

# W10 Notes

## Ratio test and Root test

### 01 Theory

#### Ratio Test (RaT)

**Applicability:** Any series with nonzero terms.

**Test Statement:**

Suppose that  $\left| \frac{a_{n+1}}{a_n} \right| \rightarrow L$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ .

Then:

$$L < 1 : \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n \text{ converges absolutely}$$

$$L > 1 : \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n \text{ diverges}$$

$$L = 1 \text{ or DNE} : \text{ test inconclusive}$$

#### Extra - Ratio test: explanation

To understand the ratio test, consider this series:

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{2^n}{n!} = 1 + \frac{2}{1!} + \frac{2^2}{2!} + \frac{2^3}{3!} + \cdots$$

- The term  $\frac{2^3}{3!}$  is given by multiplying the prior term by  $\frac{2}{3}$ .
- The term  $\frac{2^4}{4!}$  is given by multiplying the prior term by  $\frac{2}{4}$ .
- The term  $a_n$  is created by multiplying the prior term by  $\frac{2}{n}$ .

When  $n > 3$ , the multiplication factor giving the next term is necessarily less than  $\frac{2}{3}$ . Therefore, when  $n > 3$ , the terms shrink *faster than those of a geometric series* having  $r = \frac{2}{3}$ . Therefore this series converges.

Similarly, consider this series:

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{10^n}{n!} = 1 + \frac{10}{1!} + \frac{10^2}{2!} + \frac{10^3}{3!} + \cdots$$

Write  $R_n = \frac{a_n}{a_{n-1}}$  for the ratio from the prior term  $a_{n-1}$  to the current term  $a_n$ . For this series,  $R_n = \frac{10}{n}$ .

This ratio falls below  $\frac{10}{11}$  when  $n > 11$ , after which the terms necessarily shrink faster than those of a geometric series with  $r = \frac{10}{11}$ . Therefore this series converges.

The main point of the discussion can be stated like this:

$$R_n \rightarrow L < 1 \text{ as } n \rightarrow \infty$$

Whenever this is the case, then *eventually* the ratios are bounded below some  $r < 1$ , and the series terms are smaller than those of a converging geometric series.

### Extra - Ratio test: proof

Let us write  $R_n = \left| \frac{a_{n+1}}{a_n} \right|$  for the ratio to the next term from term  $n$ .

Suppose that  $R_n \rightarrow L$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ , and that  $L < 1$ . This means: eventually the ratio of terms is close to  $L$ ; so eventually it is less than 1.

More specifically, let us define  $r = \frac{L+1}{2}$ . This is the point halfway between  $L$  and 1. Since  $R_n \rightarrow L$ , we know that eventually  $R_n < r$ .

Any geometric series with ratio  $r$  converges. Set  $c = a_N$  for  $N$  big enough that  $R_N < r$ . Then the terms of our series satisfy  $|a_{N+n}| \leq cr^n$ , and the series starting from  $a_N$  is absolutely convergent by comparison to this geometric series.

(Note that the terms  $a_1, \dots, a_{N-1}$  do not affect convergence.)

## 02 Illustration

### Example - Ratio test

(a) Observe that  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{10^n}{n!}$  has ratio  $R_n = \frac{10}{n}$  and thus  $R_n \rightarrow 0 < 1$ . Therefore the RaT implies that this series converges.

#### Notice this technique!

Simplify the ratio:

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\frac{10^{n+1}}{(n+1)!}}{\frac{n!}{10^n}} &\gg \gg \frac{10^{n+1}}{(n+1)!} \cdot \frac{n!}{10^n} \\ &\gg \gg \frac{10 \cdot 10^n}{(n+1)n!} \cdot \frac{n!}{10^n} \gg \gg \frac{10}{n} \end{aligned}$$

We *frequently* use these rules:

$$10^{n+1} = 10^n \cdot 10, \quad (n+1)! = (n+1)n!$$

to simplify ratios having exponents and factorials.

