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## HYPERBOLIC AND EUCLIDEAN DISTANCE FUNCTIONS\*

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*In memory of  
Nikola Obreshkoff (1896–1963),  
the great Bulgarian mathematician*

This is a functional equations approach to the non-negative functions  $h(x, y)$  and  $e(x, y)$  as defined in formulas (1) and (2). Moreover, all distance functions of  $\mathbb{R}^n$  are characterized, which are invariant under linear and orthogonal mappings (see Theorem 1), and, especially, all functions of this type are determined, which satisfy in addition  $(D_2)$  (see Theorem 2). Here  $(D_2)$  asks for the invariance under euclidean or hyperbolic translations of the  $x_1$ -axis. Finally, additivity on the  $x_1$ -axis is considered, leading to the distance functions  $h$  and  $e$  up to non-negative factors (see Theorem 3).

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1. Let  $n > 1$  be an integer and let  $\mathbb{R}_{\geq 0}$  be the set of all non-negative real numbers. A function

$$d : \mathbb{R}^n \times \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}_{\geq 0}$$

is then called a *distance function* of  $\mathbb{R}_{\geq 0}$ . Especially, we are interested in the *hyperbolic distance function*  $h(x, y)$  satisfying

$$\cosh h(x, y) = \sqrt{1 + x^2} \sqrt{1 + y^2} - xy, \quad (1)$$

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and, moreover, in the *euclidean distance function*  $e(x, y)$  defined by

$$e(x, y) = \sqrt{(x - y)^2}. \quad (2)$$

In formulas (1) and (2)

$$uv = u_1v_1 + u_2v_2 + \cdots + u_nv_n$$

denotes the usual scalar product of the elements

$$u = (u_1, \dots, u_n) \quad \text{and} \quad v = (v_1, \dots, v_n)$$

of  $\mathbb{R}^n$ .

We will say that the distance function  $d$  of  $\mathbb{R}$  is of type  $(D_1)$  if, and only if, it satisfies

$(D_1)$   $d(x, y) = d(\varphi(x), \varphi(y))$  for all  $x, y \in \mathbb{R}^n$  and all linear and orthogonal mappings  $\varphi$  of  $\mathbb{R}^n$ .

Obviously, distance functions  $h$  and  $e$  are of type  $(D_1)$ .

2. It is possible to determine all distance functions  $d$  of  $\mathbb{R}^n$  which are of type  $(D_1)$ . We would like to prove the following

**Theorem 1.** *Define*

$$K := \{(\xi_1, \xi_2, \xi_3) \in \mathbb{R}^3 \mid \xi_1, \xi_2 \in \mathbb{R}_{\geq 0} \text{ and } \xi_3^2 \leq \xi_1\xi_2\}.$$

Suppose that  $f : K \rightarrow \mathbb{R}_{\geq 0}$  is chosen arbitrarily. Then

$$d(x, y) = f(x^2, y^2, xy) \quad (3)$$

is a distance function of  $\mathbb{R}^n$  of type  $(D_1)$ . If, vice versa,  $d$  is a distance function of  $\mathbb{R}^n$  of type  $(D_1)$ , there exists  $f : K \rightarrow \mathbb{R}_{\geq 0}$  such that (3) holds true for all  $x, y \in \mathbb{R}^n$ .

*Proof.* Since  $x^2 = [\varphi(x)]^2$  and  $xy = \varphi(x)\varphi(y)$  for all  $x, y \in \mathbb{R}^n$  and for every linear and orthogonal mapping  $\varphi$  of  $\mathbb{R}^n$  into itself, we get

$$d(x, y) = d(\varphi(x), \varphi(y)).$$

$d$  is hence of type  $(D_1)$ .

Assume now that  $d$  is a distance function of  $\mathbb{R}^n$ . Suppose that

$$(\xi_1, \xi_2, \xi_3)$$

is an element of  $K$  and define

$$e_1 = (1, 0, \dots, 0) \quad \text{and} \quad e_2 = (0, 1, 0, \dots, 0)$$

as elements of  $\mathbb{R}^n$ . Put

$$x_0 = 0 \quad \text{and} \quad y_0 = e_1\sqrt{\xi_2}$$

in the case  $\xi_1 = 0$ . Observe here  $\xi_3 = 0$ , in view of  $\xi_3^2 \leq \xi_1\xi_2$ . Define now

