

11.1 Infinite Series

Sigma Notation

Let a_0, a_1, a_2, \dots denote numbers. We write

$$\sum_{k=0}^n a_k \text{ for } a_0 + a_1 + a_2 + \dots + a_n.$$

Thus we first read below the sigma sign Σ , and see $k = 0$. We read above the sigma sign and see n . Then we substitute $k = 0, k = 1, \dots$, in a_k , stopping at $k = n$. We add all the a_k . The term k is called the **index of summation**.

More generally, if $n \geq m$, we write

$$\sum_{k=m}^n a_k \text{ for } a_m + a_{m+1} + a_{m+2} + \dots + a_n.$$

Note that k is a "dummy variable". We could use i, j, ℓ and so on. Thus also

$$\sum_{j=m}^n a_j = a_m + a_{m+1} + a_{m+2} + \dots + a_n.$$

Rules for Sigma

(I) The Sigma of the Sum is the Sum of the Sigmas

$$\sum_{k=0}^n (a_k + b_k) = \sum_{k=0}^n a_k + \sum_{k=0}^n b_k.$$

Proof

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{k=0}^n (a_k + b_k) &= (a_0 + b_0) + (a_1 + b_1) + \dots + (a_n + b_n) \\ &= (a_0 + a_1 + \dots + a_n) + (b_0 + b_1 + \dots + b_n) \\ &= \sum_{k=0}^n a_k + \sum_{k=0}^n b_k. \end{aligned}$$

(II) We can pull a constant outside a sigma sign:

$$\sum_{k=0}^n (2a_k) = 2 \sum_{k=0}^n a_k.$$

The key issue here is that the 2 does not depend on the index k of summation. More generally, if C is a real number,

$$\sum_{k=0}^n (Ca_k) = C \sum_{k=0}^n a_k.$$

Proof

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{k=0}^n (Ca_k) &= (Ca_0 + Ca_1 + \dots + Ca_n) \\ &= C(a_0 + a_1 + \dots + a_n) \\ &= C \sum_{k=0}^n a_k. \end{aligned}$$

(III) Sometimes we **change the index of summation**: for example,

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{k=3}^n a_k &= a_3 + a_4 + \dots + a_n \\ &= \sum_{j=0}^{n-3} a_{3+j}. \end{aligned}$$

(IV) Sometimes we **add a term that does not depend on the index of summation**: for example,

$$\sum_{k=0}^n 1 = \underbrace{1 + 1 + 1 + \dots + 1}_{n+1 \text{ times}} = n+1.$$

More generally, if C is a constant,

$$\sum_{k=m}^n C = \underbrace{C + C + C + \dots + C}_{n-m+1 \text{ times}} = (n-m+1)C.$$

Infinite Series

We can add 3 or 100 numbers. Can we add infinitely many? Suppose we have real numbers

$$a_0, a_1, a_2, \dots$$

We can add more and more of these:

$$s_0 = a_0 = \sum_{k=0}^0 a_k;$$

$$s_1 = a_0 + a_1 = \sum_{k=0}^1 a_k;$$

$$s_2 = a_0 + a_1 + a_2 = \sum_{k=0}^2 a_k;$$

\vdots

$$s_n = a_0 + a_1 + a_2 + \dots + a_n = \sum_{k=0}^n a_k.$$

We call s_n the n th **partial sum**, and we call $\{s_n\}$ the **sequence of partial sums**.

Definition 11.1.1 (Page 635 of SHE)

(I) We call

$$\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} a_k$$

an **infinite series**.

(II) If $\{s_n\}$, the sequence of partial sums, converges to a finite limit L , then we say that the series

$$\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} a_k \text{ converges to } L.$$

We call L the sum of the series in this case.

(III) If $\{s_n\}$ diverges, we say that the series

$$\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} a_k \text{ diverges.}$$

Example 1

Test

$$\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{(k+1)(k+2)}$$

for convergence.

