## Chap 3. The limit of a sequence

3.1 Definition of limit

In Chap 1, we discussed the limit of seqs that are monotone. But many important seqs are *not* monotone. For such sequences, the methods we used in Chap 1 won't work.

For instance, we can expect that the sequence

$$1.1, 0.9, 1.01, 0.99, 1.001, 0.999, \cdots \longrightarrow 1$$

has 1 as its limit, yet neither the integer part nor any of the decimal places of the numbers eventually constant.

So we need a more generally applicable definition of the limit.

We abandon the decimal expansions, and replace them by the approximation viewpoint, in which

"the limit of is 
$$a_n$$
" means roughly  $a_n$  is a good approximation to  $L$ , when  $n$  is large

# Def 3.1 The number L is the limit of the seq  $(a_n)$  if

given 
$$\varepsilon > 0$$
,  $a_n \approx L$  for  $n \gg 1$ 

*i.e.*, given 
$$\varepsilon > 0$$
,  $a_n \approx L$  for  $n \ge (\text{or } >) \text{ some } N = N(\varepsilon)$ 

i.e., given 
$$\varepsilon > 0$$
,  $\exists$  a number  $N = N(\varepsilon)$  s.t.  $a_n \approx L$  for  $n \geq N$ 

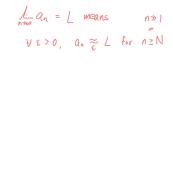
i.e., given 
$$\varepsilon > 0$$
,  $\exists$  a number  $N = N(\varepsilon)$  s.t.  $|a_n - L| < \varepsilon$  for  $n \ge N$ 

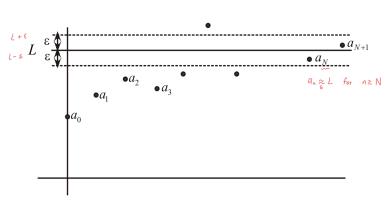
If such an L exists, we say  $(a_n)$  converges (or is convergent) (to L)

and we write 
$$\lim_{n\to\infty} a_n = L$$
 or  $a_n \to L \ (\text{as } n \to \infty)$ 

If not, we say  $(a_n)$  diverges (or is divergent)

Geometrical meaning of  $\lim a_n = L$ :





Given  $\varepsilon > 0$ ,  $\exists$  some number  $N = N(\varepsilon)$  s.t. all terms  $(a_n)_{n \ge N}$  lie in the strip above

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$$a_n = L$$
 (a real number) if given  $\varepsilon > 0$ ,  $a_n \underset{\varepsilon}{\approx} L$  for  $n \gg 1$  ે દેવને તે તાલુકાના તાલુ

Note:

- (i)  $a_n \approx L \quad (a_n \text{ approximates } L \text{ to within } \varepsilon)$
- (ii)  $a_n \approx L$  for  $n \gg 1$  (the approximation holds for all  $a_n$ far enough out in the sequence)
- given  $\varepsilon > 0$ ,  $a_n \approx L$  for  $n \gg 1$

(the approximation can be made as closed as described, provided we go far enough out in the sequence: the smaller  $\varepsilon$  is, the further out we must go, for the approximation to be valid within  $\varepsilon$ .)

Eg A. Show that  $\lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{n-1}{n+1} = 1$ 

Pf. We must show:

given 
$$\varepsilon > 0$$
,  $\frac{n-1}{n+1} \approx 1$  for  $n \gg 1$ 

$$\left|\frac{n-1}{n+1}-1\right| = \left|\frac{-2}{n+1}\right| = \frac{2}{n+1} < \varepsilon \quad \text{if} \quad n+1 > \frac{2}{\varepsilon}$$
 
$$i.e., \quad \text{if} \quad n > \frac{2}{\varepsilon}-1 \quad \stackrel{\text{take}}{=} : N(\text{depends on } \varepsilon)$$
 of which the proofs: 
$$\frac{2}{\varepsilon} = \frac{1}{\varepsilon} \text{ and the proofs} : \frac{N-1}{n+1} \text{ of } \text{ for the proofs} = \frac{2}{\varepsilon} = \frac{2}{\varepsilon} + \frac{2}{\varepsilon} = \frac{2}{\varepsilon} + \frac{2}{\varepsilon} + \frac{2}{\varepsilon} + \frac{2}{\varepsilon} = \frac{2}{\varepsilon} + \frac{2}{\varepsilon$$

