# Sequences and Series

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#### Sequences and Series 1

#### 1.1 Sequences

1. For p > 0,  $\lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{1}{n^p} = 0$ . Proposition 1.

- 2. For p > 0,  $\lim_{n \to \infty} p^{\frac{1}{n}} = 1$ .
- 3.  $\lim_{n\to\infty} n^{\frac{1}{n}} = 1$ .
- 4. For p > 0 and  $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}$ ,  $\lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{n^{\alpha}}{(1+p)^n} = 0$ .
- 5. For |x| < 1,  $\lim_{n \to \infty} x^n = 0$ .

*Proof.* In all the following proofs, we assume that  $\epsilon > 0$  is given. For (1), by the Archimedean property, we can take  $n \ge e^{-\frac{1}{p}}$  so that

$$\frac{1}{n^p} \le (\epsilon^{-\frac{1}{p}})^{-p} = \epsilon$$

For (2), fix p > 0. If p > 1, set  $x_n := p^{\frac{1}{n}} - 1$  and observe that  $x_n > 0$ . By the binomial theorem,

$$1 + nx_n \le (1 + x_n)^n = p \Longrightarrow x_n \le \frac{p - 1}{n}$$

Hence,  $\limsup_{n \to \infty} x_n \le \lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{p-1}{n} = 0$ . If p = 1, then the result is trivial. If  $0 , then we return to the first case by considering <math>p^{-1}$ . For (3), set  $x_n := n^{\frac{1}{n}} - 1$ . Observe that  $x_n \ge 0$  and by the binomial theorem,

$$n = (1 + x_n)^n \ge \binom{n}{2} x_n^2 = \frac{n(n-1)}{2} x_n^2 \Longrightarrow x_n \le \sqrt{\frac{2}{n-1}}$$

By (1),  $\lim_{n\to\infty} \sqrt{\frac{2}{n-1}} = 0$ .

For (4), fix  $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}$  and p > 0, and choose a positive integer  $k > \alpha$ . For n > 2k, we have by the binomial theorem that

$$(1+p)^n > \binom{n}{k} p^k = \frac{n!}{(n-k)!k!} p^k = \frac{n(n-1)\cdots(n-k+1)}{k!} p^k > \left(\frac{n}{2}\right)^k \frac{p^k}{k!} \Longrightarrow \frac{1}{(1+p)^n} < \frac{2^k k!}{n^k p^k}$$

Hence,

$$0 < \frac{n^{\alpha}}{(1+p)^n} < \frac{2^k k!}{n^{k-\alpha} p^k}$$

Since  $k - \alpha > 0$ ,  $n^{k-\alpha} \to 0$  by (1). For (5), take  $\alpha = 0$  and  $p = |x|^{-1} - 1 > 0$  in (4).

# For (5), take $\alpha = 0$ and $p = |x|^{-1} - 1 > 0$ in (4).

# 1.2 Series

The following proposition attributed to Cauchy shows that the convergence of a series with monotonically decreasing terms is determined by the growth of a 'small' subset of its terms.

**Proposition 2.** (Cauchy's Convergence Test) Let  $(a_n)_{n=1}^{\infty}$  be a decreasing sequence of real numbers bounded from below by 0. Then the series  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$  converges if and only if the series

$$\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} 2^k a_{2^k}$$

converges.

*Proof.* Suppose  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$  converges, then

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n \ge 2a_2 + \sum_{k=2}^{\infty} (2^k - 2^{k-1}) a_{2^k} = 2a_2 + \sum_{k=2}^{\infty} (2^{k-1}) a_{2^k},$$

which implies the convergence of  $\sum_{k=2}^{\infty} 2^{k-1} a_{2^k}$  and therefore  $\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} 2^k a_{2^k}$  by the comparison test. If  $\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} 2^k a_{2^k}$  converges, then

$$\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} 2^k a_{2^k} \ge a_1 + \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \sum_{j=2^k+1}^{2^{k+1}} a_j = \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} a_j,$$

which implies that  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$  converges by the comparison test.

Cauchy's convergence test allows us to give a short proof of the convergence (and divergence) conditions for the harmonic p-series  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^p}$ .

**Proposition 3.** (Root Test) Let  $(a_n)_{n=1}^{\infty}$  be a sequence of complex numbers, and set  $\alpha := \limsup_{n \to \infty} |a_n|^{\frac{1}{n}}$ . Then

- 1. if  $\alpha < 1$ , the series  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$  converges;
- 2. if  $\alpha > 1$ , the series  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$  diverges;
- 3. if  $\alpha = 1$ , the root test is inconclusive.

