

§ 3 Sequences

3.1 Sequences and Their Limits

Definition:

A **sequence of real numbers** (or **sequence in \mathbb{R}**) is defined as a function $X: \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$.

Usually, we write $x_n = X(n)$ and denote a sequence by $\{x_n\}$ or $\{x_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$

Examples:

1) $X: \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is defined by $X(n) = (\frac{1}{2})^n$

Then $\{x_n\} = \{\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{4}, \frac{1}{8}, \dots\}$

2) (Fibonacci sequence)

$\{f_n\}$ is given by $f_1 = f_2 = 1$ and $f_{n+2} = f_n + f_{n+1}$ for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$.

$\therefore \{f_n\} = \{1, 1, 2, 3, 5, 8, 13, \dots\}$

"Definition": (Limit of a sequence)

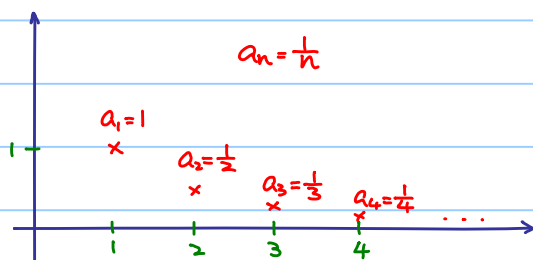
Suppose $\{x_n\}$ is a sequence of real numbers. $x \in \mathbb{R}$ is said to be a **limit** of the sequence $\{x_n\}$ if when n is getting larger and larger, x_n is getting closer and closer to x , we denote it by $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} x_n = x$.

In this case, we also say $\{x_n\}$ **converges** to x . If the sequence has a limit, we say $\{x_n\}$ is a **convergent** sequence, otherwise it is a **divergent** sequence.

Caution: The limit x must be a real number and $+\infty, -\infty$ are NOT real numbers.

Examples:

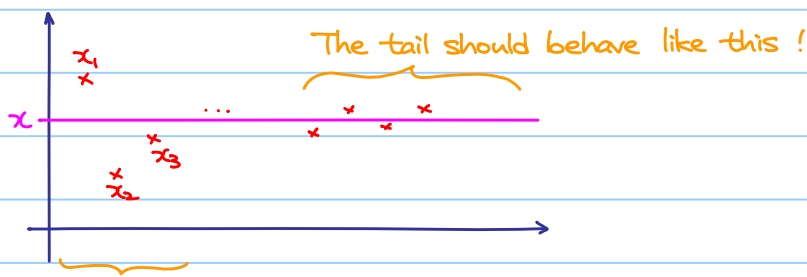
1) $x_n = \frac{1}{n}$



Intuitively, $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} x_n = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{n} = 0$

2) If $x_n = (-1)^n \frac{1}{n}$, intuitively, $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} x_n = 0$. (Remark: Try to represent $\{x_n\}$ graphically.)

Naively, if $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} x_n = x$



We do NOT care
much at the beginning

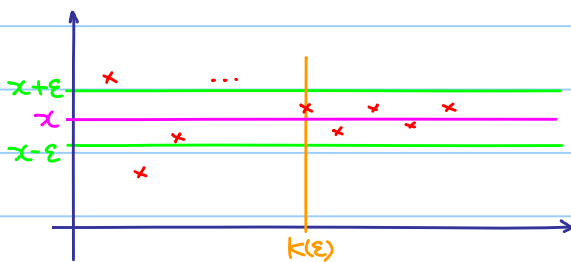
How to formalize this idea ?

Definition: (Limit of a sequence)

A sequence $\{x_n\}$ in \mathbb{R} is said to **converge** to $x \in \mathbb{R}$, if

For all $\varepsilon > 0$, there exists $K(\varepsilon) \in \mathbb{N}$ such that for all $n \geq K(\varepsilon)$, we have $|x_n - x| < \varepsilon$
 $(\forall \varepsilon > 0)(\exists K(\varepsilon) > 0)(\forall n \geq K(\varepsilon))(|x_n - x| < \varepsilon)$

Geometrical meaning :



No matter how small $\varepsilon > 0$ we pick, if we draw a ε -tubular neighborhood of x , we can always find $K(\varepsilon) \in \mathbb{N}$ (depending on ε only) such that the terms $x_{K(\varepsilon)}, x_{K(\varepsilon)+1}, \dots$ (terms at the tail) are all lying in the neighborhood.

Theorem: (Uniqueness of limit.)

A sequence in \mathbb{R} can have at most one limit.

proof:

Suppose $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} x_n = a$ and $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} x_n = b$.

Claim: $a = b$.

