# Metric Spaces Exam Notes

Made by Leon:) Note: Any reference numbers are to the lecture notes

# 1 Introduction to Metric Spaces

## Theorem 1.0.1: Definition of a Metric

Let X be a non-empty set. A function  $d: X \times X \to \mathbb{R}$  is called a **metric** iff for all  $x, y, z \in X$ ,

- $d(x,y) \ge 0$  and  $d(x,y) = 0 \iff x = y$
- d(x,y) = d(y,x)
- $d(x,y) \le d(x,z) + d(z,y)$  (Triangle Inequality)

A non-empty set X equipped with a metric d is a **metric space** 

## Definition 1.0.2: Real Vector Spaces

A real vector space V is a set with two operations  $(X, +, \cdot)$ , where:

- $\bullet$  + is addition, and  $\cdot$  is scalar multiplication
- (X, +) is an abelian group i.e. for all (vectors)  $x, y, z \in X$ :
  - Closure:  $x + y \in X$
  - Commutativity: x + y = y + x
  - Associativity: x + (y + z) = (x + y) + z
  - **Identity**:  $\exists 0 \in X \text{ s.t. for all } x \in X \text{ we have } 0 + x = x + 0 = x$
  - Inverse:  $\forall x \in X$  we have -x s.t. x + (-x) = (-x) + x = 0
- Vector space axioms: for all  $x,y,z\in X$  and  $\mu,\lambda\in\mathbb{R}$  we have:
  - Closure-ish thing:  $\lambda x \in X$
  - Distributivity 1:  $\lambda(x+y) = \lambda x + \lambda y$
  - Distributivity 2: $(\lambda + \mu)x = \lambda y + \mu x$
  - Associativity:  $\lambda(\mu x) = (\lambda \mu)x$
  - Identity: 1x = x

## Definition 1.0.3: Normed and Inner Product Spaces

#### Normed Vector Spaces

A **normed vector space** is a real vector space X equipped with a **norm**, i.e. a function that assigns to every vector  $x \in X$  a real number ||x|| so that, for all vectors x and y in X and all real scalars a:

- ||x|| > 0 and  $||x|| = 0 \iff x = 0$
- ||ax|| = |a|||x||
- $||x + y|| \le ||x|| + ||y||$

**Remark**: If  $(X, \|\cdot\|)$  is a normed vector space then

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

defines a metric in X

Remark: This is a generalisation of the "length of a vector"

#### — Inner Product Spaces

Let X be a real vector space. An **inner product** on X is a function that assigns to every pair  $(x, y) \in X \times X$  a real number denoted by  $\langle x, y \rangle$  and has the following properties:

- $\langle x, x \rangle \ge 0$  and  $\langle x, x \rangle = 0 \iff x = 0$
- $\langle x, y \rangle = \langle y, x \rangle$
- $ax + by, z = a\langle x, z \rangle + b\langle y, z \rangle$

A real inner product space is a real vector space equipped with an inner product. If  $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle$  is an inner product on X, then

- $||x|| = \sqrt{\langle x, x \rangle}$  defines a norm in X
- d(x, y) = ||x y|| defines a metric in X

Remark: This is a generalisation of the dot product

## Definition 1.1.4: n-dimensional Euclidean space

Let 
$$X = \mathbb{R}^n = \{(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n) : x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n \in \mathbb{R}\}$$
  
For  $x = (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n), y = (y_1, y_2, \dots, y_n)$  in  $\mathbb{R}^n$ , define  $\langle x, y \rangle = x_1 y_1 + x_2 y_2 + \dots + x_n y_n$  (inner product)

**Properties of** n**-inner product**: For all vectors  $x,y,z\in\mathbb{R}^n$  and all real scalars a,b,

- $\langle x, x \rangle \ge 0$  and  $\langle x, x \rangle = 0 \iff x = 0$
- $\langle x, y \rangle = \langle y, x \rangle$
- $\langle ax + by, z \rangle = a \langle x, z \rangle + b \langle y, z \rangle$

For  $x = (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n) \in \mathbb{R}^n$  define

$$||x||_2 = \langle x, x \rangle^{1/2} = \sqrt{x_1^2 + x_2^2 + \dots + c_n^2}$$
(norm)

Properties of *n*-norm: For  $x, y \in \mathbb{R}^n$ ,  $a \in \mathbb{R}$ ,

- $||x||_2 \ge 0$  and  $||x||_2 = 0 \iff x = 0$
- $||ax||_2 = |a|||x||_2$
- $||x + y||_2 < ||x||_2 + ||y||_2$  (triangle inequality)

### Example 1.1.5: Examples of Metric Spaces

Unless stated otherwise let  $X = \mathbb{R}^n$ . The case  $X = \mathbb{R}^2$  is listed in red

| Name        | Norm and Metric   |
|-------------|---|
| Standard    | $ x  = \sqrt{x_1^2 + x_2^2 + \dots + x_n^2}$                                  |
|             | $d(x,y) = \sqrt{(x_1 - y_1)^2 + (x_2 - y_2)^2 + \dots + (x_n - y_n)^2}$       |
| Taxicab     | $  x  _1 =  x_1  +  x_2  + \cdots +  x_n $                                    |
|             | $d_1(x,y) =  x_1 - y_1  +  x_2 - y_2  + \dots +  x_n - y_n $                  |
| Euclidean   | $  x  _2 = \sqrt{ x_1 ^2 +  x_2 ^2 + \cdots +  x_n ^2}$                       |
|             | $d_2(x,y) = \sqrt{ x_1 - y_1 ^2 +  x_2 - y_2 ^2 + \dots +  x_n - y_n ^2}$     |
| p-metric    | $  x  _p = \left(\sum_{k=1}^n  x_k ^p\right)^{1/p}$                           |
|             | $d_p(x,y) = \left(\sum_{k=1}^n  x_k - y_k ^p\right)^{1/p}$                    |
| Chebyshev   | $  x  _{\infty} = \max\{ x_1 ,  x_2 , \dots,  x_n \}$                         |
|             | $d(x,y) = \max\{ x_1 - y_1 ,  x_2 - y_2 , \dots,  x_n - y_n \}$               |
| Discrete    | Not induced by a metric   |
|             | $d(x,y) = \begin{cases} 0 & x = y \\ 1 & x \neq y \end{cases}$                |
| Post Office | Not induced by a metric   |
|             | $d(x,y) = \begin{cases}   x  _2 +   y  _2 & x = y\\ 1 & x \neq y \end{cases}$ |
|             |   |