*Proof.* Suppose  $\alpha < 1$ . Since finitely many terms do not affect the convergence of  $\sum a_n$ , we may assume that  $\sup_n |a_n|^{\frac{1}{n}} < 1$ . We see that  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$  is absolutely convergent by the comparison test, since

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} |a_n| = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (|a_n|^{\frac{1}{n}})^n < \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \alpha^n = \frac{\alpha}{1-\alpha}$$

Analogously, if  $\alpha > 1$ , then there exists a subsequence of indices  $(n_k)_{k=1}^{\infty}$  such that  $|a_{n_k}|^{\frac{1}{n}} > 1$ , so the necessary condition  $\lim_{n\to\infty} a_n$  does not hold.

To see that the case  $\alpha=1$  provides us insufficient information to determine convergence or divergence, consider the following examples. If  $a_n=1$  for all  $n\in\mathbb{Z}^{\geq 1}$ , then clearly  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty}a_n$  diverges to  $\infty$ , but  $|a_n|^{\frac{1}{n}}=1$  for all n. If  $a_n=\frac{1}{n^2}$ , then

$$\limsup_{n \to \infty} |n^{-2}|^{\frac{1}{n}} = \left(\lim_{n \to \infty} n^{\frac{1}{n}}\right)^{-2} = 1,$$

where the penultimate inequality follows from continuity, and  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} n^{-2} = \frac{\pi^2}{6}$ .

**Proposition 4.** (Ratio Test) For a sequence  $(a_n)_{n=1}^{\infty}$  of complex numbers, the series  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$ 

- 1. converges, if  $\limsup_{n\to 1} \left| \frac{a_{n+1}}{a_n} \right| < 1$ ;
- 2. diverges if  $\left|\frac{a_{n+1}}{a_n}\right| \ge 1$  for all but finitely many n.

# 1.3 Rudin Chapter 3 Exercises

### 1.3.1 Exercise 1

We first prove the useful reverse triangle inequality.

**Lemma 5.** For  $a, b \in \mathbb{C}$ ,  $||a| - |b|| \le |a + b|$ .

*Proof.* Observe that

$$|a+b|^{2} = (a+b)(\overline{a}+\overline{b}) = |a|^{2} + (a\overline{b}+b\overline{a}) + |b|^{2} = |a|^{2} + 2\operatorname{Re}(a\overline{b}) + |b|^{2}$$

$$\leq |a|^{2} - 2|a||b| + |b|^{2}$$

$$= ||a| - |b||^{2}$$

Taking the square root of both sides completes the proof.

Let  $(s_n)_{n=1}^{\infty}$  be a convergent sequence of complex numbers. For  $\epsilon > 0$ , there exists  $N \in \mathbb{Z}^{\geq 1}$  such that  $n \geq N$  implies  $|s_n - s|$ . By the reverse triangle inequality,

$$n \ge N \Longrightarrow ||s_n| - |s|| \le |s_n - s| < \epsilon$$

The converse is false. Define  $s_{2n} = 1$  and  $s_{2n+1} = -1$ . Then  $(s_n)_{n=1}^{\infty}$  oscillates between 1 and -1, but  $|s_n| = 1$  for all n.

# 1.3.2 Exercise 2

 $\lim_{n\to\infty} \sqrt{n^2 + n} - n = \frac{1}{2}.$ 

*Proof.* We can write  $\sqrt{n+1} = \sqrt{n} + x$ , for  $x \ge 0$ , so that

$$n+1 = (\sqrt{n}+x)^2 = n+2\sqrt{n}x+x^2 \Longrightarrow 1 = 2\sqrt{n}x+x^2 \Longrightarrow 0 \le x \le \frac{1}{2\sqrt{n}}$$

For any 0 < c < 1, I claim that  $x \ge c \frac{1}{2\sqrt{n}}$  for all but finitely many n. Indeed, otherwise there exists a subsequene  $n_k \uparrow \infty$  such that

$$1 = 2\sqrt{n_k}x + x^2 \le 2\sqrt{n_k}\left(c\frac{1}{2\sqrt{n_k}}\right) + c^2\frac{1}{4n_k} = c + \frac{c^2}{4n_k} < 1$$

for all k sufficiently large, which is a contradiction. We see that

$$\frac{1}{2} - \sqrt{n(n+1)} + n = \frac{1}{2} - \sqrt{n}(\sqrt{n} + x) + n = \frac{1}{2} - \sqrt{n}x \ge \frac{1}{2}(1 - c)$$

Letting  $c \uparrow 1$  completes the proof.

# 1.3.3 Exercise 3

Set  $s_1 := \sqrt{2}$ , and for  $n \in \mathbb{Z}^{\geq 1}$ , define

$$s_{n+1} := \sqrt{2 + \sqrt{s_n}}$$

Then the sequence  $(s_n)_{n=1}^{\infty}$  converges and moreover,  $s_n < 2$  for all  $n \ge 1$ .

