

USEFUL BASIC RESULTS

■ TRIGONOMETRY ■

$$\sin^2 \theta + \cos^2 \theta = 1$$

$$\sec^2 \theta = 1 + \tan^2 \theta$$

$$\operatorname{cosec}^2 \theta = 1 + \cot^2 \theta$$

$$\sin 2\theta = 2 \sin \theta \cos \theta$$

$$\sin 2\theta = \frac{2 \tan \theta}{1 + \tan^2 \theta}$$

$$\cos 2\theta = \cos^2 \theta - \sin^2 \theta \text{ or } 2 \cos^2 \theta - 1$$

$$\cos 2\theta = 1 - 2 \sin^2 \theta$$

$$\cos 2\theta = \frac{1 - \tan^2 \theta}{1 + \tan^2 \theta}$$

$$\tan 2\theta = \frac{2 \tan \theta}{1 - \tan^2 \theta}$$

$$\sin 3\theta = 3 \sin \theta - 4 \sin^3 \theta \Rightarrow \sin^3 \theta = \frac{1}{4} (3 \sin \theta - \sin 3\theta)$$

$$\cos 3\theta = 4 \cos^3 \theta - 3 \cos \theta \Rightarrow \cos^3 \theta = \frac{1}{4} (\cos 3\theta + 3 \cos \theta)$$

$$\tan 3\theta = \frac{3 \tan \theta - \tan^3 \theta}{1 - 3 \tan^2 \theta}$$

$\sin(-\theta) = -\sin \theta$	$\cos(-\theta) = \cos \theta$	$\tan(-\theta) = -\tan \theta$
$\sin(90^\circ - \theta) = \cos \theta$	$\cos(90^\circ - \theta) = \sin \theta$	$\tan(90^\circ - \theta) = \cot \theta$
$\sin(90^\circ + \theta) = \cos \theta$	$\cos(90^\circ + \theta) = -\sin \theta$	$\tan(90^\circ + \theta) = -\cot \theta$
$\sin(180^\circ - \theta) = \sin \theta$	$\cos(180^\circ - \theta) = -\cos \theta$	$\tan(180^\circ - \theta) = -\tan \theta$
$\sin(180^\circ + \theta) = -\sin \theta$	$\cos(180^\circ + \theta) = -\cos \theta$	$\tan(180^\circ + \theta) = \tan \theta$
$\sin(270^\circ - \theta) = -\cos \theta$	$\cos(270^\circ - \theta) = -\sin \theta$	$\tan(270^\circ - \theta) = \cot \theta$
$\sin(270^\circ + \theta) = -\cos \theta$	$\cos(270^\circ + \theta) = \sin \theta$	$\tan(270^\circ + \theta) = -\cot \theta$
$\sin(360^\circ - \theta) = -\sin \theta$	$\cos(360^\circ - \theta) = \cos \theta$	$\tan(360^\circ - \theta) = -\tan \theta$

