

12 **INFINITE SEQUENCES AND SERIES** **ET 11****12.1 Sequences****ET 11.1**

1. (a) A sequence is an ordered list of numbers. It can also be defined as a function whose domain is the set of positive integers.
 (b) The terms a_n approach 8 as n becomes large. In fact, we can make a_n as close to 8 as we like by taking n sufficiently large.
 (c) The terms a_n become large as n becomes large. In fact, we can make a_n as large as we like by taking n sufficiently large.
2. (a) From Definition 1, a convergent sequence is a sequence for which $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n$ exists. Examples: $\{1/n\}$, $\{1/2^n\}$
 (b) A divergent sequence is a sequence for which $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n$ does not exist. Examples: $\{n\}$, $\{\sin n\}$
3. $a_n = 1 - (0.2)^n$, so the sequence is $\{0.8, 0.96, 0.992, 0.9984, 0.99968, \dots\}$.
4. $a_n = \frac{n+1}{3n-1}$, so the sequence is $\left\{\frac{2}{2}, \frac{3}{5}, \frac{4}{8}, \frac{5}{11}, \frac{6}{14}, \dots\right\} = \left\{1, \frac{3}{5}, \frac{1}{2}, \frac{5}{11}, \frac{3}{7}, \dots\right\}$.
5. $a_n = \frac{3(-1)^n}{n!}$, so the sequence is $\left\{\frac{-3}{1}, \frac{3}{2}, \frac{-3}{6}, \frac{3}{24}, \frac{-3}{120}, \dots\right\} = \left\{-3, \frac{3}{2}, -\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{8}, -\frac{1}{40}, \dots\right\}$.
6. $a_n = 2 \cdot 4 \cdot 6 \cdot \dots \cdot (2n)$, so the sequence is $\{2 \cdot 2 \cdot 4 \cdot 4 \cdot 6, 2 \cdot 4 \cdot 6 \cdot 8, 2 \cdot 4 \cdot 6 \cdot 8 \cdot 10, \dots\} = \{2, 8, 48, 384, 3840, \dots\}$.
7. $a_1 = 3$, $a_{n+1} = 2a_n - 1$. Each term is defined in terms of the preceding term.
 $a_2 = 2a_1 - 1 = 2(3) - 1 = 5$. $a_3 = 2a_2 - 1 = 2(5) - 1 = 9$. $a_4 = 2a_3 - 1 = 2(9) - 1 = 17$.
 $a_5 = 2a_4 - 1 = 2(17) - 1 = 33$. The sequence is $\{3, 5, 9, 17, 33, \dots\}$.
8. $a_1 = 4$, $a_{n+1} = \frac{a_n}{a_n - 1}$. Each term is defined in terms of the preceding term.
 $a_2 = \frac{a_1}{a_1 - 1} = \frac{4}{4-1} = \frac{4}{3}$. $a_3 = \frac{a_2}{a_2 - 1} = \frac{4/3}{4/3 - 1} = \frac{4/3}{1/3} = 4$. Since $a_3 = a_1$, we can see that the terms of the sequence will alternately equal 4 and $4/3$, so the sequence is $\{4, \frac{4}{3}, 4, \frac{4}{3}, 4, \dots\}$.
9. The numerators are all 1 and the denominators are powers of 2, so $a_n = \frac{1}{2^n}$.
10. The numerators are all 1 and the denominators are multiples of 2, so $a_n = \frac{1}{2n}$.
11. $\{2, 7, 12, 17, \dots\}$. Each term is larger than the preceding one by 5, so
 $a_n = a_1 + d(n-1) = 2 + 5(n-1) = 5n - 3$.
12. $\{-\frac{1}{4}, \frac{2}{9}, -\frac{3}{16}, \frac{4}{25}, \dots\}$. The numerator of the n th term is n and its denominator is $(n+1)^2$. Including the alternating signs, we get $a_n = (-1)^n \frac{n}{(n+1)^2}$.
13. $\{1, -\frac{2}{3}, \frac{4}{9}, -\frac{8}{27}, \dots\}$. Each term is $-\frac{2}{3}$ times the preceding one, so $a_n = (-\frac{2}{3})^{n-1}$.
14. $\{5, 1, 5, 1, 5, 1, \dots\}$. The average of 5 and 1 is 3, so we can think of the sequence as alternately adding 2 and -2 to 3. Thus, $a_n = 3 + (-1)^{n+1} \cdot 2$.
15. $a_n = n(n-1)$. $a_n \rightarrow \infty$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$, so the sequence diverges.

