

Review for Test 3

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1 Sections 10.4–10.6

1.1 Important Limits

Some Important Limits 1-4

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{n^\alpha} = 0, \quad \alpha > 0.$$

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} x^{\frac{1}{n}} = 1, \quad x > 0.$$

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} x^n = 0 \quad \text{if } |x| < 1.$$

(The limit does not exist if $|x| > 1$ or $x = -1$.)

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{x^n}{n!} = 0.$$

Some Important Limits: 5-8

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{n^p}{x^n} = 0, \quad |x| > 1.$$

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\ln n}{n} = 0.$$

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} n^{\frac{1}{n}} = 1.$$

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\ln n}{n^\alpha} = 0, \quad \alpha > 0.$$

Some Important Limits: 9-10

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} n \ln \left(1 + \frac{x}{n} \right) = x.$$

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left(1 + \frac{x}{n} \right)^n = e^x.$$

1.2 Indeterminate Forms

L'Hôpital's Rule and Some Important Limits

L'Hôpital's Rule
Suppose that $\lim_{x \rightarrow \star} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)}$ is a $\frac{0}{0}$ or $\frac{\infty}{\infty}$. Then $\lim_{x \rightarrow \star} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} = \lim_{x \rightarrow \star} \frac{f'(x)}{g'(x)}$

L'Hôpital's rule *does not apply* in cases where the numerator or the denominator has a finite non-zero limit!!!

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0^+} x^\alpha \ln x = 0, \quad \alpha > 0.$$

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\ln x}{x^\alpha} = 0, \quad \alpha > 0.$$

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{x^n}{e^x} = 0.$$

L'Hôpital's Rule and Some Important Limits

Exponential Forms: 1^∞ , 0^0 , and ∞^0

If $\lim_{x \rightarrow \star} \ln f(x) = L$, then $\lim_{x \rightarrow \star} f(x) = e^L$.

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0^+} x^x \quad (0^0) = e^0 = 1$$

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} x^{1/x} \quad (\infty^0) = e^0 = 1$$

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0^+} (1+x)^{1/x} \quad (1^\infty) = e^1 = e$$

Peculiar Indeterminate Forms

Sometimes the application of L'Hôpital's rule leads to peculiar situations.

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{2x}{\sqrt{1+x^2}} = \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{2\sqrt{1+x^2}}{x} = \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{2x}{\sqrt{1+x^2}}$$

Actually it is easy to calculate by algebraic methods.

$$\begin{aligned} \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{2x}{\sqrt{1+x^2}} &= \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{2x}{x} \frac{1}{\sqrt{1+(\frac{1}{x})^2}} \\ &= 2 \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{\sqrt{1+(\frac{1}{x})^2}} = 2 \lim_{u \rightarrow 0^+} \frac{1}{\sqrt{1+u^2}} = 2 \end{aligned}$$

1.3 Review Problems

Problem 1

Compute $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (2n)^{\left(\frac{3}{n}\right)}$ [3ex] a) 0 [3ex] b) $\frac{2}{3}$ [3ex] c) Doesn't exist [3ex] d) 1 [3ex] e) $\frac{3}{2}$ [3ex] f) None of the above.

$$\lim_{u \rightarrow \infty} u^{\frac{1}{u}} = 1.$$

Set $u = 2n$.

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (2n)^{\frac{1}{2n}} = \lim_{u \rightarrow \infty} u^{\frac{1}{u}} = 1.$$

Since $f(t) = t^6$ is continuous at 1,

$$\begin{aligned} \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (2n)^{\left(\frac{3}{n}\right)} &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left[(2n)^{\left(\frac{1}{2n}\right)} \right]^6 = 1 \\ \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{3}{n} \ln(2n) &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{3 \ln 2}{n} + 3 \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\ln n}{n} = 0 \\ \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (2n)^{\left(\frac{3}{n}\right)} &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} e^{\frac{3}{n} \ln(2n)} = 1 \end{aligned}$$

Problem 2

Compute $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left(\frac{\ln n^3}{\sqrt{n}} \right)$ [3ex] a) 1 [3ex] b) 2 [3ex] c) Doesn't exist [3ex] d) -1 [3ex] e) 0 [3ex] f) None of the above.

