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Autor(en): **Busemann**, **Herbert**

Objekttyp: Article

Zeitschrift: Commentarii Mathematici Helvetici

Band (Jahr): 28 (1954)

PDF erstellt am: **20.09.2024**

Persistenter Link: https://doi.org/10.5169/seals-22610

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Motions with Maximal Displacements

by Herbert Busemann, Los Angeles

To Paul Finsler on his sixtieth birthday

This note deals with the surprisingly strong implications of a nearly trivial remark. We consider an abstract Finsler space, that is, a space in which geodesics with the usual geometric properties, apart from differentiability, exist. The exact requirements are found below. The remark is this: If for a motion Φ of a Finsler space a point z exists at which the displacement, or the distance $xx\Phi$ from a point x to its image $x\Phi$ under Φ , attains a maximum which is not too large, then the shortest geodesic arc from z to $z\Phi^2$ passes through $z\Phi$.

Among the facts which we deduce from this observation we mention the following: A closed group of motions of a compact space (without any differentiability conditions) is a Lie group. In a compact space without conjugate points and with an abelian fundamental group no geodesic has multiple points, and the closed geodesics in a given free homotopy class have the same length and cover the space simply.

1. The axioms. Proof of the remark.

The space is assumed to be a G-space, see [1] or [2]. The axioms for a G-space R are:

- I R is metric. The distance of x and y is denoted by xy.
- II R is finitely compact, i. e. the Theorem of Bolzano-Weierstrass holds.
- III R is convex in Menger's sense, see [3]. If we introduce the notation (xyz) to indicate that x, y, z are distinct and xy + yz = xz, the last condition means: if $x \neq z$ then y with (xyz) exists. $S(p, \varrho)$ will denote the set of points x satisfying $px < \varrho$.
- IV Prolongation is locally possible: every point p has a neighborhood $S(p, \varrho_p), \varrho_p > 0$, such that for any two distinct points x, y in $S(p, \varrho_p)$ a point z with (xyz) exists.
- V Prolongation is unique: If (xyz_1) , (xyz_2) and $yz_1 = yz_2$ then $z_1 = z_2$.

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It follows from I, II, III that any two points y, z can be connected by a segment T(y,z), i. e. a curve x(t), $\alpha \leq t \leq \beta = \alpha + yz$ such that $x(\alpha) = y$, $x(\beta) = z$ and $x(t_1)x(t_2) = |t_1 - t_2|$, see [3] or [7, p. 12]. A geodesic is a curve x(t), $-\infty < t < \infty$, with the property that for every real t_0 a positive $\varepsilon(t_0)$ exists such that $x(t_1)x(t_2) = |t_1 - t_2|$ for $|t_i - t_0| \leq \varepsilon(t_0)$ i = 1,2. Axioms I to IV imply the existence of geodesics: a representation x(t), $\alpha \leq t \leq \beta$, $\alpha < \beta$, of a segment can be extended to all real t to represent a geodesic. This extension is unique if V holds.

The function ϱ_p in IV may be erratic but it can be replaced by a continuous function: if $\varrho(p) = \sup \varrho_p$, where ϱ_p satisfies IV at p, then $S(p,\varrho(p))$ also satisfies IV. If $\varrho(p) = \infty$, then for any two distinct points x, y a point z with (xyz) exists. There fore $\varrho(q) = \infty$ for any other point q and if x(t) represents a geodesic, then

$$x(t_1) x(t_2) = |t_1 - t_2|$$

for any t_1 , t_2 . We call a geodesic with this property a *straight line*. Thus for $\varrho(p) = \infty$ all geodesics are straight lines, and the *G*-space is called *straight*. In the terminology of the calculus of variations the straight spaces are the simply connected spaces without conjugate points.

If the space is not straight, then $0 < \rho(p) < \infty$ and

$$|\varrho(p)-\varrho(q)|\leq pq$$
.

For if $\varrho(p) > \varrho(q)$ and $\varrho(p) > pq$ then the triangle inequality yields $S(q, \varrho(p) - pq) \subseteq S(p, \varrho(p))$ hence $\varrho(p) - \varrho(q) \le pq$. The number $\varepsilon(t_0)$ occurring in the definition of a geodesic x(t) may be chosen as $\varrho(x(t_0))$.

