

Outline of the lecture

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The set of real numbers

What is \mathbb{R} ?

Definition

A set of real numbers is a *Dedekind-complete ordered field*, i.e. a quadruplet $(\mathbb{R}, +, \cdot, \leq)$ where \mathbb{R} is a set with at least two elements, $+$ (addition) and \cdot (multiplication) are two algebraic operations on \mathbb{R} and \leq is a relation (total order) on \mathbb{R} such that:

$$(F_1) \quad x + (y + z) = (x + y) + z, \quad \forall x, y, z \in \mathbb{R};$$

$$(F_2) \quad \exists 0 \in \mathbb{R}, \quad \forall x \in \mathbb{R} : x + 0 = 0 + x = x;$$

$$(F_3) \quad \forall x \in \mathbb{R}, \quad \exists (-x) \in \mathbb{R} : x + (-x) = (-x) + x = 0;$$

$$(F_4) \quad x + y = y + x, \quad \forall x, y \in \mathbb{R};$$

$$(F_5) \quad (x \cdot y) \cdot z = x \cdot (y \cdot z), \quad \forall x, y, z \in \mathbb{R};$$

$$(F_6) \quad \exists 1 \in \mathbb{R}, \quad \forall x \in \mathbb{R} : x \cdot 1 = 1 \cdot x = x;$$

$$(F_7) \quad \forall x \in \mathbb{R}^*, \quad \exists x^{-1} \in \mathbb{R} : x \cdot x^{-1} = x^{-1} \cdot x = 1;$$

$$(F_8) \quad x \cdot y = y \cdot x, \quad \forall x, y \in \mathbb{R};$$

$$(F_9) \quad x \cdot (y + z) = x \cdot y + x \cdot z, \quad \forall x, y, z \in \mathbb{R};$$

Definition (continuation)

- (O₁) $x \leq x, \forall x \in \mathbb{R};$
- (O₂) $(x \leq y) \wedge (y \leq x) \Rightarrow x = y, \forall x, y \in \mathbb{R}$
- (O₃) $(x \leq y) \wedge (y \leq z) \Rightarrow x \leq z, \forall x, y, z \in \mathbb{R}$
- (O₄) $(x \leq y) \vee (y \leq x), \forall x, y \in \mathbb{R}$
- (O₅) $x \leq y \Rightarrow x + z \leq y + z, \forall x, y, z \in \mathbb{R};$
- (O₆) $(x \leq y) \wedge (0 \leq z) \Rightarrow x \cdot z \leq y \cdot z, \forall x, y, z \in \mathbb{R};$
- (C) the ordered set (\mathbb{R}, \leq) is *Dedekind-complete*, i.e. every non-empty and *upper bounded* set $A \subseteq \mathbb{R}$ admits a sup.

For $x, y \in \mathbb{R}$, we can define two auxiliary operations:

- *subtraction*: $x - y := x + (-y), x, y \in \mathbb{R};$
- *division*: $\frac{x}{y} = x / y := x \cdot (y^{-1}), x \in \mathbb{R}, y \in \mathbb{R}^*.$

Absolute value

Also, the *absolute value* of a number x is defined as

$$|x| := \begin{cases} x, & x \geq 0; \\ -x, & x < 0. \end{cases}$$

Proposition

We have:

- i) $|x| \geq 0, \forall x \in \mathbb{R};$
- ii) $|x| = 0 \Leftrightarrow x = 0, \forall x \in \mathbb{R};$
- iii) $|xy| = |x| \cdot |y|, \forall x, y \in \mathbb{R};$
- iv) $|x + y| \leq |x| + |y|, \forall x, y \in \mathbb{R}.$

Other sets of numbers

There exists a unique (up to a *homeomorphism* of ordered fields) set of real numbers, so we will call \mathbb{R} *the* set of real numbers.

In fact, one can construct \mathbb{R} starting with \mathbb{N} , then continuing with \mathbb{Z} , \mathbb{Q} .

