

# CALCULUS REFERENCE

## THEORY

### DERIVATIVES AND DIFFERENTIATION

**Definition:**  $f'(x) = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(x+h) - f(x)}{h}$

#### DERIVATIVE RULES

- Sum and Difference:**  $\frac{d}{dx}(f(x) \pm g(x)) = f'(x) \pm g'(x)$
- Scalar Multiple:**  $\frac{d}{dx}(cf(x)) = cf'(x)$
- Product:**  $\frac{d}{dx}(f(x)g(x)) = f'(x)g(x) + f(x)g'(x)$   
**Mnemonic:** If  $f$  is "hi" and  $g$  is "ho," then the product rule is "ho d hi plus hi d ho."
- Quotient:**  $\frac{d}{dx}\left(\frac{f(x)}{g(x)}\right) = \frac{f'(x)g(x) - f(x)g'(x)}{(g(x))^2}$   
**Mnemonic:** "Ho d hi minus hi d ho over ho ho."
- The Chain Rule**
  - First formulation:  $(f \circ g)'(x) = f'(g(x))g'(x)$
  - Second formulation:  $\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{dy}{du} \frac{du}{dx}$
- Implicit differentiation:** Used for curves when it is difficult to express  $y$  as a function of  $x$ . Differentiate both sides of the equation with respect to  $x$ . Use the chain rule carefully whenever  $y$  appears. Then, rewrite  $\frac{dy}{dx} = y'$  and solve for  $y'$ .  
**Ex:**  $x \cos y - y^2 = 3x$ . Differentiate to first obtain  $\frac{dx}{dx} \cos y + x \frac{d(\cos y)}{dx} - 2y \frac{dy}{dx} = 3 \frac{dx}{dx}$ , and then  $\cos y - x(\sin y)y' - 2yy' = 3$ . Finally, solve for  $y' = \frac{\cos y - 3}{x \sin y + 2y}$ .

#### COMMON DERIVATIVES

- Constants:**  $\frac{d}{dx}(c) = 0$
- Linear:**  $\frac{d}{dx}(mx + b) = m$
- Powers:**  $\frac{d}{dx}(x^n) = nx^{n-1}$  (true for all real  $n \neq 0$ )
- Polynomials:**  $\frac{d}{dx}(a_n x^n + \dots + a_2 x^2 + a_1 x + a_0) = a_n n x^{n-1} + \dots + 2a_2 x + a_1$
- Exponential**
  - Base  $e$ :**  $\frac{d}{dx}(e^x) = e^x$
  - Arbitrary base:**  $\frac{d}{dx}(a^x) = a^x \ln a$
- Logarithmic**
  - Base  $e$ :**  $\frac{d}{dx}(\ln x) = \frac{1}{x}$
  - Arbitrary base:**  $\frac{d}{dx}(\log_a x) = \frac{1}{x \ln a}$
- Trigonometric**
  - Sine:**  $\frac{d}{dx}(\sin x) = \cos x$
  - Cosine:**  $\frac{d}{dx}(\cos x) = -\sin x$
  - Tangent:**  $\frac{d}{dx}(\tan x) = \sec^2 x$
  - Cotangent:**  $\frac{d}{dx}(\cot x) = -\csc^2 x$
  - Secant:**  $\frac{d}{dx}(\sec x) = \sec x \tan x$
  - Cosecant:**  $\frac{d}{dx}(\csc x) = -\csc x \cot x$
- Inverse Trigonometric**
  - Arcsine:**  $\frac{d}{dx}(\sin^{-1} x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1-x^2}}$
  - Arccosine:**  $\frac{d}{dx}(\cos^{-1} x) = -\frac{1}{\sqrt{1-x^2}}$
  - Arctangent:**  $\frac{d}{dx}(\tan^{-1} x) = \frac{1}{1+x^2}$
  - Arccotangent:**  $\frac{d}{dx}(\cot^{-1} x) = -\frac{1}{1+x^2}$
  - Arcsecant:**  $\frac{d}{dx}(\sec^{-1} x) = \frac{1}{x\sqrt{x^2-1}}$
  - Arccosecant:**  $\frac{d}{dx}(\csc^{-1} x) = -\frac{1}{x\sqrt{x^2-1}}$

### INTEGRALS AND INTEGRATION

#### DEFINITE INTEGRAL

The **definite integral**  $\int_a^b f(x) dx$  is the **signed area** between the function  $y = f(x)$  and the  $x$ -axis from  $x = a$  to  $x = b$ .

