

converges to the unique fixpoint x^* of f .

Fact: If $f: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is differentiable and we can find $K < 1$ s.t. $|f'(t)| \leq K$ for all $t \in \mathbb{R}$ then f is a contraction.

Newton-Raphson Method

$$f(x) := x - \frac{f(x)}{f'(x)}$$

Chapter 8

Definition (Improper Integral): Let $a \in \mathbb{R}$ and $f: [a, \infty) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ and consider $\int_a^\infty f(x) dx$, an improper integral "of first kind". Suppose

$\int_a^L f(x) dx$ exists for every real $L > a$ if f continuous define

$$\int_a^\infty f(x) dx := \lim_{L \rightarrow \infty} \int_a^L f(x) dx \text{ if the limit}$$

exists and is finite. [非常重要]

[Comparison test]

Theorem: Suppose that $a \in \mathbb{R}$, and $f: [a, \infty) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ and $g: [a, \infty) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ are continuous functions with $|f(x)| \leq g(x)$ for all x .

Suppose $\int_a^\infty g(x) dx$ converges. Then $\int_a^\infty f(x) dx$ converges

Rule: If $f: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is differentiable and we can find $K < 1$ s.t. $|f'(t)| \leq K$ for all $t \in \mathbb{R}$. then f is a contraction

take $x, y \in \mathbb{R}$. By mean value theorem

$$\text{mean value theorem: } f(t) = \frac{f(y) - f(x)}{y - x} \text{ where.}$$

$$|f(x) - f(y)| = |f'(t)| |x - y| \leq K |x - y|$$

$$|f'(t)| \leq K$$

Summary of contraction.

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Chapter 9.

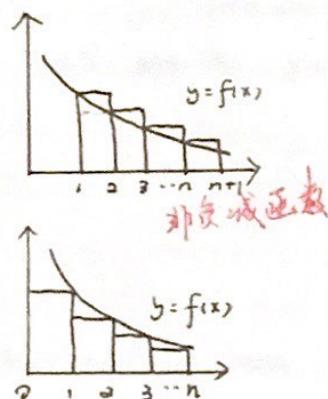
The series converges if the sequence of partial sums $S_n = \sum_{k=1}^n a_k$ converges to a finite limit as $n \rightarrow \infty$.

It's harmonic series $\sum \frac{1}{k}$

contrapositive:

If $a_n \not\rightarrow 0$, then

$\sum a_k$ diverges



Definite: Let $p \in \mathbb{Z}$ and let a_p, a_{p+1}, \dots be CR

for $p \leq n \in \mathbb{N}$, we define the partial sum by

$$S_n := \sum_{k=p}^n a_k \quad \text{we say series } \sum_{k=p}^{\infty} a_k \text{ converges}$$

to SER, if the sequence of partial sum converges to S. i.e. if $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} S_n = S$.

Divergence test.

If the series $\sum_{k=p}^{\infty} a_k$ converges, then $a_n \rightarrow 0$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$.

proof: $S_n := \sum a_k \rightarrow L$

$$S_{n-1} \rightarrow L$$

$$a_n = S_n - S_{n-1} = L - L = 0$$

Integral Test

Let $p \in \mathbb{Z}$ and let $f: [p, \infty) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be a continuous

non-negative and non-increasing function

$\int_p^{\infty} f(x) dx \quad \sum_{k=p}^{\infty} f(k)$ either both converges or both diverges.

$$\int_1^{n+1} f(x) dx \leq a_1 + a_2 + \dots + a_n$$

$$a_1 + a_2 + \dots + a_n \leq \int_1^n f(x) dx$$

$$\int_1^{n+1} f(x) dx \leq \sum_{k=1}^{n+1} a_k \leq \int_1^{n+2} f(x) dx + a_1$$

If $\int_1^{\infty} f(x) dx$ is finite, RHS shows $\sum a_n$ finite

If $\int_1^{\infty} f(x) dx$ is infinite, LHS shows $\sum a_n$ infinite.

Summary

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Absolute Convergence

If $\sum_{k=p}^{\infty} |a_k|$ converges, then $\sum_{k=p}^{\infty} a_k$ converges.

Contradiction

Algebra of limits.

Comparison test

Let $\sum_{k=p}^{\infty} a_k$ be a series. Suppose we have an integer $g \geq p$, a real number $M > 0$ and a convergent series $\sum_{k=g}^{\infty} b_k$ s.t.

$$|a_k| \leq M b_k \text{ for } k \geq g.$$

Then $\sum_{k=p}^{\infty} a_k$ converges absolutely.

choose $p = g$:

$$\sum_p^{\infty} a_k \leq \sum_p^{\infty} |a_k| \leq M \sum_p^{\infty} b_k$$

Limit Comparison Test

Let $(a_k)_{k \geq p}$ and $(b_k)_{k \geq p}$ be sequences s.t.

