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Mathematics and Statistics

$$\int_{M} d\omega = \int_{\partial M} \omega$$

Mathematics 3A03 Real Analysis I

Instructor: David Earn

Lecture 6 Sequences Friday 13 September 2019

Poll

■ Go to https:

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- Click on Math 3A03
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- Fill in poll Lecture 6: Sequence convergence

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- Assignment 1 is due via crowdmark 5 minutes before class on Monday.
- Consider writing the Putnam competition.

- A *sequence* is a list that goes on forever.
- There is a beginning (a "first term") but no end, e.g.,

$$\frac{1}{1}, \ \frac{1}{2}, \ \frac{1}{3}, \ \frac{1}{4}, \ \dots, \ \frac{1}{n}, \ \dots$$

■ We use the natural numbers N to label the terms of a sequence:

$$a_1, a_2, a_3, \ldots, a_n, \ldots$$

Formal definition of a sequence

Definition (Sequence of Real Numbers)

A sequence of real numbers is a function

 $f:\mathbb{N}\to\mathbb{R}$.

A lot of different notation is common for sequences:

$f(1), f(2), f(3), \ldots$	$\{f(n)\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$
f_1, f_2, f_3, \ldots	${f(n)}$
$\{f(n): n = 1, 2, 3, \ldots\}$	$\{f_n\}_{n=1}^\infty$
$\{f(n):n\in\mathbb{N}\}$	$\{f_n\}$

There are two main ways to specify a sequence:

1. Direct formula.

Specify f(n) for each $n \in \mathbb{N}$.

Example (arithmetic progression with common difference d)

Sequence is:

$$c, c + d, c + 2d, c + 3d, ...$$

∴ $f(n) = c + (n - 1)d, n \in \mathbb{N}$
i.e., $x_n = c + (n - 1)d, n = 1, 2, 3, ...$

Specifying sequences

Specifying sequences

2. Recursive formula.

Specify first term and function f(x) to *iterate*.

i.e., Given x_1 and f(x), we have $x_n = f(x_{n-1})$ for all n > 1.

$$x_2 = f(x_1), \quad x_3 = f(f(x_1)), \quad x_4 = f(f(f(x_1))), \quad \dots$$

Example (arithmetic progression with common difference d)

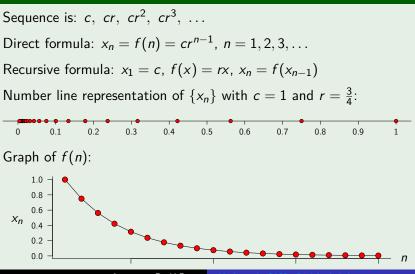
$$x_1 = c, \quad f(x) = x + d$$

$$\therefore x_n = x_{n-1} + d, \qquad n = 2, 3, 4, \dots$$

<u>Note</u>: f is the most typical function name for both the direct and recursive specifications. The correct interpretation of f should be clear from context.

Specifying sequences

Example (geometric progression with common ratio r)



Specifying sequences

Example $(f(n) = 1 + \frac{1}{n^2})$

Sequence is: 2, $\frac{5}{4}$, $\frac{10}{9}$, $\frac{17}{16}$, ... Direct formula: $x_n = f(n) = 1 + \frac{1}{n^2}, n = 1, 2, 3, ...$ Recursive formula: $x_1 = 2$, $f(x) = 1 + [1 + (x - 1)^{-1/2}]^{-2}$ Get this formula by solving for n in terms of x in $x = 1 + 1/(n-1)^2$ (= x_{n-1}). Such an inversion will NOT always be possible. Number line representation of $\{x_n\}$: 1.1 1.2 13 1.4 1.5 1.6 1.7 1.8 1.9 2 Graph of f(n): 2.0 Xn 1.4 -1.2 10 n 5 10 15 20 Instructor: David Earn

We know from previous experience that:

•
$$cr^{n-1} \to 0$$
 as $n \to \infty$ (if $|r| < 1$).

•
$$1+\frac{1}{n^2} \to 1$$
 as $n \to \infty$.

How do we make our intuitive notion of *convergence mathematically rigorous*?

<u>Informal definition</u>: " $x_n \to L$ as $n \to \infty$ " means "we can make the difference between x_n and L as small as we like by choosing n big enough".

<u>More careful informal definition</u>: " $x_n \to L$ as $n \to \infty$ " means "given any *error tolerance*, say ε , we can make the distance between x_n and L smaller than ε by choosing n big enough".

Definition (Limit of a sequence)

A sequence $\{s_n\}$ converges to L if, given any $\varepsilon > 0$ there is some integer N such that

 $\text{if } n \geq N \qquad \text{then} \qquad |s_n - L| < \varepsilon \,.$

In this case, we write $\lim_{n\to\infty} s_n = L$ or $s_n \to L$ as $n \to \infty$ and we say that L is the *limit* of the sequence $\{s_n\}$.

