

where a, r are constants. We refer to r as the

common ratio.

$$\underbrace{E_{X:}}_{n=0} \stackrel{\infty}{\xrightarrow{2}} \left(\frac{3}{2}\right)^{n} = 2 + 2\left(\frac{3}{2}\right) + 2\left(\frac{3}{2}\right)^{2} + \dots$$
This is a geometric series with $a=2$, $r=\frac{3}{2}$.
$$\underbrace{E_{X:}}_{n=0} \stackrel{\infty}{\xrightarrow{2}} 3\left(\frac{-1}{5}\right)^{n} = 3 - \frac{3}{5} + \frac{3}{25} - \frac{3}{125} + \dots$$
This is a geometric series with $a=3$, $r=\frac{-1}{5}$.
$$\underbrace{Question:}_{n=0} \text{ When does a geometric series } \stackrel{\infty}{\xrightarrow{2}} ar^{n}$$
Converge? When does it diverge?
$$\underbrace{Answer:}_{n=0} \text{ Let's consider a few cases...}$$

We have
$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} ar^n = \underbrace{a + a + a + \dots}_{\text{sum blows up!}} \Rightarrow \text{divergent!}$$

Case II:
$$r = -1$$

We have $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} ar^n = a - a + a - a + \cdots \Rightarrow$ divergent
sum never stabilizes!

(1)
$$S_N = a + ar^2 + \dots + ar^N$$

$$2 r \cdot S_N = \alpha r + \alpha r^2 + \dots + \alpha r^N + \alpha r^{N+1}$$

(1)-(2) $S_{N}-r \cdot S_{N} = a - ar^{N+1}$

$$\Rightarrow (I-\Gamma) S_{N} = \alpha (I-\Gamma^{N+1})$$
$$\Rightarrow S_{N} = \frac{\alpha (I-\Gamma^{N+1})}{I-\Gamma}$$

To check convergence, we consider $\lim_{N\to\infty} S_N$:

If
$$\Gamma^{>}1$$
 or $\Gamma^{<-1}$, then Γ^{N+1} blows up as $N \rightarrow \infty$;

but if -1 < r < 1, then $r^{N+1} \rightarrow 0$ as $N \rightarrow \infty$. Hence,

$$\lim_{N \to \infty} S_N = \lim_{N \to \infty} \frac{a(1-(r^{N+1}))}{1-r} = \begin{cases} \frac{a}{1-r} & \text{if } |r| < 1 \\ DNE & \text{if } |r| > 1 \end{cases}$$

The Geometric Series Test
Consider the geometric series
$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} ar^n$$
.
(i) If $|r| < 1$, then the series converges. In
particular, $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} ar^n = \frac{a}{1-r}$
(ii) If $|r| \ge 1$, then the series diverges.

$$\frac{E_{X}}{\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} 2 \cdot \left(\frac{3}{a}\right)^n} \text{ is geometric with } a = 2, r = \frac{3}{2}.$$

Since $|r| \ge 1$, this series diverges!
$$\frac{E_{X}}{\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} 3\left(\frac{-1}{5}\right)^n} \text{ is geometric with } a = 3, r = \frac{-1}{5}.$$

Since
$$|r| < 1$$
, this series converges. Specifically,

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} 3\left(\frac{-1}{5}\right)^{n} = \frac{a}{1-r} = \frac{3}{1-(-\frac{1}{5})} = \frac{3}{\frac{6}{5}} = \frac{5}{a}$$

Example: Let's use geometric series to show that
$$0.999999... = 1$$
!

Solution: $0.99999 \dots = 0.9 + 0.09 + 0.009 + \dots$ $= 9\left(\frac{1}{10}\right) + 9\left(\frac{1}{10}\right)^2 + 9\left(\frac{1}{10}\right)^3 + \dots$ $= \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} 9\left(\frac{1}{10}\right)^n$

This is a geometric series with $r = \frac{1}{10}$. Since |r| < 1,

the series converges. However, the sum is NOT

$$\frac{a}{1-r} = \frac{9}{1-\frac{1}{10}} = \frac{9}{\frac{1}{10}} = 10$$

The formula
$$\sum_{n=n_0}^{\infty} a \cdot r^n = \frac{a}{1-r}$$
 only works if $n_0 = 0!$

We have a couple options to get around this... Option 1: Add and subtract terms to create a sum starting at $n_0 = 0$.



Option 2: Reindex the sum to start at n = 0.

