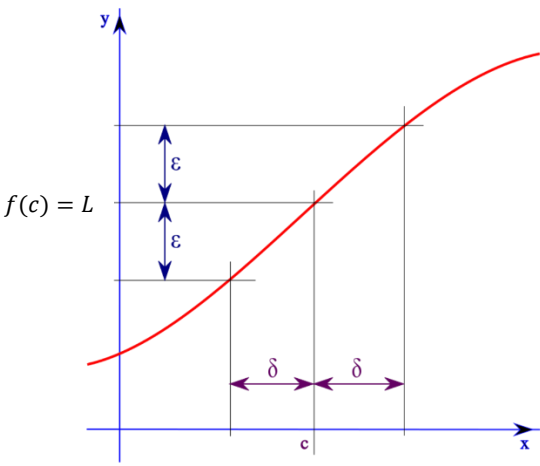


Harold's Calculus Cheat Sheet

22 September 2025

Limits & Continuity	
<p>Definition of Limit</p> <p>Let f be a function defined on an open interval containing c and let L be a real number. The statement:</p> $\lim_{x \rightarrow c} f(x) = L$ <p>means that for each $\epsilon > 0$ there exists a $\delta > 0$ such that</p> $\text{if } x - c < \delta, \text{ then } f(x) - L < \epsilon$ <p>Tip: Direct substitution: Plug in $f(c)$ and see if it provides a legal answer. If so, then $L = f(c)$.</p>	
<p>The Existence of a Limit</p> <p>The limit of $f(x)$ as x approaches c is L if and only if:</p>	$\lim_{x \rightarrow c^-} f(x) = L \quad \text{and} \quad \lim_{x \rightarrow c^+} f(x) = L$ <p>(Bonus if $\lim_{x \rightarrow c} f(x) = f(c) = L$, but not required.)</p>
<p>Definition of Continuity</p> <p>A function f is continuous at c if for every $\epsilon > 0$ there exists a $\delta > 0$ such that $x - c < \delta$ and $f(x) - f(c) < \epsilon$.</p> <p>Tip: Rearrange $f(x) - f(c)$ to have $x - c$ as a factor. Since $x - c < \delta$ we can find an equation that relates both δ and ϵ together.</p>	<p>Prove that $f(x) = x^2 - 1$ is a continuous function.</p> $\begin{aligned} f(x) - f(c) &< \epsilon \\ &= (x^2 - 1) - (c^2 - 1) < \epsilon \\ &= x^2 - 1 - c^2 + 1 < \epsilon \\ &= x^2 - c^2 < \epsilon \\ &= (x + c) \cdot (x - c) < \epsilon \\ &= x + c \cdot x - c < \epsilon \\ &= x + c \cdot x - c < \epsilon \end{aligned}$ <p>Since $x + c \leq 2c$ (worst-case scenario)</p> $\begin{aligned} &= 2c \cdot x - c < \epsilon \\ &= 2c \delta < \epsilon \end{aligned}$ <p>So, given $\epsilon > 0$, we can choose $\delta = \left\lfloor \frac{1}{2c} \right\rfloor \epsilon > 0$ in the Definition of Continuity. So, substituting the chosen δ for $x - c$ we get:</p> $ f(x) - f(c) \leq 2c \left(\left\lfloor \frac{1}{2c} \right\rfloor \epsilon \right) = \epsilon$ <p>Since both conditions are met, $f(x)$ is continuous.</p>
<p>Two Special Trig Limits</p>	$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\sin x}{x} = 1 \quad \text{and} \quad \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{1 - \cos x}{x} = 0$

Derivative Notation				
Definitions of a Derivative of a Function (Slope Function / Difference Quotient)	$f'(x) = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(x+h) - f(x)}{h}$			
	$f'(x) = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(x+h) - f(x-h)}{2h}$			
	$f'(c) = \lim_{x \rightarrow c} \frac{f(x) - f(c)}{x - c}$			
Second Symmetric Derivative of a Function (Concavity Function)	$f''(x) = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f'(x+h) - f'(x)}{h}$			
	$f''(x) = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(x+h) - 2f(x) + f(x-h)}{h^2}$			
First Derivative Notation	$y' = \frac{dy}{dx}$	$f'(x) = \frac{d}{dx} f(x)$	$\dot{x} = \frac{dx}{dt}$	$D_x[y]$
Second Derivative Notation	$y'' = \frac{d^2 y}{dx^2}$	$f''(x) = \frac{d^2}{dx^2} f(x)$	$\ddot{x} = \frac{d^2 x}{dt^2}$	$D_x^2 f(x)$
n th Derivative Notation	$y^{(n)} = \frac{d^n y}{dx^n}$	$f^{(n)}(x) = \frac{d^n}{dx^n} f(x)$	$\ddot{\ddot{x}} = \frac{d^3 x}{dt^3}$	$D_x^n f(x)$

