

## Derivatives

- Power Rule:  $\frac{d}{dx}(x^n) = nx^{n-1}$
- Product Rule:  $(uv)' = u'v + uv'$
- Quotient Rule:  $\left(\frac{u}{v}\right)' = \frac{u'v - uv'}{v^2}$
- Chain Rule:  $\frac{d}{dx}(f(g(x))) = f'(g(x)) \cdot g'(x)$

## Trigonometric Identities

- Pythagorean Identities:  $\sin^2(x) + \cos^2(x) = 1$
- Sum and Difference Identities:  $\sin(x \pm y) = \sin(x)\cos(y) \pm \cos(x)\sin(y)$
- Double Angle Identities:  $\sin(2x) = 2\sin(x)\cos(x)$

## Logarithmic Properties

- Logarithmic Properties:**
- Logarithmic properties are rules that govern the behavior of logarithmic functions. Some key properties include:
    - Product Rule:  $\log_b(xy) = \log_b(x) + \log_b(y)$
    - Quotient Rule:  $\log_b\left(\frac{x}{y}\right) = \log_b(x) - \log_b(y)$
    - Power Rule:  $\log_b(x^n) = n \log_b(x)$

## Approximating Area Under a Curve

- Left, Right, Midpoint Approximations:
  - Left Sum =  $\sum_{i=1}^n f(x_{i-1})\Delta x$
  - Right Sum =  $\sum_{i=1}^n f(x_i)\Delta x$
  - Midpoint Sum =  $\sum_{i=1}^n f(\bar{x}_i)\Delta x$ , where  $\bar{x}_i$  is the midpoint of the  $i$ th interval.
- Trapezoidal Rule:
  - Trapezoidal Rule =  $\frac{\Delta x}{2}[f(a) + 2f(x_1) + 2f(x_2) + \dots + 2f(x_{n-1}) + f(b)]$
- Simpson's Rule:
  - Simpson's Rule =  $\frac{\Delta x}{3}[f(a) + 4f(x_1) + 2f(x_2) + 4f(x_3) + \dots + 2f(x_{n-2}) + 4f(x_{n-1}) + f(b)]$

## Power Sum Rules

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{i=1}^n 1 &= \frac{n(n+1)}{2} \\ \sum_{i=1}^n i^2 &= \frac{n(n+1)(2n+1)}{6} \\ \sum_{i=1}^n i^3 &= \left(\frac{n(n+1)}{2}\right)^2 \end{aligned}$$

## Definite Integrals

- **Definition:**  $\int_a^b f(x)dx = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{i=1}^n f(x_{i-1})\Delta x$ .
- **Properties:** Flip bounds (negate), break into smaller integrals, comparison test.
- **Calc 1 Technique:** Fundamental understanding of integration and its geometric interpretation as area under a curve.

## u-substitution

- Replace  $x$  with  $u(x)$ , convert bounds,  $dx = \frac{du}{u'(x)}$ .
- **Calc 1 Technique:** Use when an integral's integrand is a composite function, resembling the chain rule's application in reverse.

## Integration by Parts

- $\int u dv = uv - \int v du$
- **LIATE Rule:** Choose  $u$  as the algebraic function that appears first in the list of functions: Logarithmic, Inverse trigonometric, Algebraic, Trigonometric, Exponential.

## Integrals of Trigonometric Functions

- Integrals of Basic Trigonometric Functions:**
- $\int \sin(x) dx = -\cos(x) + C$
  - $\int \cos(x) dx = \sin(x) + C$
  - $\int \tan(x) dx = -\ln|\cos(x)| + C$
- Integrals Involving Secant and Cosecant:**
- $\int \sec(x) dx = \ln|\sec(x) + \tan(x)| + C$
  - $\int \csc(x) dx = -\ln|\csc(x) + \cot(x)| + C$
- Integrals Involving Products of Trigonometric Functions:**
- $\int \sin^n(x) \cos^n(x) dx$  can often be solved using trigonometric identities or by applying reduction formulas for powers of sine and cosine.
- Trigonometric Substitution:**
- Used to solve integrals involving radicals or quadratic expressions by substituting trigonometric functions for variables.
  - For example, if  $\int \sqrt{a^2 - x^2} dx$  appears, you could let  $x = a \sin(\theta)$  or  $x = a \cos(\theta)$  to simplify the integrand.

## Hyperbolic Trig Functions

- Hyperbolic functions are analogs of circular trigonometric functions, but they are based on hyperbolas instead of circles. The primary hyperbolic functions are:
  - Hyperbolic Sine:  $\sinh(x) = \frac{e^x - e^{-x}}{2}$
  - Hyperbolic Cosine:  $\cosh(x) = \frac{e^x + e^{-x}}{2}$
  - Hyperbolic Tangent:  $\tanh(x) = \frac{\sinh(x)}{\cosh(x)}$
- Hyperbolic functions have properties similar to trigonometric functions, such as even/odd symmetry and relationships between their derivatives and themselves.

