

# MATH 510, Notes 7

## Modern Analysis

James Madison University

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$a_1, a_2, \cdots$  - *summands*

Saying that the series converges to  $T$ ,

$$\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} a_k = T$$

means that the sequence of partial sums converges to  $T$ . (Given  $\epsilon > 0$  there exists  $N$  so that ... etc.)

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- ▶  $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^{k+1}}{k}$  converges.



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If the summands are continuous functions, sometimes the limit is continuous and sometimes not.

Sometimes mixing up the terms of a series changes the target/limit, and sometimes not.

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But of course that only tells us when a series *might* converge.

Or, more often, that might tell us when a series does *not* converge.

Preview: We do not want to bypass the most straightforward sort of test about convergent or divergent series. The author does not mention until section 4.2, but let's put it out there now:

**Theorem** Given two infinite series  $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} a_k$  and  $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} b_k$ , suppose that for all values of  $k$  we have

$$0 \leq a_k \leq b_k.$$

If the series  $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} b_k$  converges, then  $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} a_k$  does also. If the series  $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} a_k$  diverges, then  $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} b_k$  does also.

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Can you see why theorem is still true if instead we know  $0 \leq a_k \leq C \cdot b_k$  for some positive constant  $C$ ? What if we only know that  $0 \leq a_k \leq b_k$  "eventually?" That is, after some finite number of terms at the beginning of the series.



**Definition** An infinite sequence  $\{S_1, S_2, \dots\}$  is *Cauchy* if given  $\epsilon > 0$  we can find a number  $N$  so that for any numbers  $n$  and  $m$  with  $n > m \geq N$  we have

$$|S_n - S_m| < \epsilon$$



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A series is *Cauchy* when its sequence of partial sums is Cauchy.

**Theorem** A sequence or series converges iff it is Cauchy.

To prove this, we need to think about the following ideas:

Given a *bounded* sequence  $\{S_n\}$  let:

$$U_1 = l.u.b\{S_1, S_2, S_3, \dots\}$$

$$U_2 = l.u.b\{S_2, S_3, S_4, \dots\}$$

$$U_3 = l.u.b\{S_3, S_4, S_5, \dots\}, \text{ etc.}$$

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In a similar way define a sequence  $\{L_n\}$  using g.l.b. instead of l.u.b.

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As a bounded decreasing sequence,  $\{U_n\}$  has a limit (it decreases to its greatest lower bound). This number is called the *limit superior* for the sequence  $\{S_n\}$  and designated  $\limsup_n S_n$ .



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Similarly there is a limit inferior  $\liminf_n S_n$  defined using  $\{L_n\}$

(Note: the idea of *limsup* and *liminf* may be extended to unbounded sequences if we allow *limsup* and *liminf* to take on the values  $+\infty$  or  $-\infty$ .)

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One problem is that we do not know up front what should be the value for the target/limit. But we can get this value either using the nested interval principle applied to the intervals  $[L_n, U_n]$ , or more directly by showing that for a Cauchy sequence the limsup is the same as the liminf, and that this number is also the limit.

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If a series  $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} a_k$  converges to  $T$ , can we tell what  $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} |a_k|$  converges to?

**Theorem** If a series converges absolutely then the series converges in the usual sense. That is, if

$$\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} |a_k|$$

converges, then

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$$a_1 - a_2 + a_3 - a_4 + a_5 - \cdots$$

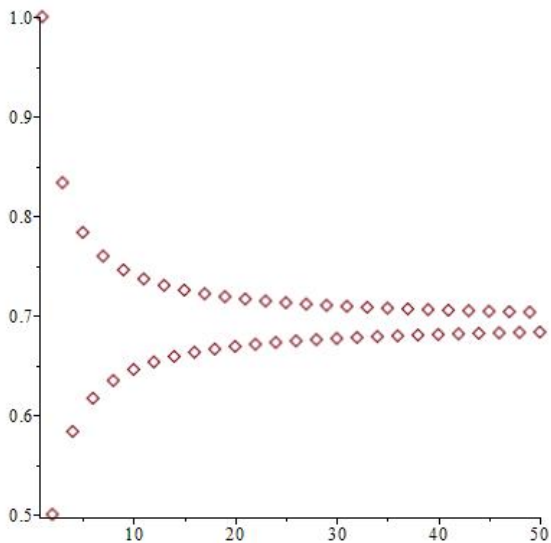
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**If** a series converges conditionally, it must be the case that separately both  $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} a_k^+$  and  $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} a_k^-$  diverge, but somehow their interaction allows them to converge when the partial sums are subtracted.

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So we will first concentrate on the absolute convergence, where a great deal can be done with so-called “comparison tests” and related tests that indirectly depend on comparisons.

In much of what follows, the theorems will assume that we have non-negative summands. That is, series  $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} a_k$  for which all  $a_k \geq 0$ .

But of course these theorems would apply to other not necessarily non-negative (is that a triple negative!?) series if we are testing for absolute convergence by applying the theorems to  $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} |a_k|$ .

Recall: **Theorem** Given two series  $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} a_k$  and  $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} b_k$  with  $0 \leq a_n \leq b_n$  (at least for all but a finite number of  $n$ ). If  $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} b_k$  converges then  $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} a_k$  also converges. If  $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} a_k$  diverges then  $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} b_k$  also diverges.

