

# MATH 6101

## Fall 2008

Series and a Famous Unsolved Problem




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### Problems

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{(2n-1)(2n+1)} = \frac{1}{1 \cdot 3} + \frac{1}{3 \cdot 5} + \frac{1}{5 \cdot 7} + \frac{1}{7 \cdot 9} + \dots$$

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

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{(2n-1)(2n+1)} = \frac{1}{1 \cdot 3} + \frac{1}{3 \cdot 5} + \frac{1}{5 \cdot 7} + \frac{1}{7 \cdot 9} + \dots$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} \left[ \left( \frac{1}{1} - \frac{1}{3} \right) + \left( \frac{1}{3} - \frac{1}{5} \right) + \left( \frac{1}{5} - \frac{1}{7} \right) + \dots \right]$$

$$= \frac{1}{2}$$

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### Problems

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

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n(n+4)} = \frac{1}{1 \cdot 5} + \frac{1}{2 \cdot 6} + \frac{1}{3 \cdot 7} + \frac{1}{4 \cdot 8} + \frac{1}{5 \cdot 9} + \dots$$

$$= \frac{1}{4} \left[ \left( 1 - \frac{1}{5} \right) + \left( \frac{1}{2} - \frac{1}{6} \right) + \left( \frac{1}{3} - \frac{1}{7} \right) + \left( \frac{1}{4} - \frac{1}{8} \right) + \left( \frac{1}{5} - \frac{1}{9} \right) + \dots \right]$$

$$= \frac{1}{4} \left[ 1 + \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{3} + \frac{1}{4} \right] = \frac{25}{48}$$

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### Problems

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{n}{(n+1)!} \quad a_n = \frac{n}{(n+1)!}, \quad a_{n+1} = \frac{n+1}{(n+2)!}$$

$$q = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{a_{n+1}}{a_n} \right| = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{n+1}{(n+2)!} \cdot \frac{(n+1)!}{n} = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{n+1}{n(n+2)} = 0$$

so, this converges by the Ratio Test. In fact, you can (and should show):

$$s_n = \sum_{k=1}^n a_k = \frac{(n+1)! - 1}{(n+1)!} \Rightarrow \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{n}{(n+1)!} = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} s_n = 1$$

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### Problems

$$2 + \frac{3}{2^3} + \frac{4}{3^3} + \frac{5}{4^3} + \cdots + \frac{n+1}{n^3} + \cdots$$

This converges by the Limit Comparison Test with the series

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

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### Problems

$$1 + \frac{1}{2^2} + \frac{1}{3^3} + \frac{1}{4^4} + \cdots = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^n}$$

This converges by the Root Test.

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sqrt[n]{a_n} = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{n} = 0 < 1$$

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### Problems

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{n^n}{n!} \quad a_n = \frac{n^n}{n!}, \quad a_{n+1} = \frac{(n+1)^{n+1}}{(n+1)!}$$

$$q = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{a_{n+1}}{a_n} \right| = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{(n+1)^{n+1}}{(n+1)!} \cdot \frac{n!}{n^n} = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{(n+1)^{n+1}}{(n+1)n^n}$$

$$= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{(n+1)^n}{n^n} = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left( \frac{n+1}{n} \right)^n = e > 1$$

This diverges by the Ratio Test. Therefore,  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{n!}{n^n}$   
Must converge by the Ratio Test since its ratio  
goes to  $1/e$ .

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### Problems

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

This converges by the Alternating Series Test.

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### Problems

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(2n!)}{n^4}$$

This diverges by the  $n$ th Term Test since

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{(2n!)}{n^4} \neq 0.$$

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## Problems

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

This diverges by the  $n$ th Term Test since

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left( \frac{n}{n+1} \right)^n = \frac{1}{e} \neq 0.$$

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## Problems

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} nr^n, \quad |r| < 1$$

$$\begin{aligned} q &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{a_{n+1}}{a_n} \right| = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{(n+1)r^{n+1}}{nr^n} \right| = |r| \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{n+1}{n} \\ &= |r| < 1 \end{aligned}$$

This converges by the Ratio Test.

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## Problems

Show  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} nr^n = \frac{r}{(1-r)^2}$

$$\frac{1}{1-r} = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} r^n = 1 + r + r^2 + r^3 + \dots$$

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

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{1}{(1-r)^2} &= 1 \cdot 1 + (1 \cdot r + r \cdot 1) + (1 \cdot r^2 + r \cdot r + r^2 \cdot 1) + \dots \\ &= 1 + 2r + 3r^2 + 4r^3 + \dots \end{aligned}$$

$$\frac{r}{(1-r)^2} = r + 2r^2 + 3r^3 + 4r^4 + \dots$$

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## Problems

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

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{n}{2^n} = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} n \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^n = \frac{1/2}{(1-1/2)^2} = 2$$

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## Prime Numbers

**Statement:**

There are an infinite number of prime numbers.

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## Prime Numbers

**Theorem:**  $\sum 1/p$  diverges.

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## Probability

**Proposition:**

If two positive integers are chosen independently and randomly, then the probability that they are relatively prime is  $6/\pi^2$ .

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## Riemann Zeta Function

In 1859 Reimann defined a differentiable function of a complex variable  $\zeta(s)$  by

$$\zeta(s) = 1 + \frac{1}{2^s} + \frac{1}{3^s} + \frac{1}{4^s} + \frac{1}{5^s} + \cdots + \frac{1}{n^s} + \cdots = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^s}$$

Riemann knew the value of this function at certain values of  $s$ .

$\zeta(0)$  does not exist. (Why?)

$\zeta(1)$  does not exist. (Why?)

