

Trigonometry

$(\cos \theta, \sin \theta)$ is the coordinate on the unit circle that makes angle θ with the positive x -axis.

$$\sec \theta = \frac{1}{\cos \theta} \quad \csc \theta = \frac{1}{\sin \theta}$$

$$\tan \theta = \frac{\sin \theta}{\cos \theta} \quad \cot \theta = \frac{\cos \theta}{\sin \theta}$$

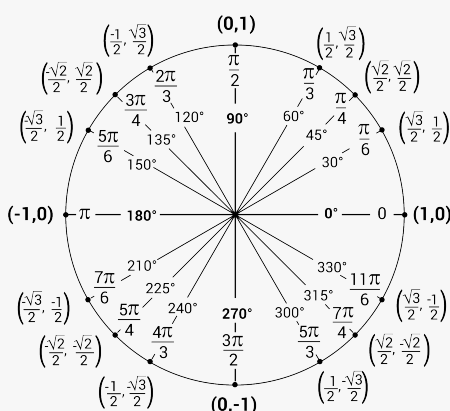
Pythagorean identities $\begin{cases} \sin^2 \theta + \cos^2 \theta = 1 \\ \tan^2 \theta + 1 = \sec^2 \theta \\ 1 + \cot^2 \theta = \csc^2 \theta \end{cases}$

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

$$\cos(A \pm B) = \cos A \cos B \mp \sin A \sin B$$

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

$$\cos(2\theta) = \cos^2 \theta - \sin^2 \theta$$



Limits

Law Let $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = L$ and $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} g(x) = M$.

Sum $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} (f(x) + g(x)) = L + M$

Scalar $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} cf(x) = cL$

Product $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} (f(x) \cdot g(x)) = L \cdot M$

Quotient $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} = \frac{L}{M}$ for $M \neq 0$

Power $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} (f(x))^n = L^n$

Root $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} \sqrt[n]{f(x)} = \sqrt[n]{L}$ for all L if n is odd, and for $L \geq 0$ if n is even and $f(x) \geq 0$.

Squeeze Theorem:

Let $f, g,$ and h be functions with $g(x) \leq f(x) \leq h(x)$ for all x and $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} g(x) = L = \lim_{x \rightarrow a} h(x)$, then $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = L$.

Indeterminate Forms:

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

$\epsilon - \delta$ definition:

L is the limit of f as x approaches a if for all $\epsilon > 0$, there is some $\delta > 0$, such that $|x - a| < \delta \implies |f(x) - L| < \epsilon$.

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\sin(x)}{x} = 1 \quad \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \left(1 + \frac{1}{x}\right)^x = e \quad \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{ax^n + \dots}{bx^m + \dots} = \begin{cases} 0 & m > n \\ \infty & n > m \\ a/b & n = m \end{cases}$$

Continuity

Definition: f is continuous at $x = a$ if $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = f(a)$.

- The following functions are **continuous on their domains**: polynomials, rational functions, trig and inverse trig functions, exponential functions, logarithms.
- The sum, product, and composition of continuous functions is continuous.

Composite Function Theorem: Intermediate Value Theorem:

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

Let f be continuous over a closed, bounded interval $[a, b]$. If z is any real number between $f(a)$ and $f(b)$, then there is a number c in $[a, b]$ satisfying $f(c) = z$.

Finding Derivatives

Limit definition of the derivative:

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

Tangent line to $f(x)$ at $x = a$:

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

L'Hôpital's Rule:

If $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = \lim_{x \rightarrow a} g(x) = 0$ or ∞ , then

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow a} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} = \lim_{x \rightarrow a} \frac{f'(x)}{g'(x)}$$

Logarithmic Differentiation:

To find the derivative of $y = f(x)^{g(x)}$, take $\ln()$ of both sides, bring $g(x)$ down using the log rule ($\ln(a^b) = b \ln(a)$):

$$\ln(y) = \ln(f(x)^{g(x)}) = g(x) \ln(f(x))$$

Then implicitly differentiate and solve for y' :

$$y' = f(x)^{g(x)} \left(g'(x) \ln(f(x)) + g(x) \frac{f'(x)}{f(x)} \right)$$

Power Rule

$$[x^a]' = ax^{a-1}$$

Trig Rules

$$[\sin(x)]' = \cos(x)$$

$$[\cos(x)]' = -\sin(x)$$

(PSST!)

$$[\tan(x)]' = \sec^2(x)$$

$$[\cot(x)]' = -\csc^2(x)$$

$$[\sec(x)]' = \sec(x) \tan(x)$$

$$[\csc(x)]' = -\csc(x) \cot(x)$$

Inverse Trig Rules

$$[\arcsin(x)]' = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1-x^2}}$$

$$[\arccos(x)]' = \frac{-1}{\sqrt{1-x^2}}$$

$$[\arctan(x)]' = \frac{1}{1+x^2}$$

$$[\text{arccot}(x)]' = \frac{-1}{1+x^2}$$

$$[\text{arcsec}(x)]' = \frac{1}{|x|\sqrt{x^2-1}}$$

$$[\text{arccsc}(x)]' = \frac{-1}{|x|\sqrt{x^2-1}}$$

Exponent Rule

$$[a^x]' = \ln(a)a^x$$

Logarithm Rule

$$[\log_a(x)]' = \frac{1}{x \ln(a)}$$

Scalar Rule

$$[af]' = af'$$

Sum Rule

$$[f+g]' = f' + g'$$

Product Rule

$$[fg]' = f'g + fg'$$

Quotient Rule

$$\left[\frac{f}{g}\right]' = \frac{f'g - fg'}{g^2}$$

Chain Rule

$$[f(g(x))]' = f'(g(x))g'(x)$$

Inverse Rule

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

Integration

Definitions

- The *definite integral* of f on (a, b) is written $\int_a^b f(x) dx$ and is defined to be the *signed* area between the graph of f and the x -axis (if such a quantity exists).
- The *indefinite integral* (or *anti-derivative*) of f on is written $\int f(x) dx$ or $\int f$ is the family of functions whose derivative is f .

