

# Econ 204 2023

## Lecture 13

### Outline

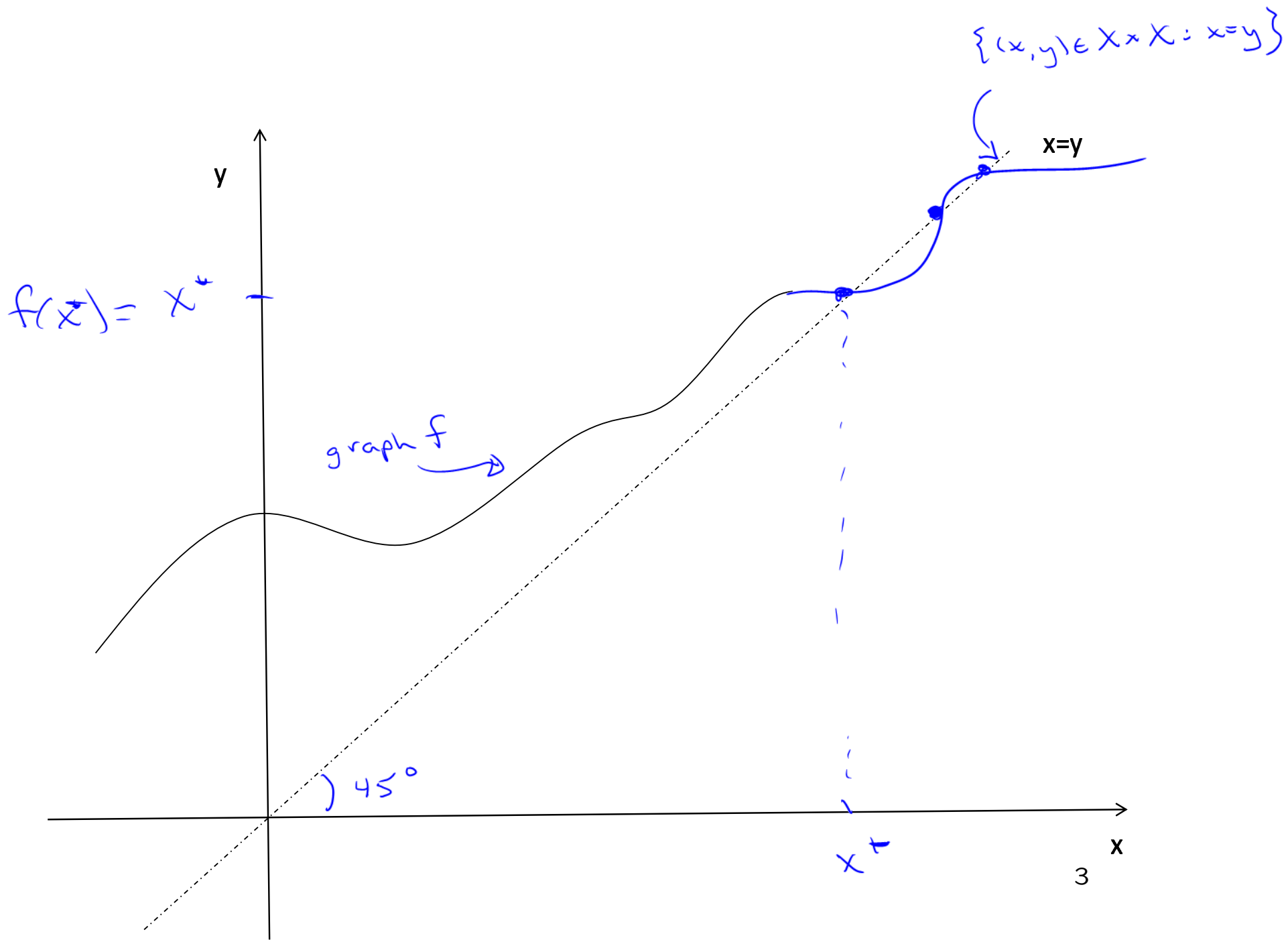
1. Fixed Points for Functions
2. Brouwer's Fixed Point Theorem
3. Fixed Points for Correspondences
4. Kakutani's Fixed Point Theorem
5. Separating Hyperplane Theorems

Recall :

## Fixed Points for Functions

**Definition 1.** Let  $X$  be a nonempty set and  $f : X \rightarrow X$ . A point  $x^* \in X$  is a fixed point of  $f$  if  $f(x^*) = x^*$ .

$x^*$  is a fixed point of  $f$  if it is “fixed” by the map  $f$ .



$\exists a, b$  with  $a < b$  s.t.  $f: [a, b] \rightarrow [a, b]$

## Fixed Points for Functions

### Examples:

1. Let  $X = \mathbf{R}$  and  $f: \mathbf{R} \rightarrow \mathbf{R}$  be given by  $f(x) = 2x$ . Then  $x = 0$  is a fixed point of  $f$  (and is the unique fixed point of  $f$ ).

$$f(x) = 2x = x \iff x = 0$$

2. Let  $X = \mathbf{R}$  and  $f: \mathbf{R} \rightarrow \mathbf{R}$  be given by  $f(x) = x$ . Then every point in  $\mathbf{R}$  is a fixed point of  $f$  (in particular, fixed points need not be unique).

$$X = [0, 1] \quad f: X \rightarrow \mathbf{R}$$

3. Let  $X = \mathbf{R}$  and  $f: \mathbf{R} \rightarrow \mathbf{R}$  be given by  $f(x) = x + 1$ . Then  $f$  has no fixed points.

$$f(x) = x + 1 \neq x \quad \forall x \in \mathbf{R}$$

4. Let  $X = [0, 2]$  and  $f : X \rightarrow X$  be given by  $f(x) = \frac{1}{2}(x + 1)$ .  
Then

$$\begin{aligned} f(x) &= \frac{1}{2}(x + 1) = x \\ \iff x + 1 &= 2x \\ \iff x &= 1 \end{aligned}$$

So  $x = 1$  is the unique fixed point of  $f$ . Notice that  $f$  is a contraction (why?), so we already knew that  $f$  must have a unique fixed point on  $\mathbf{R}$  from the Contraction Mapping Theorem.

5. Let  $X = [0, \frac{1}{4}] \cup [\frac{3}{4}, 1]$  and  $f : X \rightarrow X$  be given by  $f(x) = 1 - x$ .  
Then  $f$  has no fixed points.

$$\begin{aligned} f(x) &= 1 - x = x \\ \iff 1 &= 2x \\ \iff x &= \frac{1}{2} \notin [0, \frac{1}{4}] \cup [\frac{3}{4}, 1] \end{aligned}$$

6. Let  $X = [-2, 2]$  and  $f : X \rightarrow X$  be given by  $f(x) = \frac{1}{2}x^2$ . Then  $f$  has two fixed points,  $x = 0$  and  $x = 2$ . If instead  $X' = (0, 2)$ , then  $f : X' \rightarrow X'$  but  $f$  has no fixed points on  $X'$ .

7. Let  $X = \{1, 2, 3\}$  and  $f : X \rightarrow X$  be given by  $f(1) = 2, f(2) = 3, f(3) = 1$  (so  $f$  is a permutation of  $X$ ). Then  $f$  has no fixed points.

8. Let  $X = [0, 2]$  and  $f : X \rightarrow X$  be given by

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} x + 1 & \text{if } x \leq 1 \\ x - 1 & \text{if } x > 1 \end{cases}$$

$$\begin{aligned} x &\neq x+1 && \forall x \in \mathbb{R} \\ x &\neq x-1 && \forall x \in \mathbb{R} \end{aligned}$$

Then  $f$  has no fixed points.

# A Simple Fixed Point Theorem

**Theorem 1.** Let  $X = [a, b]$  for  $a, b \in \mathbf{R}$  with  $a < b$  and let  $f : X \rightarrow X$  be continuous. Then  $f$  has a fixed point.

