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above this index, both the a_n 's and the b_n 's are in $(l-\epsilon, l+\epsilon)$.

Let $n_0 := \max\{n_1, n_2\}$. Then, $\forall n \geq n_0$:

$$l-\epsilon < \boxed{a_n \leq b_n \leq c_n} < l+\epsilon$$

by assumption.

So, we have shown that:

$$\exists n_0 \in \mathbb{N} \text{ s.t. } l-\epsilon < b_n < l+\epsilon, \\ \text{i.e. } |b_n - l| < \epsilon.$$

Since ϵ was arbitrary, $b_n \rightarrow l$.

① 7 Sep 2016

Lecture 6

→ Prop.:

Let $(a_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$, $(b_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ be sequences in \mathbb{R} .
Suppose that: (i) $a_n \rightarrow 0$
and (ii) $(b_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ bounded.

Then, $a_n \cdot b_n \rightarrow 0$.

Proof: Let $\epsilon > 0$. I am looking for $n_0 \in \mathbb{N}$ s.t.: $\forall n \geq n_0$, $|a_n b_n| < \epsilon$.

$(b_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ is bounded $\Rightarrow \exists M > 0$ s.t.: $\forall n \in \mathbb{N}$, $|b_n| < M$.

Since $a_n \rightarrow 0$, there exists $n_0 (= n_0(\frac{\epsilon}{M})) \in \mathbb{N}$, s.t.:

$\forall n \geq n_0$, $|a_n| < \frac{\epsilon}{M}$. (I apply the definition of limit for the positive number $\frac{\epsilon}{M}$, i.e. the neighbourhood $(0 - \frac{\epsilon}{M}, 0 + \frac{\epsilon}{M})$ of 0.)

②

Then, for all $n \geq n_0$ we have:

$$|a_n b_n| = |a_n| \cdot |b_n| < \frac{\varepsilon}{M} \cdot M = \varepsilon, \text{ i.e. :}$$

$$\forall n \geq n_0, |a_n b_n| < \varepsilon.$$

Since ε was arbitrary, the proof is complete. ■

→ Prop.: If $a_n \rightarrow a$ and $b_n \rightarrow b$, then $a_n + b_n \rightarrow a + b$.

Proof: Let $\varepsilon > 0$. I know that:

Idea: If for large n , a_n is close to a , and for large n , b_n is close to b , then for large n , $a_n + b_n$ is close to $a + b$.

$$a_n \rightarrow a, \text{ so } \exists n_1 \in \mathbb{N} : \forall n \geq n_1, |a_n - a| < \frac{\varepsilon}{2},$$

and

$$b_n \rightarrow b, \text{ so } \exists n_2 \in \mathbb{N} : \forall n \geq n_2, |b_n - b| < \frac{\varepsilon}{2}.$$

I define $n_0 := \max\{n_1, n_2\}$; then,

$\forall n \geq n_0$, we simultaneously have $|a_n - a| < \frac{\varepsilon}{2}$ and $|b_n - b| < \frac{\varepsilon}{2}$,

$$\text{and thus } |(a_n + b_n) - (a + b)| = |(a_n - a) + (b_n - b)| \stackrel{\text{triangle inequality}}{\leq} |a_n - a| + |b_n - b| < \frac{\varepsilon}{2} + \frac{\varepsilon}{2} = \varepsilon.$$

So, $\forall n \geq n_0 : |(a_n + b_n) - (a + b)| < \varepsilon$.

Since ε was arbitrary, we have $a_n + b_n \rightarrow a + b$. ■

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→ Prop.: If $a_n \rightarrow a$ and $b_n \rightarrow b$, then $a_n \cdot b_n \rightarrow a \cdot b$.

Proof:

This is the first time we won't use the ε -definition of the limit, but simply the algebra of limits we've so far seen. If you want an ε -proof, use this idea together with the first 3 lines of this proof.

Idea: if for large n a_n is close to a , and for large n b_n is close to b , then for large n $a_n b_n$ is close to $a \cdot b$.

