

CALCULUS REFERENCE



THEORY

DERIVATIVES AND DIFFERENTIATION

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

DERIVATIVE RULES

- Sum and Difference:** $\frac{d}{dx}(f(x) \pm g(x)) = f'(x) \pm g'(x)$
- Scalar Multiple:** $\frac{d}{dx}(cf(x)) = cf'(x)$
- Product:** $\frac{d}{dx}(f(x)g(x)) = f'(x)g(x) + f(x)g'(x)$
Mnemonic: If f is "hi" and g is "ho," then the product rule is "ho d hi plus hi d ho."
- Quotient:** $\frac{d}{dx}\left(\frac{f(x)}{g(x)}\right) = \frac{f'(x)g(x) - f(x)g'(x)}{(g(x))^2}$
Mnemonic: "Ho d hi minus hi d ho over ho ho."
- The Chain Rule**
 - First formulation: $(f \circ g)'(x) = f'(g(x))g'(x)$
 - Second formulation: $\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{dy}{du} \frac{du}{dx}$
- Implicit differentiation:** Used for curves when it is difficult to express y as a function of x . Differentiate both sides of the equation with respect to x . Use the chain rule carefully whenever y appears. Then, rewrite $\frac{dy}{dx} = y'$ and solve for y' .
Ex: $x \cos y - y^2 = 3x$. Differentiate to first obtain $\frac{dx}{dx} \cos y + x \frac{d(\cos y)}{dx} - 2y \frac{dy}{dx} = 3 \frac{dx}{dx}$, and then $\cos y - x(\sin y)y' - 2yy' = 3$. Finally, solve for $y' = \frac{\cos y - 3}{x \sin y + 2y}$.

COMMON DERIVATIVES

- Constants:** $\frac{d}{dx}(c) = 0$
- Linear:** $\frac{d}{dx}(mx + b) = m$
- Powers:** $\frac{d}{dx}(x^n) = nx^{n-1}$ (true for all real $n \neq 0$)
- Polynomials:** $\frac{d}{dx}(a_n x^n + \dots + a_2 x^2 + a_1 x + a_0) = a_n n x^{n-1} + \dots + 2a_2 x + a_1$
- Exponential**
 - Base e : $\frac{d}{dx}(e^x) = e^x$
 - Arbitrary base: $\frac{d}{dx}(a^x) = a^x \ln a$
- Logarithmic**
 - Base e : $\frac{d}{dx}(\ln x) = \frac{1}{x}$
 - Arbitrary base: $\frac{d}{dx}(\log_a x) = \frac{1}{x \ln a}$
- Trigonometric**
 - Sine: $\frac{d}{dx}(\sin x) = \cos x$
 - Cosine: $\frac{d}{dx}(\cos x) = -\sin x$
 - Tangent: $\frac{d}{dx}(\tan x) = \sec^2 x$
 - Cotangent: $\frac{d}{dx}(\cot x) = -\csc^2 x$
 - Secant: $\frac{d}{dx}(\sec x) = \sec x \tan x$
 - Cosecant: $\frac{d}{dx}(\csc x) = -\csc x \cot x$
- Inverse Trigonometric**
 - Arcsine: $\frac{d}{dx}(\sin^{-1} x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1-x^2}}$
 - Arccosine: $\frac{d}{dx}(\cos^{-1} x) = -\frac{1}{\sqrt{1-x^2}}$
 - Arctangent: $\frac{d}{dx}(\tan^{-1} x) = \frac{1}{1+x^2}$
 - Arccotangent: $\frac{d}{dx}(\cot^{-1} x) = -\frac{1}{1+x^2}$
 - Arcsecant: $\frac{d}{dx}(\sec^{-1} x) = \frac{1}{x\sqrt{x^2-1}}$
 - Arccosecant: $\frac{d}{dx}(\csc^{-1} x) = -\frac{1}{x\sqrt{x^2-1}}$

INTEGRALS AND INTEGRATION

DEFINITE INTEGRAL

The **definite integral** $\int_a^b f(x) dx$ is the **signed area** between the function $y = f(x)$ and the x -axis from $x = a$ to $x = b$.

