

Lecture 8 & 9 Metric spaces

Question: How to measure distance? ... in \mathbb{R}^n
in genome sequences?

Def. A set X is a metric space if \exists a metric

$d: X \times X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ such that $\forall p, q \in X$:

(a) $d(p, q) \geq 0$ (and $= 0$ iff $p = q$),

"nonnegative"

(b) $d(p, q) = d(q, p)$,

"symmetric"

(c) $d(p, q) \leq d(p, r) + d(r, q)$.

"triangle inequality"

We usually write a metric space as (X, d) .
set \rightarrow X , metric $\leftarrow d$

Examples:

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

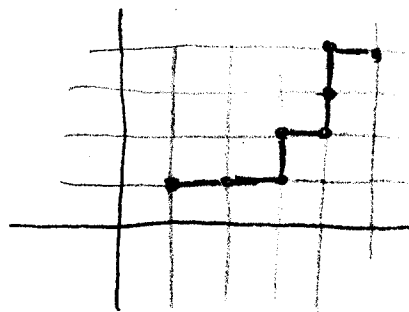
• $X = \mathbb{R}^k$, $d(\vec{x}, \vec{y}) = \sqrt{(x_1 - y_1)^2 + \dots + (x_k - y_k)^2}$

"usual metric on \mathbb{R}^k "

• $X = \mathbb{R}^k$, $d(\vec{x}, \vec{y}) = \sum_{i=1}^k |x_i - y_i|$.

"staircase", or "taxicab" metric.

In \mathbb{R}^2 :



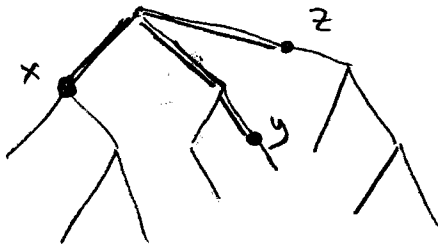
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Examples. (cont)

• $X = \mathbb{R}^k$, $d(x, y) = \begin{cases} 0 & x = y \\ 1 & x \neq y \end{cases}$

"discrete metric"

• $X =$ fixed tree:



$d(x, y) =$ length of shortest path from x to y .

• $X = \{ \text{genome sequences of length } n \}$, $d(\vec{x}, \vec{y}) = \#$ places where they differ.

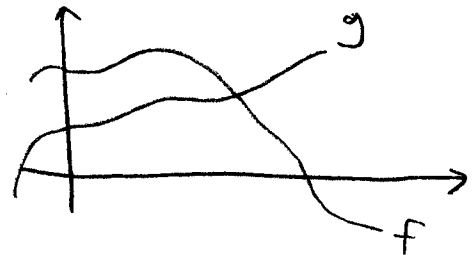
e.g., $\vec{x} = \text{GATTACA}$
 $\vec{y} = \text{AGATCAT}$

[Is this a metric?]

• $\mathcal{C}([a, b])$: space of continuous functions $[a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$

How to define distance?

There are several ways:



* $d(f, g) = \int_a^b |f - g| dx$ "L¹-norm"

or * $d(f, g) = \sup_{x \in [a, b]} |f(x) - g(x)|$ "sup-norm" or "L[∞]-norm"

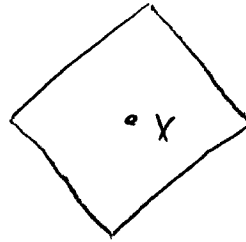
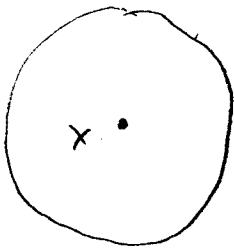
or * $d(f, g) = \left(\int_a^b (f - g)^2 dx \right)^{1/2}$ "L²-norm"

Open ball (or "neighborhood") $N_r(x) = \{y \in X : d(x,y) < r\}$

Closed ball: $\overline{N_r(x)} = \{y \in X : d(x,y) \leq r\}$.

In \mathbb{R}^2 : (usual metric)

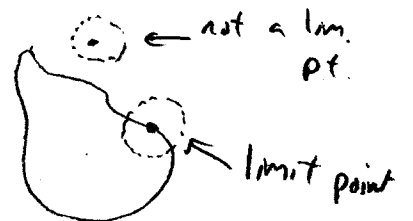
(staircase metric)



Think: What about the discrete metric?

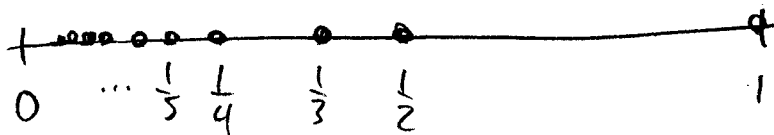
* Def: Say $p \in X$ is a limit point of E if every

neighborhood (open ball) of p contains a point $q \neq p$ such that $q \in E$.



Ex: Consider the set $G = \{1, \frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{3}, \frac{1}{4}, \frac{1}{5}, \dots\} = \{\frac{1}{n} : n \in \mathbb{N}\}$.

The point $0 \notin G$, but 0 is a limit point of G .

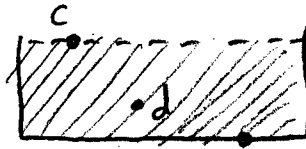


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Ex: In \mathbb{R}^2 , consider B :



Limit points: b, c, d, e [though $b, c \notin B$]



$z \notin B$

Not limit points: a, z [a is "isolated", $z \notin B$]

Remark: A point $p \in X$ is not a limit point of E if \exists nbhd N of p s.t. N does not contain any other point of E .

Def: A point $p \in X$ is an isolated point of E if $p \in E$, but p is not a limit point of E .

Ex: All points of G are isolated.

There are two isolated points of B .

Def: A point $p \in X$ is an interior point of E if \exists nbhd N of p s.t. $N \subset E$.

[So p is not an interior point if \forall nbhds N of p , N contains some point not in E .]

Ex: G has no interior points

• In B , d is an interior point, but a, b, c, e are not.

• In $(\mathbb{R}, \text{disc})$, if $E = \{x\}$, the x is both an interior point and an isolated point!

Example: • In \mathbb{R} , consider the sets $\emptyset, \mathbb{R}, \mathbb{Z}, \mathbb{Q}$. [Do n small groups]

What are the \times limit points?

\times isolated points?

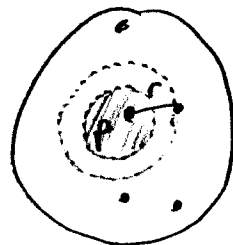
\times interior points?

• Same question, but for $(\mathbb{R}, \text{discrete})$.

Theorem: If p is a limit point of E , then every nbhd of p contains infinitely many points of E .

Proof: (Contrapositive.)

Suppose \exists nbhd N of p with only finitely many points of E : e_1, \dots, e_n .



Let $r = \min_{1 \leq i \leq n} \{d(p, e_i)\}$, which exists since $\{e_1, \dots, e_n\}$ is finite.

Consider $N_{r/2}(p)$, which has no points of E .

Thus, p is not a limit point of E . □