

Chapter 2 – Sequences and Series

Subject: Real Analysis **Level:** M.Sc.

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Sequence

A sequence is a function whose domain of definition is the set of natural numbers.

Or it can also be defined as an ordered set.

Notation:

An infinite sequence is denoted as

$$\{S_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty} \text{ or } \{S_n : n \in \mathbb{N}\} \text{ or } \{S_1, S_2, S_3, \dots\} \text{ or simply as } \{S_n\}$$

e.g. i) $\{n\} = \{1, 2, 3, \dots\}$

ii) $\left\{\frac{1}{n}\right\} = \left\{1, \frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{3}, \dots\right\}$

iii) $\{(-1)^{n+1}\} = \{1, -1, 1, -1, \dots\}$

Subsequence

It is a sequence whose terms are contained in given sequence.

A subsequence of $\{S_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$ is usually written as $\{S_{n_k}\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$.

Increasing Sequence

A sequence $\{S_n\}$ is said to be an increasing sequence if $S_{n+1} \geq S_n \quad \forall n \geq 1$.

Decreasing Sequence

A sequence $\{S_n\}$ is said to be a decreasing sequence if $S_{n+1} \leq S_n \quad \forall n \geq 1$.

Monotonic Sequence

A sequence $\{S_n\}$ is said to be a monotonic sequence if it is either increasing or decreasing.

$\{S_n\}$ is monotonically increasing if $S_{n+1} - S_n \geq 0$ or $\frac{S_{n+1}}{S_n} \geq 1, \quad \forall n \geq 1$

$\{S_n\}$ is monotonically decreasing if $S_n - S_{n+1} \geq 0$ or $\frac{S_n}{S_{n+1}} \geq 1, \quad \forall n \geq 1$

Strictly Increasing or Decreasing

$\{S_n\}$ is called strictly increasing or decreasing according as

$$S_{n+1} > S_n \text{ or } S_{n+1} < S_n \quad \forall n \geq 1.$$

Bernoulli's Inequality

Let $p \in \mathbb{R}$, $p \geq -1$ and $p \neq 0$ then for $n \geq 2$ we have

$$(1 + p)^n > 1 + np$$

Proof:

We shall use mathematical induction to prove this inequality.

If $n = 2$

$$L.H.S = (1 + p)^2 = 1 + 2p + p^2$$

$$R.H.S = 1 + 2p$$

$$\Rightarrow L.H.S > R.H.S$$

i.e. condition *I* of mathematical induction is satisfied.

Suppose $(1 + p)^k > 1 + kp$ (i) where $k \geq 2$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Now } (1 + p)^{k+1} &= (1 + p)(1 + p)^k \\ &> (1 + p)(1 + kp) && \text{using (i)} \\ &= 1 + kp + p + kp^2 \\ &= 1 + (k + 1)p + kp^2 \\ &\geq 1 + (k + 1)p && \text{ignoring } kp^2 \geq 0 \\ \Rightarrow (1 + p)^{k+1} &> 1 + (k + 1)p \end{aligned}$$

Since the truth for $n = k$ implies the truth for $n = k + 1$ therefore condition *II* of mathematical induction is satisfied. Hence we conclude that $(1 + p)^n > 1 + np$.

Example

$$\text{Let } S_n = \left(1 + \frac{1}{n}\right)^n \text{ where } n \geq 1$$

To prove that this sequence is an increasing sequence, we use $p = \frac{-1}{n^2}$, $n \geq 2$ in

Bernoulli's inequality to have

$$\begin{aligned} \left(1 - \frac{1}{n^2}\right)^n &> 1 - \frac{n}{n^2} \\ \Rightarrow \left(\left(1 - \frac{1}{n}\right)\left(1 + \frac{1}{n}\right)\right)^n &> 1 - \frac{1}{n} \\ \Rightarrow \left(1 + \frac{1}{n}\right)^n &> \left(1 - \frac{1}{n}\right)^{1-n} = \left(\frac{n-1}{n}\right)^{1-n} = \left(\frac{n}{n-1}\right)^{n-1} = \left(1 + \frac{1}{n-1}\right)^{n-1} \\ \Rightarrow S_n &> S_{n-1} \quad \forall n \geq 1 \end{aligned}$$

which shows that $\{S_n\}$ is increasing sequence.

Example

$$\text{Let } t_n = \left(1 + \frac{1}{n}\right)^{n+1} ; n \geq 1$$

then the sequence is decreasing sequence.

We use $p = \frac{1}{n^2 - 1}$ in Bernoulli's inequality.

$$\left(1 + \frac{1}{n^2 - 1}\right)^n > 1 + \frac{n}{n^2 - 1} \dots\dots\dots (i)$$

where

$$\begin{aligned} 1 + \frac{1}{n^2 - 1} &= \frac{n^2}{n^2 - 1} = \left(\frac{n}{n-1}\right)\left(\frac{n}{n+1}\right) \\ \Rightarrow \left(1 + \frac{1}{n^2 - 1}\right)\left(\frac{n+1}{n}\right) &= \left(\frac{n}{n-1}\right) \dots\dots\dots (ii) \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Now } t_{n-1} &= \left(1 + \frac{1}{n-1}\right)^n = \left(\frac{n}{n-1}\right)^n \\ &= \left(\left(1 + \frac{1}{n^2 - 1}\right)\left(\frac{n+1}{n}\right)\right)^n && \text{from (ii)} \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
&= \left(1 + \frac{1}{n^2 - 1}\right)^n \left(\frac{n+1}{n}\right)^n \\
&> \left(1 + \frac{n}{n^2 - 1}\right) \left(\frac{n+1}{n}\right)^n && \text{from (i)} \\
&> \left(1 + \frac{1}{n}\right) \left(\frac{n+1}{n}\right)^n && \because \frac{n}{n^2 - 1} > \frac{n}{n^2} = \frac{1}{n} \\
&= \left(\frac{n+1}{n}\right)^{n+1} = t_n
\end{aligned}$$

i.e. $t_{n-1} > t_n$

Hence the given sequence is decreasing sequence.

Bounded Sequence

A sequence $\{S_n\}$ is said to be bounded if there exists a positive real number I such that $|S_n| < I \quad \forall n \in \mathbb{N}$

If S and s are the supremum and infimum of elements forming the bounded sequence $\{S_n\}$ we write $S = \sup S_n$ and $s = \inf S_n$

All the elements of the sequence S_n such that $|S_n| < I \quad \forall n \in \mathbb{N}$ lie within the strip $\{y: -I < y < I\}$. But the elements of the unbounded sequence can not be contained in any strip of a finite width.

Examples

(i) $\{U_n\} = \left\{\frac{(-1)^n}{n}\right\}$ is a bounded sequence

(ii) $\{V_n\} = \{\sin nx\}$ is also bounded sequence. Its supremum is 1 and infimum is -1 .

(iii) The geometric sequence $\{ar^{n-1}\}$, $r > 1$ is an unbounded above sequence. It is bounded below by a .

(iv) $\left\{\tan \frac{np}{2}\right\}$ is an unbounded sequence.

Convergence of the Sequence

A sequence $\{S_n\}$ of real numbers is said to be convergent to limit 's' as $n \rightarrow \infty$, if for every positive real number $\epsilon > 0$, however small, there exists a positive integer n_0 , depending upon ϵ , such that $|S_n - s| < \epsilon \quad \forall n > n_0$.

Theorem

A convergent sequence of real number has one and only one limit (i.e. Limit of the sequence is unique.)

Proof:

Suppose $\{S_n\}$ converges to two limits s and t , where $s \neq t$.

Put $\epsilon = \frac{|s-t|}{2}$ then there exists two positive integers n_1 and n_2 such that

$$|S_n - s| < \epsilon \quad \forall n > n_1$$

$$\text{and } |S_n - t| < \epsilon \quad \forall n > n_2$$

$$\Rightarrow |S_n - s| < \epsilon \text{ and } |S_n - t| < \epsilon \text{ hold simultaneously } \forall n > \max(n_1, n_2).$$

Thus for all $n > \max(n_1, n_2)$ we have

$$|s - t| = |s - S_n + S_n - t|$$

$$\begin{aligned} &\leq |S_n - s| + |S_n - t| \\ &< e + e = 2e \\ \Rightarrow |s - t| &< 2 \left(\frac{|s - t|}{2} \right) \\ \Rightarrow |s - t| &< |s - t| \end{aligned}$$

Which is impossible, therefore the limit of the sequence is unique.

