## VV186 RC4

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# Subsequence: Definition

2.2.25. Definition. Let  $(a_n)_{n\in\mathbb{N}}$  be a sequence and let  $(n_k)_{k\in\mathbb{N}}$  be a strictly increasing sequence of natural numbers. Then the composition

$$(a_{n_k})_{k\in\mathbb{N}}:=(a_n)_{n\in\mathbb{N}}\circ(n_k)_{k\in\mathbb{N}}=(a_{n_1},a_{n_2},a_{n_3},\ldots)$$

is called a subsequence of  $(a_n)$ .

2.2.27. Definition. Let  $(a_n)_{n\in\mathbb{N}}$  be a sequence and  $A\subset\mathbb{N}$  any infinite set of natural numbers. We define the subsequence

$$(a_n)_{n\in A}$$

to be the composition of  $(a_n)$  and the sequence  $(n_k)$ , where  $n_0 = \min A$  and  $n_{k+1} > n_k$ ,  $n_k \in A$ , for all  $k \in \mathbb{N}$  ( $\underline{n_k}$  is the kth-smallest element of  $\underline{A}$ ).

# Subsequence: Important lemma

- 2.2.29. Lemma. Let  $(a_n)$  be a convergent sequence with limit a. Then any subsequence of  $(a_n)$  is convergent with the same limit.
- 2.2.30. Lemma. Every real sequence has a monotonic subsequence.

2.2.31. Definition. Let  $(a_n)$  be a sequence. Then a number a is called an **accumulation point** of  $(a_n)$  if

$$\forall_{\varepsilon>0} \forall_{N\in\mathbb{N}} \exists_{n>N} |a_n-a| < \varepsilon.$$

If a sequence converges, then the limit is the only accumulation point.

Divergent sequence can also have accumulation point.

# Subsequence

2.2.34. Lemma. A number a is an accumulation point of a sequence  $(a_n)$  if and only if there exists a subsequence of  $(a_n)$  that converges to a.

2.2.35. Theorem of Bolzano-Weierstraß. Every bounded real sequence has an accumulation point.

The Bolzano-weierstrass theorem can also be said as Every bounded real sequence in  $\mathbb R$  has a convergent subsequence.

## Generalizing Convergence

2.2.36. Definition. Let M be a set. A map  $\varrho: M \times M \to \mathbb{R}$  is called a *metric* if

- (i)  $\varrho(x,y) \ge 0$  for all  $x,y \in M$  and  $\varrho(x,y) = 0$  if and only if x = y.
- (ii)  $\varrho(x,y) = \varrho(y,x)$
- (iii)  $\varrho(x,z) \leq \varrho(x,y) + \varrho(y,z)$ .

The pair  $(M, \varrho)$  is then called a *metric space*.

#### Generalized Convergence

$$\lim_{n\to\infty} a_n = a \qquad :\Leftrightarrow \qquad \forall \exists_{\epsilon>0} \forall_{n>N} a_n \in B_{\epsilon}(a)$$

where

$$B_{\epsilon}(a) := \{ y \in M : \rho(y, a) < \epsilon \}, \quad \epsilon > 0, \quad a \in M$$

# Generalizing Boundedness and Cauchy sequence

#### Generalized boundedness:

 $(a_n)$  is called bounded if

$$\underset{R>0}{\exists} \underset{n\in\mathbb{N}}{\forall} a_n \in B_R(x)$$

Boundness defined in such way is called *well-defined* because it does not depend on the choice of x.

2.2.40. Definition. A sequence  $(a_n)$  in a metric space  $(M, \varrho)$  is called a **Cauchy sequence** if

$$\forall \exists_{\varepsilon>0} \forall \rho(a_m, a_n) < \varepsilon.$$

Note: Every convergent sequence is a Cauchy sequence

## Cauchy sequence

Note: Convergence and Cauchy sequence both depends on the choice of metric space. Different metric will lead to different result. Do not take  $\rho = |x - y|$  for granted.

2.2.42. Lemma. Every Cauchy sequence in a metric space  $(M, \varrho)$  is bounded.

2.2.43. Theorem. Every Cauchy sequence in  $\mathbb{R}$  with the metric

$$\varrho \colon \mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}, \qquad \qquad \varrho(x, y) = |x - y|,$$

is convergent.

## Complete metric space

2.2.44. Definition. A metric space  $(M, \varrho)$  is called *complete* if every Cauchy sequence converges in M.

The metrix space  $(\mathbb{N}, \rho)$  is not complete with

$$\rho(x,y) = \left| \frac{x}{1+|x|} - \frac{y}{1+|y|} \right|$$

Notice that when proving this you should first check if  $(\mathbb{N},\rho)$  is indeed a metric space. This example shows that the same metric in a complete metric space can be incomplete in another metric space.

# Complete metric space: Exercise

Prove that the metric space  $(\mathbb{C}, \rho)$  with  $\rho(x, y) = |x - y|$  is complete. Hint: the metric space  $(\mathbb{R}, \rho)$  is complete.

### Solution

#### Proof

Suppose  $(a_n)$  is a complex Cauchy sequence,  $(a_n) := (x_n) + (y_n)i$ , where  $(x_n)$  and  $(y_n)$  are complex sequences. Then we know

$$\forall_{\epsilon>0} \exists_{N>0} \forall_{m,n>N} |(x_n-x_m)+(y_n-y_m)i|<\epsilon$$

$$|x_n - x_m| < |(x_n - x_m) + (y_n - y_m)i| < \epsilon |(y_n - y_m)i| = |y_n - y_m| < |(x_n - x_m) + (y_n - y_m)i| < \epsilon$$

So  $(x_n)$  and  $(y_n)$  are both real Cauchy sequences, and they are convergent. Let  $x := \lim x_n$ , and let  $y := \lim y_n$ , then for properly chosen  $n > N(\epsilon)$ 

$$|(x_n+y_n)i-(x+y\cdot i)|\leq |x_n-x|+|(y_n-y)i|<\epsilon$$

So  $(a_n)$  is convergent to  $x + y \cdot i$ .

### Real Functions

**IMPORTANT**: Remember that we denote a function by the symbol f, and the values of the function at a some point x by f(x). It is important not to confuse these two notations; f is a function (set of pairs), while f(x) is a (real) number.

You need to know:

polynomial functions

power functions

rational functions

piecewise functions

periodic functions

### Reference

1. VV186 Slide and previous RC Slide