

We define  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = \ell \in \mathbb{R}$  iff

$\forall \varepsilon > 0 \quad \exists n_0 = n_0(\varepsilon) \in \mathbb{N}$  s.t. for all  $n \geq n_0$ :  $|a_n - \ell| < \varepsilon$ .

We can show that  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{n} = 0$ .

Take some  $\varepsilon > 0$ .

We need to find some  $n_0 \in \mathbb{N}$  with the property that for all  $n \geq n_0$ ,

$$\left| \frac{1}{n} - 0 \right| < \varepsilon \Leftrightarrow$$

$$\frac{1}{n} < \varepsilon \Leftrightarrow$$

$$n > \frac{1}{\varepsilon}.$$

Choose  $n_0 > \frac{1}{\varepsilon}$  (we can find such an  $n_0$  by the Archimedean Property).

Then for all  $n \geq n_0$ ,

$$n > \frac{1}{\varepsilon} \Rightarrow \frac{1}{n} < \varepsilon.$$

If  $(a_n)_{n=1}^{\infty}$ ,  $(b_n)_{n=1}^{\infty}$  are such that

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = l_1 \quad \text{and} \quad \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} b_n = l_2$$

(with  $l_1, l_2 \in \mathbb{R}$ ) then :

- $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (a_n + b_n) = l_1 + l_2$
- $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (a_n - b_n) = l_1 - l_2$
- $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (\lambda a_n + \mu b_n) = \lambda l_1 + \mu l_2 \quad (\forall \lambda, \mu \in \mathbb{R})$
- $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (a_n b_n) = l_1 l_2$
- $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{a_n}{b_n} = \frac{l_1}{l_2}$  provided that  $l_2 \neq 0$  and  $b_n \neq 0$  for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ .

PROPOSITION 2.4 : If  $(a_n)_{n=1}^{\infty}, (b_n)_{n=1}^{\infty} \subseteq \mathbb{R}$  are such that  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = l_1$  and  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} b_n = l_2$

with  $l_1, l_2 \in \mathbb{R}$  then  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (a_n + b_n) = l_1 + l_2$ .

PROOF

Let  $\varepsilon > 0$ .

(We want to find  $n_0 \in \mathbb{N}$  s.t.

$$|(a_n + b_n) - (l_1 + l_2)| < \varepsilon \quad \forall n \geq n_0.)$$

Because  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = l_1$ , there exists  $n_1 \in \mathbb{N}$  such that

$$|a_n - l_1| < \frac{\varepsilon}{2} \quad \text{for all } n \geq n_1.$$

Since  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} b_n = l_2$ , there exists  $n_2 \in \mathbb{N}$  such that

$$|b_n - l_2| < \frac{\varepsilon}{2} \text{ for all } n \geq n_2.$$

Set  $n_0 = \max\{n_1, n_2\}$ . Then for all  $n \geq n_0$ ,

$$|(a_n + b_n) - (l_1 + l_2)| = |(a_n - l_1) + (b_n - l_2)|$$

$$\leq |a_n - l_1| + |b_n - l_2|$$

$$< \frac{\varepsilon}{2} + \frac{\varepsilon}{2}$$

$$= \varepsilon.$$

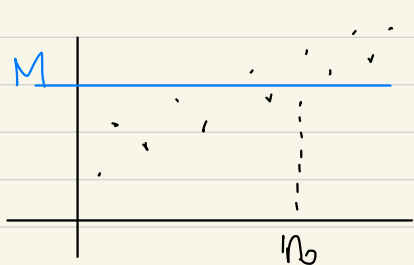
So  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (a_n + b_n) = l_1 + l_2$ . ■

We say that the sequence  $(a_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}} \subseteq \mathbb{R}$  diverges if it does not converge to any real number (i.e. it does not have a limit in  $\mathbb{R}$ ).

A special case of divergent sequences are those which diverge to  $+\infty$ .

