

Maths for Computer Science

Calculus

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Series



Series vs Sequences

A **sequence** is an ordered countably infinite set of numbers $\{a_n\}$.

E.g. $a_0 = 1, a_1 = \frac{1}{2}, a_2 = \frac{1}{4}, a_3 = \frac{1}{8}, \dots$

A **series** is the sum of members of a sequence:

E.g. $\sum_{n=0}^2 a_n = a_0 + a_1 + a_2 = 1 + \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{4} = 1\frac{3}{4}$.

This is a **finite series**.

E.g. $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n = a_0 + a_1 + a_2 + \dots = 1 + \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{4} + \frac{1}{8} + \dots$

This is an **infinite series**.

Series value

Any **finite series** has a well defined value:

$$\text{E.g. } \sum_{n=1}^5 n^2 = 1 + 4 + 9 + 16 + 25 = 55.$$

But an **infinite series** may not:

$$\text{E.g. } \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{2^n} = 1 + \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{4} + \frac{1}{8} + \dots = 2. \text{ This is “convergent”}$$

$$\text{But } \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} n^2 \rightarrow \infty \text{ is “divergent”}$$

$$\text{And } \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (-1)^n \rightarrow \infty \text{ is “divergent”}$$

Series value

For any infinite series $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n$, we define the partial sum

$$S_n = \sum_{r=0}^n a_r = a_0 + a_1 + \cdots + a_n$$

And the remainder

$$R_n = \sum_{r=n+1}^{\infty} a_r = a_{n+1} + a_{n+2} + \cdots$$

A **series** $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n$ is convergent to a finite value S if

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} S_n = S$$

Equivalently: if

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} R_n = 0 \quad \left(= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (S - S_n) \right).$$

Example $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{3^n}$

$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{3^n} = 1 + \frac{1}{3} + \frac{1}{9} + \dots$ is a geometric series with initial value 1 and ratio $1/3$.

$$\text{Hence } S_n = \frac{1 - \left(\frac{1}{3}\right)^{n+1}}{1 - \frac{1}{3}} = \frac{3}{2} \left(1 - \left(\frac{1}{3}\right)^{n+1}\right).$$

$$\text{So } \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} S_n = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{3}{2} \left(1 - \left(\frac{1}{3}\right)^{n+1}\right) = \frac{3}{2}.$$

So this series is convergent to $3/2$.

$$\text{Also } R_n = \frac{3}{2} - S_n = \frac{3}{2} \left(\frac{1}{3}\right)^{n+1} = \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{1}{3}\right)^n. \text{ Clearly } \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} R_n = 0.$$

Given $\epsilon = 0.01$ there is some N_ϵ such that $R_n < \epsilon$ for all $n > N_\epsilon$.

Here we can take $N_\epsilon = 5$ since

$$R_5 = \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{1}{3}\right)^5 = \frac{1}{162} < 0.01.$$

Note: if we are using a series to approximate some complex function, analysis of R_n can tell us how far we need to go to get sufficient accuracy.

Sum and difference of convergent series

If the series $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n$ and the series $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} b_n$ are convergent, with respective sums α and β , then

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (a_n + b_n) = \alpha + \beta$$

And

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (a_n - b_n) = \alpha - \beta$$

First test for divergence

Suppose $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n$ converges. Then given arbitrary $\epsilon > 0$ there exists some N_{ϵ} such that $S_n < \epsilon$ for all $n > N_{\epsilon}$.

I.e. $|S - S_n| < \epsilon$.

But also $|S - S_{n+1}| < \epsilon$, so combining these*:

$$2\epsilon > |S - S_n| + |S - S_{n+1}| = |S_n - S| + |S - S_{n+1}| \geq |S_n - S_{n+1}| = |a_{n+1}|$$

But ϵ was arbitrary, so we have shown for any $\epsilon' > 0$ there exists an $N_{\epsilon'}$ such that $|a_n| < \epsilon'$ for all $n > N_{\epsilon'}$.

I.e. $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} |a_n| = 0$, and so $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = 0$.

The contrapositive:

If $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n \neq 0$ then the series $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n$ diverges.

Example

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{2n^2+1}{4n+2} \text{ diverges.}$$

$$\text{Since } \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{2n^2+1}{4n+2} = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{2n+\frac{1}{n}}{4+\frac{2}{n}} \rightarrow \infty.$$

Equally, $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} |a_n| = 0$ is a necessary condition for convergence, but not a sufficient condition:

$$\text{E.g. } \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n} \text{ diverges even though } \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{n} = 0.$$

Note: $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} |a_n| = 0$ does not imply convergence, but $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} R_n = 0$ does.

