

# Calculus I Lecture Notes

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October 1, 2015

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## Chapter 1

# Precalculus

### 1.1 Sets

A **set** is a collection of elements.

$x \in A$  means  $x$  is an element of the set  $A$ . If  $x$  is not a member of  $A$ , we write  $x \notin A$ .

$\emptyset$  is the set which contains no element and is called the **empty set**.

There are finite sets (ex.  $\{0, 1, 2\}$ ) and infinite sets (ex.  $\{0, 1, 2, 3, \dots\}$ ).

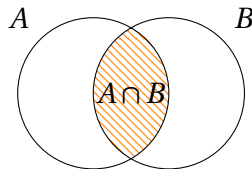
If every element of the set  $A$  is an element of the set  $B$ , we say that  $A$  is **subset** of  $B$ , and write  $A \subset B$ .

**Example 1.** List all the subsets of  $\{0, 1, 2\}$ .

For any set  $A$ ,  $A \subset A$  and  $\emptyset \subset A$ .

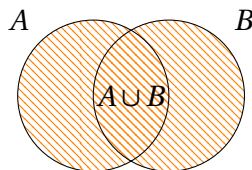
If  $A \subset B$  and  $B \subset A$ , we write  $A = B$ .

$A \cap B = \{x : x \in A \text{ and } x \in B\}$  is called the **intersection** of  $A$  and  $B$ .



If the intersection of two sets is the empty set, those sets are called **disjoint**.

$A \cup B = \{x : x \in A \text{ or } x \in B\}$  is called the **union** of  $A$  and  $B$ .



**Example 2.** For example if  $A = \{0, 1, 2, 5, 8\}$  and  $B = \{1, 3, 5, 6\}$  then find  $A \cap B$  and  $A \cup B$ .

The set of all elements in  $A$  but not in  $B$  is denoted  $A \setminus B = \{x \in A : x \notin B\}$  and is called the **complement** of  $B$  in  $A$ .

**Example 3.**  $\{0, 2, 3, 5\} \setminus \{2, 5, 7, 8\} = \{0, 3\}$

$A \times B = \{(a, b) : a \in A \text{ and } b \in B\}$  is called the **Cartesian** product of the sets  $A$  and  $B$ .

**Example 4.** Write the cartesian product of  $A = \{0, 1, 2\}$  and  $B = \{2, 3, 4\}$ .

## 1.2 Real Numbers

The **integers** are  $\mathbb{Z} = \{\dots, -2, -1, 0, 1, 2, \dots\}$ .

Integers come in a lot varieties:

- even integers that are of the form  $2k$ , for some  $k \in \mathbb{Z}$ ,
- odd integers that are of the form  $2k + 1$ , for some  $k \in \mathbb{Z}$
- positive and negative integers,
- primes, etc...

The **rational numbers** are  $\mathbb{Q} = \{\frac{m}{n} : m, n \in \mathbb{Z} \text{ and } n \neq 0\}$ .

*Pythagoreans preached that all numbers could be expressed as the ratio of integers, and the discovery of irrational numbers is said to have shocked them.*

**Example 5.**  $\sqrt{2}$  is not a rational number.

Suppose that it is rational. Then  $\sqrt{2} = m/n$ , where  $m, n \in \mathbb{Z}$  and  $n \neq 0$ . Also assume  $m$  and  $n$  have no common divisor.

$$m^2/n^2 = 2 \implies m^2 = 2n^2$$

Thus  $m$  is even and we can write  $m = 2k$ , where  $k \in \mathbb{Z}$ .

$$4k^2 = 2n^2 \implies n^2 = 2k^2$$

Thus  $n$  is also even. But  $m$  and  $n$  cannot both be even. Accordingly, there can be no rational number whose square is 2.

The set of irrational numbers is denoted by  $\mathbb{I}$ .

The set of real numbers is  $\mathbb{R} = \mathbb{Q} \cup \mathbb{I}$ .

