

# Calculus II Math 1038 (1002&1003)

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Week 2:

1. Contact:

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  - **Q&A: Fri afternoons**
- TA: Ms. Mei MING, T3-502-R26-H13
  - Tutorial: 7:00-7:50pm Thursdays

Course of content of Chapter 1 Sequence and Series

1. Sequences
2. Series
  - (a) Tests for convergence
  - (b) error estimate and radius of convergence
3. Taylor's series & its applications

Review: Calculus I:

1. **limit** of a function

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = L$$

$$\forall \epsilon > 0, \quad \exists \delta > 0, \\ s.t. \quad |x - a| < \delta, \quad |f(x) - L| < \epsilon$$

(Notations:  $\forall$ : for all,  $\exists$ : exists; Greek letters:  $\epsilon$ : epsilon,  $\delta$ : delta.)

2. continuity: A function is **continuous** at a number  $a$  if

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = f(a)$$

3. differentiation: The **derivative** of a function  $f(x)$

$$f'(x) = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(x+h) - f(x)}{h}$$

4. integration: limit of Riemann sum

$$\int_a^b f(x) dx = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{k=1}^n f(x_k) \Delta x_k$$

where

$$a = x_1 < x_2 < \dots < x_n = b$$

## 5. Improper Integrals

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

If the limit exists, we say that the improper integral converges to a value  $L$ . If the limit does not exist, we say that the improper integral diverges: e.g.

$$\int_1^\infty \frac{1}{x^2} dx$$

and

$$\int_1^\infty \frac{1}{x^p} dx$$

## Start of Calculus II: Sequences and series

1. Definitions: we use  $n$ ,  $k$  and  $N$  to denote positive integers.

(a) Sequence: a list of numbers in a definite order

$$\{a_1, a_2, \dots\} \quad \{a_n\} \quad \{a_n\}_{n=1}^\infty$$

(b) Limit of a convergent sequence:

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

(c) Series: the sum of a sequence  $\{a_n\}_{n=1}^\infty$

$$s = \sum_{n=1}^\infty a_n$$

i. Partial sum:

$$s_n = \sum_{k=1}^n a_k$$

ii. Remainder:

$$R_n = s - s_n = \sum_{k=n+1}^\infty a_k$$

(d) Limit of a convergent series

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{k=1}^n a_k = L$$

2. Sequences:

(a) arithmetic sequence: common difference

(b) geometric sequence: common ratio

(c) harmonic sequence:  $a_n = 1/n$

(d) Fibonacci sequence  $a_{n+2} = a_n + a_{n+1}$

(e) alternating sequence: absolute convergence

3. Series:

(a) geometric series

(b)  $p$ -series

(c) **Taylor's series: power series**

(d) Fourier series: trigonometric series

4. **Growth rates of sequence** in order:

$$\ln n, \quad n, \quad n \cdot \ln n, \quad n^2, \quad a^n, \quad n! \quad n^n$$

These sequences all go to infinity.

## 5. Theorems about convergent sequences

- (a) Squeeze Theorem
- (b) Bounded monotonic sequence theorem:
  - i. a bounded above monotonically increasing sequence converges;
  - ii. a bounded below monotonically decreasing sequence converges.
  - iii. a **bounded monotonic** sequence is convergent.
- (c) If a sequence converges to  $L$ , then every subsequence converges to  $L$ .

## 6. Test for series divergence

- (a) If the series  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$  is convergent, then

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

**Warning!** the **converse statement** is not true! counter example:  $a_n = 1/n$ .

**The contrapositive statement is true**, which is the **divergence test**: if

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

then  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$  is divergent.

7. **Test for series convergence**

- (a) Find the **exact sum** of the series:
  - i. geometric series:

$$\begin{aligned} s &= a + ar + ar^2 + \dots \\ &= a \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} r^n \\ &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a \frac{1 - r^{n+1}}{1 - r} \\ &= \begin{cases} \frac{a}{1-r} & r < 1 \\ \infty & r \geq 1 \end{cases} \end{aligned}$$

- ii. telescoping series, e.g.:

$$\begin{aligned} s &= \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n(n+1)} \\ &= \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \left( \frac{1}{n} - \frac{1}{n+1} \right) \\ &= 1 - \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2} - \frac{1}{3} + \frac{1}{3} - \dots \\ &= 1 \end{aligned}$$

It is usually difficult to find the **exact sum** of series, so we develop several tests which enable us to determine the convergence without finding the exact sum.

