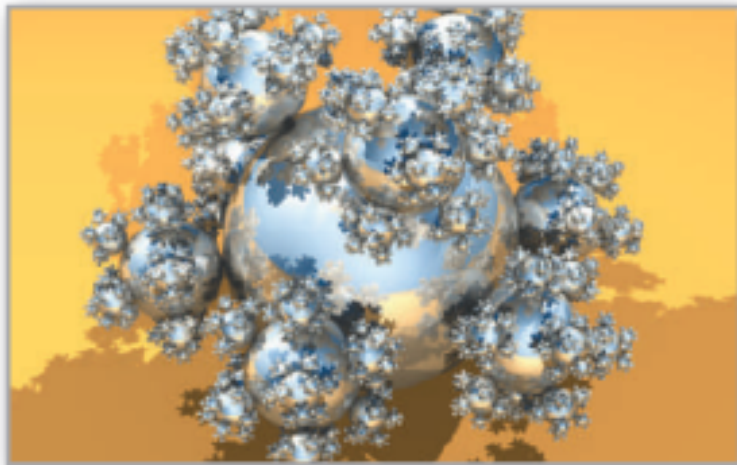


9 Infinite Series



9.1

Sequences

Objectives

- Write the terms of a sequence.
- Determine whether a sequence converges or diverges.
- Write a formula for the n th term of a sequence.
- Use properties of monotonic sequences and bounded sequences.

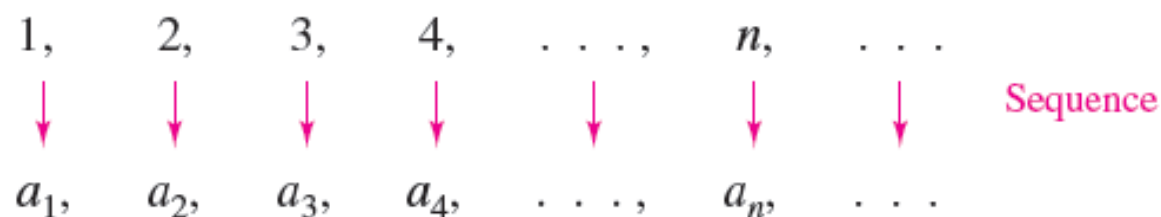


Sequences

Sequences

A **sequence** is defined as a function whose domain is the set of positive integers. Although a sequence is a function, it is common to represent sequences by subscript notation rather than by the standard function notation.

For instance, in the sequence



1 is mapped onto a_1 , 2 is mapped onto a_2 , and so on. The numbers $a_1, a_2, a_3, \dots, a_n, \dots$ are the **terms** of the sequence. The number a_n is the **n th term** of the sequence, and the entire sequence is denoted by $\{a_n\}$.

Example 1 – *Writing the Terms of a Sequence*

a. The terms of the sequence $\{a_n\} = \{3 + (-1)^n\}$ are
 $3 + (-1)^1, 3 + (-1)^2, 3 + (-1)^3, 3 + (-1)^4, \dots$
2, 4, 2, 4,

b. The terms of the sequence $\{b_n\} = \left\{ \frac{n}{1 - 2n} \right\}$ are

$$\frac{1}{1 - 2 \cdot 1}, \frac{2}{1 - 2 \cdot 2}, \frac{3}{1 - 2 \cdot 3}, \frac{4}{1 - 2 \cdot 4}, \dots$$

$$-1, \quad -\frac{2}{3}, \quad -\frac{3}{5}, \quad -\frac{4}{7}, \quad \dots$$

Example 1 – Writing the Terms of a Sequence

cont'd

c. The terms of the sequence $\{c_n\} = \left\{ \frac{n^2}{2^n - 1} \right\}$ are

$$\frac{1^2}{2^1 - 1}, \frac{2^2}{2^2 - 1}, \frac{3^2}{2^3 - 1}, \frac{4^2}{2^4 - 1}, \dots$$

$$\frac{1}{1}, \frac{4}{3}, \frac{9}{7}, \frac{16}{15}, \dots$$

d. The terms of the **recursively defined** sequence $\{d_n\}$, where $d_1 = 25$ and $d_{n+1} = d_n - 5$, are

$$25, 25 - 5 = 20, 20 - 5 = 15, 15 - 5 = 10, \dots$$



Limit of a Sequence

Limit of a Sequence

The primary focus of this chapter concerns sequences whose terms approach limiting values. Such sequences are said to **converge**. For instance, the sequence $\{1/2^n\}$

$$\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{4}, \frac{1}{8}, \frac{1}{16}, \frac{1}{32}, \dots$$

converges to 0, as indicated in the following definition.

