

MATH 6101
Fall 2008

Functions, Sequences and Limits

The Topology of the Reals

We will make some simple definitions. Let a and b be any two real numbers with $a < b$.

$$(a,b) = \{ x \in \mathbb{R} \mid a < x < b \}$$

$$[a,b] = \{ x \in \mathbb{R} \mid a \leq x \leq b \}$$

$$(a,b] = \{ x \in \mathbb{R} \mid a < x \leq b \}$$

$$[a,b) = \{ x \in \mathbb{R} \mid a \leq x < b \}$$

$$(a,\infty) = \{ x \in \mathbb{R} \mid a < x \}$$

$$[a,\infty) = \{ x \in \mathbb{R} \mid a \leq x \}$$

$$(-\infty,b) = \{ x \in \mathbb{R} \mid x < b \}$$

$$(-\infty,b] = \{ x \in \mathbb{R} \mid x \leq b \}$$

Topology of the Reals

If $r \in \mathbb{R}$ then a *neighborhood* of r is **an** open interval (a,b) so that $r \in (a,b)$.

The neighborhood is *centered* at r if
$$r = (a + b)/2$$

If ε and a are reals, then the ε -*neighborhood* of a is the interval $(a - \varepsilon, a + \varepsilon)$

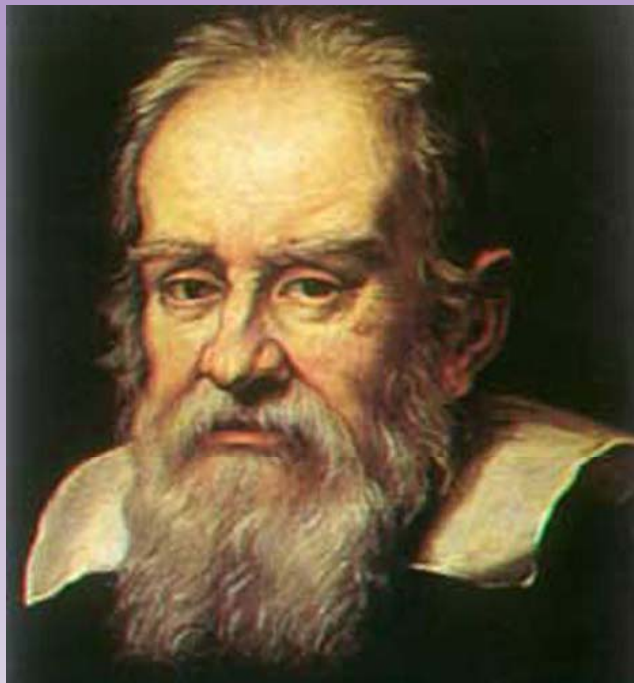
Functions

Nicole Oresme – 1350 – described the laws of nature as laws giving a dependence of one quantity on another.



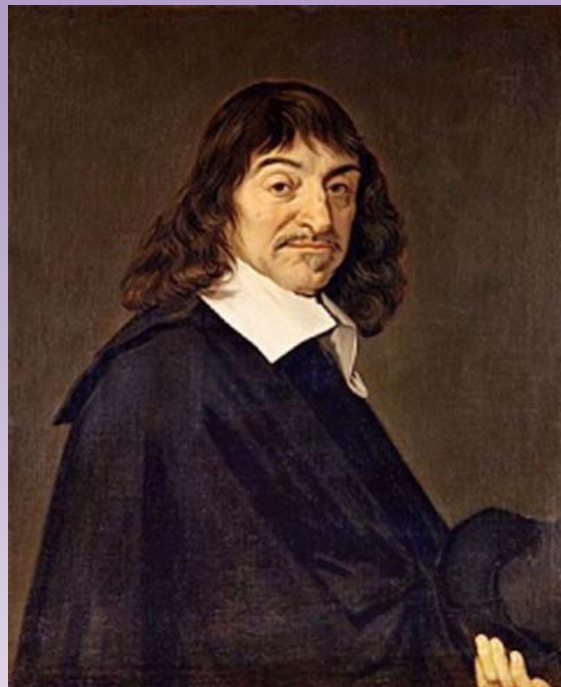
History of Function

Galileo – 1638 – studies of motion contain the clear understanding of a relation between variables