(b)  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{n^2}{2^n}$  has ratio  $R_n = \frac{(n+1)^2}{2^{n+1}} \bigg/ \frac{n^2}{2^n}$ .

Simplify this:

$$\frac{(n+1)^2}{2^{n+1}} \bigg/ \frac{n^2}{2^n} \gg \gg \frac{(n+1)^2}{2^{n+1}} \cdot \frac{2^n}{n^2}$$

$$\gg \gg \frac{(n+1)^2 \cdot 2^n}{n^2 \cdot 2 \cdot 2^n} \gg \gg \frac{n^2 + 2n + 1}{2n^2} \rightarrow \frac{1}{2} \text{ as } n \rightarrow \infty$$

So the series *converges absolutely* by the ratio test.

(c) Observe that  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} n^2$  has ratio  $R_n = \frac{n^2 + 2n + 1}{n^2} \rightarrow 1$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ .

So the ratio test is *inconclusive*, even though this series fails the SDT and obviously diverges.

(d) Observe that  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^2}$  has ratio  $R_n = \frac{n^2}{n^2 + 2n + 1} \rightarrow 1$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ .

So the ratio test is *inconclusive*, even though the series converges as a  $p$ -series with  $p = 2 > 1$ .

(e) More generally, the ratio test is usually *inconclusive for rational functions*; it is more effective to use LCT with a  $p$ -series.

### 03 Theory

#### Root Test (Root)

**Applicability:** Any series.

**Test Statement:**

Suppose that  $\sqrt[n]{|a_n|} \rightarrow L$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ .

Then:

$$L < 1 : \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n \text{ converges absolutely}$$

$$L > 1 : \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n \text{ diverges}$$

$$L = 1 \text{ or DNE : test inconclusive}$$

#### Extra - Root test: explanation

The fact that  $\sqrt[n]{|a_n|} \rightarrow L$  and  $L < 1$  implies that eventually  $\sqrt[n]{|a_n|} < r$  for all high enough  $n$ , where  $r = \frac{L+1}{2}$  is the midpoint between  $L$  and 1.

Now, the equation  $\sqrt[n]{|a_n|} < r$  is equivalent to the equation  $|a_n| < r^n$ .

Therefore, eventually the terms  $|a_n|$  are each less than the corresponding terms of this convergent geometric series:

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

### 04 Illustration

### ≡ Root test examples

(a) Observe that  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \left(\frac{1}{n}\right)^n$  has roots of terms:

$$|a_n|^{1/n} = \left(\left(\frac{1}{n}\right)^n\right)^{1/n} = \frac{1}{n}$$

Because  $\frac{1}{n} \rightarrow 0 < 1$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ , the RootT shows that the series converges.

(b) Observe that  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (-1)^n \left(\frac{n}{2n+1}\right)^n$  has roots of terms:

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

Because  $\frac{n}{2n+1} \rightarrow \frac{1}{2}$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ , the RootT shows that the series converges.

(c) Observe that  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \left(\frac{3}{n}\right)^n$  converges because  $\sqrt[n]{|a_n|} = \frac{3}{n} \rightarrow 0$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ .

### ≡ Ratio test versus root test

Determine whether the series  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{n^2 4^n}{5^{n+2}}$  converges absolutely or conditionally or diverges.

#### Solution

Before proceeding, rewrite somewhat the general term as  $\left(\frac{n}{5}\right)^2 \cdot \left(\frac{4}{5}\right)^n$ .

Now we solve the problem first using the ratio test. By plugging in  $n+1$  we see that

$$a_{n+1} = \left(\frac{n+1}{5}\right)^2 \cdot \left(\frac{4}{5}\right)^{n+1}$$

So for the ratio  $R_n$  we have:

$$\left(\frac{n+1}{5}\right)^2 \cdot \left(\frac{4}{5}\right)^{n+1} \cdot \left(\frac{5}{n}\right)^2 \cdot \left(\frac{5}{4}\right)^n \gg \gg \frac{n^2 + 2n + 1}{n^2} \cdot \frac{4}{5} \rightarrow \frac{4}{5} < 1 \text{ as } n \rightarrow \infty$$

Therefore the series converges absolutely by the ratio test.

