

MTT 265 Lecture Notes, Week 3 Monday.

Remarks on the Integral Test; the Alternating Series Test; and Absolute Convergence.

Theorem 1. The Integral Test for Series (IT), simplified.

Let $f(x)$ be a function that is positive, continuous, and decreasing on $[N, \infty)$ for some $N \in \mathbb{Z}_{\geq 0}$.

Then, $\sum_{n=N}^{\infty} f(n)$ converges if and only if $L = \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \int f(x) dx$ converges.

* The change happens here. Instead of checking $\lim_{b \rightarrow \infty} \int_N^b f(x) dx$, we simply find the limit of the indefinite integral of $f(x)$. This is allowed since $f(N)$ will always be defined for $f(x)$ above.

Counterexample 1.1. The function $f(x)$ needs to be positive over $[N, \infty)$.

$$\text{Let } f(x) = \sin(\pi x). \text{ Let } L = \int_0^{\infty} \sin(\pi x) dx = \lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} \left[-\frac{1}{\pi} \cos(\pi x) \right]_0^t = -\frac{1}{\pi} \lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} [\cos(t) - 1];$$

Observe that L diverges.

However, there is no $N \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that $f(x)$ is positive on $[N, \infty)$.

$$\text{Since for any } k \in \mathbb{Z}, f(-\frac{1}{2} + 2k) = \sin(\pi(-\frac{1}{2} + 2k)) = \sin(-\frac{\pi}{2} + 2\pi k) = \sin(-\frac{\pi}{2}) = -1;$$

$\therefore$ The Integral Test cannot be applied.

$$\text{Despite } L \text{ diverging, } \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \sin(\pi n) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (0) = 0 \text{ converges.}$$

Counterexample 1.2. The function $f(x)$ needs to be decreasing over $[N, \infty)$.

Let $f(x) = \left(\sin^2(\pi x) + \frac{1}{x^2} \right)$; Then, $f(x)$ is positive and continuous for all $x \in \mathbb{R}$ with $x \neq 0$.

$$L = \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \int \sin^2(\pi x) + \frac{1}{x^2} dx = \dots = \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \left[\frac{1}{2} \left(x - \frac{1}{2\pi} \sin(2\pi x) \right) - \frac{1}{x} \right] = \text{DNE.}$$

$$\text{However, } \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} f(n) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \left(\sin^2(\pi n) + \frac{1}{n^2} \right) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \left(0^2 + \frac{1}{n^2} \right) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^2} \text{ converges as a } p\text{-series with } p=2.$$

Observe that $f(x)$ is not decreasing on $[N, \infty)$ for any $N \in \mathbb{Z}$.

$$f'(x) = 2\pi \sin(\pi x) \cos(\pi x) + (-2)x^{-3};$$

$$\text{For any } k \in \mathbb{Z}, f'(\frac{3}{4} + 2k) = 2\pi \sin(\frac{3\pi}{4} + 2\pi k) \cos(\frac{3\pi}{4} + 2\pi k) = 2\pi \sin(\frac{3\pi}{4}) \cos(\frac{3\pi}{4}) = -\pi;$$

$\therefore$ The Integral Test cannot be applied.

Counterexample 1.3. The function $f(x)$ needs to be continuous over $[N, \infty)$.

Let $f(x) = (x - \frac{3}{2})^{-2}$; Observe that $f(x)$ has a vertical asymptote at $x = \frac{3}{2}$:

$$L_1 = \int_{1.5}^{1.5} f(x) dx = \lim_{b \rightarrow 1.5} \int_{1.5}^b (x - \frac{3}{2})^{-2} dx = \lim_{b \rightarrow 1.5} \left[-(x - \frac{3}{2})^{-1} \right]_{1.5}^b = \infty; L = \int_{1.5}^{\infty} f(x) dx = \infty.$$

$$\text{However, } \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{(n - \frac{3}{2})^2} \text{ converges by the Limit Comparison Test with } \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^2};$$

But: $f(x) = (x - \frac{3}{2})^{-2}$ is continuous, positive, and decreasing on $[2, \infty)$.

$$\therefore \text{The Integral Test can be used on } \sum_{n=2}^{\infty} f(n). \text{ Then, } L = \int_2^{\infty} f(x) dx = \lim_{b \rightarrow \infty} \left[-(x - \frac{3}{2})^{-1} + 2 \right] = 2.$$

Definition 2. Alternating Series.

