

Note that I am operating under the convention that  $N, n, m, i, j$  are natural numbers unless otherwise specified.

**Exercise :** Let  $A$  and  $B$  be nonempty sets that are bounded above. Suppose  $\sup A < \sup B$ . Prove that there is an element of  $B$  that is an upper bound for  $A$ .

*Proof.* Suppose  $A$  and  $B$  are nonempty sets that are bounded above. Further suppose  $\sup A < \sup B$ . Define  $a = \sup A$  and  $b = \sup B$ . Note that  $a$  is less than the supremum of  $B$  thus  $a$  is not an upper bound on  $B$ . Since  $a$  is not an upper bound on  $B$  there must exist at least one element of  $B$  greater than  $a$ , take one of these elements let's call it  $k$ ,  $k \in B$ ,  $a < k$ . Choose an arbitrary element  $c \in A$ . Since  $a = \sup A$  we know that  $a$  is an upper bound on  $A$  therefore  $c \leq a < k$ . Since we chose an arbitrary element from  $A$  and showed that it is less than  $k$  we can say that all elements in  $A$  are less than  $k$  thus  $k$  is an upper bound on  $A$ .  $\square$

**Exercise :** In class we proved that  $\mathbb{N}^2$  is countably infinite. Use this fact and a proof by induction to show that  $\mathbb{N}^n$  is countably infinite for every  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ .

*Proof.* We want to show that for every  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ ,  $\mathbb{N}^n$  is countably infinite. I will proceed with a proof by induction.

Base case  $n = 1$ . There is a bijective map, the identity map, mapping  $\mathbb{N}^1 \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$ . So the statement holds in the  $n = 1$  case.

Suppose  $\mathbb{N}^m$  is countably infinite for all  $m \leq n$  where  $n \geq 1$ . There must exist a bijective map from  $\mathbb{N}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$ , the definition of countably infinite. Note that  $\mathbb{N}^{n+1}$  can trivially be bijectively mapped to  $\mathbb{N}^n \times \mathbb{N}$ , by mapping the first term to  $\mathbb{N}$  and the next terms to  $\mathbb{N}^n$ . Note that there exists a bijective map from  $\mathbb{N}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$  since  $\mathbb{N}^2$  is countably infinite. Note that we can bijectively map  $\mathbb{N}^{n+1} \rightarrow \mathbb{N}^n \times \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{N} \times \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{N}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$ . Thus  $\mathbb{N}^{n+1}$  is countably infinite.

By induction we can conclude that for every  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ ,  $\mathbb{N}^n$  is countably infinite.  $\square$

**Exercise :** Compute

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{3^n}{n!}$$

.

Define  $a_n = 0, b_n = \frac{3^n}{n!}, c_n = \frac{3^n}{4^{n-4}}$ . Note that for  $1 \leq n \leq 4$ ,  $b_n = \frac{3^n}{n!} \leq 3^n \leq \frac{3^n}{4^{n-4}} = c_n$ . Note that for  $n = 4$ ,  $b_n \leq c_n$ . Suppose for some  $n \geq 4$ ,  $b_n \leq c_n$ . Note that  $b_{n+1} = \frac{3^{n+1}}{(n+1)!} = \frac{3^n}{n!} \cdot \frac{3}{n+1} = b_n \cdot \frac{3}{n+1} \leq c_n \cdot \frac{3}{n+1} \leq c_n \cdot \frac{3}{4} = \frac{3^n}{4^{n-4}} \cdot \frac{3}{4} = \frac{3^{n+1}}{4^{(n+1)-4}} = c_{n+1}$ . By induction I conclude that for all  $n \geq 4$ ,  $b_n \leq c_n$ . So for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ ,  $b_n \leq c_n$ . Also note that  $b_n$  is always positive and thus  $a_n \leq b_n$ . Note that  $a_n \rightarrow 0$ . Note that  $c_n$  is bounded below by 0. Also note that  $c_{n+1} = \frac{3}{4}c_n \leq c_n$ , so  $c_n$  is monotone decreasing and bounded below, by the MCT it must converge. Define  $l$  as the limit of  $c_n$ . Note that  $c_{n+1} \rightarrow l$  also note that  $c_{n+1} = \frac{3}{4}c_n \rightarrow \frac{3}{4}l$ . So  $l = \frac{3}{4}l$  therefore  $l = 0$ . By the squeeze theorem  $\frac{3^n}{n!} \rightarrow 0$ .

