

Limits

Definitions

Precise Definition : We say $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = L$ if for every $\varepsilon > 0$ there is a $\delta > 0$ such that whenever $0 < |x - a| < \delta$ then $|f(x) - L| < \varepsilon$.

“Working” Definition : We say $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = L$ if we can make $f(x)$ as close to L as we want by taking x sufficiently close to a (on either side of a) without letting $x = a$.

Right hand limit : $\lim_{x \rightarrow a^+} f(x) = L$. This has the same definition as the limit except it requires $x > a$.

Left hand limit : $\lim_{x \rightarrow a^-} f(x) = L$. This has the same definition as the limit except it requires $x < a$.

Limit at Infinity : We say $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} f(x) = L$ if we can make $f(x)$ as close to L as we want by taking x large enough and positive.

There is a similar definition for $\lim_{x \rightarrow -\infty} f(x) = L$ except we require x large and negative.

Infinite Limit : We say $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = \infty$ if we can make $f(x)$ arbitrarily large (and positive) by taking x sufficiently close to a (on either side of a) without letting $x = a$.

There is a similar definition for $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = -\infty$ except we make $f(x)$ arbitrarily large and negative.

Relationship between the limit and one-sided limits

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = L \Rightarrow \lim_{x \rightarrow a^+} f(x) = \lim_{x \rightarrow a^-} f(x) = L \quad \lim_{x \rightarrow a^+} f(x) = \lim_{x \rightarrow a^-} f(x) = L \Rightarrow \lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = L$$

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow a^+} f(x) \neq \lim_{x \rightarrow a^-} f(x) \Rightarrow \lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) \text{ Does Not Exist}$$

Properties

Assume $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x)$ and $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} g(x)$ both exist and c is any number then,

- $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} [cf(x)] = c \lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x)$
- $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} [f(x) \pm g(x)] = \lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) \pm \lim_{x \rightarrow a} g(x)$
- $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} [f(x)g(x)] = \lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) \lim_{x \rightarrow a} g(x)$
- $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} \left[\frac{f(x)}{g(x)} \right] = \frac{\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x)}{\lim_{x \rightarrow a} g(x)}$ provided $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} g(x) \neq 0$
- $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} [f(x)]^n = \left[\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) \right]^n$
- $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} \sqrt[n]{f(x)} = \sqrt[n]{\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x)}$

Basic Limit Evaluations at $\pm \infty$

Note : $\text{sgn}(a) = 1$ if $a > 0$ and $\text{sgn}(a) = -1$ if $a < 0$.

- $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} e^x = \infty$ & $\lim_{x \rightarrow -\infty} e^x = 0$
- $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \ln(x) = \infty$ & $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0^+} \ln(x) = -\infty$
- If $r > 0$ then $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{b}{x^r} = 0$
- If $r > 0$ and x^r is real for negative x then $\lim_{x \rightarrow -\infty} \frac{b}{x^r} = 0$
- n even : $\lim_{x \rightarrow \pm \infty} x^n = \infty$
- n odd : $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} x^n = \infty$ & $\lim_{x \rightarrow -\infty} x^n = -\infty$
- n even : $\lim_{x \rightarrow \pm \infty} ax^n + \dots + bx + c = \text{sgn}(a)\infty$
- n odd : $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} ax^n + \dots + bx + c = \text{sgn}(a)\infty$
- n odd : $\lim_{x \rightarrow -\infty} ax^n + \dots + bx + c = -\text{sgn}(a)\infty$

Derivatives

Definition and Notation

If $y = f(x)$ then the derivative is defined to be $f'(x) = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(x+h) - f(x)}{h}$.

If $y = f(x)$ then all of the following are equivalent notations for the derivative.

$$f'(x) = y' = \frac{df}{dx} = \frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{d}{dx}(f(x)) = Df(x)$$

If $y = f(x)$ all of the following are equivalent notations for derivative evaluated at $x = a$.

$$f'(a) = y'|_{x=a} = \left. \frac{df}{dx} \right|_{x=a} = \left. \frac{dy}{dx} \right|_{x=a} = Df(a)$$

Interpretation of the Derivative

If $y = f(x)$ then,

- $m = f'(a)$ is the slope of the tangent line to $y = f(x)$ at $x = a$ and the equation of the tangent line at $x = a$ is given by $y = f(a) + f'(a)(x - a)$.

