Consider the following sum:
\[ \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{4} + \frac{1}{8} + \frac{1}{16} + \cdots + \frac{1}{2^n} + \cdots \]

The dots at the end indicate that the sum goes on forever. Does this make sense? Can we assign a numerical value to an infinite sum? While at first it may seem difficult or impossible, we have certainly done something similar when we talked about one quantity getting “closer and closer” to a fixed quantity. Here we could ask whether, as we add more and more terms, the sum gets closer and closer to some fixed value. That is, look at
\[ \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{4} + \frac{1}{8} + \frac{1}{16} + \cdots + \frac{1}{2^n} + \cdots \]

and so on, and ask whether these values have a limit. It seems pretty clear that they do, namely 1. In fact, as we will see, it’s not hard to show that
\[ \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{4} + \frac{1}{8} + \frac{1}{16} + \cdots + \frac{1}{2^n} + \cdots = 1 \]

and others are easy to come by:
\[ f(i) = \frac{i}{n} \]
\[ f(a) = \frac{a}{2^n} \]
\[ f(n) = \sin(\pi n/6) \]
\[ f(n) = (1 + 1)(i/2^n) \]

Frequently these formulas will make sense if thought of either as functions with domain \( \mathbb{R} \) or \( \mathbb{N} \), though occasionally one will make sense only for integer values.

Faced with a sequence we are interested in the limit
\[ \lim_{x \to \infty} f(x) = \lim_{n \to \infty} a_n \]

We already understand
\[ \lim_{x \to \infty} f(x) \]
when \( x \) is a real valued variable; now we simply want to restrict the “input” values to integers. No real difference is required in the definition of limit, except that we specify, perhaps implicitly, that the variable is an integer. Compare this definition to Definition 4.7.4.

**Definition 13.1.1** Suppose that \( \{a_n\} \) is a sequence. We say that \( \lim_{n \to \infty} a_n = L \)
if for every \( \varepsilon > 0 \) there is an \( N > 0 \) so that whenever \( n > N \), \( |a_n - L| < \varepsilon \). If \( \lim_{n \to \infty} a_n = L \)
we say that the sequence converges. Otherwise it diverges.

If \( f \) defines a sequence, and \( f \) makes sense, and \( \lim_{x \to \infty} f(x) = L \)
then it is clear that \( \lim_{n \to \infty} f(n) = L \) as well, but it is important to note that the converse of this statement is not true. For example, since \( \lim_{x \to \infty} f(x) = 0 \), it is clear that also \( \lim_{n \to \infty} f(1/n) = 0 \), that is, the numbers
\[ \frac{1}{2^n}, \frac{1}{3^n}, \frac{1}{4^n}, \ldots \]
get closer and closer to 0. Consider this; however. Let \( f(n) = \sin(n \pi) \). This is the sequence
\[ \sin(0), \sin(\pi), \sin(2\pi), \sin(3\pi), \ldots = 0, 0, 0, 0, \ldots \]

since \( \sin(n \pi) = 0 \) when \( n \) is an integer. Thus \( \lim_{n \to \infty} f(n) = 0 \). But \( \lim_{x \to \infty} f(x) \), when \( x \) is real, does not exist: as \( x \) gets bigger and bigger, the values \( \sin(x \pi) \) do not get closer and closer to a value. We say that this sequence diverges. Theorem 2.3.6 about limits becomes

\[ \lim_{x \to \infty} f(x) = \lim_{x \to \infty} f(\lfloor x \rfloor) \]

Not surprisingly, the properties of limits of real functions translate into properties of sequences quite easily. Theorem 2.3.6 about limits becomes

**Theorem 13.1.2** Suppose that \( \lim_{n \to \infty} a_n = L \) and \( \lim_{n \to \infty} b_n = M \) and \( k \) is some constant.

Then
\[ \lim_{n \to \infty} ka_n = k \lim_{n \to \infty} a_n = kl \]
\[ \lim_{n \to \infty} (a_n + b_n) = \lim_{n \to \infty} a_n + \lim_{n \to \infty} b_n = L + M \]
\[ \lim_{n \to \infty} (a_n - b_n) = \lim_{n \to \infty} a_n - \lim_{n \to \infty} b_n = L - M \]
\[ \lim_{n \to \infty} (a_n b_n) = \lim_{n \to \infty} a_n \lim_{n \to \infty} b_n = LM \]
\[ \lim_{n \to \infty} a_n b_n \]

Likewise the Square/Root Theorem (4.3.1) becomes
THEOREM 13.1.3 Suppose that \( a_n \leq b_n \leq c_n \) for all \( n \geq N \), for some \( N \). If \( \lim_{n \to \infty} a_n = L \), then \( \lim_{n \to \infty} b_n = L \).

And a final useful fact:

THEOREM 13.1.4 \( \lim_{n \to \infty} |a_n| = 0 \) if and only if \( \lim_{n \to \infty} a_n = 0 \).

This says simply that the size of \( a_n \) gets close to zero if and only if \( a_n \) gets close to zero.

EXAMPLE 13.1.5 Determine whether \( \left\{ \frac{n}{n+1} \right\}_{n=1}^{\infty} \) converges or diverges. If it converges, compute the limit. Since this makes sense for real numbers we consider

\[
\lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{x}{x+1} = \lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{1}{1 + \frac{1}{n}} = 1 - \frac{1}{n} = 1 - 0 = 1.
\]

Thus the sequence converges to 1.

EXAMPLE 13.1.6 Determine whether \( \left\{ \ln x \right\}_{n=1}^{\infty} \) converges or diverges. If it converges, compute the limit. We compute

\[
\lim_{x \to \infty} \frac{\ln x}{x} = \lim_{x \to \infty} \frac{1}{x} = 0,
\]

using L'Hopital's Rule. Thus the sequence converges to 0.

EXAMPLE 13.1.7 Determine whether \( \left\{ (-1)^n \right\}_{n=1}^{\infty} \) converges or diverges. If it converges, compute the limit. This does not make sense for all real exponents, but the sequence is easy to understand: it is

\[
1, -1, 1, -1, 1, \ldots
\]

and clearly diverges.

EXAMPLE 13.1.8 Determine whether \( \left\{ (-1/2)^n \right\}_{n=1}^{\infty} \) converges or diverges. If it converges, compute the limit. We consider the sequence \( \left\{ (-1/2)^n \right\}_{n=0}^{\infty} = \left\{ \frac{1}{2^n} \right\}_{n=0}^{\infty} \). Then

\[
\lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{1}{2} \cdot \left( \frac{1}{2} \right)^n = \lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{1}{2^n} = 0,
\]

so by theorem 13.1.4 the sequence converges to 0.

13.1 Sequences

THEOREM 13.1.12 If a sequence is bounded and monotonic then it converges.

We will not prove this; the proof appears in many calculus books. It is not hard to believe: suppose that a sequence is increasing and bounded, so each term is larger than the one before, yet never larger than some fixed value \( N \). The terms must then get closer and closer to some value between \( a_n \) and \( N \). It need not be \( N \), since \( N \) may be a “too-generous” upper bound; the limit will be the smallest number that is above all of the terms \( a_n \).

