

# Numerical series

## 1.1. Definitions and generalities

**Definition 1.** Let  $(u_n)_{n \geq 0}$  be a real sequence.

The expression  $u_0 + u_1 + \cdots + u_n + \cdots = \sum_{n \geq 0} u_n$  is called a numerical series with general term  $u_n$ , and we note  $\sum u_n$  or  $\sum_n u_n$ .

The sequence  $(S_n)_{n \geq 0}$  where  $S_n = \sum_{k=0}^n u_k = u_0 + u_1 + \cdots + u_n$ , is called the sequence of partial sums of the series  $\sum u_n$ .

**Definition 2.** On dit que la série  $\sum u_n$  **converge** (resp. **diverge**), si la suite de ses sommes partielles  $(S_n)$  converge (resp. diverge). Si la série  $\sum u_n$  converge, la limite de  $(S_n)$  notée  $\sum_{k=0}^{+\infty} u_k = S$  est appelée la somme de la série  $\sum u_n$ .

### Example 1.

1. The geometric series  $\sum q^n$  is convergent if and only if  $|q| < 1$ .

Indeed: if  $q = 1$ , then  $S_n = n + 1 \xrightarrow[n \rightarrow +\infty]{} +\infty$ .

If  $q \neq 1$ , then  $S_n = \frac{1 - q^{n+1}}{1 - q}$  which has a finite limit if and only if  $|q| < 1$ .

2. If the series  $\sum_{n \geq 0} u_n$  where  $u_n = a_n - a_{n+1}$  and the numerical sequence  $(a_n)_n$  converges

to  $l$ , then the series  $\sum u_n$  converges to  $a_0 - l$ .

Indeed,

$$S_n = \sum_{k=0}^n u_k = \sum_{k=0}^n (a_k - a_{k+1}) = a_0 - a_{n+1},$$

hence  $\lim_{n \rightarrow +\infty} S_n = a_0 - l$ . So the series  $\sum_{n \geq 0} u_n$  is convergent and its sum is  $S = a_0 - l$ . For example

the series  $\sum_{n \geq 1} \frac{1}{n(n+1)}$  is convergent and its sum  $S = 1 - \lim_{n \rightarrow +\infty} \frac{1}{n+1} + 1 = 1$ .

### 1.1.1. Series with complex terms

**Definition 3.** We call complex series  $\sum_n u_n$ , any series whose general term is written in the form  $u_n = a_n + i b_n$  where  $a_n$  and  $b_n$  are real.

The partial sum  $S_n$  of the first  $n$  terms is written

$$S_n = A_n + i B_n, \text{ where } \begin{cases} A_n = a_0 + a_1 + \dots + a_n \\ B_n = b_0 + b_1 + \dots + b_n. \end{cases}$$

The complex series  $\sum_n u_n$  is said to be convergent if, and only if, the series with general terms  $a_n$  and  $b_n$ , the real and imaginary parts of  $u_n$ , respectively, are separately convergent.

We have

$$\left( \lim_{n \rightarrow +\infty} S_n = A + iB \right) \Leftrightarrow \begin{cases} \lim_{n \rightarrow +\infty} A_n = A \\ \lim_{n \rightarrow +\infty} B_n = B. \end{cases}$$

The study of a series with complex terms  $\sum_n u_n = \sum_n (a_n + i b_n)$  can therefore be reduced to that of the two series with real terms  $\sum_n a_n$  and  $\sum_n b_n$ . Thus

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \sum_n a_n \text{ converges with sum } A \\ \sum_n b_n \text{ converges with sum } B \end{array} \right\} \Leftrightarrow \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \sum_n (a_n + i b_n) \text{ converges} \\ \text{with sum } A + iB. \end{array} \right.$$

**Remark 1.** According to the previous equivalence, we deduce that,

$$\sum_n a_n \text{ and } \sum_n b_n \text{ diverges} \Leftrightarrow \sum_n (a_n + i b_n) \text{ diverges.}$$

## 1.1.2. General convergence criteria

**Definition 4.** Definition[Cauchy criterion] A numerical series  $\sum u_n$  is said to be Cauchy if its sequence  $(S_n)_n$  of partial sums is Cauchy i.e.,

$$\forall \epsilon > 0, \exists N_\epsilon \in \mathbb{N} / \forall p, q \in \mathbb{N} : (p > q \geq N_\epsilon \Rightarrow |S_p - S_q| < \epsilon)$$

or again

$$\forall \epsilon > 0, \exists N_\epsilon \in \mathbb{N} / \forall p, m \in \mathbb{N} : (p \geq N_\epsilon \Rightarrow \left| \sum_{k=p+1}^{p+m} u_k \right| < \epsilon).$$

**Example 2** (Harmonic series). The general term of a harmonic series is  $u_n = \frac{1}{n}$ , ( $n \in \mathbb{N}^*$ ).

