

# Game Theory with Applications to Finance and Marketing

## Mathematical Review

### 1. (Set and Function.)

A well-defined collection of objects (called elements) is a set. A set of sets is usually referred to as a *collection*, and a set of collections is usually referred to as a *family*. A set contains nothing is called an empty set and denoted  $\emptyset$ . A set contains exactly one element is a *singleton*. If two sets  $A$  and  $B$  are such that  $B$  contains each and every element of  $A$ , then we say that  $A$  is a subset of  $B$  and  $B$  a *superset* of  $A$ , and we write  $A \subset B$ , and if furthermore  $B$  contains an element  $y$  which is not contained in  $A$ , then  $A$  is a *proper subset* of  $B$ . Two sets  $A$  and  $B$  are equal, if  $A \subset B$  and  $B \subset A$ . If one has a *universe set*  $X$  in mind (so that all sets under consideration are subsets of  $X$ ), then define the *complement* of  $A \subset X$  to be the set containing exactly those  $x$  contained by  $X$  but not by  $A$ . The complement of  $A$  is denoted by  $A^c$ . Denote by  $2^X$  the collection containing all subsets of  $X$ , which will be referred to as the *power set* of  $X$ .

- Given two sets  $A$  and  $B$ , an assigning rule  $f$  is a (single-valued) function from  $A$  into  $B$  if  $\forall a \in A$ , there is  $b \in B$  such that  $f(a) = b$ . In this case, we write  $f : A \rightarrow B$ , and  $A$  and  $B$  are called the *domain* and *range* of  $f$  respectively. If  $A$  is itself a collection of sets, then we say that  $f$  is a set function. If instead  $B$  is a collection of sets then  $f$  is a multi-valued function (or a *correspondence*).<sup>1</sup> The function  $f : A \rightarrow B$  is *surjective* if  $B \subset f(A)$ , *injective* if  $x, y \in A$ ,  $x \neq y \Rightarrow f(x) \neq f(y)$ , and *bijective* if it is both surjective and injective. A bijective function is also called a *one-to-one correspondence*. Given  $f : A \rightarrow B$ , and given any  $C \subset A$  and  $D \subset B$ , the sets  $f(C) = \{f(a) : a \in C\}$  and  $f^{-1}(D) = \{a \in A : f(a) \in D\}$  are called respectively the *image* of  $C$  and the *pre-image* of  $D$  under  $f$ .<sup>2</sup>
- A bijective function  $f : A \rightarrow B$  has an inverse function  $f^{-1} : B \rightarrow A$  which assigns for each  $b \in B$  “the”  $a \in A$  that satisfies  $f(a) =$

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<sup>1</sup>In general we would write for the correspondence  $f : A \rightarrow \bigcup_{b \in B} b$  instead.

<sup>2</sup>Let  $A = B$  be the set of real numbers. Let  $f(x) = x^2 + 1$ ,  $C = (-1, 0]$ , and  $D = [0, \frac{1}{2}]$ . What is  $f^{-1}(D)$ ? What is  $f^{-1}(f(C))$ ? Is the latter a subset or a superset of  $C$ ?

- $b$ . (Depending on the context, the notation  $f^{-1}$  should not create confusion with the pre-image operator.)
4. Two sets  $A$  and  $B$  are of the same *cardinality* if we can find a one-to-one correspondence between them. A set  $A$  is *finite* if it is empty or there is a one-to-one correspondence between  $A$  and the set  $\{1, 2, \dots, n\}$  for some  $n \in \mathbf{Z}_+$  (and we say in the latter case the cardinality of  $A$ , denoted  $|A|$  or  $\#(A)$ , is  $n$ ), where  $\mathbf{Z}_+$  stands for the set of strictly positive integers.<sup>3</sup> A set  $A$  is *countably infinite* (*denumerable*) if there is a one-to-one correspondence between  $A$  and  $\mathbf{Z}_+$ . A set which is neither finite nor countably infinite is *uncountable*. A set is *countable* if it is not uncountable.<sup>4</sup>
  5. Given an indexed family of sets  $\{A_b; b \in \beta\}$ , where  $\beta$  is an arbitrary non-empty index set, the *Cartesian product* of these sets, denoted by  $\prod_{b \in \beta} A_b$ , is a set containing each and every function  $f : \beta \rightarrow \bigcup_{b \in \beta} A_b$  satisfying that for all  $b \in \beta$ ,  $f(b) \in A_b$ .<sup>5</sup> The union of sets  $\{A_b; b \in \beta\}$ , denoted  $\bigcup_{b \in \beta} A_b$ , contains exactly those  $x$  contained by some  $A_b$ . The intersection of these sets, denoted  $\bigcap_{b \in \beta} A_b$ , contains exactly those  $x$  contained by all  $A_b$ 's. Two sets are *disjoint* if they have an empty intersection.
  6. A collection  $\{A_b; b \in \beta\}$  of subsets of  $X$  is called a *partition* of  $X$  if  $\bigcup_{b \in \beta} A_b = X$  and  $\forall a, b \in \beta, a \neq b \Rightarrow A_a \cap A_b = \emptyset$ .
  7. DeMorgan's law says that

$$\left[ \bigcup_{b \in \beta} A_b \right]^c = \bigcap_{b \in \beta} A_b^c, \quad \left[ \bigcap_{b \in \beta} A_b \right]^c = \bigcup_{b \in \beta} A_b^c. \quad (1)$$

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<sup>3</sup>The notation  $\mathbf{Z}_+$  is taken from James R. Munkres, 1975, *Topology: A First Course*, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall. It represents the set of natural numbers. We shall interchangeably use the notation  $\mathbf{N}$  to stand for the same set, as in Kai Lai Chung, 1974, *A Course in Probability Theory*.

<sup>4</sup>The following three statements are apparently equivalent: (i)  $A$  is countable; (ii) there is a surjective function  $f : \mathbf{Z}_+ \rightarrow A$ ; (iii) there is an injective function  $g : A \rightarrow \mathbf{Z}_+$ . Because of (ii) a subset of a countable set is apparently countable. Because of (iii),  $A = \mathbf{Z}_+^2$  is countable: simply define  $g(n, m) = 2^n 3^m$ . Now since the set of positive rationals has a one-to-one correspondence with  $\mathbf{Z}_+^2$ , the former is countable. The following three statements are also equivalent, but less apparent: (a)  $A$  is infinite; (b) there exists an injective function  $f : \mathbf{Z}_+ \rightarrow A$ ; (c) there exists a bijective function of  $A$  with a *proper* subset of itself.

<sup>5</sup>For example, Suppose that  $\beta = \{1, 2\}$ ,  $A_1 = \{x, y\}$ ,  $A_2 = \{a, b, c\}$ . Then  $\prod_{b \in \beta} A_b = A_1 \times A_2 = \{(x, a), (x, b), (x, c), (y, a), (y, b), (y, c)\}$ , where, for example,  $(x, a)$  is a shorthand notation for  $f(x) = a$ . Similarly, if instead  $\beta = \{2, 1\}$ , then  $\prod_{b \in \beta} A_b = A_2 \times A_1 = \{(a, x), (a, y), (b, x), (b, y), (c, x), (c, y)\}$ .

8. The following facts are well known. A countable union or a finite product of countable sets is countable. A infinite product of countable sets need not be countable; in particular, the power set of  $\mathbf{Z}_+$  is uncountable.

9. **(Linear Space or Vector Space.)**

10. A set  $V$  is a (real) linear space on  $\mathfrak{R}$ , where  $\mathfrak{R}$  is the set of real numbers, if it is equipped with and closed under operations of vector addition and scalar multiplication together with a number of well-defined operational (such as commutative and associative) laws. Elements in  $V$  are called *vectors*. Given a finite number of elements  $x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n$  in  $V$ , an element  $y \in V$  is a *linear combination* of these elements if there exist real numbers  $a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n$  such that  $y = \sum_{i=1}^n a_i x_i$ . A subset  $B$  of  $V$  is said to span  $V$  if all vectors in  $V$  are linear combinations of elements of  $B$ . If no proper subset of  $B$  can span  $B$ , then  $B$  is linearly independent, and in this case  $B$  is a *basis* for  $V$  if  $B$  spans  $V$ . The cardinality of (the number of elements in) a basis (any basis) is called the linear space  $V$ 's *dimension*.  $V$  may be finite-dimensional or infinite-dimensional depending on whether the cardinality of  $B$  is finite or infinite.

11. Let  $V_x$  be a real linear space with origins  $0_x$ . A function  $f : V_x \rightarrow \mathfrak{R}$  is *concave* (respectively *convex*, and *affine*) if for any two elements  $\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}' \in V_x$  and for any  $a \in [0, 1]$ ,

$$f(a\mathbf{x} + (1 - a)\mathbf{x}') \geq \text{(respectively } \leq, =) af(\mathbf{x}) + (1 - a)f(\mathbf{x}').$$

The function  $f$  is said to be *linear*, if it is affine and  $f(\mathbf{0}_x) = 0$ .

12. A subset  $A$  of the linear space  $V$  is a *convex set* if for all  $x, y \in A$  and for all real numbers  $\lambda \in [0, 1]$ ,  $\lambda x + (1 - \lambda)y \in A$ . The intersection of a collection of convex sets is itself convex.

13. **(Metric Space and Topology.)**

Given any non-empty set  $X$  a function  $d : X \times X \rightarrow \mathcal{R}_+$  (where  $\mathcal{R}_+$  or interchangeably  $\mathfrak{R}_+$  denotes the set of non-negative real numbers) is a *metric* if

- (i)  $d(x, y) = 0 \Leftrightarrow x = y, \forall x, y \in X$ ;
- (ii)  $d(x, y) = d(y, x) \geq 0, \forall x, y \in X$ ;
- (iii)  $d(x, y) + d(y, z) \geq d(x, z)$ .

