BASIC SERIES AND CONVERGENCE TESTS

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

Name	Conditions	Converges if	Diverges if
Test For Divergence (TFD)	$\lim a_n \neq 0$		conditions satisfied
Standard Comparison Test (SCT)	another series $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} b_n$ $a_n, b_n \ge 0$ for all n	$a_n \le b_n \text{ for all } n$ $\sum b_n \text{ conv}$	$b_n \le a_n \text{ for all } n$ $\sum b_n \text{ div}$
Limit Comparison Test (LCT)	another series $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} b_n$ $a_n, b_n \ge 0$ for all n $\lim_{n\to\infty} a_n/b_n = L$	$L < \infty$ $\sum b_n \text{ conv}$	$0 < L$ $\sum b_n \text{ div}$
Integral Test (IT)	$a_n = f(n)$ f continuous f positive f decreasing	$\int_{1}^{\infty} f(x) dx \text{conv}$	$\int_{1}^{\infty} f(x) dx \operatorname{div}$
Alternating Series Test (AST)	$a_n = (-1)^{n+1}b_n$ b_n positive $\lim_{n\to\infty} b_n = 0$ b_n decreasing	conditions satisfied	
Ratio Test (RaT)	$\lim_{n\to\infty} a_{n+1}/a_n = L$	L < 1 absolutely conv	L > 1
Root Test (RoT)	$\lim_{n\to\infty} \sqrt[n]{ a_n } = L$	L < 1 absolutely conv	L > 1

Remarks:

- 1. Remember absolute value signs in ratio and root tests!

 They prove not just convergence but absolute convergence.
- 2. Check if a function is increasing/decreasing using derivatives, or using sum, product, composition, taking powers of increasing/decreasing functions.
- 3. If the test doesn't work for the whole series, try removing the first few terms and test for $\sum_{n=N}^{\infty} a_n$ for some large enough N.

BASIC SERIES

Name	Description	Converges if	Diverges if
Geometric series	$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} ar^{n-1}$	$-1 < r < 1, \text{sum is } \frac{a}{1-r}$	otherwise
p-series	$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} 1/n^p$	p > 1	otherwise

ESTIMATES AND BOUNDS

Given a convergent series $\sum_{i=1}^{\infty} a_i$ with $sum\ s$, define $partial\ sum\ s_n = \sum_{i=1}^n a_i$ and $remainder\ R_n = s - s_n$. Given a Taylor series $T(x) = \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} c_i(x-a)^i$ for f(x) around x=a, define $Taylor\ polynomial\ T_n(x) = \sum_{i=0}^n c_i(x-a)^i$ and $remainder\ R_n(x) = T(x) - T_n(x)$.

Name	Estimate for R_n	Bound for s
Remainder Estimate for Integral Test	IF $\sum a_n$ satisfies conditions for the Integral Test, THEN $\int_{n+1}^{\infty} f(x) \ dx \le R_n \le \int_n^{\infty} f(x) \ dx$	IF $\sum a_n$ satisfies conditions for the Integral Test, THEN $s_n + \int_{n+1}^{\infty} f(x) \ dx \le s \le s_n + \int_{n}^{\infty} f(x) \ dx$
Remainder Estimate for Std Comp Test	IF $\sum b_n$ convergent series $0 \le a_n \le b_n$ for all n , THEN $R_n \le \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} b_i - \sum_{i=0}^{n} b_i$	
Remainder Estimate for Alternating Series	IF $\sum a_n$ satisfies conditions for the Alt Series Test, THEN $ R_n \leq b_n$	IF $\sum a_n$ satisfies conditions for the Alt Series Test, THEN $s_{2n} \leq s \leq s_{2n+1}$
Taylor's Inequality	Even if we do not know whether $f(x)$ equals its Taylor series $T(x)$, For all $ x - a \le R$, $ R_n(x) \le \frac{M}{(n+1)!} x - a ^{n+1}$ $M = \max_{ x-a \le R} f^{(n+1)}(x) $	

Taylor Series of f(x) around x = a

$$T(x) = \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} \frac{f^{(i)}(a)}{i!} (x-a)^i = f(a) + f'(a)(x-a) + \frac{f''(a)}{2} (x-a)^2 + \frac{f'''(a)}{6} (x-a)^3 + \cdots$$

n-th degree Taylor Polynomial

$$T_n(x) = \sum_{i=0}^n \frac{f^{(i)}(a)}{i!} (x-a)^i = f(a) + f'(a)(x-a) + \frac{f''(a)}{2} (x-a)^2 + \dots + \frac{f^{(n)}(a)}{n!} (x-a)^n$$

