

§ 11.1 Sequences.

Definition: Sequence: A LIST of numbers. Notation: $a_1, a_2, a_3, \dots, a_n, \dots$

a_n is called the n^{th} term of the sequence. ($n=1, 2, 3, \dots$)

Ex. 0 (Motivation). Investment at bank: \$1,000 is deposited into bank at 6% annual interest rate.

Find the money in the account AT THE END of ~~the~~ n^{th} year.

After 1 year, $1000 + 1000 \times 6\% = 1000 \times (1 + 6\%) = 1000 \times 1.06 \quad a_1$

After 2 years, $[1000 \times 1.06] + \overset{\text{interest}}{[1000 \times 1.06] \times 6\%} = \dots = [1000 \times 1.06] \times 1.06 \quad a_2$

After n years, $\dots = 1000 \times 1.06 \times \dots \times 1.06 = 1000 \times 1.06^n \quad a_n$

Goals of this section (key points in exam):

I: Find a formula of the n^{th} term a_n given the first several terms.

II: Find the limit of a sequence a_n (determine whether a_n is CONV or DIV).

Remarks:

① $a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n, \dots$ can also be denoted as $\{a_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$, $\{a_n\}$, or $\{a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n, \dots\}$

② Sequence Vs Function. a_n VS $f(x)$. One can always replace n in the formula of a_n by x to get a function $f(x)$ in the usual sense and vice versa.

a_n $\xrightarrow{f(x)}$ $f(x)$. $a_n = n \cdot e^{-n}$ can be viewed as $f(x) = x \cdot e^{-x}$

③ LIST VS Collection. By 'list of numbers', we mean the numbers are given in a DEFINITE ORDER, which is labeled by index $n=1, 2, \dots$. So we have the so-called '1st term a_1 ', '2nd term a_2 ', ... 'nth term a_n '.

④ Trivial sequence: Constant sequence: All a_n are the same. $\{0, 0, 0, \dots, 0, \dots\}$, $a_n = 0$.
 $\{2, 2, 2, \dots, 2, \dots\}$, $a_n = 2$.

I: Formula for a_n .

e.g.1. Consider the following sequence: 9, 25, 49, 81, ...

Write a formula for the n^{th} term of this sequence, where $n=1, 2, 3, \dots$

Hint: $9 = 3^2 = (2 \cdot 1 + 1)^2$, $25 = 5^2 = (2 \cdot 2 + 1)^2$, $49 = 7^2 = (2 \cdot 3 + 1)^2$, $81 = 9^2 = (2 \cdot 4 + 1)^2$

Solution: $a_n = (2n+1)^2$, $n=1, 2, 3, \dots$

Remark: Always double check your answer by plugging in $n=1, 2, 3, 4$ after you get $(2n+1)^2$.

e.g.2. The sequence $-1, +1, -1, +1, -1, \dots$ has formula $a_n = (-1)^n$, $n=1, 2, \dots$

The sequence $+1, -1, +1, -1, +1, \dots$ has formula $a_n = (-1)^{n+1}$, $n=1, 2, \dots$

and also $a_n = (-1)^{n-1}$, $n=1, 2, \dots$ (Both are correct)

★ e.g.3. Find the formula for the sequence $1, \frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2^2}, \frac{1}{2^3}, \frac{1}{2^4}, \dots$ $n=1, 2, 3, \dots$

and then for the sequence $-1, +\frac{1}{2}, -\frac{1}{4}, +\frac{1}{8}, -\frac{1}{16}, \dots$ $n=1, 2, 3, \dots$

Solution: Notice that $1 = \frac{1}{2^0}$. Therefore, $a_n = \frac{1}{2^{n-1}}$, $n=1, 2, 3, \dots$ is the formula.

(Double check: $a_1 = \frac{1}{2^{1-1}} = \frac{1}{2^0} = 1$, $a_2 = \frac{1}{2^{2-1}} = \frac{1}{2}$, $a_3 = \frac{1}{2^{3-1}} = \frac{1}{2^2}$, ...)

For the second sequence, it is a product of e.g.2 and the first sequence. ~~Therefore~~

i.e., $-1 = (-1) \cdot \frac{1}{2^0}$, $\frac{1}{2} = (+1) \cdot \frac{1}{2^1}$, $-\frac{1}{4} = (-1) \cdot \frac{1}{2^2}$, ...

