

# Lecture 7 - Calculus

## Overview of the course

- Continuity and limits
- Differentiation
- Integration

END of SECONDARY SCHOOL MATERIAL (for most of you)

- Sequences and series we are here!
- Differential equations
- Partial derivatives and double integrals

# Sequences and series

- Sequences
- Infinite Series
- Convergence tests for positive series
- Absolute and conditional convergence

Adams' Ch. 9.1-9.3, Thomas' Ch. 10.1

# Sequences

A sequence  $\{a_n\}$  is a list of numbers  $a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n, \dots$  in a given order

$a_n$  term  
 $n$  index

\* a sequence can be seen as a function  $f: \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}; n \rightarrow a_n = f(n)$

Examples:  $\sqrt{n}, \frac{1}{n}, (-1)^n$

$a_1 = 1, a_2 = 1, \dots, a_n = a_{n-1} + a_{n-2}$  (recursive formula)  
(FIBONNACCI)

$1, -\frac{x^2}{2}, \frac{x^4}{4!}, -\frac{x^6}{6!}, \dots$  (a pattern)  
 $\rightarrow \frac{(-1)^n \cdot x^{2n}}{(2n)!}$

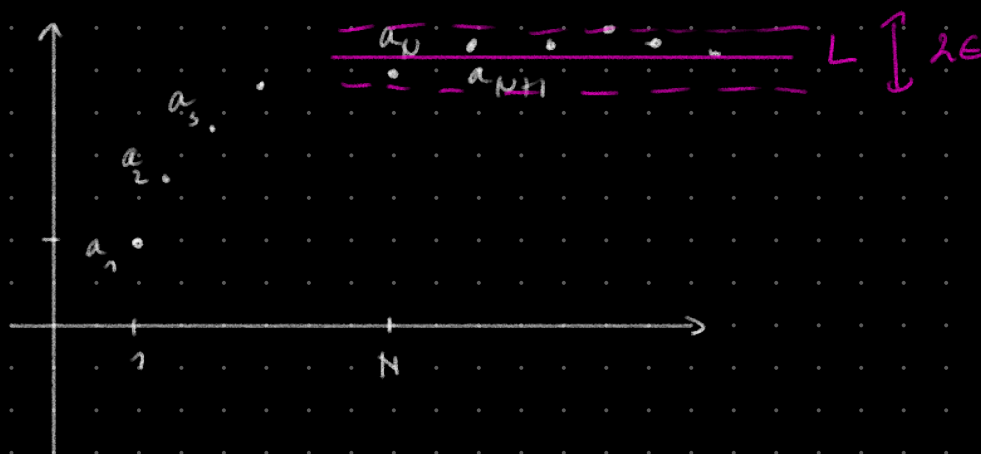
\* Series and sequences are used to approximate irrational numbers, transcendental functions ( $\sin(x), \cos(x), e^x, \ln(x), \dots$ ) numerically

## Convergence of a sequence

A sequence  $a_n \rightarrow L$  if  $\forall \epsilon > 0, \exists N \in \mathbb{N} : n \geq N \Rightarrow |a_n - L| < \epsilon$

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

\* This means that, after an index  $N$ , all terms  $a_n$  are within  $\epsilon$ -distance from the limit  $L$ .



\* examples of converging sequences

$$\frac{1}{n} \rightarrow 0, \quad \frac{n}{n+1} \rightarrow 1, \quad (0.9)^n \rightarrow 0$$

\* NOT all sequences converge

→ a sequence diverges to infinity ( $a_n \rightarrow +\infty$ ) if the terms become arbitrarily large / arbitrarily negative

$$\forall M > 0 \quad \exists N \in \mathbb{N} : n \geq N \Rightarrow \begin{matrix} a_n > M \\ a_n < -M \end{matrix}$$

(For any large number  $M$ , you can find an index  $N$ , such that, past that index, all terms  $a_n$  are larger than  $M$ )

example :  $\sqrt{n} \rightarrow +\infty$  ,  $2^n \rightarrow +\infty$

→ a sequence diverges if  $\lim_{n \rightarrow +\infty} a_n$  does not exist

(the sequence does not reach a finite limit or grow arbitrarily large)

example :  $(-1)^n$  diverges

\* if the sequence can be seen as a real function (i.e. if  $f(x), x \in \mathbb{R}$  is defined for  $x \geq n_0$ , and  $a_n = f(n)$  for  $n \geq n_0$ , then

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} f(x) = L \Rightarrow a_n \rightarrow L \quad (L \text{ can be } \pm \infty)$$

↳ if the function limit exists, then also the sequence limit.