History of Function

Descartes - an equation in two variables, geometrically represented by a curve, indicates a dependence between variable quantities



Euclid's Rational Numbers

Newton – showed how functions arise from infinite power series

Leibniz – 1673 – the first to use the term *function*. He took function to designate, in very general terms, the dependence of geometrical quantities on the shape of a curve.



History of Function

- Jean Bernoulli - 1718 - function of a variable as a quantity that is composed in some way from that variable and constants
- Euler – 1748 - A function of a variable quantity is an analytic expression composed in any way whatsoever of the variable quantity and numbers or constant quantities.
- Euler – 1755 - If some quantities so depend on other quantities that if the latter are changed the former undergoes change, then the former quantities are called functions of the latter.

History of Function

- Cauchy – 1821 – still thinking of a function in terms of a formula (either explicit or implicit)
- Fourier – 1822 – introduced general Fourier series but fell back on old definitions
- Dirichlet – 1837 – defined general function and continuity (in modern terms)
- Weierstrauss – 1885 – any continuous function is the limit of a uniformly convergent sequence of polynomials
- Goursat – 1923 – modern definition

Definitions

Bernoulli – 1718 – *One calls here a function of a variable a quantity composed in any manner whatever of this variable and constants.*

Basically this meant $+$, $-$, \times , \div , $\sqrt{\quad}$, logs and sines.

They would say that $f(x)$ depended *analytically* on the variable x .

Definitions

Fourier – 1822 – *In general the function $f(x)$ represents a succession or ordinates each of which is arbitrary. An infinity of values being given to the abscissa x , there are an equal number of ordinates $f(x)$. All have actual numerical values, either positive or negative or null. We do not suppose these ordinates to be subject to common law; they succeed each other in any manner whatever, and each of them is given as it were a single quantity.*

Definitions

Fourier removed the requirement of “analytic” from the definition. It was not widely accepted for years.

Definitions

Dirichlet – 1837 – *Let us suppose that a and b are two definite values and x is a variable quantity which is to assume, gradually, all values located between a and b . Now, if to each x there corresponds a unique, finite y ..., then y is called a ... function of x for this interval. It is, moreover, not at all necessary, that y depends on x in this whole interval according to the same law; indeed, it is not necessary to think of only relations that can be expressed by mathematical operations.*

Definitions

Every “Bernoulli” function is a “Fourier” or a “Dirichlet” function.

Dirichlet:

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } x \text{ is rational and } 0 \leq x \leq 1 \\ 0 & \text{if } x \text{ is irrational and } 0 \leq x \leq 1 \end{cases}$$

Another “Bad Example”

d’Alembert was working on the problem of describing a vibrating string. The initial position for the string is not the graph of any analytical expression.



A More Modern Definition

Let D be a set of real numbers. A function

$$f: D \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$$

is a rule that assigns a number $f(x)$ to every element x of D .

Modern Set Theory Definition

A function f is an ordered triple of sets (F, X, Y) with restrictions, where F (the **graph**) is a set of ordered pairs (x, y) , X (the **source**) contains all the first elements of F and perhaps more, and Y (the **target**) contains all the second elements of F and perhaps more.

The most common restrictions are that F pairs each x with just one y , and that X is just the set of first elements of F and no more.

When *no* restrictions are placed on F , we speak of a *relation* between X and Y rather than a function. The relation is “single-valued” when the first restriction holds: $(x, y_1) \in F$ and $(x, y_2) \in F$ together imply $y_1 = y_2$.

