

# Calc 2 Final Formula

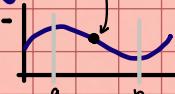
## Unit 1 - 5.5, 5.6, 6.1 - 6.4

**U-Substitution** -  $\int f(g(x))g'(x)dx = \int f(u)du = F(u) + C$   
 - where  $u = g(x)$  and  $du = g'(x)$

**Area Under Curve** -  $\int_a^b f(x)dx$

- under the x axis makes sign neg
- use symmetry

**Average Value** -  $\frac{1}{b-a} \int_a^b f(x)dx$



**Disk Method** -  $\pi \int_a^b R(x)^2 dx$

- distance between function and axis

**Shell Method** -  $2\pi \int_a^b x h dx$

- $r = x$ ; usually leave it like that
- $h = \text{height}$ ; usually the equation
- bounds are like width.

**SA of Straight Line** -  $\int_a^b 2\pi \text{radius}_{\text{avg}} \text{length} dx$

**Area Between Curves** -  $\int_a^b [f(x) - g(x)]dx$

- if not given bounds set equations equal
- for horizontal; solve in terms of y and bounds also have to be in y.

**Volume Using Cross Sections** -  $V = \int_a^b A(x)dx$

- Cylinder  $\rightarrow$  Area of circle
- Square Pyramid  $\rightarrow$  Area of square

**Washer Method** -  $\int_a^b \pi R^2 - \pi r^2 dx$

- $R = \text{big radius}$ ;  $r = \text{small radius}$ . One radius is usually constant but the other depends on x

**Arc Length** -  $\int_a^b \sqrt{1+(f'(x))^2} dx$

**SA Curved Line** -  $\int_a^b 2\pi f(x) \sqrt{1+(f'(x))^2} dx$

## Unit 2 - 8.2-8.4, 8.8, 10.1

**Integration by Parts** -  $\int u dv = uv - \int v du$

- u to du; derivative: Choose u using

Log Inverse Trig Algebraic Trig Exponential

- dv to v; integral: Most likely the more complicated f(x).

**Trig Integrals** -  $\int \sin^m x \cos^n x dx$

**Products and (some) Quotients of Trig Functions**

For  $\int \sin^n x \cos^m x dx$  we have the following:

- n odd.** Strip 1 sine out and convert rest to cosines using  $\sin^2 x = 1 - \cos^2 x$ , then use the substitution  $u = \cos x$ .
- m odd.** Strip 1 cosine out and convert rest to sines using  $\cos^2 x = 1 - \sin^2 x$ , then use the substitution  $u = \sin x$ .
- n and m both odd.** Use either 1. or 2.
- n and m both even.** Use double angle and/or half angle formulas to reduce the integral into a form that can be integrated.

**Trig Formulas:**  $\sin(2x) = 2\sin(x)\cos(x)$ ,  $\cos^2(x) = \frac{1}{2}(1 + \cos(2x))$ ,  $\sin^2(x) = \frac{1}{2}(1 - \cos(2x))$

**Ex.**  $\int \tan^3 x \sec^5 x dx$

$$\begin{aligned} \int \tan^3 x \sec^5 x dx &= \int \tan^2 x \sec^4 x \tan x \sec x dx \\ &= \int (\sec^2 x - 1) \sec^4 x \tan x \sec x dx \\ &= \int (u^2 - 1) u^4 du \quad (u = \sec x) \\ &= \frac{1}{7} \sec^7 x - \frac{1}{5} \sec^5 x + C \end{aligned}$$

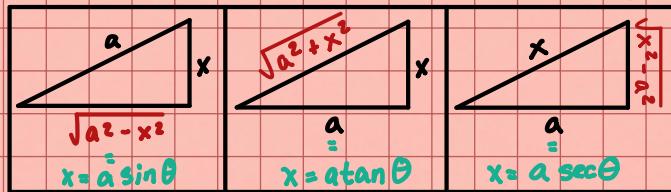
**Ex.**  $\int \frac{\sin^5 x}{\cos^3 x} dx$

$$\begin{aligned} \int \frac{\sin^4 x \sin x}{\cos^3 x} dx &= \int \frac{(\sin^2 x)^2 \sin x}{\cos^3 x} dx \\ &= \int \frac{(1-\cos^2 x)^2 \sin x}{\cos^3 x} dx \quad (u = \cos x) \\ &= -\int \frac{(1-u^2)^2}{u^3} du = -\int \frac{1-2u^2+u^4}{u^3} du \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \sec^2 x + 2 \ln |\cos x| - \frac{1}{2} \cos^2 x + C \end{aligned}$$

**For products of trig f(x)**

- $\sin mx \sin nx = \frac{1}{2} [\cos(m-n)x - \cos(m+n)x]$
- $\sin mx \cos nx = \frac{1}{2} [\sin(m-n)x + \sin(m+n)x]$
- $\cos mx \cos nx = \frac{1}{2} [\cos(m-n)x + \cos(m+n)x]$

- Trig Sub**
1. Write down sub, calculate dx and specify θ
  2. sub expression and dx into ∫ and simplify
  3. Integrate - Keep in mind θ restrictions
  4. Draw a reference Δ to reverse the sub to original x



**Improper Integrals** - 2 types

1. integrals with infinite limits.

If  $f(x)$  is continuous on  $[a, \infty)$ , then

$$\int_a^\infty f(x) dx = \lim_{b \rightarrow \infty} \int_a^b f(x) dx.$$

If  $f(x)$  is continuous on  $(-\infty, b]$ , then

$$\int_{-\infty}^b f(x) dx = \lim_{a \rightarrow -\infty} \int_a^b f(x) dx.$$

If  $f(x)$  is continuous on  $(-\infty, \infty)$ , then

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x) dx = \int_{-\infty}^c f(x) dx + \int_c^{\infty} f(x) dx,$$

where c is any real number.

if the lim DNE or is  $\infty \rightarrow$  diverges

if it has a value  $\rightarrow$  converges.

2. functions that become infinite at a point

If  $f(x)$  is continuous on  $(a, b]$  and discontinuous at a, then

$$\int_a^b f(x) dx = \lim_{c \rightarrow a^+} \int_c^b f(x) dx.$$

If  $f(x)$  is continuous on  $[a, b)$  and discontinuous at b, then

$$\int_a^b f(x) dx = \lim_{c \rightarrow b^-} \int_a^c f(x) dx.$$

If  $f(x)$  is discontinuous at c, where  $a < c < b$ , and continuous on  $[a, c) \cup (c, b]$ , then

$$\int_a^b f(x) dx = \int_a^c f(x) dx + \int_c^b f(x) dx.$$

**Sequences** - a list of numbers given in a specific order. Each  $a_n$  represents the  $n$ -th term.  $n$  is called an index. We sometimes give a sequence using its rules.  $\{a_n\} = \{\sqrt{n}\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$ .

**$a_n$  Converges if  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = L$**

- if it does give a number  $L$ ; it converges and converges to that point.

if  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = \pm \infty$ ;  $a_n$ 's get larger and larger or smaller and smaller without a bound.

- the sequence might also oscillate; goes from ex.  $-1, 1, -1, 1, -1, \dots$  this means it just diverges.

**Sandwich Theorem**; if  $a_n \leq b_n \leq c_n$  for all  $n$  and  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty}$  of  $a_n$  and  $c_n$  converges to the same limit,  $b_n$  also must converge to that.

