# TOLERANCE GEOMETRY 

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1. Introduction* In his paper on visual perception [7], Zeeman points out that any model of perception must take account of the fact that we cannot distinguish between points that are sufficiently close. A similar observation has been made for choice behavior by Luce [1]. Zeeman's observation leads him directly to a notion of a "tolerance" within which "we allow an object to move before we notice any difference." Other authors use the terms "threshold" and "just noticeable difference," for the same notion.

Zeeman defines a tolerance $I$ on a set $A$ as a binary relation on $A$ which is reflexive and symmetric, and he calls the pair ( $A, I$ ) a tolerance space. We shall use the more common term graph for this concept and prefer to think of tolerance spaces or tolerance relations as graphs with more specialized properties, motivated by the notion of "closeness." Zeeman studies various properties of and relations between tolerance spaces (graphs), using topological techniques.

In studying visual perception, it is convenient to distinguish between physical space and (subjective) visual space, the space from which we draw our "conscious" perceptions. It has been observed in the literature that visual space has a non-Euclidean geometry (see Roberts and Suppes [4]). To determine what this geometry is, observed relations such as betweenness, alignment, perpendicularity (of two aligned sets of points), parallelism, etc. are studied, and their properties are determined.

In order to study visual geometry, to take account of the tolerance effect, it seems desirable to replace classical primitives, such as betweenness, straightness, perpendicularity, and parallelism, with more general notions, obtained from the classical ones by substituting closeness for identity. We shall use the term tolerance geometry for any geometry whose

[^0]primitives are obtained by such a perturbation. In this paper, we develop an axiomatization for tolerance geometry on the line.

There is one important difference between the axiomatizations for tolerance geometries and those for classical ones. For the latter we are usually interested in categorical axiomatizations. For example, we are interested in listing axioms necessary and sufficient for a given geometry to be isomorphic onto the real plane. In the case of perception, we usually deal only with finite point sets-or at least we can only observe finitely many points to test our axioms. So it is more interesting to study finite sets and to study axioms necessary and sufficient for isomorphism (or homomorphism) into certain kinds of spaces. This will be our approach.
2. Indifference Graphs Perhaps the simplest example of a tolerance geometry arises from the theory of indifference graphs, motivated by observing judgments of indifference, similarity, etc. Here we take as the only primitive a binary relation $I$ on a finite set $A$, interpreted as "closeness." In the linear case, we ask for axioms on ( $A, I$ ) necessary and sufficient for an isomorphism (homomorphism) into the real line. In particular, we shall consider the simplest case where closeness on the line is defined by "being within $\epsilon$." Then, given $\epsilon>0$, we seek conditions on $(A, I)$ necessary and sufficient for the existence of a function $f: A \rightarrow \notin$ so that for all $x, y \in A$,

$$
\begin{equation*}
x I y \leftrightarrow|f(x)-f(y)|<\epsilon . \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

The conditions will, of course, be independent of the particular value of $\epsilon$.
The theory of indifference graphs is developed in Roberts [2, 3]. For later use, we shall need to state below at least one of the axiom systems for indifference graphs. Using standard terminology, we shall call the relation $I$ in a graph $(A, I)$ the adjacency relation. A subgraph $(B, J)$ of ( $A, I$ ) is a graph $(B, J)$, where $B \subseteq A$ and $J$ is the restriction of $I$ to $B$. ( $A, I$ ) is connected if for every $x$ and $y$ there is a path between $x$ and $y$, i.e., a sequence $x, x_{1}, x_{2}, \ldots, x_{n}, y$ from $A$ so that $x I x_{1} I x_{2} I \ldots I x_{n} I y$. A component of a graph is a maximal connected subgraph. If $x$ and $y$ are in the same component, the distance $d(x, y)$ is the length of the shortest path between $x$ and $y . d(x, y)=0$ if and only if $x=y$.

