## <span id="page-0-0"></span>Chapter 02: Sequences of Real Numbers

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## <span id="page-3-0"></span>Definitions:

• Definitions: A real sequence  $(u_n)_{n\in\mathbb{N}}$  is defined by a function  $\mu$  from the set of natural numbers N to the real numbers R.

$$
u: \mathbb{N} \to \mathbb{R}
$$
  
\n
$$
n \mapsto u(n) = u_n
$$
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In this chapter we define  $\mathbb{N} := \{0, 1, 2, \ldots\}$ 

- $u_n$  is called **the general term** of the sequence  $(u_n)_{n\in\mathbb{N}}$ .
- $\bullet$   $u_0$  is called the first term of the sequence.
- $\bullet$   $(u_n)_{n\in\mathbb{N}}$  is called an arithmetic sequence if there exists  $a \in \mathbb{R}$ such that  $u_{n+1} - u_n = a$ . In this case, we have  $u_n = u_0 + na$ for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ .
- $(v_n)_{n\in\mathbb{N}}$  is called a geometric sequence if there exists  $a \in \mathbb{R}$ such that  $\frac{u_{n+1}}{u_n} = a$ . In this case, we have  $u_n = u_0 \cdot a^n$  for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ .

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#### Definition: Let  $(u_n)_{n\in\mathbb{N}}$  be a real sequence.

- $(v_n)_{n\in\mathbb{N}}$  is called increasing (or strictly increasing) if:  $∀n ∈ ℕ, u_{n+1} – u_n > 0$  (or  $∀n ∈ ℕ, u_{n+1} – u_n > 0$ ).
- $(v_n)_{n\in\mathbb{N}}$  is called decreasing (or strictly decreasing) if:  $\forall n \in \mathbb{N}, u_{n+1} - u_n \leq 0$  (or  $\forall n \in \mathbb{N}, u_{n+1} - u_n \leq 0$ ).
- $\bullet$  ( $u_n$ )<sub>n∈N</sub> is called monotonic if it is either increasing or decreasing.
- $(u_n)_{n\in\mathbb{N}}$  is called strictly monotonic if it is either strictly increasing or strictly decreasing.

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#### **Examples**

1. For  $u_n = n^2$ ,  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ , the sequence  $(u_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$  is increasing. In fact,  $u_{n+1} - u_n = (n+1)^2 - n^2 = n^2 + 1 \ge 0$  for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ . 2. For  $u_n = \frac{1}{n}$  $\frac{1}{n!}$ ,  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ , the sequence  $(u_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$  is decreasing. In fact,  $u_{n+1} - u_n = -\frac{n}{(n+1)!} \leq 0$  for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ .

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

- $(u_n)_{n\in\mathbb{N}}$  is called upper bounded if:  $\exists M \in \mathbb{R}, \forall n \in \mathbb{N}, u_n \leq M$ .
- $(u_n)_{n\in\mathbb{N}}$  is called lower bounded if:  $\exists m\in\mathbb{R}, \forall n\in\mathbb{N}, m\leq u_n$ .
- $(u_n)_{n\in\mathbb{N}}$  is called bounded if it is both upper bounded and lower bounded, or if there exists  $P > 0$  such that  $|u_n| \leq P$ .
- **1** If  $\forall n \in \mathbb{N}, u_n = \sin(n)$ , then the sequence  $(u_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$  is bounded. Indeed,  $|u_n| \leq 1$  for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ .
- $\textbf{2}$  The sequence  $(u_n)_{n\in \mathbb{N}};$  where  $u_n=n^3$  is bounded below by 0 but it is not bounded above.

## **Definition:** Let  $(u_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$  be a real sequence and  $\varphi$  be a strictly increasing function from  $\mathbb N$  to  $\mathbb N$ . The sequence  $(u_{\varphi(n)})_{n\in\mathbb N}$  is called a subsequence or an extracted sequence of  $(u_n)_{n\in\mathbb{N}}$ .

