

## Chapter 4. Error term analysis

Goal: Convergence & its speed (= rate of convergence); attack by one shot

### 4.1 The error term

It is an important practical (and often theoretical) matter to know **not just** that a sequence  $(a_n)$  converges to a limit  $L$ , **but also** to have some idea of **how rapidly** it converges to  $L$ .

For example, it can be proved that

$$a_n = 1 - \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{3} - \frac{1}{4} + \cdots + \frac{(-1)^{n-1}}{n} \rightarrow \ln 2 \quad (\text{very slowly})$$
$$b_n = \frac{2}{1 \cdot 3} + \frac{2}{3 \cdot 3^3} + \frac{2}{5 \cdot 3^5} + \cdots + \frac{2}{(2n-1) \cdot 3^{2n-1}} \rightarrow \ln 2 \quad (\text{rapidly})$$

“Expect” for the limit:  $\ln 2$

$$(i) \quad \ln(1+x) \xleftarrow{\text{integrate}} \frac{1}{1+x}$$
$$\frac{1}{1+x} = 1 - x + x^2 - x^3 + \cdots \quad \text{for } |x| < 1$$

Take  $\int_0^x$  : where  $0 < x < 1 \Rightarrow$

$$\ln(1+x) \stackrel{\text{expect}}{=} x - \frac{x^2}{2} + \frac{x^3}{3} - \frac{x^4}{4} + \cdots \quad \text{for } 0 < x < 1 \quad (\text{true: will be proved in section 4.2})$$

$$\therefore \lim_{x \rightarrow 1^-} \ln(1+x) = \ln 2 = \lim_{x \rightarrow 1^-} \left[ x - \frac{x^2}{2} + \frac{x^3}{3} - \frac{x^4}{4} + \cdots \right]$$
$$\stackrel{\text{expect}}{=} 1 - \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{3} - \frac{1}{4} + \cdots + \frac{(-1)^{n-1}}{n} + \cdots \quad (\text{true; there are ‘two’ ways to verify this})$$

(An elementary proof will be given soon)

$$(ii) \quad f(x) \stackrel{\text{let}}{=} \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{2}{2n-1} \left( \frac{x}{3} \right)^{2n-1} \quad (\text{assume } \left| \frac{x}{3} \right| < 1)$$

$$f'(x) \stackrel{\text{expect}}{=} \frac{2}{3} \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \left( \frac{x}{3} \right)^{2n-2} \quad (\text{true for } |x| < 3: \text{ will be proved in Chap22})$$
$$= \frac{2}{3} \left[ 1 + \left( \frac{x}{3} \right)^2 + \left( \frac{x}{3} \right)^4 + \cdots \right] = \frac{2}{3} \frac{1}{1 - \left( \frac{x}{3} \right)^2} \quad \text{for } |x| < 3$$
$$= \frac{6}{9-x^2} = \frac{1}{3-x} + \frac{1}{3+x} \quad \text{for } |x| < 3$$

Thus for  $|x| < 3$ ,

$$\underbrace{\int_0^x f'(x) dx}_{\substack{\parallel \leftarrow f(0)=0 \\ f(x)}} = \int_0^x \left[ \frac{1}{3-x} + \frac{1}{3+x} \right] dx = \ln \left( \frac{3+x}{3-x} \right)$$

$$\therefore \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{2}{2n-1} \left( \frac{x}{3} \right)^{2n-1} = \ln \left( \frac{3+x}{3-x} \right) \quad \text{for } |x| < 3$$

$$\text{Take } x=1 \Rightarrow \ln 2 = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{2}{(2n-1)} \left( \frac{1}{3} \right)^{2n-1} = \frac{2}{1 \cdot 3} + \frac{2}{3 \cdot 3^3} + \frac{2}{5 \cdot 3^5} + \dots$$

The first sequence  $(a_n)$  is [useless for computing](#)  $\ln 2$ , because it converges too slowly

(Since  $a_{100} = a_{99} - \frac{1}{100}$ , at the 100-th term of the sequence, the second decimal place is still changing)

By contrast,  $(b_n)$  converges rapidly; the term  $b_3$  gives  $\ln 2$  to three decimal places.

