

# Calculus

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Part I

Preliminaries





# Chapter 1

## Functions

### 1.1 Sets

Before defining what a function is or what it does, it is important to briefly discuss what goes into function and what comes out. Simply, *sets* are a collection of items and each one of those items are usually referred to as *elements*. Without getting into the weeds of set theory, sets can contain pretty much anything from numbers, functions, and other sets [3].

Some common sets that you may be familiar with are the *natural numbers*  $\mathbb{N} = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, \dots\}$ , the *integers*  $\mathbb{Z} = \{\dots, -2, -1, 0, 1, 2, \dots\}$ , and the *real numbers*  $\mathbb{R}$ , which is usually represented via a number line. Sets can also be intervals on the real line (i.e.  $[a, b)$  is an interval on  $\mathbb{R}$  containing  $a$  but not  $b$ ) or even the possible results of flipping a coin  $C = \{H, T\}$ .

We will now define the basic notation when dealing with sets and the operations that can be performed on sets. We say that  $x$  is an element of a set  $A$  with the notation  $x \in A$  and when  $x$  is not in  $A$ , we say  $x \notin A$ . For example, given the set  $A = \{1, 2, 3, 4\}$ , we can say that  $1 \in A$  is true as well as  $5 \notin A$ .

The notion of combining sets comes with *unions* and *intersections*. Given  $A$  and  $B$  are sets, the union of  $A$  and  $B$  is denoted as  $A \cup B$  and is equal to the set that contains elements in either  $A$  or  $B$ . Similarly, the intersection between  $A$  and  $B$  is denoted as  $A \cap B$  and is the set that contains elements that are in both  $A$  and  $B$ . For example, given the sets  $A = \{1, 2, 3, 4\}$  and  $B = \{3, 4, 5, 6\}$ , the union and intersection between  $A$  and  $B$  is

$$\begin{aligned} A \cup B &= \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6\} \\ A \cap B &= \{3, 4\} \end{aligned} \tag{1.1}$$

Subsets are often used to relate different sets and their elements. A set  $A$  is said to be a subset of another set  $B$  if all of the elements of  $A$  are also within  $B$  and is denoted as  $A \subseteq B$  and a set  $A$  is equal to a set  $B$  if and only if  $A \subseteq B$  and  $B \subseteq A$ . An important subset is the empty set represented by the symbols  $\emptyset$ ,  $\emptyset$ , or simply  $\{\}$ . It is important to note that the empty set is also a subset of all sets.

Using sets by listing them out can become cumbersome and sometimes confusing, instead set builder notation is used to build a set based on a rule. For example, the set of all positive even integers can be written as

$$A = \{2, 4, 6, 8, \dots\} = \{z : z \text{ is an positive even integer}\} = \{z : z = 2n, n \in \mathbb{Z} \text{ and } n > 0\} \tag{1.2}$$

Here, the  $:$  stands for "such that" which indicates the rule (the words "such that" or the symbol  $|$  is also often used). The *rational numbers*  $\mathbb{Q}$  can also be constructed via the integers with

$$\mathbb{Q} = \left\{ \frac{p}{q} : p, q \in \mathbb{Z} \text{ and } q \neq 0 \right\} \tag{1.3}$$

As mentioned previously, intervals on the real number line can be represented as sets. Given two values  $a$  and  $b$  and assuming that  $a \leq b$ , intervals on the real line are represented as

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



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



- Half-open interval:

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



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



- Infinite interval:

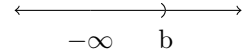
$$- (a, \infty) = \{x \in \mathbb{R} : a < x\}$$



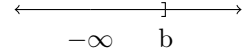
$$- [a, \infty) = \{x \in \mathbb{R} : a \leq x\}$$



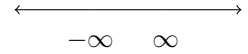
$$- (-\infty, b) = \{x \in \mathbb{R} : x < b\}$$



$$- (-\infty, b] = \{x \in \mathbb{R} : x \leq b\}$$



$$- (-\infty, \infty) = \mathbb{R}$$



Here, the open brackets ( and ) indicate that the respective endpoint is not included, while the closed brackets [ and ] indicate that the respective endpoint is included in the interval.

The *Cartesian product* (also known as the *direct product*) is used often to describe ordered pairs or even higher-dimension coordinates. Some examples include the  $xy$ -plane also known as  $\mathbb{R}^2$ , 3D space with  $\mathbb{R}^3$ . The Cartesian product for two sets  $A$  and  $B$  is defined as

$$A \times B = \{(a, b) : a \in A, b \in B\} \quad (1.4)$$

Note that, in general,  $A \times B \neq B \times A$  as the operation is order dependent. Higher-order products are defined with sets  $A_1, A_2, \dots, A_n$  as

$$A_1 \times A_2 \times \dots \times A_n = \{(a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n) : a_i \in A_i, i \in \{1, 2, \dots, n\}\} \quad (1.5)$$

As previously mentioned, the 2D plane as well as the 3D plane can be constructed using Cartesian products as well and is done as such with the set of real numbers  $\mathbb{R}$

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbb{R}^2 &= \mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R} = \{(x, y) : x, y \in \mathbb{R}\} \\ \mathbb{R}^3 &= \mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R} = \{(x, y, z) : x, y, z \in \mathbb{R}\} \\ &\vdots \\ \mathbb{R}^n &= \mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R} \times \dots \times \mathbb{R} = \{(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n) : x_i \in \mathbb{R}, i \in \{1, 2, \dots, n\}\} \end{aligned} \quad (1.6)$$

For further and more formal discussion on sets and naive set theory as well as formal logic and proof writing, refer to [2] or [3].

