

## Chapter 3

Sequence of real numbers

### 1 Generalities

**Definition 1.1** *A sequence of real numbers is a function*

$$U : \begin{cases} \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{R} \\ n \mapsto u(n) = u_n \end{cases}.$$

Informally, the sequence  $U$  can be written as an infinite list of real numbers as

$$U = (u_1, u_2, u_3, \dots), \text{ where } u_n = U(n).$$

Other notations for sequences are  $(u_n)$  or  $\{u_n\}_1^\infty$ ; we will use  $(u_n)$ .

Some sequences can be written **explicitly** with a formula such as

$$u_n = \frac{n}{n+1}, u_n = \frac{1}{2^n} \text{ or } u_n = (-1)^n \cos(n^2 + 1)$$

or we could be given the first few terms of the sequence, such as

the other may be given **recursively, for example**  $\begin{cases} u_0 = 1 \\ u_{n+1} = \sqrt{2 + u_n} \end{cases}, \forall n \in \mathbb{N}$

with  $u_0 = 1, u_1 = \sqrt{3}, u_2 = \sqrt{2 + \sqrt{3}}, \dots$

## 1.1 Classical sequences

There are two classical sequences that we will encounter quite often. Arithmetic sequences and geometric sequences..

### Arithmetic sequences

An arithmetic sequence is a sequence  $(u_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$  for which there exists  $a \in \mathbb{R}$  called the common difference of this sequence such that, for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ ,

$$u_{n+1} = a + u_n. \quad \text{Recurrent form}$$

The general term of an arithmetic sequence with common difference  $a$  and first term  $u_0$  is

$$u_n = u_0 + na. \quad \text{Explicit form}$$

### Geometric sequences

A geometric sequence is a sequence  $(u_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$  for which there exists  $r \in \mathbb{R}$  called the common ratio of this sequence such that, for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$

$$u_{n+1} = ru_n. \quad \text{Recurrent form}$$

The general term of a geometric sequence with common ratio  $r$  and first term  $u_0$  is

$$u_n = u_0 r^n. \quad \text{Explicit form}$$

**Proposition 1.1** : Let  $u(n)$  and  $v(n)$  be two real sequences, and let  $\lambda$  be a real number. We define the sequences :

- ▷ 1)  $x = u + v$  with general term  $x_n = u_n + v_n$
- ▷ 2)  $w = uv$  with general term  $w_n = u_n v_n$
- ▷ 3)  $y = \lambda u$  with general term  $y_n = \lambda u_n$

▷ 4)  $\forall n \in \mathbb{N}, v_n \neq 0$ , we define  $z = \left(\frac{u}{v}\right)$  with general term  $z_n = \frac{u_n}{v_n}$ .

## 2 Monotone Sequences, Boundedness

**Definition 2.1** Let  $(u_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$  be a sequence .

i) We say that  $(u_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$  is **increasing** if  $u_n \leq u_{n+1}$ , for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$

ii) We say that  $(u_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$  is **decreasing** if  $u_{n+1} \leq u_n$ , for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ .

iii) We say that  $(u_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$  is **monotone** if  $(u_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$  is either **increasing** or **decreasing**.

iv)  $(u_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$  is a constant sequence if and only if  $u_n = u_{n+1}$  for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ .

**Remark** To study the variation of a sequence  $(u_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ , we compare the terms  $u_{n+1}$  and  $u_n$  for each integer  $n$ , either by studying the sign of the difference  $u_{n+1} - u_n$ , or, when the terms  $u_n$  are strictly positive, by comparing the ratio  $\frac{u_{n+1}}{u_n}$  to the number 1.

**Example 2.1** let  $u_n = 3n + 2, \forall n \in \mathbb{N}$ .

We have  $u_{n+1} - u_n = 3(n+1) + 2 - (3n + 2) = 3n + 3 + 2 - 3n - 2 = 3 > 0$   
therefore  $(u_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$  is **increasing**.

