

## 3.2 SEQUENCES AND SUMMATIONS

DEF: A *sequence in a set*  $A$  is a function  $f$  from a subset of the integers (usually  $\{0, 1, 2, \dots\}$  or  $\{1, 2, 3, \dots\}$ ) to  $A$ . The values of a sequence are also called *terms* or *entries*.

NOTATION: The value  $f(n)$  is usually denoted  $a_n$ . A sequence is often written  $a_0, a_1, a_2, \dots$

**Example 3.2.1:** Two sequences.

$$a_n = \frac{1}{n} \quad 1, \frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{3}, \frac{1}{4}, \dots$$

$$b_n = (-1)^n \quad 1, -1, 1, -1, \dots$$

**Example 3.2.2:** Five ubiquitous sequences.

$$n^2 \quad 0, 1, 4, 9, 16, 25, 36, 49, \dots$$

$$n^3 \quad 0, 1, 8, 27, 64, 125, 216, 343, \dots$$

$$2^n \quad 1, 2, 4, 8, 16, 32, 64, 128, \dots$$

$$3^n \quad 1, 3, 9, 27, 81, 243, 729, 2187, \dots$$

$$n! \quad 1, 1, 2, 6, 24, 120, 720, 5040, \dots$$

## STRINGS

DEF: A set of characters is called an *alphabet*.

**Example 3.2.3:** Some common alphabets:

$\{0, 1\}$  the binary alphabet

$\{0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9\}$  the decimal digits

$\{0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, A, B, C, D, E, F\}$   
the hexadecimal digits

$\{A, B, C, D, \dots, X, Y, Z\}$  English uppercase

ASCII

DEF: A *string* is a sequence in an alphabet.

NOTATION: Usually a string is written without commas, so that consecutive characters are juxtaposed.

**Example 3.2.4:** If  $f(0) = M$ ,  $f(1) = A$ ,  $f(2) = T$ , and  $f(3) = H$ , then write “MATH”.

## SPECIFYING a RULE

**Problem:** Given some initial terms  $a_0, a_1, \dots, a_k$  of a sequence, try to construct a rule that is consistent with those initial terms.

**Approaches:** There are two standard kinds of rule for calculating a generic term  $a_n$ .

DEF: A **recursion** for  $a_n$  is a function whose arguments are earlier terms in the sequence.

DEF: A **closed form** for  $a_n$  is a formula whose argument is the subscript  $n$ .

**Example 3.2.5:**  $1, 3, 5, 7, 9, 11, \dots$

recursion:  $a_0 = 1; \quad a_n = a_{n-1} + 2$  for  $n \geq 1$

closed form:  $a_n = 2n + 1$

The differences between consecutive terms often suggest a recursion. Finding a recursion is usually easier than finding a closed formula.

**Example 3.2.6:**  $1, 3, 7, 13, 21, 31, 43, \dots$

recursion:  $b_0 = 1; \quad b_n = b_{n-1} + 2n$  for  $n \geq 1$

closed form:  $b_n = n^2 + n + 1$

Sometimes, it is significantly harder to construct a closed formula.

**Example 3.2.7:** 1, 1, 2, 3, 5, 8, 13, 21, 34, ...

recursion:  $c_0 = 1, c_1 = 1;$

$$c_n = c_{n-1} + c_{n-2} \text{ for } n \geq 1$$

closed form:  $c_n = \frac{1}{\sqrt{5}} [G^{m+1} - g^{m+1}]$

$$\text{where } G = \frac{1 + \sqrt{5}}{2} \text{ and } g = \frac{1 - \sqrt{5}}{2}$$

## INFERRING a RULE

The ESSENCE of science is inferring rules from partial data.

**Example 3.2.8:** Sit under apple tree.  
Infer gravity.

**Example 3.2.9:** Watch starlight move 0.15 arc-seconds in total eclipse. Infer relativity.

**Example 3.2.10:** Observe biological species.  
Infer DNA.

**Important life skill:** Given a difficult general problem, start with special cases you can solve.

**Example 3.2.11:** Find a recursion and a closed form for the arithmetic progression:

$$c, c + d, c + 2d, c + 3d, \dots$$

recursion:  $a_0 = c; \quad a_n = a_{n-1} + d$

closed form:  $a_n = c + nd$ .