Absolute convergence implies convergence

If $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} |a_n|$ converges then $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$ converges.

Proof:

Let $S_n = \sum_{r=1}^n a_r$ and $T_n = \sum_{r=1}^n |a_r|$.

For each r we have $0 \leq a_r + |a_r| < 2|a_r|$, so $0 \leq S_n + T_n \leq 2T_n$.

But we know $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} T_n = T$ exists, so

$$0 \leq \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (S_n + T_n) \leq 2T$$

And so the series $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n + |a_n|$ converges too, and taking the difference

$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n + |a_n| - \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} |a_n|$ converges and is equal to $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$.

Comparison test

Convergence:

Let $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} b_n$ be a convergent series of positive terms.

Let $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$ be a series and N be an integer such that

$$|a_n| \leq b_n \text{ for all } n > N$$

then $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$ is an absolutely convergent series.

Divergence:

Let $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} b_n$ be a divergent series of positive terms.

Let $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$ be a series and N be an integer such that

$$0 \leq b_n \leq a_n \text{ for all } n > N$$

then $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$ is a divergent series.

Examples

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

Converges: $a_n \leq \frac{3}{2^n}$, and as $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{3}{2^n} = 3 \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{2^n} = 3$ converges, we can apply the comparison test with $b_n = \frac{3}{2^n}$.

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

Diverges: $a_n = \frac{n+1}{n^2} = \frac{1}{n} \frac{n+1}{n} > \frac{1}{n}$, and as $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n}$ diverges, we can apply the comparison test with $b_n = \frac{1}{n}$.

$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n}$ is called the harmonic series and we shall prove later that it diverges.

The Ratio test

Convergence:

Let $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$ be a series where $a_n \neq 0$ and such that $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{a_{n+1}}{a_n} \right| = L$ then

- a) If $L < 1$, $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$ is an absolutely convergent series.
- b) If $L > 1$, $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$ is a divergent series.
- c) If $L = 1$, the test fails.

Example:

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^n n!}{n^n} \quad ?$$

$$\text{Then } \left| \frac{a_{n+1}}{a_n} \right| = \frac{(n+1)! n^n}{n! (n+1)^{n+1}} = \left(\frac{n}{n+1} \right)^n = \left(1 + \frac{1}{n} \right)^{-n},$$

so $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{a_{n+1}}{a_n} \right| = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} 1 / \left(1 + \frac{1}{n} \right)^n = \frac{1}{e}$. As $\frac{1}{e} < 1$, the series absolutely converges.

The Ratio test

Convergence:

Let $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$ be a series where $a_n \neq 0$ and such that $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{a_{n+1}}{a_n} \right| = L$ then

- a) If $L < 1$, $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$ is an absolutely convergent series.
- b) If $L > 1$, $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$ is a divergent series.
- c) If $L = 1$, the test fails.

Proof a):

If $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{a_{n+1}}{a_n} \right| = L < 1$ then we can pick $r: L < r < 1$ and N_r such that for all $n > N_r$

$$\left| \frac{a_{n+1}}{a_n} \right| < r \quad \text{i.e.} \quad |a_{n+1}| < r|a_n|.$$

Then $|a_{n+2}| < r|a_{n+1}| < r^2|a_n|$, $|a_{n+3}| < r|a_{n+2}| < r^3|a_n|$, etc.

So $R_{n+m} = a_{n+m} + a_{n+m+1} + \dots < |a_n|r^{m-1}(1 + r + r^2 + r^3 + \dots) = |a_n| \frac{r^{m-1}}{1-r} \rightarrow 0$

as $m \rightarrow \infty$.

Hence the series converges.

The n^{th} root test

Consider the series $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \left(\frac{nk}{3n+1} \right)^n$, where k is a constant.

First observe that $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sqrt[n]{a_n} = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left(\frac{nk}{3n+1} \right) = \frac{k}{3}$.

If $k < 3$, then there is an r : $\frac{k}{3} < r < 1$ and N_r so that for all $n > N_r$, $\sqrt[n]{a_n} < r$.

Thus $R_n = a_n + a_{n+1} + \dots < r^n + r^{n+1} + \dots = r^n \frac{1}{1-r} \rightarrow 0$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$.

So the series is convergent.

If $k > 3$, then there is an r : $1 < r < \frac{k}{3}$ and N_r so that for all $n > N_r$, $\sqrt[n]{a_n} > r$.

Thus $R_n = a_n + a_{n+1} + \dots > r^n + r^{n+1} + \dots = r^n \frac{1}{1-r} \rightarrow \infty$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$.

So the series is divergent.

