

## THE QUASI-HYPERBOLICITY CONSTANT OF A METRIC SPACE

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ABSTRACT. We introduce the *quasi-hyperbolicity constant* of a metric space, a rough isometry invariant that measures how a metric space deviates from being Gromov hyperbolic. This number, for unbounded spaces, lies in the closed interval  $[1, 2]$ . The quasi-hyperbolicity constant of an unbounded Gromov hyperbolic space is equal to one. For a CAT(0)-space, it is bounded from above by  $\sqrt{2}$ . The quasi-hyperbolicity constant of a Banach space that is at least two dimensional is bounded from below by  $\sqrt{2}$ , and for a non-trivial  $L_p$ -space it is exactly  $\max\{2^{1/p}, 2^{1-1/p}\}$ . If  $0 < \alpha < 1$  then the quasi-hyperbolicity constant of the  $\alpha$ -snowflake of any metric space is bounded from above by  $2^\alpha$ . We give an exact calculation in the case of the  $\alpha$ -snowflake of the Euclidean real line.

## 1. INTRODUCTION

Gromov hyperbolic spaces were introduced by Gromov in his seminal paper [Gro87] to study infinite groups as geometric objects. For a metric space  $(X, d)$ , we use the abbreviated notation  $xy = d(x, y)$  where convenient. Recall that for three points  $x, y, w$  in a metric space  $(X, d)$ , the *Gromov product* of  $x$  and  $y$  with respect to  $w$  is defined as

$$(x \mid y)_w = \frac{1}{2}(xw + yw - xy).$$

Given a non-negative constant  $\delta$ , the metric space  $(X, d)$  is said to be  $\delta$ -hyperbolic if

$$(x \mid y)_w \geq \min \{(x \mid z)_w, (y \mid z)_w\} - \delta$$

for all  $x, y, z, w \in X$ . A metric space  $(X, d)$  is said to be *Gromov hyperbolic* if it is  $\delta$ -hyperbolic for some  $\delta$ . Any  $\mathbb{R}$ -tree is 0-hyperbolic. Another well-known example is the hyperbolic plane, which is  $\log(2)$ -hyperbolic, [NŠ16, Corollary 5.4]. Euclidean spaces of dimension greater than one are not Gromov hyperbolic. While Gromov hyperbolicity is a quasi-isometry invariant for *intrinsic* metric spaces [Väi05, Theorems 3.18 and 3.20], quasi-isometry invariance can fail for non-intrinsic spaces, see [Väi05, Remark 3.19] and also our examples in §3. In particular, a metric space that quasi-isometrically embeds into a Gromov hyperbolic space need not be Gromov hyperbolic.

A metric space  $(X, d)$  is  $\delta$ -hyperbolic if and only if the *the four-point inequality* holds, that is, for all  $x, y, z, w \in X$ ,

$$xy + zw \leq \max\{xz + yw, yz + xw\} + 2\delta,$$

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see [Väi05, (2.12)].

We generalize the four-point inequality as follows. Let  $(X, d)$  be a metric space. Let  $\mu, \delta \geq 0$ . We say that a metric space  $(X, d)$  satisfies the  $(\mu, \delta)$ -four-point inequality if for all  $x, y, z, w \in X$ ,

$$xy + zw \leq \mu \max\{xz + yw, xw + yz\} + 2\delta.$$

In particular,  $(X, d)$  is  $\delta$ -hyperbolic if and only if it satisfies the  $(1, \delta)$ -four-point inequality.

We introduce the following numerical constants associated to a metric space.

**Definition** (Quasi-hyperbolicity constants). Let  $(X, d)$  be a metric space.

(i) The *quasi-hyperbolicity constant* of  $(X, d)$  is the number

$$C(X, d) = \inf\{\mu \mid \text{there exists } \delta \geq 0 \text{ such that } (X, d) \text{ satisfies the } (\mu, \delta)\text{-four-point inequality}\}.$$

(ii) The *restricted quasi-hyperbolicity constant* of  $(X, d)$  is the number

$$C_0(X, d) = \inf\{\mu \mid (X, d) \text{ satisfies the } (\mu, 0)\text{-four-point inequality}\}.$$

Some basic properties of the quasi-hyperbolicity and restricted quasi-hyperbolicity constants of a metric space  $(X, d)$  are readily derived, for example:

- $C(X, d) \leq C_0(X, d) \leq 2$ ,
- if  $(X, d)$  is bounded then  $C(X, d) = 0$ , otherwise  $C(X, d) \geq 1$ ,
- if  $(X, d)$  has at least two points then it is 0-hyperbolic if and only if  $C_0(X, d) = 1$ ,
- if  $(X, d)$  is Gromov hyperbolic and unbounded then  $C(X, d) = 1$ .

Proofs of these and more properties are given in §2. In the absence of additional hypotheses, it is not true that  $C(X, d) = 1$  implies  $(X, d)$  is Gromov hyperbolic. For example, given  $0 < \alpha < 1$ , consider the graph,  $Y_\alpha$ , of  $y = x^\alpha$ ,  $x \geq 0$ , as a subspace of the Euclidean plane,  $(\mathbb{R}^2, d_E)$ . We show  $C(Y_\alpha, d_E) = 1$ , Proposition 3.4, however  $Y_\alpha$  is *not* Gromov hyperbolic if and only if  $1/2 < \alpha < 1$ , Propositions 3.1 and 3.3. Nevertheless, if  $(X, d)$  is a proper CAT(0)-space and  $C(X, d) = 1$  then  $(X, d)$  is Gromov hyperbolic, see Proposition 3.8 and Question 3.7.

The appearance of a possibly positive  $\delta$  in a  $(\mu, \delta)$ -four-point inequality suggests that  $C(X, d)$  can be insensitive to small scales. Indeed,  $C(X, d)$  is a rough isometry invariant of  $(X, d)$ , Corollary 2.15. Quasi-isometry is a less stringent condition than rough isometry and  $C(X, d)$  is *not* a quasi-isometry invariant of  $(X, d)$ . Examples of this phenomenon are given in §3.

While the restricted quasi-hyperbolicity constant,  $C_0(X, d)$ , is obviously an isometry invariant it is not a rough isometry invariant; moreover, the constants  $C_0(X, d)$  and  $C(X, d)$  need not coincide. For example, if  $(H^2, d_H)$  is the hyperbolic plane then  $C(H^2, d_H) = 1 < \sqrt{2} = C_0(H^2, d_H)$ , see Example 2.11. The intuition supporting this example is that very small quadrilaterals in  $H^2$  are approximately Euclidean and contribute to  $C_0(H^2, d_H)$  but not to  $C(H^2, d_H)$ . For spaces  $(X, d)$  that are “four-point scalable in the large” (Definition 2.7) we show, Proposition 2.9, that  $C_0(X, d) = C(X, d)$ . Examples of such spaces include Banach spaces and their metric snowflakes.

A CAT(0)-space is a geodesic metric space whose geodesic triangles are not fatter than corresponding comparison triangles in the Euclidean plane. Simply connected, complete Riemannian manifolds of non-positive sectional curvature are familiar examples of CAT(0)-spaces. We show, Theorem 4.2, that the restricted quasi-hyperbolicity constant of a metric space whose distance satisfies Ptolemy's inequality and the quadrilateral inequality, in particular any CAT(0)-space, is bounded from above by  $\sqrt{2}$ . The quasi-hyperbolicity constant of any Euclidean space of dimension greater than one is equal to  $\sqrt{2}$ , Proposition 4.4.

Banach spaces are a particularly important class of metric spaces and their geometric properties have been extensively studied, [JL01]. For a Banach space  $B$  with the metric determined by its norm, we write  $C(B)$  for its quasi-hyperbolicity constant. We observe that  $C(B) \geq J(B)$  where  $J(B)$  is the *James constant* of  $B$ , see (5.7). Strong results for the James constant of a Banach space due to Gao and Lau, [GL90], and to Komuro, Saito and Tanaka, [KST16], lead to the following conclusion about  $C(B)$ .

**Theorem** (Theorem 5.8). If  $B$  is a Banach space with  $\dim B > 1$  then  $C(B) \geq \sqrt{2}$ . If  $\dim B \geq 3$  and  $C(B) = \sqrt{2}$  then  $B$  is a Hilbert space.

Enflo [Enf69] introduced the notion of the *roundness* of a metric space, Definition 5.9, which is a real number greater than or equal to one. We show:

**Theorem** (Theorem 5.11). If  $B$  is a Banach space with roundness  $r(B)$  then  $C(B) \leq 2^{1/r(B)}$ .

This estimate allows us to calculate the quasi-hyperbolicity constant of a non-trivial  $L_p$ -space.

**Corollary** (Corollary 5.12). For a separable measure space  $(\Omega, \Sigma, \mu)$  and  $1 \leq p \leq \infty$ , let  $L_p(\Omega, \Sigma, \mu)$  be the corresponding  $L_p$ -space. If  $\dim L_p(\Omega, \Sigma, \mu) \geq 2$  then  $C(L_p(\Omega, \Sigma, \mu)) = \max\{2^{1/p}, 2^{1-1/p}\}$ .

If  $(X, d)$  is any metric space and  $0 < \alpha < 1$  then  $(X, d^\alpha)$  is also a metric space, called the  $\alpha$ -*snowflake* of  $(X, d)$ . We show, Theorem 6.2, that  $C_0(X, d^\alpha) \leq 2^\alpha$ . Applying this estimate, we calculate, Proposition 6.3, the quasi-hyperbolicity constant of the  $\alpha$ -snowflake of  $(\mathbb{R}^n, d_\infty)$ , where  $d_\infty$  is the  $L_\infty$ -metric (“max metric”) on  $\mathbb{R}^n$ : For  $n \geq 2$ ,  $C(\mathbb{R}^n, d_\infty^\alpha) = 2^\alpha$ . The quasi-hyperbolicity constant of the  $\alpha$ -snowflake of the Euclidean line  $(\mathbb{R}^1, d_E)$  can be determined by solving an associated optimization problem, yielding the following calculation.

**Theorem** (Theorem 6.6). Let  $0 < \alpha \leq 1$ . Let  $m \geq 1$  be the unique solution to the equation  $(m-1)^\alpha + (m+1)^\alpha = 2$ . Then  $C(\mathbb{R}^1, d_E^\alpha) = m^\alpha$ .

## 2. QUASI-HYPERBOLICITY AND RESTRICTED QUASI-HYPERBOLICITY CONSTANTS

We derive basic properties of the quasi-hyperbolicity constant and the restricted quasi-hyperbolicity constant of a metric space and examine their general behavior with regard to quasi-isometric embedding and, respectively, bilipschitz embedding.

Recall the following definition from the introduction.

**Definition 2.1.** Let  $\mu, \delta \geq 0$ . We say that a metric space  $(X, d)$  satisfies the  $(\mu, \delta)$ -four-point inequality if for all  $x, y, z, w \in X$ ,

$$xy + zw \leq \mu \max\{xz + yw, xw + yz\} + 2\delta.$$

We make the following elementary observation concerning this definition.