Note: If $\{S_n\}$ converges to s then all of its infinite subsequence converge to s .

Cauchy Sequence

A sequence $\{x_n\}$ of real number is said to be a *Cauchy sequence* if for given positive real number e , \exists a positive integer $n_0(e)$ such that

$$|x_n - x_m| < e \quad \forall m, n > n_0$$

Theorem

A Cauchy sequence of real numbers is bounded.

Proof

Let $\{S_n\}$ be a Cauchy sequence.

Take $e = 1$, then there exists a positive integers n_0 such that

$$|S_n - S_m| < 1 \quad \forall m, n > n_0.$$

Fix $m = n_0 + 1$ then

$$\begin{aligned} |S_n| &= |S_n - S_{n_0+1} + S_{n_0+1}| \\ &\leq |S_n - S_{n_0+1}| + |S_{n_0+1}| \\ &< 1 + |S_{n_0+1}| \quad \forall n > n_0 \\ &< I \quad \forall n > 1, \text{ and } I = 1 + |S_{n_0+1}| \quad (n_0 \text{ changes as } e \text{ changes}) \end{aligned}$$

Hence we conclude that $\{S_n\}$ is a Cauchy sequence, which is bounded one.

Note:

(i) Convergent sequence is bounded.

(ii) The converse of the above theorem does not hold.

i.e. every bounded sequence is not Cauchy.

Consider the sequence $\{S_n\}$ where $S_n = (-1)^n$, $n \geq 1$. It is bounded sequence because

$$|(-1)^n| = 1 < 2 \quad \forall n \geq 1$$

But it is not a Cauchy sequence if it is then for $e = 1$ we should be able to find a positive integer n_0 such that $|S_n - S_m| < 1$ for all $m, n > n_0$

But with $m = 2k + 1$, $n = 2k + 2$ when $2k + 1 > n_0$, we arrive at

$$\begin{aligned} |S_n - S_m| &= |(-1)^{2n+2} - (-1)^{2k+1}| \\ &= |1 + 1| = 2 < 1 \quad \text{is absurd.} \end{aligned}$$

Hence $\{S_n\}$ is not a Cauchy sequence. Also this sequence is not a convergent sequence. (it is an oscillatory sequence)

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Divergent Sequence

A $\{S_n\}$ is said to be divergent if it is not convergent or it is unbounded.

e.g. $\{n^2\}$ is divergent, it is unbounded.

(ii) $\{(-1)^n\}$ tends to 1 or -1 according as n is even or odd. It oscillates finitely.

(iii) $\{(-1)^n n\}$ is a divergent sequence. It oscillates infinitely.

Note: If two subsequence of a sequence converges to two different limits then the sequence itself is a divergent.

Theorem

If $S_n < U_n < t_n \quad \forall n \geq n_0$ and if both the $\{S_n\}$ and $\{t_n\}$ converge to same limits as s , then the sequence $\{U_n\}$ also converges to s .

Proof

Since the sequence $\{S_n\}$ and $\{t_n\}$ converge to the same limit s , therefore, for given $e > 0$ there exists two positive integers $n_1, n_2 > n_0$ such that

$$|S_n - s| < e \quad \forall n > n_1$$

$$|t_n - s| < e \quad \forall n > n_2$$

i.e. $s - e < S_n < s + e \quad \forall n > n_1$

$$s - e < t_n < s + e \quad \forall n > n_2$$

Since we have given

$$S_n < U_n < t_n \quad \forall n > n_0$$

$$\therefore s - e < S_n < U_n < t_n < s + e \quad \forall n > \max(n_0, n_1, n_2)$$

$$\Rightarrow s - e < U_n < s + e \quad \forall n > \max(n_0, n_1, n_2)$$

i.e. $|U_n - s| < e \quad \forall n > \max(n_0, n_1, n_2)$

i.e. $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} U_n = s$

Example

Show that $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} n^{\frac{1}{n}} = 1$

Solution

Using Bernoulli's Inequality

$$\left(1 + \frac{1}{\sqrt{n}}\right)^n \geq 1 + \frac{n}{\sqrt{n}} \geq \sqrt{n} \geq 1 \quad \forall n.$$

Also

$$\left(1 + \frac{1}{\sqrt{n}}\right)^2 = \left[\left(1 + \frac{1}{\sqrt{n}}\right)^n\right]^{\frac{2}{n}} > (\sqrt{n})^{\frac{2}{n}} > n^{\frac{1}{n}} \geq 1$$

$$\Rightarrow 1 \leq n^{\frac{1}{n}} < \left(1 + \frac{1}{\sqrt{n}}\right)^2$$

$$\Rightarrow \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} 1 \leq \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} n^{\frac{1}{n}} < \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left(1 + \frac{1}{\sqrt{n}}\right)^2$$

$$\Rightarrow 1 \leq \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} n^{\frac{1}{n}} < 1$$

i.e. $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} n^{\frac{1}{n}} = 1.$

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Example

Show that $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left(\frac{1}{(n+1)^2} + \frac{1}{(n+2)^2} + \dots + \frac{1}{(2n)^2} \right) = 0$

Solution

We have

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

and

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{n}{(2n)^2} &< S_n < \frac{n}{n^2} \\ \Rightarrow \frac{1}{4n} &< S_n < \frac{1}{n} \\ \Rightarrow \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{4n} &< \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} S_n < \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{n} \\ \Rightarrow 0 &< \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} S_n < 0 \\ \Rightarrow \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} S_n &= 0 \end{aligned}$$

Theorem

If the sequence $\{S_n\}$ converges to s then \exists a positive integer n such that $|S_n| > \frac{1}{2}s$.

Proof

We fix $e = \frac{1}{2}|s| > 0$

$\Rightarrow \exists$ a positive integer n_1 such that

$$|S_n - s| < e \quad \text{for } n > n_1$$

$$\Rightarrow |S_n - s| < \frac{1}{2}|s|$$

Now

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{1}{2}|s| &= |s| - \frac{1}{2}|s| \\ &< |s| - |S_n - s| \leq |s + (S_n - s)| \end{aligned}$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{1}{2}|s| < |S_n|$$

Theorem

Let a and b be fixed real numbers if $\{S_n\}$ and $\{t_n\}$ converge to s and t respectively, then

(i) $\{aS_n + bt_n\}$ converges to $as + bt$.

(ii) $\{S_n t_n\}$ converges to st .

(iii) $\left\{ \frac{S_n}{t_n} \right\}$ converges to $\frac{s}{t}$, provided $t_n \neq 0 \forall n$ and $t \neq 0$.

Proof

Since $\{S_n\}$ and $\{t_n\}$ converge to s and t respectively,

$$\therefore |S_n - s| < e \quad \forall n > n_1 \in \mathbb{N}$$

$$|t_n - t| < e \quad \forall n > n_2 \in \mathbb{N}$$

Also $\exists I > 0$ such that $|S_n| < I \quad \forall n > 1 \quad (\because \{S_n\} \text{ is bounded})$

(i) We have

$$\begin{aligned} |(aS_n + bt_n) - (as + bt)| &= |a(S_n - s) + b(t_n - t)| \\ &\leq |a(S_n - s)| + |b(t_n - t)| \\ &< |a|e + |b|e \quad \forall n > \max(n_1, n_2) \\ &= e_1 \quad \text{Where } e_1 = |a|e + |b|e \text{ a certain number.} \end{aligned}$$

This implies $\{aS_n + bt_n\}$ converges to $as + bt$.

$$\begin{aligned} \text{(ii)} \quad |S_n t_n - st| &= |S_n t_n - S_n t + S_n t - st| \\ &= |S_n(t_n - t) + t(S_n - s)| \leq |S_n| \cdot |t_n - t| + |t| \cdot |(S_n - s)| \\ &< Ie + |t|e \quad \forall n > \max(n_1, n_2) \\ &= e_2 \quad \text{where } e_2 = Ie + |t|e \text{ a certain number.} \end{aligned}$$

This implies $\{S_n t_n\}$ converges to st .

$$\begin{aligned} \text{(iii)} \quad \left| \frac{1}{t_n} - \frac{1}{t} \right| &= \left| \frac{t - t_n}{t_n t} \right| \\ &= \frac{|t_n - t|}{|t_n| |t|} < \frac{e}{\frac{1}{2}|t||t|} \quad \forall n > \max(n_1, n_2) \quad \because |t_n| > \frac{1}{2}t \\ &= \frac{e}{\frac{1}{2}|t|^2} = e_3 \quad \text{where } e_3 = \frac{e}{\frac{1}{2}|t|^2} \text{ a certain number.} \end{aligned}$$

This implies $\left\{ \frac{1}{t_n} \right\}$ converges to $\frac{1}{t}$.