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\ln n}{n^\alpha} = 0, \quad \alpha > 0.$$

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left(\frac{\ln n^3}{\sqrt{n}} \right) = 3 \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\ln n}{n^{1/2}} = 0.$$

$$\begin{aligned} \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \left(\frac{\ln x^3}{\sqrt{x}} \right) &= \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \left(\frac{\frac{1}{x^3} 3x^2}{\frac{1}{2} x^{-1/2}} \right) \\ &= \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{6}{x^{1/2}} = 0 \end{aligned}$$

Problem 3

Compute $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \left(\frac{\sqrt{x^2 + 3x + 1}}{5x - 1} \right)$ [3ex] a) 1 [3ex] b) $\frac{2}{5}$ [3ex] c) -2 [3ex] d) $\frac{1}{5}$ [3ex]
e) $-\frac{1}{3}$ [3ex] f) None of the above.

The application of L'Hôpital's rule leads to peculiar situations. Actually it is easy to calculate by algebraic methods.

$$\begin{aligned} & \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \left(\frac{\sqrt{x^2 + 3x + 1}}{5x - 1} \right) \\ &= \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \left(\frac{x}{5x - 1} \sqrt{1 + 3 \left(\frac{1}{x} \right) + \left(\frac{1}{x} \right)^2} \right) \\ &= \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{x}{5x - 1} \cdot \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \sqrt{1 + 3 \left(\frac{1}{x} \right) + \left(\frac{1}{x} \right)^2} \\ &= \frac{1}{5} \end{aligned}$$

2 Section 10.7 Improper Integrals

2.1 Improper Integrals

Fundamental Theorem of Integral Calculus

Let $f(x) = F'(x)$ for $\forall x \geq a$. Then

$$\int_a^\infty f(x) dx = \lim_{b \rightarrow \infty} \int_a^b f(x) dx = \lim_{b \rightarrow \infty} (F(x)|_a^b) = \lim_{b \rightarrow \infty} F(b) - F(a) = F(x)|_a^\infty = \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} F(x) - F(a)$$

Let $f(x) = F'(x)$ for $\forall x \leq b$. Then

$$\int_{-\infty}^b f(x) dx = F(x)|_{-\infty}^b = F(b) - \lim_{x \rightarrow -\infty} F(x)$$

Let $f(x) = F'(x)$ for $\forall x$. Then

$$\begin{aligned} \int_{-\infty}^\infty f(x) dx &= \int_{-\infty}^0 f(x) dx + \int_0^\infty f(x) dx = F(x)|_{-\infty}^\infty = \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} F(x) - \lim_{x \rightarrow -\infty} F(x) \\ &= \left(F(0) - \lim_{x \rightarrow -\infty} F(x) \right) + \left(\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} F(x) - F(0) \right) \end{aligned}$$

Examples

$$\int_1^{\infty} \frac{1}{x^3} dx = -\frac{2}{x^2} \Big|_1^{\infty} = \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \left(-\frac{2}{x^2} \right) - (-2) = 2$$

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

$$\int_0^{\infty} e^{-2x} dx = -\frac{e^{-2x}}{2} \Big|_0^{\infty} = \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \left(-\frac{e^{-2x}}{2} \right) - \left(-\frac{1}{2} \right) = \frac{1}{2}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{c}{c^2 + x^2} dx &= \tan^{-1} \left(\frac{x}{c} \right) \Big|_{-\infty}^{\infty} \\ &= \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \left(\tan^{-1} \left(\frac{x}{c} \right) \right) - \lim_{x \rightarrow -\infty} \left(\tan^{-1} \left(\frac{x}{c} \right) \right) \\ &= \frac{\pi}{2} - \left(-\frac{\pi}{2} \right) = \pi \end{aligned}$$

Fundamental Theorem of Integral Calculus

Let $f(x) = F'(x)$ for $\forall x \in [a, b)$ and $f(x) \rightarrow \pm\infty$ as $x \rightarrow b^-$. Then

$$\int_a^b f(x) dx = \lim_{c \rightarrow b^-} \int_a^c f(x) dx = \lim_{c \rightarrow b^-} (F(x) \Big|_a^c) = \lim_{c \rightarrow b^-} F(c) - F(a) = F(x) \Big|_a^b = \lim_{x \rightarrow b^-} F(x) - F(a)$$

If $\lim_{x \rightarrow b^-} F(x) = \pm\infty$, then $\int_a^b f(x) dx$ *diverges*.

