

MAT1002: Calculus II

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§10.1 Infinite Sequences

Overview of Chapter 10

Two key topics in the analysis and computation of functions:

- ▶ derivative of a function
- ▶ integral of a function

A third key topic: **infinite series**

- ▶ express numbers

$$\frac{\pi}{4} = 1 - \frac{1}{3} + \frac{1}{5} - \frac{1}{7} + \frac{1}{9} - \dots$$

- ▶ express functions

$$\cos x = 1 - \frac{x^2}{2} + \frac{x^4}{24} - \frac{x^6}{720} + \frac{x^8}{40320} - \dots$$

- ▶ approximate a function using the first few terms
- ▶ represent a function as a polynomial with infinitely many terms (evaluate, differentiate, integrate), e.g., $\cos x$
- ▶ has applications in science and engineering

Topics for this chapter:

How do you add infinitely many numbers (powers of x)?

Infinite sequences

Definition

An **infinite sequence**, or **sequence** is a list of numbers

$$\{a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n, \dots\}$$

Infinite sequences

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An **infinite sequence**, or **sequence** is a list of numbers

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- ▶ A sequence is a function whose domain is the set of integers $\{1, 2, 3, \dots\}$, i.e., $a_1 = f(1)$, $a_2 = f(2), \dots$.
- ▶ The integer n is called the **index** of a_n .
- ▶ The index set can start with any integer number other than 1, e.g., $\{a_0, a_1, a_2, \dots\}$, $\{b_2, b_3, b_4, \dots\}$, $\{c_{-2}, c_{-1}, c_0, c_1, \dots\}$ are sequences.
- ▶ We use $\{a_n\}_{n=2}^{\infty}$ to denote $\{a_2, a_3, a_4, \dots\}$. Sometimes, we say $\{a_n\}$ if the index set is not important or is clear from the context.

Different ways to describe a sequence

- ▶
- ▶

$$\underbrace{\{(-1)^{n+2} n^2\}}_{n=1}^{\infty}$$

$$\{(-1)^{n+1} (n+1)^2\}_{n=0}^{\infty}$$

$$\{-1, 4, -9, 16, \dots\}$$

A sequence can be defined **recursively**

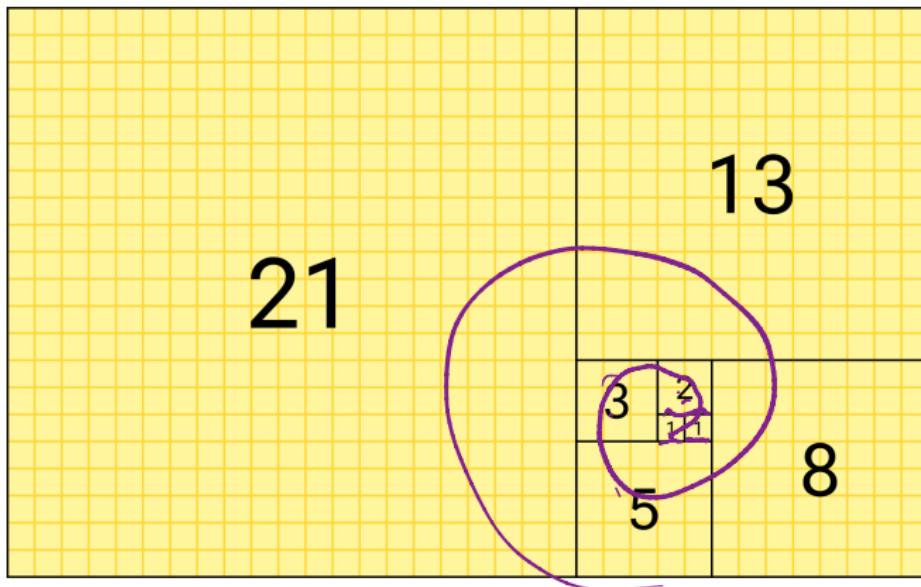
Fibonacci sequence

$$F_0 = 0, \ F_1 = 1, \ F_i = F_{i-1} + F_{i-2}$$

A sequence can be defined **recursively**

Fibonacci sequence

$$F_0 = 0, F_1 = 1, F_i = F_{i-1} + F_{i-2}$$



Convergence and divergence



$$1, \frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{3}, \frac{1}{4}, \dots, \frac{1}{n}, \dots$$

