

MATH 271, WORKSHEET 4, *Solutions*
SEQUENCES AND SERIES

Problem 1. Write down the first few terms in the sequence for the following:

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

Solution 1.

- (a) We have

$$\{a_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty} = 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, \dots$$

- (b) We have

$$\{b_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty} = 1, \frac{1}{4}, \frac{1}{9}, \frac{1}{16}, \frac{1}{25}, \dots$$

- (c) We have

$$\{c_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty} = 1, \frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{4}, \frac{1}{8}, \frac{1}{16}, \frac{1}{32}, \dots$$

Problem 2. For the above sequences, state whether each converges or diverges. If they converge, state the limit.

Solution 2.

- (a) The sequence $\{a_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$ diverges as $a_n \rightarrow \infty$. In other words, the a_n continue to grow without bound.
- (b) The sequence $\{b_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$ converges to zero. For any value $\epsilon > 0$, I can find an $N \in \mathbb{N}$ so that the term $0 < b_N < \epsilon$.
- (c) Similarly, the sequence $\{c_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$ converges to zero.

Problem 3. Consider the recursive sequence

$$a_n = \frac{1}{2}a_{n-1} + 1$$

with $a_1 = 1$.

- (a) Write the first few terms in the sequence.
- (b) Can you write a_n as a function $f(n)$? If so, what is $f(n)$?
- (c) Does this sequence converge or diverge? Can you show why with a limit $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} f(n)$?

(d) Can you show that this is a Cauchy sequence?

Solution 3.

(a) Given that $a_1 = 1$, we can get

$$\begin{aligned}a_2 &= \frac{1}{2}a_1 + 1 = \frac{3}{2} \\a_3 &= \frac{1}{2}a_2 + 1 = \frac{7}{4} \\a_4 &= \frac{1}{2}a_3 + 1 = \frac{15}{8} \\a_5 &= \frac{1}{2}a_4 + 1 = \frac{31}{16}.\end{aligned}$$

(b) Yes, we can. Notice that we have

$$a_n = \frac{2^n - 1}{2^{n-1}} = f(n).$$

(c) Yes, this sequence converges to 2 since

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} f(x) = 2.$$

(d) Yes, so we need to show that for any $\epsilon > 0$ that we have for some $N \in \mathbb{N}$ that for $K \geq N$

$$|a_K - a_{K+1}| < \epsilon.$$

So we have

$$a_K = \frac{2^K - 1}{2^{K-1}} \quad \text{and} \quad a_{K+1} = \frac{2^{K+1} - 1}{2^K}.$$

Then

$$\begin{aligned}\left| \frac{2^K - 1}{2^{K-1}} - \frac{2^{K+1} - 1}{2^K} \right| &= \left| \frac{2^{K+1} - 2}{2^K} - \frac{2^{K+1} - 1}{2^K} \right| \\&= \left| \frac{-1}{2^K} \right| \\&= \frac{1}{2^K}.\end{aligned}$$

So now we wish to have $\frac{1}{2^K} < \epsilon$ and if we choose $K > \log_2 \left(\frac{1}{\epsilon} \right)$, then we have shown this sequence is Cauchy.

Remark 1. Showing that a sequence is Cauchy is a bit of a stretch for us. Just know what it means when we say a sequence is Cauchy!

Problem 4. Consider the sequence

$$a_n = ar^n.$$

- (a) If $|r| < 1$, show that this sequence $\{a_n\}_{n=0}^{\infty}$ converges to zero.
 (b) Consider now the *geometric series*

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} ar^n.$$

Show that the N^{th} partial sum for this series satisfies

$$\sum_{n=0}^N ar^n = a \left(\frac{1 - r^{N+1}}{1 - r} \right).$$

- (c) Does the geometric series converge for all r ? For $|r| < 1$? When it converges, what does it converge to?

Solution 4.