A series $\sum_{n=n_0}^{\infty} a_n$ is an alternating series if for some sequence (b_n) , $b_n \geq 0$ and $a_n = (-1)^{n-1} b_n$ for all $n \geq n_0$.

Remark. By reindexing, $\sum (-1)^n b_n$ is also an alternating series.

Theorem 3. The Alternating Series Test (AST).

Let $\sum_{n=n_0}^{\infty} (-1)^{n-1} b_n$ be an alternating series.

If all 3 conditions are satisfied:

- ① $b_n > 0$ for all $n \geq n_0$, i.e. all b_n are positive;
- ② $b_n \geq b_{n+1}$ for all $n \geq n_0$, i.e. (b_n) is decreasing; and
- ③ $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} b_n = 0$;

then $\sum_{n=n_0}^{\infty} (-1)^{n-1} b_n$ converges.

Example 3.1. $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (-1)^{n-1} \frac{1}{n}$ is called the alternating harmonic series

let $b_n = \frac{1}{n}$; Then, ① b_n is positive for all $n \geq 1$;

② for $n \geq 1$: $0 < n < n+1$ and $\frac{1}{n} > \frac{1}{n+1} \therefore b_n > b_{n+1}$ for all $n \geq 1$.

③ $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (\frac{1}{n}) = 0$;

By the Alternating Series Test, the alternating harmonic series converges.

Example 3.2. let $b_n = ne^{-n}$; Show that $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (-1)^n b_n$ converges.

① for $n \geq 1$, b_n is positive.

② let $f(x) = xe^{-x}$; then, $f'(x) = xe^{-x}(-1) + e^{-x} = e^{-x}(-x+1)$; for $x \geq 2$, $f'(x)$ is negative.
 $\therefore f(x)$ is decreasing on $[2, \infty)$; $\therefore (b_n) = (f(n))$ is a decreasing sequence.

③ $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} f(x) = \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{x}{e^x} \stackrel{L'H}{=} \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{e^x} = 0$; Then, $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} b_n = 0$.

By the Alternating Series Test, $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (-1)^n ne^{-n}$ converges.

Example 3.3. let $b_n = \frac{n!}{n^n}$ and consider $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (-1)^n \frac{n!}{n^n}$;

① for $n \geq 1$: b_n is positive.

② We want to show that $b_{n+1} \leq b_n$ for all $n \geq 1$.

$$\text{for } n \geq 1: b_{n+1} = \frac{(n+1)!}{(n+1)^{n+1}} = \frac{(n+1)n!}{(n+1)(n+1)^n} = \frac{n!}{(n+1)^n} \leq \frac{n!}{n^n} = b_n;$$

③ We can show $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} b_n = 0$ using the Squeeze Theorem.

$$\text{for } n \geq 1: 0 \leq b_n = \frac{n!}{n^n} = \frac{n(n-1)!}{n \cdot n^{n-1}} = \frac{(n-1)(n-2)!}{n \cdot n^{n-2}} \leq (1) \frac{(n-2)(n-3)!}{n \cdot n^{n-3}} \leq \dots \leq (1) \frac{1}{n} = \frac{1}{n};$$

$$\text{Therefore, } \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (0) = 0 \leq \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} b_n \leq \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{n} = 0; \therefore \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} b_n = 0;$$

By the Alternating Series Test, $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{n!}{n^n}$ converges.

Example 3.4. let $b_n = \frac{e^n}{n!}$ and consider $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (-1)^{n-1} b_n = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (-1)^{n-1} \frac{e^n}{n!}$;

① For $n \geq 1$: b_n is positive.

② WTS that $b_{n+1} \leq b_n$ for all $n \geq 3$. We'll look at a tail series instead.

$$b_{n+1} = \frac{e^{n+1}}{(n+1)!} = \frac{(e)(e^n)}{(n+1)n!} \leq (1) \frac{e^n}{n!} = b_n \text{ since } e \approx 2.718;$$

③ WTS $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} b_n = 0$ using the Squeeze Theorem.