#### The complex plane

Let  $X = \mathbb{C}, d : \mathbb{C} \times \mathbb{C} \to \mathbb{R}$ 

$$d(z, w) = |z - w|$$

If z = a + ib, w = c + id,  $a, b, c, d \in \mathbb{R}$ , then

$$z - w = (a - c) + i(b - d)$$

therefore,

$$d(z, w) = \sqrt{(a-c)^2 + (b-d)^2}$$

## Example 1.1.6: Sequence Spaces

— The space  $\ell^1$  —

 $\ell^1$  is the set of real sequences  $(x_n)_{n\in\mathbb{N}}$  where  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty}|x_n|$  converges. For  $x=(x_1,\ldots,x_n,\ldots)\in\ell^1$ ,  $y=(y_1,\ldots,y_n,\ldots)\in\ell^1$  we define

• Norm:  $||x||_1 = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} |x_n|$ 

• Metric:  $d_1(x,y) = ||x-y||_1 = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} |x_n - y_n|$ 

 $\ell^2$  is the set of real seqs  $(x_n)_{n\in\mathbb{N}}$  where  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty}|x_n|^2$  converges For  $x=(x_1,\ldots,x_n,\ldots)\in\ell^2, y=(y_1,\ldots,y_n,\ldots)\in\ell^2$  we define

. Inner product:  $\langle x,y \rangle = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} x_n y_n$ 

• Norm:  $||x||_2 = \left(\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} |x_n|^2\right)^{1/2}$ 

• Metric:  $d_2(x,y) = \|x-y\|_2 = \left(\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} |x_n-y_n|^2\right)^{1/2}$ 

**Thm**:  $\ell^2$  is a real vector space

 $\ell^\infty$  is the set of all bounded sequences of real numbers For  $x=(x_1,\ldots,x_n,\ldots),\ y=(y_1,\ldots,y_n,\ldots)\in\ell^\infty$ 

• Norm:  $||x||_{\infty} = \sup\{|x_1|, \dots, |x_n|, \dots\}$ 

• Metric:  $||x - y||_{\infty} = \sup\{|x_1 - y_1|, \dots, |x_n - y_n|, \dots\}$ 

X = C([a,b]) is the set of all continuous functions  $f:[a,b] \to \mathbb{R}$ 

• Norm:  $||f||_{\infty} = \max\{|f(x)| : a \le x \le b\}$ 

• Metric:  $d_{\infty}(f,g) = ||f - g|| = \max\{|f(x) - g(x)| : a \le x \le b\}$ 

The  $L^1$  metric —

X is the set of all continuous functions  $f:[a,b]\to\mathbb{R}$ 

• Norm:  $||f||_1 = \int_a^b |f(x)| dx$ 

• Metric:  $d_2(f,g) = ||f-g||_1 = \int_a^b |f(x)-g(x)| dx$ 

——— The  $L^2$  metric —

X is the set of all continuous functions  $f:[a,b]\to\mathbb{R}$ 

• Inner Product:  $\langle f, g \rangle = \int_a^b f(x)g(x)dx$ 

• Norm:  $||f||_2 = \langle f, f \rangle^{1/2} = \left( \int_a^b |f(x)|^2 dx \right)^{1/2}$ 

• Metric:  $d_1(f,g) = \left( \int_a^b |f(x) - g(x)|^2 dx \right)^{1/2}$ 

## Definition 1.1.7: Metric Subspaces

Let (X, d) be a metric space and Y a non-empty subset of X. Define

• 
$$d_Y: Y \times Y \to \mathbb{R}$$

• 
$$d_{y}(y, y') = d(y, y')$$

Then  $d_Y$  is a metric on Y.  $d_Y$  is called the **induced** or **inherited** metric, and  $(Y, d_Y)$  is said to be a metric subspace of the metric space (X, d)

# Definition 1.1.8: Open Ball

Let (X,d) be a metric space, c be a point in X, and r>0. The **open ball** with center c and radius r is defined by

$$B(c,r) = \{x \in X: d(c,x) < r\}$$

## 2 Convergence

## 2.1 Convergent Sequences in Metric Spaces

On the real line,  $x_n \to x$  iff for every positive  $\epsilon$ , there exists an index N such that for all indices n where  $n \ge N$ , we have  $|x_n - x| < \epsilon$ .

# Definition 2.1.1: Convergent Sequence

Let (X,d) be a metric space,  $(x_n)_{n=1}^{\infty}$  be a sequence in X, and  $x \in X$ . We say that  $(x_n)_{n=1}^{\infty}$  converges to x iff for every positive  $\epsilon$ , there exists an index N s.t. for all indices n with  $n \geq N$ a we have  $d(x_n,x) < \epsilon$ .

Observe that:

- $d(x_n, x) < \epsilon$  is equivalent to  $x_n \in B(x, \epsilon)$ .
- $x_n \to x$  in (X, d) iff  $d(x_n, x) \to 0$  on the real line

## Theorem 2.1.2: Uniqueness of metric limit

- Let (X, d) be a metric space, and  $x, x' \in X$ ,  $x \neq x'$ . Then there exists a positive radius r s.t.  $B(x, r) \cap B(x', r) = \emptyset$
- A sequence in a metric space can have at most one limit

# Example 2.1.3: convergence in $(\mathbb{R}^N, d_2)$

A sequence

$$x_1 = (x_{11}, \dots, x_{1j}, \dots x_{1N})$$

$$x_2 = (x_{21}, \dots, x_{2j}, \dots x_{2N})$$

$$\vdots$$

$$x_n = (x_{n1}, \dots, x_{nj}, \dots x_{nN})$$

$$\vdots$$

 $x=(x_1,\dots,x_j,\dots,x_N)$  in  $\mathbb{R}^N,d_2$  converges to  $x=(x_1,\dots,x_j,\dots,x_N)$  iff for each j,

 $x_{nj} \xrightarrow[j \to +\infty]{} x_j$ 

### Definition 2.1.4: Bounded Sequence

A sequence in a metric space is said to be  ${\bf bounded}$  iff there exists an open ball that contains all of its terms

**Note**: this is the same definition as "sequence is bounded if there is upper and lower bound", as open ball implies the same thing

## Theorem 2.1.5

Every convergence is bounded

# 2.2 Cauchy Sequences

Convergence: For every  $\epsilon$ , there is an N such that for  $n \geq N$ ,  $d(x_n, x) < \epsilon$ 

$$x_1 \quad x_2 \quad \cdots \quad x_N \quad \cdots x_n \quad \cdots \quad \to x$$

Replace x by any  $x_m$  with  $m \geq N$ 

$$x_1 \quad x_2 \quad \cdots \quad x_N \quad \cdots x_n \quad \cdots \quad x_m \quad \cdots$$

 $d(x_n, x) < \epsilon$  becomes  $\forall m \ge N, d(x_n, x_m) < \epsilon$ 

## Definition 2.2.1: Cauchy Sequence

A sequence  $(x_n)_{n=1}^{\infty}$  in a metric space (X,d) is said to be a **Cauchy sequence** iff for every positive  $\epsilon$ , there exists an index N, s.t. for all indices n, m with n, m > N,

$$d(x_n, x_m) < \epsilon$$

### Theorem 2.2.2

If a sequence in a metric space converges, then it is a Cauchy sequence

#### Definition 2.2.3: Complete Metric Spaces

A metric space is said to be **complete** if and only if every Cauchy Sequence is convergent

## Examples:

- $\mathbb{R}$  with the standard metric is complete
- $\mathbb Q$  with the standard metric is not complete
- (0,1) with the standard metric is not complete
- [0,1] with the standard metric is complete
- $\mathbb{R}^n$ ,  $\ell^p$ , C([a,b]) is complete (proof later)

## 2.3 Open sets and closed sets

#### Definition 2.3.1: Open Sets and Closed Sets

Let (X, d) be a metric space.