Following Scott and Suppes [5], an equivalence relation $E$ on $A$ is defined by

$$
x E y \leftrightarrow(\forall z)[x I z \leftrightarrow y I z] .
$$

$x^{*}$ will denote the equivalence class containing $x, A *$ the collection of equivalence classes. $I^{*}$ is defined on $A^{*}$ by

$$
x * I * y * \longleftrightarrow x I y
$$

$G^{*}=\left(A^{*}, I^{*}\right)$ will be called the reduction of the graph $G=(A, I)$. If $G \cong G^{*}$, we shall say $G$ is reduced.

Roberts [2] defines a point $a$ in $(A, I)$ as an extreme point if whenever $x$ and $y$ are adjacent to but not equivalent to $a$, then $x I y$ and ( $\exists z)[x I z \&$
$y I z \& \sim a I z]$. (This definition is motivated by considering extreme points of finite subsets of $R$ and letting $I$ mean "within $\epsilon$.") It is easy to see that

Lemma 1. If $a$ and $b$ are extreme points in a graph $(A, I)$, then
(a) (aIx and aIy) $\rightarrow x I y$.
(b) $a \mathrm{Ib} \rightarrow a E b$.

Definition. A graph $G=(A, I)$ is an indifference graph if for every (finite) ${ }^{1}$ connected subgraph $H$ of $G$, either $H^{*}$ has exactly one point or $H^{*}$ has precisely two extreme points.

Remark. It is easy to write this out in terms of first order, universal sentences. It can be shown however that one first order universal sentence is not sufficient.

Theorem 1 (Roberts [2]). A finite graph ( $A, I$ ) is an indifference graph if and only if there is a function $f: A \rightarrow \notin$ satisfying (1). ${ }^{2}$

Indifference graphs are linear tolerance spaces in a somewhat more general sense than Theorem 1. The points of an indifference graph can be simply (linearly) ordered so that points which are "close" (adjacent) can never surround points which are not close (nonadjacent). In particular, it is proved in Roberts [3] that a graph $(A, I)$ is an indifference graph if and only if there is a simple order $R$ on $A$ so that for all $x, y, u, v \in A$,

$$
\begin{equation*}
x R u R v R y \& x I y \rightarrow u I v \tag{2}
\end{equation*}
$$

If $R$ satisfies (2), we shall say that $R$ is compatible with $I$. It turns out that extreme points of the graph correspond to extreme points (maxima and minima) of the compatible simple order. Summarizing, we have
Theorem 2 (Roberts [3]).
(a) A graph $(A, I)$ is an indifference graph if and only if there is a simple order $R$ on A compatible with $I$.
(b) If $(A, I)$ is a reduced, connected indifference graph, then $a$ is an extreme point of $(A, I)$ if and only if $a$ is an extreme point (maximum or minimum) of every compatible simple order.
(c) If $G=(A, I)$ is a connected indifference graph and $a, b$ are nonadjacent extreme points of $G$, then there is a compatible simple order $R$ on $A$ so that for all $x \in A$, aRxRb.

Note. Part (c) of this theorem follows from part (b), given the observation that $a$ is an extreme point of $G$ if and only if $a^{*}$ is an extreme point of $G^{*}$ and the observation that we may pass from a compatible simple order on $G^{*}$ to one on $G$ by arbitrarily ordering points within equivalence classes.

[^1]3. $\epsilon$-Betweenness on the Line In Tarski's [6] fundamental axiomatization of Euclidean geometry, he uses as primitives a ternary relation of betweenness $B$ on a set $A$ and a quaternary relation of equidistance on $A$. The main point of this paper is to state a Tarski-type axiomatization for tolerance geometry for the simplest case, namely, the one-dimensional one.

It turns out that if we limit ourselves to the line, the classical Tarski axioms can be replaced by a simple set of axioms stated only in terms of betweenness. We list these below. For ease of comparison, we shall number them starting with Axiom C2.

