

SERIES

INFINITE SERIES: An Infinite Series of real numbers is the sum of an infinite sequence of real numbers.

If $\{a_n\}$ is an infinite sequence of real numbers, then the expression $a_1 + a_2 + a_3 + \dots + a_n + \dots$ is called an Infinite series denoted by $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$.

a_n is called the n^{th} term of the Infinite Series.

Ex1:

$\{a_n\} = \frac{1}{n} = 1, \frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{3}, \frac{1}{4}, \dots$ is an infinite sequence. then

$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n} = 1 + \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{3} + \frac{1}{4} + \dots$ is an infinite Series formed by the above infinite sequence.

Ex2:

$\{a_n\} = (-1)^{n+1} = 1, -1, 1, -1, 1, -1, \dots$ is an infinite sequence and $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (-1)^{n+1} = 1 + (-1) + 1 + (-1) + \dots$ is an infinite series formed by the above infinite sequence.

Convergence and Divergence of a Series:

If the sum of an infinite series is a finite value L , then we say that the series converges to L . if the sum of an infinite series is not a finite value, then we say that the series diverges.

$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^2} = 1 + \frac{1}{2^2} + \frac{1}{3^2} + \frac{1}{4^2} + \dots$ Is an infinite series.

$$S_1 = 1$$

$$S_2 = 1 + \frac{1}{2^2}$$

$$S_3 = 1 + \frac{1}{2^2} + \frac{1}{3^2}$$

.....

$S_n = 1 + \frac{1}{2^2} + \frac{1}{3^2} + \frac{1}{4^2} + \dots\dots\dots\frac{1}{n^2}$ is called the n^{th} **partial sum** of the Series.

Methods to Check the Convergence of Series:

The Series $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$ converges if the Sequence of n^{th} partial sums $\{s_n\}$ Converges.

Ex:

$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \ln\left(\frac{n}{n+1}\right)$ is an infinite series.

$$n^{\text{th}} \text{ partial sum } S_n = \sum_{k=1}^n \ln\left(\frac{k}{k+1}\right)$$

$$= \sum_{k=1}^n [\ln k - \ln(k+1)]$$

$$= (\ln 1 - \ln 2) + (\ln 2 - \ln 3) + \dots\dots\dots(\ln n - \ln(n+1))$$

$$= \ln 1 - \ln(n+1)$$

$$S_n = -\ln(n+1)$$

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} S_n = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} -\ln(n+1) = -\infty$$

Thus, the sequence of n^{th} partial sums of the series diverges. Therefore the given series $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \ln\left(\frac{n}{n+1}\right)$ diverges.

Geometric Series test:

If the given series is in the form

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} ar^{n-1} = a + ar + ar^2 + \dots + ar^{n-1} + \dots$$

In which a and r are the fixed real numbers and $a \neq 0$. Then the series is called a “ Geometric Series ”.

The Geometric Series $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} ar^{n-1}$ or $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} ar^n$

1. Converges to $\frac{a}{1-r}$ if $|r| < 1$.
2. Diverges if $|r| \geq 1$.

nth Term test:

$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$ diverges if $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n \neq 0$ or fails to exist.

Note: if $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = 0$, then we cannot say that the series converges.

1. If $\sum a_n = A$ and $\sum b_n = B$ are convergent Series, then $\sum(a_n + b_n) = A + B$ and $\sum(a_n - b_n) = A - B$ and $\sum k a_n = kA$.
That means, the Sum and Difference of two convergent series are also convergent and non zero constant multiple of a convergent series is also convergent.
2. Every non – zero constant multiple of a divergent series is divergent.
3. If one of the series $\sum a_n$ and $\sum b_n$ converges and the other diverges then $\sum(a_n + b_n)$ and $\sum(a_n - b_n)$ diverge.
4. If $\sum a_n$ and $\sum b_n$ both divergent series, then $\sum(a_n + b_n)$ and $\sum(a_n - b_n)$ can converge.

Ex: $\sum a_n = 1 + 1 + 1 + 1 + \dots$ diverges to ∞

$\sum b_n = -1 + -1 + -1 + -1 + \dots$ diverges to $-\infty$

$\sum(a_n + b_n) = (1 -1) + (1-1) + (1-1) + \dots$

= 0 + 0 + 0 + 0 + converges to 0.