goes to 0



$$1, 2, 3, 4, \dots, n, \dots$$

goes to ∞



$$1, -1, 1, -1, \dots, (-1)^n, \dots$$

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

back & forth between ± 1

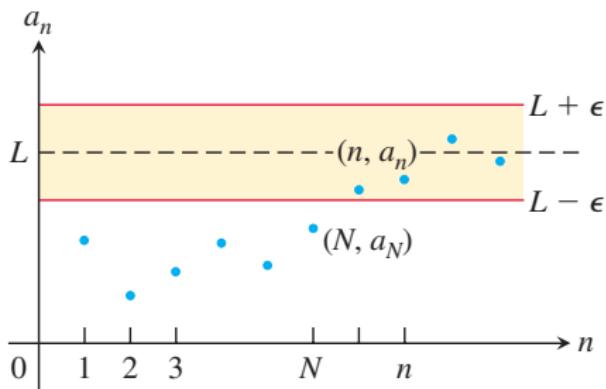
Convergence

Definition

A sequence $\{a_n\}$ **converges** to the number L if for any positive number ϵ , there exists an integer N such that for all $n > N$,

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

If $\{a_n\}$ converges to L , we write $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = L$, or simply $a_n \rightarrow L$, and call L the **limit** of the sequence $\{a_n\}$.



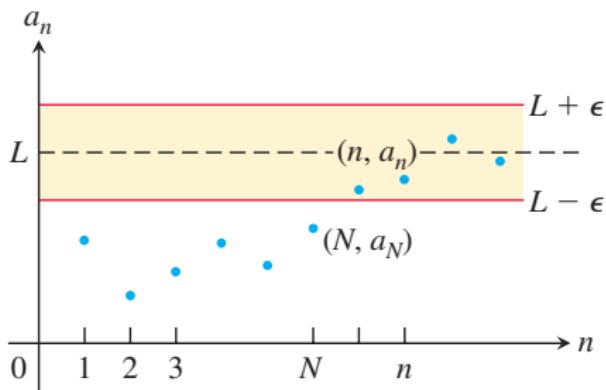
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- ▶ N depends on ϵ , in general, a smaller ϵ requires a bigger N .
- ▶ $n > N$ can be replaced by $n \geq N$.

Examples:



$$\frac{1}{n} \rightarrow 0$$

$$|\frac{1}{n} - 0| \leq \varepsilon \Leftrightarrow \frac{1}{n} \leq \varepsilon \Leftrightarrow n \geq \frac{1}{\varepsilon}$$

choose $N = \lceil \frac{1}{\varepsilon} \rceil$ the smallest integer
larger than $\frac{1}{\varepsilon}$



$$\frac{n}{2n+1} \rightarrow \frac{1}{2}$$

$$\left| \underbrace{\frac{n}{2n+1}}_{-} - \frac{1}{2} \right| \leq \varepsilon \Leftrightarrow \left| \frac{2n - (2n+1)}{2(2n+1)} \right| \leq \varepsilon$$

$$\Leftrightarrow \frac{1}{2(2n+1)} \leq \varepsilon$$

$$\Leftrightarrow n \geq \frac{1}{2\varepsilon} \left(\frac{1}{2} - 1 \right)$$

$$\text{choose } N = \lceil \frac{1}{2\varepsilon} \left(\frac{1}{2} - 1 \right) \rceil$$

Examples:



$$(-1)^n \rightarrow ?$$

Assume it has a limit L

choose $\varepsilon = \frac{1}{2}$, there exists N

s.t. $|(-1)^n - L| \leq \varepsilon$ if $n > N$



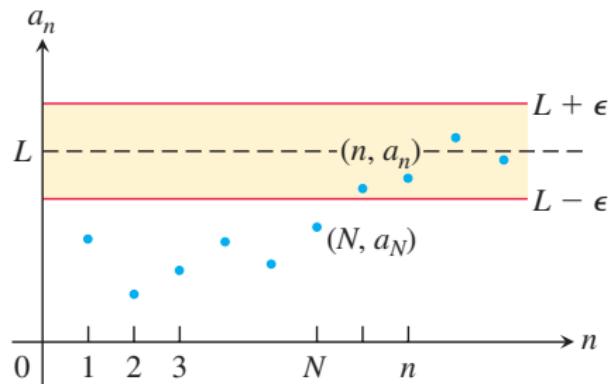
$$\begin{aligned} \Rightarrow |(-1) - L| &\leq \varepsilon \Rightarrow -1 - \varepsilon \\ &\leq L \leq -1 + \varepsilon \\ \Rightarrow |1 - L| &\leq \varepsilon \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \Rightarrow 1 - \varepsilon \\ \leq L \leq 1 + \varepsilon \end{aligned}$$

we can't find L satisfying both.