The pair  $(X, d)$  is then a *metric space*. For example, let  $X = \mathfrak{R}$ , which is the set of real numbers, and define for all  $x, y \in X$ ,  $d'(x, y) = 1$  if  $x \neq y$  and  $d'(x, y) = 0$  if otherwise. Define  $d(x, y) = |x - y|$  for all  $x, y \in X$  also. Then  $(X, d)$  and  $(X, d')$  are both metric spaces, but they are different metric spaces.

14. A function  $x : \mathbf{Z}_+ \rightarrow X$  is called a sequence in  $(X, d)$ . It is said to *converge to*  $z \in X$  if for all real  $\epsilon > 0$  there exists  $n(\epsilon) \in \mathbf{Z}_+$  such that  $n \geq n(\epsilon) \Rightarrow d(x(n), z) < \epsilon$ . A sequence is *Cauchy* if for all  $e > 0$ , there exists  $n(e) \in \mathbf{Z}_+$  such that  $m, n \geq n(e) \Rightarrow d(x(m), x(n)) < e$ .
15. Given two metric spaces  $(X, d)$  and  $(Y, d')$ , a function  $f : X \rightarrow Y$  is *continuous* if  $\{f(x(n))\}$  is a convergent sequence in  $(Y, d')$  whenever  $\{x(n)\}$  is a convergent sequence in  $(X, d)$ .
16. Given a metric space  $(X, d)$ , for all  $z \in X$  and  $e \in \mathcal{R}_{++}$ ,<sup>6</sup> the subsets  $B(z, e) = \{x \in X : d(x, z) < e\}$  are called *open balls* in  $X$ . A subset  $G$  of  $X$  is *open* if it can be represented as a (perhaps empty) union of open balls. A subset  $F$  of  $X$  is *closed* if  $F^c$  is open. The *closure* of  $G \subset X$  is the smallest (with respect to the order relation “inclusion” on  $X$ ) closed set containing  $G$ , and the *interior* of  $F$  is the largest open set contained in  $F$ . A point  $x \in X$  is a *limit point* of  $A \subset X$  if for all  $e > 0$ ,  $B(x, e) \cap A \cap \{x\}^c \neq \emptyset$ . The set of limit points of  $A$ , denoted  $A'$ , is the *derived set* of  $A$ . A point  $x \in A$  is an *isolated point* if for some  $e > 0$ ,  $B(x, e) \cap A \cap \{x\}^c = \emptyset$ . A closed subset  $A$  of  $X$  is *perfect* if it contains no isolated points. The *boundary* of  $A$  is the intersection of the closure of  $A$  and the closure of  $A^c$  in  $(X, d)$ . The collection  $\tau$  of all the open sets on  $X$  is called a *topology* on  $X$ . The pair  $(X, \tau)$  is called a *topological space*.
17. A set  $A$  contained in the metric space  $(X, d)$  is *bounded* if for some  $x \in X$  and  $e \in \mathcal{R}_{++}$ ,  $A \subset B(x, e)$ .
18. Take the linear space  $(\mathfrak{R}, \|\cdot\|)$  for example, where for all  $x, y \in \mathfrak{R}$ , the norm or the length of vector  $x$ , denoted by  $\|x\|$ , is such that  $\|x\| = |x|$  and we can define a metric from the norm by  $d(x, y) = |x - y|$ , which

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<sup>6</sup>Here  $\mathcal{R}_{++}$ , or interchangeably  $\mathfrak{R}_{++}$ , denotes the set of strictly positive real numbers.

generates the so-called *standard topology* on  $\mathfrak{R}$ . In this metric space  $(\mathfrak{R}, d)$ , an open ball is an open interval, and an open set is a countable union of pair-wise disjoint open intervals. (Why countable, and why pair-wise disjoint?)

- Let  $A = \{x\}$  for some  $x \in \mathfrak{R}$ . Is  $x$  a limit point of  $A$ ? Is  $x$  an isolated point of  $A$ ? Is  $A$  a closed set?
- Suppose that  $\{x_n; n \in \mathbf{Z}_+\}$  is a sequence in  $\mathfrak{R}$ , which converges to  $x_0 \in \mathfrak{R}$ . Let  $X$  contain exactly all the  $x_n$ 's in the convergent sequence. Is  $x_0$  a limit point of  $X$ ? If this is not always true, then offer a condition that ensures this conclusion.

19. Let  $(X, \tau)$  be a topological space. A subset  $\gamma$  of  $\tau$  is an open covering of  $X$  if  $X \subset \bigcup_{U \in \gamma} U$ .  $X$  is *compact* if every open covering of  $X$  contains a finite sub-covering of  $X$ ; that is, if for each open covering  $\gamma$  of  $X$ , there exists a finite number of member sets  $U_1, U_2, \dots, U_n \in \gamma$ , such that  $X \subset \bigcup_{i=1}^n U_i$ .

Note that  $\mathfrak{R}$  with the standard topology is not compact, for the open covering  $\{(n, n+2) : n \in \mathbf{Z}\}$  does not have a finite sub-covering of  $\mathfrak{R}$ . (We shall see that this is because  $\mathfrak{R}$  is not bounded.) Similarly, the interval  $(0, 1)$  is not a compact subset of  $\mathfrak{R}$  under the standard topology, for the collection  $\{(\frac{1}{n+2}, \frac{1}{n}) : n \in \mathbf{Z}_+\}$  is an open covering of  $(0, 1)$  which does not have a finite sub-covering. (We shall see that this is because  $(0, 1)$  is not closed.) It can be shown that compact subsets of  $\mathfrak{R}$  under the standard topology are exactly those subsets which are both bounded and closed.

20. The following statements are true.

- A closed subset of a compact space is compact.
- A (finite or infinite) Cartesian product of compact spaces is compact.
- Consider the metric space  $(\mathfrak{R}^n, d)$ , where the Euclidean metric  $d$  is such that for  $x, y \in \mathfrak{R}^n$ , with  $x = (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)$  and  $y = (y_1, y_2, \dots, y_n)$ , we have  $d(x, y) = \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - y_i)^2}$ . Then under the metric topology  $d$ ,  $A \subset \mathfrak{R}^n$  is compact if and only if it is both closed and bounded.
- Is the first orthant in  $\mathfrak{R}^2$  closed? Is it bounded?

- Given two topological spaces  $(X, \tau_x)$  and  $(Y, \tau_y)$  and a continuous function  $f : (X, \tau_x) \rightarrow (Y, \tau_y)$ ,  $f(A)$  is compact in  $(Y, \tau_y)$  whenever  $A$  is compact in  $(X, \tau_x)$ . That is, a continuous image of a compact space is compact.

## 21. (Real Sequence and Real Function.)

If  $A = \mathbf{Z}_+$  and  $B = \mathfrak{R}$ , then (the image of)  $f : A \rightarrow B$  is called a real (real number) sequence, and we write  $f(n)$  as  $f_n$  for all  $n \in \mathbf{Z}_+$ . If  $h : \mathbf{Z}_+ \rightarrow \mathbf{Z}_+$  is increasing and  $x : \mathbf{Z}_+ \rightarrow \mathfrak{R}$ , then  $\{x(h(n))\}$  is called a *subsequence* of  $\{x(n)\}$ .

22. We say that  $l \in \mathfrak{R}$  is a *limit* of the sequence  $\{x_n\}$  if for all  $\epsilon > 0$  there is an  $N(\epsilon) \in \mathbf{Z}_+$  such that

$$n \in \mathbf{Z}_+, n \geq N(\epsilon) \Rightarrow |x_n - l| < \epsilon.$$

In this case we say that  $\{x_n\}$  *converges to*  $l$  and  $\{x_n\}$  a *convergent sequence*. The limit of a sequence so defined is unique.

23. A set  $A \subset \mathfrak{R}$  is bounded above by  $u \in \mathfrak{R}$ , if for all  $x \in A, x \leq u$ . In this case,  $u$  is called an upper bound of the set  $A$ . The least upper bound of  $A$ , if it exists, is denoted by  $\sup A$ . Lower bounds are similarly defined. The greatest lower bound of  $A$ , if it exists, is denoted by  $\inf A$ . The set  $A$  is *bounded* if it has an upper and a lower bound in  $\mathfrak{R}$ .
24. Given a sequence  $\{x_n\}$  in  $\mathfrak{R}$ , define its limit inferior as  $\overline{\lim} x_n = \inf_n \sup_{k \geq n} x_k$  and its limit superior as  $\underline{\lim} x_n = \sup_n \inf_{k \geq n} x_k$ , which will be shown to always exist in  $\mathfrak{R} \cup \{-\infty, +\infty\}$ , and we can show that they are equal if and only if the real sequence  $\{x_n\}$  converges.
25. A set  $I \subset \mathfrak{R}$  is an *interval* if it is not a singleton (a one-point set) and if  $x, y \in I, x < y$  implies that there exists some  $z \in I$  such that  $x < z < y$ .
26. A function  $g : I \rightarrow \mathfrak{R}$ , where  $I$  is some interval, is *continuous* if for all  $x \in I$  and all  $\{x_n\}$  converging to  $x$  in  $I$ ,  $\{g(x_n)\}$  is a sequence converging to  $g(x)$ . The *derivative* of  $g(\cdot)$  at  $x \in I$ , if it exists (i.e., it is a finite number), is the (common) limit of  $\frac{g(x_n) - g(x)}{x_n - x}$  for all  $\{x_n\}$  converging to  $x$ . If the derivative of  $g$  is defined for all  $x \in I$ , written  $g'(x)$ , we say that  $g$  is *differentiable* on  $I$ . In this case,  $g'(\cdot)$  itself is a

mapping from  $I$  into  $\mathcal{R}$ . If  $g'$  is a continuous function, we say that  $g$  is *continuously differentiable* on  $I$ .

