

Introduction to Analysis: Sequences

Robert C. Vaughan

February 23, 2024

- **Definition 4.1.** *A sequence is a list of real numbers indexed by the members of \mathbb{N}*

$$a_1, a_2, a_3, \dots, a_n, \dots$$

and a_n denotes the n – th term.

- **Definition 4.1.** *A sequence is a list of real numbers indexed by the members of \mathbb{N}*

$$a_1, a_2, a_3, \dots, a_n, \dots$$

and a_n denotes the n – th term.

- Hopefully in any particular case we might have a formula for a_n , but this is not always so easy to establish.

- **Definition 4.1.** A sequence is a list of real numbers indexed by the members of \mathbb{N}

$$a_1, a_2, a_3, \dots, a_n, \dots$$

and a_n denotes the n -th term.

- Hopefully in any particular case we might have a formula for a_n , but this is not always so easy to establish.
- **Example 4.1.** Examples of sequences are
 1. $-1, -4, -9, -16, \dots, -n^2, \dots,$
 2. $1, 1, 1, \dots, 1, \dots,$
 3. $\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{3}, \frac{1}{4}, \dots, \frac{1}{n+1}, \dots,$
 4. $2, 3, 5, \dots, p_n, \dots$ where p_n denotes the n -th prime.

- **Definition 4.1.** A sequence is a list of real numbers indexed by the members of \mathbb{N}

$$a_1, a_2, a_3, \dots, a_n, \dots$$

and a_n denotes the n -th term.

- Hopefully in any particular case we might have a formula for a_n , but this is not always so easy to establish.
- **Example 4.1.** Examples of sequences are
 1. $-1, -4, -9, -16, \dots, -n^2, \dots,$
 2. $1, 1, 1, \dots, 1, \dots,$
 3. $\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{3}, \frac{1}{4}, \dots, \frac{1}{n+1}, \dots,$
 4. $2, 3, 5, \dots, p_n, \dots$ where p_n denotes the n -th prime.
- Repetitions are allowed so the list is not simply a set.

- **Definition 4.1.** A sequence is a list of real numbers indexed by the members of \mathbb{N}

$$a_1, a_2, a_3, \dots, a_n, \dots$$

and a_n denotes the n – th term.

- Hopefully in any particular case we might have a formula for a_n , but this is not always so easy to establish.
- **Example 4.1.** Examples of sequences are
 1. $-1, -4, -9, -16, \dots, -n^2, \dots,$
 2. $1, 1, 1, \dots, 1, \dots,$
 3. $\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{3}, \frac{1}{4}, \dots, \frac{1}{n+1}, \dots,$
 4. $2, 3, 5, \dots, p_n, \dots$ where p_n denotes the n -th prime.
- Repetitions are allowed so the list is not simply a set.
- The notation $\{a_n\}$ is often used to denote a sequence, but since it can be confused with the notation for a set, here we will use the notation $\langle a_n \rangle$.

- **Definition 4.1.** A sequence is a list of real numbers indexed by the members of \mathbb{N}

$$a_1, a_2, a_3, \dots, a_n, \dots$$

and a_n denotes the n -th term.

- Hopefully in any particular case we might have a formula for a_n , but this is not always so easy to establish.
- **Example 4.1.** Examples of sequences are
 1. $-1, -4, -9, -16, \dots, -n^2, \dots,$
 2. $1, 1, 1, \dots, 1, \dots,$
 3. $\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{3}, \frac{1}{4}, \dots, \frac{1}{n+1}, \dots,$
 4. $2, 3, 5, \dots, p_n, \dots$ where p_n denotes the n -th prime.
- Repetitions are allowed so the list is not simply a set.
- The notation $\{a_n\}$ is often used to denote a sequence, but since it can be confused with the notation for a set, here we will use the notation $\langle a_n \rangle$.
- The set $\mathcal{A} = \{a_n : n \in \mathbb{N}\}$ denotes the **range** of $\langle a_n \rangle$.

- **Definition 4.1.** A sequence is a list of real numbers indexed by the members of \mathbb{N}

$$a_1, a_2, a_3, \dots, a_n, \dots$$

and a_n denotes the n – th term.

- Hopefully in any particular case we might have a formula for a_n , but this is not always so easy to establish.
- **Example 4.1.** Examples of sequences are
 1. $-1, -4, -9, -16, \dots, -n^2, \dots,$
 2. $1, 1, 1, \dots, 1, \dots,$
 3. $\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{3}, \frac{1}{4}, \dots, \frac{1}{n+1}, \dots,$
 4. $2, 3, 5, \dots, p_n, \dots$ where p_n denotes the n -th prime.
- Repetitions are allowed so the list is not simply a set.
- The notation $\{a_n\}$ is often used to denote a sequence, but since it can be confused with the notation for a set, here we will use the notation $\langle a_n \rangle$.
- The set $\mathcal{A} = \{a_n : n \in \mathbb{N}\}$ denotes the **range** of $\langle a_n \rangle$.
- In all but one of the examples above we do have $\mathcal{A} = \langle a_n \rangle$.

- **Definition 4.1.** A sequence is a list of real numbers indexed by the members of \mathbb{N}

$$a_1, a_2, a_3, \dots, a_n, \dots$$

and a_n denotes the n -th term.

- Hopefully in any particular case we might have a formula for a_n , but this is not always so easy to establish.
- **Example 4.1.** Examples of sequences are
 1. $-1, -4, -9, -16, \dots, -n^2, \dots,$
 2. $1, 1, 1, \dots, 1, \dots,$
 3. $\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{3}, \frac{1}{4}, \dots, \frac{1}{n+1}, \dots,$
 4. $2, 3, 5, \dots, p_n, \dots$ where p_n denotes the n -th prime.
- Repetitions are allowed so the list is not simply a set.
- The notation $\{a_n\}$ is often used to denote a sequence, but since it can be confused with the notation for a set, here we will use the notation $\langle a_n \rangle$.
- The set $\mathcal{A} = \{a_n : n \in \mathbb{N}\}$ denotes the **range** of $\langle a_n \rangle$.
- In all but one of the examples above we do have $\mathcal{A} = \langle a_n \rangle$.
- The exception is 2. where we have $\mathcal{A} = \{1\}$.

- We have some obvious terminology.

- We have some obvious terminology.
- A sequence $\langle a_n \rangle$ is *bounded above* (or *below*) when \mathcal{A} is bounded above (or below).

- We have some obvious terminology.
- A sequence $\langle a_n \rangle$ is *bounded above* (or *below*) when \mathcal{A} is bounded above (or below).
- If \mathcal{A} is both bounded above and below, then $\langle a_n \rangle$ is *bounded*.

- We have some obvious terminology.
- A sequence $\langle a_n \rangle$ is *bounded above* (or *below*) when \mathcal{A} is bounded above (or below).
- If \mathcal{A} is both bounded above and below, then $\langle a_n \rangle$ is *bounded*.
- If it is not bounded, then we say that $\langle a_n \rangle$ is *unbounded*.

- We have some obvious terminology.
- A sequence $\langle a_n \rangle$ is *bounded above* (or *below*) when \mathcal{A} is bounded above (or below).
- If \mathcal{A} is both bounded above and below, then $\langle a_n \rangle$ is *bounded*.
- If it is not bounded, then we say that $\langle a_n \rangle$ is *unbounded*.
- Recalling Definitions 2.6, 2.7, 2.8 we have at once the following theorem.

Theorem 1

A sequence $\langle a_n \rangle$ is bounded if and only if there is a real number H such that for every $n \in \mathbb{N}$ we have $|a_n| \leq H$.

- **Example 4.2.** 1. $\langle 1^n \rangle$ is bounded.

- **Example 4.2.** 1. $\langle 1^n \rangle$ is bounded.
- 2. $\langle n^2 \rangle$ is unbounded.

- **Example 4.2.** 1. $\langle 1^n \rangle$ is bounded.
- 2. $\langle n^2 \rangle$ is unbounded.
- 3. $\langle \frac{1}{n^2} \rangle$ is bounded, by 1 from above and by 0 from below.

- **Example 4.2.** 1. $\langle 1^n \rangle$ is bounded.
- 2. $\langle n^2 \rangle$ is unbounded.
- 3. $\langle \frac{1}{n^2} \rangle$ is bounded, by 1 from above and by 0 from below.
- 4. Here is a more complicated sequence. We define x_n inductively by

$$x_1 = 2, x_{n+1} = \frac{1}{2} \left(x_n + \frac{2}{x_n} \right).$$

- **Example 4.2.** 1. $\langle 1^n \rangle$ is bounded.
- 2. $\langle n^2 \rangle$ is unbounded.
- 3. $\langle \frac{1}{n^2} \rangle$ is bounded, by 1 from above and by 0 from below.
- 4. Here is a more complicated sequence. We define x_n inductively by

$$x_1 = 2, x_{n+1} = \frac{1}{2} \left(x_n + \frac{2}{x_n} \right).$$

- There is no really simple formula for x_n , although something could be worked out.