*Proof.* By induction, we see that  $s_n > \sqrt{2} > 1$  for all n. Hence,

$$s_{n+1}^2 = 2 + \sqrt{s_n} \Longrightarrow s_{n+1}^2 < 2 \Longrightarrow s_{n+1} < \sqrt{2}$$

I claim that  $s_n < s_{n+1}$ . The base case n = 1 follows from the monotonicity of the square root function. Suppose the assertion holds for all  $1 \le j \le n$ . Then

$$s_{n+1} = \sqrt{2 + \sqrt{s_n}} > \sqrt{2 + \sqrt{s_{n-1}}} = s_n$$

# 1.3.4 Exercise 4

Define a real sequence  $(s_n)_{n=1}^{\infty}$  by

$$s_n := \begin{cases} 0 & n = 1\\ \frac{s_{2m-1}}{2} & n = 2^m, m \in \mathbb{Z}^{\geq 1}\\ \frac{1}{2} + s_{2m} & n = 2^m + 1, m \in \mathbb{Z}^{\geq 1} \end{cases}$$

Then  $\liminf_{n\to\infty} s_n = 0$  and  $\limsup_{n\to\infty} s_n = \frac{1}{2}$ .

Proof.

# 1.3.5 Exercise 6

If  $a_n := \sqrt{n+1} - \sqrt{n}$ , then for any  $N \in \mathbb{Z}^{\geq 1}$ ,

$$\sum_{n=1}^{N} a_n = \sqrt{N+1} - 1,$$

so  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$  diverges to  $\infty$ .

If  $a_n := \frac{\sqrt{n+1} - \sqrt{n}}{n}$ , then using our above estimate for  $\sqrt{n+1} - \sqrt{n}$ , we see that

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{\sqrt{n+1} - \sqrt{n}}{n} \le \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{2n^{\frac{3}{2}}} < \infty$$

Hence,  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$  converges by the comparison test.

Suppose  $a_n := \frac{1}{1+z^n}$ . I claim that the series  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$  converges for |z| > 1 and diverges for |z| < 1. First, suppose |z| > 1. For any  $N \in \mathbb{Z}^{\geq 1}$ ,

$$\left| \sum_{n=1}^{N} \frac{1}{1+z^{n}} \right| = \left| \sum_{n=1}^{N} z^{-n} \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} (-z^{-n})^{k} \right| \leq \sum_{n=1}^{N} |z|^{-n} \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} |z|^{-nk} = \sum_{n=1}^{N} \frac{1}{|z|^{n} (1-|z|^{-n})} \leq \frac{1}{1-|z|^{-1}} \sum_{n=1}^{N} \frac{1}{|z|^{n}}$$

which converges as  $N \to \infty$  by comparison with the geometric series.

Now suppose that |z| < 1.

#### 1.3.6Exercise 7

Suppose  $(a_n)_{n=1}^{\infty}$  is a sequence of nonnegative real numbers such that  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$  converges. Then the series

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{\sqrt{a_n}}{n}$$

converges.

Proof. 

#### 1.3.7 Exercise 8

If  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$  converges and  $(b_n)_{n=1}^{\infty}$  is a bounded, monotonically increasing sequence, then  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n b_n$  also converges.

*Proof.* By considering real and imaginary parts separately, it suffices to consider the case where the  $a_n$  are real. Without loss of generality, we may assume that  $b_n > 0$  for all n. Set  $b := \sup_n |b_n|$ . Let  $\epsilon > 0$  be given, and choose  $N_0 \in \mathbb{Z}^{\geq 1}$  such that  $N, M \geq N_0$  implies that  $\left| \sum_{n=M+1}^N a_n \right| < \epsilon$ .

$$\sum_{n=M+1}^{N} \operatorname{sgn}(a_n) |a_n| b_n = \sum_{n=M+1}^{N} a_n b_n \le b \left( \sum_{n=M+1}^{N} a_n \right) < b\epsilon$$

If  $a_n \ge 0$  then  $-ba_n = -b\operatorname{sgn}(a_n)|a_n| < a_nb_n$ , and if  $a_n < 0$ , then since  $-b \le -b_n$ ,  $-ba_n = -b|a_n| \le -b_n|a_n| = -b|a_n|$  $a_n b_n$ . Hence,

$$-b\epsilon < -b\left(\sum_{n=M+1}^{N} a_n\right) \le \sum_{n=M+1}^{N} a_n b_n$$

We conclude that  $\left|\sum_{n=M+1}^{N} a_n b_n\right| < \epsilon$ , so the series  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n b_n$  converges by the Cauchy criterion. 

#### 1.3.8 Exercise 9

The radius of convergence of  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} n^3 z^n$  is 1.