**Proposition 2.2.** Let  $(X, d)$  be a metric space.

- (i)  $(X, d)$  satisfies the  $(2, 0)$ -four-point inequality,
- (ii) If  $(X, d)$  is unbounded and satisfies the  $(\mu, \delta)$ -four-point inequality then  $\mu \geq 1$ .
- (iii) If  $(X, d)$  is bounded with diameter  $D$  then it satisfies the  $(0, D)$ -four-point inequality.

*Proof.* (i). Let  $x, y, z, w \in X$ . Triangle inequality and symmetry of the metric yield:

$$xy \leq xz + yz, \quad xy \leq xw + yw, \quad zw \leq xz + xw, \quad zw \leq yz + yw.$$

Adding these four inequalities and dividing by 2 gives  $xy + zw \leq (xz + yw) + (xw + zw)$ . For real numbers  $a, b$  we have  $a + b \leq 2 \max\{a, b\}$  and so  $xy + zw \leq 2 \max\{xz + yw, xw + zw\}$ , that is, the  $(2, 0)$ -four-point inequality is satisfied.

(ii). Assume that  $X$  is unbounded and satisfies the  $(\mu, \delta)$ -four-point inequality. Let  $\{x_n\}$  and  $\{y_n\}$  be sequences in  $X$  such that  $x_n y_n \rightarrow \infty$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ . By the  $(\mu, \delta)$ -four-point inequality, with  $x = x_n$  and  $y = z = w = y_n$ , we have  $x_n y_n \leq \mu x_n y_n + 2\delta$ . Dividing by  $x_n y_n$  and taking the limit as  $n \rightarrow \infty$  yields  $1 \leq \mu$ .

Property (iii) is obvious. □

Given points  $x, y, z, w \in X$ , not all identical, define

$$(2.3) \quad \Delta(x, y, z, w) = \frac{xy + zw}{\max\{xz + yw, xw + yz\}}.$$

In the introduction, we defined the restricted quasi-hyperbolicity constant of  $(X, d)$  by

$$C_0(X, d) = \inf\{\mu \mid (X, d) \text{ satisfies the } (\mu, 0)\text{-four-point inequality}\}.$$

If  $X$  has at least two points then

$$(2.4) \quad C_0(X, d) = \sup \Delta(x, y, z, w)$$

where the supremum is taken over all  $x, y, z, w \in X$ , not all identical.

We also defined the quasi-hyperbolicity constant of  $(X, d)$  by

$$C(X, d) = \inf\{\mu \mid \text{there exists } \delta \geq 0 \text{ such that } (X, d) \text{ satisfies the } (\mu, \delta)\text{-four-point inequality}\}.$$

The quasi-hyperbolicity constant and the restricted quasi-hyperbolicity constant have the following elementary properties.

**Proposition 2.5.** Let  $(X, d)$  be a metric space.

- (i) If  $A \subset X$  and  $d_A$  is the subspace metric then  $C(A, d_A) \leq C(X, d)$  and  $C_0(A, d_A) \leq C_0(X, d)$ .
- (ii) If  $\lambda > 0$  then  $C(X, \lambda d) = C(X, d)$  and  $C_0(X, \lambda d) = C_0(X, d)$ .

- (iii)  $C(X, d) \leq C_0(X, d) \leq 2$ .
- (iv) If  $(X, d)$  is unbounded then  $1 \leq C(X, d)$ .
- (v) If  $(X, d)$  is bounded then  $C(X, d) = 0$ .
- (vi) If  $(X, d)$  has at least two distinct points then  $C_0(X, d) \geq 1$ .
- (vii) If  $(X', d')$  is a metric completion of  $(X, d)$  then  $C(X, d) = C(X', d')$  and  $C_0(X, d) = C_0(X', d')$ .

*Proof.* Property (i) and the inequality  $C(X, d) \leq C_0(X, d)$  are clear from the definitions of  $C(X, d)$  and  $C_0(X, d)$ . Note that for  $\lambda > 0$ ,  $(X, d)$  satisfies the  $(\mu, \delta)$ -four-point inequality if and only if  $(X, \lambda d)$  satisfies the  $(\mu, \lambda\delta)$ -four-point inequality. This implies (ii). The inequality  $C_0(X, d) \leq 2$  in (iii) is a consequence of Proposition 2.2(i); (iv) follows from Proposition 2.2(ii); and (v) follows from Proposition 2.2(iii). If  $x_0, y_0$  are distinct points in  $X$  then  $\Delta(x_0, y_0, y_0, y_0) = 1$ , see (2.3), and so  $C_0(X, d) \geq 1$  by (2.4). It is straightforward that a metric space  $(X, d)$  satisfies the  $(\mu, \delta)$ -four-point inequality if and only if a metric completion of  $(X, d)$  satisfies the  $(\mu, \delta)$ -four-point inequality. This implies (vii).  $\square$

**Proposition 2.6.** *Let  $(X, d)$  be a metric space.*

- (i) If  $(X, d)$  unbounded and Gromov hyperbolic then  $C(X, d) = 1$ .
- (ii) If  $(X, d)$  has at least two points then it is 0-hyperbolic if and only if  $C_0(X, d) = 1$ .

*Proof.* (i). By Proposition 2.5(iv),  $C(X, d) \geq 1$ . Since, by definition, a Gromov hyperbolic space satisfies a  $(1, \delta)$ -four-point inequality for some  $\delta \geq 0$  we have  $C(X, d) \leq 1$ . Hence  $C(X, d) = 1$ .  
(ii). If  $(X, d)$  is 0-hyperbolic then it satisfies the  $(1, 0)$ -four-point inequality and so  $C_0(X, d) \leq 1$ . By Proposition 2.5(vi),  $C_0(X, d) \geq 1$ . Hence  $C_0(X, d) = 1$ . If  $C_0(X, d) = 1$  then for every  $x, y, z, w \in X$ , not all identical,  $\Delta(x, y, z, w) \leq 1$  and so  $(X, d)$  satisfies the  $(1, 0)$ -four-point inequality, that is,  $(X, d)$  is 0-hyperbolic.  $\square$

Without additional hypotheses, the converse of Proposition 2.6(i) need not be true, in §3.2 we give examples of unbounded metric spaces with  $C(X, d) = 1$  that are not Gromov hyperbolic (also see Question 3.7 and Proposition 3.8).

**Definition 2.7.** We say that a metric space  $(X, d)$  is *four-point scalable in the large* if for every  $x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4 \in X$  and for every  $\lambda \geq 0$  there exists  $x'_1, x'_2, x'_3, x'_4 \in X$  and  $\Lambda \geq \lambda$  such that  $d(x'_i, x'_j) = \Lambda d(x_i, x_j)$  for  $1 \leq i, j \leq 4$ .

**Example 2.8.** Let  $V$  be a real vector space with a given norm  $\|\cdot\|$ . The norm determines a metric on  $V$  given by  $d(x, y) = \|x - y\|$ . For any  $0 < \alpha \leq 1$  the function  $d^\alpha$  is also metric on  $V$ . The metric space  $(V, d^\alpha)$  is called the  $\alpha$ -snowflake of  $(V, d)$ . Note that  $d^\alpha(\lambda x, \lambda y) = \lambda^\alpha d^\alpha(x, y)$  for any  $\lambda > 0$  from which it easily follows that  $(V, d^\alpha)$  is four-point scalable in the large. Let  $S \subset V$  be a nonempty subset such that  $\lambda x \in S$  for all  $\lambda > 0$  and all  $x \in S$ . Then  $S$ , viewed as a metric subspace of  $(V, d^\alpha)$ , is also four-point scalable in the large.

**Proposition 2.9.** *If  $(X, d)$  is four-point scalable in the large then  $C(X, d) = C_0(X, d)$ .*

*Proof.* It suffices to show that if  $(X, d)$  satisfies the  $(\mu, \delta)$ -four-point inequality for a particular  $(\mu, \delta)$  then it also satisfies the  $(\mu, 0)$ -four-point inequality. Assume that  $(X, d)$  satisfies the  $(\mu, \delta)$ -four-point inequality for some  $\mu \geq 1$  and  $\delta \geq 0$ . Let  $x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4 \in X$ . For each  $\lambda \geq 0$ , let  $\Lambda \geq \lambda$  and  $x'_i \in X$  be such that  $x'_i x'_j = \Lambda x_i x_j$ ,  $1 \leq i, j \leq 4$ . Note that the  $(\mu, \delta)$ -four-point inequality for the points  $\{x'_i\}$  implies the  $(\mu, \delta/\Lambda)$ -four-point inequality for  $\{x_i\}$ . Since  $\Lambda$  can be chosen to be arbitrarily large, it follows that  $\{x_i\}$  satisfies the  $(\mu, 0)$ -four-point inequality.  $\square$

**Corollary 2.10.** *Let  $V$  be a real vector space with a given norm  $\|\cdot\|$  and corresponding metric,  $d(x, y) = \|x - y\|$ . Let  $S \subset V$  be a nonempty subset such that  $\lambda x \in S$  for all  $\lambda > 0$  and all  $x \in S$ . Then for all  $0 < \alpha \leq 1$ ,  $C(S, d^\alpha) = C_0(S, d^\alpha)$ .*

*Proof.* From Example 2.8,  $(S, d^\alpha)$  is four-point scalar in the large and so the conclusion follows from Proposition 2.9.  $\square$

**Example 2.11** (Hyperbolic space). Let  $n > 1$  be an integer and let  $(H^n, d_H)$  denote  $n$ -dimensional real hyperbolic space. For this space,  $C(H^n, d_H) = 1 < \sqrt{2} = C_0(H^n, d_H)$  and so Proposition 2.9 implies  $(H^n, d_H)$  is *not* four-point scalable in the large. The space  $(H^n, d_H)$  is Gromov hyperbolic and unbounded, hence  $C(H^n, d_H) = 1$  by Proposition 2.6(i). Since  $H^n$  has negative sectional curvature as a Riemannian manifold,  $C_0(H^n, d_H) = \sqrt{2}$  by Corollary 7.3.

**Definition 2.12.** Let  $C_1, C_2 > 0$  and  $L_1, L_2 \geq 0$ . A map  $f: X \rightarrow Y$  between metric spaces  $(X, d_X)$  and  $(Y, d_Y)$  is a  $((C_1, L_1), (C_2, L_2))$ -quasi-isometric embedding if for all  $u, v \in X$ ,

$$C_1 d_X(u, v) - L_1 \leq d_Y(f(u), f(v)) \leq C_2 d_X(u, v) + L_2.$$

Some useful special cases of this definition include:

- (i) A  $((C_1, 0), (C_2, 0))$ -quasi-isometric embedding  $f: X \rightarrow Y$  is also known as a  $(C_1, C_2)$ -bilipschitz embedding.
- (ii) A  $((1, k), (1, k))$ -quasi-isometric embedding  $f: X \rightarrow Y$  is also known as a  $k$ -rough isometric embedding. This condition is equivalent to: for all  $u, v \in X$ ,  $|d_Y(f(u), f(v)) - d_X(u, v)| \leq k$ .