$$\sin(A + B) = \sin A \cos B + \cos A \sin B$$

$$\sin(A - B) = \sin A \cos B - \cos A \sin B$$

$$\cos(A + B) = \cos A \cos B - \sin A \sin B$$

$$\cos(A - B) = \cos A \cos B + \sin A \sin B$$

$$\tan(A + B) = \frac{\tan A + \tan B}{1 - \tan A \tan B}$$

$$\tan(A - B) = \frac{\tan A - \tan B}{1 + \tan A \tan B}$$

Formulae : Converting product into sum

$$2 \sin A \cos B = \sin (A + B) + \sin (A - B)$$

$$2 \cos A \sin B = \sin (A + B) - \sin (A - B)$$

$$2 \cos A \cos B = \cos (A + B) + \cos (A - B)$$

$$2 \sin A \sin B = \cos (A - B) - \cos (A + B)$$

$$\sin^{-1} (\sin \theta) = \theta$$

$$\cos^{-1} (\cos \theta) = \theta$$

$$\tan^{-1} (\tan \theta) = \theta$$

Formulae : Converting sum or difference into product

$$\sin C + \sin D = 2 \sin \frac{C+D}{2} \cos \frac{C-D}{2}$$

$$\sin C - \sin D = 2 \cos \frac{C+D}{2} \sin \frac{C-D}{2}$$

$$\cos C + \cos D = 2 \cos \frac{C+D}{2} \cos \frac{C-D}{2}$$

$$\cos C - \cos D = -2 \sin \frac{C+D}{2} \sin \frac{C-D}{2}$$

Limits

$$\lim_{\theta \rightarrow 0} \frac{\sin \theta}{\theta} = 1$$

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \left(1 + \frac{1}{x}\right)^x = e$$

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{a^x - 1}{x} = \log_e a$$

Hyperbolic Functions

$$\sinh x = \frac{e^x - e^{-x}}{2} \Rightarrow \sinh 0 = 0$$

$$\cosh x = \frac{e^x + e^{-x}}{2} \Rightarrow \cosh 0 = 1$$

$$\tanh x = \frac{\sinh x}{\cosh x}$$

$$= \frac{e^x - e^{-x}}{e^x + e^{-x}}$$

$$\cosh^2 x - \sinh^2 x = 1$$

■ DIFFERENTIAL CALCULUS ■

$$\frac{d}{dx}(x^n) = nx^{n-1}$$

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

$$\frac{d}{dx}(\cot h x) = -\operatorname{cosec}^2 h x$$

$$\frac{d}{dx}(\operatorname{cosec} h x) = -\operatorname{cosech} x \coth x$$

Rules of Differentiation

1. Product Rule

If $y = uv$, where u and v are functions of x , then

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = u \frac{dv}{dx} + v \frac{du}{dx}$$

2. Quotient Rule

If $y = \frac{Nr}{Dr}$, where Nr and Dr are functions of ' x ' then

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{Dr \frac{d}{dx}(Nr) - Nr \frac{d}{dx}(Dr)}{(Dr)^2}$$

Chapter 1

Matrices

1. **Linear Dependence of Vectors** : A system of vectors X_1, X_2, \dots

X_n is linearly dependent if at least one of the vectors is a linear combination of the remaining vectors of the system otherwise it is called as linearly independent.

i.e., a system of vectors X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n is said to be linearly dependent if there exist scalars $\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \dots, \lambda_n$ at least one of which is non zero, such that $\lambda_1 X_1 + \lambda_2 X_2 + \dots + \lambda_n X_n = 0$ holds

true otherwise the given vectors are linearly independent.

2. Let A be a square matrix. If $|A| \neq 0$ then the given vectors are linearly independent. If $|A| = 0$ it is linearly dependent.

3. **Characteristic equations, Eigenvalues, Eigenvectors and Cayley-Hamilton Theorem.**

(i) Let A be the given square matrix

(ii) Compute $|A - \lambda I| = 0$ where 'I' is the unit matrix.

(iii) $|A - \lambda I| = 0$ is called the characteristic equation (in terms of λ).

(iv) Solve the characteristic equation, values of λ are called as Eigenvalues.

(v) For each Eigenvalue find the corresponding Eigen vectors X which satisfies the equations. $(A - \lambda I) X = 0$

(vi) In the characteristic equation if we put $\lambda = A$ and let I be the unit matrix (if A satisfies its own characteristic equation then Cayley theorem is proved) then the answer is a null matrix which implies Cayley theorem is verified.

