

## Chapter 6. The Completeness Property

So far we learned essentially the **two** methods for finding (or proving) the limit of a sequence:

- 1st one: **Squeeze Principle**: can be applied to sequences whose good upper & lower sequences are expected
- 2nd one: **Completeness Property**: can be applied to sequences that are **monotone** (or monotone for  $n \gg 1$ )

**Goal** of this chapter is to give some **new methods that can be used to construct or prove the existence of a limit**.

More precisely, we will give “**NIT (= Nested Intervals Theorem)**” and “**Cauchy criterion for convergence**”;

(each is equivalent to the completeness of  $\mathbb{R}$ ; well-known to experts)

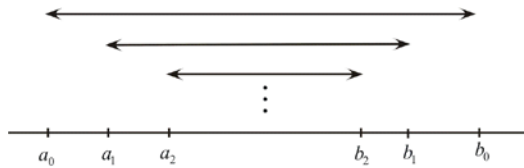
Main tools for describing those two methods: “**LLT**” & “the notion of convergence”

### 6.1 Nested intervals

Def. If a sequence  $\left([a_n, b_n]\right)_{n=0}^{\infty}$  of **closed** intervals has the property that

$$[a_0, b_0] \supset [a_1, b_1] \supset [a_2, b_2] \supset \cdots \supset [a_n, b_n] \supset \cdots,$$

we say that the sequence  $\left([a_n, b_n]\right)_{n=0}^{\infty}$  is nested.



Theorem (The Nested Intervals Theorem (for short NIT): 축소 (폐)구간열 정리)

Suppose sequence  $\left([a_n, b_n]\right)_{n=0}^{\infty}$  is a sequence of nested intervals &  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (b_n - a_n) = 0$ .

Then  $\bigcap_{n=0}^{\infty} [a_n, b_n]$  consists of exactly one point.

Moreover,  $\exists$  a real number  $L$  such that  $\bigcap_{n=0}^{\infty} [a_n, b_n] = \{L\}$  &  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = L = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} b_n$

Pf.  $\left([a_n, b_n]\right)_{n=0}^{\infty}$  is nested:  $[a_0, b_0] \supset [a_1, b_1] \supset [a_2, b_2] \supset \cdots \supset [a_n, b_n] \supset \cdots$

$\Rightarrow$  picture:

Hence it is clear that  $(a_n)$  is  $\uparrow$  & bounded above by  $b_0$ .

By the Completeness Property,  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n$  ( $\stackrel{\text{let}}{=} L$ ) exists.

Since  $(a_n)$  is  $\uparrow$ , we get  $a_n \leq L$  for all  $n$  ----- (\*)

On the other hand, for any fixed  $n$

$$a_k \leq b_k \leq b_n \quad \text{if } k \geq n \quad (\leftarrow b_n \downarrow)$$

&

$$a_k \leq a_n \leq b_n \quad \text{if } k \leq n \quad (\leftarrow a_n \uparrow)$$

Thus we have  $a_k \leq b_n$  for all  $k$ .

So by LLT,  $L = \lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} a_k \leq b_n$  ----- (\*\*)

(\*) & (\*\*) implies  $a_n \leq L \leq b_n$  for all  $n$

$$\therefore \bigcap_{n=0}^{\infty} [a_n, b_n] \ni L$$

Claim:  $\bigcap_{n=0}^{\infty} [a_n, b_n] = \{L\}$

Pf of Claim: If  $M \in \bigcap_{n=0}^{\infty} [a_n, b_n]$ , then  $a_n \leq M, L \leq b_n$  for all  $n$ .

$$\Rightarrow |L - M| \leq (b_n - a_n) \text{ for all } n$$

$$\Rightarrow |L - M| \leq \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (b_n - a_n) = 0 \text{ (by LLT)}$$

$$\therefore M = L$$

Remains to show  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} b_n = L$ ; but it is obvious since

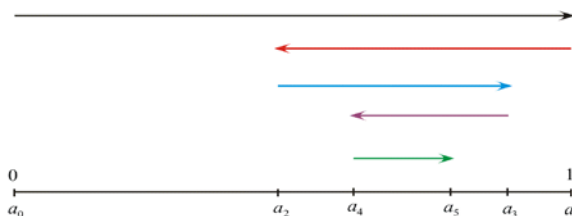
$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} b_n = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (b_n - a_n + a_n) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (b_n - a_n) + \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = 0 + L = L$$

Exa. (An application of NIT)

Let  $\begin{cases} a_n = 1 - \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{3} - \dots + (-1)^{n-1} \frac{1}{n} & \text{for } n \geq 1 \\ a_0 = 0 \end{cases}$ . Show that  $(a_n)$  converges.

[We have already proved that  $(a_n)$  converges to  $\ln 2$  by using error-term analysis. Only give an elementary pf of just its convergence]

Sol.



From the picture, we see that

$$[a_0, a_1], [a_2, a_3], [a_4, a_5], \dots [a_{2k}, a_{2k+1}], [a_{2k+2}, a_{2k+3}], \dots$$

is a sequence of nested intervals.

It is also clear that

$$|a_{2k+1} - a_{2k}| = \frac{1}{2k+1} \rightarrow 0$$

Thus by NIT,  $\exists$  a real number  $L$  such that

$$\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} a_{2k} = L = \lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} a_{2k+1}$$

Moreover,  $a_{2k} \leq L \leq a_{2k+1}$  for all  $k$

It follows that

$$\begin{aligned} |a_n - L| &= \begin{cases} L - a_{2k} & \text{if } n = \text{even} = 2k \\ a_{2k+1} - L & \text{if } n = \text{odd} = 2k + 1 \end{cases} \\ &\leq a_{2k+1} - a_{2k} = \frac{1}{2k+1} \end{aligned}$$

$$\text{So, } |a_{2k} - L| \leq \frac{1}{2k+1} < \frac{1}{2k} \quad \& \quad |a_{2k+1} - L| \leq \frac{1}{2k+1}$$

Consequently,  $|a_n - L| \leq \frac{1}{n}$  regardless of whether  $n$  is even or odd

$$\therefore \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = L$$

Ex. (A modification of NIT; it is also called the NIT)

Let  $I_n = [a_n, b_n]$  for  $n = 0, 1, 2, \dots$ .

If  $I_0 \supset I_1 \supset I_2 \supset \dots$  (i.e.,  $(I_n)_1^\infty$  is nested), then

$$\bigcap_{n=0}^{\infty} I_n = [L, M], \text{ where } L = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n \quad \& \quad M = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} b_n \quad (\& \quad L \leq M)$$

⊙ Archimedian Property (for short, AP)

$$0 < \underset{\text{small}}{a} < \underset{\text{big}}{b} \quad \Rightarrow \quad \exists \text{ a natural number } n_0 \text{ such that } n_0 a > b$$

Pf. Suppose the conclusion were false; i.e., suppose  $an \leq b$  for every  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ .

Then the sequence

$$a, \quad 2a, \quad 3a, \quad \dots, \quad na, \quad \dots \text{ is strictly } \uparrow \text{ \& bounded above (by } b)$$

$$\xRightarrow{\text{Completeness Property}} \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} na \text{ exists, call it } L.$$

So, for given  $\varepsilon > 0$ ,  $|na - L| < \varepsilon$  for  $n \gg 1$  (say, for  $n \geq N$ )

In particular,  $|(N+1)a - L| < \varepsilon \quad \& \quad |Na - L| < \varepsilon$

$$\therefore |(N+1)a - Na| < 2\varepsilon$$

$$\text{i.e., } |a| < 2\varepsilon \text{ for any } \varepsilon > 0 \quad \therefore a = 0; \text{ contradiction to } a > 0$$

**Key idea:**  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} na = L$  [assume]  $\Rightarrow \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (n+1)a = L$

$$\Rightarrow 0 = L - L = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (n+1)a - \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} na = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} ((n+1)a - na) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a = a : \text{contradicts } a > 0$$

Note.

(1) Let  $I_n = (0, 1/n)$  for  $n = 1, 2, \dots$ . Then it is clear that

$$I_1 \supset I_2 \supset I_3 \supset \dots \quad \text{and} \quad \ell(I_n) = 1/n \rightarrow 0 \text{ as } n \rightarrow \infty;$$

$$\text{but } \bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} I_n = \emptyset$$

Pf. If  $x > 0$ , then by AP

$$\exists n_0 \in \mathbb{N} \text{ such that } 0 < 1/n_0 < x$$

So  $x \notin I_{n_0} = (0, 1/n_0)$ , and thus  $x \notin \bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} I_n$

$$\therefore \bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} I_n = \emptyset$$

(2) Let  $I_n = [n, \infty)$  for  $n = 1, 2, \dots$ . Then it is clear that

$$I_1 \supset I_2 \supset I_3 \supset \dots;$$

$$\text{but } \bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} I_n = \emptyset$$

Pf. If  $x > 0$ , then by AP

$$\exists n_0 \in \mathbb{N} \text{ such that } n_0 > x$$

So  $x \notin I_{n_0} = [n_0, \infty)$ , and thus  $x \notin \bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} I_n \quad \therefore \quad \bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} I_n = \emptyset$

(3) Let  $I_n = (-1/n, 1/n)$  for  $n = 1, 2, \dots$ . Then it is clear that

$$I_1 \supset I_2 \supset I_3 \supset \dots \quad \text{and} \quad \ell(I_n) = 2/n \rightarrow 0 \text{ as } n \rightarrow \infty;$$

$$\text{but } \bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} I_n = \{0\}$$

Pf.

$$I'_n \equiv [-1/2n, 1/2n] \subset I_n = (-1/n, 1/n) \subset I''_n \equiv [-1/n, 1/n]$$

Each of  $(I'_n)_{n=1}^{\infty}$  &  $(I''_n)_{n=1}^{\infty}$  is nested, and

$$\ell(I'_n) = 1/n \rightarrow 0 \quad \& \quad \ell(I''_n) = 2/n \rightarrow 0$$

Thus by NIT

$$\bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} I'_n \quad \& \quad \bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} I''_n \quad \text{consists of a single point, respectively}$$

Since  $0 \in \bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} I'_n \quad \& \quad 0 \in \bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} I''_n$ , we get

$$\begin{aligned} \bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} I'_n &= \{0\} = \bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} I''_n \\ \therefore \quad \bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} I_n &= \{0\}. \end{aligned}$$

## 6.2 Cluster points of sequences

Def.  $K$  is called a cluster point (집적점) of the sequence  $(a_n)$  if

$$\text{given } \varepsilon > 0, \quad a_n \underset{\varepsilon}{\approx} K \quad \text{for infinitely many } n.$$

Recall  $L$  is the limit of the sequence  $(a_n)$  if

$$\text{given } \varepsilon > 0, \quad a_n \underset{\varepsilon}{\approx} L \quad \text{for } n \gg 1 \quad (\text{i.e., for all but finitely many } n).$$

Trivial fact: If  $L$  is the limit of the seq  $(a_n)$ , then

$L$  is (automatically) a cluster point.

But there are cluster points which are not limits

Exa A.

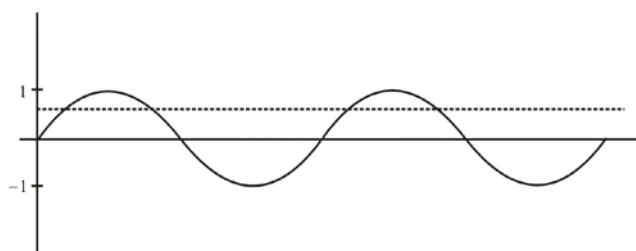
$$(a) \quad 1, 1, 2, 1, 2, 3, 1, 2, 3, 4, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, \dots:$$

Every positive integer is a cluster point, but the sequence has no limit.

$$(b) \quad 1, \frac{1}{2}, 1, \frac{1}{3}, 1, \frac{1}{4}, \dots:$$

1 & 0 are cluster points, but the sequence has no limit.

(c)  $\sin 1, \sin 2, \sin 3, \dots, \sin n, \dots$



Every real number in  $[-1, 1]$  is a cluster point of this sequence

(Its proof is very difficult)

But the sequence has no limit (already proved)

(d)  $1, 2, 3, 4, \dots$  has no cluster point.

Note: Other names for cluster point are “**accumulation point**” or “**limit point**”

**Caution:** **limit point**  $\neq$  **limit**

※ Theorem (Cluster point theorem)

$K$  is a cluster point of the sequence  $(a_n)$

$\Leftrightarrow K$  is the limit of some subsequence  $(a_{n_i})$

Pf.  $\Leftarrow$  (easy): given  $\varepsilon > 0$ ,  $a_{n_i} \approx_{\varepsilon} K$  for  $i \gg 1$ , say, for all  $i \geq I$

So,  $a_{n_I}, a_{n_{I+1}}, a_{n_{I+2}}, \dots \approx_{\varepsilon} K$

$\therefore a_n \approx_{\varepsilon} K$  for infinitely many  $n$

$\therefore K$  is a cluster point of  $(a_n)$

$\Rightarrow$ : By hypo, we can choose  $a_{n_1}$  so that

$$a_{n_1} \approx_1 K$$

By hypo again, we can choose  $a_{n_2}$  so that

$$a_{n_2} \approx_{\frac{1}{2}} K \quad \text{and} \quad n_2 > n_1$$

By the same way, we can choose  $a_{n_3}$  so that

$$a_{n_3} \approx_{\frac{1}{3}} K \quad \text{and} \quad n_3 > n_2$$

$\vdots$

$$a_{n_i} \approx_{1/i} K \quad (\forall i) \quad \text{and} \quad n_i > n_{i-1}$$

Since  $n_i > n_{i-1}$ ,  $(a_{n_i})$  forms a subsequence of  $(a_n)$ .

