## Series



### Recap of sequences

- a collection of objects where order matters and repetitions are significant
- Alternatively, we may think of a sequence as a function with integer domain.
- A finite sequence contains only a finite number of terms.
- An infinite sequence is unending.

#### Series

- A series may be considered in terms of the partial sums of the corresponding sequence.
- If  $u_0, u_1, u_2, \ldots$  is a sequence, then the partial sums are

$$S_{0} = u_{0}$$

$$S_{1} = u_{0} + u_{1}$$

$$S_{2} = u_{0} + u_{1} + u_{2}$$

$$...$$

$$S_{n} = u_{0} + u_{1} + u_{2} + ... + u_{n} = \sum_{n=1}^{n} u_{n}$$

Then what is formed is called a series – a sum of terms of a sequence.

#### Series

**▶** The sequence  $u_0, u_1, u_2, ...$  is **summable** if the sequence of partial sums  $S_0, S_1, S_2, ...$  converges, and

$$\sum_{r=0}^{\infty} u_r = \lim_{n \to \infty} \left( \sum_{r=0}^{n} u_r \right) = \lim_{n \to \infty} S_n$$

As there are many types of sequence, so there are many types of series.

#### **Arithmetic Series**

➤ An arithmetic sequence is defined as

$$u_n = a + nd$$

(starting at n=0).

- a is the first term and d is the common difference.
- The arithmetic series  $S_n$  (sum of  $u_0$  to  $u_n$ ) is

$$S_n = \frac{n+1}{2} \left( 2a + nd \right)$$

As an example, consider the sum

$$S_{99} = 1 + 2 + 3 + \ldots + 100$$
 (100 terms)

• where a=1 and d=1.

$$S = 1 + 2 + 3 + \ldots + 100$$

- The sum is  $S=1+2+3+\ldots+100$  that we can rearrange as
- ▶ S = 100 + 99 + 98 + ... + 1that is from the largest value to the smallest value
- Now we add together these two sums

$$S = 1 +2 +3 \dots +100$$
  
 $S = 100 +99 +98 \dots +1$   
 $2S = 101 +101 +101 \dots +101$ 

which gives  $2S = 100 \times 101$  that is

$$S_{99} = \frac{10100}{2} = 5050$$

 $ightharpoonup S_n = rac{(n+1) imes(n+2)}{2}$  , therefore,  $S_{99} = rac{100 imes101}{2}$ 

#### **Arithmetic Series**

- Using the trick when summing  $S=1+2+\ldots+100$  but now for the general arithmetic series
- Given

$$u_n = a + nd$$
.

> Show that:

$$S_n = \frac{n+1}{2}(2a+nd).$$

#### **Arithmetic Series**

Arrange forwards and backwards:

$$S_n = a + (a+d) \dots + (a+nd)$$
  
 $S_n = (a+nd) + (a+(n-1)d) \dots + a$   
 $2S_n = (2a+nd) + (2a+nd) \dots + (2a+nd)$ 

ightharpoonup There are n+1 equal terms:

$$2S_n = (n+1)(2a+nd)$$
$$S_n = \frac{n+1}{2}(2a+nd)$$

#### Some results

The arithmetic mean of P and Q is the number A such that

$$P + A + Q$$

- are terms of an arithmetic series.
- So we have that A P = d and Q A = d hence A P = Q A that gives 2A = P + Q then

$$A = \frac{P + Q}{2}$$

the arithmetic mean of two numbers is their average

#### Some results

The three arithmetic means between two numbers P and Q are the numbers A, B, and C then

$$P + A + B + C + Q$$

is an arithmetic series. Then

$$d = \frac{Q - P}{4}$$

**▶** then A = P + (Q - P)/4, B = P + (Q - P)/2 and C = P + 3(Q - P)/4

#### Geometric series

♣ A geometric sequence is

$$u_n = ar^n$$
.

(starting at n=0).

- ightharpoonup where a is the first term and r is the common ratio.
- ▶ The geometric series is defined as

$$S_n = \sum_{r=0}^n ar^r = \frac{a(1-r^{n+1})}{1-r}.$$

#### Geometric Series

- ➤ To get the general form of the geometric series, we are going to use a similar trick as in the arithmetic series.
- Subtract  $rS_n$  from  $S_n$ :

$$S_{n} = a + ar + ar^{2} \dots + ar^{n}$$

$$rS_{n} = +ar + ar^{2} \dots + ar^{n} + ar^{n+1}$$

$$S_{n} - rS_{n} = a + 0 + 0 \dots + 0 - ar^{n+1}$$

Then  $S_n - rS_n = a - ar^{n+1}$  or  $S_n(1-r) = a(1-r^{n+1})$   $S_n = \frac{a(1-r^{n+1})}{1-r}$ 