Hence $\left\{ \frac{S_n}{t_n} \right\} = \left\{ S_n \cdot \frac{1}{t_n} \right\}$ converges to $s \cdot \frac{1}{t} = \frac{s}{t}$. (from (ii))

Theorem

For each irrational number x , there exists a sequence $\{r_n\}$ of distinct rational numbers such that $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} r_n = x$.

Proof

Since x and $x + 1$ are two different real numbers

$\therefore \exists$ a rational number r_1 such that

$$x < r_1 < x + 1$$

Similarly \exists a rational number $r_2 \neq r_1$ such that

$$x < r_2 < \min\left(r_1, x + \frac{1}{2}\right) < x + 1$$

Continuing in this manner we have

$$x < r_3 < \min\left(r_2, x + \frac{1}{3}\right) < x + 1$$

$$x < r_4 < \min\left(r_3, x + \frac{1}{4}\right) < x + 1$$

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$$x < r_n < \min\left(r_{n-1}, x + \frac{1}{n}\right) < x + 1$$

This implies that \exists a sequence $\{r_n\}$ of the distinct rational number such that

$$x - \frac{1}{n} < x < r_n < x + \frac{1}{n}$$

Since

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

Therefore

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} r_n = x$$

Theorem

Let a sequence $\{S_n\}$ be a bounded sequence.

- (i) If $\{S_n\}$ is monotonically increasing then it converges to its supremum.
- (ii) If $\{S_n\}$ is monotonically decreasing then it converges to its infimum.

Proof

Let $S = \sup S_n$ and $s = \inf S_n$

Take $e > 0$

(i) Since $S = \sup S_n$

$$\therefore \exists S_{n_0} \text{ such that } S - e < S_{n_0}$$

Since $\{S_n\}$ is \uparrow

(\uparrow stands for monotonically increasing)

$$\therefore S - e < S_{n_0} < S_n < S < S + e \quad \text{for } n > n_0$$

$$\Rightarrow S - e < S_n < S + e \quad \text{for } n > n_0$$

$$\Rightarrow |S_n - S| < e \quad \text{for } n > n_0$$

$$\Rightarrow \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} S_n = S$$

(ii) Since $s = \inf S_n$

$$\therefore \exists S_{n_1} \text{ such that } S_{n_1} < s + e$$

Since $\{S_n\}$ is \downarrow .

(\downarrow stands for monotonically decreasing)

$$\therefore s - e < s < S_n < S_{n_1} < s + e \quad \text{for } n > n_1$$

$$\Rightarrow s - e < S_n < s + e \quad \text{for } n > n_1$$

$$\Rightarrow |S_n - s| < e \quad \text{for } n > n_1$$

Thus $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} S_n = s$

Note

A monotonic sequence can not oscillate infinitely.

Example:

$$\text{Consider } \{S_n\} = \left\{ \left(1 + \frac{1}{n} \right)^n \right\}$$

As shown earlier it is an increasing sequence

$$\text{Take } S_{2n} = \left(1 + \frac{1}{2n} \right)^{2n}$$

$$\text{Then } \sqrt{S_{2n}} = \left(1 + \frac{1}{2n} \right)^n$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{1}{\sqrt{S_{2n}}} = \left(\frac{2n}{2n+1} \right)^n \quad \Rightarrow \frac{1}{\sqrt{S_{2n}}} = \left(1 - \frac{1}{2n+1} \right)^n$$

Using Bernoulli's Inequality we have

$$\begin{aligned} \Rightarrow \frac{1}{\sqrt{S_{2n}}} &\geq 1 - \frac{n}{2n+1} > 1 - \frac{n}{2n} = \frac{1}{2} && \because \left(1 - \frac{1}{2n+1}\right)^n \geq 1 - \frac{n}{2n+1} \\ \Rightarrow \sqrt{S_{2n}} &< 2 && \forall n=1,2,3,\dots \\ \Rightarrow S_{2n} &< 4 && \forall n=1,2,3,\dots \\ \Rightarrow S_n &< S_{2n} < 4 && \forall n=1,2,3,\dots \end{aligned}$$

Which show that the sequence $\{S_n\}$ is bounded one.

Hence $\{S_n\}$ is a convergent sequence the number to which it converges is its supremum, which is denoted by 'e' and $2 < e < 3$.

Recurrence Relation

A sequence is said to be defined *recursively* or *by recurrence relation* if the general term is given as a relation of its preceding and succeeding terms in the sequence together with some initial condition.

Example

Let $t_1 > 0$ and let $\{t_n\}$ be defined by $t_{n+1} > 2 - \frac{1}{t_n}$; $n \geq 1$

$$\Rightarrow t_n > 0 \quad \forall n \geq 1$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Also } t_n - t_{n+1} &= t_n - 2 + \frac{1}{t_n} \\ &= \frac{t_n^2 - 2t_n + 1}{t_n} = \frac{(t_n - 1)^2}{t_n} > 0 \\ \Rightarrow t_n &> t_{n+1} \quad \forall n \geq 1 \end{aligned}$$

This implies that t_n is monotonically decreasing.

$$\text{Since } t_n > 1 \quad \forall n \geq 1$$

$$\Rightarrow t_n \text{ is bounded below} \quad \Rightarrow t_n \text{ is convergent.}$$

Let us suppose $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} t_n = t$

$$\text{Then } \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} t_{n+1} = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} t_n$$

$$\Rightarrow \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left(2 - \frac{1}{t_n}\right) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} t_n$$

$$\Rightarrow 2 - \frac{1}{t} = t \quad \Rightarrow \frac{2t-1}{t} = t \quad \Rightarrow 2t-1 = t^2 \quad \Rightarrow t^2 - 2t + 1 = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow (t-1)^2 = 0 \quad \Rightarrow t = 1$$

Example

Let $\{S_n\}$ be defined by $S_{n+1} = \sqrt{S_n + b}$; $n \geq 1$ and $S_1 = a > b$.

It is clear that $S_n > 0 \quad \forall n \geq 1$ and $S_2 > S_1$ and

$$\begin{aligned} S_{n+1}^2 - S_n^2 &= (S_n + b) - (S_{n-1} + b) \\ &= S_n - S_{n-1} \end{aligned}$$

$$\Rightarrow (S_{n+1} + S_n)(S_{n+1} - S_n) = S_n - S_{n-1}$$

$$\Rightarrow S_{n+1} - S_n = \frac{S_n - S_{n-1}}{S_{n+1} + S_n}$$

Since $S_{n+1} + S_n > 0 \quad \forall n \geq 1$

Therefore $S_{n+1} - S_n$ and $S_n - S_{n-1}$ have the same sign.

i.e. $S_{n+1} > S_n$ if and only if $S_n > S_{n-1}$ and

$S_{n+1} < S_n$ if and only if $S_n < S_{n-1}$.

But we know that $S_2 > S_1$ therefore $S_3 > S_2$, $S_4 > S_3$, and so on.

This implies the sequence is an increasing sequence.

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Also } S_{n+1}^2 - S_n^2 &= (\sqrt{S_n + b})^2 - S_n^2 = S_n + b - S_n^2 \\ &= -(S_n^2 - S_n - b) \end{aligned}$$

Since $S_n > 0 \quad \forall n \geq 1$, therefore S_n is the root (+ive) of the

$$S_n^2 - S_n - b = 0$$

Take this value of S_n as a where $a = \frac{1 + \sqrt{1 + 4b}}{2}$

the other root of equation is therefore $\frac{-b}{a}$

Since $S_{n+1} > S_n \quad \forall n \geq 1$

$$\text{Also } -(S_n - a) \left(S_n + \frac{b}{a} \right) = S_{n+1}^2 - S_n^2 > 0$$

$$\therefore S_n + \frac{b}{a} > 0 \quad \text{or} \quad -(S_n - a) \geq 0$$

$$\Rightarrow S_n < a \quad \forall n \geq 1$$

which shows that S_n is bounded and hence it is convergent.

