

Skript zur Vorlesung Differentialgeometrie, WS 04/05

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1. LÄNGENRÄUME

Definition 1.1 (Metrischer Raum). Sei X eine Menge. Eine *Metrik* auf X ist eine Funktion $d: X \times X \rightarrow [0, \infty)$ mit den folgenden Eigenschaften.

- i) *Positivität*: $d(x, y) \geq 0$ für alle $x, y \in X$, $d(x, y) = 0 \Leftrightarrow x = y$.
- ii) *Symmetrie*: $d(x, y) = d(y, x)$.
- iii) *Dreiecksungleichung*: $d(x, z) \leq d(x, y) + d(y, z)$.

(X, d) heißt dann *metrischer Raum*, $d(x, y)$ ist der *Abstand* zwischen x und y .
Für $x \in X$ und $r > 0$ sei $B(x, r) = \{y \in X \mid d(x, y) < r\}$ der *offene Ball* vom Radius r um x . Eine Teilmenge U von X heißt *offen* falls es zu jedem $x \in U$ ein $\epsilon > 0$ gibt mit $B(x, \epsilon) \subset U$.

Eine Abbildung $f: (X, d) \rightarrow (Y, d')$ zwischen metrischen Räumen heißt *stetig* falls für jede offene Teilmenge U von Y die Menge $f^{-1}U \subset X$ offen ist.

Beispiele: 1) Der *diskrete metrische Raum*.

Sei X eine beliebige Menge; dann definiert

$$d(x, y) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{falls } x \neq y \\ 0 & \text{sonst} \end{cases}$$

eine Metrik auf X . Für jedes $x \in X$ und jedes $\epsilon \in (0, 1)$ gilt $B(x, \epsilon) = \{x\}$.

2) Der *euklidische Raum* \mathbb{R}^n .

Sei $X = \mathbb{R}^n$ und $d((x_1, \dots, x_n), (y_1, \dots, y_n)) = \|x - y\| = \{\sum (x_i - y_i)^2\}^{\frac{1}{2}}$

Dies definiert eine Metrik auf \mathbb{R}^n . Positivität und Symmetrie ergeben sich sofort aus der Definition, die Dreiecksungleichung erhält man wie folgt.

$$\begin{aligned} d((x_1, \dots, x_n), (y_1, \dots, y_n))^2 &= \sum (x_i - y_i)^2 \\ &\leq \sum (|x_i - z_i| + |z_i - y_i|)^2 = \sum (x_i - z_i)^2 + \sum (z_i - y_i)^2 + 2 \sum |x_i - z_i| |z_i - y_i| \\ &\leq (\{\sum (x_i - z_i)^2\}^{\frac{1}{2}} + \{\sum (z_i - y_i)^2\}^{\frac{1}{2}})^2 \end{aligned}$$

Hierbei ist die letzte Ungleichung genau die *Cuachy-Schwarzsche* Ungleichung. Es gilt $\|x - y\| = \|x - z\| + \|z - y\|$ genau wenn es ein $s \in [0, 1]$ gibt mit $z = x + s(y - x)$, d.h. wenn z auf der Strecke in \mathbb{R}^n liegt, die x mit y verbindet.

3) Die *Einheitssphäre* $S^n = \{x \in \mathbb{R}^{n+1} \mid \|x\| = 1\}$

Die Einheitssphäre kann mit der Einschränkung d der euklidischen Metrik auf \mathbb{R}^{n+1} versehen werden, d.h. wir setzen $d(x, y) = \|x - y\|$.

4) Sei \langle, \rangle das *euklidische Skalarprodukt* $\langle x, y \rangle = \sum_{i=1}^2 x_i y_i$ von \mathbb{R}^2 . Für $x, y \in S^1 = \{x \in \mathbb{C} \mid \|x\| = 1\} \subset \mathbb{R}^2$ definiere $\cos \angle(x, y) = \langle x, y \rangle$. Jeder Punkt

aus S^1 kann in der Form $e^{i\theta}$ ($\theta \in \mathbb{R}$) geschrieben werden wobei θ nur bis auf Vielfache von 2π bestimmt ist. Wenn $x = e^{i\theta}$ fest gewählt ist, dann existiert zu jedem $y \in S^1$ genau ein $\rho \in (-\pi, \pi]$, so daß $y = e^{i(\theta+\rho)}$. Der orientierte Winkel zwischen x and y ist dann $\sphericalangle(x, y) = \rho$, $\cos \rho = \langle x, y \rangle$. Wir können nun $d(x, y) = |\sphericalangle(x, y)|$ definieren. Dies hat folgende Interpretation: $d(x, y) = \min\{|q| \mid q \in \mathbb{R}, x = e^{i\theta}, y = e^{i(\theta+q)}\} \leq \pi$. Somit ist die Dreiecksungleichung klar.

Behauptung: Diese Metrik d auf S^1 ist *homothetisch* zu $\|\cdot\|$ (d. h. es gibt keine Zahl $\lambda > 0$ mit $d(x, y) = \lambda\|x - y\|$).

Zum Beweis der Behauptung seien $x, y \in S^1$ beliebig; dann gibt es einen *Mittelpunkt* $z \in S^1$ zwischen x and y , d.h. z erfüllt $d(x, z) = d(z, y) = \frac{1}{2}d(x, y)$. Nämlich wenn $x = e^{i\theta}, y = e^{i(\theta+\rho)}$ mit $|\rho| = d(x, y)$, dann ist der Punkt $z = e^{i(\theta+\rho/2)}$ ein Mittelpunkt.

