

# Series

## Defintions

### SEQUENCE

A list of numbers in a definitive order order  $a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n = \{a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n, \dots\} = \{a_n\}$ .

### SERIES

Obtained by adding the terms of a sequence  $s = \sum_{k=1}^n a_k$

### GEOMETRIC SERIES

The ratio of each term to its predecessor is constant.  $S = \sum_{k=0}^n = 1 + a + ar + ar^2 + \dots + ar^n$

### TAYLOR SERIES

We can approximate a function  $f(x)$  for small values around some anchor point  $a$ , as a power series  $f(x) = P(x) = f(a) + \frac{f^{(1)}(a)}{1!}(x-a) + \frac{f^{(2)}(a)}{2!}(x-a)^2 + \dots + \frac{f^{(n)}(a)}{n!}(x-a)^n$

## Properties of sums

Law	Name	Notes
<b>Constant multiple</b>	$\sum_{r=1}^n k \cdot f(r) = k \cdot \sum_{r=1}^n f(r)$	
<b>Adding</b>	$\sum_{r=1}^n (f(r) + g(r)) = \sum_{r=1}^n f(r) + \sum_{r=1}^n g(r)$	
<b>Linearity</b>	$\sum_{r=1}^n (c \cdot f(r) + g(r)) = c \cdot \sum_{r=1}^n f(r) + \sum_{r=1}^n g(r)$	
<b>First n integers</b>	$\sum_{r=1}^n r = \frac{n(n+1)}{2}$	
<b>First n integers squared</b>	$\sum_{r=1}^n r^2 = \frac{n(n+1)(2n+1)}{6}$	
<b>First n integers cubed</b>	$\sum_{r=1}^n r^3 = \frac{n^2(n+1)^2}{4}$	
<b>Value of geometric series</b>	$S = \sum_{k=0}^n ar^k = \frac{a(1-r^{n+1})}{1-r}$	
<b>Value of infinite geometric series where absolute value of x is less than 1</b>	$\lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{1-x} - \frac{x^N}{1-x} = \frac{1}{1-x}$	

## Introduction

Even elementary functions can be difficult to work with. Even simple functions like  $\sin(x)$  can be difficult to evaluate because every integer input results in an irrational. A small subset, however, known as the polynomials are much easier to work with because they are

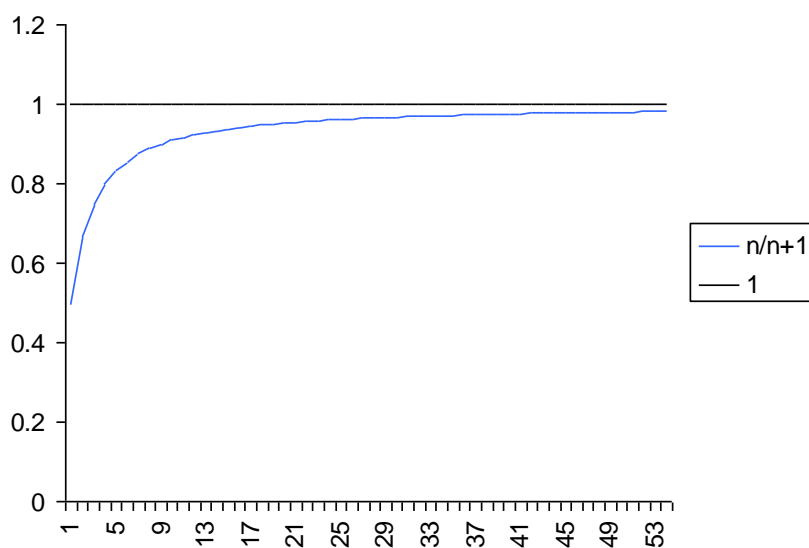
- ◆ Easy to integrate
- ◆ Easy to evaluate for any value of x
- ◆ Infinitely differentiable

The tactic of expressing complicated functions as infinite series motivates much of the study of infinite series

# Sequences

## Definition

- ◆ List of numbers in a definitive order  $a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n, \dots$
- ◆ If  $\{a_n\}$  has a limit  $L$  we can make  $\{a_n\}$  as close to  $L$  as we like by increasing  $n$
- ◆  $\{a_n\}$  is bounded above if there is some  $M$  such that  $a_n < M$
- ◆  $\{a_n\}$  is bounded below if there is some  $M$  such that  $a_n > M$
- ◆ Every bounded monotonic sequence is convergent



## Notation

The following notations are equivalent

- ◆  $\{a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n, \dots\}$
- ◆  $\{a_n\}$
- ◆  $\{a_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$

Some sequences can be defined by a formula for the  $n$ th term.