Now solve the problem again using the root test. We have for  $\sqrt[n]{|a_n|}$ :

$$\left(\left(\frac{n}{5}\right)^2 \cdot \left(\frac{4}{5}\right)^n\right)^{1/n} = \left(\frac{n}{5}\right)^{2/n} \cdot \frac{4}{5}$$

To compute the limit as  $n \rightarrow \infty$  we must use logarithmic limits and L'Hopital's Rule.

So, first take the log:

$$\ln\left(\left(\frac{n}{5}\right)^{2/n} \cdot \frac{4}{5}\right) = \frac{2}{n} \ln \frac{n}{5} + \ln \frac{4}{5}$$

Then for the first term apply L'Hopital's Rule:

$$\frac{\ln \frac{n}{5} \xrightarrow{d/dx} \frac{1}{n/5} \cdot \frac{1}{5}}{n/2 \xrightarrow{d/dx} 1/2} \gg \gg \frac{1/n}{1/2} \gg \gg \frac{2}{n} \rightarrow 0 \text{ as } n \rightarrow \infty$$

So the first term goes to zero, and the second (constant) term is the value of the limit. So the log limit is  $\ln \frac{4}{5}$ , and the limit (before taking logs) must be  $e^{\ln \frac{4}{5}}$  (inverting the log using  $e^x$ ) and this is  $\frac{4}{5}$ . Since  $\frac{4}{5} < 1$ , the root test also shows that the series converges absolutely.

## Series tests - strategy tips

### 05 Theory

It can help to associate certain “strategy tips” to find convergence tests based on certain patterns.

#### 🔗 Matching powers → Simple Divergence Test

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

Use the SDT because we see the highest power is the *same* (= 1) in numerator and denominator.

#### 🔗 Rational or Algebraic → Limit Comparison Test

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

Use the LCT because we have a *rational or algebraic* function (positive terms).

#### 🔗 Not rational, not factorials → Integral Test

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

Use the IT because we do *not* have a rational/algebraic function, and we do *not* see factorials.

#### 🔗 Rational, alternating → AST and LCT

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

Use the AST because it's alternating. Then use the LCT (to find absolute convergence) because it's a rational function.

#### 🔗 Factorials → Ratio Test

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

Use the RaT because we see a factorial. (In case of alternating + factorial, use RaT first.)

🔗 Recognize geometric → LCT or DCT

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

Use the LCT or DCT comparing to  $\frac{1}{3^n}$  because we see similarity to  $\frac{1}{3^n}$  (recognize geometric).

## Power series: Radius and Interval

### 06 Theory

A power series looks like this:

$$f(x) = a_0 + a_1x + a_2x^2 + a_3x^3 + \dots$$

Power series are used to *build and study functions*. They allow a uniform “modeling framework” in which many functions can be described and compared. Power series are also convenient for *computers* because they provide a way to store and evaluate *differentiable* functions.

⚠ Small  $x$  needed for power series

The most important fact about power series is that they work for *small values of  $x$* .

Many power series diverge for  $|x|$  too big; but even when they converge, for big  $|x|$  they converge more slowly, and partial sum approximations are less accurate.

The idea of a power series is a modification of the idea of a geometric series in which the common ratio  $r$  becomes a variable  $x$ , and each term has an additional *coefficient parameter*  $a_n$  controlling the relative contribution of different orders.

### 07 Theory

Every power series has a **radius of convergence** and an **interval of convergence**.

🏠 Radius of convergence

Consider a power series centered at  $x = 0$ :

$$f(x) = a_0 + a_1x + a_2x^2 + a_3x^3 + \dots$$

Define  $L$  as the limit of coefficient ratios:

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

Then reciprocal,  $R = 1/L$ , is the **radius of convergence**; it can be anything in  $[0, \infty]$  including either extreme.

The power series necessarily converges for  $|x| < R$  and diverges for  $|x| > R$ .

