

ANALYSIS IN METRIC SPACES

Assignment 1 Solutions

1. We define  $d(x,y) = \begin{cases} 0, & \text{if } x = y \\ |x|+|y|, & \text{if } x \neq y \end{cases} \quad (x,y \in \mathbb{R})$

To show  $d$  is a metric on  $\mathbb{R}$ .

(M1) Clearly  $d(x,y) \geq 0 \quad \forall x,y \in \mathbb{R}$

(M2) If  $x = y$ , then  $d(x,y) = 0$  by definition. If  $x \neq y$ , then at least one of  $|x|$  and  $|y|$  is greater than zero; hence  $d(x,y) = |x|+|y| > 0$ .

$\therefore d(x,y) = 0 \Leftrightarrow x = y$ .

(M3) If  $x = y$ , then  $d(x,y) = 0 = d(y,x)$ . If  $x \neq y$ , then  $d(x,y) = |x|+|y| = |y|+|x| = d(y,x)$ .

$\therefore d(x,y) = d(y,x) \quad \forall x,y \in \mathbb{R}$

(M4) If  $x = y$ , then for any  $z \in \mathbb{R}$ , we have

$d(x,y) = 0 \leq d(x,z) + d(z,y)$ , since  $d(x,z)$  and  $d(z,y)$  are both non-negative. Otherwise suppose  $x \neq y$ . If  $z \neq x$  and  $z \neq y$ , then  $d(x,z) + d(z,y) = |x|+|z|+|z|+|y| \geq |x|+|y| = d(x,y)$

If  $z = x$ , then  $z \neq y$ , so

$$d(x,z) + d(z,y) = |z|+|y| = |x|+|y| = d(x,y)$$

Similarly if  $z = y$ .

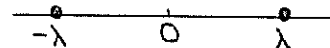
Overall, then,  $d(x,y) \leq d(x,z) + d(z,y) \quad \forall x,y,z \in \mathbb{R}$

Since (M1) - (M4) hold,  $(\mathbb{R}, d)$  is a metric space.

(a)  $d(x,0) = 1 \Leftrightarrow |x|=1 \Leftrightarrow x = \pm 1$ .

$d(x,0) = 2 \Leftrightarrow |x|=2 \Leftrightarrow x = \pm 2$ .

$d(x,0) = \lambda$ : If  $\lambda = 0$ , then  $x = 0$ .



Otherwise,  $|x| = \lambda$ , i.e.,  $x = \pm \lambda$ .

(b)  $d(x,1) = 1 \Rightarrow |x|+1 = 1 \Rightarrow x = 0$

$d(x,1) = 2 \Rightarrow |x|+1 = 2 \Rightarrow |x| = 1$ .

BUT, if  $x = 1$ , then  $d(x,1) = 0$ , as  $d(x,y) = 0$  if  $x = y$ .

Hence  $x = -1$  is the only solution to  $d(x,1) = 2$ .

$d(x,1) = \lambda$ : If  $\lambda = 0$ , then  $x = 1$

If  $0 < \lambda < 1$ , then  $|x|+1 = \lambda \Rightarrow |x| = \lambda - 1 < 0$  - contradiction.

If  $\lambda \geq 1$ , then  $|x|+1 = \lambda \Rightarrow |x| = \lambda - 1 \Rightarrow x = \pm(\lambda-1)$ .

$\therefore$  those  $x$  for which  $d(x,1) = \lambda$  are given by:

$$\begin{cases} x = 1, & \text{if } \lambda = 0 \\ x = -1, & \text{if } \lambda = 2 \\ x = \pm(\lambda-1), & \text{if } \lambda \geq 1, \lambda \neq 2. \end{cases}$$

If  $0 < \lambda < 1$ , there is no solution to  $d(x,1) = \lambda$ .

(c) We fix  $y$ , and solve  $d(x,y) = \lambda$ :

If  $\lambda = 0$ , then  $x = y$ .

If  $0 < \lambda < |y|$ , then  $|x| + |y| = \lambda \Rightarrow |x| = \lambda - |y| < 0$  - a contradiction.

