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.

$$\sin(2x) = 2\sin(x)\cos(x)$$

$$\cos(2x) = \cos^2(x) - \sin^2(x)$$

$$= \cos^2(x) - (1 - \cos^2(x))$$

$$= 2\cos^2(x) - 1$$

$$\cos(2x) = \cos^2(x) - \sin^2(x)$$

$$= (1 - \sin^2(x)) - \sin^2(x)$$

$$= 1 - 2\sin^2(x)$$
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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 $p \le 1$ p > 1 Value

$$\int_0^1 \frac{1}{x^p} \quad \text{divergent convergent} \quad \frac{1}{1-p}$$

$$\int_{1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{x^{p}} \quad \text{divergent} \quad \text{convergent} \quad \frac{1}{p-1}$$

3.2 Comparison Theorem

If f and g are continuous and $f(x) \ge g(x) \ge 0$ for $x \ge a$ (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 $-1 < r \le 1$.

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

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.

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

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

Suppose $\sum a_n = 3$ and s_n is the *n*th partial sum of the series.

Since $\sum a_n$ converges on 3, $\lim_{n\to\infty} a_n = 0$ must be true.

This is a fundamental theorem, if a series is convergent then the limit of its sequence is 0.

However, this does not mean that if the limit of a sequence is 0 that its series is convergent.

Since $\sum a_n$ converges on 3, $\lim_{n\to\infty} s_n = 3$.

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, $\frac{1}{2}, \frac{3}{4}, \frac{7}{8}, \dots$

This sequence converges on 1 the more terms we add.

This is the infinite sum.

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

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.

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

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 Sum and Difference Theorem

The following are all convergent series if $\sum a_n$ and $\sum b_n$ are both convergent.

- $\sum ca_n = c \sum a_n$
- $\sum (a_n + b_n) = \sum a_n + \sum b_n$
- $\sum (a_n b_n) = \sum a_n \sum b_n$

If $\sum a_n$ was convergent and $\sum b_n$ was divergent, you could use this theorem to show the divergence of $\sum (a_n + b_n)$. By the theorem, $\sum (a_n + b_n) - a_n$ would be convergent if both $\sum a_n$ and $\sum b_n$ were. This is equal to just $\sum b_n$. However, since we know $\sum b_n$ is divergent, $\sum (a_n + b_n)$ must also be divergent.

If we were given a power series $\sum (c_n + d_n)x^n$ and told that told that $\sum c_n x^n$ has a radius of convergence 2 and that $\sum d_n x^n$ has a radius of covergent 3, we can determine the radius of convergence for the whole series.

 $\sum c_n x^n$ only converges if |x| < 2 and $\sum d_n x^n$ only converges if |x| < 3. We know from this theorem that both series must converge for the sum to be convergent. Thus $\sum (c_n + d_n) x^n$ is convergent for |x| < 2 and has a radius of convergence 2.

5.5 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.

If
$$\sum a_n$$
 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.

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

5.6 Integral Test

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

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

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

5.7 p-series Test

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

5.8 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.

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

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

5.9 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.

5.10 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.

5.11 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.

- $b_{n+1} \le b_n$ for all n
- $\lim_{n\to\infty} b_n = 0$

5.12 Alternating Series Estimation Theorem

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

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

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 |error| < 0.00005?

$$|\text{error}| \le b_{n+1} < \frac{1}{20000}$$

 $(n+1)^6 > 20000$
 $(5+1)^6 > 20000$
 $6^6 > 20000$
 $b_6 > 20000$

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.

5.13 Error

$$0.00005 = \frac{1}{20,000}$$
$$0.00001 = \frac{1}{100,000}$$
$$0.01 = \frac{1}{100}$$
$$0.02 = \frac{1}{50}$$
$$0.05 = \frac{1}{20}$$

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5.14 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 $\sum |a_n|$.

5.15 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.

5.16 Product of Convergent Series

If two series are divergent, their product is not necessarily divergent.

$$a_n = b_n = \frac{(-1)^n}{\sqrt{n}}$$
$$a_n b_n = \frac{1}{n}$$

 $\sum a_n$ and $\sum b_n$ are convergent by the alternating series test. $\sum a_n b_n$ is divergent.