# Econ 204 2016

Lecture 3

#### Outline

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

1

## 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  $d: X \times X \to \mathbb{R}_+$  a function satisfying  $\mathcal{R}_+ = \mathcal{C} \in \mathbb{R}^ \mathfrak{r} \ge 0$ 

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  $d: X \times X \to \mathbb{R}_+$  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:

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



A normed vector space is a vector space over  $\mathbf{R}$  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.,  $d(x,y) = ||x - y|| = \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - y_i)^2}.$   $x \in \mathbb{R}^n \quad x = (x_1, \dots, x_n) \quad ||x|| = \left[\sum_{i=1}^n (x_i)^2\right]^{\frac{1}{2}}.$ 

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,  $d(v, w) = ||v - w|| \ge 0$  (why?), and

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

$$\Leftrightarrow v - w = 0$$

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

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

$$\Leftrightarrow v + 0 = w$$

$$\Leftrightarrow v = w$$

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  $0 = 0 \cdot x = (1-1) \cdot x = 1 \cdot x + (-1) \cdot x = 1$ 

$$\begin{array}{l} \bigcirc \swarrow x + (-1) \cdot x, \text{ so we have } (-1) \cdot x = (-x). \text{ Then let } v, w \in V. \\ d(v, w) &= \|v - w\| & \| - (-1) \| \\ &= \| - 1\| \|v - w\| \\ &= \| (-1)(v + (-w))\| \\ &= \| (-1)v + (-1)(-w)\| \\ &= \| - v + w\| \\ &= \| w + (-v)\| \\ &= \| w - v\| \\ &= \| w - v\| \\ &= d(w, v) \end{array}$$



Thus d is a metric on V.

## Normed Spaces and Norms

Examples

• E<sup>n</sup>: *n*-dimensional Euclidean space.  
*V* = R<sup>n</sup>, 
$$||x||_2 = |x| = \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^{n} (x_i)^2}$$

• 
$$V = \mathbf{R}^n$$
,  $||x||_1 = \sum_{i=1}^n |x_i|$  (the "taxi cab" norm or  $L^1$  norm)

•  $V = \mathbb{R}^n$ ,  $||x||_{\infty} = \max\{|x_1|, \dots, |x_n|\}$  (the maximum norm, or sup norm, or  $L^{\infty}$  norm)

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

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

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

## Normed Spaces and Norms

**Theorem 2** (Cauchy-Schwarz Inequality). If  $v, w \in \mathbb{R}^n$ , then



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



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

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

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

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

tris is an equivalence relation (nice exercise)

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 **R**<sup>n</sup> 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

$$f_n(t) = \begin{cases} 1 - nt & \text{if } t \in \left[0, \frac{1}{n}\right] \\ 0 & \text{if } t \in \left(\frac{1}{n}, 1\right] \end{cases}$$
$$\frac{\|f_n\|_1}{\|f_n\|_{\infty}} = \frac{\frac{1}{2n}}{1} = \frac{1}{2n} \to 0$$
$$\|f_n\|_2 = \int f_n(t) dt$$
$$\|f_n\|_{\infty} = \int f_n(t) dt$$

Then

## Metrics and Sets

**Definition 4.** In a metric space (X, d), a subset  $S \subseteq X$  is bounded if  $\exists x \in X, \beta \in \mathbb{R}$  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  $\varepsilon$ 



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## 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.

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## 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

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

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 **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

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

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

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,

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

#### 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.  $( \downarrow \uparrow \uparrow \downarrow \downarrow \downarrow)$ 

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  $\{x_n\} = (1, \frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{3}, ...)$ . If  $n_k = 2k$ , then  $\{x_{n_k}\} = (\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{4}, \frac{1}{6}, ...)$ .

I sussequence 2×nk2 such that Xnk & BILLON HK

# **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  $j = 1, \dots, k$ 

20

 ${n : x_n \in B_{\frac{1}{k+1}}(c)}$  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

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

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

Claim: 
$$Y_{nk} \rightarrow c$$
:  $x_{n_k} \in B_{\frac{1}{k}}(c)$ 

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

$$k > N(\varepsilon) \implies x_{n_k} \in B_{\frac{1}{k}}(c)$$
$$\implies x_{n_k} \in B_{\varepsilon}(c)$$
$$\downarrow \qquad (\varepsilon) = 7$$
$$\downarrow \qquad (\varepsilon)$$

SO

$$x_{n_k} 
ightarrow c$$
 as  $k 
ightarrow \infty$ 

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

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

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 $\mathbf{R}$ and $\mathbf{R}^m$

**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

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

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

In particular, the limit exists.

## Lim Sups and Lim Infs

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

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

Either  $\alpha_n = +\infty$  for all n, or  $\alpha_n \in \mathbf{R}$  and  $\alpha_1 \ge \alpha_2 \ge \alpha_3 \ge \cdots$ . Find  $\alpha_n = -\infty$  for all n, or  $\beta_n \in \mathbf{R}$  and  $\beta_1 \le \beta_2 \le \beta_3 \le \cdots$ .

## Lim Sups and Lim Infs

Definition 9.

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

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

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

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  $\boldsymbol{S}$  is infinite, let

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

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

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

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

## 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.  $\hfill \Box$