

$3\frac{1}{2}$

89-132 29 oct

least upper bound
chasam eliyon

greatest lower bound
chasam tachton

$\rho' \text{NOT}$
maximum and minimum

Example 1 Consider Set $S_1 = \left\{ 3 + \frac{4}{5n} \mid n \in \mathbb{N} \right\}$

The sequence $\frac{4}{5n}$ is decreasing. Therefore its maximal value is achieved for $n=1$: $\frac{4}{5n} = \frac{4}{5}$.

Similarly the maximal value of $3 + \frac{4}{5n}$ is achieved for $n=1$, and equals $3 + \frac{4}{5} = \frac{19}{5}$. Thus

$$\max(S) = \frac{19}{5}.$$

Meanwhile, the sequence $\frac{4}{5n}$ is decreasing and gets arbitrarily close to 0 as n tends to infinity. Therefore 0 is the chasam tachton of $\frac{4}{5n}$. And 3

is the chasam tachton of $3 + \frac{4}{5n}$, so that

$$(\text{l.u.b.}) \inf(S) = 3.$$

Meanwhile we have strict inequality (i-shiryon mamash)

$$\frac{4}{5n} > 0$$

Hence $3 + \frac{4}{5n} > 3$

Thus the l.u.b. infimum is not attained.

In other words, there is no minimum.

Example 2 $S_2 = \left\{ (-1)^n \left(2 - \frac{1}{n} \right) \mid n \in \mathbb{N} \right\}$.

Note that $2 - \frac{1}{n} > 0$ for all n . Therefore the element

$u_n = (-1)^n \left(2 - \frac{1}{n} \right)$ satisfies $u_n < 0$ if n is odd,
 $u_n > 0$ if n is even.

To determine the sup, we consider positive elements, namely those with n even. Thus, let $n = 2k$, and consider

$u_n = u_{2k} = (-1)^{2k} \left(2 - \frac{1}{2k} \right) = 2 - \frac{1}{2k}$. Here $2 - \frac{1}{2k}$ is decreasing.

→

Therefore the maximal value is attained when $k=1$, i.e. $n=2$:

$$u_2 = 2 - \frac{1}{2} = \frac{3}{2}. \quad \text{Thus}$$

$$\max(S_2) = \frac{3}{2}$$

and the supremum is attained: $\sup(S_2) = \max(S_2) = \frac{3}{2}$.

To determine the infimum of S_2 , we will consider the negative terms u_n with n odd, i.e. $n = 2k-1$, $k \in \mathbb{N}$.

$$\text{Then } u_n = u_{2k-1} = (-1)^{2k-1} \left(2 - \frac{1}{2k-1} \right) = -2 + \frac{1}{2k-1}.$$

Here $\frac{1}{2k-1}$ is decreasing with k , and

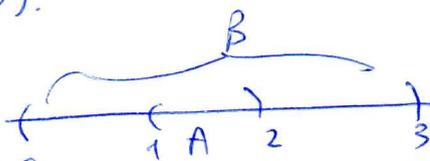
approaching 0. Then u_{2k-1} is approaching -2 .

Therefore $\inf(S_2) = -2$. Meanwhile $\frac{1}{2k-1} > 0$

so $u_{2k-1} > -2$, therefore an infimum is not attained.

Example 3 Given sets $A \subseteq B$, one has $\underbrace{\inf A}_1 \geq \underbrace{\inf B}_0$; $\underbrace{\sup A}_2 = \underbrace{\sup B}_3$

$$A = [1, 2], \quad B = [0, 3].$$



Ex 4 Now let $C = A \cap B$

Then $C \subseteq A$ and $C \subseteq B$.

Thus $\inf C \geq \inf A$, and $\inf C \geq \inf B$.

Therefore $\inf C \geq \max(\inf A, \inf B)$.

Example 5 Let $A = [-2, -1]$ and $B = [-4, -3]$.

Then define $C = \{ab \mid a \in A, b \in B\}$.

Then since $a < 0$ and $b < 0$, we have $ab > 0$.

Thus $\inf C = \inf(ab) = \inf(|ab|) = \inf\{|a||b|\} \mid a \in A, b \in B$

Here $a \in [1, 2]$ and $b \in [3, 4]$. Hence $\inf C = 1 \cdot 3 = 3$.

