

Math 121A Spring 2015

Homework 1 SolutionsSection 1.1

- (12) The amount of impurity removed after k stages is

$$S_k = \frac{1}{n} + \frac{1}{n^2} + \dots + \frac{1}{n^k}$$

As the process goes on, the amount of impurity removed approaches

$$S = \lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} S_k = \frac{1}{n} + \frac{1}{n^2} + \dots$$

$$= \frac{1/n}{1 - 1/n} \quad \text{since}$$

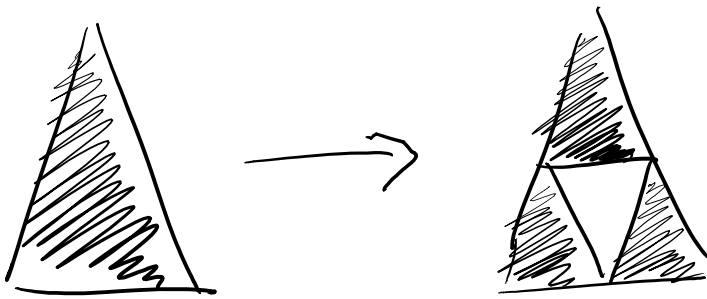
this is a geometric series.

For $n=2$: $S = \frac{1/2}{1 - 1/2} = \underline{1}$

So by taking large enough k we get as close to 1 as we want.

for $n=3$: $S = \frac{1/3}{1 - 1/3} = \frac{1}{2}$, so $\frac{1}{2}$ will always remain.

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At each step, $\frac{1}{4}$ of the total nonblank area is removed (since $\frac{1}{4}$ of each triangle is removed). So the sequence of non blank areas is

$$1, \frac{3}{4}, \left(\frac{3}{4}\right)^2, \dots, \left(\frac{3}{4}\right)^n, \dots$$

The corresponding blank areas removed are

$$\frac{1}{4}, \frac{1}{4} \left(\frac{3}{4}\right), \frac{1}{4} \left(\frac{3}{4}\right)^2, \dots, \frac{1}{4} \left(\frac{3}{4}\right)^n \dots$$

So the total blank area is

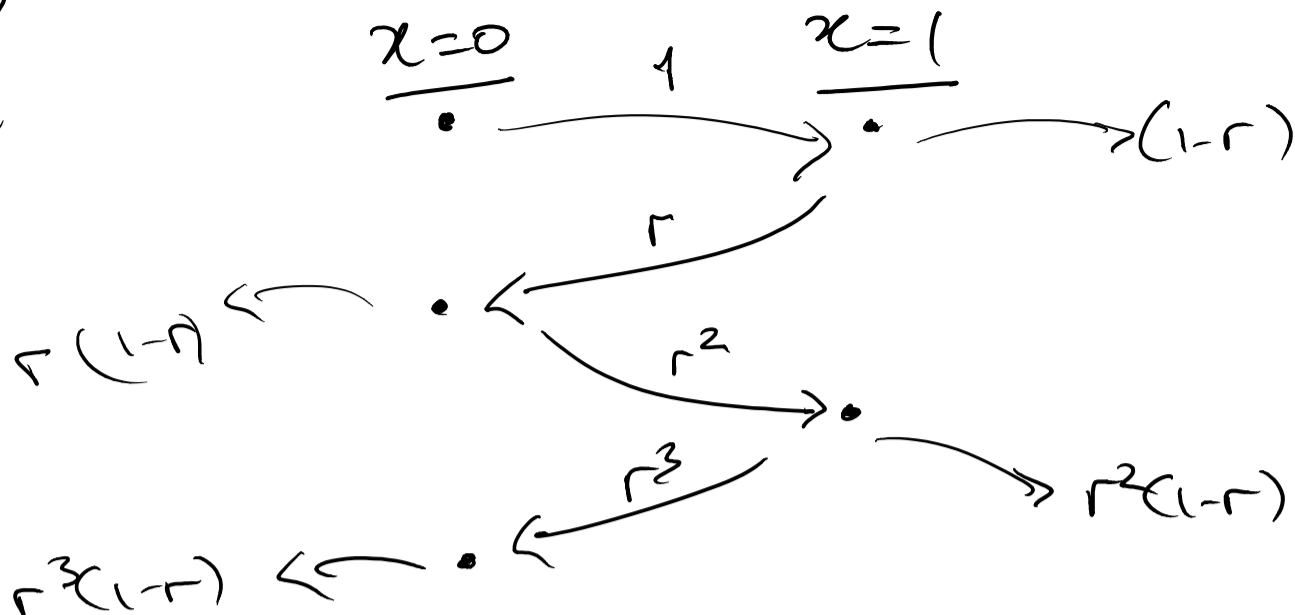
$$\frac{1}{4} \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \left(\frac{3}{4}\right)^n = \frac{1}{4} \frac{1}{1-\frac{3}{4}} = \underline{\underline{\frac{1}{4}}}$$

