

Math 10860: Honors Calculus II, Spring 2021

Homework 8

1. (a) Use Theorem 1 from Chapter 22 of Spivak (connecting continuity and limits of sequences) to find, for each fixed $a > 0$, $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a^{1/n}$.

Solution: Note that $a^{1/n} = e^{\frac{\ln(a)}{n}}$, and we also have that $\ln(a)/n \rightarrow 0$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$. Thus, by the continuity of the exponential function, we have that $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a^{1/n} = 1$.

- (b) Prove a “squeeze theorem” for sequences:

Let (a_n) , (b_n) and (c_n) be sequences with $(a_n), (c_n) \rightarrow L$. If eventually (for all $n > n_0$, for some finite n_0) we have $a_n \leq b_n \leq c_n$, then $(b_n) \rightarrow L$ also.

Solution: Let $\varepsilon > 0$. Since $(a_n) \rightarrow L$, there exists a n_a such that $|a_n - L| < \varepsilon$ for $n > n_a$. Similarly, there exists a n_c such that $|c_n - L| < \varepsilon$ for $n > n_c$. Let $n_b = \max\{n_0, n_a, n_c\}$. If $n > n_b$, then

$$-\varepsilon < a_n - L \leq b_n - L \leq c_n - L < \varepsilon$$

and so we have that $|b_n - L| < \varepsilon$ for $n > n_b$.

- (c) Use the results of parts (a) and (b) to compute

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left(\frac{2n^2 - 1}{3n^2 + n + 2} \right)^{\frac{1}{n}}.$$

Solution Consider the sequence

$$a_n = \frac{2n^2 - 1}{3n^2 + n + 2}$$

We first show that this is an increasing sequence. Consider the analogous function

$$f(x) = \frac{2x^2 - 1}{3x^2 + x + 2}, \quad f : \mathbb{R}_{>0} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$$

Note that its derivative is

$$f'(x) = \frac{18x^2 + 126x + 9}{(9x^2 + 3x + 6)^2} > 0, \quad \forall x > 0$$

and so a_n is increasing because $f(n) = a_n$ for all natural numbers n .

Now, note that $a_1 = 1/6$, and via L'Hopital

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

Because a_n is increasing, this implies

$$\frac{1}{6} \leq \frac{2n^2 - 1}{3n^2 + n + 2} \leq \frac{2}{3} \implies \left(\frac{1}{6}\right)^{1/n} \leq \left(\frac{2n^2 - 1}{3n^2 + n + 2}\right)^{1/n} \leq \left(\frac{2}{3}\right)^{1/n}$$

By part a, we have that $(1/6)^{1/n}$ and $(2/3)^{1/n}$ go to 1 as $n \rightarrow \infty$, and so by part b, we have that

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left(\frac{2n^2 - 1}{3n^2 + n + 2} \right)^{1/n} = 1$$

2. Find the following limits:

(a) $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{n}{n+1}$. (For this one, you *must* use the definition of sequence limit).

Solution: We claim that this limit is 1. We will now show this. Given $\varepsilon > 0$, we need to find a n_0 such that $n > n_0$ implies that $|n/(n+1) - 1| < \varepsilon$. This is equivalent to $|-1/(n+1)| < \varepsilon$, which is equivalent to $n > (1/\varepsilon) - 1$, and so we let $n_0 = (1/\varepsilon) - 1$.

(b) $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sqrt[n]{n^2 + n}$. (For this and the remaining parts, a soft argument is fine, meaning, you may freely use theorems proven in lectures and/or notes).

Solution: We claim that the limit is 1. Note that we have

$$\sqrt[n]{n^2 + n} = e^{(\ln(n^2 + n))/n}$$

and so by continuity of the exponential function, it suffices to show that $\ln(n^2 + n)/n \rightarrow 0$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$. To show this, it suffices to show that $\ln(x^2 + x)/x \rightarrow 0$ as $x \rightarrow \infty$, and we do this via L'Hopital

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\ln(x^2 + x)}{x} = \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{2x + 1}{x^2 + x} = 0$$

(c) $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (\sqrt[8]{n^2 + 1} - \sqrt[4]{n + 1})$.