Suppose $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} S_n = s$

Then $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (S_{n+1})^2 = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (S_n + b)$

$$\Rightarrow s^2 = s + b \quad \Rightarrow s^2 - s - b = 0$$

Which shows that $a = \frac{1 + \sqrt{1 + 4b}}{2}$ is the limit of the sequence.

For equation $ax^2 + bx + c = 0$

The product of roots is $ab = \frac{c}{a}$

i.e. the other root $b = \frac{c}{aa}$

Theorem

Every Cauchy sequence of real numbers has a convergent subsequence.

Proof

Suppose $\{S_n\}$ is a Cauchy sequence.

Let $\epsilon > 0$ then \exists a positive integer $n_0 \geq 1$ such that

$$|S_{n_k} - S_{n_{k-1}}| < \frac{\epsilon}{2^k} \quad \forall n_k, n_{k-1}, k = 1, 2, 3, \dots$$

Put $b_k = (S_{n_1} - S_{n_0}) + (S_{n_2} - S_{n_1}) + \dots + (S_{n_k} - S_{n_{k-1}})$

$$\Rightarrow |b_k| = |(S_{n_1} - S_{n_0}) + (S_{n_2} - S_{n_1}) + \dots + (S_{n_k} - S_{n_{k-1}})|$$

$$\leq |(S_{n_1} - S_{n_0})| + |(S_{n_2} - S_{n_1})| + \dots + |(S_{n_k} - S_{n_{k-1}})|$$

$$< \frac{\epsilon}{2} + \frac{\epsilon}{2^2} + \dots + \frac{\epsilon}{2^k}$$

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

$$\Rightarrow |b_k| < \epsilon \quad \forall k \geq 1$$

$\Rightarrow \{b_k\}$ is convergent

$$\therefore b_k = S_{n_k} - S_{n_0} \quad \therefore S_{n_k} = b_k + S_{n_0}$$

Where S_{n_0} is a certain fix number therefore $\{S_{n_k}\}$ which is a subsequence of $\{S_n\}$ is convergent.

Theorem (Cauchy's General Principle for Convergence)

A sequence of real number is convergent if and only if it is a Cauchy sequence.

Proof**Necessary Condition**

Let $\{S_n\}$ be a convergent sequence, which converges to s .

Then for given $\epsilon > 0 \exists$ a positive integer n_0 , such that

$$|S_n - s| < \frac{\epsilon}{2} \quad \forall n > n_0$$

Now for $n > m > n_0$

$$\begin{aligned} |S_n - S_m| &= |S_n - s + S_m - s| \\ &\leq |S_n - s| + |S_m - s| \\ &< \frac{\epsilon}{2} + \frac{\epsilon}{2} = \epsilon \end{aligned}$$

Which shows that $\{S_n\}$ is a Cauchy sequence.

Sufficient Condition

Let us suppose that $\{S_n\}$ is a Cauchy sequence then for $\epsilon > 0$, \exists a positive integer m_1 such that

$$|S_n - S_m| < \frac{\epsilon}{2} \quad \forall n, m > m_1 \dots\dots\dots (i)$$

Since $\{S_n\}$ is a Cauchy sequence

therefore it has a subsequence $\{S_{n_k}\}$ converging to s (say).

$\Rightarrow \exists$ a positive integer m_2 such that

$$|S_{n_k} - s| < \frac{\epsilon}{2} \quad \forall n > m_2 \dots\dots\dots (ii)$$

Now

$$\begin{aligned} |S_n - s| &= |S_n - S_{n_k} + S_{n_k} - s| \\ &\leq |S_n - S_{n_k}| + |S_{n_k} - s| \\ &< \frac{\epsilon}{2} + \frac{\epsilon}{2} = \epsilon \quad \forall n > \max(m_1, m_2) \end{aligned}$$

which shows that $\{S_n\}$ is a convergent sequence.

Example

Let $\{S_n\}$ be define by $0 < a < S_1 < S_2 < b$ and also

$$S_{n+1} = \sqrt{S_n \cdot S_{n-1}}, \quad n > 2 \dots\dots\dots (i)$$

Here $S_n > 0$, $\forall n \geq 1$ and $a < S_1 < b$

Let for some $k > 2$

$$a < S_k < b$$

then $a^2 < aS_k < S_k S_{k-1} = (S_{k+1})^2 < b^2$

$$\because S_{n+1} = \sqrt{S_n S_{n-1}}$$

i.e. $a^2 < S_{k+1}^2 < b^2$

$$\Rightarrow a < S_{k+1} < b$$

$$\Rightarrow a < S_n < b \quad \forall n \in \mathbb{N}$$

$$\because \frac{S_n}{S_{n+1}} > \frac{a}{b}$$

$$\therefore \frac{S_n}{S_{n+1}} + 1 > \frac{a}{b} + 1$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{S_n + S_{n+1}}{S_{n+1}} > \frac{a+b}{b}$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{S_n + S_{n+1}}{S_n} > \frac{a+b}{b} \quad S_{n+1} \text{ is replace by } S_n \quad \therefore S_n < S_{n+1}$$

And $S_{n+1}^2 - S_n^2 = S_n \cdot S_{n+1} - S_n^2 \quad \because S_{n+1} = \sqrt{S_n S_{n+1}}$
 $= S_n (S_{n+1} - S_n)$

$$\Rightarrow |S_{n+1} - S_n| = \frac{S_n}{S_n + S_{n+1}} |S_{n+1} - S_n|$$

$$< \frac{b}{a+b} |S_{n+1} - S_n|$$

$$\Rightarrow |S_{n+1} - S_n| < \frac{b}{a+b} |S_n - S_{n-1}| \quad \because |S_{n-1} - S_n| = |S_n - S_{n-1}|$$

$$< \left(\frac{b}{a+b}\right)^2 |S_{n-1} - S_{n-2}|$$

$$< \left(\frac{b}{a+b}\right)^3 |S_{n-2} - S_{n-3}|$$

.....

$$< \left(\frac{b}{a+b}\right)^{n-1} (b-a)$$

Take $r = \frac{b}{a+b} < 1$

Then for $n > m$ we have

$$|S_n - S_m| = |S_n - S_{n-1} + S_{n-1} - S_{n-2} + \dots + S_{m+1} - S_m|$$

$$\leq |S_n - S_{n-1}| + |S_{n-1} - S_{n-2}| + \dots + |S_{m+1} - S_m|$$

$$< (r^{n-2} + r^{n-3} + \dots + r^{m-1})(b-a)$$

$$= e$$

This implies that $\{S_n\}$ is a Cauchy sequence, therefore it is convergent.

Example

Let $\{t_n\}$ be defined by

$$t_n = 1 + \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{3} + \dots + \frac{1}{n}$$

For $m, n \in \mathbb{N}, n > m$ we have

$$|t_n - t_m| = \frac{1}{m+1} + \frac{1}{m+2} + \dots + \frac{1}{n}$$

$$> (n-m) \frac{1}{n} = 1 - \frac{m}{n}$$

In particular if $n = 2m$ then

$$|t_n - t_m| > \frac{1}{2}$$

This implies that $\{t_n\}$ is not a Cauchy sequence therefore it is divergent.



Theorem (nested intervals)

Suppose that $\{I_n\}$ is a sequence of the closed interval such that $I_n = [a_n, b_n]$, $I_{n+1} \subset I_n \forall n \geq 1$, and $(b_n - a_n) \rightarrow 0$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$ then $\bigcap I_n$ contains one and only one point.

Proof

Since $I_{n+1} \subset I_n$

$$\therefore a_1 < a_2 < a_3 < \dots < a_{n-1} < a_n < b_n < b_{n-1} < \dots < b_3 < b_2 < b_1$$

$\{a_n\}$ is increasing sequence, bounded above by b_1 and bounded below by a_1 .

And $\{b_n\}$ is decreasing sequence bounded below by a_1 and bounded above by b_1 .

$\Rightarrow \{a_n\}$ and $\{b_n\}$ both are convergent.

Suppose $\{a_n\}$ converges to a and $\{b_n\}$ converges to b .

$$\begin{aligned} \text{But } |a - b| &= |a - a_n + a_n - b_n + b_n - b| \\ &\leq |a_n - a| + |a_n - b_n| + |b_n - b| \rightarrow 0 \text{ as } n \rightarrow \infty. \\ &\Rightarrow a = b \end{aligned}$$

and $a_n < a < b_n \forall n \geq 1$.

