

You must remember and be able to use all the definitions and theorems stated in this week's notes. Their proofs can be found in the CM115 lecture notes. *The proofs are not examinable.*

CONVERGENT SEQUENCES

Let $\{a_n\}$ be a sequence.

The Crucial Definition. We say that $\{a_n\}$ converges to a number a and write $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = a$ or $a_n \rightarrow a$ if

$$\forall \varepsilon > 0 \exists n_\varepsilon \in \mathbb{N} : n \geq n_\varepsilon \Rightarrow |a_n - a| < \varepsilon.$$

In usual words, this means the following: for every positive ε there is a positive integer n_ε such that $|a_n - a| < \varepsilon$ whenever $n \geq n_\varepsilon$. The number a is called the *limit* of $\{a_n\}$. A sequence which has a limit is called a *convergent* sequence.

One can reformulate the above definition in “geometric” terms.

The Crucial Definition: another version. The sequence $\{a_n\}$ converges to a number a if for every $\varepsilon > 0$ there are only finitely many elements a_n lying outside the open interval $(a - \varepsilon, a + \varepsilon)$.

Remark. There are divergent sequences, that is, the sequences which do not converge to a limit. For instance, the sequence $\{+1, -1, +1, -1, +1, \dots\}$ does not converge.

Definition. We say that $\{a_n\}$ converges to $+\infty$ and write $a_n \rightarrow +\infty$ if

$$\forall R > 0 \exists n_R \in \mathbb{N} : n \geq n_R \Rightarrow a_n > R.$$

Similarly, we say that the sequence $\{a_n\}$ converges to $-\infty$ and write $a_n \rightarrow -\infty$ if

$$\forall R > 0 \exists n_R \in \mathbb{N} : n \geq n_R \Rightarrow a_n < -R.$$

Example. The sequence $\{1, 2, 3, 4, \dots\}$ does not converge to a limit in \mathbb{R} but converges to $+\infty$. The sequence $\{1, \frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{3}, \dots\}$ converges to 0. Both these results follow from the Archimedean Property.

THEOREMS ABOUT CONVERGENT SEQUENCES

Convergence \Rightarrow Boundedness. Every convergent sequence is bounded.

Monotone Convergence Theorem. Every bounded from above nondecreasing sequence a_n converges to its least upper bound (supremum). Every bounded from below nonincreasing sequence converges to its greatest lower bound (infimum).

Comparison Theorem. If $b_n \rightarrow 0$ and $|a_n| \leq b_n$ for all n then $a_n \rightarrow 0$.

The Sandwich Theorem. If $a_n \rightarrow c$, $b_n \rightarrow c$ and $a_n \leq c_n \leq b_n$ for all n then $c_n \rightarrow c$.

Theorem: algebraic rules for limits. Assume that $a_n \rightarrow a$ and $b_n \rightarrow b$. Then $a_n + b_n \rightarrow a + b$ and $a_n b_n \rightarrow ab$. If, in addition, $b \neq 0$ then $a_n/b_n \rightarrow a/b$.

The following examples illustrate how one can find limits with the use of above theorems.

Example. Let $a_1 = 2$ and $a_{n+1} = \frac{a_n^2+1}{2a_n}$ for all $n = 1, 2, 3, \dots$. Then $a_n \rightarrow 1$.

Proof. Since $a_1 > 1$ and $\frac{b^2+1}{2b} \geq 1$ for all $b > 0$, we have $a_n \geq 1$ for all n . This implies that $a_{n+1} \leq a_n$, that is, the sequence is nonincreasing. By the Monotone Convergence Theorem, it converges to its g.l.b. a . Obviously, $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_{n+1}$. Therefore, by the above, $a = \frac{a^2+1}{2a}$. Solving this equation, we obtain $a = 1$.

Example. If $k \in \mathbb{N}$ then $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} n^k 2^{-n} = 0$.

Proof. Note first of all that $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{n+1}{n} = 1$. Consequently, $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left(\frac{n+1}{n}\right)^k = 1$ for all $k \in \mathbb{N}$. Let $a_n = n^k 2^{-n}$. Then $a_{n+1}/a_n = \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{n+1}{n}\right)^k$. By the above, there exists n_0 such that $a_{n+1}/a_n < \frac{2}{3}$ for all $n \geq n_0$. But then $a_{n_0+m} \leq \left(\frac{2}{3}\right)^m a_{n_0}$ for all $m = 1, 2, \dots$. This estimate and the Comparison Theorem imply that $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = 0$.

Exercise. Let $k \in \mathbb{R}$ and $b > 1$. Prove that $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} n^k b^{-n} = 0$.

SUBSEQUENCES AND ACCUMULATION POINTS

Definition. A *subsequence* of a sequence is any sequence obtained by leaving out particular terms from the original sequence. A subsequence of the sequence $\{a_n\}$ is usually denoted by $\{a_{n_k}\}$ where $k \in \mathbb{N}$ is a new index, and n_k are the “numbers” of elements of the original sequence included in the subsequence.

Definition. A number c is said to be an *accumulation point* (or a *limit point*) of the sequence $\{a_n\}$ if there exists a subsequence $\{a_{n_k}\}$ such that $\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} a_{n_k} = c$.

Exercise. Let $\{a_n\}$ be a convergent sequence and $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = a$. Prove that every subsequence of $\{a_n\}$ converges to a .

Corollary. A convergent sequence has a unique accumulation point, which coincides with its limit.

Proof. If a sequence converges to a then, by the above, all its subsequences converges to a . It follows that a is an accumulation point and there are no other accumulation points.

Remark. It may well happen that a subsequence converges to a limit but the sequence itself does not converge. A typical is $\{+1, -1, +1, -1, \dots\}$. One can show that a sequence converges to a limit c if and only if **every** its subsequence converges to this limit.

Remark. A sequence may have many accumulation points. For example, if a sequence contains all rational numbers then every real number is its accumulation point.

Exercise. Show that c is an accumulation point if and only if any open interval of the form $(c - \varepsilon, c + \varepsilon)$ contains infinitely many elements of the sequence $\{a_n\}$.

The Bolzano–Weierstrass Theorem. Every bounded sequence has a convergent subsequence and, consequently, an accumulation point. If $a_n \in [a, b]$ for all n then the accumulation points of $\{a_n\}$ belong to the closed interval $[a, b]$.

CAUCHY SEQUENCES

Definition. We say that $\{a_n\}$ is a *Cauchy sequence* if

$$\forall \varepsilon > 0 \exists n_\varepsilon \in \mathbb{N} : m, n \geq n_\varepsilon \Rightarrow |a_m - a_n| < \varepsilon$$

or, in usual words, if for all $\varepsilon > 0$ there exists n_ε such that $|a_m - a_n| < \varepsilon$ whenever $m, n \geq n_\varepsilon$.

In other words, $\{a_n\}$ is a Cauchy sequence if the distance $|a_n - a_m|$ between its elements goes to zero as $m, n \rightarrow \infty$ (but this is not a rigorous definition).

Cauchy's Theorem. Every Cauchy sequence converges and, conversely, every convergent sequence is Cauchy.