

# Chapter 1: Numerical Series

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# 1 Preamble

## 1.1 Vocabulary

In this chapter, we will use CVG for Convergence and DVG for Divergence. We will also use GT for General Term.

## 1.2 Remark

 Be careful, the series  $\sum U_n$  is not the same as the sequence  $(U_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ .  $\sum U_n$  is the series of general term  $U_n$  and  $(U_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$  is the sequence  $U_n$ .

# 2 General approach Convergence and Divergence

## 2.1 Definition

Let  $(U_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$  a sequence of real numbers, we call series of general term  $U_k$  and denote  $\sum U_k$  the sequence of partial sums  $(S_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$  where for any integer  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ ,  $S_n = \sum_{k=0}^n U_k$ . We say  $\sum U_k$  is convergent if and only if  $(S_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$  is convergent.


### 2.1.1 Example: the geometric series

Let  $q \in \mathbb{R}^*$  and let us consider the series  $\sum q^k$ . We have:

$$\forall n \in \mathbb{N}, S_n = \sum_{k=0}^n q^k = \begin{cases} \frac{1-q^{n+1}}{1-q} & \text{if } q \neq 1 \\ n+1 & \text{if } q = 1 \end{cases} \Rightarrow \begin{cases} \text{if } -1 < q < 1, \sum_{k=0}^{+\infty} q^k = \frac{1}{1-q} \sum U_k: \text{CVG} \\ \text{if } q > 1 \text{ or } q < -1, \sum U_k: \text{DVG} \\ \sum U_k: \text{DVG} \end{cases}$$

## 2.2 Propositions

Let  $\sum U_k$  and  $\sum V_k$  two series of general terms and  $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}$ . We have:

- If  $[\sum U_k \text{ CVG and } \sum V_k \text{ CVG}]$ , then  $\sum (U_k + V_k) \text{ CVG}$
- If  $[\sum U_k \text{ CVG}]$ , then  $\sum \lambda U_k \text{ CVG}$
- If  $[\sum U_k \text{ CVG and } \sum V_k \text{ DVG}]$ , then  $\sum (U_k + V_k) \text{ DVG}$
-   $\sum U_k \text{ DVG and } \sum V_k \text{ DVG}$  does not imply  $\sum (U_k + V_k) \text{ DVG}$

## 2.3 Sum and Remainder of a convergent series

Let  $\sum U_k$  a convergent series. We call sum of the series  $\sum U_k$  the following real number:  $\sum_{k=0}^{+\infty} U_k = \lim_{n \rightarrow +\infty} S_n$  where  $S_n = \sum_{k=0}^n U_k$ . And we call remainder of the series

$\sum \mathbf{U}_k$  sequence  $(\mathbf{R}_n)$  defined as follows:

$$\forall n \in \mathbb{N}, R_n = \sum_{k=n+1}^{+\infty}$$

### 2.3.1 Example

$$\sum q^k \text{ CVG} \Leftrightarrow -1 < q < 1 : \mathbf{S} = \lim_{n \rightarrow +\infty} \mathbf{S}_n = \frac{1}{1-q}$$

## 2.4 Convergence necessary condition

### 2.4.1 Proposition

Let  $\sum (\mathbf{U}_k)_{k \in \mathbb{N}}$  a sequence. We have:

$$\sum U_k \text{ CVG} \begin{matrix} \Rightarrow \\ \nLeftarrow \end{matrix} \left( U_k \xrightarrow[k \rightarrow +\infty]{} 0 \right)$$

### 2.4.2 Example

- Harmonic series:  $\sum \frac{1}{n}, \left(\frac{1}{n}\right) \xrightarrow[n \rightarrow +\infty]{} 0$  but  $\sum \frac{1}{n}$  DVG
- $\sum \frac{e^n}{n^{2023}}, \frac{e^n}{n^{2023}} \xrightarrow[n \rightarrow +\infty]{} +\infty \Rightarrow \sum \frac{e^n}{n^{2023}}$  DVG

## 3 Positive Term Series (P.T.S.)

### 3.1 Definition

Let  $\sum \mathbf{U}_k$  a series. We say  $\sum \mathbf{U}_k$  is a P.T.S., if and only if  $\forall k \in \mathbb{N}, \mathbf{U}_k \geq 0$ .  
We say  $\sum \mathbf{U}_k$  is a P.T.S. from  $\mathbf{p} \in \mathbb{N}$  onwards, if and only if  $\forall k \in \mathbb{N}, k \geq \mathbf{p} \Rightarrow \mathbf{U}_k \geq 0$ .

