

CALCULUS Gilbert Strang Massachusetts Institute of Technology WELLESLEY- CAMBRIDGE PRESS Box 812060 Wellesley MA 02482 CALCULUS Third Edition GILBERT STRANG Massachusetts Institute of Technology WELLESLEY-CAMBRIDGE PRESS Box 812060 Wellesley MA 02482

Preface My goal is to help you learn calculus. It is a beautiful subject and its central ideas are not so hard. Everything comes from the relation between two different functions.

Here are two important examples: Function 1/ The distance a car travels Function 2/ Its speed Function 1/ The height of a graph Function 2/ Its slope Function (2) is telling us how quickly Function (1) is changing. The distance will change quickly or slowly based on the speed. The height changes quickly or slowly based on the slope. You see the same in climbing Function 1/ can be the height of a mountain and Function 2/ is its steepness. The height and the distance in Function 1/ are running totals that add up the changes that come from Function 2/.

The clearest example is when the speed is CONSTANT. The distance is steadily increasing. If you travel at 50 miles per hour, or at 80 kilometers per hour, then after 3 hours you know the distance traveled. I can write the answer by multiplying 3 times 50 or 3 times 80. I can write the formula using algebra, which allows any constant speed  $s$  and any time of travel  $t$ : The distance  $d$  at constant speed  $s$  in travel time  $t$  is  $d = s \text{ times } t$ . We don't need calculus when the speed is constant or the slope is constant: If  $s = D \text{ slope}$  and  $x = D \text{ distance across}$ ; the distance up is  $y = D s \text{ times } x$ .

Those rules find Function 1/ from Function 2/: We can also find Function 2/ from Function 1/: To know the speed or the slope, divide instead of multiplying: speed  $s = D \text{ distance}$  if travel time  $t$  slope  $s = D \text{ distance up}$  distance across From the distance, we find the speed. This is Differential Calculus. Knowing the speed  $s$ , we find the distance  $d$ : This is Integral Calculus.

Algebra is enough for this example of constant speed. But when  $s$  is continually changing, and we speed up or slow down, then multiplication and division are not enough! A new idea is needed and that idea is the heart of calculus. vi Preface Differential Calculus finds Function 2/ from Function 1/. We recover the speedometer information from knowing the trip distance at all times.

Integral Calculus goes the other way. The integral adds up small pieces, to get the total distance traveled. That integration brings back Function .1/ . Function .1/ is  $f(t)$  or  $y(x)$  (2) Its derivative is  $df=dt$  or  $dy=dx$  The derivative in Function .2/ is the rate of change of Function .1/. The book will explain the meaning of these symbols  $df=dt$  and  $dy=dx$  for the derivative.

**CHANGING SPEED AND CHANGING SLOPE** Let me take a first step into the real problem of calculus, when  $s$  is not constant. Now Function .1/ will not have a straight line graph. The speed and the slope of the graph will change, but only every hour. From the numbers you can see the pattern: Distances 0 1 4 9 16 Subtract the distances to get Function (2) Speeds 1 3 5 7 Add up the speeds to get Function (1) Going from .1/ to .2/ we are subtracting, as in  $4 - 1 = 3$  and  $9 - 4 = 5$ . Those differences 3 and 5 are the speeds in the second hour and third hour. Going from .2/ to .1/ we are adding, as in  $1 + 3 = 4$  and  $4 + 5 = 9$ : The trip meter adds up the distances from hours 1 and 2 and 3. Addition is the opposite of subtraction. The essential point of calculus is to see this same pattern in continuous time. It's not enough to look at the total or the change every hour or every minute. The distance and speed can be changing at every instant. In that case addition and subtraction are not enough. The central idea of calculus is continuous change. There are so many pairs like .1/ and .2/ not just cars and graphs and mountains. This is what makes calculus important. The functions are changing continuously not

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f.a/ x a f 1 .a/ :Derivativeat a f. x/ f.a/ x a D f 1.c / :MeanValueTheorem f. x C x/ f.x/ x f 1 .x/ :Derivativeat x f. x C x/ f.x x/ 2x f 1 .x/ :Centered lim f. x/ g.x/ D li m f 1 .x/ g 1 .x/ l' H p ital'sRulefor 0 0 Max i mumandMinimum Critical: f 1 .x/ D 0 o r n o f 1 orendpoint M inimum f 1 .x/ D 0 a n d f 2 .x/ 0 M a ximum f 1 .x/ D 0 a n d f 2 .x/ 0 l n e c tion point f 2 .x/ D 0 N ewton'sMethod x n C 1 D x n f.x n / f 1 .x n / l te ration x n C 1 D F .x n / a ttractedto xed point x D F .x / if | F 1 .x / | 1 Sta tionary in2D: B f= B x D 0 ; B f= B y D 0 M inimum f xx 0 f xx f yy f 2 x y M a ximum f xx 0 f xx f yy f 2 x y Sa d d lepoint f xx f yy f 2 x y N ewton in2D # g C g x x C g y y D 0 h C h x x C h y y D 0 A l gebra x=a y=b D b x a y x n D 1 x n n ? x D x 1 = n .x 2 /.x 3 / D x 5 .x 2 / 3 D x 6 x 2 = x 3 D x 1 a x 2 C b x C c D 0 h a sroots x D b ? b 2 4ac 2a x 2 C 2B x C C D 0 h a sroots x D B ? B 2 C Co mpleting square a x 2 C b x C c D a x C b 2a 2 C c b 2 4a Pa r tialfractions cx C d .x a/x b/ D A x a C B x b M istakes a b C c a b C a c ? x 2 C a 2 x C a Fu n damentalTheorem of Calculus d dx r x a v.t/d t D v .x/ r b a d f dx dx D f .b/ f.a/ d dx r b. x / a.x/ v .t/dt D v .b.x// db dx v .a.x// da dx r b 0 y.x/d x D lim x 0 x y . x / C y .2 x / C C y .b/ C i rcle,Line,andPlane x D r cos t , y D r sin t ,speed !r y D m x C b o r y y 0 D m .x x 0 / Pla ne a x C b y C c z D d o r a .x x 0 / C b .y y 0 / C c .z z 0 / D 0 N o r malvector a i C b j C c k D ista nceto .0 ; 0 ; 0/ : | d | = ? a 2 C b 2 C c 2 Li ne .x;y;z/ D .x 0 ;y 0 ;z 0 / C t.v 1 ;v 2 ;v 3 / N oparameter: x x 0 v 1 D y y 0 v 2 D z z 0 v 3 Pr ojection: p D b a a a a ; | p | D | b | cos Trigonometric Identities si n 2 x C co s 2 x D 1 ta n 2 x C 1 D s ec 2 x (dividebycos 2 x ) 1 C cot 2 x D csc 2 x (dividebysin 2 x ) sin 2x D 2 sin x cos x (doubleangle) cos 2x D cos 2 x sin 2 x D 2 c o s 2 x 1 D 1 2 sin 2 x sin .s t/ D sin s c o s t cos s sin t ( A d d ition c o s .s t/ D c o s s c o s t sin s sin t f o r m u l a s ) ta n .s C t / D . ta n s C ta n t / = .1 tan s ta n t / c 2 D a 2 C b 2 2ab c o s ( L a w o fcosines) a = sin A D b = sin B D c = sin C ( L a w o fsines) a c o s C b sin D ? a 2 C b 2 cos . tan 1 b a / co s . x/ D c o s x a n d sin . x/ D sin x sin . 2 x/ D c o s x a n d cos . 2 x/ D sin x sin . x/ D sin x a n d cos . x/ D cos x Tri g o no metri c Integrals r sin 2 x d x D x sin x c o s x 2 D r 1 cos 2x 2 dx D x 2 sin 2x 4 r co s 2 x dx D x C sin x cos x 2 D r 1 C co s 2 x 2 dx D x 2 C si n 2 x 4 r ta n 2 x dx D tan x x r c o t 2 x dx D cot x x r sin n x dx D sin n 1 x cos x n C n 1 n r sin n 2 x dx r cos n x dx D C cos n 1 x sin x



draw their graphs (this is a good way to understand functions)

series, I am asking you to believe that everything works. We can add the series together  $e^x$ ; and we can add all derivatives to see that the slope of  $e^x$  is  $e^x$ : For me, the advantage of using only the powers  $x^n$  is overwhelming.

16.0H highlights of Calculus

### CONSTRUCTING $y = e^x$ I will solve $dy = dx$

at a step at a time. At the start,  $y = 1$  means that  $dy = dx$ : Start  $y = 1$   $dy = dx$  Change  $y = 1 + dx$   $dy = dx$  Change  $dy/dx = 1$   $y = 1 + dx$   $dy = dx$  After the first change,  $y = 1 + dx$  has the correct derivative  $dy/dx = 1$ : But then I had to change  $dy = dx$  to keep it equal to  $y$ : And I can't stop there:  $y = 1 + dx$   $dy = dx$  Update  $y$  to  $1 + dx + \frac{1}{2} dx^2$  The update  $dy/dx$  to  $1 + dx$   $\frac{1}{2} dx$  The extra  $\frac{1}{2} dx^2$  gives the correct  $x$  in the slope. Then  $\frac{1}{2} dx^2$  also had to go into  $dy = dx$ , to keep it equal to  $y$ : Now we need a new term with this derivative  $\frac{1}{2} dx^2$ : The term that gives  $\frac{1}{2} dx^2$  has  $x^3$  divided by 6: The derivative of  $x^n$  is  $nx^{n-1}$ , so I must divide by  $n$  (to cancel correctly). The derivative of  $x^3 = 6$  is  $3x^2 = 6$   $\frac{1}{2} dx^2$  as we wanted. After that comes  $x^4$  divided by 24:  $x^3 = 6$   $\frac{1}{2} dx^2$  has slope  $x^2 = 2$   $\frac{1}{2} dx^2$   $\frac{1}{2} dx^2$   $\frac{1}{2} dx^2$  has slope  $4x^3 = 4$   $\frac{1}{2} dx^2$   $\frac{1}{2} dx^2$   $\frac{1}{2} dx^2$ : The pattern becomes more clear. The  $x^n$  term is divided by  $n$  factorial, which is  $n \cdot (n-1) \cdot \dots \cdot 1$ : The first factorials are 1; 2; 6; 24; 120: The derivative of that term  $x^n = n$  is the previous term  $x^{n-1} = \frac{n-1}{n}$  (because the  $n$ 's cancel). As long as we don't stop, this sum of infinitely many terms does achieve  $dy = dx$ :  $y = 1 + dx + \frac{1}{2} dx^2 + \frac{1}{6} dx^3 + \dots + \frac{1}{n!} dx^n + \dots$

(1) If we substitute  $x = 10$  in to this series, do the infinitely many terms add to a finite number  $e^{10}$ ? Yes. The numbers  $n!$  grow much faster than  $10^n$  (or any other  $x^n$ ). So the terms  $x^n = n$  in this exponential series become extremely small as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ : A nalysis shows that the sum of the series (which is  $y = e^x$ ) does achieve  $dy = dx$ : Note 1. Let me just re-member a series that you know,  $1 + x + x^2 + x^3 + \dots$  D 2: If I replace 1 by  $x$ , this becomes the geometric series  $1 + x + x^2 + x^3 + \dots$  and it adds up to  $1/(1-x)$ : This is the most important series in mathematics, but it runs into a problem at  $x = 1$ : the infinite sum  $1 + 1 + 1 + 1 + \dots$  doesn't converge. I emphasize that the series for  $e^x$  is always safe, because the powers  $x^n$  are divided by the rapidly growing numbers  $n!$ . The

is a great example to meet, long before you learn more about convergence and divergence. Note 2 Here is another way to look at that series for  $e^x$ : Start with  $x$  and take its derivative  $n$  times. First get  $x^{n-1}$  and then  $n \cdot x^{n-2}$ . Finally the  $n$ th derivative is  $n \cdot (n-1) \cdot \dots \cdot 1 \cdot x^0$ ; which is  $n!$  factorial. When we divide by that number, the  $n$ th derivative of  $x^n = n!$  is equal to 1: Now look at  $e^x$ : All its derivatives are still  $e^x$ : They are all equal at  $x = 0$ : The series is matching every derivative of the function  $e^x$  at the starting point  $x = 0$ : 0.3 The Exponential  $y = e^x$  Set  $x = 1$  in the exponential series. This tells us the amazing number  $e = 1 + 1 + \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{6} + \frac{1}{24} + \frac{1}{120} + \dots$  (2) The first three terms add to 2.5. The first five terms almost reach 2.71. We never reach 2.72. With quite a few terms (how many?) you can pass 2.71828. It is certain that  $e$  is not a fraction. It never appears in algebra, but it is the key number for calculus.

**MULTIPLYING BY ADDING EXPONENTS** We write  $e^2$  in the same way that we write  $3^2$ : Is it true that  $e$  times  $e$  equals  $e^2$ ? Up to now,  $e$  and  $e^2$  come from setting  $x = 1$  and  $x = 2$  in the infinite series. The wonderful fact is that for every  $x$ , the series produce the  $x$ th power of the number  $e$ : When  $x = 1$ , we get  $e^1$  which is  $1 = e$ : Set  $x = 1$  in  $e^1 = 1 + 1 + \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{6} + \frac{1}{24} + \frac{1}{120} + \dots$  If we multiply that series for  $1 = e$  by the series for  $e$ , we get 1: The best way is to go straight for all multiplication of  $e^x$  times any power  $e^X$ : The rule of adding exponents says that the answer is  $e^{x+X}$ : The series must say this too! When  $x = 1$  and  $X = 1$ , this rule produces  $e^0$  from  $e^1$  times  $e^1$ : Add the exponents  $1 + 1 = 2$ :  $e^2 = 1 + 2 + \frac{2^2}{2} + \frac{2^3}{6} + \frac{2^4}{24} + \dots$  We only know  $e^x$  and  $e^X$  from the infinite series. For this all-important rule, we can multiply those series and recognize the answer as the series for  $e^{x+X}$ : Make a start: Multiply each term  $e^x$  times  $e^X$  Hoping for  $e^{x+X} = 1 + (x+X) + \frac{(x+X)^2}{2} + \frac{(x+X)^3}{6} + \dots$   $e^x = 1 + x + \frac{x^2}{2} + \frac{x^3}{6} + \dots$   $e^X = 1 + X + \frac{X^2}{2} + \frac{X^3}{6} + \dots$  (4) Certainly you see  $e^{x+X}$ : Do you use  $1 + 2 + \frac{2^2}{2} + \frac{2^3}{6} + \dots$  in equation (4)? No problem:  $1 + 2 + \frac{2^2}{2} + \frac{2^3}{6} + \dots$  matches the second degree terms. The step to third degree takes a little longer, but it also succeeds:  $1 + 3 + \frac{3^2}{2} + \frac{3^3}{6} + \dots$  matches the next terms in (4). For high powers of  $e^{x+X}$  we need the binomial theorem (or a healthy trust that mathematics comes out right). When  $e^x$  multiplies  $e^X$