I notice that:

$$\begin{aligned} a_n b_n - ab &= a_n b_n - a b_n + a b_n - ab = \\ &= b_n \cdot (a_n - a) + a \cdot (b_n - b). \end{aligned}$$

Let's look at the sequence $(b_n \cdot (a_n - a))_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$. We have:

- $a_n - a \rightarrow 0$, because $a_n \rightarrow a$.
- $(b_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ is bounded, because it is convergent.

So, $b_n \cdot (a_n - a) \rightarrow 0$. $(*)_1$

Similarly for $a \cdot (b_n - b)$:

- $b_n - b \rightarrow 0$, because $b_n \rightarrow b$.
- $(a)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ is bounded, because it is a constant sequence

So, $a \cdot (b_n - b) \rightarrow 0$. $(*)_2$

By $(*)_1$ and $(*)_2$, $b_n(a_n - a) + a(b_n - b) \rightarrow 0$,
i.e. $a_n b_n \rightarrow a \cdot b$.

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→ Corollary: If $a_n \rightarrow a$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$ and $k \in \mathbb{N}$, then $a_n^k \rightarrow a^k$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$.

Proof: By the previous proposition:

$$\underbrace{a_n^2}_{a_n \cdot a_n} \rightarrow \underbrace{a^2}_{a \cdot a}, \quad \underbrace{a_n^2 \cdot a_n}_{a_n^3} \rightarrow \underbrace{a^2 \cdot a}_{a^3}, \text{ etc.}$$

ex: $\frac{1}{n^2} \rightarrow 0, \quad \frac{1}{n^3} \rightarrow 0, \quad \frac{1}{n^{10}} \rightarrow 0.$

→ Prop: If $b_n \neq 0 \quad \forall n \in \mathbb{N}$ and $b_n \rightarrow b$, then $\frac{1}{b_n} \rightarrow \frac{1}{b}$.

Proof:

Idea: We notice that $\left| \frac{1}{b_n} - \frac{1}{b} \right| = \frac{|b - b_n|}{|b_n b|} =$

$$= \frac{|b_n - b|}{|b_n| \cdot |b|}$$

If I show that this quantity is small for large n , I am done. I notice that if

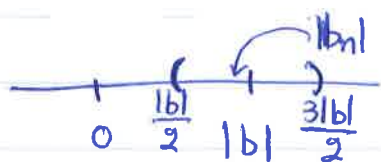
the denominator is larger than some constant, then the fraction is at most $|b_n - b|$ (times a constant), which is small. So, I just need to bound the denominator from below.

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Let $\varepsilon > 0$. I want to show that there exists some $n_0 \in \mathbb{N}$,

$$\text{s.t. : } \forall n \geq n_0, \underbrace{\left| \frac{1}{b_n} - \frac{1}{b} \right|}_{\frac{|b_n - b|}{|b_n| \cdot |b|}} < \varepsilon$$

I know that $b_n \rightarrow b$; so, $|b_n| \rightarrow |b|$. By the



definition of limit for the neighbourhood $(\frac{|b|}{2}, \frac{3|b|}{2})$ of $|b|$

(i.e., for $\varepsilon' = \frac{|b|}{2}$),

there exists some $n_1 \in \mathbb{N}$ s.t. : $\forall n \geq n_1, |b_n| \in (\frac{|b|}{2}, \frac{3|b|}{2})$.

In particular : $|b_n| > \frac{|b|}{2}, \forall n \geq n_1$.

So, $\forall n \geq n_1 : \frac{|b_n - b|}{|b_n| \cdot |b|} < \frac{|b_n - b|}{\frac{|b|}{2} \cdot |b|} = \frac{2}{|b|^2} \cdot |b_n - b|$ (*)

for the $\varepsilon > 0$ I originally picked, $\exists n_2 \in \mathbb{N}$ s.t. :

$$\forall n \geq n_2, |b_n - b| < \frac{\varepsilon \cdot |b|^2}{2} \quad (*)$$

⑥

I now combine $(*)_1$ and $(*)_2$:

$$\left. \begin{array}{l} \left| \frac{1}{b_n} - \frac{1}{b} \right| < \frac{\varepsilon}{|b|^2} |b_n - b|, \quad \forall n \geq n_1, \\ \text{and } |b_n - b| < \frac{\varepsilon \cdot |b|^2}{2}, \quad \forall n \geq n_2 \end{array} \right\} \Rightarrow$$