**Lemma 2.13.** *If  $f: X \rightarrow Y$  is a  $((C_1, L_1), (C_2, L_2))$ -quasi-isometric embedding between metric spaces and  $(Y, d_Y)$  satisfies the  $(\mu, \delta)$ -four-point inequality for some  $(\mu, \delta)$  then  $(X, d_X)$  satisfies the  $\left(\frac{C_2}{C_1}\mu, \frac{1}{C_1}(\mu L_2 + L_1 + \delta)\right)$ -four-point inequality.*

*Proof.* Let  $x, y, z, w \in X$  and let  $\bar{x}, \bar{y}, \bar{z}, \bar{w} \in Y$  be their respective images under  $f: X \rightarrow Y$ . Then

$$\begin{aligned} d_X(x, y) + d_X(z, w) &\leq \frac{1}{C_1} (d_Y(\bar{x}, \bar{y}) + d_Y(\bar{z}, \bar{w})) + \frac{2L_1}{C_1} \\ &\leq \frac{1}{C_1} (\mu \max \{d_Y(\bar{x}, \bar{z}) + d_Y(\bar{y}, \bar{w}), d_Y(\bar{x}, \bar{w}) + d_Y(\bar{y}, \bar{z})\} + 2\delta) + \frac{2L_1}{C_1} \\ &\leq \frac{1}{C_1} \mu \max \{C_2(d_X(x, z) + d_X(y, w)) + 2L_2, C_2(d_X(x, w) + d_X(y, z)) + 2L_2\} + \frac{2\delta}{C_1} + \frac{2L_1}{C_1} \\ &= \frac{C_2}{C_1} \mu \max \{d_X(x, z) + d_X(y, w), d_X(x, w) + d_X(y, z)\} + \frac{2\mu L_2}{C_1} + \frac{2\delta}{C_1} + \frac{2L_1}{C_1} \end{aligned}$$

which shows that  $(X, d)$  satisfies the  $\left(\frac{C_2}{C_1}\mu, \frac{1}{C_1}(\mu L_2 + L_1 + \delta)\right)$ -four-point inequality.  $\square$

Lemma 2.13 has the following immediate consequence.

**Proposition 2.14.** *Let  $f: X \rightarrow Y$  be a map between metric spaces  $(X, d_X)$  and  $(Y, d_Y)$ .*

- (i) *If  $f$  is a  $((C_1, L_1), (C_2, L_2))$ -quasi-isometric embedding then  $C(X, d_X) \leq (C_2/C_1) C(Y, d_Y)$ .*
- (ii) *If  $f$  is a  $(C_1, C_2)$ -bilipschitz embedding then  $C_0(X, d_X) \leq (C_2/C_1) C_0(Y, d_Y)$ .*  $\square$

A map  $f: X \rightarrow Y$  between metric spaces  $(X, d_X)$  and  $(Y, d_Y)$  is a *rough isometry* if it is a  $k$ -rough isometric embedding for some  $k \geq 0$  and there exists  $R > 0$  such that  $f(X)$  is  $R$ -dense in  $Y$ , that is, for every  $y \in Y$  there exists  $x \in X$  such that  $d_Y(f(x), y) < R$ . Two metric spaces are *roughly isometric* if there exists a rough isometry between them. Note that rough isometry is a generally a stronger condition than *quasi-isometry*. Recall that  $f$  is a quasi-isometry if it is a  $((C_1, L_1), (C_2, L_2))$ -quasi-isometric embedding for some  $(C_1, L_1), (C_2, L_2)$  and also  $f(X)$  is  $R$ -dense for some  $R$ .

**Corollary 2.15.** *If  $(X, d_X)$  and  $(Y, d_Y)$  are roughly isometric then  $C(X, d_X) = C(Y, d_Y)$ .*

*Proof.* Since  $(X, d_X)$  and  $(Y, d_Y)$  are assumed to be roughly isometric, there exists  $k \geq 0$  and  $R > 0$  and a  $k$ -rough isometric embedding  $f: X \rightarrow Y$  such that  $f(X)$  is  $R$ -dense in  $Y$ . By Proposition 2.14(i),  $C(X, d_X) \leq C(Y, d_Y)$ . Define  $g: Y \rightarrow X$  as follows. For each  $y \in Y$  we can choose  $x \in X$  such that  $d_Y(f(x), y) < R$  and declare  $g(y) = x$ . Observe that for all  $y \in Y$ ,  $d_Y(f(g(y)), y) < R$ . For all  $u, v \in Y$ ,  $|d_Y(f(g(u)), f(g(v))) - d_X(g(u), g(v))| \leq k$ . Hence, for all  $u, v \in Y$ ,  $|d_Y(u, v) - d_X(g(u), g(v))| \leq k + 2R$  and so  $g$  is a  $(k + 2R)$ -rough embedding. By Proposition 2.14(i),  $C(Y, d_Y) \leq C(X, d_X)$ . It follows that  $C(X, d_X) = C(Y, d_Y)$ .  $\square$

### 3. TWO FAMILIES OF EXAMPLES

In §3.1, we exhibit spaces that are quasi-isometric to the Euclidean line yet with quasi-hyperbolicity constants that are greater than one and, consequently, are not Gromov hyperbolic. In §3.2, we give examples of metric spaces whose quasi-hyperbolicity constants are equal to one, yet are not Gromov hyperbolic. However, these are examples are not roughly geodesic. We show, using Bridson's "Flat Plane Theorem", that a proper CAT(0)-space whose quasi-hyperbolicity constant is equal to one is necessarily Gromov hyperbolic, see Proposition 3.8.

### 3.1. The graph of $y = m|x|$ in the Euclidean plane.

Let  $m \geq 0$ . Consider the space  $X_m = \{(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2 \mid y = m|x|\}$  as a subspace of the Euclidean plane. The metric on  $X_m$  is given by

$$d_E((u, m|u|), (v, m|v|)) = [(u - v)^2 + m^2(|u| - |v|)^2]^{1/2}.$$

Let  $(\mathbb{R}, d_E)$  be the Euclidean line,  $d_E(u, v) = |u - v|$ . Let  $p: X_m \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  be projection to the first coordinate, that is,  $p(x, y) = x$ . For  $u, v \in \mathbb{R}$ ,  $||u| - |v|| \leq |u - v|$ , and so, for  $u \neq v$ ,

$$[(u - v)^2 + m^2(|u| - |v|)^2]^{1/2} = |u - v| \left[ 1 + m^2 \left( \frac{|u| - |v|}{u - v} \right)^2 \right]^{1/2} \leq (m^2 + 1)^{1/2} |u - v|,$$

and thus for all  $u, v$

$$(m^2 + 1)^{-1/2} d_E((u, m|u|), (v, m|v|)) \leq |u - v| \leq d_E((u, m|u|), (v, m|v|)).$$

Hence  $p$  is a  $((m^2 + 1)^{-1/2}, 1)$ -bilipschitz embedding of  $X_m$  into  $\mathbb{R}$ . Since  $p$  is surjective, it is also a bilipschitz homeomorphism. In particular,  $(X_m, d_E)$  and  $(\mathbb{R}, d_E)$  are quasi-isometric.

Note that, since  $(\mathbb{R}, d_E)$  is 0-hyperbolic, we have  $C(\mathbb{R}, d_E) = C_0(\mathbb{R}, d_E) = 1$  by Proposition 2.6.

For  $m > 0$ , let  $\mu_m = \frac{\sqrt{m^2+1}+1}{\sqrt{m^2+1}-1}$ . A straightforward calculation yields

$$\Delta((- \mu_m, \mu_m m), (1, m), (-1, m), (\mu_m, \mu_m m)) = (2 - (m^2 + 1)^{-1})^{1/2}$$

and so  $C_0(X_m, d_E) \geq (2 - (m^2 + 1)^{-1})^{1/2}$ . Note that if  $(x, y) \in X_m$  and  $\lambda > 0$  then  $\lambda(x, y) \in X_m$  and so Corollary 2.10 gives  $C_0(X_m, d_E) = C(X_m, d_E)$ . Hence  $C(X_m, d_E) \geq (2 - (m^2 + 1)^{-1})^{1/2} > 1$  for  $m > 0$ . It follows from Proposition 2.6(i) that  $(X_m, d_E)$  is not Gromov hyperbolic when  $m > 0$ . Combining Propositions 2.14 and 4.3 yields the non-sharp upper bound:

$$C(X_m, d_E) \leq \min \left\{ \sqrt{2}, (m^2 + 1)^{1/2} \right\}.$$

However, numerical calculations strongly suggest that the configuration  $(-\mu_m, \mu_m m), (1, m), (-1, m), (\mu_m, \mu_m m)$  of four points in  $X_m$  is optimal, that is,  $C(X_m, d_E) = (2 - (m^2 + 1)^{-1})^{1/2}$  for all  $m > 0$ .

### 3.2. The graph of $y = x^\alpha$ , where $0 < \alpha < 1$ , in the Euclidean plane.

For  $0 < \alpha < 1$ , let  $d_\alpha$  be the metric on the half-line,  $[0, \infty)$ , given by

$$d_\alpha(x, y) = ((x - y)^2 + (x^\alpha - y^\alpha)^2)^{1/2}.$$

Let  $Y_\alpha = \{(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2 \mid y = x^\alpha, x \geq 0\}$  as a subspace of the Euclidean plane. Projection to the first coordinate,  $(x, y) \mapsto x$ , gives an isometry  $(Y_\alpha, d_E) \rightarrow ([0, \infty), d_\alpha)$ . The metric behavior of  $([0, \infty), d_\alpha)$  separates into two distinct cases, namely  $0 < \alpha \leq 1/2$  and  $1/2 < \alpha < 1$ .

**Proposition 3.1.** *If  $0 < \alpha \leq 1/2$  then for all  $x, y \geq 0$ ,  $0 \leq d_\alpha(x, y) - |x - y| \leq 1$ . Consequently, for  $0 < \alpha \leq 1/2$ ,  $([0, \infty), d_\alpha)$  is roughly isometric to the Euclidean half-line and is thus Gromov hyperbolic.*

*Proof.* We first show that if  $0 < \alpha \leq 1/2$  then for  $u \geq 0$ ,  $(u^2 + u^{2\alpha})^{1/2} - u \leq 1$ . If  $u \leq 1$  then

$$(u^2 + u^{2\alpha})^{1/2} - u \leq (u + u^\alpha) - u = u^\alpha \leq 1.$$

If  $u \geq 1$  and  $\alpha \leq 1/2$  then  $u^{2\alpha} \leq u$  and

$$(u^2 + u^{2\alpha})^{1/2} - u = \frac{u^{2\alpha}}{(u^2 + u^{2\alpha})^{1/2} + u} \leq \frac{u}{(u^2 + u^{2\alpha})^{1/2} + u} \leq 1.$$

For  $0 < \alpha < 1$  and  $x, y \geq 0$ ,  $|x^\alpha - y^\alpha| \leq |x - y|^\alpha$ . Hence for  $0 < \alpha \leq 1/2$  and  $x, y \geq 0$ , and using the inequality  $(u^2 + u^{2\alpha})^{1/2} - u \leq 1$  with  $u = |x - y|$ , we have

$$0 \leq ((x - y)^2 + (x^\alpha - y^\alpha)^2)^{1/2} - |x - y| \leq (|x - y|^2 + |x - y|^{2\alpha})^{1/2} - |x - y| \leq 1,$$

establishing the conclusion of the Proposition.  $\square$

In [BH99, 1.23 Exercise, p.412] it is asserted that  $([0, \infty), d_{1/2})$  is not Gromov hyperbolic. This is not accurate as demonstrated by Proposition 3.1, however, we show in Proposition 3.3 that  $([0, \infty), d_\alpha)$  is not Gromov hyperbolic if  $1/2 < \alpha < 1$ .

