9.1 notes calculus

Sequences

A sequence $\{a_n\}$ is a list of numbers written in an explicit order. $\{\underline{a_n}\}=\{a_1,a_2,a_3,...,a_n...\}$ a_1 is the first term, a_2 is the second term and so forth. A sequence never ends. The numbers in the list are called the **terms** of the sequence and $\underline{a_n}$ is the **nth term**. A sequence can be finite or infinite.

Example1: Defining a Sequence Explicitly

Find the <u>first six terms</u> and the <u>100th term</u> of the sequence $\{a_n\}$

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

 $q_1 \quad n=1$ $a_1 = \frac{(-1)^n}{l^2+1} = \frac{-1}{2}$
 $n=2$ $a_2 = \frac{(-1)^2}{2^2+1} = \frac{1}{5}$
 $n=3$ $a_3 = \frac{(-1)^3}{3^2+1} = \frac{1}{10}$
 $n=4$ $q_4 = \frac{(-1)^4}{4^2+1} = \frac{1}{17}$
 $n=5$ $a_5 = \frac{(-1)^5}{5^2+1} = \frac{1}{20}$
 $n=6$ $a_6 = \frac{(-1)^6}{6^2+1} = \frac{1}{37}$
 $n=100$ $a_{100} = \frac{(-1)^{100}}{100^2+1} = \frac{1}{10001}$

The sequence in example one was defined **explicitly**.

A second way of defining a sequence is recursively which assigns a value to the first (or the first few) term(s) and specifies the nth term by a formula or equation that involves one or more of the terms preceding it.

Example 2: Defining a Sequence Recursively

ample 2: Defining a Sequence Recurs
$$b_1 = 4$$

$$b_1 = b_{n-1} + 2 \quad \text{for all } n \ge 2$$

$$b_2 = b_{2-1} + 2$$

$$b_1 + 2$$

$$b_2 = 4 + 2 \quad \boxed{b_2 = b}$$

$$b_3 = b_2 + 2$$

$$(b_1 + 2)$$

$$b_3 = b_2 + 2$$

$$(b_1 + 2)$$

$$b_4 = b_3 + 2$$

$$b_4 = b_3 + 2$$

$$b_4 = 10$$

Definition Arithmetic Sequence

A sequence $\{a_n\}$ is an **arithmetic sequence** if it can be written in the form $\{a, a+d, a+2d, ..., a+(n-1)d, ...\}$ for some constant d. The number d is the **common difference**. Each term in an arithmetic sequence can be obtained recursively from its preceding term by adding d: $\{a_n = a_{n-1} + d\}$ for all $n \ge 2$.

$$a_{n}=a_{n-1}+d$$
 $a_{n}=a_{n-1}+3$ for $n \ge 2$

Explicit:
$$a_n = a_1 + (h-1)d$$

 $a_n = -5 + (n-1)3$
 $\frac{-5 + 3n-3}{[a_n = -8 + 3n]}$

Sequence 2:

$$a_1 = a_1 = a_2 = a_2 = a_1 = a_2 = a_2 = a_1 = a_2 = a_2 = a_2 = a_1 = a_2 = a_2$$

c)
$$a_{n} = a_{n-1} + l_{m}3$$

d)
$$a_{n} = a_{1} + (n-1)d$$

$$\frac{\ln 2 + (n-1) \ln 3}{a_{n} = \ln 2 + n \ln 3 - \ln 3}$$

$$\ln 2 + \ln 3^{n} - \ln 3$$

$$\ln 2 + \ln 3^{n-1}$$

$$\ln (2(3^{n-1}))$$

Definition Geometric Sequence

A sequence $\{a_n\}$ is a **geometric sequence** if it can be written in ans arra-1 the form <a>C 2

 $\{a, ar, ar^2, \dots a r^{(n-1)}, \dots \}$ for some constant **r**. The number **r** is the **common ratio**. Each term in a geometric sequence can be obtained recursively from its preceding term by multiplying by

r:
$$\mathbf{a_n} = \mathbf{a_{n-1}} \cdot \mathbf{r}$$
 for all $n \ge 2$.

