

Calc I

Online Lecture Notes

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27 Apr. 2020

Exponential Functions and the Derivatives

Recall,

given n a positive integer and b any positive real number,

$$b^n = \underbrace{bb \cdots b}_{n\text{-times}},$$

$$b^{-n} = \underbrace{\frac{1}{b} \frac{1}{b} \cdots \frac{1}{b}}_{n\text{-times}},$$

and

$$b^{\frac{1}{n}} = \sqrt[n]{b}.$$

We call b the base and n or $\frac{1}{n}$ the exponent, together they

And exponential function $f(x)$ is a function such that,

$$f(x) = b^x.$$

Properties of Exponentials:

- ▶ $b^q b^p = b^{q+p}$
- ▶ $b^q b^{-p} = b^{q-p}$
- ▶ $(b^q)^p$
- ▶ $(ab)^p = a^p b^p$
- ▶ If $b > 1$, then $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} b^x = \infty$ and $\lim_{x \rightarrow -\infty} b^x = 0$
- ▶ If $0 < b < 1$, then $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} b^x = 0$ and $\lim_{x \rightarrow -\infty} b^x = \infty$

Limit Definition of the Derivative Applied to $f(x) = b^x$:

$$\begin{aligned}\lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(x+h) - f(x)}{h} &= \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{b^{x+h} - b^x}{h} \\&= \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{b^x b^h - b^x}{h} = b^x \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{b^h - 1}{h} \\&= f(x) \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(0+h) - f(0)}{h} = f(x)f'(0)\end{aligned}$$

We're going to come back to this later... But for now, a few examples are on the next slide.

Examples of Limit Definition of the Derivative Applied to $f(x) = b^x$:

- ▶ $\frac{d}{dx} 2^x \approx 2^x(0.69)$
- ▶ $\frac{d}{dx} 3^x \approx 3^x(1.10)$
- ▶ $\frac{d}{dx} 4^x \approx 4^x(1.39)$

So, a two natural question emerge, "is there a b such that for $f(x) = b^x$, $f'(0) = 1$? and $\frac{d}{dx} b^x = b^x$ ▶ skip to slide ?" And, "how can we find the exact values of $f'(0)$ ▶ skip to slide ?"

Definition of the Number e :

$e \approx 2.71828182845904523536$ is the number such that,

$$\lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{e^h - 1}{h} = 1.$$

Notice if we set $f(x) = e^x$ and $x = 0$, then

$$f'(0) = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(0+h) - f(0)}{h} = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{e^{0+h} - e^0}{h} = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{e^h - 1}{h} = 1.$$

So, the derivative of $f(x) = e^x$ is,

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

And when we apply chain rule we find the derivative of e^u is

$$\frac{d}{dx}e^u = e^u \frac{du}{dx}$$

or equivalently written,

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

Example:

$$\blacktriangleright \frac{d}{dx} e^x = e^x$$

$$\blacktriangleright \frac{d}{dx} e^{2x+3} = e^{2x+3}(2)$$

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

$$\blacktriangleright \frac{d}{dx} \left(5x^2 + 3 + 4e^{3+x+2x^2+\cos(x)} \right) = \\ 10x + 0 + 4e^{3+x+2x^2+\cos(x)} (0 + 1 + 4x - \sin(x))$$

Another Definition of the Number e :

Another common limit definition of e is,

$$e = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left(1 + \frac{1}{n}\right)^n$$

And for e^x ,

$$e^x = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left(1 + \frac{x}{n}\right)^n$$

Integral of e^x is

$$\int e^x dx = e^x + c$$

so when we have, $e^u \frac{du}{dx}$ we can apply substitution ($du = \frac{du}{dx} dx$) and get

$$\int e^u \frac{du}{dx} dx = \int e^u du = e^u + c$$

Example:

- ▶ $\int 4e^{4x} dx = e^{4x} + c \implies u = 4x$ and $du = 4dx$
- ▶ $\int \sec^2(x)e^{\tan(x)} dx = e^{\tan(x)} + c \implies u = \tan(x)$ and $du = \sec^2(x)dx$
- ▶ $\int xe^{\frac{x^2}{2}} dx = e^{\frac{x^2}{2}} + c \implies u = \frac{x^2}{2}$ and $du = xdx$
- ▶ $\int -13e^x dx = -13e^x + c \implies u = x$ and $du = dx$

Logarithmic Functions and the Derivatives

If

$$b^x = y,$$

then

$$\sqrt[x]{y} = b \quad \text{and} \quad \log_b(y) = x.$$

So,

$$\text{if } f(x) = b^x, \text{ then } f^{-1}(x) = \log_b(x).$$

Properties of Logarithms:

- ▶ $\log_b(b^x) = x$
- ▶ $b^{\log_b(x)} = x$ for every $x > 0$

And if $b > 1$, the function $f(x) = \log_b(x)$ is a one-to-one, continuous, increasing function with domain $(0, \infty)$ and range \mathbf{R} . If $x, y > 0$ and p is any real number, then

- ▶ $\log_b(xy) = \log_b(x) + \log_b(y)$
- ▶ $\log_b\left(\frac{x}{y}\right) = \log_b(x) - \log_b(y)$
- ▶ $\log_b(x^p) = p \log_b(x)$