Moreover,

$$\text{given } \varepsilon > 0, \quad a_{n_i} \approx_{\varepsilon} K \quad \text{for } \frac{1}{i} < \varepsilon, \quad \text{i.e., for } i > \frac{1}{\varepsilon}$$

$$\therefore K = \lim_{i \rightarrow \infty} a_{n_i} \quad \text{i.e., } K \text{ is the limit of the subsequence } (a_{n_i})$$

Exa B. Let  $a_n = \frac{1}{n} + (-1)^n$ . Show  $(a_n)$  has  $-1$  &  $1$  as cluster points, but no limit

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Pf.} \quad a_{2k+1} &= \frac{1}{2k+1} - 1 \rightarrow -1 \quad \text{as } k \rightarrow \infty \\ a_{2k} &= \frac{1}{2k} + 1 \rightarrow 1 \quad \text{as } k \rightarrow \infty \end{aligned}$$

$\therefore -1$  &  $1$  are cluster points (by the Cluster point theorem)

Since  $\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} a_{2k+1} \neq \lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} a_{2k}$ ,  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n$  does not exist.

Exa1. Find the cluster points of  $\left(\sin \frac{n\pi}{2}\right)_0^\infty$ .

$$\text{Sol.} \quad \left(\sin \frac{n\pi}{2}\right)_0^\infty : 0, 1, 0, -1; 0, 1, 0, -1; \dots$$

$\therefore$  the cluster points are  $0, 1, -1$

Exa2. Prove that if a sequence is convergent, it has only one cluster point.

Pf. Say  $a_n \rightarrow L$ . Then  $L$  is a cluster point.

If  $K$  is also a cluster point, then by the **Cluster point theorem**,  $\exists$  a subsequence  $(a_{n_i})$  such that

$$\lim_{i \rightarrow \infty} a_{n_i} = K.$$

But since  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = L$ , we have  $\lim_{i \rightarrow \infty} a_{n_i} = L$  by the **Subsequence Theorem**.

Hence  $K = L$

Exa3. Find a sequence that having only one cluster point, yet not convergent.

$$\text{Sol.} \quad 1, 2, 1, 3, 1, 4, \dots$$

Its cluster point is  $1$ , but clearly it has no limit.

### 6.3 The Bolzano-Weierstrass theorem

Sequences in general do not converge, but they often have subsequences which converge.

Question: What kind of sequence has a convergent subsequence?

※ ※ Theorem (Bolzano-Weierstrass Theorem: **BWT** for short)

If  $(x_n)$  is a **bounded** sequence, then it has a convergent subsequence.

Pf. **key idea**: the Method of Bisection plus NIT

By the Cluster point theorem, it suffices to show that the bounded sequence  $(x_n)$  has a cluster point.

Since  $(x_n)$  is bounded, there are points  $a_0$  and  $b_0$  such that

$$a_0 \leq x_n \leq b_0 \quad \text{for all } n$$

We set  $\text{length}[a_0, b_0] = d$

We can assume  $d > 0$ , otherwise,  $(x_n)$  is constant ( $\Rightarrow$  OK)

$$\begin{array}{c} | \text{-----} | \\ a_0 \qquad c = \frac{a_0 + b_0}{2} \qquad b_0 \end{array}$$

At least one of the half-intervals  $[a_0, c]$  &  $[c, b_0]$  contains infinitely many  $x_n$ .

Call this half-interval  $[a_1, b_1]$  (; if both do, use the left-hand one)

We then have

$$\begin{aligned} [a_0, b_0] \supset [a_1, b_1], \quad \text{length}[a_1, b_1] &= \frac{d}{2} \\ [a_1, b_1] \text{ contains infinitely many } x_n \end{aligned}$$

Similarly, by dividing  $[a_1, b_1]$  in half, we get an  $[a_2, b_2]$  such that

$$\begin{aligned} [a_1, b_1] \supset [a_2, b_2], \quad \text{length}[a_2, b_2] &= \frac{d}{2^2} \\ [a_2, b_2] \text{ contains infinitely many } x_n \end{aligned}$$

Continuing, we get a sequence of nested intervals such that

$$\begin{aligned} [a_0, b_0] \supset [a_1, b_1] \supset [a_2, b_2] \supset \cdots \supset [a_n, b_n] \supset \cdots \\ \text{length}[a_n, b_n] &= \frac{d}{2^n} \\ [a_n, b_n] \text{ contains infinitely many } x_n \end{aligned}$$

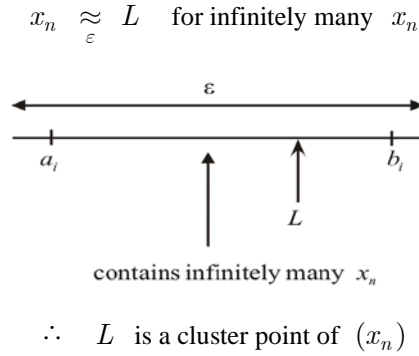
Since  $\frac{d}{2^n} \rightarrow 0$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ , by NIT

$$\exists \text{ a unique point } L \text{ such that } \bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} [a_n, b_n] = \{L\}$$

**Claim:**  $L$  is a cluster point of  $(x_n)$

Pf of claim: Given  $\varepsilon > 0$ , choose an  $i$  so that  $\text{length}[a_i, b_i] = \frac{d}{2^i} < \varepsilon$

Since  $[a_i, b_i]$  contains an infinitely many  $x_n$  &  $a_i \leq L \leq b_i$ , we get



**Summary of the pf** (without using Cluster point theorem):

$(x_n)$  is bounded  $\Rightarrow$  all  $x_n \in [a_0, b_0] =: I_0$

Bisect  $I_0$  into two equal halves.

Choose  $I_1$  to be one of the two equal halves of  $I_0$  containing infinitely many number of terms of  $x_n$ ; and take  $x_{n_1} \in I_1$ .

