

Topics in Computational Economics

Lecture 8

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Today's Lecture

- Metric space
- Banach space
- Fixed point theorems
- Some other stuff

Comments:

- Please pick up your homework after class
- Class projects are due June 3



Motivation

Here's a typical example of why we need functional analysis

The **risk-neutral** price of a random payoff G_{t+1} at $t + 1$ is

$$p_t = \beta \mathbb{E} [G_{t+1} \mid \mathcal{F}_t]$$

Here $\beta \in (0, 1)$ is a discount factor

Now suppose we're pricing a claim to a dividend flow $\{D_t\}$

The same formula gives

$$p_t = \beta \mathbb{E} [D_{t+1} + p_{t+1} \mid \mathcal{F}_t]$$



Assume $D_t = d(X_t)$ for some **state process** $\{X_t\}$

Let $q(x, \cdot)$ be the density of X_{t+1} given $X_t = x$

Guess that $p_t = p(X_t)$ for some unknown function p

If p exists, it must satisfy

$$p(X_t) = \beta \mathbb{E} [d(X_{t+1}) + p(X_{t+1}) \mid \mathcal{F}_t]$$

or

$$p(x) = \beta \int [d(y) + p(y)] q(x, y) dy \quad (x \in \mathbb{R})$$

But does such a function always exist? Is it unique? How to compute it?

To answer these questions we use functional analysis



Metric Space

Let M be any nonempty set

A function $\rho: M \times M \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is called a **metric** on M if

1. $\rho(x, y) \geq 0$ and $\rho(x, y) = 0 \iff x = y$
2. $\rho(x, y) = \rho(y, x)$
3. $\rho(x, y) \leq \rho(x, z) + \rho(z, y)$

for any $x, y, z \in M$

Together, (M, ρ) is called a **metric space**

Example. \mathbb{R}^n with $\rho(x, y) = \|x - y\|$ is a metric space



Example. Consider the **discrete metric** on \mathbb{R}^n given by

$$\rho(x, y) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } x = y \\ 1 & \text{if } x \neq y \end{cases}$$

Let's check it satisfies the triangle inequality

Pick any $x, y, z \in \mathbb{R}^n$

We claim that $\rho(x, y) \leq \rho(x, z) + \rho(z, y)$

If $x = y$, the bound is trivial, so suppose not

We need to show that $1 \leq \rho(x, z) + \rho(z, y)$

If not, then $\rho(x, z) + \rho(z, y) = 0$, so $x = z$ and $y = z$

Hence $x = y$ — a contradiction



Standard defs:

- The **ϵ -ball** around $x \in M$ is the set

$$B_\epsilon(x) := \{y \in M : \rho(x, y) < \epsilon\}$$

- $\{x_n\} \subset M$ **converges to** $x \in M$ if

$$\forall \epsilon > 0, \exists N \in \mathbb{N} \text{ s.t. } n \geq N \implies x_n \in B_\epsilon(x)$$

- $x \in A \subset M$ is called **interior** to A if

$$\exists \epsilon > 0 \text{ s.t. } B_\epsilon(x) \subset A$$



Standard defs:

- $G \subset M$ called **open** if every $x \in G$ is interior to G
- $F \subset M$ called **closed** if

$$\{x_n\} \subset F \text{ and } x_n \rightarrow x \in M \implies x \in F$$

- $K \subset M$ called **compact** if every sequence in K has a subsequence converging to a point in K

Example. If $(M, \rho) = (\mathbb{R}^n, \|\cdot\|)$, then K is compact if and only if K is closed and bounded



A sequence $\{x_n\} \subset M$ is called **Cauchy** if

$$\forall \epsilon > 0, \exists N \in \mathbb{N} \text{ s.t. } n, m \geq N \implies \rho(x_n, x_m) < \epsilon$$

Example. If $M = \mathbb{R}$, $\rho(x, y) = |x - y|$ and $x_n = 1/n$, then $\{x_n\}$ is Cauchy

A metric space (M, ρ) called **complete** if every Cauchy sequence in M converges to some point in M

Theorem Ordinary Euclidean space $(\mathbb{R}^n, \|\cdot\|)$ is complete

Ex. Show that if $M = (0, 1]$ and $\rho(x, y) = |x - y|$, then (M, ρ) is **not** complete



Essential Facts

Let (M, ρ) be any metric space

1. A set G is open in M if and only if G^c is closed in M
2. Every singleton set in M is closed
3. Arbitrary unions and finite intersections of open sets in M are open in M
4. Arbitrary intersections and finite unions of closed sets in M are closed in M
5. If (M, ρ) is complete and $C \subset M$ is closed, then (C, ρ) is itself a complete metric space