$a_k, b_k > 0$ for all k and such that $\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} \frac{a_k}{b_k} = L$ exists. Then $\sum_{k=p}^{\infty} a_k$ and $\sum_{k=p}^{\infty} b_k$ either both converges or both diverges

Summary

The Ratio Test

Let $(a_k)_{k \geq p}$ be a sequence s.t. $a_k \neq 0$
for all k and s.t. $\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} |a_{k+1}/a_k| = L$ exists

$$\text{Then } \sum_{k=p}^{\infty} a_k$$

(i) diverges if $L > 1$

(ii) converges absolutely if $L < 1$

(iii) may converge or diverges if $L = 1$

no info.

Alternating Series Test

Let $(b_k)_{k \geq p}$ be a real sequence satisfying

(i) $b_k > 0$ for all $k \geq p$;

(ii) $b_{k+1} \leq b_k$ for all $k \geq p$;

(iii) $b_k \rightarrow 0$ as $k \rightarrow \infty$

$$\text{Then } \sum_{k=p}^{\infty} (-1)^{k+1} b_k$$

Power Series

Let a and c_0, c_1, \dots be real numbers. The series

$$f(x) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} c_k (x-a)^k$$

is called power series with centre a and coefficients c_k .

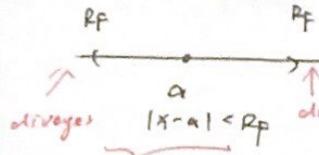
Summary

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Radius of Convergence.

let $f(x) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} c_k(x-a)^k$ be a power series.

then is R_f with $0 < R_f \leq \infty$. the radius of convergence with the



(i) if $|x-a| > R_f$, $f(x)$ diverges

(ii) if $|x-a| < R_f$, $f(x)$ converges absolutely

(iii) if $0 < R_f < \infty$ $|x-a| = R_f$, $f(x)$ may diverge or converge.

If $R_f = 0$ $f(x)$ only converges for $x=a$

If $R_f = \infty$ $f(x)$ converges absolutely for all $x \in \mathbb{R}$,

If $0 < R_f < \infty$, we call $\{x : |x-a| < R_f\}$ the interval of convergence.



Lemma: Suppose that $|x-a| < |X-a|$ and

in the interval that $f(X) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} c_k(X-a)^k$ converges. Then

$F(x) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} c_k(x-a)^k$ converges absolutely.

Theorem let $f(x) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} c_k(x-a)^k$

If R_f , f is continuous and can be differentiated term by term. $x=a$.

$$f(a) = c_0 \quad f'(a) = 1 \cdot c_1 \quad f''(a) = 2 \cdot 1 \cdot c_2$$

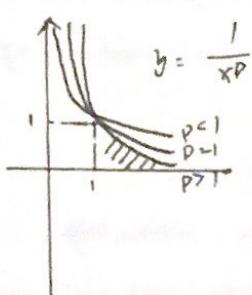
$$f^{(n)}(a) = n! \cdot c_n$$

$$c_n = \frac{F^{(n)}(a)}{n!} \quad \text{for all } n \in \mathbb{N}$$

Summary

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P-test.



1) $y = \frac{1}{x^p}$ (when $x > 1$)
越靠近 x 轴.

曲线下方的阴影区域
存在有限面积
的可能性也越大

$$\int_1^{+\infty} \frac{dx}{x^p}$$

$$\int_1^u \frac{dx}{x^p} = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{1-p} (u^{1-p} - 1) & p \neq 1 \\ \ln u & p = 1 \end{cases}$$

$$\lim_{u \rightarrow +\infty} \int_1^u \frac{dx}{x^p} = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{p-1}, & p > 1 \\ +\infty, & p \leq 1 \end{cases}$$

瑕积分

设 f 定义在 (a, b) , 在 a 附近右邻域上无界, 但在任何
闭区间 $[u, b] \subset (a, b)$ 上有界且可积. 若存在极限

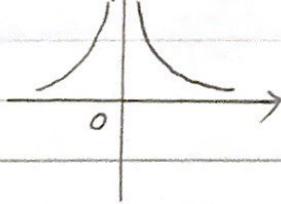
$$\lim_{u \rightarrow a^+} \int_u^b f(x) dx = J$$

则称此极限为无界函数 f 在 (a, b) 上的反常积分

记作 $J = \int_a^b f(x) dx$. 并称反常积分 $\int_a^b f(x) dx$
收敛

f 在 a 附近无界, a 称
为 f 的瑕点, 反常积
分称为瑕积分

类型瑕积分: $\int_{-1}^1 \frac{dx}{x^2}$. 奇点为 0.