## 1.2 What is a function?

*Functions* are objects in math that describe a relationship or mapping between two sets. Given two sets  $X$  and  $Y$ , a function  $f$  maps the unique elements of  $X$ , called the *domain* of the function, to elements in the set  $Y$  called the *codomain* of the function and the relationship is denoted as  $f : X \rightarrow Y$  (" $f$  maps from  $X$  to  $Y$ ") or  $y = f(x)$  (" $y$  equals  $f$  of  $x$ " [1]), where  $y \in R \subseteq Y$  is known as the *dependent variable* with  $R$  as the range of the function and  $x \in X$  is known as the *independent variable* or the *argument* of the function. The *range* of a function is the set of all possible values that  $f(x)$  is able to output with  $X$  as its domain, note that the range is a subset of the codomain  $Y$  but is not always equal. Formally, the definition is as follows

**Definition 1.1.** A *function* is a mapping or rule that assigns each element from a set called the domain  $X$  of the function to a unique element in the range  $R = f(X)$  of the function which is a subset of the codomain  $R \subseteq Y$  and the element  $x \in X$  is mapped to an element in  $y \in R \subseteq Y$  with  $x \mapsto y$ .

Further emphasis must be made on the elements  $y = f(x)$ . The function  $f(x)$  maps the element  $x \in X$  to exactly one element  $y \in Y$  [4]. For single variable functions, this can be tested using the vertical line test on a function's graph (covered shortly). If a formula results in two answers with one input (i.e. the equation for a circle:  $x^2 + y^2 = r$  gives two points of  $y$  for each  $x$ ) it is no longer considered a function. Figure 1.1 shows how a function maps elements of the domain to the range.

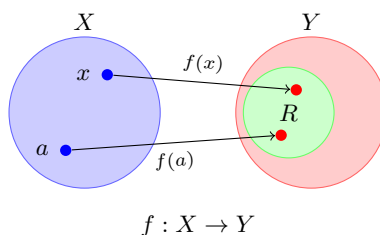


Figure 1.1: Function mapping diagram showing the domain  $X$ , codomain  $Y$ , and range  $f(X)$

**Example 1.2.** Some real-world examples of functions are

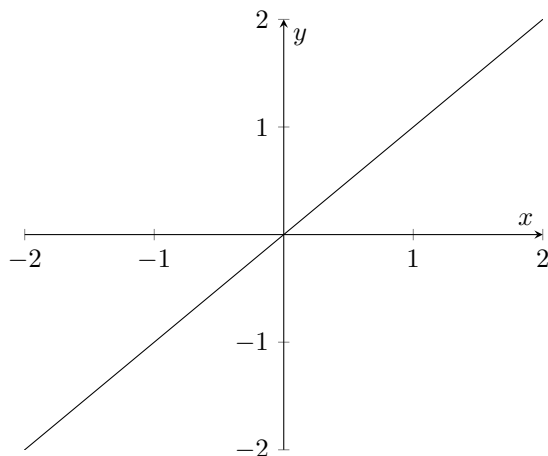
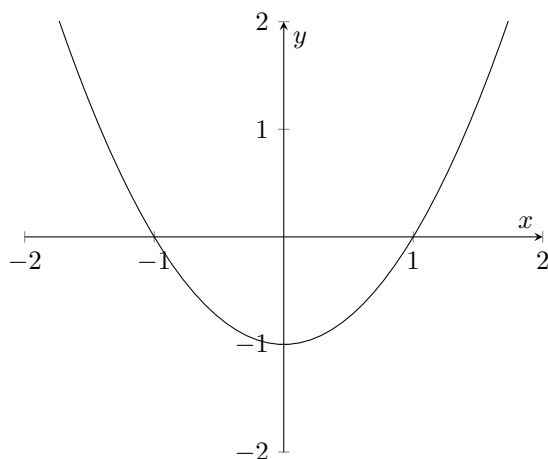
- The area of a circle: .....  $A(r) = \pi r^2$
- The height of a falling ball: .....  $h(t) = h_0 + v_0 t - (1/2)gt^2$
- Compound interest: .....  $A(t) = P(1 + \frac{r}{n})^{nt}$
- Temperature conversion: .....  $C(F) = \frac{5}{9}(F - 32)$
- 

It can be useful to think of functions as machines that take in an input and produces an output. The examples above show such cases using mathematical formulas that give a set of instructions on how the input is transformed from the element in the domain to the element in the range.

