# Economics 204 Summer/Fall 2017 Lecture 4–Thursday July 20, 2017

#### Section 2.4. Open and Closed Sets

**Definition 1** Let (X, d) be a metric space. A set  $A \subseteq X$  is open if

 $\forall x \in A \ \exists \varepsilon > 0 \ \text{s.t.} \ B_{\varepsilon}(x) \subseteq A$ 

A set  $C \subseteq X$  is *closed* if  $X \setminus C$  is open.

See Figure 1.

**Example:** (a, b) is open in the metric space  $\mathbf{E}^1$  ( $\mathbf{R}$  with the usual Euclidean metric). Given  $x \in (a, b), a < x < b$ . Let

$$\varepsilon = \min\{x - a, b - x\} > 0$$

Then

$$y \in B_{\varepsilon}(x) \implies y \in (x - \varepsilon, x + \varepsilon)$$
$$\subseteq (x - (x - a), x + (b - x))$$
$$= (a, b)$$

so  $B_{\varepsilon}(x) \subseteq (a, b)$ , so (a, b) is open.

Notice that  $\varepsilon$  depends on x; in particular,  $\varepsilon$  gets smaller as x nears the boundary of the set.

**Example:** In  $\mathbf{E}^1$ , [a, b] is closed.  $\mathbf{R} \setminus [a, b] = (-\infty, a) \cup (b, \infty)$  is a union of two open sets, which must be open.

**Example:** In the metric space [0,1], [0,1] is open. With [0,1] as the underlying metric space,  $B_{\varepsilon}(0) = \{x \in [0,1] : |x-0| < \varepsilon\} = [0,\varepsilon).$ 

Thus, openness and closedness depend on the underlying metric space as well as on the set.

**Example:** Most sets are neither open nor closed. For example, in  $\mathbf{E}^1$ ,  $[0, 1] \cup (2, 3)$  is neither open nor closed.

**Example:** An open set may consist of a single point. For example, if  $X = \mathbf{N}$  and d(m, n) = |m - n|, then  $B_{1/2}(1) = \{m \in \mathbf{N} : |m - 1| < 1/2\} = \{1\}$ . Since 1 is the only element of the set  $\{1\}$  and  $B_{1/2}(1) = \{1\} \subseteq \{1\}$ , the set  $\{1\}$  is open.

**Example:** In any metric space (X, d) both  $\emptyset$  and X are open, and both  $\emptyset$  and X are closed. To see that  $\emptyset$  is open, note that the statement

$$\forall x \in \emptyset \; \exists \varepsilon > 0 \; B_{\varepsilon}(x) \subseteq \emptyset$$

is vacuously true since there aren't any  $x \in \emptyset$ . To see that X is open, note that since  $B_{\varepsilon}(x)$  is by definition  $\{z \in X : d(z, x) < \varepsilon\}$ , it is trivially contained in X. Since  $\emptyset$  is open, X is closed; since X is open,  $\emptyset$  is closed.

**Example:** Open balls are open sets. Suppose  $y \in B_{\varepsilon}(x)$ . Then  $d(x,y) < \varepsilon$ . Let  $\delta = \varepsilon - d(x,y) > 0$ . If  $d(z,y) < \delta$ , then

$$d(z,x) \leq d(z,y) + d(y,x)$$
  
$$< \delta + d(x,y)$$
  
$$= \varepsilon - d(x,y) + d(x,y)$$
  
$$= \varepsilon$$

so  $B_{\delta}(y) \subseteq B_{\epsilon}(x)$ , so  $B_{\varepsilon}(x)$  is open.

**Theorem 2 (Thm. 4.2)** Let (X, d) be a metric space. Then

- 1.  $\emptyset$  and X are both open, and both closed.
- 2. The union of an arbitrary (finite, countable, or uncountable) collection of open sets is open.
- 3. The intersection of a finite collection of open sets is open.

## **Proof:**

- 1. We have already shown this.
- 2. Suppose  $\{A_{\lambda}\}_{\lambda \in \Lambda}$  is a collection of open sets.

$$\begin{aligned} x \in \bigcup_{\lambda \in \Lambda} A_{\lambda} &\Rightarrow \quad \exists \lambda_0 \in \Lambda \text{ s.t. } x \in A_{\lambda_0} \\ &\Rightarrow \quad \exists \varepsilon > 0 \text{ s.t. } B_{\varepsilon}(x) \subseteq A_{\lambda_0} \subseteq \bigcup_{\lambda \in \Lambda} A_{\lambda_0} \end{aligned}$$

so  $\cup_{\lambda \in \Lambda} A_{\lambda}$  is open.

