

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

$$1.1, 0.9, 1.01, 0.99, 1.001, 0.999, \dots$$

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 a_n is L ” 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

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

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

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

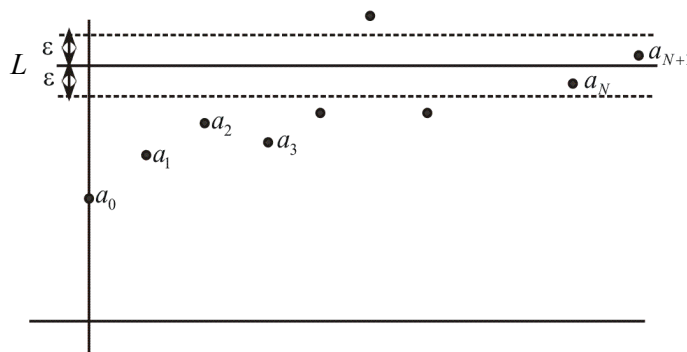
$$\text{i.e., given } \varepsilon > 0, \quad \exists \text{ a number } N = N(\varepsilon) \text{ s.t. } |a_n - L| < \varepsilon \quad \text{for } n \geq N$$

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

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

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 $(a_n)_{n \geq N}$ lie in the strip above

Remember that

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = L \text{ (a real number)} \quad \text{if} \quad \text{given } \varepsilon > 0, \quad a_n \underset{\varepsilon}{\approx} L \quad \text{for } n \gg 1$$

Note:

$$(i) \quad a_n \underset{\varepsilon}{\approx} L \quad (a_n \text{ approximates } L \text{ to within } \varepsilon)$$

$$(ii) \quad a_n \underset{\varepsilon}{\approx} L \quad \text{for } n \gg 1 \quad (\text{the approximation holds for all } a_n \text{ far enough out in the sequence})$$

$$(iii) \quad \text{given } \varepsilon > 0, \quad a_n \underset{\varepsilon}{\approx} L \quad \text{for } n \gg 1$$

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

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

Pf. We must show:

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

$$\left| \frac{n-1}{n+1} - 1 \right| = \left| \frac{-2}{n+1} \right| = \frac{2}{n+1} < \varepsilon \quad \text{if } n+1 > \frac{2}{\varepsilon}$$

i.e., if $n > \frac{2}{\varepsilon} - 1 \stackrel{\text{take}}{=} : N(\text{depends on } \varepsilon)$

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 ε : In general, the smaller ε is, the bigger N is.

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

$$\text{for all } \varepsilon > 0, \quad \text{for any } \varepsilon > 0, \quad \text{for every } \varepsilon > 0, \quad \text{for each } \varepsilon > 0, \\ \text{given any } \varepsilon > 0$$

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

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

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

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

$$\text{i.e., if } n > \frac{1}{4\varepsilon^2} \equiv N$$

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 $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n$ makes sense.

Theorem A (Uniqueness theorem for limits)

A seq (a_n) has at most one limit:

$$a_n \rightarrow L \quad \text{and} \quad a_n \rightarrow L' \quad \Rightarrow \quad L = L'$$

Pf. By hypothesis,

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

&

$$a_n \underset{\varepsilon}{\approx} L' \quad \text{for } n \gg 1$$

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

$$L \underset{\varepsilon}{\approx} a_k \underset{\varepsilon}{\approx} L'$$

By the transitive law of “ \approx ”, it follows that

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

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

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

$$\begin{aligned} |L - L'| &< 2\varepsilon \quad \text{by } (*) \\ \text{i.e., } |L - L'| &< |L - L'| \quad \otimes \end{aligned}$$

Theorem B

$$\begin{aligned} (a_n) \text{ is inc } \& \ L = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n \quad \Rightarrow \quad a_n \leq L \quad \text{for all } n \\ (a_n) \text{ is dec } \& \ L = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n \quad \Rightarrow \quad a_n \geq L \quad \text{for all } n \end{aligned}$$

Pf. We will prove the 1st 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 $a_n - L \geq a_N - L > \varepsilon$ for all $n \geq N$;

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

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

◆ The $K - \varepsilon$ principle.

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

$$\text{Sol.} \quad \left| \frac{1}{n} + \frac{\sin n}{n+1} \right| \leq \frac{1}{n} + \frac{|\sin n|}{n+1} \leq \frac{1}{n} + \frac{1}{n+1}$$

So, given $\varepsilon > 0$,

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

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

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

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

Since $2\varepsilon' = \varepsilon$,

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

“Conclusion”

The $K - \varepsilon$ principle

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

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

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

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

3.3 Infinite limits

Even though ∞ 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 (∞) if

$$\text{given any } M > 0, \quad a_n > M \quad \text{for } n \gg 1.$$

(The N concealed in "for $n \gg 1$ " depends on M)

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

Eg A. Do the following seqs tend to ∞ ?

$$(i) \quad (a_n)_1^\infty = 1, 10, 2, 20, 3, 30, \dots, k, 10k, \dots$$

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

Sol (i)