Axiom V implies that the segment T(x, y) is unique if a point z with (xyz) exists, see [1, p. 216]. In particular T(x, y) is always unique for $x, y \in S(p, \varrho(p))$.

The following is now an exact formulation of the remark mentioned in the introduction:

(1) If Φ is a motion of the G-space R which is not the identity E and if $zz\Phi = \sup_{z \in P} xx\Phi < \varrho(z)/2$, then $(zz\Phi z\Phi^2)$.\(\frac{1}{2}\)

Proof. Because $zz\Phi < \varrho(z)/2$ there is a point u such that $(zz\Phi u)$ and $zz\Phi = z\Phi u$, briefly $z\Phi$ is a midpoint of z and u. Then $z\Phi^2$ is a midpoint of $z\Phi$ and $u\Phi$ and the only one, because $\varrho(z\Phi) = \varrho(z)$. The relation

$$zz\Phi \geq uu\Phi \geq z\Phi u\Phi - z\Phi u = zu - z\Phi u = zz\Phi$$

¹) It is also true, and has many applications (see [2]), that $0 < z z\Phi = \inf_{x \in R} x x\Phi < \varrho(z)/2$ implies $(zz\Phi z\Phi^2)$.

shows that u is a midpoint of $z\Phi$ and $u\Phi$, hence $u=z\Phi^2$, which proves the assertion.

2. Applications to compact spaces.

In the compact case the following additional statements can be made:

(2) For any motion $\Phi \neq E$ of a compact G-space R a point z of maximal displacement α (i. e. $\alpha = zz\Phi = \sup_{x \in R} xx\Phi$) exists. If k is the first integer for which $k \alpha \geq \varrho(z)/2$, then $zz\Phi^k = k\alpha$. If k > 1 then a geodesic x(t) exists such that $x(i\alpha) = z\Phi^i$, $i = 0, \pm 1, \pm 2, \ldots$ and x(t) represents a segment for $i\alpha \leq t \leq (i+k)\alpha$.

Proof. The existence of z is obvious and for k=1 there is nothing to prove. If k>1 then $k\alpha<\varrho(z)$ and with $z_i=z\varPhi^i$ it follows from (1) that (zz_1z_2) , hence $(z_{i-1}z_iz_{i+1})$ for all i. Since $\varrho(z_i)=\varrho(z)$ the segment $T(z_{i-1},z_{i+1})$ is unique and passes through z_i . The existence of x(t) follows, and x(t) represents a segment for $i\alpha \leq t \leq (i+k)\alpha$ because $k\alpha<\varrho(z_i)$. In particular $x(0)x(k\alpha)=zz\varPhi^k=k\alpha$.

We use the standard metric $\delta(\Phi, \Psi) = \sup_{x \in R} x \Phi x \Psi$ for motions Φ, Ψ of a compact space. Sinde $\varrho(x)$ is continuous and positive it has on a compact space R a positive minimum $\varrho(R)$. An immediate consequence of (2) is

(3) A non-trivial group of motions of a compact G-space R has at least diameter $\varrho(R)/2$.

"Non-trivial" means that the group contains at least one motion $\Phi \neq E$, and (2) implies that $\delta(E, \Phi^k) \geq \varrho(z)/2 \geq \varrho(R)/2$ for a suitable positive k. Well known theorems on topological groups yield the further result:

(4) **Theorem.** A closed group of motions of a compact G-space R is a Lie group. If the group Γ of all motions which R possesses is transitive on R, then R is a topological manifold and dim $\Gamma \leq \dim R$ (dim R+1)/2.

The first statement follows from [4, Theorem 53] and the second from [5, Corollary 3', Theorem 9 and Theorem 12]. In spite of the recent result of Gleason it is an open question whether (4) extends to non-compact spaces, since no analogue to (3) is known, even when $\inf \varrho(x) > 0$.