Definition of the Limit of a Sequence

Let L be a real number. The **limit** of a sequence $\{a_n\}$ is L , written as

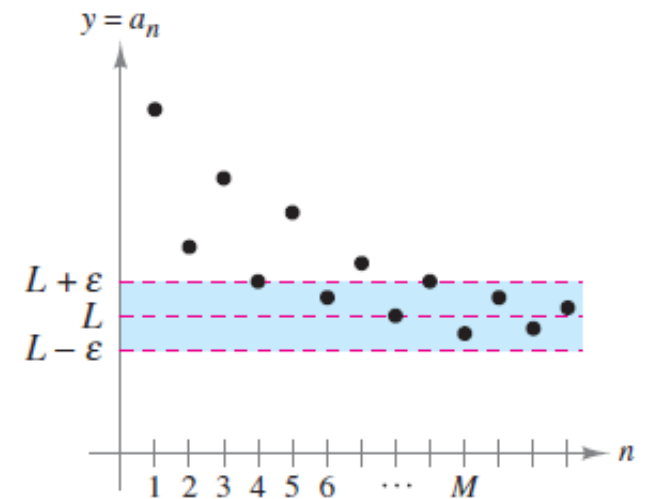
$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = L$$

if for each $\varepsilon > 0$, there exists $M > 0$ such that $|a_n - L| < \varepsilon$ whenever $n > M$. If the limit L of a sequence exists, then the sequence **converges** to L . If the limit of a sequence does not exist, then the sequence **diverges**.

Limit of a Sequence

Graphically, this definition says that eventually (for $n > M$ and $\varepsilon > 0$), the terms of a sequence that converges to L will lie within the band between the lines $y = L + \varepsilon$ and $y = L - \varepsilon$, as shown in Figure 9.1.

If a sequence $\{a_n\}$ agrees with a function f at every positive integer, and if $f(x)$ approaches a limit L as $x \rightarrow \infty$, then the sequence must converge to the same limit L .



For $n > M$, the terms of the sequence all lie within ε units of L .

Figure 9.1

Limit of a Sequence

THEOREM 9.1 Limit of a Sequence

Let L be a real number. Let f be a function of a real variable such that

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} f(x) = L.$$

If $\{a_n\}$ is a sequence such that $f(n) = a_n$ for every positive integer n , then

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

Example 2 – *Finding the Limit of a Sequence*

Find the limit of the sequence whose n th term is

$$a_n = \left(1 + \frac{1}{n}\right)^n.$$

Solution:

You learned that $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \left(1 + \frac{1}{x}\right)^x = e$.

So, you can apply Theorem 9.1 to conclude that

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left(1 + \frac{1}{n}\right)^n = e.$$

Limit of a Sequence

There are different ways in which a sequence can fail to have a limit.

One way is that the terms of the sequence increase without bound or decrease without bound.

These cases are written symbolically, as shown below.

Terms increase without bound: $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = \infty$

Terms decrease without bound: $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = -\infty$

Limit of a Sequence

THEOREM 9.2 Properties of Limits of Sequences

Let $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = L$ and $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} b_n = K$.

1. Scalar multiple: $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (ca_n) = cL$, c is any real number.

2. Sum or difference: $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (a_n \pm b_n) = L \pm K$

3. Product: $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (a_n b_n) = LK$

4. Quotient: $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{a_n}{b_n} = \frac{L}{K}$, $b_n \neq 0$ and $K \neq 0$

Limit of a Sequence

The symbol $n!$ (read “ n factorial”) is used to simplify some of these formulas. Let n be a positive integer; then **n factorial** is defined as

$$n! = 1 \cdot 2 \cdot 3 \cdot 4 \cdots (n - 1) \cdot n.$$

As a special case, **zero factorial** is defined as $0! = 1$.

