

Mathematics-I
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Lecture – 3
Sequences - II

Let us start with sequences again. In the last lecture, we have seen certain algebraic properties of the sequence.

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The image shows a whiteboard with handwritten mathematical notes. The notes are as follows:

$$\{x_n\} \& \{y_n\}$$
$$x_n \rightarrow l, y_n \rightarrow m$$
$$\Rightarrow x_n + y_n \rightarrow l + m$$
$$z_n = x_n y_n + n$$
$$\Rightarrow z_n \rightarrow lm$$
$$w_n = \frac{x_n}{y_n}, y_n > 0$$
$$\Rightarrow w_n \rightarrow \frac{l}{m}$$

Example $x_n = \frac{2n}{1+n^2}$

That is, let us say, I have a sequence x_n and I have a sequence y_n such that both the sequences are convergent and x_n converges to l , y_n converges to m , then we have that x_n plus y_n converges to l plus m . Similarly we have certain results about multiplication of sequences also. That is, given the sequences x_n and y_n , I can look at a new sequence z_n . This is defined by x_n into y_n for all n and then we have seen that it implies z_n also converges and it converges to $l m$. Similarly we have something about x_n divided by y_n , of course, under the condition that y_n is bigger than 0. This implies that this new sequence, which you might call w_n , this w_n then converges to l by m .

Now the importance of these results actually is that given limits of sequences, we can certainly find out limits of some other sequences made out of the old sequences. For example, let us look at the sequence x_n which is given by $\frac{2}{n^2} \cdot \frac{1}{\frac{1}{n} + 1}$, where n is bigger than or equal to 1. Now you want to know what is the limit of this sequence, if at all it converges. We will see very soon that it does.

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Handwritten mathematical derivation on a whiteboard:

$$x_n = \frac{\frac{2}{n^2}}{\frac{1}{n} + 1}$$

$$x_n' = \frac{2}{n^2} \Rightarrow x_n' \rightarrow 0$$

$$x_n'' = \frac{1}{\frac{1}{n} + 1}, \frac{1}{n} \rightarrow 0$$

↓
constant sequence

$$x_n'' = 1 + \frac{1}{n}$$

$$x_n'' \rightarrow 1 \Rightarrow x_n'' \rightarrow 1 + 0 = 1$$

$$x_n = \frac{x_n'}{x_n''}, \left. \begin{array}{l} x_n'' \rightarrow 1 \\ x_n' \rightarrow 0 \end{array} \right\} \Rightarrow x_n \rightarrow 0 \cdot 1 = 0.$$

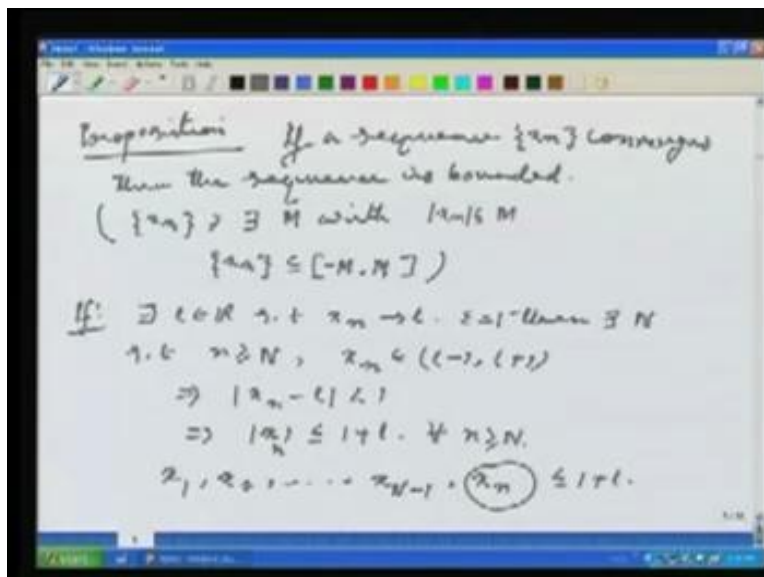
Well, what we do is, we write x_n as $\frac{2}{n^2} \cdot \frac{1}{\frac{1}{n} + 1}$. That means, I am just dividing the numerator and the denominator by n^2 . Now let us concentrate on the numerator, which I can think of it as x_n' of n , which is $\frac{2}{n^2}$. What is the limit of this sequence? Well, by Archimedean property, I have that x_n' actually converges to 0. What about $\frac{1}{\frac{1}{n} + 1}$? I call this sequence x_n'' which is $\frac{1}{\frac{1}{n} + 1}$. Notice that I already know that $\frac{1}{n}$ converges to 0.

Then think of this 1 as the constant sequence 1. That is, it is given by $z_n = 1$ for all n and then we know that the sequence z_n converges to 1. This implies that the sequence x_n'' , using our previous result, that it converges to $1 + 0$ which is equals to 1. Now then I have that x_n equals to x_n' divided by x_n'' and I know that x_n' converges to 0, I am sorry, x_n'' converges to 1 and x_n'

converges to 0. Then again use the previous result. This implies that x_n converges to 0 into 1, which is 0. This is how, given old sequences you can produce new sequences which converge and we can find out our limit in terms of the old sequences.

But now the important question arises, that after all when does a sequence converge? Is it necessary that if I want to find out whether a sequence converges or not, is it really necessary to know what exactly is the limit? That is the question we are going to address but first we would like to have a necessary condition under which a sequence converges. Let us first observe one thing.