Useful expansions

$$\frac{1}{1-x} = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} x^n \qquad \text{for } -1 < x < 1$$

$$e^x = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} x^n / n! \qquad \text{for all } x$$

$$\ln(1-x) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} -\frac{x^n}{n} \qquad \text{for } -1 \le x < 1$$

$$\sin x = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (-1)^n \frac{x^{2n+1}}{(2n+1)!} \qquad \text{for all } x$$

$$\cos x = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (-1)^n \frac{x^{2n}}{(2n)!} \qquad \text{for all } x$$

$$\tan^{-1} x = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (-1)^n \frac{x^{2n+1}}{2n+1} \qquad \text{for } -1 \le x \le 1$$

$$(1+x)^k = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \binom{k}{n} x^n, \qquad \text{for } |x| < 1 \text{ (endpts?)}$$

$$\binom{k}{n} = \frac{k(k-1)\cdots(k-n+1)}{n!} \qquad \text{for all real numbers } k$$

USEFUL FACTS

- Let p(x), q(x) be polynomials, $L = \lim_{x \to \infty} p(x)/q(x)$. IF $\deg p(x) > \deg q(x)$ THEN $L = \infty$. IF $\deg p(x) < \deg q(x)$ THEN L = 0. IF $\deg p(x) = \deg q(x)$ THEN L = ratio of leading coefs.
- $\lim_{n\to\infty} (1+\frac{1}{n})^n = e$ (good for Root Tests).

Generally, write limits of this sort as

$$\lim_{n\to\infty} p(n)^{q(n)} = \lim_{n\to\infty} e^{q(n)\ln p(n)} = e^{\lim q(n)\ln p(n)}$$

and apply L'Hospital's Rule to $\frac{\ln p(n)}{1/q(n)}$

- $\lim_{n\to\infty} \frac{x^n}{n!} = 0$ for all real numbers x.
- $e = 1 + 1/1! + 1/2! + 1/3! + \cdots$

11.1 SEQUENCES

- * sequence, limit, convergent, divergent, $\lim a_n = \infty$ increasing, decreasing, monotone. bounded above, bounded below, bounded.
- Sum, difference, product, quotient, scaling, taking powers of convergent sequences
- Sequence comes from function IF $\lim f(x) = L$, $a_n = f(n)$ THEN $\lim a_n = L$
- Applying a continuous function IF $\lim a_n = L$, f continuous at LTHEN $\lim f(a_n) = f(L)$
- $\lim |a_n| = 0 \Leftrightarrow \lim a_n = 0$

- Squeeze theorem
- Monotone convergent theorem

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$$\lim r^n = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } |r| < 1\\ 1 & \text{if } r = 1\\ \text{div else} \end{cases}$$

- Proof by induction: Base case, induction step.
- When $a_n = f(n)$, it is possible a_n has a limit even though $f(x), x \to \infty$ does not, e.g. $f(n) = \sin(\pi n)$.

11.2 SERIES

- ★ series, partial sum, sum of a series. convergent, divergent series.
- IF $\sum a_n$ conv THEN $\lim |a_n| = 0$. IF $\lim |a_n|$ is non-zero or non-existent THEN $\sum a_n$ div.
- IF $\sum a_n$ conv THEN $\sum c a_n$ conv.

$$conv \pm conv = conv$$

- $\operatorname{conv} \pm \operatorname{div} = \operatorname{div}$ $\operatorname{div} \pm \operatorname{div} = \operatorname{unknown}$
- Geometric series (see formula sheet).

11.3 The Integral Test and Estimates of Sums

- p-series (see formula sheet).
- Integral Test (see formula sheet).
- Remainder estimate (see formula sheet).
- Bounds for the sum (see formula sheet).

11.4 The Comparison Tests

- Standard Comparison Test (see formula sheet).
- Limit Comparison Test (see formula sheet).

 \circ Try to use the LCT if possible. If not, it usually means the series contain functions that oscillate, e.g. $e^{\sin n}$. Remove such functions using an SCT and then apply an LCT to finish the problem.

11.5 Alternating Series

- \star alternating series
- Alternating Series Test (see formula sheet).
- Alternating Series Estimate Theorem (for formula sheet).

11.6 Absolute Convergence and the Ratio and Root Tests

- \star absolute convergence, conditional convergence.
- IF a series is absolutely convergence, THEN it is convergent.
- Ratio Test (see formula sheet).
- Root Test (see formula sheet).
- Rearrangements

IF abs conv THEN any rearrangement has the same sum. IF cond conv THEN rearrangements can achieve any sum.

11.7 Strategy for Testing Series (see formula sheet).

- ALWAYS start by doing the Test For Divergence, in case the series diverges for very simple reasons.
- $\circ\,$ Sometimes, you need to apply several tests, e.g.

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{e^{\sin n}}{n^3 - 2n^2 + 3n - 4}$$
 (use SCT, followed by LCT)

11.8 Power Series

- \star power series, center, coefficients.
- * Radius of convergence R: the power series $\sum c_n(x-a)^n$ converges for |x-a| < R and diverges for |x-a| > R.