By definition, let $\varepsilon > 0$, there exist $K_1, K_2 \in \mathbb{N}$ such that

$$|x_n - a| < \frac{\varepsilon}{2} \quad \text{for all } n \geq K_1,$$

$$|x_n - b| < \frac{\varepsilon}{2} \quad \text{for all } n \geq K_2$$

Consider $K = \max\{K_1, K_2\}$, if $n \geq K$

$$|x_n - a| + |x_n - b| < \frac{\varepsilon}{2} + \frac{\varepsilon}{2} = \varepsilon$$

$$\begin{aligned} & \vee \\ |(x_n - a) - (x_n - b)| & \quad \text{(Triangle inequality)} \\ & \parallel \\ & |a - b| \end{aligned}$$

Since ε can be arbitrarily small, $a - b = 0$ i.e. $a = b$.

Remark: Now, we can say **the** limit of $\{x_n\}$ instead of **a** limit of $\{x_n\}$.

Example:

Prove that $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{n} = 0$.

What to do? Check the definition!

Idea: Let $\varepsilon > 0$,

State how to choose $K \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $|\frac{1}{n} - 0| < \varepsilon$ for all $n \geq K$.

$$\begin{aligned} & \Downarrow \\ \frac{1}{n} & < \varepsilon \end{aligned}$$

Think: if $n \geq K$, $\frac{1}{n} < \frac{1}{K} < \varepsilon$

Can we choose $K \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $\frac{1}{K} < \varepsilon$? Yes, by Archimedean property!
(or corollary of)

Here is how we write a proof:

Let $\varepsilon > 0$,

by Archimedean property, there exists $K \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $\frac{1}{\varepsilon} < K$, i.e. $\frac{1}{K} < \varepsilon$.

Then for all $n \geq K$, we have $|\frac{1}{n} - 0| = \frac{1}{n} \leq \frac{1}{K} < \varepsilon$.

$$\therefore \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{n} = 0.$$

Exercise :

By using the ε -definition, prove that

a) $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{n^2+1} = 0$

b) $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{3n+2}{n+1} = 3$

c) $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{2n^2}{n^2-2n+7} = 2$

Hint: $\left| \frac{2n^2}{n^2-2n+7} - 2 \right| = \left| \frac{-(4n-14)}{n^2-2n+7} \right| = \left| \frac{4n-14}{n^2-2n+7} \right|$

Note : ① $4n-14 \geq 0 \iff n \geq \frac{7}{2}$ (so if $n \geq 4$, $4n-14 > 0$)

② $n^2-2n+7 = (n-1)^2+6 \geq 0$

③ $\frac{4n-14}{n^2-2n+7} = \frac{1}{n} \cdot \frac{4-\frac{14}{n}}{1-\frac{2}{n}+\frac{7}{n^2}} \leq \frac{1}{n} \cdot \frac{4}{(\frac{1}{2})} = \frac{8}{n}$ ($\because 1-\frac{2}{n}+\frac{7}{n^2} \geq \frac{1}{2}$ when $n \geq 4$)

something we need
in order to use Archimedean property!

④ $\frac{8}{n} < \varepsilon$

Here is how we write a proof:

Let $\varepsilon > 0$,

there exist $K' \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $\frac{8}{\varepsilon} < K'$ i.e. $\frac{8}{K'} < \varepsilon$ (but we worry if $K' \geq 4$)

Take $K = \max\{K', 4\} \in \mathbb{N}$, then if $n \geq K$, we have

$$\left| \frac{2n^2}{n^2-2n+7} - 2 \right| = \left| \frac{4n-14}{n^2-2n+7} \right|$$

$$= \frac{4n-14}{n^2-2n+7} \quad (n \geq K \geq 4 \Rightarrow 4n-14 \geq 0)$$

$$\leq \frac{1}{n} \cdot \frac{4-\frac{14}{n}}{1-\frac{2}{n}+\frac{7}{n^2}} \quad (n^2-2n+7 \geq 0)$$

$$\leq \frac{1}{n} \cdot \frac{4}{(\frac{1}{2})} \quad (\because n \geq K \geq 4)$$

$$= \frac{8}{n}$$

$$\leq \frac{8}{K}$$

$$< \varepsilon$$

$$\therefore \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{2n^2}{n^2-2n+7} = 2$$

Exercise :

1) Try to write down the negation of the definition.

Ans : $x \in \mathbb{R}$ is not a limit of $\{x_n\}$ if

$$(\exists \varepsilon > 0)(\forall K \in \mathbb{N})(\exists n \geq K(\varepsilon))(|x_n - x| \geq \varepsilon)$$

Geometrical meaning ?

2) Prove that the sequence $x_n = \frac{1}{2}[1 + (-1)^n]$ is divergent.

Hint : Divide into 3 cases :

1) Why 0 cannot be the limit ?

