

Section 8.1: Sequences

Boundedness

Definition: A sequence $\{a_n\}$ is **bounded above** if there exists a number M such that

$$a_n \leq M \quad \text{for all } n \geq 1.$$

A sequence $\{a_n\}$ is **bounded below** if there exists a number m such that

$$a_n \geq m \quad \text{for all } n \geq 1.$$

A sequence that is both bounded above and bounded below is called a **bounded sequence**.

Example

Determine if the sequence is bounded above, bounded below, and/or is a bounded sequence.

(a) $\{2^n\}_{n \geq 1}$ 2, 4, 8, 16, ...

It's not bounded above.

It is bounded below since

It is not a bounded sequence.

$$2^n \geq 2 \text{ for all } n$$

(b) $\{1+(-1)^n\}_{n \geq 1}$ 0, 2, 0, 2, 0, 2, ...

This is bounded above since $1+(-1)^n \leq 2$

This is bounded below since $1+(-1)^n \geq 0$

It is a bounded sequence.

Example continued...

Determine if the sequence is bounded above, bounded below, and/or is a bounded sequence.

(c) $\{c_n\}_{n \geq 1}$ where $c_n = \begin{cases} \frac{3}{n+2}, & n \text{ is even} \\ -4n, & n \text{ is odd} \end{cases}$

$$c_1 = -4, c_2 = \frac{3}{4}, c_3 = -12, c_4 = \frac{3}{6}, c_5 = -20, \dots$$

This is not bounded below since the odd terms tend to $-\infty$.

It is bounded above since $c_n \leq \frac{3}{4}$

It's not a bounded sequence.

Theorems on Bounded and Monotonic Sequences

Theorem 1: If $\{s_n\}$ converges, then $\{s_n\}$ is bounded.

Theorem 2: If $\{s_n\}$ is nondecreasing and bounded above, then $\{s_n\}$ converges.

Theorem 3: If $\{s_n\}$ is nonincreasing and bounded below, then $\{s_n\}$ converges.

And the Granddaddy of them all...

The Monotonic Sequence Theorem: Every bounded monotonic sequence is convergent.

Example: Consider the sequence given by

$$a_1 = \sqrt{2}, \quad a_2 = \sqrt{2\sqrt{2}}, \quad a_3 = \sqrt{2\sqrt{2\sqrt{2}}}, \quad \dots \quad a_n = \sqrt{2a_{n-1}}.$$

It can be shown that

(1) a_n is strictly increasing, and (2) that $1 \leq a_n \leq 3$ for every n .

Discuss the convergence or divergence of $\{a_n\}$. If convergent, find its limit.

Property 1 says the sequence is monotonic.

Property 2 says it's bounded.

By the Monotonic Sequence Theorem, it is convergent.

Let's find its limit. Call the limit L .

$$a_n = \sqrt{2 a_{n-1}}$$

Take $n \rightarrow \infty$, so $a_n \rightarrow L$ and $a_{n-1} \rightarrow L$.

Hence

$$L = \sqrt{2L}$$

square $L^2 = 2L \Rightarrow L^2 - 2L = 0$

$$L(L-2) = 0$$

Hence $L=0$ or $L=2$. (Reject 0 since $a_n \geq \sqrt{2}$)

$$\text{Hence } L = 2.$$

Section 8.2: Series

Definition: Suppose we have an infinite sequence of numbers $\{a_1, a_2, \dots\}$. We can consider summing them to form the expression

$$a_1 + a_2 + \cdots + a_n + \cdots$$

Such an expression is called a **series**. We may call it an **infinite series** to highlight that there are infinitely many summands.

Notation: We'll denote sums using a capital sigma (Greek letter "S") as follows:

$$a_1 + a_2 + \cdots + a_n + \cdots = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} a_k.$$

If the limits, starting from $k = 1$ and going to ∞ , are understood, we may simply write $\sum a_k$.

