

## THANKS FOR DOWNLOADING MY PRODUCTS!

As you prepare your students for the AP Calculus AB Exam, here's an adaptation to Sean Bird's "Stuff You Must Know Cold" handout. (http://covenantchristian.org/bird/Calculus.htm) Formulas, Theorems, and Other concepts necessary for success for the Calculus AB student. You will find additional resources, including a PowerPoint version, a Word document in color, as well as AP Calculus BC topics on his website.

If you like this product, you might enjoy my Calculus Target Practice. Follow this link to preview the packet
http://www.teacherspayteachers.com/Product/AP-Calculus-AB-Target-Practice-1210286
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## STUFF YOU MUSTKNOW COLD . . .

## Alternate Definition of the Derivative:

$$
f^{\prime}(c)=\lim _{x \rightarrow c} \frac{f(x)-f(c)}{x-c}
$$

| Basic Derivatives |  |
| ---: | :--- |
| $\frac{d}{d x}\left(x^{n}\right)$ | $=n x^{n-1}$ |
| $\frac{d}{d x}(\sin x)$ | $=\cos x$ |
| $\frac{d}{d x}(\cos x)$ | $=-\sin x$ |
| $\frac{d}{d x}(\tan x)$ | $=\sec ^{2} x$ |
| $\frac{d}{d x}(\cot x)$ | $=-\csc ^{2} x$ |
| $\frac{d}{d x}(\sec x)$ | $=\sec x \tan x$ |
| $\frac{d}{d x}(\csc x)=$ | $-\csc x \cot x$ |
| $\frac{d}{d x}(\ln u)$ | $=\frac{1}{u} \frac{d u}{d x}$ |
| $\frac{d}{d x}\left(e^{u}\right)$ | $=e^{u} \frac{d u}{d x}$ |

Where $u$ is a function of $x$, and $a$ is a constant.

## Differentiation Rules

## Chain Rule:

$$
\frac{d}{d x}[f(u)]=f^{\prime}(u) \frac{d u}{d x} \text { OR } \frac{d y}{d x}=\frac{d y}{d u} \frac{d u}{d x}
$$

## Product Rule:

$\frac{d}{d x}(u v)=u \frac{d v}{d x}+v \frac{d u}{d x} O R u v^{\prime}+v u^{\prime}$

## Quotient Rule:

$\frac{d}{d x}\left(\frac{u}{v}\right)=\frac{v \frac{d u}{d x}-u \frac{d v}{d x}}{v^{2}}$ OR $\frac{v u^{\prime}-u v^{\prime}}{v^{2}}$

## Intermediate Value Theorem

If the function $f(x)$ is continuous on $[a, b]$, and $y$ is a number between $f(a)$ and $f(b)$, then there exists at least one number $x=c$ in the open interval $(a, b)$ such that $f(c)=y$.


## Mean Value Theorem

If the function $f(x)$ is continuous on $[a, b]$, AND the first derivative exists on the interval $(a, b)$ then there is at least one number $x=c$ in $(a, b)$ such that $f^{\prime}(c)=\frac{f(b)-f(a)}{b-a}$.


## Rolle's Theorem

If the function $f(x)$ is continuous on $[a, b]$, AND the first derivative exists on the interval $(a, b)$ AND $f(a)=f(b)$, then there is at least one number $x=c$ in $(a, b)$ such that $f^{\prime}(c)=0$.

## Extreme Value Theorem

If the function $f(x)$ is continuous on $[a, b]$, then the function is guaranteed to have an absolute maximum and an absolute minimum on the interval.


## Derivative of an Inverse Function:

If $f$ has an inverse function $g$ then:

$$
g^{\prime}(x)=\frac{1}{f^{\prime}(g(x))}
$$

derivatives are reciprocal slopes

## Implicit Differentiation

Remember that in implicit differentiation you will have a $\frac{d y}{d x}$ for each $y$ in the original function or equation. Isolate the $\frac{d y}{d x}$. If you are taking the second derivative $\frac{d^{2} y}{d x^{2}}$, you will often substitute the expression you found for the first derivative somewhere in the process.

