Chapter 11 Infinite Series


Compute $\int e^{-x^{2}} d x$

We will find that $e^{-x^{2}}$ can be written as an "infinite $\qquad$ $"$
$e^{-x^{2}}=1-x^{2}+\frac{x^{4}}{2}-\frac{x^{6}}{6}+\frac{x^{8}}{24}-\frac{x^{10}}{120}+\cdots$
$\int e^{-x^{2}} d x=\int\left(1-x^{2}+\frac{x^{4}}{2}-\frac{x^{6}}{6}+\frac{x^{8}}{24}-\frac{x^{10}}{120}+\cdots\right) d x=$ $\qquad$

So for example
$\int_{0}^{1} e^{-x^{2}} d x=\left(1-x^{2}+\frac{x^{4}}{2}-\frac{x^{6}}{6}+\frac{x^{8}}{24}-\frac{x^{10}}{120}+\cdots\right)_{0}^{1}$

So what is the BIG PICTURE?
11.1-11.7
11.8-11.11

### 11.1 Sequences (light coverage)

A sequence is a list of numbers in a definite order. $a_{1}, a_{2}, a_{3}, \ldots a_{n}, a_{n+1}, \ldots$
We can express sequences in many ways
$\left\{a_{1}, a_{2}, a_{3}, \ldots a_{n}, a_{n+1}, \ldots\right\}$
$\left\{a_{n}\right\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$
$a_{n}=f(n)$
Domain?


Example:
$\left\{\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{4}, \frac{1}{8}, \frac{1}{16} \ldots\right\}$
. $\qquad$



Examples: Find the general term, $a_{n}$, of the sequence if possible.
a) $\left\{\frac{1}{2}, \frac{2}{3}, \frac{3}{4}, \frac{4}{5} \ldots\right\}$
b) $\{1,-1,1,-1 \ldots\}$
c) $\{1,3,5,7 \ldots\}$
d) $\left\{\frac{1}{2}, \frac{5}{4}, \frac{7}{8}, \frac{17}{16}, \frac{31}{32} \ldots\right\}$
e) $\left\{\frac{\ln 1}{1}, \frac{\ln 2}{2}, \frac{\ln 3}{3}, \frac{\ln 4}{4} \ldots\right\}$
f) $\left\{-1, \frac{1}{2},-\frac{1}{3}, \frac{1}{4}, \ldots\right\}$

A sequence is said to $\qquad$ and have a $\qquad$ L (finite) if for every $\varepsilon>0$ there is an
$\mathrm{N}>0$ such that if $\mathrm{n}>\mathrm{N}$ then $\qquad$ If the sequence does not converge, it is said to $\qquad$

Note: this is similar to $\lim _{x \rightarrow} f(x)=$
How do we find limits of sequences? (consider example a)

Helpful Theorem: If $\lim _{x \rightarrow \infty} f(x)=L$ (L finite) and $f(n)=a_{n} \quad n=1,2,3 \ldots$ the $\lim _{x \rightarrow \infty} a_{n}=$ $\qquad$ so the series converges. Why? Is the converse true?



Determine whether the sequences in the above example converge
Example: Determine whether the sequence $\left\{\frac{n!}{n^{n}}\right\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$ converges or diverges.

Sometimes we will need other tools to determine convergence of a sequence. Consider characteristics of certain sequences.
Monotonicity:
$\qquad$ if increasing or decreasing.

Example: Is $\left\{\frac{n}{n+1}\right\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$ monotonic?
Many ways to determine. (Note: looking at what a finite number of terms do does not guarantee monotonic)

Example: Is $\left\{\frac{n^{2}}{n!}\right\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$ monotonic?

