

MATH-2417.001 Notes

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Author's Notes

This is my very first project that I wrote in \LaTeX , but I hope you enjoy the notes that I poured my blood, sweat, and tears into 🥲

These notes are based off of the textbook *Calculus 11e* by *Ron Larson* and *Bruce Edwards*, as well as the lectures of professor *Carlos Arreche* from the *Fall 2023* semester.

Practice problems are also found within the notes. The answers for the practice problems are found at the end of the notes. Please try them yourself so that you can get a hang of the subject!

If you have any complaints, or suggestions regarding these notes, please email me at mdn220004@utdallas.edu

1 Limits

1.1 Introduction to Calculus — "Mathematics of Change"

You can use calculus to study static objects by pretending they're changing

Example

A circle has area πr^2 , but you can use the radius r to calculate the area of other polygons, such as a square, triangle, pentagon, etc...
In other words, the *limit* of the areas inscribed polygons in a circle is πr^2

1.2 Finding Limits Graphically & Numerically

Theorem Informal Definition of Limit

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

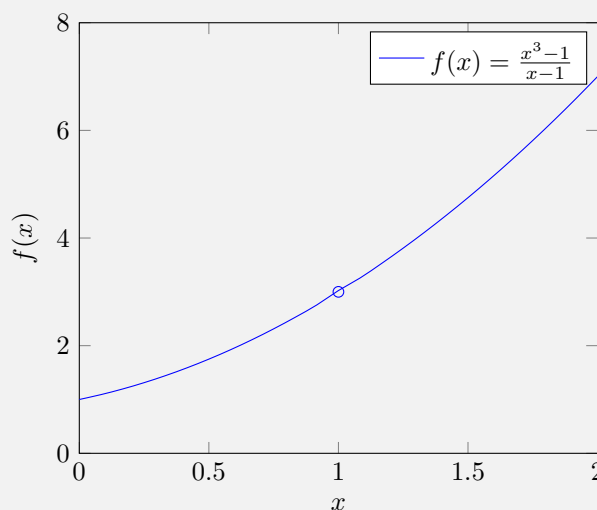
As x gets closer to c , the value of $f(x)$ becomes L

Limits also depend on what direction¹ you're coming from:

Meaning	Math Expression
From the right	$\lim_{x \rightarrow c^+} f(x)$
From the left	$\lim_{x \rightarrow c^-} f(x)$

Example Estimating Graphically and Numerically

Consider the function $f(x) = \frac{x^3-1}{x-1}$:



x	0.9	0.99	0.999	1	1.001	1.01	1.1
f(x)	2.71	2.97	2.997	DNE	3.003	3.03	3.31

Notice how in both the **table** and **graph**, $f(x)$ looks like it's approaching $f(x) = 3$ when $x = 1$

¹If the limits from the left and right don't match, then the limit *doesn't exist*

1.2.1 When Limits Fail to Exist

Note Limits Don't Exist When

- $\lim_{x \rightarrow c^-} f(x) \neq \lim_{x \rightarrow c^+} f(x)$
- $f(x)$ is a violently oscillating function

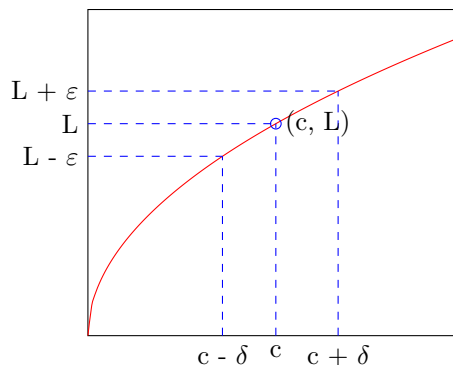
1.2.2 A Formal Definition

Basically...

Theorem Limits via.

