

# Revision notes - MA1102R

Ma Hongqiang

January 15, 2017

## Contents

<b>1</b>	<b>Limits</b>	<b>2</b>
<b>2</b>	<b>Continuous Functions</b>	<b>4</b>
<b>3</b>	<b>Derivatives</b>	<b>6</b>
<b>4</b>	<b>Applications of Differentiation</b>	<b>7</b>
<b>5</b>	<b>Integrals</b>	<b>11</b>
<b>6</b>	<b>Inverse Functions and Techniques of Integration</b>	<b>13</b>
<b>7</b>	<b>Application of Integral</b>	<b>17</b>
<b>8</b>	<b>Ordinary Differential Equations</b>	<b>18</b>

# 1 Limits

## 1.1 Precise Definition of Limits

**Definition 1.1** (Limit).

Let  $f$  be a function defined on an open interval containing  $a$ , except possibly at  $a$ . The **limit** of  $f(x)$  when  $x$  approaches  $a$ , equals  $L$  if **for every**  $\epsilon > 0$  **there is** a  $\delta_\epsilon > 0$  such that

$$|f(x) - L| < \epsilon \quad \text{whenever} \quad 0 < |x - a| < \delta_\epsilon$$

**Definition 1.2** (Left-hand Limit).

We write  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a^-} f(x) = L$  if

**for every**  $\epsilon > 0$  **there is** a  $\delta > 0$  such that

$$|f(x) - L| < \epsilon \quad \text{whenever} \quad 0 < a - x < \delta$$

**Definition 1.3** (Right-hand Limit).

We write  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a^+} f(x) = L$  if

**for every**  $\epsilon > 0$  **there is** a  $\delta > 0$  such that

$$|f(x) - L| < \epsilon \quad \text{whenever} \quad 0 < x - a < \delta$$

**Definition 1.4** (Infinite Limit).

We write  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a^-} f(x) = \infty$  if **for every**  $M > 0$  **there is** a  $\delta > 0$  such that

$$f(x) > M \quad \text{whenever} \quad 0 < |x - a| < \delta$$

**Definition 1.5** (Negative Infinite Limit).

We write  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a^-} f(x) = -\infty$  if **for every**  $M < 0$  **there is** a  $\delta > 0$  such that

$$f(x) < M \quad \text{whenever} \quad 0 < |x - a| < \delta$$

## 1.2 Law of Limits

**Theorem 1.1** (Scalar Multiplication Law).

If  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = L$ , then  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} (c f(x)) = cL$ , where  $c$  is a constant.

**Theorem 1.2** (Sum Law).

If  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = L$  and  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} g(x) = M$ , then  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} (f(x) + g(x)) = L + M$ .

**Theorem 1.3** (Product Law).

If  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = L$  and  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} g(x) = M$ , then  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x)g(x) = LM$ .

**Theorem 1.4** (Quotient Law).

If  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = L$  and  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} g(x) = M$ , then  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} = \frac{L}{M}$  provided that  $M \neq 0$ .

**Theorem 1.5.**

Suppose  $f(x) = g(x)$  for all  $x$  near  $a$ , except possibly at  $a$ .

If  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = L$ , then  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} g(x)$  exists and equals  $L$ .

**Theorem 1.6** (Inequality on Limits).

Suppose  $f(x) \leq g(x)$  for all  $x$  near  $a$ , except possibly at  $a$ .

If  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = L$  and  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} g(x) = M$ , then  $L \leq M$ .

**Theorem 1.7** (Squeeze Theorem).

Let  $f, g, h$  be functions such that  $f(x) \leq g(x) \leq h(x)$  for all  $x$  near  $a$ , and  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = \lim_{x \rightarrow a} h(x) = L$

Then  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} g(x)$  exists and equals  $L$ .