**Q:** How would you decide that a given sequence is an arithmetic progression?

**A:** Calculate differences betw consec terms.

DEF: The ***difference sequence*** for a sequence  $a_n$  is the sequence  $a'_n = a_n - a_{n-1}$  for  $n \geq 1$ .

Example 3.2.5 redux:

$a_n :$	1	3	5	7	9	11
$a'_n :$	2	2	2	2	2	

**Analysis:** Since  $a'_n$  is constant, the sequence is specified by this recursion:

$$a_0 = 1; a_n = a_{n-1} + 2 \text{ for } n \geq 1.$$

Moreover, it has this closed form:

$$\begin{aligned} a_n &= a_0 + a'_1 + a'_2 + \cdots + a'_n \\ &= a_0 + 2 + 2 + \cdots + 2 = 1 + 2n \end{aligned}$$

If you don't get a constant sequence on the first difference, then try reiterating.

**Revisit Example 1.7.6:** 1, 3, 7, 13, 21, 31, 43, ...

$$\begin{array}{rcccccc} b_n : & 1 & 3 & 7 & 13 & 21 & 31 & 43 \\ b'_n : & 2 & 4 & 6 & 8 & 10 & 12 & \\ b''_n : & 2 & 2 & 2 & 2 & 2 & & \end{array}$$

**Analysis:** Since  $b''_n$  is constant, we have

$$b'_n = 2 + 2n$$

Therefore,

$$\begin{aligned} b_n &= b_0 + b'_1 + b'_2 + \cdots + b'_n \\ &= b_0 + 2 \sum_{j=1}^n j = 1 + (n^2 + n) = n^2 + n + 1 \end{aligned}$$

**Consolation Prize:** Without knowing about finite sums, you can still extend the sequence:

$$\begin{array}{rcccccccc} b_n : & 1 & 3 & 7 & 13 & 21 & 31 & 43 & \underline{57} \\ b'_n : & 2 & 4 & 6 & 8 & 10 & 12 & \underline{14} & \\ b''_n : & 2 & 2 & 2 & 2 & 2 & \underline{2} & & \end{array}$$

## SUMMATIONS

DEF: Let  $a_n$  be a sequence. Then the **big-sigma** notation

$$\sum_{j=m}^n a_j$$

means the sum

$$a_m + a_{m+1} + a_{m+2} + \cdots + a_{n-1} + a_n$$

TERMINOLOGY:  $j$  is the **index of summation**

TERMINOLOGY:  $m$  is the **lower limit**

TERMINOLOGY:  $n$  is the **upper limit**

TERMINOLOGY:  $a_j$  is the **summand**

**Theorem 3.2.1.** *These formulas for summing falling powers are provable by induction (see §3.3):*

$$\sum_{j=1}^n j^1 = \frac{1}{2}(n+1)^2 \quad \sum_{j=1}^n j^2 = \frac{1}{3}(n+1)^3$$

$$\sum_{j=1}^n j^3 = \frac{1}{4}(n+1)^4 \quad \sum_{j=1}^n j^k = \frac{1}{k+1}(n+1)^{k+1}$$

**Example 3.2.12:** True Love and Thm 3.2.1

On the  $j^{\text{th}}$  day ... True Love gave me

$$j + (j - 1) + \cdots + 1 = \frac{(j + 1)^2}{2} \text{ gifts.}$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} \sum_{j=2}^{13} j^2 = \frac{1}{2} [2^2 + \cdots + 13^2]$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} [2 + 6 + \cdots + 78] = 364 \quad \text{slow}$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{14^3}{3} = 364 \quad \text{fast}$$

**Corollary 3.2.2.** *High-powered look-ahead to formulas for summing  $j^k : j = 0, 1, \dots, n$ .*

$$\sum_{j=1}^n j^2 = \sum_{j=1}^n (j^2 + j^1) = \frac{1}{3}(n + 1)^3 + \frac{1}{2}(n + 1)^2$$

$$\sum_{j=1}^n j^3 = \sum_{j=1}^n (j^3 + 3j^2 + j^1) = \cdots$$

## POTLATCH RULES for CARDINALITY

DEF: **nondominating cardinality:** Let  $A$  and  $B$  be sets. Then  $|A| \leq |B|$  means that  $\exists$  one-to-one function  $f : A \rightarrow B$ .