Recall that $e < 3$. Then, for $n \geq 5$: $e^n \leq 3^n = 9(3^{n-2}) \leq 9(2)(3)^{n-2} \leq 9(n-2)!$;

$$\text{Then, } 0 < \frac{e^n}{n!} \leq \frac{9(n-2)!}{n!} = \frac{9(n-2)!}{(n)(n-1)(n-2)!} = \frac{9}{n(n-1)} \text{ for } n \geq 5;$$

$$\text{By the Squeeze Theorem: } \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} 0 = 0 < \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{e^n}{n!} = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} b_n < \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{9}{n(n-1)} = 0; \therefore \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} b_n = 0;$$

By the Alternating Series Test, $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (-1)^n \frac{e^n}{n!}$ converges.

Proposition 4. Let $\sum a_n$ be some series. If $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} |a_n| \neq 0$, then $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n \neq 0$.

* This is useful when showing a series diverges using the Divergence Test.

Note that this does NOT include the negation of the Alternating Series Test.

Example 4.1. Show that $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (-1)^{n+1} \cos(\frac{1}{n})$ diverges.

$$\text{Since } \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \cos(\frac{1}{n}) = \cos(0) = 1 \neq 0, \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (-1)^{n+1} \cos(\frac{1}{n}) \neq 0;$$

By the Divergence Test, $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (-1)^{n+1} \cos(\frac{1}{n})$ diverges.

Example 4.2. Find all $p \in \mathbb{R}$ such that $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (-1)^{n+1} \frac{1}{n^p}$ converges.

Consider 2 cases: Case 1: Assume $p \leq 0$. Then, $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (\frac{1}{n^p}) \neq 0$ and $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (-1)^{n+1} \frac{1}{n^p} \neq 0$.

$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (-1)^{n+1} \frac{1}{n^p}$ diverges by the Divergence Test.

Case 2: Assume $p > 0$. Let $b_n = n^{-p}$;

① b_n is positive for all $n \geq 1$;

② let $f(x) = x^{-p}$; Then, $f'(x) = (-p)x^{-p-1}$ and $f'(x)$ is negative on $(1, \infty)$.
Since $f(x)$ is decreasing on $(1, \infty)$, (b_n) must also be decreasing;

③ $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (\frac{1}{n^p}) = 0$ since $p > 0$.

By the Alternating Series Test, $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (-1)^{n+1} \frac{1}{n^p}$ converges.

Example 4.2.

Let $b_n = \frac{n^n}{n!}$ and consider $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (-1)^{n+1} b_n = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (-1)^{n+1} \frac{n^n}{n!}$;

Similar to Example 3.3: $b_{n+1} = \frac{(n+1)^{n+1}}{(n+1)!} = \frac{(n+1)(n+1)^n}{(n+1)n!} = \frac{(n+1)^n}{n!} \geq \frac{n^n}{n!} = b_n > 0$.

Since (b_n) is increasing and positive, $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} b_n \neq 0$ and $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (-1)^{n+1} b_n \neq 0$;

By the Divergence Test, $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{n^n}{n!}$ diverges.

Theorem 5. Alternating Series Estimation Theorem (ASET).

Let $S = \sum_{n=n_0}^{\infty} (-1)^{n+1} b_n$ be a series identified to be convergent by the Alternating Series Test.

Let $S_N = \sum_{n=n_0}^N (-1)^{n+1} b_n$ be the N th partial sum of S . Then, $|R_N| = |S - S_N| \leq b_{N+1}$;

Remark. By reindexing, this also applies to $\sum_{n=n_0}^{\infty} (-1)^n b_n$;

Example 5.1.

Find the sum of the series $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^n}{n!}$ correct to 3 decimal places.

① Let $b_n = \frac{1}{n!}$. Then, ① b_n is positive for all $n \geq 0$;

② For all $n \geq 0$: $0 < n! < (n+1)!$; then, $b_n = \frac{1}{n!} > \frac{1}{(n+1)!} = b_{n+1}$;

③ Since $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (n!) = \infty$, $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left(\frac{1}{n!}\right) = 0$;

By the Alternating Series Test, $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (-1)^n \frac{1}{n!}$ converges.

② Using ASET, it suffices to find N such that $b_{N+1} < \frac{1}{2}(10^{-3})$;

Equivalently, find N such that $(N+1)! > 2(10^3) = 2000$;

By brute force: for $N=5$: $(N+1)! = 6! = 720$;

for $N=6$: $(N+1)! = 7! = 5040 > 2000$;

We need at least 6 terms.

