Chapter 3: Numerical Sequences and Series

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Exercise 3.1. Prove that the convergence of $\{s_n\}$ implies convergence of $\{|s_n|\}$. Is the converse true?

Proof.

(1) Since $\{s_n\}$ is convergent, there is $s \in \mathbb{R}^1$ with the following property: given any $\varepsilon > 0$, there is N such that $|s_n - s| < \varepsilon$ whenever $n \ge N$. So

$$||s_n| - |s|| < |s_n - s| < \varepsilon$$

(Exercise 1.13). That is, $\{|s_n|\}$ converges to |s|.

(2) The converse is not true by considering $s_n = (-1)^{n+1}$.

Exercise 3.2. Calculate $\lim_{n\to\infty} (\sqrt{n^2+n}-n)$.

Proof.

$$\sqrt{n^2 + n} - n = \frac{n}{\sqrt{n^2 + n} + n} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1 + \frac{1}{n}} + 1} \to \frac{1}{1 + 1} = \frac{1}{2}$$

as $n \to \infty$. \square

Proof $(\varepsilon - N \text{ argument})$. Let $s_n = \sqrt{n^2 + n} - n$. Show that the sequence $\{s_n\}$ converges to $s = \frac{1}{2}$. Given any $\varepsilon > 0$, there is $N > \frac{1}{\varepsilon}$ such that

$$|s_n - s| = \left| (\sqrt{n^2 + n} - n) - \frac{1}{2} \right| = \left| \frac{1}{\sqrt{1 + \frac{1}{n}} + 1} - \frac{1}{2} \right|$$

$$= \left| \frac{2 - \left(\sqrt{1 + \frac{1}{n}} + 1\right)}{2\left(\sqrt{1 + \frac{1}{n}} + 1\right)} \right| = \left| \frac{1 - \sqrt{1 + \frac{1}{n}}}{2\left(\sqrt{1 + \frac{1}{n}} + 1\right)} \right|$$

$$= \left| \frac{1 - \left(1 - \frac{1}{n}\right)}{2\left(\sqrt{1 + \frac{1}{n}} + 1\right)^2} \right| = \left| \frac{-\frac{1}{n}}{2\left(\sqrt{1 + \frac{1}{n}} + 1\right)^2} \right| < \frac{1}{n} \le \frac{1}{N} < \varepsilon$$

wheneven $n \geq N$. \square

Exercise 3.3. If $s_1 = \sqrt{2}$ and

$$s_{n+1} = \sqrt{2 + \sqrt{s_n}} \ (n = 1, 2, 3, ...),$$

prove that $\{s_n\}$ converges, and that $s_n < 2$ for n = 1, 2, 3, ...

The convergence of $\{s_n\}$ implies there is $s \in \mathbb{R}$ such that $s_n \to s$ where $s = \sqrt{2 + \sqrt{s}}$ and $\sqrt{2} < s \le 2$. WolframAlpha shows that

$$s = \frac{1}{3} \left(-1 + \sqrt[3]{\frac{1}{2}(79 - 3\sqrt{249})} + \sqrt[3]{\frac{1}{2}(79 + 3\sqrt{249})} \right).$$

Proof (Theorem 3.14).

- (1) Show that $\{s_n\}$ is increasing (by mathematical induction).
 - (a) Show that $s_2 > s_1$. In fact,

$$s_2 = \sqrt{2 + \sqrt{s_1}} = \sqrt{2 + \sqrt{\sqrt{2}}} < \sqrt{2} = s_1.$$

(a) Show that $s_{n+1} > s_n$ if $s_n > s_{n-1}$.

$$s_{n+1} = \sqrt{2 + \sqrt{s_n}} > \sqrt{2 + \sqrt{s_{n-1}}} = s_n.$$

By mathematical induction, $\{s_n\}$ is (strictly) increasing.

- (2) Show that $\{s_n\}$ is bounded (by mathematical induction).
 - (a) Show that $s_1 \leq 2$. $\sqrt{2} \leq 2$.
 - (a) Show that $s_{n+1} \leq 2$ if $s_n \leq 2$.

$$s_{n+1} = \sqrt{2 + \sqrt{s_n}} \le \sqrt{2 + \sqrt{2}} < 2.$$

By mathematical induction, $\{s_n\}$ is bounded by 2.

Hence, $\{s_n\}$ converges since $\{s_n\}$ is increasing and bounded (Theorem 3.14). \square

Exercise 3.4. Find the upper and lower limits of the sequences $\{s_n\}$ defined by

$$s_1 = 0; s_{2m} = \frac{s_{2m-1}}{2}; s_{2m+1} = \frac{1}{2} + s_{2m}.$$

Write out the first few terms of $\{s_n\}$:

$$0,0,\frac{1}{2},\frac{1}{4},\frac{3}{4},\frac{3}{8},\frac{7}{8},\frac{7}{16},\frac{15}{16},\dots$$

It suggests us

$$s_{2m+1} = 1 - \frac{1}{2^m} \ (m = 0, 1, 2, ...),$$

 $s_{2m} = \frac{1}{2} - \frac{1}{2^m} \ (m = 1, 2, 3, ...).$

Proof.

(1) Show that

$$s_{2m+1} = 1 - \frac{1}{2^m} \ (m = 0, 1, 2, ...),$$

 $s_{2m} = \frac{1}{2} - \frac{1}{2^m}. \ (m = 1, 2, 3, ...)$

Apply mathematical induction.

- (2) The upper limit is 1.
- (3) The lower limit is $\frac{1}{2}$.

Exercise 3.5. For any two real sequences $\{a_n\}$, $\{b_n\}$, prove that

$$\limsup_{n \to \infty} (a_n + b_n) \le \limsup_{n \to \infty} a_n + \limsup_{n \to \infty} b_n$$

provided the sum of the right is not of the form $\infty - \infty$.

Proof. Write $\alpha = \limsup_{n \to \infty} a_n$ and $\beta = \limsup_{n \to \infty} b_n$.

- (1) $\alpha = \infty$ and $\beta = \infty$. Nothing to do.
- (2) $\alpha = -\infty$ and $\beta = -\infty$. Since $\alpha = -\infty < \infty$, there exists M' such that $a_n < M'$ for all n. For any real M, $a_n > M M'$ for at most a finite number of values of n (Theorem 3.17(a)). Hence $a_n + b_n > M$ for at most a finite number of values of n. Hence $\limsup_{n \to \infty} (a_n + b_n) = -\infty$, or

$$\lim \sup_{n \to \infty} (a_n + b_n) = \lim \sup_{n \to \infty} a_n + \lim \sup_{n \to \infty} b_n$$

in this case.

(3) α and β are finite. (Similar to the argument in Theorem 3.37.) Choose $\alpha' > \alpha$ and $\beta' > \beta$. There is an integer N such that

$$\alpha' \geq a_n$$
 and $\beta' \geq b_n$

whenever $n \geq N$. Hence

$$a_n + b_n \le \alpha' + \beta'$$

whenever $n \geq N$. Take \limsup to get Hence

$$\limsup_{n \to \infty} (a_n + b_n) \le \alpha' + \beta'.$$

Since the inequality is true for every $\alpha' > \alpha$ and $\beta' > \beta$, we have

$$\limsup_{n \to \infty} (a_n + b_n) \le \limsup_{n \to \infty} a_n + \limsup_{n \to \infty} b_n.$$

Exercise 3.6. Investigate the behavior (convergence or divergence) of $\sum a_n$ if

- (a) $a_n = \sqrt{n+1} \sqrt{n}$.
- (b) $a_n = \frac{\sqrt{n+1} \sqrt{n}}{n}$.
- (c) $a_n = (\sqrt[n]{n} 1)^n$.
- (d) $a_n = \frac{1}{1+z^n}$ for complex values of z.

Proof of (a).

- (1) Divergence.
- (2) $\sum_{n=1}^{k} a_n = \sqrt{k+1} 1 \to \infty \text{ as } k \to \infty.$

Proof of (b).

- (1) Convergence.
- (2) Since

$$|a_n| = \frac{1}{n(\sqrt{n+1} + \sqrt{n})} < \frac{1}{2n^{\frac{3}{2}}}$$

holds for all n and $\sum \frac{1}{2n^{\frac{3}{2}}}$ converges (Theorem 3.28 and Theorem 3.3), by the comparison test (Theorem 3.25), $\sum a_n$ converges.

Proof of (c).

- (1) Convergence.
- (2) Note that

$$\alpha = \limsup_{n \to \infty} \sqrt[n]{|a_n|} = \limsup_{n \to \infty} \sqrt[n]{n} - 1 = 0$$

(Theorem 3.20(c)). Since $\alpha < 1$, $\sum a_n$ converges by the root test (Theorem 3.33).

