

Multidimensional Calculus. Lectures content. Week 9

18. Series of real numbers.

Definition. A **series** is a symbol $\sum_{k=n_0}^{\infty} a_k = a_{n_0} + a_{n_0+1} + a_{n_0+2} + \dots$, where $n_0 \in \mathbb{Z}$, $a_k \in \mathbb{R}$ (series of real numbers).

Definition. Let $\sum_{k=n_0}^{\infty} a_k$ be a series.

We define its **partial sums** by $s_N = \sum_{k=n_0}^N a_k$ for $N \geq n_0$.

We say that the given series **converges** if $\{s_N\}_{N=n_0}^{\infty}$ converges.

We say that the given series **converges to** A , denoted $\sum_{k=n_0}^{\infty} a_k = A$, if $\lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} (s_N) = A$.

We say that the given series **diverges** if $\{s_N\}_{N=n_0}^{\infty}$ diverges.

We say that the given series **diverges to** ∞ , denoted $\sum_{k=n_0}^{\infty} a_k = \infty$, if $\lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} (s_N) = \infty$.

We say that the given series **diverges to** $-\infty$, denoted $\sum_{k=n_0}^{\infty} a_k = -\infty$, if $\lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} (s_N) = -\infty$.

Example. $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{2^k}$: $s_1 = \frac{1}{2}$, $s_2 = \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{4} = \frac{3}{4}$, $s_3 = \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{4} + \frac{1}{8} = \frac{7}{8}$, induction: $s_N = 1 - \frac{1}{2^N}$, hence $s_N \rightarrow 1$ and $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{2^k} = 1$ (series converges).

Example. $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} 1$: $s_1 = 1$, $s_2 = 1 + 1 = 2$, $s_3 = 1 + 1 + 1 = 3$, induction: $s_N = N$, hence $s_N \rightarrow \infty$ and $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} 1 = \infty$ (series diverges).

Example. $\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} (-1)^k$: $s_0 = 1$, $s_1 = 1 - 1 = 0$, $s_2 = 1 - 1 + 1 = 1$, induction: $s_N = \begin{cases} 1, & N \text{ even;} \\ 0, & N \text{ odd,} \end{cases}$ thus $\lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} (s_N)$ DNE and $\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} (-1)^k$ diverges.

19. Summing up a series.

Definition. Let $a, q \in \mathbb{R}$. The series $\sum_{k=n_0}^{\infty} a q^k$ is called a **geometric series**.

Fact. (i) For $N \in \mathbb{N}_0$ we have $\sum_{k=0}^N q^k = \frac{1 - q^{N+1}}{1 - q}$;

for $N \in \mathbb{N}$, $N \geq n_0$ we have $\sum_{k=n_0}^N q^k = q^{n_0} \frac{1 - q^{N+1-n_0}}{1 - q} = \frac{q^{n_0} - q^{N+1}}{1 - q}$.

(ii) We have $\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} q^k \begin{cases} = \frac{1}{1-q}, & |q| < 1; \\ = \infty \text{ (diverges),} & q \geq 1; \\ \text{diverges,} & q \leq -1. \end{cases}$

More generally, $\sum_{k=n_0}^{\infty} q^k = \frac{q^{n_0}}{1-q}$ for $|q| < 1$.

Definition. Let $a, q \in \mathbb{R}$. The series $\sum_{k=n_0}^{\infty} (a + qk)$ is called an **arithmetic series**.

Fact. (i) For $N \in \mathbb{N}_0$ we have $\sum_{k=0}^N (a + qk) = (N+1)a + \frac{1}{2}N(N+1)q$.

(ii) An arithmetic series converges only if $a = q = 0$.

