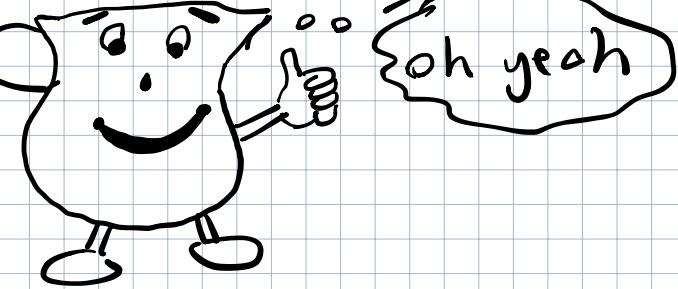




## {Sequences and Series}



- A sequence can be thought of as a list of numbers written in a definite order:

$$a_1, a_2, a_3, \dots, a_n, \dots$$

↓                              ↑  
 first term                       $n^{\text{th}}$  term

- Notice that for all  $n \in \mathbb{Z}^+$  there is a corresponding number  $a_n$ . We may define a sequence as a function whose domain is the set of positive integers.

- You might think  $f(n)$  is a nice way to denote a sequence, however we denote a sequence  $a_n$  as so:

$\{a_1, a_2, a_3, \dots\}$  is denoted by

$$\{a_n\} \text{ or } \left\{ a_n \right\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$$

### Example 1

\*this is where Kerm said don

a)  $\left\{ \frac{n}{n+1} \right\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$ ,  $a_n = \frac{n}{n+1}$ ,  $\left\{ \frac{1}{2}, \frac{2}{3}, \frac{3}{4}, \frac{4}{5}, \dots, \frac{n}{n+1}, \dots \right\}$

b)  $\left\{ \frac{(-1)^n (n+1)}{3^n} \right\}$ ,  $a_n = \frac{(-1)^n (n+1)}{3^n}$ ,  $\left\{ -\frac{2}{3}, \frac{3}{9}, -\frac{4}{27}, \frac{5}{81}, \dots, \frac{(-1)^n (n+1)}{3^n}, \dots \right\}$

c)  $\left\{ \sqrt{n-3} \right\}_{n=3}^{\infty}$ ,  $\left\{ 0, 1, \sqrt{2}, \sqrt{3}, \dots, \sqrt{n-3}, \dots \right\}$

$$d) \left\{ \cos\left(\frac{n\pi}{6}\right) \right\}_{n=0}^{\infty}, \quad \left\{ 1, \frac{\sqrt{3}}{2}, \frac{1}{2}, 0, \dots, \cos\left(\frac{n\pi}{6}\right), \dots \right\}$$


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Example 2: Find a formula for the general term  $a_n$  of the sequence!

$$\left\{ \frac{3}{5}, -\frac{4}{25}, \frac{5}{125}, -\frac{6}{625}, \frac{7}{3125}, \dots \right\}$$

notice numerator starts at 3 and increases by 1 each term

$$(n+2)$$

notice that denominator is always a power of 5,  
denominator is  $5^n$

so for ...  $\left( \frac{n+2}{5^n} \right)$

$$\begin{aligned} & (-1)(-1)^n \\ & (-1)^{n+1} \end{aligned}$$

we need negative even terms so we  
multiply by  $(-1)^{n+1}$

$$a_n = \frac{(-1)^{n+1} (n+2)}{5^n}$$


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Ex #3: Some sequences Do NOT have a simple defining equation.

a) Fibonacci sequence  $\{f_n\}$  is defined recursively by the conditions

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

b) The sequence  $\{p_n\}$  where  $p_n$  is the population of the world as of January 1<sup>st</sup> in the year  $n$ .

c) Let  $a_n$  be the digit in the  $n^{\text{th}}$  decimal place of the number e,  $\{a_n\}$  is a well-defined sequence whose first terms are

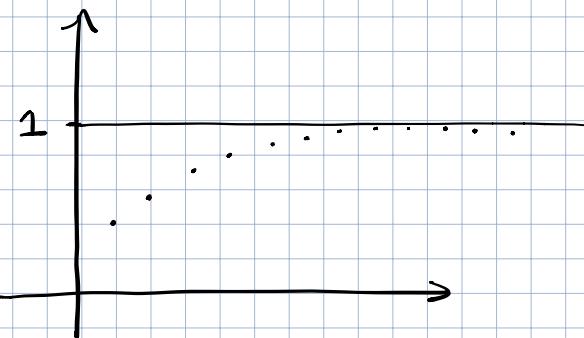
$$\{7, 1, 8, 2, 8, 1, \dots\}$$

Consider the sequence defined by:

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

What happens to  $a_n$  as  $n$  gets large?

