

ALGEBRA

Properties of Absolute Value

For all real numbers a and b :

$$|a| \geq 0 \quad |-a| = |a|$$

$$a \leq |a| \quad |ab| = |a||b|$$

$$\left| \frac{a}{b} \right| = \frac{|a|}{|b|}, \quad b \neq 0$$

$$|a + b| \leq |a| + |b| \quad \text{Triangle Inequality}$$

Properties of Integer Exponents and Radicals

Assume that n and m are positive integers, that a and b are nonnegative, and that all denominators are nonzero. See Appendices B and D for graphs and further discussion.

$$a^n \cdot a^m = a^{n+m} \quad (a^n)^m = a^{nm}$$

$$\frac{a^n}{a^m} = a^{n-m} \quad (ab)^n = a^n b^n$$

$$a^{-n} = \frac{1}{a^n} \quad \left(\frac{a}{b} \right)^n = \frac{a^n}{b^n}$$

$$a^{1/n} = \sqrt[n]{a} \quad a^{m/n} = \sqrt[n]{a^m} = \left(\sqrt[n]{a} \right)^m$$

$$\sqrt[n]{ab} = \sqrt[n]{a} \sqrt[n]{b} \quad \sqrt[n]{\frac{a}{b}} = \frac{\sqrt[n]{a}}{\sqrt[n]{b}}$$

$$\sqrt[m]{\sqrt[n]{a}} = \sqrt[mn]{a}$$

Special Product Formulas

$$(A - B)(A + B) = A^2 - B^2$$

$$(A + B)^2 = A^2 + 2AB + B^2$$

$$(A - B)^2 = A^2 - 2AB + B^2$$

$$(A + B)^3 = A^3 + 3A^2B + 3AB^2 + B^3$$

$$(A - B)^3 = A^3 - 3A^2B + 3AB^2 - B^3$$

Factoring Special Binomials

$$A^2 - B^2 = (A - B)(A + B)$$

$$A^3 - B^3 = (A - B)(A^2 + AB + B^2)$$

$$A^3 + B^3 = (A + B)(A^2 - AB + B^2)$$

Quadratic Formula

The solutions of the equation $ax^2 + bx + c = 0$ are

$$x = \frac{-b \pm \sqrt{b^2 - 4ac}}{2a}.$$

Distance Formula

The distance d between two points (x_1, y_1) and (x_2, y_2) is

$$d = \sqrt{(x_2 - x_1)^2 + (y_2 - y_1)^2}.$$

Midpoint Formula

$$\left(\frac{x_1 + x_2}{2}, \frac{y_1 + y_2}{2} \right)$$

Slope of a Line

$m = \frac{y_2 - y_1}{x_2 - x_1}$ Horizontal lines $y = c$ have slope 0.

Vertical lines $x = c$ have undefined slope.

Parallel and Perpendicular Lines

Given a line with slope m :

slope of parallel line = m

slope of perpendicular line = $-1/m$

Forms of Linear Equations

Standard Form: $ax + by = c$

Slope-Intercept Form: $y = mx + b$, where m is the slope and b is the y -intercept

Point-Slope Form: $y - y_1 = m(x - x_1)$, where m is the slope and (x_1, y_1) is a point on the line

Properties of Logarithms

Let a , b , x , and y be positive real numbers with $a \neq 1$ and $b \neq 1$, and let r be any real number. See Appendix B for graphs and further discussion.

$\log_a x = y$ and $x = a^y$ are equivalent

$$\log_a 1 = 0 \quad \log_a a = 1$$

$$\log_a (a^x) = x \quad a^{\log_a x} = x$$

$$\log_a (xy) = \log_a x + \log_a y$$

$$\log_a \left(\frac{x}{y} \right) = \log_a x - \log_a y$$

$$\log_a (x^r) = r \log_a x$$

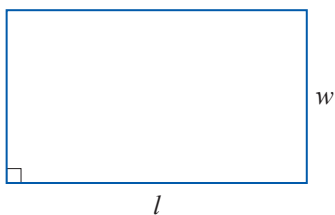
$$\log_b x = \frac{\log_a x}{\log_a b} \quad \text{Change of base formula}$$

