# ECON2125/4021/8013

Lecture 16

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# Analysis on the Line

Recall that  $\mathbb R$  denotes the continuous real line



Can be thought of as  $\mathbb{Q} \cup \mathbb{I}$  where

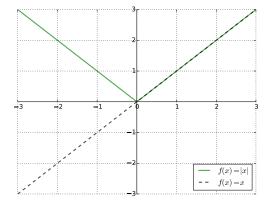
- ullet  $\mathbb Q$  is the rational numbers
- It is the irrational numbers

#### **Facts**

- Between any two real numbers a < b there exists a rational number
- Between any two real numbers a < b there exists an irrational number

Thus, the rationals and irrationals are "all mixed together"

If  $x \in \mathbb{R}$  then  $|x| := \max\{x, -x\}$  called its **absolute value** 



# **Fact.** For any $x, y \in \mathbb{R}$ , the following statements hold

- 1.  $|x| \le y$  if and only if  $-y \le x \le y$
- 2. |x| < y if and only if -y < x < y
- 3. |x| = 0 if and only if x = 0
- 4. |xy| = |x||y|
- 5.  $|x + y| \le |x| + |y|$

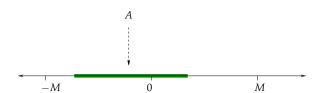
## Last inequality is called the triangle inequality

**Ex.** Using these rules, show that if  $x, y, z \in \mathbb{R}$ , then

- 1.  $|x y| \le |x| + |y|$
- 2.  $|x-y| \le |x-z| + |z-y|$  (Hint: x-y = x-z+z-y)

# Bounded sets

 $A \subset \mathbb{R}$  is called **bounded** if  $\exists M \in \mathbb{R}$  s.t.  $|x| \leq M$ , all  $x \in A$ 



## Example. Every finite subset A of $\mathbb R$ is bounded

$$\therefore$$
 Set  $M := \max\{|a| : a \in A\}$ 

## Example. $\mathbb{N}$ is unbounded

: For any  $M \in \mathbb{R}$  there is an n that exceeds it

Example. (a,b) is bounded for any a,b

 $\therefore$  Each  $x \in (a, b)$  satisfies  $|x| \le M := \max\{|a|, |b|\}$ 

Ex. Check it

**Fact.** If A and B are bounded sets then so is  $A \cup B$ 

Proof: Let A and B be bounded sets and let  $C := A \cup B$ 

By definition,  $\exists\, M_A$  and  $M_B$  with

$$|a| \le M_A$$
, all  $a \in A$ ,  $|b| \le M_B$ , all  $b \in B$ 

Let  $M_C := \max\{M_A, M_B\}$  and fix any  $x \in C$ 

$$x \in C \implies x \in A \text{ or } x \in B$$

$$|x| \le M_A$$
 or  $|x| \le M_B$ 

$$|x| \leq M_C$$

## $\epsilon$ -balls

Given  $\epsilon > 0$  and  $a \in \mathbb{R}$ , the  $\epsilon$ -ball around a is

$$B_{\epsilon}(a) := \{ x \in \mathbb{R} : |a - x| < \epsilon \}$$

Equivalently,

$$B_{\epsilon}(a) = \{ x \in \mathbb{R} : a - \epsilon < x < a + \epsilon \}$$

$$a-\epsilon$$
  $a$   $a+\epsilon$ 

Ex. Check equivalence



**Fact.** If x is in every  $\epsilon$ -ball around a then x = a

Proof:

Suppose to the contrary that

• x is in every  $\epsilon$ -ball around a and yet  $x \neq a$ 

Since x is not a we must have |x - a| > 0

Set 
$$\epsilon := |x - a|$$

Since  $\epsilon > 0$ , we have  $x \in B_{\epsilon}(a)$ 

This means that  $|x - a| < \epsilon$ 

That is, |x - a| < |x - a| — contradiction

**Fact.** If  $a \neq b$ , then  $\exists \epsilon > 0$  s.t.  $B_{\epsilon}(a)$  and  $B_{\epsilon}(b)$  are disjoint



Proof: Let  $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$  with  $a \neq b$ 

If we set  $\epsilon:=|a-b|/2$ , then  $B_{\epsilon}(a)$  and  $B_{\epsilon}(b)$  are disjoint

To see this, suppose to the contrary that  $\exists x \in B_{\epsilon}(a) \cap B_{\epsilon}(B)$ 

