#### MA225 - Series Part 2

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# Convergence tests - Divergence test

We determined the convergence or divergence of several series by explicitly calculating the limit of the sequence of partial sums  $S_k$ . In practice, explicitly calculating this limit can be difficult or impossible.

Luckily, several tests exist that allow us to determine convergence or divergence for many types of series.

#### Definition (The divergence test)

If  $\lim_{n\to\infty} a_n = L \neq 0$  or  $\lim_{n\to\infty} a_n$  diverges, then the series  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$  diverges.

Why? The term  $a_k$  can be written  $a_k = S_k - S_{k-1}$ . Then

$$\lim_{k\to\infty} a_k = \lim_{k\to\infty} (S_k - S_{k-1})$$

$$= \lim_{k\to\infty} S_k - \lim_{k\to\infty} S_{k-1}$$

$$= S - S = 0.$$

Therefore, if  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$  converges, the  $n^{\text{th}}$  term  $a_n \to 0$  as  $n \to \infty$ .

# Convergence tests - Divergence test

**Important note:** What if  $\lim_{n\to\infty} a_n = 0$ ? We cannot take a conclusion about the convergence of  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$  using the divergence test.

**Example:**  $\lim_{n\to 0} \frac{1}{n} = 0$ , but the harmonic series  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n}$  diverges.

**Examples:** For each of the following series, apply the divergence test.

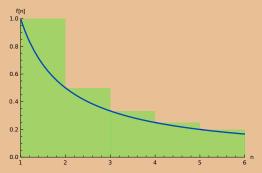
- $\mathbf{1} \ \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{n}{3n-1}$
- $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^3}$
- 3  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} e^{1/n^2}$

#### Motivation for the integral test:

Suppose we want to show that the harmonic series diverges:

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

Since  $\lim_{k\to\infty} \ln(k+1) = \infty$ , we see that the sequence of partial sums  $S_k$  is unbounded and, consequently, the series  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n}$  also diverges.



Each rectangle represents one term in the series:  $a_1, a_2, ..., a_5$ . Function f(x) = 1/x goes from 1 to 6.

$$\sum_{n=1}^{5} \frac{1}{n} > \int_{1}^{6} \frac{1}{x} dx$$

Now consider the series  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^2}$ . Assume  $k \geq 2$ . Then

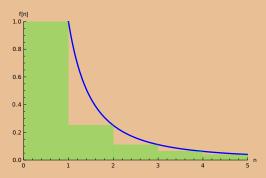
$$S_k = \sum_{n=1}^k \frac{1}{n^2} < 1 + \int_1^k \frac{1}{x^2} dx = 1 - \frac{1}{x} \Big|_1^k$$
$$= 1 - \frac{1}{k} + 1$$
$$= 2 - \frac{1}{k} < 2.$$

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

$$S_k = S_{k-1} + \frac{1}{k^2}, \quad k \ge 2.$$

Since  $S_k$  is increasing and bounded, it converges (recall week 1).

Therefore, the series  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^2}$  converges.



The sum of the areas of the rectangles is less than the sum of the area of the first rectangle and the area below  $f(x) = \frac{1}{x^2}$  for  $x \ge 1$ . Since the area bounded by the curve is finite, the sum of the areas of the rectangles is also finite.

#### Property (The Integral Test)

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

- 1 f is continuous.
- 2 f is decreasing, and
- 3  $f(n) = a_n$  for all  $n \ge N$ .

Then

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

and

$$\int_{N}^{\infty} f(x) dx$$

both converge or both diverge.

**Note:** Convergence of  $\int_{N}^{\infty} f(x) dx$  implies convergence of the related series  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$ , but it does not imply that the values are equal.

**Example:** For each of the following series, use the integral test to determine whether the series converges or diverges.

- $1 \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^3}$
- 2  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2n-1}}$

**Example:** Use the integral test to determine whether the series  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{n}{3n^2+1}$  converges or diverges.

