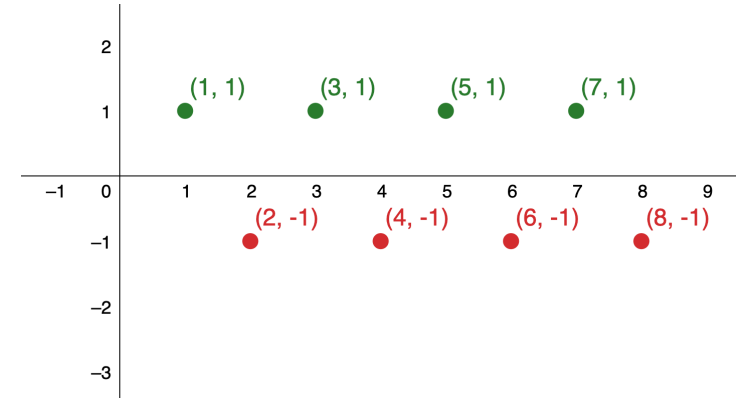
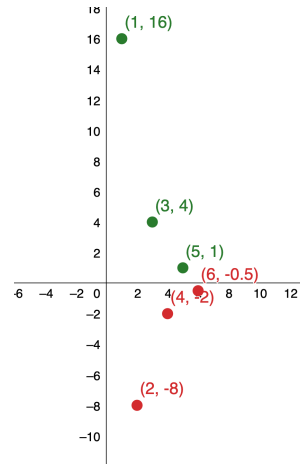
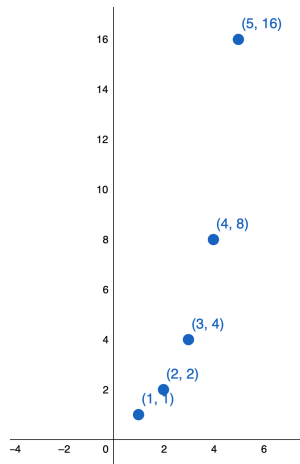




INTRODUCTION TO CALCULUS

LIMIT OF A SEQUENCE





WHY SHOULD WE CARE?

- A fundamental question that arises regarding infinite sequences is the behavior of the terms as n gets larger.
- Since a sequence is a function defined on the positive integers, it makes sense to discuss the limit of the terms as $n \rightarrow \infty$.

EXAMPLES

A

$$\{2^{n-1}\} = \{1, 2, 4, 8, \dots\}$$

B

$$\begin{aligned} &\{(-1)^{n-1}\} \\ &= \{1, -1, 1, -1, \dots\} \end{aligned}$$

C

$$\begin{aligned} &\left\{1 - \left(\frac{2}{3}\right)^n\right\} \\ &= \left\{\frac{1}{3}, \frac{5}{9}, \frac{19}{27}, \frac{65}{81}, \dots\right\} \end{aligned}$$

D

$$\begin{aligned} &\left\{16\left(-\frac{1}{2}\right)^{n-1}\right\} \\ &= \{16, -8, 4, -2, \dots\} \end{aligned}$$

The terms $\rightarrow 1$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$

The terms alternate but do not approach one single value as $n \rightarrow \infty$

The terms $\rightarrow 0$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$

The terms $\rightarrow \infty$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$

EXAMPLES

A

$$\{2^{n-1}\} = \{1, 2, 4, 8, \dots\}$$

B

$$\begin{aligned} &\{(-1)^{n-1}\} \\ &= \{1, -1, 1, -1, \dots\} \end{aligned}$$

C

$$\begin{aligned} &\left\{1 - \left(\frac{2}{3}\right)^n\right\} \\ &= \left\{\frac{1}{3}, \frac{5}{9}, \frac{19}{27}, \frac{65}{81}, \dots\right\} \end{aligned}$$

D

$$\begin{aligned} &\left\{16\left(-\frac{1}{2}\right)^{n-1}\right\} \\ &= \{16, -8, 4, -2, \dots\} \end{aligned}$$

C

The terms $\rightarrow 1$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$

B

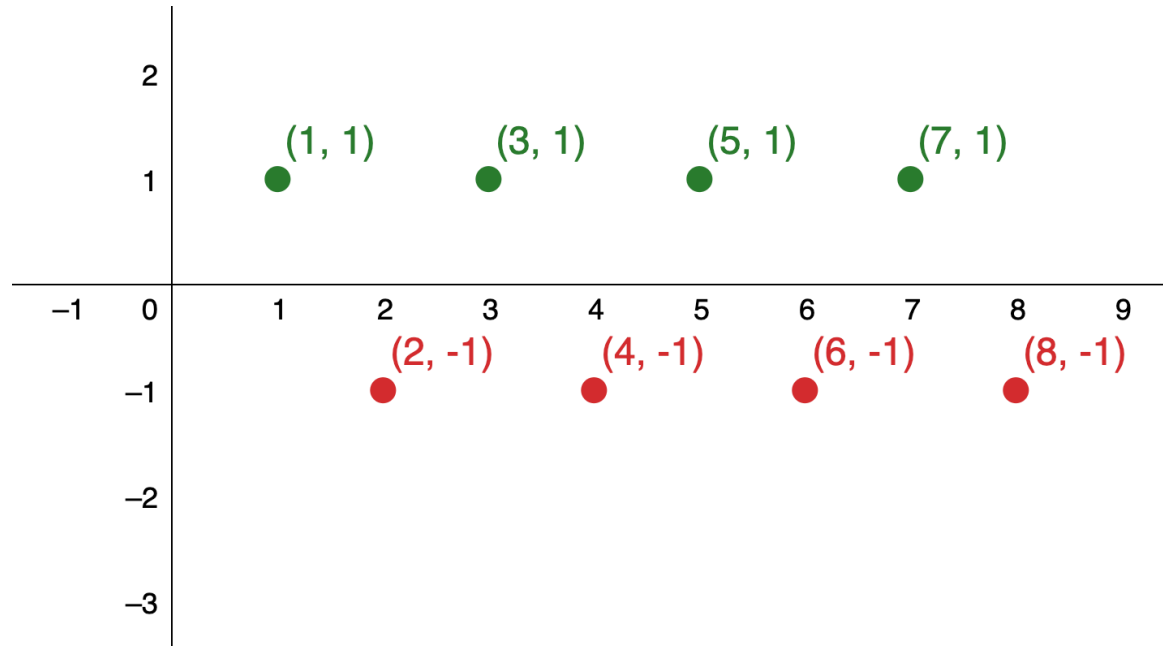
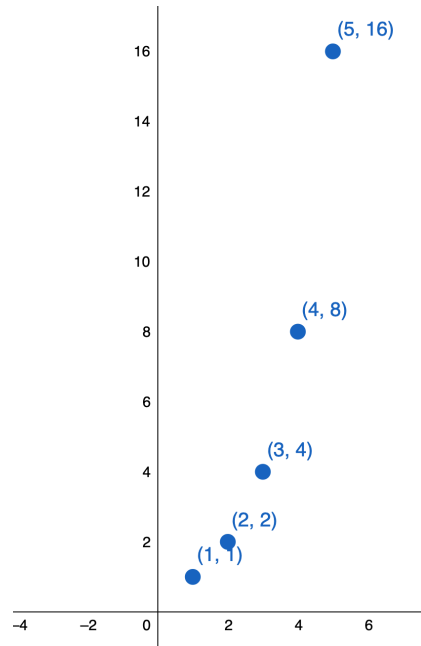
The terms alternate but do not approach one single value as $n \rightarrow \infty$