Reciprocally, if we already have set \mathbb{R} , we can define

$$\mathbb{N} \subseteq \mathbb{Z} \subseteq \mathbb{Q} \subseteq \mathbb{R}$$

as follows:

- $\mathbb{N} := \bigcap \{N \in \mathcal{P}(\mathbb{R}) \mid 0 \in N, n \in N \Rightarrow n+1 \in N, \forall n \in N\}$
 $= \{0, 1, 1+1, (1+1)+1, \dots\} = \{0, 1, 2, 3, \dots\};$
- $\mathbb{Z} := \mathbb{N} \cup \{-n \mid n \in \mathbb{N}\};$
- $\mathbb{Q} := \{m/n \mid m \in \mathbb{Z}, n \in \mathbb{N}^*\}.$

Supremum and infimum

Concerning the *least upper bound* (**sup**) and *greatest lower bound* (**inf**) of a non-empty subset of \mathbb{R} , they can be characterized as follows:

Proposition

Let A be a non-empty subset of \mathbb{R} .

① An element $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}$ is the supremum of A if and only if:

- i) $x \leq \alpha, \forall x \in A;$
- ii) $\forall \varepsilon > 0, \exists x_\varepsilon \in A : \alpha - \varepsilon < x_\varepsilon.$

② An element $\beta \in \mathbb{R}$ is the infimum of A if and only if:

- i) $x \geq \beta, \forall x \in A;$
- ii) $\forall \varepsilon > 0, \exists x_\varepsilon \in A : \beta + \varepsilon > x_\varepsilon.$

It is now easy to check that, for $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$ with $a < b$,

- $\inf[a, b] = \inf[a, b] = \inf(a, b] = \inf(a, b) = a;$
- $\sup[a, b] = \sup[a, b] = \sup(a, b] = \sup(a, b) = b.$

Sequences of real numbers

- A *sequence* of real numbers is a function $x : \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$.
- We denote x_n instead of $x(n)$, for $n \in \mathbb{N}$.
- We denote $(x_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$, $(x_n)_{n \geq 0}$ or (x_n) instead of the function x .
- Sometimes, we denote $(x_n)_{n \geq p}$ for a function $x : \{n \in \mathbb{N} \mid n \geq p\} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ or $(x_{m+p})_{m \geq 0}$.
- By $\{x_n\}_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ we denote the set $\{x_n \mid n \in \mathbb{N}\}$.
- If $A \subseteq \mathbb{R}$, $(x_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}} \subseteq A$ means (abuse of language) $\{x_n\}_{n \in \mathbb{N}} \subseteq A$, i.e.

$$x_n \in A, \forall n \in \mathbb{N}.$$

Definition

We say that a sequence $(x_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ is:

- *upper bounded* if $\{x_n\}_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ is upper bounded, i.e.

$$\exists M \in \mathbb{R}, \forall n \in \mathbb{N} : x_n \leq M;$$

- *lower bounded* if $\{x_n\}_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ is lower bounded, i.e.

$$\exists m \in \mathbb{R}, \forall n \in \mathbb{N} : x_n \geq m;$$

- *bounded* if $\{x_n\}_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ is bounded, i.e.

$$\exists m, M \in \mathbb{R}, \forall n \in \mathbb{N} : m \leq x_n \leq M;$$

- *unbounded* if $\{x_n\}_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ is not bounded.

Examples:

- $((-1)^n)_{n \geq 1}$ is bounded (since $\{(-1)^n\}_{n \geq 1} = \{-1, 1\}$);
- $(2^n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ is not bounded (it is lower bounded, but not upper bounded).

Definition

We say that a sequence $(x_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ is:

- *increasing* if $x_n \leq x_{n+1}$, $\forall n \in \mathbb{N}$;
- *decreasing* if $x_n \geq x_{n+1}$, $\forall n \in \mathbb{N}$;
- *monotone* if it is increasing or decreasing;
- *strictly increasing* if $x_n < x_{n+1}$, $\forall n \in \mathbb{N}$;
- *strictly decreasing* if $x_n > x_{n+1}$, $\forall n \in \mathbb{N}$;
- *strictly monotone* if it is strictly increasing or strictly decreasing.

Examples:

- $((-1)^n)_{n \geq 1}$ is not monotone;
- $(2^n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ is strictly increasing;
- $(\frac{1}{n})_{n \geq 1}$ is strictly decreasing;
- The constant sequence $(c)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ (for $c \in \mathbb{R}$) is increasing and decreasing in the same time.

Convergence

Definition

We say that a sequence $(x_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ is:

- *convergent*, if there exists an element $x \in \mathbb{R}$, called a *limit* of the sequence $(x_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$, such that:

$$\forall \varepsilon > 0, \exists n_\varepsilon \in \mathbb{N}, \forall n \geq n_\varepsilon : |x_n - x| < \varepsilon;$$

- *divergent*, if it is not convergent.

