CALCULUS

DS1103

CHAPTER - 01

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The real number system

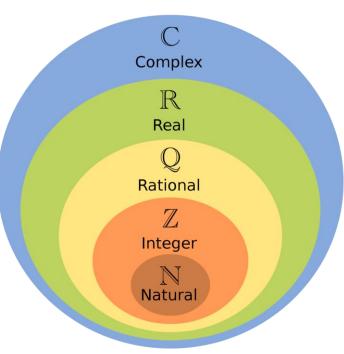
Numbers that can be represented on a number line are called real numbers. Set of real numbers is denoted by \mathbb{R} .

Axioms of the Set \mathbb{R}

Field Axioms:

A set $\mathbb R$ that has more than one element is said to be a field under two compositions of Addition and Multiplication defined in it if the following properties are satisfied for all $a,b,c\in\mathbb R$.

| Name | Addition | Multiplication |
|----------------|--|---|
| Closure | $a, b \in \mathbb{R} \Rightarrow a + b \in \mathbb{R}$ | $a, b \in \mathbb{R} \Rightarrow ab \in \mathbb{R}$ |
| Associativity | (a+b) + c = a + (b+c) | (ab)c = a(bc) |
| Identity | a+0=0+a=a | a1 = 1a = a |
| Inverse | a + (-a) = (-a) + a = 0 | $aa^{-1} = a^{-1}a = 1$, if $a \neq 0$ |
| Commutativity | a + b = b + a | ab = ba |
| Distributivity | a(b+c) = ab + ac | |



$$\mathbb{N}\subseteq\mathbb{Z}\subseteq\mathbb{Q}\subseteq\mathbb{R}$$

Order Axioms:

Generally, the order relation does not exists between the members of a set or filed. That means we cannot speak of one member being greater than or less than the other. A field is said to be an ordered field if it satisfies the following properties.

| Reflexivity | $a \le a$ | |
|--------------|---|--|
| Antisymmetry | $a \le b \text{ and } b \le a \Rightarrow a = b$ | |
| Transitivity | $a \le b \text{ and } b \le c \Rightarrow a \le c$ | |
| Trichotomy | Either $a < b$ or $a = b$ or $a > b$ | |
| | $a \le b \Rightarrow a + c \le b + c;$ $a \le b \text{ and } c \ge 0 \Rightarrow ac \le bc$ | |

! It can be easily seen that the set $\mathbb Q$ and $\mathbb R$ are ordered fields while the set $\mathbb N$ and $\mathbb Z$ are not fields.

Definition:

❖ Let S be a subset of \mathbb{R} . If there exists a real number m such that $m \ge s$ for all $s \in S$, then m is called an **upper bound** for S, and we say that S is bounded above.

If $m \leq s$ for all $s \in S$, then m is a **lower bound** for S and S is bounded below.

The set S is said to be **bounded** if it is bounded above and bounded below.

❖ If an upper bound m for S is a member of S, then m is called the **maximum** (or largest element) of S, and we write

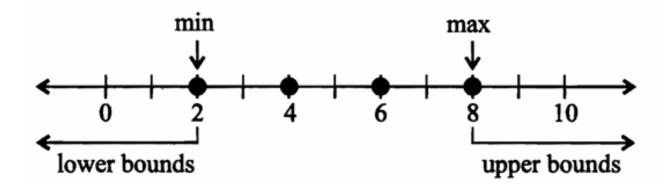
$$m = \max S$$

Similarly, if a lower bound of S is a member of S, then it is called the **minimum** (or least element) of S, denoted by **min S**.

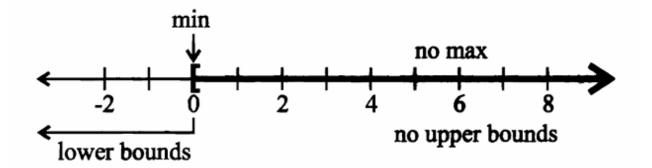
❖ A set may have upper or lower bounds, or it may have neither. If m is an upper bound for S, then any number grater than m is also an upper bound. While a set may have many upper and lower bounds, if it has a maximum or a minimum, then those values are unique.

Example: Let $A = (-\infty, 3)$. The set A is bounded above by 5, and it is not bounded below.

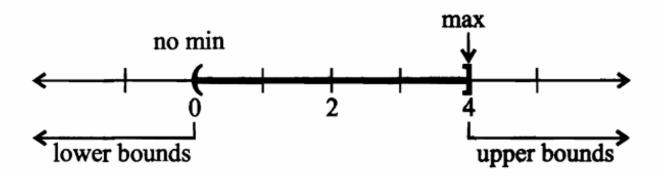
Example: The set $S = \{2,4,6,8\}$ is bounded above by 8 and any other real number grater than or equal to 8.