We say that  $(a_n)_{n=1}^{\infty}$  diverges to  $+\infty$  and we write  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = +\infty$ , if

$\forall M > 0 \exists n_0 = n_0(M) \in \mathbb{N}$  such that  $a_n > M$  for all  $n \geq n_0$ .



For example,  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (2n+1) = +\infty$ .

REMARK: If a sequence does not converge, this does not necessarily mean that it will diverge to  $+\infty$ .

E.g. take

$$a_n = (-1)^n, n = 1, 2, \dots$$

We say that  $(a_n)_{n=1}^{\infty}$  diverges to  $-\infty$  and we write  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = -\infty$  if

$\forall M > 0 \exists n_0 = n_0(M) \in \mathbb{N}$  s.t.  $\forall n \geq n_0 : a_n < -M$ .  
(equivalently :  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (-a_n) = +\infty$ ).

THEOREM 2.5 (Interpolation Theorem): Suppose  $(a_n)_{n=1}^{\infty}$ ,  $(b_n)_{n=1}^{\infty}$  are sequences such that  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} b_n = L$

for some  $L \in \mathbb{R}$ . If  $(c_n)_{n=1}^{\infty}$  is such that

$$a_n \leq c_n \leq b_n \text{ for all } n=1, 2, \dots$$

then

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

PROOF

Let  $\varepsilon > 0$ . Since  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = L$ , there exists  $n_1 \in \mathbb{N}$  such that for all  $n \geq n_1$ ,  $|a_n - L| < \varepsilon \Rightarrow L - \varepsilon < a_n < L + \varepsilon$ .

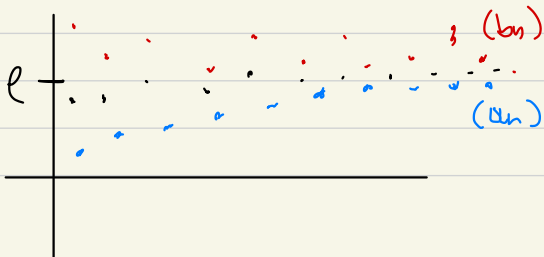
Since  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} b_n = L$ , there exists  $n_2 \in \mathbb{N}$  such that for all  $n \geq n_2$ ,  $|b_n - L| < \varepsilon \Rightarrow L - \varepsilon < b_n < L + \varepsilon$ .

Set  $n_0 = \max\{n_1, n_2\} \in \mathbb{N}$ . Then for all  $n \geq n_0$ ,

$$L - \varepsilon < a_n \leq c_n \leq b_n < L + \varepsilon \Rightarrow$$

$$L - \varepsilon < c_n < L + \varepsilon \Rightarrow$$

$$|c_n - L| < \varepsilon.$$



## Examples

$$\begin{aligned} \text{(a)} \quad \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{n^2 - n + 1}{2n^2 + 2n - 2} &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{n^2 \left(1 - \frac{1}{n} + \frac{1}{n^2}\right)}{2n^2 \left(1 + \frac{1}{n} - \frac{1}{n^2}\right)} \\ &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left( \frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{1 - \frac{1}{n} + \frac{1}{n^2}}{1 + \frac{1}{n} - \frac{1}{n^2}} \right) = \frac{1}{2}. \end{aligned}$$

$$\text{(b)} \quad \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\cos n}{n} = ?$$

Here we recall that  $|\cos x| \leq 1$  for all  $x \in \mathbb{R}$ .  
Thus

$$\left| \frac{\cos n}{n} \right| = \frac{|\cos n|}{n} \leq \frac{1}{n} \Rightarrow$$

$$-\frac{1}{n} \leq \frac{\cos n}{n} \leq \frac{1}{n}.$$

$$\text{Since } \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left(-\frac{1}{n}\right) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{n} = 0$$

by the Interpolation Theorem,

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\cos n}{n} = 0.$$

$$(c) \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (\sqrt{n^2+1} - n) =$$