## 2 Continuous Functions

### 2.1 Continuity at a Point

**Definition 2.1** (Continuity at Point).

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

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

The definition of continuity requires the following:

1.  $f$  is **defined** at  $a$ ,
2.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x)$  exists,
3.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = f(a)$ .

**Definition 2.2** (One-sided continuity).

A function  $f$  is said to be **continuous from the right** at  $a$  if

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

and  $f$  is said to be **continuous from the left** at  $a$  if

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

**Theorem 2.1.**

$f$  is **continuous at**  $a$  if and only if  $f$  is **continuous from the left** at  $a$  and **continuous from the right** at  $a$ .

### 2.2 Continuity on an Interval

**Definition 2.3** (Continuity on Interval).

$f$  is **continuous on an interval** if it is **continuous at every number** in the interval.

$f$  is continuous on open interval  $(a, b)$

$$\Leftrightarrow f \text{ is continuous at every } x \in (a, b)$$

$f$  is continuous on closed interval  $[a, b]$

$$\Leftrightarrow \begin{cases} f \text{ is continuous at every } x \in (a, b) \\ f \text{ is continuous from the right at } a \\ f \text{ is continuous from the left at } b \end{cases}$$

## 2.3 Properties of Continuous Function

Suppose  $f$  and  $g$  are continuous at  $a$ , then

- $cf$  is continuous at  $a$ ,
- $f + g$  is continuous at  $a$ ,
- $fg$  is continuous at  $a$ ,
- $f/g$  is continuous at  $a$ , provided that  $g(a) \neq 0$ .

**Polynomials, rational functions, root functions, trigonometric functions** are continuous over domain.

**Theorem 2.2** (Composite of Continuous Functions).

If  $f$  is **continuous** at  $b$  and  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} g(x) = b$ , then

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

Or equivalently,

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

If  $g$  is continuous at  $a$  and  $f$  is continuous at  $g(a)$ , then the **composite**  $f \circ g$  is continuous at  $a$ .

### 2.3.1 Remarks on substitution

Suppose  $y = g(x)$  such that  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} g(x) = b$ . If

1.  $f$  is **continuous** at  $b$ ; **or**
2.  $g(x) \neq b$  for all  $x$  near  $a$ , and  $\lim_{y \rightarrow b} f(y)$  exists;

Then  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(g(x)) = \lim_{y \rightarrow b} f(y)$ .

In particular, assuming that  $\lim_{y \rightarrow b} f(y)$  exists, then (2) holds if  $g$  is a **one-to-one** function

## 2.4 Intermediate Value Theorem

**Theorem 2.3** (Intermediate Value Theorem(Simple)).

Let  $f$  be a function **continuous on** a finite closed interval  $[a, b]$ .

If  $f(a) < 0$  and  $f(b) > 0$ , or if  $f(a) > 0$  and  $f(b) < 0$ , then there exists a number  $c \in (a, b)$  such that  $f(c) = 0$ .

**Theorem 2.4** (Intermediate Value Theorem).

Let  $f$  be a function **continuous on**  $[a, b]$  with  $f(a) \neq f(b)$ .

Let  $N$  be a number between  $f(a)$  and  $f(b)$ , then **there exists**  $c \in (a, b)$  such that  $f(c) = N$ .

### 3 Derivatives

**Definition 3.1** (Derivative).

The **derivative** of a function  $f$  at a number  $a$  is

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

$f$  is differentiable at  $a$  if  $f'(a)$  exists.

$f'(a)$  is the slope of  $y = f(x)$  at  $x = a$ .

An equivalent definition is:

$$f'(a) := \lim_{x \rightarrow a} \frac{f(x) - f(a)}{x - a}$$

**Theorem 3.1** (Differentiability implies Continuity).

If  $f$  is **differentiable** at  $a$  then  $f$  is **continuous** at  $a$ .

**Theorem 3.2** (Differentiation Formulas).

- $(cf)' = cf'$
- $(f \pm g)' = f' \pm g'$
- $(fg)' = f'g + fg'$
- $\left(\frac{f}{g}\right)' = \frac{f'g - fg'}{g^2}$ , if  $g(x) \neq 0$ .

