

Class 5: 2/5/14 Section 2.2 I

Given the model of the previous class,

$$N(t) = N_0 a^t, \quad t \in \mathbb{N}$$

we created a list of values $N_0, N_1 = N(1),$

$$N_2 = N(2), N_3, \dots$$

An infinite list of real numbers is called a sequence, and denoted with brackets.

ex. $\{1, 2, 4, 6, 10, 8, 2.6, \dots\}$.

or via a variable, using a subscript to denote position in the list:

$$\{q_n\} = \{q_0, q_1, q_2, \dots\}$$

Sometimes the list starts at a position other than the 0th position:

ex. $\{q_n\}$, where $q_n = \frac{1}{n}$. (q_0 doesn't make sense here).

In this last example, the n th term q_n is given by an expression (a formula) so that it can be calculated ($q_{10} = \frac{1}{10}, q_{47} = \frac{1}{47}, \dots$)

Sometimes we denote explicitly what the first position is:

$$\text{ex. } \{b_n\}_{n=2}^{\infty}, \text{ or } \left\{ \frac{1}{n} \right\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$$

Sometimes we just give the expression:

$$\text{ex. } a_n = 2^n + 1$$

Here we can calculate $\{a_n\} = \{1, 3, 5, 9, 17, \dots\}$.

$$\text{ex. } b_n = (-1)^n \frac{1}{n+1}, \text{ so } \{b_n\} = \left\{ 1, -\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{3}, -\frac{1}{4}, \frac{1}{5}, \dots \right\}$$

$$\text{ex. } c_n = f(n), \quad f: \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}, \quad f(n) = \sin\left(\frac{\pi}{2}n\right)$$

Here $\{c_n\} = \{0, 1, 0, -1, 0, 1, 0, -1, \dots\}$

$$\text{ex. } n_i = n_0 q^i, \quad q > 0, \quad q \neq 1. \quad \text{Recognize this?}$$

Sometimes, a sequence is defined only recursively by a function or expression:

ex. $f: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, $f(x) = ax$, $a > 0$, $a \neq 1$.

Then we can use f to create a sequence by specifying ① a starting term (seeded) and ② a rule for calculating the next term.

ex. Let $\{N_i\}$ be the sequence defined by

$$N_0 = 100, N_{i+1} = f(N_i) \text{ for all } i \in \mathbb{N},$$

where $f(x) = 7x$ ($a=7$)

Then ~~$N_0 = 100$~~ $N_0 = 100$

$$N_1 = f(N_0) = f(100) = 7(100) = 700$$

$$N_2 = f(N_1) = f(700) = 7(700) = 4900$$

⋮

Then $\{N_i\} = \{100, 700, 4900, 34300, \dots\}$.

$$= \{100, 100 \cdot 7, 100 \cdot 7^2, 100 \cdot 7^3, \dots\}$$

ex. Write the first few terms of the sequence $\{b_n\}$, where $b_{n+1} = \frac{1}{4}b_n + \frac{3}{4}$, $b_0 = 2$.

There are not a lot of special properties associated to a sequence. There is one, tho.

Q: How does a sequence behave in the long run? As the position goes to infinity?

Q: Does the sequence tend toward a single real number?

Def. A sequence $\{q_n\}$ has a limit a ,

written $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} q_n = a$, or $\{q_n\} \rightarrow a$,

if for every (small #) $\varepsilon > 0$, there is a natural number N so that

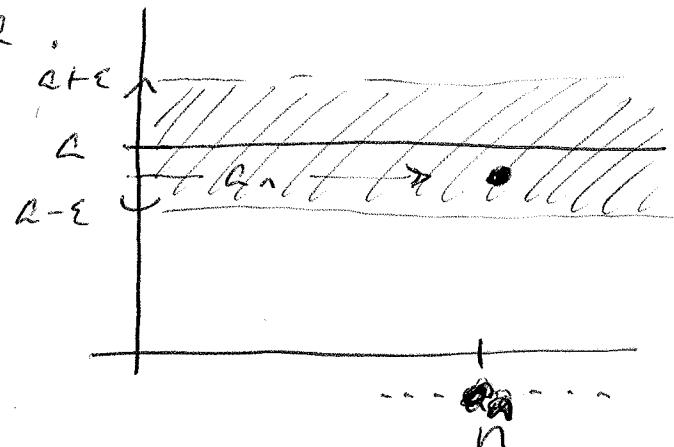
$$|q_n - a| < \varepsilon \text{ whenever } n > N$$

Notes: ① If limit exists, we say $\{q_n\}$ converges to a or $\{q_n\}$ is convergent. Else $\{q_n\}$ is divergent.

