
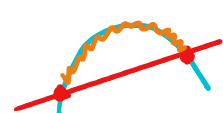


# Calculus 1/9

Def (Def 4.6.1, 4.6.2) (Assume  $f$  is differentiable)

The graph of  $f$  is said to be

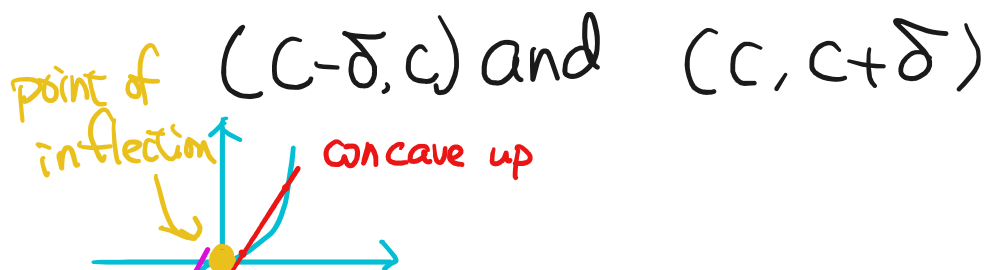
- Concave up if  $f'(x)$  is increasing  
  $f(x) = x^2 \Rightarrow f'(x) = 2x$   
 $\Rightarrow f''(x) = 2 > 0$

- Concave down if  $f'(x)$  is decreasing  
 e.g.  $f(x) = -x^2$   
 $\Rightarrow f'(x) = -2x$   
 $\Rightarrow f''(x) = -2 < 0$  反曲點

A point  $(c, f(c))$  is a point of inflection if  $\exists \delta > 0$  s.t.  $f$  is Concave up/down on  $(c-\delta, c)$  and Concave down/up on  $(c, c+\delta)$  i.e.  $f$  has the opposite concavity on

e.g.

$$f(x) = x^3$$



$$\Rightarrow f'(x) = 3x^2$$

Concave  
down /  $(0,0)$

$$\Rightarrow f''(x) = 6x \quad f''(0) = 0$$

Thm (Thm 4.6.3, 4.6.4)

ii) If  $(c, f(c))$  is a point of inflection,  
then  $f''(c) = 0$  or  $f''(c)$  doesn't  
exist

iii) Suppose  $f$  is twice differentiable.

Then

$$(a) \quad f''(x) > 0 \quad \forall x \in (a, b)$$

$\Rightarrow$  the graph of  $f$  is concave  
up on  $(a, b)$ .

$$(b) \quad f''(x) < 0 \quad \forall x \in (a, b)$$

$\Rightarrow$  the graph of  $f$  is  
concave down on  
 $(a, b)$

Example

Analyze the graph of the following

function :  $f(1) = 5$ ,  $f(2) = 3$   
 $f(3) = 1$

$$f(x) = x^3 - 6x^2 + 9x + 1$$

$$\Rightarrow f'(x) = 3x^2 - 12x + 9 = \underline{3(x-1)(x-3)}$$

$$(f'(x) = 0 \Leftrightarrow x = 1, 3)$$

$$f''(x) = 6x - 12 = \underline{6(x-2)}$$

$$(f''(x) = 0 \Leftrightarrow x = 2)$$

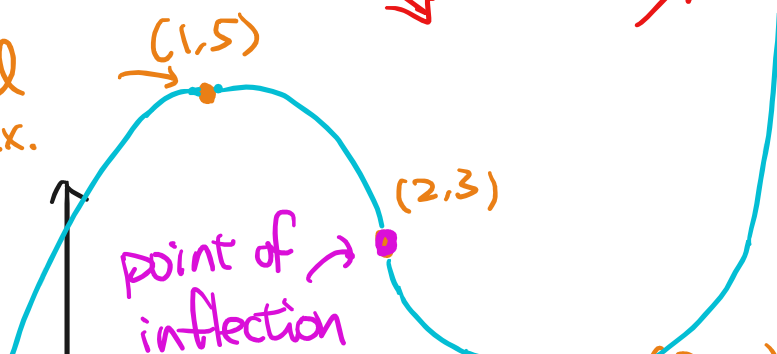
$x$	1	2	3	
$f'$	$+$ $\searrow$	$-$ $\searrow$	$-$ $\nearrow$	$+$ $\nearrow$
$f''$	$-$	$-$	$+$	$+$
$f$	$\nearrow$	$\searrow$	$\searrow$	$\nearrow$

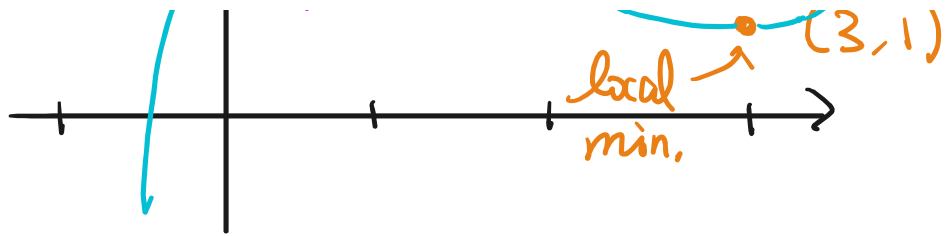
local  
max.