Summing up a series: we can sum up directly only two kinds:

1) geometric series (might be in disguise):

Example.
$$\sum_{k=2}^{\infty} \frac{5 \cdot 3^{k-1}}{2^{2k+1}} = \sum_{k=2}^{\infty} \frac{5 \cdot 3^{-1} \cdot 3^k}{2^1 \cdot (2^2)^k} = \frac{5}{6} \sum_{k=2}^{\infty} \frac{3^k}{4^k} = \frac{5}{6} \sum_{k=2}^{\infty} \left(\frac{3}{4}\right)^k = \frac{5}{6} \left(\frac{3}{4}\right)^2 \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \left(\frac{3}{4}\right)^k$$

$$= \left\langle \left| \frac{3}{4} \right| < 1 \right\rangle = \frac{5}{6} \left(\frac{3}{4}\right)^2 \frac{1}{1-\frac{3}{4}} = \frac{15}{8}.$$

Note: For a geometric series $\sum_{k=n_0}^{\infty} q^k = q^{n_0} \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} q^k$ is true in general.

Or substitution: $\sum_{k=2}^{\infty} \left(\frac{3}{4}\right)^k = \left\langle \begin{array}{l} n = k - 2 \implies k = n + 2 \\ 2 \mapsto 0, \infty \mapsto \infty \end{array} \right\rangle = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \left(\frac{3}{4}\right)^{n+2} = \left(\frac{3}{4}\right)^2 \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \left(\frac{3}{4}\right)^n$.

This can be used for any series, sometimes I use notation $\langle k - 2 \mapsto k^* \rangle$.

2) telescopic series (might be in disguise):

Example.
$$\sum_{k=3}^{\infty} \frac{1}{k(k-1)} = \sum_{k=3}^{\infty} \left(\frac{1}{k-1} - \frac{1}{k}\right) = \left(\frac{1}{2} - \frac{1}{3}\right) + \left(\frac{1}{3} - \frac{1}{4}\right) + \left(\frac{1}{4} - \frac{1}{5}\right) + \dots$$

Induction: $s_N = \frac{1}{2} - \frac{1}{N} \rightarrow \frac{1}{2}$, hence $\sum_{k=3}^{\infty} \frac{1}{k(k-1)} = \frac{1}{2}$.

Remark: formulas for finite sums:

$\sum_{k=1}^n 1 = n$, $\sum_{k=1}^n k = \frac{1}{2}n(n+1)$, $\sum_{k=1}^n k^2 = \frac{1}{6}n(n+1)(2n+1)$, etc.

Theorem. Let series $\sum_{k=n_0}^{\infty} a_k$, $\sum_{k=n_0}^{\infty} b_k$ converge.

Then also the series $\sum_{k=n_0}^{\infty} (a_k + b_k)$ converges and $\sum_{k=n_0}^{\infty} (a_k + b_k) = \sum_{k=n_0}^{\infty} a_k + \sum_{k=n_0}^{\infty} b_k$.

For $c \in \mathbb{R}$ also $\sum_{k=n_0}^{\infty} (ca_k)$ converges and $\sum_{k=n_0}^{\infty} (ca_k) = c \left(\sum_{k=n_0}^{\infty} a_k \right)$.

20. Convergence of series.

Theorem. Let $n_0 < n_1$, consider a series $\sum_{k=n_0}^{\infty} a_k$. $\sum_{k=n_0}^{\infty} a_k$ converges if and only if $\sum_{k=n_1}^{\infty} a_k$ converges.

Then we also have $\sum_{k=n_0}^{\infty} a_k = \sum_{k=n_0}^{n_1-1} a_k + \sum_{k=n_1}^{\infty} a_k$.

If we are only interested in convergence of a series and not its sum (if it exists), then we leave out the index specification.

Theorem. (necessary condition for convergence) If a series $\sum a_k$ converges, then necessarily $\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} (a_k) = 0$.

Equivalently: If $\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} (a_k) = 0$ is not true, then the series $\sum a_k$ necessarily diverges.

Theorem. Consider a series $\sum a_k$. If $a_k \geq 0$ for all k , then either $\sum a_k$ converges, or $\sum a_k = \infty$.

21. Tests for series with non-negative numbers.

Theorem. (integral test) Let $f \geq 0$ be a non-increasing function on $[n_0, \infty)$ for $n_0 \in \mathbb{Z}$.

