

# Problem Set 4 Solutions, 18.100C, Fall 2012

October 11, 2012

## 1

Let  $X$  be a complete metric space with metric  $d$ , and let  $f : X \rightarrow X$  be a contraction, meaning that there exists  $\lambda < 1$  such that  $d(f(x), f(y)) \leq \lambda d(x, y)$  for all  $x, y \in X$ . Then there is a unique point  $x_0 \in X$  such that  $f(x_0) = x_0$ .

Proof:

Existence: Let  $x_1 \in X$  be arbitrary and inductively let  $x_{n+1} = f(x_n)$  for  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ . We will prove that  $(x_n)$  is a Cauchy sequence. Suppose inductively that

$$d(x_{r+1}, x_r) \leq \lambda^{r-1} d(x_2, x_1).$$

Then

$$d(x_{r+2}, x_{r+1}) = d(f(x_{r+1}), f(x_r)) \leq \lambda d(x_{r+1}, x_r) \leq \lambda^r d(x_2, x_1)$$

so that the above equation holds for all  $r \in \mathbb{N}$ . For  $m > n$ , by repeated use of the triangle inequality

$$d(x_m, x_n) \leq d(x_m, x_{m-1}) + d(x_{m-1}, x_{m-2}) + \dots + d(x_{n+1}, x_n).$$

Hence,

$$d(x_m, x_n) \leq (\lambda^{m-2} + \dots + \lambda^{n-1}) d(x_2, x_1) = \frac{\lambda^{n-1}(1 - \lambda^{m-n})}{1 - \lambda} d(x_2, x_1) \leq \frac{\lambda^{n-1}}{1 - \lambda} d(x_2, x_1).$$

Let  $\epsilon > 0$ . By theorem 3.20(e) and 3.3(b), there exists an  $N \in \mathbb{N}$  such that

$$n \geq N \implies \lambda^{n-1} d(x_2, x_1) < \epsilon(1 - \lambda)$$

and so

$$m, n \geq N \implies d(x_m, x_n) < \epsilon,$$

which shows  $(x_n)$  is Cauchy. Since  $X$  is complete  $(x_n)$  converges to some  $x_0 \in X$ . Given  $\epsilon > 0$  there exists  $N \in \mathbb{N}$  such that

$$n \geq N \implies d(x_0, x_n) < \frac{\epsilon}{2}$$

and so

$$d(x_0, f(x_0)) \leq d(x_0, x_{N+1}) + d(f(x_N), f(x_0)) \leq d(x_0, x_{N+1}) + \lambda d(x_N, x_0) < \epsilon.$$

Since  $\epsilon$  was arbitrary,  $d(x_0, f(x_0)) = 0$  giving  $x_0 = f(x_0)$ , as required.

Uniqueness: If  $f(x_0) = x_0$  and  $f(y_0) = y_0$  then

$$\begin{aligned} d(x_0, y_0) &= d(f(x_0), f(y_0)) \leq \lambda d(x_0, y_0) \implies (1 - \lambda)d(x_0, y_0) \leq \\ &0 \implies d(x_0, y_0) \leq 0. \end{aligned}$$

Thus  $d(x_0, y_0) = 0$  giving  $x_0 = y_0$ .

## 2

We have a convergent sequence  $x_k \rightarrow x$ , and a bijective function  $g : \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$ , with an inverse function  $g^{-1}$ , and we wish to show that  $x'_k$  also converges to  $x$ . Pick  $\epsilon > 0$ ; we will find  $N'$  such that  $k' > N' \implies d(x, x_{k'}) < \epsilon$

Since  $x_k \rightarrow x$ , there exists  $N \in \mathbb{N}$  such that  $k > N \implies d(x, x_k) < \epsilon$ . Now, pick an  $N' \in \mathbb{N}$  greater than  $\max\{g^{-1}(1), g^{-1}(2) \dots g^{-1}(N)\}$ , which is always possible since this is a finite set. Let  $k' > N'$ , and consider  $x'_{k'} = x_{g(k')}$ . Let  $k = g(k')$ ; then we must have  $k > N$ . If not, then  $k \leq N$  and by the definition of  $N'$  we have  $k' = g^{-1}(k) < N' < k'$ , a contradiction. So we have  $d(x, x'_{k'}) = d(x, x_{g(k)}) < \epsilon$ . So this  $N'$  works, and we are done.

This statement is no longer true if  $g$  is not one-to-one. As a counter-example, consider the sequence of real numbers  $x_k = 1/k$ , and the function  $g : \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$  given by  $g(n) = 1$  if  $n$  is odd,  $g(n) = 2$  if  $n$  is even. Then  $x_k \rightarrow 0$ , but  $x'_k$  simply alternates between 1 and 1/2, and hence is not a Cauchy sequence and cannot converge.

