

MA-142

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1 Lecture 1 - Sequence and limits

The principle aim for this section of the module is to determine what we mean when we make a statement such as

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

The reason we want to be able to determine what this means all of calculus including the definitions of the derivative and the integral are built upon this so in order to formally define those we must start on our limits

1.1 Sequences

Definition 1. A sequence is an ordered list of numbers (a_1, a_2, a_3, \dots) or $(a_n : n \geq 1)$

A sequence has multiple properties that we may discuss. Sequences may be either oscillating increasing or decreasing. Further we can say it is strictly increasing/decreasing if strict inequalities are used. Sequences can also have upper and lower bounds. These are values that we know every element in the sequence will be either lesser or greater than. Finally some sequences have expressions which allow you to compute the n th of the sequence.

Example 1. The sequence $(1, 1 - \frac{1}{2}, 1 - \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{3}, \dots)$ is an oscillating sequence it has an upper bound of 1 and a lower bound of $\frac{1}{2}$. this sequence also has a formula for its n th term given as $a_n = \sum_{k=1}^n (-1)^{k+1} \frac{1}{k}$

1.2 Limits

Definition 2. a sequence $(a_n : n \geq 1)$ can be said to converge to a limit L if: For all $\epsilon > 0$, There exist an N such that For all $n \geq N$, $|a_n - L| < \epsilon$

Definition 3. If a sequence (a_n) does not converge to a limit we may say it diverges

Definition 4. A sequence (a_n) can be said to diverge to ∞ if: For all C , There exists an N such that For all $n \geq N$, $a_n > C$

Proposition 1. *Let the sequence (a_n) be given by \sqrt{n} show that this sequence has limit ∞*

Proof. Fix $C > 0$. Then we choose N to be the first integer strictly greater than C^2 . This means we have for an $n \geq N$

$$n \geq N > C^2$$

$$\sqrt{n} > C$$

□

Proposition 2. *Let the sequence (a_n) be defined by $a_n = \frac{n-1}{n}$ Show that this sequence converges to 1*

Proof. Fix $\varepsilon > 0$. Let N be the first integer strictly greater than $\frac{1}{\varepsilon}$. It is known that $|a_n - 1| = \frac{1}{n}$. Then we have for an $n \geq N$

$$|a_n - 1| = \frac{1}{n} \leq \frac{1}{N} < \varepsilon$$

□

Proposition 3. *let the sequence (a_n) be defined by $a_n = 2n^5 - n$. Show this sequence diverges to ∞*

This problem here is harder to do so lets introduce a tool that lets us solve this more easily.

Lemma 1. *Comparison Lemma for Divergence: Given two sequences $(a_n : n \geq 1)$, $(b_n : n \geq 1)$ and the fact $b_n \rightarrow \infty$ and that for all n , $a_n \geq b_n$ then we may also say that $a_n \rightarrow \infty$*

Now we can attempt to prove the proposition

Proof. Let the sequence (b_n) be defined by $b_n = n$. We can say that for all n $a_n \geq b_n$. We also know that n diverges to ∞ . By the comparison lemma we now know that a_n diverges to ∞ □

2 Lecture 2 - Algebra of limits

2.1 Arithmetic Combinations

When we have two sequences a_n and b_n where we know that both of these converge to limits A and B respectively we can use arithmetic operation to combine these and form new limits.

1. Sum rule: $a_n + b_n \rightarrow A + B$
2. Product rule: $a_n b_n \rightarrow AB$

3. Quotient rule: Provided for all n that $b_n \neq 0$ and $B \neq 0$ then $\frac{a_n}{b_n} \rightarrow \frac{A}{B}$

Proposition 4.

$$a_n = \frac{n^4 - n}{(2n^2 + n + 1)^2} \rightarrow \frac{1}{4}$$

Proof. It is known that $\frac{1}{n} \rightarrow 0$. therefor by application of the prodcut rule we can say both $\frac{1}{n^2}$ and $\frac{1}{n^3}$ converge on 0. We can also by simple rearranging say.

