

# APPLIED MATHEMATICS II

## CHAPTER-1

### REAL SEQUENCES AND SERIES

# Chapter one contents

## 1. REAL SEQUENCES AND SERIES

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# 1. 1 REAL SEQUENCES

## 1.1 Definitions And Notions

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### Definition 1.1.1

A **sequence** is a set of numbers  $a_1, a_2, a_3, \dots, a_n, \dots$  in a definite order of arrangement and formed according to a definite rule.

The number  $a_1$  is called the first term,  $a_2$  is the second term, and in general  $a_n$  is the  **$n^{th}$  term** of the sequence.

## Definition 1.1. 2

A **real sequence** is defined to be a real-valued function whose domain is **a set of positive integers**.

### Examples: 1.1.1

- a) The set of numbers 1,6,11,16,... is an infinite sequence with  $n^{th}$  term  $a_n=5n-4$ ,  $n=1,2,3,\dots$
- b) The set of numbers  $\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{4}, \frac{1}{8}, \frac{1}{16}, \dots$  is an infinite sequence with  $n^{th}$  term  $a_n=\frac{1}{2^n}$ ,  $n=1,2,3,\dots$

# Cont'd

## Notation

The sequence  $\{a_1, a_2, a_3, \dots\}$  is denoted by  $\{a_n\}$  or  $\{a_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$

Sequences can be described by one of the following methods

- i) listing the terms.
- ii) Writing a formula for the  $n^{th}$  term.
- iii) drawing graphs.
- iv) using recurrence relations.

cont'd

a)  $\{\frac{n}{n+2}\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$        $a_n = \frac{n}{n+2}$        $\left\{ \frac{1}{3}, \frac{2}{4}, \frac{3}{5}, \dots, \frac{n}{n+2}, \dots \right\}$

b)  $\{(-1)^n (\frac{n}{n^2-1})\}_{n=2}^{\infty}$        $a_n = (-1)^n \left( \frac{n}{n^2-1} \right)$

$$\left\{ \frac{2}{3}, -\frac{3}{8}, \frac{4}{15}, \dots, (-1)^n \left( \frac{n}{n^2-1} \right), \dots \right\}$$

c)  $\{\sin(\frac{n\pi}{2})\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$        $a_n = \sin(\frac{n\pi}{2})$

$$\{1, 0, -1, \dots, \sin(\frac{n\pi}{2}), \dots\}$$

d)  $a_{n+1} = \sqrt{3a_n}$ ,  $a_1 = 1$

# Arithmetic Sequence

## Definition 1.1.3

An **arithmetic sequence** is a sequence in which the difference between consecutive terms is a constant. This constant is called the **common difference**.

*Example.*  $-3, -1, 1, 3, 5, 7, 9, \dots$  is arithmetic sequence with  $d = 2$

## Formula for the $n^{th}$ term of Arithmetic sequence

If  $\{A_n\}$  is an arithmetic sequence with common difference  $d$ , then the  $n^{th}$  term is given by

$$A_n = A_1 + (n - 1)d$$

cont'd

### Example 1.1.3

Given an arithmetic sequence with first term 5 and common difference 4. Find the twentieth term.

#### Solution

Given :  $A_1 = 5$  and  $d = 4$  and

$$A_n = A_1 + (n - 1)d$$

Therefore

$$A_{20} = 5 + (20 - 1)4 = 5 + 76 = 81$$

# Geometric sequence

**Definition 1.1.4** A sequence is **geometric** if

$$\frac{\text{each term}}{\text{previous term}} = r$$

where **r** is a constant called the **common ratio**

**Example 1.1.4** a) The sequence 2, 8, 32, 128, 512, . . .

is geometric with **common ratio**,  $r = 4$ .

b) 1, 2, 4, 8, 16 . . . is a geometric sequence with first term 1 and common ratio 2.

# Formula for the $n^{th}$ term of geometric sequence

The  $n^{th}$  term of a geometric sequence has the form

$$a_n = a_1 r^{n-1}$$

where  $a_1$  is the first term and  $r$  is the common ratio of consecutive terms of the sequence.

## Example 1.1.5

- 1) Find the seventh term of a geometric sequence whose first term is 4 and whose fourth term is 108.

## Cont'd

**Solution:** First, you need to find the common ratio  $r$ ,

by using the formula

$$a_n = r^{n-1}a_1$$

$$\Rightarrow a_4 = r^3 a_1 \quad \text{where } a_1 = 4 \text{ and } a_4 = 108$$

$$\Rightarrow 108 = 4r^3 \quad \Leftrightarrow \quad r^3 = 27$$

This gives  $r = 3$

Thus,  $a_7 = (4)(3)^6 = 2,916$

## Cont'd

2. Find  $a_5$  and  $a_n$  for the geometric sequence

$$4, -12, 36, -108, \dots$$

**Solution** Here  $a_1 = 4$  and  $r = 36 / -12 = -3$ .

Using  $n = 5$  in the formula

$$a_n = a_1 r^{n-1}$$

$$a_5 = 4 \cdot (-3)^{5-1} = 4 \cdot (-3)^4 = 324$$

In general

$$a_n = a_1 r^{n-1} = 4 \cdot (-3)^{n-1}$$

# Cont'd

## Exercise 1.1

- a) Find the 9th term of the geometric sequence  
7, 21, 63, . . .
- b) A population of fruit flies grows in such a way that each generation is 1.5 times the previous generation. There were 100 insects in the first generation. How many are in the fourth generation?

