

Metric Spaces: An Introduction

❖ Metric Spaces

Let X be a non-empty set and \mathbb{R} denotes the set of real numbers. A function $d : X \times X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is said to be metric if it satisfies the following axioms $\forall x, y, z \in X$.

[M₁] $d(x, y) \geq 0$ i.e. d is finite and non-negative real valued function.

[M₂] $d(x, y) = 0$ if and only if $x = y$.

[M₃] $d(x, y) = d(y, x)$ (Symmetric property)

[M₄] $d(x, z) \leq d(x, y) + d(y, z)$ (Triangular inequality)

The pair (X, d) is then called *metric space*, d is called *distance function* and $d(x, y)$ is the distance from x to y .

Note: If (X, d) be a metric space then X is called *underlying set*.

❖ Examples:

i) Let X be a non-empty set. Then $d : X \times X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ defined by

$$d(x, y) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } x \neq y \\ 0 & \text{if } x = y \end{cases}$$

is a metric on X and is called *trivial metric* or *discrete metric*.

ii) Let \mathbb{R} be the set of real number. Then $d : \mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ defined by

$$d(x, y) = |x - y| \text{ is a metric on } \mathbb{R}.$$

The space (\mathbb{R}, d) is called *real line* and d is called *usual metric on } \mathbb{R}.*

iii) Let X be a non-empty set and $d : X \times X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be a metric on X . Then

$d' : X \times X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ defined by $d'(x, y) = \min(1, d(x, y))$ is also a metric on X .

iv) Let $d : \mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be defined by

$$d(x, y) = \sqrt{|x - y|}.$$

Then d is a metric space on \mathbb{R} .

v) Let $x = (x_1, y_1)$, $y = (x_2, y_2)$. We define

$$d(x, y) = \sqrt{(x_1 - x_2)^2 + (y_1 - y_2)^2} \text{ is a metric on } \mathbb{R}$$

and called *Euclidean metric on } \mathbb{R}^2 or *usual metric on } \mathbb{R}^2.**

vi) A $d : \mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is not a metric, where \mathbb{R} is the set of real number and d defined by

$$d(x, y) = (x - y)^2$$

vii) Let $x = (x_1, x_2)$, $y = (y_1, y_2) \in \mathbb{R}^2$. We define

$$d(x, y) = |x_1 - y_1| + |x_2 - y_2|$$

is a metric on \mathbb{R}^2 , called *Taxi-Cab metric* on \mathbb{R}^2 .

viii) Let \mathbb{R}^n be the set of all real n -tuples. For

$$x = (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n) \text{ and } y = (y_1, y_2, \dots, y_n) \text{ in } \mathbb{R}^n.$$

$$\text{we define } d(x, y) = \sqrt{(x_1 - y_1)^2 + (x_2 - y_2)^2 + \dots + (x_n - y_n)^2}$$

then d is metric on \mathbb{R}^n , called *Euclidean metric* on \mathbb{R}^n or *usual metric* on \mathbb{R}^n .

ix) The space l^∞ . As points we take bounded sequence

$x = (x_1, x_2, \dots)$, also written as $x = (x_i)$, of complex numbers such that

$$|x_i| \leq C_x \quad \forall i = 1, 2, 3, \dots$$

where C_x is fixed real number. The metric is defined as

$$d(x, y) = \sup_{i \in \mathbb{N}} |x_i - y_i| \quad \text{where } y = (y_i)$$

x) The space l^p , $p \geq 1$ is a real number, we take as member of l^p , all sequence

$$x = (\xi_j) \text{ of complex number such that } \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} |\xi_j|^p < \infty.$$

$$\text{The metric is defined by } d(x, y) = \left(\sum_{j=1}^{\infty} |\xi_j - \eta_j|^p \right)^{\frac{1}{p}},$$

$$\text{where } y = (\eta_j) \text{ such that } \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} |\eta_j|^p < \infty$$

❖ Open Ball

Let (X, d) be a metric space. An open ball in (X, d) is denoted by

$$B(x_0; r) = \{x \in X \mid d(x_0, x) < r\}$$

x_0 is called centre of the ball and r is called radius of ball and $r \geq 0$.

❖ Closed Ball

The set $\bar{B}(x_0; r) = \{x \in X \mid d(x_0, x) \leq r\}$ is called closed ball in (X, d) .

❖ Sphere

The set $S(x_0; r) = \{x \in X \mid d(x_0, x) = r\}$ is called sphere in (X, d) .

❖ Examples

Consider the set of real numbers with usual metric $d = |x - y| \quad \forall x, y \in \mathbb{R}$

$$\text{then } B(x_0; r) = \{x \in \mathbb{R} \mid d(x_0, x) < r\}$$

$$\text{i.e. } B(x_0; r) = \{x \in \mathbb{R} : |x - x_0| < r\}$$

$$\text{i.e. } x_0 - r < x < x_0 + r = (x_0 - r, x_0 + r)$$

i.e. open ball is the real line with usual metric is an open interval.

