Properties of distance spaces with power triangle inequalities

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Abstract: Metric spaces provide a framework for analysis and have several very useful properties. Many of these properties follow in part from the triangle inequality. However, there are several applications in which the triangle inequality does not hold but in which we may still like to perform analysis. This paper investigates what happens if the triangle inequality is removed all together, leaving what is called a distance space, and also what happens if the triangle inequality is replaced with a much more general two parameter relation, which is herein called the “power triangle inequality”. The power triangle inequality represents an uncountably large class of inequalities, and includes the triangle inequality, relaxed triangle inequality, and inframetric inequality as special cases. The power triangle inequality is defined in terms of a function that is herein called the power triangle function. The power triangle function is itself a power mean, and as such is continuous and monotone with respect to its exponential parameter, and also includes the operations of maximum, minimum, mean square, arithmetic mean, geometric mean, and harmonic mean as special cases.

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1 Introduction and summary

Metric spaces provide a framework for analysis and have several very useful properties. Many of these properties follow in part from the triangle inequality. However, there are several applications\(^1\) in which the triangle inequality does not hold but in which we would still like to perform analysis. So the questions that naturally follow are:

Q1. What happens if we remove the triangle inequality all together?
Q2. What happens if we replace the triangle inequality with a generalized relation?

A distance space is a metric space without the triangle inequality constraint. Section 3 introduces distance spaces and demonstrates that some properties commonly associated with metric spaces also hold in any distance space:

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{D1. } & \emptyset \text{ and } X \text{ are open} & \text{(Theorem 3.7 page 7)} \\
\text{D2. } & \text{the intersection of a finite number of open sets is open} & \text{(Theorem 3.7 page 7)} \\
\text{D3. } & \text{the union of an arbitrary number of open sets is open} & \text{(Theorem 3.7 page 7)} \\
\text{D4. } & \text{every Cauchy sequence is bounded} & \text{(Proposition 3.14 page 9)} \\
\text{D5. } & \text{any subsequence of a Cauchy sequence is also Cauchy} & \text{(Proposition 3.15 page 10)} \\
\text{D6. } & \text{the Cantor Intersection Theorem holds} & \text{(Theorem 3.18 page 11)}
\end{align*}
\]

\(^1\) references for applications in which the triangle inequality may not hold: [Maligranda and Orlicz(1987)] page 54 ("pseudonorm"), [Lin(1998)] ("similarity measures", Table 6), [Veltkamp and Hagedoorn(2000)] ("shape similarity measures"), [Veltkamp(2001)] ("shape matching"), [Costa et al.(2004)](Costa, Castro, Rowstron, and Key] ("network distance estimation"), [Burstein et al.(2005)](Burstein, Ulitsky, Tuller, and Chor) page 287 (distance matrices for "genome phylogenies"), [Jiménez and Yukich(2006)] page 224 ("statistical distances"), [Szirmai(2007)] page 388 ("geodesic ball"), [Crammer et al.(2007)](Crammer, Kearns, and Wortman) page 326 ("decision-theoretic learning"), [Vitányi(2011)] page 2455 ("information distance"),
The following five properties (M1–M5) do hold in any metric space. However, the examples from Section 3 listed below demonstrate that the five properties do not hold in all distance spaces:

M1. the metric function is continuous
M2. open balls are open
M3. the open balls form a base for a topology
M4. the limits of convergent sequences are unique
M5. convergent sequences are Cauchy

Hence, Section 3 answers question Q1.

Section 4 begins to answer question Q2 by first introducing a new function, called the power triangle function in a distance space $(X, d)$, as $\tau(p, \sigma; x, y, z; d) \triangleq 2\sigma \left(\frac{1}{p} d^p(x, z) + \frac{1}{p} d^p(z, y)\right)^{\frac{1}{p}}$ for some $(p, \sigma) \in \mathbb{R}^+ \times \mathbb{R}$. Section 4 then goes on to use this function to define a new relation, called the power triangle inequality in $(X, d)$, and defined as $\mathcal{O}(p, \sigma; d) \triangleq \{(x, y, z) \in X^3 | d(x, y) \leq \tau(p, \sigma; x, y, z; d)\}$.

The power triangle inequality is a generalized form of the triangle inequality in the sense that the two inequalities coincide at $(p, \sigma) = (1, 1)$. Other special values include $(1, \sigma)$ yielding the relaxed triangle inequality (and its associated near metric space) and $(\infty, \sigma)$ yielding the $\sigma$-inframetric inequality (and its associated $\sigma$-inframetric space). Collectively, a distance space with a power triangle inequality is herein called a power distance space and denoted $(X, d, p, \sigma)$.\(^2\)

The power triangle function, at $\sigma = \frac{1}{2}$, is a special case of the power mean with $N = 2$ and $\lambda_1 = \lambda_2 = \frac{1}{2}$. Power means have the elegant properties of being continuous and monontone with respect to a free parameter $p$. From this it is easy to show that the power triangle function is also continuous and monontone with respect to both $p$ and $\sigma$. Special values of $p$ yield operators coinciding with maximum, minimum, mean square, arithmetic mean, geometric mean, and harmonic mean. Power means are briefly described in Appendix B.2.\(^3\)

Section 4.2 investigates the properties of power distance spaces. In particular, it shows for what values of $(p, \sigma)$ the properties M1–M5 hold. Here is a summary of the results in a power distance space $(X, d, p, \sigma)$, for all $x, y, z \in X$:

- (M1) holds for any $(p, \sigma) \in (\mathbb{R}^+ \setminus \{0\}) \times \mathbb{R}^+$ such that $2\sigma = 2^\frac{1}{p}$ (Theorem 4.18 page 23)
- (M2) holds for any $(p, \sigma) \in (\mathbb{R}^+ \setminus \{0\}) \times \mathbb{R}^+$ such that $2\sigma \leq 2^\frac{1}{p}$ (Corollary 4.14 page 21)
- (M3) holds for any $(p, \sigma) \in (\mathbb{R}^+ \setminus \{0\}) \times \mathbb{R}^+$ such that $2\sigma \leq 2^\frac{1}{p}$ (Corollary 4.12 page 20)
- (M4) holds for any $(p, \sigma) \in \mathbb{R}^+ \times \mathbb{R}^+$ (Theorem 4.19 page 23)
- (M5) holds for any $(p, \sigma) \in \mathbb{R}^+ \times \mathbb{R}^+$ (Theorem 4.16 page 21)

APPENDIX A briefly introduces topological spaces. The open balls of any metric space form a base for a topology. This is largely due to the fact that in a metric space, open balls are open. Because of this, in metric spaces it is convenient to use topological structure to define and exploit analytic concepts such as continuity, convergence, closed sets, closure, interior, and accumulation point. For example, in a metric space, the traditional definition of defining continuity using open balls and the topological

\(^2\)where $\mathbb{R}^+$ is the set of extended real numbers and $\mathbb{R}^+$ is the set of positive real numbers (Definition 2.1 page 4)

\(^3\) power triangle inequality: Definition 4.4 page 16; power distance space: Definition 4.3 page 16; examples of power distance space: Definition 4.5 page 16;

\(^4\) power triangle function: Definition 4.1 (page 15); power mean: Definition B.6 (page 31); power mean is continuous and monontone: Theorem B.7 (page 31); power triangle function is continuous and monontone: Corollary 4.6 (page 16); Special values of $p$: Corollary 4.7 (page 17), Corollary B.8 (page 34)
definition using open sets, coincide with each other. Again, this is largely because the open balls of a metric space are open.\(^5\)

However, this is not the case for all distance spaces. In general, the open balls of a distance space are not open, and they are not a base for a topology. In fact, the open balls of a distance space are a base for a topology if and only if the open balls are open. While the open sets in a distance space do induce a topology, it's open balls may not.\(^6\)

## 2 Standard definitions

### 2.1 Standard sets

**Definition 2.1** Let \( \mathbb{R} \) be the set of real numbers. Let \( \mathbb{R}^+ \triangleq \{ x \in \mathbb{R} \mid x \geq 0 \} \) be the set of non-negative real numbers. Let \( \mathbb{R}^+ \triangleq \{ x \in \mathbb{R} \mid x > 0 \} \) be the set of positive real numbers. Let \( \mathbb{R}^* \triangleq \mathbb{R} \cup \{ -\infty, \infty \} \) be the set of extended real numbers.\(^7\) Let \( \mathbb{Z} \) be the set of integers. Let \( \mathbb{N} \triangleq \{ n \in \mathbb{Z} \mid n \geq 1 \} \) be the set of natural numbers. Let \( \mathbb{Z}^n \triangleq \mathbb{Z} \cup \{ -\infty, \infty \} \) be the extended set of integers.

**Definition 2.2** Let \( X \) be a set. The quantity \( 2^X \) is the power set of \( X \) such that \( 2^X \triangleq \{ A \subseteq X \} \) (the set of all subsets of \( X \)).

### 2.2 Relations

**Definition 2.3**\(^8\) Let \( X \) and \( Y \) be sets. The Cartesian product \( X \times Y \) of \( X \) and \( Y \) is the set \( X \times Y \triangleq \{ (x, y) \mid x \in X \text{ and } y \in Y \} \). An ordered pair \((x, y)\) on \( X \) and \( Y \) is any element in \( X \times Y \). A relation \( \subseteq X \text{ and } Y \) is any subset of \( X \times Y \) such that \( \subseteq \subseteq X \times Y \). The set \( 2^{X \times Y} \) is the set of all relations in \( X \times Y \). A relation \( f \in 2^{X \times Y} \) is a function if \( (x_1, y_1) \in f \) and \( (x_2, y_2) \in f \implies y_1 = y_2 \). The set \( Y^X \) is the set of all functions in \( 2^{X \times Y} \).

### 2.3 Set functions

**Definition 2.4**\(^9\) Let \( 2^X \) be the power set (Definition 2.2 page 4) of a set \( X \).

A set \( S(X) \) is a set structure on \( X \) if \( S(X) \subseteq 2^X \).

A set structure \( Q(X) \) is a paving on \( X \) if \( \emptyset \in Q(X) \).

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\(^5\) open ball: Definition 3.5 page 6; metric space: Definition 4.5 page 16; base: Definition A.3 page 27; topology: Definition A.1 page 26; open: Definition 3.6 page 7; continuity in topological space: Definition A.11 page 28; convergence in distance space: Definition 3.11 page 9; convergence in topological space: Definition A.16 page 28; closed set: Definition A.1 page 26; closure, interior, accumulation point: Definition A.8 page 27; coincidence in all metric spaces and some power distance spaces: Theorem 4.15 page 21;

\(^6\) if and only if statement: Theorem 3.10 page 8; open sets of a distance space induce a topology: Corollary 3.8 page 8;

\(^7\) [Rana(2002)] pages 385–388 (Appendix A)

\(^8\) [Maddux(2006)] page 4, [Halmos(1960)] pages 26–30, [Suppes(1972)] page 86, [Kelley(1955)] page 10, [Bourbaki(1939)], [Bottazzini(1986)] page 7, [Comtet(1974)] page 4 (\(|Y^X|\)); The notation \( Y^X \) and \( 2^{X \times Y} \) is motivated by the fact that for finite \( X \) and \( Y \), \(|Y^X| = |Y|^{\mid X\mid}\) and \(|2^{X \times Y}| = 2^{|X\times Y|}\).

\(^9\) [Molchanov(2005)] page 389, [Pap(1995)] page 7, [Hahn and Rosenthal(1948)] page 254.
Definition 2.5 Let $Q(X)$ be a paving (Definition 2.4 page 4) on a set $X$. Let $Y$ be a set containing the element 0. A function $m \in Y^{Q(X)}$ is a set function if $m(\emptyset) = 0$.

Definition 2.6 The set function (Definition 2.5 page 5) $|A| \in Z^{2^X}$ is the cardinality of $A$ such that $|A| \triangleq \left\{ \begin{array}{ll} \text{the number of elements in } A & \text{for finite } A \\ \infty & \text{otherwise} \end{array} \right\} \forall A \in 2^X$

Definition 2.7 Let $|X|$ be the cardinality (Definition 2.6 page 5) of a set $X$. The structure $\emptyset$ is the empty set, and is a set such that $|\emptyset| = 0$.

2.4 Order

Definition 2.8 Let $X$ be a set. A relation $\leq$ is an order relation in $2^{XX}$ (Definition 2.3 page 4) if

1. $x \leq x$ $\forall x \in X$ (reflexive) and
2. $x \leq y$ and $y \leq z \implies x \leq z$ $\forall x,y \in X$ (transitive) and
3. $x \leq y$ and $y \leq x \implies x = y$ $\forall x,y \in X$ (anti-symmetric)

An ordered set is the pair $(X, \leq)$.

Definition 2.9 In an ordered set $(X, \leq)$,

the set $[x : y] \triangleq \{ z \in X \mid x \leq z \leq y \}$ is a closed interval and
the set $(x : y] \triangleq \{ z \in X \mid x < z \leq y \}$ is a half-open interval and
the set $[x : y) \triangleq \{ z \in X \mid x \leq z < y \}$ is a half-open interval and
the set $(x : y) \triangleq \{ z \in X \mid x < z < y \}$ is an open interval.

Definition 2.10 Let $(\mathbb{R}, \leq)$ be the ordered set of real numbers (Definition 2.8 page 5).

The absolute value $|\cdot| \in \mathbb{R}$ is defined as $|x| \triangleq \left\{ \begin{array}{ll} -x & \text{for } x \leq 0 \\ x & \text{otherwise} \end{array} \right\}$.

3 Background: distance spaces

A distance space (Definition 3.1 page 6) can be defined as a metric space (Definition 4.5 page 16) without the triangle inequality constraint. Much of the material in this section about distance spaces is standard in metric spaces. However, this paper works through this material again to demonstrate “how far we can go”, and can’t go, without the triangle inequality.

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10 [Hahn and Rosenthal(1948)], [Choquet(1954)], [Pap(1995)] page 8 (Definition 2.3: extended real-valued set function), [Halmos(1950)] page 30 (§7. MEASURE ON RINGS),
11 [MacLane and Birkhoff(1999)] page 470, [Beran(1985)] page 1, [Korselt(1894)] page 156 (I, II, (1)), [Dedekind(1900)] page 373 (I–III). An order relation is also called a partial order relation. An ordered set is also called a partially ordered set or poset.
12 [Apostol(1975)] page 4, [Ore(1935)] page 409
13 A more general definition for absolute value is available for any commutative ring: Let $R$ be a commutative ring. A function $|\cdot| \in R$ is an absolute value, or modulus, on $R$ if

1. $|x| \geq 0$ $\forall x \in R$ (non-negative) and
2. $|x| = 0 \iff x = 0$ $\forall x \in R$ (nondegenerate) and
3. $|xy| = |x| \cdot |y|$ $\forall x,y \in R$ (homogeneous / submultiplicative) and
4. $|x + y| \leq |x| + |y|$ $\forall x,y \in R$ (subadditive / triangle inequality)

Reference: [Cohn(2002 December 6)] page 312
3.1 Fundamental structure of distance spaces

3.1.1 Definitions

Definition 3.1  A function \( d \) in the set \( \mathbb{R}^{X \times X} \) (Definition 2.3 page 4) is a distance if

1. \( d(x, y) \geq 0 \quad \forall x, y \in X \) (non-negative) and
2. \( d(x, y) = 0 \iff x = y \quad \forall x, y \in X \) (non-degenerate) and
3. \( d(x, y) = d(y, x) \quad \forall x, y \in X \) (symmetric)

The pair \((X, d)\) is a distance space if \( d \) is a distance on a set \( X \).

