

Chapter 4

Infinite Series

4.1 Infinite sequence

Definition 4.1.1 A *sequence* (or an *infinite sequence*) is an ordered list having the first element (term) but no last element (term)

For this course, the terms of the sequence will always be real numbers, though what we will discuss can be applied to complex terms.

Example 4.1.2 a) $\{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, \dots\}$ the sequence of positive integers.

b) $\{-\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{4}, -\frac{1}{8}, \frac{1}{16}, \dots\}$ the sequence of positive integer powers of $-\frac{1}{2}$.

We can look at a sequence as a function with domain the positive integers, e.g, the sequence $a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n, \dots$ is a function f defined by $f(n) = a_n$.

We can specify a sequence in three ways:

- i) We list the first few terms followed by \dots if the pattern is obvious.
- ii) We can provide a formula for the general term a_n as a function of n
- iii) We can provide a formula for calculating a_n as a function of earlier terms a_1, a_2, \dots, a_{n-1} and specify enough of the beginning terms so that the process of computing higher terms can begin.

Example 4.1.3 Let n be a positive integer.

a) $\{n\} = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, \dots\}$

b) $\{(-\frac{1}{2})^n\} = \{-\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{4}, -\frac{1}{8}, \frac{1}{16}, \dots\}$.

c) $\{\frac{n-1}{n}\} = \{0, \frac{1}{2}, \frac{2}{3}, \frac{3}{4}, \dots\}$.

d) $\{(-1)^{n-1}\} = \{\cos(n-1)\pi\} = \{1, -1, 1, -1, 1, \dots\}$.

e) $\{\frac{n^2}{2^n}\} = \{\frac{1}{2}, 1, \frac{9}{8}, 1, \frac{25}{32}, \frac{36}{64}, \frac{49}{128}, \dots\}$.

f) $\{(1 + \frac{1}{n})^n\} = \{2, (\frac{3}{2})^2, (\frac{4}{3})^3, (\frac{5}{4})^4, \dots\}$.

g) $\{\cos(n\pi/2)\} = \{0, -\frac{1}{2}, 0, \frac{1}{4}, 0, -\frac{1}{6}, 0, \frac{1}{8}, \dots\}$.

h) $a_1 = 1, a_{n+1} = \sqrt{6 + a_n}, (n = 1, 2, 3, 4, \dots)$. Here, $\{a_n\} = \{1, \sqrt{7}, \sqrt{6 + \sqrt{7}}, \dots\}$ and we see that there is no obvious formula for a_n as a function of n . But we can still calculate a_n when we know the earlier values a_2, a_3, \dots, a_{n-1}

i) $a_1 = 1, a_2 = 1, a_{n+2} = a_n + a_{n+1}, (n = 1, 2, 3, 4, \dots)$. Here,

$$\{a_n\} = \{1, 1, 2, 3, 5, 8, 13, 21, \dots\}$$

This is called the Fibonacci sequence, each term after the second is the sum of the previous two terms.

In h) and i), the sequence $\{a_n\}$ is said to be defined **recursively** or **inductively**.

Definition 4.1.4 a) The sequence $\{a_n\}$ is **bounded below** by L , and L is a **lower bound** for $\{a_n\}$, if $a_n \geq L$ for every $n = 1, 2, 3, \dots$

b) The sequence $\{a_n\}$ is **bounded above** by M , and M is a **upper bound** for $\{a_n\}$, if $a_n \leq M$ for every $n = 1, 2, 3, \dots$

c) The sequence a_n is **bounded** if it is both bounded above and bounded below. In this case there is a constant K such that $|a_n| \leq K$ for all n . The constant K can be taken to be the larger of $|L|$ and $|M|$.

Definition 4.1.5 The sequence $\{a_n\}$ is **positive** if it is bounded below by zero, i.e, $a_n \geq 0$; and is **negative** if $a_n \leq 0$ for every n .

Definition 4.1.6 a) The sequence $\{a_n\}$ is **increasing** if $a_{n+1} \geq a_n$; and is **decreasing** if $a_{n+1} \leq a_n$ for every $n = 1, 2, 3, \dots$

b) The sequence is said to be **monotonic** if it is either increasing or decreasing.

Definition 4.1.7 The sequence $\{a_n\}$ is **alternating** if $a_n a_{n+1} < 0$ for every n ; i.e, any two consecutive terms have opposite sign.