88 □ CHAPTER 12 INFINITE SEQUENCES AND SERIES ET CHAPTER 11

16. $a_n = \frac{n+1}{3n-1} = \frac{1+1/n}{3-1/n}$, so $a_n \rightarrow \frac{1+0}{3-0} = \frac{1}{3}$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$. Converges
17. $a_n = \frac{3+5n^2}{n+n^2} = \frac{(3+5n^2)/n^2}{(n+n^2)/n^2} = \frac{5+3/n^2}{1+1/n}$, so $a_n \rightarrow \frac{5+0}{1+0} = 5$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$. Converges
18. $a_n = \frac{\sqrt{n}}{1+\sqrt{n}} = \frac{1}{1/\sqrt{n}+1}$, so $a_n \rightarrow \frac{1}{0+1} = 1$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$. Converges
19. $a_n = \frac{2^n}{3^{n+1}} = \frac{1}{3} \left(\frac{2}{3}\right)^n$, so $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = \frac{1}{3} \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left(\frac{2}{3}\right)^n = \frac{1}{3} \cdot 0 = 0$ by (8) with $r = \frac{2}{3}$. Converges
20. $a_n = \frac{n}{1+\sqrt{n}} = \frac{\sqrt{n}}{1/\sqrt{n}+1}$. The numerator approaches ∞ and the denominator approaches $0+1=1$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$, so $a_n \rightarrow \infty$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$ and the sequence diverges.
21. $a_n = \frac{(-1)^{n-1}n}{n^2+1} = \frac{(-1)^{n-1}}{n+1/n}$, so $0 \leq |a_n| = \frac{1}{n+1/n} \leq \frac{1}{n} \rightarrow 0$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$, so $a_n \rightarrow 0$ by the Squeeze Theorem and Theorem 6. Converges
22. $a_n = \frac{(-1)^n n^3}{n^3+2n^2+1}$. Now $|a_n| = \frac{n^3}{n^3+2n^2+1} = \frac{1}{1+\frac{2}{n}+\frac{1}{n^3}} \rightarrow 1$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$, but the terms of the sequence $\{a_n\}$ alternate in sign, so the sequence a_1, a_3, a_5, \dots converges to -1 and the sequence a_2, a_4, a_6, \dots converges to $+1$. This shows that the given sequence diverges since its terms don't approach a single real number.
23. $a_n = \cos(n/2)$. This sequence diverges since the terms don't approach any particular real number as $n \rightarrow \infty$. The terms take on values between -1 and 1 .
24. $a_n = \cos(2/n)$. As $n \rightarrow \infty$, $2/n \rightarrow 0$, so $\cos(2/n) \rightarrow \cos 0 = 1$. Converges
25. $a_n = \frac{(2n-1)!}{(2n+1)!} = \frac{(2n-1)!}{(2n+1)(2n)(2n-1)!} = \frac{1}{(2n+1)(2n)} \rightarrow 0$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$. Converges
26. $2n \rightarrow \infty$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$, so since $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \arctan x = \frac{\pi}{2}$, we have $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \arctan 2n = \frac{\pi}{2}$. Converges
27. $a_n = \frac{e^n + e^{-n}}{e^{2n} - 1} = \frac{e^{-n}}{e^n - e^{-n}} = \frac{1+e^{-2n}}{e^n - 0} \rightarrow \frac{1+0}{e^n - 0} \rightarrow 0$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$. Converges
28. $a_n = \frac{\ln n}{\ln 2n} = \frac{\ln n}{\ln 2 + \ln n} = \frac{1}{\frac{\ln 2}{\ln n} + 1} \rightarrow \frac{1}{0+1} \rightarrow 1$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$. Converges
29. $a_n = n^2 e^{-n} = \frac{n^2}{e^n}$. Since $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{x^2}{e^x} = \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{2x}{e^x} = \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{2}{e^x} = 0$, it follows from Theorem 3 that $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = 0$. Converges
30. $a_n = n \cos n\pi = n(-1)^n$. Since $|a_n| = n \rightarrow \infty$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$, the given sequence diverges.
31. $0 \leq \frac{\cos^2 n}{2^n} \leq \frac{1}{2^n}$ [since $0 \leq \cos^2 n \leq 1$], so since $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{2^n} = 0$, $\left\{ \frac{\cos^2 n}{2^n} \right\}$ converges to 0 by the Squeeze Theorem.
32. $a_n = \ln(n+1) - \ln n = \ln\left(\frac{n+1}{n}\right) = \ln\left(1 + \frac{1}{n}\right) \rightarrow \ln(1) = 0$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$. Converges
33. $a_n = n \sin(1/n) = \frac{\sin(1/n)}{1/n}$. Since $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\sin(1/x)}{1/x} = \lim_{t \rightarrow 0^+} \frac{\sin t}{t}$ [where $t = 1/x$] = 1, it follows from Theorem 3 that $\{a_n\}$ converges to 1.

34. $a_n = \sqrt{n} - \sqrt{n^2 - 1} = \sqrt{n^2 \cdot \frac{1}{n}} - \sqrt{n^2 \left(1 - \frac{1}{n^2}\right)} = n \left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{n}} - \sqrt{1 - \frac{1}{n^2}} \right) \rightarrow n(0 - 1) \rightarrow -n$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$,
 so $a_n \rightarrow -\infty$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$. Diverges

35. $a_n = \left(1 + \frac{2}{n}\right)^{1/n} \Rightarrow \ln a_n = \frac{1}{n} \ln \left(1 + \frac{2}{n}\right)$. As $n \rightarrow \infty$, $\frac{1}{n} \rightarrow 0$ and $\ln \left(1 + \frac{2}{n}\right) \rightarrow 0$, so $\ln a_n \rightarrow 0$.
 Thus, $a_n \rightarrow e^0 = 1$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$. Converges

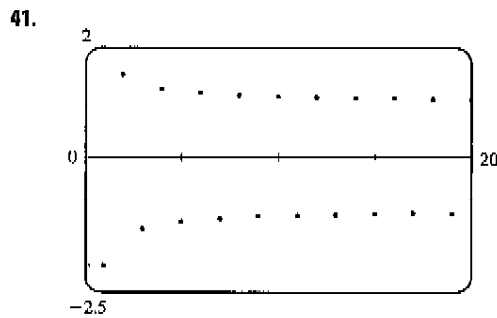
36. $a_n = \frac{\sin 2n}{1 + \sqrt{n}}$, $|a_n| \leq \frac{1}{1 + \sqrt{n}}$ and $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{1 + \sqrt{n}} = 0$, so $\frac{-1}{1 + \sqrt{n}} \leq a_n \leq \frac{1}{1 + \sqrt{n}} \Rightarrow \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = 0$ by
 the Squeeze Theorem. Converges

37. $\{0, 1, 0, 0, 1, 0, 0, 0, 1, \dots\}$ diverges since the sequence takes on only two values, 0 and 1, and never stays
 arbitrarily close to either one (or any other value) for n sufficiently large.