And $\bar{B}(x_0; r) = \{x \in \mathbb{R} : |x - x_0| \leq r\}$

i.e. $x_0 - r \leq x \leq x_0 + r = [x_0 - r, x_0 + r]$

i.e. closed ball in a real line is a closed interval.

And $S(x_0; r) = \{x \in \mathbb{R} : |x - x_0| = r\} = \{x_0 - r, x_0 + r\}$

i.e. two point $x_0 - r$ and $x_0 + r$ only.

❖ Open Set

Let (X, d) be a metric space. A set G is called open in X if for every $x \in G$, there exists an open ball $B(x; r) \subset G$.

❖ Theorem

An open ball in metric space X is open.

Proof.

Let $B(x_0; r)$ be an open ball in (X, d) .

Let $y \in B(x_0; r)$. Then $d(x_0, y) = r_1 < r$

Let $r_2 < r - r_1$. Then $B(y; r_2) \subset B(x_0; r)$

Hence $B(x_0; r)$ is an open set.

Note: Let (X, d) be a metric space. Then

- i) X and \varnothing are open sets.
- ii) union of any number of open sets is open.
- iii) intersection of a finite number of open sets is open.

❖ Limit point of a set

Let (X, d) be a metric space and $A \subset X$. Then $x \in X$ is called a *limit point* or *accumulation point* of A if for every open ball $B(x; r)$ with centre x ,

$$B(x; r) \cap \{A - \{x\}\} \neq \varnothing,$$

i.e. every open ball contains a point of A other than x .

❖ Closed Set

A subset A of metric space X is *closed* if it contains every limit point of itself. The set of all limit points of A is called the *derived set* of A and denoted by A' .

❖ Theorem

A subset A of a metric space is closed if and only if its complement A^c is open.

❖ Theorem

A closed ball is a closed set.

❖ Theorem

Let (X, d) be a metric space and $A \subset X$. If $x \in X$ is a limit point of A , then every open ball $B(x; r)$ with centre x contain an infinite numbers of point of A .

❖ Closure of a Set

Let (X, d) be a metric space and $M \subset X$. Then *closure of M* is denoted by $\overline{M} = M \cup M'$, where M' is the set of all limit points of M . It is the smallest closed superset of M .

❖ Dense Set

Let (X, d) be a metric space. Then a set $M \subset X$ is called dense in X if $\overline{M} = X$.

❖ Countable Set

A set A is *countable* if it is finite or there exists a function $f : A \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$ which is one-one and onto, where \mathbb{N} is the set of natural numbers.

e.g. \mathbb{N}, \mathbb{Q} and \mathbb{Z} are countable sets. The set of real numbers, the set of irrational numbers and any interval are not countable sets.

❖ Separable Space

A space X is said to be *separable* if it contains a countable dense subsets. e.g. the real line \mathbb{R} is separable since it contain the set \mathbb{Q} of rational numbers, which is dense in \mathbb{R} .

❖ Theorem

Let (X, d) be a metric space. A set $A \subset X$ is dense if and only if A has non-empty intersection with any open subset of X .

❖ Neighbourhood of a Point

Let (X, d) be a metric space and $x_0 \in X$. A set $N \subset X$ is called a *neighbourhood of x_0* if there exists an open ball $B(x_0; \varepsilon)$ with centre x_0 such that $B(x_0; \varepsilon) \subset N$.

Shortly “*neighbourhood*” is written as “*nhood*”.

❖ Interior Point

Let (X, d) be a metric space and $A \subset X$. A point $x_0 \in X$ is called an *interior point* of A if there is an open ball $B(x_0; r)$ with centre x_0 such that $B(x_0; r) \subset A$. The set of all interior points of A is called *interior of A* and is denoted by $int(A)$ or A° .

It is the largest open set contain in A . i.e. $A^\circ \subset A$.

❖ Continuity

A function $f : (X, d) \rightarrow (Y, d')$ is called continuous at a point $x_0 \in X$ if for any $\varepsilon > 0$ there is a $\delta > 0$ such that $d'(f(x), f(x_0)) < \varepsilon$ for all x satisfying $d(x, x_0) < \delta$.

Alternative:

A function $f : X \rightarrow Y$ is continuous at $x_0 \in X$ if for any $\varepsilon > 0$, there is a $\delta > 0$ such that

$$x \in B(x_0; \delta) \quad \Rightarrow \quad f(x) \in B(f(x_0); \varepsilon).$$

❖ Theorem

A function $f : (X, d) \rightarrow (Y, d')$ is continuous at $x_0 \in X$ if and only if $f^{-1}(G)$ is open in X whenever G is open in Y .

❖ Convergence of Sequence:

Let $(x_n) = (x_1, x_2, \dots)$ be a sequence in a metric space (X, d) . We say (x_n) converges to $x \in X$ if $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} d(x_n, x) = 0$.

We write $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} x_n = x$ or simply $x_n \rightarrow x$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$.

Alternatively, we say $x_n \rightarrow x$ if for every $\varepsilon > 0$ there is an $n_0 \in \mathbb{N}$, such that

$$\forall n > n_0, \quad d(x_n, x) < \varepsilon.$$

❖ Theorem

- i) A convergent sequence is bounded.
- ii) If $x_n \rightarrow x$ and $y_n \rightarrow y$ then $d(x_n, y_n) \rightarrow d(x, y)$.