Common Derivatives	(See Cengage Learning 1-Page Calculus Formulas)
1. Constant Rule	$\frac{d}{dx} [c] = 0$
2. Constant Multiple Rule	$\frac{d}{dx} [cf(x)] = cf'(x)$
3. Sum and Difference Rule	$\frac{d}{dx} [f \pm g] = f' \pm g'$
4. Product Rule	$\frac{d}{dx} [fg] = fg' + g f'$
5. Quotient Rule	$\frac{d}{dx} \left[\frac{f}{g} \right] = \frac{gf' - fg'}{g^2}$
6. Chain Rule	$\frac{d}{dx} [(f \circ g)(x)] = \frac{d}{dx} [f(g(x))] = f'(g(x)) \cdot g'(x)$ $\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{dy}{dt} \cdot \frac{dt}{dx}$

7. Power Rule $P_n(x) = a_n x^n + a_{n-1} x^{n-1} + \dots + a_1 x + a_0$	$\frac{d}{dx}[x^n] = nx^{n-1}$	$\frac{d}{dx}[cx^n] = ncx^{n-1}$
	(Can be used for roots if n is a fraction.)	
8. Power Rule for x	$\frac{d}{dx}[x] = 1$ (Think $x = x^1$ and $x^0 = 1$)	
9. Power Rule w\Chain Rule	$\frac{d}{dx}[f(x)^n] = nf(x)^{n-1} f'(x)$	
10. Power Rule for Roots	$\frac{d}{dx}[\sqrt{x}] = \frac{d}{dx}\left[x^{\frac{1}{2}}\right] = \frac{1}{2\sqrt{x}}$	
11. Power Rule for Roots w\Chain Rule	$\frac{d}{dx}[\sqrt[n]{f(x)}] = \frac{1}{n(\sqrt[n]{f(x)})^{n-1}} f'(x)$	
12. Absolute Value	$\frac{d}{dx}[x] = \frac{x}{ x }$	
13. Natural Exponent	$\frac{d}{dx}[e^x] = e^x$	
14. Natural Exponent w\Chain Rule	$\frac{d}{dx}[e^{f(x)}] = e^{f(x)} f'(x)$	
15. Exponential Rule	$\frac{d}{dx}[a^x] = (\ln a) a^x$	
16. Exponential Rule w\Chain Rule	$\frac{d}{dx}[a^{f(x)}] = (\ln a) a^{f(x)} f'(x)$	
17. Natural Logarithm	$\frac{d}{dx}[\ln x] = \frac{1}{x}, x > 0$	
	$\frac{d}{dx}[\ln x] = \frac{1}{x}, x \neq 0$	
18. Natural Logarithm w\Chain Rule	$\frac{d}{dx}[\ln f(x)] = \frac{1}{f(x)} \cdot f'(x)$	
19. Logarithm	$\frac{d}{dx}[\log_a x] = \frac{1}{x \ln(a)}, x > 0$	
	$\frac{d}{dx}[\log_a x] = \frac{1}{x \ln(a)}, x \neq 0$	
20. Logarithm w\Chain Rule	$\frac{d}{dx}[\log_a f(x)] = \frac{1}{\ln x} \cdot \frac{f'(x)}{f(x)}$	
21. Sine	$\frac{d}{dx}[\sin(x)] = \cos(x)$	
22. Cosine	$\frac{d}{dx}[\cos(x)] = -\sin(x)$	
23. Tangent	$\frac{d}{dx}[\tan(x)] = \sec^2(x)$	
24. Cotangent	$\frac{d}{dx}[\cot(x)] = -\csc^2(x)$	
25. Secant	$\frac{d}{dx}[\sec(x)] = \sec(x) \tan(x)$	
26. Cosecant	$\frac{d}{dx}[\csc(x)] = -\csc(x) \cot(x)$	

