

L'Hopital + Indeterminate Forms

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I. $\lim = \frac{0}{0}$ or $\frac{\infty}{\infty}$; use L'Hopital

II. $\lim = 0 \cdot \infty$ or $\infty - \infty$; rewrite as I.

* often this can be done with a common denominator

III. $\lim = \infty^0, 1^\infty, \infty^\infty$ Let $\lim = y$ and take the \ln of both sides; then simplify.

Improper Integrals

I. Infinite limits

II. Infinite discontinuity

• 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 $(-\infty, \infty)$, then $\int_{-\infty}^\infty f(x) dx$
 $= \int_{-\infty}^c f(x) dx + \int_c^\infty f(x) dx$ where c is a real number.

• If the limit exists, the integral **CONVERGES** at the limit; if the limit doesn't exist, the integral **DIVERGES**.

The limit of a sequence $\{a_n\}$ is L ,

$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = L$. If such a limit exists, the sequence

CONVERGES at L ; if the limit doesn't exist, the sequence DIVERGES.

* Squeeze theorem:

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

and there exists an integer N such that

$a_n \leq c_n \leq b_n$ for all $n > N$, then

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

* If $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} |a_n| = 0$, then $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = 0$

If the terms of a sequence are all nonincreasing or nondecreasing, it is MONOTONIC.

If ~~the~~ a sequence is bounded ABOVE ($M \geq a_n$) and BELOW ($N \leq a_n$), then it is BOUNDED.

* Sequences that are bounded and monotonic converge.

$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n \leftarrow N^{\text{th}} \text{ PARTIAL SUM}$

If this converges, the series converges. If $\{S_n\}$ diverges, the series diverges.

Geometric

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} ar^n = \frac{a}{1-r}, \quad 0 < |r| < 1$$

if $|r| > 1$, the series diverges.

N^{th} term convergence

If $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$ converges, then $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = 0$.

If $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n \neq 0$, $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$ diverges. If $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = 0$,

$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$ may or may not converge.

Integral

If $\int_a^{\infty} f(x)$, where $a_n = f(x)$

* diverges — so does $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$

* converges — so does $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$

P-series

$$\frac{1}{n^p}$$

($\frac{1}{n}$ = harmonic series)

* if $p > 1$, $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$ converges

* if $p \leq 1$, $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$ diverges

Telescopic

write out first few terms to determine the n^{th} partial sum, then find $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} S_n$.

Limit comparison

If $\lim_{n \rightarrow a} \frac{a_n}{b_n} =$ a finite number, then both either converge or diverge.

Direct comparison

Compare a_n to b_n , where ~~0 < a_n < b_n~~ $0 \leq a_n \leq b_n$

- * If ~~0 < a_n < b_n~~ $\sum b_n$ converges, then $\sum a_n$ converges
- * If $\sum a_n$ diverges, then $\sum b_n$ diverges.

Alternating Series

Let $a_n > 0$. The alternating series $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (-1)^n a_n$ converges if:

- * $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = 0$
- * $a_{n+1} \leq a_n$ (for a sufficient n)

Ratio test

Let $a_n > 0$.

$\sum a_n$ converges absolutely if $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{a_{n+1}}{a_n} \right| < 1$
and diverges if $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{a_{n+1}}{a_n} \right| > 1$. Inconclusive if

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{a_{n+1}}{a_n} \right| = 1.$$

Root

let $a_n > 0$.

$\sum a_n$ converges absolutely if $\sqrt[n]{|a_n|} < 1$

$\sum a_n$ diverges if $\sqrt[n]{|a_n|} > 1$

Inconclusive if $\sqrt[n]{|a_n|} = 1$

Absolute Convergence - if both the alternating and non-alternating forms converge. If not, the series is conditionally convergent

Taylor + Maclaurian Polynomials

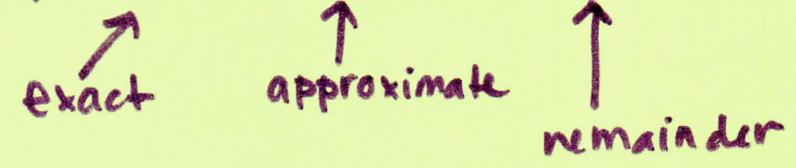
If f has n derivatives at c , the polynomial

$$P_n(x) = f(c) + \frac{f'(c)(x-c)^1}{1!} + \frac{f''(c)(x-c)^2}{2!} + \dots + \frac{f^{(n)}(c)(x-c)^n}{n!}$$

is called the n^{th} Taylor polynomial for $f(c)$, centered at c . If $c=0$, it's a Maclaurian polynomial.