Relations that are not single valued are sometimes called *multivalued* functions. A relation is *total* when a second restriction holds: if $x \in X$ then $(x, y) \in F$ for some y . Thus we can also say that

A function from X to Y is a single-valued, total relation between X and Y .

Sequences

Let \mathbb{N} = the set of natural numbers (it will not matter if it starts with 0 or with 1).

A sequence is a function $a: \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$.

We will normally denote a sequence by its set of outputs $\{a_n\}$, where $a_n = a(n)$.

Occasionally you will see $a_0, a_1, a_2, a_3, \dots$ or $\{a_n\}_{n=0}^{\infty}$

Examples

- 1) $\{1,2,3,4,5,6,\dots\}$ – an arithmetic progression
($f(n) = n$)
- 2) $\{a + bn \mid n=0,1,2,3,\dots\}$ – a different type of arithmetic progression – ($f(n) = a + bn$)
- 3) $\{a^0, a^1, a^2, a^3, a^4, \dots\}$ – a geometric progression
($f(n) = a^n$)
- 4) $\{1, 1/2, 1/3, 1/4, 1/5, \dots\}$ - ($f(n) = 1/n$)
- 5) $f(n) = a_n = (-1)^n$. Note that the range is
 $\{-1, 1\}$

Examples

1) $f(n) = a_n = \cos(\pi n/3)$
 $a_1 = \cos(\pi/3) = \cos 60^\circ = 1/2$
 $\{a_n\} = \{1/2, -1/2, -1, -1/2, 1/2, 1, 1/2, -1/2, -1, -1/2, 1/2, 1, \dots\}$. The function takes on only a finite number of values, but the sequence has an infinite number of elements.

2) $f(n) = a_n = n^{1/n}$,
 $\{1, 2^{1/2}, 3^{1/3}, 4^{1/4}, \dots\} = \{1, 1.41421, 1.44225, 1.41421, 1.37973, 1.34801, 1.32047, 1.29684, 1.27652, 1.25893, \dots\}$
Also $a_{100} = 1.04713$, $a_{10,000} = 1.00092$

3) $b_n = (1+1/n)^n$
 $\{2, (3/2)^2, (4/3)^3, (5/4)^4, \dots\} = \{2, 2.25, 2.37037, 2.44141, 2.48832, 2.52163, 2.54650, 2.56578, 2.58117, 2.59374, \dots\}$
Also $a_{100} = 2.74081$ and $a_{10,000} = 2.71815$

Almost all ...

Definition: It is said that *almost all the terms* of the sequence $\{a_n\}$ have a certain property provided that there is an index N such that $\{a_n\}$ possesses this property whenever $n \geq N$.

Convergence

Definition 1: A sequence of real numbers is said to *converge* to a real number L if for every $\varepsilon > 0$ there is an integer $N > 0$ such that if $k > N$ then $|a_k - L| < \varepsilon$.

Definition 2: A sequence of real numbers is said to *converge* to a real number L if every neighborhood of L contains almost all of the terms of $\{a_n\}$.

The number L is called the *limit* of the sequence.

Convergence

Lemma 1: The sequence $\{1/n\}$ converges to 0.

Proof: Let (a,b) be any neighborhood of 0. This means that $a < 0 < b$. Let $N > [1/b]$, be an integer greater than $1/b$. Then $1/N < b$ and for every integer $n > N$, we have that

$$a < 0 < 1/n < 1/N < b$$

and (a,b) contains almost all of the elements of the sequence. Thus, the sequence converges to 0.

Convergence

Lemma 1: The sequence $\{1/n\}$ converges to 0.

Proof: You prove this using Definition 1.

Convergence

Definition: A sequence is *convergent* if it has a limit. If it is not convergent it is called *divergent*.

Lemma 2: The sequence $\{a_n\}$ converges to L if and only if every neighborhood of L that is centered at L contains almost all of the terms of the sequence.