2) Why 1 cannot be the limit ?

3) Why $x \neq 0, 1$ cannot be the limit ?

Definition :

Suppose $\{x_n\}$ is a sequence in \mathbb{R} and $m \in \mathbb{N}$.

$\{x_{m+n}\}$ is another sequence in \mathbb{R} that $\{x_{m+n}\} = \{x_{m+1}, x_{m+2}, \dots\}$.

Exercise :

Prove that $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} x_{m+n} = x$ if and only if $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} x_n = x$.

Similarly : $\{x_{2n}\} = \{x_2, x_4, x_6, \dots\}$

$\{x_{2n-1}\} = \{x_1, x_3, x_5, \dots\}$

Exercise :

Prove that if $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} x_n$ exists, then $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} x_{2n}$ and $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} x_{2n-1}$ exist.

Does the converse hold ?

Ans : The converse does not hold unless $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} x_{2n} = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} x_{2n-1}$.

3.2 Limit Theorem

Definition:

A sequence $\{x_n\}$ of real numbers is said to be **bounded** if there exists $M \geq 0$ such that $|x_n| \leq M$ for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$.

(Think: Geometrical meaning?)

Theorem:

A convergent sequence of real numbers is bounded.

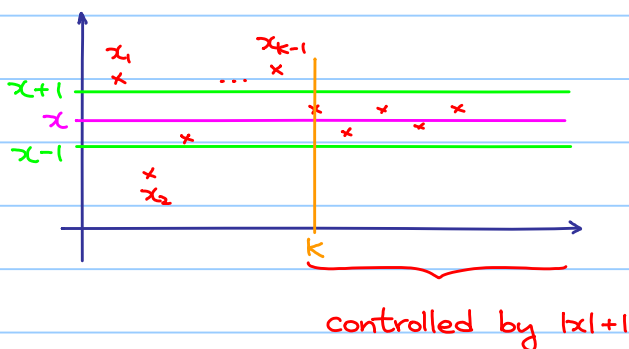
proof:

Suppose $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} x_n = x$.

Take $\varepsilon = 1$, there exists $K \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $|x_n - x| < 1$ for all $n \geq K$.

$\Rightarrow |x_n| < |x| + 1$ for all $n \geq K$.

Take $M = \max\{|x_1|, |x_2|, \dots, |x_{K-1}|, |x| + 1\}$, the result follows!



Exercise:

Does the converse hold?

No! Consider $\{0, 1, 0, 1, \dots\}$.

The converse holds if we further assume the monotonicity. (Discuss later!)

Definition:

A sequence $\{x_n\}$ of real numbers is said to be **bounded above** (**below**) if there exists $M \geq 0$ such that $x_n \leq M$ ($-M \leq x_n$) for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$.

Theorem: (Algebraic properties)

Suppose $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} x_n = x$ and $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} y_n = y$, then

$$1) \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} x_n + y_n = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} x_n + \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} y_n = x + y$$

$$2) \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} x_n - y_n = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} x_n - \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} y_n = x - y$$

$$3) \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} x_n y_n = \left(\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} x_n \right) \left(\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} y_n \right) = xy$$

$$4) \text{ If } y \neq 0, \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{x_n}{y_n} = \frac{\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} x_n}{\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} y_n} = \frac{x}{y}$$

proof:

1) Given $\varepsilon > 0$, there exist $k_1, k_2 \in \mathbb{N}$ such that

$$|x_n - x| < \frac{\varepsilon}{2} \text{ for all } n \geq k_1$$

$$|y_n - y| < \frac{\varepsilon}{2} \text{ for all } n \geq k_2$$

Take $k = \max\{k_1, k_2\}$, then for $n \geq k$, we have

$$\begin{aligned} & |(x_n + y_n) - (x + y)| \\ &= |(x_n - x) + (y_n - y)| \\ &\leq |x_n - x| + |y_n - y| \\ &< \frac{\varepsilon}{2} + \frac{\varepsilon}{2} \\ &= \varepsilon \end{aligned}$$

$$\therefore \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} x_n + y_n = x + y.$$

2) Similar to (1), leave as an exercise.

$$\begin{aligned} 3) \text{ Hint: } & |x_n y_n - xy| \\ &= |x_n y_n - x y_n + x y_n - xy| \\ &\leq \underbrace{|y_n|}_{\text{bounded}} |x_n - x| + |x| |y_n - y| \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} 4) \text{ Hint: } & \left| \frac{x_n}{y_n} - \frac{x}{y} \right| \\ &= \frac{1}{|y_n y|} |x_n y - x y_n| \\ &= \frac{1}{|y_n y|} |x_n y - x_n y_n + x_n y_n - x y_n| \\ &\leq \frac{1}{|y_n y|} \left(\underbrace{|x_n|}_{\text{bounded}} |y_n - y| + \underbrace{|y_n|}_{\text{bounded}} |x_n - x| \right) \end{aligned}$$

Exercises :

1) Prove that if $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} x_n = x$ and $c \in \mathbb{R}$, then $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} cx_n = cx$.