Here, $\sum a_n$ and $\sum b_n$ both divergent series but $\sum(a_n + b_n)$ convergent series.

Note: Addition or deletion of a finite number of terms from a series will not alter its convergence or divergence.

Integral Test:

Let $\{a_n\}$ be a sequence of positive terms. Suppose $a_n = f(n)$, where f is continuous, positive valued decreasing function of x for $x \geq N$, where N is a natural number.

Then the series $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$ and $\int_N^{\infty} f(x) dx$ both converge or both diverge.

P – Series test:

The series $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^p} = 1 + \frac{1}{2^p} + \frac{1}{3^p} + \frac{1}{4^p} + \dots$ Where P is a real constant, converges if $P > 1$ and diverges if $P \leq 1$.

Ex: $\sum \frac{1}{n}$, $\sum \frac{1}{\sqrt{n}}$ are divergent series.

$\sum \frac{1}{n^2}$, $\sum \frac{1}{n^3}$, $\sum \frac{1}{n^4}$, are convergent series.

Logarithmic P – Series test:

The series $\sum_{n=2}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n(\ln n)^p} = \frac{1}{2(\ln 2)^p} + \frac{1}{3(\ln 3)^p} + \frac{1}{4(\ln 4)^p} + \dots$ where p is a real constant, converges if $p > 1$ and diverges if $p \leq 1$.

Comparison test:

Let $\sum a_n$ be a series with non – negative terms.

1. $\sum a_n$ converges if and only if there is a convergent series $\sum c_n$ with $a_n \leq c_n$ for all $n \geq N$, for some natural number N .
2. $\sum a_n$ diverges if there is a divergent series $\sum d_n$ with $a_n \geq d_n$ for all $n \geq N$, for some natural number N .

The Limit comparison Test:

$\sum a_n$ and $\sum b_n$ be series and $a_n > 0, b_n > 0$, for all $n \geq N$, for some natural number N .

1. If $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{a_n}{b_n} = c > 0$ then $\sum a_n$ and $\sum b_n$ both converge or both diverge.
2. If $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{a_n}{b_n} = 0$ and $\sum b_n$ converges, then $\sum a_n$ converges.
3. If $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{a_n}{b_n} = \infty$ and $\sum b_n$ diverges, then $\sum a_n$ diverges.

Note:

Choose $\sum b_n$ as a geometric series like $\sum \frac{1}{2^n}, \sum \frac{1}{3^n}, \sum \frac{1}{4^n}, \dots\dots\dots$ Or P – series like $\sum \frac{1}{n}, \sum \frac{1}{n^2}, \sum \frac{1}{n^3}, \sum \frac{1}{n^4}, \dots\dots$ etc. for the limit comparison test. (numerator of $\sum b_n$ should be 1)

The Ratio Test:

Let $\sum a_n$ be a series with positive terms and suppose that $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{a_{n+1}}{a_n} = l$.
then

1. The series converges if $l < 1$.
2. The series diverges if $l > 1$ or l is infinite.
3. The test is inconclusive if $l = 1$.

Note:

The Ratio test is effective when the terms of a series contain factorial expressions involving n or expressions raised to a power of n . For

example $\sum \frac{2^n}{n!}$, $\sum \frac{2^{n+5}}{3^n}$, $\sum \frac{4^n (n!)^2}{(2n!)}$ etc.

The Root Test:

Let $\sum a_n$ be a series with $a_n \geq 0$ for $n \geq M$, for some natural number M and suppose that $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sqrt[n]{a_n} = l$. then

1. The series converges if $l < 1$.
2. The series diverges if $l > 1$ or l is infinite.
3. The test is inconclusive if $l = 1$.

Alternating Series:

A series in which the terms are alternately positive and negative is called an “ Alternating Series ”.

Ex: $\sum \frac{(-1)^{n+1}}{n}$, $\sum \frac{(-1)^n 4}{2^n}$, etc.

The Alternating Series Test: (Leibniz's Theorem)

The alternating series $\sum (-1)^{n+1} a_n = a_1 - a_2 + a_3 - a_4 + \dots$ converges if

1. $a_n > 0$ for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$
2. $a_n \geq a_{n+1}$ for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$
3. $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = 0$.

