

Calculus



Limits and Continuity

Limits	5
Limits of a Functions and Sequences.....	5
Properties of Limits.....	6
One-Sided Limit.....	6
Continuity	7
Continuous Functions	7
Intermediate Value Theorem.....	7
Limits Involving Infinity	8
Limits at Infinity and Infinite Limits	8
Asymptotes of functions.....	8

Derivatives

Derivative Fundamentals	9
Derivative as a Function	9
Simple Differentiation Rules	9
Instantaneous Rates of Change	9
Derivatives of Trigonometric Functions	9
Differentiation Rules	10
Chain Rule	10
Product Rule.....	10
Quotient Rule	10
Differentials and Related Concepts	11
Differentials.....	11
Linearization.....	11
Implicit Differentiation	11
Related Rates.....	11

Applications of Derivatives

Stationary Point	12
Maxima and Minima.....	12
Extreme Value Theorem	12
Interior Extremum Theorem	12
Mean Value Theorem	13
Rolle's Theorem.....	13
Corollaries of the Mean Value Theorem.....	13
Monotonic Functions	13

Derivative Tests	14
First-Derivative Test.....	14
Second-Derivative Test	14
Concavity.....	14
Higher-Order Derivative Test.....	14
Differential Methods	15
Newton's Method	15
Taylor's Theorem	15
General Leibniz Rule	15
Integrals	
Integral Fundamentals	16
Terminology and Notation	16
Primer: Formal Definitions.....	16
Definite Integrals	17
Riemann Integral	17
Integrability	17
Properties of Definite Integrals.....	17
The Fundamental Theorem of Calculus	18
Fundamental Theorem, Part 1	18
Fundamental Theorem, Part 2	18
The Integral of a Rate.....	18
Total Area.....	18
Integration By Substitution	19
Indefinite Integrals.....	19
Definite Integrals.....	19
Symmetric Functions.....	19
Area Between Curves	19
Applications of Definite Integrals	
Solid of Revolution	20
Disc Integration.....	20
Shell Integration	20
Arc Length	21
Dealing with Discontinuities	21
Differential Arc Length	21
Surface of Revolution	22
Revolution about the y-Axis.....	22

Transcendental Functions

Inverse Functions	23
One-to-One Functions	23
Derivative Rule for Inverses	23
Logarithmic Functions	24
Natural Logarithm	24
Properties of Logarithms	24
Trigonometric Integrals	24
Logarithmic Differentiation	24
Exponential Functions	25
Euler's Number	25
Natural Exponential Function	25
Laws of Exponents	25
General Exponential Function	25
Exponential Change	26
Separable Differential Equations	26
Examples of Exponential Change	26
Indeterminate Forms	27
Indeterminate Form $0/0$	27
L'Hôpital's Rule	27
Infinite Indeterminate Forms	27
Indeterminate Powers	27
Inverse Trigonometric Functions	28
Principal Trigonometric Values	28
Inverse Trigonometric Tables	28
Hyperbolic Functions	29
Hyperbolic Function Tables	29

Techniques of Integration

Integration by Parts	30
Definite Integrals by Parts	30
Trigonometric Integral Methods	31
Trigonometric Products and Powers	31
Trigonometric Square Roots	31
Trigonometric Substitutions	31
Partial Fraction Decomposition	32
Partial Fraction Principles	32
General Statement	32

Numerical Integration	33
Trapezoidal Rule	33
Simpson's Rule	33
Improper Integrals	34
Indirect Evaluation	34

Infinite Sequences and Series

First-Order Differential Equations

Parametric Equations and Polar Coordinates

Vectors and Vector-Valued Functions

Partial Derivatives

Multiple Integrals

Vector Calculus

Second-Order Differential Equations

Limits and Continuity



Limits

🌐 Limit 🌐 | Thomas' Calculus (2.2–2.4) 🌐

- **Limit** $\lim_{x \rightarrow c}$: the value of a function (or sequence) approaches as the input (or index) approaches some value (informal definition).
 - Limits are used to define **continuity** ↓, **derivatives** ↓, and **integrals** ↓.