Since the sequence  $S_n = \sum_{k=1}^n \frac{1}{k}$  is not Cauchy (see Example 1.30), then the harmonic series

$\sum_{n \geq 1} \frac{1}{n}$  is not Cauchy. Thus it is divergent.

A necessary condition for a numerical series to be convergent is given by the following Proposition.

**Proposition 1.** Let the numerical series be  $\sum u_n$ , then,

$$\text{the series } \sum u_n \text{ converges} \Rightarrow \lim_{n \rightarrow +\infty} u_n = 0.$$

**Remark 2.**

- i) By the contrapositive, we deduce that if the general term of a series does not tend to 0, then the series is divergent.

ii) The reciprocal of the previous Proposition is false.

**Example 3.** The harmonic series diverges, but  $\lim_{n \rightarrow +\infty} u_n = \lim_{n \rightarrow +\infty} \frac{1}{n} = 0$ .

### 1.1.3. Operations on series

**Definition 5.** Let  $(u_n)_n$  and  $(v_n)_n$  be two numerical sequences, and let  $\lambda$  be a real number.

The series  $\sum (u_n + v_n)$  is called, *the series sum* of the two series  $\sum u_n$  and  $\sum v_n$ .

The series  $\sum \lambda u_n$  is called, *the series product* of the series  $\sum u_n$  by the scalar  $\lambda$ .

**Remark 3.** The set of numerical series is a vector space on  $\mathbb{R}$ .

**Proposition 2.** Let  $\sum u_n$  and  $\sum v_n$  be two numerical series, then,

1. if  $\sum u_n$  converges and  $\sum v_n$  converges, then the series  $\sum (u_n + v_n)$  converges,
2. if  $\sum u_n$  converges and  $\sum v_n$  diverges, then the series  $\sum (u_n + v_n)$  diverges,
3. if  $\sum u_n$  diverges and  $\sum v_n$  diverges, then we cannot conclude anything about the nature of the series  $\sum (u_n + v_n)$ .

**Definition 6.** The space of convergent series is a vector subspace of the space of numerical series, i.e., if the two series  $\sum u_n$  and  $\sum v_n$  are convergent, then the series  $\sum (\alpha u_n + \beta v_n)$  ( $\alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{R}$ ) converges and we have

$$\sum_{n=0}^{+\infty} (\alpha u_n + \beta v_n) = \alpha \sum_{n=0}^{+\infty} u_n + \beta \sum_{n=0}^{+\infty} v_n.$$

**Definition 7.** Let  $\sum u_n$  be a numerical series and let  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ , the series  $\sum_{k \geq n+1} u_k = R_n$  is called the remainder of order  $n$  of the series  $\sum u_n$ .

**Proposition 3.** The series  $\sum u_n$  converges, if and only if the sequence  $(R_n)_n$  converges to 0.

**Remark 4.**

- i) If the two series  $\sum u_n$  and  $\sum v_n$  differ only by a finite number of terms, then the two series are of the same nature. In case of convergence, they do not necessarily have the same sum.
- ii) The nature of a series  $\sum u_n$  does not change if a finite number of terms are added or subtracted.
- iii) The nature of a series does not depend on its first terms.

## 1.2. Series with positive terms

**Definition 8.** The series  $\sum u_n$  is said to have positive terms if for all  $n \geq 0 : u_n \geq 0$ .

Note that the sequence of partial sums  $(S_n)_n$  is increasing, so we have,

**Proposition 4.** A series with positive terms  $\sum u_n$  converges if and only if its sequence of partial sums  $(S_n)_n$  upper bounded (bounded above).

Furthermore, in this case, we have

$$\sum_{n=0}^{+\infty} u_n = \lim_{n \rightarrow +\infty} S_n = \sup_{n \in \mathbb{N}} S_n.$$

We also note  $\sum u_n < +\infty$  to say that the series  $\sum u_n$  converges.