$(1, 5)$

$(2, 3)$

point of  
inflection





## Application of derivatives to limits

Recall

We considered

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

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow c} g(x) \neq 0 \Rightarrow L = \frac{\lim_{x \rightarrow c} f(x)}{\lim_{x \rightarrow c} g(x)}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \lim_{x \rightarrow c} g(x) = 0 \\ \lim_{x \rightarrow c} f(x) \neq 0 \end{aligned} \Rightarrow L \text{ doesn't exist}$$

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow c} g(x) = \lim_{x \rightarrow c} f(x) = 0 \Rightarrow ??$$

Thm (L'Hôpital's rule of type  $\frac{0}{0}$ , §11.5)

Suppose

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow c} f(x) = \lim_{x \rightarrow c} g(x) = 0$$

and  $f$  and  $g$  are differentiable near  $c$ .

If  $\lim_{x \rightarrow c} \frac{f'(x)}{g'(x)} = L$  exists, then

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow c} g'(x)$$

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

Thm (L'Hôpital's rule of type  $\frac{\pm\infty}{\pm\infty}$ , §11.6)

Suppose

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow c} f(x) = \pm\infty, \quad \lim_{x \rightarrow c} g(x) = \pm\infty$$

and  $f, g$  are differentiable near  $c$ .

If  $\lim_{x \rightarrow c} \frac{f'(x)}{g'(x)} = L$  exists, then

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

Example

$$\begin{aligned} \textcircled{1} \lim_{x \rightarrow \frac{\pi}{2}} \frac{\cos x}{\pi - 2x} &= \lim_{x \rightarrow \frac{\pi}{2}} \frac{\overbrace{(\cos x)'}^{-\sin x}}{\underbrace{(\pi - 2x)'}_{= -2 \neq 0}} \\ &= \frac{-\sin(\frac{\pi}{2})}{-2} = \frac{1}{2} \quad \# \end{aligned}$$

*Handwritten notes: "0/0" with an arrow pointing to the limit, and "0" with an arrow pointing to the denominator's limit.*

"0/0"

$$\textcircled{2} \lim_{x \rightarrow 1} \frac{x^4 + 2x^3 - 2x^2 - 1}{x^3 - 1} = \lim_{x \rightarrow 1} \frac{4x^3 + 6x^2 - 4x}{3x^2} \rightarrow 3 \neq 0$$

$$= \frac{4 + 6 - 4}{3} = 2 \quad \#$$

"∞/∞"

$$\textcircled{3} \lim_{x \rightarrow (\frac{\pi}{2})^-} \frac{\sec x}{1 + \tan x} = \lim_{x \rightarrow (\frac{\pi}{2})^-} \frac{\frac{\sin x}{\cos x} \cdot \sec x}{\sec^2 x = \frac{1}{\cos x}}$$

$$(\sec x)' = \left(\frac{1}{\cos x}\right)' = -\frac{-\sin x}{\cos^2 x} = \tan x \cdot \sec x$$

$$= \lim_{x \rightarrow (\frac{\pi}{2})^-} \sin x = 1 \quad \# \quad \left(\frac{1}{g}\right)' = \frac{-g'}{g^2}$$

$g = \cos x$   
 $g' = -\sin x$

"0 · ∞" → "0/0"

$$\textcircled{4} \lim_{x \rightarrow (\frac{\pi}{2})^-} \left(\frac{\pi}{2} - x\right) \cdot \tan x$$

n

$$\Rightarrow \lim_{x \rightarrow (\frac{\pi}{2})^-} \frac{1}{\tan x} \rightarrow 0$$

$$= \lim_{x \rightarrow (\frac{\pi}{2})^-} \frac{(\frac{\pi}{2} - x) \cdot \sin x}{\cos x} = \lim_{x \rightarrow (\frac{\pi}{2})^-} \frac{(-1) \cdot \sin x + (\frac{\pi}{2} - x) (\cos x)}{-\sin x}$$

product rule  
 $\downarrow$   $\rightarrow -1$   
 $\rightarrow -1$

$$= 1 \quad \#$$

⑤

" $\infty - \infty$ "  $\rightarrow$  " $\frac{0}{0}$ "  $\rightarrow \infty$

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \left( \frac{1}{\sin x} - \frac{1}{x} \right) = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{x - \sin x}{x \sin x} \rightarrow 0$$