## Remarks on limit proofs:

- 1. The heart of a limit proof is in getting a small upper estimate for  $|a_n L|$ . Often most of the work will consist in showing how to rewrite this difference so that a good upper estimate can be made.
- 2. In giving the proof, you must exhibit a value (N) concealed in "for  $n \gg 1$ " You need not give the smallest possible N (if we could find one candidate for N, any bigger number would be a candidate)

N depends on  $\varepsilon$ : In general, the smaller  $\varepsilon$  is, the bigger N is.

3. The phrase "given  $\varepsilon > 0$ " has equivalent forms:

for all 
$$\varepsilon > 0$$
, for any  $\varepsilon > 0$ , for every  $\varepsilon > 0$ , for each  $\varepsilon > 0$ , given any  $\varepsilon > 0$  
$$\forall \varepsilon > 0 \qquad \forall \varepsilon >$$

4. It is not hard to show that if a monotone sequence  $(a_n)$  has the limit L in the sense of Chap 1 then L is also its limit in the sense of Def 3.1 [See Problem 3.3] (The converse is also true, but more trouble to show because of the difficulties with decimal notation)

Thus the limit results of Chap 1, the Completeness Property in particular, are still valid when our new definition of limit is used.

From now on, "limit" will always refer to Def 3.1

$$\angle \alpha_n = \angle \iff \exists \forall \epsilon > 0, \quad \alpha_n = \angle \text{ for } n \gg 1 \ (N = N(\epsilon))$$

Eg B. Show 
$$\lim_{n\to\infty} (\sqrt{n+1} - \sqrt{n}) = 0$$

Sol. 
$$\left| \sqrt{n+1} - \sqrt{n} \right| = \frac{1}{\sqrt{n+1} + \sqrt{n}} < \frac{1}{2\sqrt{n}};$$

$$\therefore \text{ given any } \varepsilon > 0, \quad \frac{1}{2\sqrt{n}} < \varepsilon \quad \text{if } \frac{1}{4n} < \varepsilon^2$$
 
$$i.e., \quad \text{if } n > \frac{1}{4\varepsilon^2} \equiv N$$

3.2 The uniqueness of limits. The  $K - \varepsilon$  Principle.

Can a sequence  $(a_n)$  have more than one limit?

Common sense says no:

If there were two different limits L and L', the  $a_n$  could not be arbitrarily close to both, since L and L' are at a fixed distance from each other. This is the idea behind the proof of uniqueness theorem for limits. The theorem shows that if  $(a_n)$  is convergent, the notation  $\lim_{n\to\infty} a_n$  makes sense.

## Theorem A (Uniqueness theorem for limits)

A seq  $(a_n)$  has at most one limit:

$$a_n \to L$$
 and  $a_n \to L' \Rightarrow L = L'$ 

Pf. By hypothesis,

given 
$$\varepsilon > 0$$
,  $a_n \approx L$  for  $n \gg 1$  &  $a_n \approx L'$  for  $n \gg 1$ 

Therefore, given  $\varepsilon > 0$ , we can choose some large number k such that

$$L \approx_{\varepsilon} a_k \approx_{\varepsilon} L'$$

By the transitive law of " $\approx$ ", it follows that

given 
$$\varepsilon > 0$$
,  $L \underset{2\varepsilon}{\approx} L' ---(*)$ 

Seen earlier that (\*) implies L = L'.

