Section 1.1

p4

THE VERTICAL LINE TEST A curve in the xy-plane is the graph of a function of x if and only if no vertical line intersects the curve more than once.

Section 1.3

p30

3 $\lim_{x \to a} f(x) = L$ if and only if $\lim_{x \to a^-} f(x) = L$ and $\lim_{x \to a^+} f(x) = L$

Section 1.4

p35

LIMIT LAWS Suppose that c is a constant and the limits

$$\lim_{x \to a} f(x) \quad \text{and} \quad \lim_{x \to a} g(x)$$

exist. Then

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

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

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

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

5. $\lim_{x \to a} \dfrac{f(x)}{g(x)} = \dfrac{\lim_{x \to a} f(x)}{\lim_{x \to a} g(x)}$ if $\lim_{x \to a} g(x) \neq 0$

p36

6. $\lim_{x \to a} [f(x)]^n = \left[\lim_{x \to a} f(x)\right]^n$ where n is a positive integer

p36

7. $\lim_{x \to a} c = c$ **8.** $\lim_{x \to a} x = a$

p36

9. $\lim_{x \to a} x^n = a^n$ where n is a positive integer

p36

10. $\lim_{x \to a} \sqrt[n]{x} = \sqrt[n]{a}$ where n is a positive integer

(If n is even, we assume that $a > 0$.)

p36

11. $\lim_{x \to a} \sqrt[n]{f(x)} = \sqrt[n]{\lim_{x \to a} f(x)}$ where n is a positive integer

[If n is even, we assume that $\lim_{x \to a} f(x) > 0$.]

p38

If $f(x) = g(x)$ when $x \neq a$, then $\lim_{x \to a} f(x) = \lim_{x \to a} g(x)$, provided the limits exist.

p39

2 THEOREM $\lim_{x \to a} f(x) = L$ if and only if $\lim_{x \to a^-} f(x) = L = \lim_{x \to a^+} f(x)$

p41

3 THEOREM If $f(x) \leqslant g(x)$ when x is near a (except possibly at a) and the limits of f and g both exist as x approaches a, then

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

p41

4 THE SQUEEZE THEOREM If $f(x) \leqslant g(x) \leqslant h(x)$ when x is near a (except possibly at a) and

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

then

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

p42

$$\lim_{\theta \to 0} \frac{\sin \theta}{\theta} = 1$$

Section 1.5

p48

4 THEOREM If f and g are continuous at a and c is a constant, then the following functions are also continuous at a:

1. $f + g$ **2.** $f - g$ **3.** cf

4. fg **5.** $\dfrac{f}{g}$ if $g(a) \neq 0$

p49

5 THEOREM
(a) Any polynomial is continuous everywhere; that is, it is continuous on $\mathbb{R} = (-\infty, \infty)$.
(b) Any rational function is continuous wherever it is defined; that is, it is continuous on its domain.

p50

6 THEOREM The following types of functions are continuous at every number in their domains: polynomials, rational functions, root functions, trigonometric functions

p51

7 THEOREM If f is continuous at b and $\lim_{x \to a} g(x) = b$, then $\lim_{x \to a} f(g(x)) = f(b)$. In other words,

$$\lim_{x \to a} f(g(x)) = f\left(\lim_{x \to a} g(x)\right)$$

p51

8 THEOREM If g is continuous at a and f is continuous at $g(a)$, then the composite function $f \circ g$ given by $(f \circ g)(x) = f(g(x))$ is continuous at a.

p52

9 THE INTERMEDIATE VALUE THEOREM Suppose that f is continuous on the closed interval $[a, b]$ and let N be any number between $f(a)$ and $f(b)$, where $f(a) \neq f(b)$. Then there exists a number c in (a, b) such that $f(c) = N$.

Section 1.6

p61

5 If n is a positive integer, then

$$\lim_{x \to \infty} \frac{1}{x^n} = 0 \qquad \lim_{x \to -\infty} \frac{1}{x^n} = 0$$

Section 2.1

p76

$$m = \lim_{h \to 0} \frac{f(a+h) - f(a)}{h}$$

p76

$$v(a) = \lim_{h \to 0} \frac{f(a+h) - f(a)}{h}$$

p78

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

p78

The tangent line to $y = f(x)$ at $(a, f(a))$ is the line through $(a, f(a))$ whose slope is equal to $f'(a)$, the derivative of f at a.

p79

6 instantaneous rate of change $= \lim_{\Delta x \to 0} \dfrac{\Delta y}{\Delta x} = \lim_{x_2 \to x_1} \dfrac{f(x_2) - f(x_1)}{x_2 - x_1}$

p79

The derivative $f'(a)$ is the instantaneous rate of change of $y = f(x)$ with respect to x when $x = a$.

Section 2.2

p83

$$f'(a) = \lim_{h \to 0} \frac{f(a+h) - f(a)}{h}$$

p83

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

p88

4 THEOREM If f is differentiable at a, then f is continuous at a.

Section 2.3

p95

DERIVATIVE OF A CONSTANT FUNCTION

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

p95

$$\frac{d}{dx}(x) = 1$$

p95 $\frac{d}{dx}(x^2) = 2x$ $\quad$ $\frac{d}{dx}(x^3) = 3x^2$

p95 $\frac{d}{dx}(x^4) = 4x^3$

p95

THE POWER RULE If n is a positive integer, then

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

p97

THE POWER RULE (GENERAL VERSION) If n is any real number, then

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

p98

THE CONSTANT MULTIPLE RULE If c is a constant and f is a differentiable function, then

