

## 4.4 Rearrangement of Series

 *Warning.* Do not rearrange series and sum them in a different order unless you are a professional who knows what you are doing and can *prove* the result is the same.

Without a license you can rearrange partial sums only; they are finite so  $a+b = b+a$  makes them behave. Infinite sums are more difficult beasts.

**Example 4.28.**  $\sum(-1)^{n+1} = 1 - 1 + 1 - 1 + \dots$

either this “=”  $(1 - 1) + (1 - 1) + \dots = 0$ ,

or this “=”  $1 - (1 - 1) + (1 - 1) + \dots = 1$ .

A better (convergent) example:

**Example 4.29.** Let  $a_n = \frac{(-1)^{n+1}}{n}$  so that  $\sum a_n = 1 - \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{3} - \frac{1}{4} + \dots$  is convergent by the Alternating Series Test.

**Exercise 4.30.**  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n > \frac{1}{2}$ .

(In fact  $\sum a_n = \log 2$  can be seen by substituting  $x = 1$  into the Taylor series  $\log(1+x) = x - \frac{x^2}{2} + \dots$  even though  $x = 1$  is on its radius of convergence.)

Reorder  $\sum a_n$  as follows:

$$\begin{aligned} & 1 \quad +\frac{1}{3} \quad +\frac{1}{5} \quad +\frac{1}{7} \quad \dots \\ & -\frac{1}{2} \quad -\frac{1}{4} \quad -\frac{1}{6} \quad \dots \\ = & 1 \quad +\frac{1}{3} \quad +\frac{1}{5} \quad +\frac{1}{7} \quad \dots \\ & -\frac{1}{2} [ \quad 1 \quad +\frac{1}{2} \quad +\frac{1}{3} \quad \dots ] \end{aligned}$$

Terms with even denominator appear only in bottom row ( $\times \frac{-1}{2}$ ).

Terms with odd denominator appear in the top row ( $\times 1$ ) and bottom row ( $\times \frac{-1}{2}$ ), so ( $\times \frac{1}{2}$ ) in total.

So we get  $\frac{1}{2}[1 - \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{3} - \frac{1}{4} + \frac{1}{5} - \frac{1}{6} + \dots] = \frac{1}{2} \sum a_n$ .

Thus reordering the sum can lead to a different result.

This happened because when I reordered I went along the bottom row twice as fast as I went along the top row (check you see this!). Since the top and bottom rows are both series which diverge to  $\infty$ , I'm computing  $\infty - \infty$ , and this can give me

anything depending on how quickly I add up the first  $\infty$  and how quickly I take away the second.

In fact we can rearrange  $\sum \frac{(-1)^{n+1}}{n}$  to converge to anything we like.

**Example 4.31.** Rearrange  $\sum \frac{(-1)^{n+1}}{n}$  to make it converge to your favourite number.

Pick your favourite number; call it  $\pi$  say. Then reorder the sum as follows.

1. Take only odd terms  $a_{2n+1} > 0$  until their sum is  $> \pi$ . We can do this as  $1 + \frac{1}{3} + \dots$  diverges to  $\infty$ !
2. Now take only even terms  $a_{2n} < 0$  until sum gets  $< \pi$ .
3. Repeat 1 and 2 to fade.

We can do each step because  $\sum a_{2n+1} \rightarrow +\infty$  and  $\sum a_{2n} \rightarrow -\infty$ . If we did not eventually use all the terms  $a_n$  then we must eventually only take terms of one type (without loss of generality the even terms  $< 0$ ), but the even terms sum to  $-\infty$  so our sum eventually drops below  $\pi$  and we start taking odd terms  $> 0$  again.

Finally we sketch the proof that this reordered sum converges to  $\pi$ . Since  $a_n \rightarrow 0$ ,

$$\forall \epsilon > 0 \exists N \in \mathbb{N}_{>0} \text{ such that } n \geq N \implies |a_n| < \epsilon. \quad (*)$$

Go down the reordered sequence to a point where we have used all  $a_1, a_2, \dots, a_N$ , and then further to the point where the partial sum crosses  $\pi$ . At this point,  $(*)$  holds, so the sum is within  $\epsilon$  of  $\pi$ . From this point on the sum is always within  $\epsilon$  of  $\pi$  by design and by  $(*)$ . But this is the dictionary definition of the sum converging to  $\pi$ .

**Definition** (Rearrangement of a sequence) Given a bijection  $n: \mathbb{N}_{>0} \rightarrow \mathbb{N}_{>0}$ , define  $b_i := a_{n(i)}$ . Then  $(b_i)_{i \geq 1}$  is a *rearrangement* or *reordering* of  $(a_n)_{n \geq 1}$ .