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7 nov

Sequences page 492 Keisler

Definition A sequence is a real function whose domain is the set of all positive integers.

A sequence a can be displayed as

$$a(1), a(2), a(3), \dots, a(n), \dots$$

The value $a(n)$ is called the n -th term and written a_n .

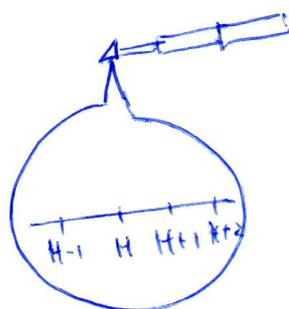
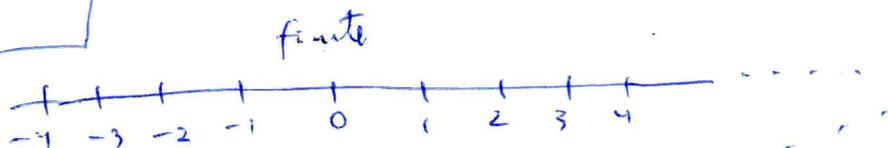
The whole sequence is denoted following Keisler p.492

$$\langle a_n \rangle = a_1, a_2, a_3, \dots, a_n, \dots$$

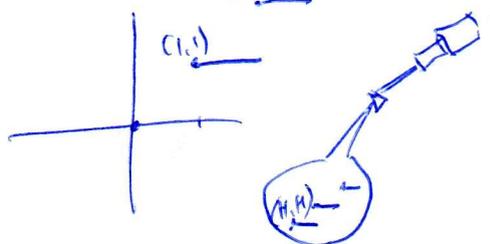
NB The metaselect uses notation $\{a_n\}$ but this is mostly used in Russia.

Remark Since a_n is defined for every positive integer n , a_H is defined for all positive infinite hyperinteger H .
by the extension principle.

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Definition A hyperinteger is a hyperreal number y such that $y = [x]$ for some hyperreal x .



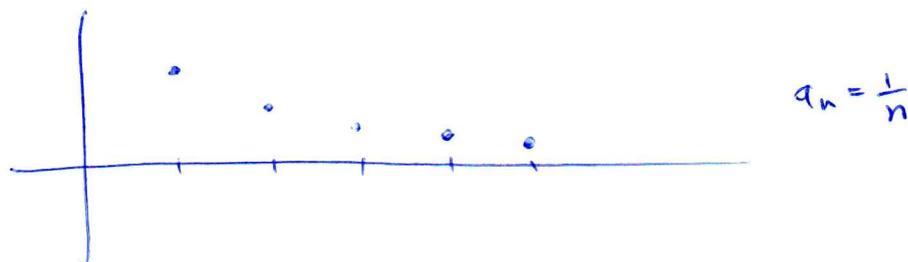
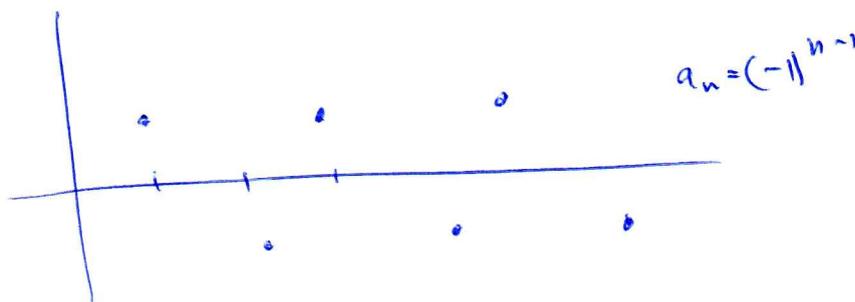
By transfer principle, every hyperreal x
is between two hyperintegers $[x] \leq x < [x] + 1$

Forward to page 492

Examples of sequences

- 1, 1, 1, 1, ...
- 1, 0, 1, 2, 3, ...
- 2, -4, -6, -8, -10, ...
- 1, -1, 1, -1, 1, ...
- 1, $\frac{1}{2}$, $\frac{1}{3}$, $\frac{1}{4}$, ...

