

Sequences

Definition 1: A *sequence* is an ordered list of numbers: a, b, c, d, \mathbf{K} . Each number is called a *term of the sequence* and is referred to by the number of its position in the listing. So in the listing above, a is the first term, b is the second term, c is the third term and so forth. If there are only a finite number of terms in the sequence, then the sequence is called a *finite sequence*. Otherwise there are an infinite number of terms in the sequence and the sequence is called an *infinite sequence*.

Notation: The following notation to indicate a sequence: $\{a_1, a_2, a_3, a_4, \mathbf{K}, a_n, \mathbf{K}\}$, or in a more compact form $\{a_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$.

In this second form, the role of n is that of a *counter* and indicates the order in which the terms are listed. It is called the *index* for the sequence. Notice that in this case we have “counted” the terms of the sequence corresponding to the positions they hold. That is to say, a_1 is the first term, a_2 is the second term, a_3 is the third term, and so forth. In general, a_n is the n^{th} term. However it is sometimes desirable to change the index. We could, for example, write the above sequence as:

$$\{a_{n+1}\}_{n=0}^{\infty}, \text{ or } \{a_{n-1}\}_{n=2}^{\infty}.$$

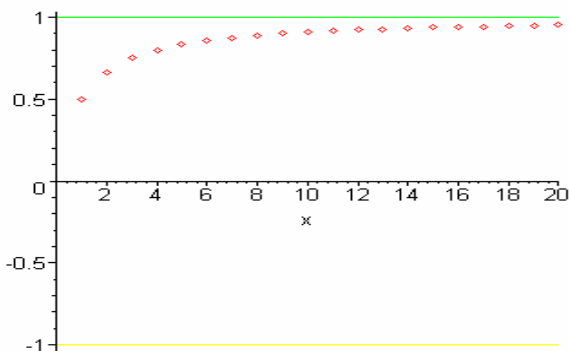
In both cases the terms of the sequence are the same and listed in the same order. So they are the same sequence. In fact, if we have two sequences, say $\{a_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$ and $\{b_i\}_{i=k}^{\infty}$, that are the same numbers listed in the same order, we say the sequences are equal and write

$$\{a_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty} = \{b_i\}_{i=k}^{\infty}.$$

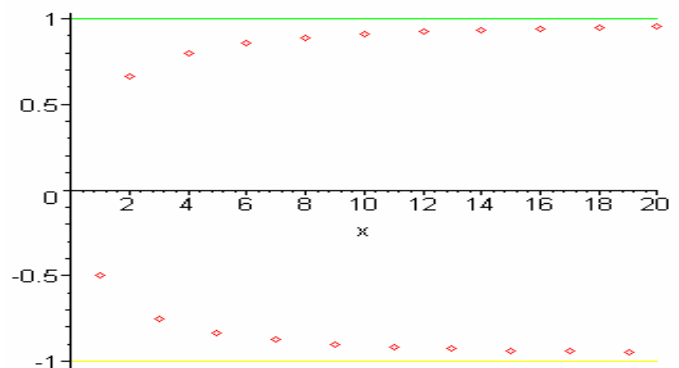
Finally, there will be occasions in which the counter is unimportant to the discussion. In these cases we simply write $\{a_n\}$.

Example 1: The following examples of sequences written in various forms.

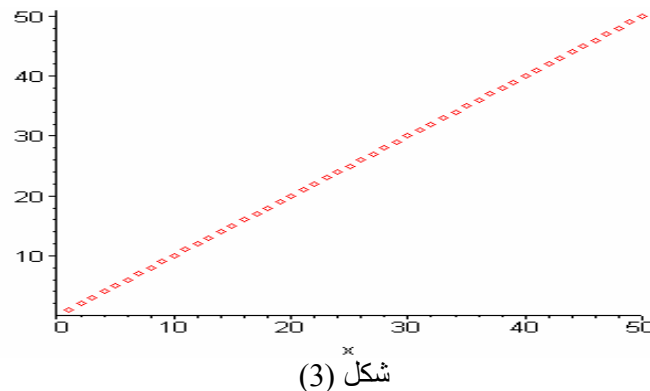
- 1) $\left\{ \frac{n}{n+1} \right\}_{n=1}^{\infty} = \left\{ \frac{1}{2}, \frac{2}{3}, \frac{3}{4}, \mathbf{K}, \frac{n}{n+1}, \mathbf{K} \right\}$
- 2) $\left\{ \frac{(-1)^n n}{n+1} \right\}_{n=1}^{\infty} = \left\{ -\frac{1}{2}, \frac{2}{3}, -\frac{3}{4}, \mathbf{K}, \frac{(-1)^n n}{n+1}, \mathbf{K} \right\}$
- 3) $\{n\}_{n=1}^{\infty} = \{1, 2, 3, \mathbf{K}, n, \mathbf{K}\}$.