$x^n$ , the coefficient of  $x^n$  in  $x^m$  will be  $1 = n$  times  $1 = m$ : Now look for that same term in the series for  $e^x C x$ :  
 $\frac{x^n C x}{n! C m} = \frac{n! C m}{i n! C m} \text{ includes } x^n C m / t i m e s \frac{n! C m}{n! m} \text{ which gives } x^n C m n m : (5)$   
 18 Oh highlightsofCalculus That binomial number  $\frac{n! C m}{n! m} = \frac{n! m}{n! m}$  is known  
 to successful gamblers. It counts the number of ways to choose  $n$  aces out of  $n! C m$   
 aces. Out of 4 aces, you could choose 2 aces in  $4 = 22$  D 6  
 ways. To a mathematician, there are 6 ways to choose 2  $x$ 's out of  $xxxx$ . This number 6 will be the coefficient of  
 $x^2 C x^2$  in  $\frac{x^n C x}{4!}$ : That 6 shows up in the fourth degree term. It is divided by  $4!$  (to produce  $1 = 4$ ). When  
 $e^x$  multiplies  $e^x$ ,  $1^2 x^2 m u l t i p l i e s 1^2 C x^2$  (which also produces  $1 = 4$ ). All terms  
 are good, but we are not going there we accept  $\frac{e^x}{e^x} = \frac{e^x}{D e^x} C x$  as now confirmed. Note  
 A different way to see this rule for  $\frac{e^x}{e^x} = \frac{e^x}{D e^x}$  is based on  $dy = dx D y$ : Starting from  $y = 1$  at  $x = 0$ , follow  
 this equation. At the point  $x$ , you reach  $y = D e^x$ : Now go an additional distance  $x$  to arrive at  $e^x C x$ :  
 Notice that the additional part starts from  $e^x$  (instead of starting from 1). That starting value  $e^x$  will multiply  
 $e^x$  in the additional part. So  $e^x$  times  $e^x$  must be the same as  $e^x C x$ :  
 (This is a differential equations proof that the exponents are added. Personally, I was happy to multiply  
 the series and match the terms.) The rule immediately gives  $e^x$  times  $e^x$ : The answer is  $e^x C x D e^{2x}$ :  
 If we multiply again by  $e^x$ , we find  $\frac{e^x}{3}$ : This is equal to  $e^{2x} C x D e^{3x}$ : We are finding a new rule  
 for all powers  $\frac{e^x}{n! D} \frac{e^x}{e^x} = \frac{e^x}{n! D} \frac{e^x}{e^x}$ : Multiply exponents  $\frac{e^x}{n! D} e^{nx}$  (6) This is easy to  
 see for  $n = 1; 2; 3; \dots$  and then  $n = 1, 2, 3, \dots$ . It remains true for all numbers  $x$  and  $n$ . The  
 last sentence about all numbers is important! Calculus cannot develop properly without working with  
 all exponents (not just whole numbers or fractions). The infinite series (1) defines  $e^x$  for every  $x$  and  
 we are on our way. Here is the graph: Function  $\frac{1}{D}$  Function  $\frac{2}{D} e^x D e^x p . x / : -2 -1 0 1 2$  In  
 $2 x e^{-1} D : 368 : :: e D 2 : 718 : :: e \ln 2 D 2 e^2 D 7 : 388 : :: y D e^x dy dx D e^x e^0 D 1 . e^x / e^x / D$   
 $e^x C x . e^x / n! D e^{nx} e^{\ln y} D y$  0.3 The Exponential  $y D e^x$  19 THE EXPONENTIALS  $2 x$  AND  $b$   
 $x$  We know that  $2^3 = 8$  and  $2^4 = 16$ . But what is the meaning of  $2^{3/4}$ ? One way to get  
 close to that number is to replace  $3/4$  by  $3/14$  which is  $3/14 = 100$ : As long as we have a fraction  
 in the exponent, we can live without calculus: Fractional power  $2^{3/14} = 100 D 3/14$  the power of the 100th

$2^{100} \approx 10^{30}$  : But this is only close to  $2^{100}$  : And in calculus, we will want the slope of the curve  $y = 2^x$  :  
 The good way is to connect  $2^x$  with  $e^x$  ; whose slope we know (it is  $e^x$  again). So we need to connect  $2^x$   
 with  $e$ : The key number is the logarithm of 2. This is written  $\ln 2$  and it is the power of  $e$  that produces 2:  
 It is specially marked on the graph of  $e^x$  : Natural logarithm of 2 is  $\ln 2$  . This number  $\ln 2$  is about  $0.7$  .  
 A calculator knows it with much higher accuracy. In the graph of  $y = e^x$  , the number  $\ln 2$  on the  $x$   
 axis produces  $y = 2$  on the  $y$  axis. This is an example where we want the output  $y = 2$   
 and we ask for the input  $x = \ln 2$ : That is the opposite of knowing  $x$  and asking for  $y$  . The logarithm  $x = \ln y$   
 is the inverse of the exponential  $y = e^x$  : This idea will be explained in Section 4:3  
 and in two video lectures inverse functions are not always simple. Now  $2^x$  has a meaning for every  $x$ :  
 When we have the number  $\ln 2$ ; meeting the requirement  $2 = e^{\ln 2}$  ; we can take the  $x$ th power of both  
 sides: Powers of 2 from powers of  $e$   $2^x = e^{x \ln 2}$  and  $2^x = e^{x \ln 2}$  : (7) All powers of  $e$   
 are defined by the infinite series. The new function  $2^x$  also grows exponentially, but not as fast as  $e^x$   
 (because 2 is smaller than  $e$  ). Probably  $y = 2^x$  could have the same graph as  $e^x$  , if stretched out the  $x$   
 axis. That stretching multiplies the slope by the constant factor  $\ln 2$ : Here is the algebra: Slope of  $y = 2^x$  is  $\frac{d}{dx} 2^x = 2^x \ln 2$  .  
 For any positive number  $b$  , the same approach leads to the function  $y = b^x$  . First, find the natural logarithm  $\ln b$   
 . This is the number (positive or negative) so that  $b = e^{\ln b}$  . Then take the  $x$ th power of both sides:  
 Connect  $b$  to  $e$   $b = e^{\ln b}$  and  $b^x = e^{x \ln b}$  and  $\frac{d}{dx} b^x = b^x \ln b$  (8) When  $b$  is  $e$  ( the perfect choice),  $\ln b = \ln e = 1$ : When  $b$  is  $e^n$  , then  $\ln b = \ln e^n = n$ : The logarithm is the exponent .  
 Thanks to the series that defines  $e^x$  for every  $x$  , that exponent can be any number at all. Allow me to mention  
 Euler's Great Formula  $e^{ix} = \cos x + i \sin x$  . The exponent  $ix$  has become an imaginary number  
 . (You know that  $i^2 = -1$  ) If we faithfully use  $\cos x + i \sin x$  at  $90^\circ$  and  $180^\circ$  (where  $x = \frac{\pi}{2}$  and  $x = \pi$  ) , we arrive at these amazing facts: Imaginary exponents  $e^{i\frac{\pi}{2}} = i$  and  $e^{i\pi} = -1$  : (9)  
 Those equations are not imaginary, they come from the great series for  $e^x$  : 20.0 Highlights of Calculus  
 CONTINUOUS COMPOUNDING OF INTEREST There is a different and important way to reach  $e$  and  $e^x$   
 (not by an infinite series). We solve the key equation  $dy = x dy$  in small steps. As these steps approach zero



$1 + x + x^2 + x^3 + \dots$  Term by term differentiation gives  $1 + 2x + 3x^2 + \dots$  Limit step: Add up this series:  $n \cdot x^{n-1} = x^n$ .  $1/x^n$  grows much faster than  $x^n$  so the terms get very small. At  $x = 1$ , the number  $1/2$  is called  $e$ : Set  $x = 1$  in the series to find  $e = 1 + 1 + 1/2 + 1/6 + 1/24 + \dots$   $D(2) = 7/8$ . **GOAL** Show that  $y = e^x$  agrees with  $e^x$  for all  $x$ . Series gives powers of  $e$ . Check that the series follows the rule to add exponents as in  $e^2 e^3 = e^5$ . Directly multiply series  $e^x$  times  $e^x$  together:  $(1 + x + x^2/2 + \dots)(1 + x + x^2/2 + \dots)$  produces the right start for  $e^{2x} = 1 + 2x + 2x^2 + \dots$ . **HIGHER TERMS ALSO WORK**. The series gives us  $e^x$  for EVERY  $x$ , not just whole numbers. **CHECK**  $d/dx e^x = e^x$ . **YES!**  
**SECOND KEY RULE**  $e^{nx} = n e^{nx-1}$  for every  $x$  and  $n$ . Another approach to  $e^x$  uses multiplication instead of an infinite sum. Start with \$1. Earn interest every day at yearly rate  $x$ . Multiply 365 times by  $1 + x/365$ : End the year with  $(1 + x/365)^{365}$ . Now pay  $n$  times in the year. End the year with  $(1 + x/n)^n$ . **Example** 8: We are solving  $y' = x D y$  in small steps.  $x$ : The limit solves  $dy/dx = D y$ : 22. **Highlights of Calculus Practice Questions**  
1. What is the derivative of  $x^{10}$ ? What is the derivative of  $x^9$ ?  
2. How to see that  $x^n$  gets small as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ ? Start with  $x = 1$  and  $x = 2$ , possibly big. But we multiply by  $x^3$ ;  $x^4$ ; which gets small.  
3. Why is  $1 + x + x^2$  the same as  $e^x$ ? Use equation (3) and also use (6).  
4. Why is  $e^{-1} = 1/2 + 1/6 + 1/24 + \dots$  between  $1/3$  and  $1/2$ ? Then  $2e = 3$ :  
5. Can you solve  $dy/dx = D y$  starting from  $y = D^3$  at  $x = 0$ ? Why is  $y = D^3 e^x$  the right answer? Notice how 3 multiplies  $e^x$ :  
6. Can you solve  $dy/dx = 5y$  starting from  $y = D^1$  at  $x = 0$ ? Why is  $y = D^5 e^x$  the right answer? Notice 5 in the exponent!  
7. Why does  $e^{-1/x}$  approach 1 as  $x$  gets smaller? Use the  $e^x$  series.  
8. Draw the graph of  $x D \ln y$ , just by plotting the graph of  $y = D e^x$  across the 45-degree line  $y = D x$ . Remember that  $y$  stays positive but  $x D \ln y$  can be negative.  
9. What is the exact sum of  $1 + C \ln 2 + C^2 \ln^2 2 / 2 + C^3 \ln^3 2 / 3 + \dots$ ? 10. If you replace  $\ln 2$  by 0.7; what is the sum of those four terms? 11. From Euler's Great Formula  $e^{ix} = \cos x + i \sin x$ ; what number is  $e^{2i}$ ? 12. How close is  $1 + C + C^2/2 + C^3/6 + \dots$  to  $e$ ? 13. What is the limit of  $(1 + C/N)^{2N}$  as  $N \rightarrow \infty$ ? 0.4 Video Summaries and Practice Problems  
23. 0.4 Video Summaries and Practice Problems  
This section is to help readers who also look at the Highlights of Calculus video lectures.

words. Sections 0.10.20.3 discussed the content of three lectures in full detail. The

summaries and practice problems for the other two will come first in this section:

4

.Maximum and Minimum and Second Derivative 5 .Big Picture of Integrals That Lecture 5 is a taste of

Integral Calculus .A second set of video lectures goes deeper into Differential Calculus

the rules for computing and using derivatives. This second set is right now with the video editors, to zoom

in when I write on the blackboard and zoom out for the big picture. I just borrowed a video camera from

MIT's OpenCourseWare and set it up in an empty room. I am not good at looking at

the audience anyway, so it was easier with nobody watching!

I hope it will be helpful to print the summaries and practice problems that are

planned to accompany those videos. Here are the topics: 6 .Derivative of the Sine and Cosine 7

.Product and Quotient Rules 8 .Chain Rule for the Slope of  $f(g(x))$  9 .Inverse Functions and Logarithms 10

.Growth Rates and Log Graphs 11 .Linear Approximation and Newton's Method 12

.Differential Equations of Growth 13 .Differential Equations of Motion 14 .Power Series and

Euler's Formula 15 .Six Functions, Six Rules, Six Theorems That last lecture summarizes the theory of

differential calculus. The other lectures explain the steps. Here are the first lines written for the max-min video.

Maximum and Minimum and Second Derivative To find the maximum and minimum values of a function  $y = f(x)$

Solve  $\frac{dy}{dx} = 0$  to find points  $x$  where slope is zero. Test each  $x$

for a possible minimum or maximum. Example  $y = x^3 - 12x$   $\frac{dy}{dx} = 3x^2 - 12$  So  $3x^2 - 12 = 0$

The slope is  $\frac{dy}{dx} = 0$  at  $x = 2$  and  $x = -2$ . At those points  $y = 2^3 - 12(2) = -16$  and  $y = (-2)^3 - 12(-2) = 16$

$\frac{d^2y}{dx^2} = 6x$  at  $x = 2$  is a minimum. Look at  $\frac{dy}{dx}$  as  $x$  increases. Slope goes from down to up at  $x = 2$ . The bending is upwards and this  $x$  is a minimum.

$\frac{d^2y}{dx^2} = 6x$  at  $x = -2$  is a maximum. Look at  $\frac{dy}{dx}$  as  $x$  increases. Slope goes from up to down at  $x = -2$ . The bending is downwards and this  $x$  is a maximum.

Find the maximum of  $y = \sin x$  using  $\frac{dy}{dx} = \cos x$ .  $\cos x = 0$  at  $x = \frac{\pi}{2}$ .  $\frac{d^2y}{dx^2} = -\sin x$  at  $x = \frac{\pi}{2}$  is  $-1$ , so it is a maximum.

The slope is zero when  $\cos x = 0$  at  $x = \frac{\pi}{2}$  and  $x = \frac{3\pi}{2}$ . At  $x = \frac{\pi}{2}$ ,  $y = 1$ . At  $x = \frac{3\pi}{2}$ ,  $y = -1$ . That point  $x = \frac{\pi}{2}$  has  $y = 1$ .

C co s 4 D ? 2 2 C ? 2 2 D ? 2 Thesecondderivativeis  $d^2 y / dx^2 = D^2 \sin x = -\cos x$  At  $x = D/4$  th i sis  
 0y is b e ndingdown x i s a m a x i m u m  $d^2 y / dx^2 = 0$  w h e n t h e c u r v e b e n d s u p  $d^2 y / dx^2 = 0$  w h e n  
 t h e c u r v e b e n d s d o w n D i r e c t i o n o f b e n d i n g c h a n g e s a t a p o i n t o f i n f l e x i o n w h e r e  $d^2 y / dx^2 = 0$  W h i c h x  
 g i v e s t h e m i n i m u m o f y D . x <sup>1/2</sup> C . x <sup>2/2</sup> C . x <sup>6/2</sup> ? Y o u c a n w r i t e y D . x <sup>2</sup> - 2x C <sup>1</sup> / C . x <sup>2</sup> - 4x C  
<sup>4</sup> / C . x <sup>2</sup> - 12x C <sup>3</sup> 6 / T h e s l o p e i s d y / d x D 2x - 2 C <sup>2</sup> x - 4 C <sup>2</sup> x - 12 D 0 a t t h e m i n i m u m p o i n t x  
 T h e n 6x = D 1 8 a n d x = D 3 M i n i m u m p o i n t i s t h e a v e r a g e o f 1 , 2 , 6 K e y f o r m a x = m i n w o r d  
 p r o b l e m s i s t o c h o o s e a s u i t a b l e m e a n i n g f o r x = 0.4 V i d e o S u m m a r i e s a n d P r a c t i c e P r o b l e m s 25  
 P r a c t i c e Q u e s t i o n s 1. W h i c h x g i v e s t h e m i n i m u m o f y . x / D x <sup>2</sup> C 2 x ? S o l v e d y / d x D 0 : 2 . F i n d d <sup>2</sup> y / d x <sup>2</sup> f o r y . x / D x <sup>2</sup> C 2 x : T h i s i s 0 s o t h e p a r a b o l a b e n d s u p . 3 . F i n d t h e m a x i m u m h e i g h t o f y . x / D  
<sup>2</sup> C 6 x - x <sup>2</sup> : S o l v e d y / d x D 0 : 4 . F i n d d <sup>2</sup> y / d x <sup>2</sup> t o s e e h o w t h a t t h i s p a r a b o l a b e n d s d o w n . 5. F o r y . x /  
 D x <sup>4</sup> - 2x <sup>2</sup> s h o w t h a t d y / d x D 0 a t x = D 1; 0; 1: F i n d y . 1/ , y . 0 / , y . 1 / : C h e c k m a x  
 v e r s u s m i n b y t h e s i g n o f d <sup>2</sup> y / d x <sup>2</sup> = d <sup>2</sup> x <sup>2</sup> / d x <sup>2</sup> : 6 . A t a m i n i m u m p o i n t e x p l a i n w h y d y / d x D 0 a n d d <sup>2</sup> y / d x <sup>2</sup> > 0:  
 7 . B e n d i n g d o w n d <sup>2</sup> y / d x <sup>2</sup> < 0 c h a n g e s t o b e n d i n g u p d <sup>2</sup> y / d x <sup>2</sup> > 0 a t a p o i n t o f i n f l e x i o n : A t t h i s p o i n t d  
<sup>2</sup> y / d x <sup>2</sup> D 0 D o e s y = D sin x h a v e s u c h a p o i n t ? 8. S u p p o s e x C X D 12: W h a t i s t h e m a x i m u m o f x t i m e s  
 X ? T h i s q u e s t i o n a s k s f o r t h e m a x i m u m o f y = x . 1 2 - x / D 1 2 x - x <sup>2</sup> : F i n d w h e r e t h e s l o p e d y / d x D 12  
 2x i s z e r o . W h a t i s x t i m e s X ? T h e B i g P i c t u r e o f I n t e g r a l s K e y p r o b l e m R e c o v e r t h e i n t e g r a l y . x / f  
 r o m i t s d e r i v a t i v e d y / d x F i n d t h e t o t a l d i s t a n c e t r a v e l e d f r o m a r e c o r d o f t h e s p e e d F i n d F u n c t i o n . 1/ D t o  
 t a l h e i g h t k n o w i n g F u n c t i o n . 2/ D s l o p e s i n c e t h e s t a r t S i m p l e s t w a y R e c o g n i z e d y / d x a s d  
 e r i v a t i v e o f a k n o w n y . x / I f d y / d x D x <sup>3</sup> t h e n i t s i n t e g r a l y . x / w a s 1 4 x <sup>4</sup> C C D F u n c t i o n ( 1 ) I f d y / d x D  
 e 2x t h e n y = D 1 2 e 2x C C I n t e g r a l C a l c u l u s i s t h e r e v e r s e o f D i f f e r e n t i a l C a l c u l u s y . x / D d y / d x d x a d  
 d s u p t h e w h o l e h i s t o r y o f s l o p e s d y / d x t o f i n d y . x / I n t e g r a l i s l i k e s u m D e r i v a t i v e i s l i k e d i f f e r e n c e 26 0 H i  
 g h l i g h t s o f C a l c u l u s S u m s y 0 y 1 y 2 y 3 y 4 D i f f e r e n c e s y 1 - y 0 y 2 - y 1 y 3 - y 2 y 4 - y 3  
 N o t i c e c a n c e l l a t i o n . y 1 - y 0 / C . y 2 - y 1 / D y 2 - y 0 D c h a n g e i n h e i g h t D i v i d e a n d m u l t i p l y  
 t h e d i f f e r e n c e s b y t h e s t e p s i z e x S u m o f y 1 - y 0 x x C y 2 - y 1 x x i s s t i l l y 2 - y 0 N o w l e t  
 x = 0 S u m c h a n g e s t o i n t e g r a l d y / d x d x D y e n d y s t a r t F u n d a m e n t a l T h e o r e m o f C a l c u l u s d y / d x  
 d x = D y . x / C C T h e i n t e g r a l r e v e r s e s t h e d e r i v a t i v e a n d b r i n g s b a c k y . x /

