# Calculus Notes

## Abror Maksudov

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## 1 Limits

## 1.1 Precise Definition of a Limit

#### **Standard Limit:**

$$\lim_{x\to a} f(x) = L \quad \text{if} \quad \forall \varepsilon > 0, \, \exists \delta > 0 \text{ such that } 0 < |x-a| < \delta \Rightarrow |f(x) - L| < \varepsilon.$$

## 1.2 Precise Definition of One-Sided Limit

## **Right-Hand Limit:**

$$\lim_{x \to a^+} f(x) = L \quad \text{if} \quad \forall \varepsilon > 0, \ \exists \delta > 0 \text{ such that } 0 < x - a < \delta \Rightarrow |f(x) - L| < \varepsilon.$$

#### **Left-Hand Limit:**

$$\lim_{x \to a^{-}} f(x) = L \quad \text{if} \quad \forall \varepsilon > 0, \ \exists \delta > 0 \text{ such that } 0 < a - x < \delta \Rightarrow |f(x) - L| < \varepsilon.$$

#### 1.3 Precise Definition of Infinite Limit

#### **Infinite Limit:**

$$\lim_{x \to a} f(x) = \infty \quad \text{if} \quad \forall M > 0, \ \exists \delta > 0 \text{ such that } 0 < |x - a| < \delta \Rightarrow f(x) > M.$$

$$\lim_{x \to a} f(x) = -\infty \quad \text{if} \quad \forall M > 0, \ \exists \delta > 0 \text{ such that } 0 < |x - a| < \delta \Rightarrow f(x) < -M.$$

## 1.4 Precise Definition of a Limit at Infinity

## Limit at Infinity:

$$\lim_{x \to \infty} f(x) = L \quad \text{if} \quad \forall \varepsilon > 0, \ \exists M > 0 \text{ such that } x > M \Rightarrow |f(x) - L| < \varepsilon.$$

$$\lim_{x \to -\infty} f(x) = L \quad \text{if} \quad \forall \varepsilon > 0, \ \exists M > 0 \text{ such that } x < -M \Rightarrow |f(x) - L| < \varepsilon.$$

## 1.5 Precise Definition of Infinite Limit at Infinity

## Infinite Limit at Infinity:

$$\lim_{x\to\infty} f(x) = \infty \quad \text{if} \quad \forall M > 0, \ \exists N > 0 \text{ such that } x > N \Rightarrow f(x) > M.$$

$$\lim_{x \to \infty} f(x) = -\infty \quad \text{if} \quad \forall M > 0, \ \exists N > 0 \text{ such that } x > N \Rightarrow f(x) < -M.$$

$$\lim_{x \to -\infty} f(x) = \infty \quad \text{if} \quad \forall M > 0, \ \exists N > 0 \text{ such that } x < -N \Rightarrow f(x) > M.$$

$$\lim_{x \to -\infty} f(x) = -\infty \quad \text{if} \quad \forall M > 0, \ \exists N > 0 \text{ such that } x < -N \Rightarrow f(x) < -M.$$

#### 1.6 Limit Laws

Suppose that c is a constant and the limits  $\lim_{x\to a} f(x)$  and  $\lim_{x\to a} g(x)$  exist. Then

$$1. \lim_{x \to a} c = c$$

$$2. \lim_{x \to a} x = a$$

3. 
$$\lim_{x \to a} [f(x) \pm g(x)] = \lim_{x \to a} f(x) \pm \lim_{x \to a} g(x)$$

4. 
$$\lim_{x \to a} [cf(x)] = c \lim_{x \to a} f(x)$$

5. 
$$\lim_{x \to a} [f(x)g(x)] = \lim_{x \to a} f(x) \cdot \lim_{x \to a} g(x)$$

6. 
$$\lim_{x \to a} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} = \frac{\lim_{x \to a} f(x)}{\lim_{x \to a} g(x)}$$
, if  $\lim_{x \to a} g(x) \neq 0$ 