The rotations about the z-axis of the surface $z = (x^2 + y^2)^{-1/2}$ in E^3 , with the length of the shortest connection on the surface as distance, show that a one-parameter group of motions of a non-compact G-space

may not have any orbits which are geodesics. (1) and (2) imply the existence of such orbits on compact G-spaces:

(5) **Theorem.** A one-parameter group of motions of a compact G-space possesses an orbit which is a geodesic.

We assume that the one-parameter group is given in the form $\Phi(s)$ with $\Phi(s_1)\Phi(s_2) = \Phi(s_1 + s_2)$, and prove that a geodesic x(t) and a positive α exist such that $x(t) = x(0)\Phi(\alpha t)$.

Choose $\varepsilon > 0$ such that $\delta(E, \Phi(s)) < \varrho(R)/2$ for $|s| < \varepsilon$. Let $0 < u < \varepsilon$. By (2) there are points z and z' of maximal displacement under $\Phi(u)$ and $\Phi(u/2)$ respectively. Then the choice of ε and (1) imply

$$z'z'\Phi(u) = 2z'z'\Phi(u/2) \ge 2zz\Phi(u/2)$$

= $zz\Phi(u/2) + z\Phi(u/2)z\Phi(u) \ge zz\Phi(u) \ge z'z'\Phi(u)$.

Hence z is also a point of maximal displacement for $\Phi(u/2)$ and generally for $\Phi(2^{-n}u)$. Moreover $(zz\Phi(u/2)z\Phi(u))$ and generally

$$(zz\Phi(2^{-n-1}u)z\Phi(2^{-n}u))$$
.

If x(t) is the geodesic with x(0) = z which represents for

$$0 \le t \le zz\Phi(u) = \beta$$

the (unique) segment $T(z, z\Phi(u))$ then (2) yields

$$x(i\ 2^{-n}\beta)=z\Phi(i\ 2^{-n}u)$$

for all i and non-negative n. A trivial continuity argument shows that $x(\beta t) = z\Phi(ut)$ or $x(t) = x(0)\Phi(\alpha t)$ for all t, where $\alpha = u/\beta$.

3. Compact spaces without conjugate points and abelian fundamental groups.

For a G-space R' which satisfies the usual differentiability hypotheses of the calculus of variations the absence of conjugate points means that the universal covering space R of R' is straight.

The relation of the theorem mentioned in the introduction to motions with maximal displacements comes from:

(6) Theorem. If R is straight and Φ is a motion of R for which a point z with $0 < zz\Phi = \sup_{x \in R} xx\Phi$ exists, then $xx\Phi$ is independent of x. The points $x\Phi^i$, $i = 0, \pm 1, \pm 2, \ldots$ lie for each x on a straight line \mathfrak{g}_x . For it follows from (1) that the points $z_i = z\Phi^i$ satisfy

$$(z_{i-1}z_iz_{i+1})$$

hence lie on a straight line \mathfrak{g}_z . If x is any other point of R and $x_i = x\Phi^i$ then

$$n \cdot zz\Phi = zz_n \le zx + \sum_{i=1}^n x_{i-1}x_i + x_nz_n = 2zx + n \cdot xx\Phi$$

or $x x \Phi \ge z z \Phi - 2z x/n$. Since *n* is arbitrary $x x \Phi \ge z z \Phi$, hence $x x \Phi = z z \Phi$.

Thus every point x of R is a point of "maximal" displacement for Φ , therefore (1) shows that the points x_i lie on a line \mathfrak{g}_x .

Clearly for any two points x, y either $\mathfrak{g}_x = \mathfrak{g}_y$ or $\mathfrak{g}_x \cap \mathfrak{g}_y = 0$, since $u \in \mathfrak{g}_x \cap \mathfrak{g}_y$ implies $u \Phi^i \in \mathfrak{g}_x \cap \mathfrak{g}_y$ hence $\mathfrak{g}_x = \mathfrak{g}_y$.