## Boundedness

11 Definition A sequence $\left\{a_{n}\right\}$ is bounded above if there is a number $M$ such that

$$
a_{n} \leqslant M \quad \text { for all } n \geqslant 1
$$

It is bounded below if there is a number $m$ such that

$$
m \leqslant a_{n} \quad \text { for all } n \geqslant 1
$$

If it is bounded above and below, then $\left\{a_{n}\right\}$ is a bounded sequence.
Examples: Bounded?
$\left.\left.\{\sin (n)\}_{n=1}^{\infty} \quad\{2 n\}_{n=1}^{\infty} \quad\{-2,4,-6,8, \ldots\}\right\} \frac{(-1)^{n}}{2^{n}}\right\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$


Suppose you have a monotonic, bounded sequence...

Theorem: Every bounded, monotonic sequence is convergent. (see proof in book or do proof for decreasing)

Use the above theorem to show that $\left\{\frac{5^{n}}{n!}\right\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$ is convergent.

## Recursive Sequences:

Fibonnacci Sequence: $a_{0}=0, a_{1}=1, \quad a_{n}=a_{n-1}+a_{n-2}$

### 11.2 Introduction to Infinite Series

Infinite series motivational example:

Stand 2 meters from the wall. At each turn step half the distance to the wall. Will you reach the wall? If so, what is the total distance traveled?

| Turn \# <br> n | Length of <br> step | Distance travelled => | Running Total |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 1 | 1 | 1 |  |
| 2 | $1 / 2$ | $1+1 / 2$ | $7 / 4$ |
| 3 | $1 / 8$ | $1+1 / 2+1 / 6+1 / 8$ | $15 / 8$ |
| 4 | $1 / 16$ | $1+1 / 2+1 / 6+1 / 8+1 / 16$ | $31 / 36$ |
| 5 |  | $1+1 / 2+1 / 6+1 / 8+1 / 16 \ldots+1 / 2^{\mathrm{n}-1}$ | $? ? ? ? ?$ |
| $:$ |  |  |  |
| n |  |  |  |
| $:$ |  |  |  |

So Total Distance (if we reach wall) would be $1+\frac{1}{2}+\frac{1}{4}+\frac{1}{8}+\frac{1}{16}+\cdots$
See helpful tool on 5B page - sequence of partial sums desmos.

Definition: An infinite series is an expression of the form $a_{1}+a_{2}+a_{3}+\cdots$ or $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_{n}$. We wish to determine if the series has a "sum".
Let $S_{n}$ be the sum of the first $n$ terms $\left(S_{1}=a_{1}, S_{2}=a_{1}+a_{2} S_{3}=a_{1}+a_{2}+a_{3}, \ldots \quad S_{n}=a_{1}+a_{2}+a_{3+. .}+a_{n}\right) . S_{n}$ is called the $n$th partial sum.
Now form the sequence of partial sums: $S_{1}, S_{2}, S_{3}, \ldots$. If this sequence of partial sum converges to a finite limit $S$ (i.e. $\qquad$ ) then the series is said to converge and the sum is defined to be S , that is $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_{n}=\mathrm{S}$. Otherwise, the series diverges.

## VOCABULARY/ NOTATION

## General

Series: $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_{n}=a_{1}+a_{2}+a_{3}+\cdots$

## Above Example

$\qquad$
$\qquad$
Terms of the series: $a_{1}, a_{2} a_{3}, \cdots$
nth term of the series: $a_{n}$
nth partial sum: $s_{n}=a_{1}+a_{2}+a_{3}+\cdots+a_{n}$
sequence of partial sums: $s_{1}, s_{2}, s_{3}$,
$n$ nth term partial sums: $s_{\mathrm{n}}$ in "closed form" $\qquad$ . ??

To determine convergence of series directly, using the definition:

1. Construct the $\qquad$
2. Find the general term of this sequence, $\qquad$
(This is usually the hard part. You need to find the pattern or perhaps the series is telescoping or you get otherwise creative.)
3. Check whether the sequence of partial sums converges by finding $\qquad$ .

