

some identities:

Session 3  
Sep. 10, 2018

$$\cdot \sum_{k=0}^n \binom{n}{k} = (1+1)^n = 2^n$$

$$\cdot \sum_{k=0}^n (-1)^k \binom{n}{k} = (1-1)^n = 0$$

$$\cdot \sum_{k=0}^n \binom{m-1+k}{k} = \binom{m+n}{n} \quad (m \geq 1)$$

↳ can be proven by induction (HW)

$$\cdot \text{HW: prove that } \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} x^k = \frac{1-x^n}{1-x} \quad (x \neq 1)$$

$$\text{Later: } \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} x^k = \frac{1}{1-x} \quad (|x| < 1), \text{ geometric series}$$

$$\cdot \text{HW next week: Theorem: } (1-x)^{-m} = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \binom{m+k-1}{k} x^k$$

$|x| < 1, \text{ and } m \geq 1 \text{ (integer)}$

### 1.3 Limits

Limits are basis of Analysis (real numbers, derivatives, integrals, ...)

Sequence:  $(a_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}} = (a_n)_{n \geq 1} = (a_1, a_2, a_3, \dots)$

here, we usually deal with seq.s of real numbers

Examples:  $\cdot (a_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$  with  $a_n = n$

$\cdot (a_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$  with  $a_n = \frac{1}{n^2}$  (i.e.,  $(a_n)_{n \geq 1} = (\frac{1}{1^2}, \frac{1}{2^2}, \frac{1}{3^2}, \dots)$ )

central concept: convergence of seq.s

loose definition: If the  $a_n$ 's come arbitrarily close to some number  $a$  for large  $n$ , we say  $(a_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$  converges to  $a$ .

The number  $a$  is called the limit of the sequence, and we write  $a = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n$  or  $a_n \xrightarrow{n \rightarrow \infty} a$ .

If no such  $a$  exists, the seq. diverges.

for rigorous definition:

- arbitrarily close  $\Leftrightarrow$  for all  $\varepsilon > 0$  (no matter how small)
- arbitrarily close to  $a \Leftrightarrow |a_n - a| < \varepsilon$
- for large  $n \Leftrightarrow$  there is some  $N \in \mathbb{N}$ , large depending on  $\varepsilon$ , s.t.  
 $|a_N - a| < \varepsilon$  (or  $|a_n - a| < \varepsilon$  for all  $n \geq N$ )

Formal/rigorous def. of convergence:

For all  $\varepsilon > 0$  there is an  $N \in \mathbb{N}$ , s.t.  $|a_n - a| < \varepsilon$  for all  $n \geq N$   
( $\varepsilon \in \mathbb{R}$ ) (for some  $a$ ).

Ex.:  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{n^2} = 0$

$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{n}{n+1} = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\frac{1}{n} \cdot n}{\frac{1}{n} \cdot n + \frac{1}{n} \cdot 1} = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{1 + \frac{1}{n}} = 1$  (used to "pull lim inside")

$$\text{or: } \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{n}{n+1} = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{n+1-1}{n+1} = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left( 1 - \frac{1}{n+1} \right) = 1$$

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

•  $a_n = n$  diverges

•  $a_n = (-1)^n$  diverges (but not  $a_n \rightarrow \pm \infty$ )

• geometric progression  $a_n = q^n$  for some  $q \in \mathbb{R}$

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} q^n = \begin{cases} 0 & , \text{ for } |q| < 1 \\ 1 & , \text{ for } q = 1 \\ \text{diverges to } \infty & \text{ for } q > 1 \\ \text{diverges} & \text{ for } q < -1 \end{cases}$$

Properties: 1) If  $a_n \xrightarrow{n \rightarrow \infty} a$ ,  $b_n \xrightarrow{n \rightarrow \infty} b$ , then

$$\cdot a_n + b_n \xrightarrow{n \rightarrow \infty} a + b \quad (*)$$

$$\cdot a_n \cdot b_n \xrightarrow{n \rightarrow \infty} a \cdot b$$

$$\cdot \frac{a_n}{b_n} \xrightarrow{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{a}{b} \text{ if } b_n \neq 0 \text{ for all } n \text{ and } b \neq 0$$

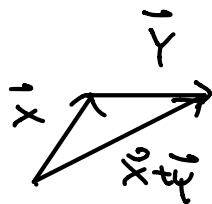
formal proof of (\*): we know  $a_n \xrightarrow{n \rightarrow \infty} a$ , i.e.,  $|a_n - a|$  arbitrarily small for large  $n$ , and same for  $b_n$ .

$$\text{Then } |(a_n + b_n) - (a + b)| = |a_n - a + b_n - b| \leq |a_n - a| + |b_n - b|$$

which is arbitrarily small.

note:  $|x+y| \leq |x|+|y|$  is called the triangle inequality  
(check for real numbers...)

later: also true for vectors



2) If seq  $(a_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$  converges, it is bounded, i.e., there is some  $B$ , s.t.

for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ , we have  $|a_n| \leq B$ .

Converse is not true, e.g.,  $(-1)^n$  is bounded but doesn't converge.

Statement in mathematical notation:

$$(a_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}} \text{ converges} \implies \underbrace{\exists B > 0}_{\text{there exists}}, \text{ s.t. } \underbrace{\forall n \in \mathbb{N}}_{\text{for all}}: |a_n| \leq B$$

3) Def.: A sequence  $(a_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$  is called **Cauchy sequence** if

$$\forall \varepsilon > 0 \exists N \in \mathbb{N}, \text{ s.t. } |a_n - a_m| < \varepsilon \quad \forall n, m \geq N.$$

note: for  $a_n \in \mathbb{R}$ , convergence of  $(a_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}} \iff (a_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$  Cauchy

extra note:

" $\implies$ " always true:  $|a_n - a_m| = |a_n - a - a_m + a| \stackrel{\text{triangle ineq.}}{\leq} |a_n - a| + |a_m - a|$

" $\Leftarrow$ " not necessarily true. Consider, e.g., Cauchy sequences of rational numbers. Those might not have a limit in the rational numbers, i.e., they don't converge in the rational numbers, but they could have, e.g.,  $\sqrt{2}$  as a limit.