Choose  $I_2$  to be one of the two equal halves of  $I_1$  containing infinitely many number of terms of  $x_n$ ; and take  $x_{n_2} \in I_2$  with  $n_2 > n_1$ .

Continuing in this fashion, we obtain, for every index  $i \in \mathbb{N}$ ,

an interval  $I_i =: [a_i, b_i]$  & a point  $x_{n_i} \in I_i$  with  $n_i > n_{i-1}$  and  $I_{i-1} \supset I_i$

Note that  $\text{length}(I_i) = b_i - a_i = \frac{\ell(I_0)}{2^i} = \frac{b_0 - a_0}{2^i} \rightarrow 0$  as  $i \rightarrow \infty$ .

Thus by NIT,  $\exists$  a unique point  $L$  such that  $\bigcap_{i=1}^{\infty} I_i = \{L\}$

Notice that  $L \& x_{n_i} \in I_i$ . It follows that

$$|x_{n_i} - L| \leq b_i - a_i \rightarrow 0 \text{ as } i \rightarrow \infty$$

$\therefore \lim_{i \rightarrow \infty} x_{n_i} = L$  (i.e.,  $(x_{n_i})$  is a convergent subsequence of  $(x_n)$ )

Exa. Let  $(a_n)_{n=0}^{\infty} = \{\sin(n^2 + n + 1)\}_{n=0}^{\infty}$ ;  $(b_n)_0^{\infty} = \{e^{\sin n}\}_{n=0}^{\infty}$ .

Then it is clear that  $(a_n) \& (b_n)$  are bounded sequences.

$\therefore \xRightarrow{\text{BWT}}$  each has a convergent subsequence.



## 6.4 Cauchy sequences

Def. We say that the sequence  $(a_n)$  is a Cauchy sequence if,

$$\text{given } \varepsilon > 0, \quad a_m \underset{\varepsilon \text{ or } K\varepsilon}{\approx} a_n \quad \text{for } m, n \gg 1 \quad (\text{or for } m > n \gg 1)$$

i.e., given  $\varepsilon > 0$ ,  $\exists$  a number  $N(=N(\varepsilon))$  such that

$$a_m \underset{\varepsilon \text{ or } K\varepsilon}{\approx} a_n \quad \text{for all } m, n \geq N \quad (\text{or for all } m > n \geq N)$$

Exa.  $a_n = \frac{3n+1}{n+2}$  Show  $(a_n)$  is Cauchy.

Pf. Let  $\varepsilon > 0$  be given. Then

$$\begin{aligned} |a_m - a_n| &= \left| \frac{3m+1}{m+2} - \frac{3n+1}{n+2} \right| = \left| \frac{5(m-n)}{(m+2)(n+2)} \right| \\ &\leq \frac{5m}{(m+2)(n+2)} + \frac{5n}{(m+2)(n+2)} \\ &\leq \frac{5}{n+2} + \frac{5}{m+2} < \varepsilon/2 + \varepsilon/2 = \varepsilon \quad \text{if } n+2 > \frac{10}{\varepsilon} \quad \& \quad m+2 > \frac{10}{\varepsilon} \end{aligned}$$

Thus

$$|a_m - a_n| < \varepsilon \quad \text{if } m, n > \frac{10}{\varepsilon} - 2$$

So  $a_m \underset{\varepsilon}{\approx} a_n$  for  $m, n \gg 1 \quad \therefore (a_n)$  is Cauchy

⊙ Fact (easy):  $(a_n)$  is convergent  $\Rightarrow (a_n)$  is a Cauchy sequence

Pf. Suppose  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = L$ . Then

$$\text{given } \varepsilon > 0, \quad a_n \underset{\varepsilon}{\approx} L \quad \text{for } n \gg 1$$

So,  $a_m \underset{\varepsilon}{\approx} L$  &  $a_n \underset{\varepsilon}{\approx} L$  for  $m, n \gg 1$

Thus

$$a_m \underset{2\varepsilon}{\approx} a_n \quad \text{for } m, n \gg 1$$

$\therefore (a_n)$  is a Cauchy sequence

Question: What about the converse?

Ans is yes (Next theorem)

Theorem (The [Cauchy criterion for convergence](#))

If  $(a_n)$  is a Cauchy sequence, then  $(a_n)$  converges.

Pf. Let  $(a_n)$  be a Cauchy sequence.

1<sup>st</sup> step:  $(a_n)$  is bounded

To prove this, take  $\varepsilon = 1$ . Then by the def of Cauchy sequence  $\exists$  an  $N$  such that

$$a_n \approx_1 a_m \quad \text{for all } n, m \geq N$$

In particular,

$$a_n \approx_1 a_N \quad \text{for all } n \geq N \quad \text{i.e.,} \quad a_N - 1 < a_n < a_N + 1 \quad \text{for all } n \geq N$$

This says  $(a_n)$  is bounded for  $n \gg 1$

This gives  $(a_n)$  is bounded for all  $n$

2<sup>nd</sup> step:  $(a_n)$  has a convergent subsequence  $(a_{n_i})$

$\llbracket \because$  proved  $(a_n)$  is bounded  $(\leftarrow 1^{\text{st}} \text{ step})$

[BWT](#)

$\Rightarrow (a_n)$  has a convergent subsequence; call it  $(a_{n_i}) \rrbracket$

3<sup>rd</sup> step: Claim: Write  $L = \lim_{i \rightarrow \infty} a_{n_i}$ . Then  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = L$

To prove the Claim, let  $\varepsilon > 0$  be given.

Since  $(a_n)$  is Cauchy,  $\exists N \in \mathbb{N}$  such that

$$n, m \geq N \Rightarrow |a_n - a_m| < \varepsilon$$

Since  $L = \lim_{i \rightarrow \infty} a_{n_i}$ ,  $\exists I \in \mathbb{N}$  such that

$$i \geq I \Rightarrow |a_{n_i} - L| < \varepsilon.$$

Now take an integer  $i_0 \geq I$  so that  $n_{i_0} \geq N$ . Then

$$n \geq N \Rightarrow |a_n - L| < |a_n - a_{n_{i_0}}| + |a_{n_{i_0}} - L| < \varepsilon + \varepsilon = 2\varepsilon$$

$\therefore \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = L$  by  $K$ - $\varepsilon$  principle

Question: If a sequence  $(a_n)$  satisfies;

$$\text{given } \varepsilon > 0, \quad a_{n+1} \approx_{\varepsilon} a_n \quad \text{for } n \gg 1,$$

is  $(a_n)$  convergent?