GEOMETRY

A = area, C = circumference, SA = surface area or lateral area, V = volume

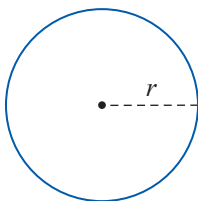
Rectangle

$$A = lw$$



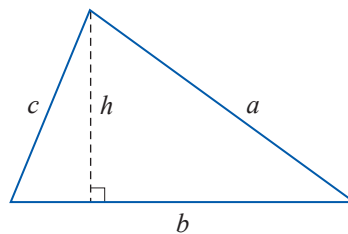
Circle

$$A = \pi r^2 \quad C = 2\pi r$$



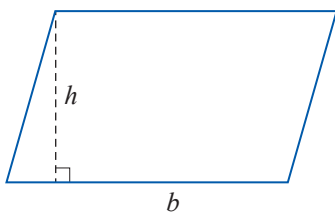
Triangle

$$A = \frac{1}{2}bh$$



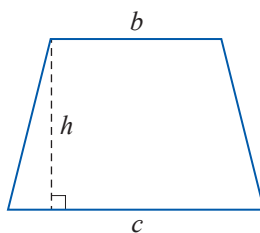
Parallelogram

$$A = bh$$



Trapezoid

$$A = \frac{1}{2}h(b+c)$$



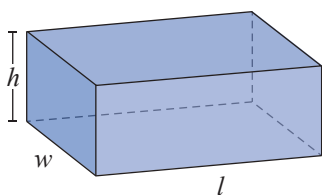
Heron's Formula:

$$A = \sqrt{s(s-a)(s-b)(s-c)}$$

$$\text{where } s = \frac{a+b+c}{2}$$

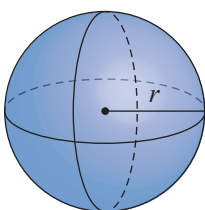
Rectangular Prism

$$V = lwh \quad SA = 2lh + 2wh + 2lw$$



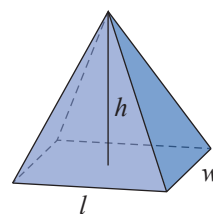
Sphere

$$V = \frac{4}{3}\pi r^3 \quad SA = 4\pi r^2$$



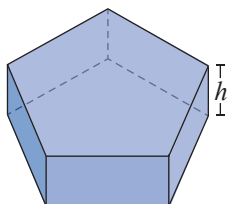
Rectangular Pyramid

$$V = \frac{1}{3}lwh$$



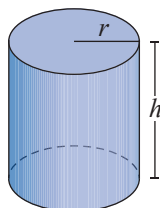
Right Cylinder

$$V = (\text{Area of Base})h$$



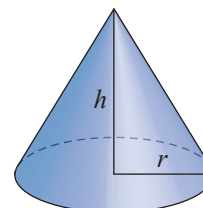
Right Circular Cylinder

$$V = \pi r^2 h \quad SA = 2\pi r^2 + 2\pi rh$$



Cone

$$V = \frac{1}{3}\pi r^2 h \quad SA = \pi r^2 + \pi r\sqrt{r^2 + h^2}$$

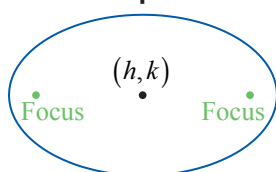


Trigonometric and Hyperbolic Functions: Definitions, Graphs, and Identities

See Appendix C.

CONIC SECTIONS

Ellipse



Let $a, b > 0$ with $a \geq b$.

Center: (h, k)

Major axis length: $2a$

Minor axis length: $2b$

Standard form of equation:

$$1. \frac{(x-h)^2}{a^2} + \frac{(y-k)^2}{b^2} = 1$$

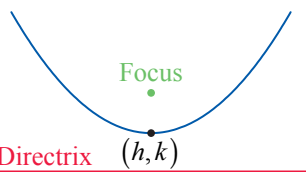
Major axis is horizontal

$$2. \frac{(x-h)^2}{b^2} + \frac{(y-k)^2}{a^2} = 1$$

Major axis is vertical

Foci: on major axis, c units away
from the center, where
 $c^2 = a^2 - b^2$

Parabola



Let $p \neq 0$.

