}{dx}$, we do not write it as it is equal to 1.

Example For $f(x) = x^2$, the derivative is:

$$\begin{aligned}
 &= \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{(x+h)^2 - x^2}{h} \\
 &= \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{x^2 + 2xh + h^2 - x^2}{h} \\
 &= \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{2xh + h^2}{h} \\
 &= \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} 2x + h \\
 &= 2x + 0 \\
 &= 2x
 \end{aligned} \tag{1}$$

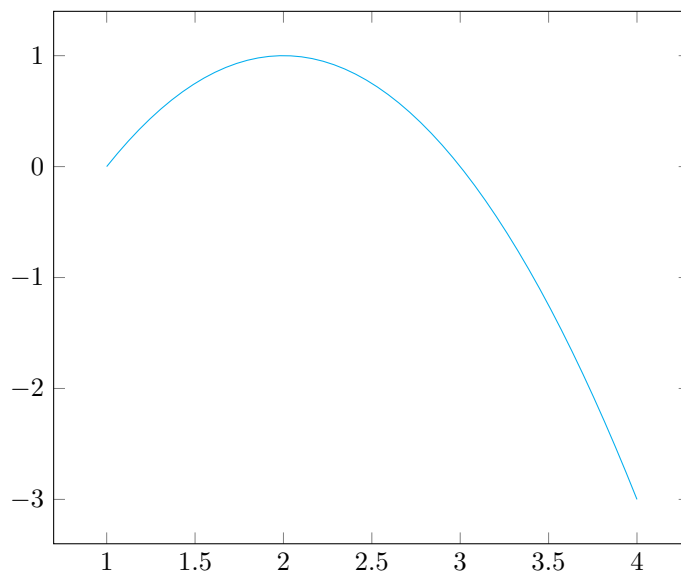
So for any point x on the graph of $f(x) = x^2$, the slope of the tangent line will be $y = 2x$.

2.3 Estimating Derivatives

Estimating derivatives is not altogether too difficult. Remember that the derivative itself is just the limit of the difference quotient. If one needs to find the derivative, all one has to do is take the difference quotient at two known points to create a secant line. Because it is an estimate, one doesn't need to minimize h .

$$\frac{f(x+h) - f(x)}{h}$$

It is also possible to “eyeball” a graph to estimate the derivative. For example:



For the point $(3, f(3))$, the tangent line obviously has a negative slope. It is not too drastic so by a guesstimate, the slope must be greater than -3. The slope is also not too flat so it should be less than -1. Therefore, the derivative can be estimated to something around -2.

2.4 Rules

The derivative has patterns, or “forms” as they will be called here. You are expected to know these forms backwards and forwards. Many textbooks include proofs for these but, as it is unnecessary, this text will not. The reader is strongly encouraged to prove these forms as exercises. Some of the most important forms that Calculus students are expected to know are below. The derivative of:

1. c is 0
2. u^n is $(nu^{n-1}) du$
3. cu is $c * (du)$
4. e^u is $e^u du$
5. $\ln(u)$ is $\frac{1}{u} du$
6. $\sin(u)$ is $\cos(u) du$
7. $\cos(u)$ is $-\sin(u) du$

Where u is some equation, c is a constant, and du is the derivative of u . Most other forms can be derived from these.

2.5 Special Rules

There are some more patterns outside of the traditional forms that the reader should know for Calculus. These have to do with composite and combined equations.

The Product Rule Given two equations $f(x)$ and $g(x)$, the derivative of the function $h(x) = f(x) * g(x)$ is:

$$h'(x) = f'(x)g(x) + g'(x)f(x)$$

For example, the derivative of $h(x) = x^2 \sin(x)$ is:

$$\begin{aligned} h(x) &= f(x) * g(x) \\ h'(x) &= f'(x)g(x) + g'(x)f(x) \\ h'(x) &= 2x * \sin(x) + \cos(x) * x^2 \end{aligned} \tag{2}$$

