

## 3.1 Numerical Series

### 3.1.1 Definitions and Basic Concepts

**Definition 3.1.1** (Numerical Series) —

Let  $(u_n)$  be a sequence of real numbers. The **numerical series**  $\sum u_n$  is defined through its partial sums:

$$S_n = u_0 + u_1 + u_2 + \cdots + u_n = \sum_{k=0}^n u_k$$

We say the series **converges** if  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} S_n = S$  exists and is finite, and write:

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} u_n = S$$

Otherwise, the series **diverges**.

**Example 3.1.1** (Telescoping Series) —

Consider  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{(2n-1)(2n+1)}$ . Using partial fractions:

$$\frac{1}{(2n-1)(2n+1)} = \frac{1}{2} \left( \frac{1}{2n-1} - \frac{1}{2n+1} \right)$$

The partial sum telescopes:

$$\begin{aligned} S_n &= \frac{1}{2} \left[ \left( 1 - \frac{1}{3} \right) + \left( \frac{1}{3} - \frac{1}{5} \right) + \cdots + \left( \frac{1}{2n-1} - \frac{1}{2n+1} \right) \right] \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \left( 1 - \frac{1}{2n+1} \right) \end{aligned}$$

Thus  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} S_n = \frac{1}{2}$ , so the series converges to  $\frac{1}{2}$ .

**Example 3.1.2** (Divergent Series) —

The series  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (-1)^n$  has partial sums:

$$S_n = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } n \text{ is even} \\ 0 & \text{if } n \text{ is odd} \end{cases}$$

Since the limit doesn't exist, the series diverges.

### 3.1.2 Geometric Series

**Definition 3.1.2** (Geometric Series) —

A series of the form  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} aq^n$  where  $a, q \in \mathbb{R}$ .

- ▶ Partial sum:  $S_n = a \frac{1-q^{n+1}}{1-q}$  for  $q \neq 1$
- ▶ The series converges if and only if  $|q| < 1$ , with sum  $\frac{a}{1-q}$
- ▶ Diverges if  $|q| \geq 1$

**Example 3.1.3** —

$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{2^n}$  converges to 2 since  $a = 1$ ,  $q = \frac{1}{2}$ , and  $\frac{1}{1-1/2} = 2$ .

### 3.1.3 Series with Positive Terms

**Definition 3.1.3** —

A series  $\sum u_n$  has **positive terms** if  $u_n \geq 0$  for all  $n$ .

For positive term series, the sequence of partial sums ( $S_n$ ) is increasing. Therefore:

**Theorem 3.1.1** A positive term series converges if and only if its partial sums are bounded above.

### 3.1.4 Riemann Series and Comparison Tests

**Definition 3.1.4** (Riemann Series) —

The series  $\sum \frac{1}{n^\alpha}$  where  $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}$ .

**Theorem 3.1.2** The Riemann series  $\sum \frac{1}{n^\alpha}$  converges if and only if  $\alpha > 1$ .

**Example 3.1.4** ▶  $\sum \frac{1}{n^2}$  converges ( $\alpha = 2 > 1$ )

- ▶  $\sum \frac{1}{n}$  diverges ( $\alpha = 1 \leq 1$ )
- ▶  $\sum \frac{1}{\sqrt{n}}$  diverges ( $\alpha = 0.5 < 1$ )

**Theorem 3.1.3** (Comparison Test) —

Let  $0 \leq u_n \leq v_n$  for all sufficiently large  $n$ .

- ▶ If  $\sum v_n$  converges, then  $\sum u_n$  converges
- ▶ If  $\sum u_n$  diverges, then  $\sum v_n$  diverges

**Example 3.1.5** —

- ▶  $\sum \frac{|\cos(n)|^n}{n^2} \leq \sum \frac{1}{n^2}$  converges
- ▶  $\sum \sin\left(\frac{\pi}{2^n}\right) \leq \sum \frac{\pi}{2^n}$  converges

**3.1.5 Equivalent Sequences and Limit Comparison****Definition 3.1.5** (Equivalent Sequences) —

Two sequences  $(u_n)$  and  $(v_n)$  (with  $v_n \neq 0$ ) are *equivalent* if:

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{u_n}{v_n} = 1$$

We write  $u_n \sim v_n$ .

**Theorem 3.1.4** —

If  $u_n \sim v_n$  and both sequences are positive, then  $\sum u_n$  and  $\sum v_n$  have the same nature (both converge or both diverge).

**Example 3.1.6** —

Since  $\frac{1}{n(n+1)} \sim \frac{1}{n^2}$  and  $\sum \frac{1}{n^2}$  converges, then  $\sum \frac{1}{n(n+1)}$  also converges.