D

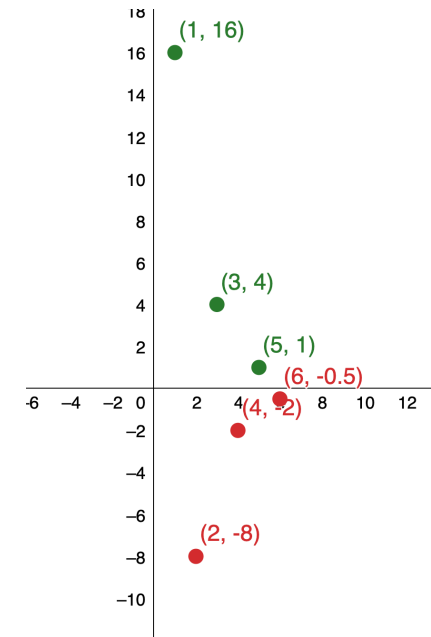
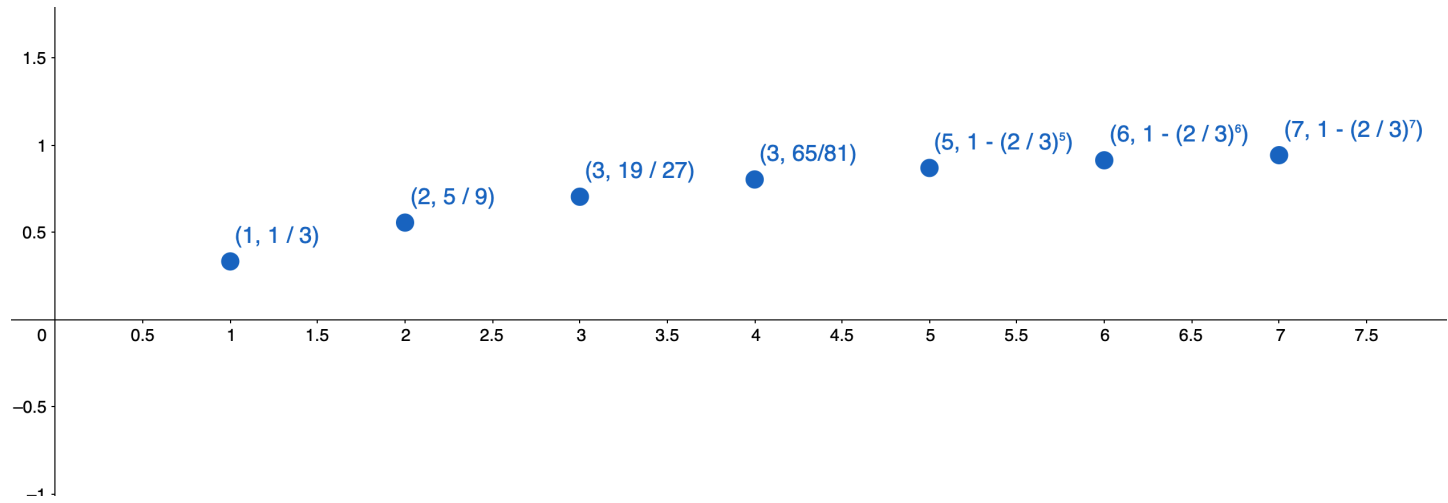
The terms $\rightarrow 0$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$

A

The terms $\rightarrow \infty$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$



GRAPHS OF THE FIRST TWO EXAMPLES



GRAPHS THE LAST TWO EXAMPLES

POSSIBILITIES FOR THE BEHAVIOR OF THE TERMS OF A SEQUENCE

As $n \rightarrow \infty$

- the terms approach a finite number
- the terms do not approach a finite number
 - $\rightarrow \infty$
 - Alternating

If the terms of a sequence approach **a finite number L** as $n \rightarrow \infty$ we say that the sequence is a convergent sequence and the real number L is the limit of the sequence.

CONVERGENT/DIVERGENT SEQUENCES

Definition

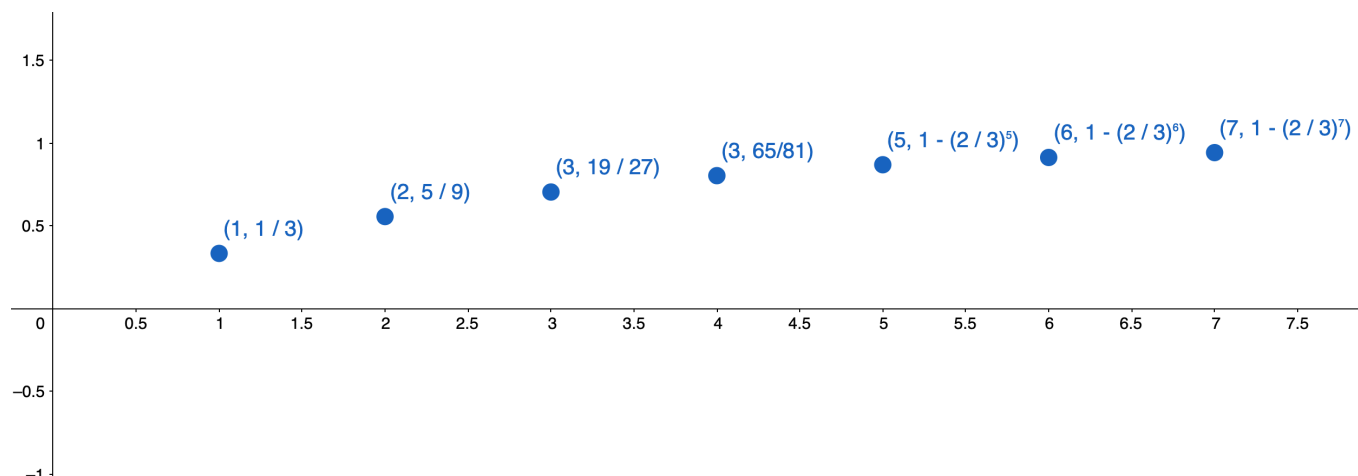
Given a sequence $\{a_n\}$, if the terms a_n become arbitrarily close to a finite number L as n becomes sufficiently large, we say $\{a_n\}$ is a **convergent sequence** and L is the **limit of the sequence**. In this case, we write