- (a) Let $|r| < 1$, then we consider the sequence

$$\{a_n\}_{n=0}^{\infty} = \{ar^n\}_{n=0}^{\infty} = a, ar, ar^2, ar^3, \dots$$

Now, since $|r| < 1$, we have that $|r|^{n+1} < |r|^n$. Since this continues indefinitely, we have that $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} |r|^n = 0$. If $r < 0$, then the sequence just alternates in sign, but still converges to zero. Also, multiplication by a constant a does not affect convergence as well. That is, $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a|r|^n = a \cdot \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} |r|^n$.

- (b) This is a bit tough, but I work through this in the notes. Consider

$$A_N = \sum_{n=0}^N ar^n = a + ar + ar^2 + \dots + ar^N = a(1 + r + r^2 + \dots + r^N).$$

Then, if we subtract rA_N to both sides, we get

$$\begin{aligned} A_N - rA_N &= a(1 + r + r^2 + \dots + r^N) - a(r + r^2 + r^3 + \dots + r^{N+1}) \\ (1 - r)A_N &= a(1 + r + r^2 + \dots + r^N) - a(r + r^2 + r^3 + \dots + r^{N+1}) \\ (1 - r)A_N &= a(1 - r^{N+1}) \\ A_N &= \frac{1 - r^{N+1}}{1 - r}. \end{aligned}$$

- (c) No, the sequence does not converge for all r as if we have $r = 1$ the series becomes

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a = a \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} 1,$$

which diverges unless $a = 0$. Similarly, if $r > 1$, then $|r|^{n+1} > |r|^n$ and the series will diverge as well which we can see by taking the limit of the sequence of partial sums. For $|r| < 1$, the limit of sequence of partial sums does converge, and specifically it will converge to

$$A_N \rightarrow \frac{a}{1 - r}.$$

Problem 5. Often we wish to think about functions being represented by series. For example, we can consider the function

$$f(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{x^n}{n!}$$

where $n!$ is read as “ n -factorial” and

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

Then $1! = 1$ and we define $0! = 1$ as well.

(a) Consider $f(1)$. Use a tool like WolframAlpha to compute the series

$$f(1) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n!}$$

(b) For any value of x , this series converges. So this defines a function on all real numbers. In fact, the series converges even for complex numbers. Simplify the series into its real and imaginary parts. Note,

$$f(ix) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(ix)^n}{n!}.$$

(c) We can take derivatives of the function $f(x)$ by differentiating the series *term by term*. That is,

$$\frac{d}{dx} f(x) = \frac{d}{dx} \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{x^n}{n!} = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{d}{dx} \left(\frac{x^n}{n!} \right).$$

(d) Show that $\frac{d}{dx} f(x) = f(x)$.

(e) What is your guess for what function $f(x)$ is?

Solution 5.

(a) Using WolframAlpha one can write

$$\text{Sum}[1/(n!),\{n,0,\text{infty}\}]$$

which will output

$$e = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n!}.$$

(b) Note that $f(x) = e^x$ (although I don't tell you that here). Anyways, we take

$$\begin{aligned}\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(ix)^n}{n!} &= 1 + ix - \frac{x^2}{2!} - \frac{ix^3}{3!} + \frac{x^4}{4!} + \frac{ix^5}{5!} + \cdots \\ &= \left(1 - \frac{x^2}{2!} + \frac{x^4}{4!} + \cdots\right) + i \left(x - \frac{x^3}{3!} + \frac{x^5}{5!} - \cdots\right).\end{aligned}$$

Thus we have

$$\operatorname{Re}(f(ix)) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^n x^{2n}}{(2n)!} \quad \text{and} \quad \operatorname{Im}(f(ix)) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^n x^{2n+1}}{(2n+1)!}.$$

Notice that these are the series for $\cos(x)$ and $\sin(x)$ respectively.

(c) If we take

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{d}{dx} \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{x^n}{n!} &= \frac{d}{dx} \left(1 + x + \frac{x^2}{2!} + \frac{x^3}{3!} + \frac{x^4}{4!} + \cdots\right) \\ &= 0 + 1 + x + \frac{x^2}{2!} + \frac{x^3}{3!} + \cdots \\ &= \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{x^n}{n!}.\end{aligned}$$

(d) Since $\frac{d}{dx} f(x) = f(x)$, we know that $f(x) = Ce^x$ for some constant C . In fact, it is true that $f(x) = e^x$.