27. Arcsine	$\frac{d}{dx} [\sin^{-1}(x)] = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1-x^2}}$
28. Arccosine	$\frac{d}{dx} [\cos^{-1}(x)] = \frac{-1}{\sqrt{1-x^2}}$
29. Arctangent	$\frac{d}{dx} [\tan^{-1}(x)] = \frac{1}{1+x^2}$
30. Arccotangent	$\frac{d}{dx} [\cot^{-1}(x)] = \frac{-1}{1+x^2}$
31. Arcsecant	$\frac{d}{dx} [\sec^{-1}(x)] = \frac{1}{ x \sqrt{x^2-1}}$
32. Arccosecant	$\frac{d}{dx} [\csc^{-1}(x)] = \frac{-1}{ x \sqrt{x^2-1}}$
33. Hyperbolic Sine $\left(\frac{e^x - e^{-x}}{2}\right)$	$\frac{d}{dx} [\sinh(x)] = \cosh(x)$
34. Hyperbolic Cosine $\left(\frac{e^x + e^{-x}}{2}\right)$	$\frac{d}{dx} [\cosh(x)] = \sinh(x)$
35. Hyperbolic Tangent	$\frac{d}{dx} [\tanh(x)] = \operatorname{sech}^2(x)$
36. Hyperbolic Cotangent	$\frac{d}{dx} [\coth(x)] = -\operatorname{csch}^2(x)$
37. Hyperbolic Secant	$\frac{d}{dx} [\operatorname{sech}(x)] = -\operatorname{sech}(x) \tanh(x)$
38. Hyperbolic Cosecant	$\frac{d}{dx} [\operatorname{csch}(x)] = -\operatorname{csch}(x) \coth(x)$
39. Hyperbolic Arcsine	$\frac{d}{dx} [\sinh^{-1}(x)] = \frac{1}{\sqrt{x^2+1}}$
40. Hyperbolic Arccosine	$\frac{d}{dx} [\cosh^{-1}(x)] = \frac{1}{\sqrt{x^2-1}}, x > 1$
41. Hyperbolic Arctangent	$\frac{d}{dx} [\tanh^{-1}(x)] = \frac{1}{1-x^2}, x < 1$
42. Hyperbolic Arccotangent	$\frac{d}{dx} [\coth^{-1}(x)] = \frac{1}{1-x^2}, x > 1$
43. Hyperbolic Arcsecant	$\frac{d}{dx} [\operatorname{sech}^{-1}(x)] = \frac{-1}{x \sqrt{1-x^2}}$
44. Hyperbolic Arccosecant	$\frac{d}{dx} [\operatorname{csch}^{-1}(x)] = \frac{-1}{ x \sqrt{1+x^2}}$

Graphing with Derivatives				
f	Gives Us	When set = 0	Graph Info	Physics
$f(x)$	Height, y	Roots	Sketch known functions	Position, $s(t)$
$f'(x)$	Slope, m	Critical Points, Local Extreme Values, Min/Max	Pick easy integer x values (-1, 0, 1) in between each critical point to determine where the slope is increasing/decreasing. - ↘ ↗ +	Velocity, $v(t)$
$f''(x)$	Concavity	Inflection Points	Concave up \cup if + (min) Concave down \cap if - (max)	Acceleration, $a(t)$

Analyzing the Graph of a Function	(See Harold's Graphing Rationals Cheat Sheet)
x-Intercepts (Zeros or Roots)	$f(x) = 0$
y-Intercept	$f(0) = y$
Domain	Valid x values
Range	Valid y values
Continuity	No division by 0, no negative square roots or logarithms
Vertical Asymptotes (VA)	$x =$ division by 0 or undefined
Horizontal Asymptotes (HA)	$\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty^-} f(x) \rightarrow y$ and $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty^+} f(x) \rightarrow y$
Infinite Limits at Infinity	$\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty^-} f(x) \rightarrow \infty$ and $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty^+} f(x) \rightarrow \infty$
Differentiability	Limit from both directions arrives at the same slope
Relative Extrema	Create a table with domains: $f(x), f'(x), f''(x)$
Concavity	If $f''(x) \rightarrow +$, then cup up \cup If $f''(x) \rightarrow -$, then cup down \cap
Points of Inflection	$f''(x) = 0$, then the concavity changes
Graph	<p>The graph shows a function with a local maximum (Max) and a local minimum (Min). The curve is concave down in the upper left and concave up in the lower right. Inflection points are marked where the concavity changes. Slopes are indicated by arrows: positive slope (+ Slope) and negative slope (- Slope).</p>

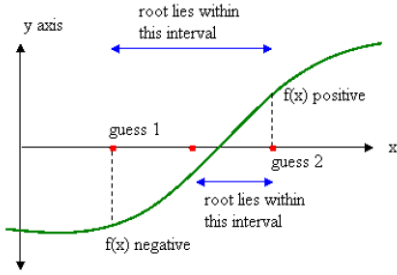
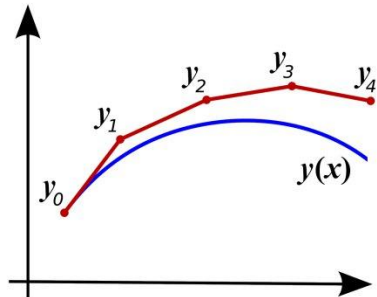
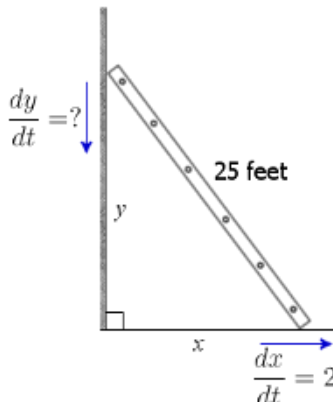