27. (**Axiom of Continuity.**) If the real sequence  $\{x_n\}$  is increasing (i.e.  $x_{n+1} \geq x_n$ , for all  $n \in \mathbf{Z}_+$ ), and if  $x_n \leq M \in \mathfrak{R}$  for all  $n \in \mathbf{Z}_+$ , then  $\{x_n\}$  converges to some  $l \leq M$  and  $x_n \leq l$  for all  $n \in \mathbf{Z}_+$ .
28. (**Nested Interval Theorem.**) Suppose that  $\{[a_n, b_n]; \mathbf{Z}_+\}$  is a sequence of closed intervals such that for all  $n$ ,  $[a_{n+1}, b_{n+1}] \subset [a_n, b_n]$  and  $\lim_{n \rightarrow +\infty} (b_n - a_n) = 0$ . Then,  $\bigcap_{n \in \mathbf{Z}_+} [a_n, b_n]$  is a singleton.
29. (**Least Upper Bound Property.** of  $\mathfrak{R}$ .) Suppose that  $A$  is a non-empty subset of  $\mathfrak{R}$ , and  $A$  is bounded above by some  $u \in \mathfrak{R}$ . Then  $\sup A$  exists. Similarly, if  $A$  is non-empty and bounded below, then  $\inf A$  exists.
30. Define the extended real line  $\overline{\mathfrak{R}} \equiv \mathfrak{R} \cup \{+\infty, -\infty\}$ . Define  $\sup \emptyset = -\infty$  and  $\inf \emptyset = +\infty$ . If  $A \subset \mathfrak{R}$  is unbounded above (there exists no upper bound for  $A$  in  $\mathfrak{R}$ ), then define  $\sup A = +\infty$ . If  $A \subset \mathfrak{R}$  is unbounded below (there exists no lower bound for  $A$  in  $\mathfrak{R}$ ), then define  $\inf A = -\infty$ . In this way, all subsets of  $\mathfrak{R}$  have well-defined suprema and infima in  $\overline{\mathfrak{R}}$ .
31. Suppose that  $\{x_n; n \in \mathbf{Z}_+\}$  is a real sequence. Then its limit inferior

$$\underline{\lim} x_n \equiv \sup_{n \in \mathbf{Z}_+} \inf_{k \geq n} x_k$$

and its limit superior

$$\overline{\lim} x_n \equiv \inf_{n \in \mathbf{Z}_+} \sup_{k \geq n} x_k$$

both exist in extended real line  $\overline{\mathfrak{R}}$ .

32. For any two real sequences  $\{x_n\}$  and  $\{y_n\}$ , we have

$$\begin{aligned} \underline{\lim} x_n + \underline{\lim} y_n &\leq \underline{\lim} (x_n + y_n) \leq \overline{\lim} x_n + \underline{\lim} y_n \\ &\leq \overline{\lim} (x_n + y_n) \leq \overline{\lim} x_n + \overline{\lim} y_n. \end{aligned}$$

33. (**Bolzano-Weierstrass Theorem.**) Every bounded sequence in  $\mathfrak{R}$  contains a convergent subsequence.

34. A function  $f : A \subset \mathfrak{R} \rightarrow \mathfrak{R}$  is *continuous* at  $x \in A$  if for all  $\epsilon > 0$ , there exists  $\delta(x, \epsilon) > 0$  such that

$$\forall y \in A, |x - y| < \delta(x, \epsilon) \Rightarrow |f(x) - f(y)| < \epsilon.$$

The function is *uniformly continuous* at  $x$  if  $\delta$  can be chosen to be independent of  $x$ . We say  $f$  is a (uniformly) continuous function on  $A$  if it is (uniformly) continuous at  $x$  for all  $x \in A$ . We can show that if  $f : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathfrak{R}$  is continuous on  $[a, b]$ , then it is uniformly continuous on  $[a, b]$ .

35. (**Intermediate Value Theorem.**) If  $f : I \rightarrow \mathfrak{R}$  is continuous where  $I$  is an interval, then  $f(I)$  is either a singleton or an interval.
36. (**Extreme Value Theorem.**) If  $f : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathfrak{R}$  is continuous then  $f([a, b])$  is either a singleton or a bounded closed interval. In particular, there exist  $m, M \in I$  such that for all  $x \in I, f(m) \leq f(x) \leq f(M)$ .
37. Suppose that  $r : X \rightarrow Y$  is a correspondence (a multi-valued function), where  $X$  and  $Y$  are some subsets of  $\mathfrak{R}^n$ .

- If  $r(x) \neq \emptyset$  for all  $x \in X$ , then we say that  $r(\cdot)$  is non-empty.
- If  $r(x)$  is a convex (compact, closed) subset of  $\mathfrak{R}^n$  for all  $x \in X$ , then we say that  $r(\cdot)$  is convex-valued (compact-valued, closed-valued), or simply convex.
- We say that  $r(\cdot)$  is upper hemi-continuous (u.h.c.) at  $x$  if for every open set  $V$  containing  $r(x)$ , there exists an open set  $U$  containing  $x$  such that  $a \in U \Rightarrow r(a) \subset V$ .<sup>7</sup> We say that  $r(\cdot)$  is u.h.c. if it is u.h.c. at each and every  $x \in X$ .
- Suppose that  $r(\cdot)$  is closed. If  $r(\cdot)$  is u.h.c. at  $x$ , then  $(\Theta)$  whenever  $\{x_n\}$  converges to  $x$  and  $\{y_n \in r(x_n)\}$  converges to  $y$ , we have  $y \in r(x)$ . If  $Y$  is compact, then  $r(\cdot)$  is u.h.c. at  $x$  if  $(\Theta)$  holds.
- We say that  $r(\cdot)$  is lower hemi-continuous (l.h.c.) at  $x \in X$  if for all open set  $V \subset Y$  such that  $V \cap r(x) \neq \emptyset$ , there exists some open set  $U \subset X$  such that  $a \in U \Rightarrow r(a) \cap V \neq \emptyset$ . We say that  $r(\cdot)$  is l.h.c. if it is l.h.c. at each and every  $x \in X$ .

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<sup>7</sup>See:

[https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Hemicontinuity#Sequential\\_characterization](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Hemicontinuity#Sequential_characterization).



- It can be shown that  $r(\cdot)$  is lower hemi-continuous (l.h.c.) at  $x \in X$  if and only if whenever  $\{x_n\}$  converges to  $x$ , for each  $y \in r(x)$ , there exist a subsequence  $\{x_{n(k)}\}$  of  $\{x_n\}$  and a sequence  $\{y_{n(k)} \in r(x_{n(k)})\}$  such that the latter sequence  $\{y_{n(k)}\}$  converges to  $y$ .
- If  $r$  is u.h.c. and compact-valued, then  $r(A)$  is compact in  $Y$  if  $A$  is compact in  $X$ .
- The correspondence  $r(\cdot)$  is said to be continuous if it is both upper and lower hemi-continuous.

### 38. Concave Maximization.

39. A (real-valued) symmetric matrix  $\mathbf{A}_{n \times n}$  is **positive definite** (or PD), if for all  $\mathbf{x}_{n \times 1} \neq \mathbf{0}_{n \times 1}$ , we have  $\mathbf{x}'\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} > 0$ . A symmetric matrix  $\mathbf{A}_{n \times n}$  is **negative definite** (or ND), if  $-\mathbf{A}$  is positive definite. A symmetric matrix  $\mathbf{A}_{n \times n}$  is **positive semi-definite** (or PSD), if for all  $\mathbf{x}_{n \times 1} \in \mathcal{R}^n$ , we have  $\mathbf{x}'\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} \geq 0$ . A symmetric matrix  $\mathbf{A}_{n \times n}$  is **negative semi-definite** (or NSD), if  $-\mathbf{A}$  is positive semi-definite.
40. Consider a twice differentiable function  $f : \mathcal{R}^n \rightarrow \mathcal{R}$ . Let the  $Df : \mathcal{R}^n \rightarrow \mathcal{R}^n$  be the vector function

$$Df = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_1} \\ \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_2} \\ \vdots \\ \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_n} \end{bmatrix},$$

which will be referred to as the *gradient* of  $f$ . Let  $D^2f : \mathcal{R}^n \rightarrow \mathcal{R}^{n^2}$  be the matrix function

$$D^2f = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_1 \partial x_1} & \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_1 \partial x_2} & \cdots & \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_1 \partial x_n} \\ \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_2 \partial x_1} & \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_2 \partial x_2} & \cdots & \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_2 \partial x_n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_n \partial x_1} & \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_n \partial x_2} & \cdots & \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_n \partial x_n} \end{bmatrix},$$

which will be referred to as the *Hessian* of  $f$ .

41. A function  $f : \mathcal{R}^n \rightarrow \mathcal{R}$  is *concave*, if for all  $\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \in \mathcal{R}^n$  and all  $\lambda \in [0, 1]$ ,  $f(\lambda\mathbf{x} + (1 - \lambda)\mathbf{y}) \geq \lambda f(\mathbf{x}) + (1 - \lambda)f(\mathbf{y})$ . A concave function is said to be strictly concave if the above defining inequality is always strict. A function  $f$  is (strictly) *convex* if  $-f$  is (strictly) concave. A function is *affine* if it is both concave and convex. An affine function is *linear* if it passes through the origin; that is, if  $f(\mathbf{0}_{n \times 1}) = 0$ . Note that by definition,  $f$  is concave if  $f$  is strictly concave.