- Formal definition:** Let n be an integer and $\Delta x = \frac{b-a}{n}$. For each $k = 0, 2, \dots, n-1$, pick point x_k^* in the interval $[a + k\Delta x, a + (k+1)\Delta x]$. The expression $\Delta x \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} f(x_k^*)$ is a **Riemann sum**. The definite integral $\int_a^b f(x) dx$ is defined as $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \Delta x \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} f(x_k^*)$.

INDEFINITE INTEGRAL

- Antiderivative:** The function $F(x)$ is an antiderivative of $f(x)$ if $F'(x) = f(x)$.
- Indefinite integral:** The indefinite integral $\int f(x) dx$ represents a **family of**

antiderivatives: $\int f(x) dx = F(x) + C$ if $F'(x) = f(x)$.

FUNDAMENTAL THEOREM OF CALCULUS

- Part 1:** If $f(x)$ is continuous on the interval $[a, b]$, then the area function $F(x) = \int_a^x f(t) dt$ is continuous and differentiable on the interval and $F'(x) = f(x)$.
- Part 2:** If $f(x)$ is continuous on the interval $[a, b]$ and $F(x)$ is any antiderivative of $f(x)$, then $\int_a^b f(x) dx = F(b) - F(a)$.

APPROXIMATING DEFINITE INTEGRALS

- Left-hand rectangle approximation:** $L_n = \Delta x \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} f(x_k)$
- Right-hand rectangle approximation:** $R_n = \Delta x \sum_{k=1}^n f(x_k)$
- Midpoint Rule:** $M_n = \Delta x \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} f\left(\frac{x_k + x_{k+1}}{2}\right)$
- Trapezoidal Rule:** $T_n = \frac{\Delta x}{2}(f(x_0) + 2f(x_1) + 2f(x_2) + \dots + 2f(x_{n-1}) + f(x_n))$
- Simpson's Rule:** $S_n = \frac{\Delta x}{3}(f(x_0) + 4f(x_1) + 2f(x_2) + \dots + 2f(x_{n-2}) + 4f(x_{n-1}) + f(x_n))$

TECHNIQUES OF INTEGRATION

- Properties of Integrals**
 - Sums and differences:** $\int (f(x) \pm g(x)) dx = \int f(x) dx \pm \int g(x) dx$
 - Constant multiples:** $\int cf(x) dx = c \int f(x) dx$
 - Definite integrals: reversing the limits:** $\int_a^b f(x) dx = -\int_b^a f(x) dx$
 - Definite integrals: concatenation:** $\int_a^p f(x) dx + \int_p^b f(x) dx = \int_a^b f(x) dx$
 - Definite integrals: comparison:** If $f(x) \leq g(x)$ on the interval $[a, b]$, then $\int_a^b f(x) dx \leq \int_a^b g(x) dx$.
- Substitution Rule**—a.k.a. **u-substitutions:** $\int f(g(x))g'(x) dx = \int f(u) du$
 - $\int f(g(x))g'(x) dx = F(g(x)) + C$ if $\int f(x) dx = F(x) + C$.
- Integration by Parts**
 Best used to integrate a product when one factor ($u = f(x)$) has a simple derivative and the other factor ($dv = g'(x) dx$) is easy to integrate.
 - Indefinite Integrals:** $\int f(x)g'(x) dx = f(x)g(x) - \int f'(x)g(x) dx$ or $\int u dv = uv - \int v du$
 - Definite Integrals:** $\int_a^b f(x)g'(x) dx = f(x)g(x)|_a^b - \int_a^b f'(x)g(x) dx$
- Trigonometric Substitutions:** Used to integrate expressions of the form $\sqrt{\pm a^2 \pm x^2}$.