Terminology: If $(x_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ is convergent and $x \in \mathbb{R}$ is a limit of $(x_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$, we say that $(x_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ *converges* to x and we write this

$$x_n \xrightarrow[n \rightarrow \infty]{} x \quad (x_n \rightarrow x)$$

or

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} x_n = x.$$

Properties of convergent sequences

Proposition

The limit of a sequence of real numbers is unique.

Proposition

Any convergent sequence is bounded.

Therefore, any unbounded sequence does not converge (example: $(a^n)_{n \geq 1}$ with $|a| > 1$).

Examples.

- We have

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{n} = 0.$$

- The constant sequence $(c)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ (for $c \in \mathbb{R}$) is convergent to c .
- The sequence $(a^n)_{n \geq 1}$ is convergent for $a \in (-1, 1]$ and divergent for $a \in \mathbb{R} \setminus (-1, 1]$; we have

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a^n = \begin{cases} 0, & -1 < a < 1; \\ 1, & a = 1. \end{cases}$$

- Another well known limit is

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

where e is *Euler's* number.

Subsequences

Definition

Let $(x_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ be a sequence of real numbers. A *subsequence* of $(x_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ is a sequence $(x_{n_k})_{k \in \mathbb{N}}$ where $(n_k)_{k \in \mathbb{N}} \subseteq \mathbb{N}$ is a strictly increasing sequence of natural numbers.

Proposition

A subsequence of a convergent sequence is also convergent and it converges to the same limit.

To prove that a sequence $(x_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ does *not* converge: find $(x_{n_k})_{k \in \mathbb{N}}$ and $(x_{m_k})_{k \in \mathbb{N}}$ *converging* to different limits.

Example. $((-1)^n)_{n \geq 1}$ is not convergent, because the subsequence $((-1)^{2k})_{k \geq 1}$ is the constant sequence converging to 1, while the subsequence $((-1)^{2k+1})_{k \geq 0}$ is the constant sequence converging to -1 .

Operations with sequences

Proposition

Let $x_n \rightarrow x \in \mathbb{R}$ and $y_n \rightarrow y \in \mathbb{R}$. Then:

- i) $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (x_n + y_n) = x + y$;
- ii) $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (x_n y_n) = xy$;
- iii) $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (x_n - y_n) = x - y$;
- iv) if $y \neq 0$, $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left(\frac{x_n}{y_n} \right) = \frac{x}{y}$;
- v) if $x_n \leq y_n, \forall n \in \mathbb{N}$, then $x \leq y$;
- vi) (squeeze theorem) if the sequence (z_n) is such that $x_n \leq z_n \leq y_n, \forall n \in \mathbb{N}$ and $x = y$, then (z_n) is convergent and $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} z_n = x$.

Criterion of convergence: Let $(x_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}} \subseteq \mathbb{R}$, $(\alpha_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}} \subseteq \mathbb{R}_+$ such that $\alpha_n \rightarrow 0$ and $x \in \mathbb{R}$. If

$$|x_n - x| \leq \alpha_n, \quad \forall n \in \mathbb{N},$$

then $x_n \rightarrow x$.

Monotone convergence theorem

Theorem (Weierstrass)

Let $(x_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ be a sequence of real numbers.

- 1 If (x_n) is increasing and upper bounded, then it converges to $\sup \{x_n\}_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$.
- 2 If (x_n) is decreasing and lower bounded, then it converges to $\inf \{x_n\}_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$.

Bolzano–Weierstrass theorem

Theorem (Bolzano–Weierstrass)

Any bounded sequence of real numbers possesses a convergent subsequence.

For the proof of this theorem, we need the following result:

Lemma

Any sequence of real numbers has a monotone subsequence.

Cauchy sequences

Definition

We say that a sequence $(x_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ is *Cauchy* (or *fundamental*) if:

$$\forall \varepsilon > 0, \exists n_\varepsilon \in \mathbb{N}, \forall n, m \geq n_\varepsilon : |x_n - x_m| < \varepsilon.$$

Theorem

A sequence of real numbers is convergent if and only if it is Cauchy.

This means that \mathbb{R} is a *complete space*.

