Announcements · PSI due today ~> solutions posted ~ 12 tomorrow

Econ 204 2023 . PS 2 due Tuesday

Lecture 5

#### Outline

- 1. Properties of Real Functions (Sect. 2.6, cont.)
- 2. Monotonic Functions
- 3. Cauchy Sequences and Complete Metric Spaces
- 4. Contraction Mappings
- 5. Contraction Mapping Theorem

## Properties of Real Functions

Here we first study properties of functions from  ${\bf R}$  to  ${\bf R}$ , making use of the additional structure we have in  ${\bf R}$  as opposed to general metric spaces.

Let  $f: X \to \mathbf{R}$  where  $X \subseteq \mathbf{R}$ . We say f is bounded above if

$$f(X) = \{r \in \mathbf{R} : f(x) = r \text{ for some } x \in X\}$$

is bounded above. Similarly, we say f is bounded below if f(X) is bounded below. Finally, f is bounded if f is both bounded above and bounded below, that is, if f(X) is a bounded set.

#### Extreme Value Theorem

**Theorem 1** (Thm. 6.23, Extreme Value Theorem). Let  $a, b \in \mathbf{R}$  with  $a \leq b$  and let  $f : [a,b] \to \mathbf{R}$  be a continuous function. Then f assumes its minimum and maximum on [a,b]. That is, if

$$M = \sup_{t \in [a,b]} f(t) \qquad m = \inf_{t \in [a,b]} f(t)$$

then  $\exists t_M, t_m \in [a, b]$  such that  $f(t_M) = M$  and  $f(t_m) = m$ .

Proof. Let

$$M = \sup\{f(t) : t \in [a, b]\}$$

If M is finite, then for each n, we may choose  $t_n \in [a,b]$  such that  $M \geq f(t_n) \geq M - \frac{1}{n}$  (if we couldn't make such a choice, then  $M - \frac{1}{n}$  would be an upper bound and M would not be the

$$f(t_n) - 7 \infty$$
 $(4 n) \in [a,b]$ 

supremum). If M is infinite) choose  $t_n$  such that  $f(t_n) \geq n$ . By the Bolzano-Weierstrass Theorem,  $\{t_n\}$  contains a convergent subsequence  $\{t_{n_k}\}$ , with

$$\lim_{k \to \infty} t_{n_k} = t_0 \in [a, b]$$

Since f is continuous,

$$f(t_0) = \lim_{t \to t_0} f(t)$$

$$= \lim_{k \to \infty} f(t_{n_k})$$

$$= M$$

$$f(t_n) \to M$$

so M is finite and

$$f(t_0) = M = \sup\{f(t) : t \in [a, b]\}$$

so f attains its maximum and is bounded above.

The argument for the minimum is similar.

#### Internediate Value Theorem Redux

**Theorem 2** (Thm. 6.24, Intermediate Value Theorem). Suppose  $f:[a,b] \xrightarrow{\varsigma} \mathbb{R}$  is continuous, and f(a) < d < f(b). Then there exists  $c \in (a,b)$  such that f(c) = d.

Proof. Let

$$B = \{ t \in [a, b] : f(t) < d \}$$

 $a \in B$ , so  $B \neq \emptyset$ . By the Supremum Property, sup B exists and is real so let  $c = \sup B$ . Since  $a \in B$ ,  $c \geq a$ .  $B \subseteq [a,b]$ , so  $c \leq b$ . Therefore,  $c \in [a,b]$ . We claim that f(c) = d.

Let

$$t_n = \min\left\{c + \frac{1}{n}, b\right\} \ge c \qquad \forall n \in \mathbb{N}$$

Either  $t_n > c$ , in which case  $t_n \notin B$ , or  $t_n = c$ , in which case  $t_n = b$  so  $f(t_n) > d$ , so again  $t_n \notin B$ ; in either case,  $f(t_n) \geq d$ . Since f is continuous at c,  $f(c) = \lim_{n \to \infty} f(t_n) \geq d$  (Theorem 3.5 in de la Fuente).

