

## Introduction to Metric and Topological Spaces

### *Mathematics Bachelor's Degree - LMD - 3<sup>rd</sup> Semester*

#### Solutions of series 4: Complete metric spaces

##### Exercise 1:

1.  $\mathbb{Q}$  is not complete because it is not closed. We can also see that the sequence  $(1 + \frac{1}{n})^n$  of  $\mathbb{Q}$  is a Cauchy sequence in  $\mathbb{R}$ , and hence in  $\mathbb{Q}$ , but its limit  $e \notin \mathbb{Q}$ .
2.  $\mathbb{C}_{\mathbb{X}}\mathbb{Q}$  is not complete because it is not closed.
3.  $\mathbb{Q} \cap [5, 6]$  is not complete because it is not closed.
4.  $(1, +\infty)$  is not complete because it is not closed.
5. The set  $\mathbb{N}$  is closed in  $\mathbb{R}$  (which is complete), because its complement is an infinite union of open sets and thus is open. This implies that  $\mathbb{N}$  is complete.
6. The set  $[a, b]$  is closed in  $\mathbb{R}$  (which is complete). Therefore it is complete.

##### Exercise 2:

Let  $(x_n)$  be a Cauchy sequence in a discrete metric space  $(\mathbb{X}, \delta)$ . By definition of a Cauchy sequence, we have:

$$\forall \varepsilon > 0, \exists n_0 \in \mathbb{N}, \forall n, m \in \mathbb{N}, n, m \geq n_0 \implies \delta(x_n, x_m) < \varepsilon.$$

In a discrete metric space,  $\delta(x_n, x_m) < \varepsilon$  implies  $x_n = x_m$  whenever  $\varepsilon < 1$ . For instance, if  $\varepsilon = \frac{1}{4}$ , we find  $x_n = x_m$  for all  $n, m \geq n_0$ .

Thus,  $(x_n)$  is constant from  $n_0$  onward, meaning it converges. Therefore, the metric space  $(\mathbb{X}, \delta)$  is complete.

##### Exercise 3:

1. Let  $d_a(x, y) = |x^3 - y^3|$ . Is  $(\mathbb{R}, d_a)$  complete?

Let  $(x_n)$  be a  $d_a$ -Cauchy sequence, so  $d_a(x_n, x_m) = |x_n^3 - x_m^3| \rightarrow 0$  as  $n, m \rightarrow +\infty$ . Thus,  $(x_n^3)$  is a  $d_u$ -Cauchy sequence in  $(\mathbb{R}, d_u)$ , which is complete, implying that  $(x_n^3)$  is convergent in  $(\mathbb{R}, d_u)$ . Therefore, there exists  $y \in \mathbb{R}$  such that  $|x_n^3 - y| \rightarrow 0$  as  $n \rightarrow +\infty$ . Let  $x = y^{1/3}$ , then  $x_n^3 \rightarrow x^3 \in \mathbb{R}$ , i.e.,  $d_a(x_n, x) = |x_n^3 - x^3| = |x_n^3 - y| \rightarrow 0$  as  $n \rightarrow +\infty$ . Thus,  $(x_n)$  is  $d_a$ -convergent, which shows that  $(\mathbb{R}, d_a)$  is a complete space.

2. Let  $d_b(x, y) = |e^x - e^y|$ . Is  $(\mathbb{R}, d_b)$  complete?

Let  $(x_n) = (-n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ . We have  $d_b(x_n, x_m) = |e^{-n} - e^{-m}| \rightarrow 0$  as  $n, m \rightarrow +\infty$ . Thus,  $(x_n)$  is a  $d_b$ -Cauchy sequence. If we assume that  $x_n \rightarrow \ell$  in  $(\mathbb{R}, d_b)$ , then  $e^{-n} \rightarrow e^{-\ell}$  in  $(\mathbb{R}, d_u)$  as  $n \rightarrow +\infty$ . By the uniqueness of limits, we obtain  $e^{-\ell} = 0$ , which is impossible. Therefore,  $(x_n)$  does not converge in  $(\mathbb{R}, d_b)$ , which shows that the space  $(\mathbb{R}, d_b)$  is not complete.