$\varepsilon - \delta$

The statement $\lim_{x \rightarrow c} f(x) = L$ means that for each $\varepsilon > 0$ there exists $\delta > 0$ such that if $0 < |x - c| < \delta$ then $|f(x) - L| < \varepsilon$



Refer back to finding limits numerically (example 1.2):

- $\pm\varepsilon$ would be the values on the row $f(x)$
- $\pm\delta$ would be the values on the row x

1.2.2-1|You Try Proving Limits via. $\varepsilon - \delta$ Definition

Consider $f(x) = 10x - 6$, prove that $\lim_{x \rightarrow 3} f(x) = 24$ using the $\varepsilon - \delta$ definition

1.3 Evaluating Limits Analytically

1.3.1 Properties of Limits

Theorem Basic Limit Properties

Let $\{b, c\} = \mathbb{R}$, $n = \mathbb{N}$:

1. $\lim_{x \rightarrow c} x = c$
2. $\lim_{x \rightarrow c} b = b$
3. $\lim_{x \rightarrow c} x^n = c^n$

Example Evaluating Basic Limits

$$\begin{aligned}\lim_{x \rightarrow 2} 5 &= 5 \\ \lim_{x \rightarrow 4} x &= 4 \\ \lim_{x \rightarrow 5} x^2 &= 25\end{aligned}$$

\mathbb{R} = all real numbers
 \mathbb{N} = all natural numbers

$f(g(x))$ may also be written as $f \circ g$

Theorem Limit Properties

Let $\{b, c\} = \mathbb{R}$, $n = \mathbb{N}$, and f and g are functions with limits:

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow c} f(x) = L \quad \text{and} \quad \lim_{x \rightarrow c} g(x) = K$$

1. $\lim_{x \rightarrow c} [b \cdot f(x)] = b \cdot L$
2. $\lim_{x \rightarrow c} [b \pm f(x)] = b \pm L$
3. $\lim_{x \rightarrow c} [f(x) \cdot g(x)] = L \cdot K$
4. $\lim_{x \rightarrow c} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} = \frac{L}{K}, K \neq 0$
5. $\lim_{x \rightarrow c} [f(x)]^n = L^n$
6. $\lim_{x \rightarrow c} \sqrt[n]{x} = \sqrt[n]{c}$
7. $\lim_{x \rightarrow c} f(g(x)) = f(\lim_{x \rightarrow c} g(x)) = f(K)$

Example Limit of Polynomial

$$\begin{aligned} \lim_{x \rightarrow 5} [3x^3 + 4] &= \lim_{x \rightarrow 5} 3x^3 + \lim_{x \rightarrow 5} 4 \\ &= 3 \cdot \lim_{x \rightarrow 5} x^3 + \lim_{x \rightarrow 5} 4 \\ &= 3 \cdot (5)^3 + 4 = 379 \end{aligned}$$

Theorem Limits of Polynomial/Rationals

Let $c = \mathbb{R}$ and p be a polynomial function:

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow c} p(x) = p(c)$$

Let r be a rational function $r(x) = \frac{p(x)}{q(x)}$ and $c = \mathbb{R}$ such that $q(c) \neq 0$:

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow c} r(x) = r(c) = \frac{p(c)}{q(c)}$$

1.3.2 Squeeze Theorem

Theorem The Squeeze Theorem

Suppose $h(x) \leq f(x) \leq g(x)$ for all x in an open interval *except* when $x = c$

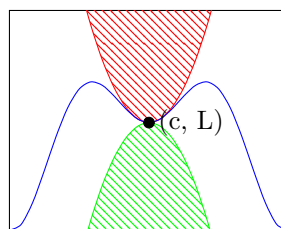
Also suppose that $\lim_{x \rightarrow c} h(x) = L = \lim_{x \rightarrow c} g(x)$ i.e. they share the same limit.

This would mean that $\lim_{x \rightarrow c} f(x) = L$

Theorem Trigonometric Limits

1. $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\sin x}{x} = 1$
2. $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{1 - \cos x}{x} = 0$

Squeeze Theorem



Open/closed interval continuity will be discussed later in section 1.4.1.

1.3.2-1|You Try Squeeze Theorem

Show that $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \left(\cos\left(\frac{2\pi}{3x}\right) \cdot \sqrt{x^3 + x^2} \right) = 0$ using the Squeeze Theorem

1.3.2-2|You Try Trigonometric Limit

Evaluate:

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\tan(3x)}{4x + \sin(2x)}$$

Hint: Break it down to the trigonometric functions you know how to take a limit of!