(Prove by checking the ε -definition or applying (3) with $y_n = c$)

2) Fill in the details of the previous theorem.

3) Prove that $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} x_n = 0$ if and only if $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} |x_n| = 0$.

(Hint: Nothing, but $|x_n - 0| = |x_n| - 0$)

Theorem :

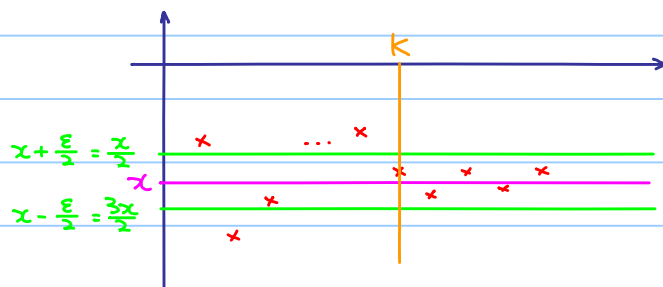
If $x_n \geq 0$ for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$ and $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} x_n = x$, then $x \geq 0$.

proof :

Suppose the contrary, $x < 0$.

Take $\varepsilon = \frac{|x|}{2} = -\frac{x}{2}$, there exists $K \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $|x_n - x| < \varepsilon$ for all $n \geq K$.

In particular, $|x_K - x| < \varepsilon \Rightarrow x_K < x + \varepsilon = \frac{x}{2} < 0$ (Contradiction !)



Remarks :

1) Any weaker version of the above theorem?

Yes, $x_n \geq 0$ for sufficiently large n ! (Anyway, what really matters is the tail !)

2) If $x_n > 0$ for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$ and $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} x_n = x$, does it imply $x > 0$?

No ! Consider $x_n = \frac{1}{n} > 0$.

Theorem :

If $x_n \geq y_n$ for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$ and $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} x_n = x$ and $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} y_n = y$, then $x \geq y$.

proof :

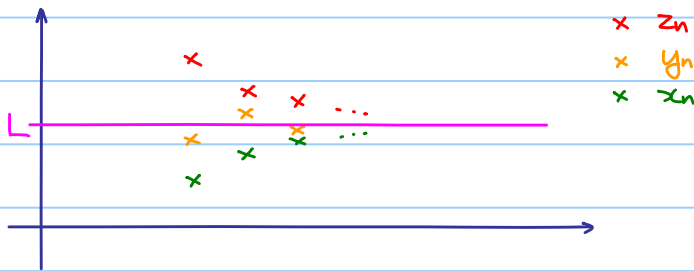
Apply the previous theorem to $z_n = x_n - y_n \geq 0$

Exercise :

Prove that if $a \leq x_n \leq b$ for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$ and $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} x_n = x$, then $a \leq x \leq b$.

Theorem: (Sandwich theorem)

Suppose $\{x_n\}$, $\{y_n\}$ and $\{z_n\}$ are sequences of real numbers such that $x_n \leq y_n \leq z_n$ for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$ and that $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} x_n = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} z_n = L$. Then $\{y_n\}$ is convergent and $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} y_n = L$.



proof:

Given $\varepsilon > 0$, there exist $k_1, k_2 \in \mathbb{N}$ such that

$$|x_n - L| < \varepsilon \text{ for all } n \geq k_1 \Rightarrow L - \varepsilon < x_n \text{ for all } n \geq k_1$$

$$|z_n - L| < \varepsilon \text{ for all } n \geq k_2 \Rightarrow z_n < L + \varepsilon \text{ for all } n \geq k_2$$

Take $k = \max\{k_1, k_2\}$, then for $n \geq k$, we have

$$L - \varepsilon < x_n \leq y_n \leq z_n < L + \varepsilon$$

$$\Rightarrow |y_n - L| < \varepsilon$$

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

Example:

Find $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{n} \sin n$ (Note: $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sin n$ does (may) NOT exist.)

$$-1 \leq \sin n \leq 1$$

$$-\frac{1}{n} \leq \frac{1}{n} \sin n \leq \frac{1}{n}$$

$$\text{and } \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} -\frac{1}{n} = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{n} = 0$$

By sandwich theorem, $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{n} \sin n = 0$

Main issues in this example: ① $|\sin n| \leq 1$ for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$ (bounded)

$$\text{② } \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{n} = 0$$

We can generalize this result as a theorem.

