## Calculus 141, section 9.4 Infinite Series

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A sequence  $\{a_n\}_{n=m}^{\infty}$  consists of an ordered set of numbers. If we were to begin adding the numbers of a

sequence together,  $s_j = a_m + a_{m+1} + \ldots + a_{m+j-1}$ , we would have a *partial sum*, designated as  $\sum_{n=m}^{m+j-1} a_n$ . The sum

 $s_j$  above of the first *j* terms is called the *j*th partial sum. If we take the sum to infinity,  $\sum_{n=m}^{\infty} a_n$ , then we have an

*series*, that is, an infinite sum. But what does it mean to add an infinite sequence of numbers, and can such an infinite series add up to a finite number? In other words, does an infinite series have a limit, does it converge?

Definition: Given a sequence 
$$\{a_n\}_{n=m}^{\infty}$$
 and a series  $\sum_{n=m}^{\infty} a_n$ , if  $\lim_{j \to \infty} (a_m + a_{m+1} + \ldots + a_{m+j-1})$  exists, then

 $\sum_{n=m}^{\infty} a_n = \lim_{j \to \infty} (a_m + a_{m+1} + \ldots + a_{m+j-1})$  and the series converges. If the limit goes to  $\infty$  or does not exist, then the series diverges

series diverges.

How can we determine whether or not a series converges? One way to approach this is to remember that we have *two* sequences involved in every series. The first is the sequence of terms  $\{a_n\}_{n=m}^{\infty}$ . The second is the sequence of partial sums:  $s_m = a_m$ ,  $s_{m+1} = a_m + a_{m+1}$ ,  $s_{m+2} = a_m + a_{m+1} + a_{m+2}$ , .... If we can show that the sequence of partial sums  $\{s_j\}$  converges, we will be able to conclude that the series converges. Example A: Does the series  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{2^n} = 1 + \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{4} + \frac{1}{8} + \dots$  converge, and if so, to what limit?

Intuitive Answer: converges to what value?

Be careful that you are clear in your own mind about the differences among the sequence, the sequence of partial sums, and the series.

sequence	$\{a_n\} = \left\{\frac{1}{2^n}\right\}_n = 0$	$1, \ \frac{1}{2}, \ \frac{1}{4}, \ \frac{1}{8}, \ \frac{1}{16}, \ldots$
sequence of partial sums	$\left\{s_{j}\right\} = \left\{2 - \frac{1}{2^{j}}\right\}_{j=0}^{\infty}$	$2-1, \ 2-\frac{1}{2}, \ 2-\frac{1}{4}, \ 2-\frac{1}{8}, \ 2-\frac{1}{16}, \dots$
series	$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{2^n}$	$1 + \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{4} + \frac{1}{8} + \frac{1}{16} + \dots$
Example A extended: Find $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{2^n}$ and $\sum_{n=2}^{\infty} \frac{1}{2^n}$ . Answers: converges to 1; converges to $\frac{1}{2}$		

Example A extended again: Find  $\sum_{m=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{2^{m+1}}$  and  $\sum_{m=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{2^{m+2}}$ . Answers: converges to 1; to  $\frac{1}{2}$ 

Example B: Determine whether or not the series  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^2 + 7n + 12}$  converges and if so, find its limit.

Example C: Determine whether  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (-1)^n$  converges, and if so, find its limit. Answer: diverges

The text proves a couple of theorems that formalize the relationship between a series and its related sequence. Theorem 9.8 states: If  $\sum_{n=m}^{\infty} a_n$  converges, then  $\lim_{n \to \infty} a_n = 0$ . The contrapositive, which is logically equivalent is stated as Corollary 9.9: If  $\lim_{n \to \infty} a_n \neq 0$  or does not exist, then  $\sum_{n=m}^{\infty} a_n$  diverges. Note that in Examples A and B above (convergent series),  $\lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{1}{2^n} = 0$  and  $\lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{1}{n^2 + 7n + 12} = 0$ , while in Example C (divergent series),  $\lim_{n\to\infty} (-1)^n$  does not exist. Also, from Lecture 9.3 Example A in, we now know that  $\sum_{n \to \infty}^{\infty} \sqrt{n^2 + 3n} - n$  diverges since  $\lim_{n \to \infty} \sqrt{n^2 + 3n} - n = \frac{3}{2} \neq 0$ .

