### 18.100B Problem Set 5 Solutions <br> Sawyer Tabony

1) We have $X \subseteq \mathcal{M}$, with $\mathcal{M}$ complete. $X$ is complete if and only if every Cauchy sequence of $X$ converges to some $x \in X$. Let $\left(x_{i}\right)$ be Cauchy, with $x_{i} \in X$. $\mathcal{M}$ being complete implies that $x_{i} \rightarrow y \in \mathcal{M}$. Therefore $y$ is a limit point of $X$. So if $X$ is closed, $y \in X$, so every Cauchy sequence converges in $X$, so $X$ is complete.

Conversely, suppose $X$ is complete. Therefore every Cauchy sequence of $X$ converges to a point in $X$. If $y \in X^{\prime}$, then we can choose a sequence $\left(x_{i}\right) \subseteq X$ with $d\left(x_{i}, y\right)<\frac{1}{i}$, and since this converges to $y$ in $\mathcal{M}$, it is Cauchy in $X$. Thus by completeness it converges in $X$, and by the uniqueness of limits, $y \in X$. Therefore $X^{\prime} \subseteq X$, so $X$ is closed.
2) First, we know that if a sequence converges to some limit $L$, every subsequence of that sequence converges to $L$. This implies the "only if" ( $\Rightarrow$ ) of both $(a)$ and $(b)$.
a) To prove the "if" $(\Leftarrow)$ of a), assume the sequences $\left(x_{2 n}\right)$ and $\left(x_{2 n-1}\right)$ both converge to the limit $L$. Then given $\varepsilon>0$ we can find natural numbers $N$ and $N^{\prime}$ such that for

$$
n>N, n^{\prime}>N^{\prime} \Longrightarrow\left|x_{2 n}-L\right|<\varepsilon \text { and }\left|x_{2 n^{\prime}-1}-L\right|<\varepsilon
$$

Let $M=\max \left\{2 N, 2 N^{\prime}\right\}$ and notice that if $m>M$, then $\left|x_{m}-L\right|<\varepsilon$ regardless of whether $m$ is even or odd. Therefore ( $x_{m}$ ) converges to $L$.
b) Here, we reduce to the case of $(a)$. Suppose $x_{2 n} \rightarrow A, x_{2 n-1} \rightarrow B$, and $x_{5 n} \rightarrow C$. Consider the sequence $\left(x_{10 n}\right)$. This is a subsequence of $\left(x_{2 n}\right)$, so it must converge to $A$. But is also a subsequence of $\left(x_{5 n}\right)$, so it must converge to $C$. By the uniqueness of limits, we have $A=C$. Similarly $\left(x_{10 n-5}\right)$ is a subsequence of both $\left(x_{2 n-1}\right)$ and $\left(x_{5 n}\right)$, so it must converge to both $B$ and $C$, so $B=C$. Thus $A=B=C$, in particular $A=B$, so now we can apply ( $a$ ).
3) For any $N \in \mathbb{N},\left\{x_{n}+y_{n} \mid n>N\right\} \subseteq\left\{x_{m}+y_{n} \mid m, n>N\right\}$. Therefore

$$
\sup _{n>N}\left(x_{n}+y_{n}\right) \leq \sup _{m, n>N}\left(x_{m}+y_{n}\right)=\sup _{m>N}\left(x_{m}\right)+\sup _{n>N}\left(y_{n}\right) .
$$

Since this is true for all $N \in \mathbb{N}$, it is true in the limit. So $\lim \sup \left(x_{n}+y_{n}\right) \leq \lim \sup x_{n}+\lim \sup y_{n}$. By the above, and $\operatorname{since} \lim \inf \left(z_{n}\right)=-\lim \sup \left(-z_{n}\right)$ for any bounded sequence $z_{n}$,

$$
\begin{aligned}
\liminf \left(x_{n}+y_{n}\right) & =-\lim \sup \left(-x_{n}-y_{n}\right) \\
& \geq-\lim \sup \left(-x_{n}\right)-\lim \sup \left(-y_{n}\right)=\lim \inf \left(x_{n}\right)+\lim \inf \left(y_{n}\right) .
\end{aligned}
$$