Definition 3.2  Let \((X, d)\) be a distance space and \( 2^X \) be the power set of \( X \) (Definition 2.2 page 4). The diameter in \((X, d)\) of a set \( A \subseteq 2^X \) is

\[
\operatorname{diam}(A) = \sup \{ d(x, y) \mid x, y \in A \}
\]

Definition 3.3  Let \((X, d)\) be a distance space. Let \( 2^X \) be the power set (Definition 2.2 page 4) of \( X \). A set \( A \) is bounded in \((X, d)\) if \( A \subseteq 2^X \) and \( \operatorname{diam}(A) < \infty \).

3.1.2 Properties

Remark 3.4  Let \( \{x_n\}_{n \in \mathbb{Z}} \) be a sequence in a distance space \((X, d)\). The distance space \((X, d)\) does not necessarily have all the nice properties that a metric space (Definition 4.5 page 16) has. In particular, note the following:

1. \( d \) is a distance in \((X, d)\) \(\iff\) \( d \) is continuous in \((X, d)\) (Example 3.23 page 14).
2. \( B \) is an open ball in \((X, d)\) \(\iff\) \( B \) is open in \((X, d)\) (Example 3.22 page 13).
3. \( B \) is the set of all open balls in \((X, d)\) \(\iff\) \( B \) is a base for a topology on \( X \) (Example 3.22 page 13).
4. \( \{x_n\} \) is convergent in \((X, d)\) \(\implies\) limit is unique (Example 3.21 page 12).
5. \( \{x_n\} \) is convergent in \((X, d)\) \(\iff\) \( \{x_n\} \) is Cauchy in \((X, d)\) (Example 3.22 page 13).

3.2 Open sets in distance spaces

3.2.1 Definitions

Definition 3.5  Let \((X, d)\) be a distance space (Definition 3.1 page 6). Let \( \mathbb{R}^+ \) be the set of positive real numbers (Definition 2.1 page 4).

An open ball centered at \( x \) with radius \( r \) is the set

\[
\mathcal{B}(x, r) = \{ y \in X \mid d(x, y) < r \}.
\]

A closed ball centered at \( x \) with radius \( r \) is the set

\[
\overline{\mathcal{B}}(x, r) = \{ y \in X \mid d(x, y) \leq r \}.
\]
Definition 3.6  Let \((X, d)\) be a distance space. Let \(X \setminus A\) be the set difference of \(X\) and a set \(A\). A set \(U\) is open in \((X, d)\) if \(U \subseteq 2^X\) and for every \(x \in U\) there exists \(r \in \mathbb{R}^+\) such that \(B(x, r) \subseteq U\). A set \(U\) is an open set in \((X, d)\) if \(U\) is open in \((X, d)\). A set \(D\) is closed in \((X, d)\) if \((X \setminus D)\) is open. A set \(D\) is a closed set in \((X, d)\) if \(D\) is closed in \((X, d)\).

3.2.2 Properties

Theorem 3.7  Let \((X, d)\) be a distance space. Let \(N\) be any (finite) positive integer. Let \(\Gamma\) be a set possibly with an uncountable number of elements.

1. \(X\) is open.
2. \(\emptyset\) is open.
3. Each element in \(\left\{ U_n \right\}_{n=1}^{\ldots, N}\) is open \(\implies \bigcap_{n=1}^N U_n\) is open.
4. Each element in \(\left\{ U_\gamma \in 2^X \right\}_{\gamma \in \Gamma}\) is open \(\implies \bigcup_{\gamma \in \Gamma} U_\gamma\) is open.

\(\Box\) Proof:

1. Proof that \(X\) is open in \((X, d)\):
   (a) By definition of open set (Definition 3.6 page 7), \(X\) is open \(\iff \forall x \in X \ \exists r\) such that \(B(x, r) \subseteq X\).
   (b) By definition of open ball (Definition 3.5 page 6), it is always true that \(B(x, r) \subseteq X\) in \((X, d)\).
   (c) Therefore, \(X\) is open in \((X, d)\).

2. Proof that \(\emptyset\) is open in \((X, d)\):
   (a) By definition of open set (Definition 3.6 page 7), \(\emptyset\) is open \(\iff \forall x \in X \ \exists r\) such that \(B(x, r) \subseteq \emptyset\).
   (b) By definition of empty set \(\emptyset\) (Definition 2.7 page 5), this is always true because no \(x\) is in \(\emptyset\).
   (c) Therefore, \(\emptyset\) is open in \((X, d)\).

3. Proof that \(\bigcup_{U_\gamma}\) is open in \((X, d)\):
   (a) By definition of open set (Definition 3.6 page 7), \(\bigcup_{U_\gamma}\) is open \(\iff \forall x \in \bigcup_{U_\gamma} \exists r\) such that \(B(x, r) \subseteq \bigcup_{U_\gamma}\).
   (b) If \(x \in \bigcup_{U_\gamma}\), then there is at least one \(U \in \bigcup_{U_\gamma}\) that contains \(x\).
   (c) By the left hypothesis in (4), that set \(U\) is open and so for that \(x\), \(\exists r\) such that \(B(x, r) \subseteq U \subseteq \bigcup_{U_\gamma}\).
   (d) Therefore, \(\bigcup_{U_\gamma}\) is open in \((X, d)\).

4. Proof that \(U_1\) and \(U_2\) are open \(\implies U_1 \cap U_2\) is open:
   (a) By definition of open set (Definition 3.6 page 7), \(U_1 \cap U_2\) is open \(\iff \forall x \in U_1 \cap U_2\) \(\exists r\) such that \(B(x, r) \subseteq U_1 \cap U_2\).
   (b) By the left hypothesis above, \(U_1\) and \(U_2\) are open; and by the definition of open sets (Definition 3.6 page 7), there exists \(r_1\) and \(r_2\) such that \(B(x, r_1) \subseteq U_1\) and \(B(x, r_2) \subseteq U_2\).
   (c) Let \(r = \min\{r_1, r_2\}\). Then \(B(x, r) \subseteq U_1\) and \(B(x, r) \subseteq U_2\).
   (d) By definition of set intersection \(\cap\) then, \(B(x, r) \subseteq U_1 \cap U_2\).
   (e) By definition of open set (Definition 3.6 page 7), \(U_1 \cap U_2\) is open.

5. Proof that \(\bigcap_{n=1}^N U_n\) is open (by induction):
   (a) Proof for \(N = 1\) case: \(\bigcap_{n=1}^1 U_n = U_1\) is open by hypothesis.

\(\Box\) Proof in metric space: [Dieudonné(1969)], pages 33–34, [Rosenlicht(1968)] page 39
(b) Proof that $N$ case $\Rightarrow N + 1$ case:

\[ \bigcap_{n=1}^{N+1} U_n = \left( \bigcap_{n=1}^{N} U_n \right) \cap U_{N+1} \]

by property of $\bigcap$

\[ \Rightarrow \text{open} \]

by “$N$ case” hypothesis and (4) lemma page 7

Corollary 3.8 Let $(X, d)$ be a distance space. The set $T \triangleq \{ U \in 2^X \mid U \text{ is open in } (X, d) \}$ is a topology on $X$, and $(X, T)$ is a topological space.

Proof: This follows directly from the definition of an open set (Definition 3.6 page 7), Theorem 3.7 (page 7), and the definition of topology (Definition A.1 page 26).

Of course it is possible to define a very large number of topologies even on a finite set with just a handful of elements,$^{20}$ and it is possible to define an infinite number of topologies even on a linearly ordered infinite set like the real line $(\mathbb{R}, \leq)$. Be that as it may, Definition 3.9 (next definition) defines a single but convenient topological space in terms of a distance space. Note that every metric space conveniently and naturally induces a topological space because the open balls of the metric space form a base for the topology. This is not the case for all distance spaces. But if the open balls of a distance space are all open, then those open balls induce a topology (next theorem).$^{22}$

Definition 3.9 Let $(X, d)$ be a distance space. The set $T \triangleq \{ U \in 2^X \mid U \text{ is open in } (X, d) \}$ is the topology induced by $(X, d)$ on $X$. The pair $(X, T)$ is called the topological space induced by $(X, d)$.

For any distance space $(X, d)$, no matter how strange, there is guaranteed to be at least one topological space induced by $(X, d)$—and that is the indiscrete topological space (Example A.2 page 26) because for any distance space $(X, d)$, $\emptyset$ and $X$ are open sets in $(X, d)$ (Theorem 3.7 page 7).

Theorem 3.10 Let $B$ be the set of all open balls in a distance space $(X, d)$.

\{ every open ball in $B$ is open $\} \iff \{ B$ is a base for a topology $\}$

$^{20}$ For a finite set $X$ with $n$ elements, there are 29 topologies on $X$ if $n = 3$, 6942 topologies on $X$ if $n = 5$, and and 8,977,053,873,043 (almost 9 trillion) topologies on $X$ if $n = 10$. References: oeis(2014) (http://oeis.org/A000798), Brown and Watson(1996), page 31, Comtet(1974) page 229, Comtet(1966), Chatterji(1967), page 7, Evans et al.(1967)Evans, Harary, and Lynn, Krishnamurthy(1966), page 157

$^{21}$For examples of topologies on the real line, see the following: Adams and Franzosa(2008) page 31 ("six topologies on the real line"), Salzmann et al.(2007)Salzmann, Grundhöfer, Hähl, and Löwen] pages 64–70 (Weird topologies on the real line), Murdeshwar(1990) page 53 ("often used topologies on the real line"), Joshi(1983) pages 85–91 ($\S 4.2$ Examples of Topological Spaces)

$^{22}$ metric space: Definition 4.5 page 16; open ball: Definition 3.5 page 6; base: Definition A.3 page 27; topology: Definition A.1 page 26; not all open balls are open in a distance space: Example 3.21 (page 12) and Example 3.22 (page 13);
3.3 Sequences in distance spaces

3.3.1 Definitions

Definition 3.11 23 Let \((x_n) \in X_{n \in \mathbb{Z}}\) be a sequence in a distance space \((X, d)\). The sequence \((x_n)\) converges to a limit \(x\) if for any \(\epsilon \in \mathbb{R}^+\), there exists \(N \in \mathbb{Z}\) such that for all \(n > N\), \(d(x_n, x) < \epsilon\).

This condition can be expressed in any of the following forms:

1. The limit of the sequence \((x_n)\) is \(x\).
2. The sequence \((x_n)\) is convergent with limit \(x\).
3. \(\lim_{n \to \infty} (x_n) = x\).
4. \((x_n) \to x\).

A sequence that converges is convergent.

Definition 3.12 24 Let \((x_n) \in X_{n \in \mathbb{Z}}\) be a sequence in a distance space \((X, d)\). The sequence \((x_n)\) is a Cauchy sequence in \((X, d)\) if for every \(\epsilon \in \mathbb{R}^+\), there exists \(N \in \mathbb{Z}\) such that \(\forall n, m > N\), \(d(x_n, x_m) < \epsilon\) (Cauchy condition).

Definition 3.13 25 Let \((x_n) \in X_{n \in \mathbb{Z}}\) be a sequence in a distance space \((X, d)\). The sequence \((x_n) \in X_{n \in \mathbb{Z}}\) is complete in \((X, d)\) if \((x_n)\) is Cauchy in \((X, d)\) \(\implies\) \((x_n)\) is convergent in \((X, d)\).

3.3.2 Properties

Proposition 3.14 26 Let \((x_n) \in X_{n \in \mathbb{Z}}\) be a sequence in a distance space \((X, d)\).

\[ \{ (x_n) \text{ is Cauchy in } (X, d) \} \implies \{ (x_n) \text{ is bounded in } (X, d) \} \]

23 in metric space: [Rosenlicht(1968)] page 45, [Giles(1987)] page 37 (3.2 Definition), [Kamsi and Kirk(2001)] page 13 (Definition 2.1) “…” symbol: [Leathem(1905)] page 13 (section III.11)
24 in metric space: [Apostol(1975)] page 73 (4.7), [Rosenlicht(1968)] page 51
25 in metric space: [Rosenlicht(1968)] page 52
26 in metric space: [Giles(1987)] page 49 (Theorem 3.30)
PROOF:

\((x_n)\) is Cauchy \(\iff\) for every \(\epsilon \in \mathbb{R}^+\), \(\exists N \in \mathbb{Z}\) such that \(\forall n, m > N\), \(d(x_n, x_m) < \epsilon\) \hspace{1cm} \text{(by Definition 3.12 page 9)}

\(\iff\) \(\exists N \in \mathbb{Z}\) such that \(\forall n, m > N\), \(d(x_n, x_m) < 1\) \hspace{1cm} \text{(arbitrarily choose \(\epsilon \neq 1\))}

\(\iff\) \(\exists N \in \mathbb{Z}\) such that \(\forall n, m \in \mathbb{Z}\), \(d(x_n, x_{m+1}) < \max\{\{1\} \cup \{d(x_p, x_q) \mid p, q \neq N\}\}\)

\(\iff\) \((x_n)\) is bounded \hspace{1cm} \text{(by Definition 3.3 page 6)}

Proposition 3.15 \(\blacklozenge\) Let \((x_n \in X)_{n \in \mathbb{Z}}\) be a sequence in a distance space \((X, d)\). Let \(f \in \mathbb{Z}^X\) \hspace{1cm} \text{(Definition 2.3 page 4)} be a strictly monotone function such that \(f(n) < f(n+1)\).

\(\begin{align*}
\langle x_n \rangle_{n \in \mathbb{Z}} \text{ is CAUCHY} & \iff \langle x_{f(n)} \rangle_{n \in \mathbb{Z}} \text{ is CAUCHY} \\
\text{sequence is CAUCHY} & \iff \text{subsequence is also CAUCHY}
\end{align*}\)

PROOF:

\((x_n)_{n \in \mathbb{Z}}\) is Cauchy

\(\iff\) for any given \(\epsilon > 0\), \(\exists N\) such that \(\forall n, m > N\), \(d(x_n, x_m) < \epsilon\) \hspace{1cm} \text{by Definition 3.12 page 9}

\(\iff\) for any given \(\epsilon > 0\), \(\exists N'\) such that \(\forall f(n), f(m) > N'\), \(d(x_{f(n)}, x_{f(m)}) < \epsilon\)

\(\iff\) \(\langle x_{f(n)} \rangle_{n \in \mathbb{Z}}\) is Cauchy \hspace{1cm} \text{by Definition 3.12 page 9}

Theorem 3.16 \(\blacklozenge\) Let \((X, d)\) be a distance space. Let \(A^-\) be the closure \hspace{1cm} \text{(Definition A.8 page 27)} of \(A\) in a topological space induced by \((X, d)\).

\(\left\{ \begin{array}{l}
1. \text{LIMITS are UNIQUE in } (X, d) \hspace{1cm} \text{(Definition 3.11 page 9)} \\
2. \hspace{1cm} (A, d) \text{ is COMPLETE in } (X, d) \hspace{1cm} \text{(Definition 3.13 page 9)}
\end{array} \right\} \implies \text{A is CLOSED in } (X, d)

A = A^-

PROOF:

(1) Proof that \(A \subseteq A^-\): by Lemma A.10 page 27

(2) Proof that \(A^- \subseteq A\) (proof that \(x \in A^- \implies x \in A\):

(a) Let \(x\) be a point in \(A^- \text{ (} x \in A^-)\).

(b) Define a sequence of open balls \(\left( B(x, \frac{1}{n}) \right) \).

(c) Define a sequence of points \((x_1, x_2, x_3, \ldots)\) such that \(x_n \in B(x, \frac{1}{n}) \cap A\).

(d) Then \((x_n)\) is convergent in \(X\) with limit \(x\) by Definition 3.11 page 9

(e) and \((x_n)\) is Cauchy in \(A\) by Definition 3.12 page 9.

(f) By the hypothesis 2, \((x_n)\) is therefore also convergent in \(A\). Let this limit be \(y\). Note that \(y \in A\).

(g) By hypothesis 1, limits are unique, so \(y = x\).

(h) Because \(y \in A\) (item (2f)) and \(y = x\) (item (2g)), so \(x \in A\).

(i) Therefore, \(x \in A^- \implies x \in A\) and \(A^- \subseteq A\).