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There are several examples of a sequence can be defined. Each has its place in mathematics.

- *Defining a sequence by a statement:*

- 1) The terms of the sequence are the squares of the number of the term. This statement yields the sequence:

$$\{n^3\}_{n=1}^{\infty} = \{1, 8, 27, \mathbf{K}, n^3, \mathbf{K}\}$$

- 2) The n^{th} term of the sequence is the n^{th} term in the decimal expansion of the number p . This statement yields the sequence.

$$\{p_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty} = \{3, 1, 4, 1, 5, 9, \mathbf{K}\}$$

- *Defining a sequence by an equation:*

- 1) The sequence $\{f_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$ is defined by

$$f_1 = 1; f_2 = 1; f_n = f_{n-1} + f_{n-2}, n \geq 3.$$

- 2) This equation yields the sequence

$$\{f_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty} = \{1, 1, 2, 3, 5, 8, 13, \mathbf{K}\}$$

This sequence is known as the Fibonacci sequence.

- *Defining a sequence by a formula:*

Suppose $y = f(x)$ is a function. Then we can define a sequence $\{a_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$ by setting $a_n = f(n)$ (provided the quantity $f(n)$ is defined). In Example 1 (1), choose $f(x) = \frac{x}{x+1}$. For Example 1 (3), there are several

functions that can be used depending on which form you view the sequence. For $\{n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$, choose $f(x) = x$.

Definition 2: Let $\{a_n\}$ denote a sequence. If there is a unique finite number L for which the terms of the sequence a_n are arbitrarily close to L for all n sufficiently large, then $\{a_n\}$ is said to **converge** to L and we write $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = L$.

The number L is called the **limit of the sequence** $\{a_n\}$. If the number L is not known or is unimportant to the discussion, then we say simply $\{a_n\}$ **converges**, or $\{a_n\}$ is **convergent**. If no such number L exists, then we say $\{a_n\}$ is **divergent**, or $\{a_n\}$ **diverges**. So every sequence either converges or diverges, but no sequence does both.

Example 2: Consider

$$\left\{ \frac{1}{n^2} \right\}_{n=1}^{\infty} = \left\{ 1, \frac{1}{2^2}, \frac{1}{3^2}, \mathbf{K}, \frac{1}{n^2}, \mathbf{K} \right\}.$$

Here $a_n = \frac{1}{n^2}$ for each n . Clearly, if n is large, $a_n = \frac{1}{n^2}$ is arbitrarily close to zero. So we write $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{n^2} = 0$ and we say $\left\{ \frac{1}{n^2} \right\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$ converges to zero.

Example 3: Consider $\{\sqrt{n}\}_{n=1}^{\infty} = \{1, \sqrt{2}, \sqrt{3}, \mathbf{K}, \sqrt{n}, \mathbf{K}\}$. Here $a_n = \sqrt{n}$ for each n . As the values of n get large, $a_n = \sqrt{n}$ become arbitrarily large also and therefore the terms of the sequence do not get close to any finite number. So we say $\{\sqrt{n}\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$ diverges.

Example 4: Consider

$$\left\{ 1 + \frac{(-1)^n}{2^n} \right\}_{n=0}^{\infty} = \left\{ 1, \frac{1}{2}, \frac{5}{4}, \frac{7}{8}, \mathbf{K}, 1 + \left(-\frac{1}{2}\right)^n, \mathbf{K} \right\}.$$

Here $a_n = 1 + \frac{(-1)^n}{2^n} = 1 + \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^n$ for each n . For large values of n , $(-1/2)^n$ is numerically close to zero (even though the signs of these numbers alternate between positive and negative). So for large n , a_n is arbitrarily close to one. So we write $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left(1 + \frac{(-1)^n}{2^n}\right) = 1$ and we say $\left\{ 1 + \frac{(-1)^n}{2^n} \right\}_{n=0}^{\infty}$ converges to one.

Example 5: Consider $\{(-1)^n\}_{n=2}^{\infty} = \{1, -1, 1, -1, \mathbf{K}, (-1)^n, \mathbf{K}\}$.

Here $a_n = (-1)^n$ for each n . As n becomes large, $a_n = (-1)^n$ simply alternates between 1 and -1 . Therefore the terms of the sequence do not get close to any unique (one) number. Therefore we say $\{(-1)^n\}_{n=2}^{\infty}$ diverges.

Methods of Determining Convergence or Divergence of a Sequence

1- Using limits of functions:

Theorem 1: (Modeling Theorem). Let $\{a_n\}$ be a sequence, let $f(n) = a_n$, and suppose that $f(x)$ exists for every real number $x \geq 1$.

(i) $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} f(x) = L$, then $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} f(n) = L$.

(ii) $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} f(x) = \infty$ (or $-\infty$), then $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} f(n) = \infty$ (or $-\infty$).