**Theorem 3.3** (Some useful results).

- $(x^n)' = nx^{n-1}$  for all  $n \in \mathbb{Q}$
- Lemma A:  $\lim_{\theta \rightarrow 0} \frac{\sin \theta}{\theta} = 1$
- Lemma B:  $\lim_{\theta \rightarrow 0} \frac{1 - \cos \theta}{\theta} = 0$
- $(\sin x)' = \cos x$
- $(\cos x)' = -\sin x$
- $(\tan x)' = \sec^2 x$
- $(\cot x)' = -\csc^2 x$
- $(\sec x)' = \sec x \tan x$
- $(\csc x)' = -\csc x \cot x$

**Theorem 3.4** (Chain Rule).

Let  $f$  and  $g$  be differentiable functions.

Then  $F = f \circ g$  is differentiable and

$$F' = (f' \circ g)(g')$$

## 4 Applications of Differentiation

**Definition 4.1** (Absolute Maximum and Minimum).

Let  $f$  be a function, and  $D$  be its domain.

$f$  has an **global** (or **absolute**) **maximum** at  $c \in D$

$$\Leftrightarrow f(c) \geq f(x) \text{ for all } x \in D.$$

$f$  has an **global** (or **absolute**) **minimum** at  $c \in D$

$$\Leftrightarrow f(c) \leq f(x) \text{ for all } x \in D.$$

The **absolute maximum** and **absolute minimum** are called the **(absolute) extreme values**.

**Definition 4.2** (Local Maximum and Minimum).

Let  $f$  be a function with domain  $D$ .

$f$  has a **local maximum** at  $c \in D$

$$\Leftrightarrow f(c) \geq f(x) \text{ for all } x \text{ near } c \text{ (i.e., for all } x \text{ in an open interval containing } c)$$

$f$  has a **local minimum** at  $c \in D$

$$\Leftrightarrow f(c) \leq f(x) \text{ for all } x \text{ near } c \text{ (i.e., for all } x \text{ in an open interval containing } c)$$

**Theorem 4.1** (Extreme Value Theorem).

If  $f$  is **continuous** on a **finite closed** interval  $[a, b]$ , then  $f$  attains **extreme values** on  $[a, b]$ .

Precisely,  $f$  attains an

- **absolute maximum** value  $f(c)$  at some  $c \in [a, b]$ ,
- **absolute minimum** value  $f(d)$  at some  $d \in [a, b]$ .

**Theorem 4.2** (Finding Extreme Values).

Let  $f$  be a continuous function on closed interval  $[a, b]$ .

1. Compute the values at **endpoints**:  $f(a)$ ,  $f(b)$ .
2. Find **local max** and **local min** of  $f$  on  $(a, b)$ .
3. Compare the values obtained above to seek out the **extreme values**.

**Theorem 4.3** (Fermat's Theorem).

Suppose  $f$  has a **local maximum** or **local minimum** at  $c$ .

$$\text{If } f'(c) \text{ exists, then } f'(c) = 0$$

**Definition 4.3** (Critical Number).

Let  $f$  be a function with domain  $D$ .

Then  $c \in D$  is called a **Critical Number** of  $f$  if  $f'(c)$  does not exist, or  $f'(c)$  exists and equals 0.

**Theorem 4.4** (Closed Interval Method).

Condition:  $f$  is a **continuous** function on interval  $[a, b]$ .

1. Find the values of  $f$  at **endpoints**:  $x = a$ ,  $x = b$ ,
2. Find the values of  $f$  at **critical numbers** of  $f$  in  $(a, b)$
3. Compare the values of  $f(x)$  evaluated in 1 and 2.