- **Example 4.2.** 1. $\langle 1^n \rangle$ is bounded.
- 2. $\langle n^2 \rangle$ is unbounded.
- 3. $\langle \frac{1}{n^2} \rangle$ is bounded, by 1 from above and by 0 from below.
- 4. Here is a more complicated sequence. We define x_n inductively by

$$x_1 = 2, x_{n+1} = \frac{1}{2} \left(x_n + \frac{2}{x_n} \right).$$

- There is no really simple formula for x_n , although something could be worked out.
- However

$$x_2 = \frac{1}{2} \left(2 + \frac{2}{2} \right) = \frac{3}{2} = 1.5,$$

$$x_3 = \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{3}{2} + \frac{2}{3/2} \right) = \frac{17}{12} = 1.416\dots,$$

$$x_4 = \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{17}{12} + \frac{24}{17} \right) = \frac{577}{408} = 1.4142\dots$$

- **Example 4.2.** 1. $\langle 1^n \rangle$ is bounded.
- 2. $\langle n^2 \rangle$ is unbounded.
- 3. $\langle \frac{1}{n^2} \rangle$ is bounded, by 1 from above and by 0 from below.
- 4. Here is a more complicated sequence. We define x_n inductively by

$$x_1 = 2, x_{n+1} = \frac{1}{2} \left(x_n + \frac{2}{x_n} \right).$$

- There is no really simple formula for x_n , although something could be worked out.
- However

$$x_2 = \frac{1}{2} \left(2 + \frac{2}{2} \right) = \frac{3}{2} = 1.5,$$

$$x_3 = \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{3}{2} + \frac{2}{3/2} \right) = \frac{17}{12} = 1.416\dots,$$

$$x_4 = \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{17}{12} + \frac{24}{17} \right) = \frac{577}{408} = 1.4142\dots$$

- Guess what is happening!

- **Example 4.2.** 1. $\langle 1^n \rangle$ is bounded.
- 2. $\langle n^2 \rangle$ is unbounded.
- 3. $\langle \frac{1}{n^2} \rangle$ is bounded, by 1 from above and by 0 from below.
- 4. Here is a more complicated sequence. We define x_n inductively by

$$x_1 = 2, x_{n+1} = \frac{1}{2} \left(x_n + \frac{2}{x_n} \right).$$

- There is no really simple formula for x_n , although something could be worked out.
- However

$$x_2 = \frac{1}{2} \left(2 + \frac{2}{2} \right) = \frac{3}{2} = 1.5,$$

$$x_3 = \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{3}{2} + \frac{2}{3/2} \right) = \frac{17}{12} = 1.416\dots,$$

$$x_4 = \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{17}{12} + \frac{24}{17} \right) = \frac{577}{408} = 1.4142\dots$$

- Guess what is happening!
- This leads on naturally to the next topic

- A sequence $\langle a_n \rangle$ converges to the limit ℓ (where $\ell \in \mathbb{R}$) when the following holds.

Definition 4.2 *Given any real number $\varepsilon > 0$ there is a real number N such that whenever $n \in \mathbb{N}$ and $n > N$ we have*

$$|a_n - \ell| < \varepsilon.$$

- A sequence $\langle a_n \rangle$ converges to the limit l (where $l \in \mathbb{R}$) when the following holds.

Definition 4.2 *Given any real number $\varepsilon > 0$ there is a real number N such that whenever $n \in \mathbb{N}$ and $n > N$ we have*

$$|a_n - l| < \varepsilon.$$

- When this is satisfied we write

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

or

$$a_n \rightarrow l \text{ as } n \rightarrow \infty,$$

and say that a_n tends to l as n tends to infinity.

- A sequence $\langle a_n \rangle$ converges to the limit ℓ (where $\ell \in \mathbb{R}$) when the following holds.

Definition 4.2 *Given any real number $\varepsilon > 0$ there is a real number N such that whenever $n \in \mathbb{N}$ and $n > N$ we have*

$$|a_n - \ell| < \varepsilon.$$

- When this is satisfied we write

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

or

$$a_n \rightarrow \ell \text{ as } n \rightarrow \infty,$$

and say that a_n tends to ℓ as n tends to infinity.

- Note that in general we would expect that N is a function of ε .

- A sequence $\langle a_n \rangle$ converges to the limit l (where $l \in \mathbb{R}$) when the following holds.

Definition 4.2 *Given any real number $\varepsilon > 0$ there is a real number N such that whenever $n \in \mathbb{N}$ and $n > N$ we have*

$$|a_n - l| < \varepsilon.$$

- When this is satisfied we write

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

or

$$a_n \rightarrow l \text{ as } n \rightarrow \infty,$$

and say that a_n tends to l as n tends to infinity.

- Note that in general we would expect that N is a function of ε .
- Occasionally we can only prove its existence, but those proofs are usually pretty tricky.

- Restate: A sequence $\langle a_n \rangle$ converges to the limit ℓ (where $\ell \in \mathbb{R}$) when the following holds.

Definition 4.2 *Given any real number $\varepsilon > 0$ there is a real number N such that whenever $n \in \mathbb{N}$ and $n > N$ we have*

$$|a_n - \ell| < \varepsilon.$$

- Restate: A sequence $\langle a_n \rangle$ converges to the limit ℓ (where $\ell \in \mathbb{R}$) when the following holds.

Definition 4.2 *Given any real number $\varepsilon > 0$ there is a real number N such that whenever $n \in \mathbb{N}$ and $n > N$ we have*

$$|a_n - \ell| < \varepsilon.$$

- When this is satisfied we write

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

- Restate: A sequence $\langle a_n \rangle$ converges to the limit ℓ (where $\ell \in \mathbb{R}$) when the following holds.

Definition 4.2 *Given any real number $\varepsilon > 0$ there is a real number N such that whenever $n \in \mathbb{N}$ and $n > N$ we have*

$$|a_n - \ell| < \varepsilon.$$

- When this is satisfied we write

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

- This is the most important definition of the whole course. You will learn to love it and hate it!

- Restate: A sequence $\langle a_n \rangle$ converges to the limit ℓ (where $\ell \in \mathbb{R}$) when the following holds.

Definition 4.2 *Given any real number $\varepsilon > 0$ there is a real number N such that whenever $n \in \mathbb{N}$ and $n > N$ we have*

$$|a_n - \ell| < \varepsilon.$$

- When this is satisfied we write

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

- This is the most important definition of the whole course. You will learn to love it and hate it!
- All other forms of convergence are modelled on this.

- Restate: A sequence $\langle a_n \rangle$ converges to the limit ℓ (where $\ell \in \mathbb{R}$) when the following holds.

Definition 4.2 *Given any real number $\varepsilon > 0$ there is a real number N such that whenever $n \in \mathbb{N}$ and $n > N$ we have*

$$|a_n - \ell| < \varepsilon.$$

- When this is satisfied we write

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

- This is the most important definition of the whole course. You will learn to love it and hate it!
- All other forms of convergence are modelled on this.
- There is one fundamental difficulty with this definition. What if one does not know the value of ℓ ?

- Restate: A sequence $\langle a_n \rangle$ converges to the limit ℓ (where $\ell \in \mathbb{R}$) when the following holds.

Definition 4.2 *Given any real number $\varepsilon > 0$ there is a real number N such that whenever $n \in \mathbb{N}$ and $n > N$ we have*

$$|a_n - \ell| < \varepsilon.$$

- When this is satisfied we write

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

- This is the most important definition of the whole course. You will learn to love it and hate it!
- All other forms of convergence are modelled on this.
- There is one fundamental difficulty with this definition. What if one does not know the value of ℓ ?
- Often in order to make progress one will need to have a good guess for ℓ .

- Restate: A sequence $\langle a_n \rangle$ converges to the limit ℓ (where $\ell \in \mathbb{R}$) when the following holds.

Definition 4.2 *Given any real number $\varepsilon > 0$ there is a real number N such that whenever $n \in \mathbb{N}$ and $n > N$ we have*

$$|a_n - \ell| < \varepsilon.$$

- When this is satisfied we write

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

- This is the most important definition of the whole course. You will learn to love it and hate it!
- All other forms of convergence are modelled on this.
- There is one fundamental difficulty with this definition. What if one does not know the value of ℓ ?
- Often in order to make progress one will need to have a good guess for ℓ .
- Later we will see ways which avoid this.