Then 
$$|x - a| < |a - b|/2$$
 and  $|x - b| < |a - b|/2$ 

But then

$$|a-b| \le |a-x| + |x-b| < |a-b|/2 + |a-b|/2 = |a-b|$$

Contradiction



# Sequences

A **sequence** is a function from  $\mathbb N$  to  $\mathbb R$ 

• to each  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  we associate one  $x_n \in \mathbb{R}$ 

Typically written as  $\{x_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$  or  $\{x_n\}$  or  $\{x_1, x_2, x_3, \ldots\}$ 

### Examples.

- $\{x_n\} = \{2, 4, 6, \ldots\}$
- $\{x_n\} = \{1, 1/2, 1/4, \ldots\}$
- $\{x_n\} = \{1, -1, 1, -1, \ldots\}$
- $\{x_n\} = \{0, 0, 0, \ldots\}$

# Sequence $\{x_n\}$ is called

- **bounded** if  $\{x_1, x_2, \ldots\}$  is a bounded set
- monotone increasing if  $x_{n+1} \ge x_n$  for all n
- monotone decreasing if  $x_{n+1} \le x_n$  for all n
- monotone if it is either monotone increasing or monotone decreasing

### Examples.

- $x_n = 1/n$  is monotone decreasing, bounded
- $x_n = (-1)^n$  is not monotone but is bounded
- $x_n = 2n$  is monotone increasing but not bounded

# Convergence

Let  $a \in \mathbb{R}$  and let  $\{x_n\}$  be a sequence

Suppose, for any  $\epsilon>0$ , we can find an  $N\in\mathbb{N}$  with

$$x_n \in B_{\epsilon}(a)$$
 for all  $n \geq N$ 

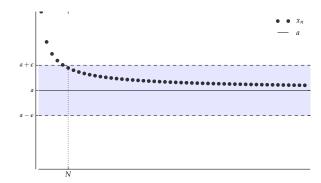
Then  $\{x_n\}$  is said to **converge** to a

Convergence to a in symbols,

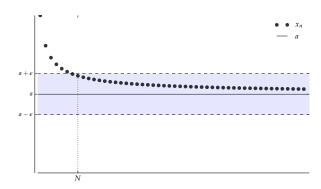
$$\forall \epsilon > 0, \ \exists N \in \mathbb{N} \ \text{ s.t. } n \geq \mathbb{N} \implies x_n \in B_{\epsilon}(a)$$

" $\{x_n\}$  is eventually in any  $\epsilon$ -ball around a"

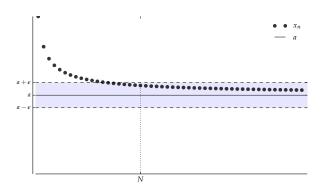
The sequence  $\{x_n\}$  is eventually in this  $\epsilon$ -ball around a



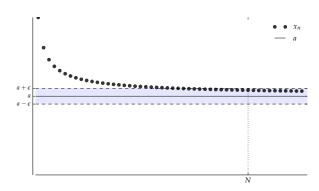
#### ...and this one



### ...and this one



### ...and this one



The point *a* is called the **limit** of the sequence, and we write

$$x_n \to a$$
 as  $n \to \infty$ 

or

$$\lim_{n\to\infty}x_n=a$$

We call  $\{x_n\}$  **convergent** if it converges to some limit in  $\mathbb{R}$ 

Example.  $\{x_n\}$  defined by  $x_n = 1 + 1/n$  converges to 1

To prove this must show that  $\forall \epsilon > 0$ , there is an  $N \in \mathbb{N}$  such that

$$n \ge N \implies |x_n - 1| < \epsilon$$
 (\*)

To show this formally we need to come up with an "algorithm"

- 1. You give me any  $\epsilon > 0$
- 2. I respond with an N such that  $(\star)$  holds

In general, as  $\epsilon$  shrinks, N will have to grow

Here's how to do this for the case 1 + 1/n converges to 1

First pick an arbitrary  $\epsilon>0$ 

Now we have to come up with an N such that

$$n \ge N \implies |1 + 1/n - 1| < \epsilon \tag{*}$$

Let N be the first integer greater than  $1/\epsilon$ 

Then

$$n \ge N \implies n > 1/\epsilon \implies 1/n < \epsilon \implies |1 + 1/n - 1| < \epsilon$$