If  $\lambda \geq |y|$ , then  $|x| = \lambda - |y| \Rightarrow x = \pm(\lambda - |y|)$

Note that if  $\lambda = 2|y|$ , then there is only one solution for  $x$  (ie,  $x = -y$ ).

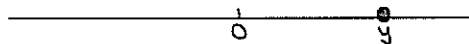
$\therefore$  those  $x$  for which  $d(x,y) = \lambda$  are given by:

$$\begin{cases} x = y, & \text{if } \lambda = 0 \\ x = -y, & \text{if } \lambda = 2|y| \\ x = \pm(\lambda - |y|), & \text{if } \lambda \geq |y|, \lambda \neq 2|y|. \end{cases}$$

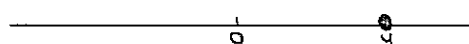
If  $0 < \lambda < |y|$ , there is no solution to  $d(x,y) = \lambda$ .

If we now draw the sets  $d(x,y) \leq \lambda$  for fixed  $y$ , and various  $\lambda \geq 0$ , we obtain:

(1)  $\lambda = 0$ :



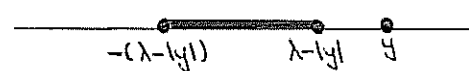
(2)  $0 < \lambda < |y|$ :



(3)  $\lambda = |y|$ :



(4)  $|y| < \lambda < 2|y|$ :



(5)  $\lambda = 2|y|$ :



(6)  $\lambda > 2|y|$ :



In Q1 of Tutorial Sheet 2, the sets  $d(x,y) \leq \lambda$  were squares centred on  $y$ , and there were no isolated points like above. This irregular behaviour above suggests that  $d$  is not induced by any norm. This is in fact the case, although the proof is slightly tricky:

Suppose  $\| \cdot \|$  is a norm on the vector space  $\mathcal{R}$  with "addition" denoted by  $\oplus$ , and "subtraction" by  $\ominus$ , such that

$$d(x,y) = \|x \ominus y\| \text{ for all } x,y \in \mathcal{R}.$$

3.

Put  $k = 2 \ominus 1$

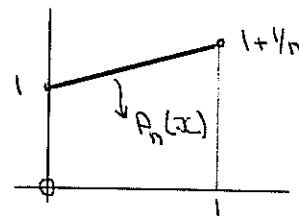
$$\begin{aligned}
 \text{Then } 1 = d(1,0) &= \|1\ominus 0\| \\
 &= \|(1\ominus k) \ominus (0\ominus k)\| \\
 &= d(1\ominus k, 0\ominus k) \\
 &= |1\ominus k| + |0\ominus k| \\
 &= |1\ominus(2\ominus 1)| + |0\ominus k| \\
 &= 2 + |0\ominus k| \\
 &\geq 2
 \end{aligned}$$

i.e.,  $1 \geq 2$ , which is a clear contradiction. Hence  $d$  is not induced by any norm.

2 We have  $\|p(x)\|_\infty = \max_{x \in [0,1]} |p(x)|$ , for

$p(x) \in P[0,1]$ , the linear space of all polynomials of degree 1.

Define  $P_n(x) = 1 + \frac{x}{n}$ .



$$\begin{aligned}
 \text{(a) } \|P_n(x)\|_\infty &= \max_{x \in [0,1]} |P_n(x)| \\
 &= 1 + \frac{1}{n} \quad (\text{from the diagram})
 \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 \|P_n(x) - P_m(x)\|_\infty &= \max_{x \in [0,1]} |P_n(x) - P_m(x)| = \max_{x \in [0,1]} \\
 &\quad \left| \left(1 + \frac{x}{n}\right) - \left(1 + \frac{x}{m}\right) \right| \\
 &= \max_{x \in [0,1]} \left| x \left( \frac{1}{n} - \frac{1}{m} \right) \right| = \max_{x \in [0,1]} \left( |x| \left| \frac{1}{n} - \frac{1}{m} \right| \right) \\
 &= \left| \frac{1}{n} - \frac{1}{m} \right| \left( \max_{x \in [0,1]} |x| \right) = \left| \frac{1}{n} - \frac{1}{m} \right|,
 \end{aligned}$$

(b) Let  $\epsilon > 0$  be given, and choose  $N$  to be any integer greater than  $2/\epsilon$ .