Proposition 3.17 \(\blacklozenge\) Let \((x_n)_{n \in \mathbb{Z}}\) be a sequence in a distance space \((X, d)\). Let \(f : \mathbb{Z} \to \mathbb{Z}\) be a strictly
increasing function such that \( f(n) < f(n + 1) \).

\[
\left( x_n \right)_{n \in \mathbb{Z}} \rightarrow x \quad \Rightarrow \quad \left( x_{f(n)} \right)_{n \in \mathbb{Z}} \rightarrow x
\]

sequence converges to limit \( x \) subsequence converges to the same limit \( x \)

Proof:

\[
\left( x_n \right)_{n \in \mathbb{Z}} \rightarrow x \quad \Rightarrow \quad \forall \varepsilon > 0, \exists N \text{ such that } \forall n > N, \ d(x_n, x) < \varepsilon
\]

by Theorem 4.15 page 21

\[
\Rightarrow \forall \varepsilon > 0, \exists f(N) \text{ such that } \forall f(n) > f(N), \ d(x_{f(n)}, x) < \varepsilon
\]

\[
\Rightarrow \left( x_{f(n)} \right)_{n \in \mathbb{Z}} \rightarrow x
\]

by Theorem 4.15 page 21

\[\blacksquare\]

**Theorem 3.18** (Cantor intersection theorem) 30 Let \((X, d)\) be a distance space (Definition 3.1 page 6), \(\left\{ A_n \right\}_{n \in \mathbb{Z}}\) a sequence with each \( A_n \in 2^X \), and \( |A| \) the number of elements in \( A \).

\[
\left\{ \begin{array}{l}
1. \ (X, d) \text{ is complete } \quad \text{(Definition 3.13 page 9)} \\
2. \ A_n \text{ is closed } \quad \forall n \in \mathbb{N} \quad \text{(Definition A.1 page 26)} \\
3. \ diam A_n \geq diam A_{n+1} \forall n \in \mathbb{N} \quad \text{(Definition 3.2 page 6)} \\
4. \ diam \left\{ A_n \right\}_{n \in \mathbb{Z}} \rightarrow 0 \quad \text{(Definition 3.11 page 9)}
\end{array} \right\} \quad \Rightarrow \quad \left\{ \bigcap_{n \in \mathbb{N}} A_n \right\} = 1
\]

Proof:

(1) Proof that \( \left| \bigcap_{n \in \mathbb{N}} A_n \right| < 2 \):

\[
\text{a) Let } A \triangleq \cap A_n.
\]

\[
\text{b) } x \neq y \text{ and } \{x, y\} \in A \quad \Rightarrow \quad d(x, y) > 0 \text{ and } \{x, y\} \subseteq A_n \forall n
\]

\[
\text{c) } \exists n \text{ such that } diam A_n < d(x, y) \text{ by left hypothesis 4}
\]

\[
\text{d) } \Rightarrow \exists n \text{ such that } \sup \{d(x, y) | x, y \in A_n \} < d(x, y)
\]

\[
\text{e) This is a contradiction, so } \{x, y\} \not\in A \text{ and } \left| \bigcap A_n \right| < 2.
\]

(2) Proof that \( \left| \cap A_n \right| \geq 1 \):

\[
\text{a) Let } x_n \in A_n \text{ and } x_m \in A_m
\]

\[
\text{b) } \forall \varepsilon, \exists N \in \mathbb{N} \text{ such that } A_N < \varepsilon
\]

\[
\text{c) } \forall m, n > N, \ x_n \in A_n \subseteq A_N \text{ and } x_m \in A_m \subseteq A_N
\]

\[
\text{d) } d(x_n, x_m) \leq diam A_N < \varepsilon \quad \Rightarrow \quad \{x_n\} \text{ is a Cauchy sequence}
\]

\[
\text{e) Because } \{x_n\} \text{ is complete, } x_n \rightarrow x.
\]

\[
\text{f) } \Rightarrow \ x \in (A_n)^- = A_n
\]

\[
\text{g) } \Rightarrow \left| A_n \right| \geq 1
\]

\[\blacksquare\]

**Definition 3.19** 31 Let \((X, d)\) be a distance space. Let \( C \) be the set of all convergent sequences in \((X, d)\). The distance function \( d \) is continuous in \((X, d)\) if

\[
\left( x_n, y_n \right) \in C \quad \Rightarrow \quad \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left( d\left( x_n, y_n \right) \right) = d\left( \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} x_n, \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} y_n \right).
\]

A distance function is discontinuous if it is not continuous.

30 in metric space: [Davis(2005)], page 28, [Hausdorff(1937)], page 150

31 [Blumenthal(1953)] page 9 (DEFINITION 6.3)
Remark 3.20 Rather than defining continuity of a distance function in terms of the sequential characterization of continuity as in Definition 3.19 (previous), we could define continuity using an inverse image characterization of continuity” (Definition 3.9 page 8). Assuming an equivalent topological space is used for both characterizations, the two characterizations are equivalent (Theorem A.20 page 29). In fact, one could construct an equivalence such as the following:

\[ \begin{align*}
\text{d is continuous in } \mathbb{R}^X^2 \\
\text{(Definition A.11 page 28)} \\
\text{(inverse image characterization of continuity)}
\end{align*} \iff \begin{align*}
\{ (x_n), (y_n) \in C \Rightarrow \lim_{n \to \infty} (\text{d}(x_n, y_n)) = \text{d} \left( \lim_{n \to \infty} x_n, \lim_{n \to \infty} y_n \right) \}
\end{align*} \text{ (sequential characterization of continuity)}
\]

Note that just as \((x_n)\) is a sequence in \(X\), so the ordered pair \(( (x_n), (y_n) ) \) is a sequence in \(X^2\). The remainder follows from Theorem A.20 (page 29). However, use of the inverse image characterization is somewhat troublesome because we would need a topology on \(X^2\), and we don’t immediately have one defined and ready to use. In fact, we don’t even immediately have a distance space on \(X^2\) defined or even open balls in such a distance space. The result is, for the scope of this paper, it is arguably not worthwhile constructing the extra structure, but rather instead this paper uses the sequential characterization as a definition (as in Definition 3.19).

3.4 Examples

Similar distance functions and several of the observations for the examples in this section can be found in [Blumenthal(1953)] pages 8–13.

In a metric space, all open balls are open, the open balls form a base for a topology, the limits of convergent sequences are unique, and the metric function is continuous. In the distance space of the next example, none of these properties hold.

Example 3.21 Let \((x, y)\) be an ordered pair in \(\mathbb{R}^2\). Let \((a : b)\) be an open interval and \((a : b)\) a half-open interval in \(\mathbb{R}\). Let \(|x|\) be the absolute value of \(x \in \mathbb{R}\). The function \(d(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^{\mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R}}\) such that

\[ \begin{align*}
d(x, y) \triangleq \begin{cases} 
    y & \forall (x, y) \in \{4\} \times (0 : 2) \\
x & \forall (x, y) \in (0 : 2) \times \{4\} \\
    |x - y| & \text{otherwise} 
\end{cases}
\end{align*} \]

is a distance on \(\mathbb{R}\).

Note some characteristics of the distance space \((\mathbb{R}, d)\):

1. \((\mathbb{R}, d)\) is not a metric space because \(d\) does not satisfy the triangle inequality:
   \[ d(0, 4) \triangleq |0 - 4| = 4 \leq 2 = |0 - 1| + 1 \triangleq d(0, 1) + d(1, 4) \]

2. Not every open ball in \((\mathbb{R}, d)\) is open.
   For example, the open ball \(B(3, 2)\) is not open because \(4 \in B(3, 2)\) but for all \(0 < \epsilon < 1\)
   \[ B(4, \epsilon) = (4 - \epsilon : 4 + \epsilon) \cup (0 : \epsilon) \not\subseteq (1 : 5) = B(3, 2) \]

3. The open balls of \((\mathbb{R}, d)\) do not form a base for a topology on \(\mathbb{R}\).
   This follows directly from item (2) and Theorem 3.10 (page 8).

---

\[ \text{A similar distance function } d \text{ and item (4) page 13 can in essence be found in [Blumenthal(1953)] page 8.} \]

Definitions for Example 3.21: \((x, y)\): Definition 2.3 (page 4); \((a : b)\) and \((a : b)\): Definition 2.9 (page 5); \(|x|\): Definition 2.10 (page 5); \(\mathbb{R}^{\mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R}}\): Definition 2.3 (page 4); distance: Definition 3.1 (page 6); open ball: Definition 3.5 (page 6); open: Definition 3.6 (page 7); base: Definition A.3 (page 27); topology: Definition A.1 (page 26); open set: Definition 3.6 (page 7); topological space induced by \((\mathbb{R}, d)\): Definition 3.9 (page 8); discontinuous: Definition 3.19 (page 11);
Example 3.22 33 The function \(d(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^{\mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R}}\) such that

\[
d(x, y) = \begin{cases} 
|x - y| & \text{for } x = 0 \text{ or } y = 0 \text{ or } x = y \\
1 & \text{otherwise}
\end{cases}
\]

is a distance on \(\mathbb{R}\).

Note some characteristics of the distance space \((\mathbb{R}, d)\):

1. \((X, d)\) is not a metric space because the triangle inequality does not hold:

   \[
d\left(\frac{1}{4}, \frac{1}{2}\right) = \frac{3}{4} \neq \frac{3}{4} + \frac{3}{4} = d\left(\frac{1}{4}, 0\right) + d\left(0, \frac{1}{2}\right)
\]

2. The open ball \(B\left(\frac{1}{4}, \frac{1}{2}\right)\) is not open because for any \(\varepsilon\in\mathbb{R}^+\), no matter how small,

   \[B(0, \varepsilon) = (−\varepsilon : +\varepsilon) \nsubseteq \left\{0, \frac{1}{4}\right\} = \left\{x \in X \mid d\left(\frac{1}{4}, x\right) < \frac{1}{4}\right\} \triangleq B\left(\frac{1}{4}, \frac{1}{2}\right)\]

3. Even though not all the open balls are open, it is still possible to have an open set in \((X, d)\). For example, the set \(U \triangleq \{1, 2\}\) is open:

   \[
   B(1, 1) \triangleq \{x \in X \mid d(1, x) < 1\} = \{1\} \subseteq \{1, 2\} \triangleq U
   
   B(2, 1) \triangleq \{x \in X \mid d(2, x) < 1\} = \{2\} \subseteq \{1, 2\} \triangleq U
   \]

4. By item (2) and Theorem 3.10 (page 8), the open balls of \((\mathbb{R}, d)\) do not form a base for a topology on \(\mathbb{R}\).

5. Even though the open balls in \((\mathbb{R}, d)\) do not induce a topology on \(X\), it is still possible to find a set of open sets in \((X, d)\) that is a topology. For example, the set \(\emptyset, \{1, 2\}, \mathbb{R}\) is a topology on \(\mathbb{R}\).

6. In \((\mathbb{R}, d)\), limits of convergent sequences are unique:

   \[
   (x_n) \to x \implies \lim_{n \to \infty} d(x_n, x) = \begin{cases} 
   \lim x_n - 0 = 0 & \text{for } x = 0 \\
   |x - x| = 0 & \text{for constant } \{x_n\} \text{ for } n > N \\
   1 \neq 0 & \text{otherwise}
   \end{cases}
   \]

33 The distance function \(d\) and item (7) page 14 can in essence be found in \([\text{Blumenthal}\(1953\)]\) page 9
which says that there are only two ways for a sequence to converge: either \( x = 0 \) or the sequence eventually becomes constant (or both). Any other sequence will diverge. Therefore we can say the following:

(a) If \( x = 0 \) and the sequence is not constant, then the limit is unique and 0.
(b) If \( x = 0 \) and the sequence is constant, then the limit is unique and 0.
(c) If \( x \neq 0 \) and the sequence is constant, then the limit is unique and \( x \).
(d) If \( x \neq 0 \) and the sequence is not constant, then the sequence diverges and there is no limit.

(7) In \((\mathbb{R}, d)\), a convergent sequence is not necessarily Cauchy. For example,

(a) the sequence \( \{\frac{1}{n}\}_{n \in \mathbb{N}} \) is convergent with limit 0:
\[
\lim_{n \to \infty} d(\frac{1}{n}, 0) = \lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{1}{n} = 0
\]
(b) However, even though \( \{\frac{1}{n}\} \) is convergent, it is not Cauchy: \[
\lim_{n,m \to \infty} d\left(\frac{1}{n}, \frac{1}{m}\right) = 1 \neq 0
\]

(8) The distance function \( d \) is discontinuous in \((X, d)\):
\[
\lim_{n \to \infty} d(\frac{1}{n}, 2 - \frac{1}{n}) = 1 \neq 2 = d(0, 2) = d\left(\lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{1}{n}, \lim_{n \to \infty} (2 - \frac{1}{n})\right).
\]

Example 3.23

The function \( d(x, y) \in \mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R} \) such that
\[
d(x, y) \triangleq \begin{cases} 
2|x - y| & \forall (x, y) \in \{(0, 1), (1, 0)\} \\
|x - y| & \text{otherwise}
\end{cases}
\]

(dilated Euclidean) (Euclidean)

is a distance on \( \mathbb{R} \).

Note some characteristics of the distance space \((\mathbb{R}, d)\):

(1) \((\mathbb{R}, d)\) is not a metric space because \( d \) does not satisfy the triangle inequality:
\[
d(0, 1) = 2|0 - 1| = 2 \leq 1 = |0 - \frac{1}{2}| + |\frac{1}{2} - 1| \triangleq d(0, \frac{1}{2}) + d(\frac{1}{2}, 1)
\]

(2) The function \( d \) is discontinuous:
\[
\lim_{n \to \infty} d(\frac{1}{n}, 0) \triangleq \lim_{n \to \infty} |1 - \frac{1}{n} - 0| = 1 \neq 2 = 2|0 - 1| \triangleq d(0, 1) = d\left(\lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{1}{n}, \lim_{n \to \infty} 0\right).
\]

(3) In \((X, d)\), open balls are open:

(a) \( p(x, y) \triangleq |x - y| \) is a metric and thus all open balls in that do not contain both 0 and 1 are open.
(b) By Example C.4 (page 36), \( q(x, y) \triangleq 2|x - y| \) is also a metric and thus all open balls containing 0 and 1 only are open.
(c) The only question remaining is with regards to open balls that contain 0, 1 and some other element(s) in \( \mathbb{R} \). But even in this case, open balls are still open. For example:
\[
B(-1, 2) = (-1 : 2) = (-1 : 1) \cup (1 : 2)
\]

Note that both \((-1 : 1)\) and \((1 : 2)\) are open, and thus by Theorem 3.7 (page 7), \( B(-1, 2) \) is open as well.

(4) By item (3) and Theorem 3.10 (page 8), the open balls of \((\mathbb{R}, d)\) do form a base for a topology on \( \mathbb{R} \).

(5) In \((X, d)\), the limits of convergent sequences are unique. This is demonstrated in Example 4.22 (page 25) using additional structure developed in Section 4.

(6) In \((X, d)\), convergent sequences are Cauchy. This is also demonstrated in Example 4.22 (page 25).

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34 The distance function \( d \) and item (2) page 14 can in essence be found in [Blumenthal(1953)] page 9
The *distance functions* in Example 3.21 (page 12)–Example 3.23 (page 14) were all *discontinuous*. In the absence of the *triangle inequality* and in light of these examples, one might try replacing the *triangle inequality* with the weaker requirement of *continuity*. However, as demonstrated by the next example, this also leads to an arguably disastrous result.

**Example 3.24**  
35 The function \( d \in \mathbb{R}^{\mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R}} \) such that \( d(x, y) \triangleq (x - y)^2 \) is a *distance* on \( \mathbb{R} \).