Remainder

For a Taylor polynomial, $f(x) = P_n(x) + R(x)$



The remainder (error) is:

$$|R_n(x)| = |f(x) - P_n(x)|$$

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

Use the maximum value between x and c for $f^{(n+1)}(z)$

For an alternating series,

$$|S - S_N| = |R_N| \leq a_{n+1}. \text{ The error is the}$$

next term.

Power Series

A series of the form $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n x^n = a_0 x^0 + a_1 x^1 + a_2 x^2 + \dots + a_n x^n$ is a power series; $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n (x-c)^n$ is centered at c .

A power series can be viewed as a function with a domain for which it converges.

• c is always in the domain

• The domain is of a certain radius of convergence, R , from c .

→ if the series only converges at c , $r = 0$

→ if the series always converges, $r = \infty$

~~the endpoints must be~~

To find the radius of convergence, 200

evaluate $\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{a_{k+1}}{a_k} \right|$

$\neq 0, R = \infty$

$\neq \infty, R = 0$

$\neq X, R = 1$

The series will converge if $\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{a_{k+1}}{a_k} \right| < 1$,

so simplify that to find the radius of convergence.

→ The endpoints must be checked individually when determining interval of convergence.

Power series for important functions:

$$e^x = 1 + x + \frac{x^2}{2!} + \frac{x^3}{3!} + \frac{x^4}{4!} + \dots + \frac{x^n}{n!} + \dots$$

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

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

$$\frac{1}{1-x} = 1 + x + x^2 + x^3 + x^4 + \dots + x^n + \dots$$

Circle

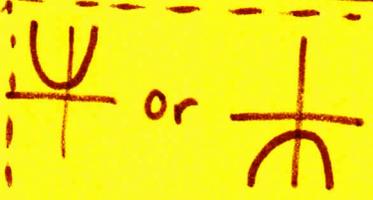
All points equidistant from a fixed point.

$$(x-h)^2 + (y-k)^2 = r^2$$

- center (h, k)
- radius $= r$

Parabola

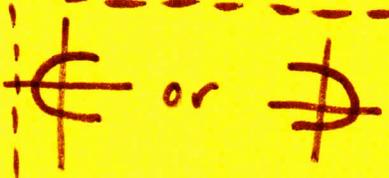
All points that are equidistant from a fixed line (directrix) and a fixed point (focus) not on the line.



$$4p(y-k) = (x-h)^2$$

$$y-k = \text{or } \frac{(x-h)^2}{4p}$$

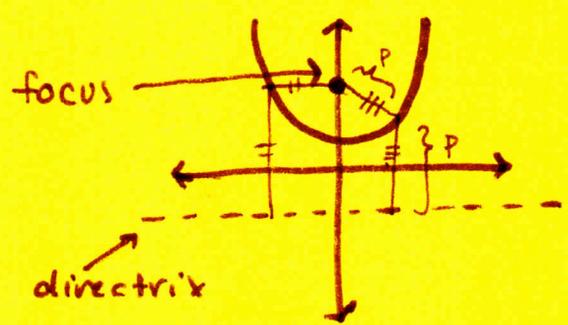
directrix $y = k - p$



$$4p(x-h) = (y-k)^2$$

$$(x-h) = \text{or } \frac{(y-k)^2}{4p}$$

directrix $x = h - p$

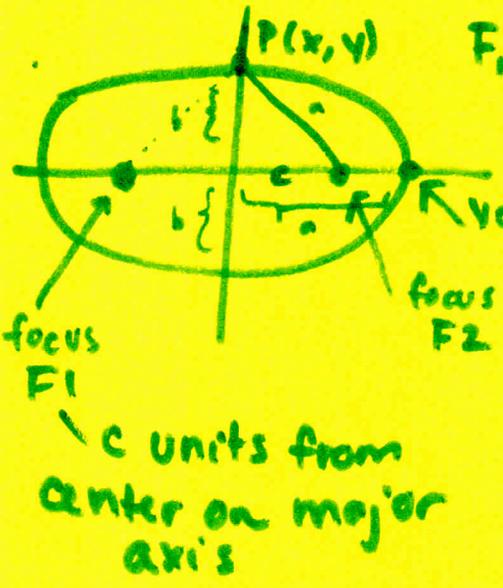


(distance = \perp distance)

The midpoint between the focus and the directrix is the VERTEX.
 The line that passes through the focus and the vertex is the AXIS OF SYMMETRY.

