MA 109 : Calculus-I D1 T4, Tutorial 1

Devansh Jain

IIT Bombay

25th November 2020

Questions to be Discussed

- Sheet 1
 - 2 (iv) Sandwich Theorem for finding limits
 - 3 (ii) Checking convergence of a sequence
 - 5 (iii) Monotonic Bounded sequences are convergent
 - 7 Proof using ϵ n_0 definition
 - 9 Relation between product and convergence
 - 11 Conditions for exchanging product and limits (Discussed in lecture)

2. (iv) $\lim_{n\to\infty} (n)^{1/n}$.

2. (iv)
$$\lim_{n \to \infty} (n)^{1/n}$$
.

Define $h_n := n^{1/n} - 1$.

2. (iv)
$$\lim_{n \to \infty} (n)^{1/n}$$
.

Define $h_n := n^{1/n} - 1$. Then, $h_n \ge 0 \quad \forall n \in \mathbb{N}$.

2. (iv)
$$\lim_{n \to \infty} (n)^{1/n}$$
.

Define
$$h_n:=n^{1/n}-1$$
.
Then, $h_n\geq 0 \quad \forall n\in \mathbb{N}$. (Why?)

2. (iv)
$$\lim_{n \to \infty} (n)^{1/n}$$
.

Define $h_n := n^{1/n} - 1$. Then, $h_n \ge 0 \quad \forall n \in \mathbb{N}$. (Why?)

2. (iv)
$$\lim_{n \to \infty} (n)^{1/n}$$
.

Define $h_n := n^{1/n} - 1$. Then, $h_n \ge 0 \quad \forall n \in \mathbb{N}$. (Why?)

$$n = (1 + h_n)^n > 1 + nh_n + \binom{n}{2}h_n^2$$

2. (iv)
$$\lim_{n \to \infty} (n)^{1/n}$$
.

Define $h_n := n^{1/n} - 1$.

Then, $h_n \geq 0 \quad \forall n \in \mathbb{N}$. (Why?)

$$n = (1 + h_n)^n > 1 + nh_n + \binom{n}{2}h_n^2 > \binom{n}{2}h_n^2 = \frac{n(n-1)}{2}h_n^2.$$

2. (iv)
$$\lim_{n \to \infty} (n)^{1/n}$$
.

Define $h_n := n^{1/n} - 1$.

Then, $h_n \geq 0 \quad \forall n \in \mathbb{N}$. (Why?)

$$n = (1 + h_n)^n > 1 + nh_n + \binom{n}{2}h_n^2 > \binom{n}{2}h_n^2 = \frac{n(n-1)}{2}h_n^2.$$
Thus, $h_n < \sqrt{\frac{2}{n-1}} \quad \forall n > 2.$

2. (iv)
$$\lim_{n \to \infty} (n)^{1/n}$$
.

Define $h_n := n^{1/n} - 1$.

Then, $h_n \geq 0 \quad \forall n \in \mathbb{N}$. (Why?)

Observe the following for n > 2:

$$n=(1+h_n)^n>1+nh_n+\binom{n}{2}h_n^2>\binom{n}{2}h_n^2=rac{n(n-1)}{2}h_n^2.$$
 Thus, $h_n<\sqrt{rac{2}{n-1}} \quad orall n>2.$

Using Sandwich Theorem, we get that $\lim_{n\to\infty}h_n=0$ which gives us that $\lim_{n\to\infty}n^{1/n}=1$.



2. (iv) $\lim_{n \to \infty} (n)^{1/n}$.

Define $h_n := n^{1/n} - 1$.

Then, $h_n \geq 0 \quad \forall n \in \mathbb{N}$. (Why?)

Observe the following for n > 2:

$$n = (1 + h_n)^n > 1 + nh_n + \binom{n}{2}h_n^2 > \binom{n}{2}h_n^2 = \frac{n(n-1)}{2}h_n^2.$$
 Thus, $h_n < \sqrt{\frac{2}{n-1}} \quad \forall n > 2.$

Using Sandwich Theorem, we get that $\lim_{n\to\infty}h_n=0$ which gives us that $\lim_{n\to\infty}n^{1/n}=1$.

Where did we use that $h_n \ge 0$?



3. (ii) To show: $\left\{ (-1)^n \left(\frac{1}{2} - \frac{1}{n} \right) \right\}_{n \ge 1}$ is *not* convergent.

3. (ii) To show: $\left\{ (-1)^n \left(\frac{1}{2} - \frac{1}{n} \right) \right\}_{n \ge 1}$ is *not* convergent.