The Quotient Rule *Avoid this at all costs.* The quotient rule is helpful but it is very, needlessly complex. For some function $h(x)$ that is the quotient of two functions $f(x)$ and $g(x)$: $h(x) = \frac{f(x)}{g(x)}$

$$h'(x) = \frac{g(x)f'(x) - f(x)g'(x)}{(f(x))^2}$$

An easy way to remember this god-awful formula is a little song to the tune of *Low Rider* by War:

Low...d...High...minus High d Low...all...o-ver...the square of what's below

(All...my...friends...know the low rider...the...low...rid-er...is a little higher)

All jokes aside, this is one of the worst things in Calculus. Avoid it at all costs. For example, you could rewrite $\frac{3-x}{x^2}$ as $3x^{-2} - x^{-1}$, thereby eliminating all need for the quotient rule.

The Chain Rule The name is confusing. No, this rule doesn't have anything to do chains in the normal sense. Instead, it gives a form for a composite function $h(x) = f(g(x))$. This is required for functions like $\sin(x^2)$ where $\sin(x) = f(x)$ and $x^2 = g(x)$. The chain rule says the derivative of $h(x) = f(g(x))$ is:

$$h'(x) = f'(g(x)) * g'(x)$$

In our previous example, the derivative of $\sin(x^2)$ is

$$\begin{aligned}h(x) &= f(g(x)) \\h'(x) &= f'(g(x)) * g'(x) \\h'(x) &= \cos(x^2) * 2x \\h'(x) &= 2x * \cos(x^2)\end{aligned}\tag{3}$$

2.6 Implicit Differentiation

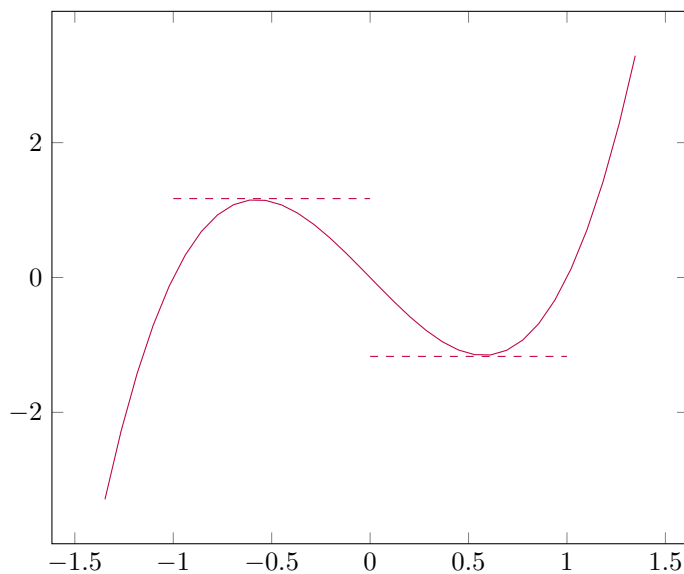
In some cases, it does not make sense to find the derivative with respect to one specific variable in the equation. Perhaps there is another equation that may go with the one you are working with and has different variables. There may also be an advantage if you take the derivative with respect to some parameter, usually t . I like to think that t is sort of like time; you can increase it or decrease it and see how x and y change with respect to this parameter. It is quite simple: all one has to do is take the derivative with respect to this parameter: $\frac{d}{dt}$. For example:

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{d}{dt}(y &= x^2 - 5x + 1) \\ \frac{dy}{dt} &= 2x \frac{dx}{dt} - 5 \frac{dx}{dt} \\ \frac{dy}{dt} &= (2x - 5) \frac{dx}{dt}\end{aligned}\tag{4}$$

Note: while the derivative with respect to x normally ends up being $\frac{dx}{dx} = 1$, this is not the case with implicit differentiation.

2.7 Maxima and Minima

For any graph, the local minima and maxima will occur when the graph levels off. To put this in Calculus words, the derivative at the point must be 0 because the tangent line is horizontal.