To think about questions of this kind, we slightly change our point of view about limits;

Instead of looking at the approximation itself,  $a_n \approx_{\varepsilon} L$ , we focus our attention on the [error term](#)  $e_n = a_n - L$

### Theorem (Error-form Principle)

Let  $a_n = L + e_n$ . Then  $a_n \rightarrow L \Leftrightarrow e_n \rightarrow 0$

## 4.2 The error in the geometric series

Proposition (geometric sum limit)

$$a_n \stackrel{\text{let}}{=} 1 + a + a^2 + \dots + a^n \Rightarrow \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = \frac{1}{1-a} \quad \text{if } |a| < 1$$

$$\text{Pf. } 1 + a + a^2 + \dots + a^n = \frac{1 - a^{n+1}}{1-a} = \frac{1}{1-a} - \frac{a^{n+1}}{1-a} \quad \text{if } a \neq 1$$

$$\text{i.e., } e_n = -\frac{a^{n+1}}{1-a} \quad \text{if } a \neq 1$$

Since  $|a| < 1$ , we have  $a^n \rightarrow 0$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty \quad \therefore e_n \rightarrow 0$

Ex. Let  $a_n = 1 - \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{3} - \frac{1}{4} + \dots + \frac{(-1)^{n-1}}{n}$

Show  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = \ln 2$

Pf. Idea:  $x - \frac{x^2}{2} + \frac{x^3}{3} - \frac{x^4}{4} + \dots + (-1)^{n-1} \frac{x^n}{n} \Big|_{x=1} = a_n$

$$\uparrow \leftarrow \int_0^x (*) \Big|_{x=1}$$

$$(*) : 1 - x + x^2 - x^3 + \dots + (-1)^{n-1} x^{n-1}$$

Based on this, we consider

$$1 - x + x^2 - x^3 + \dots + (-1)^{n-1} x^{n-1} = \frac{1}{1+x} - (-1)^n \frac{x^n}{1+x} : x \neq -1$$

Take  $\int_0^1 \Rightarrow$

$$1 - \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{3} - \frac{1}{4} + \dots + \frac{(-1)^{n-1}}{n} = \ln 2 \pm \int_0^1 \frac{x^n}{1+x} dx$$

Suffices to show:  $e_n = \pm \int_0^1 \frac{x^n}{1+x} dx \rightarrow 0$

Clearly,  $|e_n| = \int_0^1 \frac{x^n}{1+x} dx \leq \int_0^1 x^n dx = \frac{1}{n+1} \rightarrow 0$   
 $(1/2 \leq) \frac{1}{1+x} \leq 1$  for  $0 \leq x \leq 1$

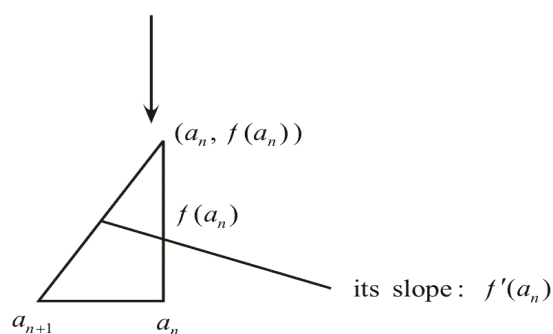
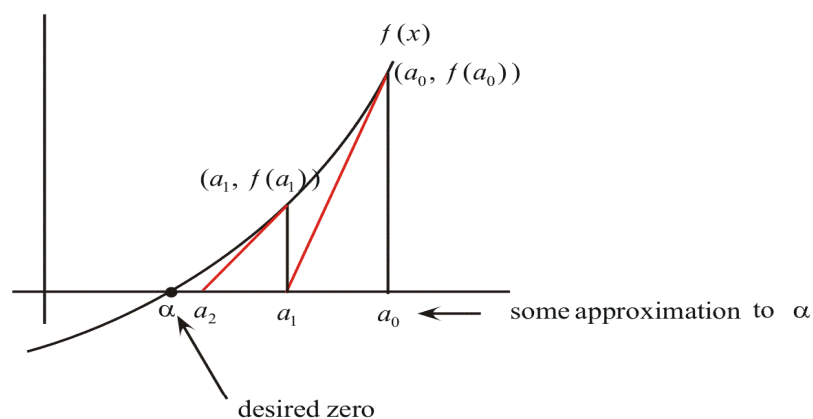
$$\therefore \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = \ln 2$$

### 4.3 A sequence converging to $\sqrt{2}$ : Newton's method

In the rest of this chapter (sections 4.3 & 4.4), we illustrate the use of the error form on **sequences whose general term  $a_n$  is not given explicitly in terms of  $n$ , but instead is given recursively by a formula involving  $a_{n-1}$  and previous terms as well**