Now we assume $\left(x_{n}\right)$ converges to some $L$. If $\lim \sup y_{n}=\alpha$, then some subsequence $y_{n_{k}} \rightarrow \alpha$. Since $x_{n} \rightarrow L$, any subsequence converges to this limit, so in particular $x_{n_{k}} \rightarrow L$. Therefore the sequence $\left(x_{n}+y_{n}\right)$ has a subsequence $\left(x_{n_{k}}+y_{n_{k}}\right)$ that converges to $L+\alpha$. Therefore

$$
\lim \sup \left(x_{n}+y_{n}\right) \geq L+\alpha=\lim \sup x_{n}+\lim \sup y_{n} \geq \lim \sup \left(x_{n}+y_{n}\right)
$$

so we have equality. Once again the relation between limsup and liminf exploited above shows that equality also occurs for liminf, when $\left(x_{n}\right)$ converges.
4) We have $\left(x_{n}\right)$ a bounded sequence and $\left(a_{n}\right)$ the sequence defined as

$$
a_{n}=\frac{x_{1}+x_{2}+\ldots+x_{n}}{n} .
$$

Let $\alpha=\limsup x_{n}$, and fix $1>\varepsilon>0$. Then $\exists N \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $\forall n>N, x_{n}<\alpha+\frac{\varepsilon}{2}$, by the definition of $\lim \sup x_{n}$. Let $B$ be an upper bound for $x_{n}$. Then if $n>\frac{2 B N}{\varepsilon}$,
$a_{n}=\frac{x_{1}+x_{2}+\ldots+x_{n}}{n}=\sum_{i=1}^{N} \frac{x_{i}}{n}+\sum_{j=N+1}^{n} \frac{x_{j}}{n} \leq \sum_{i=1}^{N} \frac{B}{\frac{2 B N}{\varepsilon}}+\sum_{j=N+1}^{n} \frac{\alpha+\frac{\varepsilon}{2}}{n} \leq \frac{\varepsilon}{2}+\alpha+\frac{\varepsilon}{2}=\alpha+\varepsilon$.
So for $n$ large enough, $a_{n} \leq \alpha+\varepsilon$. Therefore $\lim \sup a_{n} \leq \alpha+\varepsilon$. But $\varepsilon$ can be chosen arbitrarily small, so $\lim \sup a_{n} \leq \alpha$. This also shows that $-\lim \sup -x_{n} \leq-\limsup -a_{n}$, or $\lim \inf x_{n} \leq$ $\liminf a_{n}$. So we have

$$
\liminf x_{n} \leq \liminf a_{n} \leq \limsup a_{n} \leq \limsup x_{n}
$$

If $x_{n} \rightarrow x$, then $\liminf x_{n}=\limsup x_{n}=x$, so by the inequality $\lim \inf a_{n}=\limsup a_{n}=x$, so $a_{n} \rightarrow x$. However, $\left(a_{n}\right)$ can converge without $\left(x_{n}\right)$ converging. For example, let $x_{n}=(-1)^{n}$. Then

$$
a_{n}= \begin{cases}-\frac{1}{n} & n \text { odd } \\ 0 & n \text { even }\end{cases}
$$

Since both even and odd subsequences converge to $0, a_{n} \rightarrow 0 .\left(x_{n}\right)$, on the other hand, has its odd subsequence converging to -1 and its even subsequence converging to 1 (they are both constant subsequences). So $\left(x_{n}\right)$ does not converge.
5) We have that $0<x<1$ and $x_{n}=1-\sqrt{1-x_{n-1}}$. Since the functions $1-x$ and $\sqrt{x}$ both take the open interval $(0,1)$ to itself, by induction $0<x_{n}<1 \forall n \in \mathbb{N}$. For any $n \in \mathbb{N}$, we have