Then the method of Example 4.31 shows that if  $(a_n)$  is any sequence such that

- $a_n \rightarrow 0$ ,
- $\sum_{n: a_n \geq 0} a_n \rightarrow +\infty$ ,
- $\sum_{n: a_n < 0} a_n \rightarrow -\infty$ ,

then we can rearrange the series  $\sum a_n$  to make it converge to *any* real number we like by the algorithm above.

**And** we can make it diverge to  $+\infty$  or to  $-\infty$ .

For instance, here's an algorithm to make it diverge to  $+\infty$ :

**Exercise 4.32.** Show this is a reordering and the sum diverges to  $+\infty$ .

**Exercise 4.33.** If  $(a_n)$  is a sequence such that

- $a_n \rightarrow 0$ ,
- $\sum_{n: a_n \geq 0} a_n \rightarrow +\infty$ ,
- $\sum_{n: a_n < 0} a_n$  converges,

then any reordering of  $\sum a_n$  will diverge to  $+\infty$ .

The “good case” is when

- $\sum_{n: a_n \geq 0} a_n$  converges,
- $\sum_{n: a_n < 0} a_n$  converges,

which imply  $a_n \rightarrow 0$  of course. Together these are equivalent to  $\sum_n a_n$  being absolutely convergent, and in this case any reordering will give the same sum.

**Theorem 4.34**

$\sum a_n$  is absolutely convergent  $\iff$  (1) + (2)  $\implies$  (3) + (4), where

- (1)  $\sum_{a_n \geq 0} a_n$  is convergent (to  $A$  say),
- (2)  $\sum_{a_n < 0} a_n$  is convergent (to  $B$  say),
- (3)  $\sum a_n = A + B$ ,
- (4)  $\sum b_m = A + B$  where  $(b_m)$  is any rearrangement of  $(a_n)$ .

*Idea:*  $\sum |a_n|$  is convergent so has a significant finite part and then a small “insignificant” tail. Any reordering covers all the finite part after finitely many terms, and then all that remains is insignificant: just a reordering of part of the tail.

*Proof.* Let  $p_1, p_2, p_3, \dots$  be the nonnegative  $a_n \geq 0$  (so  $p_i$  is the  $i$ th nonnegative element of the sequence  $(a_n)$ ).

Similarly let  $n_1, n_2, n_3, \dots$  be the negative  $a_n < 0$ .

Suppose  $\sum a_n$  is absolutely convergent, and set  $R := \sum_n |a_n|$ . For any  $n \in \mathbb{N}_{>0}$  the partial sum of the  $p_i$  satisfies

$$\sum_{i=1}^n p_i \leq \sum_{i=1}^N |a_i| \leq R,$$

for any  $N$  sufficiently large that  $\{p_1, \dots, p_n\} \subseteq \{a_1, \dots, a_N\}$ . Therefore the partial sums of the  $p_i$  are monotonically increasing, bounded above and so convergent (to  $A$  say), proving (1).

Similarly the partial sums of the  $n_i$  are monotonically decreasing, bounded below and so convergent (to  $B$  say), proving (2).

So if we fix any  $\epsilon > 0$ , then

$$\exists N_1 \text{ such that } n \geq N_1 \implies A - \epsilon < \sum_{i=1}^n p_i \leq A, \quad (\text{A})$$

$$\exists N_2 \text{ such that } n \geq N_2 \implies B < \sum_{i=1}^n n_i < B + \epsilon. \quad (\text{B})$$

In particular, by monotonicity,

$$0 \leq \sum_{i \in I} p_i < \epsilon \quad \text{for any } I \subset \{N_1 + 1, N_1 + 2, \dots\}, \quad (\text{C})$$

$$-\epsilon < \sum_{j \in J} n_j < 0 \quad \text{for any } J \subset \{N_2 + 1, N_2 + 2, \dots\}. \quad (\text{D})$$

Using (A-D) we next show that any rearrangement  $(b_m)$  of  $(a_n)$  sums to  $A + B$ . This will prove (3) and (4).

Pick  $N$  is sufficiently large that both  $\{p_1, \dots, p_{N_1}\}$  and  $\{n_1, \dots, n_{N_2}\}$  are subsets of  $\{b_1, \dots, b_N\}$ . (I.e. go far enough down the sequence  $(b_m)$  that we've included all the “significant”  $p_i$  and  $n_j$ .) Then write the complement as  $\{p_i\}_{i \in I} \cup \{n_j\}_{j \in J}$ , where  $I$  is a set of indices  $> N_1$  and  $J$  is a set of indices  $> N_2$ .

