## MATH 131 SECTION, IV: COMPLETION OF METRIC SPACES

## ARPON RAKSIT

## 1. Preliminaries

Let's first remember what convergent and Cauchy sequences and completeness are in metric spaces.

- **1.1. Notation.** Throughout we let  $(X, d_X)$  be a metric space.
- **1.2. Definition.** A sequence  $(x_k) \in X^{\mathbb{N}}$  is called *convergent* if there exists  $x \in X$  such that for each  $\epsilon > 0$  there exists some  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  such that  $d_X(x, x_k) < \epsilon$  for all  $k \ge n$ . In this case, we say  $(x_k)$  converges to x and write  $\lim_{k \to \infty} x_k = x$ , or equivalently  $x_k \to x$  as  $k \to \infty$ .
- **1.3. Definition.** A sequence  $(x_k) \in X^{\mathbb{N}}$  is called *Cauchy* if for each  $\epsilon > 0$  there exists some  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  such that  $d_X(x_j, x_k) < \epsilon$  for all  $j, k \geq n$ .
- **1.4.** You might have seen Cauchy sequences defined in the past for the case  $X = \mathbb{R}$ . And you might have learned that a sequence being Cauchy is *equivalent* to the sequence being convergent. But this equivalence is something special to  $\mathbb{R}$ —it says that  $\mathbb{R}$  is a complete metric space, which we will define in a second. But first check that we always have one implication.
- 1.5. Exercise. All convergent sequences are Cauchy.
- **1.6. Definition.** We say X is *complete* if all Cauchy sequences in X are convergent in X.
- 1.7. Examples. As stated above  $\mathbb{R}$  is complete. This is sort of a key fact when we're learning real analysis. So maybe it's counterintuitive that there are spaces which are *not* complete. But we don't have to stray too far for some examples!
  - (0,1) is not complete: it's easy to check that the sequence given by  $x_k := 1/k$  for  $k \in \mathbb{N}$  is Cauchy, but for any  $x \in (0,1)$  there exists  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  such that 1/k < x for all k > n, whence  $(x_k)$  can't converge to x.
  - $\mathbb{Q}$  is not complete: I won't say this is as rigourously as the previous example, but rational approximations to irrational numbers (e.g., 1.4, 1.41, 1.414, ... tending to  $\sqrt{2}$ ) are Cauchy but cannot be convergent in  $\mathbb{Q}$ .

For another example of a complete metric space, look at the fourth problem set: we can take X the space of bounded sequences in  $\mathbb{R}$ , equipped with the sup metric.

**1.8.** Perhaps you've noticed something a little subtle about the difference between convergent and Cauchy sequences. Namely, the notion of convergence depends on the space X in a way that notion of Cauchyness does not. What I mean is: we said that  $(1/k)_{k\in\mathbb{N}}$  doesn't converge in (0,1) even though it's Cauchy—but certainly it

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converges in [0,1] or  $\mathbb{R}!$  On the other hand, passing to a larger ambient space doesn't change anything about what it means to be a Cauchy sequence.

This is essentially because our definition of convergence requires us to actually produce a limit  $x \in X$  (so of course it depends on X in the way described above), whereas our definition of Cauchy is completely intrinsic, in that it only refers to the elements of our given sequence.

Finally let's recall a couple of properties that maps between metric spaces can have.

- **1.9. Definition.** Let  $(Y, d_Y)$  another metric space. A map  $\phi: X \to Y$  is:
  - (1) uniformly continuous if for each  $\epsilon > 0$  there exists a  $\delta > 0$  such that  $d_X(x,y) < \delta \implies d_Y(\phi(x),\phi(y)) < \epsilon$  for all  $x,y \in X$ ;
  - (2) an isometry (or "distance-preserving") if  $d_X(x,y) = d_Y(\phi(x),\phi(y))$  for all  $x,y \in X$ ;
  - (3) an isomorphism (of metric spaces) if  $\phi$  is a bijective isometry. (Note the inverse of an isomorphism is clearly automatically an isometry.)
- **1.10. Exercise.** Let  $\phi: X \to Y$  a map of metric spaces.
  - (1) If  $\phi$  is uniformly continuous and  $(x_k) \in X^{\mathbb{N}}$  is a Cauchy sequence, then  $(f(x_k)) \in Y^{\mathbb{N}}$  is also Cauchy.
  - (2) If  $\phi$  is an isometry then  $\phi$  is uniformly continuous and an embedding of topological spaces.

