

# Calculus 1 - Notes

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# 1 Before Calculus

## 1.1 Fundamental Theorem of Calculus

### Definition 1.01 - Fundamental Theorem of Calculus

The Fundamental Theorem of Calculus states

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

### Definition 1.02 - Common Sets of Numbers

Natural Numbers, set of positive integers -  $\mathbb{N} := \{1, 2, 3, \dots\}$ .

Whole Numbers, set of all integers -  $\mathbb{Z} := \{\dots, -2, -1, 0, 1, 2, \dots\}$ .

Rational Numbers, set of fractions -  $\mathbb{Q} := \left\{\frac{p}{q} : p \in \mathbb{Z}, q \in \mathbb{N}\right\}$ .

Real Numbers, set of all rational & irrational numbers -  $\mathbb{R}$ .

## 1.2 Intervals

### Definition 1.03 - Intervals

Sets of real numbers that fulfil in given ranges.

Notation

$$[a, b] := \{x \in \mathbb{R} : a \leq x \leq b\}$$

$$(a, b] := \{x \in \mathbb{R} : a < x \leq b\}$$

$$[a, b) := \{x \in \mathbb{R} : a \leq x < b\}$$

$$(a, b) := \{x \in \mathbb{R} : a < x < b\}$$

### Example

In what interval does x lie such that:

$$|3x + 4| < |2x - 1|$$

*Solution*

$$\text{Case 1 : } x \geq \frac{1}{2}$$

$$\Rightarrow 1 - 2x < 3x + 4 < 2x - 1$$

$$\Rightarrow 1 - 2x < 3x + 4$$

$$\Rightarrow x > \frac{-3}{5}$$

$$\text{And, } \Rightarrow 3x + 4 < 2x - 1$$

$$\Rightarrow x < -5$$

There are no real solutions in this range.

$$\text{Case 2 : } x < \frac{1}{2}$$

$$\Rightarrow 2x - 1 < 3x + 4 < 1 - 2x$$

$$\Rightarrow 2x - 1 < 3x + 4$$

$$\Rightarrow -5 < x$$

$$\text{And, } \Rightarrow 3x + 4 < 1 - 2x$$

$$\Rightarrow 5x < -3$$

$$\Rightarrow x < \frac{-3}{5}$$

$$\Rightarrow -5 < x < \frac{-3}{5}, \quad x \in \left( -5, \frac{-3}{5} \right)$$

**Definition 1.04 - Functions**

Functions map values between fields of numbers. The signature of a function is defined by

$$f : A \rightarrow B$$

Where  $f$  is the name of the function,  $A$  is the domain and  $B$  is the co-domain.

The *Domain* of a function is the set of numbers it can take as an input.

The *Co-Domain* is the set of numbers that the domain is mapped to.

N.B. - A function is valid iff it maps each value in the domain to a single value in the co-domain.

**Definition 1.05 - Maximal Domain**

The *Maximal Domain* of a function is the largest set of values which can serve as the domain of a function.

**Remark 1.06 - Types of Function**

Let  $f : A \rightarrow B$

*Polynomials*

$$f(x) = a_0 + a_1x + \dots + a_nx^n$$

*Rational*

$$f(x) = \frac{p(x)}{q(x)}, \quad q(x) \neq 0 \quad \forall x \in A$$

*Trigonometric*

$$\sin(x), \cos(x), \tan(x) \text{ etc.}$$

## 2 Limits

### 2.1 Limits

**Definition 2.01 - Limits**

A limit is the value a function tends to, for a given  $x$ .

*i.e.* The value  $f(x)$  has at it gets very close to  $x$ .

*Formally* We say  $L$  is the limit of  $f(x)$  as  $x$  tends to  $x_0$  if

$$\forall \varepsilon > 0, \exists \delta > 0 \text{ st if } x \in A \text{ and } |x - x_0| < \delta \Rightarrow |f(x) - L| < \varepsilon$$

*Notation*

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} f(x) = L$$

**Definition 2.02 - Directional Limits**

Sometimes the value of a limit depends on which direction you approach it from.