Solution

We use partial fractions:

$$\frac{1}{(k+1)(k+2)} = \frac{1}{k+1} - \frac{1}{k+2},$$

so

$$\begin{aligned}s_n &= \sum_{k=0}^n \frac{1}{(k+1)(k+2)} \\&= \sum_{k=0}^n \left[\frac{1}{k+1} - \frac{1}{k+2} \right] \\&= \left[1 - \frac{1}{2} \right] + \left[\frac{1}{2} - \frac{1}{3} \right] + \left[\frac{1}{3} - \frac{1}{4} \right] + \dots + \left[\frac{1}{n} - \frac{1}{n+1} \right] + \left[\frac{1}{n+1} - \frac{1}{n+2} \right] \\&= 1 - \frac{1}{n+2}.\end{aligned}$$

Then

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} s_n = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left(1 - \frac{1}{n+2} \right) = 1.$$

That, is, the series

$$\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{(k+1)(k+2)} \text{ converges to } 1,$$

or, we write

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

Alternative Method, using Sigma notation

$$\begin{aligned}s_n &= \sum_{k=0}^n \left[\frac{1}{k+1} - \frac{1}{k+2} \right] \\&= \sum_{k=0}^n \frac{1}{k+1} - \sum_{k=0}^n \frac{1}{k+2} \\&= \sum_{k=0}^n \frac{1}{k+1} - \sum_{j=1}^{n+1} \frac{1}{j+1} \\(\text{index change } j &= k+1 \text{ in second sum}) \\&= \frac{1}{1} + \sum_{k=1}^n \frac{1}{k+1} - \sum_{j=1}^n \frac{1}{j+1} - \frac{1}{n+2} \\&= 1 - \frac{1}{n+2}.\end{aligned}$$

Now proceed as before.

Telescopic Series

The sum s_n is above is an example of a **telescopic series**: if f is a function

defined on the integers,

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

That is, the sum on the left telescopes down to just two terms.

Example

Investigate convergence of the infinite series

$$\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} (-1)^k$$

Solution

Here

$$\begin{aligned} s_0 &= \sum_{k=0}^0 (-1)^k = 1; \\ s_1 &= \sum_{k=0}^1 (-1)^k = 1 + (-1) = 0; \\ s_2 &= \sum_{k=0}^2 (-1)^k = 1 - 1 + 1 = 1; \\ s_3 &= \sum_{k=0}^3 (-1)^k = 1 - 1 + 1 - 1 = 0. \end{aligned}$$

We see that

$$s_n = \begin{cases} 1, & n \text{ even;} \\ 0, & n \text{ odd.} \end{cases}$$

Then $\{s_n\}$ diverges, so the series $\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} (-1)^k$ diverges.

The Geometric Series

The sequence $\{1, x, x^2, \dots\} = \{x^n\}$ is called a geometric progression. We now investigate convergence of the **geometric series**

$$\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} x^k.$$

Recall that

$$|x| < 1 \Rightarrow \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} x^n = 0$$

and

$$|x| > 1 \Rightarrow \{x^n\} \text{ is unbounded.}$$

Theorem 11.1.2 (Page 637 of SHE) Geometric Series

(i) If $|x| < 1$, then $\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} x^k$ converges and

$$\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} x^k = \frac{1}{1-x}.$$

(ii) If $|x| \geq 1$, then $\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} x^k$ diverges.

Proof

The n th partial sum is

$$s_n = \sum_{k=0}^n x^k = 1 + x + x^2 + \dots + x^n.$$

Multiply by x :

$$\begin{aligned} xs_n &= x(1 + x + x^2 + \dots + x^n) \\ &= x + x^2 + x^3 + \dots + x^{n+1}. \end{aligned}$$

Then

$$\begin{aligned} s_n - xs_n &= (1 + x + x^2 + \dots + x^n) - (x + x^2 + x^3 + \dots + x^{n+1}) \\ &= 1 - x^{n+1}. \end{aligned}$$

That is

$$s_n(1-x) = 1 - x^{n+1}$$

or, as long as $x \neq 1$,

$$s_n = \frac{1 - x^{n+1}}{1 - x}. \quad (1)$$

This is the familiar formula for a finite geometric series. Now we consider two subcases:

(I) $|x| < 1$

Here

$$\begin{aligned} \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} s_n &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1 - x^{n+1}}{1 - x} \\ &= \frac{1 - 0}{1 - x} = \frac{1}{1 - x}. \end{aligned}$$

So in this case, the series converges to $\frac{1}{1-x}$.