Vertex: (h, k)

Standard form of equation:

$$1. (x-h)^2 = 4p(y-k)$$

Vertically oriented

Focus: $(h, k+p)$

Directrix: $y = k - p$

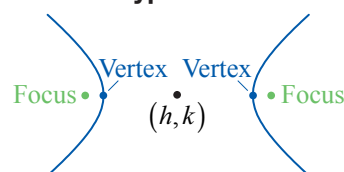
$$2. (y-k)^2 = 4p(x-h)$$

Horizontally oriented

Focus: $(h+p, k)$

Directrix: $x = h - p$

Hyperbola



Let $a, b > 0$.

Center: (h, k)

Standard form of equation:

$$1. \frac{(x-h)^2}{a^2} - \frac{(y-k)^2}{b^2} = 1$$

Foci are aligned horizontally

Asymptotes: $y - k = \pm \frac{b}{a}(x - h)$

$$2. \frac{(y-k)^2}{a^2} - \frac{(x-h)^2}{b^2} = 1$$

Foci are aligned vertically

Asymptotes: $y - k = \pm \frac{a}{b}(x - h)$

Foci: c units away from the center,
where $c^2 = a^2 + b^2$

Vertices: a units away from the center

LIMITS

Definition of Limit

Let f be a function defined on an open interval containing c , except possibly at c itself. We say that the limit of $f(x)$ as x approaches c is L , and write $\lim_{x \rightarrow c} f(x) = L$, if for every number $\varepsilon > 0$ there is a number $\delta > 0$ such that $|f(x) - L| < \varepsilon$ whenever x satisfies $0 < |x - c| < \delta$.

Basic Limit Laws

Sum Law:

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow c} [f(x) + g(x)] = \lim_{x \rightarrow c} f(x) + \lim_{x \rightarrow c} g(x)$$

Difference Law:

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow c} [f(x) - g(x)] = \lim_{x \rightarrow c} f(x) - \lim_{x \rightarrow c} g(x)$$

Constant Multiple Law:

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow c} [kf(x)] = k \lim_{x \rightarrow c} f(x)$$

Product Law:

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow c} [f(x)g(x)] = \lim_{x \rightarrow c} f(x) \cdot \lim_{x \rightarrow c} g(x)$$

Quotient Law:

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow c} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} = \frac{\lim_{x \rightarrow c} f(x)}{\lim_{x \rightarrow c} g(x)}, \text{ provided } \lim_{x \rightarrow c} g(x) \neq 0$$

The Squeeze Theorem

If $g(x) \leq f(x) \leq h(x)$ for all x in some open interval containing c , except possibly at c itself, and if $\lim_{x \rightarrow c} g(x) = \lim_{x \rightarrow c} h(x) = L$, then $\lim_{x \rightarrow c} f(x) = L$ as well.

Continuity at a Point

Given a function f defined on an open interval containing c , we say f is continuous at c if

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow c} f(x) = f(c).$$

L'Hôpital's Rule

Suppose f and g are differentiable at all points of an open interval I containing c , and that $g'(x) \neq 0$ for all $x \in I$ except possibly at $x = c$. Suppose further that either

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow c} f(x) = 0 \quad \text{and} \quad \lim_{x \rightarrow c} g(x) = 0$$

or

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow c} f(x) = \pm\infty \quad \text{and} \quad \lim_{x \rightarrow c} g(x) = \pm\infty.$$

Then

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

assuming the limit on the right is a real number or ∞ or $-\infty$.

DERIVATIVES

The Derivative of a Function

The derivative of f , denoted f' , is the function whose value at the point x is

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

provided the limit exists.

Derivatives of Exponential and Logarithmic Functions

$$\frac{d}{dx}(e^x) = e^x$$

$$\frac{d}{dx}(a^x) = a^x \ln a$$

$$\frac{d}{dx}(\ln x) = \frac{1}{x}$$

$$\frac{d}{dx}(\log_a x) = \frac{1}{\ln a} \cdot \frac{1}{x}$$

Elementary Differentiation Rules

Constant Rule:

$$\frac{d}{dx}(k) = 0$$

Constant Multiple Rule:

$$\frac{d}{dx}[kf(x)] = k \cdot \frac{d}{dx}f(x)$$

Sum Rule:

$$\frac{d}{dx}[f(x) + g(x)] = \frac{d}{dx}f(x) + \frac{d}{dx}g(x)$$

Difference Rule:

$$\frac{d}{dx}[f(x) - g(x)] = \frac{d}{dx}f(x) - \frac{d}{dx}g(x)$$

Product Rule:

$$\frac{d}{dx}[f(x)g(x)] = \left[\frac{d}{dx}f(x)\right]g(x) + f(x)\left[\frac{d}{dx}g(x)\right]$$