Since  $c = \sup B$ , we may find  $s_n \in B$  such that

$$c \ge s_n \ge c - \frac{1}{n}$$

Since  $s_n \in B$ ,  $f(s_n) < d$ . Since f is continuous at c,  $f(c) = \lim_{n \to \infty} f(s_n) \le d$  (Theorem 3.5 in de la Fuente).

Since  $d \leq f(c) \leq d$ , f(c) = d. Since f(a) < d and f(b) > d,  $a \neq c \neq b$ , so  $c \in (a,b)$ .

**Definition 1.** A function  $f: \mathbf{R} \to \mathbf{R}$  is monotonically increasing if

$$y > x \Rightarrow f(y) \ge f(x)$$

Monotonic functions are very well-behaved...



**Theorem 3** (Thm. 6.27). Let  $a,b \in \mathbf{R}$  with a < b, and let  $f:(a,b) \to \mathbf{R}$  be monotonically increasing. Then the one-sided limits

right-hard limit 
$$f(t^+) = \lim_{u \to t^+} f(u)$$
 have  $\int_{u \to t^+}^{\infty} f(u) = \int_{u \to t^-}^{\infty} f(u)$  left-hard limit  $f(t^-) = \lim_{u \to t^-} f(u)$ 

exist and are real numbers for all  $t \in (a,b)$ . Six  $= \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } x > 0 \\ \text{if } x > 0 \end{cases}$ 

*Proof.* This is analogous to the proof that a bounded monotone sequence converges.  $\Box$ 

$$f(t^{+})$$

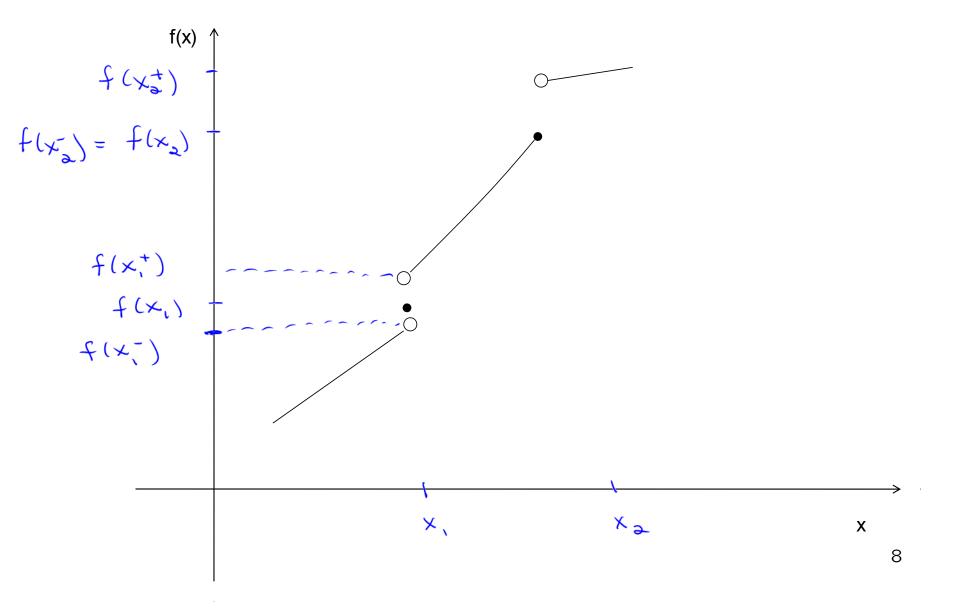
$$f(t^{-}) = f(t)$$

$$t$$

We say that f has a simple jump discontinuity at t if the one-sided limits  $f(t^-)$  and  $f(t^+)$  both exist but f is not continuous at t.