Theorem (Bolzano-Weierstrass theorem)

Every bounded sequence has a convergent subsequence.

Proof

Let $\{S_n\}$ be a bounded sequence.

Take $a_1 = \inf S_n$ and $b_1 = \sup S_n$

Then $a_1 < S_n < b_1 \forall n \geq 1$.

Now bisect interval $[a_1, b_1]$ such that at least one of the two sub-intervals contains infinite numbers of terms of the sequence.

Denote this sub-interval by $[a_2, b_2]$.

If both the sub-intervals contain infinite number of terms of the sequence then choose the one on the right hand.

Then clearly $a_1 \leq a_2 < b_2 \leq b_1$.

Suppose there exist a subinterval $[a_k, b_k]$ such that

$$\begin{aligned} a_1 \leq a_2 \leq \dots \leq a_k < b_k \leq \dots \leq b_2 \leq b_1 \\ \Rightarrow (b_k - a_k) = \frac{1}{2^k} (b_1 - a_1) \end{aligned}$$

Bisect the interval $[a_k, b_k]$ in the same manner and choose $[a_{k+1}, b_{k+1}]$ to have

$$a_1 \leq a_2 \leq \dots \leq a_k \leq a_{k+1} < b_{k+1} \leq b_k \leq \dots \leq b_2 \leq b_1$$

and $b_{k+1} - a_{k+1} = \frac{1}{2^{k+1}} (b_1 - a_1)$

This implies that we obtain a sequence of interval $[a_n, b_n]$ such that

$$b_n - a_n = \frac{1}{2^n} (b_1 - a_1) \rightarrow 0 \text{ as } n \rightarrow \infty.$$

\Rightarrow we have a unique point s such that

$$s = \bigcap [a_n, b_n]$$

there are infinitely many terms of the sequence whose length is $\epsilon > 0$ that contain s .

For $\epsilon = 1$ there are infinitely many values of n such that

$$|S_n - s| < 1$$

Let n_1 be one of such value then

$$|S_{n_1} - s| < 1$$

Again choose $n_2 > n_1$ such that

$$|S_{n_2} - s| < \frac{1}{2}$$

Continuing in this manner we find a sequence $\{S_{n_k}\}$ for each positive integer k such that $n_k < n_{k+1}$ and

$$|S_{n_k} - s| < \frac{1}{k} \quad \forall k = 1, 2, 3, \dots$$

Hence there is a subsequence $\{S_{n_k}\}$ which converges to s .

Limit Inferior of the sequence

Suppose $\{S_n\}$ is bounded then we define limit inferior of $\{S_n\}$ as follow

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (\inf S_n) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} U_k \quad \text{where } U_k = \inf \{S_n : n \geq k\}$$

If S_n is bounded below then

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (\inf S_n) = -\infty$$

Limit Superior of the sequence

Suppose $\{S_n\}$ is bounded above then we define limit superior of $\{S_n\}$ as follow

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (\sup S_n) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} V_k \quad \text{where } V_k = \sup \{S_n : n \geq k\}$$

If S_n is not bounded above then we have

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (\sup S_n) = +\infty$$

Note:

(i) A bounded sequence has unique limit inferior and superior

(ii) Let $\{S_n\}$ contains all the rational numbers, then every real number is a subsequential limit then limit superior of S_n is $+\infty$ and limit inferior of S_n is $-\infty$

(iii) Let $\{S_n\} = (-1)^n \left(1 + \frac{1}{n}\right)$

then limit superior of S_n is 1 and limit inferior of S_n is -1.

(iv) Let $U_k = \inf \{S_n : n \geq k\}$

$$= \inf \left\{ \left(1 + \frac{1}{k}\right) \cos kp, \left(1 + \frac{1}{k+1}\right) \cos(k+1)p, \left(1 + \frac{1}{k+2}\right) \cos(k+2)p, \dots \right\}$$

$$= \begin{cases} \left(1 + \frac{1}{k}\right) \cos kp & \text{if } k \text{ is odd} \\ \left(1 + \frac{1}{k+1}\right) \cos(k+1)p & \text{if } k \text{ is even} \end{cases}$$

$$\Rightarrow \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (\inf S_n) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} U_k = -1$$

Also $V_k = \sup \{S_n : n \geq k\}$

$$= \begin{cases} \left(1 + \frac{1}{k+1}\right) \cos(k+1)p & \text{if } k \text{ is odd} \\ \left(1 + \frac{1}{k}\right) \cos kp & \text{if } k \text{ is even} \end{cases}$$

$$\Rightarrow \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (\sup S_n) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} V_k = 1$$

⋮.....⋮

Theorem

If $\{S_n\}$ is a convergent sequence then

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} S_n = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (\inf S_n) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (\sup S_n)$$

Proof

Let $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} S_n = s$ then for a real number $\epsilon > 0$, \exists a positive integer n_0 such that

$$|S_n - s| < \epsilon \quad \forall n \geq n_0 \dots\dots\dots (i)$$

$$\text{i.e.} \quad s - \epsilon < S_n < s + \epsilon \quad \forall n \geq n_0$$

If $V_k = \sup\{S_n : n \geq k\}$

Then $s - \epsilon < V_n < s + \epsilon \quad \forall k \geq n_0$

$$\Rightarrow s - \epsilon < \lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} V_n < s + \epsilon \quad \forall k \geq n_0 \dots\dots\dots (ii)$$

from (i) and (ii) we have

$$s = \lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} \sup\{S_n\}$$

We can have the same result for limit inferior of $\{S_n\}$ by taking

$$U_k = \inf\{S_n : n \geq k\}$$

$\ni \dots\dots\dots \leq$

Infinite Series

Given a sequence $\{a_n\}$, we use the notation $\sum_{i=1}^{\infty} a_n$ or simply $\sum a_n$ to denote the sum $a_1 + a_2 + a_3 + \dots$ and called a infinite series or just series.

The numbers $S_n = \sum_{k=1}^n a_k$ are called the partial sum of the series.

If the sequence $\{S_n\}$ converges to s , we say that the series converges and write

$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n = s$, the number s is called the sum of the series but it should be clearly

understood that the 's' is the limit of the sequence of sums and is not obtained simply by addition.

If the sequence $\{S_n\}$ diverges then the series is said to be diverge.

Note:

The behaviors of the series remain unchanged by addition or deletion of the certain terms

Theorem

If $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$ converges then $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = 0$.

Proof

Let $S_n = a_1 + a_2 + a_3 + \dots + a_n$

Take $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} S_n = s = \sum a_n$

Since $a_n = S_n - S_{n-1}$

Therefore $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (S_n - S_{n-1})$
 $= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} S_n - \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} S_{n-1}$
 $= s - s = 0$

Note:

The converse of the above theorem is false

Example

Consider the series $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n}$.

We know that the sequence $\{S_n\}$ where $S_n = 1 + \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{3} + \dots + \frac{1}{n}$ is divergent

therefore $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n}$ is divergent series, although $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = 0$.

This implies that if $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n \neq 0$, then $\sum a_n$ is divergent.

It is know as basic divergent test.

Theorem (General Principle of Convergence)

A series $\sum a_n$ is convergent if and only if for any real number $e > 0$, there exists a positive integer n_0 such that

$$\left| \sum_{i=m+1}^{\infty} a_i \right| < e \quad \forall n > m > n_0$$

Proof

Let $S_n = a_1 + a_2 + a_3 + \dots + a_n$

then $\{S_n\}$ is convergent if and only if for $e > 0 \exists$ a positive integer n_0 such that

$$|S_n - S_m| < e \quad \forall n > m > n_0$$

$$\Rightarrow \left| \sum_{i=m+1}^{\infty} a_i \right| = |S_n - S_m| < e$$

Example

If $|x| < 1$ then $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} x^n = \frac{1}{1-x}$

And if $|x| \geq 1$ then $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} x^n$ is divergent.

Theorem

Let $\sum a_n$ be an infinite series of non-negative terms and let $\{S_n\}$ be a sequence of its partial sums then $\sum a_n$ is convergent if $\{S_n\}$ is bounded and it diverges if $\{S_n\}$ is unbounded.