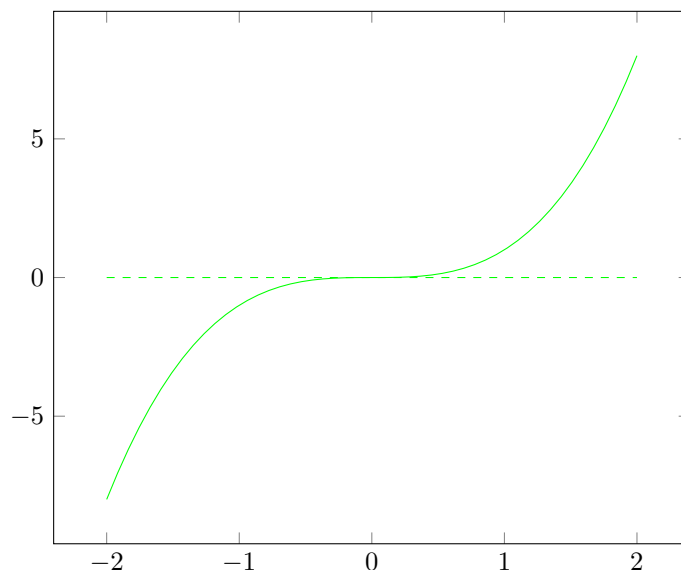
This graph has local maxima and minima where the tangent line is horizontal.

Armed with the knowledge of the derivative, we can exactly calculate at what point(s) any function has a local maximum or minimum. It is actually very simple, all one has to do is to find at what points the derivative is 0. We call this *The First Derivative Test*. The first derivative test gives us *critical numbers*.

For example, let's find the points at which $f(x) = \frac{x^3}{3} - x$ has a local maximum or minimum:

$$\begin{aligned}
 f'(x) &= 3 \frac{x^2}{3} - x^0 \\
 f'(x) &= x^2 - 1 \\
 0 &= x^2 - 1 \\
 0 &= (x - 1)(x + 1) \\
 x &= \pm 1
 \end{aligned} \tag{5}$$

I lied. When the derivative is zero, all it means is the line tangent to the graph is horizontal. For example, the graph of $f(x) = x^3$ has a horizontal tangent when $x = 0$:



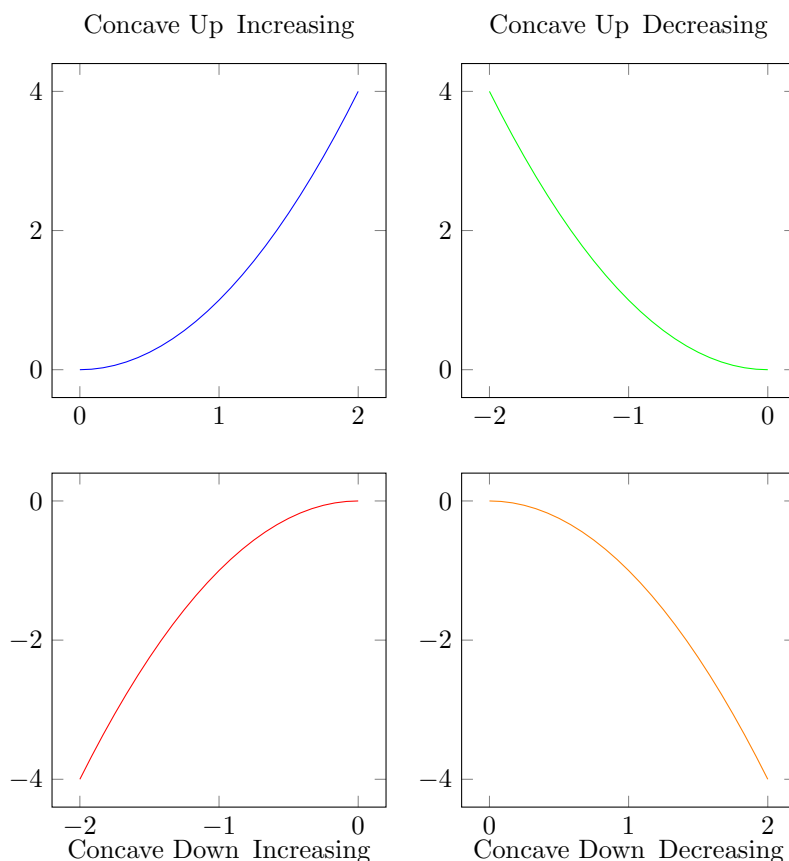
There must be some way to verify if the critical numbers we get from the first derivative test are truly maxima and minima, right? Yes! If we look at the graph of $f(x) = x^3$ above, we can tell that the tangent line has a positive slope moving towards $x = 0$ and also moving away. In calculus-speak: the first order derivative does not change signs from positive to negative. If we look at the graph of $f(x) = x^2$, we can see that the slope of the tangent is negative moving towards $x = 0$ and positive moving away. This means the first order derivative changes signs. This makes logical sense because for a function to have a local minimum, it must decrease, hit the lowest point, and increase. We can flip this around, too: for a function to have a local maximum, it must increase, hit the highest point, and come down again. The first order derivative (the slope of the tangent line) must change signs. If it changes from positive to negative, there is a local maximum. If it changes from negative to positive, there is a local minimum. We can write up this in a table where we have the intervals from the beginning of the values we are checking to the first critical number, then from the first to second critical number, second to third critical number, \dots , and from the last critical number to the end of the values we are testing. “Values we are testing” means the ends of the interval we are working with. Normally the ends are $-\infty$ and ∞ , but sometimes you might be constrained to $[0, 5]$ or something similar. For example, to find the relative minima and maxima of the function whose derivative is $f'(x) = (x - 1)(x + 1)$, this is the table one would create:

$(-\infty, -1)$	-1	$(-1, 1)$	1	$(1, \infty)$
+	0	-	0	+

...and this is the true first derivative test. Because it changes signs from positive to negative at $x = -1$, that point is a local maximum, and because it changes from negative to positive at $x = 1$, that must be a local minimum.

2.8 Concavity

Recall that the second derivative gives the rate of change of the first derivative. Because the first derivative gives the slope of the tangent line, the second derivative will give the change in slope. If the second derivative is positive, the tangent line must be increasing and therefore moving up (counterclockwise). If the second derivative is negative, the tangent line must be decreasing and therefore moving down (clockwise). When the slope is changed, a curve is created. We use two words to quantify the curve that we see: **concave up** and **concave down**. Concave up is, as you may have guessed, when the graph is in a bucket shape facing upwards (think of the $y = x^2$ graph). Concave down is the opposite, where the graph looks more like a hat facing downwards (think of $y = -x^2$). We also append *increasing* or *decreasing* to the description of the function at a point to describe the sign of the first derivative, in other words whether the points are going up or going down moving right.

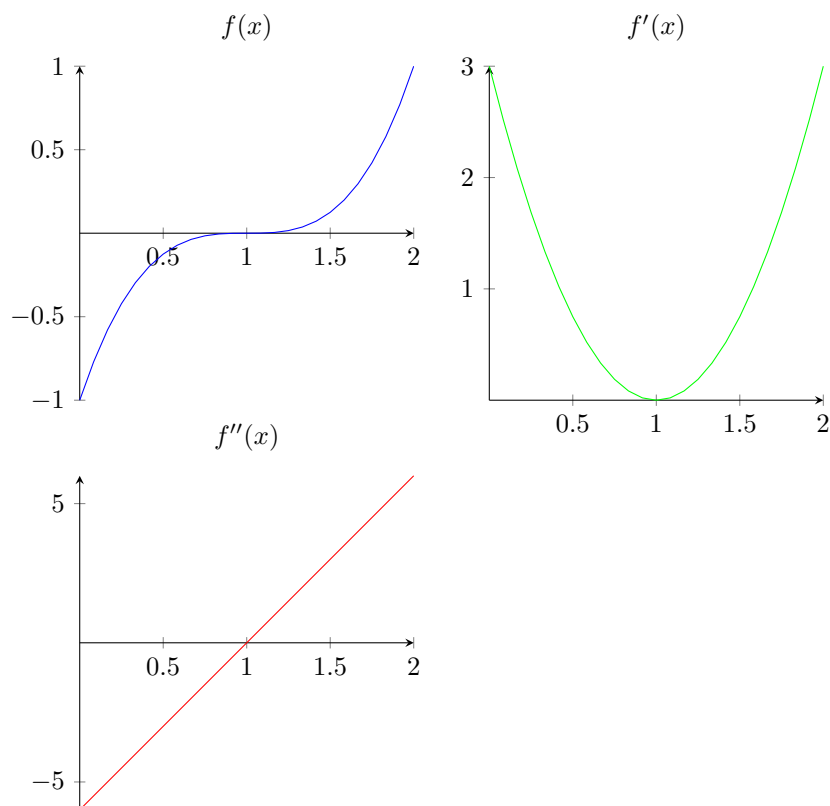


2.9 Graphical Relations

Functions and their derivatives are connected. If the derivative is positive, the function is increasing. If the derivative is negative, the function is decreasing. If the second derivative is positive, the function is accelerating in the positive direction. One of the many things a Calculus student is expected to do is identify the relation between the graphs of the derivatives of a function and the function itself. Let $f(x) = (x - 1)^3$:

$$\begin{aligned} f(x) &= (x^2 - 2x + 1)(x - 1) \\ f(x) &= x^3 - 2x^2 + x - x^2 + 2x - 1 \\ f(x) &= x^3 - 3x^2 + 3x - 1 \\ f'(x) &= 3x^2 - 6x + 3 \\ f''(x) &= 6x - 6 \end{aligned} \tag{6}$$

Graphing the functions, we get:



$f'(x)$ has a zero at $x = 1$ but because it doesn't change signs, $f(x)$ cannot have a local maximum or minimum there. Because $f'(x)$ is always positive, the function is always increasing. $f''(x)$ is negative before $x = 1$ and positive after,

so at that point, $f(x)$ switches from concave down to concave up. This sums up the relationship between derivatives and their graphs.

2.10 Relationship with Continuity

Continuity does not guarantee that the derivative will always exist. Even though a function like

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} x & x \leq 1 \\ x^2 & x > 1 \end{cases}$$

is continuous everywhere, its derivative is not. The derivative is a limit, so for it to exist, it must be the same on both sides. If the limit of the difference quotient (the derivative) is calculated at $x = 1$, the results are:

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

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 1^+} f'(x) = \lim_{x \rightarrow 1^+} 2x = 2$$

which are not equal. The derivative must not exist for all values of x . However, if the derivative of a function is continuous everywhere, that means that the function itself must be differentiable everywhere. Therefore, functions that do not result in a piecewise derivative and have a domain of $(-\infty, \infty)$ must be differentiable everywhere. Functions that are differentiable and expected to be calculated by Calculus students are::

1. Polynomials ($x^n + x^{n-1} + \dots$)
2. Power functions (ax^b)
3. Sin(x)
4. Cos(x)
5. Exponential functions (ba^x)
6. Logarithmic functions

3 Applications of Derivatives

3.1 Units

Functions can be used to model real-world phenomena and find use in everything from quantum physics to music¹. However, in the real world, there are units of measure that are significant and go hand-in-hand with values. Think of *miles*: a unit of distance, and *hours*: a unit of time. We can combine these together to show a relationship between the two with *miles per hour*: a unit of speed. Because derivatives give rates of change, the units no longer stay the same. For

¹Just ask Bach...

