

## MATH 321 2.5 - SUBSEQUENCES AND THE BOLZANO-WEIERSTRASS THEOREM

- **Last time:** we showed that the sequence of partial sums  $(s_m)$  of the harmonic series does not converge by focusing on a particular subsequence  $(s_{2^k})$  of the original sequence:

**Theorem 1. (Cauchy Condensation Test)** Suppose  $(b_n)$  is decreasing and satisfies  $b_n \geq 0$  for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ . Then, the series  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} b_n$  converges if and only if the series

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} 2^n b_{2^n} = b_1 + 2b_2 + 4b_4 + 8b_8 + 16b_{16} + \dots$$

converges.

**Corollary 2.** The series  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} 1/n^p$  converges if and only if  $p > 1$ .

- A rigorous argument for this corollary requires a few basic facts about geometric series, which we'll deal with in Section 2.7.
- **Today:** we'll put infinite series aside and focus on the important concept of subsequences.

**Definition 3.** Let  $(a_n)$  be a sequence of real numbers, and let  $n_1 < n_2 < n_3 < n_4 < \dots$  be an increasing sequence of natural numbers. Then the sequence

$$(a_{n_1}, a_{n_2}, a_{n_3}, a_{n_4}, \dots)$$

is called a **subsequence** of  $(a_n)$  and is denoted by  $(a_{n_k})$ , where  $k \in \mathbb{N}$  indexes the subsequence.

**Example 4.** The order of the terms in a subsequence must be the same as in the original sequence, and repetitions are not allowed. Thus if  $(a_n) = (\frac{1}{n})$ , then  $(\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{4}, \frac{1}{6}, \frac{1}{8}, \dots)$  and  $(\frac{1}{10}, \frac{1}{100}, \frac{1}{1000}, \frac{1}{10000}, \dots)$  are legitimate subsequences, while

$$\left(\frac{1}{10}, \frac{1}{5}, \frac{1}{100}, \frac{1}{50}, \dots\right) \text{ and } \left(1, 1, \frac{1}{3}, \frac{1}{3}, \frac{1}{5}, \frac{1}{5}, \dots\right)$$

are not.

- We'll see in a second that if  $0 < b < 1$ , then  $\lim(b^n) = 0$ . Use this fact to prove:

**Exercise 5. (reading question)** Show  $\lim(b^n) = 0$  if and only if  $-1 < b < 1$ .

*Proof.* ( $\implies$ ) Suppose that  $\lim(b^n) = 0$ , and suppose that  $b > 1$ . (The case  $b < -1$  will follow.) We show that  $b^n$  becomes arbitrarily large, and thus that  $b^n$  diverges.

*Proof.* Let  $x \in \mathbb{R}$  be a real number. Then, if we take  $n = \log_b x + 1$ , we have that

$$b^n = b^{\log_b x + 1} = b^{\log_b x} \cdot b = bx > x,$$

hence  $(b^n) \rightarrow \infty$ . **[Why doesn't this proof work for  $-1 < b < 1$ ?]** □

( $\impliedby$ ) Suppose that  $-1 < b < 1$ . If  $0 < b < 1$ , Example 2.5.3 shows that  $\lim(b^n) = 0$ . Thus, we concern ourselves with the case  $-1 < b < 0$ . We show using the definition that  $\lim(b^n) = 0$  in this case.

- (1) Let  $\epsilon > 0$  be arbitrary.
- (2) [scratch work] we want to show that  $|b^n| < \epsilon$ . Since  $-1 < b < 0$ , we have that  $b = -a$  for some  $1 > a > 0$ . Thus

$$|b^n| = |(-a)^n| = |(-1)^n a^n| = a^n.$$

But we know that  $(a^n)$  converges for any  $0 < a < 1$ .

- (3) Since  $(a^n)$  converges if  $0 < a < 1$ , we may choose  $N \in \mathbb{N}$  such that  $a^n < \epsilon$  whenever  $n \geq N$ .
- (4) Assume  $n \geq N$ .
- (5) Then

$$|b^n| = a^n < \epsilon$$

and hence  $\lim(b^n) = 0$ , as desired.