Proof

Since $a_n \geq 0 \quad \forall n \geq 0$

$$S_n = S_{n-1} + a_n > S_{n-1} \quad \forall n \geq 0$$

therefore the sequence $\{S_n\}$ is monotonic increasing and hence it converges if $\{S_n\}$ is bounded and it will diverge if it is unbounded.

Hence we conclude that $\sum a_n$ is convergent if $\{S_n\}$ is bounded and it divergent if $\{S_n\}$ is unbounded.

Theorem (Comparison Test)

Suppose $\sum a_n$ and $\sum b_n$ are infinite series such that $a_n > 0, b_n > 0 \quad \forall n$. Also suppose that for a fixed positive number l and positive integer $k, a_n < l b_n \quad \forall n \geq k$

Then $\sum a_n$ converges if $\sum b_n$ is converges and $\sum b_n$ is diverges if $\sum a_n$ is diverges.

Proof

Suppose $\sum b_n$ is convergent and

$$a_n < l b_n \quad \forall n \geq k \dots\dots\dots (i)$$

then for any positive number $e > 0$ there exists n_0 such that

$$\sum_{i=m+1}^n b_i < \frac{e}{l} \quad n > m > n_0$$

from (i)

$$\Rightarrow \sum_{i=m+1}^n a_i < l \sum_{i=m+1}^n b_i < e \quad , \quad n > m > n_0$$

$$\Rightarrow \sum a_n \text{ is convergent.}$$

Now suppose $\sum a_n$ is divergent then $\{S_n\}$ is unbounded.

$\Rightarrow \exists$ a real number $b > 0$ such that

$$\sum_{i=m+1}^n b_i > l b \quad , \quad n > m$$

from (i)

$$\Rightarrow \sum_{i=m+1}^n b_i > \frac{1}{l} \sum_{i=m+1}^n a_i > b \quad , \quad n > m$$

$$\Rightarrow \sum b_n \text{ is convergent.}$$

Example

We know that $\sum \frac{1}{n}$ is divergent and

$$n \geq \sqrt{n} \quad \forall n \geq 1$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{1}{n} \leq \frac{1}{\sqrt{n}}$$

$\Rightarrow \sum \frac{1}{\sqrt{n}}$ is divergent as $\sum \frac{1}{n}$ is divergent.

Example

The series $\sum \frac{1}{n^a}$ is convergent if $a > 1$ and diverges if $a \leq 1$.

$$\text{Let } S_n = 1 + \frac{1}{2^a} + \frac{1}{3^a} + \dots + \frac{1}{n^a}$$

If $a > 1$ then

$$S_n < S_{2n} \quad \text{and} \quad \frac{1}{n^a} < \frac{1}{(n-1)^a}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Now } S_{2n} &= \left[1 + \frac{1}{2^a} + \frac{1}{3^a} + \frac{1}{4^a} + \dots + \frac{1}{(2n)^a} \right] \\ &= \left[1 + \frac{1}{3^a} + \frac{1}{5^a} + \dots + \frac{1}{(2n-1)^a} \right] + \left[\frac{1}{2^a} + \frac{1}{4^a} + \frac{1}{6^a} + \dots + \frac{1}{(2n)^a} \right] \\ &= \left[1 + \frac{1}{3^a} + \frac{1}{5^a} + \dots + \frac{1}{(2n-1)^a} \right] + \frac{1}{2^a} \left[1 + \frac{1}{2^a} + \frac{1}{3^a} + \dots + \frac{1}{(n)^a} \right] \\ &< \left[1 + \frac{1}{2^a} + \frac{1}{4^a} + \dots + \frac{1}{(2n-2)^a} \right] + \frac{1}{2^a} S_n \end{aligned}$$

replacing 3 by 2, 5 by 4 and so on.

$$= 1 + \frac{1}{2^a} \left[1 + \frac{1}{2^a} + \dots + \frac{1}{(n-1)^a} \right] + \frac{1}{2^a} S_n$$

$$= 1 + \frac{1}{2^a} S_{n-1} + \frac{1}{2^a} S_n = 1 + \frac{1}{2^a} S_{2n} + \frac{1}{2^a} S_{2n} \quad \because S_{n-1} < S_n < S_{2n}$$

$$= 1 + \frac{2}{2^a} S_{2n}$$

$$\Rightarrow S_{2n} < 1 + \frac{1}{2^{a-1}} S_{2n}$$

$$\Rightarrow \left(1 - \frac{1}{2^{a-1}} \right) S_{2n} < 1 \Rightarrow \left(\frac{2^{a-1} - 1}{2^{a-1}} \right) S_{2n} < 1 \Rightarrow S_{2n} < \frac{2^{a-1}}{2^{a-1} - 1}$$

$$\text{i.e. } S_n < S_{2n} < \frac{2^{a-1}}{2^{a-1} - 1}$$

$\Rightarrow \{S_n\}$ is bounded and also monotonic. Hence we conclude that $\sum \frac{1}{n^a}$ is

convergent when $a > 1$.

If $a \leq 1$ then

$$n^a \leq n \quad \forall n \geq 1$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{1}{n^a} \geq \frac{1}{n} \quad \forall n \geq 1$$

$\because \sum \frac{1}{n}$ is divergent therefore $\sum \frac{1}{n^a}$ is divergent when $a \leq 1$.

Theorem

Let $a_n > 0$, $b_n > 0$ and $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{a_n}{b_n} = l \neq 0$ then the series $\sum a_n$ and $\sum b_n$ behave alike.

Proof

Since $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{a_n}{b_n} = l$

$$\Rightarrow \left| \frac{a_n}{b_n} - l \right| < e \quad \forall n \geq n_0.$$

Use $e = \frac{1}{2}$

$$\Rightarrow \left| \frac{a_n}{b_n} - l \right| < \frac{1}{2} \quad \forall n \geq n_0.$$

$$\Rightarrow l - \frac{1}{2} < \frac{a_n}{b_n} < l + \frac{1}{2}$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{l}{2} < \frac{a_n}{b_n} < \frac{3l}{2}$$

then we got

$$a_n < \frac{3l}{2} b_n \quad \text{and} \quad b_n < \frac{2}{l} a_n$$

Hence by comparison test we conclude that $\sum a_n$ and $\sum b_n$ converge or diverge together.

Example

To check $\sum \frac{1}{n} \sin^2 \frac{x}{n}$ diverges or converges consider

$$a_n = \frac{1}{n} \sin^2 \frac{x}{n} \quad \text{and take} \quad b_n = \frac{1}{n^3}$$

then $\frac{a_n}{b_n} = n^2 \sin^2 \frac{x}{n}$

$$= \frac{\sin^2 \frac{x}{n}}{\frac{1}{n^2}} = x^2 \left(\frac{\sin \frac{x}{n}}{\frac{x}{n}} \right)^2$$

Applying limit as $n \rightarrow \infty$

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{a_n}{b_n} = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} x^2 \left(\frac{\sin \frac{x}{n}}{\frac{x}{n}} \right)^2 = x^2 \left(\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\sin \frac{x}{n}}{\frac{x}{n}} \right)^2 = x^2 (1)^2 = x^2$$

$\Rightarrow \sum a_n$ and $\sum b_n$ have the similar behavior \forall finite values of x except $x = 0$.

Since $\sum \frac{1}{n^3}$ is convergent series therefore the given series is also convergent for finite values of x except $x = 0$.

⋈.....⋈

Theorem (Cauchy Condensation Test)

Let $a_n \geq 0$, $a_n > a_{n+1} \forall n \geq 1$, then the series $\sum a_n$ and $\sum 2^{n-1} a_{2^{n-1}}$ converges or diverges together.