$\downarrow$   
 $\infty$

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

$\rightarrow 1 - 1 = 0$   
 $\downarrow$   
 $0 + 0 \cdot 1 = 0$

$$= \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\sin x}{\cos x + \cos x + x(-\sin x)}$$

$\downarrow$   
 $1 + 1 + 0 = 2 \neq 0$

$$= \frac{0}{2} = 0 \quad \#$$

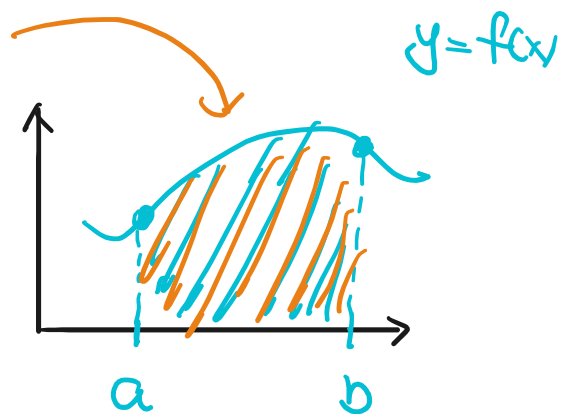
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## § Integration

The integral of a function  $f$  from  $a$  to  $b$ , denoted by

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

is the area

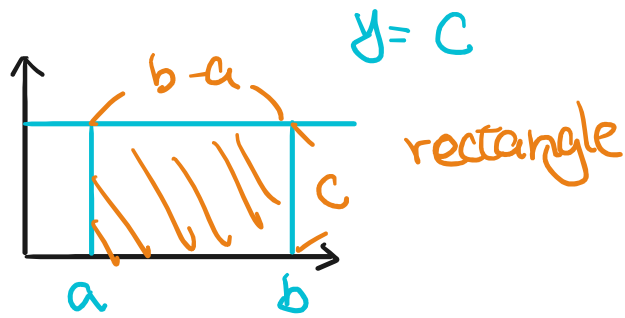


### Example

(i) If  $f(x) = c = \text{constant}$ , then

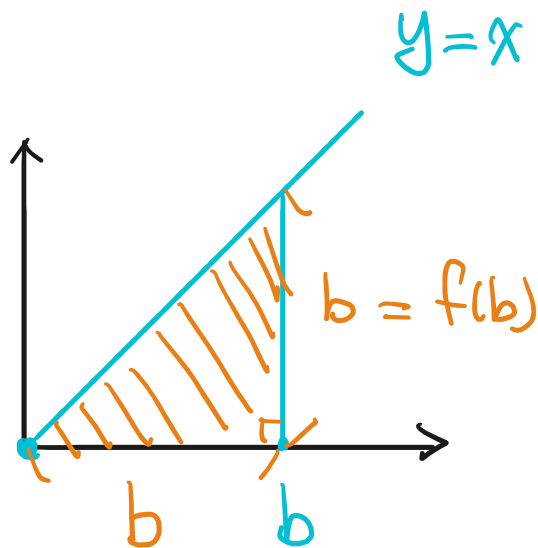
$$\int_a^b c dx = \underline{c \cdot (b-a)}$$



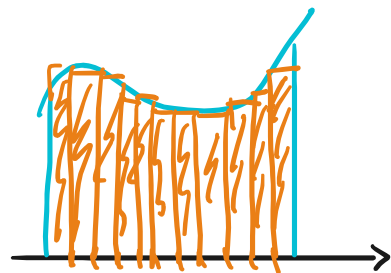
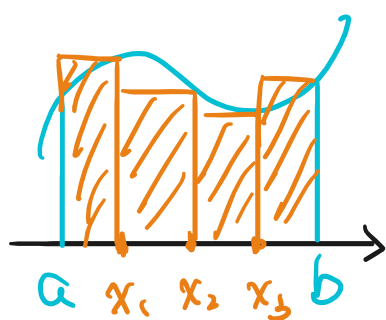


② If  $f(x) = x$ , then

$$\int_0^b x \cdot dx = \frac{1}{2} b \cdot b = \frac{b^2}{2}$$



### § Approximation of integrals



Def (5.2.1)

A partition  $P$  of  $[a, b]$  is a finite sequence  $P = \{x_0, x_1, \dots, x_n\}$ ,

where

$$a = x_0 < x_1 < x_2 < \dots < x_n = b$$

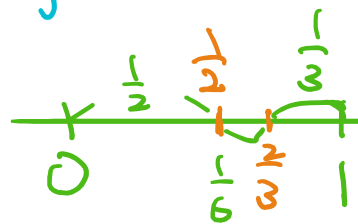
The number

$$\|P\| = \max \{ |x_1 - x_0|, |x_2 - x_1|, \dots, |x_n - x_{n-1}| \}$$

is called the norm of  $P$

eg.

