# **INFINITE SERIES**

# **A.1.1 Introduction**

As discussed in the Chapter 9 on Sequences and Series, a sequence  $a_1, a_2, ..., a_n, ...$ having infinite number of terms is called *infinite sequence* and its indicated sum, i.e.,  $a_1 + a_2 + a_3 + \dots + a_n + \dots$  is called an *infinite series* associated with infinite sequence. This series can also be expressed in abbreviated form using the sigma notation, i.e.,

$$
a_1 + a_2 + a_3 + \ldots + a_n + \ldots = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} a_k
$$

In this Chapter, we shall study about some special types of series which may be required in different problem situations.

## **A.1.2 Binomial Theorem for any Index**

In Chapter 8, we discussed the Binomial Theorem in which the index was a positive integer. In this Section, we state a more general form of the theorem in which the index is not necessarily a whole number. It gives us a particular type of infinite series, called *Binomial Series*. We illustrate few applications, by examples.

We know the formula

 $(1 + x)^n = {}^nC_0 + {}^nC_1 x + \ldots + {}^nC_n x^n$ 

Here, *n* is non-negative integer. Observe that if we replace index *n* by negative

integer or a fraction, then the combinations  ${}^nC_r$  do not make any sense.

We now state (without proof), the Binomial Theorem, giving an infinite series in which the index is negative or a fraction and not a whole number.

**Theorem** The formula

$$
(1+x)^m = 1 + mx + \frac{m(m-1)}{1.2}x^2 + \frac{m(m-1)(m-2)}{1.2.3}x^3 + \dots
$$

holds whenever  $|x| < 1$ .

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*Remark* 1. Note carefully the condition  $|x| < 1$ , i.e.,  $-1 < x < 1$  is necessary when *m* is negative integer or a fraction. For example, if we take  $x = -2$  and  $m = -2$ , we obtain

$$
(1-2)^{-2} = 1 + (-2)(-2) + \frac{(-2)(-3)}{1.2}(-2)^{2} + ...
$$

or  $1=1+4+12+...$ 

This is not possible

2. Note that there are infinite number of terms in the expansion of  $(1+x)^m$ , when *m* is a negative integer or a fraction

Consider  
\n
$$
(a+b)^m = \left[a\left(1+\frac{b}{a}\right)\right]^m = a^m\left(1+\frac{b}{a}\right)^m
$$
\n
$$
= a^m\left[1+m\frac{b}{a}+\frac{m(m-1)}{1.2}\left(\frac{b}{a}\right)^2+\dots\right]
$$
\n
$$
= a^m + ma^{m-1}b + \frac{m(m-1)}{1.2}a^{m-2}b^2 + \dots
$$

This expansion is valid when  $\left|\frac{b}{a}\right|$  < 1  $\frac{a}{a}$  | < | or equivalently when | *b* | < | *a* |.

The general term in the expansion of  $(a + b)^m$  is

$$
\frac{m(m-1)(m-2)...(m-r+1)a^{m-r}b^r}{1.2.3...r}
$$

We give below certain particular cases of Binomial Theorem, when we assume  $|x|$  < 1, these are left to students as exercises:

1. 
$$
(1 + x)^{-1} = 1 - x + x^2 - x^3 + \dots
$$
  
\n2.  $(1 - x)^{-1} = 1 + x + x^2 + x^3 + \dots$   
\n3.  $(1 + x)^{-2} = 1 - 2x + 3x^2 - 4x^3 + \dots$   
\n4.  $(1 - x)^{-2} = 1 + 2x + 3x^2 + 4x^3 + \dots$   
\nExample 1 Expand  $\left(1 - \frac{x}{2}\right)^{-\frac{1}{2}}$ , when  $|x| < 2$ .

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**Solution** We have

$$
\left(1 - \frac{x}{2}\right)^{-\frac{1}{2}} = 1 + \frac{\left(-\frac{1}{2}\right)}{1}\left(\frac{-x}{2}\right) + \frac{\left(-\frac{1}{2}\right)\left(-\frac{3}{2}\right)}{1 \cdot 2}\left(-\frac{x}{2}\right)^{2} + \dots
$$

$$
= 1 + \frac{x}{4} + \frac{3x^{2}}{32} + \dots
$$

#### **A.1.3 Infinite Geometric Series**

From Chapter 9, Section 9.5, a sequence  $a_1$ ,  $a_2$ ,  $a_3$ , ...,  $a_n$  is called G.P., if *k* +1 *k a*  $\frac{a_{11}}{a_k}$  = *r* (constant) for *k* = 1, 2, 3, ..., *n*–1. Particularly, if we take  $a_1 = a$ , then the resulting sequence *a*, *ar*, *ar*<sup>2</sup>, ..., *ar*<sup>*n*-1</sup> is taken as the standard form of G.P., where *a* is first term and *r*, the common ratio of G.P.