7. 
$$\lim_{x \to a} [f(x)]^n = [\lim_{x \to a} f(x)]^n$$

8. 
$$\lim_{x \to a} \sqrt[n]{f(x)} = \sqrt[n]{\lim_{x \to a} f(x)}$$

## 1.7 Relationship between the Limit and One-Sided Limits

$$\lim_{x \to a} f(x) = L \quad \Leftrightarrow \quad \lim_{x \to a^+} f(x) = \lim_{x \to a^-} f(x) = L.$$

$$\lim_{x \to a^{+}} f(x) \neq \lim_{x \to a^{-}} f(x) \quad \Rightarrow \quad \lim_{x \to a} f(x) \text{ does not exist.}$$

## 1.8 Comparison Theorem

If  $f(x) \leq g(x)$  when x is near a, and  $\lim_{x \to a} f(x)$  and  $\lim_{x \to a} g(x)$  exist, then

$$\lim_{x \to a} f(x) \le \lim_{x \to a} g(x).$$

## 1.9 Squeeze Theorem

If  $f(x) \leq g(x) \leq h(x)$  when x is near a, and

$$\lim_{x\to a} f(x) = \lim_{x\to a} h(x) = L$$

then

$$\lim_{x \to a} g(x) = L.$$

## 1.10 Continuity

A function f(x) is **continuous at** x = a if and only if it satisfies **all** the following:

- (1) f(a) exists
- (2)  $\lim_{x \to a} f(x)$  exists
- $(3) \quad \lim_{x \to a} f(x) = f(a)$

Otherwise, f(x) is discontinuous at x = a.

## 1.11 Properties of Continuous Functions

If f(x) and g(x) are continuous at x = a and c is a constant, then the following functions are also continuous at x = a:

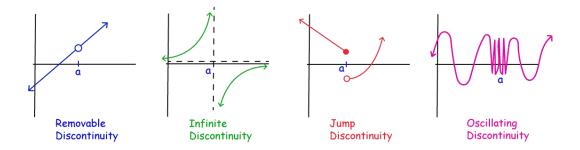
1. f + g

2. f - g

3. *cf* 

4. fg

5.  $\frac{f}{g}$  if  $g(a) \neq 0$ 



Source: calcworkshop.com

## 1.12 Types of Discontinuity

#### 1.13 Limits of Continuous Functions

If f(x) is continuous at b and  $\lim_{x\to a} g(x) = b$ , then

$$\lim_{x\to a} f(g(x)) = f(\lim_{x\to a} g(x)) = f(b).$$

If g is continuous at a and f is continuous at g(a), then the composite  $f \circ g$  is continuous at a.

## 1.14 Intermediate Value Theorem

If f is continuous on a closed interval [a, b], then for any N between f(a) and f(b),

$$\exists c \in [a, b] \text{ such that } f(c) = N$$

## 1.15 Asymptotes

**Vertical Asymptote:** x = a is a vertical asymptote if

$$\lim_{x \to a^{\pm}} f(x) = \pm \infty.$$

**Horizontal Asymptote:** y = L is a horizontal asymptote if

$$\lim_{x \to \pm \infty} f(x) = L.$$

For  $f(x) = \frac{P(x)}{Q(x)}$ , compare degrees of P and Q:

$$\deg P < \deg Q \quad \Rightarrow \quad y = 0.$$

$$\deg P = \deg Q \quad \Rightarrow \quad y = \frac{\text{leading coef. of } P}{\text{leading coef. of } Q}.$$

 $\deg P > \deg Q \implies$  no horizontal asymptote.

**Oblique Asymptote:** y = mx + b is an oblique asymptote if

$$\lim_{x \to \pm \infty} \left( f(x) - (mx + b) \right) = 0.$$

For a rational function  $f(x) = \frac{P(x)}{Q(x)}$ , if  $\deg P = \deg Q + 1$ , then f(x) has an oblique asymptote. Find it by polynomial long division:

$$f(x) = D(x) + \frac{R(x)}{Q(x)}$$
, as  $x \to \pm \infty$ ,  $f(x) \approx D(x)$ .

Curvilinear Asymptote: y = g(x) is a curvilinear asymptote if

$$\lim_{x \to \pm \infty} (f(x) - g(x)) = 0,$$

where g(x) is any non-linear function.