- A subset G of X is said to be **open** iff for every point x in G there exists a positive radius r such that  $B(x,r) \subseteq G$ .
- A subset F of X is said to be **closed** iff  $F^c$  is open

#### Definition 2.3.2: Discrete Metric Space

A metric space is called **discrete** iff all its subsets are open (equiv. all subsets are closed)

**Example:**  $[0,1] \cap (2,3)$ 

# Theorem 2.3.3: Properties of open sets

Let (X, d) be a metric space

- 1. The union of any family of open sets is an open set
- 2. The intersection of finitely many open sets is an open set

## Theorem 2.3.4: Infinite open sets

The intersection of infinitely many open sets is not always an open set

For example, let  $G_n=(-\frac{1}{n},\frac{1}{n}), n=1,2,\ldots$  on the real line with the standard metric.

Each  $G_n$  is open but

$$\bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} G_n = \{0\}$$

### Theorem 2.3.5: Relatively open sets

Let (X,d) be a metric space and A be a non-empty subset of X equipped with the induced metric  $d_A$ . Let  $G\subseteq A$ . G is open in  $(A,d_A)$  iff there exists a subset O of X, open in (X,d), such that  $G=A\cap O$ 

The open sets of  $(A, d_A)$  are sometimes referred to as **relatively** open

## Theorem 2.3.6

Let (X, d) be a metric space,  $(x_n)_{n=1}^{\infty}$  be a sequence in X and x be a point in X.

 $x_n \to x$  iff every open set that contains x contains eventually all terms of the sequence

## Definition 2.3.7: Neighbourhoods of points

An **open neighbourhood** of a point x is any open set that contains x.  $x_n \to x$  iff every open neighbourhood of x contains eventually all terms of the sequence.

A **neighbourhood** of a point x is a set that contains an open neighbourhood of x.  $x_n \to x$  iff every neighbourhood of x contains eventually all terms of the sequence.

## Theorem 2.3.8: Properties of Closed sets

Let (X, d) be a metric space.

- 1. The intersection of any family of closed sets is a closed set
- 2. The union of finitely many closed sets is a closed set.

## Theorem 2.3.9: Infinite closed sets

The union of infinitely many closed sets is not always a closed set. For example, let  $F_n = [\frac{1}{n}, 1], n = 1, 2, \ldots$ , on the real line with the standard metric. Each  $F_n$  is closed but

$$\bigcup_{n=0}^{\infty} F_n = (0, 1]$$

is not closed.

# Theorem 2.3.10

A subset F of a metric space is closed iff the limit of every convergent sequence of elements of F belongs to F

- In any metric space (X, d), singletons  $F = \{x\}$  are closed.
- In any metric space, any finite set is closed because

$$\{x_1,\ldots,x_n\}=\{x_1\}\cup\cdots\cup\{x_n\}$$

## 2.4 Closure

## Definition 2.4.1: Closure

Let (X,d) be a metric space and  $A\subseteq X$ . The **closure** of A, deented by  $\overline{A}$ , is the smallest closed subset of X that contains A

There exists at least one closed subset of X that contains A, namely X itself. The smallest closed subset of X that contains A is



## Theorem 2.4.2: Properties of Closure

Let (X, d) be a metric space and  $A, B \subseteq X$ .

- 1.  $\overline{\emptyset} = \emptyset$  and  $\overline{X} = X$
- 2.  $A \subseteq \overline{A}$  and  $\overline{A}$  is closed
- 3. A is closed iff  $A = \overline{A}$
- 4.  $\overline{\overline{A}} = \overline{A}$
- 5. If  $A \subseteq B$ , then  $\overline{A} \subseteq \overline{B}$
- 6.  $\overline{A \cup B} = \overline{A} \cup \overline{B}$
- On the real line with the standard metric,  $\overline{(a,b)} = [a,b]$
- In  $\mathbb{R}^n$  with the Euclidean metric  $d_2$ , the closure of the open ball B(c, r) is the closed ball  $\{x \in \mathbb{R}^n : d_2(x, c) \le r\}$
- On the complex plane with its standard metric, the closure of an open disc is the corresponding closed disc
- Let X be a non-empty set with the discrete metric,  $c \in X$  and r = 1. Then  $B(c,1) = \{c\}$ , therefore  $\overline{B(c,1)} - \overline{\{c\}} = \{c\}$ , while

$$\{x\in X: d(x,c)\leq 1\}=X$$

The closure of an open ball is not always equal to the corresponding closed ball

•  $X = \mathbb{R}, \ d(x,y) = |x-y|. \ \overline{\mathbb{Q}} = \mathbb{R}$ 

# Definition 2.4.3: Dense Subset of a Metric Space

Let (X,d) be a metric space. A subset D of X is said to be dense iff  $\overline{D}=X$ 

Random fact: In  $\mathbb{R}^n$  with the Euclidean metric  $d_2$ ,  $\mathbb{Q}^n$  is dense.

## Theorem 2.4.4: Closure Equivalence

Let (X,d) be a metric space,  $A\subseteq X, x\in X.$  The following are equivalent

- 1.  $x \in A$
- 2. For every positive  $r, B(x,r) \cap A \neq \emptyset$
- 3. There exists a sequence  $(a_n)_{n\in\mathbb{N}}$  with  $a_n\in A$  for all n, such that  $a_n\to x$

A point x with any of these properties is called an **adherent point** of A. So,  $\overline{A}$  is the set of all adherent points of A.

#### Definition 2.4.5: Limit points of sets

Let (X,d) be a metric space,  $A \subseteq X$  and  $x \in X$ . We say that x is a **limit point** or an **accumulation point** of A iff every open ball centered at x contains an element of A distinct from x, i.e.

$$\forall r > 0 \quad (B(x,r) \setminus \{x\}) \cap A \neq \emptyset$$

The set of all limit points of A is called the **derived set** of A and is denoted by A' or  $\tilde{A}$ .