Note that  $\mathbb{Z} \subset \mathbb{Q} \subset \mathbb{R}$ .

The real numbers are ordered such that

1.  $a < b \implies a + c < b + c$
2.  $a < b$  and  $c > 0$  implies  $ac < bc$
3.  $a < b$  and  $c < 0$  implies  $ac > bc$
4.  $a > 0$  implies  $\frac{1}{a} > 0$
5.  $0 < a < b$  implies  $\frac{1}{b} < \frac{1}{a}$

## Intervals

The open interval  $(a, b) = \{x \mid a < x < b\}$ , closed interval  $[a, b]$ , half open intervals  $(a, b]$ ,  $[a, b)$ . It is possible that  $a = -\infty$ ,  $b = \infty$ . Draw each interval on the real line.

**Example 6.** Solve the following inequalities.

1.  $\frac{2}{x-1} \geq 5$ .

*Solution.* It is not right to multiply both sides by  $x - 1$  and say  $5x - 5 \leq 2$ .

$$\frac{2}{x-1} \geq 5 \iff \frac{2}{x-1} - 5 \geq 0 \iff \frac{7-5x}{x-1} \geq 0.$$

Now make a sign analysis to get interval  $(1, 7/5]$

2.  $3x - 1 \leq 5x + 3 \leq 2x + 15$ .

*Solution.*  $-2 \leq x$  and  $x \leq 4$ .

## The absolute value.

$$|x| = \begin{cases} x, & \text{if } x \geq 0 \\ -x, & \text{if } x < 0 \end{cases}$$

ex.  $|3| = |-3| = 3$

Geometrically,  $|x|$  is the distance between  $x$  and 0 on the real line. And  $|x - y|$  is the distance between  $x$  and  $y$ .

Properties (*can be proved from definition*):

1.  $|-x| = |x|$ , (Do not fall into the trap  $|-x| = x$ , this is not always true!)

2.  $|ab| = |a||b|$ ,

3.  $|a + b| \leq |a| + |b|$ , (triangle inequality).

From (2), for any  $x$ ,  $x^2 = |x^2| = |x|^2$

If  $D$  is a nonnegative number

$$|x| = D \implies x = -D \text{ or } x = D,$$

$$|x| < D \implies -D < x < D$$

$$|x| > D \implies x < -D \text{ or } x > D$$

More generally,

$$|x - a| = D \implies x = a - D \text{ or } x = a + D,$$

$$|x - a| < D \implies a - D < x < a + D$$

$$|x - a| > D \implies x < a - D \text{ or } x > a + D$$

**Example 7.** Solve  $|3x - 2| \leq 1$ .

*Solution.*

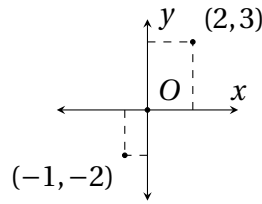
$$-1 \leq 3x - 2 \leq 1 \implies x \geq 1/3 \text{ and } x \leq 1.$$

**Example 8.** Solve the equation  $|x + 1| > |x - 3|$ .

*Solution.* The distance between  $x$  and  $-1$  is greater than the distance between  $x$  and 3. So  $x > 1$ .

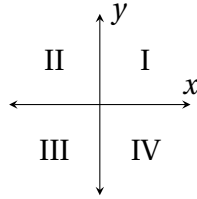
## 1.3 Cartesian Coordinates

Cartesian plane is  $\mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R} = \{(x, y) \mid x \in \mathbb{R} \text{ and } y \in \mathbb{R}\}$ .



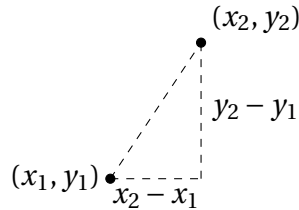
Horizontal axis is usually called the  $x$  axis, the vertical axis is called the  $y$  axis. Intersection of the axes is called the origin, denoted  $O$ .