**Example 2.2** for all  $n \geq 1, u_n = \frac{n}{2^n}$ .

we have  $\frac{u_{n+1}}{u_n} = \frac{n+1}{2^{n+1}} \frac{2^n}{n} = \frac{1}{2} \frac{n+1}{n} = \frac{1}{2} \left(1 + \frac{1}{n}\right) \leq \frac{1}{2} (1+1) = 1$

Then  $\frac{u_{n+1}}{u_n} \leq 1 \Rightarrow u_{n+1} \leq u_n, \forall n \geq 1$ . so  $(u_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$  is **decreasing**.

### 2.1 Upper and lower bound sequences

**Definition 2.2** let  $(u_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$  be a sequence

- $(u_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$  is **upper bounded** if  $\exists M \in \mathbb{R}, \forall n \in \mathbb{N}, u_n \leq M$ .
- $(u_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$  is **lower bounded** if  $\exists m \in \mathbb{R}, \forall n \in \mathbb{N}, u_n \geq m$
- $(u_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$  is **bounded** if (she is upper or lower bounded )  $\exists M, m \in \mathbb{R}, m \leq u_n \leq M$ .

### 3. Limits of sequences

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let  $(u_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}} = (\sin(n))_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$  is bounded when  $\forall n \in \mathbb{N} : |\sin(n)| \leq 1$  so  $\forall n \in \mathbb{N} : -1 \leq \sin(n) \leq 1$

## 2.2 Monotone Convergence Theorem

**Theorem 2.1** *If  $(u_n)$  is bounded and monotone then  $(u_n)$  is convergent. In particular;*

- i) if  $(u_n)$  is bounded above and increasing then  $\lim_{n \rightarrow +\infty} u_n = \sup \{u_n : n \in \mathbb{N}\}$ ,  
ii) if  $(u_n)$  is bounded below and decreasing then  $\lim_{n \rightarrow +\infty} u_n = \inf \{u_n : n \in \mathbb{N}\}$ .

the results mentioned previously, which apply to bounded monotone sequences, can also be applied to unbounded monotone sequences.

**Example :** The sequence  $(\frac{1}{n}, \frac{1}{n+1}, \frac{1}{n+2}, \dots)$  is decreasing and unbounded. It converges to 0

**Theorem 2.2** *Any unbounded increasing sequence tends to  $+\infty$ . Any unbounded decreasing sequence tends to  $-\infty$*

**Example 2.3** let  $u_n = \frac{1}{n}$ ,

we have  $\forall n \in \mathbb{N}^* : 0 < \frac{1}{n} \leq 1$ .

Moreover, we have  $\frac{u_{n+1}}{u_n} = \frac{n}{n+1} < 1$ , so  $(u_n)$  is decreasing and bounded below by 0, so  $(u_n)$  convergences.

## 3 Limits of sequences

**Definition 3.1** *A sequence of real numbers  $(u_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$  is said to converge to a real number  $L$ , if*

$\forall \varepsilon > 0, \exists N \in \mathbb{N}, \forall n \in \mathbb{N} : (n \geq N \implies |u_n - L| < \varepsilon)$ . and we writre  $\lim_{n \rightarrow +\infty} u_n = L \iff \lim_{n \rightarrow +\infty} (u_n - L) = 0 \iff \lim_{n \rightarrow +\infty} |u_n - L| = 0$ .

The number  $L$  is called the limit of the sequence. If  $(u_n)$  converges to  $L$  we will write

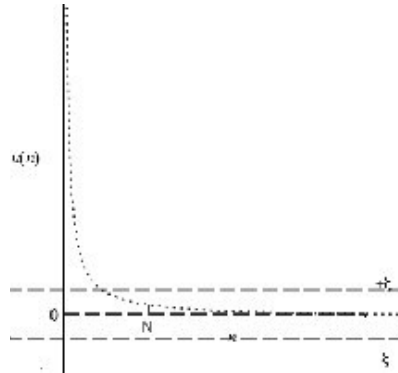
$$\triangleright \lim_{n \rightarrow +\infty} u_n = L, \exists N \in \mathbb{N}, \forall n \in \mathbb{N} : (n \geq N \implies |u_n - l| < \varepsilon)$$

• If a sequence does not converge, then we say that it **diverges**.