Ans: No

For example, the sequence  $a_n = 1 + \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{3} + \dots + \frac{1}{n}$  satisfies;

$$\text{given } \varepsilon > 0, \quad |a_{n+1} - a_n| = \frac{1}{n+1} < \frac{1}{n} < \varepsilon \quad \text{if } n > \frac{1}{\varepsilon}$$

So, given  $\varepsilon > 0$ ,  $a_{n+1} \approx_{\varepsilon} a_n$  for  $n \gg 1$ .

However, we have already seen that  $(a_n)$  is divergent.

⊙ Typical examples of Cauchy sequences.

Type1.

$$|a_m - a_n| \leq c_n \text{ for every } m, n \in \mathbb{N} \text{ (or } m, n \gg 1) \quad \& \quad \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} c_n = 0$$

$\Rightarrow (a_n)$  is Cauchy

Pf.  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} c_n = 0 \Rightarrow$  given  $\varepsilon > 0$ ,  $|c_n| < \varepsilon$  for  $n \gg 1$

So  $|a_m - a_n| \leq |c_n| < \varepsilon$  for  $m, n \gg 1$

i.e., given  $\varepsilon > 0$ ,  $a_m \approx_{\varepsilon} a_n$  for  $m, n \gg 1$ .

Exa. If  $|a_m - a_n| \leq \frac{1}{m+n}$ , then show that  $(a_n)$  is Cauchy

Pf. For every  $m, n \in \mathbb{N}$ ,

$$|a_m - a_n| \leq \frac{1}{m+n} < \frac{1}{n} \quad \& \quad \frac{1}{n} \rightarrow 0$$

※Type2. Let  $(a_n)$  be a sequence.

If  $\exists$  constants  $C > 0$  and  $K$ , with  $0 < K < 1$ , such that

$$|a_{n+1} - a_n| \leq CK^n \text{ for every } n \text{ (or } n \gg 1),$$

then  $(a_n)$  is a Cauchy sequence

Pf. Let  $m > n$ . Then

$$\begin{aligned} |a_m - a_n| &\leq |a_n - a_{n+1}| + |a_{n+1} - a_{n+2}| + \cdots + |a_{m-1} - a_m| \\ &\leq CK^n + CK^{n+1} + \cdots + CK^{m-1} \\ &< CK^n (1 + K + K^2 + \cdots) = \frac{CK^n}{1-K} \equiv c_n; \quad c_n \rightarrow 0 \text{ since } 0 < K < 1 \end{aligned}$$

Thus  $(a_n)$  is a sequence of Type1

$\therefore (a_n)$  is Cauchy

Exa. If  $(a_n)$  satisfies  $|a_{n+1} - a_n| \leq (1/2)^n$  for every  $n$  (or  $n \gg 1$ ), then  $(a_n)$  is Cauchy.

Def. A sequence  $(a_n)$  is said to be **contractive** if  $\exists$  a constant  $K$  with  $0 < K < 1$ , such that

$$|a_{n+2} - a_{n+1}| \leq K |a_{n+1} - a_n| \text{ for all } n$$

Type3. If  $(a_n)$  is a contractive sequence, then  $(a_n)$  is Cauchy.

Pf. By hypo, we have for every  $n$

$$|a_{n+2} - a_{n+1}| \leq K |a_{n+1} - a_n| \leq K^2 |a_n - a_{n-1}| \leq \cdots \leq K^n |a_2 - a_1|$$

$\therefore (a_n)$  is a sequence of Type2  $\therefore (a_n)$  is Cauchy

Exa. Recall the sequence of Fibonacci fractions is defined by

$$a_1 = 1, \quad a_{n+1} = \frac{1}{a_n + 1} \text{ for } n \geq 1.$$

Using Cauchy criterion for convergence, prove that  $(a_n)$  converges, and determine its limit.

Remark. We already proved that  $(a_n)$  converges, by using an error-term analysis.

Pf. To prove  $(a_n)$  is convergent, it suffices to show  $(a_n)$  is a Cauchy sequence.

$$\begin{aligned} |a_{n+2} - a_{n+1}| &= \left| \frac{1}{a_{n+1}+1} - \frac{1}{a_n+1} \right| = \frac{|a_{n+1} - a_n|}{(a_{n+1}+1)(a_n+1)} \\ &\stackrel{?}{\leq} \frac{1}{(1/2+1)(1/2+1)} |a_{n+1} - a_n| = \frac{2}{3} \cdot \frac{2}{3} |a_{n+1} - a_n| = \frac{4}{9} |a_{n+1} - a_n| \end{aligned}$$

[[ $\therefore$

$$a_1 = 1 \Rightarrow a_2 = \frac{1}{1+a_1} = \frac{1}{2} \Rightarrow 1 \leq 1+a_2 \leq 3/2$$

$$\Rightarrow 2/3 \leq a_3 = \frac{1}{1+a_2} \leq 1$$

$$\Rightarrow 1/2 \leq a_3 \leq 1$$

Expect:  $1/2 \leq a_n \leq 1$  for all  $n$

Suppose  $1/2 \leq a_n \leq 1$  for all  $n$ . Then

$$3/2 \leq a_n + 1 \leq 2$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{1}{2} \leq \frac{1}{a_n+1} \leq \frac{2}{3}$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{1}{2} \leq \frac{1}{a_n+1} = a_{n+1} \leq 1$$

Thus by Math. Induction,  $1/2 \leq a_n \leq 1$  for all  $n$ . ]]

**Alternative easy way:** It is clear that  $a_n \leq 1$  for  $\forall n \geq 1$ ;

thus we see also that  $a_n \geq 1/2$  for  $\forall n \geq 1$  because  $a_{n+1} = \frac{1}{a_n+1}$  for  $n \geq 1$

$\therefore (a_n)$  is contractive      So  $(a_n)$  is Cauchy       $\therefore (a_n)$  is convergent

Writing  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = L$ , and taking limits on the relation  $a_{n+1} = \frac{1}{a_n+1}$  give

$$L = \frac{1}{L+1} \quad \text{i.e., } L^2 + L - 1 = 0 \quad \therefore L = \frac{-1 + \sqrt{5}}{2} \quad (\because L > 0)$$

Remark. Another way of expecting that  $1/2 \leq a_n \leq 1$  for all  $n$ :

$$\text{Draw the graph } y = \frac{1}{x+1}$$

Exa. Assume  $x_0 = a$ ,  $x_1 = b$  with  $0 < a < b$  &

$$x_{n+1} = \frac{x_n + 3x_{n-1}}{4} \quad \text{for } n \geq 1$$

Show that  $(x_n)$  converges, and determine its limit.

$$\text{Sol. } x_{n+1} = \frac{4x_n - 3x_n + 3x_{n-1}}{4}$$

$$\therefore x_{n+1} - x_n = -\frac{3}{4}(x_n - x_{n-1})$$

$$\therefore |x_{n+1} - x_n| = \frac{3}{4} |x_n - x_{n-1}|$$

$\therefore (x_n)$  is a contractive sequence. So  $(x_n)$  is convergent.