## 2. Metric completion

The goal for the rest of these notes is to prove the following.

- **2.1. Proposition.** There exist a metric space  $X_c$  and an isometry  $\phi: X \to X_c$  such that:
  - (1)  $X_c$  is complete;
  - (2)  $\phi(X)$  is dense in  $X_c$ ;
  - (3) for any complete metric space Y and uniformly continuous map  $\psi: X \to Y$ , there exists a unique uniformly continuous map  $\psi_c: X_c \to Y$  such that  $\psi_c \circ \phi = \psi$ ;
  - (4) if  $Y_c$  is a complete metric space and  $\psi \colon X \to Y_c$  an isometry such that  $\psi(X)$  is dense in  $Y_c$ , then there exists a unique isomorphism  $\eta \colon X_c \to Y_c$  such that  $\eta \circ \phi = \psi$ .
- **2.2. Definition.** Since  $X_c$  is unique up to unique isomorphism, we are justified in calling  $X_c$  the completion of X.

There are a number of steps in proving the proposition, so I won't even try to put them all inside one proof environment! (Actually, as—well, if—you read along, you should try to prove the claims before reading on. This is a decent exercise in knowing how to prove fundamental things about metric spaces.) Here we go.

**2.3** (Construction). First define  $C := \{(x_k) \in X^{\mathbb{N}} \mid (x_k) \text{ is Cauchy} \}$  the set of all Cauchy sequences in X. We then define an equivalence relation on C by saying

$$(x_k) \sim (y_k) \iff \lim_{k \to \infty} d_X(x_k, y_k) = 0.$$

Reflexifity and symmetry of this relation are obvious. For transitivity we just use nonnegativity of the metric and the triangle inequality: if  $(x_k) \sim (y_k)$  and  $(y_k) \sim (z_k)$ 

then

$$0 \le \lim_{k \to \infty} d_X(x_k, z_k) \le \lim_{k \to \infty} d_X(x_k, y_k) + d_X(y_k, z_k)$$
$$\le \lim_{k \to \infty} d_X(x_k, y_k) + \lim_{k \to \infty} d_X(y_k, z_k) = 0,$$

which implies  $(x_k) \sim (z_k)$ .

We then define  $X_c := C/\sim$  to be the set of equivalence classes of C under this relation, and define a metric  $d_{X_c}$  on  $X_c$  as follows. For  $\sigma, \tau \in X_c$ , with equivalence class representatives  $(x_k), (y_k) \in C$ , respectively, we set

$$d_{X_c}(\sigma, \tau) := \lim_{k \to \infty} d_X(x_k, y_k).$$

Before we define  $\phi$  or prove properties (1) and (2) from the proposition, we should  $d_{X_c}$  is well-defined and satisfies the axioms of a metric.

**2.4** (The metric is well-defined). Let  $\sigma, \tau \in X_c$  with representatives  $(x_n), (y_n) \in C$ , repspectively. Since  $(x_n), (y_n)$  are Cauchy, there exists  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  such that

$$d_X(x_j, x_k) < \epsilon$$
 and  $d_E(y_j, y_k) < \epsilon$  if  $j, k \ge n$ .

By the triangle inequality we have

$$d_X(x_j, y_j) \le d_X(x_j, x_k) + d_X(x_k, y_k) + d_X(y_j, y_k)$$

$$\implies d_X(x_j, y_j) - d_X(x_k, y_k) < 2\epsilon,$$

and similarly  $d_X(x_k, y_k) - d_X(x_j, y_j) < 2\epsilon$ , for  $j, k \ge n$ . It follows that the sequence  $(d_E(x_n, y_n))$  in  $\mathbb{R}$  is Cauchy. Since  $\mathbb{R}$  is complete,

$$d_{X_c}(\sigma,\tau) = \lim_{n \to \infty} d_E(x_n, y_n)$$

exists.