**Exercise :** Suppose  $F$  is a collection of open intervals such that if  $I, J \in F$  and  $I \neq J$ , then  $I \cap J = \emptyset$ . Prove that  $F$  is countable.

*Proof.* Suppose  $F$  is a collection of open intervals such that if  $I, J \in F$  and  $I \neq J$ , then  $I \cap J = \emptyset$ .

If  $F$  is finite then it is at most countable.

Suppose  $F$  is non-finite. Select one element of  $F$ , let's call it  $d$  (for default). Consider the mapping  $f : \mathbb{Q} \rightarrow G$  where  $G = P(F)$ , the power set of  $F$ , so that  $G$  is the set of all subsets of  $F$ .

$$f(q) = \begin{cases} \{f \in F : q \in f\} & \{f \in F : q \in f\} \neq \emptyset \\ \{d\} & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Suppose there existed a  $q$  such that  $f(q)$  did not have cardinality 1. Note that  $f(q) \neq \emptyset$ , since we map anything that would have mapped to the empty set to the set containing the default set. Thus  $f(q)$  must have at least two elements  $I, J \in f(q)$ . Also note that  $f(q) \neq \{d\}$  since that has cardinality of one,  $f(q) = \{f \in F : q \in f\}$ . Note that by our above construction  $I, J \in F$  and  $I \neq J$  and  $q \in I, q \in J$ , since  $f(q) \neq \{d\}$ . Thus  $q \in I \cap J$  so  $I \cap J \neq \emptyset$ . This is a contradiction since our initial supposition tells us  $I \cap J = \emptyset$ , we conclude the negation of our supposition, that  $f(q)$  has one element for all  $q \in \mathbb{Q}$ .

We can now construct a function  $g : \mathbb{Q} \rightarrow F$ , where  $g(q)$  is the one element in  $f(q)$ , noting that  $f(q) \in G$  means that  $f(q) \subseteq F$  and thus the one element in  $f(q)$  is a element of  $F$ .

Choose  $I \in F$ . Note that by the density of the rationals there is a rational in the open interval  $I$ , select one of these elements and call it  $q$ ,  $q \in I$  and  $q \in \mathbb{Q}$ . Note that  $g(q)$  is the element in  $f(q)$ , and  $I \in \{f \in F : q \in f\} \neq \emptyset$  thus  $f(q) = \{f \in F : q \in f\}$  and  $I \in f(q)$  thus  $g(q) = I$ . Since we chose a arbitrary element in  $F$  and found a  $q \in \mathbb{Q}$  that maps to it via  $g$  we can say  $g$  is onto. We know that there is a onto map  $h : \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{Q}$  since  $\mathbb{N}$  and  $\mathbb{Q}$  have the same cardinality. Consider the map  $m : \mathbb{N} \rightarrow F$  where  $m(n) = g(h(n))$ . Note that  $m$  is onto. Since there is a onto map from  $\mathbb{N} \rightarrow F$  we know that  $F$  is at most countably infinite.  $\square$

**Exercise :** Let  $(x_n)$  be a sequence converging to  $L$ . Define

$$y_n = \frac{x_1 + \cdots + x_n}{n}$$

. That is,  $y_n$  is the average of the first  $n$  terms of the sequence of  $x_n$ . Show that  $\lim y_n = L$  as well.

*Proof.* Suppose  $(x_n)$  be a sequence converging to  $L$ . Define

$$y_n = \frac{x_1 + \cdots + x_n}{n}$$

. Choose  $\epsilon > 0$ . There exists a  $N_0 \in \mathbb{N}$  such that for all  $n \geq N_0$ ,  $|x_n - L| < \epsilon/2$ . There are a finite number of terms of  $x_n$  with  $n \leq N_0$ , thus we can find a  $n_0 \in [1, N_0]$  that makes  $|x_{n_0} - L|$  a maximum. Define  $b = |x_{n_0} - L|$ . There exists a natural number  $C \geq 2 * b * N_0/\epsilon$ . Define