- **Example 4.3.** 1. Let $a_n = 1/n$. We would guess that the limit exists and is 0.
2. Suppose that b_n is a constant sequence, i.e there is a real number c such that for every $n \in \mathbb{N}$ we have $b_n = c$. Then $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} b_n = c$.

- **Example 4.3.** 1. Let $a_n = 1/n$. We would guess that the limit exists and is 0.
2. Suppose that b_n is a constant sequence, i.e there is a real number c such that for every $n \in \mathbb{N}$ we have $b_n = c$. Then $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} b_n = c$.
- *Proof.* 1. Given any $\varepsilon > 0$ we need to find an N such that whenever $n > N$ we have $|a_n - 0| < \varepsilon$, i.e.

$$\frac{1}{n} = \left| \frac{1}{n} \right| = \left| \left(\frac{1}{n} \right) - 0 \right| < \varepsilon.$$

- **Example 4.3.** 1. Let $a_n = 1/n$. We would guess that the limit exists and is 0.
2. Suppose that b_n is a constant sequence, i.e there is a real number c such that for every $n \in \mathbb{N}$ we have $b_n = c$. Then $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} b_n = c$.
- *Proof.* 1. Given any $\varepsilon > 0$ we need to find an N such that whenever $n > N$ we have $|a_n - 0| < \varepsilon$, i.e.

$$\frac{1}{n} = \left| \frac{1}{n} \right| = \left| \left(\frac{1}{n} \right) - 0 \right| < \varepsilon.$$

- Here we can choose $N = 1/\varepsilon$.

- **Example 4.3.** 1. Let $a_n = 1/n$. We would guess that the limit exists and is 0.
2. Suppose that b_n is a constant sequence, i.e there is a real number c such that for every $n \in \mathbb{N}$ we have $b_n = c$. Then $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} b_n = c$.
- *Proof.* 1. Given any $\varepsilon > 0$ we need to find an N such that whenever $n > N$ we have $|a_n - 0| < \varepsilon$, i.e.

$$\frac{1}{n} = \left| \frac{1}{n} \right| = \left| \left(\frac{1}{n} \right) - 0 \right| < \varepsilon.$$

- Here we can choose $N = 1/\varepsilon$.
- Thus whenever $n > N$ we have

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

- **Example 4.3.** 1. Let $a_n = 1/n$. We would guess that the limit exists and is 0.
2. Suppose that b_n is a constant sequence, i.e there is a real number c such that for every $n \in \mathbb{N}$ we have $b_n = c$. Then $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} b_n = c$.
- *Proof.* 1. Given any $\varepsilon > 0$ we need to find an N such that whenever $n > N$ we have $|a_n - 0| < \varepsilon$, i.e.

$$\frac{1}{n} = \left| \frac{1}{n} \right| = \left| \left(\frac{1}{n} \right) - 0 \right| < \varepsilon.$$

- Here we can choose $N = 1/\varepsilon$.
- Thus whenever $n > N$ we have

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

- 2. is even easier. Let $\varepsilon > 0$ and choose $N = 1$, say. Then, whenever $n > N$ we have

$$|b_n - c| = |c - c| = 0 < \varepsilon.$$

and we are done.

- Note that to write down the formal proof we need to do some “rough work” to help us find a suitable N , but once we have a handle on N most of the rough work is redundant. This is part of the normal process of constructing formal proofs.

- Note that to write down the formal proof we need to do some “rough work” to help us find a suitable N , but once we have a handle on N most of the rough work is redundant. This is part of the normal process of constructing formal proofs.
- **Example 4.4.** *let $b_n = 1/\sqrt{n}$. Prove that $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} b_n = 0$.*

- Note that to write down the formal proof we need to do some “rough work” to help us find a suitable N , but once we have a handle on N most of the rough work is redundant. This is part of the normal process of constructing formal proofs.
- **Example 4.4.** *let $b_n = 1/\sqrt{n}$. Prove that $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} b_n = 0$.*
- *Proof.* Let $\ell = 0$ and $\varepsilon > 0$. Choose $N = \varepsilon^{-2}$. Thus whenever $n > N$ we have

$$|b_n - \ell| = \left| \frac{1}{\sqrt{n}} \right| = \frac{1}{\sqrt{n}} < \frac{1}{\sqrt{N}} = \varepsilon$$

and we are done.

- The following example has its uses.

Example 4.5. *Suppose that $\langle a_n \rangle$ converges to ℓ . Let $b_n = a_{n+1}$. Then $\langle b_n \rangle$ converges to ℓ .*

- The following example has its uses.
Example 4.5. *Suppose that $\langle a_n \rangle$ converges to ℓ . Let $b_n = a_{n+1}$. Then $\langle b_n \rangle$ converges to ℓ .*
- *Proof.* This is immediate from the definition, since if $|a_n - \ell| < \varepsilon$ whenever $n > N$, then for such n we have $n + 1 > n > N$ and so $|b_n - \ell| = |a_{n+1} - \ell| < \varepsilon$. \square

- The following example has its uses.
Example 4.5. *Suppose that $\langle a_n \rangle$ converges to ℓ . Let $b_n = a_{n+1}$. Then $\langle b_n \rangle$ converges to ℓ .*
- *Proof.* This is immediate from the definition, since if $|a_n - \ell| < \varepsilon$ whenever $n > N$, then for such n we have $n + 1 > n > N$ and so $|b_n - \ell| = |a_{n+1} - \ell| < \varepsilon$. \square
- Likewise, when $n \geq 2$, let $c_n = a_{n-1}$. Given an $N(\varepsilon)$ which works for a_n we can take $N' = N + 1$ and this works as an N for c_n .

- The following example has its uses.
Example 4.5. *Suppose that $\langle a_n \rangle$ converges to ℓ . Let $b_n = a_{n+1}$. Then $\langle b_n \rangle$ converges to ℓ .*
- *Proof.* This is immediate from the definition, since if $|a_n - \ell| < \varepsilon$ whenever $n > N$, then for such n we have $n + 1 > n > N$ and so $|b_n - \ell| = |a_{n+1} - \ell| < \varepsilon$. \square
- Likewise, when $n \geq 2$, let $c_n = a_{n-1}$. Given an $N(\varepsilon)$ which works for a_n we can take $N' = N + 1$ and this works as an N for c_n .
- I have not defined c_1 . It clearly does not play a rôle in convergence and we could take it to be anything we like!

- The following example has its uses.
Example 4.5. *Suppose that $\langle a_n \rangle$ converges to ℓ . Let $b_n = a_{n+1}$. Then $\langle b_n \rangle$ converges to ℓ .*
- *Proof.* This is immediate from the definition, since if $|a_n - \ell| < \varepsilon$ whenever $n > N$, then for such n we have $n + 1 > n > N$ and so $|b_n - \ell| = |a_{n+1} - \ell| < \varepsilon$. \square
- Likewise, when $n \geq 2$, let $c_n = a_{n-1}$. Given an $N(\varepsilon)$ which works for a_n we can take $N' = N + 1$ and this works as an N for c_n .
- I have not defined c_1 . It clearly does not play a rôle in convergence and we could take it to be anything we like!
- Generally shifting the suffix by a constant amount does not change the convergence.

- It might seem obvious that limits are unique, but it does need to be proved.

Theorem 2

A sequence can have at most one limit.

- It might seem obvious that limits are unique, but it does need to be proved.

Theorem 2

A sequence can have at most one limit.

- *Proof.* We argue by contradiction.

- It might seem obvious that limits are unique, but it does need to be proved.

Theorem 2

A sequence can have at most one limit.

- *Proof.* We argue by contradiction.
- Suppose that $\langle a_n \rangle$ has two different limits, k and l .

- It might seem obvious that limits are unique, but it does need to be proved.

Theorem 2

A sequence can have at most one limit.

- *Proof.* We argue by contradiction.
- Suppose that $\langle a_n \rangle$ has two different limits, k and l .
- It is intuitive that when n is large a_n is close to the value of its limit, so it cannot be close to different limits.

- It might seem obvious that limits are unique, but it does need to be proved.

Theorem 2

A sequence can have at most one limit.

- *Proof.* We argue by contradiction.
- Suppose that $\langle a_n \rangle$ has two different limits, k and ℓ .
- It is intuitive that when n is large a_n is close to the value of its limit, so it cannot be close to different limits.
- We can turn this into a proof. Let $\varepsilon = \frac{1}{2}|k - \ell|$.

- It might seem obvious that limits are unique, but it does need to be proved.

Theorem 2

A sequence can have at most one limit.

- *Proof.* We argue by contradiction.
- Suppose that $\langle a_n \rangle$ has two different limits, k and ℓ .
- It is intuitive that when n is large a_n is close to the value of its limit, so it cannot be close to different limits.
- We can turn this into a proof. Let $\varepsilon = \frac{1}{2}|k - \ell|$.
- Choose N_1 so that $|a_n - k| < \varepsilon$ when $n > N_1$ and N_2 so that $|a_n - \ell| < \varepsilon$ when $n > N_2$.