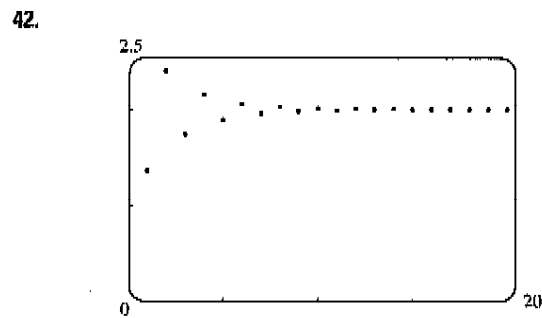
38. $\left\{\frac{1}{1}, \frac{1}{3}, \frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{4}, \frac{1}{3}, \frac{1}{6}, \frac{1}{4}, \frac{1}{6}, \dots\right\}$. $a_{2n-1} = \frac{1}{n}$ and $a_{2n} = \frac{1}{n+2}$ for all positive integers n . $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = 0$ since
 $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_{2n-1} = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{n} = 0$ and $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_{2n} = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{n+2} = 0$. For n sufficiently large, a_n can be made as close to
 0 as we like. Converges

39. $a_n = \frac{n!}{2^n} = \frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{2}{2} \cdot \frac{3}{2} \cdots \frac{(n-1)}{2} \cdot \frac{n}{2} \geq \frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{n}{2}$ [for $n > 1$] = $\frac{n}{4} \rightarrow \infty$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$, so $\{a_n\}$ diverges.

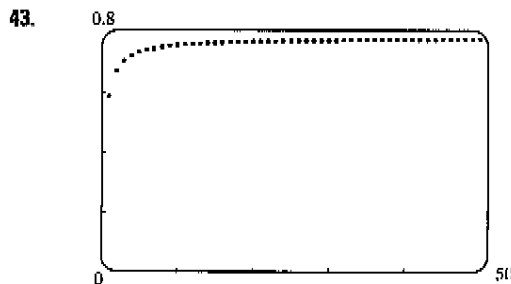
40. $0 < |a_n| = \frac{3^n}{n!} = \frac{3}{1} \cdot \frac{3}{2} \cdot \frac{3}{3} \cdots \frac{3}{(n-1)} \cdot \frac{3}{n} \leq \frac{3}{1} \cdot \frac{3}{2} \cdot \frac{3}{n}$ [for $n > 2$] = $\frac{27}{2n} \rightarrow 0$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$, so by the Squeeze
 Theorem and Theorem 6, $\{(-3)^n/n\}$ converges to 0.



From the graph, we see that the sequence
 $\left\{(-1)^n \frac{n+1}{n}\right\}$ is divergent, since it oscillates
 between 1 and -1 (approximately).



From the graph, it appears that the sequence
 $\left\{2 + \left(-\frac{2}{\pi}\right)^n\right\}$ converges to 2.
 $\left\{(-\frac{2}{\pi})^n\right\}$ converges to 0 by (6), and hence $\{2 + (-\frac{2}{\pi})^n\}$
 converges to $2 + 0 = 2$.

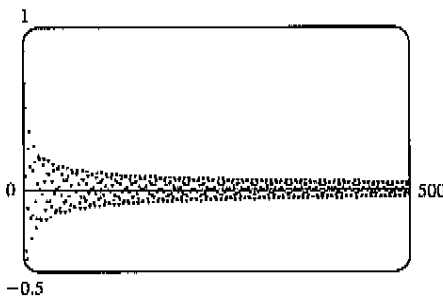


From the graph, it appears that the sequence
 converges to about 0.78.

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{2n}{2n+1} = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{2}{2 + 1/n} = 1, \text{ so}$$

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \arctan\left(\frac{2n}{2n+1}\right) = \arctan 1 = \frac{\pi}{4}$$

44.

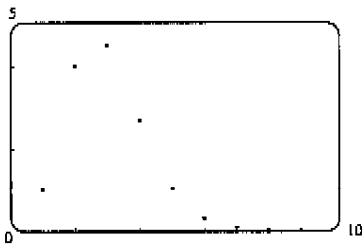


From the graph, it appears that the sequence converges (slowly) to 0.

$$0 \leq \frac{|\sin n|}{\sqrt{n}} \leq \frac{1}{\sqrt{n}} \rightarrow 0 \text{ as } n \rightarrow \infty, \text{ so by the}$$

Squeeze Theorem and Theorem 6, $\left\{ \frac{\sin n}{\sqrt{n}} \right\}$ converges to 0.

45.

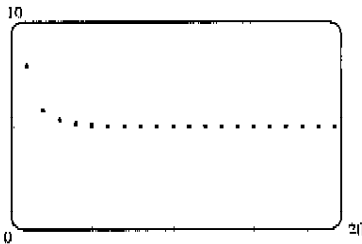


From the graph, it appears that the sequence converges to 0.

$$\begin{aligned} 0 < a_n &= \frac{n^3}{n!} = \frac{n}{n} \cdot \frac{n}{(n-1)} \cdot \frac{n}{(n-2)} \cdot \frac{1}{(n-3)} \cdots \frac{1}{3} \cdot \frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{1}{1} \\ &\leq \frac{n^2}{(n-1)(n-2)(n-3)} \quad [\text{for } n \geq 4] \\ &= \frac{1/n}{(1-1/n)(1-2/n)(1-3/n)} \rightarrow 0 \text{ as } n \rightarrow \infty \end{aligned}$$

So by the Squeeze Theorem, $\{n^3/n!\}$ converges to 0.

46.



From the graph, it appears that the sequence converges to 5.

$$\begin{aligned} 5 &= \sqrt[3]{5^n} \leq \sqrt[3]{3^n + 5^n} \leq \sqrt[3]{5^n + 5^n} = \sqrt[3]{2 \cdot 5^n} \\ &= \sqrt[3]{2} \cdot 5 \rightarrow 5 \text{ as } n \rightarrow \infty \quad \left[\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} 2^{1/n} = 2^0 = 1 \right] \end{aligned}$$

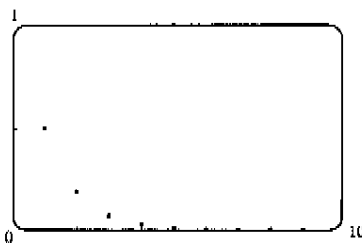
Hence, $a_n \rightarrow 5$ by the Squeeze Theorem.

