

## 12 Mathematical Methods Summarised Notes

2021

Differential Calculus

Derivatives

The derivative of  $y = f(x)$  is:

dy/dx = f'(x) = lim\_{h -> 0} (f(x+h) - f(x))/h

Simple Rules of Differentiation

d/dx [c] = 0
d/dx [x^n] = nx^{n-1}
d/dx [cu(x)] = cu'(x)
d/dx [u(x) +/- v(x)] = u'(x) +/- v'(x)

Chain Rule

If y = f(u(x)), then

dy/dx = dy/du \* du/dx
or

d/dx [f(g(x))] = f'(g(x)) \* g'(x)

Product Rule

d/dx [u(x)v(x)] = u'(x)v(x) + u(x)v'(x)

Quotient Rule

d/dx [u(x)/v(x)] = (u'(x)v(x) - u(x)v'(x))/[v(x)]^2

Exponential Functions

d/dx [e^x] = e^x
d/dx [e^{f(x)}] = e^{f(x)} \* f'(x)

Natural Logarithm

ln x = log\_e x

Natural Logarithm Laws:

ln a + ln b = ln ab
ln a - ln b = ln (a/b)
ln (a^n) = n ln a
ln e = 1
ln e^x = x
e^{ln x} = x

Graphing:

y = ln x

- asymptotic to the y-axis (x = 0)
- passes through (1, 0)
- domain: x > 0, range: y in R

General Function:

y = k ln (b(x - c))

- horizontal translation by c units
- vertical translation by k ln b units
- vertical dilation scale factor k

Logarithmic Functions

d/dx [ln x] = 1/x, x > 0
d/dx [ln f(x)] = f'(x)/f(x)

Trigonometric Functions

d/dx [sin x] = cos x
d/dx [cos x] = -sin x
d/dx [tan x] = 1/cos^2 x
d/dx [sin [f(x)]] = cos [f(x)] f'(x)
d/dx [cos [f(x)]] = -sin [f(x)] f'(x)
d/dx [tan [f(x)]] = f'(x)/cos^2 [f(x)]

Applications of Derivatives

Tangents

A line that touches a curve, matching the gradient of the curve at that point.
To find the tangent to a curve y = f(x) at x = a:

- Find dy/dx or f'(x)
- Find y-coordinate y = f(a) and gradient m = f'(a).
- Substitute values into y = mx + c to find c.

Or use general formula:

y = f'(a)(x - a) + f(a)

Normals

A line that intersects a curve, perpendicular to the tangent at that point.

For a normal to y = f(x) at x = a, the gradient m is the negative reciprocal of the tangent slope.

m = -1/f'(a)

Normal general formula:

y = -1/f'(a)(x - a) + f(a)

Stationary Points

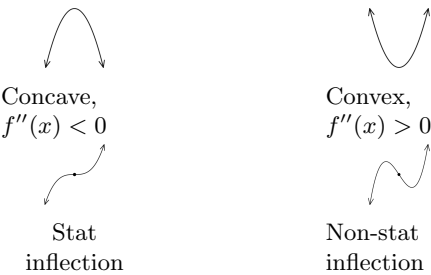
The stationary point of a function is where the tangent is horizontal, and so, f'(x) = 0.



Solve f'(x) = 0 for x.
Draw sign diagram of f'(x)
Classify stationary points.

Inflection Points

The inflection point on a curve is where the shape of the curve changes, when f''(x) = 0.



Solve f''(x) = 0 for x.
Classify inflection points:
If f'(x) = 0, stationary.
If f'(x) != 0, non-stationary.

Sketching Graphs of Derivatives

Sketching  $y = f'(x)$  from  $y = f(x)$ :

- 1. Stat point  $f(x) \rightarrow$  zero of  $f'(x)$
- 2. If  $f(x)$  increasing,  $f'(x)$  positive
- 3. If  $f(x)$  decreasing,  $f'(x)$  negative
- 4. If  $f(x)$  convex,  $f'(x)$  increasing
- 5. If  $f(x)$  concave,  $f'(x)$  decreasing
- 6. Infl point  $f(x) \rightarrow$  stat point  $f'(x)$
- 7. Asymp  $f(x) \rightarrow$  asymp  $f'(x)$

Reverse to sketch  $f(x)$  from  $f'(x)$ .

Sketching  $y = f''(x)$  from  $y = f(x)$ :

- 1. Infl point  $f(x) \rightarrow$  zero of  $f''(x)$
- 2. If  $f(x)$  convex,  $f''(x)$  positive
- 3. If  $f(x)$  concave,  $f''(x)$  negative
- 4. Asymp  $f(x) \rightarrow$  asymp  $f''(x)$

Reverse to sketch  $f'(x)$  from  $f''(x)$ .

