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1 Sequences

1.1 Definition of Sequences

A sequence is an ordered list of numbers written in the form

$$a_1, a_2, a_3, \dots, a_n, \quad \text{or} \quad a_n \quad \text{or} \quad \{a_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$$

It is usually represented as a function whose domain is the set of positive integers:

$$a_n = f(n)$$

1.2 a_n as $n \rightarrow \infty$

The **limit of a sequence** as $n \rightarrow \infty$ describes the long-term behavior of the sequence:

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = L$$

means that the terms of the sequence get arbitrarily close to L as n becomes large. If such a number L exists, we say the sequence **converges** to L . Otherwise, it **diverges**.

1.3 Convergence/Divergence

A sequence $\{a_n\}$ **converges** to $L \in \mathbb{R}$ if

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = L \iff \forall \varepsilon > 0, \exists N \in \mathbb{N}, \forall n > N, |a_n - L| < \varepsilon.$$

Otherwise, the sequence **diverges**.

2 Series

2.1 Notation

A series is the sum of the terms of a sequence $\{a_n\}$. Formally, the n -th partial sum of the series is

$$S_n = \sum_{i=1}^n a_i = a_1 + a_2 + \dots + a_n$$

If the sequence $\{S_n\}$ converges to a finite limit S as $n \rightarrow \infty$, then we write

$$\sum_{i=1}^{\infty} a_i = L$$

and say that the series converges to L . Otherwise, it diverges.

2.2 Partial Sum

A partial sum of a series given by

$$s_n = a_1 + a_2 + a_3 + \dots + a_n = \sum_{i=1}^n a_i$$

2.3 Types of Series

p-Series

The p-series is a series of the form

$$1 + \frac{1}{2^p} + \frac{1}{3^p} + \cdots = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^p}$$

The series converges when $p > 1$, and diverges when $p < 1$

Harmonic Series

The harmonic series is a p-series with $p = 1$

$$1 + \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{3} + \cdots = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n}$$

It diverges

Geometric Series

A geometric series is a series of the form

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} ar^{n-1}$$

The series converges when $|r| < 1$. The sum of the first n terms of the series is

$$s_n = \frac{a(1 - r^n)}{1 - r}$$

The sum of the series is

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} s_n = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{a(1 - r^n)}{1 - r} = \frac{a}{1 - r}$$

Decimal Expansion

The rational number equal to the repeating decimal is the sum of the geometric series that represents the repeating decimal.

$$\begin{aligned} 3.8\overline{76} &= 3.8 + .76 + .0076 + \cdots \\ &= \frac{38}{10} + \frac{76}{10^3} + \frac{76}{10^5} + \cdots \\ &= \frac{38}{10} + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{76}{10^{2n+1}} \\ &= \frac{38}{10} + \frac{76}{10^3} \cdot \frac{1}{1 - \frac{1}{10^2}} \\ &= \frac{1919}{495} \end{aligned}$$

Telescoping

A telescoping series is a series in which most terms cancel out when expanded, leaving only a few terms that determine the sum. Suppose we have a series of the form

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (a_n - a_{n+1})$$

If the sequence $\{a_n\}$ converges to a limit L as $n \rightarrow \infty$, then the partial sum becomes

$$S_N = (a_1 - a_2) + (a_2 - a_3) + \cdots + (a_N - a_{N+1}) = a_1 - a_{N+1}$$

Taking the limit as $N \rightarrow \infty$, we find

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (a_n - a_{n+1}) = a_1 - L$$

Example: Consider:

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

The partial sum is

$$S_N = \left(1 - \frac{1}{2}\right) + \left(\frac{1}{2} - \frac{1}{3}\right) + \cdots + \left(\frac{1}{N} - \frac{1}{N+1}\right)$$

All intermediate terms cancel, leaving

$$S_N = 1 - \frac{1}{N+1}$$

Taking the limit as $N \rightarrow \infty$,

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

3 Convergence Tests

The necessary condition for a series $\{a_n\}$ to converge is that $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = 0$.

3.1 The Informal Principle

$$\sum \frac{4n^3 - n + 1}{n^5 + 7n^2 - 6} \approx \sum \frac{4\cancel{n^3}}{\cancel{n^5}} \approx 4 \sum \frac{1}{n^2}$$

3.2 Divergence Test

If $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n \neq 0$, Then the series **diverges**.

3.3 Integral Test

If $a_n = f(n)$ where f is continuous, decreasing, and positive on $(c, \infty]$, then $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty}$ converges \iff

$$\int_c^{\infty} f(x) dx \text{ exists}$$

Example:

$$\text{Let } f(n) = \frac{1}{n^2} \sin\left(\frac{\pi}{n}\right)$$

$f(n)$ is continuous, decreasing, positive on $[2, \infty)$. Then by Integral Test:

$$\int_2^\infty \frac{1}{x^2} \sin\left(\frac{\pi}{x}\right) dx = \frac{1}{\pi}$$

Thus,

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^2} \sin\left(\frac{\pi}{n}\right) \text{ converges}$$

3.4 Comparison Test

If $0 \leq a_n \leq b_n$ and $\sum b_n$ converges, then $\sum a_n$ converges.