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{(\sqrt{n^2+1} - n)(\sqrt{n^2+1} + n)}{\sqrt{n^2+1} + n} =$$

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{(n^2+1) - n^2}{\sqrt{n^2+1} + n} = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{\sqrt{n^2+1} + n} = 0.$$

(The last limit is 0 because

$$\sqrt{n^2+1} + n > \sqrt{n^2} + n = 2n \Rightarrow$$

$$0 < \frac{1}{\sqrt{n^2+1} + n} < \frac{1}{2n},$$

and now we can use the Interpolation Thm.).

(So we cannot say that  $(+\infty) - (+\infty) = 0$ ).

\* Show that if  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = +\infty$

then  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{a_n} = 0$ .

(using the definitions only.)

Recall that  $(a_n)_{n=1}^{\infty}$  is bounded iff there exists  $M > 0$  such that  
 $|a_n| < M$  for all  $n = 1, 2, \dots$

THEOREM 2.6: Every convergent sequence is bounded.

PROOF

Let  $(a_n)_{n=1}^{\infty} \subseteq \mathbb{R}$  be a sequence which converges to  $L \in \mathbb{R}$ . Let  $\varepsilon = 1$ .  
There exists  $n_0 \in \mathbb{N}$  such that  
 $|a_n - L| < 1$  for all  $n \geq n_0$ .

Thus

$$\begin{aligned} |a_n| &= |a_n - L + L| \\ &\leq |a_n - L| + |L| \\ &< 1 + |L| \text{ for all } n \geq n_0. \end{aligned}$$

Set

$$M = \max\{|a_1|, |a_2|, \dots, |a_{n_0-1}|, 1 + |L|\}.$$

Then for any  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ , we have

$$|a_n| \leq M \quad \text{if } n < n_0$$

$$|a_n| < 1 + |L| \leq M, \quad \text{if } n \geq n_0.$$

Hence  $|a_n| \leq M$  for all  $n \geq 1$

and  $(a_n)_{n=1}^{\infty}$  is bounded. ■





E.g. the sequence  $\left(\frac{n-1}{n}\right)_{n=1}^{\infty}$  converges to 1  
so it is bounded.

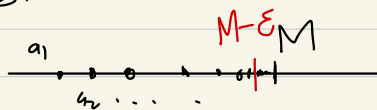
The converse of Theorem 2.6 is NOT true:  
the sequence  $\{(-1)^n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$  is bounded  
but it does not converge.

However if we add the assumption of  
monotonicity, then we have convergence.

THEOREM 2.7: (i) If  $(a_n)_{n=1}^{\infty}$  is bounded and  
increasing, then it converges to  $M = \sup_{n \geq 1} a_n$ .

(ii) If  $(a_n)_{n=1}^{\infty}$  is bounded and decreasing,  
then it converges to  $m = \inf_{n \geq 1} a_n$ .

PROOF



(i) Let  $\epsilon > 0$ .

Since  $M = \sup_{n \geq 1} a_n$ , there exist  $n_0 \in \mathbb{N}$   
such that

$$M - \epsilon < a_{n_0} \leq M.$$

Since  $(a_n)_{n=1}^{\infty}$  is increasing, for all  $n \geq n_0$ ,

$$M - \epsilon < a_{n_0} \leq a_n \leq M$$

therefore

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

We have proved that for any  $\epsilon > 0$ ,  $\exists n_0 = n_0(\epsilon) \in \mathbb{N}$   
s.t.  $|a_n - M| < \epsilon \quad \forall n \geq n_0$ . So  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = M$ .

(ii) Similar.

Example: Consider the sequence  $(a_n)_{n=1}^{\infty}$  defined by

$$\begin{cases} a_1 = 1 \\ a_{n+1} = \sqrt{6 + a_n} \end{cases}, n = 1, 2, \dots$$

Does this sequence converge?  
If so, to which limit?

