

CHAPTER 2

The Numerical Sequences

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CHAPTER 1

THE NUMERICAL SEQUENCES

1.1 The general concept of a sequence

1.1.1 Definition

Definition 1.1.1. A sequence u or $(u_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ is a function from \mathbb{N} to \mathbb{R} :

$$\begin{aligned} u : \mathbb{N} &\longrightarrow \mathbb{R}, \\ n &\longmapsto u_n. \end{aligned}$$

The elements of a sequence are called **the terms**. The n -th term of a sequence is called **the general term** of the sequence, and we denote $(u_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$.

Example 1.1.1. 1. $(\sqrt{n})_{n \geq 0}$ is the sequence of terms: $0, 1, \sqrt{2}, \sqrt{3}, \dots$.

2. $((-1)^n)_{n \geq 0}$ is the sequence of terms that are alternated: $+1, -1, +1, -1, \dots$.

1.1.2 Explicit definition

Just as real-valued functions from Calculus one were usually expressed by a formula, we will most often encounter sequences that can be expressed by a formula. For example:

$$u_n = 3n + 1, \quad v_n = \sin(n\pi/6), \quad w_n = (1/2)^n.$$

1.1.3 Definition by recurrence

Another way to define a sequence is recursive, that is, by giving the first term and a recurrence relation between a term and the next term. For example

$$\begin{cases} u_0 = 1, \\ u_{n+1} = 2u_n + 3, \quad n \in \mathbb{N}. \end{cases}$$

1.2 Qualitative features of sequences

1.2.1 Monotonicity

Definition 1.2.1. A sequence $(u_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ is called **increasing** (or **strictly increasing**) if $u_n \leq u_{n+1}$ (or $u_n < u_{n+1}$), for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$.

Similarly a sequence $(u_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ is **decreasing** (or **strictly decreasing**) if $u_n \geq u_{n+1}$ (or $u_n > u_{n+1}$), for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$.

If a sequence is increasing (or strictly increasing), decreasing (or strictly decreasing), it is said to be **monotonic** (or **strictly monotonic**).

Example 1.2.1. The sequence $u_n = \frac{2^n - 1}{2^n}$ which starts

$$\frac{1}{2}, \frac{3}{4}, \frac{7}{8}, \frac{15}{16}, \dots$$

is increasing. On the other hand, the sequence $v_n = \frac{n+1}{n}$ which starts

$$\frac{2}{1}, \frac{3}{2}, \frac{4}{3}, \frac{5}{4}, \dots$$

is decreasing.

1.2.2 Boundedness

Definition 1.2.2. A sequence $(u_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ is **bounded above** if there is some number M so that for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$, we have $u_n \leq M$. Likewise, a sequence $(u_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ is **bounded below** if there is some number m so that for every $n \in \mathbb{N}$, we have $u_n \geq m$.

If a sequence is both bounded above and below, the sequence is said to be **bounded**.

Remark 1.2.1. If a sequence $\{u_n\}_{n=0}^{\infty}$ is increasing it is bounded below by u_0 , and if it is decreasing it is bounded above by u_0 .

Theorem 1.2.1. If the sequence (u_n) is bounded and monotonic, then $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} u_n$ exists.

1.3 Convergent Sequences

Definition 1.3.1. We say that the sequence $(u_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ converge to the scalar l if

$$\forall \varepsilon > 0, \exists n_0 \in \mathbb{N} : \forall n \geq n_0 : |u_n - l| < \varepsilon.$$

In this case we write $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} u_n = l$, (l finite). If there is no a finite value l such that $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} u_n = l$, then we say that the limit does not exist, or equivalently that the sequence diverges.

Remark 1.3.1. Any open interval with center l contains all the terms of the sequence from a certain rank.

Example 1.3.1. 1. $u_n = \left(\frac{3}{4}\right)^n$.

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow +\infty} u_n = \lim_{n \rightarrow +\infty} \left(\frac{3}{4}\right)^n = \lim_{n \rightarrow +\infty} e^{n \ln\left(\frac{3}{4}\right)} = 0. \text{ So } (u_n) \text{ converges to } 0.$$

2. $v_n = (-1)^n$. v_n is a divergent sequence.