*Proof.* Since the finite limit of products of sequences is the product of the limits, we have that

$$\limsup_{n \to \infty} (n^3)^{\frac{1}{n}} = \limsup_{n \to \infty} (n^{\frac{1}{n}})^3 = \left(\lim_{n \to \infty} n^{\frac{1}{n}}\right)^3 = 1$$

The radius of convergence of  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{2^n}{n!} z^n$  is infinite.

*Proof.* Applying the binomial formula to  $2^n$ , for n large, we obtain the upper bound

$$\frac{2^n}{n!} = \frac{1}{n!} \sum_{k=0}^n \frac{n!}{k!(n-k)!} = \sum_{k=0}^m \frac{1}{k!(n-k)!} + \sum_{k=m+1}^n \frac{1}{k!(n-k)!}$$

$$\leq \frac{1}{n-m} \sum_{k=0}^m \frac{1}{k!} + \sum_{k=m+1}^n \frac{1}{k!}$$

$$\leq \frac{e}{n-m} + \sum_{k=m+1}^n \frac{1}{k!}$$

Since  $e = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{k!}$ , we can choose  $N \in \mathbb{Z}^{\geq 1}$  such that  $m, n \geq N$  implies that  $\sum_{k=m+1}^{n} \frac{1}{k!} < \frac{\epsilon}{2}$ . Choose N' > N such that  $n \geq N'$  implies that  $\frac{e}{n-N} < \frac{\epsilon}{2}$ . Then

$$n \ge N' \Longrightarrow \frac{2^n}{n!} \le \frac{e}{n-N} + \sum_{k=N+1}^n \frac{1}{k!} < \frac{\epsilon}{2} + \frac{\epsilon}{2} = \epsilon$$

We conclude that  $\limsup_{n\to\infty}\frac{2^n}{n!}=0$ , and therefore the radius of convergence is infinite.

The radius of convergence of  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{2^n}{n^2} z^n$  is  $\frac{1}{2}$ .

*Proof.* Since  $\lim_{n\to\infty} a_n = a \neq 0$  implies that  $\lim_{n\to\infty} a_n^{-1} = a^{-1}$ , we have that

$$\limsup_{n \to \infty} \left( \frac{2^n}{n^2} \right)^{\frac{1}{n}} = \lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{2}{(n^{\frac{1}{n}})^2} = \frac{2}{(\lim_{n \to \infty} n^{\frac{1}{n}})^2} = 2$$

The radius of convergence  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{n^3}{3^n} z^n$  is 3.

*Proof.* By the same arguments used above, we have that

$$\limsup_{n \to \infty} \left( \frac{n^3}{3^n} \right)^{\frac{1}{n}} = \lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{(n^{\frac{1}{n}})^3}{3} = \frac{(\lim_{n \to \infty} n^{\frac{1}{n}})^3}{3} = \frac{1}{3}$$

# 1.3.9 Exercise 10

Let  $(a_n)_{n=1}^{\infty}$  be a sequence of integers, infinitely many of which are nonzero. Then the radius of convergence of  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n z^n$  is at most 1.

*Proof.* Denote the radius of convergence of the series  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n z^n$  by  $R \in [0, \infty]$ . If  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n z^n$  converges for some  $z \in \mathbb{C}$ , then

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} |a_n z^n| = 0$$

If |z| > 1, then for all n sufficiently large,  $|a_n| < 1$ . Since  $a_n \in \mathbb{Z}$ ,  $a_n = 0$ , for all but finitely many indices n, which contradicts our hypothesis.

### 1.3.10 Exercise 11

Let  $(a_n)_{n=1}^{\infty}$  be a sequence of positive real numbers. Suppose  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$  diverges. Then  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{a_n}{1+a_n}$  diverges.

*Proof.* If  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{a_n}{1+a_n}$  converges, then  $\frac{a_n}{1+a_n} \to 0$ , so for  $\epsilon > 0$  small,

$$\frac{a_n}{1+a_n}<\epsilon\Longrightarrow a_n<\epsilon+\epsilon a_n\Longrightarrow a_n<\frac{\epsilon}{1-\epsilon}$$

If  $(a_n)$  is unbounded, then  $\frac{a_n}{1+a_n}$  does not tend to 0 as  $n \to \infty$ , hence  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{a_n}{1+a_n}$  does not converge. Suppose  $(a_n)$  is bounded by some positive constant M > 1. Then

$$\sum_{n=1}^{N} \frac{a_n}{1+a_n} > \frac{a_1(1+a_1)+\dots+a_N(1+a_N)}{M+1} > \frac{1}{M+1} \sum_{n=1}^{N} a_n$$

Hence,  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{a_n}{1+a_n}$  diverges by the comparison test.