### 3.2 Propositions

- Let  $\sum \mathbf{U}_k$  a P.T.S. and  $(\mathbf{S}_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$  the associated partial sum sequence. Then:

$$\sum U_k \text{ CVG} \Leftrightarrow (S_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}} \text{ is upper-bounded}$$

- Let  $\sum \mathbf{U}_k$  and  $\sum \mathbf{V}_k$  two series such that:  
 $\forall k \in \mathbb{N}, 0 \leq \mathbf{U}_k \leq \mathbf{V}_k$ . Then:

1. If  $\sum \mathbf{V}_k$  CVG, then  $\sum \mathbf{U}_k$  CVG
2. If  $\sum \mathbf{U}_k$  DVG, then  $\sum \mathbf{V}_k$  DVG

### 3.2.1 Example

What's the nature of  $\sum \frac{1}{|n \cdot \sin(n)|}$  ?

$$\forall n \in \mathbb{N}^*, 0 < |\sin(n)| \leq 1 \Rightarrow 0 < \frac{1}{n} \leq \frac{1}{|n \cdot \sin(n)|}$$

$$\sum \frac{1}{n} \text{ (Harmonic) DVG} \Rightarrow \sum \frac{1}{|n \cdot \sin(n)|} \text{ DVG}$$

### 3.3 Riemann's series

#### 3.3.1 Definition

We call Riemann's series any series of General Terms (GT)  $\sum \frac{1}{n^\alpha}$  where  $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}$ .

#### 3.3.2 Theorem (Riemann)

Let  $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}$ . Then:

$$\sum \frac{1}{n^\alpha} \text{ CVG} \iff \alpha > 1$$

##### 3.3.2.1 Example

- $\sum \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} = \sum \frac{1}{2^{\frac{1}{2}}} \implies \text{DVG}$
- $\sum \frac{1+\cos(n)}{n^4}$ :  $\forall n \in \mathbb{N}^*, 0 \leq 1 + \cos(n) \leq 2 \implies 0 \leq \frac{1+\cos(n)}{n^4} \leq \frac{2}{n^4}$   
And  $\sum \frac{2}{n^4}$  of same nature as  $\sum \frac{1}{n^4}$  (Riemann's series) CVG  $\implies \sum \frac{1+\cos(n)}{n^4} \text{ CVG}$

### 3.4 Comparison criteria

#### 3.4.1 Proposition

Let  $\sum U_n$  and  $\sum V_n$  two P.T.S.


- ① If  $U_n \underset{+\infty}{\sim} V_n$  then  $\sum U_n$  and  $\sum V_n$  are of same nature
- ② If  $U_n = o(V_n)$  then [If  $\sum V_n \text{ CVG}$  then  $\sum U_n \text{ CVG}$ ]

##### 3.4.1.1 Example

What's the nature of  $\sum U_n$  ?

- $U_n = e^{-\sqrt{n}}$ : Step 1:  $n^2 \times U_n = \frac{n^2}{e^{\sqrt{n}}} = \frac{(\sqrt{n})^4}{e^{\sqrt{n}}} \xrightarrow{n \rightarrow +\infty} 0 \implies U_n = o(\frac{1}{n^2})$   
Step 2:  $\sum \frac{1}{n^2} \text{ CVG}$  (Riemann's series  $\alpha = 2 > 1$ )  $\implies \sum U_n \text{ CVG}$

$$\forall n \in \mathbb{N}^*, \frac{n+1}{n} = 1 + \frac{1}{n} \implies \ln(1 + \frac{1}{n}) \underset{+\infty}{=} \frac{1}{n} + o(\frac{1}{n})$$

- $U_n = \ln(\frac{n+1}{n})$ :   $\implies \begin{cases} \textcircled{1} \forall n \in \mathbb{N}, U_n > 0 \text{ since } 1 + \frac{1}{n} > 1 \\ \textcircled{2} U_n \underset{+\infty}{=} \frac{1}{n} \end{cases}$   
 $\implies \sum U_n$  and  $\sum \frac{1}{n}$  of same nature  
and  $\sum \frac{1}{n} \text{ DVG}$  (Harmonic series)

#### 3.4.2 Proposition

Let  $\sum U_n$  a numerical sequence. We have:

$$\sum \overbrace{(U_{n+1} - U_n)}^{w_n} \text{ CVG} \iff (U_n) \text{ CVG}$$

### 3.4.2.1 Example

1.  General Example, limit calculation:

$$\begin{aligned}
 S_n &= \sum_{k=0}^n W_k = \sum_{k=0}^n (U_{k+1} - U_k) = \sum_{k=0}^n U_{k+1} - \sum_{k=0}^n U_k \\
 &= \sum_{k=1}^{n+1} U_k - \sum_{k=0}^n U_k \\
 &= \left( \sum_{k=1}^n U_k + U_{n+1} \right) - \left( U_0 + \sum_{k=1}^n U_k \right) \\
 S_n &= \sum_{k=0}^n (U_{k+1} - U_k) = U_{n+1} - U_0
 \end{aligned}$$