**Lemma 3.2.** *Let  $f(\alpha) = 2^{2\alpha-2} + \frac{1}{6}(1 - 2^{2\alpha})^2 - \frac{1}{2}(1 - 2^\alpha)^2 - 2^{4\alpha-3}$ . If  $0 < \alpha < 1$  then  $f(\alpha) > 0$  and*

$$\lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} (d_\alpha(t, 4t) + d_\alpha(0, 2t) - d_\alpha(t, 2t) - d_\alpha(0, 4t)) / t^{2\alpha-1} = f(\alpha).$$

*Proof.* Consider the polynomial  $g(x) = \frac{1}{24}x^4 - \frac{7}{12}x^2 + x - \frac{1}{3} = \frac{1}{24}(x - 2)^2(x^2 + 4x - 2)$ . Using the factored expression for  $g(x)$ , we see that  $g(x) > 0$  for  $1 < x < 2$ . Note that  $f(\alpha) = g(2^\alpha)$ . Hence  $f(\alpha) > 0$  for  $0 < \alpha < 1$ . For  $s \geq 0$ , let

$$h(s) = (3^2 + (1 - 4^\alpha)^2 s)^{1/2} + (2^2 + 2^{2\alpha} s)^{1/2} - (1 + (1 - 2^\alpha)^2 s)^{1/2} - (4^2 + 4^{2\alpha} s)^{1/2}.$$

A straightforward calculation reveals that, for  $t > 0$ ,

$$\theta(t) = (d_\alpha(t, 4t) + d_\alpha(0, 2t) - d_\alpha(t, 2t) - d_\alpha(0, 4t)) / t^{2\alpha-1} = h(t^{2\alpha-2}) / t^{2\alpha-2}.$$

Since  $2\alpha - 2 < 0$ ,  $\lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} t^{2\alpha-2} = 0$  and so

$$\lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} \theta(t) = \lim_{s \rightarrow 0} \frac{h(s)}{s} = h'(0) = f(\alpha)$$

yielding the conclusion of the Lemma.  $\square$

**Proposition 3.3.** *If  $1/2 < \alpha < 1$  then  $([0, \infty), d_\alpha)$  is not Gromov hyperbolic.*

*Proof.* For  $x, y, z, w \in [0, \infty)$  and  $0 < \alpha < 1$ , let

$$\text{Gr}_\alpha(x, y, z, w) = d_\alpha(x, y) + d_\alpha(z, w) - \max \{d_\alpha(x, z) + d_\alpha(y, w), d_\alpha(x, w) + d_\alpha(y, z)\}.$$

Note that  $([0, \infty), d_\alpha)$  is not Gromov hyperbolic if and only if  $\sup_{x, y, z, w} \text{Gr}_\alpha(x, y, z, w) = \infty$ .

For  $t > 0$ , let

$$h(t) = \frac{d_\alpha(t, 2t) + d_\alpha(0, 4t)}{d_\alpha(0, t) + d_\alpha(2t, 4t)} = \frac{(1 + (1 - 2^\alpha)^2 t^{2\alpha-2})^{1/2} + (4^2 + 4^{2\alpha} t^{2\alpha-2})^{1/2}}{(1 + t^{2\alpha-2})^{1/2} + (2^2 + (2^\alpha - 4^\alpha)^2 t^{2\alpha-2})^{1/2}}.$$

Since  $2\alpha - 2 < 0$ ,  $\lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} t^{2\alpha-2} = 0$  and so the above expression for  $h(t)$  yields  $\lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} h(t) = 5/3$ . Hence  $d_\alpha(t, 2t) + d_\alpha(0, 4t) > d_\alpha(0, t) + d_\alpha(2t, 4t)$  for sufficiently large  $t$  which implies that  $\text{Gr}_\alpha(t, 4t, 0, 2t) = d_\alpha(t, 4t) + d_\alpha(0, 2t) - d_\alpha(t, 2t) - d_\alpha(0, 4t)$  for sufficiently large  $t$ . If  $1/2 < \alpha < 1$  then  $2\alpha - 1 > 0$  and so Lemma 3.2 implies that  $\lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} \text{Gr}_\alpha(t, 4t, 0, 2t) = \infty$ .  $\square$

**Proposition 3.4.** *If  $0 < \alpha < 1$  then  $C([0, \infty), d_\alpha) = 1$ .*

*Proof.* Let  $L > 0$ . If  $x, y \geq 0$  and  $|x - y| \geq L$  then

$$\frac{|x^\alpha - y^\alpha|}{|x - y|} \leq \frac{|x - y|^\alpha}{|x - y|} = |x - y|^{\alpha-1} \leq L^{\alpha-1},$$

and so for  $|x - y| \geq L$ ,

$$d_\alpha(x, y) \leq \left( |x - y|^2 + (L^{\alpha-1}|x - y|)^2 \right)^{1/2} \leq (1 + L^{2\alpha-2})^{1/2} |x - y|.$$

If  $x, y \geq 0$  and  $|x - y| \leq L$  then

$$d_\alpha(x, y) \leq \left( |x - y|^2 + |x - y|^{2\alpha} \right)^{1/2} \leq (L^2 + L^{2\alpha})^{1/2} = L (1 + L^{2\alpha-2})^{1/2}.$$

It follows that for all  $x, y \geq 0$

$$(3.5) \quad |x - y| \leq d_\alpha(x, y) \leq (1 + L^{2\alpha-2})^{1/2} |x - y| + L (1 + L^{2\alpha-2})^{1/2}.$$

Let  $d_E(x, y) = |x - y|$ , the Euclidean metric on  $[0, \infty)$ . By Proposition 2.6(i),  $C([0, \infty), d_E) = 1$ . Proposition 2.14(i) and (3.5) imply that  $C([0, \infty), d_\alpha) \leq (1 + L^{2\alpha-2})^{1/2}$ . Since  $2\alpha - 2 < 0$ , we have that  $\lim_{L \rightarrow \infty} (1 + L^{2\alpha-2})^{1/2} = 1$ . Hence  $C([0, \infty), d_\alpha) \leq 1$ . Furthermore, by Proposition 2.5(iv),  $C([0, \infty), d_\alpha) \geq 1$  and so  $C([0, \infty), d_\alpha) = 1$ .  $\square$

**Remark 3.6.** It follows from the inequality (3.5) that the identity map  $([0, \infty), d_E) \rightarrow ([0, \infty), d_\alpha)$  is a quasi-isometry. In this inequality, there is a trade-off between the ‘‘distortion’’,  $(1 + L^{2\alpha-2})^{1/2}$ , and the ‘‘roughness’’,  $L (1 + L^{2\alpha-2})^{1/2}$ , that is, an attempt to adjust the parameter  $L$  to make the distortion small (close to 1) makes the roughness large and vice versa.

We showed that for  $1/2 < \alpha < 1$  the space  $([0, \infty), d_\alpha)$  is not Gromov hyperbolic but, nevertheless,  $C([0, \infty), d_\alpha) = 1$ .

**Question 3.7.** Assume that  $(X, d)$  is a geodesic metric space or, more generally, roughly geodesic. Does  $C(X, d) = 1$  imply that  $(X, d)$  is Gromov hyperbolic?

For  $1/2 < \alpha < 1$ , the space  $([0, \infty), d_\alpha)$  is not roughly geodesic and so does not provide a negative answer to this question. Some evidence in favor of an affirmative answer to Question 3.7 is given by the following result (see §4 for a discussion of CAT(0)-spaces).

**Proposition 3.8.** *Let  $(X, d)$  be a proper CAT(0)-space. If  $C(X, d) = 1$  then  $(X, d)$  is Gromov hyperbolic.*

*Proof.* Assume the proper  $\text{CAT}(0)$ -space  $(X, d)$  is not Gromov hyperbolic. Bridson's *Flat Plane Theorem*, [Bri95, Theorem A], asserts that there exists an isometric embedding of a Euclidean plane,  $(V, d_E)$ , into  $X$ . Hence  $C(V, d_E) \leq C(X, d)$ . By Proposition 4.4,  $C(V, d_E) = \sqrt{2}$  and so  $C(X, d) \geq \sqrt{2}$ . In particular,  $C(X, d) \neq 1$ .  $\square$

#### 4. THE PTOLEMY AND QUADRILATERAL INEQUALITIES, $\text{CAT}(0)$ -SPACES

The notion of a  $\text{CAT}(0)$ -space generalizes the concept of a simply connected, complete Riemannian manifold of non-positive sectional curvature to geodesic metric spaces. We show that the restricted quasi-hyperbolicity constant of a  $\text{CAT}(0)$ -space is bounded from above by  $\sqrt{2}$ . Indeed, the restricted quasi-hyperbolicity constant of any metric space whose distance satisfies Ptolemy's inequality and the quadrilateral inequality, in particular any  $\text{CAT}(0)$ -space, is bounded from above by  $\sqrt{2}$ , Theorem 4.2. The quasi-hyperbolicity constant of any Euclidean space of dimension greater than one is equal to  $\sqrt{2}$ , Proposition 4.4.

**Definition 4.1.** Let  $(X, d)$  be a metric space.

(i) The metric  $d$  satisfies *Ptolemy's inequality* if for all  $x, y, z, w \in X$ ,

$$(xy)(zw) \leq (xz)(yw) + (xw)(yz).$$

In this case we say  $(X, d)$  is *Ptolemaic*.

(ii) The metric  $d$  satisfies the *quadrilateral inequality* if for all  $x, y, z, w \in X$ ,

$$(xy)^2 + (zw)^2 \leq (xz)^2 + (yw)^2 + (xw)^2 + (yz)^2.$$

In this case we say  $(X, d)$  is *2-round* (see Definition 5.9).

Recall that a *Euclidean space* is a real vector space  $V$  together with a positive definite inner product,  $(u, v) \mapsto \langle u, v \rangle$ . The inner product yields a *Euclidean norm*,  $\|x\| = \langle x, x \rangle^{1/2}$ , and a corresponding *Euclidean metric*,  $d(u, v) = \|x - y\|$ . It is classical mathematics that a Euclidean space with its Euclidean metric is Ptolemaic and 2-round.