Therefore, $a_n = (-1)^n \cdot \frac{1}{2^{n-1}}$, $n=1, 2, 3, \dots$

Remark: Check the following identity holds: $\boxed{(-1)^n \frac{1}{2^{n-1}}} = -\frac{1}{(-2)^{n-1}} = \boxed{2 \cdot \left(-\frac{1}{2}\right)^n}$

Hint: use the following properties: $x^{a+b} = x^a \cdot x^b$, $(a \cdot b)^x = a^x \cdot b^x$.

Some frequently used sequences: $a_n = (-1)^n$, $a_n = (-1)^{n+1}$, $a_n = (-1)^{n-1}$

ODD sequence (from 1): $a_n = 2n-1$, $n=1, 2, \dots$ $\{1, 3, 5, 7, \dots\}$

EVEN sequence (from 2): $a_n = 2n$, $n=1, 2, \dots$ $\{2, 4, 6, 8, \dots\}$

Exponential sequence: e.g. $a_n = 2^n$, $a_n = \frac{1}{3^n}$, $a_n = \left(\frac{4}{5}\right)^n$

(Also called Geometric sequence, which will be discussed more §11.2).

II: Limit of a_n as $n \rightarrow +\infty$.

If $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n$ exists, the sequence a_n is called a **convergent** sequence. Otherwise, we say the sequence a_n is **divergent**.

e.g. 4. constant sequence always converges. $a_n = 5, n=1, 2, \dots$. $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = 5$ conv.

e.g. 5. Consider the sequence $a_n = n \cdot e^{-n}, n=1, 2, \dots$. Find the limit of this sequence.

Hint: It is equivalent to ask you to find $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} x \cdot e^{-x}$ as we learned in § 6.8.

Solution: $a_n = n \cdot e^{-n}$. replace n by $+\infty$, we have $\infty \cdot e^{-\infty}$ ($e^{-\infty} = 0$)

$$\begin{aligned} \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} n \cdot e^{-n} = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{n}{e^n} \stackrel{\text{l'Hosp}}{=} \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{n'}{(e^n)'} \\ &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{e^n} \\ &= \frac{1}{\infty} = 0 \end{aligned}$$

indeterminate type
 n' and $(e^n)'$ are the derivatives of n and e^n with respect to n .
 $n' = 1, (e^n)' = e^n$

Conclusion, the sequence $a_n = n \cdot e^{-n}$ converges to 0, i.e. $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = 0$

e.g. 6. Evaluate $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{-2n^3 + 1}{n^2 + 3n}$, determine whether the sequence is conv or DIV.

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Solution: } \frac{\text{l'Hosp}}{\neq} \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{(-2n^3 + 1)'}{(n^2 + 3n)'} &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{-2 \cdot 3n^2}{2n + 3} \stackrel{\text{l'Hosp}}{=} \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{-2 \cdot 3 \cdot 2n}{2} \\ &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} -6 \cdot n = \boxed{-\infty} \end{aligned}$$

The sequence $\frac{-2n^3 + 1}{n^2 + 3n}$ is DIVERGENT.

e.g. 7. $a_n = (-1)^n, n=1, 2, \dots, \{1, -1, 1, -1, \dots\}$ The sequence jumps from 1 to -1 forever so does not have a limit, i.e. $(-1)^n$ diverges. So does $(-1)^{n+1}$.

e.g. 8. Consider $a_n = (-1)^n \cdot \frac{1}{2^n}$ (in e.g. 3.), $-1, \frac{1}{2}, -\frac{1}{4}, \frac{1}{8}, \dots$

Although the sign changes from + to - ~~alternatively~~ alternately, the denominator 2^n $\xrightarrow{n \rightarrow \infty} \infty$ (tends to ∞ as n goes to ∞). Therefore,

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (-1)^n \cdot \frac{1}{2^n} = \pm \frac{1}{\infty} = \pm \frac{1}{\infty} = 0, \text{ Converges to } 0.$$

Review of some frequently used limit techniques from Cal I and §6.8 Cal II.