Auf der anderen Seite gibt es zu $x = 1, y = -1 \in S^1$ keinen Mittelpunkt zwischen x, y bezüglich der von $\|\cdot\|$ induzierten Metrik denn $\|x - y\| = 2$ und für $z \in S^1$ folgt aus $\|x - z\| = 1$ dass $\|z - y\| > 1$. Weil die Existenz von Mittelpunkten unabhängig von Skalierungen ist, ist d nicht homothetisch zu $\|\cdot\|$.

Definition 1.2. Sei (X, d) metrischer Raum und $x, y \in X$. Ein *Mittelpunkt* zwischen x und y ist ein Punkt $m(x, y)$ für den $d(x, z) = d(y, z) = \frac{1}{2}d(x, y)$ gilt.

Beispiel: Zu $x, y \in \mathbb{R}^n$ gibt es einen *eindeutig bestimmten* Mittelpunkt $z = x + \frac{1}{2}(y-x)$ zwischen x und y . Zunächst ist z Mittelpunkt, andererseits folgt für einen beliebigen Mittelpunkt z' daß $\|x-y\| = \|x-z'+z'-y\| = \|x-z'\| + \|z'-y\|$, d. h. aus der starken Form der Dreiecksungleichung ergibt sich daß $x-y, x-z', -y+z'$ linear abhängig sind $\Rightarrow z' = z$. Also: Wenn $x \neq y \in S^1$ dann liegt dieser Mittelpunkt *nicht* in S^1 .

Insbesondere ist für $x, y \in \mathbb{R}^n$ ein Mittelpunkt zwischen x and y allein durch die von der Norm $\|\cdot\|$ induzierte Metrik bestimmt und liegt auf der Strecke von x nach y (Mittelpunkt der Strecke).

Sei nun $m(x, y)$ Mittelpunkt zwischen x und y ; dann ist $m(x, m(x, y))$ der Mittelpunkt der Strecke von x nach $m(x, y)$; er liegt auf der Strecke von x nach y etc. Durch iterative Bildung von Mittelpunkten erhält man eine *dichte* Teilmenge der Strecke von x nach y , d.h. eine Teilmenge, deren *Abschluß* die gesamte Strecke ist.

Definition 1.3. Seien $(X, d), (Y, d')$ metrische Räume. Eine Abbildung $f: X \rightarrow Y$ heißt *abstandserhaltend* wenn $d'(fx, fy) = d(x, y)$ für alle x, y (insbesonder ist dann f injektiv). f heißt *Isometrie* falls f abstandserhaltend und surjektiv ist. Die Menge $\text{Iso}(X)$ der Isometrien von (X, d) bilden eine Gruppe.

Beispiel: *Isometrien des euklidischen Raumes.*

Sei $y_0 \in \mathbb{R}^n$; die *Translation* $T_{y_0}: x \rightarrow x + y_0$ mit y_0 ist eine Isometrie, denn $\|(x + y_0) - (y + y_0)\| = \|x - y\|$. Die Menge aller solcher Translationen bildet eine zu $(\mathbb{R}^n, +)$ isomorphe Untergruppe von $\text{Iso}(\mathbb{R}^n)$. Ebenso: Wenn $A \in O(n)$

und $x, y \in \mathbb{R}^n$, dann gilt $\|Ax - Ay\| = \|A(x - y)\| = \|x - y\|$, d.h. $O(n)$ ist eine Untergruppe von $\text{Iso}(\mathbb{R}^n)$.

Für $A \in O(n), y_0 \in \mathbb{R}^n$ definiere $(A, y_0)(z) = Az + y_0$. Dann ist (A, y_0) eine Isometrie und $(A, y_0)(B, z_0)(w) = (A, y_0)(Bw + z_0) = ABw + Az_0 + y_0 = (AB, Az_0 + y_0)(w)$. Dies bedeutet dass das *semi-direkte Produkt* $O(n) \ltimes \mathbb{R}^n$ von $O(n)$ und \mathbb{R}^n , d.h. die Menge $O(n) \times \mathbb{R}^n$ versehen mit der Multiplikation $(A, x)(B, y) = (AB, x + Ay)$ eine Untergruppe von $\text{Iso}(\mathbb{R}^n)$ ist. Diese Untergruppe ist ein *semi-direktes* Produkt der Gruppen $O(n)$ und \mathbb{R}^n und wird mit $O(n) \ltimes \mathbb{R}^n$ bezeichnet.

In \mathbb{R}^n ist eine Strecke durch ihre Endpunkte bestimmt; da eine Isometrie Mittelpunkte auf Mittelpunkte abbildet und ausserdem stetig ist, \Rightarrow bildet $\text{Iso}(\mathbb{R}^n)$ Strecken auf Strecken ab und damit auch Geraden $\{x + tv \mid t \in \mathbb{R}, v \in \mathbb{R}^n\}$ auf Geraden. Dies benutzen wir um zu zeigen.

Satz 1.4. $\text{Iso}(\mathbb{R}^n) = O(n) \ltimes \mathbb{R}^n$

Beweis: Sei $\phi \in \text{Iso}(\mathbb{R}^n)$; dann ist $T_{-\phi(0)} \circ \phi$ eine Isometrie, die 0 auf 0 abbildet. Es genügt also zu zeigen dass jedes $\phi \in \text{Iso}(\mathbb{R}^n)$ welches $\phi(0) = 0$ erfüllt ein Element der orthogonalen Gruppe $O(n)$ ist.