**Theorem 4.2.** *If the metric space  $(X, d)$  is Ptolemaic and 2-round then  $C_0(X, d) \leq \sqrt{2}$ .*

*Proof.* Assume  $(X, d)$  is Ptolemaic and 2-round. Then for  $x, y, z, w \in X$ ,

$$\begin{aligned} (xy)(zw) &\leq (xz)(yw) + (xw)(yz) \quad \text{and} \\ (xy)^2 + (zw)^2 &\leq (xz)^2 + (yw)^2 + (xw)^2 + (yz)^2. \end{aligned}$$

Multiplying the first inequality by 2 and adding it to the second one yields:

$$(xy + zw)^2 \leq (xz + yw)^2 + (xw + yz)^2.$$

For non-negative real numbers  $a, b$  we have  $\sqrt{a^2 + b^2} \leq \sqrt{2} \max\{a, b\}$  and so the above inequality implies

$$xy + zw \leq \sqrt{2} \max\{xz + yw, xw + yz\}$$

from which it follows that  $C_0(X, d) \leq \sqrt{2}$ .  $\square$

Informally, a CAT(0)-space is a geodesic metric space whose geodesic triangles are not fatter than corresponding comparison triangles in the Euclidean plane, see [BH99, II.1.1, page 158] for the precise definition. Since any configuration of four points in a CAT(0)-space has a “subembedding” into Euclidean space, [BH99, page 164], a CAT(0)-space is Ptolemaic and 2-round.

**Corollary 4.3.** *If  $(X, d)$  is a subspace of a CAT(0)-space then  $C_0(X, d) \leq \sqrt{2}$ .*

*Proof.* Since a CAT(0)-space is Ptolemaic and 2-round, so is any subspace. The conclusion follows from Theorem 4.2.  $\square$

**Proposition 4.4.** *Let  $V$  be a Euclidean space and  $d$  its Euclidean metric. If  $\dim V \geq 2$  then  $C(V, d) = C_0(V, d) = \sqrt{2}$ .*

*Proof.* By Theorem 4.2,  $C_0(V, d) \leq \sqrt{2}$ . Since  $\dim V \geq 2$ , there are orthogonal unit vectors  $u, v \in V$ . A calculation using the inner product of  $V$  yields  $\Delta(u, v, 0, u + v) = \sqrt{2}$  and thus  $C_0(V, d) \geq \sqrt{2}$ . Hence  $C_0(V, d) = \sqrt{2}$ . Also, by Corollary 2.10,  $C(V, d) = C_0(V, d)$ .  $\square$

Remarkably, a geodesic metric space that is 2-round is necessarily a CAT(0)-space, [BN08, Sat09] and so Corollary 4.3 yields the following proposition.

**Proposition 4.5.** *Let  $(X, d)$  be a geodesic metric space. If  $(X, d)$  is 2-round then  $C_0(X, d) \leq \sqrt{2}$ .*  $\square$

**Remark 4.6.** Let  $(X, d)$  be any metric space. Blumenthal [Blu70, Theorem 52.1] showed that if  $0 < \alpha \leq 1/2$  then the  $\alpha$ -snowflake  $(X, d^\alpha)$  has the property that any four points in it can be isometrically embedded into Euclidean space. Hence, in the case  $0 < \alpha \leq 1/2$ ,  $(X, d^\alpha)$  is Ptolemaic and 2-round and so Theorem 4.2 implies that  $C_0(X, d^\alpha) \leq \sqrt{2}$ . An improvement and extension of this estimate is given by Theorem 6.2.

## 5. BANACH SPACES

In contrast to a CAT(0)-space, whose quasi-hyperbolicity constant is bounded from above by  $\sqrt{2}$ , the quasi-hyperbolicity constant of a Banach space  $B$  of dimension greater than one is bounded from below by  $\sqrt{2}$  with equality holding, assuming that the dimension of  $B$  is at least three, only when  $B$  is a Hilbert space, see Theorem 5.8. This is a consequence of strong results for the James constant of  $B$  due to Gao and Lau, [GL90], and to Komuro, Saito and Tanaka, [KST16]. Enflo [Enf69] introduced the notion of the *roundness* of a metric space. We show, Theorem 5.11, that if  $B$  is a Banach space with roundness  $r(B)$  then its quasi-hyperbolicity constant is bounded from above by  $2^{1/r(B)}$  and use this to show that the quasi-hyperbolicity constant of a non-trivial  $L^p$ -space, where  $1 \leq p \leq \infty$ , is  $\max\{2^{1/p}, 2^{1-1/p}\}$ , see Corollary 5.12.

Let  $B = (V, \|\cdot\|)$  be a real Banach space. The norm of  $B$ ,  $\|\cdot\|$ , yields a metric  $d(u, v) = \|u - v\|$  on the real vector space  $V$  and we use notation  $C(B)$  for  $C(V, d)$ . Note that by Corollary 2.10 we have  $C_0(V, d) = C(V, d) = C(B)$ .

Let  $1 \leq p \leq \infty$ . Recall the  $p$ -norm on  $\mathbb{R}^n$ , denoted by  $\|x\|_p$  for  $x = (x_1, \dots, x_n) \in \mathbb{R}^n$ , is given by

$$\|x\|_p = \begin{cases} (|x_1|^p + \dots + |x_n|^p)^{1/p} & \text{if } 1 \leq p < \infty, \\ \max\{|x_1|, \dots, |x_n|\} & \text{if } p = \infty. \end{cases}$$

We write  $\ell_p^n = (\mathbb{R}^n, \|\cdot\|_p)$  and  $d_p(u, v) = \|u - v\|_p$ . The  $p$ -norms on  $\mathbb{R}^n$  are related by the following well-known inequality. If  $1 \leq p \leq q \leq \infty$  then for all  $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$

$$(5.1) \quad \|x\|_q \leq \|x\|_p \leq n^{1/p-1/q} \|x\|_q$$

where, by convention,  $1/\infty = 0$ .

Note that  $\ell_2^n$  is a Euclidean space and so by Proposition 4.4,  $C(\ell_2^n) = \sqrt{2}$  for  $n \geq 2$ .

**Proposition 5.2.** *For  $1 \leq p \leq \infty$ ,  $C(\ell_p^2) = \max\{2^{1/p}, 2^{1-1/p}\}$ .*

*Proof.* If  $1 \leq p \leq 2$  then by (5.1),  $\|x\|_2 \leq \|x\|_p \leq 2^{1/p-1/2} \|x\|_2$ . By Proposition 2.14,

$$C(\ell_p^2) \leq 2^{1/p-1/2} C(\ell_2^2) = 2^{1/p}.$$

Observe  $\Delta((-1, 1), (1, -1), (-1, -1), (1, 1)) = 2^{1/p}$  and so  $C(\ell_p^2) \geq 2^{1/p}$ . Thus  $C(\ell_p^2) = 2^{1/p}$ .

If  $2 \leq p \leq \infty$  then by (5.1),  $2^{1/p-1/2} \|x\|_2 \leq \|x\|_p \leq \|x\|_2$ . By Proposition 2.14,

$$C(\ell_p^2) \leq 2^{1/2-1/p} C(\ell_2^2) = 2^{1-1/p}.$$

Observe  $\Delta((0, 1), (0, -1), (-1, 0), (1, 0)) = 2^{1-1/p}$  and so  $C(\ell_p^2) \geq 2^{1-1/p}$ . Thus  $C(\ell_p^2) = 2^{1-1/p}$ .  $\square$

Proposition 5.2 generalizes to non-trivial  $L_p$ -spaces, see Corollary 5.12.

The *Banach-Mazur distance* between two isomorphic Banach spaces  $E$  and  $F$  is defined by

$$d_{\text{BM}}(E, F) = \inf\{\|T\| \|T^{-1}\| \mid T: E \rightarrow F \text{ is an isomorphism}\}.$$

For example, if  $1 \leq p \leq q \leq 2$  or  $2 \leq p \leq q \leq \infty$  then  $d_{\text{BM}}(\ell_p^n, \ell_q^n) = n^{1/p-1/q}$ , [TJ89, Proposition 37.6]. Proposition 2.14 yields the following comparison.

**Proposition 5.3.** *If  $E$  and  $F$  are isomorphic Banach spaces then  $C(E) \leq d_{\text{BM}}(E, F) C(F)$ .*  $\square$

Because of Theorem 5.8 below, the inequality of Proposition 5.3 can only give useful information when  $d_{\text{BM}}(E, F) < \sqrt{2}$ .

Since, up to a translation, any four points of a Banach space lie in some subspace of dimension at most three,

$$(5.4) \quad C(B) = \sup\{C(V) \mid V \text{ is a subspace of } B \text{ with } \dim V \leq 3\}.$$

A Banach space  $B$  is *finitely representable* in another Banach space  $B'$  if for every finite dimensional subspace  $F$  of  $B$  and every  $\varepsilon > 0$  there is a subspace  $F'$  of  $B'$  and an isomorphism  $T: F \rightarrow F'$  such that  $\|T\| \|T^{-1}\| \leq 1 + \varepsilon$ .

**Proposition 5.5.** *If  $B$  is finitely representable in  $B'$  then  $C(B) \leq C(B')$ .*

*Proof.* Let  $\varepsilon > 0$ . Let  $V$  be a subspace of  $B$  with  $\dim V \leq 3$ . Since  $B$  is finitely representable in  $B'$ , there exists a subspace  $V'$  of  $B'$  and an isomorphism  $T: V \rightarrow V'$  such that  $\|T\| \|T^{-1}\| \leq 1 + \varepsilon$ . By Proposition 2.14,  $C(V) \leq (1 + \varepsilon) C(V')$  and so  $C(V) \leq (1 + \varepsilon) C(B')$  because  $C(V') \leq C(B')$ . It follows from (5.4) that  $C(B) \leq (1 + \varepsilon) C(B')$ . Since  $\varepsilon$  is arbitrary, we conclude  $C(B) \leq C(B')$ .  $\square$

**Corollary 5.6.** *Let  $B$  be a Banach space and  $B^{**}$  its second dual. Then  $C(B) = C(B^{**})$ .*

*Proof.* The canonical map  $B \rightarrow B^{**}$  is an isometric embedding and hence  $C(B) \leq C(B^{**})$ . In any Banach space  $B$ , the second dual  $B^{**}$  is finitely representable in  $B$ , [JL01, §9], and so by Proposition 5.5,  $C(B^{**}) \leq C(B)$ . It follows that  $C(B) = C(B^{**})$ .  $\square$

The *James constant* of a Banach space  $B$  is defined by:

$$J(B) = \sup\{\min(\|x - y\|, \|x + y\|) \mid \|x\| = \|y\| = 1\}$$

If  $\|x\| = \|y\| = 1$  then  $\Delta(x, y, 0, x + y) = \frac{1}{2}(\|x - y\| + \|x + y\|)$  and thus

$$(5.7) \quad C(B) \geq \sup\{\frac{1}{2}(\|x - y\| + \|x + y\|) \mid \|x\| = \|y\| = 1\} \geq J(B)$$

A Banach space  $B$  is said to be *non-trivial* if  $\dim(B) \geq 2$ .

**Theorem 5.8.** *If  $B$  is any non-trivial Banach space then  $C(B) \geq \sqrt{2}$ . If  $\dim B \geq 3$  and  $C(B) = \sqrt{2}$  then  $B$  is a Hilbert space.*

*Proof.* Gao and Lau, [GL90, Theorem 2.5], show  $J(B) \geq \sqrt{2}$  for any non-trivial Banach space  $B$ . Furthermore, Komuro, Saito and Tanaka, [KST16], show that  $\dim B \geq 3$  and  $J(B) = \sqrt{2}$  implies  $B$  is a Hilbert space. The conclusion of the theorem follows from (5.7).  $\square$

**Definition 5.9** ([Enf69]). Let  $(X, d)$  be a metric space and  $p \geq 1$ . The space  $(X, d)$  is said to be *p-round* if for all  $x, y, z, w \in X$ ,  $(xy)^p + (zw)^p \leq (xz)^p + (yw)^p + (xw)^p + (yz)^p$ . The *roundness* of  $(X, d)$  is  $r(X, d) = \sup\{p \mid (X, d) \text{ is } p\text{-round}\}$ .