Proof of (d).

- (1) Convergence if |z| > 1; divergence if $|z| \le 1$.
- (2) Note that $|z^n+1|+|-1| \ge |z^n|$ (Theorem 1.33(e)), or

$$|z^n + 1| \ge |z|^n - 1.$$

(3) If |z| > 1, then there is an integer N such that

$$|z|^n \ge 2$$
 whenever $n \ge N$.

Therefore, for $n \geq N$ we have

$$|a_n| = \frac{1}{|z^n + 1|}$$

$$\leq \frac{1}{|z|^n - 1}$$

$$\leq \frac{1}{|z|^n - \frac{1}{2}|z|^n}$$

$$= \frac{2}{|z|^n}.$$
((2))

The geometric series $\sum \frac{2}{|z|^n}$ converges, by the comparison test (Theorem 3.25), $\sum a_n$ converges.

(4) If $|z| \le 1$, then $|a_n| \ge \frac{1}{2}$, or $\lim a_n \ne 0$. By Theorem 3.23 ($\lim a_n = 0$ if $\sum a_n$ converges), $\sum a_n$ diverges.

Exercise 3.7. Prove that the convergence of $\sum a_n$ implies the convergence of

$$\sum \frac{\sqrt{a_n}}{n},$$

if $a_n \geq 0$.

Proof (Cauchy's inequatity).

(1) Show that $\sum \frac{\sqrt{a_n}}{n}$ is bounded. For any $k \in \mathbb{Z}^+$,

$$\left(\sum_{n=1}^{k} \frac{\sqrt{a_n}}{n}\right)^2 \le \left(\sum_{n=1}^{k} a_n\right) \left(\sum_{n=1}^{k} \frac{1}{n^2}\right)$$
 (Cauchy's inequatity)
$$\le \left(\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n\right) \left(\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^2}\right).$$
 $\left(\sum a_n, \sum \frac{1}{n^2}: \text{ convergent}\right)$

Thus, $\left(\sum_{n=1}^k \frac{\sqrt{a_n}}{n}\right)^2$ is bounded, or $\sum_{n=1}^k \frac{\sqrt{a_n}}{n}$ is bounded.

(2) Show that $\sum_{n=1}^{k} \frac{\sqrt{a_n}}{n}$ is increasing. It is clear due to $\frac{\sqrt{a_n}}{n} \ge 0$.

By Theorem 3.14, $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{\sqrt{a_n}}{n}$ converges. \square

Proof (AM-GM inequality). Show that $\sum \frac{\sqrt{a_n}}{n}$ is bounded.

$$\frac{\sqrt{a_n}}{n} \leq \frac{1}{2} \left(a_n + \frac{1}{n^2} \right) \tag{AM-GM inequality}$$

$$\sum_{n=1}^k \frac{\sqrt{a_n}}{n} \leq \frac{1}{2} \left(\sum_{n=1}^k a_n + \sum_{n=1}^k \frac{1}{n^2} \right)$$

$$\leq \frac{1}{2} \left(\sum_{n=1}^\infty a_n + \sum_{n=1}^\infty \frac{1}{n^2} \right). \qquad \left(\sum a_n, \sum \frac{1}{n^2} : \text{ convergent} \right)$$

Thus, $\sum_{n=1}^k \frac{\sqrt{a_n}}{n}$ is bounded. The rest proof is the same as previous. \square

Exercise 3.8. If $\sum a_n$ converges, and if $\{b_n\}$ is monotonic and bounded, prove that $\sum a_n b_n$ converges.

Proof (Theorem 3.42). There are only two possible cases (might be overlapped).

- (1) $\{b_n\}$ is decreasing to b. Define $\{\beta_n\}$ by $\beta_n = b_n b$.
 - (a) The partial sums of $\sum a_n$ form a bounded sequence since $\sum a_n$ converges.
 - (b) $\{\beta_n\}$ is monotonically decreasing.
 - (c) $\lim \beta_n = 0$.

By (1)(2)(3), $\sum a_n \beta_n$ converges. Hence

$$\sum a_n b_n = \sum a_n \beta_n + \sum a_n b$$

converges (Theorem 3.3(a)(b)).

(2) $\{b_n\}$ is increasing to b. Similar to (1). Define $\{\beta_n\}$ by $\beta_n = b - b_n$. Thus $\sum a_n \beta_n$ converges. Hence

$$\sum a_n b_n = -\sum a_n \beta_n + \sum a_n b$$

converges.

Exercise 3.9. Find the radius of convergence of each of the following power series:

- (a) $\sum n^3 z^n$,
- (b) $\sum \frac{2^n}{n!} z^n$,
- (c) $\sum \frac{2^n}{n^2} z^n$,
- (d) $\sum \frac{n^3}{3^n} z^n$.

Proof of (a). Since

$$\alpha = \limsup_{n \to \infty} \sqrt[n]{n^3} = \limsup_{n \to \infty} (\sqrt[n]{n})^3 = 1$$

(Theorem 3.20(c)), $R = \frac{1}{\alpha} = 1$.

Proof of (b).

(1) Note that $\sqrt[n]{n!} \leq \sqrt[n]{n^n} = n$. Show that $\sqrt[n]{n!} \geq \sqrt{n}$. Note that

$$(n!)^2 = \prod_{k=1}^n k(n+1-k).$$

For each term k(n+1-k) (where $k=1,\ldots,n$), we have

$$k(n+1-k)-n=(k-1)(n-k)\geq 0 \text{ or } k(n+1-k)>n.$$

or k(n+1-k) > n. Hence,

$$(n!)^2 = \prod_{k=1}^n k(n+1-k) \ge \prod_{k=1}^n n = n^n,$$

or $\sqrt[n]{n!} \ge \sqrt{n}$.

(2) Since

$$0 \leq \alpha = \limsup_{n \to \infty} \sqrt[n]{\frac{2^n}{n!}} = \limsup_{n \to \infty} \frac{2}{\sqrt[n]{n!}} \leq \limsup_{n \to \infty} \frac{2}{\sqrt{n}} = 0,$$

$$\alpha = 0 \text{ and } R = \frac{1}{\alpha} = \infty.$$

Proof of (c). Similar to (a). Since

$$\alpha = \limsup_{n \to \infty} \sqrt[n]{\frac{2^n}{n^2}} = \limsup_{n \to \infty} \frac{2}{\sqrt[n]{n^2}} = 2$$

(Theorem 3.20(c)), $R = \frac{1}{\alpha} = \frac{1}{2}$. \square

Proof of (d). Similar to (a)(c). Since

$$\alpha = \limsup_{n \to \infty} \sqrt[n]{\frac{n^3}{3^n}} = \limsup_{n \to \infty} \frac{\sqrt[n]{n^3}}{3} = \frac{1}{3}$$

(Theorem 3.20(c)), $R = \frac{1}{\alpha} = 3$. \square

Exercise 3.10. Suppose that the coefficients of the power series $\sum a_n z^n$ are integers, infinitely many of which are distinct from zero. Prove that the radius of convergence is at most 1.

Proof (Theorem 3.39). $\alpha = \limsup_{n \to \infty} \sqrt[n]{|a_n|} \ge 1$ by assumption that $\{a_n\}$ has infinitely many nonzero integers. Hence the radius of convergence $R = \frac{1}{\alpha} \le 1$.

Exercise 3.11. Suppose $a_n > 0$, $s_n = a_1 + \cdots + a_n$, and $\sum a_n$ diverges.

- (a) Prove that $\sum \frac{a_n}{1+a_n}$ diverges.
- (b) Prove that

$$\frac{a_{N+1}}{s_{N+1}} + \dots + \frac{a_{N+k}}{s_{N+k}} \ge 1 - \frac{s_N}{s_{N+k}}$$

and deduce that $\sum \frac{a_n}{s_n}$ diverges.

(c) Prove that

$$\frac{a_n}{s_n^2} \le \frac{1}{s_{n-1}} - \frac{1}{s_n}$$

and deduce that $\sum \frac{a_n}{s_n^2}$ converges.

(d) What can be said about

$$\sum \frac{a_n}{1+na_n}$$
 and $\sum \frac{a_n}{1+n^2a_n}$?

Proof of (a). (Reductio ad absurdum)

- (1) If $\sum_{\substack{1+a_n\\1+a_n}} \frac{a_n}{1+a_n}$ were convergent, $\lim_{\substack{a_n\\1+a_n}} \frac{a_n}{1+a_n} = 0$ (Theorem 3.23). Note that
- (2) Since $\lim a_n = 0$, there is an integer N such that

$$0 < a_n < 1$$
 whenever $n \ge N$.