Alternate Solution: Let $y = (3^x + 5^x)^{1/x}$. Then

$$\begin{aligned} \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \ln y &= \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\ln(3^x + 5^x)}{x} \stackrel{H}{=} \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{3^x \ln 3 + 5^x \ln 5}{3^x + 5^x} \\ &= \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\left(\frac{3}{5}\right)^x \ln 3 + \ln 5}{\left(\frac{3}{5}\right)^x + 1} = \ln 5 \end{aligned}$$

so $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} y = e^{\ln 5} = 5$, and so $\{\sqrt[3]{3^n + 5^n}\}$ converges to 5.

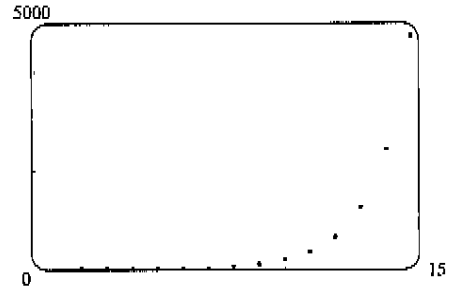
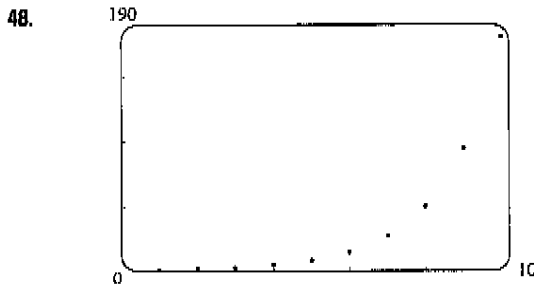
47.



From the graph, it appears that the sequence approaches 0.

$$\begin{aligned} 0 < a_n &= \frac{1 \cdot 3 \cdot 5 \cdots (2n-1)}{(2n)^n} = \frac{1}{2n} \cdot \frac{3}{2n} \cdot \frac{5}{2n} \cdots \frac{2n-1}{2n} \\ &\leq \frac{1}{2n} \cdot (1) \cdot (1) \cdots (1) = \frac{1}{2n} \rightarrow 0 \text{ as } n \rightarrow \infty \end{aligned}$$

So by the Squeeze Theorem, $\left\{ \frac{1 \cdot 3 \cdot 5 \cdots (2n-1)}{(2n)^n} \right\}$ converges to 0.



From the graphs, it seems that the sequence diverges. $a_n = \frac{1 \cdot 3 \cdot 5 \cdots (2n-1)}{n!}$. We first prove by induction

that $a_n \geq \left(\frac{3}{2}\right)^{n-1}$ for all n . This is clearly true for $n = 1$, so let $P(n)$ be the statement that the above is true for

n . We must show it is then true for $n + 1$. $a_{n+1} = a_n \cdot \frac{2n+1}{n+1} \geq \left(\frac{3}{2}\right)^{n-1} \cdot \frac{2n+1}{n+1}$ (induction hypothesis).

But $\frac{2n+1}{n+1} \geq \frac{3}{2}$ [since $2(2n+1) \geq 3(n+1) \Leftrightarrow 4n+2 \geq 3n+3 \Leftrightarrow n \geq 1$], and so we get that

$a_{n+1} \geq \left(\frac{3}{2}\right)^{n-1} \cdot \frac{3}{2} = \left(\frac{3}{2}\right)^n$ which is $P(n+1)$. Thus, we have proved our first assertion, so since $\left\{\left(\frac{3}{2}\right)^{n-1}\right\}$

diverges (by (8)), so does the given sequence $\{a_n\}$.

49. (a) $a_n = 1000(1.06)^n \Rightarrow a_1 = 1060, a_2 = 1123.60, a_3 = 1191.02, a_4 = 1262.48, \text{ and } a_5 = 1338.23.$

(b) $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = 1000 \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (1.06)^n$, so the sequence diverges by (8) with $r = 1.06 > 1$.

50. $a_{n+1} = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{2}a_n & \text{if } a_n \text{ is an even number} \\ 3a_n + 1 & \text{if } a_n \text{ is an odd number} \end{cases}$ When $a_1 = 11$, the first 40 terms are 11, 34, 17, 52, 26, 13, 40,

20, 10, 5, 16, 8, 4, 2, 1, 4, 2, 1, 4, 2, 1, 4, 2, 1, 4, 2, 1, 4, 2, 1, 4, 2, 1, 4, 2, 1, 4, 2, 1, 4, 2, 1, 4. When $a_1 = 25$, the first 40 terms are 25, 76, 38, 19, 58, 29, 88, 44, 22, 11, 34, 17, 52, 26, 13, 40, 20, 10, 5, 16, 8, 4, 2, 1, 4, 2, 1, 4, 2, 1, 4, 2, 1, 4, 2, 1, 4. The famous Collatz conjecture is that this sequence always reaches 1, regardless of the starting point a_1 .

51. If $|r| \geq 1$, then $\{r^n\}$ diverges by (8), so $\{nr^n\}$ diverges also, since $|nr^n| = n|r^n| \geq |r^n|$. If $|r| < 1$ then

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} xr^x = \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{x}{r^{-x}} \stackrel{H}{=} \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{(-\ln r)r^{-x}} = \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{r^x}{-\ln r} = 0, \text{ so } \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} nr^n = 0, \text{ and hence } \{nr^n\} \text{ converges}$$

whenever $|r| < 1$.