Hence  $\forall n \geq N$ ,

$$\begin{aligned} \left| \sum_{i=1}^n b_i - (A + B) \right| &= \left| \sum_{i=1}^{N_1} p_i - A + \sum_{j=1}^{N_2} n_j - B + \sum_{i \in I} p_i + \sum_{j \in J} n_j \right| \\ &\leq \left| \sum_{i=1}^{N_1} p_i - A \right| + \left| \sum_{j=1}^{N_2} n_j - B \right| + \sum_{i \in I} p_i + \sum_{j \in J} |n_j| \\ &< \epsilon + \epsilon + \epsilon + \epsilon \end{aligned}$$

by (A), (B), (C) and (D) respectively.

Finally we prove that (1)+(2)  $\implies$   $\sum |a_n|$  is convergent. We fix  $\epsilon > 0$  and use the same  $N_1, N_2, N$  as above so that  $\forall n \geq N$ ,  $\{a_1, \dots, a_n\}$  contains both  $\{p_1, \dots, p_{N_1}\}$  and  $\{n_1, \dots, n_{N_2}\}$ . Therefore

$$\sum_{i=1}^n |a_i| = \sum_{i=1}^{N'} p_i - \sum_{i=1}^{N''} n_i,$$

where  $N' \geq N_1$  and  $N'' \geq N_2$ . Applying (A) and (B) to the RHS then gives

$$(A - \epsilon) - (B + \epsilon) < \sum_{i=1}^n |a_i| \leq A - B,$$

so  $\sum |a_i|$  converges to  $A - B$ . □

## 4.5 Power Series

Let  $[0, \infty]$  denote the set  $[0, \infty) \cup \{+\infty\}$ .

**Theorem 4.35: Radius of Convergence**

Fix a real or complex series  $(a_n)$  and consider the series  $\sum a_n z^n$  for  $z \in \mathbb{C}$ .

Then  $\exists R \in [0, \infty]$  such that

- $|z| < R \implies \sum a_n z^n$  is absolutely convergent, and
- $|z| > R \implies \sum a_n z^n$  is divergent.

*Proof.* Let  $S = \{|z| : a_n z^n \rightarrow 0\}$ , nonempty since  $0 \in S$ . Then define

$$R = \begin{cases} \sup S & \text{if } S \text{ bounded,} \\ \infty & \text{if } S \text{ unbounded.} \end{cases}$$

Now suppose  $|z| < R$ . Since  $|z|$  not an upper bound for  $S$  there exists  $w$  such that  $|w| > |z|$  and  $a_n w^n \rightarrow 0$ . In particular  $|a_n w^n|$  is bounded by some  $A$  for all  $n$ . Thus

$$|a_n z^n| = |a_n w^n| \left| \frac{z}{w} \right|^n \leq A \left| \frac{z}{w} \right|^n.$$

Therefore by comparison with the convergent series  $\sum \left| \frac{z}{w} \right|^n$  (recall  $\left| \frac{z}{w} \right| < 1$ ) we find  $\sum |a_n z^n|$  is convergent.

On the other hand, if  $|z| > R$  then  $a_n z^n \not\rightarrow 0$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty \implies \sum a_n z^n$  diverges.  $\square$

Notice how simple this was. If  $|a_n w^n|$  is just bounded (so nowhere near convergent!) then  $\sum |a_n z^n|$  is convergent for  $|z| < |w|$  because  $\left( \frac{|z|}{|w|} \right)^n$  decays exponentially as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ .

*Remark 4.36.*  $R$  is called the *radius of convergence* of  $\sum a_n z^n$ . Note we are not saying anything about its behaviour on the circle  $|z| = R$ .

**Exercise 4.37.** Consider the sequences

(a)  $a_n = \frac{1}{n^2}$ ,

(b)  $a_n = \frac{1}{n}$ ,

(c)  $a_n = 1$ .

The exponential-in- $n$  behaviour of  $z^n$  makes the **ratio test** particularly useful for testing convergence of power series, for instance readily giving the following.

**Exercise 4.38.** Suppose  $\left| \frac{a_{n+1}}{a_n} \right| \rightarrow a \in [0, \infty]$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ .

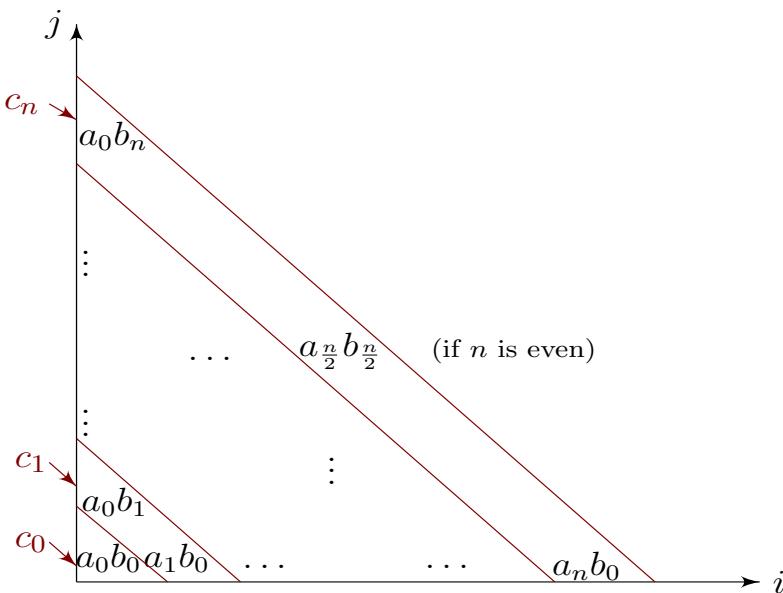
Then  $R = \frac{1}{a}$  is the radius of convergence of  $\sum a_n z^n$ .

### 4.5.1 Products of Series

Consider

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n z^n \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} b_n z^n &= (a_0 + a_1 z + a_2 z^2 + \dots)(b_0 + b_1 z + b_2 z^2 + \dots) \\ &\quad “=” a_0 b_0 + (a_0 b_1 + a_1 b_0)z + (a_0 b_2 + a_1 b_1 + a_2 b_0)z^2 + \dots \\ &= \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} c_n z^n, \end{aligned}$$

where  $c_0 = a_0 b_0$ ,  $c_1 = a_0 b_1 + a_1 b_0 + 0, \dots$ ,  $c_n = a_0 b_n + a_1 b_{n-1} + \dots + a_n b_0$ .



So we set  $c_n = \sum_{i=0}^n a_i b_{n-i}$  and ask when is the product  $\sum a_n z^n \sum b_n z^n$  equal to  $\sum c_n z^n$ ? We can also do this without the  $z^n$ s:

**Definition.** Given series  $\sum a_n, \sum b_n$  their *Cauchy Product* is the series  $\sum c_n$  where  $c_n := \sum_{i=0}^n a_i b_{n-i}$ .

Notice we used power series to motivate this definition; it is not the only way we could collect all the terms  $a_i b_j$  to turn  $\sum a_i \sum b_j$  into a single sum. This is why we give it the specific name “Cauchy product”.

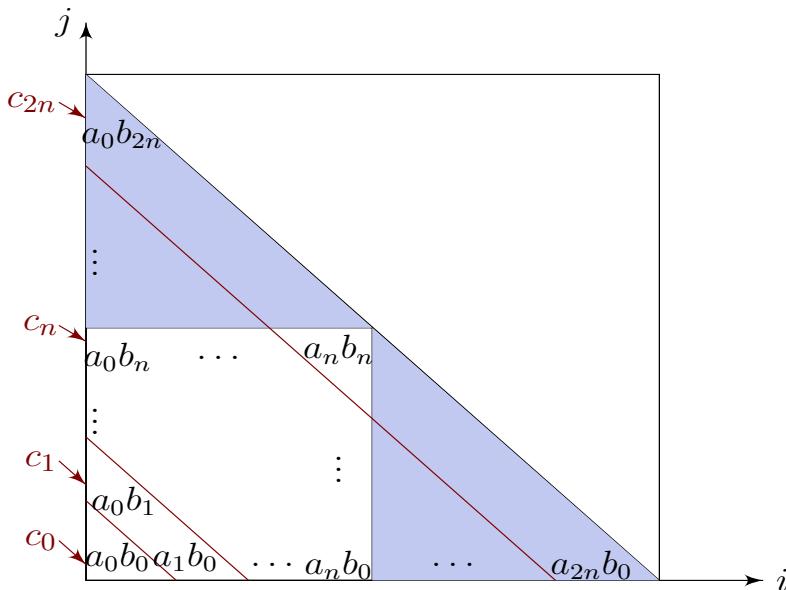
**Theorem 4.39: Cauchy Product**

If  $\sum a_n, \sum b_n$  are absolutely convergent, then their Cauchy product  $\sum c_n$  is absolutely convergent to  $(\sum a_n) \cdot (\sum b_n)$ .

