Title

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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).

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

If f(x,t) = f(t) doesn't depend on x, then $\frac{\partial f}{\partial x} = 0$ and the second integral vanishes:

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

Find examples

Remark 0.1.1.

Note that you can recover the original FTC by taking

$$a(x) = c$$
$$b(x) = x$$
$$f(x,t) = f(t).$$

Corollary 0.1.1(?).

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

Proposition 0.1.3 (Extreme Value Theorem).

Todo

\todo[inline]{Todo}

Proposition 0.1.4 (Mean Value Theorem).

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

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

Proposition 0.1.5 (Rolle's Theorem).

todo

Proposition 0.1.6(L'Hopital's Rule).

 If

• f(x) and g(x) are differentiable on $I - \{pt\}$, and

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

Then it is necessarily the case that

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

Remark 0.1.2.

Note that this includes the following indeterminate forms:

$$\frac{0}{0}$$
, $\frac{\infty}{\infty}$, $0 \cdot \infty$, 0^0 , ∞^0 , 1^∞ , $\infty - \infty$.

For $0 \cdot \infty$, can rewrite as $\frac{0}{\frac{1}{\infty}} = \frac{0}{0}$, or alternatively $\frac{\infty}{\frac{1}{0}} = \frac{\infty}{\infty}$.

For 1^{∞} , ∞^0 , and 0^0 , set

$$L := \lim f^g \implies \ln L = \lim g \ln(f)$$

to recover $\infty \cdot 0, 0 \cdot \infty$, or $0 \cdot 0$.

Proposition 0.1.7 (Taylor Expansion).

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

$$= f(a) + f'(a)(x-a) + \frac{1}{2}f''(a)(x-a)^2 + \frac{1}{6}f'''(a)(x-a)^3 + \frac{1}{24}f^{(4)}(a)(x-a)^4 + \cdots$$

There is a bound on the error:

$$|f(x) - T_k(a, x)| \le \left| \frac{f^{(k+1)}(a)}{(k+1)!} \right|$$

where $T_k(a,x) = \sum_{n=0}^k \frac{f^{(n)}(a)}{n!} (x-a)^n$ is the kth truncation.

Remark 0.1.3.

Approximating change: $\Delta y \approx f'(x)\Delta x$

0.2 Differential

0.2.1 Limits

0.2.2 Tools for finding limits

Examples

How to find $\lim_{x\to a} f(x)$ in order of difficulty:

- Plug in: if f is continuous, $\lim_{x\to a} f(x) = f(a)$.
- Check for indeterminate forms and apply L'Hopital's Rule.
- 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:

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

- Also useful: if $p(x) = p_n x^n + \cdots$ and $q(x) = q_n x^m + \cdots$,

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

Warning 0.1: Be careful: limits may not exist!! Example: $\lim_{x\to 0} \frac{1}{x} \neq 0$.

0.2.3 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").
 - Concretely:

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

0.2.4 Recurrences

- 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)

0.2.5 Derivatives

Proposition 0.2.1 (Chain Rule).

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial x} (f \circ g) = (f' \circ g) \cdot g'$$

Proposition 0.2.2 (Product Rule).

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial x} f \cdot g = f' \cdot g + g' \cdot f$$

Proposition 0.2.3 (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

Proposition 0.2.4(Inverse Rule).

$$\frac{\partial f^{-1}}{\partial x} \left(f(x_0) \right) = \left(\frac{\partial f}{\partial x} \right)^{-1} (x_0) = 1/f'(x_0)$$

0.2.6 Implicit Differentiation

$$(f(x))' = f'(x) dx, (f(y))' = f'(y) dy$$

- Often able to solve for $\frac{\partial y}{\partial x}$ this way.
 - Obtaining derivatives of inverse functions: if $y = f^{-1}(x)$ then write f(y) = x and implicitly differentiate.

0.2.7 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 .
 - $-x(t)^{2} + y(t)^{2} = l^{2} \implies 2xx_{t} + 2yy_{t} = 2ll_{t} = 0 \text{ (noting that } l \text{ is constant)}$
 - $So y_t = -\frac{x(t)}{y(t)} x_t$
 - -x(t) is known, so obtain $y(t) = \sqrt{l^2 x(t)^2}$ and solve.

0.3 Integral

Proposition 0.3.1 (Integral formula for average value).

$$\mu_f = \frac{1}{b-a} \int_a^b f(t)dt$$

Proof (?). Apply MVT to F(x).

0.3.1 Area Between Curves

• Area in polar coordinates:

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

0.3.2 Solids of Revolution

Disks
$$A = \int \pi r(t)^2 dt$$
 Cylinders
$$A = \int 2\pi r(t)h(t) dt.$$

0.3.3 Arc Lengths

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

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

0.3.4 Center of Mass

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

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

0.3.5 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

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

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.

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

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

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

$$\vdots$$

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

- Generally useful when one term's *n*th 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''	$\int \int v$	_	$-u'\int\int v$
:	:	:	:

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:
$$\int \tan^{a}(x) \sec^{b}(x) dx$$

$$\Diamond$$
 a odd: $\tan^2 = \sec^2 -1$, $u = \sec(x)$
 \Diamond b even: $\sec^2 = \tan^2 -1$, $u = \tan(x)$

Other small but useful facts:

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

0.3.6 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.)
- 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

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