- It might seem obvious that limits are unique, but it does need to be proved.

Theorem 2

A sequence can have at most one limit.

- *Proof.* We argue by contradiction.
- Suppose that $\langle a_n \rangle$ has two different limits, k and ℓ .
- It is intuitive that when n is large a_n is close to the value of its limit, so it cannot be close to different limits.
- We can turn this into a proof. Let $\varepsilon = \frac{1}{2}|k - \ell|$.
- Choose N_1 so that $|a_n - k| < \varepsilon$ when $n > N_1$ and N_2 so that $|a_n - \ell| < \varepsilon$ when $n > N_2$.
- Suppose that $n > \max\{N_1, N_2\}$. Then, by the triangle inequality

$$|k - \ell| = |a_n - \ell - (a_n - k)| \leq |a_n - \ell| + |a_n - k| < 2\varepsilon = |k - \ell|$$

which is impossible.

- It might seem obvious that limits are unique, but it does need to be proved.

Theorem 2

A sequence can have at most one limit.

- *Proof.* We argue by contradiction.
- Suppose that $\langle a_n \rangle$ has two different limits, k and ℓ .
- It is intuitive that when n is large a_n is close to the value of its limit, so it cannot be close to different limits.
- We can turn this into a proof. Let $\varepsilon = \frac{1}{2}|k - \ell|$.
- Choose N_1 so that $|a_n - k| < \varepsilon$ when $n > N_1$ and N_2 so that $|a_n - \ell| < \varepsilon$ when $n > N_2$.
- Suppose that $n > \max\{N_1, N_2\}$. Then, by the triangle inequality

$$|k - \ell| = |a_n - \ell - (a_n - k)| \leq |a_n - \ell| + |a_n - k| < 2\varepsilon = |k - \ell|$$

which is impossible.

- We are going to see many appearances by the triangle inequality in convergence proofs.

- If a sequence is not convergent, then it is **divergent**.

- If a sequence is not convergent, then it is **divergent**.
- Proving that a sequence is divergent can be awkward.

- If a sequence is not convergent, then it is **divergent**.
- Proving that a sequence is divergent can be awkward.
- The following theorem tells us in particular that unbounded sequences are divergent.

Theorem 3

Every convergent sequence is bounded.

- If a sequence is not convergent, then it is **divergent**.
- Proving that a sequence is divergent can be awkward.
- The following theorem tells us in particular that unbounded sequences are divergent.

Theorem 3

Every convergent sequence is bounded.

- *Proof.* Let $\langle a_n \rangle$ be the sequence in question and let ℓ be its limit.

- If a sequence is not convergent, then it is **divergent**.
- Proving that a sequence is divergent can be awkward.
- The following theorem tells us in particular that unbounded sequences are divergent.

Theorem 3

Every convergent sequence is bounded.

- *Proof.* Let $\langle a_n \rangle$ be the sequence in question and let ℓ be its limit.
- We use a special case of the definition of convergence. Let $\varepsilon = 1$ and choose N so that whenever $n > N$ we have $|a_n - \ell| < 1$.

- If a sequence is not convergent, then it is **divergent**.
- Proving that a sequence is divergent can be awkward.
- The following theorem tells us in particular that unbounded sequences are divergent.

Theorem 3

Every convergent sequence is bounded.

- *Proof.* Let $\langle a_n \rangle$ be the sequence in question and let ℓ be its limit.
- We use a special case of the definition of convergence. Let $\varepsilon = 1$ and choose N so that whenever $n > N$ we have $|a_n - \ell| < 1$.
- Then, by the triangle inequality, whenever $n > N$

$$|a_n| = |(a_n - \ell) + \ell| \leq |a_n - \ell| + |\ell| < 1 + |\ell|.$$

- If a sequence is not convergent, then it is **divergent**.
- Proving that a sequence is divergent can be awkward.
- The following theorem tells us in particular that unbounded sequences are divergent.

Theorem 3

Every convergent sequence is bounded.

- *Proof.* Let $\langle a_n \rangle$ be the sequence in question and let ℓ be its limit.
- We use a special case of the definition of convergence. Let $\varepsilon = 1$ and choose N so that whenever $n > N$ we have $|a_n - \ell| < 1$.
- Then, by the triangle inequality, whenever $n > N$

$$|a_n| = |(a_n - \ell) + \ell| \leq |a_n - \ell| + |\ell| < 1 + |\ell|.$$

- Now let $H = \max(\{1 + |\ell|\} \cup \{|a_n| : n \leq N\})$.

- If a sequence is not convergent, then it is **divergent**.
- Proving that a sequence is divergent can be awkward.
- The following theorem tells us in particular that unbounded sequences are divergent.

Theorem 3

Every convergent sequence is bounded.

- *Proof.* Let $\langle a_n \rangle$ be the sequence in question and let ℓ be its limit.
- We use a special case of the definition of convergence. Let $\varepsilon = 1$ and choose N so that whenever $n > N$ we have $|a_n - \ell| < 1$.
- Then, by the triangle inequality, whenever $n > N$

$$|a_n| = |(a_n - \ell) + \ell| \leq |a_n - \ell| + |\ell| < 1 + |\ell|.$$

- Now let $H = \max(\{1 + |\ell|\} \cup \{|a_n| : n \leq N\})$.
- Then, for every $n \in \mathbb{N}$, either $n > N$ or $n \leq N$ and so $|a_n| \leq H$.

- **Example 4.6.** The sequence $\langle \sqrt{n} \rangle$ is divergent.

- **Example 4.6.** The sequence $\langle \sqrt{n} \rangle$ is divergent.
- The above is not the only way a sequence can diverge.

- **Example 4.6.** The sequence $\langle \sqrt{n} \rangle$ is divergent.
- The above is not the only way a sequence can diverge.
- **Example 4.7.** The sequence $\langle (-1)^n \rangle$ is divergent.

- **Example 4.6.** The sequence $\langle \sqrt{n} \rangle$ is divergent.
- The above is not the only way a sequence can diverge.
- **Example 4.7.** The sequence $\langle (-1)^n \rangle$ is divergent.
- *Proof.* The idea of the proof is simple. If it were to be convergent, then successive terms will have to get closer together. But here they are spaced 2 apart.

- **Example 4.6.** The sequence $\langle \sqrt{n} \rangle$ is divergent.
- The above is not the only way a sequence can diverge.
- **Example 4.7.** The sequence $\langle (-1)^n \rangle$ is divergent.
- *Proof.* The idea of the proof is simple. If it were to be convergent, then successive terms will have to get closer together. But here they are spaced 2 apart.
- We argue by contradiction and use the triangle inequality once more.

- **Example 4.6.** The sequence $\langle \sqrt{n} \rangle$ is divergent.
- The above is not the only way a sequence can diverge.
- **Example 4.7.** The sequence $\langle (-1)^n \rangle$ is divergent.
- *Proof.* The idea of the proof is simple. If it were to be convergent, then successive terms will have to get closer together. But here they are spaced 2 apart.
- We argue by contradiction and use the triangle inequality once more.
- Suppose it converges to ℓ , let $\varepsilon = 1$ (any number ≤ 1 would do) and choose N accordingly.

- **Example 4.6.** The sequence $\langle \sqrt{n} \rangle$ is divergent.
- The above is not the only way a sequence can diverge.
- **Example 4.7.** The sequence $\langle (-1)^n \rangle$ is divergent.
- *Proof.* The idea of the proof is simple. If it were to be convergent, then successive terms will have to get closer together. But here they are spaced 2 apart.
- We argue by contradiction and use the triangle inequality once more.
- Suppose it converges to ℓ , let $\varepsilon = 1$ (any number ≤ 1 would do) and choose N accordingly.
- Then whenever $n > N$ we have

$$\begin{aligned} 2 &= |(-1)^n + (-1)^n| = |(-1)^n - (-1)^{n+1}| \\ &= |(-1)^n - \ell - ((-1)^{n+1} - \ell)| \\ &\leq |(-1)^n - \ell| + |(-1)^{n+1} - \ell| < 1 + 1 = 2 \end{aligned}$$

which is impossible.

- **Example 4.6.** The sequence $\langle \sqrt{n} \rangle$ is divergent.
- The above is not the only way a sequence can diverge.
- **Example 4.7.** The sequence $\langle (-1)^n \rangle$ is divergent.
- *Proof.* The idea of the proof is simple. If it were to be convergent, then successive terms will have to get closer together. But here they are spaced 2 apart.
- We argue by contradiction and use the triangle inequality once more.
- Suppose it converges to ℓ , let $\varepsilon = 1$ (any number ≤ 1 would do) and choose N accordingly.
- Then whenever $n > N$ we have

$$\begin{aligned} 2 &= |(-1)^n + (-1)^n| = |(-1)^n - (-1)^{n+1}| \\ &= |(-1)^n - \ell - ((-1)^{n+1} - \ell)| \\ &\leq |(-1)^n - \ell| + |(-1)^{n+1} - \ell| < 1 + 1 = 2 \end{aligned}$$

which is impossible.