Ex: The alternating harmonic series $\sum \frac{(-1)^{n+1}}{n}$ convergent.

Absolute Convergence:

A series $\sum a_n$ converges Absolutely if the corresponding series of absolute values, $\sum |a_n|$ converges.

Note: Every absolutely convergent series is convergent. Means if $\sum |a_n|$ converges then $\sum a_n$ also converges.

Conditional Convergence:

A series converges conditionally if it converges but does not converges absolutely. that means $\sum a_n$ converges but $\sum |a_n|$ diverges.

Ex: The alternating harmonic series $\sum \frac{(-1)^{n+1}}{n}$ converges conditionally.

$\sum a_n$	$\sum a_n $	Then the series is
$\sum a_n$ convergent	$\sum a_n $ convergent	Absolutely Convergent
$\sum a_n$ convergent	$\sum a_n $ divergent	Conditionally Convergent
$\sum a_n$ divergent	$\sum a_n $ divergent	

Note:

- 1. If $\sum |a_n|$ converges then $\sum a_n$ converges.**
- 2. If $\sum a_n$ diverges then $\sum |a_n|$ diverges.**

The alternating P – Series Test:

The alternating p – series $\sum \frac{(-1)^{n+1}}{n^p} = 1 - \frac{1}{2^p} + \frac{1}{3^p} - \frac{1}{4^p} + \dots$

1. Converges if $p > 0$
2. Converges absolutely if $p > 1$
3. Converges conditionally if $0 < p \leq 1$.

The Ratio Test:

Let $\sum a_n$ be a series of real numbers with $a_n \neq 0$, for all n and suppose that $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{a_{n+1}}{a_n} \right| = l$. then

1. The series converges absolutely if $l < 1$.
2. The series diverges if $l > 1$ or l is infinite.
3. The test is inconclusive if $l = 1$.

The Root Test:

Let $\sum a_n$ be a series of real numbers and suppose that $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sqrt[n]{|a_n|} = l$. then

1. The series converges absolutely if $l < 1$.
2. The series diverges if $l > 1$ or l is infinite.
3. The test is inconclusive if $l = 1$.

The Power Series:

Let a be given real number and x be a real variable. A power series in $x - a$ or a power series centered at a or a power series about a is a series of the form

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n (x - a)^n = a_0 + a_1(x - a) + a_2 (x - a)^2 + \dots a_n (x - a)^n + \dots$$

Where a_n 's are constants called coefficients of the series.

Note:

1. The power series $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n (x - a)^n$ may converges at exactly at $x = a$.

2. The power series $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n(x-a)^n$ may converge in some interval with radius R where a is the centre of that interval.
3. The power series $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n(x-a)^n$ may converge for the values of x at everywhere on the real line.

Radius of Convergence:

1. If a power series $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n(x-a)^n$ converges in some interval (p,q) where ' a ' is the centre, then the radius of the convergence is the half of the distance from p to q on the real line.
2. If a power series $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n(x-a)^n$ converges exactly at a , then the radius of convergence is zero.
3. If a power series $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n(x-a)^n$ converges for the values of x at everywhere on the real line, then the radius of the convergence is ∞ .

Term by Term Differentiation:

The power series $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n(x-a)^n$ converges to some function $f(x)$ in some interval $a-R < x < a+R$, we can write it as

$$f(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n(x-a)^n \quad \text{where } a-R < x < a+R$$

By the term by term Differentiation theorem,

$$f(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n(x-a)^n \quad \text{where } a-R < x < a+R$$

$$f'(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} n a_n(x-a)^{n-1} \quad \text{where } a-R < x < a+R$$

$$f''(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} n(n-1) a_n(x-a)^{n-2} \quad \text{where } a-R < x < a+R$$

And so on. It means that the derivatives of the power series $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n(x-a)^n$ are $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} n a_n(x-a)^{n-1}, \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} n(n-1) a_n(x-a)^{n-2}$

..... are also convergent series and converge to $f'(x)$, $f''(x)$, respectively in the same interval $a - R < x < a + R$.