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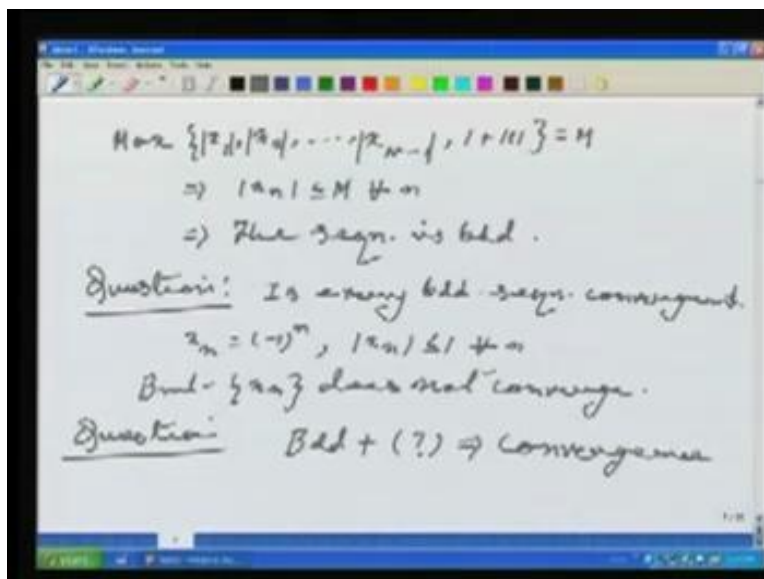


I will call it a proposition. It is really easy to prove; follows straight way from the definition. If a sequence x_n converges, then the sequence is bounded. What does a bounded sequence mean? Bounded sequence means it is a sequence x_n , such that there exist a real number M with mod of x_n is less or equals to M . That essentially means the whole sequence can be thought of as a subset of the interval minus M, M . So let us see, how does the proof follow? Since I said the sequence x_n converges, that means there exist a real number l , where the sequence converge. So there exists l , a real number such that x_n converges to l .

Then I apply the definition. I take epsilon equal to 1. Then there exist a stage such that after this stage, the whole sequence x_n actually is in the interval $l - 1, l + 1$. This implies that $|x_n - l| < 1$, which again implies $|x_n| < |l| + 1$. But this happens after certain stage. If I have to prove that a sequence is bounded, I have to show that there exist a number M , such that all the terms of the sequence are less than that number M .

I have shown it; that this is true after certain stage. What happens to the previous stages? Notice that there are only finitely many stages x_1, x_2, \dots, x_{n-1} and after this whatever x_n I have, they satisfy the inequality that this is lesser equal to $|l| + 1$. Then to arrange the bound which I called M , what I do is, I just look at the maximum of the numbers x_1, x_2, \dots, x_{n-1} and then I look at $|l| + 1$. This certainly exists which I call M .

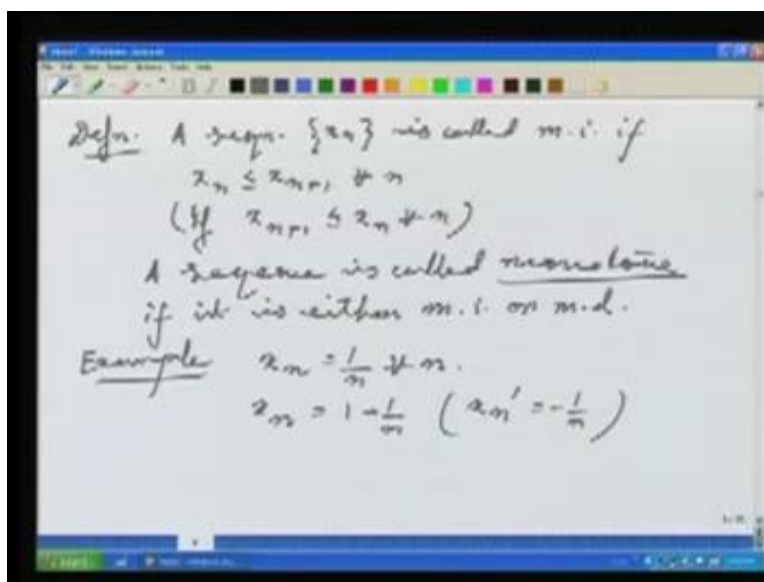
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Then this implies that $|x_n| < M$, let me put mods here also, then it implies that this is less or equals to M for all n . This implies the sequence is bounded. Then the question remains, is the converse true? So the question is, is every bounded sequence convergent? The

answer is no and we can easily see that. If I look at the sequence x_n equals to minus 1 to the power n , then it is clear that $\text{mod of } x_n$ is less or equals to 1 for all n but we know that the sequence does not converge but x_n does not converge. So the question then remains and that is the most fundamental question which we are going to take up now, that bounded plus what extra condition I need, which will imply convergence.

