# Econ 204 2021

#### Lecture 3

#### Outline

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

### Metric Spaces and Metrics

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

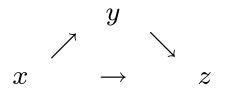
**Definition 1.** A metric space is a pair (X,d), where X is a set and  $d: X \times X \to \mathbf{R}_+$  a function satisfying

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

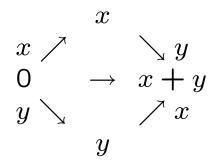
**Definition 2.** Let V be a vector space over  $\mathbf{R}$ . A norm on V is a function  $\|\cdot\|: V \to \mathbf{R}_+$  satisfying

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

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

3. triangle inequality:

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



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

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.,  $d(x,y) = ||x - y|| = \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - y_i)^2}.$ 

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  $0 = 0 \cdot x = (1-1) \cdot x = 1 \cdot x + (-1) \cdot x =$   $x + (-1) \cdot x, \text{ so we have } (-1) \cdot x = (-x). \text{ Then let } v, w \in V.$   $d(v, w) = \|v - w\|$   $= \|-1\|\|v - w\|$   $= \|(-1)(v + (-w))\|$   $= \|(-1)v + (-1)(-w)\|$   $= \|v + (-v)\|$   $= \|w + (-v)\|$   $= \|w - v\|$ = 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

•  $E^n$ : *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)

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

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

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

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

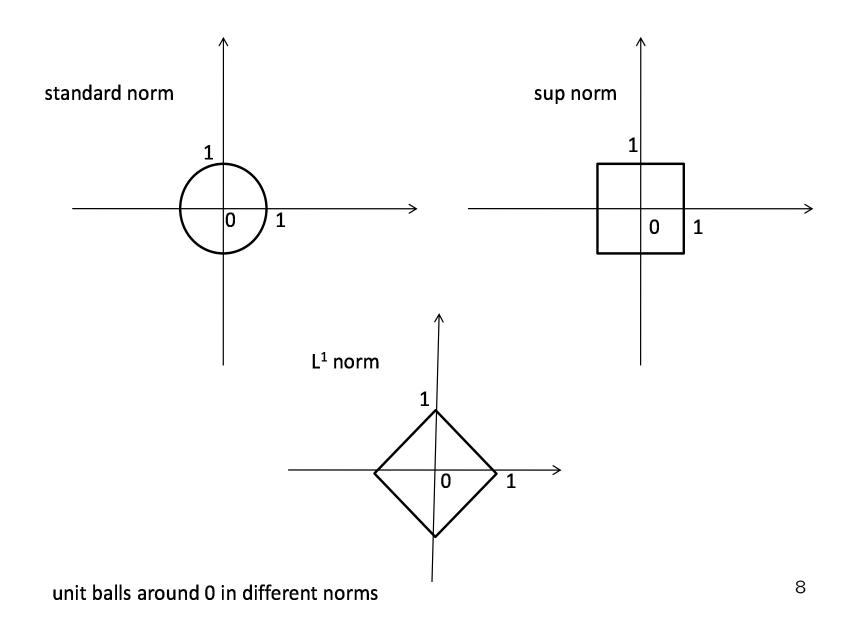
## Normed Spaces and Norms

**Theorem 2** (Cauchy-Schwarz Inequality). If  $v, w \in \mathbf{R}^n$ , 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,  $\mathbb{R}^n$  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,  $\exists m, M > 0 \text{ s.t. } \forall x \in V, x \neq 0$ ,

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

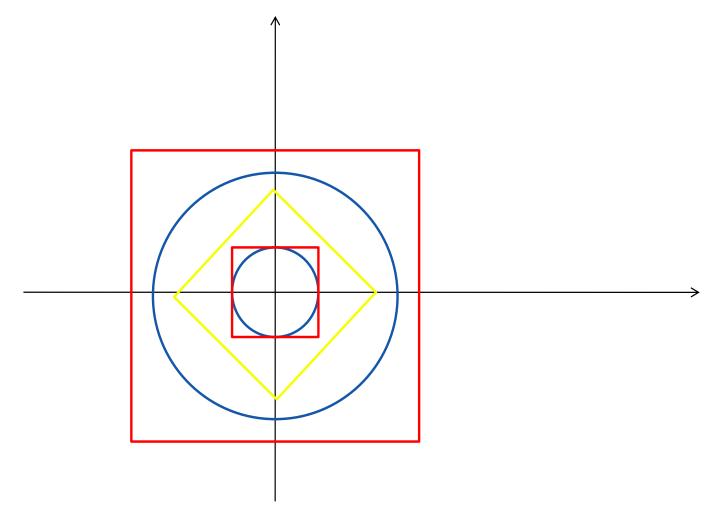
If two norms are equivalent, then they define the same notions of convergence and continuity. For topological purposes, equivalent norms are indistinguishable.

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

$$f_n(t) = \begin{cases} 1 - nt & \text{if } t \in \left[0, \frac{1}{n}\right] \\ 0 & \text{if } t \in \left(\frac{1}{n}, 1\right] \end{cases}$$

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

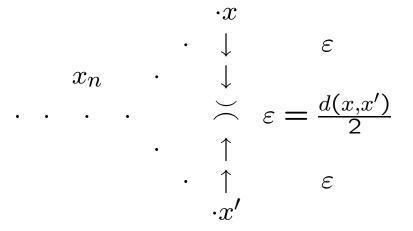
**Definition 5.** Let (X,d) be a metric space. A sequence  $\{x_n\}$  converges to x (written  $x_n \to x$  or  $\lim_{n\to\infty} x_n = x$ ) if

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

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

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

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

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

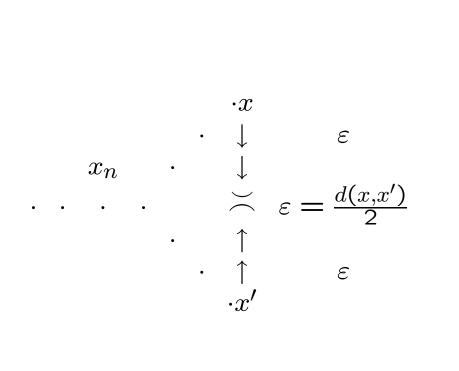
Choose

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

#### 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,

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

#### 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*.

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  $\{x_{n_k}\} = (\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{4}, \frac{1}{6}, ...)$ .

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

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

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  $N(\varepsilon) > 1/\varepsilon$ .

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

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

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

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

$$\alpha_{n} = \sup\{x_{k} : k \ge n\} \\ = \sup\{x_{n}, x_{n+1}, x_{n+2}, \ldots\} \\ \beta_{n} = \inf\{x_{k} : k \ge n\} \\ = \inf\{x_{n}, x_{n+1}, x_{n+2}, \ldots\}$$

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

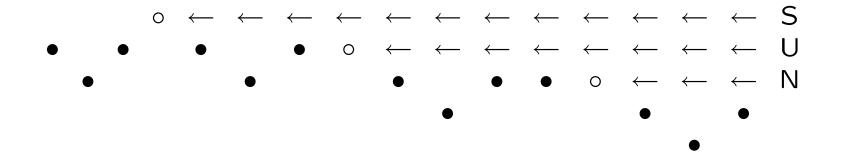
Definition 9.

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

**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

$$n_1 = \min S$$

$$n_2 = \min (S \setminus \{n_1\})$$

$$n_3 = \min (S \setminus \{n_1, n_2\})$$

$$\vdots$$

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

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

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

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.  $\hfill \Box$