Classical Axioms for Betweenness on the Line For all $x, y, z, u, v$ in $A$ :
C 2 . $\mathrm{B}(x, y, z) \rightarrow \mathrm{B}(z, y, x)$.
C3. $\mathrm{B}(x, y, z)$ or $\mathrm{B}(x, z, y)$ or $\mathrm{B}(y, x, z)$.
C4. $\mathrm{B}(x, y, u)$ and $\mathrm{B}(y, z, u) \rightarrow \mathrm{B}(x, y, z)$.
C5. If $u \neq v$, then $\mathrm{B}(x, u, v)$ and $\mathrm{B}(u, v, y) \rightarrow \mathrm{B}(x, u, y)$.
C6. $\mathrm{B}(x, y, z)$ and $\mathrm{B}(y, x, z) \rightarrow x=y$.
C7. $x=y \rightarrow \mathrm{~B}(x, y, z)$.
Theorem 3. Suppose $B$ is a ternary relation on a finite set $A$. Then Axioms C2-C7 are necessary and sufficient for the existence of a 1-1 function $f: A \rightarrow$ th so that for all $x, y, z \in A$,

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mathrm{B}(x, y, z) \leftrightarrow[f(x) \leqq f(y) \leqq f(z) \text { or } f(z) \leqq f(y) \leqq f(x)] . \tag{3}
\end{equation*}
$$

Proof. Necessity is straightforward and sufficiency can be verified by induction on $|A|$.

The tolerance axioms for betweenness on the line characterize the relation of $\epsilon$-betweenness. If $B$ is the relation of classical betweenness on the set $A$, then there is a function $f: A \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ so that for all $x, y, z \in A$,

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mathrm{B}(x, y, z) \leftrightarrow|f(x)-f(y)|+|f(y)-f(z)|=|f(x)-f(z)| . \tag{4}
\end{equation*}
$$

For $\epsilon$-betweenness, we would like conditions on ( $A, B$ ) necessary and sufficient for the existence of a function $f: A \rightarrow \notin$ satisfying, for all $x, y, z \in A$,

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mathrm{B}(x, y, z) \leftrightarrow|f(x)-f(y)|+|f(y)-f(z)|<|f(x)-f(z)|+\epsilon . \tag{5}
\end{equation*}
$$

The tolerance axioms are stated in terms of $B$ and a binary relation $I$ on $A$ defined from $B$ by

$$
\begin{equation*}
x I y \longleftrightarrow \mathrm{~B}(x, y, x) . \tag{6}
\end{equation*}
$$

Axioms for $\epsilon$-Betweenness on the Line For all $x, y, z, u, v$ in $A$ :
T1. $(A, I)$ is an indifference graph.
T2. $\mathrm{B}(x, y, z) \rightarrow \mathrm{B}(z, y, x)$.
T3. $\mathrm{B}(x, y, z)$ or $\mathrm{B}(x, z, y)$ or $\mathrm{B}(y, x, z)$.
T4. $\mathrm{B}(x, y, u)$ and $\mathrm{B}(y, z, u)$ and $\sim \mathrm{B}(x, y, z) \rightarrow u I y$ and uIz.
T5. If $\sim u I v$, then $\mathrm{B}(x, u, v)$ and $\mathrm{B}(u, v, y) \rightarrow \mathrm{B}(x, u, y)$.
T6. $\mathrm{B}(x, y, z)$ and $\mathrm{B}(y, x, z) \rightarrow x I y$ or (zIx and $z I y)$.
T 7 . $x I y \rightarrow \mathrm{~B}(x, y, z)$.

Our main objective is to prove
Theorem 4. Suppose $B$ is a ternary relation on a finite set $A$ and $\epsilon>0$ is given. Then Axioms T1-T7 are necessary and sufficient for the existence of a function $f: A \rightarrow \notin$ satisfying (5). ${ }^{3}$

To prove necessity of the axioms, use the observation that $x I y \leftrightarrow \mid f(x)$ $f(y) \mid<\epsilon_{2}$. The sufficiency proof starts with the observation that if $(A, I)$ is reduced, then $B$ restricted to the collection of extreme points of ( $A, I$ ) satisfies the classical axioms C2-C7 (Lemma 3). It follows from Theorem 3 that in general $B$ on the set of extreme points comes from a weak order, i.e., a binary relation $R$ which is reflexive, transitive, and complete (i.e., for all $x, y, x R y$, or $y R x$ ). We choose an extreme point $x_{0}$ minimal in this order.