- (b) **Integral Test**:  $f$  is a **continuous**, **positive**, **decreasing** function on  $[1, \infty)$  and  $f(n) = a_n$

$$\int_1^{\infty} f(x) dx \quad \text{and} \quad \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$$

both converge or both diverge.

i. **p-series**

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

converges if  $p > 1$  and diverges if  $p \leq 1$ .

Since (*check 3 conditions*)

A.  $f(x) = \frac{1}{x^p}$  is **continuous** on  $[1, \infty)$ ,

B.  $f(x) > 0$ , **positive**

C.  $f(x)' = -p\frac{1}{n^{p-1}} < 0$  **decreasing**

and

$$\int_1^{\infty} \frac{1}{x^p} dx = \lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{p-1} \left[ 1 - \frac{1}{x^{p-1}} \right]_{x=1}^N = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{p-1} & p > 1 \text{ converges} \\ \infty & p \leq 1 \text{ diverges} \end{cases}$$

which converges, therefore using integral test

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

**converges.**

when  $p = 1$ , it is a harmonic series which is divergent.

(c) **Comparison Test**

i. Direct comparison test, e.g.  $a_n = \frac{1}{n^2+1}$

$$\frac{1}{n^2+1} < \frac{1}{n^2}$$

Since  $\sum \frac{1}{n^2}$  is convergent, the series  $\sum \frac{1}{n^2+1}$  is convergent too.

ii. **Limit** comparison test, e.g.  $a_n = \frac{1}{n^2-1}$  (we cannot use the direct comparison. However,  $\frac{1}{n^2-1}$  and  $\frac{1}{n^2}$  have almost the same behaviour at  $\infty$  because the limit of their ratio is a finite constant. )

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\frac{1}{n^2-1}}{\frac{1}{n^2}} = 1$$

Since  $\sum \frac{1}{n^2}$  is convergent, the series  $\sum \frac{1}{n^2-1}$  is convergent too.

(d) **Ratio Test**

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

i.  $0 \leq r < 1$ , converges

ii.  $r > 1$ , diverges

iii.  $r = 1$ , inconclusive (we cannot make a conclusion, we need another test!)

(e) **Root Test**

$$L = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sqrt[n]{|a_n|}$$

i.  $L < 1$ , **absolutely convergent**

ii.  $L > 1$ , divergent

iii.  $L = 1$ , inconclusive

(f) Absolute convergence  $\sum |a_n|$  implies convergence  $\sum a_n$ .

(g) Alternating convergence Test. For an alternation series  $s = \sum (-1)^n b_n$ , where  $b_n > 0$

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} b_n = 0$$

then the alternating series is convergent.

## 8. Error estimate

- (a) Remainder estimate for the **integral test and comparison test**.  $R_n = s - s_n = \sum_{k=n+1}^{\infty} a_k$

$$\int_{n+1}^{\infty} f(x)dx \leq R_n \leq \int_n^{\infty} f(x)dx$$

This can be proved through the *areas under the curves*. Note:  $f(x)$  is continuous, positive and decreasing.

- (b) **Alternating series estimation theorem**. If  $s = \sum (-1)^n b_n$ , where  $b_n > 0$  satisfies

$$b_{n+1} \leq b_n \quad \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} b_n = 0$$

then

$$|R_n| = |s - s_n| \leq b_{n+1}$$

- (c) Two types of questions:

- what is the error estimate for  $R_n$  [given  $n$  and **find the error  $\epsilon$** ]
- how many terms are required to ensure the sum is accurate/correct to within a value of  $\epsilon$ . [given the error  $\epsilon$  and **find the minimum  $n$** ]

## 9. Which test should I use? (good question)

*Quick answer:* For each test, do as much exercise as you can. Then you can develop intuitions about which test you should choose.