Note some characteristics of the *distance space* \( (\mathbb{R}, d) \):

1. \( (\mathbb{R}, d) \) is *not* a *metric space* because the *triangle inequality* does not hold:  
   \[ d(0, 2) \triangleq (0 - 2)^2 = 4 \nless 2 = (0 - 1)^2 + (1 - 2)^2 \triangleq d(0, 1) + d(1, 2) \]

2. The *distance function* \( d \) is *continuous* in \( (X, d) \). This is demonstrated in the more general setting of Section 4 in Example 4.23 (page 25).

3. Calculating the length of curves in \( (X, d) \) leads to a paradox:36
   
   (a) Partition \([0 : 1]\) into \( 2^N \) consecutive line segments connected at the points  
   \[ \left( 0, \frac{1}{2N}, \frac{3}{2N}, \ldots, \frac{2N-1}{2N}, 1 \right) \]

   (b) Then the distance, as measured by \( d \), between any two consecutive points is  
   \[ d(p_n, p_{n+1}) \triangleq (p_n - p_{n+1})^2 = \left( \frac{1}{2N} \right)^2 = \frac{1}{2N^2} \]

   (c) But this leads to the paradox that the total length of \([0 : 1]\) is 0:  
   \[ \lim_{N \to \infty} \sum_{n=0}^{2^N-1} \frac{1}{2^N} = \lim_{N \to \infty} \frac{2^N}{2^{2N}} = \lim_{N \to \infty} \frac{1}{2N} = 0 \]

### 4 Distance spaces with power triangle inequalities

#### 4.1 Definitions

This paper introduces a new relation called the *power triangle inequality* (Definition 4.3 page 16). It is a generalization of other common relations, including the *triangle inequality* (Definition 4.4 page 16). The *power triangle inequality* is defined in terms of a function herein called the *power triangle function* (next definition). This function is a special case of the *power mean* with \( N = 2 \) and \( \lambda_1 = \lambda_2 = \frac{1}{2} \) (Definition B.6 page 31). *Power means* have the attractive properties of being *continuous* and *strictly monotone* with respect to a free parameter \( p \in \mathbb{R}^* \) (Theorem B.7 page 31). This fact is inherited and exploited by the *power triangle inequality* (Corollary 4.6 page 16).

**Definition 4.1** Let \( (X, d) \) be a *distance space* (Definition 3.1 page 6). Let \( \mathbb{R}^+ \) be the set of all *positive real numbers* and \( \mathbb{R}^* \) be the set of *extended real numbers* (Definition 2.1 page 4). The *power triangle function* \( \tau \) on \( (X, d) \) is defined as  
\[
\tau(p, \sigma; x, y, z; d) \triangleq 2\sigma \left[ \frac{1}{2} d^p(x, z) + \frac{1}{2} d^p(z, y) \right]^{\frac{1}{p}} \quad \forall (p, \sigma) \in \mathbb{R}^* \times \mathbb{R}^+. 
\]

---

35 [Blumenthal(1953)] pages 12–13, [Laos(1998)] pages 118–119
36 This is the method of “inscribed polygons” for calculating the length of a curve and goes back to Archimedes: [Brunschwig et al.(2003)Brunschwig, Lloyd, and Pellegrin] page 26, [Walmsley(1920)], page 200 (§158),
Remark 4.2 37 In the field of probabilistic metric spaces, a function called the triangle function was introduced by Sherstnev in 1962. However, the power triangle function as defined in this present paper is not a special case of (is not compatible with) the triangle function of Sherstnev. Another definition of triangle function has been offered by Bessenyei in 2014 with special cases of $\Phi(u, v) \triangleq c(u + v)$ and $\Phi(u, v) \triangleq (u^p + v^p)^{\frac{1}{p}}$, which are similar to the definition of power triangle function offered in this present paper.

Definition 4.3 Let $(X, d)$ be a distance space. Let $2^{XX}$ be the set of all trinomial relations (Definition 2.3 page 4) on $X$. A relation $\Theta(p, \sigma; d)$ in $2^{XX}$ is a power triangle inequality on $(X, d)$ if

$$\Theta(p, \sigma; d) \triangleq \{(x, y, z) \in X^3 \mid d(x, y) \leq \tau(p, \sigma; x, y, z; d)\}$$

for some $(p, \sigma) \in \mathbb{R}_+ \times \mathbb{R}_+$. The tuple $(X, d, p, \sigma)$ is a power distance space and $d$ a power distance or power distance function if $(X, d)$ is a distance space in which the triangle relation $\Theta(p, \sigma; d)$ holds.

The power triangle function can be used to define some standard inequalities (next definition). See Corollary 4.7 (page 17) for some justification of the definitions.

Definition 4.4 38 Let $\Theta(p, \sigma; d)$ be a power triangle inequality on a distance space $(X, d)$.

1. $\Theta(\infty, \sqrt[3]{d}; d)$ is the $\sigma$-inframetric inequality
2. $\Theta(\infty, \frac{1}{3}; d)$ is the inframetric inequality
3. $\Theta(2, \sqrt{2}; d)$ is the quadratic inequality
4. $\Theta(1, \frac{1}{2}; d)$ is the relaxed triangle inequality
5. $\Theta(1, 1; d)$ is the triangle inequality
6. $\Theta(\frac{1}{2}, 2; d)$ is the square mean root inequality
7. $\Theta(0, \frac{1}{2}; d)$ is the geometric inequality
8. $\Theta(-1, \frac{1}{1}; d)$ is the harmonic inequality
9. $\Theta(-\infty, \frac{1}{2}; d)$ is the minimal inequality

Definition 4.5 39 Let $(X, d)$ be a distance space (Definition 3.1 page 6).

1. $(X, d)$ is a metric space if the triangle inequality holds in $X$.
2. $(X, d)$ is a near metric space if the relaxed triangle inequality holds in $X$.
3. $(X, d)$ is an inframetric space if the inframetric inequality holds in $X$.
4. $(X, d)$ is a $\sigma$-inframetric space if the $\sigma$-inframetric inequality holds in $X$.

4.2 Properties

4.2.1 Relationships of the power triangle function

Corollary 4.6 Let $\tau(p, \sigma; x, y, z; d)$ be the power triangle function (Definition 4.1 page 15) in the distance space (Definition 3.1 page 6) $(X, d)$. Let $(\mathbb{R}, |\cdot|, \leq)$ be the ordered metric space with the usual ordering relation

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37 [Sherstnev(1962)], page 4, [Schweizer and Sklar(1983)] page 9 \((1.6.1)-(1.6.4)\), [Bessenyei and Pales(2014)] page 2
38 [Bessenyei and Pales(2014)] page 2, [Czervik(1993)] page 5 \((b\text{-}metric; (1),(2),(5))\), [Fagin et al.(2003a)Fagin, Kumar, and Sivakumar], [Fagin et al.(2003b)Fagin, Kumar, and Sivakumar] (Definition 4.2 \((\text{Relaxed metrics})\)), [Xia(2009)] page 453 \((\text{Definition 2.1})\), [Heinonen(2001)] page 109 \((14.1 \text{ Quasimetric spaces})\), [Kirk and Shahzad(2014)] page 113 \((\text{Definition 12.1})\), [Deza and Deza(2014)] page 7, [Hoehn and Niven(1985)] page 151, [Gibbons et al.(1977)Gibbons, Olkin, and Sobel] page 51 \((\text{square-mean-root (SMR)} \,(2.4.1))\), [Euclid\(\text{(circia 300BC)}\)] \((\text{triangle inequality—Book I Proposition 20})\)
39 metric space: [Dieudonné(1969)], page 28, [Copson(1968)], page 21, [Hausdorff(1937)] page 109, [Fréchet(1928)], [Fréchet(1906)] page 30 near metric space: [Czervik(1993)] page 5 \((b\text{-}metric; (1),(2),(5))\), [Fagin et al.(2003a)Fagin, Kumar, and Sivakumar], [Fagin et al.(2003b)Fagin, Kumar, and Sivakumar] (Definition 4.2 \((\text{Relaxed metrics})\)), [Xia(2009)] page 453 \((\text{Definition 2.1})\), [Heinonen(2001)] page 109 \((14.1 \text{ Quasimetric spaces})\), [Kirk and Shahzad(2014)] page 113 \((\text{Definition 12.1})\), [Deza and Deza(2014)] page 7
≤ and usual metric |·| on \( \mathbb{R} \). The function \( \tau(p, \sigma; x, y, z; d) \) is continuous and strictly monotone in \((\mathbb{R}, |·|, ≤)\) with respect to both the variables \( p \) and \( \sigma \).

Proof:

1. Proof that \( \tau(p, \sigma; x, y, z; d) \) is continuous and strictly monotone with respect to \( p \): This follows directly from Theorem B.7 (page 31).
2. Proof that \( \tau(p, \sigma; x, y, z; d) \) is continuous and strictly monotone with respect to \( \sigma \):

\[
\tau(p, \sigma; x, y, z; d) = 2\sigma f(p, x, y, z)
\]

where \( f \) is defined as above

\( \implies \) \( \tau \) is affine with respect to \( \sigma \)

\( \implies \) \( \tau \) is continuous and strictly monotone with respect to \( \sigma \):
4.2 PROPERTIES

second order inflection point at \((p, \sigma) = (-\frac{1}{2} \ln 2, \frac{1}{2} e^{-2})\)

triangle inequality at \((p, \sigma) = (1, 1)\)

harmonic inequality at \((p, \sigma) = (-1, \frac{1}{4})\)

to minimal inequality at \((p, \sigma) = (\infty, \frac{1}{2})\)

to inframetric inequality at \((p, \sigma) = (\infty, \frac{1}{2})\)

second order inflection point at \((p, \sigma) = (-\frac{1}{2} \ln 2, \frac{1}{2} e^{-2})\)

Figure 1: \(\sigma = \frac{1}{2} (\frac{1}{2} p) = 2^{\frac{1}{p}} - 1\) or \(p = \frac{\ln 2}{\ln (2 \sigma)}\) (see Lemma 4.9 page 18, Lemma 4.13 page 20, Corollary 4.14 page 21, Corollary 4.12 page 20, and Theorem 4.18 page 23).

Lemma 4.9 Let \((X, \Delta, p, \sigma)\) be a POWER TRIANGLE TRIANGLE SPACE (Definition 4.3 page 16). Let \(|\cdot|\) be the ABSOLUTE VALUE function (Definition 2.10 page 5). Let \(\max \{x, y\}\) be the maximum and \(\min \{x, y\}\) the minimum of any \(x, y \in \mathbb{R}^+\). Then, for all \((p, \sigma) \in \mathbb{R}^+ \times \mathbb{R}^+\),

1. \(d^p(x, y) \geq \max \left\{ 0, \frac{2}{(2\sigma)^p} d^p(x, z) - d^p(z, y), \frac{2}{(2\sigma)^p} d^p(y, z) - d^p(z, x) \right\} \quad \forall x, y, z \in X\)

2. \(d(x, y) \geq |d(x, z) - d(z, y)|\) if \(p \neq 0\) and \(2\sigma = 2^{\frac{1}{p}}\) \(\forall x, y, z \in X\).

\[\text{PROOF:}\]

(1) lemma: \(\frac{2}{(2\sigma)^p} d^p(x, z) - d^p(z, y) \leq d^p(x, y) \quad \forall (p, \sigma) \in \mathbb{R}^+ \times \mathbb{R}^+\):

\[
\frac{2}{(2\sigma)^p} d^p(x, z) - d^p(z, y) \leq \frac{2}{(2\sigma)^p} \left[ 2\sigma \left[ \frac{1}{p} d^p(x, y) + \frac{1}{p} d^p(y, z) \right] \right]^p - d^p(z, y)
= \frac{2(2\sigma)^p}{(2\sigma)^p} \left[ \frac{1}{p} d^p(x, y) + \frac{1}{p} d^p(y, z) \right] - d^p(z, y)
= \left[ d^p(x, y) + d^p(y, z) \right] - d^p(y, z)
= d^p(x, y)
\]

(2) Proof for \((p, \sigma) \in \mathbb{R}^+ \times \mathbb{R}^+\) case:

\[
d^p(x, y) \geq \frac{2}{(2\sigma)^p} d^p(x, z) - d^p(z, y) \quad \text{by (1) lemma}
\]
\[
d^p(x, y) = d^p(y, x) \geq \frac{2}{(2\sigma)^p} d^p(y, z) - d^p(z, x) \quad \text{by commutative property of } d \text{ and (1) lemma}
\]
\[
d^p(x, y) \geq 0 \quad \text{by non-negative property of } d \text{ (Definition 3.1 page 6)}
\]

The rest follows because \(g(x) \equiv x^{\frac{1}{p}}\) is strictly monotone in \(\mathbb{R}^+\).

\[\text{lemma: } \frac{2}{(2\sigma)^p} d^p(x, z) - d^p(z, y) \leq d^p(x, y) \quad \forall (p, \sigma) \in \mathbb{R}^+ \times \mathbb{R}^+\]
(3) Proof for $2\sigma = 2^{\frac{1}{p}}$ case:

\[
d(x, y) \geq \max \left\{ 0, \frac{2}{(2\sigma)^p}d^p(x, z) - d^p(y, z), \frac{2}{(2\sigma)^p}d^p(y, z) - d^p(z, x) \right\}^{\frac{1}{p}}
\]

by item (2) (page 18)

\[
= \max \{ 0, d(x, z) - d(z, y), d(y, z) - d(z, x) \}
\]

by $2\sigma = 2^{\frac{1}{p}}$ hypothesis $\iff \frac{2}{(2\sigma)^p} = 1$

\[
= \max \{ 0, (d(x, z) - d(z, y)), -(d(x, z) - d(z, y)) \}
\]

by symmetric property of $d$

\[
= |(d(x, z) - d(z, y))|
\]

\[
\]

Theorem 4.10  Let $(X, d, p, \sigma)$ be a POWER DISTANCE SPACE (Definition 4.3 page 16). Let $B$ be an OPEN BALL (Definition 3.5 page 6) on $(X, d)$. Then for all $(p, \sigma) \in (\mathbb{R}^* \setminus \{0\}) \times \mathbb{R}^+$,

\[
\left\{ \begin{array}{l}
\text{A. } 2\sigma \leq 2^{\frac{1}{p}} \\
\text{B. } q \in B(\theta, r)
\end{array} \right\} \implies \left\{ \begin{array}{l}
\text{1. } \exists r_q \in \mathbb{R}^+ \text{ such that } B(q, r_q) \subseteq B(\theta, r) \\
\text{B. } q \in B(\theta, r)
\end{array} \right\}
\]

\[
\]

Proof:

(1) lemma:

\[
q \in B(\theta, r) \iff d(\theta, q) < r
\]

by definition of open ball (Definition 3.5 page 6)

\[
\iff 0 < r - d(\theta, q)
\]

by field property of real numbers

\[
\iff \exists r_q \in \mathbb{R}^+ \text{ such that } 0 < r - d(\theta, q)
\]

by The Archimedean Property\footnote{[Aliprantis and Burkinshaw(1998)] page 17 (Theorem 3.3 ("The Archimedean Property") and Theorem 3.4), [Zorich(2004)] page 53 (6 ("The principle of Archimedes") and 7)}

(2) Proof that (A), (B) $\implies$ (1):

\[
B(q, r_q) \triangleq \{ x \in X | d(q, x) < r_q \}
\]

by definition of open ball (Definition 3.5 page 6)

\[
= \{ x \in X | d^p(q, x) < r_q^p \in \mathbb{R}^+ \}
\]

because $f(x) \triangleq x^p$ is monotone

\[
\subseteq \{ x \in X | d^p(q, x) < r^p - d^p(\theta, q) \}
\]

by hypothesis B and (1) lemma page 19

\[
= \{ x \in X | d^p(\theta, q) + d^p(q, x) < r^p \}
\]

by field property of real numbers

\[
= \left\{ x \in X \left| d^p(\theta, q) + d^p(q, x) \right|^\frac{1}{p} < r \right\}
\]

by hypothesis A which implies $2^{1-\frac{1}{p}} \sigma \leq 1$

\[
\subseteq \left\{ x \in X \left| 2^{1-\frac{1}{p}} \sigma \left| d^p(\theta, q) + d^p(q, x) \right| \right|^\frac{1}{p} < r \right\}
\]

by definition of $\tau$ (Definition 4.1 page 15)

\[
= \left\{ x \in X \left| 2 \sigma \left| d(\theta, q) x + \frac{1}{2} d^p(q, x) \right| \right|^\frac{1}{p} < r \right\}
\]

because $2^{1-\frac{1}{p}} \sigma = 2 \sigma (\frac{1}{2})^{\frac{1}{p}}$

\[
\triangleq \{ x \in X | \tau(p, \sigma, \theta, x, q) < r \}
\]

by definition of $(X, d, p, \sigma)$ (Definition 4.3 page 16)

\[
\subseteq \{ x \in X | d(\theta, x) < r \}
\]

by definition of open ball (Definition 3.5 page 6)

\[
\triangleq B(\theta, r)
\]

(3) Proof that (B) $\iff$ (1):

\[
q \in \{ x \in X | d(q, x) = 0 \}
\]

by nondegenerate property (Definition 3.1 page 6)

\[
\subseteq \{ x \in X | d(q, x) < r_q \}
\]

because $r_q > 0$

\[
\triangleq B(q, r_q)
\]

by definition of open ball (Definition 3.5 page 6)

\[
\subseteq B(\theta, r)
\]

by hypothesis 2
**Corollary 4.11** Let \((X, d, p, \sigma)\) be a power distance space. Then for all \((p, \sigma) \in (\mathbb{R}^r \setminus \{0\}) \times \mathbb{R}^+\),
\[
\left\{ 2\sigma \leq 2\frac{r}{p} \right\} \implies \{ \text{every open ball in } (X, d) \text{ is open} \}
\]

Proof: This follows from Theorem 4.10 (page 19) and Theorem 3.10 (page 8).