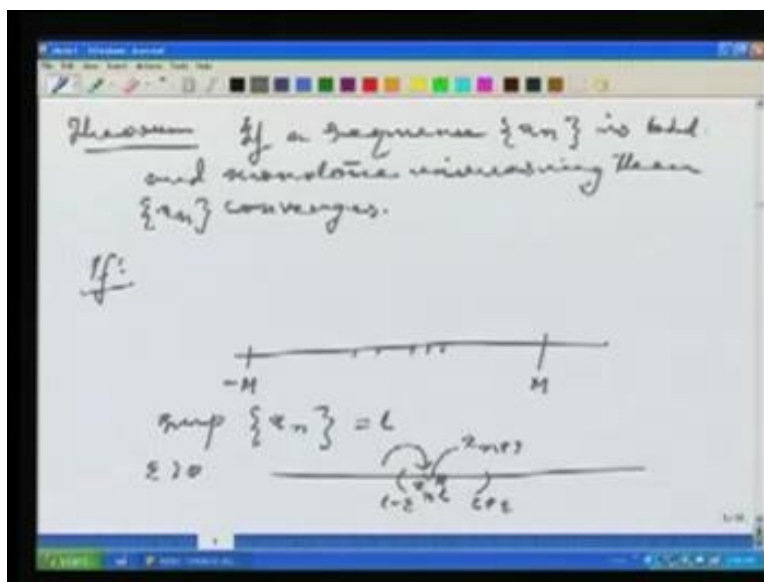
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I will try to supply one such condition first. So let us see one such theorem in this direction. For that first I need one definition. So the definition what I need is, of a monotone sequence. So what is a monotone sequence? A sequence x_n is called monotone increasing, in short m.i, if x_n is lesser equal to x_{n+1} for all n . That means, as you go towards infinity, your terms are slowly increasing one after other. Similarly the reverse of this is called the monotone decreasing sequence. That is, if x_{n+1} is lesser equals to x_n for all n and a sequence is called monotone if it is either monotone increasing or monotone decreasing. So a sequence is called monotone if it is either monotone increasing or monotone decreasing and you will try to prove that given any sequence, if it is bounded and it is monotone then it actually converges and we have seen some such examples.

For example, if I look at this sequence x_n equals to $1/n$ for all n , we have already seen that the limit of this sequence is 0. Notice that this sequence is a bounded sequence. It is anyway bounded by 1 and in the below, it is bounded by 0 and certainly it is monotone because as you go on increasing this n the numbers actually decrease. So it is a monotone decreasing sequence. Similarly I can look at x_n equals to $1 - 1/n$ since I know that the sequence $1/n$ converges to 0. That means, $1 - 1/n$, that converges to 1 and this sequence anyway is monotone increasing because as you go on increasing the n s, this $1/n$ are decreasing. That means $1 - 1/n$ are increasing and there is nothing holy about this one. In fact I look at x_n prime equals to $-1/n$. Then this sequence also converges to 0 and it is now monotone increasing. So let us try to prove the theorem now.

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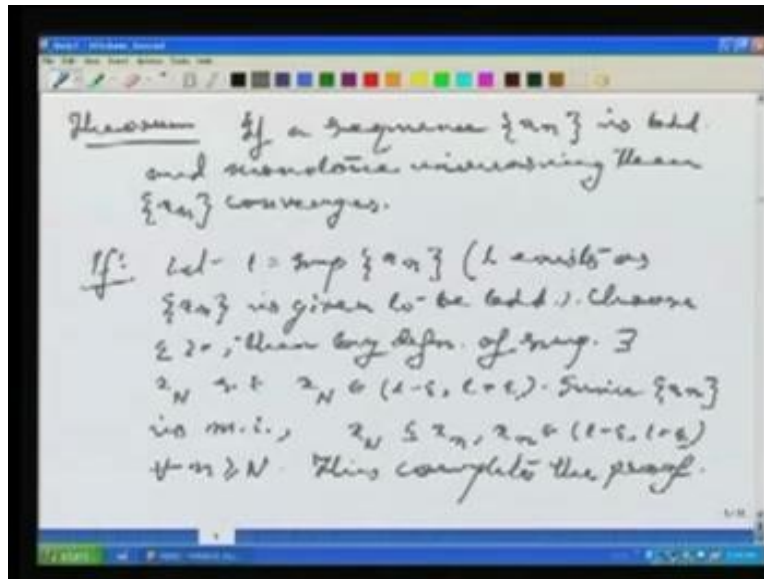
If the sequence x_n is bounded and monotone increasing, then x_n converges. I have stated the theorem just for monotone increasing sequence but you can prove the same result for monotone decreasing sequences also. Just look at the proof which I gave you. Then try to mimic the proof. The result will follow analogously and the proof essentially is just drawing the picture. It will follow that way. So before writing down the formal proof, let me just draw the picture of this.

So this is real line and the sequence x_n points are here but there is a bound here, let us say M and there is a minus M here. Now the sequence has to converge somewhere. First, you have to somehow get hold of the candidate who can be the limit of the sequence. Who can be the candidate? First of all, once somebody gives you a bounded non empty subset of real line then the first thing you will think about is its supremum. You can think about its infimum also. Let us get hold of the supremum. First, so supremum of x_n let us look at and let me call it l since I am always denoting the limit is by l , now you can guess that this l is actually going to be the limit.

Let us try to see whether it is true or not. So I take any epsilon bigger than 0. That means I have l here and I am choosing an interval around this. Now the first thing I know is that this $l - \epsilon$, this certainly cannot be an upper bound of this x_n s. If it is, then this l cannot be the supremum because $l - \epsilon$ is less than l , means what? It means there exists a member of the sequence which surpasses this $l - \epsilon$. That is, it is sitting somewhere here.

