A Sequence is a list of numbers written in order.

```
\{a_1, a_2, a_3, \dots\}
```

The sequence may be infinite. The n th term of the sequence is the n th number on the list. On the list above

$$a_1 = 1$$
 st term, $a_2 = 2$ nd term, $a_3 = 3$ rd term, etc....

Some sequences have patterns, some do not.

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• **Example** In the sequence $\{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, ...\}$, we have $a_1 = 1, a_2 = 2, ...$ The n^{th} term is given by $a_n = n$. Some sequences have **patterns**, some do not.

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Example The sequences

$$\{1,2,3,4,5,6,\dots\ \}$$

and

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Sometimes we can give a formula for the *n* th term of a sequence, $a_n = f(n)$. Example For the sequence $\{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, ...\}$, we can give a formula for the n th term. $a_n = n$. Example Assuming the following sequences follow the pattern shown, give a

formula for the n-th term:

Factorials are commonly used in sequences

 $0! = 1, 1! = 1, 2! = 2 \cdot 1, 3! = 3 \cdot 2 \cdot 1, \dots, n! = n \cdot (n-1) \cdot (n-2) \cdots 1.$

Example Find a formula for the *n* th term in the following sequence

$$\begin{cases} \frac{2}{1}, \ \frac{4}{2}, \ \frac{8}{6}, \ \frac{16}{24}, \ \frac{32}{120}, \ \dots \ , a_n = \end{cases} ,$$

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• *n*th term $= a_n = \frac{2^n}{n!}$.

Different ways to represent a sequence

Below we show 3 different ways to represent the sequences given:

A.

$$\begin{cases} \frac{1}{2}, \ \frac{2}{3}, \ \frac{3}{4}, \ \dots, \ \frac{n}{n+1}, \ \dots \end{cases}, \qquad \begin{cases} \frac{n}{n+1} \\ \frac{n}{n+1} \\ \frac{n}{n-1} \end{cases}, \qquad a_n = \frac{n}{n+1}.$$
B.

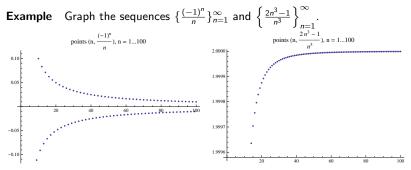
$$\begin{cases} \frac{-3}{3}, \ \frac{5}{9}, \ \frac{-7}{27}, \ \dots, \ (-1)^n \frac{(2n+1)}{3^n}, \ \dots \end{cases}, \qquad \\ \begin{cases} (-1)^n \frac{(2n+1)}{3^n} \\ \frac{1}{3^n} \\ \frac{1}{3^n} \end{cases}, \qquad a_n = (-1)^n \frac{(2n+1)}{3^n}.$$
C.

$$\begin{cases} \frac{e}{1}, \ \frac{e^2}{2}, \ \frac{e^3}{6}, \ \dots, \ \frac{e^n}{n!}, \ \dots \end{cases}, \qquad \qquad \\ \begin{cases} \frac{e^n}{n!} \\ \frac{1}{n-1} \\ \frac{1}{n-1} \end{cases}, \qquad a_n = \frac{e^n}{n!}.$$

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Graph of a sequence

A sequence is a function from the positive integers to the real numbers, with $f(n) = a_n$. We can draw a graph of this function as a set of points in the plane. The points on the graph are $(1, a_1)$, $(2, a_2)$, $(3, a_3)$, ..., (n, a_n) , ...



We can see from these pictures that the graphs get closer to a horizontal asymptote as $n \to \infty$, y = 0 on the left and y = 2 on the right. Algebraically this means that as $n \to \infty$, we have $\frac{(-1)^n}{n} \to 0$ and $\frac{2n^3-1}{n^3} \to 2$.

Limit of a sequence

Definition A sequence $\{a_n\}$ has **limit** *L* if we can make the terms a_n as close as we like to *L* by taking *n* sufficiently large. We denote this by

$$\lim_{n\to\infty}a_n=L \quad \text{or} \quad a_n\to L \text{ as } n\to\infty.$$

If $\lim_{n\to\infty} a_n$ exists (is finite), we say the sequence **converges** or is convergent. Otherwise, we say the sequence **diverges**.

Graphically: If $\lim_{n\to\infty} a_n = L$, the graph of the sequence $\{a_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$ has a unique horizontal asymptote y = L.