This makes sense since the non-blank area tends to zero as $n \rightarrow \infty$:

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left(\frac{3}{4}\right)^n = 0.$$

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Time
↓



The fractions of particles arriving
 at $x=1$ at odd time steps
 (starting at time = 1) are

$$1, r^2, r^4, \dots$$

So the total # particles escaping at
 $x=1$ is

$$S = (1-r) + (1-r)r^2 + (1-r)r^4 \dots$$

this is a geometric series where
 each successive term is multiplied by r^2 ,

$$\text{so } S = (1-r) \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (r^2)^n = \frac{(1-r)}{1-r^2}$$

$$= \frac{1}{1+r}$$

Similarly at $x=0$ we have

$$S' = (1-r)r + (1-r)r^3 + \dots$$

$$= (1-r)r \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (r^2)^n = \frac{(1-r)r}{1-r^2} = \frac{r}{1+r}$$

Section 2

④ There are many ways to do this.
Here is one:

Observe that $2^n > n^3$
for $n \geq 10$: $2^{10} = 1024$
whereas $10^3 = 1000$, and after
this the left hand side doubles
each time we increment n ,
while the right hand side
increases by $\left(\frac{n+1}{n}\right)^3 < 2$.

Thus $\frac{2^n}{n^2} > n$ for $n \geq 10$

and $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{2^n}{n^2} \geq \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} n = \infty$

⑥ Observe that

$$\frac{n^n}{n!} = \frac{n \cdot n \cdot n \cdots n \cdot n}{n \cdot (n-1) \cdot (n-2) \cdots 2 \cdot 1}$$

$$= \left(\frac{n}{n}\right) \left(\frac{n}{n-1}\right) \left(\frac{n}{n-2}\right) \cdots \left(\frac{n}{2}\right) \left(\frac{n}{1}\right)$$

$$\geq 1 \cdot 1 \cdot 1 \cdots \left(\frac{n}{1}\right) = n.$$

$$\text{So } \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{n^n}{n!} \geq \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} n = \infty.$$

Note: All logarithms are base e , so $\log n = \ln n$.

⑦ The $\frac{1}{\log n}$ in the exponent seems

strange, so instead of considering

$$a_n = (1+n^2)^{\frac{1}{\log n}} \quad \text{we consider}$$

the sequence

$$b_n = \log(a_n) = \frac{1}{\log n} \log(1+n^2).$$

Since \log is a continuous function,

$$\begin{aligned} \text{we have } \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} b_n &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \log(a_n) \\ &= \log\left(\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n\right). \end{aligned}$$

We now evaluate

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\log(1+n^2)}{\log n}$$

$$= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\log n^2}{\log n} + \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left[\frac{\log(1+n^2) - \log n^2}{\log n} \right]$$

$$= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{2 \log n}{\log n} + \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\log\left(\frac{1+n^2}{n^2}\right)}{\log n}$$

$$= 2 + \frac{\log 1}{\log n} = \underline{\underline{2}}$$

Thus $\log(\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n) = 2$

So $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = \underline{\underline{e^2}}$.