*Slow answer:* (Read book chapter **11.7 Strategy for testing series**)

For **sequences**, it is easy to test:

- (a) if you think it is convergent, you can look for  $\lim a_n$ . If the limit exist (e.g.  $a_n = 1 + 1/n$ ,  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = 1$ ), then it is **convergent**.  
If the limit does not exist (e.g.  $a_n = \sin n$ ) or goes to  $\infty$  (e.g.  $a_n = n^2$ ), this sequence is **divergent**.
- (b) If you think it is **divergent**, you can look for two **subsequences** which does **NOT** converge to the same limit. e.g.  $a_n = (-1)^n$ , with

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_{2n} = 1, \quad \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_{2n+1} = -1$$

- (c) We can apply the **Squeeze Theorem**, if you think it is convergent and it is not too hard to find two sequences (or **one sequence** and one **constant**  $L$  which equals to the limit) such that one is **smaller** and one is **larger** and both converge to the same value  $L$ . e.g.  $a_n = \sin n/n^2$ , or  $\ln n/n^2$ . Since

$$0 \leq \frac{\ln n}{n^2} \leq \frac{1}{n} \quad \text{and} \quad \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{n} = 0$$

So this  $a_n = \ln n/n^2$  is **convergent**.

For **series**, we should first be familiar with conditions for **geometric series** and **p-series** to be convergent. Let's look at positive series in which each  $a_n \geq 0$ .

- (a) [**Test for divergent**] If the  $\lim a_n \neq 0$ , it is easy, the series  $\sum a_n$  is going to explode (divergent) as you are keep adding non-zero values to the series.  
If the  $\lim a_n = 0$ , some series can also be divergent, e.g. p-series when  $p \leq 1$ . One example is the harmonic series  $a_n = 1/n$ , however  $\sum 1/n$  goes to  $\infty$  at *logarithm* speed.
- (b) [**Integral test**] to write  $f(n) = a_n$  and check if  $f(x)$  satisfies these 3 conditions:  
1,  $f(n)$  is continuous on  $[1, \infty)$ , 2.  $f(n) \geq 0$ , 3.  $f(x)$  is decreasing. If it satisfies then we determine the convergence of the series by the convergence of the improper integral  $\int_1^{\infty} f(x)dx$ . e.g. it is hard to evaluate  $\sum 1/n^3$ , but we know  $\int_1^{\infty} 1/x^3 dx$  converges, then the series converges too. To do the integration, you might need to use some integration techniques, such as *change of variables*, *integration by parts*. Sometimes, you probably cannot find the integral easily, then you should consider applying the comparison.

- (c) [**Comparison test**] This is an easy test, if you can construct inequality using geometric series or p-series. e.g. We can compare with a geometric series

$$s = \sum_{n=2}^{\infty} \frac{2^n}{3^n - n}$$

we can compare such as series with a geometric series

$$\frac{2^n}{3^n - n} < \left(\frac{2}{3}\right)^n$$

so

$$s = \sum_{n=2}^{\infty} \frac{2^n}{3^n - n} < \sum_{n=2}^{\infty} \left(\frac{2}{3}\right)^n \quad \text{which is convergent}$$

therefore,  $s$  is convergent.

Another example: compare with a  $p$ -series

$$s = \sum_{n=2}^{\infty} \frac{2n}{n^3 + n^2}$$

Since

$$\frac{2n}{n^3 + n^2} < \frac{2n}{n^3} = \frac{2}{n^2}$$

so

$$s = \sum_{n=2}^{\infty} \frac{2n}{n^3 + n^2} < \sum_{n=2}^{\infty} \frac{2}{n^2} \quad \text{which is convergent}$$

therefore,  $s$  is convergent.

- (d) [**Alternating Test**] The above are all about positive series. For alternating series, the test is easier. You will just need to check the limit of  $a_n$ . If

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

then the alternating series is convergent. e.g. the alternating harmonic series

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

is **convergent**.

- (e) [**Ratio Test**] To test the series where the ratio between two items is easy to obtain, such as exponential and factorial functions, e.g. The convergent series

$$a_n = \frac{2^n}{n!}$$

It is easy to compute the ratio

$$\frac{a_{n+1}}{a_n} = \frac{2^{n+1}}{(n+1)!} \cdot \frac{n!}{2^n} = \frac{2}{n+1} < 1$$

- (f) [**Root Test**] To test the series where the root of the item is easy to obtain. e.g.

$$a_n = \left(\frac{2n+1}{3n+1}\right)^n$$