> Robert C. Vaughan

Monotonic Sequences

Subsequences

Limit Inferio and Limit Superior

Cauchy Sequence

# Introduction to Analysis: Monotonic Sequences, and Subsequences

Robert C. Vaughan

March 20, 2024

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Introduction to Analysis: Monotonic Sequences, and Subsequences

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Cauchy Sequence • Definition 5.1. 1. We say that  $\langle a_n \rangle$  is increasing when  $a_n \leq a_{n+1}$  for every  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ , and it is decreasing when  $a_n \geq a_{n+1}$  for every  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ .

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- 2. When a<sub>n</sub> < a<sub>n+1</sub> for every n ∈ N we call it strictly increasing, and on the other hand when a<sub>n</sub> > a<sub>n+1</sub> for every n ∈ N we call it strictly decreasing.

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- 3. Such sequences are called monotonic in case 1. and strictly monotonic in case 2.

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- 3. Such sequences are called monotonic in case 1. and strictly monotonic in case 2.
- There is a modern tendency to use increasing to mean strictly increasing and, by a terrible misuse of language, to use non-decreasing to mean increasing, and a concomitant variant for the other two cases. A student of the English language would expect that the sequence  $\langle (-1)^n \rangle$  is non-decreasing and non-increasing.

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Cauchy Sequence • Example 5.1. 1. Note that the only sequences which are both increasing and decreasing are the constant sequences, such as

 $1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, \dots$ 

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• 2. The sequence  $\langle \frac{1}{n} \rangle$  is strictly decreasing.

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- 2. The sequence  $\langle \frac{1}{n} \rangle$  is strictly decreasing.
- 3. The sequence  $\langle n^2 \rangle$  is strictly increasing.
  - 4. The sequence

$$\left\langle \frac{1}{n} + \frac{(-1)^n}{\sqrt{n}} \right\rangle$$

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• 5. The sequence

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

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

is decreasing but not strictly decreasing.

• All the above, except 4. are monotonic, 2. and 3. are strictly monotonic

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Cauchy Sequence • The next theorem explains the power of the concept. You do not have to know much to be sure of convergence.

# Theorem 1

Every monotonic bounded sequence  $\langle a_n \rangle$  converges. When it is increasing the limit is given by  $\sup\{a_n : n \in \mathbb{N}\}\$  and when it is decreasing it is given by  $\inf\{a_n : n \in \mathbb{N}\}\$ .

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Proof. If ⟨a<sub>n</sub>⟩ is bounded and decreasing, then ⟨-a<sub>n</sub>⟩ is bounded, increasing and inf{a<sub>n</sub> : n ∈ N} = sup{-a<sub>n</sub> : n ∈ N}, so it suffices to suppose that ⟨a<sub>n</sub>⟩ is increasing.

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- As  $\mathcal{A} = \{a_n : n \in \mathbb{N}\}$  is bounded it is bounded above.

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- As  $\mathcal{A} = \{a_n : n \in \mathbb{N}\}$  is bounded it is bounded above.
- Moreover as  $a_1 \in \mathcal{A}$  it is non-empty. Hence sup  $\mathcal{A}$  exists.

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- Hence there exists an  $N \in \mathbb{N}$  so that  $A \varepsilon < a_N \leq A$ .

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- Hence there exists an  $N \in \mathbb{N}$  so that  $A \varepsilon < a_N \leq A$ .
- As ⟨a<sub>n</sub>⟩ is increasing, induction gives A − ε < a<sub>N+n</sub> ≤ A for every n ∈ N, so |a<sub>n</sub> − A| < ε for every n ≥ N.</li>

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• Example 5.2. Recall Example 4.2. 4. where we defined inductively 
$$x_1 = 2$$
,  $x_{n+1} = \frac{1}{2} \left( x_n + \frac{2}{x_n} \right)$ .

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• By induction on  $n, x_n > 0$  for every  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ .

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- By induction on  $n, x_n > 0$  for every  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ .
- Squaring both sides gives  $x_{n+1}^2 = \frac{1}{4}(x_n^2 + 4 + 4x_n^{-2})$ ,

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• Hence 
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- Hence  $x_n^2 \ge 2$  for every  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ .
- Rearranging the original definition gives

$$x_n - x_{n+1} = \frac{x_n}{2} - \frac{1}{x_n} = \frac{x_n^2 - 2}{2x_n} \ge 0, \quad x_{n+1} \le x_n$$

for every  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ , so  $\langle x_n \rangle$  is decreasing and bounded below.

