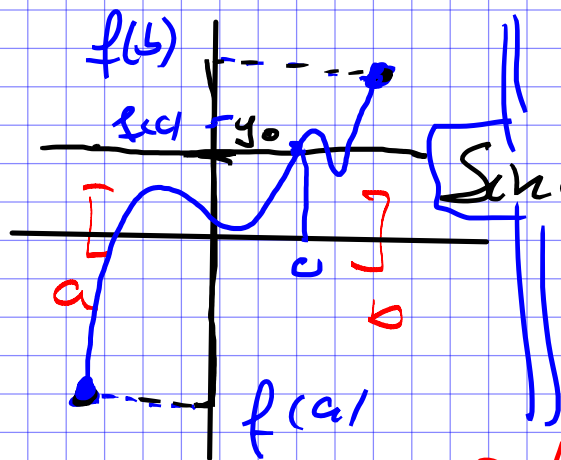


Intuitively: A function f is continuous on $[a, b]$ if we can draw its graph without lifting the pen from the paper.

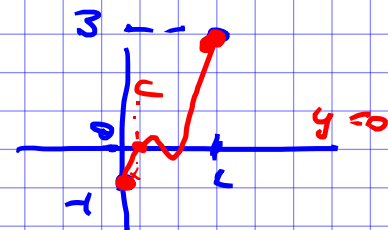
Intermediate Value theorem

Let $f: [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be continuous
For every value y_0 in between $f(a)$ and $f(b)$
there exists $c \in [a, b]$ such that $f(c) = y_0$.



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

Since $f(0) = -1$ $f(1) = 3$, there exists $c \in (0, 1)$
such that $f(c) = 0$



Q: how we can find c ?

E.g. Newton's method

Classification of critical points (i.e. $f'(x)=0$)

If $x \in (a,b)$ ($a < x < b$) is a critical point of f

$x < x_0$	x_0	$x > x_0$
f'	$+$	$-$
f	$\nearrow$	$\searrow$

1) If the sign of f' changes from positive to negative then x is a local maximum

2) If the sign of f' changes from negative to positive then x is a local minimum

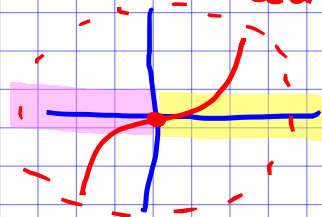
Example

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

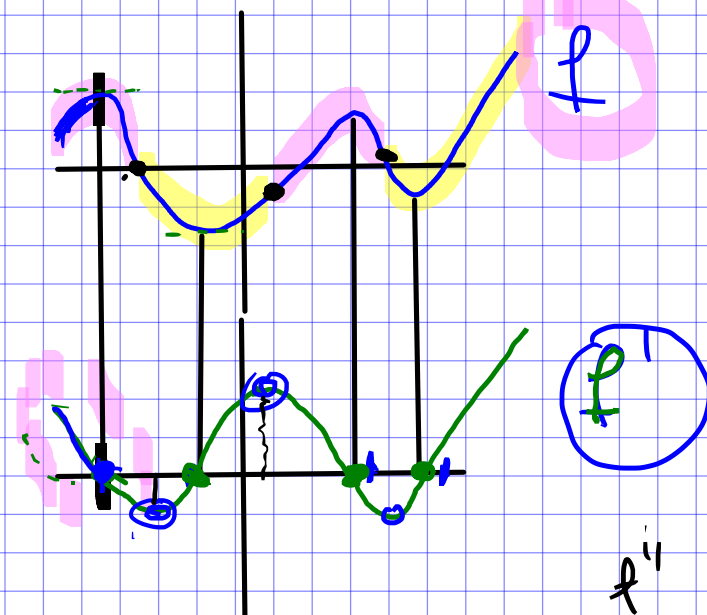
$$f'(x) = 3x^2 \quad (x=0 \text{ is a critical point})$$

$$\left[\begin{array}{l} f'(x) > 0 \text{ on } I \\ \Leftrightarrow f \uparrow \text{ on } I \\ f'(x) < 0 \text{ on } I \\ \Leftrightarrow f \downarrow \text{ on } I \end{array} \right]$$

but not an extremum.



