# Metric Spaces

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### Overview

- Why is Metric Space important?
- What is a Metric Space?
- Topological Properties
  - Openness and Closeness
  - Compactness
  - Connectedness
- Topological Spaces

## Why is Metric Space Important?

- Introduced in 1906 by Maurice Frechet, and further developed by Felix Hausdorff.
- Generalize the notion of distance.
- Their properties are widely used such as in geometry or limit problems.

# Definition of a Metric Space

### Definition

A metric space is a set X together with a function  $p: X \times X \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}$  (called the metric of X) which satisfies the following properties for all  $x, y, z \in X$ :

POSITIVE DEFINITE:  $\rho(x,y) \ge 0$  with  $\rho(x,y) = 0$  if and only if x = y, SYMMETRIC:  $\rho(x,y) = \rho(y,x)$ ,

TRIANGLE INEQUALITY:  $\rho(x, y) \le \rho(x, z) + \rho(z, y)$ .

[Notice that by definition,  $\rho(x, y)$  is finite valued for all  $x, y \in X$ .]

## Example 1 - Discrete

### Example

The set S is a metric space that is defined by  $\rho: X \times X \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}$  such that

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

# Example 1 (cont.)

#### Proof.

Positive definite: For  $x, y \in S$ , it is always true that  $\rho(x, y) \ge 0$  where  $\rho(x, y) = 0 \iff x = y$ .

Symmetric: We observe that 0 and 1 are the only solutions of  $\rho(x,y)$  such that the position of x and y are not important. Therefore,

$$\rho(x,y)=\rho(y,x).$$

Triangle inequality: Let  $z \in S$ . Since  $max\{\rho(x,y)\}_{x,y\in S}=1$ . We have the following cases:

Case 
$$x = y = z$$
: Then  $\rho(x, z) + \rho(z, y) = 0$ . And having  $\rho(x, y) = 0$ . So  $\rho(x, z) + \rho(z, y) = \rho(x, y)$ .

Case 
$$x \neq y \neq z$$
: Then  $\rho(x, y) = 1 < \rho(x, z) + \rho(z, y) = 1 + 1 = 2$ 

Case one is difference: Assume x = y and  $x \neq z$ .

Then, 
$$\rho(x, y) = 0 < \rho(x, z) + \rho(z, y) = 2$$

Assume  $x \neq y$  and, WLOG x = z.

Then, 
$$\rho(x, y) = \rho(x, z) + \rho(z, y) = 1$$

Therefore,  $\rho(x, y) \leq \rho(x, z) + \rho(z, y)$ .

## Example 2 - Continuous

### Example

 $\mathbb{R}^2$  is a metric space with the function ho(x,y)=|x-y| for  $x,y\in\mathbb{R}$ 

# Example 2 (cont.)

#### Proof.

Positive definite: For  $x, y \in \mathbb{R}$ , it is always true that  $\rho(x, y) = |x - y| \ge 0$  where  $\rho(x, y) = 0 \iff x = y$ .

Symmetric: By definition of absolute value, we have:

$$\rho(x,y) = |x - y|$$

$$= |-(x - y)|$$

$$= |y - x|$$

$$= \rho(y,x)$$

Triangle inequality: Let  $z \in \mathbb{R}$ . We have:

$$\rho(x,z) + \rho(z,y) = |x - z| + |z - y|$$
  
 
$$\geq |x - z + z - y| = |x - y| = \rho(x,y)$$

Therefore,  $\rho(x, y) \leq \rho(x, z) + \rho(z, y)$ .

# Openness and Closeness

#### Definition

Let  $a \in X$  and r > 0. The open ball (in X) with center a and radius r is the set

$$B_r(a) := \{x \in X : \rho(x, a) < r\},\$$

and the *closed ball* (in X) with *center a* and *radius r* is the set  $\{x \in X : \rho(x, a) \le r\}.$ 

### **Definition**

- i) A set  $V \subseteq X$  is said to be *open* if and only if for every  $x \in V$  there is an  $\epsilon > 0$  such that the open ball  $B_{\epsilon}(x)$  is contained in V.
- ii) A set  $E \subseteq X$  is said to be *closed* if and only if  $E^c := X \setminus E$  is open.

