## **Math 1432**

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Office Hours:

Mondays 1-2pm,
Fridays noon-1pm
(also available by appointment)

## Class webpage:

http://www.math.uh.edu/~bekki/Math1432.html

Geometric Series Test.  $(r)^n$  conv. when  $|r| \langle 1|$ Basic Divergence Test. if  $l_n \not > 0$  then £ an diverges p-Series Test.  $2 \frac{1}{NP}$  con v. if  $\rho > 1$ Integral Test. if  $\int_{1}^{\infty} f(x) dx$  conv. then  $\int_{1}^{\infty} f(x) dx$  conv. then  $\int_{1}^{\infty} f(x) dx$  conv. Basic Comparison Test. less than conv. converges

Greater than  $\int_{1}^{\infty} f(x) dx$  converges

Limit Comparison Test. Limit Comparison Test.  $\lim_{h \to \infty} \frac{a_h}{b_h} = \frac{1}{2} \lim_{h \to \infty} \frac{a_h}{b_h} \Rightarrow \frac{1}{2} \lim_{h \to \infty} \frac{a_h}{a_h} \Rightarrow \frac{1}{2} \lim_{$  Alternating Series Test for Convergence:  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (-1)^{n-1} b_n > 0$ if  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$  is absolutely convergent if  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} |a_n|$  converges.

$$\sum_{n=1}^\infty a_n$$
 is conditionally convergent if  $\sum_{n=1}^\infty a_n$  converges but  $\sum_{n=1}^\infty |a_n|$  diverges.

(Note: a non-alternating series can never converge conditionally)

## Popper 26

Popper 26

1. 
$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^n}{2n^2} \leftarrow \frac{1}{2n^2} \rightarrow 0 \implies conv.$$
(a.) converges absolutely
b. converges conditionally

CK for  $abs: \frac{1}{2n^2} = \frac{1}{2n^2}$ 

- - diverges

2. 
$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{2n+1}{5n^2+2n}$$
 ~  $\frac{1}{2}$ 

- a. converges
- b. diverges

3. 
$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{3n+1}{5n^3+2n} \sim \frac{1}{2} \frac{1}{n^2}$$

- a. converges
- b. diverges

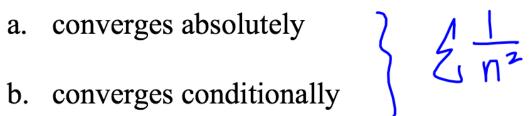
4. 
$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{n}{3^n}$$

- a. converges
- b. diverges

- a. converges absolutely ?  $\frac{1}{2}$
- b. converges conditionally
- c. diverges

6. 
$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{\left(-1\right)^{n+1} arctan(n)}{n^2}$$

$$\frac{2}{N^2} \left(\frac{-1}{N^2}\right)^{n+1}$$



7. 
$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{n \cos(n\pi)}{2^n}$$

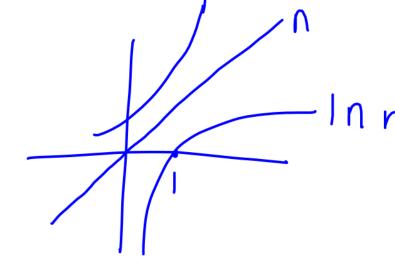
$$\frac{\Lambda}{2^n} \to 0$$

a. converges absolutely 
$$\begin{cases} & & & \\ & & \\ & & \\ \end{cases}$$
 b. converges conditionally

$$\frac{1}{2^n}$$

8. 
$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{n cos(n\pi)}{n^2 + 1}$$

9. 
$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{\ln n}{n} > 2 \frac{1}{n}$$



- a. converges
- b) diverges

10. 
$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^n \ln n}{n} \longrightarrow 0$$

- a converges
- b. diverges

Notes for series "growth":

Let p(k) be a polynomial in k. (k to a power (const))  $r^k$  for r > 1 grows much faster than p(k) at  $2^K$  grows faster k! grows much faster than  $r^k$ , p(k) than  $k^5$  k grows much faster than the others

$$\sum \frac{p(k)}{r_{.}^{k}}$$
,  $\sum \frac{p(k)}{k!}$ ,  $\sum \frac{p(k)}{k^{k}}$ 

$$\sum \frac{r^k}{k!}$$
,  $\sum \frac{r^k}{k^k}$ ,  $\sum \frac{k!}{k^k}$ 

ALL converge rapidly.

## **Power Series:**

Suppose that 
$$f(x) = \frac{6}{1-x}$$
.  $\frac{1}{1-x}$ 

If you divide 1 - x into 6, you get a "polynomial" that continues forever.

n=0

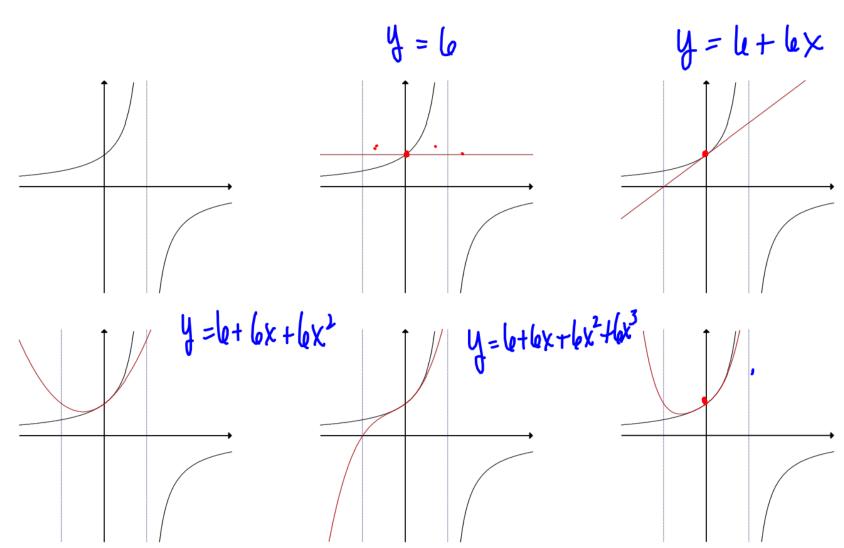
This result is a power series.