Indeed, if 
$$\ L \neq L', \ \ {\rm choose} \ \ \varepsilon = \frac{\mid L - L' \mid}{2} \, (>0)$$
 . Then

$$|L - L'| < 2\varepsilon$$
 by  $(*)$   
i.e.,  $|L - L'| < |L - L'|$   $\otimes$ 

## Theorem B

$$(a_n)$$
 is  $\underbrace{\operatorname{inc}}^{\spadesuit} \& L = \lim_{n \to \infty} a_n \implies a_n \le L$  for all  $n$   
 $(a_n)$  is  $\operatorname{dec} \& L = \lim_{n \to \infty} a_n \implies a_n \ge L$  for all  $n$ 

Pf. We will prove the 1<sup>st</sup> assertion only.

Suppose not.

i.e.,  $\exists$  a term  $a_N$  such that  $a_N > L$ 

$$\varepsilon \stackrel{\text{let}}{=} \frac{a_N - L}{2} \, (>0)$$

Since  $(a_n)$  is  $\uparrow$ , we have  $a_n - L \ge a_N - L > \varepsilon$  for all  $n \ge N$ ;

$$\therefore |a_n - L| \stackrel{a_n - L > \varepsilon > 0}{=} a_n - L > \varepsilon \quad \text{for all } n \ge N$$

contradicting the def of  $\lim_{n \to \infty} a_n = L$ 

lacktriangle The  $K-\varepsilon$  principle.

Eg Let 
$$a_n = \frac{1}{n} + \frac{\sin n}{n+1}$$
. Show  $a_n \to 0$ 

Sol. 
$$\left| \frac{1}{n} + \frac{\sin n}{n+1} \right| \le \frac{1}{n} + \frac{|\sin n|}{n+1} \le \frac{1}{n} + \frac{1}{n+1}$$
 < 28

$$\frac{1}{n} < \varepsilon$$
 for  $n > \frac{1}{\varepsilon}$  &  $\frac{1}{n+1} < \varepsilon$  for  $n > \frac{1}{\varepsilon} - 1$ 

$$\frac{-}{n} < \varepsilon \quad \text{for } n > \frac{-}{\varepsilon} \quad \& \quad \frac{-}{n+1} < \varepsilon \quad \text{for } n > \frac{-}{\varepsilon} - 1$$

$$\therefore \quad \frac{1}{n} + \frac{1}{n+1} < 2\varepsilon \quad \text{for} \quad n > \frac{1}{\varepsilon} \quad \text{(note here that 2 does not depend on } n \& \varepsilon \text{)}$$

$$\text{Set } \varepsilon' = \varepsilon/2 \quad \& \quad \text{work with } \varepsilon' \quad \text{instead of } \varepsilon \quad \Rightarrow$$

Set  $\varepsilon' = \varepsilon/2$  & work with  $\varepsilon'$  instead of  $\varepsilon \Rightarrow$ 

$$\left|\frac{1}{n} + \frac{\sin n}{n+1}\right| < 2\varepsilon', \quad \text{for } n > \frac{1}{\varepsilon'}$$

Since  $2\varepsilon' = \varepsilon$ ,

$$\left| \frac{1}{n} + \frac{\sin n}{n+1} \right| < \varepsilon, \quad \text{for } n > \frac{1}{\varepsilon/2} = \frac{2}{\varepsilon} \qquad ---//$$

"Conclusion"

# The $K-\varepsilon$ principle

Suppose that  $(a_n)$  is a given seq, and we can prove that

given any 
$$\varepsilon > 0$$
,  $a_n \underset{K\varepsilon}{\approx} L$  for  $n \gg 1$ ,

where K>0 is a fixed constant (i.e., a number not depending on n or  $\varepsilon$ ).

Then 
$$\lim_{n\to\infty} a_n = L$$
.

#### 3.3 Infinite limits

Even though  $\infty$  is not a number, it is convenient to allow it as a sort of "limit" in describing sequences which become and remain arbitrarily large as n increases.

