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$$\frac{\partial}{\partial x} \int_{1}^{x} f(x,t)dt = \int_{1}^{x} \frac{\partial}{\partial x} f(x,t)dt + f(x,x)$$

0.1 Big Theorems / Tools:

• The Fundamental Theorem of Calculus:

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial x} \int_{a}^{x} f(t)dt = f(x)$$

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial x} \int_{a(x)}^{b(x)} g(t)dt = g(b(x))b'(x) - g(a(x))a'(x)$$

• The generalized Fundamental Theorem of Calculus

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial x} \int_{a(x)}^{b(x)} f(x,t)dt - \int_{a(x)}^{b(x)} \frac{\partial}{\partial x} f(x,t)dt = f(x,\cdot) \frac{\partial}{\partial x} (\cdot) \Big|_{a(x)}^{b(x)}$$

$$= f(x, b(x)) b'(x) - f(x, a(x)) a'(x)$$

- Recover FTC by taking a(x) = c, b(x) = x, f(x,t) = f(t).
 - \diamondsuit Note that if f(x,t) = f(t) alone, then $\frac{\partial x}{\partial f}(t) = 0$ and the second integral vanishes
- Extreme Value Theorem
- Involving the Derivative:
 - Mean Value Theorem:

$$f \in C^0(I) \implies \exists p \in I : f(b) - f(a) = f'(p)(b - a).$$

- Useful variant for integrals and average value:

$$f \in C^0(I) \implies \exists p \in I : \int_a^b f(x) \ dx = f(p)(b-a)$$

- Rolle's Theorem
- L'Hopital's Rule: If
- -f(x), g(x) differentiable on $I \{pt\}$

$$-\lim_{x \to pt} f(x) = \lim_{x \to \{\text{pt}\}} g(x) \in \{0, \pm \infty\}$$
$$- \forall x \in I, g'(x) \neq 0$$
$$-\lim_{x \to \{\text{pt}\}} \frac{f'(x)}{g'(x)} \text{ exists}$$

$$\implies \lim_{x \to \{\text{pt}\}} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} = \lim_{x \to \{\text{pt}\}} \frac{f'(x)}{g'(x)}$$

- Taylor Expansions:

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

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

$$+ \frac{1}{6}f'''(a)(x-a)^3 + \frac{1}{24}f^{(4)}(a)(x-a)^4 + \cdots$$

Bounded error: $|f(x) - T_k(a, x)| < \left| \frac{1}{(k+1)!} f^{(k+1)}(a) \right|$ where $T_k(a, x)$ is the Taylor series truncated up to and including the x^k term.

0.2 Differential

0.2.1 Limits

- Tools for finding $\lim_{x\to a} f(x)$, in order of difficulty:
 - Plug in: equal to f(a) if continuous
 - L'Hopital's Rule (only for indeterminate forms $\frac{0}{0}, \frac{\infty}{\infty}$)

$$\diamondsuit$$
 For $\lim_{x \to 0} f(x)^{g(x)} = 1^{\infty}, \infty^0, 0^0$, let $L = \lim_{x \to 0} f^g \implies \ln L = \lim_{x \to 0} g \ln f$

- Algebraic rules
- Squeeze theorem
- Expand in Taylor series at a
- Monotonic + bounded
- One-sided limits: $\lim_{x\to a^-} f(x) = \lim_{\varepsilon\to 0} f(a-\varepsilon)$
- Limits at zero or infinity:

$$\lim_{x \to \infty} f(x) = \lim_{\frac{1}{x} \to 0} f(\frac{1}{x}) \text{ and } \lim_{x \to 0} f(x) = \lim_{x \to \infty} f(1/x)$$

- Also useful:

$$\lim_{x \to \infty} \frac{p(x)}{q(x)} = \begin{cases} 0 & \deg p < \deg q \\ \infty & \deg p > \deg q \\ \frac{p_n}{q_n} & \deg p = \deg q \end{cases}$$

• Be careful: limits may not exist!!

- Example: $\lim_{x \to 0} \frac{1}{x} \neq 0$
- Asymptotes:
 - Vertical asymptotes: at values x=p where $\lim_{x\to p}=\pm\infty$
 - Horizontal asymptotes: given by points y = L where $L \lim_{x \to +\infty} f(x) < \infty$
 - Oblique asymptotes: for rational functions, divide terms without denominators yield equation of asymptote (i.e. look at the asymptotic order or "limiting behavior").

$$\diamondsuit$$
 Concretely: $f(x) = \frac{p(x)}{q(x)} = r(x) + \frac{s(x)}{t(x)} \sim r(x)$

- Limit of a recurrence: $x_n = f(x_{n-1}, x_{n-2}, \cdots)$
 - If the limit exists, it is a solution to x = f(x)

0.2.2 Derivatives

- Chain rule: $\frac{\partial}{\partial x}(f \circ g)(x) = f'(g(x))g'(x)$ Product rule: $\frac{\partial x}{\partial f}(x)g(x) = f'g + g'f$
- Note for all rules: always prime the first thing!