- First we show  $(a_n)_{n \geq 1}$  is increasing.

We need to show that  $a_{n+1} > a_n$  for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ .

We use induction on  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ :

- For  $n=1$ :  $a_1 = 1$ ,  $a_2 = \sqrt{6+1} = \sqrt{7} > a_1$ .
  - Assume  $a_{n+1} > a_n$  for some  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ .
  - Then  $a_{n+2} = \sqrt{6 + a_{n+1}} > \sqrt{6 + a_n} = a_{n+1}$ .
- So  $a_{n+1} > a_n$  for all  $n \geq 1$   
and  $(a_n)_{n=1}^{\infty}$  is increasing.

- Now, we show  $(a_n)_{n=1}^{\infty}$  is bounded above by 3.  
Again we use induction on  $n \geq 1$ .

- for  $n=1$ :  $a_1 = 1 < 3$ .
- Assume  $a_n < 3$  for some  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ .
- Then  $a_{n+1} = \sqrt{6 + a_n} < \sqrt{6 + 3} = \sqrt{9} = 3$ .

So indeed  $a_n < 3$  for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ .

Thus  $(a_n)_{n=1}^{\infty}$  is bounded and increasing  
so by Theorem 2.7 it converges to some  $l \in \mathbb{R}$ .

$$a_{n+1} = \sqrt{6 + a_n} \Rightarrow$$

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_{n+1} = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sqrt{6 + a_n} \Rightarrow$$

$$l = \sqrt{6 + l} \Rightarrow$$

$$l^2 = 6 + l \Rightarrow$$

$$l^2 - l - 6 = 0 \Rightarrow$$

$$(l-3)(l+2) = 0 \Rightarrow$$

$$l = 3 \quad \text{or} \quad l = -2.$$

We have  $a_n > 0$  for all  $n \geq 1$ ,  
hence

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = 3.$$

Some more limits of sequences (without proof):

THEOREM 2.8: The following hold:

(i)  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a^n = 0$  whenever  $|a| < 1$ .

(ii)  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sqrt[n]{n} = 1$

(iii)  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sqrt[n]{a} = 1$  when  $a > 0$ .

E.g.:  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left(\frac{2}{3}\right)^n = 0$  (because  $\frac{2}{3} < 1$ ).

$$\begin{aligned}
 \cdot \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{3^n + 4^n}{3^n + 5^n} &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{4^n \left(1 + \left(\frac{3}{4}\right)^n\right)}{5^n \left(1 + \left(\frac{3}{5}\right)^n\right)} \\
 &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left[ \underbrace{\left(\frac{4}{5}\right)^n}_{\downarrow 0} \cdot \frac{\overset{\uparrow 1}{1 + \left(\frac{3}{4}\right)^n}}{\underset{\downarrow 1}{1 + \left(\frac{3}{5}\right)^n}} \right] = 0 \cdot 1 = 0.
 \end{aligned}$$

$$\cdot \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sqrt[n]{2n+3} = ?$$

We know that  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sqrt[n]{n} = 1$ ,

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

$$= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sqrt[n]{2} \cdot \sqrt[n]{n} \cdot \sqrt[n]{1 + \frac{3}{2n}} = 1.$$

Also the number  $e \cong 2,71, \dots$   
 is defined as the limit of the sequence  
 $a_n = \left(1 + \frac{1}{n}\right)^n, n \in \mathbb{N}.$

So

$$e = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left(1 + \frac{1}{n}\right)^n.$$

In general this is not true  
that if

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} b_n = +\infty$$

then  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (a_n - b_n) = 0$ .

Take  $a_n = 2n^2 + 2$ ,  
 $b_n = 2n^2$ ,  $n = 1, 2, \dots$

Then  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = +\infty$ ,  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} b_n = +\infty$

but  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (a_n - b_n) = 2$ .