③ Using a calculator: $\sum_{n=1}^6 \frac{(-1)^n}{n!} = -\frac{91}{144} \approx -0.632$;

Example 5.2.

Determine a bound on the error of $S_4 = \sum_{n=1}^4 \frac{(-1)^n}{n^2} \approx -0.7986$ relative to $S = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^n}{n^2}$;

Let $b_n = \frac{1}{n^2}$; It can be shown that b_n is positive and decreasing for all $n \geq 1$ and $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{n^2} = 0$;

Then, ASET applies and $|R_4| = |S - S_4| \leq b_{4+1} = \frac{1}{5^2} = 0.04$;

That is, the true value of S is in $[S_4 - 0.04, S_4 + 0.04] \approx [-0.8386, -0.7586]$;

Definition 6. A series $\sum a_n$ is absolutely convergent if $\sum |a_n|$ converges.
A series $\sum a_n$ is conditionally convergent if $\sum a_n$ converges but $\sum |a_n|$ diverges.

Proposition 7. If a series $\sum a_n$ is absolutely convergent, then $\sum a_n$ is convergent.
Furthermore, a series $\sum a_n$ can be only one of the three: (1) absolutely convergent;
(2) conditionally convergent; or
(3) divergent;

Example 7.1. The alternating harmonic series $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (-1)^{n-1} \frac{1}{n}$ is conditionally convergent.

Example 7.2. From Example 4.2: $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (-1)^{n-1} \frac{1}{n^p}$ is $\begin{cases} \text{divergent} & \text{if } p \leq 0 \\ \text{conditionally convergent} & \text{if } 0 < p \leq 1 \\ \text{absolutely convergent} & \text{if } p > 1 \end{cases}$;

Theorem 8. Let $\sum a_n$ be some series and let $\sum b_n$ be some rearrangement or regrouping of $\sum a_n$.
If $\sum a_n$ is absolutely convergent, then $\sum b_n$ is absolutely convergent with $\sum b_n = \sum a_n$;

Example 8.1. Determine if $S = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n(n+3)}$ converges and if it does, find its sum.

① $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n(n+3)}$ converges by the Limit Comparison Test with $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^2}$;

② Since $\left| \frac{1}{n(n+3)} \right| = \frac{1}{n(n+3)}$ for $n \geq 1$, $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n(n+3)}$ is absolutely convergent.

Therefore, we can regroup the terms and the sum will not change.

③ Let $a_n = \frac{1}{n(n+3)}$;

By partial fraction decomposition: $\frac{1}{n(n+3)} = \frac{A}{n} + \frac{B}{n+3} = \frac{1}{3} \left(\frac{1}{n} \right) - \frac{1}{3} \left(\frac{1}{n+3} \right)$;

$1 = A(n+3) + B(n)$; if $n = -3$: $B = -\frac{1}{3}$; if $n = 0$: $A = \frac{1}{3}$;

Let $f(n) = \frac{1}{3} \left(\frac{1}{n} \right)$; Then, $a_n = f(n) - f(n+3)$;

Observe that by grouping the $(k+1)^{\text{th}}$ to the $(k+6)^{\text{th}}$ terms, we get:

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{k=k+1}^{k+6} a_n &= \cancel{f(k+1)} - \cancel{f(k+4)} + \cancel{f(k+2)} - \cancel{f(k+5)} + \cancel{f(k+3)} - \cancel{f(k+6)} \\ &+ \cancel{f(k+4)} - \cancel{f(k+7)} + \cancel{f(k+5)} - \cancel{f(k+8)} + \cancel{f(k+6)} - \cancel{f(k+9)} \\ &= (f(k+1) + f(k+2) + f(k+3)) - (f(k+7) + f(k+8) + f(k+9)); \end{aligned}$$

Let $g(n) = f(n+1) + f(n+2) + f(n+3)$ and let $b_n = a_{n+1} + \dots + a_{n+6} = g(n) - g(n+1)$;

$$\text{Then, } \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} b_n = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} g(n) - g(n+1) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} g(0) - g(n+1) = g(0) + 0 = f(1) + f(2) + f(3)$$

↑ This is a telescoping sum
with partial sum $P_n = g(0) - g(n+1)$;

$$= \frac{1}{3} \left(1 + \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{3} \right) = \boxed{\frac{11}{18}}$$