Note that there are two ways f can have a simple jump discontinuity at t: either  $f(t^+) \neq f(t^-)$ , or  $f(t^+) = f(t^-) \neq f(t)$ .

The previous theorem says that monotonic functions have **only** simple jump discontinuities. Note that monotonicity also implies that  $f(t^-) \le f(t) \le f(t^+)$ . So a monotonic function has a discontinuity at t if and only if  $f(t^+) \ne f(t^-)$ .



A monotonic function is continuous "almost everywhere" — except for at most countably many points.

**Theorem 4** (Thm. 6.28). Let  $a, b \in \mathbf{R}$  with a < b, and let  $f:(a,b) \to \mathbf{R}$  be monotonically increasing. Then

$$D = \{t \in (a, b) : f \text{ is discontinuous at } t\}$$

is finite (possibly empty) or countable.

*Proof.* If  $t \in D$ , then  $f(t^-) < f(t^+)$  (if the left- and right-hand limits agreed, then by monotonicity they would have to equal f(t), so f would be continuous at t).  $\mathbf{Q}$  is dense in  $\mathbf{R}$ , that is, if

 $x,y \in \mathbf{R}$  and x < y then  $\exists r \in \mathbf{Q}$  such that x < r < y. So for every  $t \in D$  we may choose  $r(t) \in \mathbf{Q}$  such that

$$f(t^{-}) < r(t) < f(t^{+})$$

This defines a function  $r: D \to \mathbf{Q}$ . Notice that

$$s > t \Rightarrow f(s^-) \ge f(t^+)$$

SO

$$s > t, s, t \in D \Rightarrow r(s) > f(s^-) \ge f(t^+) > r(t)$$

so  $r(s) \neq r(t)$ . Therefore, r is one-to-one, so it is a bijection from D to a subset of Q. Thus D is finite or countable.

Courtable

## Cauchy Sequences and Complete Metric Spaces

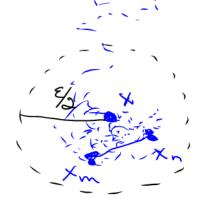
Roughly, a metric space is complete if "every sequence that ought to converge to a limit has a limit to converge to."

Recall that  $x_n \to x$  means

$$\forall \varepsilon > 0 \ \exists N(\varepsilon/2) \ \text{s.t.} \ n > N(\varepsilon/2) \Rightarrow d(x_n, x) < \frac{\varepsilon}{2}$$

Observe that if  $n, m > N(\varepsilon/2)$ , then

$$d(x_n, x_m) \le d(x_n, x) + d(x, x_m) < \frac{\varepsilon}{2} + \frac{\varepsilon}{2} = \varepsilon$$



# Cauchy Sequences and Complete Metric Spaces

This motivates the following definition:

**Definition 2.** A sequence  $\{x_n\}$  in a metric space (X,d) is Cauchy if

$$\forall \varepsilon > 0 \ \exists N(\varepsilon) \ \text{s.t.} \ n, m > N(\varepsilon) \Rightarrow d(x_n, x_m) < \varepsilon$$

A Cauchy sequence is trying really hard to converge, but there may not be anything for it to converge to.

# Cauchy Sequences and Complete Metric Spaces

Any sequence that **does** converge must be Cauchy:

**Theorem 5** (Thm. 7.2). Every convergent sequence in a metric space is Cauchy.

*Proof.* We just did it: Let  $x_n \to x$ . For every  $\varepsilon > 0 \; \exists N$  such that  $n > N \Rightarrow d(x_n, x) < \varepsilon/2$ . Then

$$m, n > N \Rightarrow d(x_n, x_m) \le d(x_n, x) + d(x, x_m) < \frac{\varepsilon}{2} + \frac{\varepsilon}{2} = \varepsilon$$



**Example:** Let X = (0,1] and d be the Euclidean metric. Let  $\{x_n\} = \{\frac{1}{n}\}$ . Then  $x_n \to 0$  in  $\mathbf{E}^1$ , so  $\{x_n\}$  is Cauchy in  $\mathbf{E}^1$ . Thus  $\{x_n\}$  is Cauchy in (X,d). But  $\{x_n\}$  does not converge in (X,d).