At the same time you notice that all these x_n s are actually less than l and it is monotone increasing. So what happens to x_{n+1} , if I want to look at x_{n+1} , it has to be somewhere here. Then x_{n+1} is sitting here. Then x_{n+2} is sitting here; so is x_{n+3} . That means after this x_n , all the terms are actually between $l - \epsilon$ and l by monotonousity of the sequence. Well that is the proof. So let us just try to write it down formally.

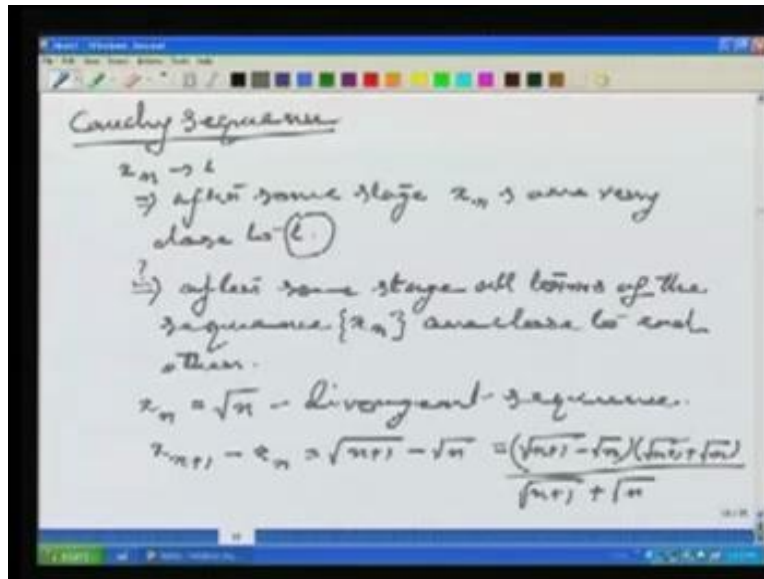
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Let l be supremum of x_n . In the bracket I will write l exists as x_n is given to be bounded. Choose ϵ bigger than 0. Then by definition of supremum, there exist capital x_n such that capital x_n belongs to l minus ϵ , l plus ϵ . The rest is simple. Since x_n is monotone increasing, x_n is lesser equals to x_n and x_n belongs to l minus ϵ , l plus ϵ for all n bigger than or equals to N . But is not this the condition which you want for the convergence of the sequence? This completes the proof. If you want to prove an analogue of the same result with monotone decreasing sequence, then what is the change? The only change is, instead of this, the supremum rather we should look at the infimum. Then the rest of the proof is exactly same.

Now the next question we are going to address is, can we really talk about convergence of the sequence without referring to its limit, because as it happens that, given a sequence, it might be extremely difficult to find out exactly what the limit of the sequence is. So without referring to the limit can I talk about convergence of a sequence? If you look back at the definition of the convergence, it actually involves the limit. So is there any way to define convergence without referring to the limit.

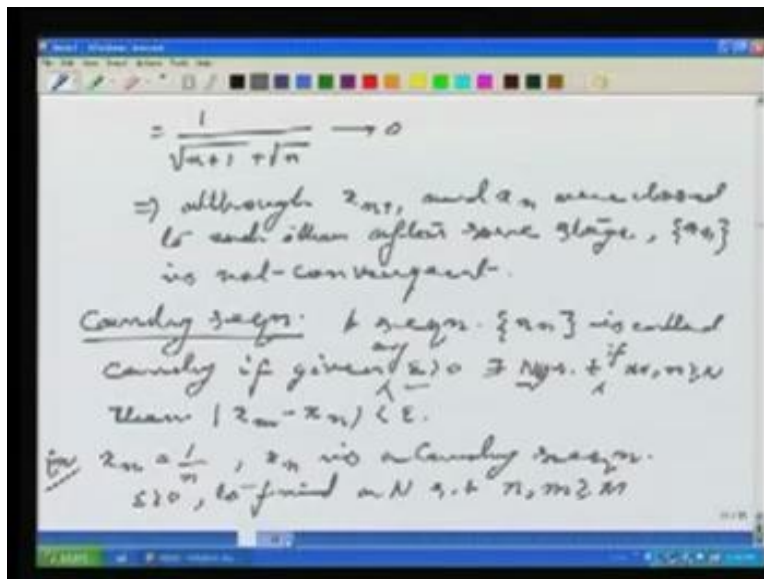
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That brings us to the notion of something called Cauchy sequences. That is the thing we are going to take up now. It comes out from a very intuitive way of looking at the convergence that x_n converges to l implies, after some stage all the x_n 's are very close to l . Now from this statement, if I want to get rid of this l , can I think of this way, that all the terms of the sequences are getting very close to each other. Is it same as saying that after some stage, all terms of the sequence x_n are close to each other?

We want to see whether it is true or false. I would say intuitively it looks correct to me because if all the terms after certain stage are getting close to l certainly they are getting very close to each other but still some amount of quantification is actually required. Follows from this example, let us look at the sequence x_n , which is given by square root of n plus 1 minus square root of n , sorry, let me look at this sequence x_n equals to square root of n , certainly a divergent sequence but notice that if I look at x_{n+1} minus x_n which is square root of n plus 1 minus square root of n which can also be written as the product of (square root of n plus 1 minus square root of n into square root of n plus one plus square root of n).