Example 6: Consider $\left\{ \frac{n^2}{n^2 + 1} \right\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$. Define $f(x) = \frac{x^2}{x^2 + 1}$ for $x > 0$. Using L'Hôpital's Rule,

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} f(x) = \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{x^2}{x^2 + 1} \stackrel{L.R.}{=} \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{2x}{2x} \stackrel{L.R.}{=} \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{2}{2} = 1.$$

So $\left\{ \frac{n^2}{n^2 + 1} \right\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$ converges to 1.

Example 7: Consider $\{\sqrt{n}\}_{n=3}^{\infty}$. Define $f(x) = \sqrt{x}$ for $x \geq 3$. Then

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

So $\{\sqrt{n}\}_{n=3}^{\infty}$ diverges.

2- Limit Laws for Sequences:

Just as there are rules for evaluating limits of functions, there are similar rules for evaluating limits of sequences. They are listed below.

Theorem 2: Suppose $\{a_n\}$ and $\{b_n\}$ are convergent sequences and c is a constant. Then

1. $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (a_n \pm b_n) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n \pm \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} b_n$
2. $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (a_n b_n) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} b_n$
3. $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} c = c$; $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (c a_n) = c \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n$
4. $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{a_n}{b_n} = \frac{\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n}{\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} b_n}$, provided $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} b_n \neq 0$
5. $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (a_n)^p = [\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n]^p$
6. If $a_n \leq b_n$ for all but a finite number of terms, then $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n \leq \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} b_n$.

Theorem 3: Let r be a real number. Then

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} r^n = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } -1 < r < 1 \\ 1 & \text{if } r = 1 \\ \infty & \text{if } r > 1 \\ \text{DNE} & \text{if } r \leq -1 \end{cases}.$$

DNE means does not exist.

Example 8: Consider $\left\{ \frac{2n}{n^2 + 4} \right\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$. (Using Number 4, 3, 1, and 5)

$$\begin{aligned} \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{2n}{n^2 + 4} &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{2n}{n^2 + 4} \cdot \frac{n^{-2}}{n^{-2}} = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\frac{2}{n}}{1 + \frac{4}{n^2}} = \frac{\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{2}{n}}{\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left(1 + \frac{4}{n^2} \right)} = \frac{2 \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{n}}{\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} 1 + 4 \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{n^2}} \\ &= \frac{2 \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{n}}{\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} 1 + 4 \left(\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{n} \right)^2} = \frac{2 \cdot 0}{1 + 4(0)^2} = 0. \end{aligned}$$

3- Comparing with other sequences:

Theorem 4: (The Squeeze Theorem) If $\{a_n\}$, $\{b_n\}$, and $\{c_n\}$ are sequences and $a_n \leq b_n \leq c_n$ for every n and if $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = L = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} c_n$, then $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} b_n = L$.

Example 9: Consider $\left\{ n! / n^n \right\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$. (Recall $n! = 1 \cdot 2 \cdot 3 \cdot \dots \cdot n$). Observe

$$0 \leq \frac{n!}{n^n} = \frac{1 \cdot 2 \cdot 3 \cdot \dots \cdot (n-1) \cdot n}{\underbrace{n \cdot n \cdot n \cdot \dots \cdot n}_{n\text{-times}}} = \frac{1}{n} \cdot \frac{2}{n} \cdot \frac{3}{n} \cdot \dots \cdot \frac{n-1}{n} \cdot \frac{n}{n} \leq \frac{1}{n}.$$

The sequence $\{0\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$ is a constant sequence and converges to zero. The sequence $\{1/n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$ also converges to zero. (See Example 1 above.) So by the Squeeze Theorem, $\{n!/n^n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$ converges to zero.

Example 10: Consider $\{(-1)^n / 2^n\}_{n=0}^{\infty}$.

Since $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{2^n} = 0$, the sequence $\{1/2^n\}_{n=0}^{\infty}$ converges to zero. So the sequence $\{(-1)^n / 2^n\}_{n=0}^{\infty}$ also converges to zero via the Squeeze Theorem.

Theorem 5: Let $\{a_n\}$ be a sequence. If $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} |a_n| = 0$, then $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = 0$.

Example 11: Consider $\left\{ \frac{n \cos n}{n^2 + 1} \right\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$. We know that $0 \leq \left| \frac{n \cos n}{n^2 + 1} \right| \leq \frac{n}{n^2 + 1}$. Furthermore, the sequence $\{0\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$ converges to zero because $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} 0 = 0$. Since

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{n}{n^2 + 1} = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\frac{1}{n}}{1 + \frac{1}{n^2}} = \frac{0}{1 + 0} = 0,$$

the sequence $\left\{ \frac{n}{n^2 + 1} \right\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$ also converges to zero. Therefore, $\left\{ \frac{n \cos n}{n^2 + 1} \right\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$ converges to zero via the Squeeze Theorem.