**3.1.6 Cauchy Criterion****Theorem 3.1.5** (Cauchy Criterion for Series) —

The series  $\sum u_n$  converges if and only if:

$$\forall \varepsilon > 0, \exists N \in \mathbb{N} \text{ such that } \forall m > n \geq N, \left| \sum_{k=n+1}^m u_k \right| < \varepsilon$$

**Example 3.1.7** (Harmonic Series) —

The harmonic series  $\sum \frac{1}{n}$  diverges even though  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{n} = 0$ . For  $m = 2n$ :

$$S_{2n} - S_n = \frac{1}{n+1} + \frac{1}{n+2} + \cdots + \frac{1}{2n} > n \cdot \frac{1}{2n} = \frac{1}{2}$$

So the Cauchy criterion is violated.

**3.1.7 Ratio Test (d'Alembert's Rule)**

**Theorem 3.1.6 (Ratio Test)** —

Let  $\sum u_n$  be a series with positive terms and suppose  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{u_{n+1}}{u_n} = L$ .

- ▶ If  $L < 1$ , the series converges
- ▶ If  $L > 1$ , the series diverges
- ▶ If  $L = 1$ , the test is inconclusive

**Example 3.1.8** —

- ▶  $\sum \frac{x^n}{n!}$ :  $\frac{u_{n+1}}{u_n} = \frac{x}{n+1} \rightarrow 0$ , so converges for all  $x$
- ▶  $\sum \frac{2^n}{n!}$ :  $\frac{u_{n+1}}{u_n} = \frac{2}{n+1} \rightarrow 0$ , so converges
- ▶  $\sum \frac{n^2}{(2n)!}$ :  $\frac{u_{n+1}}{u_n} = \frac{(n+1)^2}{(2n+2)(2n+1)n^2} \rightarrow 0$ , so converges

**3.1.8 Alternating Series Test****Definition 3.1.6 (Alternating Series)** —

A series of the form  $\sum (-1)^n a_n$  or  $\sum (-1)^{n+1} a_n$  where  $a_n > 0$ .

**Theorem 3.1.7 (Leibniz Test for Alternating Series)** —

If  $(a_n)$  is a decreasing sequence with  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = 0$ , then the alternating series  $\sum (-1)^n a_n$  converges.

**Example 3.1.9** —

- ▶  $\sum \frac{(-1)^n}{n}$  converges (alternating harmonic series)
- ▶  $\sum \frac{(-1)^n n^2}{1+n}$  diverges since  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{n^2}{1+n} \neq 0$

**3.1.9 Absolute and Conditional Convergence****Definition 3.1.7** —

A series  $\sum u_n$  is:

- ▶ **Absolutely convergent** if  $\sum |u_n|$  converges
- ▶ **Conditionally convergent** if  $\sum u_n$  converges but  $\sum |u_n|$  diverges

**Theorem 3.1.8** Absolute convergence implies convergence.

**Example 3.1.10** —

- ▶  $\sum \frac{\cos(n\pi)}{n^2} = \sum \frac{(-1)^n}{n^2}$  converges absolutely
- ▶  $\sum \frac{\cos(n\pi)}{n} = \sum \frac{(-1)^n}{n}$  converges conditionally

## 3.2 Function Series

### 3.2.1 Pointwise and Uniform Convergence

**Definition 3.2.1** (Pointwise Convergence) —

A sequence of functions  $(f_n)$  converges **pointwise** to  $f$  on  $A$  if:

$$\forall x \in A, \forall \varepsilon > 0, \exists N \in \mathbb{N} \text{ such that } \forall n \geq N, |f_n(x) - f(x)| < \varepsilon$$

**Definition 3.2.2** (Uniform Convergence) —

A sequence of functions  $(f_n)$  converges **uniformly** to  $f$  on  $A$  if:

$$\forall \varepsilon > 0, \exists N \in \mathbb{N} \text{ such that } \forall x \in A, \forall n \geq N, |f_n(x) - f(x)| < \varepsilon$$

**Remark 3.2.1** —

Uniform convergence means the convergence rate is the same for all  $x \in A$ , while pointwise convergence allows different rates at different points.

**Example 3.2.1** —

Let  $f_n(x) = x^n$  on  $[0, 1]$ .

- ▶ Pointwise limit:  $f(x) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } 0 \leq x < 1 \\ 1 & \text{if } x = 1 \end{cases}$
- ▶ Convergence is not uniform since all  $f_n$  are continuous but  $f$  is discontinuous

### 3.2.2 Properties Preserved by Uniform Convergence

**Theorem 3.2.1** (Continuity) —

If  $f_n$  are continuous on  $A$  and  $f_n \rightarrow f$  uniformly on  $A$ , then  $f$  is continuous on  $A$ .

**Theorem 3.2.2** (Integration) —

If  $f_n$  are integrable on  $[a, b]$  and  $f_n \rightarrow f$  uniformly on  $[a, b]$ , then:

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \int_a^b f_n(x) dx = \int_a^b f(x) dx$$

**Theorem 3.2.3 (Differentiation)** —

If  $f_n$  are differentiable on  $I$ ,  $f_n \rightarrow f$  pointwise on  $I$ , and  $f'_n \rightarrow g$  uniformly on  $I$ , then  $f$  is differentiable and  $f' = g$ .

