Econ 204 2023

Lecture 3

Outline

- 1. Metric Spaces and Normed Spaces
- 2. Convergence of Sequences in Metric Spaces
- 3. Sequences in ${f R}$ and ${f R}^n$

Metric Spaces and Metrics

Generalize distance and length notions in ${f R}^n$

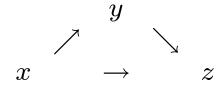
Definition 1. A metric space is a pair (X,d), where X is a set and $d: X \times X \to \mathbf{R}_+$ a function satisfying

1.
$$d(x,y) \ge 0$$
, $d(x,y) = 0 \Leftrightarrow x = y \ \forall x, y \in X$

2.
$$d(x,y) = d(y,x) \ \forall x,y \in X$$

3. triangle inequality:

$$d(x,z) \le d(x,y) + d(y,z) \quad \forall x,y,z \in X$$



A function $d: X \times X \to \mathbf{R}_+$ satisfying 1-3 above is called a metric on X.

A metric gives a notion of distance between elements of X.

Normed Spaces and Norms

Definition 2. Let V be a vector space over \mathbf{R} . A norm on V is a function $\|\cdot\|:V\to\mathbf{R}_+$ satisfying

1.
$$||x|| \ge 0 \ \forall x \in V$$

2.
$$||x|| = 0 \Leftrightarrow x = 0 \ \forall x \in V$$

3. triangle inequality:

$$||x + y|| \le ||x|| + ||y|| \ \forall x, y \in V$$

$$\begin{array}{ccc}
x \\
x \nearrow & \searrow y \\
0 & \rightarrow & x+y \\
y \searrow & \nearrow x
\end{array}$$

4.
$$\|\alpha x\| = |\alpha| \|x\| \ \forall \alpha \in \mathbb{R}, x \in V$$

A normed vector space is a vector space over ${f R}$ equipped with a norm.

A norm gives a notion of length of a vector in V.

Normed Spaces and Norms

Example: In \mathbb{R}^n , standard notion of distance between two vectors x and y measures length of difference x-y, i.e., $d(x,y) = ||x-y|| = \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^n (x_i-y_i)^2}$.

In an abstract normed vector space, the norm can be used analogously to define a notion of distance.

Theorem 1. Let $(V, \|\cdot\|)$ be a normed vector space. Let $d: V \times V \Rightarrow \mathbf{R}_+$ be defined by

$$d(v, w) = ||v - w||$$

Then (V,d) is a metric space.

Proof. We must verify that d satisfies all the properties of a metric.

1. Let $v,w\in V$. Then by definition, $d(v,w)=\|v-w\|\geq 0$ (why?), and

$$d(v, w) = 0 \Leftrightarrow ||v - w|| = 0$$

$$\Leftrightarrow v - w = 0$$

$$\Leftrightarrow (v + (-w)) + w = w$$

$$\Leftrightarrow v + ((-w) + w) = w$$

$$\Leftrightarrow v + 0 = w$$

$$\Leftrightarrow v = w$$

2. First, note that for any $x \in V$, $0 \cdot x = (0+0) \cdot x = 0 \cdot x + 0 \cdot x$, so $0 \cdot x = 0$. Then $0 = 0 \cdot x = (1-1) \cdot x = 1 \cdot x + (-1) \cdot x = 0$

 $x + (-1) \cdot x$, so we have $(-1) \cdot x = (-x)$. Then let $v, w \in V$.

$$d(v, w) = ||v - w||$$

$$= ||-1|||v - w||$$

$$= ||(-1)(v + (-w))||$$

$$= ||(-1)v + (-1)(-w)||$$

$$= ||-v + w||$$

$$= ||w + (-v)||$$

$$= ||w - v||$$

$$= d(w, v)$$

3. Let $u, w, v \in V$.

$$d(u, w) = ||u - w||$$

$$= ||u + (-v + v) - w||$$

$$= ||u - v + v - w||$$

$$\leq ||u - v|| + ||v - w||$$

$$= d(u, v) + d(v, w)$$

Thus d is a metric on V.