↳ not true the other way round, for example  $\cos(2\pi n) \rightarrow 1$

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \cos(2\pi x) \text{ DNE}$$

↳ we used this property intuitively

$$\frac{1}{n} \rightarrow 0, \sqrt{n} \rightarrow \infty$$

↳ note: a sequence cannot have vertical asymptotes!

$a_n = \frac{1}{n} \leq 1$ , we cannot come arbitrarily close to  $n=0$ ,  
since the domain is  $\mathbb{N}$ .

\* we can apply a continuous function on a sequence:

$$\text{if } a_n \rightarrow L, \text{ then } f(a_n) \rightarrow f(L)$$

Example  $a_n = n^{\frac{1}{n}}$

→ let's consider  $f(a_n) = \ln(a_n) = \frac{1}{n} \ln(n)$ ,  $a_n = f^{-1}(f(n)) = e^{\ln(a_n)}$   
then  $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{x} \ln(x) \stackrel{H}{=} \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\frac{1}{x}}{\frac{1}{x}} = 0$

$f(a_n) \rightarrow 0$ , so  $a_n = e^{f(a_n)} \rightarrow e^0 = 1$

\* we can add, subtract, multiply converging sequences

for  $\{a_n\}$ ,  $\{b_n\}$  sequences,  $a_n \rightarrow A$ ,  $b_n \rightarrow B$

then  $(a_n \pm b_n) \rightarrow A \pm B$ ,  $(a_n \cdot b_n) \rightarrow A \cdot B$

$ka_n \rightarrow kA$  ( $k \in \mathbb{R}$ )

\* squeeze theorem for sequences: for  $\{a_n\}$ ,  $\{b_n\}$ ,  $\{c_n\}$  sequences,

$a_n \leq b_n \leq c_n \quad \forall n$

if  $a_n \rightarrow L$ ,  $c_n \rightarrow L$ , then  $b_n \rightarrow L$

example: since  $-\frac{1}{n} \leq \frac{\sin(n)}{n} \leq \frac{1}{n}$ , and  $\pm \frac{1}{n} \rightarrow 0$ ,  $\frac{\sin(n)}{n} \rightarrow 0$

## Terminology

A sequence  $\{a_n\}$  is

- Bounded above if  $\exists M \in \mathbb{R} : \forall n \in \mathbb{N} : a_n \leq M$
- Bounded below if  $\exists L \in \mathbb{R} : \forall n \in \mathbb{N} : a_n \geq L$
- Bounded if bounded above and below

- Increasing:  $\forall n : a_{n+1} > a_n$
  - Decreasing:  $\forall n : a_{n+1} < a_n$
- } monotonous

- Alternating:  $\forall n : a_{n+1} \cdot a_n < 0$

- Positive/negative:  $\forall n : a_n > 0$   
 $< 0$

- Every converging sequence is bounded.
- A bounded monotonous sequence converges



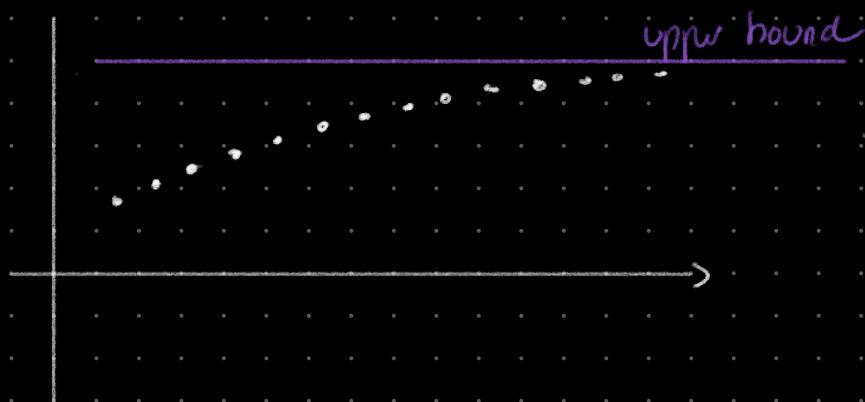
\* Intuitive explanation:

- if a sequence converges,  $a_n \rightarrow L$ , then  $L + \epsilon$  is an upper bound and  $L - \epsilon$  is a lower bound for the terms  $a_n, a_{n+1}, \dots$  (infinitely many).

→ for the first  $N-1$  terms, there is a minimum term  $a_{\min}$  and a maximum term  $a_{\max}$ .

→ As upper bound, take  $\max(L + \epsilon, a_{\max})$ .  
As lower bound, take  $\min(L - \epsilon, a_{\min})$ .

- if a monotonous sequence is bounded, then it converges.



the sequence cannot increase towards  $\infty$ .

# Infinite series

(Infinite) series = formal sum of infinitely many terms

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n = a_1 + a_2 + a_3 + \dots + a_n + \dots$$

└ summation index can change.

+ a series can be seen as a sequence of partial sums  $\{s_n\}$

$$s_1 = a_1$$

$$s_2 = a_1 + a_2$$

$$s_3 = a_1 + a_2 + a_3$$

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

the series converges to  $s$  if  $s_n \rightarrow s$

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

\* SERIES ARE AN INDETERMINATE FORM (usually)

↳ we sum up infinitely many terms (that are infinitely small)

↳ usually, we cannot calculate the sum. We can only conclude whether they converge (the sum exists.)

## Geometric series

$$a_n = ar^{n-1}, \quad r = \frac{a_{n+1}}{a_n} \quad (a \neq 0, r \neq 1)$$

→ constant ratio between terms

\* The geometric series is one of the few series where we can calculate the sum

$$\rightarrow S_1 = a, \quad S_2 = a + ar, \quad S_3 = a + ar + ar^2$$

$$S_n = a + ar + ar^2 + \dots + ar^{n-1}$$

$$- r \cdot S_n = \quad ar + ar^2 + \dots + ar^{n-1} + ar^n$$

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$$(1-r) \cdot S_n = a - ar^n$$

$$\Rightarrow S_n = a \frac{1-r^n}{1-r}$$

→ convergence if  $r^n \rightarrow 0$ ,  $-1 < r < 1$

$$S = \frac{a}{1-r}$$

or  $a = 0$

→ divergence to  $+\infty$  if  $r \geq 1$ ,  $a > 0$

$-\infty$  if  $r \geq 1$ ,  $a < 0$

→ divergence if  $a \neq 0$ ,  $r < -1$

- (n-th term test for divergence)

If  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n \rightarrow s$  converges, then  $(s_n - s_{n+1}) \rightarrow 0 \Leftrightarrow a_n \rightarrow 0$

$\downarrow \quad \quad \downarrow$   
 $s \quad \quad s$

(contrapositive): if  $a_n \not\rightarrow 0$ , then  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$  diverges

- Examples:  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{n}{n+1} \rightarrow \infty$ , as  $s_n \approx n \cdot 1$  (we add up  $n$  terms that approach 1.)

$\sum (-1)^n$  diverges, since  $s_1 = -1$ ,  $s_2 = -1 + 1 = 0$ ,  $s_3 = -1$

$s_n = 0$  for  $n$  even  
 $= -1$  for  $n$  odd

- only the tail matters: if  $\sum_{n=N}^{\infty} a_n$  converges, then  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$  converges.