From this definition, you can see that $1! = 1$, $2! = 1 \cdot 2 = 2$, $3! = 1 \cdot 2 \cdot 3 = 6$, and so on.

Limit of a Sequence

Factorials follow the same conventions for order of operations as exponents. That is, just as $2x^3$ and $(2x)^3$ imply different order of operations, $2n!$ and $(2n)!$ imply the orders

$$2n! = 2(n!) = 2(1 \cdot 2 \cdot 3 \cdot 4 \cdots n)$$

and

$$(2n)! = 1 \cdot 2 \cdot 3 \cdot 4 \cdots n \cdot (n + 1) \cdots 2n$$

respectively.

Limit of a Sequence

Another useful limit theorem that can be rewritten for sequences is the Squeeze Theorem.

THEOREM 9.3 Squeeze Theorem for Sequences

If $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = L = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} b_n$ and there exists an integer N such that $a_n \leq c_n \leq b_n$ for all $n > N$, then $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} c_n = L$.

Example 5 – Using the Squeeze Theorem

Show that the sequence $\{c_n\} = \left\{(-1)^n \frac{1}{n!}\right\}$ converges, and find its limit.

Solution:

To apply the Squeeze Theorem, you must find two convergent sequences that can be related to $\{c_n\}$.

Two possibilities are $a_n = -1/2^n$ and $b_n = 1/2^n$, both of which converge to 0.

By comparing the term $n!$ with 2^n , you can see that

$$n! = 1 \cdot 2 \cdot 3 \cdot 4 \cdot 5 \cdot 6 \cdots n = 24 \cdot \underbrace{5 \cdot 6 \cdots n}_{n-4 \text{ factors}} \quad (n \geq 4)$$

and

$$2^n = 2 \cdot 2 \cdot 2 \cdot 2 \cdot 2 \cdot 2 \cdots 2 = 16 \cdot \underbrace{2 \cdot 2 \cdots 2}_{n-4 \text{ factors}} \quad (n \geq 4)$$

Example 5 – Solution

cont'd

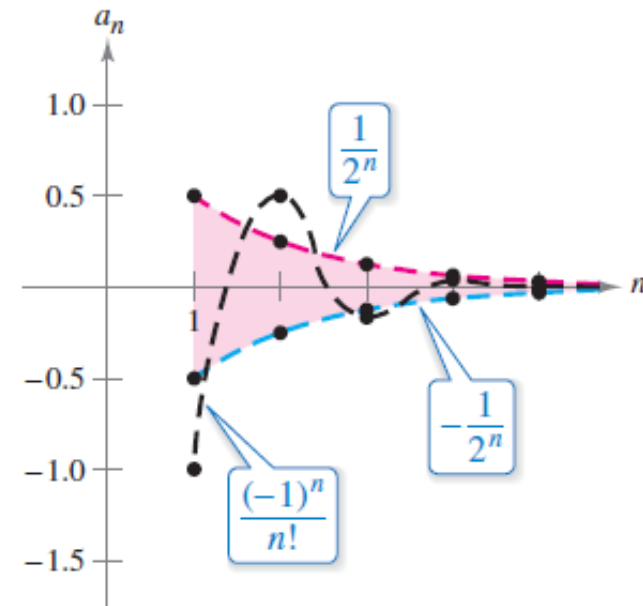
This implies that for $n \geq 4$, $2^n < n!$, and you have

$$\frac{-1}{2^n} \leq (-1)^n \frac{1}{n!} \leq \frac{1}{2^n}, \quad n \geq 4$$

as shown in Figure 9.2.

So, by the Squeeze Theorem, it follows that

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (-1)^n \frac{1}{n!} = 0.$$



For $n \geq 4$, $(-1)^n/n!$ is squeezed between $-1/2^n$ and $1/2^n$.

Figure 9.2

Limit of a Sequence

THEOREM 9.4 Absolute Value Theorem

For the sequence $\{a_n\}$, if

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} |a_n| = 0 \quad \text{then} \quad \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = 0.$$



Pattern Recognition for Sequences

Pattern Recognition for Sequences

Sometimes the terms of a sequence are generated by some rule that does not explicitly identify the n th term of the sequence.