# 1.2 Bounded And Monotonic Sequences

## 1.2.1 Monotonic Sequences

**Definition 1.2.1** A sequence  $\{a_n\}$  is called

- ❖ **increasing** if  $a_n < a_{n+1}$  for all  $n \geq 1$ .
- ❖ **decreasing** if  $a_n > a_{n+1}$  for all  $n \geq 1$ .
- ❖ **monotonic** if it is either increasing or decreasing.

**Example 1.2.1** The sequence  $\left\{\frac{3}{n+5}\right\}$  is decreasing  $\forall n \geq 1$

And the sequence  $\left\{\frac{2^n - 1}{2^n}\right\}$  is increasing  $\forall n \geq 1$

cont'd

**Example 1.2.2.** Show that the sequence  $a_n = \left(\frac{n}{n^2+1}\right)$  is decreasing.

**Solution :** The sequence is decreasing if

$$a_n > a_{n+1} \Rightarrow \frac{n}{n^2 + 1} > \frac{n+1}{(n+1)^2 + 1}$$

$$\Leftrightarrow n[(n+1)^2 + 1] > (n^2 + 1)(n+1)$$

$$\Leftrightarrow n^2 + n > 1$$

Since  $n \geq 1$ , the inequality  $n^2 + n > 1$  is true.

Therefore,  $a_n > a_{n+1}$

Hence, by definition  $\{a_n\}$  is decreasing.

cont'd

**Alternative method .** Consider the function

$$f(x) = \frac{x}{x^2+1}$$

$$f'(x) = \frac{x^2+1-2x^2}{(x^2+1)^2} = \frac{1-x^2}{(x^2+1)^2} < 0 \quad \text{if } x^2 > 1$$

Thus,  $f$  is decreasing on  $(1, \infty)$  by FDT .

so  $f(n) = a_n > f(n + 1) = a_{n+1}$  on  $[1, \infty)$ .

Therefore,  $\{a_n\}$  is decreasing

cont'd

## Exercise 1.2

1. Determine whether the sequences are monotone or not.

a)  $a_n = \frac{1}{5^n}$

b)  $a_n = n e^{-n}$

c)  $a_n = (-1)^2 n$

d)  $a_n = \frac{\sqrt{n}}{n+1}$

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

f)  $a_{n+1} = \sqrt{3 a_n}, a_1 = 1$

2. Show that the sequence  $\left\{\frac{10^n}{n!}\right\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$  is eventually decreasing.

## 1.2.2 Bounded Sequences

**Definition 1.2.2** A sequence  $\{a_n\}$

- ❖ is *bounded above* if there is a number  $M$  such that
$$a_n \leq M \text{ for all } n \geq 1.$$
- ❖ is *bounded below* if there is a number  $m$  such that
$$m \leq a_n \text{ for all } n \geq 1.$$
- ❖ is a *bounded sequence* if it is bounded above and below.

cont'd

### Example 1.2.3.

- a) The sequence  $a_n = n$  is bounded below ( $a_n \geq 1$ ) but not above.
- b) The sequence  $a_n = \frac{n}{n+1}$  is bounded because  $0 < a_n < 1$  for all  $n \geq 1$ .
- c) The sequence  $a_n = (-1)^n$  is bounded because  $-1 \leq a_n \leq 1$  for all  $n \geq 1$ .

cont'd

Exercise

1. Prove that the sequence with  $n^{\text{th}}$  term  $a_n = \frac{2n-7}{3n+2}$ 
  - a) Is monotonic increasing
  - b) Is bounded
  - c) has a limit
2. Prove that a convergent sequence is bounded.

# 1.3 Convergence Of Sequences

**Definition 1.3.1** A sequence  $\{a_n\}$  has the limit  $L$  and we write

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = L \quad \text{or} \quad a_n \rightarrow L \quad \text{as} \quad n \rightarrow \infty$$

if for every  $\varepsilon$  there is a corresponding integer  $N > 0$  such that if  $n > N$ , then  $|a_n - L| < \varepsilon$ .

If the limit  $L$  of the sequence exists, we say the sequence **converges**. Otherwise we say the sequence **diverges**.

# Cont'd

## Example 1.3.1

*The sequence*

- a)  $\{1, \frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{3}, \dots\}$  and  $\{\frac{3n+1}{n}\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$  are convergent.
- b)  $\{1, 2, 3, 4, \dots\}$  and  $\{(-1)^n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$  are divergent.
- c)  $\{-1, 1, -1, 1, -1, 1, -1, \dots\}$  is divergent .

## Cont'd

**Example 1.3.2** Determine if the sequence  $\left\{\frac{4n^2}{2n^2+1}\right\}$  is convergent or divergent.

**Solution:** The sequence converges if  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{4n^2}{2n^2+1}$  exists.

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{4n^2}{2n^2 + 1} = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{4}{2 + \frac{1}{n^2}} = 2$$

Therefore, by definition the given sequence is convergent.

# Cont'd

## Example 1.3.3

Determine whether the sequence  $\{n \sin\left(\frac{\pi}{n}\right)\}$  is convergent or divergent.

**Solution:** The sequence converges if  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} n \sin\left(\frac{\pi}{n}\right)$  exists. Let  $f(x) = \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} x \sin\left(\frac{\pi}{x}\right)$ .