Continuous Functions

Let (M, σ) and (Y, τ) be two metric spaces and let $f: M \rightarrow Y$

We call f **continuous at** $x \in M$ if

$$x_n \rightarrow x \text{ in } (M, \sigma) \implies f(x_n) \rightarrow f(x) \text{ in } (Y, \tau)$$

We call f **continuous on** M if f is continuous at all $x \in M$

Theorem. $f: M \rightarrow Y$ is continuous on M if and only if

$$G \text{ open in } (Y, \tau) \implies f^{-1}(G) \text{ open in } (M, \sigma)$$

Theorem. If f is continuous on M and $K \subset M$ is compact, then the image set $f(K)$ is compact on Y



Let S be any set and let $\mathbb{R}^S :=$ the set of all functions $f: S \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$

Example. If $b\mathbb{R}^S :=$ all bounded $f \in \mathbb{R}^S$ and

$$d_\infty(f, g) := \sup_{x \in S} |f(x) - g(x)|$$

then $(b\mathbb{R}^S, d_\infty)$ is a metric space

Ex. Prove it

Fact. $(b\mathbb{R}^S, d_\infty)$ is complete

Fact. $cb\mathbb{R}^S :=$ all continuous $f \in b\mathbb{R}^S$ is closed in $(b\mathbb{R}^S, d_\infty)$

Hence $(cb\mathbb{R}^S, d_\infty)$ is complete



Example.

Let $\mathcal{C} :=$ all continuously differentiable $f: [-1, 1] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$

As before let

$$d_{\infty}(f, g) := \sup_{x \in S} |f(x) - g(x)|$$

The set \mathcal{C} is **not** a closed subset of $(b\mathbb{R}^S, d_{\infty})$

Ex.

- Show that $d_{\infty}(f_n, f) \rightarrow 0$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$ when

$$f_n(x) := (x^2 + 1/n)^{1/2} \quad \text{and} \quad f(x) := |x|$$

- Conclude that $(\mathcal{C}, d_{\infty})$ is not closed



Example. Let S be any countable set, let $p \geq 1$ and let

$$\ell_p(S) := \left\{ \text{all } f \in \mathbb{R}^S \text{ with } \sum_{x \in S} |f(x)|^p < \infty \right\}$$

Let

$$d_p(f, g) := \|f - g\|_p := \left\{ \sum_{x \in S} |f(x) - g(x)|^p \right\}^{1/p}$$

Theorem.

1. d_p is a metric on $\ell_p(S)$
2. $(\ell_p(S), d_p)$ is complete

Proof: See Cheney, section 8.7



Note that $(\ell_p(S), d_p)$ is an extension of ordinary Euclidean space

Indeed, suppose $S = \{1, \dots, n\}$ and let $p = 2$

For $f, g \in \ell_2(S)$, we have

$$\begin{aligned} d_2(f, g) &= \left\{ \sum_{i \in S} |f(i) - g(i)|^2 \right\}^{1/2} \\ &= \left\{ \sum_{i=1}^n |f_i - g_i|^2 \right\}^{1/2} \quad (f_i := f(i), g_i := g(i)) \end{aligned}$$

This is the Euclidean distance between **vectors** (f_i) and (g_i)



Closed subset of $\ell_p(S)$ include

1. the positive cone $\{f \in \ell_p(S) : f \geq 0\}$
 2. the sphere $\{f \in \ell_p(S) : \|f\|_p \leq 1\}$
- Remark: $f \geq 0$ means $f(s) \geq 0$, for all $s \in S$

Ex. (Proof of 1) Show that for any $\{f_n\} \subset \ell_p(S)$, we have

$$d_p(f_n, f) \rightarrow 0 \implies f_n(s) \rightarrow f(s) \text{ in } \mathbb{R}, \forall s \in S$$

Show that $\{x_n\} \subset \mathbb{R}$, $x_n \rightarrow x$ and $x_n \geq 0$ for all n implies $x \geq 0$

Conclude that 1 holds



Equivalence

Two metrics ρ and ρ' on M are called **equivalent** if there exist constants K, L such that, for all $x, y \in M$

$$\rho'(x, y) \leq K\rho(x, y) \quad \text{and} \quad \rho(x, y) \leq L\rho'(x, y)$$

Fact. If (M, ρ) and (M, ρ') are equivalent, then they share the same

- convergent sequences
- Cauchy sequences
- open sets
- closed sets
- compact sets, etc.