#### Solution (2): Compare

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2n-1}} \quad \text{vs.} \quad \int_{1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2x-1}} \, dx.$$

Since

$$\int_{1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2x-1}} dx = \lim_{b \to \infty} \int_{1}^{b} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2x-1}} dx$$

which evaluates to:

$$\lim_{b \to \infty} \sqrt{2x - 1} \Big|_{1}^{b} = \lim_{b \to \infty} \left( \sqrt{2b - 1} - 1 \right) = \infty,$$

the integral diverges. Therefore, the series also diverges.

To evaluate the integral recall the change of variable u = 2x + 1.

#### *p*-series

A generalization of the Harmonic series.

#### Definition

For any real number p, the series

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

is called a p-series.

We already know the p-series converges if p = 2 and diverges if p = 1.

What about other values of p? Use Divergence or Integral tests.

#### *p*-series

#### Case $p \le 0$ :

- If p < 0, then  $1/n^p \to \infty$ .
- If p = 0, then  $1/n^p \rightarrow 1$ .

Therefore, by the divergence test,

$$\sum_{p=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^p}, \quad \text{diverges if } p \leq 0.$$

#### Case p > 0:

 $f(x)=1/x^p$ ,  $x\geq 1$  is a positive, continuous, decreasing function. Therefore, for p>0, we use the integral test.

If p > 0 we have

$$\int_{1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{x^{p}} dx = \lim_{b \to \infty} \int_{1}^{b} \frac{1}{x^{p}} dx = \lim_{b \to \infty} \frac{1}{1 - p} x^{1 - p} \bigg|_{1}^{b} = \lim_{b \to \infty} \frac{1}{1 - p} (b^{1 - p} - 1).$$

The second equality assumes  $p \neq 1$  (this case we already know the series diverge).

Since

$$b^{1-p} \to 0$$
 if  $p > 1$  and  $b^{1-p} \to \infty$  if  $p < 1$ ,

we conclude that

$$\int_{1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{x^{p}} dx = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{p-1}, & \text{if } p > 1\\ \infty, & \text{if } p < 1. \end{cases}$$

#### *p*-series

By the integral test,

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} rac{1}{n^p} \quad egin{cases} ext{converges} & ext{if } p > 1 \ & & & & & & \\ ext{diverges} & ext{if } p \leq 1 \,. \end{cases}$$

# Digression: Remainder Estimate

Allows to estimate the sum of a series (which can be otherwise difficult).

#### Property (Remainder Estimate from the Integral Test)

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

- 1 f is continuous,
- 2 f is decreasing, and
- 3  $f(n) = a_n$  for all integers  $n \ge 1$ .

Let  $S_N$  be the N-th partial sum of  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$ .

Then, for all  $N \in \mathbb{N}$ ,

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

### Digression: Remainder Estimate

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

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

(this reads: the integral is either an overestimate or an underestimate of the error).

**Example:** Using the remainder property for  $a_n=1/n^2$  we immediately get for  ${\it N}=1$ 

$$1 + \int_2^\infty \frac{1}{x^2} dx < \sum_{n=1}^\infty \frac{1}{n^2} < 1 + \int_1^\infty \frac{1}{x^2} dx.$$

### Digression: Remainder Estimate

**Exercise:** Consider the series  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^3}$ .

**a.** Calculate  $S_{10} = \sum_{n=1}^{10} \frac{1}{n^3}$  and estimate the error. Hint: Using a calculator we can get  $S_{10} \approx 1.1975$ .

By remainder we have  $R_N < \int_N^\infty \frac{1}{x^3} dx$ , where N = 10. We have

$$\int_{N}^{\infty} \frac{1}{x^{3}} dx = \lim_{b \to \infty} \int_{N}^{b} \frac{1}{x^{3}} dx = \lim_{b \to \infty} -\frac{1}{2x^{2}} \Big|_{N}^{b} = \lim_{b \to \infty} \left( -\frac{1}{2b^{2}} + \frac{1}{2N^{2}} \right) = \frac{1}{2N^{2}}.$$

Therefore, the error is given by

$$R_{10} < \frac{1}{2(10^2)} = 0.005.$$

**b.** Determine the least value of N necessary such that  $S_N$  will estimate  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^3}$  to within 0.001 .