<u>Note</u>: To use this definition to prove that the limit of a sequence is L, we start by imagining that we are given some error tolerance $\varepsilon > 0$. Then we have to find a suitable N, which will depend on ε . This means that the N that we find will be a function of ε .

Shorthand:

 $\lim_{n\to\infty} s_n = L \quad \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \quad \forall \varepsilon > 0 \quad \exists N \in \mathbb{N} \quad \} \quad n \ge N \implies |s_n - L| < \varepsilon.$

Convergence terminology:

- A sequence that converges is said to be *convergent*.
- A sequence that is <u>not convergent</u> is said to be *divergent*.

Remark (Sequences in spaces other than \mathbb{R})

The formal definition of a limit of a sequence works in any space where we have a notion of distance if we replace $|s_n - L|$ with $d(s_n, L)$.

Example

Use the formal definition of a limit of a sequence to prove that

$$rac{n^2+1}{n^2} o 1$$
 as $n o \infty$.

(solution on board)

<u>Note</u>: Our strategy here was to solve for n in the inequality $|s_n - L| < \varepsilon$. From this we were able to infer how big N has to be in order to ensure that $|s_n - L| < \varepsilon$ for all $n \ge N$. That much was "rough work". Only after this rough work did we have enough information to be able to write down a rigorous proof.

Example

Use the formal definition of a limit of a sequence to prove that

$$rac{n^5-n^3+1}{n^8-n^5+n+1} o 0 \quad ext{as} \quad n o \infty \,.$$

(solution on board)

<u>Note</u>: In this example, it was not possible to solve for *n* in the inequality $|s_n - L| < \varepsilon$. Instead, we first needed to bound $|s_n - L|$ by a much simpler expression that is always greater than $|s_n - L|$. If that bound is less than ε then so is $|s_n - L|$.



Mathematics and Statistics

$$\int_{M} d\omega = \int_{\partial M} \omega$$

Mathematics 3A03 Real Analysis I

Instructor: David Earn

Lecture 7 Sequences II Tuesday 17 September 2019 Go to https:

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- Click on Math 3A03
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Announcements

- If you are interested in becoming a volunteer notetaker to support students with disabilities, please go to https://sas.mcmaster.ca/volunteer-notetaking/.
- Solutions to Assignment 1 will be posted soon. Study them!
- Assignment 2 will be posted soon. Due in two weeks.
- No late submission of assignments. No exceptions. However, best 5 of 6 assignments will be counted. Always due 5 minutes before class on the due date.
- Note as stated on course info sheet: Only a selection of problems on each assignment will be marked; your grade on each assignment will be based only on the problems selected for marking. Problems to be marked will be selected after the due date.

Announcements continued...

Remember that solutions to assignments and tests from previous years are available on the course web site. Take advantage of these problems and solutions. They provide many useful examples that should help you prepare for tests and the final exam. (However, note that while most of the content of the course is the same this year, there are some differences.)

Theorem (Uniqueness of limits)

If
$$\lim_{n\to\infty} s_n = L_1$$
 and $\lim_{n\to\infty} s_n = L_2$ then $L_1 = L_2$.

(solution on board)

So, we are justified in referring to "the" limit of a convergent sequence.

Divergence of sequences

Divergence is the logical opposite (negation) of convergence. We can infer the formal meaning of divergence by taking the *logical negation* of the formal definition of convergence. Doing so, we find that the sequence $\{s_n\}$ diverges (*i.e.*, does not converge to any $L \in \mathbb{R}$) iff

 $\forall L \in \mathbb{R}, \exists \varepsilon > 0 \text{ such that: } \forall N \in \mathbb{N} \exists n > N + |s_n - L| > \varepsilon.$

Notes:

- The *n* that exists will, in general, depend on L, ε and N.
- This is the meaning of not converging to any limit, but it does not tell us anything about what happens to the sequence $\{s_n\}$ as $n \to \infty$.

Divergence to $\pm\infty$

Definition (Divergence to ∞)

The sequence $\{s_n\}$ of real numbers *diverges to* ∞ if, for every real number *M* there is an integer *N* such that

$$n \ge N \implies s_n \ge M$$
,

 $\text{ in which case we write } s_n \to \infty \ \text{ as } n \to \infty \ \text{ or } \ \lim_{n \to \infty} s_n = \infty.$

Definition (Divergence to $-\infty$)

The sequence $\{s_n\}$ of real numbers *diverges to* $-\infty$ if, for every real number *M* there is an integer *N* such that

$$n \geq N \implies s_n \leq M$$
.

Example

Use the formal definition to prove that

$$\left\{rac{n^3-1}{n+1}
ight\}$$
 diverges to ∞ .

(solution on board)

<u>Approach</u>: Find a lower bound for the sequence that is a simple function of n and show that that can be made bigger than any given M.

