

§1 Integral Test

$f: [1, \infty) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}_{\geq 0}$ continuous, decreasing & $f(n) =: a_n$.

Compare Lower & Upper R.S with area under the curve to get

$$\underbrace{a_1 + \dots + a_n}_{=: S_n} \leq a_1 + \underbrace{\int_1^n f(x) dx}_{=: b_n} \leq a_1 + \underbrace{(a_1 + \dots + a_n)}_{=: S_n} \quad (*)$$

Test: S_n converges if and only if $b_n =: \int_1^n f(x) dx$ converges.

Examples ① $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n}$ diverges because $\int_1^n \frac{1}{x} dx = \ln(x) \Big|_1^n = \ln n$ diverges
 & $f(x) = \frac{1}{x}$ cut & decr.
 ② $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^2}$ converges " $\int_1^n \frac{1}{x^2} dx = -\frac{1}{x} \Big|_1^n = 1 - \frac{1}{n}$ converges
 & $f(x) = \frac{1}{x^2}$ cut & decr.

③ General p-series = $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^p}$ converges if and only if $p > 1$.

Why? If $p \leq 0$ $\frac{1}{n^p} = n^{-p} \xrightarrow{n \rightarrow \infty} \infty$ If $p = 0$ $\frac{1}{n^p} = \frac{1}{n^0} = 1 \not\xrightarrow{n \rightarrow \infty} 0$
 so diverges as well. Thus, we really need to focus on $p > 0$ & $p \neq 1$ (EX 0)

Take $f(x) = \frac{1}{x^p}$ on $[1, \infty)$ cut & diff'ble & $f(x) \geq 0$ on $[1, \infty)$.

$f'(x) = \frac{-p}{x^{p+1}} < 0$ on $[1, \infty)$ so f is decreasing.

$$\int_1^n f(x) dx = \int_1^n \frac{dx}{x^p} = \frac{x^{-p+1}}{-p+1} \Big|_1^n = \frac{1}{1-p} (n^{1-p} - 1)$$

$$\text{So } \int_1^{\infty} f(x) dx = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{1-p} (n^{1-p} - 1) = \frac{1}{1-p} \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (n^{1-p} - 1) = \begin{cases} \infty & \text{if } 1-p > 0 \\ \frac{-1}{1-p} = \frac{1}{p-1} & \text{if } 1-p < 0 \end{cases}$$

So $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^p}$ converges if and only $p > 1$ (by Integral Test)

④ $\sum_{n=2}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n \ln n} = ? \rightsquigarrow f(x) = \frac{1}{x \ln x}$ defined on $[2, \infty)$ & continuous, positive.

$f'(x) = \frac{-1}{(x \ln x)^2} (\ln x + 1) < 0 \rightsquigarrow f$ is decreasing on $[2, \infty)$
 $> 0 \text{ for } x > 2$

Test say $\sum_{n=2}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n \ln n}$ converges if and only if $\int_2^{\infty} \frac{dx}{x \ln x}$ does

$\int_2^n \frac{dx}{x \ln x} = \int_{\ln 2}^{\ln n} \frac{du}{u} = \ln u \Big|_{\ln 2}^{\ln n} = \ln(\ln n) - \ln(\ln 2) \xrightarrow{n \rightarrow \infty} \infty$
 $\downarrow n \rightarrow \infty$
 ∞
 $\downarrow n \rightarrow \infty$
 ∞

$u = \ln x$
 $du = \frac{dx}{x}$

Conclusion: The series diverges

⑤ general: $\sum_{n=2}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n(\ln n)^p} = ?? \rightsquigarrow f(x) = \frac{1}{x(\ln x)^p}$ on $[2, \infty)$ cont, positive

$f'(x) = \frac{-1}{(x(\ln x)^p)^2} ((\ln x)^p + p(\ln x)^{p-1}) = \frac{-(\ln x)^{p-1}}{x^2(\ln x)^{2p}} (p + \ln x) < 0$
 > 0 > 0

so f is decreasing on $[2, \infty)$

• Note: $(\ln n)^p \leq \ln n$ for $p \leq 1$ & $n \geq 3$. ($\ln n \geq 0$)

so $\frac{1}{n(\ln n)^p} \geq \frac{1}{n \ln n}$ for $p \leq 1$ & so $\sum_{n=2}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n(\ln n)^p} \geq \sum_{n=2}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n \ln n}$ diverges by ④

so $\sum_{n=2}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n(\ln n)^p}$ also diverges for $p \leq 1$ (Example of Comparison Thms).