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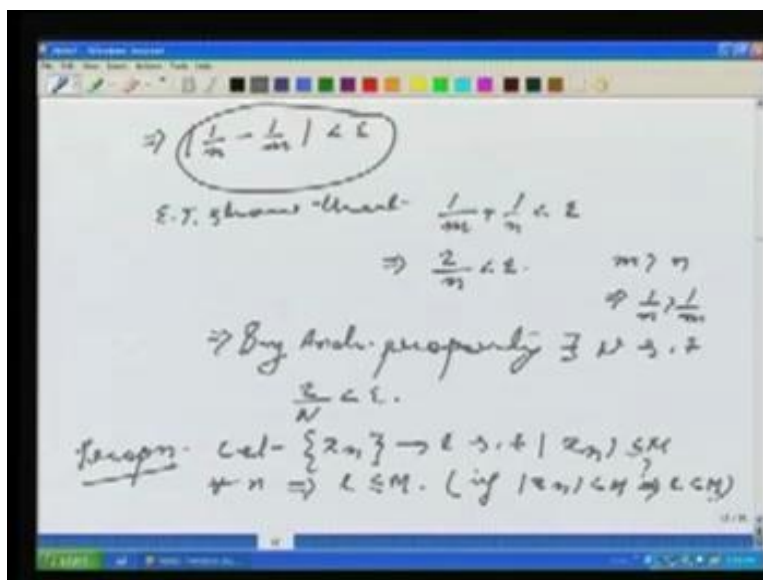
This is very simple now if you compute the numerator, what comes out that, this is equals to 1 by square root of n plus 1 plus square root of n. What does this show? It shows that this goes to 0 because the denominator converges to infinity and I am looking at something like 1 by infinity, you know. So that goes to 0. It implies that although x_{n+1} and x_n are close to each other, after some stage x_n is not convergent. That means, just two consecutive terms as you go towards infinity, they are getting close. That does not ensure the convergence of the sequence.

What actually you need is, all the terms after certain stage they can be squeezed together almost. That is the meaning of the, that will turn out to be the meaning of the convergence. So let us try to proceed in that direction. So first I define something called Cauchy sequence. We will see that the definition actually contrasts with the previous example in certain way. I say a sequence x_n is called Cauchy, if given epsilon bigger than 0 there exist a stage such that after this stage, if I take two elements then the difference between x_m and x_n is less than epsilon.

Here one thing I have not written but you should understand that I actually mean, that means, whatever short length you assume after certain stage any two elements, they have

the distance less than that epsilon. With this epsilon, N will vary. That is the only thing. So I can actually write N epsilon. Notice that if I have this sequence x_n equals to $1/n$, I say x_n is a Cauchy sequence. How does this follow? I pick any epsilon bigger than 0.

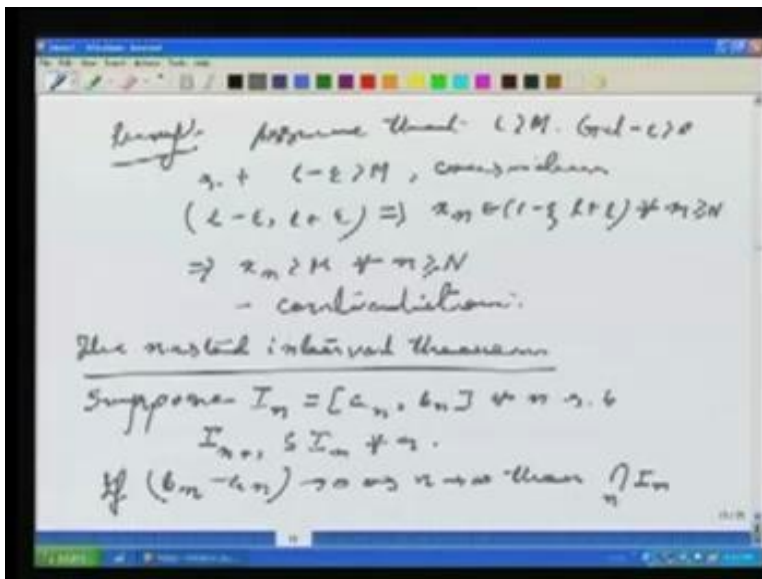
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I have to find a stage capital N such that n m bigger than capital N implies mod of 1 by n minus 1 by m is less than epsilon. This is my job. To make this less than epsilon, I say it is enough to show that 1 by m plus 1 by n is less epsilon. This implies then if I assume that m is bigger than n, that 2 by n is less than epsilon but I can always find some such n again by Archimedean property. There exist capital N such that 2 by capital N is less than epsilon.

That finishes the job and I already know that the sequence x_n converges. So it might happen that if a sequence is Cauchy, it does converge. To prove that, we have to prove certain things first. The first thing I need is, first an observation, let us write it this way: proposition. Let x_n be a convergent sequence and converges to l such that x_n is less or equal to m for all n. I say this implies l is also less or equals to m. You can take it as a little exercise, that if mod of x_n is strictly less than M does this imply l is also strictly less than M. Think about it. Now, how to prove this?