**Corollary 4.12** Let \((X, d, p, \sigma)\) be a power distance space. Let \(B\) be the set of all open balls in \((X, d)\). Then for all \((p, \sigma) \in (\mathbb{R}^r \setminus \{0\}) \times \mathbb{R}^+\),
\[
\left\{ 2\sigma \leq 2\frac{r}{p} \right\} \implies \{ \text{\(B\) is a base for } (X, T) \}
\]

Proof:

1. The set of all open balls in \((X, d)\) is a base for \((X, T)\) by Corollary 4.11 (page 20) and Theorem A.4 (page 27).
2. \(T\) is a topology on \(X\) by Definition A.3 (page 27).

---

![Figure 2: open set (see Lemma 4.13 page 20)](image-url)

Lemma 4.13 (next) demonstrates that every point in an open set is contained in an open ball that is contained in the original open set (see also Figure 2 page 20).

**Lemma 4.13** Let \((X, d, p, \sigma)\) be a power distance space. Let \(B\) be an open ball on \((X, d)\). Then for all \((p, \sigma) \in (\mathbb{R}^r \setminus \{0\}) \times \mathbb{R}^+\),
\[
\left\{ A. \ 2\sigma \leq 2\frac{r}{p} \text{ and } B. \ U \text{ is open in } (X, d) \right\} \implies \left\{ 1. \ \forall x \in U, \ \exists r \in \mathbb{R}^+ \text{ such that } B(x, r) \subseteq U \right\} \implies \left\{ \text{B. } U \text{ is open in } (X, d) \right\}
\]

Proof:

1. Proof that for \(((A), (B) \implies (1))\):

\[
U = \bigcup \left\{ B(x, r) \mid B(x, r) \subseteq U \right\}
\]

\[
\supseteq B(x, r)
\]

by left hypothesis and Corollary 4.12 page 20 because \(x\) must be in one of those balls in \(U\)
(2) Proof that \((B) \iff (1)\) case:
\[
U = \bigcup \{x \in X \mid x \in U\} \\
= \bigcup \{B(x, r) \mid x \in U \text{ and } B(x, r) \subseteq U\} \\
\implies U \text{ is open}
\]
by definition of union operation \(\bigcup\) and hypothesis (1)
by Corollary 4.12 page 20 and Corollary 3.8 page 8

**Corollary 4.14** 42 Let \((X, d, p, \sigma)\) be a power distance space. Let \(B\) be an open ball on \((X, d)\). Then for all \((p, \sigma) \in (\mathbb{R}^* \setminus \{0\}) \times \mathbb{R}^+\),
\[
\left\{ 2\sigma \leq 2\frac{1}{2} \right\} \implies \left\{ \text{ every open ball } B(x, r) \text{ in } (X, d) \text{ is open} \right\}
\]

**Proof:**
The union of any set of open balls is open by Corollary 4.12 page 20
\(\implies\) the union of a set of just one open ball is open
\(\implies\) every open ball is open.

**Theorem 4.15** 43 Let \((X, d, p, \sigma)\) be a power distance space. Let \((X, T)\) be a topological space induced by \((X, d)\). Let \(\langle x_n \in X \rangle_{n \in \mathbb{Z}}\) be a sequence in \((X, d)\).
\[
\langle x_n \rangle \text{ converges to a limit } x \iff \left\{ \text{ for any } \varepsilon \in \mathbb{R}^+, \text{ there exists } N \in \mathbb{Z} \text{ such that for all } n > N, \ d(x_n, x) < \varepsilon \right\}
\]

**Proof:**
\[
\langle x_n \rangle \to x \iff x_n \in U \quad \forall U \in N_x, \ n > N \quad \text{by Definition A.16 page 28} \\
\iff \exists B(x, \varepsilon) \text{ such that } x_n \in B(x, \varepsilon) \forall n > N \quad \text{by Lemma 4.13 page 20} \\
\iff d(x_n, x) < \varepsilon \quad \text{by Definition 3.5 page 6}
\]

In distance spaces (Definition 3.1 page 6), not all convergent sequences are Cauchy (Example 3.22 page 13). However in a distance space with any power triangle inequality (Definition 4.3 page 16), all convergent sequences are Cauchy (next theorem).

**Theorem 4.16** 44 Let \((X, d, p, \sigma)\) be a power distance space. Let \(B\) be an open ball on \((X, d)\). For any \((p, \sigma) \in \mathbb{R}^* \times \mathbb{R}^+\),
\[
\left\{ \langle x_n \rangle \text{ is convergent in } (X, d) \right\} \implies \left\{ \langle x_n \rangle \text{ is Cauchy in } (X, d) \right\} \implies \left\{ \langle x_n \rangle \text{ is bounded in } (X, d) \right\}
\]

42 in metric space \(((p, \sigma) = (1, 1))\): [Rosenlicht(1968)] pages 40–41, [Aliprantis and Burkinshaw(1998)] page 35
43 in metric space: [Rosenlicht(1968)] page 45, [Giles(1987)] page 37 (3.2 Definition)
44 in metric space: [Giles(1987)] page 49 (Theorem 3.30), [Rosenlicht(1968)] page 51, [Apostol(1975)] pages 72–73 (Theorem 4.6)
4.2 PROPERTIES

✎ PROOF:

1. Proof that convergent \(\implies\) Cauchy:

\[
d(x_n, x_m) \leq \tau(p, \sigma; x_n, x_m, x)
\]

\[
\triangleq 2\sigma \left( \frac{1}{2} d^p(x_n, x) + \frac{1}{2} d^p(x_m, x) \right)^{\frac{1}{2}}
\]

by definition of power triangle inequality \(\text{(Definition 4.3 page 16)}\)

\[
< 2\sigma \left( \frac{1}{2} \varepsilon^p + \frac{1}{2} \varepsilon^p \right)^{\frac{1}{2}}
\]

by convergence hypothesis \(\text{(Definition A.16 page 28)}\)

\[
= 2\sigma \varepsilon
\]

by definition of convergence \(\text{(Definition A.16 page 28)}\)

\[
\implies \text{Cauchy}
\]

by definition of Cauchy \(\text{(Definition 3.12 page 9)}\)

\[
d(x_n, x_m) \leq \tau(\infty, \sigma; x_n, x_m, x)
\]

\[
= 2\sigma \max \{d(x_n, x), d(x_m, x)\}
\]

by Corollary 4.7 \(\text{(page 17)}\)

\[
= 2\sigma \max \{\varepsilon, \varepsilon\}
\]

by convergent hypothesis \(\text{(Definition A.16 page 28)}\)

\[
= 2\sigma \varepsilon
\]

by definition of max

\[
d(x_n, x_m) \leq \tau(-\infty, \sigma; x_n, x_m, x)
\]

\[
= 2\sigma \min \{d(x_n, x), d(x_m, x)\}
\]

by Corollary 4.7 \(\text{(page 17)}\)

\[
= 2\sigma \min \{\varepsilon, \varepsilon\}
\]

by convergent hypothesis \(\text{(Definition A.16 page 28)}\)

\[
= 2\sigma \varepsilon
\]

by definition of min

\[
d(x_n, x_m) \leq \tau(0, \sigma; x_n, x_m, x)
\]

\[
= 2\sigma \sqrt{d(x_n, x) \sqrt{d(x_m, x)}}
\]

by Corollary 4.7 \(\text{(page 17)}\)

\[
= 2\sigma \sqrt{\varepsilon} \sqrt{\varepsilon}
\]

by convergent hypothesis \(\text{(Definition A.16 page 28)}\)

\[
= 2\sigma \varepsilon
\]

by property of \(\mathbb{R}\)

2. Proof that Cauchy \(\implies\) bounded: by Proposition 3.14 \(\text{(page 9)}\).

✎ Theorem 4.17

Let \((X, d, p, \sigma)\) be a POWER DISTANCE SPACE. Let \(f \in \mathbb{Z}^\mathbb{Z}\) be a strictly monotone function such that \(f(n) < f(n + 1)\). For any \((p, \sigma) \in \mathbb{R}^+ \times \mathbb{R}^+\)

\[
\left\{ \begin{array}{l}
1. \{x_n\}_{n \in \mathbb{Z}} \text{ is Cauchy} \\
2. \{f(x_n)\}_{n \in \mathbb{Z}} \text{ is convergent}
\end{array} \right\} \implies \{\{x_n\}_{n \in \mathbb{Z}} \text{ is convergent}\}.
\]

✎ PROOF:

\[
d(x_n, x) = d(x, x_n)
\]

by symmetric property of \(d\)

\[
\leq \tau(p, \sigma; x_n, f(x_n))
\]

\[
\triangleq 2\sigma \left( \frac{1}{2} d^p(x_n, x) + \frac{1}{2} d^p(x_n, f(x_n)) \right)^{\frac{1}{2}}
\]

by definition of power triangle inequality \(\text{(Definition 4.3 page 16)}\)

\[
= 2\sigma \left( \frac{1}{2} \varepsilon^p + \frac{1}{2} \varepsilon^p \right)^{\frac{1}{2}}
\]

by left hypothesis 2

\[
= 2\sigma \varepsilon
\]

by left hypothesis 1

\[
\implies \text{convergent}
\]

by definition of convergent \(\text{(Definition A.16 page 28)}\)

\[\text{in metric space: } \text[Rosenlicht(1968)]{[\text{page 52}]}\]
Theorem 4.18 46 Let \((X, d, p, \sigma)\) be a POWER DISTANCE SPACE. Let \((\mathbb{R}, q)\) be a metric space of real numbers with the usual metric \(q(x, y) = |x - y|\). Then

\[
\left\{ 2\sigma = 2^\frac{1}{p} \right\} \implies \left\{\text{d is continuous in } (\mathbb{R}, q) \right\}
\]

Proof:

\[
|d(x, y) - d(x_n, y_n)| \leq |d(x, y) - d(x_n, y)| + |d(x_n, y) - d(x_n, y_n)| \quad \text{by triangle inequality of } (\mathbb{R}, |x - y|)
\]

\[
= |d(x, y) - d(x_n, y)| + |d(x_n, y) - d(x_n, y_n)| \quad \text{by commutative property of } d \text{ (Definition 3.1 page 6)}
\]

\[
\leq d(x, x_n) + d(y, y_n) \quad \text{by } 2\sigma = 2^\frac{1}{p} \text{ and Lemma 4.9 (page 18)}
\]

\[
= 0 \quad \text{as } n \to \infty
\]

In distance spaces and topological spaces, limits of convergent sequences are in general not unique (Example 3.21 page 12, Example A.17 page 29). However Theorem 4.19 (next) demonstrates that, in a power distance space, limits are unique.

Theorem 4.19 (Uniqueness of limit) 47 Let \((X, d, p, \sigma)\) be a POWER DISTANCE SPACE. Let \(x, y, \in X\) and let \(\{x_n \in X\}\) be an \(X\)-valued sequence.

\[
\left\{\begin{array}{l}
1. \left\{\left(\{x_n\}, \{y_n\}\right) \to (x, y)\right\} \quad \text{and} \\
2. (p, \sigma) \in \mathbb{R}^+ \times \mathbb{R}^+ \quad \text{exist}
\end{array}\right\} \implies \{x = y\}
\]

Proof:

(1) lemma: Proof that for all \((p, \sigma) \in \mathbb{R}^+ \times \mathbb{R}^+\) and for any \(\varepsilon \in \mathbb{R}^+\), there exists \(N\) such that \(d(x, y) < 2\sigma\varepsilon\):

\[
d(x, y) \leq \tau(p, \sigma; x, y, x_n)
\]

\[
\begin{align*}
&= 2\sigma\left[\frac{1}{2}d^p(x, x_n) + \frac{1}{2}d^p(x_n, y)\right]^\frac{1}{p} \\
&< 2\sigma\left[\frac{1}{2}\varepsilon^p + \frac{1}{2}\varepsilon^p\right]^\frac{1}{p} \\
&= 2\sigma\varepsilon
\end{align*}
\]

by definition of power triangle inequality (Definition 4.3 page 16)

by definition of power triangle function (Definition 4.1 page 15)

by left hypothesis and for \(p \in \mathbb{R}^+ \setminus \{-\infty, 0, \infty\}\)

\[
d(x, y) \leq \tau(\varepsilon, \sigma; x, y, x_n)
\]

\[
= 2\sigma\max\{d(x, x_n), d(x_n, y)\} \\
< 2\sigma\varepsilon
\]

by Corollary 4.7 (page 17)

by left hypothesis

\[
d(x, y) \leq \tau(\varepsilon, \sigma; x, y, x_n)
\]

\[
= 2\sigma\min\{d(x, x_n), d(x_n, y)\} \\
< 2\sigma\varepsilon
\]

by Corollary 4.7 (page 17)

by left hypothesis

\[
d(x, y) \leq \tau(0, \sigma; x, y, x_n)
\]

\[
= 2\sigma\sqrt{d(x, x_n)} \sqrt{d(x_n, y)} \\
= 2\sigma\sqrt{\varepsilon} \sqrt{\varepsilon} \\
< 2\sigma\varepsilon
\]

by Corollary 4.7 (page 17)

by property of real numbers

---

46 in metric space \((p, \sigma) = (1, 1)\) case; \cite{Berberian1961} page 37 (Theorem II.4.1)

47 in metric space; \cite{Rosenlicht1968} page 46, \cite{Thomson2008} Thomson, Bruckner, and Bruckner, page 32 (Theorem 2.8)
4.3 EXAMPLES

Proof that \( x = y \) (proof by contradiction):

\[
x \neq y \implies d(x, y) \neq 0 \quad \quad \quad \quad \quad \text{by the nondegenerate property of } d \quad \text{(Definition 3.1 page 6)}
\]

\[
d(x, y) > 0 \quad \quad \quad \quad \quad \quad \quad \quad \quad \text{by non-negative property of } d \quad \text{(Definition 3.1 page 6)}
\]

\[
\exists \varepsilon \text{ such that } d(x, y) > 2\sigma \varepsilon \implies \text{contradiction to (1) lemma page 23}\n\]

\[
d(x, y) = 0 \implies x = y
\]

4.3 Examples

It is not always possible to find a triangle relation (Definition 4.3 page 16) \( \otimes(p, \sigma; d) \) that holds in every distance space (Definition 3.1 page 6), as demonstrated by Example 4.20 and Example 4.21 (next two examples).