- $f'(a)$ is the instantaneous rate of change of $f(x)$ at $x = a$.
- If $f(x)$ is the position of an object at time x then $f'(a)$ is the velocity of the object at $x = a$.

Basic Properties and Formulas

If $f(x)$ and $g(x)$ are differentiable functions (the derivative exists), c and n are any real numbers,

- $(cf)' = cf'(x)$
- $(f \pm g)' = f'(x) \pm g'(x)$
- $(fg)' = f'g + fg'$ – **Product Rule**
- $\left(\frac{f}{g}\right)' = \frac{f'g - fg'}{g^2}$ – **Quotient Rule**
- $\frac{d}{dx}(c) = 0$
- $\frac{d}{dx}(x^n) = nx^{n-1}$ – **Power Rule**
- $\frac{d}{dx}(f(g(x))) = f'(g(x))g'(x)$
This is the **Chain Rule**

Common Derivatives

$$\frac{d}{dx}(x) = 1$$

$$\frac{d}{dx}(\sin x) = \cos x$$

$$\frac{d}{dx}(\cos x) = -\sin x$$

$$\frac{d}{dx}(\tan x) = \sec^2 x$$

$$\frac{d}{dx}(\sec x) = \sec x \tan x$$

$$\frac{d}{dx}(\csc x) = -\csc x \cot x$$

$$\frac{d}{dx}(\cot x) = -\csc^2 x$$

$$\frac{d}{dx}(\sin^{-1} x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1-x^2}}$$

$$\frac{d}{dx}(\cos^{-1} x) = -\frac{1}{\sqrt{1-x^2}}$$

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

$$\frac{d}{dx}(a^x) = a^x \ln(a)$$

$$\frac{d}{dx}(e^x) = e^x$$

$$\frac{d}{dx}(\ln(x)) = \frac{1}{x}, \quad x > 0$$

$$\frac{d}{dx}(\ln|x|) = \frac{1}{x}, \quad x \neq 0$$

$$\frac{d}{dx}(\log_a(x)) = \frac{1}{x \ln a}, \quad x > 0$$

Extrema**Absolute Extrema**

- $x = c$ is an absolute maximum of $f(x)$ if $f(c) \geq f(x)$ for all x in the domain.
- $x = c$ is an absolute minimum of $f(x)$ if $f(c) \leq f(x)$ for all x in the domain.

Fermat's Theorem

If $f(x)$ has a relative (or local) extrema at $x = c$, then $x = c$ is a critical point of $f(x)$.

Extreme Value Theorem

If $f(x)$ is continuous on the closed interval $[a, b]$ then there exist numbers c and d so that,
 1. $a \leq c, d \leq b$, 2. $f(c)$ is the abs. max. in $[a, b]$, 3. $f(d)$ is the abs. min. in $[a, b]$.

Finding Absolute Extrema

To find the absolute extrema of the continuous function $f(x)$ on the interval $[a, b]$ use the following process.

- Find all critical points of $f(x)$ in $[a, b]$.
- Evaluate $f(x)$ at all points found in Step 1.
- Evaluate $f(a)$ and $f(b)$.
- Identify the abs. max. (largest function value) and the abs. min. (smallest function value) from the evaluations in Steps 2 & 3.

Mean Value Theorem

If $f(x)$ is continuous on the closed interval $[a, b]$ and differentiable on the open interval (a, b)

then there is a number $a < c < b$ such that $f'(c) = \frac{f(b) - f(a)}{b - a}$.

Newton's Method

If x_n is the n^{th} guess for the root/solution of $f(x) = 0$ then $(n+1)^{\text{st}}$ guess is $x_{n+1} = x_n - \frac{f(x_n)}{f'(x_n)}$ provided $f'(x_n)$ exists.

Relative (local) Extrema

- $x = c$ is a relative (or local) maximum of $f(x)$ if $f(c) \geq f(x)$ for all x near c .
- $x = c$ is a relative (or local) minimum of $f(x)$ if $f(c) \leq f(x)$ for all x near c .