EXAMPLE 13.1.13 All of the terms \( (2^2 - 1)/2 \) are less than 2, and the sequence is increasing. As we have seen, the limit of the sequence is \( 1 - 1 = \) the smallest number that is above all the terms in the sequence. Similarly, all of the terms \( (n+1)/n \) are bigger than 1/2, and the limit is \( 1 - 1 = 0.5 \) the largest number that is smaller than the terms of the sequence.

We don’t actually need to know that a sequence is monotonic to apply this theorem—it is enough to know that the sequence is “eventually” monotonic, that is, that at some point it becomes increasing or decreasing. For example, the sequence 10, 9, 8, 15, 3, 21, 4, 8/3, 7/8, 15/16, 31/32, . . . is not increasing, because among the first few terms it is not. But starting with the term 3/4 it is increasing, so the theorem tells us that the sequence 3/4, 7/8, 15/16, 31/32, . . . converges. Since convergence depends only on what happens as \( n \) gets large, adding a few terms at the beginning can’t turn a convergent sequence into a divergent one.

EXAMPLE 13.1.14 Show that \( \{n^{1/4}\} \) converges.

We first show that this sequence is decreasing, that is, that \( n^{1/4} > (n+1)^{1/4} \). Consider the real function \( f(x) = x^{1/4} \) when \( x \geq 1 \). We can compare the derivative, \( f'(x) = x^{1/4} - (1-x)^{-1/4} \), and note that when \( x \geq 3 \) this is negative. Since the function has negative slope, \( n^{1/4} > (n+1)^{1/4} \) when \( n \geq 3 \). Since all terms of the sequence are positive, the sequence is decreasing and bounded when \( n \geq 3 \), and so the sequence converges. (As it happens, we can compute the limit in this case, but we know it converges even without knowing the limit; see exercise 1.)

EXAMPLE 13.1.15 Show that \( \{n^{1/n}\} \) converges. Again we show that the sequence is decreasing, and since each term is positive the sequence converges. We can’t take the derivative this time, as \( n^{1/n} \) doesn’t make sense for \( n \) real. But we note that if \( a_{n+1}/a_n < 1 \) then \( a_{n+1} < a_n \), which is what we want to know. So we look at \( a_{n+1}/a_n \):

\[
a_{n+1}/a_n = \frac{(n+1)^{1/n}}{n^{1/n}} = \frac{n^{1/n}}{n^{1/n}} \cdot \frac{n^{1/n}}{n^{1/n}} = \frac{n+1}{n} < 1.
\]

Exercises 13.1.

1. Compute \( \lim_{n \to \infty} x^{1/n} \).

2. Use the square root theorem to show that \( \lim_{n \to \infty} \sqrt[n]{x} = 0 \).

3. Determine whether \( \{ \sqrt{n+1} - \sqrt{n} \} \) converges or diverges. If it converges, compute the limit.

4. Determine whether \( \{ n^{1/n} \} \) converges or diverges. If it converges, compute the limit.

5. Determine whether \( \{ n^{1/n} \} \) converges or diverges. If it converges, compute the limit.

6. Determine whether \( \{ n^{1/n} \} \) converges or diverges.

13.2 Series

While much more can be said about sequences, we now turn to our principal interest, series. Recall that a series, roughly speaking, is the sum of a sequence: if \( \{a_n\}_{n=0}^{\infty} \) is a sequence then the associated series is

\[
\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n = a_0 + a_1 + a_2 + \cdots.
\]

Associated with a series is a second sequence, called the sequence of partial sums \( \{s_n\}_{n=0}^{\infty} \):

\[
s_n = a_0 + a_1 + a_2 + \cdots + a_n.
\]

So

\[
a_0 = s_0, \quad s_1 = a_0 + a_1, \quad s_2 = a_0 + a_1 + a_2, \quad \ldots
\]

A series converges if the sequence of partial sums converges, and otherwise the series diverges.

EXAMPLE 13.2.1 If \( a_n = k^n \), then \( \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n \) is called a geometric series. A typical partial sum is

\[
a_n = k + kx + kx^2 + \cdots + kx^n = h(1 + x + x^2 + \cdots + x^n).
\]
We note that
\[
s_n(x) = k(1 + x + x^2 + \cdots + x^n)(1 - x) = k[1 + x + x^2 + \cdots + x^n] - k(1 + x + x^2 + \cdots + x^{n+1})x = k(1 + x + x^2 + \cdots + x^n - x - x^2 - \cdots - x^n - x^{n+1}) = k(1 - x^{n+1})
\]
so
\[
s_n(x) = k(1 - x^{n+1})
\]

Hence, the following theorem follows from theorem 13.1.2.

It is not hard to see that the sequence of partial sums \( s_n(x) \) is harder to understand and analyze than the sequence of terms \( a_n(x) \), and it is difficult to determine whether series converge and if so to what. Sometimes things are relatively simple, starting with the following.

**Theorem 13.2.3.** If \( s_n(x) \) converges then \( \lim_{n \to \infty} a_n(x) = 0 \).

**Proof.** Since \( s_n(x) \) converges, \( \lim_{n \to \infty} s_n(x) = L \), and \( \lim_{n \to \infty} s_{n-1}(x) = L \), because this really says the same thing but “rearranges” the terms. By theorem 13.1.2,
\[
\lim_{n \to \infty} (s_n(x) - s_{n-1}(x)) = \lim_{n \to \infty} a_n(x) = L - L = 0.
\]
But
\[
s_n(x) - s_{n-1}(x) = (a_1 + a_2 + \cdots + a_n) - (a_1 + a_2 + \cdots + a_{n-1}) = a_n(x),
\]
so as desired \( \lim_{n \to \infty} a_n(x) = 0 \).

This theorem presents an easy divergence test: if given a series \( s_n(x) \), the limit \( \lim_{n \to \infty} a_n(x) \) does not exist or has a value other than zero, the series diverges. Note well that the converse is not true: if \( \lim_{n \to \infty} a_n(x) = 0 \) then the series does not necessarily converge.

**Example 13.2.4.** Show that \( \sum \frac{n}{n+1} \) diverges.

We compute the limit:
\[
\lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{n}{n+1} = 1 \neq 0.
\]
Looking at the first few terms perhaps makes it clear that the series has no chance of converging:
\[
\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{n}{n+1} = 1 + \frac{2}{2} + \frac{3}{3} + \frac{4}{4} + \cdots
\]

**13.3 The Integral Test**

It is generally quite difficult, often impossible, to determine the value of a series exactly. In many cases it is possible at least to determine whether or not the series converges, and so we will spend most of our time on this problem.

If all of the terms \( a_n(x) \) in a series are non-negative, then clearly the sequence of partial sums \( s_n(x) \) is non-decreasing. This means that if we can show that the sequence of partial sums is bounded, the series must converge. We know that if the series converges, the terms \( a_n(x) \) approach zero, but this does not mean that \( a_n(x) \to 0 \) for every \( n \). Many useful and interesting series do have this property, however, and they are among the easiest to understand. Let’s look at an example.