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

p98

THE SUM RULE If f and g are both differentiable, then

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

p99

THE DIFFERENCE RULE If f and g are both differentiable, then

$$\frac{d}{dx}[f(x) - g(x)] = \frac{d}{dx}f(x) - \frac{d}{dx}g(x)$$

p100

$$\frac{d}{dx}(\sin x) = \cos x$$

p101

$$\frac{d}{dx}(\cos x) = -\sin x$$

Section 2.4

p106

THE PRODUCT RULE If f and g are both differentiable, then

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

p108

THE QUOTIENT RULE If f and g are differentiable, then

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

p110

$$\frac{d}{dx}(\tan x) = \sec^2 x$$

p111

DERIVATIVES OF TRIGONOMETRIC FUNCTIONS

$$\frac{d}{dx}(\sin x) = \cos x \qquad \frac{d}{dx}(\csc x) = -\csc x \cot x$$

$$\frac{d}{dx}(\cos x) = -\sin x \qquad \frac{d}{dx}(\sec x) = \sec x \tan x$$

$$\frac{d}{dx}(\tan x) = \sec^2 x \qquad \frac{d}{dx}(\cot x) = -\csc^2 x$$

Section 2.5

p114

THE CHAIN RULE If f and g are both differentiable and $F = f \circ g$ is the composite function defined by $F(x) = f(g(x))$, then F is differentiable and F' is given by the product

$$F'(x) = f'(g(x)) \cdot g'(x)$$

In Leibniz notation, if $y = f(u)$ and $u = g(x)$ are both differentiable functions, then

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{dy}{du}\frac{du}{dx}$$

p115 $(f \circ g)'(x) = f'(g(x)) \cdot g'(x)$

p115 $\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{dy}{du}\frac{du}{dx}$

p116

4 THE POWER RULE COMBINED WITH THE CHAIN RULE If n is any real number and $u = g(x)$ is differentiable, then

$$\frac{d}{dx}(u^n) = nu^{n-1}\frac{du}{dx}$$

Alternatively, $\quad \frac{d}{dx}[g(x)]^n = n[g(x)]^{n-1} \cdot g'(x)$

Section 3.1

p144

2 THEOREM If $a > 0$ and $a \neq 1$, then $f(x) = a^x$ is a continuous function with domain $\mathbb{R}$ and range $(0, \infty)$. In particular, $a^x > 0$ for all x. If $a, b > 0$ and $x, y \in \mathbb{R}$, then

1. $a^{x+y} = a^x a^y$ $\quad$ **2.** $a^{x-y} = \frac{a^x}{a^y}$ $\quad$ **3.** $(a^x)^y = a^{xy}$ $\quad$ **4.** $(ab)^x = a^x b^x$

p145

3 If $a > 1$, then $\lim_{x\to\infty} a^x = \infty$ and $\lim_{x\to-\infty} a^x = 0$

If $0 < a < 1$, then $\lim_{x\to\infty} a^x = 0$ and $\lim_{x\to-\infty} a^x = \infty$

p145

3 If $a > 1$, then $\lim_{x\to\infty} a^x = \infty$ and $\lim_{x\to-\infty} a^x = 0$

If $0 < a < 1$, then $\lim_{x\to\infty} a^x = 0$ and $\lim_{x\to-\infty} a^x = \infty$

p145

$$e = \lim_{x\to 0}(1 + x)^{1/x}$$

p146

5 PROPERTIES OF THE NATURAL EXPONENTIAL FUNCTION The exponential function $f(x) = e^x$ is a continuous function with domain $\mathbb{R}$ and range $(0, \infty)$. Thus $e^x > 0$ for all x. Also

$$\lim_{x\to-\infty} e^x = 0 \qquad \lim_{x\to\infty} e^x = \infty$$

So the x-axis is a horizontal asymptote of $f(x) = e^x$.

Section 3.2

p148

HORIZONTAL LINE TEST A function is one-to-one if and only if no horizontal line intersects its graph more than once.

p151

5 HOW TO FIND THE INVERSE FUNCTION OF A ONE-TO-ONE FUNCTION f

STEP 1 Write $y = f(x)$.

STEP 2 Solve this equation for x in terms of y (if possible).

STEP 3 To express f^{-1} as a function of x, interchange x and y. The resulting equation is $y = f^{-1}(x)$.

p151

The graph of f^{-1} is obtained by reflecting the graph of f about the line $y = x$.

p152

6 THEOREM If f is a one-to-one continuous function defined on an interval, then its inverse function f^{-1} is also continuous.

p153

7 THEOREM If f is a one-to-one differentiable function with inverse function f^{-1} and $f'(f^{-1}(a)) \neq 0$, then the inverse function is differentiable at a and

$$(f^{-1})'(a) = \frac{1}{f'(f^{-1}(a))}$$

p154

$$\log_a x = y \iff a^y = x$$

p154

$$\log_a(a^x) = x \quad \text{for every } x \in \mathbb{R}$$
$$a^{\log_a x} = x \quad \text{for every } x > 0$$

p155

LAWS OF LOGARITHMS If x and y are positive numbers, then

1. $\log_a(xy) = \log_a x + \log_a y$
2. $\log_a\left(\frac{x}{y}\right) = \log_a x - \log_a y$
3. $\log_a(x^r) = r\log_a x$ (where r is any real number)

p155

11 If $a > 1$, then

$$\lim_{x\to\infty} \log_a x = \infty \quad \text{and} \quad \lim_{x\to 0^+} \log_a x = -\infty$$

p157

14 CHANGE OF BASE FORMULA For any positive number a ($a \neq 1$), we have

$$\log_a x = \frac{\ln x}{\ln a}$$

Section 3.3

p160

1 THEOREM The function $f(x) = \log_a x$ is differentiable and

$$f'(x) = \frac{1}{x}\log_a e$$

p161

$$\frac{d}{dx}(\log_a x) = \frac{1}{x \ln a}$$

p162

3 DERIVATIVE OF THE NATURAL LOGARITHMIC FUNCTION

$$\frac{d}{dx}(\ln x) = \frac{1}{x}$$

p162

$$\frac{d}{dx}(\ln u) = \frac{1}{u}\frac{du}{dx} \quad \text{or} \quad \frac{d}{dx}[\ln g(x)] = \frac{g'(x)}{g(x)}$$

p163

$$\frac{d}{dx}\ln|x| = \frac{1}{x}$$

p164

STEPS IN LOGARITHMIC DIFFERENTIATION

1. Take natural logarithms of both sides of an equation $y = f(x)$ and use the Laws of Logarithms to simplify.
2. Differentiate implicitly with respect to x.
3. Solve the resulting equation for y'.