$N = \max(C, N_0 + 1)$ , note that  $N \in \mathbb{N}$  and  $N \geq 2 * b * N_0 / \epsilon$  and  $N \geq N_0 + 1$ . Choose  $n > N$ . Note that

$$|y_n - L| = \left| \frac{x_1 + \cdots + x_n}{n} - L \right| \leq$$

(triangle inequality)

$$1/n \sum_{k=1}^n |x_k - L| =$$

(noting that  $n \geq N \geq N_0 + 1$ )

$$1/n \sum_{k=1}^{N_0} |x_k - L| + 1/n \sum_{k=N_0+1}^n |x_k - L| <$$

(in the range  $N_0 \leq k$ ,  $|x_k - L| < \epsilon/2$ )

$$1/n \sum_{k=1}^{N_0} |x_k - L| + 1/n \sum_{k=N_0+1}^n \epsilon/2 \leq$$

( $n \geq N \geq (2bN_0)/\epsilon$ ,  $1/n \leq \epsilon/(2bN_0)$ )

$$\epsilon/(2bN_0) \sum_{k=1}^{N_0} |x_k - L| + 1/n \sum_{k=N_0+1}^n \epsilon/2 \leq$$

(in the range  $N_0 > k$ ,  $|x_k - L| \leq b$ )

$$\epsilon/(2bN_0) \sum_{k=1}^{N_0} b + 1/n \sum_{k=N_0+1}^n \epsilon/2 =$$

$$\epsilon/(2bN_0) * N_0 b + 1/n * (n - N_0) \epsilon/2 \leq$$

( $n - N_0 < n$ )

$$\epsilon/2 + \epsilon/2 = \epsilon$$

Thus  $y_n \rightarrow L$ . □

**Exercise :** Suppose that  $(a_n)$  is a sequence of positive numbers and that  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = L > 0$ . Prove that there exists an  $m > 0$  such that  $a_n \geq m$  for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ .

*Proof.* Suppose that  $(a_n)$  is a sequence of positive numbers and that  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = L > 0$ . Noting that  $L/2 > 0$  we can say that there must exist a  $N$  such that for all  $n > N$ ,  $|a_n - L| < L/2$ . There are a finite number of terms of  $a_n$  where  $n < N$ , so we can find the minimum of these terms, call it  $m_1$ . Noting that  $m_1$  is a term in the sequence we can say  $m_1 > 0$ . Define  $m = \min(m_1, L/2) > 0$ . Choose an arbitrary element of the sequence  $a_n$ , call it  $a$ , and call its index  $n_0$ . If  $n_0 < N$  then we know that  $a \geq m_1 \geq m$ . If  $n_0 \geq N$  then we know that  $|a - L| < L/2$  so  $-L/2 < a - L$  so  $L/2 < a$  thus  $m \leq L/2 < a$ . Since we chose a arbitrary element of the sequence and showed that it is greater than or equal to  $m$  we can say that  $m$  is less than or equal to all of the terms in the sequence. □

**Exercise :** Use the Bolzano-Weierstrass theorem to prove the Monotone Convergence Theorem without assuming any other form of the Axiom of Completeness.

*Proof.* Assume that every bounded sequence has a convergent sub sequence.

Consider a bounded monotone increasing sequence  $a_n$ . There exists a sub-sequence  $a_{m_j}$  that converges to  $l$ . Choose  $\epsilon > 0$ . There exists a  $J \in \mathbb{N}$  such that for all  $j \geq J$ ,  $|a_{m_j} - l| < \epsilon$ . Define  $N = m_J$ . Choose  $n \geq N$ . Note that we proved on a homework  $n \leq m_n$ . Note that  $m_J \leq n \leq m_n$ , since the sequence  $a_n$  is monotone increasing note that  $a_{m_J} \leq a_n \leq a_{m_n}$ . Note that  $|a_{m_J} - l| < \epsilon$ ,  $-\epsilon < a_{m_J} - l$ . Also note that  $n \geq N = m_J \geq J$  thus  $|a_{m_n} - l| < \epsilon$ ,  $a_{m_n} - l < \epsilon$ . Note that  $a_{m_J} \leq a_n \leq a_{m_n}$  means that  $-\epsilon < a_{m_J} - l \leq a_n - l \leq a_{m_n} - l < \epsilon$  or  $|a_n - l| < \epsilon$ , for all  $n \geq N$ . Thus  $a_n$  converges on  $l$ . Since we chose a arbitrary bounded monotone increasing sequence and showed that it converged we can conclude that all bounded monotone increasing sequences converge.