**Example 13.3.1.** Show that \( \sum \frac{1}{n^2} \) converges.

The terms \( 1/n^2 \) are positive and decreasing, and since \( \lim_{n \to \infty} 1/n^2 = 0 \), the terms \( 1/n^2 \) approach zero. We seek an upper bound for all the partial sums, that is, we want to find a number \( N \) so that \( s_N \leq N \) for every \( n \). The upper bound is provided courtesy of integration, and is inherent in Figure 13.3.1.

The figure shows the graph of \( y = 1/x^2 \) together with some rectangles that lie completely below the curve and that all have base length one. Because the heights of the rectangles are determined by the height of the curve, the areas of the rectangles are \( 1/1^2 \), \( 1/2^2 \), \( 1/3^2 \), and so on— in other words, exactly the terms of the series. The partial sum \( s_n(x) \) is simply the sum of the areas of the first \( n \) rectangles. Because the rectangles all lie between the curve and the \( y \)-axis, any sum of rectangle areas is less than the corresponding

**Exercises 13.2.**

1. Explain why \( \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^2} \) diverges.

2. Explain why \( \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{5}{n^6 + 4} \) diverges.

3. Explain why \( \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^2} \) diverges.
area under the curve, and so of course any sum of rectangle areas is less than the area under the entire curve, that is, all the way to infinity. There is a bit of trouble at the left end, where there is an asymptote, but we can work around that easily. Here it is:

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

$$\int_1^\infty \frac{1}{x^2} \, dx < 1 + \int_1^n \frac{1}{x^2} \, dx = 1 + 1 = 2,$$

recalling that we computed this improper integral in section 11.2. Since the sequence of partial sums $$s_n$$ is increasing and bounded above by 2, we know that $$\lim s_n = L < 2$$, and so the series converges to some number less than 2. In fact, it is possible, though difficult, to show that $$L = \pi^2/6 \approx 1.6$$.

We already know that $$\sum 1/n$$ diverges. What goes wrong if we try to apply this technique to it? Here’s the calculation:

$$s_n = \frac{1}{1} + \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{3} + \cdots + \frac{1}{n} \int_1^{n+1} \frac{1}{x} \, dx = \ln(n+1) - \ln(n+1).$$

As $$n$$ gets bigger, $$\ln(n+1)$$ goes to infinity, so the sequence of partial sums $$s_n$$ must also go to infinity, so the harmonic series diverges.

**EXAMPLE 13.3.2** Consider a slightly altered version of figure 13.3.1, shown in figure 13.3.2.

The rectangles this time are above the curve, that is, each rectangle completely contains the corresponding area under the curve. This means that

$$s_n = \frac{1}{1} + \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{3} + \cdots + \frac{1}{n} \int_1^{n+1} \frac{1}{x} \, dx = \ln(n+1) - \ln(n+1).$$

As $$n$$ gets bigger, $$\ln(n+1)$$ goes to infinity, so the sequence of partial sums $$s_n$$ must also go to infinity, so the harmonic series diverges.

**EXAMPLE 13.3.5** Show that $$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^2}$$ converges.

We could of course use the integral test, but now that we have the theorem we may simply note that this is a p-series with $$p > 1$$.

**EXAMPLE 13.3.6** Show that $$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{5}{n}$$ converges.

We know that if $$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} 1/n^p$$ converges then $$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} 1/n$$ also converges, by theorem 13.2.2. Since $$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} 1/n$$ is a divergent p-series, $$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} 5/n$$ also diverges.

**EXAMPLE 13.3.7** Show that $$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{5}{n^2}$$ diverges.

This also follows from theorem 13.2.2: Since $$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} 1/n^2$$ is a p-series with $$p = 1/2 < 1$$, it diverges, and so does $$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} 5/n^2$$.

Since it is typically difficult to compute the value of a series exactly, a good approximation is frequently required. In a real sense, a good approximation is only as good as we know it is, that is, while an approximation may in fact be good, it is only valuable in practice if we can guarantee its accuracy to some degree. This guarantee is usually easy to come by for series with decreasing positive terms.

**EXAMPLE 13.3.8** Approximate $$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} 1/n^2$$ to two decimal places.

Referring to figure 13.3.1, if we approximate the sum by $$\sum_{n=1}^{N} 1/n^2$$, the error we make is the total area of the remaining rectangles, all of which lie under the curve $$1/x^2$$ from $$x = N$$ out to infinity. So we know the true value of the series is larger than the approximation, and no bigger than the approximation plus the area under the curve from $$N$$ to infinity. Roughtly, then, we need to find $$N$$ so that

$$\int_N^\infty \frac{1}{x^2} \, dx < 1/100.$$
13.4 Alternating Series

Next we consider series with both positive and negative terms, but in a regular pattern: they alternate, as in the alternating harmonic series for example:

\[ \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^{n-1}}{n} = 1 - \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{3} - \frac{1}{4} + \cdots = \ln 2. \]

In this series the sizes of the terms decrease, that is, \(|a_n|\) forms a decreasing sequence, but this is not required in an alternating series. As with positive term series, however, when the terms do have decreasing sizes it is easier to analyze the series, much easier, in fact, than positive term series. Consider pictorially what is going on in the alternating harmonic series, shown in figure 13.4.1. Because the sizes of the terms \(a_n\) are decreasing, the partial sums \(s_1, s_2, s_3, \ldots\) and so on, form a decreasing sequence that is bounded below by \(a_1\); so this sequence must converge. Likewise, the partial sums \(s_2, s_4, s_6, \ldots\), and so on, form an increasing sequence that is bounded above by \(a_1\), so this sequence also converges. Since all the even numbered partial sums are less than all the odd numbered ones, and since the “jumps” (that is, the \(a_n\) terms) are getting smaller and smaller, the two sequences must converge to the same value, meaning the entire sequence of partial sums \(s_1, s_2, s_3, \ldots\) converges as well.

![Figure 13.4.1: The alternating harmonic series.](image)

There’s nothing special about the alternating harmonic series—the same argument works for any alternating sequence with decreasing size terms. The alternating series test is worth calling a theorem.

**Theorem 13.4.1** Suppose that \(|a_n|\) is an increasing sequence of positive numbers and \(\lim_{n \to \infty} a_n = 0\). Then the alternating series \(\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (-1)^{n+1}a_n\) converges.