If  $s_n := a_1 + \cdots + a_n$ , then

$$\frac{a_{N+1}}{s_{N+1}} + \dots + \frac{a_{N+k}}{s_{N+k}} \ge 1 - \frac{s_N}{s_{N+k}}, \quad \forall k \in \mathbb{Z}^{\ge 1}$$

and therefore  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{a_n}{s_n}$  diverges.

*Proof.* For any  $k \in \mathbb{Z}^{\geq 1}$ ,  $s_{N+1} < \cdots < s_{N+k}$ . Hence,

$$\frac{a_{N+1}}{s_{N+1}} + \dots + \frac{a_{N+k}}{s_{N+k}} \ge \frac{a_{N+1} + \dots + a_{N+k}}{s_{N+k}} = \frac{s_{N+k} - s_N}{s_{N+k}} = 1 - \frac{s_N}{s_{N+k}}$$

This lower bound shows that the series  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{a_n}{s_n}$  diverges by the Cauchy criterion.

The sequence  $\left(\frac{a_n}{s_n^2}\right)_{n=1}^{\infty}$  satisfies

$$\frac{a_n}{s_n^2} \le \frac{1}{s_{n-1}} - \frac{1}{s_n}$$

and therefore the series  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{a_n}{s_n^2}$  converges.

*Proof.* Since  $s_{n-1} < s_n$ , we have that

$$\frac{a_n}{s_n^2} < \frac{a_n}{s_n s_{n-1}} = \frac{s_n - s_{n-1}}{s_n s_{n-1}} = \frac{1}{s_{n-1}} - \frac{1}{s_n}$$

Since  $s_n \uparrow \infty$  and the RHS in the above inequality is telescoping, we see that

$$\sum_{n=1}^{N} \frac{a_n}{s_n^2} \le \frac{a_1}{s_1^2} + \sum_{n=2}^{N} \left[ \frac{1}{s_{n-1}} - \frac{1}{s_n} \right] = \frac{a_1}{s_1^2} + \left( \frac{1}{s_1} - \frac{1}{s_N} \right) \to \frac{a_1}{s_1^2} + \frac{1}{s_1}$$

as  $N \to \infty$ .

The series  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{a_n}{1+n^2 a_n}$  converges. The convergence or divergence of  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{a_n}{1+na_n}$  depends on the sequence  $(a_n)_{n=1}^{\infty}$ .

*Proof.* The second claim follows from noting that  $\frac{a_n}{1+n^2a_n} \leq \frac{1}{n^2}$  and that  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^2} < \infty$ . Hence,  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{a_n}{1+n^2a_n}$  converges by the comparison test. For the first claim, first consider  $a_n := \frac{1}{n}$ . Then

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{a_n}{1 + na_n} = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{2n},$$

which diverges since the harmonic series diverges. Now define  $a_n$  by

$$a_n := \begin{cases} \frac{1}{n} & n = m^2, m \in \mathbb{Z} \\ 2^{-n} & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

I claim that  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$  diverges. Let  $\alpha > 0$ . Since  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n}$  diverges, we can choose an integer N sufficiently large so that  $M \ge N$  implies that  $\sum_{n=1}^{M} \frac{1}{n} > \alpha$ . Then

$$\sum_{n=1}^{N^2} a_n > \sum_{m=1}^{N} \frac{1}{m} > \alpha$$

But  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{a_n}{1+na_n}$  converges since

$$\sum_{n=1}^{N} \frac{a_n}{1 + na_n} = \sum_{\substack{1 \le n \le N \\ n = n^2 \text{ mod } 7}} \frac{\frac{1}{n}}{2} + \sum_{\substack{1 \le n \le N \\ n \ne n^2 \text{ mod } 7}} \frac{2^{-n}}{1 + n2^{-n}} \le \sum_{m=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{2m^2} + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} 2^{-n} < \infty$$

Many thanks to the math.stackexchange community for helping me out with this last part.

### 1.3.11 Exercise 12

Suppose  $(a_n)_{n=1}^{\infty}$  is a sequence of positive reals such that the series  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$  converges. Define tails

$$r_n := \sum_{m=n}^{\infty} a_m, \quad \forall n \in \mathbb{Z}^{\geq 1}$$

If m < n, then

$$\frac{a_m}{r_m} + \dots + \frac{a_n}{r_n} > 1 - \frac{r_n}{r_m}$$

and therefore  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{a_n}{r_n}$  converges.