**Theorem 1** *A twice differentiable function  $f : U \subset \mathcal{R}^n \rightarrow \mathcal{R}$  is concave, where  $U$  is an open convex subset of  $\mathcal{R}^n$ , if and only if  $D^2f$  is a negative semi-definite matrix at each and every  $\mathbf{x} \in U$ ; and  $f$  is strictly concave if  $D^2f$  is a negative definite matrix at each and every  $\mathbf{x} \in U$ .<sup>8</sup>*

Suppose that  $n = 1$  in the above theorem. Then  $f'' \leq 0$  if  $f$  is concave, and if  $\tilde{x}$  is a random variable with finite expectation, then we have  $f(E[\tilde{x}]) \geq E[f(\tilde{x})]$ . (This is the so-called Jensen's inequality.)

42. **Exercise 1** *Define the function*

$$f(x, y) = x^a y^{1-a}, \quad \forall x, y \in (0, +\infty),$$

where  $a$  is a constant with  $0 < a < 1$ . Clearly  $f : (0, +\infty) \times (0, +\infty) \rightarrow \mathfrak{R}$  is twice continuously differentiable. Let us verify that  $f$  is strictly concave. Note that

$$D^2f = a(1-a)x^{a-2}y^{-1-a} \begin{bmatrix} -y^2 & xy \\ xy & -x^2 \end{bmatrix}.$$

Hence for any

$$\begin{bmatrix} k \\ h \end{bmatrix} \in \mathfrak{R}^2,$$

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<sup>8</sup>If  $f(x) = -x^4$ , then  $f''(0) = 0$  (so that the Hessian of  $f$  at zero is negative semi-definite but not negative definite), but  $f$  is strictly concave. Hence the “only if” part for strict concavity in general does not hold. However, if  $f : U \subset \mathfrak{R} \rightarrow \mathfrak{R}$  is twice continuously differentiable and concave (so that  $U$  becomes an open interval), and if  $f''$  is not constantly zero over any subinterval in  $U$ , then  $f$  is strictly concave; see the following link: [people.exeter.ac.uk/dgbalken/BME05/LectTwo.pdf](http://people.exeter.ac.uk/dgbalken/BME05/LectTwo.pdf).

we have

$$\begin{aligned} & \begin{bmatrix} k & h \end{bmatrix} D^2 f \begin{bmatrix} k \\ h \end{bmatrix} \\ &= a(1-a)x^{a-2}y^{-1-a} \begin{bmatrix} k & h \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} -y^2 & xy \\ xy & -x^2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} k \\ h \end{bmatrix} \\ &= -a(1-a)x^{a-2}y^{-1-a}(ky-hx)^2 \leq 0, \end{aligned}$$

and the last inequality is strict unless  $k = h = 0$ . This proves that  $D^2 f$  is negative definite for all  $x, y \in (0, +\infty)$ , and hence  $f(\cdot, \cdot)$  is strictly concave.

**Exercise 2** Define the function

$$f(x) = \sqrt{x}, \quad \forall x > 0.$$

Clearly  $f : (0, +\infty) \rightarrow \mathfrak{R}$  is twice continuously differentiable. Note that

$$D^2 f = \frac{\partial^2 f}{(dx)^2} = -\frac{1}{4x^{\frac{3}{2}}},$$

so that for all  $k \in \mathfrak{R}$ , we have

$$k \times D^2 f \times k = -\frac{k^2}{4x^{\frac{3}{2}}} \leq 0,$$

and the last inequality is strict unless  $k = 0$ . This proves that  $D^2 f$  is negative definite for all  $x > 0$ , and hence  $f(\cdot)$  is strictly concave.

**Exercise 3** Define the function

$$f(x, y) = g(x) + h(y),$$

where  $g, h : \mathfrak{R} \rightarrow \mathfrak{R}$  are two strictly concave twice-differentiable functions. Then  $f(\cdot, \cdot)$  is a strictly concave function also. Indeed, we have in this case

$$D^2 f = \begin{bmatrix} g''(x) & 0 \\ 0 & h''(y) \end{bmatrix},$$

so that given any

$$\begin{bmatrix} a \\ b \end{bmatrix} \in \mathfrak{R}^2,$$

we have

$$\begin{aligned} & \begin{bmatrix} a & b \end{bmatrix} D^2 f \begin{bmatrix} a \\ b \end{bmatrix} \\ &= a^2 g''(x) + b^2 h''(y) \leq 0, \end{aligned}$$

and the last inequality holds strictly except in the case where  $a = b = 0$ . This proves that  $D^2 f$  is negative definite, and hence  $f(\cdot, \cdot)$  is strictly concave.

The preceding example shows that a twice-differentiable additively separable function

$$f(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n) = f_1(x_1) + f_2(x_2) + \dots + f_n(x_n)$$

is strictly concave if for all  $j$ ,  $f_j : \mathfrak{R} \rightarrow \mathfrak{R}$  is strictly concave and twice differentiable.

**Theorem 2** Suppose that  $f : \mathfrak{R}^n \rightarrow \mathfrak{R}$  is twice-differentiable and concave, then for all  $\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{a} \in \mathfrak{R}^n$ , we have<sup>9</sup>

$$f(\mathbf{x}) - f(\mathbf{a}) \leq Df(\mathbf{a})'(\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{a}).$$

The above inequality becomes strict if the Hessian of  $f$  is everywhere negative definite and  $\mathbf{x} \neq \mathbf{a}$ .

*Proof.* Recall the *Theorem of Taylor Expansion with a Remainder*: if  $f : \mathfrak{R}^n \rightarrow \mathfrak{R}$  is twice continuously differentiable, then for each  $\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{a} \in \mathfrak{R}^n$ , there exists some  $\mathbf{y}$  lying on the line segment connecting  $\mathbf{x}$  and  $\mathbf{a}$  such that

$$f(\mathbf{x}) = f(\mathbf{a}) + Df(\mathbf{a})'(\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{a}) + \frac{1}{2}(\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{a})' D^2 f(\mathbf{y})(\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{a}).$$

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<sup>9</sup>The reader should draw a graph for these inequalities for the case of  $n = 1$ .

Now suppose that  $f$  is concave, so that  $D^2f(\mathbf{y})$  is negative semi-definite. Then we have

$$\frac{1}{2}(\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{a})'D^2f(\mathbf{y})(\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{a}) \leq 0,$$

so that

$$f(\mathbf{x}) - f(\mathbf{a}) \leq Df(\mathbf{a})'(\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{a}).$$

If  $D^2f(\mathbf{y})$  is negative definite, then given  $\mathbf{x} \neq \mathbf{a}$ , we have

$$\frac{1}{2}(\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{a})'D^2f(\mathbf{y})(\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{a}) < 0,$$

implying that

$$f(\mathbf{x}) - f(\mathbf{a}) < Df(\mathbf{a})'(\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{a}). \quad \text{Q.E.D.}$$

43. According to the *Theorem of Taylor Expansion with a Remainder*, when moving from  $\mathbf{a}$  to  $\mathbf{x} \in B(\mathbf{a}, r)$  in  $f$ 's domain of definition, the functional value of  $f$  would increase if

$$Df(\mathbf{a})^T(\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{a}) + \frac{1}{2}(\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{a})^T D^2f(\mathbf{y})(\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{a}) > 0.$$

Note that when  $r$  is small enough, the preceding inequality holds if and only if<sup>10</sup>

$$Df(\mathbf{a})^T(\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{a}) = \|Df(\mathbf{a})\| \|\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{a}\| \cos(\theta) > 0,$$

where  $\theta$  is the angle between the two vectors  $Df(\mathbf{a})$  and  $\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{a}$ , which must be acute to ensure the above inequality.<sup>11</sup>

<sup>10</sup>Imagine that we replace  $(\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{a})$  by  $\epsilon(\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{a})$ , and observe that when  $\epsilon > 0$  is a tiny number,  $\epsilon|Df(\mathbf{a})^T(\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{a})|$  is much greater than  $\epsilon^2|\frac{1}{2}(\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{a})^T D^2f(\mathbf{y})(\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{a})|$ . Thus  $\epsilon Df(\mathbf{a})^T(\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{a}) + \epsilon^2[\frac{1}{2}(\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{a})^T D^2f(\mathbf{y})(\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{a})]$  is positive (respectively, negative) if and only if  $Df(\mathbf{a})^T(\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{a})$  is positive (respectively, negative).