### Proposition

Every open ball is open, and every closed ball is closed.

#### Proof.

Let  $B_r(a)$  be an open ball,  $x \in B_r(a)$ , and  $\epsilon = r - \rho(x, a)$ . For  $y \in B_{\epsilon}(x)$ , by the Triangle Inequality and chosen  $\epsilon$ , we have:

$$\rho(y, a) \le \rho(y, x) + \rho(x, a)$$

$$< \epsilon + \rho(x, a)$$

$$= r$$

Thus,  $y \in B_r(a)$ . In other words,  $B_{\epsilon}(x) \subseteq B_r(a)$ .

By the definition of openness and closeness,  $B_r(a)$  is open. Hence, every open ball is open.

Similarly, the set  $\{x \in X : \rho(x, a) > r\}$  is open, so its complement  $\{x \in X : \rho(x, a) \le r\}$  closed. Hence, every closed ball is closed.

#### **Theorem**

Let X be a metric space.

i) If  $\{V_{\alpha}\}_{\alpha\in A}$  is any collection of open sets in X, then  $\bigcup_{\alpha\in A}V_{\alpha}$ 

is open.

ii) If 
$$\{V_k:=1,2,...,n\}$$
 is a finite collection of open sets in  $X$ , then 
$$\bigcap_{k=1}^n V_k:=\bigcap_{k\in\{1,2,..,n\}} V_k$$
 is open.

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### Proof.

i) Let  $x \in \bigcup_{\alpha \in A} V_{\alpha}$ . Then,  $x \in V_{\alpha}$  which is open for some  $\alpha \in A$ . Thus, there is an r > 0 such that  $B_r(x) \subseteq \bigcup_{\alpha \in A} V_{\alpha}$ .

By the definition of openness and closeness,  $\bigcup_{\alpha \in A} V_{\alpha}$  is open.

ii) Let  $x \in \bigcap_{k=1}^n V_k$ . Then  $x \in V_k$  which is open for some k = 1, 2, ..., n. Thus, there are some numbers  $r_k > 0$  such that  $B_{r_k}(x) \subseteq V_k$ . For any

 $r \in r_k$ , r > 0 and  $B_r(x) \subseteq V_k$ .

By the definition of openness and closeness,  $\bigcap_{k=1}^{n} V_k$  is open.

## Compactness

#### **Definition**

Let  $\nu = \{V_{\alpha}\}_{{\alpha} \in A}$  be a collection of subsets of a metric space X and suppose that E is a subset of X.

- i)  $\nu$  is said to *cover E* (or be a *covering* of *E*) if and only if  $E \subseteq \bigcup_{\alpha \in A} V_{\alpha}$
- ii)  $\nu$  is said to be an *open covering* of E if and only if  $\nu$  covers E and each  $V_{\alpha}$  is open.
- iii) Let  $\nu$  be a covering of E.  $\nu$  is said to have a *finite* (respectively, countable) subcovering if and only if there is a finite (respectively, countable) subset  $A_0$  of A such that  $\{V_\alpha\}_{\alpha\in A_0}$  covers E.

### Example

 $\nu = \{(\frac{1}{k+1}, \frac{k}{k+1})\}_{k \in \mathbb{N}}$  is an open covering of (0,1).

u is a covering of (0,1) since  $(0,1)\subseteq\bigcup_{k\in\mathbb{N}}(\frac{1}{k+1},\frac{k}{k+1})$ 

And since  $(\frac{1}{k+1}, \frac{k}{k+1})$  is open for every  $k \in \mathbb{N}$ ,  $\nu$  is an open covering.

## **Compact Sets**

#### Definition

A subset H of a metric space X is said to be *compact* if and only if every open subcovering of H has a finite subcover.