Solution: We claim the limit is 0. First, note that

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (\sqrt[8]{n^2 + 1} - \sqrt[4]{n + 1}) = - \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (\sqrt[4]{n + 1} - \sqrt[8]{n^2 + 1})$$

and so it suffices to find the value of the right hand side. Note that $\sqrt[4]{n + 1} = (n + 1)^{1/4} = (n^2 + 1 + 2n)^{1/8}$. By mean value theorem, we have

$$0 \leq (n^2 + 1 + 2n)^{1/8} - (n^2 + 1)^{1/8} = \frac{1}{8} c_n^{-7/8} \cdot 2n = \frac{n}{4} c_n^{-7/8}$$

where $c_n \in (n^2 + 1, n^2 + 2n + 1)$. It follows that

$$\frac{n}{4} c_n^{-7/8} \leq \frac{n}{4} (n^2)^{-7/8} \leq \frac{n}{4} n^{-7/4} = \frac{1}{4} n^{-3/4}$$

and so by squeeze theorem, our result follows.

(d) $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left(\frac{n}{n+1} - \frac{n+1}{n} \right)$.

Solution: We claim the limit is 0. We have

$$\frac{n}{n+1} - \frac{n+1}{n} = \frac{n^2 - (n+1)^2}{n(n+1)} = \frac{-2n+1}{n(n+1)} \rightarrow 0 \text{ as } n \rightarrow \infty$$

(e) $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{2^{n^2}}{n!}$.

Solution: We claim the limit is ∞ . Note that $n! < n^n$ and so

$$\frac{2^{n^2}}{n!} > \frac{2^{n^2}}{n^n} = 2^{n^2} / 2^{n \log_2(n)} = 2^{n^2 - n \log_2(n)}$$

Note that $n^2 - n \log_2(n) \rightarrow \infty$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$, and so our result follows.

(f) $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{(-1)^n \sqrt{n} \sin(n^n)}{n+1}$.

Solution: We have that

$$\frac{(-1)^{n+1} \sqrt{n}}{n+1} \leq \frac{(-1)^n \sqrt{n} \sin(n^n)}{n+1} \leq \frac{(-1)^n \sqrt{n}}{n+1}$$

and so by squeeze theorem, our result follows.

3. A *subsequence* of a sequence

$$(a_1, a_2, a_3, \dots)$$

is a sequence of the form

$$(a_{n_1}, a_{n_2}, a_{n_3}, \dots)$$

with $n_1 < n_2 < n_3 \dots$. In other words, it is a sequence obtained from another sequence by extracting an infinite subset of the elements of the original sequence, *keeping the elements in the same order as they were in the original sequence*.

(a) Consider the sequence

$$\left(\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{3}, \frac{2}{3}, \frac{1}{4}, \frac{2}{4}, \frac{3}{4}, \frac{1}{5}, \frac{2}{5}, \frac{3}{5}, \frac{4}{5}, \frac{1}{6}, \dots \right).$$

For which numbers α is there a subsequence converging to α ?

Solution: We claim that there is a subsequence converging to α if and only if $0 \leq \alpha \leq 1$.

Naturally, if $\alpha < 0$ or $\alpha > 1$ then there is no subsequence that goes to α . For $\alpha = 0$, consider the subsequence $(1/2, 1/3, 1/4, \dots)$. Similarly, for $\alpha = 1$, consider the subsequence $(1/2, 2/3, 3/4, \dots)$.

So consider $0 < \alpha < 1$. Note that the rationals are dense in $(0, \alpha)$ and so we can find a sequence of rationals (x_1, x_2, \dots) where $r_i \in (0, \alpha)$ for all i , and where $(r_i) \rightarrow \alpha$. We can actually explicitly do this by letting r_1 be in $(0, \alpha)$, r_2 in $(\alpha/2, \alpha)$, r_3 in $(3\alpha/4, \alpha)$, and so on.

Now, note that every rational in $(0, 1)$ appears infinitely in the sequence defined in the question, and so r_1 can be found in the sequence, and r_2 can be found later, and r_3 even later, and so on and so forth, and so we have thus constructed a subsequence that converges to α .

(b) Now consider the same sequence as in part (a), except remove all duplicated terms, so that it begins

$$\left(\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{3}, \frac{2}{3}, \frac{1}{4}, \frac{3}{4}, \frac{1}{5}, \frac{2}{5}, \frac{3}{5}, \frac{4}{5}, \frac{1}{6}, \frac{5}{6}, \frac{1}{7}, \dots \right).$$

Now for which numbers α is there a subsequence converging to α ?

Solution: Deleting repeated values would not change the fact that the rationals are dense in the reals, and so the same argument above applies. So again, $\alpha \in [0, 1]$.