## Average Rate of Change ARoC:

$$
m_{s e c}=\frac{f(b)-f(a)}{b-a}
$$

## Instantaneous Rate of Change IRoC:

$m_{\text {tan }}=f^{\prime}(x)=\lim _{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(x+h)-f(x)}{h}$

## First Derivative:

$f^{\prime}(x)>0$ function is increasing.
$f^{\prime}(x)<0$ function is decreasing.
$f^{\prime}(x)=0$ or DNE: Critical Values at $x$.
Relative Maximum: $f^{\prime}(x)=0$ or DNE and sign of $f^{\prime}(x)$ changes from + to.-
Relative Minimum: $f^{\prime}(x)=0$ or DNE and sign of $f^{\prime}(x)$ changes from - to.+

## Absolute Max or Min: MUST CHECK ENDPOINTS ALSO

The maximum value is a $y$-value.
$\quad$ Second Derivative:
$f^{\prime \prime}(x)>0$ function is concave up.
$f^{\prime \prime}(x)<0$ function is concave down.
$f^{\prime}(x)=0$ and sign of $f^{\prime \prime}(x)$ changes, then there is a
point of inflection at $x$.
Relative Maximum: $f^{\prime \prime}(x)<0$
Relative Minimum: $f^{\prime \prime}(x)>0$

## Second Derivative:

$f^{\prime \prime}(x)>0$ function is concave up.
$f^{\prime \prime}(x)<0$ function is concave down.
$f^{\prime}(x)=0$ and sign of $f^{\prime \prime}(x)$ changes, then there is a point of inflection at $x$.
Relative Maximum: $f^{\prime \prime}(x)<0$
Relative Minimum: $f^{\prime \prime}(x)>0$

## Curve Sketching And Analysis

$y=f(x)$ must be continuous at each:
Critical point: $\frac{d y}{d x}=0$ or undefined

## LOOK OUT FOR ENDPOINTS

## Local minimum:

$\frac{d y}{d x}$ goes $(-, 0,+)$ or $(-, u n d,+) \quad$ OR $\frac{d^{2} y}{d x^{2}}>0$
Local maximum:
$\frac{d y}{d x}$ goes $(+, 0,-)$ or $(+, u n d,-) \quad$ OR $\frac{d^{2} y}{d x^{2}}<0$

Point of inflection: concavity changes
$\frac{d^{2} y}{d x^{2}}$ goes from $(+, 0,-),(-, 0,+),(+$, und,-$)$, OR

$$
(-, \text { und },+)
$$

## Write the equation of a tangent line at a point:

You need a slope (derivative) and a point.

$$
y_{2}-y_{1}=m\left(x_{2}-x_{1}\right)
$$

## Horizontal Asymptotes:

1. If the largest exponent in the numerator is < largest exponent in the denominator then $\lim _{x \rightarrow \pm \infty} f(x)=0$.
2. If the largest exponent in the numerator is $>$ the largest exponent in the denominator then $\lim _{x \rightarrow \pm \infty} f(x)=D N E$
3. If the largest exponent in the numerator is = to the largest exponent in the denominator then the quotient of the leading coefficients is the asymptote.
$\lim _{x \rightarrow \pm \infty} f(x)=\frac{a}{b}$

## ONLY FOUR THINGS YOU CAN DO ON A CALCULATOR THAT NEEDS NO WORK SHOWN:

1. Graphing a function within an arbitrary view window.
2. Finding the zeros of a function.
3. Computing the derivative of a function numerically.
4. Computing the definite integral of a function numerically.

## Distance, Velocity, and Acceleration

$x(t)=$ position function
$v(t)=$ velocity function
$a(t)=$ acceleration function
The derivative of position ( $f t$ ) is velocity ( $f t / s e c$ ); the derivative of velocity $(f t / s e c)$ is acceleration ( $f t / s e c^{2}$ ).

The integral of acceleration $\left(\mathrm{ft} / \mathrm{sec}^{2}\right)$ is velocity $(f t / s e c)$; the integral of velocity $(f t / s e c)$ is position (ft).
Speed is | velocity |
If acceleration and velocity have the same sign, then the speed is increasing..
If the acceleration and velocity have different signs, then the speed is decreasing.