We will use the following two results:

3. (ii) To show: $\left\{ (-1)^n \left(\frac{1}{2} - \frac{1}{n} \right) \right\}_{n \ge 1}$ is *not* convergent.

We will use the following two results: (a) Sum of convergent sequences is convergent.

3. (ii) To show: $\left\{ (-1)^n \left(\frac{1}{2} - \frac{1}{n} \right) \right\}_{n \ge 1}$ is *not* convergent.

We will use the following two results: (a) Sum of convergent sequences is convergent.

(b) The sequence $\{(-1)^n\}_{n\geq 1}$ is not convergent.

3. (ii) To show: $\left\{ (-1)^n \left(\frac{1}{2} - \frac{1}{n} \right) \right\}_{n \ge 1}$ is *not* convergent.

We will use the following two results: (a) Sum of convergent sequences is convergent.

(b) The sequence $\{(-1)^n\}_{n\geq 1}$ is not convergent.

We now proceed as follows:

3. (ii) To show: $\left\{ (-1)^n \left(\frac{1}{2} - \frac{1}{n} \right) \right\}_{n \ge 1}$ is *not* convergent.

We will use the following two results: (a) Sum of convergent sequences is convergent.

(b) The sequence $\{(-1)^n\}_{n\geq 1}$ is not convergent.

We now proceed as follows:

$$a_n := (-1)^n \left(\frac{1}{2} - \frac{1}{n}\right) = \frac{(-1)^n}{2} - \frac{(-1)^n}{n}.$$

3. (ii) To show: $\left\{ (-1)^n \left(\frac{1}{2} - \frac{1}{n} \right) \right\}_{n \ge 1}$ is *not* convergent.

We will use the following two results: (a) Sum of convergent sequences is convergent.

(b) The sequence $\{(-1)^n\}_{n\geq 1}$ is not convergent.

We now proceed as follows:

$$a_n := (-1)^n \left(\frac{1}{2} - \frac{1}{n}\right) = \frac{(-1)^n}{2} - \frac{(-1)^n}{n}.$$

It is easy to show that $b_n := \frac{(-1)^n}{n}$ is convergent. (Its absolute value will behave the same way as 1/n.)

3. (ii) To show: $\left\{ (-1)^n \left(\frac{1}{2} - \frac{1}{n} \right) \right\}_{n \ge 1}$ is *not* convergent.

We will use the following two results: (a) Sum of convergent sequences is convergent.

(b) The sequence $\{(-1)^n\}_{n\geq 1}$ is not convergent.

We now proceed as follows:

$$a_n := (-1)^n \left(\frac{1}{2} - \frac{1}{n}\right) = \frac{(-1)^n}{2} - \frac{(-1)^n}{n}.$$

It is easy to show that $b_n := \frac{(-1)^n}{n}$ is convergent. (Its absolute value will behave the same way as 1/n.)

Now, for the sake of contradiction, let us assume that (a_n) converges. Then, by (a), we have it that $c_n := a_n + b_n = \frac{(-1)^n}{2}$ must be convergent.



3. (ii) To show: $\left\{ (-1)^n \left(\frac{1}{2} - \frac{1}{n} \right) \right\}_{n \ge 1}$ is *not* convergent.

We will use the following two results: (a) Sum of convergent sequences is convergent.

(b) The sequence $\{(-1)^n\}_{n\geq 1}$ is not convergent.

We now proceed as follows:

$$a_n := (-1)^n \left(\frac{1}{2} - \frac{1}{n}\right) = \frac{(-1)^n}{2} - \frac{(-1)^n}{n}.$$

It is easy to show that $b_n := \frac{(-1)^n}{n}$ is convergent. (Its absolute value will behave the same way as 1/n.)

Now, for the sake of contradiction, let us assume that (a_n) converges. Then, by (a), we have it that $c_n := a_n + b_n = \frac{(-1)^n}{2}$ must be convergent.

However, (c_n) converging is equivalent to $\{(-1)^n\}_{n\geq 1}$ converging.



3. (ii) To show: $\left\{ (-1)^n \left(\frac{1}{2} - \frac{1}{n} \right) \right\}_{n \ge 1}$ is *not* convergent.

We will use the following two results: (a) Sum of convergent sequences is convergent.

(b) The sequence $\{(-1)^n\}_{n\geq 1}$ is not convergent.