Theorem:

Suppose $\{x_n\}$ and $\{y_n\}$ are sequences in \mathbb{R} such that $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} x_n = 0$ and $\{y_n\}$ is bounded, then $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} x_n y_n = 0$.

proof:

By assumption that $\{y_n\}$ is bounded,

there exists $M \geq 0$ such that $|y_n| \leq M$ (i.e. $-M \leq y_n \leq M$) for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$

Note: $-|x_n| \leq x_n \leq |x_n|$ for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$

$\therefore -M|x_n| \leq x_n y_n \leq M|x_n|$ for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} x_n = 0 \Rightarrow \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} |x_n| = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} -M|x_n| = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} M|x_n| = 0$$

\therefore By sandwich theorem, $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} x_n y_n = 0$.

Exercises:

1) Show that $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{(-1)^n}{n} \sin n = 0$

2) We know that $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} x_n = 0$ if and only if $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} |x_n| = 0$.

Is it true that $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} x_n = x$ if and only if $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} |x_n| = |x|$ for $x \neq 0$?

Ans: " \Rightarrow " is true (try to prove) but " \Leftarrow " is false!

3.3 Monotone Sequences

Recall: $\{x_n\}$ is converge \Rightarrow ~~$\{x_n\}$~~ $\{x_n\}$ is bounded.

However, can we add suitable assumption so that " \Leftarrow " is true?

Definition:

Let $\{x_n\}$ be a sequence of real numbers.

$\{x_n\}$ is said to be **increasing** (**decreasing**) if $x_n \leq x_{n+1}$ ($x_n \geq x_{n+1}$) for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$.

$\{x_n\}$ is said to be a **monotone** if it is either increasing or decreasing.

Example:

If $x_n = 2^n$ for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$, then clearly, $\{x_n\}$ is increasing.

However, $\{x_n\}$ is divergent.

Theorem: (Monotone Convergence Theorem)

If $\{x_n\}$ is a sequence of real numbers such that it is bounded above (below) and increasing, then $\{x_n\}$ is convergent.

Idea:



Caution: Even $x_n \leq M$ for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$, it does NOT imply $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} x_n = M$!

Why not M ? M may NOT be the tightest one!

The tightest one = $x = \sup \{x_n : n \in \mathbb{N}\}$

Claim: $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} x_n = x$.

proof:

Given $\varepsilon > 0$,

$x - \varepsilon$ is NOT an upper bound of $\{x_n : n \in \mathbb{N}\}$

\Rightarrow there exists $k \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $x - \varepsilon < x_k < x$.

Then for $n \geq k$, we have $x - \varepsilon < x_k \leq x_n \leq x < x + \varepsilon$

$\Rightarrow |x_n - x| < \varepsilon$ ↑ $\{x_n\}$ is increasing.

$\therefore \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} x_n = x$.

Theorem: (Euler's Number e)

Let $\{e_n\}$ be a sequence of real numbers defined by $e_n = (1 + \frac{1}{n})^n$ for $n \in \mathbb{N}$.

Then $\{e_n\}$ is convergent and we denote $e := \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} e_n$.

proof:

1) Claim: $\{e_n\}$ is increasing.

$$\begin{aligned} e_n &= \left(1 + \frac{1}{n}\right)^n = \sum_{r=0}^n \binom{n}{r} \left(\frac{1}{n}\right)^r \\ &= \sum_{r=0}^n \frac{n!}{r!(n-r)!} \cdot \left(\frac{1}{n}\right)^r \\ &= \sum_{r=0}^n \frac{1}{r!} \cdot [n(n-1)(n-2)\dots(n-r)] \cdot \left(\frac{1}{n}\right)^r \\ &= \sum_{r=0}^n \frac{1}{r!} \cdot 1 \cdot \left(1 - \frac{1}{n}\right) \cdot \left(1 - \frac{2}{n}\right) \dots \left(1 - \frac{r-1}{n}\right) \end{aligned}$$

$$\text{Similarly, } e_{n+1} = \left(1 + \frac{1}{n+1}\right)^{n+1} = \sum_{r=0}^{n+1} \frac{1}{r!} \cdot 1 \cdot \left(1 - \frac{1}{n+1}\right) \left(1 - \frac{2}{n+1}\right) \dots \left(1 - \frac{r-1}{n+1}\right)$$

$\therefore e_n \leq e_{n+1}$ for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$.

