

## 3. Sequences and limits

### 3.1 Sequences

#### Definition 3.1.1

A sequence is a function whose domain is a subset of integers of the form  $\{N_0, N_0 + 1, N_0 + 2, \dots\}$  where  $N_0 \in \mathbb{N}$ . If we refer to this function as  $f$ , then  $f(n)$  is usually denoted  $a_n$  for  $n = N_0, N_0 + 1, N_0 + 2, \dots$ . The term  $a_n$  is called the  $n$ -th term of the sequence.

**R** We may write  $a_{N_0}, a_{N_0+1}, a_{N_0+2}, \dots$  or  $\{a_n\}_{n=N_0}^{\infty}$  or simply  $\{a_n\}$  if the starting value  $N_0$  is straightforward.

#### ■ Example 3.1

The sequence

$$1; \frac{1}{2}; \frac{1}{3}; \frac{1}{4}; \dots; \frac{1}{n}; \dots$$

can be denoted  $\{\frac{1}{n}\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$  or  $\{\frac{1}{n}\}$ .

#### ■ Example 3.2

The sequence

$$5; \frac{6}{2}; \frac{7}{3}; \frac{8}{4}; \dots$$

can be denoted  $\{\frac{n}{n-4}\}_{n=5}^{\infty}$ .

**R** The index  $n$  is a “dummy index” and can be replaced by any other letter, i.e.  $\{\frac{1}{n}\}_{n=1}^{\infty} = \{\frac{1}{k}\}_{k=1}^{\infty}$ .

**Definition 3.1.2**

The graph of a sequence  $\{a_n\}_{n=N_0}^{\infty}$  is the set of points of coordinates  $(n, a_n)$  in the Cartesian plane, where  $n = N_0, N_0 + 1, N_0 + 2, \dots$

The range of the sequence  $\{a_n\}_{n=N_0}^{\infty}$  is the range of the function  $f$  such that  $f(n) = a_n, n \geq N_0$ .

**Example 3.3**

Let  $a_n = \frac{n}{n-4}$  for  $n = 5, 6, 7, \dots$ . The graph of  $\{a_n\}_{n=5}^{\infty}$  is the set of points  $\{(5, 5), (6, 3), (7, 7/3), \dots\}$  and is represented in the Cartesian plane on the left of Figure 3.1 while the right plot shows the representation along the real line.

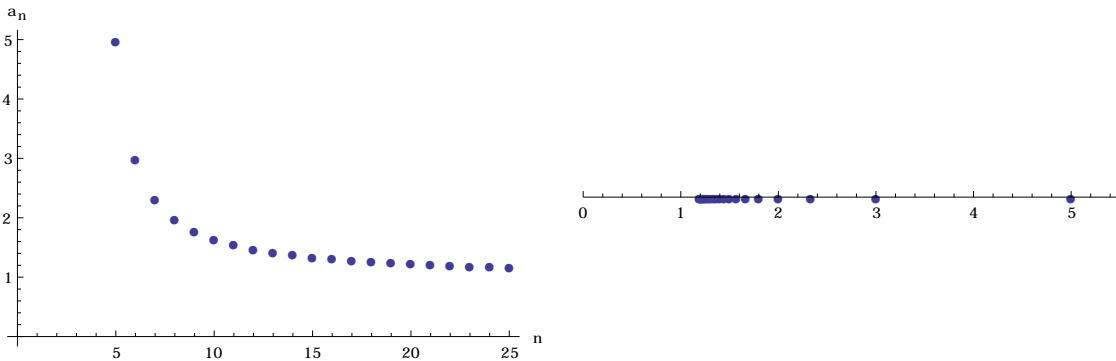


Figure 3.1: Graphs of the sequence  $a_n = \frac{n}{n-4}$  for  $n = 5; 6; \dots; 25$  used in Example 3.3. The left graph is the Cartesian graph. The right graph is the plot along the real line.