Example 4.1.8 a) The sequence $\{n\} = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, \dots\}$ is positive, increasing and bounded below. A lower bound is 1 or any number less than 1. The sequence is not bounded above.

b) The sequence $\{(-\frac{1}{2})^n\} = \{-\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{4}, -\frac{1}{8}, \frac{1}{16}, \dots\}$ is bounded and alternating. Here $-\frac{1}{2}$ is a lower bound and 1 is an upper bound.

c) The sequence $\{\frac{n-1}{n}\} = \{0, \frac{1}{2}, \frac{2}{3}, \frac{3}{4}, \dots\}$ is positive, bounded and increasing. Here, 0 is the lower bound and 1 is the upper bound.

d) $\{(-1)^n n\} = \{-1, 2, -3, 4, -5, \dots\}$ is alternating but not bounded either above or below.

Example 4.1.9 If $a_n = \frac{n}{n^2+1}$, show that the sequence $\{a_n\}$ is decreasing.

Solution

Since $a_n = f(n)$, where $f(x) = \frac{x}{x^2+1}$ and $f'(x) = \frac{(x^2+1)(1)-x(2x)}{(x^2+1)^2} = \frac{1-x^2}{(x^2+1)^2} \leq 0$ for $x \geq 1$, the function $f(x)$ is decreasing on $[1, \infty)$; therefore, $\{a_n\}$ is a decreasing sequence.

Example 4.1.10 a) The sequence $\{\frac{n^2}{2^n}\} = \{\frac{1}{2}, 1, \frac{9}{8}, 1, \frac{25}{32}, \frac{36}{64}, \frac{49}{128}, \dots\}$ is positive and therefore bounded below. It seems clear that from the fourth term on, all the terms are getting smaller. However, $a_2 > a_1$ and $a_3 > a_2$. Since $a_{n+1} < a_n$ only if $n \geq 3$, we say that this sequence is **ultimately** decreasing.

b) The sequence $\{n - 100\} = \{-99, -98, \dots, -2, -1, 0, 1, 2, 3, \dots\}$ is ultimately positive even though the first 99 terms are negative.

c) The sequence $\{(-1)^n + \frac{4}{n}\} = \{3, 3, \frac{1}{3}, 2, -\frac{1}{5}, \frac{5}{3}, -\frac{3}{7}, \frac{3}{2}, \dots\}$ is ultimately alternating even though the first few terms do not alternate.

Convergence of Sequences

Definition 4.1.11 The sequence $\{a_n\}$ is said to **converge** to a limit L , and we write

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = L,$$

if for every positive real number ϵ there exists an integer N such that if $n \geq N$, then $|a_n - L| < \epsilon$. Otherwise, the sequence **diverges**.

Every sequence $\{a_n\}$ must either converge to a real number L or diverge. If $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = \infty$, we say that the sequence diverges to ∞ ; if $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = -\infty$, we say that the sequence diverges to $-\infty$. If the limit doesn't exist (but is not ∞ or $-\infty$), we can only say that the sequence diverges.

Example 4.1.12 a) $\{\frac{n-1}{n}\}$ converges to 1; $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{n-1}{n} = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (1 - \frac{1}{n}) = 1$

b) $\{n\} = \{1, 2, 3, 4, \dots\}$ diverges to ∞ .

c) $\{-n\} = \{-1, -2, -3, -4, \dots\}$ diverges to $-\infty$

d) $\{(-1)^n\} = \{-1, 1, -1, 1, -1, 1, \dots\}$ simply diverges.

e) $\{(-1)^n n\} = \{-1, 2, -3, 4, -5, \dots\}$ diverges (but not to ∞ or $-\infty$ even though $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = \infty$).

The following rules (seen for limits of functions) hold: If $\{a_n\}$ and $\{b_n\}$ converge, then

a) $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (a_n \pm b_n) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n \pm \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} b_n$.

b) $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (a_n b_n) = (\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n)(\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} b_n)$.

c) $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{a_n}{b_n} = \frac{\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n}{\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} b_n}$ assuming $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} b_n \neq 0$.

d) If $a_n \leq b_n$ ultimately, then $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n \leq \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} b_n$.

e) If $a_n \leq b_n \leq c_n$ ultimately, and $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = L = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} c_n$, then $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} b_n = L$ (Squeeze Theorem).