Derivative Tests	
Test for Increasing and Decreasing Functions	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. If $f'(x) \geq 0$, then f is monotone increasing (slope up) ↗ 2. If $f'(x) > 0$, then f is strictly increasing (slope up) ↗ 3. If $f'(x) \leq 0$, then f is monotone decreasing (slope down) ↘ 4. If $f'(x) < 0$, then f is strictly decreasing (slope down) ↘ 5. If $f'(x) = 0$, then f is constant (zero slope) → and is possibly a min/max
First Derivative Test	<p><u>Critical points:</u></p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. If $f'(x)$ changes from $-$ to $+$ at c, then f has a relative minimum at $(c, f(c))$ 2. If $f'(x)$ changes from $+$ to $-$ at c, then f has a relative maximum at $(c, f(c))$ 3. If $f'(x)$ is $+$ or $-$ at c, then $f(c)$ is neither <p><u>Absolute minimum/maximum:</u></p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Test $f(x)$ at the domain boundaries $[a, b]$, meaning check $f(a)$ and $f(b)$ 2. Include $f(x)$ for all critical points as well 3. The largest/smallest wins
Second Derivative Test	<p>Let $f'(c) = 0$, and $f''(x)$ exists, then</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. If $f''(x) > 0$, then f has a relative minimum at $(c, f(c))$ 2. If $f''(x) < 0$, then f has a relative maximum at $(c, f(c))$ 3. If $f''(x) = 0$, then the test fails
Test for Concavity	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. If $f''(x) > 0$ for all x, then the graph is concave up (cup up U) 2. If $f''(x) < 0$ for all x, then the graph is concave down (cup down ∩)
Inflection Points (Change in concavity)	<p>If $(c, f(c))$ is a point of inflection of $f(x)$, then either</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. $f''(c) = 0$ or 2. $f''(x)$ does not exist at $x = c$

Extrema	
Local Maximum (Relative Max.)	A function $f(x)$ has a local max at $x = a$ if $f(a)$ is greater than or equal to (\geq) the values of $f(x)$ in some interval around a . a is usually near the origin.
Local Minimum (Relative Min.)	A function $f(x)$ has a local minimum at $x = a$ if $f(a)$ is less than or equal to (\leq) the values of $f(x)$ in some interval around a . a is usually near the origin.
Absolute Maximum (Global Max.)	A function $f(x)$ has an absolute maximum at $x = c$ if $f(c)$ is greater than or equal to (\geq) $f(x)$ for all x in the domain of f .
Absolute Minimum (Global Min.)	A function $f(x)$ has an absolute minimum at $x = d$ if $f(d)$ is less than or equal to (\leq) $f(x)$ for all x in the domain.
Critical Points	Find the derivative $f'(x)$ and set it to zero to find critical points. Critical points are where the derivative is zero or undefined.
Endpoints	For absolute extrema on a closed interval $[a, b]$, evaluate the function at the critical points and at the endpoints $f(a)$ and $f(b)$. The largest value among these will be the absolute maximum, and the smallest will be the absolute minimum.

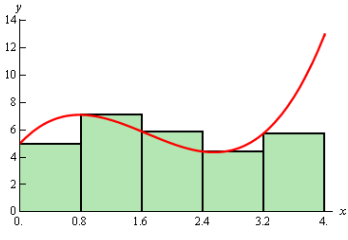
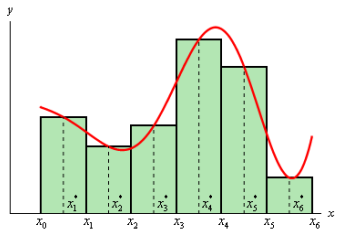
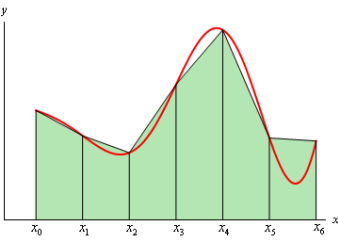
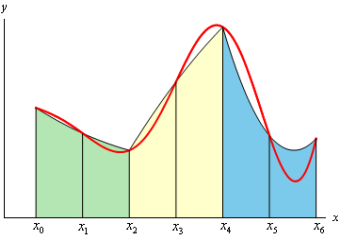