The series $\sum_{k=n_0}^{\infty} f(k)$ converges if and only if $\int_{n_0}^{\infty} f(x) dx$ converges.

Moreover we then have $\int_{n_0}^{\infty} f(x) dx \leq \sum_{k=n_0}^{\infty} f(k) \leq f(n_0) + \int_{n_0}^{\infty} f(x) dx$.

Example. $\sum_{k=3}^{\infty} \frac{1}{k \ln^2(k)}$: $\int_{x=3}^{\infty} \frac{dx}{x \ln^2(x)} = \left| \begin{array}{l} y = \ln(x) \\ dy = \frac{dx}{x} \end{array} \right| = \int_{x=\ln(3)}^{\infty} \frac{dy}{y^2} < \infty$. Therefore the series converges.

Moreover, $\sum_{k=3}^{\infty} \frac{1}{k \ln^2(k)} \in \left[\frac{1}{\ln(3)}, \frac{1}{3 \ln^2(3)} + \frac{1}{\ln(3)} \right] \sim [0.91, 1.19]$.

Trick: $\sum_{k=3}^{\infty} \frac{1}{k \ln^2(k)} = \sum_{k=3}^9 \frac{1}{k \ln^2(k)} + \sum_{k=10}^{\infty} \frac{1}{k \ln^2(k)}$
 $\in \left[\sum_{k=3}^9 \frac{1}{k \ln^2(k)} + \int_{10}^{\infty} \frac{dx}{x \ln^2(x)}, \sum_{k=3}^9 \frac{1}{k \ln^2(k)} + \frac{1}{10 \ln^2(10)} + \int_{10}^{\infty} \frac{dx}{x \ln^2(x)} \right] \sim [1.059, 1.078]$.

Corollary. (p-test) $\sum \frac{1}{k^p}$ converges if and only if $p > 1$.

Example. $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{k^2} = \frac{\pi^2}{6}$.

$\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{k} = \infty$ (**harmonic series**).

Theorem. (comparison test) Let $\exists n_0$ so that $0 \leq a_k \leq b_k$ for $k \geq n_0$.

If $\sum b_k$ converges, then also $\sum a_k$ converges.

If $\sum a_k$ diverges, then also $\sum b_k$ diverges (i.e. $\sum a_k = \infty \implies \sum b_k = \infty$).

Remark: Symbolically (and roughly) $a_k \leq b_k \implies \sum a_k \leq \sum b_k$.

Theorem. (limit comparison test) Let $\exists n_0 \in \mathbb{Z}$ so that $a_k \geq 0, b_k \geq 0$ for $k \geq n_0$.

If $a_k \sim b_k$, i.e. $\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} \left(\frac{a_k}{b_k} \right) = A > 0$, then $\sum a_k \sim \sum b_k$, i.e. $\sum a_k$ converges if and only if $\sum b_k$ converges.

Example. $\sum \frac{1}{k^2+1}$: $0 \leq \frac{1}{k^2+1} \leq \frac{1}{k^2}$ and $\sum \frac{1}{k^2}$ converges, therefore by CT also $\sum \frac{1}{k^2+1}$ converges.

Remark: Also IT and LCT would work here.

Example. $\sum \frac{1}{2k^2-1}$: $\frac{1}{2k^2-1} \geq \frac{1}{2k^2} \geq 0$, $\sum \frac{1}{2k^2} = \frac{1}{2} \sum \frac{1}{k^2}$ converges, but the inequality goes the wrong way, so no conclusion possible.

Guess $\frac{1}{2k^2-1} \sim \frac{1}{2k^2}$ for large k , confirm: $\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} \left(\frac{\frac{1}{2k^2-1}}{\frac{1}{2k^2}} \right) = 1 > 0$,

$\sum \frac{1}{2k^2} = \frac{1}{2} \sum \frac{1}{k^2}$ converges, hence by LCT also $\sum \frac{1}{2k^2-1}$ converges.