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

\therefore given $M > 0$, $\ln n > \ln(e^M) = M$ if $n > e^M$

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

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

Ans to (i): Given $M > 0$, $a_n < -M$ for $n \gg 1$

3.4 An important limit

Theorem

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

Pf. The case $a > 1$;

$a > 1 \Rightarrow$ we can write $a = 1 + k (k > 0)$

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

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

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

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

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

The case $|a| < 1$;

$$|a| < 1 \Rightarrow \frac{1}{|a|} > 1 \stackrel{\text{case 1}}{\Rightarrow} \left(\frac{1}{|a|}\right)^n \rightarrow \infty$$

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

$$\text{i.e., given } \varepsilon > 0, \quad |a^n| < \varepsilon \quad \text{for } n \gg 1$$

$$\therefore a^n \rightarrow 0$$

3.5 Writing limit proofs

Wrong

$$a_n \rightarrow 0 \quad \text{for } n \gg 1$$

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} 2^n = \infty \quad \text{for } n \gg 1$$

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{n} = 0 \quad \text{if } n > \frac{1}{\varepsilon}$$

Right

$$a_n \rightarrow 0 \quad \text{as } n \rightarrow \infty$$

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} 2^n = \infty$$

$$\frac{1}{n} \approx \frac{1}{\varepsilon} \approx 0 \quad \text{if } n > \frac{1}{\varepsilon}$$

⊙ ‘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 $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = \infty$

(참고: 적분을 직접 계산하는 것은 복잡하므로 다른 전략이 요구됨)

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

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

$$\therefore \int_0^1 (x^2 + 2)^n dx \geq \int_0^1 2^n dx = 2^n \rightarrow \infty \quad \text{as } n \rightarrow \infty$$

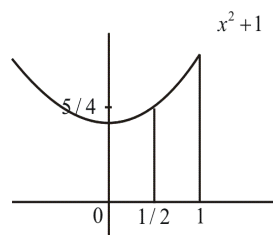
$$\therefore \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \int_0^1 (x^2 + 2)^n dx = \infty$$

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

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

Pf. The previous argument gives the estimate $(x^2 + 1)^n \geq 1^n = 1$ 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 $[0, 1]$, $x^2 + 1 \geq A > 1$ for $\frac{1}{2} \leq x \leq 1$

$$\therefore (x^2 + 1)^n \geq A^n \quad \text{for } \frac{1}{2} \leq x \leq 1$$

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

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

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

3.7 Another limit involving an integral

※ Eg. Let $a_n = \int_0^{\pi/2} \sin^n x \, dx$. Determine $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n$

Observations:

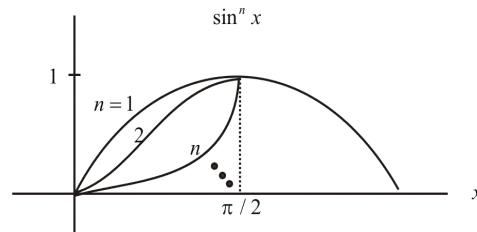
① It is not so easy to calculate the integral explicitly.

(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.

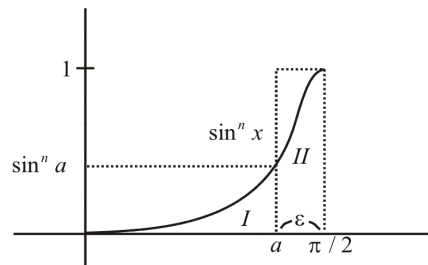
Since $0 \leq \sin x < 1$ on the interval $0 \leq x < \pi/2$, we get $\sin^n x \rightarrow 0$.

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, $\text{area}(II) = \int_a^{\pi/2} \sin^n x \, dx < \varepsilon$ (for every $n \geq 1$)

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

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

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

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

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

Observation:

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

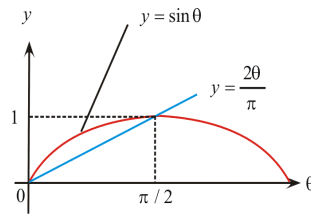
Expect:

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

To attack this problem, we need

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

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



Pf of Ex.

$$\begin{aligned} 0 \leq \int_0^{\pi/2} e^{-n \sin \theta} d\theta &\stackrel{\text{Jordan's inequality}}{\leq} \int_0^{\pi/2} e^{-\frac{2n\theta}{\pi}} d\theta = \left[\frac{e^{-\frac{2n\theta}{\pi}}}{-\frac{2n}{\pi}} \right]_{\theta=0}^{\theta=\pi/2} \\ &= \frac{1}{\frac{2n}{\pi}} (1 - e^{-n}) = \frac{\pi}{2n} (1 - e^{-n}) \leq \frac{\pi}{2n} \rightarrow 0 \text{ as } n \rightarrow \infty \end{aligned}$$

Consequently,

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

Remark. The same argument shows that

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

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

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