3. Let  $d_c(x, y) = |\tan^{-1}(x) - \tan^{-1}(y)|$ . Is  $(\mathbb{R}, d_c)$  complete?

Let  $(x_n) = (n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ . We have  $\tan^{-1}(n) \rightarrow \frac{\pi}{2}$  as  $n \rightarrow +\infty$  in  $(\mathbb{R}, d_u)$ . Thus,  $(\tan^{-1}(x_n))$  is a  $d_u$ -Cauchy sequence, which implies that  $(x_n)$  is a  $d_c$ -Cauchy sequence. If we assume that  $x_n \rightarrow \ell$  in  $(\mathbb{R}, d_c)$ , then  $\tan^{-1}(n) \rightarrow \tan^{-1}(\ell)$  in  $(\mathbb{R}, d_u)$  as  $n \rightarrow +\infty$ . By the uniqueness of limits, we obtain  $\tan^{-1}(\ell) = \frac{\pi}{2}$  for some  $\ell \in \mathbb{R}$ , which is impossible. Therefore,  $(x_n)$  does not converge in  $(\mathbb{R}, d_c)$ , which shows that the space  $(\mathbb{R}, d_c)$  is not complete.

#### Exercise 4:

$\Rightarrow$ ) Suppose that  $\mathbb{Y}$  is complete, and let  $x \in Cl(\mathbb{Y})$  (the closure of  $\mathbb{Y}$ ). Then, there exists a sequence  $(y_n)$  in  $\mathbb{Y}$  that converges to  $x \in \mathbb{X}$ . Since  $\mathbb{Y}$  is complete, the limit must belong to  $\mathbb{Y}$ . By the uniqueness of the limit, we conclude that  $x \in \mathbb{Y}$ . Therefore,  $\mathbb{Y}$  is closed.

$\Leftarrow$ ) Suppose that  $\mathbb{Y}$  is closed in  $\mathbb{X}$ , where  $\mathbb{X}$  is complete. Let  $(y_n)$  be a Cauchy sequence in  $\mathbb{Y} \subset \mathbb{X}$ . Since  $\mathbb{X}$  is complete, there exists  $x \in \mathbb{X}$  such that  $y_n \rightarrow x$ . Because  $\mathbb{Y}$  is closed, it must contain all its limit points, so  $x \in \mathbb{Y}$ . Consequently,  $(\mathbb{Y}, d_{\mathbb{Y}})$  is complete.

#### Exercise 5:

Let  $\{A_i : i = 1, 2, \dots, n\}$  be a family of complete subsets of  $(\mathbb{X}, d)$ . If  $(x_n)$  is a Cauchy sequence in  $\bigcup_{i=1}^n A_i$ , then there exists  $i_0 \in \{1, 2, \dots, n\}$  and a subsequence  $(x_{n_k}) \subset A_{i_0}$ . Therefore,  $(x_{n_k})$  is a Cauchy sequence in  $A_{i_0}$ , which is complete, implying the existence of an element  $x \in A_{i_0}$  such that  $x_{n_k} \rightarrow x$ . Consequently,  $x_n \rightarrow x \in \bigcup_{i=1}^n A_i$ , showing that  $\bigcup_{i=1}^n A_i$  is complete.

**Exercise 6:**

It suffices to show that  $Cl(f(A)) \subseteq f(A)$ .

Let  $y \in \text{Adh}(f(A))$ . Then, there exists a sequence  $(x_n) \subset A$  such that  $f(x_n) \rightarrow y$ . Therefore,  $f(x_n)$  is a Cauchy sequence in  $\mathbb{Y}$ . By hypothesis, we have  $d_{\mathbb{Y}}(f(x_n), f(x_m)) \geq d_{\mathbb{X}}(x_n, x_m)$  for all  $n, m \in \mathbb{N}$ . Thus,  $(x_n)$  is a Cauchy sequence in  $\mathbb{X}$ , which is complete. Hence, there exists  $x \in \mathbb{X}$  such that  $x_n \rightarrow x$ . Since  $A$  is closed, it follows that  $x \in A$ . Because  $f$  is a continuous function, we deduce that  $f(x_n) \rightarrow f(x)$ . By the uniqueness of the limit, we conclude that  $y = f(x) \in f(A)$ . Thus,  $Cl(f(A)) \subseteq f(A)$ .