**Theorem 4.5** (Rolle's Theorem).

Condition:  $f$  is a function such that

- $f$  is **continuous** on  $[a, b]$ ,
- $f$  is **differentiable** on  $(a, b)$ ,
- $f(a) = f(b)$

Then there is a number  $c \in (a, b)$  such that  $f'(c) = 0$ .

**Theorem 4.6** (Mean Value Theorem).

Condition:  $f$  is a function such that

- $f$  is **continuous** on  $[a, b]$ ,
- $f$  is **differentiable** on  $(a, b)$ ,

Then there is a number  $c \in (a, b)$  such that

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

**Theorem 4.7** (Cauchy's Mean Value Theorem).

Condition:  $f, g$  are functions **continuous** on  $[a, b]$ , **differentiable** on  $(a, b)$ , and  $g'(x) \neq 0$  for any  $x \in (a, b)$ .

Then there exists  $c \in (a, b)$  such that

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

**Theorem 4.8** (An application of Mean Value Theorem).

Let  $f$  be a function such that

- $f$  is **continuous** on  $[a, b]$
- $f'(x) = 0$  for any  $x \in (a, b)$

Then  $f$  is **constant** on  $[a, b]$ .

From this theorem, let  $f$  and  $g$  be continuous on  $[a, b]$ .

If  $f'(x) = g'(x)$  for all  $x \in (a, b)$ , then  $f(x) = g(x) + C$  on  $[a, b]$  for a constant  $C$ .



**Theorem 4.9** (Increasing and Decreasing Test).

Condition:  $f$  is **continuous** on  $[a, b]$ , **differentiable** on  $(a, b)$ .

If  $f'(x) > 0$  for any  $x \in (a, b)$ , then  $f$  is **increasing** on  $[a, b]$ .

If  $f'(x) < 0$  for any  $x \in (a, b)$ , then  $f$  is **decreasing** on  $[a, b]$ .

**Theorem 4.10** (Weak Converse of Increasing Test).

Let  $f$  be **differentiable** on an open interval  $I$ .

•  $f$  is **increasing**  $\Leftrightarrow f' \geq 0$  on  $I$ .

•  $f$  is **decreasing**  $\Leftrightarrow f' \leq 0$  on  $I$ .

**Theorem 4.11** (First Derivative Test).

Condition:  $f$  is a **continuous** function, and  $c$  is a **critical number** of  $f$ . Suppose  $f$  is **differentiable** near  $c$ , except possibly at  $c$ .

• If  $f'$  changes from **positive** to **negative** at  $c$ , then  $f$  has a **local maximum** at  $c$ .

• If  $f'$  changes from **negative** to **positive** at  $c$ , then  $f$  has a **local minimum** at  $c$ .

• If  $f'$  does not change sign at  $c$ , then  $f$  has **neither local max/min** at  $c$ .

**Definition 4.4** (Concavity).

The graph of  $f$  is **concave up** on open interval  $I$  if  $f(x) > f'(y)(x - y) + f(y)$  for any  $x \neq y$  in  $I$ .

The graph of  $f$  is **concave down** on open interval  $I$  if  $f(x) < f'(y)(x - y) + f(y)$  for any  $x \neq y$  in  $I$ .

**Theorem 4.12** (Relations of Concavity and  $f'$ ).

Condition:  $f$  is **differentiable** on an open interval  $I$ .

• The graph is **concave up**  $\Leftrightarrow f'$  is **increasing**.

• The graph is **concave down**  $\Leftrightarrow f'$  is **decreasing**.

**Theorem 4.13** (Concavity Test).

Condition:  $f$  is **twice differentiable** on an open interval  $I$ .

• If  $f'' > 0$  on  $I$ , by increasing test,  $f'$  is increasing, then the graph of  $f$  is **concave up**.

• If  $f'' < 0$  on  $I$ , by decreasing test,  $f'$  is decreasing, then the graph of  $f$  is **concave down**.