⑧ Observe that

$$\frac{(n!)^2}{(2n)!} = \frac{(n(n-1)\cdots 2\cdot 1) \cancel{(n!)}}{(2n)(2n-1)\cdots(n+1) \cancel{n!}}$$

$$= \left(\frac{n}{2n}\right) \cdot \left(\frac{n-1}{2n-1}\right) \cdot \left(\frac{n-2}{2n-2}\right) \cdots \left(\frac{2}{n+2}\right) \cdot \left(\frac{1}{n+1}\right)$$

$$\leq \frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{1}{2} \cdots \frac{1}{2} = \frac{1}{2^n}$$

Since each term in the product is $\leq \frac{1}{2}$.

$$\text{Thus } \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{(n!)^2}{(2n)!} \leq \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{2^n} = 0.$$

Section 5

② The terms are $a_n = \frac{\sqrt{n+1}}{n}$,

beginning with $n=1$.

$$\text{Since } \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\sqrt{n+1}}{n} = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sqrt{\frac{n+1}{n^2}} = 0,$$

further testing is required.

(11)

By the definition of partial sums,
we have

$$S_n - S_{n-1} = a_n.$$

Taking limits of both sides, we have

$$\begin{aligned}\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} S_n - S_{n-1} \\ &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} S_n - \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} S_{n-1}\end{aligned}$$

since both limits exist

$$= S - S = 0.$$

(the point here is that changing the index
 n to $(n-1)$ doesn't change the limit :
 $n \rightarrow \infty$ is the same thing as $(n-1) \rightarrow \infty$)

Section 6

Ignore the book's comments about not
using lower limits. Instead, just use
however large a lower limit you want.

This is ok because the convergence of
a series is unaffected by any finite
number of initial terms.

⑦

$$\text{Since } \frac{d}{dx} \log \log x = \frac{1}{\log x} \cdot \frac{1}{x}$$

$$\text{we have } \int_a^{\infty} \frac{1}{x \log x} dx$$

$$= \log \log x \Big|_a^{\infty}$$

$$= \infty, \text{ taking any } a > 1 \text{ (say).}$$

(The reason we need sufficiently large a is that $\log \log 1 = \log 0 = -\infty$).

$$\text{⑮ When } \underline{p \geq 1}: \int_1^{\infty} \frac{1}{x^p} dx = \frac{1}{(p+1)} \frac{1}{x^{p-1}} \Big|_1^{\infty}$$
$$= \frac{1}{p-1}$$

So convergent.

$$\underline{p < 1} \int_1^{\infty} \frac{1}{x^p} dx = \frac{x^{1-p}}{1-p} \Big|_1^{\infty}$$
$$= \infty$$

So divergent.

When $p = 1$

$$\int_1^{\infty} \frac{1}{x} dx = \log x \Big|_1^{\infty}$$

$$= \infty$$

So diverges.

(17)

Since $0 \leq e^{-x^2} \leq e^{-x} \quad \forall x \geq 1$,
we have

$$\int_1^{\infty} e^{-x^2} dx \leq \int_1^{\infty} e^{-x} dx$$

$$= -e^{-x} \Big|_1^{\infty}$$

$$= e$$

So $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} e^{-n^2}$ converges.

(25)

The ratios of successive terms
tend to

$$\rho = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{e^{n+1}}{\sqrt{(n+1)!}} \cdot \frac{\sqrt{n!}}{e^n} \right|$$

$$= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{e}{\sqrt{n+1}} \right| \rightarrow 0$$

so converges.

$$(28) \quad \rho = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{(n+1)! (2n+2)!}{(3n+3)!} \cdot \frac{(3n)!}{n! (2n)!} \right|$$

$$= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{(n+1)(2n+2)(2n+1)}{(3n+3)(3n+2)(3n+1)} \right|$$

$$= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{4n^3 + O(n^2)}{27n^3 + O(n^2)} \right|$$

See the handout for Lecture 5 if you don't understand $O(\cdot)$ notation.

