Review for 162.02 final

- 7.8 Improper integrals.
 - Integrals can be proper, improper but convergent, or improper and divergent.
 - Two types of improper integrals: discontinuous functions, infinite bounds.
- 10.1 Curves defined by parametric equations.
 - Sketch curves, graph with calculator.
 - Convert to/from cartesian coordinates.
 - Find intersections of curves. They may have the same (x, y) coordinates with different parameter values.

10.2 Calculus with parametric curves.

• Derivatives:
$$\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{dy/dt}{dx/dt}$$
, $\frac{d^2y}{dx^2} = \frac{\frac{d}{dt}\left(\frac{dy}{dx}\right)}{\frac{dx}{dt}}$.
• Arc length: $L = \int_{\alpha}^{\beta} \sqrt{\left(\frac{dx}{dt}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{dy}{dt}\right)^2} dt$.
• Area = $\int_{\alpha}^{b} y \, dx$. Also area between curves (compute areas, subtract).

10.3 Polar coordinates.

- Sketch curves, graph with calculator.
- Convert to/from cartesian coordinates.

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$$\frac{\mathrm{d}y}{\mathrm{d}x} = \frac{\frac{\mathrm{d}r}{\mathrm{d}\theta}\sin(\theta) + r\cos(\theta)}{\frac{\mathrm{d}r}{\mathrm{d}\theta}\cos(\theta) - r\sin(\theta)}$$
. Use to find tangent line, etc...

10.4 Areas and lengths in polar coordinates.

• Area
$$=\frac{1}{2}\int_{a}^{b}r^{2} d\theta$$
, also area between curves (compute areas, subtract)
• Arc length: $L = \int_{a}^{b}\sqrt{r^{2} + \left(\frac{\mathrm{d}r}{\mathrm{d}\theta}\right)^{2}} d\theta$.

11.1 Sequences.

- Identify if a sequence is convergent, bounded, monotonic, etc...
- Monotonic sequence theorem: Every bounded monotonic sequence is convergent.
- Compute limits of convergent sequences.

11.2 Series.

- Value is the limit of the sequence of partial sums, if it exists. i.e. $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n = \lim_{N \to \infty} \sum_{n=0}^{N} a_n.$
- Geometric series: $\sum_{\substack{n=0\\\infty}}^{\infty} a x^n = \frac{a}{1-x}$ for |x| < 1.
- Harmonic series: $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n}$ diverges.

• Telescoping series:
$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \left(f(n) - f(n+1) \right) = f(0) - \lim_{n \to \infty} f(n).$$

- Test for divergence: If $a_n \not\rightarrow 0$, then $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n$ diverges. The converse is not true. (ex: Harmonic.)
- Series need not start at n = 0. Be comfortable working with different initial indices.

11.3 Integral test.

- Integral test: Suppose f is continuous, positive, decreasing on $[1, \infty)$, and let $a_k = f(k)$. Then $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} a_k$ is convergent if and only if $\int_1^{\infty} f(x) dx$ is convergent.
- Remainder estimate: Suppose f and a_k are as above and $\sum a_k$ is convergent. Then the remainder $R_n = s s_n$ satisfies $\int_{n+1}^{\infty} f(x) \, \mathrm{d}x \le R_n \le \int_n^{\infty} f(x) \, \mathrm{d}x$.
- *p*-series: $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^p}$ converges if and only if p > 1.

11.4 Comparison tests.

- Comparison test: For series with positive terms, smaller than convergent converges; bigger than divergent diverges.
- Limit comparison test: Suppose $\sum a_n$ and $\sum b_n$ are series with positive terms. If $a_n/b_n \to c$, where c is a finite number bigger than 0, then the series either both converge or both diverge.

11.5 Alternating series.

- Alternating series test: If $\{a_n\}$ is a positive, decreasing sequence with limit of 0, then $\sum (-1)^n a_n$ converges.
- Alternating series estimation: The error in truncating an alternating series after n terms is no more than the absolute value of the first neglected term a_{n+1} .
- 11.6 Absolute convergence, root test, ratio test.
 - $\sum a_n$ is called absolutely convergent if $\sum |a_n|$ converges.
 - A series that is convergent but not absolutely convergent is called conditionally convergent.
 - Ratio test: Suppose $|a_{n+1}/a_n| \to L$. Note $L \ge 0$ by definition. If L < 1, then $\sum a_n$ converges. If L > 1, then $\sum a_n$ diverges. The ratio test is inconclusive if L = 1.
 - Root test: Suppose $\sqrt[n]{|a_n|} \to L$. Note $L \ge 0$ by definition. If L < 1, then $\sum a_n$ converges. If L > 1, then $\sum a_n$ diverges. The root test is inconclusive if L = 1.