1st Derivative Test

If $x = c$ is a critical point of $f(x)$ then $x = c$ is

- a rel. max. of $f(x)$ if $f'(x) > 0$ to the left of $x = c$ and $f'(x) < 0$ to the right of $x = c$.
- a rel. min. of $f(x)$ if $f'(x) < 0$ to the left of $x = c$ and $f'(x) > 0$ to the right of $x = c$.
- not a relative extrema of $f(x)$ if $f'(x)$ is the same sign on both sides of $x = c$.

2nd Derivative Test

If $x = c$ is a critical point of $f(x)$ such that $f'(c) = 0$ then $x = c$

- is a relative maximum of $f(x)$ if $f''(c) < 0$.
- is a relative minimum of $f(x)$ if $f''(c) > 0$.
- may be a relative maximum, relative minimum, or neither if $f''(c) = 0$.

Finding Relative Extrema and/or Classify Critical Points

- Find all critical points of $f(x)$.
- Use the 1st derivative test or the 2nd derivative test on each critical point.

Integrals Definitions

Definite Integral: Suppose $f(x)$ is continuous on $[a, b]$. Divide $[a, b]$ into n subintervals of width Δx and choose x_i^* from each interval.

$$\text{Then } \int_a^b f(x) dx = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{i=1}^n f(x_i^*) \Delta x.$$

Anti-Derivative: An anti-derivative of $f(x)$ is a function, $F(x)$, such that $F'(x) = f(x)$.

Indefinite Integral: $\int f(x) dx = F(x) + c$ where $F(x)$ is an anti-derivative of $f(x)$.

Fundamental Theorem of Calculus

Part I: If $f(x)$ is continuous on $[a, b]$ then

$$g(x) = \int_a^x f(t) dt \text{ is also continuous on } [a, b]$$

$$\text{and } g'(x) = \frac{d}{dx} \int_a^x f(t) dt = f(x).$$

Part II: $f(x)$ is continuous on $[a, b]$, $F(x)$ is an anti-derivative of $f(x)$ (i.e. $F(x) = \int f(x) dx$)

$$\text{then } \int_a^b f(x) dx = F(b) - F(a).$$

Variants of Part I:

$$\frac{d}{dx} \int_a^{u(x)} f(t) dt = u'(x) f[u(x)]$$

$$\frac{d}{dx} \int_{v(x)}^b f(t) dt = -v'(x) f[v(x)]$$

$$\frac{d}{dx} \int_{v(x)}^{u(x)} f(t) dt = u'(x) f[u(x)] - v'(x) f[v(x)]$$

Properties

$$\int [f(x) \pm g(x)] dx = \int f(x) dx \pm \int g(x) dx$$

$$\int cf(x) dx = c \int f(x) dx, c \text{ is a constant}$$

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

$$\int_a^b cf(x) dx = c \int_a^b f(x) dx, c \text{ is a constant}$$

$$\int_a^a f(x) dx = 0$$

$$\int_a^b f(x) dx = \int_a^b f(t) dt$$

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

$$\left| \int_a^b f(x) dx \right| \leq \int_a^b |f(x)| dx$$

$$\text{If } f(x) \geq g(x) \text{ on } a \leq x \leq b \text{ then } \int_a^b f(x) dx \geq \int_a^b g(x) dx$$

$$\text{If } f(x) \geq 0 \text{ on } a \leq x \leq b \text{ then } \int_a^b f(x) dx \geq 0$$

$$\text{If } m \leq f(x) \leq M \text{ on } a \leq x \leq b \text{ then } m(b-a) \leq \int_a^b f(x) dx \leq M(b-a)$$

Common Integrals

$$\int k dx = kx + c$$

$$\int \cos u du = \sin u + c$$

$$\int \tan u du = \ln |\sec u| + c$$

$$\int x^n dx = \frac{1}{n+1} x^{n+1} + c, n \neq -1$$

$$\int \sin u du = -\cos u + c$$

$$\int \sec u du = \ln |\sec u + \tan u| + c$$

$$\int x^{-1} dx = \int \frac{1}{x} dx = \ln |x| + c$$

$$\int \sec^2 u du = \tan u + c$$

$$\int \frac{1}{a^2 + u^2} du = \frac{1}{a} \tan^{-1} \left(\frac{u}{a} \right) + c$$