Normed Spaces and Norms

Examples

• \mathbf{E}^n : n-dimensional Euclidean space.

$$V = \mathbf{R}^n, \ ||x||_2 = |x| = \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^n (x_i)^2}$$

- $V = \mathbf{R}^n$, $||x||_1 = \sum_{i=1}^n |x_i|$ (the "taxi cab" norm or L^1 norm)
- $V = \mathbf{R}^n$, $||x||_{\infty} = \max\{|x_1|, \dots, |x_n|\}$ (the maximum norm, or sup norm, or L^{∞} norm)

• $C([0,1]), ||f||_{\infty} = \sup\{|f(t)| : t \in [0,1]\}$

•
$$C([0,1]), ||f||_2 = \sqrt{\int_0^1 (f(t))^2 dt}$$

• $C([0,1]), ||f||_1 = \int_0^1 |f(t)| dt$

Normed Spaces and Norms

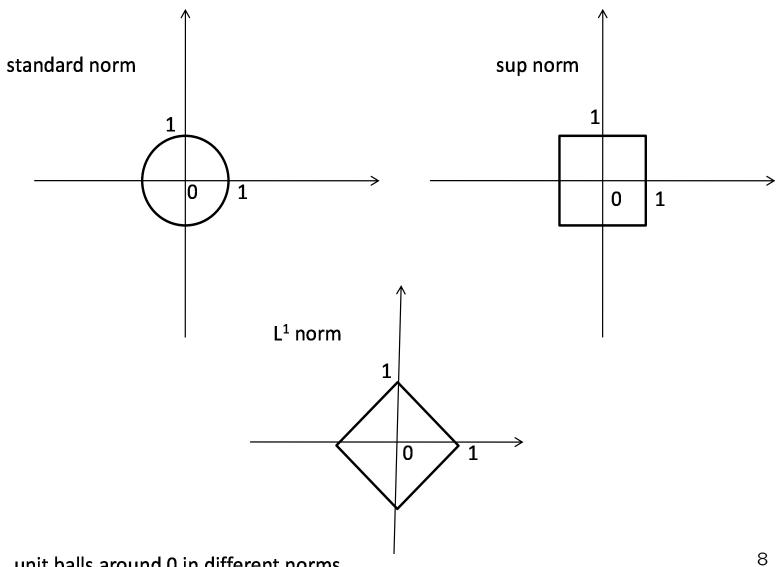
Theorem 2 (Cauchy-Schwarz Inequality).

If $v, w \in \mathbb{R}^n$, then

$$\left(\sum_{i=1}^{n} v_i w_i\right)^2 \leq \left(\sum_{i=1}^{n} v_i^2\right) \left(\sum_{i=1}^{n} w_i^2\right)$$
$$|v \cdot w|^2 \leq |v|^2 |w|^2$$
$$|v \cdot w| \leq |v||w|$$

A given vector space may have many different norms: if $\|\cdot\|$ is a norm on a vector space V, so are $2\|\cdot\|$ and $3\|\cdot\|$ and $k\|\cdot\|$ for any k>0.

Less trivially, \mathbf{R}^n supports many different norms as in the examples above. Different norms on a given vector space yield different geometric properties.



unit balls around 0 in different norms

Definition 3. Two norms $\|\cdot\|$ and $\|\cdot\|^*$ on the same vector space V are said to be Lipschitz-equivalent (or equivalent) if $\exists m, M > 0$ s.t. $\forall x \in V$,

$$||x|| \le ||x||^* \le M||x||$$

Equivalently, $\exists m, M > 0 \text{ s.t. } \forall x \in V, x \neq 0$,

$$m \le \frac{\|x\|^*}{\|x\|} \le M$$

If two norms are equivalent, then they define the same notions of convergence and continuity. For topological purposes, equivalent norms are indistinguishable.

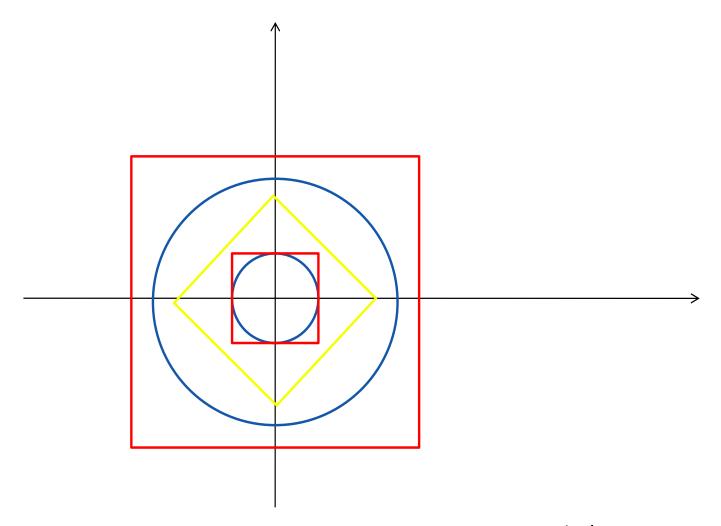
For example, suppose two norms $\|\cdot\|$ and $\|\cdot\|^*$ on the vector space V are equivalent, and fix $x \in V$. Let