A method that allows to prove convergence or divergence of a suitable series by using our knowledge about other series, for example geometric or *p*-series.

For example, consider the series

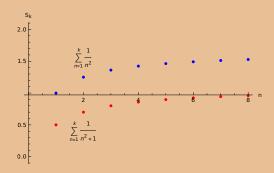
$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^2+1}.$$

This series looks similar to the convergent p series

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

The sequence of partial sums  $S_k$  for each series is increasing.

k	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
$\sum_{n=1}^{k} \frac{1}{n^2+1}$	0.5	0.7	0.8	0.8588	0.8973	0.9243	0.9443	0.9597
$\sum_{n=1}^{k} \frac{1}{n^2}$	1	1.25	1.3611	1.4236	1.4636	1.4914	1.5118	1.5274



Each of the partial sums for the given series is less than the corresponding partial sum for the converging *p*-series

Furthermore, since

$$0<\frac{1}{n^2+1}<\frac{1}{n^2}$$

for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}_+$ , we have

$$S_k = \sum_{n=1}^k \frac{1}{n^2 + 1} < \sum_{n=1}^k \frac{1}{n^2} < \sum_{n=1}^\infty \frac{1}{n^2}.$$

Since the series on the right converges, the sequence  $S_k$  is <u>bounded</u> above. Also, is easy to see that the sequence  $S_k$  is <u>increasing</u>. Since  $S_k$  is increasing and bounded above,  $S_k$  converges.

Now consider the series

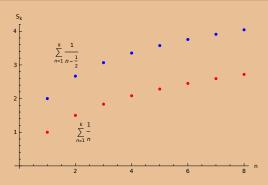
$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n-1/2}$$

This series looks similar to the divergent series

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

The sequence of partial sums for each series is increasing.

k	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
$\sum_{n=1}^{k} \frac{1}{n-1/2}$	2	2.6667	3.0667	3.3524	3.5746	3.7564	3.9103	4.0436
$\sum_{n=1}^{k} \frac{1}{n}$	1	1.5	1.8333	2.0933	2.2833	2.45	2.5929	2.7179



Each of the partial sums for the given series is greater than the corresponding partial sum for the diverging harmonic series.

**Furthermore** 

$$\frac{1}{n-1/2} > \frac{1}{n} > 0$$

for every  $n \in \mathbb{N}_+$ . Therefore, we have

$$S_k = \sum_{n=1}^k \frac{1}{n-1/2} > \sum_{n=1}^k \frac{1}{n}.$$

Since the series  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n}$  diverges to infinity, the sequence of partial sums  $\sum_{n=1}^{k} \frac{1}{n}$  is unbounded. Consequently,  $S_k$  is an unbounded sequence, and therefore diverges.

#### Property (Comparison Test)

- **1** ( $C \Longrightarrow C$ ) Suppose there exists  $N \in \mathbb{N}_+$  such that  $0 \le a_n \le b_n$  for all  $n \ge N$ . If  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} b_n$  converges, then  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$  converges.
- **2**  $(D \Longrightarrow D)$  Suppose there exists exists  $N \in \mathbb{N}_+$  such that  $a_n \geq b_n \geq 0$  for all  $n \geq N$ . If  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} b_n$  diverges, then  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$  diverges.

**Note:** To use the comparison test to determine the convergence or divergence of a series  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$ , it is necessary to find a bounding series. Since we know the convergence properties of geometric series and p-series, these series are often used.

#### Note 2:

- In (1), we need to find an upper bound that converges, to determine convergence.
- In (2), we need to find a lower bound that diverges, to determine divergence.

**Example:** For each of the following series, use the comparison test to determine whether the series converges or diverges.

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

**Solution (2)** Compare to  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^n$ . Since  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^n$  is a geometric series with  $r=\frac{1}{2}$  and  $\left|\frac{1}{2}\right|<1$ , it converges. Also,

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

for every positive integer n. Therefore,  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{2^n+1}$  converges.

### Comparison test tips

Most of the tips for choosing bounding sequences for the Squeeze Theorem also apply here.