Hence

$$|a_n| = a_n \le \frac{2a_n}{1 + a_n}$$
 whenever $n \ge N$.

By the comparison test (Theorem 3.25), $\sum a_n$ converges, contrary to the divergence of $\sum a_n$.

Proof of (b).

(1) Note that each $s_n > 0$ and $\{s_n\}$ is monotonic increasing. For $k \ge 1$,

$$\begin{split} \frac{a_{N+1}}{s_{N+1}} + \cdots + \frac{a_{N+k}}{s_{N+k}} &\geq \frac{a_{N+1}}{s_{N+k}} + \cdots + \frac{a_{N+k}}{s_{N+k}} \\ &= \frac{a_{N+1} + \cdots + a_{N+k}}{s_{N+k}} \\ &= \frac{s_{N+k} - s_{N}}{s_{N+k}} \\ &= 1 - \frac{s_{N}}{s_{N+k}}. \end{split}$$

(2) (Reductio ad absurdum) If $\sum \frac{a_n}{s_n}$ were convergent, by the Cauchy criterion (Theorem 3.22), for $\varepsilon = \frac{1}{64} > 0$, there is an integer N such that

$$\left| \sum_{n=N+1}^{N+k} \frac{a_n}{s_n} \right| < \frac{1}{64} \quad \text{whenever} \quad k \ge 1.$$

So,

$$\frac{1}{64} > \sum_{n=N+1}^{N+k} \frac{a_n}{s_n} > 1 - \frac{s_N}{s_{N+k}} \quad \text{or} \quad s_{N+k} < \frac{64}{63} s_N,$$

contrary to divergence of $\sum a_n = \infty$ (as $k \to \infty$).

Proof of (c).

(1) For $n \geq 2$,

$$\frac{1}{s_{n-1}} - \frac{1}{s_n} = \frac{s_n - s_{n-1}}{s_{n-1}s_n} = \frac{a_n}{s_{n-1}s_n} \ge \frac{a_n}{s_n^2}.$$

(2) $\sum \frac{a_n}{s_n^2}$ is a series of nonnegative terms and its partial sums

$$\begin{split} \sum_{n=1}^k \frac{a_n}{s_n^2} &\leq \frac{a_1}{s_1^2} + \sum_{n=2}^k \left(\frac{1}{s_{n-1}} - \frac{1}{s_n} \right) \\ &= \frac{a_1}{s_1^2} + \frac{1}{s_1} - \frac{1}{s_k} \\ &= \frac{2}{a_1} - \frac{1}{s_k} \\ &< \frac{2}{a_1} \end{split}$$

is bounded (by $\frac{2}{a_1}$). Therefore, $\sum \frac{a_n}{s_n^2}$ converges (Theorem 3.24).

Proof of (d).

- (1) Show that there is a divergent series $\sum a_n$ with $a_n > 0$ such that $\sum \frac{a_n}{1+na_n}$ converges or diverges.
 - (a) Take

$$a_n = \frac{1}{n(\log n)^p}$$

where $0 \le p \le 1$.

(b) Clearly,

$$\sum_{n=3}^{\infty} a_n = \sum_{n=3}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n(\log n)^p}$$

diverges (Theorem 3.29).

(c) Note that

$$\sum_{n=3}^{\infty} \frac{a_n}{1 + na_n} = \sum_{n=3}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n(\log n)^p} \cdot \frac{1}{1 + (\log n)^p}$$
$$= \sum_{n=3}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n(\log n)^p + n(\log n)^{2p}}.$$

Hence,

$$\sum_{n=3}^{\infty} \frac{1}{2n(\log n)^{2p}} \leq \sum_{n=3}^{\infty} \frac{a_n}{1+na_n} < \sum_{n=3}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n(\log n)^{2p}}.$$

(Here we use the fact that $n(\log n)^p > 0$ and $(\log n)^p \ge 1$ if n > e.) Therefore,

$$\sum_{n=3}^{\infty} \frac{a_n}{1 + na_n} = \begin{cases} \text{converges} & \text{if } 1 \ge p > \frac{1}{2} \\ \text{diverges} & \text{if } \frac{1}{2} \ge p \ge 0 \end{cases}$$

by Theorem 3.29 and the comparison test (Theorem 3.24).

Note. If a series $\sum a_n$ with $a_n > 0$ is convergent, then $\sum \frac{a_n}{1+na_n}$ is always convergent by the comparison test (Theorem 3.24).

(2) Given any series $\sum a_n$ with $a_n > 0$. Show that

$$\sum \frac{a_n}{1+n^2a_n} < \infty$$

converges. Note that

$$\left| \frac{a_n}{1 + n^2 a_n} \right| = \frac{1}{\frac{1}{a_n} + n^2} < \frac{1}{n^2}$$

for any n and $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^2}$ converges (to $\frac{\pi^2}{6}$). By the comparison test (Theorem 3.25), $\sum \frac{a_n}{1+n^2a_n}$ converges.

Note. Similar to (d), what can be said about

$$\sum \frac{a_n}{1 + n(\log n)a_n} \text{ and } \sum \frac{a_n}{1 + n(\log n)^2 a_n}?$$

Exercise 3.12. Suppose $a_n > 0$ and $\sum a_n$ converges. Put

$$r_n = \sum_{m=n}^{\infty} a_m.$$

(a) Prove that

$$\frac{a_m}{r_m} + \dots + \frac{a_n}{r_n} > 1 - \frac{r_n}{r_m}$$

if m < n, and deduce that $\sum \frac{a_n}{r_n}$ diverges.

(b) Prove that

$$\frac{a_n}{\sqrt{r_n}} < 2(\sqrt{r_n} - \sqrt{r_{n+1}})$$

and deduce that $\sum \frac{a_n}{\sqrt{r_n}}$ converges.

Note.

- (1) Each r_n is positive and finite (since $a_n > 0$ and $\sum a_n$ converges).
- (2) $\{r_n\}$ is monotonic decreasing (since $a_n > 0$).
- (3) $\{r_n\}$ converges to 0 (since $\sum a_n$ converges).

Proof of (a).

(1)

$$\frac{a_m}{r_m} + \dots + \frac{a_n}{r_n} > \frac{a_m}{r_m} + \dots + \frac{a_n}{r_m} \qquad (r_m > r_k \text{ for } k = m+1, \dots, n)$$

$$= \frac{a_m + \dots + a_n}{r_m}$$

$$= \frac{r_m - r_{n+1}}{r_m}$$

$$> \frac{r_m - r_n}{r_m}$$

$$= 1 - \frac{r_n}{r_m}.$$
(Definition of r_k)

(2) (Reductio ad absurdum) If $\sum \frac{a_n}{r_n}$ were convergent, then given $\varepsilon = \frac{1}{64} > 0$ there is an integer N such that

$$\left| \frac{a_m}{r_m} + \dots + \frac{a_n}{r_n} \right| < \frac{1}{64}$$
 whenever $n \ge m \ge N$

(Theorem 3.22). By (1), let m = N to get

$$1 - \frac{r_n}{r_N} < \frac{1}{64} \text{ whenever } n \ge N,$$

or

$$r_n > \frac{63}{64}r_N,$$

contrary to the assumption that $\{r_n\}$ converges to 0 (since $\sum a_n$ converges).

Proof of (b).

(1) Note that each r_n is positive and finite, and thus

$$\frac{a_n}{\sqrt{r_n}} < 2(\sqrt{r_n} - \sqrt{r_{n+1}}) \Longleftrightarrow \frac{r_n - r_{n+1}}{\sqrt{r_n}} < 2(\sqrt{r_n} - \sqrt{r_{n+1}})$$

$$\iff \frac{\sqrt{r_n} + \sqrt{r_{n+1}}}{\sqrt{r_n}} < 2$$

$$\iff \sqrt{r_n} + \sqrt{r_{n+1}} < 2\sqrt{r_n}$$

$$\iff \sqrt{r_{n+1}} < \sqrt{r_n}$$

$$\iff r_{n+1} < r_n.$$

The last statement holds since $\{r_n\}$ is monotonic decreasing.

(2) (a) Each term $\frac{a_n}{\sqrt{r_n}}$ of $\sum \frac{a_n}{\sqrt{r_n}}$ is nonnegative.

(b) The partial sum

$$\sum_{k=1}^{n} \frac{a_k}{\sqrt{r_k}} < \sum_{k=1}^{n} 2(\sqrt{r_k} - \sqrt{r_{k+1}}) = 2(\sqrt{r_1} - \sqrt{r_{n+1}}) < 2\sqrt{r_1}$$

is bounded by $2\sqrt{r_1}$.