Example (from previous slide)
Use the formal definition to prove that
$$\left\{\frac{n^3-1}{n+1}\right\}$$
 diverges to ∞ .

Clean proof.

Given $M \in \mathbb{R}^{>0}$, let $N = \lceil M \rceil + 1$. Then $N - 1 = \lceil M \rceil \ge M$. $\therefore \forall n \ge N, n - 1 \ge M$. Now observe that

$$\forall n \in \mathbb{N}, \quad n-1 = \frac{(n-1)(n+1)}{n+1} = \frac{n^2-1}{n+1} \le \frac{n^3-1}{n+1}.$$

 $\therefore \forall n \ge N$ we have

$$\frac{n^3-1}{n+1}\geq M\,,$$

as required.

Sequences of partial sums (a.k.a. Series)

Given a sequence $\{x_n\}$, we define the sequence of partial sums of $\{x_n\}$ to be $\{s_n\}$, where

$$s_n = \sum_{k=1}^n x_k = x_1 + x_2 + \dots + x_n$$
.

Note: We can start from any integer, not necessarily k = 1.

Boundedness of sequences

A sequence is said to be bounded if its range is a bounded set.

Definition (Bounded sequence)

A sequence $\{s_n\}$ is **bounded** if there is a real number M such that every term in the sequence satisfies $|s_n| \le M$.

Theorem (Every convergent sequence is bounded.)

$$L \in \mathbb{R} \land \lim_{n \to \infty} s_n = L \implies \exists M > 0 \Rightarrow |s_n| \le M \ \forall n \in \mathbb{N}.$$

(solution on board)

<u>Note</u>: The converse is FALSE. Proof? Find a counterexample, *e.g.*, $\{(-1)^n\}$.



Mathematics and Statistics

$$\int_{M} d\omega = \int_{\partial M} \omega$$

Mathematics 3A03 Real Analysis I

Instructor: David Earn

Lecture 8 Sequences III Thursday 19 September 2019

What we've done so far on sequences

- Definition of convergence.
- Definition of divergence.
- Definition of divergence to $\pm\infty$.
- Series: sequence of partial sums.
- Bounded sequences.
- Examples.

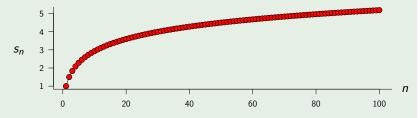
Boundedness of sequences

Corollary (Unbounded sequences diverge)

If $\{s_n\}$ is unbounded then $\{s_n\}$ diverges.

Example (The harmonic series diverges)

Consider the *harmonic series* $s_n = 1 + \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{3} + \cdots + \frac{1}{n}$.



Prove that s_n diverges to ∞ .

(solution on board)

Harmonic series - idea for proof of divergence

<u>Approach</u>: Group terms and use the corollary above.

<u>Note</u>: These sorts calculations are just "rough work", not a formal proof. A proof must be a clearly presented coherent argument from beginning to end.

Harmonic series – clean proof of divergence

Proof.

Part (i). Prove (e.g., by induction) that $s_{2^n} > n/2 \quad \forall n \in \mathbb{N}$.

Part (ii). Suppose we are given $M \in \mathbb{R}$.

- If $M \leq 0$ then note that $s_n > 0 \ \forall n \in \mathbb{N}$.
- If M > 0, let $\widetilde{N} = 2 \lceil M \rceil$ and $N = 2^{\widetilde{N}}$. Then, $\forall n \ge N$, we have $s_n \ge s_N = s_{\widetilde{N}} > \widetilde{N}/2 = \lceil M \rceil \ge M$, as required.

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- Click on Take Class Poll
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Algebra of limits

Theorem (Algebraic operations on limits)

Suppose $\{s_n\}$ and $\{t_n\}$ are convergent sequences and $C \in \mathbb{R}$.

$$\lim_{n\to\infty} C s_n = C(\lim_{n\to\infty} s_n) ;$$

$$\lim_{n\to\infty}(s_n+t_n)=(\lim_{n\to\infty}s_n)+(\lim_{n\to\infty}t_n);$$

$$\lim_{n\to\infty}(s_n-t_n)=(\lim_{n\to\infty}s_n)-(\lim_{n\to\infty}t_n);$$

$$4 \lim_{n\to\infty} (s_n t_n) = (\lim_{n\to\infty} s_n) (\lim_{n\to\infty} t_n) ;$$

5 if
$$t_n \neq 0$$
 for all n and $\lim_{n \to \infty} t_n \neq 0$ then

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} \left(\frac{s_n}{t_n}\right) = \frac{\lim_{n \to \infty} s_n}{\lim_{n \to \infty} t_n} .$$

(solution on board)

Example (previously proved directly from definition)

Use the algebraic properties of limits to prove that

$$rac{n^5-n^3+1}{n^8-n^5+n+1}
ightarrow 0$$
 as $n
ightarrow\infty$.