Equations of a Line	Used for Tangent Lines
Standard Form	$ax + by + c = 0$ where a is positive
Slope-Intercept Form	$y = mx + b$
Point-Slope Form	$y - y_0 = m(x - x_0)$ where $m = f'(x_0)$ at point (x_0, y_0)
Intercept Form	$\frac{x}{a} + \frac{y}{b} = 1$ where a is the x - <i>intercept</i> and b is the y - <i>intercept</i>
Calculus Form	$f(x) = f'(c)x + f(0)$ $f(x) = f'(c)(x - c) + f(c)$
Slope	$m = \frac{\text{rise}}{\text{run}} = \frac{y_2 - y_1}{x_2 - x_1} = \frac{\Delta y}{\Delta x} \rightarrow \frac{dy}{dx} = f'(x)$
Vertical Line	$x = a$
Horizontal Line	$y = b$

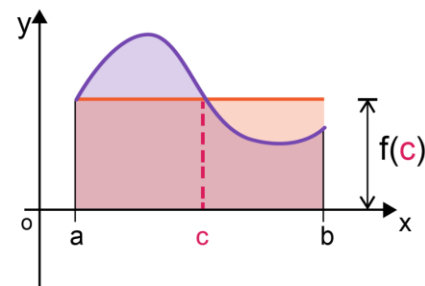
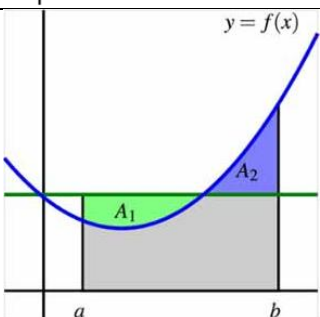
Physics	Translational Motion	
	1D	2D
Position	$s(t) = s_0 + v_0 t + \frac{1}{2} a t^2$	$x(t) = x_0 + v_{0,x} t + \frac{1}{2} a_x t^2$ $y(t) = y_0 + v_{0,y} t + \frac{1}{2} g t^2$
Velocity	$v(t) = s'(t)$	$v(t) = v_0 + a t$ $v^2 = v_0^2 + 2a(x - x_0)$
Acceleration	$a(t) = v'(t) = s''(t)$	$a(t) = a$
Jerk (Jolt)	$j(t) = a'(t) = v''(t) = s^{(3)}(t)$	When a car brakes sharply or accelerates quickly.
Gravitational Constant (g) (Planet Earth)	$g \approx -9.81 \frac{m}{s^2}$	$g \approx -32.2 \frac{ft}{s^2}$

Differentiation & Differentials		
Rolle's Theorem	<p>Assume f is <u>continuous</u> on the closed interval $[a, b]$, and f is <u>differentiable</u> on the open interval (a, b).</p> <p>If $f(a) = f(b)$, then there exists at least one number c in (a, b) such that $f'(c) = 0$.</p>	
Mean Value Theorem	<p>If f meets the conditions of Rolle's Theorem, then you can find 'c'.</p> $f'(c) = \frac{f(b) - f(a)}{b - a} = \frac{\Delta y}{\Delta x}$ $f(b) = f(a) + (b - a)f'(c)$	
Intermediate Value Theorem	<p>Assume f is a <u>continuous</u> function with the interval $[a, b]$ as its domain.</p> <p>If f takes values $f(a)$ and $f(b)$ at each end of the interval, then it also takes any value between $f(a)$ and $f(b)$ at some point within the interval.</p>	
Calculating Differentials (Tangent line approximation)	$f(x + \Delta x) \approx f(x) + \Delta y$ <p>since $dy = f'(x) dx$ then $\Delta y \approx f'(x) \Delta x$ so</p> $f(x + \Delta x) \approx f(x) + f'(x) \Delta x$ $\text{Relative Error} = \frac{\Delta f}{f} \text{ in \%}$ <p>Example: $\sqrt[4]{82}$ $f(x) = \sqrt[4]{x}$ $f(x + \Delta x) = f(81 + 1)$</p>	
Newton-Raphson Method	<p>Finds zeros of f, or finds c if $f(c) = 0$.</p> $x_{n+1} = x_n - \frac{f(x_n)}{f'(x_n)}$ <p>Example: $\sqrt[4]{82}$ $f(x) = x^4 - 82 = 0$ start with $x_0 = 3$</p>	