Note that if  $r(X, d) < \infty$  then the supremum is attained. Enflo, [Enf69], observed that  $r(X, d) \geq 1$  and that if  $(X, d)$  has the *midpoint property*<sup>1</sup> then  $r(X, d) \leq 2$ . In particular, if  $B$  is a Banach space then  $1 \leq r(B) \leq 2$ , where  $r(B)$  is the roundness of  $B$  as a metric space.

**Lemma 5.10.** *Let  $B$  be a Banach space that is p-round. Then for any vectors  $e, f \in B$*

$$(\|e\| + \|f\|)^p \leq \|e - f\|^p + \|e + f\|^p.$$

<sup>1</sup>A metric space  $(X, d)$  has the *midpoint property* if for every  $x, y \in X$  there exists  $z \in X$  such that  $d(x, z) = d(z, y) = \frac{1}{2}d(x, y)$ .

*Proof.* In the “ $p$ -round inequality” of Definition 5.9, letting  $x = e + f$ ,  $y = e - f$ ,  $w = 2e$ , and  $z = 0$  gives

$$\|2e\|^p + \|2f\|^p \leq 2\|e - f\|^p + 2\|e + f\|^p$$

and so

$$2^{p-1} (\|e\|^p + \|f\|^p) \leq \|e - f\|^p + \|e + f\|^p.$$

By (5.1), with  $n = 2$ ,  $(\|e\| + \|f\|)^p \leq 2^{p-1} (\|e\|^p + \|f\|^p)$  from which the conclusion follows.  $\square$

**Theorem 5.11.** *If  $B$  is a Banach space then  $C(B) \leq 2^{1/r(B)}$ .*

*Proof.* Let  $p = r(B)$ . Then  $B$  is  $p$ -round. Let  $x, y, z, w \in B$ . Let  $a = x - z$ ,  $b = w - y$ ,  $c = w - x$ ,  $d = y - z$ ,  $e = y - x$ , and  $f = w - z$ . Note that  $f = a + c = b + d$  and  $e = d - a = c - b$ . Hence  $e + f = c + d$  and  $f - e = a + b$ . By Lemma 5.10,

$$\begin{aligned} (\|e\| + \|f\|)^p &\leq \|e - f\|^p + \|e + f\|^p \\ &= \|a + b\|^p + \|c + d\|^p \\ &\leq (\|a\| + \|b\|)^p + (\|c\| + \|d\|)^p \quad (\text{by triangle inequality}). \end{aligned}$$

It follows that

$$\begin{aligned} \|e\| + \|f\| &\leq ((\|a\| + \|b\|)^p + (\|c\| + \|d\|)^p)^{1/p} \\ &\leq 2^{1/p} \max(\|a\| + \|b\|, \|c\| + \|d\|) \quad (\text{by (5.1)}). \end{aligned}$$

Thus the  $(2^{1/p}, 0)$ -four-point inequality holds and so  $C(B) \leq 2^{1/p}$ .  $\square$

**Corollary 5.12.** *Let  $(\Omega, \Sigma, \mu)$  be a separable measure space, that is, the  $\sigma$ -algebra  $\Sigma$  is generated by a countable collection of subsets of  $\Omega$ . Let  $1 \leq p \leq \infty$  and let  $L_p(\Omega, \Sigma, \mu)$  be the corresponding  $L_p$ -space. If  $\dim L_p(\Omega, \Sigma, \mu) \geq 2$  then  $C(L_p(\Omega, \Sigma, \mu)) = \max\{2^{1/p}, 2^{1-1/p}\}$ .*

*Proof.* Denote  $B = L_p(\Omega, \Sigma, \mu)$ . Assume  $\dim B \geq 2$ . In the case  $1 \leq p \leq 2$ , Enflo, [Enf69], showed that  $r(B) = p$  and so  $C(B) \leq 2^{1/p}$  by Theorem 5.11. In the case  $2 \leq p \leq \infty$ , by [LTW97, Proposition 1.4 and Remark 1.5],  $r(B) = 1/(1 - 1/p)$  and so  $C(B) \leq 2^{1-1/p}$  by Theorem 5.11. Hence for  $1 \leq p \leq \infty$ ,  $C(B) \leq \max\{2^{1/p}, 2^{1-1/p}\}$ .

The classification theory of  $L_p$  spaces (see [JL01, §4]) gives that, for  $1 \leq p < \infty$ , the space  $B = L_p(\Omega, \Sigma, \mu)$  is isometric to one of the Banach spaces in the list

$$(5.13) \quad \ell_p^n, \ell_p, L_p(0, 1), \ell_p \oplus_p L_p(0, 1), \ell_p^n \oplus_p L_p(0, 1) \quad n = 1, 2, \dots$$

Here,  $\ell_p$  denotes the space of sequences  $(x_n)_{n=1}^\infty$  with  $\sum_{n=1}^\infty |x_n|^p < \infty$  and  $L_p(0, 1)$  denotes the space of measurable functions (modulo null sets) on the unit interval such that  $\int_0^1 |f(x)|^p dx < \infty$ , and  $\oplus_p$  denotes the  $\ell_p$  direct sum, that is,  $\|a \oplus b\| = (\|a\|^p + \|b\|^p)^{1/p}$ . Each of the spaces in the list (5.13) (in the case of  $\ell_p^n$ , assume  $n \geq 2$ ) contains a subspace isometric to  $\ell_p^2$  and so  $C(B) \geq C(\ell_p^2) = \max\{2^{1/p}, 2^{1-1/p}\}$  by Proposition 5.2. Hence  $C(B) = \max\{2^{1/p}, 2^{1-1/p}\}$ . In the case  $p = \infty$  note that  $B$  contains a subspace isometric to  $\ell_\infty^2$  which implies that  $C(B) = 2$ .  $\square$

**Question 5.14.** Let  $(X, d)$  be a geodesic metric space. Is  $C_0(X, d) \leq 2^{1/r(X, d)}$ ?

By Proposition 4.5, this is true in the case  $r(X, d) = 2$ .

## 6. SNOWFLAKED METRIC SPACES

Recall that if  $0 < \alpha \leq 1$  and  $(X, d)$  is any metric space then  $(X, d^\alpha)$  is also a metric space, called the  $\alpha$ -snowflake of  $(X, d)$ . We show that  $C_0(X, d^\alpha) \leq 2^\alpha$ , Theorem 6.2, and give some applications of this estimate. We determine the quasi-hyperbolicity constant of the  $\alpha$ -snowflake of the Euclidean real line, Theorem 6.6.

**Lemma 6.1.** Let  $a_{ij} \in \mathbb{R}$ ,  $i, j \in \{1, 2, 3, 4\}$ , be such that  $a_{ij} = a_{ji}$ . Let  $\lambda \geq 1$ . If  $a_{ij} \leq \lambda \max\{a_{ik}, a_{kj}\}$  for all  $i, j, k$ , then  $a_{ij} + a_{k\ell} \leq \lambda \max\{a_{ik} + a_{j\ell}, a_{i\ell} + a_{jk}\}$  for all  $i, j, k, \ell$ .

Note that if  $L, M$  and  $S$  denote the largest, medium and smallest of the three sums  $a_{ij} + a_{k\ell}$ ,  $a_{ik} + a_{j\ell}$  and  $a_{i\ell} + a_{jk}$  for some choice of  $i, j, k, \ell \in \{1, 2, 3, 4\}$ , then the conclusion of the lemma is equivalent to  $L \leq \lambda M$ .

*Proof.* Fix  $i, j, k, \ell \in \{1, 2, 3, 4\}$ . Without loss of generality, assume that  $L = a_{ij} + a_{k\ell}$  is the largest sum and assume that  $a_{k\ell} \leq a_{ij}$ . Since  $a_{ij} \leq \lambda \max\{a_{ik}, a_{kj}\}$  and  $a_{ij} \leq \lambda \max\{a_{i\ell}, a_{\ell j}\}$ , we have

$$a_{ij} + a_{k\ell} \leq a_{ij} + a_{ij} \leq \lambda \max\{a_{ik} + a_{i\ell}, a_{ik} + a_{\ell j}, a_{kj} + a_{i\ell}, a_{kj} + a_{\ell j}\}.$$

If  $a_{ik} \geq a_{kj}$  and  $a_{\ell j} \geq a_{i\ell}$  then

$$M = a_{ik} + a_{\ell j} = \max\{a_{ik} + a_{i\ell}, a_{ik} + a_{\ell j}, a_{kj} + a_{i\ell}, a_{kj} + a_{\ell j}\}$$

and if  $a_{ik} \leq a_{kj}$  and  $a_{\ell j} \leq a_{i\ell}$  then

$$M = a_{kj} + a_{i\ell} = \max\{a_{ik} + a_{i\ell}, a_{ik} + a_{\ell j}, a_{kj} + a_{i\ell}, a_{kj} + a_{\ell j}\}.$$

In both cases,  $L \leq \lambda M$ . Furthermore, if  $a_{ik} \geq a_{kj}$  and  $a_{\ell j} \leq a_{i\ell}$  then  $a_{ij} \leq \lambda \max\{a_{ik}, a_{kj}\} = \lambda a_{ik}$  and  $a_{ij} \leq \lambda \max\{a_{i\ell}, a_{\ell j}\} = \lambda a_{i\ell}$ , and since  $a_{k\ell} \leq \lambda \max\{a_{kj}, a_{\ell j}\}$ ,

$$\begin{aligned} a_{ij} + a_{k\ell} &\leq a_{ij} + \lambda \max\{a_{kj}, a_{\ell j}\} = \max\{a_{ij} + \lambda a_{kj}, a_{ij} + \lambda a_{\ell j}\} \\ &\leq \max\{\lambda a_{i\ell} + \lambda a_{kj}, \lambda a_{ik} + \lambda a_{\ell j}\} = \lambda \max\{a_{i\ell} + a_{kj}, a_{ik} + a_{\ell j}\}. \end{aligned}$$

Finally, if  $a_{ik} \leq a_{kj}$  and  $a_{\ell j} \geq a_{i\ell}$  then

$$a_{ij} \leq \lambda \max\{a_{ik}, a_{kj}\} = \lambda a_{kj} \quad \text{and} \quad a_{ij} \leq \lambda \max\{a_{i\ell}, a_{\ell j}\} = \lambda a_{\ell j},$$

and since  $a_{k\ell} \leq \lambda \max\{a_{ki}, a_{i\ell}\}$ , we have

$$a_{ij} + a_{k\ell} \leq a_{ij} + \lambda \max\{a_{ki}, a_{i\ell}\} \leq \lambda \max\{a_{\ell j} + a_{ki}, a_{kj} + a_{i\ell}\},$$

that is,  $L \leq \lambda M$ . □

**Theorem 6.2.** Let  $0 < \alpha \leq 1$ . For any metric space  $(X, d)$ ,  $C_0(X, d^\alpha) \leq 2^\alpha$ .

*Proof.* Let  $x_i \in X$ ,  $i = 1, 2, 3, 4$ . It suffices to show that if  $i, j, k, l \in \{1, 2, 3, 4\}$  then

$$(x_i x_j)^\alpha + (x_k x_l)^\alpha \leq 2^\alpha \max\{(x_i x_k)^\alpha + (x_j x_l)^\alpha, (x_i x_l)^\alpha + (x_j x_k)^\alpha\}.$$

Observe that for all  $i, j, k$  triangle inequality implies  $x_i x_j \leq x_i x_k + x_j x_k \leq 2 \max\{x_i x_k, x_j x_k\}$ . Hence

$$(x_i x_j)^\alpha \leq 2^\alpha \max\{(x_i x_k)^\alpha, (x_j x_k)^\alpha\}.$$

The conclusion follows from Lemma 6.1 with  $a_{ij} = (x_i x_j)^\alpha$  and  $\lambda = 2^\alpha$ .  $\square$

As in §5,  $d_p$ , where  $1 \leq p \leq \infty$ , denotes the metric on  $\mathbb{R}^n$  determined by the standard  $p$ -norm.