In such cases, you may be required to discover a *pattern* in the sequence and to describe the n th term.

Once the n th term has been specified, you can investigate the convergence or divergence of the sequence.

Example 6 – Finding the n th Term of a Sequence

Find a sequence $\{a_n\}$ whose first five terms are

$$\frac{2}{1}, \frac{4}{3}, \frac{8}{5}, \frac{16}{7}, \frac{32}{9}, \dots$$

and then determine whether the sequence you have chosen converges or diverges.

Solution:

First, note that the numerators are successive powers of 2, and the denominators form the sequence of positive odd integers.

Example 6 – Solution

cont'd

By comparing a_n with n , you have the following pattern.

$$\frac{2^1}{1}, \frac{2^2}{3}, \frac{2^3}{5}, \frac{2^4}{7}, \frac{2^5}{9}, \dots, \frac{2^n}{2n-1}, \dots$$

Consider the function of a real variable $f(x) = 2^x/(2x - 1)$. Applying L'Hôpital's Rule produces

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{2^x}{2x - 1} = \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{2^x(\ln 2)}{2} = \infty.$$

Next, apply Theorem 9.1 to conclude that

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{2^n}{2n - 1} = \infty.$$

So, the sequence diverges.



Monotonic Sequences and Bounded Sequences

Monotonic Sequences and Bounded Sequences

Definition of Monotonic Sequence

A sequence $\{a_n\}$ is **monotonic** when its terms are nondecreasing

$$a_1 \leq a_2 \leq a_3 \leq \cdots \leq a_n \leq \cdots$$

or when its terms are nonincreasing

$$a_1 \geq a_2 \geq a_3 \geq \cdots \geq a_n \geq \cdots$$

Example 8 – Determining Whether a Sequence Is Monotonic

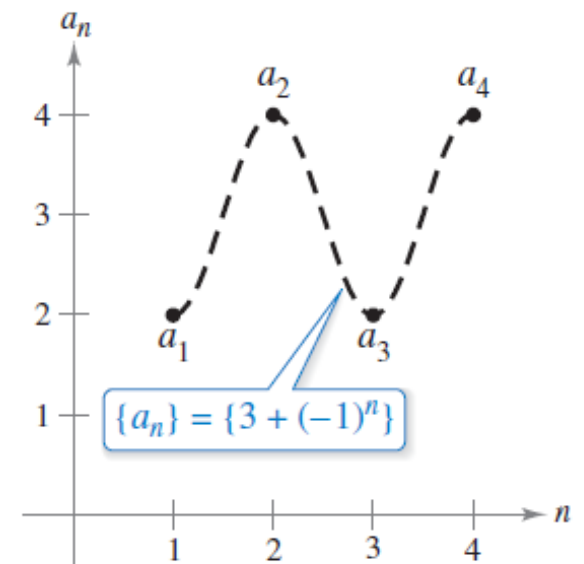
Determine whether each sequence having the given n th term is monotonic.

a. $a_n = 3 + (-1)^n$ b. $b_n = \frac{2n}{1+n}$ c. $c_n = \frac{n^2}{2^n - 1}$

Solution:

a. This sequence alternates between 2 and 4.

So, it is not monotonic.



(a) Not monotonic

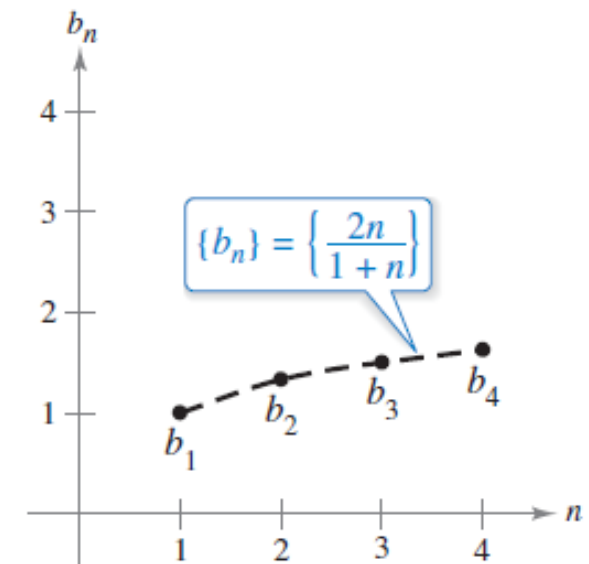
Example 8 – *Solution*

cont'd

- b. This sequence is monotonic because each successive term is larger than its predecessor.