2) Claim: $\{e_n\}$ is bounded above by 3.

$$e_n = \sum_{r=0}^n \frac{1}{r!} \cdot 1 \cdot \left(1 - \frac{1}{n}\right) \cdot \left(1 - \frac{2}{n}\right) \cdots \left(1 - \frac{r-1}{n}\right)$$

$$\leq \sum_{r=0}^n \frac{1}{r!}$$

$$\leq 1 + \sum_{r=1}^n \frac{1}{2^{r-1}} \quad \text{Note: } \frac{1}{r!} \leq \frac{1}{2^{r-1}} \text{ if } r \geq 1 \quad (\text{why?})$$

$$\leq 1 + \left(1 + \frac{1}{2} + \cdots + \frac{1}{2^{n-1}}\right)$$

$$< 3$$

Combining (1) and (2), the result follows by monotone convergence theorem.

3.4 Subsequences and the Bolzano-Weierstrass Theorem

Definition:

Let $\{x_n\}$ be a sequence of real numbers and $n_1 < n_2 < \cdots < n_k < \cdots$ be a strictly increasing sequence of natural numbers. Then $\{x_{n_k}\}$ given by $\{x_{n_1}, x_{n_2}, \dots, x_{n_k}, \dots\}$ is called a **subsequence** of $\{x_n\}$.

Natural result we expect:

Theorem:

If $\{x_n\}$ is a sequence of real numbers that converges to x , then any subsequence $\{x_{n_k}\}$ of $\{x_n\}$ converges to x as well, we write $\lim_{n_k \rightarrow \infty} x_{n_k} = x$ or $\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} x_{n_k} = x$.

proof: (Exercise)

Not surprising, but the contrapositive is actually more useful.

Theorem: (Divergence Criteria)

a) There exists a divergent subsequence $\{x_{n_k}\}$ of $\{x_n\}$.

b) There exist subsequences $\{x_{n_k}\}$ and $\{x'_{n_k}\}$ of $\{x_n\}$ such that $\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} x_{n_k} \neq \lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} x'_{n_k}$.

$\{x_n\}$ is divergent if either (a) or (b) holds.

Exercise:

Prove that the following sequences diverge.

a) $\{x_n\} = \{0, 1, 0, 2, 0, 3, \dots\}$

b) $\{x_n\} = \{-1, 1, -1, 1, -1, 1, \dots\}$

c) $x_n = \sin \frac{n\pi}{2}$

d) $x_n = \sin n$ (Hint: prove there exist $\{x_{n_k}\}$ and $\{x'_{n_k}\}$ such that $x_{n_k} \geq \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}$ and $x'_{n_k} \leq \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}$.)

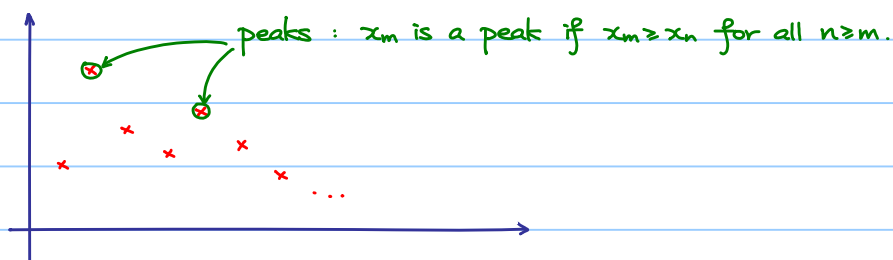
While NOT every sequence is monotone,
it is surprising that every sequence has a monotone subsequence.

Theorem: (Monotone subsequence theorem)

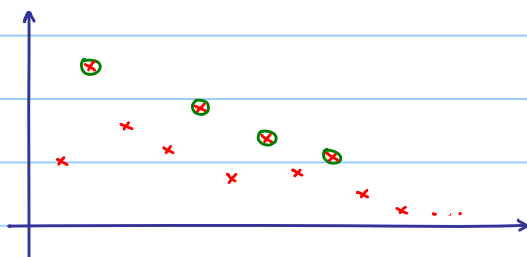
If $\{x_n\}$ is a sequence of real numbers,
then there exists a monotone subsequence $\{x_{n_k}\}$ of $\{x_n\}$.

proof:

Idea:

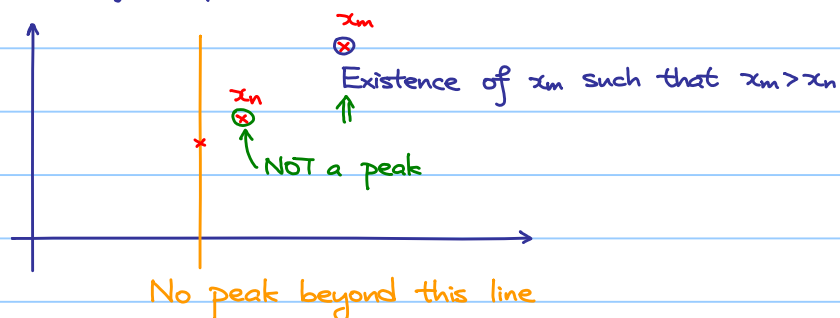


Case 1: $\{x_n\}$ has infinitely many peaks.