$$a_n = \frac{1 - \frac{1}{n^3}}{(2 + \frac{1}{n} + \frac{1}{n^2})^2}$$

By application of both the sum and quotient rules we can say that

$$a_n \rightarrow \frac{1}{2^2} = \frac{1}{4}$$

□

2.2 Squeeze theorem

Proposition 5. *Squeeze theorem: Suppose you have three sequences a_n, b_n, c_n such that for all n we know that $a_n \leq b_n \leq c_n$ and $a_n \rightarrow L, c_n \rightarrow L$. We may say that $b_n \rightarrow L$*

Proof. Fix $\varepsilon > 0$. As we know both a_n and c_n converge we can say there are two numbers N_a, N_c such that both of these sequences are within ε of L . We can then define $N = \max(N_a, N_c)$. As such we can say for any $n \geq N$

$$L - \varepsilon \leq a_n \leq b_n \leq c_n \leq L + \varepsilon$$

$$|c_n - L| \leq \varepsilon$$

□

An occasionally useful lemma is given below

Lemma 2. *Triangle inequality: $|x + y| \leq |x| + |y|$*

3 Lecture 3 - More Techniques and tools

3.1 Contradictions

One of the more useful proof techniques you will encounter is the proof by contradiction. this works by making the assumption that $\neg P$ which is the negation of the aim P is true. By showing that $\neg P$ leads to contradiction we can conclude $\neg \neg P$ which is equivalent to P . This works in classical logic which most mathematicians use though sometimes you may find yourself in a situation where the law of excluded middle is not assumed and as such double negation elimination does not hold and as such poof by contradiction cannot be done. This is especially useful when proving divergence as this is essentially showing that it cannot converge.

Proposition 6. *The series $(a_n) = (1, -1, 1, -1, \dots)$ does not converge.*

Proof. Suppose that $a_n \rightarrow A$. As such we can say for $\varepsilon = \frac{1}{2}$ that there exists an N such that for all $n \geq N$

$$A - \frac{1}{2} \leq (-1)^n \leq A + \frac{1}{2}$$

$$A - \frac{1}{2} \leq (-1)^{n+1} \leq A + \frac{1}{2}$$

Where these expressions are for a_n, a_{n+1} respectively.

We also have the fact that as the sequence oscillates between ± 1 we can say $|a_n - a_{n+1}| = 2$ But from the inequalities above we also can say that $|a_n - a_{n+1}| \leq 1$. Both can't be true so we arrive at a contradiction so $a_n \not\rightarrow A$ \square

3.2 Special Cases

Sometimes certain proofs are made easier by first considering a special Cases

Proposition 7. *Suppose $a_n \rightarrow A, b_n \rightarrow B$ and $a_n \leq b_n$ then we may say that $A \leq B$*

Proof. • First let's consider the special case that $b_n = 0$ so therefore we have $a_n \rightarrow A, a_n \leq 0$

Suppose by contradiction that $A > 0$. then there exists an N such that for all $n \geq N, A - \varepsilon < a_n$ if we let $\varepsilon < A$ then $0 < a_n$ which is a contradiction so $A \leq 0$

- In general we can say that $a_n - b_n \rightarrow A - B$ and that $a_n - b_n \leq 0$ so by the special case we can say $A - B \leq 0$ so therefore $A \leq B$ \square

3.3 Useful Lemmas

Lemma 3. *Power Lemma : As $n \rightarrow \infty$*

$$x^n = \begin{cases} \infty & x > 1 \\ 1 & x = 1 \\ 0 & 0 \leq x < 1 \end{cases}$$

Lemma 4. *Root Lemma : As $n \rightarrow \infty$*

$$x^{\frac{1}{n}} = \begin{cases} 1 & x > 0 \\ 0 & x = 0 \end{cases}$$

Here is how this can occasionally be useful

Proposition 8. $(2^n + 3^n)^{\frac{1}{n}} \rightarrow 3$

Proof. We can say that

$$3 \leq (2^n + 3^n)^{\frac{1}{n}} \leq (3^n + 3^n)^{\frac{1}{n}} = 2^{\frac{1}{n}} \times 3$$

So therefore by the root lemma and squeeze theorem we may say this converges to 3 \square

We will now attempt a proof of the power Lemme

Proof. This proof will be done in 4 Cases

1. $x > 1$ therefore $x = 1 + h, h > 0$

$$x^n = (1 + h)^n = 1 + nh + \dots + h^n$$

$$x^n \geq nh$$

Therefore by the comparison lemma for this case $x^n \rightarrow \infty$

2. $x = 1$ This is a trivial case

3. $0 < x < 1$. Let $y = \frac{1}{x}$ therefore we can say $x^n = (\frac{1}{y})^n$.

