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# Mathematics (1)

# 1.1 Logarithms

$$\begin{split} \log_b(MN) &= \log_b(M) + \log_b(N) \\ \log_b\left(\frac{M}{N}\right) &= \log_b(M) - \log_b(N) \\ \log_b(M^p) &= p \cdot \log_b(M) \\ \log_b(a) &= \frac{\log_x(a)}{\log_x(b)} \\ \log_b(b) &= 1 \end{split}$$

# 1.2 Notation

deg p(x) means the degree of polynomial p.

LC p(x) means the leading coefficient of polynomial p.

## 1.3 Rational functions

For a rational function  $f(x) = \frac{p(x)}{q(x)}$ , cancel out any common factors, then:

- When deg p(x) = deg q(x):
  - HA:  $y = \frac{\text{LC } p(x)}{\text{LC } q(x)}$
  - VA: roots of q(x)
- When deg p(x) < deg q(x):
  - HA: y = 0
  - x-intercept: roots of p(x)
  - VA: roots of q(x)
- When deg  $p(x) > \deg q(x)$ :
  - HA: none
  - slant asymptote:  $\frac{p(x)}{g(x)}$  excluding remainder
  - VA: roots of q(x)

# 1.4 Polynomials

# 1.4.1 Linear equations

Slope-intercept form: y = mx + b

Point-slope form:  $y - y_1 = m(x - x_1)$  for point (x, y)

Standard form: ax + by = c

# 1.4.2 Quadratic equations

Standard form:  $y = ax^2 + bx + c$ 

Vertex form:  $y = a(x - h)^2 + k$  for vertex (h, k)

Sum of roots:  $\frac{-b}{a}$ 

Product of roots:  $\frac{c}{a}$ 

# 1.4.3 Higher-degree polynomials

In a polynomial

$$a_n x^n + a_{n-1} x^{n-1} + \dots + a_1 x + a_0 = 0$$

, with roots

$$r_1, r_2, r_3, \ldots, r_n$$

then:

$$r_1 + r_2 + r_3 + \dots + r_n = \sum_{k=1}^n n r_k = -\frac{a_{n-1}}{a_n}$$

# 1.5 Sequences and Series

## 1.5.1 Explicit formulas

Aritmetic sequence:  $a_n = a_1 + r(n-1)$ 

Geometric sequence:  $a_n = a_1 * r^{n-1}$ 

Harmonic sequence:  $a_n = \frac{1}{a_1 + r(n-1)}$ 

#### 1.5.2 Arithmetic and Geometric Series

In the following equations, substituting j=1 with j=0, j-1 with j, and  $a_1$  with  $a_0$  will produce the same result.

$$\sum_{j=1}^{n} (a_1 + r(j-1)) = \frac{n}{2} (2a_1 + (n-1)d)$$

$$\sum_{j=1}^{n} (a_1 * r^{j-1}) = \frac{a_1(1-r^n)}{1-r}$$

$$\sum_{j=1}^{\infty} (a_1 * r^{j-1}) = \frac{a_1}{1-r} \text{ for } r \in [-1,1]$$

## 1.5.3 Special Sums

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

$$\sum_{j=1}^{n} ca_{j} = c \sum_{j=1}^{n} a_{j}$$

$$\sum_{j=1}^{n} (a_{j} + b_{j}) = \sum_{j=1}^{n} a_{j} + \sum_{j=1}^{n} b_{j}$$

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

$$\sum_{j=1}^{n} j^{2} = \frac{n(n+\frac{1}{2})(n+1)}{3}$$

$$\sum_{j=1}^{n} j^{3} = \frac{n^{2}(n+1)^{2}}{4}$$

# 1.6 Trigonometry

0	$\operatorname{rad}$	sin	cos	tan
0°	0	0	1	0
$30^{\circ}$	$\frac{\pi}{6}$	$\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{\sqrt{3}}{2}$	$\frac{1}{\sqrt{3}}$
$45^{\circ}$	$\frac{\pi}{4}$	$\frac{\sqrt{2}}{2}$	$\frac{\sqrt{2}}{2}$	1
60°	$\frac{\pi}{3}$	$\frac{\sqrt{3}}{2}$	$\frac{1}{2}$	$\sqrt{3}$
$90^{\circ}$	$\frac{\tilde{\pi}}{2}$	1	Ō	undef