**Important cautionary note** (again): Be sure that you are clear in your own mind that there is a difference between the sequence of terms for  $\{a_n\}_{n=m}^{\infty}$  and the sequence of partial sums  $\{s_j\}$  produced by the series

$$\sum_{n=m}^{n} a_n$$

The converse of Theorem 9.8 is *not* true:  $\lim_{n \to \infty} a_n = 0$  is not a guarantee that  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$  will converge. Although the harmonic sequence  $\left\{\frac{1}{n}\right\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$  converges to 0, the harmonic series  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n}$  diverges (see text Example 4). Thus (Lecture 9.3 Example B) since the sequence  $\left\{\frac{n!}{n^n}\right\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$  converges to 0, although we can say that the series  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{n!}{n^n}$  might converge, we cannot be certain that it **does** converge.

The text also proves some very convenient theorems which ease the task of evaluating series. Theorem 9.10 states: For  $c \neq 0$  and  $m \ge 0$ , the geometric series  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} c r^n$  converges if and only if |r| < 1, and if it converges we can calculate the sum of the series:  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} c r^{n} = \frac{c r^{m}}{1-r}.$ 

The proof relies on calculating the sequence of partial sums and identifying the pattern which emerges.

Example A, 
$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{2^n} = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^n$$
 is a geometric series with  $c = 1$  and  $r = \frac{1}{2}$ , and  
 $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{2^n} = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^n = \frac{1\left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^0}{1 - \frac{1}{2}} = \frac{1}{\frac{1}{2}} = 2$  and  $\sum_{n=2}^{\infty} \frac{1}{2^n} = \sum_{n=2}^{\infty} \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^n = \frac{1\left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^2}{1 - \frac{1}{2}} = \frac{1}{\frac{1}{2}} = \frac{1}{2}$ .

Theorem 9.11 and associated theorems give us means of combining series in much the same way that we can add (and subtract) and multiply (and divide) limits:

a. If 
$$\sum_{n=m}^{\infty} a_n$$
 and  $\sum_{n=m}^{\infty} b_n$  both converge, then  $\sum_{n=m}^{\infty} (a_n + b_n)$  converges and  $\sum_{n=m}^{\infty} (a_n + b_n) = \sum_{n=m}^{\infty} a_n + \sum_{n=m}^{\infty} b_n$ .  
b. For any number c, if  $\sum_{n=m}^{\infty} a_n$  converges, then  $\sum_{n=m}^{\infty} c a_n$  also converges and  $\sum_{n=m}^{\infty} c a_n = c * \sum_{n=m}^{\infty} a_n$ .

Example D: Evaluate  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{4+2^n}{3^{n+1}}$ . Answer: converges to 3

Method: Use factoring and separation of fractions to rearrange the series into the form of a geometric series and use the formula from Theorem 9.10 to evaluate:  $\sum_{n=m}^{\infty} c r^n = \frac{c r^m}{1-r}$  with |r| < 1.

factor: 
$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{4+2^{n}}{3^{n+1}} = \frac{1}{3} \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{4+2^{n}}{3^{n}}$$
  
separate the fractions  
(distribute the division): 
$$= \frac{1}{3} \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{4}{3^{n}} + \frac{1}{3} \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{2^{n}}{3^{n}}$$
  
rewrite as  $c r^{n}$ : 
$$= \frac{4}{3} \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \left(\frac{1}{3}\right)^{n} + \frac{1}{3} \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \left(\frac{2}{3}\right)^{n}$$
  
apply Theorem 9.10: 
$$= \frac{\frac{4}{3} \left(\frac{1}{3}\right)^{0}}{1-\frac{1}{3}} + \frac{\frac{1}{3} \left(\frac{2}{3}\right)^{0}}{1-\frac{2}{3}}$$
  
simplify: 
$$= \frac{\frac{4}{3}}{\frac{2}{3}} + \frac{\frac{1}{3}}{\frac{1}{3}} = 2 + 1 = 3$$