By case 1 we can say $y^n \rightarrow \infty$. By the Quotient lemma for diverging sequences we may say then that $x^n \rightarrow 0$

4. $x = 0$ this case is trivial

\square

Here we used a lemma we have not yet proved so let us prove it

Lemma 5. *Quotient Lemme for diverging seueneces. If $a_n \rightarrow \infty$ then $\frac{1}{a_n} \rightarrow 0$*

Proof. Fix $\varepsilon > 0$ and let $C = \frac{1}{\varepsilon}$. Since $a_n \rightarrow \infty$ there is an N such that for all $n \geq N, a_n \geq C = \frac{1}{\varepsilon}$. Therefore $|\frac{1}{a_n}| < \varepsilon$ \square

We can also prove the root lemma similaryl

Proof. Let $a_n = x^{\frac{1}{n}} - 1$. this transofrms our aim to showing $a_n \rightarrow 0$

1. First lets consider the case of $x \geq 1$. this means that for all n $a_n \geq 0$

$$x^{\frac{1}{n}} = 1 + a_n$$

$$x = (1 + a_n)^n = 1 + na_n + \dots \geq na_n$$

$$0 \leq a_n \leq \frac{x}{n}$$

Therefore by the squeeze theorem $a_n \rightarrow 0$

2. In the case that $0 < x < 1$ we can say that the same $a_n \leq 0$. by applying the given steps previously we get the inequality

$$\frac{x}{n} \leq a_n \leq 0$$

To whcih we can apply the comparison lemma

\square

4 Lecture 5 - Chapter 2 Start

Aim : Show a sequences $(a_n : n \leq 1)$ converges when we dont know what the limit is. A reason we may want to do this is to prove newton raphson converges on a root where we dont necessarily know what the limit is as we are trying to find the root. This may be better when $|f''|$ is small.. This has a sequence

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

You also have Iterated function algorithms where you transform an equation into the form $f(r) = r$ and solve for the intersection of the original line. This is as you would generally see with staircase and cobweb diagrams. This is better when $f'(r)$ is small

$$a_{n+1} = f(a_n)$$

When using such algorithms we dont know what the root is but we still want to be able to say it converges.

Definition 5. A least upper bound is a number $U \in \mathbb{R}$ such that

1. For all $n, a_n \leq U$
2. For all upper bounds $U', U < U'$

Theorem. Weierstrass theorem/criterion. Suppose you know that a_n is increasing and that you know that a_n is bounded above (there exist a U such that for all $n, a_n \leq U$) then there exist a limit L such that $a_n \rightarrow L$

Proof. We can make a guess that the limit A is the least upper bound of a_n

Fix $\epsilon > 0$. As L is an upperbound $a_n \leq A \leq A + \epsilon$.

If there exists an N such that $a_N \geq A - \epsilon$ then for all $n \geq N, a_n \geq A - \epsilon$ as a_n is increasing.

Now we need to prove there is such an N . Suppose by contradiction there is no such N . Then for all $n, a_n \leq A - \epsilon$ which would make $A - \epsilon$ an upper bound less than the least upper bound leading to a contradiction.

As such we have such an N such that for all $n \geq N, a_n \geq A - \epsilon$. combining the two inequalities. For all $n \geq N$

$$A - \epsilon \leq a_n \leq A + \epsilon$$

□

All of this requires the existence of \mathbb{R} . Removing the irrational numbers leads to there potentially not being a least upperbound as there can be gaps in the number line. Very roughly the completeness axiom says that least upper bounds exist in \mathbb{R} or that the real line has no holes as opposed to \mathbb{Q} . This is very roughly because in \mathbb{Q} for any upper bound for a sequence for an irrationally limited sequence. This bound definitally cant be equal to this limit as it must be rational. So there is a nother rational lower bound inbetween these two. As such there can be no such least upper bound.

