Lecture Notes on Infinite Series

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Definition 1 An Infinite Series is an expression of the form $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n = a_1 + a_2 + \dots + a_n + \dots$

Where $a_1, a_2, a_3, ..., a_n, ...$ are called the terms of the series. If we let S_n be the sum of the first n terms of the series then we have the following:

We'll call S_n the n^{th} partial sum of the series. The partial sums form $\{S_n\}_{n=1}^{+\infty}$ - the sequence of partial sums.

Definition 2 Let $\{S_n\}$ be a sequence of partial sums of $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$. If $\{S_n\}$ converges to a limit S_n then the series also converges and S_n .

If $\{S_n\}$ converges to a limit S, then the series also converges and S is called the sum of the series.

$$S = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$$

If $\{S_n\}$ diverges then the series is said to diverge. A divergent series has no sum.

Example 1 Determine if the series 1 - 1 + 1 - 1 + 1 - 1 + ... converges or diverges.

Now, $S_1 = 1, S_2 = 1 - 1 = 0, S_3 = 1, S_4 = 0, e.t.c$ 1, 0, 1, 0, 1, 0, ... is the sequence of partial sums. This sequence is divergent \Rightarrow the given series is divergent.

We'll now look at a class of series called a geometric series.

Definition 3 A geometric series is a series of the form $a + ar + ar^2 + ar^3 + ... + ar^n +$ Where $a \neq 0$ and r is a real number called the ratio of the series.

Theorem 1 A geometric series converges if |r| < 1 and diverges if $|r| \ge 1$. When the series converges the sum is $\frac{a}{1-r}$.

Example 2 $5 + \frac{5}{4} + \frac{5}{4^2} + \frac{5}{4^3} + \frac{5}{4^4} + \dots + \frac{5}{4^{k-1}} + \dots$ is a geometric series with a = 5, and $r = \frac{1}{4}$. \Rightarrow the series converges with sum $= \frac{5}{1-\frac{1}{4}} = \frac{20}{3}$

Example 3 Determine if $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{5^k}$ converges or diverges. If it converges find

the sum.

Well I'll leave this one for you. Just identify it as a geometric series and do what's needed.

Example 4 Determine if the series $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{k(k+1)}$ converges or diverges. If it converges find its sum. Here, $S_n = \sum_{k=1}^n \frac{1}{k(k+1)} = \frac{1}{1 \cdot 2} + \frac{1}{2 \cdot 3} + \frac{1}{3 \cdot 4} + ... + \frac{1}{n(n+1)}$ Using partial fractions we see that $\frac{1}{k(k+1)} = \frac{1}{k} - \frac{1}{k+1}$ This implies that $S_n = \sum_{k=1}^n \left(\frac{1}{k} - \frac{1}{k+1}\right) = 1 - \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2} - \frac{1}{3} + ... + \frac{1}{n} - \frac{1}{n+1}$ $= 1 - \frac{1}{n+1}$ So $S_n = 1 - \frac{1}{n+1}$ and $\lim_{n \to \infty} S_n = \lim_{n \to \infty} \left(1 - \frac{1}{n+1}\right) = 1$ $\Rightarrow \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{k(k+1)} = 1$ Which means that the series converges with sum 1. The series in Example 4 is an example of what we call a Telescoping series.

Example 5 Determine if $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{(k+2)(k+3)}$ converges or diverges. If it converges find the sum.

This is another one that I would like you to try for me.

We now come to an important theorem that allows us to quickly decide if a series diverges or not.

Theorem 2 (Divergence Test) If $\lim_{k\to\infty} a_k \neq 0$ then $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} a_k$ diverges.

Example 6 $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{k}{k+1}$ diverges since

$$\lim_{k \to \infty} \frac{k}{k+1} = \lim_{k \to \infty} \frac{1}{1 + \frac{1}{k}} = 1 \neq 0$$

Theorem 3 (Properties of Infinite Series)

1.
$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} ca_n = c \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$$

2.
$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (a_n \pm b_n) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n \pm \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} b_n$$

3. Convergence and Divergence are unaffected by deleting a finite number of terms from the beginning of a series.

From (1) we see that if a series is convergent then a scalar times that series is also convergent. Similarly, if a series diverges then a scalar times that series also diverges.

From (2) it is obvious that the sum or difference of 2 convergent series also converges.

Example 7 Find the sum of the series $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \left(\frac{3}{4^k} - \frac{2}{5^{k-1}}\right)$. From the above theorem $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \left(\frac{3}{4^k} - \frac{2}{5^{k-1}}\right) = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{3}{4^k} - \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{2}{5^{k-1}}$ $= \frac{\frac{3}{4}}{1 - \frac{1}{4}} - \frac{2}{1 - \frac{1}{5}}$ $= 1 - \frac{5}{2} = -\frac{3}{2}$ Example 8 Find the sum of $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{2}{5^k}$

From (1) in Theorem 3, we have $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{2}{5^k} = 2\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{5^k}$

Well $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{5^k}$ is a series you already dealt with in Example 3, so you know what to do.