#### 1.16 Common Limits

Assume a > 0 in the following.

$$1. \lim_{x \to 0} \frac{\sin ax}{bx} = \frac{a}{b}$$

$$2. \lim_{x \to 0} \frac{\tan ax}{bx} = \frac{a}{b}$$

$$3. \lim_{x \to 0} \frac{1 - \cos x}{x} = 0$$

4. 
$$\lim_{x \to 0} \frac{1 - \cos x}{x^2} = \frac{1}{2}$$

5. 
$$\lim_{x \to 0} \frac{e^{ax} - 1}{x} = a$$

6. 
$$\lim_{x \to 0} \frac{a^x - 1}{x} = \ln a$$

7. 
$$\lim_{x \to 0} \left( 1 + \frac{k}{x} \right)^{mx} = e^{mk}$$

8. 
$$\lim_{x \to 0} \frac{\ln(1+x)}{x} = 1$$

9. 
$$\lim_{x \to 0} \frac{\log_a(1+x)}{x} = \log_a e$$

10. 
$$\lim_{x \to 0^+} x^x = 1$$

11. 
$$\lim_{x \to 0^+} x^a \ln x = 0$$

$$12. \lim_{x \to +\infty} x^{-a} \ln x = 0$$

## 2 Derivatives

#### 2.1 Derivative at a Point

The **derivative** of f(x) at x = a is the **instantaneous rate of change** at that point:

$$f'(a) = \frac{df}{dx}\Big|_{x=a} = \lim_{h\to 0} \frac{f(a+h) - f(a)}{h} = \lim_{x\to a} \frac{f(x) - f(a)}{x - a}.$$

#### 2.2 Derivative as a Function

The derivative of a function f(x) at a point x is defined as the limit

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

## 2.3 Differentiability

A function f(x) is **differentiable** at x = a if its derivative f'(x) exists. That is:

$$f(x)$$
 is differentiable at  $x = a \iff$  The limit  $\lim_{h \to 0} \frac{f(a+h) - f(a)}{h}$  exists.

## 2.4 Differentiability Implies Continuity

If f(x) is differentiable at x = a, then it is continuous at x = a:

f differentiable at  $a \implies f$  continuous at a.

However, the converse is false:

f continuous at  $a \implies f$  differentiable at a.

## 2.5 Properties of Derivatives

Let f(x) and g(x) be differentiable functions. Then the following rules hold:

$$(1) \quad \frac{d}{dx}(c) = 0.$$

$$(2) \quad \frac{d}{dx}(x^n) = nx^{n-1}.$$

(3) 
$$\frac{d}{dx}[cf(x)] = c[\frac{d}{dx}f(x)].$$

$$(4) \quad \frac{d}{dx}[f(x)\pm g(x)] = \frac{d}{dx}f(x)\pm \frac{d}{dx}g(x).$$

(5) 
$$\frac{d}{dx}[f(x)g(x)] = f'(x)g(x) + f(x)g'(x).$$

(6) 
$$\frac{d}{dx} \left[ \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} \right] = \frac{f'(x)g(x) - f(x)g'(x)}{g(x)^2}.$$

(7) 
$$\frac{d}{dx}[f(g(x))] = f'(g(x))g'(x).$$

#### 2.6 Table of Derivatives

$$(\sin x)' = \cos x \qquad (\arcsin x)' = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1 - x^2}} \qquad (e^x)' = e^x$$

$$(\cos x)' = -\sin x \qquad (\arccos x)' = -\frac{1}{\sqrt{1 - x^2}} \qquad (a^x)' = a^x \ln a$$

$$(\tan x)' = \sec^2 x \qquad (\arctan x)' = \frac{1}{1 + x^2} \qquad (\log_a x)' = \frac{1}{x \ln a}$$

$$(\cot x)' = -\csc^2 x \qquad (\operatorname{arccot} x)' = -\frac{1}{1 + x^2} \qquad (\ln x)' = \frac{1}{x}$$

$$(\sec x)' = \sec x \tan x \qquad (\operatorname{arcsec} x)' = \frac{1}{x\sqrt{x^2 - 1}} \qquad (|x|)' = \frac{x}{|x|}$$

$$(\csc x)' = -\csc x \cot x \qquad (\operatorname{arccsc} x)' = -\frac{1}{x\sqrt{x^2 - 1}} \qquad (x^x)' = x^x (1 + \ln x)$$

#### 2.7 Absolute and Local Extrema

Let f be defined on a domain D, and let  $c \in D$ .