#### Some results

The geometric mean of P and Q is the number A such that

$$P + A + Q$$

- are terms of an geometric series.
- So we have that A/P = r and Q/A = r hence A/P = Q/A that gives  $A^2 = PQ$  then

$$A = \sqrt{PQ}$$

the geometric mean of two numbers is the square root of their product

#### Some results

The three geometric means between two numbers P and Q are the numbers A, B, and C then

$$P + A + B + C + Q$$

- ightharpoonup is a geometric series. Then  $Q/P=r^4$  or  $r=(Q/P)^{1/4}$
- **▶** then  $A = P(Q/P)^{1/4}$ ,  $B = P(Q/P)^{2/4}$  and  $C = P(Q/P)^{3/4}$

## Series of powers of the natural numbers

Consider

$$0+1+2+3+\ldots+n=\sum_{r=0}^{n}r.$$

This is arithmetic (a = 0, d = 1):

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

### Sum of squares

**Compute:** 

$$0^2 + 1^2 + 2^2 + \ldots + n^2 = \sum_{r=0}^{n} r^2$$

Result:

$$\sum_{r=0}^{n} r^2 = \frac{n(n+1)(2n+1)}{6}$$

# Derivation of $\sum_{i=1}^{n} r^2$

First notice  $(r+1)^3 = r^3 + 3r^2 + 3r + 1$  so  $r^2$  can be written as

$$r^2 = \frac{(r+1)^3 - r^3 - 3r - 1}{3}$$

write the sum using this

$$\sum_{r=0}^{n} r^{2} = \frac{1}{3} \sum_{r=0}^{n} ((r+1)^{3} - r^{3} - 3r - 1)$$

$$= \frac{1}{3} \left( \sum_{r=0}^{n} (r+1)^{3} - \sum_{r=0}^{n} r^{3} - \sum_{r=0}^{n} 3r - \sum_{r=0}^{n} 1 \right)$$

# Derivation of $\sum_{i=1}^{n} r^2$

- Doing the sums
  - $\sum_{r=0}^{n} 1 = n+1 \text{ as } \sum_{r=1}^{n} 1 \text{ is summing 1, } n+1 \text{ times}$   $\sum_{r=0}^{n} r = ((n+1)n/2) \text{ from previous result}$
- now these two sums together  $\sum_{r=1}^{n} (r+1)^3 \sum_{r=1}^{n} r^3$

$$\sum_{r=0}^{n} (r+1)^3 = 1 +2^3 \dots +n^3 +(n+1)^3$$

$$- \sum_{r=0}^{n} r^3 = 0 +1 +2^3 \dots +n^3$$

$$= 0 +0 +0 \dots +0 +(n+1)^3$$

then

$$\sum_{r=0}^{n} (r+1)^3 - \sum_{r=0}^{n} r^3 = (n+1)^3$$

## Derivation of $\sum_{i=1}^{n} r^2$

Putting the results together

$$\sum_{r=0}^{n} r^{2} = \frac{1}{3} \left( \sum_{r=0}^{n} (r+1)^{3} - \sum_{r=0}^{n} r^{3} - \sum_{r=0}^{n} 3r - \sum_{r=0}^{n} 1 \right)$$

$$= \frac{1}{3} \left( (n+1)^{3} - 3 \frac{n(n+1)}{2} - (n+1) \right)$$

$$= \frac{1}{3} \left( n^{3} + 3n^{2} + 3n + 1 - \frac{3n(n+1)}{2} - n - 1 \right)$$

$$= \frac{1}{3} \left( n^{3} + \frac{3}{2}n^{2} + \frac{1}{2}n \right) = \frac{n}{6} (2n^{2} + 3n + 1)$$

$$= \frac{n(n+1)(2n+1)}{6}$$

#### Sum of cubes

In this case

$$\sum_{r=0}^n r^3 = \left(\frac{n(n+1)}{2}\right)^2$$

can you solve it? Hint use that

$$(r+1)^4 = r^4 + 4r^3 + 6r^2 + 4r + 1$$

#### Infinite series

An infinite series is one whose terms continue indefinitely.