Now suppose  $(x_k) \sim (x_k')$  and  $(y_k) \sim (y_k')$ . Then by the triangle inequality

$$\lim_{k \to \infty} d_X(x_k', y_k') \le \lim_{k \to \infty} d_X(x_k', x_k) + \lim_{k \to \infty} d_X(x_k, y_k) + \lim_{k \to \infty} d_X(y_k, y_k')$$
$$= \lim_{k \to \infty} d_X(x_k, y_k).$$

By symmetry the reverse inequality holds as well, so  $d_{X_c}$  is well-defined.

- **2.5** (The metric is a metric). Next we show  $d_{X_c}$  is in fact a metric on  $X_c$ . Let  $\sigma, \tau \in X_c$  with representatives  $(x_n), (y_n) \in C$ , repspectively. Nonnegativity symmetry, and the triangle inequality for  $d_{X_c}$  follow immediately from these holding for  $d_X$ . And that  $d_{X_c}(\sigma, \tau) = 0$  if and only if  $\sigma = \tau$  follows by definition of  $d_{X_c}$  and the relation  $\sim$ .
- **2.6** (The isometric embedding). Define  $\phi: X \to X_c$  by letting  $\phi(x)$  be the equivalence class of the constant sequence given by  $x_k := x$  for  $k \in \mathbb{N}$ . Then for  $x, y \in X$  we have

$$d_X(\phi(x),\phi(y)) = \lim_{k \to \infty} d_X(x,y) = d_X(x,y),$$

so  $\phi$  is an isometry.

Next we show that  $\phi(X)$  is dense in  $X_c$ . Let  $\sigma \in X_c$  with representative  $(x_n) \in C$ . Let  $\epsilon > 0$ . Since  $(x_n)$  is Cauchy there exists  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  such that  $d_X(x_k, x_n) < \epsilon$  for all  $k \geq N$ . It follows that

$$d_{X_c}(\sigma, \phi(x_n)) = \lim_{k \to \infty} d_E(x_k, x_n) < \epsilon.$$

I.e.,  $B_{d_{X_c}}(\sigma, \epsilon)$  intersects  $\phi(X)$  for any  $\sigma \in X_c$  and  $\epsilon > 0$ . So indeed  $\phi(X)$  is dense in  $X_c$ .

**2.7** (The completion is complete). Finally we show that  $X_c$  is complete. Let  $(\sigma_k) \in X_c^{\mathbb{N}}$  a Cauchy sequence in  $X_c$ . Then for each  $r \in \mathbb{N}$  there exists  $n_r \in \mathbb{N}$  such that  $d_{X_c}(\sigma_k, \sigma_{n_r}) < 1/r$  for  $k \geq n_r$ . Since  $\phi(X)$  is dense in  $X_c$ , there exists  $x_r \in E$  such that  $d_{X_c}(\sigma_{n_r}, \phi(x_r)) < 1/r$  for each  $r \in \mathbb{N}$ . We claim  $(x_r) \in X^{\mathbb{N}}$  is Cauchy. Let  $\epsilon > 0$ , and choose  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  such that  $3/n < \epsilon$ . Then for  $k \geq j \geq n$  we have by the triangle inequality and the fact that  $\phi$  is an isometry that

$$\begin{aligned} d_{X}(x_{j}, x_{k}) &= d_{X_{c}}(\phi(x_{j}), \phi(x_{k})) \\ &\leq d_{X_{c}}(\phi(x_{j}), \sigma_{n_{j}}) + d_{X_{c}}(\sigma_{n_{j}}, \sigma_{n_{k}}) + d_{X_{c}}(\sigma_{n_{k}}, \phi(x_{k})) \\ &\leq 1/j + 1/j + 1/k \leq 3/n < \epsilon, \end{aligned}$$

so indeed  $(x_r)$  is Cauchy.