## Unit 3: 10.2 - 10.6

**Infinite Series** - the sum of a  $\infty$  sequence

$$a_1 + a_2 + a_3 + a_4 + a_5 + \dots + a_n + \dots$$

**Partial Sums** -  $S_n = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$

the partial sums form a sequence

- if the sequence of partial sums converges to  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} S_n = S$ ; the series converges and the sum is  $S$ . If the  $\lim$  DNE the series diverges and if it  $\lim$  is  $\infty$  it diverges to  $\infty$

### nth Term Test

### Geometric Series

### P-Series Test

$$\text{Series: } \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$$

Condition(s) of Convergence:

None.

Cant show convergence

Condition(s) of Divergence:

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

$$\text{Series: } \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} ar^n$$

Condition of Convergence:

$$|r| < 1$$

$$\text{Sum: } S = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{a(1-r^n)}{1-r} = \frac{a}{1-r}$$

Condition of Divergence:

$$|r| \geq 1$$

$$\text{Series: } \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^p}$$

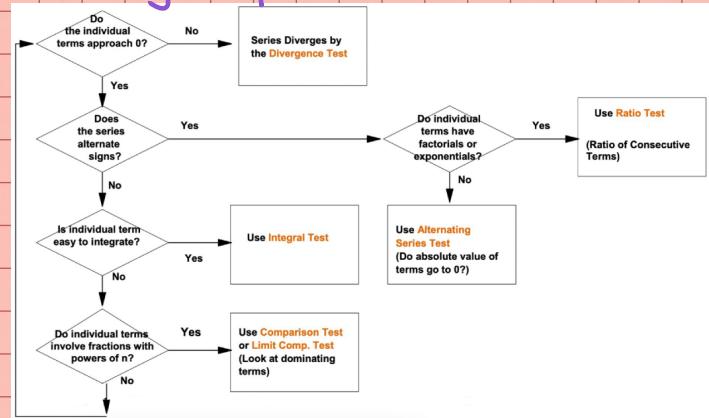
Condition of Convergence:

$$p > 1$$

Condition of Divergence:

$$p \leq 1$$

### Choosing Comparison Tests



### Integral Test

Series:  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$   
when  $a_n = f(n) \geq 0$   
and  $f(n)$  is continuous, positive and decreasing

Condition of Convergence:  
 $\int_1^{\infty} f(x) dx$  converges  
↳ then  $\Sigma$  converges

Condition of Divergence:  
 $\int_1^{\infty} f(x) dx$  diverges  
↳ then  $\Sigma$  diverges

\* Remainder:  $0 < R_N \leq \int_N^{\infty} f(x) dx$

### Direct Comparison

$$\text{Series: } \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$$

Condition of Convergence:  
 $0 < a_n \leq b_n$   
and  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} b_n$  is absolutely convergent

Condition of Divergence:  
 $0 < b_n \leq a_n$   
and  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} b_n$  diverges

### Limit Comparison

$$\text{Series: } \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$$

Condition of Convergence:  
 $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{a_n}{b_n} = L > 0$   
and  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} b_n$  converges

Condition of Divergence:  
 $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{a_n}{b_n} = L > 0$   
and  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} b_n$  diverges

### Ratio Test

$$\text{Series: } \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$$

Condition of Convergence:  
 $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{a_{n+1}}{a_n} \right| < 1$

Condition of Divergence:  
 $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{a_{n+1}}{a_n} \right| > 1$

\* Test inconclusive if  
 $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{a_{n+1}}{a_n} \right| = 1$

### Alternating Series

$$\text{Series: } \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (-1)^{n+1} a_n$$

Condition of Convergence:

$$0 < a_{n+1} \leq a_n$$

$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = 0$   
or if  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} |a_n|$  is convergent

Condition of Divergence:

Cant show divergence

Remainder:  $|R_n| \leq a_{n+1}$

### Root Test

$$\text{Series: } \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$$

Condition of Convergence:  
 $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sqrt[n]{|a_n|} < 1$

Condition of Divergence:  
 $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sqrt[n]{|a_n|} > 1$

\* Test inconclusive if  
 $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sqrt[n]{|a_n|} = 1$

## Unit 4: 10.7 - 10.10, 11.1, 11.2

**Power Series**;  $C(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n x^n = a_0 + a_1(x-c) + a_2(x-c)^2 + \dots$

- Variable =  $x$ ;  $a$ : Coefficient;  $n$ : power;  $c$ : center

**Convergence**; converge on an interval

- use ratio test;  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{a_{n+1}}{a_n} \right| = \begin{cases} p < 1 & \text{con abs} \\ p > 1 & \text{div} \\ p = 1 & \text{inconclusive} \end{cases}$

**Outcome 1**:  $F(x)$  converges abs for all values of  $x$

**Outcome 2**: there is a radius of convergence  $R$

↳  $F(x)$  converges abs if  $|x-c| < R$

↳  $F(x)$  diverges if  $|x-c| > R$

endpoints

?  $c-R$

$R$

When  $R = \text{finite}$   
 $c$

$R$

endpoints  
?  
 $c+R$

$\text{div}$

### Steps For Convergence

1) Find  $a_n$

$$2) \left| \frac{a_{n+1}}{a_n} \right|$$

3) Rearrange and Simplify

4) Take  $\lim$  w/  $x$

5) Use ratio test condition

6) Solve for  $x$  to get interval

7) check endpoints

### Rewriting a Power Series Expansion

Find expansion w/  $c=0$  for  $f(x) = \frac{1}{2+x^2}$

$$f(x) = \frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{1}{1+\frac{1}{2}x^2} = \frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{1}{1-(\frac{1}{2}x^2)}$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \left( -\frac{1}{2} x^2 \right)^n = \frac{(-1)^n}{2^{n+1}} x^{2n}$$

## Differentiation & Integration

- $f'(x) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} n a_n (x-a)^{n-1}$
  - $\int F(x) dx = A + \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{a_n}{n+1} (x-a)^{n+1}$
  - term by term
- R.O.C  
is still R

**Taylor Series** - is infinitely differentiable

@  $x=c$  then the Taylor Series for  $f(x)$  centered.

$$\begin{aligned} T(x) &= f(c) + f'(c)(x-c) + \frac{f''(c)}{2!}(x-c)^2 + \dots \\ &= \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{f^{(n)}(c)}{n!} (x-c)^n \end{aligned}$$

**Parametric Curves** - curves that are traced

out by a particle, denoted by 2 separate equations dependent on  $t$   
To graph; create a table of values and plug in  $t$  values for  $x$  &  $y$  equations separately

- You can combine equations to eliminate the parameter  $t$
- We can use  $x = \cos t$  and  $y = \sin t$  on the unit circle
- For cycloids  $x = at - a\cos t$  and  $y = a + a\sin t$
- For the bead thing sliding on a string.  $T_f = \int_{x=0}^{x=a\pi} \sqrt{1 + (\frac{dy}{dx})^2} dz$
- A brachistochrone = shortest-time curve which makes the cycloid a tautochrome (same-time curve)

**First Derivative** -

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{\frac{dy}{dt}}{\frac{dx}{dt}}$$

Area -  $\int_{\alpha}^{\beta} g(t) f'(t) dt$

**Second Derivative** -

$$\frac{d^2y}{dx^2} = \frac{\frac{d^2y}{dt^2}}{\frac{dx^2}{dt^2}}$$

Surface Area around y axis  
 $SA(y) = \int_a^b 2\pi y \sqrt{\left(\frac{dx}{dt}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{dy}{dt}\right)^2} dt$

## Unit '5' - 11.3 - 11.5 & Complex Numbers

**Polar Coordinates** -  $P(r, \theta)$

$r$  = radius ;  $\theta$  = angle from initial ray (usually  $\theta=0, 2\pi$ )

