Mathematics (1)

1.1 Logarithms

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

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:

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

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

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

, with roots

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

then:

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

1.5 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

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

1.6 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

1.6.1 Law of Sines and Cosines

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

1.6.2 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

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

1.6.4 Slope

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

$$m = \tan\alpha$$

1.6.5 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

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

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

1.8 Polar

1.8.1 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:

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

1.8.2 Converting functions

Try these substitutions in order:

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

1.8.3 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

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

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 $k \in \mathbb{R}$.

1.10 Function domain

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

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 $a < r < b$.

1.5 Nested Intervals Theorem

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

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 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).

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{d}{dx}(f(x)g(x)) &= f'(x)g(x) + f(x)g'(x)\\ \frac{d}{dx}(f(x)g(x)h(x)) &= f'(x)g(x)h(x) + f(x)g'(x)h(x)\\ &+ f(x)g(x)h'(x)\end{aligned}$$

and so on.

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).

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

Theorem (Derivative of inverse functions). Let $x \in \mathbb{R}$ and f be a differentiable, one-to-one function at x. Then if $f'(x) \neq 0$, then

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

Theorem (Derivatives of exponentials and logs).

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{d}{dx}e^x &= e^x & \frac{d}{dx}\ln x &= \frac{1}{x}\\ \frac{d}{dx}a^x &= a^x\ln(a) & \frac{d}{dx}\log_a x &= \frac{1}{x\ln(a)}\end{aligned}$$

Theorem (Derivatives of trig functions).

$$\begin{aligned}\sin'(x) &= \cos(x) & \cos'(x) &= -\sin(x)\\ \sec'(x) &= \sec(x)\tan(x) & \csc'(x) &= -\csc(x)\cot(x)\\ \tan'(x) &= \sec(x)^2 & \cot'(x) &= -\csc(x)^2\end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}\arcsin'(x) &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{1-x^2}} & \arccos'(x) &= -\frac{1}{\sqrt{1-x^2}}\\ \text{arcsec}'(x) &= \frac{1}{|x|\sqrt{x^2-1}} & \text{arccsc}'(x) &= -\frac{1}{|x|\sqrt{x^2-1}}\\ \arctan'(x) &= \frac{1}{1+x^2} & \text{arccot}'(x) &= -\frac{1}{1+x^2}\end{aligned}$$

5 Derivative Applications

5.7 Mean Value Theorem

Theorem (Mean Value Theorem). If the function f is continuous on $[a, b]$ and differentiable on (a, b), then there exists $c \in (a, b)$ s.t.

$$f'(c) = \frac{f(b)-f(a)}{b-a} = \frac{\Delta f(x)}{\Delta x} \text{ on } [a, be]$$

Theorem (Some collories to the MVT). If $f(x)$ is differentiable on I, then:

- $f'(x) > 0$ for $x \in I \iff f(x)$ is strictly increasing for $x \in I$.
- $f'(x) \geq 0$ for $x \in I \iff f(x)$ is increasing or constant for $x \in I$.
- $f'(x) = 0$ for $x \in I \iff f(x)$ is constant for $x \in I$.
- $f'(x) \leq 0$ for $x \in I \iff f(x)$ is decreasing or constant for $x \in I$.
- $f'(x) < 0$ for $x \in I \iff f(x)$ is strictly decreasing for $x \in I$.

Antiderivative

Definition of **Antiderivative**. The antiderivative F of a function f is the function such that $F'(x) = f(x)$.

$$F(x) = \int f(x)dx$$

5.3, 5.10, 5.11

Definition of **Critical point of** f. A number c in the domain of f where either $f'(c) \in 0, \text{DNE}$

Definition of **Stationary point of** f. A number c in the domain of f where either $f'(c) = 0$

Fermat's Theorem. The local maxima and minima of f are critical points of f.

Theorem (Method to find absolute minima and maxima). Store the critical points of f in the array C. Then, the absolute maximum is $\max f(c) : c \in C$ and the absolute minimum is $\min f(c) : c \in C$.

Theorem (First Derivative Test). If f is continuous over I, and $c \in I$ is a critical point of f, and f is differentiable over $I \setminus c$, then:

- If $f'(x)$ is decreasing at c, then $f(c)$ is a local max.
- If $f'(x)$ is increasing at c, then $f(c)$ is a local min.
- If $f'(x)$ has the same sign before and after c, then $f(c)$ is neither a local max nor a local min.

Definition of **Concavity**. f is concave up on I if the tangent line to f at each point in I is lower than the graph of f.

f is concave down on I if the tangent line to f at each point in I is higher than the graph of f.

Theorem (Test for Concavity). If $f''(x) > 0$ for all $x \in I$, then f is concave up on I.

If $f''(x) < 0$ for all $x \in I$, then f is concave down on I.

Theorem (Second Derivative Test). If f'' is continuous on an interval containing c, where c is the x-value of a stationary point of f. Then,

- If $f''(c) > 0$, then $f(c)$ is a local max.
- If $f''(c) < 0$, then $f(c)$ is a local min.