## 2.5 Continuous functions between metric spaces

### Definition 2.5.1: Continuity at a point

Let  $(X, d_X)$ ,  $(Y, d_Y)$  be metric spaces and  $f: X \to Y$  be a function. We say that f is **continuous at a point**  $x_0$  in X iff for for every positive  $\epsilon$ , there exists a positive  $\delta$ , s.t., for all  $x \in X$  with  $d_X(x, x_0) < \delta$  we have  $d_Y(f(x), f(x_0)) < \epsilon$ 

Alternatively, f is **continuous at a point**  $x_0 \in X$  iff, for every positive  $\epsilon$ , there exists a positive  $\delta$ , such that, for all  $x \in B_X(x_0, \delta)$  we have  $f(x) \in B_Y(f(x_0), \epsilon)$ 

# Definition 2.5.2: Continuity of a function

Let  $(X, d_X), (Y, d_Y)$  be metric spaces. A function  $f: X \to Y$  is said to be **continuous** iff it is continuous at every point in X

## Theorem 2.5.3

Let  $(X, d_X), (Y, d_Y)$  be metric spaces,  $f: X \to Y$  be a function and  $x_0$  be a point in X. Then f is continuous at  $x_0$  iff for every open neighbourhood G of  $f(x_0)$  there exists an open neighbourhood G of  $x_0$  such that, for all  $x \in G$ , we have  $f(x) \in G$ 

#### Theorem 2.5.4: Continuity and Convergence

Let  $(X, d_X)$ ,  $(Y, d_Y)$  be metric spaces,  $x_0$  be a point in X, and  $f: X \to Y$  be a function. The following are equivalent:

- 1. f is continuous at  $x_0$
- 2. For every sequence  $(x_n)_{n=1}^{\infty}$  in X, if  $x_n \xrightarrow[n \to +\infty]{}$  in  $(X, d_X)$ , then  $f(x_n) \xrightarrow[n \to +\infty]{} f(x_0)$  in  $(Y, d_Y)$

#### Theorem 2.5.5: Continuity and Open Sets

Let  $(X,d_X)$ ,  $(Y,d_Y)$  be metric spaces. A function  $f:X\to Y$  is continuous iff the inverse image  $f^{-1}(G)$  of any open subset G of Y is an open subset of X

# 3 Topology!!!

# 3.1 Homeomorphisms and Topological Properties

## Definition 3.1.1: Topological Space

A **topological space** is a set X together with a family  $\mathcal T$  of subsets of X that has the following properties:

- $\emptyset, X \in \mathcal{T}$
- Any union of elements of  $\mathcal T$  is an element of  $\mathcal T$
- Any finite intersection of elements of  $\mathcal T$  is an element of  $\mathcal T$

 $\mathcal{T}$  is called a **topology** and the elements of  $\mathcal{T}$  are called **open sets** 

## Definition 3.1.2: Continuity of Topological Spaces

Let  $(X, \mathcal{T}_X)$  and  $(Y, \mathcal{T}_Y)$  be two topological spaces. A function  $f: X \to Y$  is said to be **continuous** iff for every G in  $\mathcal{T}_Y$  the pre-image  $f^{-1}(G)$  is an element of  $\mathcal{T}_X$ .

f is said to be a **homeomorphism** iff it is a continuous bijection and its inverse is continuous.

If such a homeomorphism exists then  $(X, \mathcal{T}_X)$  and  $(Y, \mathcal{T}_Y)$  are said to be **homeomorphic** 

If  $(X, \mathcal{T}_X)$  and  $(Y, \mathcal{T}_Y)$  are homeomorphic, and one of them is compact or connected or separable etc etc, then so is the other

Properties that are preserved by homeomorphisms are called topological properties  $\,$ 

## Theorem 3.1.3: $d: X \times X \to \mathbb{R}$ is continuous

Let (X,d) be a metric space. The function  $f:X\times X\to \mathbb{R}$  is continuous.

 $\mathbb R$  is equipped with the standard metric.  $X\times X$  is equipped with the product metric

## 3.1.4 Continuity of linear operators between normed vector spaces

Let  $(X, \|\cdot\|_X)$ ,  $(Y, \|\cdot\|_Y)$  be normed vector spaces. Recall that  $d_X: X \times X \to \mathbb{R}$ ,  $d(x, x') = \|x - x'\|_X$ , and  $d_Y: Y \times Y \to \mathbb{R}$ ,  $d_Y(y, y') = \|y - y'\|_Y$  are metrics

#### Definition 3.1.5: Bounded Linear Operators

A linear operator  $T: X \to Y$  is said to be **bounded** iff there exists a positive constant C such that, for all  $x \in X$ ,

$$||T(x)||_Y \le C||x||_X$$

## Theorem 3.1.6: Linear Operator Equivalence

Let  $T:X\to Y$  be a linear operator. The following are equivalent:

- 1. T is continuous
- 2. T is continuous at 0
- 3. T is bounded
- Let  $(X, \|\cdot\|)$  be a normed vector space and define  $f: \mathbb{R} \times X \to X$  by  $f(\lambda, x) = \lambda x$ . Define  $g: X \times X \to X$  by g(x, y) = x + y. f and g are continuous

## 3.2 Fixed Points and Lipschitz

### Definition 3.2.1: Lipschitz Functions

Let  $(X,d_X)$ ,  $(Y,d_Y)$  be metric spaces. A function  $f:X\to Y$  is said to be a **Lipschitz** function iff there exists a constant L such that for all  $x,x'\in X$ ,

$$d_Y(f(x), f(x')) \le Ld_X(x, x')$$

If L < 1, f is said to be a **contraction** 

Note: Magnus uses non-standard terminology here:

- When the equation is satisifed and L < 1, Magnus calls f a  ${f strict}$  contraction
- He uses **contraction** for a functino f that satisfies the weaker condition: for all  $x, x' \in X$  with  $x \neq x'$

$$d_Y(f(x), f(x')) < d_X(x, x')$$

# Theorem 3.2.2: Lipschitz Continuity

Every Lipschitz function is continuous

## Definition 3.2.3: Fixed Points

A fixed point of a function  $f: S \to S$  where S is a non-empty set, is any element x of S such that f(x) = xSolving equations can sometimes be reduced to finding fixed points

Watch lecture recording 06/03 for more in-depth examples

- Newton's Method for solving f(x) = 0
- Picard's Method for solving the Initial Value Problem

### Theorem 3.2.4: Banach's Fixed Point Theorem

Let (X,d) be a complete metric space and let  $f:X\to X$  be a contraction. Then f has a unique fixed point

## 3.3 Equivalent Metrics

#### Definition 3.3.1: Equivalent Metrics

Two metrics on the same non-empty set X are said to be **equivalent** iff they have the same open sets

#### Theorem 3.3.2: Equivalent Metrics Theorem

Let  $d_1$  and  $d_2$  be metrics on the same non-empty set X. If there exist positive constants C and C' such that for all x,y in X,

$$Cd_1(x,y) < d_2(x,y) < C'd_1(x,y)$$

then  $d_1$  and  $d_2$  are equivalent

## Definition 3.3.3: Limits of functions between metric spaces

Let  $(X, d_X)$  and  $(Y, d_Y)$  be metric spaces,  $x_0$  be a limit point of X,  $y_0 \in Y$  and  $f: X \to Y$  be a function. We say that  $\lim_{x \to x_0} f(x) = y_0$  iff

$$\forall \epsilon > 0 \quad \exists \delta > 0 \quad \forall x \in B_X(x_0, \delta) \setminus \{x_0\} \quad f(x) \in B_Y(y_0, \epsilon)$$

## Theorem 3.3.4: Completeness of the Classical Spaces

Some examples of complete metric spaces:

• 
$$(\mathbb{R}^n, d_2)$$

•  $\ell^{\infty}$ 

Let  $(X,d_X)$  and  $(Y,d_Y)$  be two metric spaces and assume that  $(Y,d_Y)$  is complete.