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

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

if for every $\epsilon > 0$ there is and integer N with the property that

if
$$n > N$$
 then $|a_n - L| < \epsilon$.

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Using our previous knowledge of limits :

Theorem If $\lim_{x\to\infty} f(x) = L$ and $f(n) = a_n$, where *n* is an integer, then $\lim_{n\to\infty} a_n = L$.

Example Determine if the following sequences converge or diverge:

A.
$$\left\{\frac{2^n-1}{2^n}\right\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$$
, B. $\left\{\frac{2n^3-1}{n^3}\right\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$

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A. lim_{x→∞} 2^x/2^x = lim_{x→∞} 1-2^{-x}/1 = 1.
Therefore the sequence {2ⁿ-1/2ⁿ} }_{n=1}[∞] converges and lim_{n→∞} a_n = lim_{n→∞} 2ⁿ/2ⁿ = 1.
B. lim_{x→∞} 2x³-1/x³ = lim_{x→∞} 2-1/x³/1 = 2.
Therefore the sequence {2ⁿ³-1/n³} _{n=1}[∞] converges and lim_{x→∞} 2ⁿ³-1 = 0.

$$\lim_{n\to\infty}a_n=\lim_{n\to\infty}\frac{2n^3-1}{n^3}=2.$$

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L'Hospital's rule

We can use <u>L'Hospital's rule</u> to determine the limit of f(x) if we have an indeterminate form.

Example Is the following sequence convergent?

$$\left\{\frac{n}{2^n}\right\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$$

Diverging to ∞ . $\lim_{n\to\infty} a_n = \infty$ means that for every positive number M, there is an integer N with the property

if n > N, then $a_n > M$.

In this case we say the sequence $\{a_n\}$ diverges to infinity.

Note: If $\lim_{x\to\infty} f(x) = \infty$ and $f(n) = a_n$, where *n* is an integer, then $\lim_{n\to\infty} a_n = \infty$.

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$$\lim_{n \to \infty} r^n = \lim_{x \to \infty} r^x = \lim_{x \to \infty} e^{x \ln r}.$$

$$\lim_{x \to \infty} e^{x \ln r} = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } r < 1 \\ 1 & \text{if } r = 1 \\ \infty & \text{if } r > 1 \end{cases}$$

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► Therefore the sequence {rⁿ}_{n=1}[∞], r ≥ 0, converges if 0 ≤ r ≤ 1 and diverges to infinity if r > 1.

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Rules of Limits

The usual Rules of Limits apply:

If $\{a_n\}$ and $\{b_n\}$ are convergent sequences and c is any constant then

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} (a_n + b_n) = \lim_{n \to \infty} a_n + \lim_{n \to \infty} b_n$$
$$\lim_{n \to \infty} (a_n - b_n) = \lim_{n \to \infty} a_n - \lim_{n \to \infty} b_n$$
$$\lim_{n \to \infty} c = c$$
$$\lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{a_n}{b_n} = \lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{a_n}{b_n} \quad \text{if } \lim_{n \to \infty} b_n \neq 0$$

$$\lim_{n\to\infty}a_n^p=\left[\lim_{n\to\infty}a_n\right]^p \text{ if } p>0 \text{ and } a_n>0$$

In fact if $\lim_{n\to\infty} a_n = L$ and f(x) is a continuous function at L, then

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

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Example Determine if the following sequence converges or diverges and if it converges find the limit.

$$\left\{\sqrt[3]{\frac{2n+1}{n}}-\frac{1}{n}\right\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$$

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$$\lim_{n \to \infty} \left(\sqrt[3]{\frac{2n+1}{n}} - \frac{1}{n} \right) = \lim_{n \to \infty} \sqrt[3]{\frac{2n+1}{n}} - \lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{1}{n}$$

$$= \sqrt[3]{\lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{2n+1}{n}} - \lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{1}{n}$$

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Note We cannot always find a function f(x) with $f(n) = a_n$. The **Squeeze Theorem** or Sandwich Theorem can also be applied :

If $a_n \leq b_n \leq c_n$	for $n \ge n_0$	and	$\lim a_n =$	$= \lim c_n = L,$	then	$\lim b_n = L.$	
			$n \rightarrow \infty$	$n \rightarrow \infty$		$n \rightarrow \infty$	i.

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Requires a bit of cleverness, because we cannot replace n! by a function x!.

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 for $n \geq n_0$ and $\lim_{n \to \infty} a_n = \lim_{n \to \infty} c_n = L$, then $\lim_{n \to \infty} b_n = L$.