To see this, compare the terms b_n and b_{n+1} .

[Note that, because n is positive, you can multiply each side of the inequality by $(1 + n)$ and $(2 + n)$ without reversing the inequality sign.]



(b) Monotonic

Example 8 – *Solution*

cont'd

$$b_n = \frac{2n}{1+n} \stackrel{?}{<} \frac{2(n+1)}{1+(n+1)} = b_{n+1}$$

$$2n(2+n) \stackrel{?}{<} (1+n)(2n+2)$$

$$4n + 2n^2 \stackrel{?}{<} 2 + 4n + 2n^2$$

$$0 < 2$$

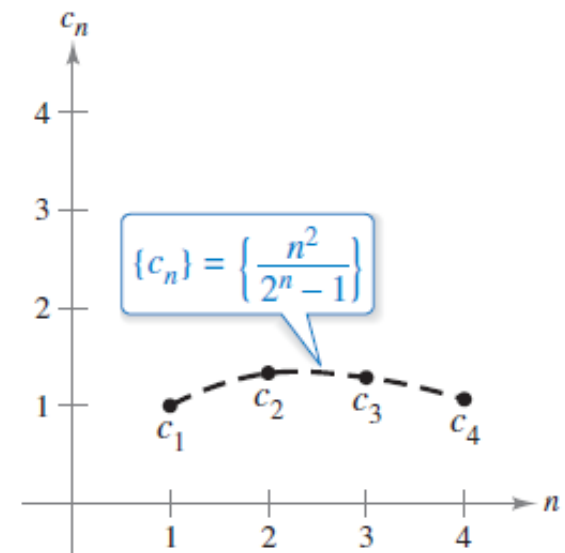
Starting with the final inequality, which is valid, you can reverse the steps to conclude that the original inequality is also valid.

Example 8 – Solution

cont'd

- c. This sequence is not monotonic, because the second term is greater than both the first term and the third term.

(Note that if you drop the first term, the remaining sequence c_2, c_3, c_4, \dots is monotonic.)



(c) Not monotonic

Figure 9.3

Monotonic Sequences and Bounded Sequences

Definition of Bounded Sequence

1. A sequence $\{a_n\}$ is **bounded above** when there is a real number M such that $a_n \leq M$ for all n . The number M is called an **upper bound** of the sequence.
2. A sequence $\{a_n\}$ is **bounded below** when there is a real number N such that $N \leq a_n$ for all n . The number N is called a **lower bound** of the sequence.
3. A sequence $\{a_n\}$ is **bounded** when it is bounded above and bounded below.

Monotonic Sequences and Bounded Sequences

One important property of the real numbers is that they are **complete**. Informally this means that there are no holes or gaps on the real number line. (The set of rational numbers does not have the completeness property.)

The completeness axiom for real numbers can be used to conclude that if a sequence has an upper bound, then it must have a **least upper bound** (an upper bound that is less than all other upper bounds for the sequence).

Monotonic Sequences and Bounded Sequences

For example, the least upper bound of the sequence

$$\{a_n\} = \{n/(n + 1)\},$$

$$\frac{1}{2}, \frac{2}{3}, \frac{3}{4}, \frac{4}{5}, \dots, \frac{n}{n+1}, \dots$$

is 1.

THEOREM 9.5 Bounded Monotonic Sequences

If a sequence $\{a_n\}$ is bounded and monotonic, then it converges.

Example 9 – *Bounded and Monotonic Sequences*

- a.** The sequence $\{a_n\} = \{1/n\}$ is both bounded and monotonic. So, by Theorem 9.5, it must converge.
- b.** The divergent sequence $\{b_n\} = \{n^2/(n + 1)\}$ is monotonic but not bounded. (It is bounded below.)
- c.** The divergent sequence $\{c_n\} = \{(-1)^n\}$ is bounded but not monotonic.