Divergence

- Convergence: for any $\epsilon > 0$, there exists N , such that $|a_n - L| \leq \epsilon$ for any $n > N$.



- If no such number L exists, we say that $\{a_n\}$ **diverges**.

Divergence to infinity

- $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = \infty$ or $a_n \rightarrow \infty$

If for every $M \in R$, there exists N such that $a_n > M$ for all $n > N$. We say that $\{a_n\}$ diverges to ∞

Examples:

$$\{n\}$$

- $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = -\infty$, or simply $a_n \rightarrow -\infty$

If for every $M \in R$, there exists N such that $a_n < M$ for all $n > N$. We say that $\{a_n\}$ diverges to $-\infty$

Examples:

$$\{-n\}$$

$$\{-\ln n\}$$

Possible outcomes

- ▶ Convergence
- ▶ Divergence
 - ▶ Divergence to ∞ or $-\infty$.
 - ▶ Other divergence cases

$$\{1, -2, 3, -4, \dots\}$$

$$\{1, 0, 2, 0, 3, 0, \dots\}$$



Remarks

Adding/removing/changing finitely many terms to a sequence does not change its convergence/divergence.



$$\{7, 48, 56, -\pi, \frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{3}, \frac{1}{4}, \dots\}$$



$$\{46, 3, e^{-1}, -1, 1, -1, 1, -1, \dots\}$$

Calculating limits of sequences

Similar to the theorems on limits of functions in Chapter 2, we have

Theorem (Theorem 1)

Let $\{a_n\}$ and $\{b_n\}$ be convergent sequences of real numbers with $a_n \rightarrow A$ and $b_n \rightarrow B$.

- ▶ **Sum Rule:** $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (a_n + b_n) = A + B$
- ▶ **Difference Rule:** $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (a_n - b_n) = A - B$
- ▶ **Constant Multiple Rule:** $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (k \cdot b_n) = k \cdot B$ (any real number k)
- ▶ **Product Rule:** $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (a_n \cdot b_n) = A \cdot B$
- ▶ **Quotient Rule:** $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{a_n}{b_n} = \frac{A}{B}$ if $B \neq 0$

Example: $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{n^2+1}{n^3+3} = 0$

$$\left| \frac{n^2+1}{n^3+3} - 0 \right| \leq \varepsilon \Leftrightarrow n^2+1 \leq \varepsilon(n^3+3)$$

$$\frac{n^2+1}{n^3+3} = \frac{\frac{n^2+1}{n^3}}{\frac{n^3+3}{n^3}} = \frac{\frac{1}{n} + \frac{1}{n^3}}{1 + \frac{3}{n^3}} \xrightarrow[n \rightarrow \infty]{\quad} 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{0+0}{1+0} = 0$$

Remark

It can happen that $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (a_n + b_n)$ exists but both $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n$ and $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} b_n$ do not exist.

$$a_n = \cos n$$

$$b_n = -\ln n$$

$$a_n + b_n = 0$$

$\{a_n\}$ and $\{ca_n\}$ ($c \neq 0$) are divergent or convergent at the same time.

$\{a_n\}$ converges $\Rightarrow \{ca_n\}$ converges

$$\Downarrow c \neq 0$$

$\{\frac{1}{c} (ca_n)\}$ converges

Sandwich theorem for sequences

Theorem (Theorem 2)

Let $\{a_n\}$, $\{b_n\}$, and $\{c_n\}$ be sequences of real numbers. If $a_n \leq b_n \leq c_n$ holds for all $n \geq N$, and if $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} c_n = L$, then $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} b_n = L$.

► Example. $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{n!}{n^n} = 0$

$$0 < \frac{n}{n} \cdot \frac{n-1}{n} \cdot \frac{n-2}{n} \cdots \cdots \frac{1}{n} \leq \frac{1}{n}$$

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

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} D = D$$

If $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} |a_n| = 0$, then $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = 0$

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

$$-|a_n| \leq a_n \leq |a_n|$$

Continuous function theorem for sequences

Theorem (Theorem 3)

Let $\{a_n\}$ be a sequence with $a_n \rightarrow L$ and f is a function that is continuous at L and defined at all $\{a_n\}$, then $f(a_n) \rightarrow f(L)$.