$$= \frac{4}{27} \quad \text{so the series converges.}$$

(30) $\rho > 1$ Case

$$\text{Suppose } \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{a_{n+1}}{a_n} \right| = \rho < 1.$$

Let σ be any number such that

$$\rho < \sigma < 1, \text{ let } \epsilon = |\sigma - \rho|.$$

By the definition of a limit, there is some finite N such that

$$\left| \left| \frac{a_{n+1}}{a_n} \right| - \rho \right| < \epsilon$$

for all $n \geq N$. In particular, this implies

$$\left| \frac{a_{n+1}}{a_n} \right| < \rho + \epsilon = \sigma \text{ for all } n \geq N.$$

We now use this N to split the series into two parts:

$$\begin{aligned}\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n &= \sum_{n=1}^N a_n + \sum_{n=N+1}^{\infty} a_n \\ &= S_N + R_N.\end{aligned}$$

S_N is a finite sum so it is equal to a finite number.

R_N is a series, the "tail" of $\sum a_n$, and by our choice of N we know that its terms satisfy

$$|a_{N+2}| \leq \sigma |a_{N+1}|$$

$$|a_{N+3}| \leq \sigma |a_{N+2}| \leq \sigma^2 |a_{N+1}|$$

$$|a_{N+k}| \leq \sigma^{k-1} |a_{N+1}|$$

We will show that R_N converges absolutely. Since $|a_{N+k}| \leq \sigma^{k-1} |a_{N+1}|$, we apply the comparison test with the geometric series

$$\begin{aligned}Q &= |a_{N+1}| + |a_{N+1}| \sigma + |a_{N+1}| \sigma^2 \\ &\quad \dots = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} |a_{N+1}| \sigma^{k-1}\end{aligned}$$

Since $\sigma < 1$, we know that the geometric series converges.

Thus, $R_N = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} a_{N+k}$ converges absolutely,

and $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$ also converges.

$\rho > 1$ case : Let $\sigma \in (1, \rho)$.

By a similar argument as before, choose N so that $\left| \frac{a_{n+1}}{a_n} \right| \geq \sigma$ for all $n \geq N$.

In particular, this means

$$|a_{N+2}| \geq \sigma |a_{N+1}|$$

\vdots

$$|a_{N+k}| \geq \sigma^{k-1} |a_{N+1}|$$

for all k .

But now $\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} |a_{N+k}| \geq \lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} |a_{N+1}| \sigma^{k-1} = \infty$

So by the preliminary test the series diverges.

(35) We will compare this to the series $b_n = \frac{1}{n^2}$.

Observe that:

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left| \left(\frac{(n - \log n)^2}{5n^4 - 3n^2 + 1} \right) / \left(\frac{1}{n^2} \right) \right|$$

$$= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{n^2 - 2n \log n + \log^2 n}{5n^2 - 3 + \frac{1}{n^2}} \right|$$

$$= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{1 - \frac{2 \log n}{n} + \frac{\log^2 n}{n^2}}{5 - \frac{3}{n^2} + \frac{1}{n^4}} \right|$$

$$= \frac{1}{5}.$$

Since $\sum_{n=3}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^2}$ converges, the given series must also converge.

Section 7

④ The terms are alternating, so we check that they are:

decreasing $\left| \frac{3^{n+1}}{(n+1)!} \right| < \left| \frac{3^n}{n!} \right|$

$$\Leftrightarrow \frac{1}{n+1} \leq \frac{1}{3}$$

which is true for $n \geq 2$

approaching zero:

Observe that

$$\begin{aligned} \left| \frac{3^n}{n!} \right| &= \left| \frac{3 \cdot 3 \cdot 3 \cdots 3 \cdot 3 \cdot 3}{n \cdot (n-1) \cdots 3 \cdot 2 \cdot 1} \right| \\ &= \frac{9}{2} \left| \frac{3}{n} \right| \cdot \left| \frac{3}{n-1} \right| \cdots \left| \frac{3}{4} \right| \cdot \left| \frac{3}{3} \right| \\ &\leq \frac{9}{2} \left| \frac{3}{n} \right| = \frac{27}{2n} \rightarrow 0 \end{aligned}$$

as $n \rightarrow \infty$.