Kinematics

Describing the motion of moving objects.

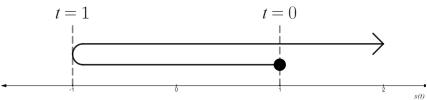
Displacement:  $s(t)$

Velocity:  $v(t) = s'(t)$

Acceleration:  $a(t) = v'(t) = s''(t)$

Motion Diagrams:

- Start position
- Time and position of direction change
- End position



Speed increasing when  $v(t)$  and  $a(t)$  have same sign. Decreasing when different sign.

Optimisation

Optimisation is finding the max/min value of a function, often called the optimal solution.

- 1. Draw a diagram.
- 2. Construct a formula with value to be optimised as the subject.
- 3. Find the first derivative and its zeros.

- 4. Use a sign diagram to determine the nature of stationary points.
- 5. Identify the optimal solution.
- 6. Write the answer as a sentence.

Integral Calculus

Antidifferentiation

The reverse process of differentiation.  $F(x)$  is a function where  $F'(x) = f(x)$ .

- The derivative of  $F(x)$  is  $f(x)$
- The antiderivative of  $f(x)$  is  $F(x)$

Indefinite Integrals

$$\int k \, dx = kx + c$$
$$\int x^n \, dx = \frac{1}{n+1} x^{n+1} + c, \, n \neq -1$$
$$\int e^x \, dx = e^x + c$$
$$\int \frac{1}{x} \, dx = \ln x + c$$
$$\int \cos x \, dx = \sin x + c$$
$$\int \sin x \, dx = -\cos x + c$$

Integrating  $f(ax + b)$

$$\int (ax + b)^n \, dx = \frac{(ax + b)^{n+1}}{a(n+1)} + c, \, n \neq -1$$
$$\int e^{ax+b} \, dx = \frac{1}{a} e^{ax+b} + c$$
$$\int \frac{1}{ax+b} \, dx = \frac{1}{a} \ln |ax+b| + c$$
$$\int \cos(ax+b) \, dx = \frac{1}{a} \sin(ax+b) + c$$
$$\int \sin(ax+b) \, dx = -\frac{1}{a} \cos(ax+b) + c$$

Definite Integrals

If  $F(x)$  is the antiderivative of  $f(x)$  where  $f(x)$  is continuous over  $a \leq x \leq b$ , the definite integral is:

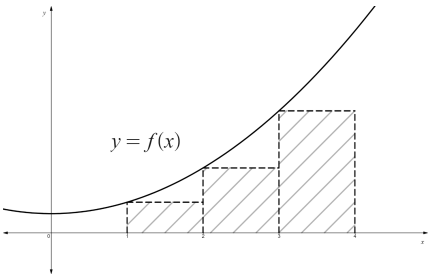
$$\int_a^b f(x) \, dx = F(b) - F(a)$$

Properties of Definite Integrals

$$\int_a^a f(x) \, dx = 0$$
$$\int_a^b k \, dx = k(b-a)$$
$$\int_a^b f(x) \, dx = -\int_b^a f(x) \, dx$$
$$\int_a^b kf(x) \, dx = k \int_a^b f(x) \, dx$$
$$\int_a^b f(x) \, dx + \int_b^c f(x) \, dx = \int_a^c f(x) \, dx$$
$$\int_a^b [f(x) \pm g(x)] \, dx = \int_a^b f(x) \, dx \pm \int_a^b g(x) \, dx$$

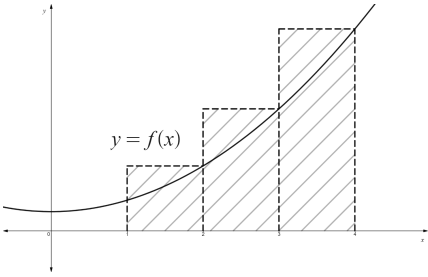
Underestimating and Overestimating

Underestimating:



$$A_L = 1 \times f(1) + 1 \times f(2) + 1 \times f(3)$$

Overestimating:



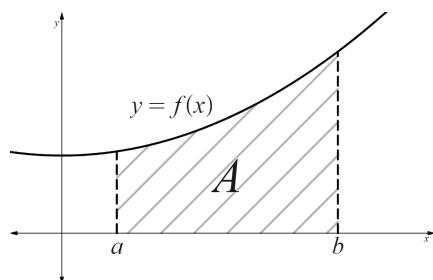
$$A_U = 1 \times f(2) + 1 \times f(3) + 1 \times f(4)$$
$$\therefore A_L \leq A \leq A_U$$

If graph is convex, underestimate is more accurate.  
If graph is concave, overestimate is more accurate.