The particle is moving right when velocity is positive and particle is moving left when velocity is negative.

Displacement $=\int_{t_{0}}^{t_{f}} v(t) d t$
Total Distance $=\int_{\text {initial time }}^{\text {final time }}|v(t)| d t$
Average Velocity

$$
=\frac{\text { final position }- \text { initial position }}{\text { total time }}=\frac{\Delta x}{\Delta t}
$$

Accumulation $=x(0)+\int_{t_{0}}^{t_{f}} v(t) d t$

> LOGARITHMS
> Definition:
> $\ln N=p \leftrightarrow e^{p}=N$
$\ln e=1$
$\ln 1=0$
$\ln (M N)=\ln M+\ln N$
$\ln \left(\frac{M}{N}\right)=\ln M-\ln N$
$p \cdot \ln M=\ln M^{p}$

## EXPONENTIAL GROWTH and DECAY:

When you see these words use: $y=C e^{k t}$
" $y$ is a differentiable function of $t$ such that $y>0$ and $y^{\prime}=k y "$
"the rate of change of $y$ is proportional to $y$ "
When solving a differential equation:

1. Separate variables first
2. Integrate
3. Add +C to one side
4. Use initial conditions to find " C "
5. Write the equation if the form of $y=f(x)$

## "PLUS A CONSTANT"

## The Fundamental Theorem of Calculus

$$
\begin{gathered}
\int_{a}^{b} f(x) d x=F(b)-F(a) \\
\quad \text { Where } F^{\prime}(x)=f(x)
\end{gathered}
$$

## Corollary to FTC

$$
\frac{d}{d x} \int_{a}^{g(u)} f(t) d t=f(g(u)) \frac{d u}{d x}
$$

## Mean Value Theorem for Integrals: The Average Value

If the function $f(x)$ is continuous on $[a, b]$ and the first derivative exists on the interval $(a, b)$, then there exists a number $x=c$ on $(a, b)$ such that

$$
f_{\text {avg }}=\frac{1}{b-a} \int_{a}^{b} f(x) d x=\frac{\int_{a}^{b} f(x) d x}{b-a}
$$

This value $f(c)$ is the "average value" of the function on the interval $[a, b]$.

The rectangle has the same area as the shaded region under the curve


Values of Trigonometric Functions for Common Angles

| $\theta$ | $\sin \theta$ | $\cos \theta$ | $\tan \theta$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 |
| $\frac{\pi}{6}$ | $\frac{1}{2}$ | $\frac{\sqrt{3}}{2}$ | $\frac{\sqrt{3}}{3}$ |
| $\frac{\pi}{4}$ | $\frac{\sqrt{2}}{2}$ | $\frac{\sqrt{2}}{2}$ | 1 |
| $\frac{\pi}{3}$ | $\frac{\sqrt{3}}{2}$ | $\frac{1}{2}$ | $\sqrt{3}$ |
| $\frac{\pi}{2}$ | 1 | 0 | $" \infty "$ |
| $\pi$ | 0 | -1 | 0 |

Must know both inverse trig and trig values:
EX. $\tan \frac{\pi}{4}=1$ and $\sin ^{-1}\left(\frac{1}{2}\right)=\frac{\pi}{3}$
ODD and EVEN:
$\sin (-x)=-\sin x$ (odd)
$\cos (-x)=\cos x$ (even)

## Riemann Sums

A Riemann Sum means a rectangular approximation. Approximation means that you DO NOT EVALUATE THE INTEGRAL; you add up the areas of the rectangles.