Consider a bounded monotone decreasing sequence  $a_n$ . If  $a_n$  is a bounded monotone decreasing series note that  $b_n = -a_n$  is monotone increasing and so  $b_n \rightarrow l$ . By the arithmetic limit theorem we can say  $a_n = -b_n \rightarrow -l$ . Thus all bounded monotone decreasing sequences converge.

We can now say all bounded monotone sequences converge (MCT).  $\square$

**Exercise :** Suppose  $(x_n)$  is a sequence and that for all  $n \geq 2$ ,

$$|x_{n+1} - x_n| \leq \frac{1}{2}|x_n - x_{n-1}|$$

. Show that the sequence converges.

*Proof.* Suppose  $(x_n)$  is a sequence and that for all  $n \geq 2$ ,

$$|x_{n+1} - x_n| \leq \frac{1}{2}|x_n - x_{n-1}|$$

Define  $k = 2|x_2 - x_1|$ . For  $n = 1$ ,  $|x_{n+1} - x_n| \leq (1/2)^n k$  would mean  $|x_2 - x_1| \leq |x_2 - x_1|$ , clearly true. Suppose  $|x_{n+1} - x_n| \leq (1/2)^n k$ . Note that  $|x_{n+2} - x_{n+1}| \leq (1/2)|x_{n+1} - x_n|$ , so  $|x_{n+2} - x_{n+1}| \leq (1/2)^{n+1} k$ . By induction  $|x_{n+1} - x_n| \leq (1/2)^n k$  for all natural numbers  $n$ .

Note that for  $m = 1$ ,  $|x_{n+m} - x_n| \leq (1/2)^n k 2 \sum_{i=1}^m (1/2)^i$  would mean  $|x_{n+1} - x_n| \leq (1/2)^n k$ , clearly true. Suppose for some  $m$ ,  $|x_{n+m} - x_n| \leq (1/2)^n k 2 \sum_{i=1}^m (1/2)^i$ . Note that  $|x_{n+m+1} - x_{n+m}| \leq (1/2)^{n+m} k$ . Note that  $|x_{n+m+1} - x_n| = |x_{n+m+1} - x_{n+m} + x_{n+m} - x_n| \leq |x_{n+m+1} - x_{n+m}| + |x_{n+m} - x_n| \leq (1/2)^{n+m} k + (1/2)^n k 2 \sum_{i=1}^m (1/2)^i = (1/2)^{n+m} k + (1/2)^n k 2 (\sum_{i=1}^m (1/2)^i + (1/2)^{m+1}) = (1/2)^{n+m} k 2 \sum_{i=1}^{m+1} (1/2)^i$ . By induction on  $m$  I conclude  $|x_{n+m} - x_n| \leq (1/2)^n k 2 \sum_{i=1}^m (1/2)^i$  for all natural numbers  $m$ .

Note that  $\sum_{i=1}^m (1/2)^i \leq \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} (1/2)^i = \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} (1/2)^i - 1 = 2 - 1 = 1$  (see geometric series Pg. 73). Thus  $|x_{n+m} - x_n| \leq (1/2)^n k 2$  for all  $m$  and  $n$ .

Choose  $\epsilon > 0$ . Note that there exists a natural number  $N > 2k/\epsilon$ , choose one of these and set it equal to  $N$ . Choose  $m > n \geq N$ . Define  $d = m - n$ , note that  $d \in \mathbb{N}$ . Note

that  $2^n \geq n \geq N > 2k/\epsilon$  so  $(1/2)^n = 1/2^n < \epsilon/(2k)$  and  $(1/2)^n k 2 < \epsilon$ . Note that  $|x_m - x_n| = |x_{n+d} - x_n| \leq (1/2)^n k 2 < \epsilon$ . We now know the sequence is Cauchy and therefore it will converge.  $\square$

**Exercise :** Let  $(a_n)$  and  $(b_n)$  be sequences with  $b_n \geq 0$  for all  $n$  and  $b_n \rightarrow 0$ . We say that  $a_n = O(b_n)$  if there is a constant  $C$  such that  $|a_n| \leq Cb_n$  for all  $n$ . Roughly speaking,  $a_n = O(b_n)$  if the sequence  $a_n$  converges to zero at least as fast as the sequence  $b_n$ . Suppose  $a_n$  and  $b_n$  are sequences with  $b_n > 0$ . Suppose also that  $\frac{a_n}{b_n} \rightarrow L$  for some number  $L$ . Prove that  $a_n = O(b_n)$ .