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Of course, the theorem *could* be re-written for series that are not necessarily non-negative using  $|a_n| \leq |b_n|$  and substituting “converges absolutely” for “converges.” (And with “diverges” replaced by “does not converge absolutely.”)

**Theorem** Given two series  $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} a_k$  and  $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} b_k$  with  $a_n \geq 0$ ,  $b_n > 0$ , and also

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

where  $0 < L < \infty$ . Then  $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} b_k$  and  $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} a_k$  either both converge or both diverge.

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which is the same as

$$\frac{L}{2}b_n < a_n < 2L * b_n$$



**Ratio Test** For series  $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} a_k$  with all  $a_k > 0$ . If

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{a_{n+1}}{a_n}$$

exists and we set  $L$  equal to this limit, then  $L < 1$  implies that the series converges absolutely and  $L > 1$  implies that the series diverges.

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$(1 + L)/2 < 1$  because...?

Let  $r = (1 + L)/2$ .

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Something similar would be done for  $L > 1$ , but with inequalities reversed to show divergence.

**Theorem (Root Test)** Given series  $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} a_k$  with  $a_k \geq 0$ . If

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The proof is in fact a bit simpler than for the ratio test!

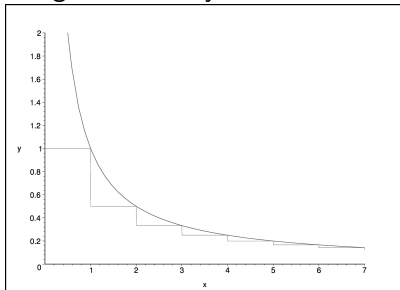
**Theorem** Suppose that  $f$  is a positive decreasing function and that  $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} a_k$  is a series for which  $a_k = f(k)$ . Then the series converges iff

$$\int_1^{\infty} f(x) dx < \infty.$$

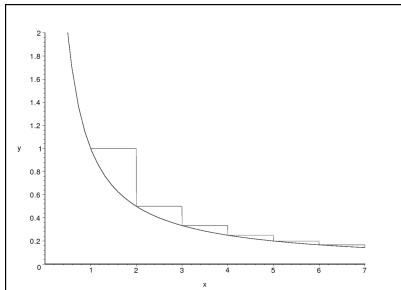
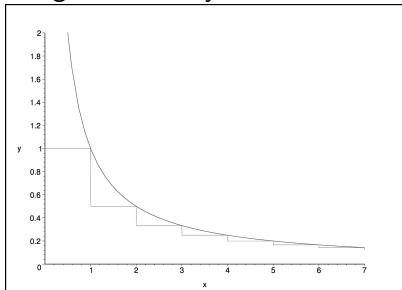


Integral test, why is it true?

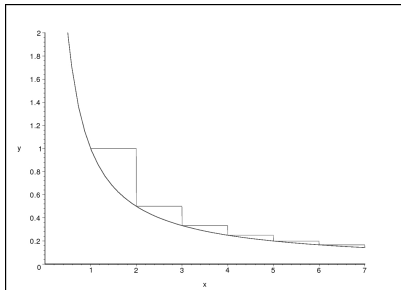
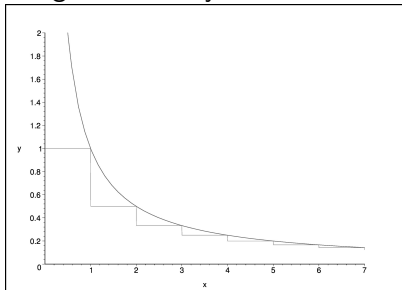
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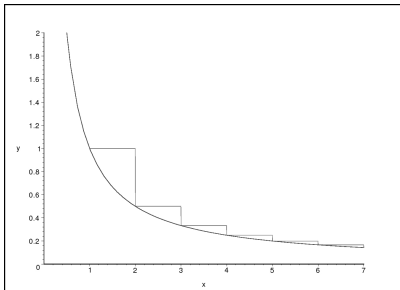
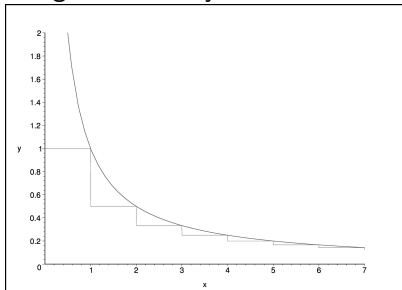


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The integral test may be used to determine this. Alternatively, something called the *Cauchy Condensation Test* may be used. The Cauchy Condensation Test accomplishes more or less the same thing, but it is nice to be able to avoid talking about integrals.

**Theorem (Cauchy Condensation Test)** Suppose that

$$a_1 + a_2 + a_3 + \cdots$$

is a series whose summands are (eventually) positive and decreasing. This series converges if and only if the series

$$a_1 + 2a_2 + 4a_4 + 8a_8 + \cdots + 2^k a_{2^k} + \cdots$$

converges.



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The Integral Test is a bit more subtle and may be sometimes useful for series for which the Ratio and Root Tests fail. Notably, the so-called “p-series.”