- Ensure the terms  $a_n$  and  $b_n$  are non-negative.
- Common used series to compare are geometric series and p-series

The comparison test works nicely if we can find a comparable series satisfying the hypothesis of the test. However, sometimes finding an appropriate series can be difficult.

Motivation: Consider

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

It is natural to compare this series with the convergent series

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

However, this series does not satisfy the hypothesis necessary to use the comparison test because

$$\frac{1}{n^2-1}>\frac{1}{n^2}$$

for all n > 2.

We can instead compute

$$\lim_{n\to\infty}\frac{1/\left(n^2-1\right)}{1/n^2}=\lim_{n\to\infty}\frac{n^2}{n^2-1}=1\quad \text{ "same order"}\,.$$

Since  $\sum_{n=2}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^2}$  converges, we conclude that

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

This test only requires that the ratio of terms approaches a non-zero, finite limit.

This can be easier in situations where it's difficult to establish clear inequalities between terms but the general behavior of the series is understood.

#### Property (Limit comparison test)

Let  $a_n > 0$ ,  $b_n > 0$  for all n > 1.

- **1** Same order of growth: If  $\lim_{n\to\infty}\frac{a_n}{b_n}=L\neq 0$ , then  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty}a_n$  and  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty}b_n$  both converge or both diverge.
- **2** a<sub>n</sub> grows significantly slower: If  $\lim_{n\to\infty} \frac{a_n}{b_n} = 0$  and  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} b_n$  converges, then  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$  converges.
- **3**  $b_n$  grows significantly slower: If  $\lim_{n\to\infty} \frac{a_n}{b_n} = \infty$  and  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} b_n$  diverges, then  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$  diverges.

**Note:** Here  $b_n$  is not required to be  $b_n \ge a_n$  nor  $b_n \le a_n$  like in the comparison test.

**Note 2:** if  $\frac{a_n}{b_n} \to 0$  and  $\sum_{n=1}^\infty b_n$  diverges, the limit comparison test gives no information. Similarly, if  $\frac{a_n}{b_n} \to \infty$  and  $\sum_{n=1}^\infty b_n$  converges, the test also provides no information.

**Example:** For each of the following series, use the limit comparison test to determine whether the series converges or diverges. If the test does not apply, say so.

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{2^n+1}{3^n}$$

**Solution (1):** Compare this series to  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{\sqrt{n}}$ . Calculate

$$\lim_{n\to\infty}\frac{1/(\sqrt{n}+1)}{1/\sqrt{n}}=\lim_{n\to\infty}\frac{\sqrt{n}}{\sqrt{n}+1}=\lim_{n\to\infty}\frac{1/\sqrt{n}}{1+1/\sqrt{n}}=1.$$

By the limit comparison test, since  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{\sqrt{n}}$  diverges, then  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{\sqrt{n}+1}$  diverges.

**Solution (2):** Compare this series to  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \left(\frac{2}{3}\right)^n$ . We see that

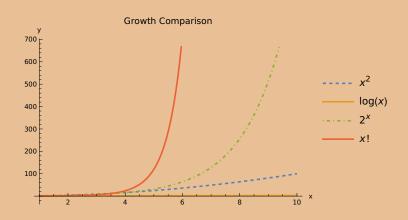
$$\lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{(2^n + 1)/3^n}{2^n/3^n} = \lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{2^n + 1}{3^n} \cdot \frac{3^n}{2^n} = \lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{2^n + 1}{2^n} = \lim_{n \to \infty} \left[ 1 + \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^n \right] = 1.$$

Therefore,

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{(2^n + 1)/3^n}{2^n/3^n} = 1$$

Since  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty}\left(\frac{2}{3}\right)^n$  converges, we conclude that  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty}\frac{2^n+1}{3^n}$  converges.

# Recall growth comparison



#### Definition (Alternating Series)

Any series whose terms alternate between positive and negative values is called an alternating series. An alternating series can be written in the form

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (-1)^{n+1} b_n = b_1 - b_2 + b_3 - b_4 + \dots$$

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (-1)^n b_n = -b_1 + b_2 - b_3 + b_4 - \dots$$

where  $b_n \ge 0$  for  $n \ge 1$ .