3. $w_n = \sin(n)$. The limit of w_n does not exist, so w_n is divergent.

Proposition 1.3.1. If the sequence $(u_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ is convergent then it has a unique limit.

Proof 1. Assume that $\lim_{n \rightarrow +\infty} u_n = l$, and $\lim_{n \rightarrow +\infty} u_n = l'$, we need to show that $l = l'$.

$$\bullet \lim_{n \rightarrow +\infty} u_n = l \iff \forall \varepsilon > 0, \exists n_0 \in \mathbb{N} : \forall n \geq n_0 : |u_n - l| < \frac{\varepsilon}{2}.$$

and

$$\bullet \lim_{n \rightarrow +\infty} u_n = l' \iff \forall \varepsilon > 0, \exists n_1 \in \mathbb{N} : \forall n \geq n_1 : |u_n - l'| < \frac{\varepsilon}{2}.$$

We have $|l - l'| = |l - u_n + u_n - l'| \leq |l - u_n| + |u_n - l'| \leq \frac{\varepsilon}{2} + \frac{\varepsilon}{2} = \varepsilon$. So $\forall \varepsilon > 0 : |l - l'| < \varepsilon$, then $l = l'$.

Proposition 1.3.2. *If the sequence $(u_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ converges to l , then the sequence $|u_n|$ converges to $|l|$.*

Proposition 1.3.3. *any convergent sequence is bounded.*

Remark 1.3.2. • *If $(u_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ is increasing and bounded above, then $(u_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ converges to $l = \sup u_n$.*

• *If $(u_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ is decreasing and bounded below, then $(u_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ converges to $l = \inf u_n$.*

1.4 The usual rules of limits

If $(u_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ and $(v_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ are convergent sequences to l and l' respectively, and α is any real constant then:

- | | |
|--|--|
| 1) $\lim_{n \rightarrow +\infty} (u_n + v_n) = l + l'$, | 5) $\lim_{n \rightarrow +\infty} \frac{1}{u_n} = \frac{1}{l}$, $l \neq 0$, |
| 2) $\lim_{n \rightarrow +\infty} (u_n \times v_n) = l \times l'$, | 6) if $u_n \leq v_n$, then $l \leq l'$, |
| 3) $\lim_{n \rightarrow +\infty} (\alpha u_n) = \alpha l$, | 7) if $l = l'$, and $u_n \leq w_n \leq v_n$, then $\lim_{n \rightarrow +\infty} w_n = l$. |

1.5 Adjacent sequences

Definition 1.5.1. *We say that two real sequences $(u_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$, and $(v_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ are adjacent if they satisfy the following properties:*

1. $(u_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ is increasing, and $(v_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ is decreasing,
2. $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (u_n - v_n) = 0$.

Theorem 1.5.1. *If the two sequences $(u_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ and $(v_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ are adjacent then they converge to the same limit.*

Proof. We assume that $(u_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ is increasing and $(v_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ is decreasing. Let $w_n = u_n - v_n$, then

$$\begin{aligned} w_{n+1} - w_n &= u_{n+1} - v_{n+1} - u_n + v_n, \\ &= (u_{n+1} - u_n) - (v_{n+1} - v_n), \\ &\geq 0. \end{aligned}$$

and $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} w_n = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (u_n - v_n) = 0$. Since (w_n) is an increasing sequence and $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} w_n = 0$, then $\forall n \in \mathbb{N} : w_n \leq 0 \Rightarrow u_n \leq v_n$.

Therefore, $\forall n \in \mathbb{N} : u_0 \leq u_n \leq v_n \leq v_0$. the sequence (u_n) is convergent since it is increasing and bounded above by v_0 , also the sequence (v_n) is convergent, and since $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (u_n - v_n) = 0$ we deduce that $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} u_n = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} v_n$. \square

Exercise 1.5.1. *Show that the two sequences (u_n) and (v_n) are adjacent:*

- $u_n = 1 + \frac{1}{n!}$, and $v_n = \frac{n}{n+1}$.
- $u_n = \sum_{k=1}^n \frac{1}{k^2}$ and $v_n = u_n + \frac{2}{n+1}$.