4. **The matrix of the quadratic form**

$$X'AX = a_{11}x_1^2 + a_{22}x_2^2 + a_{33}x_3^2 + a_{12}x_1x_2 + a_{13}x_1x_3 + a_{31}x_3x_1$$

is given by

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & a_{13} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & a_{23} \\ a_{31} & a_{32} & a_{33} \end{pmatrix}$$

The elements of A is obtained as follows

In the I Row : a_{11} = Coefficient of x_1^2

$$a_{12} = \frac{1}{2} \text{ coefficient of } x_1x_2$$

$$a_{13} = \frac{1}{2} \text{ coefficient of } x_1 x_3$$

II Row : $a_{21} = \frac{1}{2} \text{ coefficient of } x_1 x_2$

$$a_{22} = \text{Coefficient of } x_2^2$$

$$a_{23} = \frac{1}{2} \text{ coefficient of } x_2 x_3$$

III Row : $a_{31} = \frac{1}{2} \text{ coefficient of } x_1 x_3$

$$a_{32} = \frac{1}{2} \text{ coefficient of } x_2 x_3$$

$$a_{33} = \text{Coefficient of } x_3^2$$

5. Reduction of Q.F. to Canonical form

(i) Find the characteristic equation, Eigenvalues, Eigenvectors of A.

(ii) Corresponding to a Eigenvector find the normalised Eigenvectors

(iii) Find the normalised modal matrix "P" [Each column corresponds to normalised Eigenvector]

(iv) $P' = (P)^T$

(v) Orthogonal transformation : $X = PY$

(vi) $Y' (P' A P) Y$ gives the required quadratic form where

$$Y' = (y_1 \ y_2 \ y_3) \text{ and } Y = \begin{pmatrix} y_1 \\ y_2 \\ y_3 \end{pmatrix}$$

6. Diagonalisation of a Matrix :

(i) For the matrix A find $|A - \lambda I| = 0$

(ii) Find the Eigenvalues, Eigenvectors of A.

(iii) The Eigen vectors corresponding to Eigenvalues are written columnwise and it is denoted by B.

(iv) Find $B^{-1} = \frac{\text{Adj } B}{|B|}$.

(v) $D = B^{-1} A B$

D is called the diagonal matrix.

(vi) $B^{-1} A^n B = D^n$

7. Nature of a Quadratic Form

Let $X'AX$ be the given quadratic form in the variables x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n .

$$\text{i.e., } X'AX = d_1 x_1^2 + d_2 x_2^2 + \dots + d_n x_n^2 \quad \dots (1)$$

Let the rank of A be r .

Then $X'AX$ contains only ' r ' terms.

The number of positive terms in (1) is called the **index** of the quadratic form and it is denoted by ' s '.

The difference between the number of positive terms and the negative terms is called the **signature** of the quadratic form.

$$\begin{aligned} \text{i.e., signature} &= \text{Number of positive terms} - \text{Number of negative terms} \\ &= s - (\text{total no. of terms} - \text{positive terms}) \\ &= s - (\text{rank of } A - s) \\ &= s - (r - s) \end{aligned}$$

$$\therefore \text{signature} = 2s - r,$$

where s - number of positive terms

r - rank of A

Differential Calculus of Several Variables

1. If $u = f(x, y)$ is a function of x and y where $x = f(t)$, $y = g(t)$ then

$$\frac{du}{dt} = \frac{\partial u}{\partial x} \cdot \frac{dx}{dt} + \frac{\partial u}{\partial y} \cdot \frac{dy}{dt}$$

In differential form

$$du = \frac{\partial u}{\partial x} dx + \frac{\partial u}{\partial y} dy$$

du is called the total differential of u .