x	$x < 0$	0	$x > 0$
f'	$+$	0	$+$
f	$\nearrow$	$\rightarrow$	$\nearrow$



Recall: $f(x) = ax^2 + bx + c$ is convex if $a \geq 0$ $\Leftrightarrow f''(x) \geq 0$

$f(x) = ax^2 + bx + c$ is concave if $a \leq 0$ $\Leftrightarrow f''(x) \leq 0$

$f'(x) = 2ax + b$

$f''(x) = 2a$

We say that f is convex on an interval I if for all $x \in I$ $f''(x) \geq 0$

We say that f is concave on an interval I if for all $x \in I$ $f''(x) \leq 0$

A point x_0 is an inflection point for f if f passes from convex to concave or concave to convex at x_0

that is

• $(f')'(x)$ passes from positive to negative at x_0

or • $(f')'(x)$ passes from negative to positive at x_0

that is

f' has a (local) maximum point at x_0

or f' has a (local) minimum point at x_0

So an inflection point is a point where the slope achieves a maximum or a minimum

Example Find all inflection points to

$$f(x) = x^6 - 10x^4$$

Note $f'(x) = 6x^5 - 40x^3$

$$f''(x) = 30x^4 - 120x^2 = 30x^2(x^2 - 4) = 30x^2(x-2)(x+2)$$

So potential inflection points are $x=0, 2, -2$

	-2	0	2
$30x^2$			
$x-2$			
$x+2$			
$f''(x)$			
$f(x)$			

Test yourself! Attempt to solve the following exercises

Consider the function $f(x) = \frac{1}{3}x^3 + \frac{1}{2}x^2 - 6x + 8$.

- (a) Find the critical points;
- (b) Find the intervals on which f is increasing and decreasing;
- (c) Is there any inflection point? Argue your answer.
- (d) Give the maximum and minimum value of f on the interval $[0, 3]$.

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5. Let $g(x) = \sqrt[3]{1+x}$.

- (a) Find $T_2(x)$, the 2nd-order Taylor approximation of g around $x = 0$.
- (b) Show that the error term $R_3(x) = g(x) - T_2(x)$ satisfies $|R_3(x)| \leq \frac{5x^3}{81}$, for $x \geq 0$.
- (c) Use $T_2(x)$ to compute $\sqrt[3]{1002}$ to 7 decimal places. *Hint: use $1002 = 1000(1 + \frac{2}{1000})$.*

} 2018

Find the following limits, if they exist.

(a) $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{x^2}{2-x} + x$

(b) $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{e^{x^2} - 1}{x \ln(2+x)}$

Consider the curve given implicitly by the equation $y^3 + x^2y = 10$. (This defines y as a function of x .)

- (a) Find $y(1)$.
- (b) Find the equation of the tangent line to this curve at the point $(1, y(1))$.

Lecture 7

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} f(x) \longrightarrow f'(x) \\ x^r \quad \quad r x^{r-1} \\ e^x \quad \quad e^x \\ \ln x \quad \quad \frac{1}{x} \end{array} \right.$$

We would like to look at the following question

Given $f(x)$ find $F(x)$ such that $F'(x) = f(x)$
(F is called a primitive for f)

Example

Given $f(x) = x^3$. Can we find $F(x)$ such that $F'(x) = x^3$?

Note that if we take $F(x) = Ax^4$ we have that

$$F'(x) = 4Ax^3 \stackrel{?}{=} x^3 = 1x^3$$

so it's enough to take $A = \frac{1}{4}$

$$\left[F(x) = \frac{1}{4} x^4 \text{ satisfies that } \underline{F'(x) = x^3} \right]$$

Observe also that the same is satisfied by

$$F(x) = \frac{1}{4}x^4 + 3 \quad \text{or} \quad F(x) = \frac{1}{4}x^4 - 10$$

indeed

$$F(x) = \frac{1}{4}x^4 + C \quad \text{where } C \in \mathbb{R}.$$

$F(x)$ is a primitive for $f(x)$

- $F(x)$ is a primitive for $f(x)$ if for all x $F'(x) = f(x)$
- If a function f has a primitive $F(x)$ all other primitives are of the form $F(x) + C$