Let C(X,Y) be the set of all continuous and bounded functions from X to Y. For  $f,g\in C(X,Y)$  define

$$D(f,g) = \sup\{d_Y(f(x),g(x)) : x \in X\}$$

D is a metric and the metric space (C(X,Y),D) is complete

## Definition 3.3.5: The product space $X^n$

Let (X,d) be a metric space and  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ . Define  $D: X^n \to \mathbb{R}$  by

$$D(x_1, x_2) = d(x_{11}, x_{21}) + d(x_{12}, x_{22}) + \dots + d(x_{1n}, x_{2n})$$

**Lemma**: D is a metric and a sequence converges in  $(X^n, D)$  iff it converges componentwise

**Lemma**: If (X, d) is complete then  $(X^n, D)$  is complete

# Definition 3.3.6: The product space $X^{\mathbb{N}}$

Let  $B^A$ , where A, B are sets, be the set of all functions from A to B

**Def:** Let (X,d) be a metric space. Define a metric  $D: X^{\mathbb{N}} \times X^{\mathbb{N}} \to \mathbb{R}$  by

$$D(x_1, x_2) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{2^n} \frac{d(x_{1n}, x_{2n})}{1 + d(x_{1n}, x_{2n})}$$

where  $x_1 = (x_{11}, \ldots, x_{1n}, \ldots), x_2 = (x_{21}, \ldots, x_{2n}, \ldots)$  $(X^{\mathbb{N}}, D)$  is called a **product space** 

# Theorem 3.3.7: Convergence of Product spaces

Let (X, d) be a metric space, let  $(x_k)_{k=1}^{\infty}$  be a sequence in  $X^{\mathbb{N}}$  and let  $x \in X^{\mathbb{N}}$ . Write  $x_k = (x_{k1}, \ldots, x_{kn}, \ldots)$  and  $x = (l_1, \ldots, l_n, \ldots)$ .

Then,  $x_k \xrightarrow[k \to +\infty]{(X^{\mathbb{N}}, D)} x$  if and only if, for all  $n, x_{kn} \xrightarrow[k \to +\infty]{(X^{\mathbb{N}}l_n)} x$ 

#### Theorem 3.3.8: Completeness of product spaces

Let (X,d) be a complete metric space. Then the product space  $(X^{\mathbb{N}},D)$  is complete.

## Theorem 3.3.9: Completeness of $\mathbb{R}$

- Thm (Least Upper Bound Principle): Every non-empty bounded above subset of  $\mathbb R$  has a least upper bound
- Thm (Monotone Convergence): Every bounded monotone sequence of real numbers has a limit
- Thm ( $\epsilon$ -convergence): Let A be a non-empty bounded subset of  $\mathbb R$  and let  $\epsilon$  be positive. If the distance between any two elements of A is  $< \epsilon$ , then

$$\sup(A) - \inf(A) \le \epsilon$$

• Thm: Every Cauchy sequence of real numbers is convergent

## Definition 3.3.10: Limit Superior and Inferior

Let  $(x_n)_{n=1}^{\infty}$  be a Cauchy sequence in  $\mathbb{R}$ . Then  $(x_n)_{n=1}^{\infty}$  is bounded. Define:

$$I_n = \inf\{x_n, x_{n+1}, \dots\}$$
  $S_n = \sup\{x_n, x_{n+1}, \dots\}$ 

**Thm**:  $(S_n)_{n=1}^{\infty}$  and  $(I_n)_{n=1}^{\infty}$  are monotone and bounded

 $I_1 \le I_n \le S_n \le S_1, \quad n = 1, 2, \dots$ 

Therefore  $I_n\to I$  and  $S_n\to S$  for some reals I and S. Since  $S_n-I_n\to 0$  we have S=I. We also have  $x_n\to S=I$ 

# Limsup and Liminf —

• The limit of the sequence  $(I_n)_{n=1}^\infty$  is called the **limit inferior** of  $(x_n)_{n=1}^\infty$  and is denoted by  $\liminf x_n$ 

$$\lim \inf x_n = \lim_{n \to +\infty} I_n = \lim_{n \to +\infty} \inf \{x_n, x_{n+1}, \dots \}$$

• The limit of the sequence  $(S_n)_{n=1}^\infty$  is called the **limit superior** of  $(x_n)_{n=1}^\infty$  and is denoted by  $\limsup x_n$ 

$$\limsup x_n = \lim_{n \to +\infty} S_n = \lim_{n \to +\infty} \sup \{x_n, x_{n+1}, \dots\}$$

- $\liminf x_n$  is the smallest subsequential limit of  $(x_n)_{n=1}^{\infty}$
- $\limsup x_n$  is the largest subsequential limit of  $(x_n)_{n=1}^{\infty}$
- $(x_n)_{n=1}^{\infty}$  converges iff  $\lim \inf x_n = \lim \sup x_n$

## 4 Compactness

## Definition 4.0.1: Compactness

Let  $X=\mathbb{R}$  and d be the standard metric. A subset K of  $\mathbb{R}$  is said to be **compact** iff every sequence of elements of K has a subsequence that converges to an element of K

## Example 4.0.2: Examples of compactness

#### Compact sets

#### • [a, b] is compact

- Ø is compact
- $\mathbb{R} \cup \{-\infty, +\infty\}$  is compact!

