# Title

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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:

Proposition 0.1.1 (Fundamental Theorem of Calculus I).

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

Proposition 0.1.2(Generalized Fundamental Theorem of Calculus).

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

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

- Recover FTC by taking a(x)=c, b(x)=x, f(x,t)=f(t).
   Note that if f(x,t)=f(t) doesn't depend on x, then  $\frac{\partial f}{\partial x}=0$  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  $L = \lim_{x \to 0} f(x)^0 \implies \ln L = \lim_{x \to 0} g \ln f(x)$ 

- 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  $L\lim_{x\to\pm\infty}f(x)<\infty$
  - 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:

$$\int udv = uv - \int vdu$$

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

$$\begin{split} \int_a^b uv &= uv^{-1} \Big|_a^b - \int_a^b u^1 v^{-1} \\ &= uv^{-1} - u^1 v^{-2} \Big|_a^b + \int_a^b u^2 v^{-2} \\ &= uv^{-1} - u^1 v^{-2} + u^2 v^{-3} \Big|_a^b - \int_a^b u^3 v^{-3} \\ &\vdots \\ \Longrightarrow \int_a^b uv &= \sum_{k=1}^n (-1)^k u^{k-1} v^{-k} \Big|_a^b + (-1)^n \int_a^b u^n v^{-n} \end{split}$$

- 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
$\overline{u}$	v	NA	NA
u'	$\int v$	+	$u \int v$
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  $\lambda$ , 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  $\omega$  full oscillations in the interval  $[0, 2\pi]$ .
- ullet 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.)

- 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.
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