The Cauchy property depends only on the sequence and the metric d, not on the ambient metric space:

 $\{x_n\}$  is Cauchy in (X,d), but  $\{x_n\}$  does not **converge** in (X,d) because the point it is trying to converge to (0) is not an element of X.

Where does every Cauchy sequence get what it wants?

**Definition 3.** A metric space (X,d) is complete if every Cauchy sequence  $\{x_n\} \subseteq X$  converges to a limit  $x \in X$ .

**Definition 4.** A Banach space is a normed vector space that is complete in the metric generated by its norm.

**Example:** Consider the earlier example of X = (0,1] with d the usual Euclidean metric. The sequence  $\{x_n\}$  with  $x_n = \frac{1}{n}$  is Cauchy but does not converge, so ((0,1],d) is not complete.

**Example:**  ${\bf Q}$  is not complete in the Euclidean metric. To see this, let

$$x_n = \frac{\lfloor 10^n \sqrt{2} \rfloor}{10^n}$$

where |y| is the greatest integer less than or equal to y;  $x_n$  is just equal to the decimal expansion of  $\sqrt{2}$  to n digits past the decimal point. Clearly,  $x_n$  is rational.  $|x_n - \sqrt{2}| \le 10^{-n}$ , so  $x_n \to \sqrt{2}$  in  $\mathbf{E}^1$ , so  $\{x_n\}$  is Cauchy in  $\mathbf{E}^1$ , hence Cauchy in  $\mathbf{Q}$ ; since  $\sqrt{2} \notin \mathbf{Q}$ ,  $\{x_n\}$  is not convergent in  $\mathbf{Q}$ , so  $\mathbf{Q}$  is not complete.

**Theorem 6** (Thm. 7.10).  $\mathbf{R}$  is complete with the usual metric (so  $\mathbf{E}^1$  is a Banach space).

*Proof.* Suppose  $\{x_n\}$  is a Cauchy sequence in  $\mathbf{R}$ . Fix  $\varepsilon > 0$ . Find  $N(\varepsilon/2)$  such that

Let

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

$$\beta_n = \inf\{x_k : k \ge n\}$$

Fix  $m > N(\varepsilon/2)$ . Then

$$k \ge m \Rightarrow k > N(\varepsilon/2) \Rightarrow x_k < x_m + \frac{\varepsilon}{2}$$
  
  $\Rightarrow \alpha_m = \sup\{x_k : k \ge m\} \le x_m + \frac{\varepsilon}{2}$ 

Since  $\alpha_m < \infty$ ,

$$\limsup x_n = \lim_{n \to \infty} \alpha_n \le \alpha_m \le x_m + \frac{\varepsilon}{2}$$

since the sequence  $\{\alpha_n\}$  is decreasing. Similarly,

$$\lim\inf x_n \ge x_m - \frac{\varepsilon}{2}$$

Therefore,  $\chi_{m} - \frac{\varepsilon}{a} \leq \lim_{n \to \infty} \chi_{n} \leq \lim_{n \to \infty} \chi_{n} \leq \chi_{m} + \frac{\varepsilon}{a}$ 

$$0 \le \limsup_{n \to \infty} x_n - \liminf_{n \to \infty} x_n \le \varepsilon$$

Since  $\varepsilon$  is arbitrary,

$$\limsup_{n\to\infty} x_n = \liminf_{n\to\infty} x_n \in \mathbf{R}$$

Thus  $\lim_{n\to\infty} x_n$  exists and is real, so  $\{x_n\}$  is convergent.

**Theorem 7** (Thm. 7.11).  $\mathbf{E}^n$  is complete for every  $n \in \mathbf{N}$ .

Proof. See de la Fuente.