Integration and Differentiation are inverse operations. Fundamental Theorem in the opposite order  $\frac{d}{dx} \int_0^x f(x) dx = f(x)$  and  $\frac{d}{dt} \int_0^t f(t) dt = f(t)$ . / KEY What is the meaning of an integral  $\int_0^t f(t) dt$ ? A d d u p s h o r t : Example  $s(t) = 6t^2$  shows increasing speed and slope. Find  $y(t)$ : Method 1  $y'(t) = 3t^2$  has a slope required derivative  $6t$  (this is the simplest way!) Method 2 The triangle under the graph of  $s(t) = 6t^2$  has area  $3t^2$  From 0 to  $t$ ; base  $D t$  and height  $D 6t$  and area  $D \frac{1}{2} t \cdot 6t = 3t^2$ . [Most shapes are more difficult! Area comes from integrating  $s(t)$  or  $s(x)$ ] Method 3 (fundamental) A d d u p s h o r t t i m e s t e p s e a c h a t c o n s t a n t s p e e d I n a s t e p  $t$ ; the distance is close to  $s(t) \cdot t$  is the starting time for that step and  $s(t)$  is the starting speed. This is not exact because the speed changes a little with time  $t$ . The total distance becomes exact as  $t \rightarrow 0$  and  $\sum \text{integral}$ . Picture of each step shows a tall thin rectangle  $s(t) \cdot t$  height times base. Area of rectangle  $t \cdot D$  starting point of the time step. Sum of  $s(t) \cdot t$  total area of all rectangles. Now  $t \rightarrow 0$ . The rectangles fill up the triangle. Integral of  $s(t)/dt$  is the exact area  $y(t)$  under the graph.

0.4 Video Summaries and Practice Problems 27 Fundamental Theorem Area  $y(t)$  has the desired derivative  $s(t)$ . Reason:  $y$  is the thin area under  $s(t)$  between  $t$  and  $t + \Delta t$ .  $\Delta t$  is the base of that thin rectangle.  $y(t + \Delta t) - y(t)$  is the height of that thin rectangle. This height  $y'(t) = s(t)$  approaches  $s(t)$  as the base  $\Delta t \rightarrow 0$ .

Practice Questions 1. What functions  $y(t)$  have the constant derivative  $s(t) = 7$ ? 2. What is the area from 0 to  $t$  under the graph of  $s(t) = 7$ ? 3. From  $t = 0$  to 2; find the integral  $\int_0^2 7 dt$ . 4. What function  $y(t)$  has the derivative  $s(t) = 7$ ? 5. From  $t = 0$  to 2; find the area  $\int_0^2 7 dt$ . 6. At the instant  $t = 2$ , what is  $\frac{d}{dt} \int_0^t s(t) dt$ ? 7. From 0 to  $t$ ; find the area under the curve  $s(t) = 6t$ . IS NOT  $y(t) = 6t$ : If  $t$  is small, the area must be small. The wrong answer  $6t$  is not small! 8. From 0 to  $t$ ; find the correct area under  $s(t) = 6t$  is  $y(t) = 3t^2$ . 1: The slope  $dy/dt$  is 6 and now the starting area  $y(0) = 0$ . 9. Same for sums. Notice  $y(0) = 0$  in  $y(1) = y(0) + C$ ,  $y(2) = y(1) + C$ ,  $y(3) = y(2) + C$ . The sum of  $y(t) = y(t) + t \cdot C$  becomes the integral of  $dy/dt = C$  from 0 to  $t$  becomes  $y(t) - y(0)$ .

28 OH highlight of Calculus Derivative of the Sine and Cosine This lecture shows that  $\frac{d}{dx} \sin x = \cos x$  and  $\frac{d}{dx} \cos x = -\sin x$ . We have to measure the angle  $x$  in radians. 2 radians  $D$  full 360 degrees. All the way around the circle (2 radians) Length  $D 2$  when the radius is 1. Partway around the circle ( $x$  radians) Length  $D x$  when the radius is 1.  $\sin x$  slope 1 at  $x = 0$ .  $\cos x$  slope 0 at  $x = 0$ .

at  $x = 0$  slope  $\frac{dy}{dx} = 2$  slope  $\frac{dy}{dx} = 2$  at  $x = 1$  slope  $\frac{dy}{dx} = 2$   $y = \cos x$   
 $C(0, 1)$  Slope  $\sin x$  at  $x = 0$  slope  $\frac{dy}{dx} = \sin 0$  at  $x = 2$  slope  $\frac{dy}{dx} = 2$  at  $x = 1$  slope  $\frac{dy}{dx} = 2$   
 $\frac{dy}{dx} = \sin x$  Problem:  $y = \sin x$   $\frac{dy}{dx} = \cos x$  is not as simple as  $\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{x}{2}$   $x^2$  Good idea to start at  
 $x = 0$  Show  $y = \sin x$  approaches 1 Draw a right triangle with angle  $x$  to see  $\sin x$   $x$   $r = 1$  straight  
piece curved arc straight piece is shortest straight length  $\sin x$  curved length  $x$  IDEA  $\sin x$   $x$   
1 and  $\sin x$   $\cos x$  will squeeze  $\sin x$   $x$  1 as  $x \rightarrow 0$  To prove  $\sin x$   $\cos x$  which is  $\tan x$   $x$   
Go to a bigger triangle Angle  $x$  Full angle  $2 \tan x$  Triangle area  $\frac{1}{2} \cdot \tan x$  greater than  
Circular area  $\frac{1}{2} x^2$  (whole circle)  $\frac{1}{2} x^2 \cdot \frac{x}{0.4}$  Video Summaries and Practice Problems 29  
The squeeze  $\cos x$   $\sin x$   $x$  1 tells us that  $\sin x$  approaches 1  $\sin x/2 \cdot x/2$  1 means  $1 - \cos x$   
 $x$   $1 - \cos x$   $x/2$  So  $1 - \cos x$   $x/2$   $0$  Cosecant curve has slope  $\frac{dy}{dx} = 0$  For the slope at other  $x$  remember  
a formula from trigonometry:  $\sin x \cos x = \frac{1}{2} \sin 2x$  We want  $y = \sin x$   $\frac{dy}{dx} = \cos x$   
divide that by  $x$   $y = \sin x$   $\frac{dy}{dx} = \cos x$   $1 - \cos x$   $x/2$  Now let  $x \rightarrow 0$  In the limit  $\frac{dy}{dx} = \cos x$   
 $\sin x/0 = \cos x/1 = \cos x$  Derivative of  $\sin x$  For  $y = \cos x$  the formula for  $\cos x$   $\frac{dy}{dx} = -\sin x$   
lead similarly to  $\frac{dy}{dx} = -\sin x$  Practice Questions 1. What is the slope of  $y = \sin x$  at  $x = 0$  and at  $x = 2$   
? 2. What is the slope of  $y = \cos x$  at  $x = 2$  and  $x = 3$ ? 3. The slope of  $\sin x/2$  is  $2 \sin x \cos x$ :  
The slope of  $\cos x/2$  is  $-2 \cos x \sin x$ : Combined, the slope of  $\sin x/2 \cdot \cos x/2$  is zero  
. Why is this true? 4. What is the second derivative of  $y = \sin x$  (derivative of the derivative)?  
5. At what angle  $x$  does  $y = \sin x \cos x$  have zero slope? 6. Here are amazing infinite series for  $\sin x$  and  
 $\cos x$ :  $\sin x = x - \frac{x^3}{3!} + \frac{x^5}{5!} - \frac{x^7}{7!} + \dots$  (odd powers of  $x$ )  $\cos x = 1 - \frac{x^2}{2!} + \frac{x^4}{4!} - \frac{x^6}{6!} + \dots$  (even powers of  $x$ )  
Take the derivative of the sine series to see the cosine series. 8. Take the derivative of the cosine series to see  
minus the sine series. 9. These series tell us that for small angles  $\sin x \approx x$  and  $\cos x \approx 1 - \frac{x^2}{2}$ :  
With these approximations check that  $\sin x/2 \cdot \cos x/2$  is close to 1: 30.0 Highlight of Calculus  
Product and Quotient Rules Goal To find the derivative of  $y = f(x)/g(x)$  from  $\frac{df}{dx}$  and  $\frac{dg}{dx}$  Idea  
Write  $y = \frac{f(x)}{g(x)}$   $\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{f'(x)g(x) - f(x)g'(x)}{g(x)^2}$  by separating  $f$  and  $g$  The same  $y$  is  $f(x) \cdot \frac{1}{g(x)}$   
 $\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{f'(x) \cdot \frac{1}{g(x)} + f(x) \cdot \left(-\frac{g'(x)}{g(x)^2}\right)}{1} = \frac{f'(x)g(x) - f(x)g'(x)}{g(x)^2}$  Product Rule  $\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} \cdot \frac{dg(x)}{dx} + g(x) \cdot \frac{df(x)}{dx}$



/ d f dx E x a mple y D x 2 sin x Pro ductRule dy dx D x 2 c o s x C 2 x sin x  
 Apictureshowsthetwounshadedpiecesof y D f.x C x/g C g.x/f g g.x / f .x/ f toparea D . f . x / C f / g  
 sidearea D g . x / f Example f.x / D x n g .x/ D x y D f.x /g.x/ D x n C 1 ProductRule dy dx D x n dx dx  
 C x dx n dx D x n C x n x n 1 D .n C 1 /x n T h e c o r r e c t d e r i v a t i v e o f x n l e  
 adstothecorrectderivativeof x n C 1 QuotientRule If y D f .x / g.x/ th e n dy dx D g.x / d f dx f.x/ dg  
 dx g 2 EX A MPLE d dx si n x cos x D . c o s x . cos x/ sin x . sin x // c o s 2 x T h i s s a y s t h a t d  
 dx ta n x D 1 cos 2 x D se c 2 x ( Notice . cos x/ 2 C . sin x/ 2 D 1 ) EXAMPLE d dx 1 x 4 D x 4 ti  
 m e s 0 1 times 4 x 3 x 8 D 4 x 5 Th i s i s n x n 1 Pr o v e t h e Q u o t i e n t R u l e y D f .x C x / g.x C x/ f.x/  
 g.x/ D f C f g C g f g W r i t e t h i s y a s g.f C f/ f.g C g / g.g C g/ D g f fg g.g C g/ N o w d i v i d e t h a t y  
 by x A s x 0 w e h a v e t h e Q u o t i e n t R u l e 0.4VideoSummariesandPracticeProblems 31  
 PracticeQuestions 1.ProductRule:Findthederivativeof y D .x 3 /x 4 /: S i m p l i f y a n d e x p l a i n .  
 2.ProductRule:Findthederivativeof y D .x 2 /x 2 /: S i m p l i f y a n d e x p l a i n . 3 . Q u o  
 tientRule:Findthederivativeof y D c o s x sin x : 4 . Q u o t i e n t R u l e : S h o w t h a t y D sin x x h a s  
 a maximum(zero slope)at x D 0: 5.ProductandQuotient!Findthederivativeof y D x sin x cos x : 6 . g .x  
 / hasaminimumwhen d g dx D 0 a n d d 2 g dx 2 0 T h e g r a p h i s b e n d i n g u p y D 1 g.x/ h a s a  
 maximum atthatpoint:Showthat dy dx D 0 a n d d 2 y dx 2 0 ChainRulefortheSlopeof f.g .x // y D  
 g.x/z D f .y / thechainis z D f .g .x // y D x 5 z D y 4 thechainis z D .x 5 / 4 D x 20 Averageslope z  
 x D z y y x J u s t c a n c e l y I n s t a n t s l o p e d z dx D dz dy dy dx D CH A I N R U L E (likecancelling dy  
 ) You MUSTchange y to g .x / i n t h e a n s w e r E x a m p l e o f c h a i n z D y 4 D .x 5 / 4 dz dy D 4y 3 d y dx  
 D 5x 4 Chainrule dz dx D dz dy d y dx D .4y 3 / .5 x 4 / D 2 0 y 3 x 4 R e p l a c e y b y x 5 t o g e t o n l y  
 x dz dx D 20 .x 5 / 3 x 4 D 2 0 x 19 C H E C K z D .x 5 / 4 D x 20 d o e s h a v e dz dx D 20 x 1 9 1. Find d  
 z dx fo r z D c o s .4x/ W r i t e y D 4x a n d z D cos y s o dz dx D 2. F i n d dz dx fo r z D .1 C 4 x/ 2 W r i t e  
 y D 1 C 4x a n d z D y 2 s o dz dx D C H E C K .1 C 4x / 2 D 1 C 8 x C 16x 2 s o dz dx D 32 0 H i  
 ghlightsofCalculus PracticeQuestions 3. F i n d d h dx f o r h .x/ D . sin 3x/. cos 3x/  
 Productrule rstThen theChainruleforeachfactor dh dx D . s i n 3x/ d dx . c o s 3x/ C . cos 3x/ d dx . s i  
 n 3x/ D . sin 3x/. CHAIN / C . cos 3x/. CHAIN / D 4. Toughchallenge:Findthe secondderivative of

z.x/ D f.g.x// FIRST DERIV dz dx D dz dy dy dx Fu n ction of y.x/ timesfunction of x PRODUCT  
 RULE d 2 z dx 2 D dz dy d dx dy dx C dy dx d dx dz dy SE C OND DERIV dz dy d 2 y  
 dx 2 C dy dx d 2 z dy 2 dy dx dy dx tw i ce Check y D x 5 z D y 4 D x 20 dz dx D 20 x 1 9  
 d 2 z dx 2 D 38 0 x 18 SECOND

DE R IV .4y 3 /.20x 3 / C .5x 4 /.12y 2 /.5x 4 / 80 C 300 D 380 OK InverseFunctionsandLogarithms

A function assigns an output  $y = f(x)$  to each input  $x$ . A one-to-one function has different outputs  $y$  for different inputs  $x$ . For the inverse function, the input is  $y$  and the output is  $x = f^{-1}(y)$ . Example: If  $y = f(x) = x^5$ , then  $x = f^{-1}(y) = \sqrt[5]{y}$ . KEY: If  $y = f(x) = ax + c$ , then solve for  $x = \frac{y - c}{a}$  in the inverse function. Notice that  $x = f^{-1}(f(x))$  and  $y = f(f^{-1}(y))$ . The chain rule will connect the derivatives of  $f^{-1}$  and  $f$ . The great function of calculus is  $y = e^x$ . Its inverse function is the natural logarithm  $x = \ln y$ . Remember that  $x$  is the exponent in  $y = e^x$ . The rule  $e^x \cdot e^y = e^{x+y}$  tells that  $\ln(e^y) = y$ . In  $e^{\ln y} = y$ . Add logarithms because you add exponents:  $\ln(e^2 \cdot e^3) = \ln e^5 = 5$ .  $\ln(e^x)^n = n \ln e^x = nx$  (multiply exponent) tells us that  $\ln(e^y)^n = n \ln e^y = 0.4$  Video Summaries and Practice Problems 33

We can change from base  $e$  to base 10: New function  $y = 10^x$ . The inverse function is the logarithm to base 10. Call it  $\log$ :  $x = \log y$ . Then  $\log 100 = 2$  and  $\log 1000 = 3$  and  $\log 1 = 0$ . We will soon find the beautiful derivative of  $\ln y$  is  $1/y$ . You can change letters to write that as  $dx/dx = 1$ .  $\ln x = \int \frac{1}{x} dx$ . Practice Questions 1. What is  $x = f^{-1}(y)$  if  $y = 50x$ ? 2. What is  $x = f^{-1}(y)$  if  $y = x^4$ ? Why do we keep  $x > 0$ ? 3. Draw a graph of an increasing function  $y = f(x)$ : This has different outputs  $y$  for different  $x$ : Flip the graph (switch the axes) to see  $x = f^{-1}(y)$ . This graph has the same  $y$  for two  $x$ 's. There is no  $f^{-1}(y) = f(x)$  is NOT one-to-one  $x = y \cdot f^{-1}(y)$  is NOT a function  $x = y$ .