Example 2.

$$a_n = \left(1 + \frac{1}{n}\right)^n$$

We wish to aim that there exists a limit e by the criterion so we aim to show

1. a_n is increasing
2. a_n is bounded by 3

Proof. We have 2 goals

1. By the binomial expansion

$$a_n = \sum_{k=0}^n \binom{n}{k} \frac{1}{n^k}$$

$$a_{n+1} = \sum_{k=0}^{n+1} \binom{n+1}{k} \frac{1}{(n+1)^k}$$

The second sequence has one extra positive term but we also need to show

$$\binom{n}{k} \frac{1}{n^k} \leq \binom{n+1}{k} \frac{1}{(n+1)^k}$$

By expanding the sides

$$\frac{n(n-1)(n-2)\cdots(n-k+1)}{n \cdots n} \frac{1}{k!}$$

THIS IS INCOMPLETE PLEASE COMPLETE

2. We will do the binomial expansion again

$$a_n = \sum_{k=0}^n \binom{n}{k} \frac{1}{n^k}$$

$$\leq 1 + 1 + \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{3!} + \cdots + \frac{1}{n!}$$

$$\leq 1 + 1 + \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2^2} + \cdots + \frac{1}{2^{k-1}}$$

$$= 1 + \left(\frac{1 - \frac{1}{2^n}}{1 - \frac{1}{2}} \right)$$

$$\leq 3$$

□

As such we can say

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

5 Lecture 6

5.1 Bounds on Sets

Definition 6. For a set $A \subseteq \mathbb{R}$. U is an upper bound if for all $a \in A, a \leq U$

Definition 7. For a set $A \subseteq \mathbb{R}$. L is a lower bound if for all $a \in A, a \geq L$

Definition 8. For a set $A \subseteq \mathbb{R}$. $\sup(A)$ is the least upper bound meaning that it is an upper bound and for any other upper bound $U, \sup(A) \leq U$

Definition 9. For a set $A \subseteq \mathbb{R}$. $\inf(A)$ is the greatest lower bound meaning that it is a lower bound and for any other lower bound $L, \inf(A) \geq L$

$\inf(A)$ is said the "infimum of A" and $\sup(A)$ is said the "supremum of A".

You may consider the supremum to be the maximum but consider the interval $[0, x)$. This set has no maximum element but $\sup([0, x)) = x$. This can't be the maximum as $x \notin [0, x)$

5.2 Interlude - Convergence speed on e

Consider two sequences

$$a_n = \left(1 + \frac{1}{n}\right)^n$$
$$b_n = \left(1 + \frac{1}{n}\right)^{n+1}$$

Both of these converge to e but from either side so we can investigate error bounds

$$|a_n - b_n| = \left(1 + \frac{1}{n}\right) \left(\frac{1}{n}\right)$$
$$\leq \frac{e}{n}$$

Which is slow

5.3 Completeness

Axiom. Completeness (U.K.) : Any set $A \subseteq \mathbb{R}$ that is non empty and bounded above has a supremum.

Axiom. Completeness (RU) : Suppose $A, B \subseteq \mathbb{R}$ and non empty and $a \leq b$ for all $a \in A, b \in B$ there exists $c \in \mathbb{R}$ with $a \leq c \leq b$ for all $a \in A, b \in B$

6 Lecture 7

We have the ability to declare when increasing and decreasing sequences converge (boundedness) by the Weierstrass convergence theorem. It would be nice to be able to do a similar thing for oscillating sequences. Such a property is the Cauchy property.

Definition 10. A sequence $(a_n : n \geq 1)$ has the Cauchy property if for all $\varepsilon > 0$ there is an $N \geq 1$ such that

$$|a_n - a_m| < \varepsilon, \text{ where } n, m \geq N$$

Ad this has a corresponding theorem relating to convergence

Theorem. *Cauchy's Criterion:* A sequence $(a_n : n \geq 1)$ has the Cauchy property if and only if it is convergent.