Define a binary relation $P$ on $A$ by

$$
\begin{equation*}
x P y \leftrightarrow B\left(x_{0}, y, x\right) \text { and } \sim x I y . \tag{7}
\end{equation*}
$$

The basic result is that $P$ is a semiorder, a concept due to Luce [1] and to Scott and Suppes [5]. To prove this, we use the theorem (Roberts [2]) that a binary relation is a semiorder if and only if it is asymmetric and transitive and its symmetric complement is an indifference graph. (The symmetric complement of a binary relation $(A, P)$ is a binary relation $(A, I)$ so that $x I y \leftrightarrow \sim x P y \& \sim y P x$.) The key to the proof hinges on showing that in fact, $I$ is the symmetric complement of $P$. This is finally established in Lemma 7, after proving Lemmas 4-6 as preliminary lemmas.

Once it is established that $P$ is a semiorder, the Scott-Suppes [5] representation theorem for semiorders gives an $f$ so that

$$
x P y \leftrightarrow f(x) \geq f(y)+\epsilon / 2
$$

This $f$ satisfies (5) as well.
We now turn to the details of the proof. Note first that $I$ is symmetric and reflexive by Axiom T1, since all graphs are symmetric and reflexive by definition.

Lemma 2 (Symmetric versions of Axioms T4 and T5.)
(a) $\mathrm{B}(x, y, z) \& \mathrm{~B}(x, z, u) \& \sim \mathrm{~B}(y, z, u) \rightarrow x I y \& x I z$.
(b) If $\sim u I v$, then $\mathrm{B}(x, u, v) \& \mathrm{~B}(u, v, y) \rightarrow \mathrm{B}(x, v, y)$.

Proof. (a) Ax. T2 and Ax. T4. (b) Ax. T2 and Ax. T5.
Lemma 3. If $(A, I)$ is reduced, then $B$ restricted to the collection of extreme points of $(A, I)$ satisfies the classical axioms, C2-C7.

Proof. Note that Axioms C2 and C3 go through unchanged from Axioms T2 and T3. Axioms C5 and C7 follow from our corresponding T-axioms if we note that by Lemma 1 b , two extreme points which are adjacent are also

[^2]equivalent and hence, since ( $A, I$ ) is reduced, are equal. Axiom C 6 follows from Ax. T6, using both parts of Lemma 1. Finally, to verify Ax. C4, suppose $B(x, y, u)$ and $B(y, z, u)$ and $\sim B(x, y, z)$. Then by Ax. T4, uIy and $u I z$. By the extremality of $u$ and Lemma 1a, yIz. Thus, by Ax. T7, $B(x, y, z)$, which is a contradiction. Q.E.D.

To handle the case where ( $A, I$ ) may not be reduced, we define $B^{*}$ on $A^{*}$ by $B^{*}\left(x^{*}, y^{*}, z^{*}\right) \leftrightarrow B(x, y, z)$. Proof that $B^{*}$ is well-defined is tedious but relatively straight-forward. If ( $A, B$ ) satisfies Axioms $\mathrm{T} 1-\mathrm{T} 7$, then it is easy to verify that $\left(A^{*}, B^{*}\right)$ does also. One technical point: the $I$ defined from $B^{*}$ by $B^{*}\left(x^{*}, y^{*}, x^{*}\right)$ is in fact $I^{*}$.

