# DEFINITIONS/BIG-TIME FACTS TO KNOW FOR TEST 1 

CALCULUS II

## DEFINITIONS

line tangent to $f(x)$ at $x=a$
(geometric) a line that intersects the curve defined by $f$ at $x=a$ and goes in the same direction as the curve defined by $f$
(algebraic) the line $y=m(x-a)+f(a)$ where $m=f^{\prime}(a)$
derivative of $f(x)$ at $x=a$
(geometric) the slope of the line tangent to $f$ at $a$
(algebraic) $f^{\prime}(x)=\frac{d y}{d x}=\lim _{\Delta x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\Delta x}{\Delta y}=\lim _{x \rightarrow a} \frac{f(x)-f(a)}{x-a}=\lim _{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(x+b)-f(x)}{b}$
$f$ is continuous on $[a, b]$
(geometric) $f$ is unbroken: no gaps, jumps, or asymptotes
(precise) for any $c \in[a, b]$, we can find the limit of $f$ at $c$ by substitution; that is, $\lim _{x \rightarrow c} f(x)=f(c)$
Example. Polynomials are always continuous. The rational function $f(x)=1 / x$ is continuous everywhere except $x=0$, where it has an asymptote.
$f$ is differentiable on $(a, b)$
(geometric) $f$ is smooth: no corners, cusps, or breaks (precise) for any $c \in(a, b)$, we can find the derivative of $f$ at $c$
Example. Polynomials are always differentiable. The absolute-value function $f(x)=|x|$ is always continuous and differentiable everywhere except $x=0$.

## Rieman Sum

(geometric) an approximation of the area under a curve using a finite number of rectangles (algebraic) $\sum_{i=1}^{n} f\left(x_{i}^{*}\right) \Delta x$, where $\Delta x=(b-a) / n$ and $x_{i}^{*}$ is any point in the $i$ th subinterval of width $\Delta x$ of $[a, b]$

## choices of sample point for Riemann sums

right endpoint $x_{i}^{*}=a+i \Delta x$
left endpoint $\quad x_{i}^{*}=a+(i-1) \Delta x$
midpoint $\quad x_{i}^{*}=a+(i-1 / 2) \Delta x$
(definite) integral of $f(x)$ over $[a, b]$
(geometric) the net area between the curve of $f(x)$ and the $x$-axis, starting at $x=a$ and ending at $x=b$ ("net" means it can be negative or zero)
(algebraic) $\lim _{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{i=1}^{n} f\left(x_{i}^{*}\right) \Delta x$, where $\Delta x={ }^{(b-a)} / n$ and $x_{i}^{*}$ is any point in the $i$ th subinterval of width $\Delta x$ of $[a, b]$, as long as the limit exists
Remark 1. We typically use right endpoints when computing the exact value of the definite integral.
Remark 2. Pay attention to what a problem asks. If it asks you to compute an integral using the definition, you must use the limit definition provided here. If, however, it asks you to compute or approximate an integral using geometry, you must make an argument using mere geometry, without recourse to limits or algebra. You absolutely may not use any shortcuts that were discussed after we began discussing the Fundamental Theorem of Calculus.
Example. The graph of $f(x)=\sqrt{a^{2}-x^{2}}$ is a semicircle from $[-a, a]$. Hence $\int_{-a}^{a} \sqrt{a^{2}-x^{2}} d x=$ $\pi a^{2} / 2$ while $\int_{0}^{a} \sqrt{a^{2}-x^{2}} d x=\pi a^{2} / 4$.
$f$ is integrable over [a, b]:
(geometric) we can find the area between the curve defined by $f$ over $[a, b]$ and the $x$-axis (algebraic) the limit $\lim _{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{i=1}^{n} f\left(x_{i}^{*}\right) \Delta x$ converges, where $x_{i}^{*}$ and $\Delta x$ are defined as above
indeterminate form: any limit approaching the form $\pm \infty / \pm \infty, \%, \infty-\infty, 0 \times \infty, 0^{0}, 1^{\infty}, \infty^{0}$
Example. $\lim _{x \rightarrow \infty}\left(1+\frac{1}{x}\right)^{x}$ is an indeterminate form.

Big-time results or Tools

Fact (Interesting and important limits).
(a) $\lim _{x \rightarrow \infty} 1 / x=0$
(b) If the limit of an expression approach zero/zero, then there is more work to be done: either an algebraic massage, or L'Hôpital's Rule.
(c) If the limit of an expression approaches nonzero/zero, then
(i) the one-sided limit is some sort of infinity, and
(ii) the two-sided limit is either some sort of infinity, or doesn't exist (because the one-sided limits disagree).

Theorem (L'Hôpital's Rule). If

$$
\lim _{x \rightarrow a} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)}=\frac{ \pm \infty}{ \pm \infty} \quad \text { or } \quad \lim _{x \rightarrow a} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)}=\frac{0}{0}
$$

then

$$
\lim _{x \rightarrow a} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)}=\lim _{x \rightarrow a} \frac{f^{\prime}(x)}{g^{\prime}(x)}
$$

Fact (Newton's Method). Let $f$ be a differentiable function. If we know that $f\left(x_{i}\right) \approx 0$ - that is, $x_{i}$ is close to a root of $f-$ then we can often find a closer approximation to the root by
(i) building a line tange to $f$ at $x_{i}$, and
(ii) find the root (or $x$-intercept) of the tangent line.