Fundamental Theorem of Calculus: If $F' = f$,

$$\int_a^b f(x) dx = F(b) - F(a).$$

Rules for Integration:

Scalar Rule	$\int af = a \int f.$
Sum Rule	$\int f + \int g = \int f + \int g$
Integration by Parts	$\int f'g = fg - \int fg'$
u-substitution	$\int f'(g(x))g'(x) dx = f(g(x))$
Power Rule	$\int x^a dx = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{a+1}x^{a+1} + C & a \neq -1 \\ \ln x + C & a = -1 \end{cases}$
Trig Rules	$\int \sin(x) dx = -\cos(x) + C$ $\int \cos(x) dx = \sin(x) + C$
Exponential Rules	$\int a^x dx = \frac{1}{\ln(a)}a^x + C$

Partial Fractions:

Factor	Term in decomposition
$ax + b$	$\frac{A}{ax+b}$
$(ax + b)^k$	$\frac{A_1}{ax+b} + \frac{A_2}{(ax+b)^2} + \dots + \frac{A_k}{(ax+b)^k}$
$ax^2 + bx + c$	$\frac{Ax+B}{ax^2+bx+c}$
$(ax^2 + bx + c)^k$	$\frac{A_1x+B_1}{ax^2+bx+c} + \frac{A_2x+B_2}{(ax^2+bx+c)^2} + \dots + \frac{A_kx+B_k}{(ax^2+bx+c)^k}$

Trig Substitution:

Integrand	Substitution	Result
$\sqrt{a^2 - x^2}$	$x = a \sin \theta$	$a \cos \theta$
$\sqrt{a^2 + x^2}$	$x = a \tan \theta$	$a \sec \theta$
$\sqrt{x^2 - a^2}$	$x = a \sec \theta$	$a \tan \theta$

Riemann Sums

$$R_n = \sum_{k=1}^n f\left(a + k \frac{b-a}{n}\right) \frac{b-a}{n}$$

$$L_n = \sum_{k=1}^n f\left(a + (k-1) \frac{b-a}{n}\right) \frac{b-a}{n}$$

$$T_n = \sum_{i=k}^n \frac{f(a+(k-1)\frac{b-a}{n}) + f(a+k\frac{b-a}{n})}{2} \frac{b-a}{n}$$

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} R_n, L_n, T_n = \int_a^b f(x) dx$$

Sums of Powers

- $\sum_{k=1}^n 1 = n$
- $\sum_{k=1}^n k = \frac{n(n+1)}{2}$
- $\sum_{k=1}^n k^2 = \frac{n(n+1)(2n+1)}{6}$
- $\sum_{k=1}^n k^3 = \frac{n^2(n+1)^2}{4}$

Test for Convergence and Divergence

- Divergence Test:** If $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n \neq 0$, then $\sum a_n$ will diverge.
- Integral Test:** Suppose that $f(x)$ is a continuous, positive, and decreasing function on the interval $[k, \infty)$ and that $f(n) = a_n$. Then

$$\int_k^{\infty} f(x) dx \text{ is convergent} \iff \sum_{n=k}^{\infty} a_n \text{ is convergent.}$$

- The p -series Test:** If $k > 0$, then $\sum_{n=k}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^p}$ converges if $p > 1$ and diverges if $p \leq 1$.
- Comparison Test:** Suppose that we have two series $\sum a_n$ and $\sum b_n$, with $0 \leq a_n \leq b_n$ for all n . Then

$$\sum b_n \text{ converges} \implies \sum a_n \text{ converges.}$$

- Limit Comparison Test:** Suppose that we have two series $\sum a_n$ and $\sum b_n$ with $a_n \geq 0$ and $b_n > 0$ for all n . Define $c = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n/b_n$. If c is positive and finite, then either both series converge or both series diverge.
- Alternating Series Test:** Suppose that we have a series $\sum a_n$ and either $a_n = (-1)^n b_n$ or $a_n = (-1)^{n+1} b_n$ where $b_n \geq 0$ for all n . Then if $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} b_n = 0$ and $\{b_n\}$ is a decreasing sequence, the series $\sum a_n$ is convergent.
- Absolute Convergence Test:**
 - If the series $\sum |a_n|$ is convergent, then $\sum a_n$ is called **absolutely convergent**, and must also be convergent.
 - If $\sum a_n$ converges but $\sum |a_n|$ diverges, then the series $\sum a_n$ is called **conditionally convergent**.

- Ratio Test:** For series $\sum a_n$, define, $L = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{a_{n+1}}{a_n} \right|$. Then,

- if $L < 1$ the series is absolutely convergent (and hence convergent).
- if $L > 1$ the series is divergent.
- if $L = 1$ the series may be divergent, conditionally convergent, or absolutely convergent.

- Root Test** For series $\sum a_n$, define, $L = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} |a_n|^{\frac{1}{n}}$. Then,

- if $L < 1$ the series is absolutely convergent (and hence convergent).
- if $L > 1$ the series is divergent.
- if $L = 1$ the series may be divergent, conditionally convergent, or absolutely convergent.