**Proof.** The odd numbered partial sums, \(s_1, s_2, s_3, \ldots\), and so on, form a non-increasing sequence, because \(a_2k + 1 = a_{2k} - a_{2k+1} \leq a_{2k+1}\), since \(a_{2k+2} \leq a_{2k+1}\). This sequence is bounded below by \(a_1\), so it must converge, say \(\lim_{k \to \infty} s_{2k+1} = L\). Likewise, the partial sums \(s_2, s_4, s_6, \ldots\), and so on, form a non-decreasing sequence that is bounded above by \(a_1\), so this sequence also converges, say \(\lim_{k \to \infty} s_{2k} = M\). Since \(\lim_{k \to \infty} a_k = 0\) and \(s_{2k+1} = s_{2k} + a_{2k+1}\),

\[ L = \lim_{k \to \infty} s_{2k+1} = \lim_{k \to \infty} (s_{2k} + a_{2k+1}) = \lim_{k \to \infty} s_{2k} + \lim_{k \to \infty} a_{2k+1} = M + 0 = M, \]

so \(L = M\), the two sequences of partial sums converge to the same limit, and this means the entire sequence of partial sums also converges to \(L\).

Another useful fact is implicit in this discussion. Suppose that

\[ L = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (-1)^{n-1}a_n \]

and that we approximate \(L\) by a finite part of this sum, say

\[ L \approx \sum_{n=1}^{N} (-1)^{n-1}a_n. \]

Because the terms are decreasing in size, we know that the true value of \(L\) must be between this approximation and the next one, that is, between \(\sum_{n=0}^{N} (-1)^{n-1}a_n\) and \(\sum_{n=0}^{N+1} (-1)^{n-1}a_n\).

Depending on whether \(N\) is odd or even, the second will be larger or smaller than the first.

**Example 13.4.2** Approximate the alternating harmonic series to one decimal place.

We need to go roughly to the point at which the next term to be added or subtracted is \(1/10\). Adding up the first nine and the first ten terms we get approximately 0.746 and 0.846. Those are 1/10 apart, but it is not clear how the correct value would be rounded. It turns out that we are able to settle the question by computing the sum of the first eleven and twelve terms, which give 0.737 and 0.503, so correct to one place the value is 0.7.

We have considered alternating series with first index 1, and in which the first term is positive, but a little thought shows this is not crucial. The same test applies to any similar series, such as \(\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (-1)^{n+1}a_n, \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (-1)^{n}a_n, \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (-1)^{n}a_n, \ldots\), etc.

13.5 Comparison Tests

As we begin to compile a list of convergent and divergent series, new ones can sometimes be analyzed by comparing them to ones that we already understand.

**Example 13.5.1** Does \(\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^2 + 1}\) converge?

The obvious first approach, based on what we know, is the integral test. Unfortunately, we can’t compute the required antiderivative. But looking at the series, it would appear that it must converge, because the terms we are adding are smaller than the terms of a \(p\)-series, that is,

\[ \frac{\pi^2}{6} + \frac{\pi^2}{6} = \frac{\pi^2}{3}. \]

when \(n \geq 3\). Since adding up the terms \(1/n^2\) doesn’t get “too big”, the new series “should” also converge. Let’s make this more precise.

The series \(\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^2 + 1}\) converges if and only if \(\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^2}\) converges—all we’ve done is dropped the initial term. We know that \(\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^2}\) converges. Looking at two typical partial sums:

\[ s_n = \frac{1}{2^2} + \frac{1}{3^2} + \frac{1}{4^2} + \cdots + \frac{1}{n^2} < \frac{1}{2^2} + \frac{1}{2^2} + \frac{1}{2^2} + \cdots + \frac{1}{2^2} = L. \]

Since the \(p\)-series converges, say to \(L\), and since the terms are positive, \(t_n < L\). Since the terms of the new series are positive, the \(s_n\) form an increasing sequence and \(s_n < t_n < L\) for all \(n\). Hence the sequence \(\{s_n\}\) is bounded and so converges.

284 Chapter 13 Sequences and Series

Sometimes, even when the integral test applies, comparison to a known series is easier, so it’s generally a good idea to think about doing a comparison before doing the integral test.

**Example 13.5.2** Does \(\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \sin n / \sqrt{n^2 - 3}\) converge?

We can’t apply the integral test here, because the terms of this series are not decreasing.

Just as in the previous example, however,

\[ \lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{\sin n}{\sqrt{n^2 - 3}} \leq 1 \]

because \(|\sin n| \leq 1\). Once again the partial sums are non-decreasing and bounded above by \(\sum 1/n^2 = L\), so the new series converges.

Like the integral test, the comparison test can be used to show both convergence and divergence. In the case of the integral test, a single calculation will confirm whichever is the case. To use the comparison test we must first have a good idea as to convergence or divergence and pick the sequence for comparison accordingly.

**Example 13.5.3** Does \(\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{\sqrt{n^2 - 3}}\) converge?

We observe that the \(-3\) should have little effect compared to the \(n^2\) inside the square root, and therefore guess that the terms are enough like \(1/\sqrt{n^2} = 1/n\) that the series should diverge. We attempt to show this by comparison to the harmonic series.

We note that

\[ \frac{1}{\sqrt{n^2 - 3}} > \frac{1}{\sqrt{n^2}} = \frac{1}{n}. \]

so that

\[ s_n = \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} + \frac{1}{\sqrt{4}} + \cdots + \frac{1}{\sqrt{n}} + \frac{1}{n} \]

where \(t_n = 1 \) is less than the corresponding partial sum of the harmonic series (because we start at \(n = 2\) instead of \(n = 1\)). Since \(\lim_{n \to \infty} t_n = \infty\), \(\lim_{n \to \infty} s_n = \infty\) as well.

So the general approach is this: If you believe that a new series is convergent, attempt to find a convergent series whose terms are larger than the terms of the new series; if you believe that a new series is divergent, attempt to find a divergent series whose terms are smaller than the terms of the new series.
EXAMPLE 13.5.4 Does \( \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{\sqrt{n^2 + 1}} \) converge?

Just as in the last example, we guess that this is very much like the harmonic series and so diverges. Unfortunately, \( \frac{1}{\sqrt{n^2 + 1}} \geq \frac{1}{\sqrt{n^2}} = \frac{1}{n} \), so we can’t compare the series directly to the harmonic series. A little thought leads us to \( \frac{1}{\sqrt{n^2 + 1}} < \frac{1}{\sqrt{n^2}} < \frac{1}{2n} \), so if \( \sum 1/(2n) \) diverges then the given series diverges. But since \( \sum 1/(2n) = (1/2) \sum 1/n \), theorem 13.2.2 implies that it does indeed diverge.

For reference we summarize the comparison test in a theorem.

THEOREM 13.5.5 Suppose that \( a_n \) and \( b_n \) are non-negative for all \( n \) and that \( a_n \leq b_n \) when \( n \geq N \), for some \( N \).

If \( \sum b_n \) converges, so does \( \sum a_n \).

If \( \sum a_n \) diverges, so does \( \sum b_n \).

Exercises 13.5.

Determine whether the series converge or diverge.