2. If $u = f(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)$ where x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n are all functions of ' t ' then

$$\frac{du}{dt} = \frac{\partial u}{\partial x_1} \cdot \frac{dx_1}{dt} + \frac{\partial u}{\partial x_2} \cdot \frac{dx_2}{dt} + \dots + \frac{\partial u}{\partial x_n} \cdot \frac{dx_n}{dt}$$

$$du = \frac{\partial u}{\partial x_1} dx_1 + \frac{\partial u}{\partial x_2} dx_2 + \dots + \frac{\partial u}{\partial x_n} dx_n$$

3. If $u = f(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)$ where x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n are all functions of several independent variables t_1, t_2, \dots, t_n then

$$\frac{\partial u}{\partial t_1} = \frac{\partial u}{\partial x_1} \cdot \frac{\partial x_1}{\partial t_1} + \frac{\partial u}{\partial x_2} \cdot \frac{\partial x_2}{\partial t_1} + \dots + \frac{\partial u}{\partial x_n} \cdot \frac{\partial x_n}{\partial t_1}$$

$$\frac{\partial u}{\partial t_2} = \frac{\partial u}{\partial x_1} \cdot \frac{\partial x_1}{\partial t_2} + \frac{\partial u}{\partial x_2} \cdot \frac{\partial x_2}{\partial t_2} + \dots + \frac{\partial u}{\partial x_n} \cdot \frac{\partial x_n}{\partial t_2}$$

4. Let $u = f(x, y) = c$ be a given implicit function of x and y . Then

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = - \left(\frac{\frac{\partial f}{\partial x}}{\frac{\partial f}{\partial y}} \right)$$

5. Taylors Theorem

$$f(x+h, y+k) = f(x, y) + \left(h \frac{\partial}{\partial x} + k \frac{\partial}{\partial y} \right) f + \frac{1}{2!} \left(h^2 \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2} + 2hk \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x \partial y} + k^2 \frac{\partial^2}{\partial y^2} \right) f + \dots$$

Putting $x = a$ and $y = b$, we get

Corollary 1 :

$$f(a+h, b+k) = f(a, b) + [h f_x(a, b) + k f_y(a, b) + \frac{1}{2!} [h^2 f_{xx}(a, b) + 2hk f_{xy}(a, b) + k^2 f_{yy}(a, b)] + \dots$$

Corollary 2 : Putting $a+h = x$ and $b+k = y$ so that $h = x-a$ and $k = y-b$, we get

$$f(x, y) = f(a, b) + [(x-a)f_x(a, b) + (y-b)f_y(a, b)] \\ + \frac{1}{2!} [(x-a)^2 f_{xx}(a, b) + 2(x-a)(y-b)f_{xy}(a, b) \\ + (y-b)^2 f_{yy}(a, b)] + \dots$$

This formula is used to expand $f(x, y)$ in the neighbourhood of (a, b) .

Corollary 3 : Putting $a = 0, b = 0$ in corollary 2, we get

$$f(x, y) = f(0, 0) + [xf_x(0, 0) + yf_y(0, 0)] \\ + \frac{1}{2!} [x^2 f_{xx}(0, 0) + 2xy f_{xy}(0, 0) + y^2 f_{yy}(0, 0)] + \dots$$

This formula is used to expand $f(x, y)$ in powers of x and y [or to expand $f(x, y)$ in the neighbourhood of origin $(0, 0)$.]

6. Rule to find maxima and minima of a function of two variables.

Let $f(x, y)$ be the given function. To find the maximum and minimum values of $f(x, y)$ we have to follow the following rules.

Rule 1 : Find $\frac{\partial f}{\partial x}$ and $\frac{\partial f}{\partial y}$

From the following equations find x and y .

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial x} = 0 ; \quad \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} = 0$$

These values of x and y gives the points at which maxima or minima exists. Let the points be $(a_1, b_1), (a_2, b_2)$, etc.

Rule 2 : Find $\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x^2}$ and $\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial y^2}, \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x \partial y}$

Rule 3 : Calculate the value of $\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x^2}$ and $\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x^2} \cdot \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial y^2} - \left(\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x \partial y}\right)^2$ at each of the points found in **Rule 1**.

Rule 4 : If $\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x^2} < 0$ or $\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial y^2} < 0$ and $\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x^2} \cdot \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial y^2} - \left(\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x \partial y}\right)^2 > 0$,

then ' f ' has a **maximum** and the corresponding value of ' f ' is called the **maximum value**.