(II) $|x| \geq 1$

$x = 1$
Here

$$\begin{aligned} s_n &= \sum_{k=0}^{n+1} 1 \\ &= \underbrace{1 + 1 + 1 + \dots + 1}_{n+1 \text{ times}} \\ &= n + 1 \rightarrow \infty, n \rightarrow \infty. \end{aligned}$$

So for $x = 1$ the geometric series diverges.

$x = -1$
Here

$$\begin{aligned} s_n &= \sum_{k=0}^n (-1)^k \\ &= \begin{cases} 1, & n \text{ even;} \\ 0, & n \text{ odd.} \end{cases} \end{aligned}$$

as in the example above. So $\{s_n\}$ diverges and the series diverges.

$|x| > 1$

Here from (1),

$$s_n = \frac{1 - x^{n+1}}{1 - x}$$

is unbounded as $n \rightarrow \infty$, since $\{x^n\}$ is. So the series diverges. ■

Example

Take $x = \frac{1}{2}$:

$$\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^k = \frac{1}{1 - \frac{1}{2}} = 2.$$

Some Basic Results

Theorem 11.1.4 (Page 639 of SHE)

(1) **The Series of The Sum is the Sum of the Series**

If

$$\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} a_k \text{ converges and } \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} b_k \text{ converges,}$$

then

$$\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} (a_k + b_k) \text{ converges}$$

and

$$\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} (a_k + b_k) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} a_k + \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} b_k.$$

(2) Can Pull a Constant out from a Series

If α is a real number and

$$\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} a_k \text{ converges,}$$

then

$$\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} (\alpha a_k) \text{ converges}$$

and

$$\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} (\alpha a_k) = \alpha \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} a_k.$$

Example

$$\begin{aligned} & \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \left(\frac{3}{2^k} + \left(-\frac{1}{3} \right)^k \right) \\ &= \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{3}{2^k} + \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \left(-\frac{1}{3} \right)^k \\ &= 3 \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \left(\frac{1}{2} \right)^k + \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \left(-\frac{1}{3} \right)^k \\ &= 3 \frac{1}{1 - \frac{1}{2}} + \frac{1}{1 - \left(-\frac{1}{3} \right)} \\ &= 6 + \frac{1}{\frac{4}{3}} = 6\frac{3}{4}. \end{aligned}$$

Here we have used our result for geometric series,

$$\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} x^k = \frac{1}{1-x}, |x| < 1.$$

Theorem 11.1.5 (page 640 of SHE)

If

$$\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} a_k$$

converges, then

$$\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} a_k = 0.$$

Proof

As usual, let

$$s_n = a_0 + a_1 + a_2 + \dots + a_n$$

denote the n th partial sum. Observe that

$$s_n - s_{n-1} = a_n.$$

By definition of convergence,

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} s_n = L,$$

where L is the sum of the series, that is,

$$L = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} a_k.$$

But then as $n \rightarrow \infty$, both s_n and s_{n-1} converge to L , so

$$\begin{aligned} \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (s_n - s_{n-1}) \\ &= L - L = 0. \end{aligned}$$

■

It follows that if $a_k \not\rightarrow 0$ as $k \rightarrow \infty$, then the series cannot converge:

Theorem 11.1.6 (Page 640 of SHE) Basic Divergence Test

If

$$a_k \not\rightarrow 0 \text{ as } k \rightarrow \infty$$

then

$$\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} a_k \text{ diverges.}$$

Example

Does

$$\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} (-1)^k \frac{k}{k+1} \text{ converge?}$$

Solution

We see that here

$$a_k = (-1)^k \frac{k}{k+1}, k \geq 0.$$

Now

$$\begin{aligned} \lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} |a_k| &= \lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} \frac{k}{k+1} \\ &= \lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} \frac{k}{k \left(1 + \frac{1}{k}\right)} \\ &= \lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{1 + \frac{1}{k}} = \frac{1}{1+0} = 1 \neq 0. \end{aligned}$$

(You could also do this using l' Hospital's rule, showing

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{x}{x+1} = 1.)$$

Then

$$a_k \rightarrow 0 \text{ as } k \rightarrow \infty$$

so

$$\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} a_k = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} (-1)^k \frac{k}{k+1} \text{ diverges.}$$