\Rightarrow For $n \geq n_0 := \max \{n_1, n_2\}$, we simultaneously have that $\left| \frac{1}{b_n} - \frac{1}{b} \right| < \frac{\varepsilon}{|b|^2} |b_n - b|$, and thus and $|b_n - b| < \frac{\varepsilon |b|^2}{2}$

$$\left| \frac{1}{b_n} - \frac{1}{b} \right| < \frac{\varepsilon}{|b|^2} \cdot \frac{\varepsilon |b|^2}{2} = \varepsilon, \quad \forall n \geq n_0.$$

Since ε was arbitrary, $\frac{1}{b_n} \rightarrow \frac{1}{b}$. ■

Corollary: If $b_n \neq 0 \quad \forall n \in \mathbb{N}$,
 $a_n \rightarrow a$, then $\frac{a_n}{b_n} \rightarrow \frac{a}{b}$,
 and $b_n \rightarrow b$

Proof: $\frac{a_n}{b_n} = \boxed{a_n} \cdot \boxed{\frac{1}{b_n}} \rightarrow a \cdot \frac{1}{b} = \frac{a}{b}$. ■

\downarrow \downarrow
 a $\frac{1}{b}$

this is just another notation for $a^{1/k}$, the unique positive real x with $x^k = a$ (See Lecture 3)

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→ Prop.: Let $(a_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ be a sequence with non-negative terms, and $k \geq 2$.

Imagine k to be fixed here (such as 2, 3, 10, ...).

If $a_n \rightarrow a$, then $\sqrt[k]{a_n} \rightarrow \sqrt[k]{a}$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$.
which will be ≥ 0 since $a_n \geq 0 \forall n \in \mathbb{N}$

Proof:

Idea: We want to show that $|\sqrt[k]{a_n} - \sqrt[k]{a}|$ is small for large n . How can I relate $|\sqrt[k]{a_n} - \sqrt[k]{a}|$ to the quantity $|a_n - a|$, which I know is small? I will use the identity

$$x^k - y^k = (x - y)(x^{k-1} + x^{k-2}y + x^{k-3}y^2 + \dots + xy^{k-1} + y^k),$$

which implies that

$$a_n - a = (\sqrt[k]{a_n} - \sqrt[k]{a}) \cdot (\sqrt[k]{a_n}^{k-1} + \sqrt[k]{a_n}^{k-2}\sqrt[k]{a} + \dots + \sqrt[k]{a_n}\sqrt[k]{a}^{k-1} + \sqrt[k]{a}^{k-1})$$

Case 1: $a = 0$. i.e., $a_n \rightarrow 0$, and we want to show that $\sqrt[k]{a_n} \rightarrow 0$. Let $\varepsilon > 0$.

Since $a_n \rightarrow 0$, by the definition of limit for $\varepsilon' = \varepsilon^k$ there exists $n_0 \in \mathbb{N}$ s.t. : $\forall n \geq n_0, |a_n| < \varepsilon^k \iff \sqrt[k]{|a_n|} < \varepsilon$
show this! (by another direction)

⑧

$\Leftrightarrow |\sqrt[k]{a_n}| < \varepsilon$. Since ε was arbitrary, $\sqrt[k]{a_n} \rightarrow 0$.

Case 2: $a > 0$.

We have:

$$a_n - a = (\sqrt[k]{a_n} - \sqrt[k]{a}) \cdot (\sqrt[k]{a_n}^{k-1} + \sqrt[k]{a_n}^{k-2} \sqrt[k]{a} + \dots + \sqrt[k]{a_n} \sqrt[k]{a}^{k-2} + \sqrt[k]{a}^{k-1})$$

$$\text{so } |\sqrt[k]{a_n} - \sqrt[k]{a}| = \frac{|a_n - a|}{\underbrace{(\sqrt[k]{a_n}^{k-1} + \sqrt[k]{a_n}^{k-2} \sqrt[k]{a} + \dots + \sqrt[k]{a_n} \sqrt[k]{a}^{k-2} + \sqrt[k]{a}^{k-1})}_{\geq \sqrt[k]{a}^{k-1}}}}$$