### 1.6.1 Law of Sines and Cosines

$$\frac{\sin(A)}{a} = \frac{\sin(B)}{b} = \frac{\sin(C)}{c}$$
  $c^2 = a^2 + b^2 - 2ab\cos(C)$ 

# 1.6.2 Triangle area

$$K = \frac{1}{2}bh \qquad K = \frac{1}{2}bc\sin(A) \qquad K = \sqrt{s(s-a)(s-b)(s-c)}$$

#### 1.6.3 More identities

$$(\sin A)^2 + (\cos A)^2 = 1$$
  $(\tan A)^2 + 1 = (\sec A)^2$   
 $\sin(\frac{\pi}{2} - x) = \cos(x)$   $(\cot A)^2 + 1 = (\csc A)^2$ 

$$cos(-x) = cos(x)$$
  $sin(-x) = sin(x)$   $tan(-x) = tan(x)$ 

### 1.6.4 Slope

Where  $\alpha$  is the angle between the line and the x-axis, and m is the slope of the line:

$$m = \tan \alpha$$

#### 1.6.5 Sum and difference formulas

$$\sin(A+B) = \sin(A)\cos(B) + \cos(A)\sin(B)$$

$$\sin(A-B) = \sin(A)\cos(B) - \cos(A)\sin(B)$$

$$\cos(A+B) = \cos(A)\cos(B) - \sin(A)\sin(B)$$

$$\cos(A+B) = \cos(A)\cos(B) - \sin(A)\sin(B)$$

$$\tan(A+B) = \frac{\tan(A) + \tan(B)}{1 - \tan(A)\tan(B)}$$

$$\tan(A-B) = \frac{\tan(A) - \tan(B)}{1 + \tan(A)\tan(B)}$$

$$\sin(2A) = 2\sin(A)\cos(A)$$

$$\cos(2A) = (\cos A)^2 - (\sin A)^2 = 2(\cos A)^2 - 1 = 1 - 2(\sin A)^2$$

$$\tan(2A) = \frac{2\tan(A)}{1 - (\tan A)^2}$$

## 1.7 Vectors

$$\vec{v} + \vec{w} = \begin{bmatrix} v_x + w_x \\ v_y + w_y \\ v_z + w_z \end{bmatrix} \qquad c * \vec{v} = \begin{bmatrix} c * v_x \\ c * v_y \\ c * v_z \end{bmatrix}$$

 $\vec{v} \cdot \vec{w} = v_x w_x + v_y w_y + v_z w_z = |\vec{v}| |\vec{w}| \cos(\theta)$ 

$$|\vec{v} \times \vec{w}| = |\vec{v}| |\vec{w}| \sin(\theta) = \text{area of parallelogram}$$

$$\vec{v} \times \vec{w} = \begin{vmatrix} \hat{i} & \hat{j} & \hat{k} \\ v_x & v_y & v_z \\ w_x & w_y & w_z \end{vmatrix} \qquad \vec{v} \times \vec{w} \perp \vec{v} \qquad \vec{v} \times \vec{w} \perp \vec{w}$$

$$\vec{v} \perp \vec{w} \iff \vec{v} \times \vec{w} = \vec{0} \qquad \vec{v} \parallel \vec{w} \iff \vec{v} \cdot \vec{w} = 0$$

$$\hat{v} = \frac{\vec{v}}{|\vec{v}|}$$
  $\operatorname{proj}_{\vec{b}} \vec{v} = \frac{\vec{v} \cdot \vec{b}}{\vec{b} \cdot \vec{b}} * \vec{b} = (|\vec{v}| \cos(\theta))$ 

## Right-hand rule

To determine the direction of  $\vec{v} \times \vec{w}$ , put the side of the right hand on  $\vec{v}$  and curl the fingers toward  $\vec{w}$ . The direction the thumb is pointing is the direction of  $\vec{v} \times \vec{w}$ .