Expression	Trig substitution	Expression becomes	Range of θ	Pythagorean identity used
$\sqrt{a^2 - x^2}$	$x = a \sin \theta$ $dx = a \cos \theta d\theta$	$a \cos \theta$	$-\frac{\pi}{2} \leq \theta \leq \frac{\pi}{2}$ $(-a \leq x \leq a)$	$1 - \sin^2 \theta = \cos^2 \theta$
$\sqrt{x^2 - a^2}$	$x = a \sec \theta$ $dx = a \sec \theta \tan \theta d\theta$	$a \tan \theta$	$0 \leq \theta < \frac{\pi}{2}$ $\pi \leq \theta < \frac{3\pi}{2}$	$\sec^2 \theta - 1 = \tan^2 \theta$
$\sqrt{x^2 + a^2}$	$x = a \tan \theta$ $dx = a \sec^2 \theta d\theta$	$a \sec \theta$	$-\frac{\pi}{2} < \theta < \frac{\pi}{2}$	$1 + \tan^2 \theta = \sec^2 \theta$

APPLICATIONS

GEOMETRY

Area: $\int_a^b (f(x) - g(x)) dx$ is the area bounded by $y = f(x)$, $y = g(x)$, $x = a$ and $x = b$ if $f(x) \geq g(x)$ on $[a, b]$.

Volume of revolved solid (disk method): $\pi \int_a^b (f(x))^2 dx$ is the volume of the solid swept out by the curve $y = f(x)$ as it revolves around the x -axis on the interval $[a, b]$.

Volume of revolved solid (washer method): $\pi \int_a^b (f(x))^2 - (g(x))^2 dx$ is the volume of the solid swept out between $y = f(x)$ and $y = g(x)$ as they revolve around the x -axis on the interval $[a, b]$ if $f(x) \geq g(x)$.

Volume of revolved solid (shell method): $\int_a^b 2\pi x f(x) dx$ is the volume of the solid obtained by revolving the region under the curve $y = f(x)$ between $x = a$ and $x = b$ around the y -axis.

Arc length: $\int_a^b \sqrt{1 + (f'(x))^2} dx$ is the length of the curve $y = f(x)$ from $x = a$ to $x = b$.

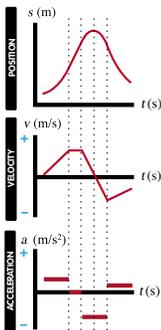
Surface area: $\int_a^b 2\pi f(x) \sqrt{1 + (f'(x))^2} dx$ is the area of the surface swept out by revolving the function $y = f(x)$ about the x -axis between $x = a$ and $x = b$.

CONTINUED ON OTHER SIDE

MOTION

1. Position $s(t)$ vs. time t graph:

- The slope of the graph is the velocity: $s'(t) = v(t)$.
- The concavity of the graph is the acceleration: $s''(t) = a(t)$.



2. Velocity $v(t)$ vs. time t graph:

- The slope of the graph is the acceleration: $v'(t) = a(t)$.
- The (signed) area under the graph gives the displacement (change in position):

$$s(t) - s(0) = \int_0^t v(\tau) d\tau$$

3. Acceleration $a(t)$ vs. time t graph:

- The (signed) area under the graph gives the change in velocity: $v(t) - v(0) = \int_0^t a(\tau) d\tau$

PROBABILITY AND STATISTICS

- Average value** of $f(x)$ between a and b is $\bar{f} = \frac{1}{b-a} \int_a^b f(x) dx$.

CONTINUOUS DISTRIBUTION FORMULAS

X and Y are random variables.

- Probability density function** $f(x)$ of the random variable X satisfies:

- $f(x) \geq 0$ for all x ;
- $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x) dx = 1$.

- Probability that X is between a and b :** $P(a \leq X \leq b) = \int_a^b f(x) dx$

- Expected value** (a.k.a. **expectation** or **mean**) of X : $E(X) = \mu_X = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x f(x) dx$

- Variance:** $\text{Var}(X) = \sigma_X^2 = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} (x - E(X))^2 f(x) dx = E(X^2) - (E(X))^2$

- Standard deviation:** $\sqrt{\text{Var}(X)} = \sigma_X$

- Median m** satisfies $\int_{-\infty}^m f(x) dx = \int_m^{\infty} f(x) dx = \frac{1}{2}$.