### ☞ Extra - Radius of convergence: explanatory proof

Treat the variable  $x$  in the power series  $f(x) = a_0 + a_1x + a_2x^2 + \dots$  as a constant.

Apply the ratio test to this series. The ratio function is:

$$R_n = \left| \frac{a_{n+1}}{a_n} \right| \cdot |x|$$

Since  $|x|$  is a constant here, we have:

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} R_n = L|x|$$

Therefore, the ratio test says that the series converges absolutely when  $|x| < 1/L$ , and diverges when  $|x| > 1/L$ .

We can build **shifted power series** for  $x$  near another value  $c$ . Just replace the variable  $x$  with a shifted variable  $u = x - c$ :

$$a_0 + a_1u + a_2u^2 + a_3u^3 + \dots$$

$$\gg \gg a_0 + a_1(x - c) + a_2(x - c)^2 + a_3(x - c)^3 + \dots$$

The radius of convergence of a shifted series is calculated in the same way, using the coefficients:

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

However, in the shifted setting, the radius of convergence concerns the *distance from  $a$* :

Such a power series converges when  $|x - a| < R$  and diverges when  $|x - a| > R$ .

The **interval of convergence** of a power series is determined by:

- the radius of convergence
- the center point
- special consideration of endpoints

### ☞ Interval of convergence

The interval of convergence  $I$  of a power series  $f(x) = a_0 + a_1x + a_2x^2 + \dots$  is the set of values of  $x$  where the series converges.

The interval of convergence  $I$  is:

- centered at  $x = c$
- extending a distance  $R$  to either side of  $c$

- including / excluding the endpoints where  $|x - c| = R$  depending on the particular case

To calculate the interval of convergence, follow these steps:

- Observe the center  $c$  of the shifted series;  $c = 0$  corresponds to no shift.
- Take the limit to compute  $R$ .
- Write down the *preliminary interval*  $(c - R, c + R)$ .
- Plug each endpoint  $c - R$  and  $c + R$  into the original series
  - check for convergence
- Add in the convergent endpoints. There are 4 total possibilities.

## 08 Illustration

### Example - Radius and interval for a few series

Series	Radius	Interval
$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} x^n$	$R = 1$	$(-1, 1)$
$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(x-2)^n}{n}$	$R = 1$	$[1, 3)$
$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} n! x^n$	$R = 0$	$\{0\}$
$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{x^n}{(2n)!}$	$R = \infty$	$(-\infty, \infty)$

### Example - Radius of convergence

Find the radius of convergence of the series:

(a)  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{x^n}{2^n}$

(b)  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{x^{2n}}{(2n)!}$

#### Solution

(a) The ratio of coefficients is  $R_n = \left| \frac{a_{n+1}}{a_n} \right| = \frac{1/2^{n+1}}{1/2^n} = 1/2$ .

Therefore  $R = 2$  and the series converges for  $|x| < 2$ .

(b) This power series has  $a_{2n+1} = 0$ , meaning it skips all odd terms.

Instead of the standard ratio function, we take the ratio of successive *even terms*. The series of even terms has coefficients  $a_n = \frac{1}{(2n)!}$ . So:



$$\left| \frac{a_{n+1}}{a_n} \right| \gg \gg \frac{\frac{1}{(2(n+1))!}}{\frac{1}{(2n)!}}$$

$$\gg \gg \frac{1}{(2n+2)(2n+1)(2n)!} \cdot \frac{(2n)!}{1} \gg \gg \frac{1}{(2n+2)(2n+1)}$$

As  $n \rightarrow \infty$ , this converges to 0, so  $L = 0$  and  $R = \infty$ .

### Example - Interval of convergence

Find the interval of convergence of the following series.