## Trapezoidal Rule

For uneven intervals, may need to calculate area of one trapezoid at a time and total.
$A_{\text {Trap }}=\frac{1}{2} h\left[b_{1}+b_{2}\right]$
For even intervals:

$$
\int_{a}^{b} f(x) d x=\frac{b-a}{2 n}\left[\begin{array}{c}
y_{0}+2 y_{1}+2 y_{2}+\ldots \\
+2 y_{n-1}+y_{n}
\end{array}\right]
$$

## Trigonometric Identities

## Pythagorean Identities:

$\sin ^{2} \theta+\cos ^{2} \theta=1$
The other two are easy to derive by dividing by $\sin ^{2} \theta$ or $\cos ^{2} \theta$.
$1+\tan ^{2} \theta=\sec ^{2} \theta$
$\cot ^{2} \theta+1=\csc ^{2} \theta$
Double Angle Formulas:
$\sin 2 x=2 \sin x \cos x$
$\cos 2 x=\cos ^{2} x-\sin ^{2} x=1-2 \sin ^{2} x$
Power-Reducing Formulas:
$\cos ^{2} x=\frac{1}{2}(1+\cos 2 x)$
$\sin ^{2} x=\frac{1}{2}(1-\cos 2 x)$
Quotient Identities:
$\tan \theta=\frac{\sin \theta}{\cos \theta} \quad \cot \theta=\frac{\cos \theta}{\sin \theta}$

## Reciprocal Identities:

$\csc x=\frac{1}{\sin x}$ or $\sin x \csc x=1$
$\sec x=\frac{1}{\cos x}$ or $\cos x \sec x=1$
Basic Integrals
$\int d u=u+C$
$\int u^{n} d u=\frac{u^{n+1}}{n+1}+C n \neq-1$
$\int \frac{d u}{u}=\ln |u|+C$
$\int e^{u} d u=e^{u}+C$
$\int a^{u} d u=\frac{a^{u}}{\ln a}+C$
$\int \sin u d u=-\cos u+C$
$\int \cos u d u=\sin u+C$
$\int \tan u d u=-\ln |\cos u+C|$
$\int \cot u d u=\ln |\sin u|+C$
$\int \sec u d u=\ln |\sec u+\tan u|+C$
$\int \sec u \tan u d u=\sec u d u=-\csc u+C$
$\int \csc u d u=-\ln |\csc u+\cot u|+C$
$\int \sec u d u=-\tan u+C$
$\int$
$\square$

## MORE DERIVATIVES:

$$
\begin{array}{rlrl}
\frac{d}{d x}\left[\sin ^{-1} \frac{u}{a}\right] & =\frac{1}{\sqrt{a^{2}-u^{2}}} \frac{d u}{d x} & \frac{d}{d x}\left[\cos ^{-1} x\right] & =\frac{-1}{\sqrt{1-x^{2}}} \\
\frac{d}{d x}\left[\tan ^{-1} \frac{u}{a}\right] & =\frac{a}{a^{2}+u^{2}} \frac{d u}{d x} & \frac{d}{d x}\left[\cot ^{-1} x\right]=\frac{-1}{1+x^{2}} \\
\frac{d}{d x}\left[\sec ^{-1} \frac{u}{a}\right] & =\frac{a}{|u| \sqrt{u^{2}-a^{2}}} \frac{d u}{d x} & \frac{d}{d x}\left[\csc ^{-1} x\right]=\frac{-1}{|x| \sqrt{x^{2}-1}} \\
\frac{d}{d x}\left(a^{u}\right) & =a^{u} \ln a \frac{d u}{d x} & \frac{d}{d x}\left[\log _{a} x\right] & =\frac{1}{x \ln a}
\end{array}
$$

MORE INTEGRALS:

$$
\begin{gathered}
\int \frac{d u}{\sqrt{a^{2}-u^{2}}}=\sin ^{-1} \frac{u}{a}+C \\
\int \frac{d u}{a^{2}+u^{2}}=\frac{1}{a} \tan ^{-1} \frac{u}{a}+C \\
\int \frac{d u}{u \sqrt{u^{2}-a^{2}}}=\frac{1}{a} \sec ^{-1} \frac{|u|}{a}+C
\end{gathered}
$$


$y=x$

$y=x^{2}$


$y=\frac{1}{x}$
$y=\sqrt{x}$

$y=e^{x}$

$y=\ln x$
$y=x^{3}$
$y=|x|$

$y=\sin x$
$y=\cos x$




$y=\frac{1}{x^{2}}$
$y=\sqrt{a^{2}-x^{2}}$

## CREDITS

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