Earlier, we have discussed the formula to find the sum of finite series  $a + ar + ar^2 + ... + ar^{n-1}$  which is given by

$$
S_n = \frac{a(1 - r^n)}{1 - r}.
$$

In this section, we state the formula to find the sum of infinite geometric series  $a + ar + ar^2 + ... + ar^{n-1} + ...$  and illustrate the same by examples.

Let us consider the G.P. 1, 
$$
\frac{2}{3}
$$
,  $\frac{4}{9}$ ,...

Here 
$$
a = 1
$$
,  $r = \frac{2}{3}$ . We have

$$
S_n = \frac{1 - \left(\frac{2}{3}\right)^n}{1 - \frac{2}{3}} = 3 \left[ 1 - \left(\frac{2}{3}\right)^n \right] \quad \dots (1)
$$

Let us study the behaviour of 2 3  $\left(\frac{2}{3}\right)^n$  as *n* becomes larger and larger.



We observe that as *n* becomes larger and larger, 2 3  $\left(\frac{2}{3}\right)^n$  becomes closer and closer to

zero. Mathematically, we say that as *n* becomes sufficiently large, 2 3  $\left(\frac{2}{3}\right)^n$  becomes

sufficiently small. In other words, as  $\left(\frac{2}{2}\right)^n \rightarrow 0$ 3 *n*  $n \rightarrow \infty, \left(\frac{2}{3}\right)^n \rightarrow 0$ . Consequently, we find that the sum of infinitely many terms is given by  $S = 3$ .

Thus, for infinite geometric progression *a*, *ar*, *ar*<sup>2</sup> , ..., if numerical value of common ratio *r* is less than 1, then

$$
S_n = \frac{a(1 - r^n)}{1 - r} = \frac{a}{1 - r} - \frac{ar^n}{1 - r}
$$

In this case,  $r^n \to 0$  as  $n \to \infty$  since  $|r|<1$  and then  $\frac{m}{1-r} \to 0$ *n ar r*  $\rightarrow$  $\frac{1}{r} \rightarrow 0$ . Therefore,

$$
S_n \to \frac{a}{1-r} \text{ as } n \to \infty.
$$

Symbolically, sum to infinity of infinite geometric series is denoted by S. Thus,

we have 1 =

*a r*

−

For example

(i) 
$$
1 + \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2^2} + \frac{1}{2^3} + \dots = \frac{1}{1 - \frac{1}{2}} = 2
$$
  
(ii)  $1 - \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2^2} - \frac{1}{2^3} + \dots = \frac{1}{1 - \left(-\frac{1}{2}\right)} = \frac{1}{1 + \frac{1}{2}} = \frac{2}{3}$ 

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**Example 2** Find the sum to infinity of the G.P.;

$$
\frac{-5}{4}, \frac{5}{16}, \frac{-5}{64}, \dots
$$
  
**Solution Here**  $a = \frac{-5}{4}$  and  $r = -\frac{1}{4}$ . Also  $|r| < 1$ .  

$$
\frac{-5}{1 + \frac{1}{4}} = \frac{-5}{\frac{4}{5}} = -1
$$
  
Hence, the sum to infinity is  $\frac{4}{1 + \frac{1}{4}} = \frac{\frac{-5}{4}}{\frac{5}{4}} = -1$ 

### **A.1.4 Exponential Series**

Leonhard Euler (1707 – 1783), the great Swiss mathematician introduced the number *e* in his calculus text in 1748. The number *e* is useful in calculus as  $\pi$  in the study of the circle.

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Consider the following infinite series of numbers

$$
1 + \frac{1}{1!} + \frac{1}{2!} + \frac{1}{3!} + \frac{1}{4!} + \dots
$$
 (1)

.

The sum of the series given in (1) is denoted by the number *e*

Let us estimate the value of the number *e*.