$$f(\xi_1, \xi_2, \xi_3) = d(x_0, y_0).$$

Put  $x_0 = e_1\sqrt{\xi_1}$  and

$$y_0 = \frac{e_1\xi_3 + e_2\sqrt{\xi_1\xi_2 - \xi_3^2}}{\sqrt{\xi_1}}$$

in the case  $\xi_1 > 0$ . Again define

$$f(\xi_1, \xi_2, \xi_3) = d(x_0, y_0).$$

Two things must now be proved. First of all we have to show that the function  $f$  is well-established. But since  $(\xi_1, \xi_2, \xi_3)$  is in  $K$ , there are only these two cases  $\xi_1 = 0$  or  $\xi_1 > 0$ , and in both cases the value under  $f$  is uniquely determined. The second thing we have to prove, is that

$$d(x, y) = f(x^2, y^2, xy)$$

holds true for all  $x, y \in \mathbb{R}^n$ . Let  $x, y$  be elements of  $\mathbb{R}^n$  and put

$$x^2 =: \xi_1, \quad y^2 =: \xi_2, \quad xy =: \xi_3.$$

Because of the Cauchy-Schwarz inequality,  $(\xi_1, \xi_2, \xi_3)$  must be an element of  $K$ . If we are able to prove that, there exists a linear and orthogonal mapping

$$\varphi: \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$$

satisfying

$$\varphi(x_0) = x \quad \text{and} \quad \varphi(y_0) = y,$$

where  $x_0, y_0$  are the already defined elements with respect to  $\xi_i$ , then

$$d(x, y) = d(x_0, y_0) = f(\xi_1, \xi_2, \xi_3) = f(x^2, y^2, xy)$$

holds true and (3) is established. We now make use of the following simple statement: let  $a_1, a_2, a_3, b_1, b_2, b_3$  be points of  $\mathbb{R}^n$ . Then there exists an orthogonal mapping  $\psi$  of  $\mathbb{R}^n$  with

$$\psi(a_i) = b_i \quad \text{for all } i \in \{1, 2, 3\}$$

if, and only if,

$$(a_i - a_j)^2 = (b_i - b_j)^2 \quad (4)$$

is satisfied for all  $i, j \in \{1, 2, 3\}$  with  $i < j$ .

In order to apply this statement, we put

$$a_1 = 0 = b_1$$

and  $a_2 = x_0, a_3 = y_0, b_2 = x, b_3 = y$ . Since the assumptions (4), namely

$$x_0^2 = \xi_1 = x^2, \quad y_0^2 = \xi_2 = y^2$$

and  $(x_0 - y_0)^2 = \xi_1 - 2\xi_3 + \xi_2 = (x - y)^2$  are satisfied,  $\psi$  exists; which is in addition linear in view of

$$\psi(0) = \psi(a_1) = b_1 = 0. \quad \blacksquare$$

In the case of the hyperbolic distance function we apply the branch  $\arg \geq 0$  of the inverse function of  $\cosh$  and we have

$$f(x^2, y^2, xy) = \arg \left( \sqrt{1 + x^2} \sqrt{1 + y^2} - xy \right).$$

In the case of  $e(x, y)$  we get

$$f(x^2, y^2, xy) = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2 - 2xy}.$$

3. We would like to prove the following statement. If  $z \neq 0$  is an element of  $\mathbb{R}^n$ , then there exists a bijection  $\gamma$  of  $\mathbb{R}^n$  with  $\gamma(0) = z$  and

$$h(x, y) = h(\gamma(x), \gamma(y))$$

for all  $x, y \in \mathbb{R}^n$ .

There definitely exists a linear and orthogonal mapping  $\varphi$  with  $\varphi(z) = e_1 \sqrt{z^2}$ . Take now  $t \geq 0$  satisfying

$$\cosh t = \sqrt{1 + z^2}.$$

Then  $\tau(x) := (x_1 \cosh t + \sqrt{1 + x^2} \sinh t, x_2, \dots, x_n)$  must be a bijection of  $\mathbb{R}^n$ , transforming 0 into

$$(\sinh t, 0, \dots, 0) = e_1 \sqrt{z^2}.$$

Now put  $\gamma = \varphi^{-1} \tau$  and observe that

$$h(x, y) = h(\tau(x), \tau(y))$$

holds true for all  $x, y \in \mathbb{R}^n$ .