11.8 Power series.

- Definition.
- Use ratio test to find radius and interval of convergence. Check endpoints!
- 11.9 Representations of functions as power series.
 - Rewrite and substitute into power series you already know.
 - Integrate and differentiate power series. (Both preserve radius of convergence.)
- 11.10 Taylor and Maclaurin series.
 - Taylor series of f centered at a is $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{f^{(n)}(a)}{n!} (x-a)^n$.
 - If f has a power series expression centered at a, it is necessarily its Taylor series.
 - The Maclaurin series of f is the Taylor series of f centered at 0.

- Taylor's Inequality: If $|f^{(n+1)}(x)| \leq M$ for $|x-a| \leq d$, then the remainder $R_n(x)$ of the Taylor series satisfies $|R_n(x)| \leq \frac{M}{(n+1)!} |x-a|^{n+1}$.
- If $R_n(x) \to 0$ for |x a| < R, then f is equal to its Taylor series on |x a| < R.
- Know common Maclaurin series: $\frac{1}{1-x}$, e^x , $\sin(x)$, $\cos(x)$, $\tan^{-1}(x)$.
- 11.11 Applications of Taylor polynomials.
 - Use Taylor's inequality to find $T_n(x)$ to approximate a function value, estimate the error/remainder.
- 12.1 The third dimension.
 - Distance between (x, y, z) and (a, b, c) is $\sqrt{(x-a)^2 + (y-b)^2 + (z-c)^2}$.
 - A sphere is the set of all points the same distance away from its center. That is, the equation of a sphere with center (a, b, c) is $(x a)^2 + (y b)^2 + (z c)^2 = r^2$, where r is the radius of the sphere.

 $12.2\,$ Vectors.

- A vector **v** is a magnitude and a direction. We can write it component-wise or in terms of the basis vectors **i**, **j**, and **k**. In 2d, $\mathbf{v} = \langle v_1, v_2 \rangle = v_1 \mathbf{i} + v_2 \mathbf{j}$. In 3d, $\mathbf{v} = \langle v_1, v_2, v_3 \rangle = v_1 \mathbf{i} + v_2 \mathbf{j} + v_3 \mathbf{k}$.
- The vector from (x_1, y_1, z_1) to (x_2, y_2, z_2) is $\mathbf{v} = \langle x_2 x_1, y_2 y_1, z_2 z_1 \rangle$. Similarly for 2d.
- The magnitude/length/norm (these are synonyms) of **v** in 3d is $|\mathbf{v}| = \sqrt{v_1^2 + v_2^2 + v_3^2}$. Similarly for 2d.
- A unit vector is a vector of length 1. The unit vector in the direction of $\mathbf{v} \neq \mathbf{0}$ is $\mathbf{u} = \mathbf{v}/|\mathbf{v}|$.
- Know vector arithmetic: addition, subtraction, and scalar multiplication.

12.3 Dot product.

- Dot product of $\mathbf{a} = \langle a_1, a_2, a_3 \rangle$ and $\mathbf{b} = \langle b_1, b_2, b_3 \rangle$ is the scalar $\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{b} = a_1 b_1 + a_2 b_2 + a_3 b_3$. Similarly for 2d.
- Know properties of the dot product. In particular, note $\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{a} = |a|^2$ and $\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{b} = |a| |b| \cos \theta$, where θ is the angle between \mathbf{a} and \mathbf{b} .
- **a** and **b** are orthogonal/perpendicular if and only if $\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{b} = 0$.
- Projections:
 - Scalar projection of **b** onto **a** is the length of the component of **b** in the **a** direction: $\operatorname{comp}_{\mathbf{a}} \mathbf{b} = \frac{\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{b}}{|a|}.$
 - Vector projection of **b** onto **a** is the vector portion of **b** in the direction of **a** : $proj_{\mathbf{a}}\mathbf{b} = (comp_{\mathbf{a}}\mathbf{b}) \frac{\mathbf{a}}{|\mathbf{a}|} = \frac{\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{b}}{\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{a}} \mathbf{a}$ Note that $(proj_{\mathbf{a}}\mathbf{b}) \cdot (\mathbf{b} - proj_{\mathbf{a}}\mathbf{b}) = 0.$
- Work: $W = \mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{D}$, where W is work, **F** is force, and **D** is displacement.

12.4 Cross product.

• Cross product is only defined for three dimensional vectors.