Since every term of the series (1) is positive, it is clear that its sum is also positive. Consider the two sums

$$
\frac{1}{3!} + \frac{1}{4!} + \frac{1}{5!} + \dots + \frac{1}{n!} + \dots
$$
 (2)

and 
$$
\frac{1}{2^2} + \frac{1}{2^3} + \frac{1}{2^4} + \dots + \frac{1}{2^{n-1}} + \dots
$$
 (3)

Observe that

$$
\frac{1}{3!} = \frac{1}{6} \text{ and } \frac{1}{2^2} = \frac{1}{4} \text{, which gives } \frac{1}{3!} < \frac{1}{2^2}
$$

$$
\frac{1}{4!} = \frac{1}{24} \text{ and } \frac{1}{2^3} = \frac{1}{8} \text{, which gives } \frac{1}{4!} < \frac{1}{2^3}
$$

$$
\frac{1}{5!} = \frac{1}{120} \text{ and } \frac{1}{2^4} = \frac{1}{16} \text{, which gives } \frac{1}{5!} < \frac{1}{2^4}.
$$

Therefore, by analogy, we can say that

$$
\frac{1}{n!} < \frac{1}{2^{n-1}}
$$
, when  $n > 2$ 

We observe that each term in (2) is less than the corresponding term in (3),

Therefore 
$$
\left(\frac{1}{3!} + \frac{1}{4!} + \frac{1}{5!} + ... + \frac{1}{n!}\right) < \left(\frac{1}{2^2} + \frac{1}{2^3} + \frac{1}{2^4} + ... + \frac{1}{2^{n-1}} + ...\right)
$$
 ... (4)  
\nAdding  $\left(1 + \frac{1}{1!} + \frac{1}{2!}\right)$  on both sides of (4), we get,  
\n $\left(1 + \frac{1}{1!} + \frac{1}{2!}\right) + \left(\frac{1}{3!} + \frac{1}{4!} + \frac{1}{5!} + ... + \frac{1}{n!} + ...\right)$   
\n $\left(\left(1 + \frac{1}{1!} + \frac{1}{2!}\right) + \left(\frac{1}{2^2} + \frac{1}{2^3} + \frac{1}{2^4} + ... + \frac{1}{2^{n-1}} + ...\right)\right)$   
\n $= \left\{1 + \left(1 + \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2^2} + \frac{1}{2^3} + \frac{1}{2^4} + ... + \frac{1}{2^{n-1}} + ...\right)\right\}$  ... (5)  
\n $= 1 + \frac{1}{2} = 1 + 2 = 3$ 

Left hand side of (5) represents the series (1). Therefore  $e < 3$  and also  $e > 2$  and hence  $2 < e < 3$ .

*Remark* The exponential series involving variable *x* can be expressed as

$$
e^x = 1 + \frac{x}{1!} + \frac{x^2}{2!} + \frac{x^3}{3!} + \dots + \frac{x^n}{n!} + \dots
$$

**Example 3** Find the coefficient of  $x^2$  in the expansion of  $e^{2x+3}$  as a series in powers of *x*.

**Solution** In the exponential series

$$
e^x = 1 + \frac{x}{1!} + \frac{x^2}{2!} + \frac{x^3}{3!} + \dots
$$

replacing *x* by  $(2x + 3)$ , we get

$$
e^{2x+3} = 1 + \frac{(2x+3)}{1!} + \frac{(2x+3)^2}{2!} + \dots
$$

Here, the general term is  $\frac{(2x+3)^{3}}{1}$ !  $(x+3)^n$ *n* +  $=\frac{(3+2x)}{x}$ ! *n x*  $\frac{2m}{n!}$ . This can be expanded by the

Binomial Theorem as

$$
\frac{1}{n!} \Big[3^n + {^n}C_1 3^{n-1}(2x) + {^n}C_2 3^{n-2}(2x)^2 + ... + (2x)^n \Big].
$$

Here, the coefficient of  $x^2$  is  $\frac{{}^{n}C_2 3^{n-2}2^2}{}$ *n n*− Therefore, the coefficient of  $x^2$  in the whole !  $\mathbf{z}$ 

series is

Thus,

$$
\sum_{n=2}^{\infty} \frac{{}^{n}C_2 3^{n-2} 2^2}{{}^{n}1} = 2 \sum_{n=2}^{\infty} \frac{n(n-1)3^{n-2}}{n!}
$$
  
=  $2 \sum_{n=2}^{\infty} \frac{3^{n-2}}{(n-2)!}$  [using  $n! = n (n - 1) (n - 2)!$ ]  
=  $2 \left[ 1 + \frac{3}{1!} + \frac{3^2}{2!} + \frac{3^3}{3!} + ... \right]$   
=  $2e^3$ .