(solution on board)



Mathematics and Statistics

$$\int_{M} d\omega = \int_{\partial M} \omega$$

Mathematics 3A03 Real Analysis I

Instructor: David Earn

Lecture 9 Sequences IV Friday 20 September 2019

Assignment 2 is posted. Due 1 Oct 2019, at 2:25pm.

What we've done so far on sequences

- Definition of convergence.
- Definition of divergence.
- Definition of divergence to $\pm\infty$.
- Examples.
- Every convergent sequence is bounded.
- Harmonic series diverges.
- Algebra of limits (more today).

Product Rule for Limits

The 4th item in the algebra of limits theorem was:

Theorem (Product Rule for Limits)

If $s_n \to S$ and $t_n \to T$ as $n \to \infty$ then $s_n t_n \to ST$ as $n \to \infty$.

Proof.

For any
$$n \in \mathbb{N}$$
, $|s_n t_n - ST| = |s_n t_n - ST + s_n T - s_n T|$
 $= |s_n(t_n - T) + T(s_n - S)|$
 $\leq |s_n||t_n - T| + |T||s_n - S|$

Now, $\{s_n\}$ converges, so it is bounded by some M > 0, *i.e.*, $|s_n| \le M \ \forall n \in \mathbb{N}$. Therefore, given $\varepsilon > 0$, choose $N \in \mathbb{N}$ such that

$$|t_n - T| < \frac{\varepsilon}{2M}$$
 and $|s_n - S| < \frac{\varepsilon}{2(1 + |T|)}$

Then $|s_n t_n - ST| < \varepsilon/2 + \varepsilon/2 = \varepsilon$, as required.

Quotient Rule for Limits

Quotient Rule was the 5th item in the algebra of limits theorem.

Lemma (Reciprocal Rule for Limits)

If $t_n \neq 0 \ \forall n \text{ and } t_n \rightarrow T \neq 0 \text{ then } 1/t_n \rightarrow 1/T$.

Proof.

For any $n \in \mathbb{N}$, $\left|\frac{1}{t_n} - \frac{1}{T}\right| = \left|\frac{t_n - T}{t_n T}\right| = |t_n - T| \cdot \frac{1}{|t_n|} \cdot \frac{1}{|T|}$. Since $\{t_n\}$ converges, $\exists N_1 \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $\forall n \ge N_1$, $|t_n| > |T|/2$ (details on next slide) and hence $1/|t_n| < 2/|T|$. Now choose $N \ge N_1$ such that $|t_n - T| < \varepsilon |T|^2/2$. Then

$$\left|\frac{1}{t_n}-\frac{1}{T}\right|=|t_n-T|\cdot\frac{1}{|t_n|}\cdot\frac{1}{|T|}<\frac{\varepsilon|T|^2}{2}\cdot\frac{2}{|T|}\cdot\frac{1}{|T|}=\varepsilon\,,$$

as required.

Quotient Rule for Limits

Details missing on previous slide: (consider $\varepsilon = \frac{|I|}{2}$) Since $t_n \to T$, $\exists N_1 \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $\forall n \ge N_1$, $|t_n - T| < \frac{|T|}{2}$,

i.e.,
$$-\frac{|T|}{2} < t_n - T < \frac{|T|}{2}$$
, i.e., $T - \frac{|T|}{2} < t_n < T + \frac{|T|}{2}$.

If T > 0 this says $0 < rac{T}{2} < t_n < rac{3T}{2} \,,$

whereas if T < 0 it says

$$\frac{3T}{2} < t_n < \frac{T}{2} < 0.$$

In either case, $\forall n \geq N_1$, we have

$$ve \quad 0 < \frac{1}{2} < |t_n|.$$

|T|

Theorem (Limits retain order)

If $\{s_n\}$ and $\{t_n\}$ are convergent sequences then

$$s_n \leq t_n \quad \forall n \in \mathbb{N} \implies \lim_{n \to \infty} s_n \leq \lim_{n \to \infty} t_n$$
.

Proof.

Given $\varepsilon > 0$, choose $N \in \mathbb{N}$ + $|s_n - S| < \frac{\varepsilon}{2}$ and $|t_n - T| < \frac{\varepsilon}{2}$. Then

$$S - T = S - T + s_n - s_n + t_n - t_n$$

= $(S - s_n) + (t_n - T) + s_n - t_n$
 $\leq (S - s_n) + (t_n - T)$ (:: $s_n - t_n \leq 0$)
 $< \frac{\varepsilon}{2} + \frac{\varepsilon}{2} = \varepsilon$

Hence $S - T \leq 0$, *i.e.*, $S \leq T$.

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<u>*Question:*</u> If $s_n < t_n$ for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$, can we conclude that

 $\lim_{n\to\infty}s_n<\lim_{n\to\infty}t_n$?

No! No! No! No! No! No! NO!!!!!!!!!

