Real Numbers

Neighborhoods

Sequences

Properties of Limits

Infinite Sur

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Cauchy Sequences

# ECON2125/4021/8013

#### Lecture 16

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## Analysis on the Line

Recall that  $\ensuremath{\mathbb{R}}$  denotes the continuous real line



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

- $\mathbb{Q}$  is the rational numbers
- I is the irrational numbers

Real Numbers	Neighborhoods	Sequences	Properties of Limits	Infinite Sums	Cauchy Sequences

#### 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

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

**Real Numbers** 

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



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Sequences

#### **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:  $x - y = x - z + z - y$ )



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



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

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

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

 $\because$  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

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**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

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

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

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

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

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### $\epsilon$ -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,

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



#### Ex. Check equivalence

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**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

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**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|/2But then

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

Contradiction

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## 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*<sub>1</sub>, *x*<sub>2</sub>, ...} 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  $n \ge N$ 

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



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

 $x_n 
ightarrow a$  as  $n 
ightarrow \infty$ 

or

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

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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

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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

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

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

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Sequences

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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  $-\ln \varepsilon / \ln 2$  Then

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

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

To show convergence fails we need to show the negation of

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

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  $n \ge N$  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



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

Proof: This is what we want to show

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

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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:

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

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

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



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

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

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  $n \ge N$ 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

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Cauchy Sequences

### Limits vs Algebra

Here are some basic tools for working with limits

**Facts** If  $x_n \rightarrow x$  and  $y_n \rightarrow y$ , 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.  $x_n \leq y_n$  for all  $n \implies x \leq y$ 

#### 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 (\*)

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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"

Sequences

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. 
$$x_n \rightarrow a$$
 and  $z_n \rightarrow a$ 

then  $y_n \rightarrow a$  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  $n \ge N_z \implies z_n \in B_{\epsilon}(a)$

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

Cauchy Sequences

## 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:

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

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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

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

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

Proof: Suppose to the contrary that  $x_n \to 0$  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



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  $\underline{axiom}$  of analysis is that such sequences do converge to something — details follow

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

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

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  $n > \log(\epsilon) / \log(\alpha) \implies \alpha^n < \epsilon$ 

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

#### **Fact.** For any sequence, convergent $\iff$ Cauchy

Proof of  $\implies$ :

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

Fix  $\epsilon > 0$ 

We can choose N s.t.

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

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

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

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Proof of  $\Leftarrow$ :

This is basically an  $\underline{axiom}$  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<sub>n</sub>*} converges to something we just need to check Cauchy property

Fact. Every bounded monotone sequence in  $\mathbb R$  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

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

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

**Fact.** Every sequence has a monotone subsequence Proof: Omitted

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

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

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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