It can be written as

$$f(x) = \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} x \sin\left(\frac{\pi}{x}\right) = \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\sin\left(\frac{\pi}{x}\right)}{\frac{1}{x}} = \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{-\frac{\pi}{x^2} \cos\left(\frac{\pi}{x}\right)}{-\frac{1}{x^2}} = \pi$$

Therefore, the given sequence converges to  $\pi$ .

# Cont'd

## **Exercise 1.3.1**

1. Show that a sequence  $a_n = \sqrt[n]{n}$  is convergent.
2. By using the definition of convergence prove that
  - a)  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{n}{2n-3} = \frac{1}{2}$
  - b)  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left( \frac{4n^2+8}{2n^2+n} \right) = 2$
3. Prove that a convergent sequence has a unique limit.

**Definition 1.3.2**  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = \infty$  means that for every positive number  $M$  there is an integer  $N$  such that  $a_n > M$  whenever  $n > N$ .

# Limit laws for sequences

If  $\{a_n\}$  and  $\{b_n\}$  are convergent sequences and  $c$  is a constant, then

- i.  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (a_n \pm b_n) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n \pm$
- ii.  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (a_n b_n) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n \cdot \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} b_n$
- iii.  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (c a_n) = c \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n$
- iv.  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left( \frac{a_n}{b_n} \right) = \frac{\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n}{\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} b_n}$ , provided  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} b_n \neq 0$
- v.  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n^p = [\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n]^p$  if  $p > 0$  and  $a_n > 0$

# The Squeeze Theorem

If  $a_n \leq b_n \leq c_n$  for  $n > N$  and

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} c_n = L, \text{ then } \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} b_n = L.$$

**Example 1.3.4** Show that  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\sin^2 n}{n} = 0$

solution.  $0 \leq \sin^2 n \leq 1$ , so for  $n > 0$

$$0 \leq \frac{\sin^2 n}{n} \leq \frac{1}{n} \Rightarrow 0 \leq \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left( \frac{\sin^2 n}{n} \right) \leq 0$$

Hence, By squeeze theorem  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left( \frac{\sin^2 n}{n} \right) = 0$

cont'd

## Theorem 1.2

If  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} |a_n| = 0$ , then  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = 0$ .

**Example 1.3.5** Evaluate  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{(-1)^n}{n}$  if it exists.

**Solution**  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{(-1)^n}{n} \right| = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{n} = 0$

Therefore, by the above theorem

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{(-1)^n}{n} = 0$$

# Monotonic Sequence Theorem

**Theorem 1.3 :** Every bounded, monotonic sequence is convergent. proof(exercise)

## Example 1.3.6

Let  $\{a_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$  be a sequence defined by the recurrence relation

$$a_1 = 1 \quad , \quad a_{n+1} = \frac{1}{2} \left( 5 - \frac{2}{a_n} \right) \quad , \forall n \geq 1$$

- i. Show that  $\{a_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$  is convergent.
- ii. Find  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n$

cont'd

**Solution:** We begin by computing the first few terms:

$$a_1 = 1, a_2 = \frac{1}{2}(5 - \frac{2}{a_1}) = \frac{3}{2}, a_3 = \frac{1}{2}(5 - \frac{2}{a_2}) = \frac{11}{6}, \dots$$

These initial terms suggest that the sequence is increasing and the terms are approaching 2.

To confirm that the sequence is increasing

( $a_n < a_{n+1} \forall n \geq 1$ ) we use mathematical induction.

It is true for  $n = 1$  because  $a_2 = \frac{3}{2} > a_1 = 1$ .

# cont'd

If we assume that it is true for  $n = k$ , then we have

$$a_k < a_{k+1}$$

$$-\frac{2}{a_k} < -\frac{2}{a_{k+1}}$$

$$\Leftrightarrow 5 - \frac{2}{a_k} < 5 - \frac{2}{a_{k+1}}$$

$$\Leftrightarrow \frac{1}{2}(5 - \frac{2}{a_k}) < \frac{1}{2}(5 - \frac{2}{a_{k+1}})$$

Thus,  $a_{k+1} < a_{k+2}$

cont'd

We have deduced that  $a_n < a_{n+1}$  is true for  $n = k + 1$ .

Therefore the inequality is true for all  $n$  by induction.

Hence , the sequence is increasing.

Next, we verify that  $\{a_n\}$  is bounded by showing that  $a_n < 2 \ \forall n$ . Since the sequence is increasing, we already know that it has a lower bound:  $a_n \geq a_1 = 1$

We know that  $a_1 < 2$  , so the assertion is true for  $n = 1$ .

## cont'd

Suppose it is true for  $n = k$ .

Then

$$a_k < 2$$

$$\Rightarrow -\frac{2}{a_k} < -1$$

$$\Leftrightarrow 5 - \frac{2}{a_k} < 5 - 1$$

$$\Leftrightarrow \frac{1}{2} \left( 5 - \frac{2}{a_k} \right) < \frac{1}{2} (4) = 2$$

$$\text{Thus } a_{k+1} < 2$$

This shows, by mathematical induction, that  $a_n < 2$

cont'd

Therefore, by monotonic sequence theorem it is convergent and it has a limit.

$$\Rightarrow \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n \text{ exists and } \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_{n+1} = L$$

$$\Rightarrow \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_{n+1} = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{2} \left( 5 - \frac{2}{a_n} \right) = \frac{1}{2} \left( 5 - \frac{2}{\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n} \right)$$

$$\Leftrightarrow \frac{1}{2} \left( 5 - \frac{2}{L} \right) = L$$

$$\Leftrightarrow 2L^2 - 5L + 2 = 0 \quad \Leftrightarrow L = 2 \quad \text{or} \quad L = \frac{1}{2}$$