Hierzu sei $S^{n-1} = \{x \mid |x| = 1\}$ die Menge der Punkte aus \mathbb{R}^n deren Abstand zu 0 genau 1 ist. Dann muss gelten $\phi(S^{n-1}) = S^{n-1}$. Zu einem beliebigen Punkt $x \in S^{n-1}$ gibt es ein $A \in O(n)$ mit $A(\phi(x)) = x$. Weil der Schnitt $S^{n-1} \cap x^\perp$ von S^{n-1} mit dem orthogonalen Komplement x^\perp von x in \mathbb{R}^n genau die Menge $\{z \in S^{n-1} \mid \|z - x\| = \sqrt{2}\}$ und ϕ Geraden auf Geraden abbildet folgt $\phi(x^\perp) = x^\perp$.

Jetzt folgt die Behauptung sofort induktiv: Wenn sie für $n - 1$ bewiesen ist, dann existiert nach Induktionsannahme ein Element $B \in O(N)$ der Form $B = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & \\ & B' \end{pmatrix}$ mit $B' \in O(x^\perp)$ so dass $B \circ \phi|_{x^\perp} = \text{Id}$. Damit läßt $B \circ \phi$ jede Strecke von $y \in S^{n-1} \cap x^\perp$ nach x punktweise fest. Es folgt $B \circ \phi = \text{Id}$, denn ϕ bildet Geraden auf Geraden ab. (Bem: Natürlich kann man auch direkt schliessen, dass eine Abbildung des \mathbb{R}^n die den Nullpunkt fest läßt und Geraden in Geraden überführt, linear ist. Obiges einfache Argument wird aber später noch nützlich sein.) \square

Definition 1.5. Ein *Weg* in (X, d) ist eine stetige Abbildung $\gamma : [a, b] \subset \mathbb{R} \rightarrow X$. Eine *Partition* von $[a, b]$ ist eine Unterteilung $a = t_0 < \dots < t_k = b$. Die *Länge* von γ ist $\ell(\gamma) = \sup \sum_{i=1}^k d(\gamma(t_{i-1}), \gamma(t_i)) \in [0, \infty]$, wobei das Supremum über alle Partitionen von $[a, b]$ genommen wird. Wenn $\ell(\gamma) < \infty$ dann heißt der Weg *rektifizierbar*.

Eigenschaften der Länge:

- i) $\ell(\gamma) \geq d(\gamma(a), \gamma(b))$ (folgt sofort aus der Dreiecksungleichung).
- ii) Wenn $a = s_0 < \dots < s_m$ *Verfeinerung* von $a = t_0 < \dots < t_k = b$ ist, d.h. wenn es für jedes $i \leq k$ ein $j(i) \leq m$ mit $t_i = s_{j(i)}$ gibt, dann gilt $\sum_i d(\gamma(s_i), \gamma(s_{i-1})) \geq \sum_j d(\gamma(t_j), \gamma(t_{j-1}))$.

- iii) Wenn $\gamma = \gamma_1 * \gamma_2$ *Zusammensetzung* zweier Wege (dies ist dann definiert wenn der Endpunkt von γ_1 mit dem Anfangspunkt von γ_2 übereinstimmt) dann gilt $\ell(\gamma) = \ell(\gamma_1) + \ell(\gamma_2)$.
- iv) Sei $\sigma: [a', b'] \rightarrow [a, b]$ bijektiv; dann ist $\gamma \circ \sigma$ *Umparametrisierung* von γ ; es gilt $\ell(\gamma \circ \sigma) = \ell(\gamma)$ denn σ bildet eine Partition von $[a', b']$ auf eine Partition von $[a, b]$ ab.

Satz 1.6. Sei $\gamma: [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$ stetig differenzierbar; dann gilt $\ell(\gamma) = \int_a^b \|\gamma'(t)\| dt$.

Beweis: Sei $\gamma: [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$ stetig differenzierbar und $a = t_0 < \dots < t_k = b$ eine Partition von $[a, b]$. Dann gilt

$$\|\gamma(t_i) - \gamma(t_{i-1})\| = \left\| \int_{t_{i-1}}^{t_i} \gamma'(t) dt \right\| \leq \int_{t_{i-1}}^{t_i} \|\gamma'(t)\| dt$$

nach der Dreieckungleichung und hieraus $\ell(\gamma) \leq \int_a^b \|\gamma'(t)\| dt$.

Andererseits ist γ' nach Voraussetzung stetig. Zu $\varepsilon > 0$ gibt es daher eine Zahl $\sigma > 0$ mit $\|\gamma'(s) - \gamma'(t)\| < \varepsilon$ falls $|s - t| < \sigma$. Wenn nun $a = t_0 < \dots < t_k = b$ eine Partition von $[a, b]$ mit $|t_i - t_{i-1}| \leq \sigma$ ist dann folgt

$$\begin{aligned} \gamma(t_i) - \gamma(t_{i-1}) &= \int_{t_{i-1}}^{t_i} \gamma'(t) dt = \int_{t_{i-1}}^{t_i} \gamma'(t_{i-1}) + (\gamma'(t) - \gamma'(t_{i-1})) dt \\ &= (t_i - t_{i-1})\gamma'(t_{i-1}) + \int_{t_{i-1}}^{t_i} (\gamma'(t) - \gamma'(t_{i-1})) dt \end{aligned}$$

also $\|\gamma(t_i) - \gamma(t_{i-1})\| - (t_i - t_{i-1})\|\gamma'(t_{i-1})\| \geq - \int_{t_{i-1}}^{t_i} \|\gamma'(t) - \gamma'(t_{i-1})\| dt \geq \varepsilon(t_i - t_{i-1})$. Wie zuvor gilt außerdem $(t_i - t_{i-1})\|\gamma'(t_{i-1})\| \geq \int_{t_{i-1}}^{t_i} \|\gamma'(t)\| dt - \varepsilon(t_i - t_{i-1})$ und hieraus $\sum \|\gamma(t_i) - \gamma(t_{i-1})\| \geq \int \|\gamma'(t)\| dt - 2\varepsilon(b - a)$. Weil $\varepsilon > 0$ beliebig war folgt die Behauptung. \square

