

## CHAPTER-3

### Complete Metric Spaces.

#### Definition:

A sequence  $\{x_n\}$  in a metric space  $(X, d)$  is said to converge to an element  $u \in X$  if  $d(x_n, u) \rightarrow 0$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ .

In other words, a sequence  $\{x_n\}$  is said to converge to an element  $u \in X$  if for a given  $\epsilon > 0$ ,  $\exists$  a positive integer  $n_0$  such that

$$d(x_n, u) < \epsilon, \forall n > n_0, \text{ i.e.,}$$

$$x_n \in S_\epsilon(u), \forall n > n_0.$$

We then write  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} x_n = u$

Theorem: In a metric space a convergent sequence cannot have distinct limits.

proof: Let  $\{x_n\}$  be a convergent sequence in a metric space  $(X, d)$ . If possible, let  $\{x_n\}$  has two distinct limits  $x$  and  $y$ . Then due to  $T_2$  property of  $(X, d) \exists$  an  $\epsilon_0 > 0$  such that  $S_{\epsilon_0}(x) \cap S_{\epsilon_0}(y) = \emptyset$

Since  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} x_n = x$  and  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} x_n = y \exists$  two positive integer  $n_1$  and  $n_2$  such that

$$x_n \in S_{\epsilon_0}(x), \forall n > n_1, \text{ and}$$

$$x_n \in S_{\epsilon_0}(y), \forall n > n_2.$$

Let  $n_0 = \max\{n_1, n_2\}$ . Then  $x_n \in S_{\epsilon_0}(x) \cap S_{\epsilon_0}(y), \forall n > n_0$  which contradicts the fact that  $S_{\epsilon_0}(x) \cap S_{\epsilon_0}(y) = \emptyset$ .

Therefore, a convergent sequence in a metric space cannot have ~~two~~ distinct limits.

Definition: A sequence  $\{x_n\}$  in a metric space  $(X, d)$  is called Cauchy sequence if for a preassigned  $\epsilon > 0 \exists$  a positive integer  $n_0$  such that  $d(x_m, x_n) < \epsilon, \forall m, n > n_0$ .

Theorem: Every Convergent sequence in a metric space is a Cauchy sequence but not Conversely.

proof: Let  $\{x_n\}$  be a convergent sequence in a metric space  $(X, d)$  with  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} x_n = l$ . Let  $\epsilon > 0$  be preassigned. Then  $\exists$  a positive integer  $n_0$  such that  $d(x_n, l) < \epsilon/2, \forall n > n_0$ .

So, for  $m, n > n_0$ ; we have

$$d(x_m, x_n) \leq d(x_m, l) + d(l, x_n) < \epsilon/2 + \epsilon/2 = \epsilon.$$

Therefore  $\{x_n\}$  is a Cauchy sequence.

However the converse of this theorem is not true. For example, let us consider  $X = (0, 1)$  as a metric space with respect to usual metric  $d$ . Then  $\{x_n\} = \{\frac{1}{n}\}, n \geq 1$  is a Cauchy sequence in  $(X, d)$  because  $d(x_m, x_n) = |\frac{1}{m} - \frac{1}{n}| \leq \frac{1}{m} + \frac{1}{n} \rightarrow 0$  as  $m, n \rightarrow \infty$ . But  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} x_n = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{n} = 0 \notin X$ . Therefore,  $\{\frac{1}{n}\}, n \geq 1$  is a Cauchy sequence in  $(X, d)$  without being convergent in  $(X, d)$ .

Definition: A metric space  $(X, d)$  is said to be complete if every Cauchy sequence in  $(X, d)$  is a convergent sequence in  $(X, d)$  and it is said to be incomplete if  $\exists$  at least one Cauchy sequence in  $(X, d)$  which is not convergent in  $(X, d)$ .

Example: The Euclidean  $n$ -space  $\mathbb{R}^n$  is a complete metric space w.r.t to the usual metric on  $\mathbb{R}^n$ .