1.4 Continuity**Definition Definition of Continuity**

A function f is continuous if:

1. $f(c)$ exists
2. $\lim_{x \rightarrow c} f(x)$ exists
3. $f(c) = \lim_{x \rightarrow c} f(x)$

1.4-1|You Try Determine Continuity

Determine if the function is continuous at $x = 2$

Note Continuous Functions

The following functions are always continuous *everywhere they're defined*:

- polynomial functions
- rational functions
- radical functions
- trigonometric functions

1.4.1 Open and Closed Intervals

A function is continuous on an **open interval** (a, b) if $f(x) = c$ for each c in (a, b)

A function is continuous on a **closed interval** $[a, b]$ if:

- $f(x)$ is continuous on (a, b)
- $\lim_{x \rightarrow b^-} f(x) = f(b)$
- $\lim_{x \rightarrow a^+} f(x) = f(a)$

Theorem Intermediate Value Theorem

If $f(x)$ is continuous on $[a, b]$, $a \neq b$, and k is any number between $f(a)$ and $f(b)$, then there exists a number c in $[a, b]$ such that:

$$f(c) = k$$

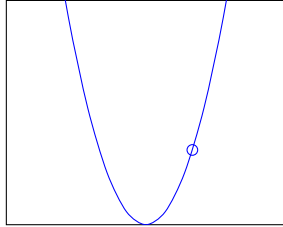
1.4.1-1|You Try Intermediate Value Theorem

Use the Intermediate Value Theorem to prove that $x^3 + x^2 = 1$ has at least one solution on the interval $(-1, 2)$

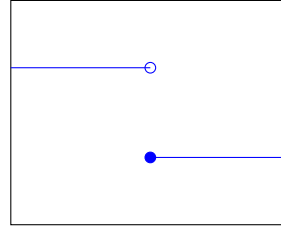
1.4.2 Discontinuities

There are two cases where discontinuities happen:

Removable Discontinuity



Non-Removable Discontinuity



Another example of removable discontinuity is in example 1.2

1.4.3 Asymptotes

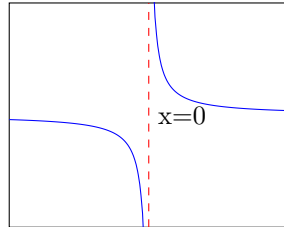
Definition Asymptotes

Vertical asymptote are when: Horizontal asymptote is:

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

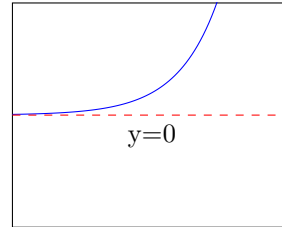
$$\lim_{x \rightarrow \pm\infty} f(x) = L$$

Vertical Asymptote



$$f(x) = \frac{1}{x}$$

Horizontal Asymptote



$$f(x) = 2^x$$

Note

We can infer something from vertical asymptotes from this graph: As the denominator becomes closer to zero, and it's a positive number, then the $f(x)$ will approach ∞ . If the denominator approaches zero and is negative, then $f(x)$ will approach $-\infty$.

1.4.3-1|You Try Curveball Asymptote

Find the asymptotes:

$$f(x) = \frac{\sqrt{(x-1)(x-3)}}{(x-2)(x-4)}$$

1.4.3-2|You Try Curveball Trigonometry

Find the asymptotes:

$$f(x) = \frac{\sin(x)}{x^3 - x}$$

2 Differentiation

Derivatives are essentially the *slope* of the function at a certain point

They also *cannot exist* where the limit doesn't exist at the function

This comes in handy when solving physics problems!

Note Derivatives and Rate of Change

To elaborate more on this, the derivative of a function $f(x)$ at point $x = c$ is the instantaneous rate of change:

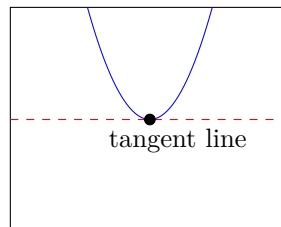
$$f'(x) \Big|_{x=c}$$

The average rate of change of the function on the interval $[a, b]$ is written as such:

$$\frac{f(b) - f(a)}{b - a}$$

2.1 Derivatives and Tangent Lines

Some mathematicians were trying to find out how to draw a line that intersects a function at *only one point*:



However, it takes *two points* to draw a line, so they were confuzzled. You can just Google up the rest of the lore behind the definition of a limit, but it boils down to this:

Theorem Derivative via. Limits

$$\lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(x+h) - f(x)}{h} = f'(c) \text{ and } \lim_{x \rightarrow a} \frac{f(x) - f(a)}{x - a} = f'(c)$$