The coordinate axes divide the Cartesian plane into four quadrants.



By the Pythagorean Theorem, the distance of two points  $(x_1, y_1)$  and  $(x_2, y_2)$  in the plane is

$$\sqrt{(x_2 - x_1)^2 + (y_2 - y_1)^2}.$$



The distance of  $(x, y)$  to the origin is  $\sqrt{x^2 + y^2}$ .

**Example 9.** Find the distance between  $(-1, 1)$  and  $(3, -4)$ .

### Equations of Lines

For any two points  $(x_1, y_1)$  and  $(x_2, y_2)$  on a non-vertical line  $L$ , the quantity  $m = \frac{y_2 - y_1}{x_2 - x_1}$  is constant and is called the **slope** of the line  $L$ .

Let  $L$  be a nonvertical line. Let  $m$  be the slope of  $L$  and  $(x_1, y_1)$  be the coordinates of a point on  $L$ . If  $(x, y)$  is another point on  $L$ , then

$$\frac{y - y_1}{x - x_1} = m$$

Hence any  $(x, y)$  on  $L$  satisfies

$$y = m(x - x_1) + y_1$$

The above is known as an equation for the line  $L$ .

All points on a **vertical line** have their  $x$  coordinate equal to a constant  $a$ . So the equation of a vertical line is  $x = a$ . **Horizontal lines** have equations of the form  $y = a$ .

**y-intercept** of a nonvertical line  $L$  is the  $y$ -coordinate of the point where  $L$  intersects the  $y$ -axis. **x-intercept** of a nonhorizontal is defined similarly.

**Example 10.** Find an equation of the line through the points  $(1, -1)$  and  $(3, 5)$ . Draw the line. Find the  $x$  and  $y$  intercepts.

**Example 11.** Find an equation of the line that passes through the point  $(-3, -4)$  and has slope 2. Draw the line.

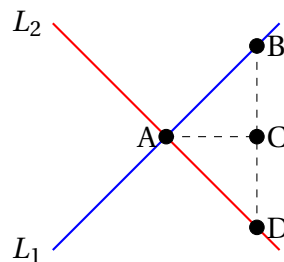
**Example 12.** Find the slope and the two intercepts of the line with equation  $8x + 5y = 20$ . Draw the line.

### Parallel vs. perpendicular lines

We call two lines **parallel** if their slopes are equal.

We call two lines **perpendicular** if they intersect at right angles ( $90^\circ$ ).

**Theorem 1.** Two nonvertical lines with slopes  $m_1$  and  $m_2$  are perpendicular if and only if  $m_1 m_2 = -1$ .



*Proof.* Use the similarity of the triangles  $ABC$  and  $DAC$  to get

$$\frac{|BC|}{|AC|} = \frac{|AC|}{|CD|} \implies \frac{|BC||CD|}{|AC|^2} = 1$$

Slope of  $L_1$  ( $m_1$ ) is  $|BC|/|AC| = 1$  and slope of  $L_2$  ( $m_2$ ) is  $-|CD|/|AC|$ . So  $m_1 m_2 = -1$ .  $\square$

**Example 13.** Find an equation of the line through  $(1, -2)$  that is parallel to the line  $L$  with equation  $3x - 2y = 1$ . Draw the lines.

**Example 14.** Find an equation of the line through  $(2, -3)$  that is perpendicular to the line  $L$  with equation  $4x + y = 3$ . Draw the lines.

## 1.4 Quadratic Equations

### Circles and Disks

The circle is the set of all points that have the same distance (called radius of the circle) from a given point (called center of the circle).