2. 
$$\sum \overbrace{\left( \frac{1}{n+1} - \frac{1}{n} \right)}^{W_n} : \left| \begin{array}{l} \sum W_n \text{ of same nature as } \sum \left( \frac{1}{n} \right)_{n \in \mathbb{N}^*} \left( \begin{array}{l} \frac{1}{n} \xrightarrow{n \rightarrow +\infty} 0 \text{ CVG} \\ \text{So: } \sum W_n \text{ CVG} \end{array} \right) \\ \text{calculation of the limit:} \\ S = \lim_{n \rightarrow +\infty} S_n = \sum_{k=1}^{+\infty} W_k = \lim_{n \rightarrow +\infty} \left( \frac{1}{n+1} - 1 \right) = -1 \end{array} \right.$$

## 3.5 Riemann's Rule

Let  $\sum U_n$  a Positive numerical series. If  $\exists \alpha > 1, n^\alpha \times U_n \xrightarrow{+\infty} 0$  then  $\sum U_n$  CVG

### 3.5.1 Proof

$$\begin{aligned}
 &\exists \alpha > 1, n^\alpha \times U_n \xrightarrow{n \rightarrow +\infty} 0 \implies \frac{U_n}{n^\alpha} \xrightarrow{n \rightarrow +\infty} 0 \\
 \implies &\left\{ \begin{array}{l} U_n = o\left(\frac{1}{n^\alpha}\right) \\ \text{and} \\ \alpha > 1 \\ \text{and} \\ \sum U_n \text{ P.T.S.} \end{array} \right| \left[ \sum \frac{1}{n^\alpha} \text{ CVG (Riemann's series)} \implies \sum U_n \text{ CVG} \right]
 \end{aligned}$$

## 3.6 D'Alembert's Rule (Ratio Test)

Let  $(U_n)$  be a strictly positive sequence such that:

$$\frac{U_{n+1}}{U_n} \xrightarrow{n \rightarrow +\infty} \ell \in \mathbb{R}_+ \cup \{+\infty\}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 \ell < 1 &\implies \sum U_n \text{ CVG} \\
 \text{Then: } \ell > 1 &\implies \sum U_n \text{ DVG} \\
 \ell = 1 &\implies \text{no conclusion}
 \end{aligned}$$

### 3.6.1 Example

$$\sum \frac{1}{n!} : \forall n \in \mathbb{N}, \frac{1}{n!} > 0 \text{ (P.T.S.) and } \frac{U_{n+1}}{U_n} = \frac{\frac{1}{(n+1)!}}{\frac{1}{n!}} = \frac{1}{n+1} \xrightarrow{n \rightarrow +\infty} 0 < 1 \implies \sum \frac{1}{n!} \text{ CVG}$$

## 3.7 Cauchy's Rule

Let  $(U_n)$  be a strictly positive sequence such that:

$$\sqrt[n]{U_n} \xrightarrow{n \rightarrow +\infty} \ell \in \mathbb{R}_+ \cup \{+\infty\}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \ell < 1 &\implies \sum U_n \text{ CVG} \\ \text{Then: } \ell > 1 &\implies \sum U_n \text{ DVG} \\ \ell = 1 &\implies \text{no conclusion} \end{aligned}$$

### 3.7.1 Example

$$\begin{aligned} \sum \left(\frac{n}{n+1}\right)^{n^2} : \forall n \in \mathbb{N}, \left(\frac{n}{n+1}\right)^{n^2} > 0 \text{ (P.T.S.)}, \sqrt[n]{U_n} &= \left(\left(\frac{n}{n+1}\right)^{n^2}\right)^{\frac{1}{n}} = \left(\frac{n}{n+1}\right)^n = e^{n \ln(1 - \frac{n}{n+1})} \\ \ln(1 - \frac{n}{n+1}) \sim n \times \left(-\frac{n}{n+1}\right) \xrightarrow{n \rightarrow +\infty} -1 < 0 &\implies \sqrt[n]{U_n} \xrightarrow{n \rightarrow +\infty} e^{-1} = \frac{1}{e} < 1 \xRightarrow{\text{Cauchy}} \sum U_n \text{ CVG} \end{aligned}$$

## 3.8 Examples

$$\textcircled{1} \sum \left(1 + \frac{1}{n}\right)^n : 1 + \frac{1}{n} \not\xrightarrow{n \rightarrow +\infty} 0 \text{ (don't have the necessary condition)} \implies \sum \left(1 + \frac{1}{n}\right)^n \text{ DVG}$$

$$\textcircled{2} \sum \left(\left(1 + \frac{1}{n}\right)^n - e\right):$$

(a)

$$\begin{aligned} \left(\left(1 + \frac{1}{n}\right)^n - e\right) &= e^{n \times \ln(1 + \frac{1}{n})} - e = e^{n \times (\frac{1}{n} - \frac{1}{2n^2} + o(\frac{1}{n^2}))} - e \\ &= e^{1 - \frac{1}{2n} + o(\frac{1}{n})} - e \\ &= e \times e^{-\frac{1}{2n} + o(\frac{1}{n})} - e \\ &= e \times \left(1 - \frac{1}{2n} + o\left(\frac{1}{n}\right)\right) - e \\ &= -\frac{e}{2n} + o\left(\frac{1}{n}\right) \end{aligned}$$