Writing  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} x_n = L$ , and taking limits on both sides of the given relation  $x_{n+1} = \frac{x_n + 3x_{n-1}}{4}$  give

$$L = \frac{L + 3L}{4} \quad \text{i.e., } L = L \quad (\text{give no conclusion})$$

Thus we need new idea.

$$\text{Back to the relation: } x_{n+1} - x_n = -\frac{3}{4}(x_n - x_{n-1})$$

From this, we get

$$x_2 - x_1 = -\frac{3}{4}(x_1 - x_0) = -\frac{3}{4}(b - a)$$

$$x_3 - x_2 = -\frac{3}{4}(x_2 - x_1) = \left(-\frac{3}{4}\right)^2 (x_1 - x_0) = \left(-\frac{3}{4}\right)^2 (b - a)$$

$\vdots$

$$\boxed{x_n - x_{n-1} = \left(-\frac{3}{4}\right)^{n-1} (b - a)}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \therefore x_n &= x_1 + (b - a) \left[ -\frac{3}{4} + \left(-\frac{3}{4}\right)^2 + \cdots + \left(-\frac{3}{4}\right)^{n-1} \right] \\ &= b + (b - a) \frac{-\frac{3}{4} \left( 1 - \left(-\frac{3}{4}\right)^{n-1} \right)}{1 + \frac{3}{4}} \rightarrow b + (b - a) \frac{-\frac{3}{4}}{\frac{7}{4}} = \frac{3}{7}a + \frac{4}{7}b \end{aligned}$$

Def. A function  $f: \overset{\text{an interval}}{\widehat{I}} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is said to be contractive if  $\exists$  a constant  $K > 0$ , with  $0 < K < 1$ , such that

$$|f(x) - f(y)| \leq K|x - y| \quad \text{for all } x, y \in I$$

Exa. Suppose  $f: I \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is a contractive function on  $I$ , and define

$$a_{n+1} = f(a_n) \quad \text{for } n \geq 1.$$

Then show that  $(a_n)$  is a Cauchy sequence.

Pf.  $|a_{n+2} - a_{n+1}| = |f(a_{n+1}) - f(a_n)| \leq K|a_{n+1} - a_n|$  (for some  $0 < K < 1$ )  $\forall n \geq 1$

$\therefore (a_n)$  is contractive So  $(a_n)$  is a Cauchy sequence.

Ex. Let  $f: I \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  be differentiable on  $I$ .

If  $\exists$  a constant  $K > 0$ , with  $0 < K < 1$ , such that

$$|f'(x)| \leq K \quad \text{for all } x \in I,$$

then show that  $f$  is contractive

Pf.  $x, y \in I \Rightarrow f(x) - f(y) \stackrel{\text{MVT}}{=} f'(c)(x - y)$  for some  $c \in (x, y)$  or  $c \in (y, x)$

$$\therefore |f(x) - f(y)| \stackrel{\text{MVT}}{=} |f'(c)||x - y| \leq K|x - y| \quad \text{for all } x, y \in I$$

## 6.5 The Completeness Property for sets

So far we discussed the “Completeness Property for sequences of numbers”.

We now discuss the “Completeness Property for a set of numbers”

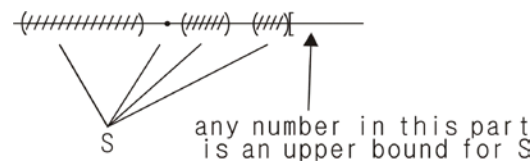
\* a sequence of numbers : (a countable set)  $\therefore$  the numbers are **ordered in a list**

\* a set of numbers (for example, the set of irrational numbers): an **unordered** collection

Def. Let  $S$  be a set of real numbers (i.e.,  $S \subset \mathbb{R}$ ).

If a number  $b$  has the property that  $x \leq b$  for all  $x \in S$ , then  $b$  is called an *upper bound* for  $S$ .

A set  $S$  is said to be *bounded above* if  $S$  has an upper bound.



A number  $m$  is called the maximum of  $S$  if

- (i)  $m$  is an upper bound for  $S$ , and (ii)  $m \in S$   
(i.e.,  $x \leq m$  for every  $x \in S$ , and  $m \in S$ )

Notation:  $m = \max S$

Ex.  $S = [0,1]$ : bounded above (by 1) &  $\max S = 1$

Ex.  $S = (0,1)$ : bounded above (by 1), but it has no maximum

( $\because$  if  $m$  is an upper bound for  $S$ , then  $m \geq 1$ . But such  $m \notin S$ )

Def. Let  $S \subset \mathbb{R}$ . The supremum of  $S$  is a number  $\bar{m}$  satisfying:

**sup-1:**  $\bar{m}$  is an upper bound for  $S$  (i.e.,  $x \leq \bar{m}$  for all  $x \in S$ )

**sup-2:**  $\bar{m} \leq$  any upper bound of  $S$  (i.e.,  $\bar{m}$  is the least upper bound for  $S$ )

i.e.,  $x \leq b$  for all  $x \in S \Rightarrow \bar{m} \leq b$

(In other words,  $b$  is any upper bound for  $S \Rightarrow \bar{m} \leq b$ )

Equivalently(대우), if  $b < \bar{m}$ , then  $b$  is not an upper bound for  $S$

That is,  $b < \bar{m} \Rightarrow \exists x \in S$  such that  $b < x$

Or, for any  $\varepsilon > 0$ ,  $\exists x \in S$  such that  $\bar{m} - \varepsilon < x \leq \bar{m}$



Notation:  $\bar{m} = \sup S$  ( $\leftarrow$  supremum: Latin language) =  $\text{lub } S$  ( $\leftarrow$  least upper bound)

**Caution:**  $\sup S \in S$  is false in general [즉, 일반적으로  $\sup S \in S$  라는 보장은 없음]

◎ Simple fact:  $\sup S$  is unique, if it exists

Pf. Let  $\bar{m}_1 = \sup S$  and  $\bar{m}_2 = \sup S$

Since  $\bar{m}_1$  is an upper bound for  $S$  &  $\bar{m}_2$  is a least upper bound for  $S$ ,

$$\bar{m}_2 \leq \bar{m}_1$$

Interchanging the role of  $\bar{m}_1$  and  $\bar{m}_2$ , we have

$$\bar{m}_1 \leq \bar{m}_2$$

$$\therefore \bar{m}_1 = \bar{m}_2$$

Exa.  $S = \left\{1 - \frac{1}{n} : n = 1, 2, 3, \dots\right\}$  Find  $\sup S$  and  $\max S$

Sol. Any  $b \geq 1$  is an upper bound.