We now proceed as follows:

$$a_n := (-1)^n \left(\frac{1}{2} - \frac{1}{n}\right) = \frac{(-1)^n}{2} - \frac{(-1)^n}{n}.$$

It is easy to show that $b_n := \frac{(-1)^n}{n}$ is convergent. (Its absolute value will behave the same way as 1/n.)

Now, for the sake of contradiction, let us assume that (a_n) converges. Then, by (a),

we have it that $c_n := a_n + b_n = \frac{(-1)^n}{2}$ must be convergent.

However, (c_n) converging is equivalent to $\{(-1)^n\}_{n\geq 1}$ converging. (Why?) However, by (b), we know that the above is false. Thus, we have arrived at a contradiction.

5. (iii)
$$a_1 = 2$$
, $a_{n+1} = 3 + \frac{a_n}{2} \quad \forall n \ge 1$.

5. (iii)
$$a_1 = 2$$
, $a_{n+1} = 3 + \frac{a_n}{2} \quad \forall n \ge 1$.

Claim 1. $a_n < 6$ $n \in \mathbb{N}$.

5. (iii)
$$a_1 = 2$$
, $a_{n+1} = 3 + \frac{a_n}{2} \quad \forall n \ge 1$.

Claim 1. $a_n < 6$ $n \in \mathbb{N}$.

Proof. We shall prove this via induction. The base case n = 1 is immediate as 2 < 6.

5. (iii)
$$a_1 = 2$$
, $a_{n+1} = 3 + \frac{a_n}{2} \quad \forall n \ge 1$.

Claim 1. $a_n < 6$ $n \in \mathbb{N}$.

Proof. We shall prove this via induction. The base case n=1 is immediate as 2<6. Assume that it holds for n=k

5. (iii)
$$a_1 = 2$$
, $a_{n+1} = 3 + \frac{a_n}{2} \quad \forall n \ge 1$.

Claim 1. $a_n < 6$ $n \in \mathbb{N}$.

Proof. We shall prove this via induction. The base case n=1 is immediate as 2 < 6.

Assume that it holds for
$$n = k$$
. $a_{k+1} = 3 + \frac{a_n}{2} < 3 + \frac{6}{2} = 6$.

5. (iii)
$$a_1 = 2$$
, $a_{n+1} = 3 + \frac{a_n}{2} \quad \forall n \ge 1$.

Claim 1. $a_n < 6 \quad n \in \mathbb{N}$.

Proof. We shall prove this via induction. The base case n=1 is immediate as 2 < 6.

Assume that it holds for
$$n = k$$
. $a_{k+1} = 3 + \frac{a_n}{2} < 3 + \frac{6}{2} = 6$.

By principle of mathematical induction, we have proven the claim.



5. (iii)
$$a_1 = 2$$
, $a_{n+1} = 3 + \frac{a_n}{2} \quad \forall n \ge 1$.

Claim 1. $a_n < 6$ $n \in \mathbb{N}$.

Proof. We shall prove this via induction. The base case n=1 is immediate as 2 < 6.

Assume that it holds for
$$n = k$$
. $a_{k+1} = 3 + \frac{a_n}{2} < 3 + \frac{6}{2} = 6$.

By principle of mathematical induction, we have proven the claim.

Claim 2. $a_n < a_{n+1} \quad \forall n \in \mathbb{N}$.



5. (iii)
$$a_1 = 2$$
, $a_{n+1} = 3 + \frac{a_n}{2} \quad \forall n \ge 1$.

Claim 1. $a_n < 6$ $n \in \mathbb{N}$.

Proof. We shall prove this via induction. The base case n=1 is immediate as 2 < 6.

Assume that it holds for
$$n = k$$
. $a_{k+1} = 3 + \frac{a_n}{2} < 3 + \frac{6}{2} = 6$.

By principle of mathematical induction, we have proven the claim.

Claim 2.
$$a_n < a_{n+1} \quad \forall n \in \mathbb{N}$$
.

Proof.
$$a_{n+1} - a_n = 3 - \frac{a_n}{2} = \frac{6 - a_n}{2} > 0 \implies a_{n+1} > a_n$$
.



5. (iii)
$$a_1 = 2$$
, $a_{n+1} = 3 + \frac{a_n}{2} \quad \forall n \ge 1$.

Claim 1. $a_n < 6$ $n \in \mathbb{N}$.

Proof. We shall prove this via induction. The base case n=1 is immediate as 2 < 6.

Assume that it holds for
$$n = k$$
. $a_{k+1} = 3 + \frac{a_n}{2} < 3 + \frac{6}{2} = 6$.