① **Leading Term Trick** for $\frac{\text{Polynomial}}{\text{Polynomial}}$ type. (only n to some power is included).

Rule: Find the terms with highest order (power) in n . Drop all the rest terms

Simplify the expression and then take the limit as $n \rightarrow \infty$.

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{6 - 2n + n^4}{5n^4 - 3n^2 + 100} = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\cancel{6} - \cancel{2n} + n^4 \leftarrow \text{leading term in the numerator}}{5n^4 - \cancel{3n^2} + \cancel{100}} \leftarrow \text{leading term in the denominator.}$$

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{3n^2 + 5n}{1000n + 5n^{2.5} + 6} \stackrel{\text{L'H}}{=} \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{-3n^2}{5n^{2.5}} = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{-3}{5n^{0.5}} = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{-3}{5\sqrt{n}} = \frac{-3}{5 \cdot \infty} = \boxed{0}$$

~~$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{n^4}{5n^4}$~~ simplify $\boxed{\frac{1}{5}}$ Conv.

Remark: Compare these two examples with [e.g. 6] and the **L'Hospital rule**.

② $a^{+\infty} = +\infty$ if $a > 1$ and $a^{+\infty} = 0$ if $0 < a < 1$.

Remember the limits via the following examples:

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} 2^{n-1} = 2^{\infty} = \infty, \quad \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} [1.01]^n = 1.01^{\infty} = \infty; \quad \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left(\frac{1}{3}\right)^n = \left(\frac{1}{3}\right)^{\infty} = 0$$

For negative numbers, use the trick $\boxed{(-a)^n = (-1)^n \cdot a^n}$. $(-5)^n = (-1)^n \cdot 5^n$

③ Exponential L'Hospital Trick (Please refer to lec-notes Week 4, Page 7, e.g. 4 in §6.8)

(w/ 11, 12 are relied on this)

Evaluate $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} 3 \cdot \left(1 + \frac{1}{n^2}\right)^{5n}$

It is enough to consider the limit for

$$\left(1 + \frac{1}{n^2}\right)^{5n} = e^{\ln\left(1 + \frac{1}{n^2}\right)^{5n}}$$

Step 1: $\ln\left(1 + \frac{1}{n^2}\right)^{5n} = 5n \cdot \ln\left(1 + \frac{1}{n^2}\right)$
 $= \frac{\ln\left(1 + \frac{1}{n^2}\right)}{\frac{1}{5n}}$

Step 2:
 $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\ln\left(1 + \frac{1}{n^2}\right)}{\frac{1}{5n}}$
 $\stackrel{\text{L'H}}{=} \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\frac{1}{1 + \frac{1}{n^2}} \cdot \frac{-2}{n^3}}{\frac{-1}{5n^2}}$

$$= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{10n^2}{n^3 + 1}$$

$= 0$ (leading term Rule)

Step 3:
 $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} 3 \cdot \left(1 + \frac{1}{n^2}\right)^{5n}$
 $= 3 \cdot \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} e^{\boxed{\ln\left(1 + \frac{1}{n^2}\right)^{5n}}}$
 $= 3 \cdot e^0 \leftarrow \text{result from Step 2}$
 $= \boxed{3}$

§11.2 Series

Key points:

- ① Definition and properties of Series: $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n = a_1 + a_2 + \dots + a_n + \dots$
- ② TEST FOR DIVERGENCE (DIV TEST). $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n \neq 0$ implies $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$ DIV.
(Also called ~~n~~th term test for divergence).
- ③ Geometric Series: $a + a \cdot r + a \cdot r^2 + a \cdot r^3 + \dots + a \cdot r^n + \dots = \frac{a}{1-r}$, $|r| < 1$.