If  $(x, y)$  is a point on a circle with center  $(a, b)$  and radius  $r$  then

$$\sqrt{(x-a)^2 + (y-b)^2} = r \implies (x-a)^2 + (y-b)^2 = r^2$$

**Example 15.** Find the center and radius of the circle  $x^2 + y^2 - 4x + 6y = 3$ .

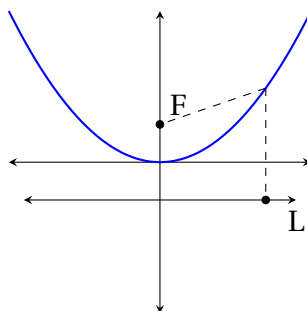
*Solution.* Complete to squares to get  $(x-2)^2 + (y+3)^2 = 16$ .

The equation  $(x-a)^2 + (y-b)^2 < r^2$  represents open disk and the equation  $(x-a)^2 + (y-b)^2 \leq r^2$  represents closed disk or simply disk.

**Example 16.** Draw  $x^2 + 2x + y^2 \leq 8$ .

## Parabolas

A parabola  $P$  is the set of all points in the plane that are equidistant from a given line  $L$  (called directrix of  $P$ ) and a point  $F$  (called the focus of  $P$ ).



**Example 17.** Find the equation of the parabola having the point  $F(0, p)$  as focus and the line  $L$  with equation  $y = -p$  as directrix.

*Solution.* If  $P(x, y)$  is any point on the parabola then squaring both sides of  $PF=PQ$  we get

$$x^2 + (y-p)^2 = 0^2 + (y+p)^2$$

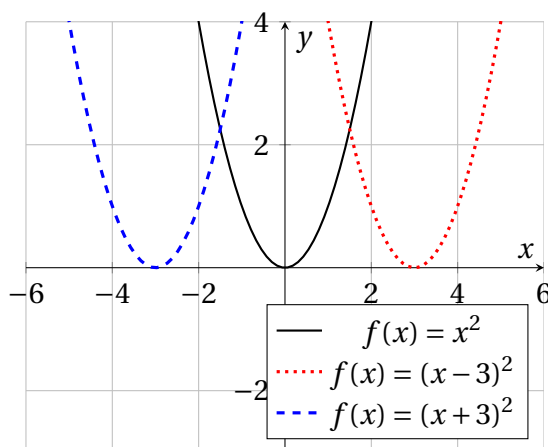
After simplifying,  $y = x^2/4p$ .

## Shifting a Graph

Let  $c > 0$ .

- To shift a graph  $c$  units to the right, replace  $x$  in its equation with  $x - c$ . To shift to left, replace  $x$  by  $x + c$ .
- To shift a graph  $c$  units up, replace  $y$  in its equation with  $y - c$ . To shift down, replace  $y$  by  $y + c$ .





## 1.5 Functions and Their Graphs

A **function**  $f$  on a set  $D$  into a set  $R$  is a rule that assigns a unique element  $f(x)$  in  $R$  to each element  $x$  in  $D$ .

$D$  is called the **domain** of  $f$ .  $R$  is called the target or **codomain** of  $f$ . The **range** of  $f$  is a subset of  $R$  containing of all possible values  $f(x)$ .

*This definition is not mathematical as we did not define what a rule is. Formally one defines a function as a relation.*

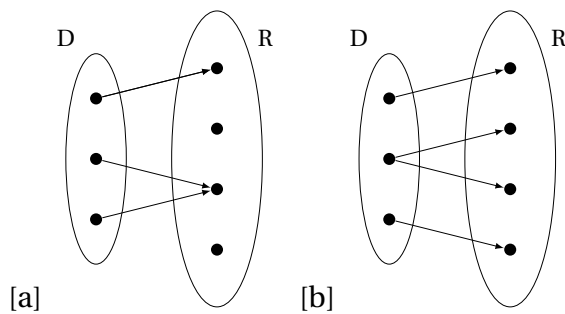


Figure 1.1: a) Not a function. b) A Function

**Example 18.** Define a function on the set of all real numbers by  $f(x) = x^2 + 1$ . Find  $f(0)$ ,  $f(2)$ ,  $f(x+2)$ .

$$f(x) = \frac{1}{x}, \quad x > 0$$

means that the domain of  $f$  is the set  $\{x \mid x > 0\}$ .

