## Complete metric spaces

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## 1 Convergence

Let (X, d) be a metric space(not necessary to be a vector space).

**Definition.** We say that a sequence of vectors,  $\{x_1, x_2, ...., x_n\}$ , in X converges to  $x_0 \in X$  (under the metric d) if  $\forall \epsilon > 0, \exists N > 0$  s.t.  $\forall i > N, d(x_i, x_o) < \epsilon$  We will introduce Convergence in more general spaces later.

**Example.** X = C([0,1])

- 1.  $d_1(f,g) = \int_0^1 |f(x) g(x)| dx$ Let  $f_n(x) = x_n, f_0(x) = 0$ . Then  $d_1(f_n, f_0) = \int_0^1 x_n dx = \frac{1}{n+1} \to 0$  as  $n \to \infty$ . so  $f_n \to f_0$  in  $(X, d_1)$
- 2.  $d_0(f,g) = \max_{0 \le x \le 1} |f(x) g(x)|$  Still take  $f_n(x) = x_n, f_0(x) = 0$ , Then  $d_0(f_n, f_0) = \sup_{0 < x < 1} x_n = 1$ , so  $f_n \not\to f_0$  in  $(X, d_0)$ .

**Remark.** Obvious one always have  $d_1(f,g) \leq d_0(f,g)$  in X We say the metric  $d_0$  is stronger than  $d_1$ . If a sequence converges to an element in  $d_0$ , then it converges to that element in  $d_1$ .

3. Still take  $d_1(f,g) = \int_0^1 |f(x) - g(x)| dx$ .

$$f_n(x) = \begin{cases} 0, & x < \frac{1}{2} - \frac{1}{n}, \\ \frac{1}{2} + \frac{n}{2}(x - \frac{1}{2}), & \frac{1}{2} - \frac{1}{n} \le x \le \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{n}, \\ 1, & x > \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{n} \end{cases}$$

and let

$$\begin{cases} 0, & x \le \frac{1}{2}, \\ 1, & x \ge \frac{1}{2} \end{cases}$$

Then  $d_1(f_n, f_0) = \int_0^1 |f_n(x) - f_0(x)| dx = \frac{1}{2n} \to 0.$ 

**Property.** Suppose a sequence  $\{x_n\}$  converges in (X,d), then

1.  $\{x_n\}$  is bounded.

2. the limit is unique.

Proof.

- 1. Suppose  $x_n \to x_0$ , then for  $\epsilon = 1, \exists N, \text{ s.t. } \forall i > N, \ d(x_n, x_0) < 1$ . Let  $C = max(d(x_n, x_1), d(x_n, x_1), ...., d(x_n, x_0)) + 1$ , Then  $d(x_n, x_0) < C \forall 1 \le i < \infty$  So  $\{x_i\}$  is bounded.
- 2. Suppose  $x_i \to x_0$  and  $x_i \to x_0'$ .  $\forall \epsilon > 0, \exists N, N' \text{ s.t. } \forall i > N, d(x_i, x_0) < \epsilon, \forall i' > N, d(x_i', x_0') < \epsilon \Rightarrow d(x_0, x_0') \leq d(x_0, x_i) + d(x_i, x_0') \leq 2\epsilon \Leftrightarrow d(x_0, x_0') = 0 \Rightarrow x_0 = x_0'$

## 2 Completeness

As we have seen in part 3 of previous example, we have a sequence in X which converges under  $d_1$  to , an element outside X. So as  $\mathcal{Q}, (X, d)$  is NOT complete. To do better analysis, we would like to work on complete spaces. As in mathmatical analysis, we define

**Definition.** A sequence  $\{x_i\}$  in (X, d) is a Cauchy sequence if  $\forall \epsilon > 0, \exists N > 0$  s.t.  $\forall i, j > N, d(x_i, x_j) < \epsilon$ 

**Definition.** A metric space (X,d) is complete if any Cauchy sequence in (X,d) converges to an element in X.

**Definition.** A complete normed vector space is called a Banach space.

- Here, the metric is the induced metric from the norm: d(x,y) = ||x-y||
- Banach space will be one of the main object in this course.