- sums, differences, multiples of converging series converge

if  $\sum a_n = A$ ,  $\sum b_n = B$ , then  $\sum (a_n \pm b_n) = A \pm B$ ,  $\sum k a_n = kA$

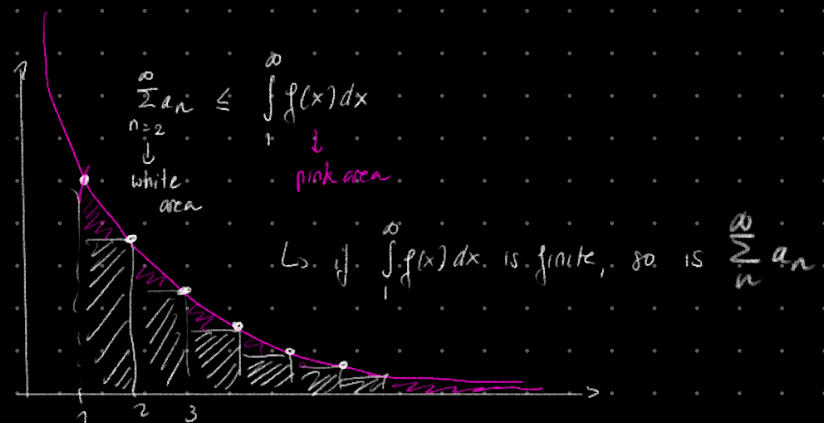
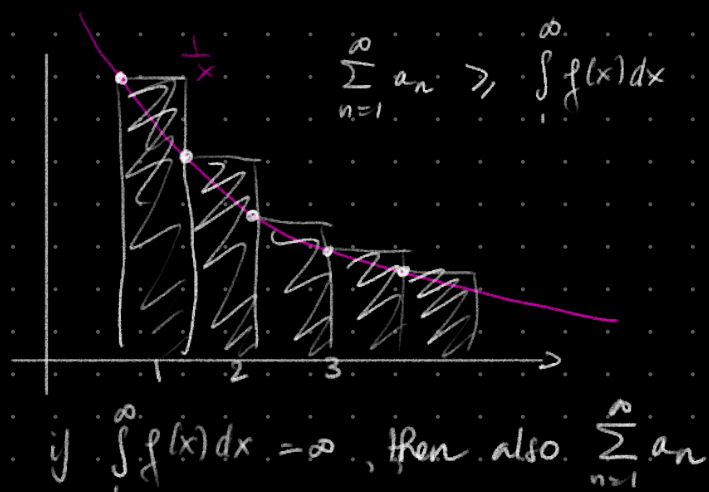
# Integral test for positive series

\* many convergence tests are for positive series only — adding up positive terms is conceptually easier than adding up positive and negative terms)

\* if sequences compare to functions, series compare to improper integrals

↳ if  $a_n = f(n)$  for  $f$  non-increasing on  $[N, \infty)$ , then  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$  and  $\int_N^{\infty} f(x) dx$  both converge or diverge to  $\infty$

PROOF: the series  $\sum a_n$  can be seen as both upper and lower Riemann sum.



**p-series** = the series  $\sum \frac{1}{n^p}$

\*  $p=1$   $a_n = \frac{1}{n}$ , this is the HARMONIC series.

→ this series DIVERGES, since  $\int_1^{\infty} \frac{dx}{x} = \lim_{R \rightarrow \infty} \int_1^R \frac{dx}{x}$   
 $= \lim_{R \rightarrow \infty} [\ln(R) - \ln(1)] = +\infty$

\*  $p \neq 1$   $a_n = \frac{1}{n^p}$

$$\int_1^{\infty} \frac{dx}{x^p} = \lim_{R \rightarrow \infty} \int_1^R \frac{dx}{x^p} = \lim_{R \rightarrow \infty} \left[ \frac{1}{1-p} R^{1-p} - \frac{1}{1-p} \right]$$

\* for  $p < 1$ , this integral diverges to  $+\infty \rightarrow \sum \frac{1}{n^p} = +\infty$

\* for  $p > 1$ , converges to  $\frac{1}{p-1} \rightarrow \sum \frac{1}{n^p}$  converges.

\* you may know and use the p-series in exercises / the exam without carrying out the integration each time.