**Theorem 8** (Thm. 7.9). Suppose (X,d) is a complete metric space and  $Y \subseteq X$ . Then  $(Y,d) = (Y,d|_Y)$  is complete if and only if Y is a closed subset of X.

- $\Rightarrow$  : *Proof.* Suppose (Y,d) is complete. We need to show that Y is closed. Consider a sequence  $\{y_n\} \subseteq Y$  such that  $y_n \to_{(X,d)} x \in X$ . Then  $\{y_n\}$  is Cauchy in X, hence Cauchy in Y; since Y is complete,  $y_n \to_{(Y,d)} y$  for some  $y \in Y$ . Therefore,  $y_n \to_{(X,d)} y$ . By uniqueness of limits, y = x, so  $x \in Y$ . Thus Y is closed.
- Conversely, suppose Y is closed. We need to show that Y is complete. Let  $\{y_n\}$  be a Cauchy sequence in Y. Then  $\{y_n\}$  is Cauchy in X, hence convergent, so  $y_n \to_{(X,d)} x$  for some  $x \in X$ . Since Y is closed,  $x \in Y$ , so  $y_n \to_{(Y,d)} x \in Y$ . Thus Y is complete.  $\square$

**Theorem 9** (Thm. 7.12). Given  $X \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ , let C(X) be the set of bounded continuous functions from X to  $\mathbb{R}$  with

$$||f||_{\infty} = \sup\{|f(x)| : x \in X\}$$

Then C(X) is a Banach space.

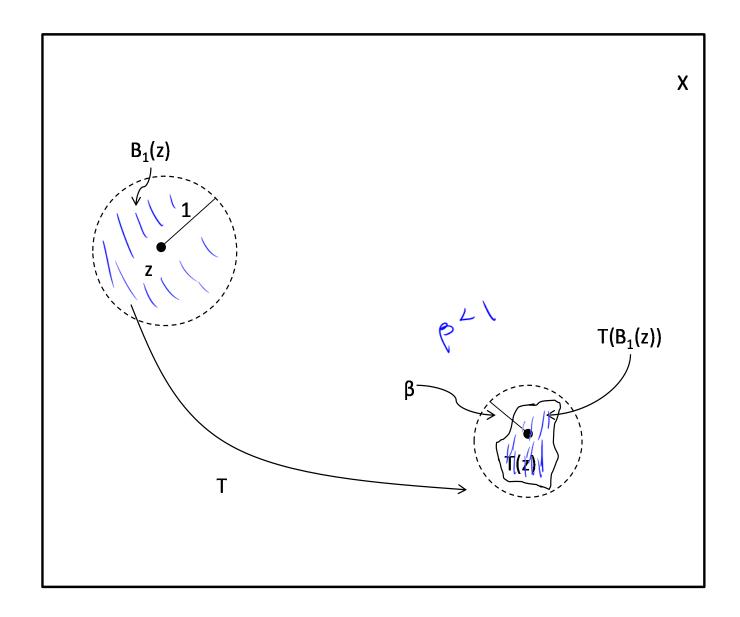
#### Contractions

**Definition 5.** Let (X,d) be a nonempty complete metric space. An operator is a function  $T: X \to X$ .

An operator T is a contraction of modulus  $\beta$  if  $0 \le \beta < 1$  and

$$d(T(x), T(y)) \le \beta d(x, y) \quad \forall x, y \in X$$

A contraction shrinks distances by a **uniform** factor  $\beta < 1$ .