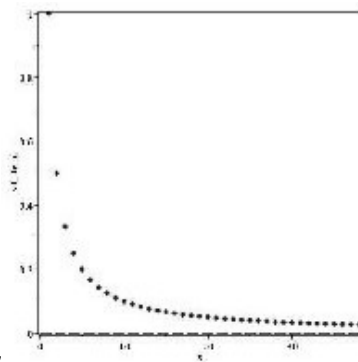
**Example** : Using the definition of the limit of a sequence, prove that  $\lim_{n \rightarrow +\infty} \frac{1}{n} = 0$ .

Take any  $\varepsilon > 0$ . Then  $\exists N \in \mathbb{N}, \forall n \in \mathbb{N} : (n \geq N \implies \left| \frac{1}{n} - 0 \right| < \varepsilon \implies \frac{1}{n} < \varepsilon$ , if  $n \geq N$   
then  $\frac{1}{n} \leq \frac{1}{N} < \varepsilon$ .

(by Archimedean property :  $\exists N \in \mathbb{N}^*$  such that  $N > \frac{1}{\varepsilon}$ ) This proves, by definition, that  $\lim_{n \rightarrow +\infty} \frac{1}{n} = 0$ ; so a sequence  $(\frac{1}{n})$  converges to 0.



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**Example 3.1** Using the definition of the limit of a sequence, prove that

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow +\infty} \frac{n}{2n+1} = \frac{1}{2}$$

proofet  $\varepsilon > 0$ . we must show that there is  $N \in \mathbb{N}$ , such that  $\forall n \in \mathbb{N} : (n \geq N$

implies  $\left| \frac{n}{2n+1} - \frac{1}{2} \right| < \varepsilon$  **1.**

Some work with the expression in absolute values shows us how to do this

### 3. Limits of sequences

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$$\left| \frac{n}{2n+1} - \frac{1}{2} \right| = \left| \frac{2n - 2n + 1}{4n + 2} \right| = \left| \frac{1}{4n + 2} \right| = \frac{1}{4n + 2} < \frac{1}{4n}.$$

Thus  $\left| \frac{n}{2n+1} - \frac{1}{2} \right| < \varepsilon$  whenever  $\frac{1}{4n} < \varepsilon$  which gives (by archimedean property)  $n > \frac{1}{4\varepsilon}$ . Thus, it suffices to choose  $N = E\left(\frac{1}{4\varepsilon}\right) + 1$

**Exercise** Using the definition of the limit of a sequence, show that the following sequences converges to  $l$

- $(u_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ ;  $u_n = \frac{(2n^2 + 1)^2}{n^4}$ ,  $l = 4$
- $(u_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ ;  $u_n = \sqrt[n]{a}$ ,  $a > 1$ ;  $l = 1$

**Definition 3.2** We say that the sequence  $(u_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$  tends to  $+\infty$  as  $n$  tends to infinity and we note  $\lim_{n \rightarrow +\infty} u_n = +\infty$  iff

$$\triangleright \forall A > 0, \exists N \in \mathbb{N}, \forall n \in \mathbb{N} : (n \geq N \implies u_n \geq A)$$

In this case we will say that  $(u_n)$  **diverges** to  $+\infty$ . We can make a similar definition for  $\lim_{n \rightarrow +\infty} u_n = -\infty$ .

$$\triangleright \forall A > 0, \exists N \in \mathbb{N}, \forall n \in \mathbb{N} : (n \geq N \implies u_n \leq -A)$$

**Example 3.2** Let be the following sequences

$$U_n = \frac{3}{2}n^2 + 1, \quad V_n = -3n + 5$$

We show that  $\lim_{n \rightarrow +\infty} U_n = +\infty$  and  $\lim_{n \rightarrow +\infty} V_n = -\infty$ .