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Example: Let  $(u_n)_{n\in\mathbb{N}^*}$  be a real sequence defined by  $u_n = (-1)^n \frac{1}{n}$ . We can extract two subsequences  $(u_{2n})_{n \in \mathbb{N}^*}$  and  $(u_{2n+1})_{n\in\mathbb{N}}$  such that:

$$
u_{2n}=\frac{1}{2n}, \forall n\in\mathbb{N}^*
$$

$$
u_{2n+1} = -\frac{1}{2n+1}
$$

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## Convergence of a Sequence:

**Definition** Let  $(u_n)_{n\in\mathbb{N}}$  be a real sequence. We say that  $(u_n)_{n\in\mathbb{N}}$  is convergent if there exists a real number  $l \in \mathbb{R}$  such that for every  $\varepsilon > 0$ , there exists  $n_{\varepsilon} \in \mathbb{N}$  such that for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  with  $n \ge n_{\varepsilon}$ , implies  $|u_n - l| < \varepsilon$ . We denote this as:

 $\lim_{n\to+\infty}u_n=1$ 

and we say that *l* is the limit of  $(u_n)_{n\in\mathbb{N}}$ .



Example Consider the sequence  $(u_n)_{n\in\mathbb{N}}$  defined by  $u_n=1-\frac{2}{5n}$  $rac{2}{5n}$ . Let's show that  $(u_n)_{n\in\mathbb{N}}$  converges to 1.  $(\lim_{n\to+\infty}u_n=1)\Leftrightarrow$  $(\forall \varepsilon > 0, \exists n_{\varepsilon} \in \mathbb{N}, \forall n \in \mathbb{N}, n \ge n_{\varepsilon} \Rightarrow |u_n - 1| < \varepsilon)$ 

$$
|u_n-1|<\varepsilon \Leftrightarrow \frac{2}{5n}<\varepsilon \Leftrightarrow n>\frac{2}{5\varepsilon}
$$

So, it suffices to take  $n_{\varepsilon} = \left\lceil \frac{2}{5\varepsilon} \right\rceil$  $\frac{2}{5\varepsilon}$  +1.

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Theorem If  $(u_n)_{n\in\mathbb{N}}$  is a convergent sequence, then its limit is unique.

**Proof:** Let's assume by contradiction that  $(u_n)_{n\in\mathbb{N}}$  converges to two different limits  $l_1$  and  $l_2$  such that  $l_1 \neq l_2$ . Then we have:

 $(\lim_{n\to+\infty}u_n=l_1)\Rightarrow$  $(\forall \varepsilon > 0, \exists n_{\varepsilon_1} \in \mathbb{N}, \forall n \in \mathbb{N}, n \ge n_{\varepsilon_1} \Rightarrow |u_n - h| < \frac{\varepsilon}{2}$  $\frac{\varepsilon}{2}$  $(\lim_{n\to+\infty}u_n=l_2)\Rightarrow$  $(\forall \varepsilon > 0, \exists n_{\varepsilon_2} \in \mathbb{N}, \forall n \in \mathbb{N}, n \ge n_{\varepsilon_2} \Rightarrow |u_n - h_2| < \frac{\varepsilon}{2}$  $\frac{\varepsilon}{2}$ Now, let  $n_{\varepsilon_0} = \max(n_{\varepsilon_1},n_{\varepsilon_2})$ , then for all  $n \geq n_{\varepsilon_0},$  we have:

$$
|l_2 - l_1| = |(u_n - l_1) + (l_2 - u_n)| \le |(u_n - l_1)| + |(u_n - l_2)| < \varepsilon
$$

This leads to  $|l_2 - l_1| < \varepsilon$ . Regardless of how small the positive number  $\varepsilon$ , this statement holds true. So,  $\varepsilon$  must be zero, which contradicts the assumption  $l_1 \neq l_2$ . Therefore,  $l_1 = l_2$ , which is absurd.

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\*Remark:\* A sequence is said to be divergent if it tends towards infinity, or if it has multiple different limits.



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

- $\lim_{n\to+\infty}u_n=+\infty$  if and only if  $\forall A > 0, \exists n_A \in \mathbb{N}, \forall n \in \mathbb{N}, n > n_A \Rightarrow u_n > A.$
- $\bullet$  lim<sub>n→+∞</sub>  $u_n = -\infty$  if and only if  $\forall B < 0, \exists n_B \in \mathbb{N}, \forall n \in \mathbb{N}, n > n_B \Rightarrow u_n < B.$

**Proposition:** If  $(u_n)_{n\in\mathbb{N}}$  is a divergent sequence such that  $\lim_{n\to+\infty}u_n=+\infty$  (resp.  $\lim_{n\to+\infty}u_n=-\infty$ ), and  $(v_n)_{n\in\mathbb{N}}$  is a sequence such that  $u_n \le v_n$  (resp.  $u_n \ge v_n$ ) for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ , then the sequence  $(v_n)_{n\in\mathbb{N}}$  is divergent and we have  $\lim_{n\to+\infty} v_n = +\infty$ (resp.  $\lim_{n\to+\infty} v_n = -\infty$ ).

