1. Question: Metrics on \mathbb{R}

1.1. What would be the natural norm and metric to define on the real line? Use this metric to show that the real line is a metric space.

Solution:

Clearly, the absolute value is a norm on \mathbb{R} . Therefore, by Remark 1.1., the function

$$d: \mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R} \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}_{>0}, \ (x, y) \mapsto |x - y|$$

is a metric on \mathbb{R} . Therefore, the real line (\mathbb{R}, d) is a metric space.

- **1.2.** Are the following functions metrics on \mathbb{R} ? Prove your answer.
 - (i) $d : \mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R} \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}, \quad (x, y) \mapsto (x y)^2$ (ii) $d : \mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R} \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}, \quad (x, y) \mapsto \sqrt{|x - y|}.$

Solution:

(i) No, this is not a metric, since it does not satisfy the triangle inequality. We can prove this via counterexample (or contradiction): Choose x = 3, y = 1 and z = 2, then

$$d(3,1) = (3-1)^2 = 2^2 = 4$$

but

$$d(3,2) + d(2,1) = (3-2)^2 + (2-1)^2 = 2 < 4$$

(ii) The first two properties of a metric are clearly fulfilled by $d(x,y) = \sqrt{|x-y|}$:

- 1. Consider $x, y \in \mathbb{R}$ with x = y. Then $d(x, y) = \sqrt{0} = 0$. Meanwhile, for $x, y \in \mathbb{R}$ with $x \neq y$, it follows that $q := |x - y| \in \mathbb{R}_{>0}$ $\Rightarrow d(x, y) = \sqrt{q} > 0$.
- 2. Symmetry also directly follows from the symmetry of the absolute value, i.e. the fact that |x y| = |y x|.

To verify the triangle inequality for any $x, y, z \in \mathbb{R}$, we write

$$\begin{split} [d(x,y)]^2 &= |x-y| \le |x-z| + |z-y| \\ &\le |x-z| + |z-y| + 2\sqrt{|x-z|}\sqrt{|z-y|} \\ &= (\sqrt{|x-z|} + \sqrt{|z-y|})^2 \\ &= [[d(x,z) + d(z,y)]^2. \end{split}$$

Taking square root on both sides yields the triangle inequality.

- **1.3.** Let d be a metric on X. Determine all constants $k \in \mathbb{R}$ such that each of the following functions $d' : \mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R} \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is a metric on X.
 - (i) d'(x,y) := kd(x,y)
 - (*ii*) d'(x, y) := d(x, y) + k.

Solution:

- (i) Here, the answer is any $k \in \mathbb{R}_{>0}$. This is because, multiplication generally does not affect the properties of a metric. But, if X has more than one point (as \mathbb{R} does), then the zero function cannot be a metric on X.
- (ii) Here, k has to be equal to zero so that d' still satisfies the first requirement of a metric, i.e.

 $\forall x, y \in S$ we have d(x, y) = 0 if and only if x = y. This is because, if $k \neq 0$, it would follow that $d'(x, y) = d(x, y) + k = 0 + k \neq 0.$

2. Question: Metrics on \mathbb{R}^m

- **2.1.** Sketch the unit-ball, i.e. the ε -Ball in \mathbb{R}^2 with $\varepsilon = 1$, for the following three metrics:
 - Euclidean distance, i.e.

$$d_{\text{Euclidean}} : \mathbb{R}^m \times \mathbb{R}^m \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}_{\geq 0}, \quad (\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y}) \mapsto \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^m (x_i - y_i)^2}$$

• Manhattan distance, i.e.

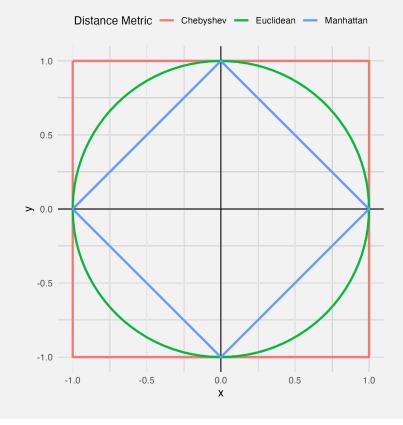
$$d_{\text{Manhattan}} : \mathbb{R}^m \times \mathbb{R}^m \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}_{\geq 0}, \quad (\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y}) \mapsto \sum_{i=1}^m |x_i - y_i|$$