Rule 5 : If $\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x^2} > 0$ or $\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial y^2} > 0$ and $\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x^2} \cdot \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial y^2} - \left(\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x \partial y}\right)^2 > 0$,

then ' f ' has a **minimum** and the corresponding value of ' f ' is called the **minimum value**.

Rule 6 : If $\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x^2} \cdot \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial y^2} - \left(\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x \partial y}\right)^2 < 0$,

then we have neither a maximum nor a minimum. Such a point is called a **saddle point**.

Rule 7 : If $\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x^2} \cdot \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial y^2} - \left(\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x \partial y} \right)^2 = 0$

further investigation is required.

7. Constrained Maxima and Minima

Let $u = f(x, y, z)$ be a given function for which the extremum values to be determined subject to the condition (constraint).

$$g(x, y, z) = 0$$

Form the auxiliary function $F(x, y, z)$ given by

$$F(x, y, z) = f(x, y, z) + \lambda g(x, y, z)$$

Find $\frac{\partial F}{\partial x} = 0$

$$\frac{\partial F}{\partial y} = 0$$

$$\frac{\partial F}{\partial z} = 0$$

$$\frac{\partial F}{\partial \lambda} = 0$$

Using these equations we can find x, y, z for which $f(x, y, z)$ can have a conditional extremum.

8. Jacobians

(i) The Jacobian of u, v w.r.t. 'x' and 'y' is given by

$$\frac{\partial(u, v)}{\partial(x, y)} = \begin{vmatrix} \frac{\partial u}{\partial x} & \frac{\partial u}{\partial y} \\ \frac{\partial v}{\partial x} & \frac{\partial v}{\partial y} \end{vmatrix}$$

$$(ii) \quad \frac{\partial(u, v, w)}{\partial(x, y, z)} = \begin{vmatrix} \frac{\partial u}{\partial x} & \frac{\partial u}{\partial y} & \frac{\partial u}{\partial z} \\ \frac{\partial v}{\partial x} & \frac{\partial v}{\partial y} & \frac{\partial v}{\partial z} \\ \frac{\partial w}{\partial x} & \frac{\partial w}{\partial y} & \frac{\partial w}{\partial z} \end{vmatrix}$$

$$(iii) \quad \frac{\partial(u, v)}{\partial(x, y)} \times \frac{\partial(x, y)}{\partial(u, v)} = 1$$

$$(iv) \quad \frac{\partial(u, v)}{\partial(x, y)} = \frac{\partial(u, v)}{\partial(r, s)} \times \frac{\partial(r, s)}{\partial(x, y)}$$

Applications of Differential Calculus

1. The radius of curvature of the curve $y = f(x)$ is given by

$$\rho = \frac{\left\{1 + \left(\frac{dy}{dx}\right)^2\right\}^{\frac{3}{2}}}{\frac{d^2y}{dx^2}} \quad (\text{in Cartesian form})$$

when $\frac{dy}{dx} = \infty$, then $\rho = \frac{\left\{1 + \left(\frac{dx}{dy}\right)^2\right\}^{\frac{3}{2}}}{\frac{d^2x}{dy^2}} \quad (\text{in Cartesian form})$

2. The radius of curvature of the curve $x = f(\theta)$ and $y = g(\theta)$ is given by

$$\rho = \frac{\{f'^2 + g'^2\}^{\frac{3}{2}}}{f'g'' - g'f''} \quad (\text{in Parametric form})$$

where

$$\begin{array}{l|l} f' = \frac{df}{d\theta} & f'' = \frac{d^2f}{d\theta^2} \\ g' = \frac{dg}{d\theta} & g'' = \frac{d^2g}{d\theta^2} \end{array}$$