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- By 1. and 2. we have x<sub>n</sub><sup>2</sup> ≥ 2 > 1 and so x<sub>n</sub> > 1. Thus, since l = inf{x<sub>n</sub>} we have l ≥ 1.

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- By 1. and 2. we have x<sub>n</sub><sup>2</sup> ≥ 2 > 1 and so x<sub>n</sub> > 1. Thus, since l = inf{x<sub>n</sub>} we have l ≥ 1.
- By the definition of  $x_n$ , the combination theorem and Example **4.5**,

$$\ell = \lim_{n \to \infty} x_{n+1} = \lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{1}{2} \left( x_n + \frac{2}{x_n} \right) = \frac{1}{2} \left( \ell + \frac{2}{\ell} \right).$$

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- Hence  $x_n^2 \ge 2$  for every  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ .
- Rearranging the original definition gives

$$x_n - x_{n+1} = \frac{x_n}{2} - \frac{1}{x_n} = \frac{x_n^2 - 2}{2x_n} \ge 0, \quad x_{n+1} \le x_n$$

for every  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ , so  $\langle x_n \rangle$  is decreasing and bounded below.

- By Theorem **5.1**,  $\ell = \lim_{n \to \infty} x_n$  exists.
- By 1. and 2. we have x<sub>n</sub><sup>2</sup> ≥ 2 > 1 and so x<sub>n</sub> > 1. Thus, since l = inf{x<sub>n</sub>} we have l ≥ 1.
- By the definition of x<sub>n</sub>, the combination theorem and Example **4.5**,

$$\ell = \lim_{n \to \infty} x_{n+1} = \lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{1}{2} \left( x_n + \frac{2}{x_n} \right) = \frac{1}{2} \left( \ell + \frac{2}{\ell} \right).$$

• Solving for  $\ell$ ,  $\frac{1}{2}\ell = \frac{1}{\ell}, \ell^2 = 2$ . So  $\sqrt{2}$  exists and  $= \ell$ .

# Subsequences

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Introduction to Analysis: Monotonic Sequences, and Subsequences

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Subsequences

Limit Inferio and Limit Superior

Cauchy Sequence Definition 5.2. Suppose that ⟨a<sub>n</sub>⟩ is a sequence and ⟨m<sub>n</sub>⟩ is a strictly increasing sequence of natural numbers. That is, m<sub>n</sub> ∈ N and m<sub>n</sub> < m<sub>n+1</sub> for every n ∈ N. Then we call the sequence ⟨a<sub>m</sub>⟩ a subsequence of ⟨a<sub>n</sub>⟩.

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- Example 5.3. Suppose that

$$a_n = \frac{1}{\sqrt{n}}$$

and  $m_n=n^2$ , so that  $\langle m_n 
angle=1,4,9,16,\ldots$  . Then

$$a_{m_n}=\frac{1}{\sqrt{n^2}}=\frac{1}{n}.$$

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angle=1,4,9,16,\ldots$  . Then

$$a_{m_n}=\frac{1}{\sqrt{n^2}}=\frac{1}{n}.$$

 Subsequences are very useful as a "way in" to the behaviour of a sequence, since a nasty subsequence may well have subsequences which are much easier to deal with and then give us a handle on the original sequence.

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#### Subsequences

Limit Inferio and Limit Superior

Cauchy Sequence • We can make good use of the following theorem.

# Theorem 2

Suppose that the sequence  $\langle a_n \rangle$  converges to  $\ell$ . Then every subsequence of  $\langle a_n \rangle$  converges to  $\ell$ .

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• Since  $m_n \ge n$  we also have  $m_n > N$  when n > N.

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- Let  $\langle m_n \rangle$  be a strictly increasing sequence of elements of  $\mathbb{N}$ .
- Then a simple induction shows that  $m_n \ge n$ .
- Let  $\varepsilon > 0$  and choose N so that whenever n > N we have  $|a_n \ell| < \varepsilon$ .
- Since  $m_n \ge n$  we also have  $m_n > N$  when n > N.
- Therefore for every n > N we have  $|a_{m_n} \ell| < \varepsilon$  and so  $\langle a_{m_n} \rangle$  converges to  $\ell$ .

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Cauchy Sequence • Example 5.4. We can now give a simple proof that  $\langle (-1)^n \rangle$  diverges.