Remark: Any N' > N would also work

Example. The sequence  $x_n = 2^{-n}$  converges to 0

Proof: Must show that,  $\forall \, \epsilon > 0, \, \exists \, N \in \mathbb{N}$  such that

$$n \ge N \implies |2^{-n} - 0| < \epsilon$$
 (\*)

So pick any  $\epsilon > 0$ , and observe that

$$|2^{-n} - 0| < \epsilon \iff 2^{-n} < \epsilon \iff n > -\frac{\ln \epsilon}{\ln 2}$$

Hence we take N to be the first integer greater than  $-\ln \epsilon / \ln 2$ 

Then

$$n \ge N \implies n > -\frac{\ln \epsilon}{\ln 2} \implies (\star)$$

What if we want to show that  $x_n \to a$  fails?

To show convergence fails we need to show the negation of

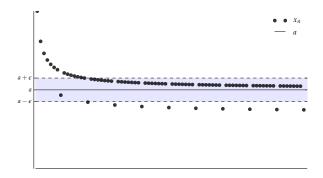
$$\forall \ \epsilon > 0, \ \exists \ N \in \mathbb{N} \ \text{ s.t. } n \geq N \implies x_n \in B_{\epsilon}(a)$$

Negation: there is an  $\epsilon>0$  where we can't find any such N

More specifically,  $\exists \epsilon > 0$  such that, which ever  $N \in \mathbb{N}$  we look at, there's an  $n \geq N$  with  $x_n$  outside  $B_{\epsilon}(a)$ 

One way to say this: There exists a  $B_{\epsilon}(a)$  such that  $x_n \notin B_{\epsilon}(a)$  infinitely often

# This is the kind of picture we're thinking of



Example. The sequence  $x_n = (-1)^n$  does <u>not</u> converge to 1

Proof: This is what we want to show

$$\exists \ \epsilon > 0 \ \text{ s.t. } \ \text{s.t. } x_n \notin B_{\epsilon}(1) \ \text{infinitely often}$$

Since it's a "there exists", we need to come up with such an  $\epsilon$  Let's try  $\epsilon=0.5$ , so that

$$B_{\epsilon}(1) = \{x \in \mathbb{R} : |x - 1| < 0.5\} = (0.5, 1.5)$$

If n is odd then  $x_n = -1$ , which is not in (0.5, 1.5)

Hence  $\{x_n\}$  not in  $B_{\epsilon}(1)$  infinitely often

# An Equivalence

Let  $\{x_n\}$  be a sequence in  $\mathbb R$  and let  $a\in\mathbb R$ 

**Fact.**  $x_n \to a$  if and only if  $|x_n - a| \to 0$ 

Proof: Compare the definitions:

- $x_n \to a \iff \forall \epsilon > 0, \exists N \in \mathbb{N} \text{ s.t. } |x_n a| < \epsilon$
- $|x_n a| \to 0 \iff \forall \epsilon > 0, \exists N \in \mathbb{N} \text{ s.t. } ||x_n a| 0| < \epsilon$

Clearly these statements are equivalent

## **Fact.** Each sequence in $\mathbb R$ has at most one limit

Proof: Suppose instead that  $x_n \to a$  and  $x_n \to b$  with  $a \neq b$ 

$$B_{\epsilon}(a)$$
  $B_{\epsilon}(b)$  ...

Since  $x_n \to a$  and  $x_n \to b$ ,

•  $\exists N_a \text{ s.t. } n \geq N_a \implies x_n \in B_{\epsilon}(a)$ 

Take disjoint  $\epsilon$ -balls around a and b

•  $\exists N_b \text{ s.t. } n \geq N_b \implies x_n \in B_{\epsilon}(b)$ 

But then  $n \ge \max\{N_a, N_b\} \implies x_n \in B_{\epsilon}(a)$  and  $x_n \in B_{\epsilon}(b)$ 

Contradiction of disjoint

## Fact. Every convergent sequence is bounded

Proof: Let  $\{x_n\}$  be convergent with  $x_n \to a$ 

Fix any  $\epsilon > 0$  and choose N s.t.  $x_n \in B_{\epsilon}(a)$  when  $n \geq N$ 

Regarded as sets,

$$\{x_n\}\subset\{x_1,\ldots,x_{N-1}\}\cup B_{\epsilon}(a)$$

Both of these sets are bounded

- First because finite sets are bounded
- Second because  $B_{\epsilon}(a)$  is bounded