(Such sequences are the normal thing one encounters in numerical analysis and computation)

Newton's method (a numerical method for locating a zero  $\alpha$  of a given function  $f(x)$  to any accuracy desired)



$$\therefore f'(a_n) = \frac{f(a_n)}{a_n - a_{n+1}}$$

This gives the formula 
$$a_{n+1} = a_n - \frac{f(a_n)}{f'(a_n)}$$

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n \stackrel{\text{expect}}{=} \alpha$$

That is, start with  $a_0 \rightarrow a_1 \rightarrow a_2 \rightarrow \dots \xrightarrow{\text{hope}} \alpha$

Ex. Find a sequence  $(a_n)$  s.t.  $a_n \rightarrow \sqrt{2}$ , by using Newton's method

(& investigate its rate of convergence)

Sol.  $\sqrt{2}$ : the positive zero of  $f(x) = x^2 - 2$

Recall

$$\begin{aligned} a_{n+1} &= a_n - \frac{f(a_n)}{f'(a_n)} = a_n - \frac{a_n^2 - 2}{2a_n} \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \left( a_n + \frac{2}{a_n} \right) \quad \text{--- (*)} \end{aligned}$$

Expect: any starting value “ $a_0$  close enough to  $\sqrt{2}$ ” will generate a sequence converging to  $\sqrt{2}$

$$(a_0 \text{ should determine } \approx \sqrt{2})$$

$$e_n \stackrel{\text{let}}{=} a_n - \sqrt{2} \quad \& \quad \text{show } e_n \rightarrow 0$$

(Notice that we have no explicit formula for  $a_n$ )

Key idea: Use (\*) to relate  $e_{n+1}$  to  $e_n$

$$e_{n+1} = a_{n+1} - \sqrt{2} = \frac{1}{2} \left( a_n + \frac{2}{a_n} \right) - \sqrt{2}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \therefore e_{n+1} &= \frac{1}{2} \left( (\sqrt{2} + e_n) + \frac{2}{\sqrt{2} + e_n} \right) - \sqrt{2} \quad (\leftarrow a_n = \sqrt{2} + e_n) \\ &= \frac{e_n^2}{2(\sqrt{2} + e_n)} \end{aligned}$$

To show  $e_{n+1}$  gets small, must show the denominator is *not* small

$$|\sqrt{2} + e_n| \geq \sqrt{2} - |e_n| > 1.4 - 0.9 = 0.5 \quad \text{provided } |e_n| < 0.9$$

So if  $|e_n| < 0.9$ , then  $|e_{n+1}| < e_n^2$

Thus if we choose a starting value  $a_0$  satisfying  $|e_0| < 0.9$ , we see that

$$|e_1| < e_0^2, \quad |e_2| < e_1^2 < e_0^4, \quad \dots, \quad |e_n| < e_0^{2^n} \rightarrow 0 \quad \text{very rapidly as } n \rightarrow \infty$$

$$\therefore e_n \rightarrow 0 \quad \text{very rapidly}$$

Remark:

If we take  $a_0$  such that  $|e_0| < 0.1$ , then

$$\begin{aligned} |e_1| &< 0.01 = 10^{-2} \\ |e_2| &< 0.0001 = 10^{-4} \\ &\vdots \end{aligned}$$

Home Study: Let  $a > 0$ .

- (i) Find a sequence  $(a_n)$  converging to  $\sqrt{a}$
- (ii) Find a sequence  $(a_n)$  converging to  $\sqrt[3]{a}$

Remark:  $a_{n+1} = \frac{1}{2} \left( a_n + \frac{2}{a_n} \right)$  with  $a_0 \approx \sqrt{2}$  (or  $a_0 > 0$ )

$\Rightarrow (a_n)$  is convergent

Pf.  $a_{n+1} = \frac{1}{2} \left( a_n + \frac{2}{a_n} \right) \stackrel{AG}{\geq} \sqrt{a_n \cdot \frac{2}{a_n}} = \sqrt{2} \quad \forall n \geq 0$

$\therefore (a_n)_1^\infty$  is bounded below by  $\sqrt{2}$  (even if  $0 < a_0 < \sqrt{2}$ )