Those peaks form a decreasing sequence.

Case 2: $\{x_n\}$ has finite peaks.



Repeating this argument to get an increasing subsequence.

Theorem: (Bolzano-Weierstrass theorem)

A bounded sequence of real numbers has a convergent subsequence.

proof:

Monotone subsequence theorem + Monotone convergence theorem

Examples:

1) $x_n = n$ for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$

$\{x_n\}$ has no convergent subsequence! ($\{x_n\}$ is unbounded)

2) $x_n = \sin n$ for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$.

$\{x_n\}$ is bounded and divergent. However, Bolzano-Weierstrass theorem guarantees the existence of a convergent subsequence. Unfortunately, it is hard to write it down explicitly.

Come back to the question:

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} x_n = x \stackrel{\Rightarrow}{\nRightarrow} \lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} x_{n_k} = x.$$

" \Leftarrow " may NOT true because $\{x_{n_k}\}$ may NOT "contain the whole tail" of $\{x_n\}$.

(Only looking at one subsequence!)

However, how about looking at ALL subsequences?

Theorem:

Let $\{x_n\}$ be a sequence of real numbers.

$\{x_n\}$ converges to x if and only if every subsequence of $\{x_n\}$ converges to x .

proof:

" \Rightarrow " Discussed before.

" \Leftarrow " Suppose the contrary,

there exists $\varepsilon_0 > 0$ such that for all $k \in \mathbb{N}$, there exists $n \geq k$ such that $|x_n - x| \geq \varepsilon_0$. —(*)

Let $k=1$, apply (*), we have $n_1 \geq k=1$ such that $|x_{n_1} - x| \geq \varepsilon_0$.

Let $k=n_1$, apply (*), we have $n_2 \geq k=n_1$ such that $|x_{n_2} - x| \geq \varepsilon_0$.

⋮

Repeating (*) to obtain a subsequence $\{x_{n_k}\}$ of $\{x_n\}$ such that $|x_{n_k} - x| \geq \varepsilon_0$. —(**)

Note: $\{x_n\}$ is bounded $\Rightarrow \{x_{n_k}\}$ is bounded

By Bolzano-Weierstrass theorem $\{x_{n_k}\}$ has a convergent subsequence.

but the limit of it cannot be x because of (**).

It contradicts to the assumption that every subsequence of $\{x_n\}$ converges to x .

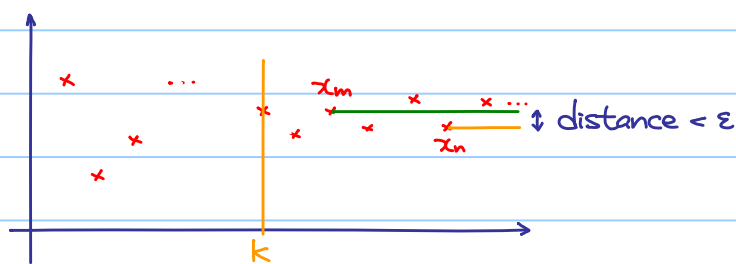
3.5 Cauchy Criterion

Definition:

A sequence $\{x_n\}$ of real numbers is said to be a **Cauchy sequence** if for all $\varepsilon > 0$, there exists $K \in \mathbb{N}$ such that for all $m, n \geq K$, we have $|x_m - x_n| < \varepsilon$.

$$(\forall \varepsilon > 0)(\exists K \in \mathbb{N})(\forall m, n \geq K)(|x_m - x_n| < \varepsilon)$$

Geometrical meaning:



No matter how small $\varepsilon > 0$ we pick,

we can always find $K \in \mathbb{N}$ such that for any two points beyond the line, the distance between them is less than ε .

Exercise:

Write down the negation of the definition.

Ans: $\{x_n\}$ is NOT a Cauchy sequence if $(\exists \varepsilon > 0)(\forall K \in \mathbb{N})(\exists m, n \geq K)(|x_m - x_n| \geq \varepsilon)$

Natural Question:

$\{x_n\}$ is convergent $\Leftrightarrow \{x_n\}$ is Cauchy Ans: Yes!

Theorem:

Let $\{x_n\}$ be a sequence of real numbers.

$\{x_n\}$ is a convergent sequence if and only if $\{x_n\}$ is a Cauchy sequence.

proof:

" \Rightarrow " Suppose $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} x_n = x$.