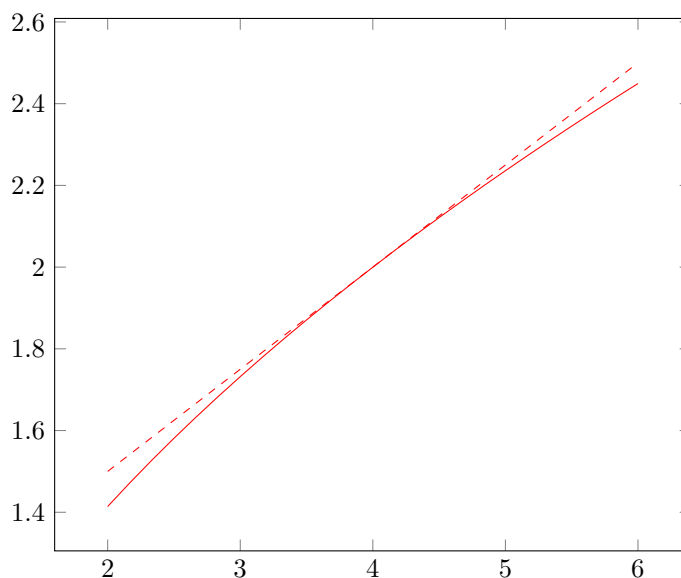
example, if we wanted to find the rate of change of speed, we would look for how the speed changes with relation to time. Our units then would be $\frac{\text{miles}}{\text{hour}} \div \text{hour}$ or miles per hour per hour. We rewrite this as $\frac{\text{miles}}{\text{hour}^2}$. This gives us the rate of change of speed, or acceleration. If we wanted to find how the area of a circle in square meters changes when we change the radius in meters, the units would be $\frac{\text{meters}^2}{\text{meters}} = \text{meters}$.

3.2 Instantaneous Rate of Change

This is perhaps the most classic Calculus derivative problem. When you are riding in a car, the speedometer tells you how fast you are going at any point in time. This is your instantaneous rate of change, how fast you are moving at one point in time. You could be travelling at 40 miles per hour but then have to stop at a stoplight for a little bit. Your average speed would be less than 40 because of that time you stopped, but you know that at that certain time you measured it, you were travelling 40 miles per hour. Problems will ask you, given a function, how fast is something changing at an exact point in time. All it is asking is for the slope of the tangent line (derivative) and not the average slope at that point. Simply calculate the derivative.

3.3 Tangent Line Approximations

The tangent line can be used as an approximations for points near a point on a graph. Take this example of the graph $f(x) = \sqrt{x}$:



The tangent line for $f(4)$ is $y - 2 = .25(x - 4)$ and approximates the graph pretty well for the near area. Because $\sqrt{5}$ would be incredibly difficult to find by hand, we can use the tangent line to approximate the value.

$$f(5) \approx .25(5 - 4) + 2$$

which is 2.25. The actual value is about 2.236. The approximation worked pretty well in this case with an error of about 0.014, or less than 1% of the actual value.

3.4 Physics

It has come up a bit before, but now it is time to formalize some theory. Because the derivative finds the rate of change for something at a certain point, it is useful in physics. For example, the derivative of a position function gives the rate of change of position of that point, or *velocity*. Similarly, the change in velocity at a point is *acceleration*. The change in acceleration at a point does get a special name in physics, too, but it is not used as much: *the jerk*. Given $x(t)$ is position, $v(t)$ is velocity, and $a(t)$ is acceleration with respect to time, the following are true:

$$\begin{aligned}x'(t) &= v(t) \\x''(t) &= v'(t) = a(t)\end{aligned}$$

I did not include the jerk in here because it is so very uncommon.

3.5 Related Rates

Derivatives find the rate of change of something with respect to something else. Two or more derivatives can be combined, as a result, to find how one value affects another. For example, if we know the the radius of a circle at any given time is $\ln(t)$, we know the rate of change must be $\frac{1}{t}$, which we can rewrite as $\frac{dr}{dt} = \frac{1}{t}$. If we wanted to find how the area of a circle changes with respect to the radius, all we need to do is take the derivative.

$$\begin{aligned}A &= \pi r^2 \\ \frac{dA}{dt} &= 2\pi r \frac{dr}{dt}\end{aligned}$$

substituting for r and $\frac{dr}{dt}$, we get

$$\frac{dA}{dt} = 2\pi \ln(t) * \frac{1}{t}$$

which means that for any given time t , the rate of change of the area A must be

$$\frac{2 \ln(t)}{t}$$

Is it not super cool that the derivative of the area of a circle is the circumference?