Sigma Notation

A diagram illustrating the components of the sigma notation $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} a_k$. The notation is centered on the page. Handwritten annotations with arrows point to various parts: "Capital Sigma" points to the large Σ ; "last index value" points to the ∞ above the sigma; "Summands" points to the a_k term; "first index value" points to the $k=1$ below the sigma; and "k is called an index" points to the k in the subscript. The entire diagram is drawn in black ink on a white background.

$$\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} a_k$$

Capital Sigma

last index value

Summands

first index value

k is called an index

Examples:

Some series would obviously give rise to a sum that is an infinity—e.g. the series

$$1 + 2 + 3 + \cdots + n + \cdots$$

Others give a well defined, finite sum in spite of there being infinitely many terms. For example, it can be shown that

$$\frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{4} + \frac{1}{8} + \cdots + \frac{1}{2^n} + \cdots = 1.$$

Partial Sums

Definition: Let $\sum a_k$ be a series. The **sequence of partial sums** is the sequence $\{s_n\}$ defined by

$$s_1 = a_1$$

$$s_2 = a_1 + a_2$$

$$s_3 = a_1 + a_2 + a_3$$

$$\vdots$$

$$s_n = a_1 + a_2 + \cdots + a_n = \sum_{k=1}^n a_k.$$

Example: For the series $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{2^k}$, find the first three terms in the sequence of partial sums, s_1 , s_2 , and s_3 . Here $a_k = \frac{1}{2^k}$

$$s_1 = \frac{1}{2^1} = \frac{1}{2}$$

$$s_3 = \frac{1}{2^1} + \frac{1}{2^2} + \frac{1}{2^3} = \frac{7}{8}$$

$$s_2 = \frac{1}{2^1} + \frac{1}{2^2} = \frac{3}{4}$$

Convergence or Divergence

Definition: Given a series $\sum a_k$, let $\{s_n\}$ denote the sequence of partial sums. If the sequence $\{s_n\}$ converges with limit s , that is

$$\text{if } \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} s_n = s,$$

then the series $\sum a_k$ is said to be **convergent**, and s is called the **sum** of the series. In this case, we write

$$\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} a_k = s.$$

If the sequence $\{s_n\}$ is divergent, then the series is said to be **divergent**.

Remark: A convergence or divergence of a series is defined in terms of the convergence or divergence of its sequence of partial sums.

Remark: If a sequence $\sum a_k$ converges, it is a **number**.

Example: $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{k^2 + k} = \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{6} + \frac{1}{12} + \dots$

Use the partial fraction decomposition

$$\frac{1}{k^2 + k} = \frac{1}{k} - \frac{1}{k+1}$$

to investigate the convergence or divergence of this series.

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

let $\{S_n\}$ be the sequence of partial sums

$$S_1 = 1 - \frac{1}{2}$$

$$S_2 = 1 - \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2} - \frac{1}{3} = 1 - \frac{1}{3}$$

$$S_3 = 1 - \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2} - \frac{1}{3} + \frac{1}{3} - \frac{1}{4} = 1 - \frac{1}{4}$$

⋮

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

$$S_0 \quad S_n = 1 - \frac{1}{n+1} \quad \text{for } n \geq 1$$

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} S_n = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left(1 - \frac{1}{n+1} \right) = 1 - 0 = 1$$

The sequence $\{S_n\}$ converges with limit 1.

Hence the series $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{k^2+k}$ converges

with sum 1.

$$\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{k^2+k} = 1$$

A Divergent Series

Use the well known result $1 + 2 + \cdots + n = \frac{n(n+1)}{2}$ to investigate the convergence or divergence of the series

$$\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} k.$$

$$\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} k = 1 + 2 + 3 + 4 + \dots$$

Let $\{s_n\}$ be the sequence of partial sums.

$$s_1 = 1$$

$$S_2 = 1 + 2 = 3$$

$$S_3 = 1 + 2 + 3 = 6$$

$$\vdots$$

$$S_n = 1 + 2 + \dots + n = \frac{n(n+1)}{2}$$

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} S_n = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{n(n+1)}{2} = \infty$$

Hence the sequence $\{S_n\}$ is divergent.

By definition, the series $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} k$ is
divergent.

Geometric Series

Let $a \neq 0$; the series

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

is called **geometric series**. The number r is called the **common ratio**.

Investigate the convergence or divergence of this series.

