

A. Cauchy Sequences

Definition. A sequence $(x_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$, with $x_n \in X \forall n \in \mathbb{N}$ is called d -Cauchy iff $\forall \varepsilon > 0, \exists n(\varepsilon): \forall \eta, \mu \geq n(\varepsilon), d(x_\eta, x_\mu) < \varepsilon$.

Remark: the previous is essentially a notion of asymptotic concentration. Obviously, the final part of the definition is equivalent to that $x_\eta \in O_d(x_\mu, \varepsilon), \forall \eta, \mu \geq n^*(\varepsilon)$ and also equivalent to that $x_\mu \in O_d(x_\eta, \varepsilon), \forall \eta, \mu \geq n^*(\varepsilon)$.

Example. $X = \mathbb{R}, d(x, y) = |x - y|, x_n = \frac{1}{n+1} \forall n \in \mathbb{N}$. For $\varepsilon > 0$, consider the inequality $(*) \left| \frac{1}{n+1} - \frac{1}{\mu+1} \right| < \varepsilon$. Let $n^* = \max(\mu, n)$, $n^\# = \min(\mu, n)$. Then $\exists k \in \mathbb{N}: n^* = n^\# + k$ and $(*) \Leftrightarrow \frac{1}{n^\# + k} - \frac{1}{n^\#} < \varepsilon \Leftrightarrow \frac{1}{n^\# + k} - \frac{1}{n^\#} < \varepsilon \Leftrightarrow \frac{1}{n^\# + k} - \frac{1}{n^\#} < \varepsilon \Leftrightarrow \frac{1}{n^\# + k} - \frac{1}{n^\#} < \varepsilon \Leftrightarrow \frac{1}{n^\# + k} - \frac{1}{n^\#} < \varepsilon \Leftrightarrow \frac{1}{n^\# + k} - \frac{1}{n^\#} < \varepsilon \Leftrightarrow \frac{1}{n^\# + k} - \frac{1}{n^\#} < \varepsilon$ and choose $n(\varepsilon)$ as the smallest natural greater than or equal to $\frac{1}{\varepsilon} - 1$. Then for any $n, \mu \geq n(\varepsilon)$ the final inequality is valid hence also $(*)$. Thus $(\frac{1}{n+1})_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ is d -Cauchy. \square

Example. $X = \mathbb{N}^*, d^*(n, \mu) := \left| \frac{1}{n} - \frac{1}{\mu} \right|$ (show that it is a metric). $x_n = n, \forall n \in \mathbb{N}^*$. Using the derivation in the previous example we have that $(n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}^*}$ is d^* -Cauchy.

Counter-Example. $X = \mathbb{N}, d(n, \mu) = |n - \mu|, x_n = n \forall n \in \mathbb{N}$. Suppose that $(n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ is d -Cauchy. Then for $\varepsilon = 1/2, \exists n(1/2):$ if $n \geq n(1/2), |x_n - x_{n+1}| < 1/2 \Leftrightarrow 1 < 1/2$. Contradiction. \square

The previous two examples imply that the notion depends on the metric.

Lemma. If $(x_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ is d -convergent then it is d -Cauchy.

Proof. Let $x = d\text{-}\lim(x_n)$. For $\varepsilon > 0$, $\exists n^*(\varepsilon/2) : d(x, x_n) < \varepsilon/2 \ \forall n \geq n^*(\varepsilon/2)$. Then if $n, m \geq n^*(\varepsilon/2)$, $d(x_n, x_m) \leq d(x, x_n) + d(x, x_m) < \varepsilon/2 + \varepsilon/2 = \varepsilon$. Set $n(\varepsilon) := n^*(\varepsilon/2)$. \square

The converse does not hold as the following example implies.

Example. $X = (0, 1]$, $d(x, y) = |x - y|$, $x_n = \frac{1}{n+1}$, $\forall n \in \mathbb{N}$. Using the derivation of the first example we can establish that $(x_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ is d -Cauchy. But $(x_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ is d -divergent (why?). \square

Cauchy Comparison

Lemma. Suppose that $\exists c > 0 : d_1 \leq c d_2$ (as functions). Then if (x_n) is d_2 -Cauchy it is also d_1 -Cauchy.