5. The natural logarithm of  $y = 1 = e^0$  is  $\ln e^0 = 0$ ? What is  $\ln e$ ? 6. The natural logarithm of  $y = 1$  is  $\ln 1 = 0$ ? and also base 10 has  $\log 1 = 0$ ? 7. The natural logarithm of  $e^2/50$  is? The base 10 logarithm of  $.10 = 2/50$  is? 8. I believe that  $\ln y = \ln 10 \cdot \log y$  because we can write  $y$  in two ways  $y = e^{\ln y}$  and also  $y = 10^{\log y}$ . Explain those last steps. 9. Change from base  $e$  and base 10 to base 2: Now  $y = 2^x$  means  $x = \log_2 y$ : What are  $\log_2 32$  and  $\log_2 2$ ? Why is  $\log_2 e = 1/34$ ? 10. If

A function assigns an output  $y$  to each input  $x$ . A one-to-one function has different outputs  $y$  for

different inputs  $x$ . For the inverse function the inputs  $y$  and the outputs  $x$ .  $Df^{-1}(y) = 1 / Df(x)$ . Example if  $y = Df(x)$

$D_x^5 t$  then  $x D f = 1 \cdot y / D y = 1/5$  KE Y If  $y D a x C b$  then solve for  $x D y = b a D$  in v erse function

Notice that  $x \cdot Df = 1 \cdot f_x$  and  $y \cdot Df = 1 \cdot f_y$  // The chain rule will connect the derivatives of  $f$  and  $f$

The great function of calculus is  $y = D e^x$  Its inverse function is the natural logarithm  $x = D \ln y$

Remember that  $x$  is the exponent in  $y = e^x$ . The rule  $\frac{d}{dx} e^x = e^x$  tells us that  $\ln y = \ln e^x = x$ .

Y Add logarithms because you add exponents:  $\ln .e^2 \cdot e^3 / D^5 = \ln x / n D = \ln x (m \text{ multiply})$

exponent) tells us that  $\ln y \sim \ln n / D$ .  $\ln y \sim 0.4$  Video Summaries and Practice Problems 33

We can change from base  $e$  to base  $10$ : New function  $y = D_{10}(x)$  The inverse function

isthe logarithm to base 10 C a little log: x D log y Then log 1 00 D 2 a n d log 1 100 D 2 a n d log 1 D 0

We will soon find the beautiful derivative of  $\ln y = \frac{1}{y} \frac{dy}{dx}$ . You can change letters to write that as  $\frac{d}{dx} \ln y = \frac{1}{y} \frac{dy}{dx}$ .

1. What is  $x \cdot D_y f$  if  $y = 50x$ ? 2. What is  $x \cdot D_y f$  if  $y = x^4$ ?

? Why do we keep  $x \geq 0$ ? 3. Draw a graph of an increasing function  $y = f(x)$ : This has different outputs  $y$

for different  $x$ : Flip the graph (switch the axes) to see  $x \leq 1 - y/4$ . This graph has the same

from two  $x$ 's. There is no  $f^{-1}(y) / f^{-1}(x)$  is NOT one-to-one  $x \neq y \implies f^{-1}(x) = f^{-1}(y)$  is NOT a function  $x \neq y$

5. The natural logarithm of  $y$  is  $\ln y = \frac{1}{y} \cdot \frac{dy}{dx}$ . What is  $\ln e$ ?  $e^x$ ? 6. The natural logarithm of  $y$  is  $\ln y = \frac{1}{y} \cdot \frac{dy}{dx}$ .

is  $\ln 10$  and also base 10 has  $\log_{10} 10 = 1$ . Then the natural logarithm of  $e^{2/50}$  is? The base 10 logarithm of

.10  $2 / 50$  is? 8. I believe that  $\ln y \leq \ln 10 / \log y$  because we can write  $y$  in two ways  $y \leq \ln y$  and

also  $y \leq 10 \log y \leq e \cdot \ln 10 \cdot \log y$ : Explain those last steps. 9. Change from base  $e$  and base 10 to

base 2 : Now  $y \leq 2^x$  means  $x \geq \log_2 y$  : What are  $\log_2 32$  and  $\log_2 2$  ? Why is  $\log_2 e/1$  ? 34 0H i

Highlights of Calculus Growth Rates and Log Graphs In order of fast growth as  $x$  gets large  $\log x$ ;  $x^2$ ;  $x^3$ ;  $2^x$ ;  $e^x$ ;  $10^x$ ;  $x \log x$  logarithmic polynomial exponential factorial Choose  $x = 1000$   $10^3$  so that  $\log x = 3$  OK to use  $x = 1000$   $e^x \log 1000 = 3$ ;  $10^6$ ;  $10^9$   $10^{300}$ ;  $10^{434}$ ;  $10^{1000}$   $10^{2566}$ ;  $10^{3000}$  Why is  $1000$   $10^{000}$   $10^{3000}$ ? Logarithms are best for big numbers Logarithms are exponents!  $\log 10^9 = 9$   $\log \log x$  is VERY slow Logarithms  $3$ ;  $6$ ;  $9300$ ;  $434$ ;  $1000$   $2566$ ;  $3000$  Polynomial growth! Exponential growth! Factorial growth Decay to zero for NEGATIVE powers and exponents  $1/x^2$  decays much more slowly than the exponential  $1/e^x$   $10^x$  Logarithmic scale shows  $x = 1$ ;  $10$ ;  $100$  equally spaced. NO ZERO!  $10^{123} \log x \log$ ?  $10^1 = 10$   $10^2 = 100$   $10^3 = 1000$   $10^4 = 10000$  Question If  $x = 1$ ;  $2$ ;  $4$ ;  $8$  are plotted, what would you see? Answer THEY ARE EQUALLY SPACED TOO!  $\log$  -  $\log$  graphs (  $\log$  scale up and also across) If  $y = Ax^n$ , how to see  $A$  and  $n$  on the graph? Plot  $\log y$  versus  $\log x$  to get a straight line  $\log y = \log A + n \log x$  Slope on a  $\log$ - $\log$  graph is the exponent  $n$   $y = x^{1.5}$   $A = 1$   $n = 1.5$   $\log y = 1.5 \log x + \log A = 0 + 1.5 \log x$  Slope  $n = 1.5$  For  $y = Ab^x$  use  $\log y$  (  $x$  versus  $\log y$  is now a line)  $\log y = \log A + x \log b$  0.4 Video Summaries and Practice Problems 35 New type of question How quickly does  $f(x)$  approach  $df/dx$  as  $x \rightarrow 0$ ? The error  $E_D f(x) = df/dx \cdot \Delta x$  will be  $E_A \cdot x/n$  What is  $n$ ? Usual one-sided  $f(x) \approx f(x) + C \cdot x / f(x)$  only has  $n = 1$  Centered difference  $f(x) \approx f(x) + C \cdot x^2 / f(x)$  has  $n = 2$  Centered is much better than one-sided  $E_D \cdot x/2$  vs  $E_A \cdot x$  I D E A FOR  $f(x) = e^x$  PROJECT at  $x = 0$  One-sided  $E$  vs centered  $E$  Graph  $\log E$  vs  $\log x$  Should see slope 1 or 2 Practice Questions 1. Does  $x^{100}$  grow faster or slower than  $e^x$  as  $x$  gets large? 2. Does  $100 \ln x$  grow faster or slower than  $x$  as  $x$  gets large? 3. Put these in increasing order for large  $n$ :  $1/n$ ;  $n \log n$ ;  $1:1$ ;  $10^n$  4. Put these in increasing order for large  $x$ :  $2^x$ ;  $e^x$ ;  $1/x^2$ ;  $1/x^{10}$  5. Describe the  $\log$ - $\log$  graph of  $y = 10x^5$  ( graph  $\log y$  vs  $\log x$  ) Why don't we see  $y = 0$  at  $x = 0$  on this graph? What is the slope of the straight line on the  $\log$ - $\log$  graph? The line crosses the vertical axis when  $x = 0$  and  $y = 1$  Then  $\log x = 0$  and  $\log y = 0$  The line crosses the horizontal axis when  $x = 0$  and  $y = 1$  Then  $\log x = 0$  and  $\log y = 0$  6. Draw the  $\log$  graph (a line) of  $y = 10e^x$  ( graph  $\log y$  versus  $x$  ) 7. That line crosses the  $x = 0$  axis at which  $\log y$ ? What is the slope? 36 OH i ghlights of Calculus

Linear Approximation and Newton's Method Start at  $x_0$  with known  $f(x_0)$  and  $f'(x_0)$ . Slope is  $f'(x_0)$ .  
**KEY IDEA**  $f(x) \approx f(x_0) + f'(x_0)(x - x_0)$  when  $x$  is near  $x_0$ . Tangent line has slope  $f'(x_0)$ . Solve for  $x$  in  $f(x) = 0$ .  
 $f(x) \approx f(x_0) + f'(x_0)(x - x_0)$  means approximately curve is linear near  $x_0$ . Examples of linear approximation to  $f(x) = \sqrt{x}$ .  
 $f(x) = \sqrt{x}$ ,  $f'(x) = \frac{1}{2\sqrt{x}}$ . At  $x_0 = 1$ ,  $f(1) = 1$ ,  $f'(1) = \frac{1}{2}$ . Tangent line is  $y = \frac{1}{2}(x - 1) + 1 = \frac{x+1}{2}$ .  
 $f(x) = \sqrt{x}$ ,  $f'(x) = \frac{1}{2\sqrt{x}}$ . At  $x_0 = 4$ ,  $f(4) = 2$ ,  $f'(4) = \frac{1}{4}$ . Tangent line is  $y = \frac{1}{4}(x - 4) + 2 = \frac{x+4}{4}$ .  
 $f(x) = \sqrt{x}$ ,  $f'(x) = \frac{1}{2\sqrt{x}}$ . At  $x_0 = 9$ ,  $f(9) = 3$ ,  $f'(9) = \frac{1}{6}$ . Tangent line is  $y = \frac{1}{6}(x - 9) + 3 = \frac{x+9}{6}$ .  
 $f(x) = \sqrt{x}$ ,  $f'(x) = \frac{1}{2\sqrt{x}}$ . At  $x_0 = 16$ ,  $f(16) = 4$ ,  $f'(16) = \frac{1}{8}$ . Tangent line is  $y = \frac{1}{8}(x - 16) + 4 = \frac{x+16}{8}$ .  
 $f(x) = \sqrt{x}$ ,  $f'(x) = \frac{1}{2\sqrt{x}}$ . At  $x_0 = 25$ ,  $f(25) = 5$ ,  $f'(25) = \frac{1}{10}$ . Tangent line is  $y = \frac{1}{10}(x - 25) + 5 = \frac{x+25}{10}$ .  
 $f(x) = \sqrt{x}$ ,  $f'(x) = \frac{1}{2\sqrt{x}}$ . At  $x_0 = 36$ ,  $f(36) = 6$ ,  $f'(36) = \frac{1}{12}$ . Tangent line is  $y = \frac{1}{12}(x - 36) + 6 = \frac{x+36}{12}$ .  
 $f(x) = \sqrt{x}$ ,  $f'(x) = \frac{1}{2\sqrt{x}}$ . At  $x_0 = 49$ ,  $f(49) = 7$ ,  $f'(49) = \frac{1}{14}$ . Tangent line is  $y = \frac{1}{14}(x - 49) + 7 = \frac{x+49}{14}$ .  
 $f(x) = \sqrt{x}$ ,  $f'(x) = \frac{1}{2\sqrt{x}}$ . At  $x_0 = 64$ ,  $f(64) = 8$ ,  $f'(64) = \frac{1}{16}$ . Tangent line is  $y = \frac{1}{16}(x - 64) + 8 = \frac{x+64}{16}$ .  
 $f(x) = \sqrt{x}$ ,  $f'(x) = \frac{1}{2\sqrt{x}}$ . At  $x_0 = 81$ ,  $f(81) = 9$ ,  $f'(81) = \frac{1}{18}$ . Tangent line is  $y = \frac{1}{18}(x - 81) + 9 = \frac{x+81}{18}$ .  
 $f(x) = \sqrt{x}$ ,  $f'(x) = \frac{1}{2\sqrt{x}}$ . At  $x_0 = 100$ ,  $f(100) = 10$ ,  $f'(100) = \frac{1}{20}$ . Tangent line is  $y = \frac{1}{20}(x - 100) + 10 = \frac{x+100}{20}$ .  
 $f(x) = \sqrt{x}$ ,  $f'(x) = \frac{1}{2\sqrt{x}}$ . At  $x_0 = 121$ ,  $f(121) = 11$ ,  $f'(121) = \frac{1}{22}$ . Tangent line is  $y = \frac{1}{22}(x - 121) + 11 = \frac{x+121}{22}$ .  
 $f(x) = \sqrt{x}$ ,  $f'(x) = \frac{1}{2\sqrt{x}}$ . At  $x_0 = 144$ ,  $f(144) = 12$ ,  $f'(144) = \frac{1}{24}$ . Tangent line is  $y = \frac{1}{24}(x - 144) + 12 = \frac{x+144}{24}$ .  
 $f(x) = \sqrt{x}$ ,  $f'(x) = \frac{1}{2\sqrt{x}}$ . At  $x_0 = 169$ ,  $f(169) = 13$ ,  $f'(169) = \frac{1}{26}$ . Tangent line is  $y = \frac{1}{26}(x - 169) + 13 = \frac{x+169}{26}$ .  
 $f(x) = \sqrt{x}$ ,  $f'(x) = \frac{1}{2\sqrt{x}}$ . At  $x_0 = 196$ ,  $f(196) = 14$ ,  $f'(196) = \frac{1}{28}$ . Tangent line is  $y = \frac{1}{28}(x - 196) + 14 = \frac{x+196}{28}$ .  
 $f(x) = \sqrt{x}$ ,  $f'(x) = \frac{1}{2\sqrt{x}}$ . At  $x_0 = 225$ ,  $f(225) = 15$ ,  $f'(225) = \frac{1}{30}$ . Tangent line is  $y = \frac{1}{30}(x - 225) + 15 = \frac{x+225}{30}$ .  
 $f(x) = \sqrt{x}$ ,  $f'(x) = \frac{1}{2\sqrt{x}}$ . At  $x_0 = 256$ ,  $f(256) = 16$ ,  $f'(256) = \frac{1}{32}$ . Tangent line is  $y = \frac{1}{32}(x - 256) + 16 = \frac{x+256}{32}$ .  
 $f(x) = \sqrt{x}$ ,  $f'(x) = \frac{1}{2\sqrt{x}}$ . At  $x_0 = 289$ ,  $f(289) = 17$ ,  $f'(289) = \frac{1}{34}$ . Tangent line is  $y = \frac{1}{34}(x - 289) + 17 = \frac{x+289}{34}$ .  
 $f(x) = \sqrt{x}$ ,  $f'(x) = \frac{1}{2\sqrt{x}}$ . At  $x_0 = 324$ ,  $f(324) = 18$ ,  $f'(324) = \frac{1}{36}$ . Tangent line is  $y = \frac{1}{36}(x - 324) + 18 = \frac{x+324}{36}$ .  
 $f(x) = \sqrt{x}$ ,  $f'(x) = \frac{1}{2\sqrt{x}}$ . At  $x_0 = 361$ ,  $f(361) = 19$ ,  $f'(361) = \frac{1}{38}$ . Tangent line is  $y = \frac{1}{38}(x - 361) + 19 = \frac{x+361}{38}$ .  
 $f(x) = \sqrt{x}$ ,  $f'(x) = \frac{1}{2\sqrt{x}}$ . At  $x_0 = 400$ ,  $f(400) = 20$ ,  $f'(400) = \frac{1}{40}$ . Tangent line is  $y = \frac{1}{40}(x - 400) + 20 = \frac{x+400}{40}$ .  
 $f(x) = \sqrt{x}$ ,  $f'(x) = \frac{1}{2\sqrt{x}}$ . At  $x_0 = 441$ ,  $f(441) = 21$ ,  $f'(441) = \frac{1}{42}$ . Tangent line is  $y = \frac{1}{42}(x - 441) + 21 = \frac{x+441}{42}$ .  
 $f(x) = \sqrt{x}$ ,  $f'(x) = \frac{1}{2\sqrt{x}}$ . At  $x_0 = 484$ ,  $f(484) = 22$ ,  $f'(484) = \frac{1}{44}$ . Tangent line is  $y = \frac{1}{44}(x - 484) + 22 = \frac{x+484}{44}$ .  
 $f(x) = \sqrt{x}$ ,  $f'(x) = \frac{1}{2\sqrt{x}}$ . At  $x_0 = 529$ ,  $f(529) = 23$ ,  $f'(529) = \frac{1}{46}$ . Tangent line is  $y = \frac{1}{46}(x - 529) + 23 = \frac{x+529}{46}$ .  
 $f(x) = \sqrt{x}$ ,  $f'(x) = \frac{1}{2\sqrt{x}}$ . At  $x_0 = 576$ ,  $f(576) = 24$ ,  $f'(576) = \frac{1}{48}$ . Tangent line is  $y = \frac{1}{48}(x - 576) + 24 = \frac{x+576}{48}$ .  
 $f(x) = \sqrt{x}$ ,  $f'(x) = \frac{1}{2\sqrt{x}}$ . At  $x_0 = 625$ ,  $f(625) = 25$ ,  $f'(625) = \frac{1}{50}$ . Tangent line is  $y = \frac{1}{50}(x - 625) + 25 = \frac{x+625}{50}$ .  
 $f(x) = \sqrt{x}$ ,  $f'(x) = \frac{1}{2\sqrt{x}}$ . At  $x_0 = 676$ ,  $f(676) = 26$ ,  $f'(676) = \frac{1}{52}$ . Tangent line is  $y = \frac{1}{52}(x - 676) + 26 = \frac{x+676}{52}$ .  
 $f(x) = \sqrt{x}$ ,  $f'(x) = \frac{1}{2\sqrt{x}}$ . At  $x_0 = 729$ ,  $f(729) = 27$ ,  $f'(729) = \frac{1}{54}$ . Tangent line is  $y = \frac{1}{54}(x - 729) + 27 = \frac{x+729}{54}$ .  
 $f(x) = \sqrt{x}$ ,  $f'(x) = \frac{1}{2\sqrt{x}}$ . At  $x_0 = 784$ ,  $f(784) = 28$ ,  $f'(784) = \frac{1}{56}$ . Tangent line is  $y = \frac{1}{56}(x - 784) + 28 = \frac{x+784}{56}$ .  
 $f(x) = \sqrt{x}$ ,  $f'(x) = \frac{1}{2\sqrt{x}}$ . At  $x_0 = 841$ ,  $f(841) = 29$ ,  $f'(841) = \frac{1}{58}$ . Tangent line is  $y = \frac{1}{58}(x - 841) + 29 = \frac{x+841}{58}$ .  
 $f(x) = \sqrt{x}$ ,  $f'(x) = \frac{1}{2\sqrt{x}}$ . At  $x_0 = 900$ ,  $f(900) = 30$ ,  $f'(900) = \frac{1}{60}$ . Tangent line is  $y = \frac{1}{60}(x - 900) + 30 = \frac{x+900}{60}$ .  
 $f(x) = \sqrt{x}$ ,  $f'(x) = \frac{1}{2\sqrt{x}}$ . At  $x_0 = 961$ ,  $f(961) = 31$ ,  $f'(961) = \frac{1}{62}$ . Tangent line is  $y = \frac{1}{62}(x - 961) + 31 = \frac{x+961}{62}$ .  
 $f(x) = \sqrt{x}$ ,  $f'(x) = \frac{1}{2\sqrt{x}}$ . At  $x_0 = 1024$ ,  $f(1024) = 32$ ,  $f'(1024) = \frac{1}{64}$ . Tangent line is  $y = \frac{1}{64}(x - 1024) + 32 = \frac{x+1024}{64}$ .  
 $f$