**3.2 Limits**

Intuitively, the notion of limits can be defined in the following way:  $L$  is said to be the limit of  $\{a_n\}$  if  $a_n$  is as close to  $L$  as desired, provided that  $n$  is sufficiently large. A precise definition of a limit is given by

**Definition 3.2.1**

The limit of the sequence  $\{a_n\}$  is  $L$  if

$$\forall \varepsilon > 0, \exists N \in \mathbb{N}, \forall n \in \mathbb{N}, n \geq N, |a_n - L| < \varepsilon,$$

we write

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

**R** Note that in the general case,  $N$  depends on the choice of  $\varepsilon$ . It is sometimes denoted  $N(\varepsilon)$  or  $N_\varepsilon$ .

Geometric interpretation: the quantity  $|a_n - L| < \varepsilon$  is equivalent to  $L - \varepsilon < a_n < L + \varepsilon$ . Therefore, the previous definition corresponds to the fact that for  $n$  large enough ( $n \geq N$ ) all values  $a_n$  belong to the interval  $(L - \varepsilon, L + \varepsilon)$  (see Figure 3.2). Because  $\varepsilon$  is an arbitrary number, in particular we can choose it as small as we want, i.e we can shrink the interval as we want up to get the singleton  $\{L\}$ .

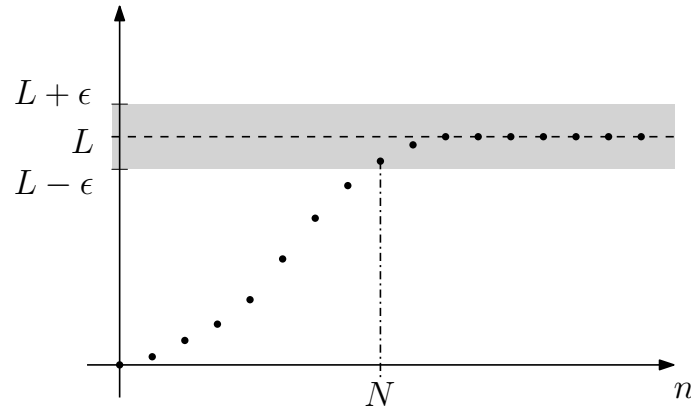


Figure 3.2: Geometric interpretation of the limit of a sequence.

#### ■ Example 3.4

Show that the limit of  $\{\frac{n}{n-4}\}_{n=5}^{\infty}$  is  $L = 1$ .

Solution: we want to show that  $\forall \epsilon > 0, \exists N \in \mathbb{N}, N \geq 5, \forall n \in \mathbb{N}, n \geq N, |a_n - 1| < \epsilon$ .

We have

$$|a_n - 1| = \left| \frac{n}{n-4} - 1 \right| = \left| \frac{n-n+4}{n-4} \right| = \frac{4}{n-4} \underset{(n \geq N)}{\leq} \frac{4}{N-4}.$$

Given  $\epsilon > 0$ , if we choose  $N$  such that  $\frac{4}{N-4} < \epsilon$  then we automatically have  $|a_n - 1| < \epsilon$ . But, we have

$$\frac{4}{N-4} < \epsilon \Leftrightarrow \frac{4}{\epsilon} < N-4 \Leftrightarrow N > \frac{4}{\epsilon} + 4$$

Therefore any  $N$  such that  $N > \frac{4}{\epsilon} + 4$  works (and it exists because  $\mathbb{R}$  is Archimedean). Finally, we can write

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{n}{n-4} = 1.$$

#### Proposition 3.2.1

The limit of a sequence is unique.

*Proof.* Assume  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = L_1$  and  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = L_2$ . We want to prove that  $L_1 = L_2$  by showing that  $\forall \epsilon > 0, |L_1 - L_2| < \epsilon$ .