- ◆  $\left\{\frac{n}{n+1}\right\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$
- ◆  $a_n = \frac{n}{n+1}$
- ◆  $\left\{\frac{1}{2}, \frac{2}{3}, \frac{4}{4}, \dots, \frac{n}{n+1}, \dots\right\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$

## Series

### Definition

- ◆ Obtained by adding the terms of an infinite sequence
- ◆  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n = s$
- ◆ Given a series  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n = s$  we can generate a sequence of its partial sums
- ◆  $s_n = \sum_{i=1}^n a_i$
- ◆ If the resulting sequence  $\{s_n\}$  is convergent we say the series is convergent
- ◆ With any series  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$  we associate two sequences
- ◆  $\{a_n\}$  the terms
- ◆  $\{s_n\}$  the partial sums
- ◆ If  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$  is convergent  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = 0$
- ◆ If  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n$  does not exist  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$  is divergent
- ◆  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n \neq 0$  then  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$  is divergent

### Geometric Series

A geometric series is a series where the ratio of each term to its predecessor is constant.

$$S = \sum_{k=0}^n = ax^k = a + ar + ar^2 + \dots + ar^n$$

The value of a geometric series is given by

$$S = \sum_{k=0}^n ar^k = \frac{a(1 - r^{n+1})}{1 - r}$$

### INFINITE GEOMETRIC SERIES

If the first N elements in a geometric series are given by  $\frac{1-x^{N+1}}{1-x}$  then the first N-1 elements will be given by  $\frac{1-x^N}{1-x} = \frac{1}{1-x} - \frac{x^N}{1-x}$  and in the case where x is greater than -1 and less than one then in the limit as the number of elements tends to infinity we get

$$\lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{1-x} - \frac{x^N}{1-x} = \frac{1}{1-x}$$

Since in the case where the absolute value of x is less than one  $x^N$  will tend to zero as N tends to infinity the second term also tends to zero and we have an expression for an infinite geometric series.

## Power Series

- ◆  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} c_n x^n = c_0 + c_1 x + c_2 x^2 + c_3 x^3 + \dots$
- ◆ For each  $x$  the series is a series of constants which we can test for convergence
- ◆ The sum of the series is a function  $f(x) = c_0 + c_1 x + c_2 x^2 + c_3 x^3 + \dots$
- ◆ The domain of this function is the set of  $x$  for which the series converges

## Taylor Series

We can approximate a function  $f(x)$  for small values around some anchor point  $a$ , as a power series.

$$f(x) = P(x) = f(a) + \frac{f^{(1)}(a)}{1!} (x - a) + \frac{f^{(2)}(a)}{2!} (x - a)^2 + \dots + \frac{f^{(n)}(a)}{n!} (x - a)^n$$

For a given  $f(x)$  the Taylor series will only be valid for a given subset of the domain, known as the radius of convergence.

## Proofs

**PROVE THAT**  $\sum_{r=1}^n r = \frac{n(n+1)}{2}$

$$\sum_{r=1}^n r = 1 + 2 + 3 + 4 + \dots + n \quad \text{and}$$

$$\sum_{r=1}^n r = n + (n-1) + (n-2) + \dots + 1 \quad \text{therefore}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{r=1}^n r + \sum_{r=1}^n r &= 2 \sum_{r=1}^n r = (n+1) + (n+1) + \dots + (n+1) = n(n+1) \therefore \sum_{r=1}^n r \\ &= \frac{n(n+1)}{2} \end{aligned}$$

**PROVE THAT**  $S = \sum_{k=0}^n ar^k = \frac{a(1-r^{n+1})}{1-r}$

We show a now a proof of the value of a geometric series

$$S = \sum_{k=0}^n ar^k = \frac{a(1-r^{n+1})}{1-r}$$

$$S = a + ar + ar^2 + \dots + ar^n$$

$$Sr = ar + ar^2 + \dots + ar^n + ar^{n+1}$$

Subtracting the second expression from the first we get

$$S - Sr = a - ar^{n+1}$$

Factoring both sides

$$S(1-r) = a(1-r^{n+1})$$

Dividing both sides by  $(1-r)$

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





**PROVE THAT  $\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} ar^k = \frac{a}{1-r}$  if  $abs(r) < 1$**

We prove this useful result by looking at the limit

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{k=0}^n ar^k = \frac{a(1-r^{n+1})}{1-r}$$

And noting that the numerator  $a(1-r^{n+1})$  will tend to  $a$  as  $n$  tends to infinity

$$\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} kr^{k-1} = \frac{1}{1-r}$$