**Remark:** Concavity, however, only requires  $f$  be differentiable.

**Theorem 4.14** (Second Derivative Test).

Condition:  $f''$  exists at **critical numbers** and  $f''$  is non-zero at **critical numbers**.

•  $f'(c) = 0$  and  $f''(c) > 0 \Rightarrow f$  has a **local minimum** at  $c$ .

- $f'(c) = 0$  and  $f''(c) < 0 \Rightarrow f$  has a **local maximum** at  $c$ .

**Definition 4.5** (Inflection Point).

A point  $P$  on the curve of  $y = f(x)$  is called an **inflection point** if

- $f$  is **continuous** at  $P$ , and
- the **concavity** of the curve changes at  $P$ .

**Theorem 4.15** (Properties of Inflection Point).

Suppose  $f$  has an inflection point at  $c$ , if  $f$  is **twice differentiable** at  $c$ , then  $f''(c) = 0$ .

**Theorem 4.16** (Taylor's Theorem).

Suppose  $f$  is  $n + 1$  times differentiable, then,

$$f(x) = f(a) + f'(a)(x - a) + \frac{f''(a)}{2}(x - a)^2 + \cdots + \frac{f^{(n)}(a)}{n!} + R_n$$

$$\text{where } R_n = \frac{f^{(n+1)}(c)}{(n+1)!}(x - a)^{n+1} \text{ for a } c \text{ between } x \text{ and } a.$$

**Theorem 4.17** (l'Hopital's Rule).

Conditions:

- $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = \lim_{x \rightarrow a} g(x) = 0$  or  $\infty$
- $f$  and  $g$  are **differentiable** near  $a$ , except at  $a$
- $g'(x) \neq 0$  near  $a$ .

Then  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} = \lim_{x \rightarrow a} \frac{f'(x)}{g'(x)}$ , provided that the limit on the right hand side exists or equal  $\pm\infty$

## 5 Integrals

**Definition 5.1** (Definite Integral).

Condition:  $f$  is a **continuous** function on  $[a, b]$ .

The **definite integral** of  $f$  from  $a$  to  $b$ :

$$\int_a^b f(x)dx = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{i=1}^n f(a + i \frac{b-a}{n}) \frac{1}{n}$$

**Theorem 5.1** (Properties of Definite Integral).

- $\int_a^b f(x)dx = -\int_b^a f(x)dx$
- $\int_a^b c dx = (b-a)c$
- $\int_a^b c f(x)dx = c \int_a^b f(x)dx$
- $\int_a^b (f(x) + g(x))dx = \int_a^b f(x)dx + \int_a^b g(x)dx$
- $\int_a^c f(x)dx + \int_c^b f(x)dx = \int_a^b f(x)dx$
- Let  $f$  be a continuous function on  $[a, b]$ , ( $a < b$ ). Suppose  $f(x) \geq 0$  on  $[a, b]$ , then  $\int_a^b f(x)dx \geq 0$ .
- Let  $f$  and  $g$  be continuous and  $f(x) \geq g(x)$  on  $[a, b]$ , then  $\int_a^b f(x)dx \geq \int_a^b g(x)dx$
- Let  $f$  be continuous and  $m \leq f(x) \leq M$  on  $[a, b]$ .  $m(b-a) \leq \int_a^b f(x)dx \leq M(b-a)$

**Theorem 5.2** (Fundamental Theorem of Calculus (I)).

Let  $f$  be a **continuous** function on  $[a, b]$ . Define  $g(x) = \int_a^x f(t)dt$ . Then

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

**Theorem 5.3** (Fundamental Theorem of Calculus (II)).

Let  $f$  be a **continuous** function on  $[a, b]$ . If  $F$  is **continuous** on  $[a, b]$  and  $F' = f$  and  $[a, b]$ , then