#### 1.8 Polar

#### 1.8.1 Polar and Cartesian sytems

With point  $(x, y) = (r; \theta) = (r; \beta)$ , where  $\theta$  is CCW from the x-axis and  $\beta$  is a bearing, CW from the y-axis:

$$\begin{split} x &= r \cos(\theta) = r \sin(\beta) & y &= r \sin(\theta) = r \cos(\beta) \\ r &= \sqrt{x^2 + y^2} & \theta &\equiv \arctan(\frac{y}{x}) & \beta &\equiv \arctan(\frac{x}{y}) \end{split}$$

### 1.8.2 Converting functions

Try these substitutions in order:

$$x^{2} = x^{2} + y^{2}$$
  $\tan \theta = \frac{y}{x}$   $x = r \cos \theta$   $y = r \sin \theta$ 

## 1.8.3 Limaçons and Petals

The function  $y = A\cos(B(\theta + C)) + D$  is equivalent to  $y = A\cos(B\theta) + D$  rotated C degrees/radians clockwise.

When C is 0 and B is 1, the x-intercepts are  $A \pm D$  and the y-intercepts are  $\pm D$ , and it forms a limaçon.

When C is 0, but  $B \neq 1$ , then this sometimes still holds. The x-intercepts may also be  $\pm A \pm D$ .

There are B petals, with the axis of the first petal on the positive x-axis.

When B is even and |D| < 1, then the number of petals is 2B.

Using sin instead of cos, limaçons have their axes on the positive y-axis, while for petals, the first petal starts from the positive x-axis and curves upwards.

# 1.9 Complex

$$cis(\theta) = e^{i\theta} = cos(\theta) + i sin(\theta)$$

To find the  $n^{\text{th}}$  root of  $x_r \operatorname{cis}(x_\theta)$ , solve the equation  $z_r^n \operatorname{cis}(nz_\theta) = x_r \operatorname{cis}(x_\theta + 360^\circ k)$  for  $k \in \mathbb{R}$ .

### 1.10 Function domain

Function	Domain $x$	Range $y$
$\log(x)$	$(0,\infty)$	$\mathbb{R}$
$\sqrt{x}$	$[0,\infty)$	$[0,\infty)$
$\arcsin(x)$	[-1, 1]	$[-\frac{\pi}{2}, \frac{\pi}{2}]$
$\arccos(x)$	[-1, 1]	$[0,\pi]$
$\arctan(x)$	$\mathbb{R}$	$\left(-\frac{\pi}{2},\frac{\pi}{2}\right)$

# Calculus Theorems (2)

## 1 Completeness

## 1.3 Completeness

Theorem (Completeness of the Real Numbers). Every nonempty subset S of  $\mathbb{R}$  which is bounded above has a least upper bound  $\sup S$ .

Definition of **Supremum** ( $\sup S$ ). A number such that

- (1)  $s \leq \sup S$  for every  $s \in S$  (which just says that  $\sup S$  is an upper bound for S)
- (2) If u is any upper bound for S, then  $\sup S \leq u$  (which says that  $\sup S$  is the least upper bound for S).

Definition of **Infimum** (inf S). A number such that

- (1) inf  $S \leq s$  for every  $s \in S$  (i.e. inf S is an lower bound for S)
- (2) If l is any upper bound for S, then  $l \leq \inf S$  (i.e.  $\inf S$  is the greatest lower bound for S).

**Theorem.** Every nonempty subset S of  $\mathbb{R}$  which is bounded below has a greatest lower bound.

**Theorem.** If min S exists, then min  $S = \inf S$ .

**Theorem.** If  $A \subset R$  and  $c \ge 0$ , and  $cA := ca : a \in A$ ,  $\sup cA = c \sup A$ .

## 1.4 Consequences of Completeness

Theorem (Rationals between Reals). For every two real numbers a and b with a < b, there exists a rational number r satisfying a < r < b.