Using the definition of a limit, we have,  $\forall \epsilon > 0$ ,

$$\exists N_1 \in \mathbb{N}, \forall n \in \mathbb{N}, n \geq N_1, |a_n - L_1| < \frac{\epsilon}{2}$$

and

$$\exists N_2 \in \mathbb{N}, \forall n \in \mathbb{N}, n \geq N_2, |a_n - L_2| < \frac{\epsilon}{2}.$$

Therefore, if we set  $N = \max(N_1, N_2)$ , we have

$$|a_N - L_1| < \frac{\epsilon}{2} \quad \text{and} \quad |a_N - L_2| < \frac{\epsilon}{2}.$$

Thus

$$|L_1 - L_2| = |(L_1 - a_N) + (a_N - L_2)| \underset{\text{triangle inequality}}{\leq} |L_1 - a_N| + |a_N - L_2| < \frac{\epsilon}{2} + \frac{\epsilon}{2} = \epsilon.$$

■

**Definition 3.2.2**

A subsequence of a sequence  $\{a_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$  is formed by selecting the terms  $a_n$  that correspond to the values of  $n$  taken as a strictly increasing sequence: if

$$n_1 < n_2 < n_3 < \dots < n_k < n_{k+1} < \dots$$

is a strictly increasing sequence of integers, the corresponding sequence  $\{a_{n_k}\}_{k=1}^{\infty}$  is a subsequence of  $\{a_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$ .

**Example 3.5**

Let

$$\{a_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty} = \left\{ (-1)^{n+1} \frac{1}{n} \right\}_{n=1}^{\infty} = 1; -\frac{1}{2}; \frac{1}{3}; -\frac{1}{4}; \frac{1}{5}; -\frac{1}{6}; \dots$$

The subsequence of  $\{a_n\}$  corresponding to odd values of  $n$  is obtained by setting

$$\{n_k\}_{k=1}^{\infty} = \{2k-1\}_{k=1}^{\infty} = 1; 3; 5; 7; \dots$$

The corresponding subsequence is

$$\{a_{n_k}\}_{k=1}^{\infty} = \left\{ (-1)^{n_k+1} \frac{1}{n_k} \right\}_{k=1}^{\infty} = \left\{ (-1)^{2k-1+1} \frac{1}{2k-1} \right\}_{k=1}^{\infty} = \left\{ \frac{1}{2k-1} \right\}_{k=1}^{\infty} = 1; \frac{1}{3}; \frac{1}{5}; \frac{1}{7}; \dots$$

To get the subsequence corresponding to even values of  $n$ , we set

$$\{n_k\}_{k=1}^{\infty} = \{2k\}_{k=1}^{\infty} = 2; 4; 6; \dots$$

and the corresponding subsequence is

$$\{a_{n_k}\}_{k=1}^{\infty} = \left\{ (-1)^{n_k+1} \frac{1}{n_k} \right\}_{k=1}^{\infty} = \left\{ (-1)^{2k+1} \frac{1}{2k} \right\}_{k=1}^{\infty} = \left\{ -\frac{1}{2k} \right\}_{k=1}^{\infty} = -\frac{1}{2}; -\frac{1}{4}; -\frac{1}{6}; \dots$$

**Proposition 3.2.2**

Let  $\{a_n\}$  be a sequence converging to a limit  $L$ . Then all subsequences  $\{a_{n_k}\}$  of  $\{a_n\}$  converge to  $L$  as well.

*Proof.* Let  $\{a_{n_k}\}_{k=1}^{\infty}$  be a subsequence of  $\{a_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$ . Since we assume that  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = L$ , we have

$$\forall \varepsilon > 0, \exists N \in \mathbb{N}, \forall n \geq N, |a_n - L| < \varepsilon.$$

Thus there exists  $K \in \mathbb{N}$  such that  $\forall k \geq K, n_k \geq N$  (because the set  $n_1, n_2, \dots$  is increasing) such that  $|a_{n_k} - L| < \varepsilon$ . Finally, this statement reduces to

$$\forall \varepsilon > 0, \exists K \in \mathbb{N}, \forall k \geq K, |a_{n_k} - L| < \varepsilon$$

which is equivalent to write

$$\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} a_{n_k} = L.$$

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