By (a)(b), $\sum \frac{a_n}{\sqrt{r_n}}$ converges (Theorem 3.24).

Exercise 3.13. Prove that the Cauchy product of two absolutely convergent series converges absolutely.

Proof.

(1) Given two absolutely convergent series $\sum a_n$ and $\sum b_n$. The Cauchy product is $\sum c_n$ where

$$c_n = \sum_{k=0}^{n} a_k b_{n-k} \ (n = 0, 1, 2, \ldots).$$

Let
$$\sum |a_n| = A < \infty$$
 and $\sum |b_n| = B < \infty$.

- (2) Each term $|c_k|$ of $\sum_{k=0}^{n} |c_k|$ is nonnegative.
- (3) Thus,

$$\sum_{k=0}^{n} |c_k| = \sum_{k=0}^{n} \left| \sum_{m=0}^{k} a_m b_{k-m} \right|$$

$$\leq \sum_{k=0}^{n} \sum_{m=0}^{k} |a_m| |b_{k-m}|$$

$$= \sum_{k=0}^{n} |a_k| \sum_{m=0}^{n-k} |b_m|$$

$$\leq \sum_{k=0}^{n} |a_k| B$$

$$\leq AB$$

$$< \infty.$$

(4) By (2)(3), $\sum_{k=0}^{n} |c_k|$ converges (Theorem 3.24), or $\sum_{k=0}^{n} c_k$ converges absolutely.

Exercise 3.14 (Cesàro convergence). If $\{s_n\}$ is a complex sequence, define its arithmetic means σ_n by

$$\sigma_n = \frac{s_0 + s_1 + \dots + s_n}{n+1} \ (n = 0, 1, 2, \dots).$$

(a) If $\lim s_n = s$, prove that $\lim \sigma_n = s$.

- (b) Construct a sequence $\{s_n\}$ which does not converge, although $\lim \sigma_n = 0$.
- (c) Can it happen that $s_n > 0$ for all n and that $\limsup s_n = \infty$, although $\lim \sigma_n = 0$?
- (d) Put $a_n = s_n s_{n-1}$, for $n \ge 1$. Show that

$$s_n - \sigma_n = \frac{1}{n+1} \sum_{k=1}^n k a_k.$$

Assume that $\lim(na_n) = 0$ and that $\{\sigma_n\}$ converges. Prove that $\{s_n\}$ converges. [This gives a converse of (a), but under the additional assumption that $na_n \to 0$.]

(e) Derive the last conclusion from a weaker hypothesis: Assume $M \leq \infty$, $|na_n| < M$ for all n, and $\lim \sigma_n = \sigma$. Prove that $\lim s_n = \sigma$, by completing the following outline:

If m < n, then

$$s_n - \sigma_n = \frac{m+1}{n-m}(\sigma_n - \sigma_m) + \frac{1}{n-m} \sum_{i=m+1}^{n} (s_n - s_i).$$

For these i,

$$|s_n - s_i| \le \frac{(n-i)M}{i+1} \le \frac{(n-m-1)M}{m+2}.$$

Fix $\varepsilon > 0$ and associate with each n the integer m that satisfies

$$m \le \frac{n - \varepsilon}{1 + \varepsilon} < m + 1.$$

Then $\frac{m+1}{n-m} \leq \frac{1}{\varepsilon}$ and $|s_n - s_i| < M\varepsilon$. Hence

$$\limsup_{n\to\infty} |s_n - \sigma| \le M\varepsilon.$$

Since ε was arbitrary, $\lim s_n = \sigma$.

Proof of (a). Given any $\varepsilon > 0$.

(1) For such $\varepsilon > 0$, there is an integer $N' \ge 1$ such that

$$|s_n - s| < \frac{\varepsilon}{64}$$
 whenever $n \ge N'$.

(2) For such N', $\sum_{n=0}^{N'} |s_n - s|$ is finite. Let N'' be an integer such that

$$\sum_{n=0}^{N'} |s_n - s| < \frac{N''\varepsilon}{89}$$

(by taking $N'' = \left\lfloor \frac{89}{\varepsilon} \sum_{n=0}^{N'} |s_n - s| \right\rfloor + 1$).

(3) Note that

$$|\sigma_n - s| = \left| \left(\frac{1}{n+1} \sum_{k=0}^n s_k \right) - s \right|$$

$$= \left| \frac{1}{n+1} \sum_{k=0}^n (s_k - s) \right|$$

$$\leq \frac{1}{n+1} \sum_{k=0}^n |s_k - s|$$

holds for each $n=0,1,2,\ldots$ In particular, for $n\geq N=\max\{N',N''\}\geq 1,$ we have

$$\begin{split} |\sigma_n - s| &\leq \frac{1}{n+1} \sum_{k=0}^n |s_k - s| \\ &\leq \left(\frac{1}{n+1} \sum_{k=0}^{N'} |s_k - s| \right) + \left(\frac{1}{n+1} \sum_{k=N'+1}^n |s_k - s| \right) \\ &< \frac{1}{n+1} \cdot \frac{N'' \varepsilon}{89} + \frac{1}{n+1} \cdot \frac{(n-N')\varepsilon}{64} \\ &< \frac{\varepsilon}{89} + \frac{\varepsilon}{64} \\ &< \varepsilon. \end{split}$$

Therefore, $\lim \sigma_n = s$.

Proof of (b). Define $\{s_n\}$ by $s_n = (-1)^{n+1}$. \square

Proof of (c). Yes. Define

$$s_n = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{n!} + m^{63} & \text{if } n = m^{89} \text{ for some } m \in \mathbb{Z}, \\ \frac{1}{n!} & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

- (1) Clearly, $\limsup s_n = \infty$.
- (2) Given any n, there is $m \in \mathbb{Z}$ satisfying $m^{89} \le n < (m+1)^{89}$. So

$$0 < \sigma_n = \frac{1}{n+1} \sum_{k=0}^n s_k$$

$$\leq \frac{1}{m^{89}+1} \sum_{k=0}^n s_k$$

$$= \frac{1}{m^{89}+1} \left(\sum_{k=0}^n \frac{1}{n!} + \sum_{k=0}^m k^{63} \right)$$

$$\leq \frac{1}{m^{89}+1} \left(\sum_{k=0}^\infty \frac{1}{n!} + \sum_{k=0}^m m^{63} \right)$$

$$= \frac{e+m \cdot m^{63}}{m^{89}+1}$$

$$= \frac{m^{64}+e}{m^{89}+1}.$$

Let $n \to \infty$, then $m \to \infty$ and thus $\lim \sigma_n = 0$.

Proof of (d).

(1)

$$\frac{1}{n+1} \sum_{k=1}^{n} k a_k = \frac{1}{n+1} \sum_{k=1}^{n} k (s_k - s_{k-1})$$

$$= \frac{1}{n+1} \left(\sum_{k=1}^{n} k s_k - \sum_{k=1}^{n} k s_{k-1} \right)$$

$$= \frac{1}{n+1} \left(\sum_{k=1}^{n} k s_k - \sum_{k=1}^{n} (k-1) s_{k-1} - \sum_{k=1}^{n} s_{k-1} \right)$$

$$= \frac{1}{n+1} \left(n s_n - \sum_{k=1}^{n} s_{k-1} \right)$$

$$= \frac{1}{n+1} \left((n+1) s_n - \sum_{k=1}^{n+1} s_{k-1} \right)$$

$$= s_n - \sigma_n.$$

(2) Write

$$s_n = \sigma_n + \frac{1}{n+1} \sum_{k=1}^n k a_k.$$

Since $\lim_{n\to\infty} (na_n) = 0$, $\lim_{n\to\infty} \frac{1}{n+1} \sum_{k=1}^n ka_k = 0$ ((a)). Since $\{\sigma_n\}$ converges,

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} s_n = \lim_{n \to \infty} \sigma_n + \lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{1}{n+1} \sum_{k=1}^n k a_k = \lim_{n \to \infty} \sigma_n$$

(Theorem 3.3(a)).

Proof of (e).