person Tobring back alinearequation set  $y' = 1 - P$  Then  $\frac{dy}{dt} = D - dP = dt P^2 D$ .  $cP = C sP^2 / P^2 D$   
 $cP = C s D - cy = C s y' D = P$  p roducedourlinearequation( $no y^2$ ) with  $c n o t C c y.t / D s c C A e c t$   
 $D s c C y.0 / s c e c t D$  old solutionwithchangeto  $c$  At  $t = D = 0$  wecorrectly get  $y = .0 /$   
 CORRECTSTART As  $t \rightarrow \infty$  and  $e c t = 0$  we get  $y = .8 / D s c$  and  $P = .8 / D c s$  Thepopulation  $P.t / i$   
 ncreasesalong an S -curve approaching  $c s P = D c^2 s$  has  $P^2 D = 0$  I n e c t i o n p o i n t B e n d i n g

changesfromuptodown CHECK  $\frac{d^2 P}{dt^2} = D \frac{d}{dt} cP = sP^2 D$ .  $c^2 sP / \frac{dP}{dt} = D = 0$  at  $P = D c^2 s$   
 Worldpopulationapproachesthelimit  $c s = 12$  b i l l i o n ( F O R T H I S M O D E L ! ) Populationnow  $7$  b  
 illionTryGoogleforWorldpopulation 0.4VideoSummariesandPracticeProblems 39 PracticeQuestions

$\frac{dy}{dt} = D c y - s$  h a s s D s p e n d i n g r a t e n o t s a v i n g s r a t e ( w i t h m i n u s s i g n ) 1. The constantsolution is  $y = D$   
 when  $\frac{dy}{dt} = D = 0$  I n t h a t c a s e i n t e r e s t i n c o m e b a l a n c e s s p e n d i n g :  $c y = D s$  2. The completesolution is  $y.t / D$   
 $s c C A e c t$  : W h y i s A  $D y.0 / s c$  ? 3 . I f y o u s t a r t w i t h  $y.0 / s c$  w h y d o e s w e a l t h a p p r o a c h  $8$  ? I f  
 y o u s t a r t w i t h  $y = .0 / s c$  w h y d o e s w e a l t h a p p r o a c h  $8$  ? 4 . T h e c o m p l e t e s o l u t i o n t o  $\frac{dy}{dt} = D s$  i s  $y = t / D$   
 s t C A W h a t s o l u t i o n  $y.t /$  startsfrom  $y.0 /$  at  $t = D = 0$  ? 5. If  $\frac{dP}{dt} = D - sP^2$  a n d  $y' = D - 1 - P$  e x p l a i n w h y  $\frac{dy}{dt} = D$   
 $D s$  P u r e c o m p e t i t i o n . S h o w t h a t  $P.t / \rightarrow 0$  as  $t \rightarrow \infty$  6. If  $\frac{dP}{dt} = D - cP - sP^4$  n d a l i n e a r e q u a t i o n f o r  $y' = D - 1 - P^3$

DifferentialEquationsofMotion A differentialequation for  $y.t / c$  a n i n v o l v e  $\frac{dy}{dt} = dt$  and also  $\frac{d^2 y}{dt^2} = dt^2$   
 Hereareexampleswithsolutions C a n d D c a n b e a n y n u m b e r s  $\frac{d^2 y}{dt^2} = D - y$  a n d  $\frac{d^2 y}{dt^2} = D - !^2 y$   
 S o l u t i o n s  $y = D C \cos t + D \sin t$   $y = D C \cos ! t + D \sin ! t$  N o w i n c l u d e  $\frac{dy}{dt} = dt$  andlook forasolution  
 method  $m \frac{d^2 y}{dt^2} + C 2r \frac{dy}{dt} + C k y = D$  0 h a s a d a m p i n g t e r m  $2r \frac{dy}{dt}$  : T r y  $y = D e^{-t}$  S u b s t i t u t i n g  $e^{-t}$   
 g i v e s  $m^2 e^{-t} + C 2r e^{-t} + C k e^{-t} = D = 0$  C a n c e l  $e^{-t}$  t o l e a v e t h e k e y e q u a t i o n f o r  $m^2 + C 2r + C k = D = 0$   
 T h e q u a d r a t i c f o r m u l a g i v e s  $D = r^2 \pm r^2 - k m m$  T w o s o l u t i o n s  $-1$  and  $-2$  T h e d i f f e r e n t i a l e q u a t i o n  
 i s s o l v e d b y  $y = D C e^{-1 t} + C D e^{-2 t}$  S p e c i a l c a s e  $r^2 = D k m$  h a s  $-1 = D = 2$  T h e n  $t$  e n t e r s  $y = D C e^{-1 t} + C D$   
 $t e^{-1 t}$  40 0 H i g h l i g h t s o f C a l c u l u s E X A M P L E 1  $\frac{d^2 y}{dt^2} + C 6 \frac{dy}{dt} + C 8 y = D = 0$  m  $D = 1$  a n d  $2r = D = 6$  a n d  $k$   
 $D = 8$   $-1 \pm 2 = D = r^2 - k m m$  i s  $-3 \pm 9 = 8$  T h e n  $-1 \pm D = 2 \pm D = 4$  S o l u t i o n  $y = D C e^{-2 t} + C D e^{-4 t}$   
 O v e r d a m p i n g w i t h n o o s c i l l a t i o n E X A M P L E 2 C h a n g e t o  $k = D = 10$   $D = 3 \pm 9 = 10$  h a s  $-1 \pm D = 3 \pm C i^2$   
 $D = 3$  i O s c i l l a t i o n s f r o m t h e i m a g i n a r y p a r t o f  $D e c a y$  f r o m t h e r e a l p a r t  $-3$  S o l u t i o n  $y = D$   
 $C e^{-1 t} + C D e^{-2 t} + C e^{-3 t} + C i / t + C D e^{-3 t} + C i / t e^{-i t} + D c o s t + C i \sin t$  l e a d s t o  $y = D . C C D / e^{-3 t} c o$

s t C .C D/e 3t sin t E X AMPLE3 Ch ang eto k D 9 Now D 3; 3 ( r e p e a t e d r o o t ) S o l u t i o n y  
 D C e 3t C D t e 3t i n c l u d e s t h e f a c t o r t P r a c t i c e Q u e s t i o n s 1. F o r d 2 y d t 2 D 4 y n d t w o s o l u t i o n s y  
 D C e a t C D e b t : W h a t a r e a a n d b ? 2. F o r d 2 y d t 2 D 4 y n d t w o s o l u t i o n s y D C c o s ! t C D s i n  
 ! t : W h a t i s ! ? 3 . F o r d 2 y d t 2 D 0 y n d t w o s o l u t i o n s y D C e 0 t a n d ( ??? ) 4. P u t y D e t i n t o 2 d 2  
 y d t 2 C 3 d y d t C y D 0 t o n d 1 a n d 2 ( r e a l n u m b e r s ) 5. P u t y D e t i n t o 2 d 2 y d t 2 C 5 d y d t C  
 3 y D 0 t o n d 1 a n d 2 ( c o m p l e x n u m b e r s ) 6. P u t y D e t i n t o d 2 y d t 2 C 2 d y d t C y D 0 t o n d  
 1 a n d 2 ( e q u a l n u m b e r s ) N o w y D C e 1 t C D t e 1 t : T h e f a c t o r t a p p e a r s w h e n 1 D 2  
 0.4 V i d e o S u m m a r i e s a n d P r a c t i c e P r o b l e m s 41 P o w e r S e r i e s a n d E u l e r ' s F o r m u l a A t x D 0 , t h e n t h  
 d e r i v a t i v e o f x n i s t h e n u m b e r n ! O t h e r d e r i v a t i v e s a r e 0: M u l t i p l y t h e n t h d e r i v a t i v e s o f f . x / b y x n = n  
 t o m a t c h f u n c t i o n w i t h s e r i e s T A Y L O R S E R I E S f . x / D f . 0 / C f 1 . 0 / x 1 C f 2 . 0 / x 2 2 C C f . n / . 0 /  
 x n n C E X A M P L E 1 f . x / D e x A l l d e r i v a t i v e s D 1 a t x D 0 M a t c h w i t h x n = n ! T a y l o r S e r i e s  
 E x p o n e n t i a l S e r i e s D e x D 1 C 1 x 1 C 1 x 2 2 C C 1 x n n C E X A M P L E 2 f D s i n x f 1 D c o s  
 x f 2 D s i n x f 3 D c o s x A t x D 0 t h i s i s 0 1 0 1 0 1 0 1 R E P E A T s i n x D 1 x 1 1 x 3 3 C 1 x 5 5  
 O D D P O W E R S s i n . x / D s i n x E X A M P L E 3 f D c o s x p r o d u c e s 1 0 1 0 1 0 1 0 R E P E A T c o s  
 x D 1 1 x 2 2 C 1 x 4 4 E V E N P O W E R S d d x . c o s x / D s i n x I m a g i n a r y i 2 D 1 a n d t h e n i 3  
 D i F i n d t h e e x p o n e n t i a l e i x e i x D 1 C i x C 1 2 . i x / 2 C 1 3 . i x / 3 C D 1 x 2 2 C C i  
 x x 3 3 C T h o s e a r e c o s x C i s i n x E U L E R ' S G R E A T F O R M U L A e i x D c o s x C i s i n x e  
 i c o s i s i n e i R e a l p a r t e i D c o s C i s i n e i C e i D 2 c o s e i D 1 c o m b i n e s 4 g r e a  
 t n u m b e r s T w o m o r e e x a m p l e s o f P o w e r S e r i e s ( T a y l o r S e r i e s f o r f . x / ) f . x / D 1 1 x D 1 C x C x 2 C x 3  
 C G e o m e t r i c s e r i e s f . x / D l n . 1 x / D x 1 C x 2 2 C x 3 3 C x 4 4 C I n t e g r a l o f g e o m e t r i c s e r i e s  
 42 0 H i g h l i g h t o f C a l c u l u s S u m m a r y : S i x F u n c t i o n s , S i x R u l e s , S i x T h e o r e m s I n t e g r a l s S i x F u n c t i o n s  
 D e r i v a t i v e s x n C 1 = . n C 1 / ; n 1 x n n x n 1 c o s x s i n x c o s x s i n x c o s x s i n x e c x = c e c x c  
 e c x x l n x x l n x 1 = x R a m p f u n c t i o n S t e p f u n c t i o n D e l t a f u n c t i o n 0 x 0 1 0 I n f i n i t e s p i k e h a s a r e a D  
 1 S i x R u l e s o f D i f f e r e n t i a l C a l c u l u s 1. T h e d e r i v a t i v e o f a f . x / C b g . x / i s a d f d x C b d g d x S u m 2 .  
 T h e d e r i v a t i v e o f f . x / g . x / i s f . x / d g d x C g . x / d f d x P r o d u c t 3. T h e d e r i v a t i v e o f f . x / g . x / i s g d f d x f  
 d g d x g 2 Q u o t i e n t 4. T h e d e r i v a t i v e o f f . g . x / / i s d f d y d y d x w h e r e y D g . x / C h a i n 5.

The derivative of  $x^y$  is  $\frac{dy}{dx} = yx^{y-1}$ . When  $f(x) > 0$  and  $g(x) > 0$  as  $x \rightarrow a$ , what about  $\frac{f(x)}{g(x)}$ ? L'Hopital's limit  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} = \lim_{x \rightarrow a} \frac{f'(x)}{g'(x)}$  if the limit exists. Normally this is  $\frac{f'(a)}{g'(a)}$ . Fundamental Theorem of Calculus If  $f(x)$  is continuous on  $[a, b]$  then the derivative of the integral  $\frac{d}{dx} \int_a^x f(t) dt = f(x)$ . Both parts assume that  $f(x)$  is a continuous function. All Values Theorem Suppose  $f(x)$  is a continuous function for  $a \leq x \leq b$ . Then on that interval,  $f(x)$  reaches its maximum value  $M$  and its minimum value  $m$ . And  $f(x)$  takes all values between  $m$  and  $M$  (there are no jumps).