$$\text{So } \left(\left(1 + \frac{1}{n}\right)^n - e\right) \underset{+\infty}{\sim} -\frac{e}{2n} \text{ (Can't use P.T.S. property)}$$

$$(b) \sum -\frac{e}{2n} < 0 \text{ for } n \in \mathbb{N}^*$$

$$(c) \exists p \in \mathbb{N}^*, (n \geq p) \implies \left(\left(1 + \frac{1}{n}\right)^n - e\right) \leq 0 \text{ (Same sign as } \sum -\frac{e}{2n})$$

$$\implies \sum \left(\left(1 + \frac{1}{n}\right)^n - e\right) \text{ has the same nature as } \sum -\frac{e}{2n} \text{ which is of same nature as } \sum \frac{1}{n} \text{ DVG}$$

$$\textcircled{3} \quad \sum n^{2023} \times e^{-n} = \sum \frac{n^{2023}}{e^n} : n^{2023} = o(e^n) \text{ (growth comparison)} \quad n^{2025} \times e^{-n} = \frac{\frac{n^{2023}}{e^n}}{\frac{1}{n^2}} \xrightarrow{n \rightarrow +\infty} 0 \implies U_n = o\left(\frac{1}{n^2}\right) \xRightarrow{\text{Riemann}(\alpha=2>1)} \sum U_n \text{ CVG}$$

$$\textcircled{4} \quad \sum n! \times e^{-n}$$

## 4 Alternating Series

### 4.1 Definition

Let  $(U_n) \in \mathbb{R}^{\mathbb{N}}$ , we say  $(U_n)$  is an alternating sequence thus  $\sum U_n$  an alternating series, if there exists  $\begin{cases} \text{a positive} \\ \text{a negative} \end{cases}$  sequence  $(a_n)$  such that:

$$\forall n \in \mathbb{N}, \begin{cases} U_n = (-1)^n \times a_n \\ U_n = (-1)^{n+1} \times a_n \end{cases}$$

#### 4.1.1 Example

$\sum \frac{(-1)^n}{n}$  is an alternating series because  $\forall n \in \mathbb{N}, \frac{(-1)^n}{n} = (-1)^n \times \frac{1}{n}$

### 4.2 Alternating Series Special Criteria (A.S.S.C.)

#### 4.2.1 Theorem

Let  $(U_n)$  an alternating sequence, such that:

$$\left[ \begin{array}{l} U_n \xrightarrow{n \rightarrow +\infty} 0 \\ (|U_n|)_{n \in \mathbb{N}} \text{ is decreasing} \end{array} \right] \implies \sum U_n \text{ CVG}$$

#### 4.2.2 Explanation

An alternating sequence is of the form

$$\begin{array}{ll} U_n = (-1)^n \times a_n & \text{or} \\ |U_n| = |(-1)^n \times a_n| = |a_n| & \text{or} \end{array} \quad \begin{array}{l} U_n = (-1)^{n+1} \times a_n \\ |U_n| = |(-1)^{n+1} \times a_n| = |a_n| \end{array}$$

So  $(|U_n|)_{n \in \mathbb{N}} = (a_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$

## 5 Absolute Convergence

### 5.1 Definition

Let  $(U_n)$  a sequence, we say  $\sum U_n$  is absolutely convergent if  $\sum |U_n|$  is convergent.



### 5.1.1 Example

$\sum \frac{(-1)^n}{n^2}$  is absolutely convergent because  $\sum \left| \frac{(-1)^n}{n^2} \right| = \sum \frac{1}{n^2}$  is convergent.

## 5.2 Proposition

Let  $\sum U_n$  a series, if  $\sum U_n$  is absolutely convergent then  $\sum U_n$  is convergent.

$$\sum |U_n| \text{ CVG} \xRightarrow{\quad} \sum U_n \text{ CVG}.$$

### 5.2.1 Counter Example

$\sum \frac{(-1)^n}{n}$  is convergent BUT  $\sum \left| \frac{(-1)^n}{n} \right| = \sum \frac{1}{n}$  is divergent.

## 5.3 Examples

### 5.3.1 Example 1

- $\sum \frac{(-1)^n}{n^\alpha}, \alpha \in \mathbb{R}$ :
  - case  $\alpha \leq 0$ :  $\sum \frac{(-1)^n}{n^\alpha} \not\rightarrow_{n \rightarrow +\infty} 0$  (necessary condition)  $\Rightarrow \sum \frac{(-1)^n}{n^\alpha}$  DVG.
  - case  $\alpha > 0$ :  $\sum \frac{1}{n^\alpha} > 0 \Rightarrow \sum \frac{(-1)^n}{n^\alpha}$  is an alternating series.

$$\left. \begin{array}{l} \frac{1}{n^\alpha} \xrightarrow{n \rightarrow +\infty} 0 \\ \left| \frac{1}{n^\alpha} \right| = \frac{1}{n^\alpha} \text{ is decreasing} \end{array} \right| \xRightarrow{\text{A.S.S.C.}} \sum \frac{(-1)^n}{n^\alpha} \text{ CVG.}$$

#### 5.3.1.1 Proposition deduced from example 1

$\forall \alpha > 0, \sum \frac{(-1)^n}{n^\alpha}$  is convergent.