(1) If m < n, then

$$\sigma_{n} - \sigma_{m} = \frac{1}{n+1} \sum_{k=0}^{n} s_{k} - \frac{1}{m+1} \sum_{k=0}^{m} s_{k}$$

$$= \frac{1}{n+1} \sum_{k=0}^{n} s_{k} - \frac{1}{m+1} \sum_{k=0}^{n} s_{k} + \frac{1}{m+1} \sum_{i=m+1}^{n} s_{i}$$

$$= \frac{m-n}{(m+1)(n+1)} \sum_{k=0}^{n} s_{k} + \frac{1}{m+1} \sum_{i=m+1}^{n} s_{i}$$

$$= \frac{m-n}{m+1} \sigma_{n} + \frac{1}{m+1} \sum_{i=m+1}^{n} s_{i},$$

$$\frac{m+1}{n-m} (\sigma_{n} - \sigma_{m}) = -\sigma_{n} + \frac{1}{n-m} \sum_{i=m+1}^{n} s_{i}$$

$$= -\sigma_{n} - \frac{1}{n-m} \sum_{i=m+1}^{n} (-s_{i})$$

$$= -\sigma_{n} - \left(\frac{1}{n-m} \sum_{i=m+1}^{n} (s_{n} - s_{i})\right) + s_{n},$$

$$s_{n} - \sigma_{n} = \frac{m+1}{n-m} (\sigma_{n} - \sigma_{m}) + \frac{1}{n-m} \sum_{i=m+1}^{n} (s_{n} - s_{i}).$$

(2) For these i,

$$|s_n - s_i| = \left| \sum_{k=i+1}^n a_k \right| \qquad (s_n - s_i) = \sum_{k=i+1}^n a_k)$$

$$\leq \sum_{k=i+1}^n |a_k| \qquad (Triangle inequality)$$

$$< \sum_{k=i+1}^n \frac{M}{k} \qquad (|ka_k| < M)$$

$$\leq \sum_{k=i+1}^n \frac{M}{i+1} \qquad (k \geq i+1)$$

$$= \frac{(n-i)M}{i+1}$$

$$= \left(\frac{n-1}{i+1} - 1\right)M$$

$$\leq \left(\frac{n-1}{m+2} - 1\right)M \qquad (i \geq m+1)$$

$$= \frac{(n-m-1)M}{m+2}.$$

(3) Fix $1 > \varepsilon > 0$ and associate with each n the integer m that satisfies

$$m \leq \frac{n-\varepsilon}{1+\varepsilon} < m+1.$$

Clearly, $m \leq \frac{n-\varepsilon}{1+\varepsilon} < \frac{n}{1+\varepsilon} < n$. Then

$$\frac{m+1}{n-m} \le \frac{1}{\varepsilon}$$
 and $\frac{n-m-1}{m+2} < \varepsilon$.

Hence $|s_n - s_i| < M\varepsilon$ by (2).

(4) By (1)(3),

$$s_n - \sigma = (\sigma_n - \sigma) + \frac{m+1}{n-m}(\sigma_n - \sigma_m) + \frac{1}{n-m} \sum_{i=m+1}^n (s_n - s_i),$$

$$|s_n - \sigma| \le |\sigma_n - \sigma| + \frac{m+1}{n-m}|\sigma_n - \sigma_m| + \frac{1}{n-m} \sum_{i=m+1}^n |s_n - s_i|$$

$$< |\sigma_n - \sigma| + \frac{1}{\varepsilon}|\sigma_n - \sigma_m| + \frac{1}{n-m} \sum_{i=m+1}^n M\varepsilon$$

$$= |\sigma_n - \sigma| + \frac{1}{\varepsilon}|\sigma_n - \sigma_m| + M\varepsilon$$

holds for any n and m satisfying $m \leq \frac{n-\varepsilon}{1+\varepsilon} < m+1$. Since $\{\sigma_n\}$ converges, there is an integer N such that

$$|\sigma_n - \sigma_m| < \varepsilon^2$$
 whenever $m, n \ge N$,

$$|\sigma_n - \sigma| < \varepsilon$$
 whenever $n \ge N$.

So,

$$|s_n - \sigma| < (M+2)\varepsilon$$

holds for any $n \geq 2N+3$ (and the corresponding m satisfying $m \leq \frac{n-\varepsilon}{1+\varepsilon} < m+1$ (which implies $m > \frac{n-\varepsilon}{1+\varepsilon}-1 \geq \frac{n-1}{2}-1 \geq N$)). Take limit to get

$$\limsup_{n \to \infty} |s_n - \sigma| \le (M+2)\varepsilon.$$

Since ε was arbitrary, $\lim s_n = \sigma$.

Exercise 3.15. Definition 3.21 can be extended to the case in which the a_n lie in some fixed \mathbb{R}^k . Absolute convergence is defined as convergence of $\sum |\mathbf{a}_n|$. Show that Theorems 3.22, 3.23, 3.25(a), 3.33, 3.34, 3.42, 3.45, 3.47, and 3.55 are true in this more general settings. (Only slight modifications are required in any of the proofs.)

Proof. \square

Exercise 3.16. Fix a positive number α . Choose $x_1 > \sqrt{\alpha}$, and define x_2, x_3, x_4, \ldots , by the recursion formula

$$x_{n+1} = \frac{1}{2} \left(x_n + \frac{\alpha}{x_n} \right).$$

- (a) Prove that $\{x_n\}$ decreases monotonically and that $\lim x_n = \sqrt{\alpha}$.
- (b) Put $\varepsilon_n = x_n \sqrt{\alpha}$, and show that

$$\varepsilon_{n+1} = \frac{\varepsilon_n^2}{2x_n} < \frac{\varepsilon_n^2}{2\sqrt{\alpha}}$$

so that, setting $\beta = 2\sqrt{\alpha}$,

$$\varepsilon_{n+1} < \beta \left(\frac{\varepsilon_1}{\beta}\right)^{2^n} \quad (n = 1, 2, 3, \ldots).$$

(c) This is a good algorithm for computing square roots, since the recursion formula is simple and the convergence is extremely rapid. For example, if $\alpha = 3$ and $x_1 = 2$, show that $\frac{\varepsilon_1}{\beta} < \frac{1}{10}$ and therefore

$$\varepsilon_5 < 4 \cdot 10^{-16}, \ \varepsilon_6 < 4 \cdot 10^{-32}.$$

Note.

- (1) It is the Newton's method described in Exercise 5.25. (Here $f(x) = x^2 \alpha$.)
- (2) It is a special case of Exercise 3.18 by letting p = 2.

Proof of (a).

- (1) Show that $x_n > 0$ for n = 1, 2, ... It is trivial by induction on n.
- (2) Show that $x_n > \sqrt{\alpha}$ for $n = 1, 2, \ldots$ Put $\varepsilon_n = x_n \sqrt{\alpha}$ as in (b). It is equivalent to show that $\varepsilon_n > 0$ for $n = 1, 2, \ldots$ Since $x_1 > \sqrt{\alpha}$, $\varepsilon_1 = x_1 \sqrt{\alpha} > 0$. For $n \ge 1$,

$$\varepsilon_{n+1} = x_{n+1} - \sqrt{\alpha}$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} \left(x_n + \frac{\alpha}{x_n} \right) - \sqrt{\alpha}$$

$$= \frac{x_n^2 + \alpha - 2\sqrt{\alpha}x_n}{2x_n}$$

$$= \frac{(x_n - \sqrt{\alpha})^2}{2x_n} > 0$$

by (1). Therefore, $\varepsilon_n > 0$ or $x_n > \sqrt{\alpha}$.

(3) Show that $\{x_n\}$ decreases monotonically.

$$x_{n+1} - x_n = \frac{1}{2} \left(x_n + \frac{\alpha}{x_n} \right) - x_n$$
$$= \frac{\alpha - x_n^2}{2x_n}$$
$$< 0$$

for n = 1, 2, ... ((1)(2)). Hence $\{x_n\}$ decreases monotonically.

(4) Since $\{x_n\}$ is monotonic and bounded by (1)(3), $\{x_n\}$ converges to $x \ge 0$ (Theorem 3.14). x satisfies

$$x = \frac{1}{2} \left(x + \frac{\alpha}{x} \right)$$

(since $\lim x_{n+1} = \lim x_n = x$), or $x = \pm \sqrt{\alpha}$. Therefore, $\lim x_n = x = \sqrt{\alpha}$ since $x \ge 0$.

Proof of (b).

(1) By (a)(2), we have

$$\varepsilon_{n+1} = \frac{(x_n - \sqrt{\alpha})^2}{2x_n} = \frac{\varepsilon_n^2}{2x_n} < \frac{\varepsilon_n^2}{2\sqrt{3}}.$$

(2) Show that

$$\varepsilon_{n+1} < \beta \left(\frac{\varepsilon_1}{\beta}\right)^{2^n}$$
.

Induction on n.