Bisection Method	<p>Finds zeros of f for a continuous function.</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Find two points, a and b, where $f(a) \cdot f(b) < 0$. 2. Calculate the midpoint, t, between a and b. 3. If $f(t) = 0$, then t is the root of the function. 4. Divide the interval $[a, b]$ in half and repeat the process until step 3. 	
Euler's Method	<p>Approximates f given an initial value and the function's derivative (solves an ODE).</p> <p>Initial Condition: $y_0 = y(x_0)$ Definition: $y_i = y(x_i)$ Derivative Function: $y'(x_i) = f(x_i, y_i)$ $y_{n+1} = y(x_n) + h \cdot y'(x_n)$ $y_{n+1} = y_n + h \cdot f(x_n, y_n)$</p>	
Related Rates	<p>Steps to solve:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Identify the known variables and rates of change. $x = 15 \text{ m}$ $y = 20 \text{ m}$ $x' = 2 \frac{\text{m}}{\text{s}}$ $y' = \frac{\text{m}}{\text{s}}$ 2. Construct an equation relating these quantities. $x^2 + y^2 = r^2$ (Typically, the Pythagorean Theorem, similar triangles, or volume formulas.) 3. Differentiate both sides of the equation. $2xx' + 2yy' = 0$ 4. Solve for the desired rate of change. $y' = -\frac{x}{y} x'$ 5. Substitute the known rates of change and quantities into the equation. $y' = -\frac{15}{20} \cdot 2 = 1.5 \frac{\text{m}}{\text{s}}$ 	
L'Hôpital's Rule	<p>If $\lim_{x \rightarrow c} f(x) = \lim_{x \rightarrow c} \frac{P(x)}{Q(x)}$ $= \left\{ \frac{0}{0}, \frac{\infty}{\infty}, 0 \cdot \infty, \infty - \infty, 0^0, 1^\infty, \infty^0 \right\}$, but not $\{0^\infty, \infty^\infty\}$, then</p> $\lim_{x \rightarrow c} \frac{P(x)}{Q(x)} = \lim_{x \rightarrow c} \frac{P'(x)}{Q'(x)} = \lim_{x \rightarrow c} \frac{P''(x)}{Q''(x)} = \dots$	

Numerical Methods

Riemann Sum	$P_0(x) = \int_a^b f(x) dx = \lim_{\ P\ \rightarrow 0} \sum_{i=1}^n f(x_i^*) \Delta x_i$ <p>where $a = x_0 < x_1 < x_2 < \dots < x_n = b$ and $\Delta x_i = x_i - x_{i-1}$ and $\ P\ = \max\{\Delta x_i\}$</p> <p>Types:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Left Sum (LHS) • Middle Sum (MHS) • Right Sum (RHS) 	
Midpoint Rule (Middle Sum/MHS)	$P_0(x) = \int_a^b f(x) dx \approx \sum_{i=1}^n f(\bar{x}_i) \Delta x = \Delta x [f(\bar{x}_1) + f(\bar{x}_2) + f(\bar{x}_3) + \dots + f(\bar{x}_n)]$ <p>where $\Delta x = \frac{b-a}{n}$ and $\bar{x}_i = \frac{(x_{i-1} + x_i)}{2}$ = midpoint of $[x_{i-1}, x_i]$</p> <p>Error Bounds: $E_M \leq \frac{K(b-a)^3}{24n^2}$</p>	
Trapezoidal Rule	$P_1(x) = \int_a^b f(x) dx \approx \frac{\Delta x}{2} [f(x_0) + 2f(x_1) + 2f(x_2) + \dots + 2f(x_{n-1}) + f(x_n)]$ <p>where $\Delta x = \frac{b-a}{n}$ and $x_i = a + i\Delta x$</p> <p>Error Bounds: $E_T \leq \frac{K(b-a)^3}{12n^2}$</p>	
Simpson's Rule	$P_2(x) = \int_a^b f(x) dx \approx \frac{\Delta x}{3} [f(x_0) + 4f(x_1) + 2f(x_2) + 4f(x_3) + \dots + 2f(x_{n-2}) + 4f(x_{n-1}) + f(x_n)]$ <p>Where n is even and $\Delta x = \frac{b-a}{n}$ and $x_i = a + i\Delta x$</p> <p>Error Bounds: $E_S \leq \frac{K(b-a)^5}{180n^4}$</p>	
TI-84 Plus	<p>[MATH] fnInt(f(x),x,a,b), [MATH] [1] [ENTER]</p> <p>Example: [MATH] fnInt(x^2,x,0,1)</p> $\int_0^1 x^2 dx = \frac{1}{3}$	
TI-Nspire CAS	<p>[MENU] [4] Calculus [3] Integral [TAB] [TAB] [X] [^] [2] [TAB] [TAB] [X] [ENTER] Shortcut: [ALPHA] [WINDOWS] [4]</p>	