3. Suppose  $A_1, \ldots, A_n \subseteq X$  are open sets. If  $x \in \bigcap_{i=1}^n A_i$ , then

$$x \in A_1, x \in A_2, \dots, x \in A_n$$

 $\mathbf{SO}$ 

$$\exists \varepsilon_1 > 0, \dots, \varepsilon_n > 0 \text{ s.t. } B_{\varepsilon_1}(x) \subseteq A_1, \dots, B_{\varepsilon_n}(x) \subseteq A_n$$

Let

$$\varepsilon = \min\{\varepsilon_1, \dots, \varepsilon_n\} > 0$$

(Note this is where we need the fact that we are taking a finite intersection. The infimum of an infinite set of positive numbers could be zero. And the intersection of an infinite collection of open sets need not be open.)

Then

$$B_{\varepsilon}(x) \subseteq B_{\varepsilon_1}(x) \subseteq A_1, \dots, B_{\varepsilon}(x) \subseteq B_{\varepsilon_n}(x) \subseteq A_n$$

 $\mathbf{SO}$ 

$$B_{\varepsilon}(x) \subseteq \bigcap_{i=1}^{n} A_i$$

which proves that  $\bigcap_{i=1}^{n} A_i$  is open.

**Definition 3** • The *interior* of A, denoted int A, is the largest open set contained in A (the union of all open sets contained in A).

- The closure of A, denoted  $\overline{A}$ , is the smallest closed set containing A (the intersection of all closed sets containing A)
- The exterior of A, denoted ext A, is the largest open set contained in  $X \setminus A$ .
- The boundary of A, denoted  $\partial A = \overline{(X \setminus A)} \cap \overline{A}$

**Example:** Let  $A = [0, 1] \cup (2, 3)$ . Then

$$\begin{array}{lll} \operatorname{int} A &=& (0,1) \cup (2,3) \\ \bar{A} &=& [0,1] \cup [2,3] \\ \operatorname{ext} A &=& \operatorname{int} (X \setminus A) \\ &=& (-\infty,0) \cup (1,2) \cup (3,+\infty) \\ \partial A &=& \overline{(X \setminus A)} \cap \bar{A} \\ &=& ((-\infty,0] \cup [1,2] \cup [3,+\infty)) \cap ([0,1] \cup [2,3]) \\ &=& \{0,1,2,3\} \end{array}$$

**Theorem 4 (Thm. 4.13)** A set A in a metric space (X, d) is closed if and only if

$$\{x_n\} \subset A, x_n \to x \in X \Rightarrow x \in A$$

**Proof:**<sup>1</sup> Suppose A is closed. Then  $X \setminus A$  is open. Consider a convergent sequence  $x_n \to x \in X$ , with  $x_n \in A$  for all n. If  $x \notin A$ ,  $x \in X \setminus A$ , so there is some  $\varepsilon > 0$  such that  $B_{\varepsilon}(x) \subseteq X \setminus A$ . (See Figure 2.) Since  $x_n \to x$ , there exists  $N(\varepsilon)$  such that

$$n > N(\varepsilon) \implies x_n \in B_{\varepsilon}(x)$$
$$\implies x_n \in X \setminus A$$
$$\implies x_n \notin A$$

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup>This is different from the proof in de la Fuente: he puts the meat of the proof into Theorem 4.12

contradiction. Therefore,

$$x_n \subset A, x_n \to x \in X \Rightarrow x \in A$$

Conversely, suppose

$$\{x_n\} \subset A, x_n \to x \in X \Rightarrow x \in A$$

We need to show that A is closed, i.e.  $X \setminus A$  is open. Suppose not, so  $X \setminus A$  is not open. Then there exists  $x \in X \setminus A$  such that for every  $\varepsilon > 0$ ,

$$B_{\varepsilon}(x) \not\subseteq X \setminus A$$

so there exists  $y \in B_{\varepsilon}(x)$  such that  $y \notin X \setminus A$ . Then  $y \in A$ , hence