If the limit is finite, say $\lim _{n \rightarrow \infty} s_{n}=S$, then the sequence of partial sums converges so the series converges and has sum S . $\left(\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_{n}=S\right)$. If the limit is infinite or does not exist, the sequence of partial sums diverges so the series diverges.

Example - two approaches. $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{k(k+1)}$

1) Using the definition and forming a sequence of partial sums.
2) Telescoping Series

Example: $1-1+1-1+1-1+1 \ldots$

Geometric Series

$$
a+a r+a r^{2}+a r^{3}+\ldots=\sum_{n=1}^{\infty}
$$

Examples: Given the following geometric series, write in sigma form and identify $a$ and $r$
Converge? Sum?

1) $1+\frac{1}{2}+\frac{1}{4}+\cdots=\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \quad a=\_\quad r=$
2) $3+6+12+\cdots=\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \quad a=\ldots \quad r=$
3) $1-1+1-\cdots=\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \quad a=\quad r=$
4) $1+x+x^{2}+x^{3}+\cdots=\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \quad a=\ldots \quad r=$

Examples: Is the following a geometric series? If so, identify $a$ and $r$

1) $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} 4^{n}$

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- $\mathrm{E}^{2 n}$

Convergence of Geometric Series

If $|r|=1: \quad \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a r^{n-1}=$ $\qquad$ $S_{n}=$ $\qquad$ so series $\qquad$

If $|r| \neq 1=1$ :
$S_{n}=$ $\qquad$
$r s_{n}=$

Subtracting,

So $\quad S_{n}=$

Then $\lim _{n \rightarrow \infty} s_{n}$

4 The geometric series

$$
\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a r^{n-1}=a+a r+a r^{2}+\cdots
$$

is convergent if $|r|<1$ and its sum is

$$
\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a r^{n-1}=\frac{a}{1-r} \quad|r|<1
$$

If $|r| \geqslant 1$, the geometric series is divergent.
Consider the convergence of the previous examples.

Example: Converge or diverge. $3+7+1+5+4+2+1+\frac{1}{2}+\frac{1}{4}+\cdots$

Convergence is not affected by a finite number of terms.
Interesting application: Can be used to find the exact value of repeating decimals.
$0 . \overline{7} \overline{84}=$

Harmonic Series
$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n}=$

This is a very important series that we will refer to often. Its name derives from the concept of overtones, or harmonics in music: the wavelengths of the overtones of a vibrating string are $1 / 2,1 / 3,1 / 4$, etc., of the string's fundamental wavelength.

Does it converge? Is it geometric?
Back to basics...sequence of partial sums:

Does the desmos computer tool help?

We can prove, in fact, the harmonic series $\qquad$
This proof, proposed by Nicole Oresme in around 1350, is considered by many in the mathematical community[by whom?] to be a high point of medieval mathematics. It is still a standard proof taught in mathematics classes today.

One way to prove divergence is to compare the harmonic series with another divergent series, where each denominator is replaced with the nextlargest power of two:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& 1+\frac{1}{2}+\frac{1}{3}+\frac{1}{4}+\frac{1}{5}+\frac{1}{6}+\frac{1}{7}+\frac{1}{8}+\frac{1}{9}+\cdots \\
& \geq 1+\frac{1}{2}+\frac{1}{4}+\frac{1}{4}+\frac{1}{8}+\frac{1}{8}+\frac{1}{8}+\frac{1}{8}+\frac{1}{16}+\cdots \\
& 1+\frac{1}{2}+\frac{1}{4}+\frac{1}{4}+\frac{1}{8}+\frac{1}{8}+\frac{1}{8}+\frac{1}{8}+\frac{1}{16}+\cdots
\end{aligned}
$$

More precisely,
$S_{2 n} \geq 1+\frac{n}{2}$

So the $\qquad$ diverges which means the $\qquad$ diverges.