3. The radius of curvature of the curve $r = f(\theta)$ is given by

$$r = \frac{\{r^2 + r_1^2\}^{\frac{3}{2}}}{r^2 + 2r_1^2 - rr_2} \quad (\text{Polar form})$$

where

$$\begin{array}{l} r_1 = \frac{dr}{d\theta} \\ r_2 = \frac{d^2r}{d\theta^2} \end{array}$$

4. The centre of curvature (\bar{X}, \bar{Y}) is given by

$$\bar{X} = x - \frac{\frac{dy}{dx} \left\{1 + \left(\frac{dy}{dx}\right)^2\right\}}{\frac{d^2y}{dx^2}}$$

$$\bar{Y} = y - \left\{ \frac{1 + \left(\frac{dy}{dx}\right)^2}{\frac{d^2y}{dx^2}} \right\}$$

5. The Equation of circle of curvature whose centre is (\bar{X}, \bar{Y}) and radius is equal to the radius of curvature is given by

$$(x - \bar{X})^2 + (y - \bar{Y})^2 = \rho^2$$

6. The parametric equation of some standard curves

Curve	Parametric form
(i) $y^2 = 4ax$	(Parabola) $x = at^2$, $y = 2at$
(ii) $\frac{x^2}{a^2} + \frac{y^2}{b^2} = 1$	(Ellipse) $x = a \cos \theta$, $y = b \sin \theta$
(iii) $\frac{x^2}{a^2} - \frac{y^2}{b^2} = 1$	(Hyperbola) $x = a \sec \theta$, $y = b \tan \theta$
(iv) $x^{2/3} + y^{2/3} = a^{2/3}$	$x = a \cos^3 \theta$, $y = a \sin^3 \theta$
(v) $xy = c^2$	(Rectangular hyperbola) $x = ct$, $y = \frac{c}{t}$

EVOLUTE

The locus 'C' of the centre of curvature for a curve 'C' is called the **Evolute**.

To find the Evolute of a given curve

- Find the centre of curvature (\bar{X}, \bar{Y}) of the given curve.
- Eliminate the parameter from \bar{X} and \bar{Y} .
- The locus of \bar{X} and \bar{Y} is called the evolute of the given curve.

ENVELOPES

- I. *To find the envelope of the given family of curves* $F(x, y, \alpha) = 0$

Let the

(i) Given family of curves be $F(x, y, \alpha) = 0$... (1)

(ii) Partially differentiating (1) w.r.t.. ' α ' we get

$$\frac{\partial F(x, y, \alpha)}{\partial \alpha} = 0 \quad \dots (2)$$

From (1) and (2) eliminate the parameter ' α '. The eliminant is called the envelope of the given family of curves.

- II. When the parameter ' α ' in $F(x, y, \alpha) = 0$ is in quadratic of the form $A\alpha^2 + B\alpha + C = 0$ then the envelope is given by $B^2 - 4AC = 0$.

Sequences and Series

$$1. (a) \quad (1+x)^n = 1 + nx + \frac{n(n-1)}{2!}x^2 + \frac{n(n-1)(n-2)}{3!}x^3 + \dots$$

$$(b) \quad (1+x)^{-1} = 1 - x + x^2 - x^3 + \dots$$

$$(c) \quad (1-x)^{-1} = 1 + x + x^2 + x^3 + \dots$$

$$2. \quad (1+x)^{\frac{p}{q}} = 1 + \frac{\frac{p}{q}}{1}x + \frac{\frac{p}{q}\left(\frac{p}{q}-1\right)}{2!}x^2 + \frac{\frac{p}{q}\left(\frac{p}{q}-1\right)\left(\frac{p}{q}-2\right)}{3!}x^3 + \dots$$

$$3. \quad \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (u_n + v_n) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} u_n + \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} v_n$$

$$4. \quad \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (u_n - v_n) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} u_n - \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} v_n$$

$$5. \quad \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} C u_n = C \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} u_n, \quad C \text{ is a constant}$$

$$6. \quad \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (u_n \cdot v_n) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} u_n \cdot \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} v_n$$