The word series indicates that there is an infinite number of terms.

The word power tells us that each term contains a power of x.

The series is also a geometric series, with |r|=x, so the series will converge for |x| < 1.

By comparing the graphs of  $f(x) = \frac{6}{1-x}$  and P(x) with more and more terms, you will see that between -1 and 1 (the interval of convergence), the two graphs converge.



A Power Series (centered at x=0) is a series of the form

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} c_n x^n = c_0 + c_1 x + c_2 x^2 + c_3 x^3 + c_4 x^4 + \dots$$

where x is a variable and the  $c_n$ 's are coefficients.

Note: 
$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} x^n = \frac{1}{1-x} \text{ when } |x| < 1$$

Using this, we can write functions in this form in sigma notation:

Ex: Write 
$$\frac{x^2}{4-x^2}$$
 as its power series
$$= \chi^{a} \left( \begin{array}{c} \frac{1}{4-x^2} \\ \frac{1}{4-x^2} \end{array} \right) = \frac{\chi^{2}}{4} \left( \begin{array}{c} \frac{1}{1-x^2} \\ \frac{1}{1-x^2} \\ \frac{1}{4} \end{array} \right) = \frac{\chi^{2}}{4} \left( \begin{array}{c} \frac{1}{4} \\ \frac{1}{4} \end{array} \right)$$

$$= \frac{\chi^{2}}{4} \left( \begin{array}{c} \frac{1}{4} \\ \frac{1}{4} \end{array} \right) = \frac{\chi^{2}}{4^{n+1}} \left( \begin{array}{c} \frac{1}{4} \\ \frac{1}{4} \end{array} \right)$$

For a **fixed** x, the series is a series of constants and we can check for convergence/divergence. The series may converge for some values of x and diverge for others.

The sum of the series is

$$f(x) = c_0 + c_1 x + c_2 x^2 + c_3 x^3 + c_4 x^4 + ... + c_n x^n + ...$$
  
whose domain is the set of all x for which the series converges.

f(x) resembles a polynomial, but it has infinitely many terms.

Let  $c_n = 1$  for all n, we get the geometric series, centered at x = 0,

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} x^n = 1 + x + x^2 + x^3 + x^4 + \dots + x^n + \dots$$

which converges if |x| < 1 and diverges if  $|x| \ge 1$ .

A Power Series (centered at x=a) is a series of the form

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} c_n (x-a)^n = c_0 + c_1 (x-a) + c_2 (x-a)^2 + c_3 (x-a)^3 + \dots$$

For notation purposes,  $(x-a)^0 = 1$  even when x = a.

When x = a, all the terms are 0 for  $n \ge 1$ , so the power series always converges when x = a.

Ex. For what values of x is the series convergent?

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} n! x^n$$

$$2 \frac{1}{2^n}$$

$$1 \times x = \frac{1}{2}$$

$$3 \times x = \frac{1}{2}$$

Same thing

For a given power series 
$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} c_n (x-a)^n$$
 there are only 3 possibilities.

- 1. The series converges only when x = a.
- 2. The series converges for all x.
- 3. There is a positive number R such that the series converges if  $|x-a| \le R$  and diverges if |x-a| > R.

R is the radius of convergence.

The interval of convergence of a power series is the interval that consists of all values of x for which the series converges absolutely. Check endpoints (endpoints may converge absolutely or conditionally)!

Find the interval of convergence for 
$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(x-3)^n}{n}$$
.

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

$$\lim_{N\to\infty} \left(\frac{|x-3|^n}{N}\right)^{y_n} = \lim_{N\to\infty} \frac{|x-3|}{N^{y_n}} \rightarrow \frac{|x-3|}{N}$$

Conv. if 
$$\frac{|x-3|}{|x-3|}$$

(3) CK endpts:

plug endpts into original 
$$\xi$$
.

 $|x-3| < |k=1|$ 
 $|x-3| <$ 

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^{n+1} (x-5)^n}{n2^n} \cdot w^{2n} \cdot \sqrt{\frac{1}{2}} = \lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{|x-5|}{n^{2n}} = \lim_{n \to \infty$$

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \left(\frac{x}{3}\right)^{n}.$$

$$\frac{\text{Dyphyphan}}{-3 \quad 0 \quad 3}$$

$$\left(-3,3\right)$$

$$\text{Root: } \lim_{n \to \infty} \left(\frac{|x|^{n}}{3^{n}}\right)^{1/n} = \lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{|x|}{3} = \frac{|x|}{3}$$

$$\frac{|x|}{3} < |\Rightarrow|x| < 3$$

endpts:  

$$x = -3$$
  $\frac{1}{2} \left( \frac{-3}{3} \right)^n = \frac{1}{2} \left( \frac{-1}{1} \right)^n$  duv  
 $\frac{1}{2} \left( \frac{3}{3} \right)^n = \frac{1}{2} \left( \frac{1}{1} \right)^n$  div.

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{\left(-1\right)^{n+1} x^{2n+1}}{\left(2n+1\right)!}.$$

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} n!(x-3)^n.$$

Power series are continuous functions.

A power series is continuous on its interval of convergence.

If a power series centered at x = a has a radius of convergence R > 0, then the power series can be differentiated and integrated on (a - R, a + R), and the new series will converge on (a - R, a + R), and maybe at the endpoints.