Definition 1.7. Eine Kurve $c: [a, b] \rightarrow X$ heißt *Geodätische* falls es ein Zahl $r \geq 0$ gibt mit $\ell(c|[a, t]) = rd(c(t), c(a)) \forall t \in [a, b]$. Ein metrischer Raum heißt *geodätischer metrischer Raum* wenn je zwei Punkte mit einer Geodätischen verbunden werden können.

Beispiel: $(\mathbb{R}^n, \|\cdot\|)$ ist ein geodätischer metrischer Raum.

Lemma 1.8. Wenn (X, d) ein geodätischer metrischer Raum ist dann gilt $d(x, y) = \min\{\ell(\gamma) \mid \gamma: [a, b] \rightarrow X \text{ Weg, } \gamma(a) = x, \gamma(b) = y\}$.

Beweis: Für jeden Weg γ gilt $d(\gamma(b), \gamma(a)) \leq \ell(\gamma)$, andererseits existiert ein Weg (nämlich eine Geodätische) für die Gleichheit herrscht. \square

Beispiel: S^1 versehen mit der Winkelmetrik ist geodätischer metrischer Raum.

Lemma 1.9. Let (X, d) be a metric space. Assume that any two points in X can be connected by a rectifiable path (in particular, X is path connected). Define $\hat{d}(x, y) = \inf\{\ell(\gamma) \mid \gamma(a) = x, \gamma(b) = y\}$; then \hat{d} is a metric on X and $\hat{d} \geq d$. We call \hat{d} the length-metric (“Längenmetrik”) of d .

Proof: If $\gamma: [a, b] \rightarrow X$ connects $\gamma(a) = x$ to $\gamma(b) = y$ then $\hat{\gamma}(t) = \gamma(b+t(a-b))$ ($t \in [0, 1]$) connects b to a and satisfies $\ell(\hat{\gamma}) = \ell(\gamma) \Rightarrow \hat{d}(x, y) = \hat{d}(y, x)$ (symmetry). Moreover we clearly have $\hat{d} \geq d \Rightarrow$ and therefore positivity holds. The triangle inequality follow from the fact that $\ell(\gamma_1 * \gamma_2) = \ell(\gamma_1) + \ell(\gamma_2)$. \square

Example: $S^1 \subset \mathbb{C}$, $d(x, y) = \|x - y\|$; $\hat{d}(x, y) = |\tau| \in [0, \pi]$ if $\tau \in [-\pi, \pi]$ is such that $x = e^{i\phi}$, $y = e^{i(\phi+\tau)}$, i.e. \hat{d} is the angular metric on S^1 .

Lemma 1.10. Let (X, d) be a metric space for which the length metric \hat{d} exists. If $\gamma: [a, b] \rightarrow X$ is a rectifiable curve then the \hat{d} -length of γ equals the d -length of γ ; in particular, we have $\hat{\hat{d}} = \hat{d}$.

Proof: Let $\hat{l}(\gamma)$ be the \hat{d} -length of γ ; since $\hat{d} \geq d$ we have $\hat{l}(\gamma) \geq l(\gamma)$. Now let $a = t_0 < \dots < t_k = b$ be any partition; then $\sum \hat{d}(\gamma(t_{i-1}), \gamma(t_i)) \leq \sum_i \ell(\gamma[t_{i-1}, t_i]) = \ell(\gamma)$ from which we immediately obtain that $\hat{l}(\gamma) \leq \ell(\gamma)$. \square

Example: Let d_0 be the normalized angular metric on S^1 , i.e. the length metric of the normalized norm $\|\cdot\|/\pi$. For $X = \mathbb{R}^2$ with polar coordinates (r, θ) define

$$d((r_1, \theta_1), (r_2, \theta_2)) = |r_1 - r_2| + \min\{r_1, r_2\}d_0(\theta_1, \theta_2)^{1/2}.$$

We claim that this defines a metric. Positivity and symmetry are immediate. To see that the triangle inequality holds, observe that

$$d((r_1, \theta_1), (r_2, \theta_2)) \leq d((r_1, \theta_1), (r_3, \theta_3)) + d((r_3, \theta_3), (r_2, \theta_2))$$

whenever $r_3 \geq \min\{r_1, r_2\}$ is immediate from the fact that $|a-b|^{1/2} \leq |a-c|^{1/2} + |c-b|^{1/2}$ for all $a, b, c \in \mathbb{R}$.

Now let $r_3 \leq \min\{r_1, r_2\} = r_1$; then $d((r_1, \theta_1), (r_3, \theta_3)) + d((r_3, \theta_3), (r_2, \theta_2)) \geq |r_1 - r_3| + |r_2 - r_3| + r_3 d_0(\theta_1, \theta_2)^{1/2}$ by the triangle inequality for d_0 and hence we only have to show that for every $\rho \leq 1$ and every $r > 0, t \leq r$ and $s \geq 0$ we have $s + r\rho \leq 2t + s + 2(r-t)\rho$ i.e. that $0 \leq 2t(1-\rho) + r\rho$. Since $\rho \leq 1$ this is immediate.