Therefore,  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = 2$ , as predicted.

cont'd

### Exercise 1.3.2

Determine whether the sequence converges or diverges. If it converges, find the limit.

a)  $a_n = \frac{(-1)^{n-1} n}{n^2 + 1}$

d)  $a_n = \frac{\cos^2 n}{2^n}$

b)  $a_n = \left\{ \frac{\ln n}{\ln 2n} \right\}$

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

c)  $a_n = \frac{\sqrt{n}}{\sqrt{n} + 1}$

f.  $a_1 = 2, a_{n+1} = \frac{1}{3 - a_n}$

# 1.4 Real Series

## Definition 1.4.1

□ A series is the sum of the terms of a sequence.

i.e The sum  $S = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n = a_1 + a_2 + a_3 + \cdots + a_n + \cdots$

is an infinite series

□ The sum of the first n terms

$S_n = \sum_{n=1}^n a_n = a_1 + a_2 + a_3 + \cdots + a_n$  of a sequence

$\{a_n\}$  is called the  **$n^{th}$  partial sum.**

# Geometric Series

A series of the form

$a + ar + ar^2 + ar^3 + \dots = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} ar^{n-1}$  is called **geometric series**, where a and r are constants.

If a G.S has **first term  $a_1$**  and **common ratio  $r$** , then the sum of the first  $n$  terms is given by

$$S_n = \frac{a_1(1 - r^n)}{1 - r} \quad \text{where } r \neq 1 \quad \text{and}$$

$$S_{\infty} = \frac{a_1}{1 - r} \quad \text{where } -1 < r < 1$$

## Cont'd

**Example** 1. Evaluate

$$\sum_{n=1}^5 3(2)^n$$

**Solution** For our series

$$3(2) + 3(2)^2 + 3(2)^3 + 3(2)^4 + 3(2)^5$$

$$a_1 = 6, \quad r = 2 \quad \text{and} \quad n = 5 \quad \text{using} \quad S_n = \frac{a(r^n - 1)}{r - 1}$$

$$S_5 = \frac{6(2^5 - 1)}{2 - 1} = \frac{6(31)}{1} = 186$$

$$2. \quad \text{Find} \quad \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \left(\frac{3}{5}\right)^n$$

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \left(\frac{3}{5}\right)^n = \frac{a_1}{1 - r} = \frac{\frac{3}{5}}{1 - \frac{3}{5}} = \frac{3}{2}$$

**Solution:** Here  $a_1 = \frac{3}{5} = r$  so

# Harmonic Series

A series of the form

$$\frac{1}{m} + \frac{1}{m+d} + \frac{1}{m+2d} + \dots$$

Where m , d are numbers such that the denominators are never zero is called **harmonic Series**.

**Example.** The series

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

Is a harmonic series.

**Note:** Harmonic series is never an integer.

# P-series

A series of the form

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

Is called **p-series** where  $p$  any real number.

**Example** .  $1 + \frac{1}{2^2} + \frac{1}{3^2} + \cdots + \frac{1}{n^2} + \cdots = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^2}$

is a p- series with  $p= 2$ .

**Note** : A series  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^n}{n^p}$  is **alternating p-series**

# Telescoping series

A series  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$  with  $a_n$  of the form  $a_n = b_n - b_{n+1}$  is called a **telescoping Series**.

For a telescoping series

$$S_n = \sum_{n=1}^n a_n = \sum_{n=1}^n (b_n - b_{n+1}) = b_1 - b_{n+1}$$

Hence a telescoping series converges if

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} S_n \text{ exists.}$$

# Convergence of series

Let  $S_n = \sum_{n=1}^n a_n = a_1 + a_2 + a_3 + \cdots + a_n$

be the  **$n^{th}$  partial sum** of a sequence  $\{a_n\}$ .

Then the series  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$  **converges** if  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} S_n$  exists,

and  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} S_n$ .

Otherwise we say the series **diverges**.

## Cont'd

**Example 1.4.1.** Show that the geometric series

$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} r^n$  converges to  $\frac{1}{1-r}$  if  $|r| < 1$  and diverge if  $|r| \geq 1$

**Solution.**  $S_n = 1 + r + r^2 + r^3 + \cdots + r^{n-1} + r^n \dots \text{(i)}$

$$rS_n = r + r^2 + r^3 + \cdots + r^{n-1} + r^n + r^{n+1} \dots \text{(ii)}$$

$$\Rightarrow S_n(1 - r) = 1 - r^{n+1}$$

$$\Rightarrow S_n = \frac{1}{1 - r} - \frac{r^{n+1}}{1 - r}, r \neq 1 \Rightarrow \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} S_n = \frac{1}{1 - r}$$

Therefore, the series  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} r^n$  converges to  $\frac{1}{1-r}$  for  $|r| < 1$ .

# Cont'd

## Example 1.4.2

1. Show that the repeating decimal geometric series

$$0.0808\overline{08} = \frac{8}{10^2} + \frac{8}{10^4} + \frac{8}{10^6} + \frac{8}{10^8} + \dots \text{converges}$$

$$a = \frac{8}{10^2} \text{ and } r = \frac{1}{10^2} \quad \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} ar^{n-1} = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{8}{10^2} \left( \frac{1}{10^2} \right)^{n-1}$$

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} ar^{n-1} = \frac{a}{1-r} = \frac{\frac{8}{10^2}}{1 - \frac{1}{10^2}} = \frac{8}{99}$$

The repeating decimal is converges to  $8/99$ .