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} q\left(\frac{1}{10}\right)^n = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} q\left(\frac{1}{10}\right)^{n+1} \xrightarrow{\text{Increased by 1 to}}$$
 Make up for *it*!
Reduced by 1

$$= \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \left(\frac{9}{10}\right) \left(\frac{1}{10}\right)^{n}$$

$$= \frac{9}{10}, \ r = \frac{1}{10}$$

$$= \frac{9}{10}, \ r = \frac{1}{10}$$

$$= \frac{9}{10}$$

$$= \frac{9}{10}$$

$$\frac{E_{X:}}{\sum_{n=2}^{\infty}} \frac{3^{n+1}}{2^{2n}} \quad doesn't \quad yet \quad look \quad like \quad a \quad geometric$$

series ... but let's rewrite it as

$$\sum_{n=2}^{\infty} \frac{3^{n+1}}{2^{2n}} = \sum_{n=2}^{\infty} \frac{3 \cdot 3^n}{(2^2)^n} = \sum_{n=2}^{\infty} 3\left(\frac{3}{4}\right)^n$$

Geometric with $r = \frac{3}{4}$

Since |r| < 1, the series converges. In particular, $\sum_{n=2}^{\infty} \frac{3^{n+1}}{2^{2n}} = \sum_{n=2}^{\infty} 3\left(\frac{3}{4}\right)^{n}$ $= \sum_{n=2}^{\infty} 3\left(\frac{3}{4}\right)^{n+2}$

$$= \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} 3 \cdot \left(\frac{3}{4}\right)^{2} \cdot \left(\frac{3}{4}\right)^{n}$$
$$= \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{27}{16} \cdot \left(\frac{3}{4}\right)^{n}$$
$$= \frac{27/16}{1-3/4} = \frac{27}{4}$$

 $\frac{\$10.10 - 10.12}{5}$ Series Convergence Tests For series that are neither geometric nor telescoping, it can be VERY hard to find a nice expression for the partial sums, SN. As a result, it is often VERY hard to find the exact sum of such a series!

e.g. We will soon be able to show that

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^2} = 1 + \frac{1}{4} + \frac{1}{9} + \frac{1}{16} + \cdots$$

Converges. But what's the sum? $S_2 = 1.25$, $S_3 \approx 1.361$, $S_4 \approx 1.424$ Perhaps the sum is 1.5? 2? Nope! In 1735, after many prominent Mathematicians failed to find the sum, Euler proved that <u>Proof</u>: Beyond the

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^2} = \frac{\pi^2}{6}$$
Scope of
MATH 118!

From this point onward, We Won't be interested in finding exact sums, but deciding whether a series converges or diverges. We have many tests for this! (1) The Divergence Test

Our first test is based on the following observation: If $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$ has any hope of converging, the

terms an must become small (i.e., $a_n \rightarrow 0$).

Thus, we get the following:

The Divergence Test
If
$$\lim_{n \to \infty} a_n \neq 0$$
 (or if $\lim_{n \to \infty} a_n \text{ DNE}$) then $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$ diverges.

$$\underbrace{E_{X:}}_{n=1} \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{n}{n+1} = \frac{1}{2} + \frac{2}{3} + \frac{3}{4} + \dots \\
\underbrace{\lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{n}{n+1}}_{n \to \infty} \frac{1}{n+1} = \underbrace{\lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{1}{1+0}}_{1+0} = 1$$
Since $\lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{n}{n+1} \neq 0$, $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{n}{n+1} = \underbrace{\operatorname{diverges}}_{n \to \infty}$ by the divergence test.

$$\underbrace{E_{X:}}_{n=1} \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \operatorname{Sec}(\frac{1}{n}) = \operatorname{Sec}(1) + \operatorname{Sec}(\frac{1}{2}) + \operatorname{Sec}(\frac{1}{3}) + \dots \\
\lim_{n \to \infty} \operatorname{Sec}(\frac{1}{n}) = \operatorname{Sec}(\lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{1}{n}) = \operatorname{Sec}(0) = 1 \quad (\neq 0)$$
Thus, $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \operatorname{Sec}(\frac{1}{n}) = \underbrace{\operatorname{diverges}}_{n \to \infty}$ by the divergence test.

$$\underbrace{E_{X:}}_{n=2} \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \operatorname{Sec}(\frac{1}{n}) = \underbrace{\operatorname{diverges}}_{n \to \infty}$$
 by the divergence test.

$$\underbrace{E_{X:}}_{n=2} \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \operatorname{Sec}(\frac{1}{n}) = \underbrace{\operatorname{diverges}}_{n \to \infty}$$
 by the divergence test.

$$\underbrace{E_{X:}}_{n=2} \sum_{n=2}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n \ln n}$$
In this case we have $\lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{1}{n \cdot \ln n} = 0$. What can we conclude from this? NOTHING!

Important Remark:
The divergence test gives no information if
$$\lim_{n \to \infty} a_n = 0$$
.
The series could converge or diverge!

Ex: Both
$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{2^n}$$
 and $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n}$ satisfy $\lim_{n \to \infty} a_n = 0$,
yet $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{2^n}$ converges while $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n}$ diverges.