The collection of all primitives of f is denoted by

$$\left[\int f(x) dx = \underline{\text{indefinite integral of } f} \right]$$

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

Example

$$\left[\int x^3 dx = \frac{x^4}{4} + C \quad C \in \mathbb{R}. \right]$$

Properties

$$i) \int (f(x) \pm g(x)) dx = \int f(x) dx \pm \int g(x) dx$$

$$ii) \int A f(x) dx = A \int f(x) dx$$

$$r \neq -1 \quad \int x^r dx = \frac{x^{r+1}}{r+1} + C \quad \left. \begin{array}{l} (r \neq -1) \\ C \in \mathbb{R} \end{array} \right\}$$

$$\left[\int x^{-1} dx = \ln|x| + C \quad C \in \mathbb{R} \right]$$

$$\left[\int e^x dx = e^x + C \quad C \in \mathbb{R} \right]$$

Example

$$\begin{aligned} i) \int (\sqrt{x} + 3x^2) dx &= \int x^{\frac{1}{2}} dx + 3 \int x^2 dx \\ &= \frac{x^{\frac{1}{2}+1}}{\frac{1}{2}+1} + C_1 + 3 \frac{x^3}{3} + 3C_2 = \frac{x^{3/2}}{3/2} + x^3 + C \quad C \in \mathbb{R} \end{aligned}$$

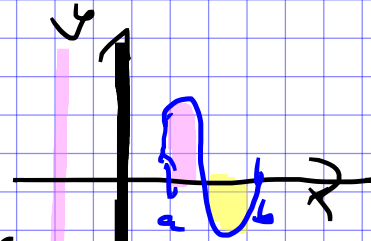
$$\begin{aligned} ii) \int 2^x dx &= \frac{2}{\frac{1}{2}} x^{3/2} + x^3 + C \quad C \in \mathbb{R} \\ 2^x &= e^{\ln(2^x)} = e^{x(\ln 2)} \quad \left| \int 2^x dx = \int e^{(\ln 2)x} dx \right. \end{aligned}$$

Calculus of Areas

Given a function $f: [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ we consider

the region between the graph of f and the x -axis

limited by a and b



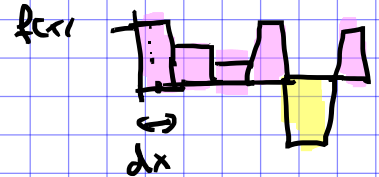
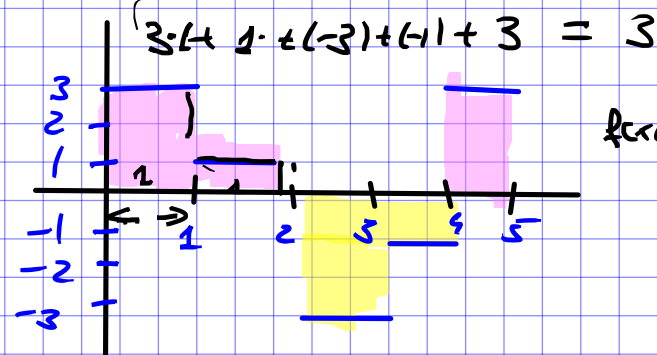
$$\sum \left(\frac{f(x_i) - f(x_{i-1})}{dx} \right) \int_a^b f(x) dx$$

Example

We play at the casino

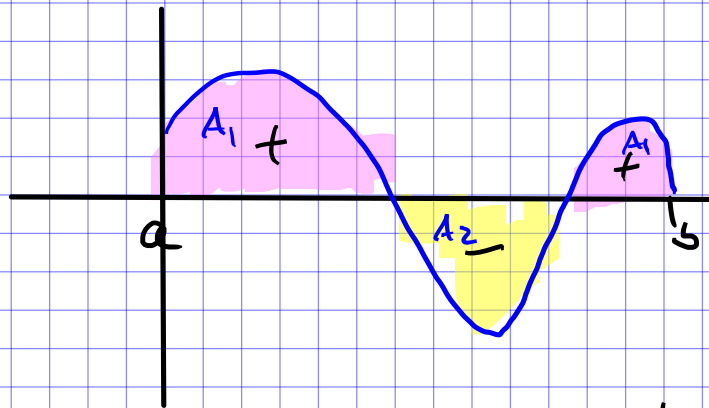
and we plot every hour
how much we gain/lose

The area over the x -axis
represents positive profit
& under negative profit.