Note that $\left(A^{*}, I^{*}\right)$ is reduced. Thus, by Lemma 3, there is a simple order $R^{*}$ on the collection of extreme points of ( $A^{*}, I^{*}$ ) such that for all extreme points $\alpha, \beta, \gamma$ in $\left(A^{*}, I^{*}\right), B^{*}(\alpha, \beta, \gamma)$ if and only if $\beta$ is between $\alpha$ and $\gamma$ in $R^{*}$. Note that $x$ is an extreme point of $(A, I)$ if and only if $x^{*}$ is an extreme point of $\left(A^{*}, I *\right)$. Define a weak order $R$ on the collection of extreme points in ( $A, I$ ) by $x R y \leftrightarrow x * R * y *$. Then for all extreme points $x, y, z$ in $(A, I), B(x, y, z)$ if and only if $y$ is between $x$ and $z$ in $R$.

Let $x_{0}$ be a minimum point in the weak order $R$, i.e., an extreme point so that whenever $x$ and $y$ are extreme points then $B\left(x_{0}, x, y\right)$ or $B\left(x_{0}, y, x\right)$. Define $P$ on $A$ by (7). We shall prove (Lemma 8) that $P$ is a semiorder. To establish this, we show first that $I$ is the symmetric complement of $P$, by a series of lemmas, culminating in Lemma 7.

Lemma 4. Suppose $x$ and $y$ are in the same component $K$ of $(A, I)$ and $a \notin K$. Then $\sim B(x, a, y)$.

Proof. It is sufficient to prove either $B(x, y, a)$ or $B(y, x, a)$. For suppose, say, $B(x, y, a)$ holds. Then, $B(x, a, y)$ cannot hold, otherwise by Ax. T6, either $a I y$ or ( $x I a$ and $x I y$ ). Both contradict $a \notin K$.

The proof proceeds by induction on the distance $d(x, y)$. If $d(x, y)=0$, then $x=y$ and so $x I y . B(x, y, a)$ follows by Ax. T7. By way of induction, let $x \ldots z y$ be a minimum length path from $x$ to $y$. Then $d(x, z)<d(x, y)$, so by inductive assumption, $B(x, z, a)$ or $B(z, x, a)$. Suppose $\sim B(x, y, a)$ and $\sim B(y, x, a)$. By Ax. T3, $B(x, a, y)$. If $B(x, z, a)$ is the case, then by Lemma 2a, we conclude $B(z, a, y)$, since $x I a$ implies $a \in K$, contrary to assumption. Now $y I z$, so $B(a, z, y)$. By Ax. T6 we conclude $a \in K$, again a contradiction.

If $B(z, x, a)$, then using $B(x, a, y)$, Lemma 2 b and the fact that $a \notin K$, we conclude $B(z, a, y)$. Since $y I z$, we also have $B(a, z, y)$. By Ax. T6, we again conclude $a \in K$, contrary to assumption. Q.E.D.

Lemma 5. Suppose $R$ is a compatible simple order on $(A, I)$ and $(A, I)$ is connected. Then $x R y R z \rightarrow B(x, y, z)$.
Proof. Suppose $x R y R z$ holds. We may assume that $x, y$, and $z$ are distinct. We may also assume $\sim x I y$ and $\sim y I z$, for otherwise $B(x, y, z)$ follows by Ax. T7. Let $A^{\prime}=A-\{u \neq x, y: x R u R y\}$, let $A^{\prime \prime}=A-\{v \neq y, z: y R v R z\}$, and let $I^{\prime}$ and $I^{\prime \prime}$ be the restrictions of $I$ to $A^{\prime}$ and $A^{\prime \prime}$, respectively. Using the definition of compatibility, one proves that $y$ and $z$ are in one component of
( $A^{\prime}, I^{\prime}$ ) while $x$ is in a different one. Thus, by Lemma $4, \sim B(y, x, z)$. Similarly, using ( $A^{\prime \prime}, I^{\prime \prime}$ ), we find $\sim B(x, z, y)$. Thus by Ax. T3, $B(x, y, z)$, as desired. Q.E.D.