**Example.**  $d(x,y) = (\sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - y_i))^{\frac{1}{2}}$  is a complete metric on  $\mathbb{R}^n$ .  $\|x\| = (\sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2)^{\frac{1}{2}}$ ,  $(\mathbb{R}^n, \|\cdot\|)$  is a Banach space.

**Example.** X = C([0,1]).

1.  $d_1(f,g) = \int_0^1 |f(x) - g(x)| dx$ . We have seen  $f_n(x) = x^n \to f_0(x) = 0$ . In fact,  $\{f_n\}$  is a Cauchy sequence, since  $d(f_n, f_m) = \int_0^1 |x^n - x^m| dx < \int_0^1 x^n dx + \int_0^1 x^m dx = \frac{1}{n+1} + \frac{1}{m+1}$  In general, we have

**Property.** Any converged sequence in a metric space is a Cauchy sequence.

*Proof.* Suppose  $x_i \to x_0$ . i.e.  $\forall \epsilon > 0, \exists N \text{ s.t. } \forall i > N, d(x_i, x_0) < \epsilon$ . So for  $\forall i, j > N$ , we have  $d(x_i, x_j) \leq d(x_i, x_0) + d(x_0, x_j) < 2\epsilon$ . So  $\{x_i\}$  is Cauchy.

2.  $d_0(f,g) = \max_{0 \le x \le 1} |f(x) - g(x)| dx$ . We have seen  $f_n \not\to f_0$  in  $(X, d_0)$ . In fact,  $\{f_n\}$  is not a Cauchy sequence since we fix n and let  $m \to \infty$ ,  $d(f_n, f_m) = \max_{0 \le x \le 1} |x_n - x_m| dx \to 1$ . In fact, we have

**Property.**  $(C([0,1]), d_0)$  is complete. As a consequence,  $||f||_0 = \sup_{0 \le x \le 1} |f(x)|, (C([0,1]), ||f_0||)$  is a Banach space.

Proof. Let  $\{f_n\}$  be a Cauchy sequence,  $\forall \epsilon > 0, \exists N > 0$ , s.t.  $d_0(f_n, f_m) = \sup_{0 \le x \le 1} |f_n(x) - f_m(x)| < \epsilon$ . Then for any fixed  $x \in [0,1]$ , the sequence (of scalars)  $\{f_n(x)\}$  is a Cauchy sequence in R. It follows that there exists  $f_0(x)$  s.t.  $f_n(x) \to f_0(x)$  (use Completeness of  $\mathbb{R}$ ). Since  $|f_n(x) - f_m(x)| < \epsilon$ . letting  $m \to \infty$  we get  $|f_n(x) - f_0(x)| \le \epsilon, \forall n > N, \forall x \in X$ . So the sequence of functions  $\{f_n(x)\}$  converges uniformly to  $f_0(x)$ , because  $\forall x \in X$ . By results in mathmatical analysis,  $f_0$  is continuous and  $f_n \to f_0(\sup_{0 \le x \le 1} |f_n(x) - f_0(x)| < \epsilon, \forall n > N)$  in  $(C([0,1]), d_0)$  (Finally, since each  $f_n$  is continuous and the uniform limit of continuous functions is continuous,  $f \in C([0,1])$ . We have thus found a limit  $f \in C([0,1])$  of the Cauchy sequence  $\{f_n\}$  in the metric  $d_0$ . This shows  $(C([0,1]), d_0)$  is complete. See the proof in appendix)

3.

$$d_1(f,g) = \int_0^1 |f(x) - g(x)| dx$$

$$f_n(x) = \begin{cases} 0, & x < \frac{1}{2} - \frac{1}{n}, \\ \frac{1}{2} + \frac{n}{2}(x - \frac{1}{2}), & \frac{1}{2} - \frac{1}{n} \le x \le \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{n} \\ 1, & x > \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{n} \end{cases}$$

$$f_0(x) = \begin{cases} 0, & x \le \frac{1}{2} \\ 1, & x \ge \frac{1}{2} \end{cases}$$

 $f_n$  is actually a Cauchy sequence in  $(X,d_1)$ , since  $d_1(f_n,f_m) \leq d_1(f_n,f_0) + d_1(f_0,f_m) \leq \frac{1}{2n} + \frac{1}{2m}$ . Conclusion:  $(C([0,1]),d_1)$  is NOT complete.