$$\int \frac{1}{ax+b} dx = \frac{1}{a} \ln |ax+b| + c$$

$$\int \sec u \tan u du = \sec u + c$$

$$\int \frac{1}{\sqrt{a^2 - u^2}} du = \sin^{-1} \left(\frac{u}{a} \right) + c$$

$$\int \ln u du = u \ln(u) - u + c$$

$$\int \csc u \cot u du = -\csc u + c$$

$$\int e^u du = e^u + c$$

$$\int \csc^2 u du = -\cot u + c$$

Study Guide on Areas and Volumes Test

Area:

$$\text{Area: } \int_a^b (f(x) - g(x)) dx$$

(Top function – bottom function) (a and b are x-limits)

$$\text{Area} = \int_a^b ((f(y) - g(y)) dy$$

(Right function – left function) (a and b are y-limits)

Volumes -Disk method

- Volume: Use it whenever the axis of rotation is part of the region.
- Always find the intersection points of the functions by using algebra or the 'intersect' feature of your calculator.
- $\pi \int_a^b (f(x))^2 dx$ axis of rotation = x – axis
- $\pi \int_a^b (f(y))^2 dx$ axis of rotation = y – axis
- $\pi \int_a^b (a - f(x))^2 dx$ axis of rotation: $y = a$ where $y = a$ is the upper boundary
- $\pi \int_a^b (f(x) - a)^2 dx$ axis of rotation: $y = a$ where $y = a$ is the lower boundary
- $\pi \int_a^b (a - f(y))^2 dx$ axis of rotation: $x = a$ where $x = a$ is the right boundary
- $\pi \int_a^b (f(y) - a)^2 dx$ axis of rotation: $x = a$ where $x = a$ is the left boundary

Volumes-Washer method and Shell method

- Volume: Use it whenever the axis of rotation is **NOT** part of the region.
- Always find the intersection points of the functions by using algebra or the 'intersect' feature of your calculator.
- $\pi \int_a^b ((f(x))^2 - (g(x))^2) dx$ axis of rotation = x – axis
- Horizontal line rotations: Remember f(x) is always the function upper function and g(x) is the lower function.
- $\pi \int_a^b ((f(x) - a)^2 - (g(x) - a)^2) dx$ axis of rotation: $y = a$ where $y = a$ below the region.
- $\pi \int_a^b ((a - g(x))^2 - (a - f(x))^2) dx$ axis of rotation: $y = a$ where $y = a$ above the region.
- Vertical line rotations-Shell: Remember f(x) is always the function upper function and g(x) is the lower function
- y – axis: $2\pi \int_a^b x(f - g) dx$
- Left: $x = k$: $2\pi \int_a^b (x - k)(f - g) dx$
- Right: $x = k$: $2\pi \int_a^b (k - x)(f - g) dx$

VOLUME OF SOLIDS WITH KNOWN CROSS-SECTIONS

If the known cross-sections are perpendicular to x-axis:

$$V = \int_a^b A(x)dx = \int_a^b (f(x) - g(x)) \quad (\text{Top function} - \text{bottom function}) \text{ where } f(x) - g(x) \text{ is the base of the solid.}$$

If the known cross-sections are perpendicular to y-axis:

$$V = \int_a^b A(y)dy = \int_a^b (f(y) - g(y)) \quad (\text{Right function} - \text{left function}) \text{ where } f(y) - g(y) \text{ is the base of the solid.}$$

Formulas:

Cross-section type	Volume
Square	$V = \int_a^b (f - g)^2 dx \text{ or } dy$
Semi-circle	$V = \frac{\pi}{8} \int_a^b (f - g)^2 dx \text{ or } dy$
Equilateral triangle	$V = \frac{\sqrt{3}}{4} \int_a^b (f - g)^2 dx \text{ or } dy$
Isosceles triangle with given height	$V = \frac{h}{2} \int_a^b (f - g) dx \text{ or } dy$
Rectangle: height is n times the base	$V = n \int_a^b (f - g)^2 dx \text{ or } dy$
Isosceles right triangle with leg in R	$V = \frac{1}{2} \int_a^b (f - g)^2 dx \text{ or } dy$
Isosceles right triangle with hypotenuse in R	$V = \frac{1}{4} \int_a^b (f - g)^2 dx \text{ or } dy$