*Proof.* Let  $g : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbf{R}$  be given by

$$g(x) = f(x) - x$$

$g(x) = 0 \Leftrightarrow x$  is a fixed point of  $f$

If either  $f(a) = a$  or  $f(b) = b$ , we're done. So assume  $f(a) > a$  and  $f(b) < b$ . Then

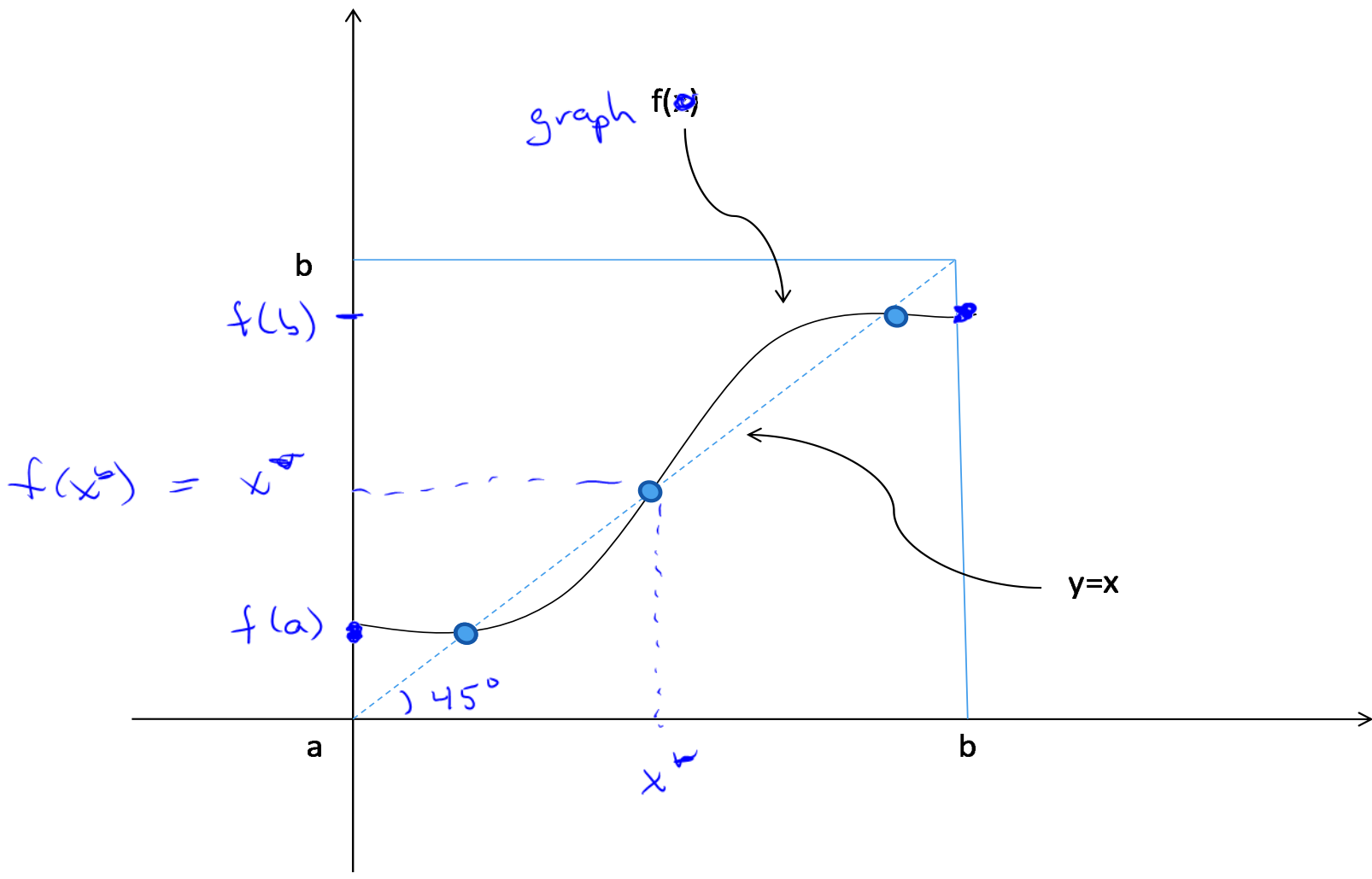
$(f(a), b]$

$(f(b), a]$

$$g(a) = f(a) - a > 0$$

$$g(b) = f(b) - b < 0$$

$g$  is continuous, so by the Intermediate Value Theorem,  $\exists x^* \in (a, b)$  such that  $g(x^*) = 0$ , that is, such that  $f(x^*) = x^*$ .  $\square$