### 0.4 Video Summaries and Practice Problems

#### 4.3 Mean Value Theorem

If  $f(x)$  has a derivative for  $a < x < b$  then  $\frac{f(b) - f(a)}{b - a} = f'(c)$  for some  $c$  between  $a$  and  $b$ . At some moment  $c$ , its instantaneous speed  $f'(c)$  equals the average speed  $\frac{f(b) - f(a)}{b - a}$ . Taylor Series  $f(x) = f(a) + f'(a)(x-a) + \frac{f''(a)}{2!}(x-a)^2 + \frac{f'''(a)}{3!}(x-a)^3 + \dots$  The derivatives  $f^{(n)}(a) = \frac{d^n f}{dx^n}$  at the base point  $x = a$ .  $f(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{f^{(n)}(a)}{n!} (x-a)^n$ . Stopping at  $\frac{f^{(n)}(a)}{n!} (x-a)^n$  leaves the error  $R_n = \frac{f^{(n+1)}(c)}{(n+1)!} (x-a)^{n+1}$  for some  $c$  between  $a$  and  $x$ . [The Mean Value Theorem]

#### The Taylor series looks best around $a = 0$

$f(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{f^{(n)}(0)}{n!} x^n$ . Binomial Theorem shows Pascal's triangle.  $(1+x)^p = 1 + \frac{p}{1}x + \frac{p(p-1)}{2!}x^2 + \frac{p(p-1)(p-2)}{3!}x^3 + \dots$  Those are just the Taylor series for  $f(x) = (1+x)^p$  when  $p \in \mathbb{R}$ .  $\frac{d}{dx} (1+x)^p = p(1+x)^{p-1}$ . Divide by  $n!$  to find the Taylor coefficients. Binomial coefficients  $\binom{p}{n} = \frac{p!}{n!(p-n)!}$ . The series stops at  $x^n$  when  $p \in \mathbb{N}$ . In infinite series for other  $p$  every  $\frac{1}{n!} x^n$  is  $\frac{1}{n!} x^n$ .

### 4.4 Highlights of Calculus Practice Questions

- Check that the derivative of  $y = \ln x$  is  $\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{1}{x}$ . The sign function is  $S(x) = \frac{x}{|x|}$  for  $x \neq 0$ . What ramp function  $F(x)$  has  $F'(x) = S(x)$ ?  $F(x) = \ln|x|$ . Why is the derivative  $\frac{d}{dx} \ln|x| = \frac{1}{x}$ ? (Infinite spike at  $x = 0$  with area  $2$ .)
- (L'Hopital) What is the limit of  $\frac{2x^3 - 5x^2}{x^2}$  as  $x \rightarrow 0$ ? What about  $x \rightarrow \infty$ ? L'Hopital's Rule says that  $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} = \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{f'(x)}{g'(x)}$  when  $f(x) \rightarrow \infty$  or  $0$  and  $g(x) \rightarrow \infty$  or  $0$ . Here  $\frac{f'(x)}{g'(x)} = \frac{6x^2 - 10x}{2x} = 3x - 5 \rightarrow \infty$ .
- Derivative is like Difference. Integral is like Sum. Difference of sums  $\sum_{k=1}^n f(k) - \sum_{k=1}^{n-1} f(k) = f(n)$ . What is  $\sum_{k=1}^n \frac{1}{k^2}$ ?  $\sum_{k=1}^n \frac{1}{k^2} = \frac{1}{1^2} + \frac{1}{2^2} + \dots + \frac{1}{n^2}$ . What is  $\sum_{k=1}^n \frac{1}{k}$ ?  $\sum_{k=1}^n \frac{1}{k} = 1 + \frac{1}{2} + \dots + \frac{1}{n}$ . What is  $\sum_{k=1}^n k$ ?  $\sum_{k=1}^n k = \frac{n(n+1)}{2}$ . What is  $\sum_{k=1}^n k^2$ ?  $\sum_{k=1}^n k^2 = \frac{n(n+1)(2n+1)}{6}$ . What is  $\sum_{k=1}^n k^3$ ?  $\sum_{k=1}^n k^3 = \left(\frac{n(n+1)}{2}\right)^2$ . What is  $\sum_{k=1}^n k^4$ ?  $\sum_{k=1}^n k^4 = \frac{n(n+1)(2n+1)(3n^2+3n-1)}{30}$ . What is  $\sum_{k=1}^n k^5$ ?  $\sum_{k=1}^n k^5 = \frac{n^2(n+1)^2(2n^2+5n+3)}{30}$ . What is  $\sum_{k=1}^n k^6$ ?  $\sum_{k=1}^n k^6 = \frac{n^3(n+1)^3(2n^2+3n-1)}{42}$ . What is  $\sum_{k=1}^n k^7$ ?  $\sum_{k=1}^n k^7 = \frac{n^4(n+1)^4(2n^2-7n+7)}{280}$ . What is  $\sum_{k=1}^n k^8$ ?  $\sum_{k=1}^n k^8 = \frac{n^5(n+1)^5(2n^2-11n+7)}{960}$ . What is  $\sum_{k=1}^n k^9$ ?  $\sum_{k=1}^n k^9 = \frac{n^6(n+1)^6(2n^2-13n+6)}{2880}$ . What is  $\sum_{k=1}^n k^{10}$ ?  $\sum_{k=1}^n k^{10} = \frac{n^7(n+1)^7(2n^2-17n+7)}{11520}$ . What is  $\sum_{k=1}^n k^{11}$ ?  $\sum_{k=1}^n k^{11} = \frac{n^8(n+1)^8(2n^2-21n+14)}{120960}$ . What is  $\sum_{k=1}^n k^{12}$ ?  $\sum_{k=1}^n k^{12} = \frac{n^9(n+1)^9(2n^2-25n+12)}{1209600}$ . What is  $\sum_{k=1}^n k^{13}$ ?  $\sum_{k=1}^n k^{13} = \frac{n^{10}(n+1)^{10}(2n^2-29n+14)}{12096000}$ . What is  $\sum_{k=1}^n k^{14}$ ?  $\sum_{k=1}^n k^{14} = \frac{n^{11}(n+1)^{11}(2n^2-33n+14)}{120960000}$ . What is  $\sum_{k=1}^n k^{15}$ ?  $\sum_{k=1}^n k^{15} = \frac{n^{12}(n+1)^{12}(2n^2-37n+14)}{1209600000}$ . What is  $\sum_{k=1}^n k^{16}$ ?  $\sum_{k=1}^n k^{16} = \frac{n^{13}(n+1)^{13}(2n^2-41n+14)}{12096000000}$ . What is  $\sum_{k=1}^n k^{17}$ ?  $\sum_{k=1}^n k^{17} = \frac{n^{14}(n+1)^{14}(2n^2-45n+14)}{120960000000}$ . What is  $\sum_{k=1}^n k^{18}$ ?  $\sum_{k=1}^n k^{18} = \frac{n^{15}(n+1)^{15}(2n^2-49n+14)}{1209600000000}$ . What is  $\sum_{k=1}^n k^{19}$ ?  $\sum_{k=1}^n k^{19} = \frac{n^{16}(n+1)^{16}(2n^2-53n+14)}{12096000000000}$ . What is  $\sum_{k=1}^n k^{20}$ ?  $\sum_{k=1}^n k^{20} = \frac{n^{17}(n+1)^{17}(2n^2-57n+14)}{120960000000000}$ . What is  $\sum_{k=1}^n k^{21}$ ?  $\sum_{k=1}^n k^{21} = \frac{n^{18}(n+1)^{18}(2n^2-61n+14)}{1209600000000000}$ . What is  $\sum_{k=1}^n k^{22}$ ?  $\sum_{k=1}^n k^{22} = \frac{n^{19}(n+1)^{19}(2n^2-65n+14)}{12096000000000000}$ . What is  $\sum_{k=1}^n k^{23}$ ?  $\sum_{k=1}^n k^{23} = \frac{n^{20}(n+1)^{20}(2n^2-69n+14)}{120960000000000000}$ . What is  $\sum_{k=1}^n k^{24}$ ?  $\sum_{k=1}^n k^{24} = \frac{n^{21}(n+1)^{21}(2n^2-73n+14)}{1209600000000000000}$ . What is  $\sum_{k=1}^n k^{25}$ ?  $\sum_{k=1}^n k^{25} = \frac{n^{22}(n+1)^{22}(2n^2-77n+14)}{12096000000000000000}$ . What is  $\sum_{k=1}^n k^{26}$ ?  $\sum_{k=1}^n k^{26} = \frac{n^{23}(n+1)^{23}(2n^2-81n+14)}{120960000000000000000}$ . What is  $\sum_{k=1}^n k^{27}$ ?  $\sum_{k=1}^n k^{27} = \frac{n^{24}(n+1)^{24}(2n^2-85n+14)}{1209600000000000000000}$ . What is  $\sum_{k=1}^n k^{28}$ ?  $\sum_{k=1}^n k^{28} = \frac{n^{25}(n+1)^{25}(2n^2-89n+14)}{12096000000000000000000}$ . What is  $\sum_{k=1}^n k^{29}$ ?  $\sum_{k=1}^n k^{29} = \frac{n^{26}(n+1)^{26}(2n^2-93n+14)}{120960000000000000000000}$ . What is  $\sum_{k=1}^n k^{30}$ ?  $\sum_{k=1}^n k^{30} = \frac{n^{27}(n+1)^{27}(2n^2-97n+14)}{1209600000000000000000000}$ . What is  $\sum_{k=1}^n k^{31}$ ?  $\sum_{k=1}^n k^{31} = \frac{n^{28}(n+1)^{28}(2n^2-101n+14)}{12096000000000000000000000}$ . What is  $\sum_{k=1}^n k^{32}$ ?  $\sum_{k=1}^n k^{32} = \frac{n^{29}(n+1)^{29}(2n^2-105n+14)}{120960000000000000000000000}$ . What is  $\sum_{k=1}^n k^{33}$ ?  $\sum_{k=1}^n k^{33} = \frac{n^{30}(n+1)^{30}(2n^2-109n+14)}{$

Fundamental Theorems of Differential Calculus 6. Draw a non-continuous graph for  $0 \leq x \leq 1$  where  $y = f(x)$  does NOT reach its maximum value. 7. For  $f(x) = x^2$ , which in-between point  $c$  gives  $f'(c) = f'(1/5) - 1$ ? 8. If your average speed on the Mass Pike is 75, then at some instant your speedometer will read: 9. Find three Taylor coefficients  $A; B; C$  for  $f(x) = e^x$  (around  $x = 0$ ). 10. Find the Taylor (Binomial) series for  $f(x) = \ln(1+x)$  around  $x = 0$ . 11. Graphs and Graphing Calculators 45. Graphs and Graphing Calculators This book started with the sentence Calculus is about functions. When these functions are given by formulas like  $y = Cx^2$ , we now know a formula for the slope (and even the slope of the slope). When we only have a rough graph of the function, we can't expect more than a rough graph of the slope. But graphs are very valuable in applications of calculus! From a graph of  $y = x/2$ , this section extracts the basic information about the growth rate (the slope) and the minimum = maximum and the bending (and area too). A big part of that information is contained in a plus or minus sign. Is  $y = x/2$  increasing? Is its slope increasing? Is the area under its graph increasing? In each case some

record of the distance. (That is called differentiation, and it is the central idea of differential calculus.) We also want to compute the distance from a history of the velocity. (That is integration, and it is the goal of integral calculus.) Differentiation goes from  $f$  to  $v$ ; integration goes from  $v$  to  $f$ . We look at examples in which these pairs can be computed and understood. **CONSTANT VELOCITY** Suppose the velocity is  $x$  at  $v = 60$  (miles per hour). Then  $f$  increases at this constant rate. After two hours the distance is  $f = 120$  (miles). After four hours  $f = 240$  and after  $t$  hours  $f = 60t$ . We say that  $f$  increases linearly with time; its graph is a straight line. Fig. 1.2 Constant velocity  $v = 60$  and linearly increasing distance  $f = 60t$ : Notice that this example starts the car at full velocity. No time is spent picking up speed. (The velocity is a step function.) Notice also that the distance starts at zero; the car is new. Those decisions make the graphs of  $v$  and  $f$  as neat as possible. One is the horizontal line  $v = 60$ :



The other is the sloping line  $f(t) = 60t$ : This  $v, f; t$  relation needs algebra but not calculus: If  $v$  is constant and  $f$  starts at zero then  $f(t) = vt$ : The opposite is also true. When  $f$  increases linearly,  $v$  is constant. The division by time gives the slope. The distance is  $f(1) = 120$  miles when the time is  $t(1) = 2$  hours. Later  $f(2) = 240$  miles at  $t(2) = 4$  hours. At both points, the ratio  $f/t$  is  $60 \text{ miles} = \text{hour}$ . Geometrically, the velocity is the slope of the distance graph:  $\text{slope} = \frac{\text{change in distance}}{\text{change in time}} = \frac{f(t) - f(t_0)}{t - t_0} = \frac{vt - vt_0}{t - t_0} = v$ .

**1.1 Velocity and Distance** 53 Fig. 1.3 *Straight lines*  $f(t) = 20 + 60t$  (slope 60) and  $f(t) = 30t$  (slope 30). The slope of the  $f$ -graph gives the  $v$ -graph. Figure 1.3 shows two more possibilities: 1. The distance starts at 20 instead of 0: The distance formula changes from  $60t$  to  $20 + 60t$ : The number 20 cancels when we compute change in distance so the slope is still  $60:2$ . When  $v$  is negative, the graph of  $f$  goes downward. The car goes backward and the slope of  $f(t) = 30t$  is  $v(t) = 30$ : I don't think speedometers go below zero. But driving backwards, it's not that safe to watch. If you go fast enough, Toyota says they measure absolute values the speedometer reads C 30 when the velocity is  $-30$ : For the odometer, as far as I know it just stops. It should go backward.

**VELOCITY vs. DISTANCE: SLOPE vs. AREA** How do you compute  $f$  from  $v$ ? The point of the question is to see  $f(t)$  on the graphs. We want to start with the graph of  $v$  and discover the graph of  $f$ : Amazingly, the opposite of slope is area. The distance  $f$  is the area under the  $v$ -graph. When  $v$  is constant, the region under the graph is a rectangle. Its height is  $v$ , its width is  $t$ , and its area is  $v$  times  $t$ : This is integration, to go from  $v$  to  $f$  by computing the area. We are glimpsing two of the central facts of calculus. 1A The slope of the  $f$ -graph gives the velocity  $v$ . The area under the  $v$ -graph gives the distance  $f$ . That is certainly not obvious, and I hesitated a long time before I wrote it down in

$f$  is piecewise linear and  $v$  is piecewise constant. Fig. 1.8 The velocity and distance grow exponentially (powers of 2). Where will calculus come in? It works with the smooth curve  $f(t) = t^2$ : This exponential growth is critically important for population and money in a bank and the national debt. You can spot it by the following test:  $v(t) = t$  is proportional to  $f(t)$ : 62 **11 Introduction to Calculus** Remark The function  $t^2$  is trickier than  $t^2$ : For  $f(t) = t^2$  the slope is  $v(t) = 2t$ : It is proportional to  $t$  and not  $t^2$ .

: For  $f \in D^2$  the slope is  $v \in D^1$ , and we won't need the constant  $c \in D^0$ : until Chapter 6: (The number  $c$  is the natural logarithm of 2: ) Problem 37 estimates  $c$  with a calculator the important thing is that it's constant. OSCILLATING VELOCITY AND DISTANCE

We have seen a forward-back motion, velocity  $V$  followed by  $-V$ : This is an oscillation of the simplest kind. The graph of  $f$  goes linearly up and linearly down. Figure 1.9 shows another oscillation that returns to zero, but the path is more interesting. The numbers in  $f$  are now  $0; 1; 1; 0; 1; 1; 0$ : Since  $f \in D^0$  the motion brings us back to the start. The whole oscillation can be repeated. The differences in  $v$  are  $1; 0; 1; 1; 0; 1$ : They add up to zero, which agrees with  $f$  last time: It is the same oscillation as in  $f$  (and also repeatable), but shifted in time. The  $f$ -graph resembles (roughly) a sine curve. The  $v$ -graph resembles (even more roughly) a cosine curve.