$\zeta(2) = \pi^2/6$

$\zeta(4) = \pi^4/90$

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## Riemann Zeta Function

**Question:** Where is  $\zeta(s) = 0$ ?

It can be shown that when it has been extended to all complex numbers, except  $\text{Re}(s) = 1$ , then it is trivially seen to be zero at the negative even integers.

Riemann proved that  $\zeta(s) = 0$  when  $s$  falls inside the infinite strip bounded by the lines  $x = 0$  and  $x = 1$ .

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## Prime Number Theorem

### **Theorem:**

For every real number  $x$  let  $\pi(x)$  be the number of prime numbers less than  $x$  and let

$$Li(x) = \int_2^x \frac{dt}{\ln(t)}$$

Then

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\pi(x)}{Li(x)} = 1$$

This was proven by Hadamard and Poussin in 1896.

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## Riemann Zeta Hypothesis

### **Conjecture: (Unproven)**

If  $s$  is a complex number so that  $\zeta(s) = 0$  then  $\text{Re}(s) = 1/2$ .

What we do know:

- The line  $x = 1/2$  contains an infinite number of zeroes of  $\zeta(s)$ .
- The first 70,000,000 or so lie on that line.

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## Power Series

### **Definition:**

If  $\{a_n\}$  is a sequence, we define the series  $\sum a_n x^n$  as a *power series* in  $x$ . For a given sequence a power series is a function  $f(x)$  whose domain consists of those values of  $x$  for which the series converges.

Power series behavior is typical to that of the geometric series.

$\sum x^n$  converges for  $|x| < 1$ , so the domain of this function:  $f(x) = \sum x^n$  is the open interval  $(-1, 1)$ .

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## Convergence of Power Series

### **Proposition:**

Suppose that the power series  $\sum a_n x^n$  converges for  $x = x'$  and diverges for  $x = x''$ , then  $\sum a_n x^n$

1. converges absolutely for each  $x$  satisfying  $|x| < |x'|$ ;
2. diverges for each  $x$  satisfying  $|x| > |x''|$

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## Convergence of Power Series

### **Proposition:**

Let  $\sum a_n x^n$  be a power series, then one of the following must hold.

1.  $\sum a_n x^n$  converges absolutely for all  $x$ ;
2.  $\sum a_n x^n$  converges only at  $x = 0$ ;
3. there is a number  $\rho > 0$  so that  $\sum a_n x^n$  converges absolutely for  $|x| < \rho$  and diverges for  $|x| > \rho$ .

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## Convergence of Power Series

$\rho$  is the *radius of convergence* for the power series.  $S = [-\rho, \rho]$ ,  $(-\rho, \rho]$ ,  $[-\rho, \rho)$ , or  $(-\rho, \rho)$  and all can occur. This is called the *interval of convergence*. In Case 1,  $\rho = \infty$  and  $S = \mathbf{R}$ ; Case 2,  $\rho = 0$  and  $S = \{0\}$ .

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## Ratio Test for Power Series

### **Proposition:**

Let  $\sum a_n x^n$  be a power series with radius of convergence  $\rho$ . If  $a_n \neq 0$  for all  $n$  and

$$\{a_{n+1}/a_n\} \rightarrow q$$

then

1.  $\rho = \infty$  if  $q = 0$ ;
2.  $\rho = 0$  if  $q = \infty$ ;
3.  $\rho = 1/|q|$  otherwise.

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## Proof

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## Problem 1

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{x^n}{n(n+4)} \quad a_n = \frac{1}{n(n+4)}, \quad a_{n+1} = \frac{1}{(n+1)(n+5)}$$

$$\frac{a_{n+1}}{a_n} = \frac{1}{(n+1)(n+5)} \cdot \frac{n(n+4)}{1} = \frac{n(n+4)}{(n+1)(n+5)}$$

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{a_{n+1}}{a_n} = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{n(n+4)}{(n+1)(n+5)} = 1 = q$$

$$\rho = \frac{1}{q} = 1$$

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### Problem 2

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{n^n}{n!} x^n \quad a_n = \frac{n^n}{n!}, \quad a_{n+1} = \frac{(n+1)^{n+1}}{(n+1)!}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{a_{n+1}}{a_n} &= \frac{(n+1)^{n+1}}{(n+1)!} \cdot \frac{n!}{n^n} = \frac{n!}{(n+1)!} \cdot \frac{(n+1)^{n+1}}{n^n} = \frac{1}{n+1} \cdot \frac{(n+1)^{n+1}}{n^n} \\ &= \frac{(n+1)^n}{n^n} = \left(\frac{n+1}{n}\right)^n = \left(1 + \frac{1}{n}\right)^n \end{aligned}$$

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{a_{n+1}}{a_n} = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left(1 + \frac{1}{n}\right)^n = e = q$$

$$\rho = \frac{1}{e}$$

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### Trigonometric Series

Definition:

Let  $\{a_n\}$  and  $\{b_n\}$  be sequences, we say that  $a_n = O(b_n)$  if

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{a_n}{b_n} \text{ exists.}$$

$$\sqrt[3]{n^3 + n + 1} = O(n)$$

$$\frac{3n + 5}{4n^4 - 5n^2 + 6} = O(n^{-3})$$

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### Trigonometric Series

**Proposition:**

Let  $\{a_n\}$  be a sequence so that  $a_n = O(n^p)$  for some  $p < -1$ . Then the series  $\sum a_n \cos(nx)$  and  $\sum a_n \sin(nx)$  both converge absolutely for all  $x$ .

**Proof:**

$a_n = O(n^p) \implies \{a_n/n^p\}$  converges  $\implies \{a_n/n^p\}$  bounded, so  $|a_n/n^p| \leq M$  for all  $n \implies$

$|a_n \cos(nx)| \leq |a_n| \leq Mn^p \implies \sum a_n \cos(nx)$  converges absolutely.

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