Example. $\sum \frac{1}{k \ln^2(k)}$: Two comparisons seem reasonable, $\frac{1}{k^2} \leq \frac{1}{k \ln^2(k)} \leq \frac{1}{k}$, but both are in the wrong direction, so nothing here.

Limit comparison: No candidate, $\frac{1}{k \ln^2(k)} \sim \frac{1}{k}$ or $\frac{1}{k \ln^2(k)} \sim \frac{1}{k^2}$ definitely not true.

Thus comparison tests won't help.

Theorem. Let $a_k \geq 0$ for all k .

ratio test: (i) If $\exists q < 1$ and $\exists n_0 \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that $\forall k \geq n_0: \frac{a_{k+1}}{a_k} \leq q$, then $\sum a_k$ converges.

(ii) If $\exists n_0 \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that $\forall k \geq n_0: \frac{a_{k+1}}{a_k} \geq 1$, then $\sum a_k$ diverges ($= \infty$).

limit ratio test: Let $\lambda = \lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} \left(\frac{a_{k+1}}{a_k} \right)$, assuming that the limit converges.

(i) If $\lambda < 1$, then $\sum a_k$ converges.

(ii) If $\lambda > 1$, then $\sum a_k$ diverges ($= \infty$).

root test: (i) If $\exists q < 1$ and $\exists n_0 \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that $\forall k \geq n_0: \sqrt[k]{a_k} \leq q$, then $\sum a_k$ converges.

(ii) If $\exists n_0 \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that $\forall k \geq n_0: \sqrt[k]{a_k} \geq 1$, then $\sum a_k$ diverges ($= \infty$).

limit root test: Let $\rho = \lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} \left(\sqrt[k]{a_k} \right)$, assuming that the limit converges.

(i) If $\rho < 1$, then $\sum a_k$ converges.

(ii) If $\rho > 1$, then $\sum a_k$ diverges ($= \infty$).

Example. $\sum \frac{k!}{2^k}$: Limit ratio test $\lambda = \lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} \left(\frac{a_{k+1}}{a_k} \right) = \lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} \left(\frac{(k+1)!}{k!} \frac{2^k}{2^{k+1}} \right) = \lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} \left(\frac{1}{2}(k+1) \right) = \infty > 1$.

Thus $\sum \frac{k!}{2^k}$ diverges.

Example. $\sum \frac{2}{\ln^k(k+1)}$: Limit root test $\rho = \lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} \left(\sqrt[k]{a_k} \right) = \lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} \left(\frac{\sqrt[k]{2}}{\ln(k+1)} \right) = \frac{1}{\infty} = 0 < 1$.

Thus $\sum \frac{2}{\ln^k(k+1)}$ converges.

Example. $\sum \left(\frac{k}{k+1} \right)^k$: Limit root test $\rho = \lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} \left(\sqrt[k]{a_k} \right) = \lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} \left(\frac{k}{k+1} \right) = 1$, no conclusion.

Similarly limit ratio fails. Integral test without chance, comparison as well.

But: $a_k = \left(1 - \frac{1}{k+1} \right)^k \rightarrow e^{-1} \neq 0$, hence $\sum \left(\frac{k}{k+1} \right)^k$ diverges.

Exercises. Lab 9

Discuss the convergence of the following series and, if possible, find its sum.

1) $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{2^{2k+1}}{3^{k-1}}$

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

3) $\sum_{k=2}^{\infty} \frac{2}{k^2-1}$

4) $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \sqrt{\frac{k+1}{k+2}}$

5) $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{3^k}{k+2}$

6) $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{3^k}{(k+1)!}$

7) $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{k+1}{k^3+k+13}$

8) $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{3k+1}{2^k}$

9) $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \left(1 - \frac{3}{a} \right)^k \quad a \in \mathbb{R}$

10) $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{k!}{2^k}$

11) $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \left(\frac{k}{k+1} \right)^k$

12) $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \left(\frac{k}{k+1} \right)^{k^2}$