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{n}{n+1} = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{1 + \frac{1}{n}} = 1$$



**Def:** A sequence has the limit  $L$  and we write:

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = L \text{ or } a_n \rightarrow L \text{ as } n \rightarrow \infty$$

- If we can make the terms  $a_n$  as close to  $L$  as we like by taking  $n$  sufficiently large.
- If  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n$  exists, we say the sequence converges (or is convergent). Otherwise, we say the sequence diverges (or is divergent).

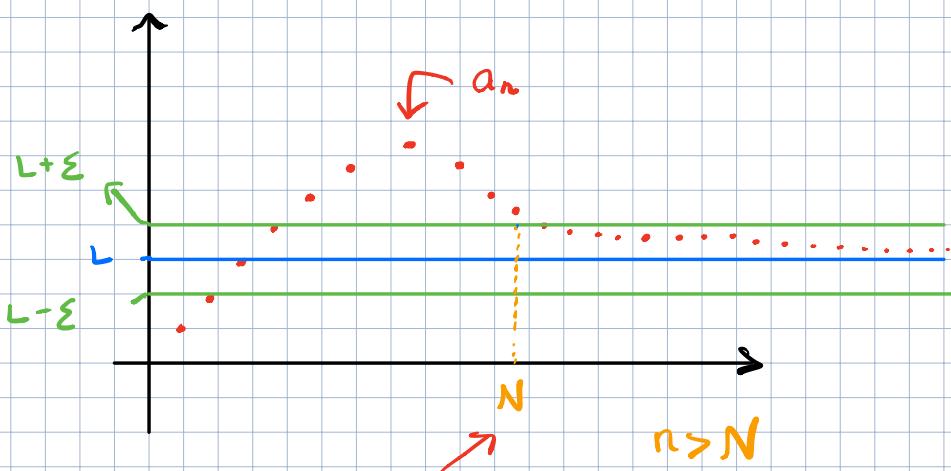
### Definition (again...)

A sequence  $\{a_n\}$  has the limit  $L$  and we write

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = L \text{ or } a_n \rightarrow L \text{ as } n \rightarrow \infty$$

if for every  $\epsilon > 0$ , there is a corresponding integer  $N$  such that if

$$n > N \text{ then } |a_n - L| < \epsilon.$$



Theorem: If  $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} f(x) = L$  and  $f(n) = a_n$   
 where  $n$  is an integer then:  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = L$

Definition:  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = \infty$  means that for every positive number  $M$  there is an integer  $N$  such that if

$$n > N \text{ then } a_n > M$$

Squeeze Theorem may be applied for sequences:

If  $a_n \leq b_n \leq c_n$  for  $n \geq n_0$  and

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} c_n = L, \quad \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} b_n = L$$

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

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = 0$$

Ex: Evaluate:  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{(-1)^n}{n}$  if it exists....

Consider  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{(-1)^n}{n} \right| = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{n} = 0$

which means  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{(-1)^n}{n} = 0$

{Prove Theorem \*}

$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = 0$  then  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} |a_n| = 0$

$\hookrightarrow \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = L$ , then  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} |a_n| = |L|$

Theorem: If  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = L$ , and the function

$f$  is continuous at  $L$ , then

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} f(a_n) = f(L)$$

Ex: Find  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sin\left(\frac{\pi}{n}\right)$

first notice the sine function is continuous  
at 0,

$$\begin{aligned} \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sin\left(\frac{\pi}{n}\right) &= \sin\left(\underbrace{\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\pi}{n}}_0\right) \\ &= \sin(0) = 0 \end{aligned}$$

Ex: for what values of  $r$  is the sequence  $\{r^n\}$  convergent.

We know that  $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} a^x = \infty$  for all  $a > 1$

and  $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} a^x = 0$  for  $0 < a < 1$ . From prior theorems we have:

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

It is clear that

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} 1^n = 1 \quad \text{and} \quad \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} 0^n = 0$$

if  $-1 < r < 0$ , then  $0 < |r| < 1$  so

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

Therefore  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} r^n = 0$  by prior theorem.

If  $r \leq -1$  then  $\{r^n\}$  diverges.