## Cont'd

2. Show that  $\frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{6} + \frac{1}{12} + \dots$  converges.

**Solution.** The  $n^{th}$  term of the sequence is  $\frac{1}{n(n+1)}$

Using partial fraction  $a_n = \frac{1}{n(n+1)} = \frac{1}{n} - \frac{1}{(n+1)}$

Hence , the series can be written as  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n(n+1)} = (1 - \frac{1}{2}) + (\frac{1}{2} - \frac{1}{3}) + (\frac{1}{3} - \frac{1}{4}) + \dots + (\frac{1}{m-1} - \frac{1}{m}) + (\frac{1}{m} - \frac{1}{(m+1)}) + \dots$

$$\Rightarrow S_m = 1 - \frac{1}{(m+1)} \qquad \Rightarrow \lim_{m \rightarrow \infty} S_m = 1$$

Therefore, by definition the telescoping series

$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n(n+1)}$  converges to 1.

# Cont'd

## Exercise

1. Determine if the following series converges or diverges. If it converges find its value.

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

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

2. Prove that  $\frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{4} + \frac{1}{8} + \dots + \frac{1}{2^{n-1}} < 1$

# Properties of convergent infinite series

## Theorem 1.4

If  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$  and  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} b_n$  are convergent series and k is a real number, then

i.  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} ka_n = k \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$

ii.  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (a_n \pm b_n) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n \pm \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} b_n$

**Example 1.4.3.** Find the sum of the series  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \left( \frac{2}{n(n+1)} + \frac{1}{2^n} \right)$

**Solution:**

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

# Limit of $n^{th}$ Term of a Convergent Series

**Theorem 1.5** If the series  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$  is convergent, then

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

**Proof.** Let  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$  converges to L

**Claim:**  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = 0$

Since  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$  converges to L,  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} S_m = L$

where  $S_m = \sum_{n=1}^m a_n$

As  $m \rightarrow \infty, m - 1 \rightarrow \infty$  so  $\lim_{m \rightarrow \infty} S_{m-1} = L$

But  $S_m = a_1 + a_2 + a_3 + \cdots + a_{m-1} + a_m$

$S_{m-1} = a_1 + a_2 + a_3 + \cdots + a_{m-1}$

$\Rightarrow S_m - S_{m-1} = a_m \Rightarrow \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (S_m - S_{m-1}) = 0$

## Cont'd

The converse of Theorem 1.5 is not true in general.

If  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = 0$ , we cannot conclude that  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$  is convergent.

Observe that for the harmonic series  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n}$  we have

$a_n = \frac{1}{n} \rightarrow 0$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ , but the series  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n}$  is divergent.

# Divergence Test

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

**Example 1.4.4** Show that the series  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{n^2}{5n^2+4}$  diverges.

**Solution.** Let  $a_n = \frac{n^2}{5n^2+4}$ . Then  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = \frac{1}{5} \neq 0$

Therefore , by the divergence test theorem the series

$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{n^2}{5n^2+4}$  is divergent .

# Cont'd

## Exercise 1.4.1

1. Determine whether the series converges or diverges.

a)  $3 + 2 + \frac{4}{3} + \frac{8}{9} + \dots$

b)  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{3^n + 2^n}{6^n}$

2. If the  $n^{th}$  partial sum of a series  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$  is

$$S_n = 3 - \frac{n}{2^n}, \text{ find } a_n \text{ and } \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$$

3. Evaluate the sum

$$\frac{1}{1.2} + \frac{1}{2.3} + \frac{1}{3.4} + \frac{1}{4.5} + \dots + \frac{1}{99.100}$$

4. Show that the arithmetic series

$$\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} (ak + b)$$

converges  $\Leftrightarrow a = b = 0$ .

# The integral Test

If  $f$  is a continuous, positive, decreasing function on  $[1, \infty)$  and  $a_n = f(n)$ , then  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$  and  $\int_1^{\infty} f(x)dx$  either both converge or both diverge.

In other words:

- (i) If  $\int_1^{\infty} f(x)dx$  is convergent, then  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$  is convergent.
- (ii) If  $\int_1^{\infty} f(x)dx$  is divergent, then  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$  is divergent.

**Note :** The function  $f$  is called **testing function**.

## Cont'd

### Example 1.4.5

1. Test the series  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^2+1}$  for convergence or divergence.

**Solution:** The function  $f(x) = \frac{1}{x^2+1}$  is continuous, positive, and decreasing on  $[1, \infty)$ . so we use the Integral Test:

$$\begin{aligned} & \int_1^{\infty} \frac{1}{x^2+1} dx \\ &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \int_1^n \frac{1}{x^2+1} dx = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \tan^{-1} x \Big|_{x=1}^n = \frac{\pi}{4} \end{aligned}$$

Thus  $\int_1^{\infty} \frac{1}{x^2+1} dx$  is a convergent integral and so, by the Integral Test, the series  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^2+1}$  is convergent.

# Convergence of the p- series

2. Prove that the **p-series**  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^p}$  is convergent if  $p > 1$  and divergent if  $p \leq 1$ .