Example 4.20  Let \( d(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^{\mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R}} \) be defined such that

\[
d(x, y) \triangleq \begin{cases} 
  y & \text{if } (x, y) \in \{4\} \times (0 : 2] \\
  x & \text{if } (x, y) \in (0 : 2] \times \{4\} \\
  |x - y| & \text{otherwise}
\end{cases}
\]

Note the following about the pair \((\mathbb{R}, d)\):

1. By Example 3.21 (page 12), \((\mathbb{R}, d)\) is a distance space, but not a metric space—that is, the triangle relation \( \otimes(1, 1; d) \) does not hold in \((\mathbb{R}, d)\).

2. Observe further that \((\mathbb{R}, d)\) is not a power distance space. In particular, the triangle relation \( \otimes(p, \sigma; d) \) does not hold in \((\mathbb{R}, d)\) for any finite value of \(\sigma\) (does not hold for any \(\sigma \in \mathbb{R}^+\)):

\[
d(0, 4) = 4 \not\leq 0 = \lim_{\varepsilon \to 0} 2\sigma \varepsilon = \lim_{\varepsilon \to 0} 2\sigma \left[ \frac{1}{2} |0 - \varepsilon|^p + \frac{1}{2} \varepsilon^p \right]^\frac{1}{p} \triangleq \lim_{\varepsilon \to 0} 2\sigma \left[ \frac{1}{2} d^p(0, \varepsilon) + \frac{1}{2} d^p(\varepsilon, 4) \right]^\frac{1}{p} \triangleq \lim_{\varepsilon \to 0} \otimes(p, \sigma; 0, 4, \varepsilon; d)
\]

Example 4.21  Let \( d(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^{\mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R}} \) be defined such that

\[
d(x, y) \triangleq \begin{cases} 
  |x - y| & \text{for } x = 0 \text{ or } y = 0 \text{ or } x = y \\
  1 & \text{otherwise}
\end{cases}
\]

Note the following about the pair \((\mathbb{R}, d)\):

1. By Example 3.22 (page 13), \((\mathbb{R}, d)\) is a distance space, but not a metric space—that is, the triangle relation \( \otimes(1, 1; d) \) does not hold in \((\mathbb{R}, d)\).

2. Observe further that \((\mathbb{R}, d)\) is not a power distance space—that is, the triangle relation \( \otimes(p, \sigma; d) \) does not hold in \((\mathbb{R}, d)\) for any value of \((p, \sigma) \in \mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R}^+\).

(a) Proof that \( \otimes(p, \sigma; d) \) does not hold for any \((p, \sigma) \in \{\infty\} \times \mathbb{R}^+\):

\[
\lim_{n, m \to \infty} d(\frac{1}{n}, \frac{1}{m}) \triangleq 1 \not\leq 0 = 2\sigma \max \{0, 0\} \quad \text{by definition of } d
\]

\[
= 2\sigma \lim_{n, m \to \infty} \max \{d(\frac{1}{n}, 0), d(0, \frac{1}{m})\} \quad \text{by Corollary 4.7 (page 17)}
\]

\[
\geq \lim_{n, m \to \infty} 2\sigma \left[ \frac{1}{2} d^p(\frac{1}{n}, 0) + \frac{1}{2} d^p(0, \frac{1}{m}) \right]^\frac{1}{p} \quad \text{by Corollary 4.6 (page 16)}
\]

\[
\triangleq \lim_{n, m \to \infty} \tau(p, \sigma, \frac{1}{n}, \frac{1}{m}) \quad \text{by definition of } \tau \quad \text{(Definition 4.1 page 15)}
\]
(b) Proof that \( \Box(p, \sigma; d) \) does not hold for any \((p, \sigma) \in \mathbb{R}^+ \times \mathbb{R}^+ \): By Corollary 4.6 (page 16), the triangle function (Definition 4.1 page 15) \( \tau(p, \sigma; x, y, z; d) \) is continuous and strictly monotone in \((\mathbb{R}, |\cdot|, \leq)\) with respect to the variable \(p\). Item 2a demonstrates that \( \Box(p, \sigma; d) \) fails to hold at the best case of \(p = \infty\), and so by Corollary 4.6, it doesn’t hold for any other value of \(p \in \mathbb{R}^+\) either.

Example 4.22 Let \(d\) be a function in \(\mathbb{R}^{\mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R}}\) such that
\[
d(x, y) \triangleq \begin{cases} 
2|x - y| & \forall (x, y) \in \{(0, 1), (1, 0)\} \\
|x - y| & \text{otherwise}
\end{cases} \quad \text{(dilated Euclidean)}
\]
\[
\quad \text{(Euclidean)}
\]
Note the following about the pair \((\mathbb{R}, d)\):

(1) By Example 3.23 (page 14), \((\mathbb{R}, d)\) is a distance space, but not a metric space—that is, the triangle relation \(\Box(1, 1; d)\) does not hold in \((\mathbb{R}, d)\).

(2) But observe further that \((\mathbb{R}, d, 1, 2)\) is a power distance space:

(a) Proof that \(\Box(1, 2; d)\) (Definition 4.3 page 16) holds for all \((x, y) \in \{(0, 1), (1, 0)\}\):
\[
d(1, 0) = d(0, 1) \triangleq 2|0 - 1| = 2 \quad \text{by definition of } d
\]
\[
\leq 2 \leq 2(|0 - z| + |z - 1|) \quad \forall z \in \mathbb{R} \quad \text{by definition of } |\cdot| \quad \text{(Definition 2.10 page 5)}
\]
\[
= 2\sigma(\frac{1}{2}|0 - z|^p + \frac{1}{2}|z - 1|^p)^{\frac{1}{p}} \quad \forall z \in \mathbb{R} \quad \text{for } (p, \sigma) = (1, 2)
\]
\[
\triangleq 2\sigma(\frac{1}{2}d^p(0, z) + d^p(z, 1))^\frac{1}{p} \quad \forall z \in \mathbb{R} \quad \text{for } (p, \sigma) = (1, 2) \text{ and by definition of } d
\]
\[
\triangleq \tau(1, 1; 2, 0, 1, z) \quad \text{by definition of } \tau \quad \text{(Definition 4.1 page 15)}
\]

(b) Proof that \(\Box(1, 2; d)\) holds for all other \((x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^+ \times \mathbb{R}^+\):
\[
d(x, y) \triangleq 2|x - y| \quad \text{by definition of } d
\]
\[
\leq (|x - z| + |z - y|) \quad \text{by property of Euclidean metric spaces}
\]
\[
= 2\sigma(\frac{1}{2}|0 - z|^p + \frac{1}{2}|z - 1|^p)^{\frac{1}{p}} \quad \forall z \in \mathbb{R} \quad \text{for } (p, \sigma) = (1, 1)
\]
\[
\triangleq \tau(1, 1; x, y, z) \quad \text{by definition of } \tau \quad \text{(Definition 4.1 page 15)}
\]
\[
\leq \tau(1, 2; x, y, z) \quad \text{by Corollary 4.6 (page 16)}
\]

(3) In \((X, d)\), the limits of convergent sequences are unique. This follows directly from the fact that \((\mathbb{R}, d, 1, 2)\) is a power distance space (item 2 page 25) and by Theorem 4.19 page 23.

(4) In \((X, d)\), convergent sequences are Cauchy. This follows directly from the fact that \((\mathbb{R}, d, 1, 2)\) is a power distance space (item 2 page 25) and by Theorem 4.16 page 21.

Example 4.23 Let \(d\) be a function in \(\mathbb{R}^{\mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R}}\) such that \(d(x, y) \triangleq (x - y)^2\). Note the following about the pair \((\mathbb{R}, d)\):

(1) It was demonstrated in Example 3.24 (page 15) that \((\mathbb{R}, d)\) is a distance space, but that it is not a metric space because the triangle inequality does not hold.

(2) However, the tuple \((\mathbb{R}, d, p, \sigma)\) is a power distance space (Definition 4.3 page 16) for any \((p, \sigma) \in \mathbb{R}^+ \times [2 : \infty)\): In particular, for all \(x, y, z \in \mathbb{R}\), the power triangle inequality (Definition 4.3 page 16) must hold. The “worst case” for this is when a third point \(z\) is exactly “halfway between” \(x\) and \(y\) in \(d(x, y)\);
that is, when \( z = \frac{x + y}{2} \):

\[
(x - y)^2 \triangleq d(x, y) \quad \text{by definition of } d
\]

\[
\leq \tau(p, \sigma; x, y, z; d) \quad \text{by definition } \tau \text{ (Definition 4.1 page 15)}
\]

\[
\triangleq 2\sigma \left[ \frac{1}{2}d^p(x, z) + \frac{1}{2}d^p(z, y) \right]^\frac{1}{p} \quad \text{by definition of } d
\]

\[
= 2\sigma \left[ \frac{1}{2}(x - z)^{2p} + \frac{1}{2}(y - z)^{2p} \right]^\frac{1}{p} \quad \text{because } (x)^2 = |x|^2 \text{ for all } x \in \mathbb{R}
\]

\[
= 2\sigma \left[ \frac{1}{2} \left( x - \frac{x + y}{2} \right)^{2p} + \frac{1}{2} \left( y - \frac{x + y}{2} \right)^{2p} \right]^\frac{1}{p}
\]

\[
= 2\sigma \left[ \frac{1}{2} \left( y - x \right)^{2p} + \frac{1}{2} \left( x - y \right)^{2p} \right]^\frac{1}{p} = \frac{2\sigma}{2p} |x - y|^2
\]

\[
\implies (p, \sigma) \in \mathbb{R}^* \times [2 : \infty)
\]

(3) The power distance function \( d \) is continuous in \((\mathbb{R}, d, p, \sigma)\) for any \((p, \sigma)\) such that \( \sigma \geq 2 \) and \( 2\sigma = p^\frac{1}{p} \). This follows directly from Theorem 4.18 (page 23).

### Appendix A  Topological Spaces

**Definition A.1** 48 Let \( \Gamma \) be a set with an arbitrary (possibly uncountable) number of elements. Let \( 2^X \) be the power set of a set \( X \) (Definition 2.2 page 4). A family of sets \( T \subseteq 2^X \) is a topology on \( X \) if

1. \( \emptyset \in T \) and
2. \( X \in T \) and
3. \( U, V \in T \implies U \cap V \in T \) and
4. \( \{ U_\gamma | \gamma \in \Gamma \} \subseteq T \implies \bigcup_{\gamma \in \Gamma} U_\gamma \in T \).

The ordered pair \((X, T)\) is a topological space if \( T \) is a topology on \( X \). A set \( U \) is open in \((X, T)\) if \( U \) is any element of \( T \). A set \( D \) is closed in \((X, T)\) if \( D^c \) is open in \((X, T)\).

Just as the power set \( 2^X \) and the set \( \{ \emptyset, X \} \) are algebras of sets on a set \( X \), so also are these sets topologies on \( X \) (next example):

**Example A.2** 49 Let \( T(X) \) be the set of topologies on a set \( X \) and \( 2^X \) the power set (Definition 2.2 page 4) on \( X \).

\[
\{ \emptyset, X \} \quad \text{is a topology in } \quad T(X) \quad \text{(indiscrete topology or trivial topology)}
\]

\[
2^X \quad \text{is a topology in } \quad T(X) \quad \text{(discrete topology)}
\]

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48 [Munkres(2000)] page 76, [Riesz(1909)], [Hausdorff(1914)], [Tietze(1923)], [Hausdorff(1937)] page 258

49 [Munkres(2000)], page 77, [Kubrusly(2011)] page 107 (Example 3.J), [Steen and Seebach(1978)] pages 42–43 (II.4), [DiBenedetto(2002)] page 18
Definition A.3  Let \((X, T)\) be a topological space. A set \(B \subseteq 2^X\) is a base for \(T\) if

1. \(B \subseteq T\)
2. \(\forall U \in T, \exists \{B_r \in B\} \text{ such that } U = \bigcup_r B_r\)

Theorem A.4  Let \((X, T)\) be a topological space. Let \(B\) be a subset of \(2^X\) such that \(B \subseteq 2^X\).

\[
\{ B \text{ is a base for } T \} \iff \left\{ \text{For every } x \in X \text{ and for every open set } U \text{ containing } x, \right.
\left. \exists B_x \in B \text{ such that } x \in B_x \text{ and } \right.
\left. x \in U \right\}
\]

Theorem A.5  Let \((X, T)\) be a topological space (Definition A.1 page 26) and \(B \subseteq 2^X\).

\(B\) is a base for \((X, T)\) \iff \[
\begin{align*}
1. & \ x \in X \implies \exists B_x \in B \text{ such that } x \in B_x \\
2. & \ B_1, B_2 \in B \implies B_1 \cap B_2 \in B
\end{align*}
\]

Example A.6  Let \((X, d)\) be a metric space. The set \(B \triangleq \{B(x, r) | x \in X, r \in \mathbb{N}\}\) (the set of all open balls in \((X, d)\)) is a base for a topology on \((X, d)\).

Example A.7  (the standard topology on the real line) The set \(B \triangleq \{(a : b) | a, b \in \mathbb{R}, a < b\}\) is a base for the metric space \((\mathbb{R}, |b - a|)\) (the usual metric space on \(\mathbb{R}\)).

Definition A.8  Let \((X, T)\) be a topological space (Definition A.1 page 26). Let \(2^X\) be the power set of \(X\).

The set \(A^-\) is the closure of \(A \in 2^X\) if \(A^- \triangleq \bigcap \{D \in 2^X | A \subseteq D \text{ and } D \text{ is closed}\}\).

The set \(A^+\) is the interior of \(A \in 2^X\) if \(A^+ \triangleq \bigcup \{U \in 2^X | U \subseteq A \text{ and } U \text{ is open}\}\).

A point \(x\) is a closure point of \(A\) if \(x \in A^-\).

A point \(x\) is an interior point of \(A\) if \(x \in A^+\).

A point \(x\) is an accumulation point of \(A\) if \(x \in (A \setminus \{x\})^-\).

A point \(x\) in \(A^-\) is a point of adherence in \(A\) or is adherent to \(A\) if \(x \in A^-\).

Proposition A.9  Let \((X, T)\) be a topological space (Definition A.1 page 26). Let \(A^-\) be the closure, \(A^+\) the interior, and \(\partial A\) the boundary of a set \(A\). Let \(2^X\) be the power set of \(X\).

1. \(A^-\) is closed \(\forall A \in 2^X\).
2. \(A^+\) is open \(\forall A \in 2^X\).

Lemma A.10  Let \(A^-\) be the closure, \(A^+\) the interior, and \(\partial A\) the boundary of a set \(A\) in a topological space \((X, T)\). Let \(2^X\) be the power set of \(X\).

1. \(A^+ \subseteq A \subseteq A^-\) \(\forall A \in 2^X\).
2. \(A = A^+ \iff A\) is open \(\forall A \in 2^X\).
3. \(A = A^- \iff A\) is closed \(\forall A \in 2^X\).