- Absolute Maximum: f(c) is an absolute maximum if  $f(c) \ge f(x)$ ,  $\forall x \in D$ .
- Absolute Minimum: f(c) is an absolute minimum if  $f(c) \leq f(x)$ ,  $\forall x \in D$ .
- Local Maximum: f(c) is a local maximum if  $\exists \delta > 0$  such that  $f(c) \geq f(x)$ ,  $\forall x \in (c \delta, c + \delta)$ .
- Local Minimum: f(c) is a local minimum if  $\exists \delta > 0$  such that  $f(c) \leq f(x)$ ,  $\forall x \in (c \delta, c + \delta)$ .

#### 2.8 Extreme Value Theorem

If f is continuous on a closed interval [a, b], then f attains an absolute maximum and an absolute minimum on [a, b]:

$$\exists c, d \in [a, b] \text{ such that } f(c) \leq f(x) \leq f(d), \quad \forall x \in [a, b].$$

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## 2.9 Critical and Stationary Points

Let f be defined on an interval I and  $c \in I$ .

- Critical Point: c is a critical point of f if either
  - 1. f'(c) = 0, or
  - 2. f'(c) does not exist
- Stationary Point: c is a stationary point of f if f'(c) = 0.

Note: Every stationary point is a critical point, but not conversely.

#### 2.10 Rolle's Theorem

Let f satisfy all conditions:

- 1. f is continuous on [a, b].
- 2. f is differentiable on (a, b).
- 3. f(a) = f(b).

Then, there exists at least one  $c \in (a, b)$  such that f'(c) = 0.

#### 2.11 Mean Value Theorem

Let f satisfy all conditions:

- 1. f is continuous on [a, b].
- 2. f is differentiable on (a, b).

Then, there exists at least one  $c \in (a, b)$  such that:

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

Note: Rolle's Theorem is a special case of the Mean Value Theorem where f(a) = f(b).

## 2.12 Increasing/Decreasing Test

Let f be differentiable on an interval I. Then, for all  $x \in I$ :

- 1. If f'(x) > 0, then f is strictly increasing on I.
- 2. If f'(x) < 0, then f is strictly decreasing on I.
- 3. If f'(x) = 0, then f is constant on I.

#### 2.13 First Derivative Test

Let c be a critical point of a differentiable function f(x), meaning f'(c) = 0 or f'(c) does not exist. Then:

- 1. If f'(x) changes from positive to negative at x = c, then f(c) is a **local maximum**.
- 2. If f'(x) changes from negative to positive at x = c, then f(c) is a **local minimum**.
- 3. If f'(x) does not change sign at x = c, then f(c) is **neither** a local maximum nor a local minimum.

## 2.14 Concavity and Inflection Points

Concave up  $\iff$  Curve **lies above** all of its **tangent lines**.

Concave down  $\iff$  Curve **lies below** all of its **tangent lines**.

Inflection point  $\iff$  Point where **concavity changes**.

## 2.15 Concavity Test

Let f(x) be twice differentiable on interval I. Then:

- If f''(x) > 0,  $\forall x \in I \implies f(x)$  is **concave up** on I.
- If f''(x) < 0,  $\forall x \in I \implies f(x)$  is **concave down** on I.