**Solution.**

i. If  $p = 1$ , the series becomes  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n}$  which is harmonic series and is divergent.

ii. If  $p > 1$ ,  $\int_1^{\infty} \frac{1}{x^p} dx = \lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} \int_1^t \frac{1}{x^p} dx = \frac{-1}{1-p}$

Therefore, by integral test the series

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

iii. If  $p < 1$  the improper integral  $\int_1^{\infty} \frac{1}{x^p} dx$  diverges .

(i),(ii) &(iii)  $\Rightarrow$  the p-series converges if  $p > 1$  and diverges if  $p \leq 1$ .

**Note:** We should ***not*** infer from the Integral Test that the sum of the series is equal to the value of the integral.

**Example. 1 4.6**  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^2} = \frac{\pi^2}{6}$  whereas  $\int_1^{\infty} \frac{1}{x^2} dx = 1$

Therefore, in general,  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n \neq \int_1^{\infty} f(x)dx$

### Exercise 1.4.2

1. Use the Integral Test to determine whether the series is convergent or divergent .

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

c)  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} n e^{-n}$

b)  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{\ln n}{n}$

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

2. Find the values of  $p$  for which the series  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} n(1+n^2)^p$  is convergent .

# Direct Comparison Test

Suppose that  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$  and  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} b_n$  are series with positive terms.

- (i) If  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} b_n$  is convergent and  $a_n \leq b_n$  for all  $n \geq 1$ ,  
then  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$  is also convergent.
- (ii) If  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} b_n$  is divergent and  $a_n \geq b_n$  for all  $n \geq 1$  ,  
then  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$  is also divergent

**PROOF** (i) Let  $S_n = \sum_{j=1}^n a_n$  ,  $t_n = \sum_{j=1}^n b_n$   $t = \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} b_n$

Since both series have positive terms, the sequences  $\{S_n\}$  and  $\{t_n\}$  are increasing. Also  $t_n \rightarrow t$  , so  $t_n \leq t$  for all n .

Since  $a_i \leq b_i$  we have  $S_n \leq t_n$  . Thus  $S_n \leq t$  for all n . This means that  $\{S_n\}$  is increasing and bounded above and therefore Converges by the Monotonic Sequence Theorem.

Thus  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$  converges.

(ii) If  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} b_n$  is divergent, then  $t_n \rightarrow \infty$  (since  $\{t_n\}$  is increasing). But  $a_i \geq b_i$  so  $S_n \geq t_n$  . Thus  $s_n \rightarrow \infty$ . Therefore  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$  diverges.

## Cont'd

**Example 1.4.7** Determine whether the series

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{3}{2n^2+4n+5}$$
 converges or diverges.

**Solution:** Let  $a_n = \frac{3}{2n^2+4n+5}$  and  $b_n = \frac{3}{2n^2}$ .

Observe that  $a_n < b_n$ . But we know that

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} b_n = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{3}{2n^2} = \frac{3}{2} \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^2}$$
 is convergent series

because it's a constant times a p-series with  $p = 2 > 1$ .

Therefore  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{3}{2n^2+4n+5}$  is convergent by part (i) of the direct Comparison Test.

## Cont'd

**Note:** The terms of the series being tested must be smaller than those of a convergent series or larger than those of a divergent series. If the terms are larger than the terms of a convergent series or smaller than those of a divergent series, then the Comparison Test doesn't apply.

### Exercise 1.4.3

Determine whether the series converges or diverges

a)  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{3\sin^2 n}{n!}$

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

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

# Limit Comparison Test

Suppose that  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$  and  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} b_n$  are series with positive terms . If

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left( \frac{a_n}{b_n} \right) = L$$

where  $L$  is a finite number and positive , then either both series converge or both diverges. **Proof (ex)**

## Example 1.4.8

Test the convergence or divergence of the following series.

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

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b)  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{\sqrt[3]{8n^2 - 5n}}$

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## Cont'd

**Solution:** a) We use the Limit Comparison Test with

$$a_n = \frac{1}{2^{n-1}} \text{ and } b_n = \frac{1}{2^n} \text{ and obtain}$$

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left( \frac{a_n}{b_n} \right) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left( \frac{2^n}{2^{n-1}} \right) = 1 > 0$$

Since this limit exists and  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{2^n}$  is a convergent geometric series, the given series converges by the Limit Comparison Test.

## Cont'd

b) Let  $a_n = \frac{1}{\sqrt[3]{8n^2 - 5n}}$  and  $b_n = \frac{1}{\sqrt[3]{8n^2}}$ . Then

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left( \frac{a_n}{b_n} \right) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left( \sqrt[3]{\frac{8n^2}{8n^2 - 5n}} \right) = 1 > 0 \text{ and } \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{\sqrt[3]{8n^2}} =$$

$\frac{1}{2} \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^{2/3}}$  is divergent because it is a constant times a p-series with  $p = \frac{2}{3} < 1$ .

Hence, by limit comparison test the series  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{\sqrt[3]{8n^2 - 5n}}$  diverges.

# Cont'd

## Exercise 1.4.4

Determine whether the series converges or diverges.

$$a) \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{4n-3}{n^3-5n-7}$$

$$b) \quad b) \quad \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n\sqrt{n^2-1}}$$

$$c) \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{\sqrt{n}}{n^2+1}$$

# Ratio Test

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

1. The series  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$  **converges absolutely**

if  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{a_{n+1}}{a_n} \right| < 1$ .