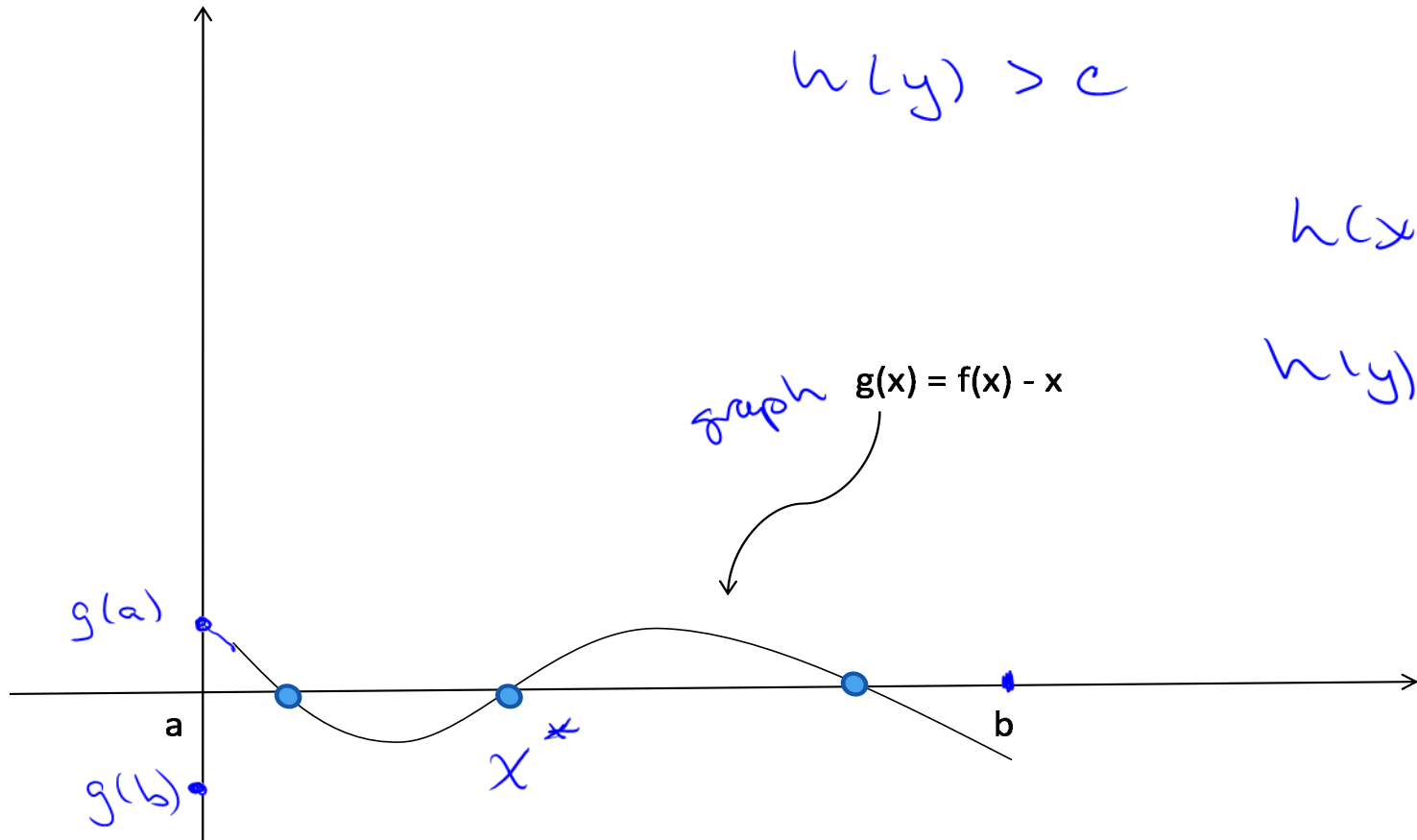
$$s < c < t$$

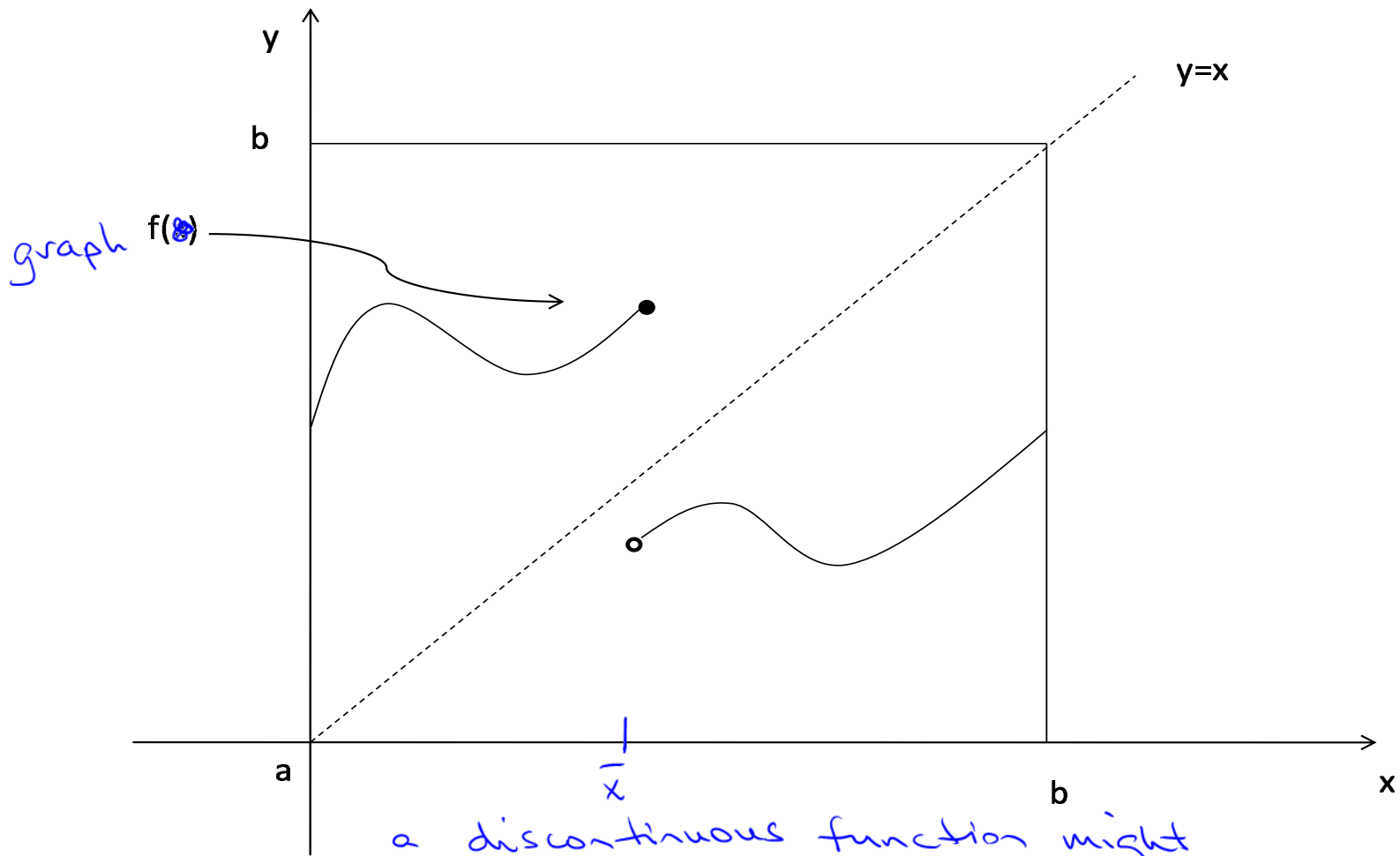
$$h(x) < c$$

$$h(y) > c$$

$$h(x) > x$$

$$h(y) < y$$





a discontinuous function might  
have no fixed points

$$X \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$$

$$f: X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$$

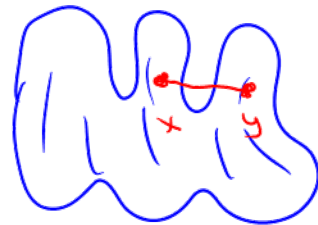
## Brouwer's Fixed Point Theorem

**Theorem 2** (Thm. 3.2. Brouwer's Fixed Point Theorem). Let  $X \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$  be nonempty, compact, and convex, and let  $f: X \rightarrow X$  be continuous. Then  $f$  has a fixed point.

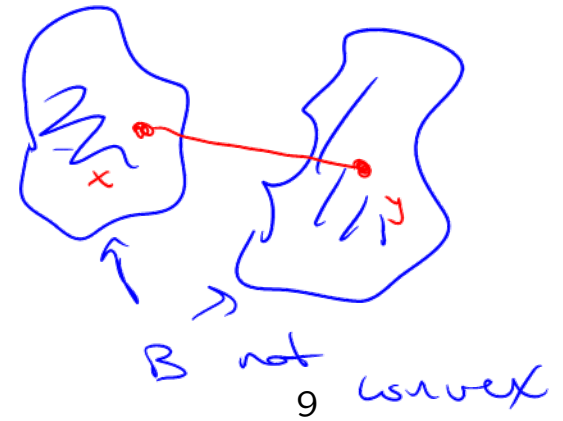
$X \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$  is convex if  $\forall x, y \in X \quad \forall \alpha \in [0, 1]$   
 $\alpha x + (1-\alpha)y \in X$



$X$  convex



$D$  not convex



$B$  not convex

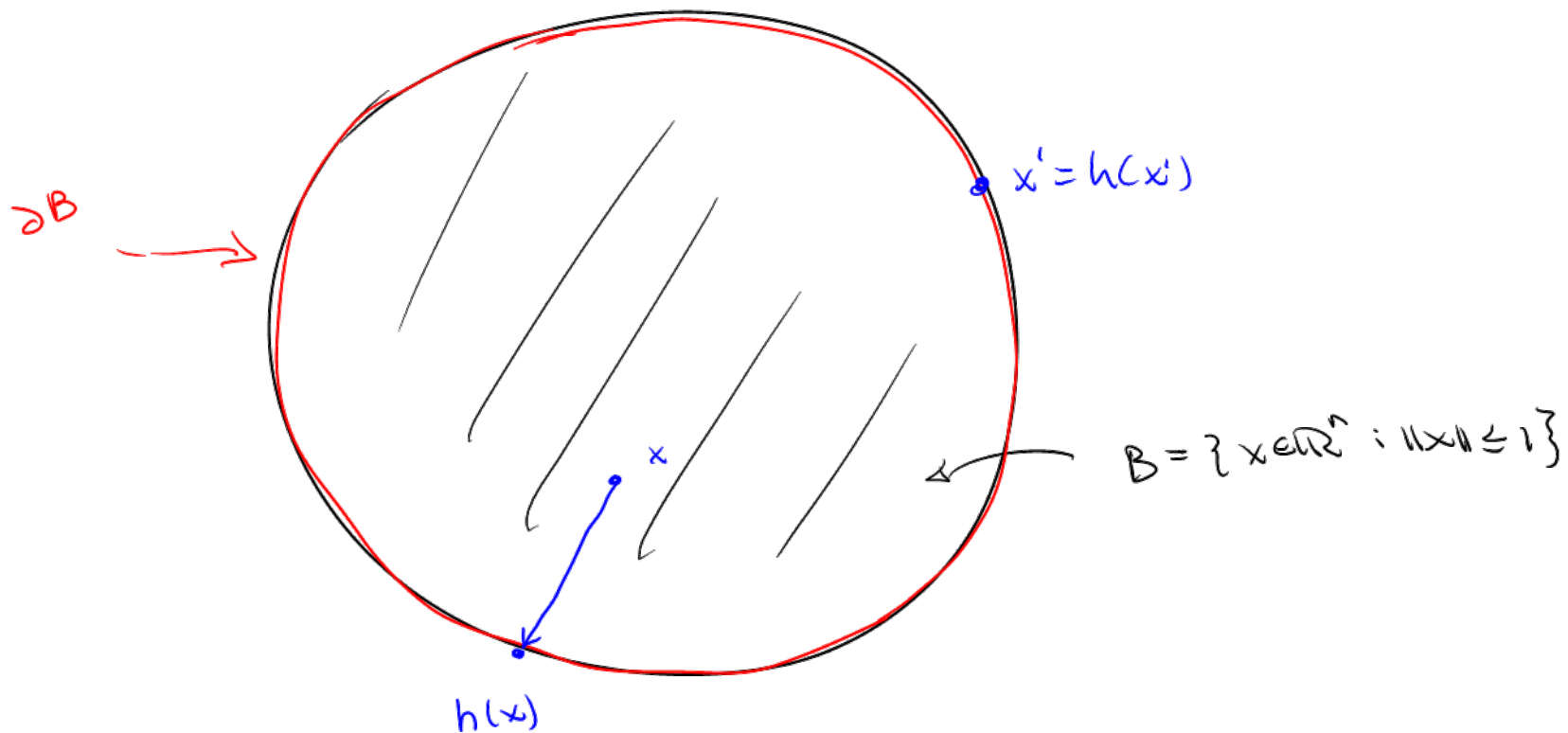
## Sketch of Proof of Brouwer

Consider the case when the set  $X$  is the <sup>closed</sup> unit ball in  $\mathbf{R}^n$ , i.e.  $X = B_1[0] = B = \{x \in \mathbf{R}^n : \|x\| \leq 1\}$ . Let  $f : B \rightarrow B$  be a continuous function. Recall that  $\partial B$  denotes the boundary of  $B$ , so  $\partial B = \{x \in \mathbf{R}^n : \|x\| = 1\}$ .

**Fact:** Let  $B$  be the unit ball in  $\mathbf{R}^n$ . Then there is no continuous function  $h : B \rightarrow \partial B$  such that  $h(x') = x'$  for every  $x' \in \partial B$ .

See J. Franklin, *Methods of Mathematical Economics*, for an elementary (but long) proof.

(also Y. Kannai, *Am. Math. Monthly*, April 1981, pp. 264-268.)



$\exists h: B \rightarrow \partial B$  continuous such that  
 $x' = h(x') \quad \forall x' \in \partial B$

Now to establish Brouwer's theorem, suppose, by way of contradiction, that  $f$  has no fixed points in  $B$ . Thus for every  $x \in B$ ,  $x \neq f(x)$ .