$\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0+}$  is used when approaching from values greater than  $x_0$ .

$\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0-}$  is used when approaching from values less than  $x_0$ .

**Theorem 2.03 - Operations with limits**

Let  $\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} f(x) = L_f$  and  $\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} g(x) = L_g$  Then

$$\begin{aligned}\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} [f(x) + g(x)] &= L_f + L_g \\ \lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} f(x) \cdot g(x) &= L_f \cdot L_g \\ \lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} &= \frac{L_f}{L_g} \quad L_g \neq 0\end{aligned}$$

**2.2 Exponential Function****Definition 2.04 - Exponential Function**

$$e := \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left(1 + \frac{1}{n}\right)^n \simeq 2.7182818...$$

**Theorem 2.05 - Binomial Expansion**

A technique for expanding binomial expressions

$$\begin{aligned}\left(1 + \frac{x}{n}\right)^n &= \sum_{i=0}^n \binom{n}{i} \cdot 1^{n-i} \cdot \left(\frac{x}{n}\right)^i \\ &= 1 + x + \frac{n-1}{2n} \cdot x^2 + \dots + \frac{x^n}{n^n}\end{aligned}$$

**3 The Derivative****Definition 3.01 - Differentiable Equations**

Let  $f : A \rightarrow B$  and  $x_0 \in A$ .

$f$  is differentiable at  $x_0$  if  $\exists L \in B$  such that

$$L = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(x_0 + h) - f(x_0)}{h}$$

If this limit exists  $\forall x \in A$  then we can define the derivative of  $f(x)$

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

**Definition 3.02 - Notation for Differentiation**

There are two ways to denote the derivative of an equation

$$f'(x) \iff \frac{df}{dx}, f''(x) \iff \frac{d^2f}{dx^2}, \dots, f^{(n)}(x) \iff \frac{d^n f}{dx^n}$$

N.B. - Using  $\frac{df}{dx}$  is more informative, especially for equations with multiple variables.

### 3.1 Techniques for finding derivative

**Theorem 3.03 - Sum Rule**

Let  $f, g$  be differentiable with respect to  $x$ .

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

**Theorem 3.04 - Product Rule**

Let  $f, g$  be differentiable with respect to  $x$ .

$$(fg)' = f'g + fg'$$

**Theorem 3.05 - Quotient Rule**

Let  $f, g$  be differentiable with respect to  $x$ .

$$\left(\frac{f}{g}\right)' = \frac{f'g - fg'}{g^2}$$

**Definition 3.06 - Composite Functions**

Let  $f : B \rightarrow C$  and  $g : A \rightarrow B$  Then

$$(f \circ g)(x) = f(g(x))$$

**Theorem 3.07 - Chain Rule**

Let  $f, g$  be differentiable with respect to  $x$ .

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

### 3.2 Implicit Differentiation

**Definition 3.08 - Implicit Differentiation**

Sometimes it is hard to isolate variables in multi-variable equations, in these cases differentiate both sides with respect to the same variable.

Remembering

$$\frac{d}{dx}(x) = 1 \text{ and } \frac{d}{dx}(y) = \frac{dy}{dx} = y'$$

*Example*

Find  $y$  if  $x^3 + y^3 = 6xy$

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{d}{dx}(x^3 + y^3) &= \frac{d}{dx}(6xy) \\ \Rightarrow 3x^2 + 3y^2 \cdot y' &= 6y + 6x \cdot y' \\ \Rightarrow y'(3y^2 - 6x) &= 6y - 3x^2 \\ \Rightarrow y' &= \frac{2y - x^2}{y^2 - 2x} \end{aligned}$$

### 3.3 Applications of The Derivative

**Theorem 3.09 - Newton's Method**

Let  $f$  be differentiable. Using *Newton's Method* we can approximate a solution to  $f(x) = 0$ .

