The real numbers has the **completeness property**: If a non-empty set of real numbers is bounded above, then there exists a least upper bound; if a non-empty set of real numbers is bounded below, then there exists a greatest lower bound.

Definition: The sequence $\{a_n\}$ converges to the number L if for every positive number ε there exists an integer N such that for all n,

if
$$n > N$$
 then $|a_n - L| < \varepsilon$.

If no such number L exists, we say $\{a_n\}$ diverges.

If $\{a_n\}$ converges to L, we write $\lim_{n\to\infty} a_n = L$ or $a_n \to L$ and call L the **limit** of the sequence.

Notice that $|a_n - L| < \varepsilon$ and $|L - \varepsilon < a_n < L + \varepsilon|$ are equivalent statements.

Theorem 1. Convergent sequences have unique limits: if $\{a_n\}$ is a sequence with $\lim_{n \to \infty} a_n = A$ and $\lim_{n \to \infty} a_n = B$, then A = B.

Proof: Suppose for a contradiction that a sequence a_n converges to two different numbers A and B. The basic idea here is that if ε is selected to be small enough, then the ε neighborhood of A will be disjoint of the ε neighborhood of B and so a_n can not be in both intervals.



Suppose that $A \neq B$. We may assume that A < B. (Otherwise just re-label them so that the larger number is denoted by B.) Define $\varepsilon = \frac{B-A}{2}$. Since $\{a_n\}$ converges to A, there exists N_A so that for all $n > N_A$,

$$A - \varepsilon < a_n < A + \varepsilon$$

Similarly, since $\{a_n\}$ converges to B, there exists N_B so that for all $n > N_B$,

$$B - \varepsilon < a_n < B + \varepsilon$$

Now let $n > \max(N_A, N_B)$, so both conditions hold. Then

$$A - \varepsilon < a_n < A + \varepsilon$$
 and $B - \varepsilon < a_n < B + \varepsilon$

We will only need the right-hand side of the first inequality and the left-hand side of the other:

$$a_n < A + \varepsilon \text{ and } B - \varepsilon < a_n \text{ recall that } \varepsilon = \frac{B - A}{2}$$
$$a_n < A + \frac{B - A}{2} \text{ and } B - \frac{B - A}{2} < a_n$$
$$a_n < \frac{2A}{2} + \frac{B - A}{2} \text{ and } \frac{2B}{2} - \frac{B - A}{2} < a_n$$
$$a_n < \frac{2A + B - A}{2} \text{ and } \frac{2B - B + A}{2} < a_n$$
$$a_n < \frac{A + B}{2} \text{ and } \frac{A + B}{2} < a_n$$

These two can not be true at the same time. This is a contradiction, so $A \neq B$ is impossible. This completes our proof.

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In the following, we will prove properties of limits that enable us to compute limits based on other limits.

Theorem 2. (Sum Rule) Let $\{a_n\}$ and $\{b_n\}$ be sequences of real numbers. Suppose that A and B are real numbers such that $\lim_{n \to \infty} a_n = A$ and $\lim_{n \to \infty} b_n = B$. Then $\lim_{n \to \infty} (a_n + b_n) = A + B$.

Proof: Suppose that A and B are real numbers such that $\lim_{n \to \infty} a_n = A$ and $\lim_{n \to \infty} b_n = B$. Let $\varepsilon > 0$ be given. There exist N_a and N_b natural numbers such that for all $n > N_a$,

$$A - \frac{\varepsilon}{2} < a_n < A + \frac{\varepsilon}{2}$$

and for all $k > N_b$,

$$B - \frac{\varepsilon}{2} < b_k < B + \frac{\varepsilon}{2}$$

Let $N = \max(N_a, N_b)$. If n > N, then

$$A - \frac{\varepsilon}{2} < a_n < A + \frac{\varepsilon}{2}$$
 and $B - \frac{\varepsilon}{2} < b_n < B + \frac{\varepsilon}{2}$

Adding these two inequalities we obtain

$$A - \frac{\varepsilon}{2} + B - \frac{\varepsilon}{2} < a_n + b_n < A + \frac{\varepsilon}{2} + B + \frac{\varepsilon}{2}$$
$$A + B - \varepsilon < a_n + b_n < A + B + \varepsilon$$

Thus $a_n + b_n$ converges to A + B.

Example 1.

a)
$$\lim_{n \to \infty} \left(2 + \frac{1}{n}\right) = \lim_{n \to \infty} 2 + \lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{1}{n} = 2 + 0 = 2$$

b) $\lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{3n+1}{n} = \lim_{n \to \infty} \left(\frac{3n}{n} + \frac{1}{n}\right) = \lim_{n \to \infty} \left(3 + \frac{1}{n}\right) = \lim_{n \to \infty} 3 + \lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{1}{n} = 3 + 0 = 3$

Theorem 3. (Difference Rule) Let $\{a_n\}$ and $\{b_n\}$ be sequences of real numbers. Suppose that A and B are real numbers such that $\lim_{n \to \infty} a_n = A$ and $\lim_{n \to \infty} b_n = B$. Then $\lim_{n \to \infty} (a_n - b_n) = A - B$.