$P = \{0, \frac{1}{2}, \frac{2}{3}, 1\}$  is a partition of  $[0, 1]$



$$\|P\| = \frac{1}{2}$$

Def (5.2.6)

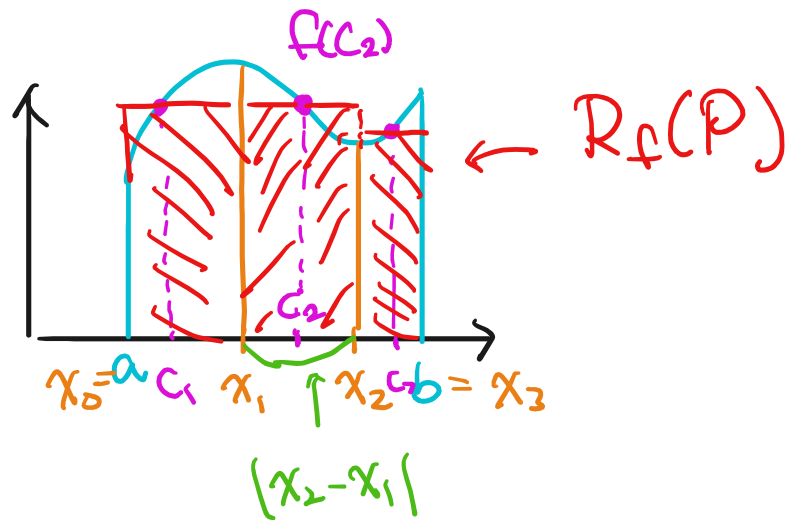
A Riemann sum for  $f$  on  $[a, b]$

→ Riemann sum for ...

with respect to a partition  $P$  is

$$R_f(P) = \sum_{i=1}^n \underbrace{f(c_i)}_{\text{purple}} \cdot \underbrace{|x_i - x_{i-1}|}_{\text{green}}$$

where  $c_i \in [x_{i-1}, x_i]$



Def (5.2.7)

A function  $f$  is said to be

(Riemann) integrable on  $[a, b]$  if

the limite

$$\lim_{\|P\| \rightarrow 0} R_f(P)$$

exists and doesn't depend on

the choice of Riemann sums.

In this case, the number

$$\int_a^b f(x) dx = \lim_{\|P\| \rightarrow 0} R_f(P)$$

is called the (definite) integral  
of  $f$  from  $a$  to  $b$   
定積分

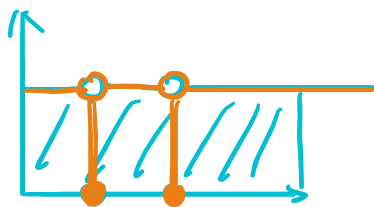
Thm

If  $f$  is continuous on  $[a, b]$ ,  
then  $f$  is integrable on  $[a, b]$ .

Remark

The values of  $f$  at finite points  
do NOT affect integrability and  
the integral  $\int_a^b f(x) dx$ .

eg.  $f(x) := \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } x \neq \frac{1}{2}, 1 \\ 0 & \text{if } x = \frac{1}{2}, 1 \end{cases}$



$$\int_0^2 f(x) dx \text{ exists and} \\ = \int_0^2 1 dx = 2 \times 1 = 2 \quad \#$$

### Example

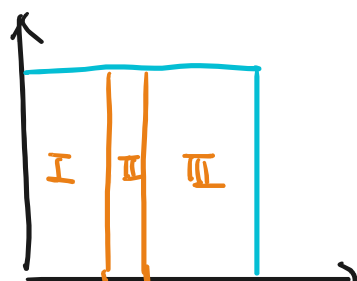
Let  $f(x) = 1 \quad \forall x$ .

Let  $P = \left\{ \underset{x_0}{0}, \underset{x_1}{\frac{1}{3}}, \underset{x_2}{\frac{1}{2}}, \underset{x_3}{1} \right\}$  — partition of  $[0, 1]$

$\Rightarrow$

$$R_f(P) = \sum_{i=1}^3 \underbrace{f(c_i)}_{=1} \cdot (x_i - x_{i-1})$$

$$= \underbrace{1 \cdot \left(\frac{1}{3} - 0\right)}_{\text{I}} + \underbrace{1 \cdot \left(\frac{1}{2} - \frac{1}{3}\right)}_{\text{II}} + \underbrace{1 \cdot \left(1 - \frac{1}{2}\right)}_{\text{III}}$$



$$= 1$$

In fact, for any choice of  $P$ ,  $R_f(P) = 1$

$\frac{1}{3} \frac{1}{2}$

choice of Riemann sum,

$$R_f(P) = 1$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{So } \int_0^1 1 \, dx &= \lim_{\|P\| \rightarrow 0} R_f(P) \\ &= 1 \quad \# \end{aligned}$$