- $a_n = 1$
- $a_n = n - 2$
- $a_n = -2n$
- $a_n = (-1)^{n-1}$
- $a_n = \frac{1}{n}$



Ex Sequence

3.1, 3.14, 3.141, 3.1415, 3.14159, ...

is defined by the rule

$$a_n = \pi \text{ to } n \text{ decimal places}$$

that is,

$$a_n = \frac{m}{10^n} \text{ where } m \text{ is integer s.t. } \frac{m}{10^n} \leq \pi < \frac{m+1}{10^n}$$

Ex. $n!$ factorial defined by

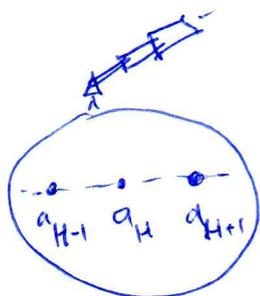
$$n! = 1 \cdot 2 \cdot 3 \cdot \dots \cdot n$$

The sequence $\langle n! \rangle$ is

1, 2, 6, 24, 120, 720, ...

By convention, $0! = 1$.

Definition A sequence $\langle a_n \rangle$ is said to converge to a real number L if a_H is infinitely close to L for all positive infinite hyperintegers H as in figure:



L is called the limit of the sequence and written $L = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n$

Definition A sequence which does not converge to any real number is said to diverge.

Definition If a_n is positive infinite for all positive infinite n , the sequence is said to diverge to ∞ and we write

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

NB. Sequences can diverge to $-\infty$, and also diverge without diverging to either ∞ or $-\infty$.

Criterion If we can find a_H and a_K which are not infinitely close then the sequence diverges.

Example 1 $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} 1 = 1$ converges because $a_n = 1$ for all n

Example 2 $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} n-2 = \infty$, diverges, because $n-2$ is positive infinite for all n .

Ex 3. $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (-2n) = -\infty$, diverges, because $-2n$ is neg. inf

Ex 4 $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (-1)^n$ is undefined. diverges because $(-1)^{2n} = 1, (-1)^{2n+1} = -1$

Ex 5 $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{n} = 0$, converges, because $\frac{1}{n}$ has standard part 0.

Ex 6 Sequence 3.1, 3.14, 3.141, 3.1415, ..., a_n
 where $a_n = (\pi$ to n decimal places), converges to π . Then
 $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = \pi$.

Proof. Let K be positive infinite. For some K ,

$$\frac{K}{10^H} \leq \pi < \frac{K+1}{10^H}$$

Then $a_H = \frac{K}{10^H}$ and $a_H \leq \pi < a_H + \frac{1}{10^H}$

Here $\frac{1}{10^H}$ is infinitesimal hence $a_H \approx \pi$ q.e.d.

Ex 7 $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} n! = \infty$

Ex 8, $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{4n^2+1}{n^2+3n} = \text{st} \left(\frac{4H^2+1}{H^2+3H} \right) = \text{st} \left(\frac{4 + \frac{1}{H^2}}{1 + \frac{3}{H}} \right) =$
 $= \frac{\text{st} \left(4 + \frac{1}{H^2} \right)}{\text{st} \left(1 + \frac{3}{H} \right)} = \frac{4+0}{1+0} = 4.$

Ex 8. Let $c > 0$ be fixed. Find

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left(1 + \frac{1}{c} \right)^n$$

p. 499 Theorem (ϵ, N condition for limits) We have

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

if and only if for every real $\epsilon > 0$ \exists positive integer N s.t. the numbers

$$a_N, a_{N+1}, a_{N+2}, \dots, a_{N+m}, \dots$$

are all within ϵ of L .

Example 9 $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{2n^2}{3n+4} = \infty$

Ex 10 $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left(\frac{5n}{6n^2+7} \right) = 0$

Ex 11 $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{8-9n^2}{10n+11} = -\infty$

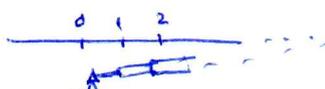
(S1/2)

Keisler p. 500

19 Nov

Cauchy convergence test for sequences.