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- Example 5.4. We can now give a simple proof that  $\langle (-1)^n \rangle$  diverges.
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- Then the subsequences  $\langle (-1)^{2n} \rangle$  and  $\langle (-1)^{2n-1} \rangle$  would both converge to  $\ell$ .

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- Then the subsequences  $\langle (-1)^{2n} \rangle$  and  $\langle (-1)^{2n-1} \rangle$  would both converge to  $\ell$ .
- But the first one converges to +1 and the second one to -1 and this would contradict Theorem 4.2.

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#### Subsequences

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Cauchy Sequence • Now we come to a more complex example.

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- By the binomial inequality

$$\left(\frac{n+1}{n+2}\right)^{n+1} = \left(1 - \frac{1}{n+2}\right)^{n+1} \ge 1 - \frac{n+1}{n+2} = \frac{1}{n+2}.$$
$$(n+1)^{n+1} \ge (n+2)^n, \quad (n+1)^{1/n} \ge (n+2)^{1/(n+1)}$$

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- So  $\langle b_n \rangle$  is decreasing, bounded below and convergent.
- We also have

$$1 > \frac{n}{n+1} > \left(\frac{n}{n+1}\right)^n$$
,  $1 > \left(\frac{n}{n+1}\right)^{1/n} = c_n > \frac{n}{n+1}$ 

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• so, by the sandwich theorem,  $\langle c_n \rangle$  converges to 1.

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- so, by the sandwich theorem,  $\langle c_n \rangle$  converges to 1.
- Next we have  $b_n c_n = (n+1)^{1/n} \left(\frac{n}{n+1}\right)^{1/n} = n^{1/n} = a_n$ .

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$$1 > \frac{n}{n+1} > \left(\frac{n}{n+1}\right)^n, \quad 1 > \left(\frac{n}{n+1}\right)^{1/n} = c_n > \frac{n}{n+1}$$

- so, by the sandwich theorem,  $\langle c_n \rangle$  converges to 1.
- Next we have  $b_n c_n = (n+1)^{1/n} \left(\frac{n}{n+1}\right)^{1/n} = n^{1/n} = a_n.$
- Thus  $a_n$  converges and as  $a_n > 1$  we have  $\lim_{n\to\infty} a_n \ge 1$ .

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Cauchy Sequence  We have shown that a<sub>n</sub> = n<sup>1/n</sup> converges and that the limit ℓ is ≥ 1.

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• Now consider the subsequence  $\langle a_{2n} \rangle$ .

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- Hence

$$\ell^2 = \ell, \quad \ell = 1.$$

Thus

$$\lim_{n\to\infty}a_n=\lim_{n\to\infty}b_n=\lim_{n\to\infty}c_n=1.$$

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#### Subsequences

Limit Inferior and Limit Superior

Cauchy Sequences • The next two theorems are extremely useful when a sequence is not necessarily monotonic.

## Theorem 3

Every sequence has a monotonic subsequence.

# Theorem 4 (The Bolzano-Weierstrass Theorem)

Every bounded sequence has a convergent subsequence.

Theorem 4 follows at once by Theorem 3 and the monotonic convergence theorem, Theorem 1.

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• Proof of Theorem 5.3. Let  $\langle a_n \rangle$  be the sequence.

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• If a sequence has infinitely many extrema, then the extrema form a sequence  $m_1 < m_2 < \dots$ 

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- If a sequence has infinitely many extrema, then the extrema form a sequence  $m_1 < m_2 < \dots$
- and since  $m_{k+1} > m_k$  we have  $a_{m_{k+1}} \le a_{m_k}$ .

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- and since  $m_{k+1} > m_k$  we have  $a_{m_{k+1}} \le a_{m_k}$ .
- Thus  $\langle a_{m_k} \rangle$  is a decreasing sequence.

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- If a sequence has infinitely many extrema, then the extrema form a sequence  $m_1 < m_2 < \dots$
- and since  $m_{k+1} > m_k$  we have  $a_{m_{k+1}} \le a_{m_k}$ .
- Thus  $\langle a_{m_k} \rangle$  is a decreasing sequence.
- Now suppose there are at most a finite number of extrema.

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Cauchy Sequence • Repeat.

**Theorem 5.3**. *Every sequence has a monotonic subsequence.* 

• We are left to deal with the case when there are at most a finite number of extrema.

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**Theorem 5.3**. *Every sequence has a monotonic subsequence.* 

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- Let  $n_0$  denote the last extremum, or in the case that there are no extrema let  $n_0 = 1$ .