1. \( \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{n^3 + 4}{2n^3 + 3n + 5} \Rightarrow \)
2. \( \sum_{n=2}^{\infty} \frac{n-1}{n^2 + 3n + 2} \Rightarrow \)
3. \( \sum_{n=2}^{\infty} \frac{3n^2 + 4}{2n^3 + 6n + 3} \Rightarrow \)
4. \( \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{3n}{n^3 + 2n^2 + 1} \Rightarrow \)
5. \( \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{n^2}{n^3 + 2n^2 + 1} \Rightarrow \)
6. \( \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{n^4}{n^5 + 4n^3 + 1} \Rightarrow \)
7. \( \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{n^5}{n^6 + 2n^5 + 1} \Rightarrow \)
8. \( \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{n^6}{n^7 + 3n^4 + 1} \Rightarrow \)
9. \( \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{n^7}{n^8 + 4n^3 + 1} \Rightarrow \)
10. \( \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{n^8}{n^9 + 5n^2 + 1} \Rightarrow \)

13.7 The Ratio and Root Tests

In example 13.5.2 we saw that \( \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{\sin n}{n^2} \) converges, so the given series converges absolutely.

EXAMPLE 13.6.3 Does \( \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (-1)^{n-1} \frac{3n + 4}{2n^2 + 3n + 5} \) converge?

Taking the absolute values, \( \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{3n + 4}{2n^2 + 3n + 5} \) diverges by comparison to \( \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{3}{2n} \), so if the series converges it does so conditionally. It is true that \( \lim (3n + 4)/(2n^2 + 3n + 5) = 0 \), so to apply the alternating series test we need to know whether the terms are decreasing. If we let \( f(x) = (3x + 4)/(2x^2 + 3x + 5) \) then \( f'(x) = -6x^2 + 16x - 39/(2x^2 + 3x + 5)^2 \), and it is not hard to see that this is negative for \( x > 1 \), so the series is decreasing and by the alternating series test it converges.

Exercises 13.6.

Determine whether each series converges absolutely, converges conditionally, or diverges.

1. \( \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (-1)^{n-1} \frac{1}{2n^2 + 3n + 5} \Rightarrow \)
2. \( \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (-1)^{n-1} \frac{3n^2 + 4}{2n^3 + 3n^2 + 1} \Rightarrow \)
3. \( \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (-1)^{n-1} \frac{\sin n}{n} \Rightarrow \)
4. \( \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (-1)^{n-1} \frac{\ln n}{n} \Rightarrow \)
5. \( \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (-1)^{n-1} \frac{1}{n^2} \Rightarrow \)
6. \( \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (-1)^{n-1} \frac{1}{n^2 + 3n + 1} \Rightarrow \)
7. \( \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (-1)^{n-1} \frac{1}{n^2 + 3n + 1} \Rightarrow \)
8. \( \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (-1)^{n-1} \frac{\sin n}{n} \Rightarrow \)
9. \( \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (-1)^{n-1} \frac{1}{n^2 + 3n + 1} \Rightarrow \)

13.7 The Ratio and Root Tests

Does the series \( \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{n^2}{n^3} \) converge? It is possible, but a bit unpleasant, to approach this with the integral test or the comparison test, but there is an easier way. Consider what happens as we move from one term to the next in this series:

\[ \cdots + \frac{n^2}{n^3} + \frac{(n+1)^2}{(n+1)^3} + \cdots \]

The denominator goes up by a factor of 5, \( 5^{n+1} = 5 \cdot 5^n \), but the numerator goes up by much less: \( (n+1)^2 = n^2 + 5n + 10m + 10m^2 + 5m + 1 \), which is much less than \( 5n^2 \) when \( n \) is large, because \( 5n^2 \) is much less than \( n^3 \). So we might guess that in the long run it begins to look as if each term is \( 1/5 \) of the previous term. We have seen series that behave like this:

\[ \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{5^n} \]

a geometric series. So we might try comparing the given series to some variation of this geometric series. This is possible, but a bit messy. We can in effect do the same thing, but bypass most of the unpleasant work.

The key is to notice that

\[ \lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{a_{n+1}}{a_n} = \lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{\frac{n+1}{n} \cdot \frac{n}{n+2}}{\frac{n}{n+2} \cdot \frac{n}{n+3}} = \lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{(n+1)^2}{n^2} = \frac{1}{5} \]

This is really just what we noticed above, done a bit more officially: in the long run, each term is one fifth of the previous term. Now pick some number between \( 1/5 \) and \( 1 \), say \( 1/2 \) because

\[ \frac{\frac{n+1}{n}}{\frac{n}{n+2}} = \frac{n+1}{n} \cdot \frac{n+2}{n} = \frac{n+1}{n} < \frac{n+1}{n} = \frac{1}{5} \]

when \( n \) is big enough, say \( n \geq N \) for some \( N \).

\[ a_{n+1} < a_n < a_{n+1} \quad \text{and} \quad a_{n+1} < a_n \]

So if we add the fixed number \( a_1 + a_2 + a_3 + \cdots + a_{n+1} + \cdots \), its terms are less than or equal to the terms of the sequence

\[ a_0 + \frac{a_1}{2} + \frac{a_2}{3} + \frac{a_3}{4} + \cdots + \frac{a_n}{n+1} \]

So by the comparison test \( \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n \) converges, and this means that \( \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n \) converges, since we’ve just added the fixed number \( a_0 + a_1 + a_2 + \cdots + a_n \).

Under what circumstances could we do this? What was crucial was that the limit of \( a_{n+1}/a_n \), say \( L \), was less than 1 so that we could pick a value \( r \) so that \( L < r < 1 \). The fact that \( L < r < 1/2 \) (in our example) means that we can compare the series \( \sum a_n \) to \( \sum r^n \), and the fact that \( r < 1 \) guarantees that \( \sum r^n \) converges. That’s really all that is...
required to make the argument work. We also made use of the fact that the terms of the series were positive; in general we simply consider the absolute values of the terms and we end up testing for absolute convergence.

THEOREM 13.7.1 The Ratio Test Suppose that $\lim_{n \to \infty} |a_{n+1}/a_n| = L$. If $L < 1$ the series $\sum a_n$ converges absolutely, if $L > 1$ the series diverges, and if $L = 1$ this test gives no information.

Proof. The above example essentially proves the first part of this, if we simply replace 1/5 by $L$ and 1/2 by $r$. Suppose that $L > 1$, and pick $r$ so that $1 < r < L$. Then for $n \geq N$, for some $N$, $|a_{n+1}| > r$ and $|a_{n+1}| > r |a_n|$. This implies that $|a_{n+1}| > r |a_n|$, but since $r > 1$ this means that $\lim_{n \to \infty} |a_{n+1}| \neq 0$, which means also that $\lim_{n \to \infty} a_n \neq 0$. By the divergence test, the series diverges.

To see that we get no information when $L = 1$, we need to exhibit two series with $L = 1$, one that converges and one that diverges. It is easy to see that $\sum 1/n^2$ and $\sum 1/n$ do the job. $\blacksquare$

EXAMPLE 13.7.2 The ratio test is particularly useful for series involving the factorial function. Consider $\sum n!/n!$.

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{n+1}{n+1} = \lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{n+1}{n+1} = \lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{1}{n+1} = 0.$$ Since $0 < 1$, the series converges. $\blacksquare$

A similar argument, which we will not do, justifies a similar test that is occasionally easier to apply.

