

geometric series

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} ar^n$$

a = start number r = ratio

Converges to $\frac{a}{1-r}$ when $|r| < 1$

Prove ① Every decimal converges to a Real number.

PF set $a_n = \frac{d_n}{10^n}$ $b_n = \frac{9}{10^n}$ ← b/c that's biggest digit we can have

$0 \leq a_n \leq b_n \forall n$ $\sum b_n = \sum \frac{9}{10^n}$ geometric series with $r = \frac{1}{10}$ b_n conv. b/c $|r| < 1$

By comparison test, a_n converges.

Review Session

Series with sign changes

Two Theorems

① If $\sum |a_n|$ converges, then $\sum a_n$ converges.

② (ALT series test) if $b_n \downarrow 0$, then $\sum (-1)^n b_n$ converges

$\sum a_n$	$\sum a_n $	$\sum a_n$
conv	conv	conv abs
conv	DIV	conv. conditionally
DIV	DIV	DIV

Strategy to classify $\sum a_n$

- ① Examine $\sum |a_n|$, if conv, done
if $|a_n| \neq 0$, then $a_n \not\rightarrow 0$ then $\sum a_n$ DIV (nth term)
- otherwise we know $\sum a_n$ either DIV or conv conditionally
- ② if ALT series applies, $\sum a_n$ conv conditionally
Otherwise, CRy

$\sum a_n$	$\sum b_n$	$\sum (a_n + b_n)$
conv. abs	conv abs	conv. abs.
conv. abs	DIV	DIV
conv. cond	DIV	conv cond. or abs (if $a_n = -b_n$)
conv. cond	conv abs	conv. cond

→ PFB $\sum a_n, \sum b_n$ conv $\Rightarrow \sum a_n + b_n$ conv.

Suppose, for nefarious purpose (contrary), $\sum |a_n + b_n|$ conv.

We also know $\sum -b_n$ conv. ABS.

So $\sum (a_n + b_n) + (-b_n) = \sum a_n$ should mean that $\sum a_n$ converges absolutely. $\Rightarrow \Leftarrow$.

$\therefore \sum a_n + b_n$ conv. conditionally. \square

$$\textcircled{1} * \sum_{n=2}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^n}{\ln(\ln(\ln n))}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \ln n &< n \\ \ln(\ln n) &< \ln n < n \\ \ln(\ln(\ln n)) &< \ln(\ln n) < n \end{aligned}$$

$$\frac{1}{\ln(\ln(\ln n))} > \frac{1}{n} \quad \text{so DIV by comparison}$$

but * conv. by alt. series test, so conv conditionally

$$\textcircled{2} \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^n n^2}{3n^2 + 5n + 7}$$

DIV by nth term test

$$\textcircled{3} \sum \frac{1}{\cos(n)} \quad \text{DIV}$$

Review Session: chp 4

* Most Important: Defn of Limit, continuous

Defn f is continuous @ a if given $\epsilon > 0$, $\exists \delta > 0$ s.t. $|f(x) - f(a)| < \epsilon$ whenever $|x - a| < \delta$.

Defn $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = L$ Given $\epsilon > 0$, $\exists \delta > 0$ s.t. when $0 < |x - a| < \delta$, $|f(x) - L| < \epsilon$

Computations

① $\lim_{x \rightarrow 3} 5x + 2 = 17$

② $\lim_{x \rightarrow 3} x^2 = 9$ $f(x) = x^2$ $L = 9$ $a = 3$

Scratch

$|x^2 - 9| < \epsilon$ $|x^2 - 9| = |(x+3)(x-3)| \leq |x+3| |x-3|$ we know we can
 $\rightarrow -1 < x-3 < 1 \rightarrow 2 < x < 4 \rightarrow 5 < x+3 < 7$ control $x-3$ so
 $|x-3| < 1$ so $|x+3| < 7$ $|x^2 - 9| \leq 7|x-3| < \epsilon$ $|x-3| < \frac{\epsilon}{7}$

Given $\epsilon > 0$. Take $\delta = \min(1, \frac{\epsilon}{7})$.

Assume $|x - 3| < \delta$. Then $|x - 3| < 1$ and $|x - 3| < \frac{\epsilon}{7}$.

Since $|x - 3| < 1$ we know $|x + 3| < 7$. So

$|x^2 - 9| = |x + 3| |x - 3| < 7 |x - 3| < 7(\frac{\epsilon}{7}) = \epsilon$

OR

$|x + 3| = |(x - 3) + 6| \leq |x - 3| + 6 < 1 + 6 = 7$

Computing the limit using definition

$$\textcircled{1} \quad \lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = L \quad \lim_{x \rightarrow a} g(x) = M$$

$$\text{then } \lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) + g(x) = L + M$$

Theorems for chp. 4

- ① Intermediate Value Theorem: solve ineq. or show f has solutions
- ② Max Value \rightarrow closed interval
- ③ Rolle's Theorem
- ④ Mean Value
- ⑤ Generalized Mean Value Theorem

Prove $x^5 + x^3 = 79$ has a solution that is unique

$$f(x) = x^5 + x^3 - 79 \text{ cont.}$$

$$f(0) = -79$$

\therefore by intermediate value theorem we know

$$f(5) = +$$

it has a solution

- the solution is unique b/c $f'(x) = 5x^4 + 3x^2 > 0$
- so it will ALWAYS be positive and by Rolle's Theorem it has to be unique.