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = L.$$

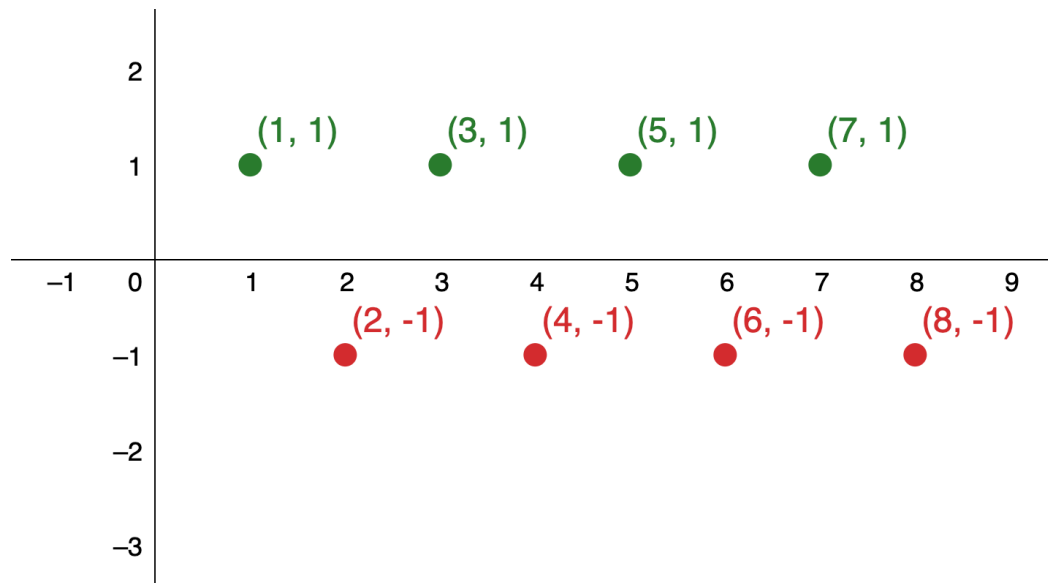
If a sequence $\{a_n\}$ is not convergent, we say it is a **divergent sequence**.

EXAMPLE C

- $\left\{1 - \left(\frac{2}{3}\right)^n\right\} = \left\{\frac{1}{3}, \frac{5}{9}, \frac{19}{27}, \frac{65}{81}, \dots\right\}$ is a convergent sequence and its limit is 1.



EXAMPLE B



- $\{(-1)^{n-1}\} = \{1, -1, 1, -1, \dots\}$ are not approaching a finite number as n becomes larger.
- We say that it is a divergent sequence.

FROM INFORMAL TO FORMAL

-
- In the informal definition for the limit of a sequence, we used the terms “**arbitrarily close**” and “**sufficiently large**”.
 - Although these phrases help illustrate the meaning of a converging sequence, they are somewhat **vague**.
 - To be more precise, we now present **the more formal definition** of limit for a sequence and show these ideas graphically.

FORMAL DEFINITION OF THE LIMIT

Definition

A sequence $\{a_n\}$ converges to a real number L if for all $\varepsilon > 0$, there exists an integer N such that $|a_n - L| < \varepsilon$ if $n \geq N$. The number L is the limit of the sequence and we write

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

In this case, we say the sequence $\{a_n\}$ is a convergent sequence. If a sequence does not converge, it is a divergent sequence, and we say the limit does not exist.

EXPLANATION BY A FIGURE

FOR ALL $\varepsilon > 0$, THERE EXISTS AN INTEGER N SUCH THAT $|a_n - L| < \varepsilon$ IF $n \geq N$.

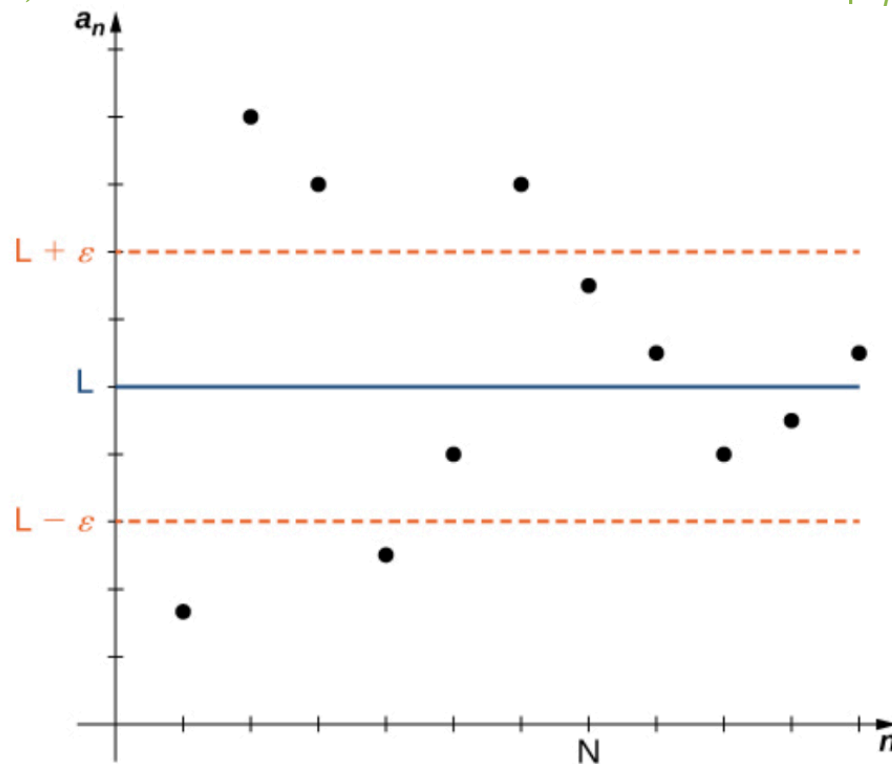


Figure 5.4 As n increases, the terms a_n become closer to L . For values of $n \geq N$, the distance between each point (n, a_n) and the line $y = L$ is less than ε .