Proof. [Exercise]

Corollary. If $\exists c_1, c_2 > 0 : c_1 d_2 \leq d \leq c_2 d_2$ as functions, then $(x_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ is d_2 -Cauchy iff it is d_1 -Cauchy.

Remark. The previous condition also implies that $\tau_{d_1} = \tau_{d_2}$ as we have already seen. However, it is possible to construct examples for which $\tau_{d_1} = \tau_{d_2}$ (yet the previous condition does not hold) and sequences which are d_1 -Cauchy but not d_2 -Cauchy, something that implies that "Cauchy-ness" is not a topological notion. \square

B. Complete Metric Spaces

Definition. (X, d) is called complete iff every d -Cauchy sequence d -converges inside X .

Example. It is possible to prove that (\mathbb{R}, d) where $d(x, y) = |x - y|$ is complete. The set of irrational numbers is comprised by every possible non-rational limit of d -Cauchy rational Cauchy sequences that do not have rational d -limits. \square

Counter-Example. When $X = (0, 1]$ and d as above is an example of an incomplete metric space as a previous example shows.

Remark. It is possible to prove that every (X, d) admits a completion, loosely, there exists some (\hat{X}, \hat{d}) such that the two spaces have some "tight topological relation".

Example. (X, d_g) is complete. This is due to the fact that $(x_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}, x_n \in X, \forall n \in \mathbb{N}$ is Cauchy iff it is eventually constant, i.e. $\exists n^* : x_n = x \forall n \geq n^*$. Obviously such a sequence is d_g -Cauchy (why?). Conversely if a sequence $(y_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}, y_n \in X, \forall n \in \mathbb{N}$, then for $\varepsilon \leq 1$ $\exists n(\varepsilon) : d_g(x_n, x_m) < \varepsilon, \forall n, m \geq n(\varepsilon)$, but this implies that $x_n = x_m \forall n, m \geq n(\varepsilon)$. Hence $(y_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ is eventually constant. Hence (X, d_g) is complete. \square

Completeness of metric subspaces

Remember that $\emptyset \neq A \subseteq X$ is a metric subspace of (X, d) with d restricted to $A \times A$.

Lemma. If (X, d) is complete then A (as a metric subspace) is complete iff it is closed.

Proof. (\Rightarrow) Suppose that $(x_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}, x_n \in A, \forall n \in \mathbb{N}$ is d^* -Cauchy (d^* is the restriction of d on $A \times A$). Then $(x_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ is d -Cauchy since $\forall x, y \in A, d^*(x, y) = d(x, y)$ and therefore it d -converges to

some $x \in X$ since (X, d) is complete. Since A is closed then $x \in A$.

(4) Suppose that $(x_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ is d^* -Cauchy. Then since (A, d^*) is complete it d^* -converges inside A . \square

Completeness and comparison of metrics

Lemma. Suppose that for $c_1, c_2 > 0$, $c_1 d_1 \leq d_2 \leq c_2 d_1$ (as functions) Then (X, d_1) is complete, iff (X, d_2) is complete.

Proof. Obvious from the corollary above. \square

Completeness and finite products

Lemma. Suppose that I is a finite index set and (X_i, d_i) are metric spaces. Then (X, d_I) is d_I -complete iff (X_i, d_i) is complete $\forall i \in I$, $\forall I = \max, \prod, \prod_{||}$.

Proof. (Exercise!)

Corollary. (\mathbb{R}^k, d_I) is d_I -complete, $\forall I = \max, \prod, \prod_{||}$.

Proof. (Exercise!)

Completeness and functions spaces

Lemma. Suppose that (E, d_E) is complete and $Y \neq \emptyset$. Then $(B(Y, E), d_{\text{sup}})$ is complete.