By principle of mathematical induction, we have proven the claim.

Claim 2.
$$a_n < a_{n+1} \quad \forall n \in \mathbb{N}$$
.
Proof. $a_{n+1} - a_n = 3 - \frac{a_n}{2} = \frac{6 - a_n}{2} > 0 \implies a_{n+1} > a_n$.

Thus, (a_n) is a monotonically increasing sequence that is bounded above. Therefore, it must converge. Using the same method as earlier gives this limit to be 6.

7. If $\lim_{n \to \infty} a_n = L \neq 0$, show that there exists $n_0 \in \mathbb{N}$ such that

$$|a_n| \ge \frac{|L|}{2}$$
 for all $n \ge n_0$.

7. If $\lim_{n\to\infty} a_n = L \neq 0$, show that there exists $n_0 \in \mathbb{N}$ such that

$$|a_n| \ge \frac{|L|}{2}$$
 for all $n \ge n_0$.

Let us choose $\epsilon = \frac{|L|}{2}$.

7. If $\lim_{n\to\infty} a_n = L \neq 0$, show that there exists $n_0 \in \mathbb{N}$ such that

$$|a_n| \ge \frac{|L|}{2}$$
 for all $n \ge n_0$.

Let us choose $\epsilon = \frac{|L|}{2}$. (Why is this a valid choice of ϵ ?)

7. If $\lim_{n\to\infty} a_n = L \neq 0$, show that there exists $n_0 \in \mathbb{N}$ such that

$$|a_n| \ge \frac{|L|}{2}$$
 for all $n \ge n_0$.

Let us choose $\epsilon = \frac{|L|}{2}$. (Why is this a valid choice of ϵ ?)

7. If $\lim_{n\to\infty} a_n = L \neq 0$, show that there exists $n_0 \in \mathbb{N}$ such that

$$|a_n| \ge \frac{|L|}{2}$$
 for all $n \ge n_0$.

Let us choose $\epsilon = \frac{|L|}{2}$. (Why is this a valid choice of ϵ ?)

$$|a_n - L| < \epsilon$$
 $\forall n \ge n_0$

7. If $\lim_{n\to\infty} a_n = L \neq 0$, show that there exists $n_0 \in \mathbb{N}$ such that

$$|a_n| \ge \frac{|L|}{2}$$
 for all $n \ge n_0$.

Let us choose $\epsilon = \frac{|L|}{2}$. (Why is this a valid choice of ϵ ?)

$$|a_n - L| < \epsilon$$
 $\forall n \ge n_0$
 $\implies ||a_n| - |L|| < \epsilon$ $\forall n \ge n_0$

7. If $\lim_{n\to\infty} a_n = L \neq 0$, show that there exists $n_0 \in \mathbb{N}$ such that

$$|a_n| \ge \frac{|L|}{2}$$
 for all $n \ge n_0$.

Let us choose $\epsilon = \frac{|L|}{2}$. (Why is this a valid choice of ϵ ?)

$$|a_n - L| < \epsilon \qquad \forall n \ge n_0$$

$$\implies ||a_n| - |L|| < \epsilon \qquad \forall n \ge n_0$$

$$\implies -\epsilon < |a_n| - |L| < \epsilon \qquad \forall n \ge n_0$$

7. If $\lim_{n\to\infty} a_n = L \neq 0$, show that there exists $n_0 \in \mathbb{N}$ such that

$$|a_n| \ge \frac{|L|}{2}$$
 for all $n \ge n_0$.

Let us choose $\epsilon = \frac{|L|}{2}$. (Why is this a valid choice of ϵ ?)

$$|a_{n} - L| < \epsilon \qquad \forall n \ge n_{0}$$

$$\implies ||a_{n}| - |L|| < \epsilon \qquad \forall n \ge n_{0}$$

$$\implies -\epsilon < |a_{n}| - |L| < \epsilon \qquad \forall n \ge n_{0}$$

$$\implies |L| - \epsilon < |a_{n}| \qquad \forall n \ge n_{0}$$

7. If $\lim_{n\to\infty} a_n = L \neq 0$, show that there exists $n_0 \in \mathbb{N}$ such that

$$|a_n| \ge \frac{|L|}{2}$$
 for all $n \ge n_0$.