Technically, this function is different from the function

$$f(x) = \frac{1}{x}, \quad x < 0.$$

If we do not specify the domain of a function  $f$ , then the **domain convention** is to assume that the domain of  $f$  is the set of all real numbers for which  $f$  is defined.

So if we write

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

we are assuming  $f$  is defined for all real numbers except 0.

**Example 19.** Find the domain of  $f(x) = \sqrt{2-x}$ .

**Solution.** Its domain is all  $x$  for which  $2-x \geq 0$ , i.e. the interval  $(-\infty, 2]$ .

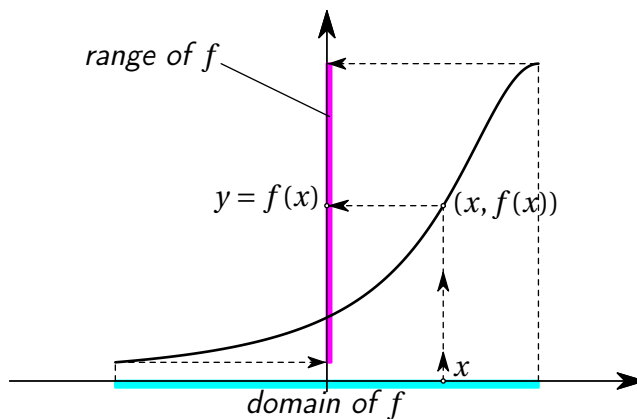
**Example 20.** Find the domain of  $f(x) = \frac{1}{x^2-x}$ .

A function  $f : D \rightarrow R$  is **1-1** if  $f(x_1) = f(x_2)$  then  $x_1 = x_2$ . A function  $f : D \rightarrow R$  is **onto** if for every  $y \in R$ , there is an  $x \in D$  such that  $f(x) = y$ .

**Example 21.** Draw functions which are 1-1, onto, not 1-1 and not onto, similar to the Figure 1.1.

## Graph of a function

The *graph of a function*  $f$  is the set of all points whose coordinates are  $(x, f(x))$  where  $x$  is in the domain of  $f$ .



**Example 22.** A function which is given by the formula

$$f(x) = mx + n$$

where  $m$  and  $n$  are constants is called a linear function. Its graph is a straight line. The constants  $m$  and  $n$  are the slope and  $y$ -intercept of the line.

**Example 23.** The square root function  $f(x) = \sqrt{x}$  has domain  $[0, \infty)$  and takes  $x$  to its positive square root. Hence it has range  $[0, \infty)$ .

**Example 24.** The absolute value function  $f(x) = |x| = \sqrt{x^2}$  has domain  $(-\infty, \infty)$  and range  $[0, \infty)$ .

**Example 25.** Draw the graphs of some elementary functions

$$c, x, x^2, \sqrt{x}, x^3, x^{1/3}, \frac{1}{x}, \frac{1}{x^2}, \sqrt{1-x^2}, |x|.$$

**Example 26.** Sketch the graph of  $f(x) = 1 + \sqrt{x-4}$ .

**Solution:** Shift the graph of  $y = \sqrt{x}$  1 unit up and 4 units to the right.

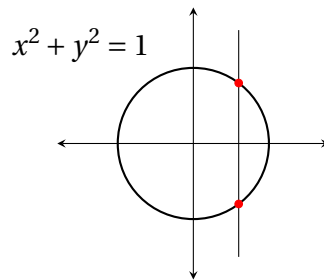
**Example 27.** Sketch the graph of the function  $f(x) = \frac{2-x}{x-1}$ .

**Solution.**  $f(x) = \frac{2-x}{x-1} = -1 + \frac{1}{x-1}$ . So shift the graph of  $y = \frac{1}{x}$  1 unit down and 1 unit to the right.

## Vertical Line Test

The graph of a function cannot intersect a vertical line “ $x = \text{constant}$ ” in more than one point.