p164

THE POWER RULE If n is any real number and $f(x) = x^n$, then

$$f'(x) = nx^{n-1}$$

p164

6 THEOREM The exponential function $f(x) = a^x$, $a > 0$, is differentiable and

$$\frac{d}{dx}(a^x) = a^x \ln a$$

p165

7 DERIVATIVE OF THE NATURAL EXPONENTIAL FUNCTION

$$\frac{d}{dx}(e^x) = e^x$$

Section 3.4

p168

2 THEOREM The only solutions of the differential equation $dy/dt = ky$ are the exponential functions

$$y(t) = y(0)e^{kt}$$

Section 3.5

p179

11 TABLE OF DERIVATIVES OF INVERSE TRIGONOMETRIC FUNCTIONS

$$\frac{d}{dx}(\sin^{-1}x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1-x^2}} \qquad \frac{d}{dx}(\csc^{-1}x) = -\frac{1}{x\sqrt{x^2-1}}$$

$$\frac{d}{dx}(\cos^{-1}x) = -\frac{1}{\sqrt{1-x^2}} \qquad \frac{d}{dx}(\sec^{-1}x) = \frac{1}{x\sqrt{x^2-1}}$$

$$\frac{d}{dx}(\tan^{-1}x) = \frac{1}{1+x^2} \qquad \frac{d}{dx}(\cot^{-1}x) = -\frac{1}{1+x^2}$$

Section 3.7

p188

L'HOSPITAL'S RULE Suppose f and g are differentiable and $g'(x) \neq 0$ near a (except possibly at a). Suppose that

$$\lim_{x\to a} f(x) = 0 \quad \text{and} \quad \lim_{x\to a} g(x) = 0$$

or that

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

(In other words, we have an indeterminate form of type $\frac{0}{0}$ or ∞/∞.) Then

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

if the limit on the right side exists (or is ∞ or $-\infty$).

Section 4.1

p199

3 THE EXTREME VALUE THEOREM If f is continuous on a closed interval $[a, b]$, then f attains an absolute maximum value $f(c)$ and an absolute minimum value $f(d)$ at some numbers c and d in $[a, b]$.

p200

4 FERMAT'S THEOREM If f has a local maximum or minimum at c, and if $f'(c)$ exists, then $f'(c) = 0$.

p202

7 If f has a local maximum or minimum at c, then c is a critical number of f.

p202

THE CLOSED INTERVAL METHOD To find the *absolute* maximum and minimum values of a continuous function f on a closed interval $[a, b]$:

1. Find the values of f at the critical numbers of f in (a, b).
2. Find the values of f at the endpoints of the interval.
3. The largest of the values from Steps 1 and 2 is the absolute maximum value; the smallest of these values is the absolute minimum value.

Section 4.2

p205

ROLLE'S THEOREM Let f be a function that satisfies the following three hypotheses:

1. f is continuous on the closed interval $[a, b]$.
2. f is differentiable on the open interval (a, b).
3. $f(a) = f(b)$

Then there is a number c in (a, b) such that $f'(c) = 0$.

THE MEAN VALUE THEOREM Let f be a function that satisfies the following hypotheses:

1. f is continuous on the closed interval $[a, b]$.

2. f is differentiable on the open interval (a, b).

Then there is a number c in (a, b) such that

$$\boxed{1} \qquad f'(c) = \frac{f(b) - f(a)}{b - a}$$

or, equivalently,

$$\boxed{2} \qquad f(b) - f(a) = f'(c)(b - a)$$

p207

$\boxed{5}$ **THEOREM** If $f'(x) = 0$ for all x in an interval (a, b), then f is constant on (a, b).

p209

$\boxed{7}$ **COROLLARY** If $f'(x) = g'(x)$ for all x in an interval (a, b), then $f - g$ is constant on (a, b); that is, $f(x) = g(x) + c$ where c is a constant.

p210

Section 4.3

INCREASING/DECREASING TEST

(a) If $f'(x) > 0$ on an interval, then f is increasing on that interval.

(b) If $f'(x) < 0$ on an interval, then f is decreasing on that interval.

p212

THE FIRST DERIVATIVE TEST Suppose that c is a critical number of a continuous function f.

(a) If f' changes from positive to negative at c, then f has a local maximum at c.

(b) If f' changes from negative to positive at c, then f has a local minimum at c.

(c) If f' does not change sign at c (for example, if f' is positive on both sides of c or negative on both sides), then f has no local maximum or minimum at c.

p213

CONCAVITY TEST

(a) If $f''(x) > 0$ for all x in I, then the graph of f is concave upward on I.

(b) If $f''(x) < 0$ for all x in I, then the graph of f is concave downward on I.

p215

THE SECOND DERIVATIVE TEST Suppose f'' is continuous near c.

(a) If $f'(c) = 0$ and $f''(c) > 0$, then f has a local minimum at c.

(b) If $f'(c) = 0$ and $f''(c) < 0$, then f has a local maximum at c.

p216

Section 4.4

GUIDELINES FOR SKETCHING A CURVE

The following checklist is intended as a guide to sketching a curve $y = f(x)$ by hand. Not every item is relevant to every function. (For instance, a given curve might not have an asymptote or possess symmetry.) But the guidelines provide all the information you need to make a sketch that displays the most important aspects of the function.