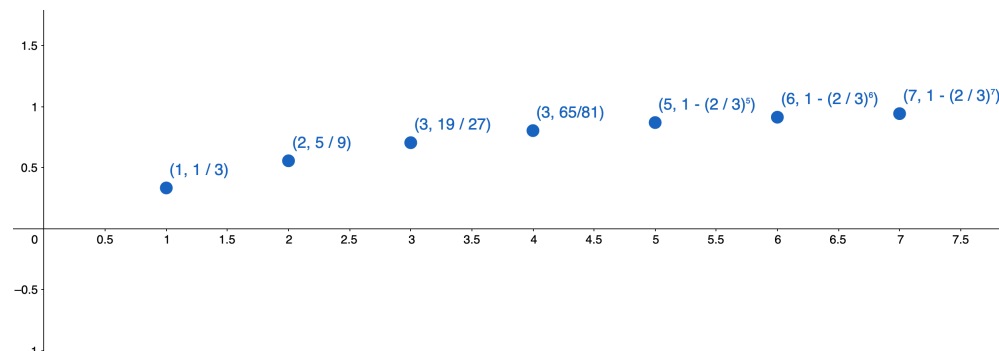
EXPLANATION BY AN EXAMPLE

For all $\varepsilon > 0$, there exists an integer N such that $|a_n - L| < \varepsilon$ if $n \geq N$.

An example

$$\left\{ 1 - \left(\frac{2}{3}\right)^n \right\} = \left\{ \frac{1}{3}, \frac{5}{9}, \frac{19}{27}, \frac{65}{81}, \dots \right\}$$

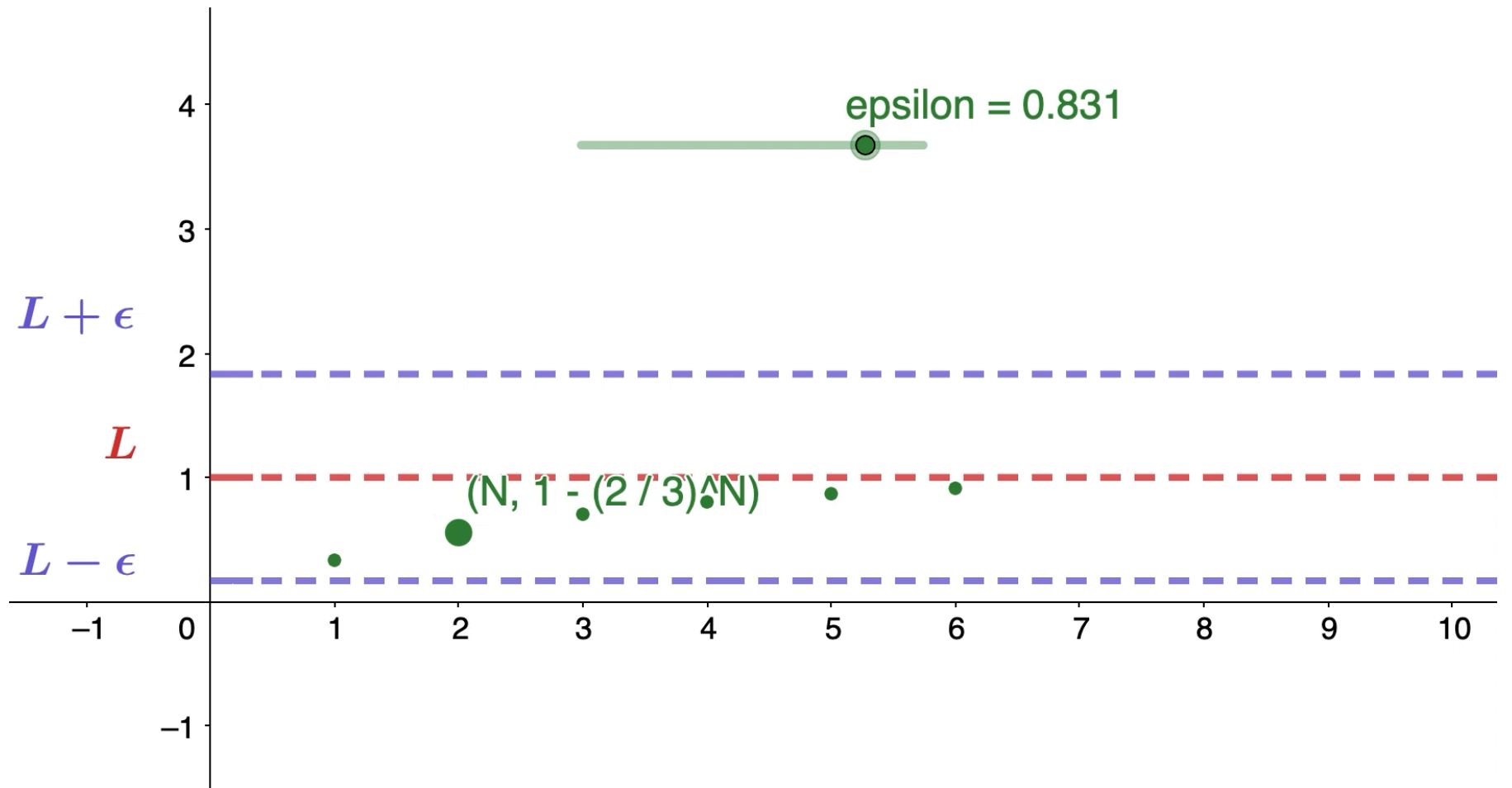
- $\varepsilon = 1$
- $\varepsilon = \frac{1}{10}$
- $\varepsilon = \frac{1}{100}$