For every $\theta > 0$, every $b > 0$ the curve $t \in [0, b] \rightarrow (t, \theta)$ is rectifiable with respect to the metric d and therefore \hat{d} is a metric on \mathbb{R}^2 . However, the topology of \hat{d} is such that for every fixed every $r > 0, \theta \in [0, 2\pi)$ any open interval $(r - \varepsilon, r + \varepsilon) \times \{\theta\}$ is a open neighbourhood of (r, θ) .

Reminder: A metric space (X, d) is called *complete* if every *Cauchy sequence* $(x_i) \subset X$ converges (here a sequence $(x_i) \subset X$ is a Cauchy sequence if for $\varepsilon > 0$ there is some $i(\varepsilon) > 0$ such that $d(x_i, x_j) < \varepsilon$ for all $i, j \geq i(\varepsilon)$). For example, \mathbb{C} with the metric induced by the norm $\|\cdot\|$ is complete and $(\mathbb{C}^* = \mathbb{C} - \{0\}, \|\cdot\|)$ is *not* complete.

Proposition 1.11. Let (X, d) be a complete metric space. If for any 2 points $x, y \in X$ there is a midpoint $m(x, y)$ then X is geodesic.

Proof: Let $x, y \in X, d(x, y) = r > 0$. Define inductively $\gamma(0) = x, \gamma(1) = y, \gamma(\frac{2k+1}{2^i}) = m(\gamma(\frac{k}{2^{i-1}}, \gamma(\frac{k+1}{2^{i-1}}))$. Then inductively $d(\gamma(\frac{k}{2^i}), \gamma(\frac{l}{2^i})) = r|\frac{k}{2^i} - \frac{l}{2^i}| \Rightarrow$ if $t \in [0, 1]$ is arbitrary and $s_j \rightarrow t, s_j \in \{\frac{k}{2^i} | k \leq 2^i, i \geq 1\}$ then $(\gamma(s_j))$ is a Cauchy sequence and hence convergent. This allows to define $\gamma(t) = \lim_{j \rightarrow \infty} \gamma(s_j)$ and γ is a geodesic. \square

Example: For $(\mathbb{Q}, \|\cdot\|)$, any two points have a midpoint but $(\mathbb{Q}, \|\cdot\|)$ is not geodesic.

Question: When can we find for any two points in a complete metric space a midpoint?

Definition 1.12. A metric space (X, d) is called *proper* if for every $x \in X$, all $r > 0$ the *closed* ball $\overline{B}(x, r) = \{y \mid d(x, y) \leq r\}$ is compact.

Example: A proper metric space is locally compact. \mathbb{C}^* is locally compact but not proper.

Lemma 1.13. A proper metric space is complete.

Proof: Let (X, d) be a proper metric space and let $(x_i) \subset (X, d)$ be a Cauchy sequence. Then there is some $r > 0$ s. th. $d(x_0, x_i) \leq r$ for all $i > 0$ and hence $(x_i) \subset \overline{B}(x_0, r)$. But $\overline{B}(x_0, r)$ is compact and therefore (x_i) has a subsequence which converges to some $x \in \overline{B}(x_0, r)$. Then the limit does not depend on the subsequence since (x_i) is a Cauchy sequence. This shows that (X, d) is complete. \square

Lemma 1.14. Let (X, d) be proper length space; then X is geodesic.

Proof: We have to show that for any two points $x, y \in X$ there is a midpoint between x and y . For this choose a family of curves $\gamma_i: [0, 1] \rightarrow X, \gamma_i(0) = x, \gamma_i(1) = y$ and $\ell(\gamma_i) \rightarrow d(x, y) = r$.

For each i choose some $\tau_i \in [0, 1]$ such that $d(x, \gamma_i(\tau_i)) = r/2$. Then the sequence (z_i) is contained in the compact set $\overline{B}(x, r/2)$ and hence it has a convergent subsequence. Let z be a limit of this sequence. By continuity of the distance function we have $d(x, z) = r/2, d(z, y) = \lim d(z_i, y) \leq \limsup \ell(\gamma_i) - r/2 = r/2$ and hence z is a midpoint for x and y . \square

Theorem 1.15 (Hopf-Rinow). For a locally compact length space X the following are equivalent:

1. X is complete.
2. X is proper.

Proof: 2) \Rightarrow 1) follows immediately from the following fact. If $(x_i) \subset X$ is any Cauchy sequence then there is some $r > 0$ such that $(x_i) \subset \overline{B(x, r)}$. By assumption, $\overline{B(x, r)}$ is compact and hence complete. Thus the Cauchy sequence (x_i) converges.

To show that a complete locally compact length space (X, d) is proper let $x \in X$ be an arbitrary point. Since X is locally compact there is some $r_0 > 0$ such that $\overline{B(x, r_0)}$ is compact. Let $R = \sup\{r \geq r_0 \mid \overline{B(x, r)} \text{ is compact}\}$. We have to show that $R = \infty$. For this consider for the moment a *finite* number $R > 0$ such that for every $r < R$ the ball $\overline{B(x, r)}$ is compact.

Claim: $\overline{B(x, R)}$ is compact.

To show the claim we show that every sequence $(x_i) \subset \overline{B(x, R)}$ has a convergent subsequence. For this we begin with looking at a sequence $(x_i) \subset B(x, R)$. Then $r_i = d(x_i, x) < R$, and if $r_i \not\rightarrow R$ then there is some $\epsilon > 0$ such that after passing to a subsequence we may assume that $(x_i) \subset \overline{B(x, R - \epsilon)}$. By assumption, $\overline{B(x, R - \epsilon)}$ is compact and consequently our sequence admits a convergent subsequence. Thus we may assume that $r_i \rightarrow R$.

