



Every set of real numbers which has an upper bound has a supremum (least upper bound), and every set of real numbers which has a lower bound has an infimum (greatest lower bound). Some books use the convention that if  $A \subseteq \mathbb{R}$  does not have an upper bound then  $\sup(A) = \infty$ ; then to say that  $\sup(A) < \infty$  is equivalent to saying that  $A$  is bounded above.

If  $A$  and  $B$  are bounded subsets of  $\mathbb{R}$  with  $A \subseteq B$  then every upper bound for  $B$  is an upper bound for  $A$ ; so  $\sup(B)$  is an upper bound for  $A$ , and so  $\sup(A)$ , the least upper bound for  $A$ , is less than or equal to  $\sup(B)$ . Similarly,  $\inf(B)$  is a lower bound for  $B$ , and hence a lower bound for  $A$ , and therefore less than or equal to  $\inf(A)$ , the greatest lower bound for  $A$ . We have proved the following statement:

*If  $A \subseteq B \subset \mathbb{R}$  are bounded then  $\sup(A) \leq \sup(B)$  and  $\inf(A) \geq \inf(B)$ .*

Now let  $(a_n)_{n=1}^{\infty}$  be a bounded sequence in  $\mathbb{R}$ . (That is, the set  $\{a_n \mid n \in \mathbb{Z}^+\}$  is bounded above and below.) For each  $k \in \mathbb{Z}^+$ , define  $A_k = \{a_n \mid n \geq k\}$ ; observe that these sets form a decreasing chain ( $A_1 \supseteq A_2 \supseteq A_3 \supseteq \dots$ ). By the principle enunciated above, their supremums decrease and their infimums increase as  $k$  increases. So, defining  $M_k = \sup(A_k)$  and  $m_k = \inf(A_k)$ , we have  $m_1 \leq m_2 \leq m_3 \leq \dots$  and  $M_1 \geq M_2 \geq M_3 \geq \dots$ . Note also that for all  $i, j \in \mathbb{Z}^+$ ,

$$\begin{aligned} m_i &\leq x_n && \text{for all } n \geq i, \\ M_j &\geq x_n && \text{for all } n \geq j. \end{aligned}$$

This is because if  $n \geq i$  then  $x_n \in A_i$ , and therefore  $x_n \geq \inf(A_i) = m_i$ , and similarly if  $n \geq j$  then  $x_n \in A_j$ , whence  $x_n \leq \sup(A_j) = M_j$ . Now if we put  $n = \max\{i, j\}$  then  $n \geq i$  and  $n \geq j$  both hold, and so  $m_i \leq x_n$  and  $x_n \leq M_j$  also both hold. It follows that  $m_i \leq M_j$ . Note that  $i$  and  $j$  here are arbitrary positive integers.

The above reasoning has shown that the  $m_i$  form an increasing sequence, and every  $M_j$  is an upper bound for this sequence. And the  $M_j$  form a decreasing sequence, for which every  $m_i$  is a lower bound. Since the sequence  $(m_i)$  is increasing and bounded above it converges, with limit  $m = \sup\{m_i \mid i \in \mathbb{Z}^+\}$ . Observe that  $m \leq M_j$  for each  $j$  (since each  $M_j$  is an upper bound, and  $m$  the least upper bound, of  $\{m_i \mid i \in \mathbb{Z}^+\}$ ). Now the sequence  $(M_j)$  is decreasing and bounded below; so it converges, with limit  $M = \inf\{M_j \mid j \in \mathbb{Z}^+\}$ . And  $m \leq M$ , since  $m$  is a lower bound, and  $M$  the greatest lower bound, of  $\{M_j \mid j \in \mathbb{Z}^+\}$ . We have thus established the following inequalities:

$$m_1 \leq m_2 \leq m_3 \leq \dots \leq m \leq M \leq \dots \leq M_3 \leq M_2 \leq M_1.$$

The number  $m$  is called the *lower limit* (or *limit inferior*) of the sequence  $(a_n)$ , and we write  $m = \liminf_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n$ . Similarly,  $M$  is called the *upper limit* (or *limit superior*) of  $(a_n)$ , and we write  $M = \limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n$ . The lower limit is characterized by the following two properties:

- (L1) for every  $\varepsilon > 0$  there exists an  $N \in \mathbb{Z}$  such that  $a_n > m - \varepsilon$  for all  $n > N$ ;
- (L2) for every  $\varepsilon > 0$  and every  $N \in \mathbb{Z}$  there exists an  $n > N$  such that  $a_n < m + \varepsilon$ .

Similarly, the upper limit is characterized by the following properties:

- (U1) for every  $\varepsilon > 0$  there exists an  $N \in \mathbb{Z}$  such that  $a_n < M + \varepsilon$  for all  $n > N$ ;
- (U2) for every  $\varepsilon > 0$  and every  $N \in \mathbb{Z}$  there exists an  $n > N$  such that  $a_n > M - \varepsilon$ .

We shall not bother with the proofs of these characterizations, although they follow in a straightforward fashion from the discussion above. Instead, let us return to the study of metric spaces!

Let  $(X, d)$  be a metric space.

**Definition.** A subset  $A$  of  $X$  is said to be *bounded* if  $\{d(x, y) \mid x, y \in A\}$  is a bounded subset of  $\mathbb{R}$ . When  $A$  is bounded, the number  $\sup\{d(x, y) \mid x, y \in A\}$  is called the *diameter* of  $A$ .