Example Find the limit of the following sequence $\left\{\frac{2^n}{n!}\right\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$,



- Requires a bit of cleverness, because we cannot replace n! by a function x!.
- ▶ Certainly $\frac{2^n}{n!} > 0$ for all $n \ge 1$. So if we can find a sequence $\{c_n\}$ with $\frac{2^n}{n!} \le c_n$ for all $n \ge 1$ and $\lim_{n\to\infty} c_n = 0$, then we can apply the squeeze theorem.

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 if $k \geq 2$, we have $\frac{2^n}{n!} \leq 2 \cdot \frac{2}{n}$ for all $n \geq 2$.

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- Since $\frac{2}{k} \leq 1$ if $k \geq 2$, we have $\frac{2^n}{n!} \leq 2 \cdot \frac{2}{n}$ for all $n \geq 2$.
- ▶ Since $\lim_{n\to\infty} 2 \cdot \frac{2}{n} = 0$, and $0 \le \frac{2^n}{n!} \le 2 \cdot \frac{2}{n}$ for all $n \ge 2$, we can conclude that $\lim_{n\to\infty} \frac{2^n}{n!} = 0$ using the squeeze theorem.

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► Therefore the sequence $\left\{\frac{2^n}{n!}\right\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$ converges to 0.

Theorem If $\{a_n\}$ is an alternating sequence of the form $(-1)^n a'_n$ where $a'_n > 0$, then the alternating sequence converges if and only if $\lim_{n\to\infty} |a_n| = 0$ or (for the sequence described above) $\lim_{n\to\infty} a'_n \to 0$. (also true for sequences of form $(-1)^{n+1}a'_n$ or any sequence with infinitely many positive and negative terms)

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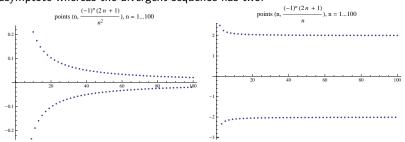
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- Therefore the sequence $\left\{ (-1)^n \frac{2n+1}{n^2} \right\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$ converges to 0.

• B.
$$b_n = (-1)^n \frac{2n+1}{n}$$
.

- $|\lim_{n\to\infty} |b_n| = \lim_{n\to\infty} \frac{2n+1}{n} = \lim_{x\to\infty} \frac{2x+1}{x} = \lim_{x\to\infty} \frac{2+(1/x)}{1} = 2 \neq 0.$
- Therefore the sequence $\left\{ (-1)^n \frac{2n+1}{n} \right\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$ diverges.

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Geometrically, we can see the difference in the behavior of the sequences above by examining their graphs. The convergent sequence has a unique horizontal asymptote whereas the divergent sequence has two.



Monotone Bounded Sequences

Definition A sequence $\{a_n\}$ is called **increasing** if $a_n < a_{n+1}$ for all $n \ge 1$, or

 $a_1 < a_2 < a_3 < \dots$

A sequence $\{a_n\}$ is called **decreasing** if $a_n > a_{n+1}$ for all $n \ge 1$, or

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A sequence $\{a_n\}$ is called **monotonic** if it is either increasing or decreasing. **Definition** A sequence $\{a_n\}$ is **bounded above** if there is a number *M* for which

 $a_n \leq M$ for all $n \geq 1$.

A sequence $\{a_n\}$ is **bounded below** if there is a number *m* for which

$$a_n \ge m$$
 for all $n \ge 1$.

A sequence that is bounded above and below is called **Bounded**.

Theorem Every bounded monotonic sequence is convergent. (This theorem will be very useful later in determining if series are convergent.)

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To check for monotonicity

If we have a differentiable function f(x) with $f(n) = a_n$, then the sequence $\{a_n\}$ is increasing if f'(x) > o and the sequence $\{a_n\}$ is decreasing if f'(x) < o.

Example Show that the following sequence is monotone and bounded and hence converges.

 $\{\tan^{-1}(n)\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$

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Example Show that the following sequence is monotone and bounded and hence converges.

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• We know that $-\frac{\pi}{2} < \tan^{-1}(n) < \frac{\pi}{2}$ for all n > 0.

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- Therefore, we can conclude that the sequence above converges.

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- ► Therefore, we can conclude that the sequence above converges.
- We could actually compute the limit here, but using the theorem for bounded monotonic sequences, we have concluded that the sequence converges without directly computing the limit.

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