Choose a geodesic $\gamma_i : [0, 1] \rightarrow B(x, R)$ connecting x to $x_i = \gamma_i(1)$. To construct such a geodesic, choose a sequence of curves $(\gamma_i^j)_j$ connecting x to x_i with $\ell(\gamma_i^j) \rightarrow r_i = d(x, x_i)$. Now if $j > 0$ is sufficiently large that $\ell(\gamma_i^j) \leq R$ then $\gamma_i^j \subset \overline{B(x, R)}$ by the triangle inequality and therefore passing to a subsequence we may assume that $\gamma_i^j(\frac{1}{2})$ converges to a point $y \in B(x, R)$. Then y is a midpoint between x and x_i ; the construction of the geodesic γ_i can then be achieved using successive midpoints as in the proof of Lemma 1.13.

Now for each $i > 0, \ell > 0, k < 2^\ell$ we have $\gamma_i(\frac{k}{2^\ell}) \in \overline{B(x, R - \frac{1}{2^\ell})}$, and the latter ball is compact. Thus using a diagonal procedure we obtain a subsequence (x_{i_j}) with the property that for each $\ell \geq 1$ and each $k < 2^\ell$ the sequence $\gamma_{i_j}(k/2^\ell)$ converges to a point $\gamma(k/2^\ell)$. As a consequence, there is a geodesic $\gamma : [0, 1] \rightarrow B(x, R)$, $\gamma(t) = \lim_{m \rightarrow \infty} \gamma_{i_m}(t)$.

Now for $j, k > 0$ we have

$$d(\gamma(1 - \frac{1}{j}), \gamma(1 - \frac{1}{k})) \leq R|\frac{1}{j} - \frac{1}{k}|$$

$\Rightarrow (\gamma(1 - \frac{1}{j}))_j$ is a Cauchy sequence and hence convergent to a point $\gamma(1) = y$ since X is complete by assumption. On the other hand, for $\epsilon > 0$ there is some $m_0 > 0$ such that $d(\gamma_{i_m}(1 - \epsilon/3R), \gamma(1 - \epsilon/3R)) < \epsilon/3$ for all $m \geq m_0$. This implies that

$$\begin{aligned} d(\gamma(1), x_{i_m}) &\leq d(\gamma(1), \gamma(1 - \epsilon/3R)) + d(\gamma(1 - \epsilon/3R), \gamma_{i_m}(1 - \epsilon/3R)) \\ &\quad + d(\gamma_{i_m}(1 - \epsilon/3R), x_{i_m}) \leq \epsilon \end{aligned}$$

for all $m \geq m_0$ and hence $x_{i_m} \rightarrow x$. As a consequence, our sequence (x_i) admits a convergent subsequence. Thus we have shown: If $(x_i) \subset B(x, R)$ then (x_i) has a subsequence which converges in $\overline{B(x, R)}$.

Now let $(x_i) \subset \overline{B(x, R)}$ be an arbitrary sequence. Then for each i there is some $y_i \in B(x, R)$ such that $d(x_i, y_i) < \frac{1}{i}$. By our above argument, the sequence (y_i) has

a subsequence y_{i_j} which converges to some $x \in \overline{B(x, R)}$. But then also $\overline{x_{i_j}} \rightarrow x$ and hence $\overline{B(x, R)}$ is compact.

As a consequence, if $R = \sup\{r > 0 \mid \overline{B(x, r)} \text{ is compact}\} < \infty$ then the ball $\overline{B(x, R)}$ is compact. Thus for the proof of our theorem it is enough to show that if $\overline{B(x, R)}$ is compact, then there is some $\epsilon > 0$ such that $\overline{B(x, R + \epsilon)}$ is compact as well.

Thus assume that $\overline{B(x, R)}$ is compact. Since X is locally compact by assumption, for $y \in \overline{B(x, R)}$ there is a number $\epsilon(y) > 0$ such that the closed ball $\overline{B(y, 2\epsilon(y))}$ is compact.

Since $\overline{B(x, R)}$ is compact, the open covering of $\overline{B(x, R)}$ by the sets $B(y, \epsilon(y))$ ($y \in \overline{B(x, R)}$) has a finite subcover, say there are $y_1, \dots, y_k \in \overline{B(x, R)}$ such that $\overline{B(x, R)} \subset \cup_{i=1}^k B(y_i, \epsilon(y_i))$. Then $\cup_{i=1}^k \overline{B(y_i, 2\epsilon(y_i))}$ is a finite union of compact sets and hence it is a compact neighborhood of $\overline{B(x, R)}$.

Let $V = \cup_{i=1}^k (\overline{B(y_i, 2\epsilon(y_i))} - B(y_i, \epsilon(y_i)))$. Then V is a compact set which is disjoint from $\overline{B(x, R)}$. Thus the continuous function $z \rightarrow d(x, z)$ assumes a minimum $m > R$ on V . On the other hand, since X is a length space the ball $\overline{B(x, R + (m - R)/2)}$ is connected and hence it is contained in the connected component of $X - V$ containing $\overline{B(x, R)}$. As a consequence, $\overline{B(x, R + (m - R)/2)}$ is contained in $\cup_{i=1}^k \overline{B(y_i, 2\epsilon(y_i))}$ and hence it is compact. This completes the proof of our theorem. \square

Example: Closed submanifolds of \mathbb{R}^n are complete proper length spaces with the length structure induced from the euclidean distance.

