# Formulae Sheet for MTH1030/MTH1035

#### Vectors

Let 
$$\mathbf{u} = (u_1, u_2, \dots, u_n)$$
,  $\mathbf{v} = (v_1, v_2, \dots, v_n)$  and  $\mathbf{w} = (w_1, w_2, \dots, w_n)$ .

Length  $|\mathbf{u}| = \sqrt{u_1^2 + u_2^2 + \dots + u_n^2}$ 

Dot product  $\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{v} = u_1 v_1 + u_2 v_2 + \dots + u_n v_n = |\mathbf{u}| |\mathbf{v}| \cos \theta$ 

Cross product  $(n = 3)$   $\mathbf{u} \times \mathbf{v} = (u_2 v_3 - u_3 v_2, u_3 v_1 - u_1 v_3, u_1 v_2 - u_2 v_1)$ 

Scalar projection  $\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{v} = (\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{v})$ 

Vector projection  $\mathbf{v} = (\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{v})$ 

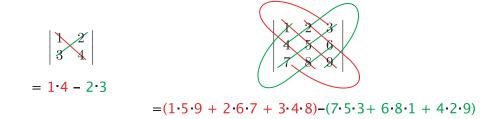
Cauchy-Schwarz inequality  $|\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{v}| \leq |\mathbf{u}| |\mathbf{v}|$  (with equality iff ....)

### Matrices

Not so obvious matrix and determinant identities

$$(AB)^{-1} = B^{-1}A^{-1}$$
$$(AB)^{T} = B^{T}A^{T}$$
$$(A^{T})^{-1} = (A^{-1})^{T}$$
$$(AB)C = A(BC)$$
$$\det(AB) = \det(A)\det(B)$$
$$\det(A^{T}) = \det(A)$$

Calculating determinants of  $2 \times 2$  and  $3 \times 3$  matrices



Calculating the determinant of a matrix A by expanding along row i

$$\det(A) = \sum_{j=1}^{n} a_{i,j} \operatorname{cof}(A)_{i,j},$$

where  $cof(A)_{i,j}$  is the (i, j)th cofactor of A.

The inverse of a  $2 \times 2$  matrix

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix}, A^{-1} = \frac{1}{\det(A)} \begin{pmatrix} d & -b \\ -c & a \end{pmatrix},$$

Calculating the inverse of a matrix via the cofactor matrix

$$A^{-1} = \frac{1}{\det(A)} \operatorname{cof}(A)^{T},$$

where cof(A) is the cofactor matrix of A.

#### Basic 2D rotation

The matrix

$$\left(\begin{array}{cc}
\cos(\theta) & -\sin(\theta) \\
\sin(\theta) & \cos(\theta)
\end{array}\right),$$

rotates points/vectors in  $\mathbf{R}^2$  counterclockwise around the origin through an angle of  $\theta$ .

Characteristic equation of a square matrix A

$$\det(\lambda I - A) = 0$$

## Sequences

#### Squeeze Law

If  $a_n \leq b_n \leq c_n$  for all n and

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} a_n = L = \lim_{n \to \infty} c_n,$$

then

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} b_n = L$$

as well.

#### Series

The sum of a geometric series

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} ar^n = \frac{a}{1-r},$$

for |r| < 1. If  $|r| \ge 1$  and  $a \ne 0$ , then the geometric series diverges.

The p-series

$$\sum_{p=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^p} = 1 + \frac{1}{2^p} + \frac{1}{3^p} + \frac{1}{4^p} + \dots$$

converges for p > 1 and diverges for 0 .

#### nth-term test for divergence

If either

$$\lim_{n\to\infty} a_n \neq 0$$

or this limit does not exist, then the infinite series

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n$$

diverges.

#### Comparison test

Given a convergent series  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$ , and a second series  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} b_n$  such that  $0 \le b_n \le a_n$ , then the second series also converges.

Given a divergent series  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$ , and a second series  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} b_n$  such that  $0 \le a_n \le b_n$ , then the second series also diverges.