Theorem (Limits retain bounds)

If $\{s_n\}$ is a convergent sequence then

$$\alpha \leq \mathbf{s}_{\mathbf{n}} \leq \beta \quad \forall \mathbf{n} \in \mathbb{N} \quad \Longrightarrow \quad \alpha \leq \lim_{\mathbf{n} \to \infty} \mathbf{s}_{\mathbf{n}} \leq \beta \,.$$

Proof.

Apply previous theorem with $\alpha_n = \alpha \ \forall n \text{ and } \beta_n = \beta \ \forall n$.

Theorem (Squeeze Theorem)

If $\{s_n\}$ and $\{t_n\}$ are convergent sequences such that

(i) $s_n < x_n < t_n \quad \forall n \in \mathbb{N}.$ $(x_n \text{ is always between them})$

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} s_n = \lim_{n \to \infty} t_n = L.$$
 (both approach the same limit)

Then $\{x_n\}$ is convergent and $\lim_{n \to \infty} x_n = L$.

Proof? (What's WRONG?).

 $\{s_n\}$ and $\{t_n\}$ are both bounded since they both converge. $\{x_n\}$ is therefore bounded (by the lower bound of $\{s_n\}$ and the upper bound of $\{t_n\}$). $\{x_n\}$ therefore converges, say $x_n \to X$. Hence, by order retension, $L \leq X \leq L \implies X = L$.



Mathematics and Statistics

$$\int_{M} d\omega = \int_{\partial M} \omega$$

Mathematics 3A03 Real Analysis I

Instructor: David Earn

Lecture 10 Sequences V Tuesday 24 September 2019

Assignment 2 is posted. Due 1 Oct 2019, at 2:25pm.

What we've done so far on sequences

- Definition of convergence.
- Definition of divergence.
- Definition of divergence to $\pm\infty$.
- Every convergent sequence is bounded.
- Harmonic series diverges.
- Algebra of limits (sums, products, quotients).
- Order properties of limits; squeeze theorem

Today:

- Proof of Squeeze Theorem
- Absolute value and max/min of limits.
- Monotone convergence.

Theorem (Squeeze Theorem)

If $\{s_n\}$ and $\{t_n\}$ are convergent sequences such that

Correct Proof.

Given
$$\varepsilon > 0$$
, find $N \rightarrow \forall n \ge N$, $|s_n - L| < \varepsilon$ and $|t_n - L| < \varepsilon$, *i.e.*,
 $-\varepsilon < s_n - L < \varepsilon$ and $-\varepsilon < t_n - L < \varepsilon$.
But $s_n \le x_n \le t_n \implies s_n - L \le x_n - L \le t_n - L$
 $\implies -\varepsilon < s_n - L \le x_n - L \le t_n - L < \varepsilon$
 $\implies |x_n - L| < \varepsilon$,

as required.

Theorem (Limits of Absolute Values)

If $\{s_n\}$ converges then so does $\{|s_n|\}$, and

$$\lim_{n\to\infty}|s_n|=\left|\lim_{n\to\infty}s_n\right|.$$

Proof.

See Assignment 2!

Corollary (Max/Min of Limits)

If $\{s_n\}$ and $\{t_n\}$ converge then $\{\max\{s_n, t_n\}\}$ and $\{\min\{s_n, t_n\}\}$ both converge and

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} \max\{s_n, t_n\} = \max\left\{\lim_{n \to \infty} s_n, \lim_{n \to \infty} t_n\right\},\$$
$$\lim_{n \to \infty} \min\{s_n, t_n\} = \min\left\{\lim_{n \to \infty} s_n, \lim_{n \to \infty} t_n\right\}.$$

Idea for proof:

$$\forall x, y \in \mathbb{R} \quad \max\{x, y\} = \frac{x+y}{2} + \frac{|x-y|}{2}$$

$$\forall x, y \in \mathbb{R} \quad \min\{x, y\} = \frac{x+y}{2} - \frac{|x-y|}{2}$$

Prove these facts, then use theorems on sums and absolute values of limits.

Monotone convergence (§2.9)

Definition (Monotonic sequence)

The sequence $\{s_n\}$ is *monotonic* iff it satisfies any of the following conditions:

- (i) Increasing: $s_1 < s_2 < s_3 < \cdots < s_n < s_{n+1} < \cdots$;
- (i) **Decreasing**: $s_1 > s_2 > s_3 > \cdots > s_n > s_{n+1} > \cdots$;
- $\textbf{(fi) Non-decreasing: } s_1 \leq s_2 \leq s_3 \leq \cdots \leq s_n \leq s_{n+1} \leq \cdots ;$

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- Click on Take Class Poll
- Fill in poll Lecture 10: Monotone convergence

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Monotone convergence (§2.9)

Theorem (Monotone Convergence Theorem)

A monotonic sequence $\{s_n\}$ is convergent iff it is bounded. In particular,

- **(6)** $\{s_n\}$ non-decreasing and unbounded $\implies s_n \to \infty$;
- $\fbox{ } \{s_n\} \text{ non-decreasing and bounded } \Longrightarrow s_n \to \sup\{s_n\} ;$
- $\fbox{ } \{s_n\} \text{ non-increasing and unbounded } \Longrightarrow s_n \to -\infty \text{ ;}$
- $\fbox{ } \{s_n\} \text{ non-increasing and bounded } \Longrightarrow s_n \to \inf\{s_n\} \ .$

Proof.