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**Proof:** Indeed, for every  $A > 0$ , there exists  $n_A \in \mathbb{N}$  such that for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ ,  $n \ge n_A \Rightarrow u_n > A$  and  $u_n \le v_n$  for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ . Therefore, for every  $A > 0$ , there exists  $n_A \in \mathbb{N}$  such that for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ ,  $n \ge n_A \Rightarrow v_n > A$ , which implies  $\lim_{n \to +\infty} v_n = +\infty$ .

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## Proposition Every convergent sequence is bounded. Remarks:

- By contrapositive, an unbounded sequence is divergent.
- <sup>2</sup> The converse is not always true; a bounded sequence is not always convergent.



Example Let  $u_n = (-1)^n$  for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ . Then the sequence  $(u_n)_{n\in\mathbb{N}}$  is bounded because for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ ,  $|(-1)^n| \leq 1$ . However,  $(u_n)_{n\in\mathbb{N}}$  is divergent because it has two different limits:  $\lim_{n\to+\infty}u_n=$  $\int 1$  if *n* is even  $-1$  if *n* is odd



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Proposition If  $(u_n)_{n\in\mathbb{N}}$  is a convergent sequence, then all its subsequences converge to the same limit. Remark: By contrapositive, it is sufficient to find two subsequences that do not converge to the same limit in order to conclude that a sequence is divergent.



**Theorem:** Let  $(u_n)_{n\in\mathbb{N}}$  and  $(v_n)_{n\in\mathbb{N}}$  be two sequences converging respectively to the limits  $l_1$  and  $l_2$ , and let  $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}$ . Then the sequences  $(u_n+v_n)_{n\in\mathbb{N}},\ (\lambda u_n)_{n\in\mathbb{N}},\ (u_n v_n)_{n\in\mathbb{N}},\ \left(\frac{u_n}{v_n}\right)_{n\in\mathbb{N}},$  $\frac{u_n}{v_n}$  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ , and  $(|u_n|)_{n\in\mathbb{N}}$  also converge, and we have:

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- **1** lim<sub>n→+∞</sub> $(u_n + v_n) = l_1 + l_2$ .
- **2**  $\lim_{n \to \infty} (\lambda u_n) = \lambda I_1$ .
- $\bullet$  lim<sub>n→+∞</sub> $(u_n v_n) = l_1 \cdot l_2$ .
- **4**  $\lim_{n \to +\infty} \frac{u_n}{v_n}$  $\frac{u_n}{v_n} = \frac{l_1}{l_2}$  $\frac{l_1}{l_2}$  if  $l_2 \neq 0$ .
- $\bullet$   $\lim_{n\to+\infty} |u_n| = |h|.$

#### Remarks:

- **1** The sum of two divergent sequences can be convergent.
- **2** The absolute value of a divergent sequence can be convergent. Examples:
	- **1** Let  $(u_n)_{n\in\mathbb{N}}$  and  $(v_n)_{n\in\mathbb{N}}$  be defined as:  $u_n = 2n$  and  $v_n = -2n + e^{-n}$  for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ . Both  $(u_n)_{n\in\mathbb{N}}$  and  $(v_n)_{n\in\mathbb{N}}$  are divergent. However, the sequence  $(u_n + v_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$  is convergent because  $u_n + v_n = e^{-n}$ for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ .
	- 2 Let  $u_n = (-1)^n$  for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ . The sequence  $(u_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$  is divergent. However, we have  $|u_n| = 1$  for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ , hence the sequence  $(|u_n|)_{n\in\mathbb{N}}$  is convergent.

- **■** If  $(u_n)_{n\in\mathbb{N}}$  is a convergent sequence such that  $u_n > 0$  for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  (resp.  $u_n < 0$  for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ ), then  $\lim_{n \to +\infty} u_n > 0$ (resp.  $\lim_{n\to+\infty}u_n<0$ ).
- **2** If  $(u_n)_{n\in\mathbb{N}}$  and  $(v_n)_{n\in\mathbb{N}}$  are two convergent sequences such that  $u_n < v_n$  for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ , then  $\lim_{n \to +\infty} u_n \leq \lim_{n \to +\infty} v_n$ .

