Lecture 6

Complete Metric Spaces and the Contraction Mapping Theorem (Ref. 2.7)

How to decide whether a given sequence converges?

- · Apply the definition (with E, Netc.)
- · However, we need to know a potential limit to check the def.
- · Sometimes it is hard to guess the value of the potential limit -> we need some triteria, which will work without guessing the limit.

Def. A sequence $\{x_n\}$ in a metric space (X,d) is <u>Cauchy</u> if $\forall \epsilon > 0 \exists N(\epsilon) \text{ s.t. if } n,m>N(\epsilon), \text{then } d(x_n,x_m) \leq \epsilon.$

Terms in a Cauchy sequence get closer and closer to each other. Thus, they are "trying their best to converge". Yet they may not have anything to converge to, i.e. the limit may be "outside of X". Whether the limit is inside X or not es a property of X.

1. Every convergent sequence in a metric space is Cauchy.

Proof: If $x_n \to x$, then $\forall \varepsilon \exists N s.t. \forall n > N d(x_n, x) \angle \varepsilon/2$. Thus, $\forall n, m > N$ $d(x_n, x_m) \leq d(x_n, x) + d(x, x_m) = \varepsilon/2 + \varepsilon/2 = \varepsilon.$

In general, the converse is false: if $d \times n = 1$ is Cauchy it is not required to converge. E.g. X = (0,1), d(x,y) = |x-y|, $x_n = 1$. d(x,y) = |x-y|, $x_n = 1$. d(x,y) = |x-y|, d(

Spaces in which the converse holds are said to be complete.

Def. A metric space (X, ol) is complete, if every Cauchy sequence contained in X converges to some point x in X. Thus, X=(0,1), d(x,y)=|x-y| is not complete. But ([0,1],d) is complete. Example: Q is not complete: 52 & Q $\sqrt{2} \approx 1,414214...$ $\rightarrow x_1 = 1; x_2 = 1,4; x_3 = 1,41; x_4 = 1,414...$ So that xnEQ for all n, but \$2 \$Q, so 1xn3 doesn't Yet, 1xn3 converge in R, as JZER. (Thus, x, is Cauchy.) Which metric spaces are complete? d=(x,y)= |x-y| (R, dE) is complete Proof: Step 1. Show that if Ixn 3 is Cauchy, then Ixn 3 is Bounded (sketch) Step 2. By the Bolzano-Weierstrass th, if 2xn3 is bounded, then it has a convergen subsequence Xm x X ER Step3. Show that if Xnx know X, then Xn now X (xn = x =) VE>O JK sit if k>K then |xn = x | 2 6/2 Xn Cauchy => YE JN's.I. if n, m>N then 1xn-xm14E/2. ~> Choose N*= max (NK, N), |x, - x| = |x, - x, + |x, - x| 4. The Any finite-dimensional Euclidean space Em = (Rm, dE) is complete de(x,y)= 12 (xi-yi) Proof: Step 1. Show that if XXn3 is Cauchy, then every component seq 1xi3 (sketch) is a Cauchy seq. in R. Step 2 1xi3 is Cauchy in R => xi -> xi ER Step 3. If each component converges, then so does 1x,3: $X_n \xrightarrow{h_{20}} (X^1, ..., X^m) \in \mathbb{R}^m$

We know that IR is complete, while its subset (0,1) is not. What subsets of a complete space are still complete?

The Suppose (X,d) is a complete metric space, YCX. Then (Y,d) is complete if and only if Y is closed

Proof: · Suppose Yis closed and Ixn3 is a Cauchy seq., xne Y In.

Because (X,d) is complete, $X_n \xrightarrow{n \to \infty} X \in X$.

Because Y is closed and $x_n \in Y \notin Y_n$, x_n converges, the limit must be in Y (closed = every convergent seq. converges to a pointer). Thus, $x \in Y$ and Y is complete.

· Suppose (Y, d) is complete. As we have proved in the previous lecture, a set his closed if Y convergent sequence in A converges to a point in A.

