

Sequences and Their Limits

(§11.1 in the text)

A sequence is a list of numbers, indexed by the integers from some point on (most often 0 or 1).

eg	index	0	1	2	3	4	...	n	...	$\rightarrow \infty$
	sequence	1	$\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{1}{4}$	$\frac{1}{8}$	$\frac{1}{16}$...	$\frac{1}{2^n}$...	$\rightarrow 0$

Notation: We usually describe the sequence by something like $\{a_n \mid n \geq k\}$ or $\{a_n\}_k^\infty$ or $\{a_n\}$ especially if you don't really care where it starts.

eg In the above example $k=0$ and $a_n = \frac{1}{2^n}$,

so you might write $\{\frac{1}{2^n} \mid n \geq 0\}$ or $\{\frac{1}{2^n}\}$.

We'll usually be most interested in where the sequence is going, ie in its limit as $n \rightarrow \infty$. This will be

defined in a way similar to the way we define $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} f(x)$. (The horror of epsilons strikes again.) (2)

Def'n: The limit of a sequence $\{a_n\}$ is L , written as $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = L$ or as $a_n \rightarrow L$, means:

For every $\varepsilon > 0$, there is an N_ε , such that for all $n \geq N_\varepsilon$, we have that $|a_n - L| < \varepsilon$.

$\Rightarrow \left\{ \frac{1}{2^n} \right\}$ - we claim this has limit 0

\equiv For every $\varepsilon > 0$, there is an N_ε , s.t. for all $n \geq N_\varepsilon$, $\left| \frac{1}{2^n} - 0 \right| < \varepsilon$.

Given an $\varepsilon > 0$, we find a suitable N_ε by reverse-engineering it from $\left| \frac{1}{2^n} - 0 \right| < \varepsilon$.

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

Every step is reversible here.

So if we let $N_\varepsilon = \log_2 \left(\frac{1}{\varepsilon} \right)$, then if $n \geq N_\varepsilon$, then $\left| \frac{1}{2^n} - 0 \right| = \frac{1}{2^n} < \varepsilon$.

Thus, according to the " ε - N_ε " definition of the limit of a sequence, $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{2^n} = 0$.

In practice, using this definition directly is cumbersome, so we rely on general properties of limits to actually compute them.

Some of the basic rules for limits of sequences: ④

$$\textcircled{1} \quad \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} c a_n = c \left(\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n \right) \quad \left(\text{Assuming } \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n \text{ exists,} \right)$$

$$\textcircled{2} \quad \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (a_n + b_n) = \left(\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n \right) + \left(\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} b_n \right) \quad \left(\text{Assuming the limits exist.} \right)$$

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

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

(& similarly for other properties like limits of functions)

+ $\textcircled{5}$ If $a_n = f(n)$, where $f(x)$ is a continuous function, then

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} f(n) = \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} f(x), \quad \text{assuming } \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} f(x) \text{ exists.}$$

Potential glitch: It's possible for $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} f(n)$ to exist, even if $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} f(x)$ does not,

and we don't divide by 0 - with the exception that we don't care if finitely many b_n are = 0)

$$\text{eg } f(x) = \sin(\pi x)$$

$$\text{Then } a_n = f(n) \quad (\text{for } n \geq 0) \\ = \sin(n\pi) = 0$$

$$\text{Obviously, } \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} f(n) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} 0 = 0$$

$$\text{but } \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} f(x) = \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \sin(\pi x) \text{ doesn't exist}$$

(because $\sin(\pi x)$ oscillates between -1 & 1 forever).

The use of the continuous counterpart (if there is one) let's us, in particular, employ l'Hôpital's Rule.

$$\text{eg } a_n = \frac{n^2}{2^n} \quad (n \geq 0)$$

The continuous function corresponding to this would be $f(x) = \frac{x^2}{2^x}$. So

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{n^2}{2^n} = \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{x^2}{2^x} = \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\frac{d}{dx} x^2}{\frac{d}{dx} 2^x} = \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{2x}{\ln(2) \cdot 2^x}$$

provided \uparrow exists \rightarrow So we can apply l'Hôpital's Rule.

$$= \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\frac{d}{dx}(2x)}{\frac{d}{dx}(\ln(2) \cdot 2^x)} = \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{2}{\ln(2) \cdot \ln(2) \cdot 2^x} \rightarrow \frac{2}{\infty} \rightarrow 0 \quad (6)$$

$$= 0$$

$$\text{So } \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{n^2}{2^n} = 0.$$

We can't use this (rule 5) if we can't find a continuous counterpart to our sequence or when we can't handle that continuous counterpart.

$$\text{eg } a_n = \frac{\lceil 2^n + 3^n \rceil}{2 \cdot 5^n} \leftarrow \begin{array}{l} \text{smallest} \\ \text{intger} \end{array} \geq \frac{2^n + 3^n}{2 \cdot 5^n} \quad \text{has not got a nice continuous counterpart}$$

$$a_n = \frac{1}{n!}$$

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

$$n! = \Gamma(n+1)$$

has a continuous counterpart,

namely the Gamma function

$$\Gamma(x) = \int_0^{\infty} t^{x-1} e^{-t} dt$$

but at this stage we're not up to handling it or it's derivatives

Some hopefully not unfamiliar tools from regular limits that we can still use if the continuous counterpart trick (rule ⑤) fails to be useful: ⑦

⑥ The Squeeze Theorem

If $a_n \leq b_n \leq c_n$ for all n past some point,

and $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} c_n = L$ (and both limits exist),

then $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} b_n$ exists and equals ~~the~~ L too.

eg $a_n = \frac{2^n}{n!}$ ($n \geq 0$) [$0! = 1$, by def'n]

$$0 \leq \frac{2^n}{n!} \leq \frac{2 \cdot 2 \cdot 2 \cdots 2 \cdot 2 \cdot 2 \leq 1}{n(n-1)(n-2) \cdots 2 \cdot 1} \leq \frac{2 \cdot 2}{n \cdot 1} = \frac{4}{n}$$

Since $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} 0 = 0 = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{4}{n} \rightarrow 0$, we can conclude

that $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{2^n}{n!}$ is ~~also~~ also $= 0$.

⑦ Monotone Convergence Theorem

⑧

Suppose $\{a_n\}$ is a non-decreasing [respectively, non-increasing] sequence that has an upper bound [respectively, lower bound].

Then $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n$ exists. [The limit will be the ~~greatest~~ least upper bound of the sequence. [respectively, the [greatest lower bound]]]

eg $a_n = \frac{1}{2^n}$ ($n \geq 0$) we have

$$1 > \frac{1}{2} > \frac{1}{4} > \dots > \frac{1}{2^n} > \frac{1}{2^{n+1}} > \dots > 0$$

↑
the obvious lower bound.

So the Monotone Convergence Theorem tells us $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{2^n}$ exists (but showing that limit is actually 0 requires doing something else.)