Recall $\mathbb{N} \subseteq {}^*\mathbb{N}$ and telescope



A sequence $\langle a_n \rangle$ converges if and only if

$$a_H \approx a_K \text{ for all infinite } H \text{ and } K. (*)$$

Definition A sequence $\langle a_n \rangle$ is Cauchy if it satisfies (*).

Proof of test First suppose $\langle a_n \rangle$ converges, say to L : $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = L$.

Then for any infinite H and K ,

$$a_H \approx L$$

as well as $a_K \approx L$

Therefore $a_H \approx a_K$ and the sequence is Cauchy.

Now suppose $\langle a_n \rangle$ is Cauchy. i.e. (*) satisfied.

Case 1. assume a_H finite. Then for all infinite K ,

$$st(a_K) = st(a_H)$$

So the sequence converges to the real number $st(a_H)$. q.e.d.

Case 2. Suppose a_H is positive infinite. Then for each finite m , we have $a_H \geq a_m + 1$. Now consider the hyperintegers

$$\{1, 2, 3, \dots, H-1\}$$

Choose a largest element M such that $a_H \geq a_M + 1$.

This M cannot be infinite since $a_M \neq a_H$, and also cannot be finite since it must be bigger than all natural number. Contradiction. Hence Case 2 cannot arise.

Case 3 Suppose a_H is a negative infinite. by similar argument cannot arise. Thus only case 1 is possible, and therefore the sequence converges.

Recall we always have an A-definition and a B-definition.

A-definition of Cauchy sequence: $\langle a_n \rangle$ is Cauchy if for all $\epsilon > 0$ there exists $m_\epsilon \in \mathbb{N}$ such that if $m, n > m_\epsilon$ then $|a_n - a_m| < \epsilon$

Recursive definition of a sequence given explicit function f .

either $a_{n+1} = f(a_n)$

or more generally $a_{n+1} = f(a_{n+1}, a_n)$ where $f = f(x, y)$ of 2 var, etc.

Example. Fibonacci sequence $F_0 = 0, F_1 = 1$, and

recursive relation $F_n = F_{n-1} + F_{n-2}$ for all $n \geq 2$.

Then get 0, 1, 1, 2, 3, 5, 8, 13, 21, 34, 55, 89, 144, ...

Example. $a_0 = 2, a_{n+1} = \sqrt{a_n}$. Here we can easily write down the general formula $a_1 = \sqrt{2}, a_2 = \sqrt[4]{2}, a_3 = \sqrt[8]{2}, \dots$

$a_n = (2)^{\frac{1}{2^n}}$, and therefore $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = 1$.

In general, if the seq is defined by

$a_{n+1} = f(a_n)$ and $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = L$ we

look for L of the form $L = f(L)$.

In the case above, $L = \sqrt{L}$, hence $L^2 = L$,

$L^2 - L = 0, L(L-1) = 0$, so either $L = 0$ or $L = 1$.

Since all the term $a_n \geq 1$, it follows $L \geq 1$ hence $L = 1$ is the correct limit.

Example $a_0 = \sqrt{2}, a_{n+1} = \sqrt{2a_n}$ To guess limit L ,

write $L = \sqrt{2L}$ hence $L^2 = 2L, L^2 - 2L = 0$,

$L(L-2) = 0$. So either $L = 0$ or $L = 2$. But all $a_n \geq 1$

Hence must have $L = 2$ if the sequence converges.

Once we have guessed the limit, show that sequence is monotone increasing:

$1 \leq a_0 \leq 2$. By induction assume $1 \leq a_n \leq 2$ and show the same for a_{n+1} . But

$$a_{n+1} = \sqrt{2a_n} \geq \sqrt{2} \geq 1, \text{ and similarly}$$

$$a_{n+1} = \sqrt{2a_n} \leq \sqrt{2 \cdot 2} = 2. \text{ Thus } \forall n, 1 \leq a_n \leq 2.$$

Now show sequence is increasing:

$$a_{n+1} - a_n = \sqrt{2a_n} - a_n = \sqrt{a_n} (\sqrt{2} - \sqrt{a_n}) \geq \sqrt{a_n} (\sqrt{2} - \sqrt{2}) = 0$$

Hence sequence is increasing and bounded.

Axiom of the real numbers: every bounded increasing

sequence converges.