**Remark.**  $C([0,1]) \subset L^1([0,1])$  and we will see  $(L^1,d_1)$  is complete.

In general, for any incomplete metric space (X,d), it is possible to construct a complete metric space  $(\overline{X},\overline{d})$  so that X is dense(we will define this next time) in  $\overline{X}$  and  $\overline{d}|_X = d$ . The procedure is the same as  $\mathbb{Q} \to \mathbb{R}$ . See HW next time.

4.  $X = l_1 = \mathbf{x} = (a_1, a_2, .....) \mid \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} |a_i| < \infty$ .  $\|\mathbf{x}\| = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} |a_i|$ . Then  $(X, \|\cdot\|)$  is a Banach space.

Proof.

• X is a vector space because for  $\mathbf{x} = (a_1, a_2, a_3, ...), \mathbf{y} = (b_1, b_2, b_3, ...),$ 

$$x + y \in X : \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} a_i + b_i \le \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} |a_i| + \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} |b_i| < \infty$$

$$\alpha x \in X : \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \alpha a_i = |\alpha| \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} |a_i| < \infty$$

The axioms hold in an obvious way.

- $\|\cdot\|$  is norm since
  - $\|x + y\| \le \|x\| + \|y\|$
  - $\|\alpha x\| = \alpha \|x\|$
  - if  $x \neq 0$ , then  $\exists a_i \neq 0$ . So  $||x|| = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} |a_i| > 0$
- Completeness: Let  $\mathbf{x}^j = (a_i^j)$  be a Cauchy sequence in  $l^1$ , i.e.  $\forall \epsilon > 0, \exists N \text{ s.t. } \forall i, k \geq N, \|\mathbf{x}^j \mathbf{x}^k\| = \sum_l |a_l^j a_l^k| < \epsilon$ . So  $\forall l$  are fixed,  $\forall j, k > N, |a_l^j a_l^k| < \epsilon$

 $\Rightarrow \forall l$  are fixed,  $\{a_l^j\}$  is a Cauchy sequence in  $\mathbb{R}$ 

$$\Rightarrow \exists a_l^0 \in \mathbb{R} \text{ s.t. } a_l^j \xrightarrow{j \to \infty} a_l^0.$$

We want to show that  $x_0 = (a_l^0) \in l^1$ , and  $x^j \to x^0$  in (X, d) with d(x, y) = ||x - y||, To prove this, we choose M large so that  $\sum_{i=M}^{\infty} |a_i^N| < \epsilon$  Then for j > N, we have

$$\sum_{i=M}^{\infty} |a_i^j| \leq \sum_{i=M}^{\infty} |a_i^j - a_i^N| + \sum_{i=M}^{\infty} < 2 * \epsilon$$

letting  $j \to \infty$ , we get  $\sum_{i=M}^{\infty} a_i^0 < 2\epsilon$ . so  $x^0 \in l^1$ . Moreover, choose j > N large enough, we can get

$$\sum_{i=1}^{M-1} |a_i^j - a_j^0| < \epsilon, \sum_{i=M}^{\infty} |a_i^j| < 2\epsilon, \sum_{i=M}^{M-1} |a_i^0| < 2\epsilon$$

$$\Rightarrow \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} |a_i^j - a_i^0| \le \sum_{i=1}^{M} |a_i^j - a_i^0| + \sum_{i=M}^{\infty} a_i^0 < 5\epsilon.$$

So  $x^j \to x^0$  in  $(l^1, d)$ .