**Remark.** For more information about the mapping  $\tau$  see the book [5] of the author.

It is well-known that  $\mathbb{R}^n$  is a metric space with respect to the distance function  $e(x, y)$ . We would like to show the following

**Proposition.**  $\mathbb{R}^n$  is a metric space with respect to the distance function  $h(x, y)$ .

*Proof.* Suppose that  $x, y$  are elements of  $\mathbb{R}^n$ . The inequality of Cauchy-Schwarz

$$(xy)^2 \leq x^2 y^2$$

then implies  $(xy)^2 \leq x^2 y^2 + (x - y)^2$ , i.e.

$$(xy)^2 + 2xy + 1 \leq (1 + x^2)(1 + y^2)$$

and hence  $xy + 1 \leq |xy + 1| \leq \sqrt{1 + x^2} \sqrt{1 + y^2}$ . We thus have

$$\sqrt{1 + x^2} \sqrt{1 + y^2} - xy \geq 1,$$

so that (1) determines  $h(xy) \geq 0$  uniquely. In view of (1), obviously,

$$h(x, y) = h(y, x)$$

holds true for all  $x, y \in \mathbb{R}^n$ . Observe, moreover,  $h(x, x) = 0$  for all  $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$ . Suppose now that  $h(x, y) = 0$ . Then (1) implies

$$(xy)^2 = (x - y)^2 + x^2 y^2.$$

If  $x$  were  $\neq y$ , we would have the contradiction

$$(xy)^2 \leq x^2 y^2 < (x - y)^2 + x^2 y^2.$$

In order to prove the triangle inequality

$$h(x, z) \leq h(x, y) + h(y, z), \tag{5}$$

take a bijection  $\gamma$  of  $\mathbb{R}^n$  satisfying  $\gamma(0) = y$  and

$$h(p, q) = h(\gamma(p), \gamma(q)) \tag{6}$$

for all  $p, q \in \mathbb{R}^n$ . Put  $a = \gamma^{-1}(x)$  and  $b = \gamma^{-1}(z)$ . Then we shall prove

$$h(a, b) \leq h(a, 0) + h(0, b), \quad (7)$$

which leads to (5) by applying (6). Now observe

$$-ab \leq |ab| \leq \sqrt{a^2} \sqrt{b^2},$$

i.e.  $\sqrt{1+a^2} \sqrt{1+b^2} - ab \leq \sqrt{1+a^2} \sqrt{1+b^2} + \sqrt{a^2} \sqrt{b^2}$ . Hence

$$\cosh h(a, b) \leq \cosh h(a, 0) \cdot \cosh h(0, b) + \sinh h(a, 0) \cdot \sinh h(0, b)$$

by observing

$$0 \leq \sinh h(a, 0) = \sqrt{\cosh^2 h(a, 0) - 1} = a^2$$

and  $0 \leq \sinh h(0, b) = b^2$ . Thus

$$\cosh h(a, b) \leq \cosh(h(a, 0) + h(0, b)).$$

This implies (7) since  $\cosh t_1 \leq \cosh t_2$  leads to  $t_1 \leq t_2$  for non-negative real numbers  $t_1, t_2$ .

**Remark.** Observe that  $\mathbb{R}^n$  is also a metric space under the rather strange distance function

$$d(x, y) := h(x, y) + e(x, y)$$

(for all  $x, y \in \mathbb{R}^n$ ) which is of type (D<sub>1</sub>) as well.

4. We shall call a distance function  $d(x, y)$  an *euclidean* (or a *hyperbolic*) distance function if it admits all euclidean (or all hyperbolic) motions.

Define for a distance function  $d$  the property (D<sub>2</sub>), as follows:

(D<sub>2</sub>)  $d(x, y) = d(\tau(x), \tau(y))$  for all  $x, y \in \mathbb{R}^n$  and all euclidean (or hyperbolic) translations of the  $x_1$ -axis.

The euclidean translations of the  $x_1$ -axis are the mappings

$$(x_1, \dots, x_n) \rightarrow (x_1 + t, x_2, \dots, x_n)$$

for  $t \in \mathbb{R}$ ; the hyperbolic translations of the same axis are the already defined mappings

$$x \rightarrow (x_1 \cosh t + \sqrt{1+x_1^2} \sinh t, x_2, \dots, x_n). \quad (8)$$

**Theorem 2.** Let  $g$  be a function from  $\mathbb{R}_{\geq 0}$  into  $\mathbb{R}_{\geq 0}$ . Then

$$d(x, y) = g(e(x, y))$$

is an euclidean distance function, and

$$d(x, y) = g(h(x, y))$$

is a hyperbolic distance function. There are no other distance functions satisfying (D<sub>1</sub>) and (D<sub>2</sub>).