We investigate more specifically the sphere $S^{n-1} = \{x \in \mathbb{R}^n \mid \|x\| = 1\}$ equipped with the length structure d induced by the euclidean distance. This sphere is a compact geodesic metric space. For any $x \neq y \in S^{n-1}$ there is a two-dimensional linear subspace \mathbb{R}^2 of \mathbb{R}^n containing x and y . Then $\mathbb{R}^2 \cap S^{n-1}$ is a rectifiable circle of length 2π which passes through both x and y ; such a circle is called a *great circle* in S^{n-1} . As a consequence, $d(x, y) \leq \pi$ for all $x, y \in S^{n-1}$.

To compute the geodesics of S^{n-1} , notice that the orthogonal group $O(n)$ acts as group of isometries on $(S^{n-1}, \|\cdot\|)$. Then $O(n)$ is also a group of isometries for d .

For $x \in S^{n-1}$ let $O_x = \{A \in O(n) \mid Ax = x\}$; then O_x preserves the intersection of S^{n-1} with any hyperplane (i.e. an $(n-1)$ -dimensional affine subspace of \mathbb{R}^n whose normal coincides with x). These hyperplanes cut S^{n-1} into a family of hyperspheres and the degenerate hyperspheres $\{x\}, \{-x\}$. The group O_x acts *transitively* on each such hypersphere H since $O(n-1)$ acts transitively on S^{n-2} ; this means that for any $y, z \in H$ there is some $A \in O_x$ such that $Ay = z$. Since O_x acts as a group of isometries on (S^{n-1}, d) the points on each of these hyperspheres have the same distance to x .

Now any such hypersphere H can be described as the set of points $y \in S^{n-1}$ which satisfy $\langle x, y \rangle = c$ for some $c \in [-1, 1]$ (here \langle, \rangle denotes the euclidean inner product). In particular, for any two points $y, z \in S^{n-1}$ the distance $d(y, z)$ only depends on $\langle y, z \rangle$.

We use this observation to show that the geodesics on S^{n-1} are precisely the subarcs of great circles. by continuity, it is enough to show that this is the case for a geodesic connecting a point $x \in S^{n-1}$ to $y \in S^{n-1} - \{x, -x\}$. Then there is a *unique* two dimensional subspace $P \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ containing both x and y . Choose $z \in P \cap S^{n-1}$ such that $\langle x, z \rangle = \langle y, z \rangle > 0$; notice that z is precisely the midpoint between x and y in the circle $P \cap S^{n-1}$. Let H_x, H_y be the hyperplane in \mathbb{R}^n which is perpendicular to x, y and which passes through z . Then $H_x \cap S^{n-1}, H_y \cap S^{n-1}$ are distance spheres for the metric d about the points x, y , and they contain the common point z . Moreover, H_x, H_y divide \mathbb{R}^n into two half-spaces, and if we denote by D_x, D_y the *closed* half-space bounded by H_x, H_y which contains x, y then $D_x \cap D_y \cap S^{n-1} = \{z\}$. But this just means that z is the unique midpoint between y and x and hence great circles are geodesics.

This consideration also implies that the isometry group $\text{Iso}(S^{n-1})$ of (S^{n-1}, d) coincides with $O(n)$, with the same inductive argument as used for the calculation of the isometry group of \mathbb{R}^n . Simply notice by our above consideration that for every $x \in S^{n-1}$ the intersection of S^{n-1} with the orthogonal complement x^\perp of x is *precisely* the set of all points whose distance to x equals $\pi/2$.

Definition 1.16. Let (X, d) be a metric space. A group G acts on X as a group of homeomorphisms (or isometries) (operiert als eine Gruppe von Homöomorphismen oder Isometrien) if there is a map $\Phi : G \times X \rightarrow X$ with the following properties.

- (1) For every $g \in G$ the map $\Phi_g : x \rightarrow \Phi(g, x)$ is a homeomorphism (or an isometry) of X .
- (2) $\Phi_{gh} = \Phi_g \circ \Phi_h$, i.e. we have $\Phi(gh, x) = \Phi(g, \Phi(h, x))$ for all $x \in X$, all $g, h \in G$.
- (3) $\Phi(e, x) = x$ for the unit element $e \in G$ and all $x \in X$.

The definition has the following interpretation: The map $g \rightarrow \Phi_g$ is a homomorphism of G into the group of all homeomorphisms (or isometries) of X .

Definition 1.17. Let G be a countable group which acts as a group of isometries on a proper metric space (X, d) . The action is called *properly discontinuous* (eigentlich diskontinuierlich) if for every compact subset K of X the set $\{g \in G \mid gK \cap K \neq \emptyset\}$ is finite.

Example: The group \mathbb{Z}^2 acts properly discontinuously as a group of isometries on $\mathbb{R}^2 = \mathbb{C}$ as follows. Choose a basis x, y of \mathbb{R}^2 and define $\Phi((k, l), z) = z + kx + ly$.

Theorem 1.18. Let G be a group which acts properly discontinuously as a group of isometries on a proper (geodesic) metric space X . Then $G \backslash X$ admits a natural structure of a proper (geodesic) metric space such that the canonical projection $\pi : X \rightarrow G \backslash X$ is distance-non-increasing.

Proof: Let (X, d) be a proper (geodesic) metric space and let G be a group acting properly discontinuously and isometrically on X . Let $\pi : X \rightarrow G \backslash X$ be the canonical projection.

