

# 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.

$$\begin{aligned}\sin(2x) &= 2 \sin(x) \cos(x) \\ \cos(2x) &= \cos^2(x) - \sin^2(x) && ** \\ &= \cos^2(x) - (1 - \cos^2(x)) \\ &= 2 \cos^2(x) - 1 && ** \\ \cos(2x) &= \cos^2(x) - \sin^2(x) \\ &= (1 - \sin^2(x)) - \sin^2(x) \\ &= 1 - 2 \sin^2(x) && **\end{aligned}$$

## 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.

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

# 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  $f(0) = 1$ .

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

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

## 3 Integrals

### 3.1 Improper Integral Summary

Integral	$p \leq 1$	$p > 1$	Value
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$\int_0^1 \frac{1}{x^p}$	divergent	convergent	$\frac{1}{1-p}$
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$\int_1^\infty \frac{1}{x^p}$	divergent	convergent	$\frac{1}{p-1}$
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### 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  $\epsilon$ .

### 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  $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} f(x) = L$  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.
- $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n^p = [\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n]^p$  if  $p > 0$  and  $a_n > 0$
- $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} |a_n| = 0$  then  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = 0$ . 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.

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

## 4.4 Squeeze Theorem

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

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

then

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

## 4.5 $r^n$ sequences

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

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

## 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.

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

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

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

Since  $\sum a_n$  converges on 3,  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = 0$  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,  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} s_n = 3$ .

## 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.

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

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

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.

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

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  $\sum c_n x^n$  has a radius of convergence 2 and that  $\sum d_n x^n$  has a radius of convergence 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 is convergent just because  $a_n$  has a limit of 0.

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

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

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

## 5.6 Integral Test

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

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

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  $p \leq 1$ .

## 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.

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

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

## 5.9 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 ( $c > 0$ )

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

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.

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

## 5.12 Alternating Series Estimation Theorem

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

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

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.

## 5.13 Error

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

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

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

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

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

## 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  $\sum a_n$ .

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

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.