Summary

柯西判别法:

设 $f: [a, +\infty) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$

① $0 \leq f(x) \leq \frac{1}{x^p}$, $x \in [a, +\infty)$, 且 $p > 1$ 时 $\int_a^{+\infty} f(x) dx$ 收敛

② $f(x) \geq \frac{1}{x^p}$, $x \in [a, +\infty)$, 且 $p \leq 1$ 时 $\int_a^{+\infty} f(x) dx$ 发散

设 $f: [a, +\infty) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow +\infty} x^p f(x) = \infty$$

① 当 $p > 1$, $0 < x < +\infty$, $\int_a^{+\infty} f(x) dx$ 收敛

② 当 $p \leq 1$, $0 < x \leq +\infty$, $\int_a^{+\infty} f(x) dx$ 发散

狄利克雷判别法

若 $f(x) = \int_0^x g(t) dt$ 在 $[a, +\infty)$ 上有界, $g(x)$ 在 $[a, +\infty)$ 上当 $x \rightarrow +\infty$ 时单调趋于 0, 则 $\int_a^{+\infty} f(x) g(x) dx$ 收敛

阿贝尔判别法

若 $\int_a^{+\infty} f(x) dx$ 收敛, $g(x)$ 在 $[a, +\infty)$ 上单调有界

则 $\int_a^{+\infty} f(x) g(x) dx$ 收敛.

Summary

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级数阿贝尔判别法：

若 $\{a_n\}$ 为单调有界数列，且级数 $\sum b_n$ 收敛
则级数 $\sum a_n b_n$ 收敛

级数狄利克雷判别法：

若数列 $\{a_n\}$ 单调递减，且 $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = 0$ ，又级数
 $\sum b_n$ 的部分和数列有界，则 $\sum a_n b_n$ 收敛

幂级数

$$\sum a_n(x-x_0)^n = a_0 + a_1(x-x_0) + \dots + a_n(x-x_0)^n$$

阿贝尔定理：

$\sum a_n x^n$
若幂级数 $\sum a_n x^n$ 在 $x=\bar{x} \neq 0$ 处收敛
则对满足不等式 $|x| < |\bar{x}|$ 的任何 x ，幂级数
收敛且绝对收敛；若幂级数在 $x=\bar{x}$ 处发散
则对满足不等式 $|x| > |\bar{x}|$ 的任何 x ，幂级数
发散。

$\xleftarrow{\quad R \quad} \xrightarrow{\quad R \quad}$ 收敛域

$x=0$ 幂级数 $\sum a_n x^n$ 在 $x=0$ 处收敛

$x=\pm\infty$ 幂级数 $\sum a_n x^n$ 在 $(-\infty, +\infty)$ 上收敛

$0 < R < +\infty$ 幂级数 $\sum a_n x^n$ 在 $(-R, R)$ 上收敛 $|x| > R$ 发散
 $x = \pm R$ ，可能收敛可能发散。

$(-R, R)$ 收敛区间。

Summary

柯西-Hadamard 定理, 級數

$$p = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sqrt[n]{|a_n|}$$

- ① $0 < p < +\infty$, 收斂半徑 $R = \frac{1}{p}$
- ② $p = 0$, $R = +\infty$
- ③ $p = +\infty$, $R = 0$

Nondimensionalization

$$m \frac{d^2x}{dt^2} + b \frac{dx}{dt} + cx = F_0 \cos(\omega_0 t)$$

$$\text{Variables: } x \rightarrow \tilde{x}, t \rightarrow \tilde{t}$$

- reduce the parameters
- identify relative size of terms

$$\frac{dx}{dt} = r A$$

Define a new variable

pick existing parameters

to multiply or divide

to create steps:

a dimensionless



variable

variables: A, t

parameters: r

dimension: $N \cdot T$

constant: N_0, T_0

nondim variables: $\tilde{x} = \frac{x}{N_0}, \tilde{t} = \frac{t}{T_0}$ dimensionless.