A. Domain It's often useful to start by determining the domain D of f, that is, the set of values of x for which $f(x)$ is defined.

B. Intercepts The y-intercept is $f(0)$ and this tells us where the curve intersects the y-axis. To find the x-intercepts, we set $y = 0$ and solve for x. (You can omit this step if the equation is difficult to solve.)

C. Symmetry

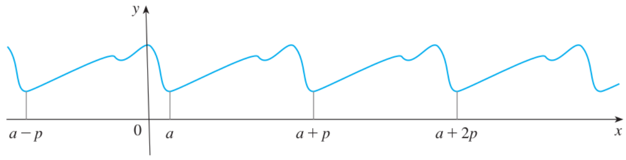
(i) If $f(-x) = f(x)$ for all x in D, that is, the equation of the curve is unchanged when x is replaced by $-x$, then f is an **even function** and the curve is symmetric about the y-axis. This means that our work is cut in half. If we know what the curve looks like for $x \geqslant 0$, then we need only reflect about the y-axis to obtain the complete curve [see Figure 1(a)]. Here are some examples: $y = x^2$, $y = x^4$, $y = |x|$, and $y = \cos x$.

(ii) If $f(-x) = -f(x)$ for all x in D, then f is an **odd function** and the curve is symmetric about the origin. Again we can obtain the complete curve if we know what it looks like for $x \geqslant 0$. [Rotate 180° about the origin; see Figure 1(b).] Some simple examples of odd functions are $y = x$, $y = x^3$, $y = x^5$, and $y = \sin x$.

(iii) If $f(x + p) = f(x)$ for all x in D, where p is a positive constant, then f is called a **periodic function** and the smallest such number p is called the **period**.

p220

For instance, $y = \sin x$ has period 2π and $y = \tan x$ has period π. If we know what the graph looks like in an interval of length p, then we can use translation to sketch the entire graph (see Figure 2).



D. Asymptotes

(i) *Horizontal Asymptotes.* Recall from Section 1.6 that if $\lim_{x\to\infty} f(x) = L$ or $\lim_{x\to-\infty} f(x) = L$, then the line $y = L$ is a horizontal asymptote of the curve $y = f(x)$. If it turns out that $\lim_{x\to\infty} f(x) = \infty$ (or $-\infty$), then we do not have an asymptote to the right, but that is still useful information for sketching the curve.

(ii) *Vertical Asymptotes.* Recall from Section 1.6 that the line $x = a$ is a vertical asymptote if at least one of the following statements is true:

$$\boxed{1} \qquad \lim_{x\to a^+} f(x) = \infty \qquad \lim_{x\to a^-} f(x) = \infty$$

$$\lim_{x\to a^+} f(x) = -\infty \qquad \lim_{x\to a^-} f(x) = -\infty$$

p220

FIRST DERIVATIVE TEST FOR ABSOLUTE EXTREME VALUES Suppose that c is a critical number of a continuous function f defined on an interval.

(a) If $f'(x) > 0$ for all $x < c$ and $f'(x) < 0$ for all $x > c$, then $f(c)$ is the absolute maximum value of f.

(b) If $f'(x) < 0$ for all $x < c$ and $f'(x) > 0$ for all $x > c$, then $f(c)$ is the absolute minimum value of f.

p229

(For rational functions you can locate the vertical asymptotes by equating the denominator to 0 after canceling any common factors. But for other functions this method does not apply.) Furthermore, in sketching the curve it is very useful to know exactly which of the statements in $\boxed{1}$ is true. If $f(a)$ is not defined but a is an endpoint of the domain of f, then you should compute $\lim_{x\to a^-} f(x)$ or $\lim_{x\to a^+} f(x)$, whether or not this limit is infinite.

E. Intervals of Increase or Decrease Use the I/D Test. Compute $f'(x)$ and find the intervals on which $f'(x)$ is positive (f is increasing) and the intervals on which $f'(x)$ is negative (f is decreasing).

F. Local Maximum and Minimum Values Find the critical numbers of f [the numbers c where $f'(c) = 0$ or $f'(c)$ does not exist]. Then use the First Derivative Test. If f' changes from positive to negative at a critical number c, then $f(c)$ is a local maximum. If f' changes from negative to positive at c, then $f(c)$ is a local minimum. Although it is usually preferable to use the First Derivative Test, you can use the Second Derivative Test if $f'(c) = 0$ and $f''(c) \neq 0$. Then $f''(c) > 0$ implies that $f(c)$ is a local minimum, whereas $f''(c) < 0$ implies that $f(c)$ is a local maximum.

G. Concavity and Points of Inflection Compute $f''(x)$ and use the Concavity Test. The curve is concave upward where $f''(x) > 0$ and concave downward where $f''(x) < 0$. Inflection points occur where the direction of concavity changes.

H. Sketch the Curve Using the information in items A–G, draw the graph. Sketch the asymptotes as dashed lines. Plot the intercepts, maximum and minimum points, and inflection points. Then make the curve pass through these points, rising and falling according to E, with concavity according to G, and approaching the asymptotes. If additional accuracy is desired near any point, you can compute the value of the derivative there. The tangent indicates the direction in which the curve proceeds.