Suppose $4 \times n^3$ is a convergent seq., $\times n \in Y \ \forall h$, $\times n \to \times \in X$. $4 \times n^3$ is convergent $\Rightarrow 4 \times n^3$ is Cauchy \Rightarrow by completeness of Y, $\times n \to y \in Y$ in (Y, d) Thus, $\times n \to y$ in (X, d) and $\times = y$ (limit is unique). That is, $\times n \to \times \in Y$ and Y is closed.

So far we know that the following spaces once complete:

· (Rm, de) Ifinite m

Another classical example of a complete metric space:

 $X \subseteq \mathbb{R}^m$, $C(X) = \{f: X \to \mathbb{R} \mid f \text{ is bounded and continuous } S$ That is, C(X) is a set of bounded and continuous f-ns $f: X \to \mathbb{R}$ $cl(f,g) = \sup_{x \in X} |f(x) - g(x)|$

(See textbook if interested in the proof)

A fin T:X->X from a metric space to itself is called an operator. Def. Let (X,d) be a metric space. An operator T: X-3X is a contraction of modulus β if $0 \le \beta \le 1$ and $d(T(x), T(y)) \le \beta d(x, y)$ $\forall x, y \in X$. A contraction shrinks distances by a uniform factor BCI. In Every contraction is uniformly continuous (and, thus, continuous). Proof: Choose $\delta = \frac{\varepsilon}{\beta}$. Then if $d(x,y) \neq \delta$, $d(T(x),T(y)) \neq \beta \cdot \delta = \varepsilon$. (Note: Any contraction is also Lipschitz on X with Lipschitz constant B-1) Def. A fixed point of an operator T is an element $x \in X$ s.t. $T(x^*) = x^*$. Often we can think about a fixed point as of an equilibrium of some system. E.g. T(x) is an economy's response to state x. If T(x*)=x* Then the economy work _ deviate from x*, and x* is its equilibrium. - We often want to find fixed points in micro/macro models. Contraction The Let (X,d) be a nonempty complete metric space and T: X-> X a Mapping Theorem contraction with modulus BLI. Then: (i) I has a unique fixed point x*; (ii) $\forall x_0 \in X$ the sequence defined by $x_1 = T(x_0), x_2 = T(x_1) = T(T(x_0)) = T^2(x_0),$ $X_{n+1} = T(x_n) = T^{n+1}(x_0)$... converges to x^* . tllustration: 760

Contr. mapping theorem guarantees both existence and uniqueness of a fixed point. Moreover, it also gives an algorithm, which can be used to find the fixed point. (We often use this algorithm when were solve for a fixed point numerically.) Proof of the contr. mapping th.! Fix some xo ex. Let us show that dxn3, where $x_n := T^n(x)$ is a Cauchy sequence: · d(xn+1,xn)=d(T(xn),T(xn+1)) = Bd(xn,xn-1) = B2d(xn+1,xn-2) = ... = · Fix E>O, choose M s.t. BM L (1-B) (BETO, 1), so such Mexists) => Yham> M d(xn,xm) < d(xn,xo) Bm < d(xn,xo) BM < E. Thus, dxn3 is Cauchy. Because (X,d) is complete, $x_n \xrightarrow{n \to \infty} x^* \in X$. Let us show that x* is a fixed point: T(x*)=T(lim xn)=lim T(xn)=lim xn+1=x*. Thus, x*=fixed point

Th=ToTo oT

 $\sum_{i=m}^{50} \beta^{i} = \frac{\beta^{m}}{1 - \beta^{3}}$ sum of a geometric series