Rearrange: $A = x N_0, t = T_0$

substitute: $\frac{d(x N_0)}{d(t T_0)} = r x N_0$

$$\frac{dx}{dt} = r T_0 \tilde{x}$$

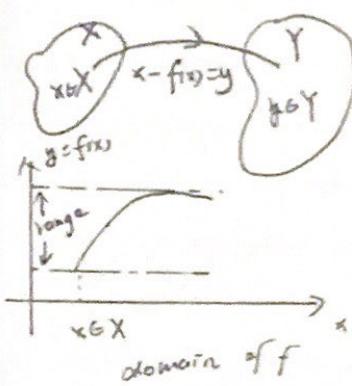
dimensionless = dimensionless

choose constant: $T_0 = 1/r$

$$\frac{dx}{dt} = \tilde{x}$$

Summary

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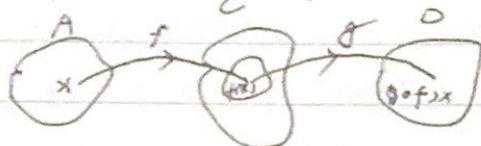


Calculus Summary

Composition of function

$$f: A \rightarrow B \quad g: C \rightarrow D \quad B \subseteq C$$

$$g \circ f: A \rightarrow D \quad g(f(x))$$



Inverse function

Definition: $f(x_1) \neq f(x_2)$ whenever $x_1 \neq x_2$

f is injective. f is invertible.

there exist a inverse function f^{-1}

$$x = f^{-1}(y)$$

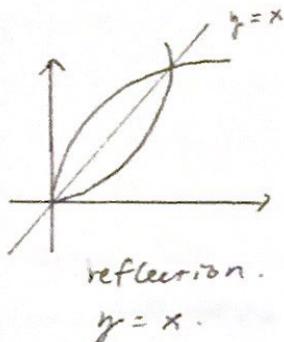
$$f^{-1}(f(x)) = x \quad (f^{-1} \circ f)(x) = x$$

$$f(f^{-1}(y)) = y \quad (f \circ f^{-1})(y) = y$$

Remark: strictly increasing: $f(x_1) < f(x_2)$

strictly decreasing: $g(x_2) < g(x_1)$

Every strictly increasing function and every strictly decreasing function is injective and so have an inverse.



Summary

Polynomial function.

$$f(x) = a_n x^n + a_{n-1} x^{n-1} + \dots + a_2 x^2 + a_1 x + a_0$$

($f \in \mathbb{R}$)

n : degree of the polynomial

Polynomial function has finite terms.

$\frac{1}{1-x^2} = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} x^{2k} = 1 + x^2 + x^4 + x^6 + \dots$ is not a polynomial function.

Rational function

$$f(x) = \frac{p(x)}{q(x)}$$
 where p and q are polynomials

and q is not the identically vanishing polynomial
($q \neq 0$)

$$f \in \{x \in \mathbb{R} / q(x) \neq 0\}$$

a polynomial is a special case of a rational function, $q(x) = 1$

Algebra function.

$$a_n(x)y^n + a_{n-1}(x)y^{n-1} + \dots + a_1(x)y + a_0(x) = 0$$

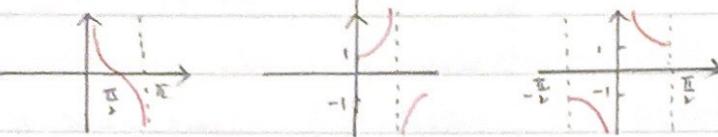
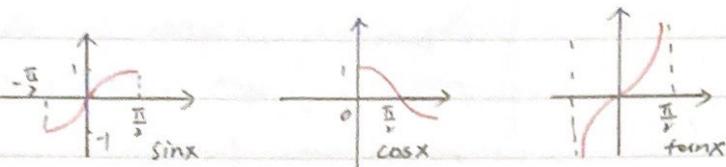
with polynomial function $a_0(x), a_1(x), a_2(x), \dots$

a rational function is a special case of an algebra function, a_1, a_2, \dots are identically vanishing.

Summary

Transcendental function

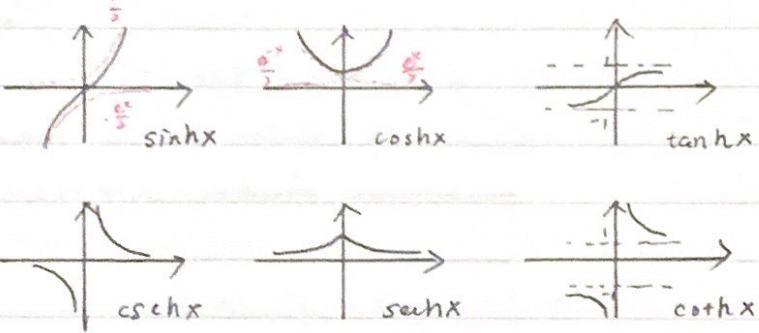
A function that is not algebraic
Trigonometric, exponential, logarithmic
and hyperbolic function



Hyperbolic function.

$$\cosh x = \frac{1}{2}(e^x + e^{-x})$$

$$\sinh x = \frac{1}{2}(e^x - e^{-x})$$



Even function: $f(-x) = f(x)$ for all x

Odd function: $f(-x) = -f(x)$ for all x

Periodic: $f(x+p) = f(x)$

$f = \frac{l}{p}$ frequency.