p221

Section 4.5

1. **Understand the Problem** The first step is to read the problem carefully until it is clearly understood. Ask yourself: What is the unknown? What are the given quantities? What are the given conditions?
2. **Draw a Diagram** In most problems it is useful to draw a diagram and identify the given and required quantities on the diagram.
3. **Introduce Notation** Assign a symbol to the quantity that is to be maximized or minimized (let's call it Q for now). Also select symbols $(a, b, c, \ldots, x, y)$ for other unknown quantities and label the diagram with these symbols. It may help to use initials as suggestive symbols—for example, A for area, h for height, t for time.
4. Express Q in terms of some of the other symbols from Step 3.
5. If Q has been expressed as a function of more than one variable in Step 4, use the given information to find relationships (in the form of equations) among these variables. Then use these equations to eliminate all but one of the variables in the expression for Q. Thus Q will be expressed as a function of *one* variable x, say, $Q = f(x)$. Write the domain of this function.
6. Use the methods of Sections 4.1 and 4.3 to find the *absolute* maximum or minimum value of f. In particular, if the domain of f is a closed interval, then the Closed Interval Method in Section 4.1 can be used.

p226

Section 4.7

1 THEOREM If F is an antiderivative of f on an interval I, then the most general antiderivative of f on I is

$$F(x) + C$$

where C is an arbitrary constant.

p242

Function	Particular antiderivative	Function	Particular antiderivative
$cf(x)$	$cF(x)$	$\sec^2 x$	$\tan x$
$f(x) + g(x)$	$F(x) + G(x)$	$\sec x \tan x$	$\sec x$
$x^n \quad (n \neq -1)$	$\dfrac{x^{n+1}}{n+1}$	$\dfrac{1}{\sqrt{1-x^2}}$	$\sin^{-1} x$
$\dfrac{1}{x}$	$\ln\lvert x\rvert$	$\dfrac{1}{1+x^2}$	$\tan^{-1} x$
e^x	e^x	$\cosh x$	$\sinh x$
$\cos x$	$\sin x$	$\sinh x$	$\cosh x$
$\sin x$	$-\cos x$		

p243

Section 5.2

EVALUATION THEOREM If f is continuous on the interval $[a, b]$, then

$$\int_a^b f(x)\,dx = F(b) - F(a)$$

where F is any antiderivative of f, that is, $F' = f$.

p275

3 THEOREM If f is continuous on $[a, b]$, or if f has only a finite number of jump discontinuities, then f is integrable on $[a, b]$; that is, the definite integral $\int_a^b f(x)\,dx$ exists.

p264

4 THEOREM If f is integrable on $[a, b]$, then

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

where $\quad \Delta x = \dfrac{b-a}{n} \quad$ and $\quad x_i = a + i\,\Delta x$

p264

p266

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} i = \frac{n(n+1)}{2}$$

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} i^2 = \frac{n(n+1)(2n+1)}{6}$$

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} i^3 = \left[\frac{n(n+1)}{2}\right]^2$$

p266

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} c = nc$$

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} ca_i = c\sum_{i=1}^{n} a_i$$

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} (a_i + b_i) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} a_i + \sum_{i=1}^{n} b_i$$

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} (a_i - b_i) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} a_i - \sum_{i=1}^{n} b_i$$

p266

MIDPOINT RULE

$$\int_a^b f(x)\,dx \approx \sum_{i=1}^{n} f(\bar{x}_i)\,\Delta x = \Delta x\,[f(\bar{x}_1) + \cdots + f(\bar{x}_n)]$$

where $\quad \Delta x = \dfrac{b-a}{n}$

and $\quad \bar{x}_i = \tfrac{1}{2}(x_{i-1} + x_i) = \text{midpoint of } [x_{i-1}, x_i]$

p268

$$\int_b^a f(x)\,dx = -\int_a^b f(x)\,dx$$

p269

If $a = b$, then $\Delta x = 0$ and so

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

p269

PROPERTIES OF THE INTEGRAL Suppose all the following integrals exist.

1. $\int_a^b c\,dx = c(b-a)$, where c is any constant
2. $\int_a^b [f(x) + g(x)]\,dx = \int_a^b f(x)\,dx + \int_a^b g(x)\,dx$
3. $\int_a^b cf(x)\,dx = c\int_a^b f(x)\,dx$, where c is any constant
4. $\int_a^b [f(x) - g(x)]\,dx = \int_a^b f(x)\,dx - \int_a^b g(x)\,dx$

p270

5. $$\int_a^c f(x)\,dx + \int_c^b f(x)\,dx = \int_a^b f(x)\,dx$$

p271

COMPARISON PROPERTIES OF THE INTEGRAL

6. If $f(x) \geqslant 0$ for $a \leqslant x \leqslant b$, then $\int_a^b f(x)\,dx \geqslant 0$.
7. If $f(x) \geqslant g(x)$ for $a \leqslant x \leqslant b$, then $\int_a^b f(x)\,dx \geqslant \int_a^b g(x)\,dx$.
8. If $m \leqslant f(x) \leqslant M$ for $a \leqslant x \leqslant b$, then
$$m(b-a) \leqslant \int_a^b f(x)\,dx \leqslant M(b-a)$$

p271

Section 5.3

1 TABLE OF INDEFINITE INTEGRALS

$$\int [f(x) + g(x)]\,dx = \int f(x)\,dx + \int g(x)\,dx \qquad \int cf(x)\,dx = c\int f(x)\,dx$$

$$\int x^n\,dx = \frac{x^{n+1}}{n+1} + C \quad (n \neq -1) \qquad \int \frac{1}{x}\,dx = \ln|x| + C$$

$$\int e^x\,dx = e^x + C \qquad \int a^x\,dx = \frac{a^x}{\ln a} + C$$

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

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

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

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

$$\int \sinh x\,dx = \cosh x + C \qquad \int \cosh x\,dx = \sinh x + C$$

p277

NET CHANGE THEOREM The integral of a rate of change is the net change:

$$\int_a^b F'(x)\,dx = F(b) - F(a)$$

p279

Section 5.4

THE FUNDAMENTAL THEOREM OF CALCULUS, PART 1 If f is continuous on $[a, b]$, then the function g defined by

$$g(x) = \int_a^x f(t)\,dt \qquad a \leqslant x \leqslant b$$

is an antiderivative of f, that is, $g'(x) = f(x)$ for $a < x < b$.

p286

THE FUNDAMENTAL THEOREM OF CALCULUS Suppose f is continuous on $[a, b]$.