[The total "area" represents the profit (if positive)
or losses (if negative)]

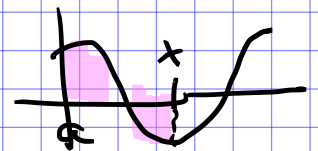
In general ; we define the signed area as the difference between the area over the x -axis minus that under the axis



We denote that area

$$\left[\int_a^b f(x) dx \right] = A_1 - A_2$$

Theorem (Fundamental theorem of Calculus)



Let $f: [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be continuous

i) For every $x \in [a, b]$ the area integral

$$[A'(x) = f(x)] \quad A(x) = \int_a^x f(s) ds$$

is a primitive of f

(Continuous functions have a primitive)

ii) If F is (another) primitive of f

$$\int_a^b f(s) ds = F(b) - F(a) =: F(x) \Big|_a^b$$

Example Find the area over the x-axis and under the graph

$$[y = -x^2 + 4x - 3]$$

We first need to visualise that area

$y(x)$ describes a concave parabola

$$(y''(x) = -2 < 0)$$

that has a global maximum at $x=2$

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow +\infty} y(x) = -\infty$$

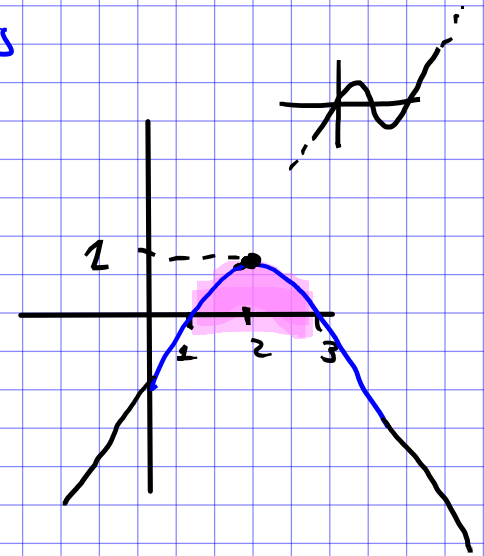
&

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow -\infty} y(x) = -\infty$$

$$\left[\begin{array}{l} y'(x) = -2x + 4 = 0 \Leftrightarrow x = 2 \\ \text{(critical point)} \\ y(2) = -4 + 8 - 3 = 1 \end{array} \right.$$

x	$x < 2$	2	$x > 2$
y''	+	0	-
y	↗	—	↘

$x=2$
local maximum.



and intersects the x-axis at $x=1$ and $x=3$

$$y(x) = 0 \Leftrightarrow x = \frac{-4 \pm \sqrt{16 - 12}}{-2} = \frac{-4 \pm \sqrt{4}}{-2} = \frac{-4 \pm 2}{-2} = \begin{cases} \frac{-4+2}{-2} = 1 \\ \frac{-4-2}{-2} = 3 \end{cases}$$

We want to calculate

$$\int_1^3 (-x^2 + 4x - 3) dx = A, \text{ so we need a primitive for } f(x) = -x^2 + 4x - 3$$

$$\int (-x^2 + 4x - 3) dx = - \int x^2 dx + 4 \int x^1 dx - 3 \int 1 dx$$

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

$$= -\frac{x^3}{3} + 2x^2 - 3x + C \quad C \in \mathbb{R}. \quad]$$

So $\left[F(x) = -\frac{x^3}{3} + 2x^2 - 3x \right]$ is a primitive for $f(x)$

By the Fundamental theorem of calculus

$$\int_1^3 (-x^2 + 4x - 3) dx = F(3) - F(1) \left(=: F(x) \Big|_1^3 \right)$$

$$\left[F(3) = -\frac{3^3}{3} + 2 \cdot 3^2 - 3^2 = -3^2 + 2 \cdot 3^2 - 3^2 = 3^2(-1+2-1) = 0 \right]$$

