# MTH4100 Calculus I

#### Bill Jackson School of Mathematical Sciences QMUL

Semester 1, 2012

Bill Jackson Calculus I

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Calculus is the branch of mathematics which uses *limits*, *derivatives and integrals* to 'measure change'. It is based on the *real numbers* and the study of *functions* of real variables:

- for one variable see Calculus I
- for several variables see Calculus II

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Calculus provides powerful techniques for solving problems which have widespread applications throughout science, economics, and engineering. It has been formalised and extended into the important branch of mathematics known as *analysis*. We can think of the real numbers as the set of all infinite decimals. We denote this set by  $\mathbb{R}$ .

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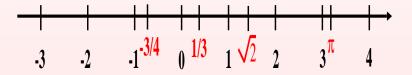
**examples:**  $2 = 2.000 \dots -\frac{3}{4} = -0.7500 \dots \frac{1}{3} = 0.333 \dots \sqrt{2} = 1.4142 \dots \pi = 3.1415 \dots$ 

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The real numbers can be represented as points on the real line.



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completeness: "there are no gaps on the real line"

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The first five algebraic properties involve *addition*: (A0) For all  $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$  we have  $a + b \in \mathbb{R}$ . *closure* 

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- (A4) For all  $a \in \mathbb{R}$  there is an element  $-a \in \mathbb{R}$  such that a + (-a) = 0. *inverse*

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- (M4) For all  $a \in \mathbb{R}$  with  $a \neq 0$ , there is an element  $a^{-1} \in \mathbb{R}$  such that  $a a^{-1} = 1$ . *inverse*

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One last algebraic properties links addition and multiplication: (D) For all  $a, b, c \in \mathbb{R}$  we have a(b + c) = ab + ac. distributivity One last algebraic properties links addition and multiplication: (D) For all  $a, b, c \in \mathbb{R}$  we have a(b + c) = ab + ac. distributivity Properties A0-A5, M0-M5, and D define an algebraic structure called a *field*. For all  $a, b, c \in \mathbb{R}$  we have:



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For all  $a, b, c \in \mathbb{R}$  we have: (O1) either  $a \leq b$  or  $b \leq a$  totality of ordering I

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For all  $a, b, c \in \mathbb{R}$  we have: (01) either  $a \le b$  or  $b \le a$  totality of ordering I (02) if  $a \le b$  and  $b \le a$  then a = b totality of ordering II

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(O5) if  $a \le b$  and  $0 \le c$  then  $ac \le bc$  order under multiplication

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Rules for InequalitiesIf a, b, and c are real numbers, then:1.  $a < b \Rightarrow a + c < b + c$ 2.  $a < b \Rightarrow a - c < b - c$ 3. a < b and  $c > 0 \Rightarrow ac < bc$ 4. a < b and  $c < 0 \Rightarrow bc < ac$ <br/>Special case:  $a < b \Rightarrow -b < -a$ 5.  $a > 0 \Rightarrow \frac{1}{a} > 0$ 

6. If a and b are both positive or both negative, then  $a < b \Rightarrow \frac{1}{b} < \frac{1}{a}$ 

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We can prove that these rules are valid by using properties O1-O5.

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Intuitively this means "there are no gaps in the real numbers". More precisely it says:

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If a set of real numbers S has an *upper bound* i.e. there exists a number  $c \in \mathbb{R}$  such that  $x \leq c$  for all  $x \in S$ , then S has a *least upper bound* i.e. there exists an upper bound  $c_0$  for S such that  $c \geq c_0$  for all upper bounds c of S.

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The completeness property tells us that an interval which is bounded above has a least upper bound. Similarly an interval which is bounded below has a greatest lower bound. We refer to these values as *end-points* of the interval.

### Examples

I = {x ∈ ℝ : 3 < x ≤ 6} defines a bounded interval. Geometrically, it corresponds to a *line segment* on the real line. It has two end-points 3 and 6. We can describe it using the notation I = (3, 6], where the round bracket on the left tells us that 3 ∉ I and the square bracket on the right tells us that 6 ∈ I.

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- I = {x ∈ ℝ : x > -2} defines an unbounded interval. Geometrically, it corresponds to a ray i.e. a line which extends to infinity in one direction. It has one end-point -2. We can describe it using the notation I = (-2,∞).

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We can distinguish between intervals which are bounded or unbounded. We can also distinguish between intervals by considering whether or not they contain their end points: intervals which contain all their end-points are *closed*; intervals which contain none of their end-points are *open*; intervals which have two end points and contain exactly one of them are *half-open* (or *half-closed*).