Ex. Prove it



Banach Space

Most metric spaces of interest in econ arise as either

- a Banach space
- some subset of a Banach space
- some transformation of a Banach space

Relative to metric spaces, Banach spaces have

- an additional algebraic structure
- some nice additional properties



Let V be a nonempty set with a notion of

- addition (a map $+$ from $V \times V$ to V)
- scalar multiplication (a map \cdot from $\mathbb{R} \times V$ to V)

Called a **vector space** if, $\forall u, v, w \in V$ and $\alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{R}$,

1. $u + (v + w) = (u + v) + w$
2. $u + v = v + u$
3. exists an element $0 \in V$ s.t. $u + 0 = u$ for all $u \in V$
4. $\forall u \in V, \exists v \in V$ s.t. $u + v = 0$
5. $\alpha(\beta u) = (\alpha\beta)u$
6. $1u = u$
7. $\alpha(u + v) = \alpha u + \alpha v$
8. $(\alpha + \beta)u = \alpha u + \beta u$



Example. \mathbb{R}^n with usual notions of addition and scalar multiplication

- the zero element is the origin

Example. The set of $n \times n$ real matrices with usual notions of addition and scalar multiplication

- the zero element is the matrix of zeros

Example. The set \mathbb{R}^S of all functions $f: S \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ with

$$(f + g)(x) = f(x) + g(x) \quad \text{and} \quad (\alpha f)(x) = \alpha f(x)$$

- the zero element is the function identically zero



If V is a vector space and $U \subset V$ satisfies

$$\alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{R} \text{ and } u, v \in U \implies \alpha u + \beta v \in U$$

then U is called a **linear subspace of V**

Example. If S is any set, then $b\mathbb{R}^S$ is a linear subspace of \mathbb{R}^S

Example. If S is a metric space, then $c\mathbb{R}^S$ is a linear subspace of \mathbb{R}^S

Fact. If V is a vector space and U is a linear subspace of V , then U itself is a vector space



Let V be a vector space

A map $\|\cdot\|: V \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is called a **norm** on V if, for all $u, v \in V$ and $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}$,

1. $\|u\| \geq 0$ and $\|u\| = 0$ if and only if $u = 0$
2. $\|\alpha u\| = |\alpha| \|u\|$
3. $\|u + v\| \leq \|u\| + \|v\|$

Example. The Euclidean norm on \mathbb{R}^n is a norm in this sense

Ex. Show: $\rho(u, v) = \|u - v\|$ is a metric on V (induced metric)

The pair $(V, \|\cdot\|)$ is called a **normed linear space**

If complete under the induced metric then called a **Banach space**



Example. \mathbb{R}^n with the Euclidean norm is a Banach space

Example. The set $b\mathbb{R}^S$ is a Banach space under the norm

$$\|f\|_\infty := \sup_{x \in S} |f(x)|$$

Example. The set $cb\mathbb{R}^S$ of continuous functions in $b\mathbb{R}^S$ is a Banach space under the same norm

Example. The space $\ell_p(S)$ is a Banach space under the norm

$$\|f\|_p := \left[\sum_{x \in S} |f(x)|^p \right]^{1/p}$$



Equivalence

Norms $\|\cdot\|_1$ and $\|\cdot\|_2$ on V are called **equivalent** if $\exists K, L \geq 0$ such that

$$\|v\|_1 \leq K\|v\|_2 \quad \text{and} \quad \|v\|_2 \leq L\|v\|_1 \quad \text{for all } v \in V$$

Ex. Show that if two norms on V are equivalent then so are the induced metrics

Thm. Any two norms on finite dimensional space are equivalent

Hence, if two metrics on \mathbb{R}^n are both induced by a norm, then they share

- open sets, closed sets,
- compact sets, etc.



Fixed Point Theorems

Let (M, ρ) be a metric space and let $T: M \rightarrow M$

A **fixed point** of T is a point $x^* \in M$ such that $Tx^* = x^*$

Example. If $f(x) = x^2$ on \mathbb{R} , then 0 and 1 are fixed points

Example. If $f(x) = x + 1$ on \mathbb{R} , then f has no fixed points on \mathbb{R}



The map T is called a **uniform contraction** on (M, ρ) if

$$\exists \alpha < 1 \quad \text{such that} \quad \rho(Tx, Ty) \leq \alpha \rho(x, y), \quad \forall x, y \in M$$