Lemma 6. If $a$ is an extreme point of a component $K$ of $(A, I)$ and $x, y \in K$, then $B(a, x, y)$ or $B(a, y, x)$.

Proof. If $K^{*}$ has only one point, then $a E x$, so $a I x$ and we conclude $B(a, x, y)$ from Ax. T7. If $K^{*}$ has more than one point, then, since $(A, I)$ is an indifference graph, by definition $K^{*}$ has exactly two extreme points. It follows by Lemma 1 b that there must be an extreme point $b$ of ( $A, I$ ) nonadjacent to $a$. It follows from Theorem 2c that there is a compatible simple order $R$ on $A$ such that $a R y R b$. We conclude $B(a, y, b)$, by Lemma 5. Similarly, $B(a, x, b)$. Suppose now Lemma 6 is false, i.e., suppose $B(x, a, y)$. Now $B(x, a, y)$ and $B(a, y, b)$ implies either $a I y$ or $B(x, a, b)$, by Ax. T5. If $a I y$, then $B(a, y, x)$, and Lemma 6 is true. If $B(x, a, b)$, then, since $B(a, x, b)$, we conclude by Ax. T6 that $a I x$ or (bIa and bIx). But $\sim b I a$, by choice of $b$. Thus, $a I x$; and so from Ax. T7, we conclude $B(a, x, y)$, as desired. Q.E.D.

Lemma 7. I is the symmetric complement of $P$.
Proof. By definition of $P$, if $x I y$, then $\sim x P y$ and $\sim y P x$. To complete the proof, it is sufficient to verify the claim that for all $x, y, B\left(x_{0}, x, y\right)$ or $B\left(x_{0}, y, x\right)$. For then $\sim x I y \rightarrow(x P y$ or $y P x)$. We verify the claim by cases. $K_{0}$ will denote the component containing $x_{0}$.

Case 1. $x, y \in$ the same component $K$ and $K=K_{0}$.
Case 2. $x, y \in$ the same component $K$ and $K \neq K_{0}$.
Case 3. $x, y \in$ different components $K_{1}$ and $K_{2}$ and $K_{1}$, say, is the same as $K_{0}$.
Case 4. $x, y \in$ different components $K_{1}$ and $K_{2}$ and neither is $K_{0}$.
Case 1. The claim follows by Lemma 6.
Case 2. The claim follows by Lemma 4 and Ax. T3.
Case 3. By Lemma 4, $B\left(x, x_{0}, y\right)$ or $B\left(x_{0}, x, y\right)$. The latter is as desired. Therefore, assume the former. If $K_{0}^{*}$ has just one point, then $x E x_{0}$ and $B\left(x_{0}, x, y\right)$ follows by Ax. T7. If $K_{0}^{*}$ has two extreme points, then, since $(A, I)$ is an indifference graph, there is an extreme point $y_{0}$ of $K_{0}$ nonadjacent to $x_{0}$. Let $a$ be an extreme point in $K_{2}$.

We have by definition of $x_{0}$ either $B\left(x_{0}, y_{0}, a\right)$ or $B\left(x_{0}, a, y_{0}\right)$. The latter is impossible, by Lemma 4. Thus, $B\left(x_{0}, y_{0}, a\right)$. This gives us the initial step of an inductive proof that in fact $B\left(x_{0}, y_{0}, y\right)$ holds, where the induction is on $d(y, a)$. Using $B\left(x_{0}, y_{0}, y\right)$ and the assumption $B\left(x, x_{0}, y\right)$, we conclude by Ax. T4 that either $B\left(x, x_{0}, y_{0}\right)$ or ( $y I x_{0}$ and $y I y_{0}$ ). The latter is impossible, since $y \in K_{2}, y_{0} \in K_{0}$ and $K_{2} \neq K_{0}$. Thus $B\left(x, x_{0}, y_{0}\right)$. But by Lemma $5, B\left(x_{0}, x, y_{0}\right)$, since by Theorem 2 c there is a compatible simple order $R$ on $(A, I)$ such that $x_{0} R x R y_{0}$. Thus, $B\left(x, x_{0}, y_{0}\right)$ and $B\left(x_{0}, x, y_{0}\right)$; and so by Ax. T6, either $x I x_{0}$ or ( $y_{0} I x$ and $y_{0} I x_{0}$ ). The latter is impossible, since $y_{0}$ and $x_{0}$ are nonadjacent. Thus $x I x_{0}$. The conclusion $B\left(x_{0}, x, y\right)$ follows by Ax. T7.