Quotient Rule:

$$\frac{d}{dx}\left[\frac{f(x)}{g(x)}\right] = \frac{f'(x)g(x) - f(x)g'(x)}{[g(x)]^2}$$

Power Rule:

$$\frac{d}{dx}(x^r) = rx^{r-1}$$

Chain Rule:

$$\frac{d}{dx}[f(g(x))] = f'(g(x)) \cdot g'(x)$$

Derivatives of Trigonometric Functions

$$\frac{d}{dx}(\sin x) = \cos x$$

$$\frac{d}{dx}(\cos x) = -\sin x$$

$$\frac{d}{dx}(\tan x) = \sec^2 x$$

$$\frac{d}{dx}(\csc x) = -\csc x \cot x$$

$$\frac{d}{dx}(\sec x) = \sec x \tan x$$

$$\frac{d}{dx}(\cot x) = -\csc^2 x$$

Derivatives of Inverse Trigonometric Functions

$$\frac{d}{dx}(\sin^{-1} x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1-x^2}}$$

$$\frac{d}{dx}(\cos^{-1} x) = -\frac{1}{\sqrt{1-x^2}}$$

$$\frac{d}{dx}(\tan^{-1} x) = \frac{1}{1+x^2}$$

$$\frac{d}{dx}(\csc^{-1} x) = -\frac{1}{|x|\sqrt{x^2-1}}$$

$$\frac{d}{dx}(\sec^{-1} x) = \frac{1}{|x|\sqrt{x^2-1}}$$

$$\frac{d}{dx}(\cot^{-1} x) = -\frac{1}{1+x^2}$$

Derivatives of Hyperbolic Functions

$$\frac{d}{dx}(\sinh x) = \cosh x$$

$$\frac{d}{dx}(\cosh x) = \sinh x$$

$$\frac{d}{dx}(\tanh x) = \operatorname{sech}^2 x$$

$$\frac{d}{dx}(\operatorname{csch} x) = -\operatorname{csch} x \coth x$$

$$\frac{d}{dx}(\operatorname{sech} x) = -\operatorname{sech} x \tanh x$$

$$\frac{d}{dx}(\coth x) = -\operatorname{csch}^2 x$$

Derivatives of Inverse Hyperbolic Functions

$$\frac{d}{dx}(\sinh^{-1} x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1+x^2}}$$

$$\frac{d}{dx}(\cosh^{-1} x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{x^2-1}}, \quad x > 1$$

$$\frac{d}{dx}(\tanh^{-1} x) = \frac{1}{1-x^2}, \quad |x| < 1$$

$$\frac{d}{dx}(\operatorname{csch}^{-1} x) = \frac{-1}{|x|\sqrt{1+x^2}}$$

$$\frac{d}{dx}(\operatorname{sech}^{-1} x) = \frac{-1}{x\sqrt{1-x^2}}, \quad 0 < x < 1$$

$$\frac{d}{dx}(\operatorname{coth}^{-1} x) = \frac{1}{1-x^2}, \quad |x| > 1$$

The Derivative Rule for Inverse Functions

If a function f is differentiable on an interval (a, b) , and if $f'(x) \neq 0$ for all $x \in (a, b)$, then f^{-1} both exists and is differentiable on the image of the interval (a, b) under f , denoted as $f((a, b))$ in the formula below. Further,

$$\text{if } x \in (a, b), \text{ then } (f^{-1})'(f(x)) = \frac{1}{f'(x)},$$

and

$$\text{if } x \in f((a, b)), \text{ then } (f^{-1})'(x) = \frac{1}{f'(f^{-1}(x))}.$$

The Mean Value Theorem

If f is continuous on the closed interval $[a, b]$ and differentiable on (a, b) , then there is at least one point $c \in (a, b)$ for which

$$f'(c) = \frac{f(b) - f(a)}{b - a}.$$

INTEGRATION

Properties of the Definite Integral

Given the integrable functions f and g on the interval $[a, b]$ and any constant k , the following properties hold.