<sup>11</sup>Recall the following *Law of Cosines*: Let  $\triangle ABC$  be a triangle whose sides  $a, b, c$  are such that  $a$  is opposite  $A$ ,  $b$  is opposite  $B$  and  $c$  is opposite  $C$ . Let  $D$  be such that the two line segments  $\overline{BD}$  and  $\overline{CD}$  are orthogonal to each other. Then, since the length of  $\overline{BD}$  is  $a \sin C$  and the length of  $\overline{AD}$  is  $|b - a \cos C|$ , we have  $c^2 = a^2 + b^2 - 2ab \cos C$ . Now, given two vectors  $\mathbf{v}, \mathbf{w}$  and the angle  $\theta$  between them, if we let  $a = \|\mathbf{v}\|$ ,  $b = \|\mathbf{w}\|$  and  $c = \|\mathbf{v} - \mathbf{w}\|$ , then it follows from the *Law of Cosines* that

$$\|\mathbf{v}\|^2 + \|\mathbf{w}\|^2 - 2(\mathbf{v} \cdot \mathbf{w}) = (\mathbf{v} - \mathbf{w}) \cdot (\mathbf{v} - \mathbf{w}) = c^2 = a^2 + b^2 - 2ab \cos \theta = \|\mathbf{v}\|^2 + \|\mathbf{w}\|^2 - 2\|\mathbf{v}\|\|\mathbf{w}\| \cos(\theta),$$

implying that the following *Cosine Formula for Dot Product* must hold:

$$\mathbf{v} \cdot \mathbf{w} = \|\mathbf{v}\|\|\mathbf{w}\| \cos(\theta).$$

44. We shall from now on confine attention to twice differentiable functions.

A necessary condition for  $\mathbf{x}^* \in \mathfrak{R}^n$  to solve the following maximization program (P1)

$$\max_{\mathbf{x} \in \mathfrak{R}^n} f(\mathbf{x})$$

is that  $Df(\mathbf{x}^*) = 0$ , which will be referred to as *the first-order conditions* for the optimal solution  $\mathbf{x}^*$ . This necessary condition is also sufficient, if  $f$  is concave.

45. Consider the following maximization program (P2):

$$\max_{\mathbf{x} \in \mathfrak{R}^n} f(\mathbf{x})$$

subject to

$$\forall i = 1, 2, \dots, m, \quad g_i(\mathbf{x}) = 0,$$

where  $m < n$ .

**Theorem 3** (*Lagrange Theorem*) Suppose that  $\mathbf{x}^*$  solves (P2) and  $\{Dg_j(\mathbf{x}^*); j \in \{1, 2, \dots, m\}\}$  is a set of linearly independent gradient vectors. (This is known as a **constraint qualifications condition**.) Then, there must exist  $m$  constants (called the **Lagrange multipliers**)  $\pi_1, \pi_2, \dots, \pi_m$  such that

$$(i) \quad \forall i = 1, 2, \dots, m, \quad g_i(\mathbf{x}^*) = 0; \text{ and}$$

(ii)

$$\sum_{i=1}^m \pi_i Dg_i(\mathbf{x}^*) = Df(\mathbf{x}^*).$$

Conversely, if  $f$  is concave and all  $g_i$ 's are affine, then if  $\mathbf{x}^*$  satisfies (i) and (ii), then  $\mathbf{x}^*$  solves (P2). If  $f$  is strictly concave, such  $\mathbf{x}^*$  is unique.

To see the role of the **constraint qualifications** condition in the above necessary condition, consider the following example with  $n =$

$m = 2$ :  $f(x_1, x_2) = x_1 + x_2$ ,  $g_1(x_1, x_2) = x_1^2 + x_2^2 - 1$ ,  $g_2(x_1, x_2) = x_1^2 + (x_2 - 2)^2 - 1$ . There is only one feasible solution in this case, namely,  $(x_1, x_2) = (0, 1)$ , which is apparently the optimal solution. Thus  $\mathbf{x}^* = (0, 1)$ . However, there does not exist  $\pi_1, \pi_2 \in \Re$  such that  $Df(\mathbf{x}^*) = \pi_1 Dg_1(\mathbf{x}^*) + \pi_2 Dg_2(\mathbf{x}^*)$ . This happens because  $Dg_1(\mathbf{x}^*)$  and  $Dg_2(\mathbf{x}^*)$  are linearly dependent!

46. Now, let us prove the sufficiency of Lagrange Theorem. Suppose that there exists  $\mathbf{x}^*$  satisfying

- (i)  $\forall i = 1, 2, \dots, m$ ,  $g_i(\mathbf{x}^*) = 0$ ; and  
(ii)

$$\sum_{i=1}^m \pi_i Dg_i(\mathbf{x}^*) = Df(\mathbf{x}^*),$$

for some  $\pi_1, \pi_2, \dots, \pi_m \in \Re$ . Consider any other  $\mathbf{x}$  satisfying

$$\forall i = 1, 2, \dots, m, \quad g_i(\mathbf{x}) = 0.$$

We must show that

$$f(\mathbf{x}^*) \geq f(\mathbf{x}).$$

To see that this is true, first note that for all  $i = 1, 2, \dots, m$ , by the fact that  $g_i$  is affine, we have  $\mathbf{a}_i^T \mathbf{x} + b_i = g_i(\mathbf{x}) = 0 = g_i(\mathbf{x}^*) = \mathbf{a}_i^T \mathbf{x}^* + b_i$ , where  $\mathbf{a}_i$  is the gradient of  $g_i$ , so that

$$0 = g_i(\mathbf{x}) - g_i(\mathbf{x}^*) = \mathbf{a}_i^T (\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}^*) = Dg_i(\mathbf{x}^*)^T (\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}^*).$$

Now, observe that

$$f(\mathbf{x}) - f(\mathbf{x}^*) \leq Df(\mathbf{x}^*)^T (\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}^*) = \sum_{i=1}^m \pi_i Dg_i(\mathbf{x}^*)^T (\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}^*) = 0,$$

and hence  $\mathbf{x}^*$  is indeed an optimal solution to (P2). Finally, if both  $\mathbf{x}^*$  and  $\mathbf{x}^{**}$  are optimal solutions to (P2), then  $\mathbf{x}' \equiv \frac{1}{2}(\mathbf{x}^* + \mathbf{x}^{**})$  must be feasible also (i.e.,  $g_i(\mathbf{x}') = 0$  for all  $i$ ), and yet by Jensen's inequality we have

$$f(\mathbf{x}') > \frac{1}{2}[f(\mathbf{x}^*) + f(\mathbf{x}^{**})] = f(\mathbf{x}^*),$$

which is a contradiction. Hence the optimal solution must be unique when  $f$  is strictly concave.

47. Consider the following maximization program (P3):

$$\max_{\mathbf{x} \in \mathfrak{R}^n} f(\mathbf{x})$$

subject to

$$\forall i = 1, 2, \dots, m, \quad g_i(\mathbf{x}) \leq 0.$$

**Theorem 4** (*Kuhn-Tucker Theorem*) *Suppose that there exists some  $\hat{\mathbf{x}}$  such that  $g_i(\hat{\mathbf{x}}) < 0$  for all  $i = 1, 2, \dots, m$ . (This is called the **Slater Condition**.)<sup>12</sup> Then if  $\mathbf{x}^*$  is a solution to (P3), there must exist  $m$  non-negative constants (called the **Lagrange multipliers** for the  $m$  constraints)  $\pi_1, \pi_2, \dots, \pi_m$  such that (i)*

$$\sum_{i=1}^m \pi_i Dg_i(\mathbf{x}^*) = Df(\mathbf{x}^*);$$

and (ii) (*complementary slackness*) for all  $i = 1, 2, \dots, m$ ,  $\pi_i g_i(\mathbf{x}^*) = 0$ . Conversely, if  $f$  is concave and for all  $i = 1, 2, \dots, m$ ,  $g_i : \mathcal{R}^n \rightarrow \mathcal{R}$  is convex, and if  $\mathbf{x}^*$  satisfies the above (i) and (ii), then  $\mathbf{x}^*$  is a solution to the above program (P3). If  $f$  is strictly concave, such  $\mathbf{x}^*$  is unique.

To see the role of the **Slater Condition** consider the following example with  $m = n = 2$ :  $f(x_1, x_2) = x_1 + x_2$ ,  $g_1(x_1, x_2) = x_1^2 + x_2^2 - 1$ ,  $g_2(x_1, x_2) = x_1^2 + (x_2 - 2)^2 - 1$ . There is only one feasible solution in this case, namely,  $(x_1, x_2) = (0, 1)$ , which is apparently the optimal solution. Thus  $\mathbf{x}^* = (0, 1)$ . However, there does not exist  $\pi_1, \pi_2 \in \mathfrak{R}_+$  such that  $Df(\mathbf{x}^*) = \pi_1 Dg_1(\mathbf{x}^*) + \pi_2 Dg_2(\mathbf{x}^*)$ . This happens because we cannot find some  $\hat{\mathbf{x}}$  such that  $g_1(\hat{\mathbf{x}}) < 0$  and  $g_2(\hat{\mathbf{x}}) < 0$ !