- Note that it diverges even though it is bounded. In other words being bounded is not enough to confer convergence on a sequence.

- How about more complicated sequences such as

$$\langle (1 + 1/n)^n \rangle?$$

- How about more complicated sequences such as

$$\langle (1 + 1/n)^n \rangle?$$

- It could be annoying to have to use the ε definition.

- How about more complicated sequences such as

$$\langle (1 + 1/n)^n \rangle?$$

- It could be annoying to have to use the ε definition.
- There are theorems which enable us to work round this.

Theorem 4 (The Combination Theorem for sequences)

Suppose that $\langle a_n \rangle$ converges to α and $\langle b_n \rangle$ converges to β as $n \rightarrow \infty$, and let λ and μ be real numbers. Then

(i) $\langle \lambda a_n + \mu b_n \rangle$ converges to $\lambda\alpha + \mu\beta$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$,

(ii) $\langle a_n b_n \rangle$ converges to $\alpha\beta$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$.

(iii) If $\beta \neq 0$, then $\frac{a_n}{b_n} \rightarrow \frac{\alpha}{\beta}$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$.

- How about more complicated sequences such as

$$\langle (1 + 1/n)^n \rangle?$$

- It could be annoying to have to use the ε definition.
- There are theorems which enable us to work round this.

Theorem 4 (The Combination Theorem for sequences)

Suppose that $\langle a_n \rangle$ converges to α and $\langle b_n \rangle$ converges to β as $n \rightarrow \infty$, and let λ and μ be real numbers. Then

(i) $\langle \lambda a_n + \mu b_n \rangle$ converges to $\lambda\alpha + \mu\beta$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$,

(ii) $\langle a_n b_n \rangle$ converges to $\alpha\beta$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$.

(iii) If $\beta \neq 0$, then $\frac{a_n}{b_n} \rightarrow \frac{\alpha}{\beta}$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$.

- We will see many variants of this as the subject progresses.

- How about more complicated sequences such as

$$\langle (1 + 1/n)^n \rangle?$$

- It could be annoying to have to use the ε definition.
- There are theorems which enable us to work round this.

Theorem 4 (The Combination Theorem for sequences)

Suppose that $\langle a_n \rangle$ converges to α and $\langle b_n \rangle$ converges to β as $n \rightarrow \infty$, and let λ and μ be real numbers. Then

(i) $\langle \lambda a_n + \mu b_n \rangle$ converges to $\lambda\alpha + \mu\beta$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$,

(ii) $\langle a_n b_n \rangle$ converges to $\alpha\beta$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$.

(iii) If $\beta \neq 0$, then $\frac{a_n}{b_n} \rightarrow \frac{\alpha}{\beta}$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$.

- We will see many variants of this as the subject progresses.
- In part (iii) there is a convention. Since $\beta \neq 0$ we are confident that there is some N_0 so that for $n > N_0$ we have $b_n \neq 0$. It is possible there are $n \leq N_0$ with $b_n = 0$. In that case the convention is that we suppose that $n > N_0$ and ignore the $n \leq N_0$.

- **Theorem 4.** *Suppose that $\langle a_n \rangle$ converges to α and $\langle b_n \rangle$ converges to β as $n \rightarrow \infty$, and let λ and μ be real numbers. Then*
 - $\langle \lambda a_n + \mu b_n \rangle$ converges to $\lambda\alpha + \mu\beta$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$,*
 - $\langle a_n b_n \rangle$ converges to $\alpha\beta$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$.*
 - If $\beta \neq 0$, then $\frac{a_n}{b_n} \rightarrow \frac{\alpha}{\beta}$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$.*

- **Theorem 4.** Suppose that $\langle a_n \rangle$ converges to α and $\langle b_n \rangle$ converges to β as $n \rightarrow \infty$, and let λ and μ be real numbers. Then
 - (i) $\langle \lambda a_n + \mu b_n \rangle$ converges to $\lambda\alpha + \mu\beta$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$,
 - (ii) $\langle a_n b_n \rangle$ converges to $\alpha\beta$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$.
 - (iii) If $\beta \neq 0$, then $\frac{a_n}{b_n} \rightarrow \frac{\alpha}{\beta}$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$.
- *Proof.* (i) Let $\varepsilon > 0$. Choose N_1, N_2 so that

$$|a_n - \alpha| < \frac{\varepsilon}{2(1 + |\lambda|)} \text{ whenever } n > N_1$$

$$|b_n - \beta| < \frac{\varepsilon}{2(1 + |\mu|)} \text{ whenever } n > N_2.$$

- **Theorem 4.** Suppose that $\langle a_n \rangle$ converges to α and $\langle b_n \rangle$ converges to β as $n \rightarrow \infty$, and let λ and μ be real numbers. Then
 - (i) $\langle \lambda a_n + \mu b_n \rangle$ converges to $\lambda\alpha + \mu\beta$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$,
 - (ii) $\langle a_n b_n \rangle$ converges to $\alpha\beta$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$.
 - (iii) If $\beta \neq 0$, then $\frac{a_n}{b_n} \rightarrow \frac{\alpha}{\beta}$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$.

- *Proof.* (i) Let $\varepsilon > 0$. Choose N_1, N_2 so that

$$|a_n - \alpha| < \frac{\varepsilon}{2(1 + |\lambda|)} \text{ whenever } n > N_1$$

$$|b_n - \beta| < \frac{\varepsilon}{2(1 + |\mu|)} \text{ whenever } n > N_2.$$

- Let $N = \max\{N_1, N_2\}$ and suppose that $n > N$.

- **Theorem 4.** Suppose that $\langle a_n \rangle$ converges to α and $\langle b_n \rangle$ converges to β as $n \rightarrow \infty$, and let λ and μ be real numbers. Then
 - (i) $\langle \lambda a_n + \mu b_n \rangle$ converges to $\lambda\alpha + \mu\beta$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$,
 - (ii) $\langle a_n b_n \rangle$ converges to $\alpha\beta$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$.
 - (iii) If $\beta \neq 0$, then $\frac{a_n}{b_n} \rightarrow \frac{\alpha}{\beta}$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$.

- *Proof.* (i) Let $\varepsilon > 0$. Choose N_1, N_2 so that

$$|a_n - \alpha| < \frac{\varepsilon}{2(1 + |\lambda|)} \text{ whenever } n > N_1$$

$$|b_n - \beta| < \frac{\varepsilon}{2(1 + |\mu|)} \text{ whenever } n > N_2.$$

- Let $N = \max\{N_1, N_2\}$ and suppose that $n > N$.
- Then, by the triangle inequality,

$$\begin{aligned} |\lambda a_n + \mu b_n - \lambda\alpha - \mu\beta| &= |\lambda(a_n - \alpha) + \mu(b_n - \beta)| \\ &\leq |\lambda||a_n - \alpha| + |\mu||b_n - \beta| \\ &\leq |\lambda| \frac{\varepsilon}{2(1 + |\lambda|)} + |\mu| \frac{\varepsilon}{2(1 + |\mu|)} < \frac{\varepsilon}{2} + \frac{\varepsilon}{2} = \varepsilon. \end{aligned}$$

- **Theorem 4.** *Suppose that $\langle a_n \rangle$ converges to α and $\langle b_n \rangle$ converges to β as $n \rightarrow \infty$, and let λ and μ be real numbers. Then*
 - $\langle \lambda a_n + \mu b_n \rangle$ converges to $\lambda\alpha + \mu\beta$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$,*
 - $\langle a_n b_n \rangle$ converges to $\alpha\beta$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$.*

- **Theorem 4.** *Suppose that $\langle a_n \rangle$ converges to α and $\langle b_n \rangle$ converges to β as $n \rightarrow \infty$, and let λ and μ be real numbers. Then*
 - (i) $\langle \lambda a_n + \mu b_n \rangle$ converges to $\lambda\alpha + \mu\beta$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$,
 - (ii) $\langle a_n b_n \rangle$ converges to $\alpha\beta$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$.
- *Proof.* (ii) We relate $a_n b_n - \alpha\beta$ to $a_n - \alpha$ and $b_n - \beta$ via

$$a_n b_n - \alpha\beta = (a_n - \alpha)b_n + \alpha(b_n - \beta). \quad (2.1)$$

- **Theorem 4.** *Suppose that $\langle a_n \rangle$ converges to α and $\langle b_n \rangle$ converges to β as $n \rightarrow \infty$, and let λ and μ be real numbers. Then*
 - (i) $\langle \lambda a_n + \mu b_n \rangle$ converges to $\lambda\alpha + \mu\beta$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$,
 - (ii) $\langle a_n b_n \rangle$ converges to $\alpha\beta$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$.
- *Proof.* (ii) We relate $a_n b_n - \alpha\beta$ to $a_n - \alpha$ and $b_n - \beta$ via
$$a_n b_n - \alpha\beta = (a_n - \alpha)b_n + \alpha(b_n - \beta). \quad (2.1)$$
- $\langle b_n \rangle$ is convergent. So there is an H so that $|b_n| \leq H$.