52. (a) Let $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = L$. By Definition 1, this means that for every $\varepsilon > 0$ there is an integer N such that $|a_n - L| < \varepsilon$ whenever $n > N$. Thus, $|a_{n+1} - L| < \varepsilon$ whenever $n + 1 > N \Leftrightarrow n > N - 1$. It follows that

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_{n+1} = L \text{ and so } \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_{n+1}.$$

(b) If $L = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n$ then $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_{n+1} = L$ also, so L must satisfy $L = 1/(1+L) \Rightarrow L^2 + L - 1 = 0 \Rightarrow$

$$L = \frac{-1 + \sqrt{5}}{2} \text{ (since } L \text{ has to be non-negative if it exists).}$$

92 □ CHAPTER 12 INFINITE SEQUENCES AND SERIES ET CHAPTER 11

53. Since $\{a_n\}$ is a decreasing sequence, $a_n > a_{n+1}$ for all $n \geq 1$. Because all of its terms lie between 5 and 8, $\{a_n\}$ is a bounded sequence. By the Monotonic Sequence Theorem, $\{a_n\}$ is convergent; that is, $\{a_n\}$ has a limit L . L must be less than 8 since $\{a_n\}$ is decreasing, so $5 \leq L < 8$.

54. $a_n = 1/5^n$ defines a decreasing geometric sequence since $a_{n+1} = \frac{1}{5}a_n < a_n$ for each $n \geq 1$. The sequence is bounded since $0 < a_n \leq \frac{1}{5}$ for all $n \geq 1$.

55. $a_n = \frac{1}{2n+3}$ is decreasing since $a_{n+1} = \frac{1}{2(n+1)+3} = \frac{1}{2n+5} < \frac{1}{2n+3} = a_n$ for each $n \geq 1$. The sequence is bounded since $0 < a_n \leq \frac{1}{5}$ for all $n \geq 1$. Note that $a_1 = \frac{1}{5}$.

56. $a_n = \frac{2n-3}{3n+4}$ defines an increasing sequence since for $f(x) = \frac{2x-3}{3x+4}$,

$$f'(x) = \frac{(3x+4)(2) - (2x-3)(3)}{(3x+4)^2} = \frac{17}{(3x+4)^2} > 0. \text{ The sequence is bounded since } a_n \geq a_1 = -\frac{1}{7} \text{ for}$$

$$n \geq 1, \text{ and } a_n < \frac{2n-3}{3n} < \frac{2n}{3n} = \frac{2}{3} \text{ for } n \geq 1.$$

57. $a_n = \cos(n\pi/2)$ is not monotonic. The first few terms are 0, -1, 0, 1, 0, -1, 0, 1, ... In fact, the sequence consists of the terms 0, -1, 0, 1 repeated over and over again in that order. The sequence is bounded since $|a_n| \leq 1$ for all $n \geq 1$.

58. $a_n = ne^{-n}$ defines a positive decreasing sequence since the function $f(x) = xe^{-x}$ is decreasing for $x > 1$. [$f'(x) = e^{-x} - xe^{-x} = e^{-x}(1-x) < 0$ for $x > 1$.] The sequence is bounded above by $a_1 = \frac{1}{e}$ and below by 0.

59. $a_n = \frac{n}{n^2+1}$ defines a decreasing sequence since for $f(x) = \frac{x}{x^2+1}$,

$$f'(x) = \frac{(x^2+1)(1) - x(2x)}{(x^2+1)^2} = \frac{1-x^2}{(x^2+1)^2} \leq 0 \text{ for } x \geq 1. \text{ The sequence is bounded since } 0 < a_n \leq \frac{1}{2} \text{ for all}$$

$$n \geq 1.$$

60. $a_n = n + \frac{1}{n}$ defines an increasing sequence since the function $g(x) = x + \frac{1}{x}$ is increasing for $x > 1$.

[$g'(x) = 1 - 1/x^2 > 0$ for $x > 1$.] The sequence is unbounded since $a_n \rightarrow \infty$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$. (It is, however, bounded below by $a_1 = 2$.)

61. $a_1 = 2^{1/2}$, $a_2 = 2^{3/4}$, $a_3 = 2^{7/8}$, ..., so $a_n = 2^{(2^n-1)/2^n} = 2^{1-(1/2^n)}$. $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} 2^{1-(1/2^n)} = 2^1 = 2$.

Alternate solution: Let $L = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n$. (We could show the limit exists by showing that $\{a_n\}$ is bounded and increasing.) Then L must satisfy $L = \sqrt{2 \cdot L} \Rightarrow L^2 = 2L \Rightarrow L(L-2) = 0$. $L \neq 0$ since the sequence increases, so $L = 2$.

62. (a) Let P_n be the statement that $a_{n+1} \geq a_n$ and $a_n \leq 3$. P_1 is obviously true. We will assume that P_n is true and then show that as a consequence P_{n+1} must also be true. $a_{n+2} \geq a_{n+1} \Leftrightarrow \sqrt{2+a_{n+1}} \geq \sqrt{2+a_n} \Leftrightarrow 2+a_{n+1} \geq 2+a_n \Leftrightarrow a_{n+1} \geq a_n$, which is the induction hypothesis. $a_{n+1} \leq 3 \Leftrightarrow \sqrt{2+a_n} \leq 3 \Leftrightarrow 2+a_n \leq 9 \Leftrightarrow a_n \leq 7$, which is certainly true because we are assuming that $a_n \leq 3$. So P_n is true for all n , and so $a_1 \leq a_n \leq 3$ (showing that the sequence is bounded), and hence by the Monotonic Sequence Theorem, $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n$ exists.

(b) If $L = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n$, then $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_{n+1} = L$ also, so $L = \sqrt{2+L} \Rightarrow L^2 = 2+L \Leftrightarrow L^2 - L - 2 = 0 \Leftrightarrow (L+1)(L-2) = 0 \Leftrightarrow L = 2$ (since L can't be negative).