### Not Compact sets

- (0,1) is not compact
- $\mathbb{R}$  is not compact

#### Theorem 4.0.3: Heine-Borel Theorem

On the real line with the standard metric, a set is compact if and only if it is closed and bounded

In  $\mathbb{R}^n$  with the Euclidean metric, a set is compact if and only if it is closed and bounded

## Theorem 4.0.4: Continuous Functions on Compact Sets

Let  $K \subseteq \mathbb{R}$  be compact, and  $f: K \to \mathbb{R}$  be a continuous function. Then f is bounded

#### Theorem 4.0.5: Extreme Value Theorem

Let  $K\subseteq\mathbb{R}$  be compact and  $f:K\to\mathbb{R}$  be a continuous function. Then f has a maximum and a minimum

#### Theorem 4.0.6: Open Covers

An **open cover** of a set S in a metric space is a family  $(G_i)_{i\in I}$  of open sets such that  $S\subset\bigcup_{i\in I}G_i$ . A **subcover** of an open cover

 $(G_i)_{i\in I}$  is a sub-family  $(G_i)_{i\in I'}$  where  $I'\subset I$ , such that  $S\subseteq\bigcup_{i\in I'}G_i$ 

**Thm**: On the real line with the standard metric, a set K is compact iff every open cover of K has a finite subcover

**Lemma**: Every open cover of the interval [a,b], where  $a,b\in\mathbb{R},$   $a\leq b$  has a finite cover

**Thm**: Let  $K \subseteq \mathbb{R}$  and assume that every open cover of K has a finite subcover. Then K is closed and bounded, hence compact

### Definition 4.0.7: Sequentially compact sets

Let (X, d) be a metric space and  $K \subseteq X$ 

- We say that K is sequentially compact iff every sequence in K
  has a subsequence that converges to an element of K
- For K=X this becomes: X is compact iff every sequence in X has a convergent subsequence
- We say that K is **compact** iff every open cover of K has a finite subcover

These two notions of compactness are equivalent

#### Theorem 4.0.8: idk more thms

**Thm**: Let (X, d) be a metric space and  $K \subseteq X, K \neq \emptyset$ ,  $d_K$  be the induced metric on K. K is a (sequentially) compact subset of X iff the metric space  $(K, d_K)$  is (sequentially compact)

**Thm**: Let (X,d) be a metric space and  $K\subseteq X$  be sequentially compact. Then K is closed and bounded

**Thm**: Let (X, d) be a sequentially compact metric space and  $K \subseteq X$ . The set K is sequentially compact iff it is closed

**Thm**: If a metric space (X, d) is sequentially compact, then it is complete

## Theorem 4.0.9: Extreme Value Theorem again

Let (X,d) be a metric space, K be a sequentially compact subset of X and  $f:K\to\mathbb{R}$  be a continous function. Then f has a maximum and a minimum. In particular, f is bounded.

## Definition 4.0.10: Uniform Continuity

Let  $(X, d_X), (Y, d_Y)$  be metric spaces. A function  $f: X \to Y$  is said to be **uniformly continuous** iff for every positive  $\epsilon$  there exists a positive  $\delta$  such that, for all x, x' in X with  $d_X(x, x') < \delta$  we have  $d_Y(f(x), f(x')) < \epsilon$ 

**Thm**: Let  $(X,d_X)$  be a sequentially compact metric space,  $(Y,d_Y)$  be a metric space and  $f:X\to Y$  be a continuous function. Then f is uniformly continuous

## Theorem 4.0.11: yet another compactness thm

If a metric space (X,d) is compact, then it is sequentially compact If a subset K of X is compact, prove that K is sequentially compact Let (X,d) be a compact metric space and A be an infinite subset of X. Then A has at least one limit point

### Theorem 4.0.12: Lebesgue's Lemma

Let (X,d) be a sequentially compact metric space and  $X=\bigcup_{i\in I}G_i$  be an open cover of X. There exists a positive  $\delta$  such that for any two points  $x,y\in X$  with  $d(x,y)<\delta$  there exists an i such that  $x,y\in G_i$ . Any such  $\delta$  is called a **Lebesgue number** of the open cover

**Lemma:** Let (D,d) be a sequentially compact metric space and  $X = \bigcup_{i \in I} G_i$  be an open cover of X. Then there exists a  $\delta > 0$  s.t. any nonempty subset of X of diameter  $< \delta$  can be covered by a single  $G_i$ 

### Definition 4.0.13: Totally bounded spaces

A metric space (X,d) is said to be **totally bounded** iff for every positive  $\delta, X$  can be covered by a finite number of open balls of radius  $\delta$ .

**Note:** If (X, d) is totally bounded then it is bounded, but the converse is not necessarily true

## Theorem 4.0.14: Sequentially compactness boundedness

If a metric space is sequentially compact, then it is totally bounded

Thm: Every sequentially compact metric space is compact. (From now on, refer to sequentially compact spaces as compact)

**Thm:** A metric space is compact iff it is complete and totally bounded

### Definition 4.0.15: Countable and Uncountable Sets

A set S is said to be:

- Infinitely coutnable iff there is a bijection  $f: \mathbb{N} \to S$
- Countable if it is finite or infinitely countable
- Uncountable iff it isn't countable

# Examples

- $\{1,2,3\}$  and  $\mathbb{R}$  are countable sets
- $\mathbb{Q}$  is infinitely countable
- $\mathbb{R}$  is uncountable

# Theorem 4.0.16: Dense Subset equivalence

Let (X, d) be a metric space and  $D \subseteq X$ . The following are equivalent:

- 1. D is dense
- 2. For every  $x \in X$  and  $\epsilon > 0$  there exists  $y \in D$  s.t.  $d(x,y) < \epsilon$
- 3. For every  $x \in X$  there is a sequence  $(y_n)_{n=1}^{\infty}$  of elements of D s.t.  $y_n \to x$
- 4. For every element  $x \in X$  and every open nbhd G of x,  $G \cap D \neq \emptyset$
- 5. D intersects every non-empty open set

#### Definition 4.0.17: Separable spaces

A metric space is said to be  ${\bf separable}$  iff it has a countable dense subset

## Examples –

- $\mathbb R$  with the standard metric is a separable metric because  $\mathbb Q$  is dense and countable
- $\mathbb{R}^n$  with the Euclidean metric is a separable metric space because  $\mathbb{Q}^n$  is dense and countable
- $\mathbb C$  with its standard metric is a separable metric space because  $\{z\in\mathbb C:\mathrm{Re}(z),\mathrm{Im}(z)\in\mathbb Q\}$
- $\ell^2$  is separable, and  $\ell^p$  is separable for  $1 \le p < \infty$

# Theorem 4.0.18: Weierstrass Approximation Theorem

Let  $f:[a,b]\to\mathbb{R}$  be a continuous function and  $\epsilon>0$ . There exists a polynomial p with real coefficients s.t. for all  $x\in[a,b]$ 

$$|f(x) - p(x)| < \epsilon$$

Let  $f:[a,b]\to\mathbb{R}$  be a continuous function and  $\epsilon>0$ . There exists a polynomial p with rational coefficients s.t. for all  $x\in[a,b]$ 

$$|f(x) - p(x)| < \epsilon$$

#### Theorem 4.0.19: more theorems

The set of all polynomials with rational coefficients is countable **Thm**: C([a,b]) is separable

## Theorem 4.0.20: Separability of subspaces

Let (X,d) be a separable metric space,  $A\subseteq X,\ A\neq\emptyset$ , and  $d_A$  be the induced metric on A. Then the metric space  $(A,d_A)$  is separable

