

**Math 1710**  
**Topics for first exam**

**Chapter 1: Limits and Continuity**

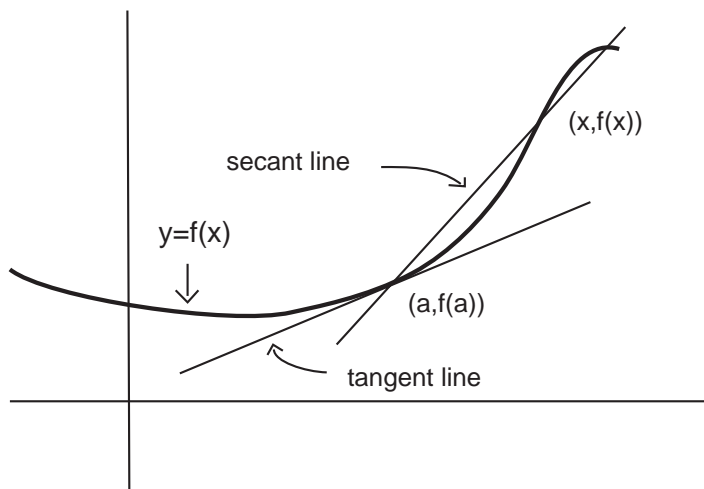
§1: **Rates of change and limits**

Calculus = Precalculus + (limits)

Limit of a function  $f$  at a point  $x_0$  = the value the function 'should' take at the point  
= the value that the points 'near'  $x_0$  tell you  $f$  should have at  $x_0$

$\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} f(x) = L$  means  $f(x)$  is close to  $L$  when  $x$  is close to (but not equal to)  $x_0$

Idea: slopes of tangent lines



The closer  $x$  is to  $a$ , the better the slope of the secant line will approximate the slope of the tangent line.

The slope of the tangent line = limit of slopes of the secant lines ( through  $(a, f(a))$  )

$\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} f(x) = L$  does not care what  $f(x_0)$  is; it ignores it

$\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} f(x)$  need not exist! (function can't make up it's mind?)

§2: **Rules for finding limits**

If two functions  $f(x)$  and  $g(x)$  agree (are equal) for every  $x$  near  $a$   
(but maybe not at  $a$ ), then  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = \lim_{x \rightarrow a} g(x)$

Ex.:  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 2} \frac{x^2 - 3x + 2}{x^2 - 4} = \lim_{x \rightarrow 2} \frac{x - 1}{x + 2}$

If  $f(x) \rightarrow L$  and  $g(x) \rightarrow M$  as  $x \rightarrow x_0$  (and  $c$  is a constant), then

$f(x) + g(x) \rightarrow L + M$  ;  $f(x) - g(x) \rightarrow L - M$  ;  $cf(x) \rightarrow cL$  ;

$f(x)g(x) \rightarrow LM$  ; and  $f(x)/g(x) \rightarrow L/M$  provided  $M \neq 0$

If  $f(x)$  is a polynomial, then  $\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} f(x) = f(x_0)$

Basic principle: to solve  $\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0}$ , plug in  $x = x_0$  !

If (and when) you get  $0/0$ , try something else! (Factor  $(x - x_0)$  out of top and bottom...)

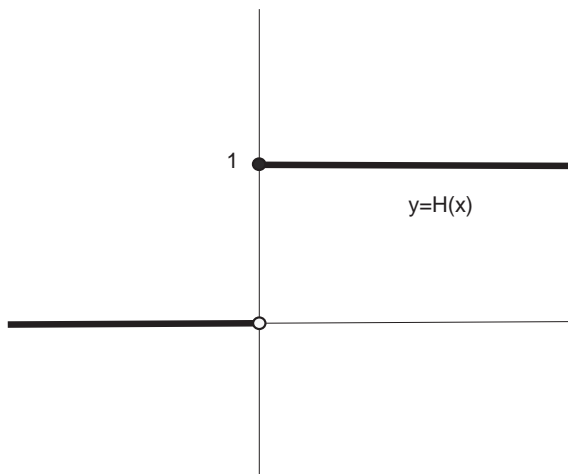
If a function has something like  $\sqrt{x} - \sqrt{a}$  in it, try multiplying (top and bottom) with  $\sqrt{x} + \sqrt{a}$

Sandwich Theorem: If  $f(x) \leq g(x) \leq h(x)$ , for all  $x$  near  $a$  (but not at  $a$ ), and

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = \lim_{x \rightarrow a} h(x) = L, \text{ then } \lim_{x \rightarrow a} g(x) = L.$$

§4: **Extensions of the limit concept**

Motivation: the Heaviside function



The Heaviside function has no limit at 0; it can't make up its mind whether to be 0 or 1. But if we just look to either side of 0, everything is fine; on the left, H(0) 'wants' to be 0, while on the right, H(0) 'wants' to be 1.

