1. Question: Metrics on 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 R. Therefore, by Remark 1.1., the function

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

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

$$
[d(x,y)]^2 = |x-y| \le |x-z| + |z-y|
$$

\n
$$
\le |x-z| + |z-y| + 2\sqrt{|x-z|}\sqrt{|z-y|}
$$

\n
$$
= (\sqrt{|x-z|} + \sqrt{|z-y|})^2
$$

\n
$$
= [(d(x,z) + d(z,y)]^2).
$$

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*) $d'(x, y) := k d(x, y)$
	- (*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.

 $\forall x, y \in \mathcal{S}$ 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.

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

• Manhattan distance, i.e.

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

• Chebyshev distance, i.e.

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

Solution:

Unit Circles for Different Distance Metrics in R^2

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 $d_{Euclidean}$ 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

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

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 $n = k + 1$,

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

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

where the last inequality follows from the induction hypothesis. Since $k \geq 3$ 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

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

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

Furthermore,

$$
= d(x, z) + d(y, w)
$$
 [by symmetry of d]
\n
$$
d(z, w) \leq d(z, x) + d(x, y) + d(y, w)
$$

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

\n
$$
= d(x, z) + d(y, w)
$$
 [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)
$$
B = \{x \in \mathbb{R} : x^3 + 2x^2 - 3x \le 0\}
$$

Solution:

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

$$
A = \{(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2 : x^2 + y^2 - 2y < 0\}
$$
\n
$$
= \{(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2 : x^2 + (y - 1)^2 < 1\},
$$

which, for $a = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$ 1 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 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, $\forall x, y \in X$

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

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, $\forall x, y \in X$

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

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!](mailto:hannah.kuempel@stat.uni-muenchen.de)!

Also, thank you to [Chee Han Tan](https://www.math.utah.edu/~tan/) and [Paschalis Karageorgis,](https://www.maths.tcd.ie/~pete/ma2223/overview.pdf) whose exercises this sheet was heavily inspired by.