EXPLANATION BY AN EXAMPLE

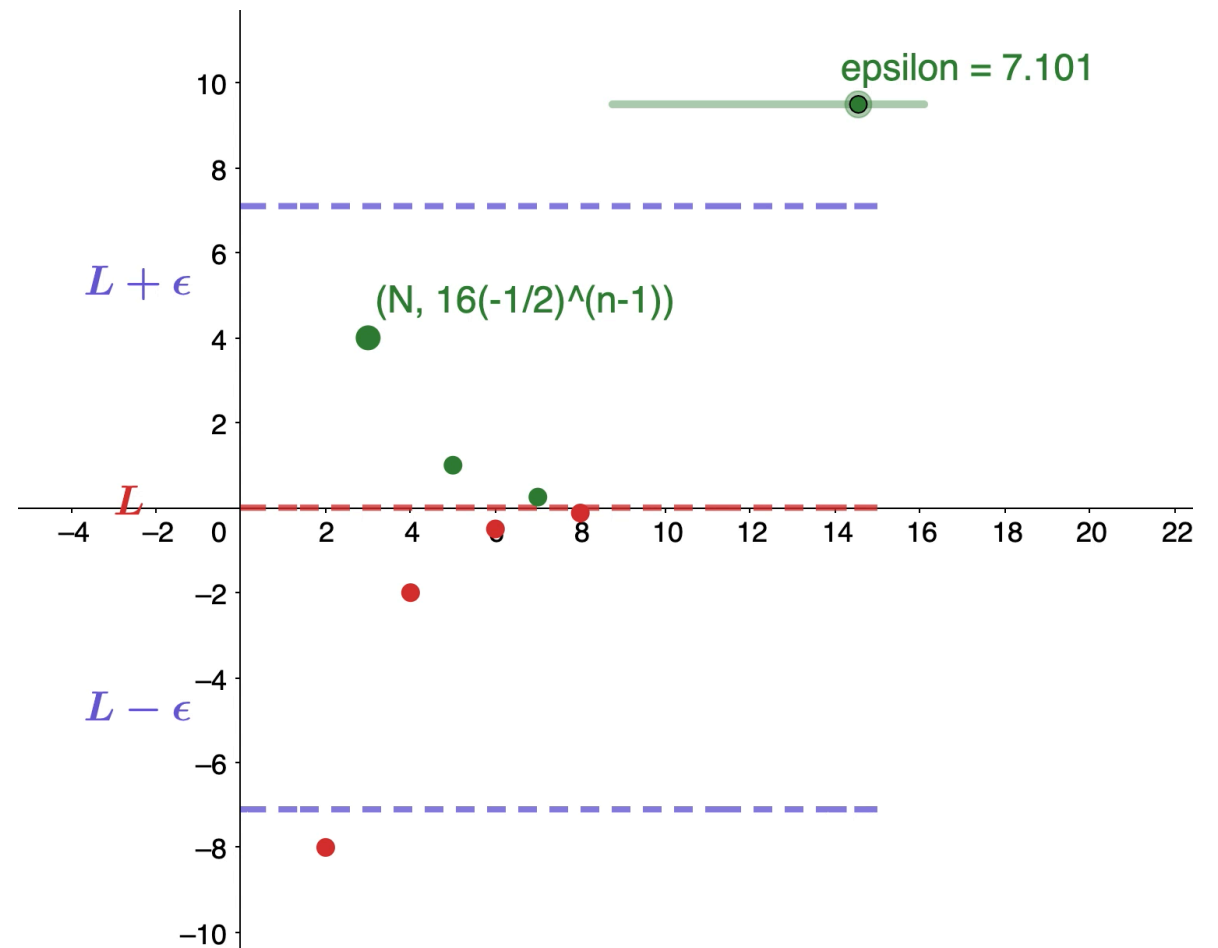
$$\left\{ 1 - \left(\frac{2}{3}\right)^n \right\}$$

$$= \left\{ \frac{1}{3}, \frac{5}{9}, \frac{19}{27}, \frac{65}{81}, \dots \right\}$$



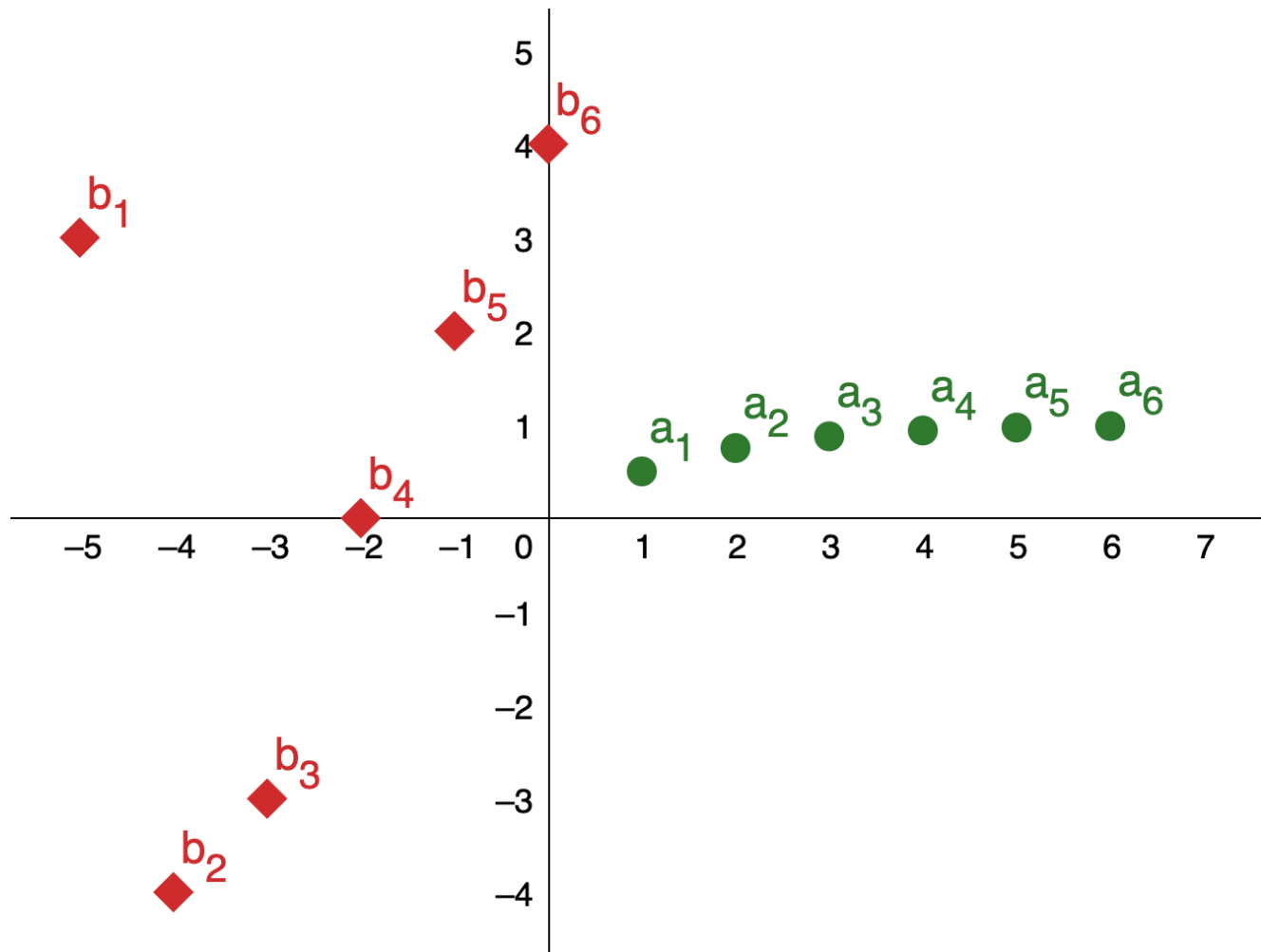
EXPLANATION BY ANOTHER EXAMPLE

■ $\left\{16\left(-\frac{1}{2}\right)^{n-1}\right\} = \{16, -8, 4, -2, \dots\dots\}$



REMARK

- We remark that the convergence or divergence of a sequence $\{a_n\}$ depends only on what happens to the terms a_n as $n \rightarrow \infty$.
- Therefore, if a finite number of terms b_1, b_2, \dots, b_n are placed before a_1 to create a new sequence $b_1, b_2, \dots, b_n, a_1, a_2, \dots$, this new sequence will converge if $\{a_n\}$ converges and diverge if $\{a_n\}$ diverges.
- Further, if the sequence $\{a_n\}$ converges to L this new sequence will also converge to L .