THEOREM 13.7.3 The Root Test Suppose that $\lim_{n \to \infty} |a_n|^{1/n} = L$. If $L < 1$ the series $\sum a_n$ converges absolutely, if $L > 1$ the series diverges, and if $L = 1$ this test gives no information.

The proof of the root test is actually easier than that of the ratio test, and is a good exercise.

EXAMPLE 13.7.4 Analyze $\sum k^n/n$.

The ratio test turns out to be a bit difficult on this series (try it). Using the root test:

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} \left(\frac{|x|}{n}ight)^{1/n} = \lim_{n \to \infty} \left(\frac{|x|}{n}night)^{1/n} = \lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{|x|}{n} = 0.$$ Since $0 < 1$, the series converges. $\blacksquare$

The root test is frequently useful when $n$ appears as an exponent in the general term of the series.

Exercises 13.7.
1. Compute $\lim_{n \to \infty} |a_{n+1}/a_n|$ for the series $\sum 1/n^2$.
2. Compute $\lim_{n \to \infty} |a_{n+1}/a_n|$ for the series $\sum 1/n$.
3. Compute $\lim_{n \to \infty} |a_{n+1}/a_n|$ for the series $\sum 1/n^2$.
4. Compute $\lim_{n \to \infty} |a_{n+1}/a_n|$ for the series $\sum 1/n$.

Determine whether the series converge.

9. $\sum (-1)^n/x^n$.
6. $\sum n!$.
7. $\sum n^n$.
8. $\sum n^n$.


13.8 Power Series

Recall that we were able to analyze all geometric series “simultaneously” to discover that

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

if $|x| < 1$, and that the series diverges when $|x| \geq 1$. At the time, we thought of $x$ as an unspecified constant, but we could just as well think of it as a variable, in which case the investigation. Thus the series will definitely define a function on the interval $(-1, 1)$, and perhaps will extend to one or both endpoints as well. Two special cases deserve mention: if $L = 0$ the limit is 0 no matter what value $x$ takes, so the series converges for all $x$ and the function is defined for all real numbers. If $L = \infty$, then no matter what value $x$ takes the limit is infinite and the series converges only when $x = 0$. The value $1/L$ is called the radius of convergence of the series, and the interval on which the series converges is the interval of convergence.

Consider again the geometric series, $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} kx^n = \frac{1}{1-x}$.

Whatever benefits there might be in using the series form of this function are only available to us when $x$ is between $-1$ and 1. Frequently we can address this shortcoming by modifying the power series slightly. Consider this series:

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

because this is just a geometric series with $x$ replaced by $(x+2)/3$. Multiplying both sides by $1/3$ gives

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \left(\frac{x+2}{3}\right)^n = \frac{1}{3-x},$$

the same function as before. For what values of $x$ does this series converge? Since it is a geometric series, we know that it converges when

- $|x+2|/3 < 1$,
- $|x+2| < 3$,
- $-3 < x+2 < 3$,
- $-5 < x < 1$.

So we have a series representation for $1/(1-x)$ that works on a larger interval than before, at the expense of a somewhat more complicated series. The endpoints of the interval of convergence are $-2$ and 1, but note that they can be more compactly described as $-2 \pm 3$. We say that 3 is the radius of convergence, and we now say that the series is centered at $-2$. 

294 Chapter 13 Sequences and Series
DEFINITION 13.9.3 A power series centered at a has the form

\[ \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n(x-a)^n, \]

with the understanding that \( a_n \) may depend on \( n \) but not on \( x \).

Exercises 13.8.
Find the radius and interval of convergence for each series. In exercises 3 and 4, do not attempt to determine whether the endpoints are in the interval of convergence.

1. \( \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} nx^n \Rightarrow \)
2. \( \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} 2^n \Rightarrow \)
3. \( \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{n!}{n^n} x^n \Rightarrow \)
4. \( \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{n^n}{n!} (x-2)^n \Rightarrow \)
5. \( \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (n^n)(x-2)^n \Rightarrow \)

13.9 Calculus with Power Series

Now we know that some functions can be expressed as power series, which look like infinite polynomials. Since calculus, that is, computation of derivatives and antiderivatives, is easy for polynomials, the obvious question is whether the same is true for infinite series. The answer is yes:

THEOREM 13.9.1 Suppose the power series \( f(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n (x-a)^n \) has radius of convergence \( R \). Then

\[ f'(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} n a_n (x-a)^n-1, \]

\[ \int f(x) \, dx = C + \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{a_n}{n+1} (x-a)^{n+1}, \]

and these two series have radius of convergence \( R \) as well.

13.10 Taylor Series

We have seen that some functions can be represented as series, which may give valuable information about the function. So far, we have seen only those examples that result from manipulation of our one fundamental example, the geometric series. We would like to start with a given function and produce a series to represent it, if possible.

Suppose that \( f(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n x^n \) on some interval of convergence. Then we know that we can compute derivatives of \( f \) by taking derivatives of the terms of the series. Let’s look at the first few in general:

\[ f'(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} n a_n x^{n-1} = a_1 + 2a_2 x + 3a_3 x^2 + 4a_4 x^3 + \cdots \]

\[ f''(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} n(n-1) a_n x^{n-2} = 2a_2 + 3 \cdot 2a_3 x + 4 \cdot 3a_4 x^2 + \cdots \]

\[ f'''(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} n(n-1)(n-2) a_n x^{n-3} = 3 \cdot 2a_3 + 4 \cdot 3 \cdot 2a_4 x + \cdots \]

By examining these it’s not hard to discern the general pattern. The \( k \)th derivative must be

\[ f^{(k)}(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} n(n-1) \cdots (n-k+1) a_n x^{n-k} \]

\[ = k(k-1) \cdots (2)(1)a_1 + (k+1)(k+2) \cdots (2)a_{k+1} x + \]

\[ + (k+2)(k+1) \cdots (3)a_{k+2} x^2 + \cdots \]

We can shrink this quite a bit by using factorial notation:

\[ f^{(k)}(x) = \sum_{n=k}^{\infty} \frac{n!}{(n-k)!} a_n x^{n-k} = k! a_k + (k+1)! a_{k+1} x + \]

\[ + \frac{(k+2)!}{2} a_{k+2} x^2 + \cdots \]

Now substitute \( x = 0 \):

\[ f^{(k)}(0) = k! a_k + (k+1)! a_{k+1} + \frac{(k+2)!}{2} a_{k+2} + \cdots \]

and solve for \( a_k \):

\[ a_k = \frac{f^{(k)}(0)}{k!}. \]

Note the special case, obtained from the series for \( f \) itself, that gives \( f(0) = a_0 \).