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$$\langle a_1, a_2, a_3 \rangle \times \langle b_1, b_2, b_3 \rangle = \begin{vmatrix} \mathbf{i} & \mathbf{j} & \mathbf{k} \\ a_1 & a_2 & a_3 \\ b_1 & b_2 & b_3 \end{vmatrix} = \langle a_2 \, b_3 - a_3 \, b_2, a_3 \, b_1 - a_1 \, b_3, a_1 \, b_2 - a_2 \, b_1 \rangle.$$

- $\mathbf{a} \times \mathbf{b}$ is a vector orthogonal to \mathbf{a} and \mathbf{b} in direction determined by the right-hand rule.
- $|\mathbf{a} \times \mathbf{b}| = |a| |b| \sin \theta$, where θ is the angle between \mathbf{a} and \mathbf{b} .
- **a** and **b** are parallel if and only if $\mathbf{a} \times \mathbf{b} = \mathbf{0}$.
- Know properties of cross product, especially arithmetic operations involving both cross and dot products.

- Area of parallelogram determined by \mathbf{a} and \mathbf{b} is $|\mathbf{a} \times \mathbf{b}|$.
- Torque: $\tau = \mathbf{r} \times \mathbf{F}$ where τ is the torque, \mathbf{r} connects the pivot to the point where force is applied, and \mathbf{F} is the force.

12.5 Lines and planes.

- Equation of a line. (A line is determined by two points.)
 - Vector equation: $\mathbf{r} = \mathbf{r_0} + t \mathbf{v}$.
 - Parametric equations: $x = x_0 + at$, $y = y_0 + bt$, $z = z_0 + ct$.
 - Symmetric equations: $\frac{x-x_0}{a} = \frac{y-y_0}{b} = \frac{z-z_0}{c}$.
 - Find equation of line passing through two points, intersections of lines, etc...
- Equation of a plane. (A plane is determined by three points, or a point and a normal vector. Planes with parallel normals are parallel.)
 - Vector equation: $\mathbf{n} \cdot (\mathbf{r} \mathbf{r_0}) = 0$, or $\mathbf{n} \cdot \mathbf{r} = \mathbf{n} \cdot \mathbf{r_0}$.
 - Scalar equation: $n_1(x x_0) + n_2(y y_0) + n_3(z z_0) = 0.$
- Find intersections of lines and planes, planes and planes, angles between them, distances from points to lines or planes, etc...

13.1 Vector functions, space curves.

- A vector function is a function that takes a scalar (e.g. a parameter t) and returns a vector.
- Find the domain of a vector function.
- The limit of a vector function is the vector of the limits.

13.2 Calculus with vector functions.

- Integrate and differentiate vector functions component-wise.
- Know properties of integration and differentiation. In particular, note that with vectors, we have two different types of products, so two product rules, both analogous to the one-dim case: $(\mathbf{u}(t) \cdot \mathbf{v}(t))' = \mathbf{u}'(t) \cdot \mathbf{v}(t) + \mathbf{u}(t) \cdot \mathbf{v}'(t)$ and $(\mathbf{u}(t) \times \mathbf{v}(t))' = \mathbf{u}'(t) \times \mathbf{v}(t) + \mathbf{u}(t) \times \mathbf{v}'(t)$.

13.3 Arc length and curvature.

- The length of the curve defined by $\mathbf{r}(t)$, $a \le t \le b$ is $L = \int_a^b |\mathbf{r}'(t)| dt$.
- Reparameterize a curve with respect to arc length.
- The curvature of the curve $\mathbf{r}(\tau)$ at time t is $\kappa(t) = \left|\frac{\mathrm{d}\mathbf{T}}{\mathrm{d}s}\right| = \frac{|\mathbf{T}'(t)|}{|\mathbf{r}'(t)|} = \frac{|\mathbf{r}'(t) \times \mathbf{r}''(t)|}{|\mathbf{r}'(t)|^3}$, where $\mathbf{T} = \mathbf{r}'/|\mathbf{r}'|$ is the unit tangent vector. The curvature of y = f(x) at x is $\kappa(x) = \frac{|f''(x)|}{|\mathbf{1} + (f'(x))^2|^{3/2}}$.
- Normal vector to $\mathbf{r}(t)$ is $\mathbf{N}(t) = \frac{\mathbf{T}'(t)}{|\mathbf{T}'(t)|}$. Binormal vector to $\mathbf{r}(t)$ is $\mathbf{B}(t) = \mathbf{T}(t) \times \mathbf{N}(t)$. Normal and binormal vectors at a point determine the normal plane at that point.

13.4 Velocity and acceleration.

- If a particle's position is $\mathbf{r}(t)$, then its velocity function is $\mathbf{v}(t) = \mathbf{r}'(t)$, and its acceleration is $\mathbf{a}(t) = \mathbf{v}'(t) = \mathbf{r}''(t)$.
- Newton's second law: The acceleration **a** resulting from force **F** acting on an object of mass m satisfies $\mathbf{F} = m \mathbf{a}$.
- Decomposing acceleration into tangential and normal directions: $\mathbf{a} = v' \mathbf{T} + \kappa v^2 \mathbf{N}$, where $v = |\mathbf{v}|$.