

Even in a complete metric space, a bounded closed set need not be compact. For example, with  $X = \mathbb{N}$ , the (discrete) metric  $\rho$  considered in Example (2) on p. III.1 makes  $\mathbb{N}$  a complete metric space,  $\mathbb{N}$  itself is bounded and closed but non-compact (because the sequence  $(n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$  does not have a convergent subsequence as  $\rho(m, n) > \frac{1}{2}$  whenever  $m \neq n$ ). To present a generalization of Heine-Borel Theorem, we need total boundedness. A subset  $A$  of a metric space  $(X, \rho)$  is totally bounded if for each  $\epsilon > 0$ ,  $\exists \{x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n\} \subset X$  ( $n \in \mathbb{N}$ ) such that  $A \subset \bigcup_{k \in \mathbb{N}} B_\epsilon(x_k)$ .

Clearly  $A$  is bounded if  $A$  is totally bounded, but the converse is false in general (consider  $(\mathbb{N}, \rho)$  above), (true for  $\mathbb{R}^p$  though).

Thm. 28 Let  $(X, \rho)$  be a complete metric space, and  $A \subset X$ . Then  $A$  is compact iff  $A$  is closed and totally bounded.

Pf. ( $\Rightarrow$ ) Suppose  $A$  is compact. By Prop. 19,  $A$  is closed. To see that  $A$  is totally bounded, we suppose the contrary and construct a sequence in  $A$  which does not have a convergent subsequence. Thus,  $\exists \varepsilon > 0$  such that for each  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ , for every finite subset  $\{z_1, z_2, \dots, z_n\} \subset X$ ,  $A \not\subset \bigcup_{1 \leq k \leq n} B_\varepsilon(z_k)$ . So  $A \neq \emptyset$ , and we may choose arbitrarily  $x_1 \in A$ . As  $A \not\subset B_\varepsilon(x_1)$ ,  $A \setminus B_\varepsilon(x_1) \neq \emptyset$  and we choose  $x_2 \in A \setminus B_\varepsilon(x_1)$ . Then  $\rho(x_1, x_2) \geq \varepsilon$ . Inductively, for an integer  $n \geq 3$ , we pick  $x_n \in A \setminus \bigcup_{k=1}^{n-1} B_\varepsilon(x_k)$ . Then  $\rho(x_n, x_k) \geq \varepsilon$  for all  $k = 1, 2, \dots, n-1$ . Obviously the sequence  $(x_n)$  is in  $A$ , but  $(x_n)$  does not have a convergent subsequence. This is impossible because  $A$  is compact. Therefore  $A$  is totally bounded.

( $\Leftarrow$ ) suppose  $A$  is totally bounded and closed. To see that  $A$  is compact, let  $(a_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$  be a sequence in  $A$ , and we will show that  $(a_n)$  has a Cauchy subsequence (then by the completeness of  $X$  and the closedness of  $A$ , this subsequence converges to an element of  $A$ ). Denote  $A_0 = A$ ,  $n_0 = 1$ . Because  $A_0$  is totally bounded,  $\exists \{q_1, q_2, \dots, q_m\} \subset X (m \in \mathbb{N})$  such that  $A_0 \subset \bigcup_{k=1}^m B_r(q_k)$ . Thus  $\exists p_1 \in \{q_1, q_2, \dots, q_m\}$  such that  $\{n \in \mathbb{N} : a_n \in A_0 \cap B_r(p_1)\}$  is infinite. Define

$$A_1 = A_0 \cap B_r(p_1)$$

and choose  $n_1 \in \mathbb{N}$  such that  $a_{n_1} \in A_1$  and  $n_1 > n_0$ .