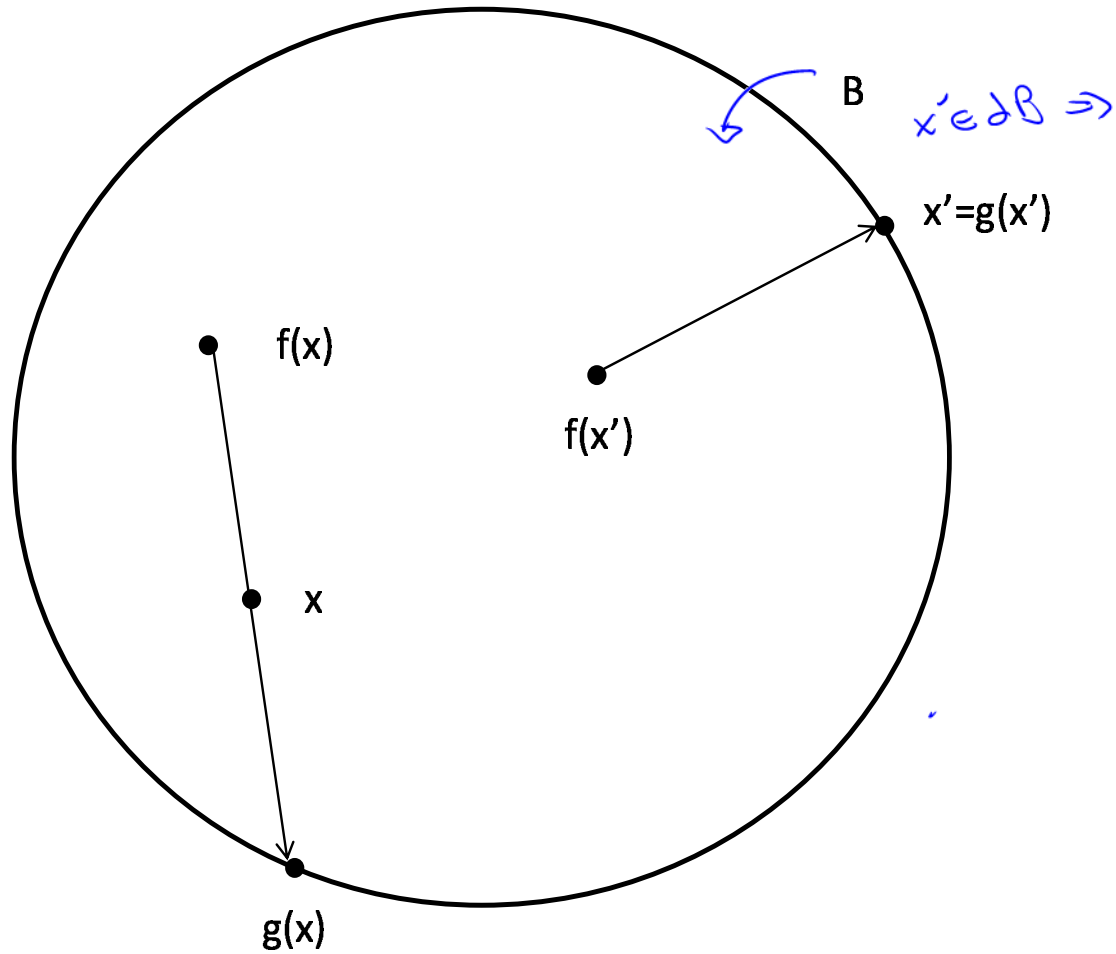
Since  $x \neq f(x)$  for every  $x$ , we can carry out the following construction. For each  $x \in B$ , construct the line segment originating at  $f(x)$  and going through  $x$ . Let  $g(x)$  denote the intersection of this line segment with  $\partial B$ .

This construction is well-defined, and gives a continuous function  $g : B \rightarrow \partial B$ . Furthermore, if  $x' \in \partial B$ , then  $x' = g(x')$ . That is,  $g|_{\partial B} = \text{id}_{\partial B}$ . Since there are no such functions by the fact above, we have a contradiction. Therefore there exists  $x^* \in B$  such that  $f(x^*) = x^*$ , that is,  $f$  has a fixed point in  $B$ .

$$g(x) = x + tu$$

$$\text{where } u = \frac{x - f(x)}{\|x - f(x)\|}$$

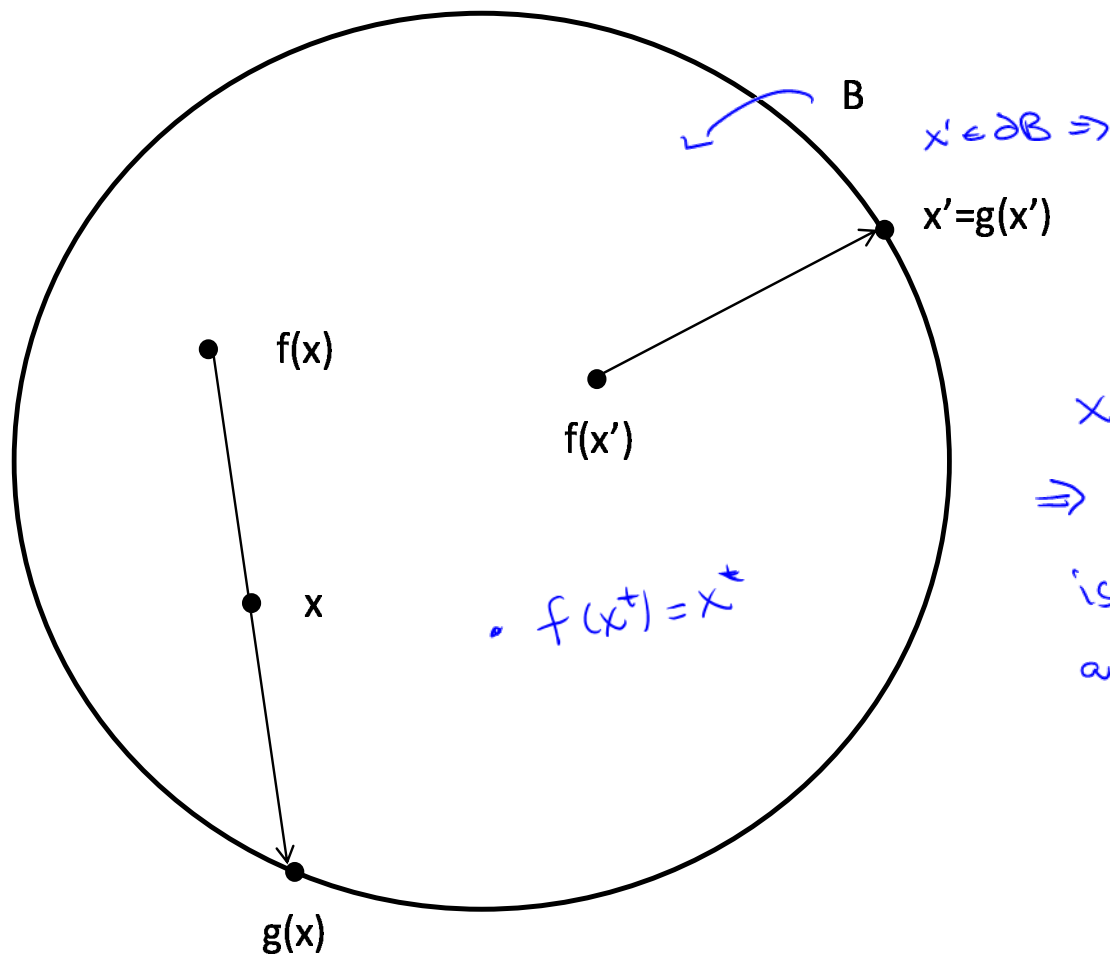
$$t = -x - u + \sqrt{1 - x \cdot x + (x \cdot u)^2}$$



$$g(x) = x + tu$$

where  $u = \frac{x - f(x)}{\|x - f(x)\|}$

$$t = -x \cdot u + \sqrt{1 - x \cdot x + (x \cdot u)^2}$$



$x + f(x) \neq x$   
 $\Rightarrow g: B \rightarrow \partial B$   
 is well-defined  
 and continuous  
 ~~$\Rightarrow x =$~~



## Fixed Points for Correspondences

**Definition 2.** Let  $X$  be nonempty and  $\Psi : X \rightarrow 2^X$  be a correspondence. A point  $x^* \in X$  is a fixed point of  $\Psi$  if  $x^* \in \Psi(x^*)$ .

Note here that we do *not* require  $\Psi(x^*) = \{x^*\}$ , that is  $\Psi$  need not be single-valued at  $x^*$ . So  $x^*$  can be a fixed point of  $\Psi$  but there may be other elements of  $\Psi(x^*)$  different from  $x^*$ .