**Proposition 6.3.** *If  $0 < \alpha \leq 1$  and  $n \geq 2$  then  $C(\mathbb{R}^n, d_\infty^\alpha) = 2^\alpha$*

*Proof.* By Proposition 6.2,  $C_0(\mathbb{R}^n, d_\infty^\alpha) \leq 2^\alpha$ . Consider following the four points in  $\mathbb{R}^n$ :

$$x = (0, 1, 0, \dots, 0), \quad y = (0, -1, 0, \dots, 0), \quad z = (-1, 0, \dots, 0), \quad w = (1, 0, \dots, 0).$$

A calculation using the metric  $d_\infty^\alpha$  yields  $\Delta(x, y, z, w) = 2^\alpha$  and thus  $C_0(\mathbb{R}^n, d_\infty^\alpha) \geq 2^\alpha$ . Hence  $C_0(\mathbb{R}^n, d_\infty^\alpha) = 2^\alpha$ . By Corollary 2.10,  $C(\mathbb{R}^n, d_\infty^\alpha) = C_0(\mathbb{R}^n, d_\infty^\alpha)$ .  $\square$

The same technique gives a non-sharp estimate for  $C(\mathbb{R}^n, d_2^\alpha)$ , where  $n \geq 2$ , as follows.

**Proposition 6.4.** *If  $0 < \alpha \leq 1$  and  $n \geq 2$  then  $2^{\alpha/2} \leq C(\mathbb{R}^n, d_2^\alpha) \leq 2^{\min\{\alpha, 1/2\}}$ .*

*Proof.* By Proposition 6.2,  $C(\mathbb{R}^n, d_2^\alpha) \leq 2^\alpha$ . Schoenberg showed, [Sch37, Theorem 1], that  $(\mathbb{R}^n, d_2^\alpha)$  isometrically embeds into (infinite dimensional) Hilbert space and hence  $C(\mathbb{R}^n, d_2^\alpha) \leq 2^{1/2}$ . Consequently,  $C(\mathbb{R}^n, d_2^\alpha) \leq 2^{\min\{\alpha, 1/2\}}$ . For the four points  $x, y, z, w \in \mathbb{R}^n$  specified in the proof of Proposition 6.3, we have  $\Delta(x, y, z, w) = 2^{\alpha/2}$ , yielding the lower bound for  $C(\mathbb{R}^n, d_2^\alpha)$ .  $\square$

Numerical calculations suggest the following exact value for  $C(\mathbb{R}^n, d_2^\alpha)$  when  $n \geq 2$ .

**Conjecture 6.5.** *Let  $0 < \alpha < 1$ . If  $n \geq 2$  then  $C(\mathbb{R}^n, d_2^\alpha) = 2^{\alpha/2}$ .*

The  $\alpha$ -snowflakes of the Euclidean line turns out to be of a different nature than the spaces  $(\mathbb{R}^n, d_2^\alpha)$  with  $n \geq 2$ , as revealed in the following theorem.

**Theorem 6.6.** *Let  $0 < \alpha \leq 1$  and  $d_E^\alpha(x, y) = |x - y|^\alpha$ ,  $x, y \in \mathbb{R}$ . Let  $m \geq 1$  be the unique solution to the equation  $(m - 1)^\alpha + (m + 1)^\alpha = 2$ . Then  $C(\mathbb{R}^1, d_E^\alpha) = m^\alpha$ .*

Observe that by Corollary 2.10,

$$(6.7) \quad C(\mathbb{R}^1, d_E^\alpha) = C_0(\mathbb{R}^1, d_E^\alpha) = \sup \Delta(x, y, z, w),$$

where

$$\Delta(x, y, z, w) = \frac{|x - y|^\alpha + |z - w|^\alpha}{\max\{|x - z|^\alpha + |y - w|^\alpha, |x - w|^\alpha + |y - z|^\alpha\}}$$

and the supremum in (6.7) is taken over all  $x, y, z, w \in \mathbb{R}$ , not all identical. Since the map  $(x, y, z, w) \mapsto \Delta(x, y, z, w)$  is translation and scale invariant, we may assume that  $x = 0$ ,  $y = 1 + s$ ,  $z = 1 - t$ , and  $w = 2$ , with  $(t, s) \in D = \{(t, s) \in [-1, 1] \times [-1, 1] \mid t + s \geq 0\}$ . Then

$$(t, s) \mapsto \Delta(0, 1 + s, 1 - t, 2) = \frac{(1 + s)^\alpha + (1 + t)^\alpha}{\max_{(t,s) \in D} \{(1 - t)^\alpha + (1 - s)^\alpha, (t + s)^\alpha + 2^\alpha\}}$$

is continuous on the compact set  $D$  and

$$C(\mathbb{R}^1, d_E^\alpha) = \max_{(t,s) \in D} \Delta(0, 1 + s, 1 - t, 2).$$

Furthermore, if  $F, G: D \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  are given by

$$(6.8) \quad F(t, s) = \frac{(1 + t)^\alpha + (1 + s)^\alpha}{(1 - t)^\alpha + (1 - s)^\alpha} \text{ and } G(t, s) = \frac{(1 + t)^\alpha + (1 + s)^\alpha}{(t + s)^\alpha + 2^\alpha},$$

and  $D_1 = \{(t, s) \in D \mid F(t, s) \leq G(t, s)\}$  and  $D_2 = \{(t, s) \in D \mid F(t, s) \geq G(t, s)\}$ , then

$$\Delta(0, 1 - t, 1 + s, 2) = \min_{(t,s) \in D} \{F(t, s), G(t, s)\} = \begin{cases} F(t, s), & (t, s) \in D_1 \\ G(t, s), & (t, s) \in D_2, \end{cases}$$

and

$$(6.9) \quad C(\mathbb{R}^1, d_E^\alpha) = \max \left\{ \max_{(t,s) \in D_1} F(t, s), \max_{(t,s) \in D_2} G(t, s) \right\}.$$

The following lemma shows that the maximum in (6.9) is attained on  $D_0 = D_1 \cap D_2$ .

**Lemma 6.10.** *Let  $0 < \alpha < 1$ . Let  $F, G: D \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  be given by (6.8) and let  $D_0 = \{(t, s) \in D \mid F(t, s) = G(t, s)\}$ . Then*

$$C(\mathbb{R}^1, d_E^\alpha) = \max_{(t,s) \in D_0} F(t, s).$$

*Proof.* We show that  $F$  and  $G$  attain their maximum on the boundary of  $D_1$  and  $D_2$ , respectively. Indeed, the partial derivatives of  $F$ ,

$$F_t(t, s) = \frac{\alpha(1 + t)^{\alpha-1}}{(1 - t)^\alpha + (1 - s)^\alpha} + \frac{\alpha((1 + t)^\alpha + (1 + s)^\alpha)(1 - t)^{\alpha-1}}{((1 - t)^\alpha + (1 - s)^\alpha)^2}$$

$$F_s(t, s) = \frac{\alpha(1 + s)^{\alpha-1}}{(1 - t)^\alpha + (1 - s)^\alpha} + \frac{\alpha((1 + t)^\alpha + (1 + s)^\alpha)(1 - s)^{\alpha-1}}{((1 - t)^\alpha + (1 - s)^\alpha)^2}$$

are defined for all  $(t, s) \in (-1, 1)^2, t + s > 0$  and  $F_t > 0$  and  $F_s > 0$ . Thus  $\max_{(t,s) \in D_1} F(t, s)$  is attained on the boundary  $\partial D_1 = D_0 \cup \{(t, s) \in D \mid t + s = 1\}$ . Note that  $F(t, s) \geq 1$  for  $(t, s) \in D$  and  $F(t, s) = 1$  if and only if  $t + s = 1$ . Hence

$$(6.11) \quad \max_{(t,s) \in D_1} F(t, s) = \max_{(t,s) \in D_0} F(t, s).$$

The partial derivatives of  $G$

$$G_t(t, s) = \frac{\alpha(1 + t)^{\alpha-1}}{(t + s)^\alpha + 2^\alpha} - \frac{\alpha((1 + t)^\alpha + (1 + s)^\alpha)(t + s)^{\alpha-1}}{((t + s)^\alpha + 2^\alpha)^2}$$

$$G_s(t, s) = \frac{\alpha(1 + s)^{\alpha-1}}{(t + s)^\alpha + 2^\alpha} - \frac{\alpha((1 + t)^\alpha + (1 + s)^\alpha)(t + s)^{\alpha-1}}{((t + s)^\alpha + 2^\alpha)^2}$$

are defined for all  $(t, s) \in (-1, 1)^2, t + s > 0$  and  $G_t = G_s = 0$  if and only if  $t = s = 1$ . Thus  $\max_{(t,s) \in D_2} G(t, s)$  is attained on the boundary  $\partial D_2 = D_0 \cup \{(t, s) \in D \mid t = 1\} \cup \{(t, s) \in D \mid s = 1\}$ . Note also that  $G(t, s) \geq 1$  for  $(t, s) \in D$  and  $G(t, s) = 1$  if and only if  $t = 1$  or  $s = 1$ . Hence

$$(6.12) \quad \max_{(t,s) \in D_2} G(t, s) = \max_{(t,s) \in D_0} G(t, s).$$

The conclusion follows from (6.9) together with (6.11) and (6.12).  $\square$

The following result shows that  $\max_{(t,s) \in D_0} F(t, s)$  is attained when  $t = s$ .

**Lemma 6.13.** *Let  $0 < \alpha < 1$ . Let  $F, G: D \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  be given by (6.8) and let  $D_0 = \{(t, s) \in D \mid F(t, s) = G(t, s)\}$ . Then*

$$\max_{(t,s) \in D_0} F(t, s) = \left( \frac{1+a}{1-a} \right)^\alpha,$$

where  $0 < a < 1$  is the unique solution of  $F(a, a) = G(a, a)$ .