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

**Theorem 5.4** (Substitution Rule).

Let  $u = g(x)$  be a differentiable function whose range is an interval. If  $f$  is continuous and  $g'$  is continuous, then

$$\begin{aligned} \int f(g(x))g'(x)dx &= \int f(u)du \\ \int_a^b f(g(x))g'(x)dx &= \int_{g(a)}^{g(b)} f(u)du \end{aligned}$$

**Definition 5.2** (Improper Integral).

Let  $f$  be **continuous** on  $[a, b)$ , and discontinuous at  $b$ .

$$\int_a^b f(x)dx = \lim_{t \rightarrow b^-} \int_a^t f(x)dx$$

**Theorem 5.5** (Properties of Improper Integral).

Suppose  $f$  has a discontinuity at  $c \in (a, b)$ .

$$\int_a^b f(x)dx = \int_a^c f(x)dx + \int_c^b f(x)dx \text{ if both are convergent}$$

**Definition 5.3** (Improper Integral over Infinite Intervals).

If  $\int_a^t f(x)dx$  exists for every  $t \geq a$ , the improper integral of  $f$  from  $a$  to  $\infty$  is

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

## 6 Inverse Functions and Techniques of Integration

**Definition 6.1** (One to One Function).

$f$  is said to be **one-to-one** if

$$\text{for any } a, b \in D, a \neq b \Rightarrow f(a) \neq f(b)$$

Or equivalently,

$$\text{for any } a, b \in D, f(a) = f(b) \Rightarrow a = b$$

**Definition 6.2** (Inverse Function).

Let  $f$  be a **one-to-one** function with domain  $A$  and range  $B$ .

Its **inverse function**  $f^{-1}$  is the function with

- **domain**  $B$  and **range**  $A$ , and
- $f^{-1}(y) = x \Leftrightarrow y = f(x)$  for any  $x \in A, y \in B$ .

**Theorem 6.1** (Calculus of Inverse Function).

Let  $f$  be a one-to-one continuous function on an open interval  $I$ , then the inverse function  $f^{-1}$  is also continuous.

- If  $f$  is **differentiable** at  $a \in I$ , and  $f'(a) \neq 0$ ,
- then  $f^{-1}$  is **differentiable** at  $b = f(a)$ ,  
and  $(f^{-1})'(b) = \frac{1}{f'(a)}$

### 6.1 Inverse Trigonometric Functions

Inverse Function	Domain	Range
$\arcsin x$	$[-1, 1]$	$[-\frac{\pi}{2}, \frac{\pi}{2}]$
$\arccos x$	$[-1, 1]$	$[0, \pi]$
$\arctan x$	$\mathbb{R}$	$(-\frac{\pi}{2}, \frac{\pi}{2})$
$\text{arccot } x$	$\mathbb{R}$	$(0, \pi)$
$\text{arcsec } x$	$\mathbb{R} \setminus (-1, 1)$	$[0, \frac{\pi}{2}) \cup [\pi, \frac{3\pi}{2})$
$\text{arccsc } x$	$\mathbb{R} \setminus (-1, 1)$	$(0, \frac{\pi}{2}] \cup (\pi, \frac{3\pi}{2}]$

### 6.2 Derivative of Inverse Trigonometric Functions

- $\frac{d}{dx} \arcsin x = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1-x^2}}, -1 < x < 1$
- $\frac{d}{dx} \arccos x = \frac{-1}{\sqrt{1-x^2}}, -1 < x < 1$
- $\frac{d}{dx} \arctan x = \frac{1}{1+x^2}, x \in \mathbb{R}$
- $\frac{d}{dx} \text{arccot } x = \frac{-1}{1+x^2}, x \in \mathbb{R}$

- $\frac{d}{dx} \operatorname{arcsec} x = \frac{1}{x\sqrt{x^2-1}}, |x| > 1$
- $\frac{d}{dx} \operatorname{arccsc} x = \frac{-1}{x\sqrt{x^2-1}}, |x| > 1$

And following are the identities.