For example, the circle  $x^2 + y^2 = 1$  is not a graph of a function.



## Even and Odd Functions

**Definition 1.** We say that  $f$  is an **even function** if  $f(-x) = f(x)$  for every  $x \in D$ . We say that  $f$  is an **odd function** if  $f(-x) = -f(x)$  for every  $x \in D$ .

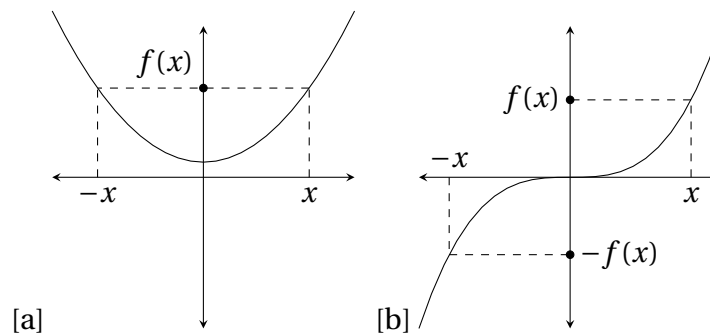


Figure 1.2: a) An even function, b) An odd function.

Odd functions are symmetric with respect to origin and even functions are symmetric with respect to the  $y$ -axis.

**Example 28.**  $f(x) = x$ ,  $f(x) = x^3$  are odd and  $f(x) = x^2$  and  $f(x) = x^4$  are even and  $f(x) = \frac{1}{x+1}$  is neither even or odd.

**Example 29.**  $f(x) = x^3 + x$  is odd and  $f(x) = \frac{1}{x^2-1}$  is even and  $f(x) = x^2 + x$  is either even or odd.

## 1.6 Operations on Functions

If  $f$  and  $g$  are functions, then for every  $x$  that belongs to the domains of both  $f$  and  $g$  we define functions

$$(f + g)(x) = f(x) + g(x)$$

$$(f - g)(x) = f(x) - g(x)$$

$$(fg)(x) = f(x)g(x)$$

$$(f/g)(x) = f(x)/g(x) \text{ where } g(x) \neq 0.$$

**Example 30.** Let  $f(x) = \frac{1}{x+2}$  and  $g(x) = \frac{x}{x-1}$ . Find  $(f+g)(x)$ ,  $(f-g)(x)$ ,  $(fg)(x) = f(x)g(x)$  and  $(f/g)(x)$  where  $g(x) \neq 0$ .

## Composition of Functions

If  $f$  and  $g$  are two functions, then

$$f \circ g(x) = f(g(x)).$$

The domain of  $f \circ g$  consists of those numbers  $x$  in the domain of  $g$  for which  $g(x)$  is in the domain of  $f$ .

**Example 31.** Let  $f(x) = \sqrt{x}$  and  $g(x) = x+1$ . Find  $f \circ g$ ,  $g \circ f$ ,  $f \circ f$  and  $g \circ g$ . State the domains of each function.

| Function    | Formula      | Domain         |
|-------------|--------------|----------------|
| $f$         | $\sqrt{x}$   | $[0, \infty)$  |
| $g$         | $x+1$        | $\mathbb{R}$   |
| $f \circ g$ | $\sqrt{x+1}$ | $[-1, \infty)$ |
| $g \circ f$ | $\sqrt{x}+1$ | $[0, \infty)$  |
| $f \circ f$ | $x^{1/4}$    | $[0, \infty)$  |
| $g \circ g$ | $x+2$        | $\mathbb{R}$   |

## Piecewise Defined Functions

Functions such as

$$g(x) = \begin{cases} 2x & \text{for } x < 0 \\ x^2 & \text{for } x \geq 0 \end{cases}$$

which are defined by different formulas on different intervals are sometimes called **piecewise defined functions**.

## Inverse Functions

Remember that a function is **one-to-one** if for every value in the range, there is exactly one value in the domain.