Summary

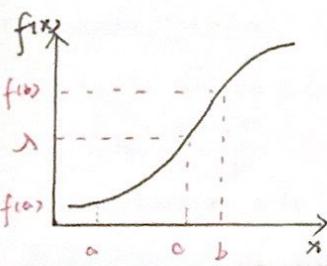
limit:

definition: Let f be a function defined on an interval containing $x = x_0$, but not necessarily at $x = x_0$, and let $c \in \mathbb{R}$. Suppose that for any positive number ϵ there exists a positive number δ such that $|f(x) - c| < \epsilon$ for all $0 < |x - x_0| < \delta$. We say that f has a limit c as x tends to x_0 .

~~$x \rightarrow x_0$~~

continuity.

- If f is known to be continuous, its limit as $x \rightarrow x_0$ can be found by just evaluating $f(x_0)$.



Intermediate Value Theorem

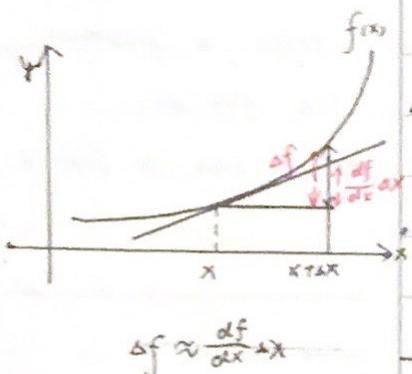
Theorem: Suppose f is continuous on $[a, b]$ and $f(a) \neq f(b)$. Let λ be a number in the open interval between the end-point values of f , i.e. $f(a) < \lambda < f(b)$ or $f(b) < \lambda < f(a)$. There exist some $c \in (a, b)$ s.t. $\lambda = f(c)$.

Summary

Differentiation.

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

Theorem: Differentiable \Rightarrow continuous



$$f'(x) = \lim_{\Delta x \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(x+\Delta x) - f(x)}{\Delta x} = \lim_{\Delta x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\Delta f}{\Delta x}$$

$$\Delta f \approx \frac{df}{dx} \Delta x$$

$$f(x) \approx f(x_0) + \frac{df}{dx} \Delta x \quad \Delta x = x - x_0$$

Differentiation rule

$$\cdot u + v \Rightarrow' = u' + v'$$

$$\cdot (uv)' = u'v + uv'$$

$$\cdot \left(\frac{u}{v}\right)' = \frac{uv - uv'}{v^2}$$

chain rule $h = f \circ g$

$$\frac{dh}{dx} = \frac{df}{dy} \frac{dy}{dx} \quad y = g(x)$$

or

$$h'(x_0) = f'(g(x_0)) \cdot g'(x_0)$$

$$f \circ f^{-1}: f(f^{-1}(x)) = x$$

$$f'(f^{-1}(x)) \frac{d}{dx} f^{-1}(x) = 1$$

chain rule.

Inverse function

$$\frac{d}{dx} f^{-1}(x) = \frac{1}{f'(f^{-1}(x))}$$

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{1}{\frac{dx}{dy}} \quad (\text{where } y = f(x), x = f(y))$$

Summary

Leibniz's Theorem (Higher Orders)

Theorem: Suppose u and v are functions that are n times differentiable at a point x and $f = uv$; then f is n times differentiable and

$$f^{(n)} = u v^{(n)} + {}^n C_1 u' v^{(n-1)} + {}^n C_2 u'' v^{(n-2)} + \dots + {}^n C_{n-1} u^{(n-1)} v + u v^{(n)}$$

$$= \sum_{r=0}^n \binom{n}{r} u^{(r)} v^{(n-r)}$$

$$\binom{n}{r} = \frac{n!}{r!(n-r)!} = {}^n C_r \quad f^{(0)} = f$$

Differentiability

Theorem: Suppose f_1 and f_2 are differentiable and one-side limits $\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0^-} f_1'(x)$ and $\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0^+} f_2'(x)$ exists and

are finite. Then f is differentiable at x_0 iff:

Example:

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} x & \text{for } x < 0 \\ a & \text{for } x = 0 \\ bx & \text{for } x > 0 \end{cases}$$

a) continuous at $x=0$?

b) differentiable at $x=0$?

c) $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0^-} f(x) = 0, \lim_{x \rightarrow 0^+} f(x) = 0$

$$f(0) = a$$

Hence, f is continuous

at $x=0$ iff $a=0$

(i) f is continuous at x_0

$$(ii) \lim_{x \rightarrow x_0^-} f'(x) = \lim_{x \rightarrow x_0^+} f'(x)$$

$$f'(x_0) = \lim_{x \rightarrow x_0^-} f'(x) = \lim_{x \rightarrow x_0^+} f'(x)$$

Summary

b) $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0^-} f(x) = 1, \lim_{x \rightarrow 0^+} f(x) = b$

differentiable at $x=0$ iff

$$a=0 \quad b=1$$

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Local Extrema

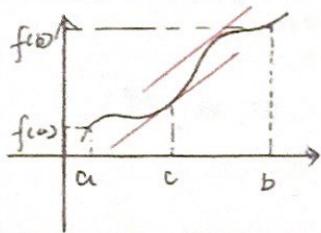
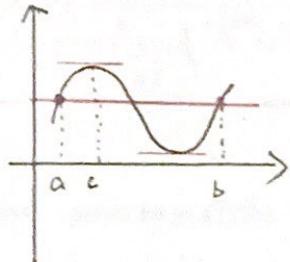
definition: f be a real function in interval around x_0

i. f is said to be local maximum at x_0 if $\exists \delta > 0$

$$f(x) \leq f(x_0) \text{ whenever } |x - x_0| < \delta$$

ii. f is said to have a local minimum at x_0 if $\exists \delta > 0$

$$f(x) \geq f(x_0) \text{ whenever } |x - x_0| < \delta$$



Rolle's Theorem:

Theorem: Suppose f is continuous on $[a, b]$

and differentiable on (a, b) . If $f(a) = f(b)$

there exists a point $c \in (a, b)$ for which

$$f'(c) = 0.$$

Mean Value Theorem:

Theorem: Suppose f is continuous on $[a, b]$

and differentiable on (a, b) . Then for some

$$c \in (a, b)$$

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

Summary

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Taylor's Theorem

Theorem: Suppose f is $n+1$ times differentiable on $[x_0, x]$. Then

$$f(x) = f(x_0) + (x-x_0)f'(x_0) + \frac{(x-x_0)^2}{2!}f''(x_0) + \dots + \frac{(x-x_0)^n}{n!}f^{(n)}(x_0) + E_n(x)$$

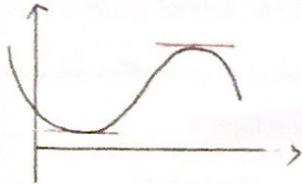
Taylor polynomial

$$E_n(x) = \frac{(x-x_0)^{n+1}}{(n+1)!} f^{(n+1)}(\xi) \quad \xi \in (x_0, x)$$

Maclaurin Series

$$e^x = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{x^n}{n!} = 1 + x + \frac{x^2}{2!} + \frac{x^3}{3!} + \dots$$

$$\ln(1+x) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^{n+1} x^n}{n} = x - \frac{x^2}{2} + \frac{x^3}{3} - \frac{x^4}{4} + \dots$$



Stationary point of a function

Definition: For a differentiable function f , a point at which f' vanishes is called a stationary point of f . $f' = 0$.

Theorem: Suppose f'' exists and is continuous in some interval containing the stationary point x_0 .

(i) $f''(x_0) < 0 \Rightarrow x_0$ is a maximum

(ii) $f''(x_0) > 0 \Rightarrow x_0$ is a minimum

Summary

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{ lowest
nonvanishing }

Theorem: Suppose that the lowest nonvanishing derivative of f at the stationary point x_0 is $f^{(k)}(x_0)$, $k \geq 2$ and suppose $f^{(k+1)}$ exists and is continuous in some interval containing x_0 . Then:

(i) if k is even and $f^{(k)}(x_0) < 0 \Rightarrow x_0$ maximum

(ii) if k is even and $f^{(k)}(x_0) > 0 \Rightarrow x_0$ minimum

(iii) if k is odd $\Rightarrow x_0$ is point of inflection

Integration

$$\int_a^b f(x) dx = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{i=1}^n f(\xi_i) \Delta x_i$$

Fundamental theorem of calculus

Theorem:

★
极限和积分

1. If f is continuous on $[a, b]$, $x \in [a, b]$

$$A(x) = \int_a^x f(t) dt$$

$$\frac{dA(x)}{dx} = f(x)$$

2. If f is continuous on $[a, b]$ and F is any anti-derivative of f . then

$$\int_a^b f(x) dx = F(b) - F(a) = [F(x)]_{x=a}^{x=b}$$

Summary

Integration by part.

$$(fg)' = f'g + fg'$$

$$\int f'g = fg - \int fg'$$

How to choose:

f' is simpler than gf

g is simpler than g'

Reduction formula

$$I_n = \int_0^\infty x^n e^{-ax} dx$$

Derivative n times

- Find explicit formula for I_n

Integration
by part.

$$I_0 = \int_0^\infty e^{-ax} dx = [-\frac{1}{a} e^{-ax}]_0^\infty = \frac{1}{a}$$

$$\begin{aligned} I_n &= \int_0^\infty x^n e^{-ax} dx = [x^n (-\frac{1}{a} e^{-ax})]_0^\infty - \int_0^\infty n x^{n-1} (-\frac{1}{a} e^{-ax}) dx \\ &= 0 - 0 + \frac{n}{a} \int_0^\infty x^{n-1} e^{-ax} dx \\ &= \frac{n}{a} I_{n-1} \end{aligned}$$

recursive:

$$I_n = \frac{n}{a} I_{n-1} = (\frac{n}{a})(\frac{n-1}{a}) I_{n-2}$$

$$= (\frac{n}{a})(\frac{n-1}{a})(\frac{n-2}{a}) \cdots (\frac{2}{a})(\frac{1}{a}) I_0$$

$$I_0 = 1/a$$

$$I_n = \cancel{\frac{n!}{a^{n+1}}} \quad n!/a^{n+1}$$

Summary

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Integration by trigonometric substitution

$$t = \tan(\frac{x}{2})$$

$$\sin x = \frac{2t}{1+t^2}$$

$$\cos x = \frac{1-t^2}{1+t^2}$$

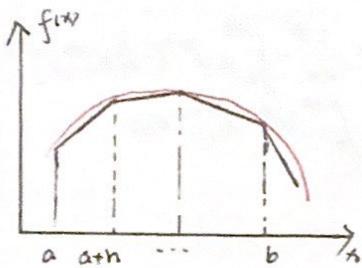
$$dx = \frac{2}{1+t^2} dt$$

Partial fraction

$$1. \frac{1}{(x+a)(x+b)} = \frac{A}{(x+a)} + \frac{B}{(x+b)}$$

$$2. \frac{1}{(x+a)^2(x+b)} = \frac{A}{(x+a)} + \frac{B}{(x+a)^2} + \frac{C}{(x+b)}$$

$$3. \frac{1}{(x^2+a^2)(x+b)} = \frac{Ax+B}{(x^2+a^2)} + \frac{C}{(x+b)}$$



Numerical integration.

$$I = \int_a^b f(x) dx$$

Trapezium rule for a single strip

$$I = \int_a^{a+h} f(x) dx$$

$$A_1 = \frac{h}{2} (f_0 + f_1)$$

$$A_2 = \frac{h}{2} (f_1 + f_2)$$

$$A_3 = \frac{h}{2} (f_2 + f_3)$$

$$A_{n-2} = \frac{h}{2} (f_{n-2} + f_{n-1})$$

$$A_n = \frac{h}{2} (f_0 + f_n)$$

rectangle: $hf(a)$

triangle: $\frac{1}{2} h [f(a+h) - f(a)]$

$$I = \frac{1}{2} h [f(a) + f(a+h)]$$

$$\int_a^b f(x) dx \approx \frac{h}{2} [f_0 + 2(f_1 + f_2 + \dots + f_{n-1}) + f_n]$$



Riemann Trapezoidal Simpson's rule.
Sums rule

George Willsons

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check.

(Foundation Calculus)

Error:

$$S(h) = \int_a^{a+h} f(x) - \frac{1}{2}h[f(a) + f(a+h)]$$

$$|S(h)| \leq \frac{1}{12}h^3 (\max_{a \leq x \leq a+h} |f''(x)|)$$

Trapezium rule for multiple strip.

$$\int_a^b f(x) dx = \frac{1}{2}h[f(a) + f(b)] + h \sum_{n=1}^{N-1} f(a+nh)$$

$$a + Nh = b.$$

$$\frac{(b-a)^3 M}{12 n^2}$$

$$|S_{\text{total}}| \leq \frac{1}{12} N h^3 (\max_{a \leq x \leq b} |f''(x)|) = \frac{1}{12} (b-a)^2 h^2 (\max_{a \leq x \leq b} |f''(x)|)$$

Ordinary differential Equation

Order: highest derivative

Degree: degree of ODE is the power to which
the highest-order derivative is raised.