Sol<sup>n</sup>: Let  $\{x_r\}$  be a Cauchy sequence in  $\mathbb{R}^n$ , where

$$x_r = (\xi_1^{(r)}, \xi_2^{(r)}, \dots, \xi_i^{(r)}, \dots, \xi_n^{(r)})$$

Let  $d$  be the usual metric on  $\mathbb{R}^n$ . Since  $\{x_r\}$  is a Cauchy sequence in  $(\mathbb{R}^n, d)$   $d(x_r, x_s) \rightarrow 0$  as  $r, s \rightarrow \infty$ , i.e;

$$\sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^n (\xi_i^{(r)} - \xi_i^{(s)})^2} \rightarrow 0 \text{ as } r, s \rightarrow \infty;$$

$$\sum_{i=1}^n (\xi_i^{(r)} - \xi_i^{(s)})^2 \rightarrow 0 \text{ as } r, s \rightarrow \infty.$$

$$(\xi_i^{(r)} - \xi_i^{(s)})^2 \rightarrow 0 \text{ as } r, s \rightarrow \infty \text{ for each } i=1, 2, \dots, n.$$

$$\text{So, } |\xi_i^{(r)} - \xi_i^{(s)}| \rightarrow 0 \text{ as } r, s \rightarrow \infty \text{ for each } i=1, 2, \dots, n.$$

This shows that  $\{\xi_i^{(r)}\}$  is a Cauchy sequence for each  $i=1, 2, \dots, n$ .

Therefore by a Cauchy general principle of Convergence  $\{\xi_i^{(r)}\}$  converges for each  $i=1, 2, \dots, n$ .

$$\text{Let } \lim_{r \rightarrow \infty} \xi_i^{(r)} = \xi_i^{(0)} \text{ for } i=1, 2, \dots, n.$$

$$\text{Let } x_0 = (\xi_1^{(0)}, \xi_2^{(0)}, \dots, \xi_n^{(0)}). \text{ Then } x_0 \in \mathbb{R}^n.$$

$$\text{Since, } d(x_r, x_s) \rightarrow 0 \text{ as } r, s \rightarrow \infty$$

taking limit as  $s \rightarrow \infty$  and keeping  $r$  fixed, we have  $d(x_r, x_0) \rightarrow 0$  as  $r \rightarrow \infty$ , i.e;

$$\lim_{r \rightarrow \infty} x_r = x_0 \in \mathbb{R}^n.$$

Thus Every Cauchy sequence in  $(\mathbb{R}^n, d)$  is a Convergent sequence and so  $(\mathbb{R}^n, d)$  is a complete metric space.

Theorem: A Cauchy sequence in a metric space which

$$d(x_n, x) < \epsilon/2, \forall n > n_2, (\because n_n > n)$$

Let  $m = \max\{n_1, n_2\}$ . Then for all  $n > m$ , we have

$$\begin{aligned} d(x_n, x) &\leq d(x_n, x_m) + d(x_m, x) \\ &< \epsilon/2 + \epsilon/2 \\ &= \epsilon \end{aligned}$$

Thus  $\{x_n\}$  is convergent and this proves the theorem.

Theorem: Let  $(X, d)$  be a metric space and  $E$  be a subset of  $X$ . Then  $\text{diam}(E) = \text{diam}(\bar{E})$

proof: Since  $E \subseteq \bar{E}$ , we have

$$\sup_{x, y \in E} d(x, y) \leq \sup_{u, v \in \bar{E}} d(u, v)$$

$$\text{i.e., } \text{diam}(E) \leq \text{diam}(\bar{E}) \quad \dots (1)$$

In case  $\text{diam}(E) = \infty$ ,  $\text{diam}(\bar{E}) = \infty$  and so

$$\text{diam}(E) = \text{diam}(\bar{E})$$

So suppose that  $\text{diam}(E) < \infty$ .