$$B_{\varepsilon}(x) \cap A \neq \emptyset$$

See Figure 3. Construct a sequence  $\{x_n\}$  as follows: for each n, choose  $x_n \in B_{\frac{1}{n}}(x) \cap A$ . Given  $\varepsilon > 0$ , we can find  $N(\varepsilon)$  such that  $N(\varepsilon) > \frac{1}{\varepsilon}$  by the Archimedean Property, so  $n > N(\varepsilon) \Rightarrow \frac{1}{n} < \frac{1}{N(\varepsilon)} < \varepsilon$ , so  $x_n \to x$ . Then  $\{x_n\} \subseteq A$ ,  $x_n \to x$ , so  $x \in A$ , contradiction. Therefore,  $X \setminus A$  is open, so A is closed.

### Section 2.5. Limits of Functions

Note: Read this section of de la Fuente on your own.

Note that we may have  $\lim_{x\to a} f(x) = y$  even though

- f is not defined at a; or
- f is defined at a but  $f(a) \neq y$ .

The existence and value of the limit depends on values of f near a but not at a.

#### Section 2.6. Continuity in Metric Spaces

**Definition 5** Let (X, d) and  $(Y, \rho)$  be metric spaces. A function  $f : X \to Y$  is continuous at a point  $x_0 \in X$  if  $\forall \varepsilon > 0 \exists \delta(x_0, \varepsilon) > 0$  s.t.  $d(x, x_0) < \delta(x_0, \varepsilon) \Rightarrow \rho(f(x), f(x_0)) < \varepsilon$ .

f is *continuous* if it is continuous at every element of its domain.

Note that  $\delta$  depends on  $x_0$  and  $\varepsilon$ .

This is a straightforward generalization of the definition of continuity in  $\mathbf{R}$ . Continuity at  $x_0$  requires:

•  $f(x_0)$  is defined; and

- either
  - $-x_0$  is an isolated point of X, i.e.  $\exists \varepsilon > 0$  s.t.  $B_{\varepsilon}(x) = \{x\}$ ; or
  - $-\lim_{x\to x_0} f(x)$  exists and equals  $f(x_0)$

Suppose  $f: X \to Y$  and  $A \subseteq Y$ . Define  $f^{-1}(A) = \{x \in X : f(x) \in A\}$ .

**Theorem 6 (Thm. 6.14)** Let (X, d) and  $(Y, \rho)$  be metric spaces, and  $f : X \to Y$ . Then f is continuous if and only if

$$f^{-1}(A)$$
 is open in  $X \ \forall A \subseteq Y$  s.t. A is open in Y

**Proof:**<sup>2</sup> Suppose f is continuous. Given  $A \subseteq Y$ , A open, we must show that  $f^{-1}(A)$  is open in X. Suppose  $x_0 \in f^{-1}(A)$ . Let  $y_0 = f(x_0) \in A$ . Since A is open, we can find  $\varepsilon > 0$  such that  $B_{\varepsilon}(y_0) \subseteq A$ . Since f is continuous, there exists  $\delta > 0$  such that

$$d(x, x_0) < \delta \implies \rho(f(x), f(x_0)) < \varepsilon$$
$$\implies f(x) \in B_{\varepsilon}(y_0)$$
$$\implies f(x) \in A$$
$$\implies x \in f^{-1}(A)$$

so  $B_{\delta}(x_0) \subseteq f^{-1}(A)$ , so  $f^{-1}(A)$  is open. (See Figure 4.)

Conversely, suppose

$$f^{-1}(A)$$
 is open in  $X \forall A \subseteq Y$  s.t. A is open in Y

We need to show that f is continuous. Let  $x_0 \in X$ ,  $\varepsilon > 0$ . Let  $A = B_{\varepsilon}(f(x_0))$ . A is an open ball, hence an open set, so  $f^{-1}(A)$  is open in X.  $x_0 \in f^{-1}(A)$ , so there exists  $\delta > 0$  such that  $B_{\delta}(x_0) \subseteq f^{-1}(A)$ . (See Figure 5.)

$$d(x, x_0) < \delta \implies x \in B_{\delta}(x_0)$$
  
$$\implies x \in f^{-1}(A)$$
  
$$\implies f(x) \in A$$
  
$$\implies \rho(f(x), f(x_0)) < \varepsilon$$

Thus, we have shown that f is continuous at  $x_0$ ; since  $x_0$  is an arbitrary point in X, f is continuous.