For example, the sequence

$$1, \frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{4}, \frac{1}{8}, \dots$$

is a geometric sequence where a=1 and  $r=\frac{1}{2}$ , giving rise to the partial sum

$$S_n = 1 + \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{4} + \dots + \frac{1}{2^n}.$$

Then

$$S_n = \frac{a(1 - r^{n+1})}{1 - r} = \frac{1 - \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^{n+1}}{1 - \frac{1}{2}} = 2\left(1 - \frac{1}{2^{n+1}}\right)$$

#### Infinite series

- As n increases without bound,  $1/2^n$  decreases and approaches 0.
- ➤ The partial sums are

$$S_n = 2\left(1 - \frac{1}{2^{n+1}}\right).$$

ightharpoonup As  $n o \infty$ ,  $\frac{1}{2^{n+1}} o 0$ , so as  $n o \infty$ 

$$S_n \to 2$$
.

ightharpoonup We say that the limit of  $S_n$  as n approaches infinity is

$$\lim_{n\to\infty} S_n = S_\infty = 2.$$

#### Infinite series

Note that when it is stated that the limit of  $S_n$  as n approaches infinity is 2,

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} S_n = S_\infty = 2$$

- what is meant is that a value of  $S_n$  can be found as close to the number 2 as we wish by selecting a sufficiently large enough value of n.
- ightharpoonup However,  $S_n$  never actually attains the value of 2 in this case.

### Example

For the geometric series

$$S_n = \frac{a(1 - r^{n+1})}{1 - r},$$

- when |r| < 1, we have  $r^{n+1} \to 0$  as  $n \to \infty$ .
- Therefore

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} S_n = \frac{a(1-0)}{1-r} = \frac{a}{1-r}.$$

ightharpoonup Hence, for the example above where a=1 and  $r=\frac{1}{2}$ ,

$$1, \frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{4}, \frac{1}{8}, \dots$$

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} S_n = \frac{a}{1 - r} = \frac{1}{1 - \frac{1}{2}} = 2.$$

#### No limit

Sometimes a series has no limit. For example, the sequence

$$1, 3, 5, \dots$$

is an arithmetic sequence where  $u_n = 2n + 1$  for  $n \ge 0$ , with a = 1 and d = 2. The partial sums are

$$S_n = \sum_{r=0}^n (2r+1) = 1+3+5+\dots+(2n+1)$$
$$= \frac{n+1}{2}(2+2n) = (n+1)^2$$

- As  $n \to \infty$  so  $(n+1)^2 \to \infty$  and  $S_n = (n+1)^2 \to \infty$ .
- That is

$$\lim_{n\to\infty} S_n = S_\infty = \infty.$$

#### Indeterminate form

- The fact that as  $n \to \infty$  so  $1/n \to 0$  can be usefully employed to find the limits of certain indeterminate forms.
- For example

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{5n+3}{2n-7} = \lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{5+\frac{3}{n}}{2-\frac{7}{n}} = \frac{5+0}{2-0} = \frac{5}{2}$$

## Convergent and divergent series

- An infinite series whose partial sums tend to a finite limit is said to be a convergent series.

  If an infinite series does not converge then it is said to diverge.
- If a formula for  $S_n$  cannot be found it may not be possible by simple inspection to decide whether or not a given series converges.
- To help with this, we introduce some convergence tests.

### Test of convergence

Test 1: A series cannot converge unless its terms ultimately tend to zero

Test 2: The comparison test

Test 3: D'Alembert's ratio test for positive terms

#### Test 1

▶ If

$$S_n = u_0 + u_1 + u_2 + \ldots + u_n,$$

then the series can only converge if

$$\lim_{n\to\infty}u_n=0.$$

- Notice that this does not mean that if  $\lim_{n\to\infty} u_n = 0$  then  $S_n$  converges.
- Example: the harmonic series

$$1 + \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{3} + \frac{1}{4} + \dots$$

diverges, even though  $\lim_{n\to\infty}\frac{1}{n}=0$ .

## Example continuation

To show this, we can group the terms as follows

$$\sum_{r=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{r+1} = 1 + \frac{1}{2} + \left(\frac{1}{3} + \frac{1}{4}\right) + \left(\frac{1}{5} + \frac{1}{6} + \frac{1}{7} + \frac{1}{8}\right) + \dots$$

- Now we look for a bound,  $\left(\frac{1}{3} + \frac{1}{4}\right) > \left(\frac{1}{4} + \frac{1}{4}\right) = \frac{1}{2}$  and  $\left(\frac{1}{5} + \frac{1}{6} + \frac{1}{7} + \frac{1}{8}\right) > \left(\frac{1}{8} + \frac{1}{8} + \frac{1}{8} + \frac{1}{8}\right) = \frac{1}{2}$
- then

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

then

$$\sum_{r=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{r+1} = \infty$$

### Test 2: The comparison test

- Let  $\sum a_n$  and  $\sum b_n$  be series with positive terms.
- **Convergence:** If  $0 \le a_n \le b_n$  for all n and  $\sum b_n$  converges, then  $\sum a_n$  also converges.
- **Divergence:** If  $0 \le b_n \le a_n$  for all n and  $\sum b_n$  diverges, then  $\sum a_n$  also diverges.
- **▶** A standard comparison family is the *p*-series:

$$\frac{1}{1^p} + \frac{1}{2^p} + \frac{1}{3^p} + \frac{1}{4^p} + \dots + \frac{1}{n^p} + \dots = \sum_{r=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{(r+1)^p},$$

which converges if p > 1 and diverges if  $p \le 1$ .