*Proof.* Notice that if  $(t, s) \in D_0$  then  $t = -1$  if and only if  $s = 1$  and  $F(-1, 1) = 1$ . By symmetry,  $F(1, -1) = 1$ . Since  $F(t, s) \geq 1$  on  $D_0$ , the maximum of  $F|_{D_0}$ , the restriction of  $F$  to  $D_0$ , is not attained at  $(-1, 1)$  or  $(1, -1)$ . Let  $(a, b) \in D_0$ , with  $a \neq \pm 1$ . If  $F$  attains a local extremum at  $(a, b)$  subject to the constrain  $F(t, s) = G(t, s)$ , then the level curves  $\{(t, s) \in D \mid F(t, s) = F(a, b)\}$  and  $\{(t, s) \in D \mid F(t, s) - G(t, s) = 0\}$  are both tangent at  $(a, b)$ . Since  $F_s(a, b) - G_s(a, b) \neq 0$ , by the Implicit Function Theorem, there exists an open neighbourhood  $U \subseteq (-1, 1)$  of  $a$  and a function  $\omega = \omega(t)$  such that  $F(t, \omega(t)) - G(t, \omega(t)) = 0$  for  $t \in U$ . Furthermore,

$$\omega'(t) = -\frac{(t+\omega)^{\alpha-1} + (1-t)^{\alpha-1}}{(t+\omega)^{\alpha-1} + (1-\omega)^{\alpha-1}}$$

for all  $t \in U$ . Similarly, since  $F_s(a, b) \neq 0$ , there exists an open neighbourhood  $V \subseteq (-1, 1)$  of  $a$  and a function  $\nu = \nu(t)$  on  $V$  such that  $F(t, \nu(t)) = F(a, b)$  on  $V$ . Also, for all  $t \in V$ ,

$$\nu'(t) = -\frac{(1+t)^{\alpha-1} + F(a, b)(1-t)^{\alpha-1}}{(1+\nu)^{\alpha-1} + F(a, b)(1-\nu)^{\alpha-1}}.$$

Hence, a necessary condition for  $(a, b)$  to be a point of local extremum for  $F|_{D_0}$  is that  $\omega'(a) = \nu'(a)$ . Using that  $\omega(a) = \nu(a) = b$ , that is,

$$\frac{(a+b)^{\alpha-1} + (1-a)^{\alpha-1}}{(a+b)^{\alpha-1} + (1-b)^{\alpha-1}} = \frac{(1+a)^{\alpha-1} + F(a, b)(1-a)^{\alpha-1}}{(1+b)^{\alpha-1} + F(a, b)(1-b)^{\alpha-1}},$$

equivalently,

$$\begin{aligned} (a+b)^{\alpha-1} [(1+b)^{\alpha-1} + F(a, b)(1-b)^{\alpha-1} - (1+a)^{\alpha-1} - F(a, b)(1-a)^{\alpha-1}] \\ + (1-a)^{\alpha-1}(1+b)^{\alpha-1} - (1-b)^{\alpha-1}(1+a)^{\alpha-1} = 0. \end{aligned}$$

Using that  $F(a, b) = \frac{(1+a)^\alpha + (1+b)^\alpha}{(1-a)^\alpha + (1-b)^\alpha} = \frac{(1+a)^\alpha + (1+b)^\alpha}{(a+b)^\alpha + 2^\alpha}$ , the above equality holds if and only if

$$\begin{aligned} & (a+b)^{\alpha-1} \{ [(1+b)^{\alpha-1} - (1+a)^{\alpha-1}] [(1-a)^\alpha + (1-b)^\alpha] \\ & \quad + [(1-b)^{\alpha-1} - (1-a)^{\alpha-1}] [(1+a)^\alpha + (1+b)^\alpha] \} \\ & \quad + [(1-a)^{\alpha-1} (1+b)^{\alpha-1} - (1+a)^{\alpha-1} (1-b)^{\alpha-1}] [(a+b)^\alpha + 2^\alpha] = 0, \end{aligned}$$

equivalently,

$$2(a+b)^{\alpha-1} [(1-b^2)^{\alpha-1} - (1-a^2)^{\alpha-1}] + 2^\alpha [(1-a)^{\alpha-1} (1+b)^{\alpha-1} - (1+a)^{\alpha-1} (1-b)^{\alpha-1}] = 0$$

Factoring out  $2(a+b)^{\alpha-1}(1-b^2)^{\alpha-1} \neq 0$  yields

$$(6.14) \quad 1 - \left( \frac{1-b}{1-a} \right)^{1-\alpha} \left( \frac{1+b}{1+a} \right)^{1-\alpha} - \left( \frac{a+b}{2} \right)^{1-\alpha} \left[ \left( \frac{1+b}{1+a} \right)^{1-\alpha} - \left( \frac{1-b}{1-a} \right)^{1-\alpha} \right] = 0$$

Assume  $a < b$ . Since  $a+b > 0$ , this implies  $b > 0$  and  $-b < a < b$ . In particular,  $a^2 < b^2$ . Let  $x = \frac{1-b}{1-a}$  and  $y = \frac{1+b}{1+a}$ . Then  $0 < x < 1 < y$ , and  $0 < xy < 1$ . Note that  $\frac{a+b}{2} = \frac{1-xy}{y-x}$ . We claim that the expression on the left hand side of (6.14) is negative. That is, we claim,

$$1 - (xy)^{1-\alpha} - \left( \frac{1-xy}{y-x} \right)^{1-\alpha} (y^{1-\alpha} - x^{1-\alpha}) < 0.$$

Indeed, multiplying the above inequality by  $(1-xy)^{\alpha-1} > 0$  yields

$$\frac{1 - (xy)^{1-\alpha}}{(1-xy)^{1-\alpha}} - \frac{y^{1-\alpha} - x^{1-\alpha}}{(y-x)^{1-\alpha}} < 0,$$

equivalently,

$$\frac{1 - (xy)^{1-\alpha}}{(1-xy)^{1-\alpha}} - \frac{1 - (x/y)^{1-\alpha}}{(1-x/y)^{1-\alpha}} < 0$$

which is valid since the function  $t \mapsto \frac{1-t^{1-\alpha}}{(1-t)^{1-\alpha}}$ ,  $0 < t < 1$ , is decreasing and  $0 < x/y < xy < 1$ .

Note that the expression on the left hand side of (6.14) is positive if  $a > b$ . Thus, (6.14) holds if and only if  $a = b$ . Finally, notice that  $F(a, a) = G(a, a)$  has unique solution  $0 < a < 1$ . Since  $F(a, a) = [(1+a)/(1-a)]^\alpha > 1$ , the conclusion follows.  $\square$

*Proof of Theorem 6.6.* If  $\alpha = 1$ , the conclusion holds with  $m = 1$  by Proposition 2.6, since the space  $(\mathbb{R}^1, d_E)$  is 0-hyperbolic. Let  $0 < \alpha < 1$ . By Lemmas 6.10 and 6.13

$$C(\mathbb{R}^1, d_E^\alpha) = \max_{(t,s) \in D_0} F(t, s) = F(a, a) = \left( \frac{1+a}{1-a} \right)^\alpha = m^\alpha$$

where  $m = \frac{1+a}{1-a} > 1$  is the unique solution of

$$2 = \left( \frac{1+a - (1-a)}{1-a} \right)^\alpha + \left( \frac{1+a + (1-a)}{1-a} \right)^\alpha = (m-1)^\alpha + (m+1)^\alpha. \quad \square$$

**Remark 6.15.** Let  $0 < \alpha \leq 1$ . It is *not* true in general that for any metric space  $(X, d)$  the inequality  $C(X, d^\alpha) \leq (C(X, d))^\alpha$  holds. For example, if  $\alpha = 1/2$  then  $m = 5/4$  as in Theorem 6.6 and so

$$C(\mathbb{R}^1, d_E^{1/2}) = \sqrt{5}/2 > (C(\mathbb{R}^1, d_E))^{1/2} = \sqrt{1} = 1.$$

## 7. DISTANCES ON RIEMANNIAN MANIFOLDS

We show that the restricted quasi-hyperbolicity constant of the metric space associated to a Riemannian manifold of dimension greater than one is bounded from below by  $\sqrt{2}$ .

**Proposition 7.1.** *If  $M$  is a Riemannian manifold of dimension greater than one and  $d_M$  is the distance on  $M$  induced by the given Riemannian metric then  $C_0(M, d_M) \geq \sqrt{2}$ .*

*Proof.* Let  $p \in M$  and let  $\exp_p: T_p M \rightarrow M$  denote the Riemannian exponential map. The Riemannian metric on  $M$  endows the tangent space,  $T_p M$ , with an inner product and we write  $d_E$  for the corresponding Euclidean distance on  $T_p M$ . For a vector  $X \in T_p M$  and a scalar  $t$ , let  $X_t = \exp_p(tX) \in M$ . If  $X, Y \in T_p M$  then

$$(7.2) \quad \lim_{t \rightarrow 0} \frac{d_M(X_t, Y_t)}{t} = d_E(X, Y).$$

This is a consequence of the fact that in normal coordinates  $\{x^i\}$  the components  $g_{ij}(x)$  of the Riemannian metric satisfy the estimate  $|g_{ij}(x) - \delta_{ij}| \leq C\|x\|^2$  for some  $C$ .

For  $X, Y, Z, W \in T_p M$ , not all identical,

$$\begin{aligned} \Delta(X_t, Y_t, Z_t, W_t) &= \frac{d_M(X_t, Y_t) + d_M(Z_t, W_t)}{\max\{d_M(X_t, Z_t) + d_M(Y_t, W_t), d_M(X_t, W_t) + d_M(Y_t, Z_t)\}} \\ &= \frac{d_M(X_t, Y_t)/t + d_M(Z_t, W_t)/t}{\max\{d_M(X_t, Z_t)/t + d_M(Y_t, W_t)/t, d_M(X_t, W_t)/t + d_M(Y_t, Z_t)/t\}} \end{aligned}$$

By (7.2),  $\lim_{t \rightarrow 0} \Delta(X_t, Y_t, Z_t, W_t) = \Delta(X, Y, Z, W)$ , where the second  $\Delta$  is with respect to  $d_E$ . Since  $\dim M > 1$ , there are orthogonal unit vectors  $U, V \in T_p M$ . Since

$$C_0(M, d_M) \geq \Delta(U_t, V_t, 0_t, (U + V)_t),$$

it follows that

$$C_0(M, d_M) \geq \lim_{t \rightarrow 0} \Delta(U_t, V_t, 0_t, (U + V)_t) = \Delta(U, V, 0, U + V) = \sqrt{2},$$

establishing the conclusion of the proposition.  $\square$

**Corollary 7.3.** *Let  $M$  be a simply connected, complete Riemannian manifold of non-positive sectional curvature with associated distance  $d_M$ . Then  $C_0(M, d_M) = \sqrt{2}$ .*

*Proof.* By [BH99, Chapter II.1, Theorem 1A.6], the metric space  $(M, d_M)$  is a CAT(0)-space and so  $C_0(M, d_M) \leq \sqrt{2}$  by Corollary 4.3. By Proposition 7.1,  $C_0(M, d_M) \geq \sqrt{2}$ . Thus  $C_0(M, d_M) = \sqrt{2}$ .  $\square$

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