### 5.3.2 Example 2

- $\forall n \in \mathbb{N}, U_n = \frac{\sin(n)}{n^\alpha}: |U_n| = \frac{|\sin(n)|}{n^\alpha}, \Rightarrow 0 \leq |U_n| \leq \frac{1}{n^\alpha}$

If  $\alpha > 1$ , then  $\sum \frac{1}{n^\alpha}$  CVG (Riemann  $\alpha > 1$ )  
 then  $\sum |U_n|$  CVG (Comparison test)  
 then  $\sum U_n$  Absolutely CVG (Proposition)  
 then  $\sum U_n$  CVG (Proposition)

## 6 Important Proof

### 6.1 Series whose general term is positive

#### 6.1.1 Theorem (Comparison rules)

Consider two sequences  $(\mathbf{U}_n)$  and  $(\mathbf{V}_n)$ .

1. If for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ ,  $u_n \leq v_n$ , then

(a)  $\sum \mathbf{v}_n$  converges  $\implies \sum u_n$  converges

(b)  $\sum \mathbf{u}_n$  diverges  $\implies \sum v_n$  diverges

If  $\mathbf{u}_n \sim \mathbf{v}_n$  then the series  $\sum \mathbf{u}_n$  and  $\sum \mathbf{v}_n$  have the same nature.

#### 6.1.1.1 Remarks

- Property 1 remains true if the relation  $\mathbf{u}_n \leq \mathbf{v}_n$  satisfied only above a certain rank, instead of for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ . That is, it is true if there exists  $n_0 \in \mathbb{N}$  such that

$$\forall n \in \mathbb{N}, n \geq n_0 \implies u_n \leq v_n$$

- Property 1 includes the case  $u_n = o(v_n)$ . Indeed, in this case, the relation  $\mathbf{u}_n \leq \mathbf{v}_n$  is satisfied above a certain rank.

#### 6.1.1.2 Proof

1. Let  $(\mathbf{S}_n)$  denote the partial sums of  $\sum \mathbf{u}_n$  and  $(\mathbf{T}_n)$  the partial sums of  $\sum \mathbf{v}_n$ . To start with, note that the sequences  $(\mathbf{S}_n)$  and  $(\mathbf{T}_n)$  are both increasing. Indeed, for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ ,

$$S_{n+1} - S_n = u_{n+1} \geq 0 \quad \text{and} \quad T_{n+1} - T_n = v_{n+1} \geq 0$$

Thus, we know that

$$(S_n) \text{ converges} \iff (S_n) \text{ is bounded above}$$

Furthermore, since for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ ,  $u_n \leq v_n$ , we can write:

$$\forall n \in \mathbb{N}, \quad S_n \leq T_n$$

Thus, if  $\sum \mathbf{v}_n$  converges, then  $(\mathbf{T}_n)$  is bounded. It hence admits an upper bound  $M$ . Then for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ :

$$S_n \leq T_n \leq M$$

and  $M$  is also an upper bound of  $(\mathbf{S}_n)$ . The sequence  $(\mathbf{S}_n)$  is hence bounded above and, since it is increasing, it converges. This proves the property (a).

Proving property (b) is now straightforward: it is the contrapositive of property (a).

2. Assume that  $(u_n) \sim (v_n)$ . Then there exists a sequence  $(\epsilon_n)$  such that

$$\forall n \in \mathbb{N}, u_n = v_n \times (1 + \epsilon_n) \quad \text{and} \quad \epsilon_n \xrightarrow{n \rightarrow +\infty} 0$$

Since  $(\epsilon_n)$  converges to 0, it remains between  $-\frac{1}{2}$  and  $\frac{1}{2}$  above a certain rank: there exists  $n_0 \in \mathbb{N}$  such that

$$\begin{aligned}\forall n \in \mathbb{N}, n \geq n_0 &\implies -\frac{1}{2} \leq \epsilon_n \leq \frac{1}{2} \\ &\implies \frac{1}{2} \leq 1 + \epsilon_n \leq \frac{3}{2} \\ &\implies \frac{1}{2}v_n \leq u_n \leq \frac{3}{2}v_n\end{aligned}$$

If  $\sum \mathbf{u}_n$  converges then, using property 1 and the relation  $\frac{1}{2}v_n \leq u_n$ , we know that  $\sum \frac{1}{2}\mathbf{v}_n$  converges. Thus,  $\sum \mathbf{v}_n$  converges.

If  $\sum \mathbf{u}_n$  diverges then, using property 1 and the relation  $u_n \leq \frac{3}{2}v_n$ , we know that  $\sum \frac{3}{2}\mathbf{v}_n$  diverges. Thus,  $\sum \mathbf{v}_n$  diverges.