To see why  $Df(\mathbf{x}^*)$  must be contained in the polyhedral cone generated by  $\{Dg_i(\mathbf{x}^*); i = 1, 2, \dots, m\}$ , note that in the opposite case we would be able to find some tiny vector  $\mathbf{a} \equiv \mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}^*$  such that  $\mathbf{a}$  and each  $Dg_i(\mathbf{x}^*)$  together create an obtuse angle but it and  $Df(\mathbf{x}^*)$  together

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<sup>12</sup>Slater condition is a constraint qualification condition, and it applies mainly to the case where  $f$  is concave and  $g_i$ 's are convex. There are several other constraint qualification conditions. For example, one of them requires that there exist  $\hat{\mathbf{x}}$  such that, for all  $i = 1, 2, \dots, m$ ,  $Dg_i(\mathbf{x}^*)^T \hat{\mathbf{x}} < 0$  whenever  $g_i(\mathbf{x}^*) = 0$ . Let us call this condition A.



create an acute angle. This implies that we can find another feasible solution  $\mathbf{x}$  close to  $\mathbf{x}^*$  such that  $f(\mathbf{x}) > f(\mathbf{x}^*)$ , which is a contradiction. I shall demonstrate this fact in class using a graph.<sup>13</sup>

48. Let me prove the sufficiency of Kuhn-Tucker Theorem. Suppose that  $f$  and all  $-g_i$  are concave. Suppose that there exist non-negative  $\pi_1, \pi_2, \dots, \pi_m$  such that at  $\mathbf{x}^*$ , (i)

$$\sum_{i=1}^m \pi_i Dg_i(\mathbf{x}^*) = Df(\mathbf{x}^*);$$

and (ii) (complementary slackness) for all  $i = 1, 2, \dots, m$ ,  $\pi_i g_i(\mathbf{x}^*) = 0$ . We must show that given any  $\mathbf{x}$  such that  $g_i(\mathbf{x}) \leq 0$  for all  $i = 1, 2, \dots, m$ , we have

$$f(\mathbf{x}) - f(\mathbf{x}^*) \leq 0.$$

To this end, note that

$$\begin{aligned} f(\mathbf{x}) - f(\mathbf{x}^*) &\leq Df(\mathbf{x}^*)^T(\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}^*) \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^m \pi_i Dg_i(\mathbf{x}^*)^T(\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}^*) \leq \sum_{i=1}^m \pi_i [g_i(\mathbf{x}) - g_i(\mathbf{x}^*)] \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^m \pi_i g_i(\mathbf{x}) \leq 0, \end{aligned}$$

where the first inequality follows from the preceding footnote and the fact that  $f$  is concave, the first equality follows from the assumption

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<sup>13</sup>The necessity that  $Df(\mathbf{x}^*)$  must be contained in the polyhedral cone generated by  $\{Dg_i(\mathbf{x}^*); i = 1, 2, \dots, m\}$  is actually a consequence of the following Farkas Lemma: if  $\mathbf{a}_1, \mathbf{a}_2, \dots, \mathbf{a}_m, \mathbf{b} \in \mathbb{R}^n$  are such that  $\mathbf{b} \cdot \mathbf{x} \leq 0$  whenever  $\mathbf{a}_i \cdot \mathbf{x} \leq 0$  for all  $i = 1, 2, \dots, m$ , where  $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ , then it must be that  $\mathbf{b} \in \mathcal{P} \equiv \{\sum_{i=1}^m t_i \mathbf{a}_i : t_i \in \mathbb{R}_+, \forall i = 1, 2, \dots, m\}$ . We say that  $\mathcal{P}$  is a polyhedral cone generated by  $\mathbf{a}_1, \mathbf{a}_2, \dots, \mathbf{a}_m$ . The idea is that  $\mathcal{P}$  is non-empty, closed and convex, and if  $\mathcal{P}$  does not contain  $\mathbf{b}$ , then there exists a hyperplane that separates strictly  $\mathcal{P}$  and  $\mathbf{b}$ ; see section 11 of the lecture note *Separating Hyperplane Theorem*. That is, there exists some  $\mathbf{y} \in \mathbb{R}^n$  and  $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}$  such that  $\mathbf{p} \cdot \mathbf{y} < \alpha$  for all  $\mathbf{p} \in \mathcal{P}$  and yet  $\mathbf{b} \cdot \mathbf{y} > \alpha$ . Note that if  $\mathbf{p} \in \mathcal{P}$  is such that  $\mathbf{p} \cdot \mathbf{y} > 0$ , then  $\alpha > 0$ , but since  $t\mathbf{p} \in \mathcal{P}$  for any  $t \in \mathbb{R}_+$ , we must have  $t\mathbf{p} \cdot \mathbf{y} > \alpha$  for sufficiently large  $t$ , a contradiction. Since  $\mathbf{0} \in \mathcal{P}$ , we actually have  $\alpha > 0 = \mathbf{0} \cdot \mathbf{y}$ . Thus we must have  $\mathbf{p} \cdot \mathbf{y} \leq 0$  for all  $\mathbf{p} \in \mathcal{P}$  and yet  $\mathbf{b} \cdot \mathbf{y} > 0$ . Now, if we let  $\mathbf{b} = Df(\mathbf{x}^*)$  and  $\mathbf{a}_i = Dg_i(\mathbf{x}^*)$  for all  $i = 1, 2, \dots, m$ , and if we suppose that the necessity fails but condition A holds, then for  $\epsilon, e > 0$  small enough,  $g_i(\mathbf{x}^* + \epsilon(1-e)\mathbf{y} + \epsilon e\hat{\mathbf{x}}) \leq g_i(\mathbf{x}^*) \leq 0$  but  $f(\mathbf{x}^* + \epsilon(1-e)\mathbf{y} + \epsilon e\hat{\mathbf{x}}) > f(\mathbf{x}^*)$ , which is a contradiction.

that the Kuhn-Tucker condition holds at  $\mathbf{x}^*$ , the second inequality follows from the fact that  $\pi_i \geq 0$  and  $g_i$  is convex for all  $i = 1, 2, \dots, m$ , and the last equality follows from the assumption that the complementary slackness holds at  $\mathbf{x}^*$ , and the fact that  $g_i(\mathbf{x}) \leq 0$  for all  $i = 1, 2, \dots, m$ . Thus  $\mathbf{x}^*$  is indeed an optimal solution to (P3). Finally, if both  $\mathbf{x}^*$  and  $\mathbf{x}^{**}$  are optimal solutions to (P2), then  $\mathbf{x}' \equiv \frac{1}{2}(\mathbf{x}^* + \mathbf{x}^{**})$  must be feasible also (i.e., by Jensen's inequality  $g_i(\mathbf{x}') \leq 0$  for all  $i$ ), and yet by Jensen's inequality again we have

$$f(\mathbf{x}') > \frac{1}{2}[f(\mathbf{x}^*) + f(\mathbf{x}^{**})] = f(\mathbf{x}^*),$$

which is a contradiction. Hence the optimal solution must be unique when  $f$  is strictly concave.

49. **Theorem 5** *Consider the following maximization problem:*

$$\max_{\mathbf{x} \in \mathfrak{R}^n} f(\mathbf{x})$$

*subject to*

$$g_i(\mathbf{x}) \leq 0, \quad \forall i = 1, 2, \dots, m;$$

$$h_j(\mathbf{x}) = 0, \quad \forall j = 1, 2, \dots, l.$$

*This maximization problem involves  $m$  inequality constraints and  $l$  equality constraints. The associated Slater condition is as follows: there exists  $\hat{\mathbf{x}} \in \mathfrak{R}^n$  such that*

$$g_i(\hat{\mathbf{x}}) < 0, \quad \forall i = 1, 2, \dots, m;$$

$$h_j(\hat{\mathbf{x}}) = 0, \quad \forall j = 1, 2, \dots, l.$$

*When the Slater condition holds, the following Kuhn-Tucker necessary conditions must hold: at an optimal solution  $\mathbf{x}^*$ , where  $\{Dh_j(\mathbf{x}^*); j = 1, 2, \dots, l\}$  consists of a set of linearly independent vectors, there must exist  $(\mu_1, \mu_2, \dots, \mu_m)^T \in \mathfrak{R}_+^m$  and  $(\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \dots, \lambda_l)^T \in \mathfrak{R}^l$  such that*

$$\text{(Stationarity)} \quad Df(\mathbf{x}^*) = \sum_{i=1}^m \mu_i Dg_i(\mathbf{x}^*) + \sum_{j=1}^l \lambda_j Dh_j(\mathbf{x}^*);$$

$$h_j(\mathbf{x}^*) = 0, \quad \forall j = 1, 2, \dots, l;$$

$$\text{(Complementary Slackness)} \quad \mu_i g_i(\mathbf{x}^*) = 0, \quad \forall i = 1, 2, \dots, m.$$

Conversely, when the Slater condition holds,  $f$  is concave,  $g_i$ 's are convex, and  $h_j$ 's are affine, if  $\mathbf{x}^*$ ,  $(\mu_1, \mu_2, \dots, \mu_m)^T \in \mathfrak{R}_+^m$ , and  $(\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \dots, \lambda_l)^T \in \mathfrak{R}^l$  satisfy the above Kuhn-Tucker necessary conditions, then  $\mathbf{x}^*$  must be an optimal solution.<sup>14</sup>

50. The remaining sections give some exercises.
51. Consider the following maximization problem: for some constant  $a \in \mathfrak{R}_+$ ,

$$\max_{x \in \mathfrak{R}} f(x; a) \equiv 2a - (x - a)^2$$

subject to

$$g(x) = (x - 3)^2 - 1 \leq 0.$$

Given  $a$ , let  $x^*(a)$  be the unique optimal solution and  $\pi(a)$  the Lagrange multiplier associated with the constraint  $g \leq 0$ .

(i) Show that in the above maximization problem the Slater condition is satisfied, and that  $f$  and  $g$  are respectively concave and convex.

(ii) Show that there exist  $\underline{a}, \bar{a} \in \mathfrak{R}_+$  with  $\underline{a} < \bar{a}$  such that  $\pi(a) > 0$  if and only if either  $a < \underline{a}$  or  $a > \bar{a}$ . Find  $\underline{a}$  and  $\bar{a}$ .

(iii) Compute  $x^*(\underline{a} - 1)$ ,  $\pi(\underline{a} - 1)$ ,  $Df(x^*(\underline{a} - 1))$  and  $Dg(x^*(\underline{a} - 1))$ .

(iv) Compute  $x^*(\bar{a} + 1)$ , and  $\pi(\bar{a} + 1)$ ,  $Df(x^*(\bar{a} + 1))$  and  $Dg(x^*(\bar{a} + 1))$ .