Let $f(x) = F'(x)$ for $\forall x \in (a, b]$ and $f(x) \rightarrow \pm\infty$ as $x \rightarrow a^+$. Then

$$\int_a^b f(x) dx = F(x) \Big|_a^b = F(b) - \lim_{x \rightarrow a^+} F(x)$$

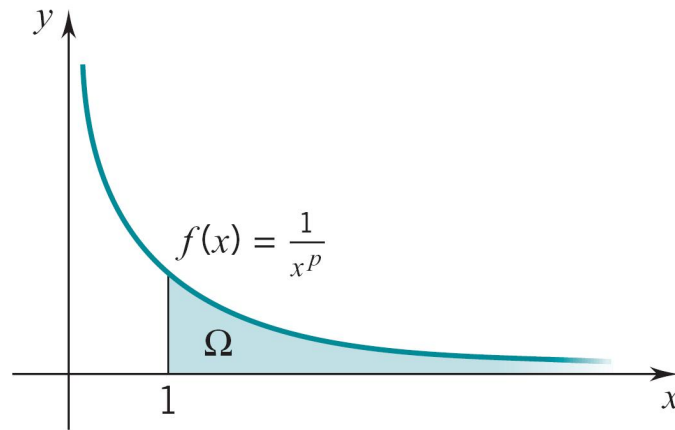
Examples

$$\int_0^1 \frac{1}{x^{1/3}} dx = \frac{3}{2} x^{2/3} \Big|_0^1 = \frac{3}{2} - \frac{3}{2} \lim_{x \rightarrow 0^+} (x^{2/3}) = \frac{3}{2}$$

$$\int_0^1 \frac{1}{x} dx = \ln x \Big|_0^1 = \ln 1 - \lim_{x \rightarrow 0^+} (\ln x) = \infty$$

$$\int_0^{\frac{\pi}{2}} \tan x dx = \ln \sec x \Big|_0^{\frac{\pi}{2}} = \lim_{x \rightarrow \frac{\pi}{2}^-} (\ln \sec x) - \ln 1 = \infty$$

$$\int_0^1 \frac{1}{x^\alpha} dx = \infty$$



$$\int_0^1 \frac{1}{x^\alpha} dx = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{1-\alpha}, & \text{if } \alpha < 1, \\ \infty, & \text{if } \alpha \geq 1. \end{cases}$$

If $\alpha \neq 1$, then

$$\begin{aligned} \int_0^1 \frac{1}{x^\alpha} dx &= \left. \frac{1}{1-\alpha} x^{1-\alpha} \right|_0^1 = \frac{1}{1-\alpha} - \frac{1}{1-\alpha} \lim_{x \rightarrow 0^+} x^{1-\alpha} \\ &= \begin{cases} \frac{1}{1-\alpha}, & \text{if } \alpha < 1, \\ \infty, & \text{if } \alpha > 1. \end{cases} \end{aligned}$$

If $\alpha = 1$, then

$$\int_0^1 \frac{1}{x} dx = \ln x \Big|_0^1 = \ln 1 - \lim_{x \rightarrow 0^+} (\ln x) = \infty$$

2.2 Review Problems

Problem 1

- Explain why the definite integral below is an improper integral
- $$\int_0^1 \frac{1}{(1-x)^3} dx$$
- Use proper limit notation to rewrite this improper integral as a limit of proper definite integrals.
 - Solve the limit problem formed to determine whether the improper integral converges or diverges. If the improper integral converges, give its value.

$$\begin{aligned} \int_0^1 \frac{1}{(1-x)^3} dx &= \int_0^1 \frac{1}{t^3} dt = \lim_{c \rightarrow 0^+} \int_c^1 \frac{1}{t^3} dt \\ &= \lim_{c \rightarrow 0^+} \left. -\frac{1}{2} t^{-2} \right|_c^1 = -\frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2} \lim_{c \rightarrow 0^+} c^{-2} = \infty \end{aligned}$$

Problem 2

- Explain why the definite integral below is an improper integral
- Use proper limit notation to rewrite this improper integral as a limit of proper definite integrals.
- Solve the limit problem formed to determine whether the improper integral converges or diverges. If the improper integral converges, give its value.