3.6 Optimization

Using knowledge of how maxima and minima work, it becomes easy to “optimize” functions. If there is a formula for something like cash input and return, you can “optimize” the function by finding a maximum or minimum. This may be combined with the ideas behind related rates, too. Given two constraints, what is the maximum value of some function? It is simple if you use the derivative. Find the points at which the derivative of your target function is 0 and evaluate the function at those points **and** the ends of the interval you are working with.

3.7 Differential Equations

The reader should be familiar with $\frac{dy}{dx}$ at this point. Remember that what that means is the instantaneous change in y with respect to the instantaneous change in x . This can be rewritten and solved for dy as a function of dx . It’s just as simple as getting $\frac{dy}{dx}$ on one side and multiplying by dx so the equation looks like:

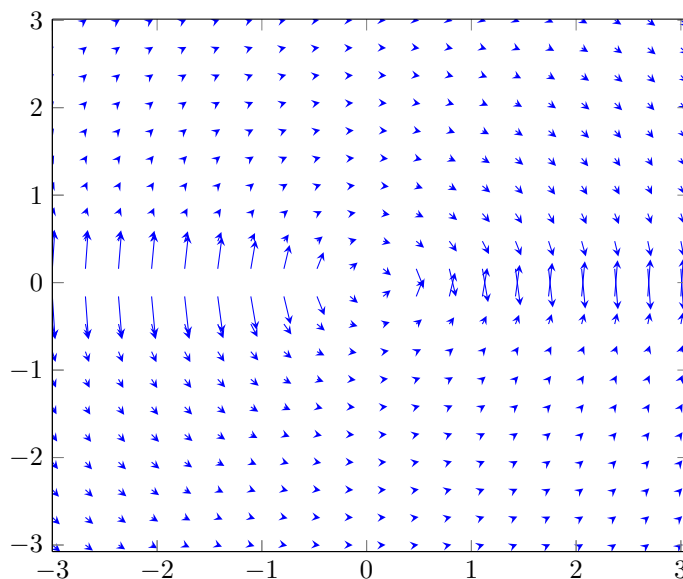
$$\begin{aligned}\frac{dy}{dx} &= f'(x) \\ dy &= f'(x)dx\end{aligned}$$

Given the equation $x^2 + y^2 = 1$, the differential equation will be:

$$\begin{aligned}2x\frac{dx}{dx} + 2y\frac{dy}{dx} &= 0 \\ 2y\frac{dy}{dx} &= -2x \\ dy &= -\frac{x}{y}dx\end{aligned}$$

3.8 Slope Fields

Slope fields are (in Noah’s opinion) one of the most fun things in Calculus. Given a graph, the differential equation $\frac{dy}{dx}$ is solved for the (x, y) coordinate. The resulting solution is the slope of the graph **should** the graph actually pass through that point. This step is repeated for a certain number of points on the graph. All the work that has to be done is plug in (x, y) to the equation and draw a small line with the same slope at that point. Here’s an example slope field for $y^2 = C^2 - x^2$ (a circle with radius C):



Note: arrow heads are normally not drawn.

3.9 Mean Value Theorem

The mean value theorem is relatively simple. If the reader would like to find a proof for the theorem, they are readily available on the internet.

Given a closed interval $[a, b]$, if a function $f(x)$ is always continuous, there exists a point $a \leq c \leq b$ such that the derivative at c is equal to the slope of the secant line through a and b .

In other words, there exists some c such that

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

3.10 L'hôpital's Rule

Taking the limit of a function with a fraction sometimes ends up with a confusing result like $\frac{\infty}{\infty}$ or $\frac{0}{0}$. Neither of these actually have a real value. L'hôpital's rule is:

$$\lim \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} = \lim \frac{f'(x)}{g'(x)}$$

if and only if $f(x) = g(x)$ and $f(x)$ is either $\pm\infty$ or 0. What this means is if, when taking the limit, you get one of these “indeterminate forms”, you may take the derivative of the top and the bottom **separately** and then re-evaluate the limit. You may do this as many times as you need until you no longer reach an indeterminate form.