- Formal definition:** Let  $n$  be an integer and  $\Delta x = \frac{b-a}{n}$ . For each  $k = 0, 2, \dots, n-1$ , pick point  $x_k^*$  in the interval  $[a + k\Delta x, a + (k+1)\Delta x]$ . The expression  $\Delta x \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} f(x_k^*)$  is a **Riemann sum**. The definite integral  $\int_a^b f(x) dx$  is defined as  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \Delta x \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} f(x_k^*)$ .

#### INDEFINITE INTEGRAL

- Antiderivative:** The function  $F(x)$  is an antiderivative of  $f(x)$  if  $F'(x) = f(x)$ .
- Indefinite integral:** The indefinite integral  $\int f(x) dx$  represents a **family of**

**antiderivatives:**  $\int f(x) dx = F(x) + C$  if  $F'(x) = f(x)$ .

#### FUNDAMENTAL THEOREM OF CALCULUS

**Part 1:** If  $f(x)$  is continuous on the interval  $[a, b]$ , then the area function  $F(x) = \int_a^x f(t) dt$  is continuous and differentiable on the interval and  $F'(x) = f(x)$ .

**Part 2:** If  $f(x)$  is continuous on the interval  $[a, b]$  and  $F(x)$  is any antiderivative of  $f(x)$ , then  $\int_a^b f(x) dx = F(b) - F(a)$ .

#### APPROXIMATING DEFINITE INTEGRALS

**1. Left-hand rectangle approximation:**

$$L_n = \Delta x \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} f(x_k)$$

**2. Right-hand rectangle approximation:**

$$R_n = \Delta x \sum_{k=1}^n f(x_k)$$

**3. Midpoint Rule:**

$$M_n = \Delta x \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} f\left(\frac{x_k + x_{k+1}}{2}\right)$$

**4. Trapezoidal Rule:**  $T_n = \frac{\Delta x}{2}(f(x_0) + 2f(x_1) + 2f(x_2) + \dots + 2f(x_{n-1}) + f(x_n))$

**5. Simpson's Rule:**  $S_n = \frac{\Delta x}{3}(f(x_0) + 4f(x_1) + 2f(x_2) + \dots + 2f(x_{n-2}) + 4f(x_{n-1}) + f(x_n))$

#### TECHNIQUES OF INTEGRATION

**1. Properties of Integrals**

- Sums and differences:**  $\int (f(x) \pm g(x)) dx = \int f(x) dx \pm \int g(x) dx$

- Constant multiples:**  $\int cf(x) dx = c \int f(x) dx$

- Definite integrals: reversing the limits:**  $\int_a^b f(x) dx = -\int_b^a f(x) dx$

- Definite integrals: concatenation:**  $\int_a^p f(x) dx + \int_p^b f(x) dx = \int_a^b f(x) dx$

- Definite integrals: comparison:**  
If  $f(x) \leq g(x)$  on the interval  $[a, b]$ , then  $\int_a^b f(x) dx \leq \int_a^b g(x) dx$ .

**2. Substitution Rule—**a.k.a. **u-substitutions:**  $\int f(g(x))g'(x) dx = \int f(u) du$

- $\int f(g(x))g'(x) dx = F(g(x)) + C$  if  $\int f(x) dx = F(x) + C$ .

**3. Integration by Parts**

Best used to integrate a product when one factor ( $u = f(x)$ ) has a simple derivative and the other factor ( $dv = g'(x) dx$ ) is easy to integrate.

- Indefinite Integrals:**

$$\int f(x)g'(x) dx = f(x)g(x) - \int f'(x)g(x) dx \quad \text{or} \quad \int u dv = uv - \int v du$$

- Definite Integrals:**  $\int_a^b f(x)g'(x) dx = f(x)g(x)\Big|_a^b - \int_a^b f'(x)g(x) dx$

**4. Trigonometric Substitutions:** Used to integrate expressions of the form  $\sqrt{\pm a^2 \pm x^2}$ .

Expression	Trig substitution	Expression becomes	Range of $\theta$	Pythagorean identity used
$\sqrt{a^2 - x^2}$	$x = a \sin \theta$ $dx = a \cos \theta d\theta$	$a \cos \theta$	$-\frac{\pi}{2} \leq \theta \leq \frac{\pi}{2}$ $(-a \leq x \leq a)$	$1 - \sin^2 \theta = \cos^2 \theta$
$\sqrt{x^2 - a^2}$	$x = a \sec \theta$ $dx = a \sec \theta \tan \theta d\theta$	$a \tan \theta$	$0 \leq \theta < \frac{\pi}{2}$ $\pi \leq \theta < \frac{3\pi}{2}$	$\sec^2 \theta - 1 = \tan^2 \theta$
$\sqrt{x^2 + a^2}$	$x = a \tan \theta$ $dx = a \sec^2 \theta d\theta$	$a \sec \theta$	$-\frac{\pi}{2} < \theta < \frac{\pi}{2}$	$1 + \tan^2 \theta = \sec^2 \theta$

### APPLICATIONS

#### GEOMETRY

**Area:**  $\int_a^b (f(x) - g(x)) dx$  is the area bounded by  $y = f(x)$ ,  $y = g(x)$ ,  $x = a$  and  $x = b$  if  $f(x) \geq g(x)$  on  $[a, b]$ .