**Remark 5.** Let  $\sum u_n$  be a series with positive real terms. If  $(S_n)_n$  is not upper bounded, then

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow +\infty} S_n = +\infty,$$

so the series  $\sum u_n$  diverges  $\Leftrightarrow \lim_{n \rightarrow +\infty} S_n = +\infty$ .

In this case we write  $\sum_{n=0}^{+\infty} u_n = +\infty$ .

## 1.2.1. Comparison criteria

### Direct comparison convergence

**Theorem 1.** Let  $\sum u_n$  and  $\sum v_n$  be two series with positive real terms such that,

$$\exists n_0 \in \mathbb{N}, \forall n \geq n_0 : u_n \leq v_n,$$

then,

- i) the series  $\sum v_n$  converges  $\Rightarrow$  the series  $\sum u_n$  converges,
- ii) the series  $\sum u_n$  diverges  $\Rightarrow$  the series  $\sum v_n$  diverges.

If the series  $\sum v_n$  converges, then the sequence of partial

**Example 4.** Consider the series  $\sum_{n \geq 0} \sin\left(\frac{1}{2^n}\right)$  and  $\sum_{n \geq 0} \frac{1}{2^n}$ . It is clear that the two series have positive terms, and moreover we have

$$\forall n \in \mathbb{N}, 0 < \sin\left(\frac{1}{2^n}\right) \leq \frac{1}{2^n}.$$

Since  $\sum_{n \geq 0} \frac{1}{2^n}$  is a convergent geometric series, then the series  $\sum_{n \geq 0} \sin\left(\frac{1}{2^n}\right)$  is convergent.

**Corollary 1.** Let  $\sum u_n$  and  $\sum v_n$  be two series with positive real terms such that  $u_n = O(v_n)$ , for  $n \rightarrow +\infty$ . Then

- i) the series  $\sum v_n$  converges  $\Rightarrow$  the series  $\sum u_n$  converges,

ii) the series  $\sum u_n$  diverges  $\Rightarrow$  the series  $\sum v_n$  diverges.

**Corollary 2.** Let  $\sum u_n$  and  $\sum v_n$  be two series with positive real terms such that  $\lim_{n \rightarrow +\infty} \frac{u_n}{v_n} = l$  ( $l \in \mathbb{R}_+$ ).

i) If  $l = 0$  (i.e.,  $u_n = o(v_n)$ ), then,

a) the series  $\sum v_n$  converges  $\Rightarrow$  the series  $\sum u_n$  converges,

b) the series  $\sum u_n$  diverges  $\Rightarrow$  the series  $\sum v_n$  diverges.

ii) If  $l \neq 0$ , then the two series  $\sum u_n$  and  $\sum v_n$  are of the same nature. In particular for  $l = 1$  the two series are said to be equivalent (i.e.,  $u_n \sim v_n$ ).

### Example 5.

1. Let  $\sum_{n \geq 0} u_n$  and  $\sum_{n \geq 0} v_n$  be series such that,

$$u_n = \ln\left(1 + \frac{1}{2^n}\right) \quad \text{and} \quad v_n = \frac{3}{2^n}.$$

We have  $\lim_{n \rightarrow +\infty} \frac{u_n}{v_n} = \frac{1}{3}$ , and as  $\sum v_n$  is convergent, so is  $\sum u_n$ .

2. Let  $\sum u_n$  and  $\sum v_n$  be series such that  $u_n = \frac{1}{n}$  and  $v_n = \arctan\left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{n(1 + \ln(n))}}\right)$ . We have

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow +\infty} \frac{u_n}{v_n} = \lim_{n \rightarrow +\infty} \frac{1}{n} \arctan\left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{n(1 + \ln(n))}}\right) = \lim_{n \rightarrow +\infty} \frac{1 + \ln(n)}{\sqrt{n}} = 0,$$

because,

$$\arctan\left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{n(1 + \ln(n))}}\right) \underset{+\infty}{\sim} \frac{1}{\sqrt{n(1 + \ln(n))}}.$$

Since the series  $\sum u_n$  is divergent, so it is the same for the series  $\sum v_n$ .

