## Important Definitions and Theorems

## Definitions

## Limit

Given a function $f$ defined in an open interval containing the number $a$, except that $f$ need not be defined at $a$, if for any number $\varepsilon>0$ there exists a number $\delta>0$ such that

$$
|f(x)-L|<\varepsilon \text { when } 0<|x-a|<\delta
$$

then the limit of $f$ as $x$ approaches $a$ equals $L$, written $\lim _{x \rightarrow a} f(x)=L$.

## Continuity

A function $f$ is continuous at $c$ if all the following are true:

1) $f(c)$ is defined
2) $\lim _{x \rightarrow c} f(x)$ exists
3) $\lim _{x \rightarrow c} f(x)=f(c)$.

## Increasing, Decreasing and Constant Functions

1) $f$ is increasing* on an interval $I$ if $f(b)>f(a)$ for all $a$ and $b$ in $I$ where $b>a$.
2) $f$ is decreasing* on an interval $I$ if $f(b)<f(a)$ for all $a$ and $b$ in $I$ where $b>a$.
3) $f$ is constant on an interval $I$ if $f(a)=f(b)$ for all $a$ and $b$ in $I$.

* Some texts call 1 and 2 above strictly increasing and strictly decreasing. Without this qualifier they use $f(b) \geq f(a)$ for 1 and $f(b) \leq f(a)$ for 2 . With this definition a constant function is both increasing and decreasing.


## Local (Relative) Extrema

1) $f$ has a local maximum* at $c$ if there exists an open interval $I$ containing $c$ where $f(c) \geq f(x)$ for all $x$ in $I$.
2) $f$ has a local minimum* at $c$ if there exists an open interval $I$ containing $c$ where $f(c) \leq f(x)$ for all $x$ in $I$.

* Some authors allow $c$ to be the endpoint of a closed domain. In this case $I$ is a half-open interval. This allows endpoints to be candidates for local extrema which are excluded in the definition above by the requirement that $I$ to be an open interval.


## Absolute (Global) Extrema

1) $f$ has an absolute maximum at $c$ in interval $I$ if $f(c) \geq f(x)$ for all $x$ in $I$.
2) $f$ has an absolute minimum at $c$ in interval $I$ if $f(c) \leq f(x)$ for all $x$ in $I$.

## Concavity

If $f$ is differentiable on an open interval $I$, then

1) $f$ is concave up on $I$ if $f^{\prime}$ is increasing on $I$.
2) $f$ is concave down on $I$ if $f^{\prime}$ is decreasing on $I$.

## Point of Inflection

If $f$ is continuous on an open interval containing $c$ and if $f$ changes the direction of its concavity at point $(c, f(c))$ then $f$ is said to have an inflection point at $\mathbf{c}$ and the point $(c, f(c))$ on the graph of $f$ is an inflection point of $f$.

- If the point occurs where the derivative is infinite it is called a vertical inflection point.
- If the point occurs where the derivative is zero it is called a stationary inflection point or horizonal inflection point.


## Cusps and Corners

Cusps and corners occur on a continuous interval at a point where the first derivative does not exist and the left and right sided derivatives are distinct.

## Theorems

## Intermediate Value Theorem

If function $f$ is continuous on an interval $[a, b]$ and $f(a) \leq L \leq f(b)$ then there exists a value $c$ in $[a, b]$ such that $f(c)=L$.
In other words, $f$ will take on every value between $f(a)$ and $f(b)$ over the interval $[a, b]$.

## Extreme Value Theorem

If function $f$ is continuous on an interval $[a, b]$ then there exists both an absolute maximum and absolute minimum of $f$ on $[a, b]$.

## Rolle's Theorem

If function $f$ is continuous on an interval $[a, b]$ and differentiable on the interval $(a, b)$ and $f(a)=f(b)=0$ then there exists a value $c$ in $(a, b)$ such that $f^{\prime}(c)=0$.

## Mean-Value Theorem

If function $f$ is continuous on an interval $[a, b]$ and differentiable on the interval $(a, b)$ then there exists a value $c$ in $(a, b)$ such that

$$
f^{\prime}(c)=\frac{f(b)-f(a)}{b-a}
$$

## Mean-Value Theorem for Integrals

If function $f$ is continuous on an interval $[a, b]$ then there exists a value $c$ in $(a, b)$ such

$$
f(c)=\frac{1}{b-a} \int_{a}^{b} f(x) d x \triangleq f_{a v} .
$$

The value $f_{a v}$ is defined as the average value of the function $f$ on the interval $[a, b]$.

## Fundamental Theorem of Calculus

i. If function $f$ is continuous on $[a, b]$ and $F$ is any antiderivative of $f$ on $[a, b]$, then $\int_{a}^{b} f(x) d x=F(b)-F(a)$.
ii. If function $f$ is continuous on $[a, b]$ then for any constant $c$ in $[a, b]$ the function $F(x) \triangleq \int_{c}^{x} f(t) d t x \in[a, b]$ is an antiderivative of $f$ and $F$ is continuous on $[a, b]$, differentiable on $(a, b)$ and $F^{\prime}(x)=f(x)$.

A geometric explanation of the relationship between area, the derivative, and anti-derivative (integral): Given a function $f$ that is continuous on some interval, let $F$ describe the area of the region bounded between $f$ and the $x$-axis over the interval. Chose a point $x$ and a nearby point $x+h$ in the interval. The area of this region if then $F(x+h)-F(x)$. This area can also be approximated as $f(x+h) \cdot h$ for small $h$ so,

$$
\begin{aligned}
& F(x+h)-F(x) \approx f(x+h) \cdot h \\
& \frac{F(x+h)-F(x)}{h} \approx f(x+h) .
\end{aligned}
$$

If we take $\lim h \rightarrow 0$ the approximation becomes exact, the left side becomes the $F^{\prime}(x)$ and the right side $f(x)$, thus $F^{\prime}(x)=f(x)$. This shows that the derivative of the function that describes the area under a curve is the function that describes that curve.

## One-to-One Theorem

If the domain of function $f$ is an open interval and its derivative is either always positive or always negative, then $f$ is one-to-one and it follows that its inverse is differentiable for all values in the range of $f$ (which is the domain of $f^{-1}$ ).

## Derivative of Inverse Function Theorem

Given a function $f$ that has an inverse $f^{-1}=g$, if $f$ is differentiable at $g(x)$ and $f^{\prime}(g(x)) \neq 0$ then $g^{\prime}(x)=\frac{1}{f^{\prime}(g(x))}$.
If we call $y=f^{-1}(x) \rightarrow x=f(y)$ this can be expressed as $\frac{d y}{d x}=\frac{1}{\frac{d x}{d y}}$.
In other words, the slopes of the graphs of $f$ and $f^{-1}$ are multiplicative inverses (where they are both defined). To find the slope of $f^{-1}$ at $a$ solve $f(b)=a$ for $b$ and then the slope is $\left(f^{-1}\right)^{\prime}(a)=\frac{1}{f^{\prime}(b)}$, where $a=f(b)$.