 Quotient rule: $\frac{\partial}{\partial x} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} = \frac{f'g g'f}{g^2}$
- Mnemonic: Low d-high minus high d-low

 Inverse rule: $\frac{\partial f^{-1}}{\partial x}(f(x_0)) = \left(\frac{\partial f}{\partial x}\right)^{-1}(x_0) = 1/f'(x_0)$ Implicit differentiation: (f(x))' = f'(x) dx, (f(y))' = f'(y) dy
- - Often able to solve for $\frac{\partial [}{\partial y}]x$ this way.
- Obtaining derivatives of inverse functions: if $y = f^{-1}(x)$ then write f(y) = x and implicitly differentiate.
- Approximating change: $\Delta y \approx f'(x) \Delta x$

0.2.3 Related Rates

General series of steps: want to know some unknown rate y_t

- Lay out known relation that involves y
- Take derivative implicitly (say w.r.t t) to obtain a relation between y_t and other stuff.
- Isolate $y_t = \text{known stuff}$
- Example: ladder sliding down wall

 - Setup: l, x_t and x(t) are known for a given t, want y_t . $x(t)^2 + y(t)^2 = l^2 \implies 2xx_t + 2yy_t = 2ll_t = 0$ (noting that l is constant)
 - $So y_t = -\frac{x(t)}{y(t)} x_t$
 - -x(t) is known, so obtain $y(t) = \sqrt{l^2 x(t)^2}$ and solve.

0.3 Integral

• Average values:

$$f_{\text{avg}}(x) = \frac{1}{b-a} \int_{a}^{b} f(t)dt$$

- Proof: apply MVT to F(x).

- Area Between Curves
 - Area in polar coordinates:

$$A = \int_{r_1}^{r_2} \frac{1}{2} r^2(\theta) \ d\theta$$

• Solids of Revolution

- Disks:
$$A = \int \pi r(t)^2 dt$$

- Cylinders:
$$A = \int 2\pi r(t)h(t) dt$$

• Arc lengths

$$ds = \sqrt{dx^2 + dy^2} \qquad L = \int ds$$
$$= \int_{x_0}^{x_1} \sqrt{1 + \frac{\partial y}{\partial x}} dx$$
$$= \int_{y_0}^{y_1} \sqrt{\frac{\partial x}{\partial y} + 1} dy$$

$$- SA = \int 2\pi r(x) \ ds$$

- Center of Mass
 - Given a density $\rho(\mathbf{x})$ of an object R, the x_i coordinate is given by

$$x_i = \frac{\int_R x_i \rho(x) \ dx}{\int_R \rho(x) \ dx}$$

0.3.1 Big List of Integration Techniques

Given f(x), we want to find an antiderivative $F(x) = \int f$ satisfying $\frac{\partial}{\partial x} F(x) = f(x)$

- Guess and check: look for a function that differentiates to f.
- *u* substitution
 - More generally, any change of variables

$$x = g(u) \implies \int_{a}^{b} f(x) \ dx = \int_{g^{-1}(a)}^{g^{-1}(b)} (f \circ g)(x) \ g'(x) \ dx$$

- Integration by Parts:
 - The standard form:

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

– A more general form for repeated applications: let $v^{-1} = \int v, v^{-2} = \int \int v$, etc.

$$\int_{a}^{b} uv = uv^{-1} \Big|_{a}^{b} - \int_{a}^{b} u^{1}v^{-1}$$

$$= uv^{-1} - u^{1}v^{-2} \Big|_{a}^{b} + \int_{a}^{b} u^{2}v^{-2}$$

$$= uv^{-1} - u^{1}v^{-2} + u^{2}v^{-3} \Big|_{a}^{b} - \int_{a}^{b} u^{3}v^{-3}$$

$$\vdots$$

$$\implies \int_{a}^{b} uv = \sum_{a}^{b} (-1)^{k} u^{k-1} v^{-k} \Big|_{a}^{b} + (-1)^{n} \int_{a}^{b} u^{n} v^{-n}$$

- Generally useful when one term's nth derivative is a constant.
- Shoelace method:
- Note: you can choose u or v equal to 1! Useful if you know the derivative of the integrand.
- Differentiating under the integral

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial x} \int_{a(x)}^{b(x)} f(x,t)dt - \int_{a(x)}^{b(x)} \frac{\partial}{\partial x} f(x,t)dt = f(x,\cdot) \frac{\partial}{\partial x} (\cdot) \Big|_{a(x)}^{b(x)}$$
$$= f(x,b(x)) b'(x) - f(x,a(x)) a'(x)$$

- Proof: let F(x) be an antiderivative and compute F'(x) using the chain rule.
- #todo for constants, this should allow differentiating under the integral when f, f_x are "jointly continuous"
- LIPET: Log, Inverse trig, Polynomial, Exponeitial, Trig: generally let u be whichever one comes first.
- The ridiculous trig sub: for any integrand containing only trig terms