Example: The interval $[0, \infty)$ is not bonded above.



Example: The interval (0,4] has a maximum of 4, and this is the smallest of the upper bounds.



Example: Find upper and lower bounds, the maximum, and the minimum of the set $T = \{ q \in \mathbb{Q} : 0 \le q \le \sqrt{2} \}$, if they exist.

Definition: Let S be a nonempty subset of \mathbb{R} .

- (a) If S is bounded above and the set of all upper bounds of S has minimum, then we say that S has a least upper bound (l.u.b.) and the smallest upper bound is called the **supremum** of S and denote it by sup S.
- (b) If S is bounded below and the set of all lower bounds S maximum, then we say that S has a greatest lower bound (g.l.b) and the smallest lower bound is called the **infimum** of S and denote it by infS.

Clearly, $sup\ S$ and $inf\ S$ may or may not exist and in case exist, it may or may not belong to S.

Example: Find maximum and minimum, the supremum, and the infimum of the set $A = \{\frac{1}{n^2} : n \in \mathbb{N} \ and \ n \geq 3\}$, if they exist.

Example: Find maximum and minimum, the supremum, and the infimum of the set $D = \{x \in \mathbb{R} \ and \ x^2 < 10\}$, if they exist.

Example: Find maximum and minimum of the sets \mathbb{N} , \mathbb{Q} and \mathbb{Z} , if they exist.

Definition: If $x \in \mathbb{R}$, then the absolute value of x, denoted by |x|, is defined by

$$|x| = \begin{cases} x, & \text{if } x \ge 0, \\ -x, & \text{if } x < 0. \end{cases}$$

The basic properties of absolute value are summarized in the following theorem.



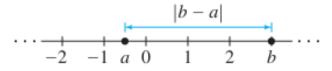
Theorem: Let $x, y \in \mathbb{R}$ and let $a \ge 0$. Then

(a)
$$|x| \ge 0$$
,

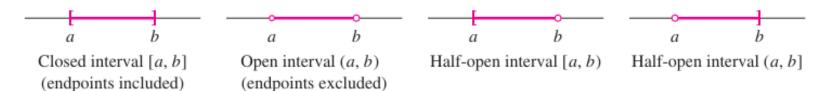
(b)
$$|x| \le a$$
 iff $-a \le x \le a$,

(c)
$$|xy| = |x| \cdot |y|$$
,

(d)
$$|x+y| \le |x| + |y|$$
.



❖ We use standard notation for intervals. Given real numbers a > b, there are four intervals with endpoints a and b.



$$[a,b] = \{x \in \mathbf{R} : a \le x \le b\} \qquad (a,b) = \{x : a < x < b\} \qquad [a,b) = \{x : a \le x < b\} \qquad (a,b] = \{x : a < x \le b\}$$

| Interval Notation | Inequality Notation | Line Graph |
|-------------------|---------------------|-----------------------|
| [a, b] | $a \le x \le b$ | a b x |
| [a,b) | $a \le x < b$ | a b x |
| (a, b] | $a < x \le b$ | a b x |
| (a, b) | a < x < b | a b x |
| $(-\infty,a]$ | $x \le a$ | $a \longrightarrow x$ |
| $(-\infty,a)$ | x < a | \xrightarrow{a} x |
| $[b,\infty)$ | $x \ge b$ | x |
| (b, ∞) | x > b | b |

• Open and closed intervals may be described by inequalities. For example, the interval (-r, r) is described by the inequality |x| < r.

$$|x| < r \quad \Leftrightarrow \quad -r < x < r \quad \Leftrightarrow \quad x \in (-r, r)$$

More generally, for an interval symmetric about the value c,

$$|x-c| < r \quad \Leftrightarrow \quad c-r < x < c+r \quad \Leftrightarrow \quad x \in (c-r,c+r)$$

Closed intervals are similar, with < replaced by \le . We refer to r as the **radius** and to c as the **midpoint** or **center**. The intervals (a, b) and [a, b] have midpoint $c = \frac{1}{2}(a + b)$ and radius $r = \frac{1}{2}(b - a)$

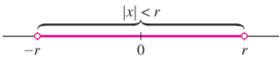


FIGURE The interval $(-r, r) = \{x : |x| < r\}.$

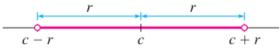


FIGURE (a, b) = (c - r, c + r), where

$$c = \frac{a+b}{2}, \qquad r = \frac{b-a}{2}$$

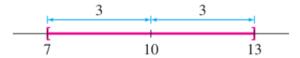


FIGURE The interval [7, 13] is described by $|x - 10| \le 3$.