$$\left[F(1) = -\frac{1}{3} + 2 - 3 = -\frac{1}{3} - 1 = -\frac{4}{3} \right]$$

Then

$$\int_1^3 (-x^2 + 4x - 3) dx = 0 - \left(-\frac{4}{3} \right) = \frac{4}{3}.$$

Properties of the definite integral

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

$$ii) \int_a^b A f(x) dx = A \int_a^b f(x) dx$$

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

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

$$v) \left(\int_a^x f(s) ds \right)' = f(x)$$



$$\left[\int_1^2 f(x) dx = - \int_2^1 f(x) dx \right]$$

Example Calculate

$$\frac{d}{dx} \left[\int_0^{x^2} e^s ds \right] = \left[F(u) = \int_0^u e^s ds \right]_{u(x)=x^2} = \frac{d}{dx} \left[F(x^2) \right]$$

$$= \left(\frac{dF}{du} \right) \left(\frac{du}{dx} \right) = e^{x^2} \cdot 2x$$

$$\int_0^{x^2} e^s ds = G(x^2) - G(0) = e^{x^2} - e^0 = e^{x^2} - 1$$

where $G(u)$ is a primitive of

$$e^u \mid \frac{d}{du} (e^u) = e^u \rightarrow \int e^u du = e^u + C$$

$$\left. \begin{aligned} \frac{d}{dx} (e^{x^2} - 1) &= \\ &= e^{x^2} \cdot 2x \end{aligned} \right\}$$

Integration by parts

Note that

$$\int f'(x) dx = f(x) + C \quad C \in \mathbb{R}.$$

We have

$$(u \cdot v)'(x) = u'(x)v(x) + u(x)v'(x)$$

$$\int (u \cdot v)' dx = u \cdot v + C$$

Then

$$\int (u \cdot v)'(x) dx = \int u'(x)v(x) dx + \int u(x)v'(x) dx$$

That is

$$\int u(x)v'(x) dx = (u \cdot v)(x) - \int u'(x)v(x) dx$$

[Integration by parts formula]

Example

$$\begin{aligned} \text{i) } \int x e^x dx &= \left[\begin{array}{l} u = x \\ v' = e^x \end{array} \quad \begin{array}{l} u' = 1 \\ v = e^x \end{array} \right] = x e^x - \int 1 \cdot e^x dx \\ &= x e^x - e^x + C \quad C \in \mathbb{R}. \end{aligned}$$

$$ii) \int \ln x \, dx = \int 1 \cdot \ln x \, dx = \left[\begin{array}{ll} u = \ln x & u' = \frac{1}{x} \\ v' = 1 & v = x \end{array} \right]$$

Integration by substitution

$$\int f(u(x)) u'(x) dx = \int f(u) du$$

If $F(u)$ is a primitive for $f(u)$ and $u = u(x)$

$$\frac{d}{dx} [F(u(x))] = F'(u(x)) \cdot u'(x) = f(u(x)) \cdot u'(x)$$

So

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

Example

$$i) \int (x^2 + 1)^{2021} x dx = \left[\begin{array}{l} u(x) = x^2 + 1 \\ u'(x) = 2x \end{array} \right]$$

$$= \int (u(x))^{2021} \frac{1}{2} u'(x) dx = \frac{1}{2} \int u^{2021} du = \frac{u^{2022}}{2 \cdot (2021)} + C'$$

$$= \frac{(x^2 + 1)^{2022}}{4042} + C'$$

Integration by substitution (Procedure)

▷ Find a change of variable $u(x)$ so that $f(x)$ is close to the form $g(u(x)) \cdot u'(x)$

▷ Write $\int f(x) dx$ in the form $\int g(u) du$

▷ Integrate $\int g(u) du = G(u) + C$

▷ Write back $G(u)$ as $G(u(x))$

$$\text{ii)} \int x^3 (x^2+1)^{\frac{1}{2}} dx = \frac{1}{2} \int x^2 (x^2+1)^{\frac{1}{2}} 2x dx = \left[\begin{array}{l} u(x) = x^2+1 \rightarrow x^2 = u-1 \\ u'(x) = 2x \end{array} \right]$$

$$\text{iii)} \int \frac{e^{\sqrt{x}}}{\sqrt{x}} dx$$

Integrals of rational functions $\int \frac{P(x)}{Q(x)} dx$

1st step: If needed, use polynomial division to write

$$\frac{P(x)}{Q(x)} = r(x) + \frac{q(x)}{Q(x)} \quad \text{with } \deg(q) < \deg(Q)$$