• Motivation: (Sigma Notation) (Remark: For complete review of sigma notation, refer to Appendix E in the textbook).

eg. 0. Expand the following SIGMA NOTATION as a usual sum.

$$\sum_{n=0}^4 \frac{1}{2^n} = \frac{1}{2^0} + \frac{1}{2^1} + \frac{1}{2^2} + \frac{1}{2^3} + \frac{1}{2^4}; \quad \sum_{n=2}^5 \frac{1}{n-1} = \frac{1}{2-1} + \frac{1}{3-1} + \frac{1}{4-1} + \frac{1}{5-1}$$

$$\sum_{i=1}^N a_i = a_1 + a_2 + \dots + a_{N-2} + a_{N-1} + a_N; \quad \sum_{k=1}^{100} 3 = \underbrace{3+3+\dots+3+3}_{100} (= 3 \cdot 100 = 300)$$

Question: what happens if we put ∞ on the top of \sum ? (ie. $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty}$)

• **Definition:** Give a sequence $\{a_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$ (ie. $a_1, a_2, a_3, \dots, a_n, \dots$). We call the INFINITE SUM of all a_n an infinite SERIES: $a_1 + a_2 + a_3 + \dots + a_n + \dots$.
And denote by $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n = a_1 + a_2 + \dots + a_n + \dots$ for short.

• eg. 1. (Two trivial examples)

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} 0 = 0 + 0 + 0 + \dots + 0 + \dots (= 0); \quad \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} 3 = 3 + 3 + \dots + 3 + \dots (= \infty, \text{ we may guess})$$

• We are interested in whether the infinite sum adds up to some finite number or infinity. Roughly speaking, if $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$ adds up to some (fixed) finite number we say **the series is CONVERGENT**. Otherwise, **$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$ diverges**.

• Remark: There are only FEW examples we can compute the exact sum of the series. All the rest of Chapter 11 are methods to determine CONV/DIV without knowing the exact sum.

- Linear properties of Series: $\{a_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$, $\{b_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$ are two sequences, C is a constant.

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (C \cdot a_n) = C \left(\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n \right); \quad \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (a_n + b_n) = \left(\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n \right) + \left(\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} b_n \right); \quad \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n = a_1 + \sum_{n=2}^{\infty} a_n = \dots = a_1 + a_2 + a_3 + \dots + \sum_{n=4}^{\infty} a_n = \dots$$

● TEST FOR DIVERGENCE. (DIV TEST) (Also called "nth term test" for short)

Theorem: If $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n \neq 0$, then $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$ is DIVERGENT. i.e., if the sequence a_n does not have a limit or the limit is NOT zero, then the corresponding series $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$ is divergent.

eg. 2. Fill in the table. Determine whether the following sequences and series are CONV or DIV.

a_n	$(-1)^n$	$2 + \sin\left(\frac{1}{n}\right)$	$\frac{2n+3}{2n+1}$	$\left(\frac{3}{2}\right)^{n-1}$
$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n$	D.N.E. (± 1)	$2 + \sin 0 = 2$	$\frac{2}{2} = 1$	∞ (since $\frac{3}{2} > 1$)
a_n is CONV or DIV	DIV	CONV	CONV	DIV
$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$ is CONV or DIV	DIV	DIV	DIV	DIV

Remark: If $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = 0$, DIV TEST is inconclusive. We need to move on to methods in the following section.

- One particular series (sequence) we can compute the exact sum.

Geometric Series. (G.S.): $a_n = a \cdot r^{n-1}$, $n=1, 2, 3, \dots$. a, r are two constants

$$a + a \cdot r + a \cdot r^2 + \dots, \text{ which can be written as } \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a \cdot r^{n-1} = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a \cdot r^n.$$

a is called the FIRST TERM of the series. r is called COMMON RATIO.

- Conclusion on CONV/DIV of G.S.

If $|r| \geq 1$, $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a \cdot r^{n-1}$ is divergent. If $|r| < 1$, $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a \cdot r^{n-1}$ is convergent AND.

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a \cdot r^{n-1} = \frac{a}{1-r} \quad \left(= \frac{\text{FIRST TERM}}{1 - \text{COMMON RATIO}} \right)$$

eg. 3. Consider $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \left(\frac{3}{2}\right)^{n-1}$ in eg. 2. This is a G.S. where $a=1, r=\frac{3}{2}$
 $|r|=|\frac{3}{2}|>1 \Rightarrow \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \left(\frac{3}{2}\right)^{n-1}$ diverges.

★ eg. 4 Find the sum of the series $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{2-3^{n+1}}{6^n}$
 (s16, 15pts)

Solution: Step 1: (linear properties) $= \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{2}{6^n} - \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{3^{n+1}}{6^n}$ (break down the original series into TWO G.S.)