Example 9 Determine if $\sum_{k=10}^{\infty} \frac{k}{k+1}$ converges or diverges. From Example 6 $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{k}{k+1}$ diverges, therefore $\sum_{k=10}^{\infty} \frac{k}{k+1}$ also diverges since it is $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{k}{k+1}$ with the first nine terms taken out and according to (3) from Theorem 3 such a series must also diverge.

Theorem 4 (Integral Test) Let $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$ be a series with positive terms, and let f(x) be the function such that $f(n) = a_n$. If f is decreasing and continuous for $x \ge 1$, then $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$ and $\int_1^{\infty} f(x) dx$ both converge or both diverge.

Example 10 Determine if $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^2}$ converges or diverges.

$$f(x) = \frac{1}{x^2}$$

$$\int_{1}^{\infty} \frac{dx}{x^{2}} = \lim_{M \to \infty} \int_{1}^{M} \frac{dx}{x^{2}}$$
$$= \lim_{M \to \infty} \left[-\frac{1}{x} \right]_{1}^{M}$$
$$= \lim_{M \to \infty} \left(1 - \frac{1}{M} \right) = 1$$

We have just shown that the improper integral converges, therefore the series converges.

Example 11 Show that $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n}$ diverges using the integral test. I'll leave this one to you. You just need to set up an improper integral like the one I set up in Example 1. Then show that the integral diverges.

Example 12 Determine if the series $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{n}{e^{n^2}}$ converges or diverges. Here we'll let $f(x) = \frac{x}{e^{x^2}} = xe^{-x^2}$ then

$$f'(x) = e^{-x^2}(1 - 2x^2) \le 0$$

This implies that f is decreasing for $x \ge 1$ and since all the terms of the series are positive we can go ahead and use the integral test.

$$\int_{1}^{\infty} x e^{-x^2} dx = \lim_{M \to \infty} \int_{1}^{M} x e^{-x^2} dx$$
$$= \lim_{M \to \infty} \left[-\frac{1}{2} e^{-x^2} \right]_{1}^{M}$$
$$= \lim_{M \to \infty} \left[\frac{1}{2e} - \frac{1}{2} e^{-M^2} \right]$$
$$= \frac{1}{2e}$$

This implies that the improper integral converges and therefore the series converges.

The Integral Test leads us to the following theorem.

Theorem 5 $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{k^p} = 1 + \frac{1}{2^p} + \frac{1}{3^p} + \dots$, where p > 0 converges if p > 1 and diverges if 0 .

The above series is called a p-series. When p = 1 we get the series $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{k}$ which is called the harmonic series and which is of course divergent.

Example 13 Determine if the series $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{\sqrt[3]{k}}$ converges. Now $\frac{1}{\sqrt[3]{k}} = \frac{1}{k^{\frac{1}{3}}}$ This means that the series is a p-series with $p = \frac{1}{3}$. From the last theorem we know that a p - series converges if p > 1 and diverges if

the last theorem we know that a p - series converges if p > 1 and diverges if 0 . Therefore the given series diverges.

Theorem 6 (Ratio Test) Let $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} a_n$ be a series with non-zero terms. And let $\rho = \lim_{n \to \infty} \left| \frac{a_{n+1}}{a_n} \right|$

- 1. The series converges if $\rho < 1$
- 2. The series diverges if $\rho > 1$
- 3. The test is inconclusive if $\rho = 1$

Example 14 Determine if $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{2^n}{n!}$ converges or diverges. $a_{n+1} = \frac{2^{n+1}}{(n+1)!}, a_n = \frac{2^n}{n!}$ $\left|\frac{a_{n+1}}{a_n}\right| = \left|\frac{2^{n+1}}{(n+1)!} \cdot \frac{n!}{2^n}\right| = \frac{2}{n+1}$ $\rho = \lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{2}{n+1} = 0$ Therefore the series converges by the ratio test.

Theorem 7 (Alternating Series Test) An alternating series $a_1 - a_2 + a_3 - a_4 + \ldots + (-1)^{k+1}a_k + \ldots$ $or -a_1 + a_2 - a_3 + \ldots + (-1)^k a_k + \ldots$, all $a_k > 0$ converges if the following conditions are met:

- $1. \ a_1 \ge a_2 \ge a_3 \ge \dots \ge a_k \ge \dots$
- $2. \lim_{k \to \infty} a_k = 0$

Definition 4 (Power Series) An infinite series of the form $\sum_{\substack{n=0\\is \text{ called a power series in } x.}^{\infty} a_n x^n = a_0 + a_1 x + a_2 x^2 + \ldots + a_n x^n + \ldots$ is called a power series in x. An infinite series of the form $\sum_{\substack{n=0\\n=0}}^{\infty} a_n (x-c)^n = a_0 + a_1 (x-c) + a_2 (x-c)^2 + \ldots + a_n (x-c)^n + \ldots$ is called a power series centered at c.