Moreover, finite unions of bounded sets are bounded

# Limits vs Algebra

Here are some basic tools for working with limits

**Facts** If  $x_n \to x$  and  $y_n \to y$ , then

- 1.  $x_n + y_n \rightarrow x + y$
- 2.  $x_n y_n \rightarrow xy$
- 3.  $x_n/y_n \rightarrow x/y$  when  $y_n$  and y are  $\neq 0$
- 4.  $x_n \le y_n$  for all  $n \implies x \le y$

Let's check that  $x_n \to x$  and  $y_n \to y$  implies  $x_n + y_n \to x + y$ 

Proof: Fix  $\epsilon > 0$ 

Need to find  $N \in \mathbb{N}$  such that

$$n \ge N \implies |(x_n + y_n) - (x + y)| < \epsilon$$
 (\*)

Note that

• 
$$|(x_n + y_n) - (x + y)| \le |x_n - x| + |y_n - y|$$

• 
$$\exists N_x \in \mathbb{N}$$
 such that  $n \geq N_x \implies |x_n - x| < \epsilon/2$ 

• 
$$\exists N_y \in \mathbb{N}$$
 such that  $n \geq N_y \implies |y_n - y| < \epsilon/2$ 

**Ex.** Show  $N := \max\{N_x, N_y\}$  satisfies  $(\star)$ 

Let's also check the claim that  $x_n \to x$ ,  $y_n \to y$  and  $x_n \le y_n$  for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  implies  $x \le y$ 

Proof: Suppose instead that x > y

Take disjoint  $\epsilon$ -balls  $B_{\epsilon}(x)$  and  $B_{\epsilon}(y)$  around these points



Exists an n such that  $x_n \in B_{\epsilon}(x)$  and  $y_n \in B_{\epsilon}(y)$ 

But then  $x_n > y_n$ , a contradiction

In words: "Weak inequalities are preserved under limits"

Here's another property of limits, called the "squeeze theorem"

**Fact.** Let  $\{x_n\}$   $\{y_n\}$  and  $\{z_n\}$  be sequences in  $\mathbb{R}$ . If

- 1.  $x_n \leq y_n \leq z_n$  for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$
- 2.  $x_n \to a$  and  $z_n \to a$

then  $y_n \to a$  also holds

Proof: Pick any  $\epsilon > 0$ 

We can choose an

- $N_x \in \mathbb{N}$  such that  $n \geq N_x \implies x_n \in B_{\epsilon}(a)$
- $N_z \in \mathbb{N}$  such that  $n \geq N_z \implies z_n \in B_{\epsilon}(a)$

**Ex.** Show that  $n \ge \max\{N_x, N_z\} \implies y_n \in B_{\epsilon}(a)$ 

# Infinite Sums

Let  $\{x_n\}$  be a sequence in  $\mathbb{R}$ 

Then

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} x_n := \lim_{k \to \infty} \sum_{n=1}^{k} x_n$$

Thus,  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} x_n$  is defined, if it exists, as the limit of  $\{y_k\}$  where

$$y_k := \sum_{n=1}^k x_n$$

Other notation:

$$\sum_{n} x_n$$
,  $\sum_{n>1} x_n$ ,  $\sum_{n\in\mathbb{N}} x_n$ , etc.

Example. If  $x_n = \alpha^n$  for  $\alpha \in (0,1)$ , then

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} x_n = \lim_{k \to \infty} \sum_{n=1}^{k} \alpha^n = \lim_{k \to \infty} \alpha \frac{1 - \alpha^k}{1 - \alpha} = \frac{\alpha}{1 - \alpha}$$

Example. If  $x_n = (-1)^n$  the limit fails to exist because

$$y_k = \sum_{n=1}^k x_n = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } k \text{ is even} \\ -1 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

**Fact.** If  $\{x_n\}$  is nonnegative and  $\sum_n x_n < \infty$ , then  $x_n \to 0$ 

Proof: Suppose to the contrary that  $x_n o 0$  fails

Then

 $\exists \ \epsilon > 0$  such that  $x_n \notin B_{\epsilon}(0)$  infinitely often

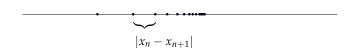
Since  $x_n$  is nonnegative,

 $\exists \ \epsilon > 0$  such that  $x_n$  exceeds  $\epsilon$  infinitely often

But then  $\sum_{n} x_n$  cannot be finite — contradiction

# Cauchy Sequences

Informal def: Cauchy sequences are those where  $|x_n - x_{n+1}|$  gets smaller and smaller