The extended real line

If we want that a variant of Weierstrass theorem to hold without the boundedness restriction, we should add the “infimum” and the “supremum” of \mathbb{R} . For that, we consider the *extended real line*,

$$\bar{\mathbb{R}} := \mathbb{R} \cup \{-\infty, +\infty\},$$

where $+\infty$ and $-\infty$ are two distinct points, $-\infty, +\infty \notin \mathbb{R}$. The natural order on $\bar{\mathbb{R}}$ extends \leq in the following manner:

- $-\infty \leq +\infty$;
- $-\infty \leq x, x \leq +\infty, \forall x \in \mathbb{R}$.

Therefore, every $A \subseteq \bar{\mathbb{R}}$ has a supremum and an infimum:

- $\sup A = +\infty$ if and only if A is not upper bounded;
- $\inf A = -\infty$ if and only if A is not lower bounded;
- $\sup A = -\infty \Leftrightarrow \inf A = +\infty \Leftrightarrow A = \emptyset$.

Infinite limits

For a sequence $(x_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}} \subseteq \mathbb{R}$, we write:

- $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} x_n = +\infty$ or $x_n \rightarrow +\infty$ if

$$\forall a, \exists n_a \in \mathbb{N}, \forall n \geq n_a, x_n > a;$$

- $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} x_n = -\infty$ or $x_n \rightarrow -\infty$ if

$$\forall a, \exists n_a \in \mathbb{N}, \forall n \geq n_a, x_n < a.$$

Proposition

Let $(x_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ be a sequence of real numbers.

- 1 If $(x_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ is increasing and unbounded, then $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} x_n = +\infty$.
- 2 If $(x_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ is decreasing and unbounded, then $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} x_n = -\infty$.

Therefore, any monotone sequence in \mathbb{R} has a limit in $\overline{\mathbb{R}}$.

Operations on the extended real line

We introduce:

- $(-\infty) + a = a + (-\infty) := -\infty$, for $-\infty \leq a < +\infty$;
 $(+\infty) + a = a + (+\infty) := +\infty$, for $-\infty < a \leq +\infty$;
- $(-\infty) \cdot a = a \cdot (-\infty) := -\infty$, $(+\infty) \cdot a = a \cdot (+\infty) := +\infty$, for $0 < a \leq +\infty$;
 $(-\infty) \cdot a = a \cdot (-\infty) := +\infty$, $(+\infty) \cdot a = a \cdot (+\infty) := -\infty$, for $-\infty \leq a < 0$;
- $-(-\infty) := +\infty$, $-(+\infty) := -\infty$, $1/(-\infty) = 1/(+\infty) = 0$.

The operations $(-\infty) + (+\infty)$, $(+\infty) + (-\infty)$, $(-\infty) - (+\infty)$, $(+\infty) - (-\infty)$, $0 \cdot (-\infty)$, $0 \cdot (+\infty)$, $\frac{\pm\infty}{\pm\infty}$, $\frac{\pm\infty}{0}$ (partially) remain not defined.

If \odot is an operation (among $+$, \cdot , $-$, $/$), $(x_n), (y_n) \subseteq \mathbb{R}$ and $x, y \in \bar{\mathbb{R}}$ such that $x_n \rightarrow x$, $y_n \rightarrow y$ and $x \odot y$ is defined, then

$$x_n \odot y_n \rightarrow x \odot y.$$

Limit points

Definition

Let $(x_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}} \subseteq \mathbb{R}$.

- We call $x \in \bar{\mathbb{R}}$ a *limit point* of the sequence $(x_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ if there exists a subsequence $(x_{n_k})_{k \in \mathbb{N}}$ such that $x_{n_k} \rightarrow x$.
- The set of the limit points of the sequence $(x_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ is denoted $L_{(x_n)}$.

For any sequence $(x_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}} \subseteq \mathbb{R}$, we have $L_{(x_n)} \neq \emptyset$.

Definition

Let $(x_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}} \subseteq \mathbb{R}$.

- We call the *inferior limit* of $(x_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ the number (in $\bar{\mathbb{R}}$):

$$\liminf_{n \rightarrow \infty} x_n = \varliminf_{n \rightarrow \infty} x_n := \inf L_{(x_n)}.$$

- We call the *superior limit* of $(x_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ the number (in $\bar{\mathbb{R}}$):

$$\limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} x_n = \varlimsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} x_n := \sup L_{(x_n)}.$$

For instance, $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (-1)^n = -1$ and $\overline{\lim}_{n \rightarrow \infty} (-1)^n = 1$.