## Area Under a Curve

If  $f(x)$  is positive and continuous for  $a \leq x \leq b$ , the area bound by  $y = f(x)$ , the  $x$ -axis,  $x = a$  and  $x = b$  is:

$$A = \int_a^b f(x) dx \quad \text{or} \quad A = \int_a^b y dx$$



## Area Between Two Curves

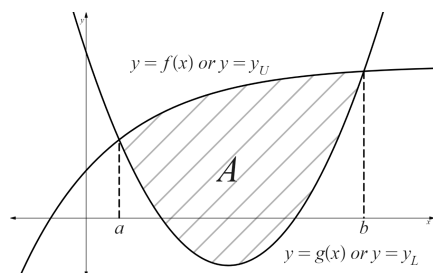
Upper function:  $f(x)$  or  $y_U$

Lower function:  $g(x)$  or  $y_L$

$$A = \int_a^b [f(x) - g(x)] dx$$

or

$$A = \int_a^b [y_U - y_L] dx$$



## Kinematics

For a velocity time function  $v(t)$  where  $v(t) \geq 0$  on the interval  $t_1 \leq t \leq t_2$

$$\text{distance travelled} = \int_{t_1}^{t_2} v(t) dt$$

Displacement function:

$$s(t) = \int v(t) dt$$

## Statistics

### Discrete Random Variables

Random Variable  $X$  with distinct possible values  $x_1, x_2, x_3, \dots, x_n$  and corresponding probabilities  $\{p_1, p_2, p_3, \dots, p_n\}$

$$P(X = x_i) = p_i$$

$$0 \leq p_i \leq 1 \quad \forall i = 1, 2, 3, \dots, n$$

$$\sum_{i=1}^n p_i = p_1 + p_2 + p_3 + \dots + p_n = 1$$

### Mean/Expected Value

The mean/expected value of discrete random variable  $X$  is:

$$\begin{aligned} E(X) = \mu &= \sum_{i=1}^n x_i p_i \\ &= x_1 p_1 + x_2 p_2 + \dots + x_n p_n \end{aligned}$$

### Fair Games

If  $X$  represents the gain of a player from each game, the game is fair if  $E(X) = 0$ .

### Variance and Standard Deviation

Variance: Average squared deviation from the mean.

$$\text{Var}(X) = \sigma^2 = \sum (x_i - \mu)^2 p_i$$

or

$$\text{Var}(X) = \sigma^2 = \sum x_i^2 p_i - \mu^2$$

Standard Deviation: Average deviations from the mean.

$$\sigma = \sqrt{\sum (x_i - \mu)^2 p_i}$$

or

$$\sigma = \sqrt{\sum x_i^2 p_i - \mu^2}$$

### Bernoulli Distribution

A Bernoulli random variable  $X$  can only take two values:

- $X = 1$  is "success"
- $X = 0$  is "failure"
- Only one trial is conducted

Mean:  $E(X) = \mu = p$

Variance:  $\text{Var}(X) = \sigma^2 = p(1 - p)$

Standard Deviation:  $\sigma = \sqrt{p(1 - p)}$

Binomial random variable  $X$  is denoted:

$$X \sim B(n, p)$$

Mean:  $E(X) = \mu = np$

Variance:  $\text{Var}(X) = \sigma^2 = np(1 - p)$

Standard Deviation:  $\sigma = \sqrt{np(1 - p)}$

### Probability Density Functions

For a continuous random variable  $X$  on domain  $a \leq x \leq b$  has probability density function  $f(x)$  such that:

$$P(a \leq x \leq b) = \int_a^b f(x) dx$$

$$f(x) \geq 0 \quad \forall a \leq x \leq b$$

$$\int_a^b f(x) dx = 1$$

Mode: Value of  $x$  which maximises  $f(x)$  on  $a \leq x \leq b$ .