2. The series  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$  **diverges** if  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{a_{n+1}}{a_n} \right| > 1$

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

3. The ratio test is inconclusive if  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{a_{n+1}}{a_n} \right| = 1$

Proof (exercise)

# Cont'd

## Example 1.4.9

Test the convergence of the following series

a)  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{2^n}{n!}$

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

c)  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^n}{n^2+1}$

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

e)  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{2^n+5}{3^n}$

## Cont'd

**Solution.** a) Let  $a_n = \frac{2^n}{n!}$  then  $a_{n+1} = \frac{2^{n+1}}{(n+1)!}$

$$\Rightarrow \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{a_{n+1}}{a_n} \right| = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{2}{n+1} \right| = 0 < 1$$

Thus, by ratio test the series  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{2^n}{n!}$  converges.

b) Let  $a_n = \frac{n!}{n^n}$  then  $a_{n+1} = \frac{(n+1)!}{(n+1)^{n+1}}$

$$\Rightarrow \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{a_{n+1}}{a_n} \right| = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left| \left( \frac{n}{n+1} \right)^n \right| = \frac{1}{e} < 1$$

Thus, by the Ratio Test, the given series  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{n!}{n^n}$  is absolutely convergent and therefore convergent.<sup>66</sup>

## Cont'd

$$c) \ a_n = \frac{(-1)^n}{n^2 + 1}$$

$$\Rightarrow \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{a_{n+1}}{a_n} \right| = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{(-1)^{n+1}}{(n+1)^2 + 1} \frac{n^2 + 1}{(-1)^n} \right|$$

$$= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{n^2 + 1}{(n+1)^2 + 1} \right| = 1$$

Therefore, the series  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^n}{n^2 + 1}$  might converge or it might diverge. In this case the **Ratio Test** fails .

## Cont'd

$$d) a_n = \frac{n^2}{(2n-1)!}$$

$$\begin{aligned} & \Rightarrow \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{a_{n+1}}{a_n} \right| = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{(n+1)^2}{(2n+1)!} \frac{(2n-1)!}{n^2} \right| \\ & = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{(n+1)^2}{(2n+1)(2n)(2n-1)!} \frac{(2n-1)!}{n^2} \right| \\ & = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{(n+1)^2}{(2n+1)(2n)(n^2)} = 0 < 1 \end{aligned}$$

Therefore, by ratio test this series is convergent

## Cont'd

e)  $a_n = \frac{2^n + 5}{3^n}$

$$\Rightarrow \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{a_{n+1}}{a_n} \right| = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{2^{(n+1)} + 5}{3^{(n+1)}} \frac{3^n}{2^n + 5} \right|$$
$$= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{2(2^n) + 5}{3(3^n)} \frac{3^n}{2^n + 5} = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\left(2 + \frac{5}{2^n}\right)}{3\left(1 + \frac{5}{2^n}\right)}$$
$$= 2/3 < 1$$

Therefore, by ratio test this series is convergent

### Exercise 1.4.5

Test the convergence of the following series

a)  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{2^n}{n^2}$     b)  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^n n^3}{3^n}$     c)  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} n^3 e^{-n^2}$

# Root Test

- i) If  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sqrt[n]{|a_n|} < 1$ , then the series  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$  is **absolutely convergent** (and therefore convergent).
- (ii) If  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sqrt[n]{|a_n|} > 1$  or  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sqrt[n]{|a_n|} = \infty$ , then the series  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$  is **divergent**.
- (iii) If  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sqrt[n]{|a_n|} = 1$ , the Root Test is inconclusive.

## Cont'd

### Example 1.4.10

Test the convergence of the series

a)  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \left( \frac{2n+3}{3n+2} \right)^n$  b)  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \left( \frac{\ln(n)}{1000} \right)^n$  c)  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(n+2)^n}{(n+5)^n}$

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

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sqrt[n]{|a_n|} = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{2n+3}{3n+2} = \frac{2}{3} < 1$$

Thus the given series converges by the Root Test.

b)  $a_n = \left( \frac{\ln(n)}{1000} \right)^n$

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sqrt[n]{|a_n|} = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\ln(n)}{1000} = \infty$$

Thus the given series diverges by the Root Test.

## Cont'd

c)  $a_n = \frac{(n+2)^n}{(n+5)^n}$

$$\Rightarrow \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sqrt[n]{|a_n|} = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sqrt[n]{\left| \frac{(n+2)^n}{(n+5)^n} \right|} = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{n+2}{n+5}$$

$$= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sqrt[n]{|a_n|} = 1$$

Therefore, the series  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(n+2)^n}{(n+5)^n}$  might converge or it might diverge.

# Cont'd

## Exercise 1.4.6

Determine whether the series is absolutely convergent or divergent.

a)  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \left( \frac{n}{2^n} \right)$  e)  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{2^n}{n^2}$

b)  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \left( \frac{3^{2n}}{n^n} \right)$  f)  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{e^{3n}}{n^n}$

c)  $\sum_{n=2}^{\infty} \left( \frac{-2}{n+1} \right)^{5n}$

d)  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \left( 1 + \frac{1}{n} \right)^{n^2}$

# Alternating series

**Definition 1.4.2** Alternating series is a series whose terms are alternatively positive and negative.

**Example 1.4.11**  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^{n+1}}{n}$  and  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^n n}{n+1}$  are alternating series.

## Alternating series Test ( Leibniz Test)

Let  $a_n > 0$ . The alternating series  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (-1)^n a_n$  and  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (-1)^{n+1} a_n$  converges if the following two conditions are met.