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<sup>14</sup>Visit for example

[https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Karush%E2%80%93Kuhn%E2%80%93Tucker\\_conditions](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Karush%E2%80%93Kuhn%E2%80%93Tucker_conditions) to see a list of regularity conditions (or constraint qualification conditions) including the Slater condition. After Harold W. Kuhn and Albert W. Tucker published the Kuhn-Tucker conditions in 1951, scholars discovered that these necessary conditions had been stated by William Karush in his master's thesis in 1939. Hence nowadays people also refer to the Kuhn-Tucker conditions as Karush-Kuhn-Tucker conditions.

52. Suppose that  $f : \Re \rightarrow \Re$  is twice continuously differentiable and strictly concave. Let  $x^*$  attain the maximum value of  $f$ . Show that if  $f'(x) > 0$  then  $x^* > x$ , and if  $f'(x) < 0$  then  $x^* < x$ .
53. Consider the following maximization problem:

$$\max_{(x,y) \in \Re^2} x,$$

subject to

$$g(x, y) = (x + 1)^2 + (y - 2)^2 - 4 \leq 0;$$

$$h(x, y) = y - 3 = 0.$$

Let  $\mu_g$  and  $\mu_h$  denote the Lagrange multipliers associated with respectively  $g \leq 0$  and  $h = 0$ . Let  $(x^*, y^*)$  denote *the* optimal solution.

(i) Are constraint qualification conditions stated in section 48 of Lecture 0 satisfied?

(ii) Find  $\mu_g$ ,  $\mu_h$ , and  $(x^*, y^*)$ .

54. Consider the following maximization problem:

$$\text{Problem (P): } \max_{T_1, T_2, q_1, q_2} \frac{1}{2}[T_1 - cq_1] + \frac{1}{2}[T_2 - cq_2]$$

subject to

$$\theta_1 V(q_1) - T_1 \geq 0, \tag{2}$$

$$\theta_2 V(q_2) - T_2 \geq 0, \tag{3}$$

$$\theta_1 V(q_1) - T_1 \geq \theta_1 V(q_2) - T_2, \tag{4}$$

$$\theta_2 V(q_2) - T_2 \geq \theta_2 V(q_1) - T_1. \tag{5}$$

The interpretation is as follows. A large bank is facing a small borrowing firm, which is equally likely to be of type  $\theta_1$  or type  $\theta_2$ . By borrowing  $q$  dollars from the bank today (date 0), a type- $\theta_j$  borrowing firm will generate a cash flow  $\theta_j V(q)$  tomorrow (date 1). The bank cannot tell the borrowing firm's type, and hence it offers a menu of choices to the borrowing firm, and asks the firm to pick one. The menu

says that, for  $j \in \{1, 2\}$ , if the firm would borrow  $q_j$  dollars today, then it has to repay the bank  $T_j$  dollars tomorrow.

In designing the menu of bank loan contracts, the bank must make sure that the borrowing firm is willing to accept the deal, regardless of its type (so that (1) and (2) must hold); and the bank must also make sure that a type- $\theta_j$  borrowing firm would rather accept the deal  $(q_j, T_j)$  than accept  $(q_i, T_i)$ , which is designed for the other type  $\theta_i$  (and hence (3) and (4) must hold). (We are assuming zero interest rates, so that there is no discounting.)

Finally, note that the objective function in (P) says that the bank considers both types of the borrowing firm equally likely, and that for each dollar lent to the firm, the bank must incur a cost  $c > 0$ . The bank thus seeks to maximize its expected profit from lending to the firm.

Let us assume from now on that

$$\theta_1 = 3, \theta_2 = 4, V(q) = \ln(1 + q), c = \frac{1}{4}.$$

Let  $(q_2^{**}, q_1^{**}, T_2^{**}, T_1^{**})$  denote the optimal solution to the above maximization problem. Show that  $q_2^{**} = 15$  and  $q_1^{**} = 7$ . What are the associated  $T_2^{**}$  and  $T_1^{**}$ ? <sup>15</sup>

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<sup>15</sup>To apply the Kuhn-Tucker Theorem, first define  $h(x_j) \equiv e^{x_j} - 1$ , and re-write the maximization problem as

$$\text{Problem (P): } \max_{T_1, T_2, x_1, x_2} f(T_1, T_2, x_1, x_2) \equiv T_1 - ch(x_1) + T_2 - ch(x_2)$$

subject to

$$\begin{aligned} g_1 &\equiv T_1 - \theta_1 x_1 \leq 0; \\ g_2 &\equiv T_2 - \theta_2 x_2 \leq 0; \\ g_3 &\equiv T_1 - T_2 + \theta_1(x_2 - x_1) \leq 0; \\ g_4 &\equiv T_2 - T_1 + \theta_2(x_1 - x_2) \leq 0. \end{aligned}$$

Let  $\mu_j$  be the associated Lagrange multiplier for constraint  $g_j \leq 0$ .

Then, show that  $f$  is strictly concave and  $g_j$ 's are convex, with

$$Df = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ -ch'(x_1) \\ -ch'(x_2) \end{bmatrix}, \quad Dg_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ -\theta_1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \quad Dg_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \\ -\theta_2 \end{bmatrix},$$

55. Consider the set  $X = \{1, 2, 3\}$ . We shall define different metrics on  $X$ . (Notice that  $X$  is not a linear space; a metric space need not be a linear space.)

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$$Dg_3 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \\ -\theta_1 \\ \theta_1 \end{bmatrix}, \quad Dg_4 = \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 1 \\ \theta_2 \\ -\theta_2 \end{bmatrix}.$$

It is useful to gain some insights before computing.

- Note that the  $\theta_2$  type can always pretend to be the  $\theta_1$  type and take the deal  $(T_1, x_1)$ , which would allow the  $\theta_2$ -buyer to obtain a payoff

$$\theta_2 x_1 - T_1 \geq \theta_1 x_1 - T_1 \geq 0,$$

and the first inequality would be strict if  $x_1 > 0$  (or equivalently  $q_1 > 0$ ). Thus  $x_1 > 0$  together with  $g_4 \leq 0$  would imply  $g_2 \leq 0$ . That is, if we conjecture that  $x_1 > 0$  then removing the second constraint would not alter the optimal solution to (P).

- Following the removal of  $g_2 \leq 0$ , we can further conjecture that the first constraint  $g_1 \leq 0$  must be binding at an optimal solution, for otherwise we could raise  $T_1$  and  $T_2$  by the same tiny positive amount without violating  $g_1, g_3,$  and  $g_4$ , but this would increase  $f$ !
- The removal of  $g_2 \leq 0$  and the conjecture that  $g_1 = 0$  at optimum now allow us to further conjecture that  $g_4$  must be binding at an optimal solution, for otherwise we could raise  $T_2$  alone by a tiny positive amount without violating the other constraints, but this would increase  $f$ !
- Now, following  $g_1 = 0 = g_4$  and following the removal of  $g_2 \leq 0$ , we can re-state  $g_3 \leq 0$  as

$$(\theta_1 - \theta_2)(x_2 - x_1) \leq 0,$$

but this last inequality would not be binding so long as  $x_2 > x_1$ .

Thus if we conjecture that  $x_2 > x_1 > 0$  at optimum then we would also conjecture that

$$\mu_2 = \mu_3 = 0, \quad T_1 = \theta_1 x_1, \quad T_2 = T_1 + \theta_2(x_2 - x_1) = \theta_2 x_2 - (\theta_2 - \theta_1)x_1.$$

Now, by the fact that  $f$  is concave and  $g_1, g_2, g_3, g_4$  are all convex, the sufficiency of Kuhn-Tucker Theorem applies, and hence we only need to find  $\mu_1, \mu_4 \geq 0$  such that

$$Df = \mu_1 Dg_1 + \mu_4 Dg_4 \Rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ -ch'(x_1) \\ -ch'(x_2) \end{bmatrix} = \mu_1 \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ -\theta_1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} + \mu_4 \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 1 \\ \theta_2 \\ -\theta_2 \end{bmatrix},$$

and if a solution to this system of equations exists and if the solution implies that  $x_2 > x_1 > 0$  and  $g_2, g_3 < 0$ , then we are done. Moreover, because  $f$  is strictly concave in  $(x_1, x_2)$ , the solution would be unique!

Define  $d_1(x, y) \equiv 1_{x \neq y}(x, y)$  and  $d_2(x, y) \equiv |x - y|$ , for all  $x, y \in X$ . For  $j \in \{1, 2\}$ , let  $\beta_j$  contain all open balls in the metric space  $(X, d_j)$ . Let  $\tau_j$  contain all (arbitrary) unions of elements of  $\beta_j$ . We say that  $\tau_j$  is the *topology* generated by  $\beta_j$ . If  $\tau_i$  and  $\tau_j$  are two topologies defined on  $X$ , we say that  $\tau_i$  is stronger than  $\tau_j$  is  $\tau_j \subset \tau_i$ .

(i) Verify that  $d_1$  and  $d_2$  are both metrics on  $X$ .

(ii) Write down explicitly  $\beta_1$  and  $\beta_2$ .

(iii) Between  $\tau_1$  and  $\tau_2$ , which one is stronger?

**Solution.** Consider part (i). Note  $1_{x \neq y}(x, y)$  equals either 0 or 1, and it equals 0 when and only when  $x = y$ . Moreover,  $1_{x \neq y}(x, y) = 1_{x \neq y}(y, x)$  obviously. Finally, given  $x, y, z \in X$ ,  $1_{x \neq y}(x, y) + 1_{z \neq y}(y, z) \geq 1_{x \neq z}(x, z)$  obviously if  $x = z$ ; and in case  $x \neq z$ , then  $1_{x \neq y}(x, y) + 1_{z \neq y}(y, z) \geq 1_{x \neq z}(x, z)$  also holds because it is impossible that  $x = y$  and  $z = y$  at the same time. Thus  $d_1$  is a metric on  $X$ .