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

Proof:
We need

$$|f(a_n) - f(L)| < \varepsilon \quad \text{for all } n > N$$

f is continuous at $L \Rightarrow \exists \delta > 0$

$$\exists \delta \text{ s.t. } |f(x) - f(L)| < \varepsilon$$

$$\text{if } |x - L| < \delta$$

so we need $|a_n - L| < \delta \text{ for all } n > N$.

which depends on

Using l'Hôpital's rule

Theorem (Theorem 4)

Suppose that $f(x)$ is a function defined for all $x \geq n_0$ and that $\{a_n\}$ is a sequence such that $a_n = f(n)$ for all $n \geq n_0$. Then

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} f(x) = L \implies \underline{\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = L}.$$

$\forall \varepsilon \exists M \text{ s.t. } |f(x) - L| < \varepsilon$
for all $x > M$

$$\Rightarrow |f(n) - L| < \varepsilon$$

for all $n > M$

Example: $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\ln n}{n}$

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\ln x}{x} = \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\frac{1}{x}}{1} = 0$$

Example: $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left(\frac{n+1}{n-1} \right)^n$

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} n \ln \left(\frac{n+1}{n-1} \right)$$

$$= \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} x \ln \left(\frac{x+1}{x-1} \right) = \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\ln \left(\frac{x+1}{x-1} \right)}{\frac{1}{x}}$$

$$= \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\frac{x-1}{x+1} \left(-\frac{2}{(x-1)^2} \right)}{-\frac{1}{x^2}} = \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{-\frac{2}{(x+1)(x-1)}}{-\frac{1}{x^2}}$$

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

Common limits (x is fixed)

► $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\ln n}{n} = 0$ ✓

► $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sqrt[n]{n} = 1$ $\text{w} \cdot \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} e^{\left(\frac{1}{n} \ln n\right)} = e^{\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left(\frac{1}{n} \ln n\right)} = 1$

► $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} x^{\frac{1}{n}} = 1 \quad (x > 0)$ $x^{\frac{1}{n}} = e^{\frac{1}{n} \ln x}$

► $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} x^n = 0 \quad (|x| < 1)$ $|x^n| < \varepsilon \Leftrightarrow n \ln|x| < \ln \varepsilon$
 $\Leftrightarrow n > (\ln \varepsilon) / (\ln |x|)$

► $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left(1 + \frac{x}{n}\right)^n = e^x \quad (\text{any } x)$
 $\left(1 + \frac{x}{n}\right)^n = e^{\underline{n \ln\left(1 + \frac{x}{n}\right)}}$

► $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{x^n}{n!} = 0 \quad (\text{any } x)$

$\underbrace{\left(\frac{x}{n}\right) \frac{x}{n-1} \frac{x}{n-2} \frac{x}{n-3} \cdots \frac{x}{1}}_{< \frac{x}{n}} < \frac{x}{n} \quad \text{for large enough } n$

Bounded Sequences

Definition

A sequence $\{a_n\}$ is **bounded from above** if there exists a number M such that $a_n \leq M$ for all n . The number M is an **upper bound** for $\{a_n\}$. If M is an upper bound for $\{a_n\}$ but no number less than M is an upper bound for $\{a_n\}$, then M is the **least upper bound** for $\{a_n\}$.

A sequence $\{a_n\}$ is **bounded from below** if there exists a number m such that $a_n \geq m$ for all n . The number m is a **lower bound** for $\{a_n\}$. If m is a lower bound for $\{a_n\}$ but no number greater than m is a lower bound for $\{a_n\}$, then m is the **greatest lower bound** for $\{a_n\}$.

If $\{a_n\}$ is bounded from above and below, then $\{a_n\}$ is **bounded**. If $\{a_n\}$ is not bounded, then we say that $\{a_n\}$ is an **unbounded** sequence.

- $\{n\}$ has a lower bound, no upper bound
- $\{\frac{n}{n+1}\}$ bounded



Definition

A sequence $\{a_n\}$ is **nondecreasing** if $a_n \leq a_{n+1}$ for all n . That is,
 $a_1 \leq a_2 \leq a_3 \leq \dots$. The sequence is **nonincreasing** if $a_n \geq a_{n+1}$ for all n .
The sequence $\{a_n\}$ is **monotonic** if it is either nondecreasing or nonincreasing.

- ▶ $\{3\}$ **monotonic**
- ▶ $\underbrace{\{-1\}^n}_{\text{not}} \quad \text{not monotonic}$
- ▶ $\{\frac{n}{n+1}\}$ $\frac{n}{n+1} = 1 - \frac{1}{n+1}$ **monotonic**

Theorem (Theorem 6)

A bounded and monotonic sequence converges.