Let the universal covering space R of the G-space R' be straight. There is a wellknown correspondence between the classes of conjugate elements in the fundamental group \mathfrak{F} of R' and the classes of freely homotopic curves in R', see for instance [8, § 49]. If, as in [1], \mathfrak{F} is realized as the group of motions of R which lie over the identity of R' then the closed geodesics in a free homotopy class K_{Φ} determined by a motion $\Phi \neq E$ in \mathfrak{F} correspond to the straight lines in R which are taken into themselves by Φ , the so-called axes of Φ , see [2]. If x lies on an axis of Φ then $xx\Phi$ is the length of the corresponding geodesic.

If $\Phi \neq E$ possesses a point of maximal displacement then we conclude from (6) that every point x' of R' lies on a closed geodesic of length $xx\Phi$ in K_{Φ} and that two such geodesics do not intersect. It is now easy to prove:

(7) **Theorem.** Let R' be a compact G-space with an abelian fundamental group and a straight universal covering space R. Then the closed geodesics in any (non-trivial) free homotopy class of R' have the same length and cover R' simply. No geodesic in R' has multiple points.

For let Φ be any motion in the fundamental group \mathfrak{F} of R' different from the identity (such motions exist because R is non-compact, hence different from R'). There is a compact subset C of R such that

$$\cup \mathit{C} \Phi_{\nu} = \mathit{R} \ ,$$

where Φ_{ν} traverses \mathfrak{F} , see [2, p. 267]. The Function $yy\Phi$ attains on C a maximum at some point $z \in C$. If x is an arbitrary point of R then a $\Phi_{\nu} \in \mathfrak{F}$ exists such that $y = x\Phi_{\nu} \in C$. Because \mathfrak{F} is abelian

$$x x \Phi = x \Phi_{\nu} x \Phi \Phi_{\nu} = x \Phi_{\nu} x \Phi_{\nu} \Phi = y y \Phi \le z z \Phi$$
,

so that $zz\Phi = \sup_{x \in \mathcal{R}} xx\Phi$.

The preceding discussion shows that the closed geodesics in K_{ϕ} all have length $xx\Phi$ and cover R' simply. K_{ϕ} is, owing to the arbitrariness of Φ , an arbitrary non-trivial free homotopy class in R'.

There can be no geodesic monogon with a proper vertex x'. For such a monogon would lie in some free homotopy class K_{φ} , not trivial because R is straight. If x lies over x' then the points $x\Phi^i$ would not lie on a straight line. The absence of proper monogons means that the geodesics in R' have no multiple points.

Theorem (7) brings a result of E. Hopf [6] to mind, namely that a two-dimensional torus T' with a Riemannian metric is euclidean, if its universal covering plane T is straight. In that case (7) is therefore trivial. However, when the condition that the metric be Riemannian is omitted, then T' possesses a great number of essentially different metrizations for which T is straight. The geodesics in T need not satisfy Desargues' Theorem, but they always satisfy the parallel axiom.

4. A characterization of Minkowskian geometry.

The translations of the euclidean space are obvious exemples für (6). When there are enough motions satisfying (6) these motions are necessarily ordinary translations:

(8) **Theorem.** If a straight space possesses a transitive group of motions such that for each motion Φ in Γ a point exists whose displacement unter Φ is maximal, then R is Minkowskian and Γ the group of translations of R.

We deduce from (6) that $xx\Phi$ is constant for each Φ in Γ . Hence no motion $\Phi \neq E$ in Γ has fixed points and Γ is simply transitive on R, see [7, p. 220]. The motion in Γ that takes a into b may therefore be denoted by $(a \to b)$. Because of (6) the line $\mathfrak{g}(a, b)$ through a and b, $a \neq b$, is an axis of $(a \to b)$. The proof of (8) consists of several steps the first of which is:

(a) R satisfies the parallel axiom, for the terminology see [7].

To see this let x(t) be any geodesic and y a point not on x(t). Since x(t) is an axis of $\Phi = (x(0) \to x(1))$ it suffices to show that g(y, x(t)) tends for $t \to \infty$ or $t \to -\infty$ to the axis g_y of Φ through y. For the statement that the line g_y is an axis of the same motion Φ as g_x , is symmetric and transitive, hence the statement that g_y is parallel to g_x also has these properties.