#### 2.16 Second Derivative Test

Let c be a critical point of f where f(c) = 0. If f''(c) exists, then:

1. If f''(c) > 0, f(x) is concave up at c, so f(c) is a local minimum.

Local Maximum at  $c \iff f'(c) = 0$  and f''(c) < 0

2. If f''(c) < 0, f(x) is **concave down** at c, so f(c) is a **local maximum**.

Local Minimum at  $c \iff f'(c) = 0$  and f''(c) > 0

3. If f''(c) = 0 or **does not exist**, the test is **inconclusive**—use the First Derivative Test instead.

#### 2.17 L'Hôpital's Rule

Let f(x) and g(x) be differentiable on an open interval containing a (except possibly at a). If

$$\lim_{x\to a} f(x) = \lim_{x\to a} g(x) = 0 \text{ or } \lim_{x\to a} f(x) = \lim_{x\to a} g(x) = \pm \infty$$

then

$$\lim_{x \to a} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} = \lim_{x \to a} \frac{f'(x)}{g'(x)}.$$

## 2.18 Indeterminate Forms

The following symbols are "indeterminate":

$$\frac{0}{0} \qquad \frac{\infty}{\infty} \qquad 0 \cdot \infty \qquad \infty - \infty \qquad 1^{\infty} \qquad 0^{\infty} \qquad \infty^{0}$$

Warning: The following symbols are not indeterminate:

$$\frac{1}{0}$$
  $\frac{\infty}{0}$   $\frac{1}{\infty}$   $1 \cdot \infty$   $\infty + \infty$   $1 + \infty$   $0^{\infty}$ 

## 3 Integrals

## 3.1 Antiderivatives

A function F(x) is an **antiderivative** (or primitive function) of f(x) on an interval I if:

$$F'(x) = f(x), \quad \forall x \in I.$$

## 3.2 Indefinite Integrals

The **indefinite integral** (or general antiderivative) of a function f(x) is the family of all its antiderivatives:

$$\int f(x)dx = F(x) + C$$

where F(x) is any antiderivative of f(x) and C is an arbitrary constant.

#### 3.3 Riemann Sum

Let f(x) be a function defined on a closed interval [a,b], and let the interval be partitioned into n subintervals by inserting n-1 points  $x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_{n-1}$  such that:

$$a = x_0 < x_1 < x_2 < \dots < x_n = b$$

where the subintervals  $[x_{i-1}, x_i]$  have length  $\Delta x_i = x_i - x_{i-1}$ . For each subinterval  $[x_{i-1}, x_i]$ , let  $x_i^*$  be an **arbitrary sample point** within the interval. Then, a **Riemann sum**, which **approximates** the area under the curve f(x) over [a, b], is defined as:

$$S_n = \sum_{i=1}^n f(x_i^*) \Delta x_i, \quad x_i^* \in [x_{i-1}, x_i].$$

#### 3.4 Partitions of an Interval

## **Uniform subdivisions**

## **Nonuniform subdivisions**



Comparison of uniform and non-uniform partitions of an interval (generated using R).

A partition of [a, b] divides it into n subintervals:

$$P = \{a = x_0 < x_1 < x_2 < \dots < x_n = b\}$$

Each subinterval has width:

$$\Delta x_i = x_i - x_{i-1}.$$

• Uniform Partition: All subintervals have the same width:

$$\Delta x_i = \Delta x = \frac{b-a}{n}, \quad \forall i.$$

• Non-Uniform Partition: Subintervals have different widths, and  $\Delta x_i$  varies for each i.

## 3.5 Types of Riemann Sums

The type of Riemann sum depends on how the sample points  $x_i^*$  are chosen within each subinterval  $[x_{i-1}, x_i]$ .

1. Arbitrary-Point Rule:  $x_i^* \in [x_{i-1}, x_i] \to \text{General Riemann Sum}$ 

$$S_n = \sum_{i=1}^n f(x_i^*) \Delta x_i, \quad \Delta x_i = x_i - x_{i-1}.$$

**Uniform Partition:** If all subintervals have equal width  $\Delta x = \frac{b-a}{n}$ , then  $x_i^* \in [x_{i-1}, x_i] = [a + (i-1)\Delta x, a + i\Delta x]$  or  $x_i^* = a + (i-1+c)\Delta x$ , where  $c \in [0, 1]$  determines its position within the subinterval:

$$S_n = \sum_{i=1}^n f(a + (i-1+c)\Delta x)\Delta x = \sum_{i=1}^n f(a + (i-1+c)\frac{(b-a)}{n})\frac{b-a}{n}.$$