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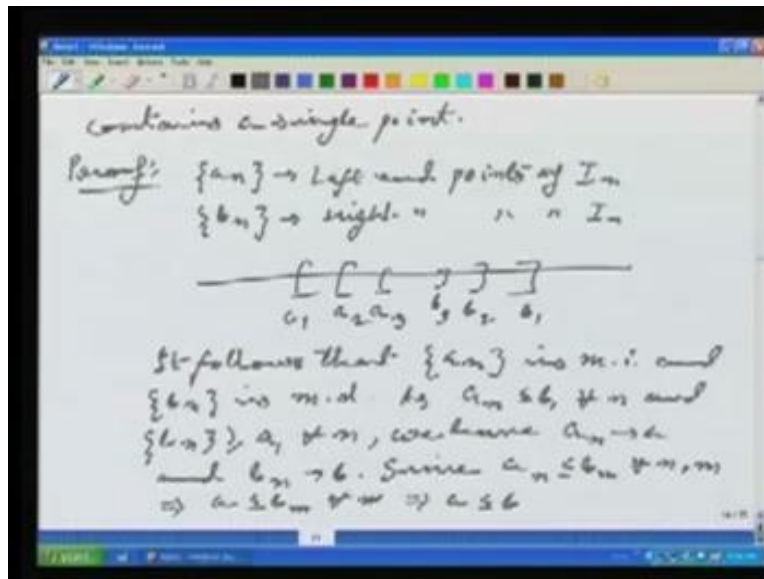


Proof is again simple. Assume that l strictly bigger than M , then anyway you can manufacture epsilon such that l minus epsilon is strictly bigger than M and then I look at.. Now I know since the sequence x_n converges to l after certain stage, all the x_n s are inside l minus epsilon, l plus epsilon but that implies those elements x_n s are actually bigger than M , which they are not allowed to be. I say, by definition of convergence, this implies that x_n belongs to l minus epsilon l plus epsilon for all n bigger than or equal to some capital N . But this implies x_n is bigger than m for all n bigger than or equals to n which is a contradiction because all the x_n s are supposed to be less than M .

The next thing I need is called the cantor intersection theorem or the nested interval theorem. It is again another statement which seems intuitively very clear but surprisingly it requires a proof. Well, the theorem is that, suppose I_n is a closed interval given by a_n and b_n for all n such that I_{n+1} is contained in I_n . That means as n increases, the intervals are getting smaller and smaller, one is contained in the other and that is the meaning of the word nested. Also assume that the closed interval a_n, b_n are getting smaller and smaller. That means, the intervals are actually squeezing. That means, their lengths are actually going to 0.

So that is the next statement. If $b_n - a_n \rightarrow 0$, notice that this is nothing but the length of the intervals I_n , if this goes to 0 as n goes to infinity, then what happens to the total intersection of the I_n 's? Does it become an empty set suddenly? The answer is no. It is still non empty but there is only one point in the intersection. Then intersection of $\bigcap I_n$ contains a single point.

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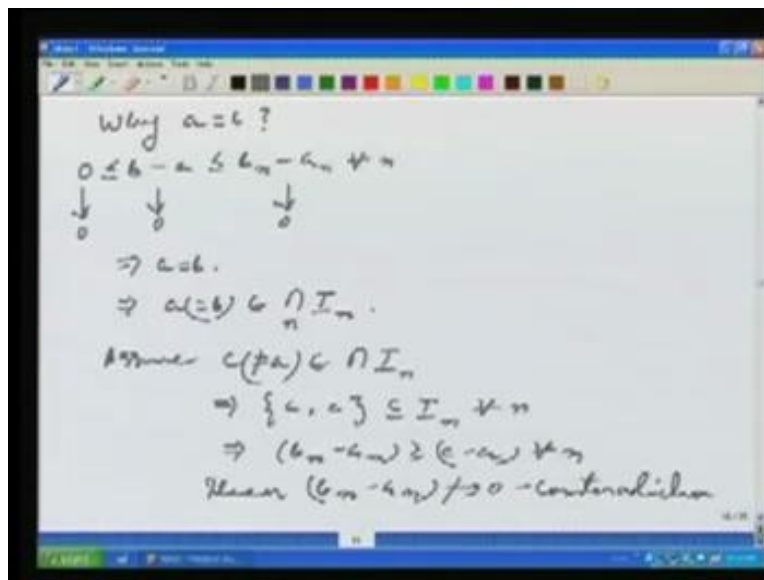
So let us try to prove this. First, let us consider the sequence a_n . This is the left end points of I_n . Similarly I can consider the b_n 's also. That is the right end points of I_n 's. Somehow I have manufactured two sequences and I want to talk about its limits. The question is, are these sequences convergent? I say yes because as I_n 's are getting smaller and smaller, this is my I_1 so a_1 , and b_1 then I look at I_2 which is a_2, b_2 then I look at I_3 which is a_3, b_3 . It follows that the sequence a_n is an increasing sequence. It follows that the sequence a_n is monotone increasing and the sequence b_n is monotone decreasing.

Now if I want to ensure that the sequence a_n converges, what else I need? Every monotone increasing sequence does not converge. You can look at the sequence $x_n = n$; it goes to infinity. So the condition you need is bounded that I have proved few minutes back. Let us see whether the sequence a_n is bounded. Notice that all the a_n 's, which I am

looking at, they are actually bounded by $b - 1$ anyway. As a_n is less or equals to $b - 1$ follows straight way from the picture which I have drawn, for all n and the sequence $b - a_n$, it is actually bounded below by 1 for all n . We have that both the sequences converge.