Let us choose $\epsilon = \frac{|L|}{2}$. (Why is this a valid choice of ϵ ?)

$$|a_{n} - L| < \epsilon \qquad \forall n \ge n_{0}$$

$$\implies ||a_{n}| - |L|| < \epsilon \qquad \forall n \ge n_{0}$$

$$\implies -\epsilon < |a_{n}| - |L| < \epsilon \qquad \forall n \ge n_{0}$$

$$\implies |L| - \epsilon < |a_{n}| \qquad \forall n \ge n_{0}$$

$$\implies \frac{|L|}{2} < |a_{n}| \qquad \forall n \ge n_{0}$$

- 9. (i) $\{a_nb_n\}_{n\geq 1}$ is convergent, if $\{a_n\}_{n\geq 1}$ is convergent.
 - (ii) $\{a_nb_n\}_{n\geq 1}$ is convergent, if $\{a_n\}_{n\geq 1}$ is convergent and $\{b_n\}_{n\geq 1}$ is bounded.

- 9. (i) $\{a_nb_n\}_{n\geq 1}$ is convergent, if $\{a_n\}_{n\geq 1}$ is convergent.
 - (ii) $\{a_nb_n\}_{n\geq 1}$ is convergent, if $\{a_n\}_{n\geq 1}$ is convergent and $\{b_n\}_{n\geq 1}$ is bounded.

Both are false.

- 9. (i) $\{a_nb_n\}_{n\geq 1}$ is convergent, if $\{a_n\}_{n\geq 1}$ is convergent.
 - (ii) $\{a_nb_n\}_{n\geq 1}$ is convergent, if $\{a_n\}_{n\geq 1}$ is convergent and $\{b_n\}_{n\geq 1}$ is bounded.

Both are false.

The sequences, $a_n := 1 \quad \forall n \in \mathbb{N}$ and $b_n := (-1)^n \quad \forall n \in \mathbb{N}$ act as a counterexample for both the statements.

11. (i) We shall show that the statement is false with the help of a counterexample. Let a = -1, b = 1, c = 0. Define f and g as follows:

$$f(x) = x$$
 and $g(x) =$
$$\begin{cases} 1/x & ; x \neq 0 \\ 0 & ; x = 0 \end{cases}.$$

It can be seen that $\lim_{x\to 0} f(x) = 0$ but $\lim_{x\to c} [f(x)g(x)] = \lim_{x\to 0} 1 = 1$.

(ii) We shall prove that the given statement is true.

We are given that g is bounded. Thus, $\exists M \in \mathbb{R}^+$ such that $|g(x)| \leq M \quad \forall x \in (a, b)$.

Let $\epsilon > 0$ be given. We want to show that there exists $\delta > 0$ such that

$$|f(x)g(x) - 0| < \epsilon$$
 whenever $0 < |x - c| < \delta$.

Let $\epsilon_1 = \epsilon/M$. As $\lim_{x \to \infty} f(x) = 0$, there exists $\delta > 0$ such that

$$0<|x-c|<\delta \implies |f(x)|<\epsilon_1.$$

Thus, whenever $0 < |x - c| < \delta$, we have it that

$$|f(x)g(x) - 0| = |f(x)||g(x)| \le |f(x)| \cdot M < \epsilon_1 \cdot M = \epsilon.$$



(iii) We shall prove that the given statement is true.

Let $\epsilon > 0$ be given.

Let
$$I := \lim_{x \to c} g(x)$$
.

Let
$$\epsilon_1 = \epsilon/(|I| + \epsilon)$$
.

By hypothesis, there exists $\delta_1 > 0$ such that $0 < |x - c| < \delta_1 \implies |g(x) - I| < \epsilon$. Also, there exists $\delta_2 > 0$ such that $0 < |x - c| < \delta_2 \implies |f(x)| < \epsilon_1$.

Let $\delta = \min\{\delta_1, \ \delta_2\}$. Then, whenever $0 < |x - c| < \delta$, we have that: $|f(x)g(x)| = |f(x)g(x) - lf(x) + lf(x)| \le |f(x)||(g(x) - l)| + |l||f(x)| < |f(x)|\epsilon + |l||f(x)| = |f(x)|(\epsilon + |l|) < \epsilon_1(\epsilon + |l|) = \epsilon$. Thus, we have it that $0 < |x - c| < \delta \implies |f(x)g(x) - 0| < \epsilon$.



References

Lecture Slides by Prof. Ravi Raghunathan for MA 109 (Autumn 2020) Tutorial slides prepared by Aryaman Maithani for MA 105 (Autumn 2019) Solutions to tutorial problems for MA 105 (Autumn 2019)