- i) Take an initial guess,  $x_0$ ;
- ii) Find the value of  $x$  where the tangent to  $x_0$  on  $f(x)$  intercepts the x-axis;
- iii) Use this value as the next guess;
- iv) Repeat until the value of  $x$  reduces little.

The equation for the tangent is

$$y = f(x_0) + (x - x_0)f'(x_0)$$

so a simplified equation for the process can be deduced

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

**Theorem 3.10 - Angle between Intersecting Curves**

Let  $y = f_1(x)$  and  $y = f_2(x)$  be two curves which intersect at  $(x_0, y_0)$ .

Then  $y_0 = f_1(x_0) = f_2(x_0)$

Let  $m_1, m_2$  be the gradient of the tangents to  $f_1$  &  $f_2$  at  $x_0$ .

Then  $\theta_i := \tan^{-1}(m_i)$  for  $i = 1, 2$ .

Let  $\phi = |\theta_1 - \theta_2|$ , then

$$\phi = \left| \frac{m_1 - m_2}{1 + m_1 m_2} \right|$$

**Theorem 3.11 - L'Hospital's Rule**

For two equations  $f, g$  with limit of  $-\infty, 0$  or  $\infty$  as  $x$  tends to  $a$ , it is hard to solve

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

Provided the limit exists, L'Hospital's Rule states that

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

### 3.4 Sketching Curves

**Remark 3.11 - Sketching Curves**

Evaluating the derivative of a curve can make it easier to sketch:

- i) When  $f'(x) > 0$  the curve is heading upwards;
- ii) When  $f'(x) < 0$  the curve is heading downwards;
- iii) When  $f'(x) = 0$  the curve is flat;
- iv) When  $f'(x) = \infty, -\infty$  there are asymptotes.

**Definition 3.12 - Even Functions**

If  $f(x) = f(-x)$  then the function is symmetrical and said to be *even*.

*Examples* -  $x^2, \cos(x), |x|$

**Definition 3.13 - Odd Functions**

If  $f(x) = -f(-x)$  then the function is said to be *odd*.

*Examples* -  $x, \sin(x), x \cdot \cos(x)$

**Remark 3.14**

Some functions are neither *odd* nor *even*.

*Example* -  $x + x^2$

## 4 Inegration

### 4.1 The Primitive

**Definition 4.01 - The Primitive**

A function,  $F : A \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ , is a primitive for the function  $f : A \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  if  $F$  is differentiable and

$$\frac{d}{dx}F = f$$

N.B. - Primitives are also called *Indefinite Integral* or *Anti-Derivative*.

**Remark 4.02 - Area Under a Curve**

Let  $f : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  be a continuous function. Then the area between the curve and the x-axis is found by integration.

$$A := \int_a^b f(x)dx$$

**Definition 4.03 - Convergent Improper Integrals**

Let  $b > a$  and define a function,  $f : [a, \infty) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ , which is continuous in  $[a, b]$  Then

$$\int_a^\infty f(x)dx := \lim_{b \rightarrow \infty} \int_a^b f(x)dx$$

If this limit exists then the improper integral is *convergent*, otherwise it is *divergent*.

**Definition 4.04 - Definite Integral**

Let  $F$  be the primitive for the function  $f$ . Then

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

Notation -  $F(x)|_a^b = F(b) - F(a)$

**Remark 4.05 - Summing Definite Integrals**

For all  $a < c < b$

$$\int_a^b f(x)dx = \int_a^c f(x)dx + \int_c^b f(x)dx$$

$$\int_b^a f(x)dx := - \int_a^b f(x)dx$$

**Theorem 4.06 - Taylor Series**

Functions can be expanded into polynomial form with degree  $n$ ,  $T_n$ , and remainder  $R_n$  such that  $f(x) = T_n(x) + R_n(x)$ .

$$T_n(x) = f(a) + (x - a)f'(a) + \dots + \frac{1}{n!}(x - a)^n \cdot f^{(n)}(a)$$

$$R_n(x) = \frac{1}{(n+1)!} \int_a^x (x - t)^n \cdot f^{(n+1)}(t) dt$$