

Section 1: Sequences

In this section, we examine sets of numbers called sequences. By evaluating a function $f(x)$ at successive positive integer values, we generate an ordered collection of real numbers. That is, we evaluate the function $f(x)$ at $n = 1, 2, 3, 4, \dots$ to get $a_1 = f(1)$, $a_2 = f(2)$, $a_3 = f(3)$, etc. to generate the set of numbers $\{a_1, a_2, a_3, \dots, a_n, a_{n+1}, \dots\}$. For example, the $f(x) = \frac{1}{x}$ generates the sequence $\{a_n\} = \frac{1}{n}$ which has terms $1, \frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{3}, \frac{1}{4}, \frac{1}{5}, \dots, \frac{1}{n}$. When studying sequences the properties of the underlying function $f(x)$ will often be of use in determining the behavior of the related sequence.

Definition: A sequence $\{a_n\}$ of real numbers $a_1, a_2, a_3, \dots, a_n$, is a function that assigns to each positive integer n a real number a_n . The number a_n is called the *nth* term of the sequence.

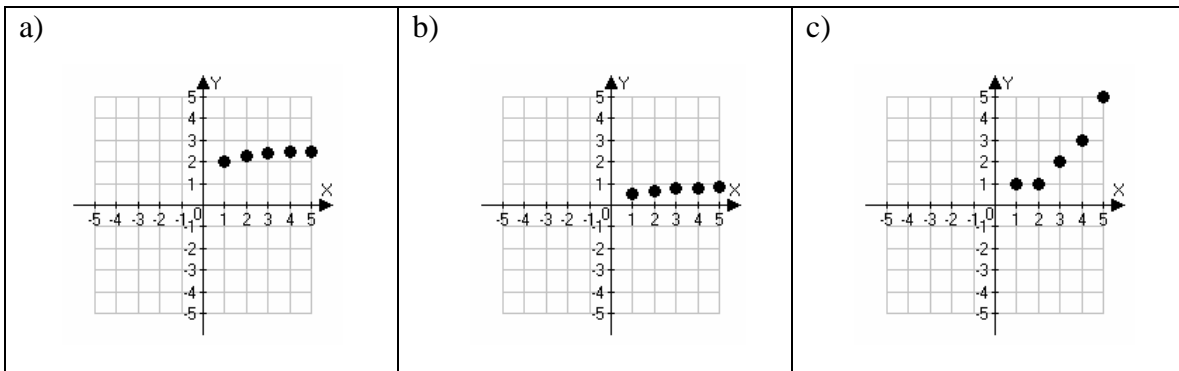
Example 1: Finding the Terms of a Sequence

Find the first five terms of each sequence and sketch a graph.

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

b)
$$a_n = \frac{n}{n+1}$$

c) The Fibonacci sequence is defined recursively as $a_1 = 1$, $a_2 = 1$, and
$$a_n = a_{n-1} + a_{n-2}$$



Arithmetic and Geometric Sequences

Definition: An **arithmetic sequence** is a sequence in which each term is found by adding a fixed number, d , called the **common difference**, to the previous term.

$$a_n = a_{n-1} + d$$

In this case, we can find a formula for the n th term in terms of the first term and the common difference:

$$\begin{aligned}a_2 &= a_1 + d \\a_3 &= a_2 + d = (a_1 + d) + d = a_1 + 2d \\a_4 &= a_3 + d = (a_1 + 2d) + d = a_1 + 3d \\a_5 &= a_4 + d = a_1 + 4d\end{aligned}$$

In general, we have $a_n = a_1 + (n-1)d$.

Example 2: Arithmetic Sequences

Finding terms of an arithmetic sequence.

Find the 19th term of the arithmetic sequence 2, 5, 8, 11, ...

Definition: A **geometric sequence** is a sequence in which each term is found by multiplying the previous term by a fixed number, r , called the **common ratio**

$$a_n = ra_{n-1}$$

In this case, we can find a formula for the n th term in terms of the first term and the common ratio:

$$\begin{aligned}a_2 &= ra_1 \\a_3 &= ra_2 = r(ra_1) = r^2a_1 \\a_4 &= ra_3 = r(r^2a_1) = r^3a_1\end{aligned}$$

In general, we have $a_n = r^{n-1}a_1$.

Example 3: Geometric Sequences

a) Find r for the geometric sequence $8, 16, 32, \dots, 4(2^n)$

b) Find the 7th term of the geometric sequence $7, 28, 112, 448, \dots$

Limits of Sequences

If, as n gets larger, a_n approaches a number L , then L is called the **limit of the sequence**.

If the sequence $a_1, a_2, a_3, \dots, a_n$ has a limit L , we write $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = L$.

Example 4: Sequences with Limits

Sequences with Limits

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

b)
$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{n}{n+1} = 1 \quad \text{To see this notice that } \frac{n}{n+1} = 1 - \frac{1}{n+1}$$

Convergent and Divergent Sequences

A sequence that has a limit is said to **converge** or be convergent. A sequence that does not converge is said to **diverge** or to be divergent.