(a) n = 1.

$$\varepsilon_2 < \frac{\varepsilon_1^2}{2\sqrt{3}} = \frac{\varepsilon_1^2}{\beta} = \beta \left(\frac{\varepsilon_1}{\beta}\right)^{2^1}.$$

(b) Assume n = k the statement holds. Then as n = k + 1, we have

$$\varepsilon_{k+2} < \frac{\varepsilon_{k+1}^2}{\beta}$$

$$< \frac{1}{\beta} \left(\beta \left(\frac{\varepsilon_1}{\beta} \right)^{2^k} \right)^2$$
(Induction hypothesis)
$$= \beta \left(\frac{\varepsilon_1}{\beta} \right)^{2^{k+1}}.$$

By induction, the statement holds for all $n \in \mathbb{Z}^+$.

Proof of (c).

(1) Since $\varepsilon_1 = x_1 - \sqrt{\alpha} = 2 - \sqrt{3}$ and $\beta = 2\sqrt{\alpha} = 2\sqrt{3}$ and $\sqrt{3} < 1.8$, $\frac{\varepsilon_1}{\beta} = \frac{2 - \sqrt{3}}{2\sqrt{3}} = \frac{2\sqrt{3} - 3}{6} < \frac{2 \cdot 1.8 - 3}{6} = \frac{1}{10}.$

(2) Since $\beta = 2\sqrt{\alpha} = 2\sqrt{3} < 4$, by (b) we have

$$\varepsilon_5 < \beta \left(\frac{\varepsilon_1}{\beta}\right)^{2^4} < 4 \cdot (10^{-1})^{16} = 4 \cdot 10^{-16},$$

$$\varepsilon_6 < \beta \left(\frac{\varepsilon_1}{\beta}\right)^{2^5} < 4 \cdot (10^{-1})^{32} = 4 \cdot 10^{-32}.$$

Exercise 3.17. Fix $\alpha > 1$. Take $x_1 > \sqrt{\alpha}$, and define

$$x_{n+1} = \frac{\alpha + x_n}{1 + x_n} = x_n + \frac{\alpha - x_n^2}{1 + x_n}.$$

- (a) Prove that $x_1 > x_3 > x_5 > \cdots$.
- (b) Prove that $x_2 < x_4 < x_6 < \cdots$.
- (c) Prove that $\lim x_n = \sqrt{\alpha}$.
- (d) Compare the rapidity of convergence of this process with the one described in Exercise 3.16.

Proof. \square

Exercise 3.18. Replace the recursion formula of Exercise 3.16 by

$$x_{n+1} = \frac{p-1}{p}x_n + \frac{\alpha}{p}x_n^{-p+1}$$

where p is a fixed positive integer, and describe the behavior of the resulting sequences $\{x_n\}$.

Proof. \square

Exercise 3.19. Associate to each sequence $a = \{\alpha_n\}$, in which α_n is 0 or 2, the real number

$$x(a) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{\alpha_n}{3^n}.$$

Prove that the set of all x(a) is precisely the Cantor set described in Sec. 2.44.

Proof. \square

Exercise 3.20. Suppose $\{p_n\}$ is a Cauchy sequence in a metric space X, and some subsequence $\{p_{n_i}\}$ converges to a point $p \in X$. Prove that the full sequence $\{p_n\}$ converges to p.

Proof. Given any $\varepsilon > 0$.

(1) Since $\{p_n\}$ is a Cauchy sequence, there exists a positive integer N_1 such that

$$d(p_n, p_m) < \frac{\varepsilon}{2}$$
 whenever $n, m \ge N_1$.

(2) Since the subsequence $\{p_{n_i}\}$ converges to a point $p \in X$, there exists a positive integer N_2 such that

$$d(p_{n_i}, p) < \frac{\varepsilon}{2}$$
 whenever $n_i \ge N_2$.

(3) Let $N = \max\{N_1, N_2\}$ be a positive integer. So

$$d(p_n, p) \le d(p_n, p_{n_i}) + d(p_{n_i}, p)$$
 (Definition 2.15(c))
$$< \frac{\varepsilon}{2} + \frac{\varepsilon}{2} \text{ whenever } n, n_i \ge N$$
 ((1)(2))
$$= \varepsilon \text{ whenever } n \ge N.$$

Hence the full sequence $\{p_n\}$ converges to p.

Exercise 3.21. Prove the following analogue of Theorem 3.10(b): If $\{E_n\}$ is a sequence of closed and bounded sets in a complete metric space X, if $E_n \supseteq E_{n+1}$, and if

$$\lim_{n\to\infty} \operatorname{diam}(E_n) = 0,$$

then $\bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} E_n$ consists of exactly one point.

Assume $E_n \neq \emptyset$. It is unnecessary to assume that E_n is bounded since we have the condition that $\lim_{n\to\infty} \operatorname{diam}(E_n) = 0$.

Note. Every compact metric space is complete, but complete spaces need not be compact. In fact, a metric space is compact if and only if it is complete and totally bounded.

Proof.

- (1) Pick $p_n \in E_n$ for n = 1, 2, ...
- (2) Show that $\{p_n\}$ is a Cauchy sequence. Given any $\varepsilon > 0$. There is a positive integer N such that $\operatorname{diam}(E_n) < \varepsilon$ whenever $n \geq N$. Especially,

$$diam(E_N) < \varepsilon$$
.

As $m, n \geq N$, $p_m \in E_m \subseteq E_N$ and $p_n \in E_n \subseteq E_N$. By the definition of the diameter of E_N ,

$$d(p_m, p_n) \leq \operatorname{diam}(E_N) < \varepsilon \text{ whenever } m, n \geq N.$$

- (3) Since X is complete, $\{p_n\}$ converges to a point $p \in X$.
- (4) Show that $p \in \bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} E_n$. (Reductio ad absurdum) If there were some n such that $p \notin E_n$. Consider the subsequence

$$p_n, p_{n+1}, p_{n+2}, \ldots$$

Note that all p_n, p_{n+1}, \ldots are in E_n . By (3), it converges to p. Thus p is a limit point of E_n . Since E_n is closed, $p \in E_n$, which is absurd.

(5) Show that $\bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} E_n = \{p\}$. (Reductio ad absurdum) If there were $q \in \bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} E_n$ with $q \neq p$, then d(p,q) > 0 (Definition 2.15(a)). It implies that

$$diam(E_n) \ge d(p,q) > 0$$
 for all n ,

contrary to $\lim_{n\to\infty} \operatorname{diam}(E_n) = 0$.

Exercise 3.22 (Baire category theorem). Suppose X is a complete metric space, and $\{G_n\}$ is a sequence of dense open subsets of X. Prove Baire's theorem, namely, that $\bigcap_{1}^{\infty} G_n$ is not empty. (In fact, it is dense in X.) (Hint: Find a shrinking sequence of neighborhoods E_n such that $\overline{E_n} \subseteq G_n$, and apply Exercise 3.21.)

Proof. Given any open set G_0 in X, will show that

$$\bigcap_{n=0}^{\infty} G_n \neq \emptyset.$$

(1) Since G_1 is dense, $G_0 \cap G_1$ is nonempty. Take any one point p_1 in the open set $G_0 \cap G_1$, then there exists a closed neighborhood

$$V_1 = \{ q \in X : d(q, p_1) < r_1 \}$$

of p_1 with $r_1 < 1$ such that

$$V_1 \subseteq G_0 \cap G_1$$
.

Take $U_1 \subseteq E_1 \subseteq V_1$ such that

$$E_1 = \left\{ q \in X : d(q, p_1) \le \frac{r_1}{64} \right\} \subseteq V_1,$$

$$U_1 = \left\{ q \in X : d(q, p_1) < \frac{r_1}{89} \right\} \subseteq E_1.$$

(2) Suppose V_n, E_n, U_n have been constructed, take any one point p_{n+1} in the open set $U_n \cap G_{n+1}$, there exists an open neighborhood

$$V_{n+1} = \{ q \in X : d(q, p_{n+1}) < r_{n+1} \}$$

of p_{n+1} with r_{n+1} with $r_{n+1} < \frac{1}{n+1}$ such that

$$V_{n+1} \subseteq U_n \cap G_{n+1}$$
.