We are left with showing unique ness. Suppose $x^* \neq y^*$ are both fixed points. Then $d(T(x^*), T(y^*)) \leq p_s d(x^*, y^*)$ $d(x^*, y^*)$

so that d(x*, y*) ≤ pd(x*, y*). Thus, d(x*, y*)=0 and x*=y*. ■

	We can also do comparative statics with fixed points of contractions!
Continuous dependence of	Th. Let (X, d) and (Q, p) be two metric spaces and $T: X \times Q \rightarrow X$.
the fixed point on pazameters	For each wED let Tw: X > X be defined by Tw(x)=T(x,w).
	Suppose (X, d) is complete, T is contin in w, i.e. T(x, .): 2 -> X is
	contin. for each xeX, and JB = 1 s.t. Tw is a contraction of
	modulus B twe O. Then the fixed point for x*: Q→X defined by
	$x^*(w) = T_w(x^*(w))$ is continuous.
	Proof: X* is contin. if Young, wn > w we must have X*(wn) -> X*(w)
	$d(x^*(\omega_n), x^*(\omega)) = d(T_{\omega_n}(x^*(\omega_n)), T_{\omega}(x^*(\omega))) \leq$
	$\leq d(T_{\omega_n}(x^*(\omega_n)), T_{\omega_n}(x^*(\omega))) + d(T_{\omega_n}(x^*(\omega)), T_{\omega}(x^*(\omega))) \leq$
a1	$\leq Bd(x^*(\omega_n), x^*(\omega)) + d(T_{\omega_n}(x^*(\omega)), T_{\omega_n}(x^*(\omega)))$
	Januari
8	$\Rightarrow d(x^*(\omega_n), x^*(\omega)) \leq \frac{1}{1-j_S} d(T_{\omega_n}(x^*(\omega)), T_{\omega}(x^*(\omega)))$
	Because T is contin. in ω , $T_{\omega_n}(x^*(\omega)) = T(x^*(\omega), \omega_n) \xrightarrow{T_{\omega}(x^*(\omega))}$
	Hence, $\forall \varepsilon > 0 \exists N \text{ s.t. } \forall n > N \ d(Two (x*(w)), Two (x*(w))) LE(1-ps).$
	Thus, d(x*(wn), x*(w)) LE and x*(wn) -> x*(w).
	100 pt
	How to determine whether a given operator is a contraction?
Polackwell's	
Sufficient	The Let B(X) be the set of all bounded fins from X to R with
Conditions	the metric $d_{\infty}(f,g) = \sup_{x \in X} f(x) - g(x) $. Let $T:B(X) \rightarrow B(X)$ satisfy
	1. (monotonicity) $f(x) \neq g(x) \forall x \in X \Rightarrow (T(f))(x) \neq (T(g))(x) \forall x \in X$
a(x)≡a ∀x	a. (discounting) = BE(0,1) st. for every a>0 and xEX,
(f+a)(x)=f(x)+a	T $(f+a)(x) \leq (T(f))(x) + \beta a$. Then T is a contraction with modulus β .
	Then T is a contraction with modulus B.

(Remark: (B(X), do) is a metric space, but not necessary complete) Proof: Fix f, g & B(X). Then $f(x) \leq g(x) + \sup_{y \in X} |f(y) - g(y)| \quad \forall x \in X$ Denote A:= sup |f(y)-g(y) . A is finite, because found g are bounded. Thus, $(Tf)(x) \leq (T(g+A))(x) \leq (Tg)(x) + pA$ $\forall x \in X$ monotonicity discounting Therefore, $(T_f)(x) - (T_g)(x) \leq \beta A \quad \forall x \in X.$ Interchanging the roles of f and g, by the same logic: (Tg)(x)-(Tf)(x) = B sup |g(y)-f(y)|=BA YXEX => sup (tg)(x) - (Tf)(x) | & B sup | g(x) - f(x) | oz do (Tg), T(f)) = pd (g, f). Thus, T is a contraction with modules B. Blackwell's suff. cond. is often used in macro (e.g., in search theory): The conditions are used in dynamic programming. X = set of possible wages f(x) = value f-n or intertemporal utility of an agent given wage offer x. Then usually we can write f(x) = max fother f-n of x, pff(x)dx == -> Need to find f* which satisfies f*= Tf*, i.e. f* is a fixed point of T.