- The sequence  $\{r^n\}$  is convergent if  $-1 < r \leq 1$  and divergent for all other values of  $r$ .

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

Homework: Prove If  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} |a_n| = 0$ , then  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = 0$

= If  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} |a_n| = 0$ , then  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} -|a_n| = 0$ ,

and since  $-|a_n| \leq a_n \leq |a_n|$  we have

$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = 0$ , by Squeeze theorem.

Definition: - A sequence  $\{a_n\}$  is called increasing if  $a_n < a_{n+1}$  for all  $n \geq 1$ , that is  $a_1 < a_2 < a_3 < \dots$ .

- A sequence  $\{a_n\}$  is called decreasing if  $a_n > a_{n+1}$  for all  $n \geq 1$ .

- A sequence is monotonic if it is either increasing or decreasing.

Ex Show  $\left\{ \frac{3}{n+5} \right\}$  increasing or decreasing.

we have

$$\frac{3}{n+5} > \frac{3}{(n+1)+5} = \frac{3}{n+6}$$

so  $a_n > a_{n+1}$  for all  $n \geq 1$

Ex: Show that  $a_n = \frac{n}{n^2+1}$  is decreasing

We must show that  $a_{n+1} < a_n$ , or

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{n+1}{(n+1)^2+1} &< \frac{n}{n^2+1} \\ \Leftrightarrow (n+1)(n^2+1) &< n[(n+1)^2+1] \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} n^3 + n^2 + n + 1 &< n^3 + 2n^2 + 2n \\ 1 &< n^2 + n \end{aligned}$$

Since  $n \geq 1$ , we know that  $n^2 + 1 > 1$  is true.  $\therefore a_{n+1} < a_n$  and so  $\{a_n\}$  is decreasing.

Consider:  $f(x) = \frac{x}{x^2+1}$ :

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

whenever  $x^2 > 1$

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

Definitions:

- A sequence  $\{a_n\}$  is bounded above, if there is a number  $M$  such that  $a_n \leq M$  for all  $n \geq 1$
- It is bounded below, if there is a number  $m$  such that  $m \leq a_n$  for all  $n \geq 1$
- If it is bounded above, and below, then  $\{a_n\}$  is a bounded sequence.

Monotonic Sequence Theorem: Every bounded monotonic sequence is convergent.

Series: If we add the terms of an infinite sequence  $\{a_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$ , we get an expression of the form:

- $a_1 + a_2 + a_3 + \dots + a_n + \dots$
- which is an infinite series (or just series) and is denoted:  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$  or  $\sum a_n$

'Partial Sums' of a Series

In general the  $n$ th partial sum of a series is denoted  $S_n$ ;

$$S_n = a_1 + a_2 + a_3 + \dots + a_n = \sum_{i=1}^n a_i$$

We may treat each partial sum of a series as a sequence.  $\{S_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$

Ex: Suppose we know that the sum of the first  $n$  terms of the series  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$  is:

$$S_n = a_1 + a_2 + \dots + a_n = \frac{2n}{3n+5}$$

Then the sum of the series is the limit of the sequence  $\{S_n\}$

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} S_n = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{2n}{3n+5} = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{2}{3 + \frac{5}{n}} \\ &= \boxed{\frac{2}{3}} \end{aligned}$$

## Geometric Series

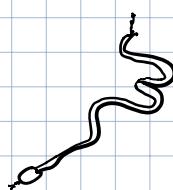
$$a + ar + ar^2 + ar^3 + \dots + ar^{n-1} + \dots = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} ar^{n-1} \quad a \neq 0$$

$$S_n = a + ar + ar^2 + ar^3 + \dots + ar^{n-1}$$

$$rS_n = ar + ar^2 + ar^3 + \dots + \underline{ar^n}$$

$$S_n - rS_n = a - ar^n$$

3



$$S_n(1-r) = a(1-r^n)$$

$$\boxed{S_n = \frac{a(1-r^n)}{(1-r)}}$$

• for what values of  $r$  does  $\{S_n\}$  converge?

$$-\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} S_n = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{a(1-r^n)}{(1-r)} \quad \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{left as} \\ \text{exercise} \end{array} \right\}$$

The geometric series:

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} ar^{n-1} = a + ar + ar^2 + \dots$$

is convergent if  $|r| < 1$  and its sum is

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} ar^{n-1} = \frac{a}{1-r} \quad , \quad |r| < 1$$

if  $|r| \geq 1$ , the series is divergent.