# Types of intervals

	Notation	Set description	Туре	Picture
Finite:	( <i>a</i> , <i>b</i> )	$\{x   a < x < b\}$	Open	o
	[ <i>a</i> , <i>b</i> ]	$\{x a \le x \le b\}$	Closed	a b
	[ <i>a</i> , <i>b</i> )	$\{x   a \le x < b\}$	Half-open	a b
	( <i>a</i> , <i>b</i> ]	$\{x   a < x \le b\}$	Half-open	a b
Infinite:	$(a, \infty)$	$\{x x > a\}$	Open	a
	$[a,\infty)$	$\{x x \ge a\}$	Closed	
	$(-\infty, b)$	$\{x   x < b\}$	Open	¢ b
	$(-\infty, b]$	$\{x   x \le b\}$	Closed	
	$(-\infty,\infty)$	$\mathbb{R}$ (set of all real numbers)	Both open and closed	

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 2x - 1 < x + 3. Using the properties of order we have 2x < x + 4 and hence x < 4. Thus the set of solutions is the interval (-∞, 4).

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- $\frac{6}{x-1} \ge 5$ . Since  $\frac{6}{x-1} > 0$  we have x 1 > 0 and hence x > 1. We can now use property (O5) to deduce that  $6 \ge 5x - 5$  and hence  $\frac{11}{5} \ge x$ . Combining these two inequalities we see that the set of solutions is the interval  $(1, \frac{11}{5}]$ .

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- x<sup>2</sup> 2x 1 > 2. Then x<sup>2</sup> 2x 3 > 0 so (x + 1)(x - 3) > 0. Hence either (x + 1) and (x - 3) are both positive i.e. x > 3, or (x + 1) and (x - 3) are both negative i.e. x < -1. Thus the set of solutions is union of the two disjoint intervals (-∞, -1) and (3,∞).

### Absolute Value

**Definition** The *absolute value* (or *modulus*) of a real number x is defined as:

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

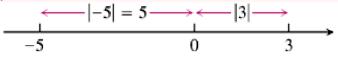
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$$x| = \begin{cases} x & \text{if } x \ge 0\\ -x & \text{if } x < 0. \end{cases}$$

Geometrically, |x| is the distance on the real line between x and 0. **example:** 

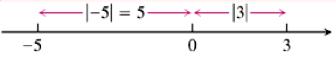


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Similarly, for any  $x, y \in \mathbb{R}$ , |x - y| is the distance between x and y. example:

Bill Jackson

$$\begin{array}{c|c} \leftarrow |4-1| = |1-4| = 3 \longrightarrow \\ \hline 1 & 4 \end{array}$$

$$|a| = \sqrt{a^2};$$

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$$|a| = \sqrt{a^2};$$
  
2  $|-a| = |a|;$ 

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**3** 
$$|ab| = |a||b|;$$

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 $|a| = \sqrt{a^2};$  |-a| = |a|; |ab| = |a| |b|;  $|\frac{a}{b}| = \frac{|a|}{|b|}$  when  $b \neq 0;$ 

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|a| = √a<sup>2</sup>;
|-a| = |a|;
|ab| = |a| |b|;
|<sup>a</sup><sub>b</sub>| = <sup>|a|</sup>/<sub>|b|</sub> when b ≠ 0;
|a + b| ≤ |a| + |b|. the triangle inequality.

**1**  $|a| = \sqrt{a^2};$ **2** |-a| = |a|;**3** |ab| = |a| |b|; $|\frac{a}{b}| = \frac{|a|}{|b|} \text{ when } b \neq 0;$  $|a+b| \le |a|+|b|.$  the triangle inequality. **Proof of (1)**. By definition, the symbol  $\sqrt{a^2}$  is always taken to be the non-negative square root of  $a^2$ . So  $\sqrt{a^2} = a$  if  $a \ge 0$  and  $\sqrt{a^2} = -a$  if a < 0. Hence  $|a| = \sqrt{a^2}$ . We can use (1) to prove (2)-(5).

We can express the set of all solutions to inequalities involving absolute values as unions of one or more disjoint intervals.

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$$|x| = a \Leftrightarrow x = \pm a;$$

$$2 |x| < a \Leftrightarrow -a < x < a \Leftrightarrow x \in (-a,a);$$

- $3 |x| > a \Leftrightarrow x < -a \text{ or } x > a \Leftrightarrow x \in (-\infty, -a) \cup (a, \infty);$
- $|x| \le a \Leftrightarrow -a \le x \le a \Leftrightarrow x \in [-a,a];$

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$$|x| \le a \Leftrightarrow -a \le x \le a \Leftrightarrow x \in [-a,a];$$

**Proof of (4).** This follows because the distance from x to 0 is less than or equal to a if and only if x lies between a and -a.

#### (a) $|2x - 3| \le 1$ if and only if $x \in [1, 2]$ .



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(a) |2x - 3| ≤ 1 if and only if x ∈ [1,2].
(b) |2x - 3| ≥ 1 if and only if x ∈ (-∞, 1] or x ∈ [2,∞).

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(a)  $|2x - 3| \le 1$  if and only if  $x \in [1, 2]$ . (b)  $|2x - 3| \ge 1$  if and only if  $x \in (-\infty, 1]$  or  $x \in [2, \infty)$ .

# Reading Assignment: Thomas' Calculus, Appendix 3: Lines, Circles, and Parabolas