... next slide...

Proof of Monotone Convergence Theorem

Given a monotonic sequence $\{s_n\}$ we must show that

 $\{s_n\}$ converges $\iff \{s_n\}$ is bounded

Proof of " \implies " and part (ii).

 \implies For <u>any</u> sequence (monotonic or not) convergent implies bounded.

Before proceeding, note that since $L = \sup\{s_n\}$, it follows that $|s_n - L| < \varepsilon \iff L - s_n < \varepsilon \iff L - \varepsilon < s_n$.

Given $\varepsilon > 0$, choose $N \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $s_N > L - \varepsilon$ (which is possible $\therefore L$ is the least upper bound of $\{s_n\}$). But $\{s_n\}$ is non-decreasing, so $\forall n \ge N$ we have $s_N \le s_n \implies -s_n \le -s_N \implies L - s_n \le L - s_N < \varepsilon$.

Proof of Monotone Convergence Theorem

Monotonic
$$\implies \{s_n\}$$
 converges $\iff \{s_n\}$ is bounded

Proof of parts (i), (iii), (iv).

[part (i)] Suppose $\{s_n\}$ is non-decreasing and <u>un</u>bounded. It follows that $\{s_n\}$ diverges, since convergent sequences are bounded. Since $\{s_n\}$ is non-decreasing, it is bounded below (by s_1 , for example). Hence $\{s_n\}$ (which is unbounded) must <u>not</u> be bounded above. Consequently, given any $M \in \mathbb{R}$, $\exists N \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $s_N > M$. But $\{s_n\}$ is non-decreasing, so $s_n > M$ for all $n \ge N$, as required.

Proof of [part (iii)] is similar to [part (i)].

Proof of [part (iv)] is similar to [part (ii)].

Subsequences

Definition (Subsequence)

Let $\{s_1, s_2, s_3, \ldots\}$ be a sequence. If $\{n_1, n_2, n_3, \ldots\}$ is an increasing sequence of natural numbers then $\{s_{n_1}, s_{n_2}, s_{n_3}, \ldots\}$ is a *subsequence* of $\{s_1, s_2, s_3, \ldots\}$.

Example (Subsequences)

Consider the sequence $\{s_n\}$ defined by $s_n = n^2$ for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$. What are the first few terms of these subsequences?

$$\{s_n : n \text{ even}\} \{2^2, 4^2, 6^2, \ldots\}$$

$$\{s_n : n = 2k + 1, \exists k \in \mathbb{N}\} \{3^2, 5^2, 7^2, \ldots\}$$

$$\{s_{2n+1}\} \text{ Same as line above}$$

$$\{s_{2^n}\} \{2^2, 4^2, 8^2, \ldots\}$$

$$\{s_{n^2}\} \{1^2, 4^2, 9^2, \ldots\}$$

Monotonic subsequences

Given any sequence $\{s_n\}$, can you always find a subsequence that is monotonic?

Theorem

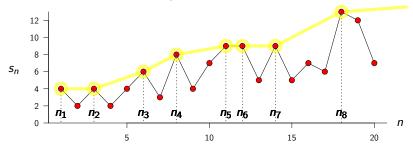
Every sequence contains a monotonic subsequence.

(Textbook (TBB) §2.11, Theorem 2.39, p. 79)

There are no pictures accompanying the proof in the textbook. So let's draw some pictures to help us visualize how we might construct a proof...

Idea for proof that every sequence contains a monotonic ("point of no return") subsequence

Given a sequence $\{s_1, s_2, s_3, \ldots\}$, try to build a subsequence $\{s_{n_1}, s_{n_2}, s_{n_3}, \ldots\}$ that is <u>non-decreasing</u> $(s_{n_1} \leq s_{n_2} \leq s_{n_3} \leq \cdots)$ by discarding any terms that are less than the running maximum (the maximum of all previous terms):



If this works indefinitely then we have a non-decreasing subsequence. But if we can find only finitely many such terms then we're stuck because our subsequence is defined using earlier terms.



Mathematics and Statistics

$$\int_{M} d\omega = \int_{\partial M} \omega$$

Mathematics 3A03 Real Analysis I

Instructor: David Earn

Lecture 11 Sequences VI Thursday 26 September 2019

Poll

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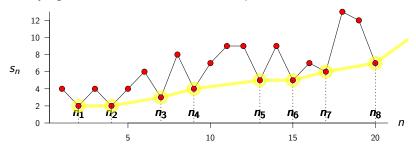
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- Please send me an e-mail ASAP if you have a conflict with either of the midterm tests.
- Plan for today:
 - Discuss correct "visual proof" that Every sequence contains a monotonic subsequence.
 - State and prove Bolzano-Weierstrass Theorem.
 - Cauchy sequences.