A function is one-to-one if every horizontal line crosses its graph at most once, which is commonly known as the **horizontal line test**.

## 1.7 Polynomials and Rational Functions

**Definition 2.** A **polynomial** is a function  $P: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  such that

$$P(x) = a_n x^n + \cdots + a_1 x + a_0.$$

Here  $a_n, \dots, a_1$  are called the **coefficients** of the polynomial. We assume  $a_n \neq 0$ . The number  $n$  is called the **degree** of the polynomial.

**Example 32.** Write polynomials of degree 0, 1 and 2.

Just as the quotient of two integers is called a rational number, the quotient of two polynomials is called a **rational function**. Give an example.

Let  $A_m$  be a polynomial of degree  $m$ ,  $B_n$  be a polynomial of degree  $n$  with  $m \geq n$ . Then there are polynomial  $Q_{m-n}$  of degree  $m - n$ ,  $R_k$  of degree  $k < n$  such that

$$\frac{A_m}{B_n} = Q_{m-n} + \frac{R_k}{B_n}.$$

The quotient  $Q_{m-n}$  and the remainder  $R_k$  can be calculated by the “long division”.

**Example 33.** *Using the long division algorithm, show that*

$$\frac{2x^3 - 3x^2 + 3x + 4}{x^2 + 1} = 2x - 3 + \frac{x + 7}{x^2 + 1}$$

If  $P$  is a polynomial and  $P(r) = 0$  then  $r$  is called a **root** of  $P$ .

The Fundamental Theorem of Algebra says every polynomial of degree greater than 0 must have a root. But these roots may be complex.

**Example 34.**  $x^2 + 1$  has no real roots. Its roots are  $i = \sqrt{-1}$  and  $-i$ .

**Theorem 2.** *If  $r$  is a root of the polynomial  $P$  then*

$$P(x) = (x - r)Q(x),$$

*for some polynomial  $Q$  whose degree is 1 less than  $P$ .*

The polynomial  $x(x - 7)^3$  has 4 roots: 0 and the other three are each equal to 7. We say that 7 is a root of **multiplicity** 3.

By the Fundamental Theorem of Algebra and the above theorem, every polynomial of degree  $n$  has exactly  $n$  (not necessarily distinct) roots.

## Roots of Quadratic Polynomials

To obtain the solutions of

$$Ax^2 + Bx + C = 0, \quad A \neq 0$$

Divide by  $A$  and complete to square

$$\left(x + \frac{B}{2A}\right)^2 = \frac{B^2}{4A^2} - \frac{C}{A} = \frac{B^2 - 4AC}{4A^2},$$

Taking the square root of both sides gives the quadratic formula

$$x = \frac{-B \pm \sqrt{B^2 - 4AC}}{2A}.$$

*A form of this formula is known since B.C. 2000 by Babylonians.*

The quantity  $D = B^2 - 4AC$  is called the **discriminant** of the quadratic equation.

- If  $D > 0$  then there are two distinct real roots,
- If  $D = 0$  then there is 1 root of multiplicity 2,
- If  $D < 0$  then there are two complex conjugate roots.

**Example 35.** *Find the roots of the polynomials: (a)  $x^2 + x - 1$ , (b)  $9x^2 - 6x + 1$ , (c)  $2x^2 + x + 1$ .*

**Misc Factorings**

- Difference of squares:

$$x^2 - a^2 = (x - a)(x + a)$$

- Difference of cubes:

$$x^3 - a^3 = (x - a)(x^2 + ax + a^2)$$

- Difference of nth powers

$$x^n - a^n = (x - a)(x^{n-1} + ax^{n-2} + a^2x^{n-3} + \cdots + a^{n-2}x + a^{n-1})$$

- If  $n$  is an odd integer then  $x + a$  is a factor of  $x^n + a^n$ ,

$$x^n + a^n = (x + a)(x^{n-1} - ax^{n-2} + a^2x^{n-3} - \cdots - a^{n-2}x + a^{n-1})$$