- Uses arbitrary sample points  $x_i^*$ .
- 2. Left Rule:  $x_i^* = x_{i-1} \to \text{Left Riemann Sum}$

$$S_{\text{left}} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} f(x_{i-1}) \Delta x_i.$$

Uniform Partition: c = 0

$$S_{\text{left}} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} f(a + (i-1)\Delta x)\Delta x.$$

- Underestimates for increasing functions, overestimates for decreasing functions.
- 3. Right Rule:  $x_i^* = x_i \to \text{Right Riemann Sum}$

$$S_{\text{right}} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} f(x_i) \Delta x_i$$

Uniform Partition: c=1

$$S_{\text{right}} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} f(a + i\Delta x) \Delta x.$$

• Overestimates for increasing functions, underestimates for decreasing functions.

4. Midpoint Rule:  $x_i^* = \frac{x_{i-1} + x_i}{2} \rightarrow \text{Midpoint Riemann Sum}$ 

$$S_{\text{mid}} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} f\left(\frac{x_{i-1} + x_i}{2}\right) \Delta x_i.$$

Uniform Partition:  $c = \frac{1}{2}$ 

$$S_{\text{mid}} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} f(a + (i - \frac{1}{2})\Delta x)\Delta x.$$

- Tends to give better approximations than left or right sums.
- 5. Upper Rule:  $x_i^* = \arg\sup_{x \in [x_{i-1}, x_i]} f(x) \to \text{Upper Riemann Sum (or Upper Darboux Sum)}$

$$S_{\text{upper}} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \sup_{x \in [x_{i-1}, x_i]} f(x) \Delta x_i.$$

- Always **overestimates** the integral.
- 6. Lower Rule:  $x_i^* = \arg\inf_{x \in [x_{i-1}, x_i]} f(x) \to \text{Lower Riemann Sum}$  (or Lower Darboux Sum)

$$S_{\text{lower}} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \inf_{x \in [x_{i-1}, x_i]} f(x) \Delta x_i.$$

• Always underestimates the integral.

## 3.6 Definite Integral

The **definite integral** of a function f(x) over the interval [a, b] is defined as the limit of a Riemann sum:

$$\int_{a}^{b} f(x) dx = \lim_{n \to \infty} \sum_{i=1}^{n} f(x_{i}^{*}) \Delta x_{i}$$

where:

- [a, b] is divided into n subintervals.
- $\Delta x_i = x_i x_{i-1}$  is the width of the *i*-th subinterval.
- $x_i^*$  is any sample point in the *i*-th subinterval.

## 3.7 Properties of Definite Integrals

Let f(x) and g(x) be integrable functions on [a,b] and c be a constant. Then:

$$(1) \quad \int_a^b c \, dx = c(b-a).$$

$$(2) \qquad \int_a^a f(x) \, dx = 0.$$

(3) 
$$\int_{b}^{a} f(x) dx = -\int_{a}^{b} f(x) dx.$$

(4) 
$$\int_a^b cf(x) dx = c \int_a^b f(x) dx.$$

(5) 
$$\int_{a}^{b} [f(x) \pm g(x)] dx = \int_{a}^{b} f(x) dx \pm \int_{a}^{b} g(x) dx.$$

(6) 
$$\int_{a}^{b} f(x) dx = \int_{a}^{c} f(x) dx + \int_{c}^{b} f(x) dx.$$

(7) 
$$\int_a^b f(x) dx \le \int_a^b g(x) dx \quad \text{if } f(x) \le g(x) \text{ on } [a, b].$$

(8) 
$$\left| \int_a^b f(x) \, dx \right| \le \int_a^b |f(x)| \, dx.$$

(9) 
$$m(b-a) \le \int_a^b f(x) \, dx \le M(b-a)$$
 if  $m \le f(x) \le M$  on  $[a,b]$ .

#### 3.8 Net and Total Area

Let f(x) be integrable on [a, b]. Define:

- $A_1$  = area of region where f(x) > 0 (area above x-axis).
- $A_2$  = area of region where f(x) < 0 (area below x-axis).