DEF: Set  $A$  and  $B$  have **equal cardinality** (write  $|A| = |B|$ ) if  $\exists$  bijection  $f : A \rightarrow B$ , which obviously implies that  $|A| \leq |B|$  and  $|B| \leq |A|$ .

DEF: **strictly dominating cardinality:** Let  $A$  and  $B$  be sets. Then  $|A| < |B|$  means that  $|A| \leq |B|$  and  $|A| \neq |B|$ .

DEF: The **cardinality** of a set  $A$  is  $n$  if  $|A| = |\{1, 2, \dots, n\}|$  and 0 if  $A = \emptyset$ . Such cardinalities are called **finite**. NOTATION:  $|A| = n$ .

DEF: The **cardinality** of  $\mathcal{N}$  is  $\omega$  (“omega”), or alternatively,  $\aleph_0$  (“aleph null”).

DEF: A set is **countable** if it is finite or  $\omega$ .

**Remark:**  $\aleph_0$  is the smallest infinite cardinality. The real numbers have cardinality  $\aleph_1$  (“aleph one”), which is larger than  $\aleph_0$ , for reasons to be given.

## INFINITE CARDINALITIES

**Proposition 3.2.3.** *There are as many even nonnegative numbers as non-negative numbers.*

**Proof:**  $f(2n) = n$  is a bijection. ◇

**Theorem 3.2.4.** *There are as many positive integers as rational fractions.*

$$\begin{array}{cccccc}
 \frac{1}{1} & \frac{1}{2} & \frac{1}{3} & \frac{1}{4} & \frac{1}{5} & \frac{1}{6} & \cdots \\
 \frac{2}{1} & \frac{2}{2} & \frac{2}{3} & \frac{2}{4} & \frac{2}{5} & \frac{2}{6} & \cdots \\
 \frac{3}{1} & \frac{3}{2} & \frac{3}{3} & \frac{3}{4} & \frac{3}{5} & \frac{3}{6} & \cdots \\
 \frac{4}{1} & \frac{4}{2} & \frac{4}{3} & \frac{4}{4} & \frac{4}{5} & \frac{4}{6} & \cdots \\
 \frac{5}{1} & \frac{5}{2} & \frac{5}{3} & \frac{5}{4} & \frac{5}{5} & \frac{5}{6} & \cdots \\
 \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots
 \end{array}$$

**Proof:**  $f\left(\frac{p}{q}\right) = \frac{(p+q-1)(p+q-2)}{2} + p$  ◇

**Example 3.2.13:**  $f\left(\frac{2}{3}\right) = \frac{(4)(3)}{2} + 2 = 8$

**Theorem 3.2.5.** (*G. Cantor*) *There are more positive real numbers than positive integers.*

**Semi-proof:** A putative bijection  $f : \mathcal{Z}^+ \rightarrow \mathcal{R}^+$  would generate a sequence in which each real number appears somewhere as an infinite decimal fraction, like this:

$$f(1) = .\underline{8}841752032669031\dots$$

$$f(2) = .1\underline{4}15926531424450\dots$$

$$f(3) = .320\underline{2}313932614203\dots$$

$$f(4) = .1679\underline{8}88138381728\dots$$

$$f(5) = .0452\underline{9}98136712310\dots$$

...

$$f(?) = .73988\dots$$

Let  $f(n)_k$  be the  $k$ th digit of  $f(n)$ , and let  $\pi$  be the permutation  $0 \mapsto 9, 1 \mapsto 0, \dots, 9 \mapsto 8$ . Then the infinite decimal fraction whose  $k$ th digit is  $\pi(f(n)_k)$  is not in the sequence. Therefore, the function  $f$  is not onto, and accordingly, not a bijection. ◇