EXAMPLE Describe [7, 13] using inequalities.

Solution The midpoint of the interval [7, 13] is $c = \frac{1}{2}(7+13) = 10$ and its radius is $r = \frac{1}{2}(13 - 7) = 3$ (Figure 3). Therefore,

$$[7, 13] = \{x \in \mathbf{R} : |x - 10| \le 3\}$$



Describe the set $S = \{x : \left| \frac{1}{2}x - 3 \right| > 4\}$ in terms of intervals.

Solution It is easier to consider the opposite inequality $\left|\frac{1}{2}x - 3\right| \le 4$ first.

$$\left| \frac{1}{2}x - 3 \right| \le 4 \quad \Leftrightarrow \quad -4 \le \frac{1}{2}x - 3 \le 4$$

$$-1 \le \frac{1}{2}x \le 7 \qquad \text{(add 3)}$$

$$-2 \le x \le 14 \qquad \text{(multiply by 2)}$$



by $|x - 10| \le 3$.

The interval [7, 13] is described by $|x - 10| \le 3$.

Thus, $\left|\frac{1}{2}x - 3\right| \le 4$ is satisfied when x belongs to [-2, 14]. The set S is the *complement*, consisting of all numbers x not in [-2, 14]. We can describe S as the union of two intervals: $S = (-\infty, -2) \cup (14, \infty)$ (Figure).

DEFINITION A function f from a set D to a set Y is a rule that assigns, to each element x in D, a unique element y = f(x) in Y. We write

$$f:D\to Y$$

The set D, called the **domain** of f, is the set of "allowable inputs." For $x \in D$, f(x) is called the **value** of f at x (Figure). The **range** R of f is the subset of Y consisting of all values f(x):

$$R = \{ y \in Y : f(x) = y \text{ for some } x \in D \}$$

Informally, we think of f as a "machine" that produces an output y for every input x in the domain D (Figure \cdot).

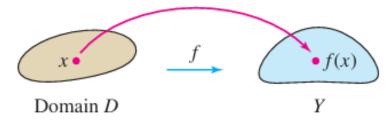


FIGURE A function assigns an element f(x) in Y to each $x \in D$.

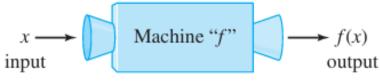


FIGURE Think of f as a "machine" that takes the input x and produces the output f(x).

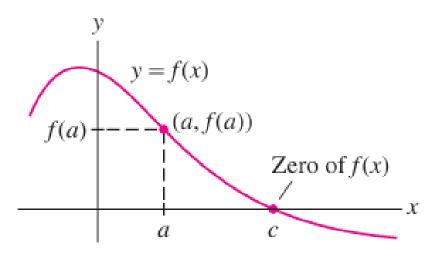
* The first part of this text deals with numerical functions f, where both the domain and the range are sets of real numbers. We refer to such a functions interchangeably a f or f(x). The letter x is used often to denote the independent variable that can take on any value in the domain D. We write y = f(x) and refer to y as the dependent variable.

When f is defined by a formula, its natural domain is the set of real numbers x for which the formula is meaningful. For example, the function $f(x) = \sqrt{9-x}$ has domain $D = \{x : x \le 9\}$ because $\sqrt{9-x}$ is defined if $9-x \ge 0$. Here are some other examples of domains and ranges:

| f(x) | Domain D | Range R |
|-----------------|--------------------|-------------------------|
| x^2 | R | $\{y:y\geq 0\}$ |
| cos x | R | $\{y: -1 \le y \le 1\}$ |
| $\frac{1}{x+1}$ | $\{x: x \neq -1\}$ | $\{y:y\neq 0\}$ |

The **graph** of a function y = f(x) is obtained by plotting the points (a, f(a)) for a in the domain D (Figure). If you start at x = a on the x-axis, move up to the graph and then over to the y-axis, you arrive at the value f(a). The absolute value |f(a)| is the distance from the graph to the x-axis.

A **zero** or **root** of a function f(x) is a number c such that f(c) = 0. The zeros are the values of x where the graph intersects the x-axis.



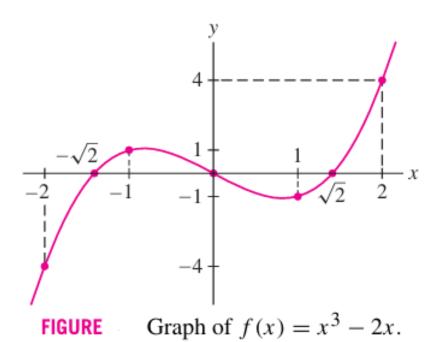
EXAMPLE Find the roots and sketch the graph of $f(x) = x^3 - 2x$.