63. We show by induction that $\{a_n\}$ is increasing and bounded above by 3.

Let P_n be the proposition that $a_{n+1} > a_n$ and $0 < a_n < 3$. Clearly P_1 is true. Assume that P_n is true.

Then $a_{n+1} > a_n \Rightarrow \frac{1}{a_{n+1}} < \frac{1}{a_n} \Rightarrow -\frac{1}{a_{n+1}} > -\frac{1}{a_n}$.

Now $a_{n+2} = 3 - \frac{1}{a_{n+1}} > 3 - \frac{1}{a_n} = a_{n+1} \Leftrightarrow P_{n+1}$. This proves that $\{a_n\}$ is increasing and bounded above by 3, so $1 = a_1 < a_n < 3$, that is, $\{a_n\}$ is bounded, and hence convergent by the Monotonic Sequence Theorem.

If $L = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n$, then $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_{n+1} = L$ also, so L must satisfy $L = 3 - 1/L \Rightarrow L^2 - 3L + 1 = 0 \Rightarrow$

$L = \frac{3 \pm \sqrt{5}}{2}$. But $L > 1$, so $L = \frac{3 + \sqrt{5}}{2}$.

64. We use induction. Let P_n be the statement that $0 < a_{n+1} \leq a_n \leq 2$. Clearly P_1 is true, since $a_2 = 1/(3-2) = 1$.

Now assume that P_n is true. Then $a_{n+1} \leq a_n \Rightarrow -a_{n+1} \geq -a_n \Rightarrow 3 - a_{n+1} \geq 3 - a_n \Rightarrow$

$a_{n+2} = \frac{1}{3 - a_{n+1}} \leq \frac{1}{3 - a_n} = a_{n+1}$. Also $a_{n+2} > 0$ (since $3 - a_{n+1}$ is positive) and $a_{n+1} \leq 2$ by the induction hypothesis, so P_{n+1} is true.

To find the limit, we use the fact that $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_{n+1} \Rightarrow L = \frac{1}{3-L} \Rightarrow L^2 - 3L + 1 = 0 \Rightarrow$

$L = \frac{3 \pm \sqrt{5}}{2}$. But $L \leq 2$, so we must have $L = \frac{3 - \sqrt{5}}{2}$.

65. (a) Let a_n be the number of rabbit pairs in the n th month. Clearly $a_1 = 1 = a_2$. In the n th month, each pair that is 2 or more months old (that is, a_{n-2} pairs) will produce a new pair to add to the a_{n-1} pairs already present.

Thus, $a_n = a_{n-1} + a_{n-2}$, so that $\{a_n\} = \{f_n\}$, the Fibonacci sequence.

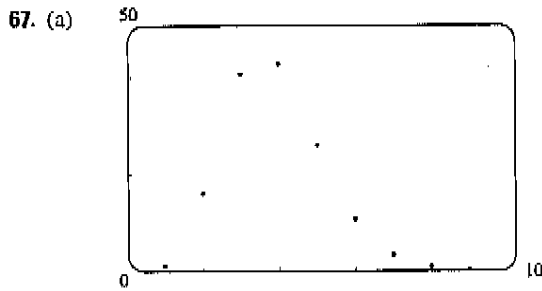
(b) $a_n = \frac{f_{n+1}}{f_n} \Rightarrow a_{n-1} = \frac{f_n}{f_{n-1}} = \frac{f_{n-1} + f_{n-2}}{f_{n-1}} = 1 + \frac{f_{n-2}}{f_{n-1}} = 1 + \frac{1}{f_{n-1}/f_{n-2}} = 1 + \frac{1}{a_{n-2}}$. If

$L = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n$, then $L = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_{n-1}$ and $L = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_{n-2}$, so L must satisfy $L = 1 + \frac{1}{L} \Rightarrow$

$L^2 - L - 1 = 0 \Rightarrow L = \frac{1 + \sqrt{5}}{2}$ (since L must be positive).

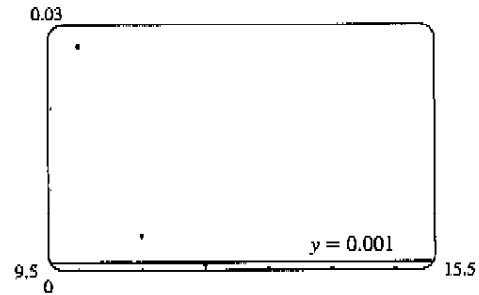
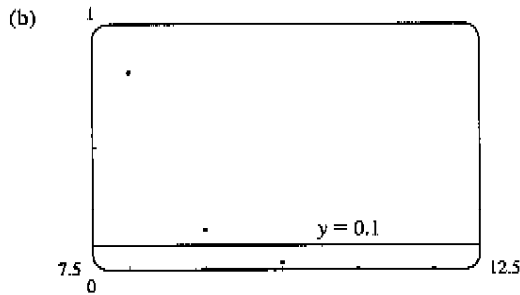
66. (a) If f is continuous, then $f(L) = f\left(\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n\right) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} f(a_n) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_{n+1} = L$ by Exercise 52(a).

(b) By repeatedly pressing the cosine key on the calculator (that is, taking cosine of the previous answer) until the displayed value stabilizes, we see that $L \approx 0.73909$.



From the graph, it appears that the sequence $\left\{ \frac{n^5}{n!} \right\}$ converges to 0, that is,

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{n^5}{n!} = 0.$$



From the first graph, it seems that the smallest possible value of N corresponding to $\varepsilon = 0.1$ is 9, since $n^5/n! < 0.1$ whenever $n \geq 10$, but $9^5/9! > 0.1$. From the second graph, it seems that for $\varepsilon = 0.001$, the smallest possible value for N is 11.