*Proof.* First, note that  $r_{n+1} < r_n$  and since  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$  converges,  $r_n \downarrow 0$ . Hence,

$$\frac{a_m}{r_m} + \dots + \frac{a_n}{r_n} > \frac{a_m}{r_m} + \dots + \frac{a_n}{r_m} = \frac{r_m - r_{n+1}}{r_m} = 1 - \frac{r_{n+1}}{r_m} > 1 - \frac{r_n}{r_m}$$

where m < n. Let  $\epsilon > 0$  and  $m \in \mathbb{Z}^{\geq 1}$  be given. Since  $r_n \downarrow 0$ , we can choose n > m sufficiently large so that  $1 - \frac{r_n}{r_m} > \epsilon$ , which implies that the series  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{a_n}{r_n}$  does not satisfy the Cauchy criterion.

For  $n \in \mathbb{Z}^{\geq 1}$ .

$$\frac{a_n}{\sqrt{r_n}} < 2\left(\sqrt{r_n} - \sqrt{r_{n+1}}\right),\,$$

so that the series  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{a_n}{\sqrt{r_n}}$  converges.

*Proof.* We can write  $a_n = r_n - r_{n+1}$ , so that

$$\frac{a_n}{\sqrt{r_n}} = \frac{r_n - r_{n+1}}{\sqrt{r_n}} = \frac{\left(\sqrt{r_n} + \sqrt{r_{n+1}}\right)\left(\sqrt{r_n} - \sqrt{r_{n+1}}\right)}{\sqrt{r_n}} = \left(1 + \frac{\sqrt{r_{n+1}}}{\sqrt{r_n}}\right)\left(\sqrt{r_n} - \sqrt{r_{n+1}}\right) < 2\left(\sqrt{r_n} - \sqrt{r_{n+1}}\right),$$

since  $\frac{r_{n+1}}{r_n} < 1$ . For any  $N \in \mathbb{Z}^{\geq 1}$ ,

$$\sum_{n=1}^{N} \frac{a_n}{\sqrt{r_n}} < 2\sum_{n=1}^{N} (\sqrt{r_n} - \sqrt{r_{n+1}}) = 2(\sqrt{r_1} - \sqrt{r_{N+1}}) \to 0$$

as  $N \to \infty$ . Hence,  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{a_n}{\sqrt{r_n}}$  converges.

# 1.3.12 Exercise 13

If  $\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} a_k$  and  $\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} b_k$  converge absolutely, then the Cauchy product  $\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} c_k$  converges absolutely and

$$\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} c_k = \left(\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} a_k\right) \left(\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} b_k\right)$$

*Proof.* Let  $\epsilon \in (0,1)$  be given. Set  $A = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} a_k$  and  $B = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} b_k$ . Choose M > 0 such that  $\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} |a_k|$ ,  $\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} |b_k| \le M$ , choose M > 0 such that  $\max \{ \sup_k |a_k|, \sup_k |b_k| \} \le m$ , and choose  $N_0 \in \mathbb{N}$  such that

$$N \ge N_0 \Rightarrow \max \left\{ \sum_{k=N+1}^{\infty} |a_k|, \sum_{k=N+1}^{\infty} |b_k| \right\} < \epsilon$$

Then for  $N \geq N_0$ , we have

$$\left| AB - \sum_{k=0}^{N} c_k \right| = \left| \left( A - \sum_{k=0}^{N} a_k \right) \left( B - \sum_{k=0}^{N} b_k \right) + \left( A - \sum_{k=0}^{N} a_k \right) \sum_{k=0}^{N} b_k + \left( B - \sum_{k=0}^{N} b_k \right) \sum_{k=0}^{N} a_k + \sum_{N < i+j \le 2N} a_i b_j \right|$$

$$< M\epsilon + 2M\epsilon + \left( \sum_{i=N}^{\infty} |a_i| \right) \left( \sum_{j=N}^{\infty} |b_j| \right)$$

$$< 4M\epsilon$$

To see absolute convergence, observe that for  $N \in \mathbb{N}$ ,

$$\sum_{k=0}^{N} |c_k| \le \sum_{k=0}^{N} \sum_{i=0}^{k} |a_i| |b_{k-i}| \le \left(\sum_{i=1}^{N} |a_i|\right) \left(\sum_{j=1}^{N} |b_j|\right) \le \left(\sum_{i=1}^{\infty} |a_i|\right) \left(\sum_{j=1}^{\infty} |b_j|\right) < \infty$$

Since the partial sums  $\sum_{k=0}^{N} |c_k|$  are monotonically nondecreasing, they converge by the monotone convergence theorem.

It follows by induction that the Cauchy product of a finitely many absolutely convergent series  $\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} a_{k,j}$ ,  $1 \le j \le r$ , is absolutely convergent with limit

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \sum_{k_1 + \dots + k_r = n} a_{k_1, 1} a_{k_2, 2} \dots a_{k_r, r}$$

# 1.3.13 Exercise 14

Let  $(s_n)_{n=0}^{\infty}$  be a sequence of complex numbers. For  $n \in \mathbb{Z}^{\geq 0}$ , we define the  $n^{th}$  arithmetric mean  $\sigma_n$  by

$$\sigma_n := \frac{s_0 + s_1 + \dots + s_n}{n+1}$$

If  $\lim_{n\to\infty} s_n = s$ , then  $\lim_{n\to\infty} \sigma_n = s$ .

