

Section 12.1: Sequences

Introduction:

A **sequence** $\{a_n\}$ is a function whose domain is the set of positive integers. The function values $a_1, a_2, a_3, \dots, a_n, \dots$ are called the **terms** of the sequence. The **value** of the function at the integer n is a_n . The variable n is called the **index**.

A sequence may be specified in three ways:

- By an explicit formula,

$$a_n = 2(3^n)$$

- By a recursive formula, and

$$a_{n+1} = 3a_n, \quad a_1 = 6$$

- By giving enough terms to establish a pattern.
6, 18, 54, 162, . . .

Graphing a Sequence on the TI-83/84:

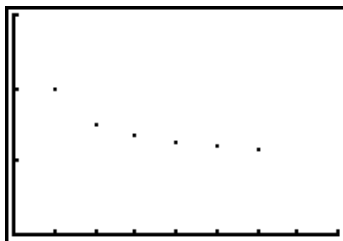
1. Press **MODE**. Select **Seq** at the end of the fourth line.
2. Press **Y=** and type in the sequence. Use the **X,T,θ,n** key to get the variable n .
3. Adjust the viewing window as necessary.

Example: Graph the sequence $b_n = 1 + \frac{1}{n}$.

The Limit of a Sequence:

Consider the sequence $b_n = 1 + \frac{1}{n}$.

$b_1 = 2, b_2 = 3/2, b_3 = 4/3, b_4 = 5/4, b_5 = 6/5, b_6 = 7/6.$



It appears that $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} b_n = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left(1 + \frac{1}{n} \right) = 1$.

NOTE: All limit theorems for functions (learned in Calculus I) also apply to sequences.

Definition: If $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = L$ is finite, then the sequence $\{a_n\}$ **converges**; if

$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = L$ is infinite or does not exist, then the sequence $\{a_n\}$ **diverges**.

Observe that if p is a positive number $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{n^p} = 0$.

Examples: Show that the following sequences converge.

1.
$$a_n = \frac{n^2 + 3n}{2n^2 + 1}$$

2.
$$b_n = \frac{3n - 1}{n + \sqrt{n}}$$

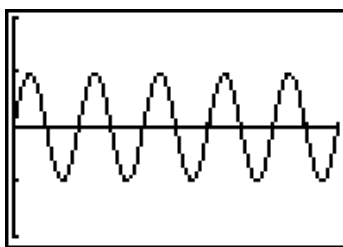
Theorem: Let $\{a_n\}$ be a sequence and let f be a function defined on $[1, \infty)$ such that $f(n) = a_n$ for $n = 1, 2, 3, \dots$

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

However, it is not necessarily true that if $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = L$, then $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} f(x) = L$. For

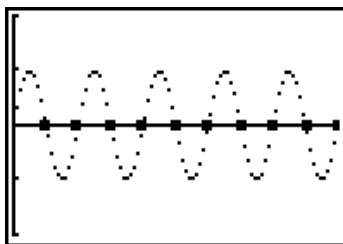
example:

If $f(x) = \sin \pi x$, then $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \sin \pi x$ does not exist. See the graph below.



The graph of
 $y = \sin \pi x$.

If $a_n = \sin \pi n$, then $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sin \pi n = 0$. This is because $\sin(n\pi)$ is a succession of zeros for $n = 1, 2, 3, \dots$. See the graph below.



The graph of
 $a_n = \sin \pi n$
with $y = \sin \pi x$
superimposed.

Example: Does $\left\{ \frac{\ln n}{e^n} \right\}$ converge?

Some Convergence Theorems:

The Squeeze Theorem: Suppose that $\{a_n\}$ and $\{c_n\}$ both converge to L and that $a_n \leq b_n \leq c_n$ for $n \geq K$ (K is a fixed positive integer). Then $\{b_n\}$ converges to L .

Example: Use the Squeeze Theorem to show that $\left\{ \frac{\sin^3 n}{n} \right\}$ converges.