Note Alternative Ways of Writing a Derivative

There are other ways that mathematicians defined derivative:

- $f'(x)$
- $\frac{d}{dx} f(x)$
- $\frac{dy}{dx}$
- $Dx(y)$

This isn't essential to know, but it's pretty useful to see how other mathematicians may express derivatives

Theorem Continuity of Derivatives

If function $f(x)$ is differentiable at $x = c$, then it is *also continuous* at $x = c$

2.1-1|You Try Finding the Tangent LineFind the tangent lines to $f(x) = x^2 + 1$ at $(-2, 5)$ **2.2 Rules of Derivatives**

Finding derivatives with the limit definition can get pretty exhausting, so mathematicians came up with a lot of shortcuts to evaluate derivatives much quicker. This is a pretty lengthy section, because of the many practice example problems I'll be putting in this section, but here are the rules in short:

let: $f(x)$ = a function
 $g(x)$ = another function
 c = a constant

Rule	Math Expression
Constant	$\frac{d}{dx}c = 0$
Power	$\frac{d}{dx}x^n = nx^{n-1}$
Sum and Difference	$\frac{d}{dx}[f(x) \pm g(x)] = f'(x) \pm g'(x)$
Product	$\frac{d}{dx}[f(x)g(x)] = f(x)g'(x) + g(x)f'(x)$
Quotient	$\frac{d}{dx}\left[\frac{f(x)}{g(x)}\right] = \frac{g(x) \cdot f'(x) - f(x) \cdot g'(x)}{(g(x))^2}$
Trigonometry	$\frac{d}{dx} \sin(x) = \cos(x)$ $\frac{d}{dx} \cos(x) = -\sin(x)$ $\frac{d}{dx} \tan(x) = \sec^2(x)$ $\frac{d}{dx} \cot(x) = -\csc^2(x)$ $\frac{d}{dx} \sec(x) = \sec(x) \tan(x)$ $\frac{d}{dx} \csc(x) = -\csc(x) \cot(x)$
Chain	$\frac{d}{dx}f(g(x)) = g'(x) \cdot f'(g(x))$

You don't have to simplify completely on open-ended questions!

Example Power Rule

- $\frac{d}{dx}(3x^2 + 4x) = 6x + 4$
- $\frac{d}{dx}\sqrt{x} = \frac{d}{dx}x^{\frac{1}{2}} = \frac{1}{2}x^{-\frac{1}{2}}$
- $\frac{d}{dx}\sqrt[3]{x^2} = \frac{d}{dx}x^{\frac{2}{3}} = x^{-\frac{1}{3}}$

Example Product and Quotient Rule

- $\frac{d}{dx}(2x + 3)(3x^2 + 1) = (2x + 3)(6x) + (3x^2 + 1)(2)$
- $\frac{d}{dx} \frac{x^2 + 3}{2x - 1} = \frac{(2x - 1)(2x) - (x^2 + 3)(2)}{(2x - 1)^2}$

Example Chain Rule

$$\frac{d}{dx} \sin(x^2 + 1)$$

$$\begin{aligned} u &= x^2 + 1, & v &= \sin(u) \\ u' &= 2x, & v' &= \cos(u) \\ & & v' &= \cos(x^2 + 1) \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} &= u' \cdot v' \\ &= 2x \cdot \cos(x^2 + 1) \end{aligned}$$

u -substitution is a good method for solving chain rule problems:

Example sin and cos Rule

1. $\frac{d}{dx} (2 \sin(\theta) + 3 \cos(\theta) - \frac{4}{\theta}) = 2 \cos(\theta) - 3 \sin(\theta) + \frac{4}{\theta^2}$
2. $\frac{d}{dx} (x^2 + 2 \cos(x)) = 2x - 2 \sin(x)$
3. $\frac{d}{d\theta} (\tan(\theta)) = \frac{d}{d\theta} \left(\frac{\sin(\theta)}{\cos(\theta)} \right) = \frac{\cos^2(\theta) + \sin^2(\theta)}{\cos^2(\theta)} = \sec^2(\theta)$