Solution First, we solve

$$x^3 - 2x = x(x^2 - 2) = 0.$$

The roots of f(x) are x = 0 and $x = \pm \sqrt{2}$. To sketch the graph, we plot the roots and a few values listed in Table 1 and join them by a curve (Figure 1).

| TABLE 1 | | |
|---------|------------|--|
| х | $x^3 - 2x$ | |
| -2 | -4 | |
| -1 | 1 | |
| 0 | 0 | |
| 1 | -1 | |
| 2 | 4 | |



Vertical Line Test: A curve in the plane is the graph of a function if and only if each vertical line x = a intersects the curve in at most one point.

We can graph not just functions but, more generally, any equation relating y and x. Figure—shows the graph of the equation $4y^2 - x^3 = 3$; it consists of all pairs (x, y) satisfying the equation. This curve is not the graph of a function because some x-values are associated with two y-values. For example, x = 1 is associated with $y = \pm 1$. A curve is the graph of a function if and only if it passes the **Vertical Line Test**; that is, every vertical line x = a intersects the curve in at most one point.

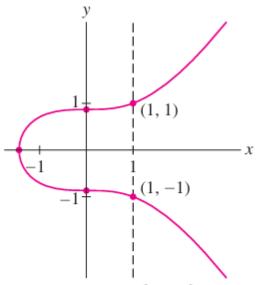


FIGURE Graph of $4y^2 - x^3 = 3$. This graph fails the Vertical Line Test, so it is not the graph of a function.

Increasing and Decreasing Functions

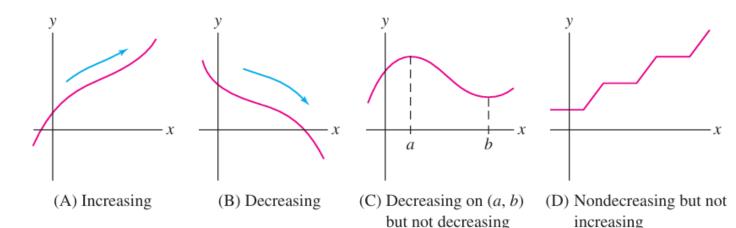
Increasing: $f(x_1) < f(x_2)$ if $x_1 < x_2$

Nondecreasing: $f(x_1) \le f(x_2)$ if $x_1 < x_2$

Decreasing: $f(x_1) > f(x_2)$ if $x_1 < x_2$

Nonincreasing: $f(x_1) \ge f(x_2)$ if $x_1 < x_2$

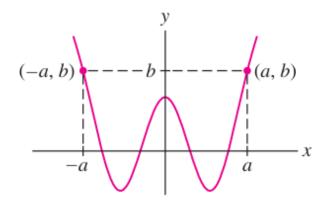
We say that f(x) is **monotonic** if it is either increasing or decreasing. In Figure $\gamma(C)$, the function is not monotonic because it is neither increasing nor decreasing for all x.

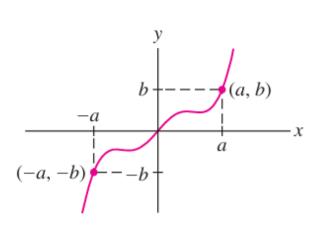


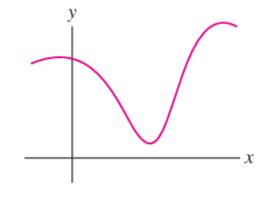
everywhere

***** Even function and Odd function

- f(x) is **even** if f(-x) = f(x)
- f(x) is **odd** if f(-x) = -f(x)







- (A) Even function: f(-x) = f(x)Graph is symmetric about the *y*-axis.
- (B) Odd function: f(-x) = -f(x)Graph is symmetric about the origin.
- (C) Neither even nor odd

EXAMPLE Determine whether the function is even, odd, or neither.