Then:

• Net Area:

$$\int_a^b f(x) \, dx = A_1 - A_2.$$

• Total Area:

$$\int_{a}^{b} |f(x)| \ dx = A_1 + A_2.$$

## 3.9 Mean Value Theorem for Integrals

Let f be continuous on [a,b]. Then:

$$\exists c \in (a,b) \text{ such that } \frac{1}{b-a} \int_a^b f(x) \, dx = f(c)$$

The expression on the left is the **average value** of the function f(x) on the interval [a, b].

#### 3.10 Fundamental Theorem of Calculus. Part 1

Let f be a continuous on [a, b]. Define the function

$$F(x) = \int_{a}^{x} f(t) dt.$$

Then:

$$F'(x) = \frac{d}{dx} \left[ \int_a^x f(t) dt \right] = f(x), \quad \forall x \in (a, b).$$

#### 3.11 Fundamental Theorem of Calculus. Part 2

If f is continuous on [a, b] and F'(x) = f(x), then

$$\int_{a}^{b} f(x) \, dx = F(b) - F(a) = F(x) \Big|_{a}^{b} = F(x) \Big|_{a}^{b}.$$

#### 3.12 Table of Indefinite Integrals

$$\int a \, dx = ax + C$$

$$\int x^n \, dx = \frac{x^{n+1}}{n+1} + C, \quad n \neq -1$$

$$\int x^{-1} \, dx = \int \frac{1}{x} \, dx = \ln|x| + C$$

$$\int e^{ax} \, dx = \frac{1}{a} e^{ax} + C$$

$$\int \sin x \, dx = -\cos x + C$$

$$\int \cos x \, dx = \sin x + C$$

$$\int \csc x \, dx = \ln|\sec x| = -\ln|\csc x| = \ln|\sin x| + C$$

$$\int \csc x \, dx = \ln|\csc x| - \cot x| + C$$

$$\int \csc^2 x \, dx = -\cot x + C$$

$$\int \sec x \tan x \, dx = \sec x + C$$

$$\int \csc x \cot x \, dx = -\csc x + C$$

$$\int \frac{1}{\sqrt{1 - x^2}} \, dx = \arcsin x + C$$

$$\int \frac{1}{1 + x^2} \, dx = \arctan x + C$$

## 4 Sequences and Series

## 4.1 Definition of a Sequence

A sequence is a function  $a: \mathbb{N} \to \mathbb{R}$  that assigns to each  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  a real number  $a_n$ .

$$\{a_n\} = \{a_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty} = (a_n) = \{a_1, a_2, a_3, \dots, a_n, \dots\}$$

## 4.2 Monotonic Sequence

A sequence  $\{a_n\}$  is **monotonic** if it is either monotonically increasing or monotonically decreasing.

• Increasing:

 $a_n \leq a_{n+1}, \quad \forall n \in \mathbb{N} \text{ (weakly increasing)}.$ 

 $a_n < a_{n+1}, \quad \forall n \in \mathbb{N} \text{ (strictly increasing)}.$ 

• Decreasing:

 $a_n \ge a_{n+1}, \quad \forall n \in \mathbb{N} \text{ (weakly decreasing)}.$ 

 $a_n > a_{n+1}, \quad \forall n \in \mathbb{N} \text{ (strictly decreasing)}.$ 

## 4.3 Bounded Sequence

A sequence  $\{a_n\}$  is **bounded** if and only if:

$$\exists M > 0 \text{ such that } |a_n| \leq M, \quad \forall n \in \mathbb{N}.$$

or

$$\exists M_1, M_2 \in \mathbb{R} \text{ such that } M_1 \leq a_n \leq M_2, \quad \forall n \in \mathbb{N}.$$

Equivalently,  $\{a_n\}$  is bounded if it is both bounded above and bounded below:

- Bounded above:  $\exists M_2 \in \mathbb{R}$  such that  $a_n \leq M_2$ ,  $\forall n \in \mathbb{N}$ .
- Bounded below:  $\exists M_1 \in \mathbb{R}$  such that  $a_n \geq M_1$ ,  $\forall n \in \mathbb{N}$ .