Remember:
 $\sin^2(\theta) + \cos^2(\theta) = 1$

2.2-1|You Try Find Horizontal Tangents

Find the horizontal tangents of $f(x) = x^4 - 2x^2 + 3$

2.3 Higher Order Derivatives

You can take a derivative of derivative:

$$\frac{d}{dx} \left[\frac{d}{dx} f(x) \right] = \frac{d^2}{dx^2} [f(x)] = f''(x)$$

Example Finding the Second Derivative

Finding $f''(x)$ when $f(x) = \frac{2x}{x+1}$:

$$\begin{aligned} f'(x) &= \frac{2 \cdot (x+1) - (2x) \cdot 1}{(x+1)^2} \\ &= \frac{2}{(x+1)^2} \end{aligned}$$

$$f''(x) = -\frac{4(x+1)}{(x+1)^4}$$

You can do this for however many times you want to!

2.3-1|You Try Velocity and Acceleration

A ball is thrown up into the air, and its position can be modeled into of feet as a function of time: $f(t) = -5(t - 2)^2 + 20$. Find the acceleration of the ball just as it's about to hit the ground again.

Note Taking Beyond the Third Derivative

Taking $f'''(x)$ and beyond, it'll start to be tedious writing all of those apostrophes. Mathematicians often write it like this:

$$\frac{d^n}{dx^n}[f(x)] = f^{(n)}(x)$$

2.4 Implicit Differentiation**2.4-1|You Try** Tangent Lines and Circles

Find the slope of the tangent line at $(4, -3)$ of *the circle*

$$x^2 + y^2 = 5^2$$

3 Practice Problem Answers

1.2.2—Proving Limits via. $\epsilon - \delta$ Definition

Consider $f(x) = 10x - 6$, prove that $\lim_{x \rightarrow 3} f(x) = 24$ using the $\epsilon - \delta$ definition:

—

The first thing we would have to do is to find δ :

$$\begin{aligned} |(10x - 6) - (24)| &< \epsilon \\ |10x - 30| &< \epsilon \\ 10|x - 3| &< \epsilon \\ |x - 3| &< \frac{\epsilon}{10} \end{aligned}$$

$$0 < |x - (3)| < \delta$$

Notice how $\delta = \frac{\epsilon}{10}$. This guarantees that $|f(x) - L| < \epsilon$ whenever $0 < |x - c| < \delta$

1.3.2—Squeeze Theorem

Show that $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} (\cos(\frac{2\pi}{3x}) \cdot \sqrt{x^3 + x^2}) = 0$ using the Squeeze Theorem

—

We know that $-1 \leq \cos(\frac{2\pi}{3x}) \leq 1$:

$$\begin{aligned} -\sqrt{x^3 + x^2} &\leq \cos(\frac{2\pi}{3x})\sqrt{x^3 + x^2} && \leq \sqrt{x^3 + x^2} \\ \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} -\sqrt{x^3 + x^2} &\leq \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \cos(\frac{2\pi}{3x})\sqrt{x^3 + x^2} && \leq \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \sqrt{x^3 + x^2} \\ -\sqrt{(0)^3 + (0)^2} &\leq \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \cos(\frac{2\pi}{3x})\sqrt{x^3 + x^2} && \leq \sqrt{(0)^3 + (0)^2} \\ 0 &\leq \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \cos(\frac{2\pi}{3x}) && \leq 0 \end{aligned}$$

Because of the Squeeze Theorem, $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \cos(\frac{2\pi}{3x}) = 0$

1.3.2—Trigonometric Limit

Evaluate:

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\tan(3x)}{4x + \sin(2x)}$$

—

Let's start by breaking down \tan into \sin and \cos :

$$\begin{aligned} \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\tan(3x)}{4x + \sin(2x)} &= \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\sin(3x)}{\cos(3x) \cdot (4x + \sin(2x))} \\ &= \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\sin(3x)}{4x \cos(3x) + \sin(2x) \cos(3x)} \end{aligned}$$

Note that we can further break down $\cos(3x)$ into $\cos(2x + x)$, which can be converted to the trigonometric identity: $\cos(2x)\cos(x) - \sin(2x)\sin(x)$

$$\begin{aligned} &= \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\sin(3x)}{4x(\cos(2x)\cos(x) - \sin(2x)\sin(x)) + \sin(2x)\cos(3x)} \\ &= \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\sin(3x)}{4x\cos(2x)\cos(x) - 4x\sin(2x)\sin(x) + \sin(2x)\cos(3x)} \end{aligned}$$