### 6.1.2 Theorem (Riemann series)

Let  $\alpha$  in  $\mathbb{R}$ . The series  $\sum \frac{1}{n^\alpha}$  converges if and only if  $\alpha > 1$ .

#### 6.1.2.1 Some explanations before the proof:

Before the explicit proof, here are the main ideas we will use:

1. We focus on the case  $\alpha > 0$  (otherwise,  $\frac{1}{n^\alpha}$  does not converge to 0, hence the series diverges).
2. When  $0 < \alpha \leq 1$ , we try to lower-bound  $\frac{1}{n^\alpha}$  by a positive sequence  $(\mathbf{v}_n)$  such that  $\sum v_n$  diverges. And when  $\alpha > 1$ , we try to upper-bound  $\frac{1}{n^\alpha}$  by a positive sequence  $(\mathbf{w}_n)$  such that  $\sum w_n$  converges.
3. In that purpose, we use the property that, since the function  $t \mapsto \frac{1}{t^\alpha}$  decreases, we know that for all  $n \geq 2$ :

$$\forall t \in [n-1, n], \frac{1}{t^\alpha} \geq \frac{1}{n^\alpha} \quad \text{and} \quad \forall t \in [n, n+1], \frac{1}{n^\alpha} \geq \frac{1}{t^\alpha}$$

We can hence integrate the first inequality on  $[n-1, n]$  and the second one on  $[n, n+1]$ :

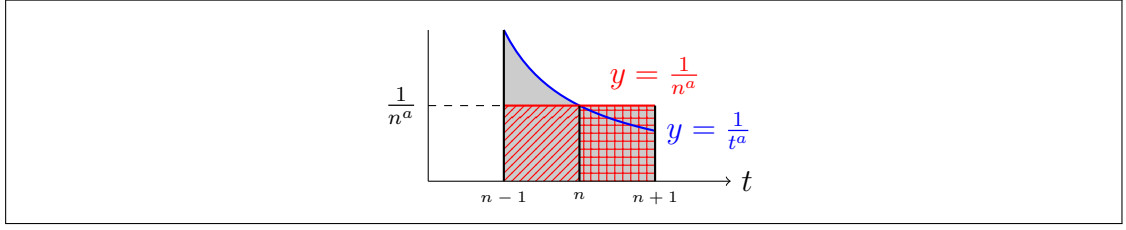
$$\int_{n-1}^n \frac{1}{t^\alpha} dt \geq \int_{n-1}^n \frac{1}{n^\alpha} dt \quad \text{and} \quad \int_n^{n+1} \frac{1}{n^\alpha} dt \geq \int_n^{n+1} \frac{1}{t^\alpha} dt$$

The function  $t \mapsto \frac{1}{t^\alpha}$  is a constant function. Thus,

$$\int_{n-1}^n \frac{1}{n^\alpha} dt = \left[ \frac{t}{n^\alpha} \right]_{n-1}^n = \frac{1}{n^\alpha} \quad \text{and} \quad \int_n^{n+1} \frac{1}{n^\alpha} dt = \left[ \frac{t}{n^\alpha} \right]_n^{n+1} = \frac{1}{n^\alpha}$$

Finally, for all  $n \geq 2$ ,

$$\int_{n-1}^n \frac{1}{t^\alpha} dt \geq \frac{1}{n^\alpha} \geq \int_n^{n+1} \frac{1}{t^\alpha} dt$$



4. To compute the integral of  $\frac{1}{t^\alpha}$ : a primitive function  $F$  is defined on  $\mathbb{R}_+^*$  by:

$$F(t) = \frac{t^{-\alpha+1}}{-\alpha+1} \quad (\text{case } \alpha \neq 1) \quad \text{or} \quad F(t) = \ln(t) \quad (\text{case } \alpha = 1)$$

### 6.1.2.2 Theorem's proof

Let  $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}$  and the series  $\sum \frac{1}{n^\alpha}$ .

1. If  $\alpha \leq 0$ , then  $\frac{1}{n^\alpha} = n^{-\alpha}$  with  $-\alpha \geq 0$ . Thus,  $(\frac{1}{n^\alpha})$  does not converge to 0 and the series diverges.
2. If  $0 < \alpha \leq 1$ : since the function  $t \mapsto \frac{1}{t^\alpha}$  decreases on  $\mathbb{R}_+^*$ , we know that for all  $n \geq 1$ :

$$\forall t \in [n, n+1], \frac{1}{n^\alpha} \geq \frac{1}{t^\alpha}$$

By integrating this inequality on  $[n, n+1]$ , we get:  $\int_n^{n+1} \frac{1}{n^\alpha} dt \geq \int_n^{n+1} \frac{1}{t^\alpha} dt$ .

The first integral is  $\left[\frac{t}{n^\alpha}\right]_n^{n+1} = \frac{1}{n^\alpha}$ .