4. (a) Prove that if $0 < a < 2$ then $a < \sqrt{2a} < 2$.

Solution: For positive a , we have the following chain of equivalences

$$a < 2 \iff a^2 < 2a \iff a < \sqrt{2a}$$

and

$$a < 2 \iff 2a < 4 \iff \sqrt{2a} < 2$$

- (b) Prove that the sequence

$$\sqrt{2}, \sqrt{2\sqrt{2}}, \sqrt{2\sqrt{2\sqrt{2}}}, \sqrt{2\sqrt{2\sqrt{2\sqrt{2}}}}, \dots$$

converges.

Solution: Rewrite this sequence as

$$a_1 = \sqrt{2} = 2^{1/2}, \quad a_{n+1} = \sqrt{2a_n} = 2^{1-\frac{1}{2^n}}$$

Note that $a_n < 2$ for all n and so it is bounded. Also, note that we have

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{1}{2^n} &> \frac{1}{2^{n+1}} \\ \implies 1 - \frac{1}{2^n} &< 1 - \frac{1}{2^{n+1}} \\ \implies 2^{1-\frac{1}{2^n}} &< 2^{1-\frac{1}{2^{n+1}}} \\ \iff a_n &< a_{n+1} \end{aligned}$$

and so since the sequence is bounded and increasing, then it must be convergent.

- (c) Let a_n be the n th term of the above sequence, and let $\ell = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n$. Carefully applying a theorem proved in lectures, find ℓ .

Solution: Recall that $a_n = 2^{1-\frac{1}{2^n}}$. Note that $1 - \frac{1}{2^n} \rightarrow 1$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$, and so $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = 2^1 = 2$.

5. This question provides a useful estimate on $n!$: $n! \approx (n/e)^n$.

- (a) Show that if $f : [1, \infty)$ is increasing then

$$f(1) + \dots + f(n-1) < \int_1^n f(x) dx < f(2) + \dots + f(n).$$

Solution: Consider the interval $[i, i+1]$. Because f is an increasing function, then $\sup\{f(x) : x \in [i, i+1]\} = f(i+1)$ and $\inf\{f(x) : x \in [i, i+1]\} = f(i)$.

Using Homework 1, Question 5a, we have that

$$\begin{aligned}
 f(i) &< \int_i^{i+1} < f(i+1) \\
 \implies \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} f(i) &< \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} \int_i^{i+1} < f(i+1) < \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} f(i+1) \\
 \iff f(1) + \dots + f(n-1) &< \int_1^2 f(x) dx + \dots + \int_{n-1}^n f(x) dx < f(2) + \dots + f(n) \\
 \iff f(1) + \dots + f(n-1) &< \int_1^n f(x) dx < f(2) + \dots + f(n)
 \end{aligned}$$

(b) By taking $f = \log$ deduce that

$$\frac{n^n}{e^{n-1}} < n! < \frac{(n+1)^{n+1}}{e^n}.$$

Solution: Note that $\int \ln(x) dx = x \ln(x) - x$ and so $\int_1^n \ln(x) dx = n \ln(n) - n + 1$. We also see that $\ln(1) + \dots + \ln(n-1) = \ln((n-1)!)$ and $\ln(2) + \dots + \ln(n) = \ln(n!)$. Since \ln is an increasing function, using part a, we have the upper bound

$$n \ln(n) - n + 1 \leq \ln(n!) \implies \frac{n^n}{e^{n-1}} < n!$$

and similarly, performing an index change from n to $n+1$ gives us a lower bound of

$$\ln(n!) < (n+1) \ln(n+1) - n \implies n! < \frac{(n+1)^{n+1}}{e^n}$$

(c) Deduce that¹

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\sqrt[n]{n!}}{n} = \frac{1}{e}.$$

Solution: From the lower bound in part b, we have that

$$\frac{1}{e} \cdot e^{1/n} > \frac{\sqrt[n]{n!}}{n}$$

¹Note that this only says that for large n , $\sqrt[n]{n!}$ is close to n/e ; it does not say that for large n , $n!$ is close to $(n/e)^n$ — it is not. In fact, all we can get out of the bounds in part b) is that

$$e \left(\frac{n}{e}\right)^n < n! < e(n+1) \left(\frac{n}{e}\right)^n.$$

A better, and much more difficult to prove, bound on $n!$ is given by *Stirling's formula*:

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{n!}{\sqrt{2\pi n} \left(\frac{n}{e}\right)^n} = 1;$$

in other words, for all $\varepsilon > 0$ there is n_0 such that $n > n_0$ implies

$$(1 - \varepsilon)\sqrt{2\pi n} \left(\frac{n}{e}\right)^n < n! < (1 + \varepsilon)\sqrt{2\pi n} \left(\frac{n}{e}\right)^n.$$

From the upper bound, we have

$$\frac{\sqrt[n]{n!}}{n} < \frac{1}{e} \cdot \sqrt[n]{n+1} \left(1 + \frac{1}{n}\right)$$

Because both $e^{1/n}$ and $\sqrt[n]{n+1} \left(1 + \frac{1}{n}\right)$ go to 1 as $n \rightarrow \infty$, then our desired result follows by squeeze theorem.

6. The *Harmonic number* H_n is the number $H_n = \sum_{k=1}^n \frac{1}{k} = 1 + \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{3} + \cdots + \frac{1}{n}$. This exercise gives a very useful estimate on H_n , namely $H_n \approx \log n$.

- (a) Notice that $H_1 = 1$, $H_2 = 1 + \frac{1}{2}$ and

$$H_4 = 1 + \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{3} + \frac{1}{4} \geq 1 + \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{4} + \frac{1}{4} = 1 + \frac{2}{2}.$$

Generalize this: prove that for all $k \geq 0$, $H_{2^k} \geq 1 + \frac{k}{2}$ (and so $(H_n)_{n=1}^\infty$ diverges to $+\infty$).

Solution: We use induction. Consider the base cases $k = 1$ and $k = 2$. From the question we see that $H_{2^1} = 1 + \frac{1}{2}$ and $H_4 = 1 + \frac{2}{2}$ and so the base cases hold.

Now, suppose that $H_{2^{k-1}} \geq 1 + \frac{k-1}{2}$. Consider H_{2^k} . We have that

$$\begin{aligned} H_{2^k} &= H_{2^{k-1}} + \frac{1}{2^{k-1} + 1} + \frac{1}{2^{k-1} + 2} + \cdots + \frac{1}{2^k} \\ &\geq H_{2^{k-1}} + \frac{1}{2^k} + \frac{1}{2^k} + \cdots + \frac{1}{2^k} \\ &\geq 1 + \frac{k-1}{2} + \frac{1}{2} \\ &= 1 + \frac{k}{2} \end{aligned}$$

- (b) Prove that for all natural numbers n ,

$$\frac{1}{n+1} < \log(n+1) - \log n < \frac{1}{n}.$$

Solution: By definition, we have that

$$\ln\left(\frac{n+1}{n}\right) = \int_1^{\frac{n+1}{n}} \frac{1}{t} dt$$

and we also have that

$$1 < t < \frac{n+1}{n} \implies \frac{n}{n+1} < \frac{1}{t} < \frac{1}{n}$$

and this gives us

$$\frac{n}{n+1} \int_1^{\frac{n+1}{n}} dt < \int_1^{\frac{n+1}{n}} \frac{1}{t} dt < \frac{1}{n} \int_1^{\frac{n+1}{n}} dt$$

Computing the definite integrals gives us

$$\frac{1}{n+1} < \ln\left(\frac{n+1}{n}\right) < \frac{1}{n}$$

- (c) Deduce from part (b) that the sequence $(H_n - \log n)_{n=2}^{\infty}$ is decreasing and bounded below by 0.

Solution: First we show that the sequence is decreasing. Note that

$$H_{n+1} - \ln(n+1) < H_n - \ln(n)$$

if and only if

$$H_{n+1} - H_n = \frac{1}{n+1} < \ln(n+1) - \ln(n)$$

which follows from part b.

Now we show that it is bounded below by 0. We have that

$$H_n = \sum_{k=1}^n \frac{1}{k} > \int_1^{n+1} \frac{1}{t} dt = \ln(n+1) > \ln(n)$$

where the inequality is valid because the sum is simply a left-hand endpoint Riemann sum for the integral, and $1/t$ is a decreasing function.

- (d) Explain why you can deduce that there is a number $\gamma \geq 0$ such that

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (H_n - \log n) = \gamma.$$

(This number is known as the *Euler-Mascheroni constant*, and is approximately 0.57721. It is not known whether γ is rational or irrational.)

Solution: By the Monotone Convergence Theorem (Theorem 2 in the textbook), because $H_n - \ln(n)$ is non-increasing and bounded below by 0, then the sequence must converge to some value, and we can denote this value as γ , where $\gamma \geq 0$.