Goal:  $(a_n)_1^\infty$  is  $\downarrow$

$$\begin{aligned} a_n - a_{n+1} &= a_n - \frac{1}{2} \left( a_n + \frac{2}{a_n} \right) = \frac{1}{2} \left( a_n - \frac{2}{a_n} \right) \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \frac{a_n^2 - 2}{a_n} \geq \frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{0}{a_n} = 0 \quad \forall n \geq 1 \text{ (note } a_n \geq \sqrt{2} > 0 \text{ for } n \geq 1) \end{aligned}$$

$\therefore (a_n)_1^\infty$  is  $\downarrow$

Thus  $(a_n)$  is convergent (by the Completeness Property of  $\mathbb{R}$ )

Now, we let  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = \alpha$  ( $\Rightarrow \alpha \geq \sqrt{2}$ )

Since  $a_{n+1} = \frac{1}{2} \left( a_n + \frac{2}{a_n} \right)$ , we have (by taking limits)

$$\alpha = \frac{1}{2} \left( \alpha + \frac{2}{\alpha} \right) \quad \therefore \alpha^2 = 2 \quad \therefore \alpha = \sqrt{2}$$

#### 4.4 The sequence of Fibonacci fractions

The Fibonacci sequence is given by

1 1 2 3 5 8  $\dots$ : often written as  $F_0, F_1, F_2, \dots$

Let  $a_n = \frac{F_n}{F_{n+1}} (n \geq 0)$ , the ratios of successive terms of the Fibonacci sequence:

$$\frac{1}{1} (= 1) \quad \frac{1}{2} (= 0.5) \quad \frac{2}{3} (\doteq 0.667) \quad \frac{3}{5} (= 0.6) \quad \frac{5}{8} (= 0.625) \quad \frac{8}{13} \quad \frac{13}{21} \quad \dots$$

Question:  $a_n \rightarrow ?$

Note that if  $a_{n+1} = \frac{F_{n+1}}{F_{n+2}} = \frac{F_{n+1}}{F_n + F_{n+1}} = \frac{1}{\frac{F_n}{F_{n+1}} + 1} = \frac{1}{a_n + 1} (n \geq 0)$  and  $a_0 = 1$

$$\therefore a_{n+1} = \frac{1}{a_n + 1} \quad (a_0 = 1, \quad a_1 = 0.5, \quad a_2 \doteq 0.667)$$

If we **assume**  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n \equiv M$  exists, it is easy to find  $M$

Indeed, if  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n \equiv M$  exists, then

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_{n+1} = \frac{1}{\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n + 1} \quad \text{i.e., } M = \frac{1}{M+1}$$

$$\text{i.e., } M^2 + M - 1 = 0 \quad \therefore M = \frac{\sqrt{5}-1}{2} \quad (\because M > 0)$$

$$\text{Target: } \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = \frac{\sqrt{5}-1}{2} \stackrel{\text{let}}{\equiv} M$$

Must examine  $e_n = a_n - M$  & try to show  $e_n \rightarrow 0$

$$\begin{aligned} e_{n+1} &= a_{n+1} - M = \frac{1}{a_n + 1} - M \\ &= \frac{1}{e_n + M + 1} - M = \frac{1 - M - M^2 - Me_n}{e_n + M + 1} \\ &= -\frac{M}{e_n + M + 1} e_n \quad (\leftarrow M^2 + M - 1 = 0) \\ &= -\frac{\sqrt{5}-1}{2e_n + \sqrt{5} + 1} e_n \quad (\leftarrow M = \frac{\sqrt{5}-1}{2}) \quad (\text{note that } \sqrt{5}-1 < 2.3-1=1.3) \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} |\sqrt{5} + 1 + 2e_n| &\geq 2.2 + 1 - 2|e_n| \\ &\geq 2.2 + 1 - 2(0.2) = 2.8 \quad \text{if } |e_n| \leq 0.2 \end{aligned}$$

Using  $\sqrt{5} < 2.3$  ( $\rightarrow \sqrt{5}-1 < 1.3$ ), we get

$$(*) : |e_{n+1}| < \frac{1.3}{2.8} |e_n| < \frac{1}{2} |e_n| \quad \text{if } |e_n| \leq 0.2$$