• Chebyshev distance, i.e.

$$d_{\text{Chebyshev}}: \mathbb{R}^m \times \mathbb{R}^m \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}_{\geq 0}, \quad (\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y}) \mapsto \max\left\{ |x_1 - y_1|, |x_2 - y_2|, \dots, |x_m - y_m| \right\}.$$

Solution:

Unit Circles for Different Distance Metrics in R²



2.2. Use the sketch from **2.1** to explain the intuition of each metric and give an example of when it might be useful.

Solution:

- Euclidean Distance: This is the most common distance metric. It represents our intuitive understanding of distance as the length of a straight line between two points.
- Manhattan Distance: As this metric sums up element-wise absolute distances, it may be thought of as the length of a step-wise function in \mathbb{R}^2 . As such, it the Manhattan distance is, e.g., useful in grid-based environments, such as urban planning where movement is restricted to grid-like street layouts. Of course there are many more applications, like L1 regularization.
- Chebyshev Distance: As this metric gives us the maximum element-wise distance, it is helpful in scenarios where the maximum distance in any dimension is critical, such as in logistics where the worst-case scenario must be minimized.
- **2.3.** is the squared Euclidean distance $d_{\text{Euclidean}}^2$ a metric? Prove your answer.

Solution:

No, it is not. Given 1.2(i), it is intuitive that $d_{\text{Euclidean}}$ would not satisfy the triangle inequality. To prove this, we generalize the contradiction/counterexample of 1.2(i):

Consider an arbitrary $x \in \mathbb{R}^m \setminus \{0\}$ and set y = 3x and z = 2x. Then

$$d(x,y)^{2} = \sum_{i=1}^{m} (x_{i} - 3x_{i})^{2} = 4\sum_{i=1}^{m} x_{i}^{2}$$

and

$$d(x,z)^{2} + d(z,y)^{2} = \sum_{i=1}^{m} x_{i}^{2} + \sum_{i=1}^{m} x_{i}^{2} = 2\sum_{i=1}^{m} x_{i}^{2}$$

Since $4\sum_{i=1}^{m} x_i^2 > 2\sum_{i=1}^{m} x_i^2$, we have found a contradiction/counterexample in which the triangle inequality does not apply. Therefore, the squared Euclidean distance isn't a metric.

3. Question: Triangle inequality

3.1. Prove the generalized triangle inequality, i.e. that for some metric space (X,d), n > 2, and $x_1, \ldots, x_{n-1}, x_n \in X$, it holds that

$$d(x_1, x_n) \leq d(x_1, x_2) + d(x_2, x_3) + \ldots + d(x_{n-1}, x_n)$$
.

Solution:

We prove the generalized triangle inequality by induction. The case n = 3 follows from definition of a metric. Suppose the statement is true for n = k. For n = k + 1,

$$d(x_1, x_{k+1}) \le d(x_1, x_k) + d(x_k, x_{k+1})$$

$$\le d(x_1, x_2) + d(x_2, x_3) + \ldots + d(x_{k-1}, x_k) + d(x_k, x_{k+1})$$

where the last inequality follows from the induction hypothesis. Since $k \ge 3$ is arbitrary, the statement follows from induction.

3.2. Using the triangle inequality, show that for any metric d

$$|d(x,z) - d(y,z)| \le d(x,y).$$

Solution:

Suppose (X, d) is a metric space. For any x, y, z in X, we have

$$d(x,z) \le d(x,y) + d(y,z)$$

by the triangle inequality, so that

$$d(x,z) - d(y,z) \le d(x,y)$$

Now interchange x and y. Using the symmetry of the metric d (property 2 of metrics) we also obtain

$$d(y,z) - d(x,z) \le d(x,y)$$

Combining the last two inequalities we find

$$|d(x,z) - d(y,z)| \le d(x,y).$$

3.3. Using the triangle inequality, show that for any metric d

$$|d(x,y) - d(z,w)| \le d(x,z) + d(y,w).$$

Solution:

Suppose (X, d) is a metric space. For any x, y, z, w in X, the generalised triangle inequality yields

$$d(x,y) \le d(x,z) + d(z,w) + d(w,y)$$
$$\implies d(x,y) - d(z,w) \le d(x,z) + d(w,y)$$

Furthermore,

$$= d(x, z) + d(y, w) \qquad [\text{ by symmetry of } d]$$

$$d(z, w) \leq d(z, x) + d(x, y) + d(y, w)$$

$$\implies d(z, w) - d(x, y) \leq d(z, x) + d(y, w)$$

$$= d(x, z) + d(y, w) \qquad [\text{ by by symmetry of } d]$$

Again, combining these two inequalities yields the desired statement.