**Thm**: Every compact metric space is separable (compact  $\implies$  separable)

## Theorem 4.0.21: Open Ball countability

Let (X,d) be a separable metric space and let D be a countable dense subset of X. Let

$$\mathcal{B} = \{ B(c, r) : c \in D, r \in \mathbb{Q}^+ \}$$

be the set of all open balls with centers in D and rational radii. Then  $\mathcal B$  is countable and every open set in X can be written as a union of elements of  $\mathcal B$ 

## Definition 4.0.22: Open Bases and Second Countability

## \_ Open Bases \_\_\_

Let  $(X, \mathcal{T})$  be a topological space. An **open base** (or **base**) for the topology  $\mathcal{T}$  is a family  $\mathcal{B}$  of open sets such that every open set in  $\mathcal{T}$  can be written as a union of elements of  $\mathcal{B}$ 

## — Second Countability —

A topological space  $(X, \mathcal{T})$  is said to satisfy the **second Axiom of Countability**, or is **second countable** iff it has a countable open base

Thm: In a separable metric space, every family of pairwise disjoint non-empty open sets is countable

**Thm**: On the real line with the standard metric, every open set can be written as a countable union of disjoint open intervals

#### Definition 4.0.23: Continuous Extensions

Let  $(X, d_X), (Y, d_Y)$  be metric spaces, D be a dense subset of X,  $f, g: X \to Y$  continuous functions s.t. f(x) = g(x) for all  $x \in D$ . Then f = g

Let  $(X, d_X), (Y, d_Y)$  be metric spaces,  $D \subseteq X$  be dense,  $f: D \to Y$  be uniformly continuous, and assume that  $(Y, d_Y)$  is complete. Then f has a unique continuous extension  $F: X \to Y$ 

## Theorem 4.0.24: complete ms props

Let (X,d) be a metric space, F be a nonempty subset of X and  $d_F$  be the induced metric on F. If the metric space  $(F,d_F)$  is complete then F is a closed subset of X

**Thm**: Let (X, d) be a complete metric space, F be a nonempty subset of X, and  $d_F$  be the induced metric on F. If F is a closed subset of X, then the metric space  $(F, d_F)$  is complete

**Thm**: Let (X, d) be a complete metric space,  $A \subseteq X$ ,  $A \neq \emptyset$ . Then

- 1. The metric space  $(\overline{A}, d_{\overline{A}})$  is complete
- 2. If  $A \subseteq B \subseteq X$  and  $(B, d_B)$  is complete, then  $\overline{A} \subseteq B$

#### Definition 4.0.25: Isometries

Let  $(X, d_X)$  and  $(Y, d_Y)$  be metric spaces. A function  $f: X \to Y$  is called a **isometry** iff for all  $x_1, x_2 \in X$ .

$$d_Y(f(x_1), f(x_2)) = d_X(x_1, x_2)$$

**Thm**: Let  $(X, d_X)$  and  $(Y, d_Y)$  be metric spaces and  $f: X \to Y$  be an isometry. Then f is an injection. If, moreover, f is a surjection (hence f bij.) then  $f^{-1}: Y \to X$  is also an isometry

Thm: The metric spaces  $(X,d_X)$  and  $(Y,d_Y)$  are said to be **isometric** iff there exists an isometry f from X onto Y

Thm: if two metric spaces are isometric and one of them is complete/compact/connected/... then so is the other

#### Theorem 4.0.26: Isometry completion

Let (X, d) be a bounded metric space and let  $C(X, \mathbb{R})$  be the set of all bounded continuous functions  $f: X \to \mathbb{R}$  equipped with the metric

$$d_{\infty}(f_1, f_2) = \sup\{|f_1(t) - f_2(t)| : t \in X\}$$

For each  $x \in X$ , define  $F_X : X \to \mathbb{R}$  be  $F_X(x') = d(x, x')$ . Then

- 1.  $F_X \in C(X, \mathbb{R})$
- 2. The map  $X \to C(X,\mathbb{R}), x \mapsto F_X$  is an isometry
- 3.  $X^* = \{F_X : x \in X\}$ , equipped with the induced metric, is a subspace of  $C(X\mathbb{R})$  isometric to X
- The closure X̄\* of X\* in C(X, ℝ), equipped with the induced metric, is a complete metric space
- 5.  $X^*$  is dense in  $\overline{X^*}$

## Definition 4.0.27: Completion of a Metric Space

Let (X,d) be a metric space. A **completion** of  $(X,d_X)$  is any metric space  $(Y,d_Y)$  with the following properties

- 1.  $(Y, d_Y)$  is complete
- 2.  $(Y, d_Y)$  has a subspace  $X^*$  isometric to  $(X, d_X)$
- 3.  $X^*$  is dense in Y

It can be shown that any two completions of X are isometric to each other, i.e. a completion is unique up to isometries

# Definition 4.0.28: Construction of Completion via Cauchy

Let (X,d) be a metric space and let  $\mathcal C$  be the set of all Cauchy sequences of elements of X

We define an equivalence relation  $\sim$  in  $\mathcal C$  as follows: Let  $x=(x_n)_{n\in\mathbb N},\ y=(y_n)_{n\in\mathbb N}\in\mathcal C$ . We say that  $x\sim y$  iff  $d(x_n,y_n)\to 0$  Distinct equivalence classes are disjoint and partition  $\mathcal C$ 

The set of all equivalence classes is called the **quotient space**, denoted  $\mathcal{C}/\sim$ 

Define a metric D on  $\mathcal{C}/\sim$  as follows:

Let  $\alpha, \beta \in \mathcal{C}/\sim$ . Then

$$\alpha = [(x_1, ..., x_n, ...)]$$
 and  $\beta = [(y_1, ..., y_n, ...)]$ 

for some  $(x_1, \ldots, x_n, \ldots), (y_1, \ldots, y_n, \ldots) \in \mathcal{C}$ . Define

$$D(\alpha, \beta) = \lim_{n \to +\infty} d(x_n, y_n)$$

 $(\mathcal{C}/\sim, D)$  is complete. Additionally, the following is an isometry:

$$X \to \mathcal{C}/\sim x \mapsto ([x, x, \dots, x, \dots])$$

Let  $X^*$  be its range. The metric space  $(X^*, D_{X^*})$  is isometric to  $(X, d), (\overline{X^*}, D_{\overline{X^*}})$  is a complete metric space, and  $X^*$  is dense in  $\overline{X^*}$ 

## Definition 4.0.29: Connected and Disconnected Spaces

A metric space (X,d) is said to be **disconnected** iff there exists non-empty disjoint open sets  $G_1$  and  $G_2$  such that

$$X = G_1 \cup G_2$$

Otherwise the metric space is called connected

A non-empty subset A of a metric space (X,d) is said to be disconnected iff the metric space  $(A,d_A)$ , where  $d_A$  is the induced metric, is disconnected

#### Theorem 4.0.30: Connected Theorems

A subset O of A is open in  $(A,d_A)$  iff  $O=A\cup G$  for some G that is open in X

Therefore, A is disconnected iff there exist open subsets  $G_1, G_2$  of X s.t.