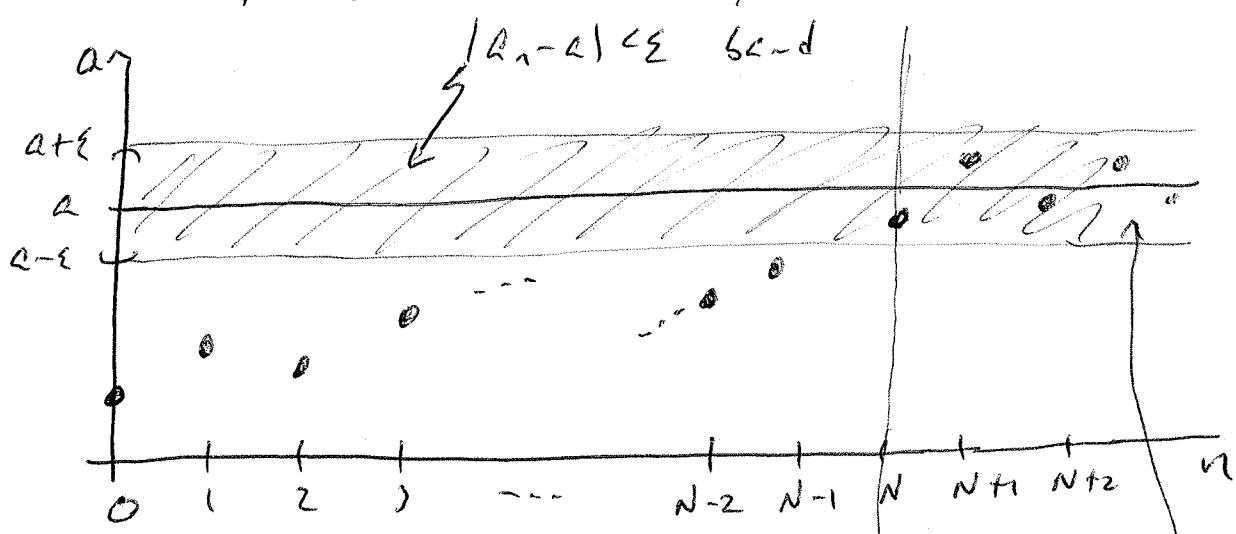
IV

- ② The phrase " $|a_n - a| < \varepsilon$ " means that the term a_n is less than ε -distance away from a .

$$\begin{aligned} |a_n - a| < \varepsilon \\ \text{is the same as} \\ a - \varepsilon < a_n < a + \varepsilon \end{aligned}$$



- ③ Visually (geometrically),



Given an $\varepsilon > 0$, the N is chosen to be the index value so that for every n after N , (for all $n > N$) the sequence values a_n all stay in the band defined by ε .

④ Typically, the smaller ϵ_0 , the thinner this band, and the larger the value of N (the further out along the sequence) will be.

⑤ Sequence limits play a similar role as horizontal asymptotes do, if you have heard of such a thing.

ex. Does the sequence $\left\{ \frac{1}{n} \beta_n \right\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$ converge?

Strategy: Use the definition to construct an N for any ϵ_0 chosen.

