## Absolute Convergence and Conditional Convergence

We have discussed the notation of the convergence of series of numbers. Let's talk about a stronger version of convergence.

**Definition** (c.f. Definition 9.1.1). Let  $(x_n)$  be a sequence of real numbers. The series  $\sum x_n$  is said to *converge absolutely* if the series  $\sum |x_n|$  is convergent. It is said to *converge conditionally* if it is convergent but not absolutely convergent.

The following theorem is a quick deduction from the **Cauchy Criterion of Series** and the **triangle inequality**.

**Theorem** (c.f. Theorem 9.1.2). A series must be convergent if it is absolutely convergent.

Example 1. Observe the following examples.

• Every convergent series with non-negative terms is absolutely convergent. For example,

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^2}, \quad \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{2^n} \quad \text{and} \quad \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{|\cos n|}{n^2}.$$

- The series  $\sum \frac{\cos n}{n^2}$  is absolutely convergent from the discussion in the previous tutorial.
- The (alternating harmonic) series  $\sum (-1)^{n+1}/n$  is conditionally convergent. Since the harmonic series is divergent, it suffices to show that this series is convergent. Note that

$$s_{2n} = \left(1 - \frac{1}{2}\right) + \left(\frac{1}{3} - \frac{1}{4}\right) + \dots + \left(\frac{1}{2n - 1} - \frac{1}{2n}\right)$$
$$s_{2n+1} = 1 - \left(\frac{1}{2} - \frac{1}{3}\right) - \left(\frac{1}{4} - \frac{1}{5}\right) - \dots - \left(\frac{1}{2n} - \frac{1}{2n + 1}\right)$$

Thus  $(s_{2n})$  is an increasing sequence and  $(s_{2n+1})$  is a decreasing sequence with

$$0 < s_{2n} < s_{2n+1} < 1.$$

By Monotone Convergence Theorem, both subsequences are convergent. Moreover, they converge to the same value  $\alpha$  because

$$s_{2n+1} = s_{2n} + \frac{1}{2n+1}.$$

Then for any  $\varepsilon > 0$ , there exist  $N_1, N_2 \in \mathbb{N}$  such that

$$|s_{2n} - \alpha| < \varepsilon, \quad \forall n \ge N_1 \quad \text{and} \quad |s_{2n+1} - \alpha| < \varepsilon, \quad \forall n \ge N_2.$$
 (1)

Take  $N = \max\{2N_1, 2N_2 + 1\}$ . Then whenever  $n \ge N$ , by (1), we have

$$\frac{n}{2} \ge \frac{N}{2} \ge N_1 \Longrightarrow |s_n - \alpha| = |s_{2(\frac{n}{2})} - \alpha| < \varepsilon \qquad \text{if } n \text{ is even;}$$
$$\frac{n-1}{2} \ge \frac{N-1}{2} \ge N_2 \Longrightarrow |s_n - \alpha| = |s_{2(\frac{n-1}{2})+1} - \alpha| < \varepsilon \qquad \text{if } n \text{ is odd.}$$

Hence  $|s_n - \alpha| < \varepsilon$  no matter *n* is even or odd. It follows that the alternating harmonic series also converge to  $\alpha$ .

Prepared by Ernest Fan

**Rearrangement Theorem** (c.f. 9.1.5). Let  $\sum x_n$  be an absolutely convergent series. Then for any bijection  $\sigma : \mathbb{N} \to \mathbb{N}$ ,  $\sum x_{\sigma(n)}$  is also convergent and

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} x_{\sigma(n)} = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} x_n.$$

**Remark.** This convergence property is called **unconditional convergence**. The rearrangement theorem says that unconditional convergence is implied by absolute convergence.

## Tests of Absolute Convergence

Last time, we have discussed some test for convergence. Let's recall the **Comparison Test** and see some more tests of absolute convergence.

**Comparison Test** (c.f. 3.7.7). Let  $(x_n)$  and  $(y_n)$  be sequences of real numbers. Suppose there exists  $K \in \mathbb{N}$  such that

$$0 \le x_n \le y_n, \quad \forall n \ge K.$$

Then

- (a) the convergence of  $\sum y_n$  implies the convergence of  $\sum x_n$ .
- (b) the divergence of  $\sum x_n$  implies the divergence of  $\sum y_n$ .

**Root Test** (c.f. 9.2.2). Let  $(x_n)$  be a sequence real numbers.

(a) If there exists r < 1 and  $K \in \mathbb{N}$  such that

$$|x_n|^{1/n} \le r, \quad \forall n \ge K,$$

then  $\sum x_n$  is absolutely convergent.

(b) If there exists  $K \in \mathbb{N}$  such that

$$|x_n|^{1/n} \ge 1, \quad \forall n \ge K,$$

then  $\sum x_n$  is divergent.

**Ratio Test** (c.f. 9.2.4). Let  $(x_n)$  be a sequence of non-zero real numbers.

(a) If there exists r < 1 and  $K \in \mathbb{N}$  such that

$$\left|\frac{x_{n+1}}{x_n}\right| \le r, \quad \forall n \ge K,$$

then  $\sum x_n$  is absolutely convergent.

(b) If there exists  $K \in \mathbb{N}$  such that

$$\left|\frac{x_{n+1}}{x_n}\right| \ge 1, \quad \forall n \ge K,$$

then  $\sum x_n$  is divergent.