Integration		(See Harold's Fundamental Theorem of Calculus Cheat Sheet)
Basic Integration Rules (Integration is the "inverse" of differentiation, and vice versa.)	$\int f'(x) dx = f(x) + C$ $\frac{d}{dx} \int f(x) dx = f(x)$	Tip: Use the $f'(x)$ tables and integrate both sides to determine many common integrals.
Reimann Sum	$\sum_{i=1}^n f(c_i) \Delta x_i, \quad \text{where } x_{i-1} \leq c_i \leq x_i$	
Definition of a Definite Integral (Area under the curve)	$\lim_{\ \Delta\ \rightarrow 0} \sum_{i=1}^n f(c_i) \Delta x_i = \int_a^b f(x) dx$ <p>where $\ \Delta\ = \Delta x = \frac{b-a}{n}$</p>	
Swap Bounds	$\int_a^b f(x) dx = - \int_b^a f(x) dx$	
Additive Interval Property	$\int_a^b f(x) dx = \int_a^c f(x) dx + \int_c^b f(x) dx$	
First Fundamental Theorem of Calculus	$\int_a^b f(x) dx = F(b) - F(a)$	
Second Fundamental Theorem of Calculus	$\frac{d}{dx} \int_a^x f(t) dt = f(x)$ $\frac{d}{dx} \int_a^{g(x)} f(t) dt = f(g(x))g'(x)$ $\frac{d}{dx} \int_{g(x)}^{h(x)} f(t) dt = f(h(x))h'(x) - f(g(x))g'(x)$	
Mean Value Theorem for Integrals	$\int_a^b f(x) dx = f(c)(b-a)$ <p>Find 'c'.</p>	
Average Value of a Function	<p>Continuous:</p> $\frac{1}{b-a} \int_a^b f(x) dx$ <p>Discrete:</p> $\text{Ave} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n a_i$	

Common Anti-Derivatives	(See Cengage Learning 1-Page Calculus Formulas)
1. Zero Rule $f(x) = 0$	$\int 0 \, dx = C$
2. Constant Rule $f(x) = k = kx^0$	$\int k \, dx = kx + C$
3. Constant Multiple Rule	$\int k f(x) \, dx = k \int f(x) \, dx$
4. Sum and Difference Rule	$\int [f(x) \pm g(x)] \, dx = \int f(x) \, dx \pm \int g(x) \, dx$
5. Power Rule $P_n(x) = a_n x^n + a_{n-1} x^{n-1} + \dots + a_1 x + a_0$	$\int x^n \, dx = \frac{x^{n+1}}{n+1} + C$, where $n \neq -1$ If $n = -1$, then $\int x^{-1} \, dx = \ln x + C$
6. Power Rule w/Chain Rule	If $u = g(x)$, and $u' = \frac{d}{dx} g(x)$ then $\int u^n u' \, dx = \frac{u^{n+1}}{n+1} + C$, where $n \neq -1$
7. Natural Exponent	$\int e^x \, dx = e^x + C$
8. Exponent	$\int a^x \, dx = \frac{1}{\ln a} a^x + C$
9. Natural Logarithm	$\int \frac{1}{x} \, dx = \ln x + C$
10. Logarithm	$\int \frac{1}{x} \, dx = (\ln a) \log_a x + C$
11. Sine	$\int \sin(x) \, dx = -\cos(x) + C$
12. Cosine	$\int \cos(x) \, dx = \sin(x) + C$
13. Tangent	$\int \tan(x) \, dx = -\ln \cos(x) + C$
14. Cotangent	$\int \cot(x) \, dx = \ln \sin(x) + C$
15. Secant	$\int \sec(x) \, dx = \ln \sec(x) + \tan(x) + C$
16. Cosecant	$\int \csc(x) \, dx = -\ln \csc(x) + \cot(x) + C$
17. Secant²	$\int \sec^2(x) \, dx = \tan(x) + C$
18. Cosecant²	$\int \csc^2(x) \, dx = -\cot(x) + C$
19. Arcsine	$\int \frac{1}{\sqrt{a^2 - x^2}} \, dx = \sin^{-1}\left(\frac{x}{a}\right) + C$
20. Arctangent	$\int \frac{1}{a^2 + x^2} \, dx = \frac{1}{a} \tan^{-1}\left(\frac{x}{a}\right) + C$
21. Arcsecant	$\int \frac{1}{x \sqrt{x^2 - a^2}} \, dx = \frac{1}{a} \sec^{-1}\left(\frac{ x }{a}\right) + C$