**Volume of revolved solid (disk method):**  $\pi \int_a^b (f(x))^2 dx$  is the volume of the solid swept out by the curve  $y = f(x)$  as it revolves around the  $x$ -axis on the interval  $[a, b]$ .

**Volume of revolved solid (washer method):**  $\pi \int_a^b (f(x))^2 - (g(x))^2 dx$  is the volume of the solid swept out between  $y = f(x)$  and  $y = g(x)$  as they revolve around the  $x$ -axis on the interval  $[a, b]$  if  $f(x) \geq g(x)$ .

**Volume of revolved solid (shell method):**  $\int_a^b 2\pi x f(x) dx$  is the volume of the solid obtained by revolving the region under the curve  $y = f(x)$  between  $x = a$  and  $x = b$  around the  $y$ -axis.

**Arc length:**  $\int_a^b \sqrt{1 + (f'(x))^2} dx$  is the length of the curve  $y = f(x)$  from  $x = a$  to  $x = b$ .

**Surface area:**  $\int_a^b 2\pi f(x) \sqrt{1 + (f'(x))^2} dx$  is the area of the surface swept out by revolving the function  $y = f(x)$  about the  $x$ -axis between  $x = a$  and  $x = b$ .

CONTINUED ON OTHER SIDE

## MOTION

### 1. Position $s(t)$ vs. time $t$ graph:

- The slope of the graph is the velocity:  $s'(t) = v(t)$ .
- The concavity of the graph is the acceleration:  $s''(t) = a(t)$ .

### 2. Velocity $v(t)$ vs. time $t$ graph:

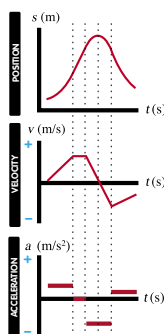
- The slope of the graph is the acceleration:  $v'(t) = a(t)$ .
- The (signed) area under the graph gives the displacement (change in position):

$$s(t) - s(0) = \int_0^t v(\tau) d\tau$$

### 3. Acceleration $a(t)$ vs. time $t$ graph:

- The (signed) area under the graph gives the change in velocity:

$$v(t) - v(0) = \int_0^t a(\tau) d\tau$$



## PROBABILITY AND STATISTICS

- Average value** of  $f(x)$  between  $a$  and  $b$  is  $\bar{f} = \frac{1}{b-a} \int_a^b f(x) dx$ .

### CONTINUOUS DISTRIBUTION FORMULAS

$X$  and  $Y$  are random variables.

- Probability density function**  $f(x)$  of the random variable  $X$  satisfies:

- $f(x) \geq 0$  for all  $x$ ;
- $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x) dx = 1$ .

- Probability that  $X$  is between  $a$  and  $b$ :**  $P(a \leq X \leq b) = \int_a^b f(x) dx$

- Expected value** (a.k.a. **expectation** or **mean**) of  $X$ :  $E(X) = \mu_X = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x f(x) dx$

- Variance:**  $\text{Var}(X) = \sigma_X^2 = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} (x - E(X))^2 f(x) dx = E(X^2) - (E(X))^2$

- Standard deviation:**  $\sqrt{\text{Var}(X)} = \sigma_X$

- Median  $m$**  satisfies  $\int_{-\infty}^m f(x) dx = \int_m^{\infty} f(x) dx = \frac{1}{2}$ .

