1 Trigonometric Identities

1.1 Double-Angle Formulas

You can use the formula for $\cos(2x)$ with the identity $\sin^2 x + \cos^2 x = 1$ to produce other useful formulas.

$$\sin(2x) = 2\sin(x)\cos(x)$$
$$\cos(2x) = \cos^2(x) - \sin^2(x) \qquad \text{**}$$
$$= \cos^2(x) - (1 - \cos^2(x))$$
$$= 2\cos^2(x) - 1 \qquad \text{**}$$
$$\cos(2x) = \cos^2(x) - \sin^2(x)$$
$$= (1 - \sin^2(x)) - \sin^2(x)$$
$$= 1 - 2\sin^2(x) \qquad \text{**}$$

1.2 Half-Angle Formulas

You can then use the double-angle formulas to derive the following.
These are the ones most useful for integral calculus.
Memorizing the original double-angle formulas allows one to derive these easily.

$$\cos^2(x) = \frac{1 + \cos(2x)}{2}$$
$$\sin^2(x) = \frac{1 - \cos(2x)}{2}$$

2 Limits

2.1 e

The function e is defined as a continuous, differentiable function $f(x)$ that satisfies $f'(x) = f(x)$ for all x and $f(0) = 1$.

$$e = \lim_{n \to 0} (1 + n)^{\frac{1}{n}}$$

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

3   Integrals

3.1   Improper Integral Summary

Integral	$p \leq 1$	$p > 1$	Value
$\displaystyle\int_0^1 \frac{1}{x^p}$	divergent	convergent	$\dfrac{1}{1-p}$
$\displaystyle\int_1^\infty \frac{1}{x^p}$	divergent	convergent	$\dfrac{1}{p-1}$

3.2   Comparison Theorem

If f and g are continuous and $f(x) \geq g(x) \geq 0$ for $x \geq a$ (there is some a where f is now always larger than g) then,

If $\int_a^\infty f(x)dx$ is convergent then the "smaller" integral $\int_a^\infty g(x)dx$ must be convergent too.

If $\int_a^\infty g(x)dx$ is divergent then the "larger" integral $\int_a^\infty f(x)dx$ must be divergent too.

4   Sequences

4.1   Precise Limit Definition

Say we have an arbitrary number $\epsilon > 0$ as a "tolerance band" from the limit L. Assume the sequence converges. There will be some integer N where every $n > N$ holds $|a_n - L| < \epsilon$.

This allows subsequent terms in the sequence to oscillate around the limit L, so long as they remain in our tolerance band ϵ.

4.2   Convergence

A sequence is convergent if:

- Its limit exists.

- We can make a_n closer and closer to L by increasing n.

4.3 Limit Theorems

- If $\lim_{x \to \infty} f(x) = L$ and $f(n) = a_n$ when n is an integer, then the sequence has the same limit. Essentially, if a function has the same value as the sequence for every integer, then its limit is the same.

- Given an arbitrary value, there will be a number N where every $a_n, n > N$ is larger than the arbitrary value, if the sequence diverges to infinity.

- $\lim_{n \to \infty} a_n^p = [\lim_{n \to \infty} a_n]^p$ if $p > 0$ and $a_n > 0$

- $\lim_{n \to \infty} |a_n| = 0$ then $\lim_{n \to \infty} a_n = 0$. If the limit of the absolute terms of the sequence is 0, then the limit of the terms is 0.

- If the terms of a convergent sequence ($\lim a_n = L$) are applied to a continuous function, then the result is convergent too.

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} f(a_n) = f(L)$$

4.4 Squeeze Theorem

If $a_n \leq b_n \leq c_n$ for $n \geq n_0$ and

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

then

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

4.5 r^n sequences

Sequences defined as r^n are convergent if $-1 < r \leq 1$.

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} r^n = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } -1 < r < 1 \\ 1 & \text{if } r = 1 \end{cases}$$

4.6 Monotonic Sequence Theorem

Every bounded, monotonic sequence is convergent.

5 Series

5.1 Definition

A series is simply the sum of terms in a sequence.

An infinite series (often simply just called a "sum" or "series") is what we get when we sum an infinite number of terms in a sequence.

A partial sum is what we get when we sum a finite number of terms in a sequence, s_3 for a_n is the sum of $a_1, a_2,$ and a_3.

A series s_n forms its own sequence s_n.

As we increase n in s_n we get closer and closer to the limit—the infinite sum—of the series.

$$s_n = \sum_{i=1}^{n} a_i = a_1 + a_2 + \cdots + a_n$$

$$s = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n = a_1 + a_2 + \cdots + a_n + \ldots$$

5.2 Example

Take the sequence $a_n = \frac{1}{2^n}$.

This gives us $a_1 = \frac{1}{2}, a_2 = \frac{1}{4}$, etc. . . .

s_2 would then be $a_1 + a_2 = \frac{3}{4}$.