#### Property (Alternating test)

An alternating series of the form

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (-1)^{n+1} b_n$$
 or 
$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (-1)^n b_n$$

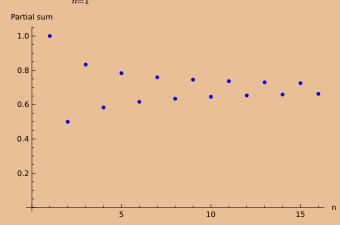
converges if

- 1  $0 \le b_{n+1} \le b_n$  for all  $n \ge 1$  (non-increasing) and
- $2 \lim_{n\to\infty} b_n = 0.$

Why?  $\{S_{2k}\}$  is a decreasing sequence that is bounded below, so converges. Similarly, the even terms  $\{S_{2k+1}\}$  form an increasing sequence that is bounded above so converges.

**Example:** The alternating harmonic series is a classical example of converging alternating series:

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



**Examples:** For each of the following alternating series, determine whether the series converges or diverges.

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (-1)^{n+1} \frac{n}{n+1}$$

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

# Alternating test

**Solution (1):** Since  $\frac{1}{(n+1)^2} < \frac{1}{n^2}$  and  $\frac{1}{n^2} \to 0$ , the series converges.

**Solution (2):** Since  $n/(n+1) \to 0$  as  $n \to \infty$ , we cannot apply the alternating series test. Instead, we can use the divergence test. Since  $\lim_{n\to\infty} \frac{n}{n+1} = 1 \neq 0$ , the series diverges.

**Solution (3):** Is  $\left\{\frac{n}{2^n}\right\}$  decreasing? What is  $\lim_{n\to\infty}\frac{n}{2^n}$ ?

This test will be especially useful in the discussion of power series.

Consider a series  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$ .

We know that  $\lim_{n\to\infty}a_n=0$  is not a sufficient condition for the series to converge. Not only do we need  $a_n\to 0$ , but we need  $a_n\to 0$  quickly enough.

**Example:**  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n}$  vs.  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^2}$ 

We now introduce the ratio test, which provides a way of measuring how fast the terms of a series approach zero.

## Property (Ratio Test)

Let  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$  be a series with nonzero terms. Let

$$\rho = \lim_{n \to \infty} \left| \frac{a_{n+1}}{a_n} \right|.$$

- **1** If  $0 \le \rho < 1$ , then  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$  converges absolutely and thus converges.
- 2 If  $\rho > 1$  or  $\rho = \infty$ , then  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$  diverges.
- **3** If  $\rho = 1$ , the test does not provide any information.

**Note:** This test do not require us to find a comparable series  $b_n$ , like the comparison tests.

**Note 2:** The ratio test is particularly useful for series whose terms contain factorials or exponential, where the ratio of terms simplifies the expression.

**Examples:** For each of the following series, use the ratio test to determine whether the series converges or diverges.

- $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{n^n}{n!}$

**Exercise:** Use the ratio test to determine whether the series  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{n^3}{3^n}$  converges or diverges.

**Solution (1):** From the ratio test, we can see that

$$\rho = \lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{2^{n+1}/(n+1)!}{2^n/n!} = \lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{2^{n+1}}{(n+1)!} \cdot \frac{n!}{2^n}.$$

Since  $(n+1)! = (n+1) \cdot n!$ ,

$$\rho = \lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{2}{n+1} = 0$$

Since  $\rho$  < 1, the series converges.

Solution (2): We can see that

$$\rho = \lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{(n+1)^{n+1}/(n+1)!}{n^n/n!} = \lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{(n+1)^{n+1}}{(n+1)!} \cdot \frac{n!}{n^n}$$
$$= \lim_{n \to \infty} \left(\frac{n+1}{n}\right)^n = \lim_{n \to \infty} \left(1 + \frac{1}{n}\right)^n = e.$$

Since  $\rho > 1$ , the series diverges.

We explore the relationship between the convergence of  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$  and  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} |a_n|$ .