## Examples:

1. Let  $X = [0, 4]$  and  $\psi : X \rightarrow 2^X$  be given by

$$\psi(x) = \begin{cases} [x+1, x+2] & \text{if } x < 2 \\ [0, 4] & \text{if } x = 2 \\ [x-2, x-1] & \text{if } x > 2 \end{cases}$$

Then  $x = 2$  is the unique fixed point of  $\psi$ .

$$2 \in \psi(2) = [0, 4]$$

$$x \notin [x+1, x+2]$$

$$x \notin [x-2, x-1]$$

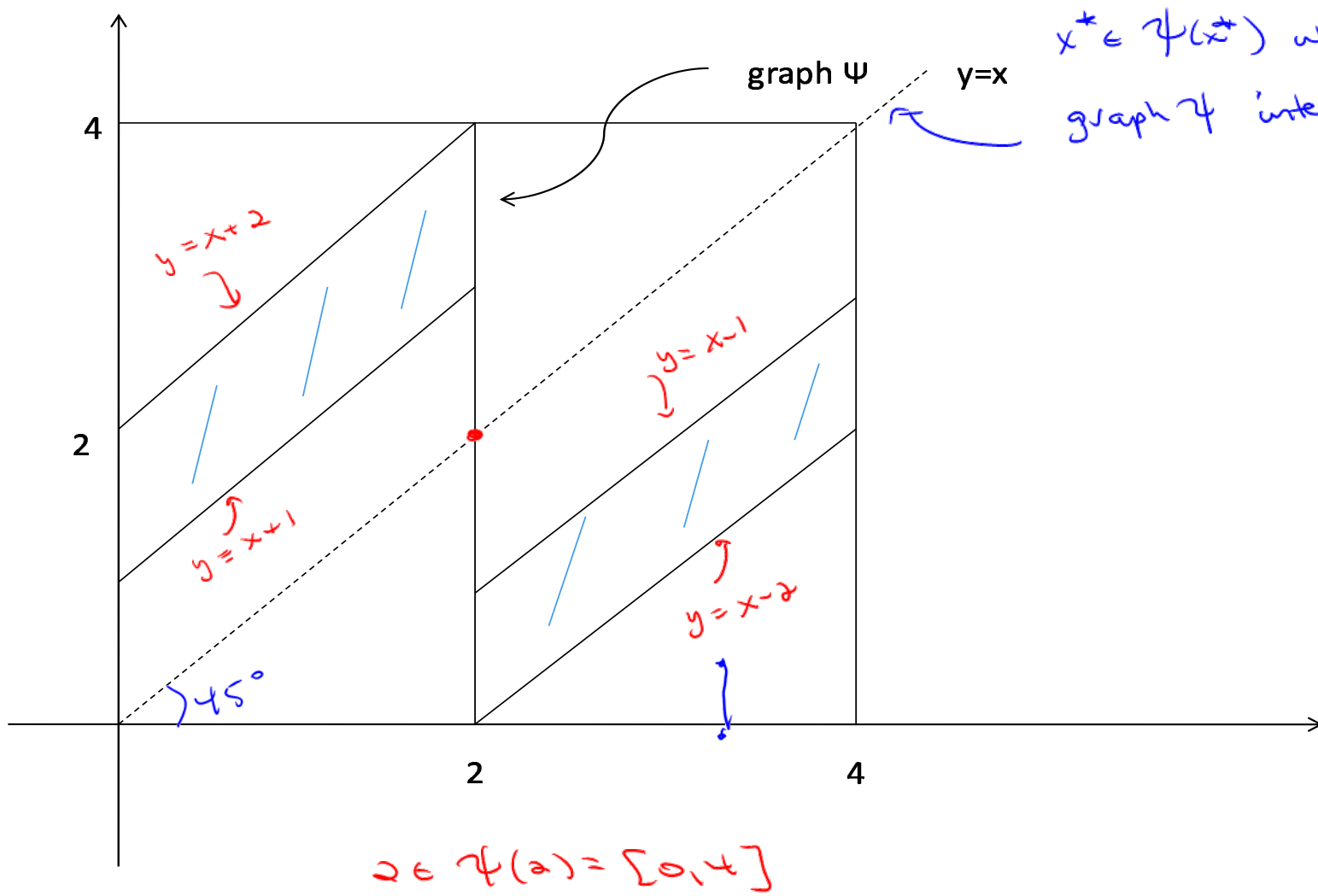
$$\Rightarrow x \notin \psi(x) \\ \forall x \neq 2$$

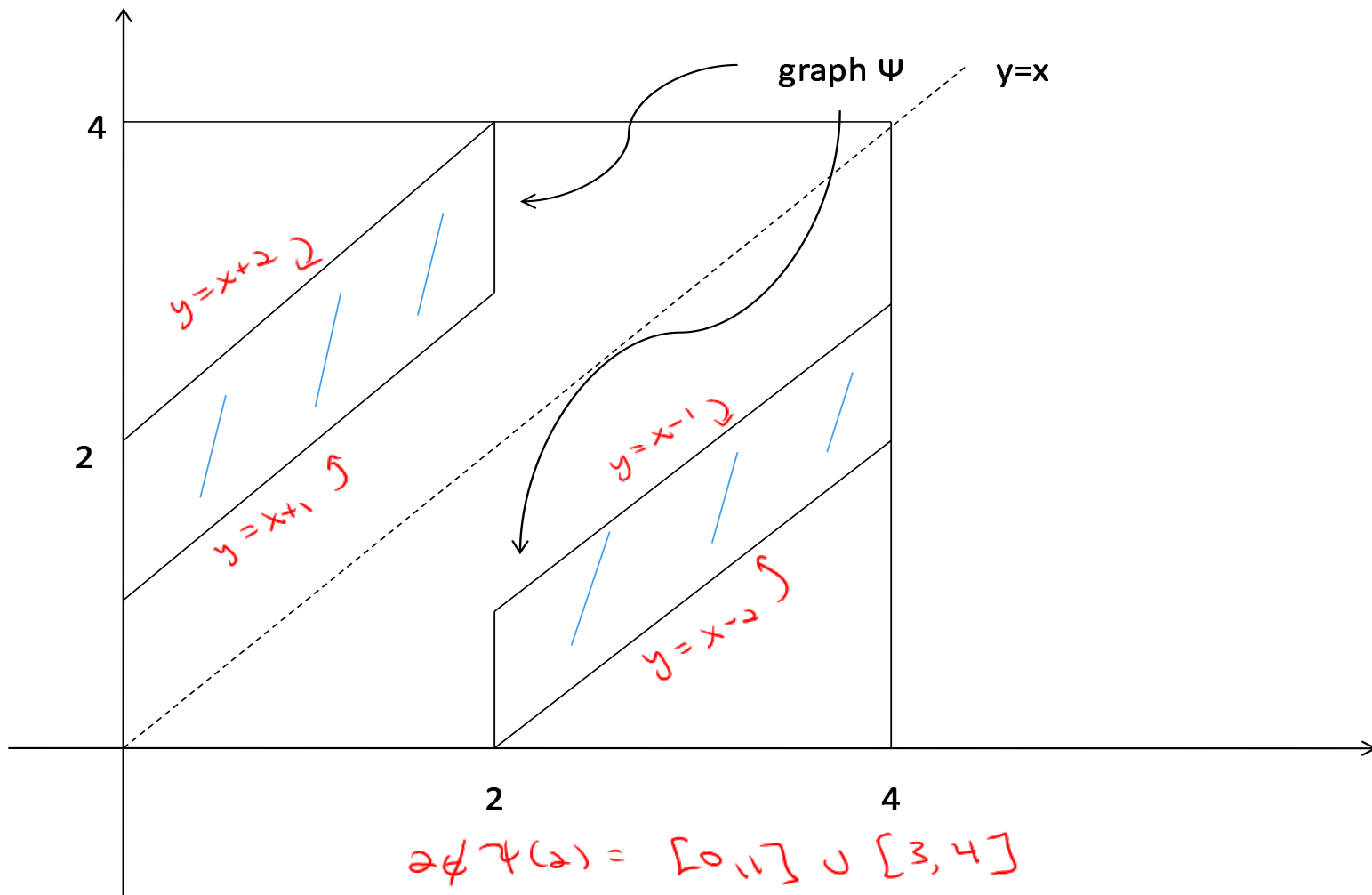
2. Let  $X = [0, 4]$  and  $\psi : X \rightarrow 2^X$  be given by

$$\psi(x) = \begin{cases} [x+1, x+2] & \text{if } x < 2 \\ [0, 1] \cup [3, 4] & \text{if } x = 2 \\ [x-2, x-1] & \text{if } x > 2 \end{cases}$$

Then  $\psi$  has no fixed points.