Better idea for proof that every sequence contains a monotonic subsequence ("turn-back point")

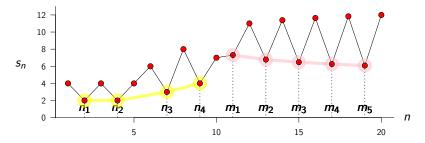
Given a sequence $\{s_1, s_2, s_3, \ldots\}$, try to build a subsequence $\{s_{n_1}, s_{n_2}, s_{n_3}, \ldots\}$ that is <u>non-decreasing</u> $(s_{n_1} \leq s_{n_2} \leq s_{n_3} \leq \cdots)$ by identifying terms that are less than or equal to all later terms.



If this works indefinitely then we have a non-decreasing subsequence. What if there are only finitely many such terms? (There might not be any at all!)

Better idea for proof that every sequence contains a monotonic subsequence ("turn-back point")

If there are only finitely many s_{n_i} such that $s_{n_i} \leq s_n \ \forall n > n_i \ \dots$



... then after the last "turn-back point" (s_{n_4} above) there must be some $m_1 > n_4$ such that s_{m_1} is **not** \leq all later terms, *i.e.*, $\exists m_2 > m_1$ with $s_{m_2} < s_{m_1}$, and similarly for m_2 , so there must be a decreasing subsequence $s_{m_1} > s_{m_2} > s_{m_3} > \cdots$

Theorem (Bolzano-Weierstrass theorem)

Every bounded sequence of real numbers contains a convergent subsequence.

Proof.

Suppose $\{x_n\}$ is a bounded sequence. It follows from the previous theorem that $\{x_n\}$ contains a subsequence $\{x_{m_k}\}$ that is monotonic. Since $\{x_n\}$ is bounded, the subsequence $\{x_{m_k}\}$ is bounded as well (by the same bound). Thus, $\{x_{m_i}\}$ is a subsequence of $\{x_n\}$ that is both <u>bounded</u> and <u>monotonic</u>. Hence, it converges by the Monotone Convergence Theorem.

Definition (Cauchy sequence)

A sequence $\{s_n\}$ is said to be a *Cauchy sequence* iff for all $\varepsilon > 0$ there exists $N \in \mathbb{N}$ such that if $m \ge N$ and $n \ge N$ then $|s_n - s_m| < \varepsilon$.

Theorem (Cauchy criterion)

A sequence of real numbers $\{s_n\}$ is convergent iff it is a Cauchy sequence.

Remark: The proof of the "only if" direction is easy. The proof of the "if" direction contains only one tricky feature: showing that every Cauchy sequence $\{s_n\}$ is bounded.

Proof of Cauchy criterion

"only if": If $\{s_n\}$ converges then, given $\varepsilon > 0$, choose $N \in \mathbb{N}$ such that for all $n \ge N$, $|s_n - L| < \varepsilon/2$. Then, for any m, n > N we have $|s_m - s_n| = |s_m - L + L - s_n| \le |s_m - L| + |s_n - L| < (\varepsilon/2) + (\varepsilon/2) = \varepsilon$, as required.

"if": If we take $\varepsilon = 1$ in the definition of a Cauchy sequence, we find that there is some N such that $|s_m - s_n| < 1$ for all m, n > N. In particular, this means that $|s_m - s_{N+1}| < 1$ for all m > N, *i.e.*,

$$s_{N+1}-1 < s_m < s_{N+1}+1 \qquad \forall m > N.$$

Thus $\{s_m : m > N\}$ is bounded; moreover, since there are only finitely many other s_i 's, the whole sequence $\{s_n\}$ is bounded. Hence, by the Bolzano-Weierstrass theorem, some subsequence of s_n converges; let's write this subsequence as $\{s_{m_k}\}$, and its limit as L.

... continued on next slide...

Proof of Cauchy criterion (cont'd).

We will show that $\{s_n\}$ converges to *L*. To prove this, consider any $\varepsilon > 0$. Since the sequence $\{s_n\}$ is Cauchy, there is some $N \in \mathbb{N}$ such that

$$|s_n-s_m|<rac{arepsilon}{2}$$
 for all $n,m\geq N.$

Since the subsequence $\{s_{m_k}\}$ converges to L, there is some N' so that

$$|s_{m_k}-L|<rac{arepsilon}{2}$$
 for all $k\geq N'.$

Now fix an integer k satisfying $k \ge N'$ and $m_k \ge N$. Then $\forall n \ge N$,

$$egin{aligned} |s_n-\mathcal{L}| &= |s_n-s_{m_k}+s_{m_k}-\mathcal{L}| \ &\leq |s_n-s_{m_k}|+|s_{m_k}-\mathcal{L}| \ &\leq rac{arepsilon}{2}+rac{arepsilon}{2}=arepsilon, \end{aligned}$$

as required.