### Proposition

A compact set is always closed.

#### **Theorem**

Let H be a subset of a metric space X. If H is compact, then H is closed and bounded.

### Proof.

Let H be a compact subset of a metric space X. By Proposition above, we know that a compact set is always closed, so H is closed.

Take  $b \in X$  and note  $\{B_n(b) : n \in N\}$  covers X.

As given that H is compact, we have:

$$H \subset \bigcup_{n=1}^{N} B_n(b)$$
 for some  $N \in \mathbb{N}$ .

Hence,  $H \subset B_N(b)$  or H is bounded.

Therefore, H is closed and bounded.

### Connectedness

#### **Definition**

Let X be a metric space.

- i) A pair of nonempty open sets U, V in X is said to separate X if and only if  $X = U \cup V$  and  $U \cap V = \emptyset$ .
- ii) X is said to be *connected* if and only if X cannot be separated by any pair of open sets U, V.

### Example

 $\mathbb R$  under discrete metric is separate because  $(-\infty,0]$  and  $(0,\infty)$  are both open subsets of  $\mathbb R$  such that  $\mathbb R=(-\infty,0]\cup(0,\infty)$  and  $(-\infty,0]\cap(0,\infty)=\emptyset$ .

 $\mathbb R$  under a continuous metric such as |x-y| is connected because the metric itself is continuous. So, S is not separated by any pairs of open sets U,V.

# Definition of a Topological Space

#### **Definition**

Let X be a set. A *topology* on X is a collection  $\tau$  of subsets of X satisfying the following conditions

- (T1) the total set, X, and the empty set,  $\emptyset$ , are elements of  $\tau$ ;
- (T2) if  $\{U_{\gamma}\}_{{\gamma}\in \Gamma}$  is a (possibly infinite) family of elements of  $\tau$ , then  $\bigcup_{{\gamma}\in \Gamma} U_{\gamma}\in \tau$ ;
- (T3) if  $\{U_1,...,U_n\}\subseteq \tau$  is a finite family of elements of  $\tau$ , then  $\bigcap_{i=1}^n U_i \in \tau$ .

A topological space is a pair  $(X, \tau)$  where  $\tau$  is a topology on X.

## Example 1

### Example

 $(X, \tau)$  is a topological space where  $X = \{1, 2, 3\}$  and  $\tau = \{\emptyset, X, \{2\}, \{1, 2\}, \{2, 3\}\}$ 

#### Proof.

- (T1): As we observe,  $X, \emptyset \in \tau$ .
- (T2): From the given  $\tau$ , we have:  $\bigcup_{\gamma=1}^{5} U_{\gamma} \in \tau$ . That is the union of families of elements of  $\tau$  is also in  $\tau$ .
- (T3): Since any intersection of families of elements in  $\tau$  is in  $\tau$ , we conclude that  $\bigcap_{i=1}^5 U_i \in \tau$ .
- Thus,  $\tau$  is a topology. Hence,  $(X, \tau)$  is a topological space.



## Example 2

### Example

Let's consider the same set X with a different  $\tau$ , say  $\tau_0$ .

We have  $X = \{1, 2, 3\}$  and  $\tau_0 = \{\emptyset, X, \{2\}, \{3\}\}$ 

(T1): We can see that  $\emptyset, X \in \tau_0$ .

(T2):  $\{2\} \cup \{3\} = \{2,3\} \notin \tau_0$ .

Thus,  $\tau_0$  is not a topology.

Hence, the pair  $(X, \tau_0)$  is not a topological space.

# Every Metric Space is a Topological Space

### Proof.

Recall that the collection of all open sets of a metric space is closed under union and intersection.

For a metric space  $(X, \rho)$ , let  $\tau$  be the collection of all open subsets of X which respect to metric  $\rho$ . Thus,  $\tau$  is a topology on X.

Hence, the pair  $(X, \tau)$  is a topological space.



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