**Polar and Cartesian Cords** - can use to convert between each other.

$$\begin{aligned} x &= r\cos\theta & y &= r\sin\theta \\ r^2 &= x^2 + y^2 & \tan\theta &= y/x \end{aligned}$$

**Graphing** -  $\theta$  = ind var ;  $r$  = dep var  
 $c = f(\theta)$ , plug in  $\theta$ ; plot as  $(r, \theta)$   
- use symmetry

**Slope of Polar Equation**.

$$\left. \frac{dy}{dx} \right|_{(r, \theta)} = \frac{f'(\theta)\sin\theta + f(\theta)\cos\theta}{f'(\theta)\cos\theta - f(\theta)\sin\theta}$$

**Polar Form of z**

$$r(\cos\theta + i\sin\theta) \text{ or } r=|z|$$

**Taylor Polynomials** - Given  $f_n$ , can you come up w/ a power series for it.

$$\begin{aligned} P_n(x) &= f(a) + f'(a)(x-a) + \frac{f''(a)}{2!}(x-a)^2 + \dots \\ &\quad + \frac{f^{(k)}(a)}{k!}(x-a)^k + \dots + \frac{f^{(n)}(a)}{n!}(x-a)^n. \end{aligned}$$

**n<sup>th</sup> Power Of Series**  $\rightarrow C_n = \frac{f^{(n)}(a)}{n!}$

**Maclaurin Series** - series centered @  $c=0$

$$- f(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{f^{(n)}(0)}{n!} x^n$$

**Surface Area** -

$$SA(x) = \int_a^b 2\pi y \sqrt{\left(\frac{dx}{dt}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{dy}{dt}\right)^2} dt$$

**Arc Length** -

$$\int_a^b \sqrt{f'(t)^2 + g'(t)^2} dt$$

**Complex Numbers** -  $z = x+iy$ ;  $\operatorname{Re}(z)=x$   $\operatorname{Im}(z)=y$

$$i^2 = -1$$

**Addition/Subtraction/Scalar Multiplication**; think of  $i$  as a variable.

- $(x_1+iy_1) + (x_2+iy_2) = x_1+iy_1 + x_2+iy_2$
- $(x_1+iy_1) - (x_2+iy_2) = x_1+iy_1 - x_2-iy_2$
- $r(x+iy) = rx+iry$

**Multiplication** - basically just foil and plug in  $-1$  for  $i^2$

$$(x_1+iy_1) \cdot (x_2+iy_2) = x_1 \cdot x_2 + x_1 \cdot iy_2 + iy_1 \cdot x_2 + iy_1 \cdot iy_2 = x_1 \cdot x_2 - y_1 \cdot y_2 + i(x_1 \cdot y_2 + x_2 \cdot y_1)$$

**Complex Conjugate / Z bar** -  $\bar{z} = \overline{x+iy} = x-iy$   
**Modules** -  $|z| = \sqrt{x^2+y^2} = \sqrt{(\operatorname{Re}(z))^2 + (\operatorname{Im}(z))^2}$

$$\bar{\bar{z}} = z \quad z + \bar{z} = 2x \quad \overline{x_1+x_2} = \overline{x_1} + \overline{x_2} \quad x_1 \cdot x_2 = \overline{x_1} \cdot \overline{x_2}$$

$$z \cdot \bar{z} = |z|^2 \quad |z_1 + z_2| = \sqrt{|z_1|^2 + |z_2|^2} \quad \text{conditionally}$$

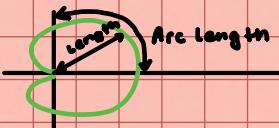
**Reciprocal**.  $\frac{1}{z} = \frac{\operatorname{Re}(z)}{|z|^2} - i \frac{\operatorname{Im}(z)}{|z|^2} = \frac{\operatorname{Re}(z)}{\operatorname{Re}(z)^2 + \operatorname{Im}(z)^2} - i \frac{\operatorname{Im}(z)}{\operatorname{Re}(z)^2 + \operatorname{Im}(z)^2}$

**Quotient**.  $\frac{z_1}{z_2} = z_1 \cdot z_2^{-1} = z_1 \cdot \frac{\overline{z_2}}{|z_2|^2} = \frac{x_1x_2 + y_1y_2}{x_2^2 + y_2^2} - i \frac{x_1y_2 - x_2y_1}{x_2^2 + y_2^2}$

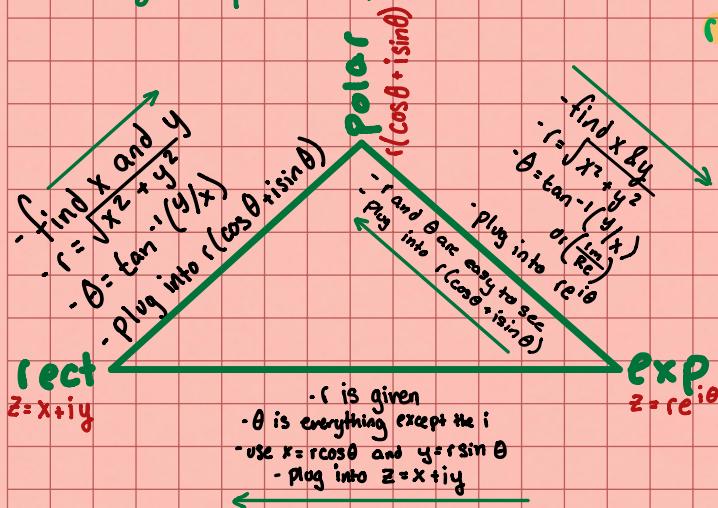
**Area** -  $\int_{\alpha}^{\beta} \frac{1}{2} f(\theta)^2 d\theta$  - When more than 1 region; sub 2 integrals

**Arc Length** -  $\int_{\alpha}^{\beta} \sqrt{f(\theta)^2 + f'(\theta)^2} d\theta$

**Length** -  $\int_{\alpha}^{\beta} \sqrt{r^2 + \left(\frac{dr}{d\theta}\right)^2} d\theta$



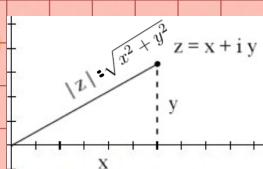
\* rectangular = polar = exponential



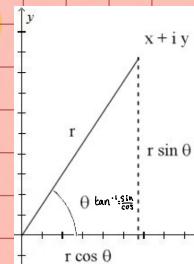
**Euler's Formula** -  $e^{i\theta} = \cos \theta + i \sin \theta$

**Exponential Form** -  $z = re^{i\theta}$  or  $z = |z|e^{i\theta}$

**Rectangular Coordinate** -



**Polar Coordinates**



**Products, Quotients and Powers of CN in polar & exponential**

- $z_1 z_2 = r_1 r_2 e^{i(\theta_1 + \theta_2)}$
- $\frac{z_1}{z_2} = \frac{r_1}{r_2} \left( \cos(\theta_1 - \theta_2) + i \sin(\theta_1 - \theta_2) \right) = \frac{r_1}{r_2} e^{i(\theta_1 - \theta_2)}$
- $(re^{i\theta})^k = r^k e^{ik\theta}$