There must exist a  $N$  such that for all  $n \geq N$ ,  $|\frac{a_n}{b_n} - L| < 1$ . Noting that there are a finite number of elements of  $\frac{a_n}{b_n}$  where  $n \leq N$ , we can find the minimum, call it  $A_{\min}$ , and maximum, call it  $A_{\max}$ , for these elements. Define  $C_{\min} = \min(A_{\min}, L - 1)$  and  $C_{\max} = \max(A_{\max}, L + 1)$ . Choose an arbitrary element of  $b = \frac{a_n}{b_n}$  with index  $n$ . If  $n \leq N$  we know that  $C_{\min} \leq A_{\min} \leq b \leq A_{\max} \leq C_{\max}$ . If  $n \geq N$  we know that  $C_{\min} \leq L - 1 \leq b \leq L + 1 \leq C_{\max}$ . So  $C_{\min} \leq \frac{a_n}{b_n} \leq C_{\max}$  for all  $n$ . Note that  $|\frac{a_n}{b_n}| \leq \max(C_{\max}, -C_{\min}) = C$ , so  $|a_n| \leq C|b_n| = Cb_n$  therefore  $a_n = O(b_n)$ .

**Exercise :** Suppose  $(a_n)$  and  $(b_n)$  are sequences with  $b_n \geq 0$  and  $a_n = O(b_n)$ .

a) Suppose that  $\sum b_n$  converges on  $l$ . Prove that  $\sum a_n$  converges also.

Note that there exists a constant  $C$  such that  $|a_n| \leq Cb_n$  for all  $n$ . Define  $SAa_n = \sum_{k=1}^n |a_k|$  the partial sum of the absolute terms of  $a$ . Define  $Sb_n = \sum_{k=1}^n b_k$ . Note that  $SAa_n$  is monotonic increasing. Note that  $Sb_n$  is monotonic. Note that  $SAa_n \leq Sb_n \leq l$ . Thus  $SAa_n$  is bounded above and monotonic increasing, thus it converges. Since  $\sum a_n$  converges absolutely it converges.

b) Suppose that  $\sum a_n$  diverges. Prove that  $\sum b_n$  diverges.

Suppose to the contrary that  $\sum a_n$  diverges while that  $\sum b_n$  converges. Since  $\sum b_n$  converges we know that  $\sum a_n$  converges, a contradiction. We are forced to conclude if  $\sum a_n$ ,  $\sum b_n$  diverges.

c) Determine if  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \sqrt{\frac{n^3-3n+2}{8n^4+n^2+22}}$  converges

Define  $b_n = \sqrt{\frac{n^3-3n+2}{8n^4+n^2+22}}$ . Note that  $b_n$  is the result of a square root, thus  $b_n \geq 0$ . Define  $c_n = \frac{n^3-3n+2}{8n^4+n^2+22}$ . Note that  $c_n = \frac{1/n-3/n^3+2/n^4}{8+1/n^2+22/n^4} \rightarrow 0$  by the algebraic limit theorem, and therefore  $b_n \rightarrow 0$ . Define  $a_n = 1/n$ . Note that assuming  $n > 1$  ( $b_n \neq 0$ ),  $|\frac{a_n}{b_n}| = \sqrt{1/n^2 \frac{8n^4+n^2+22}{n^3-3n+2}} = \sqrt{\frac{8n^2+1+22/n^2}{n^3-3n+2}} = \sqrt{\frac{8/n+1/n^3+22/n^5}{1-3/n^2+2/n^4}} \rightarrow 0$ . We now can say based on exercise 9 that  $a_n = O(b_n)$ . We also know that  $\sum a_n$  diverges and so now can conclude that  $b_n$  will diverge,  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \sqrt{\frac{n^3-3n+2}{8n^4+n^2+22}}$  diverges.