Proving that a sequence tends to 0 using upper bounds
 (or for pos)

Example. Find $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1 \cos 1 + 4 \cos 2 + 9 \cos 3 + \dots + n^2 \cos n}{n^4}$

Use the fact that $|\cos x| \leq 1$ for all x . Therefore

letting $a_n = \frac{1 \cos 1 + \dots + n^2 \cos n}{n^4}$, we see that

$$|a_n| \leq \frac{|1 \cos 1| + 4 |\cos 2| + 9 |\cos 3| + \dots + n^2 |\cos n|}{n^4}$$

$$\text{Hence } |a_n| \leq \frac{1 + 4 + 9 + \dots + n^2}{n^4}$$

Now by problem set 1, exercise (7) one has $1 + \dots + n^2 \leq \frac{(n+1)^3}{3}$

$$\text{Hence } |a_n| \leq \frac{(n+1)^3}{3n^4}$$

$$\text{But } \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{(n+1)^3}{3n^4} = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{n^3 + 3n^2 + 3n + 1}{n^4} = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{(1 + \frac{3}{n} + \frac{3}{n^2} + \frac{1}{n^3})}{n}$$

$$= \text{st} \left(\frac{1 + \frac{3}{n} + \frac{3}{n^2} + \frac{1}{n^3}}{n} \right) = \text{st} \left(\frac{\text{finite}}{\infty \text{ finite}} \right) = 0.$$

Example. $\lim \frac{n!}{2^n}$

$$\frac{n!}{2^n} = \frac{1 \cdot 2 \cdot 3 \cdots n}{2 \cdot 2 \cdot 2 \cdots 2} = \frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{2}{2} \left(\frac{3}{2} \cdot \frac{4}{2} \cdots \frac{n}{2} \right)$$

← n-2 →

Hence $\frac{n!}{2^n} \geq \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{3}{2}\right)^{n-2}$, tends to infinity.

Hence $\lim \frac{n!}{2^n} = \infty$ by Sandwich theorem.

Example. $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{99n}{n^2 - 2n} = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{99}{n \left(1 - \frac{2}{n}\right)} = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left(\frac{99}{1 - \frac{2}{n}} \right) \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left(\frac{1}{n} \right)$

= st $\left(\frac{99}{1 - \frac{2}{n}} \right) \cdot 0 = 99 \cdot 0 = 0$.

Infinitesimal

Eliminate irrationality

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left(\sqrt[4]{n+1} - \sqrt[4]{n} \right) = (x-y)(x^3 + x^2y + xy^2 + y^3), \text{ or}$$

Note $a - b = (a^{1/4} - b^{1/4})(a^{3/4} + a^{2/4}b^{1/4} + a^{1/4}b^{2/4} + b^{3/4})$

Therefore

$$a^{1/4} - b^{1/4} = \frac{a - b}{a^{3/4} + a^{2/4}b^{1/4} + a^{1/4}b^{2/4} + b^{3/4}}$$

$$\text{Then } \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left(\sqrt[4]{n+1} - \sqrt[4]{n} \right) = \frac{(n+1) - n}{(n+1)^{3/4} + (n+1)^{2/4}n^{1/4} + (n+1)^{1/4}n^{2/4} + n^{3/4}}$$

$$\leq \frac{1}{4n^{3/4}}$$

Now $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{4n^{3/4}} = \text{st } \left(\frac{1}{4n^{3/4}} \right) = 0$

↑ infinity

Hence by Sandwich $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left(\sqrt[4]{n+1} - \sqrt[4]{n} \right) = 0$

Example. $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left(\frac{n+1}{n} \right)^n$ This is e by definition. Now do $\left(\frac{n^2+1}{n^2} \right)^{n^2+n}$

6.2

26 nov

Integer part $[\cdot]$.

Lemma. Let $p \in \mathbb{N}$. Then $n = p \left[\frac{n}{p} \right] + k$

where $k = 0, 1, \dots, p-1$, and moreover $n \equiv k \pmod{p}$.

Proof. Let $n = mp + k$. Then $\left[\frac{n}{p} \right] = \left[\frac{mp+k}{p} \right] = \left[m + \frac{k}{p} \right] = m$.