1.6 Subsequences

It is useful to sometimes consider only some terms of a sequence. A subsequence of $\{u_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$ is a sequence that contains only some of the numbers from $\{u_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$ in the same order.

Definition 1.6.1. *Let $\{u_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$ be a sequence. Let $\{n_i\}_{i=1}^{\infty}$ be a strictly increasing sequence of natural numbers, that is $n_i < n_{i+1}$ for all $i \in \mathbb{N}$ (in other words, $n_1 < n_2 < n_3 < \dots$). The sequence $\{u_{n_i}\}_{i=1}^{\infty}$ is called a subsequence of $\{u_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$.*

So the subsequence is the sequence $u_{n_1}, u_{n_2}, u_{n_3}, \dots$.

Example 1.6.1. *Consider the sequence*

$$u_n = \left(\frac{1}{n}\right)_{n=1}^{\infty} = \left\{1, \frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{3}, \dots, \frac{1}{n}, \dots\right\},$$

then letting $n_k = 2k$ yields the subsequence

$$u_{2k} = \left(\frac{1}{2k} \right)_{k=1}^{\infty} = \left\{ \frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{4}, \dots, \frac{1}{2k}, \dots \right\},$$

and letting $n_k = 2k + 1$ yields the subsequence

$$u_{2k+1} = \left(\frac{1}{2k+1} \right)_{k=1}^{\infty} = \left\{ \frac{1}{3}, \frac{1}{5}, \dots, \frac{1}{2k+1}, \dots \right\}.$$

Proposition 1.6.1. *If $\{u_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$ is a convergent sequence, then every subsequence $\{u_{n_i}\}_{i=1}^{\infty}$ is also convergent, and*

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow +\infty} u_n = \lim_{i \rightarrow +\infty} u_{n_i}.$$

Corollary 1.6.1. *Let $(u_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ be a sequence, if it admits a divergent subsequence, or if it admits two subsequences converging to distinct limits, then it diverges.*

Theorem 1.6.1. (Bolzano-Weierstrass)

Every bounded sequence has a convergent subsequence.

1.7 Cauchy Sequences

Definition 1.7.1. *A real sequence $(u_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ is called a Cauchy sequence if for every $\varepsilon > 0$, there exists an $N \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $\forall m, n \in \mathbb{N}$, if $m, n \geq N$ then*

$$|u_n - u_m| \leq \varepsilon.$$

Proposition 1.7.1. *If a sequence is Cauchy, then it is bounded.*

Proposition 1.7.2. *A sequence of real numbers is Cauchy if and only if it converges.*

1.8 Arithmetic sequences

1.8.1 Definition

A simple way to generate a sequence is to start with a number u_0 , and add to it a fixed constant r , over and over again. This type of sequence is called an **arithmetic sequence**.

Definition 1.8.1. *the sequence $(u_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ is an arithmetic sequence with first term u_0 and common difference r if and only if for any integer $n \in \mathbb{N}$ we have*

$$u_{n+1} = u_n + r, \quad (u_n = u_0 + n.r).$$

More generally: $u_n = u_p + (n - p).r$.

1.8.2 Sum of n terms

For the arithmetic sequence

$$S_n = u_0 + u_1 + \cdots + u_{n-1} = n \cdot \frac{u_0 + u_{n-1}}{2}.$$

1.9 Geometric sequences

1.9.1 Definition

Another simple way of generating a sequence is to start with a number v_0 and repeatedly multiply it by a fixed nonzero constant q . This type of sequence is called a geometric sequence.

Definition 1.9.1. *the sequence $(v_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ is a geometric sequence with first term v_0 and common ratio $q \in \mathbb{R}^*$ if and only if for any integer $n \in \mathbb{N}$ we have*

$$v_{n+1} = q \cdot v_n, \quad (v_n = v_0 \cdot q^n).$$

More generally: $v_n = v_p \cdot q^{n-p}$.

1.9.2 Sum of n terms

For a geometric sequence, if $S_n = 1 + q + q^2 + \cdots + q^n$, then

$$S_n = \begin{cases} n + 1 & \text{si } q = 1, \\ \frac{1 - q^{n+1}}{1 - q} & \text{si } q \neq 1. \end{cases}$$