Example. Sequences generated by iterative methods for solving nonlinear equations often have this property

Cauchy sequences "look like" they are converging to something

A key <u>axiom</u> of analysis is that such sequences do converge to something — details follow

A sequence  $\{x_n\}$  is called **Cauchy** if  $\forall \epsilon > 0$ ,  $\exists N \in \mathbb{N}$  such that

$$n \ge N \text{ and } j \ge 1 \implies |x_n - x_{n+j}| < \epsilon$$
 (\*)

Example.  $\{x_n\}$  defined by  $x_n = \alpha^n$  where  $\alpha \in (0,1)$  is Cauchy

Proof: For any n, j we have

$$|x_n - x_{n+j}| = |\alpha^n - \alpha^{n+j}| = \alpha^n |1 - \alpha^j| \le \alpha^n$$

Fix  $\epsilon > 0$ 

**Ex.** Show that  $n > \epsilon / \log(\alpha) \implies \alpha^n < \epsilon$ 

Hence any integer  $N > \epsilon / \log(\alpha)$  makes ( $\star$ ) hold

**Fact.** For any sequence, convergent ← Cauchy

Proof of  $\Longrightarrow$ :

Let  $\{x_n\}$  be a sequence converging to some  $a \in \mathbb{R}$ 

Fix  $\epsilon > 0$ 

We can choose N s.t.

$$n \geq N \implies |x_n - a| < \frac{\epsilon}{2}$$

For this N we have  $n \ge N$  and  $j \ge 1$  implies

$$|x_n - x_{n+j}| \le |x_n - a| + |x_{n+j} - a| \le \frac{\epsilon}{2} + \frac{\epsilon}{2} = \epsilon$$

### Proof of $\Leftarrow$ :

This is basically an  $\underline{\mathsf{axiom}}$  in the definition of  $\mathbb R$ 

#### Either

- 1. We assume it, or
- 2. We assume something else that's essentially equivalent

We'll go for option 1

### Implications:

- There are no "gaps" in the real line
- To check  $\{x_n\}$  converges to something we just need to check Cauchy property

## Fact. Every bounded monotone sequence in $\ensuremath{\mathbb{R}}$ is convergent

Sketch of proof:

Suffices to show that  $\{x_n\}$  is Cauchy

Suppose not

Then no matter how far we go down the sequence we can find another jump of size  $\varepsilon>0$ 

Since monotone, all the jumps are in the same direction

But then  $\{x_n\}$  not bounded — a contradiction

Full proof: See any text on analysis

# Subsequences

A sequence  $\{x_{n_k}\}$  is called a **subsequence** of  $\{x_n\}$  if

- 1.  $\{x_{n_k}\}$  is a subset of  $\{x_n\}$
- 2. the indices  $n_k$  are strictly increasing

## Example.

$${x_n} = {x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4, x_5, \ldots}$$

and

$$\{x_{n_k}\}=\{x_2,x_4,x_6,x_8\ldots\}$$

In this case

$$\{n_k\} = \{n_1, n_2, n_3, \ldots\} = \{2, 4, 6, \ldots\}$$

## More Examples.

- 1.  $\{\frac{1}{1}, \frac{1}{3}, \frac{1}{5}, \ldots\}$  is a subsequence of  $\{\frac{1}{1}, \frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{3}, \ldots\}$
- 2.  $\{\frac{1}{1}, \frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{3}, \ldots\}$  is a subsequence of  $\{\frac{1}{1}, \frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{3}, \ldots\}$
- 3.  $\{\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2}, \dots\}$  is **not** a subsequence of  $\{\frac{1}{1}, \frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{3}, \dots\}$

Fact. Every sequence has a monotone subsequence

Proof: Omitted

Example. The sequence  $x_n = (-1)^n$  has monotone subsequence

$$\{x_2, x_4, x_6, \ldots\} = \{1, 1, 1, \ldots\}$$

This leads us to the famous **Bolzano–Weierstrass theorem**, to be used later when we discuss optimization

**Fact.** Every bounded sequence in  $\mathbb R$  has a convergent subsequence

Proof: Let  $\{x_n\}$  be a bounded sequence

There exists a monotone subsequence

- which is itself a bounded sequence (why?)
- and hence both monotone and bounded

Every bounded monotone sequence converges

Hence  $\{x_n\}$  has a convergent subsequence