Integration Methods	
1. Memorized	See Cengage Learning 1-Page Calculus Formulas
2. U-Substitution	$\int f(g(x))g'(x)dx = F(g(x)) + C$ <p>Set $u = g(x)$, then $du = g'(x) dx$</p> $\int f(u) du = F(u) + C$ $u = \underline{\hspace{2cm}}, \quad du = \underline{\hspace{2cm}} dx$
3. Integration by Parts	$\int u dv = uv - \int v du$ $u = \underline{\hspace{2cm}}, \quad v = \underline{\hspace{2cm}}$ $du = \underline{\hspace{2cm}} dx, \quad dv = \underline{\hspace{2cm}} dx$ <p>Pick 'u' using the LIATE Rule:</p> <p>L – Logarithmic: $\ln x, \log_b x$</p> <p>I – Inverse Trig.: $\sin^{-1} x, \cos^{-1} x, \tan^{-1} x$</p> <p>A – Algebraic: $x^2, 3x^{60}, \sqrt{x}, etc.$</p> <p>T – Trigonometric: $\sin x, \cos x, \tan x$</p> <p>E – Exponential: $e^x, 19^x$</p>
4. Partial Fractions	$\int \frac{P(x)}{Q(x)} dx$ <p>where $P(x)$ and $Q(x)$ are polynomials.</p> <p>Case 1: If the degree of $P(x) \geq Q(x)$ then do long division first.</p> <p>Case 2: If the degree of $P(x) < Q(x)$ then do partial fraction expansion.</p>
5a. Trig Substitution for $\sqrt{a^2 - x^2}$	$\int \sqrt{a^2 - x^2} dx$ <p>Substitution: $x = a \sin \theta$ Identity: $1 - \sin^2 \theta = \cos^2 \theta$</p>
5b. Trig Substitution for $\sqrt{x^2 - a^2}$	$\int \sqrt{x^2 - a^2} dx$ <p>Substitution: $x = a \sec \theta$ Identity: $\sec^2 \theta - 1 = \tan^2 \theta$</p>
5c. Trig Substitution for $\sqrt{x^2 + a^2}$	$\int \sqrt{x^2 + a^2} dx$ <p>Substitution: $x = a \tan \theta$ Identity: $\tan^2 \theta + 1 = \sec^2 \theta$</p>
6. Computer Algebra System (CAS)	TI-Nspire CX CAS Graphing Calculator TI –Nspire CAS iPad app
7. Numerical Methods	Riemann Sum, Midpoint Rule, Trapezoidal Rule, Simpson's Rule, various quadrature rules, TI-84 Calculator, etc.
8. WolframAlpha	WolframAlpha is the Google of mathematics. Shows steps. Free.
9. AI Chatbot	OpenAI ChatGPT , Microsoft Copilot , Google Gemini , xAI Grok , etc.

Partial Fractions	(See Harold's Partial Fraction Decomposition Cheat Sheet)
Condition	$f(x) = \frac{P(x)}{Q(x)}$ <p>where $P(x)$ and $Q(x)$ are polynomials and the degree of $P(x) < Q(x)$.</p> <p>If the degree of $P(x) \geq Q(x)$, then do long division first.</p>
Example Expansion	$\frac{P(x)}{(ax+b)(cx+d)^2(ex^2+fx+g)}$ $= \frac{A}{(ax+b)} + \frac{B}{(cx+d)} + \frac{C}{(cx+d)^2} + \frac{Dx+E}{(ex^2+fx+g)}$
Typical Solution	$\int \frac{a}{x+b} dx = a \ln x+b + C$

Sequences & Series	(See Harold's Series Cheat Sheet)
Sequence	$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = L \text{ (Limit)}$ <p>Example: $(a_n, a_{n+1}, a_{n+2}, \dots)$</p>
Geometric Series	$S = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{a(1-r^n)}{1-r} = \frac{a}{1-r}$ <p>only if $r < 1$ where r is the radius of convergence and $(-r, r)$ is the interval of convergence</p>

Convergence Tests	(See Harold's Series Convergence Tests Cheat Sheet)										
Series Convergence Tests	<table> <tr> <td>1. Divergence or n^{th} Term</td><td>6. Ratio</td></tr> <tr> <td>2. Geometric Series</td><td>7. Root</td></tr> <tr> <td>3. p-Series</td><td>8. Direct Comparison</td></tr> <tr> <td>4. Alternating Series</td><td>9. Limit Comparison</td></tr> <tr> <td>5. Integral</td><td>10. Telescoping Series</td></tr> </table>	1. Divergence or n^{th} Term	6. Ratio	2. Geometric Series	7. Root	3. p-Series	8. Direct Comparison	4. Alternating Series	9. Limit Comparison	5. Integral	10. Telescoping Series
1. Divergence or n^{th} Term	6. Ratio										
2. Geometric Series	7. Root										
3. p-Series	8. Direct Comparison										
4. Alternating Series	9. Limit Comparison										
5. Integral	10. Telescoping Series										

Taylor Series	(See Harold's Taylor Series Cheat Sheet) (See Harold's Infinite Series Cheat Sheet)
Taylor Series	$f(x) = P_n(x) + R_n(x)$ $= \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{f^{(n)}(c)}{n!} (x-c)^n + \frac{f^{(n+1)}(x^*)}{(n+1)!} (x-c)^{n+1}$ <p>where $x \leq x^* \leq c$ $(x^*$ is the worst-case scenario or max. value of $f(x)$ in the range.) and $\lim_{x \rightarrow +\infty} R_n(x) = 0$.</p>