Recall * $\lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} r^N = \begin{cases} 0, & |r| < 1 \\ \text{DNE}, & \text{if } r \leq -1 \text{ or } r > 1 \end{cases}$

Consider the $r=1$ case. If $r=1$, the

Series is $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a = a + a + a + a + \dots$

Let $\{S_N\}$ be the sequence of partial sums.

$$S_0 = a$$

$$S_N = a + a + \dots + a$$

$$S_1 = a + a = 2a$$

$$= (N+1)a$$

$$S_2 = a + a + a = 3a$$

$$\lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} S_N = \lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} (N+1)a \quad \text{DNE}$$

If $r=1$, the series is divergent.

Suppose $r \neq 1$.

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} ar^n = a + ar + ar^2 + \dots$$

S_0

$$S_0 = a$$

$$S_N = a + ar + \dots + ar^N$$

$$S_1 = a + ar$$

$$S_2 = a + ar + ar^2$$

$$S_N = a + ar + ar^2 + \dots + ar^{N-1} + ar^N$$

$$rS_N = ar + ar^2 + ar^3 + \dots + ar^N + ar^{N+1}$$

Subtract

$$S_N - rS_N = a - ar^{N+1}$$

$$(1-r)S_N = a(1-r^{N+1})$$

note $1-r \neq 0$

$$S_N = \frac{a(1-r^{N+1})}{1-r}$$

$$\lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} S_N = \lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \frac{a}{1-r} (1-r^{N+1}) = \begin{cases} \text{DNE if } r > 1 \\ \text{or } r \leq -1 \\ \frac{a}{1-r} \text{ if } |r| < 1 \end{cases}$$

Geometric Series

Theorem: The series $a + ar + ar^2 + \cdots = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} ar^n$ is convergent if $|r| < 1$. In this case,

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} ar^n = \frac{a}{1-r} \quad |r| < 1.$$

If $|r| \geq 1$, the series is divergent.

Examples:

Determine the convergence or divergence of the geometric series. If convergent, find the sum.

(a) $2 + \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{8} + \frac{1}{32} + \dots$ Find the ratio r

$$r = \frac{\frac{1}{2}}{2} = \frac{1}{4} \quad , \quad r = \frac{\frac{1}{8}}{\frac{1}{2}} = \frac{1}{8} \cdot 2 = \frac{1}{4} \quad , \quad r = \frac{\frac{1}{32}}{\frac{1}{8}} = \frac{1}{4}$$

$|r| = |\frac{1}{4}| < 1$, the series converges.

$$a = 2$$

$$2 + \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{8} + \frac{1}{32} + \dots = \frac{2}{1 - \frac{1}{4}} \cdot \frac{1}{4} = \frac{8}{4-1} = \frac{8}{3}$$

$$(b) \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{5^{n+1}}{3^{2n-1}}$$

$$= \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{5 \cdot 5^n}{\frac{1}{3} 9^n}$$

$$= \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} 15 \left(\frac{5}{9} \right)^n$$

$$5^{n+1} = 5^n \cdot 5^1 = 5(5^n)$$

$$3^{2n-1} = 3^{2n} \cdot 3^{-1} = (3^2)^n \cdot 3^{-1}$$

$$= \frac{1}{3} (9^n)$$

$$a=15 \quad \text{and} \quad r=\frac{5}{9}$$

$|r| = \left| \frac{5}{9} \right| < 1$ the series converges.

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{5^{n+1}}{3^{2n-1}} = \frac{15}{1 - \frac{5}{9}} \cdot \frac{9}{9} = \frac{135}{9-5}$$

$$= \frac{135}{4}$$

Using a Geometric Series

Use a geometric series to find a rational equivalent to the number

$$0.9191\overline{91} = 0.91 + 0.0091 + 0.000091 + \dots$$

$$= \frac{91}{100} + \frac{91}{100^2} + \frac{91}{100^3} + \dots$$

$$= \frac{91}{100} + \frac{91}{100} \cdot \frac{1}{100} + \frac{91}{100} \left(\frac{1}{100}\right)^2 + \dots$$

$$= \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{91}{100} \left(\frac{1}{100}\right)^n$$

$$r = \frac{1}{100} \quad \text{so} \quad |r| < 1$$

$$\text{also} \quad a = \frac{91}{100}$$

$$0.9191\overline{91} = \frac{\frac{91}{100}}{1 - \frac{1}{100}} \cdot \frac{100}{100}$$

$$= \frac{91}{100 - 1} = \frac{91}{99}$$