- **Theorem 4.** Suppose that $\langle a_n \rangle$ converges to α and $\langle b_n \rangle$ converges to β as $n \rightarrow \infty$, and let λ and μ be real numbers. Then

(i) $\langle \lambda a_n + \mu b_n \rangle$ converges to $\lambda\alpha + \mu\beta$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$,

(ii) $\langle a_n b_n \rangle$ converges to $\alpha\beta$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$.

- *Proof.* (ii) We relate $a_n b_n - \alpha\beta$ to $a_n - \alpha$ and $b_n - \beta$ via

$$a_n b_n - \alpha\beta = (a_n - \alpha)b_n + \alpha(b_n - \beta). \quad (2.1)$$

- $\langle b_n \rangle$ is convergent. So there is an H so that $|b_n| \leq H$.
- Now we can imitate (i). Let $\varepsilon > 0$, choose N_1, N_2 so that

$$|a_n - \alpha| < \frac{\varepsilon}{2(1+H)} \text{ whenever } n > N_1$$

$$|b_n - \beta| < \frac{\varepsilon}{2(1+|\alpha|)} \text{ whenever } n > N_2$$

and suppose that $n > N = \max\{N_1, N_2\}$.

- **Theorem 4.** Suppose that $\langle a_n \rangle$ converges to α and $\langle b_n \rangle$ converges to β as $n \rightarrow \infty$, and let λ and μ be real numbers. Then

(i) $\langle \lambda a_n + \mu b_n \rangle$ converges to $\lambda\alpha + \mu\beta$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$,

(ii) $\langle a_n b_n \rangle$ converges to $\alpha\beta$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$.

- *Proof.* (ii) We relate $a_n b_n - \alpha\beta$ to $a_n - \alpha$ and $b_n - \beta$ via

$$a_n b_n - \alpha\beta = (a_n - \alpha)b_n + \alpha(b_n - \beta). \quad (2.1)$$

- $\langle b_n \rangle$ is convergent. So there is an H so that $|b_n| \leq H$.
- Now we can imitate (i). Let $\varepsilon > 0$, choose N_1, N_2 so that

$$|a_n - \alpha| < \frac{\varepsilon}{2(1+H)} \text{ whenever } n > N_1$$

$$|b_n - \beta| < \frac{\varepsilon}{2(1+|\alpha|)} \text{ whenever } n > N_2$$

and suppose that $n > N = \max\{N_1, N_2\}$.

- Then, by (2.1), and the triangle inequality $|a_n b_n - \alpha\beta| \leq$

$$|a_n - \alpha||b_n| + |\alpha||b_n - \beta| \leq \frac{\varepsilon}{2(1+H)}H + |\alpha|\frac{\varepsilon}{2(1+|\alpha|)}$$

$$< \frac{\varepsilon}{2} + \frac{\varepsilon}{2} = \varepsilon.$$

- **Theorem 4.** Suppose that $\langle a_n \rangle$ converges to α and $\langle b_n \rangle$ converges to β as $n \rightarrow \infty$, and let λ and μ be real numbers. Then
 - (ii) $\langle a_n b_n \rangle$ converges to $\alpha\beta$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$.
 - (iii) If $\beta \neq 0$, then $\frac{a_n}{b_n} \rightarrow \frac{\alpha}{\beta}$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$.

- **Theorem 4.** Suppose that $\langle a_n \rangle$ converges to α and $\langle b_n \rangle$ converges to β as $n \rightarrow \infty$, and let λ and μ be real numbers. Then

(ii) $\langle a_n b_n \rangle$ converges to $\alpha\beta$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$.

(iii) If $\beta \neq 0$, then $\frac{a_n}{b_n} \rightarrow \frac{\alpha}{\beta}$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$.

- *Proof.* (iii) In view of (ii), it suffices to prove that

$$\frac{1}{b_n} \rightarrow \frac{1}{\beta} \text{ as } n \rightarrow \infty.$$

- **Theorem 4.** Suppose that $\langle a_n \rangle$ converges to α and $\langle b_n \rangle$ converges to β as $n \rightarrow \infty$, and let λ and μ be real numbers. Then

(ii) $\langle a_n b_n \rangle$ converges to $\alpha\beta$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$.

(iii) If $\beta \neq 0$, then $\frac{a_n}{b_n} \rightarrow \frac{\alpha}{\beta}$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$.

- *Proof.* (iii) In view of (ii), it suffices to prove that

$$\frac{1}{b_n} \rightarrow \frac{1}{\beta} \text{ as } n \rightarrow \infty.$$

- Somehow we need to make use of $\beta \neq 0$. From the special case $\varepsilon = \frac{1}{2}|\beta|$ we know that there is an N_1 such that whenever $n > N_1$ we have $|b_n - \beta| < \frac{1}{2}|\beta|$ so that by the triangle inequality we have $|b_n| > |\beta|/2$.

- **Theorem 4.** Suppose that $\langle a_n \rangle$ converges to α and $\langle b_n \rangle$ converges to β as $n \rightarrow \infty$, and let λ and μ be real numbers. Then

(ii) $\langle a_n b_n \rangle$ converges to $\alpha\beta$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$.

(iii) If $\beta \neq 0$, then $\frac{a_n}{b_n} \rightarrow \frac{\alpha}{\beta}$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$.

- *Proof.* (iii) In view of (ii), it suffices to prove that

$$\frac{1}{b_n} \rightarrow \frac{1}{\beta} \text{ as } n \rightarrow \infty.$$

- Somehow we need to make use of $\beta \neq 0$. From the special case $\varepsilon = \frac{1}{2}|\beta|$ we know that there is an N_1 such that whenever $n > N_1$ we have $|b_n - \beta| < \frac{1}{2}|\beta|$ so that by the triangle inequality we have $|b_n| > |\beta|/2$.
- Now choose an arbitrary $\varepsilon > 0$ and N_2 so that whenever $n > N_2$ we have $|b_n - \beta| < \varepsilon|\beta|^2/(2)$.

- **Theorem 4.** Suppose that $\langle a_n \rangle$ converges to α and $\langle b_n \rangle$ converges to β as $n \rightarrow \infty$, and let λ and μ be real numbers. Then

(ii) $\langle a_n b_n \rangle$ converges to $\alpha\beta$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$.

(iii) If $\beta \neq 0$, then $\frac{a_n}{b_n} \rightarrow \frac{\alpha}{\beta}$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$.

- *Proof.* (iii) In view of (ii), it suffices to prove that

$$\frac{1}{b_n} \rightarrow \frac{1}{\beta} \text{ as } n \rightarrow \infty.$$

- Somehow we need to make use of $\beta \neq 0$. From the special case $\varepsilon = \frac{1}{2}|\beta|$ we know that there is an N_1 such that whenever $n > N_1$ we have $|b_n - \beta| < \frac{1}{2}|\beta|$ so that by the triangle inequality we have $|b_n| > |\beta|/2$.
- Now choose an arbitrary $\varepsilon > 0$ and N_2 so that whenever $n > N_2$ we have $|b_n - \beta| < \varepsilon|\beta|^2/(2)$.
- Let $N = \max\{N_1, N_2\}$.

- **Theorem 4.** Suppose that $\langle a_n \rangle$ converges to α and $\langle b_n \rangle$ converges to β as $n \rightarrow \infty$, and let λ and μ be real numbers. Then

(ii) $\langle a_n b_n \rangle$ converges to $\alpha\beta$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$.

(iii) If $\beta \neq 0$, then $\frac{a_n}{b_n} \rightarrow \frac{\alpha}{\beta}$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$.