Then let  $\sigma \in X_c$  be the equivalence class of  $(x_r)$ . We will show  $\lim_{k\to\infty} \sigma_k = \sigma$ , and since  $(\sigma_k)$  was arbitrary this will show that  $X_c$  is indeed complete. So let  $\epsilon > 0$ . Choose  $r \in \mathbb{N}$  such that  $4/r < \epsilon$ . We have by the triangle inequality that

$$d_{X_c}(\sigma_{n_r}, \sigma) \le d_{X_c}(\sigma_{n_r}, \phi(x_r)) + d_{X_c}(\phi(x_r), \sigma).$$

We know  $d_{X_c}(\sigma_{n_r}, \phi(x_r)) < 1/r$ , and we showed above that  $d_X(x_k, x_r) < 3/r$  for  $k \ge r$ , which implies

$$d_{X_c}(\phi(x_r), \sigma) = \lim_{k \to \infty} d_X(x_r, x_k) < 3/r.$$

It follows that  $d_{X_c}(\sigma_{n_r}, \sigma) < 4/r < \epsilon$ . Then since  $(\sigma_{n_r})$  is Cauchy, it is easy to see we must then have  $\lim_{k\to\infty} \sigma_k = \sigma$ . So we have proven (2.1.1, 2.1.2).

We now prove (2.1.3, 2.1.4). These will follow from the following more general facts.  $^2$ 

- **2.8. Lemma.** Let A, B be topological spaces, and  $A_0 \subseteq A$  a dense subspace. Let  $f: A_0 \to B$  a continuous map.
  - (1) If B is Hausdorff, there exists at most one extension of f to A, that is, there exists at most one continuous map  $g: A \to B$  such that  $g|_{A_0} = f$ .
  - (2) If A and B are metric spaces, B is complete, and f is uniformly continuous, then there exists a unique uniformly continuous extension g: A → B of f. If f is an isometry, then so is g.

Proof. (1) Let  $g_1, g_2 \colon A \to B$  two extensions of f. Suppose  $g_1(a) \neq g_2(a)$  for some  $a \in A$ . Then we can choose  $V_1$  and  $V_2$  disjoint neighbourhoods of  $g_1(a)$  and  $g_2(a)$ , respectively, by the Hausdorff hypothesis. Let  $U_i := g_i^{-1}(V_i)$ , open by continuity of  $g_i$ , for  $i \in \{1, 2\}$ . Then  $a \in U_1 \in U_2$ , so  $U_1 \cap U_2$  is a nonempty open set in X, and hence there exists  $a_0 \in U_1 \cap U_2 \cap A_0$  by density of  $A_0$ . Now observe that since  $g_1, g_2$  extend f we must have

$$V_1 \ni g_1(a_0) = f(a_0) = g_2(a_0) \in V_2$$

contradicting the disjointness of  $V_1$  and  $V_2$ .

(2) Uniqueness is immediate from (1), so it suffices to show existence. Define  $g: A \to B$  as follows. Let  $a \in A$ . By density of  $A_0$  there is a sequence  $(a_k) \in A_0^{\mathbb{N}}$  such that  $a_k \to a$  as  $k \to \infty$ . By (1.5),  $(a_k)$  is Cauchy, whence  $(f(a_k)) \in B^{\mathbb{N}}$  is Cauchy by (1.10). Then  $f(a_k) \to b$  as  $k \to \infty$  for some  $b \in B$  by completeness. We define

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup>Observe (for intuition) that we start with a sequence of sequences, which can visualise as a grid, and are producing a new sequence by taking some type of rapidly converging diagonal from this grid.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup>The presentation here is essentially taken from Pete Clark's notes, math.uga.edu/~pete/8410Chapter2v2.pdf.

g(a) := b. We claim this is independent of the choice of sequence  $(a_k)$ . Indeed let  $(a_k') \in A_0^{\mathbb{N}}$  another sequence converging to a. Then for any  $\delta > 0$  there exists  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  such that, by the triangle inequality,

$$d(a, a_k) < \delta/2$$
 and  $d(a, a_k') < \delta/2 \implies d(a_k, a_k') < \delta$ 

for  $k \geq n$ . Therefore by uniform continuity there exists  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  such that

$$d(f(a_k), f(a'_k)) < \epsilon$$
 for all  $k \ge n$ .