So

$$\int \frac{P(x)}{Q(x)} dx = \int r(x) dx + \int \frac{q(x)}{Q(x)} dx$$

2nd step To integrate $\int \frac{q(x)}{Q(x)} dx$ one needs to rewrite $\frac{q(x)}{Q(x)}$ by, possibly factoring $Q(x)$ (Partial fractions)

Example Calculate $\int \frac{x^4 + 3x - 4}{x^2 + 2x} dx$

1) Polynomial division gives

$$\int \frac{x^4 + 3x - 4}{x^2 + 2x} dx = \underbrace{\int (x^2 - 2x - 7) dx}_{\frac{x^3}{3} - x^2 - 7x + C_1} + \int \frac{14x + 4}{x^2 + 2x} dx$$

Now $x^2+2x = x(x+2)$ so one can re-write for suitable $A, B \in \mathbb{R}$

$$\frac{14x+4}{x^2+2x} = \frac{14x+4}{x(x+2)} \stackrel{?}{=} \frac{A}{x} + \frac{B}{x+2} = \frac{A(x+2)+Bx}{x(x+2)} = \frac{(A+B)x+2A}{x(x+2)}$$

We look for A, B satisfying

$$\left. \begin{array}{l} A+B=14 \\ 2A=4 \end{array} \right\} \Leftrightarrow$$

$$\boxed{\begin{array}{l} B=12 \\ A=2 \end{array}}$$

In this way

$$\int \frac{14x+4}{x^2+2x} dx = A \underbrace{\int \frac{dx}{x}}_{\ln|x|+C'} + B \underbrace{\int \frac{dx}{x+2}}_{\ln|x+2|+C'}$$

Answer: $= \ln x^2 + \ln (x+2)^{12} + C = \ln (x^2(x+2)^{12}) + C$

$$\int \frac{x^4+3x-4}{x^2+2x} dx = \frac{x^3}{3} - x^2 - 7x + \ln (x^2(x+2)^{12}) + C'$$

Improper integrals

Sometimes makes sense considering integrals of the form

$$\int_a^{+\infty} f(x) dx \quad \text{or} \quad \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} f(x) dx \quad \text{or} \quad \int_{-\infty}^a f(x) dx$$

for f continuous

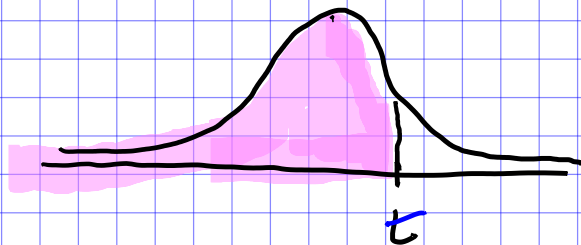
Example:

$$\frac{1}{\sigma\sqrt{2\pi}} \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} g(x) e^{-\frac{1}{2}\left(\frac{x-\mu}{\sigma}\right)^2} dx$$

Normal distribution of mean μ and variance σ^2 .

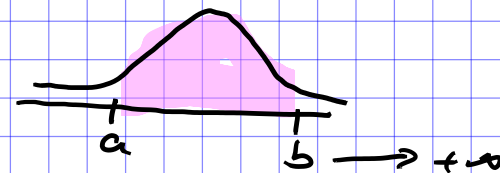
If $g(x) = 1_A(x)$
 $\left[X \sim N(\mu, \sigma^2) \right]$
 $= P(X \in A)$

$$\frac{1}{\sigma\sqrt{2\pi}} \int_{-\infty}^t e^{-\frac{1}{2}\left(\frac{x-\mu}{\sigma}\right)^2} dx = P(X \leq t) \quad (\text{Distribution function})$$



One defines

$$\int_a^{+\infty} f(x) dx := \lim_{b \rightarrow +\infty} \int_a^b f(x) dx$$



(provided the limit exists)

Analogously we define

$$\int_{-\infty}^b f(x) dx := \lim_{a \rightarrow -\infty} \int_a^b f(x) dx \quad \& \quad \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} f(x) dx = \int_{-\infty}^0 f(x) dx + \int_0^{+\infty} f(x) dx$$