- $\arcsin x + \arccos x = \frac{\pi}{2}$
- $\arctan x + \operatorname{arccot} x = \frac{\pi}{2}$
- $\operatorname{arcsec} x + \operatorname{arccsc} x = \begin{cases} \frac{\pi}{2}, & \text{if } x \geq 1 \\ \frac{5\pi}{2}, & \text{if } x \leq -1 \end{cases}$

### 6.3 Natural Logarithmic Function

**Definition 6.3** (Natural Logarithmic Function( $\ln x$ )).

$$\ln x = \int_1^x \frac{1}{t} dt$$

**Theorem 6.2** (Properties of Natural Logarithmic Function).

- $\ln 1 = 0, \ln e = 1$
- $\ln x$  is increasing on  $\mathbb{R}^+$
- $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \ln x = \infty, \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \ln x = -\infty$
- Let  $a > 0$  and  $x > 0$ .  $\ln ax = \ln a + \ln x$
- Let  $x > 0$ .  $\ln x^r = r \ln x$ .
- $\int \frac{1}{x} dx = \ln |x| + C$

**Theorem 6.3** (Logarithmic Differentiation).

Given  $y = f_1(x)f_2(x) \cdots f_n(x)$ , we have

$$\begin{aligned} \ln |y| &= \ln |f_1(x)| + \ln |f_2(x)| + \cdots + \ln |f_n(x)| \\ \frac{1}{y} \frac{dy}{dx} &= \frac{f'_1(x)}{f_1(x)} + \cdots + \frac{f'_n(x)}{f_n(x)} \\ \frac{dy}{dx} &= \left[ \frac{f'_1(x)}{f_1(x)} + \cdots + \frac{f'_n(x)}{f_n(x)} \right] f_1(x)f_2(x) \cdots f_n(x) \end{aligned}$$

## 6.4 Exponential Function

**Definition 6.4** (Exponential Function).

Exponential function ( $\exp x$ ), is defined as

$$e^x = \ln^{-1}(x), \text{ for all } x \in \mathbb{R}$$

**Theorem 6.4** (Properties of Exponential Function). •  $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} e^x = \infty, \lim_{x \rightarrow -\infty} e^x = 0$

- $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{e^x}{x^n} = \infty, n \in \mathbb{Z}^+$

- $e^x = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{x^n}{n!}$

**Definition 6.5** ((Generalised) Exponential Function).

For  $a > 0$  and  $x \in \mathbb{R}$ , define

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

**Theorem 6.5** (More Properties of Exponential Function).

1.  $a^u a^v = a^{u+v}$

2.  $a^{-u} = \frac{1}{a^u}$

3.  $(a^u)^v = a^{uv}$

4.  $(a^x)' = a^x \ln a$

5.  $\int x^r dx = \begin{cases} \frac{x^{r+1}}{r+1} + C & \text{if } r \neq -1 \\ \ln |x| + C & \text{if } r = -1 \end{cases}$

6.  $e = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} (1+x)^{\frac{1}{x}} = \lim_{y \rightarrow \infty} (1+\frac{1}{y})^y$

## 6.5 Hyperbolic Trigonometric Functions

**Definition 6.6** (Hyperbolic Trigonometric Functions).

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

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

Remark:

$$\cosh^2 x - \sinh^2 x = 1$$

$$(\sinh x)' = \cosh x, (\cosh x)' = \sinh x$$

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

**Theorem 6.6** (Inverse Trigonometric Functions).

Let  $y = \sinh^{-1} x$ .  $\frac{d}{dx} \sinh^{-1} x = \frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{1}{\frac{dx}{dy}} = \frac{1}{\cosh y} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1+x^2}}$

Hence,  $\sinh^{-1} x = \ln(x + \sqrt{1+x^2}), x \in \mathbb{R}$ .