- $A = (A \cap G_1) \cup (A \cap G_2)$ , which is equivalent to  $A \subseteq G_1 \cup G_2$
- $A \cap G_1 \neq \emptyset$ ,  $A \cap G_2 \neq \emptyset$
- $(A \cap G_1) \cap (A \cap G_2) = \emptyset$ , which is equivalent to  $A \cap G_1 \cap G_2 = \emptyset$

**Thm**:  $\mathbb{R}$  with the standard metric is connected

**Thm:** On the real line with the standard metric, all intervals are connected sets

Thm: A non-empty subset of the real line is connected iff it is an interval

**Thm**: A metric space (X,d) is connected iff the only subsets of X with empty boundary are  $\emptyset$  and X

**Thm**: Let  $(X, d_X)$  be a connected metric space,  $(Y, d_Y)$  be a metric space and  $f: X \to Y$  be a continuous surjection. Then  $(Y, d_Y)$  is connected as well

### Theorem 4.0.31: Intermediate Value Theorem

Let (X,d) be a connected metric space and  $f:X\to\mathbb{R}$  be a continuous function. If  $x_1,x_2\in X$  with  $f(x_1\neq f(x_2))$  and y is a real number between  $f(x_1)$  and  $f(x_2)$ , then there exists an  $x\in X$  such that f(x)=y

## Theorem 4.0.32: Clopen

A metric space (X, d) is connected iff the only clopen subsets are  $\emptyset, X$ 

# Definition 4.0.33: Connected Components

Let (X,d) be a metric space. We define an equivalence relation  $\sim$  in X as follows:  $x\sim x'$  iff there exists a connected subset C of X that contains both x and x'

**Thm**: If  $(C_i)_{i \in I}$  is a family of connected subsets of X with nonempty intersection, then  $\bigcup_{i \in I} C_i$  is connected

#### Theorem 4.0.34: Big equivalence classes

The equivalence class of any point in X is the largest connected subset of X that contains that point (what point?)

## Definition 4.0.35: Path Connected Metric Spaces

Let (X,d) be a metric space and  $x_0, x_1 \in X$ . A **path** in X from  $x_0$  to  $x_1$  is a continuous function  $\gamma:[0,1] \to X$  s.t.  $\gamma(0)=x_0, \gamma(1)=x_1$  (X,d) is said to be **path-connected** iff for any two points  $x_0, x_1$  in X there is a path in X from  $x_0$  to  $x_1$ 

A non-empty subset A of X is said to be **path-connected** iff the metric space  $(A, d_A)$ , where  $d_A$  is the induced metric, is path connected

#### Theorem 4.0.36: Path connected theorem

Every path-connected metric space is connected Not every connected metric space is necessarily path-connected

# 5 Applications

## Definition 5.0.1: Equivalent Norms

Two norms on the same real vector space are said to be equivalent iff their corresponding metrics are equivalent

If  $\|\cdot\|_1$  and  $\|\cdot\|_2$  are norms on the same real vector space X and there exist positive constants C and C' such that, for all  $x \in X$ ,

$$D||x||_1 \le ||x||_2 \le C' ||x||_1$$

then they are equivalent

## Theorem 5.0.2: p metric again?

For any p with  $1 \leq p < \infty$  and any  $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$  we define

$$||x||_p = (|x_1|^p + \dots + |x_n|^p)^{1/p}$$

———— Young's Inequality ——

Let  $1 \le p, q \le \infty$  s.t.  $\frac{1}{p} + \frac{1}{q} = 1$ , and  $a, b \le 0$ . Then

$$ab \le \frac{a^p}{p} + \frac{b^q}{q}$$

— Holder Inequality

Let  $1 \leq p, q \leq \infty$  s.t.  $\frac{1}{p} + \frac{1}{q} = 1$  and  $x, y \in \mathbb{R}^n$ . Then

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} |x_i y_i| \le ||x||_p ||y||_q$$

Equivalence of p-metrics

Thm: Any of the following norms are equivalent:

$$||x||_p = (|x_1|^p + \dots + |x_n|^p)^{1/p}, x \in \mathbb{R}^n, 1 \le p < \infty$$
  
$$||x||_{\infty} = \max\{|x_1|, \dots, |x_n|\}, x \in \mathbb{R}^n$$

**Thm**: Let  $1 \le p \le q < \infty$ . For all  $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$ :

$$||x||_q \le ||x||_p$$

As a consequence,

$$||x||_{\infty} \le ||x||_q \le ||x||_p \le ||x||_1$$

**Thm**: All norms in  $\mathbb{R}^n$  are equivalent

#### Theorem 5.0.3: Picard's Theorem

Let  $f: \mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$  be a continuous and boudned function, and  $t_0, x_0$  be real numbers. Assume that there exists a positive constant L s.t. for all real  $t, x_1, x_2$  we have:

$$|f(t,x_1) - f(t,x_2)| \le L|x_1 - x_2|$$

Then, there exists a positive  $\delta$  and a unique differentiable function  $x:[t_0-\delta,t_0+\delta]\to\mathbb{R}$  s.t. for all  $t\in[t_0-\delta,t_0+\delta]$ ,

$$x'(t) = f(t, x(t))$$
 and  $x(t_0) = x_0$ 

### Definition 5.0.4: Lipschitz Functions again

Let  $(X, d_X)$ ,  $(Y, d_Y)$  be metric spaces. A function  $f: X \to Y$  is said to be a **Lipschitz** function iff there exists a constant L such that for all  $x, x' \in X$ ,

$$d_Y(f(x), f(x')) \le Ld_X(x, x')$$

If L < 1, f is said to be a **contraction** 

If  $f: \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$  is a Lipschitz function and  $x_0$  is any point in  $\mathbb{R}$ , then for any  $x \in \mathbb{R}$  we have

$$|f(x) - f(x_0)| \le L|x - x_0|$$

For  $x \geq x_0$  this can be expanded to

$$f(x_0) - L(x - x_0) \le f(x) \le f(x_0) + L(x - x_0)$$

Let  $(X,d_X)$  and  $(Y,d_Y)$  be two metric spaces, and  $f:X\to Y$  be a Lipschitz function. Then there exists a smallest Lipschitz constant of f

**Thm**: Let I be a non-degenerate open interval on the real line and let  $f:I\to\mathbb{R}$  be a differentiable function. Then f is Lipschitz iff f' is bounded. When that is the case,

$$|f|_{\mathrm{Lip}} = \sup\{|f'(x)| : x \in I\}$$

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