Case 4. Suppose $\sim B\left(x_{0}, x, y\right)$ and $\sim B\left(x_{0}, y, x\right)$. Then by Ax. T3, $B\left(x, x_{0}, y\right)$. Let $a$ and $b$ be extreme points of $K_{1}$ and $K_{2}$, respectively. We show $B\left(a, x_{0}, b\right)$. This is a contradiction. For by definition of $x_{0}$, either $B\left(x_{0}, a, b\right)$ or $B\left(x_{0}, b, a\right)$ holds. In either case, an application of Ax. T6 shows that $a, b, x_{0}$ are not in different components, and this is a contradiction.

To establish $B\left(a, x_{0}, b\right)$, one first establishes $B\left(a, x_{0}, y\right)$ by induction on $d(a, x)$ and then argues by induction on $d(b, y)$. Q.E.D.

Lemma 8. P as defined by (7) is a semiorder.
Proof. It follows from Theorem 5, Corollary 2 of Roberts [2] that a binary relation $P$ is a semiorder if it is irreflexive and transitive and its symmetric complement is an indifference graph. By Lemma 7 and Ax. T1, it is sufficient to prove that $P$ is transitive. To do this, suppose $x P y$ and $y P z$. Then $B\left(x_{0}, y, x\right)$ and $B\left(x_{0}, z, y\right)$. By Lemma 2a, either $B(z, y, x)$ or ( $x_{0} I y$ and $x_{0} I z$ ). If $x_{0} I y$ and $x_{0} I z$, then by Lemma 1a, the extremality of $x_{0}$ implies $y I z$, violating $y P z$. We conclude $B(x, y, z)$. This conclusion implies $\sim x I z$, for if $x I z$, then by Ax. T7, $B(y, x, z)$. Thus, by Ax. T6, either xIy or ( $z I x$ and $z I y$ ), violating $x P y$ or $y P z$.

To finish the proof of $x P z$, it is sufficient by Lemma 7 to show $\sim z P x$. But suppose $z P x$. Then $B\left(x_{0}, x, z\right)$. This plus $B\left(x_{0}, y, x\right)$ implies $B(y, x, z)$ or ( $x_{0} I y$ and $x_{0} I x$ ), by Lemma 2a. But by the extremality of $x_{0}, x_{0} I y$ and $x_{0} I x$ implies $y I x$, whence $\sim x P y$. Thus, $B(y, x, z)$. Also $B(x, y, z)$, as proved above. Axiom T6 now implies $\sim y P x$ or $\sim y P z$. These contradictions show that the assumption $z P x$ is impossible. Q.E.D.

To complete the proof of sufficiency of the Axioms T1-T7, we note that by a theorem of Scott and Suppes [5], there is a function $f: A \rightarrow \notin$ so that ${ }^{4}$

$$
\begin{equation*}
x P y \leftrightarrow f(x) \geq f(y)+\epsilon / 2 \tag{8}
\end{equation*}
$$

Observing that $x I y \leftrightarrow|f(x)-f(y)|<\epsilon / 2$, the reader can verify that $f$ satisfies (5) of Theorem 4, as desired.

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[^1]:    1. All the graphs in this paper are finite, so finiteness of $H$ will be understood below.
    2. The function may be taken 1-1 without loss of generality.
[^2]:    3. It follows from the proof that the function $f$ may be taken 1-1 without loss of generality.