EXAMPLE 13.9.2 Starting with the geometric series:

\[ \frac{1}{1-x} = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} x^n \]

\[ ln(1-x) = - \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{x^n}{n} \]

when \( |x| < 1 \). The series does not converge when \( x = 1 \) but does converge when \( |x| < 1 \). The interval of convergence is \([-1, 1)\), or \( 0 < 1 - x \leq 2 \), so we can use the series to represent \( ln(x) \) when \( 0 < x \leq 2 \). For example

\[ ln(3/2) = ln(1 - 1/2) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^n}{n} \frac{1}{2} \]

and so

\[ ln(3/2) \approx 0.5 \]

Because this is an alternating series with decreasing terms, we know that the true value is between \( 0.49999 \) and \( 0.50001 \). So corrected to two decimal places the value is 0.49.

What about \( ln(9/4) \)? Since \( 9/4 \) is larger than 2 we cannot use the series directly, but

\[ ln(9/4) = ln((3/2)^2) = 2ln(3/2) \approx 0.82, \]

so in fact we get a lot more from this one calculation than first meets the eye. To estimate the true value accurately we actually need to be a bit more careful. When we multiply by two we know that the true value is between 0.8106 and 0.812, rounded to two decimal places the true value is 0.81.

Exercises 13.9.

1. Find a series representation for \( ln 2 \).
2. Find a power series representation for \( 1/(1-x)^2 \).
3. Find a power series representation for \( 2/(1-x)^3 \).
4. Find a power series representation for \( 1/(1-x)^3 \).
5. Find a power series representation for \( \int ln(1-x) \, dx \).

13.10 Taylor Series

So if a function \( f \) can be represented by a series, we know just what series it is. Given a function \( f \), the series

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

is called the Maclaurin series for \( f \).

EXAMPLE 13.10.1 Find the Maclaurin series for \( f(x) = 1/(1-x) \). We need to compute the derivatives of \( f \) (and hope to spot a pattern).

\[ f(x) = (1-x)^{-1} \]

\[ f'(x) = (-1)(-x)^{-2} \]

\[ f''(x) = 2(1-x)^{-3} \]

\[ f'''(x) = 6(1-x)^{-4} \]

\[ f^{(4)}(x) = 24(1-x)^{-5} \]

\[ \cdots \]

\[ f^{(n)}(x) = n! (1-x)^{-n-1} \]

So

\[ \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{f^{(n)}(0)}{n!} x^n = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{n! (0-0)^{n-1}}{n!} x^n = 1 \]

and the Maclaurin series is

\[ \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} x^n \]

the geometric series.

A warning is in order here. Given a function \( f \) we may be able to compute the Maclaurin series, but that does not mean we have found a series representation for \( f \). We still need to know where the series converges, and if, where it converges, it converges to \( f(x) \). While for most commonly encountered functions the Maclaurin series does indeed converge to \( f \) on some interval, this is not true of all functions, so care is required.

As a practical matter, if we are interested in using a series to approximate a function, we will need some finite number of terms of the series. Even for functions with messy derivatives we can compute these using computer software like Sage. If we want to know the whole series, that is, a typical term in the series, we need a function whose derivatives fall into a pattern that we can discern. A few of the most important functions are fortunately very easy.
EXAMPLE 13.10.2 Find the Maclaurin series for \( f(x) = \cos x \) and \( f(x) = \sin x \).

The derivatives are quite easy: \( f'(x) = -\sin x \), \( f''(x) = -\cos x \), \( f'''(x) = \sin x \), \( f^{(4)}(x) = \cos x \), and then the pattern repeats. We want to know the derivatives at zero: 1, 0, 1, 0, 1, 0, . . . , and so the Maclaurin series is

\[
x - \frac{x^3}{3!} + \frac{x^5}{5!} - \cdots = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (-1)^n \frac{x^{2n+1}}{(2n+1)!}
\]

We should always determine the radius of convergence:

\[
\lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{n!}{(2n+1)!} = \lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{1}{2n+1} = 0
\]

so the series converges for every \( x \). Since it turns out that this series does indeed converge to \( \sin x \) everywhere, we have a series representation for \( \sin x \) for every \( x \). Here is an interactive plot of the sine and some of its series approximations.

Sometimes the formula for the \( n \)th derivative of a function \( f \) is difficult to discover, but a combination of a known Maclaurin series and some algebraic manipulation leads easily to the Maclaurin series for \( f \).

EXAMPLE 13.10.3 Find the Maclaurin series for \( x \sin(\pi x) \).

To get from \( x \sin(\pi x) \) to \( \pi x \sin(\pi x) \) we substitute \(-x \) for \( x \) and then multiply by \( \pi \). We can do the same thing for the series for \( \sin x \):

\[
\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (-1)^n \frac{x^{2n+1}}{(2n+1)!} = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (-1)^n \frac{\pi x^{2n+1}}{(2n+1)!}
\]

As we have seen, a general power series can be centered at a point other than zero, and the method that produces the Maclaurin series can also produce such series.

EXAMPLE 13.10.4 Find a series centered at \(-2 \) for \( f(t) = \frac{1}{1-t} \).

If the series is \( \sum a_n(x+2)^n \) then looking at the 4th derivative:

\[
k!(-1)^k = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{n!}{(n-k)!}a_n(x+2)^{n-k}
\]

and substituting \( x = -2 \) we get \( k!(x+2)^{k-1} = a_k \) and \( a_n = -3^{-k-1} - 3^{k+1} \), so the series is

\[
\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (x+2)^n
\]

We've already seen this, on page 294.

\[
300 \quad \text{Chapter 13 Sequences and Series}
\]

Such a series is called the Taylor series for the function, and the general term has the form

\[
\frac{f^{(k)}(a)}{k!}(x-a)^k.
\]

A Maclaurin series is simply a Taylor series with \( a = 0 \).

Exercises 13.10.

For each function, find the Maclaurin series or Taylor series centered at \( a \), and the radius of convergence.

1. \( \cos x \)

2. \( x^e \)

3. \( 1/x, \, a = 5 \)

4. \( \ln x, \, a = 1 \)

5. \( \ln x, \, a = 2 \)

6. \( 1/x^2, \, a = 1 \)

7. \( \sqrt{1+x} \)

8. Find the first four terms of the Maclaurin series for \( \tan x \) (up to and including the \( x^3 \) term).

9. Use a combination of Maclaurin series and algebraic manipulation to find a series centered at zero for \( x \cos(x^2) \).

10. Use a combination of Maclaurin series and algebraic manipulation to find a series centered at zero for \( x^2 \sin(x^2) \).

13.11 Taylor’s Theorem

One of the most important uses of infinite series is the potential for using an initial portion of the series for \( f \) to approximate \( f \). We have seen, for example, that when we add up the first \( n \) terms of an alternating series with decreasing terms that the difference between this and the true value is at most the size of the next term. A similar result is true of many Taylor series.