Similarly,

$\cosh^{-1} x = \ln(x + \sqrt{x^2 - 1}), x \geq 1$ ;

$\tanh^{-1} x = \frac{1}{2} \ln \left( \frac{1+x}{1-x} \right), -1 < x < 1$

## 6.6 More Techniques on Integration

**Theorem 6.7** (Substitution Rule(2nd version)).

Let  $f$  be a continuous function, and  $x = g(t)$  be a differentiable function. If  $g'$  is continuous, then

$$\int f(x)dx = \int f(g(t))g'(t)dt$$

### 6.6.1 Useful Substituents

Scenario	Substituent
$\frac{1}{x(1+x^4)}$	$x = \frac{1}{t}$
$1 + x^2$	$x = \tan t$
$\sqrt{1 - x^2}$	$x = \sin t$
$\sqrt{x^2 - 1}$	$x = \sec t$
$\sin x, \cos x, \dots$	$t = \tan \frac{x}{2}$
$\frac{f(x)}{g(x)}, f, g$ polynomial	Partial fraction

**Theorem 6.8** (Integration by Parts).

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



## 7 Application of Integral

**Theorem 7.1** (Finding Net Area).

Let  $f$  be a **continuous** function on  $[a, b]$ . Then the **net area** under  $y = f(x)$  from  $a$  to  $b$  is

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

**Theorem 7.2** (Finding Volume (Washer Method)).

Suppose the solid is obtained by rotating the region between the curve  $y = f(x)$  and the  $x$ -axis from  $a$  to  $b$  about the  $x$ -axis.

$$V = \int_a^b \pi(f(x))^2 dx$$

**Theorem 7.3** (Finding Volume (Cylindrical Shell Method)).

Let  $f$  be a continuous function such that  $f(x) \geq 0$  for all  $x \in [a, b]$  where  $0 \leq a < b$ . Then the volume of the solid obtained by rotating the region between the curve  $y = f(x)$  and the  $x$ -axis from  $a$  to  $b$  about the  $y$ -axis is

$$V = \int_a^b 2\pi x f(x) dx$$

**Theorem 7.4** (Finding Arc Length).

The **arc length** of smooth curve  $y = f(x)$  from  $x = a$  to  $x = b$  is

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

**Theorem 7.5** (Finding Surface Area of Revolution).

Let  $f$  be a smooth function such that  $f(x) \geq 0$  on  $[a, b]$ . Then the area of the surface obtained by rotating the curve  $y = f(x)$ ,  $a \leq x \leq b$  about the  $x$ -axis is

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

## 8 Ordinary Differential Equations

### 8.1 Simplest Ordinary Differential Equations

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = f(x) \Rightarrow y = \int f(x)dx + C$$
$$\frac{dy}{dx} = g(y) \Rightarrow \frac{dx}{dy} = \frac{1}{g(y)} \Rightarrow x = \int \frac{1}{g(y)}dy$$

### 8.2 Seperation of Variables

Consider  $\frac{dy}{dx} = f(x)g(y)$ .

In **differential forms**,  $\frac{1}{g(y)}dy = f(x)dx$

$$\int \frac{1}{g(y)}dy = \int f(x)dx$$

Remark: Try substitute  $z = \frac{y}{x}$  when encountering homogeneous equations of degree zero.

### 8.3 First Order Linear Equations

**Definition 8.1** (First Order Linear Equations).

First order linear equations are in the form

$$\frac{dy}{dx} + p(x)y = q(x)$$

**Theorem 8.1** (Solving First Order Linear Equations).

Consider  $\frac{dy}{dx} + p(x)y = q(x)$ .

- Evaluate  $P(x) = \int p(x)dx$
- Let  $v(x) = e^{P(x)}$
- $y = \frac{1}{v(x)} \int v(x)q(x)dx$

**Theorem 8.2** (Bernoulli's Equation).

Consider  $\frac{dy}{dx} + p(x)y = q(x)y^n$ .

Substitute  $z = y^{1-n}$ . We have  $\frac{dz}{dx} + (1-n)p(x)z = (1-n)q(x)$ .