### Contractions

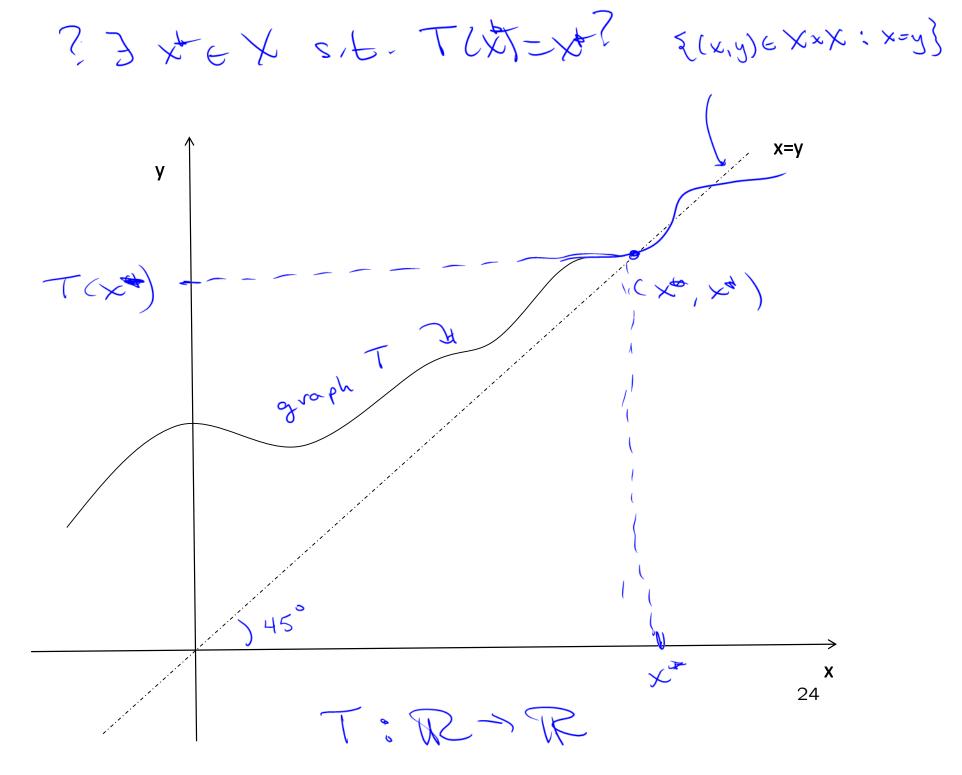
**Theorem 10.** Every contraction is uniformly continuous.

*Proof.* Fix 
$$\varepsilon > 0$$
. Let  $\delta = \frac{\varepsilon}{\beta}$ . Then  $\forall x,y$  such that  $d(x,y) < \delta$ , 
$$d(T(x),T(y)) \leq \beta d(x,y) < \beta \delta = \varepsilon$$

Note that a contraction is Lipschitz continuous with Lipschitz constant  $\beta < 1$  (and hence also uniformly continuous).

### Contractions and Fixed Points

**Definition 6.** A fixed point of an operator T is point  $x^* \in X$  such that  $T(x^*) = x^*$ .



## Contraction Mapping Theorem

**Theorem 11** (Thm. 7.16, Contraction Mapping Theorem). Let (X,d) be a nonempty complete metric space and  $T:X\to X$  a contraction with modulus  $\beta<1$ . Then