Term by Term Integration:

The power series $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n (x - a)^n$ converges to Some function $f(x)$ in some interval $a - R < x < a + R$, we can write it as

$$f(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n (x - a)^n \quad \text{where } a - R < x < a + R$$

By the term by term Integration theorem,

$$f(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n (x - a)^n \quad \text{where } a - R < x < a + R$$

$$\int f(x) dx = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n \frac{(x-a)^{n+1}}{n+1} + C \quad \text{where } a - R < x < a + R$$

$$\int(\int f(x) dx) dx = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n \frac{1}{n+1} \frac{(x-a)^{n+2}}{n+2} + C \quad \text{where } a - R < x < a + R$$

And so on. It means that the integrals of the power series $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n (x - a)^n$ are $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n \frac{(x-a)^{n+1}}{n+1} + C$, $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n \frac{1}{n+1} \frac{(x-a)^{n+2}}{n+2} + C$ are also convergent series and converge to $\int f(x) dx$, $\int(\int f(x) dx) dx$ respectively in the same interval $a - R < x < a + R$.

Taylor Series:

Let f be a function with derivatives of all orders throughout some interval containing a as an interior point. Then the Taylor Series generated by f at $x = a$ is

$$\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{f^k(a)}{k!} (x - a)^k = f(a) + f'(a)(x - a) + \frac{f''(a)}{2!} (x - a)^2 + \dots \dots \dots$$

$$\dots \dots \dots \frac{f^n(a)}{n!} (x - a)^n + \dots \dots \dots$$

By Using the Taylor series formula, we can find a power series to a given function $f(x)$ by at given real number a .

Maclaurin Series:

If we take the real number $a = 0$ in the above Taylor Series, then the Taylor series becomes as

$$\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{f^{(k)}(0)}{k!} (x)^k = f(a) + f'(0)(x) + \frac{f''(0)}{2!} (x)^2 + \dots + \frac{f^{(n)}(0)}{n!} (x)^n + \dots$$

It is called a “Maclaurin Series”.

Taylor Polynomial:

From the Taylor Series Formula,

$$\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{f^{(k)}(a)}{k!} (x - a)^k = f(a) + f'(a)(x - a) + \frac{f''(a)}{2!} (x - a)^2 + \dots + \frac{f^{(n)}(a)}{n!} (x - a)^n + \dots$$

We can write the Taylor Polynomials as

Polynomial of Order 1 is $P_1 = f(a) + f'(a)(x - a)$

Polynomial of Order 2 is $P_2 = f(a) + f'(a)(x - a) + \frac{f''(a)}{2!} (x - a)^2$

Polynomial of Order 3 is $P_3 = f(a) + f'(a)(x - a) + \frac{f''(a)}{2!} (x - a)^2 + \frac{f'''(a)}{3!} (x - a)^3$

General form of Taylor polynomial of Order n is

$$P_n = f(a) + f'(a)(x - a) + \frac{f''(a)}{2!} (x - a)^2 + \dots + \frac{f^{(n)}(a)}{n!} (x - a)^n .$$

Note:

We can use these Taylor polynomials to get approximate value of the function $f(x)$ at given real number a .

Taylor Formula:

By mentioned in the above note, we can estimate the value of function $f(x)$ at given real number a by using the Taylor Polynomials. But the polynomials will not give the exact value of the function and some error R_n exists.

Suppose, if we are estimating the function $f(x)$ value at a by using the Taylor Polynomial of order 1 that is P_1 , then there will be some error R_1 . We can write it as

$$f(x) = P_1 + R_1$$

Suppose, if we are estimating the function $f(x)$ value at a by using the Taylor Polynomial of order 2 that is P_2 , then there will be some error R_2 . We can write it as

$$f(x) = P_2 + R_2$$

In the same way, we can write the general formula as

$$**$f(x) = P_n + R_n$**$$

Where P_n is the Taylor Polynomial of Order n and R_n is the estimating error. The above formula is called the “**Taylor Formula**”.

In the Taylor Formula,

$$f(x) = P_n + R_n$$

If $n \rightarrow \infty$ then $R_n \rightarrow 0$ (The estimating error will become Zero) and

P_n will become the Taylor Series formula. (The Taylor Polynomial Order n will become the Taylor Series Formula as $n \rightarrow \infty$).

As long as we have memories,

yesterday remains.

As long as we have hope,

tomorrow awaits.

As long as we have friendship,

each day is never a waste.

Jaya Krishna Reddy. M.