The waveforms in nature are smooth curves, while these are digitized the way a digital watch goes forward in jumps. You recognize that the change from analog to digital brought the computer revolution. The same revolution is coming in CD players. Digital signals (off or on, 0 or 1) seem to come every time. The piecewise constant  $v$  and  $f$  start again at  $t \in D^0$ : The ordinary sine and cosine repeat at  $t \in D^2$ : A repeating motion is periodic if the period is  $60$  or  $2$ : (With  $t$  in degrees the period is  $360$  of a full circle. The period becomes  $2\pi$  when angles are measured in radians. We virtually always use radians which are degrees  $2\pi = 360$ : ) A watch has a period of  $12$  hours. If the dial shows A.M. and P.M., the period is  $24$ : Fig. 1.9 Piecewise constant cosine and piecewise linear sine. They both repeat. A SHORT BURST OF SPEED

The next example is a car that is driven fast for a short time. The speed is  $V$  until the distance reaches  $f \in D^1$ , when the car suddenly stops. The graph of  $f$  goes up linearly with slope  $V$ , and then across with slope zero:  $v(t) = \begin{cases} V & 0 \leq t \leq f/V \\ 0 & t > f/V \end{cases}$  After  $t = f/V$  the car is at distance  $f$  and stays there. This is another example of function notation. Notice the general time  $t$  and the particular stopping time  $T$ : The distance is  $f(t)$ : The domain of  $f$  (the inputs) includes all times  $t \geq 0$ : The range of  $f$  (the outputs) includes all distances  $0 \leq f \leq f$ : Figure 1.10 allows us to compare three cars a Jeep and a Corvette and a Maserati. They have different speeds but they all reach  $f \in D^1$ : So

the areas under the  $v$ -graphs are all 1: There are triangles with height  $V$  and base  $T/D = 1/V$ :  
 1.2 Calculus Without Limits 63 Fig. 1.10 But so far speed with  $V$   $M$   $T$   $M$   $D$   $V$   $C$   $T$   $C$   $D$   $V$   $J$   $T$   $J$   $D$  1: Step function has infinite slope. Optional remark It is natural to think about faster and faster speeds, which means steeper slopes. The  $f$ -graph reaches 1 in shorter times. The extreme case is a step function, when the graph of  $f$  goes straight up. This is the unit step  $U(t)$ , which is zero up to  $t = 0$  and jumps immediately to  $U = 1$  for  $t > 0$ : What is the slope of the step function? It is zero except at the jump. At that moment, which is  $t = 0$ , the slope is infinite. We don't have an ordinary velocity  $v(t)$  instead we have an impulse that makes the car jump. The graph is a spike over the single point  $t = 0$ , and it is often denoted by  $\delta$  so the slope of the step function is called a delta function. The area under the infinite spike is 1: You are absolutely not responsible for the theory of delta functions! Calculus is about curves, not jumps. Our last example is a real-world application of slopes and rates to explain how taxes work. Note especially the difference between tax rates and tax brackets and

28 If you know the average velocity  $v_{ave}(t)$ , how can you find the distance  $f(t)$ ? Start from  $f(0) = 0$ :  
 1.4 Circular Motion 73 1.4 Circular Motion

This section introduces completely new distances and velocities the sines and cosines from trigonometry. As I write that last word, I ask myself how much trigonometry is essential to know. There will be the basic picture of a right triangle, with sides  $\cos t$  and  $\sin t$  and 1: There will also be the crucial equation  $\cos^2 t + \sin^2 t = 1$ , which is Pythagoras' law  $a^2 + b^2 = c^2$ : The squares of two sides add to the square of the hypotenuse (and the 1 is really  $1^2$ ). Nothing else is needed immediately. If you don't know trigonometry, don't stop an important part can be learned now. You will recognize the wavy graphs of the sine and cosine. We intend to find the slopes of those graphs. That can be done without using the formulas for  $\sin x$  and  $\cos x$  which later give the same slopes in a more algebraic way. Here it is only basic things that are needed.

And anyway, how complicated can a triangle be? Remark

You might think trigonometry is only for surveyors and navigators

(people with triangles). Not at all! By far the biggest applications are to rotation and vibration and oscillation.

It is fantastic that sines and cosines are so perfect for repeating motion around a circle or up and down.

Fig. 1.15 As the angle  $\theta$  changes, the graph shows the sides of the right triangle.

Our underlying goal is to offer one more example in which the velocity can be computed by common sense. Calculus is mainly an extension of common sense, but

hammer at MIT. He survived, but the thrower quit track.) Calculus will find that same

tangent direction, when the points at  $t$  and  $t + \Delta t$  come close. The velocity triangle is in Figure 1.16b.

It is the same as the position triangle, but rotated through  $90^\circ$ : The hypotenuse is tangent to the circle, in the direction the ball is moving. Its length equals  $v$  (the speed). The angle  $\theta$  still appears, but now it is the angle with the vertical. The

upward component of velocity is  $v \cos \theta$ ; when the upward component of position is  $\sin \theta$ : That is our common

sense calculation, based on 1.4 Circular Motion 75

a gurer rather than a formula. The rest of this section depends on it and we check  $v = D \cos \theta$  at special points.

At the starting time  $t = 0$ , the movement is all upward. The height is  $\sin 0 = 0$  and the upward velocity is  $\cos 0 = 1$ :

At time  $\theta = \pi/2$ , the ball reaches the top. The height is  $\sin \pi/2 = 1$  and the upward velocity is  $\cos \pi/2 = 0$ :

At that instant the ball is not moving up or down. The horizontal velocity contains a minus sign.

At  $\theta = \pi$  the ball travels to the left. The value of  $x$  is  $\cos \theta$ , but the speed in the  $x$  direction is  $-\sin \theta$ : Half

of trigonometry is in that figure (the good half), and you see how  $\sin^2 \theta + \cos^2 \theta = 1$  is so basic. That equation

applies to position and velocity, at every time. Application of plane geometry: The right triangles in Figure 1.16

are the same size and shape. They look congruent and they are; the angle  $\theta$  at the ball equals the angle  $\theta$  at the center. That is because the three angles at the ball add to  $180^\circ$ .

OSCILLATION: UP AND DOWN MOTION We now use circular motion to study straight-line motion.

That line will be the  $y$  axis. Instead of a ball going around a circle, a mass will move up and down. It oscillates

between  $y = 1$  and  $y = -1$ : The mass is the shadow of the ball, as we explain in a moment. The

re is a jump y oscillation that we do not want, with  $v_D = 1$  and  $v_D = -1$ : That bang-bang velocity is like a billiard ball, bouncing between two walls without slowing down. If the distance between the walls is 2; then at  $t_D = 4$  the ball is back to the start. The distance graph is a zigzag (or sawtooth) from Section 1.2: We prefer a smoother motion. Instead of velocities that jump between  $C = 1$  and  $-1$ , a real oscillation slows down to zero and gradually builds up speed again. The mass is on a spring, which pulls it back. The velocity drops to zero as the spring is fully

mass stops at the top and starts down. As the ball goes around the bottom, the mass stops and turns back up the  $y$  axis. Halfway up (or down), the speed is 1: Figure 1.17 shows the mass at a typical time  $t$ : The height is  $y_D = f \cdot t / D \sin t$ , level with the ball. This height oscillates between  $f_D = 1$  and  $f_D = -1$ : But the mass in Introduction to Calculus does not move with constant speed. The speed of the mass is changing although the speed of the ball is always 1. The time for a full cycle is still 2, but within that cycle the mass speeds up and slows down. The problem is to find the changing velocity  $v$ : Since the distance is  $f_D \sin t$ , the velocity will be the slope of the sine curve. THE SLOPE OF THE SINE CURVE At the top and bottom ( $t_D = 2$  and  $t_D = 3 = 2$ ) the ball changes direction and  $v_D = 0$ : The slope at the top and bottom of the sine curve is zero. At time zero, when the ball is going straight up, the slope of the sine curve is  $v_D = 1$ : At  $t_D = \pi$ , when the ball and mass and  $f$ -graph are going down, the velocity is  $v_D = -1$ : The mass goes fastest at the center. The mass goes slowest (in fact it stops) when the height reaches a maximum or minimum. The velocity triangle yields  $v$  at every time  $t$ : To find the upward velocity of the mass, look at the upward velocity of the ball. Those velocities are the same! The mass and ball stay level, and we know  $v$  from circular motion: The upward velocity is  $v_D \cos t$ : Figure 1.18 shows the result we want. On the right,  $f_D \sin t$  gives the height. On the left is the velocity  $v_D \cos t$ : That velocity is the slope of the  $f$ -curve. The height and velocity (red lines) are oscillating together, but they are out of phase just as the position triangle and velocity triangle were at right angles. This is absolutely fantastic, that in calculus the two most famous functions of trigonometry form a pair: The slope of the sine curve

is given by the cosine curve. When the distance is  $f \cdot t / D \sin t$ , the velocity is  $v \cdot t / D \cos t$ .

Admission of guilt: The slope of  $\sin t$  was not computed in the standard way. Previously we compared  $t \cdot C h / 2$  with  $t^2$ , and divided that distance by  $h$ . This average velocity approached the slope  $2t$  as  $h$  became small. For  $\sin t$  we could have done the same: average velocity  $D \text{ change in } \sin t / \text{change in } t$ .  $D \sin t / \sin t h : (1)$  This is where we need the formula for  $\sin t \cdot C h /$ , coming soon. Somehow the ratio in (1) should approach  $\cos t$  as  $h \rightarrow 0$ : (I told you so.) The sine and cosine the same pattern as  $t^2$  and  $2t$  to our shortcut was to watch the shadow of motion around a circle. Fig. 1.18  $v \cdot D \cos t$  when  $f \cdot D \sin t$  (red);  $v \cdot D \sin t$  when  $f \cdot D \cos t$  (black). That looks easy but you will see later that it is extremely important. At a maximum or minimum the slope is zero. The curve levels off.

### 1.4 Circular Motion 77 Question 1

What if the ball goes twice as fast, to reach angle  $2t$  at time  $t$ ? Answer The speed is now  $2$ : The time for a full circle is only  $\pi$ : The ball's position is  $x = D \cos 2t$  and  $y = D \sin 2t$ . The velocity is still tangent to the circle but the tangent is at angle  $2t$  where the ball is. Therefore  $\cos 2t$  enters the upward velocity and  $\sin 2t$  enters the horizontal velocity. The difference is that the velocity triangle is twice as big. The upward velocity is not  $\cos 2t$  but  $2 \cos 2t$ : The horizontal velocity is  $2 \sin 2t$ : Notice these  $2$ 's! Question 2 What is the area under the cosine curve from  $t = 0$  to  $t = \pi/2$ ? You can answer that, if you accept the Fundamental Theorem of Calculus computing areas is the opposite of computing slopes. The slope of  $\sin t$  is  $\cos t$ , so the area under  $\cos t$  is the increase in  $\sin t$ : No reason to believe that yet, but we use it anyway. From  $\sin 0 = 0$  to  $\sin \pi/2 = 1$ , the increase is  $1$ : Please realize the power of calculus. No other method could compute the area under a cosine curve so fast.

#### THE SLOPE OF THE COSINE CURVE

I cannot resist uncovering another distance and velocity (another  $f-v$  pair) with no extra work. This time  $f$  is the cosine. The time clock starts at the top of the circle. The old time  $t = \pi/2$  is now  $t = 0$ : The dotted lines in Figure 1.18 show the new start. But the shadow has exactly the same motion the ball keeps going around the circle, and the mass follows it up and down. The  $f$ -graph and  $v$ -graph are still correct, both with a time shift of  $\pi/2$ : The new  $f$ -graph is the cosine. The new  $v$ -graph is minus the sine. The slope of the cosine curve follows the negative

of the sine curve. That is another famous pair, twins of the first: When the distance is  $f(t) = D \cos t$ ; the velocity is  $v(t) = -D \sin t$ : You could see that coming, by watching the ball go left and right (instead of up and down). Its distance across is  $f(t) = D \cos t$ : Its velocity across is  $v(t) = -D \sin t$ : That twin pair completes the calculus in Chapter 1 (trigonometry to come). We review the ideas:  $v$  is the velocity, the slope of the distance curve, the limit of average velocity over a short time, the derivative of  $f$ :  $f$  is the distance, the area under the velocity curve, the limit of total distance over many short times, the integral of  $v$ : Differential calculus: Compute  $v$  from  $f$ . Integral calculus: Compute  $f$  from  $v$ : With constant velocity,  $f$  equals  $vt$ : With constant acceleration,  $v = D_1 t$  and  $f = \frac{1}{2} D_1 t^2$ : In harmonic motion,  $v = D \cos t$  and  $f = D \sin t$ : One part of our goal is to extend that list for which we need the tools of calculus. Another and more important part is to

(b) what are  $x$  and  $y$  coordinates? (c) what are  $x$  and  $y$  velocities? This part is harder. 6 If a not-herbalist says  $\omega = 2$  radians per second, find  $x$  and  $y$  coordinates, and the vertical velocity at time  $t$ : 7 A mass moves on the  $x$ -axis under a restoring force (on the unit circle with speed 1). What is the position  $x(t)$ ? Find  $x$  and  $v$  at  $t = 4$ : Plot  $x$  and  $v$  up to  $t = D$ : On television you know immediately when the words are live. The same with writing. 1.4 Circular Motion 79 8 Do these new mass (under a restoring force) meet the old mass (level with the horizontal)? What is the distance between the masses at time  $t$ ? 9 Draw graphs of  $f(t) = D \cos 3t$  and  $\cos 2t$  and  $2 \cos t$ , marking the  $t$ -axes. How long until each repeats? 10 Draw graphs of  $f(t) = D \sin t$ ,  $C$ , and  $v(t) = D \cos t$ : This oscillation always level with what ball? 11 Draw graphs of  $f(t) = 2 \sin t$  and  $v(t) = 2 \cos t$ : This oscillation always level with a ball going which way straight in or where? 12 Draw a graph of  $f(t) = D \sin t$ ,  $C \cos t$ : Estimate its greatest height (maximum  $f$ ) and the height of the lowest point. By computing  $f''$  check you're estimating. 13 How fast should you run across the circle to meet the ball again? It travels at speed 1: 14 A mass falls from the top of the unit circle when the ball's speed is 1 passes by. What acceleration is necessary to meet the ball at the bottom? Find the area under  $v(t) = D \cos t$  from the beginning of  $D \sin t$ : 15 from  $t = 0$  to  $t = D$  17 from  $t = 0$  to  $t = 2D$

16 From  $t = 0$  to  $t = 6$  18 From  $t = 2$  to  $t = 3$  19 The distance curve is  $y = \sin 4t$  in the first half cycle of the curve  $y = 4 \cos 4t$ : Explain both halves. 20 The distance curve is  $y = 2 \cos 3t$  in the first half cycle of the curve  $y = 6 \sin 3t$ : Explain both halves. 21 The velocity curve is  $y = \cos 4t$  in the first half cycle of the distance curve  $y = 14 \sin 4t$ : Explain both halves. 22 The velocity curve is  $y = 5 \sin 5t$  in the first half cycle of the distance curve  $y = 14 \sin 4t$ : Explain both halves. 23 Find the horizontal distance of the curve at  $t = 3$  from  $y = \cos t$ : Then find the average slope by dividing  $\sin = 2$  by the difference  $= 2 - 3$ . 24 The slope of  $y = \sin t$  at  $t = 0$  is  $\cos 0 = 1$ : Compute the average slope  $\sin t / t$  for  $t = 1; 1.01; 1.001$ : The ball at  $x = \cos t; y = \sin t$  circles (1) counter-clockwise (2) clockwise (3) starting from  $x = 1; y = 0$  (4) at speed 1: Find (1)(2)(3)(4) for the motion. 25  $x = \cos 3t; y = \sin 3t$  26  $x = 3 \cos 4t; y = 3 \sin 4t$  27  $x = 5 \sin 2t; y = 5 \cos 2t$  28  $x = \cos t; y = \sin t$  29  $x = \cos t; y = \sin t$  30  $x = \cos t; y = \sin t$  31 The oscillation  $x = \cos t; y = \sin t$  goes (1) up and down (2) between  $-1$  and  $1$  (3) starting from  $x = 0; y = 0$  (4) at velocity  $y = \cos t$ : Find (1)(2)(3)(4) for the oscillation. 32  $x = \cos t; y = 0$  33  $x = 0; y = 2 \sin t$  34  $x = 0; y = 2 \cos t$  35  $x = 0; y = 2 \sin t$  36  $x = \cos t; y = \cos t$  37 If the ball on the unit circle reaches the degrees at time  $t$ , find its position and speed and upward velocity. 38 Choose the number  $k$  so that  $x = \cos kt; y = \sin kt$  completes a rotation at  $t = 1$ : Find the speed and upward velocity. 39 If a particle doesn't pause before starting to move, a ball is called. The American League decided that the ball is always at the point between backward and forward motion, even if the motion is short. (Therefore, no ball.) Is it true? 80 Introduction to Calculus 1.5 A Review of Trigonometry Trigonometry begins with a right triangle. The size of the triangle is not as important as the angles. We focus on one particular angle call it  $\theta$  and on the ratios between the three sides  $x; y; r$ : The ratios don't change if the triangle is scaled to another size. Three sides give six ratios, which are the basic functions of trigonometry: Fig. 1.19  $\cos \theta = \text{adjacent side} / \text{hypotenuse} = x / r$   $\sin \theta = \text{opposite side} / \text{hypotenuse} = y / r$   $\tan \theta = \text{opposite side} / \text{adjacent side} = y / x$   $\sec \theta = 1 / \cos \theta = r / x$   $\csc \theta = 1 / \sin \theta = r / y$   $\cot \theta = x / y$   $\tan \theta = \sin \theta / \cos \theta$  Of course these six ratios are not independent. The three on the right come directly from the three on the left. And the tangent is the sine divided by the cosine:  $\tan \theta = \sin \theta / \cos \theta$



$y = r \sin x$  : No tangent of an angle and tangent to a circle and tangent line to a graph are different uses of the same word. As the cosine of  $\theta$  goes to zero, the tangent of  $\theta$  goes to infinity. The side  $x$  becomes zero,  $\theta$  approaches  $90^\circ$ ; and the triangle is infinitely steep. The sine of  $90^\circ$  is  $y = r$ . Triangles have a serious limitation. They are excellent for angles up to  $90^\circ$ ; and they are OK up to  $180^\circ$ ; but after that they fail. We cannot put a  $240^\circ$  angle into a triangle. Therefore we change now to a circle.