Step 2: G.S. 1 $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{2}{6^n}$ (standard G.S. $a=2, r=\frac{1}{6}$)
 $= \frac{a}{1-r}$ Hint: $\frac{2}{6^n} = 2 \cdot \left(\frac{1}{6}\right)^n, \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{2}{6^n} = \frac{2}{6^0} + 2 \cdot \frac{1}{6^1} + 2 \cdot \frac{1}{6^2} + \dots$
 $= \frac{2}{1-\frac{1}{6}} = 2 \cdot \frac{6}{5} = \frac{12}{5}$

Step 3: G.S. 2. $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{3^{n+1}}{6^n} = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{3 \cdot 3^n}{6^n} = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} 3 \cdot \left(\frac{3}{6}\right)^n = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} 3 \cdot \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^n$
 $= \frac{a}{1-r}, a=3, r=\frac{1}{2}$ ($= 3 + 3 \cdot \frac{1}{2} + 3 \cdot \frac{1}{4} + \dots$)
 $= \frac{3}{1-\frac{1}{2}} = 6$

Step 4: $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{2-3^{n+1}}{6^n} = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{2}{6^n} - \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{3^{n+1}}{6^n} = \frac{12}{5} - 6 = \boxed{-\frac{18}{5}}$

Question: consider $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{2-3^{n+1}}{6^n}$ instead. What will be different compared to eg. 4?

Hints for Workbook:

- Common trick for G.S.: $\frac{(-1)^n}{a^n} = \left(-\frac{1}{a}\right)^n, \square^{n+1} = \square^n \cdot \square^1, 0^{n+1} = 0^n \cdot 0^1 = \frac{0^n}{0}$
- ww 4: $\left(\frac{1}{7}\right)^{\frac{n}{2}} = \left(\frac{1}{7}\right)^{\frac{1}{2} \cdot n} = \left[\left(\frac{1}{7}\right)^{\frac{1}{2}}\right]^n = \left[\frac{1}{\sqrt{7}}\right]^n = \left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{7}}\right)^n$
- ww 6: (Represent a repeating decimal as ^{Geometric} series.)
 $a\bar{7} = a.11111\dots = a.1 + a.01 + a.001 + a.0001 + \dots + a.0\dots01 + \dots$
 $= \frac{a}{10} + \frac{a}{100} + \frac{a}{1000} + \frac{a}{10000} + \dots + \dots + \dots$
- ww 7, 8, 9. consider x as a fixed parameter. Find r in terms of $x, |r|<1$.
- ww 10. DIV TEST. ~~Exponential~~ Exponential l'Hospital Trick.

§ 11.3 The integral test and P-Series.

key points

• Series $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n \longleftrightarrow \int_1^{\infty} f(x) dx$ improper integral, conv/DIV simultaneously.

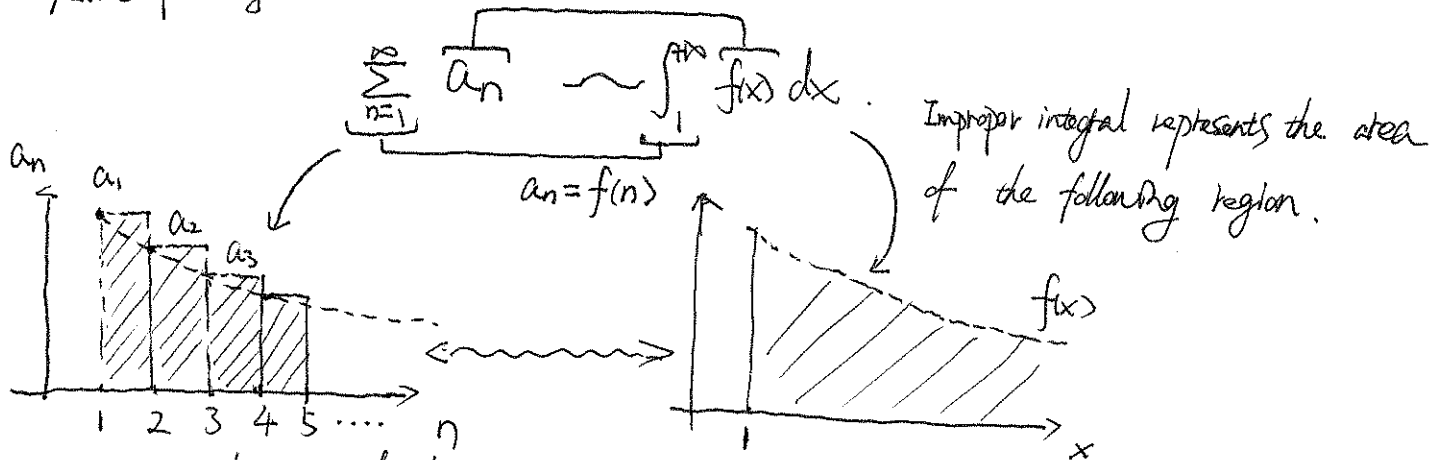
• p-Series: $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^p} \begin{cases} \text{CONV.} & p > 1 \\ \text{DIV} & p \leq 1 \end{cases}$