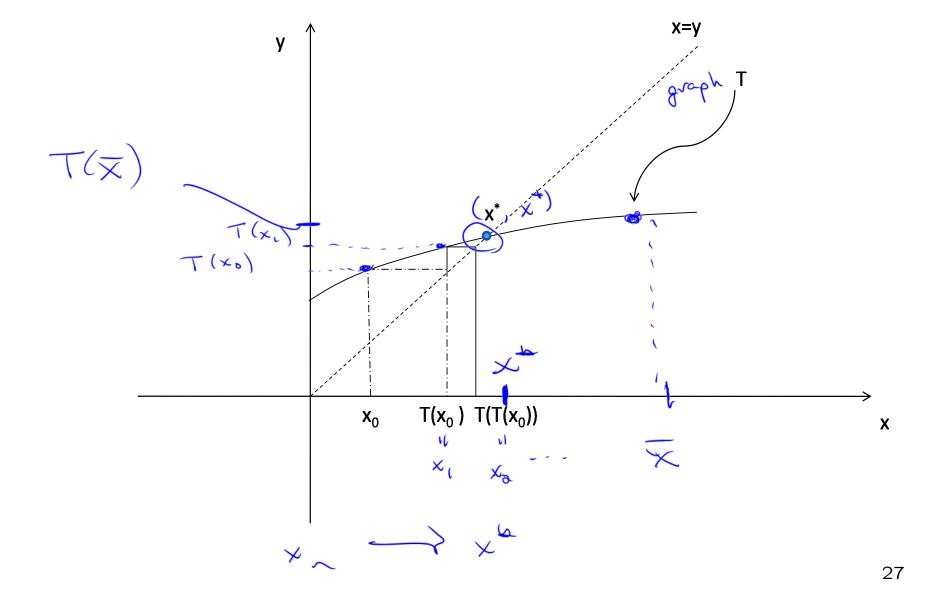
- 1. T has a unique fixed point  $x^*$ .
- 2. For every  $x_0 \in X$ , the sequence  $\{x_n\}$  where

$$x_1 = T(x_0), x_2 = T(x_1) = T(T(x_0)), ..., x_n = T(x_{n-1})$$
 for each  $n$  converges to  $x^*$ .

Note that the theorem asserts both the existence and uniqueness of the fixed point, as well as giving an algorithm to find the fixed point of a contraction.

Also note that the algorithm generates a sequence that converges to the fixed point for any initial point  $x_0$ .

Later in the course we will discuss more general fixed point theorems which, in contrast, only guarantee existence, and are not constructive.



*Proof.* Define the sequence  $\{x_n\}$  as above by first fixing  $x_0 \in X$  and then letting  $x_n = T(x_{n-1}) = T^n(x_0)$  for n = 1, 2, ..., where  $T^n = T \circ T \circ ... \circ T$  is the n-fold iteration of T. We first show that  $\{x_n\}$  is Cauchy, and hence converges to a limit x. Then

$$d(x_{n+1}, x_n) = d(T(x_n), T(x_{n-1}))$$

$$\leq \beta d(x_n, x_{n-1}) = \beta d(T(x_{n-1}), T(x_{n-2}))$$

$$\leq \beta^2 d(x_{n-1}, x_{n-2})$$

$$\vdots$$

$$\leq \beta^n d(x_1, x_0)$$

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d(x, xm) 2 E

Then for any n > m,

$$a_n = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty}$$

$$d(x_n, x_m) \leq d(x_n, x_{n-1}) + d(x_{n-1}, x_{n-2}) + \dots + d(x_{m+1}, x_m)$$

$$\leq (\beta^{n-1} + \beta^{n-2} + \dots + \beta^m) d(x_1, x_0)$$

$$= d(x_1, x_0) \sum_{\ell=m}^{n-1} \beta^{\ell}$$

$$\leq d(x_1, x_0) \sum_{\ell=m}^{\infty} \beta^{\ell}$$

$$= \frac{\beta^m}{1 - \beta} d(x_1, x_0) \quad \text{(sum of a geometric series)}$$

Fix  $\varepsilon > 0$ . Since  $\frac{\beta^m}{1-\beta}d(x_1,x_0) \to 0$  as  $m \to \infty$ , choose  $N(\varepsilon)$  such that for any  $m > N(\varepsilon)$ ,  $\frac{\beta^m}{1-\beta}d(x_1,x_0) < \varepsilon$ . Then for  $n,m > N(\varepsilon)$ ,

$$d(x_n, x_m) \le \frac{\beta^m}{1-\beta} d(x_1, x_0) < \varepsilon$$

Therefore,  $\{x_n\}$  is Cauchy. Since (X,d) is complete,  $x_n \to x^*$  for some  $x^* \in X$ .