Thus we can apply the alternating test and the series converges.

⑨ Suppose $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} |a_n|$ converges.

Let $b_n = a_n + |a_n|$, guaranteeing that $b_n \geq 0$.

Since $b_n = a_n + |a_n| \leq 2|a_n|$,
and $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} 2|a_n| = 2 \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} |a_n|$ converges,

we can apply the comparison test to conclude that $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} b_n$ converges.

But the term-wise difference of two convergent series is convergent so

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (b_n - |a_n|) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$$

must also converge.

Section 9

⑨ We showed in section 2 problem 6

$$\text{that } \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{n^n}{n!} = \infty.$$

Thus, this series diverges by the

Thus, this series diverges by the preliminary test.

(16) Observe that

$$a_n = \frac{2 + (-1)^n}{n^2 + 7} \leq \frac{3}{n^2}$$

for all $n \geq 1$.

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

converges, the comparison test tells us that $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$ also converges.

(17) Apply the ratio test:

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{((n+1)!)^3}{(3n+3)!} \cdot \frac{(3n)!}{(n!)^3} \right|$$

$$= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{(n+1)^3}{(3n+3)(3n+2)(3n+1)} \right|$$

$$= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{n^3 + O(n^2)}{27n^3 + O(n^2)} \right|$$

$$= \frac{1}{27} < 1$$

So the series converges.

(21) Ratio test:

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{a_{n+1}}{a_n} \right| = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{n}{2n+3} \right|$$
$$= \frac{1}{2} < 1$$

So it converges.

Extra Problem (#7)

Suppose $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$ is given.

Consider the sequence

$$b_0 = a_1$$

$$b_1 = a_2 + a_3$$

$$b_2 = a_4 + a_5 + a_6 + a_7$$

\vdots

$$b_k = a_{2^k} + \dots + a_{2^{k+1}-1}$$

Since each partial sum of $\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} b_k$ is a partial sum of the original

sequence: $\sum_{k=0}^N b_k = \sum_{n=1}^{2^{N+1}-1} a_n$,

and the partial sums are nondecreasing,

they must converge to the same limit, and we conclude that

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n \text{ converges if } \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} b_k$$

converges.

We now observe that

$$b_k = \underbrace{a_{2^k} + a_{2^k+1} + \dots + a_{2^{k+1}-1}}_{2^k \text{ terms}}$$

$$\leq 2^k a_{2^k} \quad \text{since the terms are decreasing.}$$

Thus, by the comparison test,

$$\text{if } \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} 2^k a_{2^k} \text{ converges, then}$$

$$\text{so must } \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} b_k \text{ and thereby } \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n.$$

On the other hand, observe that

$$b_k = a_{2^k} + a_{2^{k+1}} + \dots + a_{2^{k+1}-1}$$

$$\geq 2^k a_{2^{k+1}-1} \geq 2^k a_{2^{k+1}}$$

because a_n is decreasing.

Thus, by another comparison test

$$\text{If } \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} 2^k a_{2^{k+1}}$$

diverges, then $\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} b_k$ diverges.

$$\text{But } \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} 2^k a_{2^{k+1}}$$

$$= \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} 2^{k-1} a_{2^k}$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} 2^k a_{2^k}$$

□

Applying this transformation to $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n}$

we get

$$\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} 2^k a_{2^k}$$

$$= \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} 2^k \frac{1}{2^k} = 1+1+1 \dots$$

which clearly diverges.

In the case of $\sum_{n=3}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n \log n}$, we

ignore the first 2 terms and get: $\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} 2^k \frac{1}{2^k \log(2^k)}$

$$= \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{k \log 2}$$

which also diverges.

However, for $\sum_{n=3}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n(\log n)^2}$ we get

$$\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} 2^k \frac{1}{2^k (\log 2^k)^2} = \sum \frac{1}{k^2 \log^2 2}$$

which converges.