Remarks. Let $(x_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}} \subseteq \mathbb{R}$.

- We have

$$\liminf_{n \rightarrow \infty} x_n \leq \limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} x_n.$$

- If $x \in \overline{\mathbb{R}}$, then $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} x_n = x$ if and only if $L_{(x_n)} = \{x\}$, i.e.

$$\liminf_{n \rightarrow \infty} x_n = \limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} x_n = x.$$

- It can be shown that there exist two monotone subsequences of $(x_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ which have the limit $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} x_n$, respectively $\overline{\lim}_{n \rightarrow \infty} x_n$.

Sequences of functions

Let $E \subseteq \mathbb{R}$ and $f_n : E \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, $n \in \mathbb{N}$ be functions. We call $(f_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ a *sequence of functions*.

In fact, we deal with sequence of functions when we have a sequence of real numbers which depend on a *parameter* from E .

Example: The sequence

$$\left(\left(1 + \frac{x}{n} \right)^n \right)_{n \geq 1}$$

depends on the parameter $x \in \mathbb{R}$. Then we can consider the sequence of functions $(f_n)_{n \geq 1}$, where $f_n : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ are defined by

$$f_n(x) := \left(1 + \frac{x}{n} \right)^n, \quad x \in \mathbb{R}.$$

We have $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} f_n(x) = e^x$, $\forall x \in \mathbb{R}$.

Uniform convergence

Definition

Let $f_n : E \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, $n \in \mathbb{N}$ and $f : E \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$. We say that:

- $(f_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ converges pointwise to f if $f_n(x) \rightarrow f(x)$, $\forall x \in E$ (we note $f_n \xrightarrow{p} f$ or $f_n \xrightarrow[p]{p} f$);
- $(f_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ converges uniformly to f if for any $\varepsilon > 0$ there exists $n_\varepsilon \in \mathbb{N}$ such that:

$$|f_n(x) - f(x)| < \varepsilon, \quad \forall n \geq n_\varepsilon, \quad \forall x \in E.$$

(we note $f_n \xrightarrow{u} f$ or $f_n \xrightarrow[E]{u} f$).

Of course, if $(f_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ converges uniformly to f , it will also converge pointwise to f . Also, $f_n \xrightarrow{u} f$ if and only if $\sup_{x \in E} |f_n(x) - f(x)| \in \mathbb{R}$ for n sufficiently large and

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sup_{x \in E} |f_n(x) - f(x)| = 0.$$

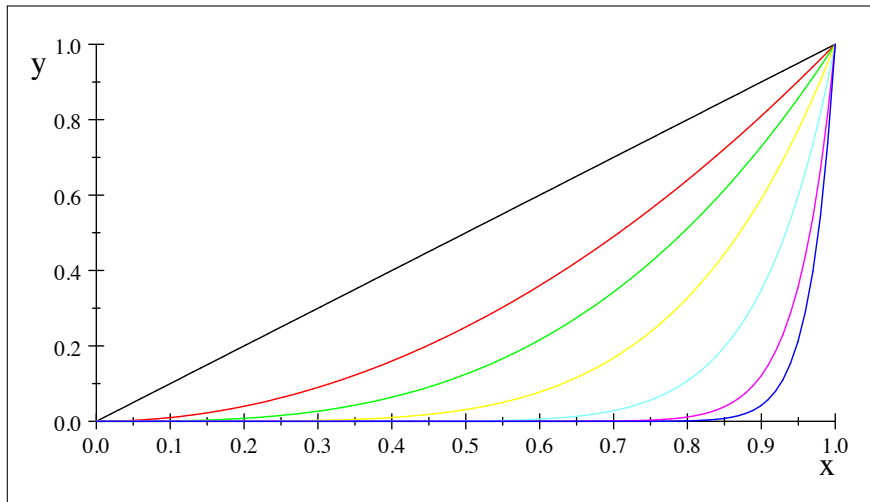
Example. Let $f_n : [0, 1] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be defined as $f_n(x) := x^n$, for $n \geq 1$. It is clear that

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} x^n = \begin{cases} 0, & x \in [0, 1); \\ 1, & x = 1. \end{cases}$$

Therefore, $(f_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ converges pointwise to f , where $f : [0, 1] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is defined as

$$f(x) := \begin{cases} 0, & x \in [0, 1); \\ 1, & x = 1. \end{cases}$$

Is $(f_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ converging uniformly to f ?



f_n for $n = 1, 2, 3, 5, 10, 20$ and 30

The answer is **no**:

$$\sup_{x \in [0,1]} |f_n(x) - f(x)| = \sup_{x \in [0,1]} |x^n| = 1.$$

Proposition

Let $f_n : E \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, $n \in \mathbb{N}$ and $f : E \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$. If there exists a sequence $(\alpha_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ converging to 0 such that

$$|f_n(x) - f(x)| \leq \alpha_n, \quad \forall n \in \mathbb{N}, \quad \forall x \in E$$

then (f_n) converges uniformly to f .