Proof: Suppose that A and B are real numbers such that $\lim_{n \to \infty} a_n = A$ and $\lim_{n \to \infty} b_n = B$. Let $\varepsilon > 0$ be given. There exist N_a and N_b natural numbers such that for all $n > N_a$,

$$A - \frac{\varepsilon}{2} < a_n < A + \frac{\varepsilon}{2}$$

and for all $k > N_b$,

$$B - \frac{\varepsilon}{2} < b_k < B + \frac{\varepsilon}{2}$$

Multiply all sides by -1.

We turn the inequality around:

$$-B + \frac{\varepsilon}{2} > -b_k > -B - \frac{\varepsilon}{2}$$
$$-B - \frac{\varepsilon}{2} < -b_k < -B + \frac{\varepsilon}{2}$$

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page 3

Let $N = \max(N_a, N_b)$. If n > N, then

$$A - \frac{\varepsilon}{2} < a_n < A + \frac{\varepsilon}{2}$$
 and $-B - \frac{\varepsilon}{2} < -b_n < -B + \frac{\varepsilon}{2}$

Adding these two inequalities we obtain

$$A - \frac{\varepsilon}{2} + (-B) - \frac{\varepsilon}{2} < a_n + (-b_n) < A + \frac{\varepsilon}{2} + (-B) + \frac{\varepsilon}{2}$$
$$A - B - \varepsilon < a_n - b_n < A - B + \varepsilon$$

Thus $a_n - b_n$ converges to A - B.

Theorem 4. (Constant Multiple Rule) Let $\{a_n\}$ be a sequence of real numbers and c a real number. Suppose that $\lim_{n \to \infty} a_n = A$. Then $\lim_{n \to \infty} (ca_n) = cA$.

Proof: Case 1. Suppose that c = 0. Then ca_n is a constant sequence and its limit is clearly zero. Case 2. Suppose that $c \neq 0$. Let $\varepsilon > 0$ be given. Since $\lim_{n \to \infty} a_n = A$, there exists N > 0 so that for all n > N,

 $|a_n - A| < \frac{\varepsilon}{|c|} \qquad \text{mulitply by } |c|$ $|c| |a_n - A| < \varepsilon$ $|ca_n - cA| < \varepsilon$

and so $\lim_{n \to \infty} ca_n = cA$.

Theorem 5. (Product Rule) Let $\{a_n\}$ and $\{b_n\}$ be sequences of real numbers. Suppose that A and B are real numbers such that $\lim_{n \to \infty} a_n = A$ and $\lim_{n \to \infty} b_n = B$. Then $\lim_{n \to \infty} (a_n b_n) = AB$

Theorem 6. (Quotient Rule) Let $\{a_n\}$ and $\{b_n\}$ be sequences of real numbers. Suppose that A and $B \neq 0$ are real numbers such that $\lim_{n \to \infty} a_n = A$ and $\lim_{n \to \infty} b_n = B$. Then $\lim_{n \to \infty} \left(\frac{a_n}{b_n}\right) = \frac{A}{B}$.

Proving these theorems is more difficult. We will not cover it in this course.

Example 2.

a)
$$\lim_{n \to \infty} \left(-\frac{3}{n^2} \right) = -3 \lim_{n \to \infty} \left(\frac{1}{n} \cdot \frac{1}{n} \right) = -3 \lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{1}{n} \cdot \lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{1}{n} = -3 \cdot 0 \cdot 0 = 0$$

b)
$$\lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{3 - 2n^4}{7n^4 + 2} = \lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{\frac{3}{n^4} - 2}{7 + \frac{2}{n^4}} = \frac{\lim_{n \to \infty} \left(\frac{3}{n^4} - 2 \right)}{\lim_{n \to \infty} \left(7 + \frac{2}{n^4} \right)} = \frac{-2}{7} = -\frac{2}{7}$$

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Theorem 7. (The Sandwich Theorem for Sequences): Suppose that $\{a_n\}$, $\{b_n\}$, and $\{c_n\}$ are sequences with $\lim_{n\to\infty} a_n = \lim_{n\to\infty} c_n = L$. Suppose that there exists N positive integer such that for all n > N,

$$a_n \le b_n \le c_n$$

then b_n converges to L.

Proof: Suppose the conditions hold. Let $\varepsilon > 0$ be given. Since $\{a_n\}$ and $\{b_n\}$ are converge to L, there exist N_a and N_c such that when $n > N_a$, then

$$L - \varepsilon < a_n < L + \varepsilon$$

and when $n > N_c$, then

$$L - \varepsilon < c_n < L + \varepsilon$$

Let $N = \max(N_a, N_b)$. If n > N, then

$$L - \varepsilon < a_n \le b_n \le c_n < L + \varepsilon$$

and so $\{b_n\}$ converges to L.

Consequence: If $|b_n| \leq c_n$ and $c_n \to 0$, then $b_n \to 0$.