Since  $|e_2| = a_2 - \frac{\sqrt{5}-1}{2} \doteq 0.667 - 0.618 \approx 0.05$ , we have

$$|e_n| < 0.2 \quad \text{for all } n \geq 2 \quad \text{by } (*)$$

Therefore

$$|e_3| < \frac{1}{2} |e_2|, \quad |e_4| < \frac{1}{2} |e_3| < \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^2 |e_2|, \quad \dots, \quad |e_n| < \underbrace{\left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^{n-2}}_{\rightarrow 0 \text{ as } n \rightarrow \infty} |e_2|$$

$$\therefore a_n \rightarrow M$$

**Home Study:** Let  $a_{n+1} = \frac{1}{a_n + 1}$  with  $a_0 = A$  &  $A \neq -1$

For what values of  $A$ , is  $(a_n)$  convergent

(Hint: Draw a graph suggested by the recursive formula)

Return to a **rigorous but elementary** pf of:  $\ln(1+x) = x - \frac{x^2}{2} + \frac{x^3}{3} - \frac{x^4}{4} + \dots \quad -1 < x \leq 1$

Idea:  $\frac{d}{dx} \ln(1+x) = \frac{1}{1+x} = 1 - x + x^2 - x^3 + \dots \quad \text{for } |x| < 1$

Integrating  $(\int_0^x dt)$  term by term  $\Rightarrow$

$$\ln(1+x) = x - \frac{x^2}{2} + \frac{x^3}{3} - \frac{x^4}{4} + \dots, \quad -1 < x < 1$$

(Later, we will prove that every power series can be integrated term by term “within the (open) interval of convergence”; the radius of convergence  $R$  of the RHS = 1) --- **not** studied in high school math

Remember that we already proved (by only using high school math) that

$$1 - \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{3} - \frac{1}{4} + \dots = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^{n-1}}{n} = \ln 2$$

Thus, it suffices to verify the following:

**Claim:** Using only “High School-Math” (the same idea as seen in Example of section 4.2), prove that

$$\ln(1+x) = x - \frac{x^2}{2} + \frac{x^3}{3} - \frac{x^4}{4} + \dots \quad -1 < x < 1$$

Pf. Start with  $1 - x + x^2 - x^3 + \dots + (-1)^{n-1} x^{n-1} = \frac{1}{1+x} - (-1)^n \frac{x^n}{1+x} : \quad x \neq -1$

Case 1:  $0 \leq x < 1$  Take  $\int_0^x () dt \Rightarrow$

$$x - \frac{x^2}{2} + \frac{x^3}{3} - \frac{x^4}{4} + \dots + (-1)^{n-1} \frac{x^n}{n} = \ln(1+x) \pm \int_0^x \frac{t^n}{1+t} dt$$

Suffices to show:  $e_n(x) := \pm \int_0^x \frac{t^n}{1+t} dt \rightarrow 0$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$

Clearly,  $|e_n(x)| = \int_0^x \frac{t^n}{1+t} dt \leq \int_0^x t^n dt = \frac{x^{n+1}}{n+1} \leq \frac{1}{n+1} \rightarrow 0$   
 $(1/2 \leq) \frac{1}{1+t} \leq 1$  for  $0 \leq t \leq x < 1$

Case 2:  $-1 < x < 0$  Want:  $\ln(1+x) = x - \frac{x^2}{2} + \frac{x^3}{3} - \frac{x^4}{4} + \dots \quad -1 < x < 0$

By letting  $x = -y$  ( $0 < y < 1$ ), we need to show

$$-\ln(1-y) = y + \frac{y^2}{2} + \frac{y^3}{3} + \frac{y^4}{4} + \dots \quad 0 < y < 1$$

Start with  $1 + y + y^2 + y^3 + \dots + y^{n-1} = \frac{1}{1-y} - \frac{y^n}{1-y} : \quad y \neq 1$

Take  $\int_0^y () dt$  ( $0 < y < 1$ )  $\Rightarrow$

$$y + \frac{y^2}{2} + \frac{y^3}{3} + \frac{y^4}{4} + \dots + \frac{y^n}{n} = -\ln(1-y) - \int_0^y \frac{t^n}{1-t} dt$$

Suffices to show:  $\int_0^y \frac{t^n}{1-t} dt$  ( $0 < y < 1$ ) as  $n \rightarrow \infty$

$$\int_0^y \frac{t^n}{1-t} dt \leq \int_0^y \frac{t^n}{1-y} dt = \frac{1}{1-y} \int_0^y t^n dt = \frac{1}{1-y} \frac{y^{n+1}}{n+1} \leq \frac{1}{1-y} \frac{1}{n+1} \rightarrow 0 \quad \text{as } n \rightarrow \infty$$