- * Interval of convergence: set of values of x for which the power series converges. Four possibilities: (a R, a + R), (a R, a + R), [a R, a + R), [a R, a + R].
- When checking endpoints of interval of convergence, the AST is frequently used for one of them.
- Given power series $\sum c_n(x-a)^n$, there are 3 possibilities:
 - 1. series converges only when x = a, i.e. R = 0.
 - 2. series has radius of convergence $0 < R < \infty$.
 - 3. series converges for all x, i.e. $R = \infty$.
- The prev theorem is useful for problems where you can show easily that a power series converges for all |x| < d (so $R \ge d$) but you still need to show the radius of convergence R = d. Do that by finding x with |x| = R where the power series diverges and apply the theorem to get $R \le d$.

11.9 Representation of Functions as Power Series

- Expansions of 1/(1-x), $1/(1-x)^2$, $\ln(1-x)$, $\tan^{-1} x$.
- Manipulating other functions to look like one of the above.
- Term-by-term Differentiation and Integration

Given power series $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} c_n(x-a)^n$,

$$\frac{d}{dx} \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} c_n (x-a)^n = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} n c_n (x-a)^{n-1}$$
$$\int \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} c_n (x-a)^n = C + \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} c_n (x-a)^{n+1} / n + 1$$

The radius of convergence remains the same.

- \circ Remember to drop the constant term when differentiating. Remember to add a +C or find C when integrating.
- When adding two series with radii of convergence R_1 , R_2 . the radius of the resulting series need *not* be min (R_1, R_2) .

11.10 Taylor and Maclaurin Series

* Given f(x), we can associate Taylor Series around x = a: T(x)n-degree Taylor polynomial: $T_n(x)$ Remainder: $R_n(x) = f(x) - T_n(x)$

- * We say f(x) = T(x) at x = b if $T_n(b) \to f(b)$ as $n \to \infty$.
- IF f(x) = some power series for |x a| < RTHEN f(x) = T(x) for |x - a| < R.
- IF $\lim_{n\to\infty} |R_n(x)| = 0$ for |x-a| < RTHEN f(x) = T(x) for |x-a| < R.
- Taylor's Inequality (see formula sheet).
- \circ e.g. function not equal to its Taylor series: $f(x) = e^{-1/x^2}$
- $\circ\,$ Multiplication and division of power series.
- o Using series to do limits. $\lim_{x \to b} \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} c_n (x-a)^n = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} c_n (b-a)^n \quad \text{for } |b-a| < R.$ Reason: Power series are continuous functions in |x-a| < R.

11.11 Applications of Taylor Polynomials

- Say we want to approximate f(b) for some b. Expand f(x) around a center x = a where a is close to b and the values of f(a), f'(a), f''(a), etc. are known.
- Say we are approximating f(x) with $T_n(x)$:

 If we want to know the error for a fixed value of x,
 use Remainder Estimate for Alt Series or Integral Test.

 If we want to know the error as x ranges over |x a| < R,
 use Taylor's Inequality.
- Application to physics

 The problem will sometimes tell you a bunch of stuff which you translate as f(0) = a, f'(0) = b, f''(0) = c, etc. From this, construct $T(x) = a + bx + (c/2)x^2 + \dots$

9.1 Modeling with Differential Equations

- * differential equation, order. solution, general solution.
- \star equilibrium solution: a constant solution y = C. find by setting y' = 0 in differential eqn and solving it.
- \star initial condition, initial value problem.

9.2 Direction Fields and Euler's Method

- \star direction field, solution curve.
- * autonomous differential equation y' = f(y). if y = g(x) is a solution, so is y = g(x + C).
- Graphical method:
 - 1. draw direction field.
 - 2. draw solution curve.
- Numerical method: Euler's method, step size h. Solving $y' = F(x, y), y(x_0) = y_0$.
 - 1. Set $x_n = x_0 + nh$ for $n \ge 1$.
 - 2. Recursively, $y_{n+1} = y_n + hF(x_n, y_n)$ for $n \ge 0$.

9.3 Separable Equations

- * separable equations $\frac{dy}{dx} = g(x)f(y)$ solution: $\int \frac{1}{f(y)} dy = \int g(x) dx + C$
- \circ Dividing by f(y) above, we may lose the solution f(y) = 0.
- If |y| = f(x), usually the general solution is $y = \pm f(x)$. (need to check by substituting back into differential eqn.)
- If $y = \pm e^C f(x)$ and y = 0 are solutions, rewrite as y = Af(x) where A is any real number.
- \star orthogonal trajectories: Given family of curves y = f(k, x),
 - 1. Differentiate the formula.
 - 2. Write k in terms of y and x.
 - 3. If family of curves has diff eqn y' = F(x, y), then orth trajectories has diff eqn y' = -1/F(x, y).
- * mixing problems:

$$\frac{dy}{dt} = (\text{rate in}) - (\text{rate out}).$$