For $x, y \in G \backslash X$ define

$$d(x, y) = \inf\{d(\tilde{x}, \tilde{y}) \mid \tilde{x}, \tilde{y} \in X, \pi\tilde{x} = x, \pi\tilde{y} = y\}.$$

We claim that d is a metric on $G \backslash X$.

We clearly have $d(x, x) = 0$ and $d(x, y) = d(y, x)$ for all x, y . To show positivity we claim first the following. For any $x, y \in G \backslash X$ and any $\tilde{x} \in \pi^{-1}(x) \subset X$ there is some $\tilde{y} \in X$ with $\pi(\tilde{y}) = y$ and $d(x, y) = d(\tilde{x}, \tilde{y})$.

Namely, let $\tilde{x} \in \pi^{-1}(x)$ be arbitrary and let $\hat{y} \in \pi^{-1}(y)$. Assume that $d(\hat{y}, \tilde{x}) = r$. Since the ball $\overline{B(\tilde{x}, r)} \subset X$ is compact, there are only finitely many $g \in G$ such that $g\overline{B(\tilde{x}, r)} \cap \overline{B(\tilde{x}, r)} \neq \emptyset$. However, if $\bar{y} \in \pi^{-1}(y)$ is such that $d(\bar{y}, \tilde{x}) \leq r$ then $\bar{y} = g\hat{y}$ for some $g \in G$ and therefore $g\overline{B(\tilde{x}, r)} \cap \overline{B(\tilde{x}, r)} \neq \emptyset$. As a consequence, there is some $g \in G$ such that $d(g\hat{y}, \tilde{x}) = \min\{d(\tilde{x}, z) \mid z \in \pi^{-1}(y)\}$. Write $\tilde{y} = g\hat{y}$.

Now let $x_0 \in \pi^{-1}x, y_0 \in \pi^{-1}y$ be arbitrary. Then there is some $g \in G$ such that $gx_0 = \tilde{x}$. We have $d(x_0, y_0) = d(gx_0, gy_0) = d(\tilde{x}, gy_0)$ and therefore $d(x_0, y_0) \geq d(\tilde{x}, \tilde{y})$. This shows our above claim.

From our claim, positivity of d on $G \backslash X$ is immediate. To show the triangle inequality, let $x, y, z \in G \backslash X$ and let $\tilde{x} \in \pi^{-1}(x)$. By our above consideration, there is some $\tilde{y} \in \pi^{-1}(y)$ such that $d(\tilde{x}, \tilde{y}) = d(x, y)$. Moreover, there is some $\tilde{z} \in \pi^{-1}(z)$ such that $d(\tilde{y}, \tilde{z}) = d(y, z)$. Then $d(x, z) \leq d(\tilde{x}, \tilde{z}) \leq d(\tilde{x}, \tilde{y}) + d(\tilde{y}, \tilde{z}) = d(x, y) + d(y, z)$ which shows the triangle inequality. As a consequence, our above definition defines a metric on $G \backslash X$ and by construction, the canonical projection $\pi : X \rightarrow G \backslash X$ is distance-non-increasing.

Our above consideration shows moreover the following. If $x \in X$ and if $r > 0$ then $B(\pi x, r) = \pi B(x, r)$. In particular, the topology on $G \backslash X$ induced by this metric is just the quotient topology.

Now if X is a geodesic metric space then any two points in X can be connected by a geodesic γ . If $x, y \in X$ are such that $d(\pi x, \pi y) = d(x, y)$ and if γ is a geodesic connecting x to y then $\pi\gamma$ is a curve connecting πx to πy whose length is not bigger than the length of γ . Since $d(x, y) = \ell(\gamma)$, the curve $\pi\gamma$ is a geodesic connecting πx to πy , \square

Example: $\mathbb{C}/\mathbb{Z}^2 = T$ is a *torus*. Any line segment in \mathbb{C} projects to a piecewise geodesic on T . The torus T is compact.

Definition 1.19. Let X be a topological space. A family \mathcal{W} of paths is called *admissible* (*zulässig*) if the following holds.

- (1) If $\gamma : [a, b] \rightarrow X$ is contained in \mathcal{W} then for every $t \in [a, b]$ the restriction $\gamma|_{[a, t]}$ is contained in \mathcal{W} .
- (2) If $\sigma : [a', b'] \rightarrow [a, b]$ is any homeomorphism the $\gamma \circ \sigma \in \mathcal{W}$ whenever $\gamma \in \mathcal{W}$.

- (3) If $\gamma_1, \gamma_2 \in \mathcal{W}$ then $\gamma_1 * \gamma_2 \in \mathcal{W}$ (whenever this is defined); here $\gamma_1 * \gamma_2$ means concatenation of γ_1 and γ_2 .
- (4) For all $x, y \in X$ there is some $\gamma : [a, b] \rightarrow X$ in \mathcal{W} with $\gamma(a) = x, \gamma(b) = y$.

A *length structure* for X is an admissible family \mathcal{W} of paths on X together with a function $\ell : \mathcal{W} \rightarrow [0, \infty)$ with the following properties.

- (1) $\ell(\gamma) = 0 \iff \gamma$ is constant.
- (2) $\ell(\gamma) = \ell(\gamma \circ \sigma)$ for all σ .
- (3) $\ell(\gamma_1 * \gamma_2) = \ell(\gamma_1) + \ell(\gamma_2)$.

Lemma 1.20. Let ℓ be a length structure on X ; then $d(x, y) = \inf\{\ell(\gamma) \mid \gamma(a) = x, \gamma(b) = y\}$ defines a distance on X if and only if $d(x, y) > 0$ for all $x \neq y \in X$.