- Cumulative density function**  $F(x)$  is the probability that  $X$  is at most  $x$ :

$$F(x) = P(X \leq x) = \int_{-\infty}^x f(y) dy$$

- Joint probability density function**  $g(x, y)$  chronicles distribution of  $X$  and  $Y$ . Then

$$f(x) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} g(x, y) dy$$

- Covariance:**  $\text{Cov}(X, Y) = \sigma_{XY} = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} (x - E(X))(y - E(Y)) f(x, y) dx dy$

- Correlation:**  $\rho(X, Y) = \frac{\sigma_{XY}}{\sigma_X \sigma_Y} = \frac{\text{Cov}(X, Y)}{\sqrt{\text{Var}(X)\text{Var}(Y)}}$

### COMMON DISTRIBUTIONS

- Normal distribution** (or **Bell curve**) with mean  $\mu$  and variance  $\sigma$ :

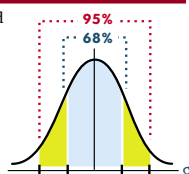
$$f(x) = \frac{1}{\sigma\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-\frac{(x-\mu)^2}{2\sigma^2}}$$

- $P(\mu - \sigma \leq X \leq \mu + \sigma) = 68.3\%$
- $P(\mu - 2\sigma \leq X \leq \mu + 2\sigma) = 95.5\%$

- $\chi^2$ -square distribution:** with mean  $\nu$  and variance  $2\nu$ :

$$f(x) = \frac{1}{2^{\frac{\nu}{2}} \Gamma(\frac{\nu}{2})} x^{\frac{\nu}{2}-1} e^{-\frac{x}{2}}$$

- Gamma function:**  $\Gamma(x) = \int_0^{\infty} t^{x-1} e^{-t} dt$



## MICROECONOMICS

### COST

- Cost function**  $C(x)$ : cost of producing  $x$  units.
- Marginal cost:**  $C'(x)$
- Average cost function**  $\bar{C}(x) = \frac{C(x)}{x}$ : cost per unit when  $x$  units produced.
- Marginal average cost:**  $\bar{C}'(x)$

If the average cost is minimized, then average cost = marginal cost.

- If  $\bar{C}''(x) > 0$ , then to find the number of units ( $x$ ) that minimizes average cost, solve for  $x$  in  $\frac{C(x)}{x} = C'(x)$ .

### REVENUE, PROFIT

- Demand** (or **price**) **function**  $p(x)$ : price charged per unit if  $x$  units sold.
  - Revenue** (or **sales**) **function:**  $R(x) = xp(x)$
  - Marginal revenue:**  $R'(x)$
  - Profit function:**  $P(x) = R(x) - C(x)$
  - Marginal profit function:**  $P'(x)$
- If profit is maximal, then marginal revenue = marginal cost.
- The number of units  $x$  maximizes profit if  $R'(x) = C'(x)$  and  $R''(x) < C''(x)$ .

### PRICE ELASTICITY OF DEMAND

- Demand curve:**  $x = x(p)$  is the number of units demanded at price  $p$ .

- Price elasticity of demand:**  $E(p) = -\frac{p x'(p)}{x(p)}$

- Demand is **elastic** if  $E(p) > 1$ . Percentage change in  $p$  leads to larger percentage change in  $x(p)$ . Increasing  $p$  leads to decrease in revenue.
- Demand is **unitary** if  $E(p) = 1$ . Percentage change in  $p$  leads to similar percentage change in  $x(p)$ . Small change in  $p$  will not change revenue.
- Demand is **inelastic** if  $E(p) < 1$ . Percentage change in  $p$  leads to smaller percentage change in  $x(p)$ . Increasing  $p$  leads to increase in revenue.
- Formula relating elasticity and revenue:  $R'(p) = x(p)(1 - E(p))$

### CONSUMER AND PRODUCER SURPLUS

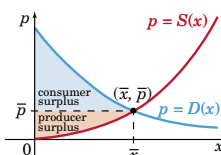
- Demand function:**  $p = D(x)$  gives price per unit ( $p$ ) when  $x$  units demanded.
- Supply function:**  $p = S(x)$  gives price per unit ( $p$ ) when  $x$  units available.

- Market equilibrium** is  $\bar{x}$  units at price  $\bar{p}$ . (So  $\bar{p} = D(\bar{x}) = S(\bar{x})$ .)
- Consumer surplus:**

$$CS = \int_0^{\bar{x}} D(x) dx - \bar{p}\bar{x} = \int_0^{\bar{x}} (D(x) - \bar{p}) dx$$

- Producer surplus:**

$$PS = \bar{p}\bar{x} - \int_0^{\bar{x}} S(x) dx = \int_0^{\bar{x}} (\bar{p} - S(x)) dx$$



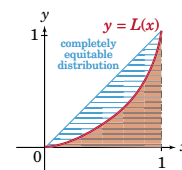
### LORENTZ CURVE

The **Lorentz Curve**  $L(x)$  is the fraction of income received by the poorest  $x$  fraction of the population.