Limits of a Functions and Sequences

🌐 Limit of a function 🌐 | Limit of a sequence 🌐 | Essence of Calculus, E7 📺

- **Limit of a function**: a fundamental concept in calculus and analysis concerning the behavior of a function near a particular input c , i.e.,

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow c} f(x) = L$$

- Reads as “ f of x tends to L as x tends to c ”
- ϵ, δ **Limit of function**: a formalized definition, wherein $f(x)$ is defined on an open interval \mathcal{I} , except possibly at c itself, leading to above definition, if and only if:
 - For every real measure of **closeness** $\epsilon > 0$, there exists a real **corresponding** $\delta > 0$, such that for all existing further approaches there exist a smaller ϵ , i.e.,

$$f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}, c, L \in \mathbb{R} \Rightarrow \lim_{x \rightarrow c} f(x) = L$$



$$\forall \epsilon > 0 (\exists \delta > 0 : \forall x \in \mathcal{I} (0 < |x - c| < \delta \Rightarrow |f(x) - L| < \epsilon))$$

- Functions **do not have** a limit when the function:
 - has a **unit step**, i.e., it “jumps” at a point;
 - is **not bounded**, i.e., it tends towards infinity;
 - or it **oscillates**, i.e., does not stay close to any single number.
- **Limit of a sequence**: the value that the terms of a sequence (x_n) “tends to” (and not to any other) as n approaches infinity (or some point), i.e.,

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} x_n = x$$

- ϵ **Limit of sequence**: for every measure of closeness ϵ , the sequence's x_n term eventually converge to the limit, i.e.,

$$\forall \epsilon > 0 (\exists N \in \mathbb{N} (\forall n \in \mathbb{N} (n \geq N \Rightarrow |x_n - x| < \epsilon)))$$

- **Convergent**: when a limit of a sequence **exists**.
- **Divergent**: a sequence that **does not** converge.

Properties of Limits

📌 List of limits 📌 | Squeeze theorem 📌

- **Operations on a single known limit:** if $\lim_{x \rightarrow c} f(x) = L$ then:
 - $\lim_{x \rightarrow c} [f(x) \pm \alpha] = L \pm \alpha$
 - $\lim_{x \rightarrow c} \alpha f(x) = \alpha L$
 - $\lim_{x \rightarrow c} f(x)^{-1} = L^{-1}, L \neq 0$
 - $\lim_{x \rightarrow c} f(x)^n = L^n, n \in \mathbb{N}$
 - $\lim_{x \rightarrow c} f(x)^{n-1} = L^{n-1}, n \in \mathbb{N}, \text{ if } n \in \mathbb{N}_e \Rightarrow L > 0$
- **Operations on two known limits:** if $\lim_{x \rightarrow c} f(x) = L_1$ and $\lim_{x \rightarrow c} g(x) = L_2$
 - $\lim_{x \rightarrow c} [f(x) \pm g(x)] = L_1 \pm L_2$
 - $\lim_{x \rightarrow c} [f(x)g(x)] = L_1L_2$
 - $\lim_{x \rightarrow c} f(x)g(x)^{-1} = L_1L_2^{-1}$
- **Squeeze theorem:** used to confirm the limit of a difficult to compute function via comparison with two other functions whose limits are easily known or computed.
 - Let \mathcal{I} be an interval having the point c as a limit point.
 - Let g, f , and h , be functions defined on \mathcal{I} , except possibly at c itself.
 - Suppose that $\forall x \in \mathcal{I} \wedge x \neq c \Rightarrow g(x) \leq f(x) \leq h(x)$
 - And suppose that $\lim_{x \rightarrow c} g(x) = \lim_{x \rightarrow c} h(x) = L$
 - Then, $\lim_{x \rightarrow c} f(x) = L$
 - Essentially, the hard to compute limit of the “middle function” is found by finding two other easy functions that “squeeze” the middle function at that point.