Note that this tells us that the two definitions are the same.

Example

Let $a_n = n/2^n$. $\{a_n\} = \{1/2, 2/2^2, 3/2^3, 4/2^4, \dots\}$

Educated guess: $\{a_n\} \rightarrow 0$.

Let $\varepsilon = 0.1, 0.01, 0.001, 0.0001, 0.00001$.

We need to find an integer N so that

$$|N/2^N - 0| < \varepsilon$$

Look in the table of values. Note that for $N = 6$ the above is true if $\varepsilon = 0.1$

ε	N
1	$N > 0$
0.1	$N > 5$
0.01	$N > 9$
0.001	$N > 14$
0.0001	$N > 18$
0.00001	$N > 22$

Theorem(Convergent sequences are bounded)

Let $\{a_n\}$ be a convergent sequence. Then the sequence is bounded, and the limit is unique.

Proof:

(i) Uniqueness: Suppose the sequence has two limits, L and K . Let $\varepsilon > 0$. There is an integer N_K such that $|a_n - K| < \varepsilon/2$ if $n > N_K$.

Also, there is an integer N_L such that $|a_n - L| < \varepsilon/2$ if $n > N_L$.

By Triangle Inequality:

$$|L - K| < |a_n - L| + |a_n - K| < \varepsilon/2 + \varepsilon/2 = \varepsilon$$

if $n > \max\{N_K, N_L\}$.

Therefore $|L - K| < \varepsilon$ for any $\varepsilon > 0$. But this means that $L = K$.

Theorem(Convergent sequences are bounded)

Proof:

(ii) Boundedness. Since the sequence converges, choose any $\varepsilon > 0$. Specifically take $\varepsilon = 1$. There is N so that

$$|a_n - L| < 1 \text{ if } n > N.$$

Fix N . Then

$$|a_n| \leq |a_n - L| + |L| < 1 + |L| = P \text{ for all } n > N.$$

Let $M = \max\{|a_1|, |a_2|, \dots, |a_N|, P\}$. Thus $|a_n| < M$ for all n , which makes the sequence bounded.

Theorem: If $\{a_n\} \rightarrow L$, $\{b_n\} \rightarrow M$ and α is a real number, then

1. $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \alpha = \alpha$.

2. $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (a_n \pm b_n) = L \pm M$

3. $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (a_n \times b_n) = L \times M$

4. $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (\alpha a_n) = \alpha L$

5. If $a_n \leq b_n$ for all $n \geq m$, then $L \leq M$

6. If $b_n \neq 0$ for all n and if $M \neq 0$, then $\text{glb}\{|b_n|\} > 0$.

7. $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (a_n/b_n) = L/M$, provided $M \neq 0$.

Proof:

1. $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \alpha = \alpha$

Since $\alpha - \alpha = 0$, for any $\varepsilon > 0$, $|\alpha - \alpha| < \varepsilon$ and we are done.

2. $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (a_n \pm b_n) = L \pm M$

Do this for the sum. The difference is similar.

Let $\varepsilon > 0$, there exist N_a and N_b so that

$$|a_n - L| < \varepsilon/2 \quad \text{if } n > N_a \text{ and}$$

$$|b_n - M| < \varepsilon/2 \quad \text{if } n > N_b.$$

Let $K = \max\{N_a, N_b\}$, then if $n > K$

$$|(a_n + b_n) - (L + M)| \leq |a_n - L| + |b_n - M| < \varepsilon/2 + \varepsilon/2 = \varepsilon$$

$$3. \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (a_n \times b_n) = L \times M$$

Note:

$$\begin{aligned} |(a_n b_n) - (LM)| &\leq |(a_n - L) b_n + L(b_n - M)| \\ &\leq |(a_n - L) b_n| + |L(b_n - M)| \\ &= |a_n - L| |b_n| + |L| |b_n - M| \end{aligned}$$

Then use the fact that $\{b_n\}$ is bounded.

$$4. \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (\alpha a_n) = \alpha L$$

Consider ε/α if $\alpha \neq 0$. If $\alpha = 0$ this is easy.