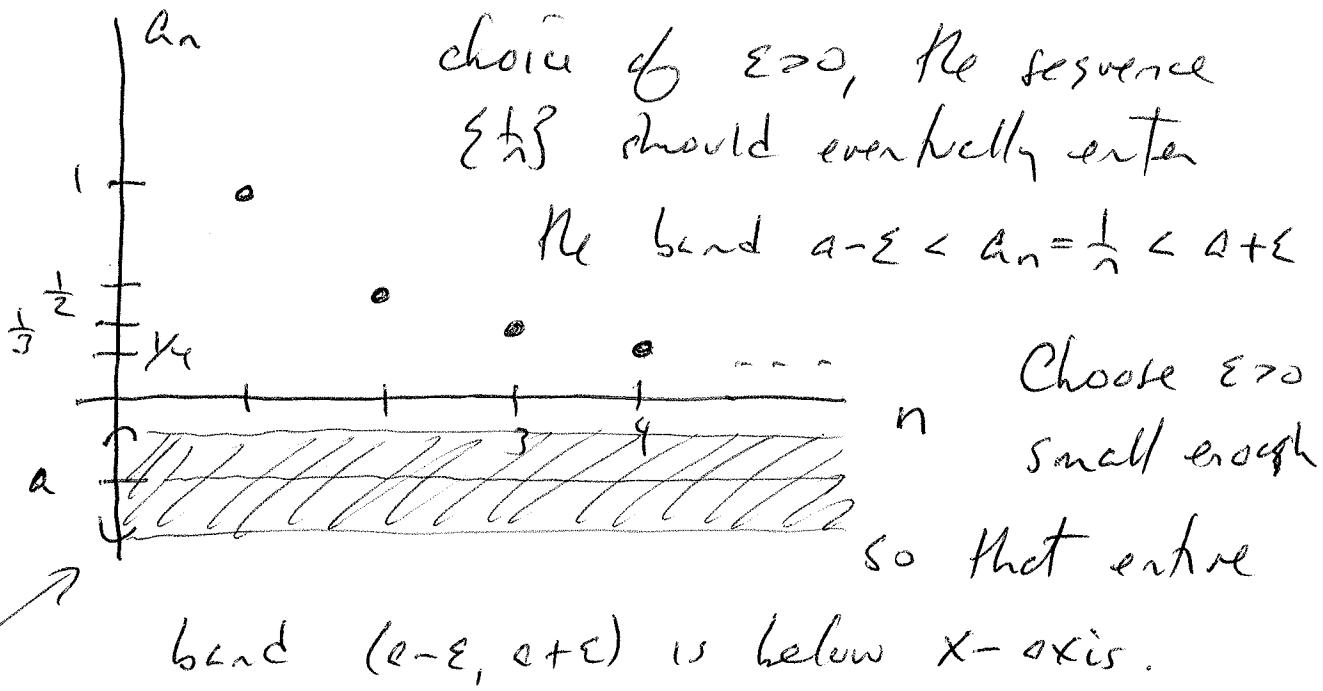
First, though, an analysis of possibilities:

Q1: Is it possible that $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} t_n < 0$?

A1: The sequence is always positive and decreasing.

VII

Suppose $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{n} = \alpha < 0$. Then for any



Choose $0 < \epsilon < |\alpha|$. As long as $|\alpha| > 0$, choose $\epsilon = \frac{|\alpha|}{2}$ for example. Then $\epsilon > 0$, and this works. But then a_n never enters the shaded band above.

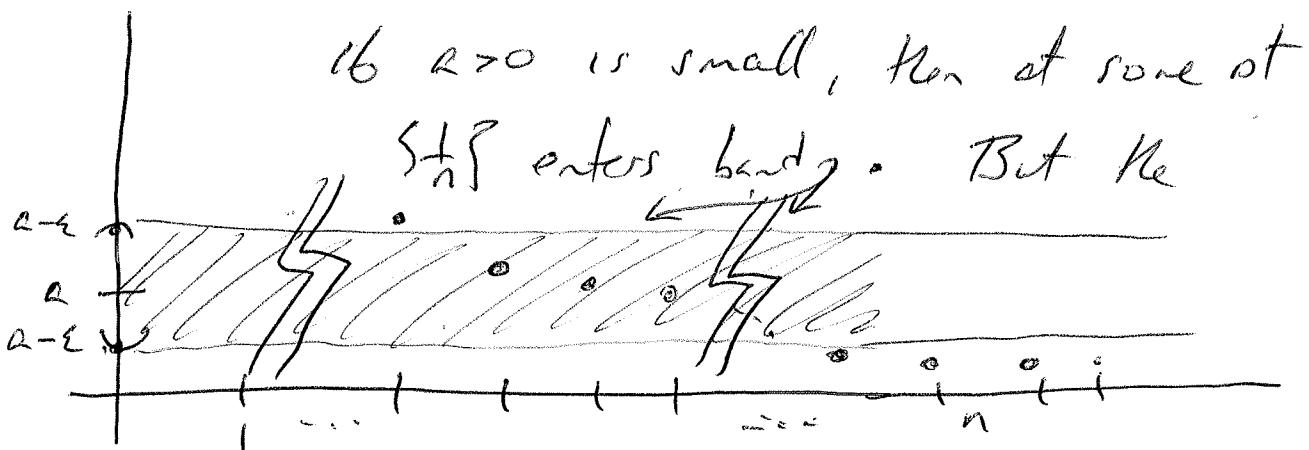
A1: No.

Q2: Is it possible that $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{n} = \alpha \geq 0$?

VIII

A2: Suppose this is possible: $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \theta_n = \alpha > 0$.