This forms a sequence from the series, $\frac{1}{2}, \frac{3}{4}, \frac{7}{8}, \ldots$.

This sequence converges on 1 the more terms we add.

This is the infinite sum.

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

The sum of a series is $s = \lim_{n \to \infty} s_n$.

The series will be divergent—and not have a sum—if the sequence s_n diverges.

5.3 Geometric Series

A geometric series occurs when each term of the sequence is multiplied by the preceding one by a common ratio.

$$a \neq 0 \quad \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} ar^{n-1} = a + ar + ar^2 + ar^3 + \cdots + ar^{n-1} + \ldots$$

This series is convergent if $|r| < 1$.

The partial sum is defined by the following.

$$s_n = \frac{a(1 - r^n)}{1 - r}$$

The sum of a convergent geometric series is defined by the following.

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

5.4 Test for Divergence

If the series is convergent then the limit of a_n will be 0.

However, we cannot conclude that a series if convergent just because a_n has a limit of 0.

$$\text{If } \sum a_n \text{ converges, then } \lim_{n \to \infty} a_n = 0$$

Even though we cannot make conclusions about the series being convergent, we can check if the series is divergent.

$$\sum a_n \text{ divergent if } \lim_{n \to \infty} a_n \neq 0 \text{ or the limit does not exist.}$$

5.5 Integral Test

If f is continuous, positive, and decreasing on $[1, \infty)$ then let $a_n = f(n)$.

$$\text{If } \int_1^\infty f(x)dx \text{ is convergent, then } \sum_{n=1}^\infty a_n \text{ is convergent.}$$

$$\text{If } \int_1^\infty f(x)dx \text{ is divergent, then } \sum_{n=1}^\infty a_n \text{ is divergent.}$$

5.6 p-series Test

$$\sum_{n=1}^\infty \frac{1}{n^p} \text{ is convergent if } p > 1 \text{ and divergent if } p \leq 1.$$

5.7 Error with the Integral Test

Estimating an infinite sum with a finite number of terms yields a remainder $R_n = s - s_n$.

This remainder is our error.

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

$$s_n + \int_{n+1}^\infty f(x)dx \leq s \leq s_n + \int_n^\infty f(x)dx$$

5.8 Comparison Tests

If $a_n \leq b_n$ for all n, then $\sum a_n$ will be convergent if $\sum b_n$ is convergent.

If $a_n \geq b_n$ for all n, then $\sum a_n$ will be divergent if $\sum b_n$ is divergent.

Essentially, if a bigger series is convergent, then smaller series must be as well.

If a smaller series is divergent, then larger series must be as well.

5.9 Limit Comparison Test $(c > 0)$

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{a_n}{b_n} = c > 0$$

If this holds $(c > 0)$ then either both $\sum a_n$ and $\sum b_n$ converge, or they both diverge.

5.10 Alternating Series Test

An alternating series is one defined by the following.

$$\sum (-1)^{n-1} b_n \quad b_n > 0$$

If the following are satisfied then the series will be convergent.

- $b_{n+1} \leq b_n$ for all n

- $\lim_{n \to \infty} b_n = 0$

5.11 Alternating Series Estimation Theorem

If the Alternating Series Test is satisfied then the following holds.

$$|R_n| = |s - s_n| \leq b_{n+1}$$

This lets us find a desired error by simply computing a value in the sequence.
How many terms are needed to estimate the sum $\sum \frac{(-1)^n}{n^6}$ such that $|\text{error}| < 0.00005$?

$$|\text{error}| \leq b_{n+1} < \frac{1}{20000}$$
$$(n + 1)^6 > 20000$$
$$(5 + 1)^6 > 20000$$
$$6^6 > 20000$$
$$b_6 > 20000$$

The sixth term is less than the desired error.
Adding the sixth term will not yield more than our desired accuracy.
This means we need five terms to yield a sum with the desired accuracy.

5.12 Error

$$0.00005 = \frac{1}{20,000}$$

$$0.00001 = \frac{1}{100,000}$$

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$$0.01 = \frac{1}{100}$$

$$0.02 = \frac{1}{50}$$

$$0.05 = \frac{1}{20}$$

5.13 Absolute and Conditional Convergence

A series is absolutely convergent if $\sum |a_n|$ is convergent.

A series is convergent if it is absolutely convergent.

A series is conditionally convergent if $\sum a_n$ is convergent but not $\sum |a_n|$.

5.14 Ratio and Ratio Test

Take a series $\sum a_n$.

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} \left| \frac{a_{n+1}}{a_n} \right| = L \quad \text{or} \quad \lim_{n \to \infty} \sqrt[n]{|a_n|} = L$$

If $L < 1$ then the series is absolutely convergent.

If $L > 1$ or $L = \infty$ then the series is divergent.

If $L = 1$ then the nothing about the series can be concluded.