**Theorem 7 (Slightly weaker version of Thm. 6.10)** Let  $(X, d_X)$ ,  $(Y, d_Y)$  and  $(Z, d_Z)$  be metric spaces. If  $f : X \to Y$  and  $g : Y \to Z$  are continuous, then  $g \circ f : X \to Z$  is continuous.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup>We give a direct proof; de la Fuente works via closed sets.

**Proof:** Suppose  $A \subseteq Z$  is open. Since g is continuous,  $g^{-1}(A)$  is open in Y; since f is continuous,  $f^{-1}(g^{-1}(A))$  is open in X.

We claim that

$$f^{-1}(g^{-1}(A)) = (g \circ f)^{-1}(A)$$

Observe

$$\begin{aligned} x \in f^{-1}(g^{-1}(A)) & \Leftrightarrow \quad f(x) \in g^{-1}(A) \\ & \Leftrightarrow \quad g(f(x)) \in A \\ & \Leftrightarrow \quad (g \circ f)(x) \in A \\ & \Leftrightarrow \quad x \in (g \circ f)^{-1}(A) \end{aligned}$$

which establishes the claim. This shows that  $(g \circ f)^{-1}(A)$  is open in X, so  $g \circ f$  is continuous.

**Definition 8** [Uniform Continuity] Suppose  $f : (X, d) \to (Y, \rho)$ . f is uniformly continuous if  $\forall \varepsilon > 0 \ \exists \delta(\varepsilon) > 0 \ \text{s.t.} \ \forall x_0 \in X, \ d(x, x_0) < \delta(\varepsilon) \Rightarrow \rho(f(x), f(x_0)) < \varepsilon$ 

Notice the important contrast with continuity: f is continuous means

$$\forall x_0 \in X, \varepsilon > 0 \ \exists \delta(x_0, \varepsilon) > 0 \ \text{s.t.} \ d(x, x_0) < \delta(x_0, \varepsilon) \Rightarrow \rho(f(x), f(x_0)) < \varepsilon$$

Example: Consider

$$f(x) = \frac{1}{x}, \ x \in (0, 1]$$

f is continuous (why?). We will show that f is **not** uniformly continuous. Fix  $\varepsilon > 0$  and  $x_0 \in (0, 1]$ . If  $x = \frac{x_0}{1 + \varepsilon x_0}$ , then

$$\begin{aligned} 1 + \varepsilon x_0 &> 1\\ x = \frac{x_0}{1 + \varepsilon x_0} &< x_0\\ \frac{1}{x} - \frac{1}{x_0} &> 0\\ f(x) - f(x_0)| &= \left|\frac{1}{x} - \frac{1}{x_0}\right|\\ &= \frac{1}{x} - \frac{1}{x_0}\\ &= \frac{1 + \varepsilon x_0}{x_0} - \frac{1}{x_0}\\ &= \frac{\varepsilon x_0}{x_0}\\ &= \varepsilon \end{aligned}$$

Thus,  $\delta(x_0, \varepsilon)$  must be chosen small enough so that

$$\begin{aligned} \left| \frac{x_0}{1 + \varepsilon x_0} - x_0 \right| &\ge \delta(x_0, \varepsilon) \\ \delta(x_0, \varepsilon) &\le x_0 - \frac{x_0}{1 + \varepsilon x_0} \\ &= \frac{\varepsilon(x_0)^2}{1 + \varepsilon x_0} \\ &< \varepsilon(x_0)^2 \end{aligned}$$

which converges to zero as  $x_0 \to 0$ . (See Figure 6.) So there is no  $\delta(\varepsilon)$  that will work for all  $x_0 \in (0, 1]$ .