Theorem 8 (Convergence of a Power Series) For a power series centered at c only one of the following is true.

- 1. The series converges only at x = c.
- 2. The series converges for all x.
- 3. There exists a positive real number R such that the series converges for |x - c| < R and diverges for |x - c| > R

In the third case the series converges in the interval (c - R, C + R) and diverges in intervals $(-\infty, c - R)$ and $(c + R, \infty)$. We would still need to check the endpoints c - R and c + R for convergence. The interval in which the series converges is called the interval of convergence.

Definition 5 (Radius of Convergence) The radius of convergence of a power series centered at c is

$$R = \lim_{n \to \infty} \left| \frac{a_n}{a_{n+1}} \right|, \quad 0 \le R \le \infty.$$

Example 15 Find the radius of convergence of $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{x^n}{n!}$.

$$R = \lim_{n \to \infty} \left| \frac{a_n}{a_{n+1}} \right| = \lim_{n \to \infty} \left| \frac{1/n!}{1/(n+1)!} \right|$$
$$= \lim_{n \to \infty} \left| \frac{(n+1)!}{n!} \right|$$

 $=\lim_{n\to\infty}(n+1)=\infty$

A radius of convergence of infinity means that the power series converges for all real values of x.

Example 16 Find the radius of convergence of $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^n (x+1)^n}{2^n}.$ $R = \lim_{n \to \infty} \left| \frac{a_n}{a_{n+1}} \right| = \lim_{n \to \infty} \left| \frac{(-1)^n / 2^n}{(-1)^{n+1} / 2^{n+1}} \right| = \lim_{n \to \infty} \left| \frac{2^{n+1}}{2^n} \right| = \lim_{n \to \infty} 2 = 2$ Since the context of the corrise is a = -1, we conclude that the corrise correspondence of a = -1.

Since the center of the series is c = -1, we conclude that the series converges in the interval (-1-2, -1+2) = (-3, 1). In fact if we check for convergence at the endpoints we find that the series diverges at the endpoints and (-3, 1)is in fact the interval of convergence.

We now look at an important type of power series called the Taylor series. Here we'll show how to use derivatives of a function to write the power series for that function.

Definition 6 (Taylor Series) If f(x) has derivatives of all orders at c, then the power series for f(x) centered at c is called the Taylor series for f(x) centered at c and is given by $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{f^{(n)}(c)}{n!} (x-c)^n = f(c) + f'(c)(x-c) + \frac{f''(c)}{2!} (x-c)^2 + \dots + \frac{f^{(n)}(c)}{n!} (x-c)^n + \dots$

If c = 0 then the Taylor series is called a Maclaurin series.

Example 17 Find the Maclaurin series for $f(x) = e^x$. Now $f(0) = e^0 = 1$ and since $f'(x) = e^x$ and all higher derivatives of f also equal e^x . This implies that $f^{(n)}(0) = 1$ for all n. Now by the definition of the Maclaurin series, $e^x = f(0) + f'(0)x + \frac{f''(0)x^2}{2!} + \frac{f'''(0)x^3}{3!} + \dots$ $= 1 + x + \frac{x^2}{2!} + \frac{x^3}{3!} + \dots$ $= \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{x^n}{n!}$.

Example 18 Find the Taylor series for f(x) = 1/x, centered at 1. $f(x) = x^{-1} \Rightarrow f(1) = 1$ $f'(x) = -x^{-2} \Rightarrow f'(1) = -1$ $f''(x) = 2x^{-3} \Rightarrow f''(1) = 2$

$$\begin{split} f'''(x) &= -6x^{-4} \Rightarrow f'''(1) = -6\\ f^{(4)}(x) &= 24x^{-5} \Rightarrow f^{(4)}(1) = 24\\ \Rightarrow f(x) &= \frac{1}{x} = f(1) + f'(1)(x-1) + \frac{f''(1)(x-1)^2}{2!} + \frac{f'''(1)(x-1)^3}{3!} + \frac{f^{(4)}(1)(x-1)^4}{4!} + \dots\\ &= 1 - (x-1) + \frac{2(x-1)^2}{2!} - \frac{6(x-1)^3}{3!} + \frac{24(x-1)^4}{4!} - \dots\\ &= 1 - (x-1) + (x-1)^2 - (x-1)^3 + (x-1)^4 - \dots\\ &= \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (-1)^n (x-1)^n. \end{split}$$

Which is the Taylor series we wanted.