❖ Cauchy Sequence

A sequence (x_n) in a metric space (X, d) is called *Cauchy* if for any $\varepsilon > 0$ there is $n_0 \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $\forall m, n > n_0, \quad d(x_m, x_n) < \varepsilon$.

❖ Theorem

A convergent sequence in a metric space (X, d) is Cauchy.

Proof.

Let $x_n \rightarrow x \in X$, therefore any $\varepsilon > 0$ there is $n_0 \in \mathbb{N}$ such that

$$\forall m, n > n_0, \quad d(x_n, x) < \frac{\varepsilon}{2} \quad \text{and} \quad d(x_m, x) < \frac{\varepsilon}{2}.$$

Then by using triangular inequality

$$\begin{aligned} d(x_m, x_n) &\leq d(x_m, x) + d(x, x_n) \\ &\leq d(x_m, x) + d(x_n, x) && \because d(x, y) = d(y, x) \\ &< \frac{\varepsilon}{2} + \frac{\varepsilon}{2} = \varepsilon. \end{aligned}$$

Thus every convergent sequence in a metric space is Cauchy.

❖ Example

Let (x_n) be a sequence in the discrete space (X, d) . If (x_n) be a Cauchy sequence, then for $\varepsilon = \frac{1}{2}$, there is a natural number n_0 depending on ε such that

$$d(x_m, x_n) < \frac{1}{2} \quad \forall m, n \geq n_0$$

Since in discrete space d is either 0 or 1 therefore $d(x_m, x_n) = 0 \Rightarrow x_m = x_n = x$ (say)
Thus a Cauchy sequence in (X, d) become constant after a finite number of terms,

$$\text{i.e. } (x_n) = (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_{n_0}, x, x, x, \dots)$$

❖ Subsequence

Let (a_1, a_2, a_3, \dots) be a sequence in (X, d) and let (i_1, i_2, i_3, \dots) be a sequence of positive integers such that $i_1 < i_2 < i_3 < \dots$ then $(a_{i_1}, a_{i_2}, a_{i_3}, \dots)$ is called *subsequence* of $(a_n : n \in \mathbb{N})$.

❖ Complete Space

A metric space (X, d) is called *complete* if every Cauchy sequence in X converges to a point of X .

❖ Example

Let $X = (0, 1)$ then $(x_n) = (x_1, x_2, x_3, \dots) = (\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{3}, \frac{1}{4}, \dots)$ is a sequence in X .
Then $x_n \rightarrow 0$ but 0 is not a point of X .

❖ Subspace

Let (X, d) be a metric space and $Y \subset X$ then Y is called *subspace* if Y is itself a metric space under the metric d .

❖ Theorem

A subspace of a complete metric space (X, d) is complete if and only if Y is closed in X .

❖ Nested Sequence:

A sequence sets A_1, A_2, A_3, \dots is called *nested* if $A_1 \supset A_2 \supset A_3 \supset \dots$

❖ Theorem (Cantor's Intersection Theorem)

A metric space (X, d) is complete if and only if every nested sequence of non-empty closed subset of X , whose diameter tends to zero, has a non-empty intersection.

❖ Complete Space (Examples)

(i) The discrete space is complete.

Since in discrete space a Cauchy sequence becomes constant after finite terms i.e. (x_n) is Cauchy in discrete space if it is of the form

$$(x_1, x_2, x_3, \dots, x_n = b, b, b, \dots)$$

(ii) The set $\mathbb{Z} = \{0, \pm 1, \pm 2, \dots\}$ of integers with usual metric is complete.

(iii) The set of rational numbers with usual metric is not complete.

Since $(1.1, 1.41, 1.412, \dots)$ is a Cauchy sequence of rational numbers but its limit is $\sqrt{2}$, which is not rational.

(iv) The space of irrational number with usual metric is not complete.

We take $(-1, 1), (-\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2}), (-\frac{1}{3}, \frac{1}{3}), \dots, (-\frac{1}{n}, \frac{1}{n})$

We choose one irrational number from each interval and these irrational tends to zero as we goes toward infinity, as zero is a rational so space of irrational is not complete.

❖ Theorem

The real line is complete.

The Euclidean space \mathbb{R}^n is complete.

The space l^∞ is complete.

The space \mathbf{C} of all convergent sequence of complex number is complete.

The space l^p , $p \geq 1$ is a real number, is complete.

The space $\mathbf{C}[a, b]$ is complete.

❖ Theorem

If (X, d_1) and (Y, d_2) are complete then $X \times Y$ is complete.

Note: The metric d (say) on $X \times Y$ is defined as

$$d(x, y) = \max(d_1(\xi_1, \xi_2), d_2(\eta_1, \eta_2))$$

where $x = (\xi_1, \eta_1)$, $y = (\xi_2, \eta_2)$ and $\xi_1, \xi_2 \in X$, $\eta_1, \eta_2 \in Y$.