**Exercise 7:**

1. Since  $f$  is uniformly continuous, we have

$$\forall \varepsilon > 0, \exists \delta(\varepsilon) > 0 \text{ s.t. } \forall x, y \in \mathbb{X}, d_{\mathbb{X}}(x, y) < \delta \implies d_{\mathbb{Y}}(f(x), f(y)) < \varepsilon. \quad (i)$$

And since  $(x_n)$  is a Cauchy sequence, we have

$$\forall \delta > 0, \exists n_0 \in \mathbb{N} : \forall n, m \in \mathbb{N}, n, m \geq n_0 \implies d_{\mathbb{X}}(x_n, x_m) < \delta. \quad (ii)$$

From (i) and (ii), we deduce that

$$\forall \varepsilon > 0, \exists n_0 \in \mathbb{N}, \forall n, m \in \mathbb{N}, n, m \geq n_0 \implies d_{\mathbb{Y}}(f(x_n), f(x_m)) < \varepsilon,$$

which shows that  $(f(x_n))$  is a Cauchy sequence in  $(\mathbb{Y}, \mathcal{T}_{\mathbb{Y}})$ .

2. Let  $(x_n)$  be a Cauchy sequence in  $(\mathbb{X}, d_{\mathbb{X}})$ . Then, by (1),  $(f(x_n))$  is a Cauchy sequence in  $(\mathbb{Y}, \mathcal{T}_{\mathbb{Y}})$ . By hypothesis,  $\mathbb{Y}$  is complete, so there exists  $y \in \mathbb{Y}$  such that  $f(x_n) \rightarrow y$ , which implies that  $x_n \rightarrow f^{-1}(y) \in \mathbb{X}$ , since  $f^{-1}$  is continuous. Therefore,  $(x_n)$  is a convergent sequence in  $(\mathbb{X}, d_{\mathbb{X}})$ . Consequently,  $(\mathbb{X}, d_{\mathbb{X}})$  is a complete space.

**Exercise 8:**

Let  $\mathbb{X} = \{x \in \mathbb{Q} : x \geq 1\}$ . Consider the function  $f : \mathbb{X} \rightarrow \mathbb{X}$  defined by

$$f(x) = \frac{x}{2} + \frac{1}{x}$$

1. Let  $x, y \in \mathbb{X}$ , then  $x, y \geq 1$ .

We have:

$$\begin{aligned} |f(x) - f(y)| &= \left| \frac{x}{2} + \frac{1}{x} - \frac{y}{2} - \frac{1}{y} \right| \\ &= \left| \frac{1}{2}(x - y) - \frac{x - y}{xy} \right| \\ &= |x - y| \left| \frac{1}{2} - \frac{1}{xy} \right|. \end{aligned}$$

Since  $0 < \frac{1}{xy} < 1$ , we deduce that  $\left| \frac{1}{2} - \frac{1}{xy} \right| \leq \frac{1}{2}$ , which implies:

$$|f(x) - f(y)| \leq \frac{1}{2} |x - y|.$$

2. We have:

$$\begin{aligned} f(x) = x &\implies \frac{x}{2} + \frac{1}{x} = x \\ &\implies \frac{x^2 + 2}{2x} = x \\ &\implies x^2 = 2 \\ &\implies \begin{cases} x = \sqrt{2} \notin \mathbb{Q}, \\ x = -\sqrt{2} \notin \mathbb{Q}. \end{cases} \end{aligned}$$

Therefore,  $f$  admits no fixed point in  $\mathbb{X} \subset \mathbb{Q}$ .

3. The previous result does not contradict the fixed-point theorem because  $\mathbb{X}$  is not complete, even though  $f$  is a contraction.

#### **Exercise 9:**

1. For all  $x \geq 1$  and  $t \geq 0$ , we have:

$$\sqrt{x+t} - \sqrt{x} = \frac{(\sqrt{x+t} - \sqrt{x})(\sqrt{x+t} + \sqrt{x})}{\sqrt{x+t} + \sqrt{x}} = \frac{t}{\sqrt{x+t} + \sqrt{x}} \leq \frac{t}{2}.$$

2. Suppose  $f(x) = \sqrt{x}$ . Setting  $y = x + t$ , we obtain:

$$\begin{aligned} d_u(f(y), f(x)) &= |f(y) - f(x)| \\ &= |\sqrt{x+t} - \sqrt{x}| \\ &\leq \frac{t}{2} = \frac{1}{2} |x - y| = \frac{1}{2} d_u(x, y). \end{aligned}$$

Thus,  $f$  is a contraction on the complete space  $[1, +\infty)$  (since it is closed in  $\mathbb{R}$ ).

3. We have:

$$\begin{aligned} f(x) = x &\implies \sqrt{x} = x \\ &\implies x = x^2 \\ &\implies x(x - 1) = 0 \\ &\implies \begin{cases} x = 0 \notin [1, +\infty), \\ x = 1 \in [1, +\infty). \end{cases} \end{aligned}$$

Therefore, 1 is the unique fixed point of  $[1, +\infty)$ .