68. Let $\varepsilon > 0$ and let N be any positive integer larger than $\ln(\varepsilon)/\ln|r|$. If $n > N$ then $n > \ln(\varepsilon)/\ln|r| \Rightarrow n \ln|r| < \ln \varepsilon$ [since $|r| < 1 \Rightarrow \ln|r| < 0$] $\Rightarrow \ln(|r|^n) < \ln \varepsilon \Rightarrow |r|^n < \varepsilon \Rightarrow |r^n - 0| < \varepsilon$, and so by Definition 1, $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} r^n = 0$.

69. 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 that $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = 0$ by the Squeeze Theorem.

70. (a)
$$\frac{b^{n+1} - a^{n+1}}{b - a} = b^n + b^{n-1}a + b^{n-2}a^2 + b^{n-3}a^3 + \dots + ba^{n-1} + a^n$$

$$< b^n + b^{n-1}b + b^{n-2}b^2 + b^{n-3}b^3 + \dots + bb^{n-1} + b^n = (n+1)b^n$$

(b) Since $b - a > 0$, we have $b^{n+1} - a^{n+1} < (n+1)b^n(b - a) \Rightarrow b^{n+1} - (n+1)b^n(b - a) < a^{n+1} \Rightarrow b^n[(n+1)a - nb] < a^{n+1}$.

(c) With this substitution, $(n+1)a - nb = 1$, and so $b^n = \left(1 + \frac{1}{n}\right)^n < a^{n+1} = \left(1 + \frac{1}{n+1}\right)^{n+1}$.

(d) With this substitution, we get $\left(1 + \frac{1}{2n}\right)^n \left(\frac{1}{2}\right) < 1 \Rightarrow \left(1 + \frac{1}{2n}\right)^n < 2 \Rightarrow \left(1 + \frac{1}{2n}\right)^{2n} < 4$.

(e) $a_n < a_{2n}$ since $\{a_n\}$ is increasing, so $a_n < a_{2n} < 4$.

(f) Since $\{a_n\}$ is increasing and bounded above by 4, $a_1 \leq a_n \leq 4$, and so $\{a_n\}$ is bounded and monotonic, and hence has a limit by Theorem 11.

71. (a) First we show that $a > a_1 > b_1 > b$.

$$a_1 - b_1 = \frac{a+b}{2} - \sqrt{ab} = \frac{1}{2}(a - 2\sqrt{ab} + b) = \frac{1}{2}(\sqrt{a} - \sqrt{b})^2 > 0 \quad (\text{since } a > b) \Rightarrow a_1 > b_1. \text{ Also}$$

$$a - a_1 = a - \frac{1}{2}(a+b) = \frac{1}{2}(a-b) > 0 \text{ and } b - b_1 = b - \sqrt{ab} = \sqrt{b}(\sqrt{b} - \sqrt{a}) < 0, \text{ so } a > a_1 > b_1 > b.$$

In the same way we can show that $a_1 > a_2 > b_2 > b_1$ and so the given assertion is true for $n = 1$. Suppose it is true for $n = k$, that is, $a_k > a_{k+1} > b_{k+1} > b_k$. Then

$$\begin{aligned} a_{k+2} - b_{k+2} &= \frac{1}{2}(a_{k+1} + b_{k+1}) - \sqrt{a_{k+1}b_{k+1}} = \frac{1}{2}(a_{k+1} - 2\sqrt{a_{k+1}b_{k+1}} + b_{k+1}) \\ &= \frac{1}{2}(\sqrt{a_{k+1}} - \sqrt{b_{k+1}})^2 > 0 \end{aligned}$$

$$a_{k+1} - a_{k+2} = a_{k+1} - \frac{1}{2}(a_{k+1} + b_{k+1}) = \frac{1}{2}(a_{k+1} - b_{k+1}) > 0$$

$$\text{and } b_{k+1} - b_{k+2} = b_{k+1} - \sqrt{a_{k+1}b_{k+1}} = \sqrt{b_{k+1}}(\sqrt{b_{k+1}} - \sqrt{a_{k+1}}) < 0 \Rightarrow$$

$a_{k+1} > a_{k+2} > b_{k+2} > b_{k+1}$, so the assertion is true for $n = k + 1$. Thus, it is true for all n by mathematical induction.

(b) From part (a) we have $a > a_n > a_{n+1} > b_{n+1} > b_n > b$, which shows that both sequences, $\{a_n\}$ and $\{b_n\}$, are monotonic and bounded. So they are both convergent by the Monotonic Sequence Theorem.

(c) Let $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = \alpha$ and $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} b_n = \beta$. Then $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_{n+1} = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{a_n + b_n}{2} \Rightarrow \alpha = \frac{\alpha + \beta}{2} \Rightarrow 2\alpha = \alpha + \beta \Rightarrow \alpha = \beta$.

72. (a) Let $\varepsilon > 0$. Since $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_{2n} = L$, there exists N_1 such that $|a_{2n} - L| < \varepsilon$ for $n > N_1$. Since $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_{2n+1} = L$, there exists N_2 such that $|a_{2n+1} - L| < \varepsilon$ for $n > N_2$. Let $N = \max\{2N_1, 2N_2 + 1\}$ and let $n > N$. If n is even, then $n = 2m$ where $m > N_1$, so $|a_n - L| = |a_{2m} - L| < \varepsilon$. If n is odd, then $n = 2m + 1$, where $m > N_2$, so $|a_n - L| = |a_{2m+1} - L| < \varepsilon$. Therefore $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = L$.