$$
1-\sqrt{1-x_{n-1}}=x_{n} \Longrightarrow \sqrt{1-x_{n-1}}=1-x_{n} \Longrightarrow 1-x_{n-1}=\left(1-x_{n}\right)^{2}<1-x_{n}
$$

since $0<\left(1-x_{n}\right)<1$. This shows that $x_{n-1}>x_{n}$, so the sequence is decreasing. Therefore the sequence is decreasing and bounded below by 0 , so it must have a limit $L \geq 0$. Suppose $L>0$. Then $(1-L)^{2}<1-L<1$, since it is clear by $L<x_{1}<1$ that $L<1\left(\left(x_{n}\right)\right.$ is strictly decreasing, so $\left.L<x_{n} \forall n \in \mathbb{N}\right)$. Therefore $1-(1-L)^{2}>L$, so $\exists n \in \mathbb{N}$ such that

$$
1-(1-L)^{2}>x_{n} \Longrightarrow(1-L)^{2}<1-x_{n} \Longrightarrow 1-L<\sqrt{1-x_{n}} \Longrightarrow L>1-\sqrt{1-x_{n}}=x_{n+1}>L
$$

This gives $L>L$, a contradiction. Therefore $L=0$.
Now to calculate the limit of $\frac{x_{n+1}}{x_{n}}$. We have

$$
\begin{aligned}
\lim _{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{x_{n+1}}{x_{n}} & =\lim _{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1-\sqrt{1-x_{n}}}{x_{n}}=\lim _{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\left(1-\sqrt{1-x_{n}}\right) \cdot\left(1+\sqrt{1-x_{n}}\right)}{x_{n}\left(1+\sqrt{1-x_{n}}\right)}=\lim _{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1-\left(1-x_{n}\right)}{x_{n}\left(1+\sqrt{1-x_{n}}\right)} \\
& =\lim _{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{x_{n}}{x_{n}\left(1+\sqrt{1-x_{n}}\right)}=\lim _{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{1+\sqrt{1-x_{n}}}=\frac{1}{1+\sqrt{1-0}}=\frac{1}{2}
\end{aligned}
$$

We can substitute the limit of $x_{n}$ into the limit because the function $\frac{1}{1+\sqrt{1-x}}$ is continuous at 0 , the limit of $\left(x_{n}\right)$.
6) a) So the defining equation for $\Phi$ is

$$
\Phi=\frac{a}{b}=\frac{b}{c}
$$

where $a=b+c$. So $c \cdot(b+c)=b \cdot b$ which gives

$$
\left(\frac{b}{c}\right)^{2}=\left(\frac{b}{c}\right)+1 \Longrightarrow \Phi^{2}=\Phi+1
$$

Using the quadratic formula with $x^{2}-x-1=0$, which $\Phi$ satisfies, we get

$$
\Phi=\frac{1 \pm \sqrt{5}}{2}
$$

and since $\Phi$ was defined to be greater than 1 , the $\pm$ sign must be a $+\operatorname{sign}$.
b) We want to show that

$$
\Phi=1+\frac{1}{1+\frac{1}{1+\frac{1}{1+\frac{1}{1+\cdots}}}}
$$

where the right hand side is the limit of the sequence $x_{n}$ where $x_{1}=1$ and $x_{n}=1+\frac{1}{x_{n-1}}$. First we must show that $\left(x_{n}\right)$ converges. It is clear that $x_{n}>0, \forall n \in \mathbb{N}$. Now this gives that, since $x_{n}=1+\frac{1}{x_{n-1}}, x_{n} \geq 1, \forall n \in \mathbb{N}$. And this implies $\frac{1}{x_{n}} \leq 1$, which gives that $x_{n+1}=1+\frac{1}{x_{n}} \leq 2$. So $1 \leq x_{n} \leq 2$. Now consider $x_{2 n-1}$, the odd terms of the sequence. The first few are:

$$
x_{1}=1 \quad x_{3}=1+\frac{1}{1+\frac{1}{1}} \quad x_{5}=1+\frac{1}{1+\frac{1}{1+\frac{1}{1+\frac{1}{1}}}}
$$