If  $F$  denotes a primitive function of  $\frac{1}{t^\alpha}$ , we hence get:

$$\forall n \geq 1, \frac{1}{n^\alpha} \geq F(n+1) - F(n) \geq 0$$

Since both series  $\sum \frac{1}{n^\alpha}$  and  $\sum (F(n+1) - F(n))$  have positive terms, we can use comparison theorem. Let us prove that the serie  $\sum (F(n+1) - F(n))$  diverges: the latter is a telescoping series, it hence has the same nature as the sequence  $(F(n))$ .

If  $\alpha < 1$ , then for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}^*$ ,  $F(n) = \frac{n^{1-\alpha}}{1-\alpha}$  with  $1-\alpha > 0$ . The sequence  $(F(n))$  hence diverges to  $+\infty$ , that is,  $\sum (F(n+1) - F(n))$  diverges.

If  $\alpha = 1$ , then for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}^*$ ,  $F(n) = \ln(n)$  and the sequence  $(F(n))$  diverges to  $+\infty$ . Here also,  $\sum (F(n+1) - F(n))$  diverges.

Finally, for all  $\alpha$  such that  $0 < \alpha \leq 1$ , the series  $\sum (F(n+1) - F(n))$  diverges. Using comparison theorem, it results that  $\sum \frac{1}{n^\alpha}$  diverges too.

3. If  $\alpha > 1$ : since the function  $t \mapsto \frac{1}{t^\alpha}$  decreases on  $\mathbb{R}_+^*$ , we know that for all  $n \geq 2$ :

$$\forall t \in [n-1, n], \frac{1}{n^\alpha} \leq \frac{1}{t^\alpha}$$

By integrating this inequality on  $[n-1, n]$ , we get:  $\int_{n-1}^n \frac{1}{t^\alpha} dt \leq \int_{n-1}^n \frac{1}{t^\alpha} dt$ .

The first integral is  $\left[\frac{t}{n^\alpha}\right]_{n-1}^n = \frac{1}{n^\alpha}$ .

If  $F$  denotes a primitive function of  $\frac{1}{t^\alpha}$ , we hence get:

$$\forall n \geq 1, 0 \leq \frac{1}{n^\alpha} \leq F(n) - F(n-1)$$

Since both series  $\sum \frac{1}{n^\alpha}$  and  $\sum (F(n) - F(n-1))$  have positive terms, we can use comparison theorem. Let us prove that the serie  $\sum (F(n) - F(n-1))$  converges: the latter is a telescoping series, it hence has the same nature as the sequence  $(F(n))$ .

But  $F(n) = \frac{n^{1-\alpha}}{1-\alpha} = -\frac{1}{(1-\alpha)} \times \frac{1}{n^{\alpha-1}}$  with  $\alpha-1 > 0$ .

Thus, the sequence  $(F(n))$  converges to 0 and the telescoping series  $\sum (F(n) - F(n-1))$  converges.

Using comparison theorem, it results that  $\sum \frac{1}{n^\alpha}$  converges too.

## 6.2 Series whose general term has a non-constant sign

### 6.2.1 Theorem (Absolute convergence)

If a series  $\sum u_n$  converges absolutely, then it converges.

Reminder: a series  $\sum u_n$  converges absolutely if  $\sum |u_n|$  converges.

#### 6.2.1.1 Proof

Consider a series  $\sum u_n$  converging absolutely. We hence assume that  $\sum |u_n|$  converges.

Let us define the two series  $(u_n^+)$  and  $(u_n^-)$  by:

$$\forall n \in \mathbb{N}, \quad u_n^+ = \begin{cases} u_n & \text{if } u_n \geq 0 \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases} \quad \text{and} \quad u_n^- = \begin{cases} -u_n & \text{if } u_n \leq 0 \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

These sequences are both positive  $u_n = u_n^+ - u_n^-$ . Furthermore,

- $\forall n \in \mathbb{N}, 0 \leq u_n^+ \leq |u_n|$  and  $\sum |u_n|$  converges, so  $\sum u_n^+$  converges.
- $\forall n \in \mathbb{N}, 0 \leq u_n^- \leq |u_n|$  and  $\sum |u_n|$  converges, so  $\sum u_n^-$  converges.

Thus,  $\sum u_n = \sum (u_n^+ - u_n^-)$  is the sum of two convergent series. It is hence convergent.

**6.2.2 Theorem (Leibniz's rule)**

Let  $(u_n)$  be an alternating sequence. If  $(|u_n|)$  is decreasing and converges to 0, then:

1.  $\sum u_n$  converges.
2. The remainder  $(R_n)$  of the series satisfy to:  $\forall n \in \mathbb{N}, |R_n| \leq |u_{n+1}|$ .