1. If $g(x) = \int_a^x f(t)\,dt$, then $g'(x) = f(x)$.

2. $\int_a^b f(x)\,dx = F(b) - F(a)$, where F is any antiderivative of f, that is, $F' = f$.

p288

THE MEAN VALUE THEOREM FOR INTEGRALS If f is continuous on $[a, b]$, then there exists a number c in $[a, b]$ such that

$$f(c) = f_{\text{ave}} = \frac{1}{b-a}\int_a^b f(x)\,dx$$

that is, $$\int_a^b f(x)\,dx = f(c)(b-a)$$

p290

Section 5.5

4 THE SUBSTITUTION RULE If $u = g(x)$ is a differentiable function whose range is an interval I and f is continuous on I, then

$$\int f(g(x))\,g'(x)\,dx = \int f(u)\,du$$

p294

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

p296

6 THE SUBSTITUTION RULE FOR DEFINITE INTEGRALS If g' is continuous on $[a, b]$ and f is continuous on the range of $u = g(x)$, then

$$\int_a^b f(g(x))\,g'(x)\,dx = \int_{g(a)}^{g(b)} f(u)\,du$$

p296

7 INTEGRALS OF SYMMETRIC FUNCTIONS Suppose f is continuous on $[-a, a]$.

(a) If f is even $[f(-x) = f(x)]$, then $\int_{-a}^{a} f(x)\,dx = 2\int_0^a f(x)\,dx$.

(b) If f is odd $[f(-x) = -f(x)]$, then $\int_{-a}^{a} f(x)\,dx = 0$.

p297

Section 6.0

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

$$\int e^x\,dx = e^x + C \qquad \int a^x\,dx = \frac{a^x}{\ln a} + C$$

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

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

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

$$\int \sinh x\,dx = \cosh x + C \qquad \int \cosh x\,dx = \sinh x + C$$

$$\int \tan x\,dx = \ln|\sec x| + C \qquad \int \cot x\,dx = \ln|\sin x| + C$$

$$\int \frac{1}{x^2+a^2}\,dx = \frac{1}{a}\tan^{-1}\left(\frac{x}{a}\right) + C \qquad \int \frac{1}{\sqrt{a^2-x^2}}\,dx = \sin^{-1}\left(\frac{x}{a}\right) + C, \quad a > 0$$

p304

Section 6.1

$$\int u\,dv = uv - \int v\,du$$

p305

Section 6.2

HOW TO INTEGRATE POWERS OF sin x AND cos x

(i) If the power of cos x is odd, save one cosine factor and use **$\cos^2x=1-\sin^2x$** to express the remaining factors in terms of sin x . Then substitute **u=sinx**.

(ii) If the power of sin x is odd, save one sine factor and use **$\sin^2x=1-\cos^2x$** to express the remaining factors in terms of cos x . Then substitute **u=cosx**.

(iii) If the powers of both sine and cosine are even, use the half-angle identities:

$\sin^2x = (1+\cos2x)/2$

$\cos^2x= (1+\cos2x)/2$

It is sometimes helpful to use the identity

sinxcosx=(sin2x)/2

HOW TO INTEGRATE POWERS OF tanx AND secx

(i) If the power of secx is even, save a factor of $\sec^2x$ and use **$\sec^2x=1+\tan^2x$** to express the remaining factors in terms of tanx . Then substitute **u=tanx**.

(ii) If the power of tanx is odd, save a factor of secxtanx and use **$\tan^2x=\sec^2x-1$** to express the remaining factors in terms of secx. Then substitute **u=secx**.

p312

Expression	Substitution	Identity
$\sqrt{a^2-x^2}$	$x = a\sin\theta,\ -\frac{\pi}{2} \leqslant \theta \leqslant \frac{\pi}{2}$	$1 - \sin^2\theta = \cos^2\theta$
$\sqrt{a^2+x^2}$	$x = a\tan\theta,\ -\frac{\pi}{2} < \theta < \frac{\pi}{2}$	$1 + \tan^2\theta = \sec^2\theta$
$\sqrt{x^2-a^2}$	$x = a\sec\theta,\ 0 \leqslant \theta < \frac{\pi}{2}$ or $\pi \leqslant \theta < \frac{3\pi}{2}$	$\sec^2\theta - 1 = \tan^2\theta$

p315

Section 6.6

2 $\displaystyle\int_1^\infty \frac{1}{x^p}\,dx$ is convergent if $p > 1$ and divergent if $p \leqslant 1$.

p349

COMPARISON THEOREM Suppose that f and g are continuous functions with $f(x) \geqslant g(x) \geqslant 0$ for $x \geqslant a$.

(a) If $\int_a^\infty f(x)\,dx$ is convergent, then $\int_a^\infty g(x)\,dx$ is convergent.

(b) If $\int_a^\infty g(x)\,dx$ is divergent, then $\int_a^\infty f(x)\,dx$ is divergent.

p351

Section 7.1

2 The area A of the region bounded by the curves $y = f(x)$, $y = g(x)$, and the lines $x = a$, $x = b$, where f and g are continuous and $f(x) \geqslant g(x)$ for all x in $[a, b]$, is

$$A = \int_a^b [f(x) - g(x)]\,dx$$

p358

Section 7.4

$$L = \int_c^d \sqrt{1 + [g'(y)]^2}\,dy = \int_c^d \sqrt{1 + \left(\frac{dx}{dy}\right)^2}\,dy$$

p380

Section 7.6

where $h(y) = 1/f(y)$. To solve this equation we rewrite it in the differential form

$$h(y)\,dy = g(x)\,dx$$

so that all y's are on one side of the equation and all x's are on the other side. Then we integrate both sides of the equation:

p398 **5**
$$\int h(y)\,dy = \int g(x)\,dx$$

p402 A typical mixing problem involves a tank of fixed capacity filled with a thoroughly mixed solution of some substance, such as salt. A solution of a given concentration enters the tank at a fixed rate and the mixture, thoroughly stirred, leaves at a fixed rate, which may differ from the entering rate. If $y(t)$ denotes the amount of substance in the tank at time t, then $y'(t)$ is the rate at which the substance is being added minus the rate at which it is being removed. The mathematical description of this situation often leads to a first-order separable differential equation. We can use the same type of reasoning to model a variety of phenomena: chemical reactions, discharge of pollutants into a lake, injection of a drug into the bloodstream.