$$7. \quad \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{u_n}{v_n} = \frac{\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} u_n}{\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} v_n}$$

$$8. \quad \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left(1 + \frac{1}{n}\right)^n = e \quad (e = 2.71)$$

$$9. \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left(1 + \frac{2}{n}\right)^n = e^2$$

$$10. \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left(1 + \frac{1}{n}\right)^{n+1} = e$$

$$11. \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left(1 + \frac{1}{n+1}\right)^n = e$$

$$12. \log \left(\frac{m}{n}\right) = \log m - \log n$$

$$13. \log m^n = n \log m$$

$$14. \log mn = \log m + \log n$$

$$15. \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{K}{n} = 0 \quad (K \text{ is a constant})$$

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{K}{n^2} = 0$$

$$16. \log(1+x) = x - \frac{x^2}{2} + \frac{x^3}{3} - \frac{x^4}{4} + \dots$$

$$17. (a) n! = n(n-1)(n-2) \dots 1$$

$$(b) (n+1)! = (n+1)n(n-1)(n-2) \dots 1$$

$$18. (a) \log \infty = \infty$$

$$(b) \log 1 = 0$$

$$(c) \log_e e = 1$$

1. COMPARISON TEST (Only for series with positive terms)

Consider the two positive term series

$$\sum u_n = u_1 + u_2 + \dots + u_n + \dots$$

$$\sum v_n = v_1 + v_2 + \dots + v_n + \dots$$

(i) If $u_n \leq v_n$ for every n and $\sum v_n$ converges then $\sum u_n$ also converges.

(ii) If $u_n \geq v_n$ for every n and $\sum v_n$ converges then $\sum u_n$ also converges.

(iii) **Limit form :**

If $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{u_n}{v_n} = \text{a finite quantity}$ then the series $\sum u_n$ and $\sum v_n$

either both converge or both diverge together.

2. INTEGRAL TEST

Theorem:

$$\text{Let } \sum u_n = u_1 + u_2 + \dots + u_n + \dots \quad \dots (1)$$

be a series with positive and decreasing terms.

$$u_1 \geq u_2 \geq u_3 \geq \dots$$

Let f be a non-negative decreasing function in $[1, \infty)$ such that

$$f(1) = u_1, f(2) = u_2, f(3) = u_3, \dots, f(n) = u_n \quad \dots (2)$$

Then the improper integral

$$\int_1^{\infty} f(x) dx \text{ and the series } \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} u_n \quad \dots (3)$$

are both finite (in this case $\sum u_n$ is convergent) or both infinite (in this case $\sum u_n$ is divergent).

3. D' ALEMBERT'S RATIO TEST

In a series with positive terms $u_1 + u_2 + u_3 + \dots + u_n + \dots$

if (i) $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{u_{n+1}}{u_n} < 1$, then the series is convergent.

(ii) $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{u_{n+1}}{u_n} > 1$, then the series is divergent.

(iii) $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{u_{n+1}}{u_n} = 1$, the test fails and in this case we can use comparison test.

4. LEIBNITZ THEOREM

If in the alternating series

$$u_1 - u_2 + u_3 - u_4 + u_5 - \dots (u_n > 0) \quad \dots (1)$$

the terms are such that

(i) $u_1 > u_2 > u_3 > \dots$ (numerically)

and (ii) $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} u_n = 0$

then the given series is convergent.

Note : If $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} u_n \neq 0$, then the series is oscillatory.

□ ABSOLUTE CONVERGENCE

The alternating series $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} u_n$ is said to be absolutely convergent if

the series $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} |u_n|$ is convergent.

□ CONDITIONAL CONVERGENCE

Let $u_n = u_1 - u_2 + u_3 - u_4 + \dots$

If $\sum u_n$ is convergent while $\sum |u_n|$ is divergent then $\sum u_n$ is said to be conditionally convergent.