Now I need to know what is the relation between a_n and b_n . Now I apply the previous result which I have proved. All the a_n 's are less or equals to, since a_n 's, now notice that a_n is lesser equals to b_m for all m and n . That again follows from the picture. This implies then by our previous result, that a is less or equals to $b - 1$ for all n . Then again reapplying the lemma it follows that a is lesser equals to b . If I can somehow show that a is equal to b then I am true. Now here actually the role is played by that the distances are actually getting to going to 0 . So let us try to see why a equal to b .

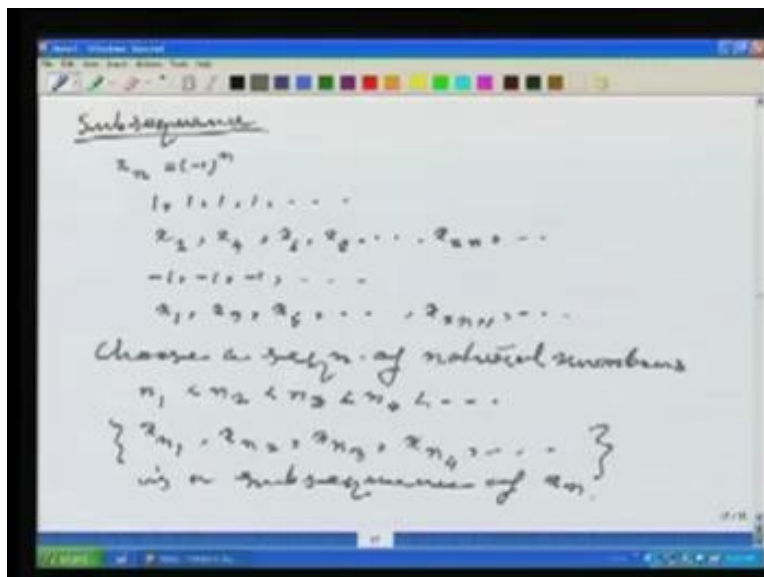
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Now to say this is very easy, just notice one thing that $b - a$ is certainly less or equals to $b_n - a_n$ for all n and I also know that this is bigger than or equal to 0 , that I have proved but as n goes to infinity, this converges to 0 . This, I treat as the constant sequence which converges to 0 and then I use sandwich theorem. That means this converges to 0 but this converges to 0 means what? It is the constant sequence. This implies, a must be equal to b and that is it.

That is actually, it is in the total intersection but it still remains to prove. All I have proved is there is something in the total intersection. There might be some c_n in the total intersection. Why there is a single point? Suppose there is some other element c in the total intersection. So assume c which is not equal to a is in intersection I_n , means what? It implies that the set a and c . It is actually contained in I_n for all n . This implies that b_n minus a_n , which is the length of the interval is certainly bigger than or equal to c minus a for all n and then the length b_n minus a_n , which is supposed to go to 0 is not going to 0 which is a contradiction means what? It means, there is no such c and anyway there is a . So that means the total intersection must be a singleton set. So this completes the proof.

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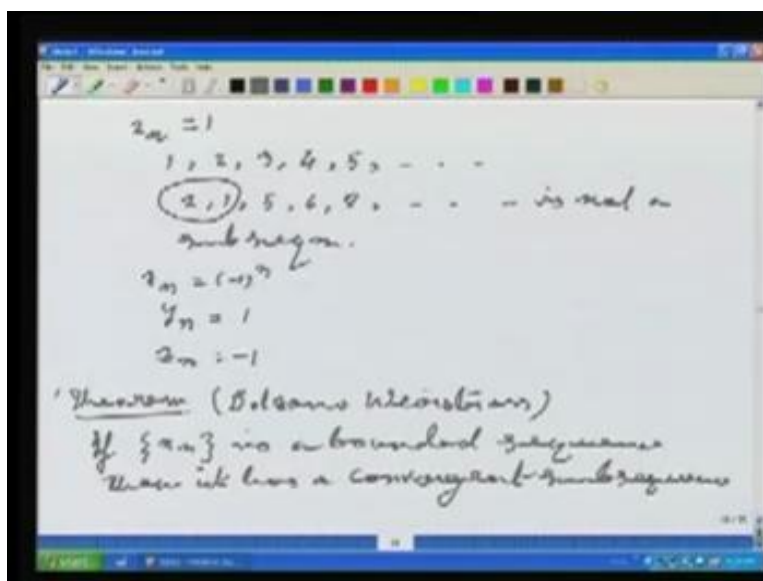


An important corollary of this nested interval theorem is this so called Bolzano Weierstrass theorem but before I come to that, let me explain certain notions first. So the notion I need is the notion of subsequence. What is a subsequence? It is something like you have given a sequence x_n and you just forget certain terms of it. Whatever remains do not change the order. Look at them exactly in the same order. What you get is a sub sequence. So in particular, a sequence is certainly a subsequence of itself. First, let us look at examples and then I will give you the definition.

Let us look at this sequence x_n equals to minus 1 whole power n and I say this sequence 1, 1, 1 is a sub sequence because it is nothing but $x_2, x_4, x_6, x_8, x_{2n}$ and so on. You see, what I have forgotten, I have just forgotten the odd terms. Similarly I can look at minus 1, minus 1, minus 1, minus 1, the constant sub sequence which is nothing but x_1, x_3, x_5, x_{2n+1} and so on and notice that the sequence x_n does not converge but the sub sequences which I have picked up, they converge.