Limit Properties of Logarithms:

If $b > 0$, then

- ▶ $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \log_b(x) = \infty$
- ▶ $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0^+} \log_b(x) = -\infty$

Examples:

- ▶ $2^5 = 32 \implies \log_2(32) = 5$
- ▶ $3^5 = 243$ and $3^2 = 9 \implies \log_3\left(\frac{243}{9}\right)$
 $= \log_3(243) - \log_3(9) = 5 - 2 = 3$
- ▶ $\log_2(768) - \log_2(3) = \log_2\left(\frac{768}{3}\right) = \log_2(256) = 8$
- ▶ $\log_5(725) = \log_5((29)(25))$
 $= \log_5(29) + \log_5(5^2) = \log_5(29) + 2$

Notation:

There are two commonly used logarithmic bases with their own unique notation:

- ▶ $b = 10$, $\log_{10}(x) = \log(x)$
- ▶ $b = e$, $\log_e(x) = \ln(x)$

By far, $b = e$ is the most commonly used base. So much so, that it wasn't enough to give it its own notation, we also gave it its own name the, "natural logarithm."

Notice, $b^x = e^{\ln(b)x}$ so,

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

This also means,

$$\int b^x dx = \frac{b^x}{\ln(b)} + c$$

Examples:

$$\blacktriangleright \ln(5x + 3) = 9 \implies e^{\ln(5x+3)} = e^9$$

$$= 5x + 3 = e^9$$

$$\implies 5x = e^9 - 3$$

$$\implies x = \frac{e^9 - 3}{5}$$

Examples:

$$\blacktriangleright e^{6-4x} = 9 \implies \ln(e^{6-4x}) = \ln(9)$$

$$= 6 - 4x = \ln(9)$$

$$\implies -4x = \ln(9) - 6$$

$$\implies x = -\frac{\ln(9) - 6}{4} = \frac{6 - \ln(9)}{4}$$

What if we have our answer in terms of a base other than what we wanted? So, let's say we have $\ln(x)$ but want $\log_b(x)$. Well,

$$\log_b(x) = \frac{\ln(x)}{\ln(b)}$$

Derivative of Logarithmic Functions:

- ▶ $\frac{d}{dx} \ln(x) = \frac{1}{x}$
- ▶ $\frac{d}{dx} \ln(u) = \frac{1}{u} \frac{du}{dx}$ or equivalently written $\frac{d}{dx} \ln(g(x)) = \frac{1}{g(x)} g'(x)$

Notice, from that second formula,

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

so

$$\int \frac{1}{x} dx = \ln(|x|) + c$$

Integral Example:

Expanding, now, on $\int \frac{1}{x} dx = \ln(|x|) + c$. Let's say we want to find $\int \tan(x) dx$. How might we do that?

First, let's observe $\tan(x) = \frac{\sin(x)}{\cos(x)}$ and

$$\int \tan(x) dx = \int \frac{\sin(x)}{\cos(x)} dx.$$

So, by setting $u = \cos(x)$ we get $\frac{du}{dx} = -\sin(x) \implies du = -\sin(x)dx$
and

$$\int \tan(x) dx = \int \frac{\sin(x)}{\cos(x)} dx = \int \frac{-1}{u} du = -\ln(|u|) + c = -\ln(|\cos(x)|) + c$$

But $-\ln(x) = \ln(x^{-1}) = \ln\left(\frac{1}{x}\right)$ and $\frac{1}{\cos(x)} = \sec(x)$, so

$$\int \tan(x) dx = -\ln(|\cos(x)|) + c = \ln(|\sec(x)|) + c$$

Appendix

Derivative Identities:

- ▶ $\frac{d}{dx} x^n = nx^{n-1}$
- ▶ $\frac{d}{dx} \cos(x) = -\sin(x)$
- ▶ $\frac{d}{dx} \sin(x) = \cos(x)$
- ▶ $\frac{d}{dx} \tan(x) = \sec(x)$

Derivative Rules and Identities:

- ▶ $\frac{d}{dx} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} = \frac{g(x)f'(x) - f(x)g'(x)}{g(x)^2}$
- ▶ $\frac{d}{dx} f(x)g(x) = g(x)f'(x) + f(x)g'(x)$
- ▶ $\frac{d}{dx} (f \circ g)(x) = \frac{d}{dx} f(g(x)) = f'(g(x))g'(x)$
- ▶ $\frac{d}{dx} e^{f(x)} = f'(x)e^{f(x)}$
- ▶ $\frac{d}{dx} \ln(f(x)) = \frac{f'(x)}{f(x)}$

The Fundamental Theorem of Calculus

1. If $f(x)$ is continuous on $[a, b]$, then the function $g(x)$ defined by

$$g(x) = \int_a^x f(t)dt \quad a \leq x \leq b$$

is continuous on $[a, b]$ and differentiable on (a, b) , and $g'(x) = f(x)$

2. If $f(x)$ is continuous on $[a, b]$, then

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

where $F(x)$ is any antiderivative of $f(x)$, that is, $F(x)$ is a function such that $F'(x) = f(x)$

The Indefinite Integral:

Given a function $F(x)$ with a derivative $\frac{d}{dx}F(x) = f(x)$, we say

$$\int f(x)dx = F(x) + C.$$

This is because there are a "family" of functions with the derivative $f(x)$ and they all differ only by a constant.