- Domain and range** of  $L(x)$  is the interval  $[0, 1]$ .
- Endpoints:**  $L(0) = 0$  and  $L(1) = 1$
- Curve is nondecreasing:  $L'(x) \geq 0$  for all  $x$
- $L(x) \leq x$  for all  $x$
- Coefficient of Inequality** (a.k.a. **Gini Index**):

$$L = 2 \int_0^1 (x - f(x)) dx$$

The quantity  $L$  is between 0 and 1. The closer  $L$  is to 1, the more equitable the income distribution.



### SUBSTITUTE AND COMPLEMENTARY COMMODITIES

$X$  and  $Y$  are two commodities with unit price  $p$  and  $q$ , respectively.

- The amount of  $X$  demanded is given by  $f(p, q)$ .
- The amount of  $Y$  demanded is given by  $g(p, q)$ .

- $X$  and  $Y$  are **substitute** commodities (**Ex:** pet mice and pet rats) if  $\frac{\partial L}{\partial q} > 0$  and  $\frac{\partial g}{\partial p} > 0$ .
- $X$  and  $Y$  are **complementary** commodities (**Ex:** pet mice and mouse feed) if  $\frac{\partial L}{\partial q} < 0$  and  $\frac{\partial g}{\partial p} < 0$ .

## FINANCE

- $P(t)$ : the amount after  $t$  years.
- $P_0 = P(0)$ : the original amount invested (the **principal**).
- $r$ : the yearly **interest rate** (the yearly percentage is  $100r\%$ ).

### INTEREST

- Simple interest:**  $P(t) = P_0(1 + r)t$
- Compound interest**
  - Interest compounded  $m$  times a year:  $P(t) = P_0(1 + \frac{r}{m})^{mt}$
  - Interest compounded continuously:  $P(t) = P_0 e^{rt}$

### EFFECTIVE INTEREST RATES

The **effective** (or **true**) **interest rate**,  $r_{\text{eff}}$ , is a rate which, if applied simply (without compounding) to a principal, will yield the same end amount after the same amount of time.

- Interest compounded  $m$  times a year:  $r_{\text{eff}} = (1 + \frac{r}{m})^m - 1$
- Interest compounded continuously:  $r_{\text{eff}} = e^r - 1$

### PRESENT VALUE OF FUTURE AMOUNT

The **present value** ( $PV$ ) of an amount ( $A$ )  $t$  years in the future is the amount of principal that, if invested at  $r$  yearly interest, will yield  $A$  after  $t$  years.

- Interest compounded  $m$  times a year:  $PV = A(1 + \frac{r}{m})^{-mt}$
- Interest compounded continuously:  $PV = Ae^{-rt}$

### PRESENT VALUE OF ANNUITIES AND PERPETUITIES

Present value of amount  $P$  paid yearly (starting next year) for  $t$  years or in perpetuity:

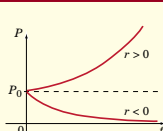
- Interest compounded yearly
  - Annuity paid for  $t$  years:  $PV = \frac{P}{r} \left(1 - \frac{1}{(1+r)^t}\right)$
  - Perpetuity:  $PV = \frac{P}{r}$
- Interest compounded continuously
  - Annuity paid for  $t$  years:  $PV = \frac{P}{r_{\text{eff}}} (1 - e^{-rt}) = \frac{P}{e^r - 1} (1 - e^{-rt})$
  - Perpetuity:  $PV = \frac{P}{r_{\text{eff}}} = \frac{P}{e^r - 1}$

## BIOLOGY

- In all the following models
- $P(t)$ : size of the population at time  $t$ ;
  - $P_0 = P(0)$ , the size of the population at time  $t = 0$ ;
  - $r$ : coefficient of rate of growth.

### EXPONENTIAL (MALTHUSIAN) GROWTH / EXPONENTIAL DECAY MODEL

- Solution:**  $P(t) = P_0 e^{rt}$
- If  $r > 0$ , this is **exponential growth**; if  $r < 0$ , **exponential decay**.

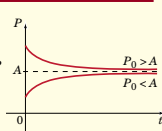


### RESTRICTED GROWTH (A.K.A. LEARNING CURVE) MODEL

$$\frac{dP}{dt} = r(A - P)$$

- $A$ : long-term asymptotic value of  $P$
- Solution:**

$$P(t) = A + (P_0 - A)e^{-rt}$$



### LOGISTIC GROWTH MODEL

$$\frac{dP}{dt} = rP \left(1 - \frac{P}{K}\right)$$

- $K$ : the **carrying capacity**
- Solution:**

$$P(t) = \frac{K}{1 + \left(\frac{K - P_0}{P_0}\right)e^{-rt}}$$