If  $b < 1$ , then  $1 - b > 0$

Thus by AP,  $\exists$  a natural number  $n_0$  such that  $\frac{1}{n_0} < 1 - b$

That is,  $b < 1 - \frac{1}{n_0}$  (&  $\text{RHS} \in S$ )

So  $b$  is not an upper bound for  $S$

$$\therefore \sup S = 1$$

Since any upper bound of  $S$  *can not* belong to  $S$ ,  $\max S$  does not exist.

Exa.  $S = \left\{1 + \frac{1}{n} : n = 1, 2, 3, \dots\right\}$  Find  $\sup S$  and  $\max S$

Sol. Any  $b \geq 2$  is an upper bound.

If  $b < 2$ ,  $b$  is not an upper bound for  $S$

$$\therefore \sup S = 2$$

Since  $2 \in S$ ,  $\max S = 2$

### Proposition

If  $\max S$  exists, then  $\sup S$  exists and  $\sup S = \max S$

Pf. Let  $m = \max S$ . Then by the def of maximum

$$m \in S \text{ and } x \leq m \text{ for all } x \in S$$

So  $m$  is an upper bound for  $S$  --- (i)

On the other hand,

$$\text{if } x \leq b \text{ for all } x \in S, \text{ then } m \leq b \text{ (since } m \in S \text{)} \text{ --- (ii)}$$

From (i) and (ii), we conclude that  $m = \sup S$  (that is,  $\max S = \sup S$ )

### ※ Theorem (Completeness Property for sets)

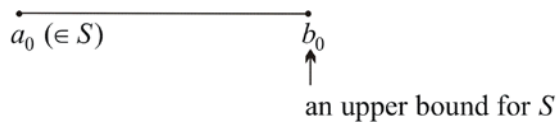
If  $S(\subset \mathbb{R}) \neq \emptyset$  and bounded above, then  $\sup S$  exists.

(that is, **if a nonempty set in  $\mathbb{R}$  has an upper bound, it has a least upper bound**)

Pf. Let  $b_0$  be an upper bound for  $S$

We can choose  $a_0 \in S$  since  $S \neq \emptyset$

$$\therefore a_0 \leq b_0$$



Bisect the interval  $[a_0, b_0]$  with its midpoint  $c \left( = \frac{a_0 + b_0}{2} \right)$ .

Choose the half-interval  $[a_0, c]$  if  $c$  is an upper bound for  $S$ .

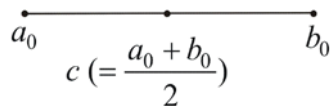
Otherwise, choose  $[c, b_0]$ . Call this half-interval  $[a_1, b_1]$ . Then

$b_1$  (= the right endpoint) is an upper bound for  $S$

&

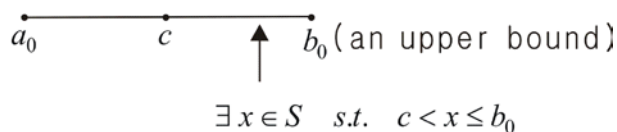
$[a_1, b_1]$  contains a point of  $S$ .

□. If  $c \left( = \frac{a_0 + b_0}{2} \right)$  is an upper bound for  $S$ , then



$[a_0, c]$  contains  $a_0$  &  $a_0 \in S$ .

Otherwise (i.e., if  $c$  is not an upper bound for  $S$ ), we have



$\therefore [c, b_0]$  contains  $x$  &  $x \in S$  □



Repeat this halving process with  $[a_1, b_1]$  and continue. Then

we can get a sequence of nested intervals

$$[a_0, b_0] \supset [a_1, b_1] \supset [a_2, b_2] \supset \cdots \supset [a_n, b_n] \supset \cdots$$

such that

$b_n$  is an upper bound for  $S$  &  $[a_n, b_n]$  contains a point of  $S$ , and also

$$\text{length } [a_n, b_n] \rightarrow 0$$

By NIT,  $\exists \bar{m} \in \bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} [a_n, b_n]$  with  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = \bar{m}$  &  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} b_n = \bar{m}$  (notice that  $b_n \downarrow \bar{m}$ )

We now show that  $\bar{m} = \sup S$  (it is expected from the fact that  $b_n \downarrow \bar{m}$ )

(i) **sup-1:**  $\bar{m}$  is an upper bound for  $S$

$\left[ \because x \in S \Rightarrow x \leq b_n \text{ for all } n, \text{ since each } b_n \text{ is an upper bound for } S \right.$

$$\Rightarrow x \leq \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} b_n = \bar{m}, \text{ by LLT}$$

$\therefore \bar{m}$  is an upper bound for  $S$   $\_$

(ii) **sup-2:**  $\bar{m} \leq$  any upper bound of  $S$

$\left[ \because \text{Let } x \leq b \text{ for all } x \in S \text{ (i.e., let } b \text{ be an upper bound for } S) \right.$

$\Rightarrow a_n \leq b \text{ for all } n, \text{ since each } [a_n, b_n] \text{ contains a point of } S$

(that is,  $a_n \leq x_n$  for some  $x_n \in S$ )

$$\Rightarrow \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n (= \bar{m}) \leq b, \text{ by LLT } \_$$

Exa. Let  $S = \{r : r \text{ is an irrational number s.t. } r < 1\}$ .  $\sup S = ?$

Sol. Any  $b \geq 1$  is an upper bound.

If  $b < 1$ , then (by the density of rational numbers)

$$\exists \text{ a rational number } \frac{m}{n} \text{ such that } b < \frac{m}{n} < 1$$

We can choose a sufficiently small  $\varepsilon > 0$  so that

$$b < \frac{m}{n} < \underbrace{\varepsilon\sqrt{2} + \frac{m}{n}}_{\text{irrational number}} < 1;$$

which shows any  $b$  ( $b < 1$ ) is not an upper bound for the set  $S$ .

Therefore,  $\sup S = 1$ .

Ex. Let  $S = \{r : r \text{ is a rational number s.t. } r < 1\}$ . Determine  $\sup S$ .