For example, consider the alternating harmonic series  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^{n+1}}{n}$ . The series whose terms are the absolute value of these terms is the harmonic series, since  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \left| \frac{(-1)^{n+1}}{n} \right| = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n}$ .

Since the alternating harmonic series converges, but the harmonic series diverges, we say the alternating harmonic series exhibits conditional convergence.

Now consider the series  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^{n+1}}{n^2}$ . The series whose terms are the absolute values of the terms of this series is the series  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^2}$ . Since both of these series converge, we say the series  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^{n+1}}{n^2}$  exhibits absolute convergence.

#### **Definition**

A series  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$  exhibits absolute convergence if  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} |a_n|$  converges. A series  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$  exhibits conditional convergence if  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$  converges but  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} |a_n|$  diverges.

## Property (Absolute Convergence Implies Convergence)

If  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} |a_n|$  converges, then  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$  converges.

Then is immediate that  $a_n^+ \le |a_n|$  and  $a_n^- \le |a_n|$ . Since  $|a_n| = a_n^+ + a_n^-$  and  $a_n = a_n^+ - a_n^-$  we have the result.

**Examples:** For each of the following series, determine whether the series converges absolutely, converges conditionally, or diverges.

- 1  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^{n+1}}{3n+1}$ . Hint: To check whether the series converges absolutely, we need to consider the series  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} |\frac{(-1)^{n+1}}{3n+1}|$ . If that one converges, then we also know that the original series converge. If not, we need to check if  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^{n+1}}{3n+1}$  converges. So in total we may need to solve two series problems.
- $2 \sum_{n=1}^{n=1} \frac{\cos(n)}{n^2}$

Solution (1): We can see that

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \left| \frac{(-1)^{n+1}}{3n+1} \right| = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{3n+1}$$

diverges by using the limit comparison test with the harmonic series. In fact,

$$\lim_{n\to\infty}\frac{1/(3n+1)}{1/n}=\frac{1}{3}.$$

Therefore, the series does not converge absolutely. However, since decreasing

$$\frac{1}{3(n+1)+1} < \frac{1}{3n+1}$$
 and  $\frac{1}{3n+1} \to 0$ ,

the series converges by the alternating test. We can conclude that  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^{n+1}}{3n+1}$  converges conditionally.

**Solution (2):** Noting that  $|\cos(n)| \le 1$ , to determine whether the series converges absolutely, compare

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \left| \frac{\cos(n)}{n^2} \right| \quad \text{vs.} \quad \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^2} \, .$$

Since  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^2}$  converges and

$$\frac{|\cos(n)|}{n^2} \le \frac{1}{n^2}$$

by the comparison test,  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty}\left|\frac{\cos n}{n^2}\right|$  converges, and therefore  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty}\frac{\cos n}{n^2}$  converges absolutely and thus converges.

# Quiz problem 3 sample

For each of the following series, determine which convergence test is the best to use and explain why. Then determine if the series converges or diverges.

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

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

$$4 \sum_{n=2}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n \ln(n)}$$

# Quiz problem 3 sample

To determine if  $f(x) = \frac{1}{x \ln(x)}$  is decreasing over the interval  $[2, \infty)$ , we can examine the sign of its derivative.

First, let's find f'(x). Given:

$$f(x) = \frac{1}{x \ln(x)}$$

The derivative can be found using the quotient rule:

$$\left(\frac{u}{v}\right)' = \frac{u'v - uv'}{v^2}$$

Where:

$$u(x) = 1$$
, thus  $u'(x) = 0$   
 $v(x) = x \ln(x)$ 

Using the product rule for v'(x):

$$v'(x) = \ln(x) + x\frac{1}{x} = \ln(x) + 1$$

# Quiz problem 3 sample

Using the above values in the quotient rule:

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

We can see that for  $x \ge 2$ :

- ln(x) > 0
- $(x \ln(x))^2 > 0$  (square of a positive number)

Therefore, f'(x) is negative for all  $x \ge 2$  and thus the function  $f(x) = \frac{1}{x \ln(x)}$  is decreasing on  $[2, \infty)$ .