Another way to represent functions is with its *graph* which is a set of points consisting of the input and its corresponding output and is represented with the set of ordered pairs  $\{(x, y) : y = f(x), x \in \mathbb{R}\}$  for functions that accept real numbers.

**Example 1.3.** A familiar example is the linear function  $f(x) = mx + b$  where  $m$  is the slope of the line and  $b$  is the vertical offset. Suppose  $m = 1$  and  $b = 0$ , we get the following graph for the function  $f(x) = x$  in figure 1.3

**Example 1.4.** Another example is the quadratic function of the form  $f(x) = ax^2 + bx + c$ , where  $a, b, c \in \mathbb{R}$  are the coefficients of the function and determine its shape. Suppose that  $a = 1, b = 0, c = -1$  resulting in the function  $f(x) = x^2 - 1$ . Using knowledge of the roots a quadratic function, it can be deduced that this will result in a parabola with  $x$ -intersections at  $x = -1$  and  $x = 1$  which can be confirmed in the graph in figure 1.4

Figure 1.2: Graph of the function  $f(x) = x$ Figure 1.3: Graph of the function  $f(x) = x^2 - 1$ 

### 1.3 Common Functions

### 1.4 Types of Functions

#### 1.4.1 Even and Odd Functions

#### 1.4.2 Increasing and Decreasing Functions

#### 1.4.3 Periodic Functions

### 1.5 Inverse Function

### 1.6 Function Compositions

### 1.7 Function Transformations and Operations

## Chapter 2

# Special Functions

2.1 Linear Functions

2.2 Quadratic Functions

2.3 Polynomial and Rational Functions

2.4 Exponential and Logarithmic Functions

2.5 Absolute Value and Piecewise Functions

2.6 Systems of Equations



## Chapter 3

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### 3.2 Parametric Equations

### 3.3 Polar Coordinates





Part II

Differential Calculus



## Chapter 4

# Limits and Continuity

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4.2 One-Sided Limits and Limits to Infinity

4.3 Continuity and the Intermediate Value Theorem

4.4 The Squeeze Theorem



## Chapter 5

# Differentiation and Derivatives

### 5.1 The Limit Definition of the Derivative

### 5.2 Differential Rules

#### 5.2.1 The Power Rule

#### 5.2.2 The Product Rule

#### 5.2.3 The Quotient Rule

#### 5.2.4 The Chain Rule

### 5.3 Common and Special Derivatives

### 5.4 Advanced Differential Techniques

#### 5.4.1 Implicit Differentiation

#### 5.4.2 Logarithmic Differentiation

#### 5.4.3 Higher-Order Derivatives



## Chapter 6

# Applications of Derivatives

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6.2 Optimization

6.3 L'Hôpital's Rule Rule





Part III

Integral Calculus



## Chapter 7

# Integration and Integrals

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7.2 Riemann Sums

7.3 The Fundamental Theorem of Calculus



## Chapter 8

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8.2 Integration by Parts

8.3 Partial Fractions

8.4 Trigonometric Substitutions

8.5 Hyperbolic Substitutions



## Chapter 9

# Application of Integrals

### 9.1 Areas Between Curves

### 9.2 Volumes of 3D Shapes

#### 9.2.1 The Disk Method

#### 9.2.2 The Washer Method

#### 9.2.3 The Shell Method

### 9.3 Arc Length





## Chapter 10

# Improper Integrals and Numerical Integration

### 10.1 Improper Integrals and Their Convergence

### 10.2 Numerical Integration

#### 10.2.1 Trapezoidal Rule

#### 10.2.2 Simpson's Rule



## Chapter 11

# Sequences, Series, and Convergence

### 11.1 Sequences

### 11.2 Infinite Series

#### 11.2.1 Algebraic Series

#### 11.2.2 Geometric Series

#### 11.2.3 p-Series

#### 11.2.4 Alternating Series

### 11.3 Convergence Tests

#### 11.3.1 The Divergence Test

#### 11.3.2 The Comparison Test

#### 11.3.3 The Limit Comparison Test

#### 11.3.4 The Integral Test

#### 11.3.5 The Ratio Test

#### 11.3.6 The Root Test

### 11.4 Power Series

### 11.5 Taylor Series



Part IV

Multivariable Calculus



## Chapter 12

# Vectors and Vector Spaces

### 12.1 Vectors in 2D/3D

### 12.2 Vector Products

#### 12.2.1 Dot Products

#### 12.2.2 Cross Products

### 12.3 Lines and Planes in Space





## Chapter 13

# Functions of Several Variables

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13.2 Derivatives and Integrals of Vector Functions

13.3 Curvature



## Chapter 14

# Partial Derivatives

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14.4 The Gradient

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## Chapter 15

# Multiple Integrals

### 15.1 Double Integrals

### 15.2 Coordinate Systems

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### 15.3 Surface Area and Volume

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## Chapter 16

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# Applications of Multivariable Calculus

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17.2 The Jacobian

17.3 Center of Mass

17.4 Fluid Flows



Part V

Appendix



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