- Cumulative density function** $F(x)$ is the probability that X is at most x :

$$F(x) = P(X \leq x) = \int_{-\infty}^x f(y) dy$$

- Joint probability density function** $g(x, y)$ chronicles distribution of X and Y . Then

$$f(x) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} g(x, y) dy$$

- Covariance:** $\text{Cov}(X, Y) = \sigma_{XY} = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} (x - E(X))(y - E(Y)) f(x, y) dx dy$

- Correlation:** $\rho(X, Y) = \frac{\sigma_{XY}}{\sigma_X \sigma_Y} = \frac{\text{Cov}(X, Y)}{\sqrt{\text{Var}(X)\text{Var}(Y)}}$

COMMON DISTRIBUTIONS

- 1. Normal distribution** (or **Bell curve**) with mean μ and variance σ :

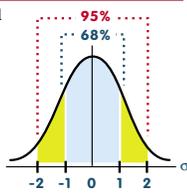
$$f(x) = \frac{1}{\sigma\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-\frac{(x-\mu)^2}{2\sigma^2}}$$

- $P(\mu - \sigma \leq X \leq \mu + \sigma) = 68.3\%$
- $P(\mu - 2\sigma \leq X \leq \mu + 2\sigma) = 95.5\%$

- 2. χ^2 -square distribution:** with mean ν and variance 2ν :

$$f(x) = \frac{1}{2^{\frac{\nu}{2}} \Gamma(\frac{\nu}{2})} x^{\frac{\nu}{2}-1} e^{-\frac{x}{2}}$$

- Gamma function:** $\Gamma(x) = \int_0^{\infty} t^{x-1} e^{-t} dt$



MICROECONOMICS

COST

- Cost function** $C(x)$: cost of producing x units.
- Marginal cost:** $C'(x)$
- Average cost function** $\bar{C}(x) = \frac{C(x)}{x}$: cost per unit when x units produced.
- Marginal average cost:** $\bar{C}'(x)$

- If the average cost is minimized, then average cost = marginal cost.
- If $\bar{C}''(x) > 0$, then to find the number of units (x) that minimizes average cost, solve for x in $\frac{C(x)}{x} = C'(x)$.

REVENUE, PROFIT

- Demand (or price) function** $p(x)$: price charged per unit if x units sold.
- Revenue (or sales) function:** $R(x) = xp(x)$
- Marginal revenue:** $R'(x)$
- Profit function:** $P(x) = R(x) - C(x)$
- Marginal profit function:** $P'(x)$
- If profit is maximal, then marginal revenue = marginal cost.
- The number of units x maximizes profit if $R'(x) = C'(x)$ and $R''(x) < C''(x)$.

PRICE ELASTICITY OF DEMAND

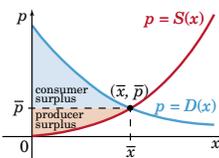
- Demand curve:** $x = x(p)$ is the number of units demanded at price p .

- Price elasticity of demand:** $E(p) = -\frac{p x'(p)}{x(p)}$

- Demand is **elastic** if $E(p) > 1$. Percentage change in p leads to larger percentage change in $x(p)$. Increasing p leads to decrease in revenue.
- Demand is **unitary** if $E(p) = 1$. Percentage change in p leads to similar percentage change in $x(p)$. Small change in p will not change revenue.
- Demand is **inelastic** if $E(p) < 1$. Percentage change in p leads to smaller percentage change in $x(p)$. Increasing p leads to increase in revenue.
- Formula relating elasticity and revenue: $R'(p) = x(p)(1 - E(p))$

CONSUMER AND PRODUCER SURPLUS

- Demand function:** $p = D(x)$ gives price per unit (p) when x units demanded.
- Supply function:** $p = S(x)$ gives price per unit (p) when x units available.
- Market equilibrium** is \bar{x} units at price \bar{p} . (So $\bar{p} = D(\bar{x}) = S(\bar{x})$.)
- Consumer surplus:** $CS = \int_0^{\bar{x}} D(x) dx - \bar{p}\bar{x} = \int_0^{\bar{x}} (D(x) - \bar{p}) dx$
- Producer surplus:** $PS = \bar{p}\bar{x} - \int_0^{\bar{x}} S(x) dx = \int_0^{\bar{x}} (\bar{p} - S(x)) dx$



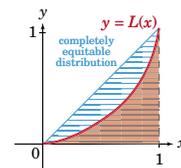
LORENTZ CURVE

The **Lorentz Curve** $L(x)$ is the fraction of income received by the poorest x fraction of the population.