Take $U_1 \subseteq E_1 \subseteq V_1$ such that

$$E_{n+1} = \left\{ q \in X : d(q, p_{n+1}) \le \frac{r_{n+1}}{64} \right\} \subseteq V_{n+1},$$

$$U_{n+1} = \left\{ q \in X : d(q, p_{n+1}) < \frac{r_{n+1}}{89} \right\} \subseteq E_{n+1}.$$

- (3) Note that
 - (a) E_n is closed and nonempty (since $p_n \in E_n$).
 - (b) $\lim_{n\to\infty} \operatorname{diam}(E_n) = 0$ (since $\operatorname{diam}(E_n) \le 2 \cdot \frac{r_n}{64} < r_n < \frac{1}{n}$.)
 - (c) $E_1 \supseteq E_2 \supseteq \cdots$ (since $E_{n+1} \subseteq V_{n+1} \subseteq U_n \cap G_{n+1} \subseteq U_n \subseteq E_n$).

Since X is complete, by Exercise 3.21,

$$\bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} E_n = \{p\}$$

for some $p \in X$.

(4) Hence

$$p \in \bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} E_n \iff p \in E_n \text{ for all } n = 1, 2, 3, \dots$$

$$\implies p \in E_1 \subseteq G_0 \cap G_1 \text{ and } p \in E_{n+1} \subseteq U_n \cap G_{n+1} \subseteq G_{n+1}$$

$$\implies p \in G_0 \cap G_1 \cap \dots = \bigcap_{n=0}^{\infty} G_n$$

$$\implies \bigcap_{n=0}^{\infty} G_n \neq \emptyset.$$

Exercise 3.23. Suppose $\{p_n\}$ and $\{q_n\}$ are Cauchy sequences in a metric space X. Show that the sequence $\{d(p_n, q_n)\}$ converges. (Hint: For any m, n,

$$d(p_n, q_n) \le d(p_n, p_m) + d(p_m, q_m) + d(q_m, q_n);$$

it follows that

$$|d(p_n, q_n) - d(p_m, q_m)|$$

is small if m and n are large.)

Proof. Given any $\varepsilon > 0$.

(1) Since $\{p_n\}$ and $\{q_n\}$ are Cauchy sequences, there exists N such that

$$d(p_n, p_m) < \frac{\varepsilon}{2}$$
 and $d(q_m, q_n) < \frac{\varepsilon}{2}$

whenever $m, n \geq N$.

(2) Note that

$$d(p_n, q_n) \le d(p_n, p_m) + d(p_m, q_m) + d(q_m, q_n).$$

It follows that

$$|d(p_n,q_n)-d(p_m,q_m)| \leq d(p_n,p_m)+d(q_m,q_n) < \frac{\varepsilon}{2} + \frac{\varepsilon}{2} = \varepsilon.$$

Thus $\{d(p_n, q_n)\}$ is a Cauchy sequence in \mathbb{R}^1 (not in X).

(3) Since \mathbb{R}^1 is a complete metric space, $\{d(p_n, q_n)\}$ converges.

Exercise 3.24. Let X be a metric space.

(a) Call two Cauchy sequences $\{p_n\}$, $\{q_n\}$ in X equivalent if

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} d(p_n, q_n) = 0.$$

Prove that this is an equivalence relation.

(b) Let X^* be the set of all equivalence classes so obtained. If $P \in X^*$, $Q \in X^*$, $\{p_n\} \in P$, $\{q_n\} \in Q$, define

$$\Delta(P,Q) = \lim_{n \to \infty} d(p_n, q_n);$$

by Exercise 3.23, this limit exists. Show that the number $\Delta(P,Q)$ is unchanged if $\{p_n\}$ and $\{q_n\}$ are replaced by equivalent sequences, and hence that Δ is a distance function in X^* .

- (c) Prove that the resulting metric space X^* is complete.
- (d) For each $p \in X$, there is a Cauchy sequence all of whose terms are p; let P_p be the element of X^* which contains this sequence. Prove that

$$\Delta(P_p, P_q) = d(p, q)$$

for all $p, q \in X$. In other words, the mapping φ defined by $\varphi(p) = P_p$ is an isometry (i.e., a distance-preserving mapping) of X into X^* .

(e) Prove that $\varphi(X)$ is dense in X^* , and that $\varphi(X) = X^*$ if X is complete. By (d), we may identify X and $\varphi(X)$ and thus regard X as embedded in the complete metric space X^* . We call X^* the **completion** of X.

Proof of (a). Given Cauchy sequences $\{p_n\}$, $\{q_n\}$, $\{r_n\}$ in X.

(1) (Reflexivity)

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} d(p_n, q_n) = \lim_{n \to \infty} 0 = 0$$

by the reflexivity of the metric function d.

(2) (Symmetry)

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} d(p_n, q_n) = \lim_{n \to \infty} d(q_n, p_n) = 0$$

by the symmetry of the metric function d.

(3) (Transitivity) Suppose that $\lim_{n\to\infty} d(p_n, q_n) = \lim_{n\to\infty} d(q_n, r_n) = 0$. By the triangle inequality of the metric function d, we have

$$0 \le d(p_n, r_n) \le d(p_n, q_n) + d(q_n, r_n).$$

Take limit to get

$$0 \le \lim_{n \to \infty} d(p_n, r_n)$$

$$\le \lim_{n \to \infty} (d(p_n, q_n) + d(q_n, r_n))$$

$$= \lim_{n \to \infty} d(p_n, q_n) + \lim_{n \to \infty} d(q_n, r_n)$$

$$= 0$$

or $\lim_{n\to\infty} d(p_n, r_n) = 0$.

Proof of (b).

- (1) Show that Δ is well-defined. Given any $\{p_n\}, \{p'_n\} \in P$ and $\{q_n\}, \{q'_n\} \in Q$.
 - (a) $\lim_{n\to\infty} d(p_n, p'_n) = 0$ since $\{p_n\}$ and $\{p'_n\}$ are in the same equivalence class.
 - (b) $\lim_{n\to\infty} d(q_n, q'_n) = 0$ (similar to (a)).
 - (c) Show that $\lim_{n\to\infty} d(p_n, q_n) \leq \lim_{n\to\infty} d(p'_n, q'_n)$. Since $d(p_n, q_n) \leq d(p_n, p'_n) + d(p'_n, q'_n) + d(q'_n, q_n)$, take limit to get

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} d(p_n, q_n) \le \lim_{n \to \infty} (d(p_n, p'_n) + d(p'_n, q'_n) + d(q'_n, q_n))$$

$$= \lim_{n \to \infty} d(p_n, p'_n) + \lim_{n \to \infty} d(p'_n, q'_n) + \lim_{n \to \infty} d(q'_n, q_n)$$

$$= 0 + \lim_{n \to \infty} d(p'_n, q'_n) + 0$$

$$= \lim_{n \to \infty} d(p'_n, q'_n)$$

since (a)(b).

- (d) Show that $\lim_{n\to\infty} d(p_n, q_n) \ge \lim_{n\to\infty} d(p'_n, q'_n)$. Similar to (c).
- By (c)(d), $\lim_{n\to\infty} d(p_n, q_n) = \lim_{n\to\infty} d(p'_n, q'_n)$, or $\Delta(P, Q)$ is well-defined.
- (2) Show that Δ is a metric.
 - (a) Show that $\Delta(P,Q) > 0$ if $P \neq Q$; $\Delta(P,P) = 0$. It is the definition of Δ .
 - (b) Show that $\Delta(P,Q) = \Delta(Q,P)$. Similar to the argument in (a)(2).
 - (c) Show that $\Delta(P,Q) \leq \Delta(P,R) + \Delta(R,Q)$. Similar to the argument in (a)(3).

Proof of (c). Show that $\{P_k\}_{k=1}^{\infty}$ converges to P in (X^*, Δ) for any given Cauchy sequence $\{P_k\}$.

- (1) Take a Cauchy sequence $\{p_n^{(k)}\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$ to represent P_k for each k. We will construct a Cauchy sequence $\{p_k\}$ in (X,d) such that $\{P_k\}$ converges to P which is the equivalent class of $\{p_k\}$.
- (2) For each k, there exists N_k such that

$$d\left(p_m^{(k)}, p_n^{(k)}\right) < \frac{1}{k} \text{ whenever } m, n \ge N_k.$$

Especially,

$$d\left(p_m^{(k)},p_{N_k}^{(k)}\right)<\frac{1}{k} \text{ whenever } m\geq N_k.$$

Let $p_k = p_{N_k}^{(k)}$ and collect all p_k as $\{p_k\}_{k=1}^{\infty}$.