Linearity

$$a_n(x) \frac{d^n y}{dx^n} + a_{n-1}(x) \frac{d^{n-1} y}{dx^{n-1}} + \dots + a_1(x) \frac{dy}{dx} + a_0(x)y = f(x)$$

$$f(x) = 0.$$

homogeneous.

Summary

Euler homogeneity

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = f\left(\frac{y}{x}\right)$$

Substitution $y = xv$

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = v + x \cdot \frac{dv}{dx} = fv \text{ or}$$

$$x \frac{dv}{dx} = fv - v$$

$$\int \frac{dv}{fv - v} = \int \frac{dx}{x} + C$$

Second-order

$$a \frac{d^2y}{dx^2} + b \frac{dy}{dx} + cy = 0$$

$$am^2 + bm + c = 0$$

Case 1: real distinct $y = Ae^{mx} + Be^{nx}$

Case 2: real repeated roots $y = Ae^{mx} + Bxe^{mx}$

Case 3: complex conjugate root $y = e^{\alpha x} [C \cos \beta x + D \sin \beta x]$
 $m = \alpha \pm (\beta i)$

Inhomogeneous

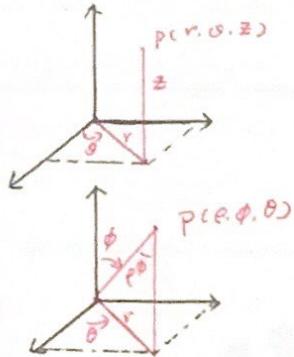
$$a \frac{d^2y}{dx^2} + b \frac{dy}{dx} + cy = f(x)$$

$$y(x) = y_f + y_p.$$

System of ODE

Summary

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Two variables:

$$z = f(x, y)$$

$f(x, y) = c$ level curve.

Cartesian coordinate

Cylindrical coordinate (r, θ, z) Spherical coordinate (ρ, ϕ, θ) $0 \leq \phi \leq \pi$, $0 \leq \theta \leq 2\pi$

$$(p \sin \phi \cos \theta, p \sin \phi \sin \theta, p \cos \phi)$$

Parametric form $r = (x, y, z) = (x(t), y(t), z(t))$

Tangent vector: $\frac{dr}{dt} = \left(\frac{dx}{dt}, \frac{dy}{dt}, \frac{dz}{dt} \right)$ is a tangent vector to the curve at $r(t)$

Surfaces in parametric form:

$$r(u, v) = (x(u, v), y(u, v), z(u, v))$$

 $r_u \times r_v \rightarrow$ normal.

Limits

Definition: $f(x, y)$ has a limit l as (x, y) approaches (a, b) , given any $\epsilon > 0$ we can find $\delta > 0$ such that $|f(x, y) - l| < \epsilon$ when $0 < |(x, y) - (a, b)| < \delta$

Continuity

Definition: f is continuous at (a, b) if

$(a, b) \in$ the domain of f and $\lim_{(x, y) \rightarrow (a, b)} f(x, y) = f(a, b)$

Summary

Partial Derivatives

$$z = f(x, y)$$

$$\frac{\partial z}{\partial x} \quad \frac{\partial z}{\partial y}$$

Higher Order

$$\frac{\partial^2 z}{\partial x^2} \quad \frac{\partial^2 z}{\partial x \partial y} \quad \frac{\partial^2 z}{\partial y^2}$$

Implicit differentiation

$$z = z(x, y) \quad \frac{dy}{dx} = -\frac{F_x}{F_y}$$

Small changes and differentials

$$y = y(x) \quad \frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{dy}{dx} \quad dy \approx \frac{dy}{dx} dx$$

$$z = z(x, y) \quad dz \approx \frac{\partial z}{\partial x} dx + \frac{\partial z}{\partial y} dy$$

Differentials

$$dy = \frac{\partial z}{\partial x} dx$$

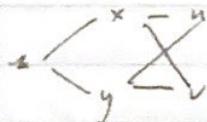
$$\frac{\partial z}{\partial y}$$

$$dz = \frac{\partial z}{\partial x} dx + \frac{\partial z}{\partial y} dy$$

dx and dy are called differentials

Chain rule.

$$z = z(x, y) \quad x = x(u, v) \quad y = y(u, v)$$



Summary