

Math2411 - Calculus II  
Guided Lecture Notes  
Divergence and Integral Tests

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### Divergence and Integral Tests Introduction:

Our objective is to study some basic tests to determine whether an infinite series converges. So to get started, we recall geometric series

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} cr^n = c = cr + cr^2 + cr^3 + \dots$$

We were able to find a formula for the  $k^{th}$  partial sum  $s_k$  and use this to determine when the series converged and to what value does it converge.

$$\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} s_k = \lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} c \cdot \left( \frac{1 - r^{k-1}}{1 - r} \right) = \frac{c}{1 - r} \quad \text{if } -1 < r < r.$$

For all other values of  $r$  the geometric series diverges.

Unfortunately, a formula for the  $k^{th}$  partial sum  $s_k$  is usually too difficult to find. So we need other methods to check for convergence or divergence.

### Divergence Test:

Can you think of a necessary condition on the terms of the series  $a_n$  for convergence of  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$ ?

Suppose that a sequence  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$  converges. Then  $\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} s_k = L$  for some finite number  $L$ . Then we have

$$\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} a_k = \lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} (s_k - s_{k-1}) = L - L = 0.$$

So if a series converges we conclude that the terms in the series must converge to zero. This is logically equivalent to the statement of the following theorem.

#### Theorem 5.8: Divergence Test

If  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = c \neq 0$  or  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n$  does not exist, then the series  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$  diverges.

**Note:** The converse of the theorem is not true. That is, if  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = 0$ , we can conclude nothing

about the convergence or divergence of the series. For example,  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} 1/n = 0$  while the series  $\sum 1/n$  diverges. We will soon see that even though  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} 1/n^2 = 0$  the series  $\sum 1/n^2$  converges.

## Divergence Test Examples:

**Example 1.** Apply the divergence test to  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{n}{3n-1}$ .

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Here is another example.

**Example 2.** Apply the divergence test to  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^4}$ .

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Here is another example.

**Example 3.** Apply the divergence test to  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} e^{1/n^2}$ .

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## Integral Test:

The Integral Test is an important and powerful test and is based on the logic of direct comparison.

Let's return to a familiar example  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n}$  and use the improper integral  $\int_{x=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{x} dx$  for comparison.

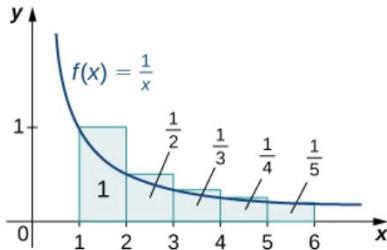


Figure 1: Comparison Method for Integral Test

We can see from the graphic that

$$\sum_{n=1}^k \frac{1}{n} = 1 + \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{3} + \dots + \frac{1}{k} > \int_1^{k+1} \frac{1}{x} dx.$$

Therefore, for each  $k$ , the  $k$ th partial sum  $S_k$  satisfies

$$S_k = \sum_{n=1}^k \frac{1}{n} > \int_1^{k+1} \frac{1}{x} dx = \ln x \Big|_1^{k+1} = \ln(k+1) - \ln(1) = \ln(k+1).$$

Then since  $\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} \ln(1+k) = \infty$  we must have  $\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} S_k = \infty$  and the original infinite series diverges by the Integral Test.

Let's consider another example with  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^2}$ .

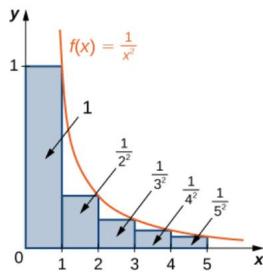


Figure 2: Comparison Method for Integral Test

We can see from the graphic that

$$\sum_{n=1}^k \frac{1}{n^2} = 1 + \frac{1}{2^2} + \frac{1}{3^2} + \cdots + \frac{1}{k^2} < 1 + \int_1^k \frac{1}{x^2} dx.$$

Therefore, for each  $k$ , the  $k$ th partial sum  $S_k$  satisfies

$$S_k = \sum_{n=1}^k \frac{1}{n^2} < 1 + \int_1^k \frac{1}{x^2} dx = 1 - \frac{1}{x}|_1^k = 1 - \frac{1}{k} + 1 = 2 - \frac{1}{k} < 2.$$

We conclude that the sequence of partial sums  $\{S_k\}$  is bounded. We also see that  $\{S_k\}$  is an increasing sequence:

$$S_k = S_{k-1} + \frac{1}{k^2} \text{ for } k \geq 2.$$

We will use an important fact about infinite sequences. If a sequence  $\{S_k\}$  is increasing and bounded then it must converge. In this example is is clear that

$$S_k = \sum_{n=1}^k \frac{1}{n^2}$$

is an increasing sequence. That is,  $S_k \geq S_{k-1}$ . We also see from above that the sequence of partial sums  $S_k$  is bounded above by 2. Therefore, the sequence of partial sums  $\{S_k\}$  converges and we say the infinite series converges by the Integral Test.