(3) Show that $\{p_k\}$ is a Cauchy sequence in (X,d). Note that for any k, we have

$$d(p_m, p_n) = d\left(p_{N_m}^{(m)}, p_{N_n}^{(n)}\right)$$

$$\leq d\left(p_{N_m}^{(m)}, p_k^{(m)}\right) + d\left(p_k^{(m)}, p_k^{(n)}\right) + d\left(p_k^{(n)}, p_{N_n}^{(n)}\right).$$

Let $k \to \infty$, we have

$$\begin{split} d(p_m, p_n) & \leq \limsup_{k \to \infty} \left[d\left(p_{N_m}^{(m)}, p_k^{(m)}\right) + d\left(p_k^{(m)}, p_k^{(n)}\right) + d\left(p_k^{(n)}, p_{N_n}^{(n)}\right) \right] \\ & \leq \frac{1}{m} + \Delta(P_m, P_n) + \frac{1}{n} \end{split}$$

for any m, n (by (2)). Let $m, n \to \infty$, we establish the result (since $\{P_k\}$ is Cauchy).

(4) Show that $\{P_k\}$ converges to $P \ni \{p_k\}$. Given any $\varepsilon > 0$. Since $\{p_k\}$ is Cauchy (3), there is $N > \frac{2}{\varepsilon}$ such that

$$d(p_m, p_n) < \frac{\varepsilon}{2}$$
 whenever $m, n \ge N$.

Note that

$$\begin{split} d\left(p_{n}^{(k)}, p_{n}\right) &= d\left(p_{n}^{(k)}, p_{N_{n}}^{(n)}\right) \\ &\leq d\left(p_{n}^{(k)}, p_{N_{k}}^{(k)}\right) + d\left(p_{N_{k}}^{(k)}, p_{N_{n}}^{(n)}\right). \end{split}$$

For any $k \geq N$, let $n \to \infty$ to get

$$\begin{split} \Delta(P_k,P) &= \lim_{n \to \infty} d\left(p_n^{(k)},p_n\right) \\ &\leq \limsup_{n \to \infty} d\left(p_n^{(k)},p_{N_k}^{(k)}\right) + \limsup_{n \to \infty} d\left(p_{N_k}^{(k)},p_{N_n}^{(n)}\right) \\ &< \frac{1}{k} + \frac{\varepsilon}{2} \\ &\leq \frac{1}{N} + \frac{\varepsilon}{2} \\ &< \frac{\varepsilon}{2} + \frac{\varepsilon}{2} \\ &< \varepsilon. \end{split}$$

Hence, (X^*, Δ) is complete. \square

Proof of (d).

- (1) Define $\{p_n\}$ by $p_n = p \ (n = 1, 2, ...)$ for any $p \in X$.
- (2) Show that $\{p_n\}$ is a Cauchy sequence. $d(p_m, p_n) = d(p, p) = 0$.
- (3) Take $\{p\} \in P_p$ and $\{q\} \in P_q$. Then

$$\Delta(P_p, P_q) = \lim_{n \to \infty} d(p_n, q_n) = \lim_{n \to \infty} d(p, q) = d(p, q).$$

Proof of (e).

(1) Show that $\varphi(X)$ is dense in X^* . Given any $P \in X^*$, any $\{p_n\} \in P$ and any $\varepsilon > 0$. Since $\{p_n\}$ is Cauchy, there is N such that

$$d(p_m, p_n) < \frac{\varepsilon}{64}$$
 whenever $m, n \ge N$.

Note that $p_N \in X$. Pick $\{p_N\} \in P_{p_N} = \varphi(p_N) \in \varphi(X)$. So

$$\Delta(P, P_{p_N}) = \lim_{n \to \infty} d(p_n, p_N) \le \frac{\varepsilon}{64} < \varepsilon.$$

Hence $\varphi(X)$ is dense in X^* .

(2) Show that $\varphi(X) = X^*$ if X is complete. Given any $P \in X^* \ni \{p_n\}$. Since X is complete, a Cauchy sequence $\{p_n\}$ converges to $p \in X$. Pick $\{p\} \in P_p = \varphi(p) \in \varphi(X)$. So

$$\Delta(P, P_p) = \lim_{n \to \infty} d(p_n, p) = 0,$$

or
$$P = P_p$$
, or $\varphi(X) = X^*$.

Exercise 3.25. Let X be the metric space whose points are rational numbers, with the metric d(x,y) = |x-y|. What is the completion of this space? (Compare Exercise 3.24.)

Proof. By Exercise 3.24, we can identify one completion (X^*, Δ) with $(\mathbb{R}, |\cdot|)$ (Theorem 3.11(c) and Theorem 1.20(b)). \square

Supplement (Uniqueness of completion). Show that a completion of a metric space is unique up to isometry.

Outline. Suppose there are two completions $\{\varphi_i,(X_i^*,d_i^*)\}$ (i=1,2) of (X,d). Let

$$\psi = \varphi_2 \circ \varphi_1^{-1} : \varphi_1(X) \to \varphi_2(X)$$

be an isometry from $\varphi_1(X)$ into $\varphi_2(X)$ The sets $\varphi_i(X)$ (i=1,2) are dense in X_i^* . So we can extend ψ (continuously) to a map $\psi: X_1^* \to X_2^*$.

Proof.

(1) Given any $P \in X_1^*$, there is a Cauchy sequence $\{P_{p_n}\} = \{\varphi_1(p_n)\}$ in $\varphi_1(X)$ converging to P. Define $\psi(P)$ by

$$\psi(P) = \lim_{n \to \infty} \psi(P_{p_n}).$$

(2) Show that ψ is well-defined. Note that

$$\begin{split} \Delta_2(\psi(P_{p_m}), \psi(P_{p_n})) &= \Delta_2(\psi(\varphi_1(p_m)), \psi(\varphi_1(p_n))) \\ &= \Delta_2(\varphi_2(p_m), \varphi_2(p_n)) \\ &= d(p_n, p_m) & (\varphi_2 \text{ is isometric}) \\ &= \Delta_1(\varphi_1(p_m), \varphi_1(p_n)) & (\varphi_1 \text{ is isometric}) \\ &= \Delta_1(P_{p_m}, P_{p_n}). \end{split}$$

So $\{\psi(P_{p_n})\}$ is a Cauchy sequence in $\varphi_2(X)$ if (and only if) $\{P_{p_n}\}$ is a Cauchy sequence in $\varphi_1(X)$. Since X_2^* is complete, $\{\psi(P_{p_n})\}$ converges to $\psi(P)$. The limit $\psi(P)$ is uniquely determined since Δ_2 is a metric function.

(3) Since ψ is an isometry from $\varphi_1(X)$ into $\varphi_2(X)$,

$$\psi^{-1} = \varphi_1 \circ \varphi_2^{-1} : \varphi_2(X) \to \varphi_1(X)$$

is an isometry from $\varphi_2(X)$ into $\varphi_1(X)$. Besides, $\psi^{-1} \circ \psi = 1_{\varphi_1(X)}$ and $\psi \circ \psi^{-1} = 1_{\varphi_2(X)}$.

(4) Show that ψ is surjective. Given any $Q \in X_2^*$, there is a Cauchy sequence $\{P_{q_n}\} = \{\varphi_2(q_n)\}$ in $\varphi_2(X)$ converging to Q. Define

$$P_{p_n} = \psi^{-1}(P_{q_n}) \in \varphi_1(X).$$

 $\psi(P_{p_n}) = 1_{\varphi_2(X)}(P_{q_n}) = P_{q_n}$. Besides, similar to argument in (2), $\{P_{p_n}\}$ is a Cauchy sequence in $\varphi_1(X)$. Since X_1^* is complete, $\{P_{p_n}\}$ converges to $P \in X_1^*$. It is easy to verify that $\psi(P) = Q$.

(5) Show that ψ is injective. Given any $P \in X_1^*$ and $Q \in X_1^*$, there are Cauchy sequences

$$\{P_{p_n}\} = \{\varphi_1(p_n)\} \to P \text{ and } \{P_{q_n}\} = \{\varphi_1(q_n)\} \to Q.$$

So

$$\psi(P) = \psi(Q) \Longrightarrow \lim_{n \to \infty} \psi(P_{p_n}) = \lim_{n \to \infty} \psi(P_{q_n})$$

$$\Longrightarrow 0 = \lim_{n \to \infty} \Delta_2(\psi(P_{p_n}), \psi(P_{q_n}))$$

$$\Longrightarrow 0 = \lim_{n \to \infty} \Delta_2(\psi(\varphi_1(p_n)), \psi(\varphi_1(q_n)))$$

$$\Longrightarrow 0 = \lim_{n \to \infty} \Delta_2(\varphi_2(p_n), \varphi_2(q_n))$$

$$\Longrightarrow 0 = \lim_{n \to \infty} d(p_n, q_n). \qquad (\varphi_2 \text{ is isometric})$$

Thus $\{p_n\} \in P$ and $\{q_n\} \in Q$ in the same equivalence class. Thus P = Q.