#### 1.5 Nested Intervals Theorem

#### Nested Intervals Theorem.

If 
$$I_n = [a_n, b_n] = \{x \in R : a_n \le x \le b_n\}$$
 s.t.  $a_n \le a_{n+1}$  and  $b_{n+1} \le b_n$  for  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ , so that  $I_1 \subseteq I_2 \subseteq I_3 \subseteq I_4 \subseteq \ldots$ , then 
$$\bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} I_n \ne \emptyset.$$

If 
$$\inf\{b_n - a_n\} = 0$$
, then  $\bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} I_n\{x\}$ , where  $x = \sup\{a_n\} = \inf\{b_n\}$ .

## 1.6 Capture Theorem

**Capture Theorem.** If A is a nonempty subset of  $\mathbb{R}$ , then:

- (i) If A is bounded above, then any open interval containing  $\sup A$  contains an element of A.
- (ii) Similarly, if A is bounded below, then any open interval containing inf A contains an element of A.

### 1.7 Binary Search

If we binary-search for x over  $I_1 = [a_1, b_1]$  for  $a_1, b_1 \in \mathbb{Q}$ , we define  $I_n$  s.t. either  $I_n := [a_{n-1}, \frac{a_{n-1}+b_{n-1}}{2}]$  or  $I_n := [\frac{a_{n-1}+b_{n-1}}{2}, a_{n+1}]$ , and we define  $a_n := \inf I_n$  and  $b_n := \sup I_n$ . We define A to be the set of all  $a_n$ , and B to be the set of all  $b_n$ .

Then, the size of 
$$I_n = \frac{b_1 - a_1}{2^n} = b_n - a_n$$
, and  $\bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} I_n\{x\}$ , where  $x = \sup\{a_n\} = \inf\{b_n\}$ .

#### 2 Limits

#### 2.4 $\varepsilon$ - $\delta$ definition of a Limit

Definition of **Limit**. If  $\lim_{x\to a} f(x) = L$ , then for any  $\varepsilon > 0$ , there exists  $\delta > 0$  s.t. for any  $x \in (a - \delta, a) \cup (a, a + \delta)$ ,  $f(x) \in (L - \varepsilon, L + \varepsilon)$ .

Alternatively,

Definition of Limit. If  $\lim_{x\to a} f(x) = L$ , then for any  $\varepsilon > 0$ , there exists  $\delta > 0$  s.t. for any  $|f(x) - L| < \varepsilon$  whenever  $0 < |x - a| < \delta$ .

#### 2.6 Limit Laws

**Theorem (Limit Laws).** Let  $c \in R$  be a constant and suppose the limits  $\lim_{x\to a} f(x)$  and  $\lim_{x\to a} g(x)$  exist. Then

(i) 
$$\lim_{x \to a} (f(x) \pm g(x)) = \lim_{x \to a} f(x) \pm \lim_{x \to a} g(x)$$

(ii) 
$$\lim_{x \to a} (cf(x)) = c \lim_{x \to a} f(x)$$

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

(iv) 
$$\lim_{x\to a}f(x)g(x)=\lim_{x\to a}f(x)\lim_{x\to a}g(x)$$
 , provided that  $\lim_{x\to a}g(x)\neq 0$ 

- (v) See (i).
- $(vi) \lim_{x \to a} x^n = (\lim_{x \to a} x)^n$

(vii) 
$$\lim_{x \to a} \sqrt{f(x)} = \sqrt{\lim_{x \to a} f(x)}$$

(viii) 
$$\lim_{x \to a} \frac{a(x)b(x)}{c(x)b(x)} = \lim_{x \to a} \frac{a(x)}{c(x)}$$

Theorem (Operations on infinity). For  $x \in \mathbb{R}$ ,

$$\infty + x = \infty$$

$$-\infty + x = -\infty$$

$$x * \infty = \begin{cases} \infty & \text{if } x > 0 \\ -\infty & \text{if } x < 0 \end{cases}$$

$$x * -\infty = \begin{cases} -\infty & \text{if } x > 0 \\ \infty & \text{if } x < 0 \end{cases}$$

$$\frac{x}{\pm \infty} = 0$$

Definition of Indeterminate forms. The following forms are indeterminate and you cannot evaluate them.