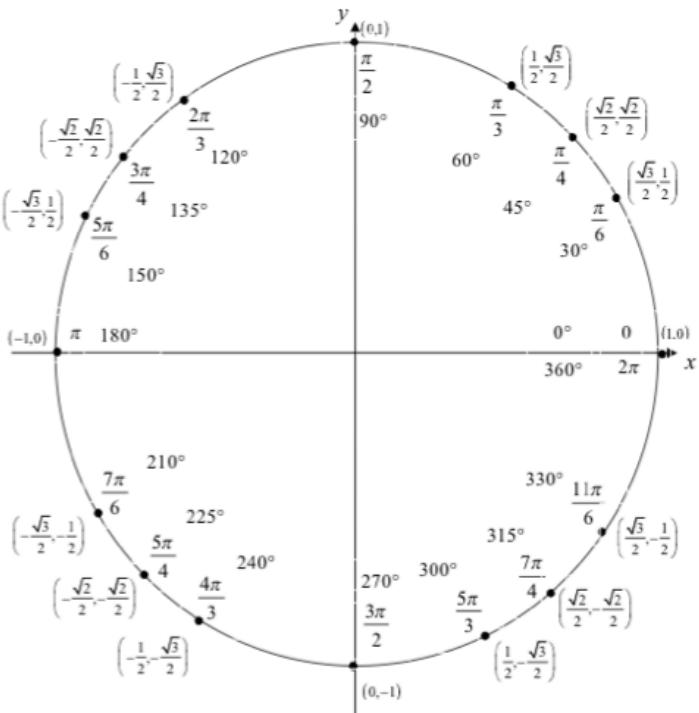
**Roots** - If you take an angle and add  $2\pi$  to it; it won't change. You can take your original point and  $2\pi / \text{the number that's the power}$ .

Ex. 4th roots of  $4e^{2\pi i/3}$

$$(4e^{\frac{2\pi i}{3}})^{1/4} = \sqrt[4]{2} e^{\frac{i\pi}{6}}$$

$$(\sqrt[4]{2} e^{i(\frac{\pi}{6} + \frac{2\pi}{4})})^4 = 4e^{i(\frac{2\pi}{3} + 2\pi)} \quad \text{can keep adding sections of } 2\pi$$

### Unit Circle



For any ordered pair on the unit circle  $(x, y)$ :  $\cos \theta = x$  and  $\sin \theta = y$

Example

$$\cos\left(\frac{5\pi}{3}\right) = \frac{1}{2} \quad \sin\left(\frac{5\pi}{3}\right) = -\frac{\sqrt{3}}{2}$$

### Definition

$y = \sin^{-1} x$  is equivalent to  $x = \sin y$

$y = \cos^{-1} x$  is equivalent to  $x = \cos y$

$y = \tan^{-1} x$  is equivalent to  $x = \tan y$

### Inverse Trig Functions

#### Inverse Properties

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

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

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

#### Domain and Range

Function	Domain	Range
$y = \sin^{-1} x$	$-1 \leq x \leq 1$	$-\frac{\pi}{2} \leq y \leq \frac{\pi}{2}$
$y = \cos^{-1} x$	$-1 \leq x \leq 1$	$0 \leq y \leq \pi$
$y = \tan^{-1} x$	$-\infty < x < \infty$	$-\frac{\pi}{2} < y < \frac{\pi}{2}$

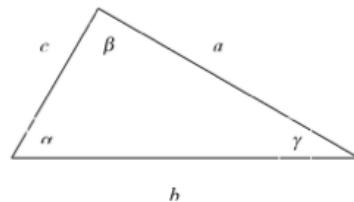
#### Alternate Notation

$\sin^{-1} x = \arcsin x$

$\cos^{-1} x = \arccos x$

$\tan^{-1} x = \arctan x$

### Law of Sines, Cosines and Tangents



#### Law of Sines

$$\frac{\sin \alpha}{a} = \frac{\sin \beta}{b} = \frac{\sin \gamma}{c}$$

#### Law of Cosines

$$a^2 = b^2 + c^2 - 2bc \cos \alpha$$

$$b^2 = a^2 + c^2 - 2ac \cos \beta$$

$$c^2 = a^2 + b^2 - 2ab \cos \gamma$$

#### Law of Tangents

$$\frac{a-b}{a+b} = \frac{\tan \frac{1}{2}(\alpha-\beta)}{\tan \frac{1}{2}(\alpha+\beta)}$$

$$\frac{b-c}{b+c} = \frac{\tan \frac{1}{2}(\beta-\gamma)}{\tan \frac{1}{2}(\beta+\gamma)}$$

$$\frac{a-c}{a+c} = \frac{\tan \frac{1}{2}(\alpha-\gamma)}{\tan \frac{1}{2}(\alpha+\gamma)}$$

#### Mollweide's Formula

$$\frac{a+b}{c} = \frac{\cos \frac{1}{2}(\alpha-\beta)}{\sin \frac{1}{2}\gamma}$$

**Trig Substitutions :** If the integral contains the following root use the given substitution and formula to convert into an integral involving trig functions.

$$\begin{array}{l} \sqrt{a^2 - b^2 x^2} \Rightarrow x = \frac{a}{b} \sin \theta \quad \sqrt{b^2 x^2 - a^2} \Rightarrow x = \frac{a}{b} \sec \theta \quad \sqrt{a^2 + b^2 x^2} \Rightarrow x = \frac{a}{b} \tan \theta \\ \cos^2 \theta = 1 - \sin^2 \theta \quad \tan^2 \theta = \sec^2 \theta - 1 \quad \sec^2 \theta = 1 + \tan^2 \theta \end{array}$$

**Ex.**  $\int \frac{16}{x^2 \sqrt{4-9x^2}} dx$

$$x = \frac{2}{3} \sin \theta \Rightarrow dx = \frac{2}{3} \cos \theta d\theta$$

$$\sqrt{4-9x^2} = \sqrt{4-4\sin^2 \theta} = \sqrt{4\cos^2 \theta} = 2|\cos \theta|$$

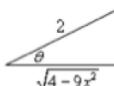
Recall  $\sqrt{x^2} = |x|$ . Because we have an indefinite integral we'll assume positive and drop absolute value bars. If we had a definite integral we'd need to compute  $\theta$ 's and remove absolute value bars based on that and,

$$|x| = \begin{cases} x & \text{if } x \geq 0 \\ -x & \text{if } x < 0 \end{cases}$$

In this case we have  $\sqrt{4-9x^2} = 2\cos \theta$ .

$$\begin{aligned} \int \frac{16}{\frac{4}{9}\sin^2 \theta (2\cos \theta)} (\frac{1}{3}\cos \theta) d\theta &= \int \frac{12}{\sin^2 \theta} d\theta \\ &= \int 12 \csc^2 d\theta = -12 \cot \theta + C \end{aligned}$$

Use Right Triangle Trig to go back to  $x$ 's. From substitution we have  $\sin \theta = \frac{3x}{2}$  so,



From this we see that  $\cot \theta = \frac{\sqrt{4-9x^2}}{3x}$ . So,

$$\int \frac{16}{x^2 \sqrt{4-9x^2}} dx = -4\frac{\sqrt{4-9x^2}}{x} + C$$

**Partial Fractions :** If integrating  $\int \frac{P(x)}{Q(x)} dx$  where the degree of  $P(x)$  is smaller than the degree of  $Q(x)$ . Factor denominator as completely as possible and find the partial fraction decomposition of the rational expression. Integrate the partial fraction decomposition (P.F.D.). For each factor in the denominator we get term(s) in the decomposition according to the following table.