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50 [Joshi(1983)] page 92 (3.1 Definition), [Davis(2005)] page 46 (Definition 4.15)
51 [Joshi(1983)] pages 92–93 (3.2 Proposition), [Davis(2005)] page 46
52 [Bollobás(1999)] page 19
53 [Davis(2005)] page 46 (Example 4.16)
54 [Munkres(2000)] page 81, [Davis(2005)] page 46 (Example 4.16)
55 [Gemignani(1972)] pages 55–56 (Definition 3.5.7), [McCarty(1967)] page 90, [Munkres(2000)] page 95 (§Closure and Interior of a Set), [Thron(1966)], pages 21–22 (definition 4.8, definition 4.9), [Kelley(1955)] page 42, [Kubrusly(2001)] pages 115–116
56 [McCarty(1967)] page 90 (IV.1 THEOREM)
57 [McCarty(1967)] pages 90–91 (IV.1 THEOREM), [Aliprantis and Burkinshaw(1998)] page 59
Definition A.11 \[58\] Let \((X, T_x)\) and \((Y, T_y)\) be topological spaces (Definition A.1 page 26). Let \(f\) be a function in \(Y^X\). A function \(f \in Y^X\) is **continuous** if 
\[ U \in T_y \implies f^{-1}(U) \in T_x. \]

A function is **discontinuous** in \((X, T_y)\) if it is not continuous in \((X, T_y)\).

Example A.12 Some **continuous/discontinuous** functions are illustrated in Figure 3 (page 28).

Definition A.11 (previous definition) defines continuity using open sets. Continuity can alternatively be defined using closed sets or closure (next theorem).

Theorem A.13 \[59\] Let \((X, T)\) and \((Y, S)\) be topological spaces. Let \(f\) be a function in \(Y^X\).

The following are equivalent:
1. \(f\) is continuous
2. \(B\) is closed in \((Y, S)\) \(\implies f^{-1}(B)\) is closed in \((X, T)\) \(\forall B \in 2^Y \implies \)
3. \(f(A^-) \subseteq f(A^-)\)
4. \(f^{-1}(B^-) \subseteq f^{-1}(B^-)\)

Remark A.14 A word of warning about defining continuity in terms of topological spaces—continuity is defined in terms of a pair of topological spaces, and whether function is continuous or discontinuous in general depends very heavily on the selection of these spaces. This is illustrated in Proposition A.15 (next). The ramification of this is that when declaring a function to be continuous or discontinuous, one must make clear the assumed topological spaces.

Proposition A.15 \[60\] Let \((X, T)\) and \((Y, S)\) be topological spaces. Let \(f\) be a function in \((Y, S)^{Y^X}\).

1. \(T\) is the discrete topology \(\implies f\) is continuous \(\forall f \in (Y, S)^{Y^X}\)
2. \(S\) is the indiscrete topology \(\implies f\) is continuous \(\forall f \in (Y, S)^{Y^X}\)

Definition A.16 \[61\] Let \((X, T)\) be a topological space (Definition A.1 page 26). A sequence \(\langle x_n \rangle_{n \in \mathbb{N}}\) converges in \((X, T)\) to a point \(x\) if for each open set \((\text{Definition A.1 page 26}) U \in T\) that contains \(x\) there exists \(N \in \mathbb{N}\) such that

\[58\] [Davis(2005)] page 34
\[59\] [McCarty(1967)] pages 91–92 (IV.2 Theorem), [Searcóid(2006)] page 130 (“Theorem 8.3.1 (Criteria for Continuity),” set in metric spaces)
\[60\] [Crossley(2006)] page 18 (Proposition 3.9), [Ponnusamy(2002)] page 98 (2.64. Theorem.)
\[61\] [Joshi(1983)] page 83 (3.1 Definition), [Leathem(1905)], page 13 (“→” symbol, section III.11)
\( x_n \in U \) for all \( n > N \).

This condition can be expressed in any of the following forms:

1. The \textbf{limit} of the sequence \( (x_n) \) is \( x \).
2. The sequence \( (x_n) \) is \textbf{convergent} with limit \( x \).

A sequence that converges is \textbf{convergent}. A sequence that does not converge is said to \textbf{diverge}, or is \textbf{divergent}. An element \( x \in A \) is a \textbf{limit point} of \( A \) if it is the limit of some \( A \)-valued sequence \( (x_n) \subseteq A \).

\[ \text{Example A.17} \] Let \((X, T_{31})\) be a \textit{topological space} where \( X \triangleq \{x, y, z\} \) and \( T_{31} \triangleq \{\emptyset, \{x\}, \{x, y\}, \{y, z\}, \{x, y, z\}\} \).

In this space, the sequence \((x, x, x, \ldots)\) converges to \( x \). But this sequence also converges to both \( y \) and \( z \) because \( x \) is in every \textit{open set} (Definition A.1 page 26) that contains \( y \) and \( x \) is in every \textit{open set} that contains \( z \). So, the \textit{limit} (Definition A.16 page 28) of the sequence is \textit{not unique}.

\[ \text{Example A.18} \] In contrast to the low resolution topological space of Example A.17, the limit of the sequence \((x, x, x, \ldots)\) \textit{is unique} in a \textit{topological space} with sufficiently high resolution with respect to \( y \) and \( z \) such as the following: Define a \textit{topological space} \((X, T_{56})\) where \( X \triangleq \{x, y, z\} \) and \( T_{56} \triangleq \{\emptyset, \{y\}, \{z\}, \{x, y\}, \{y, z\}, \{x, y, z\}\} \).

In this space, the sequence \((x, x, x, \ldots)\) converges to \( x \) only. The sequence does \textit{not} converge to \( y \) or \( z \) because there are \textit{open sets} (Definition A.1 page 26) containing \( y \) or \( z \) that do not contain \( x \) (the open sets \( \{y\}, \{z\}, \) and \( \{y, z\} \)).

\[ \text{Theorem A.19} \] (The Closed Set Theorem) \[ \text{Let } (X, T) \text{ be a \textit{topological space}. Let } A \text{ be a subset of } X \text{ (} A \subseteq X \text{). Let } A^- \text{ be the closure} \text{(Definition A.8 page 27)} \text{ of } A \text{ in } (X, T) \text{.} \]

\[ A \text{ is closed in } (X, T) \iff \begin{cases} \text{Every } A\text{-valued sequence } (x_n)_{n \in \mathbb{Z}} \text{ that converges in } (X, T) \text{ has its limit in } A \\ (A = A^-) \end{cases} \]

\[ \text{Theorem A.20} \] \[ \text{Let } (X, T) \text{ and } (Y, S) \text{ be \textit{topological spaces}. Let } f \text{ be a function in } (Y, S)^{(X,T)}. \]

\[ \begin{cases} f \text{ is continuous in } (Y, S)^{(X,T)} \\ \text{(Definition A.11 page 28)} \end{cases} \iff \begin{cases} (x_n) \to x \implies f((x_n)) \to f(x) \\ \text{(Definition A.16 page 28)} \end{cases} \]

\[ \text{Proof:} \]

1. Proof for the \( \implies \) case (proof by contradiction):

   a. Let \( U \) be an \textit{open set} in \((Y, T)\) that contains \( f(x) \) but for which there exists no \( N \) such that \( f(x_n) \in U \) for all \( n > N \).

   b. Note that the set \( f^{-1}(U) \) is also \textit{open} by the continuity hypothesis.

\[ \text{References:} \]

62 [Munkres(2000)] page 98 (Hausdorff Spaces)
63 [Kubrusly(2001)] page 118 (Theorem 3.30), [Haaser and Sullivan(1991)] page 75 (6.9 Proposition), [Rosenlicht(1968)] pages 47–48
64 [Ponnusamy(2002)] pages 94–96 ("2.59. Proposition."); in the context of \textit{metric spaces}; includes the \textit{"inverse image characterization of continuity"} and \textit{"sequential characterization of continuity"} terminology; this terminology does not seem to be widely used in the literature in general, but has been adopted for use in this text)
(c) If \( \langle x_n \rangle \rightarrow x \) then
\[
f((x_n)) \not\rightarrow f(x) \implies \text{there exists no } N \text{ such that } f(x_n) \in U \text{ for all } n > N \quad \text{by Definition A.16 (page 28)}
\]
\[
\implies \text{there exists no } M \text{ such that } x_n \in f^{-1}(U) \text{ for all } n > M \quad \text{by definition of } f^{-1}
\]
\[
\implies \langle x_n \rangle \not\rightarrow x \quad \text{by continuity hypothesis and def. of convergence (Definition A.16 page 28)}
\]
\[
\implies \text{contradiction of } \langle x_n \rangle \rightarrow x \text{ hypothesis}
\]
\[
\implies f((x_n)) \not\rightarrow f(x)
\]

(2) Proof for the \( \iff \) case (proof by contradiction):

(a) Let \( D \) be a closed set in \( (Y, S) \).

(b) Suppose \( f^{-1}(D) \) is not closed...

(c) then by the closed set theorem (Theorem A.19 page 29), there must exist a convergent sequence \( \langle x_n \rangle \) in \( (X, T) \), but with limit \( x \) not in \( f^{-1}(D) \).

(d) Note that \( f(x) \) must be in \( D \). Proof:

(i) by definition of \( D \) and \( f \), \( f((x_n)) \) is in \( D \)

(ii) by left hypothesis, the sequence \( f((x_n)) \) is convergent with limit \( f(x) \)

(iii) by closed set theorem (Theorem A.19 page 29), \( f(x) \) must be in \( D \).

(e) Because \( f(x) \in D \), it must be true that \( x \in f^{-1}(D) \).

(f) But this is a contradiction to item (2c) (page 30), and so item (2b) (page 30) must be wrong, and \( f^{-1}(D) \) must be closed.

(g) And so by Theorem A.13 (page 28), \( f \) is continuous.

Appendix B  Finite sums

B.1  Convexity

Definition B.1  
A function \( f \in \mathbb{R}^\mathbb{R} \) is convex if
\[
f(\lambda x + [1 - \lambda] y) \leq \lambda f(x) + (1 - \lambda) f(y) \quad \forall x, y \in \mathbb{R} \text{ and } \forall \lambda \in (0 : 1)
\]

A function \( g \in \mathbb{R}^\mathbb{R} \) is strictly convex if
\[
g(\lambda x + [1 - \lambda] y) = \lambda g(x) + (1 - \lambda) g(y) \quad \forall x, y \in D, \; x \neq y, \; \text{and } \forall \lambda \in (0 : 1)
\]

A function \( f \in \mathbb{R}^\mathbb{R} \) is concave if \( -f \) is convex.

A function \( f \in \mathbb{R}^\mathbb{R} \) is affine if \( f \) is convex and concave.

Theorem B.2 (Jensen’s Inequality)  
Let \( f \in \mathbb{R}^\mathbb{R} \) be a function.

\[
\begin{align*}
1. & \quad \text{f is convex (Definition B.1 page 30) and} \\
2. & \quad \sum_{n=1}^{N} \lambda_n = 1 \quad \text{(weights)}
\end{align*}
\]
\[
\implies \left\{ f \left( \sum_{n=1}^{N} \lambda_n x_n \right) \leq \sum_{n=1}^{N} \lambda_n f(x_n) \quad \forall x_n \in D, \; N \in \mathbb{N} \right\}
\]

\[\text{Simon(2011)} \text{ page 2, Barvinok(2002)} \text{ page 2, Bollobás(1999)} \text{, page 3, Jensen(1906)} \text{, page 176}
\]
\[\text{Mitrinović et al.(2010)Mitrinović, Pečarić, and Fink} \text{ page 6, Bollobás(1999)} \text{ page 3, Jensen(1906)} \text{ pages 179–180} \]
B.2 Power means

Definition B.3 67 The \( \langle \lambda_n \rangle_1^N \) weighted \( \phi \)-\textit{mean} of a tuple \( \langle x_n \rangle_1^N \) is defined as

\[
M_\phi(\langle x_n \rangle) \triangleq \phi^{-1}\left( \sum_{n=1}^{N} \lambda_n \phi(x_n) \right)
\]

where \( \phi \) is a \textit{continuous and strictly monotonic} function in \( \mathbb{R}^{\mathbb{R}^+} \).

and \( \langle \lambda_n \rangle_1^N \) is a sequence of weights for which \( \sum_{n=1}^{N} \lambda_n = 1 \).

Lemma B.4 68 Let \( M_\phi(\langle x_n \rangle) \) be the \( \langle \lambda_n \rangle_1^N \) weighted \( \phi \)-mean and \( M_\psi(\langle x_n \rangle) \) the \( \langle \lambda_n \rangle_1^N \) weighted \( \psi \)-mean of a tuple \( \langle x_n \rangle_1^N \).

\[\phi \psi^{-1} \text{ is CONVEX and } \phi \text{ is INCREASING} \implies M_\phi(\langle x_n \rangle) \geq M_\psi(\langle x_n \rangle)\]

\[\phi \psi^{-1} \text{ is CONVEX and } \phi \text{ is DECREASING} \implies M_\phi(\langle x_n \rangle) \leq M_\psi(\langle x_n \rangle)\]

\[\phi \psi^{-1} \text{ is CONCAVE and } \phi \text{ is INCREASING} \implies M_\phi(\langle x_n \rangle) \leq M_\psi(\langle x_n \rangle)\]

\[\phi \psi^{-1} \text{ is CONCAVE and } \phi \text{ is DECREASING} \implies M_\phi(\langle x_n \rangle) \geq M_\psi(\langle x_n \rangle)\]

One of the most well known inequalities in mathematics is \textit{Minkowski’s Inequality}. In 1946, H.P. Mulholland submitted a result that generalizes Minkowski’s Inequality to an equal weighted \( \phi \)-mean. 69

And Milovanović and Milovanović (1979) generalized this even further to a \textit{weighted} \( \phi \)-mean (next).

Theorem B.5 70 Let \( \phi \) be a function in \( \mathbb{R}^{\mathbb{R}} \).

\[\{ \begin{array}{l}
\text{1. } \phi \text{ is CONVEX and } \phi(0) = 0 \\
\text{3. } \phi(0) = 0 \text{ and } \log * \phi * \exp \text{ is CONVEX} \\
\text{4. } \log * \phi * \exp \text{ is CONVEX}
\end{array} \]

\[\implies \left\{ \phi^{-1}\left( \sum_{n=1}^{N} \lambda_n \phi(x_n + y_n) \right) \leq \phi^{-1}\left( \sum_{n=1}^{N} \lambda_n \phi(x_n) \right) + \phi^{-1}\left( \sum_{n=1}^{N} \lambda_n \phi(y_n) \right) \right\}\]

Definition B.6 71 Let \( M_{\phi(x;p)}(\langle x_n \rangle) \) be the \( \langle \lambda_n \rangle_1^N \) weighted \( \phi \)-mean of a \textit{non-negative} tuple \( \langle x_n \rangle_1^N \). A \textit{mean} \( M_{\phi(x;p)}(\langle x_n \rangle) \) is a \textit{power mean} with parameter \( p \) if \( \phi(x) \triangleq x^p \). That is,

\[
M_{\phi(x;p)}(\langle x_n \rangle) = \left( \sum_{n=1}^{N} \lambda_n (x_n)^p \right)^\frac{1}{p}
\]

Theorem B.7 72 Let \( M_{\phi(x;p)}(\langle x_n \rangle) \) be the \textit{power mean} with parameter \( p \) of an \textit{N-tuple} \( \langle x_n \rangle_1^N \) in which

the elements are not all equal.