$$\text{thus } \underbrace{0}_{n \rightarrow \infty} \leq |\sqrt[k]{a_n} - \sqrt[k]{a}| \leq \underbrace{\frac{|a_n - a|}{\sqrt[k]{a}^{k-1}}}_{n \rightarrow \infty, \text{ a constant}} \rightarrow 0, \quad \forall n \in \mathbb{N}.$$

By the sandwich lemma, $|\sqrt[k]{a_n} - \sqrt[k]{a}| \rightarrow 0 \Leftrightarrow \sqrt[k]{a_n} \rightarrow \sqrt[k]{a}$.
 We can use the ε -definition of limit instead. ■

ex: $\frac{1}{\sqrt{n}} \rightarrow 0, \left(\frac{1}{n}\right)^{\frac{1}{10}} \rightarrow 0.$

⑨

→ Prop.: If $a > 0$, then $\sqrt[n]{a} \rightarrow 1$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$.

Proof: We want: $\sqrt[n]{a} \rightarrow 1 \iff \underbrace{\sqrt[n]{a} - 1}_{\parallel \vartheta_n} \rightarrow 0$.

Case 1: $a \geq 1$.

In this case, $(*)_1$ $\boxed{\vartheta_n \geq 0, \forall n \in \mathbb{N}}$ (as $a \geq 1 \rightarrow \sqrt[n]{a} \geq 1, \forall n \in \mathbb{N}$). show this (hint: contradiction otherwise)

So, we can apply Bernoulli's inequality for ϑ_n :

$$\underbrace{(1 + \vartheta_n)^n}_{\parallel \sqrt[n]{a}^n = a} \geq 1 + n \cdot \vartheta_n, \forall n \in \mathbb{N}$$

! Notice that it would have sufficed to just use that $(1 + \vartheta_n)^n \geq n \cdot \vartheta_n$, which comes from Bernoulli's inequality (weaker).

i.e. $n \vartheta_n \leq a - 1 \iff \boxed{\vartheta_n \leq \frac{a-1}{n}, \forall n \in \mathbb{N}} \quad (*)_2$

It is for this to hold that we required $a \geq 1$; Bernoulli's inequality holds for $a \geq -1$.

By $(*)_1, (*)_2$, we have $\boxed{0 \leq \vartheta_n \leq \frac{a-1}{n}}, \forall n \in \mathbb{N}$.

$\downarrow n \rightarrow \infty$ $\downarrow n \rightarrow \infty$
 0 0

By the sandwich lemma, $\vartheta_n \rightarrow 0 \iff \sqrt[n]{a} \rightarrow 1$.

Case 2: $a < 1$. In this case, $\frac{1}{a} > 1$ by Case 1 $\rightarrow \sqrt[n]{\frac{1}{a}} = \frac{1}{\sqrt[n]{a}} \rightarrow 1 \rightarrow \sqrt[n]{a} \rightarrow 1$. ■

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- ex: $\left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^{1/n} \rightarrow 1$, $3^{1/n} \rightarrow 1$, $1000^{1/n} \rightarrow 1$.

→ $\boxed{\sqrt[n]{n} \rightarrow 1 \text{ as } n \rightarrow +\infty.}$

Proof: Let's try to work as for $\sqrt[n]{a}$:

We want: $\sqrt[n]{n} \rightarrow 1 \iff \underbrace{\sqrt[n]{n} - 1}_{\parallel \vartheta_n} \rightarrow 0.$

We have $\textcircled{*} \boxed{\vartheta_n \geq 0, \forall n \in \mathbb{N}}$ (as $n \geq 1 \Rightarrow \sqrt[n]{n} \geq 1$).

Thoughts...