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#### Proof:

1. Since  $u_n > 0$  for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  and  $l = \lim_{n \to +\infty} u_n$ , we can show that  $l > 0$ .

By assuming the opposite  $l < 0$ . Let  $\varepsilon = \frac{|l|}{2} > 0$ , then there exists

 $n_{\varepsilon} \in \mathbb{N}$  such that for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ ,  $n \ge n_{\varepsilon} \Rightarrow |u_n - l| < \frac{|l|}{2}$  $\frac{1}{2}$ ,

 $|l-\frac{|l|}{2}< u_n < l+\frac{|l|}{2}< 0$ , which is absurd because  $u_n>0$  for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ .

2. Since  $u_n < v_n$  for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ , let  $l_1 = \lim_{n \to +\infty} u_n$  and  $l_2 = \lim_{n \to +\infty} v_n$ . Suppose by contradiction that  $l_2 < l_1$ , and let  $\varepsilon = \frac{l_1 - l_2}{2} > 0$ . Then there exists  $n_\varepsilon \in \mathbb{N}$  such that for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ ,  $n \ge n_{\varepsilon} \Rightarrow |u_n - h| < \frac{h - h_2}{2}$ , which implies  $\frac{l_1+l_2}{2} < u_n < \frac{3l_1-l_2}{2}$  (1). Also, there exists  $n'_{\varepsilon}\in\mathbb{N}$  such that for all  $n\in\mathbb{N},$  $n \geq n'_{\varepsilon} \Rightarrow |v_n - l_2| < \frac{l_1 - l_2}{2}$ , leading to  $\frac{3l_2-l_1}{2} < v_n < \frac{l_1+l_2}{2}$  (2). Let  $n''_{\varepsilon} = \max(n_{\varepsilon}, n'_{\varepsilon})$ . Combining (1) and (2), we have  $\exists n''_{\varepsilon} \in \mathbb{N}$  such that for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ ,  $n \ge n''_{\varepsilon} \Rightarrow v_n < \frac{l_1 + l_2}{2} < u_n$ . Therefore,  $v_n < u_n$ , which is absurd because  $u_n < v_n$  for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ . Alternatively, we can view this property as a direct consequence of the first one, where we simply set  $w_n = v_n - u_n$ . Since  $w_n > 0$  for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ , we have  $\lim_{n \to +\infty} w_n \geq 0$ , implying  $\lim_{n\to+\infty}$   $(v_n - u_n) \ge 0$ , which further leads to  $\lim_{n\to+\infty} v_n > \lim_{n\to+\infty} u_n$ .

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Theorem: Any increasing (resp. decreasing) and bounded above (resp. bounded below) sequence converges to its supremum (resp. infimum).

**Proof:** Let  $(u_n)_{n\in\mathbb{N}}$  be an increasing and bounded above sequence. Then, for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ ,  $u_n \le u_{n+1}$ , and there exists  $M \in \mathbb{R}$  such that  $u_n \leq M$ . Let  $E = \{u_n, n \in \mathbb{N}\}\$  and  $u = \sup(E)$ . According to the characterization of the supremum, we have, for every  $\varepsilon > 0$ , there exists  $p \in \mathbb{N}$  such that  $u - \varepsilon < u_p$ . Since  $(u_n)$  is increasing, for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  such that  $n \geq p$ , we have  $u_n \leq u_n$ . Now, since  $u_n \leq u$ , we get  $u - \varepsilon < u_p \leq u_n \leq u < u + \varepsilon$ . Hence, for every  $\varepsilon > 0$ , there exists  $p \in \mathbb{N}$  such that for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  such that  $n \geq p$ , we have  $|u_n - u| < \varepsilon$ . Therefore,  $\lim_{n \to +\infty} u_n = \sup(E)$ .