Factor in $Q(x)$	Term in P.F.D	Factor in $Q(x)$	Term in P.F.D
$ax+b$	$\frac{A}{ax+b}$	$(ax+b)^k$	$\frac{A_1}{ax+b} + \frac{A_2}{(ax+b)^2} + \dots + \frac{A_k}{(ax+b)^k}$
$ax^2+bx+c$	$\frac{Ax+B}{ax^2+bx+c}$	$(ax^2+bx+c)^k$	$\frac{A_1 x + B_1}{ax^2+bx+c} + \dots + \frac{A_k x + B_k}{(ax^2+bx+c)^k}$

**Ex.**  $\int \frac{7x^2+13x}{(x-1)(x^2+4)} dx$

$$\int \frac{7x^2+13x}{(x-1)(x^2+4)} dx = \int \frac{4}{x-1} + \frac{3x+16}{x^2+4} dx$$

$$= 4 \ln|x-1| + \frac{3}{2} \ln(x^2+4) + 8 \tan^{-1}(\frac{x}{2})$$

Here is partial fraction form and recombined.

$$\frac{7x^2+13x}{(x-1)(x^2+4)} = \frac{A}{x-1} + \frac{Bx+C}{x^2+4} = \frac{A(x^2+4)+(Bx+C)(x-1)}{(x-1)(x^2+4)}$$

Set numerators equal and collect like terms.

$$7x^2+13x = (A+B)x^2 + (C-B)x + 4A - C$$

Set coefficients equal to get a system and solve to get constants.

$$A+B=7 \quad C-B=13 \quad 4A-C=0$$

$$A=4 \quad B=3 \quad C=16$$

An alternate method that sometimes works to find constants. Start with setting numerators equal in previous example :  $7x^2+13x = A(x^2+4) + (Bx+C)(x-1)$ . Choose nice values of  $x$  and plug in. For example if  $x=1$  we get  $20=5A$  which gives  $A=4$ . This won't always work easily.

**Work :** If a force of  $F(x)$  moves an object

$$\text{in } a \leq x \leq b, \text{ the work done is } W = \int_a^b F(x) dx$$

**Arc Length Surface Area :** Note that this is often a Calc II topic. The three basic formulas are,

$$L = \int_a^b ds$$

$$SA = \int_a^b 2\pi y dy \text{ (rotate about x-axis)}$$

$$SA = \int_a^b 2\pi x ds \text{ (rotate about y-axis)}$$

where  $ds$  is dependent upon the form of the function being worked with as follows.

$$ds = \sqrt{1 + \left(\frac{dy}{dx}\right)^2} dx \text{ if } y = f(x), a \leq x \leq b \quad ds = \sqrt{\left(\frac{dx}{dt}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{dy}{dt}\right)^2} dt \text{ if } x = f(t), y = g(t), a \leq t \leq b$$

$$ds = \sqrt{1 + \left(\frac{dx}{dy}\right)^2} dy \text{ if } x = f(y), a \leq y \leq b \quad ds = \sqrt{r^2 + \left(\frac{dr}{d\theta}\right)^2} d\theta \text{ if } r = f(\theta), a \leq \theta \leq b$$

With surface area you may have to substitute in for the  $x$  or  $y$  depending on your choice of  $ds$  to match the differential in the  $ds$ . With parametric and polar you will always need to substitute.

### Improper Integral

An improper integral is an integral with one or more infinite limits and/or discontinuous integrands. Integral is called convergent if the limit exists and has a finite value and divergent if the limit doesn't exist or has infinite value. This is typically a Calc II topic.

### Infinite Limit

$$1. \int_a^{\infty} f(x) dx = \lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} \int_a^t f(x) dx$$

$$2. \int_{-\infty}^b f(x) dx = \lim_{t \rightarrow -\infty} \int_t^b f(x) dx$$

$$3. \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x) dx = \int_{-\infty}^c f(x) dx + \int_c^{\infty} f(x) dx \text{ provided BOTH integrals are convergent.}$$

### Discontinuous Integrand

$$1. \text{ Discont. at } a: \int_a^b f(x) dx = \lim_{t \rightarrow a^+} \int_t^b f(x) dx$$

$$2. \text{ Discont. at } b: \int_a^b f(x) dx = \lim_{t \rightarrow b^-} \int_a^t f(x) dx$$

$$3. \text{ Discontinuity at } a < c < b: \int_a^b f(x) dx = \int_a^c f(x) dx + \int_c^b f(x) dx \text{ provided both are convergent.}$$

**Comparison Test for Improper Integrals :** If  $f(x) \geq g(x) \geq 0$  on  $[a, \infty)$  then,

$$1. \text{ If } \int_a^{\infty} f(x) dx \text{ conv. then } \int_a^{\infty} g(x) dx \text{ conv.} \quad 2. \text{ If } \int_a^{\infty} g(x) dx \text{ divg. then } \int_a^{\infty} f(x) dx \text{ divg.}$$

Useful fact : If  $a > 0$  then  $\int_a^{\infty} \frac{1}{x^p} dx$  converges if  $p > 1$  and diverges for  $p \leq 1$ .

### Approximating Definite Integrals

For given integral  $\int_a^b f(x) dx$  and a  $n$  (must be even for Simpson's Rule) define  $\Delta x = \frac{b-a}{n}$  and divide  $[a, b]$  into  $n$  subintervals  $[x_0, x_1], [x_1, x_2], \dots, [x_{n-1}, x_n]$  with  $x_0 = a$  and  $x_n = b$  then,

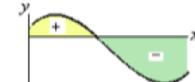
**Midpoint Rule :**  $\int_a^b f(x) dx \approx \Delta x [f(x'_1) + f(x'_2) + \dots + f(x'_n)]$ ,  $x'_i$  is midpoint  $[x_{i-1}, x_i]$

**Trapezoid Rule :**  $\int_a^b f(x) dx \approx \frac{\Delta x}{2} [f(x_0) + 2f(x_1) + 2f(x_2) + \dots + 2f(x_{n-1}) + f(x_n)]$

**Simpson's Rule :**  $\int_a^b f(x) dx \approx \frac{\Delta x}{3} [f(x_0) + 4f(x_1) + 2f(x_2) + \dots + 2f(x_{n-2}) + 4f(x_{n-1}) + f(x_n)]$

### Applications of Integrals

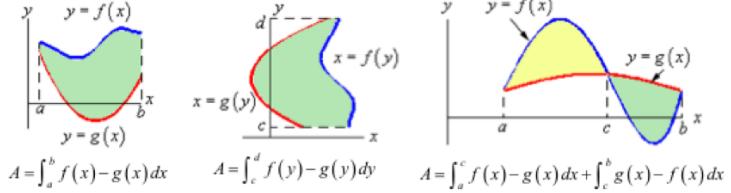
**Net Area :**  $\int_a^b f(x) dx$  represents the net area between  $f(x)$  and the  $x$ -axis with area above  $x$ -axis positive and area below  $x$ -axis negative.



**Area Between Curves :** The general formulas for the two main cases for each are,

$$y = f(x) \Rightarrow A = \int_a^b [upper function] - [lower function] dx \quad & x = f(y) \Rightarrow A = \int_c^d [right function] - [left function] dy$$

If the curves intersect then the area of each portion must be found individually. Here are some sketches of a couple possible situations and formulas for a couple of possible cases.



**Volumes of Revolution :** The two main formulas are  $V = \int A(x) dx$  and  $V = \int A(y) dy$ . Here is some general information about each method of computing and some examples.

### Rings

$$A = \pi ((outer \ radius)^2 - (inner \ radius)^2)$$

Limits:  $x/y$  of right/bot ring to  $x/y$  of left/top ring

Horz. Axis use  $f(x)$ , Vert. Axis use  $f(y)$ ,

$g(x), A(x)$  and  $dx$ .