Example 4.1.13 Calculate the limits of the sequences

a) $\{\frac{2n^2-n-1}{5n^2+n-3}\}$ b) $\{\frac{\cos n}{n}\}$ c) $\{\sqrt{n^2+2n}-n\}$

Solution

a) We divide the numerator and denominator by the highest power of n , i.e. by n^2 ;

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{2n^2 - n - 1}{5n^2 + n - 3} = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{2 - (1/n) - (1/n^2)}{5 + (1/n) - 3/n^2} = \frac{2 - 0 - 0}{5 + 0 - 0} = \frac{2}{5}$$

since $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} 1/n = 0$ and $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} 1/n^2 = 0$. The sequence converges and its limit is $2/5$.

b) Since $|\cos n| \leq 1$ or $(-1 \leq \cos n \leq 1)$ for every n , we have

$$-\frac{1}{n} \leq \frac{\cos n}{n} \leq \frac{1}{n}.$$

Since $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} -1/n = 0$ and $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} 1/n = 0$, it follows (from the squeeze theorem for sequences) that

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\cos n}{n} = 0.$$

Thus the given sequence converges to 0.

c) We multiply the numerator and the denominator by the conjugate of the expression:

$$\begin{aligned} \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (\sqrt{n^2 + 2n} - n) &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{(\sqrt{n^2 + 2n} - n)(\sqrt{n^2 + 2n} + n)}{\sqrt{n^2 + 2n} + n} \\ &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{n^2 + 2n + n\sqrt{n^2 + 2n} - n\sqrt{n^2 + 2n} - n^2}{\sqrt{n^2 + 2n} + n} \\ &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{2n}{\sqrt{n^2 + 2n} + n} \quad (\text{Divide by } n) \\ &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{2}{\sqrt{1 + 2/n} + 1} = 1 \end{aligned}$$

Example 4.1.14 Evaluate $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} n \tan^{-1}(\frac{1}{n})$.

Solution

We use l'Hopitals rule:

$$\begin{aligned} \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} n \tan^{-1} \frac{1}{n} &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\tan^{-1} \frac{1}{n}}{\frac{1}{n}} \quad \left[\frac{0}{0} \right] \\ &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\frac{1}{1+(1/n^2)} \left(-\frac{1}{n^2} \right)}{-\frac{1}{n^2}} \\ &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{1 + \frac{1}{n^2}} = 1 \end{aligned}$$

Theorem 4.1.15 If $\{a_n\}$ converges, then $\{a_n\}$ is bounded.

Proof. Suppose $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = L$. According to Definition 4.1.11, for $\epsilon = 1$, there exist a number N such that $|a_n - L| < 1$ for $n > N$. Therefore, $|a_n| < 1 + |L|$

for such n . If K is the largest of the numbers $|a_1|, |a_2|, \dots, |a_N|$ and $1 + |L|$, then $|a_n| < K$ for every $n = 1, 2, 3, \dots$. Hence $\{a_n\}$ is bounded. ■

The converse of this theorem is false. The sequence $\{(-1)^n\}$ is bounded but does not converge. But a bounded, ultimately monotonic sequence is convergent.

Example 4.1.16 Let a_n be defined recursively by

$$a_1 = 1, \quad a_{n+1} = \sqrt{6 + a_n} \quad (n = 1, 2, 3, \dots).$$

Show that $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n$ exists and find its value.

Solution. Observe that $a_2 = \sqrt{6+1} = \sqrt{7} > a_1$. If $a_{k+1} > a_k$, then $a_{k+2} = \sqrt{6+a_{k+1}} > \sqrt{6+a_k} = a_{k+1}$, so $\{a_n\}$ is increasing, by induction. Now, observe that $a_1 = 1 < 3$. If $a_k < 3$, then $a_{k+1} = \sqrt{6+a_k} < \sqrt{6+3} = 3$, so $a_n < 3$ for every n , by induction. Since $\{a_n\}$ is increasing and bounded above, $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = L$ exists. Since $\sqrt{6+n}$ is a continuous function of n , we have

$$L = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sqrt{6 + a_n} = \sqrt{6 + \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n} = \sqrt{6 + L}$$

Thus $L^2 = 6 + L$ or $L^2 - L - 6 = 0$ or $(L - 3)(L + 2) = 0$ so that the roots of the quadratic $L = 3$ and $L = -2$. Since $a_n \geq 1$ for every n , we must have $L \geq 1$. Therefore, $L = 3$ and $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = 3$. ■

Theorem 4.1.17 If $\{a_n\}$ is (ultimately) increasing, then either it is bounded above and therefore convergent or it is not bounded above and diverges to infinity.

Theorem 4.1.18 a) If $|x| < 1$, then $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} x^n = 0$.

b) If x is any real number, then $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{x^n}{n!} = 0$.

Example 4.1.19 Evaluate $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{3^n + 4^n + 5^n}{5^n}$.

Solution. $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{3^n + 4^n + 5^n}{5^n} = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left[\left(\frac{3}{5}\right)^n + \left(\frac{4}{5}\right)^n + 1 \right] = 0 + 0 + 1 = 1$ by Theorem 4.1.18 a) ■