4- Bounded Monotone Sequences:

Definition 3: Let $\{a_n\}$ be a sequence. If $a_n \leq a_{n+1}$ for all $n \geq 1$ but a finite number of terms, then the sequence $\{a_n\}$ is said to be (monotone) **increasing**. If $a_n \geq a_{n+1}$ for all $n \geq 1$, but a finite number of terms, the sequence $\{a_n\}$ is said to be (monotone) **decreasing**.

Finally, the sequence $\{a_n\}$ is said to be **monotone** provided it is either increasing or decreasing.

The sequence $\{a_n\}$ is said to be **bounded above** (or **bounded below**) provided there is a number M for which $a_n \leq M$ (or $a_n \geq M$) for all values of n . The sequence $\{a_n\}$ is said to be **bounded** provided it is both bounded above and bounded below.

The relevance to convergence is given by the following theorem

Theorem 6: A bounded, monotone sequence converges.

Example 12: Show that the sequence $\left\{ \frac{1}{n+1} \right\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$ is decreasing.

Solution 1. We must show that $a_n \leq a_{n+1}$ $n \geq 1$ that is,

$$\frac{1}{n+1} > \frac{1}{n+2}$$

for all $n \geq 1$.

Solution 2. Consider the function $f(x) = \frac{1}{x+1}$

$$f'(x) = \frac{-1}{(x+1)^2} < 0 \quad \text{whenever } x \geq 1$$

Thus, f is decreasing on $(0, \infty)$ and so $f(n) > f(n+1)$. Therefore, $\{a_n\}$ is decreasing.

Problems:

1. Consider the sequence 1, 3, 5, 7, **K**

a) If $\{a_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$ denotes this sequence, then

$$a_1 = \text{-----}, a_4 = \text{-----}, a_7 = \text{-----}$$

The general term is $a_n = \text{-----}$.

a) If $\{b_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$ denotes this sequence, then

$$b_0 = \text{-----}, b_4 = \text{-----}, b_8 = \text{-----}$$

The general term is $b_n = \text{-----}$.

2-10. Find the limit of the given sequence if it exists

2. $\left\{ \frac{n}{n+2} \right\}$

4. $\left\{ \frac{(-1)^n}{n+1} \right\}$

6. $\left\{ \left(\frac{1}{2} \right)^n \right\}$

8. $\left\{ \frac{n}{e^n} \right\}$

10. $\{(-1)^n\}$

12. $\left\{ \frac{n!}{(n+1)!} \right\}_{n=0}^{\infty}$

14. $\left\{ \ln \left(\frac{1}{n} \right) \right\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$

16. $\left\{ \frac{\ln n}{n} \right\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$

3. $\left\{ \frac{\ln n}{n+2} \right\}$

5. $\left\{ \frac{\sin n}{n+1} \right\}$

7. $\left\{ 1 + \left(-\frac{1}{2} \right)^n \right\}$

9. $\left\{ \sqrt[n]{n} \right\}$

11. $\left\{ \frac{n!}{n^n} \right\}$

13. $\left\{ \frac{\ln n}{n} \right\}_{n=2}^{\infty}$

15. $\{1 + (-1)^n\}$

17. $\left\{ n \sin \frac{p}{n} \right\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$

18-21. Find the general term of the sequence, starting with $n = 1$, determine if the sequence converges, and if so find its limit.

18. $\frac{1}{2}, \frac{3}{4}, \frac{5}{6}, \frac{7}{8}, \mathbf{K}$

20. $\frac{1}{2}, \frac{-1}{4}, \frac{1}{8}, \frac{-1}{16}, \mathbf{K}$

19. $(1 - \frac{1}{2}), (\frac{1}{3} - \frac{1}{2}), (\frac{1}{3} - \frac{1}{4}), (\frac{1}{5} - \frac{1}{4}), \mathbf{K}$

21. $3, \frac{3}{2}, \frac{3}{2^2}, \frac{3}{2^3}, \mathbf{K}$

22-27. Determine whether the given sequence is increasing, decreasing, or not monotonic.

22. $\left\{ \frac{n}{n+1} \right\}$

23. $\left\{ \frac{e^n}{(n+1)!} \right\}$

24. $\left\{ \frac{1}{n!} \right\}$

25. $\left\{ \frac{1}{3^n} \right\}$

26. $\{\cos nx\}$

27. $\{(-2)^n\}$

28-29. Determine the general term of the sequences:

28. $\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{12}, \frac{1}{30}, \frac{1}{56}, \frac{1}{90}, \mathbf{L}$

29. $\frac{1}{5^3}, \frac{3}{5^5}, \frac{5}{5^7}, \frac{7}{5^9}, \frac{9}{5^{11}}, \mathbf{L}$