**6.2.2.1 Reminders**

the theorem's proof relies on the notion of adjacent sequences and on two properties seen during the chapter 5 (sequences) the previous year:

1. Two sequences  $(u_n)$  and  $(v_n)$  are adjacent if they satisfy the conditions:
  - One of them is increasing and the other one is decreasing.
  - The sequence  $(u_n - v_n)$  converges to 0.
2. Properties of adjacent sequences: if two sequences  $(u_n)$  and  $(v_n)$  are adjacent, then:
  - Both converge. Furthermore, they admit an **identical** limit  $\ell$ .
  - If  $(u_n)$  is the increasing sequence and  $(v_n)$  the decreasing one, then:

$$\forall n \in \mathbb{N}, \quad u_n \leq u_{n+1} \leq \ell \leq v_{n+1} \leq v_n$$

3. Property about subsequences: consider a sequence  $(u_n)$  such that the subsequences  $(u_{2n})$  and  $(u_{2n+1})$  both converge to an **identical** limit  $\ell$ . Then,  $(u_n)$  converges to  $\ell$ .

**6.2.2.2 Proof of the theorem**

Let  $(u_n)$  be an alternating sequence. Then there exists a positive sequence  $(a_n)$  such that:

$$(u_n) = ((-1)^n \times a_n) \quad \text{or} \quad (u_n) = (-(-1)^n \times a_n)$$

For the proof, we can assume that we are in the first case  $(u_n) = ((-1)^n \times a_n)$ . If not, just replace  $(u_n)$  by  $(-u_n)$ . The positive sequence  $(a_n)$  is in fact the sequence  $(|u_n|)$ : the theorem hypothesis state that it decreases and converges to 0.

Let  $(S_n)$  be the partial sums of  $\sum u_n$ : for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ ,

$$S_n = a_0 - a_1 + a_2 - a_3 + \cdots + (-1)^n a_n$$

To start with, let us prove that the sequences  $(S_{2n})$  and  $(S_{2n+1})$  are adjacent.

1. Monotony of  $(S_{2n})$ : this subsequence contains the terms of even ranks. The term following  $S_{2n}$  is hence  $S_{2(n+1)} = S_{2n+2}$ . Thus, for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ :

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} S_{2n} = a_0 - a_1 + a_2 - a_3 + \cdots + a_{2n} \\ S_{2(n+1)} = a_0 - a_1 + a_2 - a_3 + \cdots + a_{2n} - a_{2n+1} + a_{2n+2} \\ \hline S_{2(n+1)} - S_{2n} = -a_{2n+1} + a_{2n+2} \end{array} \right.$$

Since  $(a_n)$  is decreasing,  $-a_{2n+1} + a_{2n+2}$  is negative. The sequence  $(S_{2n})$  is hence decreasing.

2. Monotony of  $(S_{2n+1})$ : this subsequence contains the terms of odd ranks. The term following  $S_{2n+1}$  is hence  $S_{2(n+1)+1} = S_{2n+3}$ . Thus, for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ :

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} S_{2n+1} = a_0 - a_1 + a_2 - a_3 + \cdots + a_{2n} - a_{2n+1} \\ S_{2(n+1)+1} = a_0 - a_1 + a_2 - a_3 + \cdots + a_{2n} - a_{2n+1} + a_{2n+2} - a_{2n+3} \\ \hline S_{2(n+1)+1} - S_{2n+1} = a_{2n+2} - a_{2n+3} \end{array} \right.$$

Since  $(a_n)$  is decreasing,  $a_{2n+2} - a_{2n+3}$  is positive. The sequence  $(S_{2n+1})$  is hence increasing.

3. Study of  $S_{2n+1} - S_{2n}$ : for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ ,

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} S_{2n} = a_0 - a_1 + a_2 - a_3 + \cdots + a_{2n} \\ S_{2n+1} = a_0 - a_1 + a_2 - a_3 + \cdots + a_{2n} - a_{2n+1} \\ \hline S_{2n+1} - S_{2n} = -a_{2n+1} \end{array} \right.$$

Since  $(a_n)$  converges to 0,  $(S_{2n+1} - S_{2n})$  converges to 0 too.

We hence proved that  $(S_{2n})$  and  $(S_{2n+1})$  are adjacent. From this, we know that they both converge and admit an identical limit  $\ell$ . Then we get:

$$\left. \begin{array}{l} S_{2n} \xrightarrow[n \rightarrow +\infty]{} \ell \\ S_{2n+1} \xrightarrow[n \rightarrow +\infty]{} \ell \end{array} \right\} \implies S_n \xrightarrow[n \rightarrow +\infty]{} \ell$$

This proves that  $(S_n)$  converges, that is,  $\sum u_n$  converges.

Now let us prove that for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ ,  $|R_n| \leq |u_{n+1}|$ : the sequences  $(S_{2n})$  and  $(S_{2n+1})$  being adjacent, we know that for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ :

$$S_{2n+1} \leq S_{2n+3} \leq \ell \leq S_{2n+2} \leq S_{2n}$$

Thus,  $|R_{2n}| = S_{2n} - \ell \leq S_{2n} - S_{2n+1} = u_{2n+1}$

and  $|R_{2n+1}| = \ell - S_{2n+1} \leq S_{2n+2} - S_{2n+1} = u_{2n+2}$ .

Thus, for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ ,  $|R_n| \leq |u_{n+1}|$ .