Next, we show that  $x^*$  is a fixed point of T.

$$T(x^*) = T\left(\lim_{n\to\infty} x_n\right)$$
  
=  $\lim_{n\to\infty} T(x_n)$  since  $T$  is continuous  
=  $\lim_{n\to\infty} x_{n+1}$   
=  $x^*$ 

so  $x^*$  is a fixed point of T.

Finally, we show that there is at most one fixed point. Suppose  $x^*$  and  $y^*$  are both fixed points of T, so  $T(x^*) = x^*$  and  $T(y^*) = y^*$ .

Then

$$d(x^*, y^*) = d(T(x^*), T(y^*))$$

$$\leq \beta d(x^*, y^*)$$

$$\Rightarrow (1 - \beta)d(x^*, y^*) \leq 0$$

$$\Rightarrow d(x^*, y^*) \leq 0$$

So  $d(x^*, y^*) = 0$ , which implies  $x^* = y^*$ .

## Continuous Dependence on Paramters

Theorem 12. (Thm. 7.18', Continuous Dependence on Parameters) Let (X,d) and  $(\Omega,\rho)$  be two metric spaces and  $T: X \times \Omega \to X$ . For each  $\omega \in \Omega$  let  $T_\omega: X \to X$  be defined by

$$T_{\omega}(x) = T(x, \omega)$$

Suppose (X,d) is complete, T is continuous in  $\omega$ , that is  $T(x,\cdot)$ :  $\Omega \to X$  is continuous for each  $x \in X$ , and  $\exists \beta < 1$  such that  $T_{\omega}$  is a contraction of modulus  $\beta \quad \forall \omega \in \Omega$ . Then the fixed point function  $x^*: \Omega \to X$  defined by

$$x^*(\omega) = T_{\omega}(x^*(\omega))$$

is continuous.

#### Blackwell's Sufficient Conditions

An important result due to Blackwell gives a set of sufficient conditions for an operator to be a contraction that is particularly useful in dynamic programming problems.

Let X be a set, and let B(X) be the set of all bounded functions from X to  $\mathbf{R}$ . Then  $(B(X), \|\cdot\|_{\infty})$  is a normed vector space.

Notice that below we use shorthand notation that identifies a constant function with its constant value in  $\mathbf{R}$ , that is, we write interchangeably  $a \in \mathbf{R}$  and  $a: X \to \mathbf{R}$  to denote the function such that  $a(x) = a \ \forall x \in X$ .

#### Blackwell's Sufficient Conditions

**Theorem 13. (Blackwell's Sufficient Conditions)** Consider B(X) with the sup norm  $\|\cdot\|_{\infty}$ . Let  $T:B(X)\to B(X)$  be an operator satisfying

- 1. (monotonicity)  $f(x) \le g(x) \ \forall x \in X \Rightarrow (Tf)(x) \le (Tg)(x) \ \forall x \in X$
- 2. (discounting)  $\exists \beta \in (0,1)$  such that for every  $a \geq 0$  and  $x \in X$ ,  $(T(f+a))(x) \leq (Tf)(x) + \beta a$

Then T is a contraction with modulus  $\beta$ .

*Proof.* Fix  $f, g \in B(X)$ . By the definition of the sup norm,

$$f(x) \le g(x) + ||f - g||_{\infty} \ \forall x \in X$$

Then

$$(Tf)(x) \le (T(g + ||f - g||_{\infty}))(x) \quad \forall x \in X$$
 (monotonicity)  
  $\le (Tg)(x) + \beta ||f - g||_{\infty} \quad \forall x \in X$  (discounting)

Thus

$$(Tf)(x) - (Tg)(x) \le \beta ||f - g||_{\infty} \quad \forall x \in X$$

Reversing the roles of f and g above gives

$$(Tg)(x) - (Tf)(x) \le \beta ||f - g||_{\infty} \quad \forall x \in X$$

Thus

$$||T(f) - T(g)||_{\infty} \le \beta ||f - g||_{\infty}$$

Thus T is a contraction with modulus  $\beta$