It's because these numbers are different that the limit as we approach 0 does not exist; but the 'one-sided' limits DO exist.

Limit from the right:  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a^+} f(x) = L$  means  $f(x)$  is close to  $L$

when  $x$  is close to, and bigger than,  $a$

Limit from the left:  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a^-} f(x) = M$  means  $f(x)$  is close to  $M$

when  $x$  is close to, and smaller than,  $a$

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

Infinite limits:  $\infty$  represents something bigger than any number we can think of

$\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = \infty$  means  $f(x)$  gets really large as  $x$  gets close to  $a$

Also have  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = -\infty$ ;  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a^+} f(x) = \infty$ ;

$\lim_{x \rightarrow a^-} f(x) = \infty$ ; etc....

Typically, an infinite limit occurs where the denominator of  $f(x)$  is zero

(although not always)

§5: **Continuity**

A function  $f$  is continuous (cts) at  $a$  if  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = f(a)$

This means: (1)  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x)$  exists; (2)  $f(a)$  exists; and

(3) they're equal.

Limit theorems say (sum, difference, product, quotient) of cts functions are cts.

Polynomials are continuous at every point;

rational functions are continuous except where denom=0.

Points where a function is not continuous are called discontinuities

Four flavors:

removable: both one-sided limits are the same

jump: one-sided limits exist, not the same

infinite: one or both one-sided limits is  $\infty$  or  $-\infty$

oscillating: one or both one-sided limits DNE

Intermediate Value Theorem:

If  $f(x)$  is cts at every point in an interval  $[a, b]$ , and  $M$  is between  $f(a)$  and  $f(b)$ , then there is (at least one)  $c$  between  $a$  and  $b$  so that  $f(c) = M$ .

Application: finding roots of polynomials

## §6: Tangent lines

Slope of tangent line = limit of slopes of secant lines; at  $(x_0, f(x_0))$  :

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} \frac{f(x) - f(x_0)}{x - x_0} \quad \text{Notation: call this limit } f'(x_0) = \text{derivative of } f \text{ at } x_0$$

Different formulation:  $h = x - x_0$ ,  $x = x_0 + h$

$$f'(x_0) = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(x_0 + h) - f(x_0)}{h}$$

## Chapter 2: Derivatives

### §1: The derivative of a function

derivative = limit of difference quotient (two flavors)

$f'(x_0)$  exists, say  $f$  is differentiable at  $x_0$

Fact:  $f$  differentiable (diff'ble) at  $x_0$ , then  $f$  cts at  $x_0$

$h \rightarrow 0$  notation: replace  $x_0$  with  $x$  (= variable), get  $f'(x) =$  new function

$f'(x)$  = the derivative of  $f$  = function whose values are the slopes of the tangent lines to the graph of  $y=f(x)$ . Domain = every point where the limit exists

Notation:

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

### §2: Differentiation rules

$$\frac{d}{dx}(\text{constant}) = 0$$

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

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

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

$$(cf(x))' = c(f(x))'$$

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

$$\left(\frac{f(x)}{g(x)}\right)' = \frac{f'(x)g(x) - f(x)g'(x)}{g^2(x)}$$

$$(x^n)' = nx^{n-1}, \quad \text{for } n=0,1,-1,2,-2,3,\dots$$

$$\left(\left(\frac{1}{g(x)}\right)' = -\frac{g'(x)}{(g(x))^2}\right)$$

$f'(x)$  is 'just' a function, so we can take its derivative!

$$(f'(x))' = f''(x) \quad (= y'' = \frac{d^2y}{dx^2} = \frac{d^2f}{dx^2})$$

= second derivative of  $f$  (=rate of change of rate of change of  $f$  !)

Keep going!  $f'''(x)$  = 3rd derivative,  $f^{(n)}(x)$  =  $n$ th derivative

### §3: Rates of change

Physical interpretation:

$f(t)$  = position at time  $t$

$f'(t)$  = rate of change of position = velocity

$f''(t)$  = rate of change of velocity = acceleration

$|f'(t)|$  = speed

Basic principle: for object to change direction (velocity changes sign),

$f'(t) = 0$  somewhere (IVT!)