Fig. 1.20 Trigonometry on a circle. Compare  $2 \sin \theta$  with  $\sin 2\theta$  and  $\tan \theta$  (periods  $2\pi$ ; ). Angles are measured from the positive  $x$  axis (counterclockwise). Thus  $90^\circ$  is straight up,  $180^\circ$  is to the left, and  $360^\circ$  is in the same direction as  $0^\circ$ : (Then  $450^\circ$  is the same as  $90^\circ$ : ) Each angle yields a point on the circle of radius  $r$ : The coordinates  $x$  and  $y$  of that point can be negative (but never  $\pm r$ ). As the point goes around the circle, the six ratios  $\cos$ ;  $\sin$ ;  $\tan$ ;  $\cot$ ;  $\sec$ ;  $\csc$  trace out six graphs. The cosine waveform is the same as the sine waveform just shifted by  $90^\circ$ : One more change comes with the move to a circle. Degrees are out. Radians are in. The distance around the whole circle is  $2\pi r$ : The distance around to other points is  $r\theta$ : We measure the angle by that multiple. For a half-circle the distance is  $\pi r$ , 1.5A Review of Trigonometry 81 so the angle is  $\pi$  radians which is  $180^\circ$ : A quarter-circle is  $\frac{\pi}{2} r$  radians or  $90^\circ$ : The distance around to angle  $\theta$  is  $r$  times  $\theta$ . When  $r = 1$  this is the ultimate in simplicity: The distance is  $\theta$ : A  $45^\circ$  angle is  $\frac{\pi}{4}$  of a circle and  $2\pi = 8$  radians and the length of the circular arc is  $2\pi = 8$ : Similarly for  $1$ :  $360^\circ = 2\pi$  radians  $1$ :  $2\pi = 360^\circ$  radians  $1$  radian  $360^\circ = 2$  degrees. An angle going clockwise is negative. The angle  $\theta = 3$  is  $60^\circ$  and takes us  $\frac{1}{6}$  of the way around the circle. What is the effect on the six functions? Certainly the radius  $r$  is not changed when we go to  $\theta$ : Also  $x$  is not changed (see Figure 1.20a). But  $y$  reverses sign, because  $y$  is below the axis when  $\theta$  is above. This change in  $y$  affects  $y = r \sin \theta$  and  $y = x \tan \theta$  but not  $x = r \cos \theta$ .  $\frac{d}{d\theta} \cos = -\sin$ .  $\frac{d}{d\theta} \sin = \cos$ .  $\frac{d}{d\theta} \tan = \sec^2$ : The cosecant is even (no change). The sine and tangent are odd (change sign). The same point is  $\frac{\pi}{6}$  of the way around. Therefore  $\frac{\pi}{6}$  of  $2\pi$  radians (or  $300^\circ$ ) gives the same direction as  $\frac{\pi}{6}$  radians or  $60^\circ$ : A difference of  $2\pi$  makes no difference to  $x$ ;  $y$ ;  $r$ . Thus  $\sin \theta$  and  $\cos \theta$  are

the other four functions have period  $2\pi$ : We can go  $\pi$  or  $2\pi$  around the circle, adding  $\pi$  or  $2\pi$  to the angle, and the six functions repeat themselves. EXAMPLE Evaluate the six trigonometric functions at  $\theta = \pi/3$  (or  $\theta = 2\pi/3$ ). This angle is shown in Figure 1.20a (where  $r = 1$ ). The ratios are  $\cos \theta = x = 1/2$ ,  $\sin \theta = y = \sqrt{3}/2$ ,  $\tan \theta = y/x = \sqrt{3}$ ,  $\sec \theta = 1/\cos \theta = 2$ ,  $\csc \theta = 1/\sin \theta = 2/\sqrt{3}$ ,  $\cot \theta = 1/\tan \theta = 1/\sqrt{3}$ . These numbers illustrate basic facts about the sizes of four functions:  $|\cos \theta| \leq 1$ ,  $|\sin \theta| \leq 1$ ,  $|\sec \theta| \geq 1$ ,  $|\csc \theta| \geq 1$ . The tangent and cotangent can fall anywhere, as long as  $\cot \theta \neq 0$ . The numbers reveal more. The tangent  $\tan \theta$  is the ratio of sine to cosine. The secant  $\sec^2 \theta$  is  $1/\cos^2 \theta$ : Their squares are 3 and 4 (differing by 1). That may not seem remarkable, but it is. There are three relationships in the squares of these six numbers, and they are the key identities of trigonometry:  $\cos^2 \theta + \sin^2 \theta = 1$ ,  $\tan^2 \theta + 1 = \sec^2 \theta$ ,  $1 + \cot^2 \theta = \csc^2 \theta$ . Everything flows from the Pythagoras formula  $x^2 + y^2 = r^2$ : Dividing by  $r^2$  gives  $x = r \cos \theta$ ,  $y = r \sin \theta$ . That is  $\cos^2 \theta + \sin^2 \theta = 1$ : Dividing by  $x^2$  gives the second identity, which is  $1 + \tan^2 \theta = \sec^2 \theta$ . Dividing by  $y^2$  gives the third. All three will be needed throughout the book and the first one has to be unforgettable.

## DISTANCES AND ADDITION FORMULAS

To compute the distance between points we stay with Pythagoras. The points are in Figure 1.21a. They are known by their  $x$  and  $y$  coordinates, and  $d$  is the distance between them. The third point completes a right triangle. For the distance along the bottom we don't need help. It is  $|x_2 - x_1|$  (or  $|x_2 - x_1|$  since distances can't be negative). The distance up the side is  $|y_2 - y_1|$ : Pythagoras immediately gives the distance  $d$ :  $d^2 = (x_2 - x_1)^2 + (y_2 - y_1)^2$ . (1) Fig. 1.21 Distance between points and equal distances on circles. By applying this distance formula to two identical circles, we discover the cosine of  $s$ : (Subtracting angles is important.) In Figure 1.21b, the distance squared is  $d^2 = (x_2 - x_1)^2 + (y_2 - y_1)^2 = (2 \cos s - 2 \cos t)^2 + (2 \sin s - 2 \sin t)^2$ : (2) Figure 1.21c shows the same circle and triangle (but rotated). The same distance squared is  $d^2 = (x_2 - x_1)^2 + (y_2 - y_1)^2$ .

$C \sin s \quad t/2 : (3)$  Now multiply out the squares in equations (2) and (3). Whenever  $\cos s \quad t/2$  appears, replace it by 1: The distances are the same, so  $.2/D \quad .3/D : .2/D \quad 1 \quad C \quad 1 \quad 2 \cos s \quad t \quad 2 \sin s \quad t \quad .3/D \quad 1 \quad C \quad 1 \quad 2 \cos s \quad t/$ : After canceling  $1 \quad C \quad 1$  and then  $2$ , we have the addition formula for  $\cos s \quad t/$ : The cosine of  $s \quad t$  equals  $\cos s \quad t \quad C \quad \sin s \quad t$ : (4) The cosine of  $s \quad t$  equals  $\cos s \quad t \quad \sin s \quad t$ : (5) The easiest is  $D \quad 0$ : Then  $\cos t \quad D \quad 1$  and  $\sin t \quad D \quad 0$ : The equations reduce to  $\cos s \quad D \quad \cos s$ : To go from (4) to (5) in all cases, replace  $t$  by  $-t$ : No change in  $\cos t$ , but minus appears with the sine. In the special case  $s \quad D \quad t$ , we have  $\cos .t \quad C \quad t/D \quad \cos t/ \quad \cos t/ \quad \sin t/ \quad \sin t/$ : This is a much-used formula for  $\cos 2t$ : Double-angle:  $\cos 2t \quad D \quad \cos^2 t \quad \sin^2 t \quad D \quad 2 \cos^2 t \quad 1 \quad D \quad 1 \quad 2 \sin^2 t$ : (6) I am constantly using  $\cos^2 t \quad C \quad \sin^2 t \quad D \quad 1$ , to switch between sines and cosines. We also need addition formulas and double-angle formulas for the sine of  $s \quad t$  and  $s \quad C \quad t$  and  $2t$ : For that we connect sine to cosine, rather than  $\sin s \quad t/2$  to  $\cos s \quad t/2$ : The 1.5A

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connection goes back to the ratio  $y=r$  in our original triangle. This is the sine of the angle and also the cosine of the complementary angle  $= 2$ :  $\sin D \quad \cos \quad = 2/$  and  $\cos D \quad \sin \quad = 2/$ : (7) The complementary angle is  $= 2$  because the two angles add to  $= 2$  (a right angle). By making this connection in Problem 19; formulas (456) move from cosine to sines:  $\sin s \quad t/D \quad \sin s \quad t \quad \cos s \quad t \quad (8) \quad \sin s \quad C \quad t/D \quad \sin s \quad t \quad C \quad \cos s \quad t \quad \sin t \quad (9) \quad \sin 2t \quad D \quad \sin .t \quad C \quad t/D \quad 2 \sin t \quad \cos t \quad (10)$  I want to stop with these ten formulas, even if more are possible. Trigonometry is full of identities that connect its six functions basically because all those functions come from a single right triangle. The  $x$ ;  $y$ ;  $r$  ratios and the equation  $x^2 \quad C \quad y^2 \quad D \quad r^2$  can be rewritten in many ways. But you have now seen the formulas that are needed by calculus. They give derivatives in Chapter 2 and integrals in Chapter 5: And it is typical of our subject to add something of its own a limit in which an angle

Moiré patterns move. There are good applications in engineering and optics but we have to get back to calculus. CHAPTER 2 Derivatives 2.1 The Derivative of a Function

This chapter begins with the definition of the derivative. Two examples were in Chapter 1:

When the distance is  $t^2$ , the velocity is  $2t$ : When  $f(t) = D \sin t$  we found  $v(t) = D \cos t$ : The velocity is now called the derivative of  $f(t)$ : As we move to a more formal definition and new examples, we use new symbols  $f'$  and  $df = dt f$  for the derivative.

2. At time  $t$ , the derivative  $f'(t)$  or  $df = dt$  or  $v(t)$  is  $f'(t) = D \lim_{\Delta t \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(t + \Delta t) - f(t)}{\Delta t}$ : (1) The ratio on the right is the average velocity over a short time  $\Delta t$ : The derivative, on the left side, is its limit as the step  $\Delta t$  (delta  $t$ ) approaches zero. Go slowly and look at each piece. The distance at time  $t + \Delta t$  is  $f(t + \Delta t)$ : The distance at time  $t$  is  $f(t)$ : Subtraction gives the change in distance, between those times. We often write  $\Delta f$  for this difference:  $\Delta f = f(t + \Delta t) - f(t)$ : The average velocity is the ratio  $\Delta f / \Delta t = \Delta f / \Delta t$ : The change in distance divided by change in time. The limit of the average velocity is the derivative, if this limit exists:  $df = dt f = \lim_{\Delta t \rightarrow 0} \Delta f / \Delta t$ : (2) This is the neat notation that Leibniz invented:  $f' = \frac{df}{dt}$  approaches  $df = dt$ : Behind the innocent word limit is a process that this course will help you understand. Note that  $f'$  is not  $f$  times  $f$ ! It is the change in  $f$ : Similarly  $dt$  is not  $t$  times  $t$ : It is the time step, positive or negative and eventually small. To have a one-letter symbol we replace  $t$  by  $h$ : The right sides of (1) and (2) contain average speeds. On the graph of  $f(t)$ , the distance up is divided by the distance across. That gives the average slope  $f' = \Delta f / \Delta t$ : The left sides of (1) and (2) are instantaneous speeds  $df = dt$ : They give the slope at the instant  $t$ : This is the derivative  $df = dt$  (when  $t$  and  $f$  shrink to zero). Look again at the calculation for  $f(t) = D t^2$ : 87

88 2. Derivatives  $f'(t) = D \lim_{\Delta t \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(t + \Delta t) - f(t)}{\Delta t} = D \lim_{\Delta t \rightarrow 0} \frac{(t + \Delta t)^2 - t^2}{\Delta t} = D \lim_{\Delta t \rightarrow 0} \frac{t^2 + 2t\Delta t + \Delta t^2 - t^2}{\Delta t} = D \lim_{\Delta t \rightarrow 0} \frac{2t\Delta t + \Delta t^2}{\Delta t} = D \lim_{\Delta t \rightarrow 0} (2t + \Delta t) = 2Dt$ : (3) Important point: Those steps are taken before  $t$  goes to zero. If we set  $t = 0$  too soon, we learn nothing. The ratio  $f' = \Delta f / \Delta t$  becomes  $0 = 0$  (which is meaningless). The numbers  $f$  and  $t$  must approach zero together, not separately. Here their ratio is  $2t = D \Delta t$ , the average speed. To repeat: Success came by writing out  $\Delta f / \Delta t$  and subtracting  $t^2$  and dividing by  $\Delta t$ : Then and only then can we approach  $t = 0$ : The limit is the derivative  $2t$ : There are several new things in formulas (1) and (2). Some are easy but important, others are more profound. The idea of a function we will come back to, and the definition of a limit. But the notations can be discussed right away. They are used constantly and you also need to know how to read them aloud:  $f(t) = D t^2$   $f$  of  $t$   $D$  the value of the function  $f$  at time  $t$   $D$  delta  $t$

The time step forward or backward from  $t$  is  $\Delta t$ . The value of  $f$  at time  $t$  is  $f(t)$ . The change in  $f$  over  $\Delta t$  is  $\Delta f$ . The average velocity is  $\frac{\Delta f}{\Delta t}$ . The value of the derivative at time  $t$  is  $\frac{df}{dt}$ . This is the same as  $f'(t)$  (the instantaneous velocity) as  $\Delta t \rightarrow 0$ . The process that starts with numbers  $f = t$  and produces the number  $\frac{df}{dt}$ : From those last words you see what lies behind the notation  $\frac{df}{dt}$ : The symbol  $t$  indicates a non-zero (usually short) length of time. The symbol  $dt$  indicates an infinitesimal (even shorter) length of time. Some mathematicians work separately with  $df$  and  $dt$ , and  $\frac{df}{dt}$  is their ratio. For us  $\frac{df}{dt}$  is a single notation (don't cancel  $d$  and don't cancel  $t$ ). The derivative  $\frac{df}{dt}$  is the limit of  $\frac{\Delta f}{\Delta t}$ : When the notation  $\frac{df}{dt}$  is awkward, use  $f'$  or  $v$ : Remark The notation hides one thing we should mention. The time step can be negative just as easily as positive. We can compute the average  $\frac{\Delta f}{\Delta t}$  over a time interval before the time  $t$ , instead of after. This ratio also approaches  $\frac{df}{dt}$ : The notation also hides another thing: The derivative might not exist. The averages  $\frac{\Delta f}{\Delta t}$  might not approach a limit (it has to be the same limit going forward and backward from time  $t$ ). In the case  $f(t) = t^2$  is not needed. At that instant there is no needle reading on the speedometer. This will happen in Example 2.

**EXAMPLE 1 (Constant velocity  $V$ )** The distance  $f$  is  $V$  times  $t$ : The distance at time  $t$  is  $V$  times  $t$ : The difference  $\Delta f$  is  $V$  times  $\Delta t$ :  $\frac{\Delta f}{\Delta t} = V$  so the limit is  $\frac{df}{dt} = V$ : The derivative of  $Vt$  is  $V$ : The derivative of  $2t$  is  $2$ : The averages  $\frac{\Delta f}{\Delta t}$  are always  $V$ , in this exceptional case of a constant velocity.