**Example 3.2.2 (Failure of Term-by-Term Differentiation)** —

Let  $f_n(x) = \frac{\sin(nx)}{n}$  on  $\mathbb{R}$ .

- ▶  $f_n \rightarrow 0$  uniformly since  $|f_n(x)| \leq \frac{1}{n}$
- ▶  $f'_n(x) = \cos(nx)$  does not converge
- ▶ So we cannot differentiate term-by-term

### 3.2.3 Series of Functions

**Definition 3.2.3 (Function Series)** —

A *series of functions* is an expression  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} f_n(x)$ .

**Definition 3.2.4 (Normal Convergence)** —

A function series  $\sum f_n(x)$  converges **normally** on  $A$  if there exists a convergent numerical series  $\sum M_n$  such that:

$$\forall x \in A, |f_n(x)| \leq M_n$$

**Theorem 3.2.4** —

Normal convergence implies uniform convergence.

**Example 3.2.3** —

$\sum \frac{\sin(nx)}{n^2}$  converges normally on  $\mathbb{R}$  since:

$$\left| \frac{\sin(nx)}{n^2} \right| \leq \frac{1}{n^2} \quad \text{and} \quad \sum \frac{1}{n^2} \text{ converges}$$

### 3.2.4 Power Series

**Definition 3.2.5 (Power Series)** —

A series of the form  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n(z - z_0)^n$  where  $a_n, z_0 \in \mathbb{C}$ .

**Theorem 3.2.5** (Radius of Convergence) —

For every power series  $\sum a_n z^n$ , there exists  $R \in [0, \infty]$  (the radius of convergence) such that:

- ▶ The series converges absolutely for  $|z| < R$
- ▶ The series diverges for  $|z| > R$

**Theorem 3.2.6** (Operations on Power Series) —

Within their common interval of convergence:

- ▶ Sum:

$$\sum (a_n + b_n)z^n = \sum a_n z^n + \sum b_n z^n$$

- ▶ Product:

$$\left(\sum a_n z^n\right)\left(\sum b_n z^n\right) = \sum c_n z^n$$

where  $c_n = \sum_{k=0}^n a_k b_{n-k}$

- ▶ Differentiation:

$$\frac{d}{dz}\left(\sum a_n z^n\right) = \sum n a_n z^{n-1}$$

- ▶ Integration:

$$\int_0^z \left(\sum a_n t^n\right) dt = \sum \frac{a_n}{n+1} z^{n+1}$$

**Example 3.2.4** (Common Power Series) —

- ▶ Exponential:

$$e^z = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{z^n}{n!},$$

$R = \infty$

- ▶ Sine:

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

$R = \infty$

- ▶ Cosine:

$$\cos z = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (-1)^n \frac{z^{2n}}{(2n)!},$$

$R = \infty$

- ▶ Geometric:

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

$R = 1$

► Logarithm:

$$\ln(1+z) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (-1)^{n+1} \frac{z^n}{n},$$

$$R = 1$$

### 3.2.5 Fourier Series

**Definition 3.2.6** (Fourier Series) —

A series of the form:

$$a_0 + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} [a_n \cos(n\omega t) + b_n \sin(n\omega t)]$$

where  $\omega = \frac{2\pi}{T}$  for some period  $T$ .

**Theorem 3.2.7** (Fourier Coefficients) —

If  $f$  is a  $T$ -periodic function, its Fourier coefficients are:

$$a_0 = \frac{1}{T} \int_0^T f(t) dt$$

$$a_n = \frac{2}{T} \int_0^T f(t) \cos(n\omega t) dt$$

$$b_n = \frac{2}{T} \int_0^T f(t) \sin(n\omega t) dt$$

**Theorem 3.2.8** (Dirichlet Conditions) —

If  $f$  is piecewise smooth and periodic, then its Fourier series converges to:

$$\frac{1}{2}[f(t^+) + f(t^-)]$$

At points of continuity, it converges to  $f(t)$ .

**Theorem 3.2.9** (Parseval's Identity) —

For a square-integrable periodic function:

$$\frac{1}{T} \int_0^T |f(t)|^2 dt = a_0^2 + \frac{1}{2} \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (a_n^2 + b_n^2)$$

**Example 3.2.5** (Square Wave) —



For the square wave  $f(t) = \begin{cases} 1 & 0 \leq t < \pi \\ -1 & \pi \leq t < 2\pi \end{cases}$  with period  $2\pi$ :

$$a_0 = 0$$

$$a_n = 0 \quad (\text{since } f \text{ is odd})$$

$$b_n = \begin{cases} \frac{4}{n\pi} & \text{if } n \text{ is odd} \\ 0 & \text{if } n \text{ is even} \end{cases}$$

So the Fourier series is:  $\frac{4}{\pi} \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{\sin((2k+1)t)}{2k+1}$