Next, you multiply by a *big 1*. In this case it would be $\frac{\frac{1}{x}}{\frac{1}{x}}$:

$$\begin{aligned}
 &= \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\sin(3x)}{4x \cos(2x) \cos(x) - 4x \sin(2x) \sin(x) + \sin(2x) \cos(3x)} \\
 &= \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\frac{\sin(3x)}{x}}{\frac{4x \cos(2x) \cos(x)}{x} - \frac{4x \sin(2x) \sin(x)}{x} + \frac{\sin(2x) \cos(3x)}{x}} \\
 &= \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\frac{\sin(3x)}{x}}{4 \cos(2x) \cos(x) - 4 \sin(2x) \sin(x) + \cos(3x) \cdot \frac{\sin(2x)}{x}} \\
 &= \frac{\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\sin(3x)}{x}}{\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} 4 \cos(2x) \cos(x) - \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} 4 \sin(2x) \sin(x) + \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \cos(3x) \frac{\sin(2x)}{x}} \\
 &= \frac{(3)}{4 \cos(2(0)) \cos((0)) - 4 \sin(2(0)) \sin((0)) + \cos(3(0))(2)} \\
 &= \frac{3}{4(1)(1) - 4(0)(0) + (1) \cdot 2} \\
 &= \frac{3}{4 + 2} = \frac{3}{6} \\
 &= \frac{1}{2}
 \end{aligned}$$

That problem was quite lengthy, but we did it 🥳

1.4—Determine Continuity

Determine if the function is continuous at $x = 2$

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{x^2 - x - 2}{x - 2} & \text{for } x \neq 2 \\ 1 & \text{for } x = 2 \end{cases}$$

Let's start by plugging in $x = 2$ for the case that $x \neq 2$ to see if it equals the case where $x = 2$:

$$\frac{x^2 - x - 2}{x - 2} = \frac{(2)^2 - (2) - 2}{(2) - 2} = \frac{0}{0}$$

That's so *uncool*. Let's factor it out and try again!

$$\begin{aligned}
 \frac{x^2 - x - 2}{x - 2} &= \frac{(x - 2)(x + 1)}{x - 2} = x + 1 \\
 &= (2) + 1 \\
 &= 3
 \end{aligned}$$

Now, we compare both that with the case where $x = 2$ to see if they are the same: $3 \neq 2$

$\therefore f(x)$ is *not continuous* at $x = 2$!

\therefore means "therefore"

1.4.1—Intermediate Value Theorem

Use the Intermediate Value Theorem to prove that $x^3 + x^2 = 1$ has at least one solution on the interval $(-1, 2)$

Let's treat $x^3 + x^2$ as a function $f(x)$. We know that the function is continuous on the interval $[-1, 2]$. The next thing we have to do is to evaluate $f(-1)$ and $f(2)$ to compare if they are equal:

$$f(-1) = (-1)^3 + (-1)^2 f(2) = (2)^3 + (2)^2 f(-1) \neq f(2)$$

Now that we know that $f(-1)$ and $f(2)$ are not equal, and $f(-1) < 1 < f(2)$, we can conclude that there is a number 'c' in the interval $(-1, 2)$ such that $f(c) = 1$

1.4.3—Curveball Asymptote

Find the asymptotes:

$$f(x) = \frac{\sqrt{(x-1)(x-3)}}{(x-2)(x-4)}$$

You'd *think* that the asymptotes are $x = \{2, 4\}$, but you must consider the *domain* at which $f(x)$ exists.

Because this is a square root function, $(x-1)(x-3)$ *cannot be a negative number*. Plugging in $x = 2$ would result in a negative square root.

1.4.3—Curveball Trigonometry

Find the asymptotes:

$$f(x) = \frac{\sin(x)}{x^3 - x}$$

Let's start by factoring out the denominator:

$$f(x) = \frac{\sin(x)}{x(x-1)(x+1)}$$

You'd *think* that the asymptotes are $x = \{-1, 0, 1\}$. However,
 $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} f(x) = 1$ — $f(x)$ can also be re-written as this: $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \left[\frac{\sin x}{x} \right]$.
 $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \left[\frac{1}{(x-1)^2} \right] = -1$

Moral of the story:
double-check your
answers!

