## Mar. 16 Math 2254H sec 015H Spring 2015

#### Section 11.1: Sequences

**Recall:** A sequence is an ordered list of numbers. More generally, a sequence is a function

$$a_n = f(n)$$

whose domain is a subset of the integers.

An infinite sequence is said to be convergent with limit L if

1

$$\lim_{n\to\infty}a_n=L.$$

If no limit (finite) limit exists, the sequence is said to be divergent.

#### Theorem (on continuous functions)

**Theorem:** If  $\lim_{n\to\infty} a_n = L$  and *f* is continuous at *L*, then

 $\lim_{n\to\infty}f(a_n)=f(L).$ 

Example: Determine the limit

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 $\lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{1}{n^2} = 0$  $\lim_{n\to\infty}\exp\left(\frac{1}{n^2}\right)$ = exp ( lim 1) x f(x)=e is continuous C Zeno - e - 1 

March 12, 2015 2 / 44

### A Special Sequence

Let *r* be a real number. Determine the convergence or divergence of the sequence

 $a_n = r^n$ .

Case 1: 
$$r=1$$
  $a_n=1^n=1$   $\lim_{n\to\infty} 1=1$   
convergent will limit 1  
Case 2:  $r=-1$   $a_n=(-1)^n$   $\lim_{n\to\infty} (-1)^n$  DNE  
divergent  
Case 3:  $|r|<1$   $\lim_{n\to\infty} a_n=0$   
note  $|r|^2 = 0$  as successive powers

March 12, 2015 3 / 44

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# Monotone Sequences

**Definition:** A sequence is **increasing** (or strictly increasing) if  $a_n < a_{n+1}$  for all *n*. That is, an increasing sequence would satisfy

 $a_1 < a_2 < \cdots < a_n < \cdots$ .

A sequence is **decreasing** (or strictly decreasing) if  $a_n > a_{n+1}$  for all *n*. That is, a decreasing sequence would satisfy

 $a_1 > a_2 > \cdots , a_n > \cdots$ .

March 12, 2015

6/44

A sequence that is either increasing or is decreasing is called **monotonic**.

For example,

$$a_n = \frac{1}{n}$$
 is decreasing,  $b_n = (-1)^n$  oscillates, and  $c_n = 2^n$  is increasing.

## **Example** Using a function to determine if a sequence is monotone:

Let  $a_n = \frac{n}{n^2 + 1}$ . Show that  $a_n$  is a decreasing sequence. Let  $f(x) = \frac{x}{x^2 + 1}$  note  $f(x) = a_n$  for integers Tohe f'(x)  $f'(x) = \frac{x^2 + 1 - x(2x)}{(x^2 + 1)^2} = \frac{1 - x^2}{(x^2 + 1)^2}$ for x=1, f'(1)=0 • • • • • • • • • • • • • March 12, 2015 7 / 44

$$a_{1} = \frac{1}{1+1} = \frac{1}{2}$$
,  $a_{2} = \frac{2}{5}$ 

$$s_{\alpha_2} < \alpha_{\alpha_1}$$

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March 12, 2015 8 / 44

#### **Boundedness**

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

 $a_n \leq M$  for all  $n \geq 1$ .

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

 $a_n \ge m$  for all  $n \ge 1$ .

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

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## Example

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

(a) 
$$a_n = 2^n$$
 {1, 2, 4, 8, 14, ... }  
a)  $a \ge 1$  for n \ge 0 bounded below  
a)  $a_n = 5^n$  it's not bounded above.  
(b)  $b_n = 1 + (-1)^n$  {2, 0, 2, 0, 2, 0, ... }  
 $b_n \ge 0$  for all n, it's hounded below  
 $b_n \le 2$  for all n, it's bounded above,  
It is a bounded sequence  $\ge 1 \le 2$  and  
March 12, 2015 10/44

### Example continued...

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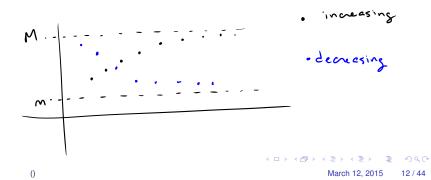
Determine if the sequence is bounded above, bounded below, and/or is a bounded sequence.

(c) 
$$c_n = \begin{cases} \frac{3}{n+2}, & n \text{ is even} \\ -4n, & n \text{ is odd} \end{cases}$$
 (assum  $n \ge 0$ )  
 $\begin{cases} \frac{3}{2}, -4, & \frac{3}{4}, -12, & \frac{3}{6}, -20, & \frac{3}{8}, -28, \dots \end{cases}$   
The odd terms tend  $d - \infty$ . It's not  
bounded helow.  
It is bounded above since  $c_n \le \frac{3}{2}$   
for all  $n \ge 0$ .

March 12, 2015 11 / 44

The Monotonic Sequence Theorem

Theorem: Every bounded monotonic sequence is convergent.



Example: Consider the sequence given by

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

It can be shown that

(1)  $a_n$  is strictly increasing, and (2) that  $1 \le a_n \le 3$  for every n. It's monotonic  $t'' \le b_{n} \ge 2$ . Discuss the convergence or divergence of  $\{a_n\}$ . If convergent, find its limit.

March 12, 2015 13 / 44

March 12, 2015 14 / 44

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### Section 11.2: Series

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

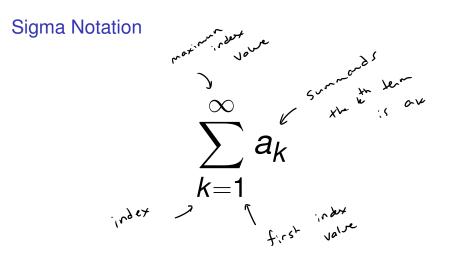
 $a_1 + a_2 + \cdots + a_n + \cdots$ 

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  $\infty$ , are understood, we may simply write  $\sum a_k$ .



March 12, 2015 16 / 44

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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 inspite of there being infinitely many term. For example, it can be shown that

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

March 12, 2015 17 / 44

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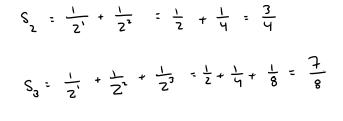
### Partial Sums

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

$$s_1 = a_1$$
  
 $s_2 = a_1 + a_2$   
 $s_3 = a_1 + a_2 + a_3$   
 $\vdots$   
 $s_n = a_1 + a_2 + \dots + a_n = \sum_{k=1}^n a_k.$ 

**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  $s_3$ .

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



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