**Theorem:** Let  $(u_n)_{n\in\mathbb{N}}$ ,  $(v_n)_{n\in\mathbb{N}}$  and  $(w_n)_{n\in\mathbb{N}}$  be three real sequences such that for all  $n \ge n_0$ ,  $u_n \le v_n \le w_n$ , and  $\lim_{n\to+\infty}u_n=\lim_{n\to+\infty}w_n=1$ , then  $\lim_{n\to+\infty}v_n=1$ . **Proof:** Let  $\varepsilon > 0$ . There exists  $n_1 \in \mathbb{N}$  such that for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  such that  $n > n_1$ , we have  $|u_n - l| < \varepsilon$  which implies  $l - \varepsilon < u_n < l + \varepsilon$ . Similarly, there exists  $n_2 \in \mathbb{N}$  such that for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  such that  $n \ge n_2$ , we have  $|w_n - l| < \varepsilon$  which implies  $l - \varepsilon < w_n < l + \varepsilon$ . Let  $n_3 = \max(n_0, n_1, n_2)$ . Then, for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  such that  $n \ge n_3$ , we have  $l - \varepsilon < u_n < v_n < w_n < l + \varepsilon$ , which leads to  $1 - \varepsilon < v_n < l + \varepsilon$  or  $|v_n - l| < \varepsilon$ . Therefore, for every  $\varepsilon > 0$ , there exists  $n_3 \in \mathbb{N}$  such that for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  such that  $n \geq n_3$ , we have  $|v_n - l| < \varepsilon$ , which concludes that  $\lim_{n \to +\infty} v_n = l$ .

**Theorem:** Let  $(u_n)_{n\in\mathbb{N}}$  and  $(v_n)_{n\in\mathbb{N}}$  be two real sequences such that  $\lim_{n\to+\infty}u_n=0$  and  $(v_n)_{n\in\mathbb{N}}$  is bounded. Then  $\lim_{n\to+\infty}u_n\cdot v_n=0.$ **Proof:** Since  $(v_n)_{n\in\mathbb{N}}$  is bounded, there exists  $M > 0$  such that  $|v_n| \leq M$  for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ . Also,  $\lim_{n \to \infty} u_n = 0$  implies that for every  $\varepsilon > 0$ , there exists  $n_{\varepsilon} \in \mathbb{N}$  such that for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  such that  $n \geq n_{\varepsilon}$ , we have  $|u_n| < \frac{\varepsilon}{N}$  $\frac{\varepsilon}{M}$  . This leads to  $|u_n\cdot v_n| = |u_n|\cdot |v_n| < \frac{\varepsilon}{M}$  $\frac{\varepsilon}{M} \cdot M = \varepsilon$ . Thus, for every  $\varepsilon > 0$ , there exists  $n_{\varepsilon} \in \mathbb{N}$  such that for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  such that  $n \ge n_{\varepsilon}$ , we have  $|u_n \cdot v_n| < \varepsilon$ , which means  $\lim_{n \to +\infty} u_n \cdot v_n = 0$ .

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Theorem (Bolzano-Weierstrass): Every bounded real sequence  $(u_n)_{n\in\mathbb{N}}$  has a convergent subsequence.



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**Definition:** Let  $(u_n)_{n\in\mathbb{N}}$  and  $(v_n)_{n\in\mathbb{N}}$  be two real sequences, such that  $(u_n)_{n\in\mathbb{N}}$  is increasing and  $(v_n)_{n\in\mathbb{N}}$  is decreasing. The sequences  $(u_n)_{n\in\mathbb{N}}$  and  $(v_n)_{n\in\mathbb{N}}$  are called adjacent if  $\lim_{n\to+\infty}(u_n-v_n)=0$ .

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Theorem: Two adjacent real sequences converge to the same limit. **Example:** The sequences  $(u_n)_{n\in\mathbb{N}^*}$  and  $(v_n)_{n\in\mathbb{N}^*}$  defined by  $u_n = \sum_{k=1}^n \frac{1}{k!}$  $\frac{1}{k!}$  and  $v_n = u_n + \frac{1}{n!}$  $\frac{1}{n!}$  respectively, converge to the same limit since they are adjacent. Indeed,  $(u_n)_{n\in\mathbb{N}^*}$  is increasing,  $(v_n)_{n\in\mathbb{N}^*}$  is decreasing, and we have  $\lim_{n\to+\infty} (v_n - u_n) = \lim_{n\to+\infty} \frac{1}{n!} = 0.$ 

## Cauchy's Convergence Criterion

**Theorem:** Let  $(u_n)_{n\in\mathbb{N}}$  be a convergent sequence. Then,  $(u_n)_{n\in\mathbb{N}}$ possesses the following property known as the Cauchy criterion. For any  $\varepsilon > 0$ , there exists an integer N such that for every pair of integers p and q greater than N, we have  $|u_p - u_q| < \varepsilon$ .