The Test for Divergence (the nth term test)

You may have noticed that for a series to converge, the nth term must be getting small. In fact we can prove

Theorem: If the series $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_{n}$ is convergent the $\lim _{n \rightarrow \infty} a_{n}=0$
Proof:

So,

$$
\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_{n} \text { is convergent } \Rightarrow \lim _{n \rightarrow \infty} a_{n}=0
$$

Caution, the converse is NOT TRUE,

$$
\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_{n \text { is convergent }} \quad \lim _{n \rightarrow \infty} a_{n}=0
$$

Remember the harmonic series?

But, the contrapositive is true

$$
\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_{n} \text { is convergent } \Rightarrow \quad \lim _{n \rightarrow \infty} a_{n}=0
$$

That is $\quad \lim _{n \rightarrow \infty} a_{n} \neq 0 \Rightarrow \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_{n}$ is $\qquad$

Exanples: Determine whether the following series converge.
$\sum_{n=1}^{n+1}$
$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \ln \left(\frac{n}{n+1}\right)$

8 Theorem If $\sum a_{n}$ and $\sum b_{n}$ are convergent series, then so are the series $\sum c a_{n}$ (where $c$ is a constant), $\Sigma\left(a_{n}+b_{n}\right)$, and $\Sigma\left(a_{n}-b_{n}\right)$, and
(i) $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} c a_{n}=c \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_{n}$
(ii) $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty}\left(a_{n}+b_{n}\right)=\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_{n}+\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} b_{n}$
(iii) $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty}\left(a_{n}-b_{n}\right)=\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_{n}-\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} b_{n}$
$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty}\left(\frac{1}{n(n+1)}+\frac{1}{2^{n-1}}\right) \quad$ Caution: $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{5 n} \neq \frac{1}{5} \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n}$

## 11.3 and 11.4: Convergence Tests for Positive (or ultimately positive) series.

If the series consists of positive terms, what can be said about the sequence of partial sums?

So for a positive series, we need only show the sequence of partial sums is $\qquad$

Motivation Examples for the Integral Test.
(1) Consider $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n}$ which we know $\qquad$ and consider a seemingly unrelated problem: Find the area under $f(x)=\frac{1}{x}$ on $[1, \infty)$


Suppose we have not discussed a way of computing this area so we instead approximate it using Riemann Sums with the sample point, $x_{i}^{*}$ being the left endpoint of each subinterval and $\Delta x=1$.


$$
S_{n}>\int_{1}^{n+1} \frac{1}{x} d x
$$

(2) Now consider $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^{2}}$ and consider a seemingly unrelated problem: Find the area under $f(x)=\frac{1}{x^{2}}$ on $[1, \infty)$


We learned previously that $\int_{1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{x^{2}} d x=1$. Suppose we wish to use this to somehow compare to the series $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^{2}}$

Suppose we did not know the above fact and tried to approximate $\int_{1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{x^{2}} d x_{\text {by }}$ again using Riemann Sums but this time we will use the sample point, $x_{i}^{*}$ being the right endpoint of each subinterval and $\Delta x=1$.


Note: The sum here is not 2 , in fact it can be proved (at a higher level) to be $\qquad$ .

These two examples suggest there is a relationship between the convergence of the $\qquad$ to the convergence of the similar
(Note: the choice of left/right sample point was made to illustrate the pre-known convergence. You won't be making this choice)

## The Integral Test

Suppose $f(x)$ is a $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text { continuous } \\ (\text { ultimately }) \text { positive } \\ (\text { ultimately }) \text { decrea } \sin g\end{array}\right.$ function on $[1, \infty)$ and let $a_{n}=f(n)$. Then

$$
\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_{n} \quad \text { converges } \Leftrightarrow \int_{1}^{\infty} f(x) d x \quad \text { converges }
$$

Note:

- Integral and sum can start at $\mathrm{N}>1$.
- We have not said integral and sum have same value. In fact, this does not tell us S .