- $\int_a^a f(x) dx = 0$
- $\int_b^a f(x) dx = -\int_a^b f(x) dx$
- $\int_a^b k dx = k(b-a)$
- $\int_a^b kf(x) dx = k \int_a^b f(x) dx$
- $\int_a^b [f(x) \pm g(x)] dx = \int_a^b f(x) dx \pm \int_a^b g(x) dx$

- $\int_a^c f(x) dx + \int_c^b f(x) dx = \int_a^b f(x) dx$, assuming each integral exists

- If $f(x) \leq g(x)$ on $[a, b]$, then

$$\int_a^b f(x) dx \leq \int_a^b g(x) dx.$$

- If $m = \min_{a \leq x \leq b} f(x)$ and $M = \max_{a \leq x \leq b} f(x)$, then

$$m(b-a) \leq \int_a^b f(x) dx \leq M(b-a).$$

The Fundamental Theorem of Calculus

Part I

Given a continuous function f on an interval I and a fixed point $a \in I$, define the function F on I by $F(x) = \int_a^x f(t) dt$. Then $F'(x) = f(x)$ for all $x \in I$.

Part II

If f is a continuous function on the interval $[a, b]$ and if F is an antiderivative of f on $[a, b]$, then

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

The Substitution Rule

If $u = g(x)$ is a differentiable function whose range is the interval I , and if f is continuous on I , then

$$\int f(g(x))g'(x) dx = \int f(u) du.$$

Hence, if F is an antiderivative of f on I ,

$$\int f(g(x))g'(x) dx = F(g(x)) + C.$$

Integration by Parts

Given differentiable functions f and g ,

$$\int f(x)g'(x) dx = f(x)g(x) - \int g(x)f'(x) dx.$$

If we let $u = f(x)$ and $v = g(x)$, then $du = f'(x)dx$ and $dv = g'(x)dx$ and the equation takes on the more easily remembered differential form

$$\int u dv = uv - \int v du.$$

SEQUENCES AND SERIES

Summation Facts and Formulas

Constant Rule for Finite Sums:

$$\sum_{i=1}^n c = nc, \text{ for any constant } c$$

Constant Multiple Rule for Finite Sums:

$$\sum_{i=1}^n ca_i = c \sum_{i=1}^n a_i, \text{ for any constant } c$$

Sum/Difference Rule for Finite Sums:

$$\sum_{i=1}^n (a_i \pm b_i) = \sum_{i=1}^n a_i \pm \sum_{i=1}^n b_i$$

Sum of the First n Positive Integers:

$$\sum_{i=1}^n i = \frac{n(n+1)}{2}$$

Sum of the First n Squares:

$$\sum_{i=1}^n i^2 = \frac{n(n+1)(2n+1)}{6}$$

Sum of the First n Cubes:

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

Geometric Series

For a geometric sequence $\{a_n\}$ with common ratio r :

Partial Sum:

$$s_n = \frac{a(1-r^n)}{1-r}, \text{ if } r \neq 0, 1$$

Infinite Sum:

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} ar^{n-1} = \frac{a}{1-r}, \text{ if } |r| < 1$$

Binomial Series

For any real number m and $-1 < x < 1$,

$$\begin{aligned} (1+x)^m &= \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \binom{m}{n} x^n \\ &= 1 + mx + \frac{m(m-1)}{2!} x^2 + \frac{m(m-1)(m-2)}{3!} x^3 + \dots \\ &\quad + \frac{m(m-1)\dots(m-n+1)}{n!} x^n + \dots \end{aligned}$$

where

$$\binom{m}{0} = 1, \quad \binom{m}{1} = m, \quad \binom{m}{2} = \frac{m(m-1)}{2!},$$

$$\text{and } \binom{m}{n} = \frac{m(m-1)\dots(m-n+1)}{n!} \text{ for } n \geq 3.$$

Taylor Series and Maclaurin Series

Given a function f with derivatives of all orders throughout an open interval containing a , the power series

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{f^{(n)}(a)}{n!} (x-a)^n = f(a) + f'(a)(x-a) + \frac{f''(a)}{2!} (x-a)^2 + \frac{f'''(a)}{3!} (x-a)^3 + \dots$$

is called the Taylor series generated by f about a . The Taylor series generated by f about 0 is also known as the Maclaurin series generated by f .