*Proof.* a) Let us assume that  $d$  satisfies  $(D_1)$  and  $(D_2)$  with respect to euclidean translations. Then  $d$  admits all congruent mappings of  $\mathbb{R}^n$ , in view of  $(D_1)$  and  $(D_2)$ . Hence

$$d(x, y) = d(x + (-y), y + (-y)) = d(x - y, 0)$$

and thus  $d(x, y) = f((x - y)^2, 0, 0)$  because of Theorem 1. Define

$$g(\xi) := f(\xi^2, 0, 0)$$

for all real  $\xi \geq 0$ . Hence

$$d(x, y) = g\left(\sqrt{(x - y)^2}\right) = g(e(x, y)).$$

b) Suppose that  $d$  is a distance function satisfying  $(D_1)$  and  $(D_2)$  with respect to hyperbolic translations. From

$$(x_1, \dots, x_n) \in \mathbb{R}^n$$

we go over to Weierstrass co-ordinates

$$(x_1, \dots, x_n, \sqrt{1 + x^2}).$$

The mapping (8) then reads

$$\tau(x_1, \dots, x_n, \sqrt{1 + x^2}) = (x_1, \dots, x_n, \sqrt{1 + x^2}) H(t)$$

with the  $(n + 1, n + 1)$ -matrix

$$H(t) = \begin{pmatrix} \cosh t & & & & \sinh t \\ & 1 & & & \\ & & \ddots & & \\ & & & 1 & \\ \sinh t & & & & \cosh t \end{pmatrix}$$

with zeros elsewhere. Let

$$B(p_1, \dots, p_n; k)$$

be an arbitrary Lorentz boost (see [3, Sections 6.10, 6.11]). We hence have  $k \geq 1$ ,

$$\begin{aligned} p_1^2 + \dots + p_n^2 &< 1, \\ k^2(1 - p_1^2 - \dots - p_n^2) &= 1. \end{aligned} \quad (9)$$

Set  $\cosh t := k$ ,  $t \geq 0$ , and

$$(a_{11}, a_{21}, \dots, a_{n1}) := \frac{\cosh t}{\sinh t}(p_1, \dots, p_n)$$

for  $t > 0$ . (For  $t = 0$ , i.e.  $k = 1$ , the matrix  $B$  must be the identity matrix  $E$ , and we are not interested in this case.) Observe

$$a_{11}^2 + \dots + a_{n1}^2 = \frac{k^2}{k^2 - 1} \sum_{i=1}^n p_i^2 = 1$$

from (9). Extend

$$\begin{pmatrix} a_{11} \\ \vdots \\ a_{n1} \end{pmatrix}$$

to an orthogonal matrix

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} a_{11} & \dots & a_{1n} \\ \vdots & & \vdots \\ a_{n1} & \dots & a_{nn} \end{pmatrix}$$

of  $\mathbb{R}^n$ . Define the so-called *induced Lorentz matrix*

$$\hat{A} := \left( \begin{array}{c|c} & \begin{matrix} 0 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \end{matrix} \\ \hline A & \begin{matrix} 0 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{matrix} \\ \hline \begin{matrix} 0 & \dots & 0 \end{matrix} & \end{array} \right)$$

and observe

$$B(p_1, \dots, p_n; k) = \hat{A}H(t)\hat{A}^{-1}.$$

(In the case  $B = E$  we have  $E = EH(0)E^{-1}$ .) Because of A.10.1 (see [3. p. 249]), an arbitrary orthochronous Lorentz matrix of  $\mathbb{R}^{n+1}$  can be written as the product of a Lorentz boost and an induced Lorentz matrix. This implies that the

group  $\overset{(n)}{H}$  of all motions of  $n$ -dimensional hyperbolic geometry (that is the group of all orthochronous Lorentz matrices of  $\mathbb{R}^{n+1}$ , see [4, Sections 2.6 and 5.7]), can be generated by  $H(t)$ ,  $t \in \mathbb{R}$ , and the induced Lorentz matrices, i.e. by linear orthogonal mappings of  $\mathbb{R}^n$  and hyperbolic translations concerning the  $x_1$ -axis. We now would like to define a function