Proof

Let us suppose

$$S_n = a_1 + a_2 + a_3 + \dots + a_n$$

and $t_n = a_1 + 2a_2 + 2^2 a_{2^2} + \dots + 2^{n-1} a_{2^{n-1}}$.

$$\because a_n \geq 0 \text{ and } n < 2^{n-1} < 2^n - 1$$

$$\therefore S_n < S_{2^{n-1}} < S_{2^n - 1} \text{ for } n > 2$$

then

$$\begin{aligned} S_{2^n - 1} &= a_1 + a_2 + a_3 + \dots + a_{2^n - 1} \\ &= a_1 + (a_2 + a_3) + (a_4 + a_5 + a_6 + a_7) + \dots + (a_{2^{n-1}} + a_{2^{n-1}+1} + a_{2^{n-1}+2} + \dots + a_{2^n - 1}) \\ &< a_1 + (a_2 + a_2) + (a_4 + a_4 + a_4 + a_4) + \dots + (a_{2^{n-1}} + a_{2^{n-1}} + a_{2^{n-1}} + \dots + a_{2^{n-1}}) \\ &< a_1 + 2a_2 + 2^2 a_4 + \dots + 2^{n-1} a_{2^{n-1}} = t_n \end{aligned}$$

$$\Rightarrow S_n < t_n$$

$$\Rightarrow S_n < t_n < 2S_{2^n} \dots \dots \dots (i)$$

Now consider

$$\begin{aligned} S_{2^n} &= a_1 + a_2 + a_3 + \dots + a_{2^n} \\ &= a_1 + a_2 + (a_3 + a_4) + (a_5 + a_6 + a_7 + a_8) + \dots + (a_{2^{n-1}+1} + a_{2^{n-1}+2} + a_{2^{n-1}+3} + \dots + a_{2^n}) \\ &> \frac{1}{2} a_1 + a_2 + (a_4 + a_4) + (a_8 + a_8 + a_8 + a_8) + \dots + (a_{2^n} + a_{2^n} + a_{2^n} + \dots + a_{2^n}) \\ &= \frac{1}{2} a_1 + a_2 + 2a_4 + 2^2 a_8 + \dots + 2^{n-1} a_{2^n} \\ &= \frac{1}{2} (a_1 + 2a_2 + 2^3 a_4 + 2^3 a_8 + \dots + 2^n a_{2^n}) \end{aligned}$$

$$\Rightarrow S_{2^n} > \frac{1}{2} t_n \dots \dots \dots (ii)$$

$$\Rightarrow 2S_{2^n} > t_n$$

From (i) and (ii) we see that the sequence S_n and t_n are either both bounded or both unbounded, implies that $\sum a_n$ and $\sum 2^{n-1} a_{2^{n-1}}$ converges or diverges together.

Example

Consider the series $\sum \frac{1}{n^p}$

If $p \leq 0$ then $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{n^p} \neq 0$

therefore the series diverges when $p \leq 0$.

If $p > 0$ then the condensation test is applicable and we are lead to the series

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} 2^k \frac{1}{(2^k)^p} &= \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{2^{kp-k}} \\ &= \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{2^{(p-1)k}} = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \left(\frac{1}{2^{(p-1)}} \right)^k \\ &= \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} 2^{(1-p)k} \end{aligned}$$

Now $2^{1-p} < 1$ iff $1-p < 0$ i.e. when $p > 1$

And the result follows by comparing this series with the geometric series having common ratio less than one.

The series diverges when $2^{1-p} = 1$ (i.e. when $p = 1$)

The series is also divergent if $0 < p < 1$.

Example

If $p > 1$, $\sum_{n=2}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n(\ln n)^p}$ converges and

If $p \leq 1$ the series is divergent.

$\therefore \{\ln n\}$ is increasing $\therefore \left\{ \frac{1}{n \ln n} \right\}$ decreases

and we can use the condensation test to the above series.

We have $a_n = \frac{1}{n(\ln n)^p}$

$$\Rightarrow a_{2^n} = \frac{1}{2^n (\ln 2^n)^p} \quad \Rightarrow 2^n a_{2^n} = \frac{1}{(n \ln 2)^p}$$

\Rightarrow we have the series

$$\sum 2^n a_{2^n} = \sum \frac{1}{(n \ln 2)^p} = \frac{1}{(\ln 2)^p} \sum \frac{1}{n^p}$$

which converges when $p > 1$ and diverges when $p \leq 1$.

Example

Consider $\sum \frac{1}{\ln n}$

Since $\{\ln n\}$ is increasing there $\left\{ \frac{1}{\ln n} \right\}$ decreases.

And we can apply the condensation test to check the behavior of the series

$$\therefore a_n = \frac{1}{\ln n} \quad \therefore a_{2^n} = \frac{1}{\ln 2^n}$$

$$\text{so } 2^n a_{2^n} = \frac{2^n}{\ln 2^n} \quad \Rightarrow \quad 2^n a_{2^n} = \frac{2^n}{n \ln 2}$$

$$\text{since } \frac{2^n}{n} > \frac{1}{n} \quad \forall n \geq 1$$

and $\sum \frac{1}{n}$ is diverges therefore the given series is also diverges.

⋮.....⋮

Alternating Series

A series in which successive terms have opposite signs is called an alternating series.

e.g. $\sum \frac{(-1)^{n+1}}{n} = 1 - \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{3} - \frac{1}{4} + \dots$ is an alternating series.

Theorem (Alternating Series Test or Leibniz Test)

Let $\{a_n\}$ be a decreasing sequence of positive numbers such that $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = 0$ then the alternating series $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (-1)^{n+1} a_n = a_1 - a_2 + a_3 - a_4 + \dots$ converges.

Proof

Looking at the odd numbered partial sums of this series we find that

$$S_{2n+1} = (a_1 - a_2) + (a_3 - a_4) + (a_5 - a_6) + \dots + (a_{2n-1} - a_{2n}) + a_{2n+1}$$

Since $\{a_n\}$ is decreasing therefore all the terms in the parenthesis are non-negative

$$\Rightarrow S_{2n+1} > 0 \quad \forall n$$

Moreover

$$\begin{aligned} S_{2n+3} &= S_{2n+1} - a_{2n+2} + a_{2n+3} \\ &= S_{2n+1} - (a_{2n+2} - a_{2n+3}) \end{aligned}$$

Since $a_{2n+2} - a_{2n+3} \geq 0$ therefore $S_{2n+3} \leq S_{2n+1}$

Hence the sequence of odd numbered partial sum is decreasing and is bounded below by zero. (as it has +ive terms)

It is therefore convergent.

Thus S_{2n+1} converges to some limit l (say).

Now consider the even numbered partial sum. We find that

$$S_{2n+2} = S_{2n+1} - a_{2n+2}$$

and

$$\begin{aligned} \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} S_{2n+2} &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (S_{2n+1} - a_{2n+2}) \\ &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} S_{2n+1} - \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_{2n+2} \\ &= l - 0 = l \quad \because \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = 0 \end{aligned}$$

so that the even partial sum is also convergent to l .

\Rightarrow both sequences of odd and even partial sums converge to the same limit.

Hence we conclude that the corresponding series is convergent.

Absolute Convergence

$\sum a_n$ is said to converge absolutely if $\sum |a_n|$ converges.

Theorem

An absolutely convergent series is convergent.

Proof:

If $\sum |a_n|$ is convergent then for a real number $\epsilon > 0$, \exists a positive integer n_0 such that

$$\left| \sum_{i=m+1}^n a_i \right| < \sum_{i=m+1}^n |a_i| < \epsilon \quad \forall n, m > n_0$$

\Rightarrow the series $\sum a_n$ is convergent. (Cauchy Criterion has been used)

Note

The converse of the above theorem does not hold.

e.g. $\sum \frac{(-1)^{n+1}}{n}$ is convergent but $\sum \frac{1}{n}$ is divergent.

Theorem (The Root Test)

Let $\limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} |a_n|^{1/n} = p$

Then $\sum a_n$ converges absolutely if $p < 1$ and it diverges if $p > 1$.

Proof

Let $p < 1$ then we can find the positive number $e > 0$ such that $p + e < 1$

$$\Rightarrow |a_n|^{1/n} < p + e < 1 \quad \forall n > n_0$$

$$\Rightarrow |a_n| < (p + e)^n < 1$$

$\therefore \sum (p + e)^n$ is convergent because it is a geometric series with $|r| < 1$.

$\therefore \sum |a_n|$ is convergent

$\Rightarrow \sum a_n$ converges absolutely.

Now let $p > 1$ then we can find a number $e_1 > 0$ such that $p - e_1 > 1$.

$$\Rightarrow |a_n|^{1/n} > p - e_1 > 1$$

$$\Rightarrow |a_n| > 1 \text{ for infinitely many values of } n.$$

$$\Rightarrow \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n \neq 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \sum a_n \text{ is divergent.}$$

Note:

The above test give no information when $p = 1$.

e.g. Consider the series $\sum \frac{1}{n}$ and $\sum \frac{1}{n^2}$.