Let  $a', b' \in \bar{E}$  and  $\epsilon > 0$  be given. Then  $\exists$  two points  $a, b \in E$  such that  $d(a, a') < \epsilon/2$  and  $d(b, b') < \epsilon/2$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{now, } d(a', b') &\leq d(a', a) + d(a, b) + d(b, b') \\ &\leq d(a', a) + d(a, b) + d(b, b') \\ &< \epsilon/2 + \epsilon/2 + d(a, b) \\ &= \epsilon + d(a, b) \\ &\leq \epsilon + \text{diam}(E) \end{aligned}$$

Since the right side of the above inequality is independent of the case of  $a', b'$  therefore

$$\sup_{a', b' \in \bar{E}} d(a', b') \leq \epsilon + \text{diam}(E)$$

$$\text{i.e., } \text{diam}(\bar{E}) \leq \epsilon + \text{diam}(E)$$

Since  $\epsilon > 0$  is arbitrary,  $\text{diam}(\bar{E}) \leq \text{diam}(E) \quad \dots (2)$

Thus by (1) & (2), we have

$$\text{diam}(E) = \text{diam}(\bar{E})$$

Theorem: (Cantor's Intersection theorem).

A necessary and sufficient condition that a metric space  $(X, d)$  to be complete is that for every decreasing sequence  $\{F_n: n \in \mathbb{N}\}$  of non-empty closed subsets with  $\delta(F_n) \rightarrow 0$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ , there is one and only one point in  $\bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} F_n$ .

proof: Let  $(X, d)$  be a complete metric space and  $\{F_n: n \in \mathbb{N}\}$  be a decreasing sequence of non-empty closed subsets in  $(X, d)$  with  $\delta(F_n) \rightarrow 0$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ .

Let  $a_n \in F_n$ , then  $a_{n+p} \in F_{n+p} \subseteq F_n$ . So,  $a_n, a_{n+p} \in F_n$  and therefore  $d(a_n, a_{n+p}) \leq \delta(F_n) \rightarrow 0$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ . This shows that  $\{a_n\}$  is a Cauchy sequence in  $(X, d)$ . Since  $(X, d)$  is complete  $\{a_n\}$  is convergent. Hence there exist a point  $u \in X$  such that  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = u$ . Let  $n$  be a fixed positive integer. Then  $a_{n+p} \in F_n$  for  $p=1, 2, \dots, n$ .

Taking limit as  $p \rightarrow \infty$ , we have

$\lim_{p \rightarrow \infty} a_{n+p} = u \in F_n$ , since  $F_n$  is closed. in  $(X, d)$ . Let now  $n$  be free. Then  $u \in F_n$  for  $n=1, 2, 3, \dots$ .  
i.e.,  $u \in \bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} F_n$ .

If possible let  $\exists v \in X$  such that  $v \in \bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} F_n$ . Then  $d(u, v) \leq \delta(F_n) \rightarrow 0$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ . Thus,  $d(u, v) = 0$ , i.e.,  $u = v$ . Hence  $\bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} F_n$  is a singleton.

Conversely, let the condition of the theorem be satisfied in  $(X, d)$ . Let  $\{a_n\}$  be a Cauchy sequence in  $(X, d)$ . put  $H_n = \{a_n, a_{n+1}, \dots\}$ ,  $n=1, 2, \dots$

Then  $H_{n+1} \subseteq H_n$  for  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  and so  $\bar{H}_{n+1} \subseteq \bar{H}_n$  for  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ . Since  $\{a_n\}$  is a Cauchy sequence  $d(a_n, a_m) \rightarrow 0$  as  $n, m \rightarrow \infty$ . Therefore  $\delta(H_n) \rightarrow 0$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ .

But  $\delta(H_n) = \delta(\bar{H}_n)$  for  $n=1, 2, 3, \dots$  and so  $\delta(\bar{H}_n) \rightarrow 0$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ . Therefore  $\{\bar{H}_n: n \in \mathbb{N}\}$  is a decreasing sequence of non-empty closed subset in  $(X, d)$  with  $\delta(\bar{H}_n) \rightarrow 0$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ . Therefore, by hypothesis  $\bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} \bar{H}_n$  is a singleton.

say  $\{u\}$ . Now,  $\{a_n, a_{n+1}, \dots\} = H_n \subseteq \bar{H}_n$  and  $u \in \bar{H}_n$ . Therefore  $d(a_n, u) \leq \delta(\bar{H}_n) \rightarrow 0$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ .

This shows that  $\{f_n\}$  converges to  $u \in X$ .  
 Hence every Cauchy sequence in  $(X, d)$  is convergent  
 and consequently  $(X, d)$  is a complete metric space.  
 This completes the proof of the theorem.

Definition: A non empty subset  $E$  of a metric space  $(X, d)$  is  
 said to be everywhere dense or simply dense in  $(X, d)$   
 if  $\bar{E} = X$

Clearly, the set  $Q$  of all rational numbers in the  
 space  $R$  of real numbers ~~is a metric~~ w.r. to usual metric  
 is everywhere dense.

Definition: A subset  $E$  of a metric space  $(X, d)$  is said to  
 be nowhere dense in  $(X, d)$  if  $\bar{E}$  has got no interior.

Clearly, the set of all natural number is nowhere  
 dense in the space  $R$  of real numbers with respect to  
 usual metric.

Ex. 8.11: Example: The space  $C[a, b]$  of all real valued continuous  
 function over the closed interval  $[a, b]$  is a complete metric  
 space with respect to the sup metric ' $\rho$ ' defined by  

$$\rho(f, g) = \sup_{a \leq t \leq b} |f(t) - g(t)|, \quad f, g \in C[a, b].$$

Solution: First we show that the convergence of a sequence  
 $\{f_n\}$  of  $C[a, b]$  is the same as the uniform convergence of  $\{f_n\}$   
 to  $f_0$ . Let  $(f_n, f_0) \rightarrow 0$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ .

Then  $\sup_{a \leq t \leq b} |f_n(t) - f_0(t)| \rightarrow 0$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$  and so  $|f_n(t) - f_0(t)| \leq$

$\sup_{a \leq t \leq b} |f_n(t) - f_0(t)| \rightarrow 0$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$  for  $a \leq t \leq b$ . This shows  
 that  $\{f_n\}$  converges uniformly to  $f_0$  in  $[a, b]$ . The converse also  
 true by proceeding the steps backward.

Let  $\{f_n\}$  be a Cauchy sequence in  $C[a, b]$ . Then  
 $\rho(f_n, f_m) \rightarrow 0$  as  $n, m \rightarrow \infty$  ---- (1)

So,  $\sup_{a \leq t \leq b} |f_n(t) - f_m(t)| \rightarrow 0$  as  $n, m \rightarrow \infty$  for  $a \leq t \leq b$ .

Then  $|f_n(t) - f_m(t)| \rightarrow 0$  as  $n, m \rightarrow \infty$  for each  $t$  in  $[a, b]$ .

This shows that for a fixed  $t$  in  $[a, b]$ ,  $\{f_n(t)\}$  is a  
 Cauchy sequence of real numbers and therefore by Cauchy  
 general principle of convergence  $\{f_n(t)\}$  converges.

Let  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} f_n(x) = f_0(x)$ ,  $a \leq x \leq b$

Let  $n$  be fixed keeping  $n$  unchanged and passing to  $m \rightarrow \infty$  from (1), we have

$$\rho(f_n, f_0) \rightarrow 0 \text{ as } n \rightarrow \infty.$$

Therefore  $\{f_n\}$  converges uniformly to  $f_0$  in  $[a, b]$ .

Since  $f_n \rightarrow f_0$  uniformly as  $n \rightarrow \infty$  and each  $f_n$  is continuous, therefore by Weierstrass's theorem  $f_0$  is continuous in  $[a, b]$ , i.e.,  $f_0 \in C[a, b]$ . Thus  $\{f_n\}$  converges to  $f_0 \in C[a, b]$ .

Therefore  $C[a, b]$  is a complete metric space.