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

(b)  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-3)^n x^n}{\sqrt{n+1}}$

#### Solution

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

#### 1. Apply ratio test.

- Ratio of successive coefficients:

$$R_n = \left| \frac{1}{n+1} \cdot \frac{n}{1} \right| = \frac{n}{n+1}$$

- Limit of ratios:

$$R_n = \frac{n}{n+1} \xrightarrow{n \rightarrow \infty} 1$$

- Deduce  $L = 1$  and therefore  $R = 1$ .
- Therefore:

$$|x-3| < 1 \implies \text{converges}$$

$$|x-3| > 1 \implies \text{diverges}$$

#### 2. Preliminary interval of convergence.

- Translate to interval notation:

$$|x-3| < 1 \gg \gg x \in (3-1, 3+1)$$

$$\gg \gg x \in (2, 4)$$

#### 3. Final interval of convergence.

- Check endpoint  $x = 2$ :

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(2-3)^n}{n} \gg \gg \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^n}{n} \gg \gg \text{converges by AST}$$

- Check endpoint  $x = 4$ :

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(4-3)^n}{n} \gg \gg \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n} \gg \gg \text{diverges as } p\text{-series}$$

- Final interval of convergence:  $x \in [2, 4)$

(b)  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-3)^n x^n}{\sqrt{n+1}}$

### 1. Ratio Test.

- Ratio of successive coefficients:

$$\begin{aligned} R_n &= \left| \frac{a_{n+1}}{a_n} \right| \gg \gg \left| \frac{(-3)^{n+1}}{\sqrt{n+2}} \cdot \frac{\sqrt{n+1}}{(-3)^n} \right| \\ &\gg \gg \frac{3\sqrt{n+2}}{\sqrt{n+1}} \end{aligned}$$

- Limit of ratios:

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} R_n \gg \gg \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{3\sqrt{n+2}}{\sqrt{n+1}} \gg \gg 3$$

- Deduce  $L = 3$  and thus  $R = 1/3$ .
- Therefore:

$$|x| < \frac{1}{3} \implies \text{converges}$$

$$|x| > \frac{1}{3} \implies \text{diverges}$$

- Preliminary interval of convergence:  $x \in (-\frac{1}{3}, \frac{1}{3})$

### 2. Check endpoints.

- Check endpoint  $x = -1/3$ :

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-3 \cdot (-\frac{1}{3}))^n}{\sqrt{n+1}} \gg \gg \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{1^n}{\sqrt{n+1}} \gg \gg \text{diverges as } p\text{-series}$$

- Check endpoint  $x = +1/3$ :

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-3 \cdot (\frac{1}{3}))^n}{\sqrt{n+1}} \gg \gg \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^n}{\sqrt{n+1}} \gg \gg \text{converges by AST}$$

- Final interval of convergence:  $x \in (-1/3, 1/3]$

## Interval of convergence - further examples

Find the interval of convergence of the following series.

- (a)  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{n(x+2)^n}{3^{n+1}}$
- (b)  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(4x+1)^n}{n}$


**Solution**

(a)  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{n(x+2)^n}{3^{n+1}}$

- Ratio of coefficients:  $R_n = \frac{n+1}{3n} \rightarrow \frac{1}{3}$ .
- So the  $R = 3$ , center is  $x = -2$ , and the preliminary interval is  $(-2-3, -2+3) = (-5, 1)$ .
- Check endpoints:  $\sum \frac{n(-3)^n}{3^{n+1}}$  diverges and  $\sum \frac{n(3)^n}{3^{n+1}}$  also diverges. Final interval is  $(-5, 1)$ .

(b)  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(4x+1)^n}{n}$

- Ratio of coefficients:  $R_n = \frac{n+1}{n} \rightarrow 1$ .
- So  $R = 1$ , and the series converges when  $|4x+1| < 1$ .

-  Extract preliminary interval.

- Divide by 4:

$$|4x+1| < 1 \quad \xrightarrow{\div 4} \quad |x+1/4| < 1/4 \quad \gg \gg \quad x \in (0, 1/2)$$

- Check endpoints:  $\sum \frac{(4 \cdot \frac{-1}{2} + 1)^n}{n}$  converges but  $\sum \frac{1}{n}$  diverges.
- Final interval of convergence:  $[-1/2, 0)$