$$B_{\varepsilon}(x, \|\cdot\|) = \{y \in V : \|x - y\| < \varepsilon\}$$

 $B_{\varepsilon}(x, \|\cdot\|^*) = \{y \in V : \|x - y\|^* < \varepsilon\}$

Then for any $\varepsilon > 0$,

$$B_{\frac{\varepsilon}{M}}(x, \|\cdot\|) \subseteq B_{\varepsilon}(x, \|\cdot\|^*) \subseteq B_{\frac{\varepsilon}{m}}(x, \|\cdot\|)$$



norms on ${\bf R}^{\bf n}$ are equivalent

In \mathbb{R}^n (or any finite-dimensional normed vector space), all norms are equivalent. Roughly, up to a difference in scaling, for topological purposes there is a unique norm in \mathbb{R}^n .

Theorem 3. All norms on \mathbb{R}^n are equivalent.

Infinite-dimensional spaces support norms that are not equivalent. For example, on C([0,1]), let f_n be the function

$$f_n(t) = \left\{ egin{array}{ll} 1 - nt & ext{if } t \in \left[0, rac{1}{n}
ight] \\ 0 & ext{if } t \in \left(rac{1}{n}, 1
ight] \end{array}
ight.$$

Then

$$\frac{\|f_n\|_1}{\|f_n\|_\infty} = \frac{\frac{1}{2n}}{1} = \frac{1}{2n} \to 0$$

Metrics and Sets

Definition 4. In a metric space (X, d), a subset $S \subseteq X$ is bounded if $\exists x \in X, \beta \in \mathbf{R}$ such that $\forall s \in S, d(s, x) \leq \beta$.

In a metric space (X, d), define

```
B_{\varepsilon}(x) = \{y \in X : d(y,x) < \varepsilon\}
= open ball with center x and radius \varepsilon
B_{\varepsilon}[x] = \{y \in X : d(y,x) \le \varepsilon\}
= closed ball with center x and radius \varepsilon
```

Metrics and Sets

We can use the metric d to define a generalization of "radius". In a metric space (X,d), define the diameter of a subset $S\subseteq X$ by

diam
$$(S) = \sup\{d(s, s') : s, s' \in S\}$$

Similarly, we can define the distance from a point to a set, and distance between sets, as follows:

$$d(A,x) = \inf_{a \in A} d(a,x)$$

$$d(A,B) = \inf_{a \in A} d(B,a)$$

$$= \inf\{d(a,b) : a \in A, b \in B\}$$

But d(A, B) is **not** a metric.

Convergence of Sequences

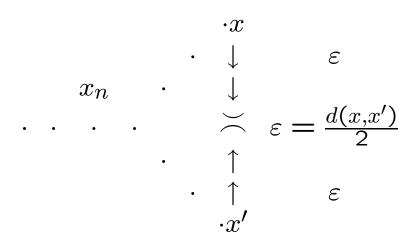
Definition 5. Let (X,d) be a metric space. A sequence $\{x_n\}$ converges to x (written $x_n \to x$ or $\lim_{n\to\infty} x_n = x$) if

$$\forall \varepsilon > 0 \ \exists N(\varepsilon) \in \mathbb{N} \ s.t. \ n > N(\varepsilon) \Rightarrow d(x_n, x) < \varepsilon$$

Notice that this is exactly the same as the definition of convergence of a sequence of real numbers, except we replace the standard measure of distance $|\cdot|$ in $\mathbf R$ by the general metric d.

Uniqueness of Limits

Theorem 4 (Uniqueness of Limits). In a metric space (X,d), if $x_n \to x$ and $x_n \to x'$, then x = x'.



Proof. Suppose $\{x_n\}$ is a sequence in X, $x_n \to x$, $x_n \to x'$, $x \neq x'$.

Since $x \neq x'$, d(x, x') > 0. Let

$$\varepsilon = \frac{d(x, x')}{2}$$

Then there exist $N(\varepsilon)$ and $N'(\varepsilon)$ such that

$$n > N(\varepsilon) \Rightarrow d(x_n, x) < \varepsilon$$

 $n > N'(\varepsilon) \Rightarrow d(x_n, x') < \varepsilon$

Choose

$$n > \max\{N(\varepsilon), N'(\varepsilon)\}$$

Then

$$d(x, x') \leq d(x, x_n) + d(x_n, x')$$

$$< \varepsilon + \varepsilon$$

$$= 2\varepsilon$$

$$= d(x, x')$$

$$d(x, x') < d(x, x')$$

a contradiction.