Figure:

proof: Let  $\ell$  be the limit of the sequence. We have

$$
|u_p - u_q| = |u_p - l + l - u_q| \le |u_p - l| + |l - u_q|
$$

The sequence  $(u_n)_{n\in\mathbb{N}}$  converges to *l*. Therefore, by definition, for any  $\varepsilon > 0$ , we can associate an integer N such that for all  $p > N$ , we have  $|u_p - l| < \frac{\varepsilon}{2}$  $\frac{\varepsilon}{2}$ , and for all integer  $q > N$ , we have  $|u_q - l| < \frac{\varepsilon}{2}$  $\frac{\varepsilon}{2}$ . For any pair of integers  $p$  and  $q$  greater than N,

$$
|u_p - u_q| < \frac{\varepsilon}{2} + \frac{\varepsilon}{2} = \varepsilon. \quad \Box
$$

This brings us to the following definition:

Definition: We say that a sequence  $(u_n)_{n\in\mathbb{N}}$  is a Cauchy sequence if it possesses the following property, known as the Cauchy criterion: For any  $\varepsilon > 0$ , there exists a natural number N such that for any pair of integers  $p$  and  $q$  greater than  $N$ , we have

 $|u_n - u_n| < \varepsilon$ 

or, in short,

 $\forall \varepsilon > 0, \exists N, \forall p, \forall q, \quad (p, q > N \Rightarrow |u_p - u_q| < \varepsilon)$ 

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**Example:** Show that  $(u_n)_{n\in\mathbb{N}}$  is a Cauchy sequence where  $u_n=\frac{1}{n}$  $\frac{1}{n}$ . We have  $|u_p-u_q|=|\frac{1}{p}-\frac{1}{q}|$  $\frac{1}{|q|}|\leq |\frac{1}{p}|+|-\frac{1}{q}|.$  Let us take

$$
\begin{cases}\n q > N \\
 p > N\n\end{cases}\n\implies\n\begin{cases}\n\frac{1}{q} < \frac{1}{N} \\
\frac{1}{p} < \frac{1}{N}\n\end{cases}
$$

Thus,  $|u_p - u_q| \leq \frac{1}{q} + \frac{1}{p} < \frac{1}{N} + \frac{1}{N}$  $\frac{1}{N}$ . So that  $|u_p - u_q| < \varepsilon$ , it suffices that  $\frac{2}{N} < \varepsilon$ . And so it suffices to take:

$$
N = \left[\frac{2}{\varepsilon}\right] + 1
$$

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#### **Definition**

Let  $f: D \subset \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$  be a function. We call a recursive sequence a sequence  $(u_n)$  for  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  defined by  $u_0 \in D$  and the relation

 $\forall n \in \mathbb{N}: u_{n+1} = f(u_n).$ 

In the study of recursive sequences, we always assume that  $f(D) \subseteq D$ . **Example:** Let  $u_n = 2u_{n-1} + 1$  and  $u_0 = 1$  we can compute the next terms:

$$
u_1 = 2 \cdot 1 + 1 = 3
$$
  

$$
u_2 = 2 \cdot 3 + 1 = 7
$$

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#### Remarks:

- $\bullet$  If the function f is increasing, then studying the monotony of  $(u_n)_{n\in\mathbb{N}}$  is given by examining the sign of the difference  $f(u_0) - u_0$ .
	- If  $f(u_0) u_0 > 0$ , then the sequence  $(u_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$  is increasing.
	- If  $f(u_0) u_0 < 0$ , then the sequence  $(u_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$  is decreasing.
- $\bullet$  If the function f is monotonic and continuous on D, and the sequence  $(u_n)_{n\in\mathbb{N}}$  converges to a limit  $l\in D$ , then its limit satisfies the equation  $f(l) = l$ .

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# Computation of Limits in 'Python'

In Python, you can; for example , use the 'sympy' library to perform the limit as  $n \to \infty$  of the sequence defined by  $u_n = f(n)$  is determined by the commands:



This code uses 'sympy' to define a symbolic variable 'n' and then uses 'sp.limit' to calculate the limit of the sequence  $(u_n)$  where:  $u_n = \frac{3n-1}{4n+5}$  $\frac{3n-1}{4n+5}$ . The function 'sp.oo' represents infinity in sympy. Using ' $print(...)$ , the result will be:

 $3/4$ 

If one takes  $u_n = n$ , then he can write the code:

and find the result (infinity):



 $A \equiv 1$  $299$ ∍ ∍ ← 中  $\rightarrow$ 

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<span id="page-39-0"></span>Thanks



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