*Proof.* Choose  $\epsilon > 0$ , and let  $N \in \mathbb{Z}^{\geq 1}$  be sufficiently large such that  $n \geq N$  implies that  $|s_n - s| < \frac{\epsilon}{2}$ . Then

$$|\sigma_n - s| = \left| \frac{s_0 + s_1 + \dots + s_n}{n+1} - s \right| = \left| \frac{s_0 + s_1 + \dots + s_n}{n+1} - (n+1) \frac{s}{n+1} \right|$$

$$\leq \frac{|s_0 - s| + \dots + |s_n - s|}{n}$$

Choose  $N' \geq N$  such that  $\frac{1}{N'+1} \sum_{j=0}^{N} |s_j - s| < \frac{\epsilon}{2}$ . Then

$$n \ge N' \Longrightarrow |\sigma_n - s| \le \sum_{j=0}^N \frac{|s_j - s|}{n+1} + \sum_{j=N+1}^n \frac{|s_j - s|}{n+1} \le \sum_{j=0}^N \frac{|s_j - s|}{N+1'} + \frac{\epsilon}{2} < \epsilon$$

Note that a sequence  $(s_n)$  need not converge in order for its arithmetic means  $(\sigma_n)$  to converge. Let  $s_n := (-1)^n$ . Then

$$|\sigma_n| = \begin{cases} 0 & n \equiv 1 \pmod{2} \\ \frac{1}{n+1} & n \equiv 0 \pmod{2} \end{cases}$$

from which it is immediate that  $\sigma_n \to 0$ .

We can even construct a sequence  $(s_n)$  satisfying  $s_n > 0$  for all n,  $\limsup_{n \to \infty} s_n = \infty$ , yet  $\lim_{n \to \infty} \sigma_n = 0$ . Define

$$s_n := \begin{cases} k & n = 2^k, \text{ for some } k \in \mathbb{Z}^{\geq 0} \\ \frac{1}{2^{2k}} & n \in (2^k, 2^{k+1}) \end{cases}$$

For a given  $n \in \mathbb{Z}^{\geq 0}$ , let k = k(n) be the maximal integer such that  $2^k \leq n$ , so that

$$\sigma_n = \frac{s_0 + s_1 + \dots + s_n}{n+1} \le \frac{\sum_{j=0}^k j + 2^j \cdot 2^{-2j}}{n+1} = \frac{k(k+1) + 4(1 - 2^{-(k+1)})}{2(n+1)} \le \frac{k(k+1) + 4}{2(2^k + 1)} \to 0$$

as  $n \to \infty$ .

For  $n \geq 1$ , set  $a_n := s_n - s_{n-1}$ . Then

$$s_n - \sigma_n = \frac{1}{n+1} \sum_{k=1}^n k a_k$$

Proof. Observe that

$$s_n - \sigma_n = s_0 + \sum_{k=1}^n [s_k - s_{k-1}] - \frac{1}{n+1} \sum_{k=0}^n s_k = s_0 + \sum_{k=1}^n a_k - \frac{s_0}{n+1} - \frac{1}{n+1} \sum_{k=1}^n \left( s_0 + \sum_{j=1}^k [s_j - s_{j-1}] \right)$$

$$= \sum_{k=1}^n a_k - \frac{1}{n+1} \sum_{k=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^k a_j$$

$$= \sum_{k=1}^n a_k - \frac{1}{n+1} \sum_{k=1}^n (n-k) a_k$$

$$= \frac{1}{n+1} \sum_{k=1}^n k a_k$$

Now assume that  $\lim_{n\to\infty} na_n = 0$  and  $\lim_{n\to\infty} \sigma_n = \sigma$  exists. Then  $\lim_{n\to\infty} s_n = \sigma$ .

*Proof.* Let  $\epsilon>0$  be given. Choose  $N\in\mathbb{Z}^{\geq 1}$  sufficiently large so that  $n\geq N$  implies that  $|na_n|<\epsilon$  and  $|\sigma_n-\sigma|<\epsilon$ . Choose  $N'\geq N$  such that  $n\geq N'$  implies that

$$\frac{1}{n+1} \sum_{k=1}^{N} k \left| a_k \right| < \epsilon$$

Then

$$n \ge N' \Longrightarrow |s_n - \sigma| \le |s_n - \sigma_n| + |\sigma_n - \sigma| < \epsilon + \frac{1}{n+1} \sum_{k=1}^n k a_k < 2\epsilon + \frac{1}{n+1} \sum_{k=N+1}^n k |a_k|$$
$$< 2\epsilon + \frac{1}{n+1} \sum_{k=N+1}^n \epsilon$$
$$\le 3\epsilon$$

It turns out that we can relax our hypothesis above that  $\lim_{n\to\infty} na_n = 0$  to just  $(na_n)_{n=1}^{\infty}$  is a bounded sequence.