$$2 \notin \psi(2) = [0, 1] \cup [3, 4]$$





Note:  $\psi$  is not  $\psi$  in both cases

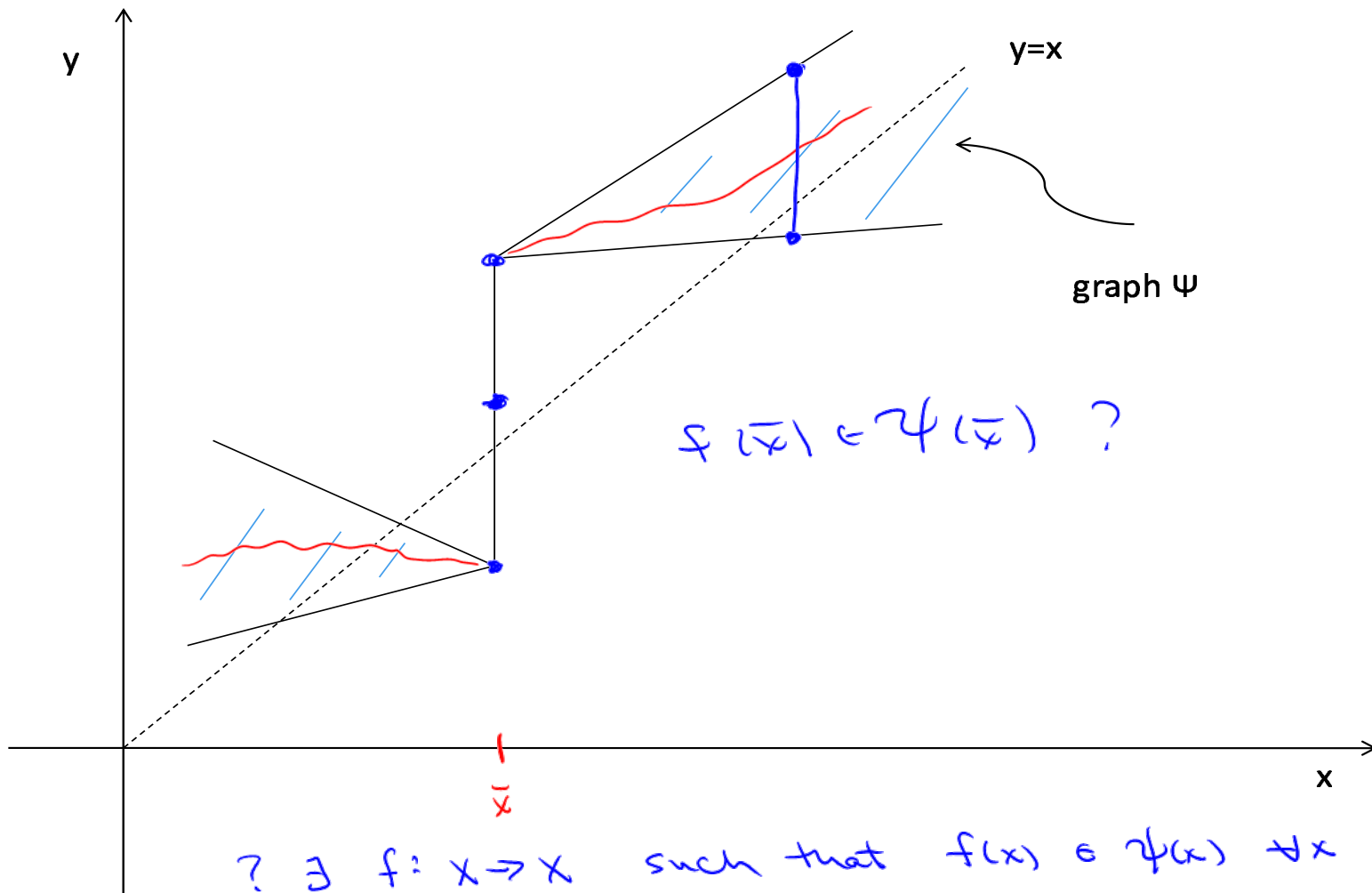
$\psi(x) \subseteq X$  is nonempty, convex, compact  
 $\forall x \in X$

## Kakutani's Fixed Point Theorem

### Theorem 3. (Thm. 3.4'. Kakutani's Fixed Point Theorem)

Let  $X \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$  be a non-empty, compact, convex set and  $\Psi : X \rightarrow 2^X$  be an upper hemi-continuous correspondence with non-empty, convex, compact values. Then  $\Psi$  has a fixed point in  $X$ .

*Proof. (sketch)* Here, the idea is to use Brouwer's theorem after appropriately approximating the correspondence with a function. The catch is that there won't necessarily exist a continuous selection from  $\Psi$ , that is, a continuous function  $f : X \rightarrow X$  such that  $f(x) \in \Psi(x)$  for every  $x \in X$ . If such a function existed, then by applying Brouwer to  $f$  we would have a fixed point of  $\Psi$  (because if  $\exists x^* \in X$  such that  $x^* = f(x^*)$ , then  $x^* = f(x^*) \in \Psi(x^*)$ ).



$f(\bar{x}) \in \psi(\bar{x})$  ?

?  $\exists f: X \rightarrow X$  such that  $f(x) \in \psi(x) \forall x$   
and  $f$  continuous

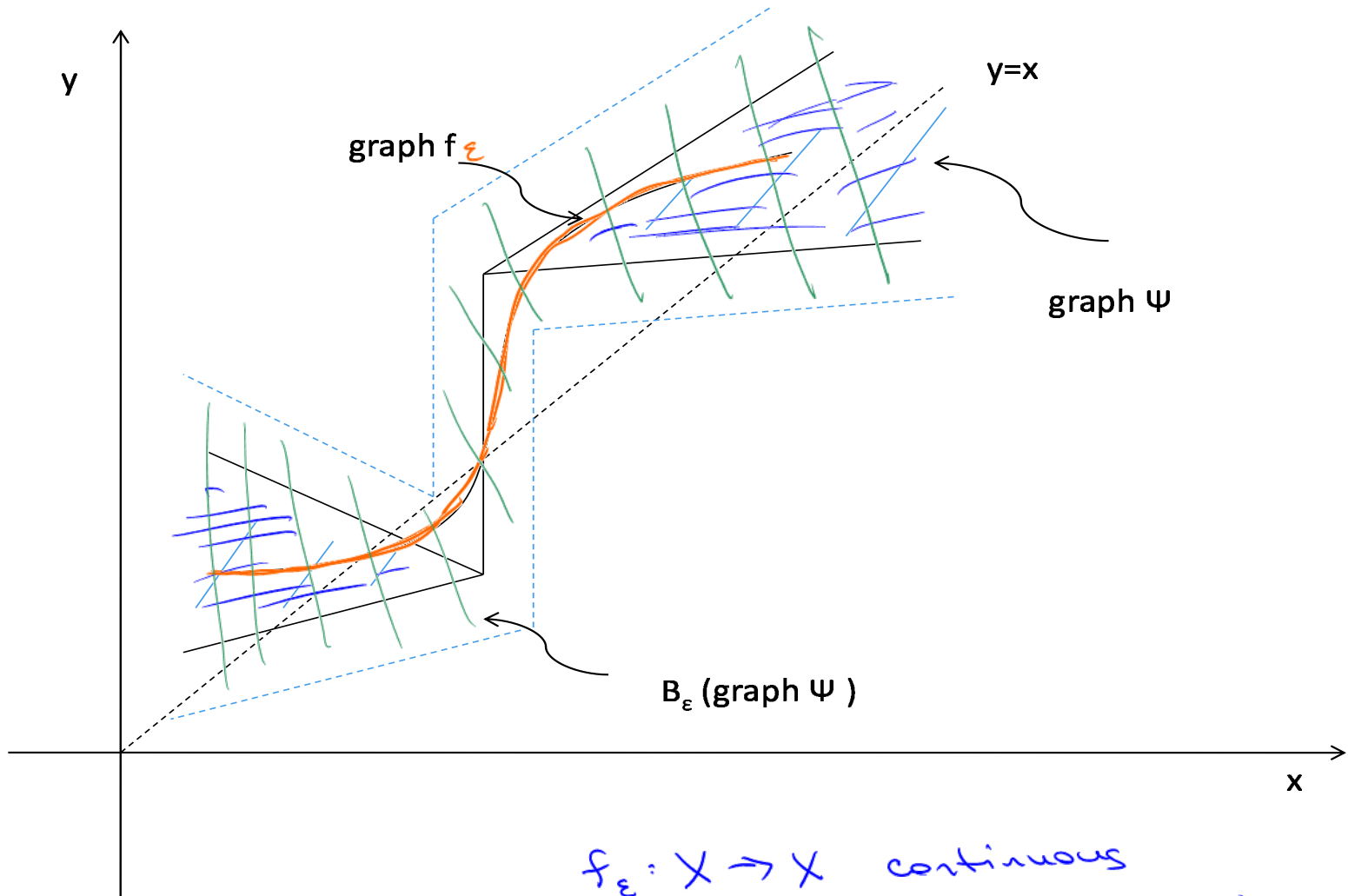
$\psi(x)$  convex  $\forall x \in X$ ,  $\psi$  ube

Instead, we look for a weaker type of approximation. Let  $X \subset \mathbf{R}^n$  be a non-empty, compact, convex set, and let  $\Psi : X \rightarrow 2^X$  be an uhc correspondence with non-empty, compact, convex values. For every  $\varepsilon > 0$ , define the  $\varepsilon$  ball about graph  $\Psi$  to be

$$B_\varepsilon(\text{graph } \Psi) = \left\{ z \in X \times X : d(z, \text{graph } \Psi) = \inf_{(x,y) \in \text{graph } \Psi} d(z, (x,y)) < \varepsilon \right\}$$

Here  $d$  denotes the ordinary Euclidean distance. Since  $\Psi$  is uhc and convex-valued, for every  $\varepsilon > 0$  there exists a continuous function  $f_\varepsilon : X \rightarrow X$  such that  $\text{graph } f_\varepsilon \subseteq B_\varepsilon(\text{graph } \Psi)$ .