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• Let  $m_1 = n_0 + 1$ .

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Cauchy Sequences • Repeat.

**Theorem 5.3**. *Every sequence has a monotonic subsequence.* 

- We are left to deal with the case when there are at most a finite number of extrema.
- Let  $n_0$  denote the last extremum, or in the case that there are no extrema let  $n_0 = 1$ .
- Let  $m_1 = n_0 + 1$ .
- Since this is not an extremum there will be an  $m_2 > m_1$  so that  $a_{m_2} > a_{m_1}$ .

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Cauchy Sequences • Repeat.

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• Thus in this case we have constructed an increasing sequence.

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Limit Inferio and Limit Superior

Cauchy Sequence • Example 5.6 1. Recall the Example 4.2, which we examined in detail in Example 5.5 where we defined inductively

$$x_1 = 2, x_{n+1} = \frac{1}{2} \left( x_n + \frac{2}{x_n} \right).$$

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$$x_1 = 2, x_{n+1} = \frac{1}{2} \left( x_n + \frac{2}{x_n} \right).$$

• If  $1 \le x_n \le 2$ , then it follows that

$$1 = \frac{1}{2} \left( 1 + \frac{2}{2} \right) \le x_{n+1} \le \frac{1}{2} \left( 2 + \frac{2}{1} \right) = 2.$$

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 Hence, by induction, x<sub>n</sub> is bounded between 1 and 2. Thus the sequence has a convergent subsequence.

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- Hence, by induction, x<sub>n</sub> is bounded between 1 and 2. Thus the sequence has a convergent subsequence.
- 2. In the example ⟨(-1)<sup>n</sup>⟩ we looked at in Examples 4.7 and 8, each of the subsequences ⟨(-1)<sup>2n</sup>⟩ and ⟨(-1)<sup>2n-1</sup>⟩ are monotonic and convergent.

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### Limit Inferior and Limit Superior

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 Given a sequence ⟨a<sub>n</sub>⟩, let A<sub>n</sub> = {a<sub>m</sub> : m ≥ n} and when the sequence is bounded above we write t<sub>n</sub> = sup A<sub>n</sub>.

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- We could also adopt the convention that if the sequence is unbounded above we write t<sub>n</sub> = ∞, but we should be aware that we cannot then treat t<sub>n</sub> as a number, and here we will avoid this convention.

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- When  $\langle a_n \rangle$  is bounded below we likewise write  $s_n = \inf A_n$ .

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## Limit Inferior and Limit Superior

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- In other words we have a decreasing sequence.
- If the sequence is also bounded below, then each of the sets A<sub>n</sub> is bounded below by the same bound.

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## Limit Inferior and Limit Superior

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- In other words we have a decreasing sequence.
- If the sequence is also bounded below, then each of the sets  $A_n$  is bounded below by the same bound.
- Hence ⟨t<sub>n</sub>⟩ is decreasing and bounded below and so convergent.

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- In other words we have a decreasing sequence.
- If the sequence is also bounded below, then each of the sets  $A_n$  is bounded below by the same bound.
- Hence  $\langle t_n \rangle$  is decreasing and bounded below and so convergent.
- A similar argument shows that  $s_n$  is increasing and bounded above, and so convergent.

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Limit Inferior and Limit Superior

Cauchy Sequence • Definition 5.3. When a sequence  $\langle a_n \rangle$  is bounded we define

$$\limsup_{n\to\infty} a_n = \lim_{n\to\infty} t_n = \limsup_{n\to\infty} \sup\{a_m : m \ge n\}$$

and

$$\liminf_{n\to\infty}a_n=\lim_{n\to\infty}s_n=\lim_{n\to\infty}\inf\{a_m:m\ge n\}.$$

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• The important thing is that when a sequence is bounded these limits always exist.

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- The important thing is that when a sequence is bounded these limits always exist.
- Moreover if we were to adopt a general version of the convention mentioned above, then we could say that they exist even when the sequence is unbounded. This can be very useful and avoids having to deal with objects which might not exist.

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Cauchy Sequence • Example 5.7. Let  $\langle a_n \rangle$  be bounded and let  $\langle a_{m_n} \rangle$  be a convergent subsequence. Then

$$\liminf_{n\to\infty}a_n\leq \lim_{n\to\infty}a_{m_n}\leq \limsup_{n\to\infty}a_n.$$

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• *Proof.* We have  $m_n \ge n$ .