Being a subset of  $A_0$  (which is totally bounded),  $A_1$  is also totally bounded. By an argument similar to the above,  $\exists p_2 \in X$  such that  $\{n \in \mathbb{N} : a_n \in A_1 \cap B_r(p_2)\}$  is infinite. Define

$$A_2 = A_1 \cap B_r(p_2)$$

and choose  $n_2 \in \mathbb{N}$  and  $n_2 > n_1$ . Proceed inductively, such that  $a_{n_2} \in A_2$

for <sup>an</sup> integer  $k \geq 3$ ,  $\exists p_k \in X$  such that  $\{n \in \mathbb{N} : a_n \in A_{k-1} \cap B_{\frac{1}{k}}(p_k)\}$

is infinite; define

$$A_k = A_{k-1} \cap B_{\frac{1}{k}}(p_k)$$

and choose  $n_k \in \mathbb{N}$  such that  $a_{n_k} \in A_k$  and  $n_k > n_{k-1}$ .

Then  $\forall j \in \mathbb{N}$ ,  $a_{n_j} \in A_j \subset A_k = A_{k-1} \cap B_{\frac{1}{k}}(p_k)$  whenever  $j \geq k$ ; thus for all  $j, j' \geq k$ ,

$$\begin{aligned}\rho(a_{n_j}, a_{n_{j'}}) &\leq \rho(a_{n_j}, p_k) + \rho(p_k, a_{n_{j'}}) \\ &< \frac{1}{k} + \frac{1}{k} = 2/k.\end{aligned}$$

It follows that  $(a_{n_j})_{j \in \mathbb{N}}$  is Cauchy, and we are done.

Cor. A metric space is compact iff it is complete and totally bounded.

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Let  $(X, \rho)$  be a metric space. A contraction of  $X$  is a mapping  $f: X \rightarrow X$  such that for some constant  $k \in (0, 1)$ ,

$$(★) \quad \rho(f(x), f(y)) \leq k \rho(x, y)$$

for all  $x, y \in X$ . Note that in general, we cannot

replace  $(*)$  by

$$\rho(f(x), f(y)) < \rho(x, y) \text{ whenever } x \neq y \text{ in } X.$$

For example, let  $X = (0, \frac{1}{2})$  with the usual metric, and  $f: X \rightarrow X: x \mapsto x^2$ . Then  $|f(x) - f(y)| < |x - y|$  whenever  $x \neq y$  in  $X$ , but there does not exist  $k \in (0, 1)$  such that  $(*)$  is satisfied. Moreover, there does not exist  $x \in X$  such that  $f(x) = x$ .

Thm. 29 Let  $(X, \rho)$  be a complete metric space, and  $f: X \rightarrow X$  be a contraction. Then

- (i) for every  $x \in X$ ,  $f^{(n)}(x) = \underbrace{f \circ f \circ \dots \circ f}_{n \text{ of them}}(x)$  converges to an element  $p$  in  $X$  (as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ ),
- (ii)  $f(p) = p$ ,
- (iii)  $p$  is unique (independent of  $x$ ).

Pf. Denote  $x_0 = x$ . For each  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ , define

$$x_n = f^{(n)}(x).$$

Then  $x_n = f(x_{n-1})$ ,

$$\begin{aligned}\rho(x_n, x_{n+1}) &= \rho(f(x_{n-1}), f(x_n)) \leq k \rho(x_{n-1}, x_n) \quad (\text{by } (*)) \\ &\leq k^2 \rho(x_{n-2}, x_{n-1}) \leq \dots \\ &\leq k^n \rho(x_0, x_1).\end{aligned}$$

We will see that  $(x_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$  is Cauchy. Indeed, let  $\varepsilon > 0$ .