$$\frac{0}{0}, \frac{\pm \infty}{\pm \infty}, 0 * \pm \infty, \infty - \infty$$

#### Other theorems

Composite Function Theorem. If f is continuous at L and  $\lim_{x\to a}g(x)=L$ , then  $\lim_{x\to a}f(g(x)=f(lim_{x\to a}g(x)))=f(L)$ 

#### 2.12 Squeeze Theorem

**Squeeze Theorem.** Let f, g, and h be defined for all  $x \neq a$  over an open interval containing a. If

$$f(x) \le g(x) \le h(x)$$

for all  $x \neq a$  in an open interval containing a and

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

where  $L \in \mathbb{R}$ , then  $\lim_{x \to a} q(x) = L$ .

### 3 Continuity

Definition of Continuity at a point. Function f is continuous at point a if  $\lim_{x\to a} f(x) = f(a)$ .

Definition. f has a **removable discontinuity** if  $\lim_{x\to a} f(x) = L \in \mathbb{R}$  (in this case either f(a) is undefined, or f(a) is defined by  $L \neq f(a)$ ).

Definition. f has a **jump discontinuity** if  $\lim_{x\to a^-} f(x) = L_1 \in \mathbb{R}$  and  $\lim_{x\to a^+} f(x) = L_2 \in \mathbb{R}$  but  $L1 \neq L2$ .

Definition. f has an **infinite discontinuity** at a if  $\lim_{x\to a^-} f(x) = \pm \infty$  or  $\lim_{x\to a^+} f(x) = \pm \infty$ 

**Intermediate Value Theorem.** If f is continuous on [a,b], then for any real number L between f(a) and f(b) there exists at least one  $c \in [a,b]$  such that f(c) = L. In other words, if f is continuous on [a,b], then the graph must cross the horizontal line y = L at least once between the vertical lines x = a and x = b.

**Aura Theorem.** If f(x) is continuous and f(a) is positive, then there exists an open interval containing a such that for all x in the interval, f(x) is positive.

If f(x) is continuous and f(a) is negative, then there exists an open interval containing a such that for all x in the interval, f(x) is negative.

**Bolzano's Theorem.** Let f be a continuous function defined on [a, b]. If 0 is between f(a) and f(b), then there exists  $x \in [a, b]$  such that f(x) = 0.

#### 4 Derivatives

The derivative is the instantaneous rate of change, and the slope of the tangent line to the point.

Definition of **Derivative** (f'(a)).

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

Theorem (Tangent line to a point). The equation of the tangent line to the point (a, f(a)) is

$$y = f'(a)(x - a) + f(a)$$

**Derivative Rules** 

Theorem (Difference Rule).

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

Theorem (Sum Rule).

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

Theorem (Constant Multiple Rule).

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

Theorem (Product Rule).

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

Theorem (Quotient Rule).

$$\frac{d}{dx}\frac{f(x)}{g(x)} = \frac{f'(x)g(x) - f(x)g'(x)}{(g(x))^2}$$

Theorem (Power Rule).

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

for  $n \in \mathbb{R}$ 

Theorem (Chain Rule).

$$\frac{d}{dx}f(g(x)) = f'(g(x))g'(x)$$

Theorem (Derivatives of exponentials and logs).

$$\frac{d}{dx}e^x = e^x \qquad \frac{d}{dx}\ln x = \frac{1}{x}$$
$$\frac{d}{dx}a^x = a^x\ln(a) \quad \frac{d}{dx}\log_a x = \frac{1}{x\ln(a)}$$

Theorem (Derivatives of trig functions).

$$\sin'(x) = \cos(x) \qquad \cos'(x) = -\sin(x)$$
  

$$\sec'(x) = \sec(x)\tan(x) \qquad \csc'(x) = -\csc(x)\cot(x)$$
  

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