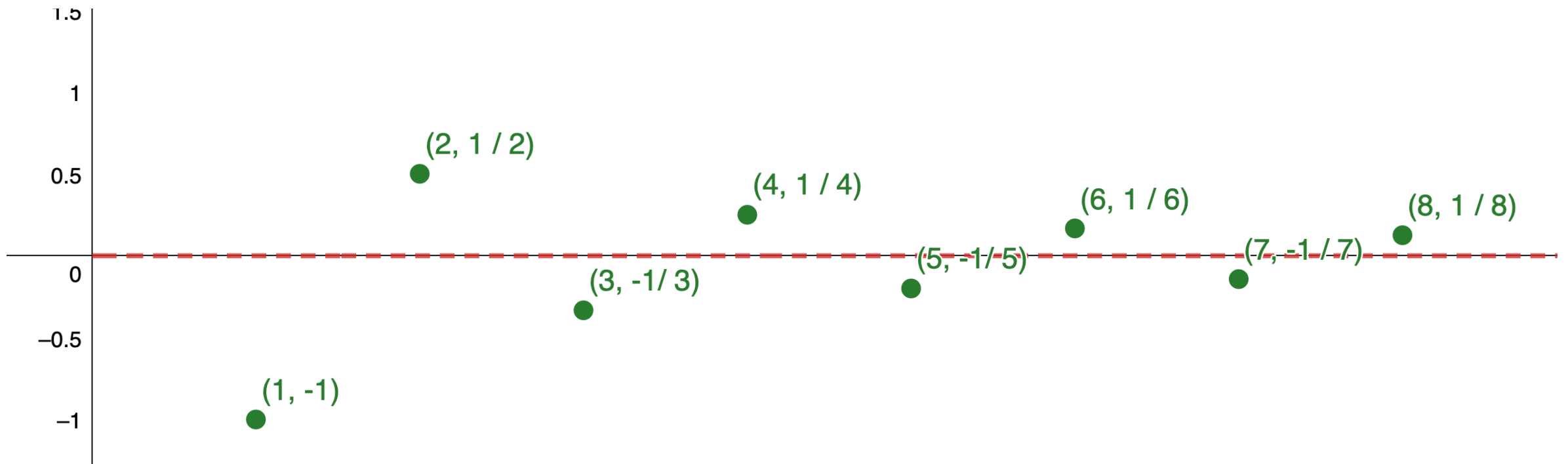
REMARK

MORE ABOUT DIVERGENT SEQUENCES

- Different sequences can diverge in different ways.
 - $\rightarrow +\infty$
 - $\rightarrow -\infty$
 - Alternating
- It is important to recognize that this notation $\rightarrow +\infty$ or $\rightarrow -\infty$ does not imply that the limit of the sequence exists.
- Writing that the limit is infinity is intended only to provide more information about why the sequence is divergent.

HOW TO SHOW THAT A SEQUENCE IS CONVERGENT?

$$\left\{ \frac{(-1)^n}{n} \right\}$$



AN EXTREMELY USEFUL METHOD

Theorem 5.4: Squeeze Theorem for Sequences

Consider sequences $\{a_n\}$, $\{b_n\}$, and $\{c_n\}$. Suppose there exists an integer N such that

$$a_n \leq b_n \leq c_n \text{ for all } n \geq N.$$

If there exists a real number L such that

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

then $\{b_n\}$ converges and $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} b_n = L$ (**Figure 5.6**).

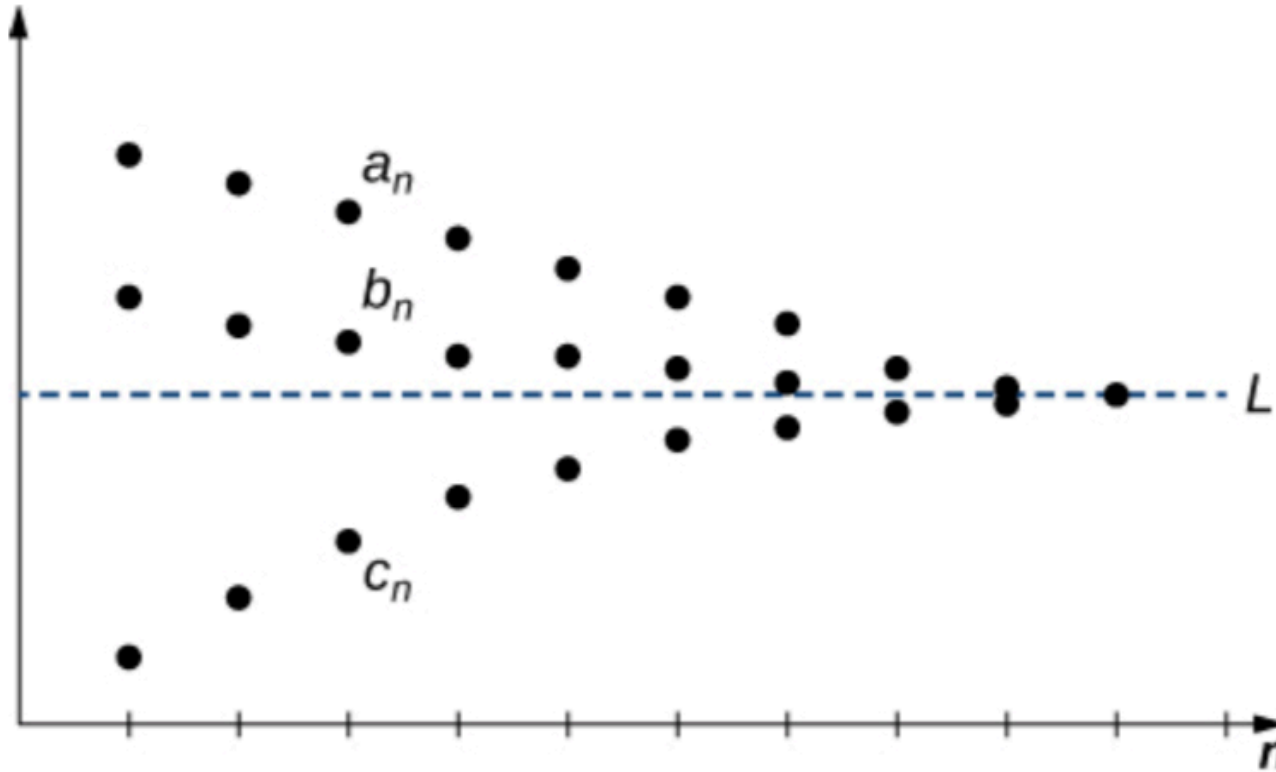


Figure 5.6 Each term b_n satisfies $a_n \leq b_n \leq c_n$ and the sequences $\{a_n\}$ and $\{c_n\}$ converge to the same limit, so the sequence $\{b_n\}$ must converge to the same limit as well.