□

**Exercise 6.** [slide] [Crannell Worksheet 2.5]

**Theorem 7.** *Subsequences of a convergent sequence converge to the same limit as the original sequence.*

**Exercise 8. (Reading question)** Prove the Theorem.

*Proof.* Assume  $(a_n) \rightarrow a$  and let  $(a_{n_k})$  be a subsequence. Given  $\epsilon > 0$ , there exists  $N$  such that  $|a_n - a| < \epsilon$  whenever  $n \geq N$ . Because  $n_k \geq k$  for all  $k$ , the same  $N$  will suffice for the subsequence; that is,  $|a_{n_k} - a| < \epsilon$  whenever  $k \geq N$ . □

**Example 9. (Back to geometric sequences)** Let  $0 < b < 1$ . Because

$$b > b^2 > b^3 > b^4 > \cdots > 0,$$

the sequence  $(b^n)$  is decreasing and bounded below. The MCT lets us conclude that  $(b^n)$  converges to some limit  $l$  satisfying  $b > l \geq 0$ .

To compute  $l$ , note that  $(b^{2n})$  is a subsequence, so  $(b^{2n}) \rightarrow l$  by the Theorem. Because limits are unique,  $l^2 = l$ , and thus  $l = 0$ .

- We can use this result in some clever ways to understand when infinite sums are associative (Claimed HW).
- We'll also use it to prove divergence:

**Example 10.** We now have the tools to prove divergence. Show that

$$\left(1, -\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{3}, -\frac{1}{3}, -\frac{1}{4}, \frac{1}{5}, -\frac{1}{5}, \frac{1}{5}, -\frac{1}{5}, \dots\right)$$

diverges.

*Proof.* Note that

$$\left(\frac{1}{5}, \frac{1}{5}, \frac{1}{5}, \dots\right)$$

is a subsequence that converges to  $1/5$ . Also,

$$\left(-\frac{1}{5}, -\frac{1}{5}, -\frac{1}{5}, -\frac{1}{5}, \dots\right)$$

is a subsequence that converges to  $-1/5$ . Because we have two subsequences converging to two different limits, we can rigorously conclude that the original sequence diverges. □

**Exercise 11.** Show that the sequence  $((-1)^n)$  diverges.

- The subsequences  $(1)$  and  $(-1)$  converge to different limits.

(T/F) If every subsequence of  $(x_n)$  converges to the same limit, then  $(x_n)$  converges.

- True;  $(x_n)$  is a subsequence of  $(x_n)$ , so  $(x_n)$  converges.

(T/F) Every sequence of real numbers contains a convergent subsequence.

- False; consider  $(n)$ .

(T/F) Every increasing sequence of real numbers contains a convergent subsequence.

- False; consider  $(n)$ .

- In our divergence example, we spotted convergent subsequences hiding in the original sequence.
- For bounded sequences, it turns out that we can always find at least one convergent subsequence.

**Theorem 12. (Bolzano-Weierstrass Theorem)** *Every bounded sequence contains a convergent subsequence.*

- Importance of B-W:
  - next time, let's show that Cauchy sequences converge
  - equivalent to Axiom of Completeness as characterizing property of  $\mathbb{R}$
  - completely characterizes “compact sets”, an important topological concept, as closed & bounded sets in  $\mathbb{R}$

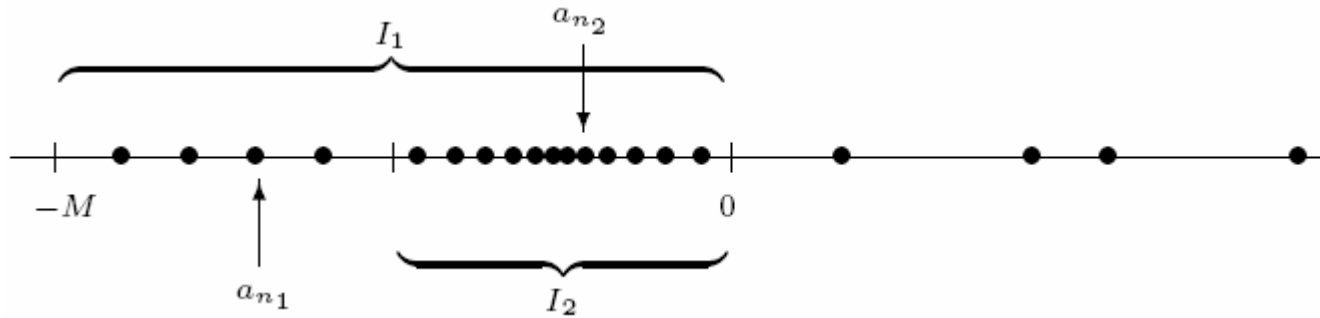
- lets us solve the optimization problem  $\max\{f(x) : x \in X \subseteq \mathbb{R}\}$  where  $X \subseteq \mathbb{R}$  is closed and bounded and  $f$  is continuous.
  - \* used in economics to argue that it's possible for consumers to maximize utility subject to a budget constraint
  - \* used in economics to argue that it's possible to efficiently allocate resources among members of a society
  - \* used to argue that the competitive equilibrium price (where demand = supply in all markets) depends on the existence of demand