## Integral criterion

**Proposition 5.** Let  $f : [1, +\infty[ \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^+$  be a continuous and decreasing function. Then the series  $\sum f(n)$  converges  $\iff \int_1^{+\infty} f(t) dt$  converges (i.e.,  $\int_1^{+\infty} f(t) dt < +\infty$ ).

**Example 6** (Riemann series).

Let the series  $\sum_{n \geq 1} \frac{1}{n^\alpha} (\alpha > 0)$ .

Let us set  $f(t) = \frac{1}{t^\alpha}$ . It is easy to see that the function  $f$  is continuous and decreasing on  $[1, +\infty[$ , and we have

$$\int_1^{+\infty} f(t) dt = \int_1^{+\infty} \frac{1}{t^\alpha} dt = \begin{cases} +\infty & \text{if } \alpha = 1 \\ +\infty & \text{if } \alpha < 1 \\ \frac{1}{\alpha - 1} & \text{if } \alpha > 1, \end{cases}$$

hence the Riemann series  $\sum_{n \geq 1} \frac{1}{n^\alpha}$  converges if and only if  $\alpha > 1$ .

For  $\alpha = 1$ : the series  $\sum_{n \geq 1} \frac{1}{n}$  is called a harmonic series. Using the Cauchy criterion, we can show that the series  $\sum_{n \geq 1} \frac{1}{n}$  is divergent.

The Riemann series  $\sum \frac{1}{n^\alpha}$  is  $\begin{cases} \text{convergent if } \alpha > 1 \\ \text{divergent if } \alpha \leq 1 \end{cases}$

For  $\alpha \leq 0$ , the series diverges because  $\frac{1}{n^\alpha} \not\rightarrow 0$  when  $n \rightarrow +\infty$ .

### 1.2.2. Convergence by comparing with Riemann

**Proposition 6.** Let  $\sum u_n$  be a series with strictly positive terms.

i) If for  $\alpha > 1$ :  $\lim_{n \rightarrow +\infty} n^\alpha u_n = 0 \Rightarrow$  the series  $\sum u_n$  is convergent.



ii) If for  $\alpha \leq 1$  :  $\lim_{n \rightarrow +\infty} n^\alpha u_n = 0 \Rightarrow$  the series  $\sum u_n$  is divergent.

This follows immediately from the Corollary

Hence the series  $\sum_{n \geq 0} \frac{n+2}{3^n}$  is convergent because  $\sum_{n \geq 0} \frac{1}{2^n}$  is (  $\sum_{n \geq 0} \frac{1}{2^n}$  is a geometric series of reason  $\frac{1}{2} < 1$ ).

## D'Alembert's criterion

**Proposition 7** ( D'Alembert's rule). Let  $\sum u_n$  be a series with strictly positive terms.

1. If there exists  $n_0 \in \mathbb{N}$  such that,  $\forall n \geq n_0, \frac{u_{n+1}}{u_n} \geq 1$ , then  $\sum u_n$  diverges.
2. If there exists  $n_0 \in \mathbb{N}$  and  $0 < \lambda < 1$  such that,  $\forall n \geq n_0, \frac{u_{n+1}}{u_n} \leq \lambda$ , then  $\sum u_n$  converges.

**Corollary 3** ( Usual D'Alembert criterion). Let  $\sum u_n$  be a series with strictly positive terms, such that  $\lim_{n \rightarrow +\infty} \frac{u_{n+1}}{u_n} = \lambda$ .

1. If  $\lambda < 1$ , then the series  $\sum u_n$  converges.
2. If  $\lambda > 1$ , then the series  $\sum u_n$  diverges.
3. If  $\lambda = 1$ , we can say nothing about the nature of the series  $\sum u_n$ .

**Example 7.** Study the nature of the series  $\sum_{n \geq 1} \frac{n!}{n^n}$ . We have

$$\frac{u_{n+1}}{u_n} = \frac{(n+1)!}{n!} \cdot \frac{n^n}{(n+1)^{n+1}} = \left(\frac{n}{n+1}\right)^n = \frac{1}{\left(\frac{n+1}{n}\right)^n} = \frac{1}{\left(1 + \frac{1}{n}\right)^n}.$$

So,

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{u_{n+1}}{u_n} = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{\left(1 + \frac{1}{n}\right)^n} = e^{-1} < 1.$$

Thus, according to D'Alembert's Criterion, the series  $\sum \frac{n!}{n^n}$  converges.