However, if we apply Bernoulli's inequality for ϑ_n , then we get $\underbrace{(1+\vartheta_n)^n}_{\parallel \frac{n}{\sqrt[n]{n}} = n} \geq 1 + n \cdot \vartheta_n$, i.e.

$$\vartheta_n \leq \frac{n-1}{n} = \frac{n(1-\frac{1}{n})}{n} = 1 - \frac{1}{n} \xrightarrow{n \rightarrow +\infty} 1 \neq 0.$$

So, Bernoulli's inequality doesn't provide an upper bound for $(\vartheta_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ good enough for the sandwich lemma to work; we need an even better upper bound for $(\vartheta_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$, which will actually converge to 0. We get this from the binomial expansion of $(1+\vartheta_n)^n$ (which, notice, implies also Bernoulli's inequality for $\vartheta_n \geq 0$ (rather than ≥ -1)).

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We have: $\forall n \in \mathbb{N}, n \geq 2$:

$$\begin{aligned}
 (1+d_n)^n &= \sum_{k=0}^n \binom{n}{k} \cdot d_n^k \\
 &= 1 + nd_n + \underbrace{\binom{n}{2} d_n^2 + \binom{n}{3} d_n^3 + \dots + \binom{n}{n-1} d_n^{n-1} + \binom{n}{n} d_n^n}_{\geq 0, \text{ as } d_n \geq 0 \forall n \in \mathbb{N}} \\
 &\geq 1 + nd_n
 \end{aligned}$$

$$\text{So, } \underbrace{(1+d_n)^n}_{\sqrt[n]{n^2} = n} \geq \binom{n}{2} d_n^2 = \frac{n \cdot (n-1)}{2} \cdot d_n^2$$

$$\rightarrow \frac{n \cdot (n-1)}{2} \cdot d_n^2 \leq n \Leftrightarrow d_n^2 \leq \frac{2n}{n(n-1)} = \frac{2}{n-1}$$

$$\Leftrightarrow \boxed{d_n \leq \sqrt{\frac{2}{n-1}}, \forall n \in \mathbb{N}, n \geq 2} \quad (*)_2$$

By $(*)_1$ and $(*)_2$, we have

$$0 \leq d_n \leq \sqrt{\frac{2}{n-1}}, \quad \forall n \in \mathbb{N}, n \geq 2.$$

By the sandwich lemma,
 $d_n \rightarrow 0$. So, $\sqrt[n]{n^2} \rightarrow 1$.

this is by the algebra of limits
 we have proved so far:
 $\frac{1}{n} \rightarrow 0 \Rightarrow \frac{1}{n-1} \rightarrow 0 \Rightarrow$
 $\Rightarrow \frac{2}{n-1} \rightarrow 2 \cdot 0 = 0 \Rightarrow \sqrt{\frac{2}{n-1}} \rightarrow 0$



Observe that, in the proof of $\sqrt[n]{n} \rightarrow 1$,
the problem that made things harder than for $\sqrt[n]{a} \rightarrow 1$
is that $(1+\vartheta_n)^n = n$, rather than a constant.

So, $1+n\vartheta_n$, which is also linear in n ,
cannot help us. We need to use something
like $\underbrace{(1+\vartheta_n)^n}_n \geq n^k \cdot \vartheta_n^k$, for some fixed $\boxed{k \geq 1}$
(or something like that),

so that
 n^k grows faster
than n

to demonstrate how truly small ϑ_n is
(indeed, notice that the above implies that

$$\vartheta_n^k \leq \frac{n}{n^k} = \frac{1}{n^{k-1}} \xrightarrow{n \rightarrow \infty} 0, \text{ as } \underline{k \geq 1}$$

That's why we chose $\binom{n}{2} \vartheta_n^2$ as the appropriate
lower bound for $(1+\vartheta_n)^n = n$; $\binom{n}{2} = \frac{n \cdot (n-1)}{2}$,

which should "behave like" n^2 for n large; whatever
that means.

Notice that, instead of $\binom{n}{2} \vartheta_n^2$, we could have used
 $\binom{n}{3} \vartheta_n^3$, or $\binom{n}{4} \vartheta_n^4$, ..., or $\binom{n}{k} \vartheta_n^k$, for explicit
 $k \in \mathbb{N}$ independent of n . (of course with $k < n$)