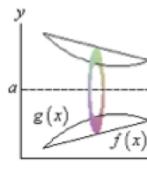
$$A = 2\pi \text{ (radius)} \cdot \text{width / height}$$

Limits :  $x/y$  of inner cyl. to  $x/y$  of outer cyl.

Horz. Axis use  $f(y)$ , Vert. Axis use  $f(x)$ ,

$g(y), A(y)$  and  $dy$ .

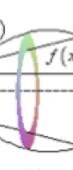
$$\text{Ex. Axis : } y = a > 0$$



outer radius :  $a - f(x)$

inner radius :  $a - g(x)$

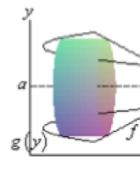
$$\text{Ex. Axis : } y = a \leq 0$$



outer radius:  $|a| + g(x)$

inner radius:  $|a| + f(x)$

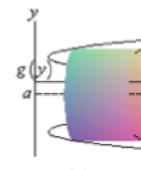
$$\text{Ex. Axis : } y = a > 0$$



radius :  $a - y$

width :  $f(y) - g(y)$

$$\text{Ex. Axis : } y = a \leq 0$$



radius :  $|a| + y$

width :  $f(y) - g(y)$

These are only a few cases for horizontal axis of rotation. If axis of rotation is the  $x$ -axis use the  $y = a \leq 0$  case with  $a = 0$ . For vertical axis of rotation ( $x = a > 0$  and  $x = a \leq 0$ ) interchange  $x$  and  $y$  to get appropriate formulas.

### Products and (some) Quotients of Trig Functions

$$\int \sin^n x \cos^m x dx$$

1. If **n** is odd. Strip one sine out and convert the remaining sines to cosines using  $\sin^2 x = 1 - \cos^2 x$ , then use the substitution  $u = \cos x$

2. If **m** is odd. Strip one cosine out and convert the remaining cosines to sines using  $\cos^2 x = 1 - \sin^2 x$ , then use the substitution  $u = \sin x$

3. If **n** and **m** are both odd. Use either 1. or 2.

4. If **n** and **m** are both even. Use double angle formula for sine and/or half angle formulas to reduce the integral into a form that can be integrated.

$$\int \tan^n x \sec^m x dx$$

1. If **n** is odd. Strip one tangent and one secant out and convert the remaining tangents to secants using  $\tan^2 x = \sec^2 x - 1$ , then use the substitution  $u = \sec x$

2. If **m** is even. Strip two secants out and convert the remaining secants to tangents using  $\sec^2 x = 1 + \tan^2 x$ , then use the substitution  $u = \tan x$

3. If **n** is odd and **m** is even. Use either 1. or 2.

4. If **n** is even and **m** is odd. Each integral will be dealt with differently.

The integral contains...	Corresponding Substitution	Useful Identity
$a^2 - x^2$	$x = a \sin \theta, -\frac{\pi}{2} \leq \theta \leq \frac{\pi}{2}$ , for $ x  \leq a$	$a^2 - a^2 \sin^2 \theta = a^2 \cos^2 \theta$
$a^2 + x^2$	$x = a \tan \theta, -\frac{\pi}{2} < \theta < \frac{\pi}{2}$	$a^2 + a^2 \tan^2 \theta = a^2 \sec^2 \theta$
$x^2 - a^2$	$x = a \sec \theta, \begin{cases} 0 \leq \theta < \frac{\pi}{2}, \text{ for } x \geq a \\ \frac{\pi}{2} < \theta \leq \pi, \text{ for } x \leq -a \end{cases}$	$a^2 \sec^2 \theta - a^2 = a^2 \tan^2 \theta$

Function	Maclaurin series expansion	Sigma Notation
$\frac{1}{1-x}$	$1 + x + x^2 + x^3 + x^4 + \dots$	$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} x^n$
$\cos x$	$1 - \frac{1}{2}x^2 + \frac{1}{24}x^4 - \frac{1}{720}x^6 + \dots$	$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^n}{(2n)!} x^{2n}$
$e^x$	$1 + x + \frac{1}{2}x^2 + \frac{1}{6}x^3 + \frac{1}{24}x^4 \dots$	$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n!} x^n$
$\ln(1+x)$	$x - \frac{1}{2}x^2 + \frac{1}{3}x^3 - \frac{1}{4}x^4 + \dots$	$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^{n+1}}{n} x^n$
$\sin(x)$	$x - \frac{1}{6}x^3 + \frac{1}{120}x^5 - \frac{1}{5040}x^7 + \dots$	$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^n}{(2n+1)!} x^{2n+1}$

## Definitions

### Basic Series

Infinite Sequence:  $\langle s_n \rangle$

Limit/Convergence of a Sequence:  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} s_n = L$

Infinite Serie: (Partial sums)  $S_n = \sum s_n = s_1 + s_2 + \dots + s_n + \dots$

Geometric Serie:

$$\sum_{k=1}^n ar^{k-1} = S_n = a + ar + ar^2 + \dots + ar^{n-1} = \frac{a(1-r^n)}{1-r}$$

### Positive Series

Positive Serie: If all the terms  $s_n$  are positive.

Integral Test: If  $f(n) = s_n$ , continuous, positive, decreasing:  $\sum s_n$  converges  $\iff \int_1^\infty f(x)dx$  converges.

Comparison Test:  $\sum a_n$  and  $\sum b_n$  where  $a_k < b_k$  ( $\forall k \geq m$ )

1. If  $\sum b_n$  converges, so does  $\sum a_n$
2. If  $\sum a_n$  diverges, so does  $\sum b_n$

Limit Comparison Test:  $\sum a_n$  and  $\sum b_n$  such that  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{a_n}{b_n}$  exists,  $\sum a_n$  converges  $\iff \sum b_n$  converges.

### Convergence

Alternating Serie:

$$\sum (-1)^{n+1} a_n = a_1 - a_2 + a_3 - a_4 + a_5 - \dots$$

Absolute Convergence: If  $\sum |s_n|$  is convergent.

Conditional Convergence: If  $\sum s_n$  is convergent but *not* absolutely convergent.

Ratio Test: If  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{s_{n+1}}{s_n} \right| =$

- $< 1$ : absolutely convergent
- $1$ : (no conclusion)
- $> 1$  or  $\infty$ : diverges

Root Test: If  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sqrt[n]{|s_n|} =$

- $< 1$ : absolutely convergent
- $1$ : (no conclusion)
- $> 1$  or  $\infty$ : diverges

Uniform Convergence: If  $\forall \epsilon > 0$ ,  $\exists m$  such that for each  $x$  and every  $n \geq m$ ,  $|f_n(x) - f(x)| < \epsilon$

### Power Series

Power Serie:

$$\sum_{n=0}^{+\infty} a_n (x - c)^n = a_0 + a_1(x - c) + a_2(x - c)^2 + \dots$$

Power Serie About Zero:

$$\sum_{n=0}^{+\infty} a_n x^n = a_0 + a_1 x + a_2 x^2 + \dots$$

### Taylor Serie

If  $f$  a function infinitely differentiable,

$$\sum_{n=0}^{+\infty} \frac{f^{(n)}(c)}{n!} (x - c)^n$$

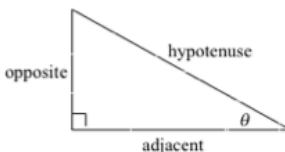
## Trig Cheat Sheet

### Definition of the Trig Functions

#### Right triangle definition

For this definition we assume that

$$0 < \theta < \frac{\pi}{2} \text{ or } 0^\circ < \theta < 90^\circ.$$



$$\begin{aligned} \sin \theta &= \frac{\text{opposite}}{\text{hypotenuse}} & \csc \theta &= \frac{\text{hypotenuse}}{\text{opposite}} \\ \cos \theta &= \frac{\text{adjacent}}{\text{hypotenuse}} & \sec \theta &= \frac{\text{hypotenuse}}{\text{adjacent}} \\ \tan \theta &= \frac{\text{opposite}}{\text{adjacent}} & \cot \theta &= \frac{\text{adjacent}}{\text{opposite}} \end{aligned}$$

### Facts and Properties

#### Domain

The domain is all the values of  $\theta$  that can be plugged into the function.