Cluster Points

Definition 6. An element c is a cluster point of a sequence $\{x_n\}$ in a metric space (X,d) if $\forall \varepsilon > 0$, $\{n : x_n \in B_{\varepsilon}(c)\}$ is an infinite set. Equivalently,

$$\forall \varepsilon > 0, N \in \mathbb{N} \ \exists n > N \ s.t. \ x_n \in B_{\varepsilon}(c)$$

Example:

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

For n large and odd, x_n is close to zero; for n large and even, x_n is close to one. The sequence does not converge; the set of cluster points is $\{0,1\}$.

Subsequences

If $\{x_n\}$ is a sequence and $n_1 < n_2 < n_3 < \cdots$ then $\{x_{n_k}\}$ is called a *subsequence*.

Note that a subsequence is formed by taking some of the elements of the parent sequence, in the same order.

Example:
$$x_n = \frac{1}{n}$$
, so $\{x_n\} = \left(1, \frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{3}, \ldots\right)$. If $n_k = 2k$, then $\{x_{n_k}\} = \left(\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{4}, \frac{1}{6}, \ldots\right)$.

Cluster Points and Subsequences

Theorem 5 (2.4 in De La Fuente, plus ...). Let (X,d) be a metric space, $c \in X$, and $\{x_n\}$ a sequence in X. Then c is a cluster point of $\{x_n\}$ if and only if there is a subsequence $\{x_{n_k}\}$ such that $\lim_{k\to\infty} x_{n_k} = c$.

Proof. Suppose c is a cluster point of $\{x_n\}$. We inductively construct a subsequence that converges to c. For k = 1, $\{n : x_n \in B_1(c)\}$ is infinite, so nonempty; let

$$n_1 = \min\{n : x_n \in B_1(c)\}$$

Now, suppose we have chosen $n_1 < n_2 < \cdots < n_k$ such that

$$x_{n_j} \in B_{\frac{1}{j}}(c)$$
 for $j = 1, \dots, k$

 $\{n: x_n \in B_{\frac{1}{k+1}}(c)\}$ is infinite, so it contains at least one element bigger than n_k , so let

$$n_{k+1} = \min \left\{ n : n > n_k, \ x_n \in B_{\frac{1}{k+1}}(c) \right\}$$

Thus, we have chosen $n_1 < n_2 < \cdots < n_k < n_{k+1}$ such that

$$x_{n_j} \in B_{\frac{1}{j}}(c) \text{ for } j = 1, \dots, k, k+1$$

Thus, by induction, we obtain a subsequence $\{x_{n_k}\}$ such that

$$x_{n_k} \in B_{\frac{1}{k}}(c)$$

Given any $\varepsilon > 0$, by the Archimedean property, there exists $N(\varepsilon) > 1/\varepsilon$.

$$k > N(\varepsilon) \implies x_{n_k} \in B_{\frac{1}{k}}(c)$$

 $\Rightarrow x_{n_k} \in B_{\varepsilon}(c)$

$$x_{n_k} \to c \text{ as } k \to \infty$$

Conversely, suppose that there is a subsequence $\{x_{n_k}\}$ converging to c. Given any $\varepsilon > 0$, there exists $K \in \mathbb{N}$ such that

$$k > K \Rightarrow d(x_{n_k}, c) < \varepsilon \Rightarrow x_{n_k} \in B_{\varepsilon}(c)$$

Therefore,

$$\{n: x_n \in B_{\varepsilon}(c)\} \supseteq \{n_{K+1}, n_{K+2}, n_{K+3}, \ldots\}$$

Since $n_{K+1} < n_{K+2} < n_{K+3} < \cdots$, this set is infinite, so c is a cluster point of $\{x_n\}$.

Sequences in ${f R}$ and ${f R}^m$

Definition 7. A sequence of real numbers $\{x_n\}$ is increasing (decreasing) if $x_{n+1} \ge x_n$ ($x_{n+1} \le x_n$) for all n.

Definition 8. If $\{x_n\}$ is a sequence of real numbers, $\{x_n\}$ tends to infinity (written $x_n \to \infty$ or $\lim x_n = \infty$) if

$$\forall K \in \mathbf{R} \exists N(K) \text{ s.t. } n > N(K) \Rightarrow x_n > K$$

Similarly define $x_n \to -\infty$ or $\lim x_n = -\infty$.

Increasing and Decreasing Sequences

Theorem 6 (Theorem 3.1'). Let $\{x_n\}$ be an increasing (decreasing) sequence of real numbers. Then

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} x_n = \sup\{x_n : n \in \mathbf{N}\}\$$

$$(\lim_{n \to \infty} x_n = \inf\{x_n : n \in \mathbf{N}\}\)$$

In particular, the limit exists.