(a)
$$f(x) = x^4$$

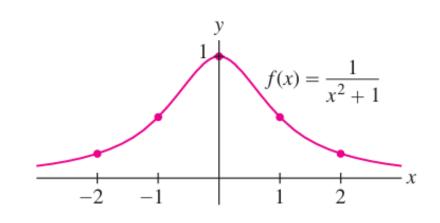
(b)
$$g(x) = x^{-1}$$

(b)
$$g(x) = x^{-1}$$
 (c) $h(x) = x^2 + x$

Solution

- (a) $f(-x) = (-x)^4 = x^4$. Thus, f(x) = f(-x) and f(x) is even.
- **(b)** $g(-x) = (-x)^{-1} = -x^{-1}$. Thus, g(-x) = -g(x), and g(x) is odd.
- (c) $h(-x) = (-x)^2 + (-x) = x^2 x$. We see that h(-x) is not equal to h(x) or to $-h(x) = -x^2 - x$. Therefore, h(x) is neither even nor odd.
- Using Symmetry Sketch the graph of $f(x) = \frac{1}{x^2 + 1}$. EXAMPLE

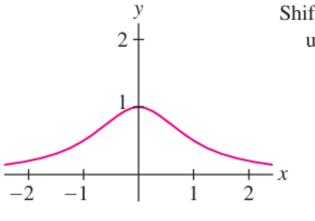
$$\begin{array}{c}
x & \frac{1}{x^2 + 1} \\
\hline
0 & 1 \\
\pm 1 & \frac{1}{2} \\
\pm 2 & \frac{1}{5}
\end{array}$$

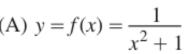


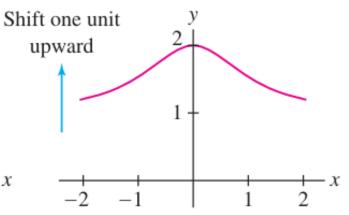
DEFINITION Translation (Shifting)

- Vertical translation y = f(x) + c: shifts the graph by |c| units vertically, upward if c > 0 and c units downward if c < 0.
- Horizontal translation y = f(x + c): shifts the graph by |c| units horizontally, to the right if c < 0 and c units to the left if c > 0.

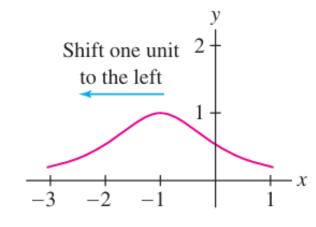
shows the effect of translating the graph of $f(x) = 1/(x^2 + 1)$ vertically and Figure horizontally.







(B)
$$y = f(x) + 1 = \frac{1}{x^2 + 1} + 1$$



(A)
$$y = f(x) = \frac{1}{x^2 + 1}$$
 (B) $y = f(x) + 1 = \frac{1}{x^2 + 1} + 1$ (C) $y = f(x + 1) = \frac{1}{(x + 1)^2 + 1}$

DEFINITION Scaling

- **Vertical scaling** y = kf(x): If k > 1, the graph is expanded vertically by the factor k. If 0 < k < 1, the graph is compressed vertically. When the scale factor k is negative (k < 0), the graph is also reflected across the x-axis (Figure 24).
- Horizontal scaling y = f(kx): If k > 1, the graph is compressed in the horizontal direction. If 0 < k < 1, the graph is expanded. If k < 0, then the graph is also reflected across the y-axis.

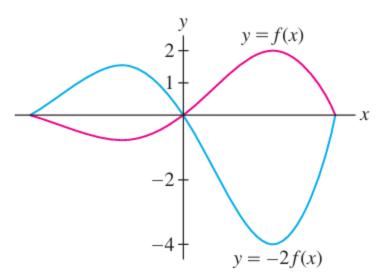
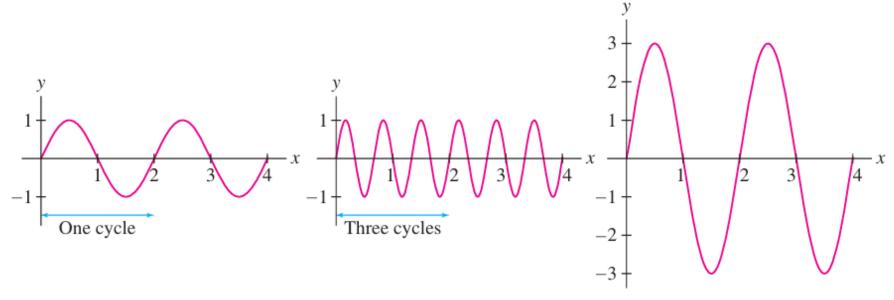


FIGURE Negative vertical scale factor k = -2.

EXAMPLE Sketch the graphs of $f(x) = \sin(\pi x)$ and its dilates f(3x) and 3f(x).

Solution



(A) $y = f(x) = \sin(\pi x)$

(B) Horizontal compression: $y = f(3x) = \sin(3\pi x)$

(C) Vertical expansion: $y = 3f(x) = 3\sin(\pi x)$