Let $\varepsilon > 0$, there exists $K \in \mathbb{N}$ such that for any $n \geq K$, we have $|x_n - x| < \frac{\varepsilon}{2}$.

Consider $m, n \geq K$, we have $|x_m - x| < \frac{\varepsilon}{2}$ and $|x_n - x| < \frac{\varepsilon}{2}$.

Then $|x_m - x_n| = |x_m - x + x - x_n|$

$$\leq |x_m - x| + |x_n - x| < \frac{\varepsilon}{2} + \frac{\varepsilon}{2} = \varepsilon$$

" \Leftarrow " Suppose $\{x_n\}$ is a Cauchy sequence.

Step 1: Prove that $\{x_n\}$ is bounded.

Step 2: By Bolzano-Weierstrass theorem $\{x_{n_k}\}$ has a convergent subsequence,
and let $\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} x_{n_k} = x$.

Step 3: Show that $\{x_n\}$ converges to x .

proof of (i): Take $\varepsilon = 1$, there exists $k \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $|x_n - x_k| < 1$

Take $M = \{|x_1|, |x_2|, \dots, |x_{k-1}|, |x_k| + 1\}$, then $|x_n| \leq M$ for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$.

proof of (ii): Given $\varepsilon > 0$,

there exists $k \in \mathbb{N}$ such that for any $m, n \geq k$,

we have $|x_m - x_n| < \frac{\varepsilon}{2}$.

Since $\{x_{n_k}\}$ converges to x ,

there exists $n_j \geq k$ such that $|x_{n_j} - x| < \frac{\varepsilon}{2}$.

Then for all $n \geq k$,

$$\begin{aligned} |x_n - x| &= |x_n - x_{n_j} + x_{n_j} - x| && \text{(Use } x_{n_j} \text{ as a "bridge") } \\ &\leq |x_n - x_{n_j}| + |x_{n_j} - x| \\ &< \frac{\varepsilon}{2} + \frac{\varepsilon}{2} \\ &= \varepsilon \end{aligned}$$

Remark:

Theorem:

Let $\{x_n\}$ be a sequence in \mathbb{R} .

$\{x_n\}$ converges to a point in \mathbb{R} if and only if $\{x_n\}$ is a Cauchy sequence in \mathbb{R} .

Question: Can we replace \mathbb{R} by other space X ?

Answer: No! Consider $X = (0, 1)$ or $X = \mathbb{Q}$, the theorem does NOT hold anymore!

(e.g. $x_n = \frac{1}{n} \in (0, 1)$ for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$, $\{x_n\}$ is a Cauchy sequence in $(0, 1)$,

however $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{n} = 0$ which is NOT a point in $(0, 1)$!)

It is a main issue studied in Functional Analysis.

Exercises:

1) Prove directly that the following sequences are Cauchy sequences.

(Instead of proving they converge and apply the above theorem)

a) $x_n = \frac{1}{n}$ for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$

b) $x_n = 1 + \frac{1}{2!} + \frac{1}{3!} + \dots + \frac{1}{n!}$

2) Prove directly that $x_n = 1 + (-1)^n$ is NOT a Cauchy sequence.

3.6 Proper Divergent Sequences

Note: The limit of a sequence must be a real number, but ∞ and $-\infty$ are just conventions, so we cannot say " $\{x_n\}$ converges to ∞ or $-\infty$ ".

However, it is still worth to define clearly what $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} x_n = \infty$ / $-\infty$ means.

Definition: (Divergent but NOT too bad)

We say $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} x_n = \infty$ ($-\infty$) if for all $M \in \mathbb{R}$, there exists $K \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $x_n \geq M$ ($x_n \leq M$) for all $n \geq K$.

We say $\{x_n\}$ is **properly divergent** in case we have $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} x_n = \infty$ or $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} x_n = -\infty$.

Examples:

1) $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} n = \infty$

By Archimedean property, for all $M \in \mathbb{R}$, there exists $K \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $K \geq M$.

Then for all $n \geq K$, we have $n \geq K \geq M$.

2) $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} n^2 = \infty$

(How to prove?)

Generalizing (1):

Theorem:

If $\{x_n\}$ is an unbounded increasing (decreasing) sequence, then $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} x_n = \infty$ ($-\infty$).

proof: (Exercise)

Theorem :

Let $\{x_n\}$ and $\{y_n\}$ be sequences in \mathbb{R} such that $x_n \leq y_n$ for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$.

$$\bullet \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} x_n = \infty \Rightarrow \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} y_n = \infty$$

$$\bullet \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} y_n = -\infty \Rightarrow \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} x_n = -\infty$$

proof: (Exercise)

Remark:

It is particularly useful in studying infinite series.

Exercise:

$$\text{Prove that } \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{n^2+1}{n} = \infty$$