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67 [Bollobás(1999)] page 5

68 [Pečarić et al.(1992)Pečarić, Proschan, and Tong] page 107, [Bollobás(1999)] page 5, [Hardy et al.(1952)Hardy, Littlewood, and Pólya] page 75

69 [Minkowski(1910)] page 115, [Mulholland(1950)], [Hardy et al.(1952)Hardy, Littlewood, and Pólya] (Theorem 24), [Tolsted(1964)] page 7, [Maligranda(1995)] page 258, [Carothers(2000)], page 44, [Bullen(2003)] page 179

70 [Milovanović and Milovanović(1979)], [Bullen(2003)] page 306 (Theorem 9)

71 [Bullen(2003)] page 175, [Bollobás(1999)] page 6

72 [Bullen(2003)] pages 175–177 (see also page 203), [Bollobás(1999)] pages 6–8, [Bullen(1990)] page 250, [Besso(1879)], [Bienaymé(1840)] page 68, [Brenner(1985)] page 160
Daniel J. Greenhoe

B.2 POWER MEANS

\[ M_{\phi(x;p)}(\{x_n\}) \triangleq \left( \sum_{n=1}^{N} \lambda_n(x_n)^p \right)^{\frac{1}{p}} \] is continuous and strictly monotone in \( \mathbb{R}^n \).

\[ M_{\phi(x;p)}(\{x_n\}) = \begin{cases} \max_{n=1,2,\ldots,N} \langle x_n \rangle & \text{for } p = +\infty \\ \prod_{n=1}^{N} x_n^{\lambda_n} & \text{for } p = 0 \\ \min_{n=1,2,\ldots,N} \langle x_n \rangle & \text{for } p = -\infty \end{cases} \]

\( \phi(\cdot, p) \) is continuous and strictly monotone in \( \mathbb{R}^* \).

**Proof:**

1. Proof that \( M_{\phi(x;p)} \) is strictly monotone in \( p \):
   (a) Let \( p \) and \( s \) be such that \( -\infty < p < s < \infty \).
   (b) Let \( \phi_p \triangleq x^p \) and \( \phi_s \triangleq x^s \). Then \( \phi_p \phi_s^{-1} = x^s - x^p \).
   (c) The composite function \( \phi_p \phi_s^{-1} \) is convex or concave depending on the values of \( p \) and \( s \):
      \[
      \begin{array}{c|l|l}
      p < 0 & \phi_p \text{ decreasing} & \text{not possible} \\
      p > 0 & \phi_p \text{ increasing} & \text{convex} \\
      s < 0 & \text{not possible} & \text{concave} \\
      s > 0 & \text{convex} & \text{not possible}
      \end{array}
      \]
   (d) Therefore by Lemma B.4 (page 31),
      \( \lim_{p \to \infty} M_{\phi(x;p)}(\{x_n\}) = \max_{n \in \mathbb{Z}} \langle x_n \rangle \)

2. Proof that \( M_{\phi(x;p)} \) is continuous in \( p \) for \( p \in \mathbb{R} \setminus \{0\} \): The sum of continuous functions is continuous.
   For the cases of \( p \in \{-\infty, 0, \infty\} \), see the items that follow.

3. Lemma: \( M_{\phi(x;-p)}(\{x_n^{-1}\}) = \left( M_{\phi(x;p)}(\{x_n^{-1}\}) \right)^{-1} \). Proof:
   \[
   \left( M_{\phi(x;p)}(\{x_n^{-1}\}) \right)^{-1} = \left\{ \left( \sum_{n=1}^{N} \lambda_n(x_n^{-1})^p \right)^{\frac{1}{p}} \right\}^{-1}
   \]
   by definition of \( M_{\phi} \)
   \[
   = \left( \sum_{n=1}^{N} \lambda_n(x_n^{-p}) \right)^{\frac{1}{p}}
   \]
   \[
   = M_{\phi(x;-p)}(\{x_n\})
   \]
   by definition of \( M_{\phi} \)

4. Proof that \( \lim_{p \to \infty} M_{\phi}(\{x_n\}) = \max_{n \in \mathbb{Z}} \langle x_n \rangle \):
   (a) Let \( x_m = \max_{n \in \mathbb{Z}} \langle x_n \rangle \)
   (b) Note that \( \lim_{p \to \infty} M_{\phi} \leq \max_{n \in \mathbb{Z}} \langle x_n \rangle \) because
   \[
   \lim_{p \to \infty} M_{\phi}(\{x_n\}) = \lim_{p \to \infty} \left( \sum_{n=1}^{N} \lambda_n x_n^p \right)^{\frac{1}{p}}
   \]
   by definition of \( M_{\phi} \)
   \[
   \leq \lim_{p \to \infty} \left( \sum_{n=1}^{N} \lambda_n x_m^p \right)^{\frac{1}{p}}
   \]
   by definition of \( x_m \) in item (4a) and because \( \phi(x) \triangleq x^p \) and \( \phi^{-1} \) are both increasing or both decreasing
   \[
   = \lim_{p \to \infty} \left( x_m^p \sum_{n=1}^{N} \lambda_n \right)^{\frac{1}{p}}
   \]
   because \( x_m \) is a constant
= \lim_{p \to \infty} (x_m^p \cdot 1)^{\frac{1}{p}}

= x_m

= \max_{n \in \mathbb{Z}} \langle x_n \rangle

\text{by definition of } x_n \text{ in item (4a)}

(c) But also note that \( \lim_{p \to \infty} M_{\phi} \geq \max_{n \in \mathbb{Z}} \langle x_n \rangle \) because

\[
\lim_{p \to \infty} M_{\phi}(\langle x_n \rangle) = \lim_{p \to \infty} \left( \sum_{n=1}^{N} \lambda_n x_n^p \right)^{\frac{1}{p}}
\]

\[
\geq \lim_{p \to \infty} \left( u_m x_m^p \right)^{\frac{1}{p}}
\]

\[
= \lim_{p \to \infty} u_m x_m
\]

\[
= x_m
\]

\[
= \max_{n \in \mathbb{Z}} \langle x_n \rangle
\]

\text{by definition of } x_m \text{ in item (4a)}

(d) Combining items (b) and (c) we have \( \lim_{p \to \infty} M_{\phi} = \max_{n \in \mathbb{Z}} \langle x_n \rangle \).

(5) Proof that \( \lim_{p \to -\infty} M_{\phi}(\langle x_n \rangle) = \min_{n \in \mathbb{Z}} \langle x_n \rangle \):

\[
\lim_{p \to -\infty} M_{\phi}(\langle x_n \rangle) = \lim_{p \to -\infty} \left[ \frac{1}{\lim_{p \to \infty} M_{\phi}(\langle x_n^{-1} \rangle)} \right]^{-1}
\]

\[
= \lim_{p \to -\infty} \left[ \frac{1}{\lim_{p \to \infty} \frac{1}{M_{\phi}(\langle x_n^{-1} \rangle)}} \right]^{-1}
\]

\[
= \frac{1}{\max_{n \in \mathbb{Z}} \langle x_n^{-1} \rangle}
\]

\[
= \min_{n \in \mathbb{Z}} \langle x_n \rangle
\]

(6) Proof that \( \lim_{p \to 0} M_{\phi}(\langle x_n \rangle) = \prod_{n=1}^{N} x_n^{\lambda_n} \):

\[
\lim_{p \to 0} M_{\phi}(\langle x_n \rangle) = \lim_{p \to 0} \exp \left\{ \ln \left\{ M_{\phi}(\langle x_n \rangle) \right\} \right\}
\]

\[
= \lim_{p \to 0} \exp \left\{ \ln \left\{ \left( \sum_{n=1}^{N} \lambda_n x_n^p \right)^{\frac{1}{p}} \right\} \right\}
\]

\text{by definition of } M_{\phi}

\text{[Rudin(1976)] page 85 (4.4 Theorem)}
\[
\frac{\partial}{\partial p} \ln \left( \sum_{n=1}^{N} \lambda_n (x_n^p) \right) = \exp \left\{ \sum_{n=1}^{N} \lambda_n \frac{\partial}{\partial p} \ln (x_n^p) \right\}
\]
by l'Hôpital's rule

\[
\frac{\partial}{\partial p} \frac{1}{\ln \left( \sum_{n=1}^{N} \lambda_n (x_n^p) \right)} = \exp \left\{ \sum_{n=1}^{N} \lambda_n \frac{\partial}{\partial p} \ln (x_n^p) \right\}
\]

\[
\frac{\partial}{\partial p} \ln \left( \prod_{n=1}^{N} x_n^{\lambda_n} \right) = \exp \left\{ \sum_{n=1}^{N} \lambda_n \ln (x_n) \right\}
\]

\[
\frac{\partial}{\partial p} \ln \left( \sum_{n=1}^{N} \lambda_n x_n^{\lambda_n} \right) = \exp \left\{ \sum_{n=1}^{N} \lambda_n \ln (x_n) \right\}
\]

\[
\frac{\partial}{\partial p} \ln \left( \sum_{n=1}^{N} \lambda_n x_n^{\lambda_n} \right) = \exp \left\{ \sum_{n=1}^{N} \lambda_n \ln (x_n) \right\}
\]

Corollary B.8 \[75\] Let \( \langle x_n \rangle_1^N \) be a tuple. Let \( \langle \lambda_n \rangle_1^N \) be a tuple of weighting values such that \( \sum_{n=1}^{N} \lambda_n = 1 \).

\[
\min \langle x_n \rangle \leq \left( \sum_{n=1}^{N} \lambda_n \frac{1}{x_n} \right)^{-1} \leq \prod_{n=1}^{N} x_n^{\lambda_n} \leq \sum_{n=1}^{N} \lambda_n x_n \leq \max \langle x_n \rangle
\]

**Proof:**

\(1\) These five means are all special cases of the power mean \( M_{\phi(x; p)} \) (Definition B.6 page 31):

- \( p = \infty \): max \( \langle x_n \rangle \)
- \( p = 1 \): arithmetic mean
- \( p = 0 \): geometric mean
- \( p = -1 \): harmonic mean
- \( p = -\infty \): min \( \langle x_n \rangle \)

\(2\) The inequalities follow directly from Theorem B.7 (page 31).
(3) Generalized AM-GM inequality: If one is only concerned with the arithmetic mean and geometric mean, their relationship can be established directly using *Jensen’s Inequality*:

\[
\sum_{n=1}^{N} \lambda_n x_n = b \log_b \left( \sum_{n=1}^{N} \lambda_n x_n \right) \\
\geq b \left( \sum_{n=1}^{N} \lambda_n \log_b x_n \right) \quad \text{by Jensen’s Inequality (Theorem B.2 page 30)}
\]

\[
= \prod_{n=1}^{N} b^{(\lambda_n \log_b x_n)} = \prod_{n=1}^{N} b^{(\log_b x_n)} = \prod_{n=1}^{N} x_n^\lambda_n
\]

B.3 Inequalities

**Lemma B.9** (Young’s Inequality) \(^{76}\)

\[\begin{align*}
xy &< \frac{x^p}{p} + \frac{y^q}{q} \quad \text{with } \frac{1}{p} + \frac{1}{q} = 1 \quad \forall 1 < p < \infty, \ x, y \geq 0, \ \text{but } y \neq x^{p-1} \\
x y &= \frac{x^p}{p} + \frac{y^q}{q} \quad \text{with } \frac{1}{p} + \frac{1}{q} = 1 \quad \forall 1 < p < \infty, \ x, y \geq 0, \ \text{and } y = x^{p-1}
\end{align*}\]

**Theorem B.10** (Minkowski’s Inequality for sequences) \(^{77}\) Let \(\langle x_n \in \mathbb{C} \rangle_1^N \) and \(\langle y_n \in \mathbb{C} \rangle_1^N \) be complex \(N\)-tuples.

\[
\left( \sum_{n=1}^{N} |x_n + y_n|^p \right)^\frac{1}{p} \leq \left( \sum_{n=1}^{N} |x_n|^p \right)^\frac{1}{p} + \left( \sum_{n=1}^{N} |y_n|^p \right)^\frac{1}{p} \quad \forall 1 < p < \infty
\]

Appendix C Metric preserving functions

**Definition C.1** \(^{78}\) Let \(\mathbb{M} \) be the set of all *metric spaces* (Definition 4.5 page 16) on a set \(X\). \(\phi \in \mathbb{R}^{+}\) is a **metric preserving function** if \(d(x, y) \triangleq \phi \circ p(x, y)\) is a metric on \(X\) for all \((X, p) \in \mathbb{M}\)

**Theorem C.2** (necessary conditions) \(^{79}\) Let \(\mathcal{R}\phi\) be the range of a function \(\phi\).

\[
\left\{ \begin{array}{l}
\phi \text{ is a METRIC PRESERVING FUNCTION} \\
\{ \text{Definition C.1 page 35} \}
\end{array} \right\} \quad \implies \left\{ \begin{array}{ll}
1. & \phi^{-1}(0) = \{0\} \\
2. & \mathcal{R}\phi \subseteq \mathbb{R}^{+} \\
3. & \phi(x + y) \leq \phi(x) + \phi(y) \quad (\phi \text{ is subadditive})
\end{array} \right\}
\]

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\(^{76}\) [Young(1912)] page 226, [Hardy et al.(1952)](Hardy, Littlewood, and Pólya) (Theorem 24), [Tolsted(1964)] page 5, [Maligranda(1995)] page 257, [Carothers(2000)] page 43

\(^{77}\) [Minkowski(1910)] page 115, [Hardy et al.(1952)](Hardy, Littlewood, and Pólya) (Theorem 24), [Maligranda(1995)] page 258, [Tolsted(1964)] page 7, [Carothers(2000)] page 44, [Bullen(2003)] page 179

\(^{78}\) [Vallin(1999)] page 849 (Definition 1.1), [Carazza(1999)] page 309, [Deza and Deza(2009)] page 80

\(^{79}\) [Corazza(1999)] page 310 (Proposition 2.1), [Deza and Deza(2009)] page 80
Theorem C.3 (sufficient conditions) Let $\phi$ be a function in $\mathbb{R}^\mathbb{R}$.
\[
\begin{cases}
1. \ x \geq y \implies \phi(x) \geq \phi(y) \quad \forall x, y \in \mathbb{R}^+ \quad \text{(ISOTONE)} \\
2. \ \phi(0) = 0 \\
3. \ \phi(x + y) \leq \phi(x) + \phi(y) \quad \forall x, y \in \mathbb{R}^+ \quad \text{(SUBADDITIONAL)}
\end{cases}
\implies \left\{ \begin{array}{l}
\phi \text{ is a METRIC PRESERVING FUNCTION} \\
(\text{Definition C.1 page 35})
\end{array} \right.
\]

Example C.4 ($\alpha$-scaled metric/dilated metric) Let $(X, d)$ be a metric space (Definition 4.5 page 16).
\[
\phi(x) \triangleq \alpha x, \ \alpha \in \mathbb{R}^+ \quad \text{is a metric preserving function (Figure 4 page 36 (A))}
\]

Example C.5 (power transform metric/snowflake transform metric) Let $(X, d)$ be a metric space (Definition 4.5 page 16). \[
\phi(x) \triangleq x^\alpha, \ \alpha \in (0 : 1] \quad \text{is a metric preserving function (see Figure 4 page 36 (B))}
\]

Example C.6 ($\alpha$-truncated metric/radar screen metric) Let $(X, d)$ be a metric space (Definition 4.5 page 16). \[
\phi(x) \triangleq \min \{ \alpha, x \}, \ \alpha \in \mathbb{R}^+ \quad \text{is a metric preserving function (see Figure 4 page 36 (C)).}
\]

Example C.7 (bounded metric) Let $(X, d)$ be a metric space (Definition 4.5 page 16). \[
\phi(x) \triangleq \frac{x}{1 + x} \quad \text{is a metric preserving function (see Figure 4 page 36 (D)).}
\]

Example C.8 (discrete metric preserving function) Let $\phi$ be a function in $\mathbb{R}^\mathbb{R}$. \[
\phi(x) \triangleq \begin{cases} 
0 & \text{for } x \leq 0 \\
1 & \text{otherwise}
\end{cases} \quad \text{is a metric preserving function (see Figure 4 page 36 (E)).}
\]

Example C.9 Let $\phi$ be a function in $\mathbb{R}^\mathbb{R}$. \[
\phi(x) \triangleq \begin{cases} 
\begin{array}{ll}
0 & \text{for } 0 \leq x < 1, \\
1 & \text{for } 1 \leq x \leq 2, \\
x - 1 & \text{for } 2 < x < 3, \\
2 & \text{for } x \geq 3
\end{array}
\end{cases} \quad \text{is a metric preserving function (see Figure 4 page 36 (F)).}
\]
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