## Cauchy's rule

**Proposition 8.** Let  $\sum u_n$  be a series with positive terms.

1. If there exists  $M \in \mathbb{R}, 0 < M < 1$  such that  $\sqrt[n]{u_n} \leq M$  for  $n$  large enough, then the series  $\sum u_n$  converges.
2. If  $\sqrt[n]{u_n} \geq 1$  for  $n$  large enough, then the series  $\sum u_n$  diverges.

**Corollary 4.** [Usual Cauchy rule]. Let  $\sum u_n$  be a series with positive terms, let's put,

$$\lambda = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sqrt[n]{u_n}.$$

- i) If  $\lambda < 1$ , then the series  $\sum u_n$  converges.
- ii) If  $\lambda > 1$ , then the series  $\sum u_n$  diverges.
- iii) If  $\lambda = 1$ , we can say nothing about the nature of the series  $\sum u_n$ .

**Example 8.** Let the series  $\sum u_n$  be of general term  $u_n = \left(a + \frac{1}{n^p}\right)^n$ , with  $a > 0$  and  $p > 0$ . It is clear that the series  $\sum u_n$  has positive terms and

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sqrt[n]{u_n} = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sqrt[n]{\left(a + \frac{1}{n^p}\right)^n} = a.$$

Then the series  $\sum u_n$  is convergent for  $a < 1$  and divergent for  $a > 1$ . If  $a = 1$ , we cannot conclude anything using Cauchy's rule. But we have

$$\begin{aligned} \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} u_n &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left(1 + \frac{1}{n^p}\right)^n \\ &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} e^{n \ln\left(1 + \frac{1}{n^p}\right)}. \\ &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} e^{n \frac{1}{n^p}} = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{si } p > 1 \\ e & \text{si } p = 1 \\ +\infty & \text{si } 0 < p < 1 \end{cases} \end{aligned}$$

So the general term does not tend to zero, thus the series is divergent.

A question now arises, can we have different limits by applying the two Criteria, of D'Alembert and that of Cauchy? The answer is given by the following Proposition.

**Proposition 9.** Let  $\sum u_n$  be a series with strictly positive terms.

1. if  $\lim_{n \rightarrow +\infty} \frac{u_{n+1}}{u_n} = l_1 \neq 0$  and  $\lim_{n \rightarrow +\infty} \sqrt[n]{u_n} = l_2 \neq 0$ , then  $l_1 = l_2$ .
2. If  $\lim_{n \rightarrow +\infty} \frac{u_n}{u_{n+1}} = l (l \in \mathbb{R}_+)$ , then  $\lim_{n \rightarrow +\infty} \sqrt[n]{u_n} = l$ .
3. If  $\lim_{n \rightarrow +\infty} \frac{u_{n+1}}{u_n} = +\infty$ , then  $\lim_{n \rightarrow +\infty} \sqrt[n]{u_n} = +\infty$ .

**Remark 6.** The converse of ii) is false. Indeed, it suffices to consider the series  $\sum_{n \geq 0} u_n$  where

$$u_n = \begin{cases} \left(\frac{2}{3}\right)^n & \text{if } n \text{ is even} \\ 2\left(\frac{2}{3}\right)^n & \text{if } n \text{ is odd} \end{cases}$$

We have,

$$\frac{u_{n+1}}{u_n} = \begin{cases} \frac{4}{3} & \text{if } n \text{ is even} \\ \frac{1}{3} & \text{if } n \text{ is odd} \end{cases},$$

then, the numerical sequence  $\left(\frac{u_{n+1}}{u_n}\right)_n$  does not admit a limit, so the D'Alembert Criterion does not apply.

However,  $\lim_{n \rightarrow +\infty} \sqrt[n]{u_n} = \frac{2}{3} < 1$ , so the Cauchy Criterion applies and the series  $\sum u_n$  converges. In particular, if  $\lim_{n \rightarrow +\infty} \frac{u_{n+1}}{u_n} = 1$ , there is no point in trying Cauchy's rule.

**Remark 7.** The Cauchy and D'Alembert Criteria are valid only if  $\lim_{n \rightarrow +\infty} \sqrt[n]{u_n}$  and  $\lim_{n \rightarrow +\infty} \frac{u_{n+1}}{u_n}$  exist. On the other hand, the quantity  $l = \lim_{n \rightarrow +\infty} \sqrt[n]{u_n} = \lim_{n \rightarrow +\infty} \sup \sqrt[n]{u_n}$  is always defined.