Median: Value of  $m$  such that:

$$\int_a^m f(x) dx = \frac{1}{2}$$

Mean:

$$E(X) = \mu = \int_a^b x f(x) dx$$

Variance:

$$\text{Var}(X) = \sigma^2 = \int_a^b x^2 f(x) dx - \mu^2$$

or

$$\text{Var}(X) = \sigma^2 = \int_a^b (x - \mu)^2 f(x) dx$$

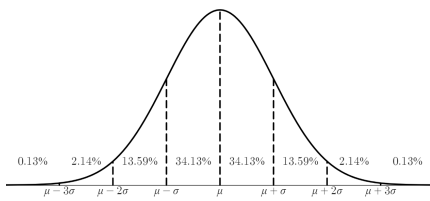
Standard Deviation:

$$\sigma = \sqrt{\int_a^b x^2 f(x) dx - \mu^2}$$

or

$$\sigma = \sqrt{\int_a^b (x - \mu)^2 f(x) dx}$$

Normal Distribution



f(x) = 1 / (sigma \* sqrt(2 \* pi)) \* e^(-1/2 \* ((x - mu) / sigma)^2)

for -infinity < x < infinity

- Symmetric about the mean
- Bell shaped curve
- Asymptotic to the x-axis
- Empirical rule (“68-95-99” rule)
- Inflection point one sigma from the mean
- More score distributed closer to the mean
- Peak at (mu, 1 / (sigma \* sqrt(2 \* pi)))

Normally distributed variable X is denoted:

X ~ N(mu, sigma^2)

Standard Normal Distribution (Z-Distribution)

A normal distribution X can be transformed into a normal distribution.

Z ~ N(0, 1^2)

A z-score is used to compare a data value x across different data sets.

z = (x - mu) / sigma

Sampling and Confidence Intervals

Sampling Distributions

For the sum of n independent observations of a random variable X

S\_n = X\_1 + X\_2 + X\_3 + ... + X\_n

The distribution of S\_n is a sampling distribution.

Mean: mu\_{S\_n} = n \* mu

Standard Deviation: sigma\_{S\_n} = sigma \* sqrt(n)

Distributions of Sample Means

The mean of n independent observations of a random variable X.

X\_bar\_n = (X\_1 + X\_2 + X\_3 + ... + X\_n) / n

Mean: mu\_{X\_bar\_n} = mu

Standard Deviation: sigma\_{X\_bar\_n} = sigma / sqrt(n)

Central Limit Theorem

Suppose X is a random variable which is not necessarily normally distributed. X has population mean mu and standard deviation sigma.

For Sufficient large n (generally n >= 30), X\_bar\_n is approximately normally distributed.

Mean: mu\_{X\_bar\_n} = mu

Standard Deviation: sigma\_{X\_bar\_n} = sigma / sqrt(n)

Confidence Intervals for Means

A confidence interval for a population mean is an interval in which we are a certain percentage confident the population mean will lie.

95% Confidence Interval:

x\_bar - 1.96 \* (sigma / sqrt(n)) <= mu <= x\_bar + 1.96 \* (sigma / sqrt(n))

General Confidence Interval:

x\_bar - z\_{a/2} \* (sigma / sqrt(n)) <= mu <= x\_bar + z\_{a/2} \* (sigma / sqrt(n))

Common Confidence Percentages:

- 90%: z\_{a/2} = 1.64
- 95%: z\_{a/2} = 1.96
- 98%: z\_{a/2} = 2.33
- 99%: z\_{a/2} = 2.58

To interpret a confidence interval in words, use the following template:

“We are <percentage>% confident that the mean of <quantity of interest> lies within <lower limit> <units> and <upper limit> <units>.”

Determine Sample Size

n = ((2 \* 1.96 \* sigma) / w)^2

Where w is the width of the confidence interval.

Always round n up to an integer.

Test a Claim About mu

- If mu\_0 lies outside confidence interval, reject mu = mu\_0.
- If mu\_0 lies within confidence interval, cannot reject mu = mu\_0.

Sample Proportions

A sample of size n is taken with X successes to find proportion p-hat. p-hat is an estimate of p.

p-hat = X / n

Mean: mu\_{p-hat} = p

Standard Deviation: sigma\_{p-hat} = sqrt(p(1 - p) / n)

Generally, the distribution of p-hat is approximately normal if np >= 5 and n(1 - p) >= 5.

Confidence Intervals for Proportions

A confidence interval for the population mean p where p-hat is the sample mean and n is sample size.

95% Confidence Interval:

p-hat - 1.96 \* sqrt(p(1 - p) / n) <= p <= p-hat + 1.96 \* sqrt(p(1 - p) / n)

General Confidence Interval:

p-hat - z\_{a/2} \* sqrt(p(1 - p) / n) <= p <= p-hat + z\_{a/2} \* sqrt(p(1 - p) / n)

To interpret a confidence interval in words, use the following template:

“We are <percentage>% confident that the proportion of <quantity of interest> lies within <lower limit>% and <upper limit>%.”

Choosing Sample Size

n = ((2 \* 1.96) / w)^2 \* p(1 - p)

Where w is the width of the confidence interval.

Always round n up to an integer. If p-hat is unknown, assume p-hat = p\*, p\* = 0.5 for worst case scenario.