- *Proof.* (iii) In view of (ii), it suffices to prove that

$$\frac{1}{b_n} \rightarrow \frac{1}{\beta} \text{ as } n \rightarrow \infty.$$

- Somehow we need to make use of $\beta \neq 0$. From the special case $\varepsilon = \frac{1}{2}|\beta|$ we know that there is an N_1 such that whenever $n > N_1$ we have $|b_n - \beta| < \frac{1}{2}|\beta|$ so that by the triangle inequality we have $|b_n| > |\beta|/2$.
- Now choose an arbitrary $\varepsilon > 0$ and N_2 so that whenever $n > N_2$ we have $|b_n - \beta| < \varepsilon|\beta|^2/(2)$.
- Let $N = \max\{N_1, N_2\}$.
- Then whenever $n > N$ we have

$$\left| \frac{1}{b_n} - \frac{1}{\beta} \right| = \left| \frac{\beta - b_n}{b_n \beta} \right| = \frac{|\beta - b_n|}{|b_n||\beta|} < \frac{2|\beta - b_n|}{|\beta|^2} < \varepsilon.$$

- **Example 4.8.** Prove that

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{n^4 - 3n^2 + 5}{4n^4 + 5n^3 - 3n} = \frac{1}{4}.$$

- **Example 4.8.** Prove that

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{n^4 - 3n^2 + 5}{4n^4 + 5n^3 - 3n} = \frac{1}{4}.$$

- *Proof.* We have

$$\frac{n^4 - 3n^2 + 5}{4n^4 + 5n^3 - 3n} = \frac{1 - 3n^{-2} + 5n^{-4}}{4 + 5n^{-1} - 3n^{-3}}$$

- **Example 4.8.** Prove that

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{n^4 - 3n^2 + 5}{4n^4 + 5n^3 - 3n} = \frac{1}{4}.$$

- *Proof.* We have

$$\frac{n^4 - 3n^2 + 5}{4n^4 + 5n^3 - 3n} = \frac{1 - 3n^{-2} + 5n^{-4}}{4 + 5n^{-1} - 3n^{-3}}$$

- and we know from Example 4.3. 1. that $n^{-1} \rightarrow 0$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$ and that $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} c = c$.

- **Example 4.8.** Prove that

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{n^4 - 3n^2 + 5}{4n^4 + 5n^3 - 3n} = \frac{1}{4}.$$

- *Proof.* We have

$$\frac{n^4 - 3n^2 + 5}{4n^4 + 5n^3 - 3n} = \frac{1 - 3n^{-2} + 5n^{-4}}{4 + 5n^{-1} - 3n^{-3}}$$

- and we know from Example 4.3. 1. that $n^{-1} \rightarrow 0$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$ and that $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} c = c$.
- Hence we can apply Theorem 4.4 multiple times and obtain successively

$$n^{-2} \rightarrow 0, \quad n^{-3} \rightarrow 0, \quad n^{-4} \rightarrow 0,$$

$$1 - 3n^{-2} + 5n^{-4} \rightarrow 1,$$

$$4 + 5n^{-1} - 3n^{-3} \rightarrow 4,$$

$$\frac{1 - 3n^{-2} + 5n^{-4}}{4 + 5n^{-1} - 3n^{-3}} \rightarrow \frac{1}{4}.$$

- What if we do not have an exact formula for the general term of the sequence?

- What if we do not have an exact formula for the general term of the sequence?
- The next theorem is very useful in such circumstances.

Theorem 5 (The Sandwich Theorem)

Suppose that $\langle a_n \rangle$, $\langle b_n \rangle$, $\langle c_n \rangle$ are three real sequences with $a_n \leq b_n \leq c_n$ for every $n \in \mathbb{N}$, and $a_n \rightarrow \ell$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$ and $c_n \rightarrow \ell$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$. Then $b_n \rightarrow \ell$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$.

- What if we do not have an exact formula for the general term of the sequence?
- The next theorem is very useful in such circumstances.

Theorem 5 (The Sandwich Theorem)

Suppose that $\langle a_n \rangle$, $\langle b_n \rangle$, $\langle c_n \rangle$ are three real sequences with $a_n \leq b_n \leq c_n$ for every $n \in \mathbb{N}$, and $a_n \rightarrow \ell$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$ and $c_n \rightarrow \ell$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$. Then $b_n \rightarrow \ell$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$

- Let $\varepsilon > 0$. Choose N_1 so that whenever $n > N_1$ we have $|a_n - \ell| < \varepsilon$ and choose N_2 so that whenever $n > N_2$ we have $|c_n - \ell| < \varepsilon$.

- What if we do not have an exact formula for the general term of the sequence?
- The next theorem is very useful in such circumstances.

Theorem 5 (The Sandwich Theorem)

Suppose that $\langle a_n \rangle$, $\langle b_n \rangle$, $\langle c_n \rangle$ are three real sequences with $a_n \leq b_n \leq c_n$ for every $n \in \mathbb{N}$, and $a_n \rightarrow \ell$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$ and $c_n \rightarrow \ell$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$. Then $b_n \rightarrow \ell$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$.

- Let $\varepsilon > 0$. Choose N_1 so that whenever $n > N_1$ we have $|a_n - \ell| < \varepsilon$ and choose N_2 so that whenever $n > N_2$ we have $|c_n - \ell| < \varepsilon$.
- Let $N = \max\{N_1, N_2\}$.

- What if we do not have an exact formula for the general term of the sequence?
- The next theorem is very useful in such circumstances.

Theorem 5 (The Sandwich Theorem)

Suppose that $\langle a_n \rangle$, $\langle b_n \rangle$, $\langle c_n \rangle$ are three real sequences with $a_n \leq b_n \leq c_n$ for every $n \in \mathbb{N}$, and $a_n \rightarrow \ell$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$ and $c_n \rightarrow \ell$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$. Then $b_n \rightarrow \ell$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$.

- Let $\varepsilon > 0$. Choose N_1 so that whenever $n > N_1$ we have $|a_n - \ell| < \varepsilon$ and choose N_2 so that whenever $n > N_2$ we have $|c_n - \ell| < \varepsilon$.
- Let $N = \max\{N_1, N_2\}$.
- Then, whenever $n > N$, we have

$$\begin{aligned} -\varepsilon < a_n - \ell \leq b_n - \ell \leq c_n - \ell < \varepsilon, \\ -\varepsilon < b_n - \ell < \varepsilon, \\ |b_n - \ell| < \varepsilon. \end{aligned}$$

- **Example 4.9.** *Suppose that $|x| < 1$. Then $x^n \rightarrow 0$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$.*

- **Example 4.9.** *Suppose that $|x| < 1$. Then $x^n \rightarrow 0$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$.*
- *Proof.* If $x = 0$, so that $x^n = 0$, then we already know the result.

- **Example 4.9.** Suppose that $|x| < 1$. Then $x^n \rightarrow 0$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$.
- *Proof.* If $x = 0$, so that $x^n = 0$, then we already know the result.
- Thus we may suppose that $x \neq 0$, and thus $|x|^{-1} > 1$.

- **Example 4.9.** Suppose that $|x| < 1$. Then $x^n \rightarrow 0$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$.
- *Proof.* If $x = 0$, so that $x^n = 0$, then we already know the result.
- Thus we may suppose that $x \neq 0$, and thus $|x|^{-1} > 1$.
- Let $y = |x|^{-1} - 1$ so that $y > 0$ and $|x|^{-1} = 1 + y$.

- **Example 4.9.** Suppose that $|x| < 1$. Then $x^n \rightarrow 0$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$.
- *Proof.* If $x = 0$, so that $x^n = 0$, then we already know the result.
- Thus we may suppose that $x \neq 0$, and thus $|x|^{-1} > 1$.
- Let $y = |x|^{-1} - 1$ so that $y > 0$ and $|x|^{-1} = 1 + y$.
- By the binomial inequality

$$|x|^{-n} = (1 + y)^n \geq 1 + ny > ny.$$

- **Example 4.9.** Suppose that $|x| < 1$. Then $x^n \rightarrow 0$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$.
- *Proof.* If $x = 0$, so that $x^n = 0$, then we already know the result.
- Thus we may suppose that $x \neq 0$, and thus $|x|^{-1} > 1$.
- Let $y = |x|^{-1} - 1$ so that $y > 0$ and $|x|^{-1} = 1 + y$.
- By the binomial inequality

$$|x|^{-n} = (1 + y)^n \geq 1 + ny > ny.$$

- Hence

$$0 \leq |x|^n < \frac{1}{ny}.$$

- **Example 4.9.** Suppose that $|x| < 1$. Then $x^n \rightarrow 0$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$.
- *Proof.* If $x = 0$, so that $x^n = 0$, then we already know the result.
- Thus we may suppose that $x \neq 0$, and thus $|x|^{-1} > 1$.
- Let $y = |x|^{-1} - 1$ so that $y > 0$ and $|x|^{-1} = 1 + y$.
- By the binomial inequality

$$|x|^{-n} = (1 + y)^n \geq 1 + ny > ny.$$

- Hence

$$0 \leq |x|^n < \frac{1}{ny}.$$

- Now both sides have limit 0 so we can apply the sandwich theorem.