Example 4

Sequence 1:

$$1,-2,+1,-8,16,...$$
 $a) \frac{-2}{1} \frac{4}{-2} \frac{-8}{4} \Rightarrow r=-2$
 $b) a_{1} = a_{1} \cdot r^{n-1}$
 $a_{10} = 1 \cdot (-2)^{n} - 512$
 $a_{10} = 10^{-2} \cdot 10^{n}$
 $a_{10} = 10^{-2} \cdot 10^{n}$

explicit d) $a_{1} = a_{1} \cdot r^{n-1}$
 $a_{10} = 10^{-2} \cdot 10^{n}$
 $a_{10} = 10^{-2} \cdot 10^{n}$

Example 5
$$Q_{2} = 6 \quad Q_{5} = -48$$

Example 3

$$a_2 = 6$$
 $a_5 = -48$
 $a_n = a_1 r^1$
 $a_2 = a_1 r^1$
 $a_3 = a_1 r^1$
 $a_4 = a_1 r^2$
 $a_5 = a_1 r^4$
 $a_5 = a_1$

$$\int_{-2}^{2} \frac{6=a_{1}(-2)}{6=a_{1}(-2)}$$

$$a_n = a_1 \cdot \Gamma^{n-1}$$

$$a_n = -3(-2)^{n-1}$$
explicit formula

Example 6:

Read use calculators

Example 7:

$$b_1 = 4$$
 first term
 $b_n = b_{n-1} + 2$ for all $n \ge 2$
 $u(n) = b_n$ $u(n) = u(n-1) + 2$
 $u(n) = b_n$ $u(n) = u(n-1) + 2$
 $u(n) = 1$ $u(min) = 4$
Find u using $2nd$ 17

Definition: Limit

Let L be a real number. The sequence $\{a_n\}$ has **limit** L as n approaches ∞ if, given any positive <u>number</u> ϵ , there is a positive number M such that for all n > M we have

$$|\mathbf{a}_n - L| < \epsilon$$

We write $\lim_{n\to\infty} a_n = L$ and say that the sequence **converges** to L. Sequences that do not have limits **diverge**.

Theorem 1: Properties of Limits

If L and M are real numbers and $\lim_{n\to\infty} a_n = L$ and

 $\lim_{n\to\infty} b_n = M$, then

Sum Rule: $\lim_{n\to\infty} (a_n + b_n) = L + M \frac{\text{Difference}}{\text{Rule: } \lim_{n\to\infty} (a_n - b_n)} = L - M$

Product Rule: $\lim_{n\to\infty} (a_n b_n) = LM$

Constant Multiple Rule: $\lim_{n\to\infty} (c \cdot a_n) = c \cdot L$

Quotient Rule: $\lim_{n\to\infty} \left(\frac{a_n}{b_n}\right) = \frac{L}{M}$, $M \neq 0$

Example 8
$$a_{n} = \frac{2n-1}{n}$$

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{2n-1}{n}$$

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{2n}{n} - \frac{1}{n}$$

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{2n}{n} - \lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{1}{n}$$

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} 2 - 0$$
Converges
$$L = 2$$

Example 9

a)
$$a_n = (-1)^n \frac{n-1}{n}$$
 b) $b_1 = 4$
 $a_1 = (-1)^1 (\frac{1-1}{1}) = 0$ $b_n = b_{n-1} + 2$
 $a_2 = (-1)^2 \frac{2-1}{2} = \frac{1}{2}$ $a_3 = (-1)^3 \frac{3-1}{3} = -\frac{2}{3}$ diverges

 $a_4 = (-1)^4 \cdot \frac{4-1}{4} = \frac{3}{4}$

terms getting bigger

getting closer to -1 or 1

Theorem 2: The Sandwich Theorem for Sequences

If $\lim_{n\to\infty} a_n = \lim_{n\to\infty} c_n = L$ and if there is an integer N for which $a_n \le b_n \le c_n$ for all n > N, then $\lim_{n\to\infty} b_n = L$

Example 10 Using the Sandwich Theorem

$$a_{n} = \frac{\cos n}{n}$$

$$-1 \leq \cos(n) \leq 1$$

$$-\frac{1}{n} \leq \frac{\cos(n)}{n} \leq \frac{1}{n} \quad \text{divide by } n$$

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} -\frac{1}{n} \leq \lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{\cos(n)}{n} \leq \lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{1}{n}$$

$$0 \leq \lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{\cos(n)}{n} \leq 0$$

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} \cos(n) \leq 0$$

Theorem 3 Absolute Value Theorem

Consider the sequence $\{a_n\}$. If $\lim_{n\to\infty} |a_n| = 0$, then $\lim_{n\to\infty} a_n = 0$

If the absolute value sequence converges to 0, then the original sequence also converges to 0.