• For $p > 1$, we use Integral Test

$\int_2^n \frac{dx}{x(\ln x)^p} = \int_{\ln 2}^{\ln n} \frac{du}{u^p} = \frac{u^{-p+1}}{-p+1} \Big|_{\ln 2}^{\ln n} = \frac{1}{1-p} ((\ln n)^{1-p} - (\ln 2)^{1-p})$
 $\downarrow u = \ln x$ $\downarrow \frac{du}{u^p}$ $\downarrow \frac{1}{1-p}$ $\downarrow \ln 2$ $\downarrow \ln n$ $\downarrow (\ln n)^{1-p}$ $\downarrow (\ln 2)^{1-p}$
 $du = \frac{dx}{x}$ $p \neq 1$ < 0 < 0
 $= \frac{1}{1-p} \left(\frac{1}{(\ln n)^{p-1}} - \frac{1}{(\ln 2)^{p-1}} \right)$
 $\downarrow n \rightarrow \infty$ $\rightarrow 0$

so $\sum_{n=2}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n(\ln n)^p}$ converges for $p > 1$ & sum $\leq \frac{1}{(p-1)(\ln 2)^{p-1}} + \frac{1}{2 \ln 2} = \int_2^{\infty} f(x) dx + a_2$

Q What else can we learn from the imp. in (*)?

(*) - $\int_1^n f(x) dx$ gives: $0 \leq \sum_{j=1}^n a_j - \int_1^n f(x) dx \leq a_1$

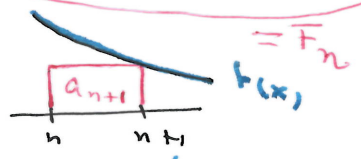
↑ (RHS) of (*) $=: F_n$ ↓ (LHS) of (*)

We have: • $\{F_n\}$ is bounded ($0 \leq F_n \leq a_1$)

• $\{F_n\}$ is decreasing $F_{n+1} = F_n + a_{n+1} - \int_n^{n+1} f(x) dx \leq F_n$

(because $F_{n+1} = S_{n+1} - \int_1^{n+1} f(x) dx = S_n + a_{n+1} - \int_1^n f(x) dx - \int_n^{n+1} f(x) dx$)

And $a_{n+1} - \int_n^{n+1} f(x) dx \leq 0$ because



Conclusion $\{F_n\}$ is decreasing & bounded, so it's convergent. Say $L = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} F_n$

We have $0 \leq L = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (a_1 + \dots + a_n - \int_1^n f(x) dx) \leq a_1$

Application: Take $a_n = \frac{1}{n}$ & $f(x) = \frac{1}{x} \Rightarrow \int_1^n f(x) dx = \ln n$.

So $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (1 + \frac{1}{2} + \dots + \frac{1}{n} - \ln n) = L$ & $0 \leq L \leq a_1$.

$\Rightarrow \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (1 + \frac{1}{2} + \dots + \frac{1}{n} - (\ln n + L)) = 0$

Name: $L = \gamma =$ "Euler's Constant" ($\gamma = 0.57721 56649 01532 86060 \dots$)

Open Q: Is γ in \mathbb{Q} or not?

Algorithmic notation: $b_n = o(1)$ if $\frac{b_n}{1} \rightarrow 0$ so write lim above

as $1 + \frac{1}{2} + \dots + \frac{1}{n} = \ln n + \gamma + o(1)$.

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

- Treat even & odd ^{partial} sums separately to confirm convergence (last time)
- Now, look closer at the partial sums $S_{2m} (\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} S_{2m+1} = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} S_{2m} = \text{sum of series})$

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

$$\begin{aligned} &\xrightarrow{\substack{\text{+ & -} \\ \text{separate}}} \left(1 + \frac{1}{3} + \frac{1}{5} + \dots + \frac{1}{2n-1} \right) - \left(\frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{4} + \frac{1}{6} + \dots + \frac{1}{2n} \right) \\ &\hspace{10em} \text{ODD denominators} \hspace{15em} \text{EVEN denominators} \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} &\xrightarrow{\substack{\text{add & subst} \\ \text{even denom}}} \left(1 + \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{3} + \frac{1}{4} + \dots + \frac{1}{2n-1} + \frac{1}{2n} \right) - 2 \left(\frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{4} + \frac{1}{6} + \dots + \frac{1}{2n} \right) \\ &\text{even denom} \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} &\xrightarrow{\text{cancel even den.}} = 1 + \frac{1}{2} + \dots + \frac{1}{2n} - \left(1 + \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{3} + \dots + \frac{1}{n} \right) \end{aligned}$$

$$= \ln 2n + \gamma + o(1) - (\ln n + \gamma + o(1))$$

$$= \ln 2n - \ln n + o(1) = \ln \frac{2n}{n} + o(1) = \ln 2 + o(1)$$

$$\text{So } S_{2n} = \ln(2) + o(1) \xrightarrow{n \rightarrow \infty} \boxed{\ln 2}$$

Conclusion: The sum of the series is $\ln 2$.