This process can be summed up by the following theorem.

### Theorem 5.9: Integral Test

Suppose  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$  is a series with positive terms  $a_n$ . Suppose there exists a function  $f$  and a positive integer  $N$  such that the following three conditions are satisfied:

- i.  $f$  is continuous,
- ii.  $f$  is decreasing, and
- iii.  $f(n) = a_n$  for all integers  $n \geq N$ .

Then

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n \text{ and } \int_N^{\infty} f(x) dx$$

both converge or both diverge (see [Figure 5.14](#)).

Let's consider a few examples.

**Integral Test Examples:**

**Example 4.** Apply the Integral Test to  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2n-1}}$ .

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We now look to an important type of series called a *p*-series.

### **Definition**

For any real number  $p$ , the series

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

is called a ***p*-series**.

Fortunately we can come to a general solution about *p*-series.

A *p*-series  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^p}$  converges when  $p > 1$  and diverges when  $p \leq 1$ .

Consider a few examples.

$$1. \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^{5/4}}$$

Since  $p = 5/4 > 1$  the infinite series converges as a *p*-series.

$$2. \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{\sqrt{n}}$$

Since  $p = 1/2 \leq 1$  the infinite series diverges as a *p*-series.

$$3. \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^3}$$

Since  $p = 3 > 1$  the infinite series converges as a *p*-series.

### **Estimation of Series Value:**

#### **Theorem 5.10: Remainder Estimate from the Integral Test**

Suppose  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$  is a convergent series with positive terms. Suppose there exists a function  $f$  satisfying the following three conditions:

- i.  $f$  is continuous,
- ii.  $f$  is decreasing, and
- iii.  $f(n) = a_n$  for all integers  $n \geq 1$ .

Let  $S_N$  be the  $N$ th partial sum of  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$ . For all positive integers  $N$ ,

$$S_N + \int_{N+1}^{\infty} f(x) dx < \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n < S_N + \int_N^{\infty} f(x) dx.$$

In other words, the remainder  $R_N = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n - S_N = \sum_{n=N+1}^{\infty} a_n$  satisfies the following estimate:

$$\int_{N+1}^{\infty} f(x) dx < R_N < \int_N^{\infty} f(x) dx.$$

This is known as the **remainder estimate**.

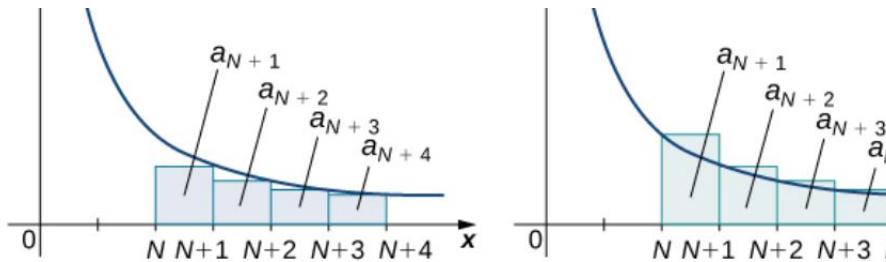


Figure 3: Visualization of Partial Sum Estimate

We can see that

$$\begin{aligned} R_N &= a_{N+1} + a_{N+2} + a_{N+3} + \dots \leq \int_{x=N}^{\infty} f(x) dx \\ R_N &= a_{N+1} + a_{N+2} + a_{N+3} + \dots \geq \int_{x=N+1}^{\infty} f(x) dx \end{aligned}$$

So the integral is either an overestimate of  $R_N$  or an underestimate of  $R_n$ .

Let's work an example.

**Example 5.** Consider the infinite series  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^3}$ . It turns out that, even though we know the series converges as a  $p$ -series, to this day mathematicians have been unable to determine an explicit form the value of the series. So we must estimate the value. Let's use the partial sum  $S_{10}$ .

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