2.1—Finding the Tangent Line

Find the tangent lines to $f(x) = x^2 + 1$ at $(-2, 5)$:

$$\begin{aligned} f'(-2) &= \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(-2+h) - f(-2)}{h} \\ &= \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{((-2+h)^2 + 1) - (5)}{h} \\ &= \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{h^2 - 4h}{h} \\ &= \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} -4 + h = -4 + (0) \\ &= -4 \end{aligned}$$

Now we must write a point-slope equation with that derivative.

$$\begin{aligned} y - y_1 &= m(x - x_1) \\ y - (5) &= (-4)(x - (-2)) \\ y - 5 &= -4(x + 2) \end{aligned}$$

Tangent line to $f(x) = x^2 + 1$ at $(-2, 5)$ has equation:

$$y - 5 = -4(x + 2)$$

Note **Alternative Route**

Another way to solve this would be to find the limit of $f(x)$ when $x = c$ and then plugging in c with any number that you want:

$$\begin{aligned}
 f'(c) &= \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(c+h) - f(c)}{h} \\
 &= \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{((c+h)^2 + 1) - (c^2 + 1)}{h} \\
 &= \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{(c^2 + 2ch + h^2 + 1) - (c^2 + 1)}{h} \\
 &= \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{2ch + h^2}{h} = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{h(2c + h)}{h} \\
 &= \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} 2c + h = 2c + (0) \\
 &= 2c
 \end{aligned}$$

$$c = 2$$

$$f'(-2) = 2(-2) = -4$$

2.2—Find Horizontal Tangents

Find the horizontal tangents of $f(x) = x^4 - 2x^2 + 3$:

—

The question is essentially asking us to find the tangent lines whose slopes are equal to 0: $f'(x) = 0$

$$\begin{aligned}
 \frac{d}{dx} f(x) &= 0 \\
 \frac{d}{dx} (x^4 - 2x^2 + 3) &= 0 \\
 4x^3 - 4x &= 0 \\
 4x(x^2 - 1) &= 0
 \end{aligned}$$

$$x = \{0, \pm 1\}$$

Now we plug in these values into $f(x)$ to get the tangent lines:

$$\begin{aligned}
 f(0) &= (0)^4 - 2(0)^2 + 3 &= 3 \\
 f(-1) &= (-1)^4 - 2(-1)^2 + 3 &= 2 \\
 f(1) &= (1)^4 - 2(1)^2 + 3 &= 2
 \end{aligned}$$

So the horizontal tangent lines are at $y = 3$ and $y = 2$

2.3—Velocity and Acceleration

A ball is thrown up into the air, and its position can be modeled into of feet as a function of time: $p(t) = -5(t - 2)^2 + 20$. Find the velocity and acceleration of the ball just as it's about to hit the ground again.

—

To find when the ball reaches the ground, we must find when $p(t) = 0$:

$$\begin{aligned}p(t) &= -5(t - 2)^2 + 20 \\0 &= -5(t - 2)^2 + 20 \\5(t - 2)^2 &= 20 \\(t - 2)^2 &= 4 \\t - 2 &= 2 \\t &= 4\end{aligned}$$

Now that we have this, we need to take the derivative of $p(t)$ to get the function of the ball's instantaneous velocity $v(t)$, and the second derivative to get the instantaneous acceleration of the ball, $a(t)$:

$$\begin{aligned}v(4) &= p'(4) \\&= \frac{d}{dx}(-5(t - 2)^2 + 20)\Big|_{t=4} \\&= \frac{d}{dx}(-5(t^2 - 4t + 4) + 20)\Big|_{t=4} \\&= \frac{d}{dx}(-5t^2 + 20t + 24)\Big|_{t=4} \\&= -10t + 20\Big|_{t=4} \\&= -10(4) + 20 = -20 \frac{\text{ft}}{\text{s}}\end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}a(4) &= v'(4) \\&= \frac{d}{dx}(-10t + 20) \\&= -10 \frac{\text{ft}}{\text{s}^2}\end{aligned}$$

The velocity of the ball just when it hits the ground is $-20 \frac{\text{ft}}{\text{s}}$, and the acceleration of the ball as it hits the ground is $-10 \frac{\text{ft}}{\text{s}^2}$

2.4—Tangent Lines and Circles