Then, if  $n, m \geq N$ , we have

$$\|P_n(x) - P_m(x)\|_\infty = \left| \frac{1}{n} - \frac{1}{m} \right| \leq \frac{1}{n} + \frac{1}{m} \leq \frac{1}{N} + \frac{1}{N} = \frac{2}{N} < 2 \cdot \frac{\epsilon}{2} = \epsilon$$

i.e., if  $n, m \geq N$ , then  $\|P_n(x) - P_m(x)\|_\infty < \epsilon$

Hence, by definition of a Cauchy sequence,

$\{P_n(x)\}$  is Cauchy.

$$(c) \quad \|P_n(x) - 1\|_\infty = \max_{x \in [0,1]} \left| \left(1 + \frac{x}{n}\right) - 1 \right| = \max_{x \in [0,1]} \left| \frac{x}{n} \right|$$

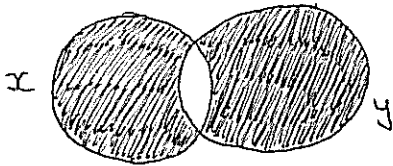
$$= \frac{1}{n} \cdot \max_{x \in [0,1]} |x| = \frac{1}{n}$$

Since  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{n} = 0$ , it is reasonable to assume that  $P_n(x) \rightarrow 1$ . To prove this, let  $\epsilon > 0$  be given, and let  $N$  be any integer greater than  $\frac{1}{\epsilon}$ .

Then if  $n > N$ , we have  $\|P_n(x) - 1\|_\infty = \frac{1}{n} < \frac{1}{N} < \epsilon$

i.e.,  $\|P_n(x) - 1\|_\infty < \epsilon$  whenever  $n > N$ . Thus, by definition,  $\{P_n(x)\}$  converges to the constant function 1.

3. For  $x, y \in X$ , the class of all finite subsets of  $\mathcal{R}$ , we define  $d_0(x, y)$  to be the number of elements in  $x \Delta y = (x \cap y') \cup (y \cap x')$



The shaded part is  $x \Delta y$ .

To show  $d_0$  is a metric:

- (M1) Clearly  $d_0(x, y) \geq 0$  for all  $x, y \in X$ .
- (M2) If  $x = y$ , then  $x \cap y' = \phi$ , and  $y \cap x' = \phi$ , so  $x \Delta y = \phi$ .  
 $\therefore$  the no. of elements in  $x \Delta y$  is 0, i.e.,  $d_0(x, y) = 0$ .

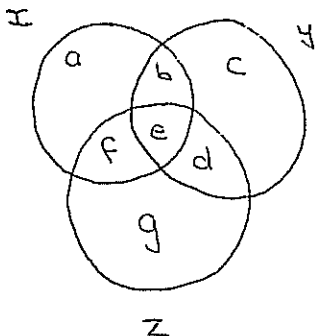
Conversely, suppose  $d_0(x, y) = 0$ .

Then both  $x \cap y'$  and  $y \cap x'$  are empty sets.

Since  $x \cap y' = \phi$ , it follows that  $x$  must be contained in  $y$  i.e.,  $x \subseteq y$ .

Similarly, since  $y \cap x' = \phi$ , it follows that  $y \subseteq x$ . Since  $x \subseteq y$  and  $y \subseteq x$ , it follows that  $x = y$ .  $\therefore d_0(x, y) = 0 \Leftrightarrow x = y$ .

- (M3) Since  $x \Delta y = y \Delta x$ , it follows that  $d_0(x, y) = d_0(y, x)$
- (M4) Let  $x, y, z$  be 3 elements of  $X$  as shown, and let  $a, b, c, \dots$  denote the number of elements in the regions shown.



$$\text{Then } d_0(x, y) = a + f + c + d$$

$$d_0(x, z) = a + b + d + g$$

$$d_0(z, y) = b + c + f + g$$

$$\text{Hence } d_0(x, z) + d_0(z, y) - d_0(x, y) = 2(b+g) \geq 0 \text{ (as } b \text{ and } g \text{ are non-negative integers)}$$

$$\therefore d_0(x,y) \leq d_0(x,z) + d_0(z,y)$$

Since (M1) - (M4) hold,  $(X, d_0)$  is a metric space.