Example:

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^2 + 5} \approx \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^2}$$

and $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^2}$ converges. Thus

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^2 + 5} \text{ converges}$$

3.5 Limit Comparison Test

If $0 < a_n$ and $0 < b_n$, if $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{a_n}{b_n} = L$, then either both **converges** or **diverges**.

Example:

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{4n+3}$$

By approximating

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{4n+3} \approx \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n}$$

We choose $\frac{1}{n}$ as b_n

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\frac{1}{4n+3}}{\frac{1}{n}} = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\cancel{n} \cancel{4} \cancel{3}}{\cancel{4n+3}} = \frac{1}{4}$$

Since $\sum \frac{1}{n}$ diverges,

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{4n+3} \text{ diverges}$$

3.6 Ratio Test

Given a_n and a_{n+1} , we find the limit of their absolute ratio, i.e. $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{a_{n+1}}{a_n} \right|$.

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{a_{n+1}}{a_n} \right| = \begin{cases} < 1, & \text{Converges} \\ = 1, & \text{Inconclusive} \\ > 1, & \text{Diverges} \end{cases}$$

Example:

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{2^n(n+1)}{n!}$$

We find the limit of their absolute ratio

$$\begin{aligned} & \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left(\frac{2^{n+1}(n+2)}{(n+1)!} \cdot \frac{n!}{2^n(n+1)} \right) \\ &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left(\frac{2^{n+1}(n+2)}{(n+1)!} \cdot \frac{n!}{2^n \cancel{(n+1)}} \right) \\ &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{2(n+2)}{(n+1)^2} \\ &= 0 < 1 \end{aligned}$$

Thus,

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{2^n(n+1)}{n!} \text{ converges}$$

3.7 Root Test

Given $\sum a_n$, we find the limit of the n -th root of a_n , i.e. $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sqrt[n]{|a_n|}$. The limit measures the asymptotic size of the terms by looking at their n -th root.

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sqrt[n]{|a_n|} = \begin{cases} < 1, & \text{Converges} \\ = 1, & \text{Inconclusive} \\ > 1, & \text{Diverges} \end{cases}$$

Example:

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{n^3}{5^n} \left(1 + \frac{1}{n} \right)^n.$$

Apply Root Test:

$$\begin{aligned} & \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sqrt[n]{|a_n|} \\ &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sqrt[n]{n^3} \cdot \sqrt[n]{\frac{1}{5^n}} \cdot \sqrt[n]{\left(1 + \frac{1}{n} \right)^n} \end{aligned}$$

Evaluate:

$$\sqrt[n]{n^3} \rightarrow 1 \text{ because } n^{3/n} \rightarrow 1.$$

$$\sqrt[n]{\frac{1}{5^n}} = \frac{1}{5}.$$

$$\sqrt[n]{\left(1 + \frac{1}{n}\right)^n} \rightarrow e^{1/n} \rightarrow 1$$

$$\Rightarrow \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sqrt[n]{|a_n|} = 1 \cdot \left(\frac{1}{5}\right) \cdot 1 = \frac{1}{5} < 1$$

Thus,

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{2^n(n+1)}{n!} = \text{converges}$$

3.8 Alternating Series Test

3.9 Absolute vs Conditional Convergence

4 Power Series

4.1 Definition

4.2 Radius and Interval of Convergence

4.3 Differentiation and Integration

5 Taylor and Maclaurin Series

5.1 Taylor Series

A Taylor series is an infinite sum that represents a function as a power series centered at a point a . If a function $f(x)$ is infinitely differentiable at $x = a$, then its Taylor series is given by:

$$f(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{f^n(a)}{n!} (x - a)^n$$

This expansion approximates the function near $x = a$

5.2 Maclaurin Series

A Maclaurin Series is a special case of Taylor Series centered at $x = 0$

$$f(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{f^{(n)}(0)}{n!} x^n$$

5.3 Common Maclaurin Series

- $e^x = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{x^n}{n!}$

$$\bullet \sin(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^n}{(2n+1)!} x^{2n+1}$$

$$\bullet \cos(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^n}{2n!} x^{2n}$$

$$\bullet \frac{1}{1-x} = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} x^n$$

$$\bullet \frac{1}{1+x} = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (-1)^n x^n$$

$$\bullet \ln(1-x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n+1} x^{n+1}$$

$$\bullet \ln(1+x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^n}{n+1} x^{n+1}$$

5.4 Lagrange Error Bound for Taylor Series

The Lagrange error bound provides a way to estimate how close the Taylor polynomial $T_n(x)$ is to the actual function $f(x)$. Let f be a function with $(n+1)$ continuous derivatives on an interval containing a and x . The Taylor polynomial of degree n centered at a is

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

The remainder/error term in Lagrange form is

$$R_n(x) = \frac{f^{(n+1)}(c)}{(n+1)!}(x-a)^{n+1}$$

for some $c \in [x, a]$.

Error Bound

$$|R_n(x)| \leq \frac{M}{(n+1)!} |x-a|^{n+1}, \text{ where } M \text{ is } \max(|f^{(n+1)}(c)|)$$

for some $c \in [x, a]$

5.5 Limits and Approximations

6 Applications

6.1 Numerical Approximation

6.2 Solving ODEs

6.3 Non-elementary Integrals