Example 3.

a)
$$\frac{\sin n}{n} \to 0$$
 since $-\frac{1}{n} \le \frac{\sin n}{n} \le \frac{1}{n}$ and $\frac{1}{n} \to 0$ and $-\frac{1}{n} \to 0$
b) $\frac{(-1)^n}{n^2} \to 0$ since $-\frac{1}{n^2} \le \frac{(-1)^n}{n^2} \le \frac{1}{n^2}$

Some sequences are defined **recursively**. Recursive definitions enable us to compute the first, second, third, ... *n*th term, but we cannot compute the nth term without first computing the first n - 1. The **Fibonacci sequence** is a perfect example for this.

Definition: The Fibonacci sequence is defined recursively as

$$F_1 = 1$$
, $F_2 = 1$, and for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$, $F_{n+2} = F_n + F_{n+1}$

The first few terms of the Fibonacci Sequence are 1, 1, 2, 3, 5, 8, 13, 21, 34, 55, 89, ... The explicit formula for the nth term of this sequence is a very interesting formula.

Definition: A sequence $\{a_n\}$ is **bounded from above** if there exists a number M such that $a_n \leq M$ for all n. The number M is called an **upper bound** for the sequence $\{a_n\}$. If M is an upper bound for $\{a_n\}$ but no number less than M is an upper bound for $\{a_n\}$, then M is the **least upper bound** for $\{a_n\}$.

A sequence $\{a_n\}$ is **bounded from below** if there exists a number m such that $a_n \ge m$ for all n. The number m is called a **lower bound** for the sequence $\{a_n\}$. If m is a lower bound for $\{a_n\}$ but no number greater than m is a lower bound for $\{a_n\}$, then m is the **greatest lower bound** for $\{a_n\}$.

If $\{a_n\}$ is bounded from above and from below, we say that $\{a_n\}$ is **bounded**. If $\{a_n\}$ is not bounded, we say that $\{a_n\}$ is an **unbounded** sequence.

- Example 4. a) The sequence $1, 4, 9, 16, \dots$ is bounded from below but not from above. 1 is the greatest lower bound for the sequence.
- b) The sequence $\frac{1}{2}, \frac{2}{3}, \frac{3}{4}, \dots, \frac{n}{n+1}$ is bounded. $\frac{1}{2}$ is the greatest lower bound and 1 is the lowest upper bound for this sequence

Theorem 8. If $\{a_n\}$ is convergent, then a_n is bounded.

proof: Suppose that $\{a_n\}$ is a convergent sequence and $a_n \to L$. Let $\varepsilon = 1$. There exists a natural number N such that for all n > N,

$$L - 1 < a_n < L + 1$$

Consider now the set $\{a_1, a_2, a_3, ..., a_N\}$. Since this is a finite set, it has a lowest and greatest element. Denote these by m and M, respectively. We claim that $\min(m, L-1)$ is a lower bound for the sequence $\{a_n\}$ and max (M, L+1) is an upper bound for the sequence.

Let a_k be any term of the sequence. If k > N, then $L - 1 < a_k < L + 1$ and so

$$\min(m, L-1) \le L - 1 < a_k < L + 1 \le \max(M, L+1)$$

and if $k \leq N$, then a_k is in the set $\{a_1, a_2, a_3, ..., a_N\}$ and so

 $\min\left(m, L-1\right) \le m < a_k < M \le \max\left(M, L+1\right)$

Definition: A sequence $\{a_n\}$ is **nondecreasing** if $a_n \leq a_{n+1}$ for all n. That is, $a_1 \leq a_2 \leq a_3 \leq \dots$ The sequence is nonincreasing if $a_n \ge a_{n+1}$ for all n. That is, $a_1 \ge a_2 \ge a_3 \ge ...$ The sequence $\{a_n\}$ is monotonic if it is either nondecreasing or nonincreasing.

Example 5. a) The sequence $1, \frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{3}, \frac{1}{4}, \dots$ is nonincreasing. b) the constant sequence 2, 2, 2, 3, ... is both nonincreasing and nondecreasing. c) the sequence $1, -\frac{1}{4}, \frac{1}{9}, -\frac{1}{16}, ...$ is not monotonic.

Theorem 9. If a sequence $\{a_n\}$ is bounded from above and non-decreasing, then it is also convergent. (Similarly, if a sequence is bounded from below and non-increasing, then it is convergent.)

proof: Suppose that $\{a_n\}$ is bounded and nondecreasing. Let L be the least upper bound for the sequence. Since L is an upper bound, $a_n \leq L$ for all n.

Let $\varepsilon > 0$ be given. Since L is the lowest upper bound, $L - \varepsilon$ is NOT an upper bound. This means that there exists m natural number such that $a_m > L - \varepsilon$. Since a_n is nondecreasing, all subsequent terms will have this property, i.e. for all n > m, $a_n \ge a_m > L - \varepsilon$. thus we have that for all n > m

$$L - \varepsilon < a_n \le L < L + \varepsilon$$

and so $L - \varepsilon < a_n < L + \varepsilon$ and so a_n converges to L. The proof for nonincreasing sequences is similar.

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