Next, observe that  $|x - y| \geq 0$  and equality holds when and only when  $x = y$ . Moreover,  $|x - y| = |y - x|$  obviously. Finally, given  $a, b \in \mathfrak{R}$ ,  $|a| + |b| \geq |a + b|$  obviously, and hence given  $x, y, z \in X$ , if we define  $a = x - y$  and  $b = y - z$ , then we have  $|x - y| + |y - z| \geq |(x - y) + (y - z)| = |x - z|$ . Thus  $d_2$  is also a metric on  $X$ .

Consider part (ii). Let  $B^j(x, e)$  denote the open ball centering on  $x \in X$  with radius  $e \in \mathfrak{R}_{++}$  under metric  $d_j$ . By definition, we have

$$B^1(x, e) = \begin{cases} \{x\}, & \text{if } e \leq 1; \\ X, & \text{if } e > 1. \end{cases}$$

Since  $\beta_1$  contains all open balls under  $d_1$ , we have

$$\beta_1 = \{\{1\}, \{2\}, \{3\}, X\}.$$

Observe also that if  $x, y, z$  are three distinct elements of  $X$ , then

$$B^2(x, e) = \begin{cases} \{x\}, & \text{if } e \leq \min(|x - y|, |y - z|); \\ \{x, y\} \text{ or } \{x, z\}, & \text{if } \min(|x - y|, |y - z|) < e \leq \max(|x - y|, |y - z|); \\ X, & \text{if } e > \max(|x - y|, |y - z|). \end{cases}$$

Since  $\beta_2$  contains all open balls under  $d_2$ , we have

$$\beta_2 = \{\{1\}, \{2\}, \{3\}, \{1, 2\}, \{1, 3\}, \{2, 3\}, X\}.$$

Consider part (iii). Since both  $\beta_1$  and  $\beta_2$  contain  $\{1\}, \{2\}, \{3\}$ , and since  $\tau_j$  contains all (including empty) unions of elements of  $\beta_j$ , we have

$$\tau_1 = \tau_2 = 2^X;$$

that is,  $\tau_1$  and  $\tau_2$  are the same topology on  $X$ .

56. Suppose  $X, Y$  are some nonempty sets and  $f : X \rightarrow Y$ . For all  $A \subset X$  and  $B \subset Y$ , define  $f(A) \equiv \{f(x) : x \in A\}$ ,  $f^{-1}(B) \equiv \{x : f(x) \in B\}$ .

Show the following:

- (i)  $f(\emptyset) = \emptyset = f^{-1}(\emptyset)$ ;
- (ii)  $f(X) \subset Y$ ,  $f^{-1}(Y) = X$ ;
- (iii)  $A_1 \subset A_2 \subset X$ ,  $B_1 \subset B_2 \subset Y \Rightarrow f(A_1) \subset f(A_2)$ ,  $f^{-1}(B_1) \subset f^{-1}(B_2)$ ;
- (iv)  $\cup_{i=1}^{\infty} A_i \subset X$ ,  $\cup_{i=1}^{\infty} B_i \subset Y \Rightarrow f(\cup_{i=1}^{\infty} A_i) = \cup_{i=1}^{\infty} f(A_i)$ ,  $f^{-1}(\cup_{i=1}^{\infty} B_i) = \cup_{i=1}^{\infty} f^{-1}(B_i)$ ;
- (v)  $\cap_{i=1}^{\infty} A_i \subset X$ ,  $\cap_{i=1}^{\infty} B_i \subset Y \Rightarrow f(\cap_{i=1}^{\infty} A_i) \subset \cap_{i=1}^{\infty} f(A_i)$ ,  $f^{-1}(\cap_{i=1}^{\infty} B_i) = \cap_{i=1}^{\infty} f^{-1}(B_i)$ ;
- (vi)  $[f^{-1}(B)]^c = f^{-1}(B^c)$ .
- (vii) For  $f : \mathcal{R} \rightarrow \mathcal{R}$  given by  $f(x) = 3x^2 + 2$ , show that  $f^{-1}(f([0, 1])) = [-1, 1]$  and  $f(f^{-1}([0, 5])) = [2, 5]$ .

**Solution.** Parts (i) and (ii) are definitional. In part (i), since  $\emptyset$  contains no  $x \in X$ ,  $f(\emptyset)$  contains no  $f(x)$  in  $Y$ ; and since  $\emptyset$  contains no  $f(x) \in Y$ ,  $f^{-1}(\emptyset)$  contains no  $x$  in  $X$ . In part (ii), since  $X$  contains



each of its elements  $x$ , and each  $f(x) \in Y$ ,  $f(X) \subset Y$ ; and since  $Y$  contains each  $f(x)$  with  $x \in X$ ,  $f^{-1}(Y) = X$ . It is easy to find an example where  $f(X) \neq Y$ ; recall that this is true whenever  $f$  is not surjective.

Part (iii) is again definitional. Since  $A_2$  contains every  $x$  contained by  $A_1$ , by definition  $f(A_2)$  contains every  $f(x)$  with  $x \in A_1$ ; that is,  $f(A_2)$  contains every element of  $f(A_1)$ . Thus  $f(A_1) \subset f(A_2)$ . Similarly,  $B_2$  contains every  $f(x)$  contained in  $B_1$ , and hence  $f^{-1}(B_2)$  contains every element of  $f^{-1}(B_1)$ , so that  $f^{-1}(B_1) \subset f^{-1}(B_2)$ .

Consider part (iv). Note that  $f(x) \in f(\cup_{i=1}^{\infty} A_i)$  if and only if  $x \in \cup_{i=1}^{\infty} A_i$ , which is true if and only if  $x \in A_i$  for some  $i$ , which in turn is true if and only if  $f(x) \in f(A_i)$  for some  $i$ , which in turn is true if and only if  $f(x) \in \cup_{i=1}^{\infty} f(A_i)$ . Thus we have  $f(\cup_{i=1}^{\infty} A_i) = \cup_{i=1}^{\infty} f(A_i)$ .

Similarly,  $x \in f^{-1}(\cap_{i=1}^{\infty} B_i)$  if and only if  $f(x)$  is contained in each and every  $B_i$ , which is true if and only if  $x$  is contained in each and every  $f^{-1}(B_i)$ , or equivalently, if and only if  $x \in \cap_{i=1}^{\infty} f^{-1}(B_i)$ . Thus we have  $f^{-1}(\cap_{i=1}^{\infty} B_i) = \cap_{i=1}^{\infty} f^{-1}(B_i)$ .

Consider part (v). Note that  $f(x) \in f(\cap_{i=1}^{\infty} A_i)$  if and only if  $x$  is contained in each and every  $A_i$ , which implies that  $f(x)$  is contained in each and every  $f(A_i)$ , or equivalently,  $f(x) \in \cap_{i=1}^{\infty} f(A_i)$ . Hence we have  $f(\cap_{i=1}^{\infty} A_i) \subset \cap_{i=1}^{\infty} f(A_i)$ . It is easy to find an example where  $f(\cap_{i=1}^{\infty} A_i) \neq \cap_{i=1}^{\infty} f(A_i)$ . For example, let  $X = Y = \mathfrak{R}$  and  $f(x) = x^2$ . Let  $A_1 = (-1, 0)$  and  $A_i = (0, 1)$  for all  $i \geq 2$ . Then we have  $f(\cap_{i=1}^{\infty} A_i) = f(\emptyset) = \emptyset$ , but  $f(A_j) = (0, 1)$  for all  $j$  so that  $\cap_{i=1}^{\infty} f(A_i) = (0, 1)$  also.

Now, consider part (vi). Note that  $x \in [f^{-1}(B)]^c$  if and only if  $f^{-1}(B)$  does not contain  $x$ , which is true if and only if  $B$  does not contain  $f(x)$ , or equivalently, if and only if  $f(x) \in B^c$ , which in turn is true if and only if  $x \in f^{-1}(B^c)$ . Thus  $[f^{-1}(B)]^c = f^{-1}(B^c)$ .

Finally, consider part (vii). Note that  $f([0, 1]) = [2, 5]$ , and  $f^{-1}([2, 5]) = [-1, 1]$  just as asserted. Note also that  $f^{-1}([0, 5]) = f^{-1}([2, 5]) = [-1, 1]$ , and  $f([-1, 1]) = [2, 5]$ , just as asserted.

57. Consider the set  $X = \{1, 2\}$ . Define  $\tau_1 \equiv \{X, \emptyset\}$  and  $\tau_2 \equiv 2^X$ . Given  $j$ , we say that  $f : (X, \tau_j) \rightarrow (\mathfrak{R}, \mathcal{B}(\mathfrak{R}))$  is a continuous function if  $f^{-1}((a, b)) \in \tau_j$  whenever  $a < b$ ,  $a, b \in \mathfrak{R}$ . We say that a sequence  $\{x_n; n \in \mathbf{Z}_+\}$  in  $(X, \tau_j)$  converges to  $x \in X$  if for all  $U \in \tau_j$  with  $x \in U$ ,

there exists some  $N(U) \in \mathbf{Z}_+$  such that  $x_m \in U$  whenever  $m \geq N(U)$ .

(i) Find a function  $f : (X, d_j) \rightarrow (\mathfrak{R}, \mathcal{B}(\mathfrak{R}))$  such that  $f$  is continuous if  $j = 2$  but not if  $j = 1$ .

(ii) Find a sequence  $\{x_n; n \in \mathbf{Z}_+\}$  in  $X$  such that  $\{x_n\}$  converges to some  $x \in X$  if  $j = 1$  but not if  $j = 2$ .