- **Example 4.10.** *Suppose $x > 0$. Then $x^{1/n} \rightarrow 1$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$.*

- **Example 4.10.** Suppose $x > 0$. Then $x^{1/n} \rightarrow 1$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$.
- By $x^{1/n}$ we mean that positive number t such that $t^n = x$.

- **Example 4.10.** Suppose $x > 0$. Then $x^{1/n} \rightarrow 1$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$.
- By $x^{1/n}$ we mean that positive number t such that $t^n = x$.
- We have not established that such an object exists. Shortly we will look at $2^{1/2}$. However after we have studied monotonic sequences Chapter 5 the proofs become easier.

- **Example 4.10.** Suppose $x > 0$. Then $x^{1/n} \rightarrow 1$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$.
- By $x^{1/n}$ we mean that positive number t such that $t^n = x$.
- We have not established that such an object exists. Shortly we will look at $2^{1/2}$. However after we have studied monotonic sequences Chapter 5 the proofs become easier.
- *Proof.* We first suppose that $x \geq 1$.

- **Example 4.10.** Suppose $x > 0$. Then $x^{1/n} \rightarrow 1$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$.
- By $x^{1/n}$ we mean that positive number t such that $t^n = x$.
- We have not established that such an object exists. Shortly we will look at $2^{1/2}$. However after we have studied monotonic sequences Chapter 5 the proofs become easier.
- *Proof.* We first suppose that $x \geq 1$.
- Then $x^{1/n} \geq 1$, for if $x^{1/n} < 1$, then it would follow by the order axioms and induction that $x = (x^{1/n})^n < 1^n = 1$.

- **Example 4.10.** Suppose $x > 0$. Then $x^{1/n} \rightarrow 1$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$.
- By $x^{1/n}$ we mean that positive number t such that $t^n = x$.
- We have not established that such an object exists. Shortly we will look at $2^{1/2}$. However after we have studied monotonic sequences Chapter 5 the proofs become easier.
- *Proof.* We first suppose that $x \geq 1$.
- Then $x^{1/n} \geq 1$, for if $x^{1/n} < 1$, then it would follow by the order axioms and induction that $x = (x^{1/n})^n < 1^n = 1$.
- Let $y_n = x^{1/n} - 1$, so $y_n \geq 0$ and $(1 + y_n)^n = (x^{1/n})^n = x$.

- **Example 4.10.** Suppose $x > 0$. Then $x^{1/n} \rightarrow 1$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$.
- By $x^{1/n}$ we mean that positive number t such that $t^n = x$.
- We have not established that such an object exists. Shortly we will look at $2^{1/2}$. However after we have studied monotonic sequences Chapter 5 the proofs become easier.
- *Proof.* We first suppose that $x \geq 1$.
- Then $x^{1/n} \geq 1$, for if $x^{1/n} < 1$, then it would follow by the order axioms and induction that $x = (x^{1/n})^n < 1^n = 1$.
- Let $y_n = x^{1/n} - 1$, so $y_n \geq 0$ and $(1 + y_n)^n = (x^{1/n})^n = x$.
- Hence, by the binomial inequality, $x = (1 + y_n)^n \geq 1 + ny_n = 1 + n(x^{1/n} - 1)$ which can be rearranged to give $1 \leq x^{1/n} \leq 1 + \frac{x-1}{n}$ and again the sandwich theorem comes to our aid.

- **Example 4.10.** Suppose $x > 0$. Then $x^{1/n} \rightarrow 1$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$.
- By $x^{1/n}$ we mean that positive number t such that $t^n = x$.
- We have not established that such an object exists. Shortly we will look at $2^{1/2}$. However after we have studied monotonic sequences Chapter 5 the proofs become easier.
- *Proof.* We first suppose that $x \geq 1$.
- Then $x^{1/n} \geq 1$, for if $x^{1/n} < 1$, then it would follow by the order axioms and induction that $x = (x^{1/n})^n < 1^n = 1$.
- Let $y_n = x^{1/n} - 1$, so $y_n \geq 0$ and $(1 + y_n)^n = (x^{1/n})^n = x$.
- Hence, by the binomial inequality, $x = (1 + y_n)^n \geq 1 + ny_n = 1 + n(x^{1/n} - 1)$ which can be rearranged to give $1 \leq x^{1/n} \leq 1 + \frac{x-1}{n}$ and again the sandwich theorem comes to our aid.
- If instead we have $0 < x < 1$, then

$$\frac{1}{x^{1/n}} = \left(\frac{1}{x}\right)^{1/n} \rightarrow 1.$$

- **Example 4.10.** Suppose $x > 0$. Then $x^{1/n} \rightarrow 1$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$.
- By $x^{1/n}$ we mean that positive number t such that $t^n = x$.
- We have not established that such an object exists. Shortly we will look at $2^{1/2}$. However after we have studied monotonic sequences Chapter 5 the proofs become easier.
- *Proof.* We first suppose that $x \geq 1$.
- Then $x^{1/n} \geq 1$, for if $x^{1/n} < 1$, then it would follow by the order axioms and induction that $x = (x^{1/n})^n < 1^n = 1$.
- Let $y_n = x^{1/n} - 1$, so $y_n \geq 0$ and $(1 + y_n)^n = (x^{1/n})^n = x$.
- Hence, by the binomial inequality, $x = (1 + y_n)^n \geq 1 + ny_n = 1 + n(x^{1/n} - 1)$ which can be rearranged to give $1 \leq x^{1/n} \leq 1 + \frac{x-1}{n}$ and again the sandwich theorem comes to our aid.
- If instead we have $0 < x < 1$, then

$$\frac{1}{x^{1/n}} = \left(\frac{1}{x}\right)^{1/n} \rightarrow 1.$$

- Hence, by the combination theorem we have the desired conclusion.

- **Definition 4.3.** A sequence $\langle a_n \rangle$ **diverges** to $+\infty$ (written $x_n \rightarrow +\infty$) as $n \rightarrow \infty$ when for any $B > 0$ there exists a real number N such that whenever $n > N$ we have $a_n > B$. Likewise $\langle a_n \rangle$ **diverges** to $-\infty$ (and we write $x_n \rightarrow -\infty$) as $n \rightarrow \infty$ when for any $b < 0$ there exists a real number N such that whenever $n > N$ we have $a_n < b$.

- **Definition 4.3.** A sequence $\langle a_n \rangle$ **diverges** to $+\infty$ (written $x_n \rightarrow +\infty$) as $n \rightarrow \infty$ when for any $B > 0$ there exists a real number N such that whenever $n > N$ we have $a_n > B$. Likewise $\langle a_n \rangle$ **diverges** to $-\infty$ (and we write $x_n \rightarrow -\infty$) as $n \rightarrow \infty$ when for any $b < 0$ there exists a real number N such that whenever $n > N$ we have $a_n < b$.
- **Example 4.11** 1. Let $a_n = \sqrt{n}$ for $n \in \mathbb{N}$. Then $\langle a_n \rangle$ diverges to $+\infty$.
2. Let $b_n = n + (-1)^n \sqrt{n}$. Then $\langle b_n \rangle$ diverges to $+\infty$.

- **Definition 4.3.** A sequence $\langle a_n \rangle$ **diverges** to $+\infty$ (written $x_n \rightarrow +\infty$) as $n \rightarrow \infty$ when for any $B > 0$ there exists a real number N such that whenever $n > N$ we have $a_n > B$. Likewise $\langle a_n \rangle$ **diverges** to $-\infty$ (and we write $x_n \rightarrow -\infty$) as $n \rightarrow \infty$ when for any $b < 0$ there exists a real number N such that whenever $n > N$ we have $a_n < b$.

- **Example 4.11** 1. Let $a_n = \sqrt{n}$ for $n \in \mathbb{N}$. Then $\langle a_n \rangle$ diverges to $+\infty$.
2. Let $b_n = n + (-1)^n \sqrt{n}$. Then $\langle b_n \rangle$ diverges to $+\infty$.
- **Proof.** 1. Let $B > 0$ and choose $N = B^2$. Then, whenever $n > N$ we have $a_n = \sqrt{n} > \sqrt{N} = B$.
- 2. Let $B > 0$ and choose $N = (\sqrt{B} + 1)^2$. Then

$$\begin{aligned} b_n &= n + (-1)^n \sqrt{n} \geq n - \sqrt{n} = \left(\sqrt{n} - \frac{1}{2}\right)^2 - \frac{1}{4} \\ &> \left(\sqrt{N} - \frac{1}{2}\right)^2 - \frac{1}{4} = \left(\sqrt{B} + \frac{1}{2}\right)^2 - \frac{1}{4} = B + \sqrt{B} > B. \end{aligned}$$