SQUEEZE THEOREM FOR CALCULUS

PROOF

Hint!

- For all $\varepsilon > 0$,
 - There exists an integer N_1 such that $|a_n - L| < \varepsilon$ if $n \geq N_1$.
 - There exists an integer N_2 such that $|c_n - L| < \varepsilon$ if $n \geq N_2$.
- There exists an integer N such that $a_n \leq b_n \leq c_n$ if $n \geq N$.

PROOF

Proof

Let $\varepsilon > 0$. Since the sequence $\{a_n\}$ converges to L , there exists an integer N_1 such that $|a_n - L| < \varepsilon$ for all $n \geq N_1$. Similarly, since $\{c_n\}$ converges to L , there exists an integer N_2 such that $|c_n - L| < \varepsilon$ for all $n \geq N_2$. By assumption, there exists an integer N such that $a_n \leq b_n \leq c_n$ for all $n \geq N$. Let M be the largest of N_1, N_2 , and N . We must show that $|b_n - L| < \varepsilon$ for all $n \geq M$. For all $n \geq M$,

$$-\varepsilon < -|a_n - L| \leq a_n - L \leq b_n - L \leq c_n - L \leq |c_n - L| < \varepsilon.$$

Therefore, $-\varepsilon < b_n - L < \varepsilon$, and we conclude that $|b_n - L| < \varepsilon$ for all $n \geq M$, and we conclude that the sequence $\{b_n\}$ converges to L .

□

APPLICATION

Use the Squeeze Theorem to find the limit of each of the following sequences.

