Final Exam Study Guide Math 156 (Calculus I), Fall 2023

- 1. Intuitive definition of limit and basic reasons why a limit might not exist [§2.2]
 - (a) $\lim_{x\to a} f(x) = L$ means can make f(x) arbitrarily close to L by making $x \neq a$ close to a
 - (b) one-sided limits $\lim_{x\to a^{\pm}} f(x)$: they must agree for usual (two-sided) limit to exist
 - (c) $\lim_{x\to a} f(x) = \pm \infty$ counts as the limit not existing
- 2. How to compute limits using the limit laws [§2.3, 2.5]
 - (a) sum (f+g), difference (f-g), scaling (cf), product (fg), quotient (f/g) limit laws
 - (b) how to deal with " $\frac{0}{0}$ " by cancelling factors
 - (c) continuous functions (pushing limit thru, and direct substitution a.k.a. "plugging in")
- 3. Limits at infinity and limits equal to infinity [§2.2, 2.6]
 - (a) limits at $\pm \infty$ = horizontal asymptotes (typical example: $\lim_{x\to-\infty} e^x = 0$)
 - (b) $\pm \infty$ -valued limits = vertical asymptotes (typical example: $\lim_{x\to 0^+} 1/x = \infty$)
 - (c) for rational function f(x) = P(x)/Q(x), $\lim_{x\to\infty} f(x)$ is 0 if degree P(x) < degree Q(x), is $\pm\infty$ if degree P(x) > degree Q(x), & is ratio of leading coefficients if degrees are =
- 4. The definition(s) of derivative [§2.1, 2.7, 2.8]
 - (a) derivative as slope of the tangent to a curve at a point
 - (b) derivative as a limit $f'(a) = \lim_{x \to a} \frac{f(x) f(a)}{x a}$
 - (c) derivative as instantaneous rate of change (e.g., derivative of position is velocity)
- 5. Derivatives of basic functions [§3.1, 3.3, 3.6]
 - (a) power functions: $d/dx(x^n) = nx^{n-1}$
 - (b) exponential and logarithmic functions: $d/dx(e^x) = e^x$ and $d/dx(\ln(x)) = 1/x$
 - (c) trigonometric functions: $d/dx(\sin(x)) = \cos(x)$ and $d/dx(\cos(x)) = -\sin(x)$
- 6. Rules for derivatives of combinations of functions [§3.1, 3.2, 3.4]
 - (a) derivative is linear: $d/dx(a \cdot f(x) + b \cdot g(x)) = a \cdot f'(x) + b \cdot g'(x)$ for $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$
 - (b) product rule: $d/dx(f(x) \cdot g(x)) = f(x) \cdot g'(x) + g(x) \cdot f'(x)$
 - (c) chain rule: $d/dx(f(g(x))) = f'(g(x)) \cdot g'(x)$
 - (d) quotient rule: $d/dx(f(x)/g(x)) = (g(x) \cdot f'(x) f(x) \cdot g'(x))/(g(x))^2$ [don't have to separately memorize quotient rule, it follows from other rules]
- 7. Implicit differentiation and related rates [§3.5, 3.9]
 - (a) for y defined implicitly via equation p(x,y) = 0, find dy/dx by taking d/dx of both sides, and use this to find the slope of the tangent at any point on the curve

- (b) if two quantities f(t), g(t) are related, then their rates of change df/dt, dg/dt are related: like with implicit differentiation, just differentiate the relation between f(t) and g(t)
- 8. Linear approximation [§3.10]
 - (a) tangent is best linear approximation to f(x) near a point $a: f(x) \approx f(a) + (x-a) \cdot f'(a)$
- 9. Extreme values [§4.1, 4.3]
 - (a) local versus absolute (global) minimum and maximum values, Extreme Value Theorem
 - (b) the Closed Interval Method: extreme values of continuous f on closed interval must occur at endpoints or at critical points (values x where f'(x) = 0 or is not defined)
 - (c) 1st and 2nd Derivative Tests for deciding if critical points are min.'s or max.'s
- 10. What derivatives tell us about shape of graph [§4.2, 4.3, 4.5]
 - (a) f'(x) > 0 means f is increasing, f'(x) < 0 means f is decreasing
 - (b) f''(x) > 0 means f is concave up (smile), f''(x) < 0 means f is concave down (frown)
- 11. L'Hôpital's rule [§4.4]
 - (a) for indeterminate form limits (meaning " $\pm \frac{\infty}{\infty}$ " or " $\frac{0}{0}$ "), $\lim_{x \to a} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} = \lim_{x \to a} \frac{f'(x)}{g'(x)}$
- 12. Area under the curve [§5.1, 5.2]
 - (a) can approximate area under the curve y = f(x) from x = a to x = b by the rectangle (Riemann) sum $A_n = \sum_{i=1}^n f(x_i^*) \Delta x$, where $\Delta x = \frac{b-a}{n}$, $x_i = a+i\cdot\Delta x$ for $i=0,1,\ldots,n$, and any choice of sample points $x_i^* \in [x_{i-1},x_i]$
 - (b) usual choices: $x_i^* = x_{i-1}$ (left endpoints $A_n = L_n$); $x_i^* = x_i$ (right endpoints $A_n = R_n$); or $x^* = \frac{x_i + x_{i-1}}{2}$ (midpoints of intervals)
 - (c) if f(x) is continuous, all give same limit $A = \lim_{n \to \infty} A_n$, the true area under the curve
- 13. Definite integrals [§5.2, 5.3]
 - (a) definite integral $\int_a^b f(x) dx$ is the area "under" the curve y = f(x) from x = a to x = b as defined above: $A = \lim_{n \to \infty} A_n$; this counts area below the x-axis negatively
 - (b) Fundamental Theorem of Calculus: $\int_a^b f(x) dx = F(b) F(a) = \int f(x) dx \Big]_a^b$, where $F(x) = \int f(x) dx$ is an anti-derivative of f(x)
 - (c) another way to think of FTC: integral of rate of change is net change (e.g., integral of velocity is displacement)
- 14. Anti-derivatives, a.k.a. indefinite integrals [§4.9, 5.4, 5.5]
 - (a) basic anti-derivatives/indefinite integrals: $\int x^n dx = \frac{1}{n+1}x^{n+1} + C$, $\int e^x dx = e^x + C$, $\int \frac{1}{x} dx = \ln(x) + C$, $\int \sin(x) dx = -\cos(x) + C$, $\int \cos(x) dx = \sin(x) + C$
 - (b) integral is linear: $\int a \cdot f(x) + b \cdot g(x) dx = a \int f(x) dx + b \int g(x) dx$ for $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$
 - (c) the *u*-substitution technique: can treat the "dx" in an integral as a differential, so if we let u = g(x) then we can substitute du = g'(x) dx in an integral