$$\int_0^3 \frac{3}{\sqrt{3-x}} dx$$

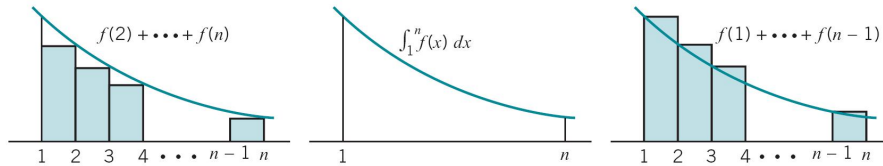
$$= \lim_{c \rightarrow 0^+} \int_c^3 \frac{3}{\sqrt{3-x}} dx = \lim_{c \rightarrow 0^+} \int_c^3 \frac{3}{t^{1/2}} dt$$

$$= \lim_{c \rightarrow 0^+} 6t^{1/2} \Big|_c^3 = 6 - 6 \lim_{c \rightarrow 0^+} c^{1/2} = 6$$

3 Sections 11.1–11.3

3.1 The Integral Test

The Integral Test



Let $a_k = f(k)$, where f is continuous, decreasing and positive on $[1, \infty)$, then

$$\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} a_k \text{ converges iff } \int_1^{\infty} f(x) dx \text{ converges}$$

(The p -Series)

$$\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{k^p} = 1 + \frac{1}{2^p} + \frac{1}{3^p} + \dots \text{ converges iff } p > 1.$$

Example

Show that $\sum_{k=2}^{\infty} \frac{1}{k \ln k}$ diverges.

The related improper integral is $\int_2^{\infty} \frac{1}{x \ln x} dx = \int_{\ln 2}^{\infty} \frac{1}{u} du = \ln u \Big|_{\ln 2}^{\infty} = \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \ln x - \ln \ln 2 = \infty$. Since this improper integral diverges, so does the infinite series.

Show that $\sum_{k=2}^{\infty} \frac{1}{k(\ln k)^2}$ converges.

The related improper integral is $\int_2^{\infty} \frac{1}{x(\ln x)^2} dx = \int_{\ln 2}^{\infty} \frac{1}{u^2} du = -u^{-1} \Big|_{\ln 2}^{\infty} = \frac{1}{\ln 2} - \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} x^{-1} = \frac{1}{\ln 2}$. Since this improper integral converges, so does the infinite series.

3.2 Convergence Tests

Basic Series that Converge or Diverge

Basic Series that Converge

Geometric series: $\sum x^k$, if $|x| < 1$

p -series: $\sum \frac{1}{k^p}$, if $p > 1$

Basic Series that Diverge

Any series $\sum a_k$ for which $\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} a_k \neq 0$

p -series: $\sum \frac{1}{k^p}$, if $p \leq 1$

Convergence Tests (1)

Basic Test for Convergence

Keep in Mind that, if $a_k \not\rightarrow 0$, then the series $\sum a_k$ *diverges*; therefore there is no reason to apply any special convergence test.

Examples 1. $\sum x^k$ with $|x| \geq 1$ (e.g, $\sum (-1)^k$) *diverge* since $x^k \not\rightarrow 0$. [1ex]

$\sum \frac{k}{k+1}$ *diverges* since $\frac{k}{k+1} \rightarrow 1 \neq 0$. [1ex] $\sum \left(1 - \frac{1}{k}\right)^k$ *diverges* since

$a_k = \left(1 - \frac{1}{k}\right)^k \rightarrow e^{-1} \neq 0$.

Convergence Tests (2)

Comparison Tests

Rational terms are most easily handled by *basic comparison* or *limit comparison* with p -series $\sum 1/k^p$

Basic Comparison Test

$\sum \frac{1}{2k^3 + 1}$ converges by comparison with $\sum \frac{1}{k^3}$ $\sum \frac{k^3}{k^5 + 4k^4 + 7}$ converges

by comparison with $\sum \frac{1}{k^2}$ $\sum \frac{1}{k^3 - k^2}$ converges by comparison with $\sum \frac{2}{k^3}$

$\sum \frac{1}{3k + 1}$ diverges by comparison with $\sum \frac{1}{3(k + 1)}$ $\sum \frac{1}{\ln(k + 6)}$ diverges by

comparison with $\sum \frac{1}{k + 6}$

Limit Comparison Test

$\sum \frac{1}{k^3 - 1}$ converges by comparison with $\sum \frac{1}{k^3}$. $\sum \frac{3k^2 + 2k + 1}{k^3 + 1}$ diverges
 by comparison with $\sum \frac{3}{k}$. $\sum \frac{5\sqrt{k} + 100}{2k^2\sqrt{k} - 9\sqrt{k}}$ converges by comparison with
 $\sum \frac{5}{2k^2}$

Convergence Tests (3)

Root Test and Ratio Test

The *root test* is used only if *powers* are involved.