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- *Proof.* We have  $m_n \ge n$ .
- Hence  $a_{m_n} \in \mathcal{A}_n$  and so

$$s_n \leq a_{m_n} \leq t_n$$

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• and the conclusion follows by Corollary 4.7.

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Cauchy Sequence: • The power of the concept is illustrated by Theorem 5.

#### Theorem 5

Suppose that  $\langle a_n \rangle$  is bounded. Then it converges if and only if  $\liminf_{n \to \infty} a_n = \limsup_{n \to \infty} a_n$  and then it converges to the common value.

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• Proof. Note that "if and only if" means we have two tasks.

- 1. Suppose that  $\langle a_n \rangle$  converges.
- Let  $\ell$  be its limit and let  $\varepsilon > 0$ .

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- 1. Suppose that  $\langle a_n \rangle$  converges.
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- Choose N so that whenever n > N we have  $|a_n \ell| < \frac{\varepsilon}{2}$ .

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- Let  $\ell$  be its limit and let  $\varepsilon > 0$ .
- Choose N so that whenever n > N we have  $|a_n \ell| < \frac{\varepsilon}{2}$ .
- When  $a_m \in \mathcal{A}_n$  we have  $m \ge n > N$  so that

$$|\boldsymbol{a}_m-\ell|<rac{arepsilon}{2},\quad \ell-rac{arepsilon}{2}<\boldsymbol{a}_m<\ell+rac{arepsilon}{2}$$

• Since these bounds hold for every element of  $A_n$ , in the notation used in the preamble we have

$$\ell - \varepsilon < \ell - \frac{\varepsilon}{2} \le s_n \le t_n \le \ell + \frac{\varepsilon}{2} < \ell + \varepsilon$$

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• Since these bounds hold for every element of  $A_n$ , in the notation used in the preamble we have

$$\ell - \varepsilon < \ell - \frac{\varepsilon}{2} \le s_n \le t_n \le \ell + \frac{\varepsilon}{2} < \ell + \varepsilon$$

• Thus for every n > N we have  $|s_n - \ell| < \varepsilon$ ,  $|t_n - \ell| < \varepsilon$ and so  $\liminf_{n \to \infty} a_n = l = \limsup_{n \to \infty} a_n \cdot z_n = 0$ 

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Cauchy Sequence • 2. Suppose that

$$\liminf_{n\to\infty} a_n = \limsup_{n\to\infty} a_n.$$

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$$\liminf_{n\to\infty}a_n=\limsup_{n\to\infty}a_n.$$

• As in Example 5.7 we have

$$s_n \leq a_n \leq t_n$$
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• Then the conclusion follows from the sandwich theorem, Theorem 4.5.

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### • **Example 5.8.** Define $\langle a_n \rangle$ as follows.

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Cauchy Sequence Example 5.8. Define ⟨a<sub>n</sub>⟩ as follows.
Let k ∈ N and when k(k-1)/2 < n ≤ (k+1)k/2 define</li>

$$m = n - \frac{k(k-1)}{2}, a_n = \frac{m}{k}$$

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Cauchy Sequence Example 5.8. Define ⟨a<sub>n</sub>⟩ as follows.
Let k ∈ N and when k(k-1)/2 < n ≤ (k+1)k/2 define m = n - k(k-1)/2, a<sub>n</sub> = m/k.

Since 
$$\frac{(k+1)k}{2} - \frac{k(k-1)}{2} = k$$
 for this range of *n* we have everything of the form

$$\frac{1}{k}, \frac{2}{k}, \ldots, \frac{k}{k}.$$

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- Example 5.8. Define ⟨a<sub>n</sub>⟩ as follows.
  Let k ∈ N and when k(k-1)/2 < n ≤ (k+1)k/2 define m = n k(k-1)/2, a<sub>n</sub> = m/k.
- Since  $\frac{(k+1)k}{2} \frac{k(k-1)}{2} = k$  for this range of *n* we have everything of the form

$$\frac{1}{k}, \frac{2}{k}, \ldots, \frac{k}{k}$$

• Hence our sequence is just an ordering of all the rational numbers in (0, 1], with repetitions of course

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

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Limit Inferior and Limit Superior

Cauchy Sequence

- Example 5.8. Define ⟨a<sub>n</sub>⟩ as follows.
  Let k ∈ N and when k(k-1)/2 < n ≤ (k+1)k/2 define m = n k(k-1)/2, a<sub>n</sub> = m/k.
- Since  $\frac{(k+1)k}{2} \frac{k(k-1)}{2} = k$  for this range of *n* we have everything of the form

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Cauchy Sequence Example 5.8. Define ⟨a<sub>n</sub>⟩ as follows.
Let k ∈ N and when k(k-1)/2 < n ≤ (k+1)k/2 define m = n - k(k-1)/2, a<sub>n</sub> = m/k.