Absolute Value Theorem: If $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} |a_n| = 0$, then $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = 0$.

Example: Show that if $-1 < r < 1$, then the sequence $\{r^n\}$ converges.

Solution:

If $r = 0$, $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} 0^n = 0$. So, we only need to deal with the case when $-1 < r < 0$ and $0 < r < 1$; that is, when $0 < |r| < 1$.

Since $|r| < 1$, $\frac{1}{|r|} > 1$. Thus, there is some positive number p such that

$$\frac{1}{|r|} = 1 + p.$$

Now, we recall the Binomial Formula which says

$$\begin{aligned} (a + b)^n &= a^n + na^{n-1}b + \frac{n(n-1)}{2!}a^{n-2}b^2 + \frac{n(n-1)(n-2)}{3!}a^{n-3}b^3 \\ &\quad + \dots + nab^{n-1} + b^n \\ &= \sum_{k=0}^n \binom{n}{k} a^{n-k} b^k. \end{aligned}$$

Note that

$$\binom{n}{k} = \frac{n!}{k!(n-k)!}.$$

Using the Binomial Formula, we see that

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{1}{|r^n|} &= \frac{1}{|r|^n} = (1 + p)^n = 1 + np + \text{other positive terms} \\ &\geq np. \end{aligned}$$

Hence, we know that

$$0 \leq |r^n| \leq \frac{1}{np}$$

and that

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} 0 = 0 \quad \text{and} \quad \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{np} = 0.$$

So, by the Squeeze Theorem, $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} |r^n| = 0$. And, by the theorem above

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} r^n = 0.$$

Monotonic Sequences:

A sequence $\{a_n\}$ is called **nondecreasing** if $a_n \leq a_{n+1}$, $n \geq 1$.

A sequence $\{b_n\}$ is called **nonincreasing** if $b_n \geq b_{n+1}$, $n \geq 1$.

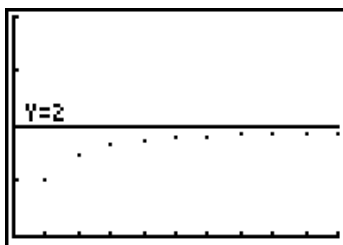
A sequence is **monotonic** if it is either nondecreasing or nonincreasing.

Two examples of nondecreasing sequences are

$$a_n = n^2 \quad \text{and} \quad b_n = 1 - \frac{1}{n}.$$

A nondecreasing sequence can do one of two things:

1. March off to infinity, or
2. If it is bounded above (that is, $a_n \leq K$ for $n \geq 1$ and some fixed number K), then it must bump against a “lid.” See the diagram below.



A nondecreasing
sequence that is
bounded above by 2.

NOTE: Sequence $\{a_n\}$ above marches off to infinity. However, sequence $\{b_n\}$ above is bounded above by 1 and has limit 1.

Bounded Sequences:

1. A sequence $\{a_n\}$ is **bounded above** if there is a real number M such that $a_n \leq M$ for all n . The number M is called an **upper bound** of the sequence.
2. A sequence $\{a_n\}$ is **bounded below** if there is a real number N such that $a_n \geq N$ for all n . The number N is called an **lower bound** of the sequence.
3. A sequence $\{a_n\}$ is **bounded** if it is bounded above and bounded below.

Monotonic Sequence Theorem: Every bounded, monotonic sequence is convergent.

NOTE: In the theorem above it is not necessary that the sequence $\{a_n\}$ be monotonic initially, only that they be monotonic from some point on—that is, for $n \geq K$. In fact, *the convergence or divergence of a sequence does not depend on the character of its initial terms but rather on what is true for large n .*

Example: Use the Monotonic Sequence Theorem to show that

$$a_n = \left(1 - \frac{1}{4}\right) \left(1 - \frac{1}{9}\right) \cdots \left(1 - \frac{1}{n^2}\right), \quad n \geq 2$$

converges.