Def. We say that the seq 
$$(a_n)$$
 tends to infinity  $(\infty)$  if given any  $M>0$ ,  $a_n>M$  for  $n\gg 1$ . (The  $N$  concealed in "for  $n\gg 1$ " depends on  $M$ )

In symbols,  $\lim_{n\to\infty} a_n = \infty$  or  $a_n \to \infty$  as  $n\to\infty$ 

Eg A. Do the following seqs tend to  $\infty$ ?

(i) 
$$(a_n)_1^{\infty} = 1$$
, 10, 2, 20, 3, 30, ..., k, 10k, ...

(ii) 
$$(a_n) = 1, 2, 1, 3, 1, 4, \dots, 1, k, \dots$$

Sol (i)

$$a_n = \begin{cases} 5n & \text{if } n \text{ is even} \\ \frac{n+1}{2} & \text{if } n \text{ is odd} \end{cases}$$

$$\therefore \quad \text{given } M>0, \quad a_n>M \quad \text{ if } \frac{n+1}{2}>M \quad \text{ (i.e., if } \ n>2M-1) \\ \therefore \quad \lim_{n\to\infty}a_n=\infty$$

(ii) Take 
$$M=10$$
 . It is clear that  $a_n < 10 = M$  for any odd integer  $n (\geq 1)$ 

$$\therefore \lim_{n\to\infty} a_n \neq \infty$$

Eg B. Show that  $\lim_{n\to\infty} \ln n = \infty$ 

Pf. 
$$\ln x$$
 is strictly  $\uparrow$  for  $x > 0$ 

i.e.,  $\ln a > \ln b$  if a > b

$$\therefore \text{ given } M > 0, \qquad \ln n > \ln(e^M) = M \quad \text{if } n > e^M = N$$

(i) Formulate a definition for  $\lim_{n\to\infty} a_n = -\infty$ <HS>

(ii) Prove 
$$\lim_{n\to\infty} \ln\left(\frac{1}{n}\right) = -\infty$$
 =>  $\ln\left(\frac{1}{\alpha}\right) > \ln\left(\frac{1}{b}\right)$  if  $\alpha < b$ 

Ans to (i): Given M>0,  $a_n<-M$  for  $n\gg 1$   $\left(\sqrt{\frac{1}{N}}\right)<-M=\sqrt{N}\left(e^{-M}\right)$ 

$$l_n(\frac{1}{n}) < -M = l_n(e^M)$$

An important limit 3.4

Theorem

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} a^n = \begin{cases} \infty & \text{if } a > 1 \\ 1 & \text{if } a = 1 \\ 0 & \text{if } |a| < 1 \end{cases}$$

Pf. The case a > 1;

$$a > 1 \implies \text{we can write } a = 1 + k(k > 0)$$

$$\therefore a^n = (1+k)^n$$

Binomial thm = 
$$1 + nk + \underbrace{\frac{n(n-1)}{2!}k^2 + \frac{n(n-1)(n-2)}{3!}k^3 + \dots + k^n}_{>0}$$

$$\geq 1 + nk > nk > \text{(given any)}M$$
 if  $n > \frac{M}{k}$  (= depends on M)

$$\therefore \lim_{n\to\infty} a^n = \infty \quad \text{if} \quad a > 1$$

The case  $\ a=1$ ; Obviously,  $\lim_{n\to\infty}a^n=\lim_{n\to\infty}1=1$ 

The case |a| < 1; or try  $|a| = \frac{1}{1+k} (k > 0)$ 

$$|a| < 1 \implies \frac{1}{|a|} > 1 \stackrel{\text{casel}}{\Rightarrow} (\frac{1}{|a|})^n \to \infty$$

$$\therefore \text{ given } \varepsilon > 0, \qquad (\frac{1}{|a|})^n > \frac{1}{\varepsilon} \quad \text{for } n \gg 1$$

i.e., given 
$$\varepsilon > 0$$
,  $\mid a^n \mid < \varepsilon$  for  $n \gg 1$ 