Let y(t) represent the axis of Φ through y with y(0) = y and $y\Phi = y(1)$. The limit sphere $\Lambda(y, \mathfrak{r})$ through y to \mathfrak{r} (see [1, p. 240] or

[7, p. 98]), where r is the ray $t \ge 0$ of x(t), intersects x(t) in a point $x(t_0)$ and $x(t_0)\Phi = x(t_0 + 1)$. Moreover $\Lambda(y\Phi, r) = \Lambda(y, r)\Phi = \Lambda(x(t_0 + 1), r)$. The asymptote a to r through y intersects $\Lambda(y\Phi, r)$ in the unique foot f of y on $\Lambda(y\Phi, r)$. But, see [1, p. 242],

$$1 = x(t_0)x(t_0 + 1) = yf \le yy\Phi = 1$$
,

hence $y\Phi$ is also a foot of y on $\Lambda(y\Phi, \mathbf{r})$, so that $y\Phi = f$ and $\mathfrak{a} = \mathfrak{g}_y$, which proves (a).

We show next

(b) If y(t), $t \ge 0$ represents a ray \mathfrak{s} and \mathfrak{g} is a straight line through y = y(0) not containing \mathfrak{s} then $y(t)\mathfrak{g} \to \infty$ for $t \to \infty$.

For an indirect proof assume the existence of a sequence t_n with $x(t_n)g < M$. If f_n is a foot of $x(t_n)$ on g, then $f_n \neq y$ for large n, and $q_n = x(t_n)(f_n \to y)$ has y as foot on g. Because $q_n y = x(t_n)f_n < M$ there is a subsequence $\{v\}$ of $\{n\}$ for which q_v tends to a point q. (qy > 0 because of [1, Theorem (11.14)]).

The line $g(x(t_{\nu}), q_{\nu})$ is an axis of $(f_{\nu} \to y)$, hence parallel to g. It tends therefore to the parallel g' to g through q. On the other hand, the line $g(q_{\nu}, x(t_{\nu}))$ tends also to the parallel through q to the line \mathfrak{h} carrying \mathfrak{s} (see the definition of co-ray in [1]). Since parallelism is symmetric, it would follow that \mathfrak{g} and \mathfrak{h} are parallel to \mathfrak{g}' , which is impossible because \mathfrak{g} and \mathfrak{h} intersect.

(c) x_1g_2 and x_2g_1 are bounded for $x_i \in g_i$ if and only if g_1 and g_2 are parallel.

If g_1 and g_2 are parallel then the fact that they are axes of the same motion in Φ shows that x_1g_2 and x_2g_1 are bounded. The converse follows from (b), for a proof see [2, p. 278].

(d) Γ is abelian.

If Φ and Ψ are two non-trivial motions in Γ , select an arbitrary point z. If the axes of Φ and Ψ through z coincide, it is easily seen that Φ and Ψ commute (this case can also be deduced by a limit process from the general case). We assume therefore that z, $p=z\Phi$ and $q=z\Psi$ are not collinear. Put $\mathfrak{g}(z,p)=\mathfrak{g}$, $\mathfrak{g}(z,q)=\mathfrak{h}$ and $\mathfrak{h}'=\mathfrak{h}\Phi$. Then $y'=y\Phi\in\mathfrak{h}'$ for $y\in\mathfrak{h}$. The relation yy'=zp shows that $y'\mathfrak{h}$ and $y\mathfrak{h}'$ are bounded, by (c) the lines \mathfrak{h} and \mathfrak{h}' are parallel. Therefore \mathfrak{h}' is an axis of Ψ , so that $p\Psi$ is a point u of \mathfrak{h}' with zq=pu. On the other hand $zq=z\Phi q\Phi=pq\Phi$, hence $q\Phi=u$. Therefore $\Phi=(q\to u)$, $\Psi=(p\to u)$ and

$$\Phi \Psi = (z \to p)(p \to u) = (z \to u) = (z \to q)(q \to u) = \Psi \Phi.$$

It now follows readily from a wellknown result of Pontrjagin, see [4, p. 170], that the space is a finite dimensional Minkowski space. A simple proof which does not use the theory of topological groups is found n [7, pp. 229-231].

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(Received October 31, 1953.)