It follows that  $\lim_{k\to\infty} f(a_k) = \lim_{k\to\infty} f(a'_k)$ , proving our claim. In particular, if  $a \in A_0$  then we can choose the constant sequence  $a_k := a_0$  for  $k \in \mathbb{N}$ , from which we see  $g(a) = \lim_{k\to\infty} f(a_0) = f(a_0)$ , so g in fact extends f.

We now show g is uniformly continuous. Let  $\epsilon > 0$ . Since f is uniformly continuous there exists  $\delta > 0$  such that  $d_B(f(a), f(a')) < \epsilon/2$  whenever  $a_0, a'_0 \in A_0$  are such that  $d_A(a_0, a'_0) < \delta$ . Suppose  $a, a' \in A$  are such that  $d(a, a') < \delta/3$ . Choose sequences  $(a_k)$  and  $(a'_k)$  in  $A_0$  converging to a and a', respectively. Let  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  such that, by the triangle inequality,

$$d_X(a_k, a) < \delta/3$$
 and  $d_X(a_k', a') < \delta/3 \implies d_X(a_k, a_k') < \delta$   
  $\implies d_Y(f(a_k), f(a_k')) < \epsilon/2$ 

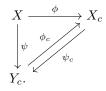
for all  $k \geq n$ . Then by continuity<sup>3</sup> of  $d_Y$  and definition of g we have

$$(2.9) d_Y(g(a), g(a')) = \lim_{k \to \infty} d_Y(f(a_k), f(a'_k)) \le \epsilon/2 < \epsilon.$$

Thus g is uniformly continuous. If f is moreover an isometry, the first equality in (2.9) also clearly implies that g is an isometry.

**2.10** (The universal property). We now apply the lemma to finish the proof of the proposition. Suppose Y is a complete metric space and  $\psi: X \to Y$  uniformly continuous. Since  $\phi: X \to X_c$  is an isometry with dense image, the lemma gives that there is a unique uniformly continuous map  $\psi_c: X_c \to Y$  such that  $\psi_c \circ \phi = \phi$ , proving (2.1.3).

Finally, (2.1.4) is proven by the general argument giving uniqueness of objects satisfying a universal property like (2.1.3). Suppose  $Y_c$  is a complete metric space and  $\psi \colon X \to Y_c$  an isometry with dense image. Then by (2.1.3) there is a unique uniformly continuous map  $\psi_c \colon X_c \to Y_c$  such that  $\psi_c \circ \phi = \psi$ , and the lemma tells us that  $\psi_c$  is in fact an isometry. But our proof of (2.1.3) applies to  $Y_c$  equipped with  $\psi$  as well, so we symmetrically have a unique isometry  $\phi_c \colon Y_c \to X_c$  such that  $\phi_c \circ \psi = \phi$ . I.e., we have the diagram



Observe then that

$$\phi_c \circ \psi_c \circ \phi = \phi = \mathrm{id}_{X_c} \circ \phi \quad \text{and} \quad \psi_c \circ \phi_c \circ \psi = \psi = \mathrm{id}_{Y_c} \circ \psi.$$

 $<sup>^{3}</sup>$ One could also argue more directly, but see, e.g., my solutions to problem set 4 for a proof of the continuity of the metric.

Then the *uniqueness* statement in (2.1.3) implies that we must have  $\phi_c \circ \psi_c = \mathrm{id}_{X_c}$  and  $\psi_c \circ \phi_c = \mathrm{id}_{Y_c}$ . I.e.,  $\phi_c, \psi_c$  are inverse isomorphisms of metric spaces. And thus we are done!

 $<sup>^4</sup>$ This argument takes a couple of reads to absorb and understand, I think (it certainly did for me!). But it's extremely general and very useful so try to do so!