THEOREM 13.11.1 Suppose that \( f \) is defined on some open interval \( I \) around \( a \) and suppose \( f^{(n+1)}(x) \) exists on this interval. Then for each \( x \neq a \) in \( I \) there is a value \( c \) between \( x \) and \( a \) so that

\[
f(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{N} \frac{f^{(n)}(a)}{n!}(x-a)^n + \frac{f^{(N+1)}(c)}{(N+1)!}(x-a)^{N+1}.
\]

Now most of the terms in this expression cancel out, leaving just

\[
f(x) = \frac{f^{(N+1)}(c)}{(N+1)!}(x-a)^{N+1}.
\]

At some \( x, \, F'(x) = 0 \) so

\[
0 = \frac{f^{(N+1)}(x)}{(N+1)!}(x-a)^N + B(N+1)(x-a)^N
\]

\[
B(N+1) = \frac{f^{(N+1)}(x)}{(N+1)!}(x-a)^N
\]

Now we can write

\[
f(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{N} \frac{f^{(n)}(a)}{n!}(x-a)^n + \frac{f^{(N+1)}(x)}{(N+1)!}(x-a)^{N+1}.
\]

Recalling that \( F'(a) = f(x) \) we get

\[
f(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{N} \frac{f^{(n)}(a)}{n!}(x-a)^n + \frac{f^{(N+1)}(a)}{(N+1)!}(x-a)^{N+1},
\]

which is what we wanted to show.

It may not be immediately obvious that this is particularly useful; let's look at some examples.
EXAMPLE 13.11.2 Find a polynomial approximation for $\sin x$ accurate to $\pm 0.005$.

From Taylor’s theorem:

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

What can we say about the size of the term $\frac{f^{(N+1)}(z)}{(N+1)!} (x - 0)^{N+1}$?

Every derivative of $\sin x$ is $\pm \sin x$ or $\pm \cos x$, so $|f^{(N+1)}(z)| \leq 1$. The factor $(x - 0)^{N+1}$ is a bit more difficult, since $x - 0$ could be quite large. Let’s pick $a = 0$ and $|x| \leq \pi/2$, if we can compute $\sin x$ for $x \in [-\pi/2, \pi/2]$, we can of course compute $\sin x$ for all $x$.

We need to pick $N$ so that

$$\frac{|f^{(N+1)}(z)|}{(N+1)!} |x|^{N+1} < 0.005.$$

Since we have limited $x$ to $[-\pi/2, \pi/2]$,

$$\left|\frac{x^{N+1}}{N+1!}\right| < \frac{2^{N+1}}{(N+1)!}.$$

The quantity on the right decreases with increasing $N$, so all we need to do is find an $N$ so that

$$\frac{x^{N+1}}{(N+1)!} < 0.005.$$

A little trial and error shows that $N = 8$ works, and in fact $2^9/9! < 0.005$, so

$$\sin x = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{f^{(n)}(0)}{n!} x^n \pm 0.005.$$

However, we have to keep in mind that $\sin x = 0$ for $x = \pi$, so we need to consider $x$ in a smaller interval, even though the series for $\sin x$ is valid for all $x$. As $x$ gets larger, the approximation heads to negative infinity very quickly, since it is essentially acting like $-x^2$.

13.11 Taylor’s Theorem

and by the Squeeze Theorem (13.1.3)

$$\lim_{N \to \infty} \left|\frac{x^{N+1}}{(N+1)!}\right| = 0$$

as desired. Essentially the same argument works for $\cos x$ and $e^x$; unfortunately, it is more difficult to show that most functions are equal to their Maclaurin series.

EXAMPLE 13.11.3 Find a polynomial approximation for $e^x$ near $x = 2$ accurate to $\pm 0.005$.

From Taylor’s theorem:

$$e^x = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{e^x}{n!} x^n \pm 0.005,$$

since $f^{(n)}(x) = e^x$ for all $n$. We are interested in $x$ near 2, and we need to keep $|(x - 2)^{N+1}|$ in check, so we may as well specify that $|x - 2| \leq 1$, so $x \in [1, 3]$. Also

$$\left|\frac{e^x}{(N+1)!}\right| \leq \frac{e^3}{(N+1)!} \leq 0.005,$$

so we need to find an $N$ that makes $e^3/(N+1)! \leq 0.005$. This time $N = 5$ makes $e^3/(N+1)! < 0.005$, so the approximating polynomial is

$$e^x = e^3 + e^3(x - 2) + \frac{e^3}{2!}(x - 2)^2 + \frac{e^3}{3!}(x - 2)^3 + \frac{e^3}{4!}(x - 2)^4 \pm 0.005.$$

This presents an additional problem for approximation, since we also need to approximate $e^x$, and any approximation we use will increase the error, but we will not pursue this complication.

Note well that in these examples we found polynomials of a certain accuracy only on a small interval, even though the series for $\sin x$ and $e^x$ converge for all $x$; this is typical. To get the same accuracy on a larger interval would require more terms.

Exercises 13.11

1. Find a polynomial approximation for $\cos x$ on $[0, \pi]$, accurate to $\pm 10^{-3}$.

2. How many terms of the series for $\ln x$ centered at 1 are required so that the guaranteed error (at $1/2, 1/3$) is at most $10^{-3}$? What if the interval is instead $[1, 3/2]$?

3. Find the first three nonzero terms in the Taylor series for $\tan x$ on $[-\pi/4, \pi/4]$, and compute the guaranteed error term as given by Taylor’s theorem. (You may want to use Sage or a similar aid.)

4. Show that $\cos x$ is equal to its Taylor series for all $x$ by showing that the limit of the error term is zero as $N$ approaches infinity.

5. Show that $e^x$ is equal to its Taylor series for all $x$ by showing that the limit of the error term is zero as $N$ approaches infinity.

13.12 Additional exercises

These problems require the techniques of this chapter, and are in no particular order. Some problems may be done in more than one way.

Determine whether the series converges.

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

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

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

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

5. $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^5}$

6. $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^6}$

7. $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^7}$

8. $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^8}$

9. $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^9}$

10. $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^{10}}$

11. $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^{11}}$

12. $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^{12}}$

13. $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^{13}}$

14. $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^{14}}$
15. \( \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{2^n n!}{n} \)

16. \( 1 + \frac{2^n}{2} \left( \frac{n!}{(2 \cdot 4 \cdot 6 \cdot \cdots)^2} \right) \left( \frac{n!}{(2 \cdot 4 \cdot 6 \cdot \cdots)^2} \right) \)

17. \( \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \sin \left( \frac{1}{n} \right) \)

Find the interval and radius of convergence; you need not check the endpoints of the intervals.

18. \( \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{n^2}{n!} \)

19. \( \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^2} \)

20. \( \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} x^n \)

21. \( x + \frac{1}{2} x^2 + \frac{1}{3} x^3 - \frac{1}{3} x^4 + \frac{1}{5} x^5 + \cdots \)

22. \( \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{x^n}{n!} \)

23. \( \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^n}{n!} \)

24. \( \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(x-1)^n}{n!} \)

Find a series for each function, using the formula for Maclaurin series and algebraic manipulation as appropriate.

25. \( 2^n \)

26. \( \ln(1 + x) \)

27. \( \ln \left( \frac{1}{1-x} \right) \)

28. \( \sqrt{1 + x} \)

29. \( \frac{1}{1-x} \)

30. \( \arctan(x) \)

31. Use the answer to the previous problem to discover a series for a well-known mathematical constant.