(a) Suppose  $\{x_n\}$  is a sequence in  $X$  that converges to  $y \in X$ .

By definition, then, given  $\epsilon > 0$ , there exists  $N$  such that

$$d_0(x_n, y) < \epsilon \quad \text{for all } n \geq N.$$

Now take  $\epsilon = 1$ . Then there exists  $N$  such that  $d_0(x_n, y) < 1$  for all  $n \geq N$ .

But  $d_0(x_n, y)$  is the number of elements in  $x_n \Delta y$ , and must be a non-negative integer. Since  $d_0(x_n, y) < 1$  for all  $n \geq N$ , we must have  $d_0(x_n, y) = 0$  for all  $n \geq N$ , and so  $x_n = y$  for all  $n \geq N$  (by (M2)).

That is, the sequence  $\{x_n\}$  becomes constant after a finite number of terms.

(b) If  $x_1 = \{1\}$

$$x_2 = \{\frac{1}{2}, 1\}, \dots$$

$$x_n = \{\frac{1}{n}, \frac{2}{n}, \dots, \frac{n-1}{n}, 1\}, \dots$$

then the sequence  $\{x_n\}$  cannot converge, as it does not become constant after a finite number of terms.

(c) Let  $\{x_n\}$  be a Cauchy sequence in  $(X, d_0)$ . Then, given  $\epsilon > 0$ ,

there exists  $N$  such that  $d_0(x_n, x_m) < \epsilon$  whenever  $n, m \geq N$ . Now, as before, take  $\epsilon = 1$ . Then there exists  $N$  such that

$$d_0(x_n, x_m) < 1 \quad \text{for } n, m \geq N.$$

As previously, this means that  $x_n = x_m$  for  $n, m \geq N$  and (taking  $m = N$ ), we see  $x_n = x_N$  for  $n \geq N$ .

Therefore,  $\{x_n\}$  becomes constant after a finite number of terms and hence is convergent i.e., Any Cauchy sequence in  $(X, d_0)$  is convergent, and so, by definition,  $(X, d_0)$  is complete.

METRIC SPACES - TUTORIAL SHEET 4

1. Show that for any set  $X$  with the discrete metric,

$$B_r(x_0) = \begin{cases} \{x_0\} & \text{if } r \leq 1 \\ X & \text{if } r > 1 \end{cases}$$

2. (a) In  $\mathcal{R}$ , with metric  $d(x,y) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } x = y \\ |x| + |y| & \text{if } x \neq y \end{cases}$

Show that the set  $A = \{x: 1 \geq x > -1\}$  is an open set with respect to the metric  $d$ . (Look at the open sets  $d(x,1) < \lambda$  for various  $\lambda$ .)

- (b) Show that  $A$  is neither open nor closed with respect to the metric  $d_1(x,y) = |x - y|$ .

3. In the set  $\mathcal{R}$  with the same metric as in 2(a), show that almost all single point sets are open ( $\{0\}$  is the only single point set that is not open).

Which single point sets are closed?

Show that any set not containing  $\{0\}$  is open.

Find a set (other than  $\{0\}$ ) that is not open.

What are the only possible non-open sets? Are they closed?

4. Is the set  $Q$  of rational numbers an open subset of  $\mathcal{R}$  (use the usual metric  $d(x,y) = |x-y|$ ). What is  $\text{Int } Q$ ?

5. In the space  $C[0,1]$  with metric  $\|\cdot\|_\infty$  as defined on Sheet 3, Q2, is the set  $P$  of polynomials an open set?

Is the complement of  $P$  an open set? (Q1 on p19 of notes may help.)

6. Show that every single element subset of  $(X, d_0)$  (defined on Sheet 3, Q3) is an open set. (Be careful to remember that elements of  $X$  are finite subsets of  $\mathcal{R}$ , and that  $d_0$  is a distance measure between such finite subsets.)

Describe the set  $\{x: d_0(x, x_0) \leq 1\}$  where  $x_0 = \{a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n\} \in X$ .

Is it open?