## Power Series

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n (x - a)^n \text{ with a radius of convergence } R.$$

## Order of Convergence

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{a_{n+1} - C}{a_n - C} = C, \text{ where } C \text{ is a constant and } p \text{ is the order of convergence.}$$

## Convergence

- Convergence and Divergence:**
- A series is said to converge if the sequence of partial sums approaches a finite limit as the number of terms increases indefinitely. If the limit exists, it is called the sum of the series.
  - Conversely, a series diverges if the sequence of partial sums does not approach a finite limit. In this case, the series does not have a sum.
  - Example of convergent series:  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{2^n} = 1$ , known as the geometric series.
  - Example of divergent series:  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} n$  diverges, as the partial sums increase without bound.
- Convergence Tests:**
- Convergence tests are used to determine whether a series converges or diverges. Some common convergence tests include:
    - Divergence Test: If  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n \neq 0$ , then the series  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$  diverges.
    - Geometric Series Test:  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} ar^{n-1}$  converges to  $\frac{a}{1-r}$  if  $|r| < 1$ .
    - Integral Test: If  $f(x)$  is positive, continuous, and decreasing for  $x \geq 1$  and  $a_n = f(n)$ , then  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$  and  $\int_1^{\infty} f(x) dx$  either both converge or both diverge.

- Types of Convergence:**
- Absolute Convergence: A series  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} |a_n|$  converges.
  - Conditional Convergence: A series  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$  converges, but  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} |a_n|$  diverges.

## Sequences and Series

- Sequences:**
- A sequence is an ordered list of numbers written in a specific order. It can be finite or infinite.
  - Formally, a sequence is denoted as  $(a_n)$  or  $\{a_n\}$ , where  $a_n$  represents the  $n$ th term of the sequence.
  - Example:  $1, 1/2, 1/3, 1/4, \dots$  is a sequence with the formula  $a_n = \frac{1}{n}$ .
- Series:**
- A series is the sum of the terms of a sequence. It represents the total when an infinite number of terms are added together.
  - Formally, a series is denoted as  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$  or  $a_1 + a_2 + a_3 + \dots$
  - Example:  $1 + \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{4} + \frac{1}{8} + \dots$  represents the series of the sequence mentioned earlier.

## Partial Fractions

- Partial fraction decomposition is a technique used to break down a rational function into simpler fractions.
- The general process involves:
  - 2.1. Factoring the denominator into linear and irreducible quadratic factors.
  - 2.2. Writing the partial fraction decomposition with undetermined coefficients for each factor.
  - 2.3. Determining the values of the undetermined coefficients by equating coefficients.
- Example:  $\frac{3x^2 + 5x + 2}{x^2 - 2x + 2}$  can be decomposed into partial fractions as  $\frac{A}{x-1} + \frac{B}{x+1} + \frac{C}{x^2+2}$ .

## Logistical Growth Function

$$P(t) = \frac{K}{1 + e^{-rt}}$$

$r$  = growth rate,  $K$  = carrying capacity

## Improper Integrals

- Example:  $\int_1^{\infty} \frac{1}{x^p} dx$  converges if  $p > 1$  and diverges if  $p \leq 1$ .

Integrals where the limits of integration are infinite or where the function being integrated is undefined at certain points within the interval.

## Taylor Polynomials

- A Taylor polynomial of degree  $n$  for a function  $f(x)$  centered at a point  $x = a$  is a polynomial that approximates  $f(x)$  near  $x = a$ .
- The general form of a Taylor polynomial is:
 
$$P_n(x) = f(a) + f'(a)(x-a) + \frac{f''(a)}{2!}(x-a)^2 + \dots + \frac{f^{(n)}(a)}{n!}(x-a)^n$$
- Here,  $f^{(n)}(a)$  denotes the  $n$ th derivative of  $f(x)$  evaluated at  $x = a$ , and  $n!$  represents the factorial of  $n$ .

## Taylor's Theorem

- Taylor's Theorem provides a way to quantify the error between a function  $f(x)$  and its Taylor polynomial approximation  $P_n(x)$ .
- It states that if  $f(x)$  is  $(n+1)$ -times differentiable on an interval containing  $x = a$ , then there exists a number  $c$  between  $a$  and  $x$  such that the error  $R_n(x) = f(x) - P_n(x)$  can be expressed as:
 
$$R_n(x) = \frac{f^{(n+1)}(c)}{(n+1)!} (x-a)^{n+1}$$
- This error term is known as the remainder or residual term of the Taylor polynomial.

## Maclaurin Series

- A Maclaurin series is a special case of a Taylor series where the polynomial is centered at  $x = 0$  (i.e.,  $a = 0$ ).
- The Maclaurin series expansion of a function  $f(x)$  is given by:
 
$$f(x) = f(0) + f'(0)x + \frac{f''(0)}{2!}x^2 + \dots + \frac{f^{(n)}(0)}{n!}x^n + \dots$$
- Essentially, the Maclaurin series represents the Taylor series expansion of a function around the point  $x = 0$ .