Since 
$$\frac{(k+1)k}{2} - \frac{k(k-1)}{2} = k$$
 for this range of *n* we have everything of the form

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- Another  $m_k = \frac{k(k-1)}{2} + k = \frac{(k+1)k}{2}$ ,  $a_{m_k} = \frac{k}{k} = 1$  and this converges to 1.
- It follows that  $\liminf_{n\to\infty} a_n = 0$ ,  $\limsup_{n\to\infty} a_n = 1$ .

### Cauchy Sequences

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Introduction to Analysis: Monotonic Sequences, and Subsequences

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Limit Inferio and Limit Superior

Cauchy Sequences • When we introduced the idea of convergence we mentioned that one of the difficulties with the definition is the need to know the value of the limit.

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- As we have seen this is a major issue and we have used various work rounds.

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- Definition 5.3. A sequence (a<sub>n</sub>) is a Cauchy sequence when for every ε > 0 there is an N > 0 such that whenever n > N and m > N we have

$$|a_n-a_m|<\varepsilon.$$

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We remark that in order to satisfy the criterion for being a Cauchy sequence it suffices to know that the above holds just for n > m > N because that gives the case m < n, the case n < m holds by interchanging the values of m and n, and the case m = n is clear.</li>

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• There is an immediately useful theorem.

# Theorem 6

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# Theorem 6

A sequence converges if and only if it is a Cauchy sequence.

• We do not have to know anything about the limit!

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- We do not have to know anything about the limit!
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# Theorem 6

- We do not have to know anything about the limit!
- Proof. We have two tasks.
- **1.** Suppose that the sequence  $\langle a_n \rangle$  converges.
- Let  $\ell$  be the limit and let  $\varepsilon > 0$ .

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- **1.** Suppose that the sequence  $\langle a_n \rangle$  converges.
- Let  $\ell$  be the limit and let  $\varepsilon > 0$ .
- Choose N so that whenever n > N we have  $|a_n \ell| < \frac{\varepsilon}{2}$ .
- Then for any m, n with n > N, m > N, by the triangle inequality, |a<sub>n</sub> a<sub>m</sub>| =

$$|a_n - \ell - (a_m - \ell)| \le |a_m - \ell| + |a_m - \ell| < \frac{\varepsilon}{2} + \frac{\varepsilon}{2} = \varepsilon.$$

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- Choose  $N_0$  so that whenever  $n > M > N_0$  we have  $|a_n a_m| < 1$ , and then choose  $M \in \mathbb{N}$  so that  $N_0 < M \le N_0 + 1$  and M is fixed by  $N_0$ .

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- Let  $\varepsilon > 0$ . Choose  $N_1$  so that whenever  $n > N_1$  we have

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Cauchy Sequences • We just showed there is an  $N_1$  so that when  $n > N_1$ 

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 (4.1)

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• We are assuming that we have a Cauchy sequence. Hence there is an  $N_2$  so that when  $n > N_2$  and  $m > N_2$  we have

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• Now choose  $N = \max\{N_1, N_2\}$ , so that whenever n > N we have  $n > N_2$  and  $m_n > N_1$ .

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- Then  $m_n \ge n > N_2$  also.
- Hence, by the triangle inequality, (4.1) and (4.2), when n > N we have  $|a_n \ell| =$

$$|a_n-a_{m_n}+a_{m_n}-\ell|\leq |a_n-a_{m_n}|+|a_{m_n}-\ell|<rac{arepsilon}{2}+rac{arepsilon}{2}=arepsilon.$$

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Cauchy Sequences Example 5.9. Suppose that 0 < λ < 1 and ⟨a<sub>n</sub>⟩ is a sequence which satisfies for each n ≥ 1 |a<sub>n+1</sub> - a<sub>n</sub>| < λ<sup>n</sup>.

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- We have, for n > m ≥ 1, by generalizing the triangle inequality to n − m terms (an easy induction), |a<sub>n</sub> − a<sub>m</sub>|

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- Indeed given any real number l it is possible to construct a sequence which satisfies the hypothesis and converges to l!
- For example, take  $a_n = \ell + \lambda^n$ .