Examples:
(1) $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{\ln n}{n}$
(2) $\sum_{n=1}^{n} n e^{-n^{n}}$
(3) $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^{p}}$

[^0]
## Proof of the Integral Test

Consider $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_{n}$ satisfying the 3 requirements of The Integral Test. If we approximate the integral $\int_{1}^{\infty} f(x) d x \quad$ using:

## Right Endpoints:


$f(2) \Delta x+f(3) \Delta x+f(4) \Delta x+\cdots \quad$ Area
$a_{2}+a_{3}+a_{4}+\cdots<$ $\qquad$
$\qquad$ $+a_{2}+a_{3}+a_{4}+\cdots<$

So if $\int_{1}^{\infty} f(x) d x$ converges, say $\int_{1}^{\infty} f(x) d x=L$
$S_{n}$

Left Endpoints

$f(1) \Delta x+f(2) \Delta x+f(3) \Delta x+\cdots$ $\qquad$ Area
$a_{1}+a_{2}+a_{3}+\cdots>$ $\qquad$
if $\int_{1}^{\infty} f(x) d x$ diverges, in this case $\rightarrow \infty$
$S_{n}$

Estimating S and Error using the Integral Test
If $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_{n}$ converges then $\sum_{n=1}^{n_{n}} a_{n}=a_{1}+a_{2}+a_{3}+\cdots+a_{n}+a_{n+1}+a_{n+2}+\cdots=$
${ }_{\text {so }} R_{n}=a_{n+1}+a_{n+2}+\cdots{ }_{\text {is the error }}$ $\qquad$

What can we say about $R_{n}$ ?


$$
R_{n}=a_{n+1}+a_{n+2}+\cdots<
$$

$\qquad$

This leads to:

$$
\int_{n+1}^{\infty} f(x) d x<R_{n}<\int_{n}^{\infty} f(x) d x
$$

This can be used in two ways: _
(1) $\qquad$ is used to find a bound on the error in using $S_{n}$ $n$ to approximate $S$. It can also be used to find $n$ for a specified error tolerance.
(2) The above inequality can be used to improve $\qquad$ without using more terms.
Since $R_{n}=S-S_{n}$, the above inequality can be written:

$$
\int_{n+1}^{\infty} f(x) d x<S-S_{n}<\int_{n}^{\infty} f(x) d x
$$

Which leads to
$\qquad$

Question: Suppose I am thinking of a number from 0 to 100 . You try to guess, but for every point you are off, you have to pay $\$ 1$.

Assuming you want to minimize the money you have to pay, what will you guess? $\qquad$

What is the most you will have to pay? $\qquad$

Similarly, if $A<S<B$, the best guess for $S$ is $\qquad$ and the most we would be off by is $\qquad$
That is, to improve our estimate of $S$ without taking more terms, use:
$S \approx \frac{2 S_{n}+\int_{n+1}^{\infty} f(x) d x+<\int_{n}^{\infty} f(x) d x}{2}$ which corresponds to a maximum error of $\frac{\int_{n}^{\infty} f(x) d x-<\int_{n+1}^{\infty} f(x) d x}{2}$

Converge? $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^{3 / 2}}$
a) Estimate $S$ by computing $S_{5}$
b) Estimate the error in using $S_{5}$ to approximate $S$
c) How many terms would be required so that the error is withing 0.01 when using $S_{n}$ to approximate $S$
d) Use $S \approx 2 S_{n}+\int_{n+1}^{\infty} f(x) d x+<\int_{n}^{\infty} f(x) d x$ to improve the estimate of $S$ in part a, without using more than 5 terms.
e) Estimate the error in part d. Error $\leq \frac{\int_{n}^{\infty} f(x) d x-<\int_{n+1}^{\infty} f(x) d x}{2}$
f) What would $n$ have to be if we used the process in part (d) and desire error within 0.01


[^0]:    P-Series
    $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^{p}}$ converges if $\mathrm{p}>1$ and diverges otherwise.