(b) $a_1 = 1, a_2 = 1 + \frac{1}{1+1} = \frac{3}{2} = 1.5, a_3 = 1 + \frac{1}{5/2} = \frac{7}{5} = 1.4, a_4 = 1 + \frac{1}{12/5} = \frac{17}{12} = 1.41\bar{6},$

$$a_5 = 1 + \frac{1}{39/12} = \frac{41}{39} \approx 1.413793, a_6 = 1 + \frac{1}{70/29} = \frac{99}{70} \approx 1.414286, a_7 = 1 + \frac{1}{169/70} = \frac{339}{169} \approx 1.414201,$$

$$a_8 = 1 + \frac{1}{408/169} = \frac{577}{408} \approx 1.414216. \text{ Notice that } a_1 < a_3 < a_5 < a_7 \text{ and } a_2 > a_4 > a_6 > a_8. \text{ It appears}$$

that the odd terms are increasing and the even terms are decreasing. Let's prove that $a_{2n-2} > a_{2n}$ and

$a_{2n-1} < a_{2n+1}$ by mathematical induction. Suppose that $a_{2k-2} > a_{2k}$. Then $1 + a_{2k-2} > 1 + a_{2k} \Rightarrow$

$$\frac{1}{1 + a_{2k-2}} < \frac{1}{1 + a_{2k}} \Rightarrow 1 + \frac{1}{1 + a_{2k-2}} < 1 + \frac{1}{1 + a_{2k}} \Rightarrow a_{2k-1} < a_{2k+1} \Rightarrow$$

$$1 + a_{2k-1} < 1 + a_{2k+1} \Rightarrow \frac{1}{1 + a_{2k-1}} > \frac{1}{1 + a_{2k+1}} \Rightarrow 1 + \frac{1}{1 + a_{2k-1}} > 1 + \frac{1}{1 + a_{2k+1}} \Rightarrow$$

$a_{2k} > a_{2k+2}$. We have thus shown, by induction, that the odd terms are increasing and the even terms are decreasing. Also all terms lie between 1 and 2, so both $\{a_n\}$ and $\{b_n\}$ are bounded monotonic sequences and are therefore convergent by Theorem 11. Let $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_{2n} = L$. Then $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_{2n+2} = L$ also. We have

$$a_{n+2} = 1 + \frac{1}{1 + 1 + 1/(1 + a_n)} = 1 + \frac{1}{(3 + 2a_n)/(1 + a_n)} = \frac{4 + 3a_n}{3 + 2a_n}, \text{ so } a_{2n+2} = \frac{4 + 3a_{2n}}{3 + 2a_{2n}}.$$

Taking limits of both sides, we get $L = \frac{4 + 3L}{3 + 2L} \Rightarrow 3L + 2L^2 = 4 + 3L \Rightarrow L^2 = 2 \Rightarrow L = \sqrt{2}$ (since

$L > 0$). Thus, $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_{2n} = \sqrt{2}$. Similarly we find that $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_{2n+1} = \sqrt{2}$. So, by part (a), $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = \sqrt{2}$.

$$73. \text{ (a) Suppose } \{p_n\} \text{ converges to } p. \text{ Then } p_{n+1} = \frac{bp_n}{a + p_n} \Rightarrow \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} p_{n+1} = \frac{b \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} p_n}{a + \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} p_n} \Rightarrow$$

$$p = \frac{bp}{a + p} \Rightarrow p^2 + ap = bp \Rightarrow p(p + a - b) = 0 \Rightarrow p = 0 \text{ or } p = b - a.$$

$$\text{(b) } p_{n+1} = \frac{bp_n}{a + p_n} = \frac{\frac{b}{a} p_n}{1 + \frac{p_n}{a}} < \frac{b}{a} p_n \text{ since } 1 + \frac{p_n}{a} > 1.$$

(c) By part (b), $p_1 < \left(\frac{b}{a}\right)p_0$, $p_2 < \left(\frac{b}{a}\right)p_1 < \left(\frac{b}{a}\right)^2 p_0$, $p_3 < \left(\frac{b}{a}\right)p_2 < \left(\frac{b}{a}\right)^3 p_0$, etc. In general,

$$p_n < \left(\frac{b}{a}\right)^n p_0, \text{ so } \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} p_n \leq \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left(\frac{b}{a}\right)^n \cdot p_0 = 0 \text{ since } b < a. \text{ [By result 8, } \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} r^n = 0 \text{ if } -1 < r < 1.$$

Here $r = \frac{b}{a} \in (0, 1)$.]

(d) Let $a < b$. We first show, by induction, that if $p_0 < b - a$, then $p_n < b - a$ and $p_{n+1} > p_n$.

$$\text{For } n = 0, \text{ we have } p_1 - p_0 = \frac{bp_0}{a + p_0} - p_0 = \frac{p_0(b - a - p_0)}{a + p_0} > 0 \text{ since } p_0 < b - a. \text{ So } p_1 > p_0.$$

Now we suppose the assertion is true for $n = k$, that is, $p_k < b - a$ and $p_{k+1} > p_k$. Then

$$b - a - p_{k+1} = b - a - \frac{bp_k}{a + p_k} = \frac{a(b - a) + bp_k - ap_k - bp_k}{a + p_k} = \frac{a(b - a - p_k)}{a + p_k} > 0 \text{ because } p_k < b - a.$$

$$\text{So } p_{k+1} < b - a. \text{ And } p_{k+2} - p_{k+1} = \frac{bp_{k+1}}{a + p_{k+1}} - p_{k+1} = \frac{p_{k+1}(b - a - p_{k+1})}{a + p_{k+1}} > 0 \text{ since } p_{k+1} < b - a.$$

Therefore, $p_{k+2} > p_{k+1}$. Thus, the assertion is true for $n = k + 1$. It is therefore true for all n by mathematical induction. A similar proof by induction shows that if $p_0 > b - a$, then $p_n > b - a$ and $\{p_n\}$ is decreasing.

In either case the sequence $\{p_n\}$ is bounded and monotonic, so it is convergent by the Monotonic Sequence Theorem. It then follows from part (a) that $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} p_n = b - a$.