Prepared by Ernest Fan

**Integral Test** (c.f. 9.2.6). Let  $f : [1, \infty) \to \mathbb{R}$  be a continuous, decreasing, positive function. Then  $\sum f(n)$  is convergent if and only if the improper integral

$$\int_1^\infty f(x)dx$$

exists. In this case, the limit is given by

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} f(n) = \int_{1}^{\infty} f(x) dx.$$

**Example 2** (c.f. Section 9.2, Ex.9). Let 0 < a < 1 and consider the series

$$a^{2} + a + a^{4} + a^{3} + \dots + a^{2n} + a^{2n-1} + \dots$$

Show that the **Root Test** applies but the **Ratio Test** does not apply.

**Remark.** Notice that the series is a rearrangement of the absolutely convergent geometric series so it must be convergent.

**Solution.** To apply the **Root Test**, we need to estimate  $|x_n|^{1/n}$  for large *n*'s. For even n = 2k,

$$|x_n|^{1/n} = |x_{2k}|^{1/2k} = |a^{2k-1}|^{1/2k} = a^{1-1/2k} = a^{1-1/n}.$$

For odd n = 2k + 1,

$$|x_n|^{1/n} = |x_{2k+1}|^{1/(2k+1)} = |a^{2k+2}|^{1/(2k+1)} = a^{1+1/(2k+1)} = a^{1+1/n}$$

In both cases, we have  $|x_n|^{1/n} = a^{1 \pm 1/n}$ . Hence

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} |x_n|^{1/n} = \lim_{n \to \infty} a^{1 \pm 1/n} = a < 1.$$

Therefore we see that the **Root Test** applies.

To apply the **Ratio Test**, we need to estimate  $\left|\frac{x_{n+1}}{x_n}\right|$  for large *n*'s. For even n = 2k,

$$\left|\frac{x_{n+1}}{x_n}\right| = \left|\frac{x_{2k+1}}{x_{2k}}\right| = \frac{a^{2k+2}}{a^{2k-1}} = a^3 < 1.$$

For odd n = 2k + 1,

$$\left|\frac{x_{n+1}}{x_n}\right| = \left|\frac{x_{2k+2}}{x_{2k+1}}\right| = \frac{a^{2k+1}}{a^{2k+2}} = \frac{1}{a} \ge 1.$$

Hence the sequence  $(|x_{n+1}/x_n|)$  is alternating between  $a^3$  and  $a^{-1}$ , which lie in opposite sides of 1. Therefore we see that the **Ratio Test** does not apply.

**Example 3** (c.f. Section 9.2, Ex.2, 3, 4 & 7). Determine the convergence of the following series.

(a) 
$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} n^n e^{-n}$$
 (c)  $\sum_{n=2}^{\infty} (\ln n)^{-\ln n}$  (e)  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} n! e^{-n^2}$   
(b)  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{n!}{n^n}$  (d)  $\sum_{n=2}^{\infty} (n \ln n)^{-1}$  (f)  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^n n}{n+1}$ 

Solution. Let's check the convergence of the series using suitable tests.

(a) <u>We use the **Root Test** here.</u> Note that

$$|x_n|^{1/n} = |n^n e^{-n}|^{1/n} = \frac{n}{e} \ge 1, \quad \forall n \ge 3$$

Hence the series is **divergent**.

(b) We use the **Ratio Test** here. Note that

$$\left|\frac{x_{n+1}}{x_n}\right| = \frac{(n+1)!/(n+1)^{n+1}}{n!/n^n} = \frac{(n+1)!}{n!} \cdot \frac{n^n}{(n+1)^{n+1}} = \frac{n^n}{(n+1)^n}.$$

Therefore we have

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} \left| \frac{x_{n+1}}{x_n} \right| = \lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{n^n}{(n+1)^n} = \lim_{n \to \infty} \left( 1 + \frac{1}{n} \right)^{-n} = \frac{1}{e} < 1.$$

Hence the series is **convergent**.

(c) We use the **Comparison Test** here. Note that

$$\ln(x_n) = -\ln n \ln(\ln n) \le -2\ln n, \quad \forall n \ge 2000.$$

(Here we want  $\ln(\ln n) \ge 2$ . i.e.,  $n \ge e^{e^2} \approx 1618.17$ .) Hence we have

$$0 \le x_n \le \frac{1}{n^2}, \quad \forall n \ge 2000.$$

Since  $\sum 1/n^2$  is convergent, the series is also **convergent**.

(d) We use the **Integral Test** here. Consider the function  $f: [2, \infty) \to \mathbb{R}$  defined by

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

Then f is a continuous, decreasing, positive function with  $f(n) = x_n$ . Also, the improper integral (if it exists) is given by

$$\int_{2}^{\infty} \frac{1}{x \ln x} dx = \int_{2}^{\infty} \frac{1}{\ln x} d(\ln x) = \ln(\ln x) \Big|_{2}^{\infty}$$

We can see that the improper integral does not exist, therefore the series is **divergent**.

Prepared by Ernest Fan

$$\left|\frac{x_{n+1}}{x_n}\right| = \frac{(n+1)!e^{-(n+1)^2}}{n!e^{-n^2}} = \frac{(n+1)!}{n!} \cdot \frac{e^{n^2}}{e^{(n+1)^2}} = \frac{n+1}{e^{2n+1}}.$$

Apply L'Hospital's Rule, we have

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} \left| \frac{x_{n+1}}{x_n} \right| = \lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{n+1}{e^{2n+1}} = \lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{1}{2e^{2n+1}} = 0 < 1.$$

Hence the series is **convergent**.

(f) We use the *n*-th Term Test here. Note that

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} x_{2n} = \lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{(-1)^{2n} \cdot 2n}{2n+1} = 1 \neq 0.$$

Since we have found a subsequence of  $(x_n)$  that does not converge to 0,  $(x_n)$  must not converge to 0. Hence the series is **divergent**.