$$a^n \rightarrow 0$$

## 3.5 Writing limit proofs

$$\begin{array}{llll} & & & & & & & & \\ Wrong & & & & & & \\ a_n \to 0 & \text{for } n \gg 1 & & & & \\ \lim_{n \to \infty} 2^n &= \infty & \text{for } n \gg 1 & & & \\ \lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{1}{n} &= 0 & \text{if } n > \frac{1}{\varepsilon} & & & \frac{1}{n} \approx 0 & \text{if } n > \frac{1}{\varepsilon} \end{array}$$

- 'given  $\varepsilon > 0$ ' or 'given M > 0' must come first.
- 3.6 Some limits involving integrals

Eg A. Let 
$$a_n = \int_0^1 (x^2+2)^n \ dx$$
 . Show that  $\lim_{n \to \infty} a_n = \infty$ 

(참고: 적분을 직접 계산하는 것은 복잡하므로 다른 전략이 요구됨)

Sol. 
$$x^2 + 2 \ge 2$$
 for all  $x$ 

$$\therefore (x^2 + 2)^n \ge 2^n \quad \text{for all } x \quad \& \quad \text{all } n \ge 0$$

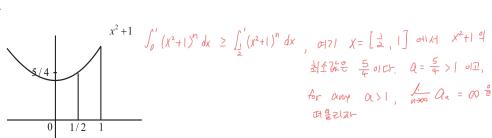
$$\therefore \int_0^1 (x^2 + 2)^n dx \ge \int_0^1 2^n dx = 2^n \to \infty \text{ as } n \to \infty$$

$$\therefore \lim_{n \to \infty} \int_0^1 (x^2 + 2)^n \ dx = \infty$$

Or, given any M > 0,  $\int_0^1 (x^2 + 2)^n dx \ge 2^n > M$ , for  $n > \log_2 M$ 

Eg B. Show 
$$\lim_{n\to\infty} \int_0^1 (x^2+1)^n \ dx = \infty$$

Pf. The previous argument gives the estimate  $(x^2 + 1)^n \ge 1^n = 1$  for all x, which is useless. It may be modified as follows.



 $x^2 + 1$  has the value  $\frac{5}{4} \equiv A$  at the point  $x_0 = \frac{1}{2}$ 

Since  $x^2+1$  is  $\uparrow$  on [0,1],  $x^2+1 \ge A > 1$  for  $\frac{1}{2} \le x \le 1$ 

$$\therefore \qquad (x^2+1)^n \ge A^n \quad \text{for } \frac{1}{2} \le x \le 1$$

$$\therefore \int_0^1 (x^2 + 1)^n \ dx \ge \int_{1/2}^1 (x^2 + 1)^n \ dx \ge \int_{1/2}^1 A^n \ dx = \frac{A^n}{2} \stackrel{\text{as } n \to \infty}{\to} \infty \quad \text{since } A > 1$$

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} \int_0^1 (x^2 + 1)^n \ dx = \infty$$

Home Study. Determine  $\lim_{n\to\infty}\int_0^1 (x^2+0.1)^n dx$ . Ans  $\infty$ 

## Another limit involving an integral

\*\* Eg. Let 
$$a_n = \int_0^{\pi/2} \frac{\sin^n x}{x} dx$$
. Determine  $\lim_{n \to \infty} a_n$ . Observations:

Observations:

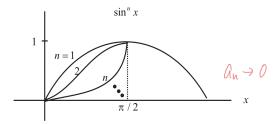
① It is not so easy to calculate the integral explicitly.

(Hint: show first that 
$$a_n = \frac{n-1}{n} a_{n-2}$$
)

2 The integral represents an area, so it helps to have some idea of how the curves  $\sin^n x$  look.

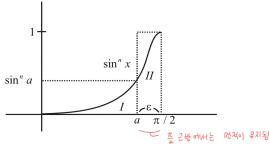
Since  $0 \le \sin x < 1$  on the interval  $0 \le x < \pi/2$ , we get  $\sin^n x \to 0$ .

