Mathematics (1)

1.1 Notation

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

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

1.2 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: $\frac{p(x)}{q(x)}$ excluding remainder
  - VA: roots of $q(x)$

1.3 Polynomials

1.3.1 Linear equations

$$\text{Slope-intercept form: } y = mx + b$$
$$\text{Point-slope form: } y - y_1 = m(x - x_1) \text{ for point } (x, y)$$
$$\text{Standard form: } ax + by = c$$

1.3.2 Quadratic equations

$$\text{Standard form: } y = ax^2 + bx + c$$
$$\text{Vertex form: } y = a(x-h)^2 + k \text{ for vertex } (h, k)$$
$$\text{Sum of roots: } \frac{-b}{a}$$
$$\text{Product of roots: } \frac{c}{a}$$

1.3.3 Higher-degree polynomials

In a polynomial

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

, with roots

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

then:

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

1.4 Sequences and Series

1.4.1 Explicit formulas

$$\text{Aritmetic sequence: } a_n = a_1 + r(n-1)$$
$$\text{Geometric sequence: } a_n = a_1 * r^{n-1}$$
$$\text{Harmonic sequence: } a_n = \frac{1}{a_1 + r(n-1)}$$

1.4.2 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.

$$\sum_{j=1}^{n}(a_1 + r(j-1)) = \frac{n}{2}(2a_1 + (n-1)d)$$
$$\sum_{j=1}^{n}(a_1 * r^{j-1}) = \frac{a_1(1-r^n)}{1-r}$$
$$\sum_{j=1}^{\infty}(a_1 * r^{j-1}) = \frac{a_1}{1-r} \text{ for } r \in [-1, 1]$$

1.4.3 Special Sums

$$\sum_{j=1}^{n} c = nc \qquad \sum_{j=1}^{n} ca_j = c\sum_{j=1}^{n} a_j$$
$$\sum_{j=1}^{n}(a_j + b_j) = \sum_{j=1}^{n} a_j + \sum_{j=1}^{n} b_j \qquad \sum_{j=1}^{n} j = \frac{n(n+1)}{2}$$
$$\sum_{j=1}^{n} j^2 = \frac{n(n+\frac{1}{2})(n+1)}{3} \qquad \sum_{j=1}^{n} j^3 = \frac{n^2(n+1)^2}{4}$$

1.5 Trigonometry

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

1.5.1 Law of Sines and Cosines

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

1.5.2 Triangle area

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

1.5.3 More identities

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

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

1.5.4 Slope

Where α is the angle between the line and the x-axis, and m is the slope of the line:

$$m = \tan\alpha$$

1.5.5 Sum and difference formulas

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

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

1.6 Vectors

$$\vec{v} + \vec{w} = \begin{bmatrix} v_x + w_x \\ v_y + w_y \\ v_z + w_z \end{bmatrix} \qquad c * \vec{v} = \begin{bmatrix} c * v_x \\ c * v_y \\ c * v_z \end{bmatrix}$$
$$\vec{v} \cdot \vec{w} = v_x w_x + v_y w_y + v_z w_z = |\vec{v}||\vec{w}|\cos(\theta)$$
$$|\vec{v} \times \vec{w}| = |\vec{v}||\vec{w}|\sin(\theta) = \text{area of parallelogram}$$
$$\vec{v} \times \vec{w} = \begin{vmatrix} \hat{i} & \hat{j} & \hat{k} \\ v_x & v_y & v_z \\ w_x & w_y & w_z \end{vmatrix} \qquad \vec{v} \times \vec{w} \perp \vec{v} \qquad \vec{v} \times \vec{w} \perp \vec{w}$$
$$\vec{v} \perp \vec{w} \iff \vec{v} \times \vec{w} = \vec{0} \qquad \vec{v} \parallel \vec{w} \iff \vec{v} \cdot \vec{w} = 0$$
$$\hat{v} = \frac{\vec{v}}{|\vec{v}|} \qquad \text{proj}_{\vec{b}}\vec{v} = \frac{\vec{v} \cdot \vec{b}}{\vec{b} \cdot \vec{b}} * \vec{b} = (|\vec{v}|\cos(\theta))$$

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 $\vec{v} \times \vec{w}$.

1.7 Polar

1.7.1 Polar and Cartesian sytems

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

$$x = r\cos(\theta) = r\sin(\beta) \qquad y = r\sin(\theta) = r\cos(\beta)$$

$$r = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2} \qquad \theta \equiv \arctan(\frac{y}{x}) \quad \beta \equiv \arctan(\frac{x}{y})$$

1.7.2 Converting functions

Try these substitutions in order:

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

1.7.3 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.

1.8 Complex

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

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

1.9 Function domain

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

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 $c \geq 0$, 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 $a < r < b$.

2 Limits

2.4 ε-δ 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

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

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 $\lim_{x \to a} g(x) = L$.

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).

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

Theorem (Chain Rule).

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

Theorem (Other useful derivatives).

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