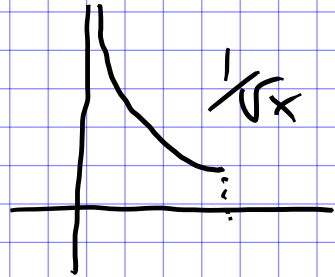
Example $\lambda > 0$

$$\int_0^{+\infty} \lambda e^{-\lambda x} dx = \lim_{b \rightarrow +\infty} \int_0^b \lambda e^{-\lambda x} dx = \lim_{b \rightarrow +\infty} -e^{-\lambda x} \Big|_0^b$$

$$= \lim_{b \rightarrow +\infty} (1 - e^{-\lambda b}) = 1.$$

Integrals of unbounded functions

Example The function $\frac{1}{\sqrt{x}}$ is unbounded on $(0, 1]$



but we would like to give sense to

$$\int_0^1 \frac{1}{\sqrt{x}} dx = \lim_{a \rightarrow 0^+} \int_a^1 \frac{1}{\sqrt{x}} dx$$

$$= \lim_{a \rightarrow 0^+} 2\sqrt{x} \Big|_a^1 =$$

$$= \lim_{a \rightarrow 0^+} (2 - 2\sqrt{a}) = 2.$$

If $\lim_{x \rightarrow a^+} f(x) = \pm\infty$ one defines

$$\int_a^b f(x) dx = \lim_{x \rightarrow a^+} \int_x^b f(x) dx$$

assuming that the limit exists.

A *geometric progression* is a sequence of numbers (*finite or infinite*)

$$a_1, a_2, a_3, \dots$$

with the property that the *ratio* $\frac{a_{n+1}}{a_n}$ is the same for all n .

In other words, a geometric progression is a sequence of the following form

$$a, ar, ar^2, \dots, ar^{n-1}, \dots$$

a is the *initial term* of the sequence and r is the *ratio*.

Example

i) $3, -6, 12, -24, \dots$

is a geometric progression
of ratio (-2) and initial term 3
is a geometric progression

ii) $k \left(1 \pm \frac{r}{100}\right)^n \quad n = 0, 1, 2, \dots$

Initial
Capital

Compound interest
after n -years

$$1 \pm \frac{r}{100} = \text{growth factor}$$

Geometric Series

This year a firm has an annual revenue of \$100 million that it expects to increase by 16% per year throughout the next decade. How large is its expected revenue in the tenth year, and what is the total revenue expected over the whole period?

→ The expected revenue in the tenth year

$$100 \left(1 + \frac{16}{100}\right)^9 =: k r^9$$

$$k = 100$$

$$r = 1 + \frac{16}{100} = 1.16$$

→ The total revenue over the decade

$$R = k + k \cdot r + k \cdot r^2 + k r^3 + \dots + k r^9$$

$$= k \left(1 + r + r^2 + r^3 + \dots + r^9 \right)$$

Lets call this $S(10)$

(I'm lazy to do the sum Term by term)

Note that

$$r S(9) = r + r^2 + \dots + r^9 + r^{10} = S(10) - 1 + r^{10}$$

So solving for $S(9)$ we get

$$(r-1) S(9) = r^{10} - 1 \Leftrightarrow S(9) = \frac{r^{10} - 1}{r - 1} \quad (r \neq 1)$$

So
$$R = k \frac{r^{10} - 1}{r - 1} = 100 \cdot \frac{\left(1 + \frac{16}{100}\right)^{10} - 1}{\frac{16}{100}} = 100^2 \left((1.16)^{10} - 1 \right)$$

In general

$$k + kr + \dots + kr^n = k \frac{r^{n+1} - 1}{r - 1}$$

Q: How many years will take for the revenue to be at least $10 \cdot k$ millions?

One needs to find the smallest n such that

$$k \frac{r^{n+1} - 1}{r - 1} \geq 10 \cdot k$$

$$\Leftrightarrow r^{n+1} - 1 \geq 10(r - 1) \Leftrightarrow r^{n+1} \geq 10(r - 1) + 1$$

$$\Leftrightarrow (n+1) \ln r \geq \ln(10(r - 1) + 1)$$

$$\Leftrightarrow n+1 \geq \frac{\ln(10(r-1+1))}{\ln r}$$

In the case above $r = 1 + \frac{16}{100} = 1,16$

$$n+1 \geq \frac{\ln(2,6)}{\ln(1,16)} \approx 6,4378$$

So $n+1$ has to be at least 7.

(Answer: we need to wait 7 years for the revenues to be larger than 10.k