Then we have,

1. if  $l < 1$ , the series  $\sum u_n$  is convergent.
2. if  $l > 1$ , the series  $\sum u_n$  is divergent.
3. if  $l = 1$ , we cannot conclude anything about the nature of the series  $\sum u_n$ .

In the following, we give rules for exploring the case where  $\lim_{n \rightarrow +\infty} \frac{u_{n+1}}{u_n} = 1$ , in D'Alembert's Criterion.

### 1.2.3. Raabe and Duhamel criteria

**Proposition 10.** Let  $\sum u_n$  be a series with strictly positive terms.

1. If  $\left( n \left( \frac{u_n}{u_{n+1}} - 1 \right) \right) \geq \lambda > 1$  for  $n$  large enough, then the series  $\sum u_n$  is convergent.
2. If  $\left( n \left( \frac{u_n}{u_{n+1}} - 1 \right) \right) \leq \lambda < 1$  for  $n$  large enough, then the series  $\sum u_n$  is divergent.

**Corollary 5.** [Raabe criterion] Let  $\sum u_n$  be a series with strictly positive terms, such that

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow +\infty} n \left( \frac{u_n}{u_{n+1}} - 1 \right) = \mu.$$

- i) If  $\mu > 1$ , then the series  $\sum u_n$  is convergent.
- ii) If  $\mu < 1$ , then the series  $\sum u_n$  is divergent.
- iii) If  $\mu = 1$ , we cannot conclude anything about the nature of the series  $\sum u_n$ .

**Corollary 6.** [Usual Duhamel criterion] Let  $\sum u_n$  be a series with strictly positive terms, such that,

$$\frac{u_{n+1}}{u_n} = 1 - \frac{\mu}{n} + o\left(\frac{1}{n}\right), \quad \text{for } n \rightarrow +\infty.$$

- i) If  $\mu > 1$ , then the series  $\sum u_n$  converges.
- ii) If  $\mu < 1$ , then the series  $\sum u_n$  diverges.
- iii) If  $\mu = 1$ , we can conclude nothing for the nature of the series  $\sum u_n$ .

**Example 9.** Study the nature of the series  $\sum \frac{n! e^n}{n^{n+1}}$ . We have

$$\begin{aligned} \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{u_{n+1}}{u_n} &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} e \left( \frac{n}{n+1} \right)^{n+1} \\ &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} e \left( 1 - \frac{1}{n+1} \right)^{n+1} = e e^{-1} = 1. \end{aligned}$$

We apply the Duhamel Criterion, by the development, we have

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{u_{n+1}}{u_n} &= e \left( 1 - \frac{1}{n+1} \right)^{n+1} = e^{[(n+1)\ln(1-\frac{1}{n+1})]} \\ &= 1 - \frac{\frac{1}{2}}{n+1} + o\left(\frac{1}{n+1}\right) \\ &= 1 - \frac{\frac{1}{2}}{n} + o\left(\frac{1}{n}\right). \end{aligned}$$

In this case  $\mu = \frac{1}{2} < 1$ , so the series  $\sum \frac{n! e^n}{n^{n+1}}$  is divergent.

## Gaussian criteria

**Proposition 11.** [Gaussian criterion] Let  $\sum u_n$  be a series with strictly positive terms such that,

$$\exists (\alpha, \beta) \in \mathbb{R} \times ]1, +\infty[, \frac{u_{n+1}}{u_n} = 1 - \frac{\alpha}{n} + O\left(\frac{1}{n^\beta}\right).$$

Then,

$$\exists k \in \mathbb{R}_+^*, u_n \sim \frac{k}{n^\alpha},$$

and consequently the series  $\sum u_n$  converges if  $\alpha > 1$  and diverges if  $\alpha \leq 1$ .