Choose  $N \in \mathbb{N}$  such that

$$\frac{k^N}{1-k} \rho(x_0, x_1) < \varepsilon.$$

Then for all  $m, n \in \mathbb{N}$  satisfying  $n \geq m \geq N$ ,

$$\begin{aligned} \rho(x_m, x_n) &\leq \sum_{j=0}^{n-m-1} \rho(x_{m+j}, x_{m+j+1}) \\ &\leq \sum_{j=0}^{n-m-1} k^{m+j} \rho(x_0, x_1) = k^m \rho(x_0, x_1) \sum_{j=0}^{n-m-1} k^j \\ &\leq k^N \frac{1}{1-k} \rho(x_0, x_1) < \varepsilon. \end{aligned}$$

Thus  $(x_n)$  is Cauchy. Because  $(X, \rho)$  is complete,  $(x_n)$  converges to some element, say  $p$ , in  $X$ . Because  $f$  is continuous,  $x_{n+1} = f(x_n) \rightarrow f(p)$  (as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ ).

Because  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} x_{n+1} = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} x_n = p$ ,  $p = f(p)$ . Such a  $p$

is unique, because if  $q = f(q)$ ,  $q \in X$ , then

$$\rho(p, q) = \rho(f(p), f(q)) \leq k \rho(p, q),$$

$$(1 - k) \rho(p, q) \leq 0,$$

$$\rho(p, q) = 0 \text{ (as } k \in (0, 1)) \text{ and } p = q.$$

## Thm 11 (Picard's theorem)

Suppose that  $F: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is continuous and that for some real positive constant number  $L$ ,

$$|F(y) - F(y')| \leq L |y - y'|$$

Let  $y_0 \in \mathbb{R}$ .

for all  $y, y' \in \mathbb{R}$ . Then there exist  $\tau \in (0, \infty)$  and a unique function  $y: [-\tau, \tau] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  such that  $y$  is differentiable on  $(-\tau, \tau)$  and satisfies

$$\begin{cases} y'(x) = F(y(x)), & x \in (-\tau, \tau], \\ y(0) = y_0. \end{cases}$$

Pf. Arbitrarily choose  $\tau \in (0, L')$ . Define  $T: C_b([-\tau, \tau], \mathbb{R}) \rightarrow C_b([-\tau, \tau], \mathbb{R})$ :  $f \mapsto T(f)$ , where

$$T(f)(x) = y_0 + \int_0^x F(f(s)) ds, \quad x \in [-\tau, \tau].$$

Note that indeed  $T(f) \in C_b([-\tau, \tau], \mathbb{R})$  (e.g. by continuity). (127)

of  $F$  of  $f$  and the compactness of  $[-\tau, \tau]$ ,  $F[f(-\tau, \tau)]$  is bounded).

Now, for all  $f, g \in C_b([- \tau, \tau], \mathbb{R})$ :

$$\begin{aligned} \|T(f) - T(g)\| &= \sup \left\{ \left| \int_0^x [F(f(s)) - F(g(s))] ds \right| : x \in [-\tau, \tau] \right\} \\ &\leq \sup \left\{ \left| \int_0^x |F(f(s)) - F(g(s))| ds \right| : x \in [-\tau, \tau] \right\} \\ &\leq \sup \left\{ L \left| \int_0^x |f(s) - g(s)| ds \right| : x \in [-\tau, \tau] \right\} \\ &\leq L \|f - g\| \sup \{ |x| : x \in [-\tau, \tau] \} \\ &= \tau L \|f - g\|. \end{aligned}$$

Because  $\tau L < 1$ ,  $T$  is a contraction on the Banach space

$C_b([- \tau, \tau]; \mathbb{R})$ . By Banach's fixed point theorem, there

exists <sup>uniquely</sup> a fixed point  $f$  of  $T$  in  $C_b([- \tau, \tau]; \mathbb{R})$ , i.e.

$\exists f \in C_b([- \tau, \tau]; \mathbb{R}) = C([- \tau, \tau])$  such that

$$f = T(f),$$

$$\text{or } f(x) = y_0 + \int_0^x F(f(s)) ds, \quad x \in [-\tau, \tau]$$

which implies that  $f$  is differentiable on  $[-\tau, \tau]$  and

$$f'(x) = F(f(x)), \quad x \in [-\tau, \tau],$$

$$\text{and } f(0) = y_0.$$

This proves the theorem. ■

(IV.8)

(VII.13)