• Integral Test: Give $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$. Rewrite a_n as $f(n)$. (Replace n by x in the formula of a_n).

Assume that $f(x)$, i.e. ($f(n) = a_n$), is continuous, positive and DECREASING. We have

① If $\int_1^{\infty} f(x) dx$ CONV, then $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$ CONV. ② If $\int_1^{\infty} f(x) dx$ DIV, then $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$ DIV.

Motivation/Ideas of Integral Tests



Series represents the sum of the area of the rectangles: $a_1 \cdot 1 + a_2 \cdot 1 + a_3 \cdot 1 + \dots$

e.g. Q: Can an integral test be used to determine the conv/DIV of $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \sin(n)$?

(S16, 6pts). Answer: $\sin(n) \leftrightarrow \sin x = f(x)$ is NOT positive and DECREASING. The integral test hypotheses ARE NOT met, so it cannot be applied.

Remark: $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sin(n)$ DOES NOT EXIST. $\therefore \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \sin(n)$ diverges due to DIV TEST.

• (Trivial) Example of Integral Test: $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n}$, $a_n = \frac{1}{n}$, $f(x) = \frac{1}{x}$ continuous, positive and decreasing.

$$\int_1^{\infty} f(x) dx = \int_1^{\infty} \frac{1}{x} dx = \lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} \int_1^t \frac{1}{x} dx = \lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} \ln|x| \Big|_1^t = \lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} (\ln t - \ln 1) = \ln(t) = +\infty$$

$\int_1^{\infty} f(x) dx$ diverges, \therefore therefore, $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n}$ diverges.

eg. 1. Determine whether the following series converges or diverges. State the test you use.

(slb, lops) $\sum_{n=2}^{\infty} \frac{5}{n \ln n}$. ($a_n = \frac{5}{n \ln n} \leftrightarrow f(x) = \frac{5}{x \ln x}$. satisfies $f(n) = a_n$.)

Solution: Since $f(x) = \frac{5}{x \ln x}$ is continuous, positive and decreasing for $n \geq 2$, the integral test can be applied.

$$\int_2^{\infty} \frac{5}{x \ln x} dx = \lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} \int_2^t \frac{5}{x \ln x} dx \quad \text{Hint: } (\ln x, \frac{1}{x}) \text{ pair, u-sub: } u = \ln x, du = \frac{1}{x} dx$$

$$= \lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} \int_2^t \frac{5}{\ln x} \cdot \frac{1}{x} dx$$

$$= \lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} \int_2^t \frac{5}{u} \cdot du = \lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} 5 \ln |u| = \lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} 5 \ln |\ln x| \Big|_{x=2}^{x=t}$$

Therefore, $\int_2^{\infty} \frac{5}{x \ln x} dx$ diverges.

$$= \lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} 5 \ln |\ln t| - 5 \ln |\ln 2|$$

$$= \lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} 5 \ln |\ln t| - 5 \ln |\ln 2|$$

$$= \infty \quad (\text{Hint: } \ln \ln \infty = \ln \infty = \infty)$$

So the series $\sum_{n=2}^{\infty} \frac{5}{n \ln n}$ diverges. ✖

Remark: In general, similar argument works for $\sum_{n=2}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n (\ln n)^p}$ with different parameters $p=1, 2, 3, \dots$
(wwo 3, 4)

• Series of the form $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^p}$ is called p-series with parameter p (any number)

Conclusion of ConV/DIV: $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^p}$ is convergent if $p > 1$ and divergent if $p \leq 1$.

eg. 2. Determine whether the following series is ConV or DIV.