$\epsilon > 0$



$f_\epsilon: X \rightarrow X$  continuous  
 $\text{graph } f_\epsilon \subseteq B_\epsilon(\text{graph } \psi)$



Now by letting  $\varepsilon \rightarrow 0$ , this means that we can find a sequence of continuous functions  $\{f_n\}$  such that  $\text{graph } f_n \subseteq B_{\frac{1}{n}}(\text{graph } \Psi)$  for each  $n$ . By Brouwer's Fixed Point Theorem, each function  $f_n$  has a fixed point  $\hat{x}_n \in X$ , and

$$(\hat{x}_n, \hat{x}_n) = (\hat{x}_n, f_n(\hat{x}_n)) \in \text{graph } f_n \subseteq B_{\frac{1}{n}}(\text{graph } \Psi) \text{ for each } n$$

So for each  $n$  there exists  $(x_n, y_n) \in \text{graph } \Psi$  such that  $d((\hat{x}_n, \hat{x}_n), (x_n, y_n)) < \frac{1}{n}$

$$d(\hat{x}_n, x_n) < \frac{1}{n} \text{ and } d(\hat{x}_n, y_n) < \frac{1}{n}$$

Since  $X$  is compact,  $\{\hat{x}_n\}$  has a convergent subsequence  $\{\hat{x}_{n_k}\}$ , with  $\hat{x}_{n_k} \rightarrow \hat{x} \in X$ . Then  $x_{n_k} \rightarrow \hat{x}$  and  $y_{n_k} \rightarrow \hat{x}$ . Since  $\Psi$  is uhc and closed-valued, it has closed graph, so  $(\hat{x}, \hat{x}) \in \text{graph } \Psi$ . Thus  $\hat{x} \in \Psi(\hat{x})$ , that is,  $\hat{x}$  is a fixed point of  $\Psi$ .  $\square$

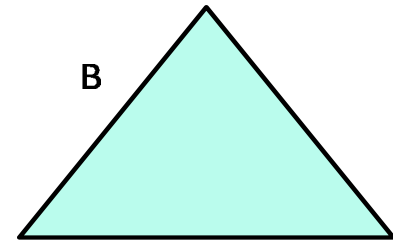
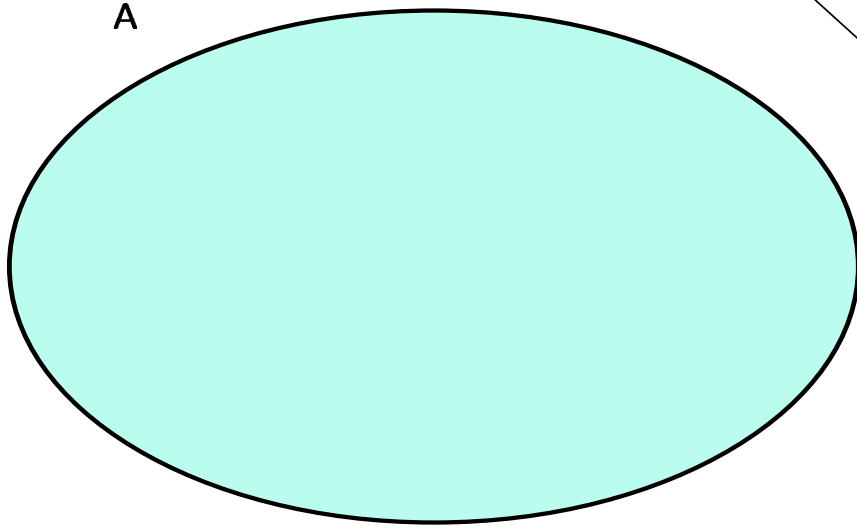
## Separating Hyperplane Theorems

**Theorem 4** (1.26, Separating Hyperplane Theorem). *Let  $A, B \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$  be nonempty, disjoint convex sets. Then there exists a nonzero vector  $p \in \mathbb{R}^n$  such that*

$$p \cdot a \leq p \cdot b \quad \forall a \in A, b \in B$$

hyperplane:  $\{z \in \mathbb{R}^n : v \cdot z = c\}$  for some  $v \in \mathbb{R}^n, v \neq 0$ ,  
and some  $c \in \mathbb{R}$

$$H = \{z \in \mathbb{R}^n; p \cdot z = c\}$$

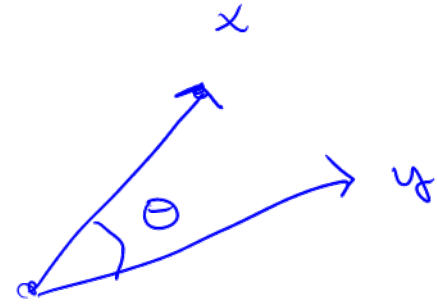


$$p \cdot b \geq c \quad \forall b \in B$$

$$p \cdot a \leq c \quad \forall a \in A$$

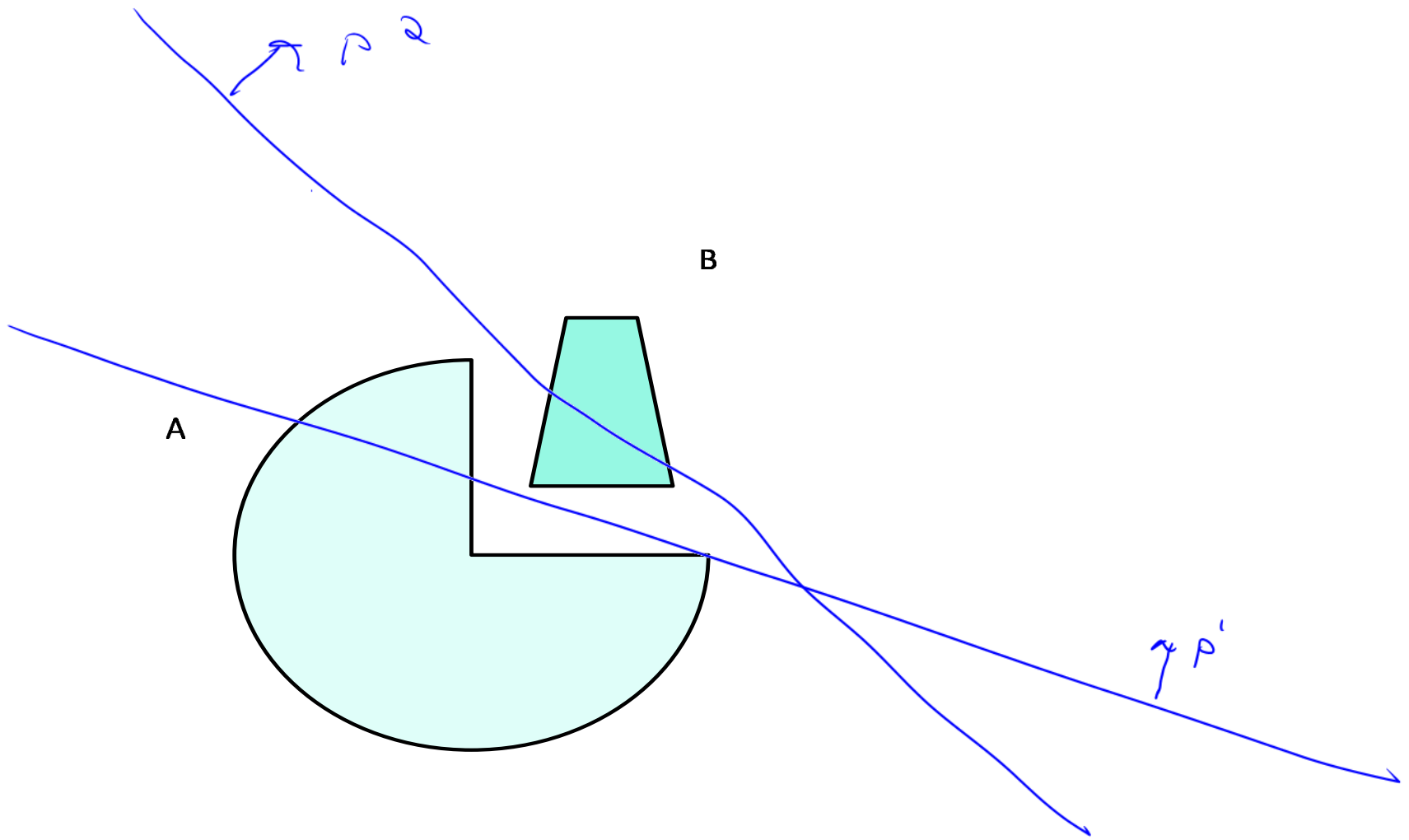
$$c = p \cdot \bar{z}$$

$$\cos \theta = \frac{x \cdot y}{\|x\| \|y\|}$$



$$\cos \theta \geq 0 \Leftrightarrow \theta \leq 90^\circ$$

$$\cos \theta \leq 0 \Leftrightarrow \theta \geq 90^\circ$$



Convexity important: no hyperplane separates A and B



## Separating a Point from a Set

**Theorem 5.** Let  $Y \subseteq \mathbf{R}^n$  be a nonempty convex set and  $x \notin Y$ . Then there exists a nonzero vector  $p \in \mathbf{R}^n$  such that

$$p \cdot x \leq p \cdot y \quad \forall y \in Y$$

*Proof.* We sketch the proof in the special case that  $Y$  is compact. We will see that in this case we actually get a stronger conclusion:

$$\exists p \in \mathbf{R}^n, p \neq 0 \text{ s.t. } p \cdot x < p \cdot y \quad \forall y \in Y$$