5. If $a_n \leq b_n$ for all $n \geq m$, then $L \leq M$

6. If $b_n \neq 0$ for all n and if $M \neq 0$, then $\text{glb}\{|b_n|\} > 0$.

Let $\varepsilon = |M|/2 > 0$. $\{b_n\} \rightarrow M$ so there is N so that if $n > N$ then $|b_n - M| < |M|/2$.

So if $n > N$ we must have $|b_n| \geq |M|/2$.

If not by the Triangle Inequality

$$\begin{aligned} |M| &= |M - b_n + b_n| \leq |M - b_n| + |b_n| \\ &< |M|/2 + |M|/2 = |M| \end{aligned}$$

So set

$$m = \min \{|M|/2, |b_1|, |b_2|, \dots, |b_N|\}.$$

Then $m > 0$ and $|b_n| \geq m$ for all n

7. $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (a_n/b_n) = L/M$, provided $M \neq 0$.

Reduce to $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (1/b_n) = 1/M$ – How?

Let $\varepsilon > 0$. By (6) there is $m > 0$ so that $|b_n| \geq m$. Since $\{b_n\}$ is convergent there is N so that if $n > N$

$$|M - b_n| < \varepsilon m |M|$$

Then for $n > N$

$$\begin{aligned} |1/b_n - 1/M| &= |b_n - M| / |b_n M| \\ &\leq |b_n - M| / (m |M|) < \varepsilon \end{aligned}$$

Example

$$\begin{aligned} & \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{3n^4 + 4n^3 - 7n^2 - 5280n + 3216547}{7n^4 + 5588741226n^2 - 7} \\ &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{3 \frac{n^4}{n^4} + 4 \frac{n^3}{n^4} - 7 \frac{n^2}{n^4} - 5280 \frac{n}{n^4} + 3216547 \frac{1}{n^4}}{7 \frac{n^4}{n^4} + 5588741226 \frac{n^2}{n^4} - 7 \frac{1}{n^4}} \\ &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{3 + \frac{4}{n} - \frac{7}{n^2} - \frac{5280}{n^3} + \frac{3216547}{n^4}}{7 + \frac{5588741226}{n^2} - \frac{7}{n^4}} = \frac{3}{7} \end{aligned}$$

The Squeeze Theorem

Theorem: *If $\{a_n\} \rightarrow L$, $\{b_n\} \rightarrow L$ and*

$$a_n \leq c_n \leq b_n \text{ for all } n \geq m$$

Then $\{c_n\} \rightarrow L$.

The Power Theorem

Theorem: *Let a be fixed. Then*

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a^n = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } |a| < 1 \\ 1 & \text{if } a = 1 \\ dne & \text{if } |a| > 1 \\ dne & \text{if } a = -1 \end{cases}$$

Find

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{3n^2 + 5n + 1}{n + 1}$$

Find

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{3n^2 + 5n + 1}{n^2 + 1}$$

Find

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{3n^2 + 5n + 1}{n^3 + 1}$$

Find

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{0.5^n + 3 \sin(n)}{\sqrt{n}}$$

Find

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{2^n - 1}{3^n + 1}$$

Find

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{2^n + 1}{3^n - 1}$$

Find

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{3^n + 2^n}{3^n - 2^n}$$

Find

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

Find

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{4^{2n-3} + 2^{5n+6}}{5^{3n-2} - 3^{n+10}}$$

Find

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} n^n$$

Find

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{n^n}$$

Find

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left(1 - \left| \frac{\sin(n)}{n} \right| \right)$$

Find

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{n}{2^n}$$

Find

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{n^2}{2^n}$$

Find

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{n!}{n^n}$$

Find

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{n!}{2^n}$$