Section 8.1

p413 **3 THEOREM** If $\lim_{x\to\infty} f(x) = L$ and $f(n) = a_n$ when n is an integer, then $\lim_{n\to\infty} a_n = L$.

p414 If $\{a_n\}$ and $\{b_n\}$ are convergent sequences and c is a constant, then

$$\lim_{n\to\infty}(a_n + b_n) = \lim_{n\to\infty} a_n + \lim_{n\to\infty} b_n$$

$$\lim_{n\to\infty}(a_n - b_n) = \lim_{n\to\infty} a_n - \lim_{n\to\infty} b_n$$

$$\lim_{n\to\infty} ca_n = c\lim_{n\to\infty} a_n \qquad \lim_{n\to\infty} c = c$$

$$\lim_{n\to\infty}(a_n b_n) = \lim_{n\to\infty} a_n \cdot \lim_{n\to\infty} b_n$$

$$\lim_{n\to\infty}\frac{a_n}{b_n} = \frac{\lim_{n\to\infty} a_n}{\lim_{n\to\infty} b_n} \quad \text{if } \lim_{n\to\infty} b_n \neq 0$$

$$\lim_{n\to\infty} a_n^p = \left[\lim_{n\to\infty} a_n\right]^p \quad \text{if } p > 0 \text{ and } a_n > 0$$

p414 If $a_n \leqslant b_n \leqslant c_n$ for $n \geqslant n_0$ and $\lim_{n\to\infty} a_n = \lim_{n\to\infty} c_n = L$, then $\lim_{n\to\infty} b_n = L$.

p414 **6 THEOREM** If $\lim_{n\to\infty} |a_n| = 0$, then $\lim_{n\to\infty} a_n = 0$.

p000 **CONTINUITY AND CONVERGENCE THEOREM** If $\lim_{n\to\infty} a_n = L$ and the function f is continuous at L, then

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

p416 **8** The sequence $\{r^n\}$ is convergent if $-1 < r \leqslant 1$ and divergent for all other values of r.

$$\lim_{n\to\infty} r^n = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } -1 < r < 1 \\ 1 & \text{if } r = 1 \end{cases}$$

p418 **11 MONOTONIC SEQUENCE THEOREM** Every bounded, monotonic sequence is convergent.

Section 8.2

p422 **4** The geometric series

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} ar^{n-1} = a + ar + ar^2 + \cdots$$

is convergent if $|r| < 1$ and its sum is

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

If $|r| \geqslant 1$, the geometric series is divergent.

p424 **6 THEOREM** If the series $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$ is convergent, then $\lim_{n\to\infty} a_n = 0$.

p425 **7 TEST FOR DIVERGENCE** If $\lim_{n\to\infty} a_n$ does not exist or if $\lim_{n\to\infty} a_n \neq 0$, then the series $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$ is divergent.

p425 **8 THEOREM** If $\Sigma\, a_n$ and $\Sigma\, b_n$ are convergent series, then so are the series $\Sigma\, ca_n$ (where c is a constant), $\Sigma\,(a_n + b_n)$, and $\Sigma\,(a_n - b_n)$, and

(i) $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} ca_n = c\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$ (ii) $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty}(a_n + b_n) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} b_n$

(iii) $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty}(a_n - b_n) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n - \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} b_n$

Section 8.3

p431 **THE INTEGRAL TEST** Suppose f is a continuous, positive, decreasing function on $[1, \infty)$ and let $a_n = f(n)$. Then the series $\Sigma_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$ is convergent if and only if the improper integral $\int_1^{\infty} f(x)\,dx$ is convergent. In other words:

(i) If $\int_1^{\infty} f(x)\,dx$ is convergent, then $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$ is convergent.

(ii) If $\int_1^{\infty} f(x)\,dx$ is divergent, then $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$ is divergent.

p432 **1** The p-series $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^p}$ is convergent if $p > 1$ and divergent if $p \leqslant 1$.

p433 **THE COMPARISON TEST** Suppose that $\Sigma\, a_n$ and $\Sigma\, b_n$ are series with positive terms.

(i) If $\Sigma\, b_n$ is convergent and $a_n \leqslant b_n$ for all n, then $\Sigma\, a_n$ is also convergent.
(ii) If $\Sigma\, b_n$ is divergent and $a_n \geqslant b_n$ for all n, then $\Sigma\, a_n$ is also divergent.

p434 **THE LIMIT COMPARISON TEST** Suppose that $\Sigma\, a_n$ and $\Sigma\, b_n$ are series with positive terms. If

$$\lim_{n\to\infty} \frac{a_n}{b_n} = c$$

where c is a finite number and $c > 0$, then either both series converge or both diverge.