Review Session: chp 5

Definitions

- ① Taylor or Maclaurin Polynomials
- ② " " " " Series
- ③ n'th remainder $r_n(x) = f(x) - p_n(x)$

Theorems

Taylor's - start with f @ pt. a .

- ① @ a : $p_n^{(k)}(a) = f^{(k)}(a)$ for $k=0, \dots, n$
- ② near a : $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} \frac{f(x) - p_n(x)}{(x-a)^n} = 0$
- ③ Error quantification: $r_n(x) = \frac{f^{(n+1)}(c)(x-a)^{n+1}}{(n+1)!}$ where c btwn a & x

Computations

chasing

Approximate $\sin(1)$

- a) Use 5th deg mac polynomial to approx. $\sin(1)$.

$$f(x) = \sin x \quad a=0 \quad x=1$$

$$\text{Mac series for } \sin x \sim \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^n x^{2n+1}}{(2n+1)!} = x - \frac{x^3}{6} + \frac{x^5}{120} + \dots$$

$$p_5(x) = x - \frac{x^3}{6} + \frac{x^5}{120}$$

$$\sin(1) = f_1(1) \sim p_5(1) = 1 - \frac{1}{6} + \frac{1}{120}$$

- b) Give an upper bound for error in (a)

$$|r_5(x)| = \frac{f^{(6)}(c) x^6}{6!} \quad |r_5(1)| = \left| \frac{\sin c(1)}{6!} \right| < \frac{1}{6!} = \frac{1}{720} < .01 < 10^{-2}$$

c) Efficient method to find estimate of $\sin(1)$
with error $< 10^{-5}$

$$r_n(x) = \frac{f^{(n+1)}(c) (x-a)^{n+1}}{(n+1)!}$$

$$r_n(1) = \frac{f^{(n+1)}(c) (1-a)^{n+1}}{(n+1)!} \quad \text{since } a=0 \text{ then } (1)^{n+1} = 1$$

hey!

$$r_n(1) = \frac{\sin^{(n+1)}(c)}{(n+1)!} \leq \frac{1}{(n+1)!} \quad \text{WANT } \frac{1}{10^5}$$

hey!

$$(n+1)! > 10^5$$

hey!

$$9! > 10^5 \quad \boxed{n=8}$$

① $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} 3^n (x-4)^n$ We know

Review Session: Chp. 5

① $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} 3^n (x-4)^n$ we know $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} y^n \sim \frac{1}{1-y}$
 $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (3(x-4))^n \sim \frac{1}{1-(3(x-4))}$ • substitution

② $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{x^n}{2^n} = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \left(\frac{x}{2}\right)^n = \frac{1}{1-\frac{x}{2}} = \frac{2}{2-x}$ • substitution

③ $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} n x^{n-1}$ • this is derivative of x^n so
take derivative of $\frac{1}{1-x}$

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} n x^{n-1} \sim \frac{1}{(1-x)^2}$$

④ $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} n x^n \sim \frac{x}{(1-x)^2}$ • multiply ③ by x

⑤ $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} n^2 x^n$ • when we take derivative of $n x^n$
we get $n^2 x^{n-1}$

$$f(x) = \frac{x}{(1-x)^2} \quad f'(x) = \frac{(1-x)^2(1) + (x)(2)(1-x)}{(1-x)^4} = \frac{1+x}{(1-x)^3}$$

• Now we multiply by x

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} n^2 x^n \sim \frac{x + x^2}{(1-x)^3}$$

$$\textcircled{6} \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{x^n}{n} = x + \frac{x^2}{2} + \frac{x^3}{3} + \dots \quad \cdot \text{integrate}$$

$$\int x^n = \frac{x^{n+1}}{n+1} = \frac{x^n}{n}$$

$$\int \frac{1}{1-x} dx = -\ln(1-x)$$

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{x^n}{n} \sim -\ln(1-x)$$

$$\textcircled{7} \sum \frac{x^n}{n^2} = \frac{x}{1} + \frac{x^2}{4} + \frac{x^3}{9} + \dots \quad \textcircled{1} \text{ divide } \frac{x^n}{n} \text{ by } x$$

$$\frac{\sum \frac{x^n}{n}}{x} = \sum \frac{x^{n-1}}{n} = 1 + \frac{x}{2} + \frac{x^2}{3} + \frac{x^3}{3} \dots \quad \cdot \text{now we can integrate}$$

$$= \frac{-\ln(1-x)}{x}$$

$$\int \frac{-\ln(1-x)}{x}$$

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{x^n}{n^2} = \int_0^x \frac{-\ln(1-t)}{t} dt$$

$$\sum \frac{t^{n-1}}{n} \sim \frac{-\ln(1-t)}{t}$$

$$\int_0^x \sum \frac{t^{n-1}}{n} \sim \int_0^x \frac{-\ln(1-t)}{t} dt$$

$$\sum \int_0^x \frac{t^{n-1}}{n} dt \quad \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{t^n}{n^2} \Big|_0^x = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{x^n}{n^2}$$