Analyzing these, we see that $x_{1}<x_{3}<x_{5}<\ldots$ This is because to get from $x_{2 n-1}$ to $x_{2 n+1}$, you add a positive number to an even-numbered denominator of the continued fraction, which makes it greater. Since $x_{2 n}=1+\frac{1}{x_{2 n-1}}$, the even subsequence is 1 more than the inverses of the odd sequence, which is increasing, so the even subsequence is decreasing. Since these subsequences are both bounded between 1 and 2 and are monotonic, they must have limits, say $x_{2 n-1} \rightarrow a$ and $x_{2 n} \rightarrow b$. We have

$$
\begin{gathered}
a=\lim _{n \rightarrow \infty} x_{2 n+1}=\lim _{n \rightarrow \infty} 1+\frac{1}{1+\frac{1}{x_{2 n-1}}}=1+\frac{1}{1+\frac{1}{\lim x_{2 n-1}}}=1+\frac{1}{1+\frac{1}{a}} . \\
a\left(1+\frac{1}{a}\right)=\left(1+\frac{1}{a}\right)+1 \Longrightarrow a+1=2+\frac{1}{a} \Longrightarrow a^{2}=a+1
\end{gathered}
$$

But this is exactly the quadratic equation that $\Phi$ satisfies. Since $a \geq 1, a=\Phi$. Exactly the same argument works for $b$, since the relation between $x_{2 n+2}$ and $x_{2 n}$ is identical. Therefore $b=\Phi$, which implies (by problem 2) that $x_{n} \rightarrow \Phi$.
c) Now we want to show that $y_{n} \rightarrow \Phi$ for the sequence $\left(y_{n}\right)$ defined by

$$
y_{1}=1, \text { and } y_{n}=\sqrt{1+y_{n-1}}
$$

It is clear that $y_{n} \geq 1$, since by induction $y_{n}^{2}=1+y_{n-1} \geq 2$. Also, $y_{1}<\Phi$ and

$$
y_{n-1}<\Phi \Longrightarrow y_{n-1}+1<\Phi+1 \Longrightarrow y_{n}=\sqrt{1+y_{n-1}}<\sqrt{\Phi+1}=\Phi
$$

So by induction, $y_{n}<\Phi$. So $1 \leq y_{n}<\Phi$ gives that $y_{n}^{2}-y_{n}-1<0$, or $y_{n}<\sqrt{1+y_{n}}=y_{n+1}$. Thus $\left(y_{n}\right)$ is an increasing sequence that is bounded above, so it converges to some limit, $c$. We have

$$
c=\lim _{n \rightarrow \infty} y_{n}=\lim _{n \rightarrow \infty} \sqrt{1+y_{n-1}}=\sqrt{1+\lim _{n \rightarrow \infty} y_{n-1}}=\sqrt{1+c}
$$

So now $c=\sqrt{1+c}$ which gives $c^{2}=c+1$, and since $c>1$, we once again have $c=\Phi$.
d) Now we define $z_{1}=z_{2}=1$, and $z_{n}=z_{n-1}+z_{n-2}$ for $n>2$. Let's define $x_{n}=\frac{z_{n+1}}{z_{n}}$. So we have

$$
x_{1}=\frac{z_{2}}{z_{1}}=\frac{1}{1}=1, \text { and } x_{n}=\frac{z_{n+1}}{z_{n}}=\frac{z_{n}+z_{n-1}}{z_{n}}=1+\frac{z_{n-1}}{z_{n}}=1+\frac{1}{x_{n-1}}
$$

But this is exactly the same as the $\left(x_{n}\right)$ from a)! Exxxxxcellent... it's all falling into place. We have shown $x_{n} \rightarrow \Phi$, so the ratios of consecutive Fibonacci numbers approaches $\Phi$.

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### 18.100B Analysis I

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