Theorem

Let $f_n : E \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, $n \in \mathbb{N}$. Then there exists a function $f : E \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ such that $f_n \xrightarrow{u} f$ if and only if $(f_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ is a uniform Cauchy sequence, i.e. for any $\varepsilon > 0$, there exists $n_\varepsilon \in \mathbb{N}$ such that:

$$|f_m(x) - f_n(x)| < \varepsilon, \quad \forall m, n \geq n_\varepsilon, \quad \forall x \in E.$$

As we will see later, uniform convergence is closed to (keeps) properties as boundedness, continuity or integrability.

Remarkable inequalities

Hölder inequality

Let $n \in \mathbb{N}^*$, $a_1, \dots, a_n, b_1, \dots, b_n \in \mathbb{R}_+$ and $p, q \in \mathbb{R}_+^*$ such that $\frac{1}{p} + \frac{1}{q} = 1$.
Then:

$$\sum_{i=1}^n a_i b_i \leq \left(\sum_{i=1}^n a_i^p \right)^{\frac{1}{p}} \cdot \left(\sum_{i=1}^n b_i^q \right)^{\frac{1}{q}}.$$

It is easy to prove a variant of this inequality, the *weighted Hölder inequality*:

$$\sum_{i=1}^n \lambda_i a_i b_i \leq \left(\sum_{i=1}^n \lambda_i a_i^p \right)^{\frac{1}{p}} \cdot \left(\sum_{i=1}^n \lambda_i b_i^q \right)^{\frac{1}{q}},$$

where $n \in \mathbb{N}^*$, $\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_n, a_1, \dots, a_n, b_1, \dots, b_n \in \mathbb{R}_+$ and $p, q \in \mathbb{R}_+^*$ such that $\frac{1}{p} + \frac{1}{q} = 1$.

In the case $p = q = 2$ we obtain the *Cauchy-Buniakowski-Schwarz inequality*:

$$\sum_{i=1}^n a_i b_i \leq \left(\sum_{i=1}^n a_i^2 \right)^{\frac{1}{2}} \cdot \left(\sum_{i=1}^n b_i^2 \right)^{\frac{1}{2}}.$$

The equality holds if and only if there exist $u, v \in \mathbb{R}$ with $u^2 + v^2 \neq 0$, such that $ua_i + vb_i = 0$, $\forall i \in \{1, 2, \dots, n\}$.

Minkowski inequality

Let $n \in \mathbb{N}^*$, $a_1, \dots, a_n, b_1, \dots, b_n \in \mathbb{R}_+^*$ and $p \in \mathbb{R}_+^*$.

① If $p \geq 1$, then

$$\left(\sum_{i=1}^n (a_i + b_i)^p \right)^{\frac{1}{p}} \leq \left(\sum_{i=1}^n a_i^p \right)^{\frac{1}{p}} + \left(\sum_{i=1}^n b_i^p \right)^{\frac{1}{p}}.$$

② If $0 < p < 1$, then

$$\left(\sum_{i=1}^n (a_i + b_i)^p \right)^{\frac{1}{p}} \geq \left(\sum_{i=1}^n a_i^p \right)^{\frac{1}{p}} + \left(\sum_{i=1}^n b_i^p \right)^{\frac{1}{p}}.$$

In both cases, if $p \neq 1$, the equality holds if the n -tuples (a_0, a_1, \dots, a_n) and (b_0, b_1, \dots, b_n) are proportional.

Carleman inequality

For any $n \in \mathbb{N}^*$ and $a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n \in \mathbb{R}_+$ it holds

$$\sum_{k=1}^n (a_1 a_2 \dots a_k)^{\frac{1}{k}} \leq e \sum_{k=1}^n a_k.$$

The equality holds if and only if $a_1 = a_2 = \dots = a_n = 0$.