Proof. Consider $(f_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$, $f_n \in B(Y, E)$, $\forall n \in \mathbb{N}$ is d_{sup} -Cauchy. For any $x \in Y$, the E valued sequence $(f_n(x))_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ is d_E -Cauchy since, for $\varepsilon > 0$

$$\exists n(x): \sup_{x \in Y} d_E(f_n(x), f_u(x)) < \varepsilon, \forall n, u \geq n(x)$$

$$\text{and } d_E(f_n(x), f_u(x)) \leq \sup_{x \in Y} d_E(f_n(x), f_u(x)).$$

Since (E, d_E) is complete $f_n(x)$ d_E -converges to some $e_x \in E$. This holds for any $x \in Y$, and thereby we can define

$f: Y \rightarrow E$ by $f(x) := e_x$. If $f \in B(Y, E)$ and $d_{\text{sup}}(f_n, f) \rightarrow 0$ then we would have proven what is needed.

a. $d_{\text{sup}}(f_n, f) \rightarrow 0$.

We have that $d_{\text{sup}}(f_n, f) := \sup_{x \in Y} d_E(f_n(x), f(x)) \leq$

$$\sup_{x \in Y} d_E(f_n(x), \lim_{u \rightarrow \infty} f_u(x)) = \sup_{x \in Y} d_E \lim_{u \rightarrow \infty} d_E(f_n(x), f_u(x))$$

continuity of d_E

$$\leq \sup_{x \in Y} \sup_{u \geq n} \sup_{x \in Y} d_E(f_n(x), f_u(x)) = \sup_{u \geq n} \sup_{x \in Y} d_E(f_n(x), f_u(x))$$

$= \sup_{u \geq n} d_{\text{sup}}(f_n, f_u)$. Since by assumption $(f_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$

is d_{sup} -Cauchy, for arbitrary $\varepsilon > 0$, $\exists n(\varepsilon) : d_{\text{sup}}(f_n, f_u) < \varepsilon$

$\forall n, u \geq n(\varepsilon) \Rightarrow \sup_{u \geq n} d_{\text{sup}}(f_n, f_u) < \varepsilon \forall n \geq n(\varepsilon)$. Thereby

$d_{\text{sup}}(f_n, f) < \varepsilon \forall n > n(\varepsilon)$, establishing the needed convergence.

b. $f \in B(X, E)$

We have that $\sup_{x, y} d_E(f(x), f(y)) \leq \sup_x d_E(f(x), f(x))$

$$+ \sup_{y \in Y} d_E(f_n(y), f(y)) + \sup_{x, y \in Y} d_E(f_n(x), f_n(y)) =$$

$$2 d_{\text{sup}}(f_n, f)$$

A

$$+ \sup_{x, y \in Y} d_E(f_n(x), f_n(y))$$

B

A converges to zero as $n \rightarrow \infty$ by a., hence for $\varepsilon > 0$
 $\exists n(\varepsilon): d_{\text{sup}}(f_n, f) < \varepsilon \forall n \geq n(\varepsilon)$, hence $\delta := \max_{n < n(\varepsilon)} (\varepsilon, d_{\text{sup}}(f_n, f))$

$< \infty$. Thereby $A < \delta$. For B observe that since $(f_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$
is d_{sup} -convergent due to the previous argument it must
also be d -sup bounded since $f_n \in O_{d_{\text{sup}}}(f, \delta) \forall n \in \mathbb{N}$ which
is equivalent (why?) to that $B < \infty$. Hence $A + B < \infty$
and thereby $\sup_{x, y \in X} d_E(f(x), f(y)) < \infty$. \square

Corollary. $(B(X, \mathbb{R}), d_{\text{sup}})$ is complete.

Proof. Combine the previous lemma with that \mathbb{R} with the usual
metric is complete.

Lemma. Suppose that (Y, d_Y) is totally bounded and complete.

Let (E, d_E) be complete and consider $C(Y, E) = \{f: Y \rightarrow E, f \text{ is } d_E/d_Y\text{-continuous}\}$. Then $(C(Y, E), d_{\text{sup}})$ is complete.

Proof. It suffices (why?) that $C(Y, E)$ is a d_{sup} -closed
subset of $B(Y, E)$. Show it!

[The notes are in a state of perpetual correction. They do not substitute the
lectures. Please report any typos to stelios@aueb.gr or the course's e-class.]