**Example:** If  $f : \mathbf{R} \to \mathbf{R}$  and f'(x) is defined and uniformly bounded on an interval [a, b], then f(x) is uniformly continuous on [a, b]. However, even a function with an unbounded derivative may be uniformly continuous. Consider

$$f(x) = \sqrt{x}, \ x \in [0,1]$$

f is continuous (why?). We will show that f is uniformly continuous. Given  $\varepsilon > 0$ , let  $\delta = \varepsilon^2$ . Then given any  $x_0 \in [0, 1]$ ,  $|x - x_0| < \delta$  implies by the Fundamental Theorem of Calculus

$$|f(x) - f(x_0)| = \left| \int_{x_0}^x \frac{1}{2\sqrt{t}} dt \right|$$
  
$$\leq \int_0^{|x - x_0|} \frac{1}{2\sqrt{t}} dt$$
  
$$= \sqrt{|x - x_0|}$$
  
$$< \sqrt{\delta}$$
  
$$= \sqrt{\varepsilon^2}$$
  
$$= \varepsilon$$

Thus, f is uniformly continuous on [0, 1], even though  $f'(x) \to \infty$  as  $x \to 0$ .

**Definition 9** Let X, Y be normed vector spaces,  $E \subseteq X$ .  $f: X \to Y$  is Lipschitz on E if

$$\exists K > 0 \text{ s.t. } \|f(x) - f(z)\|_Y \le K \|x - z\|_X \ \forall x, z \in E$$

f is *locally Lipschitz* on E if

$$\forall x_0 \in E \ \exists \varepsilon > 0 \text{ s.t. } f \text{ is Lipschitz on } B_{\varepsilon}(x_0) \cap E$$

**Remark:** de la Fuente only defines Lipschitz and locally Lipschitz in the context of normed vector spaces. The notions can also be defined analogously in metric spaces as follows: Let (X, d) and  $(Y, \rho)$  be metric spaces,  $E \subseteq X$ .  $f: X \to Y$  is Lipschitz on E if

$$\exists K > 0 \text{ s.t. } \rho(f(x), f(z)) \leq Kd(x, z) \ \forall x, z \in E$$

Similarly, f is *locally Lipschitz* on E if

$$\forall x_0 \in E \ \exists \varepsilon > 0 \text{ s.t. } f \text{ is Lipschitz on } B_{\varepsilon}(x_0) \cap E$$

Lipschitz continuity is stronger than either continuity or uniform continuity:

 $\begin{array}{rcl} \mbox{locally Lipschitz} & \Rightarrow & \mbox{continuous} \\ \mbox{Lipschitz} & \Rightarrow & \mbox{uniformly continuous} \end{array}$ 

Every  $C^1$  function is locally Lipschitz. (Recall that a function  $f : \mathbf{R}^m \to \mathbf{R}^n$  is said to be  $C^1$  if all its first partial derivatives exist and are continuous.)

**Definition 10** <sup>3</sup> Let (X, d) and  $(Y, \rho)$  be metric spaces. A function  $f : X \to Y$  is called a *homeomorphism* if it is one-to-one, onto, continuous, and its inverse function is continuous.

Now suppose that f is a homeomorphism and  $U \subset X$ . Let  $g: Y \to X$  be the inverse of f, so  $g \circ f: X \to X$  is the identity on X, and  $f \circ g: Y \to Y$  is the identity on Y.

$$y \in g^{-1}(U) \iff g(y) = f^{-1}(y) \in U$$
$$\Leftrightarrow \quad y \in f(U)$$
$$U \text{ open in } X \implies g^{-1}(U) \text{ is open in } (f(X), \rho)$$
$$\Rightarrow \quad f(U) \text{ is open in } (f(X), \rho)$$

This says that (X, d) and  $(f(X), \rho|_{f(X)})$  are identical in terms of properties that can be characterized solely in terms of open sets; such properties are called "topological properties."

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup>This is the standard definition; de la Fuente instead omits the requirement that f be onto, and requires that  $f^{-1}$  be continuous on f(X). See the Corrections handout for a correction to Theorem 6.21

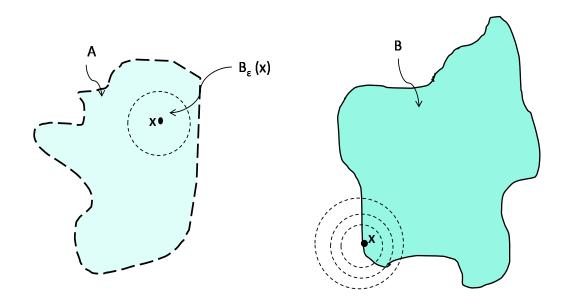


Figure 1: A is open: for every  $x \in A$  there is some  $\varepsilon > 0$  such that  $B_{\varepsilon}(x) \subseteq A$ . B is not open: for x depicted in the picture  $\not\exists \varepsilon > 0$  such that  $B_{\varepsilon}(x) \subseteq B$ .