Then again, choose ~~ϵ~~ $\epsilon = \frac{\alpha}{2} > 0$. Entire band $(\alpha - \epsilon, \alpha + \epsilon)$ lies above x-axis

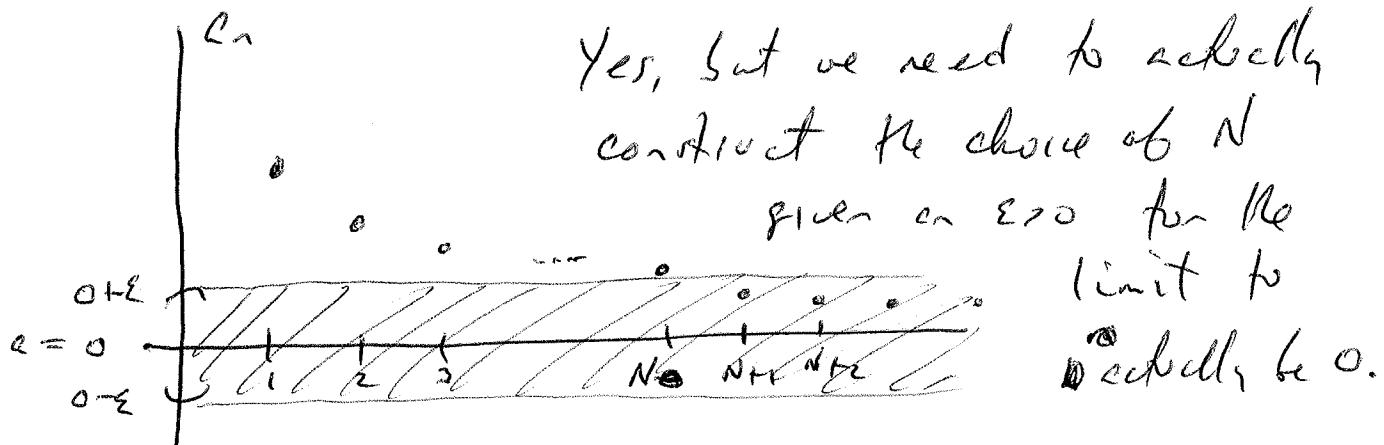


bottom of the band is still positive. At some later st the sequence S_n will leave the band and never return. This will happen when subscript n gets larger than $\frac{\alpha}{\epsilon}$ (don't worry about this part much).

A2: No.

Q3: Is it possible that $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} t_n = 0$?

A3: It does look like for any $\epsilon > 0$, we can create an interval band around $a = 0$ and at some point the sequence $\{t_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$ will enter it and never leave.



For example, suppose we choose $\epsilon = 1 = \frac{1}{10}$.

Then the condition of the definition $|t_n - 0| < \epsilon$ becomes $|t_n - 0| < \frac{1}{10}$, or $|t_n| < \frac{1}{10}$.

Can you find a position in the sequence $\{t_n\}$ where after that position all the sequence lives in the band $(-\epsilon, \epsilon)$ forever more?

Yes, choose $N = 10$. Then for $n > 10$, $|t_n| < \frac{1}{10}$.
 (why does this work?)

X

If we chose $\varepsilon = 100$, the condition becomes

$\frac{1}{n} < \varepsilon = \frac{1}{100}$. choose $N = 100$.

If $\varepsilon = \frac{3}{50}$? The condition becomes $\frac{1}{n} < \frac{3}{50}$.

Play with this to get $\frac{50}{3} < n$.

Now $\frac{1}{n} < \frac{3}{50}$ when $n > \frac{50}{3} = 16.\overline{666}$. So

choose $N = 17$. Now $\frac{1}{n} < \frac{3}{50}$ when ~~when~~ $n > 17$.

In general $\frac{1}{n} < \varepsilon$ precisely when $\frac{1}{\varepsilon} < n$.

Hence choose $N = \frac{1}{\varepsilon}$ (or the next integer).

Now when $n \geq N = \frac{1}{\varepsilon}$, we have $\frac{1}{n} < \varepsilon$.

We have chosen a way to choose N

plus any $\varepsilon > 0$ so that when $n \geq N$,

we know $|s_n - \varepsilon| = |\frac{1}{n} - 0| = \frac{1}{n} < \varepsilon$.

Hence $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{n} = 0$.

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XT

Follow up questions:

We can modify this construction to show

that (i) $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{n+1} = 0$

(ii) $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{(-1)^n}{n} = 0$

(iii) $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{(-1)^n}{n+1} = 0.$