Ellipse

The set of all points (x, y) that the sum of ~~two~~ the distances from two distinct points (foci) is constant.



$$F_1 \rightarrow P + F_2 \rightarrow P = \text{a constant} = 2a$$

$$a^2 - b^2 = c^2$$

Vertex - the vertices lie on ~~the~~ major axis, a distance of a from the center. The perpendicular chord is the minor axis, with a length of $2b$.

• area = $2\pi ab$
 • center (h, k)

$$\frac{(x-h)^2}{a^2} + \frac{(y-k)^2}{b^2} = 1$$

$$\frac{(y-k)^2}{a^2} + \frac{(x-h)^2}{b^2} = 1$$

Ovalness = eccentricity = $e = \frac{c}{a}$

The eccentricity of an ellipse is always less than 1. If it is close to 0, it is circular; if is close to 1, it is more elongated.

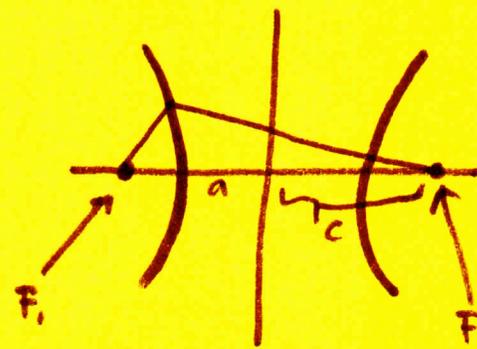
Hyperbola The set of all points (x, y) that the absolute value of the difference of the distances from two foci is constant.

* vertex: runs through foci and intersects hyperbola - these points

* line containing vertices = transverse axis

* other axis = conjugate axis

* midpoint of transverse axis = center, a distance of c from foci and a from vertices. $a^2 + b^2 = c^2$



$$|F_1 \rightarrow P - F_2 \rightarrow P| = 2a$$

* eccentricity: $e = \frac{c}{a}$, always larger than 1.

horizontal



$$\frac{(x-h)^2}{a^2} - \frac{(y-k)^2}{b^2} = 1$$

asymptotes = $y = k \pm \frac{b}{a}(x-h)$



$$\frac{(y-k)^2}{a^2} - \frac{(x-h)^2}{b^2} = 1$$

asymptotes = $y = k \pm \frac{a}{b}(x-h)$

Arc Length:

$$s = \int_a^b \sqrt{1 + (f'(x))^2} dx$$

for a parametric curve:

$$s = \int_a^b \sqrt{\left(\frac{dx}{dt}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{dy}{dt}\right)^2} dt$$

Parametric Equations

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are ~~de~~ in terms of a third variable (the parameter).
The graph of these equations is called the plane curve.

If the equations are solved so that the parameter is eliminated, it is rectangular.

Motion ...

	Along a Line	Along a Curve
POSITION	$x(t)$	$\langle x(t), y(t) \rangle$
VELOCITY	$x'(t)$	$\langle x'(t), y'(t) \rangle$
ACCELERATION	$x''(t)$	$\langle x''(t), y''(t) \rangle$
SPEED	$ x'(t) = v(t) $	$\sqrt{(x'(t))^2 + (y'(t))^2}$
TOTAL DISTANCE	$\int_a^b v(t) dt$	$\int_a^b \sqrt{(x'(t))^2 + (y'(t))^2} dt$

horizontal tangent line — slope = 0

vertical tangent line — undefined slope

If $f(t) = x$ and $g(t) = y$.

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

$$\frac{d^2y}{dx^2} = \frac{\frac{d}{dx} \left(\frac{dy}{dx} \right)}{\frac{dx}{dt}}$$

$$\frac{d^n y}{dx^n} = \frac{\frac{d}{dx} \left(\frac{d^{n-1} y}{dx^{n-1}} \right)}{\frac{dx}{dt}}$$