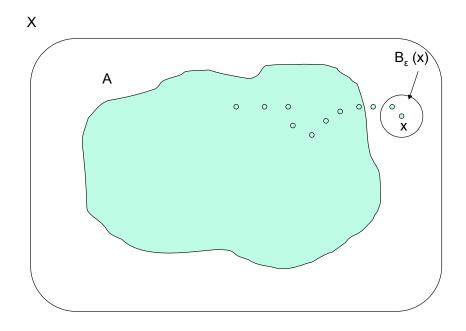


Figure 2: Sequences and closed sets

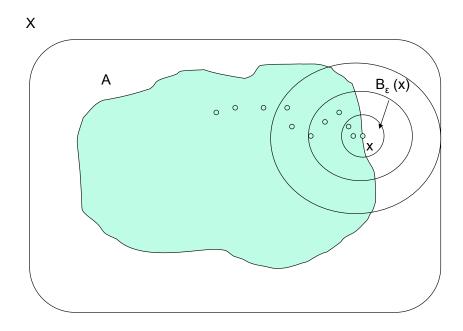


Figure 3: Sequences and closed sets

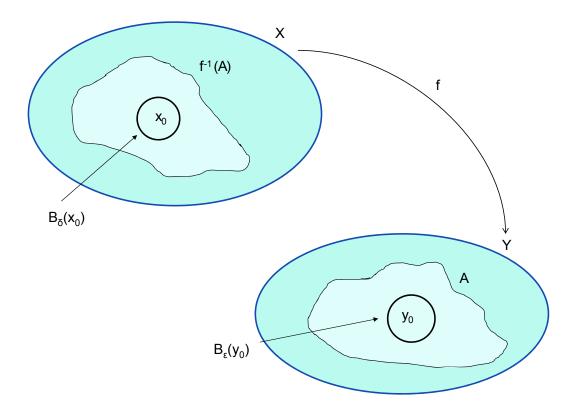


Figure 4: Proof of Theorem 6.

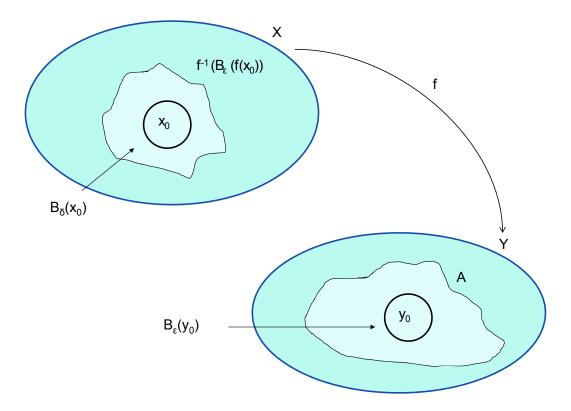


Figure 5: Proof of Theorem 6.

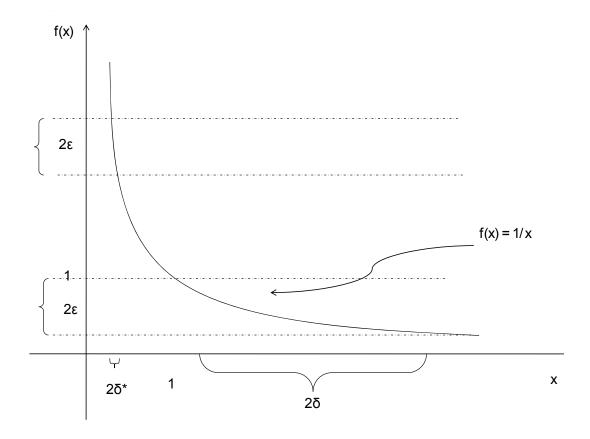


Figure 6:  $f(x) = \frac{1}{x}$  is not uniformly continuous.