§2 The ratio Test

$$\text{Motivation: } \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} r^n = \begin{cases} \text{converges (to } \frac{1}{1-r} \text{)} & \text{if } \boxed{0 \leq r < 1} \\ \text{diverges} & \text{if } \boxed{r > 1} \end{cases}$$

$r \geq 0$

For the geometric series, the ratio between successive terms is the

constant value r : $\frac{a_{n+1}}{a_n} = \frac{r^{n+1}}{r^n} = r$.

So if $r < 1$, $a_{n+1} = r a_n$ & the terms decay sufficiently fast to ensure the series converges.

The ratio test says this always works for series of positive terms

Ratio Test Pick a sequence $\{a_n\}_n$ with $\boxed{a_n > 0}$ for n large enough

Assume $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{a_{n+1}}{a_n} = L$ exists. Then:

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n = \begin{cases} \text{converges} & \text{if } L < 1 \\ \text{diverges} & \text{if } L > 1 \\ \text{don't know} & \text{if } L = 1 \rightarrow \text{ANYTHING CAN HAPPEN} \end{cases}$$

Examples: ① $\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{k!}$ converges (to e)

Proof 1: Careful bounding techniques (Lecture 47)

Proof 2: Use Ratio Test $a_n = \frac{1}{n!} > 0$, $\frac{a_{n+1}}{a_n} = \frac{n!}{(n+1)!} = \frac{1}{n+1} \xrightarrow{n \rightarrow \infty} 0 < 1$
so convergence follows!

② $\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{3^k}{k!}$ converges (to e^3)

Ratio Test: $a_n = \frac{3^n}{n!} > 0$, $\frac{a_{n+1}}{a_n} = \frac{3^{n+1}}{(n+1)!} \cdot \frac{n!}{3^n} = \frac{3}{n+1} \xrightarrow{n \rightarrow \infty} 0 < 1$.

③ $\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{k^6}{3^k}$ converges

Ratio Test $a_n = \frac{n^6}{3^n} > 0$, $\frac{a_{n+1}}{a_n} = \frac{(n+1)^6}{3^{n+1}} \cdot \frac{3^n}{n^6} = \left(\frac{n+1}{n}\right)^6 \cdot \frac{1}{3} \xrightarrow{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{3} < 1$

Remark: Ratio Test is useful if series involves factorials, powers, exponentials, products in general

Proof: Future Lecture

§3 The Root Test:

Motivation from geometric series. Extremely useful for power series (eg Taylor series)

Root Test: Pick a sequence $\{a_n\}$ with $|a_n| > 0$ for n large enough.

Asume $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sqrt[n]{|a_n|} = L$ exists. Then:

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n = \begin{cases} \text{converges} & \text{if } L < 1 \\ \text{diverges} & \text{if } L > 1 \\ \text{don't know} & \text{if } L = 1 \end{cases} \rightarrow \text{see examples ① \& ② below.}$$

Examples: ① $\sum_{k=p}^{\infty} \frac{1}{k}$ diverges & $\sqrt[k]{\frac{1}{k}} = \frac{1}{k^{1/k}} \xrightarrow{n \rightarrow \infty} 1 = e^0$ (because $\ln(k^{1/k}) = \frac{\ln k}{k} \rightarrow 0$)

② $\sum_{k=p}^{\infty} \frac{1}{k^2}$ converges & $\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} \sqrt[k]{\frac{1}{k^2}} = \left(\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} \sqrt[k]{\frac{1}{k}}\right)^2 = 1^2$

③ $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^n}$ converges by Root Test $\sqrt[n]{\frac{1}{n^n}} = \frac{1}{n} \xrightarrow{n \rightarrow \infty} 0 < 1$.

④ $\sum_{n=2}^{\infty} \frac{1}{(\ln n)^n}$ converges by Root Test $\sqrt[n]{\frac{1}{(\ln n)^n}} = \frac{1}{\ln n} \xrightarrow{n \rightarrow \infty} 0 < 1$ 16

⑤ $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{n^2}{2^n}$ _____ $\sqrt[n]{\frac{n^2}{2^n}} = \frac{(\sqrt[n]{n})^2}{2} \xrightarrow{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{2} < 1$

⑥ $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (\sqrt[n]{n} - 1)^{n/2}$ _____ $\sqrt[n]{(\sqrt[n]{n} - 1)^{n/2}} = (\sqrt[n]{n} - 1)^{1/2} \xrightarrow{n \rightarrow \infty} 0 < 1$

Remark: Root Test is useful for series involving exponentials & powers.

Proof: Future Lecture