Example 5: Determining Convergence or Divergence of Sequences

Do the following converge or diverge? If they converge, what is the limit?

a) $a_n = \frac{n+1}{n}$

b) $b_n = \frac{e^n}{n}$

c) $c_n = \frac{n}{e^n}$

The Sequences r^n and $1/n^r$

Theorem: If r is a number in the open interval $(-1,1)$ then $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} r^n = 0$.

Theorem: If $r > 0$, then $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{n^r} = 0$.

Limit Laws for Convergent Sequences

If $\{a_n\}$ and $\{b_n\}$ are convergent sequences and c is a constant, then

a) $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (a_n + b_n) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n + \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} b_n$

b) $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (a_n - b_n) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n - \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} b_n$

c) $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} ca_n = c \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n$

d) $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (a_n b_n) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} b_n$

e) $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left(\frac{a_n}{b_n} \right) = \frac{\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n}{\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} b_n}$ if $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} b_n \neq 0$

f) $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n^p = \left[\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n \right]^p$ if $p > 0$ and $a_n > 0$

g) **The Squeeze Theorem for Sequences:** If $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = L$ and $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} b_n = L$ and there exists an integer N such that $a_n \leq c_n \leq b_n$ for all $n > N$, then $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} c_n = L$.

This says that the values of the middle sequence are trapped by the values of the other sequences after some point.

h) **Absolute Value Theorem:** For the sequence $\{a_n\}$, if $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} |a_n| = 0$ then $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = 0$.

If this is true, then the sequence is said to converge absolutely.

i) **Theorem:** Suppose $\{a_n\} = \{f(n)\}$ for some differentiable function $f(x)$. If $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} f(x) = L$ then $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \{a_n\} = L$. Note: This is particularly useful in situations where L'Hopital's Rule applies.

Example 6: Determining Convergence or Divergence of Sequences

Determine the convergence or divergence of the following sequences.

a) $\{a_n\} = \{2 + (-1)^n\}$

b) $\{b_n\} = \left\{ \frac{n}{1-2n} \right\}$

c) $\{c_n\} = \left\{ \frac{n^2}{2n-1} \right\}$

d) $\{d_n\} = \left\{ (-1)^n \frac{1}{n!} \right\}$ Hint: Use the Squeeze Theorem with $a_n = \frac{-1}{2^n}$ and $b_n = \frac{1}{2^n}$

e) Determine the n th term for the sequence whose first five terms are $-\frac{2}{1}, \frac{8}{2}, -\frac{26}{6}, \frac{80}{24}, -\frac{242}{120}, \dots$ and determine if the sequence converges or diverges.

Definition: A sequence $\{a_n\}$ is **monotonic** if its terms are nondecreasing

$$a_1 \leq a_2 \leq a_3 \leq \dots \leq a_n \leq \dots$$

or if its terms are nonincreasing $a_1 \geq a_2 \geq a_3 \geq \cdots \geq a_n \geq \cdots$.

Example 7: Determining if a Sequence is Monotonic

Determine whether the given sequence is monotonic.

a) $\{a_n\} = \{2 + (-1)^n\}$

b) $\{b_n\} = \left\{ \frac{2n}{1+n} \right\}$

c) $\{c_n\} = \left\{ \frac{n^2}{2n-1} \right\}$

d) $\{d_n\} = \left\{ \frac{\cos n\pi}{n} \right\}$ Does this sequence converge absolutely?

Note that $|d_n| = \left| \frac{\cos n\pi}{n} \right| = \frac{|\cos n\pi|}{n} \leq \frac{1}{n}$, that is, $0 \leq |d_n| \leq \frac{1}{n}$. Since $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{n} = 0$, it follows from the squeeze theorem that $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} |d_n| = 0$ and then from the absolute value theorem that $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} d_n = 0$.

Definition: A sequence $\{a_n\}$ is **bounded** if there is a positive real number M such that $|a_n| \leq M$ for all n . We call M an upper bound of the sequence.

Example 8: Determining if a Sequence is Bounded

Determine whether each sequence is bounded.

a) $\{a_n\} = \{2 + (-1)^n\}$

b) $\{b_n\} = \left\{ \frac{2n}{1+n} \right\}$

c) $\{c_n\} = \left\{ \frac{n^2}{2n-1} \right\}$

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

Example 9: Determining if a given sequence is bounded or monotonic

Determine whether the given sequence is bounded or monotonic or both. Determine convergence if possible.

a) $\{a_n\} = \left\{ \frac{1}{n} \right\}$

b) $\{b_n\} = \left\{ \frac{n^2}{n+1} \right\}$

$$\left(\frac{x^2}{x+1} \right)' = \frac{(x+1)2x - x^2}{(x+1)^2} = \frac{2x^2 + 2x - x^2}{(x+1)^2} = \frac{x^2 + 2x}{(x+1)^2} > 0 \text{ if } x > 0$$

c) $\{c_n\} = \{(-1)^n\}$