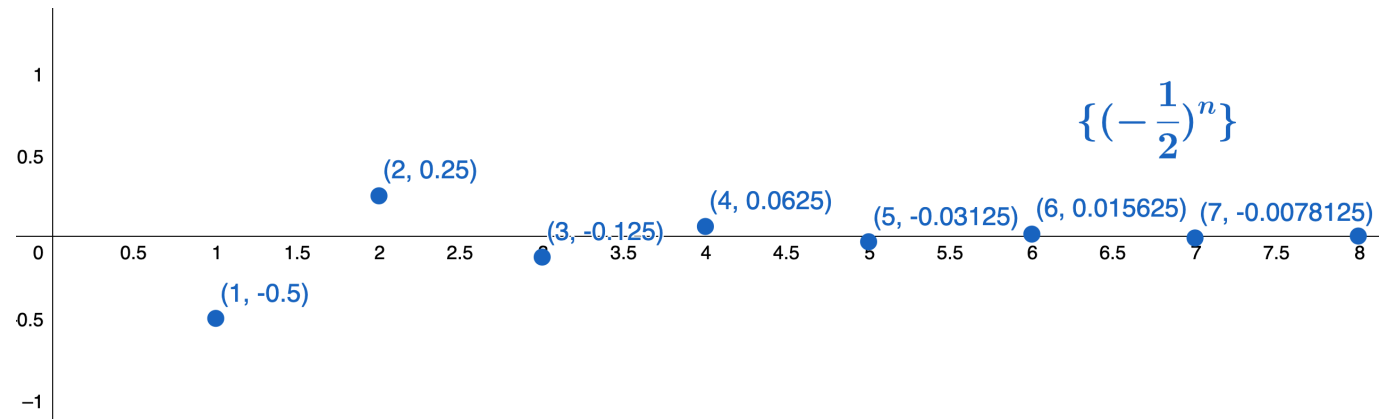
- $\left\{ \frac{\sin n}{n} \right\}$

- $\left\{ \left(-\frac{1}{2}\right)^n \right\}$

- $\left\{ \frac{2n - \cos 2n}{n} \right\}$

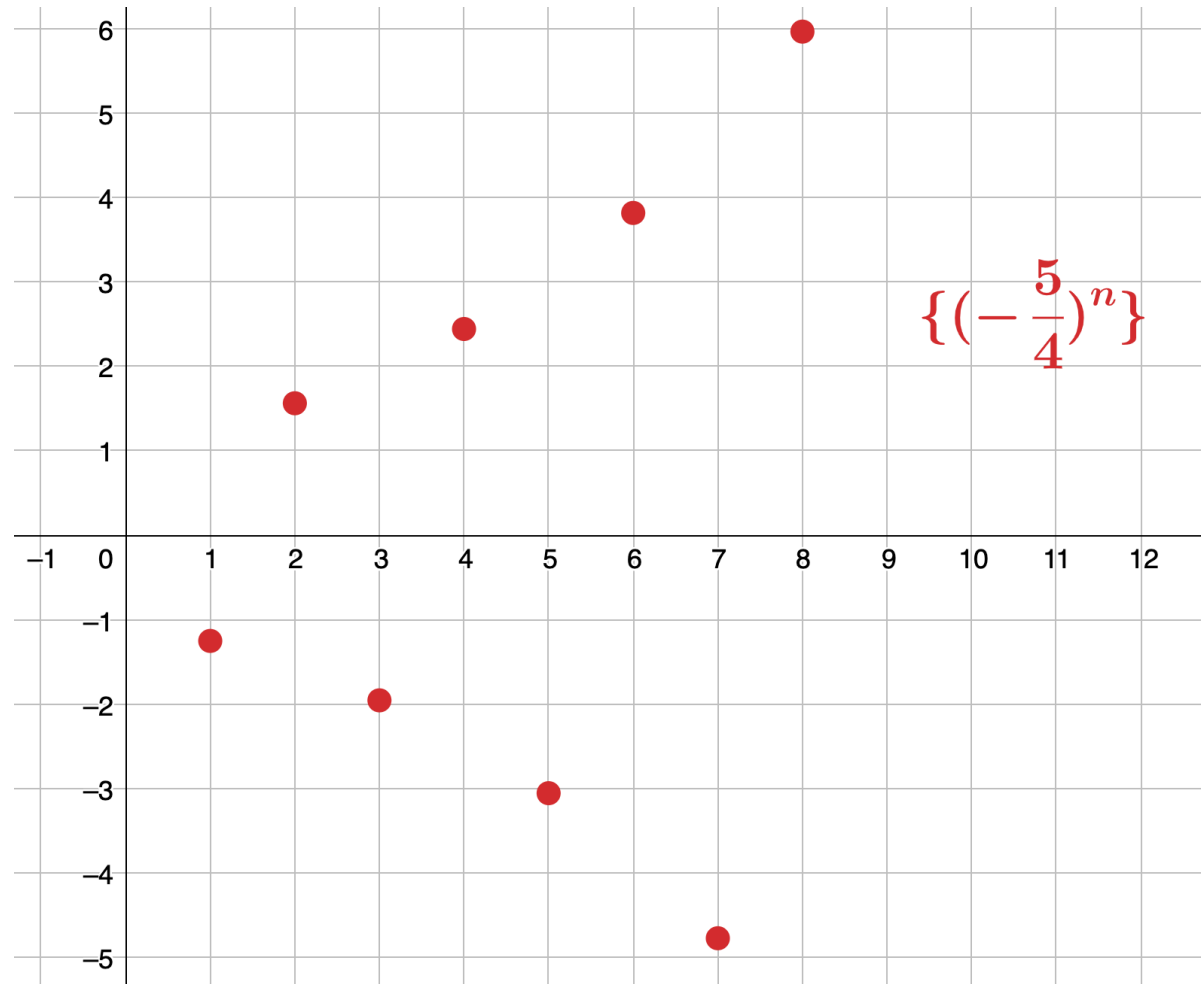
LOOK BACK ON GEOMETRIC SEQUENCES

- Using the idea from $\left\{\left(-\frac{1}{2}\right)^n\right\}$, we conclude that
- $r^n \rightarrow 0$ for any real number such that $-1 < r < 0$.



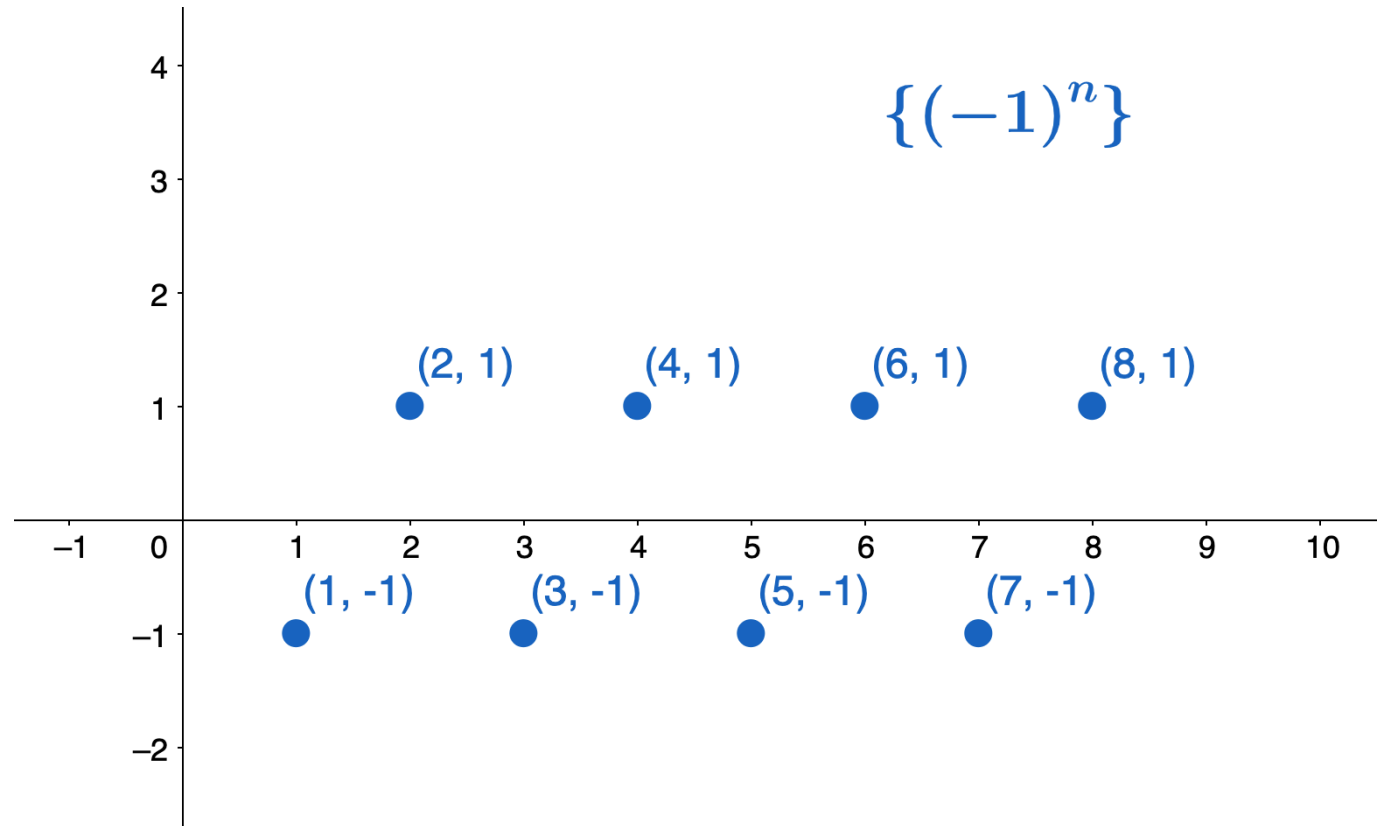
LOOK BACK ON GEOMETRIC SEQUENCES

- If $r < -1$, the sequence diverges because the terms oscillate and become arbitrarily large in magnitude.



LOOK BACK ON GEOMETRIC SEQUENCES

- If $r = -1$, the sequence $\{(-1)^n\}$ diverges, as discussed earlier.



LOOK BACK ON GEOMETRIC SEQUENCES

- Using the idea from $\left\{\left(-\frac{1}{2}\right)^n\right\}$, we conclude that $r^n \rightarrow 0$ for any real number such that $-1 < r < 0$.
- If $r < -1$, the sequence diverges because the terms oscillate and become arbitrarily large in magnitude.
- If $r = -1$, the sequence $\{((-1)^n)\}$ diverges, as discussed earlier.

A SUMMARY OF THE PROPERTIES FOR GEOMETRIC SEQUENCES

$$r^n \rightarrow 0 \text{ if } |r| < 1$$

$$r^n \rightarrow 1 \text{ if } r = 1$$

$$r^n \rightarrow \infty \text{ if } r > 1$$

$$\{r^n\} \text{ diverges if } r \leq -1$$