One-Sided Limit

📌 One-Sided Limit 📌

- **One-sided limit:** one of two limits of $f(x)$ as x approaches a specified point from either the left or from the right.
 - From the left: $\lim_{x \rightarrow c^-} = L$
 - From the right: $\lim_{x \rightarrow c^+} = L$
- If the left and right limits exist and are equal, then

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow c} f(x) = L \Leftrightarrow \lim_{x \rightarrow c^-} f(x) = L \wedge \lim_{x \rightarrow c^+} f(x) = L$$

- Limits can still exist, even if the function is defined at a different point, as long as both one-sided limits approach the same value near the given input.

Continuity

🌱 Continuous function 🌱 | Classification of discontinuities 🌱 | Thomas' Calculus (2.5) 🌱

- Continuity of functions is one of the core concepts of topology, however, there are definitions in terms of limits that prove useful; the following is only a primer.

Continuous Functions

- **Continuous function:** a function that does not have any abrupt changes in value.
 - I.e., a function is continuous if and only if arbitrarily small changes in its output can be assured by restricting to sufficiently small changes in its input.
- **Discontinuous:** when a function is not continuous at a point in its domain, leading to a discontinuity; there are three classifications:
 - **Removable:** when both **one-sided limits** \uparrow exist, are finite, and are equal, but the actual value of $f(x)$ is not equal to the limit and equal to some other value.
 - The discontinuity can be removed to regain continuity.
 - Sometimes the term *removable discontinuity* is mistaken for *removable singularity*, or a “whole” in the function (the point is not defined elsewhere).
 - **Jump:** when a single limit does not exist because the one-sided limits exist and are finite, but not equal.
 - Points can be defined at the discontinuity, but the function can not be made continuous.
 - **Essential:** when at least one of two one-sided limits doesn't exist; can be the result of oscillating or unbounded functions.

Intermediate Value Theorem

🌱 Intermediate Value Theorem 🌱

- **Intermediate value theorem:** if f is a continuous function whose domain contains the interval $[a, b]$, then it **takes on any given value between $f(a)$ and $f(b)$** at some point within the intervals.
- Relevant deductions, i.e., important corollaries:
 - **Bolzano's theorem:** if a continuous function has values of opposite sign inside an interval, then it **has a root** in that interval.
 - The image of a continuous function over an interval is itself an interval.
- Thus, the image set $f(\mathcal{I})$ (which has no gaps) is also an interval, and it contains:

$$[\min(f(a), f(b)), \max(f(a), f(b))]$$

Limits Involving Infinity

📌 Limits involving infinity 📌 | Thomas' Calculus (2.6) 📌

- Let $S \subseteq \mathbb{R}$, $x \in S$ and $f : S \mapsto \mathbb{R}$, then limits of these functions can approach arbitrarily large (\pm) values, providing a connection to asymptotes, and thus, analysis.

Limits at Infinity and Infinite Limits

- Limits at infinity:** limits defined as $f(x) \pm \text{infinity}$ are defined much like normal limits:

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow -\infty} f(x) = L \quad \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} f(x) = L$$

- Formally, for all measures of closeness ϵ there exists a point c such that $|f(x) - L| < \epsilon$ whenever $x < c \vee x > c$ (respectively), i.e.,

$$\forall \epsilon > 0 (\exists c (\forall x \{<, >\} c : |f(x) - L| < \epsilon))$$

- Basic rules for rational functions $f(x) = p(x)q(x)^{-1}$, where p and q are polynomials, the degree of each is denoted as $\{p, q\}^\circ$, and the leading coefficients are denoted as P, Q , then:
 - $p^\circ > q^\circ \Rightarrow L$ is $\{+, -\}$ depending on the sign of the leading coefficients.
 - $p^\circ = q^\circ \Rightarrow L = PQ^{-1}$
 - $p^\circ < q^\circ \Rightarrow L = 0$
- Infinite limits:** the usual limit does not exist for a limit that grows out of bounds, however, limits with infinite values can be introduced:

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = \infty, \quad \text{i.e.,} \quad \forall n > 0 (\exists \delta > 0 : f(x) > n \Leftrightarrow 0 < |x - a| < \delta)$$

Asymptotes of functions

📌 Asymptotes 📌

- Asymptote:** a tangent line of a curve at a point at infinity; the distance between the curve and the line approaches zero as a coordinate tends to infinity.
- There are three kinds of asymptotes: *horizontal*, *vertical* and *oblique*; nature of the asymptote is dependent on a function's relation to infinity.
 - Horizontal asymptotes:** a result of limits at infinity, i.e., when $x \rightarrow \pm\infty$
 - Vertical asymptotes:** a result of infinite limits, i.e., when $x \rightarrow \pm a = \pm\infty$
 - Oblique asymptotes:** when a linear asymptote is not parallel to either axis. $f(x)$ is asymptotic to the straight line $y = mx + n (m \neq 0)$ if:

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow \pm\infty} [f(x) - (mx + n)] = 0$$

Derivatives



Derivative Fundamentals

Derivative as a Function

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Simple Differentiation Rules

-

Instantaneous Rates of Change

-

Derivatives of Trigonometric Functions

-

Differentiation Rules

Chain Rule

-

Product Rule

-

Quotient Rule

-

Differentials and Related Concepts

Differentials

-

Linearization

-

Implicit Differentiation

-

Related Rates

-

Applications of Derivatives



Stationary Point

Maxima and Minima

-

Extreme Value Theorem

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Interior Extremum Theorem

-

Mean Value Theorem

Rolle's Theorem

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Corollaries of the Mean Value Theorem

-

Monotonic Functions

Derivative Tests

First-Derivative Test

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Second-Derivative Test

-

Concavity

-

Higher-Order Derivative Test

-

Differential Methods

Newton's Method

-

Taylor's Theorem

-

General Leibniz Rule

-

Integrals



Integral Fundamentals

Terminology and Notation

-

Primer: Formal Definitions

-

Definite Integrals

Riemann Integral

-

Integrability

-

Properties of Definite Integrals

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The Fundamental Theorem of Calculus

Fundamental Theorem, Part 1

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Fundamental Theorem, Part 2

-

The Integral of a Rate

-

Total Area

-

Integration By Substitution

Indefinite Integrals

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Definite Integrals

-

Symmetric Functions

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Area Between Curves

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Applications of Definite Integrals



Solid of Revolution

Disc Integration

-

Shell Integration

-

Arc Length

Dealing with Discontinuities

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Differential Arc Length

-

Surface of Revolution

Revolution about the y-Axis

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Transcendental Functions



Inverse Functions

One-to-One Functions

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Derivative Rule for Inverses

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Logarithmic Functions

Natural Logarithm

-

Properties of Logarithms

-

Trigonometric Integrals

-

Logarithmic Differentiation

-

Exponential Functions

Euler's Number

-

Natural Exponential Function

-

Laws of Exponents

-

General Exponential Function

-

Exponential Change

- **Separable Differential Equations**

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Examples of Exponential Change

-

Indeterminate Forms

Indeterminate Form $0/0$

-

L'Hôpital's Rule

-

Infinite Indeterminate Forms

-

Indeterminate Powers

-

Inverse Trigonometric Functions

Principal Trigonometric Values

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Inverse Trigonometric Tables

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Hyperbolic Functions

Hyperbolic Function Tables

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Techniques of Integration



Integration by Parts

Definite Integrals by Parts

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Trigonometric Integral Methods

Trigonometric Products and Powers

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Trigonometric Square Roots

-

Trigonometric Substitutions

-

Partial Fraction Decomposition

Partial Fraction Principles

-

General Statement

-

Numerical Integration

Trapezoidal Rule

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Simpson's Rule

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Improper Integrals

Indirect Evaluation

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Infinite Sequences and Series



First-Order Differential Equations



Parametric Equations and Polar Coordinates



Vectors and Vector-Valued Functions



Partial Derivatives



Multiple Integrals



Vector Calculus



Second-Order Differential Equations