### Test 2: Example

- Consider the series  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^3 + n}$
- For all  $n \ge 1$ ,  $n^3 + n \ge n^3$   $\Rightarrow$   $\frac{1}{n^3 + n} \le \frac{1}{n^3}$
- The comparison series is

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

a p-series with p=3>1, which is convergent.

Therefore, by the comparison test,

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^3 + n}$$
 converges

#### Test 3: D'Alembert's ratio test for positive series

▶ If

$$u_0 + u_1 + u_2 + \ldots + u_n + \ldots = \sum_{r=0}^{\infty} u_r$$

is a series of positive terms, then

- if  $\lim_{n\to\infty}\frac{u_{n+1}}{u_n}<1$ , the series converges,
- if  $\lim_{n\to\infty} \frac{u_{n+1}}{u_n} > 1$ , the series diverges,
- if  $\lim_{n\to\infty}\frac{u_{n+1}}{u_n}=1$ , the test is inconclusive.

### Question

Determine whether the following series is convergent or divergent:

$$1 + \frac{3}{2} + \frac{5}{4} + \frac{7}{8} + \dots$$

▶ We can write the *n*th term as

$$u_n = \frac{2n+1}{2^n}, \quad n = 0, 1, 2, \dots$$

Then the next term is

$$u_{n+1} = \frac{2(n+1)+1}{2^{n+1}} = \frac{2n+3}{2^{n+1}}.$$

The ratio is

$$\frac{u_{n+1}}{u_n} = \left(\frac{2n+3}{2^{n+1}}\right) \left(\frac{2^n}{2n+1}\right) = \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{2n+3}{2n+1}\right).$$

### Question. Continue

The limit of the ratio is

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{u_{n+1}}{u_n} = \lim_{n \to \infty} \left( \frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{2n+3}{2n+1} \right)$$
$$= \frac{1}{2} \lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{2+\frac{3}{n}}{2+\frac{1}{n}} = \frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{2}{2} = \frac{1}{2}.$$

- Since this limit is < 1, the series converges by the ratio test.
- Note that the limit  $\frac{1}{2}$  here is the limit of the *ratio*, not the sum of the series. (In fact, the sum of the series is 6.)

## Absolute convergence

- If a series  $\sum_{r=0}^{\infty} u_r$  converges, then
- the series of absolute values of the terms

$$\sum_{r=0}^{\infty} |u_r|$$

- may or may not converge.
- If a series converges and the series of absolute values of the terms also converges, then the series is said to be absolutely convergent.
- ▶ In fact, if  $\sum_{r=0}^{\infty} |u_r|$  converges, then  $\sum_{r=0}^{\infty} u_r$  also converges.

## Convergent test again

▶ If

$$u_0 + u_1 + u_2 + \ldots + u_n + \ldots = \sum_{r=0}^{\infty} u_r$$

is a series where the terms can be positive or negative, then

- if  $\lim_{n\to\infty}\frac{|u_{n+1}|}{|u_n|}<1$ , the series converges,
- if  $\lim_{n\to\infty}\frac{|u_{n+1}|}{|u_n|}>1$ , the series diverges,
- if  $\lim_{n\to\infty}\frac{|u_{n+1}|}{|u_n|}=1$ , the test is inconclusive.

## Conditionally convergent

- If a series  $\sum_{r=0}^{\infty} u_r$  converges, but
- $\blacktriangleright$  the series  $\sum_{r=0}^{\infty} |u_r|$  diverges, then

$$\sum_{r=0}^{\infty} u_r$$

is said to be **conditionally convergent.** 

### Example: alternating harmonic series

Consider the alternating harmonic series

$$\sum_{r=0}^{\infty} u_r \quad \text{with} \quad u_r = \frac{(-1)^r}{r+1}.$$

Written out:

$$1 - \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{3} - \frac{1}{4} + \frac{1}{5} - \frac{1}{6} + \dots$$

- The terms satisfy Test 1:  $\lim_{r\to\infty}u_r=0$ , so the series may converge.
- Using more advanced techniques beyond this course, it can be in fact shown that

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

### Conditional convergence

Now consider the series of absolute values:

$$\sum_{r=0}^{\infty} |u_r| = \sum_{r=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{r+1} = 1 + \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{3} + \frac{1}{4} + \dots$$

- The harmonic series, which we have shown diverges.
- Therefore:

$$\sum_{r=0}^{\infty} |u_r| = \infty \qquad \text{(diverges)},$$

but

$$\sum_{r=0}^{\infty} u_r = \ln 2 \qquad \text{(converges)}.$$

So the alternating harmonic series is conditionally convergent.