Thus  $2e^3$  is the coefficient of  $x^2$  in the expansion of  $e^{2x+3}$ . Alternatively  $e^{2x+3} = e^3$ .  $e^{2x}$ 

$$
= e^{3} \left[ 1 + \frac{2x}{1!} + \frac{(2x)^{2}}{2!} + \frac{(2x)^{3}}{3!} + \dots \right]
$$
  
the coefficient of  $x^{2}$  in the expansion of  $e^{2x+3}$  is  $e^{3} \cdot \frac{2^{2}}{2!} = 2e^{3}$ 

**Example 4** Find the value of  $e^2$ , rounded off to one decimal place.

**Solution** Using the formula of exponential series involving *x,* we have

$$
e^x = 1 + \frac{x}{1!} + \frac{x^2}{2!} + \frac{x^3}{3!} + \dots + \frac{x^n}{n!} + \dots
$$

Putting  $x = 2$ , we get

$$
e^{2} = 1 + \frac{2}{1!} + \frac{2^{2}}{2!} + \frac{2^{3}}{3!} + \frac{2^{4}}{4!} + \frac{2^{5}}{5!} + \frac{2^{6}}{6!} + \dots
$$

$$
= 1 + 2 + 2 + \frac{4}{3} + \frac{2}{3} + \frac{4}{15} + \frac{4}{45} + \dots
$$

 $\geq$  the sum of first seven terms  $\geq$  7.355.

On the other hand, we have

$$
e^{2} < \left(1 + \frac{2}{1!} + \frac{2^{2}}{2!} + \frac{2^{3}}{3!} + \frac{2^{4}}{4!}\right) + \frac{2^{5}}{5!} \left(1 + \frac{2}{6} + \frac{2^{2}}{6^{2}} + \frac{2^{3}}{6^{3}} + \dots\right)
$$
  
=  $7 + \frac{4}{15} \left(1 + \frac{1}{3} + \left(\frac{1}{3}\right)^{2} + \dots\right) = 7 + \frac{4}{15} \left(\frac{1}{1 - \frac{1}{3}}\right) = 7 + \frac{2}{5} = 7.4.$ 

Thus,  $e^2$  lies between 7.355 and 7.4. Therefore, the value of  $e^2$ , rounded off to one decimal place, is 7.4.

## **A.1.5 Logarithmic Series**

Another very important series is logarithmic series which is also in the form of infinite series. We state the following result without proof and illustrate its application with an example.

**Theorem** If  $|x| < 1$ , then

$$
\log_e(1+x) = x - \frac{x^2}{2} + \frac{x^3}{3} - \dots
$$

The series on the right hand side of the above is called the *logarithmic series*.

Arr Note The expansion of  $\log_e(1+x)$  is valid for  $x = 1$ . Substituting  $x = 1$  in the expansion of  $\log_e(1+x)$ , we get

$$
\log_e 2 = 1 - \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{3} - \frac{1}{4} + \dots
$$

**Example 5** If  $\alpha$ ,  $\beta$  are the roots of the equation  $x^2 - px + q = 0$ , prove that

$$
\log_e\left(1 + px + qx^2\right) = \left(\alpha + \beta\right)x - \frac{\alpha^2 + \beta^2}{2}x^2 + \frac{\alpha^3 + \beta^3}{3}x^3 - \dots
$$
  
\nSolution Right hand side = 
$$
\left[\alpha x - \frac{\alpha^2 x^2}{2} + \frac{\alpha^3 x^3}{3} - \dots\right] + \left[\beta x - \frac{\beta^2 x^2}{2} + \frac{\beta^3 x^3}{3} - \dots\right]
$$

$$
= \log_e\left(1 + \alpha x\right) + \log\left(1 + \beta x\right)
$$

$$
= \log_e\left(1 + \left(\alpha + \beta\right)x + \alpha\beta x^2\right)
$$

$$
= \log_e\left(1 + px + qx^2\right) = \text{Left hand side.}
$$

Here, we have used the facts  $\alpha + \beta = p$  and  $\alpha\beta = q$ . We know this from the given roots of the quadratic equation. We have also assumed that both  $|\alpha x|$  < 1 and  $|\beta x| < 1.$  $\mathbf{y}$ 

$$
\frac{1}{2} \int_{0}^{2} \frac{1}{2} e^{-\frac{1}{2}t} \, dt
$$