For each of these series $p = 1$, but $\sum \frac{1}{n}$ is divergent and $\sum \frac{1}{n^2}$ is convergent.

Theorem (Ratio Test)

The series $\sum a_n$

(i) Converges if $\limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{a_{n+1}}{a_n} \right| < 1$

(ii) Diverges if $\left| \frac{a_{n+1}}{a_n} \right| > 1$ for $n \geq n_0$, where n_0 is some fixed integer.

Proof

If (i) holds we can find $b < 1$ and integer N such that

$$\left| \frac{a_{n+1}}{a_n} \right| < b \text{ for } n \geq N$$

In particular

$$\left| \frac{a_{N+1}}{a_N} \right| < b$$

$$\Rightarrow |a_{N+1}| < b |a_N|$$

$$\Rightarrow |a_{N+2}| < b |a_{N+1}| < b^2 |a_N|$$

$$\Rightarrow |a_{N+3}| < b^3 |a_N|$$

.....

$$\Rightarrow |a_{N+p}| < b^p |a_N|$$

$$\Rightarrow |a_n| < b^{n-N} |a_N| \quad \text{we put } N + p = n.$$

$$\text{i.e. } |a_n| < |a_N| b^{-N} b^n \quad \text{for } n \geq N.$$

$\therefore \sum b^n$ is convergent because it is geometric series with common ratio < 1 .

Therefore $\sum a_n$ is convergent (by comparison test)

Now if

$$|a_{n+1}| \geq |a_n| \quad \text{for } n \geq n_0$$

$$\text{then } \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n \neq 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \sum a_n \text{ is divergent.}$$

Note

The knowledge $\left| \frac{a_{n+1}}{a_n} \right| = 1$ implies nothing about the convergent or divergent of series.

Example

Consider the series $\sum a_n$ with $a_n = \left[\frac{n}{n+1} - \left(\frac{n}{n+1} \right)^{n+1} \right]^{-n}$

$$\therefore \frac{n}{n+1} < 1 \quad \therefore a_n > 0 \quad \forall n.$$

$$\text{Also } (a_n)^{\frac{1}{n}} = \left[\frac{n}{n+1} - \left(\frac{n}{n+1} \right)^{n+1} \right]^{-1}$$

$$= \left(\frac{n+1}{n} \right) \left[1 - \left(\frac{n}{n+1} \right)^n \right]^{-1} = \left(\frac{n+1}{n} \right) \left[1 - \left(\frac{n+1}{n} \right)^{-n} \right]^{-1}$$

$$= \left(1 + \frac{1}{n} \right) \left[1 - \left(1 + \frac{1}{n} \right)^{-n} \right]^{-1}$$

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left(1 + \frac{1}{n} \right) \left[1 - \left(1 + \frac{1}{n} \right)^{-n} \right]^{-1}$$

$$= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left(1 + \frac{1}{n} \right) \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left[1 - \left(1 + \frac{1}{n} \right)^{-n} \right]^{-1}$$

$$= 1 \cdot [1 - e^{-1}]^{-1} = \left[1 - \frac{1}{e} \right]^{-1} = \left[\frac{e-1}{e} \right]^{-1} = \left[\frac{e}{e-1} \right] > 1$$

\Rightarrow the series is divergent.

Theorem (Dirichlet)

Suppose that $\{S_n\}$, $S_n = a_1 + a_2 + a_3 + \dots + a_n$ is bounded. Let $\{b_n\}$ be positive term decreasing sequence such that $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} b_n = 0$, then $\sum a_n b_n$ is convergent.

Proof

$\therefore \{S_n\}$ is bounded

$\therefore \exists$ a positive number I such that

$$|S_n| < I \quad \forall n \geq 1.$$

Then $a_i b_i = (S_i - S_{i-1}) b_i$ for $i \geq 2$

$$= S_i b_i - S_{i-1} b_i$$

$$= S_i b_i - S_{i-1} b_i + S_i b_{i+1} - S_i b_{i+1}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 &= S_i(b_i - b_{i+1}) - S_{i-1}b_i + S_i b_{i+1} \\
 \Rightarrow \sum_{i=m+1}^n a_i b_i &= \sum_{i=m+1}^n S_i(b_i - b_{i+1}) - (S_m b_{m+1} - S_n b_{n+1}) \\
 \because \{b_n\} &\text{ is decreasing} \\
 \therefore \left| \sum_{i=m+1}^n a_i b_i \right| &= \left| \sum_{i=m+1}^n S_i(b_i - b_{i+1}) - S_m b_{m+1} + S_n b_{n+1} \right| \\
 &< \sum_{i=m+1}^n \{ |S_i| (b_i - b_{i+1}) \} + |S_m| b_{m+1} + |S_n| b_{n+1} \\
 &< \sum_{i=m+1}^n \{ I (b_i - b_{i+1}) \} + I b_{m+1} + I b_{n+1} \quad \because |S_i| < I \\
 &= I \left(\sum_{i=m+1}^n (b_i - b_{i+1}) + b_{m+1} + b_{n+1} \right) \\
 &= I \left((b_{m+1} - b_{n+1}) + b_{m+1} + b_{n+1} \right) = 2I (b_{m+1}) \\
 \Rightarrow \left| \sum_{i=m+1}^n a_i b_i \right| &< e \quad \text{where } e = 2I (b_{m+1}) \text{ a certain number} \\
 \Rightarrow \text{The } \sum a_n b_n &\text{ is convergent. (We have use Cauchy Criterion here.)}
 \end{aligned}$$

Theorem

Suppose that $\sum a_n$ is convergent and that $\{b_n\}$ is monotonic convergent sequence then $\sum a_n b_n$ is also convergent.

Proof

Suppose $\{b_n\}$ is decreasing and it converges to b .

Put $c_n = b_n - b$

$$\Rightarrow c_n \geq 0 \text{ and } \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} c_n = 0$$

$\because \sum a_n$ is convergent

$\therefore \{S_n\}$, $S_n = a_1 + a_2 + a_3 + \dots + a_n$ is convergent

\Rightarrow It is bounded

$\Rightarrow \sum a_n c_n$ is bounded.

$\because a_n b_n = a_n c_n + a_n b$ and $\sum a_n c_n$ and $\sum a_n b$ are convergent.

$\therefore \sum a_n b_n$ is convergent.

Now if $\{b_n\}$ is increasing and converges to b then we shall put $c_n = b - b_n$.

Example

$$\sum \frac{1}{(n \ln n)^a} \text{ is convergent if } a > 1 \text{ and divergent if } a \leq 1.$$

To see this we proceed as follows

$$a_n = \frac{1}{(n \ln n)^a}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 \text{Take } b_n &= 2^n a_{2^n} = \frac{2^n}{(2^n \ln 2^n)^a} = \frac{2^n}{(2^n n \ln 2)^a} \\
 &= \frac{2^n}{2^{na} n^a (\ln 2)^a} = \frac{1}{2^{na-n} n^a (\ln 2)^a}
 \end{aligned}$$

$$= \frac{1}{(\ln 2)^a} \cdot \frac{\left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^{(a-1)n}}{n^a}$$

Since $\sum \frac{1}{n^a}$ is convergent when $a > 1$ and $\left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^{(a-1)n}$ is decreasing for $a > 1$ and it converges to 0. Therefore $\sum b_n$ is convergent

$\Rightarrow \sum a_n$ is also convergent.

Now $\sum b_n$ is divergent for $a \leq 1$ therefore $\sum a_n$ diverges for $a \leq 1$.

Example

To check $\sum \frac{1}{n^a \ln n}$ is convergent or divergent.

We have $a_n = \frac{1}{n^a \ln n}$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Take } b_n &= 2^n a_{2^n} = \frac{2^n}{(2^n)^a (\ln 2^n)} = \frac{2^n}{2^{na} (n \ln 2)} \\ &= \frac{1}{\ln 2} \cdot \frac{2^{(1-a)n}}{n} = \frac{1}{\ln 2} \cdot \frac{\left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^{(a-1)n}}{n} \end{aligned}$$

$\therefore \sum \frac{1}{n}$ is divergent although $\left\{ \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^{n(a-1)} \right\}$ is decreasing, tending to zero for $a > 1$

therefore $\sum b_n$ is divergent.

$\Rightarrow \sum a_n$ is divergent.

The series also divergent if $a \leq 1$.

i.e. it is always divergent.

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