$\sin \theta$ ,  $\theta$  can be any angle

$\cos \theta$ ,  $\theta$  can be any angle

$\tan \theta$ ,  $\theta \neq n + \frac{1}{2}\pi$ ,  $n = 0, \pm 1, \pm 2, \dots$

$\csc \theta$ ,  $\theta \neq n\pi$ ,  $n = 0, \pm 1, \pm 2, \dots$

$\sec \theta$ ,  $\theta \neq n + \frac{1}{2}\pi$ ,  $n = 0, \pm 1, \pm 2, \dots$

$\cot \theta$ ,  $\theta \neq n\pi$ ,  $n = 0, \pm 1, \pm 2, \dots$

#### Range

The range is all possible values to get out of the function.

$$-1 \leq \sin \theta \leq 1 \quad \csc \theta \geq 1 \text{ and } \csc \theta \leq -1$$

$$-1 \leq \cos \theta \leq 1 \quad \sec \theta \geq 1 \text{ and } \sec \theta \leq -1$$

$$-\infty < \tan \theta < \infty \quad -\infty < \cot \theta < \infty$$

**Period**  
The period of a function is the number,  $T$ , such that  $f(\theta + T) = f(\theta)$ . So, if  $\omega$  is a fixed number and  $\theta$  is any angle we have the following periods.

$$\sin(\omega\theta) \rightarrow T = \frac{2\pi}{\omega}$$

$$\cos(\omega\theta) \rightarrow T = \frac{2\pi}{\omega}$$

$$\tan(\omega\theta) \rightarrow T = \frac{\pi}{\omega}$$

$$\csc(\omega\theta) \rightarrow T = \frac{2\pi}{\omega}$$

$$\sec(\omega\theta) \rightarrow T = \frac{2\pi}{\omega}$$

$$\cot(\omega\theta) \rightarrow T = \frac{\pi}{\omega}$$

### MacLaurin Serie

If  $f$  a function infinitely differentiable,

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

### Taylor's Formula with Remainder

$\exists x^*$  between  $c$  and  $x$  such that

$$f(x) = \sum_{k=0}^n \frac{f^{(k)}(c)}{k!} (x - c)^k + R_n(x)$$

$$R_n(x) = \frac{f^{(n+1)}(x^*)}{(n+1)!} (x - c)^{n+1}$$

### Applications

#### Application: Showing Function/Taylor-Series Equivalence

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow +\infty} R_n(x) = 0$$

#### Application: Approximating Functions or Integrals

$$R_n(x_0) < K$$

### Binomial Serie

$$(1+x)^r = 1 + \sum_{n=1}^{+\infty} \frac{r(r-1)(r-2)\dots(r-n+1)}{n!} x^n$$

### Common Series

$$e^x = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{x^n}{n!} = 1 + x + \frac{x^2}{2!} + \frac{x^3}{3!} + \dots$$

$$\frac{1}{1-x} = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} x^n = 1 + x + x^2 + x^3 + \dots$$

$$\ln(1+x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (-1)^{n-1} \frac{x^n}{n} = x - \frac{1}{2}x^2 + \frac{1}{3}x^3 - \frac{1}{4}x^4 + \dots$$

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

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

$$\sinh x = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{x^{2n+1}}{(2n+1)!} = x + \frac{x^3}{3!} + \frac{x^5}{5!} + \frac{x^7}{7!} + \dots$$

$$\cosh x = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{x^{2n}}{(2n)!} = 1 + \frac{x^2}{2!} + \frac{x^4}{4!} + \frac{x^6}{6!} + \dots$$

### Formulas and Identities

#### Tangent and Cotangent Identities

$$\tan \theta = \frac{\sin \theta}{\cos \theta}$$

$$\cot \theta = \frac{\cos \theta}{\sin \theta}$$

#### Half Angle Formulas

$$\sin \frac{\theta}{2} = \pm \sqrt{\frac{1 - \cos \theta}{2}}$$

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

$$\cos \frac{\theta}{2} = \pm \sqrt{\frac{1 + \cos \theta}{2}}$$

$$\cos^2 \theta = \frac{1}{2}(1 + \cos(2\theta))$$

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

#### Sum and Difference Formulas

$$\sin(\alpha \pm \beta) = \sin \alpha \cos \beta \pm \cos \alpha \sin \beta$$

$$\cos(\alpha \pm \beta) = \cos \alpha \cos \beta \mp \sin \alpha \sin \beta$$

$$\tan(\alpha \pm \beta) = \frac{\tan \alpha \pm \tan \beta}{1 \mp \tan \alpha \tan \beta}$$

#### Product to Sum Formulas

$$\sin \alpha \sin \beta = \frac{1}{2} [\cos(\alpha - \beta) - \cos(\alpha + \beta)]$$

$$\cos \alpha \cos \beta = \frac{1}{2} [\cos(\alpha - \beta) + \cos(\alpha + \beta)]$$

$$\sin \alpha \cos \beta = \frac{1}{2} [\sin(\alpha + \beta) + \sin(\alpha - \beta)]$$

$$\cos \alpha \sin \beta = \frac{1}{2} [\sin(\alpha + \beta) - \sin(\alpha - \beta)]$$

#### Sum to Product Formulas

$$\sin \alpha + \sin \beta = 2 \sin\left(\frac{\alpha + \beta}{2}\right) \cos\left(\frac{\alpha - \beta}{2}\right)$$

$$\sin \alpha - \sin \beta = 2 \cos\left(\frac{\alpha + \beta}{2}\right) \sin\left(\frac{\alpha - \beta}{2}\right)$$

$$\cos \alpha + \cos \beta = 2 \cos\left(\frac{\alpha + \beta}{2}\right) \cos\left(\frac{\alpha - \beta}{2}\right)$$

$$\cos \alpha - \cos \beta = -2 \sin\left(\frac{\alpha + \beta}{2}\right) \sin\left(\frac{\alpha - \beta}{2}\right)$$

#### Cofunction Formulas

$$\sin\left(\frac{\pi}{2} - \theta\right) = \cos \theta \quad \cos\left(\frac{\pi}{2} - \theta\right) = \sin \theta$$

$$\csc\left(\frac{\pi}{2} - \theta\right) = \sec \theta \quad \sec\left(\frac{\pi}{2} - \theta\right) = \csc \theta$$

$$\tan\left(\frac{\pi}{2} - \theta\right) = \cot \theta \quad \cot\left(\frac{\pi}{2} - \theta\right) = \tan \theta$$