**Example 10.** Study the nature of the series

$$\sum \left( \frac{\prod_{k=1}^n (2k-1)}{\prod_{k=1}^n 2k} \frac{1}{\sqrt{n}} \right)$$

For all  $n \in \mathbb{N}^*$  :

$$\frac{u_{n+1}}{u_n} = \frac{\prod_{k=1}^{n+1} (2k-1)}{\prod_{k=1}^{n+1} 2k} \frac{\sqrt{n}}{\sqrt{n+1}} = \frac{2n+1}{2n+2} \sqrt{\frac{n}{n+1}} \xrightarrow{n \rightarrow +\infty} 1,$$

but we can write

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{u_{n+1}}{u_n} &= \frac{1 + \frac{1}{2n}}{1 + \frac{1}{n}} \left(1 + \frac{1}{n}\right)^{-\frac{1}{2}} = \left(1 + \frac{1}{2n}\right) \left(1 + \frac{1}{n}\right)^{-1} \left(1 + \frac{1}{n}\right)^{-\frac{1}{2}} \\ &= \left(1 + \frac{1}{2n}\right) \left(1 - \frac{1}{n} + o\left(\frac{1}{n^2}\right)\right) \left(1 - \frac{1}{2n} + o\left(\frac{1}{n^2}\right)\right),\end{aligned}$$

hence,

$$\frac{u_{n+1}}{u_n} = \left(1 - \frac{1}{n} + O\left(\frac{1}{n^2}\right)\right),$$

so according to the previous Proposition, the series  $\sum \left(\frac{\prod_{k=1}^n (2k-1)}{\prod_{k=1}^n 2k} \cdot \frac{1}{\sqrt{n}}\right)$  is divergent.

## 1.3. Series with arbitrary terms

### 1.3.1. Alternating series

**Definition 9.** Let  $\sum u_n$  be a series with arbitrary terms.

The series  $\sum u_n$  is said to be alternating if for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  :  $u_n u_{n+1} < 0$ .

**Remark 8.** Any alternating series can be written in the form  $\sum (-1)^n u_n$ , where  $u_n$  is of constant sign.

**Theorem 2.** [Leibniz's theorem] Soit  $\sum (-1)^n u_n$  an alternating series, if  $(u_n)_n$  is decreasing and tends to 0, then the series  $\sum u_n$  is convergent. Moreover, its sum  $S$  is always between two consecutive terms  $S_n$  and  $S_{n+1}$  of the sequence of its partial sums, and the residue,

$$R_n = S - S_n = \sum_{k=n+1}^{+\infty} u_k$$

has the sign of  $u_{n+1}$  and verifies  $|R_n| \leq |u_{n+1}|$ .

**Example 11.** The series  $\sum \frac{(-1)^n}{n^\alpha}$  ( $\alpha > 0$ ) is alternating and verifies the hypotheses of the previous Theorem, so it converges. It is called an **alternating Riemann series**.

### 1.3.2. Abel's criterion for series of the form $\sum u_n v_n$

**Theorem 3.** [Abel's criterion] Let the series  $\sum u_n v_n$  be such that,

1. the sequence  $(v_n)_n$  decreases and converges to 0,
2. there exists  $M > 0$  such that, for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ :  $\left| \sum_{k=0}^n u_k \right| \leq M$ .

Then, the series  $\sum u_n v_n$  is convergent.

**Example 12.**

1. Study the nature of the series  $\sum \frac{\sin\left(n\frac{\pi}{2}\right)}{n}$ .

Let us put:  $v_n = \frac{1}{n}$  and  $u_n = \sin\left(n\frac{\pi}{2}\right)$ , then we have the sequence with positive terms  $(v_n)_n$  is decreasing towards 0. On the other hand, let us consider the sequence  $w_n = \cos\left(n\frac{\pi}{2}\right) + i \sin\left(n\frac{\pi}{2}\right)$ . We have,

$$w_1 + w_2 + \dots + w_n = e^{i\frac{\pi}{2}} \left( \frac{1 - e^{in\frac{\pi}{2}}}{1 - e^{i\frac{\pi}{2}}} \right) = e^{in\frac{\pi}{2}}$$

hence,

$$|w_1 + w_2 + \dots + w_n| \leq \frac{2}{|1 - e^{i\frac{\pi}{2}}|} = \frac{2}{\sqrt{2}}$$

Thus the series  $\sum \frac{\sin\left(n\frac{\pi}{2}\right)}{n}$  is convergent.

### 1.3.3. Absolutely convergent series

**Definition 10.** The series  $\sum u_n$  is said to be **absolutely convergent**, if the series  $\sum |u_n|$  is convergent.