### 3

To set notation, we use boldface for vectors in  $\mathbb{R}^n$ , i.e.  $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ , and superscripts with the same letter non-boldfaced for components of that vector, i.e.  $x^j$  is the  $j$ 'th component of  $\mathbf{x}$ ,  $1 \leq j \leq n$ . We use lower subscripts for sequences;  $\{\mathbf{x}_i\}$  will be a sequence in  $\mathbb{R}^n$ , and  $x_i^j$  is the  $j$ 'th component of the  $i$ 'th vector in the sequence.

With that set, we can proceed with the problem. Suppose first that  $\mathbf{x}_i \rightarrow \mathbf{x}$ ; we need to show that  $x_i^j \rightarrow x^j$  as  $i \rightarrow \infty$ . Note first that, for any two vectors  $\mathbf{y}, \mathbf{z} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ , we have  $(y^j - z^j)^2 \leq \sum_{l=1}^n (y^l - z^l)^2$ . Taking the positive square root of both sides, we see that  $|y^j - z^j| \leq \|\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{z}\|$ . Now, take any  $\epsilon > 0$ , and  $N$  sufficiently large that for  $k > N$ ,  $\|\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}_k\| < \epsilon$ . Then by what we just showed  $|x^j - x_k^j| < \epsilon$ , so this  $N$  also works for  $\epsilon$  and the sequence  $\{x_k^j\}$ , so we have  $x_k^j \rightarrow x^j$  as desired.

For the other direction, suppose that  $x_k^j$  converges to some real number  $x^j$  for each  $1 \leq j \leq n$ . Then take the vector  $\mathbf{x}$  whose  $j$ 'th component is  $x^j$ . We will show that  $\mathbf{x}_k \rightarrow \mathbf{x}$ . Fix  $\epsilon > 0$ . Since  $x_k^j \rightarrow x^j$ , we can choose for each  $j$  a natural number  $N^j$  such that for  $k > N^j$ ,  $|x^j - x_k^j| < \epsilon/\sqrt{n}$ ; recall that  $n$  here is the dimension  $\mathbb{R}^n$ . Now take  $N$  bigger than any of the  $N^1, N^2, \dots, N^n$ ; we claim that for  $k > N$ ,  $\|\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}_k\| < \epsilon$ , so that this  $N$  works for this choice of  $\epsilon$ , and we have shown that  $\mathbf{x}_k \rightarrow \mathbf{x}$ . We compute

$$\begin{aligned} \|\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}_k\| &= \sqrt{(x^1 - x_k^1)^2 + (x^2 - x_k^2)^2 + \dots + (x^n - x_k^n)^2} < \sqrt{(\epsilon/\sqrt{n})^2 + \dots + (\epsilon/\sqrt{n})^2} \\ &= \sqrt{n\epsilon^2/n} = \epsilon \end{aligned}$$

Where we used the fact that the square root function is increasing in the second step. This completes the proof.

### 4

Recall that the  $p$ -adic metric is defined as follows: if  $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$ , let  $n$  be the largest power of  $p$  that divides  $a - b$ , i.e.  $p^n | (a - b)$ , but  $p^{n+1} \nmid (a - b)$ . Then  $d(a, b) = 1/p^n$ .

Now we wish to show that the sequence  $x_k = \sum_{i=0}^{k-1} p^i$  is Cauchy. Note that  $p$  does not divide any  $x_k$ ; indeed,  $x_k - 1$  is divisible by  $p$ , and no consecutive numbers are divisible by  $p$ . Consider any pair  $x_n, x_m$ , where without loss of generality  $n > m$ . Then

$$x_n - x_m = \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} p^i - \left( \sum_{i=0}^{m-1} p^i \right) = \sum_{i=m}^{n-1} p^i = p^m \left( \sum_{i=0}^{n-m-1} p^i \right) = p^m x_{n-m}$$

Since  $p$  does not divide  $x_{n-m}$ , this means that the largest power of  $p$  dividing  $x_n - x_m$  is  $m$ . In other words,  $d(x_n, x_m) = 1/p^m$ . This formula shows that  $\{x_k\}$  is Cauchy. Indeed, let  $\epsilon > 0$ . By Rudin 3.20 (e), we can find  $N \in \mathbb{N}$  sufficiently large that  $1/p^N < \epsilon$ . Then if  $n > m > N$ , we have  $d(x_n, x_m) = 1/p^m < 1/p^N < \epsilon$ , and so the sequence is Cauchy.

Now consider the case  $p = 2$ . By the formula for the sum of a geometric series we have

$$x_n = \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} 2^i = \frac{2^n - 1}{2 - 1} = 2^n - 1$$

So  $x_n - (-1) = 2^n$ , and has  $n$  the highest power of 2 dividing it. This says that  $d(x^n, -1) = 1/2^n$ . But since the numbers  $1/2^n \rightarrow 0$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ , this shows that  $x_n \rightarrow 1$ , so the sequence converges.

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