SERIES	WHEN IS VALID/TRUE
$\frac{1}{1-x} = 1 + x + x^2 + x^3 + x^4 + \dots$	NOTE THIS IS THE GEOMETRIC SERIES. JUST THINK OF $x$ AS $r$ $x \in (-1, 1)$
$e^x = 1 + x + \frac{x^2}{2!} + \frac{x^3}{3!} + \frac{x^4}{4!} + \dots$ $= \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{x^n}{n!}$	SO: $e^{(17x)} = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(17x)^n}{n!} = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{17^n x^n}{n!}$ $x \in \mathbb{R}$
$\cos x = 1 - \frac{x^2}{2!} + \frac{x^4}{4!} - \frac{x^6}{6!} + \frac{x^8}{8!} - \dots$ $= \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (-1)^n \frac{x^{2n}}{(2n)!}$	NOTE $y = \cos x$ IS AN EVEN FUNCTION (I.E., $\cos(-x) = \cos(x)$ ) AND THE TAYLOR SERIS OF $y = \cos x$ HAS ONLY EVEN POWERS. $x \in \mathbb{R}$
$\sin x = x - \frac{x^3}{3!} + \frac{x^5}{5!} - \frac{x^7}{7!} + \frac{x^9}{9!} - \dots$ $= \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (-1)^{(n-1)} \frac{x^{2n-1}}{(2n-1)!} \stackrel{\text{or}}{=} \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (-1)^n \frac{x^{2n+1}}{(2n+1)!}$	NOTE $y = \sin x$ IS AN ODD FUNCTION (I.E., $\sin(-x) = -\sin(x)$ ) AND THE TAYLOR SERIS OF $y = \sin x$ HAS ONLY ODD POWERS. $x \in \mathbb{R}$
$\ln(1+x) = x - \frac{x^2}{2} + \frac{x^3}{3} - \frac{x^4}{4} + \frac{x^5}{5} - \dots$ $= \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (-1)^{(n-1)} \frac{x^n}{n} \stackrel{\text{or}}{=} \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (-1)^{n+1} \frac{x^n}{n}$	QUESTION: IS $y = \ln(1+x)$ EVEN, ODD, OR NEITHER? $x \in (-1, 1]$
$\tan^{-1} x = x - \frac{x^3}{3} + \frac{x^5}{5} - \frac{x^7}{7} + \frac{x^9}{9} - \dots$ $= \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (-1)^{(n-1)} \frac{x^{2n-1}}{2n-1} \stackrel{\text{or}}{=} \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (-1)^n \frac{x^{2n+1}}{2n+1}$	QUESTION: IS $y = \arctan(x)$ EVEN, ODD, OR NEITHER? $x \in [-1, 1]$

**Big Questions 3.** For what values of  $x$  does the power (a.k.a. Taylor) series

$$P_{\infty}(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{f^{(n)}(x_0)}{n!} (x - x_0)^n \quad (1)$$

converge (usually the Root or Ratio test helps us out with this question). If the power/Taylor series in formula (1) does indeed converge at a point  $x$ , does the series converge to what we would want it to converge to, i.e., does

$$f(x) = P_{\infty}(x) ? \quad (2)$$

Question (2) is going to take some thought.

**Definition 4.** The  $N^{\text{th}}$ -order Remainder term for  $y = f(x)$  at  $x_0$  is:

$$R_N(x) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} f(x) - P_N(x)$$

where  $y = P_N(x)$  is the  $N^{\text{th}}$ -order Taylor polynomial for  $y = f(x)$  at  $x_0$ .

So

$$f(x) = P_N(x) + R_N(x) \quad (3)$$

that is

$$f(x) \approx P_N(x) \quad \text{within an error of } R_N(x).$$

We often think of all this as:

$$f(x) \approx \sum_{n=0}^N \frac{f^{(n)}(x_0)}{n!} (x - x_0)^n \quad \hookrightarrow \text{a finite sum, the sum stops at } N.$$

We would LIKE TO HAVE THAT

$$f(x) \stackrel{?}{=} \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{f^{(n)}(x_0)}{n!} (x - x_0)^n \quad \hookrightarrow \text{the sum keeps on going and going.}$$

In other notation:

$$f(x) \approx P_N(x) \quad \text{and the question is} \quad f(x) \stackrel{?}{=} P_{\infty}(x)$$

where  $y = P_{\infty}(x)$  is the Taylor series of  $y = f(x)$  at  $x_0$ .

Well, let's think about what needs to be for  $f(x) \stackrel{?}{=} P_{\infty}(x)$ , i.e., for  $f$  to equal to its Taylor series.

**Notice 5.** Taking the  $\lim_{N \rightarrow \infty}$  of both sides in equation (3), we see that

$$f(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{f^{(n)}(x_0)}{n!} (x - x_0)^n \quad \hookrightarrow \text{the sum keeps on going and going.}$$

if and only if

$$\lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} R_N(x) = 0.$$

**Recall 6.**  $\lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} R_N(x) = 0$  if and only if  $\lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} |R_N(x)| = 0$ .

**So 7.** If

$$\lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} |R_N(x)| = 0$$

then

$$f(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{f^{(n)}(x_0)}{n!} (x - x_0)^n.$$

So we basically want to show that (4) holds true.

## Definition

Complex #

$$z = x + iy$$

$$i = \sqrt{-1}; x = \operatorname{Re}(z); y = \operatorname{Im}(z)$$

## Algebra

$$z_1 = x_1 + iy_1; z_2 = x_2 + iy_2$$

$$z_1 \pm z_2 = (x_1 \pm x_2) + i(y_1 \pm y_2)$$

$$z_1 z_2 = (x_1 x_2 - y_1 y_2) + i(x_2 y_1 + x_1 y_2)$$

$$\frac{z_1}{z_2} = \frac{(x_1 x_2 + y_1 y_2) + i(x_2 y_1 - y_2 x_1)}{x_2^2 + y_2^2}$$

## Modulus: $|z|$

$$z = x + iy \Rightarrow |z| = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2}$$

## Properties

$$|z| = |-z| = |\bar{z}| = |-\bar{z}|$$

$$|z| = \pm \operatorname{Re}(z) \Leftrightarrow \operatorname{Im}(z) = 0$$

$$|z| = \pm \operatorname{Im}(z) \Leftrightarrow \operatorname{Re}(z) = 0$$

$$|z_1 z_2| = |z_1| |z_2|$$

$$|z^n| = |z|^n$$

$$|z_1/z_2| = |z_1| / |z_2|$$

$$|z_1 + z_2| \leq |z_1| + |z_2|$$

Equality holds when  $0, z_1$ , and  $z_2$  are collinear and  $z_1$  and  $z_2$  are on the same side of 0

$$|z_1 - z_2| \geq ||z_1| - |z_2||$$

Equality holds when  $0, z_1$ , and  $z_2$  are collinear and  $z_1$  and  $z_2$  are on the same side of 0

## Conjugate: $\bar{z}$

$$z = x + iy \Rightarrow \bar{z} = x - iy$$

## Properties

$$\bar{\bar{z}} = z$$

$$\bar{z}_1 \pm z_2 = \bar{z}_1 \pm \bar{z}_2$$

$$\overline{z_1 z_2} = \bar{z}_1 \bar{z}_2$$

$$\overline{(z^n)} = (\bar{z})^n$$

$$\overline{\left(\frac{z_1}{z_2}\right)} = \frac{\bar{z}_1}{\bar{z}_2}$$

$$|\bar{z}| = |z|$$

$$\arg(\bar{z}) = 2k\pi - \arg(z) \quad k \in \mathbb{Z}$$

$$\bar{z} = z \Leftrightarrow \operatorname{Im}(z) = 0$$

$$\bar{z} = -z \Leftrightarrow \operatorname{Re}(z) = 0$$