We can express this as the following algorithm.
Algorithm (Newton's Method). Suppose $f$ is differentiable and has a root on $(a, b)$, which we want to approximate to d decimal places.
(1) Let $i=0$ and choose a reasonable initial approximation $x_{0}$;
(2) let $x_{i+1}=x_{i}-\frac{f\left(x_{i}\right)}{f^{\prime}\left(x_{i}\right)}$;
(3) if the first decimal places of $x_{i}$ and $x_{i+1}$ agree, then the root is approximately $x_{i}$;
(4) otherwise, let $x_{i}=x_{i+1}$, add 1 to $i$, and return to step 2.

Fact. If $a, b \neq 0$ and the numerator and denominator of the first fraction are both polynomials of degree $n$, then

$$
\lim _{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{a x^{n}+\cdots}{b x^{n}+\cdots}=\frac{a}{b}
$$

Proof. Notice that

$$
\lim _{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{a x^{n}+\cdots}{b x^{n}+\cdots} \rightarrow \frac{\infty}{\infty}
$$

so L'Hôpital's Rule applies. We take the derivative of the numerator and denominator to obtain polynomials of degree $n-1$ :

$$
\lim _{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{a x^{n}+\cdots}{b x^{n}+\cdots} \quad \overline{\overline{\mathrm{LH}}} \quad \lim _{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{a n x^{n-1}+\cdots}{b n x^{n-1}+\cdots} \rightarrow \frac{\infty}{\infty} .
$$

Again L'Hôpital's Rule applies. We take the derivative of the numerator and denominator to obtain polynomials of degree $n-2$ :

$$
\lim _{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{a n x^{n-1}+\cdots}{b n x^{n-1}+\cdots} \underset{\mathrm{LH}}{\overline{=}} \quad \lim _{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{a n(n-1) x^{n-2}+\cdots}{b n(n-1) x^{n-2}+\cdots} \rightarrow \frac{\infty}{\infty} .
$$

Again L'Hôpital's Rule applies. We can continue in this fashion until the degree of the numerator and denominator decreases to 0 , at which point we have

$$
\lim _{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{a n(n-1)(n-2) \cdots 3 \cdot 2 \cdot 1 \cdot x^{0}}{b n(n-1)(n-2) \cdots 3 \cdot 2 \cdot 1 \cdot x^{0}}
$$

What happened to the other terms in the numerator and denominator? Then had smaller degree, so they have already become zero. What little is left now reduces:

$$
\lim _{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{a n(n-1)(n-2) \cdots p \cdot 2 \cdot 1 \cdot x^{0}}{b n(n-1)(n-2) \cdots p b \cdot 2 \cdot 1 \cdot x^{0}}=\lim _{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{a}{b}
$$

Since $a$ and $b$ are nonzero constants,

$$
\lim _{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{a x^{n}+\cdots}{b x^{n}+\cdots}=\frac{a}{b}
$$

## EXAMPLE PROBLEMS

## This list is by no means exhaustive.

1. Compute the following limits. Use L'Hôpital's Rule only if necessary.

$$
\begin{array}{cccc}
\lim _{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{x+\sin 8 x}{x} & \lim _{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{x+\sin 8 x}{x^{2}} & \lim _{x \rightarrow 0^{+}} \frac{\sqrt{x}}{\ln x} & \lim _{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\sqrt{x}}{\ln x} \\
\lim _{x \rightarrow \infty}\left(x-\sqrt{x^{2}-9}\right) & \lim _{x \rightarrow \infty}\left(x-\sqrt{x^{2}-9 x}\right) & \lim _{x \rightarrow 0^{+}} x^{1 / x} & \lim _{x \rightarrow \infty}\left(1+\frac{2}{x}\right)^{x}
\end{array}
$$

2. Approximate a root to each function, correct to the thousandths place. Start by using a graph to estimate an initial approximation.
(a) $f(x)=x^{3}-2$
(b) $g(x)=\tan x-\sin x$ (a nonzero root; $x=0$ is too easy)
3. (a) Use Newton's Method to approximate $\sqrt[3]{2}$ correct to the thousandths place.
(b) Name two reasons Newton's Method can fail, even when the function has a root.
4. Find the indicated area using only geometric methods. Explain your computation. Drawing a picture would go a long way towards an explanation, but some words are probably necessary. Merely writing a formula is insufficient!

$$
\int_{a}^{b} c d x \quad \int_{-3}^{3} x d x \quad \int_{2}^{5} x d x \quad \int_{0}^{6}(3-x)-\sqrt{36-x^{2}} d x
$$

6. Approximate $\int_{2}^{5} x d x$ using three rectangles and
(a) left endpoints,
(b) right endpoints, and
(c) midpoints.

Compare your answers to the corresponding integral in \#4, and comment on the results (overestimate, underestimate, etc.).
7. Evaluate

$$
\int_{0}^{2} x^{2}-2 x d x
$$

using the definition of the integral and right endpoints as the sample points. Is this an overestimate, an underestimate, or other? Why?
8. A particle travels at $v(t)=(x-2)^{3}$ meters/second from $t=0$ to $t=4$ seconds.
(a) Use geometry to explain why the particle's displacement after four seconds is 0 .
(b) Divide the interval $[0,4]$ into four subintervals and use a Riemann sum with midpoints to approximate the particle's displacement. Explain why your approximation is so good in this case.
(c) Would you have such a good approximation if you used right endpoints instead? Why or why not?
(d) Use the definition of the integral and right endpoints to evaluate the displacement of the particle after 4 seconds. Notice that your answer should agree with part (a)!

