So looking at all three points (0,5) (1,3) (5,35) we can see that (1,3) is the minimum value.

#### Local maximums and minimums

Note that we already explained the first and second derivative test earlier-these tests are used to find the local maximums and minimums.

#### Points of inflection:

At an inflection point, the graph changes concavity- for instance, from concave down to concave up.

If the second derivative equals zero, then the point is an inflection point! Review of convex and concave:

f''(x) < 0 for all  $x \in (c, d)$ , f(x) is concave in (c, d)

f''(x) > 0 for all  $x \in (c, d)$ , f(x) is convex in (c, d)

# **Chapter 9 Integrals**

# Family of all anti-derivatives of f(x):

The indefinite integral of a function f(x) is written as  $\int f(x)dx$ , and it is the family of all antiderivatives of a function.

You can find the indefinite integral the following way:

Ex. If  $f = 4x^2$  and thus the derivative is 8x, then the indefinite integral is  $4x^2 + c$ .

Thus, to integrate you first add a number to the exponent on  $\mathcal{X}$  and you divide the number in front of  $\mathcal{X}$  by this new exponent, this rule can be written as:  $\frac{1}{n+1}\mathcal{X}^{n+1} + C$ .

But why do we have a  $\varepsilon$  at the end? In order to explain this, I will use an example:

Ex. If  $f(x) = x^2 + 4x + 2$ , then the derivative would be f'(x) = 2x + 4. By integration you would find:  $x^2 + 4x$ . However, in integration questions the original function is never given, and thus you would never know that there was a 2 at the end of the function, since it disappears in the derivative. That's why we add the c at the end for the indefinite integral; the  $\epsilon$  represents any number that could have been behind  $x^2 + 4x$ .

#### Important note:

Note that the rule for integration, introduced earlier, was:  $\int x^n dx = \frac{1}{n+1}x^{n+1} + C$ , where  $n \neq 1$ . This exception  $n \neq 1$  is very important-since we have a separate rule for functions where n = 1. The rule is the following:  $\int \frac{1}{x} dx = \ln|x| + C$ .

More formulas:

$$\int e^{ax} dx = \frac{1}{a} e^{ax} + C, where (a \neq 0)$$

$$\int a^{x} dx = \frac{1}{\ln a} a^{x} + C, where (a > 0 \text{ and } a \neq 1)$$

..... And some more rules:

$$\int af(x)dx = a \int f(x)dx \quad (a \text{ is a constant})$$

$$\int [f(x) + g(x)]dx = \int f(x)dx + \int g(x)dx$$

#### **Definite Integration:**

The exact area under a curve is given by the definite integral, which is defined the following way:  $\int_a^b f(x)dx = |\frac{b}{a}|F(x) = F(b) - F(a)$ , where F'(x) = f(x) for all  $x \in (a,b)$ 

Ex. Evaluate 
$$\int_2^{4} (x^2 - 4x) dx$$
.

$$= \left| \frac{4}{2} \left( \frac{1}{3} x^3 - 2x^2 \right) \right|$$

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

$$= \frac{16}{3} - \frac{16}{3}$$

$$= 0$$

Thus, there is no area under the curve.

However, what is the area if f(x) is negative?

In that case the area you are finding is below the x-axis- however, note that you are still finding an area- there is simply a negative side in front of the integral. The area under the x-axis is simply subtracted from the total area.

#### **Properties:**

The following are properties of the definite integral:

$$\int_{a}^{b} f(x)dx = -\int_{b}^{a} f(x)dx$$

$$\int_{a}^{a} f(x)dx = 0$$

$$\int_{a}^{b} \propto f(x)dx = \propto \int_{a}^{b} f(x)dx, \text{ where } \propto \text{ is just some random number}$$

$$\int_{a}^{b} f(x)dx = \int_{a}^{a} f(x)dx + \int_{a}^{b} f(x)dx$$

More rules...

1. The derivative of the definite integral, with respect to the upper limit of integration is equal to the integrand (the expression you are integrating) at that limit:

$$\frac{d}{dz} \int_{a}^{z} f(x) dx = F'(z) = f(z)$$

2. The derivative of a definite integral with respect to the lower limit of integration is equal to minus the integrand evaluated at the limit:

$$\frac{d}{dt}\int_{B}^{W}f(x)dx = -F'(z) = -f(z)$$

Finally we have an important note: you can integrate continuous functions!