<u>Notes</u>:

- The Cauchy criterion is sometimes easier to use in proofs than the original definition of convergence.
- Its significance is more evident in spaces other than ℝ, where Cauchy sequences do <u>not necessarily</u> converge.



Mathematics and Statistics

$$\int_{M} d\omega = \int_{\partial M} \omega$$

Mathematics 3A03 Real Analysis I

Instructor: David Earn

Lecture 12 Sequences VII Friday 27 September 2019

Sequences Finale!

Announcements

Assignment 2 is due 1 Oct 2019, at 2:25pm.

Plan for today: two concepts

- Bijectivity
- Countability

Terminology associated with functions

- When we define a *function*, we need three things:
 - the *domain*, *i.e.*, the set to which the function is applied;
 - the codomain, i.e., the target set where the values of the function lie;
 - a rule for taking elements of the domain into the codomain.
- If we write $f : A \rightarrow B$ then A is the <u>domain</u> and B is the <u>codomain</u>.
- The range of a function is the subset of the codomain consisting of all values of the function applied to the domain.
- A function is one-to-one if no two points in the domain are mapped to the same point in the range.
- A function is *onto* if every point in the codomain is the image of at least one point in the domain (so the range is the entire codomain).

Definition (Bijection)

Let $f : A \rightarrow B$ be a function. Then

(i) f is *injective* (or *one-to-one*) if $\forall a_1, a_2 \in A$, $f(a_1) = f(a_2) \implies a_1 = a_2$.

(f) f is **surjective** (or **onto**) if $\forall b \in B, \exists a \in A$ so that f(a) = b.

f is *bijective* if it is both *injective* and *surjective*.A bijective function is said to be a *bijection*.

<u>Note</u>: A bijection is sometimes called a **one-to-one correspondence**. This termniology can be confusing because it means one-to-one **and** onto.

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Example

Let
$$f(x) = x^2$$
, $x \in \mathbb{R}$.

- Is $f \text{ onto } \mathbb{R}$?
- Is f <u>one-to-one</u> on \mathbb{R} ? On any interval?
- Is f a <u>bijection</u>?

Example

- Find a bijection between $[0,\infty)$ to $[1,\infty)$.
- Find a different bijection between $[0,\infty)$ to $[1,\infty)$.

Extra Challenge Problem:

Construct a bijection between [0,1] and (0,1).

Sequences $\{s_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$ are generalizations of the intuitive notion of sets whose elements can be counted.

In general, what do we mean by "countable"?

Definition (Countable set)

A set *S* is *countable* if *S* is finite, or if there is a bijective function $f : \mathbb{N} \to S$. A set is *uncountable* if it is not countable.

Theorem

Suppose S is a subset of \mathbb{R} . Then S is countable if and only if S is the range of a sequence.

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Theorem

The natural numbers \mathbb{N} are countable.

(solution on board)

Theorem

The integers \mathbb{Z} are countable.

(solution on board)

Theorem

The rational numbers \mathbb{Q} are countable.

(solution on board)

What about \mathbb{R} ?...

Countability

Theorem (Cantor)

The real numbers \mathbb{R} are uncountable.

(solution on board)

<u>Notes</u>:

- The main argument in the proof is known as "Cantor's diagonal argument".
- We can infer that not only are some real numbers not rational, but there are "many more" real numbers than rational numbers.
- Cantor's proof depends on there being a binary expansion for any real number...

Countability

Theorem (Existence and uniqueness of binary expansions)

If $x \in [0,1)$ then there is a sequence $\{a_n\}$ such that $a_n \in \{0,1\} \ \forall n$ and

$$x=\sum_{n=1}^{\infty}\frac{a_n}{2^n}\,.$$

Specifically,
$$a_n = \left\lfloor \left(x - \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} \frac{a_i}{2^i} \right) 2^n \right\rfloor$$
.

Moreover, this **binary representation** is unique unless $x = m/2^k$ for some $k \in \mathbb{N}$ and $m \in \mathbb{N}$, in which case there are exactly two binary representations, the second being given by $\{b_n\}$ where

$$b_n = \begin{cases} a_n & n < k, \\ 0 & n = k, \\ 1 & n > k. \end{cases}$$

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Theorem (Properties of countable sets)

- (i) Any subset of a countable set is countable.
- The union of a sequence of countable sets is countable.
- (I) No (non-degenerate^{*}) interval is countable.

* We normally assume implicitly that the endpoints of intervals are distinct. If the endpoints are the same then the interval is *degenerate*, *e.g.*, $(a, a) = \emptyset$ and $[a, a] = \{a\}$.