1•  $\lim_{n \rightarrow +\infty} U_n = +\infty$ , using the definition of limit

$$\triangleright \forall A > 0, \exists N \in \mathbb{N}, \forall n \in \mathbb{N} : (n \geq N \implies u_n \geq A)$$

Let  $A > 0$ , we have  $u_n \geq A \implies \frac{3}{2}n^2 + 1 \geq A$  implies  $n^2 \geq \frac{2(A-1)}{3}$

we obtain  $n \geq \sqrt{\frac{2(A-1)}{3}}$ , so,  $\exists N$ , we can take  $N = E\left[\sqrt{\frac{2(A-1)}{3}}\right] + 1$

• The same method used for the sequence  $(V_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$

### 3.1 Limit Theorems

**Theorem 3.1 (Convergent sequences are bounded)** Let  $(u_n), n \in \mathbb{N}$  be a convergent sequence. Then the sequence is bounded, and the limit is unique.

proof Easier property to show that the limit is unique, so let's do that first. Suppose the sequence has two limits  $L$  and  $L'$ . **1.**

▷ Take any  $\varepsilon > 0$ , Then  $\exists N \in \mathbb{N}, \forall k \in \mathbb{N} : (k \geq N \implies |u_k - L| < \frac{\varepsilon}{2}$

Also,  $\exists N' \in \mathbb{N}$  another integer such that  $(\frac{\varepsilon}{2} \implies |u_k - L'| < \frac{\varepsilon}{2}$

Then, by the triangle inequality :

$$|L - L'| = |L - u_k + u_k - L| < |u_k - L| + |u_k - L'| < \frac{\varepsilon}{2} + \frac{\varepsilon}{2} = \varepsilon \text{ if } k \geq \max\{N, N'\}$$

Therefore  $|L - L'| < \varepsilon, \forall \varepsilon > 0$ .

But the only way that can happen is for  $L = L'$ , so that the limit is indeed **unique**.

▷ Next, we need to prove boundedness. Since the sequence converges, we can take  $\forall \varepsilon > 0$

we take  $\varepsilon = 1$ . ( $0 < \varepsilon \leq 1$ ) Then there is an integer  $N$  so that  $|u_n - L| < 1$  if  $k > N$ .

Fix that integer  $N$ . Then we have that  $|u_n| \leq |u_n - L| + |L| < 1 + |L| = K$  for all  $k > N$ .

Now, define  $M = \max\{|u_k|, k = 1, \dots, N\}, P\}$ . Then  $|u_n| < M$  for all  $n$ , which makes the sequence **bounded**.

**Proposition 3.1** Let  $(u_n)$  and  $(v_n)$  two convergent sequences

- > if  $\lim_{n \rightarrow +\infty} u_n = l$ , for all  $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}$ , we have  $\lim_{n \rightarrow +\infty} (\lambda u_n) = \lambda l$ .
- > if  $\lim_{n \rightarrow +\infty} u_n = l$  and  $\lim_{n \rightarrow +\infty} v_n = l'$ , so  $\lim_{n \rightarrow +\infty} (u_n + v_n) = l + l'$  and  $\lim_{n \rightarrow +\infty} u_n \cdot v_n = l \cdot l'$ .
- > if  $\lim_{n \rightarrow +\infty} u_n = l$  and  $l \neq 0$ , so  $\lim_{n \rightarrow +\infty} \frac{1}{u_n} = \frac{1}{l}$
- > if  $\lim_{n \rightarrow +\infty} u_n = l$ , so  $\lim_{n \rightarrow +\infty} |u_n| = |l|$ .

**Proposition 3.2** If the sequence  $(u_n)$  is bounded and the sequence  $(v_n)$  converges to 0 then the sequence  $(u_n v_n)$  converges to 0.