*Proof.* Choose M > 0 such that  $|na_n| < M$  for all n. Let  $n \in \mathbb{Z}^{\geq 1}$  be large. For m < n, write

$$s_{n} - \sigma_{n} = \frac{n - m}{n - m} s_{n} - \sigma_{n} = -\sigma_{n} + \frac{1}{n - m} \sum_{i=m+1}^{n} s_{i} + \frac{1}{n - m} \sum_{i=m+1}^{n} [s_{n} - s_{i}]$$

$$= \frac{-(n - m) \sum_{i=0}^{n} s_{i}}{(n + 1)(n - m)} + \frac{(n + 1) \sum_{i=m+1}^{n} s_{i}}{(n - m)(n + 1)} + \frac{1}{n - m} \sum_{i=m+1}^{n} [s_{n} - s_{i}]$$

$$= \frac{\sum_{i=m+1}^{n} (m + 1)s_{i} - (n - m) \sum_{i=0}^{m} s_{i}}{(n - m)(n + 1)} + \frac{1}{n - m} \sum_{i=m+1}^{n} [s_{n} - s_{i}]$$

$$= \frac{m + 1}{n - m} \sigma_{n} - \frac{m + 1}{n - m} \sigma_{m} + \frac{1}{n - m} \sum_{i=m+1}^{n} [s_{n} - s_{i}]$$

For  $i \geq m+1$ ,

$$|s_n - s_i| = \left| \sum_{k=j+1}^n a_k \right| \le \sum_{k=j+1}^n |a_k| \le \sum_{k=j+1}^n \frac{M}{k} \le \sum_{k=j+1}^n \frac{M}{i+1} = \frac{M(n-i)}{i+1} \le \frac{M(n-m-1)}{m+2}$$

Choose  $\epsilon > 0$  small. Then  $\frac{n-\epsilon}{1+\epsilon}$  lies in the interval [m, m+1), for some nonnegative integer m, so that

$$m(1+\epsilon) \le n-\epsilon < (m+1)(1+\epsilon) \iff (m+1)\epsilon \le n-m < 1+(m+1)\epsilon,$$

which implies that  $\frac{m+1}{n-m} \leq \frac{1}{\epsilon}$  and therefore  $|s_n - s_i| < M\epsilon$ , for  $m+1 \leq i \leq n$ . Since  $m \to \infty$  as  $n \to \infty$  and by our hypothesis that  $\sigma_n \to \sigma$ , we see that

$$\limsup_{n \to \infty} |s_n - \sigma| \le \limsup_{n \to \infty} \left[ |\sigma_n - \sigma_m| + \frac{1}{n - m} \sum_{i = m + 1}^n M\epsilon \right]$$
$$= M\epsilon + \limsup_{n \to \infty} |\sigma_n - \sigma_m|$$
$$= M\epsilon$$

Since  $\epsilon > 0$  was arbitrary, we conclude that  $s_n \to \sigma$ .

### 1.3.14 Exercise 15

For solutions to exercises 16, 17, and 18, see my note on square root algorithms.

- 1.3.15 Exercise 16
- 1.3.16 Exercise 17
- 1.3.17 Exercise 18
- 1.3.18 Exercise 19
- 1.3.19 Exercise 20

If  $(p_n)_{n=1}^{\infty}$  is a Cauchy sequence in a metric space (X,d), and some subsequence  $(p_{n_k})_{k=1}^{\infty}$  converges to a point  $p \in X$ . Then  $p_n \to p$ .

*Proof.* Choose  $N \in \mathbb{Z}^{\geq 1}$  such that  $n, m \geq N$  implies that  $d(p_n, p_m) < \frac{\epsilon}{2}$ . Choose  $k_0 \in \mathbb{Z}^{\geq 1}$  such that  $k \geq k_0$  implies that  $n_k \geq N$  and  $d(p_{n_k}, p) < \frac{\epsilon}{2}$ . By the triangle inequality,

$$d(p_n,p) \le d(p_n,p_{n_k}) + d(p_{n_k},p) = \frac{\epsilon}{2} + \frac{\epsilon}{2} = \epsilon$$

1.3.20 Exercise 21

For solutions to exercises 23, 24, and 25, see my blog post entitled 'How to Complete Your Metric Space.'