That means, this sequence has at least got two sub sequences which converge. That means, even if the sequence is bad, it might have good sub sequences. So what I do is, first I choose a sequence of natural numbers n_1 less than n_2 less than n_3 less than n_4 and so on and then look at the corresponding terms of the given sequence x_n , that is, $x_{n_1}, x_{n_2}, x_{n_3}, x_{n_4}$ and so on. It just means I have picked up certain terms from the sequence x_n without changing their orders, the way they were arranged, exactly in the same way but I have deleted certain terms, that produces is a sub sequence. This is a sub sequence, a sub sequence of x_n .

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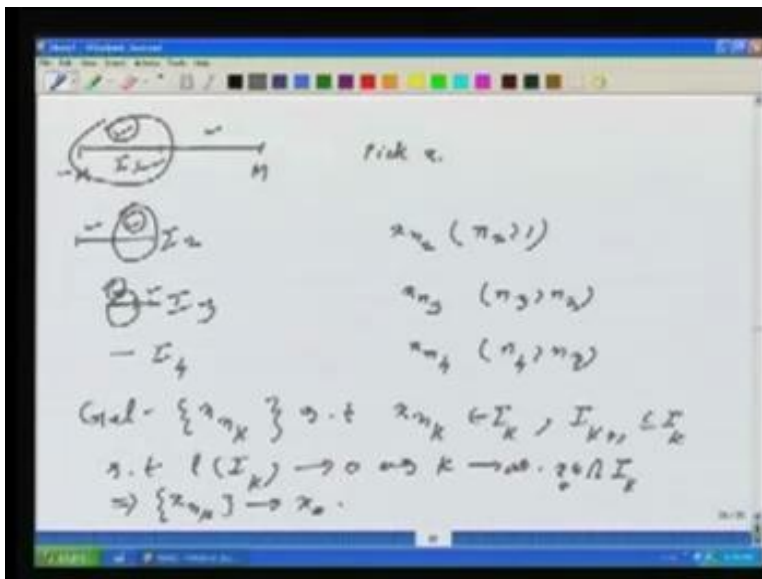
What is not a sub sequence? For example, let us look at this sequence x_n equals to n , so the terms are 1, 2, 3, 4, 5 and so on. If I look at this now, 2, 1, 5, 6, 8, then this is not a sub

sequence, why so, because I have changed the order here which I am not supposed to do and since the sub sequence is also a sequence, that means, there also has to be infinitely many terms in this. It cannot certainly stop. That means, it is not really just a subset of the sequence. It itself has to be a sequence.

Now I will try to show that what happens with the sequence x_n equals to minus 1 to the power n . I could manage to get two sub sequences. Remember one was y_n equals to 1 the constant sequence 1 and the sequence z_n which is given by minus 1 to the power n . This is minus 1 to the power 1. These two sequences were convergent. We will try to show that this is not really an accident. Given any bounded sequence, we can always do that, at least we can always able to find a sub sequence of the sequence which converges, although the whole sequence may not converge. For example, this minus 1 to the power n , this whole sequence does not converge but I could extract a sub sequence y_n which was convergent. This is precisely message from the Bolzano Weierstrass theorem.

So let us now state the theorem. Well the statement of the theorem says that if x_n is a bounded sequence then it has a convergent sub sequence. We will see the proof of this will actually follows as a corollary of the nested interval theorem. Instead of writing down the detailed proof of the result, let me try to explain it pictorially what it means. Let us first draw the interval minus M , M within which my sequence lies.

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Let me first pick x_1 , then I subdivide this, then either this contains infinitely many elements or this portion infinitely contains many elements. Let us assume this portion contains infinitely many elements. Let me draw it separately here and from this I pick x_2 . Now what I do is I subdivide this interval. Now again either this part contains infinitely many elements or this part contains infinitely many elements, since the sequence is infinite. Let us assume that it belongs to this part. Now what I do is, I write this separately here and I write it in a slightly magnified way because I have to subdivide further and let me pick x_3 from this part.

I will make a choice, the choice is I will always assume that x_2 is with the condition that n_2 is bigger than 1 and here I make the choice that n_3 is strictly bigger than n_2 . That choice I can make because I certainly have infinitely many elements at my disposal. So I can anyway choose them. Now again I sub divide this fellow into two parts, two equal parts. Now either this has infinitely many or this has infinitely many elements. Let us assume this has. Then again I will write it here and I will pick an element x_4 from there with the condition that n_4 is strictly bigger than n_3 .

Now from this we can see that get we can get sub sequence x_{n_k} such that, if I call this subinterval i_1 , this sub interval i_2 , this i_3 , this i_4 , what I get is that x_{n_k} belongs to I_k . It is also clear just from the construction that it is a nested sequence. That is, I_{k+1} certainly contained in I_k and the way I am doing it certainly the lengths are increasing, that you can see from here.

First length was this portion, then it was this portion. Then it was this, then again getting half. So it is going down to 0. That is length of I_k by l of I_k , I mean, the length it goes to 0 as k goes to infinity. Now I am in a position to apply the nested interval theorem. That is, I look at intersection of I . Then by the nested interval theorem, there is some x not sitting inside this and I say this implies that the sub sequence x_{n_k} converges to x not. Well, this is what we are trying to find out.