1.  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = 0$
2.  $a_{n+1} \leq a_n, \forall n$

## Cont'd

**Example 1.4.12** Determine whether the series converges or diverges.

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

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

**Solution .** a)  $a_n = \frac{1}{n}$  is decreasing and

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{n} = 0$$

Hence, by alternating series test the series  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^{n-1}}{n}$  is convergent.

## Cont'd

b)  $a_n = \frac{3n}{4n-1}$  and  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{3n}{4n-1} = \frac{3}{4} \neq 0$

Therefore ,by alternating series test the series

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^n 3n}{4n-1} \text{ diverges.}$$

### Exercise 1.4.7

Test the series for convergence or divergence

a)  $\frac{-1}{3} + \frac{2}{4} - \frac{3}{5} + \frac{4}{6} - \frac{5}{7} + \dots$

b)  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \left(\frac{-n}{5}\right)^n$

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

# Absolute convergence

## Definition 1.4.2

A series  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$  is called **absolutely convergent** if the series of absolute values  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} |a_n|$  is convergent.

## Example 1.4.13

The series

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^{n-1}}{n^2} = 1 - \frac{1}{4} + \frac{1}{9} - \frac{1}{16} + \dots$$

is absolutely convergent because

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \left| \frac{(-1)^{n-1}}{n^2} \right| = 1 + \frac{1}{4} + \frac{1}{9} + \frac{1}{16} + \dots$$

is a convergent -series ( $p = 2$ )

# Conditional convergence

## DEFINITION 1.4.3

A series  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$  is called **conditionally convergent** if it is convergent but not absolutely convergent.

In other word:

A series  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$  is called **conditionally convergent** if  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$  converges but  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} |a_n|$  diverges.

## Cont'd

**Example 1.4.14** We know that the alternating

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

is convergent , but it is not absolutely convergent  
because the corresponding series of absolute values  
 $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \left| \frac{(-1)^{n-1}}{n} \right| = 1 + \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{3} + \frac{1}{4} + \dots$  which is the  
harmonic series ( P -series with p=1 ) and is  
therefore divergent.

## Cont'd

**THEOREM 1.7** If a series is absolutely convergent, then it is convergent.

**Proof** Observe that the inequality  $0 \leq a_n + |a_n| \leq 2|a_n|$  is true because  $|a_n|$  is either  $a_n$  or  $-a_n$ .

If  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$  is absolutely convergent, then  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} |a_n|$  is convergent, so  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} 2|a_n|$  is convergent. Therefore, by the Comparison Test,  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (a_n + |a_n|)$  is convergent.

Then  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (a_n + |a_n|) - \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} |a_n|$  is the difference of two convergent series and is therefore convergent.

## Cont'd

### Example 1.4.15

1. Show that the series  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{\sin(n)}{n^3}$  converges.

**Solution.**  $\left| \frac{\sin(n)}{n^3} \right| \leq \frac{1}{n^3}, \forall n \geq 1.$

Since  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^3}$  converges the series  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \left| \frac{\sin(n)}{n^3} \right|$  converges by direct comparison test.

Since  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \left| \frac{\sin(n)}{n^3} \right|$  converges, the series  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{\sin(n)}{n^3}$  converges absolutely.

Therefore the series converges by the above theorem.

# Cont'd

2. Is the given series absolutely convergent or conditionally convergent or divergent?

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

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

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

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

## Cont'd

$$a) \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^{n(n+1)/2}}{3^n} = -\frac{1}{3} - \frac{1}{9} + \frac{1}{27} + \frac{1}{81} - \dots$$

This is not an alternating series, but since

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

Is a convergent geometric series, then the given Series is absolutely convergent.

## Cont'd

$$b) \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^{n+1}(n+1)}{n} = \frac{2}{1} - \frac{3}{2} + \frac{4}{3} - \frac{5}{4} +$$

By the nth term test for divergence, the series Diverges.

## Cont'd

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

Converges by the alternating series test.

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \left| \frac{(-1)^n}{\sqrt{n}} \right| = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1}} + \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} + \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} + \frac{1}{\sqrt{4}}$$

Diverges since it is a p-series with  $p < 1$ . The Given series is conditionally convergent.

## Cont'd

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

Converges by the Alternating series test.

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

Diverges with direct comparison with the harmonic Series. The given series is conditionally convergent.

# Cont'd

## Exercise 1.4.8

1. Show that  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{x^n}{n} = x + \frac{x^2}{2} + \frac{x^3}{3} + \dots$  converges absolutely for  $|x| < 1$ , converges conditionally for  $x = -1$  and diverges for  $x = 1$  and for  $|x| > 1$ .
2. Given any series  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$ , we define a series  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n^+$  whose terms are all the positive terms of  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$  and a series  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n^-$  whose terms are all the negative terms of  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$ .

## Cont'd

To be specific, we let  $a_n^+ = \frac{a_n + |a_n|}{2}$  and  $a_n^- = \frac{a_n - |a_n|}{2}$

**Notice that** if  $a_n > 0$ , then  $a_n = a_n^+$  and  $a_n^- = 0$ ,  
whereas if  $a_n < 0$ , then  $a_n = a_n^-$  and  $a_n^+ = 0$

- (a) If  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$  is absolutely convergent, show that both of the series  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n^+$  and  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n^-$  are convergent.
- (b) If  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$  is conditionally convergent, show that both of the series  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n^+$  and  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n^-$  are divergent.