The n^{th} root test

Consider the series $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$ such that $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sqrt[n]{|a_n|} = L$.

- a) If $L < 1$, $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$ is an absolutely convergent series.
- b) If $L > 1$, $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$ is a divergent series.
- c) If $L = 1$, the test fails.

Alternating series test

The series $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (-1)^{n+1} a_n$ converges if

- $a_n > 0$,
- $a_{n+1} \leq a_n$ for all n , and
- $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = 0$.

Proof:

Consider the partial sum

$$S_{2r} = a_1 - a_2 + a_3 - a_4 + a_5 \dots - a_{2r-2} + a_{2r-1} - a_{2r}.$$

First note that

$$S_{2r} = (a_1 - a_2) + (a_3 - a_4) + \dots + (a_{2r-1} - a_{2r}) \geq 0$$

Also

$$S_{2r} = a_1 - (a_2 - a_3) - (a_4 - a_5) \dots - (a_{2r-2} - a_{2r-1}) - a_{2r} < a_1$$

So $\{S_{2r}\}$ is bounded and monotonically increasing, hence converges to S .

But $S_{2r+1} = S_{2r} + a_{2r+1}$, and so $\lim_{r \rightarrow \infty} S_{2r+1} = \lim_{r \rightarrow \infty} S_{2r} + \lim_{r \rightarrow \infty} a_{2r+1} = S + 0 = S$.

And as $\{S_{2r}\}$ and $\{S_{2r+1}\}$ both tend to S , $\{S_n\}$ does also.

Grouping and rearrangement of series

For any finite sum we can group and rearrange terms as much as we like.

$$1 + 3 - 5 - 6 = (1 - 5) - (6 - 3)$$

For an infinite sum we need to be careful!

Consider $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (-1)^{n+1} \frac{1}{n} = 1 - \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{3} - \frac{1}{4} + \dots$

By the alternating series test it is convergent, to some value S .

So

$$S = 1 - \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{3} - \frac{1}{4} + \frac{1}{5} - \frac{1}{6} + \dots$$

Rearranging

~~$$S = \left(1 - \frac{1}{2}\right) - \frac{1}{4} + \left(\frac{1}{3} - \frac{1}{6}\right) - \frac{1}{8} + \left(\frac{1}{5} - \frac{1}{10}\right) - \frac{1}{12} \dots + \left(\frac{1}{2k+1} - \frac{1}{4k+2}\right) - \frac{1}{4k+4} + \dots$$~~

$$S = \frac{1}{2} \left(1 - \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{3} - \frac{1}{4} + \frac{1}{5} - \frac{1}{6} + \dots\right) = \frac{1}{2}S$$

So as $S = \frac{1}{2}S$ we must have $S = 0$, but actually $S > \frac{1}{2}$. (Exercise).

Grouping and rearrangement of series

If $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$ converges, then we can insert brackets/groupings without altering the sum.

Proof:

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n = a_1 + a_2 + a_3 + a_4 + a_5 + a_6 + \cdots$$

Consider bracketing $(a_1 + a_2) + (a_3 + a_4 + a_5) + (a_6 + \cdots)$ etc.

Define b_n to be the n^{th} bracketed term.

Now $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} b_n = (a_1 + a_2) + (a_3 + a_4 + a_5) + (a_6 + \cdots)$ etc.

But the partial sums T_n of this series are a subsequence of the partial sums S_n of $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$.

Since $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} S_n = S$, it follows that $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} T_n = S$ and so $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} b_n$ converges.

Grouping and rearrangement of series

If $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$ absolutely converges, then we can reorder the terms without altering the sum.

Proof:

Let $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} b_n$ be a reordering of $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$.

Since $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} |a_n|$ converges, say to S , and the partial sums $T_n = \sum_{r=1}^n |b_r|$ are monotonic increasing and bounded above by S , $\sum_{r=1}^n |b_r|$ also converges.

Since $\sum_{r=1}^n |b_r|$ converges, $\sum_{r=1}^n b_r$ also converges.

Let $\sum_{r=1}^n a_r = S'_n$ and $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n = S'$. Let $\sum_{r=1}^n b_r = T'_n$ and $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} b_n = T'$

Then given $\epsilon > 0$, $\exists N$: $|S'_n - S'| < \epsilon$.

Then for large enough m , $T'_m = S'_n + a_{i_1} + a_{i_2} + \cdots + a_{i_k}$ for some a_{i_j} .

Then $|T'_m - S'| \leq |S'_n - S'| + |a_{i_1}| + |a_{i_2}| + \cdots + |a_{i_k}| < 2\epsilon$. So $T'_m \rightarrow S'$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$.