• $\sum_{n=7}^{\infty} \frac{2}{n^3}$. p-series $p=3 > 1$ ConV.

• $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} -5n^{-\frac{1}{3}}$, $a_n = -5n^{-\frac{1}{3}} = -5 \cdot \frac{1}{n^{\frac{1}{3}}}$, p-series, $p = \frac{1}{3} < 1$, DIV.

• $\sum_{n=2}^{\infty} \frac{4}{\sqrt{4} n^e}$. $a_n = \frac{4}{\sqrt{4} n^e} = \frac{4}{\sqrt{4} \cdot \sqrt{n^e}} = \frac{4}{2 \cdot n^{\frac{e}{2}}}$, $p = \frac{e}{2} > 1$, ConV.

• $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{3\sqrt{n}}{n}$, $a_n = \frac{3\sqrt{n}}{n} = \frac{3}{n^{\frac{1}{2}}}$, $p = \frac{1}{2} < 1$, DIV.

• Proof of conclusion on p-series via integral test. (Two typical p-values).

p-value $p=2$ ($p > 2$).

$p = \frac{1}{2}$ ($p < \frac{1}{2}$)

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

$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^{\frac{1}{2}}}$ (or $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{\sqrt{n}}$)

Improper integral $\int_1^{\infty} \frac{1}{x^2} dx$

$\int_1^{\infty} \frac{1}{x^{\frac{1}{2}}} dx$

Test for the integral $\left\{ \begin{aligned} &= \lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} \int_1^t x^{-2} dx \\ &= \lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} -x^{-1} \Big|_1^t \\ &= \lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} -\frac{1}{t} + 1 = \boxed{1} \end{aligned} \right.$

$\left\{ \begin{aligned} &= \lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} \int_1^t x^{-\frac{1}{2}} dx \quad \text{Hint: } \int x^{-\frac{1}{2}} = \frac{1}{-\frac{1}{2}+1} x^{-\frac{1}{2}+1} \\ &= \lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} 2\sqrt{x} \Big|_1^t = 2 \cdot x^{\frac{1}{2}} \\ &= \lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} 2\sqrt{t} - 2\sqrt{1} = \boxed{+\infty} \end{aligned} \right.$

Conclusion: $\int_1^{\infty} \frac{1}{x^2} dx$ conv $\Rightarrow \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^2}$ conv.

$\int_1^{\infty} \frac{1}{x^{\frac{1}{2}}} dx$ DIV $\Rightarrow \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{\sqrt{n}}$ DIV.

More remarks:

• p-series VS Geometric Series:

$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^p}$

$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a \cdot r^{n+1} = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a \cdot r^n$

p, r condition	p-Series	G.S.
Convergent	$p > 1$	$ r < 1$
Divergent	$p \leq 1$	$ r \geq 1$

G.S. has exact value which can be computed via $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a \cdot r^n = \frac{a}{1-r}$, $|r| < 1$

p-Series (its exact value) cannot be evaluated. The value of improper integral is NOT equal to the sum of p-series.

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

VS $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \left(\frac{2}{3}\right)^n$

$p = \frac{2}{3} < 1$, $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^{\frac{2}{3}}}$ DIV.

$r = \frac{2}{3} < 1$, $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \left(\frac{2}{3}\right)^n$ conv. $(= \frac{\frac{2}{3}}{1-\frac{2}{3}} = 2)$
 ($a = \frac{2}{3}$, $r = \frac{2}{3}$.)

• In the following sections, we will consider series which looks similar

either to p-series (such as $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{(2n+1)^3}$, $\sum_{n=2}^{\infty} \frac{n^2-1}{3n^3+1}$) or a geometric series (such as $\sum \frac{1}{(3^n+7)}$), or a combination of these two (such as $\sum \frac{n^2}{7^n}$).