Thus as n increases, the successive curves get closer and closer to the x - axis, except at the right point  $x = \pi/2$ 



The area under the curve seems to get small, as n increases, so the limit should be 0.

How do we prove this?



Given (small)  $\varepsilon > 0$ , let  $a = \pi/2 - \varepsilon$ .

Obviously, 
$$\frac{\operatorname{area}(II)}{\operatorname{area}(II)} = \int_{a}^{\pi/2} \sin^{n} x \, dx < \varepsilon$$
 (for every  $n \ge 1$ )

On the other hand,  $\sin^n a < \varepsilon$  for  $n \gg 1$  since  $|\sin a| < 1$  (:  $a < \pi/2$ )

$$\therefore \quad \overline{\operatorname{area}(I)} < a \cdot \sin^n a \le \frac{\pi}{2} \sin^n a < \frac{\pi}{2} \varepsilon < 2\varepsilon \quad \text{ for } n \gg 1$$

$$\therefore \int_0^{\pi/2} \sin^n x \, dx = \text{total area under the curve}$$
$$= \frac{\text{area}(I) + \text{area}(II)}{2\pi} < \frac{\varepsilon + 2\varepsilon}{2} = \frac{3\varepsilon}{3\varepsilon} \quad \text{for } n \gg 1$$

Thus by 
$$K-\varepsilon$$
 principle,  $\lim_{n\to\infty}\int_0^{\pi/2}\sin^nx\;dx=0$ 

Ex. Let 
$$a_n = \int_0^{\pi/2} e^{-n\sin\theta} \ d\theta$$
. Show that  $\lim_{n\to\infty} a_n = 0$ .

Observation:

Troublesome: We do not know the primitive of the integrand  $e^{-n\sin\theta}$ 

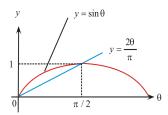
Expect:

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} \int_0^{\pi/2} e^{-n \sin \theta} d\theta \stackrel{??}{=} \int_0^{\pi/2} \lim_{n \to \infty} e^{-n \sin \theta} d\theta = \int_0^{\pi/2} \begin{cases} e^{-\infty} = 0 & \text{if } 0 < \theta \le \pi/2 \\ 1 & \text{if } \theta = 0 \end{cases} d\theta = 0$$

To attack this problem, we need

Jordan's inequality: 
$$\frac{2\theta}{\pi} \le \sin\theta \ (\le \theta)$$
 for  $0 \le \theta \le \pi/2$ 

(Geometric) Pf of the Jordan's inequality: See the figure below



Pf of Ex.

$$0 \le \int_0^{\pi/2} e^{-n\sin\theta} \ d\theta \qquad \le \int_0^{\pi/2} e^{-n\sin\theta} \ d\theta \qquad = \left[ \frac{e^{-\frac{2n\theta}{\pi}}}{-\frac{2n}{\pi}} \right]_{\theta=0}^{\theta=\pi/2}$$

$$= \frac{1}{\frac{2n}{\pi}} \left( 1 - e^{-n} \right) = \frac{\pi}{2n} \left( 1 - e^{-n} \right) \le \frac{\pi}{2n} \to 0 \text{ as } n \to \infty$$

Consequently,

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} \int_0^{\pi/2} e^{-n\sin\theta} d\theta = 0.$$

Remark. The same argument shows that

$$\lim_{R \to \infty} \int_0^{\pi/2} e^{-aR\sin\theta} d\theta \ (a > 0) = 0.$$

**Home Study**. Give an alternative proof of  $\lim_{n\to\infty}\int_0^{\pi/2}\sin^n x\,dx=0$ 

Hint: 
$$a_n := \int_0^{\pi/2} \sin^n x \, dx \implies a_n = \frac{n-1}{n} a_{n-2}$$