#### Integral test and remainder estimate

Let f(x) be a continuous, positive, decreasing function on  $[1, \infty)$  and let  $a_n = f(n)$  for all integers  $n \ge 1$ . Then the series and the improper integral

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n \text{ and } \int_1^{\infty} f(x) dx$$

either both converge or both diverge.

If both converge, then we have the following estimate for  $R_n$ , the difference between the sum of the series and its n-th partial sum:

$$\int_{n+1}^{\infty} f(x)dx \le R_n \le \int_{n}^{\infty} f(x)dx$$

#### Ratio test

Suppose that for all terms of the infinite series  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n$  we have  $a_n \neq 0$  and the limit

$$p = \lim_{n \to \infty} \left| \frac{a_{n+1}}{a_n} \right|$$

exists (finite or infinite). Then the series converges absolutely if p < 1 and diverges if p > 1. If p = 1 the ratio test is inconclusive.

#### Power series

Taylor series at a of a function f(x) that is infinitely often differentiable at a.

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

Maclaurin series of a function f(x) that is infinitely often differentiable at 0.

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

Maclaurin series of some of our favourite functions

$$e^{x} = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{x^{n}}{n!}, x \in \mathbf{R}$$

$$\cos(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^{n} x^{2n}}{(2n)!} = 1 - \frac{x^{2}}{2!} + \frac{x^{4}}{4!} - \frac{x^{6}}{6!} + \dots, x \in \mathbf{R}$$

$$\sin(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^{n} x^{2n+1}}{(2n+1)!} = x - \frac{x^{3}}{3!} + \frac{x^{5}}{5!} - \frac{x^{7}}{7!} + \dots, x \in \mathbf{R}$$

$$\frac{1}{1-x} = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} x^{n}, |x| < 1$$

Euler's formula

$$e^{i\theta} = \cos(\theta) + i\sin(\theta)$$
$$e^{i\pi} + 1 = 0$$

#### Radius of convergence of a power series

If  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n x^n$  is a power series, then either

- 1. The series converges absolutely for all x, or
- 2. The series converges only when x=0, or
- 3. There exists a number R > 0 such that the series converges absolutely if |x| < R and diverges if |x| > R.

In particular, if

$$R = \lim_{n \to \infty} \left| \frac{a_n}{a_{n+1}} \right|$$

exists, then we are dealing with case 1, 2, or 3 depending on whether R is infinite, R = 0 or R is finite  $(\neq 0)$ , respectively.

# Integration by Parts

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

# Differential equations

#### Separation of variables

If a differentiable equation can be written in the form

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = g(x)h(y),$$

then the differentiable equation is said to be separable and (most of) its solutions may be found from

$$\int \frac{dy}{h(y)} = \int g(x)dx.$$

#### General solution of linear 1st-order differential equations

The general solution of

$$y' + P(x)y = Q(x)$$

is

$$y(x) = \frac{1}{I(x)} \left[ \int I(x)Q(x)dx + C \right],$$

where

$$I(x) = e^{\int P(x) dx}.$$

If the functions P(x) and Q(x) are continuous on the open interval I containing the point  $x_0$ , then the initial value problem

$$y' + P(x)y = Q(x), \quad y(x_0) = y_0$$

has a unique solution y(x) on I, given by the above formula with an appropriate value of C.

# General solution of homogeneous linear 2nd-order differential equations with constant coefficients

Given the equation

$$ay'' + by' + cy = 0$$

with constant coefficients a, b and c, first solve the characteristic equation

$$a\lambda^2 + b\lambda + c = 0$$

for  $\lambda$ . Let the two roots be  $\lambda_1$  and  $\lambda_2$ . The general solutions of the differential equation are as follows:

- If  $\lambda_1$ ,  $\lambda_2$  are real and  $\lambda_1 \neq \lambda_2$ , then  $y(x) = Ae^{\lambda_1 x} + Be^{\lambda_2 x}$ .
- If  $\lambda_1, \lambda_2 = \alpha \pm i\beta$ , then  $y(x) = e^{\alpha x} (A\cos\beta x + B\sin\beta x)$ .
- If  $\lambda_1 = \lambda_2 = \lambda$ , then  $y(x) = (A + Bx)e^{\lambda x}$ .