

Sequences (and their limits) (Section 11.1) ①

A sequence is a list of numbers, indexed by the integers (from some point on).

e.g. $1, \frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{4}, \frac{1}{8}, \dots$

Written as $\left\{\frac{1}{2^n}\right\}$ or $\left\{\frac{1}{2^n} \mid n \geq 0\right\}$ or $\left\{\frac{1}{2^n}\right\}_{n=0}^{\infty}$ or \dots
or just $\frac{1}{2^n}$.

If we're talking about sequences in general we usually use $\{a_n\}$ or a_n .

Defn: The limit of a sequence a_n is L
 $\underline{\lim}_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = L$, if

For all $\epsilon > 0$, there is an N
s.t. for all $n \geq N$,

$$|a_n - L| < \epsilon.$$

We don't usually use this definition but rely on computational rules that can be proved using this definition.

(2)

Example of using the definition:

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{2^n} = 0$$

Suppose $\varepsilon > 0$ is given. We need to find an N s.t. if $n \geq N$,

$$\text{then } \left| \frac{1}{2^n} - 0 \right| < \varepsilon.$$

Reverse-engineer the required N from the ε :

$$\begin{aligned} \left| \frac{1}{2^n} - 0 \right| &< \varepsilon \\ \Leftrightarrow \frac{1}{2^n} &< \varepsilon \Leftrightarrow \frac{1}{\varepsilon} < 2^n \\ \Leftrightarrow n &> \log_2 \left(\frac{1}{\varepsilon} \right) \end{aligned}$$

Pick any integer N s.t. $N > \log_2 \left(\frac{1}{\varepsilon} \right)$.

Then if $n \geq N$, we have

$$n \geq N > \log_2 \left(\frac{1}{\varepsilon} \right)$$

(& following our derivation backwards)

$$\Rightarrow \left| \frac{1}{2^n} - 0 \right| < \varepsilon$$

$$\therefore \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{2^n} = 0 \text{ by defn.}$$

In practice we rely on various computational properties of limits and also some basic theorems.

(3)

$$\textcircled{1} \quad \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (a_n + b_n) = \left(\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n \right) + \left(\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} b_n \right)$$

(provided that all these limits exist)

$$\textcircled{2} \quad \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (c a_n) = c \cdot \left(\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n \right)$$

$$\textcircled{3} \quad \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n \cdot b_n = \left(\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n \right) \cdot \left(\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} b_n \right)$$

$$\textcircled{4} \quad \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{a_n}{b_n} = \frac{\left(\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n \right)}{\left(\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} b_n \right)}$$

provided that
also
 $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} b_n \neq 0$

& so on.

\textcircled{5} If $a_n = f(n)$ for some continuous function $f(x)$

$$\text{then } \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} f(n) = \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} f(x)$$

(provided the last one exists).

Warning: $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} f(x)$ might not exist

even if $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n$ does exist.

e.g. $f(x) = \sin(\pi x)$ has no limit as $x \rightarrow \infty$

but $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sin(\pi \cdot n) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} 0 = 0$.

(6)

Note: We can't use l'Hopital's Rule directly to compute limits of sequences, but we can use via rule (5) by converting to a continuous variable like x - provided it is applicable there!

es $a_n = \frac{n}{e^n} \quad n \geq 0$

~~0, $\frac{1}{e}$, $\frac{2}{e^2}$, $\frac{3}{e^3}$, ...~~

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{n}{e^n} = \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{x}{e^x} \stackrel{x \rightarrow \infty}{\rightarrow} 0 \quad \text{so apply l'Hopital's Rule}$$

$$= \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\frac{dx}{dx} x}{\frac{dx}{dx} e^x} = \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{e^x} \stackrel{x \rightarrow \infty}{\rightarrow} 0 = 0$$

We can't use this trick all the time because the sequence might not be easily definable in terms of a continuous variable.

es $n! = n(n-1)(n-2) \dots 32 \cdot 1$

$n \geq 1$	1	2	3	4	5	\rightarrow
$n!$	1	2	6	24	120	\rightarrow

($P(x)$ is a function of x s.t. $n! = P'(n+1)$ but $P'(x)$ is hard to work with.)

⑥ Squeeze Theorem

(5)

If $a_n \leq b_n \leq c_n$ for all n past some point, then if you also have $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} c_n$, we must have $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} b_n$ exist and be equal to the other two.

$$\text{eg } \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{2^n}{n!} = 0$$

$$0 \leq \frac{2^n}{n!} = \frac{2 \cdot 2 \cdot 2 \cdot 2 \cdots 2 \cdot 2}{\underbrace{n \cdot (n-1) \cdot (n-2) \cdot (n-3) \cdots 2 \cdot 1}_{\leq 1}} \leq \frac{2}{n}$$

↓
as $n \rightarrow \infty$: 0 0

$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{2^n}{n!} = 0$ too by
the Squeeze Theorem.

(6)

⑦ Monotonicity Theorem

Convergence

Suppose a_n is a non-decreasing sequence with an upper bound (or a non-increasing sequence with a lower bound). Then $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n$ exists.

[The limit is the least upper bound (or greatest lower bound) of the sequence.]

e.g. $a_n = \frac{1}{2^n}$ is decreasing

$$\text{because } 0 < \frac{1}{2^{n+1}} = \frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{1}{2^n} < \frac{1}{2^n}$$

& has 0 as a lower bound

so $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{2^n}$ exists by the

Monotone Convergence Theorem.