6.1 Contracting sequences

Definition 11. We may call a sequence contracting if $|a_{n+1} - a_n| \leq \gamma |a_n - a_{n-1}|$ where $|\gamma| < 1$

This is essentially saying that a sequence that is contracting has the difference between terms reduce geometrically. This allows us to say that $|a_{n+1} - a_n| = \gamma^{n-1} |a_2 - a_1|$ which is easily proven by induction. We can also make the following theorem

Theorem. A contracting sequence has the Cauchy property

Proof. By making use of the triangle inequality and the assumption $n > m$ we can rearrange as follows

$$\begin{aligned} |a_n - a_m| &= |a_n - a_{n-1} + a_{n-1} - a_m| \\ &\leq |a_n - a_{n-1}| + |a_{n-1} - a_m| \\ &\leq \dots \\ &\leq |a_n - a_{n-1}| + |a_{n-1} - a_{n-2}| + \dots + |a_{m+1} - a_m| \end{aligned}$$

Substituting in the geometric relation we have above

$$|a_n - a_{n-1}| = |a_2 - a_1|(\gamma^{n-2} + \dots + \gamma^{m-1}) = |a_2 - a_1| \frac{\gamma^{m-1}}{1 - \gamma}$$

As we let $m \rightarrow \infty$ The entire expression tends towards zero because $\gamma^m \rightarrow 0$. So given any epsilon we may choose an M such that the expression is less than epsilon from the fact it converges on zero. \square

Checking for contraction is often easier than directly checking for Cauchy's property.

7 Lecture 8

This contraction property can be used for checking if IFS sequences may converge. Given a sequence $a_{n+1} = f(a_n)$. We may then say

$$a_{n+1} - a_n = f(a_n) - f(a_{n-1}) = \int_{a_{n-1}}^{a_n} f'(t) dt \leq (\max f') |a_n - a_{n-1}|$$

This tells us it only converges if the gradient less than one by the root.

7.1 The Cauchy Property

Now we will attempt to prove the cauchy property.

Proof. The cauchy is an if and only if statement so we will start by proving the "Convergence implies Cauchy direction.

Suppose a sequence $(a_n : n \geq 1)$ converges. Let us fix $\varepsilon > 0$. This means we know that there is an N such that for all $n, m \geq N$, $|a_n - a_m| < 0.5\varepsilon$

$$\begin{aligned} |a_n - a_m| &= |a_n - A + A - a_m| \\ &\leq |a_n - A| + |A - a_m| \\ &\leq \varepsilon \end{aligned}$$

□

Proof. The next step is to show the cauchy property implies convergence. We will do this in 3 steps. Assuming (a_n) has the cauchy property we start by showing it is bounded then we will guess the limit and then prove this is in fact the limit.

We will choose N such that for all $n, m > N$, $|a_n - a_m| < 1$. So all these terms are at most one away from a_N so the tail. This tells us that the long term behaviour for (a_n) is to be bounded.

We can define upper and lower as follows

$$U_n = \sup a_n, a_{n+1}, \dots$$

$$L_n = \inf a_n, a_{n+1}, \dots$$

We know that U_n is decreasing and L_n is increasing due to the fact that terms are only leaving the sequences. As the sequence a_n is bounded both of these have limits by the Weierstrass theorem

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} U_n = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sup_{k \geq n} a_k = A$$

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} L_n = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \inf_{k \geq n} a_k = B$$

□

Definition 12. A subsequence of (a_n) is a sequence $(a_{N_1}, a_{N_2}, \text{dots})$ such that $1 \leq N_1 \leq N_2$

Theorem. Bolzano Weierstrass every bounded sequence (a_n) has a convergent subsequence.

We can use this theorem to construct a faster proof of the Cauchy Criterion (only the showing convergence direction)

Proof. Assume (a_n) has the Cauchy property

The proof that it is bounded is the same as before.

This means that by BW there exists a limit $\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} a_{N_k} = A$. Now we want to aim to show that this is the limit. Now we fix $\varepsilon > 0$ and select an N such that $n, m > N, |a_n - a_m| < \varepsilon$. As the subsequence converges we know that there is a K such that for $k > K, |A - a_{n_k}| < \varepsilon$. Taking $M = \max(N, n_K)$ \square