**Proposition 12.** Any absolutely convergent series is convergent.

**Remark 9.** The reciprocal of this Proposition is generally false, for example, the series  $\sum_{n \geq 1} \frac{(-1)^n}{n}$ , is convergent but not absolutely convergent.

### 1.3.4. Semi-convergent series

**Definition 11.** A series  $\sum u_n$  is said to be semi-convergent if it converges and the series  $\sum |u_n|$  diverges.

**Example 13.** The series  $\sum_{n \geq 1} \frac{(-1)^n}{n^\alpha}$  ( $0 < \alpha \leq 1$ ) is semi-convergent.

**Definition 12.** [Commutatively convergent series] We say that a series  $\sum_{n \geq 0} u_n$  is commutatively convergent, if for any bijection  $\varphi : \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$ , the series  $\sum_{n \geq 0} u_{\varphi(n)}$  is convergent.

**Proposition 13.** Any absolutely convergent series is commutatively convergent. In other words, an absolutely convergent series always converges even if we change the order of its terms, and the sum does not depend on the order of the terms.

**Remark 10.** The property referred to in the previous Proposition is not true if the series is semi-convergent, i.e., the order of the terms cannot be changed.

**Example 14.** We have  $\sum_{n \geq 1} \frac{(-1)^{n+1}}{n} = \ln(2)$  because  $\sum_{n \geq 1} \frac{x^n}{n} = -\ln(1-x)$ . On the other hand,



we have

$$\begin{aligned}
 S &= \sum_{n=1}^{+\infty} \frac{(-1)^{n+1}}{n} = 1 - \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{3} - \frac{1}{4} + \frac{1}{5} - \frac{1}{6} + \frac{1}{7} - \frac{1}{8} + \frac{1}{9} - \frac{1}{10} + \dots \\
 &= \left(1 - \frac{1}{2}\right) - \frac{1}{4} + \left(\frac{1}{3} - \frac{1}{6}\right) - \frac{1}{8} + \left(\frac{1}{5} - \frac{1}{10}\right) - \frac{1}{12} + \left(\frac{1}{7} - \frac{1}{14}\right) - \frac{1}{14} + \dots \\
 &= \frac{1}{2} - \frac{1}{4} + \frac{1}{6} - \frac{1}{8} + \frac{1}{10} - \frac{1}{12} + \frac{1}{14} - \frac{1}{16} + \dots = \frac{S}{2},
 \end{aligned}$$

thus,  $S = 0 \neq \ln(2)$ .

## 1.4. Product series

**Definition 13.** Let  $\sum_{n \geq 0} u_n$  and  $\sum_{n \geq 0} v_n$  be two numerical series.

the series  $\sum_{n \geq 0} w_n$  avec  $w_n = \sum_{k=0}^n u_k v_{n-k}$  is said to be the product of the series  $\sum_{n \geq 0} u_n$  and  $\sum_{n \geq 0} v_n$ .

**Example 15.** Let  $\sum_{n \geq 0} \frac{a^n}{n!}$  and  $\sum_{n \geq 0} \frac{b^n}{n!}$  be two numerical series, then the general term of the product series  $\sum_{n \geq 0} w_n$  is

$$w_n = \sum_{k=0}^n \frac{a^k}{k!} \frac{b^{n-k}}{(n-k)!} = \frac{(a+b)^n}{n!}.$$

**Theorem 4.** [Cauchy's theorem] If  $\sum_{n \geq 0} u_n$  and  $\sum_{n \geq 0} v_n$  are two absolutely convergent series, then their product series  $\sum_{n \geq 0} w_n$  is absolutely convergent and has as its sum the product of the sums, namely,

$$\sum_{n=0}^{+\infty} w_n = \left( \sum_{n=0}^{+\infty} u_n \right) \left( \sum_{n=0}^{+\infty} v_n \right).$$

**Theorem 5.** [Mertens] If  $\sum_{n \geq 0} u_n$  is an absolutely convergent numerical series and  $\sum_{n \geq 0} v_n$  is a convergent numerical series, then the series  $\sum_{n \geq 0} w_n$ , the product of  $\sum_{n \geq 0} u_n$  and  $\sum_{n \geq 0} v_n$ , is

convergent and has as its sum the product of the sums, namely,

$$\sum_{n=0}^{+\infty} w_n = \left( \sum_{n=0}^{+\infty} u_n \right) \left( \sum_{n=0}^{+\infty} v_n \right).$$