Hence $p \left[\frac{n}{p} \right] = pm$ and $n - p \left[\frac{n}{p} \right] = mp + k - mp = k$.

Subsequence: e.g. $a_n = (-1)^n$ diverges

but $b_n = a_{2n}$ converges since

$$b_n = (-1)^{2n} = 1 \quad \text{and} \quad \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} b_n = 1$$

Similarly $c_n = a_{2n+1}$ converges since

$$c_n = (-1)^{2n+1} = -1 \quad \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} c_n = -1$$

Example of subsequence. let $a_n = \frac{1}{n} \rightarrow 0$

Define subsequence $b_n = a_{n^2}$. Then $b_n = \frac{1}{n^2}$

converges to zero faster

Now let $f(n)$ be any

Given $\{a_n : n \in \mathbb{N}\}$

$$b_n = a_{f(n)}$$

strictly increasing $f: \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$
define subsequence

Definition partial limit of $\langle a_n \rangle$ is a limit of a suitable subsequence.

Ex. let $a_n = n - 5 \left[\frac{n}{5} \right]$. Find all partial limits.

Let $n = 5m+k$, $k = 0, 1, 2, 3, 4$. Then $a_n = k$ by the lemma. Subsequence $b_n = a_{5n}$ is identically zero hence $\lim b_n = 0$ similarly \rightarrow

$c_n = a_{5n+1}$ is identically $c_n = 1$ hence $\lim c_n = 1$ etc

$d_n = a_{5n+2}$... $\lim d_n = 2$.

etc. list of partial limits $\{0, 1, 2, 3, 4\}$.

Better notation: Let $s_n^{(k)} = a_{5n+k}$ where $k \in \{0, \dots, 4\}$.

Then $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} s_n^{(k)} = k$.

Example. $b_n = \frac{\sqrt[3]{3\sqrt{n} + 2\sqrt[4]{n}}}{\sqrt[5]{6n + \sqrt{7n}}}$ Find limit.

$$b_n = \frac{(n^{1/3} + 2n^{1/4})^{1/3}}{(6n + (7n)^{1/2})^{1/5}} = \frac{\left[n^{1/3} \left(1 + 2n^{-1/2} \right) \right]^{1/3}}{\left[n^{1/5} \left(6 + (7/n)^{-1/2} \right) \right]^{1/5}} =$$

$$= \frac{n^{1/9} \left(1 + \frac{2}{n^{1/2}} \right)^{1/3}}{n^{1/5} \left(6 + \frac{7^{1/2}}{n^{1/2}} \right)^{1/5}} = \frac{1}{n^{1/5 - 1/9}} \frac{\left(1 + \frac{2}{n^{1/2}} \right)^{1/3}}{\left(6 + \frac{7^{1/2}}{n^{1/2}} \right)^{1/5}}$$

$$= \frac{1}{n^{4/45}} \frac{\left(1 + \dots \right)^{1/3}}{\left(6 + \dots \right)^{1/5}}$$

Now $\lim b_n = \text{st} \left(\frac{1}{n^{4/45}} \right) \frac{\text{st} \left(1 + \dots \right)^{1/3}}{\text{st} \left(6 + \dots \right)^{1/5}}$

$$= \text{st} \left(\frac{1}{\infty} \right) \frac{\left(1 + \text{st} \left(\frac{2}{n^{1/2}} \right) \right)^{1/3}}{\left(6 + \text{st} \left(\frac{7^{1/2}}{n^{1/2}} \right) \right)^{1/5}}$$

$= 0 \cdot \frac{1}{1} = 0$. Hence all partial limits are zero.

Definition $\limsup a_n = \limsup a_n = \max \{ L : L \text{ is a partial limit of } a_n \}$

Example $\lim = \liminf$
 $\lim (-1)^n = 1, \quad \lim (-1)^n = -1.$

Example. Let $a_n = 2^{(-1)^n}$ then $a_{2n} = 2, a_{2n+1} = \frac{1}{2}$

$\lim a_n = 2, \quad \lim a_n = \frac{1}{2}$ (for $a_n > 0$).

Note $\lim \left(\frac{1}{a_n} \right) = \frac{1}{\lim a_n}$ then $\frac{\lim}{\lim} \geq 1$ with equality iff limit exists.