- Domain and range** of $L(x)$ is the interval $[0, 1]$.
- Endpoints:** $L(0) = 0$ and $L(1) = 1$
- Curve is nondecreasing: $L'(x) \geq 0$ for all x
- $L(x) \leq x$ for all x
- Coefficient of Inequality** (a.k.a. **Gini Index**):

$$L = 2 \int_0^1 (x - f(x)) dx$$

The quantity L is between 0 and 1. The closer L is to 1, the more equitable the income distribution.



SUBSTITUTE AND COMPLEMENTARY COMMODITIES

X and Y are two commodities with unit price p and q , respectively.

- The amount of X demanded is given by $f(p, q)$.
 - The amount of Y demanded is given by $g(p, q)$.
- X and Y are **substitute** commodities (**Ex:** pet mice and pet rats) if $\frac{\partial L}{\partial q} > 0$ and $\frac{\partial g}{\partial p} > 0$.
 - X and Y are **complementary** commodities (**Ex:** pet mice and mouse feed) if $\frac{\partial L}{\partial q} < 0$ and $\frac{\partial g}{\partial p} < 0$.

FINANCE

- $P(t)$: the amount after t years.
- $P_0 = P(0)$: the original amount invested (the **principal**).
- r : the yearly **interest rate** (the yearly percentage is $100r\%$).

INTEREST

- Simple interest:** $P(t) = P_0(1 + rt)$
- Compound interest**
 - Interest compounded m times a year: $P(t) = P_0(1 + \frac{r}{m})^{mt}$
 - Interest compounded continuously: $P(t) = P_0 e^{rt}$

EFFECTIVE INTEREST RATES

The **effective (or true) interest rate**, r_{eff} , is a rate which, if applied simply (without compounding) to a principal, will yield the same end amount after the same amount of time.

- Interest compounded m times a year: $r_{\text{eff}} = (1 + \frac{r}{m})^m - 1$
- Interest compounded continuously: $r_{\text{eff}} = e^r - 1$

PRESENT VALUE OF FUTURE AMOUNT

The **present value (PV)** of an amount (A) t years in the future is the amount of principal that, if invested at r yearly interest, will yield A after t years.

- Interest compounded m times a year: $PV = A(1 + \frac{r}{m})^{-mt}$
- Interest compounded continuously: $PV = Ae^{-rt}$

PRESENT VALUE OF ANNUITIES AND PERPETUITIES

Present value of amount P paid yearly (starting next year) for t years or in perpetuity:

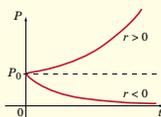
- Interest compounded yearly
 - Annuity paid for t years: $PV = \frac{P}{r} (1 - \frac{1}{(1+r)^t})$
 - Perpetuity: $PV = \frac{P}{r}$
- Interest compounded continuously
 - Annuity paid for t years: $PV = \frac{P}{r_{\text{eff}}} (1 - e^{-rt}) = \frac{P}{e^r - 1} (1 - e^{-rt})$
 - Perpetuity: $PV = \frac{P}{r_{\text{eff}}} = \frac{P}{e^r - 1}$

BIOLOGY

- In all the following models
- $P(t)$: size of the population at time t ;
 - $P_0 = P(0)$, the size of the population at time $t = 0$;
 - r : coefficient of rate of growth.

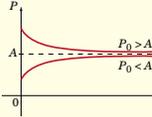
EXPONENTIAL (MALTHUSIAN) GROWTH / EXPONENTIAL DECAY MODEL

- Solution:** $\frac{dP}{dt} = rP$
 $P(t) = P_0 e^{rt}$
- If $r > 0$, this is **exponential growth**; if $r < 0$, **exponential decay**.



RESTRICTED GROWTH (A.K.A. LEARNING CURVE) MODEL

- Solution:** $\frac{dP}{dt} = r(A - P)$
- A : long-term asymptotic value of P
- Solution:** $P(t) = A + (P_0 - A)e^{-rt}$



LOGISTIC GROWTH MODEL

- Solution:** $\frac{dP}{dt} = rP(1 - \frac{P}{K})$
- K : the **carrying capacity**
- Solution:** $P(t) = \frac{K}{1 + (\frac{K - P_0}{P_0})e^{-rt}}$