 - Transforms any such integrand into a rational function of x Let $u=2\tan^{-1}x,\ du=\frac{2}{x^2+1},$ then

$$\int_{a}^{b} f(x) \ dx = \int_{\tan \frac{a}{2}}^{\tan \frac{b}{2}} f(u) \ du$$

$$\diamondsuit$$
 Example: $\int_0^{\pi/2} \frac{1}{\sin \theta} d\theta = 1/2$

Derivatives	Integrals	Signs	Result
u	v	NA	NA
u'	$\int v$	+	$u \int v$

Derivatives	Integrals	Signs	Result
u''	$\int \int v$	_	$-u'\int\int v$
:	:	:	:

Fill out until one column is zero (alternate signs). Get the result column by multiplying diagonally, then sum down the column.

• Trigonometric Substitution

$$\sqrt{a^2 - x^2} \qquad \Rightarrow \qquad x = a\sin(\theta) \qquad dx = a\cos(\theta) \ d\theta$$

$$\sqrt{a^2 + x^2} \qquad \Rightarrow \qquad x = a\tan(\theta) \qquad dx = a\sec^2(\theta) \ d\theta$$

$$\sqrt{x^2 - a^2} \qquad \Rightarrow \qquad x = a\sec(\theta) \qquad dx = a\sec(\theta)\tan(\theta) \ d\theta$$

- Partial Fractions
- Completing the Square #todo
- Trig Formulas
 - Double angle formulas:

$$\sin^2(x) = \frac{1}{2}(1 - 2\cos x)$$

$$=$$

$$=$$

$$=$$

$$=$$

• Products of trig functions

- Setup:
$$\int \sin^{a}(x) \cos^{b}(x) dx$$

$$\Leftrightarrow \text{ Both } a, b \text{ even: } \sin(x) \cos(x) = \frac{1}{2} \sin(x)$$

$$\Leftrightarrow a \text{ odd: } \sin^{2} = 1 - \cos^{2}, \ u = \cos(x)$$

$$\Leftrightarrow b \text{ odd: } \cos^{2} = 1 - \sin^{2}, \ u = \sin(x)$$
- Setup:
$$\int \tan^{a}(x) \sec^{b}(x) dx$$

$$\Leftrightarrow a \text{ odd: } \tan^{2} = \sec^{2} -1, \ u = \sec(x)$$

$$\Leftrightarrow b \text{ even: } \sec^{2} = \tan^{2} -1, \ u = \tan(x)$$

Other small but useful facts:

$$\int_0^{2\pi} \sin\theta \ d\theta = \int_0^{2\pi} \cos\theta \ d\theta = 0.$$

0.3.2 Optimization

- Critical points: boundary points and wherever f'(x) = 0
- Second derivative test:

$$-f''(p) > 0 \implies p \text{ is a min}$$

 $-f''(p) < 0 \implies p \text{ is a max}$

- Inflection points of h occur where the tangent of h' changes sign. (Note that this is where h' itself changes sign.)
- Inverse function theorem: The slope of the inverse is reciprocal of the original slope
- If two equations are equal at exactly one real point, they are tangent to each other there therefore their derivatives are equal. Find the x that satisfies this; it can be used in the original equation.
- Fundamental theorem of Calculus: If

$$\int f(x)dx = F(b) - F(a) \implies F'(x) = f(x).$$

- Min/maxing either derivatives of Lagranage multipliers!
- Distance from origin to plane: equation of a plane

$$P: ax + by + cz = d.$$

- You can always just read off the normal vector $\mathbf{n} = (a, b, c)$. So we have $\mathbf{n}\mathbf{x} = d$.
- Since $\lambda \mathbf{n}$ is normal to P for all λ , solve $\mathbf{n}\lambda \mathbf{n} = d$, which is $\lambda = \frac{d}{\|\mathbf{n}\|^2}$
- A plane can be constructed from a point p and a normal n by the equation np = 0.
- In a sine wave $f(x) = \sin(\omega x)$, the period is given by $2\pi/\omega$. If $\omega > 1$, then the wave makes exactly ω full oscillations in the interval $[0, 2\pi]$.
- The directional derivative is the gradient dotted against a *unit vector* in the direction of interest
- Related rates problems can often be solved via implicit differentiation of some constraint function
- The second derivative of a parametric equation is not exactly what you'd intuitively think!
- For the love of god, remember the FTC!

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial x} \int_0^x f(y) dy = f(x)$$

- Technique for asymptotic inequalities: WTS f < g, so show $f(x_0) < g(x_0)$ at a point and then show $\forall x > x_0, f'(x) < g'(x)$. Good for big-O style problems too.
- Inflection points of h occur where the tangent of h' changes sign. (Note that this is where h' itself changes sign.)
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