## **Understanding Integration using Parts**

To integrate an equation by parts we need to first re-write the equation in the form of  $f(x) \times h'(x)dx$ , or

a function with variable  $x \times derivative$  of another function in terms of x then the formula used would be:

$$\int f(x)h'(x)dx = f(x)h(x) - \int f'(x)dxh(x)$$

Example: solve \( \begin{aligned} 2x^4 \end{aligned} \)

So it can be re-written as  $\int (x)^3 \times 2x$ 

Then  $f(x) = x^3$  and  $h(x) = x^2$ , since 2x is the derivative of  $x^2$ 

$$\int x^8 \times 2x(dx) = x^3 \times x^2 - \int 3x^2(dx) \times x^2$$

This also implies: 
$$\int_q^p f(x)h'(x)dx = \int_q^p f(x)h(x) - \int_q^p f'(x)dxh(x)$$

# **Understanding Integration using Substitution**

To integrate using substitution the equation should be re-written in the form of a composite function  $f(h(x)) \times h'(x) dx$ 

$$\int f(h(x))h'(x)dx = f(a)da, where a = h(x)$$

#### Integrals with infinite intervals

Just remember: when  $p \ge q$  then to integrate the equation can be written as

Either 
$$\int_{q}^{\infty} f(x) dx = \lim_{y \to \infty} \int_{q}^{y} f(x) dx$$

Or 
$$\int_{\infty}^{y} f(x) dx = \lim_{g \to -\infty} \int_{g}^{y} f(x) dx$$

Both the equations will give the same answer but are looking at the positive and negative infinity respectively

## **Reviewing Differential Equations**

It is important to understand that  $\dot{x}(n) = rx(n)$  for all values of n and r is a constant

Then we can use this knowledge along with x(0) = p to say that

$$\chi(n) = pe^{rn}$$

When there is a maximum limit or carrying capacity of L is involved we should use

$$\dot{x}(n) = a(L - x(n))$$
, a is a constant

Again if 
$$x(0) = p$$
, then  $x(n) = L - (L - p)e^{-\alpha n}$ 

For a logistic function when

$$\dot{x}(n) = ax(n)(1 - \frac{x(n)}{L})$$

And we know that x(0) = p, then

$$X(n) = \frac{K}{1 + \frac{k-p}{n}e^{-rn}}$$

Also Remember:

1. 
$$\dot{x} = px$$
 for all values of  $n$ ,

$$x = Se^{pn}$$
, where  $S$  is a constant

2. 
$$\dot{x} + px = q$$
 for all values of  $n$ ,

$$x = Se^{-pn} + \frac{q}{p}$$
, where S is a constant

3. 
$$\dot{x} + px = qx^2$$
 for all values of  $n$ ,

$$x = \frac{p}{q - Se^{pn}} \text{ where S is a constant}$$

# **Chapter 10 Rate of Interest and Values**

## Repayment of Mortgage

Let us look at a sample question which would sound like, A person has taken a mortgage for € A that he will pay over t installments at the rate of r% compounded annually. How much will he pay per installment?

From the previous section, Let p be the amount for each installment so

$$\left| \frac{p}{r} \times 100 \right| 1 - \frac{1}{(1 + \frac{r}{100})^n} \right| = A$$

Example: Let us use the example of the next door neighbor who has taken a mortgage of € 100000 that he will pay over 4 installments at the rate of 20% compounded annually. How much will he pay per installment?

$$\frac{v}{20} \times 100 \left[ 1 - \frac{1}{\left( 1 + \frac{20}{100} \right)^4} \right] = 100000$$

$$p \times 5 \left[1 - \frac{1}{(1.20)^4}\right] = 100000$$

$$p = \frac{100000}{5} \times 0.5177$$

$$p = 10354$$

Now to find the amount per installment or p we can just use:

$$p = \frac{rA}{1 - (1 + r)^{-n}}$$

To find the number of periods required to pay back the loan at given amount per installment we can use:

$$n = \frac{\ln p - \ln (p - rA)}{\ln (1 + r)}$$

#### **Understanding Internal Rate of Return:**

Just remember the following formula where Initial investment is A, and the returns per period is  $p_1, p_2, \dots, p_n$  for n periods, The rate of return be r

$$A = \frac{p_1}{(1+r)^1} + \frac{p_2}{(1+r)^2} + \dots + \frac{p_n}{(1+r)^n}$$

To make the calculation easier assum $(1+r)^{-1} = x$ , therefore rewrite the formula