Lim Sups and Lim Infs

Consider a sequence $\{x_n\}$ of real numbers. Let

$$\alpha_n = \sup\{x_k : k \ge n\}$$

$$= \sup\{x_n, x_{n+1}, x_{n+2}, \ldots\}$$
 $\beta_n = \inf\{x_k : k \ge n\}$

$$= \inf\{x_n, x_{n+1}, x_{n+2}, \ldots\}$$

Either $\alpha_n = +\infty$ for all n, or $\alpha_n \in \mathbf{R}$ and $\alpha_1 \ge \alpha_2 \ge \alpha_3 \ge \cdots$.

Either $\beta_n = -\infty$ for all n, or $\beta_n \in \mathbf{R}$ and $\beta_1 \leq \beta_2 \leq \beta_3 \leq \cdots$.

Lim Sups and Lim Infs

Definition 9.

$$\limsup_{n \to \infty} x_n = \begin{cases} +\infty & \text{if } \alpha_n = +\infty \text{ for all } n \\ \lim \alpha_n & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

$$\liminf_{n \to \infty} x_n = \begin{cases} -\infty & \text{if } \beta_n = -\infty \text{ for all } n \\ \lim \beta_n & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

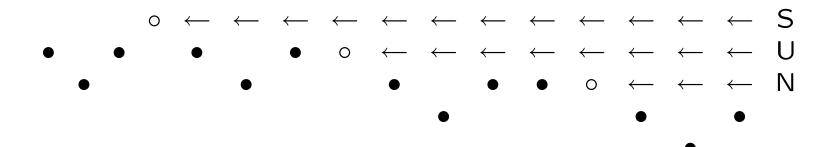
Theorem 7. Let $\{x_n\}$ be a sequence of real numbers. Then

$$\lim_{n\to\infty} x_n = \gamma \in \mathbf{R} \cup \{-\infty, \infty\}$$

$$\Leftrightarrow \lim\sup_{n\to\infty} x_n = \lim\inf_{n\to\infty} x_n = \gamma$$

Increasing and Decreasing Subsequences

Theorem 8 (Theorem 3.2, Rising Sun Lemma). Every sequence of real numbers contains an increasing subsequence or a decreasing subsequence or both.



Proof. Let

$$S = \{ s \in \mathbf{N} : x_s > x_n \quad \forall n > s \}$$

Either S is infinite, or S is finite.

If S is infinite, let

$$n_1 = \min S$$
 $n_2 = \min (S \setminus \{n_1\})$
 $n_3 = \min (S \setminus \{n_1, n_2\})$
 \vdots
 $n_{k+1} = \min (S \setminus \{n_1, n_2, \dots, n_k\})$

Then $n_1 < n_2 < n_3 < \cdots$.

$$\begin{array}{ccc} x_{n_1}>x_{n_2} & \text{ since } n_1\in S \text{ and } n_2>n_1\\ x_{n_2}>x_{n_3} & \text{ since } n_2\in S \text{ and } n_3>n_2\\ & \vdots\\ x_{n_k}>x_{n_{k+1}} & \text{ since } n_k\in S \text{ and } n_{k+1}>n_k\\ & \vdots \end{array}$$

so $\{x_{n_k}\}$ is a strictly decreasing subsequence of $\{x_n\}$.

If S is finite and nonempty, let $n_1=(\max S)+1$; if $S=\emptyset$, let $n_1=1$. Then

$$n_1 \not\in S$$
 so $\exists n_2 > n_1$ s.t. $x_{n_2} \ge x_{n_1}$ $n_2 \not\in S$ so $\exists n_3 > n_2$ s.t. $x_{n_3} \ge x_{n_2}$ \vdots $n_k \not\in S$ so $\exists n_{k+1} > n_k$ s.t. $x_{n_{k+1}} \ge x_{n_k}$ \vdots

so $\{x_{n_k}\}$ is a (weakly) increasing subsequence of $\{x_n\}$. \square

Bolzano-Weierstrass Theorem

Theorem 9 (Thm. 3.3, Bolzano-Weierstrass). Every bounded sequence of real numbers contains a convergent subsequence.

Proof. Let $\{x_n\}$ be a bounded sequence of real numbers. By the Rising Sun Lemma, find an increasing or decreasing subsequence $\{x_{n_k}\}$. If $\{x_{n_k}\}$ is increasing, then by Theorem 3.1',

$$\lim x_{n_k} = \sup\{x_{n_k} : k \in \mathbb{N}\} \le \sup\{x_n : n \in \mathbb{N}\} < \infty$$

since the sequence is bounded; since the limit is finite, the subsequence converges. Similarly, if the subsequence is decreasing, it converges.