Choose  $y_0 \in Y$  such that  $\|y_0 - x\| = \inf\{\|y - x\| : y \in Y\}$ ; such a point exists because  $Y$  is compact, so the distance function  $g(y) = \|y - x\|$  assumes its minimum on  $Y$ . Since  $x \notin Y$ ,  $x \neq y_0$ , so  $y_0 - x \neq 0$ . Let  $p = y_0 - x$ . The set

$$H = \{z \in \mathbf{R}^n : p \cdot z = p \cdot y_0\}$$

*g is continuous*

is the hyperplane perpendicular to  $p$  through  $y_0$ . See Figure 12.  
Then

$$\begin{aligned} p \cdot y_0 &= (y_0 - x) \cdot y_0 \\ &= (y_0 - x) \cdot (y_0 - x + x) \\ &= (y_0 - x) \cdot (y_0 - x) + (y_0 - x) \cdot x \\ &= \|y_0 - x\|^2 + p \cdot x \\ &> p \cdot x \end{aligned}$$

We claim that

$$\forall y \in Y \Rightarrow p \cdot y \geq p \cdot y_0 > p \cdot x$$

If not, suppose there exists  $y \in Y$  such that  $p \cdot y < p \cdot y_0$ . Given  $\alpha \in (0, 1)$ , let

$$w_\alpha = \alpha y + (1 - \alpha)y_0$$

Since  $Y$  is convex,  $w_\alpha \in Y$ . Then for  $\alpha$  sufficiently close to zero,

$$\begin{aligned}
 \|x - w_\alpha\|^2 &= \|x - \alpha y - (1 - \alpha)y_0\|^2 && \text{defn of } w_\alpha \\
 &= \|x - y_0 + \alpha(y_0 - y)\|^2 && \text{algebra} \\
 &= \|-p + \alpha(y_0 - y)\|^2 && \text{defn of } p \\
 &= |p|^2 - 2\alpha p \cdot (y_0 - y) + \alpha^2 |y_0 - y|^2 && \text{more algebra} \\
 &= |p|^2 + \alpha \left( \underbrace{-2p \cdot (y_0 - y)}_{\text{negative}} + \underbrace{\alpha |y_0 - y|^2}_{\text{positive}} \right) && \text{"} \\
 &< |p|^2 \text{ for } \alpha \text{ close to 0, as } p \cdot y_0 > p \cdot y \rightarrow 0 \text{ as } \alpha \rightarrow 0 && \\
 &= \|y_0 - x\|^2
 \end{aligned}$$

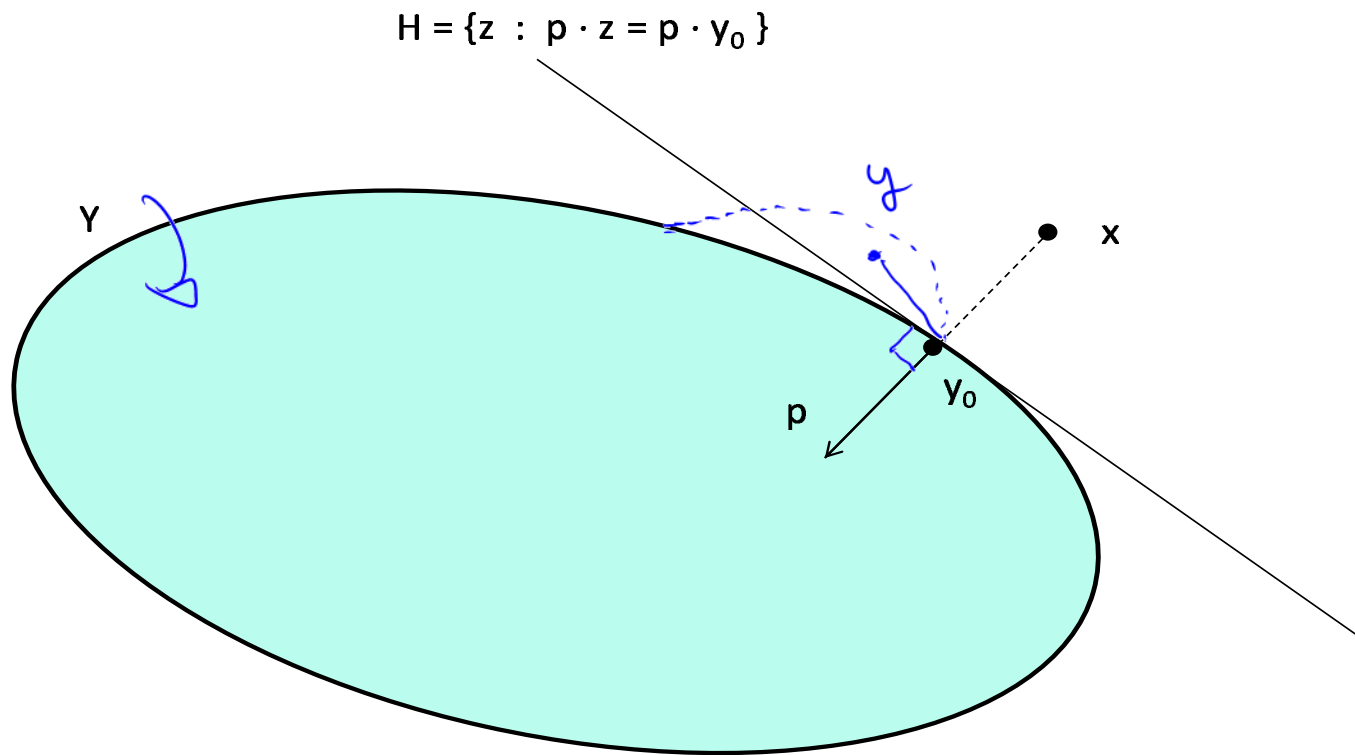
Thus for  $\alpha$  sufficiently close to zero,

$$\|w_\alpha - x\| < \|y_0 - x\|$$

which implies  $y_0$  is not the closest point in  $Y$  to  $x$ , contradiction.

□





The general version of the Separating Hyperplane Theorem can be derived from this special case by noting that if  $A \cap B = \emptyset$ , then  $0 \notin A - B = \{a - b : a \in A, b \in B\}$ .

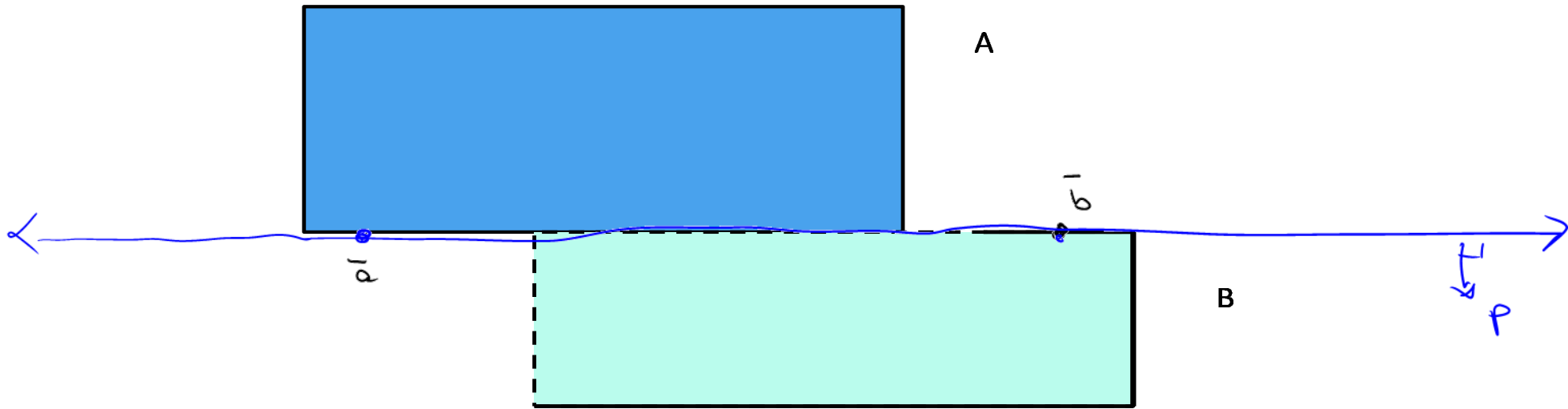
$A - B$  not closed if  
 $A, B$  closed  
not necessarily bdd

# Strict Separation

For the special case of  $Y$  compact and  $X = \{x\}$ , we actually could *strictly separate*  $Y$  and  $X$ :

$$x \notin Y \Rightarrow \exists p \in \mathbf{R}^n, p \neq 0 \text{ s.t. } p \cdot x < p \cdot y \quad \forall y \in Y$$

When can we do this in general? Will require additional assumptions...



$A, B$  nonempty, disjoint, convex  $\Rightarrow$

$\exists p \in \mathbb{R}^n, p \neq 0$  st.  $p \cdot \bar{a} \leq p \cdot \bar{b} \quad \forall \bar{a} \in A$   
 $\forall \bar{b} \in B$

But

$p \cdot \bar{a} = p \cdot \bar{b}$  for some  $\bar{a} \in A$  and  $\bar{b} \in B$

(for any such  $p$ )

## Strict Separation

**Theorem 6. (Strict Separating Hyperplane Theorem)** *Let  $A, B \subseteq \mathbf{R}^n$  be nonempty, disjoint, convex sets with  $A$  closed and  $B$  compact. Then there exists a nonzero vector  $p \in \mathbf{R}^n$  such that*

$$p \cdot a < p \cdot b \quad \forall a \in A, b \in B$$