Root Test

$\sum \frac{k^2}{2^k}$ converges: $(a_k)^{1/k} = \frac{1}{2} \cdot [k^{1/k}]^2 \rightarrow \frac{1}{2} \cdot 1$ $\sum \frac{1}{(\ln k)^k}$ converges: $(a_k)^{1/k} =$
 $\frac{1}{\ln k} \rightarrow 0$ $\sum \left(1 - \frac{1}{k}\right)^{k^2}$ converges: $(a_k)^{1/k} = \left(1 + \frac{(-1)}{k}\right)^k \rightarrow e^{-1}$

Convergence Tests (4)

Root Test and Ratio Test

The *ratio test* is effective with *factorials* and with combinations of powers and factorials.

Ratio Comparison Test

$\sum \frac{k^2}{2^k}$ converges: $\frac{a_{k+1}}{a_k} = \frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{(k+1)^2}{k^2} \rightarrow \frac{1}{2}$ $\sum \frac{1}{k!}$ converges: $\frac{a_{k+1}}{a_k} = \frac{1}{k+1} \rightarrow 0$
 $\sum \frac{k}{10^k}$ converges: $\frac{a_{k+1}}{a_k} = \frac{1}{10} \cdot \frac{k+1}{k} \rightarrow \frac{1}{10}$ $\sum \frac{k^k}{k!}$ diverges: $\frac{a_{k+1}}{a_k} = \left(1 + \frac{1}{k}\right)^k \rightarrow e$
 $\sum \frac{2^k}{3^k - 2^k}$ converges: $\frac{a_{k+1}}{a_k} = 2 \cdot \frac{1 - (2/3)^{k+1}}{3 - 2(2/3)^k} \rightarrow 2 \cdot \frac{1}{3}$ $\sum \frac{1}{\sqrt{k!}}$ converges: $\frac{a_{k+1}}{a_k} =$
 $\sqrt{\frac{1}{k+1}} \rightarrow 0$

3.3 Absolute Convergence

Absolute Convergence

Absolute Convergence

A series $\sum a_k$ is said to *converge absolutely* if $\sum |a_k|$ converges.

Alternating p -Series with $p > 1$

$\sum \frac{(-1)^k}{k^p}$, $p > 1$, *converge absolutely* because $\sum \frac{1}{k^p}$ converges.

Conditional Convergence

A series $\sum a_k$ is said to *converge conditionally* if $\sum a_k$ converges while $\sum |a_k|$ diverges.

Alternating p -Series with $0 < p \leq 1$

$\sum \frac{(-1)^k}{k^p}$, $0 < p \leq 1$, *converge conditionally* because $\sum \frac{1}{k^p}$ diverges.

Examples

Alternating Series Test

Let $\{a_k\}$ be a *decreasing* sequence of *positive* numbers.

If $a_k \rightarrow 0$, then $\sum (-1)^k a_k$ converges.

$\sum \frac{(-1)^k}{2k+1}$, converge since $f(x) = \frac{1}{2x+1}$ is *decreasing*, i.e., $f'(x) = -\frac{2}{(2x+1)^2} > 0$ for $\forall x > 0$, and $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} f(x) = 0$.

$\sum \frac{(-1)^k k}{k^2+10}$, converge since $f(x) = \frac{x}{x^2+10}$ is *decreasing*, i.e., $f'(x) = -\frac{x^2-10}{(x^2+10)^2} > 0$, for $\forall x > \sqrt{10}$, and $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} f(x) = 0$.

3.4 Review Problems

Problem 1

Determine $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{2n(-1)^n}{3n^2+n+1}$ [3ex] a) converges conditionally [3ex] b) converges absolutely [3ex] c) diverges [3ex] d) None of the above.

$\sum \frac{2n(-1)^n}{3n^2+n+1}$, converges since [2ex] $f(x) = \frac{2x}{3x^2+x+1}$ is *decreasing*, i.e., [2ex] $f'(x) = -\frac{6x^2-2}{(3x^2+x+1)^2} < 0$, $\forall x > 1/\sqrt{3}$ [2ex] and $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} f(x) = 0$.

conditionally, since $\sum \frac{2n}{3n^2+n+1}$ diverges by comparison with $\sum \frac{2}{3n}$

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