Examples:

Free-fall: object falling near earth;  $s(t) = s_0 + v_0t - \frac{g}{2}t^2$

$s_0 = s(0)$  = initial position;  $v_0$  = initial velocity;  $g$  = acceleration due to gravity

Economics:

$C(x)$  = cost of making  $x$  objects;  $R(x)$  = revenue from selling  $x$  objects;

$P = R - C$  = profit

$C'(x)$  = marginal cost = cost of making 'one more' object

$R'(x)$  = marginal revenue ; profit is maximized when  $P'(x) = 0$  ;

i.e.,  $R'(x) = C'(x)$

### §4: Derivatives of trigonometric functions

Basic limit:  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\sin x}{x} = 1$  ; everything else comes from this!

Note: this uses radian measure!  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\sin(bx)}{x} = b$

Then we get:

$(\sin x)' = \cos x$                        $(\cos x)' = -\sin x$

$(\tan x)' = \sec^2 x$                        $(\cot x)' = -\csc^2 x$

$(\sec x)' = \sec x \tan x$                        $(\csc x)' = -\csc x \cot x$

### §5: The Chain Rule

Composition  $(g \circ f)(x_0) = g(f(x_0))$  ; (note: we don't know what  $g(x_0)$  is.)

$(g \circ f)'$  ought to have something to do with  $g'(x)$  and  $f'(x)$

in particular,  $(g \circ f)'(x_0)$  should depend on  $f'(x_0)$  and  $g'(f(x_0))$

Chain Rule:  $(g \circ f)'(x_0) = g'(f(x_0))f'(x_0)$

=  $(d(\text{outside}) \text{ eval'd at inside fcn}) \cdot (d(\text{inside}))$

Ex:  $((x^3 + x - 1)^4)' = (4(x^3 + x - 1)^3)(3x^2 + 1)$

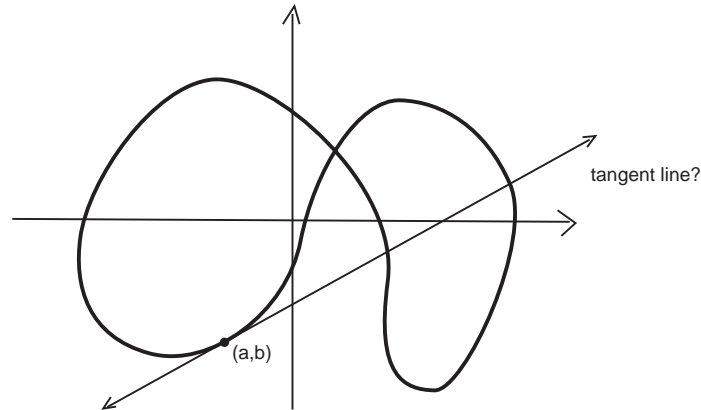
Different notation:

$y = g(f(x)) = g(u)$ , where  $u = f(x)$ , then  $\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{dy}{du} \frac{du}{dx}$

### §6: Implicit differentiation

We can differentiate functions; what about *equations*? (e.g.,  $x^2 + y^2 = 1$ )

graph looks like it has tangent lines



Idea: Pretend equation defines  $y$  as a function of  $x$  :  $x^2 + (f(x))^2 = 1$  and differentiate!

$$2x + 2f(x)f'(x) = 0 ; \text{ so } f'(x) = \frac{-x}{f(x)} = \frac{-x}{y}$$

Different notation:

$$x^2 + xy^2 - y^3 = 6 ; \text{ then } 2x + (y^2 + x(2y\frac{dy}{dx})) - 3y^2\frac{dy}{dx} = 0$$

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{-2x - y^2}{2xy - 3y^2}$$

Application: extend the power rule

$$\frac{d}{dx}(x^r) = rx^{r-1} \text{ works for any } \textit{rational} \text{ number } r$$

### §7: Related Rates

Idea: If two (or more) quantities are related (a change in one value means a change in others), then their rates of change are related, too.

$xyz = 3$  ; pretend each is a function of  $t$ , and differentiate (implicitly).

General procedure:

Draw a picture, describing the situation; label things with variables.

Which variables, rates of change do you know, or want to know?

Find an equation relating the variables whose *rates of change* you know or want to know.

Differentiate!

Plug in the values that you know.