A Note about the Indefinite Integral:

Given $\int f(x)dx = F(x) + C$, we say that this is, "the integral(' \int ') of $f(x)$ with respect to x (' dx ')."

Common Indefinite Integral:

- ▶ $\int cf(x)dx = c \int f(x)dx$
- ▶ $\int (f(x) + g(x)) dx = \int f(x)dx + \int g(x)dx$
- ▶ $\int kdx = kx + C$
- ▶ $\int x^n dx = \frac{1}{n}x^{n+1}$
- ▶ $\int \frac{1}{x} dx = \ln(x) + C$
- ▶ $\int f'(x)e^{f(x)} dx = e^{f(x)} + C$ (sometimes written, using substitution,
as $\int e^u du = e^u + C$)

More Common Indefinite Integral:

- ▶ $\int \cos(x) dx = \sin(x) + C$
- ▶ $\int \sin(x) dx = -\cos(x) + C$
- ▶ $\int \sec(x)^2 dx = \tan(x) + C$
- ▶ $\int \csc(x)^2 dx = -\cot(x) + C$
- ▶ $\int \sec(x) \tan(x) dx = \sec(x) + C$
- ▶ $\int \csc(x) \cot(x) dx = -\csc(x) + C$

The Definite Integral:

Given a function $F(x)$ with a derivative $\frac{d}{dx}F(x) = f(x)$, we say

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

A Note about the Definite Integral:

Given $\int_a^b f(x)dx = F(b) - F(a)$, we say that this is, "the integral(' f ')
from a to b of $f(x)$ with respect to x (' dx ')."

Properties of the Definite Integral:

- ▶ $\int_a^b c \, dx = c(b - a)$, c 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 is a constant
- ▶ $\int_a^b f(x) \, dx = - \int_b^a f(x) \, dx$
- ▶ $\int_a^b f(x) \, dx = \int_a^c f(x) \, dx + \int_c^b f(x) \, dx$, where $c \in (a, b)$

Comparison Properties of the Definite Integral:

- ▶ If $f(x) \geq 0$ for all x such that $a \leq x \leq b$, then $\int_a^b f(x)dx \geq 0$
- ▶ If $f(x) \geq g(x)$ for all x such that $a \leq x \leq b$, then
$$\int_a^b f(x)dx \geq \int_a^b g(x)dx$$
- ▶ If $m \leq f(x) \leq M$ for all x such that $a \leq x \leq b$, then
$$m(b-a) \leq \int_a^b f(x)dx \leq M(b-a)$$

Area between Two Curves:

The area between two curves is,

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{k=1}^n |f(x_k^*) - g(x_k^*)| \Delta x = \int_a^b |f(x) - g(x)| dx$$

Volume of a Solid:

To find the volume of a solid, we calculate

$$V = \int_a^b A(x) dx = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{k=1}^n A(x_k^*) \Delta x.$$

A note: the function $A(x)$, the cross-sectional area of our solid at some x value, is going to depend on the solid.

Volume of a Solid of Revolution

The Disk Method:

When restricted to the volume of a solid of revolution (a solid formed by revolving a region, under a curve, about an axis), we calculate

$$V = \int_a^b \pi f(x)^2 dx.$$

A note: here $A(x) = \pi f(x)^2$, the cross-sectional area of a disk at x formed by revolving our function about the axis.

Volume of a Solid of Revolution

The Washer Method:

To find the volume between two solids of revolution, we evaluate

$$V = \int_a^b \pi |f(x)^2 - g(x)^2| dx.$$

A note: here $A_1(x) = \pi f(x)^2$ and $A_2(x) = \pi g(x)^2$, are the cross-sectional area of disks at x formed by revolving our functions about the axis. Notice too, that since π is positive we just factored it out side of the absolute value.

Work

Given a force F , which can be written as a function $f(x)$ of distance/position, being applied to an object over some distance, let's say $x = a$ to $x = b$; then, the work done by the thing applying the force is

$$W = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{k=1}^n f(x_k^*) \Delta x = \int_a^b f(x) dx = \int_a^b F dx.$$

The Mean Value Theorem for Integrals

If f is continuous on $[a, b]$, then there exists at least one number c in $[a, b]$ such that

$$\frac{1}{b-a} \int_a^b f(x) dx = f(c) = f_{\text{ave. on } [a,b]}$$

or

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

Supplemental Reading

Calculus 8th edition by James Stewart:

- ▶ Chapter 5

The Calculus Story A Mathematical Adventure by David Acheson:

- ▶ Chapter 8

The Cartoon Guide to Calculus by Larry Gonick:

- ▶ Chapter 11 through 13

Schaum's Outline - Calculus 6th Edition by Frank Ayres, Jr, PhD and Elliott Mendelson, PhD:

- ▶ Chapter 29 and 30