Ex. Let  $S = \{r : r \text{ is a rational number s.t. } r < \sqrt{2}\}$ . Determine  $\sup S$

**Theorem** (easy to expect) [Remember the conclusion]

(i)  $(a_n)$  is  $\uparrow$  & bounded above  $\Rightarrow \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n$  exists &  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = \sup\{a_n : n \in N\}$

(ii)  $(a_n)$  is  $\downarrow$  & bounded below  $\Rightarrow \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n$  exists &  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = \inf\{a_n : n \in N\}$

Pf. (i)  $S = \{a_n : n \in N\}$

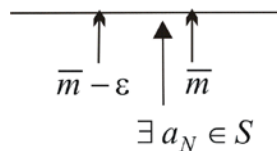
$\Rightarrow S \neq \emptyset$  and bdd above

Completeness Property  $\Rightarrow \sup S (= \bar{m})$  exists

Suffices to show:  $\bar{m} = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n$

For this, let  $\varepsilon > 0$  be given. Then

$\stackrel{\text{sup-(2)}}{\Rightarrow} \exists a_N \in S \text{ s.t. } \bar{m} - \varepsilon < a_N \leq \bar{m}$



Since  $(a_n)$  is  $\uparrow$ , it follows that

$\bar{m} - \varepsilon < a_N \leq a_n \leq \bar{m}$  for every  $n \geq N$

$\Downarrow$  (clearly)

$\bar{m} - \varepsilon < a_n < \bar{m} + \varepsilon$  for every  $n \geq N$

i.e.,  $a_n \approx_{\varepsilon} \bar{m}$  for every  $n \geq N$

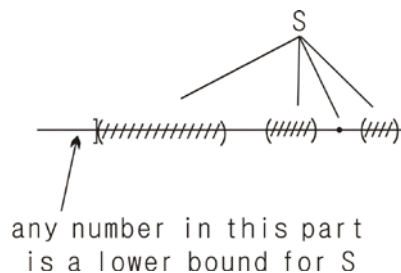
$\therefore \bar{m} = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n$

(ii) The proof is similar to that of (i)

Def. Let  $S \subset \mathbb{R}$ . If a number  $b$  has the property that  $x \geq b$  for all  $x \in S$ , then

$b$  is called a *lower bound* for  $S$ .

A set  $S$  is said to be *bounded below* if  $S$  has a lower bound.



A number  $m$  is called the minimum of  $S$  if

- (i)  $m$  is a lower bound for  $S$ , and (ii)  $m \in S$   
 (i.e.,  $x \geq m$  for every  $x \in S$ , and  $m \in S$ )

Notation:  $m = \min S$

Def. Let  $S \subset \mathbb{R}$ . The infimum of  $S$  is a number  $\underline{m}$  satisfying:

**inf-1:**  $\underline{m}$  is a lower bound for  $S$  (i.e.,  $x \geq \underline{m}$  for all  $x \in S$ )

**inf-2:**  $\underline{m} \geq$  any lower bound of  $S$  (i.e.,  $\underline{m}$  is the greatest lower bound for  $S$ )

$$\text{i.e., } x \geq b \text{ for all } x \in S \Rightarrow \underline{m} \geq b$$

(In other words,  $b$  is any lower bound for  $S \Rightarrow \underline{m} \geq b$ )

Equivalently(대우), if  $b > \underline{m}$ , then  $b$  is not a lower bound for  $S$

That is,  $b > \underline{m} \Rightarrow \exists x \in S \text{ such that } x < b$

Or,  $\text{for any } \varepsilon > 0, \exists x \in S \text{ such that } \underline{m} \leq x < \underline{m} + \varepsilon$



Notation:  $\underline{m} = \inf S$  ( $\leftarrow$  infimum) =  $\text{glb } S$  ( $\leftarrow$  greatest lower bound)

$$\text{Ex. } S = \left\{ 1 - \frac{1}{n} : n = 1, 2, 3, \dots \right\} \Rightarrow \inf S = 0 \text{ and } \min S = 0$$

$$\text{Ex. } S = \left\{ 1 + \frac{1}{n} : n = 1, 2, 3, \dots \right\} \Rightarrow \inf S = 1 \text{ and } \min S \text{ does not exist}$$

### Proposition

If  $\min S$  exists, then  $\inf S$  exists and  $\inf S = \min S$

Pf. Exercise

### Theorem

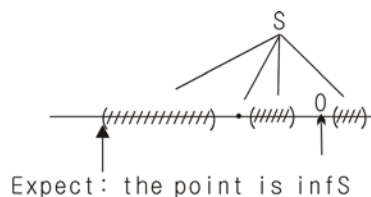
If  $S(\subset \mathbb{R}) \neq \emptyset$  and bounded below, then  $\inf S$  exists.

Pf.

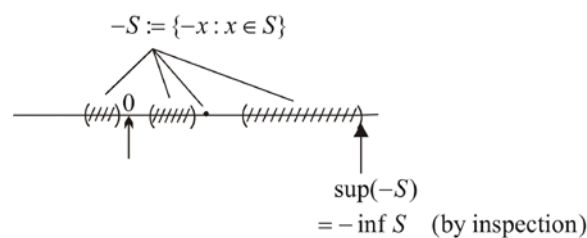
M1. This can be proved by using the same argument seen before

M2. Let  $S (\neq \emptyset)$  be bounded below. Then

$\exists$  a number  $b$  s.t.  $x \geq b \quad \forall x \in S$  --- (\*)



How can we prove the existence of  $\inf S$



(\*)  $\Leftrightarrow \exists$  a number  $b$  s.t.  $-x \leq -b \quad \forall x \in S$

$\therefore -S \neq \emptyset$  and it is bounded above by  $-b$

Completeness Property  
 $\Rightarrow \sup(-S)$  exists

We shall show:  $\sup(-S) = -\inf S$

(If this is proved,  $\inf S = -\sup(-S)$ , so that  $\inf S$  exists)

$\therefore \sup(-S) \stackrel{\text{let}}{=} \alpha$ . Then

- (i)  $\alpha$  is an upper bound for  $-S$   
 (i.e.,  $-x \leq \alpha$  for any  $x \in S$ )
- (ii) if  $b$  is an upper bound for  $-S$ , then  $\alpha \leq b$   
 (i.e.,  $-x \leq b$  for any  $x \in S \Rightarrow \alpha \leq b$ )

Note that

- (i)  $\Leftrightarrow x \geq -\alpha$  for any  $x \in S$   
 (i.e.,  $-\alpha$  is a lower bound for  $S$ )
- (ii)  $\Leftrightarrow$  if  $x \geq -b$  for any  $x \in S$ , then  $-\alpha \geq -b$   
 (i.e.,  $-\alpha \geq$  any lower bound of  $S$ )

Therefore

$$-\alpha = \inf S$$

i.e.,  $(\sup(-S) =) \alpha = -\inf S \quad \square$

Ex. Let  $S = \{r : r \text{ is a rational number s.t. } r > \sqrt{2}\}$ . Determine  $\inf S$