A sequence is bounded  $\iff$  It is both bounded above and bounded below

## 4.4 Limit of a Sequence

A sequence  $\{a_n\}$  has a limit  $L \in \mathbb{R}$  if:

$$\lim_{n\to\infty} a_n = L \quad \text{if} \quad \forall \varepsilon > 0, \ \exists N \in \mathbb{N} \text{ such that } |a_n - L| < \varepsilon, \ \forall n \ge N.$$

If such an L exists, the sequence is **convergent**; otherwise, it is **divergent**.

#### 4.5 Limit of a Sequence Defined by a Function

Let  $f: \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$  be a function and  $\{a_n\}$  be defined by  $a_n = f(n)$ . Then:

$$\lim_{x \to \infty} f(x) = L \implies \lim_{n \to \infty} a_n = L.$$

## 4.6 Squeeze Theorem for Sequences

If  $a_n \leq b_n \leq c_n$  for all  $n \geq N$ , then:

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} a_n = \lim_{n \to \infty} c_n = L \implies \lim_{n \to \infty} b_n = L.$$

## 4.7 Limit of Absolute Value of a Sequence

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} |a_n| = 0 \implies \lim_{n \to \infty} a_n = 0.$$

#### 4.8 Monotone Convergence Theorem

Every bounded and monotonic sequence is convergent.

- (1) Monotonic  $\land$  Bounded  $\Longrightarrow$  Convergent.
- (2) Monotonically Increasing  $\land$  Bounded Above  $\Longrightarrow$  Convergent.
- (3) Monotonically Decreasing  $\land$  Bounded Below  $\Longrightarrow$  Convergent.

#### 4.9 Series

An **infinite series** is the sum of the terms of a sequence  $\{a_n\}$ :

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n = a_1 + a_2 + a_3 + \dots$$

The  $n^{\text{th}}$  partial sum of series:

$$S_n = \sum_{k=1}^n a_k.$$

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## 4.10 Convergence and Divergence of Series

A infinite series  $\sum a_n$  converges if the sequence of partial sums  $\{S_n\}$  has a finite limit:

$$\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} a_k = \lim_{n \to \infty} \sum_{k=1}^{n} a_k \quad \text{or} \quad \lim_{n \to \infty} S_n = S.$$

Otherwise, the series diverges.

## 4.11 Types of Series

- Arithmetic Series
- Telescoping Series
- Taylor Series

- Geometric Series
- Alternating Series
- Laurent Series

- Arithmetico-Geometric Series
- Power Series
- Fourier Series

- Harmonic Series
- Taylor Series
- Binomial Series

• p-Series

- Maclaurin Series
- Mercator Series

## 4.12 Properties of Series

Let  $\sum a_n$  and  $\sum b_n$  be series, and let c,d be a constant. Then:

(1) 
$$\sum_{k=a}^{b} c = c(b-a+1).$$

(2) 
$$\sum_{n=k}^{\infty} \pm c = \pm \infty, \quad c > 0.$$

(3) 
$$\sum_{n=k}^{m} (ca_n \pm db_n) = c \sum_{n=k}^{m} a_n \pm d \sum_{n=k}^{m} b_n.$$

(4) 
$$\sum_{n=k}^{m} a_n = \sum_{n=k}^{p} a_n + \sum_{n=p+1}^{m} a_n.$$

(5) 
$$\sum_{n=k}^{m} a_n = \sum_{n=0}^{m-k} a_{m-n}.$$

(6) 
$$\sum_{n=k}^{m} a_n = \sum_{j=k-h}^{m-h} a_{j+h}.$$

(7) 
$$\sum_{k=1}^{n} k = \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} (k+1).$$

## 4.13 Geometric Series

Geometric 
$$\implies \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} ar^n = a + ar + ar^2 + ar^3 + \dots$$

• Partial Sum:

$$S_n = \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} ar^k = a \frac{1-r^n}{1-r}, \quad r \neq 1.$$

• Convergence:

$$|r| < 1 \implies \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} ar^n = \frac{a}{1-r}.$$

• Divergence:

$$|r| \ge 1 \implies$$
 Series diverges.