4. Question: Open sets

4.1. Are the following sets open or closed in the metric spaces $(\mathbb{R}^2, d_{\text{Euclidean}})$ and $(\mathbb{R}, d_{\text{Euclidean}})$, respectively? Prove your answer.

(a)
$$A = \{(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2 : x^2 + y^2 < 2y\}$$

(b)
$$B = \left\{ x \in \mathbb{R} : x^3 + 2x^2 - 3x \le 0 \right\}$$

Solution:

(a) A is an open set. Completing the square, one may express the given set in the form

$$\begin{split} A &= \left\{ (x,y) \in \mathbb{R}^2 : x^2 + y^2 - 2y < 0 \right\} \\ &= \left\{ (x,y) \in \mathbb{R}^2 : x^2 + (y-1)^2 < 1 \right\}, \end{split}$$

which, for $a = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$ is equal to the open ball $B_1(a)$.

In particular, A is open in \mathbb{R}^2 because every open ball is open in \mathbb{R}^2 .

(b) B is a closed set. To prove this, it suffices to show that the complement of A is open in $\mathbb{R}.$ Since

$$x^{3} + 2x^{2} - 3x = x(x^{2} + 2x - 3) = x(x + 3)(x - 1)$$

one has $x^3 + 2x^2 - 3x > 0$ if and only if $x \in (-3, 0) \cup (1, \infty)$. Thus, the complement of B is the union of two open sets, so the complement of B is open and B is closed.

Note: Parentheses, (), denote open interval endpoints wile square brackets, [], denote closed endpoints. For example, the half-open interval [0, 1) contains 0, but not 1.

4.2. Suppose (X, d) is a metric space and $f : X \to \mathbb{R}$ is continuous. Show that $B = \{x \in X : |f(x)| < r\}$ is open in X for each r > 0.

Solution:

The given set can be expressed in the form

$$A = \{x \in X : -r < f(x) < r\} = f^{-1}((-r, r)).$$

Since (-r, r) is open in \mathbb{R} , its inverse image A under continuous function f must then be open in X by Proposition 1.4.

4.3. Show that every function $f: X \to Y$ is continuous when X, Y are metric spaces and the metric on X is the so-called discrete metric, defined as

$$d: X \times X \longrightarrow \{0, 1\}, \ (x, y) \mapsto \mathbb{1}_{x \neq y} := \begin{cases} 1, & x \neq y, \\ 0, & \text{otherwise, i.e. } x = y \end{cases}$$

Solution:

We use the epsilon-delta criterion to show that any such f is continuous. Let $\varepsilon > 0$ be given and take $\delta = 1$. Then, $\forall x, y \in X$

$$d_X(x,y) < \delta \implies x = y \implies d_Y(f(x), f(y)) = d_Y(f(x), f(x)) = 0 < \varepsilon$$
.

Since this holds $\forall x \in X$, every function $f: X \longrightarrow Y$ in this setting is continuous.

4.4. Suppose $f: X \to Y$ is a constant function between metric spaces, say $f(x) = y_0$ for all $x \in X$. Show that f is continuous.

Solution:

To show that f is continuous, we again use the epsilon-delta criterion. Let $\varepsilon > 0$ be given and $\delta > 0$ be arbitrary. Then, $\forall x, y \in X$

$$d_X(x,y) < \delta \implies d_Y(f(x), f(y)) = d_Y(y_0, y_0) = 0 < \varepsilon,$$

so f is continuous by the same reasoning as in 3.4.

If you have any questions or feedback, please feel free to contact me via E-mail at hannah.kuempel@stat.uni-muenchen.de!!

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