Example. $f(x) = \alpha x + b$ on metric space $(\mathbb{R}, |\cdot|)$ with $|\alpha| < 1$, since

$$|f(x) - f(y)| = |\alpha x - \alpha y| = |\alpha||x - y|$$

Fact. Every uniform contraction T is continuous on M

Proof: If $x_n \rightarrow x$ in (M, ρ) , then

$$\rho(Tx_n, Tx) \leq \alpha \rho(x_n, x) \rightarrow 0$$



Fact. If T is a uniform contraction on (M, ρ) and $x \in M$, then the trajectory $\{T^k x\}$ is Cauchy

Sketch of proof: Along the trajectory $\{T^k x\}$ from x , we have

$$\begin{aligned}\rho(T^{k+1}x, T^k x) &\leq \alpha \rho(T^k x, T^{k-1}x) \\ &\leq \alpha^2 \rho(T^{k-1}x, T^{k-2}x) \\ &\vdots \\ &\leq \alpha^k \rho(Tx, x)\end{aligned}$$



Banach's Fixed Point Theorem

Theorem. If (M, ρ) is complete and T is a uniform contraction, then T has a unique fixed point x^* in M and

$$\rho(T^k x, x^*) \leq \alpha^k \rho(x, x^*), \quad \forall k \in \mathbb{N}, \forall x \in M$$

Proof sketch: Pick any $x \in M$

The sequence $\{T^k x\}$ is Cauchy and hence converges to some x^*

The point x^* is a fixed point, since

$$Tx^* = T(\lim_k T^k x) = \lim_k T(T^k x) = \lim_k T^{k+1} x = x^*$$

The fixed point is unique (proof in weaker setting below)



Higher Order Contractions

Theorem. If (M, ρ) is complete and T^n is a uniform contraction for some $n \in \mathbb{N}$, then

1. T has a unique fixed point x^* in M
2. $T^k x \rightarrow x^*$ as $k \rightarrow \infty$ for all $x \in M$ (i.e., **globally stable** f.p.)

Partial proof: By Banach fixed point theorem, T^n has a fixed point x^* in M

In fact x^* is also a fixed point of T , since

$$\rho(Tx^*, x^*) = \rho(TT^n x^*, T^n x^*) = \rho(T^n Tx^*, T^n x^*) \leq \alpha \rho(Tx^*, x^*)$$

$$\therefore \rho(Tx^*, x^*) = 0$$



Dropping Uniformity

T is called **contracting** on (M, ρ) if

$$\rho(Tx, Ty) < \rho(x, y), \quad \forall x \neq y$$

Clearly weaker than

$$\exists \alpha < 1 \text{ s.t. } \rho(Tx, Ty) \leq \alpha \rho(x, y), \quad \forall x, y \in M \quad (1)$$

Note: Contracting does not imply existence of a fixed point

Example.

- $M = [0, \infty)$ with $\rho(x, y) = |x - y|$
- $Tx = x + e^{-x}$



Let T be contracting on (M, ρ)

Theorem. If M is compact, then T has a unique, globally stable fixed point $x^* \in M$

Proof of uniqueness: Suppose that

- x, y are both fixed points
- x and y are distinct

Then

$$\rho(Tx, Ty) = \rho(x, y) \quad \text{and} \quad \rho(Tx, Ty) < \rho(x, y)$$

Contradiction



Proof of existence:

Define $r: M \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ by $r(x) = \rho(Tx, x)$

Ex. Show that r is continuous

- Hint: First show $|\rho(x, y) - \rho(x', y')| \leq \rho(x, x') + \rho(y, y')$

Since M is compact, r has a minimizer x^* in M

We claim that $Tx^* = x^*$

Must be true, because if not then

$$r(Tx^*) = \rho(T^2x^*, Tx^*) < \rho(Tx^*, x^*) = r(x^*)$$

Contradiction



Lagrange Stability and Contractions

What if M is not compact?

A map $T: M \rightarrow M$ is called **Lagrange stable** if the trajectory of x is precompact for every $x \in M$.

- $B \subset M$ called **precompact** if it is contained in a compact set

Example.

- Lagrange stability of $Tx = ax$ depends on $|a| \leq 1$ or > 1

Theorem. If T is Lagrange stable and contracting on (M, ρ) , then T has a unique and globally stable fixed point in M



Sketch of proof:

Pick $x \in M$

Let $\Gamma(x)$ be the closure of the trajectory of x

By Lagrange stability, $\Gamma(x)$ is compact

Ex: Show that T maps $\Gamma(x)$ into itself

Note that T is contracting on $\Gamma(x)$

Hence a fixed point exists in $\Gamma(x)$

The fixed point is unique because T is contracting on all of M