A sequence  $(x_n)$  in  $X$  is said to be bounded if the set  $\{x_n \mid n \in \mathbb{Z}^+\}$  is bounded. (Recall that a sequence is a family indexed by  $\mathbb{Z}^+$ , which is the same thing as a function with domain  $\mathbb{Z}^+$ . We say that the function is bounded if its image is a bounded set.)

Recall that  $(x_n)$  is a *Cauchy sequence* if for all  $\varepsilon > 0$  there exists  $N \in \mathbb{Z}$  such that  $d(x_n, x_m) < \varepsilon$  for all  $n, m > N$ , and that the metric space  $X$  is *complete* if every Cauchy sequence in  $X$  has a limit in  $X$ .

**Lemma.** *Every Cauchy sequence in a metric space is bounded.*

*Proof.* Let  $(x_n)$  be a Cauchy sequence. Choose  $N \in \mathbb{Z}^+$  such that  $d(x_n, x_m) < 1$  for all  $n, m \geq N$ . Put  $C = \max\{d(x_1, x_N), d(x_2, x_N), \dots, d(x_{N-1}, x_N), 1\}$ . Then certainly  $d(x_n, x_N) \leq C$  when  $1 \leq n < N$ , since  $d(x_n, x_N)$  is one of the numbers of which  $C$  is the maximum. And if  $n \geq N$  then (by the choice of  $N$ ),  $d(x_n, x_N) < 1 \leq C$ . Thus  $d(x_n, x_N) < C$  for all  $n \in \mathbb{Z}^+$ . It follows that for all  $r, s \in \mathbb{Z}^+$ ,

$$d(x_r, x_s) \leq d(x_r, x_N) + d(x_s, x_N) \leq 2C.$$

Hence the set  $\{x_n \mid n \in \mathbb{Z}^+\}$  is bounded (with diameter at most  $2C$ ), as required.  $\square$

It is a fact, known as *Cauchy's Principle of Convergence*, that every Cauchy sequence in  $\mathbb{R}$  converges. In other words,  $\mathbb{R}$  is a complete metric space (under the usual metric).

**Proposition.** *The set  $\mathbb{R}$ , with the usual metric, is a complete metric space.*

*Proof.* Let  $(x_n)$  be a Cauchy sequence in  $\mathbb{R}$ . By the Lemma there exists a  $C \in \mathbb{R}$  such that  $|x_n - x_m| < C$  for all  $n, m \in \mathbb{Z}^+$ , and so it follows that  $x_1 - C < x_n < x_1 + C$  for all  $n \in \mathbb{Z}^+$ . Thus the sequence  $(x_n)$  possesses a lower limit and an upper limit.

Put  $m_k = \inf_{n \geq k} x_n$  and  $M_k = \sup_{n \geq k} x_n$ . Then  $m_k \leq x_k \leq M_k$  for all  $k$ . Furthermore,  $m_k \rightarrow m = \liminf_{n \rightarrow \infty} x_n$  and  $M_k \rightarrow M = \limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} x_n$  as  $k \rightarrow \infty$ .

Let  $\varepsilon > 0$ . Since  $(x_n)$  is a Cauchy sequence we may choose  $N \in \mathbb{Z}^+$  such that  $|x_n - x_m| < \varepsilon$  for all  $n, m \geq N$ . Then it follows that  $x_N - \varepsilon < x_n < x_N + \varepsilon$  for all  $n \geq N$ . Hence

$$M_N = \sup_{n \geq N} x_n \leq x_N + \varepsilon,$$

$$m_N = \inf_{n \geq N} x_n \geq x_N - \varepsilon.$$

So  $M_N - m_N \leq 2\varepsilon$ , and since  $m_N \leq m \leq M \leq M_N$ , it follows that  $0 \leq M - m \leq 2\varepsilon$ . But  $\varepsilon$  was an arbitrary positive number; so it follows that  $M - m = 0$ . Now because  $m_k \leq x_k \leq M_k$  for all  $k$ , and  $M_k$  and  $m_k$  both approach  $M = m$  as  $k \rightarrow \infty$ , it follows that  $x_k$  also approaches this same limit as  $k \rightarrow \infty$ . We have shown that an arbitrary Cauchy sequence in  $\mathbb{R}$  has a limit, as required.  $\square$

Let  $(x^{(k)})_{k=1}^\infty$  be a sequence in  $\mathbb{R}^n$ , and let  $x^{(k)} = (x_1^{(k)}, x_2^{(k)}, \dots, x_n^{(k)})$  (for each  $k \in \mathbb{Z}^+$ ). We have already seen that  $(x^{(k)})$  converges in  $\mathbb{R}^n$  relative to the usual metric (or indeed any of the metrics  $d_p$  for  $1 \leq p \leq \infty$ ) if and only if each sequence  $(x_i^{(k)})$  (for  $1 \leq i \leq n$ ) converges in  $\mathbb{R}$ . It is straightforward to show also that  $(x^{(k)})$  is a Cauchy sequence in  $\mathbb{R}^n$  if and only if each  $(x_i^{(k)})$  is a Cauchy sequence in  $\mathbb{R}$ . These facts combined with the completeness of  $\mathbb{R}$  show that  $\mathbb{R}^n$  is complete also.