*Proof.* (Non-examinable.) We try to control

$$\sum_{i=0}^{2n} c_i - \sum_{i,j=0}^n a_i b_j.$$

The first term is the sum of  $a_i b_j$  over all  $(i, j)$  below the diagonal in the diagram below. The second term is the sum over the small square. Therefore the difference is the sum of  $a_i b_j$  over  $(i, j)$  in the two shaded triangles.



By the triangle inequality

$$\left| \sum_{i=0}^{2n} c_i - \sum_{i,j=0}^n a_i b_j \right| \leq \sum |a_i b_j|,$$

where the right hand sum is over  $i, j$  in (2 shaded triangles)  $\subset$  (big square minus small square). Thus it is less than the sum over (big square minus small square),

$$\left| \sum_{i=0}^{2n} c_i - \sum_{i,j=0}^n a_i b_j \right| \leq \sum_{i=0}^{2n} \sum_{j=0}^{2n} |a_i b_j| - \sum_{i=0}^n \sum_{j=0}^n |a_i b_j|. \quad (1)$$

Now we're in good shape because we're summing over the complement of the small square, i.e. we're in the tail of at least one of  $\sum a_n$  or  $\sum b_n$ , and these are (absolutely) small. Since the partial sums  $\sum_{i=0}^n |a_i|$  and  $\sum_{j=0}^n |b_j|$  converge, their product  $\sum_{i,j=0}^n |a_i b_j|$  also converges by the Algebra of limits for sequences (Theorem 3.19). In particular it defines a Cauchy sequence; fixing  $\epsilon > 0$ , there exists  $N_1$  such that

$$m \geq n \geq N_1 \implies \sum_{i,j=0}^m |a_i b_j| - \sum_{i,j=0}^n |a_i b_j| < \epsilon.$$

Taking  $m = 2n$  and substituting into (1) gives us

$$n \geq N_1 \implies \left| \sum_{i=0}^{2n} c_i - \sum_{i,j=0}^n a_j b_j \right| \leq \epsilon. \quad (2)$$

Now we know that the partial sums  $\sum_{i=0}^n a_i \rightarrow A$  and  $\sum_{j=0}^n b_j \rightarrow B$ , so by the Algebra of limits again,

$$\sum_{i=0}^n a_i \sum_{j=0}^n b_j \rightarrow AB.$$

This means that  $\exists N_2$  such that

$$n \geq N_2 \implies \left| \sum_{i,j=0}^n a_i b_j - AB \right| < \epsilon.$$

Combined with (2) and the triangle inequality this gives

$$\left| \sum_{i=0}^{2n} c_i - AB \right| < 2\epsilon$$

for all  $n \geq \max(N_1, N_2)$ .

We can deal with  $\sum_{i=0}^{2n+1} c_i$  in the same way by sandwiching it between the squares  $0 \leq i, j \leq n$  and  $0 \leq i, j \leq 2n + 1$ . The upshot is that  $\exists N$  such that for all  $k \geq N$ ,

$$\left| \sum_{i=0}^k c_i - AB \right| < 2\epsilon.$$

Thus  $\sum_{i=0}^k c_i \rightarrow AB$ . Finally to prove that  $\sum c_n$  is absolutely convergent, just replace  $a_n, b_n$  by  $|a_n|, |b_n|$  in the above proof.  $\square$

**Corollary 4.40.** If  $\sum a_n z^n$  and  $\sum b_n z^n$  have radius of convergence  $R_A$  and  $R_B$  respectively, then  $\sum c_n z^n$  has radius of convergence  $R_C \geq \min\{R_A, R_B\}$ .

*Proof.* 4.39  $\square$

**Exercise 4.41.** Fix  $\alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{R}$ . Prove that if  $[x < \alpha \implies x \leq \beta]$  then  $\alpha \leq \beta$ .

*Proof.*  $\square$

**Example 4.42.**  $\sum z^n$  has  $R_A = 1$ .

$1 - z$  has  $R_B = \infty$ .

So their Cauchy product  $\sum c_n z^n$  has  $R_C \geq 1$ .

*Exercise:* Check  $c_0 = 1, c_n = 0 \forall n \geq 1$ , so the Cauchy product is 1 and in fact  $R_C = \infty$ .

Nonetheless, we can only say that  $\sum c_n z^n = 1 = (\sum z^n)(1 - z)$  when  $|z| < 1 = \min(R_A, R_B)$ .