**Exercise 13.** Prove the Bolzano-Weierstrass Theorem by doing the following:

- (1) Let  $(a_n)$  be a bounded sequence. Recall the definition of “bounded” for sequences and translate this into an inequality that each term  $a_n$  must satisfy.
- (2) Translate your statement from (1) into interval notation and bisect the interval. Argue that one of the two resulting intervals (call it  $I_1$ ) contains infinitely many terms of  $(a_n)$ . Define  $a_{n_1}$  to be one of the infinitely many terms of  $(a_n)$  in one of the two intervals.
- (3) Bisect  $I_1$  again and repeat the argument in (2).
- (4) Write a general argument for how to choose the interval  $I_n$  and the term  $a_{n_k}$  of  $(a_n)$ .
- (5) Use the Nested Interval Property to get a candidate,  $x$ , for  $\lim a_{n_k}$ .
- (6) Find a formula for the length of  $I_k$ . Use this formula to prove that  $(a_{n_k}) \rightarrow x$ .

*Proof.* The idea isn't too different from one way of defining the 1-1 correspondence  $f : (0, 1) \rightarrow S$ , where  $S$  is the set of sequences of 0s and 1s. (remember this involved bisecting the interval  $(0, 1)$  over and over.)

- (1) Let  $(a_n)$  be a bounded sequence. Then there exists  $M > 0$  satisfying  $|a_n| \leq M$  for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ . [draw]
- (2) Bisect the closed interval  $[-M, M]$  into the two closed intervals  $[-M, 0]$  and  $[0, M]$ .
- (3) It must be that one of these closed intervals contains infinitely many terms of  $(a_n)$ . (Else  $(a_n)$  contains only finitely many terms, but sequences are defined to be infinite.)
- (4) Select one interval that contains infinitely many terms of  $(a_n)$  and label the interval  $I_1$ .
- (5) Let  $a_{n_1}$  be some term in the sequence  $(a_n)$  satisfying  $a_{n_1} \in I_1$ .



- (6) Now we bisect  $I_1$  again into closed intervals of equal length and let  $I_2$  be a half that again contains an infinite number of terms of the original sequence. Because there are an infinite number of terms of  $(a_n)$  to choose from, we can select an  $a_{n_2}$  from the original sequence with  $n_2 > n_1$  and  $a_{n_2} \in I_2$ .
- (7) In general, we construct the closed interval  $I_k$  by taking a half of  $I_{k-1}$  containing an infinite number of terms of  $(a_n)$  and then select

$$n_k > n_{k-1} > \cdots > n_2 > n_1$$

so that  $a_{n_k} \in I_k$ .

We want to argue that  $(a_{n_k})$  is a convergent subsequence, but we need a candidate for the limit. Whatever the limit is, it seems likely that it's in all of the intervals

$$I_1 \supseteq I_2 \supseteq I_3 \supseteq \cdots$$

but wait! These form a nested sequence of closed intervals, and by the Nested Interval Property there's at least one  $x \in \mathbb{R}$  contained in every  $I_k$ ! Let's guess that  $x$  is the limit. It just remains to show that  $(a_{n_k}) \rightarrow x$ .

Let  $\epsilon > 0$ . How close can we make  $x$  to the terms of  $(a_n)$ ? It has to do with the size of the intervals. By construction, the length of  $I_k$  is  $M(1/2)^{k-1}$ , which converges to 0. (This follows from your “geometric sequence” reading question and the Algebraic Limit Theorem.)

Choose  $N$  so that  $k \geq N$  implies that the length of  $I_k$  is less than  $\epsilon$ . Because  $x$  and  $a_{n_k}$  are both in  $I_k$ , it follows that  $|a_{n_k} - x| < \epsilon$ .  $\square$