Section 8.4

p438 **THE ALTERNATING SERIES TEST** If the alternating series

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (-1)^{n-1} b_n = b_1 - b_2 + b_3 - b_4 + b_5 - b_6 + \cdots \qquad b_n > 0$$

satisfies

$$\text{(i)}\quad b_{n+1} \leqslant b_n \qquad \text{for all } n$$

$$\text{(ii)}\quad \lim_{n\to\infty} b_n = 0$$

then the series is convergent.

p440 **ALTERNATING SERIES ESTIMATION THEOREM** If $s = \Sigma\,(-1)^{n-1}b_n$ is the sum of an alternating series that satisfies

$$\text{(i)}\ 0 \leqslant b_{n+1} \leqslant b_n \qquad \text{and} \qquad \text{(ii)}\ \lim_{n\to\infty} b_n = 0$$

then $$|R_n| = |s - s_n| \leqslant b_{n+1}$$

p442 **1 THEOREM** If a series $\Sigma\, a_n$ is absolutely convergent, then it is convergent.

p443

THE RATIO TEST

(i) If $\lim_{n\to\infty}\left|\dfrac{a_{n+1}}{a_n}\right| = L < 1$, then the series $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$ is absolutely convergent (and therefore convergent).

(ii) If $\lim_{n\to\infty}\left|\dfrac{a_{n+1}}{a_n}\right| = L > 1$ or $\lim_{n\to\infty}\left|\dfrac{a_{n+1}}{a_n}\right| = \infty$, then the series $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$ is divergent.

(iii) If $\lim_{n\to\infty}\left|\dfrac{a_{n+1}}{a_n}\right| = 1$, the Ratio Test is inconclusive; that is, no conclusion can be drawn about the convergence or divergence of $\sum a_n$.

Section 8.5

p449

3 THEOREM For a given power series $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} c_n(x-a)^n$ there are only three possibilities:

(i) The series converges only when $x = a$.

(ii) The series converges for all x.

(iii) There is a positive number R such that the series converges if $|x-a| < R$ and diverges if $|x-a| > R$.

Section 8.6

p454

2 THEOREM If the power series $\sum c_n(x-a)^n$ has radius of convergence $R > 0$, then the function f defined by

$$f(x) = c_0 + c_1(x-a) + c_2(x-a)^2 + \cdots = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} c_n(x-a)^n$$

is differentiable (and therefore continuous) on the interval $(a-R, a+R)$ and

(i) $f'(x) = c_1 + 2c_2(x-a) + 3c_3(x-a)^2 + \cdots = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} nc_n(x-a)^{n-1}$

(ii) $\displaystyle\int f(x)\,dx = C + c_0(x-a) + c_1\frac{(x-a)^2}{2} + c_2\frac{(x-a)^3}{3} + \cdots$

$$= C + \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} c_n \frac{(x-a)^{n+1}}{n+1}$$

The radii of convergence of the power series in Equations (i) and (ii) are both R.

Section 8.7

p459

5 THEOREM If f has a power series representation (expansion) at a, that is, if

$$f(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} c_n(x-a)^n \qquad |x-a| < R$$

then its coefficients are given by the formula

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

p459

6 $$f(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{f^{(n)}(a)}{n!}(x-a)^n$$

$$= f(a) + \frac{f'(a)}{1!}(x-a) + \frac{f''(a)}{2!}(x-a)^2 + \frac{f'''(a)}{3!}(x-a)^3 + \cdots$$

p459

7 $$f(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{f^{(n)}(0)}{n!}x^n = f(0) + \frac{f'(0)}{1!}x + \frac{f''(0)}{2!}x^2 + \cdots$$

p461

8 THEOREM If $f(x) = T_n(x) + R_n(x)$, where T_n is the nth-degree Taylor polynomial of f at a and

$$\lim_{n\to\infty} R_n(x) = 0$$

for $|x-a| < R$, then f is equal to the sum of its Taylor series on the interval $|x-a| < R$.

p461

9 TAYLOR'S FORMULA If f has $n+1$ derivatives in an interval I that contains the number a, then for x in I there is a number z strictly between x and a such that the remainder term in the Taylor series can be expressed as

$$R_n(x) = \frac{f^{(n+1)}(z)}{(n+1)!}(x-a)^{n+1}$$

p461

$$\lim_{n\to\infty} \frac{x^n}{n!} = 0 \qquad \text{for every real number } x$$

p465

18 THE BINOMIAL SERIES If k is any real number and $|x| < 1$, then

$$(1+x)^k = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty}\binom{k}{n}x^n = 1 + kx + \frac{k(k-1)}{2!}x^2 + \frac{k(k-1)(k-2)}{3!}x^3 + \cdots$$

p466

$\dfrac{1}{1-x} = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} x^n = 1 + x + x^2 + x^3 + \cdots$	$R = 1$
$e^x = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \dfrac{x^n}{n!} = 1 + \dfrac{x}{1!} + \dfrac{x^2}{2!} + \dfrac{x^3}{3!} + \cdots$	$R = \infty$
$\sin x = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (-1)^n \dfrac{x^{2n+1}}{(2n+1)!} = x - \dfrac{x^3}{3!} + \dfrac{x^5}{5!} - \dfrac{x^7}{7!} + \cdots$	$R = \infty$
$\cos x = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (-1)^n \dfrac{x^{2n}}{(2n)!} = 1 - \dfrac{x^2}{2!} + \dfrac{x^4}{4!} - \dfrac{x^6}{6!} + \cdots$	$R = \infty$
$\tan^{-1}x = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (-1)^n \dfrac{x^{2n+1}}{2n+1} = x - \dfrac{x^3}{3} + \dfrac{x^5}{5} - \dfrac{x^7}{7} + \cdots$	$R = 1$
$\ln(1+x) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (-1)^{n-1} \dfrac{x^n}{n} = x - \dfrac{x^2}{2} + \dfrac{x^3}{3} - \dfrac{x^4}{4} + \cdots$	$R = 1$
$(1+x)^k = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \binom{k}{n} x^n = 1 + kx + \dfrac{k(k-1)}{2!}x^2 + \dfrac{k(k-1)(k-2)}{3!}x^3 + \cdots$	$R = 1$