$$g : \mathbb{R}_{\geq 0} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}_{\geq 0}$$

as follows: for  $\xi \geq 0$  set

$$g(\xi) := d(0, e_1 \sinh \xi).$$

We then have to prove

$$d(x, y) = g(h(x, y))$$

for all  $x, y \in \mathbb{R}^n$ . Put  $h(x, y) =: \xi$ . Hence

$$h(x, y) = h(0, e_1 \sinh \xi).$$

Take a linear and orthogonal mapping  $\varphi_1$  of  $\mathbb{R}^n$  that transforms  $x$  in  $e_1\sqrt{x^2}$ , then a  $\tau$  which maps this latter point into 0. With another  $\varphi_2$  we get

$$\varphi_2\tau\varphi_1(x) = 0 \quad \text{and} \quad \varphi_2\tau\varphi_1(y) =: e_1\eta$$

with  $\eta \geq 0$ . Because of

$$\xi = h(x, y) = h(0, e_1\eta),$$

it follows  $\cosh \xi = \cosh h(0, e_1\eta) = \sqrt{1 + \eta^2}$ , i.e.

$$\eta = \sinh \xi.$$

Hence with  $\gamma := \varphi_2 \tau \varphi_1$

$$d(x, y) = d(\gamma(x), \gamma(y)) = d(0, e_1 \sinh \xi) = g(\xi) = g(h(x, y)).$$

With respect to the first part of Theorem 2 we know that  $e$  and  $h$  admit the corresponding mappings mentioned in (D<sub>1</sub>) and (D<sub>2</sub>). But those mappings already generate the automorphism groups of the geometries in question. ■

A distance function  $d$  of  $\mathbb{R}^n$  will be called *additive* on the  $x_1$ -axis if, and only if, the following property holds true:

(D<sub>3</sub>) Let  $\alpha, \beta, \gamma$  be real numbers with  $\alpha \leq \beta \leq \gamma$ . Then

$$d(\alpha e_1, \gamma e_1) = d(\alpha e_1, \beta e_1) + d(\beta e_1, \gamma e_1). \quad (10)$$

**Theorem 3.** Let  $d$  be a distance function of  $\mathbb{R}^n$  satisfying (D<sub>1</sub>), (D<sub>2</sub>), (D<sub>3</sub>). Then

$$d(x, y) = ke(x, y)$$

or

$$d(x, y) = kh(x, y)$$

holds true with a fixed real number  $k \geq 0$ .

*Proof.* a) *Euclidean case.* Taking into account Theorem 5 (see [4, Section 5.1]) we only need to prove that (D<sub>3</sub>) carries over to every euclidean line of  $\mathbb{R}^n$ . Let  $x, z$  be distinct elements of  $\mathbb{R}^n$  and let  $y$  be the element

$$y = \lambda x + (1 - \lambda)z$$

with  $0 \leq \lambda \leq 1$ . We then transform  $x, y, z$  in

$$\alpha e_1, \beta e_1, \gamma e_1$$

with  $\alpha = 0, \beta = (1 - \lambda)e(x, z), \gamma = e(x, z)$ . Now with Theorem 2

$$d(x, y) = g(e(x, y)) = g(e(0, \beta e_1)) = d(0, \beta e_1)$$

and so on. Hence (10) yields

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

Then everything else depends on the solution of the functional equation

$$g(\alpha + \beta) = g(\alpha) + g(\beta)$$

for all  $\alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{R}_{\geq 0}$  (see [1]).

b) *Hyperbolic case.* We have to apply Theorem 9 (Section 2.6 in [4]) and a similar procedure as in part a). ■

**Remarks.** 1) It is possible now to determine all distance functions  $d$  satisfying (D<sub>1</sub>), (D<sub>2</sub>), constituting a metric. By applying Theorem 2 the reader might verify the next statement which we shall formulate for the hyperbolic case. The situation in question is characterized by all functions

$$g : \mathbb{R}_{\geq 0} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}_{\geq 0}$$

satisfying

$$(i) \quad g(\xi) = 0 \iff \xi = 0;$$



(ii) Let  $\alpha, \beta, \gamma$  be real numbers such that there exists a triangle  $xyz$  with  $\alpha = h(x, y), \beta = h(y, z), \gamma = h(z, x)$ , then

$$g(\gamma) \leq g(\alpha) + g(\beta).$$

2) For general information about hyperbolic geometry compare [5–8].

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